Population structure of plantpathogenic Fusarium species in overwintered stalk residues from Bt-transformed and nontransformed maize crops

Journal Article

Author(s): Naef, Andreas; Défago, Geneviève

Publication date: 2006

Permanent link: <https://doi.org/10.3929/ethz-b-000000690>

Rights / license: [In Copyright - Non-Commercial Use Permitted](http://rightsstatements.org/page/InC-NC/1.0/)

Originally published in: European Journal of Plant Pathology 116(2),<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10658-006-9048-x>

Population structure of plant-pathogenic Fusarium species in overwintered stalk residues from Bt-transformed and non-transformed maize crops

A. Naef, and G. Défago*

Plant Pathology, Institute of Integrative Biology, ETH Zurich, 8092, Zurich, Switzerland; *Author for Correspondence (Phone: $+41-44-6323869$; Fax: $+41-44-6321572$; E-mail: genevieve.defago@agrl.ethz.ch)

Accepted 6 July 2006

Key words: Bt maize residues, Cry1Ab protein, Microsatellites, Saprophytic Fusarium survival, PCR-based identification, Population genetic structure

Abstract

Bt-transformed maize contains genes from Bacillus thuringiensis encoding for insecticidal crystal proteins. Less insect damage on Bt maize stalks can cause a reduced infection by *Fusarium* species through plant injuries. This could affect the presence of plant-pathogenic *Fusarium* species on maize residues which serve as an inoculum source for subsequent crops. We collected overwintered maize stalks of four different Bt maize hybrids and their corresponding non-Bt lines in two consecutive years in a field trial in Germany. Fusarium spp. were isolated from 67% of 648 collected maize stalks. Identification with new multiplex PCR assays showed that F. graminearum, F. avenaceum, and F. proliferatum were the most abundant Fusarium species, isolated from 42%, 26%, and 15% of the stalks, respectively. Species abundances varied between varieties and collection years. No consistent difference was found between Bt and non-Bt stalks. Fusarium graminearum isolates were subject to a population genetic structure analysis with eight newly developed microsatellites. Significant association of loci and overrepresentation of repeated multilocus haplotypes indicated a substantial asexual component of reproduction, supporting selection of haplotypes. The data suggested selection of particular F. graminearum haplotypes by collection years but not by maize Bt transformation. Haplotypic changes between years caused no divergence in the distribution of alleles, suggesting that gene flow beyond the field scale prevented substructuring. We present evidence for gene flow between our saprophytic F. graminearum population on maize residues and a wheat-pathogenic population from a field 100 km distant.

Introduction

The most frequently reported causes of stalk rot of maize (Zea mays) are Fusarium graminearum, F. verticillioides (syn. F. moniliforme), F. proliferatum, and F. subglutinans (Kommendahl and Windels, 1981). These *Fusarium* species can also cause maize ear rot (Logrieco et al., 2002) and F. graminearum is further known as a major causal agent of Fusarium head blight of small-grain

cereals (Bottalico and Perrone, 2002). In addition to causing losses of yield, crop infestation by these Fusarium species is a concern for human and animal health because they are capable of producing mycotoxins such as trichothecenes, fumonisins, or moniliformin (Bennett and Klich, 2003).

Fusarium spp. can survive saprophytically on plant tissue that remains in the field after harvest and which then serves as a major inoculum source for the infection of subsequent crops (Windels et al., 1988). Increased Fusarium head blight incidence was observed when wheat was grown after maize, particularly under reduced tillage systems for soil conservation (Champeil et al., 2004). This suggests that maize residues on the soil surface are particularly suitable for the survival of pathogenic Fusarium spp. Tillage can reduce the incidence of Fusarium diseases because the survival of F. graminearum, F. verticillioides, F. proliferatum, and F. subglutinans is lower on buried than on surface maize residues (Khonga and Sutton, 1988; Cotten and Munkvold, 1998).

Bt maize, expressing insecticidal crystal proteins from Bacillus thuringiensis, is one of the dominant transgenic crops, being cultivated on 11.3 million hectares worldwide in 2005 (James, 2005). Most Bt maize varieties express the Cry1Ab protein which protects the plant against the lepidopteran insect pest, particularly the European stem borer Ostrinia nubilalis. In our field trial, the European stem borer was detected in about 5% of the non-Bt plants in both years and completely absent in Bt plants. Less insect damage on Bt plants occasionally causes a reduced infection by Fusarium species through plant injuries (Munkvold et al., 1997). Gatch and Munkvold (2002) further reported a reduced proportion of F. verticilliodes and F. proliferatum in stalk rot of Bt maize, often accompanied by an increased proportion F. graminearum. Such shifts in the pathogen complex of infected maize stalks could affect the species composition of Fusarium in overwintered maize stalks. The saprophytic survival of Fusarium could be further affected by unintended changes of the crop chemical composition as a result of Bt transformation. We previously reported differences in the chemical composition in two of the four Bt/non-Bt maize hybrid pairs used in this study. These differences could not be explained by the sole production of the additional Bt protein. Bioassays with a F. graminearum model strain on maize leaf tissue indicated that these chemical differences can affect its saprophytic growth (Naef et al., 2006b). Selection within the Fusarium population of species or haplotypes that can better adapt to such chemical changes could affect the Fusarium population structure on Bt maize residues. Such potential effects of maize Bt transformation have not yet been assessed.

The traceability of haplotype selection within a particular Fusarium species depends on the relative

dominance of sexual versus asexual reproduction. Sexual reproduction could mask selection of haplotypes because the ascospores produced are wind-dispersed beyond fields (de Luna et al., 2002) and because recombination creates new haplotypes. On the other hand, asexual reproduction produces a large number of genetically identical conidia which are splash-dispersed over short distances only (Sutton, 1982). Therefore, in a mainly asexually reproducing Fusarium population, selection of particular haplotypes on Bt maize residues could be detected as changes in haplotype frequencies (McDonald et al., 1996).

The objective of this work was to assess potential effects of transgenic Bt maize residues on the population structure of pathogenic Fusarium species in a field trial in southern Germany. We investigated the abundance of eight agronomically important maize- and wheat-pathogenic Fusarium species on naturally overwintered maize stalks of four transgenic Bt varieties and their near-isogenic non-transgenic lines in two consecutive years. Multiplex PCR assays with established PCR primers were developed for efficient identification of Fusarium isolates. Genetic data were generated for F. graminearum, F. culmorum, and F. crookwellense isolates with seven newly developed and one previously published microsatellite marker to assess the mode of reproduction and to detect potential selection of haplotypes on Bt maize residues. Furthermore, we assessed the extent of genetic exchange between our saprophytic F. graminearum population and a pathogenic population from a German wheat field (Miedaner et al., 2001).

Materials and methods

Fungal reference strains and populations

Reference isolates of *F. acuminatum* (3 isolates), F. avenaceum (3 isolates), F. culmorum (20 isolates), F. crookwellense (5 isolates), F. graminearum (20 isolates), F. poae (2 isolates), F. oxysporum (2 isolates), F. proliferatum (1 isolate), F. subglutinans (1 isolate), and F . *verticillioides* (3 isolates) were obtained from Swiss and Italian culture collections (Agroscopes FAL Reckenholz and RAC Changins, Switzerland; Sezione di patologia vegetale, University Federico II, Naples, Italy). For comparison of our saprophytic F. graminearum isolates with plant-pathogenic isolates, we used a German F. graminearum population from a wheat field (Miedaner et al., 2001). This population consisted of 70 strains from 35 wheat heads with head blight symptoms collected at nine different sampling points within the field. For each head, two strains were isolated from two different spikelets.

