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REVIEW ARTICLE

Current understanding of the *Diaporthe/Phomopsis* complex causing soybean stem canker: A focus on molecular aspects of the interaction

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Abstract

Soybean stem canker (SSC) is an important disease caused by different *Diaporthe* spp., including *D. aspalathi*, *D. caulivora* and *D. longicolla*, that leads to soybean (*Glycine max*) yield losses around the world. Most studies have been focused on the morphological characterization and molecular identification of *Diaporthe* spp. present in SSC lesions. Several soybean resistance loci to *Diaporthe* spp. causing SSC have been identified, although the molecular identities of the resistance genes are at present unknown. In this review, we summarize the current knowledge on SSC disease, the molecular characterization of *Diaporthe* spp. and their evolutionary relationships. We highlight how recent genomic and transcriptomic information is allowing significant progress in our understanding of the molecular components and mechanisms underlying *Diaporthe* infection strategies as well as soybean disease resistance. The information generated, combined with available resources enabling functional genomics, will contribute to the development of breeding strategies for disease resistance, leading to a more sustainable agriculture.

KEYWORDS

disease symptoms, genomes, pathogenesis, plant disease, resistance genes, soybean stem canker

1 | INTRODUCTION

Diaporthe/Phomopsis complex includes agriculturally important plant pathogens, endophytes and saprophytes with a wide range of plant hosts in tropical and temperate regions (Cao et al., 2022). The most studied *Diaporthe* spp. are those associated with soybean (Santos et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 1998), sunflower (Thompson et al., 2011), citrus (Udayanga et al., 2014), grapes (Baumgartner et al., 2013; van Niekerk et al., 2005), sweet potato (Huang et al., 2021) and blueberry (Hilário et al., 2021).

Soybean (*Glycine max*) is cultivated in more than 100 countries around the world, principally in Brazil, the United States, Argentina and India (FAOSTAT, 2023). Fungal *Diaporthe* spp. cause significant yield losses in soybean worldwide, leading to pod and stem blight, seed decay and stem canker (Backman et al., 1985; Fernández et al., 1999). Diaporthe sojae is the causal agent of pod and stem blight, while *D. longicolla* (syn. *Phomopsis longicolla*) is the primary agent of Phomopsis seed decay (PSD; Fernández & Hanlin, 1996; Sinclair, 1999). Soybean stem canker (SSC) is caused by *D. aspalathi* (syn. *D. phaseolorum* var. *meridionalis*) and *D. cauliv*ora (syn. *D. phaseolorum* var. *caulivora*) (Fernández et al., 1999; Pioli et al., 2003). Recently, *D. longicolla* has been associated with stem canker lesions, and inoculation assays performed under field and laboratory conditions confirmed that this species causes SSC (Gebreil et al., 2015; Ghimire et al., 2019; Mathew, Castlebury, et al., 2015; Mena et al., 2020; Olson et al., 2015). Field losses due to SSC can reach levels of 80%–100% (Backman et al., 1985; Krausz & Fortnum, 1983). Therefore, susceptible cultivars have been replaced with less susceptible or resistant cultivars carrying loci that significantly lower SSC incidence (Lin et al., 2022; Ploetz 2 WILEY- Plant Pathology Meredia and Andrews

& Shokes, 1985). Several loci responsible for resistance to D. aspalathi and D. longicolla have been identified and incorporated in breeding programmes (Lin et al., 2022; Maldonado dos Santos et al., 2019). Nevertheless, selection pressure given by the incorporation of soybean resistance loci to D. aspalathi has promoted the expansion of SSC caused by D. caulivora in different countries (Abdelmagid et al., 2019; Pioli et al., 2002).

Most studies on SSC have focused on morphological characteristics and molecular identification of Diaporthe spp. present in canker lesions of infected plants in different countries (Ghimire et al., 2019; Mathew, Castlebury, et al., 2015; Mena et al., 2020). However, less information is available on the molecular mechanisms involved in soybean-Diaporthe interactions. This review provides an overview of the recent findings in Diaporthe species causing SSC and highlights how recent genomic- and transcriptomic-based research has allowed the identification of putative pathogenicity genes and plant defence strategies leading to plant resistance. This information could stimulate the development of novel diagnostics and control methods, leading to improvements of resistance-breeding programmes.

2 THE PATHOGENS

2.1 | History of distribution

SSC was first reported in Iowa, United States, in the 1940s, where the disease was caused by D. phaseolorum var. batatatis (Crall, 1950; Welch & Gilman, 1948). D. phaseolorum var. batatatis was renamed as D. phaseolorum var. caulivora (Athow & Caldwell, 1954). After this first report, SSC was detected in the 1970s in the southern states of the United States (Mississippi and Alabama) (Backman et al., 1981; Keeling, 1982), and by 1984, the disease had spread to all southern soybean-producing areas (Snow et al., 1984), where it became an emerging disease problem in the United States (Backman et al., 1985). The name D. phaseolorum f. sp. meridionalis was proposed for the causal organism of stem canker in the South (Morgan-Jones, 1989), and later, it was renamed to D. aspalathi (van Rensburg et al., 2006). Pathogenicity tests allow distinction among isolates with different aggressiveness, and temperature preferences differentiate between D. aspalathi causing stem canker in the southern United States and D. caulivora causing stem canker in the northern United States (Keeling, 1982, 1985, 1988; Morgan-Jones, 1989). D. caulivora prefers cooler temperatures of 20-25°C, while D. aspalathi and D. longicolla prefer warmer temperatures of 25-30°C (Keeling, 1988; Mengistu et al., 2009).

Isolates of Diaporthe/Phomopsis species causing SSC have also been found in other countries, including Canada (Abdelmagid et al., 2019; Hildebrand, 1956), Australia (Stovold & Francis, 1987), Ghana (Asante et al., 1998), China (Chen et al., 2020; Cui et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2022), Korea (Oh, 1998; Sun et al., 2012), Croatia (Santos et al., 2011; Vratarić et al., 1998), and France, Italy and Spain (Bertolini & Tanzi, 1987; EPPO, 2021; Hilário et al., 2021; Hissek et al., 2017).

