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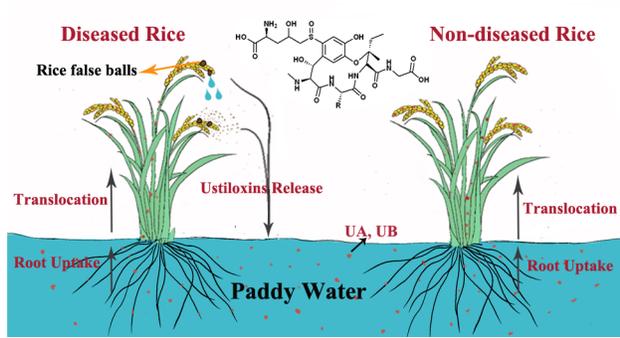
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Occurrence and translocation of ustiloxins in rice false smut-occurred paddy fields, Hubei, China

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1 **Abstract:** Ustiloxin A (UA) and ustiloxin B (UB), two major mycotoxins produced
2 by the pathogen of rice false smut (RFS) during rice cultivation, have attracted
3 increasing attentions due to their potential health risks. However, limited data are
4 available about their occurrence and fate in paddy fields and contamination profiles
5 in rice. In this study, a field study was performed to investigate the occurrence and
6 translocation of UA and UB in RFS-occurred paddies. For the first time to our
7 knowledge, we reported a ubiquitous occurrence of the two ustiloxins in the paddy
8 water (range: 0.01 – 3.46 $\mu\text{g/L}$ for UA and <0.02 – 1.15 $\mu\text{g/L}$ for UB) and brown rice
9 (range: 0.09 – 154.08 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ for UA and <0.09 – 23.57 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ for UB). A significant
10 positive correlation was observed between ustiloxin levels in paddy water and brown
11 rice ($r_s = 0.48$ - 0.79 , $p < 0.01$). The occurrence of ustiloxin uptake in water-rice
12 system was also evidenced by the rice exposure experiment, suggesting paddy water
13 might be an important source for ustiloxin accumulation in rice. These results
14 suggested that the contamination of ustiloxins in rice might occur widely, which was
15 supported by the significantly high detection frequencies of UA (96.6 %) and UB
16 (62.4 %) in polished rice (149 samples) from Hubei Province, China. The total
17 concentrations of ustiloxins in the polished rice samples collected from Hubei
18 Province ranged from < 20.7 ng/kg (LOD) to 55.1 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ (dry weight). Further
19 studies are needed to evaluate the potential risks of ustiloxin exposure in the
20 environment and humans.

21 **Keyword:** rice false smut, ustiloxins, uptake, paddy water, rice

22

23 1. Introduction

24 Rice false smut (RFS), one of the most destructive rice fungal diseases, has
25 been reported in more than 40 countries in Asia, North America and the Middle East
26 (Sun et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2020). Apart from causing massive rice yield losses,
27 the RFS pathogen can produce abundant mycotoxins (e.g., ustiloxins and
28 ustilaginoidins) (Kioso et al., 1992; Lu et al., 2015; Lin et al., 2018; Wang et al.,
29 2021), which might lead to contamination of the environment and affect human
30 health. Ustiloxins, especially ustiloxin A (UA) and ustiloxin B (UB), which are the
31 two dominate ustiloxins (Table S1) (Wang et al., 2016; Fu et al., 2015a, 2017; Hu et
32 al., 2015, 2018), are highly produced during the progress of RFS occurrence. Serious
33 ustiloxin contaminations in rice straws and grains collected from RFS-occurred
34 paddies have been reported (Miyazaki et al., 2009; Hu et al., 2018). Furthermore,
35 several studies have demonstrated that the ingested ustiloxin residues can be
36 absorbed by gastrointestinal tract and might cause potential toxicity risks to liver,
37 kidney and reproductive system of biota and human (Sun et al., 2021, 2022;
38 Nakamura et al., 1994; Wang et al., 2017). Therefore, the environmental behaviors of
39 ustiloxins in paddy fields need to be investigated urgently to evaluate the negative
40 effects of RFS on food safety and human health.

