This article was downloaded by: [Ms S. Chulze] On: 27 January 2012, At: 10:54 Publisher: Taylor & Francis Informa Ltd Registered in England and Wales Registered Number: 1072954 Registered office: Mortimer House, 37-41 Mortimer Street, London W1T 3JH, UK



Food Additives & Contaminants: Part A: Chemistry, Analysis, Control, Exposure & amp; Risk Assessment Publication details, including instructions for authors and subscription information: http://www.tandfonline.com/loi/tfac20

Natural deoxynivalenol occurrence and genotype and chemotype determination of a field population of the Fusarium graminearum complex associated with soybean in Argentina

G. Barros^a, M.S. Alaniz Zanon^a, A. Abod^a, M.S. Oviedo^a, M.L. Ramirez^a, M.M. Reynoso^a, A. Torres^a & S. Chulze^a

^a Departamento de Microbiología e Inmunología, Facultad de Ciencias Exactas Físico Químicas y Naturales, Universidad Nacional de Río Cuarto, Ruta Nacional 36 Km 601, Río Cuarto, Córdoba, Argentina

Available online: 23 May 2011

To cite this article: G. Barros, M.S. Alaniz Zanon, A. Abod, M.S. Oviedo, M.L. Ramirez, M.M. Reynoso, A. Torres & S. Chulze (2012): Natural deoxynivalenol occurrence and genotype and chemotype determination of a field population of the Fusarium graminearum complex associated with soybean in Argentina, Food Additives & Contaminants: Part A: Chemistry, Analysis, Control, Exposure & Control, Exposure & Contaminants, 29:2, 293-303

To link to this article: <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/19440049.2011.578588</u>

PLEASE SCROLL DOWN FOR ARTICLE

Full terms and conditions of use: <u>http://www.tandfonline.com/page/terms-and-conditions</u>

This article may be used for research, teaching, and private study purposes. Any substantial or systematic reproduction, redistribution, reselling, loan, sub-licensing, systematic supply, or distribution in any form to anyone is expressly forbidden.

The publisher does not give any warranty express or implied or make any representation that the contents will be complete or accurate or up to date. The accuracy of any instructions, formulae, and drug doses should be independently verified with primary sources. The publisher shall not be liable for any loss, actions, claims, proceedings, demand, or costs or damages whatsoever or howsoever caused arising directly or indirectly in connection with or arising out of the use of this material.



Natural deoxynivalenol occurrence and genotype and chemotype determination of a field population of the *Fusarium graminearum* complex associated with soybean in Argentina

G. Barros, M.S. Alaniz Zanon, A. Abod, M.S. Oviedo, M.L. Ramirez, M.M. Reynoso, A. Torres and S. Chulze*

Departamento de Microbiología e Inmunología, Facultad de Ciencias Exactas Físico Químicas y Naturales, Universidad Nacional de Río Cuarto, Ruta Nacional 36 Km 601, Río Cuarto, Córdoba, Argentina

(Received 16 November 2010; final version received 26 March 2011)

Soybean (Glycine max L.), the main source of protein throughout the world, is used both as a food and a feedstuff. Currently, limited information about the occurrence of *Fusarium* species and mycotoxins in soybean grain and by-products is available. The aims of the present study were: (1) to identify toxigenic Fusarium species associated with soybean during crop reproductive stages; (2) to determine the occurrence of deoxynivalenol (DON) and nivalenol (NIV) in soybean seeds; (3) to determine the genotype and chemotype of selected Fgcomplex strains using molecular and chemical analysis, respectively; and (4) to characterize the strains using AFLPs markers. One soybean field located at Córdoba Province, Argentina, was monitored and samples of soybean tissue were harvested at three reproductive stages: flowering (R2), full seed (R6) and full maturity (R8). A total of 389 Fusarium strains F. equiseti (40%) was the most frequently species recovered followed by F. semitectum (27%) and F. graminearum (Fg) (11%). From the 40 soybean samples analysed, only two presented detectable DON levels. Based on DON occurrence on soybean seeds at ripening stages, the toxigenic ability of Fgcomplex strains isolated from soybean seeds, pods and flowers were analysed. The trichothecene genotype was determined by a multiplex PCR using primers based on Tri3, Tri5 and Tri7 toxin genes and then the chemotype was verified by chemical analysis. Most Fg complex strains showed 15-ADON genotype and five strains presented a DON/NIV; these also produced both toxins under in vitro culture. Neither the NIV nor the 3-ADON genotypes were detected among the members of the population evaluated. All the 15-ADON genotype strains were characterized as F. graminearum sensu stricto (lineage 7), while the strains presented a DON/NIV genotype were characterized as F. meridionale (lineage 2). The present study contributes new information on the occurrence of *Fusarium* species and trichothecenes toxins on soybean at the pre-harvest stages. Also, this is the first report on the chemotype, genotype and lineages among Fg complex isolated from soybean.

Keywords: mycology; molecular biology; PCR; mycotoxins; fungi; trichothecenes; beans

Introduction

Soybean (*Glycine max* L.), the main source of protein throughout the world, is used both as food and feedstuff. Currently, virtually all soybean crops commercially grown in Argentina are genetically modified (Roundup Ready[®]-RR resistance to glyphosate). The country ranks third among soybean world producers and most production is exported as seed, meal and oil (Ministerio de Agricultura Ganadería Pesca y Alimentación de la Nación (MAGPyA) 2010).

Previous studies have shown the occurrence of toxigenic *Fusarium* species on soybean seeds in Argentina (Boca et al. 2003; Broggi et al. 2007). However, no information about the occurrence of *Fusarium* mycotoxins in soybean and by-products is available. Although several toxigenic fungi such as *Fusarium* species may infect and colonize the soybean plant from its early reproductive stages, most studies

have given more attention to fungi associated with mature soybean seeds than with flowers and pods (Roy et al. 2001).

Fusarium rot of soybeans is caused by a complex of species (Pitt and Hocking 1997), and several are known to produce a broad spectrum of toxins including trichothecenes of A- and B-types (Desjardins 2006). Among B-type trichothecenes, deoxynivalenol (DON) and nivalenol (NIV) are mycotoxins produced by members of the *F. graminearum* species complex (*Fg* complex) (O'Donnell et al. 2008). DON occurs worldwide in cereal crops from both temperate and subtropical regions (Desjardins and Proctor 2011). NIV also occurs in cereals, but is most commonly found in Asian countries, and at relatively lower levels compared with samples from Europe, southern Africa and South America (Placinta et al. 1999). DON is associated with feed refusal, vomiting and suppressed

^{*}Corresponding author. Email: schulze@exa.unrc.edu.ar

immune functions; NIV is of higher toxicity to humans and domestic animals than DON (Ryu et al. 1988).

Fg complex strains usually express one of three main trichothecene metabolites either: (1) nivalenol and its acetylated derivatives (NIV chemotype), (2) deoxynivalenol and 3-acetyldeoxynivalenol (3-ADON chemotype), or (3) deoxynivalenol and 15-acetyldeoxvnivalenol (15-ADON chemotype) (Ward et al. 2002). Surprisingly, *Fusarium* isolates that can produce both DON and NIV (NIV/DON chemotype) have been described as 'unknown' chemotypes (Ward et al. 2002; Quarta et al. 2006). The 15-ADON chemotype is predominant in America and in Europe, and the 3-ADON chemotype is predominant in the same areas of China, Australia and New Zealand (Guo et al. 2008). However, several recent studies indicated that genetically differentiated populations of Fg have emerged in Canada and the United States. Ward et al. (2008) and Guo et al. (2008) reported a significant increased of isolates with the 3-ADON chemotype in Canada. The newly emerging 3-ADON population appears to be more aggressive and produces a higher level of DON than the 15-ADON populations (Ward et al. 2008; Puri and Zhong 2010; von der Ohe et al. 2010).

