1	Evolution within a given virulence phenotype (pathotype) is driven
2	by changes in aggressiveness: a case study of French wheat leaf rust
3	populations
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11	ABSTRACT
12	Plant pathogens are constantly evolving and adapting to their environment, including their
13	host. Virulence alleles emerge, and then increase, and sometimes decrease in frequency
14	within pathogen populations in response to the fluctuating selection pressures imposed by
15	the deployment of resistance genes. In some cases, these strong selection pressures cannot
16	fully explain the evolution observed in pathogen populations. A previous study on the French
17	population of Puccinia triticina, the causal agent of wheat leaf rust, showed that two major
18	pathotypes — groups of isolates with <u>a particular the same</u> combination s of virulences —
19	predominated but then declined over the 2005-2016 period. The relative dynamics and the
20	domination of these two pathotypes — 166 317 0 and 106 314 0 —, relative to the others
21	compatible pathotypes present in the population at a low frequency although compatible, i.e.
22	virulent on several varieties deployed, could not be explained solely by the frequency of Lr
23	genes in the landscape. Within these two pathotypes, we identified two main genotypes that

24 emerged in succession. We assessed three components of aggressiveness — infection 25 efficiency, latency period and sporulation capacity — for 44 isolates representative of the four 26 P. triticing pathotype-genotype combinations. We showed, for both pathotypes, that the 27 morest recent genotypes were more aggressive than the older ones. Our findings were highly 28 consistent for the various components of aggressiveness for pathotype 166 317 0 grown on 29 Michigan Amber — a 'naive' cultivar never grown in the landscape — or on Apache — a 30 'neutral' cultivar, which does not affect the pathotype frequency in the landscape and 31 therefore does not was postulated to have ano or minor selection effect on the population 32 composition with no selection effect on the landscape pathotype pattern. For pathotype 106 33 314 0, the most recent genotype had a shorter latency period was more aggressive on several 34 of the cultivars most frequently grown in the landscape, but not on 'neutral' and 'naive' 35 cultivars, and only in terms of its latency period. We conclude that the quantitative 36 components of aggressiveness can be significant drivers of evolution in pathogen populations. A gain in aggressiveness stopped the decline in frequency of a pathotype and the maintenance 37 38 of this pathotype at a stable frequency, and eve, subsequently, allowed an increase in 39 frequency of this pathotype in the pathogen population allowed the maintenance of a 40 declining pathotype, and even further expansion of that pathotype, in the pathogen 41 population, providing evidence that adaptation to a changing varietal landscape will not only 42 affects virulence but willcan also lead to changes in aggressiveness. virulence alone is not 43 sufficient, aggressiveness also being required for the adaptation of a pathogen to a changing 44 varietal landscape.

47 Aggressiveness, quantitative phenotyping, genotype evolution, host adaptation, leaf
 48 rustPuccinia triticina

49

50 **INTRODUCTION**

51

52 Plant diseases and pests cause crop damage accounting for up to 40% of yield losses 53 (Boonekamp, 2012). Pathogenicity, or the ability of plant pathogens, especially fungi, to cause 54 disease, is generally broken down into a qualitative term, 'virulence', and a quantitative term, 55 'aggressiveness' (Lannou, 2012). Virulence is defined as the capacity of the pathogen to infect 56 its host (compatible interaction), as opposed to avirulence, which expresses the resistance of 57 the host (incompatible interaction), according to the gene-for-gene model (Flor, 1971). A 58 virulence phenotype, also known as a pathotype or race, is defined by a virulence profile: two 59 pathogenic isolates are considered to belong to the same pathotype if they have the same 60 combination of virulences. Aggressiveness, the quantitative variation of pathogenicity on a 61 compatible host (Pariaud et al., 2009a), can be viewed as the detrimental impact of a 62 pathogen on its host, leading to damage to the crop plant and, thus, yield losses (Shaner et 63 al., 1992; Pariaud et al., 2009a; Lannou, 2012). Aggressiveness also determines the rate at 64 which a given disease intensity is reached. Its assessment is intrinsically complex because it is 65 related to various life-history traits of the pathogen specific to its biology and the nature of 66 the symptoms that it produces. The different components of aggressiveness can be measured 67 by evaluating several of these complementary quantitative traits expressed during the host-68 pathogen interaction. The most widely assessed aggressiveness components for rust 69 pathogens are infection efficiency, latency period and sporulation capacity (Pariaud et al., 70 2009a; Lannou, 2012; Azzimonti et al., 2013). A higher infection efficiency will directly cause

71 more host damage, while latency period and sporulation capacity will also increase the 72 parasitic fitness of the pathogen (Shaner et al., 1992) by favoring its transmission of the 73 pathogen before damaging the host and ultimately result in more host damage. However, the 74 relationship between these aggressiveness components of the pathogen and the reduction in 75 crop yield and biomass remains a theoretical assumption that is rarely verified experimentally 76 (Van Roermund and Spitters, 1990). The utilization of quantitative resistances in the cultivars 77 can affect the pathogen aggressiveness by acting on the life history of the pathogen (Azzimonti 78 et al., 2013), this will lead to the selection of more aggressive isolates . A higher aggressiveness 79 of a pathotype caused more damage to the host, and can lead to the reduction of the 80 resistance of the host, as it has been shown with the wheat cultivar Soissons (Pariaud et al, 81 2009b)

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Infection efficiency is calculated by determining the proportion of <u>unit of inoculum, i.e.</u> spores, <u>thatable to</u> cause a new infection when deposited on compatible host plant tissues (Sache, 1997). The estimation of this component is complex due to technical issues, particularly the need for great precision in the spore deposition process (Lehman & Shaner, 1997), which involves placing a fixed and known number of spores — ideally one by one — on the leaf.

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The latency period is the length of time between <u>"the start of the infection process by a unit</u> of inoculum", i.e. the deposition of a spore on plant tissues, and "the start of production of infectious units", i.e. <u>inoculation and first sporulation</u> the initiation of the infection process by a unit of inoculum and the start of infectious unit production (Parlevliet, 1979; Madden *et al.*, 2007). In rusts, it—this component is often defined as the length of time between inoculation and the appearance of 50% of the sporulating structures (e.g. uredinia), also known as '<u>urediniapustules</u>' (Parlevliet, 1975; Johnson, 1980; Pfender, 2001). Latency period
estimations therefore require counts of uredinia on at least a daily basis. The latency period
is highly temperature-dependent, and its expression in thermal time is therefore
recommended, to allow comparisons between trials (Lovell *et al.*, 2004).

99

100 Sporulation capacity is assessed as the number of spores produced per individual sporulating 101 structure and per unit time (Sache, 1997; Pariaud et al., 2009a). Spores can be collected and 102 counted directly (e.g. with a cell counter) or indirectly (e.g. weighed) (Imhoff, 1982; Robert et 103 al., 2004; Delmotte et al., 2014). However, in rusts, urediniumpustule density affects the 104 number of spores produced (Robert et al., 2004) and must, therefore, be taken into account 105 in some analysis (Lannou & Soubeyrand, 2017). Moreover, sporulation is a continuous 106 process, so sporulation capacity is time-dependent. Thus, this traitcomponent, like several 107 others, is <u>thus</u>, dependent on latency period. The interdependence of traits can be reduced 108 by measuring sporulation capacity at a normalized time point.

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110 Leaf rust caused by *Puccinia triticina* is one of the most damaging wheat diseases, causing high 111 yield losses worldwide (Huerta-Espino et al., 2011; Savary et al., 2019). Qualitative resistance 112 is the easiest and most effective means of limiting leaf rust epidemics. Eighty-two Lr genes 113 have been identified in wheat cultivars, most displaying qualitative interactions (Bariana et 114 al., 2022). It has been shown that the deployment of qualitative resistance genes in the 115 landscape exerts a strong selective pressure, acting as an importantessential driver of 116 evolution in P. triticina populations (Goyeau et al., 2006). This effect was highlighted by 117 surveys of virulence phenotypes (pathotypes), which showed that the corresponding 118 virulence can emerge rapidly after the introduction of a new Lr gene into cultivars. For

example, in France, virulence against *Lr*28 appeared within only two years of the release of
cultivars carrying *Lr28* (Fontyn *et al.*, 2022). Adaptation to qualitative resistances occurs
rapidly, despite the clonality of the population, through 'boom-and-bust' cycles of resistance
(McDonald & Linde 2002).