Field trial design and Fusarium isolations

Fungi were isolated from overwintered maize stalks which were collected after the fifth (2002) and the sixth (2003) season of a field trial with six year continuous maize cropping (1998–2003) in the German Rhine valley. Transgenic Bt maize hybrids and their near-isogenic non-transgenic lines were planted on adjacent strip plots of about 0.5 ha $(20 \times 250 \text{ m})$. The Bt lines were grown on the same plots in each year, but cultivars were changed between years. In 2002, the planted Bt/ non-Bt hybrid pairs were Valmont/Prelude (Syngenta Seeds, Basel, Switzerland), X0920 RT/ Benicia (Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Des Moines, IA, USA), and Novelis/Nobilis (Euralis, Lescar, France) and in 2003, they were Valmont/ Prelude, X0920 RT/Benicia, and TXP 138/ DKC 3420 (Dekalb % Monsanto, St. Louis, MO, USA). Valmont carries the Bt transformation event Bt176 (Syngenta Seeds) causing expression of native Cry1Ab protein in pollen and green tissue only, whereas X0920 RT, Novelis, and TXP 138 carry the Bt transformation event MON810 (Monsanto) causing expression of a truncated version of Cry1Ab protein in the whole plant (Biotech Crop Database available online at http://www.agbios.com from AGBIOS, Merrickville, Canada). For easier presentation, we call the Bt hybrids by the name of their near-isogenic nontransgenic lines followed by the suffix Bt in this study.

In April 2003 and April 2004, about 50 maize stalks from the previous maize crop were collected randomly from the soil surface along a transect running the length of each plot. The distance between collected stalks within plots was at least 1 m. The stalks were air-dried at room temperature for five days prior to isolations. From each stalk, two pieces of about 1 cm^2 from the first above-crown internode were surface-sterilized by

washing sequentially in 98% ethanol, 1% sodium hypochlorite, and twice in sterile water. Subsequently, the two pieces were placed on a maltagar plate containing rifampicin [15 g malt extract (Oxoid, Hampshire, United Kingdom), 12 g agar (Oxoid), 100 mg rifampicin (Sigma-Aldrich, Steinheim, Germany), pH 6.5]. The plates were incubated for five days at $24 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the dark and from each plate mycelium tips of up to six fungal colonies with morphology resembling a Fusarium species were transferred to new agar plates. The isolated fungi were grown in flasks containing 40 ml of 1.5% malt extract (Oxoid) solution for 5– 7 days at 24 °C on a shaker at 100 rpm. Mycelium was harvested by filtration through paper discs, lyophilized, and ground with glass balls in a FastPrep FP120 machine (Savant Holbrook, NY, USA). DNA was extracted from 20 mg pulverized mycelium of each isolate with the NucleoSpin 96 Plant kit (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany) using a Tecan Genesis RSP 150 robotic sample processor (Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland). DNA concentrations were estimated by gel electrophoresis.

PCR identification of Fusarium isolates

In order to develop a multiplex PCR assay for efficient identification of Fusarium isolates from overwintered maize stalks, group- and speciesspecific PCR primers documented in the literature were tested with various PCR protocols on a collection of reference isolates. A PCR protocol with stepwise decreased annealing temperature allowed the combination of 10 primer pairs in two multiplex reactions. The multiplex PCR 1 contained three primer pairs (Table 1), one for the detection of the genus Fusarium-specific ITS sequence, one for the detection of the trichodiene synthase gene tri5 required for trichothecene biosynthesis, and one for the detection of the polyketide synthase gene *fum5* required for fumonisin biosynthesis. The multiplex PCR 2 contained seven primer pairs (Table 1), each amplifying a specific fragment for an agronomically important Fusarium species. The primer pair VER for identification of F. verticillioides and the primer pairs JIA and FAC for improved discrimination between F. avenaceum and F. acuminatum (Demeke et al., 2004) did not amplify under multiplex PCR conditions and were used in individual PCR (Table 1). All PCRs were

Primer specificity	Primer name	Primer sequence $(5' \rightarrow 3')$	size (bp)	Fragment PCR No. Test	isolate	Reference
<i>Fusarium</i> spp.	ItsF ItsR	AACTCCCAAACCCCTGTGAACATA TTTAACGGCGTGGCCGC	431	1	all below	(Bluhm et al., 2002)
$tri5$ gene	Tox5F Tox5R	GCTGCTCATCACTTTGCTCAG CTGATCTGGTCACGCTCATC	658	1	Fg9701	(Niessen and Vogel, 1998)
fum ₅ gene	Fum5F Fum5R	GTCGAGTTGTTGACCACTGCG CGTATCGTCAGCATGATGTAGC	845	$\mathbf{1}$	FmoMS2	(Bluhm et al., 2002)
F. poae	Fp82F	CAAGCAAACAGGCTCTTCACC	250	$\overline{2}$	Fpo696	(Parry and Nicholson, 1996)
F. graminearum	Fp82R Fe16NF	TGTTCCACCTCAGTGACAGGTT ACAGATGACAAGATTCAGGCACA Fg16NR TTCTTTGACATCTGTTCAACCCA	280	$\mathfrak{2}$	Fg9701	(Nicholson et al., 1998)
F. proliferatum	TH _{5F} TH ₅ R	GATAACGTCCAAGGCTACG GGGGTCGTTCAGCTCAAGG	330	2		FproM827 (Waalwijk et al., 2003)
F. subglutinans	$61-2F$ $61-2R$	GGCCACTCAAGAGGCGAAAG GTCAGACCAGAGCAATGGGC	445	2	F su ₆₈₅	(Möller et al., 1999)
F. culmorum	Fe01F Fc01R	ATGGTGAACTCGTCGTGGC CCCTTCTTACGCCAATCTCG	570	$\mathfrak{2}$	Fc9711	(Nicholson et al., 1998)
F. crookwellense CroAF		CTCAGTGTCCACCGCGTTGCGTAG	842	$\overline{2}$	Fcr677	(Yoder and Christianson, 1998)
F. avenaceum (F. acuminatum) FaR	CroAR FaF	CTCAGTGTCCCAATCAAATAGTCC CAAGCATTGTCGCCACTCTC GTTTGGCTCTACCGGGACTG	920	2	FavM928	(Doohan et al., 1998)
F. avenaceum	JIAf JIAr	GCTAATTCTTAACTTACTAGGGGCC CGTTAATAGGTTATTTACATGGGCG	220	3	FavM928	(Turner et al., 1998)
F. acuminatum	FAC-F $FAC-R$	GGGATATCGGGCCTCA GGGATATCGGCAAGATCG	602	4	Fac1397	(Williams et al., 2002)
F. verticillioides	VER1 VER ₂	CTTCCTGCGATGTTTCTCC AATTGGCCATTGGTATTATATATCTA	578	5	FmoMS2	(Mule et al., 2004)

