1 Sources of genomic diversity in the self-fertile plant pathogen,

2 Sclerotinia sclerotiorum, and consequences for resistance breeding

- 3 Short title: Sclerotinia genomic and pathogenic diversity
- 4
- 5 Lone Buchwaldt, Harsh Garg^{¶1}, Krishna D. Puri^{¶2}, Jonathan Durkin, Jennifer Adam, Myrtle
- 6 Harrington, Debora Liabeuf³, Alan Davies, Dwayne D. Hegedus, Andrew G. Sharpe⁴, Krishna
- 7 Kishore Gali⁵
- 8
- 9 These authors contributed equally to the manuscript
- 10
- 11 Corresponding author:
- 12 Email: Lone.Buchwaldt@Canada.ca
- 13

14 Affiliations

- LB, HG, JD, JA, MH, AD, DDH: Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, Saskatoon Research and
- 16 Development Centre, 107 Science Place, Saskatoon, Canada, S7N 0X2.
- ¹⁷ ¹Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, Saskatoon Research and Development Centre, 107
- 18 Science Place, Saskatoon, Canada, S7N 0X2.
- ¹ HG: School of Life and Environmental Sciences, the University of Sydney, NSW, Australia.
- 20 Email: gharsh81@gmail.com
- ²KP: Department of Plant Pathology, University of California, Davis, CA, USA. Email:
- 22 kdpuri@ucdavis.edu.
- ³ DL: Driscoll's, Watsonville, California, USA. Email: Debora.liabeuf@gmail.com
- ⁴ AGS: Global Institute for Food Security, University of Saskatchewan, 110 Gymnasium Place,
- 25 Saskatoon, SK, Canada, S7N 0W9. Email: Andrew.Sharpe@gifs.ca.

⁵ KKG: Crop Development Centre, Department of Plant Sciences, University of Saskatchewan,
 SK, Canada, S7N 5A8. Email: Kishore.Gali@usask.ca.

28

29 Abstract

The ascomycete, Sclerotinia sclerotiorum, has a broad host range and causes yield loss in 30 dicotyledonous crops world wide. Genomic diversity and aggressiveness were determined in a 31 32 population of 127 isolates from individual canola (Brassica napus) fields in western Canada. 33 Genotyping with 39 simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers revealed each isolate was an 34 unique haplotype. Analysis of molecular variation showed 97% was due to isolate and 3% to 35 geographical location. Testing of mycelium compatibility identified clones of mutually compatible isolates, and stings of pairwise compatible isolates not seen before. Importantly, mutually 36 37 compatible isolates had similar SSR haplotype, in contrast to high diversity among incompatible 38 isolates. Isolates from the Province of Manitoba had higher allelic richness and higher mycelium compatibility (61%) than Alberta (35%) and Saskatchewan (39%). All compatible Manitoba 39 40 isolates were interconnected in clones and strings, which can be explained by wetter growing 41 seasons and more susceptible crops species both favouring more mycelium interaction and life 42 cycles. Analysis of linkage disequilibrium rejected random recombination, consistent with a selffertile fungus and restricted outcrossing due to mycelium incompatibility, and only one meiosis 43 per lifecycle. More probable sources of genomic diversity is slippage during DNA replication and 44 45 point mutation affecting single nucleotides, not withstanding the high mutation rate of SSRs 46 compared to genes. It seems accumulation of these polymorphisms lead to increasing mycelium 47 incompatibility in a population over time. A phylogenetic tree grouped isolates into 17 sub-48 populations. Aggressiveness was tested by inoculating one isolate from each sub-population onto *B. napus* lines with quantitative resistance. Results were significant for isolate, line, and 49 50 isolate by line interaction. These isolates represent the genomic and pathogenic diversity in

51 western Canada, and are suitable for resistance screening in canola breeding programs. Since

52 the *S. sclerotiorum* life cycle is universal, conclusions on sources of genomic diversity

53 extrapolates to populations in other geographical areas and host crops.

54

55 Author summary

Sclerotinia sclerotiorum populations from various plant species and geographical areas have 56 57 been studied extensively using mycelium compatibility tests and genotyping with a shared set of 58 6-13 SSR markers published in 2001. Most conclude the pathogen is clonally propagated with 59 some degree of outcrossing. In the present study, a population of S. sclerotiorum isolates from 1.5 million km² area in western Canada were tested for mycelium compatibility, and genotyped 60 with 9 published and 30 newly developed SSR markers targeting all chromosomes in the 61 62 dikaryot genome (8+8). A new way of visualizing mycelium compatibility results revealed clones 63 of mutual compatible isolates, as well as long and short strings of pairwise compatible isolates. Importantly, clonal isolates had similar SSR haplotype, while incompatible isolates were highly 64 dissimilar; a relationship difficult to discern previously. Analysis of population structure found a 65 66 lack of linkage disequilibrium ruling out random recombination. Outcrossing, a result of 67 alignment of non-sister chromosomes during meiosis, is unlikely in S. sclerotiorum, since mycelium incompatibility prevents karyogamy, and compatibility only occur between isolates 68 69 with similar genomic composition. Instead, genomic diversity comprise transfer of nuclei through 70 hyphal anastomosis, allelic modifications during cell division and point mutation. Genomic 71 polymorphisms accumulate over time likely result in gradual divergence of individuals, which 72 seems to resemble the 'ring-species' concept. We are currently studying whether nuclei in 73 microconidia might also contribute to diversity. A phylogenetic analysis grouped isolates into 17 74 sub-populations. One isolate from each sub-population showed different level of aggressiveness 75 when inoculated onto B. napus lines previously determined to have quantitative resistance to a

single isolate. Seed of these lines and *S. sclerotiorum* isolates have been transferred to plant

⁷⁷ breeders, and can be requested from the corresponding author for breeding purposes.

78 Quantitative resistance is likely to hold up over time, since the rate of genomic change is

79 relatively slow in *S. sclerotiorum*.

80

81 Keywords

82 Sclerotinia sclerotiorum, Brassica napus, canola, mycelium compatibility, clones, SSR markers,

83 population structure, outcrossing, aggressiveness, quantitative resistance.

84

85 Introduction

86 The ascomycete plant pathogen, Sclerotinia sclerotiorum, survives in the soil for several years 87 as sclerotia (resting bodies) consisting of condensed hyphae surrounded by a melanised rind. In 88 the spring, sclerotia in the top soil layer germinated with apothecia containing ascospores that are dispersed by wind to surrounding plants. Ascospores are unable to penetrate the plant 89 90 epidermis directly. Instead, they germinate with hyphae that colonize dead organic material and 91 form infection cushions [1]. These provide energy for production of virulence factors, which enable the pathogen to penetrated the plant epidermis. The fungal hyphae colonize plants 92 93 without forming secondary spores, thus, the pathogen only has a single spore generation per 94 cropping season.

95

96 *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* is a dikaryot with two nuclei in cells of actively growing hyphal tips and 97 in each ascospore resulting from one meiotic and one mitotic cell division. In addition, a single 98 nucleus is found in microconidia, but their role in the lifecycle has not been determined. Hyphal 99 tips from two different isolates can unite in anastomosis as first demonstrated by Kohn et al. [2]. 100 Later, Ford et al. [3] observed transfer of nuclei between anastomosed hyphae using

101 auxotrophic mutants to validate the formation of new dikaryons with restored nutrient 102 requirements. Paring of two S. sclerotiorum isolates on nutrient agar can distinguish between 103 mycelium compatible isolates that grow as one colony, and isolates that are incompatible 104 growing as two colonies separated by a line of sparse mycelium. All isolates are self-compatible 105 when paired with itself. Test of mycelium compatibility can be applied to an entire population 106 using a isolate by isolate paring matrix. Populations studies comprising S. sclerotiorum isolates 107 from various plant species and geographical areas have used a combination of mycelium 108 compatibility test, genotyping with molecular markers, and tests for aggressiveness on selected 109 host lines. A set of simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers was published in 2001 [4], and has 110 been widely used to genotype S. sclerotiorum isolates. Different levels aggressiveness among isolates inoculated onto various host species have been demonstrated [5, 6, 7]. A summary of 111 results from numerous studies were reviewed by Petrofeza et al. [8]. Most studies agree S. 112 113 sclerotiorum is clonally propagated with some level of outcrossing. Whether there is a 114 relationship between isolates belonging to the same mycelium compatible group and their SSR haplotype has been difficult to discern. 115

116

117 The pathogen has a wide host range among dicotyledonous plant species including canola 118 (Brassica napus), bean (Phaselous vulgaris), soybean (Glycine max), lentil (Lens culinaris) and sunflower (Helianthus annus) [9]. Each year around eight million hectares are planted to canola 119 in the Canadian provinces of Alberta (AB), Saskatchewan (SK) and Manitoba (MB). A high 120 121 earning potential for canola seed has led to shortening of crop rotations, which in turn has 122 resulted in higher disease pressure from S. sclerotiorum that causes stem rot also know as 123 white mould. Infection of canola occur during flowering when the spores grow on fallen petals 124 and pollen adhering to plant surfaces. The most severe yield loss results from colonisation of 125 the main stem which restricts vascular transport of water and nutrients to the seed. Stem

symptoms consists of long, pale lesions that initially have a dark margin between infected andhealthy tissues. Later, the lesions expand leading to soft and collapsed stems.