41 Ustiloxins are highly hydrophilic ($\log K_{ow}$: 0.06 - 1.6 (<https://hmdb.ca>)), and are
42 liable to enter surrounding environmental matrices via rain or atmospheric
43 deposition (Ladhalakshmi et al., 2012; Qiu et al., 2019). For example, the
44 contamination of ustiloxins was found to be ubiquitous in the water of RFS-occurred
45 paddies (Enshi City, Hubei Province, China), with concentrations up to 2.82 $\mu\text{g/L}$
46 (Cheng et al., 2019). Rice plants, including non-infected plants, are supposed to be
47 widely exposed to ustiloxins in RFS-occurred regions. More importantly, the high
48 levels of ustiloxins have been detected in polished rice samples (Fu et al., 2015b;
49 Sun et al., 2022), implying that rice plants might have capability to absorb ustiloxins
50 from the environment. Residual ustiloxins might be taken up and accumulated in rice
51 plants, which subsequently result in ubiquitous contamination of rice grains.

52 However, no studies have been performed to investigate the uptake, bioaccumulation
53 and translocation of ustiloxins in rice plants.

54 The objectives of this study were to investigate the uptake and accumulation of
55 ustiloxins by rice plants and to evaluate ustiloxin contamination in polished rice.
56 Therefore, a field study was conducted to elucidate the distribution traits of UA and
57 UB in RFS-occurred paddies. Simultaneously, the root uptake and translocation of
58 UA in rice plants were verified by water-exposure experiment. Finally, the
59 occurrence of UA and UB in polished rice across Hubei Province (China) was
60 examined to investigate the contamination of ustiloxins in food chain. To our
61 knowledge, this study for the first time revealed the root uptake and accumulation of
62 ustiloxins by rice grown in RFS-occurred regions.

63

64 **2. Materials and Methods**

65 **2.1 Sampling of surface waters and rice grains in paddy fields**

66 Field studies were performed in two villages (Qingshan: 29°43' 1" N, 109°11'
67 57" E and Laozhai: 29°36' 5" N, 109°8' 43" E) of Xianfeng County, Enshi City,
68 Hubei Province, China, where the rice false smut disease has been frequently
69 observed in the past years. The first sampling was conducted in the middle of
70 September, 2019. Paddy surface water samples were collected from 11 paddy fields
71 (Sites S1-11, Table S2) at the dough grain stage of rice when discernible rice false
72 smut balls had been generated. Three surface water samples (each included five
73 subsamples) were carefully collected at three different sites for each rice paddy,
74 including the opposite ends and the center of each paddy (Liu et al., 2012;
75 Yashimura et al., 2016). Approximately 500 mL water from each sampling site was
76 filtered through a 0.45 µm filter *in situ* and stored in pre-cleaned polypropylene
77 bottles. Simultaneously, the numbers of rice false smut balls on panicles surrounding
78 each sampling site (n = 100) were counted for grading the disease severity of RFS,
79 following the Standard of Resistance Evaluation of Rice against False Smut, which
80 was developed by the team of "Control of Rice False Smut" specialists in 2011. The

81 water samples were temporarily stored in a sampling case with dry ice after
82 collection until transferred to our laboratory and then kept in refrigerator (-20 °C).
83 The second sampling was conducted in early October of 2019, when most of rice
84 crops were at the mature stage. The same 11 paddy fields were selected. Three
85 surface water samples were obtained from three different locations of each paddy
86 field and the numbers of rice false smut balls on panicles were counted surrounding
87 each sampling site (n = 100) as described above. Five diseased panicle samples (with
88 at least one false smut ball in each panicle) and five non-diseased panicle samples
89 (without obvious disease symptoms in panicle) were collected separately with
90 polypropylene bags around each water sampling site. The rice false smut balls on
91 diseased panicles samples were counted and removed. All panicle samples were
92 sealed in polypropylene seal bag and temporarily stored in sampling case with dry
93 ice after collection. Once arrived at our laboratory, the rice grains were carefully
94 separated from panicles and washed with ultrapure water (three times) to remove the
95 fungus powder on the surface of rice husk. Then, the rice grains were freeze-dried (-
96 45 °C) and hulled to obtain corresponding brown rice for further analysis.

