A Multi-aspect Comparative Investigation on the Use of Strobilurin and Triazole-based Fungicides for Winter Wheat Disease Control

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1. Introduction

Fungicides continue to be essential for the effective control of plant diseases. The azoles class of fungicides has been the leading agents for the control of fungal pathogens of plants since their introduction in the mid 1970s. This class of fungicides is also called sterol demethylation inhibitors (DMIs) because they inhibit the formation of cytochrome P450 sterol 14 alpha-demethylase (450 14DM), an enzyme required for the biosynthesis of ergosterol. Ergosterol is an important compound required for fungal membrane integrity and cell cycle progression (Dahl et al., 1987). DMIs represent one of the largest groups of systemic fungicides that have been used to control agriculturally important fungal pathogens (Zhan et al., 2006). In the mid 1980s, the first DMIs fungicide propiconazole has been investigated and introduced in the agronomic practice of Lithuania for winter wheat disease control (Šurkus et al., 1988) and currently 10 DMIs active substances alone or in mixtures are registered for cereal disease control. In spite of their long-term use, a widespread resistance to azoles in plant pathogenic fungi has not occurred. The shift to decreasing sensitivity propiconazole to Phaeosphaeria nodorum the causal agent of Stagonospora blotch of wheat has been reported since 1994 (Peever et al, 1994) although until 1994 only minor changes in the sensitivity of Mycosphaerella graminicola populations – c.a. Septoria leaf blotch, to DMIs fungicides in European countries was confirmed (Turner et al., 1996). The slightly resistant field isolates were not cross-resistant to the DMI fungicides, which act at a different stage of sterol biosynthesis (Hollomon, 1994). Sometimes the cross-resistance is only partial. Whilst cross-resistance extends to all DMIs (Gisi et al., 2004) a recent rapid decline in the efficacy of some DMIs fungicides in controlling powdery mildew and Septoria leaf blotch of wheat has been noted. Some fungicides, notably epoxyconazole and prothioconazole, are still very effective in controlling M. graminicola (Cools & Fraaije, 2008).

In the beginning of 90s a new class of fungicides, generated on the basis of the fungus Strobilurus tenacellus secondary metabolites was developed (Ammermann et al., 1992; De Vleeschauwer et al., 1996). Strobilurins, with a chemistry based on a natural product from a mushroom, are fungicide of new generation and proved to be quite effective, protective, eradicant and potential broad-spectrum substances against foliar diseases of winter wheat.
They have low mammalian toxicity and are environmentally safe. In addition to disease control, strobilurins have useful non-fungicidal physiological effects: they improve nitrogen metabolism and also inhibit ethylene biosynthesis. This latter effect is responsible for the greening effect which results in delayed senescence with higher amount of chlorophylls (Habermeyer et al., 1998) and index of photosynthesis (Häuser-Hahn et al., 2004; Oerke et al., 2005). According to Inagaki et al. (2009), strobilurins can act on delaying root water uptake, resulting in postponement of soil dehydration, which contributes to a slight increase of grain yield in some wheat genotypes in the field under water deficit conditions.

These broad-spectrum strobilurins or Qol (quinone outside inhibitors) fungicides based on affecting the mitochondrial respiration of the fungus cell by inhibiting the electron transport at the cytochrome-bc₁ complex have been registered in Lithuania since the year 2000 and nowadays 7 active substances mostly in mixture with azoles are used in agricultural practice. It is known that the foliar strobilurin treatment in wheat had resulted in both the suppressing foliar diseases and maintenance of green leaf area as a result - period of grain filling being extended, and thus likely contributing to a yield increase (Goooding et al., 2000; Dimmock & Gooding 2002). Qol fungicides gave adequate control of the main cereal foliar diseases despite the disease pressure. Strobilurins have a single-site mode of action and have therefore been classified as at high risk of resistance (Brent & Hollomon, 2007). Consequently, for a short time the strains of powdery mildew (Blumeria graminis) and Septoria (M. graminicola) with reduced sensitivity to Qols were identified (Sierotzki et al., 2000; Gisi et al., 2002). In recent years, the efficacy of strobilurin fungicides against Septoria leaf blotch and powdery mildew mostly in mixture with azoles are used in agricultural practice.

Septoria leaf blotch (Mycosphaerella graminicola (Fuckel) J. Schröt., syn. Septoria tritici Berk. & M.A. Curtis), Stagonospora blotch (Phaeosphaeria nodorum (E. Müll.) Hedjar. syn. Stagonospora nodorum (Berk.) E. Castell. & Germano; Septoria nodorum (Berk.) Berk.) and tan spot (Pyrenophora tritici repentin (Died.) Drechsler, syn. Drechslera tritici-repentis (Died.) Shoemaker) are the main foliar diseases and can be a constraint to wheat yields in Lithuania and in many countries with a temperate climate. Despite the differences in biology, these diseases frequently occur together. Both Septoria and Stagonospora blotch are economically important worldwide (Cunfer & Ueng, 1999). P. nodorum is known to be more pathogenic at late growth stages and can cause high levels of leaf and glume blotch at higher temperatures. The cooler temperatures of spring favour development of leaf blotch caused by M. graminicola. The greater prevalence of P. nodorum later in the season may be a consequence of increasing susceptibility of wheat plants to pathogen (Shaner & Beuchley, 1995). The prevalence of P. nodorum later in the season also can be predicted by interaction between pathogens. As Nolan et al. (1999) reported P. nodorum inhibits M. graminicola and it was concluded that the latter has a stimulatory effect on spore production by P. nodorum. Tan spot has recently become recognised as one of the important and widespread diseases of wheat. Losses due to tan spot have been chronically 3-15% and as high as 50% of grain yield (Hosford et al., 1987). The pattern of diseases development varied in each year under the influence of different rainfall and temperature patterns.

In Central Europe severe epidemics of Fusarium Head Blight (FHB) occur once or twice a decade only, but it can sharply reduce yield and quality traits of cereals (Miedaner at al.,
2001). Surveys carried out between 1951 and 1985 recorded 19 FHB outbreaks with a wheat grain yield reduction of 5-15% in the years when moderate epidemics of FHB were recorded and up to 40% in years when disease epidemics were severe (Pirgozliev et al., 2003).

Under suitable conditions the foliar diseases as well as FHB cause dramatic symptoms and can result in substantial losses in both yield and quality through the production of undersized grain either by affecting grain processing qualities or by producing a range of toxic metabolites. This paper provides the results of a multi-aspect comparative investigation on the use of strobilurin and triazole-based fungicides for winter wheat disease control. The aim was to study yield losses resulting from foliar and ear diseases epidemics and define the relationships between disease severity, green canopy retention, grain quality and yield.

2. Winter wheat leaf disease control with strobilurin-based and triazole

On the basis of field trials conducted during the period 2002–2004 at the Lithuanian Institute of Agriculture in Dotnuva the efficacy of fungicides against fungal leaf diseases of winter wheat cv. Zentos was explored. The impact of strobilurin based Allegro Plus, Rombus, Amistar, Opera, Acanto and triazoles Opus and Tilt (Table 1) on the epidemic progress of Septoria leaf blotch (M. graminicola) and Stagonospora blotch (P. nodorum) – both diseases were not separated, and tan spot (P. tritici-repentis) was surveyed. The trials were arranged in randomized blocks in the plots 10 m in length and 2.5 m in width with four replicates. The fungicides, except Folicur, were applied at the end of booting (BBCH 47), Folicur was applied at anthesis for FHB control.

| Commercial name | Applied at BBCH | Active ingredients (g l⁻¹) | Rate fungicide (l ha⁻¹) | active ingredients (g ha⁻¹) |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Allegro Plus    | 47              | Krezoxim-methyl; epoxyconazole; fenpropimorf (125+125+150) | 1.0 | 125+125+150 |
| Rombus         | 47              | Trifloxystrobin; propiconazole (125+125) | 1.0 | 125+125 |
| Amistar        | 47              | Azoxytrobin (250)          | 1.0 | 250 |
| Opera          | 47              | Pyraclostrobin + epoxyconazole (133+50) | 1.5 | 200+75 |
| Acanto         | 47              | Picoxystrobin (250)        | 1.0 | 250 |
| Opus           | 47              | Epoxyconazole (125)        | 1.0 | 125 |
| Tilt           | 47              | Propiconazole (250)        | 0.5 | 125 |
| Folicur        | 65              | Tebuconazole (250)         | 1.0 | 250 |