Primers based on the sequences of alleles at Tri3, Tri5 and Tri7 have been designed to differentiate between the three toxin genotypes (Lee et al. 2001; Ward et al. 2002; Chandler et al. 2003; Jennings et al. 2004; Quarta et al. 2006). Interestingly, the region of the TRI cluster has a parallel and independent evolution from the rest of the genome (Ward et al. 2002) and may be useful to give further insight into the structure of a field population. Genotype characterization present in a given region and different crops could be a useful tool to map a population and identify population changes in the field (Karugia et al. 2009) as well as predicting the contamination with different trichothecenes.

Several reports examined trichothecene production by Fg complex strains from cereals in Argentina based on chemical analyses (Faifer et al. 1990; Lori et al. 1992; Molto et al. 1997; Fernandez Pinto et al. 2008; Alvarez et al. 2009). However, there is a lack of information on the trichothecene genotypes of Fgcomplex strains associated with soybean in Argentina.

The *Fg* complex (teleomorphs *Gibberella* species) is composed of at least 13 lineages (O'Donnell et al. 2000, 2004, 2008; Starkey et al. 2007; Yli-Mattila et al. 2009), most of which have now been described as species. Molecular markers such as amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) have been used to characterize *Fusarium* populations isolated from wheat and maize in America (Zeller et al. 2004; Schmale et al. 2006; Ramirez et al. 2007). The geographic location often influences the lineage present, e.g. populations from wheat in Argentina are genotypically diverse and belong to lineage 7 (Ramirez et al. 2006, 2007), also named *F. graminearum sensu stricto* (O'Donnell et al. 2000, 2004). Most studies on molecular characterization of the *Fg* complex have focused on populations from wheat, barley and corn, and there is little information on populations from soybean. Surveys of soybean seed grown in South Brazil revealed infection with species belonging to the *Fg* complex and were identified as *F. astroamericanum* (lineage 1), *F. meridionale* (lineage 2) and *F. cortaderiae* (lineage 8) (Martinelli et al. 2004).

The aims of the present study were: (1) to identify toxigenic *Fusarium* species associated with soybean during crop reproductive stages; (2) to determine the occurrence of deoxynivalenol (DON) and nivalenol (NIV) in soybean seeds; (3) to determine the genotype and chemotype of selected Fg complex strains using molecular and chemical analysis, respectively; and (4) to characterize the strains using AFLP_s markers. The working hypothesis was that infection with toxigenic *Fusarium* species can occur at the earlier stages of seed development, which would allow sufficient time for toxin production. Also, it is hypothesized that Fg complex strains isolated from soybean are similar to those found in wheat populations.

Materials and methods

Field location and sampling procedure

Samples were collected during the 2007/08 growing season in experimental plots conducted at the Universidad Nacional de Río Cuarto, Córdoba, Argentina. The cultivar used, Nidera 4613, is genetically modified for tolerance to glyphosate (maturity group IV) and one of the most planted by growers from Córdoba Province. The field (100 m length × 25 m width) was planted on December 2007 with a row spacing of 0.75 m under a no-till cultivation system and was harvested in April 2008. The samples were taken in two diagonal transects extending from opposing corners. A total of 20 samples (ten from each transect) of either flowers, pods and seeds were taken sequentially at three soybean reproductive stages, respectively: R2 (full bloom), R6 (full seed) and R8 (full maturity). At each sampling point ten plants were randomly selected and from each flowers and pods were collected from the bottom and top canopy heights. In the laboratory seeds from each pod were removed and water activity (a_w) was measured with an Aqualab Series 3 (Decagon Devices, Inc., Pullman, WA, USA). The samples were stored at 4°C until analysis.

Fungal isolation and morphological identification

From each sample 100 flowers, pods and seeds were surface disinfested for 1 min in 1% NaOCl solution,

rinsed three times in sterile distilled water and transferred to Petri dishes containing dichloran rose Bengal chloramphenicol agar (DRBC) (Pitt and Hocking 1997) and Nash–Snyder medium (Leslie and Summerell 2006). Petri dishes containing DRBC were incubated at 25°C for 5–7 days and Nash–Snyder medium was incubated at 25°C for 7 days under a 12/12-h photoperiod of cold white-and-black fluorescent lamps. The isolation frequency of *Fusarium* spp. was calculated as:

(Number of samples where fungi occurred

/total number of samples) \times 100

Single-spored cultures from colonies initially identified as *Fusarium* spp. were transferred to carnation leaf agar and further identified based on morphology (Leslie and Summerell 2006).

Deoxynivalenol and nivalenol determination in soybean seeds

Seeds samples collected at R6 and R8 stages were assessed for DON and NIV contamination by HPLC analysis. The analysis was performed using the method described by Barros et al. (2008). The dried residue was redissolved in 400 μ l of water:methanol (88:12, v/v), homogenized in a vortex mixer and injected into the HPLC system (Hewlett Packard model 1100 pump, Palo Alto, CA, USA; Rheodyne manual injector with a 50 µl loop, Rheodyne, Cotati, CA, USA). Chromatographic separations were performed on a stainless steel, C_{18} reversed-phase column (150 mm × 4.6 mm i.d., 5 µm particle size; Luna-Phenomenex, Torrance, CA, USA). The mycotoxins were detected by UV (Hewlett Packard model 1100 programmable UV detector) at 220 nm and quantified by a data module Hewlett Packard Kayak XA (HP ChemStation Rev. A.06.01). The mycotoxin levels were calculated by comparing the area of the chromatographic peak of the sample with those of the standard calibration curve. The mobile phase was water:methanol (88:12, v/v) at a flow rate of 1.5 ml min^{-1} and the detection limit (LOD) was $0.1 \,\mu g g^{-1}$ for DON and $0.2 \,\mu g g^{-1}$ for NIV, based on a signal-to-noise ratio 3:1.

DNA extraction and PCR analysis for Fg complex strains

Fg complex strains were grown in complete medium (CM) and incubated on an orbital shaker (150 rpm) for at least 3 days at $25 \pm 1^{\circ}$ C. The resulting mycelia were harvested by filtration through non-gauze milk filters (Ken AG, Ashland, OH, USA). Excess water was removed by blotting mycelia between clean paper towels, and dried mycelia were stored frozen at -20° C.

DNA was extracted with a cetyltrimethylammnonium bromide (CTAB) method (Leslie and Summerell 2006).

