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1 **Phenotypic plasticity of *Monilinia* spp.in response to light wavelengths: from *in***
2 ***vitro* development to virulence on nectarines**

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23 **Abstract**

24 The development of brown rot in stone fruit caused by the necrotrophic fungus *Monilinia*
25 spp. is influenced by many abiotic factors, such as temperature, humidity, and light.
26 Specifically, filamentous fungi perceive light as a signal for ecophysiological and
27 adaptive responses. We have explored how specific light wavelengths affect the *in vitro*
28 development, the regulation of putative development genes and the virulence of the main
29 species of *Monilinia* (*M. laxa*, *M. fructicola* and *M. fructigena*). After subjecting
30 *Monilinia* spp. to different light wavelengths (white, black, blue, red, far-red) for 7 days,
31 several differences in their phenotype were observed among light conditions, but also
32 among species. These species of *Monilinia* exhibited a different phenotypic plasticity in
33 response to light regarding pigmentation, growth, and specially conidiation of colonies.
34 In this sense, we observed that the conidial production was higher in *M. laxa* than *M.*
35 *fructicola*, while *M. fructigena* showed an inability to produce conidia under the tested
36 conditions. Growth rate among species was significantly lower in *M. fructicola* under red
37 light wavelength while among light conditions it was increased under far-red light
38 wavelength for *M. laxa* and under black light for *M. fructicola*; in contrast, no statistical
39 differences were observed for *M. fructigena*. Gene expression analysis of 13 genes
40 involved in fungal development of *Monilinia* spp. revealed a significant difference among
41 the three species of *Monilinia*, and especially depended on light wavelengths. Among
42 them, a high expression of *OPT1*, *RGS2*, *RGS3* and *SPP1* genes was observed in *M. laxa*,
43 and *LTF1* and *STE12* in *M. fructicola* under black light. In contrast, a high expression of
44 *REG1* and *C6TF1* genes occurred in both *M. fructicola* and *M. laxa* subject to red and
45 far-red light wavelength, respectively. When nectarines were artificially infected with *M.*
46 *laxa* and *M. fructicola* subjected to black light, the virulence was clearly reduced, but not
47 in *M. fructigena*. Overall, results presented herein demonstrate that light wavelengths are

48 a key abiotic factor for the biology of *Monilinia* spp., specially modulating its capacity to
49 form conidia, and thus, influencing its spreading and the onset of the disease on nectarines
50 during postharvest.

51

52 **Keywords:** abiotic factor, brown rot, asexual reproduction, development genes, *Prunus*
53 *persica*, stone fruit.

54 1. Introduction

55 Brown rot is caused by the fungus *Monilinia* spp., which belongs to the Sclerotiniaceae
56 family and comprises several species. Most of them are considered pathogens and present
57 a necrotrophic lifestyle, characterized by colonizing the fruit tissues causing cell death.
58 Among them, *Monilinia laxa* (Aderhold and Ruhland), *M. fructicola* (G. Winter) and *M.*
59 *fructigena* (Honey) are considered the main species responsible of brown rot in stone and
60 in pome fruit, causing important economic losses in the field and at postharvest (Obi et
61 al., 2018). Specifically, *M. laxa* was the predominant causal agent of brown rot in stone
62 fruits, until *M. fructicola* increased its presence in Spain since its appearance in (De Cal
63 et al., 2009), coexisting then with *M. laxa*. On the other hand, *M. fructigena* is the
64 predominant fungus in pome fruit (Gril et al., 2008), although it is also able to infect stone
65 fruit. The susceptibility of stone fruit to brown rot development is variable and depends
66 on the host but also on several environmental conditions. In this sense, the most studied
67 factors that influence *Monilinia* spp. occurrence are temperature and humidity (Bernat et
68 al., 2018), but there are also other abiotic factors such as light that are less studied,
69 affecting the development and virulence of fungi (Schumacher, 2017). In general,
70 organisms use different light wavelengths to generate energy (e. g. photosynthesis) and
71 also to protect themselves from its harmful effects. Recent advances have shed light on
72 various aspects of fungal virulence highlighting the role of light wavelengths on
73 modulating virulence factors (John et al., 2021). The responses of pathogenic fungi to
74 light wavelength include changes in vegetative growth, reproductive structures, circadian
75 clock and metabolic processes (Roden and Ingle, 2009; Tisch and Schmoll, 2010), both at
76 transcriptional and metabolic level, displaying a phenotypic plasticity (Kronholm et al.,
77 2016). Although some studies already exist for other pathogens such as *Botrytis cinerea*
78 determining the morphological and metabolic changes in response to light (Schumacher,

79 2017), scarce information is currently available regarding *Monilinia* spp. Recent studies
80 have characterized the light-sensing machinery to evaluate the effect of light wavelength
81 on colony growth and conidiation of several *Monilinia laxa* isolates (Rodríguez-Pires et
82 al., 2021b). Furthermore, a study from (Balsells-Llauradó et al., 2021), aimed to decipher
83 the effect of exposing both *M. laxa* and *M. fructicola* under lighting treatments (full-
84 spectrum light) and its capacity to infect fruit. In the case of *M. fructigena*, Bannon et al.,
85 2009 assessed the ability to sense and react to light and light/dark cycles. This information,
86 together with the literature already available on other fungi, points out to the crucial role
87 of light on the development of the three species of *Monilinia* and their ability to cause
88 brown rot in stone fruit. Thus said, the main objective of this study was to evaluate the
89 effect of the different light wavelengths on: i) *in vitro* ecophysiology and gene expression
90 of several development-related genes of *M. laxa*, *M. fructicola* and *M. fructigena*, ii) *in*
91 *vivo* studies related to the infectivity of the three species of *Monilinia* in nectarines.