In South America, the main soybean-producing countries are Brazil, Argentina, Paraguay, Bolivia and Uruguay. Last year soybean production reached 196,866,713 tonnes in the region (FAOSTAT, 2023). The first reports of SSC caused by D. aspalathi in South America were in 1989, 1992, 1994 and 1997 in Brazil, Paraguay, Bolivia and Argentina, respectively (Costamilan et al., 2008; Jaccoud-Filho et al., 1997; Pioli et al., 2001; Sato et al., 1993). The presence of D. caulivora in soybean fields was described for the first time in Argentina in 1999, in Brazil in 2006 and in Uruguay in 2015 (Costamilan et al., 2008; Pioli et al., 2001; Stewart, 2015). The disease caused by D. caulivora spread throughout the productive area of Argentina, where it coexists with D. aspalathi (Pioli et al., 2002). Stem canker expansion produced yield losses close to 100% in some fields of Brazil and Argentina (Grijalba & Ridao, 2012; Yorinori, 1996). Recently, SSC, mainly caused by D. caulivora, has been one of the most destructive soybean diseases in South America, with a prevalence of 50%, 61% and 83% in Paraguay, Argentina and Uruguay, respectively (Sánchez et al., 2015; Stewart, 2015; Wrather et al., 1997). The presence of D. caulivora isolates in a high proportion of SSC lesions is probably due to the use of resistant soybean genotypes carrying resistance genes effective for D. aspalathi but not for D. caulivora (Peruzzo et al., 2019; Pioli et al., 2003; Stewart, 2015). A third Diaporthe species recovered at high frequencies from SSC lesions in different countries was D. longicolla (Harrington et al., 2000; Lu et al., 2010; Sinclair, 1999; Xue et al., 2007). D. longicolla isolates were able to produce infection and SSC lesions in susceptible soybean plants (Ghimire et al., 2019; Mena et al., 2020). In addition to D. caulivora and D. longicolla, isolates of D. miriciae (syn. D. ueckerae) were obtained from symptomatic soybean plants with stem canker in Uruguay, each representing 42%, 37% and 15%, respectively, of the total Diaporthe isolates (Mena et al., 2020). D. gulyae and D. miriciae were also detected in SSC symptomatic soybean plants in North Dakota, United States, and in Meta, Colombia (López-Cardona et al., 2021; Mathew et al., 2018). Recently, D. cucurbitae was recovered from symptomatic canker lesions of soybean plants in Minnesota, United States, and for the first time it was confirmed to be an SSC-causing pathogen (Floyd & Malvick, 2022). These findings indicate that other Diaporthe spp., in addition to D. caulivora, D. aspalathi and D. longicolla, infect soybean and produce SSC symptoms.

2.2 Taxonomy and molecular characterization of **Diaporthe species**

Diaporthe spp. belong to the phylum Ascomycota of the fungal kingdom, class Sordariomycetes, subclass Sordariomycetidae, order Diaporthales, family Diaporthaceae. Diaporthe genus was established as Diaporthaceae by Fuckel (1867) and Nitschke (1870), and Phomopsis (Sacc.) Bubák (1905) was introduced as the asexual morph (Species Fungorum Plus [https://www.gbif.org/es/speci es/2566075]). The family Diaporthaceae was established by von Höhnel (1917) and was accommodated in the order Diaporthales, which includes 12 families with about 50 genera (Rossman et al., 2015).

The Diaphorthe/Phomopsis complex includes hemibiotrophic fungi with two phases: the imperfect, asexual or anamorphic P. phaseoli, and the perfect, sexual or teleomorphic D. phaseolorum (Santos et al., 2011). Currently, more than 1100 epithets for Diaporthe and 900 for Phomopsis are listed in the Index Fungorum database (http://www.indexfungorum.org/), with names often based on host association. In addition, 1260 and 1050 Diaporthe and Phomopsis spp., respectively, are listed in the Mycobank database (http://www. mycobank.org/). However, some of these isolates represent the same or synonymous species with a sexual and an asexual morph. In order to assign only one name for each fungus, Diaporthe is recommended over Phomopsis (Rossman et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2021).

Growth characteristics of D. aspalathi, D. caulivora and D. longicolla mycelia in culture media are similar and some differences in morphological characteristics of their reproductive structures (perithecia and ascospores) have been observed (Figure 1). On potato dextrose agar (PDA), colonies of the three pathogens are white with occasional yellow-brown areas (Figure 1a). On the reverse side of PDA plates, the colonies have different pigmentation in striate zones. The Diaporthe genus is characterized by immersed ascomata with perithecia that appear singly or clustered in groups (Gomes et al., 2013; Mena et al., 2020). On PDA, D. aspalathi perithecia have dark globose bases, while D. longicolla perithecia are black with three or more protruding

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beaks, and D. caulivora has perithecia with thin beaks that are dispersed singly or in groups of two or three (Figure 1b). Ascospores of the three Diaporthe spp. are translucent, ellipsoidal to fusoid, medianly septated and biguttulate (Gomes et al., 2013; Mena et al., 2020; Udayanga et al., 2011) (Figure 1c). Ascospores may have different lengths and widths within and between species, and differences according to the regions of collection also exist (Brumer et al., 2018). Some authors refer to the production of conidiomata and absence of pycnidia in D. caulivora grown on PDA plates (Athow & Caldwell, 1954; Pioli et al., 2003; Santos et al., 2011). However, the presence of alpha-conidia in soybean tissues or in culture medium containing soybean stems has been observed for some D. caulivora isolates (Brumer et al., 2018; Fernández et al., 1999; Mena et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2012). Moreover, D. longicolla isolates differ from D. aspalathi and D. caulivora in having larger pycnidia, and longer conidiophores with alpha- and beta-conidia (Olson et al., 2015; Santos et al., 2011; Vidić et al., 2013). Some isolates of D. longicolla only produce alpha-conidia, while beta-conidia are absent (Hosseini et al., 2020). Alpha- and beta-conidia of Diaporthe spp. can be distinguished by their form and size; alpha-conidia are one-celled, biguttulate, ellipsoidal to oval, subcylindrical, fusiform, hyaline and pointed at both ends, while beta-conidia are single-celled, aseptate, filiform, curved at one end, eguttate and hyaline (Hosseini et al., 2020; Nishmitha et al., 2022). In D. caulivora and D. longicolla, sizes range from 1.3 to 4.0×3.7 to 8.5μ m for alpha-conidia and from 1.3 to 1.9×9.3 to 31.6 µm for beta-conidia (Hosseini et al., 2020; Nishmitha et al., 2022; Rupe, 2015).



FIGURE 1 Morphology of Diaporthe pathogens causing soybean stem canker. (a) Cultures of Diaporthe aspalathi (isolate Dpm1), D. caulivora (isolate D57) and D. longicolla (isolate D43.1) showing different morphological characteristics grown on potato dextrose agar (PDA) for 7 days. Scale bars: 10 mm. (b) Perithecia structures of D. aspalathi, D. caulivora and D. longicolla on PDA. Scale bars: 10 mm. (c) Ascospores of D. aspalathi, D. caulivora and D. longicolla. Scale bars: 10µm.