Prior to trichothecene genotyping, all isolates additionally identified using Fg16F were (5'-CTCCGGATATGTTGCGTCAA-3') and Fg16R (5'-GGTAGGTATCCGACATGGCAA-3') primers which produce polymorphic products with DNA from the Fg complex (Nicholson et al. 1998). PCR experiments were conducted with 10-25 ng of fungal DNA in a total volume of 25 μ l of 1 \times reaction buffer containing 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 2 U Taq DNA polymerase (Promega), $2 \,\mathrm{mM}$ dNTPs and $0.6 \,\mu\mathrm{M}$ each of the primers. A negative control, containing all reagents and primers but no fungal DNA, was included with every set of reactions. PCR was conducted in a PTC-2000 Thermal Cycler (MJ Research, Inc., Watertown, MA, USA). The PCR conditions were: 95°C, 3 min then 37 cycles of 95° C, 20 s, 62° C, 20 s, 72° C, 45 s, followed by a final extension step of 10 min, 72°C. PCR products were separated by electrophoresis through 2% agarose gels. Gels were stained with 1 μ g ml⁻¹ ethidium bromide and photographed under UV light.

For trichothecene genotype determination multiplex PCR experiments were conducted with 10-25 ng of fungal DNA in a total volume of 50 µl of $1 \times$ reaction buffer containing 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 2 U Taq DNA polymerase (Promega), 2mM dNTPs and 0.2mM each of the Tri3 primers (Tri3F971 5'-CATCATAC TCGCTCTGCTG-3', Tri3F1325 5'-GCATTGGCTA ACACATGA-3' and Tri3R1679 5'-TT(AG)TAGTT TGCATCATT(AG)TAG-3') and 0.1 mM each of primers Tri7F340 (5'-ATCGTGTACAAGGTT TACG-3'). Tri7R965 (5'-TTCAAGTAACGTTCGA CAAT-3'), 3551 H (5'-ACTTTCCCACCGAGTAT TTT-3') and 4056 H (5'-CAAAAACTGTTGTTCCA CTGCC-3') (Quarta et al. 2005, 2006). A negative control, containing all reagents and primers but no fungal DNA, was included in every set of reactions. PCR was conducted in a PTC-2000 Thermal Cycler (MJ Research) and the conditions were: 94°C, 3 min then 35 cycles of 94°C, 30 s, 53°C, 30 s, 72°C, 1 min, followed by a final extension step of 10 min, 72°C. PCR products were separated by electrophoresis through 2% agarose gels. Gels were stained with 1 μ g ml⁻¹ ethidium bromide and photographed under UV light. DNA from strains with known NIV, 3-ADON and 15-ADON chemotypes were used as positive controls. The trichothecene genotypes of the DON/NIV strains also were determined in a PCR reaction with primers for the Tri7 and Tri13 alleles. PCR reactions included 20 ng of genomic DNA as template in a 50 µl reaction composed of 1× reaction buffer, 2 mM MgCl2, 1.25 U Taq DNA polymerase (Promega), 2 mM dNTPs and 2 µM of each primer (GzTri7/p1 5'-GGCTTTACGACTCCTCA ACAATGG-3', GzTri7/p2 5'-G(A/G)CGG(C/T)AAAGAAAACCAATCAAC-3', GzTri13/p1 5'-AAT ACT(A/C)AAG(C/T)CTAG(G/T)ACGACGC-3' and

GzTri13/p2 5'-GTG(A/G)T(A/G)TCCCAGGATCT GCGTGTC-3') (Lee et al. 2001, 2002). PCR was performed in a thermal cycler (MJ Research) with an initial denaturation step at 95°C for 2 min; 30 cycles of 94°C (1 min), 55°C (1 min), and 72°C (3 min); and a final extension step at 72°C for 10 min. PCR products were separated by electrophoresis through 2% agarose gels. Gels were stained, photographed and analysed as described above. DNA from strains with known NIV, 3-ADON and 15-ADON chemotypes were used as positive controls.

Chemotype determination of Fg complex strains

The *Fg* complex strains were cultured in Erlenmeyer flasks (250 ml) containing 25 g of long grain rice. A total of 10 ml of distilled water was added before autoclaving for 30 min at 121°C, twice. Each flask was inoculated with a 3-mm diameter agar disk taken from the margin of a colony grown on synthetic nutrient agar (SNA) at 25°C for 7 days (Leslie and Summerell 2006). Flasks were shaken once a day by hand for 1 week. These cultures were incubated for 28 days at 25°C in the dark. At the end of the incubation period the contents of the flask were dried at 50°C for 24 h and then stored at -20°C until analysed for toxin.

Toxin analyses were done by using a modified version of that originally reported by Cooney et al. (2001). Each sample was finely ground, in a laboratory grinder, and homogenized. A sub-sample of ground rice (15g) was extracted by mixing with 40 ml acetonitrile:methanol (14:1, v/v), shaken for 2 h on a oscillatory shaker and then filtered through Whatman No. 1 filter paper. A syringe (3 ml capacity) plugged with glass wool and dry-packed with alumina/ carbon (20:1, w/w; 500 mg) was used as a mini-cleanup column. A 2 ml aliquot of extract was applied to the column and allowed to drain under gravity and the eluent collected. The column was washed with 500 µl acetonitrile:methanol:water (80:5:15), and the combined eluents evaporated to dryness under N_2 at 50°C. The cleaned-up residue was dissolved in 500 µl methanol:water (5:95, v/v).

The HPLC system consisted of a Hewlett Packard model 1100 pump connected to a Hewlett Packard 1100 Series variable wavelength detector and a data module Hewlett Packard Kayak XA (HP ChemStation Rev. A.06.01). Chromatographic separations were performed on a LunaTM C18 reversed-phase column (100×4.6 mm, 5 µm particle size) connected to a guard column SecurityGuardTM (4 × 3.0 mm) filled with the same phase. The mobile phase consisted of methanol:water (12:88, v/v), at a flow rate of 1.5 ml min⁻¹. The detector was set at 220 nm with an attenuation of 0.01 AUFS. Injection volume was 50 µl. Retention times for NIV and DON were 400 and 900 s, respectively. Quantification was relative to external standards of DON and NIV (Sigma-Aldrich Co., St Louis, MO, USA) of $1-4\,\mu g$ ml⁻¹ in methanol:water (5:95). The quantification limit was 5 ng g⁻¹ for each toxin.

For 3-ADON and 15-ADON determination the extract was dissolved in 500 μ l of toluene:acetonitrile (95:5, v/v). The standard mycotoxins and the extracts were applied to TLC plates (Merck 5553), and the plates were developed in a solvent system of chloroform:acetone:2-propanol (8:1:1, v/v/v). After development the plates were sprayed with 20% aluminium chloride in ethanol and heated to 120°C for 7 min. The amounts of 3-ADON and 15-ADON (Sigma-Aldrich) were determined by visual comparison with known amounts of standards under 366 nm UV light (Molto et al. 1997).

Characterization of Fg complex strains using AFLPs markers

AFLPs reactions were performed as described by Vos et al. (1995), as modified by Leslie and Summerell (2006) in a PTC-2000 Thermal Cycler (MJ Research). All buffers and DNA-modifying enzymes were used following either the manufacturer's instructions or standard protocols (Sambrook et al. 1989). Genomic DNAs digested to completion with EcoRI and MseI and ligated to AFLP adapters in a single overnight at room temperature (21–24°C) were used. The digested and ligated templates were diluted in 9 vols of Tris-EDTA buffer prior to pre-amplification. Samples were pre-amplified with the following cycling conditions: initial denaturation at 94°C for 60s, followed by 20 cycles consisting of 30 s at 94° C, 60 s at 56° C, and 60s at 72°C and a final extension step of 72°C for 5 min, and then held at 4°C indefinitely. Pre-amplified reactions were diluted 1:50 with water prior to final specific AFLP amplification. Two primer pair combinations (EcoRI + AA/MseI + AT, and EcoRI + TG/AA)MseI + TT) were used. EcoRI primers for specific amplification were end-labelled with $[\gamma^{-33}P]$ ATP. For final specific AFLP reactions, 1.3 µl of diluted preamplification reactions were used and the final volume was 5 µl. The PCR programme for the AFLP amplification was: one cycle of 94°C for 30 s, 65°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 30s, then this cycle was followed by a 12 cycle step-down protocol in which the annealing temperature was lowered each cycle by 0.7°C from 65°C to 56°C. After that, 23 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 56°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 60 s were performed; followed by a final extension step of 72°C for 5 min, and then held at 4°C.