123

124 However, gualitative resistance alone cannot fully explain the evolution of the composition of 125 the pathogen population dynamicscomposition. Indeed, the quantitative resistance genes 126 introgressed into new wheat cultivars at the same time as qualitative resistance genes may 127 also exert a selection pressure in favor of more aggressive pathotypes. The occurrence of 128 selection for greater aggressiveness has already been established for various pathogens 129 (Delmas et al., 2016; Frézal et al., 2018). Milus et al. (2009) The apparition of more aggressive 130 pathotypes as also been shown without any analyse of the quantitative resistances in the 131 <u>cultivars.</u> Milus et al. (2009) showed that the replacement of an 'old' Puccinia striiformis f. sp. 132 tritici population by a 'new' population could be explained by the greater aggressiveness of 133 isolates from this new population, in addition to a change in its composition in pathotypes. A 134 survey of the French P. triticina population from 1999-2002 (Goyeau et al., 2006) revealed the 135 domination of a single pathotype (073 100 0), coinciding with a period in which the cultivar 136 landscape was dominated by the cultivar Soissons. Pathotype 073 100 0 was found to be more 137 aggressive on this cultivar than other virulent pathotypes present in the *P. triticina* population 138 during this period (Pariaud et al., 2009b). Fontyn et al. (2022) recently showed that the 139 domination of the French landscape and the frequency evolution of by two pathotypes — 140 106 314 0 and 166 317 0 —_during the 2005-2016 period could not be fully attributed to the 141 deployment of Lr genes. Indeed, several other compatible pathotypes virulent against the Lr 142 genes carried by the most widely grown cultivars were present in the landscape, but never

reached substantial frequencies. The authors suggested that aggressiveness might drive the evolution of *P. triticina* populations, modifying pathotype frequencies at large spatiotemporal scales. The variation of in aggressiveness over time, during the complete life historylifespan of a pathotype, corresponding to the stages of emergence, domination and replacementincluding its emergence, domination and replacement, has never been investigated.

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150 The objective of this study was to determine if an evolution of aggressiveness can occur within 151 a pathotype of *P. triticing* over a large temporal scale-during their life history, and whether 152 information on aggressiveness allows us to explain retrospectively or even predict changes in pathotypes frequency in the landscape the role of aggressiveness in the changes of P. triticina 153 154 pathotypes frequencies over large spatiotemporal scales during their life history. To this end, 155 we focused on two major pathotypes, 166 317 0 and 106 314 0, identified as good 156 experimental case studies for this purpose on the basis of investigations of frequency 157 dynamics over the 2005-2016 period in France, because of their long lifespan history and high 158 frequency in the French landscape over the 2005-2016 periodwith meaningful frequency. We 159 first characterized isolates of these two pathotypes using genotypically with microsatellite 160 markers, to identify their genotypic diversity potential 'subpopulations'. Within each of the 161 two pathotypes, we then compared the aggressiveness components of isolates from the most 162 frequent genotypes (i) on 'neutral' cultivars, i.e. cultivars with no apparent effect on the 163 frequencies of these pathotypes, (166 317 0 and 106 314 0), and, for pathotype 106 314 0 164 onlywhen relevant, (ii) on five cultivars widely grown in France over the study period 165 (pathotype 106 314 0 only).

167 MATERIALS AND METHODS

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169 Selection and purification of isolates

170 Annual surveys of *P. triticina* populations werehave been carried out at INRAE BIOGER over 171 the last two decades. These surveys involve the collection of leaf samples from field 172 (micro)plots sown with a single variety in a network of assays-field trials and nurseries 173 throughout the wheat-growing areas of France (Goyeau et al., 2006; Fontyn et al., 2022). In 174 total, 2796 leaves were collected from the 10 most cultivated varieties during the 2006-2016 175 period in the framework of the national survey. Urediniospores were bulk-harvested from 176 each leaf and stored at -80°C. One single-uredinium pustule-isolate was selected from each 177 bulk and its pathotype was determined as described by Goyeau et al. (2006). In total, 932 178 isolates were identified as pathotype 106 314 0 and 473 isolates were identified as pathotype 179 166 317 0 during the national survey. For the purposes of this study, we selected 286 180 urediniospore bulks of pathotype 106 314 0 collected between 2006 and 2016, and 115 from 181 pathotype 166 317 0 collected between 2013 and 2016, as identified during the national 182 survey (Table S1 and S2). No bulk were selected for pathotype 166 317 0 before 2013 because 183 the frequency of this pathotype in the landscape was too low The years of urediniospores bulk 184 selected for both pathotypes is depending of the frequency of the pathotype in the landscape, 185 years with a high frequency were selected. The bulks were defrosted and repurified by the re-186 inoculation of seven-day-old cv. Michigan Amber wheat seedlings, to obtain 401 new single-187 urediniumpustule isolates. Before inoculation, the plants were grown in cabinets with air 188 filters in a greenhouse at temperatures between 15 and 20°C, under a 14-h photoperiod 189 (daylight supplemented with 400 W sodium lamps). Plants were treated with 15 mL maleic 190 hydrazide solution (0.25 g maleic hydrazide per liter of H₂O) to prevent the emergence of

191 secondary leaves and to increase spore production. Inoculated seedlings were placed in a dew 192 chamber at 15°C for 24 h and were then transferred to the greenhouse. One week after 193 inoculation, the seedlings were trimmed such that only one plant with one uredinium 194 remained in each pot. Before sporulation, cellophane bags were placed over the pots to 195 prevent contamination between isolates. Ten days after inoculation, 401 leaf segments, each 196 carrying only one uredinium, were collected for DNA extraction and genotyping with 197 microsatellite markers. Other single-urediniumpustule isolates were also selected from 28 and 198 16 bulks initially identified as pathotypes 106 314 0 and 166 317 0, respectively. Each of these 199 44 isolates was pathotyped (Goyeau et al., 2006) and one of these isolates, after confirmation 200 that theirits virulence phenotypes wereas as expected, wereas selected for DNA extraction 201 and genotypinged with microsatellite markers. Spores from these 44 isolates were stored at -202 80°C for further assessments of aggressiveness (Table S3). The various stages in the 203 purification, selection, pathotyping and genotyping of *P. triticina* isolates for which 204 aggressiveness components were evaluated are summarized in Figure 1.

205

206 Genotyping of isolates with microsatellite markers

207 DNA extraction

208 DNA was extracted from all the purified isolates in 96-well extraction plates, with Qiagen 209 DNeasy® Plant Mini Kit buffers (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). To this end, each leaf segment 210 carrying a single uredinium was placed in a Qiagen collection microtube with a tungsten bead 211 and 100 μ L of hot AP1 buffer (65°C). Leaf segments were ground by shaking the microtubes in 212 a Retsch® MM400 ball mill twice, for 30 seconds each, at 25 Hz. The tubes were then 213 centrifuged for 1 minute at 3000 x *g*. AP1 buffer supplemented with RNase A and Reagent DX 214 was then added to each tube (300 μ L). After mixing, we added 130 μ L P3 buffer to the tube, 215 which was then incubated for 10 minutes at -20°C and centrifuged at 4°C for 10 minutes at 216 20 000 x g. The supernatant (200 μ L) was transferred to a new tube, to which we added 1 217 volume of sodium acetate (3 M pH 5) and 3 volumes of isopropanol (100%). After mixing, the 218 tubes were placed at -20°C for 30 minutes and then centrifuged for 20 minutes at 6000 x g. 219 The supernatant was removed and 3 volumes of 70% ethanol were added. The tube was 220 placed at -20°C for 5 minutes and was then centrifuged at 4°C for 15 minutes at 6000 x g. The 221 pellet containing the DNA was allowed to dry overnight, and was then resuspended in 100 µL 222 ultra-purified water. We transferred 20 µL of the resulting suspension to Qiagen elution 223 microtubes RS in a 96-tube rack, which was sent to Eurofins (Eurofins, Luxembourg) for 224 genotyping. The DNA suspensions had concentrations of were between 1 and 25 ng/ μ L.

225

226 <u>Microsatellite genotyping and analyses</u>

227 The 401 and 44 single-urediniumpustule isolates were genotyped for 19 microsatellite 228 markers: RB8, RB11, RB12, RB17, RB25, RB26, PtSSR13, PtSSR50, PtSSR55, PtSSR61, PtSSR68, 229 PtSSR91, PtSSR92, PtSSR152, PtSSR154, PtSSR158, PtSSR164, PtSSR173, and PtSSR186 (Duan 230 et al., 2003; Szabo & Kolmer, 2007). The microsatellite markers were assembled into two 231 multiplexes of 9 and 10 markers and labeled with four fluorochromes (Table S4) to prevent 232 overlaps between markers with the same range of allele sizes. PCR amplification was 233 performed by Eurofins (Eurofins, Luxembourg), with the following amplification program: 234 95°C for 5 min and 35 cycles of 95°C for 30 s, 58°C for 30 s, 72°C for 30 s, and then 60°C for 30 235 min. Each reaction contained 5 μ L DNA solution and PCR mixture with Tag Type-it (Qiagen®). 236 PCR products were analyzed by capillarity electrophoresis on an ABI3130xl sequencer. The 237 two-multiplex PCR system was tested and validated on eight reference P. triticina DNA 238 extracts from isolates obtained from bread and durum wheat. Chromatograms were visually 239 inspected for all markers and for all individuals with Peak Scanner software version 2.0, before 240 the final assignment of SSR alleles. The chromosome position of SSR markers was determined 241 by performing a blastn analysis (with default parameter values) of the sequence of each 242 primer against the two genome sequences of the Australian isolate Pt76 (Duan et al., 20224) 243 with the NCBI blast tool (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi). 244 245 The genotyping of the 401 isolates revealed two major genotypes within each pathotype: 106 246 314 0-G1 and 106 314 0-G2 for pathotype 106 314 0, and 166 317 0-G1 and 166 317 0-G2 for 247 pathotype 166 317 0. These genotypes were taken into account in the design of subsequent 248 experiments. 249 250 **Evaluation of aggressiveness components** 251 Experimental design 252 Three components of aggressiveness, infection efficiencylatency period, infection efficiency 253 latency period and sporulation capacity-sporulation, were assessed for 28 isolates of 254 pathotype 106 314 0 and 16 isolates of pathotype 166 317 0 that had been purified, 255 pathotyped and genotyped (Table S3).): latency period, infection efficiency and sporulation 256 capacity. These aggressiveness components were measured in the greenhouse on seedlings 257 of two wheat varieties: (i) Apache, a commercial French cultivar characterized as 'neutral' in 258 a previous study (Fontyn et al., 2022), i.e. with no selection effect on the landscape-pathotype 259 pattern, and (ii) Michigan Amber, considered intrinsically 'naive' or 'neutral', both because it 260 carries no known leaf rust resistance gene and because it has never been cultivated in France 261 and cannot, therefore, have played any significant role in the evolutionary trajectory of P. 262 *triticina* in France.

