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The effect of agmatine on trichothecene type B and zearalenone production in *Fusarium graminearum*, *F. culmorum* and *F. poae*

Matias Pasquali, Emmanuelle Cocco, Cedric Guignard, Lucien Hoffmann

Agmatine and other putrescines are known strong inducers of deoxynivalenol (DON) production in *Fusarium graminearum*. Other important cereal species produce DON and/or other trichothecene type B toxins (3 acetylated DON, 15 Acetylated DON, Fusarenon-X, Nivalenol) such as *F. culmorum* and *F. poae*. In order to verify if the mechanism of regulation of trichothecenes type B induction by agmatine is shared by different species of Fusarium, we tested the hypothesis on 19 strains belonging to 3 Fusarium species (*F. graminearum, F. culmorum, F. poae*) with diverse genetic chemotypes (3ADON, 15ADON, NIV) by measuring trichothecene B toxins such as DON, NIV, Fusarenon-X, 3ADON and 15ADON. Moreover we also tested whether other toxins like zearalenone were also boosted by agmatine. The trichothecene type B boosting effect was observed in the majority of strains used (13 over 19) in all the three species. Representative strains from all the three genetic chemotypes were able to boost toxin production after agmatine treatment. We identified strains not responding to the agmatine stimulus which may contribute to deciphering the regulatory mechanisms that link toxin production to agmatine (and more in general polyamines).



- 1 The effect of agmatine on trichothecene type B and zearalenone production in Fusarium
- 2 graminearum, F. culmorum and F. poae.

4 Matias Pasquali*, Emmanuelle Cocco, Cedric Guignard and Lucien Hoffmann

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- 6 Luxembourg Institute of Science and Technology (LIST), Department "Environmental Research
- 7 and Innovation" (ERIN), 41, rue du Brill, L-4422 Belvaux, Luxembourg;
- 8 *Author to whom correspondence should be addressed; E-Mail: matias.pasquali@list.lu;
- 9 Tel.: +352 47 02 436 458; Fax: +352 275 885.

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- 11 **Abstract:** Agmatine and other putrescines are known strong inducers of deoxynivalenol
- 12 (DON) production in *Fusarium graminearum*. Other important cereal species produce
- DON and/or other trichothecene type B toxins (3 acetylated DON, 15 Acetylated DON,
- 14 Fusarenon-X, Nivalenol) such as F. culmorum and F. poae. In order to verify if the
- 15 mechanism of regulation of trichothecenes type B induction by agmatine is shared by
- different species of Fusarium, we tested the hypothesis on 19 strains belonging to 3
- 17 Fusarium species (F. graminearum, F. culmorum, F. poae) with diverse genetic
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- 19 NIV, Fusarenon-X, 3ADON and 15ADON. Moreover we also tested whether other toxins
- 20 like zearalenone were also boosted by agmatine. The trichothecene type B boosting effect
- 21 was observed in the majority of strains used (13 over 19) in all the three species.



22 Representative strains from all the three genetic chemotypes were able to boost toxin production after agmatine treatment. We identified strains not responding to the agmatine 23 stimulus which may contribute to deciphering the regulatory mechanisms that link toxin 24 production to agmatine (and more in general polyamines). 25 26 27 **Keywords:** Fusarenon-x; deoxynivalenol; Nivalenol; 3-acetylated deoxynivalenol; 15-28 29 acetylaed deoxynivalenol, zearalenone; toxin induction. 30 31 1. Introduction Mycotoxin regulation mechanisms leading to accumulation in the plant and consequently in 32 33 grains used for human and animal consumption are still partially unknown. Nutrients and specific molecules are supposed to play a key inducing role in activating toxin pathways in 34 planta. Fusarium graminearum Schwabe [teleomorph Gibberella zeae (Schwein.) Petch], 35 Fusarium culmorum (WG Smith) Sacc. and Fusarium poae (Peck) Wollenw. are the main 36 species associated with trichothecene type B (TB) production in Fusarium Head Blight (FHB) on 37 38 wheat in different agricultural areas in the world. Most important Fusarium TB are deoxynivalenol (DON), whose amount is under control in food and feed in many countries, 3-39 acetylated DON (3ADON), 15-acetylated DON (15ADON), Nivalenol (NIV) and Fusarenon X 40 41 (FUSX). F. graminearum and F. culmorum can also produce Zearalenone (ZEA) that is also a

legislatively regulated toxin in food and feed due to its estrogenic effect on humans and animals.



