

1 **Investigating *in vitro* mating preference between or within the two forms of *Pyrenophora***
2 ***teres* and its hybrids**

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13 Keywords: Back crosses, Hybridisation, Introgression, Recombination, Reproduction vigour,

14 Sexual reproduction.

ABSTRACT15
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Net blotch diseases result in significant yield losses to barley industries worldwide. They occur as net-form and spot-form net blotch caused by *P. teres* f. *teres* (*Ptt*) and *P. teres* f. *maculata* (*Ptm*), respectively. Hybridisation between the forms was proposed to be rare, but recent identifications of field hybrids has renewed interest in the frequency and mechanisms underlying hybridisation. This study investigates the mating preference of *Ptt*, *Ptm* and laboratory-produced hybrids *in vitro*, using 24 different isolates and four different experimental setups. Two crosses in our study produced ascospores during two intervals separated by a 32-35 day period of no ascospore production. For these crosses *Ptt* isolates mated with isolates of the same form during the early ascospore production interval and produced hybrids during the later interval. *Ptm* isolates did not mate with isolates of the same form, instead hybridised with *Ptt* isolates. Analyses based on DArTseq™ markers confirmed that laboratory-produced hybrids, when given the choice to mate with both *Ptt* and *Ptm*, mated with *Ptt* isolates. These results unravel a novel concept that *Ptt* seems to have a greater reproduction vigour than *Ptm*, which could lead to increased prevalence of hybrid incidences *in vivo*.

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32 Sexual reproduction.

33 Barley net blotches caused by the fungal pathogen *Pyrenophora teres* (syn. *Drechslera*
34 *teres*) are important foliar diseases resulting in yield losses and reduced grain quality of barley
35 (Smedegård-Petersen 1974). The pathogen exists as two forms: *P. teres* f. *teres* (*Ptt*) and *P.*
36 *teres* f. *maculata* (*Ptm*), causing net form net blotch (NFNB) and spot form net blotch (SFNB)
37 of barley, respectively. Lesions caused by *Ptt* are characterized by dark-brown narrow, net-like
38 transverse and longitudinal necrotic striations while *Ptm* is distinguished by dark-brown
39 circular to elliptic lesions on the infected leaf sheaths (Smedegård-Petersen 1971). Both forms
40 can co-exist in the same field and there is no clear evidence of morphological or life cycle
41 differences except that *Ptt* can be transmitted through infected seeds while *Ptm* is not known
42 to be seed-borne (Liu et al. 2011; McLean et al. 2009).

43 *Pyrenophora teres* reproduces both sexually and asexually. Asexual reproduction of *P.*
44 *teres* occurs via the production of genetically identical conidia. As *P. teres* is a heterothallic
45 Ascomycetous fungus, two opposite mating types are needed for sexual reproduction
46 (McDonald 1963). Sexual reproduction in *P. teres* is controlled by a single mating type locus
47 (*MATI*), which exists as two alternative forms or idiomorphs, i.e., *MATI-1* and *MATI-2*
48 (McDonald 1963). During successful mating between *MATI-1* and *MATI-2* genotypes, fertile
49 ascomata are formed. Ascomata contain asci and each ascus contains four pairs of ascospores
50 with each pair being genetically identical (Finchman 1971). *In vitro* progeny isolates resulting
51 from sexual recombination (sexual reproduction within form) were reported to have a great
52 genetic diversity (Liu et al. 2011; McDonald 1963; McLean et al. 2009) and exhibited different
53 levels of virulence to those of the parental isolates (Afanasenko et al. 2007).

54 Hybridisation, i.e. successful genetic crossing between non-conspecific individuals,
55 plays an important role in the exchange of genetic material between species. Hybridisation is
56 proposed as one of the major factors shaping the evolution of fungal plant pathogens, which
57 has resulted in the emergence and adaptation of novel crop pathogens (Brasier 2001). In fungi,

58 hybridisation may occur between species due to both sexual recombination and asexual fusion
59 of hyphae (Kohn 2005). However, hybrids are found to be rare in nature as a result of reduced
60 fitness compared to parental isolates (Stukenbrock 2016) and genetic incompatibilities like
61 Dobzhansky-Muller interaction (negative epistatic interactions) (Kohn 2005; Kondrashov et al.
62 2002). Occurrence of hybrids, including ascomycetous species in natural conditions indicates
63 that both genetic incompatibilities and reduced fitness could be overcome under certain
64 environmental conditions, potentially enhancing adaptive diversity and accelerating adaptive
65 evolution of crop pathogens (Stukenbrock 2016).

66 Many population genetic studies have identified *Ptt* and *Ptm* as genetically distinct
67 groups, and sexual reproduction between the two *P. teres* forms, also known as hybridisation,
68 has been reported to be rare (Bakonyi and Justesen 2007; Campbell et al. 2002; Lehmensiek et
69 al. 2010; Leišova et al. 2005b; Leišova et al. 2005a; Rau et al. 2003; Serenius et al. 2005).
70 Seven hybrid isolates have thus far been reported in barley fields, including one each from
71 South Africa (Campbell et al. 2002), Japan (Dahanayaka et al. 2021) and Hungary
72 (Dahanayaka et al. 2021), and two from the Czech Republic (Leišova et al. 2005b) and
73 Australia (McLean et al. 2014; Turo et al. 2021). A hybrid isolate collected from barley fields
74 in Western Australia showed increased resistance to some group 3 fungicides (azole or
75 demethylase inhibitor) and was also found to be rapidly propagated by asexual reproduction
76 suggesting that field hybrid isolates could also be genetically stable, fertile, and potentially
77 possess increased virulence similar to the *in vitro* hybrid isolates (Turo et al. 2021). The recent
78 increase in the identification of hybrids in nature indicates the necessity to broaden the
79 knowledge of the sexual reproduction pattern of this pathogen. Acquiring virulence from both
80 *Ptt* and *Ptm* could lead to the development of complex host and fungicide resistant pathotypes
81 through evolutionary changes, as was recently seen in Western Australia (Turo et al, 2021).