Table 1. Primers used for identification of Fusarium isolates in multiplex and single primer PCRs

done in a volume of $10 \mu l$ containing approximately 5 ng template DNA, 0.1 mM of each dNTP, $0.2 \mu M$ of each primer, and 1 U of Taq polymerase (New England BioLabs, Beverly, MA, USA). Multiplex PCRs were carried out with stepwise decreased annealing temperature as follows: 2 min 30 s denaturation at 94 \degree C, 5 cycles of 30 s at 94 °C, 30 s at 64 °C and 1 min at 72 °C, 5 cycles of 30 s at 94 °C, 30 s at 62 °C and 1 min at 72 °C, 25 cycles of 30 s at 94 °C, 30 s at 60 °C and 1 min at 72 \degree C with 10 min final extension at 72 °C. Single primer PCRs were performed under identical conditions except for a constant annealing temperature of 56 \degree C for all 35 cycles. The amplicons were separated with gel electrophoresis in a 2% agarose gel (Invitrogen, Paisley, United Kingdom) and identification was accomplished by comparison of amplicons with those of reference strains (Table 1). For statistical analysis, the frequency of each identified species was compared between stalks collected on corresponding Bt and

non-Bt maize plots and between stalks collected in different years, using the Fisher exact test at $P \leq 0.05$ as implemented in Systat version 9 (Systat Software Inc., Richmond, CA, USA).

Development and application of microsatellites

For assessing the population genetic structure within Fusarium species, microsatellite markers were developed from DNA sequences with simple sequence repeats. Such sequences were found either by constructing a TC-repeat enriched clone library of the Swiss F. culmorum strain Fc9701 or by screening a F. graminearum genome sequence database (Syngenta, Torrey Mesa Research Institute, San Diego, CA, USA) as described in Naef et al. (2006a). Oligonucleotide PCR primers were designed on the flanking regions of repeat sequences with the online service Primer3 (S. Rozen, Whitehead Institute for Biomedical Research, Cambridge, MA, USA). Primer specificity and

Table 2. Newly developed microsatellite loci for F. graminearum, F. culmorum and F. crookwellense in this study Table 2. Newly developed microsatellite loci for F. graminearum, F. culmorum and F. crookwellense in this study

(available online in the F. graminearum database from the Broad Institute, Cambridge, MA).

 ${}^{\circ}F$ gr. = Fusarium graminearum, F. cu. = Fusarium culmorum, F. cr. = Fusarium crookwellense, N = sample size.

bcdeRepeat-enriched clone library of F. culmorum strain Fc9701.

F. graminearum genome database of the Torrey Mesa Research Institute (Syngenta), San Diego, CA, USA.

Previously published by Naef et al. (2006a).

length polymorphism of the amplified fragment were tested with $[\gamma^{-33}P]$ -labelled PCR primers and polyacrylamide gels, using DNA of different Fusarium species (see reference strains listed above), Microdochium nivale, Trichoderma atroviride, Pseudomonas fluorescens, and maize. Polymorphic microsatellite loci were localized in the F. graminearum genome by a BLAST search in the Giberella zeae strain PH-1 genome sequence (Fusarium graminearum database available online at http://www.broad.mit.edu/annotation/fungi/fusarium/ from the Broad Institute, Cambridge, MA, USA) and subsequent assignment of the resulting sequence number (contig) to a chromosome and a linkage group in Gale and Kistler's genetic maps (available at the same web page). Eight microsatellite loci were selected for population analysis. The alleles at these loci were analyzed with three PCR assays and two fragment analysis runs on a capillary sequencer, using primers labelled with different fluorescence dyes (Beckman-Coulter, Fullerton, CA, USA). PCR 1 contained three multiplexed loci, PCR 2 a single locus, and PCR 3 four multiplexed loci (Table 2). Each reaction was done in a volume of $10 \mu l$ containing approximately 5 ng template DNA, 0.1 mM of each dNTP, 1 U of Taq polymerase (New England BioLabs), and $0.2 \mu M$ of each primer. Amplifications were carried out under the following conditions: 5 min at 94 $^{\circ}$ C for denaturation, 35 cycles of 30 s at 94 °C, 30 s at 60 °C, and 60 s at 72 °C, with a final extension of 10 min at 72 °C . Postamplification, 2μ l of PCR 1 (3 loci) pooled with 2 µl PCR 2 (1 locus), or 2 µl of PCR 3 solely (4) loci) were mixed with deionized water to reach a final volume of 20μ . After purification of diluted PCR products with Sephadex G-50 (Amersham Biosciences), $1 \mu l$ of the CEQ DNA size standard 400 (Beckman–Coulter) was added. Then, DNA fragments were separated in a CEQ 2000XL DNA analysis system (Beckman–Coulter) and fragment lengths were calculated with the software provided by Beckman-Coulter (version 4.2.0).

Analysis of the genetic structure of F. graminearum, F. culmorum and F. crookwellense

Microsatellite analysis was performed with isolates from overwintered maize stalks that were identified as F. graminearum, F. culmorum, or F. crook-

wellense and with unidentified Fusarium spp. isolates that showed tri5 gene amplification. In addition, five randomly selected isolates of each other identified Fusarium species were included into the microsatellite analysis. Multilocus haplotypes were created by assigning microsatellite repeat numbers of each locus to the isolates. Fusarium graminearum isolates from stalks of the same maize variety collected in one year were considered as a population. Three levels of pooled populations were created after contingency chisquare tests (Systat) among individual populations revealed no significant differences in allele frequencies ($P > 0.05$): with all isolates from either Bt or non-Bt maize stalks within a collection year, with all isolates from one collection year, and with all F. graminearum isolates. Due to the small number of F. culmorum and F. crookwellense isolates (29 and 19, respectively), only pooled populations with all isolates were investigated for these species.

Maximum possible genotypic diversity was calculated by dividing the genotypic diversity according to Stoddart and Taylor (1988) through sample size N to address the variable sample size of populations. For each multilocus haplotype occurring more than once in a population, the probability P_{sex} of observing it at least as many times under assumption of sexual reproduction was calculated with a binomial expression based on allele frequencies as described by Parks and Werth (1993). After removing repeated multilocus haplotypes in populations, linkage disequilibrium between loci was estimated with the multilocus index of association I_A as indicator for clonal reproduction. The I_A was calculated with MultiLocus ver. 1.2 (P. M. Agapow and A. Burt, Department of Biology, Imperial College at Silwood Park, Ascot, United Kingdom) and compared with the I_A expected under random mating, using 1000 randomizations of individual alleles with linkage group information for loci. Allelic richness and Nei's unbiased gene diversity (Nei, 1987) were calculated without repeated multilocus haplotypes for each locus and averaged over all loci using FSTAT ver. 2.9.3.2 (J. Goudet, Institue of Ecology, University of Lausanne, Switzerland).