Table 1. Characteristics of fungicides used for the winter wheat disease control

Disease assessments on leaves were conducted periodically with 7-10 days interval from the end of booting (BBCH 47) to late milk stage (BBCH 79). Plant growth stages were identified according to the BBCH scale (Phenological growth stages..., 1997). Percent of leaf area showing symptoms of leaf diseases was used to quantify disease severity. Disease severity
was assessed on each plot in five randomly selected places on three adjacent tillers on three upper leaves using a percentage scale 0, 1, 5, 10, 25, 50, 75. The leaf positions on tillers were numbered relative to the uppermost leaf - the flag leaf. Thus the leaf immediately below the flag leaf (F) was designated F–1, the second leaf below the flag leaf – F–2. AUDPC (Area Under the Disease Progress Curve) was calculated by trapezoidal integration in accordance with 7-10 days interval disease severity data over the season.

\[
\text{AUDPC} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left( \frac{y_i + y_{i-1}}{2} \right) (t_{i+1} - t_i)
\]

where: \( y_i \) - disease severity %, \( t_i \) - interval of data records (days), \( n \) - number of assessments (Campbell & Madden, 1990). The plots were harvested and yields in t ha\(^{-1}\) were adjusted to 15% moisture content, thousand grain weight (TGW) was calculated. The significance of data was determined by the Fisher’s criterion with a significance level of \( P \leq 0.01 \) and \( \leq 0.05 \). Significant differences from untreated in Tables are marked as **(\( P \leq 0.01 \)) and *(\( P \leq 0.05 \)). Linear correlation analysis was used to examine the relationships between grain yield and AUDPC.

In 2002, fungal leaf diseases incidence and severity in winter wheat were slight due to extremely dry and unusually hot weather until harvest. In both 2003 and 2004, the pressure of fungal leaf diseases was severe. The unusually hot period during the wheat ripening stage in 2003 provoked the intense outbreak of tan spot (\( P. tritici-repentis \)). At milk ripe abundant and severe tan spot infection dwarfed Septoria leaf and Stagonospora blotch on wheat leaves. However, the warm and rainy prolonged ripening season in 2004 promoted the severe infection of Septoria disease (Stagonospora blotch and Septoria leaf blotch). Both diseases were not separated, though in years 2002-2004 Stagonospora blotch (\( P. nodorum \)) considerably prevailed over Septoria leaf blotch (\( M. graminicola \)). AUDPC allows expression of entire season’s leaf diseases epidemic on different fungicide treatments. AUDPCs were plotted for each of the topmost three leaves from the data of the fungicide use.

Our experimental findings suggest that both strobilurin and triazole fungicides significantly suppressed the epidemic progress of Septoria disease (\( P. nodorum \) and \( M. graminicola \)) and tan spot (\( P. tritici-repentis \)) on the upper three leaves of winter wheat irrespective of dissimilar diseases pressure in particular years. In 2002 the development of both Septoria disease and tan spot was slight due to droughty weather and the AUDPC values in fungicide treated plots were low and comparable (Table 2). In both 2003 and 2004, infection of leaf diseases was vigorous. The lowest AUDPC value was recorded in the treatment with Opera (pyraclostrobin + epoxyconazole), while the highest – in the treatment applied with Tilt (propiconazole). AUDPCs of the other strobilurin fungicides and triazole Opus (epoxyconazole) were comparable. Our results suggest that the weakest control of Septoria disease against tan spot was in Tilt treatment. As was reported by Milus and Chalkley (1997) propiconazole was the least effective treatment against \( P. nodorum \). In order of precedence between DMI fungicides in 1994 epoxyconazole showed the best efficacy against Septoria both \( M. graminicola \) and \( P. nodorum \) (Kendall & Hollomon, 1994). Still recent epoxyconazole and prothioconazole are referred as very effective in controlling \( M. graminicola \) (Cools & Fraaije, 2008). According to sensitivity test of 42 isolates from Sweden, collected in 2003-
2005, the *P. nodorum* population is still sensitive to propiconazole, prothioconazole and cyprodinil, even though some isolates varied in sensitivity to triazoles (Blixt et al., 2009). The results of semi-field trial carried out in Denmark showed that propiconazole + fenpropimorf had only a residual preventive effect for 10 days in comparison to azoxystrobin, which showed a very effective, long preventive effect against *P. nodorum*, lasting for three weeks or more, however against *M. graminicola* both propiconazole and azoxystrobin had a similar curative effect (Jorgensen et al., 1999). After the strobilurin-based fungicides were introduced in 1994, this new class of fungicides provided a superior disease control and additional favourable effects on the physiology of the plant (Fraaije et al., 2003). In the years 2003 and 2004 the high efficacy of Qol fungicides was confirmed by our results (Table 2).

The first Qol-resistant isolates of *M. graminicola* were detected in the UK in 2001 at low frequency in Qol-treated plots (Fraaije et al., 2005), and subsequently in 2002 in five European countries (Gisi et al., 2004). The G143A mutation causing Qol resistance was first detected during 2002 in all tested populations (Torriani et al., 2009). During 2003 and 2004, the frequency of resistant isolates increased rapidly in northern Europe. The resistance is now widespread across the entire UK, whereas in France and Germany resistance levels are higher in the north than in the south (Fraaije et al., 2005). Resistance to Qol fungicides in *P. tritici-repentis* was detected in 2003 in Sweden and Denmark. The rapid increase of the frequency of the mutations F129L and G143A in pathogen population was observed and in 2005 both mutations were found in a significant proportion of the isolates from Sweden, Denmark and Germany (Sierotzki et al., 2007). A first report of variability in sensitivity of *P. nodorum* to azoxystrobin was made by Blixt et al. (2009). In the majority of the *P. nodorum* isolates, collected in 2003-2005 in Sweden, the mutation G143A, associated with loss of sensitivity to strobilurins was found. Recently Lithuanian population of *M. graminicola* has been showing medium resistance levels and *P. tritici-repentis* resistance levels are highly variable (www.frac.info). As for the increment of pathogen resistance to fungicides, the results of efficacy of the tested fungicide nowadays presumptively may be different than our presented. In commercial practice in Lithuania Qol-based fungicides are widely used and till now have given a good response to grain yield due to adequate disease control and maintenance of green leaf that act as grain filling prolongation.

Our results suggest that the highest yield and thousand grain weight (TWG) increase in experimental years 2002-2004 were recorded in Opera (pyraclostrobin + epoxyconazole) treatment, as top effective against Septoria disease and tan spot, and the lowest in Tilt (propiconazole) treatment, where it gave the lowest efficacy against these diseases (Table 8). In the case of high disease pressure in 2003 and 2004, the grain yield (X) and AUDPC (Y) of both Septoria disease and tan spot on F, F–1 and F–2 leaves showed strong negative linear correlations at a probability level of $P \leq 0.01$. Regression coefficient $R^2_y/x$ for Septoria (*P. nodorum* and *M. graminicola*) ranged between 73.3-91.9% and for tan spot – 83.6-92.7%. However, in the droughty year 2002, regarding slight disease severity only Septoria disease AUDPC on F-1 leaves against yield showed a significant ($P \leq 0.01$) negative correlation ($R^2 71.4\%$). Our experimental findings on the correlation between the disease severity and yield agree with those obtained in Australia. As Bhathal et al. (2003) reported the different rates of progress of both tan spot and Stagonospora blotch caused similar losses in grain yield, ranging from 18% to 31%. The infection by either disease on the flag or penultimate leaf provided a good indication of yield losses.