92

93 **2. Materials and Methods**

94 **2.1. Fungal strains and culture conditions**

95 In this study three species of *Monilinia* were evaluated: *M. laxa* (ML8L), *M. fructicola*
96 CPMC6) and *M. fructigena* (GENA6). *Monilinia laxa* and *M. fructicola* were deposited
97 in the Spanish Culture Type Collection (CECT 21100 and CECT 21105, respectively),
98 and the Bioproject code for *M. fructigena* is PRJNA707424.

99 Conidial suspensions were prepared from 7–9-day-old cultures grown on PDA
100 supplemented with 25 % tomato pulp (PDA-T). For both *M. laxa* and *M. fructicola*
101 species, inoculum was prepared as described by Baró-Montel et al. (2019b). Due to the
102 inability of *M. fructigena* to produce conidia, the fungal suspension composed
103 predominantly of filamentous structures and scarce conidia, was obtained by recovering

104 7–9-day-old culture surface and introducing it in a sterile full-page filter bag (BagPage,
105 interscience) with 5 mL of sterile water containing 0.01 % (w/v) Tween-80. The bag was
106 then placed in the homogenizer (MiniMix 100 P CC) for 4 minutes and the obtained
107 fungal suspension was recovered for further assays.

108 **2.2. Light conditions**

109 To analyse the light effect on the phenotypic plasticity of *Monilinia* spp., different light
110 wavelengths were evaluated: white light (Ta = 5500K- 6000K, 3350 wl, 400 – 700 nm)
111 was generated using a spectrum Research Philips LED Modules; Black light (UV-A) (370
112 nm) was generated with 5 fluorescent Philips LED tubes of F20W/T9/BLB; Blue light
113 (460 nm), red light (660 nm) and far-red light (740 nm) were generated by using a
114 spectrum Research Philips LED Modules based on a platform of 9 tubes with 5 LEDs
115 each. A photoperiod regime of 16-h light and 8-h darkness at 20 °C was established for
116 each light wavelength. Finally, a constant darkness condition at 20 °C was included as a
117 control.

118 **2.3. *In vitro* assays**

119 *Monilinia* spp. were grown on PDA-T and experiments were conducted by applying one
120 drop of 10 µL of the fungal suspension at 10^5 conidia mL⁻¹ and subjected to the different
121 light wavelengths for 7 days. Different phenotypic and developmental parameters for
122 each species and light conditions were measured as further explained. All experiments
123 were carried out twice with three replicates per condition.

124 **2.3.1. Colony morphology and conidia characterization**

125 A visual inspection of colony features according to EPPO standard PM 7/18 (3) (Oepp
126 and Bulletin, 2020) were performed. For microscopic visualizations, the inoculum of
127 *Monilinia* spp. was prepared as described in section 2.1. Images of each conidia were
128 taken at 40x magnification in an optical microscope (Leica DM5000B, Leica

129 Microsystems CMS GmbH, Germany). Images were acquired with a Leica digital colour
130 camera (Leica DFC 420).

131 **2.3.2. Conidial quantification**

132 Quantification of total conidia was performed by preparing the conidial suspensions as
133 described in section 2.1, with a known volume of sterile water containing 0.01 % (w/v)
134 Tween-80. Data represents the conidia concentration (conidia mL⁻¹) for each species of
135 *Monilinia* and light condition.

136 **2.3.3. Cell viability**

137 Cell viability was assessed as follows: the conidial suspension was obtained as explained
138 above (section 2.1) and prepared at 10⁴ conidia mL⁻¹. Three-fold serial dilutions in PDA
139 medium were performed to assess the colony forming units (CFU) after incubating the
140 plates for 3 to 4 days at 20 °C in the darkness. Cell viability for each species and light
141 wavelength was expressed as conidia mL⁻¹.

142 **2.3.4. Growth rate**

143 The growth rate of the colony (cm day⁻¹) was determined as the slope of linear equation
144 obtained from the individual measurements of the mean of the diameter of the colony in
145 two perpendicular directions by plotting the growth diameter (cm) against the time (days).

146 **2.3.5. Analysis developmental *Monilinia* spp. genes**

147 **2.3.5.1. Identification of *Monilinia* spp. candidate genes**

148 A total of 13 genes involved in fungal development were selected based on previous
149 literature on other necrotrophic fungi (**Suppl. Table S1**).

150 Candidate genes from other fungi were used as query sequences for a BLAST analysis
151 (**Suppl. Table S2**) to search for homologies within *M. laxa* (ML8L) (Naranjo-Ortíz et al.,
152 2018), *M. fructicola* (CPMC6) (Vilanova et al., 2021), and *M. fructigena* (GENA6)
153 (Marcet-Houben et al., 2021) genomes using NCBI Genome Workbench software v.

