

Research Article

Differential physiological and molecular responses of susceptible and resistant tomato genotypes to *Alternaria solani* infection

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Abstract: Early blight caused by Alternaria solani is a prominent tomato, Solanum lycopersicum, disease that destroys a significant part of tomato production worldwide. Cultivating resistant cultivars is notably important in reducing damage caused by early blight disease. Therefore, comprehending the response of different genetic backgrounds to pathogen infection could enhance understanding of the mechanisms involved in plant defense systems against pathogen invasion. In the present study, the differential response of susceptible and resistant tomato genotypes to A. solani was investigated from molecular and physiological aspects. The results showed that soluble sugar content in the resistant genotype increased after pathogen inoculation. Although photosynthetic pigments such as carotenoid, chlorophyll a, and chlorophyll b content decreased in susceptible and resistant genotypes, fluorescence chlorophyll indices differed in resistant and susceptible genotypes. Also, transcription analysis revealed that in the resistant genotype, the expression of SIWRKY1 was 2.58 times more than the control at 48 hpi (hours post inoculation). However, in the susceptible genotype, the expression of the SINAC1 was 69.12 times more than in control at 24 hpi. The findings of this research provide an improved understanding of tomato plant defense mechanisms against early blight disease.

Keywords: Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence, Early blight disease, qRT-PCR, *SlNAC1*. *SlWRKY1*

Introduction

Tomato *Solanum lycopersicum* is an important horticultural plant due to its nutritional and commercial value (Li *et al.*, 2020) and is cultivated in temperate regions (Gong *et al.*, 2017). Plant diseases, especially fungal pathogens, can severely reduce tomato production by infecting plant tissues. One of the

most lethal fungal diseases of tomatoes is early blight, caused by *Alternaria solani* Sorauer (1896), which can reduce tomato production by up to 80% (Nafisa *et al.*, 2020). The main strategies to control early blight disease include the use of fungicides, cultural methods, and resistant genotypes. Early blight is primarily controlled by foliar spraying of certain fungicides applied at 7-10-day intervals

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(Adhikari *et al.*, 2017). Considering the harmful effects of fungicides on the environment and agricultural production, the most suitable and sustainable way to control early blight is the development of resistant cultivars (Adhikari *et al.*, 2017; Akhtar *et al.*, 2019).

Necrotrophic pathogens like *Alternaria* spp. destroy plant tissue (Shao et al., 2021) and cause physiological disorders such as reduced photosynthetic efficiency (Clark, 2022). Studies show that changes in physiological features are important for plant resistance to pathogens, such as the synthesis of sugars (Morkunas and Ratajczak, 2014), chlorophyll fluorescence indexes (Suárez et al., 2022), and photosynthetic pigments (Parveen and Siddiqui, 2022). Also, concerning the response plant-pathogen molecular of interactions, some transcription factors, such as NAC1 and WRKY1, are considered the most important components of resistance (Rabiei et al., 2022; Shinde et al., 2018).

Comparing the response of susceptible and resistant genotypes can increase our knowledge of the mechanisms involved in plant resistance to pathogen infection. Therefore, It is essential to investigate the responses of susceptible and resistant genotypes under stress conditions (Ray *et al.*, 2015). Although numerous studies have been published on plant-pathogen interactions, few have addressed the comparative response of resistant and susceptible genotypes to pathogen infection (Henriquez *et al.*, 2012; Ray *et al.*, 2015; Yao *et al.*, 2011).

Previous research suggests that the plant's genetic background influences the tomato genotype responding to A. solani stress (Nafisa *et al.*, 2020; Ray *et al.*, 2015). A study by Ray et al. (2015) found that after pathogen inoculation, defense enzyme activity, H₂O₂ accumulation, and other defense compounds are significantly higher in the resistant than in the susceptible genotype (Ray *et al.*, 2015). In another study, morphological, biochemical, and physiological responses of 29 tomato genotypes were assessed after inoculation with *A. solani*. During the disease stress, the activity of antioxidant enzymes significantly

differed in resistant genotypes compared with sensitive genotypes (Nafisa *et al.*, 2020). However, comparative studies about plantpathogen interactions regarding Iranian tomato genotypes are more limited.

The main goal and novelty of the present study were the comparative physiological and molecular defense reactions of two common Iranian tomato cultivars, as resistant and susceptible genotypes, under *Alternaria solani* stress. Some physiological parameters were employed to determine differential reactions of resistant and susceptible genotypes under early blight stress. Also, transcription profile of *SINAC1* and *SIWRKY1* was obtained across time, post-infection, with quantitative realtime PCR (qRT-PCR) technique for both resistant and susceptible tomato genotypes.