43 Each Fusarium strain is able to produce some of these toxins depending on the set of genes present in the genome (Proctor et al., 2009) and the triggering factors leading to toxin 44 production. Because toxigenic risk in food depends also on the type of fungal population 45 colonizing the plant and to its toxigenic potential, lot of efforts have been devoted to studying the 46 epidemiology of different chemotypes worldwide (Pasquali and Migheli, 2014), using genetic 47 48 means to discriminate populations that are more or less toxigenic (von der Ohe et al., 2011). 49 Chemical determination of chemotypes is still an important approach to confirm genetic analysis based on gene polymorphisms (Desjardins, 2008); therefore liquid media able to stimulate toxin 50 51 production have been widely employed for determining toxin potential of isolates. 52 Mechanisms of toxin induction in F. graminearum include sugar types (Jiao et al., 2008), pH 53 effects (Gardiner et al., 2009; Merhej et al., 2010), inorganic compounds (Tsuyuki et al., 2011; 54 Pinson-Gadais et al., 2008), oxidative stress (Ponts et al., 2007), fungicides (Magan et al 2008), 55 light (Kim et al., 2014), water activity levels (Llorens et al., 2004; Schmidt-Heydt et al., 2011) and have been linked also to chemotype diversity (Ponts et al., 2009). F. graminearum boosts 56 toxin production when grown in medium with agmatine and other putrescines to levels that are 57 comparable to high contaminations observed in planta (Gardiner et al., 2009b). Hypotheses on 58 the role of polyamines in planta as a cue for production of trichothecene mycotoxins by F. 59 60 graminearum during FHB disease have been formulated (Gardiner et al., 2010) and the use of 61 inhibitors of polyamine transport in the fungal cells have been proposed as a potential novel approach to limit toxin contamination in grains (Crespo-Sempere et al., 2015). Studying the 62 63 effect of agmatine on other species can elucidate if this mechanism is effective also in other Fusarium species that are often found to coexist in agricultural settings (Giraud et al., 2010), 64 directly contributing to toxin accumulation (Beyer et al., 2014). Because the colonization of the 65



- of plant by the fungus and the resulting production of toxins are the outcome of the interaction of
- 67 the environment, the fungus and the plant, here we focused on how fungal diversity is affected
- 68 by a putative plant derived inducer of toxin production. We therefore tested the level of toxin
- 69 induction in relation to fungal diversity in 3 Fusarium species when confronted with 2
- standardized media which are mild and strong inducers of toxin synthesis.
- 71 The aims of the work were therefore to evaluate the toxigenic potential *in vitro* of a set of
- 72 isolates and; to analyse the effect of agmatine as toxin inducing compounds across species and
- 73 chemotypes.

75

Material and methods

- 76 *2.1 Isolates and growth conditions*
- 77 Isolates used in this study are listed in table 1. They have different geographic origin and belong
- to different genetic chemotypes as determined in our laboratory (Pasquali et al., 2011). Strains
- 79 are conserved in the mycological collection of the Luxembourg Institute of Science and
- 80 Technology. All isolates were grown on V8 (V8 juice 20%, CaCO₃ 2 g, 18 g agar, H₂O to 1 L)
- plates for 4 days at 20 °C in the dark. The growing edge of the mycelium was divided into 2 mm
- 82 squares and one square each was used to inoculate 10 ml media in sterile glass tubes. The assay
- was carried out with three completely independent biological replicates.
- 84 In order to analyse toxin induction, 2 media were used and compared. The first medium (J), from
- Jiao et al., 2008 (containing 1 g K₂HPO₄, 0.5 g KCl, 0.5 g MgSO₄·7H₂O, 2 g L-glutamic acid,
- 10 mg FeSO₄·7H₂O₅, 10 g sucrose in a liter of solution) was compared to a medium (G) from