154 2.11.10 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/gbench/>), and the BLAST tool implemented
155 therein. The expect (E) value was set at 10^{-3} . The identity (>60 %) and the fraction of
156 query sequences covered by the match region (>50 %) were used as filter criteria to select
157 only reliable hits. Results obtained were checked by carrying
158 out blastx, blastn and tblastn analysis.

159 **2.3.5.2. RNA extraction and qPCR analysis**

160 PDA-T cultures of *Monilinia* spp. grown as described in section 2.2, were collected and
161 immediately frozen. RNA was extracted using TRI reagent (Sigma, MO, USA) as
162 described by Baró-Montel et al. (2019b), using 3 biological replicates for each light
163 condition.

164 cDNA synthesis was performed on 5 µg of DNase-treated RNA samples using the
165 commercial Superscript IV First-Strand reverse transcriptase cDNA Synthesis Reaction
166 kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA).

167 Gene expression analysis were performed as described by Baró-Montel et al. (2019a).

168 Primers used for gene expression analysis (**Suppl. Table S3**) were designed *de novo* using
169 the Primer-BLAST tool (Ye et al., 2012). For each selected gene, primer sequences were
170 common for the three *Monilinia* species. Elongation Factor 1 α (*EF1- α*) was selected
171 based on its constant expression among conditions. Primer efficiency was determined
172 using 3-fold cDNA dilutions in triplicate and primer specificity was checked by analysing
173 the melting curves at temperatures ranging from 60 to 95 °C. A non-template control
174 (NTC) was included using water instead of DNA. Relative gene expression was expressed
175 as Mean Normalized Expression (MNE) and calculated using the method described by
176 Muller et al (2002).

177 **2.4. *In vivo* assays**

178 **2.4.1. Plant material**

179 Brown rot development was assessed on ‘Extreme 563’ nectarines (*Prunus persica* (L.)
180 Batch) harvested at commercial maturity from an organic orchard located in Vilanova de
181 Segrià (Lleida, Catalonia, Spain). Once harvested, nectarines were separated into two
182 batches according to the single index of absorbance (DA index) using a DA-Meter (TR-
183 Turoni, Forli, Italy); the first batch comprised a DA index from 0.17 to 0.81, while the
184 second batch presented a DA index from 0.82 to 1.71.

185 **2.4.2. Fruit inoculations**

186 Fruit was inoculated with a conidia suspension of each *Monilinia* spp. (*M. laxa*, *M.*
187 *fructicola* and *M. fructigena*) subjected to darkness condition (control) and the different
188 light wavelengths as described in section 2.2. Fungal suspensions of each pathogen were
189 obtained as explained in the section 2.1. Fruit was inoculated by applying one drop of 10
190 μL at 10^5 conidia mL^{-1} and incubated in a chamber under darkness and a relative humidity
191 of 97 ± 3 % at 20 ± 1 °C. The experiments were conducted twice, using 20 nectarines for
192 each light wavelength and species. Fruit was examined daily for 7 days to record the
193 incidence of brown rot (percentage of fruit with brown rot symptoms), the severity (lesion
194 diameter length in cm of rotted fruit), the incubation period (number of days to the
195 observation of the onset of brown rot symptoms), and the latency period (number of days
196 to the observation of conidiation).

197 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

198 All data were collated and subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) using JMP® 14 (v.
199 14.2.0, Cary, NC: SAS Institute Inc.). When the analysis was statistically significant, the
200 Tukey’s HSD test at the level $p \leq 0.05$ was performed for comparison of means between
201 light wavelengths for each species or between species for each light wavelength. In the
202 case of conidiation results, the comparison between the two *Monilinia* species was
203 performed using the Student's T-test at the $p \leq 0.05$ level.

204 **Results**

205 **3.1. *In vitro* assays**

206 **3.1.1. Effect of light wavelengths on the *in vitro* development of *Monilinia* spp.**

207 Growing the three *Monilinia* spp. under the different light wavelengths demonstrated a clear
208 difference among species based on the morphology of colonies, which was dependent on the
209 light wavelength. Specifically, *M. laxa* (**Figure 1A**) displayed differences in the colour of
210 growth rings, highlighting olivaceous colours with hazelnut margins. Under darkness, a white
211 colour of the whole colony predominated (mycelium). At the microscopic level, the
212 characteristic ovoid shape but also cylindrical-like shapes were observed for this species
213 irrespective of the light wavelength. Colonies of *M. fructicola* (**Figure 1B**) under white, blue,
214 and red light wavelengths induced different hazel tones. In addition to the presence of
215 concentric rings under white and blue conditions. In contrast, far-red and darkness lead to a
216 grey colour. In the case of black condition, different olivaceous tones conforming the growth
217 rings were observed. None of conditions induced changes in the conidia morphology.