AFLP fragments were separated in denaturing 6% polyacrylamide gels (Long Ranger gel solution, BMA, Rockland, ME, USA) with $1 \times$ Tris-borate EDTA

buffer (pH 8.0) in both the gels and the running buffer. Gels were run at a constant power of 60 W until the xylene cyanol (Sigma) marker had run approximately 22 cm. After that the gels were transferred to 3 MM gel blotting paper (Midwest Scientific, Valley Park, MO, USA) and dried before exposure to X-ray film at room Sensitive. Blue temperature (Classic Midwest Scientific) for 3-7 days to resolve banding patterns. Bands sizes were estimated on polyacrylamide gels against $[\gamma^{-33}P]$ ATP-labelled BRL low-mass ladder (Life Technologies, Rockville, MD, USA). The presence or absence of polymorphic AFLP bands was scored manually and the data recorded in a binary format. All polymorphic bands in this size range were scored, including those assumed to be homologous and to represent the same allele and locus. Each scored band of differing mobility was treated as a single independent locus with two alleles (present or absent).

To estimate the genetic distances between individuals, similarity coefficients (S) were calculated using the formula:

$$S = 2N_{xy}/(N_x + N_y)$$

where N_x is the number of fragments amplified in isolated x and y, respectively; and N_{xy} is the number of fragments shared by the two isolates (Nei 1978). Genetic distance (D) was derived from similarity coefficients as follows:

$$D = 1 - S$$

Genetic distance matrices were constructed for isolates using the compiled AFLP data. Dendrograms were prepared using the UPGMA (unweighted pair-group method using arithmetic averages) clustering strategy of the NTSYSpc 2.0 (Numerical Taxonomy System) software package (Rohlf 1990).

We included reference strains identified as belonging to the Fg complex: F. austroamericanum (lineage 1), F. meridionale (lineage 2), F. boothii (lineage 3), F. mesoamericanum (lineage 4), F. acacia-mearnsii (lineage 5), F. asiaticum (lineage 6), F. graminearum sensu stricto (lineage 7), F. cortaderiae (lineage 8), and F. brasilicum, F. vorosii, F. gerlachii (no lineage number) (O'Donnell et al. 2000, 2004; Starkey et al. 2007) as standards on each gel.

Statistical analysis

To compare the independent (flowers, pods and seeds and top and bottom of the plant) and dependent variables fungal infection, data were analysed by ANOVA. Means separation and comparison were made with Duncan multiple range test (p < 0.05) (*SAS User Guide*, SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

Results

Fungi associated with flowers, pods and seeds soybean

The mycoflora isolated from flowers, pods and seeds were dominated by two genera: Alternaria and Fusarium, at similar levels across all stages evaluated. The isolation frequency of Fusarium genus in flowers, pods and seeds at different growth stages is shown in Figure 1. Statistical analysis showed no significant differences in *Fusarium* genus infection levels between different sampling heights (bottom and top of the plant) (p > 0.05). Fusarium contamination across different stages showed higher frequency in pods and seeds at stage R6 (full seed), being the a_w of immature seeds 0.992. At stage R8 (full maturity) the water content of the seeds dropped dramatically to 0.70 and the percentage of Fusarium spp. also diminished compared with the R6 stage. Among 389 Fusarium isolates recovered, 45% were isolated from pods, 38% from seed and 17% from flowers. Among the Fusarium species identified, F. equiseti was the most frequently recovered (40%), followed by F. semitectum (27%) and Fg species complex (11%). Other Fusarium species identified were: F. oxysporum, F. solani, F.verticillioides, F. proliferatum and F. sambucinum.

Our data showed that strains of Fg complex were present along three stages evaluated, with higher isolation in pods and seeds at R6 stage (52.5% of isolates), followed by pods and seeds at R8 stage (40% of isolates) and flowers (7.5% of isolates).

Trichothecenes contamination in soybean seeds

Soybean seed samples from each reproductive stage (R6 and R8) were evaluated for DON and NIV contamination. It was found that only one sample from each crop stage, in a total of 40 seed samples analysed, were contaminated with DON at levels of $1.6 \,\mu g \, g^{-1}$ (R6) and $0.9 \,\mu g \, g^{-1}$ (R8). NIV was not detected.

Molecular identification and trichothecene genotype and chemotype determination

In the PCR reaction using the Fg16F/Fg16R primers, all strains (n=40) produced an expected fragment between approximately 450 or 500 bp, depending on the isolate.

Information for each *Fg* complex strain analysed on amplified fragments by PCR reactions and trichothecene production is shown in Table 1. PCR assays showed that 35 of 40 strains presented the 15-ADON genotype. The remaining five strains presented a DON/ NIV genotype, since they amplified two fragments of 525 and 625 bp corresponding to *Tri5* and *Tri7* alleles, respectively (Figure 2). We did not detect the NIV and the 3-ADON genotypes. The genotype of DON/NIV



Figure 1. Frequency of *Fusarium* spp. isolated from flowers, pods and seeds sampled at the bottom and top canopy at three reproductive growth stages. Bars not sharing a common letter are significantly different (p < 0.05) according to Dunn's test.

strains was confirmed using the PCR assay according to Lee et al. (2001, 2002). Also these strains showed DON/NIV genotypes since amplification of two fragments 327 bp for DON and 161 bp for NIV was observed.

Chemical analysis confirmed the production of both DON and 15-ADON by the strains that showed 15-ADON genotype. Only one strain did not produce detectable levels of DON. Out of five strains that showed DON/NIV genotype, four were able to produce both DON and NIV and one isolate produced only DON. Similar to results from the PCR assays, the NIV and 3-ADON chemotypes were not observed.

AFLPs analysis

Twenty-two strains (five with DON/NIV genotype and 17 presented 15-ADON genotype selected at random) were analysed using AFLP technique. A total of 86 AFLP bands were identified in the 200–500 bp range from the 22 analysed strains when using the two primer pair combinations. Of these 86 AFLP loci, 77.9% were polymorphic (67 loci). All 15-ADON genotype strains had AFLP profiles typical of *F. graminearum sensu stricto* (lineage 7) and we identified 16 haplotypes and a clone formed by two isolates (F5226 and F5228). Four out of five DON/NIV genotype strains clustered with the standard strain of *F. meridionale* (lineage 2). The remaining strain with DON/NIV genotype (F5036) also grouped with the standard strain of lineage 2, although was genetically distant from the other four strains. Genetic similarity coefficients between strains averaged 0.88 (range from 0.74 to 1.00) for *F. graminearum sensu stricto* strains and 0.80 (range from 0.69 to 0.94) for *F. meridionale* strains.