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### Table 2. The effect of strobilurin and triazole fungicides on the epidemic progress of Septoria disease (\textit{P. nodorum} and \textit{M. graminicola}) and tan spot (\textit{P. tritici-repentis}) in winter wheat.

| Treatment $^a$ | F $^f$ | F–1 $^f$ | F–2 $^f$ | F $^f$ | F–1 $^f$ | F–2 $^f$ |
|----------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Untreated      | 8.6    | 9.6    | 4.3    | 18.4   | 14.7   | 1.1    |
| Allegro Plus   | 0      | 0.2    | 0.3    | 9.0    | 5.8    | 1.3    |
| Rombus         | 0.1    | 0.7    | 0.6    | 7.1    | 3.8    | 0.7    |
| Amistar        | 0.4    | 2.2    | 0.6    | 3.1    | 3.9    | 0.6    |
| Opera          | 0.1    | 0.2    | 0.3    | 2.7    | 2.2    | 1.2    |
| Acanto         | 1.0    | 5.2    | 0.3    | 6.7    | 4.7    | 1.0    |
| Opus           | 0.1    | 0      | 0.6    | 8.5    | 6.4    | 0.4    |
| Tilt           | 0.2    | 1.6    | 0      | 7.0    | 4.7    | 1.4    |

| Treatment $^a$ | F $^f$ | F–1 $^f$ | F–2 $^f$ | F $^f$ | F–1 $^f$ | F–2 $^f$ |
|----------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Untreated      | 43.3   | 10.9   | 151.8  | 287.6  | 411.3  | 446.3  |
| Allegro Plus   | 0.2    | 2.1    | 30.5   | 110.9  | 60.8   | 136.0  |
| Rombus         | 0.9    | 1.5    | 42.8   | 109.2  | 62.5   | 128.8  |
| Amistar        | 0.8    | 0.9    | 39.6   | 79.4   | 47.0   | 106.5  |
| Opera          | 0      | 0.2    | 35.8   | 41.7   | 12.4   | 33.9   |
| Acanto         | 4.2    | 1.6    | 36.9   | 107.8  | 62.0   | 103.8  |
| Opus           | 0.1    | 0.4    | 38.6   | 89.3   | 30.9   | 96.6   |
| Tilt           | 8.7    | 1.4    | 37.6   | 208.6  | 180.2  | 291.9  |

| Treatment $^a$ | F $^f$ | F–1 $^f$ | F–2 $^f$ | F $^f$ | F–1 $^f$ | F–2 $^f$ |
|----------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Untreated      | 135.2  | 490.1  | 649.7  | 108.6  | 155.5  | 153.8  |
| Allegro Plus   | 5.5    | 45.0   | 98.8   | 33.4   | 48.9   | 52.2   |
| Rombus         | 12.3   | 60.5   | 133.5  | 31.1   | 63.7   | 76.3   |
| Amistar        | 8.9    | 53.3   | 100.1  | 28.0   | 40.8   | 49.0   |
| Opera          | 1.2    | 19.2   | 40.8   | 9.9    | 14.0   | 28.6   |
| Acanto         | 29.2   | 84.7   | 127.3  | 39.9   | 40.7   | 43.0   |
| Opus           | 7.8    | 35.5   | 103.2  | 22.6   | 35.4   | 57.8   |
| Tilt           | 39.1   | 156.2  | 306.7  | 51.7   | 63.6   | 75.1   |

In all treatments AUDPC value difference significant at P $\leq$0.01; $^#$See Table 1 for fungicide rates; $^f$F – flag leaf; $^f$F–1 – first below flag leaf; $^f$F–2 – second below flag leaf.

### 3. The incidence of Stagonospora blotch (\textit{P. nodorum}) on winter wheat ears and grain

The epidemic incidence of Stagonospora blotch in winter wheat canopy is determined by the amount of rainfall, number of rainy days, previous crop and straw residue on soil surface, infected seeds and other factors (Hansen et al., 1994). Gradual epidemics of Stagonospora blotch were characterized by disease arising on successive leaf layers as they appeared during sustain periods of weather suitable for inoculum’s transport and infection. Ordinary spores from infected plants are transported by rain splash to 0.5 m and to 40 cm.
above ground (Griffits & Ao, 1976). Wheat seed infection by *P. nodorum* is common, and infected seeds can be an important source of primary inoculum for foliar epidemics. According to Griffiths and Ao (1976) under the conditions prevailing to *P. nodorum* the significant distance for spreading from infected plant is about 2 m until heading. With this degree of spread less than 1000 infected plants per hectare are needed at the pre-heading stage to generate a widespread and severe attack and this situation arises if only 0.016% of seeds sown gave rise to infected plants. Transmission of the pathogen from infected seeds to coleoptiles can approach 100% over a wide soil temperature range; transmission to the first leaves is less than 50% and is most efficient at soil temperature below 17 °C. At least 44% of infected first leaves can be symptomless. (Shah & Bergstrom, 2000).

On the basis of field trials the efficacy of strobilurin-based and triazole fungicides on Stagonospora blotch on ears and laboratory analyses of grain infestation with *P. nodorum* is discussed. Percent of affected ears was used to quantify the disease incidence. Disease severity was assessed on each plot in five randomly selected places on three adjacent ears using a percentage scale 0, 1, 5, 10, 25, 50, 75. Grain infestation with *P. nodorum* in 2003 was tested using blotter-freezing method (Kietrei ber, 1981) and in 2004 - both blotter-freezing and SNAW agar method (Manandhar & Sunfer, 1991).

As our experiments indicated, both strobilurin and triazole fungicides significantly suppressed the incidence and severity of Stagonospora blotch on leaves (Table 2). However, in the case of sudden outbreak of infection on ears, the incidence of glum blotch was irresistible. In 2003, abundant and severe tan spot infection prevailed and blanketed out Stagonospora blotch on wheat leaves until milk ripe. After some heavy rains at milk ripe Stagonospora blotch developed rapidly and fully occupied ears not only in untreated, but also in fungicide treated plots. In contrast, during 2004 disease developed rapidly before milk ripe and slowly later in the season. Rainy period during stem elongation and from heading to fruit development stage in that year caused a severe Stagonospora blotch infection on leaves (Table 2). Later in the season lack of precipitation and hot weather limited disease severity on glumes. Irrespective of Stagonospora blotch dissimilar incidence and severity on ears in 2003 and 2004 (Table 3), *P. nodorum* infection on wheat seeds was comparable. Similar results were obtained in Poland: correlation of level of seed infestation and subsequent disease severity was in many cases statistically insignificant (Arseniuk et al., 1998). In 2003, in spite of similar fungicide efficacy on leaves and ears only in Opera treatment significant decrease of *P. nodorum* seed infection was observed. In 2004, seed infection in parallel was tested by Blotter-freezing test and on SNAW (Septoria nodorum agar for wheat). Both Blotter-freezing and SNAW showed comparable results. In both experimental years strobilurin fungicides gave better protection of grain against *P. nodorum* infection, in comparison with triazoles.

Wheat seed infestation by *P. nodorum* is common, the extent and range depending mainly on rainfall during the production season (Shah & Bergstrom, 2000). According to Shaw et al., (2008) long term (1844-2003) archived samples analysis fluctuations in amount of *P. nodorum* in grain were related to changes in spring rainfall, summer temperature and national SO₂ emission. *P. nodorum* seed infection is influential primary infection source in wheat crop. *P. nodorum* transmission to seedling coleoptile and leaves occurred over a broad temperature range. Under the high densities at which wheat is sown, a significant number of infected seedlings per unit area may originate from relatively low initial seed infection levels and transmission efficiencies (Shah & Bergstrom, 2000). As Arseniuk et al. (1998) reported planting of highly infected seed resulted in more severe Stagonospora blotch than did the
planting of healthy or only slightly infected seed; however, environmental conditions contributed considerably to disease severity. Planting in clean fields, using seeds with a low level of seed-borne inoculum in addition treated with fungicides and applying foliar fungicide application contributed toward reducing leaf infestation by *P. nodorum*, severity of leaf and glume blotch and incidence *P. nodorum* in the harvested seed (Milus & Chalkley, 1997).