82 A number of studies have produced hybrid isolates following mating between *Ptt* and
83 *Ptm* *in vitro* (Campbell et al. 1999; Crous et al. 1995; Jalli 2011; Louw et al. 1995; Smedegård-
84 Petersen 1971). The progeny resulting from these hybrid crosses have produced net-like, spot-
85 like or intermediate disease symptoms described as jagged-type spots on the host (Campbell et
86 al. 1999; Smedegård-Petersen 1971). Laboratory-hybrids retained their fertility and virulence,
87 and were genetically stable under laboratory conditions over the course of years (Campbell and
88 Crous 2003). Some laboratory-hybrids were less sensitive to triazole fungicides compared to
89 parental isolates while others were reported to show virulence patterns different to both the
90 parental isolates, with some hybrid isolates being virulent on barley cultivars on which both
91 parents were avirulent (Jalli 2011). Exchange of genetic material between *Ptt* and *Ptm* due to
92 hybridisation can, therefore, lead to enhanced virulence and novel pathotypes that may
93 overcome available host resistances. This could directly challenge existing disease
94 management strategies which may become ineffective. Thus, having a better understanding of
95 mating preference of *P. teres* would help in predicting the virulence profile of the pathogen
96 and the development of novel disease resistant varieties.

97 Hybridisation of *Pyrenophora* forms within barley fields may be more prevalent than
98 previously assumed as hybrid isolates may not have been identified in the past due to a lack of
99 an appropriate molecular marker system. For example, isolate CBS 282.31 (collected in 1931
100 in Japan), previously described as *P. japonica* and recently synonymised with *P. teres* based
101 on multi-locus phylogenetic analyses (Crous et al. 1995; Marin-Felix et al. 2019), was revealed
102 to be a hybrid between *Ptt* and *Ptm* based on genome wide DArTseq™ markers ((Dahanayaka
103 et al. 2021). The availability of molecular markers specific to *P. teres* hybrids (Poudel et al.
104 2017) provides the opportunity to rapidly and more reliably screen *P. teres* populations for
105 occurrence of hybrids in the field. Interestingly, previously identified field hybrids, including
106 CBS 282.31, H-919 (Dahanayaka et al. 2021) and WAC10721 (McLean et al. 2014) seemed

107 to be genetically more closely related to *Ptm* than *Ptt*, having a larger percentage of *Ptm* alleles.
108 This would suggest that hybrid isolates themselves more frequently undergo sexual
109 reproduction with *Ptm* rather than *Ptt* in subsequent matings.

110 In order to assess the prevalence of natural hybridisation between the two forms of *P.*
111 *teres* in the field, a field study was designed where a barley variety susceptible to both forms
112 was inoculated with *Ptt* and *Ptm* isolates of opposite mating types (Poudel et al. 2018). Results
113 indicated that *Ptt* and *Ptm* isolates preferred to undergo sexual recombination within their
114 respective forms as no hybrids were collected from the field during three years of trials. A
115 number of reasons were given for the lack of sexual reproduction between the two forms,
116 including pre-mating barriers like sexual selection and temporal difference, and post-mating
117 barriers like gametic compatibility (Giraud et al. 2008; Kohn 2005). It was suggested that
118 competition mating assays involving individuals of both *Ptt* and *Ptm* of opposite mating types
119 need to be conducted under laboratory conditions to observe competition in mating within and
120 between forms.

121 Hence, this study was designed to use molecular assays and genotyping-by-sequencing
122 approaches to i) test the hypothesis that there is a preference of *Ptt* and *Ptm* isolates to undergo
123 sexual recombination within forms rather than hybridising between forms *in vitro*; and ii)
124 investigate whether hybrid isolates have a greater preference for *Ptm* isolates than *Ptt* isolates
125 for mating *in vitro*.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

128 **Fungal material.** For this study, 10 *Ptt* (NB50, NB29, NB81, NB63, NB85 HRS09127,
129 NB90, HRS11093, NB73 and 97NB1) (Lehmensiek et al. 2010; Martin et al. 2020), eight *Ptm*
130 (HRS07033, 07-047, 16FRG073, SNB320, SNB113, SG1, SNB 171 and U7) (Ellwood et al.
131 2019; Lehmensiek et al. 2010; McLean et al. 2014) and six laboratory-hybrids (unpublish data)

132 were used. For conidia production, infected barley leaf samples of *Ptt* and *Ptm* isolates were
133 incubated in Petri plates with sterile moist filter paper at $15 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ under 12 hours of white
134 fluorescent light and 12 h of dark for two days in the incubator (Thermoline, New South Wales,
135 Australia). Single conidium from each isolate was transferred aseptically using a sterile glass
136 needle onto Petri plates containing potato dextrose agar (PDA) medium (20 g/litre; Biolab
137 Merck Darmstadt, Germany). Petri plates were incubated at $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ for ten days to produce
138 mycelium. The six laboratory-hybrids were retrieved from 15% glycerol tubes stored at -80°C
139 and were cultured on PDA.

140 **Establishment of crosses.** To investigate the preference of *Ptt* and *Ptm* for mating, three
141 experiments each with two *Ptt* and two *Ptm* isolates belonging to alternate mating types were
142 conducted (Experiments 1 to 3; Table 1). An additional experiment (experiment 4) was
143 conducted using six laboratory-hybrids, crossed with seven *Ptt* and six *Ptm* isolates (Table 2)
144 to investigate the preference of hybrids mating with either *P. teres* form.

145 Each of the experiments 1 to 3 consisted of two *Ptt* (selected from NB50, NB29 and
146 NB81: *MATI-1*; and NB63, NB85 and HRS09127:*MATI-2*) and two *Ptm* (selected from
147 HRS07033, 07-047 and 16FRG073: *MATI-1*; and SNB320, SNB113 and SG1:*MATI-2*)
148 isolates and comprised of 15 different crosses, including five competition (Cm) crosses, four
149 positive control crosses (Co), and six negative control crosses. Competition crosses (Cm) were
150 established to assess the mating preference of *Ptt* or *Ptm* isolates, where opportunity for both
151 within-form and between-form mating was provided by crossing three or four isolates of
152 different forms and mating types. Positive control crosses (Co) were used to i) confirm the
153 reproductive viability of isolates used in competition crosses under given laboratory conditions
154 by crossing alternate mating types of the same form and ii) establish the ability of isolates to
155 produce hybrids (Table 1). Negative control crosses were established in two settings (data not
156 shown): i) the same isolate was used as both the maternal and paternal isolate and ii) two

157 isolates possessing the same *MATI* idiomorph from different forms were placed on to the same
158 crossing plate (*Ptt MATI-1* and *Ptm MATI-1*, *Ptt MATI-2* and *Ptm MATI-2*). The crosses of
159 experiment 1 and 2 were established on the 28th of April 2019 and experiment 3 on the 23rd of
160 May 2019.