97 **2.2 Rice exposure experiment**

98 Rice exposure experiment was carried out at Huazhong Agriculture University,
99 Wuhan, Hubei Province, China. The rice seedlings (Wanxian 98) were transferred to
100 plastic boxes (26 cm × 18 cm × 28 cm) containing 8 kg paddy soil and 4 L water.
101 Four seedlings were planted in each box, and cultivated under ordinary conditions
102 until the eighth stage of panicle development (Chen et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2018).
103 Then, the rice crops were transferred into a phytotron facility and grown in UA-
104 containing water (0, 2.0, 10.0 µg/L). The contents of UA in water were monitored
105 and adjusted every day to maintain a relatively stable exposure level. The rice crops
106 were cultivated at about 25 °C and 85 % humidity. After 30 days, the rice samples
107 (grains and straws) were collected and freeze-dried for further analysis.

108 **2.3 Collection of rice samples in Hubei Province**

109 One hundred and forty-nine polished rice samples with clear original information
110 were collected from 13 cities of Hubei Province, China, from October to December
111 2019. All the rice samples collected were provided by the parents of the college
112 students from Hubei Province in our school, and those rice samples were produced
113 in Hubei Province. Upon arrival at our laboratory, these samples were stored in
114 freezer (-20 °C) until UA and UB analysis.

115 **2.4 Ustiloxin analyses**

116 Ustiloxins were extracted and purified following our previously published
117 method with minor modifications (Sun et al., 2021, 2022). The lyophilized rice
118 grains and straw samples were ground and sieved. About 0.5 g milled rice or straw
119 samples were extracted with pure water, and the extracts were purified by passing
120 through a WAX cartridge. The unfrozen paddy water was extracted by
121 dichloromethane followed by SPE purification. The details for extraction procedures
122 are described in the Supporting Information text.

123 The analyses of UA and UB were performed on a Waters ACQUITY UPLC®
124 H-Plus Class system (UHPLC) coupled to Waters® Xevo™ TQ-XS mass
125 spectrometer (TQ-XS/MS) (Milford, MA, USA). More details of instrumental
126 analysis and quality assurance/quality control were provided in Supporting
127 Information text and Table S3.

128 **2.5 Statistic analyses**

129 All statistical analyses were performed with SPSS 22.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL,
130 USA). For the calculation of the geometric value, a value equal to LOD (below
131 detection limit) divided square root of 2 was assigned to those samples when the
132 concentrations of UA or UB were <LOD. As data collected from fields were not
133 normally distributed (verified by using Kolmogorov–Smirnov test), spearman's rank
134 correlation coefficients were used to determine the associations of UA or UB in
135 paddy waters and brown rice collected from farmers' paddy fields. The figures in this
136 study were drawn using GraphPad Prism 8.

137

138 3. Results and Discussion

139 3.1 Distribution Characteristics of Ustiloxins in Surface Waters and Rice from 140 RFS-occurred Paddy Fields

141 The descriptive statistics of ustiloxins distribution in the surface waters of RFS-
142 occurred paddies from Xianfeng County (Enshi City, Hubei Province, China) were
143 summarized in Table 1. UA and UB were ubiquitous in the water samples both at the
144 dough grain stage and the mature stage of rice, indicating that ustiloxin
145 contamination was widespread in surface waters throughout the ripening phase of
146 rice. Among those water samples, the total concentrations of UA and UB
147 (Σ ustiloxins) ranged from 0.01 to 0.44 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (median of 0.05 $\mu\text{g/L}$) at the dough
148 grain stage and 0.02 to 4.03 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (median value of 0.37 $\mu\text{g/L}$) at the mature stage.
149 The levels of UA (range: 0.01-3.46 $\mu\text{g/L}$) were comparable with the reported values
150 of 0.26 and 2.82 $\mu\text{g/L}$ in paddy waters (Cheng et al., 2019). Generally, the residual of
151 UB was significantly lower than UA (UB/UA=0.23) in this study, which was
152 consistent with previous studies in which the ratios of UB/UA produced by
153 *Ustilaginoidea virens* were in the range of 0.09 – 0.57 (Wang et al., 2016; Hu et al.,
154 2018; Fu et al., 2017). Overall, these results clearly indicated that ustiloxin
155 contamination was ubiquitous in the surface water of RFS-occurred paddies, which
156 would cause extensive exposure of pre-harvested rice plants throughout the ripening
157 phase.

