RESEARCH ARTICLE

∂ OPEN ACCESS

Taylor & Francis

Check for updates

Genetic Diversity of *Epicoccum nigrum* and its Effects on *Fusarium* graminearum

Taiying Li, Jihyeon Im and Jungkwan Lee

Department of Applied Biology, Dong-A University, Busan, Korea

ABSTRACT

Epicoccum nigrum is a saprophytic or endophytic fungus that is found worldwide. Because of the antagonist effects of *E. nigrum* on many plant pathogens, current studies on *E. nigrum* have focused on the development of biological control agents and the utilization of its various metabolites. In this study, *E. nigrum* was collected from a wheat field, and its genetic diversity was analyzed. Phylogenetic analyses identified 63 isolates of *E. nigrum* divided into seven groups, indicating a wide genetic diversity. Isolates antagonized the wheat pathogen *Fusarium graminearum*, and reduced disease symptoms caused by *F. graminearum* in wheat coleoptiles. Moreover, pretreatment of wheat coleoptiles with *E. nigrum* induced the upregulation of pathogen-related (PR) genes, PR1, PR2, PR3, PR5, PR9, and PR10 in wheat coleoptiles responding to *F. graminearum* invasion. Overall, this study indicates that *E. nigrum* isolates can be used as biological pathogen inhibitors applied in wheat fields.

1. Introduction

Epicoccum nigrum is a saprophytic and endophytic ascomycete fungus that is found worldwide and exerts antagonistic effects on various plant pathogens (i.e., *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*, *Pythium irregulare*, and *Monilinia* spp.) [1–4]. Because of the antagonist effects of *E. nigrum*, the development of biological control agents from *E. nigrum* and the utilization of various metabolites generated by *E. nigrum* is well underway [5,6]. Similar to other prevalent fungal genera, *E. nigrum* is usually isolated from the inner tissues of several plants (i.e., sugarcane, peach, and wheat) [6–8].

Fusarium graminearum (teleomorph Gibberella zeae) also has a high frequency of wheat colonization [9,10]. It is a pathogen that causes Fusarium head blight (FHB) in wheat and results in serious damage to crop production worldwide [11,12]. Cereals with FHB are usually contaminated with mycotoxins, such as zearalenone and trichothecenes that result in mycotoxicosis in humans [13,14]. Previous *in vitro* studies have shown that endophytic *E. nigrum* can inhibit the growth and myco-toxin production of *F. graminearum* [2,15,16]. However, there is still insufficient on researches whether *E. nigrum* effectively prevents *F. graminearum* infection in host plants, as well as on the diversity of *E. nigrum* populations. Received 6 September 2022 Revised 31 October 2022 Accepted 12 November 2022

KEYWORDS

Antagonism; *Epiccocum nigrum; Fusarium graminearum*; genetic diversity

Many studies have shown that endophytic fungi have plant growth promoting (PGP) traits that can improve plant growth and production. Fusarium petersiae and Penicillium chrysogenum isolated from Cheilanthes vellea produce high levels of indole-3acetic acid (IAA) and siderophore that promote wheat growth [17]. Pestalotiopsis microspore is derived from important medicinal plants and induces pathogen resistance in tomato plants while also improving fruit weight [18]. Epiccocum nigrum is also considered to have PGP properties and the treatment of E. nigrum can improve the emergence rate of sorghum seeds, increase shoot and root length, and increase the weight of sorghum [19]. However, interactions between E. nigrum and host plants are not well studied. Genetic diversity is also not well studied and there is no clear standard for its classification [1]. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the morphological, genetic, and biological characteristics of E. nigrum to investigate its genetic diversity and species classification.

The objectives of this study were to analyze the genetic diversity of *E. nigrum* in a Korean wheat field and to identify wheat isolates that carry antagonistic activity against *F. graminearum*. More specifically, we tested the PGP effects of *E. nigrum* to determine whether it has the possibility of being epiphytic or endogenous as well as whether it can

ARTICLE HISTORY

CONTACT Jungkwan Lee 🖂 jungle@dau.ac.kr

Supplemental data for this article is available online at https://doi.org/10.1080/12298093.2022.2148394.