- 67 Gardiner et al., (2009b), containing (30 g sucrose, 1.15 g Agmatine, 1 g KH₂PO₄, 0.5 g
- 88 MgSO₄·7H₂O, 0.5 g KCl, 10 mg FeSO₄·7H₂O in a liter solution). The two media have
- 89 approximately the same C/N ratio which is known to play a role in toxin regulation (Hestbjerg et
- al., 2002) but differ for the source of nitrogen and the amount of carbon source. Tubes were
- shaken at 180 rpm in the dark for 10 d. Fungal biomass was then filtered and weighted with a
- 92 precision balance after drying using a freeze drier for 48 h, and the remaining media kept for
- 93 further toxin extraction.
- 94 2.2 Chemical analysis
- 95 The medium was filtered through a 0.2 μm GHP membrane filter (PAL, MI, USA) and diluted in
- 96 methanol (extract/methanol, 9/1, V/V) in order to be in the appropriate solvent ratio for
- 97 chromatographic analysis. The quantification of all mycotoxins except 3-ADON and 15-ADON
- 98 was performed by LC coupled to tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS, Dionex Ultimate
- 99 3000, AB/Sciex API 3200, Foster City, CA, USA) in multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) in
- 100 positive/negative switching mode. The LC analytical column was an Agilent Zorbax Eclipse Plus
- C_{18} (2.1X 150mm, 3.5 µm) with a mobile phase consisting of methanol and water containing 2.5
- mM of ammonium acetate in a linear gradient. The specific analysis of 3-ADON and 15-ADON
- was achieved using a second LC-MS/MS method on an Agilent 1260 LC coupled to an
- 104 AB/Sciex 4500 QTrap mass spectrometer. The column was an Agilent Poroshell 120 EC-C₁₈
- 105 (2.1 x 150 mm, 2.7µm) and the eluents were the same as for the first method. All mycotoxins
- were quantified by external calibration based on pure standards (Biopure, Tulln, AT and Sigma-
- 107 Aldrich, Schnelldorf, DE). The detection and quantification limits were 1.5 ng/ml of liquid
- 108 culture for all toxins. The analyses were done in two technical replicates and average value was
- 109 considered for each biological replicate.



110 2.3 Statistical analysis

All data were analysed using PASW version 19 and SigmaPlot version 12.5. Overall TB production was calculated summing up all trichothecenes type B measured (DON, 3ADON, 15ADON, NIV, FUS-X). Mass-corrected toxin concentrations were calculated and used for determining the effect of nitrogen source on toxin boosting. Mann Whitney Rank Sum test was used to verify the effect of the medium on masses and the effect of nitrogen source in the medium on mass corrected summed trichothecene type B values. Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance on Ranks was used to verify the effect of the medium on the average ratio of TB production in the two media for each strain classified either as species or as chemotype. Significant differences are considered when p < 0.05.

3. Results and Discussion

Growth (dry mass) and toxin production using a multimethod assay which included DON, 3ADON, 15ADON, NIV, FUS-X, ZEA,T2, HT2 were measured on a set of 19 strains (table 1) when grown in the two media. Mycelium growth (estimated as dry mass) was influenced by the medium increasing, as expected, in the high containing saccharose medium (p<0.001). Strains' mass in glutamic acid as nitrogen source containing medium ranged from 3.4 mg to 19.6 mg, while in agmatine/saccharose rich medium masses ranged from 8.9 to 36.1 mg. Growth results are comparable with results obtained by Jiao et al., (2008) for the medium with glutamic acid. We observed that FG and FC had similar range of growth in each medium while FP differed significantly in growth compared to the other two species (p>0.05). No effect of chemotype