| Treatments# | Infection on ears | Infected grain (%) |
|-------------|-------------------|--------------------|
|             | Incidence (%)     | Severity (%)       |
|             | Blotter test      | SNAW               |
| 2003        |                   |                    |
| Untreated   | 100               | 28.8               |
| Allegro Plus| 100               | 19.4**             |
| Rombus      | 100               | 17.6**             |
| Amistar     | 100               | 12.8**             |
| Opera       | 100               | 12.9**             |
| Acanto      | 100               | 12.1**             |
| Opus        | 100               | 18.8**             |
| Tilt        | 100               | 21.65              |
| 2004        |                   |                    |
| Untreated   | 100               | 3.65               |
| Allegro Plus| 85.0**            | 1.12*              |
| Rombus      | 81.6**            | 1.08*              |
| Amistar     | 73.3**            | 0.80**             |
| Opera       | 58.4**            | 0.58**             |
| Acanto      | 76.7**            | 1.03*              |
| Opus        | 80.0**            | 1.22*              |
| Tilt        | 90.0*             | 2.73               |

* Difference significant at P ≤0.05. ** Difference significant at P ≤0.01; #See Table 1 for fungicide rates;

Table 3. The incidence and severity of Stagonospora blotch on winter wheat ears and grain infestation with *P. nodorum* in response to strobilurin-based and triazole fungicides

During the last several years in Lithuania a clear predomination of *M. graminicola* over *P. nodorum* has been observed (unpublished data). It may be determined by mild winters and agronomic factors. As Shaw et al. (2008) reported, annual variability among of *M. graminicola* or *P. nodorum* was dominated by weather factors occurring over a period longer than the growing season.

### 4. The impact of triazole and strobilurin-based fungicides on the incidence of Fusarium head blight toxic fungi and mycotoxins on winter wheat grain.

The *Fusarium* species predominantly found associated with FHB in wheat and other small-grain cereals all over Europe are *F. graminearum*, *F. avenaceum*, *F. culmorum*, and *F. poae*. Among the less encountered species are *F. cerealis*, *F. equiseti*, *F. sporotrichioides*, *F. tricinctum* and several others which are less pathogenic, but also toxigenic (Bottalico & Perrone, 2002; Birzele et al., 2002). In addition to true *Fusarium* species, *Monographella nivalis* may also cause...
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head blight and can be particularly prevalent where cooler and wetter conditions prevail (Nicholson et al., 2003). The predominant *Fusarium* species on cereal grain during 1999–2002 under Lithuanian conditions were *F. culmorum*, *F. equiseti*, *F. avenaceum*, *M. nivalis* and *F. oxysporum*. The frequency of detection of *Fusarium* spp. micromycetes on cereal grain was 93.5 % (Lugauskas et al., 2004). Most species producing inocula, grow best, and are more pathogenic to cereal heads at warm temperatures and under humid conditions (Doohan et al., 2003). FHB is of particular concern because of the ability of the *Fusarium* species to produce mycotoxins in the grains that are harmful to human and animal consumers. The most frequently encountered mycotoxins in FHB in Europe have proved to be deoxynivalenol (DON) and zearalenone (ZEA) produced by *F. graminearum* and *F. culmorum*. Nivalenol was usually found associated with deoxynivalenol and its derivatives, formed by *F. graminearum*, *F. cerealis*, *F. culmorum* and, in northern areas, by *F. poae*. Moreover, from central to northern European countries moniliformin has been consistently reported, as a consequence of the widespread distribution of *F. avenaceum*, whereas the occurrence of T-2 has been recorded in conjunction with sporadic epidemics of *F. sporotrichioides* and *F. poae*. The beauvericin has recently been found in Finnish wheat colonized by *F. avenaceum* and *F. poae* (Bottalico & Perrone, 2002; Nicholson et al., 2003).

The control of *Fusarium* spp. and *M. nivalis* and the production of DON, including both naturally and artificially inoculated trials, were reported. Application of fungicides to reduce FHB gave a different control of these fungi. Tebuconazole selectively controlled *F. culmorum* and *F. avenaceum* and reduced levels of DON, but showed little control *M. nivalis*. Application of azoxystrobin, however, selectively controlled *M. nivalis* and allowed greater colonisation by toxigenic *Fusarium* species. This treatment also led to increased levels of DON detected. Azoxystrobin application two days post-inoculation increased the production of DON per unit of pathogen in artificially inoculated field trials. This result indicates the potential risk of increasing DON contamination of grain following treatment with azoxystrobin to control head blight in susceptible cultivars (Simpson et al., 2001). The effect of different fungicide treatments on FHB, grain yields and DON was evaluated after artificial inoculation under field conditions with a mixture of *F. graminearum* and *F. culmorum* on five different cultivars of soft and durum wheat. Treatments with cyproconazole + prochloraz and mixture tebuconazole + azoxystrobin significantly reduced the FHB disease severity (by 25 and 77 %) and DON content (by between 32 and 89 %) in the grain as compared with the inoculated control. Yields and thousand grain weight were higher in the plots subjected to fungicide treatments (Haidukowski et al., 2005).

The aim of our experiments was to investigate the efficacy of strobilurin-based and triazole fungicides on FHB in winter wheat and laboratory analyses of grain contamination with micromycetes which can occur on ripening ears of wheat and mycotoxins in relation to the application timing and environmental factors. Furthermore, control of these fungi, and in particular the prevention of increasing concentration of mycotoxins are discussed.

For investigation of mycoflora of grain at different maturity stages (BBCH 75 and BBCH 85–87) non–disinfected grain, taken directly from ears randomly from each plot (10 grains per ear, 10 ears per plot) were planted on PDA (potato dextrose agar). The plates were incubated in the dark at 25 °C for 7 days. The infection level of grain was evaluated in percent (0 - all grains healthy, 100% - all grains infected). Microscopic studies of *Fusarium* fungi were carried out after 7–8 days and were identified on the basis of their cultural and morphological characteristics according to Leslie and Summeral (2006).
The mycotoxins DON, ZEA, and T-2 were analysed by the CD-ELISA (competitive direct enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay) method. The Veratox® quantitative test kits (Neogen corporation, Food Safety Diagnostics), approved by the AOAC Research Institute (Certificate N 950702) were used for the analysis. The optical densities of samples and controls from standard curve were estimated by a photometer Neogen Stat Fax® 303 Plus, using filter of 650 nm. Measured absorbances were automatically converted to the mycotoxin concentration units - µg kg⁻¹. The results were estimated taking into account the lowest calibration curve’s mycotoxin concentration value (LOD-limit of detection), which is for: DON - 100.0 µg kg⁻¹ (ppb); ZEA - 10.0 µg kg⁻¹ (ppb); T-2 - 7.5 µg kg⁻¹ (ppb).

The occurrence of *Fusarium* spp. in wheat ears depended mostly on the climatic conditions during flowering. Continuous rainfall during and after flowering with lower temperatures and longer period of open inflorescence increased grain infection level (Birzele et al., 2002). In 2003, wheat flowered from 20 to 26 of June. During the three ten-day periods before flowering warm weather conditions prevailed, except for several days with weak rain during the heading stage. Only the showery rainfall before and during the flowering occurred. Folicur was applied on 23 June. In 2004, continuous rainfall predominated before, during and after flowering, with lower temperatures. That year wheat flowered from 24 June to 2 July. Folicur was applied on 28 June.