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The use of morphological and developmental criteria or symptom development for Diaporthe taxonomy is not recommended due to variability among morphological traits (Gomes et al., 2013; Pioli et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 1998). Furthermore, SSC symptoms caused by the different Diaporthe spp. can be easily confused (Lu et al., 2010). Therefore, during the last few years, molecular markers have been developed to distinguish between Diaporthe spp. PCR-restriction fragment length polymorphisms (PCR-RFLP) allow differentiation between D. aspalathi, D. caulivora and D. longicolla according to the number and size of DNA fragments, using a combination of restriction enzymes after rDNA internal transcribed spacer (ITS) amplification (Brumer et al., 2018; Moleleki et al., 2002; Stewart, 2015). Likewise, the use of molecular analysis supported with DNA sequencing data, including multilocus phylogeny with rDNA ITS region, elongation factor $1-\alpha$ (EF1- α), β -tubulin, actin and calmodulin genes, results in a reliable method to distinguish between closely related Diaporthe isolates (Mathew, Alananbeh, et al., 2015; Mena et al., 2020; Santos et al., 2011; Udayanga et al., 2014).

2.3 Comparative genomics of Diaporthe species

At present, 31 Diaporthe spp. genomes have been sequenced, annotated and deposited in NCBI (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genom e/?term=diaporthe), including five genomes of Diaporthe spp. capable of causing SSC. The first two genome sequences of D. longicolla were published in 2015 for isolates MSPL 10-6 and TWH P74, both obtained from soybean seeds in the United States (Li, Darwish, et al., 2015; Li, Song, et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017). These genome drafts were generated using Illumina short sequencing reads technologies and assembled into 985 scaffolds with a total size of 64.7 Mb for isolate TWH P74 (Li, Song, et al., 2015) and into 108 scaffolds and a total size of 66.7 Mb for isolate MSPL10-6 (Li, Darwish, et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017). The third D. longicolla genome sequence was published in 2021 for isolate YC2-1, which was obtained from a soybean stem with stem blight symptoms (Zhao et al., 2021). This genome sequence was obtained using Illumina and PacBio long sequencing technology that allows a more accurate assembly of genomic sequences. The YC2-1 genome has an estimated size of 63.1 Mb assembled into 87 scaffolds. Currently, only one genome of D. aspalathi has been sequenced (isolate MS-SSC91), which was obtained from soybean stems in the United States and sequenced using Illumina (Li et al., 2016). The MS-SSC91 genome assembly size was estimated as 55.0 Mb assembled into 1871 scaffolds. D. caulivora genomes were published more recently, in 2022 and 2023. D. caulivora isolate D57 was obtained from soybean stems with SSC symptoms in Uruguay fields, and the genome was sequenced with Pacbio, assembled into 10 scaffolds with a total size of 57.8 Mb (Mena et al., 2022). The second D. caulivora genome sequence was from the Russian Far Eastern isolate VNIIKR SE Dcaul3, obtained from soybean stems with SCC symptoms, sequenced with Illumina and assembled into 84 scaffolds with a genome size of 55.8 Mb (Muterko et al., 2023).

Comparison of the currently available genome data of these SSCcausing pathogens and other annotated Diaporthe genomes allows the elucidation of their biological and evolutionary relationships. Genomic evolution between Diaporthe spp. was evaluated by synteny that defines a common order of homologous genes in chromosome regions of different genomes. High syntenic similarity was observed in D. caulivora D57, D. capsici, D. citri, D. destruens and D. phragmitis genomes, indicating their close genetic relationship as shown by the conserved organization of their genomes (Mena et al., 2022). When D. caulivora VNIIKR SE Dcaul3 genome was compared with 14 other plant-pathogenic Diaporthe spp. genomes, the highest similarity in large-scale genome organization was with D. aspalathi (Muterko et al., 2023). However, the evolution of the Diaporthe genus is likely to be host-independent because both D. caulivora and D. longicolla infect soybean but exhibit long phylogenetic and genomic distance and differ significantly in genome organization, including distribution of interspersed repeats (transposable genomic elements), and GC content (Muterko et al., 2023). Consistently, a multigene phylogeny for these Diaporthe spp., based on 20,000 polymorphic sites of more than 100 orthologous genes, has indicated that D. caulivora is closely related to D. aspalathi, while D. longicolla groups with other Diaporthe spp. that infect other hosts (Muterko et al., 2023).

The number of predicted genes is 15,738, 16,279 and 16,597 in D. longicolla, 14,962 in D. aspalathi, and 15,666 and 18,385 in D. caulivora (Li, Darwish, et al., 2015; Li, Song, et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016; Mena et al., 2022; Muterko et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2021). Differences in the number of predicted genes for different isolates of a single species could be due to the bioinformatics algorithms used. When applying the same algorithm and parameters in the Augustus web server, the number of predicted genes for *D*, caulivora isolate D57 and VNIIKR SE Dcaul3 had similar results (Muterko et al., 2023). In D. longicolla MSPL10-6 and D. caulivora D57, 9.64% and 9.72% of the predicted genes did not significantly match any known genes (Li et al., 2017; Mena et al., 2022) and could be considered species-specific genes. Moreover, the 15 plant-pathogenic Diaporthe spp. studied by Muterko et al. (2023) shared 6348 proteins (core proteins), while 502 proteins were shared between D. caulivora and D. aspalathi exclusively, and only four were present in the three soybean pathogens (D. caulivora, D. aspalathi and D. longicolla). These findings suggest that host adaptation and colonization strategies probably depend on core proteins rather than on species-specific proteins. Genome sequencing of new Diaporthe pathogens, together with comparative genomics, will provide new insights into the evolution of common and species-specific virulence factors among Diaporthe spp.

