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1	Detection of SDHI insensitivity in a Zymoseptoria tritici
2	field population associated with the SdhC-H152R and
3	SdhD-R47W substitutions
4	
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13	Abstract
14	BACKGROUND: Succinate dehydrogenase inhibitor fungicides are important in the
15	management of Zymoseptoria tritici in wheat. New active ingredients from this group of
16	fungicides have been introduced recently and are widely used. Because the fungicides act at
17	a single enzyme site, resistance development in Z. tritici is classified as medium-to-high risk.
18	RESULTS: Isolates from Irish experimental plots in 2015 were tested against the SDHI
19	penthiopyrad during routine monitoring. The median of the population was approximately 2
20	x less sensitive than the median of the baseline population. Two of the 93 isolates were much 1

less sensitive to penthiopyrad than least sensitive of the baseline isolates. These isolates were
 also insensitive to most of commercially available SDHIs. Analysis of the succinate
 dehydrogenase coding genes confirmed the presence of the substitutions *SdhC*-H152R and
 SdhD-R47W in the very insensitive isolates.

5 CONCLUSION: This is the first report showing that the *SdhC*-H152R mutation detected in
6 laboratory mutagenesis studies also exists in the field. The function and relevance of this
7 mutation, combined with *SdhD*-R47W, still needs to be determined.

8 **1 Introduction**

9 Throughout north-western Europe, realising potential winter wheat yields is dependent on the 10 management of diseases, most notably septoria tritici blotch (STB). Caused by the 11 ascomycete pathogen Zymoseptoria tritici (synonym Mycosphaerella graminicola), STB can reduce yields by up to 50%.¹ At present, control of STB is achieved through the timely 12 13 application of fungicides. In European Z. tritici populations, resistance to the QoI fungicides, ^{2, 3} in addition to declining azole sensitivity,⁴ has developed over the last 10-15 years. 14 15 Currently, control of STB is heavily dependent on the succinate dehydrogenase inhibitors 16 (SDHIs), azole mixtures, and multi-site acting fungicides such as chlorothalonil and folpet, 17 all of which are used in combination. In addition to the loss of azole sensitivity, the future availability of azoles is in doubt due to EU regulations,⁵ so STB control is expected to 18 19 become increasingly reliant on the SDHI fungicides. Five active ingredients from this group 20 of fungicides are now registered in northern Europe as foliar fungicides for use on cereals; 21 bixafen, boscalid, fluxopyroxad, isopyrazam and penthiopyrad.

22 SDHIs inhibit fungal respiration by disrupting the functioning of the succinate 23 dehydrogenase (*Sdh*) enzyme within the pathogens' mitochondria, and they provide a broad

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spectrum of disease control in a wide range of crops including cereals.⁶ The specific nature 1 2 of this control does, however, pose risks for the development of resistance in the target 3 pathogens, and for this reason they are regarded as at a medium-to-high risk of resistance development.⁷ To date there are reported to be 12 plant pathogens of economic importance 4 5 which have developed some level of field resistance to the SDHIs, with resistance induced in an additional two pathogens under laboratory conditions.⁸ Field resistance has resulted from 6 mutations in one or more of the SdhB, SdhC or SdhD subunits (Sdh enzyme). More than 27 7 8 different mutations have been identified across these different pathogens, including 9 alternative amino acids at the same codon position, and depending on the pathogen, mutation and individual active ingredient, resistance factors can vary from low to extremely high.⁶ 10

11 To gain further insights into potential molecular mechanisms of resistance to the 12 SDHIs in Z. tritici, laboratory induced resistant mutants have been analysed by several groups.⁹⁻¹² In those studies mutations in one or all of the three subunits were found and the 13 14 most commonly identified mutations included SdhB-H267Y, SdhC-A84V and SdhC-H152R. 15 However, the effects of the different mutations on sensitivity depended on the SDHI used 16 and, in some instances, on the genetic background of the Z. tritici isolates tested. Mutations 17 at some of the codons identified in the mutagenesis studies have been identified in field 18 strains (SdhB-N225T, SdhC-T79N, and SdhC-N86S) in different locations throughout northwestern Europe, although resistance factors have been reported to be low.⁸ 19

In 2015, during monitoring of a *Z. tritici* field population from an experimental trial against the SDHI penthiopyrad, isolates exhibiting decreased SDHI sensitivity were discovered. A selection of isolates from that population was further examined and compared to a larger collection, representing populations prior to the recent commercialisation of the 3rd generation SDHI fungicides, to confirm their sensitivity and potential cause of insensitivity.