264	It was not possible to perform a large single trial at our facilities, so the 44 isolates were
265	characterized in five successive series, according to the same protocol and under the same
266	experimental conditions. In series $1_{}$ (performed in March-April 2021) and 2_{7-} (performed in
267	August-September 2021), we tested whether the two genotypes of within each P. triticina
268	pathotype differed in aggressiveness on we investigated the variation of aggressiveness in
269	pathotypes 106 314 0 and 166 317 0, distinguishing the two genotypes of each pathotype (106
270	314 0-G1 and 106 314 0-G2, 166 317 0-G1 and 166 317 0-G2, respectively) on Apache and
 271	Michigan Amber. The isolates used for these two series were collected between 2005 and
272	2016 on Apache (Table 1). In <u>Series 3 (July-august 2020), 4 (April-May 2021) and 5 (May-June</u>
273	2021), we tested the difference in aggressiveness between the two genotypes within
274	pathotype 106 314 0 (-106 314 0-G1 and 106 314 0-G2) on some or all of the wheat cultivars;
275	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber, Sankara, Expert and Bermude. Except — all of which,
276	except-Michigan Amber, all were among the 35 most frequently grown cultivars in the French
277	landscape during the 2006-2016 period. Series 3, 4 and 5 were performed to investigate the
278	variation of aggressiveness in 106 314 0 only. Again, the two genotypes (106 314 0-G1 and
279	106 314 0-G2) were distinguished, this time on three additional cultivars from the following
280	list — Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber, Sankara, Expert and Bermude — all of which,
281	except Michigan Amber, were among the 35 most frequently grown cultivars in the French
282	landscape during the 2006-2016 period. The isolates used in these three series were collected
 283	in 2012 and 2013, on Aubusson, Premio and Apache (Table 2). The isolates used in series 3
284	were collected on cultivars Aubusson and Premio and were tested on these two cultivars and
285	Michigan Amber. The isolates used in series 4 were collected on cultivar Apache and were
286	tested on Apache and Michigan Amber. The isolates used in series 5 were collected on cultivar

Apache and were tested on cultivars Sankara, Expert and Bermude. In all five series, each isolate × cultivar interaction was replicated eight times, on eight wheat seedlings. Three replicates of the experimental design, including the five series, were established.

290

291 Assessment of aggressiveness

292 All the phenotyping tests were performed in a greenhouse on eight-day-old wheat seedlings 293 grown in a 21 x 15 x 6 cm plastic box containing potting soil placed under standardized 294 conditions (18°C at night and 22°C during the day, with a 16-h photoperiod). The second leaf 295 of each seedling was maintained, with double-sided tape, on a rigid plate coated with 296 aluminum foil and a 3 cm-long segment of this leaf was inoculated with the fungus. Inoculation 297 was performed with 10 fresh (two-week-old) spores, picked one by one with a human eyelash 298 under binocular magnifiera dissecting microscope and deposited on the leaf (Figure 2A and 299 2B). The plants were then placed in a dew chamber, in the dark, at 15°C, for 18 to 24 h. They 300 were then returned to the greenhouse and the rigid plate was removed. When the first 301 uredinia (pustules) began to break through the leaf epidermis, generally six days after 302 inoculation, they were counted at 10- to 14-hour intervals (twice daily) until no new 303 urediniapustules appeared (Figure 2C). Infection efficiency (IE) was estimated for each leaf as 304 the ratio between the final number of uredinia and the number of spores deposited (10 305 spores). Latency period (LP), estimated as the time between inoculation and the appearance 306 of 50% of the total number of uredinia, was expressed in degree-days, based on the air 307 temperature measured in the greenhouse every ten minutes. Sporulation capacity (SP) was 308 estimated, once the number of uredinia had stabilized, as the number of spores produced per 309 uredinium over a four-day period. Once the final number of uredinia had been reached (i.e. 9 310 days after inoculation) the spores that had already been produced were removed from the

leaf with a small brush. Slightly incurved aluminum gutters (2 x 7cm) made from blind slats were then positioned under each inoculated leaf, which was attached to the gutter with clips (Figure 2D). After four days, all the newly produced spores (Figure 2E) were removed by suction with a cyclone collector into a portion of plastic straw sealed at one end (Figure 2F). Each portion of straw was weighed before and after spore harvesting. SP was calculated by dividing the total weight of the spores collected from a single leaf by the number of uredinia on that leaf.

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319 Statistical analyses

For each of the three aggressiveness traits (the response variable Y), two ANOVA models were used: model (1) for series 1 and 2; model (2) for pooled data from series 3 and 4 (without a series factor, as a preliminary analysis showed that the interactions of the series factor with other factors were never significant), and for series 5. For series 3, 4 and 5, the analysis was performed independently for each cultivar, as the cultivars tested were not the same-in the three series.

326

(1) $Y_{ijklm} = \mu + R_i + G_j + C_k + G_j/I_l + \varepsilon_{ijklm}$

327 (2) $Y_{ijkl} = \mu + R_i + G_j + G_j/I_k + \varepsilon_{ijkl}$

where Y_{ijklm} and Y_{ijkl} are the values of the studied trait in replicate (R) *i*, of genotype (G) *j* and isolate (I) *I* or k_7 (isolate being nested within genotype), on cultivar (C) *k* (when this occurred). μ is the overall mean value for this trait and ε is the residual, representing the measurement error, with $\varepsilon \sim N(o, \sigma 2)$

- Log, $\sqrt{}$ or 1/x transformation was applied to IE, LP and SP when necessary, to obtain a normalized distribution of residuals. When the distribution of residuals could not be normalized by any transformation, a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was performed to analyze the effect of genotype on the aggressiveness components, and also the cultivar effect in series 1 and 2 only. Nevertheless, the Kruskal-Wallis analysis always gave the same results as the ANOVA analysis, even if the data could not be normalized.
- All the analyses were performed with R software version 4.1.0.
- 340
- 341 **RESULTS**
- 342

343 Frequency dynamics of two major *P. triticina* pathotypes in the French landscape in the
344 2006-2020 period

345 The frequency of pathotype 106 314 0 in the French *P. triticina* population increased from 30% **B**46 in 2006 to 48% in 2008 and 51% in 2009 (data from Fontyn et al., 2022), the maximum B47 frequency in the landscape for this pathotype (Figure 3). After a plateau at 30-33% from 2011 348 to 2014, the frequency of this pathotype decreased strongly, to 18% in 2015, to 5% in 2016 **349** and to-less than 1% in 2018. Within pathotype 106 314 0, two main genotypes, <u>106 314 0-G1</u> **B**50 and 106 314 0-G2, were identified and were considered to be dominant as their cumulative **B**51 frequency ranged from 40% to 65% during the 2006-2016 period (Figure 43). These two 352 genotypes differed at five of the 19 SSR loci studied (RB8, RB11, PtSSR68, PtSSR92 and 353 PtSSR164; Table 3). Genotype 106 314 0-G1 was the most frequent from 2006 to 2012, but it 354 decreased in frequency thereafter (Figure 4). Genotype 106 314 0-G2 was present at a very 355 low frequency from 2007 to 2011. In 2012, the frequencies of the two genotypes were fairly 356 similar, at 23% for 106 314 0-G1 and 30% for 106 314 0-G2. Genotype 106 314 0-G1 then 357 continued to decrease in frequency, eventually disappearing completely from the sampled 358 population in 2014. Conversely, genotype 106 314 0-G2 continued to increase in frequency. It 359 accounted for 42% of the total 106 314 0 pathotype population in 2013 and 66% in 2016. Over **β60** the entire period, genotypes other than 106 314 0-G1 and 106 314 0-G2 were also identified **B**61 (Figure 4; detailed data not shown), which could correspond to other genotypes within B62 pathotype 106 314 0, or to other pathotypes mixed with pathotype 106 314 0 in the B63 correspondingoriginal urediniospore bulks (possibly due to differential results between the B64 initial purifications performed for the national survey and the subsequent purifications 365 performed for the current study from the same bulks stored at 80°C, as summarized in Figure **B66** <u>1</u>. Their cumulative frequency ranged from 40% to 60% from 2006 to 2016. 367 368 Pathotype 166 317 0 first appeared in 2007, initially at a very low frequency (less than 2%). Its 369 temporal evolution in the French P. triticina population was characterized by two peaks (data **370** from Fontyn et al., 2022). The first peak occurred after, with a gradually increase of its **3**71 frequency between 2007 and 2012, to-reaching at 32% of the P. triticing population in 2012. T β72 and tThen, it decreased until 2015 at 13% of to a frequency of 13%, before increasing again to 373 reach a second peak-until in 2018, reaching at and 41% of frequency in the landscape in 2018, **3**74 with a decrease in frequency to 13% in 2015 (Figure 3). The frequency of this pathotype finally 375 decreased after 2018 reaching 27% in 2020. Within pathotype 166 317 0, two genotypes, 376 differing by only one of the 19 SSR loci used (RB8; Table 3), were identified and considered to 377 be predominant during the 2013-2016 period. In 2013 and 2014, genotype 166 317 0-G1 378 dominated, as it accounted for more than 65% of the total 166 317 0 pathotype population **3**79 (Figure 5). In 2015, genotypethe 166 317 0-G2 genotype emerged and became co-dominant 380 with 166 317 0-G1. In 2016, 166 317 0-G2 sharply increased in frequency, to 62%, whereas the frequency of 166 317 0-G1 decreased to 7%. Over the four-year period considered, several other genotypes were identified (Figure 5; detailed data not shown), which could correspond to other genotypes within pathotype 166 317 0 or to other pathotypes mixed in the original urediniospore bulks. Their cumulative frequencies reached 46% during the co-dominance of the two major genotypes, and 30% when a single genotype dominated.