Genotypic diversities of F. graminearum were compared with a t-test (Chen et al., 1994) between Bt and non-Bt populations from single and pooled plots within collection years and between popula-

		Stalk collections Number of stalks Incidence of fungib									
						F. gram. F. aven. F. prol. F. culm. F. crook. F. acum F. subgl. F. vert. F. spp.					tri5
Among years											
2003	322	32%	43%	19%	1%	1%	3%	1%	0%	7%	33%
2004	326	52%	8%	11%	8%	5%	2%	2%	4%	61%	58%
P^{c}		< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01	0.42	0.73	ND ^d	< 0.01	< 0.01
Within year 2003											
All non-Bt	161	27%	48%	20%	0%	2%	4%	1%	0%	6%	29%
All Bt	161	37%	39%	18%	2%	0%	1%	1%	0%	7%	38%
\boldsymbol{P}		0.09	0.12	0.78	ND	ND	0.28	1.00	ND	0.65	0.10
Benicia	53	23%	21%	23%	0%	0%	2%	0%	0%	6%	23%
Benicia Bt	55	33%	33%	27%	0%	0%	2%	0%	0%	2%	33%
\boldsymbol{P}		0.29	0.20	0.60	ND	ND	1.00	ND	ND	0.36	0.29
Prelude	50	52%	58%	20%	0%	6%	6%	4%	0%	10%	56%
Prelude Bt	55	47%	42%	22%	5%	0%	2%	0%	0%	7%	49%
\boldsymbol{P}		0.70	0.12	1.00	ND	ND	0.35	ND	ND	0.73	0.56
Nobilis	58	10%	64%	17%	0%	0%	3%	0%	0%	2%	10%
Nobilis Bt	51	29%	41%	4%	0%	0%	0%	2%	0%	14%	31%
\boldsymbol{P}		0.02	0.02	0.03	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.02	0.01
Within year 2004											
All non-Bt	166	50%	7%	17%	8%	6%	2%	2%	7%	62%	55%
All Bt	160	54%	9%	4%	7%	3%	1%	1%	0%	60%	61%
\boldsymbol{P}		0.44	0.55	~<~0.01	0.68	0.29	0.37	0.37	ND	0.73	0.31
Benicia	57	49%	2%	19%	18%	4%	0%	0%	21%	53%	58%
Benicia Bt	55	67%	11%	5%	13%	0%	2%	0%	0%	73%	76%
\boldsymbol{P}		0.06	0.06	0.04	0.60	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.03	0.05
Prelude	53	34%	15%	13%	0%	2%	6%	2%	0%	38%	36%
Prelude Bt	55	29%	15%	5%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	31%	31%
\boldsymbol{P}		0.68	1.00	0.20	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.54	0.68
DKC 3420	56	66%	5%	18%	7%	13%	2%	5%	0%	95%	71%
DKC 3420 Bt	55	68%	2%	2%	8%	10%	0%	2%	0%	78%	78%
\boldsymbol{P}		1.00	0.62	0.01	1.00	0.76	ND	0.62	ND	0.02	0.51

Table 3. Incidence of different Fusarium species and potential trichothecene-producing Fusarium (tri5) on overwintered stalks of Bt and non-Bt maize varieties^a

^a Fungi were isolated from overwintered stalks of transgenic Bt maize varieties and corresponding non-Bt maize lines grown in adjacent strip plots in two years.

^b Percentage of stalks from which a *Fusarium* species or a potential trichothecene-producing *Fusarium* were isolated based on identification with PCR assays. (gram. = graminearum, aven. = avenaceum, prol. = proliferatum, culm. = culmorum, $\text{crosk.} = \text{croskwellense}, \text{acum.} = \text{acumination}, \text{subgl.} = \text{subglutinans}, \text{vert.} = \text{verticalticolide.}$ *Fusarium* based on the presence of the trichodiene synthase gene).
^c P values represent probabilities of equal incidences on stalks from two different collection years or on stalks from corresponding Bt

and non-Bt varieties based on the Fisher exact test. Bold face indicates $P \le 0.05$.
^d ND: not determined (the *Fusarium* species was not detected in one or both categories).

tions from different collection years. Genotypic differentiation between pooled populations was further assessed by comparing the frequency distribution of repeated multilocus haplotypes with a chi-square contingency test (Systat). Chi-square tests were used further to compare allele frequencies per locus between Bt and non-Bt pools within years and between year pools. Assuming the stepwise mutation model for microsatellite alleles, genetic differentiation among pooled populations was estimated with the R_{ST} analogue Φ_{ST} (Michalakis and Excoffier, 1996) calculated with ARLEQUIN ver. 2.000 (S. Schneider, D. Roessli, and L. Excoffier, Genetics and Biometry Laboratory, University of Geneva, Switzerland). The null hypothesis of a lack of significant differences between populations was tested with 1000 permutations of individuals among populations.

Microsatellite analysis was performed also for the German wheat head blight F. graminearum population (Miedaner et al., 2001) and the international F. graminearum isolates collection. The R_{ST} estimator Φ_{ST} for genetic differentiation between the F. graminearum maize stalk population and the wheat head population (Miedaner et al., 2001) was calculated as described above.

Immunoassay quantification of Bt protein and mycotoxin DON in maize stalks

After fungal isolations, the first above-crown internode of air-dried maize stalks were ground in a ZM1 centrifuge mill (Retsch, Haan, Germany) with a ring sieve with slot openings of 0.1 mm. Powder of stalks of the same variety were pooled and mixed thoroughly. The content of the Fusarium mycotoxin deoxynivalenol (DON) was quantified with the commercial ELISA kit Ridascreen Fast DON (R-Biopharm, Darmstadt, Germany) in three sub-samples of 30 mg from the pooled powder. For all Bt maize varieties, the content of Cry1Ab Bt protein was quantified with the commercial ELISA kit Cry1Ab QuantiPlate kit (EnviroLogix Inc., Portland, ME, USA) in three subsamples of 30 mg from the pooled powder prepared as described above. Means were compared with Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) test (Systat).

Results

Analysis of Fusarium species abundance on overwintered maize stalks

Fusarium isolates from overwintered maize stalks were identified with two multiplex PCRs and three individual PCRs with those primer pairs that did not amplify under multiplex conditions (Table 1). In about 90% of all cases, PCR with the Fusarium genus-specific primer pair confirmed our visual pre-selection of isolates based on mycelium morphology. Fusarium spp. strains were isolated from 431 of the 648 collected overwintered maize stalks $(67%)$. Many stalks bore more than one *Fusarium* isolate, resulting in a total number of 1028 isolates. PCR analysis with species-specific primers showed that 62% of the stalks were colonized by more than one species. For both collection years together, the three most abundant species were F. graminearum (isolated from 42% of the stalks), F. avenaceum (26%) , and F. proliferatum (15%) . The other identified species, *F. acuminatum*, F. crookwellense, F. culmorum, F. subglutinans, and F. verticillioides, were each isolated from less than 5% of the stalks. Strains that belonged to genus Fusarium but did not amplify with one of the species-specific primers were isolated from 34% of the stalks. These isolates showed diverse colony morphology, suggesting that they belong to several different *Fusarium* species. None of the saprophytic Fusarium isolates was identified as F. poae. From the 393 potential trichothecene-producing isolates (amplification with Tox5 primers), 83% belonged to F . graminearum, 7% to F . culmorum, 3% to F. crookwellense, and 8% to unidentified Fusarium spp. While all F. graminearum isolates amplified Tox5, amplification failed for 10% and $44%$ of *F. culmorum* and *F. crookwellense* isolates, respectively. All of the nine isolates identified as F. verticillioides were potential fumonisin producers (amplification with Fum5 primers).