Discussion

A diverse group of saprophytic and parasitic fungi are able to colonize and infect soybean pods and seeds prior to harvesting (Roy et al. 2001). *Alternaria* and *Fusarium* species are the most commonly isolated fungi from soybean in Argentina (Boca et al. 2003; Broggi et al. 2007) and the United States (Baird et al. 2001; Villarroel et al. 2004). Although previous studies carried out in Argentina evaluated the fungal contamination on freshly harvested soybean or soybean seeds in storage, this is the first report on *Fusarium* species and trichothecene contamination at pre-harvest reproductive stages.

Fusarium spp. were isolated at high frequency during the three reproductive stages evaluated. The isolation frequency of this genus on pods and seeds was greater at later reproductive stage which could be related to the difference in the a_w between crop stages. In contrast, other studies had demonstrated that the rate of moisture loss has been positively correlated with pathogen incidence, such as *Phomopsis* spp., in the interval between the R6 and R8 growth stages (Baird et al. 2001; Villarroel et al. 2004). Most of *Fusarium* species are considered saprophytic fungi causing no direct damage to soybean seed, but some produce

Table 1. Amplified fragments by PCR reactions and trichothecene production in Fg complex strains.

Isolate	Source/stage	Quarta et al. (2006) protocol amplified fragments (pb)				Trichothecene production ($\mu g g^{-1}$)			
		354	525	625	708	DON	NIV	15-ADON	3-ADON
F5030	Flower R2	_	+	_	+	15.7	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5051	Flower R2	_	+	_	+	36.0	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5221	Flower R2	_	+	_	+	0.8	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5031	Pod R6	_	+	_	+	35.4	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5038	Pod R6	_	+	_	+	8.7	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5040	Pod R6	_	+	+	_	18.2	9.1	n.d.	n.d.
F5047	Pod R6	_	+	+	_	16.1	11.9	n.d.	n.d.
F5049	Pod R6	_	+	_	+	18.5	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5052	Pod R6	_	+	_	+	144.0	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5055	Pod R6	_	+	_	+	30.3	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5056	Pod R6	_	+	_	+	48.1	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5057	Pod R6	_	+	_	+	4.8	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5222	Pod R6	_	+	_	+	3.2	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5223	Pod R6	_	+	_	+	81.1	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5225	Pod R6	_	+	_	+	8.0	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5226	Pod R6	_	+	_	+	16.0	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5227	Pod R6	_	+	_	+	7.6	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5036	Seed R6	_	+	+	_	3.5	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
F5044	Seed R6	_	+	_	+	4.3	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5046	Seed R6	_	+	_	+	15.3	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5184	Seed R6	_	+	_	+	3.6	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5185	Seed R6	_	+	_	+	41.5	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5186	Seed R6	_	+	_	+	4.3	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5187	Seed R6	_	+	_	+	7.9	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5001	Pod R8	_	+	_	+	15.6	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5024	Pod R8	_	+	_	+	16.6	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5028	Pod R8	_	+	_	+	15.3	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5034	Pod R8	_	+	_	+	n.d.	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5048	Pod R8	_	+	+	_	2.3	9.4	n.d.	n.d.
F5050	Pod R8	_	+	_	+	62.7	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5053	Pod R8	_	+	_	+	15.9	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5054	Pod R8	_	+	_	+	3.8	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5058	Pod R8	_	+	_	+	4.2	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5059	Pod R8	_	+	_	+	40.0	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5002	SeedR8	_	+	_	+	16.0	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5005	SeedR8	_	+	_	+	16.6	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5043	SeedR8	_	+	+	· —	12.3	5.8	n.d.	n.d.
F5220	SeedR8	_	+		+	0.4	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5224	SeedR8	_	+	_	+	8.7	n.d.	+	n.d.
F5228	SeedR8	_	+	_	+	9.8	n.d.	+	n.d.
	Secure		1			2.0			

Note: n.d., Not detected.



Figure 2. DNA agarose gel of the multiplex PCR assay: lanes 1–3, positive controls of NIV, 15-ADON and 3-ADON genotypes, respectively; lane 4, 100-bp ladder marker; lanes 5 and 6, DON/NIV genotype soybean isolates; lanes 7–10, 15-ADON genotype soybean isolates; and lane 11 negative control (omitting DNA template).

mycotoxins which are harmful to human and animals if consumed (Roy et al. 2001).

The *Fusarium* species identified in this work were similar to those found by Broders et al. (2007) in soybean seed and seedlings in Ohio (USA) and Broggi et al. (2007) from soybean seeds harvested in Entre Ríos Province (Argentina). Among the toxigenic *Fusarium* species, *F. equiseti* was the most frequently isolated. This species is known to produce trichothecenes such as diacetoxyscirpenol, nivalenol and T-2 toxin (Leslie and Summerell 2006). We did not analyse this toxin in our work and further studies are necessary to evaluate the toxigenic ability of the isolates and natural occurrence of those toxins in soybean seeds.

Of the many species of *Fusarium* isolated in the present study, perhaps the most important are members of Fg complex. Disease reports in soybean by species within this complex are contradictory and some authors considered them non-pathogenic to soybean (García-Romera et al. 1998; Miller et al. 1998), a secondary colonist of soybean seed damaged by other fungi or by freezing (Wicklow et al. 1987; Osorio and McGee 1992; Jacobsen et al. 1995), and a primary pathogen (Martinelli et al. 2004; Broders et al. 2007; Xue et al. 2007).

The presence of species belonging to the Fg complex in soybean may be attributable to the increase of the conservation tillage systems in Argentina. No-tillage cultivation must leave at least 30% of the debris on the soil surface and members of the Fg complex has been shown to colonize readily crop debris left behind wheat, corn and soybean (Baird et al. 1997; Osborne and Stein 2007). Inoculum propagules including both ascospores and conidia are likely to be found at nearly any time during the adult stages of the crop when the environmental falls within the wide range of favourable conditions (Beyer and Vereet 2005). Our data showed that strains of the Fg complex were present in the three stages evaluated and the isolation frequency was greater on pods than on seeds and flowers. Roy et al. (2001) suggested that fungal colonization of pods and flowers is important in relation to the dynamics of soybean pod and seed infection and to disease control. For example, certain fungi capable of sustained colonisation of maturing and mature pods are more likely to progress into seeds. In this way, a high incidence of the Fg complex strains on pods may affect the percentage of infection in soybean seeds, increasing the risk of DON accumulation.

In previous studies DON was detected in soybean, but this contamination occurred in damaged seeds (Wicklow et al. 1987; Jacobsen et al. 1995) or in soybean inoculated under greenhouse conditions (Martinelli et al. 2004). However, to our knowledge this is the first report to demonstrate natural contamination of DON in soybean during grain ripening. Generally, grains with a moisture content equivalent to less than 0.70 a_w (<14.5% moisture by weight) may not be subject to fungal spoilage and mycotoxin production (Alfred and Magan 2004). In the present study, an a_w of 0.7 was observed in soybean seeds at stage R8, thus suggesting that toxin production occurred between full seed and full maturity stages when the a_w level was around 0.99.

Fernandez Pinto et al. (2008) found that 13 of 19 wheat samples were contaminated with DON in a range of $0.3-70 \ \mu g \ g^{-1}$ and reported for the first time the natural co-occurrence of DON and NIV in wheat cultivated in Argentina. The incidence and DON levels found in soybean seeds were lower than those observed in wheat from Argentina.