128

Resistance to S. sclerotiorum in B. napus as well as other crop species is a quantitative trait that 129 130 rely on several defense genes and pathways with cumulative effect [7, 10]. Previously, we identified *B. napus* lines with quantitative resistance after screening of more than 400 131 germplasm lines obtained from gene banks worldwide [11]. The phenotyping method involved 132 133 attaching mycelium plugs of a pathogen isolate to the main stem of flowering plants, thereby 134 resembling the natural infection process described above. Germplasm lines were ranked from 135 resistant to susceptible based on lesion length and percent soft and collapsed stems. 136 Heterogeneity in the disease phenotype was eliminated in a sub-set of lines by repeated cycles of inoculation, selection of resistant plants, selfing and re-testing, and resulted in high level of 137 quantitative resistance in four lines, PAK54 and PAK93 originating from Pakistan, DC21 from 138 139 South Korea and K22 from Japan. The lines were phenotyped for disease reaction using a single S. sclerotiorum isolate, 321, collected in 1992 from a canola field in Olds, Alberta [12]. 140 141 142 The present research seeks to characterize the genomic and pathogenic diversity in a S. sclerotiorum population from commercial canola fields throughout a large production area of 143 western Canada measuring approximately 1500 kilometers from East to West and 1000 144 145 kilometers from North to South. The results have direct application for development of resistant 146 canola varieties, by providing selected isolates that represent the diversity needed for screening 147 of breeding lines. Importantly, the study identifies mechanisms leading to this diversity, and 148 assesses the rate of change in *S. sclerotiorum* populations applicable across geographical 149 areas and host species.

150

151 **Results**

152 Disease incidence and isolate collection

- A survey of 168 commercial canola fields in 2010 for the incidence of *S. sclerotiorum* showed
- the pathogen was present in 88% (Fig 1). In Manitoba, the pathogen was found in all fields with
- 155 13% of fields having between 6 and 30% disease incidence (Table 1). In Saskatchewan, 49% of
- 156 fields had no or traces of the disease on side branches and pods, while only 4% of fields had
- 157 incidences between 6 to 30. In Alberta, all fields had only up to 5% disease incidence. Where
- possible four isolations were made from 10 plants per field. The total collection consisted of
- 159 1392 individual *S. sclerotiorum* isolates kept as sclerotia in long-term storage under cold and dry
- 160 conditions.

161

Table 1. Incidence of *S. sclerotiorum* in commercial canola (*B. napus*) fields in three Canadianprovinces.

Disease incidence	Alberta	Saskatchewan	Manitoba
0	0	19	0
Trace	6	19	0
1%	15	24	25
2-5%	10	12	27
6-10%	0	2	2
11-20%	0	0	3
21-30%	0	1	3
Total number of fields	31	77	60

164

165

167 Mycelium compatibility relationships

168 A total of 133 S. sclerotiorum isolates from individual canola fields, as well as 36 isolates from a 169 single heavily infected field in Saskatchewan, were tested for mycelium compatibility on PDA 170 media in a replicated test for a total of 7734 isolate parings. Each isolate paired with itself in all 171 cases by forming a single colony, thus confirming they were self-compatible. Isolates that were compatible with at least one other isolate within the same province comprised 61% in Manitoba, 172 173 39% in Alberta and 35% in Saskatchewan. For comparison, 41% were compatible within a single Saskatchewan field, while only 11% of isolates from different provinces were compatible 174 (S1 Table). 175

176

177 Diagrams were created to visualize the relationship among compatible isolates in each isolate x isolate paring matrix by province, inter-province and in a single field as shown in Figs 2 and 3 178 179 (S1 Table). Circles specify groups of mutually compatible isolates belonging to the same clone, while arrows specify compatibility between pairs of isolates. Some isolates formed short and 180 181 long strings where neighbouring isolates were compatible, but other isolates along the string 182 were incompatible. Interestingly, all compatible isolates from Manitoba were closely related 183 either as members of clones (A, B and C) or strings (Fig 2). Some of the longest strings consisted of 10 isolates, such as MB27-MB26-MB51-MB22-MB24-MB49-MB30-MB6-MB38-184 185 MB19. Compatible isolates in Saskatchewan were not as closely related forming only one clone 186 and six pairs of compatible isolates, but no strings (Fig 3). It is striking that mycelium compatibility among isolates from 18 different canola fields in Saskatchewan closely resembled 187 188 compatibility of 15 isolates from a single field in the same province, both having a single clone 189 and five or six pairs of compatible isolates (Fig 3). Isolates in Alberta were not closely related, 190 since neither clones nor strings were identified. When isolates from different provinces were 191 paired, only the older isolate, 321, collected in 1992 from Alberta, was compatible with MB29 192 from Manitoba.

193

194 Simple sequence repeat polymorphisms

195 The sequenced S. sclerotiorum genome [13] was used to design 37 primer pairs for amplification of simple sequence repeats (SSR), so that 15 chromosomes and one contig were 196 197 represented (labelled AAFC). Another 15 SSR were selected from the literature, (labelled ssr) [4]. A subset of 39 SSR (30 AAFC and 9 ssr) provided high quality amplification products, and 198 199 were used to genotype 127 S. sclerotiorum isolates collected in individual fields (Table 2). The 200 resulting scoring matrix consisted of 396 polymorphic alleles. Each SSR primer pair amplified 201 between 2 and 35 alleles, of which 75% were shared by two or more isolates, while the 202 remaining 25% were private alleles present in only one isolate. The values for polymorphic 203 information content (PIC) and genomic diversity (H) for each SSR marker were highly correlated (r = 0.99) and ranged from 0.126 to 0.949 and 0.136 to 0.959, respectively (Table 2). The PIC 204 205 value was above 0.5 for 81% (26) of the AAFC markers. The following markers on 12 206 chromosomes were particularly informative since they each amplified a highly polymorphic locus 207 shared by many isolates: AAFC-2d on chromosome 1, AAFC-22c on chromosome 2, AAFC-3c on chromosome 4, AAFC-7b on chromosome 5, AAFC-9b on chromosome 6, AAFC-6f on 208 209 chromosome 7, AAFC-11a on chromosome 9, AAFC-20b on chromosome 11, AAFC-33d on 210 chromosome 12, AAFC-12a on chromosome 13, AAFC-25d on chromosome 14, AAFC-15e on 211 chromosome 15, and AAFC-4d on contig R.

212

Table 2. Information on simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers used for genotyping of *S. sclerotiorum* isolates organized by chromosome. Markers with AAFC-prefix were developed in
this study, while markers with ssr-prefix were published by [4].

216

Chr	Primer	Repeat motif	Fragme nt size, bp**	Total alleles	Shared alleles	Private alleles	PIC	Genomic diversity <i>H</i>
1	AAFC-2d*	(GAAAG)15	344-451	18	12	6	0.838	0.860
	AAFC-2b	(AG)21	262-315	12	10	2	0.790	0.817
2	AAFC-5e*	(TACA)10	249-265	5	5	0	0.648	0.706
	AAFC-22a	(CTT)16	387-411	5	4	1	0.652	0.709
	AAFC-22c	(TCTTCA)26	209-494	35	20	15	0.923	0.936
	AAFC-22e	(ACCT)21	285-385	5	3	2	0.389	0.460
	AAFC-22f	(GT)18	181-192	4	4	0	0.637	0.700
	AAFC-23b	(TTG)9(GTG)6	378-387	4	4	0	0.457	0.549
3	AAFC-24c	(AG)9(GT)8	366-373	3	3	0	0.243	0.268
	AAFC-24e	(AAAAGC)23	238-479	14	3	11	0.254	0.259
	ssr 5-2	(GT)8	335-338	2	2	0	0.126	0.136
	ssr 20-3	(GT)7GG(GT)5	295-297	2	2	0	0.266	0.319
	ssr 9-2	(CA)9(CT)9	376-381	3	3	0	0.272	0.304
4	AAFC-3c*	(AGAT)14	286-310	6	6	0	0.647	0.690
	ssr 7-2	(GA)14	187-191	3	3	0	0.407	0.493
	ssr 17-3	(TTA)9	357-381	5	4	1	0.446	0.500
	ssr 114-4	(AGAT)14(AAGC)4	369-393	6	6	0	0.649	0.692
5	AAFC-7b*	(ACATA)6(TATT)9	352-449	10	4	6	0.526	0.607
	ssr 12-2	(CA)9	233-240	3	3	0	0.559	0.636
		[(GT)2GAT]3(GT)14						
	ssr 5-3	GAT(GT)5[GAT(GT	312-355	5	5	0	0.631	0.690
)4]3(GAT)3						
	ssr 7-3	GT10	225-231	3	3	0	0.559	0.636
6	AAFC-9b*	(AATGAA)25	261-409	24	19	5	0.935	0.946
	AAFC-9d	(GATATT)13	319-470	17	15	2	0.737	0.757