^{© 2022} The Author(s). Published by Informa UK Limited, trading as Taylor & Francis Group on behalf of the Korean Society of Mycology.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/), which permits unrestricted non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

affect plant growth. This study showed the antagonist effects of *E. nigrum* against *F. graminearum* in wheat plants and the influence of *E. nigrum* on wheat immunity.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Isolation of fungal isolates from a wheat field

Pentachloronitrobenzene (PCNB) medium [13] was used to collect *E. nigrum* from a wheat field at Dong-A Research Farm in Gimhae, Korea (35.29°N, 127.75°E) as previously described [20]. Plates with PCNB medium were placed at both wheat height and ground level for 30 min. The plates were then incubated at 25 °C for 2 days, and fungal isolates with the colony morphology of *E. nigrum* were transferred to a complete medium (CM). Sample collection was carried out in both 2019 and 2020. The isolates used in this experiment were stored in 20% glycerol at -80 °C.

2.2. Identification of fungal isolates

Previously described primers for highly conserved fungal rRNA genes (i.e., ITS1 and ITS4) were used to amplify fungal DNA [21,22]. Amplified PCR products were confirmed using electrophoresis and were sequenced at Macrogen (Seoul, Korea). After manually checking the obtained sequences and correcting any errors, the nucleotide sequences were assembled using the SeqMan (DNASTAR, Madison, WI, USA) program. Finally, a basic local alignment searching tool (i.e., BLASTN) was used to identify assembled nucleotide sequences at the National

Table 1. Primers used in this study.

Primer name	Sequence $(5' \rightarrow 3')$	
For identification [23,24]		
ITS1	TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG	
ITS4	TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC	
EF_F	GCYCCYGGHCAYCGTGAYTTYAT	
EF_R	ATGACACCRACRGCRACRGTYTG	
LSU_F	ACCCGCTGAACTTAAGC	
LSU_R	CGCCAGTTCTGCTTACC	
SSU_F	GTAGTCATATGCTTGTCTC	
SSU_R	CTTCCGTCAATTCCTTTAAG	
For qRT-PCR [25]		
β-actin_F	AAATCTGGCATCACACTTTCTAC	
β-actin_R	GTCTCAAACATAATCTGGGTCATC	
PR1_F	CTGGAGCACGAAGCTGCAG	
PR1_R	CGAGTGCTGGAGCTTGCAGT	
PR2_F	CTCGACATCGGTAACGACCAG	
PR2_R	GCGGCGATGTACTTGATGTTC	
PR3_F	AGAGATAAGCAAGGCCACGTC	
PR3_R	GGTTGCTCACCAGGTCCTTC	
PR5_F	ACAGCTACGCCAAGGACGAC	
PR5_R	CGCGTCCTAATCTAAGGGCAG	
PR9_F	GAGATTCCACAGATGCAAACGAG	
PR9_R	GGAGGCCCTTGTTTCTGAATG	
PR10_F	TTAAACCAGCACGAGAAACATCAG	
PR10_R	ATCCTCCCTCGATTATTCTCACG	

Center for Biotechnology Information. Primers used in this study are listed in Table 1.

2.3. Observation of colony and conidia morphology

The mycelial growth of fungal isolates was measured on potato dextrose agar (PDA) after cultivation for 7 days at 25 °C in the dark. For conidia production, each isolate was inoculated onto CM agar and was incubated under near-ultraviolet light (i.e., 20 W and 50 lux) for 7 days at 25 °C. Mycelia were subsequently gathered using 10 ml of distilled water (DW) and were filtered using sterilized gauze. Conidia were then observed using an Olympus BX50 microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

2.4. Phylogenetic analyses

Phylogenetic analyses of E. nigrum isolates were performed using an internal transcribed spacer (ITS), the large (LSU) and small subunit (SSU) of rDNA, and translation elongation factor 1 alpha (EF α) [23]. Fusarium graminearum and Petrakia echinata (GenBank Accession No. KR047057.1 and MN310550.1) were used as outgroup taxa. Sequences of the ITS, LSU, SSU, and EFa regions, as well as concatenated sequences, were aligned using the MEGA X software; a phylogram was generated using MEGA X, based on the maximum likelihood (ML) method. Support for branches was evaluated using 1000 bootstrap values [26,27].