Molecular basis of pathogenicity 2.4

Similar to many other pathogenic fungi, Diaporthe spp. capable of causing SSC rely on plant cell wall-degrading enzymes (PCWDEs), as well as enzymes involved in toxin production and secondary metabolites to infect the host plant and produce disease (Mena et al., 2022). A large number of fungal proteins involved in pathogenesis are predicted to be secreted, and probably play important roles in degrading plant cell walls, causing plant cell death and degrading or interfering with antifungal activities of plant metabolites (Mena et al., 2022). Across D. longicolla TWH P74, D. caulivora D57 and D. caulivora VNIIKR SE Dcaul3, the predicted number of secreted proteins ranges from 1501 to 1695 (Li et al., 2017; Mena et al., 2022; Muterko et al., 2023). Among the secreted proteins of these Diaporthe spp., 30%-50% were carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes), including glycoside hydrolases, glycosyltransferases, polysaccharide lyases and carbohydrate esterases, demonstrating the importance of efficiently degrading polysaccharides from the plant cell walls (Li et al., 2017; Mena et al., 2022; Muterko et al., 2023). A similar number of CAZymes were present in other plant-pathogenic Diaporthe spp. (Mena et al., 2022). Other proteins involved in D. caulivora pathogenesis include necrosis- and ethylene-inducing proteins (NEP), oxidoreductases, proteases and proteins involved in detoxification and transport of toxic compounds (Mena et al., 2022). Moreover, the identification of interacting proteins in the D. longicolla interactome highlights pathogenicity networks that comprise PCWDEs, glycoside hydrolases, cysteine-rich secretory proteins, cytochrome P450 domain-containing proteins, MAP kinases and transcription factors, which play important functions during pathogenesis in other fungi (Li et al., 2018). Comparative genomics between D. caulivora, D. longicolla, D. capsici, D. citri, D. destruens and D. phragmitis revealed a core secretome of 439 proteins present in all of these Diaporthe spp., including virulence factors such as PCWDEs, proteases, peptidases, lipases and peroxidases (Mena et al., 2022). Most of these secreted proteins are also present in other fungi and only 46 proteins were Diaporthe-specific, most of which have unknown functions. Moreover, 27 D. caulivora-specific secreted proteins were identified that have no hit with any other sequenced organisms. This emphasizes the need to perform functional studies to determine the role of these proteins during pathogenesis and plant colonization.

Effectors are virulence factors that are secreted by fungal pathogens to manipulate host cells, facilitate infection and interfere with host immunity (Toruño et al., 2016). By analysing the genome of D. caulivora D57, 133 putative candidate effectors were identified, including polysaccharide lyases, glycoside hydrolases, a pathogenesis-related protein, a hypersensitive response-inducing protein, peptidases, carbohydrate esterase and several hypothetical proteins (Mena et al., 2022). D. caulivora shared a high proportion of these candidate effectors with D. longicolla, D. capsici, D. citri, D. destruens and D. phragmitis, and nine of them were core effectors present in all Diaporthe spp., including a pectate lyase, a polysaccharide lyase, a 1,4-β-D-glucan cellobiohydrolase, a xylanase, a CAP22 protein and four hypothetical proteins (Table 1). The presence of core effector protein orthologues in other plant pathogens suggests that they may be involved in conserved processes vital for infection and colonization, and future research will provide more comprehensive clues of their molecular function in virulence.

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Transcriptional profiling of D. caulivora D57 during soybean infection revealed that a high proportion of the upregulated genes (106 genes; 43%) correspond to genes encoding the core secretome, and several of them are represented in the pathogen-host interaction (PHI) database, which is consistent with their potential roles in pathogenic strategies (Mena et al., 2022). These include CFEM (Common in Fungal Extracellular Membrane) domain-containing proteins, NEPs, metalloproteases and acetylxylan esterases, which orchestrate the early stages of pathogen colonization (Mena et al., 2022). Increased expression of genes encoding subtilisin-like proteinases, aspartic proteinases and several proteases during D. caulivora-infected soybean suggests their possible involvement in degradation of plant defence proteins. Interestingly, some of these genes are present in the Diaporthe core secretome (Mena et al., 2022), suggesting that fungal proteases are important pathogenicity factors in Diaporthe spp. Additionally, expression patterns of upregulated genes and gene ontology enrichment analysis revealed that host infection strategies of D. caulivora depends on plant cell wall degradation and modification, detoxification of compounds, transporter activities and toxin production (Mena et al., 2022). However, functional analysis of pathogenesis-related Diaporthe proteins are needed as currently only two mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) have been experimentally validated in D. longicolla, where knockout mutants displayed reduced virulence (Zhang et al., 2023). Further efforts on genomic and transcriptomic studies of Diaporthe pathogens will provide insights into fungal infection mechanism and colonization processes of soybean stems.

Polyketides constitute the main structural type of secondary metabolites in the Diaporthe/Phomopsis complex (Xu et al., 2021). Some of these polyketides have antifungal or antibacterial activities (Niaz et al., 2020; Silva et al., 2006). D. helianthi produces the polyketidic phytotoxin phomozin that caused SSC symptoms on leaves, and polyketide synthase (PKS) mutants exhibit reduced virulence during sunflower infection (Ruocco et al., 2018). In addition, 11 genes encoding PKS involved in toxin production in other fungi were induced during soybean infection with D. caulivora, which is consistent with PKS involvement in pathogenicity (Mena et al., 2022). This finding is in accordance with the possible involvement of phytotoxin(s) produced by D. caulivora during SCC development (Lalitha et al., 1989).

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3.1 Disease cycle

Diaporthe spp. are considered monocyclic pathogens, and the stem canker disease cycle consists of five main steps: (1) production of perithecia and ascospores, (2) ascospore dissemination, (3) contact and penetration, (4) infection, and (5) colonization (Figure 2). The disease cycle begins with the production of reproductive structures such as perithecia or pycnidial conidiomata (Sun et al., 2012). Ascospores actively released from perithecia disperse by rain and wind (Backman et al., 1985). Once the spores make contact with

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| Diaporthe species | Effector candidates | Homologous gene name (PHI-base) |
|--|---|------------------------------------|
| Core effectors in D. caulivora, D. capsici, D. citri, D. destruens, D. longicolla and D. phragmitis | Pectate lyase | PELA |
| | Polysaccharide lyase family 3 protein | PELA |
| | 1,4-β-D-glucan cellobiohydrolase A | cel2 |
| | Xylanase G1 | XYN11A |
| | Protein CAP22 | - |
| | Hypothetical protein UCDDA912_g05111 | - |
| | Hypothetical protein P154DRAFT_381873 | - |
| | Hypothetical protein DHEL01_v209281 | - |
| | Hypothetical protein CFIO01_13625 | - |
| D. caulivora and D. longicolla | Pectate Iyase F | PELD |
| | Glycoside hydrolase | Plegl1 |
| | Glycoside hydrolase family 11 protein | XYL3 |
| | Putative sterigmatocystin biosynthesis peroxidase stcC | MoHPX1 |
| | Putative proline-rich antigen | - |
| | Putative aldehyde dehydrogenase | - |
| | Cellulose binding CEL1 | MoCDIP4 |
| | Carbohydrate-binding module family 1 protein | PITG_16135 |
| | Carbohydrate-binding module family 50 protein | Blys8 |
| | Fungal hydrophobin | MHP1 |
| | Intracellular hyphae protein 1 | SPL_1 |
| D. longicolla | Carbohydrate esterase family 5 protein | MfCUT1 |
| | Starch-binding domain-containing protein | SGA1 |
| | Acetylxylan esterase 2 | PBC1 |
| | Cell wall protein PhiA | BbCwp_(BBA_03493) |
| | Fungal cellulose binding domain-containing protein | MoCDIP4 |
| D. caulivora | Chitin deacetylase | CDA |
| | Putative cytochrome p450 | - |
| | Peptidase S41 family protein | - |
| | Hypothetical protein UCRNP2_6738 | - |
| | Hypothetical protein CSIM01_13334 | - |
| | Hypothetical protein F66182_6057 | - |
| | HET-domain-containing protein | - |
| | Hypothetical protein DHEL01_v212810 | - |
| | Uncharacterized protein INS49_012633 | - |