	AAFC-21a	(GGTAGT)8	403-427	5	4	1	0.599	0.669
	AAFC-21d	(CAGA)9(CAGG)8	392-423	8	7	1	0.761	0.797
	AAFC-21e	(CAA)13	384-401	3	3	0	0.407	0.456
	ssr 36-4	CA6(CGCA)2CAT2	431-437	2	2	0	0.245	0.289
	ssr 110-4	(TATG)9	384-399	4	3	1	0.536	0.607
7	AAFC-6f*	(TGT)9	306-337	6	5	1	0.672	0.728
9	AAFC-11a*	(CTCCTT)14	282-434	17	12	5	0.823	0.848
	AAFC-27b	(AGTTG)18	328-419	10	7	3	0.721	0.761
	oor 110 4	(GTAT)6 and	286 200	2	2	0	0.206	0.280
	ssr 119-4	(TACA)5	386-390	2	2	0	0.306	0.380
10		(TTTTTC)2(TTTTT	400 504	0	0	0	0.045	0.440
	ssr 6-2	G)2(TTTTTC)	496-504	2	2	0	0.345	0.446
11	AAFC-20b*	(TCT)19	378-543	23	13	10	0.846	0.866
	AAFC-20d	(TG)19	288-307	6	6	0	0.674	0.727
	ssr 8-3	CA12	267-271	3	3	0	0.400	0.481
12	AAFC-33d*	(GTAG)11	226-234	3	3	0	0.591	0.670
13	AAFC-12a*	(GTAT)27	325-428	14	9	5	0.772	0.805
	AAFC-12b	(CATC)18	338-381	6	5	1	0.570	0.629
	AAFC-26b	(TCCATT)23	188-432	27	18	9	0.916	0.929
14	AAFC-25b*	(TTATAT)23	203-274	5	5	0	0.496	0.535
	AAFC-25d	(TACAA)24	341-483	20	14	6	0.815	0.837
	AAFC-25e	(GTAT)20	321-390	11	10	1	0.813	0.840
15	AAFC-15e*	(AAATA)28	342-552	34	25	9	0.949	0.959
R	AAFC-4d*	(ATTAT)34	288-479	30	24	6	0.944	0.955
	AAFC-18a	(AC)13	359-361	2	2	0	0.330	0.421
na	ssr 55-4	TACA10	175-221	9	5	4	0.631	0.685

217

218 * The most informative markers with high PIC value and high number of shared alleles among isolates.

219 ** Fragment sizes include a 18 bp M13 tail sequence.

220

221 Effect of geographic location

When SSR data from S. sclerotiorum isolates were grouped by province, analysis of molecular 222 223 variance (AMOVA) showed 97% of the genomic variation was explained by differences among isolates, while 3% was due to differences among provinces (P = 0.001) (Table 3). Other 224 analysis also showed the effect of geographical location. Isolates in Manitoba had the highest 225 226 allelic richness (6.02) and the highest number of private alleles (1.25) compared to isolates in 227 Saskatchewan and Alberta (Table 4). As expected, the genomic distance (D) between S. 228 sclerotiorum populations was higher between the two distant provinces, Alberta and Manitoba 229 (D = 0.098) (Fig 1), than between neighbouring provinces Saskatchewan and Manitoba (D = 0.098)230 0.017) and Saskatchewan and Alberta (D = 0.05) (Table 5). Congruently, gene flow (Nm) was 231 highest between neighbouring provinces Manitoba and Saskatchewan (Nm = 53.97), followed 232 by Saskatchewan and Alberta, and the lowest gene flow occurred between the two most distant 233 provinces, Alberta and Manitoba. The differentiation index (PhiPT) was not significant between 234 the neighbouring provinces Manitoba and Saskatchewan, but was significantly different between 235 both Saskatchewan and Alberta, as well as between Manitoba and Alberta (Table 5).

236

Table 3. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) based on simple sequence repeat markers in 127 *S. sclerotiorum* isolates from commercial canola fields in three Canadian provinces, Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba (P = 0.001).

240	Province	Allelic richness	Private allelic richness
241	Manitoba	6.02 ± 0.63	1.25 ± 0.22
242	Saskatchewan	5.66 ± 0.62	0.82 ± 0.17
243	Alberta	3.95 ± 0.32	0.85 ± 0.18
244			

2	л	E
2	4	Э

Table 4. Analysis of allelic richness among *S. sclerotiorum* isolates from three Canadian

248 provinces.

249	Source of	Df	Mean	Estimated	% of total
250	variation	וט	squares	variance	variation
251	Provinces	2	35.3	0.5	3
252	Isolates within	400	15.0	45.0	~-
253	Provinces	126	15.3	15.3	97
254					

255

Table 5. Analysis of gene flow (*Nm*), genetic distance (*D*) and population genetic differentiation

257 (*PhiPT*) among *S. sclerotiorum* isolates collected in three Canadian provinces.

258

259	Provinces	N _m	D	PhiPT
260	Manitoba - Saskatchewan	53.97	0.017	0.009 ns
261	Saskatchewan - Alberta	13.42	0.050	0.036**
262	Manitoba - Alberta	7.87	0.098	0.060***
262				

263

264

265 **Test of random recombination**

Analysis of linkage disequilibrium in *S. sclerotiorum* assessed both by province and combined for the three provinces showed the Index of association (I_A) was statistically significant in all cases, thereby rejecting the null hypothesis of random recombination. Also, all standard index of associations (*rBarD*) were much closer to 0 than to 1 specifying non-random association (Table

6). Thus, genomic variation based on SSR polymorphisms is less likely a result of random

recombination in the ascospore stage, but rather through other mechanisms as discussed later.

272

Table 6. Analysis of linkage disequilibrium (*LD*) among *S. sclerotiorum* isolates from three

274 Canadian provinces resulting in an index of association (I_A) and a standardized index of

association (*rBarD*).

276

270	Province	I_A	rBarD
278	Manitoba	3.09**	0.0685
279	Saskatchewan	4.36**	0.0960
280	Alberta	2.78**	0.0621
281	Combined	2.97**	0.0654
282			

283

284 **Population structure**

285 Analysis of S. sclerotiorum population structure showed relatively high Delta K values 286 supporting the existence of either 2, 12, 17 or 20 sub-populations (Fig 4). Existence of two sub-287 populations were highly significant with 63% of isolates in Q1 (25 isolates from AB, 28 from SK. 288 and 28 from MB), 33% in Q2 (2 isolates from AB, 16 from SK, and 23 from MB), and 4% in an 289 admix group (isolates MB18, MB27, MB24, MB35 and SK55) (S1 Table). Evidently, 290 Saskatchewan and Manitoba isolates were almost equally represented in Q1 and Q2, but skewed towards Q1 in Alberta. Additional analysis of genomic distance among isolates 291 292 visualized as a phylogenetic tree resulted in a multitude of possible sub-populations. Based on 293 the results from these two types of analyses, it was decided 17 sub-populations best captured the genomic diversity, since Delta K was lower for 12 sub-populations, while 20 sub-populations 294 295 did not add more clarity. The 17 sub-populations consisted of 1 to 22 isolates marked as 296 alternate red and blue groups in Fig 5. One isolate from each sub-population was selected to

represent the genomic diversity of the *S. sclerotiorum* population in western Canada, and they
were subsequently evaluated for aggressiveness on *B. napus*.

299

300 Isolate aggressiveness

301 The 17 S. sclerotiorum isolates were inoculated onto six B. napus lines separately. Disease progression was measured at weekly intervals as lengthwise colonisation of the stem and depth 302 303 of penetration into the stem tissue measured as soft + collapsed lesions. Lesion length at each 304 of three rating dates and the area under the disease progress curve (AUDPC) were highly correlated. Lengthwise lesion growth also was correlated with depth of penetration (S2 Table). 305 306 Thus for simplicity, only the results from stem lesion length measured 21 days after inoculation 307 are reported here. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was significant for both S. sclerotiorum isolate 308 and B. napus line. The lesion length for each isolate across six B. napus lines showed a 309 continuum from the least aggressive isolate AB7 (17.4 + 3.2 mm) to the most aggressive isolate AB29 (151.3 ± 13.8 mm) (S3 Table). Correspondingly, the lesion length on each *B. napus* line 310 311 across 17 isolates ranged from the highest level of quantitative resistance in PAK54 (48.3 + 3.2 312 mm) to susceptibility in Topas (161.2 + 6.6 mm) (S4 Table). Lines could be divided into four groups based on LSD values with PAK54 most resistant followed by PAK93 and K22, then 313 DC21 and Tanto. Interestingly, isolate by line interaction was significant (Table 7), which was 314 315 particularly evident when stem lesion length for each S. sclerotiorum isolate was graphed for the six *B. napus* lines separately (Fig 6); this graph shows similar ranking of isolates from low to 316 317 high aggressiveness on all *B. napus* lines, except isolate SK35, which was more aggressive on 318 K22 and DC21 than on PAK54 and PAK93 (S5 Table).

319

Table 7. Analysis of variance of six *B. napus* lines, DC21, K22, PAK54, PAK93, Tanto and Topas, inoculation with 17 *S. sclerotiorum* isolates measured as stem lesion length 21 days after inoculation.

323	Source of variation	Df	Mean squares	F-value	P-value
324	<i>B. napus</i> lines	5	107077.1	88.9	0.001
325	S. sclerotiorum isolates	16	25818.1	21.4	0.001
326	Replications	3	3664.8	3.04	0.029
327	Lines x isolates	80	2831.1	2.4	0.001
328					

329

330 **Discussion**

331 Effective genotyping of S. sclerotiorum isolates from canola in a large geographical area 332 combined with a new way of visualizing mycelium compatibility relationships gave us an 333 informative 'snap-shot' of the pathogen population in western Canada. The sequenced S. sclerotiorum genome [13] was utilized to design SSR markers, and flourescent capillary 334 electrophoresis allowed detection of single basepair size differences at 39 SSR loci distributed 335 over the fungal genome. The resulting SSR polymorphisms were used to determine the relative 336 337 contribution of isolates and geographical location to genomic diversity, linkage diseguilibrium, 338 population structure, and phylogenetic relationships among isolates.