The *Fg* complex strains isolated from soybean were mainly 15-ADON genotypes, which is similar to studies on wheat strains from the Netherlands, Brazil, the UK, China, Luxembourg and Argentina (Waalwijk et al. 2003; Jennings et al. 2004; Ji et al. 2007; Pasquali et al. 2009, 2010; Scoz et al. 2009; Reynoso et al. 2011).

Analysis of trichothecene chemotype among the Fgcomplex isolates revealed that 15-ADON was the dominant chemotype. Similar results were obtained in previous studies that evaluated the toxigenic potential of Fg isolates from wheat in Argentina (Alvarez et al. 2009; Reynoso et al. 2011) and south Brazil (Scoz et al. 2009). This finding is not surprising since soybean is routinely rotated with wheat in Argentina and the pool of strains could be the same in the agro-ecosystem. This is in contrast to results obtained by Martinelli et al. (2004) who found that Fg complex strains from soybean in Brazil to possess an NIV and 3-ADON chemotype. The prevalence of this chemotype in Brazilian soybean may be related to fact that strains that produce NIV and 3-ADON may be more aggressive than DON/ 15-ADON producing strains (Ward et al. 2008). Strains with an NIV and/or 3-ADON chemotype were not recovered from soybean in our study.

The DON/NIV genotype from two Italian strains isolated from barley and weeds described by Quarta et al. (2006) and from nine Argentinean strains isolated from wheat by Reynoso et al. (2011) amplified the 525-bp fragment together with the 625-bp fragment. However, the Italian strains expressed the NIV chemotype and the Argentinean strains the DON chemotype. In contrast, Korean strains isolated from rice showing the DON/NIV genotype based on Tri-7 and Tri-13 loci produced only 3-ADON by chemical analysis (Lee et al. 2009). Our results showed that among the strains characterized as a DON/NIV genotype according to the methodologies proposed by Quarta et al. (2006) and Lee et al. (2001, 2002), four produced detectable DON and NIV levels and one strain produced only DON by chemical analysis. The Fg complex strains with an unusual ability to produce both DON and NIV have also be found previously from wheat populations in Argentina

(Fernandez Pinto et al. 2008; Reynoso et al. 2011). Soybean is often used in rotation with wheat and other cereal crops in Argentina, therefore the Fg complex strains from soybean possessing a distinct chemotype could provide a inoculum source to infections on wheat. Further studies will be necessary in order to characterize the virulence of the hybrid DON/NIV producer's strains in soybean crop. Previous studies demonstrated that NIV-producing isolates are less virulent on wheat than DON-producing isolates (Desjardins et al. 2004). Consequently, without high levels of initial inoculum of DON/NIV-producing isolates, infection cannot cause high NIV levels in harvested seeds. This may explain the no natural occurrence of NIV in soybean seeds observed in the present study.

This work represents the first report on the genotypic and chemotypic characterization of Fg complex strains isolated from soybean in Argentina. A strong correlation between multiplex PCR (genotype) and chemical analysis (chemotype) was observed. In this sense, PCR genotyping allowed a rapid and accurate diagnostic and may be a useful tool to determine the chemotype distribution across several crops and to monitor potential shifts in field populations in the future.

F. graminearum sensu stricto (lineage 7) is the most widespread species within of the Fg complex described to date. The results obtained in the present study are consistent with those of Zeller et al. (2003) and Scoz et al. (2009) who found that F. graminearum sensu stricto was the dominant specie in Uruguay and southern Brazil, respectively, and Ramirez et al. (2007) who detected only F. graminearum sensu stricto among populations isolated from wheat in Argentina. In contrast, Martinelli et al. (2004) found that all Brazilian isolates from soybean seeds belonged to F. austroamericanum, F. meridionale and F. cortaderiae (lineages 1, 2 and 8, respectively). Previously, Sampietro et al. (2010) detected one strain of F. meridionale in maize of the subtropical region of Argentina. However, this is the first report of F. meridionale isolated from soybean in Argentina.

Strains characterized as *F. meridionale* in the present work showed a DON/NIV chemotype. In contrast, strains of this species isolated by Sampietro et al. (2010) and Martinelli et al. (2004) exhibited an NIV chemotype. These results agree with those of Ward et al. (2002) who suggested that lineage and trichothecene chemotype are not correlated.

The lineage composition of *Fg* complex populations does appear to be host and location dependent. In China and the southern provinces of Korea *F. asiaticum* (lineage 6) usually dominates and may be associated with the culture of rice (Gale et al. 2002; Lee et al. 2009). A recent survey of strains on wheat from Brazil suggests that *F. graminearum sensu stricto* is predominant (Scoz et al. 2009), while all Brazilian soybean isolates belong to *F. austroamericanum*, *F. meridionale* and *F. cortaderiae* (Martinelli et al. 2004). This could partially explain the presence of *F. meridionale* strains in soybean and that they have not been recovered from wheat in Argentina. Additional sampling on different soybeangrowing regions in Argentina and further sequence analysis will be needed to confirm the role of the soybean crop as a population reservoir of several species within the Fg complex.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by grants from the Secretaría de Ciencia y Técnica, Universidad Nacional de Río Cuarto (SECyT-UNRC 2009–2010), CONICET PIP No. 11220080101753 and Agencia Nacional de Promoción Científica y Tecnológica (PICT/08-1519). M.S. Alaniz Zanon, A. Abod and M.S. Oviedo are fellows of CONICET; and G. Barros, M.M. Reynoso, M.L. Ramirez, A. Torres and S. Chulze are members of the Research Career of CONICET.

References

- Alfred D, Magan N. 2004. Prevention strategies for trichothecenes. Toxicol Lett. 153:165–171.
- Alvarez CL, Azcarate MP, Fernandez Pinto VF. 2009. Toxigenic potential of *Fusarium graminearum sensu stricto* isolates from wheat in Argentina. Int J Food Microbiol. 135(2):131–135.
- Baird RE, Abney TS, Mullinix BG. 2001. Fungi associated with pods and seeds during the R6 and R8 stagers of four soybean varieties in Southwestern Indiana. Phytoprotection. 82:1–11.
- Baird RE, Mullinix BG, Perry AB, Lang ML. 1997. Diversity and longevity of the soybean debris mycobiota in a notillage system. Plant Dis. 81:530–534.
- Barros G, García D, Oviedo S, Ramirez L, Torres A, Chulze S. 2008. Deoxynivalenol and nivalenol analysis in soybean and soy flour. World Mycot J. 1(3):263–266.
- Beyer M, Vereet JA. 2005. Germination of *Gibberella zeae* ascospores as affected by age of spores after discharge and environmental factors. Eur J Plant Pathol. 111:381–389.
- Boca RT, Pacin AM, Gonzalez HHL, Resnik SL, Souza JC. 2003. Soja y micotoxinas: Flora fúngica – Variedades – Prácticas agronómicas. Aceites Grasas. 4:510–515.
- Broders KD, Lipps PE, Paul PA, Dorrance AE. 2007. Evaluation of *Fusarium graminearum* associated with corn and soybean seed and seedling in Ohio. Plant Dis. 91:1155–1160.
- Broggi L, González HHL, Resnik SL, Pacin AM. 2007. *Alternaria alternata* prevalence in cereal grains and soybean seeds from Entre Ríos, Argentina. Rev Iberoam Micol. 24:47–51.
- Chandler EA, Simpson DR, Thomsett MA, Nicholson P. 2003. Development of PCR assays to Tri7 and Tri13 trichothecene biosynthetic genes and characterization of chemotypes of *Fusarium graminearum*, *Fusarium culmorum* and *Fusarium cerealis*. Physiol Molec Plant Pathol. 62:355–376.