- 386
- 387 Differences in aggressiveness between genotypes of the two major *P. triticina* pathotypes
 388 expressed on 'neutral' and 'naive' cultivars

389 Genotype 166 317 0-G2 was more aggressive than genotype 166 317 0-G1 in assessments of 390 all three aggressiveness components on a 'neutral' cultivar, Apache, and a 'naive' cultivar **3**91 Michigan Amber (in analyses of the pooled dataset for the two cultivars; Figure 6A, B and C; 392 Table S5). The data for aSignificancessessments of differences in A comparison of **393** aggressiveness components on between both the two cultivars are is provided provided in the **394** supplementary data (Figure S1), in addition, all the p-value for each components are provided 395 in table S5. Infection efficiency (IE) was higher for genotype 166 317 0-G2 (53.1 %) than for 396 genotype 166 317 0-G1 (47.6%). Sporulation capacity (SP) was also higher for genotype 166 397 317 0-G2, with 0.120 mg/lesion versus 0.114 mg/lesion for genotype 166 317 0-G1. Latency 398 period (LP) differed was significantly between the two genotypes; it was shorter for genotype 399 166 317 0-G2 (132.6 vs 135.0 degree-days). Significant differences were found between 400 isolates of the two genotypes.

401

Infection efficiency (IE), latency period (LP) and sporulation capacity (SP) did not differ
 between genotypes 106 314 0-G1 and 106 314 0-G2 assessed on cultivars Apache and
 Michigan Amber (in analyses of the pooled dataset for the two cultivars; Figure 6D, E and F;

405 Table S5). The data for assessmentsSignificance of differences in of A comparison of 406 aggressiveness components on bothbetween the two cultivars are is provided in the 407 supplementary data (Figure S2). The-IE for genotype 106 314 0-G1 was 43.8%, which is not 408 significantly different from the value of 43.4% obtained for genotype 106 314 0-G2. SP was 409 0.128 mg/lesion for genotype 106 314 0-G1, which is not significantly different from the value 410 of 0.124 mg/lesion obtained for genotype G2. Finally, LP differed by less than one degree-day 411 between the two genotypes, at 133.1 degree-days for genotype 106 314 0-G1 and 133.3 412 degree-days for genotype 106 314 0-G2. By contrast to our findings for pathotype 166 317 0, 413 we observed no significant difference between genotypes of the same pathotype for 106 314 414 0. This singularity justified our decision to perform phenotypic characterization by comparing 415 the aggressiveness of isolates of pathotype 106 314 0 on other cultivar sets with a view to 416 detecting potential differences.

417

418 Difference in aggressiveness between the two major genotypes of pathotype 106 314 0 on

419 Michigan Amber and major cultivars present in the French varietal landscape

420 The two major genotypes of pathotype 106 314 0 had significantly different latency periods 421 (LP) on five of the six cultivars tested (Table 4; Table S6). All the p-value for each 422 aggressiveness components are provided in table S6. These differences were significant on 423 the cultivar Michigan Amber, whereas no difference was found in analyses of the data for 424 series 1, as described above. The infection efficiency (IE) of genotype 106 314 0-G2 was higher 425 than that of 106 314 0-G1 (48.7% versus 39.1%) on cultivar Expert, but no differences were 426 found on the other cultivars. Genotype 106 314 0-G2 had a shorter LP than 106 314 0-G1 on 427 five of the six cultivars tested. This difference in LP ranged from 2.1 degree-days on Premio to 428 4.8 degree-days on Expert. A difference of 5 degree-days is equivalent to 8 h at 15°C. Bermude 429 was the only cultivar on which LP did not differ significantly between the two pathogen 430 genotypes. No significant differences in sporulation capacity (SP) were observed between the 431 two genotypes on any of the cultivars tested. SP varied between cultivars, ranging from 0.099 432 mg on Michigan Amber to 0.134 mg on Sankara, with slightly higher values for 106 314 0-G2 433 than for 106 314 0-G1. It was not possible to <u>detect-look for</u> significant differences between 434 cultivars, <u>because-as</u> different cultivars were analyzed in different series.

435

Within genotypes, there was a significant isolate effect for LP, but no significant isolate effectfor IE or SP, on Aubusson, Premio and Expert.

438

For LP, IE and SP, the replication factor (x3) was almost always significant. The interaction
between replication factor and the three aggressiveness components was significant for some
aggressiveness component measurements (Table 4<u>; Table S6</u>).

442

443 **DISCUSSION**

Focusing on two major pathotypes from the French *P. triticina* population, we found that several genotypes were present within each pathotype, and that the frequency of the most common genotypes changed over time. The initially dominant genotypes representative of pathotypes 166 317 0 and 106 314 0 were replaced, in each pathotype, by another genotype over the period 2006-2016. The most recent dominant genotype was more aggressive than the older one in both pathotypes.

451 Methodological aspects of aggressiveness measurement at the wheat seedling stage

452 The mean values used to characterize the aggressiveness of different P. triticina isolates on 453 wheat seedlings revealed significant variation for each of the three aggressiveness 454 components measured — infection efficiency, latency period and sporulation capacity — at 455 the seedling stage. Aggressiveness and its variation can be measured on seedlings (Milus et 456 al., 2006; de Vallavieille-Pope et al., 2018) or on adult plants (Lehman & Shaner, 1997; Pariaud 457 et al., 2009b; Azzimonti et al., 2013). Plant stage is known to affect the aggressiveness 458 components of *P. triticina* (Pariaud *et al.,* 2009b). We decided to assess aggressiveness 459 components on wheat seedlings in this study, because the use of seedlings in a semi-460 controlled environment results in more homogeneous physiological properties of the plant at 461 inoculation and because this approach requires less space and time than studies on adult 462 plants. However, we should be aware that plant stage is known to affect the estimation of the 463 aggressiveness components of *P. triticina* (Pariaud *et al.*, 2009b).

464

465 With the phenotyping method developed and used in this study, we were able to estimate the 466 three aggressiveness components simultaneously on the same inoculated plant. We 467 measured infection efficiency (IE) more precisely here than in previous studies, in which the 468 variability was sometimes very high. For instance, Pariaud et al. (2009b) applied a 1:10 mixture 469 of *P. triticina* urediniospores and *Lycopodium* spores to the leaf surface with a soft brush; they 470 reported IE values ranging from 18% to 80% for the same genotype. This high level of variation 471 resulted from difficulty controlling the number of urediniospores deposited with this method, 472 resulting in differences between experimental series. Although fastidious, the deposition of 473 urediniospores one-by-one on the leaf surface resulted in a much more accurate estimation 474 of IE than other methods based on the dilution of P. triticina urediniospores among

475 *Lycopodium* spores or in liquids, such as mineral oils (Pariaud *et al.*, 2009<u>b</u>; Sørensen *et al.*, 476 2016). Nevertheless, the interaction between IE and the replication factor was almost always 477 significant, indicating an impact of environmental conditions on this component of 478 aggressiveness. This interaction reflects the difficulty ensuring uniform dew quality in the dew 479 chamber just after inoculation, as the success of urediniospore germination and penetration 480 depends on the presence of a water film on the leaf surface (Bolton *et al.*, 2008).

481

482 Sporulation capacity (SP) was measured by collecting urediniospores produced between 9 and 483 12 days after inoculation, and differences in SP between genotypes were detected for only 484 one experimental series. Pariaud et al. (2009b) found differences in SP between pathotypes 485 of P. triticina in a study in which urediniospores were collected 15 to 23 days after the 486 inoculation of adult plants. They also found that the difference in SP between isolates 487 increased with the regular collection of urediniospores until 59 days after inoculation. The 488 collection of urediniospores more than 13 days after inoculation is of potential relevance for 489 future experiments with our method, to maximize differences and reveal small differences in 490 this component of aggressiveness between isolates.