Materials and Methods

This research was conducted in research facilities and laboratories of Genetics and Agricultural Biotechnology Institute Tabarestan, Sari, Iran. Susceptible (Karoon) and resistant (CH falat) tomato genotypes seeds used throughout this study were provided by Falat Iranian Zamin Co., Karaj, Iran. The seeds were sown and grown in 17 cm pots filled with a sterile soil mix (equal volumes of peat, perlite, and coconut peat). The pots were incubated in a growth chamber with a photoperiod of 12 h of light (98.02 μmol/s/m²), 70% humidity, and 24-27 °C and were fertilized regularly with Hoagland's nutrient solution (Hoagland and Arnon, 1950). The A. solani isolate was kindly provided by the culture collection of the Genetics and Agricultural Biotechnology Institute Tabarestan (Culture number GTCC0073) at Sari Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources University, Sari, Iran. 35-day-old seedlings were inoculated with Alternaria Solani spores. A spore suspension of Alternaria Solani at 1.6×10^6 spores per ml plant inoculation. used for physiological analysis, samples were collected seven days after inoculation. However, tomato leaves were collected for molecular analysis at 12, 24, 48, and 96 h post-inoculation (hpi).

Soluble sugar measurement

The anthrone colorimetric method was used to measure the soluble sugar content of tomato leaves (McCready et al., 1950). For this purpose, 0.2 g of the fresh leaf was powdered in liquid nitrogen. Then 10 ml of 80% methanol was added to each sample, placed on a shaker (150 rpm) in the dark box for 24 hours, and centrifuged at 5000 rcf. Three ml of 10 mM anthrone (dissolved in 70% sulfuric acid) was added to 100 µl of the methanolic extract and placed at 100°C (Bain-marie) for 20 minutes. Then, the samples were transferred to room temperature and vortexed after 10 minutes. The absorbance of the samples was measured at a wavelength of 620 nm. The soluble sugar content was calculated using the glucose standard curve ($R^2=0.992$, $Y=0.229\times0.0438$).

Measurements of photosynthetic pigments and chlorophyll contents

According to Lichtenthaler and Buschmann (2001) method, the photosynthetic pigments, including chlorophyll a (Chl a), chlorophyll b (Chl b), as well as carotenoids were analyzed by a spectrophotometry technique (T92+, PG instrument limited). Hence, 1.0 cm² of fresh leaf tissue was extracted with 80% methanol at room temperature for 24 h in the dark and measured at 665.2 (A_{665.2}), 652.4 (A_{652.4}), and 470 (A₄₇₀) nm. Equations 1 to 3 were used for calculating the contents of Chl a, Chl b, and carotenoid, respectively:

Chl a (
$$\mu$$
g/mL) = 16.72 A_{665.2} – 9.16 A_{652.4} (1
Chl b (μ g/mL) = 34.09 A_{652.4} – 15.28 A_{665.2} (2

Carotenoid (
$$\mu$$
g/mL) = (1000 A470 -1.63 (3 Chla -104.6 Chlb) / 221

Measurements of chlorophyll a fluorescence

Using a portable fluorometer (PAM3000, Walz, Germany), the Chl fluorescence was measured (Genty *et al.*, 1989). The plants were left in the dark for 30 minutes, and then the minimum fluorescence intensity (F0) and maximum

fluorescence intensity (Fm) were measured in dark-adapted leaves. Fv (The variable fluorescence) and Fv/Fm (maximum photochemical quantum yield of PSII) were calculated as shown in equations 4 and 5, respectively. Moreover, minimum maximum (F'_m), and steady-state fluorescence (F_t) were measured according to the lightadapted leaf in actinic light and 6, 7, and 8 equations, the effective photochemical quantum yield of PSII [Y(II)], the quantum yield of regulated energy dissipation [Y(NPQ)], the quantum yield of non-regulated energy dissipation [Y(NO)],non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) were calculated, respectively:

$$Fv = Fm - F0 \tag{4}$$

$$Fv/Fm = (Fm - F0)/Fm$$
 (5)

$$Y(II) = (F'm - Ft)/Fm$$
 (6)

$$Y(NPQ) = (Ft / F'm) - (Ft / Fm)$$
 (7)

$$Y(NO) = Ft /Fm$$
 (8)