(p=0.328) could be identified. In all the three species there was nonetheless a significant effect of 132 growth caused by the medium being the agmatine/high saccharose medium a booster of mass 133 growth (p>0.001 for all the three comparisons, figure 1). The overall increase in dry mass caused 134 by the agmatine medium can be attributed to the higher amount of saccharose in the medium, 135 carbon being the main constituent of fungal biomass (Newell et al., 1982). To evaluate toxin 136 137 production we therefore normalized the toxin produced per ml by the dry mass. The two sources of nitrogen had an overall significant effect on trichothecenes type B mass 138 139 corrected production across the three species (p= 0.003). Agmatine medium induced higher TB 140 production in 13 over 19 strains. Six isolates produced an average of TB toxins in ng/ml corrected by their mass in mg above 150 ng/ml/mg (F. culmorum 233, 13-01; F. graminearum 141 142 734, 37099 and MUCL42825 and F. poae 80). All these isolates increased their production in the agmatine containing medium with a boosting factor ranging between 192X of 13-01 to 15X of 143 144 isolate 80. Four isolates (01-02, 557. MUCL15500, UMW00706) had an opposite behaviour 145 when grown in the agmatine containing medium (figure 2). We could also confirm that strains with a determined genetic chemotype can also produce a 146 minor amount of the other acetylated and non-acetylated trichothecenes (De Kuppler et al., 147 148 2011). Nonetheless there was a good correspondence between the genetic chemotype and the 149 major produced toxin type (Supplementary table 1). 150 By analyzing average ratio of toxin production in the isolates according to their species or their 151 chemotype we could not detect a clear effect of any of the two categories. Infact the response of toxin production to the two media was not significantly affected by the species (p=0.552) nor by 152 the chemotype (P = 0.578). Previous hypothesis suggesting differences at the chemotype level on 153 154 toxin regulation (Ponts et al., 2009), may have been biased by the limited number of strains used.



ZEA production, in the only consistent producer of the lot (*F. culmorum* 01-02), doubled in the agmatine medium suggesting that the mechanism boosting TB production affects potentially also ZEA production. This would imply that agmatine regulation of ZEA and of the trichothecene cluster is common, despite the gene expression data from available microarray studies do not show consistent concordant patterns (Sieber et al., 2014). A larger set of isolates producing ZEA is nonetheless needed to verify this hypothesis.

In our analysis we included also two food and feed monitored trichothecene type A (TA) toxins but no isolates of *F. poae* produced any detectable amount of T2 and HT-2. As the biosynthesis of TAs follows a similar pathway (Kimura et al., 2007) we can expect similar effects due to agmatine on TA that nonetheless we could not confirm with the isolates used in our study.

4. Conclusions

The effect of 2 different media containing agmatine or glutamic acid on toxin induction and growth of a total of nineteen strains belonging to *F. graminearum* (*n*=7), *F. culmorum*(*n*=8), *F. poae* (*n*=4) species was evaluated. With our species comparative study we confirmed that on average the mechanism of triggering toxin production by agmatine is confirmed in the 3 species but that the mechanism is also significantly influenced by strain diversity. The identification of agmatine non-responding isolates may help deciphering the pathways leading to specific agmatine regulation in the fungus. Despite these data were obtained by culturing the fungus *in vitro*, they can contribute to explain the partial diversity of toxin contamination observed *in planta*: indeed, on average, different cultivars accumulate different levels of DON (Ji et al., 2015). Hypotheses on the effect of the plant oxidative status (Waśkiewicz et al., 2014) and of polyamine concentration on toxin synthesis in planta have been formulated (Gardiner et al., 2010). Here we showed that also strain diversity can account for a factor 1000X in the level of