491

Latency period (LP) was the component that differed most between pathogen genotypes and was the least affected by the replication factor. The calculation of LP in degree-days made it possible to take the temperature-dependence of both infection processes and pathogen development in the leaf into account (Lovell *et al.*, 2004). In most pathosystems, latency periodLP is a component of choice for studies of quantitative interactions (aggressiveness, partial resistance) because time is a variable that is much easier to fractionate and, therefore, to quantify precisely, than any biological trait, making it possible to highlight extremely small

differences between isolates repeatedly. This is almost an epistemological issue for experimental epidemiology and phytopathometry (Suffert & Thompson, 2018; Bock *et al.*, 2022).

502

503 Evolution of greater aggressiveness in two *P. triticina* pathotypes

504 In the case of pathotype 166 317 0, genotype 166 317 0-G2, which replaced genotype G1, 505 was more aggressive than its predecessorthe one it replaced, 166 317 0-G1, with highly 506 consistent results obtained for the different components of aggressiveness. Following this 507 switch between genotypes, the frequency of pathotype 166 317 0 increased considerably over 508 a period of three years, whereas the proportion of compatible host cultivars in the landscape decreased (data not shown). Severe P. triticina epidemics have been shown to be associated 509 510 with a high sporulation capacitySP, a high infection efficiencyIE and a short latency periodLP 511 (Azzimonti et al., 2022). In pathotype 106 314 0, comparisons of aggressiveness on a 'neutral' 512 cultivar revealed no significant difference between the most recent and oldest genotypes. A 513 comparison of the aggressiveness of these two genotypes on some of the cultivars mostly 514 frequently grown in the landscape revealed that 106 314 0-G2 was more aggressive than 106 515 314 0-G1 only in terms of its latency period for LP. This change in predominant genotype 516 coincided with a halt in the decline of pathotype 106 314 0 frequency in the landscape. The 517 shorter latency periodLP of genotype 106 314 0-G2 seems to have an effect on the frequency 518 of this pathotype in the landscape, consistent with the assertions of several studies that 519 latency periodLP is the aggressiveness component with the largest effect on pathogen 520 dynamics in field conditions (Lannou, 2012). In modeling studies, this also appeared to be the 521 trait with the largest impact on the intensity of P. triticina epidemics, as it determined the 522 number of reproductive cycles (i.e. from inoculation to the spore dispersion) of the pathogen possible in a single season (Rimbaud *et al.*, 2018). Although only latency period<u>LP</u> differed significantly between 106 314 0-G2 and 106 314 0-G1, the data for the other aggressiveness components also supported the notion that 106 314 0-G2 was more aggressive, for every component, on all cultivars, except for infection efficiency<u>IE</u> on Premio. Measurements of aggressiveness components on seedlings in controlled conditions (only one reproductive cycle of the pathogen) have a limited capacity for the detection of small phenotypic variations.

529

530 The competitive advantage of one particular genotype within a pathotype, expressing a 531 difference in parasitic fitness for the same virulence profile, may account for the replacement 532 of one genotype with another. This hypothesis is particularly realistic here as the emergence 533 of the more aggressive genotype in each pathotype, 106 314 0 and 166 317 0, coincided with 534 a short-term change in the mid-term trend in pathotype the frequency changes: (i) the 535 decrease in the frequency of pathotype 106 314 0 in the landscape observed from 2009 to 536 2011 was temporarily halted during the 2011-2014 period, when the frequency of this 537 pathotype reached a plateau (Figure 32), coinciding with the replacement of the less 538 aggressive genotype 106 314 0-G1 with the more aggressive genotype 106 314 0-G2 in 2012 539 and 2013 (Figure 43); (ii) the decrease in the frequency of pathotype 166 317 0 in the 540 landscape observed from 2012 to 2015 was halted over the 2015-2018 period, resulting in a 541 new peak frequency (Figure 32) coinciding with the replacement of the less aggressive 166 542 317 0-G1 genotype with the more aggressive 166 317 0-G2 genotype in 2012 and 2013 (Figure 543 53).

544

545 These results suggest that the replacement of some pathotypes by others, driven by changes 546 in the frequencies of resistance genes in the varietal landscape, may be slowed, to various

547 extents, by increases in the aggressiveness of certain genotypes or 'lineages' (defined as 548 genetically related genotypes of the same group of pathotypes, i.e. with the same close 549 ancestor), consistent with the recent analysis by Fontyn et al. (2022). It is even possible, as for 550 pathotype 166 317 0, for the pathotype to gain a 'second life' — for a period of three to four 551 years — due to an increase in the aggressiveness of a new genotype, as long as it remains 552 adapted (or at least not maladapted) to the resistance genes present in the varieties deployed 553 in the landscape. This empirical study shows that differences in aggressiveness can be 554 expressed on a 'neutral' cultivar (for pathotype 166 317 0), but sometimes (for pathotype 106 555 314 0) only on 'non-neutral' cultivars representative of a varietal landscape. This finding 556 clearly complicates the experimental approach (difficulty determining the most appropriate 557 experimental design without making assumptions), but also the data analysis. The magnitude 558 of the differences in aggressiveness probably depends on the type of cultivars tested ('neutral' 559 or 'non-neutral'). Indeed, we found that the intensity of the mid-term trend in the changes in 560 frequencies highlighted above was variable, with either a simple slowing of a trend towards a 561 decrease (plateau, as for pathotype 106 314 0), or a change in direction, with a new increase 562 (peak, as for pathotype 166 317 0).

563

564 Greater aggressiveness as a selective advantage within plant pathogen populations

Increases in aggressiveness have already been proposed as an explanation for the shifts observed in rust populations. Milus *et al.* (2009) measured five aggressiveness components for *P. striiformis* f. sp. *tritici* isolates with similar virulence profiles collected in the U.S. before or after 2000. Isolate aggressiveness was assessed on a susceptible cultivar, and comparisons revealed that the most recent isolates were more aggressive than the older ones. Studies on host quantitative resistance effects on pathogen populations have revealed directional 571 selection toward an increase in pathogen aggressiveness on host cultivars (Andrivon et al., 572 2007; Frézal et al., 2018). Isolates of Phytophthora infestans collected on a partially resistant 573 potato cultivar at the end of the epidemic produced larger lesions and had higher sporulation 574 rates than those collected at the beginning of the epidemic (Andrivon et al., 2007). Z. tritici 575 isolates collected from a partially resistant wheat cultivar were found to be more aggressive 576 than isolates collected from a susceptible wheat cultivar (Cowger & Mundt, 2002). Isolates of 577 Venturia inaequalis collected from an apple cultivar carrying a QTL for resistance had higher lesion densities and sporulation rates than isolates collected from a susceptible variety (Caffier 578 579 et al., 2016). Isolates of Plasmopara viticola collected from partially resistant varieties were 580 found to have shorter latency periods and higher rates of spore production than isolates 581 collected from susceptible cultivars (Delmas et al., 2016). Many studies have shown that the 582 use of quantitative sources of resistance affects the evolution of pathogen population by 583 leading to the selection of more aggressive isolates. Quantitative interactions based on partial 584 resistance in the host and aggressiveness in the pathogen are a significant driver of evolution 585 in pathogen populations. We show here that increases in aggressiveness were associated with genotype replacement in two major P. triticing pathotypes, consistent with all the examples 586 587 of selection based on quantitative plant-pathogen interactions cited above.

588

589 Putative origin of the more aggressive genotypes

All surveys in wheat-growing areas to date have provided evidence for continual evolution of *P. triticina* populations, with rapid changes in pathotype frequencies (Goyeau *et al.*, 2012; Kosman *et al.*, 2019; Zhang *et al.*, 2020; Fontyn *et al.*, 2022; Kolmer & Fajolu, 2022). These changes can be explained intrinsically by the acquisition of new virulences, by mutations, somatic exchanges or, more rarely, genetic recombination. A study on the Australian *P*. 595 striiformis f. sp. tritici population showed that it had evolved due to mutation events (Steele 596 et al., 2001). Whole-genome sequencing has detected similar recurrent mutations in P. 597 triticina, suggesting that such events play a major role in genetic variability within clonal 598 lineages (Fellers et al., 2021). Somatic exchange may also have played a role, as in the 599 emergence of the Ug99 lineage of Puccinia graminis f. sp. tritici, which had one identical 600 haploid nucleus in common with an old African lineage, with no sign of recombination (Li et 601 al., 2019). A similar situation has been described in P. triticina, with the Australian isolate Pt64 602 resulting from somatic exchange between two parental isolates (Wu et al., 2019). More rarely, 603 genetic recombination may also underlie the emergence of new genotypes with new 604 virulences. Indeed, P. triticina is a heteroecious fungus that requires an alternative host, 605 Thalictrum speciosissimum (not naturally present in most places worldwide, including France), 606 for sexual reproduction. The high proportion of repeated genotypes and the heterozygosity 607 rates of European and French leaf rust populations confirmed the very dominant role of clonal 608 reproduction (Goyeau et al., 2007; Kolmer et al., 2013). Genetic changes do not necessarily 609 result in different virulence profiles, so isolates with identical or very similar pathotypes may 610 have different origins. In a previous study on P. triticina nine microsatellite markers were used 611 to analyze the genotypes of 33 pathotypes (Goyeau et al., 2007). This analysis highlighted the 612 presence of different genotypes, differing by only one of the nine SSRs tested, in five of the 613 pathotypes. Another study on 121 European P. triticina isolates with 21 SSR markers revealed 614 a significant correlation between phenotype and genotype, but the same phenotype could, 615 nevertheless, be associated with several genotypes (Kolmer et al., 2013). The results of our 616 study raise questions as to the genetic relationship between the most recent genotypes, 166 617 317 0-G2 and 106 314 0-G2, and the oldest genotypes, 166 317 0-G1 and 106 314 0-G1, 618 respectively. Can the most recent and the oldest genotypes be considered to belong to the 619 same 'lineage', as previously defined? A mutation event during asexual reproduction probably 620 led to the emergence of the most recent genotype (G2) of pathotype 166 317 0, which differs 621 from the older genotype (G1) by only one SSR allele (Table 3). By contrast, genotypes G1 and 622 G2 of pathotype 106 314 0 displayed a higher degree of genetic diversityare more 623 differentiated, as they are differing by five SSR alleles (Table 3). Genotype 106 314 0-G2 may, 624 therefore, be the result of several mutation events occurring in the same lineage and 625 conferring greater aggressiveness than for 106 314 0-G1. Alternatively, the presence of 106 626 314 0-G2 in France may reflect the introduction from an exotic exogenous source of a different 627 (more aggressive) lineage that had acquired the same virulences and, therefore, belonged to 628 the same pathotype, 106 314 0. Migration events are frequent in cereal rust populations, as 629 already shown for yellow rust (Ali et al., 2014; Bueno-Sancho et al., 2017), for which there is 630 a famous example of migration in the form of an introduction into Australia from northwest 631 Europe in 1979 (Wellings & McIntosh, 1990). Studies on P. triticina in wheat-growing areas 632 worldwide have revealed a broad geographic distribution of identical and highly related 633 multilocus genotypes, highlighting the potential of leaf rust for long-distance migration 634 (Kolmer et al., 2019) and the possibility of new genotypes resulting from exotic exogenous 635 introduction.