Comparison of Fusarium communities that were recovered in the years 2003 and 2004 showed several significant differences in fungal incidences on maize stalks (Fisher exact tests, Table 3). The frequency of unidentified Fusarium spp. was significantly higher in 2004 than in 2003 (on 58% and 33% of stalks, respectively). Fusarium graminearum was the dominant identified species in 2004 (on 52% of the stalks), but only the second most abundant species in 2003 (on 32% of the stalks). This corresponded with the trend for potential trichothecene-producing Fusarium (Tox5-positive isolates on 33% and 58% of the stalks, respectively). In 2003, the most abundant species was F. avenaceum on 43% of the stalks but present significantly less on only 8% of the stalks in 2004. Fusarium proliferatum was significantly more common in 2003 than in 2004 (on 19% and 11% of the stalks, respectively). Significantly lower incidences in 2003 than in 2004 were also observed for the less frequent species F. culmorum and F. crookwellense.

Comparisons of the incidences of Fusarium species between Bt and corresponding non-Bt maize stalks revealed no consistent differences over multiple hybrid pairs and both years (Table 3). However, for F. proliferatum, a lower abundance on Bt than on non-Bt maize stalks was observed for all hybrid pairs in 2004 (significant for Benicia and DKC 3420) and for the Nobilis hybrid pair in 2003 (Table 3). Significantly higher incidence on Bt than

Population	\boldsymbol{N}	\boldsymbol{M}	repMLH	G_0/N	$I_A^{\ b}$	$R_t^{\,b}$	$H^{\rm b}$
F. graminearum from overwintered maize stalks							
2003 & 2004 ^c	325	246	$46***d$	0.55	$0.28*$ ^e	4.15	0.70
$2003^{\rm c}$	110	100	$9**$	0.83	$0.21*$	4.00	0.68
2004°	215	163	$32**$	0.56	$0.36*$	4.19	0.71
Non-Bt 2003°	45	44	$1**$	0.96	$0.26*$	3.93	0.67
Bt $2003^{\rm c}$	65	58	$6***$	0.80	$0.17*$	3.95	0.68
Non-Bt 2004 ^c	105	91	$12**$	0.77	$0.37*$	4.04	0.70
Bt 2004°	110	84	$17**$	0.59	$0.44*$	4.19	0.70
Benicia 2003	13	13	θ	1.00	0.14	3.55	0.61
Benicia Bt 2003	20	20	Ω	1.00	0.11	3.62	0.65
Prelude 2003	26	25	$1**$	0.93	$0.21*$	3.99	0.70
Prelude Bt 2003	29	24	$5**$	0.74	0.15	3.96	0.71
Nobilis 2003	6	6	θ	1.00	0.06	3.32	0.72
Nobilis Bt 2003	16	16	Ω	1.00	$0.36*$	3.67	0.68
Benicia 2004	29	29	θ	1.00	$0.81*$	3.83	0.67
Benicia Bt 2004	42	36	$6***$	0.78	$0.55*$	4.00	0.68
Prelude 2004	36	28	$6***$	0.64	$0.30*$	3.99	0.69
Prelude Bt 2004	21	18	$3**$	0.78	0.02	3.93	0.70
DKC 3420 2004	40	37	$3**$	0.87	$0.25*$	4.07	0.73
DKC 3420 Bt 2004	47	39	$7**$	0.72	$0.77*$	4.10	0.69
<i>F. graminearum</i> from wheat heads							
Sersheim 1992	70	37	$22**$	0.39	$0.25*$	4.03	0.69
F. culmorum from overwintered maize stalks							
2003 & 2004	29	24	$5*$	0.74	0.10	2.67	0.34
<i>F. crookwellense</i> from overwintered maize stalks							
2003 & 2004	19	4	$\overline{2}$	0.13	-0.31	1.38	0.19

Table 4. Genotypic and genetic diversity parameters^a for F. graminearum, F. culmorum and F. crookwellense populations examined at 8 microsatellite loci

^a N: sample size; M: number of unique multilocus haplotypes; repMLHs: number of repeated multilocus haplotypes; G_0/N : maximum possible genotypic diversity (Stoddart and Taylor, 1988); I_A : index of association; R_i : allelic richness; H : Nei's (1987) gene diversity.
^b I_A , R_i , and H were calculated for populations without repeated mult

^d For each repeated multilocus haplotype, the propability P_{sex} of its multiple encounter in a sexually reproducing population was calculated from microsatellite allele frequencies in the population (Parks and Werth, 1993). * and ** indicate $P_{\text{sex}} \le 0.05$ and 0.01 for all repMLHs.

^e The probability P of observing the multilocus association I_A under the assumption of random mating was estimated with 1000 randomly recombined datasets. *, indicates $P \leq 0.05$.

on non-Bt stalks were observed for F. graminearum, Tox5-positive, and unidentified Fusarium spp. isolates on stalks of Nobilis in 2003 and Benicia in 2004. For *F. avenaceum*, opposing trends were observed on different Bt/non Bt hybrid pairs (Nobilis 2003 and Benicia 2004). Fusarium verticillioides was isolated only from non-Bt stalks of Benicia in 2004, resulting in different incidences between non-Bt and Bt stalks and between years.

Microsatellite markers

Genetic markers with a variable number of simple sequence repeats were developed to study the

population genetic structure of Fusarium species on overwintered maize stalks. Eight loci were selected from 28 tested loci with more than seven simple sequence repeats. PCR with primers designed on the flanking regions of these loci amplified a single DNA fragment of variable length with genomic DNA of Fusarium strains of the section Discolor (F. graminearum, F. culmorum, and F. crookwellense, Table 2). The primers of these loci did not amplify a fragment with genomic DNA from other tested organisms, including the Fusarium species F. acuminatum (section Gibbosum), F. avenaceum (section Roseum), F. poae (section Sporotichiella), F. oxysporum (section

Table 5. Differences in genotypic diversities and in distribution of repeated multilocus haplotypes (repMLH) between F. graminea rum subpopulations^a

^a Subpopulations were isolated from overwintered Bt and non-Bt maize stalks in two collection years.

^b Differences in genotypic diversities according to a t-test (Chen et al., 1994) on the maximum possible genotypic diversity G_0/N (Stoddart and Taylor, 1988). Multilocus haplotypes were based on alleles at eight polymorphic microsatellite loci.

Differences in distribution of repeated multilocus haplotypes according to a chi-square test on frequencies of repMLHs.

 d The *t*-values became infinite because all haplotypes were unique to one population. e ND: not determined (too few repeated multilocus haplotypes).

Elegans), F. proliferatum, F. subglutinans, and F. verticillioides (all section Liseola), the fungi T. atroviride and M . nivale, the bacterium P . fluorescens, and the plant Zea mays. According to Gale and Kistler's genetic maps (available online in the F. graminearum database from the Broad Institute, Cambridge, MA, USA), these eight microsatellite loci were distributed over all four chromosomes and over six linkage groups in the F. graminearum genome (Table 2).

Population genetic structure of F. graminearum, F. culmorum and F. crookwellense

All isolates of *F. graminearum, F. culmorum,* and F. crookwellense from overwintered maize stalks showed PCR amplification of the eight selected microsatellite markers. Amplification failed for isolates of other Fusarium spp., including Tox5 positive isolates, confirming the marker specificity observed with the reference strains mentioned above. The 325 F. graminearum isolates, originating from 273 maize stalks, were composed of 200 unique multilocus haplotypes (MLHs) and 46 repeated MLHs (Table 4). Multiple F. graminearum isolates from single stalks were genetically different on 33 maize stalks and genetically identical on nine maize stalks. Identical MLHs were found also on different maize stalks: 17 MLHs were shared among stalks within single strip plot collections, three MLHs were shared between strip

plot collections within the same year, and 17 MHLs were shared between the two collection years. These repeatedly isolated MLHs of F. graminearum were unlikely to result from random mating (P_{sex} < 0.01; Parks and Werth, 1993) in 7 of 12 single plot collections and in all pooled collections (Table 4), indicating that they were asexually produced clones. Predominant asexual reproduction of the F. graminearum population on maize residues was further supported by significant multilocus gametic disequilibrium in 7 of 12 clone-corrected single plot populations and in all clone-corrected pooled populations ($P \leq 0.05$ for I_A with 1000 randomizations, Table 4).