218 Finally, *M. fructigena* (**Figure 1C**) showed a greater difference in its morphological
219 characterization in relation to *M. laxa* and *M. fructicola*, predominantly displaying white and
220 grey tones among all light wavelengths. Unlike the other species, *M. fructigena* is unable to
221 produce conidia under the conditions tested in this study. Hence, at the microscope level,
222 almost no conidia were visualized.

223 Conidiation was only quantitatively examined for *M. laxa* and *M. fructicola* (**Figure 2A**).
224 Results among species demonstrated significant differences, producing *M. laxa* a greater
225 conidiation compared to *M. fructicola*, except in far-red light wavelength. Regarding
226 wavelengths, *M. laxa* produced the highest number of conidia when grown under white light
227 (7.94 conidia mL⁻¹) and the lowest in darkness conditions (7.04 conidia mL⁻¹). In the case

228 of *M. fructicola*, far-red light wavelength induced the highest number of conidia (7.26 conidia
229 mL⁻¹) and white light was the lowest (6.45 conidia mL⁻¹).

230 Concerning cell viability (**Figure 2B**), results revealed that *M. laxa* had, in all the light
231 conditions tested, a reduced viability compared to *M. fructicola* and *M. fructigena*. In contrast,
232 when comparing the different light wavelengths for each species, no significant differences
233 were observed for any of the three *Monilinia* spp.

234 The analysis of the growth rate data (**Table 1**) demonstrated that under our *in vitro* conditions,
235 *M. laxa* grew significantly faster under far-red light wavelength, while the growth under blue
236 light wavelength was reduced compared to the other conditions. In the case of *M. fructicola*,
237 black light wavelength induced a faster growth if compared to red light. In contrast, the
238 growth rate of *M. fructigena* did not show significant differences among conditions. Results
239 among species for each light condition, denoted no significant differences for any of the light
240 wavelengths analysed, except for red light wavelength, which caused a lesser growth rate in
241 *M. fructicola* compared to the other species.

242 **3.1.2. Effect of light wavelengths on the transcriptional pattern of developmental genes**

243 A deeper study was carried out by means of a gene expression analysis of *Monilinia* spp.
244 candidate genes with potential role in fungal development. A total of 13 genes belonging to
245 several families were selected (**Suppl. Table S1**).

246 The family of Regulators of G-protein Signaling (RGS) was selected since it is involved in
247 the negative regulation of G-protein signaling to control developmental processes such as
248 conidiation and appressorium formation (**Figure 3 and Suppl. Figure 1**). Both regulator of
249 *G-PROTEIN SIGNALING 1 (RGS1)* and *G-PROTEIN SIGNALING 4 (RGS4)* genes were
250 more expressed in *M. fructicola* if compared to the other species, although no significant
251 differences were obtained among light conditions.

252 For *G-PROTEIN SIGNALING 2 (RGS2)*, all light wavelengths showed significant
253 differences for all *Monilinia* spp. For *M. laxa*, a significant overexpression was observed
254 under black light wavelength if compared to the rest of conditions. In turn, in *M. fructicola* a
255 significant up-regulation occurred under white (0.041 MNE) and black (0.037 MNE)
256 conditions in relation to blue light wavelength (0.015 MNE). In contrast, *M. fructigena*
257 presented a significantly lower expression of *RGS2* gene compared to *M. laxa* and *M.*
258 *fructicola* for all the light conditions tested.

259 *G-PROTEIN SIGNALING 3 (RGS3)* gene showed a similar pattern to *RGS2* in both *M. laxa*
260 and *M. fructigena*. However, *M. fructicola* displayed a lower expression level in all
261 conditions, specially, under blue light wavelength.

262 For *RGS4*, no significant differences were observed between conditions for any of the species.
263 However, expression levels were significantly higher in *M. fructicola* than in the other two
264 species.

265 The expression of developmental regulatory genes corresponding to different subfamilies of
266 Transcription Factors (TF) was also analysed. Among them, *REGULATOR 1 (REG1)* gene
267 from Gti1/Pac2 subfamily, *STE12* corresponding to Ste12 subfamily, and *C6*
268 *TRANSCRIPTION FACTOR (C6TF1)* and *ACTIVATING TRANSCRIPTION FACTOR*
269 *(ATF1)* genes from bZIP subfamily were analysed (**Figure 4 and Suppl. Figure 1**). The
270 *REG1* gene showed differences among light conditions for each species. In the case of *M.*
271 *laxa*, far-red light wavelength induced a significant increase compared to darkness (2.105-
272 fold) and red (3.089-fold) conditions. This behaviour was also observed in *M. fructigena*,
273 highlighting a significant increase under far-red light wavelength in related to the other
274 conditions. In the case of *M. fructicola*, the red light wavelength induced the highest
275 expression in relation to black and darkness conditions.

276 Regarding *STE12*, an overexpression in *M. fructicola* occurred under black (0.152 MNE) and
277 red (0.146 MNE) if compared to blue light wavelength, while in *M. laxa* and *M. fructigena*,
278 the expression levels of this gene remained low.

279 Lastly, bZIP subfamily comprising both *ATF1* and *C6TF1* genes, also showed a species-
280 dependent expression pattern. *ATF1* expression in *M. laxa* was significantly induced after
281 exposure to black and far-red light wavelengths if compared to the other conditions. In the
282 case of *M. fructicola*, the greatest effects were reported after subjecting the fungus to white
283 and black light. In contrast, *M. fructigena* only showed a significant increase under darkness
284 compared to red, white, far-red and blue light wavelengths.