TABLE 1 Overview of some apoplastic effector proteins identified in *Diaporthe caulivora* and *D. longicolla* genomes, with functionally characterized homologous in the Pathogen–Host Interaction database (PHI-base) (Mena et al., 2022).

the plant tissue, penetration and infection occur through wounds or natural entry points such as stomata or trichomes of leaves, stems and soybean seeds (Backman et al., 1985; Campbell et al., 2017; Kmetz et al., 1978; Mena et al., 2020). During the first days, spores germinate under high humidity conditions or water films present on the plant tissue (Mengistu & Heatherly, 2006). Plant pathogens of the genus *Diaporthe* may or may not form appressoria for host penetration. For example, appressoria have been observed in pod and soybean seed coat infected with *D. longicolla* (Baker & Minor, 1987). However, *D. sojae* conidia attach to soybean tissues, germinate and penetrate via stomata with or without forming appressoria and not via the cuticle (Kulik, 1988). In contrast, *D. toxica* conidia germinate on the plant surface of narrow-leafed lupins forming short germ tubes, which enlarge at the apices to form appressoria and directly penetrate the host cuticle (Shankar et al., 1998). Although appressoria of *D. caulivora* were not detected during soybean stem colonization, induction of CAP22-encoding gene was observed (Mena et al., 2022), which is highly expressed during appressoria formation in other fungi (Hwang & Kolattukudy, 1995). Because CAP22 is a core effector (Mena et al., 2022), further studies will underpin the



FIGURE 2 Representative life cycle of *Diaporthe* species causing soybean stem canker disease. Colonization of *Diaporthe caulivora* in a soybean stem section is visualized by staining with wheat germ agglutinin-Alexa Fluor 488 conjugate (WGA-AF488) (green: fungal cell wall) and PI (red: plant cell membrane/walls).

importance of this protein in appressoria development, host penetration and virulence.

Diaporthe spp. causing SSC colonize the vascular tissues, and under controlled conditions, D. caulivora has been demonstrated to colonize the cortex, phloem and xylem by 72 and 96 hours postinoculation (hpi) (Mena et al., 2020). At 7 days postinoculation (dpi), D. caulivora hyphae were able to progress through the vessels and spread via the collenchyma, pith and cortex along the stem (Mena et al., 2020). Phloem and xylem tissue colonization blocks the entire vascular system and degrades the stem pith. SSC lesions are covered with pycnidia that develop and remain on infected stem debris (Hilty, 1991). Although sporulation has been reported in tissues debris, the production of secondary inoculum from pycnidia during the season probably does not affect disease development or yield loss (Rupe, 2015). Diaporthe infections can also be the direct result of planting infected soybean seeds (Roth et al., 2020). Seed transmission rates are generally less than 1% for D. aspalathi, while these rates for D. caulivora can reach 10% to 20% (Rupe, 2015). Disease establishment depends fundamentally on soybean genetic susceptibility and the occurrence of conducive environmental conditions during the early stages of the infection process (Lu et al., 2010; Rupe, 2015).

3.2 | Symptoms

Soybean plants are infected by *Diaporthe* spp. at any developmental stage, although infection generally occurs during the early vegetative growth (Backman et al., 1985; Smith & Backman, 1988). Plants with symptoms of SSC can usually be identified in patches or randomly scattered within the soybean field (Figure 3a). Symptoms of infection are associated with reddish-brown discolouration and necrosis of the lower half of the stem (Figure 3b), and withered and dried brown leaves that remain attached to the plant. When the first symptoms appear, lesions consist of small points (1-2 mm) on the main stem at a lower node. During disease progression, lesions grow in both directions, and they become elongated and brown along the main stem or towards the lateral branches (Figure 3b). In general, canker lesions run along one side of the stem while the rest of the stem tissue remains green (Mena et al., 2020; Pioli et al., 2003). However, with a high inoculum source or in very susceptible plants, lesions coalesce, and the brown colouration appears on the entire stem with edges to the lesions no longer obvious. In addition, interveinal chlorosis and necrosis of the leaves are frequently visible (Lu et al., 2010; Mena et al., 2020; Pioli et al., 2003). Severe infections lead to necrosis of



FIGURE 3 Stem canker symptoms in soybean tissues. (a,b) Soybean stem canker (SSC) symptoms on soybean stem in the field. (c) Symptoms on soybean stems artificially inoculated with potato dextrose agar plugs containing mycelium of *Diaporthe aspalathi*, *D. caulivora* and *D. longicolla* at 7 days postinoculation under controlled conditions. Arrows in (a) indicate plants with SSC, and in (b) disease symptoms in the main stem and lateral branches. A white circle in (c) indicates *D. longicolla* perithecia growing on the infected stem.

the conductive vessels, which blocks the flow of water through the xylem leading to cell death in the upper portion of the stem and the death of the plant (Sánchez et al., 2015).

Under experimental conditions, some differences in the symptomatology exist depending on the causal agent and the inoculation method. When soybean stems are inoculated with Diaporthe mycelial plugs in wounded stems, stem canker lesions caused by D. aspalathi and D. caulivora present diffuse borders, while inoculations with D. longicolla exhibit lesions with more defined borders (Figure 3c). Infection by the three Diaporthe spp. produces brown dry lesions, which are darker with D. caulivora and D. longicolla, and perithecia are only visible after inoculation with D. longicolla (Figure 3c). Black pycnidia are also observed after stem inoculation with D. longicolla mycelial plugs (Mathew, Castlebury, et al., 2015). D. caulivora, D. longicolla and D. aspalathi produce elongated lesions and can lead to girdling of the stem when the toothpick and stem-wound inoculation methods are used (Ghimire et al., 2019; Mena et al., 2020). Moreover, D. longicolla inoculation of soybean plants by the toothpick method at vegetative stages V3-V4, when plants have the third and fourth unrolled and fully developed