339

340 Sclerotinia sclerotiorum has two nuclei in each ascospore and in cells of actively growing hyphal tips [14], while older and less organized mycelium contain myriads of nuclei. The two nuclei 341 342 functions as a dikaryon for most of the pathogen's life cycle, except for a brief phase during 343 meiosis, when the 16 chromosomes condense into eight structures [15], providing an 344 opportunity for genomic recombination. New allele combinations during meiosis are created by 345 alignment of non-homologous chromosomes, followed by crossover events, whereby 346 DNA strands break and re-join resulting in progenies with a genomic combination different from the parents. Since non-homologous recombination involve two genetically different nuclei, it 347

occur at a low frequency in *S. sclerotiorum* for the following reasons; (1) meiosis takes place
only once during the pathogen's life cycle often corresponding to a single cropping season; (2)
since the pathogen is homothallic, having both mating type genes at the same locus, it readily
produce ascospores by self-fertilization, which out-competes other propagation scenarios; and
(3) mycelium incompatibility prevent karyogamy between two different nuclei, while mycelium
compatibility occur between genetically similar isolates.

354

355 Microconidia contain a single nucleus and a few organelles [16], and are found intermittently 356 within mycelium and on the surface of sclerotia. Although the function of microconidia has not 357 been determined, it is conceivably that these nuclei could transfer to hyphal tips during formation of asci, which takes place just below the melanised rind of the sclerotium [17]. In the 358 event that nuclei in microconidia are genetically different from nuclei in the sclerotium, mixing of 359 360 nuclei followed by non-homologous recombination is a slight possibility. Eskin [18] identified a 361 morphological trait in a single S. sclerotiorum isolate having 5% of asci with four small and four larger ascospores. This size dimorphism might result from of mixing of different nuclei affecting 362 363 some asci. However, in the present study, analysis of linkage disequilibrium rejected the 364 hypothesis of random recombination in S. sclerotiorum, leading us to conclude non-homologous 365 recombination is absent or extremely rare in the fungal population in western Canada.

366

Significant discoveries were made using diagrams visualizing the relationship among mycelium compatible isolates. Some *S. sclerotiorum* isolates were connected in strings where 'X' was compatible with 'Y', and 'Y' with 'Z', while 'X' was incompatible with 'Z', which resembled the 'ring-species' concept most often described for bird species (19). Most significantly, the five and six mutually compatible isolates in clone A and D (Figs 2 and 3) had almost identical SSR haplotype, and also belonged to a single sub-population 2 and 4, respectively (Fig 6) demonstrating they were closely related. Clones with fewer isolates, and isolates forming strings

374 and pairs, belonged to several different sub-populations. In contrast, there were no similarity 375 between SSR haplotype among the remaining incompatible isolates, which had numerous 376 private alleles. The most likely sources of genomic diversity in S. sclerotiorum documented in this study consist of slippage during DNA replication and point mutation affecting individual 377 378 nucleotides. Both mechanisms are particularly frequent in simple sequence repeats and 379 accumulate with each mitotic cell division. The dataset seems to have captured isolates at 380 various stages of divergence. Beginning with clonal isolates with similar SSR haplotypes, 381 followed by stepwise divergence into compatible isolates forming strings, pairs of compatible 382 isolates, and ending with incompatible isolates with unique SSR haplotypes. It is conceivable 383 that genetic information passes from one mycelium compatible isolate to another by hyphal 384 anastomosis, but over time, certain genetic factors prevent further compatibility, after which isolates become distinct haplotypes where polymorphisms continue to accumulate. In addition, it 385 386 was clear that physical separation contributed to divergence, seen as low (11%) mycelium 387 compatibility between isolates from different Provinces compared to 35-61% compatibility between isolates within Provinces. 388

389

390 Counts of shared and private alleles demonstrated each S. sclerotiorum isolates was a unique 391 haplotype. This finding seems to contrast most previous publications, where haplotype frequencies were comparatively lower, but can be explained by the use of fewer SSR markers in 392 393 those studies. Like us, these researchers used different sub-sets of markers published by 394 Sirjusingh and Kohn in 2001 [4] to genotype S. sclerotiorum isolates from various plant species and geographic locations such as 6 SSR [20], 8 SSR [6, 21, 22, 23], 10 SSR [24], 11 SSR [25, 395 396 26], 12 SSR [27], and 13 SSR [28]. Understandably, using only 6 to 13 SSR markers limits the 397 number of polymorphic alleles that can be detected, and consequently, pathogen populations 398 are seen to comprise isolates with the same haplotype.

399

400 Although dividing isolates into Provinces seemed artificial at first, interpretation of mycelium 401 compatibility and genomic diversity appeared to fit regional differences regarding crop rotation and weather conditions. Manitoba isolates had the highest allelic richness and private allelic 402 403 richness, and also the highest proportion of mycelium compatible isolates (61%), all of which 404 were related to one another in clones and strings (Fig 2). The fact that a high percentage of 405 arable land in Manitoba is occupied by several susceptible crop species, canola, bean, soybean 406 and sunflower (S6 Figure), compared to a lower percentage only occupied by canola in Alberta, 407 together with higher frequency of wet weather conditions in Manitoba, has resulted in greater 408 number of pathogen life cycles in both time and space, and therefore more opportunities for mycelium interaction among isolates in this province. Crop rotation and weather conditions in 409 Saskatchewan fall between these two opposites. The results from the survey of S. sclerotiorum 410 disease incidence in 2010 confirm these provincial differences (Table 1). The gene flow 411 412 measured between provinces can be explained by planting of sclerotia-contaminated seed 413 originating from other geographical areas, and infection from wind borne ascospores from distant fields both resulting in introduction of new haplotypes. 414

415

Analysis of population structure clearly divided the isolates into two sub-populations with 63% of
isolates in Q1, 33% in Q2 and 4% in an admix group (S7 Table). Analysis of genetic distance
visualized as a phylogenetic tree showed isolates could be further divided into 17 subpopulations. The two types of analysis were mostly in agreement, since the majority of isolates
in each sub-population belonged to either Q1 or Q2 (Fig 5).

421

Genotyping of isolates collected from all canola producing areas of western Canada allowed
selection of a practical number of genetically diverse isolates for subsequent evaluation of
aggressiveness. Isolates ranked from low to high aggressiveness when inoculated onto a set of
five *B. napus* lines with quantitative resistance, PAK54, PAK93, DC21, K22 and Tanto, based

426 on stem symptoms which is the yield liming factor. Moreover, the isolate by line interaction was 427 statistically significant, particularly evident for isolate SK35, which was more aggressive on 428 DC21 or K22 than on PAK54 or PAK93 (Fig 6); interestingly, this isolate also had the most 429 unique SSR haplotype (Fig 5). Similar specialization of S. sclerotiorum on host genotypes has 430 been reported in several crop species including *B. napus* and *B. juncea* [5, 7], soybean [29], 431 bean [30, 23], sunflower [31] and lentil [33]. Isolate MB51, collected in Lilyfield, Manitoba, and 432 AB29, collected in Cayley, Alberta, were among the most aggressive isolates and also 433 represented the two largest sub-populations of 22 and 19 isolates, respectively. These isolates 434 would therefore be suitable for resistance screening during development of varieties destined 435 for production in western Canada. The two *B. napus* lines, PAK54 and PAK93, which were partially resistant to a single isolate in a previous study [11], showed a high level of resistance 436 against all isolates in the present study (Fig 6 and S5 Table). These lines showed quantitative 437 438 resistance when evaluated against Australian isolates [33]. We are currently developing pre-439 breeding lines from PAK54 and PAK93 that combine sclerotinia resistance with good agronomic traits, and appropriate seed characteristics including high oil, low glucosinolate and erucic acid. 440

441

442 It is well known, S. sclerotiorum ascospores are unable to infect intact plant tissue, but first require uptake of nutrients from dead organic material in order to form infection cushions 443 containing hundreds of hyphal tips, which in turn are capable of penetrating the plant's 444 445 epidermis [34]. Badet et al. [35] found S. sclerotiorum has undergone selective pressure toward 446 optimization of a plethora of metabolites making it a generalist able to infect a wide range of 447 dicot plant species, in contrast to specialized plant pathogens, such as Zymoseptoria tritici (causing septoria leaf blotch in wheat), which infects the host directly. Derbyshire et al. [36] 448 449 concluded S. sclerotiorum has undergone a slow rate of evolution based on a low decay of 450 linkage disequilibrium and a lack of selective sweeps in the genome, a process through which a new advantageous trait increases in a population that also can lead to reduced genetic variation 451

452 in surrounding nucleotides. The latter investigation included five isolates, SK35, 321, MB52, 453 MB21 and AB2, also part of the present study. Taken together, S. sclerotiorum is a relative weak and unspecialized pathogen that rely on secondary metabolites in the infection phase. It is 454 therefore unlikely changes in aggressiveness in the pathogen population will overcome 455 456 quantitative resistance in new varieties since the primary source of genomic variation is slippage during DNA replication and point mutation, while the probability of non-homologous 457 recombination is low. Still, it is prudent to evaluate crop varieties against S. sclerotiorum isolates 458 459 that are representative of the genomic and pathogenic diversity in the area where they will be 460 planted.