161 Experiment 4 was established according to Table 2 on the 12th of September 2019, with
162 12 competition hybrid crosses (H) and six control crosses (HCo). For hybrid crosses,
163 laboratory- hybrid isolates, previously confirmed though real time PCR form-specific markers
164 (Dahanayaka et al. 2021) and mating type markers (Lu et al. 2010), were placed on the crossing
165 plate along with a *Ptt* and *Ptm* isolate of opposite mating type to the hybrid. Positive control
166 contained hybrids with one of the parents used in the original cross.

167 Crosses were established according to the method described by Martin et al. (2020). Five
168 50 mm long autoclaved pieces of wheat straw were placed onto Sach's agar (Hebert 1971)
169 plates before the agar had set. An approximately 25 mm² mycelial plug was taken from isolates
170 grown on PDA plates and placed adjacent to the barley straw. Mycelial plugs with different
171 isolates were placed at equal distance from each other mycelial plug. The plates were then kept
172 in transparent plastic bags to prevent desiccation and placed inside an incubator at 15°C with
173 a 12 h light/12 h dark photoperiod.

174 **Ascospore collection.** Once ascomata had matured (when ascomata formed a short
175 cylindrical beak or neck), lids of Petri plates were replaced with 2% water agar (Sigma
176 LifeScience, María de Molina, Spain) plates for ascospore collection. After establishing
177 crosses, crosses of experiment 1 to 3 were monitored daily for one year while those for
178 experiment 4 were monitored for 8 months. The number of days taken from producing the
179 crosses to the production of the first ascospore and the ascospore production time period were
180 recorded for each cross. Single ascospores were collected under a dissecting microscope
181 (Nikon SMZ 745, New York, USA) and transferred to PDA plates using a sterile glass needle.

182 Water agar plates were replaced with new plates each day after collecting ascospores. All
183 ascospores produced from the competition crosses were collected. A maximum of 12-13
184 ascospores from control crosses were collected. Plates inoculated with ascospores were placed
185 in an incubator at 20°C to facilitate mycelial growth for fungal DNA extraction.

186 **DNA extraction.** Aerial mycelium of each isolate was scraped aseptically from two-
187 week-old PDA isolates and used to extract DNA using a Wizard Genomic DNA Extraction Kit
188 (Promega Corporation, New South Wales, Australia) according to manufacturer's instructions.

189 **PCR amplification for hybrid identification.** DNA of all the ascospores obtained from
190 experiment 1, 2 and 3 plus positive controls (*Ptt* isolates NB29 and NB50 (Lehmensiek et al.
191 2010; Martin et al. 2020) and *Ptm* isolates HRS06033 and SNB113 (Lehmensiek et al. 2010;
192 McLean et al. 2014) and two laboratory-produced hybrids Pop37.1 and Pop37.8 (unpublished
193 data) were amplified using six *Ptt* and six *Ptm* specific PCR markers (Poudel et al. 2017).
194 Amplification was conducted as described in Dahanayaka et al. (2021)

195 **DArTseq genotyping and data analyses.** DNA samples extracted from progeny and
196 parents in experiment 4 were confirmed for integrity as described by Dahanayaka et al. (2021)
197 and submitted to Diversity Arrays Technology Pty. Ltd., Canberra, Australian Capital
198 Territory, Australia, for DArTseq™ genotyping. DArTseq™ data (SNP and SilicoDArTs)
199 were filtered following the method described by Dahanayaka et al. (2021) using 10% as the cut
200 off value for the maximum number of missing data points for loci and isolates. SilicoDArTs
201 and SNPs were combined for further analyses. Clonal isolates of each cross were identified by
202 the function *clonecorrect* in *poppr* package (Kamvar et al. 2014) in RStudio version 4.0.1 and
203 were removed.

204 **Phylogenetic relationship among isolates.** A neighbor-net network was used in this
205 study in order to depict the relationship among isolates, which provides information about the
206 exchange of genetic material among isolates (Bryant and Moulton 2004). From this

207 information, the respective parental isolates for each progeny were identified. Based on clone-
208 corrected DArTseq™ data, a neighbor-net network was constructed for isolates obtained from
209 competition crosses in experiment 4 using SplitsTree version 4.16.2 (Huson 1998). Networks
210 were produced for each of the hybrid competition crosses based on neighbor-joining (NJ)
211 algorithm described by Saitou and Nei (Saitou and Nei 1987) following the method depicted
212 by Bryant and Moulton (2004). Bootstrap analysis with 1000 replicates was used to test the
213 support of branches on the network.

214 **Multivariate cluster analyses.** Discriminant analysis of principle components (DAPC)
215 is a multivariate cluster analysis which has been developed to detect clusters of genetically
216 related individuals (Jombart 2008). Hence, in this experiment, DAPC was used to identify the
217 structure and the clustering of the progeny isolates and parental isolates to reveal their genetic
218 relatedness. DAPC was calculated from the clone-corrected DArTseq™ data of the isolates
219 using the *dapc* function in the R package *adegenet* version 2.1.2 (Jombart 2008) in the RStudio.
220 The optimum number of clusters in each cross was obtained using the Bayesian information
221 criterion function *find.clusters* and the optimum number of principal component axes to include
222 in the DAPC analysis were calculated via the *xvalDapc* function in *adegenet*.

223

224

RESULTS

225 **Ascospore collection.** Ascomata emerged four to six weeks after establishing the
226 crosses. In experiment 1, four out of five competition crosses (Cm18-1, Cm18-2, Cm18-4 and
227 Cm18-5) produced 2-63 ascospores between 65-190 days after crossing (Table 1). The period
228 of ascospore production of these crosses varied from 41 to 152 days. Out of the four control
229 crosses, two (Co18-1 and Co18-5) produced ascospores 56-83 days after the crosses were
230 established (Table 1).

231 In experiment 2, three competition crosses (Cm18-6, Cm18-7 and Cm18-9) produced 8-
232 63 ascospores between 65-186 days after crossing. The ascospore production period ranged
233 from 11 to 225 days. Three control crosses (Co18-7, Co18-10 and Co18-11) produced
234 ascospores between 76-108 days after establishing crosses (Table 1).