trifoliate leaves, respectively (Fehr et al., 1971), produces symptoms that include thin black lines on the lower stem that occasionally form irregular circles (Olson et al., 2015). Under field conditions, the association of a certain Diaporthe species to disease development can be challenging due to similarities in symptoms (Rupe, 2015). In addition, different Diaporthe spp. can usually coexist in the same lesion and cause disease by co-infection (Pioli et al., 2001; Santos et al., 2011). However, subtle differences in symptomatology can offer clues for D. caulivora and D. aspalathi differentiation. D. caulivora produces sunken, dark-brown canker lesions that appear on the lower nodes, which elongate and eventually girdle the stem, leading to plant wilting and death (Fernández et al., 1999). D. aspalathi causes canker lesions that are more delimited and rarely girdle the stem (Fernández et al., 1999). Similar foliar symptoms, such as interveinal chlorosis and necrosis, occur with both Diaporthe spp., and generally, leaves remain attached to the stem after plant death (Fernández et al., 1999). Furthermore, plant phenological stages influence Diaporthe colonization and symptom development. Inoculations of plants at V1 growth stage, with presence of the first unrolled and fully developed trifoliate leaf (Fehr

et al., 1971), resulted in significantly more snapped stems than older seedlings (Campbell et al., 2017). For this reason, inoculations of seedlings at growth stage V2 and V3 were more appropriate for consistent development of SSC and low amounts of stem snapping (Campbell et al., 2017). Moreover, disease incidence and severity with D. aspalathi is higher when infection occurs at V3 (Bowers & Russin, 1999; Smith & Backman, 1989). In the field, exposure to inoculum at V3 is associated with significant disease severity, which is progressively reduced at V4-V10 (plants with 4-10 unrolled and fully developed trifoliate leaves) (Smith & Backman, 1989).

Under controlled conditions and stem-wound inoculation, lesions started to appear at 3 dpi and plants died at 14 dpi (Mena et al., 2020). Inoculation of plants with ascospores or conidia in greenhouse experiments leads to slower development of symptoms, which were visible at reproductive stages (61-75 dpi) (Ploetz & Shokes, 1985). Similarly, under field conditions, disease development usually has high impact on plants during the reproductive stages (Fehr et al., 1971; Rupe, 2015), and the appearance of symptoms is affected by environmental conditions such as temperature, humidity or drought (Roth et al., 2020; Rupe, 2015). Soybean cultivars exhibit different levels of resistance depending on the isolate used during the inoculation process, providing evidence of pathogenic variability (Pioli et al., 2003). The identification of virulence profiles among circulating Diaporthe isolates is essential to understand the dynamic of the disease. In other well-studied pathosystems such as Phytophthora sojae and soybean, different countries conduct regular surveys to monitor changes in virulence towards resistance genes and pathotype diversity (Dorrance, 2018). In fact, D. caulivora, D. aspalathi and D. longicolla exhibit pathogenic variability on susceptible sovbean plants and in sovbean genotypes carrying different resistance loci to SSC (Brumer et al., 2018; Ghimire et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2010; Mena et al., 2020). Based on molecular and pathogenicity assays on soybean genotypes with resistance loci to D. aspalathi, four physiological races of D. aspalathi were identified in the core soybean-producing area of Argentina (Pioli et al., 2003). Similar results were obtained in Brazil where at least three races of D. aspalathi were detected (Brumer et al., 2018). Thus, selective pressure caused by the incorporation of plant resistance genes to SSC in soybean cultivars could be influencing the change in virulence among Diaporthe spp. in soybean fields.

3.3 Host plant species

Diaporthe/Phomopsis spp. may use more than one plant species as a host (van Niekerk et al., 2005), either as endophytes, pathogens or saprobes (Santos et al., 2011; Thompson et al., 2011). In addition to soybean, D. aspalathi isolates have been obtained from other hosts, including blue lupin (Yorinori, 1990) and rooibos (van Rensburg et al., 2006). D. caulivora has also been found in cutleaf teasel (Santos et al., 2011), velvetleaf (Vrandecic et al., 2005), slender aster, prostrate knotweed (Mengistu et al., 2007) and sunflower (Brumer et al., 2018). Similarly, D. longicolla isolates have been found in

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several plants such as cowpea, giant ragweed, spotted spurge, curly dock and common cocklebur (Roy et al., 1997), as well as velvetleaf (Vrandecic et al., 2004), peanut (Sanogo & Etarock, 2009), eggplant (Shu et al., 2014) and dry edible beans and peas (Mathew, Castlebury, et al., 2015). In addition to the host plants from which the pathogens were isolated in nature, Diaporthe spp. are able to infect a range of other plants when artificially inoculated (Li et al., 2010). This is the case for D. caulivora, D. longicolla, D. gulyae, D. miriciae, D. cucurbitae and D. helianthi, which were able to cause stem canker in soybean and sunflower upon inoculation assays (Floyd & Malvick, 2022; López-Cardona et al., 2021; Mathew et al., 2018; Mena et al., 2020). Survival and perithecia development of D. caulivora on artificially infested stem pieces of other hosts, including maize, sorghum, sunflower, potato and wheat, suggests that other crops can serve as reservoirs for overwintering inoculum (Grijalba & Ridao, 2012).

4 SOYBEAN STEM CANKER MANAGEMENT

Disease control is often carried out through cultural management such as early planting dates, disease-free seeds, crop rotation with nonhost crops, elimination of inoculum sources by practices such as tillage, and adjusting row width and population density (Freitas et al., 2002; Roth et al., 2020; Rothrock et al., 1985). These strategies contribute to reducing disease severity but their efficacy is limited (Fernández et al., 1999; Roth et al., 2020). Chemical fungicides used as seed treatments and/or foliar applications are adopted practices for controlling SSC, and include benomil, carboxin, carbendazin, thiabendazol, strobilurin, pyraclostrobin and tebuconazol (Floyd & Malvick, 2022; Yorinori, 1996). However, efficacy is limited when used alone, and for some products, like Edamame, chemical applications are not recommended in food-grade crops used for human consumption (Benavidez et al., 2010). Other sustainable alternatives are the use of short-maturity soybean varieties and SSC-resistant cultivars (Ivancovich & Botta, 2003). In fact, SSC is effectively controlled by the introgression of resistance loci in elite cultivars. For example, resistance loci to D. aspalathi are present in most of the Brazilian cultivars released after 1996 (Maldonado dos Santos et al., 2022).