$$NPQ = (Fm-F'm)/F'm$$
 (9)

qRT-PCR assay

Total RNA of the plant leaf was extracted with Threezol reagent (Riragene, Iran) according to manufacturer instructions and then treated with DNaseI (Fermentase, Germany) to remove DNA contamination. Based on the manufacturer's protocol, the RevertAidTM Transcriptase kit (Fermentase, Reverse Germany) was used for cDNA synthesis. Actin gene was used as an internal reference and the list of primers is available in Table 1. The Maxima SYBR Green/ROX qPCR Master Mix (Thermo Scientific) was used for qRT-PCR The 15 μl reaction mixture reactions. contained 1.0 µl of diluted cDNA sample, 0.3µM of each forward and reverse primers and 1× real-time SYBR Green master mix. The cycling temperature conditions were the first denaturation at 95 °C for 8 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s, and 60 °C for 30 s. Each sample was quantified in three biological and two technical replications. The relative gene expression was quantified by Livak and Schmittgen (2001) method.

Table 1 List of primers used for qRT-PCR.

Gene	Accession No.	Sequence 5′-3′	Length (bp)	Reference
SlActin	NM_001308447.1	AACAGACAGGACACTCGCACT	126	(Issa et al., 2018)
		TTAGCACCTTCCAGCAGATGT	120	
SlNAC1	NM_001247553.2	GGCAACCGGAGCTGATAAAC	127	(Ghorbanpour et al., 2018)
		AGGCGGTACTCGTGCATAATC		
SIWRKYI	XM_019214874.2	TAGCAGTGAAGTGGATGTAGTC	155	(Moghaddam et al., 2019)
		TTGGATTATGGGATGACCTCTC		

Statistical analysis

The factorial experiment was based on a completely randomized design (CRD) with three replicates. The plant genetic backgrounds (susceptible and resistant genotypes) were considered the first factor, and the state of plant inoculations (inoculated and non-inoculated samples) the second factor. Also, two technical repetitions were done for molecular tests. The least significant difference test (LSD) was performed at 1% probability for mean comparison. All statistical analyses were carried out using SAS statistical package (SAS Institute, Cary, NC).

Results

Sugar content

The results showed that in the resistant genotype, the soluble sugar level significantly increased (71.74%) after pathogen inoculation. In contrast, in the sensitive genotype, a significant decrease (24%) of the soluble sugar was observed after pathogen inoculation (Fig. 1A).

Photosynthetic pigments

In this study, carotenoid content significantly decreased (49%) in susceptible genotype following the pathogen infection. While no significant change was observed in the resistant one after pathogen inoculation (Fig. 1B). The chlorophyll a content in susceptible and resistant genotype decreased after inoculation by 46.74 and 45%, respectively. Similarly, the chlorophyll b content in susceptible and resistant genotypes were reduced by 50 and 48%, respectively, after *A. solani* inoculation (Fig. 1C, and D).

Chlorophyll a fluorescence

Analysis of variance for chlorophyll a fluorescence parameters, including Fv, Fv/Fm, Y(NPQ), and NPQ showed a significant change after pathogen inoculation (presented in Supplemental Table S1). Means comparison (LSD 99%) showed that the pathogen infection did not significantly affect the Fv and Fv/Fm indices in the resistant genotype. While in the sensitive genotype, the Fv and Fv/Fm indices were significantly reduced by 72.9 and 53%, respectively, after pathogen inoculation (Table 2). Also, Y(NPQ) and NPQ increased in resistant genotype after pathogen inoculation by 2.73 and 3.2 times, respectively. In contrast, Y(NPQ) and NPQ were significantly decreased by 60% and 53.33%, respectively, in the susceptible genotype (Table 2).

Molecular analysis

In the present study, differential expression of two prominent genes related to stress was investigated by the qRT-PCR technique. The results show that *SlWRKY1* was up-regulated at 12hpi, 24hpi, and 48hpi in the resistant genotype by 1.49, 2.29, and 2.58 times more than the control, respectively. Also, in the susceptible genotype, the gene expression up-regulated at 12hpi and 42hpi by 1.3 and 1.4 times more than the control, respectively (Fig. 2A).

Expression of *SINAC1* expression gene in the resistant genotype was up-regulated (27.45 times more than control) at early steps of pathogen penetration (12hpi). However, at 24hpi, 48hpi, and 96 hpi the transcription levels were 4.3, 3.8, and 1.13 times more than the control, respectively. While in the susceptible genotype,

expression of *NAC1* gene increased by 62.73 and 96.12 times more than the control at 12hpi and 24hpi, respectively. Also, at 48hpi and 96hpi the transcription levels were 6.5 and 1.5 times more than the control (Fig. 2B).