2.5. Detached leaf assay

Wheat seeds were soaked in 70% ethanol for 1 min soaked in 5% sodium hypochlorite for 3 min and were washed twice with DW. Sterilized wheat seeds were germinated at 25 °C for 1 day, and were transferred to the growth chamber with 25 °C, 60% moisture, and 12h each of light and darkness. After 14-day cultivation, wheat leaves were cut to $\sim 8 \text{ cm}$, and the front of the leaves was placed on a 1% agar medium containing 0.5 mM benzimidazole [28]. A 1 mm incision was made at the center of the wheat leaf, and a 5 mm mycelium fragment was placed in the cut. The wheat leaves were then placed in the growth chamber and mycelium fragments were removed after 3 days. Finally, the Fiji (http://fiji.sc/) program was used to measure the lesion area of wheat leaves after an additional 3-day incubation. Fusarium graminearum and Fusarium oxysporum were used as positive and negative controls, respectively.

2.6. Determination of the in vitro antagonistic effects of E. nigrum against F. graminearum

The antagonistic effects of *E. nigrum* isolate on *F. graminearum* were tested on CM agar. Isolates were inoculated in the center of CM agar and were cultured for 4 days at $25 \,^{\circ}$ C. *Fusarium graminearum* was then inoculated at the edge of CM agar and was cultured at $25 \,^{\circ}$ C. Mycelial growth of *F. graminearum* was measured at 7 days.

2.7. Antagonistic effects of E. nigrum against F. graminearum *in wheat*

Each isolate was inoculated into wheat coleoptiles and seeds [29,30]. For coleoptile inoculation, sterilized wheat seeds were cultivated at 25 °C for 1 day. Germinated wheat seeds were then transferred to the growth chamber at 25 °C for 12 h each of light and darkness. After 24 h, 1 mm of the tops of wheat coleoptiles was cut off, and 1 µl of the conidia suspensions (1×10^6 conidia/ml in 0.01% Tween-20) of each isolate was inoculated. After an additional 1 day of incubation, 1 mm from the top of the treated coleoptile was removed and reinoculated with 1 µl of the *F. graminearum* conidia suspension (1×10^6 conidia/ml in 0.01% Tween-20). Coleoptiles were then cultured in the growth chamber for 7 days.

For *F. graminearum* inoculation on wheat seeds, 5 g of sterilized wheat seeds were immersed in *E. nigrum* conidia suspension $(1 \times 10^6$ conidia/ml in 0.01% Tween-20) and shaken using a rocking shaker at 50 rpm for 24 h in room temperature. Wheat seeds were placed in the growth chamber for 2 days

at 25 °C under 12 h each of light and darkness. The top 1 mm of wheat coleoptiles were then removed and 1 μ l of *F. graminearum* conidia suspension (1 × 10⁶ conidia/ml in 0.01% Tween-20) was inoculated. Coleoptiles were then placed in the growth chamber for 7 days and disease lesions on the stems were measured.

2.8. Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR)

To validate differently expressed genes related to pathogen-related (PR) proteins, qRT-PCR was performed. The top 1 mm of 2-day-old wheat coleoptiles were cut off, inoculated with 1 µl of E. nigrum conidia suspension $(1 \times 10^6$ conidia/ml in 0.01% Tween-20), and then cultured in a growth chamber for 48 h. Coleoptiles were subsequently harvested at 0, 4, 8, 12, 24, and 48 h after inoculation and were ground under liquid nitrogen. Total RNA was extracted from each sample using the Easy-spin Total RNA Extraction Kit (iNtRON Biotechnology, Seongnam, Korea), in accordance with manufacturer's protocol. cDNA was generated using ReverTra Ace[®] qPCR RT Kit (Toyobo, Osaka, Japan) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Synthesized cDNA was diluted to 100 ng/µl, of which 2 µl was used for qRT-PCR. Relative transcription levels were normalized using an internal reference gene, β -actin [31]. In addition, 1 µl of the F. graminearum conidia suspension $(1 \times 10^6$ conidia/ml in 0.01% Tween-20) was inoculated into wheat coleoptiles 24 h after E. nigrum was inoculated.