1 **2 Materials & Methods**

2 **2.1 Origin of strains**

3 Winter wheat plots of the variety Cordiale, treated with the SDHI penthiopyrad, the azole 4 prothioconazole or the multi-site folpet, were randomly sampled for Z. tritici infected leaves. From these, 93 strains were isolated and their sensitivity to the SDHI fungicide penthiopyrad 5 determined as described by Dooley et al.¹³ Eight of these isolates were selected from that 6 7 collection based on sensitivity to penthiopyrad (Figure 1). Four were highly sensitive with 8 EC_{50} values within the baseline range (EC_{50} values < 1.6 mg/l), two had moderate sensitivity 9 (EC₅₀ values slightly above the highest EC₅₀ in the baseline range, > 1.6 mg/l) and two had 10 low sensitivity (EC₅₀ values > 30 mg/l).

The baseline sensitivity was based on a collection of 209 field isolates from the years 2005-2010. Sample sizes were: 2005, n = 26; 2006, n = 36; 2007, n = 19; 2009, n = 80; 2010, n = 48. Isolates came from commercial fields, representing 21 locations in Ireland, and four locations in the UK for comparison. The UK isolates (courtesy of J. Blake, ADAS) were collected in 2010 only.

16 **2.2 Fungicide sensitivity**

Sensitivity of the whole 2015 collection was determined to penthiopyrad initially, using a microtitre plate assay as described by Dooley et al.¹³ Sensitivity of eight selected strains representing the range of sensitivities present was determined to boscalid, bixafen, fluopyram, fluxapyroxad, isopyrazam, and penthiopyrad using the same assay used for the initial screen but with a greater range of test concentrations: from 0 to 100 mg/l with 12 dilutions, and plates were replicated three times. The sensitivity of all baseline isolates was determined to the same six SDHIs mentioned above using the same assay with appropriate concentration adjustments. Following incubation, sensitivity of each isolate was determined by assessing fungal growth, measured as light absorbance at 405 nm using Synergy-HT plate reader and Gen5TM microplate software (BioTek Instruments, Inc., USA) and subsequently expressed as the fungicide concentration inhibiting growth by 50% (EC₅₀) by fitting a logistic curve to percentage inhibition data using XLfit (IDBS Inc., UK). Standard error was calculated for the EC₅₀ values of the eight individual isolates.

All statistical analyses were carried out using GenStat V 14.1.0. For the baseline collection the Shapiro-Wilk test was used to test for normality. A randomisation test was used to estimate the probability that the two most insensitive isolates found would be found in the 2015 sample if there were actually a constant frequency in all samples.

11 **2.3** Sequence analysis of *SdhB*, *SdhC*, and *SdhD* subunits

12 The DNA sequences of the eight isolates from 2015 and a subset of 96 isolates (46% of the baseline collection) from the baseline collection were determined. Baseline isolates were 13 14 chosen based on their sensitivity (EC₅₀ value) to isopyrazam. From each of the five years 19 15 strains were chosen, six of which had low, seven had medium and six had high Isopyrazam 16 EC₅₀ values relative to that year's collection. DNA extraction, PCR amplification, sequencing of each subunit and analysis was performed as previously described by Dooley et 17 18 al.¹³ with the exception that both forward and reverse primers were used to sequence the 2015 19 isolates.

1 **3 Results**

2 **3.1 Sensitivity of isolates**

3 A wide range of sensitivities to the SDHI fungicide penthiopyrad (between 0.02 and > 304 mg/l) was observed amongst the 93 field isolates from 2015 (Figure 1). The median sensitivity of the 2015 collection shifted towards EC₅₀ values about 50% greater than the 5 6 baseline, from EC₅₀ values of 0.163 mg/l to 0.26 mg/l, and the distribution was bi-modal 7 (Figure 1). The sensitivity to the other SDHIs of the eight isolates tested further was, with 8 the exception of fluopyram, consistent with the response to penthiopyrad (Table 1). Isolates 9 initially selected as highly sensitive to penthiopyrad had sensitivities similar to the 10 mean/median baseline sensitivity of the other SDHIs, again with the exception of fluopyram 11 (see Table 2 for baseline sensitivity). Those with moderate sensitivity were individually within the baseline normal or skewed normal distributions (see Table 2 for baseline 12 13 sensitivity). The two isolates initially selected as having very low sensitivity to penthiopyrad 14 had high resistance factors (Table 1) and did not lie in the original normal distributions, 15 where applicable (P < 0.001 for EC₅₀ to all fungicides except fluopyram on the null 16 hypothesis of a normal distribution). Although both less sensitive isolates were found in 17 2015, there is no convincing evidence for any increase in frequency in the field since the start of commercial use of SDHI fungicides (P = 0.094 by direct calculation or randomisation 18 19 test). However, the 2015 sample distribution as a whole is less sensitive than the baseline 20 (Kolmogorov 2-sample test, D = 0.31, P < 0.001)