235 In experiment 3, all competition crosses (Cm19-1, Cm19-2, Cm19-3, Cm19-4 and
236 Cm19-5) produced 12-100 ascospores between 50-163 days after crosses were established. The
237 ascospore production period varied from 132 to 73 days. Except for the crosses Cm19-1 and
238 Cm19-2, all other crosses produced ascospores continuously throughout their respective
239 ascospore production period. Crosses Cm19-1 and Cm19-2 had a period of 32 and 35 days,
240 respectively, after the collection of the first ascospores where no ascospores were produced
241 (Table 1). After this period, 12 and 39 further ascospores were collected from crosses Cm19-1
242 and Cm19-2, respectively. Three control crosses (Co19-6, Co19-7 and Co19-10) produced
243 ascospores 56-162 days after establishing the crosses (Table 1).

244 In experiment 4, three crosses (H9, H10 and H12) and two control crosses (HCO-14 and
245 HCo-17) produced 3-16 ascospores. The first ascospore of each cross was observed 141-172
246 days after establishing the crosses (Table 2).

247 **PCR amplification of *Ptt* and *Ptm* specific markers.** PCR amplification of DNA
248 samples obtained from experiment 1 with *Ptt* and *Ptm* specific markers indicated that all
249 ascospores collected from competition crosses Cm18-4 ($n = 2$) and Cm18-5 ($n = 37$) amplified
250 both *Ptt* and *Ptm* markers. On the other hand, DNA samples obtained from competition crosses
251 Cm18-1 ($n = 63$) and Cm18-2 ($n = 18$) resulted in amplification of only *Ptt* specific markers
252 (Table 1). DNA samples from isolates of control cross Co18-1 amplified only *Ptt* specific
253 markers while Co18-5 amplified both form-specific markers.

254 In experiment 2, DNA of all isolates from crosses Cm18-6 and Cm18-7 showed
255 amplification only for *Ptt* specific markers. Seven out of eight isolates from Cm18-9 showed

256 amplification for both *Ptt* and *Ptm* markers while the remaining isolate showed amplification
257 only for *Ptm* markers. Isolates of control crosses Co18-7 and Co18-8 of experiment 2 amplified
258 *Ptt* specific markers while Co18-11 amplified both *Ptt* and *Ptm* specific markers.

259 Many isolates from competition crosses in experiment 3 [Cm19-1 ($n = 5$), Cm19-2 ($n =$
260 39), Cm19-3 ($n = 8$), Cm19-4 ($n = 24$) and Cm19-5 ($n = 10$)] showed amplification for both
261 *Ptt* and *Ptm* markers, while 64 isolates from Cm19-1, 61 isolates from Cm19-2 and two isolates
262 from Cm19-5 amplified only *Ptt* markers. Additionally, one isolate from Cm19-3 and 26
263 isolates from Cm19-4 amplified only *Ptm* specific markers. Isolates from control crosses Co19-
264 6 and Co19-7 amplified only *Ptt* markers while isolates from Co19-10 amplified both *Ptt* and
265 *Ptm* specific markers.

266 Overall, more crosses were observed involving a *Ptt* isolate than a *Ptm* isolate and the
267 crosses involving *Ptt* isolates yielded 63, 18, 63, 39, 64 and 61 ascospores, whereas those
268 involving *Ptm* isolates yielded 1, 1 and 26 ascospores. We therefore, consider *Ptt* isolates to
269 have a higher reproduction vigour than *Ptm* isolates.

270 **Clone correction and data filtering.** After quality filtering of DArTseq™ data obtained
271 for progeny isolates of experiment 4, 1,444 markers (273 SNPs and 1,171 SilicoDArTs) were
272 retained. Clone-correction results showed that two pairs of isolates from cross H9 and one pair
273 from H12 were clonal, hence, one clonal isolate from each pair was removed for subsequent
274 analyses.

275 **Phylogenetic relationship among isolates.** The neighbor-net network results for *P. teres*
276 and parental hybrid isolates from experiment 4 divided *Ptt* and *Ptm* isolates into two distinct
277 groups. Hybrid isolates used as the parental isolates were positioned in between *Ptt* and *Ptm*
278 isolates (Fig. 1). The neighbor-net network of the progeny from experiment 4 showed two
279 distinct subdivisions each for the isolates from hybrid crosses H9 ($n = 13$), H10 ($n = 10$) and

280 H12 ($n = 15$) (Fig. 2A, B and C) and were highly reticulated. All progeny from the hybrid
281 crosses grouped close to the parental *Ptt* and hybrid isolates.

282 **Multivariate cluster analyses.** The optimum number of clusters in the DAPC analysis
283 was found to be four for the progeny isolates of H9 cross (Fig. 3A). One cluster (red: cluster
284 3) out of four consisted of the *Ptm* isolate SG1 used in the H9 cross and cluster 1 (blue: $n = 7$)
285 and cluster 2 (green: $n = 6$) consisted of progeny isolates along with the *Ptt* isolate 97NBi of
286 the H9 cross and the parental hybrid isolate 37_416, respectively. Cluster 4 contained two
287 progeny isolates: H9_3 and H9_12. Cross H10 showed three distinct clusters in DAPC analysis.
288 Six progeny isolates clustered with crossed hybrid isolate 37_416 in cluster 2 (green: $n = 7$)
289 and four progeny isolates clustered with the crossed *Ptt* isolate HSR09127 in cluster 3 (blue: n
290 = 5) (Fig. 3B). Cluster 1 (red: $n = 1$) contained the *Ptm* isolate SNB320 of the cross. The
291 progeny isolates of cross H12 and its crossed isolates NB81, U7 and 37_407 were best fit into
292 four clusters according to the DAPC analysis. Cluster 1 (blue: $n = 6$) and cluster 2 (green: $n =$
293 4) consisted of progeny isolates with the crossed *Ptt* and hybrid isolates, respectively. Cluster
294 4 (cyan: $n = 7$) consisted of only progeny isolates while the crossed *Ptm* isolate formed a
295 separate cluster, cluster 3 (Fig. 3C).