- Cooney JM, Lauren DR, di Menna ME. 2001. Impact of competitive fungi on trichothecene production by *Fusarium graminearum*. J Agric Food Chem. 49:522–526.
- Desjardins AE. 2006. *Fusarium* mycotoxins: chemistry, genetics, and biology. St. Paul (MN): APS Press.
- Desjardins AE, Jarosz AM, Plattner RD, Alexander NJ, Brown DW, Jurgenson JE. 2004. Patterns of trichothecene production, genetic variability, and virulence to wheat of *Fusarium graminearum* from smallholder farms in Nepal. J Agric Food Chem. 52:6341–6346.
- Desjardins AE, Proctor RH. 2011. Genetic diversity and trichothecene chemotypes of the *Fusarium graminearum* clade isolated from maize in Nepal and identification of a putative new lineage. Fungal Biol. 115(1):38–48.
- Faifer GC, de Sala M, Godoy HM. 1990. Patterns of mycotoxin production by *Fusarium graminearum* isolated from Argentina wheat. Mycopathologia. 109:165–170.
- Fernandez Pinto VE, Terminiello LA, Basilico JC, Ritieni A. 2008. Natural occurrence of nivalenol and mycotoxigenic potential of *Fusarium graminearum* strains in wheat affected by head blight in Argentina. Brazilian J Microbiol. 39:157–162.
- Gale LR, Chen LF, Hernick CA, Takamura K, Kistler HC. 2002. Population analysis of *Fusarium graminearum* from wheat fields in eastern China. Phytopathology. 92:1315–1322.
- García-Romera I, García-Garrido JM, Martin J, Fracchia S, Mujica MT, Godeas A, Ocampo JA. 1998. Interactions between saprophitic Fusarium strains and arbuscular mycorrhizas of soybean plants. Symbiosis. 24:235–245.
- Guo X-W, Fernando WGD, Seow-Brock HY. 2008. Population structure, chemotype diversity, and potential chemotype shifting of *Fusarium graminearum* in wheat fields of Manitoba. Plant Dis. 92:756–762.
- Jacobsen BJ, Harbin KS, Swanson SP, Lambert RJ, Beasley VR, Sinclair JB, Wei LS. 1995. Occurrence of fungi and mycotoxins associated with field mold damage soybeans in the Midwest. Plant Dis. 79:86–88.
- Jennings P, Coates ME, Walsh K, Turner JA, Nicholson P. 2004. Determination of deoxynivalenol and nivalenol producing chemotypes of *Fusarium graminearum* isolated from wheat crops in England and Wales. Plant Pathol. 53:643–652.
- Ji L, Cao T, Wang S. 2007. Determination of deoxynivalenol and nivalenol chemotypes of *Fusarium graminearum* isolates from China by PCR assay. J Phytopathol. 155:505–512.
- Karugia GW, Suga H, Gale LR, Nakajima T, Ueda A, Hyakumachi M. 2009. Population structure of *Fusarium* asiaticum from two Japanese regions and eastern China. J Gen Plant Pathol. 75:110–118.
- Lee J, Chang I-Y, Kim H, Yun S-H, Leslie JF, Lee Y-W. 2009. Genetic diversity and fitness of *Fusarium graminearum* populations from rice in Korea. Appl Environ Microbiol. 75:3289–3295.
- Lee T, Han Y-K, Kim K-H, Yun SH, Lee Y-W. 2002. Tri 13 and Tri7 determine deoxynivalenol- and nivalenolproducing chemotypes of *Gibberella zeae*. Appl Environ Microbiol. 68:2148–2154.
- Lee T, Oh DW, Kim HS, Lee J, Kim YH, Yun S-H, Lee Y-W. 2001. Identification of deoxynivalenol and

nivalenol producing chemotypes of *Gibberella zeae* by using PCR. Appl Environ Microbiol. 67:2966–2972.

- Leslie JF, Summerell BA. 2006. The *Fusarium* laboratory manual. Ames (IA): Blackwell.
- Lori GA, Carranza MR, Violante A, Rizzo I, Alippi HE. 1992. *Fusarium* spp. en trigo, capacidad toxicogénica y quimiotaxonomía de las cepas aisladas en la Argentina. Agronomie. 12:459–467.
- Martinelli JA, Bocchese CAC, Xie W, O'Donnell K, Kistler HC. 2004. Soybean pod blight and root rot caused by lineages of *Fusarium graminearum* and the production of mycotoxins. Fitopatol Bras. 29:492–498.
- Miller JD, Culley J, Fraser K, Hubbard S, Meloche F, Ouellet T, Seaman WL, Seifert KA, Turkington K, Voldeng H. 1998. Effect of tillage practices on Fusarium head blight of wheat. Can J Plant Pathol. 20:95–103.
- Ministerio de Agricultura Ganadería Pesca y Alimentación de la Nación (MAGPyA). 2010. Soja informe general; [cited 2010 May 27]. Available from: http://www.sagyp. mecon.gov.ar/new/0-0/agricultura/otros/estimaciones/ soja/infsoja/php/
- Molto GA, Gonzalez HHL, Resnik SL, Pereyra Gonzalez A. 1997. Production of trichothecenes and zearalenone by isolates of *Fusarium* spp. from Argentinean maize. Food Addit Contam. 14:263–268.
- Nei M. 1978. Estimation of average heterozygosities and genetic distance from a small number of individuals. Genetics. 89:583–590.
- Nicholson P, Simpson DR, Weston G, Rezanoor HN, Lees AK, Parry DW, Joyce D. 1998. Detection and quantification of *Fusarium culmorum* and *Fusarium graminearum* in cereals using PCR assays. Physiol Mol Plant Pathol. 53:7–37.
- O'Donnell K, Kistler HC, Tacke BK, Casper HH. 2000. Gene genealogies reveal global phylogeographic structure and reproductive isolation among lineages of *Fusarium graminearum*, the fungus causing wheat scab. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 97:7905–7910.
- O'Donnell K, Ward TJ, Aberra D, Kistler HC, Aoki T, Orwig NG, Kimura M, Bjornstad A, Klemsdal SS. 2008. Multilocus genotyping and molecular phylogenetics resolve a novel head blight pathogen within the *Fusarium graminearum* species complex from Ethiopia. Fungal Gen Biol. 45:1514–1522.
- O'Donnell K, Ward TJ, Geiser DM, Kistler HC, Aoki T. 2004. Genealogical concordance between the mating type locus and seven other nuclear genes supports formal recognition of nine phylogenetically distinct species within the *Fusarium graminearum* clade. Fungal Gen Biol. 41:600–623.
- Osborne LE, Stein JM. 2007. Epidemiology of Fusarium head blight on small-grain cereals. Int J Food Microbiol. 119:103–108.
- Osorio JA, McGee DC. 1992. Effect of freezing damage on soybean seed mycoflora and germination. Plant Dis. 76:879–882.
- Pasquali M, Girau F, Brochot C, Cocco E, Hoffman L, Bohn T. 2010. Genetic Fusarium chemotyping as a useful tool for predicting nivalenol contamination in winter wheat. Int J Food Microbiol. 137:246–253.
- Pasquali M, Girau F, Brochot C, Hoffman L, Bohn T. 2009. First report of the nivalenol chemotype of *Fusarium*

graminearum causing head blight of wheat in the Grand Duchy of Luxemburgo. Plant Dis. 93:1217.