461

462 Materials and methods

463 Collection of isolates and disease survey

In 2010, commercial canola fields were surveyed for the presence of S. sclerotiorum in all 464 465 important canola producing areas of Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba. A total of 168 fields 466 were selected at random separated by at least 25 kilometers (Fig 1). The longitude and latitude of each location were recorded using a Global Positioning System (TomTom, Netherlands) (S7 467 Table). The incidence of S. sclerotiorum in each field was determined by counting the number of 468 469 plants with typical stem rot lesions in a row of 10 plants at five sites (N = 50) separated by at 470 least 10 meters (Table 1). Fields where only a few plants had lesions on leaves, side-branches or pods were rated as 'trace'. 471

472

Sclerotinia-infected plants were present in 88% (149) of the fields. Isolates were made from 28
fields in Alberta, 53 in Saskatchewan and 55 in Manitoba for a total of 136 fields. In each field,
infected stems were collected at ten sites separated by at least 10 meters for subsequent
isolation of the pathogen. In addition, 200 infected stems were collected in a single field in

477 Saskatchewan with 30% disease incidence. Four isolations were made from each plant, either 478 from sclerotia in the stem pith or from infected stem tissue. The isolates were labelled with the acronym of the province (AB, SK or MB) a field number and the letters a, b, c or d. The sclerotia 479 and stem pieces were surface-sterilized in 0.6% sodium hypochlorite for three minutes, rinsed in 480 481 sterile water and plated on potato dextrose agar (PDA, Difco, Sigma-Aldrich, USA) in 9 cm Petri 482 plates. Cultures were incubated in a cycle of 16 h day (22 +1°C) and 8 h night (18 +1°C), and 483 after three to four days hyphal tips from the edge of a growing colony were transferred to a new 484 PDA plate and incubated as before. Sclerotia that formed along the edge of the Petri plates 485 were collected after four to six weeks and stored in paper envelopes under dark and dry 486 conditions at 4° C with an identical set at -10°C. Examination of mycelium compatibility (MC), genotyping and testing for aggressiveness were conducted with isolates labeled 'a'. 487

488

489 Mycelium compatibility tests

490 Mycelium compatibility in S. sclerotiorum was examined using 133 isolates representing 28 491 fields in Alberta, 51 in Saskatchewan and 54 in Manitoba. Isolate 321 collected in 1992 from a 492 canola field in Olds was part of the Alberta group [12]. In addition, 36 isolates were selected to represent a single, heavily infected field in Saskatchewan. Sclerotia of each isolate were surface 493 sterilized, plated on PDA and incubated in a cycle of 16 h day (22±1°C) and 8 h night (18 ±1°C). 494 495 After 5-7 days, 4 mm plugs were cut from the growing margin of each culture. One mycelium plug of two different isolates were placed 3.5 cm apart in a 9 cm Petri plate on PDA 496 supplemented with 75 µl/L McCormick's red food coloring and incubated in the dark at 22+1°C 497 498 as described by Schafer and Kohn [37]. Each isolate was paired with itself as a control of self-499 compatibility. In the first round, all isolates within each province, and those within the single, 500 heavily infected field, were paired in all possible combinations for a total of $n^{(n-1)/2}$ pairings. 501 where n is the number of isolates in each group. In the second round, mycelial compatibility was 502 examined between provinces by paring 18 isolates against each other representing 3 fields in

503 Alberta, 7 in Saskatchewan and 8 in Manitoba. All pairings in both the first and second rounds 504 were carried out twice. A compatible interaction showed continuous mycelium growth over the 505 entire Petri plate. In contrast, a incompatible interaction showed a barrage zone of sparse 506 mycelium between the two isolates often with a red line in the media, that was particularly 507 evident on the reverse side of the Petri plate. Plates were examined visually after 7 and 14 days 508 and scored as + or - on the day the interaction type was most evident. Initially, the data were 509 entered in a traditional isolate by isolate scoring matrix (S2 Table). Subsequently, diagrams 510 were created to visualize all compatible interactions by province, inter-provinces and in a single 511 field as shown in Fig 2 and 3.

512

513 Genotyping

Simple sequence repeats were identified in the sequenced S. sclerotiorum genome available on 514 515 the Broad Institute's web site [13]. A total of 32 SSRs were selected to represent 15 chromosomes and one contig predicted in this assembly and given the prefix AAFC (Table S8). 516 517 Primer pairs for PCR amplification of these SSRs were designed using WebSat software [38]. In 518 addition, 15 primer pairs for amplification of other S. sclerotiorum SSRs were obtained from 519 Sirjusingh and Kohn [4] and given the prefix ssr (Table S8). Genotyping was carried out with S. 520 sclerotiorum isolates from group 'a' described above. In preparation for extraction of genomic 521 DNA, sclerotia of each isolate was surface sterilized, cut in half and placed on PDA in a 9 cm Petri plate. After 5-7 days incubation at 16 h light (22+1°C) and 8 h dark (18 +1°C) two 4 mm 522 plugs were cut from the growing margin and transferred to potato dextrose broth in a 9 cm Petri 523 524 plate and incubated as before. When mycelium covered 80% of the liquid surface it was 525 harvested, washed twice with sterilized, distilled water and lyophilized. 526

527 Total genomic DNA was extracted from 30 mg ground mycelium using a DNA isolation kit 528 according to the manufacturer's protocol (Norgen Biotek Corp, ON, Canada). DNA was

529 quantified using a Quant-it PicoGreen Assay (Invitrogen, USA) on an Appliskan microplate 530 reader (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) and diluted to 10 ng DNA µl⁻¹. Each PCR reaction was 531 performed in a 8.2 µl total volume containing 2.6 µl @ 10 ng µl⁻¹ fungal DNA template, 0.0625 µM M13 primer fluorescently labeled with one of FAM, VIC, NED, PET or LIZ (Applied Bio-532 533 Systems), 0.67 µM of each of forward (with M13 tail) and reverse primer, and 4.1 µl of FideliTaq PCR master mix (FideliTag 2x, 25 mM MgCl₂, 20 mM dNTPs). PCR run conditions were 534 optimized for BioRad DNA Engine Dyad (BIO-RAD, USA) resulting in the following amplification 535 conditions: 94°C for 3 min, then 22 cycles at 94°C for 30 s, 56°C for 30 s, 72°C for 45 s, 536 followed by additional 22 cycles of at 94°C for 10 s, 56°C for 20 s, 72°C for 1 min; with a final 537 extension of 10 min at 72°C. PCR reactions for each dye were pooled, and 3 µl of each pooled 538 aliquot were mixed with 7 µl formamide plus size standards, denatured at 95°C for 5 min, and 539 ice chilled. Fluorescent capillary electrophoresis was run on an ABI 3730xl DNA Analyzer 540 541 (Applied Biosystems, USA).

542

Initially, the quality of each primer pair was examined by gel electrophoresis of PCR 543 544 amplification products from a sub-set of eight S. sclerotiorum isolates (data not shown). Eight 545 SSRs were eliminated due to poor performance: ssr 7-2, ssr 7-3, ssr 17-3, ssr 20-3, ssr 110-4, ssr 114-4, AAFC-2b and AAFC-2d. Subsequently, 30 AAFC and 9 ssr primers were used to 546 genotype 127 S. sclerotiorum isolates. Fragment size analyses were performed using 547 548 Genographer 2.1.4 [39]. Size differences of one or more base pairs were considered separate 549 SSR alleles. The size estimation at hyper variable loci with more than 20 different alleles were carried out manually. All possible alleles were determined for each SSR locus and a matrix was 550 generated indicating the presence (1), absence (0) or no amplification (null) of each allele in all 551 552 127 isolates. Only unambiguous data with >80% amplification success rate were included in the 553 final data set.

554

555 Analysis of genomic diversity

The Genographer dataset was curated into Excel (Microsoft, USA). Allele counts, including total number of polymorphic alleles, shared and private alleles, were conducted in the Microsatellite feature of the Toolkit program [40]. The polymorphic information content (PIC) value for each primer pair across isolates was calculated using the GenAIEEx 6.5 feature in Excel [41]. Genomic diversity (*H*) was calculated in POPGENE 1.32 [42]. The haplotype was determined for individual isolates combining alleles across all loci using FaBox 1.41 [43] (data not shown).