636

637 Additional approaches for detecting genetic variation related to aggressiveness

Pathotypes of *P. triticina*, defined on the basis of their virulence profiles, appear to be represented by several genotypes, the distribution of which changes over time. An analysis of genotypes within the two major pathotypes collected in France in 2006–2020, 166-317 0 and 106-314-0, revealed the presence in each pathotype of two main genotypes, one of which replaced the other over time. 643

644 This study was not designed to characterize overall pathotypic or genotypic changes in the P. 645 triticing population, so our data should be extrapolated with caution, as any attempt to use 646 them for such purposes would be subject to multiple sampling biases. In addition to the four 647 genotypes on which we focused here, several other genotypes (with cumulative frequencies 648 of 31% to 61%, depending on the year) were identified. This is due to the initial pathotyping performed annually for the national survey and the genotyping for this study being performed 649 650 on different isolates, purified from a bulk of urediniospores collected from a single leaf, which 651 may well have been infected with several pathotypes and/or genotypes (Figure 1). This 652 highlights the imperfections of the protocol linked to the constraints of working on datasets 653 and biological material acquired over several decades with ever-changing techniques. It would 654 have been better to pathotype and phenotype the 401 isolates from the same purified batch 655 of urediniospores, as we did later on for the 44 isolates for which aggressiveness was 656 characterized (Figure 1). However, given the size of the sample, this limitation did not prevent 657 us from obtaining a correct overview of changes for the most common genotypes.

658

659 Our results revealed rapid genotype evolution within the pathotypes that was not detectable 660 if only virulence phenotypes were considered. These findings demonstrate the value of 661 analyzing population dynamics not only from the pathotype standpoint, but also with 662 genotype data, to obtain a more informative picture of pathogen diversity. For leaf rust, as for 663 many fungal pathogens that are commonly described by their virulence profile, there is no 664 univocal link between the pathotypic and the genotypic characterization. In practice, 665 pathotypic characterization and naming has been favoured because of the importance of 666 virulence in the structure of populations. Our results show that different genotypes (defined

667 here by differences in the combination of SSR markers) that have the same virulence profile 668 can nevertheless express differences in the quantitative component of pathogenicity 669 (aggressiveness). Such differences are potentially related to interactions with sources of quantitative resistance. Conversely, identical genotypes may differ in one or several 670 671 virulences. In summary, differentiation (or not) for neutral markers is independent from 672 differentiation (or not) for functional mutations. There is currently no nomenclature for the 673 designation of a unique association between one pathotype and one genotype. and Therefore, 674 we propose to define a unique association with the term 'pathogenotype', exemplified here 675 with 106 314 0-G1 and 106 314 0-G2.

676

677 The use of a small number of SSR markers is not sufficient for the detection of genetic 678 variations in *P. triticina* populations. Genome-wide genotyping approaches are required to 679 characterize the genetic diversity of leaf rust populations more precisely and to explain the 680 emergence of new genotypes. As an illustration of this approach, a combined genome and 681 transcriptome analysis has been performed on 133 P. striiformis f. sp. tritici isolates collected 682 in 16 European countries. This analysis provided more precise information about the origin of 683 the new emerging races, and showed that SNP analysis was an effective approach for the 684 detection of pathogen diversity and for pathogen surveillance (Bueno-Sancho et al., 2017). 685 Similarly, Fellers et al. (2021) genotyped 121 P. triticina isolates with 121 907 SNP markers, and showed that recurrent mutation and selection had played a major role in differentiation 686 687 within clonal lineages. The results of our study highlight the importance of combining genome-688 wide genotyping tools with precise pathotyping and aggressiveness phenotyping to detect the 689 emergence of new variants and to improve our understanding of population dynamics.

690

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696

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704

705 Data Availability Statement

- 706 The data that support the findings of this study are openly available in the INRAE Dataverse
- 707 online data repository (https://data.inrae.fr/) at https://doi.org/10.57745/MZ8TDK
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TABLES

Table 1. Experimental design, with the allocation of isolates to series 1 and 2, for assessments of the aggressiveness of pathotypes 106 314 0 and 166 317 0. Isolates were collected during the 2005-2016 period, from cultivar Apache, and were tested on Apache and Michigan Amber.

Pathotype	Genotype ^a	Year of sampling	Number of isolates	Series
		2005-2006	6	1
	106 314 0-G1	2012-2013	3	1
106 214 0		2015-2016	0	1
106 314 0		2005-2006	0	1
	106 314 0-G2	2012-2013	2	1
		2015-2016	6	1
		2012	6	2
	166 317 0-G1	2014	6	2
166 217 0		2016	0	2
100 31 / 0		2012	0	2
	166 317 0-G2	2014	0	2
		2016	4	2

^a-<u>gG</u>enotyping wirth19 SSRs specific to leaf rust (see Table 3)

Genotype ^a	Number of isolates	Cultivar tested	Series
		Aubusson	3+4
	5	Premio	3+4
100 214 0 01		Michigan Amber	3+4
106 314 0-GI		Sankara	5
	1	Expert	5
		Bermude	5
		Aubusson	3+4
	11	Premio	3+4
100 214 0 02		Michigan Amber	3+4
106 314 0-G2		Sankara	5
	2	Expert	5
		Bermude	5

Table 2. Experimental design, with the allocation of isolates to series 3, 4 and 5, for assessments of the aggressiveness of pathotype 106 314 0. Isolates were collected in 2012-2013, from Aubusson, Premio or Apache.

^a<u>gG</u>enotyping with 19 SSRs specific to leaf rust (see Table 3)

		166 3	817 0 ^a			106 314	4 0 ^a				
	166 31	7 0- G1	166 31	7 0-G2	106 31	4 0-G1	106 31	106 314 0-G2			
Locus	Allele 1	Allele 2	Allele 1	Allele 2	Allele 1	Allele 2	Allele 1	Allele 2			
RB8	143	146	146	152	143	143	143	152			
RB11	200	200	200	200	200	204	175	204			
RB12	282	290	282	290	282	290	282	290			
RB17	190	190	190	190	190	190	190	190			
RB25	230	230	230	230	230	230	230	230			
RB26	352	352	352	352	352	352	352	352			
PtSSR13	129	131	129	131	129	131	129	131			
PtSSR50	365	371	365	371	365	371	365	371			
PtSSR55	308	308	308	308	308	308	308	308			
PtSSR61	296	302	296	302	296	300	296	300			
PtSSR68	309	311	309	311	309	317	309	323			
PtSSR91	380	382	380	382	382	382	382	382			
PtSSR92	246	246	246	246	246	246	246	248			
PtSSR152	389	393	389	393	389	393	389	393			
PtSSR154	247	267	247	267	247	267	247	267			
PtSSR158	235	238	235	238	232	238	232	238			
PtSSR164	219	219	219	219	219	225	219	219			
PtSSR173	213	221	213	221	213	221	213	221			
PtSSR186	341	341	341	341	341	341	341	341			

Table 3. Genotypic characteristics of the two main genotypes, G1 and G2, identified for isolates of pathotypes 166 317 0 and 106 314 0, collected from 2005-2016 for 19 SSR loci. Allele sizes differing between genotypes of the same pathotype are shown in bold typeface.