The maximum possible genotypic diversity observed varied between 0.56 and 1 among F. graminearum isolates from maize stalk collections within strip plots (Table 4). Comparisons of genotypic diversities revealed no significant differences between corresponding Bt and non-Bt populations except for the hybrid pair Benicia in 2004 with a significantly lower genotypic diversity on Bt maize stalks (Table 5). A comparison between collection years revealed a significantly higher genotypic diversity in the pooled *F. grami*nearum population from 2003 than from 2004 $(P < 0.01, t-test, Table 5)$. The frequency distribution of repeated MLHs differed between collection years ($P = 0.06$, contingency chi-square test, Table 5) but not between pooled Bt and non-Bt populations within years. Allelic richness and

Varieties	CrylAb Bt protein content (μ g mg ⁻¹) ^b		DON content (μ g mg ⁻¹) ^b		
	2003	2004	2003	2004	
Benicia	not measured	not measured	0.00 ± 0.002 A	0.04 ± 0.033 A	
Benicia Bt	0.11 ± 0.026 b	0.01 ± 0.001 a	0.08 ± 0.061 A	0.09 ± 0.067 A	
Prelude	not measured	not measured	0.27 ± 0.076 AB	0.62 ± 0.160 BC	
Prelude Bt	0.00 ± 0.001 a	0.00 ± 0.001 a	0.26 ± 0.067 AB	0.92 ± 0.291 C	
Nobilis	not measured		0.00 ± 0.000 A		
Nobilis Bt	0.12 ± 0.020 b		0.04 ± 0.036 A		
DKC 3420		not measured		0.27 ± 0.092 AB	
DKC 3420 Bt		0.10 ± 0.005 b		0.56 ± 0.143 BC	

Table 6. Concentration of the Cry1Ab Bt protein and the *Fusarium* mycotoxin deoxynivalenol (DON) in air dried field-overwintered maize stalks ^a

^a Maize stalks of transgenic Bt and corresponding non-Bt maize varieties from the previous cropping season were collected from the soil surface in spring 2003 and 2004.

^b Cry1Ab and DON concentrations were determined by quantitative ELISA. Values are means (\pm standard error of mean) of three sub-samples from a homogenized powder of the first above crown internode of 50 randomly collected maize stalks. Values followed by the same letter are not significantly different according to Fisher's LSD test ($P \le 0.05$).

Nei's genetic diversity (Nei, 1987) were similar in F. graminearum single plot populations and in pooled populations (Table 4) and ranged from $R_t = 3.55$ to 4.19 and from $H = 0.61$ to 0.73, respectively. Comparisons of allele frequencies at microsatellite loci and R_{ST} estimates for genetic differentiation revealed no evidence for a substructure in the F. graminearum population between years or between Bt and non-Bt stalks within years. The highest R_{ST} value over all loci was 0.02 between Bt and non-Bt populations in 2003, which was not significant according to 1000 permutations of individuals among populations $(P = 0.32)$.

The *F. graminearum* population on maize stalks was compared with a F. graminearum population collected from a naturally contaminated wheat field 100 km distant about 10 years earlier (Miedaner et al., 2001). Microsatellite analysis of the 70 wheat isolates revealed 37 unique and 22 repeated multilocus haplotypes. Seven of 35 pairs of isolates originating from different spikelets within single heads showed different MLHs. Isolates with identical MLHs were found not only within heads but also among different heads within and between sampling points. Significantly overrepresented repeated MLHs and significant multilocus genetic association indicated a high contribution of asexual dispersal also in this F. graminearum population (Table 4). Six MLHs isolated from overwintered maize stalks were found also in the wheat-pathogenic population. Size corrected genotypic diversity was significantly

lower on wheat heads than on maize stalks $(P < 0.01$, *t*-test for pooled populations) but allelic richness and Nei's genetic diversity in the clonecorrected populations were similar (R_t = 4.03 and 4.15 and $H = 0.69$ and 0.70). Allele frequency distributions differed between the two populations for four of the eight microsatellite loci ($P \le 0.05$, contingency chi-square tests) but the genetic differentiation based on R_{ST} estimator Φ_{ST} was only 0.04. However, this differentiation was close to statistical significance ($P = 0.07$ according to 1000 permutations).

The pooled F. culmorum and F. crookwellense populations from overwintered maize stalks consisted of unique and repeated MLHs (Table 4). For F. culmorum, the null hypothesis of random mating could be rejected for the repeated multilocus haplotypes ($P_{\text{sex}} \leq 0.05$) but not for the association of loci ($P = 0.88$, according to 1000 randomizations, Table 4). Neither test supported clonal reproduction in the F. crookwellense population. Allelic richness and genotypic diversity were lower in the F. culmorum and the F. crookwellense populations than in the F. graminearum population from maize stalks, corresponding to the lower number of polymorphic loci in these species (Table 2).

Content of Bt protein and mycotoxin DON in overwintered maize stalks

The analysis of Cry1Ab protein content in overwintered maize stalks revealed Bt protein levels between 0 and 120 ng per mg dry sample (Table 6). Significant differences in the content of Bt protein were found between maize stalks of different Bt hybrids within collection years and between stalks of Benicia Bt from two different years. The overwintered maize stalks were further analyzed for the DON content (Table 6). The DON concentrations varied between 0 and 920 ng per mg dry sample. Significant differences in the DON concentration were found between maize hybrids but not between corresponding Bt and non-Bt maize lines.

Discussion

Fungi of the genus Fusarium were isolated from 67% of overwintered maize stalks collected from the soil surface in a field trial with different Bt/ non-Bt maize hybrid pairs. A new combination of multiplex and single primer PCR assays allowed efficient identification of agronomically important Fusarium specimens, namely, two groups of potentially mycotoxigenic Fusarium spp. and nine maize- or wheat-pathogenic Fusarium species (Table 1). The three most abundant species were F. graminearum, F. avenaceum, and F. proliferatum. Their prevalence on the collected stalks (42%, 26%, and 15%, respectively) corresponded with other maize residue surveys (Windels et al., 1988; Cotten and Munkvold, 1998), indicating their high saprophytic competitiveness on maize residues. Other species, including F. acuminatum, F. crookwellense, F. culmorum, F. subglutinans, and F. verticillioides, were isolated from less than 5% of the stalks. In the two collection years, different incidences were observed for several species (Table 3), most likely reflecting different species preferences for changing weather conditions. No consistent differences were found in the comparison of species incidences between corresponding Bt and non-Bt maize stalks (Table 3). However, a significantly reduced *F. proliferatum* incidence on Bt maize stalks was found in three Bt/non-Bt hybrid pair comparisons (Nobilis in 2003, Benicia in 2004, and DKC 3420 in 2004, Table 3). A reduced proportion of *F. proliferatum* has been reported in the maize stalk rot disease on Bt maize plants (Gatch and Munkvold, 2002), suggesting that a reduced F. proliferatum infestation on maize plants may cause a reduced F. proliferatum inoc-