296

297

DISCUSSION

298 In this study for the first time, we investigated the sexual reproduction patterns and
299 preference of *P. teres* and its hybrids for mating *in vitro*. A previous study aimed at inducing
300 natural hybridisation between two *P. teres* forms under field conditions reported that *Ptt* and
301 *Ptm* isolates preferred to mate within their respective forms (Poudel et al. 2018). Therefore, the
302 current study was established to investigate whether there is a preference of *P. teres* isolates
303 for mating *in vitro*.

304 Some of the crosses in experiments 1, 2, and 3, established to identify the preference of
305 mating within or across *Ptt*, showed that *Ptt* isolates preferred to undergo recombination within
306 the same form *in vitro* rather than hybridizing with *Ptm* at early stages of ascospore production.
307 A similar observation was made in a field trial, where originally *Ptt* and *Ptm* isolates were co-
308 inoculated in a barley field to facilitate hybridisation, but all the progenies were detected as *Ptt*
309 or *Ptm* (Poudel et al. 2018). It was suggested that this was due to *Ptt* and *Ptm* being
310 reproductively isolated, which prevented the exchange of genetic material between the two
311 forms (Giraud et al. 2008). It was proposed that the genetic isolation could have resulted from
312 pre-mating barriers like sexual selection (Fernández-Meirama et al. 2017), temporal difference,
313 and post-mating barriers like gametic compatibility, which lead to unfit or nonviable hybrids
314 (Giraud et al. 2008; Kohn 2005) or ineffectual meiosis occurring in the crosses between *Ptt*
315 and *Ptm* (Serenius et al. 2005). Furthermore, sexual incompatibility between the two forms
316 might have arisen due to the environmental conditions, such as temperature and rain fall which
317 favoured *Ptt* to mature while hindering *Ptm* maturity (Giraud et al. 2008).

318 The crosses in this study showed that mating preference for some *Ptt* isolates changed
319 over time. Some crosses (Cm19-1 and Cm19-2) in experiment 3 were established to assess
320 whether there is a preference of *Ptt* to recombine with the same form rather than hybridizing
321 with *Ptm*. Even though the majority of progeny were found to be *Ptt* isolates, many progeny
322 isolates produced in the second round of ascospore production were hybrids, confirming that
323 the preference of *Ptt* under *in vitro* conditions could change with time. In the current study,
324 even though *Ptt* and *Ptm* were crossed at the same time, *Ptm* mycelia involved in sexual
325 recombination might have matured later than *Ptt* mycelia. Late maturity of *Ptm* mycelia for
326 mating in the first round of ascospore production may have led to the generation of only *Ptt*
327 offspring. Hybrid offspring found in Cm19-1 and Cm19-2 crosses in the second round of
328 ascospore production could have resulted from the availability of mature *Ptm* mycelium for

329 sexual reproduction., This suggests that pre-mating genetic isolation barriers/genetic
330 incompatibility could be overcome over time (Stukenbrock 2016).

331 Progenies of some crosses revealed that *P. teres* isolates do not possess any preference
332 to mate within the same form when both forms and mating types were present. Progeny isolates
333 from cross Cm18-5 and more than 80% of isolates from cross Cm19-5 were found to be
334 hybrids, indicating that in these crosses *Ptt* and *Ptm* did not have any preference for the same
335 form but sexual reproduction occurred randomly under *in vitro* conditions. Furthermore, these
336 crosses needed longer to produce the first ascospores compared to other crosses, suggesting
337 that maturity of mycelia for sexual reproduction for some of the parents in these crosses could
338 have been delayed.

339 Our results showed that *Ptm* isolates preferred *Ptt* isolates for mating when given the
340 choice between *Ptm* and *Ptt* isolates of opposite mating type. Of the crosses established to
341 identify the mating preference of *Ptm in vitro*, only three (Cm18-9, Cm19-3 and Cm19-4)
342 produced ascospores. Majority of progeny isolates collected from all three crosses produced
343 progenies of hybrid isolates, suggesting that crossed *Ptm* isolates do not have a preference for
344 the respective *Ptm* isolate to recombine *in vitro* conditions. In comparison to most of the *Ptt*
345 crosses (Cm18-1, Cm18-6, Cm18-7, Cm19-1 and Cm19-2), *Ptm* crosses (Cm18-4, Cm18-9
346 and Cm19-4) required a longer period to produce the first ascospore. The laboratory conditions
347 set in this study could have delayed the maturity of the *Ptm* mycelium. Also, delaying of the
348 mycelium for sexual reproduction could be the reason behind the absence of ascospores from
349 the *Ptm* cross Cm18-8. Hybrid formation in these *Ptm* crosses could also be due to *Ptt* having
350 greater vigour to recombine/hybridise with a suitable mating type regardless of the form of the
351 isolate. A similar observation was demonstrated for strains of *Microbotryum violaceum*, an
352 anther smut fungus, taken from two *formae speciales* of *Silene latifolia* and *S. dioica* (Van
353 Putten et al. 2003). Of the strains from the two *formae speciales*, strains from *S. latifolia*

354 outcompeted and had higher frequency of conjugation than strains from *S. dioica* in both male
355 hosts of *S. latifolia* and *S. dioica*, which was similar to how *Ptt* outcompeted *Ptm* in the
356 presence of both *Ptt* and *Ptm*. Further studies are warranted with different laboratory
357 conditions, *e.g.*, different temperature or light intensities to determine whether *Ptm* isolates
358 prefer to mate with *Ptm* in the presence of *Ptt* under different laboratory conditions or whether
359 these hybrids were the result of high *Ptt* reproduction vigour.

360 Results of the current study showed that the preference of laboratory-produced hybrid
361 isolates was to mate with *Ptt*. Previous field collected hybrids from Leišova et al. (2005a)
362 (PTM-15 and PTM-16), McLean et al. (2014) (WAC17021), Dahanayaka et al. (2021) (H-919
363 and CBS 281.31), and Turo et al. (2021) were genetically closer to *Ptm* than *Ptt*. Hence,
364 experiment 4 was established to get an insight into the nature of progeny arising from crosses
365 between hybrids in the presence of both *Ptt* and *Ptm*. Clustering of all progeny isolates of H9,
366 H10 and H12 with the respective *Ptt* parent of the cross indicated the preference of hybrid
367 isolates to mate with *Ptt* isolates rather than *Ptm* isolates. These results also suggest that *Ptt*
368 isolates have a higher ability or higher reproduction vigour compared to *Ptm* under the given
369 laboratory conditions. Environmental conditions used in the experiment could have favoured
370 the crossing between hybrid and *Ptt* isolates. Successful production of ascospores of these
371 crosses confirms the fertility of hybrid isolates and their ability to integrate with the *P. teres*
372 population.