- Pitt JI, Hocking AD. 1997. Fungi and food spoilage. Sydney (NSW, Australia): CSIRO Division of Food Science and Technology, Sydney Academic Press.
- Placinta CM, D'Mello JPF, Macdonald AMC. 1999. A review of worldwide contamination of cereal grains and animal feed with *Fusarium* mycotoxins. Anim Feed Sci Technol. 78:21–37.
- Puri KD, Zhong S. 2010. The 3ADON population of *Fusarium graminearum* found in North Dakota is more aggressive and produces a higher level and DON than the prevalent 15ADON population in spring wheat. Phytopathology. 100:1007–1014.
- Quarta A, Mita G, Haidukowski M, Logrieco A, Mule G, Visconti A. 2006. Multiplex PCR assay for the identification of nivalenol 3 and 15 acetyl deoxynivalenol chemotypes in *Fusarium*. FEMS Microbiol Lett. 259:7–13.
- Quarta A, Mita G, Haidukowski M, Santino A, Mule G, Visconti A. 2005. Further data on trichothecene chemotypes of European *Fusarium* culmorum isolates. Food Add Contam. 22:309–315.
- Ramirez ML, Reynoso MM, Farnochi MC, Chulze S. 2006. Vegetative compatibility among *Fusarium graminearum* (Gibberella zeae) isolates from wheat spikes in Argentina. Eur J Plant Pathol. 115:129–138.
- Ramirez ML, Reynoso M, Farnochi MC, Torres AM, Leslie JF, Chulze SN. 2007. Population genetic structure of *Gibberella zeae* isolated from wheat in Argentina. Food Add Contamin. 24:1115–1120.
- Reynoso MM, Ramirez ML, Torres A, Chulze S. 2011. Trichothecene genotypes and chemotypes in *Fusarium graminearum* strains isolated from wheat in Argentina. Int J Food Microbiol. 145:444–448.
- Rohlf FJ. 1990. Fitting curves to outlines. In: Rohlf FJ, Bookstein FL, editors. Proceedings of the michigan morphometrics workshop. Museum of Zoology special publication no. 2. Michigan (MI): University of Michigan. p. 167–177.
- Roy KW, Baird RE, Abney TS. 2001. A review of soybean (Glycine max) seed, pod and flower mycofloras in North America, with methods and a key for identification of selected fungi. Mycopathologia. 150:15–27.
- Ryu JC, Ohtsubo K, Izumiyama N, Nakamura K, Tanaka T, Yamamura H, Ueno Y. 1988. The acute and chronic toxicities of nivalenol in mice. Fundam Appl Toxicol. 11:38–47.
- Sambrook J, Fritsch EF, Maniatis T. 1989. Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual. 2nd ed. Cold Spring Harbor (NY): Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory.
- Sampietro DA, Marín P, Iglesias J, Presello DA, Vattuone MA, Catalan CAN, Gonzalez Jaen MT. 2010. A molecular based strategy for rapid diagnosis of toxigenic *Fusarium* species associated to cereal grains from Argentina. Fungal Biol. 114(1):74–81.
- Schmale DG, Leslie JF, Zeller KA, Saleh AA, Shields EJ, Bergstrom GC. 2006. Genetic structure of atmospheric populations of *Gibberella zeae*. Phytopathology. 96: 1021–1026.
- Scoz LB, Astolfi P, Reartes DS, Schmale III DG, Moraes MG, Del Ponte EM. 2009. Trichothecene

mycotoxin genotypes of *Fusarium graminearum sensu* strict and *Fusarium meridionale* in wheat from southern Brazil. Plant Pathol. 58(2):344–351.

- Starkey DE, Ward TJ, Aoki T, Gale LR, Kistler HC, Geiser DM, Suga H, Toth B, Varga J, O'Donnell K. 2007. Global molecular surveillance reveals novel Fusarium head blight species and trichothecene toxin diversity. Fungal Gen Biol. 44:1191–1204.
- Villarroel DA, Baird RE, Trevathan LE, Watson CE, Scruggs ML. 2004. Pod and seed mycoflora on transgenic and conventional soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merrill] cultivars in Mississippi. Mycopathologia. 157:207–215.
- von der Ohe C, Gauthier V, Tamburic-Ilincic L, Brule-Babel A, Fernando WGD, Clear R, Ward TJ, Miedaner T. 2010. A comparison of aggressiveness and deoxynivalenol production between Canadian *Fusarium graminearum* isolates with 3-acetyl and 15-acetyldeoxynivalenol chemotypes in field-grown spring wheat. Eur J Plant Pathol. 127:407–417.
- Vos P, Hogers R, Bleeker M, Reijans M, Van de Lee T, Hornes M, Frijters A, Pot J, Peleman J, Kuiper M, et al. 1995. AFLP: a new technique for DNA fingerprinting. Nucleic Acids Res. 23:4407–4414.
- Waalwijk C, Kastelein P, De Vries I, Kerenyi Z, van der Lee T, Hesselink T, Köhl J, Kema GHJ. 2003. Major changes in *Fusarium* spp. in wheat in the Netherlands. Eur J Plant Pathol. 109:743–754.
- Ward TJ, Bielawski JP, Kistler HC, Sullivan E, O'Donnell K. 2002. Ancestral polymorphism and adaptive evolution in the trichothecene mycotoxin gene cluster of phytopathogenic *Fusarium*. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 99:9278–9283.
- Ward TD, Clear RM, Rooney AP, O'Donnell K, Gaba D, Patrick S, Starkey DE, Gilbert J, Geiser DM, Nowicki TW. 2008. An adaptive evolutionary shift in Fusarium head blight pathogen populations is driving the rapid spread of more toxigenic *Fusarium graminearum* in North America. Fungal Gen Biol. 45(4):473–484.
- Wicklow DT, Bennet GA, Shotwell OL. 1987. Secondary invasion of soybean by *Fusarium graminearum* and result in mycotoxin contamination. Plant Dis. 71:1146.
- Xue AG, Cober E, Voldeng H.D, Babcock C, Clear RM. 2007. Evaluation of the pathogenicity of *Fusarium graminearum* and *Fusarium pseudograminearum* on soybean seedlings under controlled conditions. Can J Plant Pathol. 29:35–40.
- Yli-Mattila T, Gagkaeva T, Ward TJ, Aoki T, Kistler HC, O'Donnell K. 2009. A novel Asian clade within the *Fusarium graminearum* species complex includes a newly discovered cereal head blight pathogen from the Russian Far East. Mycologia. 101:841–852.
- Zeller KA, Bowden RL, Leslie JF. 2004. Population differentiation and recombination in wheat scab populations of Gibberella zeae in the United States. Mol Ecol. 13:563–571.
- Zeller KA, Vargas JI, Valdovinos-Ponce G, Leslie JF, Bowden RL. 2003. Population genetic differentiation and lineage composition among Gibberella zeae (*Fusarium graminearum*) in north and South America. Fungal Gen Newsl. 50(Suppl.):143.