ulum on maize residues. But, this beneficial side effect of maize Bt transformation appears to depend on the Bt maize hybrid as well as on the collection year (no differential F. proliferatum incidence on Bencia Bt/non-Bt in 2003, Table 3). Furthermore, the sometimes significant reduction of F. proliferatum incidence was often accompanied by an increased F. graminearum incidence (Table 3), indicating that the absence of one species may open a niche for another species. The shift towards more F. graminearum on Bt maize stalks of Nobilis in 2003 and Benicia in 2004 corresponded with a shift towards more mycotoxigenic isolates (Table 3) because all F. graminearum isolates possessed the trichodiene synthase gene tri5 (Niessen and Vogel, 1998). However, this increase was not correlated with increased DON concentrations in pooled stalk samples (Table 6), which indicates that mycotoxin contamination in residues cannot be predicted solely from the presence of toxigenic species, as suggested for wheat heads (Edwards et al., 2001).

The population structure of the *F. graminearum* isolates was assessed with newly developed polymorphic microsatellite markers (Table 2). About 80% of maize stalks bearing more than one F. graminearum isolate were colonized by different multilocus haplotypes (MLHs), suggesting saprophytic competition among haplotypes within stalks. Over all maize stalks, 200 MLHs were unique but 46 MLHs were shared among stalks and 17 MLHs were found in both collection years. All repeated MLHs were unlikely to occur more than once under assumption of random mating, pointing to an asexual component of reproduction in the F. graminearum population on maize residues. Association of microsatellite loci (Table 4) further supported the significance of asexual reproduction. Comparisons of genotypic diversities and frequencies of repeated MLHs revealed evidence for selection operating on haplotypes between collection years but not between Bt and non-Bt maize stalks (Table 5). We concluded that use of maize Bt hybrids has not yet resulted in noticeable selection of F. graminearum haplotypes.

Despite the observed haplotypic difference between collection years, there were no significant allelic differences, indicating that other evolutionary forces such as reproductive system and/or gene flow affected the genetic structure of the F. graminearum population. The assumption of random mating was rejected but the performed tests (Table 4) cannot exclude a combination of asexual and sexual mode of reproduction. A sexual component of *F. graminearum* reproduction on maize residues (Sutton, 1982) could explain a low impact of haplotype selection on the allelic pool because recombination rearranges alleles between haplotypes. Sexually produced wind-dispersed ascospores could further support gene flow between strip plots which prevents substructuring within the saprophytic *F. graminearum* population.

Our observation of six shared haplotypes and genetic similarity between a maize residue population and a wheat head blight population from 100 km distant fields supports the assumptions of either that both populations originated from the same population recently or that genetic exchange exists between saprophytic and pathogenic F. graminearum populations over large distances. Clones can be dispersed over a large distance by ascospores (de Luna et al., 2002) from self-fertilization of homothallic strains. Interregional genetic exchange has also been found in US populations of F. graminearum (Zeller et al., 2004), but our observations are the first genetic evidence for the role of maize residues as a genetic diversity reservoir for wheat-pathogenic F. graminearum.

Microsatellite data were also generated for F. culmorum and F. crookwellense isolates from overwintered maize stalks. Sample sizes were too small to perform a meaningful comparison between years or between Bt and non-Bt isolates, but the data indicated lower genetic diversities in these species than in F. graminearum. This observation corresponds with the purely asexual reproduction assumed for these two species. However, the clonal nature of our F. culmorum and F. crookwellense populations was not statistically supported, indicating that the reduced number of polymorphic microsatellites (four and two, respectively) was insufficient for assessing the mating system. It remains to be determined with larger sample sizes and additional genetic markers whether the low microsatellite polymorphism represents a low genetic diversity in these species.

The fate of the transgene product in the environment is of general interest. We detected traces of the Cry1Ab Bt protein in overwintered maize stalks of Benicia Bt ($=X0920$ RT), Nobilis Bt $($ = Novelis), and DKC 3420 Bt $($ = TXP 138), all

containing the transformation event MON810. The concentrations were only about 1% of the amount measured in autumn (A. Naef, unpublished data). This agrees with another report of persistence of a small part of Cry1Ab protein in slowly decomposing maize parts (Baumgarte and Tebbe, 2005). The absence of Bt protein in Prelude Bt $(=Valmont)$ stalks corresponds with its transformation event Bt176 which causes no cry gene expression in non-green plant parts such as the lower stalk (Biotech Crop Database available online at http://www.agbios.com from AGBIOS, Merrickville, Canada).

In conclusion, we presented a new multiplex PCR assay for efficient identification of agronomically important Fusarium species and eight polymorphic microsatellite markers for F. graminearum that can be multiplexed in PCR and fragment analysis. Together with the published microsatellite markers for F. graminearum (Giraud et al., 2002; Suga et al., 2004), these tools will facilitate future population studies. The investigation of Fusarium species composition on overwintered maize stalks revealed no consistent differences between Bt and corresponding non-Bt maize residues. The effects of Bt transformation were minor compared to the effect of stalk collection year, suggesting that environmental conditions have a stronger impact on the saprophytic competition among Fusarium species than maize Bt transformation. The same conclusion can be drawn for haplotype competition within F. graminearum because our population genetic analysis revealed evidence for genotypic differences between stalk collection years but not between Bt and non-Bt maize stalks. The genetic similarity of our saprophytic and a wheat-pathogenic F. graminearum population further emphasized the importance of maize residues as a diversity reservoir for pathogenic F. graminearum.

Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge V. Heitz and K. H. Dannemann for permission to sample on their field trial, T. Miedaner for providing the German F. graminearum population, H-R. Forrer, F. Mascher and M. Lorito for providing reference strains of Fusarium species, M. S. Saharan, O. Bucher, and R. Heusser for technical assistance, B. McDonald, C. Linde, and P. Brunner for comments on the manuscript. This research was supported by the Swiss National Center of Competence in Research (NCCR Plant Survival, Neuchâtel).