Figure 1. Colonial and conidial morphology of *Epicoccum nigrum* isolates. (A) Isolates were cultivated on PDA for 7 days at 25 °C; (B) Isolates were incubated on CM under near UV (20 W and 50 lux) for 7 days at 25 °C. Scale bar = $10 \,\mu$ m.



Figure 2. Phylogenetic analysis of *Epicoccum nigrum* isolates. The phylogenetic tree was inferred using concatenated ITS, LSU, SSU, and $EF\alpha$ sequences of 63 isolates. Sequences were aligned using Clustal W in MEGA X, which was used to perform 1000 bootstrap phylogenetic analyses using maximum likelihood.

2.9. Production of IAA

Potato dextrose broth (PDB), supplemented with 5 mM L-tryptophan, was used to test the IAA production of each isolate [32]. Inoculated flasks were

0.020

incubated at 200 rpm for 5 days at 25 °C. After incubation, 1 ml of the culture medium was centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 10 min; 100 μ l of the supernatant was combined with 200 μ l of Salkowski's reagent

(i.e., 1 ml of 0.5 M FeCl₃ and 49 ml of 35% perchloric acid) and incubated for 20 min at room temperature. IAA production was determined using a spectrophotometer at 530 nm. *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* [33] and *F. graminearum* were used as controls.

3. Results

3.1. Identification of fungal isolates

A total of 63 strains were identified as *E. nigrum*. The isolates had white or yellow-brown colonies on PDA, and 31 of them showed yellow or dark pigments on PDA (Figure 1(A)). *Epiccocum nigrum* generally produces dark brown spherical conidia, which are difficult to induce under normal culture conditions [1,34]. In CM and under near-UV, 52 of the 63 isolates produced conidia successfully, whereas 11 isolates did not produce conidia at all (Figure 1(B)).

3.2. Phylogenetic analyses

Phylogenetic analyses were performed on the ITS, LSU, SSU, and $EF\alpha$ regions with a length of 528, 969, 1004, and 858 bp, respectively, as well as the outgroup sequences with the same length as each region. Although most strains of isolates were divided into a similar pattern, there were certain differences among analyses of four different rDNA regions (Figures S1–S4). To compromise these differences, we conducted an additional combined phylogenetic analysis, and finally, the isolates were divided into seven groups (Figure 2).

3.3. Antagonist effects of E. nigrum isolates on F. graminearum

Before confirming the antagonist effects of *E. nigrum*, we first confirmed the virulence of *E. nigrum* isolates in wheat, which showed that isolates did not cause disease in wheat (Figure 3). In the dual culture of *E. nigrum* and *F. graminearum*, the isolates



Figure 3. Pathogenicity of *Epicoccum nigrum* isolates on wheat leaves. Mycelia plugs of each strain were placed on the middle of wheat leaves and were cultivated for 3 days at 25 °C. The plugs were then removed and wheat leaves were cultivated for another 3 days. Lesion areas were measured using the Fiji program. The error bar represents a standard deviation from five replicates. Fg, *Fusarium graminearum*; Fo, *F. oxysporum*.



Figure 4. Antagonistic activity of *Epicoccum nigrum* isolates against *Fusarium graminearum*. Each isolate was inoculated in the center of the CM and was cultured for 4 days at 25 °C. *Fusarium graminearum* was then inoculated at the edge of the CM and cultured for another 7 days.

showed antagonism to *F. graminearum*, excluding certain strains (i.e., A20, A25, A26, A28, A34, A35, S17, S19, S21, S25, and S30) (Figure 4). When wheat was treated with isolates, the lengths of lesions were significantly shorter than those in the control that was not treated with *E. nigrum*. Strains A33, A39, and S11 showed the strongest inhibition in the experiment (Figure 5).

3.4. Effects of E. nigrum on PR gene expression

We inoculated the coleoptiles with isolates of A33 and A39 that showed high antagonistic effects on *F. graminearum* in the coleoptile test and inoculated with *F. graminearum* after 24 h to confirm the differential expression of PR genes in wheat coleoptiles. Results of the qRT-PCR showed that PR genes in wheat coleoptiles inoculated with only *E. nigrum* were not differentially transcribed with the control group that was not inoculated with *E. nigrum*. However, the transcription of PR genes in coleoptiles treated with *E. nigrum* was upregulated 24 h after *F*. *graminearum* inoculation, as compared to the control groups without *E. nigrum* inoculation (Figure 6).