The SSR data were grouped into the three provinces, Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba, 563 564 where the isolates were collected and used for several types of analyses. Contribution of isolate 565 and geographical location to genomic variation was determined by analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) using GenAlex v 6.5 with 999 permutations, and the results presented in 566 567 Table 3. Analysis of allelic richness and private allele richness among isolates within each 568 province was carried out using the software ADZE 1.0 with the rarefraction approach where sample size was equal to the smallest sample size [44] (Table 4). Analyses of gene flow (Nm), 569 570 Nei's unbiased genetic distance (D), population differentiation (PhiPT) for pairwise comparison of provinces were calculated using GenAlex 6.5 in Excel with 999 permutations [41] (Table 5). 571 572 Two analyses of linkage disequilibrium (LD) were used to test the null hypothesis that random 573 recombination exists. For this, the index of association (I_A) and the standardized index of 574 association (rBarD) were calculated using the software Multilocus v.1.31 [45] for each province and the three provinces combined (Table 6). The null hypothesis was tested by comparing 575 576 expected and observed values with 1000 permutations; so that if rBarD equal 0 there was a 577 non-random association of alleles, whereas *rBarD* equal 1 specify random association of alleles. 578

579 **Examination of population structure**

A Bayesian cluster analysis was used to infer genomic ancestry among the 127 *S. sclerotiorum* isolates using Structure [46]. Analyses with the number of sub-populations ranging from K = 2 to K = 24 were performed using Markov Chain Monte Carlo replication method. The admixture ancestry and independent allele frequency options were used throughout. The number of subpopulations among isolates was determined using the Evanno method and *ln(P)* was graphed in Structure Harvester, a web-based program that visualizes output data from Structure [47]. The resulting Delta K values are graphed in Fig 4.

587

The relative genomic distance among *S. sclerotiorum* isolates based on SSR polymorphisms was analyzed using NTSYSpc 2.2 with matrices of genetic distance coefficient function 'SIMGEND' sub-program with Nei72 [48]. Subsequently, neighbour-joining analysis (Njoin) was performed with default parameters. To visualize the results, the 'TREE' function was used to generate a phylogenetic tree, where the oldest isolate, 321 collected in 1992, was selected as the root and branches consisted of all other isolates collected in 2010 (Fig 5).

594

595 Evaluation of aggressiveness

Based on analyses of population structure (Delta K) and the phylogenetic tree, 17 S. 596 sclerotiorum sub-populations were selected to represent the genomic diversity in western 597 598 Canada. One isolate from each sub-population was selected for evaluation of aggressiveness 599 so that each province was represented by five to six isolates as follows: Alberta isolates AB3, AB7, AB19, AB29 and 321; Saskatchewan isolates SK14, SK23, SK35, SK38, SK44 and SK45; 600 601 and Manitoba isolates MB21, MB35, MB51, MB52, MB57 and MB61. The isolates were 602 inoculated onto six *B. napus* lines that were selected based on their phenotypic reaction to a 603 single S. sclerotiorum isolate, 321 [11]. These lines were PAK54 and PAK93 (Pakistan), DC21 (South Korea), K22 (Japan), with high level of quantitative resistance, variety Tanto (France) 604 605 with intermediate resistance and variety Topas (Sweden) as a susceptible control.

606

607 Seeds of each line were sown into water-soaked peat pellets (Jiffy-7, McKenzie, Brandon, MB, 608 Canada) and placed in a greenhouse. Plants at the 3-4 leaf stage were transplanted into natural 609 soil in a phenotyping facility under semi-field conditions. The facility consisted of a 20 m x 40 m 610 greenhouse structure with retractable roof and side walls made from reinforced polyethylene 611 supported by permanent gable ends of corrugated polyvinyl (Cravo, Brantford, ON, Canada). 612 Plant growth relied on ambient sun light and temperature with rainfall supplement with overhead 613 irrigation when needed. A weather sensor and computer program operated motors that closed 614 the roof and side walls to protect the plants at temperatures below 10°C and wind speeds above 30 km per hour. At temperatures above 25°C the plants were cooled by activation of an 615 overhead misting system and shaded by closing the roof 50%. 616

617

618 Stocks of the 17 isolates were produced by inoculating the susceptible canola variety Topas 619 with each isolate and re-isolating the pathogen onto nutrient rich V8 juice media (200 ml V8 620 juice, 0.75 g CaCO3, 800 ml water, 15.0 g agar). After 4-6 days, 7 mm plugs of mycelium were 621 transferred to cryo-freezer solution (10% skim milk, 40% glycerol) and stored at -80°C until 622 needed for inoculation. Inoculum of individual isolates was prepared by transferring mycelium 623 plugs from the cryo-freezer onto PDA plates. The plates were incubated in a cycle of 16 h day (22 +1°C) and 8 h night (18 +1°C), and were ready for inoculation after 4-5 days at which point 624 625 the culture was still actively growing, but had not reached the edge of the Petri plate. Mycelium 626 plugs were cut with a 7 mm cork borer from the margin of actively growing cultures and placed on 3 x 7 cm pieces of stretched Parafilm (Bemis Company Inc, Oshkosh, WI, USA) with the 627 628 mycelium facing up. When each plant was at full flower, two internodes of the main stem were 629 inoculated by attaching a mycelium plug with Parafilm as described by Gyawali et al. (11). The 630 length of the developing lesions was measured at 7, 14 and 21 days after inoculation (dai), and subsequently used to calculate the area under the disease progress curve (AUDPC). In 631

632	addition, depth of penetration into the stem tissue was assessed as either firm, soft or collapsed
633	and used to calculate percent soft + collapsed lesions for each isolate and line. The experiment
634	consisted of six <i>B. napus</i> lines in four replications planted as the main plot, with the 17 S.
635	sclerotiorum isolates inoculated onto plants as sub-plots organized in a randomized complete
636	block design (RCBD). There were seven plants in each sub-plot for a total of 2,856 plants. The
637	mean values for each combination of S. sclerotiorum isolate and B. napus line were calculated
638	for the five disease traits (7 dai, 14 dai, 21 dai, AUDPC and % soft + collapsed lesions).
639	Correlations between these traits were analysed in a pairwise manner using the Pearson
640	correlation coefficient (PROC CORR) in SAS Enterprise 5.1. The result showed all traits were
641	highly correlated (S2 Table). For simplicity, only stem lesion length measured at 21 dai are
642	presented here. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted using the PROC GLM model in
643	SAS Enterprise 5.1 to determine variation explained by isolate, <i>B. napus</i> line, and the
644	interaction between isolate and <i>B. napus</i> line (Table 7), followed by calculation of the least
645	significance difference (LSD) between entries (S3 and S4 Tables).
646	
647	Acknowledgement

648 Creation of the map of *S. sclerotiorum* sample locations by Cam G Kenny is greatly appreciated. 649

650 **References**

Lumsden RD, Wergin WP (1980) Scanning-Electron Microscopy of Infection of Bean by
 Species of Sclerotinia, Mycologia, 72:6, 1200-1209, DOI: 10.1080/00275514.1980.12021302

2. Kohn LM, Carbone I, Anderson JB (1990) Mycelial interactions in *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*.

655 Experimental Mycology, 14 (3): 255-267. doi.org/10.1016/0147-5975(90)90023-M.

656

- 657 3. Ford EJ, Miller RV, Gray H, Sherwood JE (1995) Heterokaryon and vegetative compatability
 658 in *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*. Mycol Res. 99(2):241-247.
- 659
- 4. Sirjusingh C, Kohn LM (2001) Characterization of microsatellites in the fungal plant pathogen,
- 661 Sclerotinia sclerotiorum. Molecular Ecology Notes 1(4):267-269 doi:10.1046/j.1471-
- 662 8278.2001.00102.x.
- 663
- 5. Ge XT, Li YP, Wan ZJ, You MP, Finnegana PM, Banga SS, Sandhu PS, Garg H, Salisbury
- 665 PA, Barbetti MJ (2012) Delineation of *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* pathotypes using differential
- resistance responses on *Brassica napus* and *B. juncea* genotypes enables identification of
- resistance to prevailing pathotypes. Field Crops Research, 127:248-258.
- 668 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fcr.2011.11.022.
- 669
- 670 6. Clarkson JP, Coventry E, Kitchen J, Carter HE, Whipps JM (2013) Population structure of
- 671 Sclerotinia sclerotiorum in crop and wild hosts in the UK. Plant Pathology 62(2):309-324
- 672 doi:10.1111/j.1365-3059.2012.02635.x.
- 673
- 7. Taylor A, Coventry E, Jones JE, Clarkson JP (2015) Resistance to a highly aggressive isolate
 of *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* in a *Brassica napus* diversity set. Plant Pathology 64:932-940. n/a-
- 676 n/a doi:10.1111/ppa.12327.
- 677
- 8. Petrofeza S, Nasser LCB (2012) Case study: *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*: Genetic diversity and
 disease control. The molecular basis of plant genetic diversity. Caliskan M. (Ed). ISBN: 978953-51-0157-4.
- 681

- 9. Bolton MD, Thomma BPHJ, Nelson BD (2006) *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* (Lib.) de Bary: biology
 and molecular traits of a cosmopolitan pathogen. Molecular Plant Pathology 7(1): 1-16. DOI:
 10.1111/J.1364-3703.2005.00316.X.
- 685
- 10. Bradley CA, Henson RA, Porter PM, LeGare DG, del Río LE, Khot SD (2006) Response of
- canola cultivars to *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* in controlled and field environments. Plant Disease
- 688 90(2):215-219 doi:10.1094/PD-90-0215.

689

- 11. Gyawali S, Harrington M, Durkin J, Horner K, Parkin IAP, Hegedus DD, Bekkaoui D,
- 691 Buchwaldt L (2016) Microsatellite markers used for genome-wide association mapping of partial
- resistance to Sclerotinia sclerotiorum in a world collection of Brassica napus. Mol Breed. 2016,
- 693 36: 72. doi: 10.1007/s11032-016-0496-5.