373 Progeny isolates from crosses H9, H10 and H12 showed evidence for introgressive
374 hybridization of laboratory-hybrids to parental forms of *P. teres*, namely *Ptt*. Repeated
375 introgression/backcrossing of hybrids in oomycetes proposed to “dilute” or reduce the genetic
376 material of hybrids and change the hybrid genome towards the parental species while retaining
377 adaptive traits from both species (Baack and Rieseberg 2007). The neighbor-net networks and
378 DAPC analyses of this study showed that genomic characters of these laboratory-hybrid

379 progenies shifted toward the *Ptt* genome and reduced the hybrid genetic characters. Repeated
380 introgression of *P. teres* hybrids with their parental forms in fields may have left these
381 unrecognised in nature. Introgression/backcrossing may accelerate the adaptive evolution
382 through descending heritable/adaptive genetic characters between species (Arnold 2004) and
383 result in novel pathogenic fungi (Menardo et al. 2016). Progeny of natural hybrids, along with
384 introgressive hybrids, occurred between *Melampsora medusae* and *M. occidentalis*, two rust
385 pathogens of *Populus deltoides* and *P. trichocarpa*, respectively (Newcombe et al. 2000).
386 These progeny isolates were found to be virulent on a hybrid population of *Populus deltoides*
387 and *P. trichocarpa*, which was originally developed against *M. occidentalis* (Newcombe et al.
388 2000). Hybrids and introgressive hybrids of *P. teres* could also have devastating effects on
389 barley varieties which have been developed against either *Ptt* or *Ptm*. Identifying heritable
390 genes of *P. teres* through developing backcrosses would allow us to recognize inheritable
391 genes/genomic regions and expand the knowledge of this challenging pathogen.

392 The identification of field hybrids in recent studies has led to the understanding that field
393 hybrids may not have been detected in previous studies due to the absence of an appropriate
394 marker system and not due to the absence of field hybrids (Dahanayaka et al. 2021). The
395 possibility of retaining the fertility, virulence and genetic stability of laboratory-produced
396 hybrids (Campbell and Crous 2003) and decreased fungicide sensitivity and rapid asexual
397 reproduction of field hybrids (Turo et al. 2020) suggest potential for integration with the local
398 *P. teres* population. Thus, regular monitoring of *P. teres* isolates in barley fields is vital. Also,
399 further studies should be conducted under different laboratory conditions including
400 temperature, light intensities, culture medium and field conditions, including glasshouse
401 experiments, to gain comprehensive knowledge on the sexual reproduction patterns and
402 reproduction vigour of *P. teres* and its hybrids.

403 In conclusion, the *P. teres* crosses that were established to identify the mating preference
 404 of *Ptt* isolates in this study revealed that *Ptt* isolates preferred to undergo recombination with
 405 the respective *Ptt* isolates at the early stages of their maturity but over time *Ptt* preferred to
 406 undergo hybridisation with *Ptm* isolates. In contrast to *Ptt*, *Ptm* isolates did not have preference
 407 to undergo recombination with *Ptm* and instead showed preference towards hybridisation with
 408 *Ptt*. The laboratory-hybrids preferred to undergo sexual reproduction with *Ptt* rather than *Ptm*
 409 isolates. These results suggest that *Ptt* isolates have a greater reproduction vigour than *Ptm*
 410 hence, *Ptm* and hybrid isolates were forced to undergo sexual reproduction with *Ptt*. These
 411 findings indicate the high potential for production of hybrids *in vitro* and would support the
 412 development of a reproductive model and a better understanding of speciation/form
 413 differentiation and evolution of *P. teres*. The potential for more frequent occurrences of field
 414 hybrids under suitable environmental conditions, could lead to novel, more complex and highly
 415 virulent pathotypes with both *Ptt* and *Ptm* characteristics. Thus the development of novel barley
 416 lines which can withstand both *Ptt* and *Ptm* infections is vital.

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539 mating between fungal strains of the anther smut *Microbotryum violaceum* from the
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542 Table 1. Meta data of *Pyrenophora teres* crosses of experiment 1 to 3. The number of ascospores produced per cross, results of PCR
 543 amplification with the form-specific markers and ascospore production time are given

Cross ID ^a	<i>Ptt 1</i> ^b	<i>Ptt 2</i> ^c	<i>Ptm 1</i> ^d	<i>Ptm 2</i> ^e	No. of ascospores ^f	<i>Ptt</i> specific markers ^g	<i>Ptm</i> specific markers ^h	Both types of markers ⁱ	Days to produce the first ascospore ^j	Production period (Days) ^k
Experiment 1										
Cm18-1	NB50	NB63	HRS07033	-	63	63	0	0	65	125
Cm18-2	NB50	NB63	-	SNB320	18	18	0	0	190	44
Cm18-3	NB50	-	HRS07033	SNB320	0	0	0	0	NA	0
Cm18-4	-	NB63	HRS07033	SNB320	2	0	0	2	190	41
Cm18-5	NB50	NB63	HRS07033	SNB320	37	0	0	37	185	152
Co18-1	NB50	NB63	-	-	11	11	0	0	56	NA
Co18-2	-	-	HRS07033	SNB320	0	0	0	0	NA	NA
Co18-4	NB50	-	-	SNB320	0	0	0	0	NA	NA
Co18-5	-	NB63	HRS07033	-	3	0	0	3	83	NA
Experiment 2										

Cm18-6	NB29	NB85	07-047	-	63	63	0	0	65	225
Cm18-7	NB29	NB85	-	SNB113	39	39	0	0	65	31
Cm18-8	NB29	-	07-047	SNB113	0	0	0	0	NA	NA
Cm18-9	-	NB85	07-047	SNB113	8	0	1	7	186	11
Cm18-10	NB29	NB85	07-047	SNB113	0	0	0	0	NA	NA
Co18-7	NB29	NB85	-	-	12	12	0	0	76	NA
Co18-8	-	-	07-047	SNB113	12	0	12	0	107	NA
Co18-10	NB29	-	-	SNB113	0	0	0	0	NA	NA
Co18-11	-	NB85	07-047	-	2	0	0	2	108	NA