285 On the other hand, expression levels of *M. fructigena C6TF1* gene remained low and
286 invariable regardless of the conditions. For *M. laxa*, expression levels significantly increased
287 under far-red light wavelength (0.057 MNE) if compared to red light wavelength (0.028
288 MNE). In contrast, in *M. fructicola*, red light wavelength was the condition that induced the
289 greatest and significant increase compared to white, darkness, far-red and blue conditions.

290 As for Light Transcription Factor (LTF) gene family, involved in the induction of conidiation
291 and repression of sclerotia development, *LIGHT-RESPONSIVE TRANSCRIPTION*
292 *FACTOR 1 (LTF1)* and *LIGHT-RESPONSIVE TRANSCRIPTION FACTOR 2 ALPHA*
293 *(LTF2 α)* genes were also selected for study (**Figure 5 and Suppl. Figure 1**). The expression
294 levels of *LTF1* gene significantly changed among conditions for each *Monilinia* spp. In *M.*
295 *laxa*, far-red light wavelength induced a significant overexpression in relation to the other
296 conditions. In the case of *M. fructicola*, the black light wavelength significantly increased the
297 expression levels if compared to the rest of conditions. For *M. fructigena*, only an
298 overexpression of this gene was observed when exposed to darkness.

299 On the other hand, *LTF2α* was highly expressed in *M. fructicola* compared to the other
300 species. For all species the highest expression was observed when the fungi were exposed to
301 white light.

302 Finally, other genes described to be involved in functions related to conidiation and virulence
303 in other pathogenic fungi, were also studied: *POLYPHENOL OXIDASE (PPOA)*,
304 *OLIGOPEPTIDE TRANSPORTER 1 (OPT1)* and *SSP PROTEIN (SSP1)* (**Figure 6 and**
305 **Suppl. Figure 1**). Regarding *PPOA* gene, a significant increase occurred in *M. laxa* under
306 black light wavelength (0.033 MNE) if compared to red (0.003 MNE) and blue (0.003 MNE)
307 light wavelengths. In this line, *M. fructicola* also showed an overexpression of this gene when
308 exposed to darkness, black and white conditions in relation to blue light wavelength. In
309 general, low levels of expression were observed in *M. fructigena*.

310 Concerning the expression of *OPT1* gene in *M. laxa*, a significant increase induced by black
311 light wavelength occurred. In the case of *M. fructicola*, blue and white light wavelengths
312 induced a greater expression than the rest of conditions. On the other hand, in the case of *M.*
313 *fructigena*, the expression levels remained low, being black, far-red and darkness the
314 conditions inducing the greatest expression.

315 Finally, *SSP1* gene was remarkably induced by black light in *M. laxa* (0.796 MNE), by white
316 wavelength in *M. fructicola* (2.586 MNE) and by darkness in the case of *M. fructigena* (0.120
317 MNE) if compared to the rest of light wavelengths for each species.

318 **3.2. In vivo assays**

319 **3.2.1. Effect of light wavelengths on the virulence of *Monilinia* spp. on nectarines**

320 The brown rot phenotype on ‘Extreme 563’ nectarines inoculated with *M. laxa* subjected to
321 white, black, blue and red light (**Figure 7A**), showed olivaceous tones, while a whiter tone
322 dominated when subjected to darkness and far-red light wavelengths. In *M. fructicola*, a
323 coloration similar to *M. laxa* was observed, although displaying a more intense olivaceous

324 coloration in all conditions. Finally, in fruit inoculated with *M. fructigena* a white colour
325 predominated, probably due to the scarce ability of this species to conidiate.

326 Brown rot incidence on nectarines infected with *M. laxa* subjected to black light wavelength
327 **(Figure 7B)** revealed a significant reduction up to 30 % of disease incidence compared to
328 darkness. When *M. laxa* was subjected to the rest of conditions also slightly reduced the
329 incidence in relation to darkness, although without significant differences. In contrast, the
330 brown rot caused by *M. fructicola* subjected to all light wavelengths showed a significantly
331 higher percentage of incidence in relation to black and darkness conditions (35% and 40 %
332 less, respectively). In the case of *M. fructigena*, no significant differences were observed
333 among conditions. Results obtained from comparing species for each light condition (**Suppl.**
334 **Table S4**), revealed that only *M. fructicola* presented a significant reduced incidence when
335 grown under black light and darkness.

336 Regarding to the severity results **(Figure 7B)**, when *M. laxa* was subjected to far-red light
337 wavelength significantly increased the severity, if compared to the other conditions. In turn,
338 *M. fructicola* subjected to far-red and red light showed the highest severity. In the same line,
339 *M. fructigena* showed a significant reduction of severity when was subjected to red and
340 darkness conditions. When comparing severity results at 3 days post-inoculation among
341 species for each light wavelength (**Suppl. Table S5**), significant differences were observed
342 among species for all light conditions except for blue light. At 7 days post-inoculation (**Suppl.**
343 **Table S6**), *M. fructigena* displayed the highest severity when grown under darkness, black,
344 white and blue conditions in relation to the other two species. However, no significant
345 differences were obtained among species when exposed to far-red light.