21 **3.2 Variation in the** *Sdh* **subunits of isolates**

In the eight isolates from 2015 only a single synonymous substitution was observed in the SdhB subunit. A large number of variations were observed in the SdhC subunit, however only five of these resulted in changes in the target protein (Table 1). The amino acid substitutions *SdhC*-R13P, *SdhC*-N33T and *SdhC*-N34T had no observable impact on SDHI sensitivity as measured; *SdhC*-N33T and *SdhC*-N34T were detected widely within the baseline collection (Table 3); *SdhC*-N79T was detected in a single strain and associated with medium levels of SDHI sensitivity. The isolates OP15.13 and OP15.15, both displaying high resistance factors towards penthiopyrad and other SDHIs, contained the *SdhC*-H152R and *SdhD*-R47W substitutions.

8 4 Discussion

9 The six 2015 isolates selected as moderately sensitive or highly sensitive were similar to 10 baseline isolates in both sensitivity and mutation spectrum. The SdhC-N79T mutation was 11 present in one of these moderately sensitive isolates, confirming the low resistance factors 12 previously reported by FRAC.⁸ The two isolates which had the mutations *SdhC*-H152R and SdhD-R47W were extremely insensitive to all SDHIs, with the exception of fluopyram. This 13 14 cross-resistance amongst SDHIs was also seen in the baseline data (data not shown) and is in agreement with Fraaije et al.¹¹ who found clear positive correlations between different 15 SDHIs, and Schürch and Cordette¹⁴ who found similar patterns but with weaker 16 17 relationships. The SdhC-H152R mutation has previously been identified by both Stammler et al. ¹⁰ and Scalliet et al. ¹² in mutagenesis studies: the latter reporting high resistance factors to 18 19 the majority of newer SDHIs. The incomplete cross-resistance between fluopyram and the 20 other SDHIs, which was observed in the baseline data (data not shown), was also demonstrated by Scalliet et al,¹² who found that an isolate with the SdhC-H152R mutation 21 22 which grew in the presence of boscalid and isopyrazam, was all but restricted in the presence 23 of fluopyram. This incomplete cross-resistance has also been demonstrated in other pathogens such as Alternaria alternate,¹⁵ A. solani,¹⁶ Botrytis cinerea,¹⁷ and Corynespora
 cassicola¹⁸.

This is the first finding of SdhC-H152R in a Z. tritici field population, and as such 3 represents an important development. Whilst Scalliet et al.¹² demonstrated the mutation 4 5 SdhC-H152R did not affect the ability of Z. tritici laboratory mutated strains to infect and 6 cause disease, they did report a reduction in enzyme activity. As our isolates were retrieved 7 from the field at a frequency (0.66%, 95% CI 0.08%-1.8%) much larger than the mutation rate (typically less than 10^{-9} for point mutations), they must be able to infect and cause 8 9 disease. Whether they suffer a fitness penalty, and what role if any the mutation *SdhD*-R47W 10 plays, remains to be determined.

11 Irrespective of potential fitness penalties it must be assumed that the continued 12 widespread use of SDHIs is likely to result in an increase in frequency of the alleles associated with high resistance factors because of the very strong selection imposed by good 13 current control levels.¹⁹ Such an increase will adversely affect the efficacy of those SDHIs 14 15 currently available as foliar applied products for STB control. Currently the SDHIs are an 16 essential tool in the control of STB in in north-western Europe. It is imperative that all 17 available measures are taken to maintain their excellent field performance against Z. tritici for 18 as long as possible. Continued monitoring of Z. tritici field populations is essential to be able 19 to identify changes in sensitivity and mutations which cause those changes. Fungicide 20 resistance management strategies, such as reductions in the number of applications of active 21 ingredients from a single group and mixing with effective fungicide partners,²⁰ particularly 22 multi-site acting fungicides, must be used to help slow the selection of resistant strains. 23 Disease incidence should be reduced by using host resistance^{21, 22} and any proven agronomic

1 practices which reduce Z. tritici population growth rates during the period of application of

2 fungicide implemented, since they will reduce the rate of selection.²³⁻²⁵

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Figure 1 Frequency distribution of baseline isolates (n = 209) and 2015 isolates (n = 93) to
the SDHI fungicide penthiopyrad. Re-tested isolates for which *Sdh* sequence was obtained
are marked by arrows.