In 2003, the appearance of FHB was late and slight. At dough stage only 12 % of ears showed slight symptoms of FHB (Table 4).

| Treatment #  | 2003       | 2004       |
|--------------|------------|------------|
|              | BBCH 75    | BBCH 85    |
|              | HFB Incidence (%) | Grain surface infection (%) | HFB Incidence (%) | Grain surface infection (%) |
| Untreated    | 0          | 50.5       | 12.0       | 33.3       |
| Opera        | 0          | 45.3       | 1.0**      | 40.8       |
| Tilt         | 0          | 45.3       | 4.0        | 12.5**     |
| Opera and Folicur | 0   | 35.8*      | 4.0        | 34.0       |
| Tilt and Folicur | 0   | 35.0*      | 4.0        | 14.3**     |
| Untreated    | 55.0       | 5.8        | 38.3       | 23.5       |
| Opera        | 31.7*      | 8.5        | 25.0*      | 56.0*      |
| Tilt         | 53.3       | 10.0       | 41.6       | 50.0       |
| Opera and Folicur | 41.7 | 6.0        | 23.3*      | 24.0       |
| Tilt and Folicur | 61.7 | 9.3        | 31.6       | 15.8       |

* Difference significant at $P \leq 0.05$; ** Difference significant at $P \leq 0.01$;

*See Table 1 for fungicide rates and application time*

Table 4. Incidence of FHB and grain infection in wheat at milk (BBCH 75) and dough (BBCH 85) ripe stages in 2003 and 2004

A significant reduction in diseased ears in Opera treated plots at booting was obtained. Slow disease incidence might have resulted from dry plant debris before flowering, because when soil moisture content is below 30 %, ascospore production is not possible. When it is greater
than 80 %, ascospore production is at its maximum. Peak ascospore release occurred 2–4 days after rainfall and its dispersal is associated with rainfall too (Xu, 2003). In 2004, due to the rainy weather, FHB appearance was early and abundant. The first symptoms of infected glumes were spotted at milk ripe. At that time half of the ears were diseased. Later in the season, at dough stage the incidence of FHB was similar to that at milk ripe. Only in Opera treated plots the incidence of FHB was significantly lower than in untreated. The consistent control of FHB, achieved through fungicides under field conditions, depends on the application timing. Studies where fungicides were applied between BBCH 32 and 50 failed to reveal any significant reduction of FHB (Hutcheon & Jordan, 1992). However, when fungicides were applied between BBCH 59 and 70 significant reductions were achieved in both the severity of FHB and concentration of mycotoxins in harvested grain. According to Mathies and Buchenauer (2000), applications of either tebuconazole or prochloraz, 2 days post inoculation (BBCH 65) reduced disease severity by 56 and 41 %, whilst application 8 days pre–inoculation and 9 days post–inoculation were less effective.

In 2003, in spite of unfavourable conditions for FHB at milk ripe in fungicide untreated plots Fusarium spp. was detected on 50.5 % non–disinfected grain, taken directly from ears (Table 4). Application with fungicides at the end of booting did not influence grain infection level, however, additional application with tebuconazole significantly decreased grain infection. Later, at hard dough stage grain contamination with Fusarium spp. was lower than at milk ripe. It might be related to glum residual surface infestation, which at milk ripe together with grain got into PDA. Significant decrease of grain contamination at that stage was recorded in the treatment with Tilt applied at booting and additionally with Folicur at flowering. In 2004, at milk ripe there were found only 5.8–10 % Fusarium spp. contaminated grain, nevertheless at dough ripe the infection level increased markedly, especially in the plots treated with fungicides at booting. In the plots applied with Folicur at flowering Fusarium spp. contaminated grain content was twice as low as in the plots treated only at booting.

In spite of different levels of FHB infection, Fusarium infected grain content (internal infection) after harvesting in untreated plots was found similar to that in 2004 and 2003 (Table 5). It might have been determined by severe epidemics of foliar diseases, early dried leaves and early matured plants in these plots. In 2003, Fusarium spp. infected grains in Folicur treated plots decreased significantly. That year in all grain samples there was detected DON and a slight grain contamination with ZEA and T-2 was found. In all fungicide treated plots ZEA concentration in grain was significantly lower, and especially low in Folicur treatment. T-2 was detected in all grain samples, but at negligible quantities and the influence of fungicide treatment was inconsistent. In 2004, in fungicide treated plots in post–harvested samples Fusarium spp. infected grain made up 12.3–20.8 %, while in untreated 7.8 %. In Opera treatment the increase (20.8 %) was significant. DON concentration in grain samples taken from fungicide treated plots at booting was significantly higher than in untreated and treated with Folicur at flowering. That year relatively high concentration (65.4 µg kg\(^{-1}\)) of ZEA was found in untreated grain samples. ZEA in fungicide treated harvested grain samples was not detected.

Survey of results of two years’ investigation showed that chemical control of FHB and grain contamination with Fusarium spp. under field conditions might be inconsistent. Field trials conducted to assay the efficacy of fungicides against FHB gave conflicting results. Effective chemical control of FHB is confounded by the fact that disease is caused by a complex of pathogens which interact with one another and with saprophytic species such as Alternaria...
### Table 5. Effect of different mode and action fungicides on internal *Fusarium* spp. infection and contamination with mycotoxins DON, ZEN and T-2 in harvested grain

| Treatment # | Fusarium infected grain (%) | Content of mycotoxins µg kg⁻¹ |
|-------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
|             |                              | DON  | ZEN  | T-2  |
| Untreated   | 7.5                          | 160.3        | 27.7  | <LOD |
| Opera       | 7.8                          | 129.8*       | 13.8*  | 7.5  |
| Tilt        | 4.0                          | 125.0*       | 12.5*  | <LOD |
| Opera and Folicur | 2.3                  | 122.0*       | n.d.   | <LOD |
| Tilt and Folicur | 3.3                         | 144.8       | <LOD  | 8.1  |
| Untreated   | 7.8                          | 126.1        | 65.4   | n.d. |
| Opera       | 20.8                         | 135.0        | n.d.   | 7.9  |
| Tilt        | 15.0                         | 142.0        | n.d.   | <LOD |
| Opera and Folicur | 12.3                  | 125.0        | n.d.   | 8.0  |
| Tilt and Folicur | 15.8                         | n.d.        | n.d.   | n.d. |

* Difference significant at $P \leq 0.05$; ** Difference significant at $P \leq 0.01$; #See Table 1 for fungicide rates and application time

spp. and *Cladosporium* spp. (Pirgozliev et al., 2003). According to Milus and Parsons (1994) fungicides benomyl, chlorothalonil, fenbuconazole, flusilazole, propiconazole, tebuconazole had no effect on FHB, mycotoxins levels or yield of harvested grain. Conversely, Siradinou and Buchenauer (2001) showed that applications of tebuconazole 2 days before and 2 days post-inoculation of wheat plots with *F. culmorum* reduced severity of FHB and DON content in wheat grain by 61–89 % and 50–70 %, respectively and metconazole by 69 % and 71 %, respectively. Application of fungicides to reduce FHB gave a differential control of *Fusarium* spp. and *Monographella nivalis*, which is known as non-toxigenic causal agent of FHB. Tebuconazole selectively controlled *F. culmorum* and *F. avenaceum* and reduced levels of DON, but showed little control of *M. nivalis*. Application of azoxystrobin, however, selectively controlled *M. nivalis* and allowed greater colonization by toxigenic *Fusarium* spp. This treatment also led to increased levels of DON detected (Simpson, 2001).

Due to the lack of consistently effective control measures, FHB continues to pose a significant threat to the yield and quality of wheat. Based on our experimental evidence from both field experiments and laboratory investigations, in the future we have to focus on some of the complex interactions between *Fusarium* infections, differential effects of fungicides, environmental factors and associated mycoflora which can occur on ripening ears of wheat. Experimental years were not conducive to the spread of FHB, as a result, efficacy of fungicide use against this disease did not stand out sufficiently, especially in mycotoxin tests. Discussions have been raised in scientific literature recently about the “masked” or conjugated mycotoxins (Berthiller et al., 2007; Galaverna et al., 2009). It is believed that in growing plants, especially under the effects of natural and anthropogenic factors (including fungicides) the already formed toxic metabolites can biotransform into other very similar chemical compounds that are simply not detected by the methods used by us. As a result, our future research will be focused on masked mycotoxins in naturally contaminated cereals.
5. Efficacy of strobilurin based and triazole treatments on the winter wheat senescence, grain yield and quality.

Yield losses due to diseases vary between crops and regions and are often 10–20 % (Hewitt, 2000). Research evidence on the effects of disease incidence and fungicide use on grain quality and safety are diverse and sometimes controversial (Mesterházy et al., 2003; Covarelli et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2005; Polišenská & Tvaružek 2007; Gärtner et al., 2008; Clarck, 2003; Everts et al., 2001; Ruske et al., 2003). This part of our study was aimed to estimate the effects of fungicides containing strobilurins and triazoles on the senescence of winter wheat cv. Zentos leaves, grain yield and quality.