158 In order to further investigate the distribution characteristics of ustiloxins in
159 RFS-occurred regions, the occurrence of ustiloxins in rice grain samples at the
160 mature stage, collected from diseased panicles (possessing at least one rice false
161 smut ball per panicle) and non-diseased panicles (without obvious rice false smut
162 ball in the panicle), was evaluated and the summary statistics were listed in Table 1.
163 UA and UB were detectable in 100% of brown rice samples from diseased panicles
164 ($n = 33$), with UA concentrations in the ranges of 2.61 - 151.08 $\mu\text{g/kg dw}$ (median of
165 34.12 $\mu\text{g/kg dw}$, geometric mean (GM) of 22.91 $\mu\text{g/kg dw}$) and UB concentrations of
166 0.43-23.57 $\mu\text{g/kg dw}$ (median of 7.31 $\mu\text{g/kg dw}$, GM of 4.66 $\mu\text{g/kg dw}$), suggesting

167 that the contamination of ustiloxins was broadly occurred in rice plants subjected to
168 RFS. Similarly, high levels of UA and UB were also detected in the brown rice
169 collected from RFS-occurred paddy fields of Zhejiang (18.1-152.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ for UA,
170 2.7-88.7 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ for UB) (Cao et al., 2016) and Beijing (6.4-170 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ for UA) (Fu et
171 al., 2015b). Relatively higher concentrations of ustiloxins were detected in rice
172 grains from diseased panicles (3.04-199.84 mg/kg for total UA and UB) (Fu et al.,
173 2017; Hu et al., 2018; Ji et al., 2012), which might be influenced by the fungus
174 powder residues on the surface of rice husk. However, it was important to note that
175 UA and UB were detected frequently in rice grains collected from non-diseased
176 panicles ($n = 33$), even though with substantially lesser concentrations (geometric
177 means of 0.69 and 0.13 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ dw) than those of diseased panicles from the same
178 sampling sites. Previous studies demonstrated that rice plant had the ability to take
179 up organic pollutants from surroundings through root uptake or foliar absorption
180 (Zhao, et al., 2020, Fan et al., 2020). For example, various hydrophilic contaminants,
181 such as microcystin, per-/poly-fluoroalkyl substances and pesticides, could be taken
182 up by rice roots from surrounding soil or water and then translocated to above-
183 ground parts of rice plants (Corbel et al., 2014; Yamazaki et al., 2019; Ge et al.,
184 2017). The findings above suggested that ustiloxins could be accumulated and
185 translocated in non-infected rice plants. To our knowledge, for the first time this
186 study demonstrated the occurrence of UA and UB contamination in non-diseased
187 rice plants, suggesting that ustiloxin pollution in rice might be largely
188 underestimated. The serious ustiloxin contamination in brown rice observed above
189 highlighted the need of further studies to better understand the pathways of ustiloxin
190 transfer from RFS balls to rice.

191 **3.2 Correlations and Pathways of Ustiloxins Accumulation in Rice**

192 Generally, the concentrations of UA and UB in paddy waters showed increasing
193 trends with the RFS disease severity of corresponding sampling sites. Positive
194 correlations ($r_s = 0.380 - 0.523$, $p = 0.029 - 0.002$) were identified between the UA
195 levels in water and the average numbers of RFS balls per 100 panicles around