3.5. IAA production of isolates

All 63 isolates produced IAA (Figure 7) and most produced 21-41 mg/l IAA. None of those produced more IAA than *C. gloeosporioides* and *F. graminea-rum* also produced higher IAA than most *E. nigrum* isolates tested in this study (Table 2).

4. Discussion

Epicoccum nigrum is distributed in different types of soils and host plants. Although *E. nigrum* has been described as a weak plant pathogen in a range of plants, the species is considered a saprophytic fungus and can exhibit an endophytic lifestyle [7,35]. *Epiccocum nigrum* has also been used as a biocontrol agent against certain pathogens in peaches, nectarines, sunflowers, and other plants [36–39].



Figure 5. Disease control activity of Epicoccum nigrum isolates against Fusarium graminearum in wheat coleoptiles. (A) Tops of the 2-day-old wheat coleoptiles (i.e., 1 mm) were cut off and conidia suspensions of each isolate was injected. Coleoptiles were cultured in the growth chamber at 25 °C for 24 h, after which the tops of coleoptiles were removed again and the conidia suspension of F. graminearum was inoculated. Lesion length was measured 24 h after F. graminearum inoculation; (B) Surface sterilized wheat seeds were immersed in conidia suspensions of each isolate and were shaken using a rocking shaker for 24 h. Wheat seeds were then transferred into the growth chamber and were cultured for 2 days. The top 1 mm of wheat coleoptiles were removed and the conidia suspension of F. graminearum was inoculated. Lesion length was measured 24 h after F. graminearum inoculation. Error bar represents standard error and statistical analyses were performed via t-test.

Although *E. nigrum* was only collected at a single location in this study, the isolates showed diverse morphological differences and were divided into multiple groups. The isolates belonging to groups 2–7 showed similar mycelial growth and conidial morphology and isolates belonging to group 1 showed diverse morphological characteristics, which might indicate that group 1 can be further divided into more groups; these results suggest that *E. nigrum* has high genetic diversity.

Previous studies on E. nigrum primarily focused on its biological control properties. This fungus produces antimicrobial agents such as 2-methyl-3-nonyl prodiginine and Bis (2-ethylhexyl) phthalate against Bacillus subtilis, Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli, and Candida albicans [40]. Additionally, E. nigrum isolated from maize can inhibit the mycelial growth of F. graminearum, and also reduce the yield of trichothecenes and zearalenone produced by F. graminearum in maize [16]. Similarly, most E. nigrum isolates collected during this study showed antagonistic effects against F. graminearum (Figure 4). Moreover, the pretreatment of wheat seeds with isolated strains resulted in the inhibition of disease progression by F. graminearum (Figure 5).

Plants resist pathogen infection through a series of defense mechanisms, such as pattern-triggered immunity and effector-triggered immunity [41,42]. Effector-triggered immunity is caused by effector proteins that are secreted by pathogenic fungi and these effector proteins are key components of fungal virulence in plants [43,44]. The efficiency of PR proteins in plant-fungal pathogen interactions has been widely recognized and there is a growing list of



Figure 6. Effect of *Epicoccum nigrum* isolates on wheat PR gene expression. Tops of the 2-day-old wheat coleoptiles were cut off and the conidia suspensions of *E. nigrum* A33 (A) and *E. nigrum* A39 (B) were injected into them. Coleoptiles were then cultured at 25 °C in the growth chamber for 24 h. The tops of the coleoptiles were removed again and the conidia suspension of *Fusarium graminearum* was inoculated. Coleoptile were then cultured at 25 °C for another 24 h. The red arrow represents the injection time point of the isolate and the black arrow represents the inoculation time point of *F. graminearum*. Gene expression levels were normalized to β -actin gene expression.