346 Results for the incubation and latency periods **(Figure 7B)** corroborated the previous results.
347 Thus said, brown rot symptoms firstly appeared in those nectarines inoculated with *M. laxa*
348 subjected to far-red condition, while in *M. fructicola* all lights exhibited earlier brown rot

349 symptoms, compared to darkness. However, *M. fructigena* subjected to white and blue lights
350 induced an earlier onset of the disease if compared to darkness condition. Regarding the
351 latency period, the first symptoms of conidiation appeared in nectarines infected with *M. laxa*
352 subjected to far-red, red and darkness, while *M. fructicola* grown under white and darkness
353 delayed the appearance of conidiation on nectarines. In contrast, the presence of mycelium
354 on nectarines firstly appeared when *M. fructigena* was subjected to blue and far-red light
355 wavelengths. A similar virulence pattern was obtained for the second batch of ‘Extreme 563’
356 nectarines for all the parameters analysed (data not shown).

357

358 **4. Discussion**

359 Light is an important factor determining the fungal biology and involved in several
360 physiological responses, metabolic processes, conidiation and circadian clock (Bannon et al.,
361 2009; Canessa et al., 2013; Van Leeuwen and Van Kesteren, 1998). Some studies have been
362 carried out on *M. laxa*, *M. fructicola* and *M. fructigena* under UV-A (black) light wavelength
363 in *in vitro* conditions (De Cal and Melgarejo, 1999), different lighting treatments with *M. laxa*
364 and *M. fructicola* in both *in vitro* conditions and nectarines (Balsells-Llauradó et al., 2021),
365 and different combinations of photoperiod and light wavelengths for different strains of *M.*
366 *laxa* in stone fruits (Rodríguez-Pires et al., 2021b). However, no studies aimed to analyse the
367 effect of the different light wavelengths on the three main species of *Monilinia*.

368 **4.1. *Monilinia* spp. display a different phenotype dependent on the light wavelengths**

369 Previous studies on *B. cinerea* have shown a broad spectrum of action in response to light that
370 covers the entire visible spectrum and beyond (Schumacher, 2017). Different phenotypes
371 were also obtained in the study carried out with different strains of *M. laxa* by Rodríguez-
372 Pires et al. (2021b), and the ability of this pathogen to detect light through photoreceptors
373 Rodríguez-Pires et al. (2021a). Once sensed, the signal is rapidly generated and propagated to

374 stimulate cellular responses such as an induction of pigmentation (i.e. biosynthesis of
375 carotenoids, mycosporins (Fuller et al., 2015) and melanin (Rehnstrom and Free, 1996)),
376 either as protective molecules or acting in developmental functions. However, their specific
377 role on *Monilinia* spp. remains still elusive. Our results referring to the morphological
378 characterization showed a different colour colony among species under the different light
379 wavelengths, suggesting that *Monilinia* spp. responded differentially by accumulating
380 pigments (Villarino et al., 2011). Hence, studies aiming to determine the nature and function
381 of such accumulation are encouraged. In turn, different lines of evidence support that near-
382 UV light wavelength induces oxidative stress in fungal cells (Schumacher, 2017), causing an
383 alteration of homeostasis in ROS levels (Canessa et al., 2013), but also in the adjustment of
384 turgor of conidia and total virulence to infect stone fruits (Yu et al., 2020). In our results, *M.*
385 *laxa* presented ovoid conidia under darkness growing conditions, but both ovoid and
386 cylindrical conidia morphologies under light conditions. Although these morphologies are
387 common when grown under light (Balsells-Llauradó et al., 2021), the mechanism underlying
388 this dual phenotype has not been elucidated yet.

389 Light can markedly affect asexual reproduction of fungi and, therefore, an appropriate
390 response of fungi regarding conidiation to this abiotic factor can ensure the dispersion of the
391 species. Our results suggest the ability of *Monilinia* spp. to respond to light, express a
392 phenotype with higher conidial production at certain wavelengths if compared to darkness.
393 Accordingly, it has been shown that in *B. cinerea*, light wavelengths promote the production
394 of conidia, the development of sclerotia and the growth of mycelia. Interestingly, blue light
395 wavelength increased the conidia production of both *M. laxa* and *M. fructicola* (**Figure 2A**).
396 In fact, blue light wavelength has also been shown to induce an increase in conidial production
397 and mycelial growth in *Alternaria* sp. (Kumagai, 1989). The reduced viability of *M. laxa*

398 compared to the other species (**Figure 2B**) could be in part explained by alterations in the
399 morphology or turgor of *M. laxa* conidia as previously reported (Yu et al., 2020).