Measurements of the concentrations of chlorophylls, total nitrogen in flag leaves of fungicides - treated plants were started on the third day after treatment and were repeated weekly until the end of vegetation (5-6 weeks). Photosynthetic pigments and nitrogen analyses were not done on the vegetative mass of the treatments that had lost greenness. Chlorophylls a, b and carotenoids concentration was determined according to Ermakov (Ermakov et al., 1987). Samples for the total nitrogen concentration determination in flag leaves were dried, ground by a mill with 1 mm sieve and analysed by the Kjeldahl method, using FOSS Tecator Kjeltec system with 1002 Distilling Unit. Protein concentration in grain was calculated by multiplying the total nitrogen content, measured after Kjeldahl, by the coefficient 5.7. Wet gluten content was determined in flour (milled with Perten 3100 mill) by hand washing with excess water according to AACC method 38-10. Gluten deformation index was measured by IDK-1M instrument (standard LST:1522). The falling number and the sedimentation value according to Zeleny (Zeleny index) were determined following the ICC standard methods 107/1, 118 and 116/1.

The experimental data were compared by the analysis of variance (ANOVA), where the F-ratio was significant, the least significant difference (LSD) was calculated for $P \leq 0.05$ (symbol *) and $P \leq 0.01$ (symbol **). The weather conditions after the resumption of vegetative growth of winter wheat were diverse and were discussed in the previous section of the chapter.

In the absence of fungicide, green leaf area decline was associated with drought or infection with a number of foliar pathogens (Gooding et al., 2000). Loss of chlorophyll is the classical indicator of senescence in plants. Our observation showed very low and inconsistent differences in the concentrations of chlorophylls a+b as well as the differences in nitrogen concentrations between treatments during the first weeks after fungicide spraying. As a result, the current paper will discuss the data of only the last three assessments. Lower concentrations of chlorophylls over triazoles to prolong green leaf area retention was noted under the conditions of the year 2002. Inappreciably lower concentrations of chlorophylls in 2003 were identified in the 5th week after the fungicide spraying in wheat leaves of the treatments sprayed with triazole fungicide Opus (epoxyconazole), and especially with Tilt (propiconazole). In the 6th week in 2002 in all treatments, in 2003 in the untreated and Tilt treated plots, in 2004 in the control treatment only, the leaves had lost their greenness, whereas the vegetation of the rest of the treatments in 2003 and 2004 still continued. Alterations in nitrogen concentrations subject to fungicide application or harvest year have the similar trend like those of chlorophylls. Crop infection with foliar fungal diseases cause leaf drying, colour alterations and reduction of greenness, i.e. leaf pigment loss.
Table 6. Alteration of the concentrations of chlorophylls a+b and nitrogen in the flag leaves of winter wheat cv. Zentos as affected by the fungicide applied

| Year          | 2002     | 2003     | 2004     |        | 2003     | 2004     |        |
|---------------|----------|----------|----------|--------|----------|----------|--------|
| Week after F treatment | 4       | 5       | 4       | 5     | 6       | 4       | 5     |
| Fungicide     | Chlorophylls a+b (mg / 100 g fresh matter) |        |          |        |          |          |        |
| Control       | 238      | 157      | 263      | 204    | NA      | 261      | 357    |
| Allegro Plus  | 241      | 201      | 310      | 280    | 171     | 310      | 360    |
| Rombus        | 271      | 167      | 340      | 306    | 239     | 284      | 375    |
| Amistar       | 226      | 169      | 346      | 305    | 193     | 301      | 385    |
| Opera         | 241      | 173      | 331      | 301    | 219     | 283      | 365    |
| Acanto        | 209      | 199      | 317      | 273    | 207     | 302      | 365    |
| Opus          | 205      | 205      | 311      | 266    | 190     | 297      | 361    |
| Tilt          | 223      | 179      | 325      | 256    | NA      | 291      | 370    |
| Nitrogen (g kg⁻¹ dry matter) |        |          |          |        |          |          |        |
| Control       | 25.2     | 25.6     | 35.6     | 29.8   | NA      | 33.1     | 27.8   |
| Allegro Plus  | 26.4     | 28.2     | 37.6     | 32.4   | 24.7    | 30.6     | 30.1   |
| Rombus        | 27.4     | 27.4     | 37.9     | 35.7   | 28.0    | 31.7     | 30.1   |
| Amistar       | 25.3     | 27.1     | 38.7     | 33.4   | 24.7    | 35.4     | 30.1   |
| Opera         | 27.9     | 27.0     | 39.4     | 34.5   | 25.0    | 34.6     | 31.9   |
| Acanto        | 25.2     | 26.5     | 35.8     | 33.4   | 25.5    | 31.3     | 35.1   |
| Opus          | 25.4     | 26.5     | 37.9     | 32.0   | 24.5    | 32.4     | 32.2   |
| Tilt          | 27.3     | 26.7     | 38.5     | 29.5   | NA      | 33.4     | 31.1   |

*See Table 1 for fungicide rates; *NA - not analysed

Strobilurins inhibit respiration of fungi, while triazoles and morpholines arrest biosynthesis of fungi sterols. These fungicides exert protecting and eradicant effects. Strobilurins and triazoles fungicides application significantly suppressed the epidemic progress of Stagonospora leaf blotch and tan spot on the upper three leaves, including flag leaf both in 2003 and 2004 (Gaurilčikienė & Ronis, 2006). Besides, the weakest control of leaf diseases was in propiconazole treatment.

In sum we can conclude, that all fungicides tested prolonged retention of green canopy of wheat plants in 2003-2004. Chlorophylls concentrations in flag leaves at the end of plant vegetation, i.e. in the fifth week after fungicide treatment, were higher in the plots treated with strobilurins compared with those treated with triazole Tilt and untreated plots. There is abundant information in literature that strobilurins have considerably stronger positive effect on plant metabolic activity than any other compounds (e.g. azoles) (Beck, 2004), with the extension of flag leaf life, related to higher chlorophyll content (Habermeyer et al., 1998; McCartney et al., 2007) and higher CO₂ consumption, i.e. photosynthetic index (Häuser-Hahn et al., 2004; Oerke et al., 2005). According to Zhang et al. (2010) fungicide, including strobilurins, treatments appeared to delay the senescence of wheat and increase the grain yield of wheat, owing to retarding the enhancement of active oxygen species and the decrease of antioxidative enzyme activity during aging of wheat. However, slow up of leaf senescence depends on a variety (Beck, 2004; Habermeyer et al., 1998; Oerke et al., 2005; Ruske et al., 2003). Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out according to the following scheme: A factor fungicide applied, B factor harvest year were used to reveal the significance of...
factors for winter wheat grain yield and quality components tested, as well as for protein and gluten yields (Table 7). The tested factors were significant at $P \leq 0.01$ probability for wheat grain, protein, and gluten yields. The interactions of these factors significantly at $P \leq 0.01$ affected grain yield and at $P \leq 0.05$ protein yield.

| Factor              | Fisher’s test          |
|---------------------|------------------------|
|                     | GY | Pr | Glu | GluDI | ZI | FN° | PrY | GluY |
| Fungicides (F)      | 16.24** | 0.1 | 1.29 | 0.59 | 0.69 | 0.63 | 11.67** | 7.55** |
| Harvest year (Yr)   | 524.5** | 90.76** | 149.4** | 93.9** | 266.0** | 57.42** | 544.1** | 202.1** |
| Interaction FxYr    | 2.48** | 0.93 | 0.47 | 0.54 | 1.02 | 0.75 | 2.14* | 1.22 |

Table 7. Significance of the effect of the fungicide applied and harvest year (2002-2004) on grain yield (GY), protein (Pr), gluten (Glu) concentrations, gluten deformation index (GluDI), Zeleny index (ZI), falling number (FN°), grain protein and gluten yield (PrY, GluY) according to Fisher’s test

However, plant protection with fungicides composed of different active ingredients did not have any impact on grain quality parameters. The interaction between the use (treatments) of plant protection against fungal diseases and harvest year was also statistically insignificant. This observation does not contradict the inferences about the significance of the air temperature and amount of precipitation at different plant development periods for the wheat grain yield and quality, including protein concentration, made by other researchers (Guttieri et al., 2001; Cesevičienė & Mašauskienė, 2008; Triboi et al., 2003; Souza et al., 2004). So, fungicide efficacy on grain quality depended firstly on the weather conditions being conducive to the occurrence of fungal diseases and then on fungicide applied.