References

- Baumgarte S and Tebbe CC (2005) Field studies on the environmental fate of the Cry1Ab Bt-toxin produced by transgenic maize (MON810) and its effect on bacterial communities in the maize rhizosphere. Molecular Ecology 14: 2539–2551.
- Bennett JW and Klich M (2003) Mycotoxins. Clinical Microbiology Reviews 16: 497–511.
- Bluhm BH, Flaherty JE, Cousin MA and Woloshuk CP (2002) Multiplex polymerase chain reaction assay for the differential detection of trichothecene- and fumonisin-producing species of *Fusarium* in cornmeal. Journal of Food Protection 65: 1955–1961.
- Bottalico A and Perrone G (2002) Toxigenic Fusarium species and mycotoxins associated with head blight in small-grain cereals in Europe. European Journal of Plant Pathology 108: 611–624.
- Champeil A, Dore T and Fourbet JF (2004) Fusarium head blight: Epidemiological origin of the effects of cultural practices on head blight attacks and the production of mycotoxins by Fusarium in wheat grains. Plant Science 166: 1389–1415.
- Chen RS, Boeger JM and McDonald BA (1994) Genetic stability in a population of a plant-pathogenic fungus over time. Molecular Ecology 3: 209–218.
- Cotten TK and Munkvold GP (1998) Survival of Fusarium $moniliforme$, $F.$ $proliferatum$, and $F.$ $subglutinans$ in maize stalk residue. Phytopathology 88: 550–555.
- deLuna L, Bujold I, Carisse O and Paulitz TC (2002) Ascospore gradients of Gibberella zeae from overwintered inoculum in wheat fields. Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology-Revue Canadienne De Phytopathologie 24: 457–464.
- Demeke T, Clear RM and Patrick SK (2004) Polymerase chain reaction based assays for the detection and identification of Fusarium species in mycelial cultures and grains. In: Canty SM, Boring T, Wardwell J and Ward RW (eds) Proceedings of the 2nd International Symposium on Fusarium Head Blight, 11–15 December, Orlando, FL, USA. (pp. 559–563) Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI, USA.
- Doohan FM, Parry DW, Jenkinson P and Nicholson P (1998) The use of species-specific PCR-based assays to analyse Fusarium ear blight of wheat. Plant Pathology 47: 197–205.
- Edwards SG, Pirgozliev SR, Hare MC and Jenkinson P (2001) Quantification of trichothecene-producing Fusarium species in harvested grain by competitive PCR to determine efficacies of fungicides against Fusarium head blight of winter wheat. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 67: 1575–1580.
- Gatch EW and Munkvold GP (2002) Fungal species composition in maize stalks in relation to European corn borer

injury and transgenic insect protection. Plant Disease 86: 1156–1162.

- Giraud T, Fournier E, Vautrin D, Solignac M, Vercken E, Bakan B and Brygoo Y (2002) Isolation of eight polymorphic microsatellite loci, using an enrichment protocol, in the phytopathogenic fungus Fusarium culmorum. Molecular Ecology Notes 2: 121–123.
- James C (2005) Global Status of Commercialized Biotech/GM Crops: 2005. ISAAA Briefs No. 34, ISAAA: Ithaca, NY, USA.
- Khonga EB and Sutton JC (1988) Inoculum production and survival of Gibberella zeae in maize and wheat residues. Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology-Revue Canadienne De Phytopathologie 10: 232–239.
- Kommendahl T and Windels CE (1981) Root-, stalk- and earinfecting Fusarium species on corn in the USA. In: Nelson PE, Toussoun TA and Cook RJ (eds.) Fusarium: Diseases, Biology and Taxonomy (pp. 94–103) Pennsylvania State University Press, University Park, PA, USA.
- Logrieco A, Mule G, Moretti A and Bottalico A (2002) Toxigenic Fusarium species and mycotoxins associated with maize ear rot in Europe. European Journal of Plant Pathology 108: 597–609.
- McDonald BA, Mundt CC and Chen RS (1996) The role of selection on the genetic structure of pathogen populations: Evidence from field experiments with Mycosphaerella graminicola on wheat. Euphytica 92: 73-80.
- Michalakis Y and Excoffier L (1996) A generic estimation of population subdivision using distances between alleles with special reference for microsatellite loci. Genetics 142: 1061–1064.
- Miedaner T, Schilling AG and Geiger HH (2001) Molecular genetic diversity and variation for aggressiveness in populations of Fusarium graminearum and Fusarium culmorum sampled from wheat fields in different countries. Journal of Phytopathology-Phytopathologische Zeitschrift 149: 641– 648.
- Möller EM, Chelkowski J and Geiger HH (1999) Speciesspecific PCR assays for the fungal pathogens Fusarium moniliforme and Fusarium subglutinans and their application to diagnose maize ear rot disease. Journal of Phytopathology-Phytopathologische Zeitschrift 147: 497– 508.
- Mule G, Susca A, Stea G and Moretti A (2004) A speciesspecific PCR assay based on the calmodulin partial gene for identification of Fusarium verticillioides, F. proliferatum and F. subglutinans. European Journal of Plant Pathology 110: 495–502.
- Munkvold GP, Hellmich RL and Showers WB (1997) Reduced Fusarium ear rot and symptomless infection in kernels of maize genetically engineered for European corn borer resistance. Phytopathology 87: 1071–1077.
- Naef A, Senatore M and Défago G (2006a) A microsatellite based method for quantification of fungi in decomposing plant material elucidates the role of Fusarium graminearum DON production in the saprophytic competition with Trichoderma atroviride in maize tissue microcosms. FEMS Microbiology Ecology 55: 211–220.
- Naef A, Zesiger T and Défago G (2006b) Impact of transgenic Bt maize residues on the mycotoxigenic plant pathogen Fusarium graminearum and on the biocontrol agent Tricho-

derma atroviride. Journal of Environmental Quality 35: 1001–1009.

- Nei M (1987) Molecular Evolutionary Genetics, Columbia University press, New York, USA.
- Nicholson P, Simpson DR, Weston G, Rezanoor HN, Lees AK, Parry DW and Joyce D (1998) Detection and quantification of Fusarium culmorum and Fusarium graminearum in cereals using PCR assays. Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology 53: 17–37.
- Niessen ML and Vogel RF (1998) Group specific PCRdetection of potential trichothecene-producing Fusariumspecies in pure cultures and cereal samples. Systematic and Applied Microbiology 21: 618–631.
- Parks JC and Werth CR (1993) A study of spatial features of clones in a population of bracken fern, Pteridium aquilinum (Dennstaedtiaceae). American Journal of Botany 80: 537– 544.
- Parry DW and Nicholson P (1996) Development of a PCR assay to detect Fusarium poae in wheat. Plant Pathology 45: 383–391.
- Stoddart JA and Taylor JF (1988) Genotypic diversity estimation and prediction in samples. Genetics 118: 705– 711.
- Suga H, Gale LR and Kistler HC (2004) Development of VNTR markers for two Fusarium graminearum clade species. Molecular Ecology Notes 4: 468–470.
- Sutton JC (1982) Epidemiology of wheat head blight and maize ear rot caused by Fusarium graminearum. Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology 4: 195–209.
- Turner AS, Lees AK, Rezanoor HN and Nicholson P (1998) Refinement of PCR-detection of Fusarium avenaceum and evidence from DNA marker studies for phenetic relatedness to Fusarium tricinctum. Plant Pathology 47: 278–288.
- Waalwijk C, Kastelein P, deVries I, Kerenyi Z, vander Lee T, Hesselink T, Kohl J and Kema G (2003) Major changes in Fusarium spp. in wheat in the Netherlands. European Journal of Plant Pathology 109: 743–754.
- Williams KJ, Dennis JI, Smyl C and Wallwork H (2002) The application of species-specific assays based on the polymerase chain reaction to analyse Fusarium crown rot of durum wheat. Australasian Plant Pathology 31: 119–127.
- Windels CE, Kommedahl T, Stienstra WC and Burnes PM (1988) Occurrence of Fusarium species in symptom-free and overwintered cornstalks in northwestern Minnesota. Plant Disease 72: 990–993.
- Yoder WT and Christianson LM (1998) Species-specific primers resolve members of Fusarium section Fusarium – Taxonomic status of the edible ''Quorn'' fungus reevaluated. Fungal Genetics and Biology 23: 68–80.
- Zeller KA, Bowden RL and Leslie JF (2004) Population differentiation and recombination in wheat scab populations of Gibberella zeae from the United States. Molecular Ecology 13: 563–571.