Figure 7. IAA production of *Epicoccum nigrum* isolates. Each isolate was inoculated in PDB supplied with 5 mM L-tryptophan and was cultivated for 5 days at 25 °C. Following this, 1 ml of each culture medium was used to determine the production of IAA using a spectrophotometer at 530 mm. Error bar represents the standard deviation from three replicates. Fg, *Fusarium graminearum*; Cq, *C. gloeosporioides*.

Table 2. IAA production of isolates.

IAA production (mg/l)	Isolate code	No. of E. nigrum isolates
1–11	A18, T15, A12	3
11–21	T1, S2, A20, S11, S26, S21, S5, S14, S13, S1, T4, A22, B11, A9, B5, T2, A26, A27, A25, S18, B4, T3, S25, T5, B6, A29, A34, B8, S19, T11, A32, S30	32
21–31	A33, T13, A24, S20, T12, S12, S31, S17, A15, A38, B1, B7, T10, T14, A30	15
31–41	A28, T6, T8, A21, B3, T9, T7, A35	8
41–51	F. graminearum, A36, A39, B10, B9, B2	5
>51	C. gloeosporioides	0

pathogen-effector proteins that directly interact with PR proteins during infection [45,46]. The expression levels of PR genes were also verified in this study. Consistent with the result that *E. nigrum* isolates had no pathogenicity toward wheat leaves (Figure 3), *E. nigrum* treatment to wheat coleoptiles did not trigger the transcription of PR genes (Figure 6). However, pretreatment of *E. nigrum* to wheat coleoptiles resulted in faster transcription of PR genes responding to *F. graminearum* inoculation (Figure 6), suggesting that endogenous *E. nigrum* may interact with host plants and induce upregulation of PR gene expression to protect against *F. graminearum* (Figure 5(B)).

In conclusion, this study suggests that *E. nigrum* collected from wheat fields has high genetic diversity. All isolates showed *F. graminearum* inhibition in the medium, and isolates (i.e., A33, A39, and S11) showed strong *F. graminearum* inhibition in the host plants. This study also showed that pretreatment of *E. nigrum* could induce the upregulation of PR gene expression in host plants responding to *F. graminearum* infection. Similar to the results of previous studies [19], the isolates in this study were also found to produce IAA that exerted positive promoting effects on plant growth (Figure 7). This study not only reveals the genetic

diversity of *E. nigrum* in a wheat field but also provides a new strategy for protecting wheat from *F. graminearum* infection. Future studies should focus on determining the mechanisms by which endogenous *E. nigrum* induces the upregulation of PR gene expression in host plants.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

Funding

This work was supported by Basic Science Research Program through the National Research Foundation of Korea funded by the Ministry of Education [2020R1A2C2013617, 2020R1A6A1A03047729] and the Green Fusion Technology Program funded by the Ministry of Environment, Republic of Korea.

References

- [1] Favaro LCL, Melo FL, Aguilar-Vildoso CI, et al. Polyphasic analysis of intraspecific diversity in *Epicoccum nigrum* warrants reclassification into separate species. PLOS One. 2011;6(8):e14828.
- [2] Taguiam JD, Evallo E, Balendres MA. *Epicoccum* species: ubiquitous plant pathogens and effective

biological control agents. Eur J Plant Pathol. 2021; 159(4):713-725.