400 Finally, we observed that far-red and black light wavelengths increased the growth rate of *M.*
401 *laxa* and *M. fructicola*, respectively, in line with that observed in *Aspergillus* spp., which
402 presented an increased growth rate under far-red, UV-A (black) and near-UV light
403 wavelengths (Aziz and Moussa, 1997; Cheong et al., 2016). Overall, in our studies observed
404 that both *M. laxa* and *M. fructicola* grew phenotypically more influenced by light wavelengths
405 than *M. fructigena*. Based on these results, is decided to analyse possible changes in the
406 behaviour of genes related to development that have previously been cited in other fungi but
407 not previously analysed in the three mains of *Monilinia* species by a gene expression analysis.

408 **4.2. Development genes expression pattern is controlled by light wavelengths in a** 409 **species-specific manner.**

410 Gene expression analysis of development genes showed a wide range of responses depending
411 on: i) the gene function, ii) *Monilinia* spp. and iii) light wavelength. RGS proteins play critical
412 roles in modulating the heterotrimeric G protein signal transduction cascades that allow the
413 pathogen to perceive external signals and elicit appropriate physiological and biochemical
414 responses. Specifically, the role of *RGS1* and *RGS4* proteins has been demonstrated in cell
415 wall integrity, surface hydrophobicity, squeeze formation, mycelial growth, sexual
416 reproduction, conidiation and pathogenicity (Dohlman and Thorner, 1997; Zhang et al.,
417 2011). In contrast, *RGS2* and *RGS3* genes have been demonstrated to have a negative effect
418 on the regulation of these processes, and especially on conidia (Wang et al., 2013). The low
419 level of expression of *RGS3* on *M. fructicola* (**Figure 3**), together with high expression level
420 of *RGS1* and *RGS4*, could explain the ability of this species to produce conidia, unlike *M.*
421 *fructigena*, which showed levels of expression low.

422 Transcription factors are crucial controlling several fungal processes (John et al., 2021).
423 Among all the TFs, the role of a putative transcriptional regulator belonging to the Gti / Pac2
424 family, *REG1* gene, was analysed taking into account its role in pathogenicity, resistance to
425 osmotic stress, formation of conidia and metabolism (Michielse et al., 2011; Schumacher,
426 2017). Our results demonstrated an important expression level of *REG1* gene in *M. fructicola*,
427 but specially in *M. laxa* (**Figure 4**). Besides, the expression of *STE12* gene, was more induced
428 under black and red light wavelengths in *M. fructicola*, pointing out to a change on the
429 phenotypic response related to the colony pigmentation, probably due to an accumulation of
430 melanin pigments. In agreement with our results, *STE12* has been associated with the
431 formation of melanized appressoria in *Magnaporthe grisea* (Park et al., 2002) and with the
432 pathogenicity of *Penicillium digitatum* in oranges (Vilanova et al., 2016). Other TFs studied
433 in this work were *ATF1* and *C6TF1* genes, both belonging to bZIP family. These genes are
434 involved in the formation of sclerotia that occurs in the absence of light, and also conidiation,
435 that is induced by different types of light (Sang et al., 2019; Temme et al., 2012). In fact, the
436 involvement of *ATF1* in pathogenicity comes from its role in coding for an important regulator
437 of conidia dependent on sunlight (Temme et al., 2012). In turn, the virulence related role of
438 *C6TF1* gene is dependent on light and originates from studies proving its implication in
439 conidia formation and suppression of mycelium development (Sang et al., 2019). As describe
440 before for other genes, *M. fructigena* also showed a low expression of both genes in all light
441 conditions (**Figure 4**). These results would explain its inability to form conidia. On the other
442 side, the higher *ATF1* gene expression under black light wavelength in the case of *M.*
443 *fructicola* and *M. laxa*, could partially explained the increased conidiation observed under
444 these conditions.

445 Regarding the group of light-responsive TFs, *LTF1* gene has been already studied in *B.*
446 *cinerea*, revealing its implication in growth in the presence of near-UV, and the production of

447 antioxidants required to deal with oxidative stress caused by either prolonged exposure to light
448 or during host infections (Schumacher, 2017). Accordingly, this gene was highly expressed
449 in *M. fructicola* after being exposed to black light wavelength (**Figure 5**), probably in an aim
450 to face the oxidative stress situation. In the case of *M. laxa*, black light wavelength also
451 induced its expression although interestingly, far-red light wavelength largely increased its
452 expression. Contrary to the other species, *M. fructigena* did not change its expression pattern
453 in response to light (**Figure 5**). According to assays carried out with *B. cinerea*, *LTF2α* gene
454 is a positive regulator of conidiation and may also be involved in the suppression of sclerotial
455 development under light (Schumacher et al., 2014). In addition, *LTF1* participates in the
456 repression of *LTF2α* transcription under darkness (Schumacher et al., 2014). In this line, our
457 results also demonstrated that in all *Monilinia* spp. the least expression of *LTF2α* gene
458 occurred under darkness, while the highest expression was achieved after exposure to white
459 condition. This fact explains why these fungi showed, in general, low conidiation under
460 darkness (**Figure 5**).