Host resistance 4.1

Plants have innate immune defences to counteract pathogen attacks, known as pattern-triggered immunity (PTI) and effectortriggered immunity (ETI). Both PTI and ETI activate a number of overlapping defence reactions such as mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) cascades, calcium influx, reactive oxygen species (ROS) accumulation, callose deposition, hormone synthesis and transcriptional reprogramming (Ngou et al., 2022). Plasma membrane pattern-recognition receptors (PRRs) recognize conserved pathogen- or microbe-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs or

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MAMPs), such as fungal chitin or bacterial flagellin, to activate PTI (Jones & Dangl, 2006). PRRs include receptor-like kinases (RLKs) or receptor-like proteins (RLPs) with different extracellular domains that recognize the pathogen, providing basal immunity to most nonadapted pathogens (Ngou et al., 2022). However, effector molecules are delivered by pathogens to avoid or suppress PTI (Toruño et al., 2016). ETI is mediated by cytoplasmic nucleotide-binding (NB) domain-leucine-rich repeat (LRR) containing receptors (NLRs), which play important roles in plant innate immunity (Macho & Zipfel, 2014; Ngou et al., 2022). Understanding the molecular mechanisms underlying plant immune defence to *Diaporthe* spp. is central to increasing soybean resistance to SSC.

Since the early 1990s, germplasm screening and molecular approaches aiming to identify SSC resistance sources have been performed, leading to the development of soybean SSC-resistant cultivars (Table 2) (Brumer et al., 2018; Chiesa et al., 2009; Keeling, 1982; Mengistu et al., 2007; Vidić et al., 2013). The first four major loci for resistance to D. aspalathi in soybean were named Rdc1 to Rdc4 (Bowers et al., 1993; Kilen & Hartwig, 1987; Tyler, 1996). However, these loci conferred resistance to D. aspalathi but not to D. caulivora and were renamed Rdm1-4 (Pioli et al., 2003). Chiesa et al. (2009) demonstrated the existence of a complex genomic region leading to resistance to isolates of D. aspalathi in the Hutcheson soybean cultivar, with at least two closely located resistance loci on chromosome 8, Rdm4 and Rdm5. A sixth resistance locus was found in PI 398469 and was named as Rdc? (Rdm?) (Shearin, 2011). More recently, RdmMJ19RR was identified as a new resistance locus to SSC caused by *D. aspalathi*, located on chromosome 6 in cultivar MJ19RR (Gilli et al., 2020). Both resistance loci. Rdm3 in both the cultivar Crockett and PI 398469 and Rdm? in PI 398469, are located on chromosome 14 and appear to be clustered with several genes encoding PRRs and NLRs (Maldonado dos Santos et al., 2019; Menke et al., 2023; Shearin, 2011). Several of these resistance loci have been mapped less than 14 cM from simple-sequence repeats (SSRs) or single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) markers that may be suitable for marker-assisted selection in breeding programmes (Chiesa et al., 2009; Gilli et al., 2020; Shearin, 2011).

By performing a genome-wide association study (GWAS), using phenotypic data of a USDA soybean germplasm collection and public SNPs data, two SNPs associated with SSC caused by *D. caulivora* (ss715617869) and *D. aspalathi* (ss715617951) were identified in a region on chromosome 14 (Chang et al., 2016). Although SNPs were located within genes encoding a heat shock protein 70 (HSP70) and an unknown protein, the occurrence of two LRR-RLK- and two NBS-LRR-encoding genes located between ss715617869 and ss715617951 suggests their possible involvement in plant resistance. More recently, Maldonado dos Santos et al. (2019) identified marker loci associated with *D. aspalathi* resistance through GWAS using a panel of 295 accessions from different regions of the world, including important Brazilian elite cultivars. This study revealed 19 SNPs on the same region of chromosome 14 associated with resistance to *D*. *aspalathi.* Two of these SNPs were located in genes encoding a leucine-rich repeat receptor-like kinase (Glyma.14G026300) and a Toll/interleukin-1 receptor homology (TIR) domain-containing NLR (Glyma.14G024400), which could play important functions in plant immunity. Other significant SNPs associated with SSC resistance were identified in Glyma.14G024300, a DEAD/DEAH box RNA helicase, Glyma.14G026700, a serine-threonine protein kinase and Glyma.14G026500, a protein tyrosine kinase (Maldonado dos Santos et al., 2019).

In Argentina, different sources of resistance to D. caulivora were found (Pioli et al., 2012), and the first resistance locus for D. caulivora, named Rdc1, was recently identified (Peruzzo et al., 2019). Additionally, resistance sources for D. longicolla were found in different plant introduction (PI) and breeding lines (Jackson et al., 2005; Minor et al., 1993; Smith et al., 2008; Zimmerman & Minor, 1993). Genetic data from these resistant genotypes show that one or two dominant resistance loci, present on chromosomes 13 and 14, confer resistance to Phomopsis seed decay (PSD), although loci names have not been assigned yet (Jackson et al., 2005; Minor et al., 1993; Ploper et al., 1992; Roy & Abney, 1988; Zimmerman & Minor, 1993). Moreover, two QTLs conferring resistance to PSD were identified, PSD-10-2 on chromosome 10 and PSD 6-1 on chromosome 6 (Sun et al., 2013). Interestingly, several QTLs associated with resistance to other fungal diseases are located in proximity to the molecular markers associated with PSD resistance (Sun et al., 2013).

Transcriptional profiling is a powerful tool to unravel key mechanisms involved in defence activation and resistance against different Diaporthe species causing SSC. Expression studies of a limited number of defence genes have shown that genes encoding a pathogenesis-related (PR) protein-1 (PR-1), β-1,3-glucanase (PR-2), chitinases (PR-3 and PR-4), osmotin-like protein (PR-5), peroxidase (PR-9), PR-10, lipoxygenases, a phenylalanine-ammonia lyase and a chalcone synthase are induced in D. caulivora- and D. aspalathi-inoculated soybean plants (Mena et al., 2020; Upchurch & Ramirez, 2010). Recently, the first plant transcriptomes of soybean tissues infected with a Diaporthe species causing SSC, in this case D. caulivora, have been reported (Mena et al., 2023). Comparison of transcription profiles between untreated Génesis 5601 genotype (resistant to D. caulivora) and Williams genotype (susceptible to D. caulivora) highlighted increased basal transcript levels of several genes involved in defence, such as PRR, NLR and PR genes, in resistant compared with susceptible plants. Furthermore, during the early stages of D. caulivora infection (8 hpi), Génesis 5601 increased the expression levels of 1028 genes, many of them with defensive functions, while at this same time point Williams only increased expression of 434 genes. These findings suggest that higher basal expression levels, as well as earlier expression of defence-related genes in Génesis 5601, contribute to SSC resistance in this cultivar. At a later time point of infection, 48 hpi, the number of induced defence genes was similar in both genotypes, suggesting that the first hours of infection are fundamental to define the outcome of the disease. Resistance to D. caulivora seems to rely on defence activation through perception of

TABLE 2 Soybean loci conferring resistance to stem canker.