- [3] Zhou T, Reeleder RD. Application of *Epicoccum purpurascens* spores to control white mold of snap bean. Plant Dis. 1989;73(8):639–642.
- [4] Koutb M, Ali EH. Potential of *Epicoccum purpur-ascens* strain 5615 AUMC as a biocontrol agent of *Pythium irregulare* root rot in three leguminous plants. Mycobiology. 2010;38(4):286–294.
- [5] Braga RM, Padilla G, Araujo WL. The biotechnological potential of *Epicoccum* spp.: diversity of secondary metabolites. Crit Rev Microbiol. 2018; 44(6):759–778.
- [6] Fávaro LCL, Sebastianes FLS, Araújo WL. Epicoccum nigrum P16, a sugarcane endophyte, produces antifungal compounds and induces root growth. PLOS One. 2012;7(6):e36826.
- [7] Arnold AE. Understanding the diversity of foliar endophytic fungi: progress, challenges, and frontiers. Fungal Biol Rev. 2007;21(2-3):51-66.
- [8] Perello A, Simon MR, Arambarri AM. Interactions between foliar pathogens and the saprophytic microflora of the wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) phylloplane. J Phytopathol. 2002;150(4–5):232–243.
- [9] Larran S, Perello A, Simon MR, et al. The endophytic fungi from wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.). World J Microbiol Biotechnol. 2007;23(4):565–572.
- [10] Boedi S, Berger H, Sieber C, et al. Comparison of *Fusarium graminearum* transcriptomes on living or dead wheat differentiates substrate-responsive and defense-responsive genes. Front Microbiol. 2016;7:1113.
- [11] Yang F, Jacobsen S, Jorgensen HJ, et al. *Fusarium graminearum* and its interactions with cereal heads: studies in the proteomics era. Front Plant Sci. 2013;4:37.
- [12] Khanal R, Choo TM, Xue AG, et al. Response of barley genotypes to Fusarium head blight under natural infection and artificial inoculation conditions. Plant Pathol J. 2021;37(5):455–464.
- [13] Leslie JF, Summerell BA, Bullock S. The Fusarium laboratory manual. Ames (IA): Blackwell Publising; 2006.
- [14] Yang J-W, Kim J-Y, Lee M-R, et al. Identification and chemotype profiling of Fusarium head blight disease in triticale. Res Plant Dis. 2021;27(4): 172–179.
- [15] Jensen BD, Knorr K, Nicolaisen M. In vitro competition between *Fusarium graminearum* and *Epicoccum nigrum* on media and wheat grains. Eur J Plant Pathol. 2016;146(3):657–670.
- [16] Abdallah MF, De Boevre M, Landschoot S, et al. Fungal endophytes control *Fusarium graminearum* and reduce trichothecenes and zearalenone in maize. Toxins. 2018;10(12):493.
- [17] Mohamed AH, Abd El-Megeed FH, Hassanein NM, et al. Native rhizospheric and endophytic fungi as sustainable sources of plant growth promoting traits to improve wheat growth under low nitrogen input. J Fungi. 2022;8(2):94.
- [18] Sujatha HS, Murali M, Amruthesh KN. Fungal endophytes as growth promoters and inducers of resistance in tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum* Mill.) against *Alternaria solani*. Int J Life Sci Pharma Res. 2021;11:227–235.
- [19] Rajini SB, Nandhini M, Udayashankar AC, et al. Diversity, plant growth-promoting traits, and

biocontrol potential of fungal endophytes of *Sorghum bicolor*. Plant Pathol. 2020;69(4):642-654.