Fungicide application significantly increased grain yield in all fungicide-treated plots in 2003 and 2004, and in most plots - in 2002, and especially in the conditions of 2004 (Table 8). The last year was conducive to the occurrence of fungal diseases (Gaurilčikienė & Ronis, 2006). The extra yield amounted to 0.70 and 2.16 t ha$^{-1}$. In 2002, the effect of not all the fungicides used was considerable on the yield increase: the extra yield was statistically insignificant in the plots treated with fungicide, containing only one active ingredient - strobilurin Amistar and Acanto, and triazole Tilt. Both in 2003 and 2004, in all fungicide-treated plots the yield significantly increased at 99% probability level, except for propiconazole treatment where yield increase was of 95% probability level. The data from 2003-2004 as well as the data averaged over all experimental years suggest that the highest winter wheat yield increase was obtained from the plots treated with the fungicide Opera, while the least increase was recorded for the plots applied with triazole Tilt. The plots sprayed with the other fungicide containing strobilurins and triazole Opus gave a similar average grain yield increase. The yield increased due to flag leaf’s senescence delay, which was related to chlorophylls concentration (Table 6 and 8). Because the flag leaf makes up nearly 75% of the effective leaf area that contributes to grain fill (Kelley, 2001), keeping it free of diseases with foliar fungicide application can be beneficial for kernel development.

Fungicides help to retain vegetation of the flag leaves, allowing conditions for larger grains growth. Since in 2002 drought and heat occurred, upper leaves withered up early in all plots, including fungicide-treated ones and TGW increase in most of the treatments was minor (Table 8). However, in 2003 and 2004 the TGW increase was significant in fungicide treated plots, with the two exceptions in 2003 – plots sprayed with strobilurin based fungicide.
Table 8. Effects of fungicide treatment on grain yield (t ha\(^{-1}\)) and thousand grain weight (g) increase

| Treatments\* | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 |
|--------------|------|------|------|
|               | Yield increase | TGW increase | Yield increase | TGW increase | Yield increase | TGW increase |
| Untreated     | 7.52$\dagger$ | 47.1$\ddagger$ | 6.11$\dagger$ | 45.2$\ddagger$ | 8.50$\ddagger$ | 49.7$\ddagger$ |
| Allegro Plus  | 0.94  | 0.4  | 0.78  | 1.2  | 1.85  | 3.8  |
| Rombus       | 0.62  | 0.2  | 0.73  | 2.2  | 1.39  | 4.3  |
| Amistar      | 0.28  | 0.6  | 1.02  | 2.4  | 1.84  | 5.5  |
| Opera        | 0.88  | 1.0  | 1.19  | 3.0  | 2.16  | 5.9  |
| Acanto       | 0.22  | 0.2  | 0.93  | 2.5  | 1.54  | 5.5  |
| Opus         | 0.67  | 1.0  | 0.86  | 2.5  | 1.56  | 4.8  |
| Tilt         | 0.34  | 0.5  | 0.58  | 1.4  | 0.70  | 2.5  |
| LSD 0.05     | 0.461 | 0.88 | 0.475 | 1.42 | 0.549 | 1.12 |
| LSD 0.01     | 0.616 | 1.17 | 0.635 | 1.90 | 0.734 | 1.50 |

$\dagger$See Table 1 for fungicide rates; $\ddagger$TGW – thousand grain weight g; $\dagger$Grain yield and TGW in untreated plots

Allegro Plus and triazole Tilt. The largest grains grew and the highest TGW increase due to the use of fungicides was achieved in 2004, thanks to prolonged period of grain filling and maturation through cool and rainy weather.

Our findings suggest that compared with untreated plots, all fungicides applied in the experiment had only an insignificant effect on all the tested wheat grain quality parameters with rare exceptions (Table 9). Since the protein and gluten are the most important and obligatory indicators describing grain quality, we paid more attention to their variation peculiarities. The tables do not present the data of protein as well as gluten concentration and other quality parameters values for separate treatments of each year since quality variation among treatments was insignificant. In relation to the fungicides use, protein concentration in grain fluctuated within the similar range: 126-148 g kg\(^{-1}\) DM in the plots treated with strobilurins, 130-146 g kg\(^{-1}\) DM – with triazoles and 128-145 g kg\(^{-1}\) DM in untreated plots, even though fungicide prolonged green leaf area retention compared with untreated plots. kg\(^{-1}\) DM in untreated plots, even though fungicide prolonged green leaf area retention compared with untreated plots. Similar regularities and conclusions are found and discussed in literature: the effects of fungicides on grain protein concentration and its relationship with green area retention of the flag leaf were inconsistent over years (Kelley, 2001; Everts et al., 2001).

Protein concentration depended on the year. Protein concentration in the grain of 2003 harvest, averaged across all treatments, was 138 g kg\(^{-1}\) and ranged from

Table 9. Variation of wheat grain quality as affected by the fungicide applied and harvest year

| Quality parameter | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 |
|-------------------|------|------|------|
|                   | Mean | Min | Max | Mean | Min | Max | Mean | Min | Max |
| Protein, g kg\(^{-1}\) | 130  | 126  | 132 | 138  | 136  | 141 | 146  | 144  | 148 |
| Gluten, g kg\(^{-1}\) | 245  | 240  | 254 | 299  | 287  | 311*| 274  | 268  | 278 |
| Gluten DI, units  | 85.1 | 84.0 | 89.2| 78.4 | 76.0 | 81.6| 67.3 | 63.2 | 70.6 |
| Zeleny Index, ml | 43.5 | 39.8 | 47.2*| 63.6 | 62.1 | 65.2*| 57.3 | 54.8 | 58.8 |
| Falling N\(^0\), s | 417  | 398  | 426 | 468  | 461  | 475 | 373  | 366  | 383 |
136 g kg⁻¹ in the plots treated with Rombus (trifloxystrobin+propiconazole), Opera (pyraclostrobin+epoxyconazole) and Opus (epoxyconazole) to 141 g kg⁻¹ in the plots treated with Acanto (picoxystrobin) and the fungicide, containing three active ingredients of different chemical groups, i.e. Allegro Plus (kresoxim-methyl + epoxyconazole + fenpropimorph).

In the yield of 2004 protein concentration varied from 144 g kg⁻¹ (strobilurin Amistar and triazole Tilt treatments) to 148 g kg⁻¹ in Rombus treated plots, with 146 g kg⁻¹ on average. The grain from the 2002 harvest contained less protein, but the differences between treatments did not exceed 95% confidence limits. Some literature sources suggest that if wheat does not receive nitrogen compounds during grain ripening period, less nitrogen will accumulate in grain (Triboi et al., 2003). In 2002, during grain ripening period the weather was hot and sunny, however, shortage of rainfall and the drought interrupted plant vegetation, markedly accelerated grain ripening and at the same time nitrogen flow into grain. It is known that factors and measures aimed to maximize the yield exert an opposite effect on grain quality, especially protein concentration. For example, environmental factors that lead to high yields can also lead to a reduction in protein concentration, partly because it appears that nitrogen quantity per grain is relatively conserved when grain weight is modified by increased temperatures and restricted water availability (Gooding et al., 2003; Triboi & Triboi-Blondel, 2002). The differences in mean annual values of grain quality parameters show that harvest year conditions affected wheat grain quality formation more significantly, than fungicides use. The fact that fungicide-treated wheat plots produced higher grain yield with undiminished protein concentration, indicates that plant protection against fungal diseases exerts a positive effect not only on dry matter but also on nitrogen accumulation in grain. This agrees with the data in literature: there were several instances where grain protein concentration was unaffected despite large (1.5 t ha⁻¹) increases in grain yield following fungicide use (Ruske et al., 2003). While comparing the data of grain yield and protein concentration of the year 2002 and 2003, the consequences of “dilution” effect, i.e. higher yield has a lower protein concentration, could be discerned. However, this phenomenon cannot explain such relationship between the yield and protein concentration of the grain grown in 2004. Dilution of grain protein concentration following fungicide use, when it did occur, was small compared with what would be predicted by adoption of other yield increasing techniques such as the selection of high yielding cultivars (based on currently available cultivars) or by growing wheat in favourable climates (Ruske et al., 2003). The year 2004 was favourable not only for dry matter accumulation but also for effective utilisation of mineral nitrogen for protein biosynthesis. Compared with the control treatment, in the fungicide-sprayed crops photosynthesis was more intensive, during which carbohydrate accumulation and protein synthesis occurred uniformly, which prevented the consequences of “dilution” effect in significantly higher grain yield produced in the plots protected from fungal diseases by fungicide treatments.