^a Seven-digit triplet code (Gilmour, 1973) based on a 20-*Lr* gene differential set: Thatcher lines [*Lr1*, *Lr2a*, *Lr2b*], [*Lr2c*, *Lr3*, *Lr3bg*], [*Lr3ka*, *Lr10*, *Lr13*], [*Lr14a*, *Lr15*, *Lr16*], [*Lr17*, *Lr20*, *Lr23*], [*Lr26*, *Lr17b* (the Australian cv. 'Harrier'), *Lr37*] and [*Lr24*, , *Lr28* (*line* CS2A/2M)].

Table 4. Comparison of the aggressiveness of the two major genotypes of pathotype 106 314 0 on five of the mostly widely grown cultivars in the French landscape during the 2005-2016 period. Letters indicate a significant difference between genotypes on the same cultivar after a Tukey multiple-comparison test or a Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test. Numbers in bold typeface indicate a significant difference between isolates within genotypes.

		Aggressiveness components							
Cultivar	Genotype	Infection efficiency ^z	Latency period ^z	Sporulation capacity ^z					
Aubuccon	106 314 0-G1	48.5*	141.0 a	0.105					
Aubusson	106 314 0-G2	49.8*	137.3 b	0.106					
Promio	106 314 0-G1	52.6*	134.5 a	0.102					
Freinio	106 314 0-G2	49.8*	132.4 b	0.105					
Pormudo	106 314 0-G1	43.9*	143.4	0.114*					
Bernuue	106 314 0-G2	47.0*	142.1	0.121*					
Export	106 314 0-G1	39.1 a	143.0 a	0.120*					
Lxpert	106 314 0-G2	48.7 b	138.2 b	0.132*					
Sankara	106 314 0-G1	45.0*	143.9 a*	0.134*					
Salikala	106 314 0-G2	46.9*	140.7 b*	0.134*					
Michigan Amber	106 314 0-G1	51.6*	131.7 a	0.099					
wiichigan Amber	106 314 0-G2	52.2*	129.3 b	0.102					

^z Infection efficiency (IE) was measured as a %, latency period (LP) in degree-days, and sporulation capacity (SP) in mg of spores/uredinia.

* indicates a significant interaction between genotype and replication factors.

FIGURES



Figure 1. Overview of the purification, selection, pathotyping, and genotyping steps for the *P. triticina* isolates for which aggressiveness components were evaluated.



Figure 2. Experimental steps for the assessment of aggressiveness components of *Puccinia triticina* on wheat seedlings. Inoculation: (A) and (B), collection of a spore with a human eyelash and its deposition on a leaf. Latency period (C): (C1) onset of chlorosis, (C2) counting of the uredinia_(pustules) that have broken through the leaf, (C3) end of the latency period, when all the <u>urediniapustules</u> have emerged. Sporulation: (D) incurved aluminum gutters positioned under the leaves for spore collection, (E) end of sporulation, (F) spores retrieved with a cyclone collector into a sealed portion of plastic straw.



Figure 3. Frequency dynamics of two of the major *Puccinia triticina* pathotypes, 106 314 0 and 166 317 0, in the French landscape during the 2006-2020 period. Pathotype frequency was determined with data from the national survey, which returned 1025 isolates identified as 106 314 0 and 538 isolates identified as 166 317 0 among a total of 3446 pathotyped isolates -(seedata available in Fontyn *et al.*, 2022).



Figure 4. Changes in genotype frequencies within pathotype 106 314 0 in the French landscape during the 2006-2016 period, as determined with 19 SSR markers. The numbers on top of the bars are the numbers of isolates genotyped (286 in total).



Figure 5. Changes in genotype frequencies within pathotype 166 317 0 in the French landscape during the 2013-2016 period, as determined with 19 SSR markers. Numbers on top of the bars represent the numbers of isolates genotyped (115 in total).



Figure 6. Comparison of genotype aggressiveness within the two major *Puccinia triticina* pathotypes. Infection efficiency (IE) as a %, latency period (LP) in degree-days and sporulation capacity (SP) in mg for pathotypes 166 317 0 (A, B, C) and 106 314 0 (D, E, F) were assessed on cultivars Apache and Michigan (pooled data, see Figures S1 and S2 for results by cultivar). Isolates were sampled from Apache in 2012, 2014, and 2016 for pathotype 166 317 0, and in 2005-2006, 2012-2013 and 2015-2016 for pathotype 106 314 0. Within a box plot, the black diamond represents the mean value and the bar indicates the median value. Letters indicate significant differences between genotypes in Kruskal-Wallis tests (A, C, E, F) or ANOVA (B and D).

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Table S1. Number of isolates identified as pathotype 106 314 0 collected on 14 of the most frequently grown bread wheat cultivars during the 2006-2016 period and genotyped with 19 SSRs (see Table 3).

							Year	of sam	pling					
Cultivar	Registration year	Postulated resistance genes ^a	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	Total
Charger	1997	Lr10, Lr13	4											4
Tremie	1992	Lr10, Lr13	5											5
Sankara	2004	Lr10, Lr13, Lr37	4	5	3	5								17
Aubusson	2002	Lr10, Lr13, Lr37	5	5	3	5	3	5	5					31
Apache	1998	Lr13, Lr37	9	10	9	10	8	10	10	9	10			85
Orvantis	2000	Lr10, Lr13, Lr37		5										5
Soissons	1988	Lr14a		5	4	5								14
Mendel	2004	Lr13			3									3
Premio	2007	Lr14a, Lr37 Lr10. Lr13. Lr14a.				5	4	5						14
Bermude	2007	Lr37					4	5	5	5		7		26
Arezzo	2008	Lr10, Lr14a, Lr37					4	5	5	5	5	8	1	33
Expert	2008	Lr1, Lr13							5	4	5		3	17
Pakito	2011	Lr13, Lr37								5	5	7		17
Solehio	2009	Lr14a, Lr37									5	7	3	15
Number of	isolates		27	30	22	30	23	30	30	28	30	29	7	286

^a Lr genes were postulated by performing multipathotype tests with standard isolates with known virulence genes (Fontyn *et al.*, 2022)

	Year of Sampling						
Cultivar	Registration year	Postulated resistance genes ^a	2013	2014	2015	2016	Total
Altigo	2007	Lr3, Lr13, Lr37	8				8
Bermude	2007	Lr10, Lr13, Lr14a, Lr37	5		5		10
Arezzo	2008	Lr10, Lr14a, Lr37	7	9	5	10	31
Pakito	2011	Lr13, Lr37	5	4	5		14
Solehio	2009	Lr14a, Lr37	5	5		5	15
Cellule	2011	Lr3		8	10	9	27
Apache	1998	Lr13, Lr37			5		5
Fructidor	2014	Lr13, Lr14a				5	5
Number of		30	26	30	29	115	

Table S2. Number of isolates identified as pathotype 166 317 0 collected on eight of the most frequently grown bread wheat cultivars during the 2013-2016 period and genotyped with 19 SSRs (see Table 3).

^a *Lr* genes were postulated by performing multipathotype tests with standard isolates <u>genes</u>-with known <u>virulences</u> (Fontyn *et al.*, 2022)

Table S3. Experimental design for assessments of the aggressiveness of the two main genotypes (G1 and G2) of each of the two major pathotypes (106 314 0 and 166 317 0) of *Puccinia triticina* collected in France during 2005-2016: distribution of the isolates over five experimental series, cultivar from which the isolate was collected, and cultivars on which the aggressiveness of the isolate was assessed.

Isolate	Pathotype	Genotype	Series	Cultivar sampled	Cultivars tested
BT12M202	166 317 0	166 317 0-G1	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT12M378	166 317 0	166 317 0-G1	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT12M109	166 317 0	166 317 0-G1	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT12M391	166 317 0	166 317 0-G1	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT12M192	166 317 0	166 317 0-G1	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT12M321	166 317 0	166 317 0-G1	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT14M018	166 317 0	166 317 0-G1	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT14M066	166 317 0	166 317 0-G1	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT14M149	166 317 0	166 317 0-G1	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT14M254	166 317 0	166 317 0-G1	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT14M344	166 317 0	166 317 0-G1	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT14M392	166 317 0	166 317 0-G1	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT16M219	166 317 0	166 317 0-G2	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT16M164	166 317 0	166 317 0-G2	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT16M246	166 317 0	166 317 0-G2	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT16M174	166 317 0	166 317 0-G2	2	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT05M021	106 314 0	106 314 0-G1	1	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT05M241	106 314 0	106 314 0-G1	1	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT05M067	106 314 0	106 314 0-G1	1	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT06M138	106 314 0	106 314 0-G1	1	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT06M195	106 314 0	106 314 0-G1	1	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber

BT06M101	106 314 0	106 314 0-G1	1	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT15M292	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	1	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT15M011	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	1	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT16V048	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	1	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT15M121	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	1	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT15M309	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	1	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT15M035	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	1	Apache	Apache, Michigan Amber
BT12M380	106 314 0	106 314 0-G1	3	Aubusson	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber
BT12M355	106 314 0	106 314 0-G1	3	Premio	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber
BT12M137	106 314 0	106 314 0-G1	3	Premio	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber
BT13V142	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	3	Aubusson	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber
BT13M108	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	3	Aubusson	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber
BT13V026	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	3	Aubusson	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber
BT13M168	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	3	Aubusson	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber
BT12M281	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	3	Aubusson	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber
BT12M302	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	3	Premio	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber
BT12M379	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	3	Premio	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber
BT12M284	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	3	Premio	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber
BT12M119	106 314 0	106 314 0-G1	1+4	Apache	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber, Apache
BT12M033	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	1+4	Apache	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber, Apache
BT13V137	106 314 0	106 314 0-G1	1+4+5	Apache	Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber, Sankara, Expert, Bermude, Apache Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber, Sankara, Expert, Bermude
BT13V189	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	1+4+5	Apache	Aubusson, Fremio, Michigan Amber, Sankara, Expert, Bermude, Aubusson, Premio, Michigan Amber, Sankara, Expert, Bermude,
BT12M326	106 314 0	106 314 0-G2	1+4+5	Apache	Apache