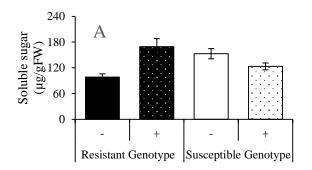
Discussion

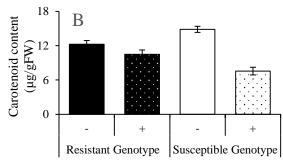
Understanding the differential response of resistant and sensitive genotypes to pathogen infection is fundamental in basic knowledge and applied sciences, such as developing resistant cultivars (Ray *et al.*, 2015).

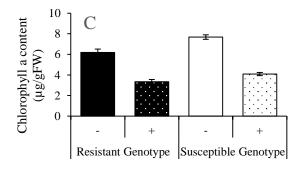
Sugar content

Inoculation of tomato plants using *Alternaria* solani spore suspension indicated the disease process was faster and more destructive in the susceptible genotype than the resistant genotype. In this study, a significant increase of soluble sugar was observed in the resistant

genotype. In contrast, in sensitive cases, soluble sugar significantly decreased after pathogen infection (Fig. 1A). Generally, reducing sugar content indicates that the pathogen uses plant sugar for energy and structural purposes, as well as the inhibition of photosynthesis due to the destruction of plant tissue by the penetration of the pathogen. In previous studies, a decrease in sugar content after Alternaria sp. attack has been reported. For example, The results of Garg et al. (2020) on tomatoes infected by A. solani showed that the total sugar content of leaves decreased sharply after pathogen inoculation. Similar results were found when the tomato was inoculated with A. alternata (Meena et al., 2017). Moreover, Bhale et al. (2010) observed that the total sugar of leaves decreased after A. inoculation in the susceptible spinaciae spinach.







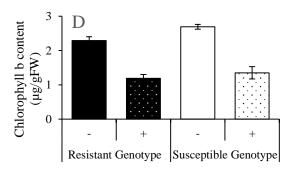


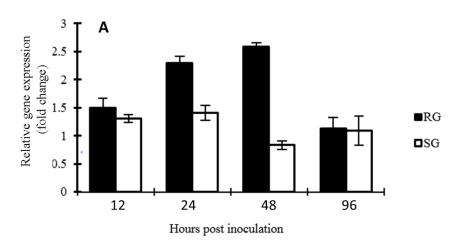
Figure 1 Effect of the *Alternaria solani* on sugar contents and leaf pigments of resistant and susceptible tomato genotypes. A) Sugar, B) Carotenoid, C) Chlorophyll a, and D) Chlorophyll b contents. +) as pathogen inoculation and -) as no pathogen inoculation.

Table 2 Mean comparison of the effect of *Alternaria solani* stress on Chlorophyll fluorescence parameters of two tomato genotypes.

Genotypes	Inoculation	Fv	Fv/Fm	NPQ	Y(NPQ)
СН	no	$432.67 \pm 24.33b$	$0.84 \pm 0.05a$	$0.003 \pm 0.0006c$	$0.002 \pm 0.0001b$
	yes	$422.44 \pm 24.11b$	$0.84 \pm 0.04a$	$0.008 \pm 0.0005b$	$0.006 \pm 0.0002a$
K	no	$493.67 \pm 14.15a$	$0.83 \pm 0.01a$	$0.015 \pm 0.0015a$	$0.005 \pm 0.0011a$
	yes	$133.67 \pm 6.66c$	$0.39 \pm 0.07b$	$0.007 \pm 0.0009b$	$0.002 \pm 0.0003b$

In each column, means with the same letter(s) are not significantly different according to LSD test at P < 0.01.

SlWRKY1



SlNAC1

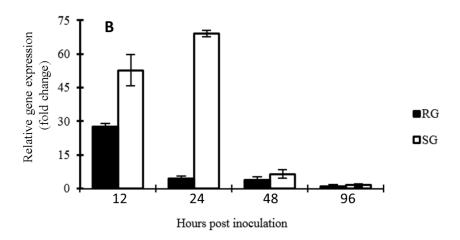


Figure 2 Relative gene expression profile of *SlWRKY1* and *SlNAC1* over a time course from 12 to 96 hours post inoculation in resistant (RG) and susceptible (SG) tomato genotypes following *Alternaria solani* inoculation.