461 Several other genes are also important for development and/or virulence of fungi. However,
462 they have never been characterized in neither *Monilinia* spp. nor under environmental factors
463 such as the exposition to light wavelengths. Previous studies on *PPOA* gene revealed that it is
464 involved in the production of oxylipins, directly affecting positively conidia development
465 (Fischer and Keller, 2016; Tsitsigiannis et al., 2004). Accordingly, its expression pattern was
466 also studied, and our results showed a higher expression in *M. fructicola*, and a low expression
467 in *M. fructigena* (**Figure 6**), mainly characterized by the presence of mycelium. *OPT1* gene
468 has also been studied in *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*, showing an increased production of
469 conidia, pigmentation and a low mycelial growth in *in vitro* conditions (Chagué et al., 2009).
470 Thus said, a large induction of *OPT1* gene was observed for *M. laxa* under black light
471 wavelength, although not it did not correlate with a high conidiation. Regarding *SSP1* gene,

472 it was hardly expressed in *M. laxa*, except under black light wavelength (**Figure 6**). A similar
473 pattern occurred for *M. fructicola*, although the main effect was observed after exposing this
474 species under white light condition. In the case of *M. fructigena*, the highest induction was
475 shown under darkness. A transcriptional study carried out by Angelini et al. (2018) revealed
476 that *SSPI* could help *M. fructicola* to survive under unfavourable conditions.

477 Based on the results obtained on the effect of light on the development of *Monilinia* spp. in *in*
478 *vitro* conditions, was decided to evaluate how the incubation conditions of the fungus under
479 different light conditions, affected its ability to produce brown rot in nectarines.

480 **4.3. *Monilinia* spp. subject to light wavelengths differentially alters the capacity to infect** 481 **stone fruits**

482 Different light wavelengths have been shown to affect the growth, the metabolism, but also
483 the behaviour of pathogenic fungi when infecting fruit (Schumacher, 2017; Xu et al., 2017;
484 Zhang et al., 2021).

485 The incidence of brown rot caused by *Monilinia* spp. subjected to different light wavelengths,
486 varied depending on both species and growth conditions. *Monilinia laxa* tended to show a
487 reduction in the ability to infect fruit when grown under any light wavelengths compared to
488 darkness (**Figure 7B**). In fact, a recent study has shown that non-continuous light exposure of
489 *P. digitatum* leads to a decreased ability to infect oranges compared to continuous darkness
490 (Lafuente et al., 2018). However, in other *Monilinia* species light did not affect (*M. fructigena*)
491 or even increased (*M. fructicola*) its ability to infection nectarines. On the other hand, a
492 negative effect on the virulence of *M. laxa* and *M. fructicola* was observed after subjecting
493 these species to black light. These results are in agreement with previous studies which
494 demonstrated that black light had also an inhibitory effect on *B. cinerea*, reducing the
495 development of the pathogen in tomato leaves (Tokuno et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2017).

496 Attending to the aggressiveness of the species, the far-red light wavelength largely increased
497 the severity of *M. laxa*, in agreement to Rodríguez-Pires et al. (2021b).

498 **4.4. The light-dependent virulence of *Monilinia* spp. could rely on the different** 499 **modulation of specific genes**

500 Based on the results obtained in this study we could hypothesize which is the condition that
501 most affects the phenotype of *Monilinia* spp. and brown rot development on fruit (**Figure 8**).

502 In the case of *M. laxa* and *M. fructicola*, *REG1* and *C6TF1* genes showed high expression
503 when grown under long wavelengths (red and far-red). The functions of these genes are
504 related to processes of conidia production. This could explain that the highest conidia
505 production of *M. fructicola* occurred under far-red light. Furthermore, when infecting fruit, an
506 increase in the virulence was observed in both red and far-red light, while a reduced virulence
507 occurred under black light for both *M. laxa* and *M. fructicola*. In the case of black wavelength,
508 a high expression of genes related to pigmentation, *STE12* and *OPT1*, was obtained under *in*
509 *vitro* conditions, as well as the production of conidia. This could explain the characteristic *in*
510 *vitro* morphology of *M. fructicola* with growth rings delimited by different tonality.
511 Furthermore, the highest growth rate in *M. fructicola* was under black light. However, for *M.*
512 *laxa* was observed that both the growth rate and the conidia production were not as significant
513 as in *M. fructicola*. Finally, in the case of *M. fructigena*, hardly any significant differences
514 were observed between different wavelengths and darkness, probably promoted by greater
515 growth in absence of light. Overall, this information indicates that *M. laxa* and *M. fructicola*
516 showed a similar behaviour in relation to light wavelength factor, while *M. fructigena* was not
517 affected by this factor, opting for darkness.

518 **5. Conclusions**

519 *M. laxa* and *M. fructicola* were clearly influenced by light, showing different phenotypes
520 depending on the wavelength. These differences were also observed on gene expression

521 analysis of some developmental genes. Consequently, the reaction to light condition of
522 each species can use to gain a better understanding of how environmental factors affect
523 the overall fitness of these pathogens, for instance, the asexual reproduction (conidia)
524 essential for their dispersion. Pathogens with high phenotypic plasticity, as *M. laxa* and
525 *M. fructicola*, exhibit a wide range of morphological, physiological and molecular change
526 in response to different light conditions to reduce this environmental stress and, therefore,
527 could adapt quicker to each situation and cause disease.

528

529 **Author statement**

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538

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544

545 **Conflict of interests**

546 The authors declare no conflict of interest

547

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