694

- 12. Kohli Y, Brunner LJ, Yoell H, Milgroom MG, Anderson JB, Morrall RAA, Kohn LM (1995)
- 696 Clonal dispersal and spatial mixing in populations of the plant pathogenic fungus, Sclerotinia
- 697 *sclerotiorum*. Molecular Ecology 4(1):69-77 doi:10.1111/j.1365-294X.1995.tb00193.x.

698

- 13. Amselem J, Cuomo CA, van Kan JA, Viaud M, Benito EP, Couloux A, Coutinho PM, de
- Vries RP, Dyer PS, Fillinger et al. (2011) Genomic analysis of the necrotrophic fungal
- pathogens Sclerotinia sclerotiorum and Botrytis cinerea. PLoS Genet 7(8):e1002230
- 702 doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1002230.

703

- 14. Wong JAL, Willets HJ (1979) Cytology of *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* and related species.
- Journal of General Microbiology 112:29-34.

706

- 15. Uhm JY, Fuji H (1986) Course of meiosis in *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* and related species.
- 708 Trans. Mycol Soc Japan 27:129-141.
- 709
- 16. Calonge FD (1970) Notes on the ultrastructure of the microconidium and stroma in
- 711 Sclerotinia sclerotiorum. Arch. Mikrobiol. 71:191-195.
- 712
- 17. Kosasih BD, Willetts HJ (1975) Ontogenetic and histochemical studies of the apothecium of
- 514 Sclerotinia sclerotiorum, Annals of Botany, Volume 39:185–191.
- 715 https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.aob.a084928

716

- 18. Ekins M (1999) Genetic diversity in *Sclerotinia* species. Thesis. Department of Botany, The
- 718 University of Queensland, Australia. Pp. 202.
- 719
- 19. Monahan WB, Pereira RJ, Wake DB (2012) Ring distributions leading to species formation:
- a global topographic analysis of geographic barriers associated with ring species. BMC Biol 10,
- 722 20. https://doi.org/10.1186/1741-7007-10-20.

723

- 20. Hemmati R, Javan-Nikkhah M, Lind C (2009) Population genetic structure of Sclerotinia
- *sclerotiorum* on canola in Iran. European Journal of Plant Pathology 125(4):617-628
- 726 doi:10.1007/s10658-009-9510-7.

727

- 21. Sexton AC, Whitten AR, Howlett BJ (2006) Population structure of Sclerotinia sclerotiorum
- in an Australian canola field at flowering and stem-infection stages of the disease cycle.

730 Genome 49(11):1408-15 doi:10.1139/g06-101.

731

732	22. Attanayake RN, Carter PA, Jiang D, Del Rio-Mendoza, Chen W (2013) Sclerotinia
733	sclerotiorum populations infecting canola from China and the United States are genetically and
734	phenotypically distinct. Phytopathology 103(7):750-61 doi:10.1094/phyto-07-12-0159r.
735	
736	23. Zancan WLA, Steadman JR, Higgins R, Jhala R, da Cruz Machado J (2015) Genetic and
737	aggresssiveness variation among Sclerotinia sclerotiorum dry bean isolates from Brazil fields.
738	Biosci. J., Uberlândia, 31 (4):1143-1151.
739	
740	24. Lehner MS, Paula Junior TJ, Hora Junior BT, Teixeirab H, Vieirab RF, Carneirod JES,
741	Mizubutic ESG (2015) Low genetic variability in Sclerotinia sclerotiorum populations from
742	common bean fields in Minas Gerais State, Brazil, at regional, local and micro-scales. Plant
743	Pathology 64:921-931.
744	
745	25. Atallah Z, Larget B, Chen X, Johnson D (2004) High genetic diversity, phenotypic uniformity,
746	and evidence of outcrossing in Sclerotinia sclerotiorum in the Columbia Basin of Washington
747	State. Phytopathology 94(7):737-742.
748	
749	26. Pannullo A, Kamvar ZN, Miorini TJJ, Steadman JR, Everhart SE (2019) Genetic variation
750	and structure of Sclerotinia sclerotiorum populations from soybean in Brazil. Tropical Plant
751	Pathology 44:53-64.
752	
753	27. Aldrich-Wolfe L, Travers S, Nelson BD Jr (2015) Genetic variation of Sclerotinia sclerotiorum
754	from multiple crops in the North Central United States. PLoS One. 29,10(9): e0139188. doi:
755	10.1371/journal.pone.0139188.

756

757	28. Lehner MS, de Paula Junior T, Del Ponte EM, Mizubuti ESG, Pethybridge SJ (2017)
758	Independently founded populations of Sclerotinia sclerotiorum from a tropical and a temperate
759	region have similar genetic structure. PLOS ONE DOI:10.1371/journal.pone.0139188.
760	
761	29. Willbur JF, Ding S, Marks ME, Lucas H, Grau CR, Groves CL, Kabbage M, Smith DL (2017)
762	Comprehensive sclerotinia stem rot screening of soybean germplasm requires multiple isolates
763	of Sclerotinia sclerotiorum. Plant Disease, 101:344-353.
764	
765	30. Lehner MS, Paula Junior TJ, Vieirab RF, Lima RC, Soares BA, Silva RA (2016) Reaction of
766	sources of resistance to white mold to microsatellite haplotypes of <i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i> . Sci.
767	Agric. 73:184-188.
768	
769	31. Davar R, Darvishzadeh R, Majd A (2011) Genotype-isolate interaction for resistance to
770	Sclerotinia sclerotiorum in sunflower. Phytopathologia Mediterranea 50:442-449.
771	
772	32. Akem C, Bellar M, Bayaa, B (2006) Comparative growth and pathogenicity of geographical
773	isolates of Sclerotinia sclerotiorum on lentil genotypes. Plant Pathology Journal 5:67-71.
774	
775	33. Denton-Giles M, Derbyshire MC, Khentry Y, Buchwaldt L, Kamphuis LG (2018) Partial stem
776	resistance in Brassica napus to highly aggressive and genetically diverse Sclerotinia
777	sclerotiorum isolates from Australia. Can J Plant Path 40(4): 551-561.
778	doi.org/10.1080/07060661.2018.1516699.
779	
780	34. Lumsden RD (1979) Histology and physiology of pathogenesis in plant diseases caused by
781	Sclerotinia species. Phytopathology, 69:890–896.

783	35. Badet T, Peyraud R, Mbengue M, Navaud O, Derbyshire M, Oliver RP, Barbacci A, Raffaele
784	S (2017) Codon optimization underpins generalist parasitism in fungi. eLife 2017;6:e22472 doi:
785	10.7554/eLife.22472
786	
787	36. Derbyshire MC, Denton-Giles M, Hane JK, Chang S, Mousavi-Derazmahalleh M, Raffaele
788	S, Buchwaldt L, Kamphuis LG (2019) A whole genome scan of SNP data suggests a lack of
789	abundant hard selective sweeps in the genome of the broad host range plant pathogenic fungus
790	Sclerotinia sclerotiorum. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0214201.
791	
792	37. Shafer MR, Kohn LM (2006) A optimized method for mycelium compatibility testing in
793	Sclerotinia sclerotiorum. Mycologia 98(4): 593-597.
794	
795	38. Benham J, Jeung JU, Jasieniuk M, Kanazin V, Blake T (1999) Genographer: a graphical tool
796	for automated fluorescent AFLP and microsatellite analysis. Journal of Agricultural Genomics
797	4:1-3.
798	
799	39. Martins WS, Soares Lucas DC, de Souza Neves KF, Bertioli DJ (2009) WebSat - A web
800	software for microsatellite marker development. Bioinformation 3(6):282-283.
801	
802	40. Park SDE (2008) Excel microsatellite Toolkit. Computer program and documentation
803	distributed by the author.
804	
805	41. Peakall R, Smouse PE (2012) GenAlEx 6.5: genetic analysis in Excel. Population genetic
806	software for teaching and research-an update. Bioinformatics 28(19):2537-9
807	doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bts460.
808	

809 42. Yeh FC, Yang RC, Boyle TB, Ye Z, Mao JX (1997) POPGENE, the user-friendly shareware 810 for population genetic analysis. https://sites.ualberta.ca/~fyeh/popgene.pdf. 811 43. Villesen P (2007) FaBox: an online toolbox for fasta sequences. Molecular Ecology Notes 812 813 7(6):965-968 doi:10.1111/j.1471-8286.2007.01821.x. 814 44. Szpiech ZA, Jakobsson M, Rosenberg NA (2008) ADZE: a rarefaction approach for counting 815 816 alleles private to combinations of populations. Bioinformatics 24(21):2498-504 817 doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btn478. 818 45. Agapow PM, Burt A (2001) Indices of multilocus linkage disequilibrium. Molecular Ecology 819 820 Notes 1(1-2):101-102 doi:10.1046/j.1471-8278.2000.00014.x. 821 46 Pritchard JK, Matthew S, Donnelly P (2000) Inference of Population Structure Using 822 Multilocus Genotype Data. Genetics 155:945-59. 823 824 825 47. Earl D, vonHoldt B (2012) Structure Harvester: a website and program for visualizing 826 STRUCTURE output and implementing the Evanno method. Conservation Genetics Resources 4(2):359-361 doi:10.1007/s12686-011-9548-7. 827 828 **Supporting Information** 829 830 **S1 Table.** Mycelial compatibility scoring matrix by Province, inter-Province and single field. 831 S2 to S5 Tables. Correlation among disease traits in tests of aggressiveness. Average aggressiveness by isolate. Average aggressiveness by line. Standard Error for all comparisons. 832 833 **S6 Fig.** Map of canola production areas in western Canada.