178 toxin accumulation. Exploring the diversity of interactions between strains and toxin triggering compounds such as polyamines (Valdes Santiago et al., 2012) is fundamental to identify general 179 inhibitors of TB accumulation in the plant. 180 181 Acknowledgments 182 183 We thank Laurence Joly for technical help with toxin measures and Marine Pallez for support in fungal collection maintainance. 184 185 References Beyer M, Pogoda F, Pallez M, Lazic J, Hoffmann L, Pasquali M. 2014. Evidence for a reversible 186 drought induced shift in the species composition of mycotoxin producing Fusarium head blight 187 188 pathogens isolated from symptomatic wheat heads. *International Journal of Food Microbiology* 189 182-183:51-56. Crespo-Sempere A, Estiarte N, Marín S, Sanchis V, Ramos AJ. 2015. Targeting Fusarium 190 191 graminearum control via polyamine enzyme inhibitors and polyamine analogs. Food 192 Microbiology 49:95–103. 193 De Kuppler ALM, Steiner U, Sulyok M, Krska R, Oerke E-C. 2011. Genotyping and 194 phenotyping of Fusarium graminearum isolates from Germany related to their mycotoxin biosynthesis. *International journal of food microbiology* 151:78–86. 195 196 Desjardins AE. 2008. Natural Product Chemistry Meets Genetics: When Is a Genotype a 197 Chemotype? *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry* 56:7587–7592.



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- FUSX). In red, isolates that have higher amount of TB in the glutamic acid medium while
- in blue those that have higher amount in the agmatine medium. .



Figure 1(on next page)

Dry mycelium mass measured in the two media in the three species.

Mass in mg of dried mycelium grown 10 days in the two media (Gardiner medium containing agmatine; Jiao medium containing glutamic acid). Asterisks indicate significant differences using Mann-Whitney rank test (p < 0.05).

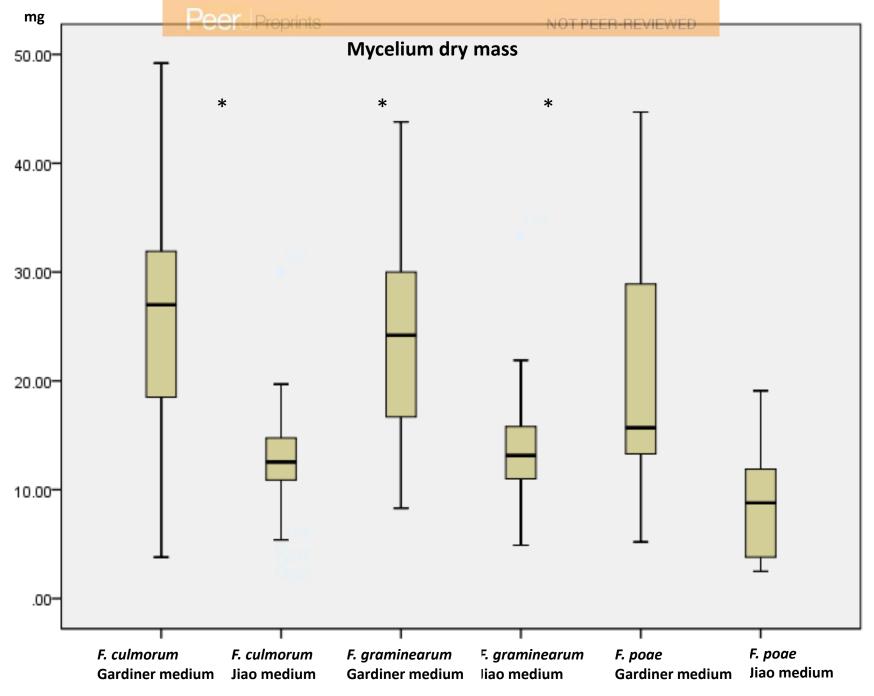




Figure 2(on next page)

Toxins ratio comparing the two media.

Log 10 transformed average ratio of TB production in agmatine vs glutamic acid medium. Values are the sum of all trichothecene type B detected (DON, 3ADON, 15ADON, NIV, FUSX). In red, isolates that have higher amount of TB in the glutamic acid medium while in blue those that have higher amount in the agmatine medium.