Experiment 3

Cm19-1	NB81	HRS09127	16FRG073	-	69	64 (57+7 l)	0	5 ^l	50	131 (1-76 and 109-131) ^m
Cm19-2	NB81	HRS09127	-	SG1	100	61	0	39 ⁿ	55	132 (1-71 and 107-132) ^o
Cm19-3	NB81	-	16FRG073	SG1	9	0	1	8	82	80
Cm19-4	-	HRS09127	16FRG073	SG1	50	0	26	24	101	119

Cm19-5	NB81	HRS09127	16FRG073	SG1	12	2	0	10	163	73
Co19-6	NB81	HRS09127	-	-	13	13	0	0	56	NA
Co19-7	-	-	16FRG073	SG1	11	0	11	0	91	NA
Co19-9	NB81	-	-	SG1	0	0	0	0	NA	NA
Co19-10	-	HRS09127	16FRG073	-	12	0	0	12	162	NA

544

545 ^a Identity of cross

546 ^b Mating type 1 *Ptt* isolates used in the experiment

547 ^c Mating type 2 *Ptt* isolates used in the experiment

548 ^d Mating type 1 *Ptm* isolates used in the experiment

549 ^e Mating type 2 *Ptm* isolates used in the experiment

550 ^f Number of ascospores produced by the respective cross

551 ^g Number of isolates which only amplified with *Ptt* specific markers

552 ^h Number of isolates only amplified with *Ptm* specific markers

553 ⁱ Number of isolates amplified with both *Ptt* and *Ptm* specific markers

554 ^j Number of days to produce the first ascospore

555 ^k Number of days ascospores were produced and collected

556 ^l Ascospores were produced in the second round ($n = 12$)

557 ^m Ascospores were produced in two time periods, day 1 to day 75 first period, day 76 to day 108 no ascospore production and day 109 to day 131
558 second period

559 ⁿ Ascospores were produced in the second round ($n = 39$)

560 ^o Ascospores were produced in two time periods, day 1 to day 71 first period, day 72 to day 106 no ascospore production and day 107 to day 132
561 second period

562 NA Not available

563

564 Table 2. Meta data for *Pyrenophora teres* isolates used in experiment 4 with the number of ascospores produced by each cross and ascospore
565 production time given

Cross ID ^a	Hybrid ^b	Mat ^c	Hybrid cross ^d	<i>Ptt</i> ^e	Mat ^f	<i>Ptm</i> ^g	Mat ^h	No. of ascospores ⁱ	Days to produce the first ascospore ^j	Production period (Days) ^k
H1	30_1	<i>Ptm1</i>	NB73 × SNB171	97NB1	2	SG1	2	0	NA	NA
H2	30_1	<i>Ptm1</i>	NB73 × SNB171	HRS09127	2	SNB320	2	0	NA	NA
H3	30_3	<i>Ptt2</i>	NB73 × SNB171	HRS11093	1	16FRG073	1	0	NA	NA
H4	30_3	<i>Ptt2</i>	NB73 × SNB171	NB81	1	U7	1	0	NA	NA
H5	34_8	<i>Ptm1</i>	NB90 × HRS07033	97NB1	2	SG1	2	0	NA	NA
H6	34_8	<i>Ptm1</i>	NB90 × HRS07033	HRS09127	2	SNB320	2	0	NA	NA
H7	34_18	<i>Ptt2</i>	NB90 × HRS07033	HRS11093	1	16FRG073	1	0	NA	NA

H8	34_18	<i>Ptt2</i>	NB90 × HRS07033	NB81	1	U7	1	0	NA	NA
H9	37_416	<i>Ptm1</i>	NB63 × HRS07033	97NB1	2	SG1	2	15 ^l	141	48
H10	37_416	<i>Ptm1</i>	NB63 × HRS07033	HRS09127	2	SNB320	2	10	155	52
H11	37_407	<i>Ptt2</i>	NB63 × HRS07033	HRS11093	1	16FRG073	1	0	NA	NA
H12	37_407	<i>Ptt2</i>	NB63 × HRS07033	NB81	1	U7	1	16 ^m	146	49
HCo-13	30_1	<i>Ptm1</i>	NB73 × SNB171	NB73	2	-	-	0	NA	NA
HCo-14	30_3	<i>Ptt2</i>	NB73 × SNB171	-	-	SNB171i	1	3	172	NA
HCo-15	34_8	<i>Ptm1</i>	NB90 × HRS07033	NB90	2	-	-	0	NA	NA
HCo-16	34_18	<i>Ptt2</i>	NB90 × HRS07033	-	-	HSR07033	1	0	NA	NA

HCo-17	37_416	<i>Ptm1</i>	NB63 × HRS07033	NB63i	2	-	-	8	170	NA
HCo-18	37_407	<i>Ptt2</i>	NB63 × HRS07033	-	-	HSR07033	1	0	NA	NA

-
- 566
 - 567 ^a Identity of the crosses
 - 568 ^b Hybrid isolates used in the crosses
 - 569 ^c Mating type of the hybrid isolates used
 - 570 ^d Parental genotypes of the hybrid isolates
 - 571 ^e *Ptt* isolates used in experiment 4
 - 572 ^f Mating type of the *Ptt* isolates used
 - 573 ^g *Ptm* isolates used in experiment 4
 - 574 ^h Mating type of the *Ptm* isolates used
 - 575 ⁱ Number of ascospores produced by the respective cross

576 ^j Number of days to produce the first ascospore

577 ^k Number of days ascospores were produced by the respective cross

578 ^l Out of 15, 13 isolates were retain as two pairs of isolates were clones based on DArTseq™

579 ^m Out of 16, 15 isolates were retain as one pair of isolates were clones based on DArTseq™

580 - Not applicable

581 Figure captions

582 **Fig. 1.** Neighbor-net network constructed for *Pyrenophora teres* *Ptt* (blue), *Ptm* (red) and the
583 parental hybrid isolates (green) used for hybrid competition crosses H9, H10 and H12, with
584 1000 bootstrap replicates, based on DArTseq™ data.

585 **Fig. 2.** Neighbor-net networks constructed using neighbour-net distance matrix with 1000
586 bootstraps for progeny isolates of *Pyrenophora teres* hybrid competition crosses (A) H9 (B)
587 H10 and (C) H12 based on DArTseq™ data. Different colours depict progeny (black), parental
588 *Ptt* (blue), parental *Ptm* (red), and parental hybrid (green) isolates used to establish the cross.