However, sugar can act as a signalling molecule in plant cells (Morkunas and Ratajczak, 2014) and cause plant defense systems to be

stimulated (Herbers *et al.*, 1996). Therefore, the increase in sugar content that was observed in this study can be part of the ability of the defense

system of the resistant genotype. Also, Formela-Luboińska *et al.* (2020) stated that an increase in sugar content enhanced the level of salicylic acid and stimulated the ethylene production in tomato leaves under pathogen stress (Formela-Luboińska *et al.*, 2020). The rapid hydrolysis of plant sugar content by pathogenic enzymes is the main reason for reducing sugar content during plant-pathogen interaction. On the other hand, soluble sugars such as sucrose, glucose, and fructose are involved in plant-pathogen interactions in multiple ways (Morkunas and Ratajczak, 2014; Trouvelot *et al.*, 2014) and improved the plant-related defense systems to overcome biotic stress (Formela-Luboińska *et al.*, 2020).

Photosynthetic pigments

Carotenoid plays an antioxidant role during oxidative stress in plants (Kasote et al., 2015) and is considered a stress index. In this study, although carotenoid content significantly decreased in the resistant genotype, no significant change was observed in the sensitive genotype after pathogen inoculation. Awan et al. (2018) classified different tomato cultivars based resistance levels. Α. solani acknowledged that although carotenoid content decreased in susceptible genotypes, remarkable changes were observed in the resistant group. Also, investigating tomato-A. alternata interactions showed that carotenoid content decreased at 96 hours after pathogen inoculation (Tiwari and Upadhyay, 2016). In addition, it was observed in Agamy et al. (2013) study that A. tenuissima causes the reduction of carotenoids in tomato leaves. The reduction of carotenoids in tomato leaves under Alternaria stress may be due to the release of fungal toxins that induce oxidative stress and damage the plant (Howlett, 2006). However, no significant change of carotenoids in resistant genotypes may be due to insignificant effects of oxidative stress. In contrast, in susceptible genotypes, the reduction of carotenoids indicates the destruction of the plant tissue in the face of the pathogen.

The destruction of plant cells by the pathogen appears as specific symptoms, including wilting, growth suppression, chlorosis, necrosis, and spotting. In the present study, the pattern of the chlorophyll contents response was almost the same in both cases and significantly decreased after the pathogen inoculation (Fig. 1C, and D). Similar results were observed in several studies (Attia et al., 2017; Meena et al., 2016). Attia et al. (2017) revealed that after A. solani infection, the chlorophyll contents significantly decreased. In another study, Meena et al. (2016) showed that chlorophyll contents decreased in plants inoculated with A. alternata by 85.8% compared with control plants. Following the pathogen infection, the rate of ROS (reactive oxygen species) increases on the surface of plant leaves, and this oxidative stress can damage the chlorophyll contents (Ali et al., 2006; Kyseláková et al., 2011). In total, it seems that, although A. solani could damage the leaf tissue of resistant tomatoes, it could not cause widespread destruction, unlike the susceptible genotype.

Chlorophyll a fluorescence

In this study the level of Fv and Fv/Fm decreased susceptible genotype after pathogen inoculation. Variable fluorescence (FV) indicates the state of electron flow from the photosystem to QA (Baker and Rosenqvist, 2004), and a reduction of this parameter indicates a remarkable decrease in electrons flow rate (Ramezani et al... 2017; Zhou, 1999). However, The Fv/Fm ratio indicates the maximum photochemical quantum efficiency of PSII and can be used to estimate the amount of plant infection by pathogens (Hou et al., 2020). Similar to the reaction of the sensitive genotype in this research, a decrease in Fv/Fm has been reported in banana and corn plants infected with Fusarium (Kuckenberg et al., 2007) and also in melon plants infected with Dickeya dadantii (Pineda et al., 2018). Also, Moradi et al. (2018) observed that Fv and Fv/Fm parameters in susceptible cucumber genotypes significantly decreased after pathogen (Podosphaera sp.) inoculation. Similar results were obtained in Ramezani et al. (2017) study. They stated that stress conditions such as pathogen infection and inducer treatment could cause a decrease in Fv and Fv/Fm through damage to the complex of photosystem II.