- [20] Larena I, Melgarejo P. Development of a new strategy for monitoring *Epicoccum nigrum* 282, a biological control agent used against brown rot caused by *Monilinia* spp. in peaches. Postharvest Biol Tec. 2009;54(2):63–71.
- [21] Sulaiman IM, Jacobs E, Simpson S. Application of ribosomal internal transcribed spacer 1, internal transcribed spacer 2, and large-subunit D1–D2 regions as the genetic markers to identify fungi isolated from different environmental samples: a molecular surveillance study of public health importance. J AOAC Int. 2020;103(3):843–850.
- [22] Mwamula AO, Kim Y, Kim YH, et al. Molecular characterization of *Filenchus cylindricus* (Thorne & Malek, 1968) Niblack & Bernard, 1985 (Tylenchida: Tylenchidae) from Korea, with comments on its morphology. Plant Pathol J. 2022; 38(4):323–333.
- [23] Raja HA, Miller AN, Pearce CJ, et al. Fungal identification using molecular tools: a primer for the natural products research community. J Nat Prod. 2017;80(3):756–770.
- [24] Zhang S, Zhang YJ, Liu XZ, et al. On the reliability of DNA sequences of *Ophiocordyceps sinensis* in public databases. J Ind Microbiol Biotechnol. 2013;40(3-4):365-378.
- [25] Desmond OJ, Edgar CI, Manners JM, et al. Methyl jasmonate induced gene expression in wheat delays symptom development by the crown rot pathogen *Fusarium pseudograminearum*. Physiol Mol Plant Pathol. 2005;67(3-5):171-179.
- [26] Tamura K, Nei M. Estimation of the number of nucleotide substitutions in the control region of mitochondrial DNA in humans and chimpanzees. Mol Biol Evol. 1993;10(3):512–526.
- [27] Kumar S, Stecher G, Li M, et al. MEGA X: molecular evolutionary genetics analysis across computing platforms. Mol Biol Evol. 2018;35(6): 1547–1549.
- [28] Perochon A, Doohan FM. Assessment of wheat resistance to *Fusarium graminearum* by automated image analysis of detached leaves assay. Bioprotocol. 2016;6:e2065-e2065.
- [29] Jia LJ, Wang WQ, Tang WH. Wheat coleoptile inoculation by *Fusarium graminearum* for largescale phenotypic analysis. Bio Protoc. 2017;7(15): e2439.
- [30] Shin S, Kim KH, Kang CS, et al. A simple method for the assessment of Fusarium head blight resistance in Korean wheat seedlings inoculated with *Fusarium graminearum*. Plant Pathol J. 2014;30(1): 25–32.
- [31] Paudel B, Zhuang Y, Galla A, et al. WFhb1-1 plays an important role in resistance against Fusarium head blight in wheat. Sci Rep. 2020;10(1):7794.
- [32] Hoffman MT, Gunatilaka MK, Wijeratne K, et al. Endohyphal bacterium enhances production of indole-3-acetic acid by a foliar fungal endophyte. PLOS One. 2013;8(9):e73132.
- [33] Maor R, Haskin S, Levi-Kedmi H, et al. In planta production of indole-3-acetic acid by *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* f. sp. aeschynomene. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2004;70(3):1852–1854.
- [34] Larena I, De Cal A, Melgarejo P. Solid substrate production of *Epicoccum nigrum* conidia for

biological control of brown rot on stone fruits. Int J Food Microbiol. 2004;94(2):161–167.

- [35] Schulz B, Boyle C. The endophytic continuum. Mycol Res. 2005;109(6):661–686.
- [36] De Cal A, Larena I, Linan M, et al. Population dynamics of *Epicoccum nigrum*, a biocontrol agent against brown rot in stone fruit. J Appl Microbiol. 2009;106(2):592–605.
- [37] Larena I, Torres R, De Cal A, et al. Biological control of postharvest brown rot (*Monilinia* spp.) of peaches by field applications of *Epicoccum nigrum*. Biol Control. 2005;32(2):305–310.
- [38] Mari M, Torres R, Casalini L, et al. Control of post-harvest brown rot on nectarine by *Epicoccum nigrum* and physico-chemical treatments. J Sci Food Agric. 2007;87(7):1271–1277.
- [39] Pieckenstain FL, Bazzalo ME, Roberts AMI, et al. *Epicoccum purpurascens* for biocontrol of *Sclerotinia* head rot of sunflower. Mycol Res. 2001; 105(1):77–84.
- [40] Perveen I, Raza MA, Iqbal T, et al. Isolation of anticancer and antimicrobial metabolites from

Epicoccum nigrum; endophyte of *Ferula sumbul*. Microb Pathog. 2017;110:214–224.

- [41] Roux F, Voisin D, Badet T, et al. Resistance to phytopathogens e tutti quanti: placing plant quantitative disease resistance on the map. Mol Plant Pathol. 2014;15(5):427–432.
- [42] Jones JD, Dangl JL. The plant immune system. Nature. 2006;444(7117):323-329.
- [43] Dangl JL, Jones JD. Plant pathogens and integrated defence responses to infection. Nature. 2001; 411(6839):826-833.
- [44] Sonah H, Zhang X, Deshmukh RK, et al. Comparative transcriptomic analysis of virulence factors in *Leptosphaeria maculans* during compatible and incompatible interactions with canola. Front Plant Sci. 2016;7:1784.
- [45] Breen S, Williams SJ, Outram M, et al. Emerging insights into the functions of pathogenesis-related protein 1. Trends Plant Sci. 2017;22(10):871–879.
- [46] Ali S, Ganai BA, Kamili AN, et al. Pathogenesisrelated proteins and peptides as promising tools for engineering plants with multiple stress tolerance. Microbiol Res. 2018;212:29–37.