Since gluten is some portion of proteins – it is based on a water-insoluble fraction of ones - glutenins and gliadins, there are the presumable consistent patterns of variation the same as for protein concentration. Actually, fungicides tested against fungal diseases mostly insignificantly affected wet gluten concentration in grain (Table 9). Only in 2003 in plots treated fungicide Allegro plus, composed of three active ingredients, grain contained more gluten on average than grain in other plots and significantly (at $P \leq 0.05$) more than in plots treated with only one strobilurin azoxystrobin containing fungicide Amistar and fungicide-
untreated plots. Grains matured in fungicide Allegro plus treated plots exhibited the highest gluten content in 2002 also, and in Amistar - sprayed plots grain had less gluten than the rest treatments all three years of investigation. This observation agrees with the inferences made by other researchers: none of the fungicides caused any significant changes in the wet gluten content or had only minor effect (Tanács et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2004).

Sedimentation is a protein property to swell in weak acid solutions. This is the important bread baking characteristics describing indicator. By averaged data of replications Zeleny index varied in a range 39.8 - 65.2 ml (Table 9) and met the local requirements for first class of grain quality. Due to the use of different fungicides statistically significant differences between the treatments were found in only two cases: in 2002 in the strobilurin-containing fungicide Allegro plus treated plots Zeleny index was higher than that in the other treatments and significantly (at \( P \leq 0.05 \)) higher than in plots treated with Opus, Opera, Amistar and untreated plot. In triazole Tilt fungicide treated plots of 2003 yield matured grains exhibited the highest sedimentation (65.2 ml), which was significantly (at \( P \leq 0.05 \)) higher than in the untreated (63.0 ml), treated with strobilurins Amistar (63.2 ml), Opera (62.1 ml) and triazole Opus (63.0 ml) plots. In Amistar - sprayed treatment matured grain Zeleny index was the lowest or one of the least every year.

For buying wheat in Lithuania the falling number must be not less than 200 seconds. This indicator of grain quality in all treatments satisfied requirements of local standard and was significantly greater than 200s: from 366-382 s in 2004 to 461-475 s in the yield of 2003 harvest (Table 9). In 2002-2003, sunny and dry weather during crop maturation and harvest time could be a factor underlying the very low alpha-amylase, i.e. a high falling number. Plant protection products use did not reveal any reliable influence in any year. Grain yield of 2004 in all treatments exhibited high quality, elastic gluten. Grains matured in 2002 had weaker gluten, i.e. gluten deformation index was higher, but satisfied the local requirements of food grains; the differences among fungicide-treated and untreated plots were statistically unreliable.

Although fungicide use had only a minor effect on the grain quality, the response of protein and wet gluten yield to the plant protection was marked each experimental year (Fig. 1). In most cases protein and gluten yields were higher for the strobilurin-treated plots (with a small exception mostly in 2002) than for those treated with triazole Tilt and untreated. Protein and gluten yields in the plots treated with Opus (3481 and 6896 kg ha\(^{-1}\) during 3 years) were similar to those produced in the plots treated with fungicides containing some strobilurins like Rombus, Amistar and Acanto (3440-3500 and 6735-6804 kg ha\(^{-1}\) respectively). The highest average protein yield, like that of gluten, was obtained when the fungicide used contained both strobilurin and epoxyconazole (Fig. 1, treatments 2 and 5). When estimating protein and gluten yield according to years, it is obvious that in 2004 protein yield was by approximately 1.43-1.57 times higher than that in 2003 and gluten yield - by 1.26-1.48 times higher than that in 2002.

Having estimated the relationship of FHB incidence and grain *Fusarium* spp. (%) contamination with grain quality, statistically significant correlations were found with many grain quality indicators (Table 10). However, the data of these correlations should be viewed critically. Having calculated respective correlations for separate years, a weak but also negative correlation was established only between FHB incidence and Gluten DI and Zeleny index both in 2003 and 2004.
A Multi-aspect Comparative Investigation on the Use of Strobilurin and Triazole-based Fungicides for Winter Wheat Disease Control

Fig. 1. Effect of fungicide treatment on grain protein and gluten yields. 1- no fungicides, 2-Allegro Plus, 3- Rombus, 4- Amistar, 5- Opera, 6- Acanto, 7- Opus, 8- Tilt; *, **difference from fungicide untreated plot significant at $P\leq 0.05$ and at $P \leq 0.01$ respectively; fungicide a.i. see in Table 1

Table 10. FHB incidence (2003-2004) and grain contamination with *Fusarium* spp. (2002-2004) correlation with grain quality indicators. Calculated by the data averaged over replications.

In our experiments, as well as in those reported in the scientific literature, fungal diseases, like FHB, rusts (*Puccinia* spp.) and powdery mildew (*Blumeria graminis*) incidence and fungicide use had only a minor, and harvest year considerable effect on the grain quality (Dimmock & Gooding, 2002; Gärtner et al., 2008). Gärtner et al. (2008) found that the falling number is more dependent on the prevailing climatic conditions than on FHB infection. Due to the FHB, the protein content declined, but only slightly, and the Zeleny index decreased only in some varieties. The *Fusarium* infection did not noticeably influence either the protein content or the water absorption ability of wheat flour (Wang et al., 2005). The fact that fungicide application significantly increased protein and gluten yields is related to the grain yield increase in fungicide treated plots, especially in the year 2004 which was conducive to the occurrence of fungal diseases. To make summarising conclusions on this subject, more detailed further research is needed, since too narrow range of quality data variation among treatments appeared each year.
6. Conclusions

The results of the multi-aspect comparative investigation on the use of strobilurin and triazole-based fungicides for winter wheat disease control suggest that the foliar application of both strobilurin-based and triazole fungicides gave an adequate control of Septoria (P. nodorum, M. graminicola) and tan spot (P. tritici-repentis). The foliar fungicide application contributed towards reducing incidence of P. nodorum in the harvested seed; however, both the control of FHB and assay of mycotoxin contaminations yielded contradictory results. Under the fungicide use a substantial grain yield increase was obtained. The grain yield showed the significant negative linear correlation with AUDPC for both Septoria and tan spot.

Fungicides prolonged green leaf area retention. This effect depended on the year and fungicide origin. The application of fungicides (both strobilurins and triazoles) at the end of booting – heading stages (BBCH 47-55) significantly increased grain protein and gluten yields, but did not diminish grain quality, however, meteorological conditions of the year played a decisive role for grain quality, compared with fungicide treatments. The highest average protein yield, like that of gluten, was obtained when the fungicide used contained both strobilurin and epoxyconazole.

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Plant and plant products are affected by a large number of plant pathogens among which fungal pathogens. These diseases play a major role in the current deficit of food supply worldwide. Various control strategies were developed to reduce the negative effects of diseases on food, fiber, and forest crops products. For the past fifty years fungicides have played a major role in the increased productivity of several crops in most parts of the world. Although fungicide treatments are a key component of disease management, the emergence of resistance, their introduction into the environment and their toxic effect on human, animal, non-target microorganisms and beneficial organisms has become an important factor in limiting the durability of fungicide effectiveness and usefulness. This book contains 25 chapters on various aspects of fungicide science from efficacy to resistance, toxicology and development of new fungicides that provides a comprehensive and authoritative account for the role of fungicides in modern agriculture.

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