- 834 **S7 Table.** *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* sample locations, isolate names, Q1 and Q2 values from
- 835 population structure analysis.
- 836

837 Author Contributions

- LB conceived and lead the research and wrote the manuscript. LB and DDH secured funding.
- AD collected isolates. HG designed primers and amplified SSRs. AS and KKG sequenced SSR
- products. KDP and JD performed statistical analysis. JA, MH, DL, AD and HG performed tests
- of mycelium compatibility and aggressiveness. All authors reviewed the manuscript.
- 842

843 **Figure legends**

- Fig 1. Geographical locations of commercial canola fields where *S. sclerotiorum* isolates
- 845 were collected. A disease survey and isolate collection was carried out in 2010 across three
- Canadian Provinces. The sites closely resemble the distribution of canola producing areas (S6
- Figure). A single isolate, 321, was collected in 1992.

Fig 2. Mycelium compatibility among *S. sclerotiorum* isolates from canola fields in

- Manitoba. Coloured circles show mutually compatible isolates, and arrows show compatibility
 between two isolates. Table S1 contains all isolate by isolate scoring matrixes.
- 851

852 Fig 3. Mycelium compatibility among S. sclerotiorum isolates from canola fields in

Saskatchewan, Alberta, a single field, and inter-Province. Coloured circles show clones of
 mutually compatible isolates, and arrows show compatibility between two isolates. Table S1
 contains all isolate by isolate scoring matrixes.

856

Fig 4. Likely number of sub-populations in *S. sclerotiorum* based on polymorphisms at
39 simple sequence repeat loci. The number of sub-populations among 127 isolates was

- 859 determined using the Evanno method and graphed in Structure Harvester, a web-based
- program that visualizes output data from Structure (47).
- 861
- Fig 5. Phylogenetic tree of the relationship among 127 S. sclerotiorum isolates based on
- polymorphisms at 39 simple sequence repeat loci. Sub-populations are marked from 1 to 17
- and coloured in alternate blue and red. The star shows one isolate from each sub-cluster
- selected for evaluation of aggressiveness.
- 866
- Fig 6. Results from evaluation of 17 S. sclerotiorum isolates for aggressiveness on six B.
- 868 *napus* lines. Plants at full flower were inoculated by attaching a mycelium plug to the main
- stem with Parafilm. The average stem lesion length 21 days after inoculation is shown. For
- clarity, the standard error bar is only shown for susceptible Topas and resistant PAK54 (S5 has
- all standard errors).

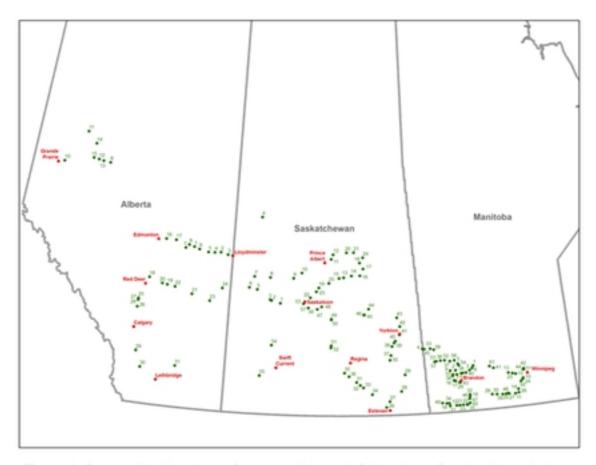


Figure 1. Geographical locations of commercial canola fields where S. sclerotiorum isolates were collected in three Canadian provinces in 2010.

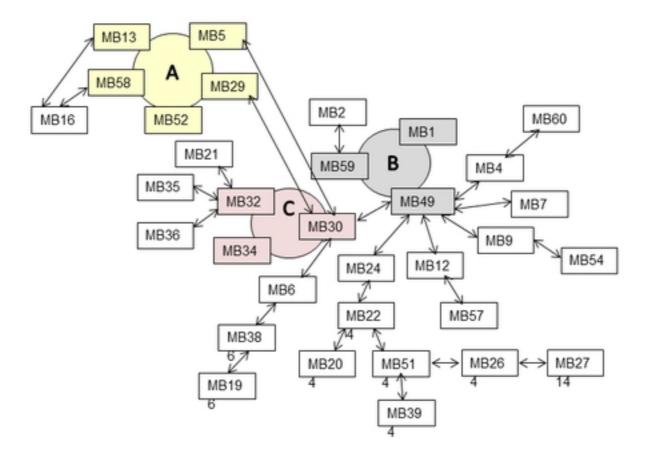
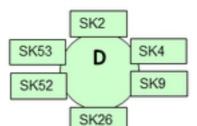
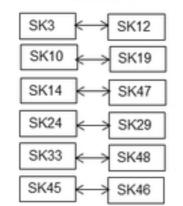


Figure 2. Mycelium compatibility among S. sclerotiorum isolates in Manitoba.





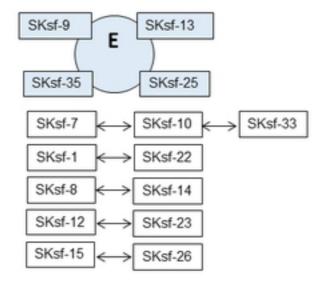


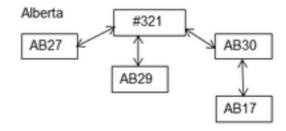
Inter-Province

AB#321

MB29







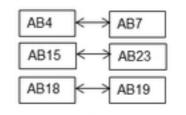


Figure 3. Mycelium compatibility among S. sclerotiorum isolates from Saskatchewan, Alberta, inter-Province and a single field in Saskatchewan.

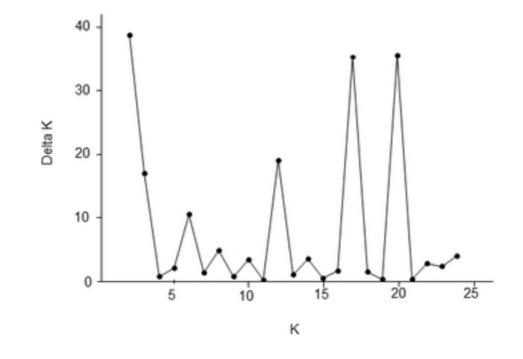


Figure 4. Delta K for sub-populations 2 to 24

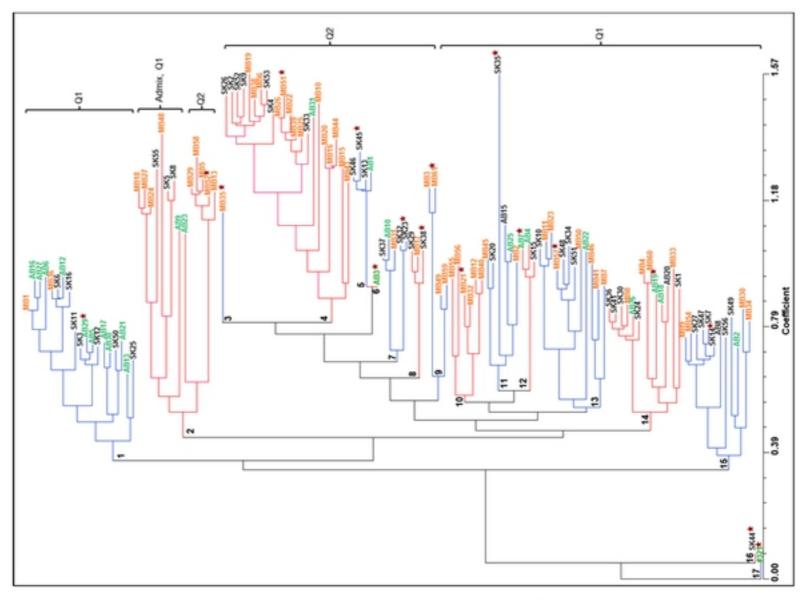


Figure 5. Phylogenetic tree of S. sclerotiorum isolates with Q-grouping

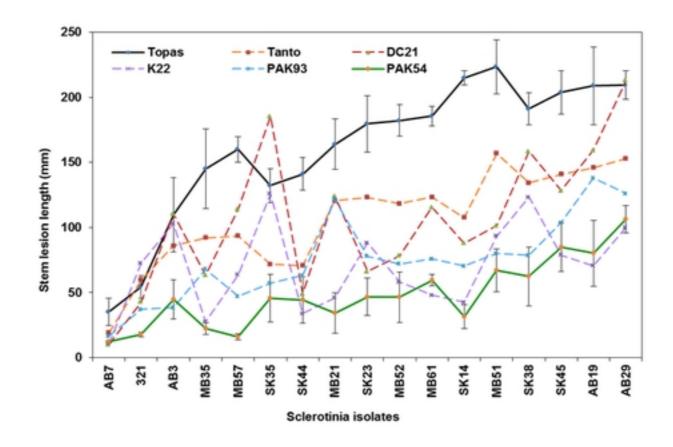


Figure 6. Aggressiveness test of 17 S. sclerotiorum isolates on six B. napus lines.