	SSR ID	Fluorescence label	Forward primer	Reverse primer	Chromosome position	Allele size range	Repeat size	Reference
	RB8	Vic	CGCCGTTCCCATCGTTC	TAAAACACTCCACCCACGCC	17A/17B	143-155	3	Duan et al., 2003
	PtSSR173	Vic	CTCAGCGACCTCAAAGAACC	GAGACGACGGATGTCAACAA	2A/2B	213-223	2	Szabo & Kolmer, 2007
	PtSSR186	Vic	GCCACGAGAAATACATAGAAATAAAA	GGTTGTTGATGGGCTTGAGT	10A/10B	338-353	3	Szabo & Kolmer, 2007
1 X	RB11	Pet	AGCAGTGAGCAGCAGCGTC	ACTACTGTGAGTGTCGGCTTGG	-	175-206	2	Duan et al., 2003
ltiple	PtSSR158	6Fam	GACGACTTCGTCACTGCTGA	GAGGAGAAGCCGTTCTGTTG	3A/3B	226-238	3	Szabo & Kolmer, 2007
Mu	PtSSR68	Pet	GACTCAGCCCACTGCTAACC	GATGGCGACGTATTTGGTCT	9A/9B	309-341	2	Szabo & Kolmer, 2007
	PtSSR50	6Fam	CATCGGAATGGTCTGTCTCC	CCAAATGCTATGAGTGGAAAA	12A/12B	365-373	2	Szabo & Kolmer, 2007
	PtSSR164	Ned	GTGGAAGTGAGCGGAAGAAG	GGAGATGGGCAGATGAGGTA	10A/10B	219-233	2	Szabo & Kolmer, 2007
	PtSSR61	Ned	CGAACTGGTACAACGCACTG	CGCAAAAAGGCTGATCTCTG	17A/17B	296-302	2	Szabo & Kolmer, 2007
	RB17	Vic	CTTCGGTAGGATTTCGAGCG	CAGCTCCAAATCCTTTGCC	14A/14B	190-193	3	Duan et al., 2003
	PtSSR92	Pet	CCAAGGAACAGTCCACCAAG	GAGTCGGGTAAGCCATCTGA	1A/1B	246-258	2	Szabo & Kolmer, 2007
	RB12	Vic	CCACAAGCAACCACATACCACC	TGGTCCATGAAGAAGTCTCTGAAC	16A/16B	282-290	2	Duan et al., 2003
2	RB26	Vic	TCGTCCTGCCTACCTCTGAC	AAAGTGCATGATCTGCATGTG	16A/16B	349-352	3	Duan et al., 2003
plex	PtSSR91	Ned	ATCTTGCGTCTCAGCCATCT	CGCCGCTCTTCATCTCTTAC	1A/1B	380-384	2	Szabo & Kolmer, 2007
lulti	PtSSR13	6Fam	CGAATTCGCGTTTTATGTCC	TGATCCAATCGAACCTAGCC	2A/2B	129-131	2	Szabo & Kolmer, 2007
2	RB25	6Fam	ATGTCTGTAGTCGGCAGGGC	GCCTCTGCGGGATCGGT	4A/4B	228-230	2	Duan et al., 2003
	PtSSR55	6Fam	AGCTTACGGTCCTCAATCG	AGTGAAAGGGGCTGGGAGT	18A/18B	308-310	2	Szabo & Kolmer, 2007
	PtSSR152	6Fam	CTCCGTTCCTCTTTCTGTCG	CCATCGCAACCAACAAACA	18A/18B	389-393	2	Szabo & Kolmer, 2007
	PtSSR154	Ned	ACGGTCAACAGCCAACTACC	CCTCGTCATCCTGGTTGAGT	16A/16B	247-276	3	Szabo & Kolmer, 2007

Table S4. Allocation of 19 SSR markers to two multiplexes, for genotyping *Puccinia triticina* isolates.

Table S5. ANOVA *p*-values for series 1 and 2 testing whether the two genotypes (106 314 0-G1 and 106 314 0-G2 ; 166 317 0-G1 and 166 317 0-G2) within each *P. triticina* pathotype (106 314 0 and 166 317 0) differ in the aggressiveness components infection efficiency (IE), latency period (LP), and sporulation capacity (SP), on pooled data from cutivars Apache and Michigan.

-	_	_	Source of variation							
<u>Series</u>	<u>Pathotype</u>	<u>Component¹</u>	Repetition	<u>df</u>	<u>Genotype</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>Cultivar</u>	<u>df</u>	Isolate/Genotype	<u>df</u>
		<u>IE</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.9</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>15</u>
<u>1</u>	<u>106 314 0</u>	<u>LP</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.7</u>	<u>1</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.2</u>	<u>15</u>
		<u>SP</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.05</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.03</u>	<u>1</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>15</u>
		<u>IE</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.0001</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.0002</u>	<u>1</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>14</u>
<u>2</u>	<u>166 317 0</u>	<u>LP</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.0003</u>	<u>1</u>	<0.0001	<u>1</u>	<u>0.01</u>	<u>14</u>
		<u>SP</u>	<u>0.003</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.01</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.004</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.0002</u>	<u>14</u>

¹ An underlined component means that the data did not follow a normal distribution required for the ANOVA, however a non-parametric test (Kruskal-Wallis) gave the same results.

Table S6. ANOVA *p*-values for series 3, 4 and 5 testing whether the two genotypes 106 314 0-G1 and 106 314 0-G2 differ in the aggressiveness components infection efficiency (IE), latency period (LP), and sporulation capacity (SP), as assessed on Michigan and on five of the most widely grown cultivars in France during the 2005-2016 period.

_		_	-	Source of variation					
	<u>Series</u>	<u>Tested cultivar</u>	<u>Component¹</u>	Repetition	df	Genotype ²	<u>df</u>	Isolate/Genotype	df
	<u>3+4</u>	<u>Aubusson</u>	<u>IE</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.8</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.1</u>	<u>14</u>
			<u>LP</u>	<u>0.001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>1</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>14</u>
			<u>SP</u>	<u>0.03</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.9</u>	<u>1</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>14</u>
	<u>3+4</u>	<u>Premio</u>	<u>IE</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.09</u>	<u>14</u>
			<u>LP</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.0006</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.001</u>	<u>14</u>
			<u>SP</u>	<u>0.002</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.8</u>	<u>1</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>14</u>
	<u>3+4</u>	<u>Michigan</u>	<u>IE</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.6</u>	<u>14</u>
			<u>LP</u>	<u>0.008</u>	<u>2</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.2</u>	<u>14</u>
			<u>SP</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>14</u>
	<u>5</u>	<u>Bermude</u>	<u>IE</u>	<u>0.0005</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.5</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.2</u>	<u>1</u>
			<u>LP</u>	<u>0.1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.4</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
			<u>SP</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.4</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.1</u>	<u>1</u>
	<u>5</u>	<u>Expert</u>	<u>IE</u>	<u>0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.02</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.6</u>	<u>1</u>
			<u>LP</u>	<u>0.12</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.003</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.03</u>	<u>1</u>
			<u>SP</u>	<u>0.01</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.7</u>	<u>1</u>
	<u>5</u>	<u>Sankara</u>	<u>IE</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.7</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.1</u>	<u>1</u>
			<u>LP</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.002</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.2</u>	<u>1</u>
			<u>SP</u>	<u><0.0001</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.9</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.3</u>	<u>1</u>

¹An underlined component means that the data did not follow a normal distribution required for the ANOVA, however a non-parametric test (Kruskal-Wallis) gave the same results.

²*p*-values in **bold** indicate a significant interaction effect between the repetition factor and the component.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES



Figure S1. (A) Infection efficiency (IE) as a %, (B) latency period (LP) in degree-days and (C) sporulation capacity (SP) in mg of spores/uredinia for the two *Puccinia tricitina* genotypes 166 317 0-G1 and 166 317 0-G2 assessed on cultivars Apache and Michigan. Isolates were sampled from cv. Apache in 2012, 2014 and 2016. Within a box plot, the black diamond represents the mean value and the bar indicates the median. Letters indicate significant difference between genotypes, in Kruskal-Wallis tests (C) or ANOVA (A and B).



Figure S2. Infection efficiency as a %, latency period in degree-days and sporulation capacity in mg of spores/uredinia for *Puccinia tricitina* genotypes of pathotype 106 314 0 measured on cultivars Apache and Michigan. Isolates were sampled from cv Apache, in 2005-2006, 2012-2013 and 2015-2016. Within a box plot, the black diamond represents the mean value and the bar represents the median value. Letters indicate significant differences between genotypes in Kruskal-Wallis tests (B and C) or ANOVA (A).