Also, in the present study, Y(NPQ) and NPQ enhanced in resistant genotype after pathogen inoculation. Plants have developed numerous photoprotection mechanisms to mitigate the harmful effects of reactive oxygen species (ROS) accumulation, such as producing various antioxidants, the hypersensitive response at the infected site, and NPQ operation (Xing et al., 2013). NPQ systems can dissipate extra energy captured by Light-harvesting complex II (Liu et al., 2012) and protect plant photosystems. Increasing NPQ value indicates the initiation of photoprotection mechanisms related to the xanthophyll cycle and the formation of ΔpH through the thylakoid membranes (Zhang et al., 2014). Instead, the reduction of NPQ can imply the breakdown of light protection systems under stressful conditions, which can cause significant damage to photo complexes and photosynthetic systems. Several studies have reported a significant increase in NPQ under biotic stress (Rajendran et al., 2016; Rodríguez-Moreno et al., 2008; Zou et al., 2005).

On other hand Y(NPQ) and NPQ were significantly decreased in the susceptible genotype. García-Villaraco et al. (2021) observed that NPQ value of tomato plant declined after inoculation with Pseudomonas fluorescens. Also, Bonfig et al. (2006) reported that NPQ of Arabidopsis plant decreased when infected with P. syringae pv. tomato. They attributed this reduction to the hypersensitivity defense reaction that prevents the penetration and spread of the pathogen in the plant tissue by the death of cells around the infection site. It should be considered that a hypersensitive reaction is suitable for biotrophic pathogens response, while in the face to necrotrophic pathogens like A. solani, it causes the expansion and spread of the disease.

Molecular analysis

Previous studies about the genetic concept of plant-pathogen interactions illustrated that transcription factors play a remarkable role in resistance to early blight (Moghaddam *et al.*, 2019; Rabiei *et al.*, 2022; Shinde *et al.*, 2018). In the present study, *SlWRKY1* was upregulated in both resistant and susceptible

geneotypes after pathogen inoculation. Shinde et al. (2018) showed that over-expression of SlWRKY1 significantly enhanced the resistance level to A. Solani penetration while early blight disease was very aggressive in RNAi lines. Also, a molecular study of some transcription factors and PR genes in 35 different tomato under genotypes early blight stress demonstrated that in resistant genotypes, there is a positive correlation between SIWRKY1 expression and the two most important defense genes, PR7 and PDF1.2 (Moghaddam et al., 2019). However, Saleh et al. (2015) state that WRKY1 plays a critical role in regulating the SA signalling pathway and controls this related plant defense system through the cytosolic form of NPR1.

Abiotic stress such as high salinity, drought, and pathogens infection could induce NAC1 gene expression (Wu et al., 2009). In the case of biotic stress, this transcription factor plays a dual role. Some reports mentioned the role of NAC1 (ATAF1) in increasing resistance to pathogens (Wang et al., 2009), while some other studies have discussed the role of this gene in causing sensitivity (He et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2015). Our results showed that in the resistant genotype, SINAC1 expression was remarkably upregulated only at early steps of pathogen penetration (12hpi). While in the susceptible genotype, expression of NAC1 gene strongly increased at 12, 24, and 96 hpi. Wu et al. (2009) observed the negative function of NAC1 (ATAF1) in necrotropic disease processes. Also, the over-expression of ATAF1 increased the generation of reactive oxygen species (Wu et al., 2009). Considering the prominent effect of ROS in the development of necrotrophic disease, it can be concluded that NAC1 up-regulation may sensitize the reaction of plant cells to ROS accumulation and, consequently, help to increase plant sensitivity after infection with necrotrophic pathogens.

Conclusion

Molecular and physiological investigation of plants response to pathogen infection leads to a

understanding of plant-pathogen interactions. Our research shows that susceptible and resistant genotypes react differently to A. solani infection. The reaction of the resistant genotype against the pathogen was noteworthy in terms of soluble sugar accumulation, photosynthetic efficiency, and SIWRKY1 gene expression. Soluble sugar accumulation was the main key to the physiological reaction, which is dominant in a different pathway. The soluble sugar is an energy source for plant growth development and metabolic reactions; on the other hand, it plays the role of a signalling molecule during plant-pathogen interactions. Also, maintaining photosynthetic efficiency while battling the pathogen infection is another influential physiological point in resistance to early blight disease. In addition, up-regulation of SlWRKY1 gene at the primary steps can improve the resistance level during tomato- A. solani interactions.

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Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

Statements and Declarations

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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پاسخهای متفاوت فیزیولوژیکی و مولکولی ژنوتیپهای حساس و مقاوم گوجهفرنگی به بیماری لکهموجی

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