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| | | | Marker position ^a | | |
|----------------------|-----------|------------|------------------------------|-----------------------|--|
| Causal agent | Locus | Chromosome | сM | bp | References |
| Diaporthe aspalathi | Rdm1 | - | - | - | Kilen and Hartwig (1987) |
| | Rdm2 | - | - | - | |
| | Rdm3 | - | - | - | Bowers et al. (1993) |
| | Rdm4 | 8 | - | - | Bowers et al. (1993), Tyler (1996) |
| | Rdm5 | 8 | 12.4 | - | Chiesa et al. (2009) |
| | Rdm? | 14 | - | - | Shearin, 2011 |
| | RdmMJ19RR | 6 | 13.3 | 47,516,523 | Gilli et al. (2020) |
| | GBSRdm370 | 14 | - | 1,744,370 | Maldonado dos Santos et al. (2019) |
| | GBSRdm556 | | - | 1,725,556 | |
| | GBSRdm287 | | - | 1,710,287 | |
| | GBSRdm224 | | - | 1,986,224 | |
| | GBSRdm562 | | - | 1,740,562 | |
| | GBSRdm793 | | - | 1,768,793 | |
| | GBSRdm339 | | - | 1,921,339 | |
| | GBSRdm374 | | - | 1,921,374 | |
| | GBSRdm219 | | - | 1,795,219 | |
| | GBSRdm204 | | - | 1,751,204 | |
| | GBSRdm516 | | - | 1,612,516 | |
| | GBSRdm964 | | - | 1,850,964 | |
| | GBSRdm114 | | - | 1,851,114 | |
| | GBSRdm450 | | - | 1,612,450 | |
| | GBSRdm397 | | - | 1,612,397 | |
| | GBSRdm518 | | - | 1,744,518 | |
| | GBSRdm120 | | - | 1,741,120 | |
| | GBSRdm712 | | - | 1,581,712 | |
| | GBSRdm875 | | - | 1,581,875 | |
| Diaporthe caulivora | Rdc1 | 13 | - | - | Peruzzo et al. (2019) |
| Diaporthe longicolla | PSD 6-1 | 6 | 110.8 | 31,490,622-44,049,891 | Sun et al. (2013) |
| | PSD-10-2 | 10 | 85.8 | 46,052,103-46,657,863 | |
| | - | 13 | 5.9-12.7 | 32,196,800 | Jackson et al. (2005), Minor et al. (1993), Ploper et al. (1992), Roy and Abney (1988), Zimmerman and Minor (1993) |
| | - | 14 | 4.3-15.8 | 971,657-2,956,930 | |

^aMarker position (bp) based on the Glycine max genome assembly version Gmax2.0, only starting position is shown for SSR markers.

the pathogen by PRRs and NLRs, transcriptional reprogramming, biosynthesis of hormones and phenylpropanoids, production of small heat shock proteins and PR genes (Mena et al., 2023).

4.2 | Genomics and SSC management

Recent comparative genomics studies of *Diaporthe* spp. causing SSC have revealed new sources of variable genomic regions for identification, diagnosis and discrimination of *Diaporthe* spp. and isolates with different aggressiveness (Muterko et al., 2023). A simple tandem repeat containing a motif with a consensus DNA

sequence specific for *D. caulivora* D57 was identified (Muterko et al., 2023). This motif is absent in the genomes of other *Diaporthe* spp. and Ascomycota, making this sequence a promising candidate for species-specific diagnostic DNA markers. A recently developed quadruplex real-time PCR assay based on *EF1-a* sequences specifically differentiates between *D. longicolla*, *D. caulivora*, *D. eres* and *D. novem*, allowing effective detection and quantification of *Diaporthe* spp. from different soybean samples relevant for disease control (Hosseini et al., 2021). Next-generation sequencing technologies confer new opportunities for advanced genomic-based diagnostics of *Diaporthe* spp. and give valuable information of the fungal species present in canker lesions, as well as ideal timing

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for chemical applications in susceptible cultivars. A metagenomic sequencing approach based on Nanopore long reads technology and Illumina was recently used for detection and identification of the boxwood pathogen *Calonectria pseudonaviculata* at strain-level resolution (Yang et al., 2022). Successful applications of metagenomics for fungal pathogen diagnosis have been used in different crops and will become a more common practice in disease management (Gökdemir et al., 2022).

The availability of efficient transformation methods for D. caulivora and D. longicolla (Montoya et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2023), together with genomic analysis, allows the identification and functional validation of fungal genes associated with pathogenicity. This will generate a more comprehensive understanding of the pathogen infection strategies and the molecular mechanisms employed to counteract the plant immune system. Future research focused on Diaporthe candidate effectors, including core effector proteins and species-specific candidate effectors, employing soybean inoculation assays, or transient expression analyses in Nicotiana benthamiana, will certainly advance our knowledge of their functions and possible applications in disease management. Effectoromics was applied in functional studies of candidate effectors of the soybean rust fungus Phakopsora pachyrhizi, showing that this approach could accelerate the search for NLR-mediated resistance through screening for immune activation or suppression phenotypes (Qi et al., 2018). The identification of soybean-resistant sources based on the virulence of Diaporthe isolates and SSC development in different soybean cultivars will contribute to the understanding of pathogenic variability and the selection of resistant soybean lines. The presence of SNPs in defence genes associated with SSC resistance, together with the identification of NLRs, RLKs and other immune-related genes differentially expressed in contrasting soybean genotypes (Maldonado dos Santos et al., 2019; Mena et al., 2023), provides promising candidate genes for functional validation. The knowledge generated will give novel insights into resistant mechanisms to Diaporthe spp., and benefit breeding programmes for SSC resistance.

5 | CONCLUSIONS

SSC is a disease that involves several *Diaporthe* spp., and during recent years, the use of resistant cultivars to *D. aspalathi* correlates with the presence of other *Diaporthe* spp., including *D. caulivora* and *D. longicolla*, among others. A deeper understanding of the molecular mechanisms involved in the different soybean–*Diaporthe* spp. interactions is required to develop effective and more durable strategies for plant disease prevention. The development of precise diagnostic tools for different *Diaporthe* spp., combined with field monitoring, will further enhance our understanding of fungal dynamics and host ranges. Future studies in selected candidate effectors and resistance genes will increase our knowledge on the molecular basis of SCC resistance and benefit application in plant disease management through new technologies like genome editing.

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DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no new data were created or analysed.

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