589 **Fig. 3.** Discriminant analysis of principal components for progeny isolates of *Pyrenophora*
590 *teres* hybrid competition crosses (A) H9 (B) H10 and (C) H12 with their respective *Ptt*, *Ptm*
591 and parental hybrid isolates. Blue and green circles include progeny isolates as well as with the
592 *Ptt* and parental hybrid isolates for each cross. Cyan circles represent only progeny isolates,
593 and red circles *Ptm* isolates of the respective cross. The distribution of the eigenvalues of
594 principal component analysis (PCA) and discriminant analysis (DA) indicate that the first two
595 principal components explain approximately 50% of the total genetic variation.

596

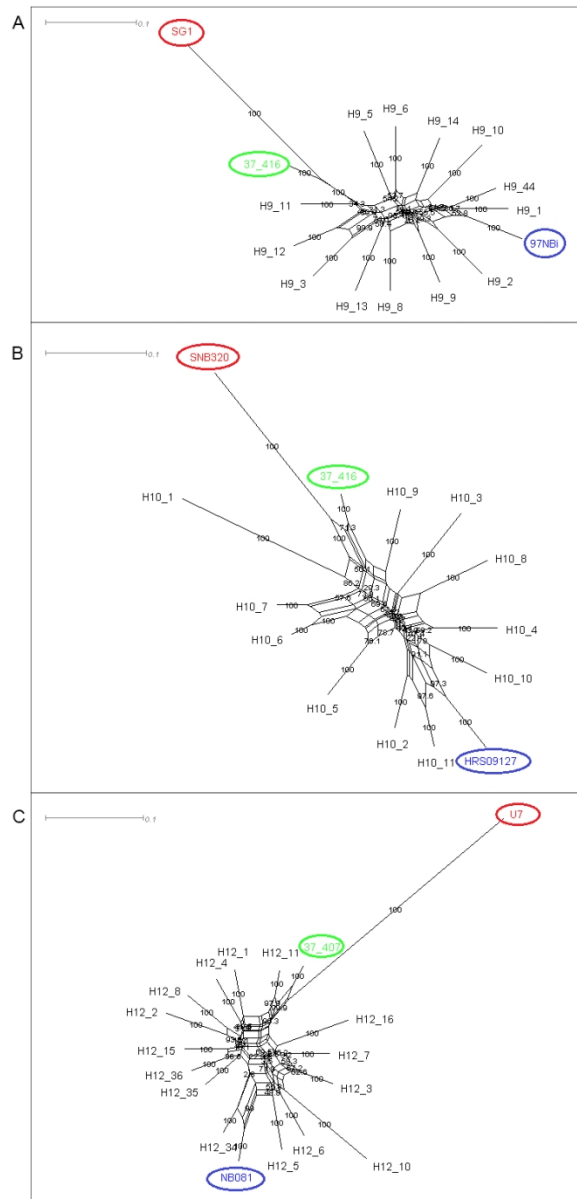


Fig. 2. Neighbor-net networks constructed using neighbour-net distance matrix with 1000 bootstraps for progeny isolates of *Pyrenophora teres* hybrid competition crosses (A) H9 (B) H10 and (C) H12 based on DArTseq™ data. Different colours depict progeny (black), parental *Ptt* (blue), parental *Ptm* (red), and parental hybrid (green) isolates used to establish the cross.

202x411mm (96 x 96 DPI)

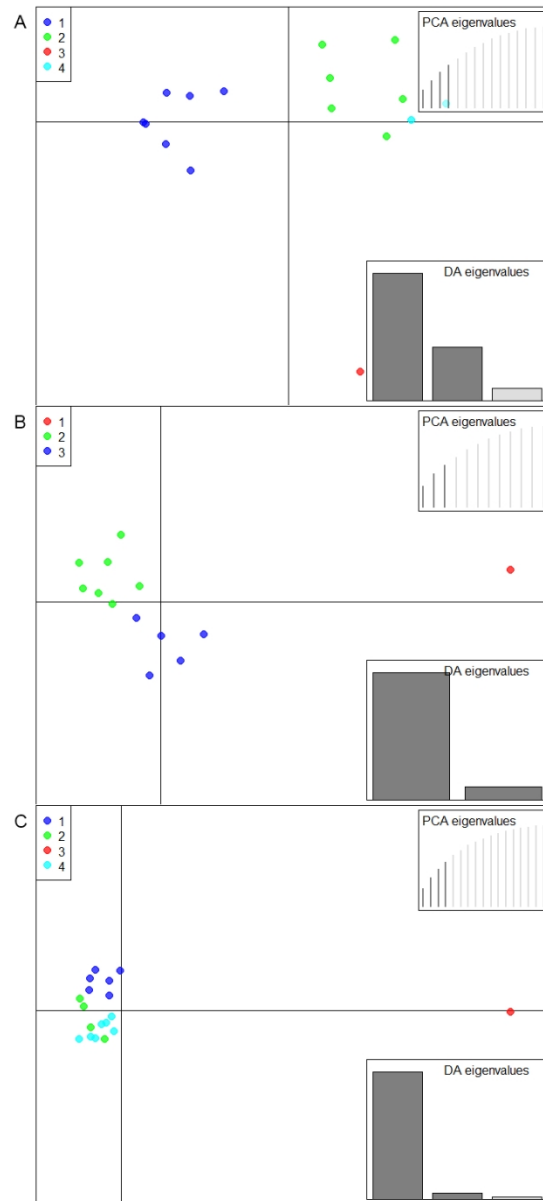


Fig. 3. Discriminant analysis of principal components for progeny isolates of *Pyrenophora teres* hybrid competition crosses (A) H9 (B) H10 and (C) H12 with their respective *Ptt*, *Ptm* and parental hybrid isolates. Blue and green circles include progeny isolates as well as with the *Ptt* and parental hybrid isolates for each cross. Cyan circles represent only progeny isolates, and red circles *Ptm* isolates of the respective cross. The distribution of the eigenvalues of principal component analysis (PCA) and discriminant analysis (DA) indicate that the first two principal components explain approximately 50% of the total genetic variation.

189x409mm (96 x 96 DPI)