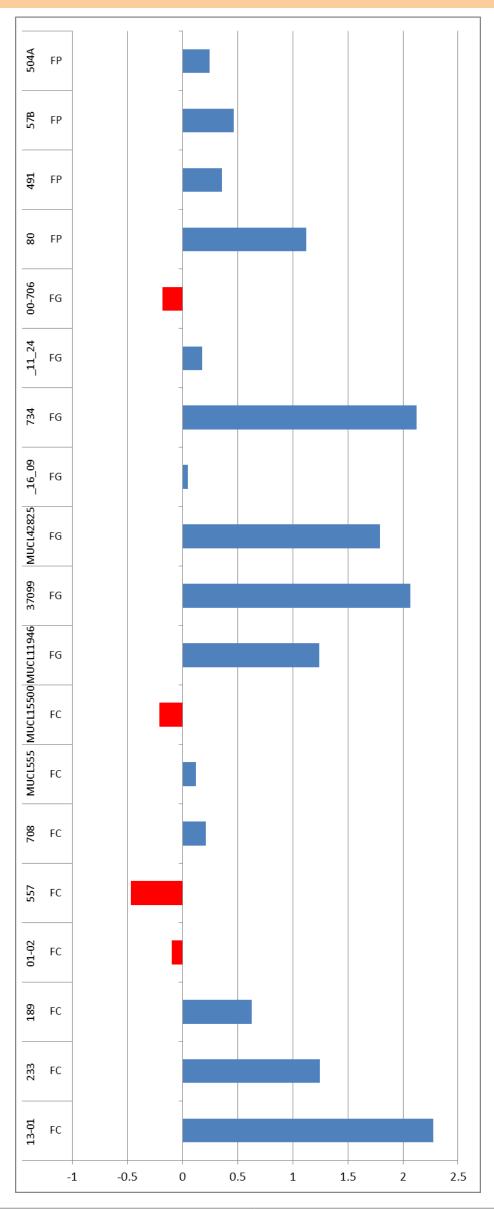




Table 1(on next page)

Table 1

Strain identification code, species, genetic chemotype, year of isolation, geographical origin, strain collection where the strain is deposited.

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Table 1. Strain identification code, species, genetic chemotype, year of isolation, geographical origin, strain collection where the strain is deposited.

Strain identification code	Species	Genetic chemotype	Year of isolation	Geographical origin	Strain collection
13-01	F. culmorum	3ADON	2008	(Hoscheid) Luxembourg (Reisdorf)	LIST
233	F. culmorum	NIV	2007	Luxembourg	LIST
189	F. culmorum	3ADON	2007	(Reisdorf) Luxembourg	LIST
01-02	F. culmorum	NIV	2008	(Kehlen) Luxembourg	LIST
557	F. culmorum	3ADON	2007	(Reuler) Luxembourg	LIST
708	F. culmorum	NIV	2007	(Christnach) Luxembourg	LIST
MUCL555	F. culmorum	NIV	1952	Unknown	MUCL
MUCL15500	F. culmorum	NIV	1946	Netherlands	MUCL
MUCL 11946	F. graminearum	3ADON	1969	Belgium	MUCL
NRRL37099	F. graminearum	3ADON	1994	(Manitoba) Canada	NRRL
MUCL 42825	F. graminearum	NIV	2000	Belgium	MUCL
16-09	F. graminearum	NIV	2008	(Troisvierges) Luxembourg	LIST
734	F. graminearum	15ADON	2007	(Christnach) Luxembourg	LIST
11-24	F. graminearum	15ADON	2008	(Echternach) Luxembourg	LIST
UMW00-706	F. graminearum	15ADON	>2000	USA	Courtesy of L. Gale
80	F. poae	-	2007	(Nothum) Luxembourg	LIST
491	F. poae	-	2007	(Nothum) Luxembourg	LIST
57B	F. poae	-	2007	(Kayl) Luxembourg	LIST
504A	F. poae	-	2007	(Kayl) Luxembourg	LIST

^{*} LIST: fungal database of the Luxembourg Institute of Science and Technology (LUX); MUCL: *Mycoteque* de l'Universite Catholique de Louvain (BEL); NRRL: Agricultural Research Service culture collection (USA).

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