196 sampling sites at the dough rice stage (Fig. 1a) and mature stage (Fig. 1b). Similarly,
197 the levels of UB in paddy waters were positively correlated with the numbers of RFS
198 balls at the two sampling time points (Fig. 1c and 1d). Previous studies demonstrated
199 that ustiloxins were generated by *Ustilaginoidea virens* prior to RFS ball's formation
200 and mainly dominated in the RFS balls with contents ranged from 331.5 – 1926.7
201 $\mu\text{g/g}$ at different maturity stages (Hu et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2016). During the
202 maturity of RFS balls, ustiloxins were likely to be substantially released from RFS
203 balls through air currents or rain splash, which would subsequently lead to serious
204 ustiloxin contamination in the water of RFS-occurred fields. This result
205 demonstrated that RFS balls might be the dominant source of ustiloxins entering into
206 the paddy water in RFS-occurred fields. It was worth noting that the soil types and
207 water properties, such as the organic matter content in soil and pH value in water,
208 have been proposed to affect the environmental behaviors of various organic
209 chemicals (Miller et al., 2016). More studies should be carried out to investigate the
210 temporal variation in the translocation, distribution and degradation of ustiloxins in
211 paddy fields.

212 Consistent with the variation pattern of ustiloxins in paddy water mentioned
213 above, ustiloxins levels in rice grains showed obviously increasing trend with the
214 disease severity of corresponding sampling sites. Specifically, the elevated levels of
215 ustiloxins in rice grains were observed from the sampling sites with higher contents
216 of ustiloxins in water. More importantly, for diseased and non-diseased panicles,
217 significantly positive linear relationships ($p < 0.01$, Fig. 2a and 2b) were obtained
218 between UA concentrations in brown rice and in paddy water of corresponding
219 sampling sites. Meanwhile, similar trends were observed for UB ($p < 0.01$, Fig. 2c
220 and 2d). Moreover, the average ratios of UB/UA in grains of diseased panicles (0.22)
221 and non-diseased panicles (0.25) were consistent with those in paddy water (0.23).
222 The results indicated that the contaminated paddy water might be a predominated
223 source of ustiloxin accumulation in rice grains. It was reported that the root uptake of
224 organic contaminants was associated with their physicochemical characteristics, such

225 as water solubility and octanol/water partition coefficients (Dettenmaier et al., 2009;
226 Collins et al., 2006). It has been documented that ustiloxins were ionized organic
227 pollutants with relatively low $\log K_{ow}$ (-1.6 and -1.5) (Table S1), suggesting that root
228 uptake of ustiloxins in rice might occur during the progression of the RFS generation.
229 Interestingly, a stronger correlation was observed between ustiloxin levels in paddy
230 waters and in rice of non-diseased panicles compared with ustiloxin levels in
231 diseased panicles, which suggested that ustiloxin levels in diseased panicles might
232 simultaneously be affected via other uptake processes. Plants can absorb organic
233 chemicals from the surrounding environment, such as air, soil and water (Hou et al.,
234 2021). More studies should be carried out to investigate the uptake kinetics and
235 uptake mechanism of ustiloxins by rice plants in RFS-occurred fields.

236 To further confirm the root uptake and accumulation of ustiloxins in rice plants,
237 an exposure experiment was conducted under laboratory conditions in which rice at
238 the eighth stage of panicle development was grown in water containing 0, 2.0 or 10.0
239 UA $\mu\text{g/L}$ (Fig. S1). UA could be detected in both straws and brown rice after
240 exposure for 30 days (Fig. 3a and 3b). Meanwhile, during the exposure period, UA
241 was gradually accumulated in rice grains in a dose-dependent manner (Figure S2).
242 UA levels in rice grains here were comparable with those rice grains in non-diseased
243 panicles in field study above. Those results confirmed the hypothesis above that UA
244 could be taken up by roots and translocated acropetally within above-ground parts of
245 rice plants during ripening phase. Therefore, the prevailing UA in rice grains
246 observed in RFS-occurred fields might primarily attribute to the widespread
247 contamination of UA in paddy waters. The bioconcentration factor (BCF, the ratio of
248 UA concentrations in brown rice to corresponding surface waters, ($\mu\text{g/kg}_{\text{grain}})/(\mu\text{g/L}_{\text{water}})$) in this exposure were calculated to be in the range of 0.30 – 0.41 L/kg, which
249 was comparable with some hydrophilic microcystin ($\log K_{ow}$ -1.2 ~ -1.54, BCF 0.53)
250 (Cao et al., 2018). However, the BCFs of UA were 5-6 times lower than the factor of
251 grains (geometric mean: 1.95, median: 1.48) from non-diseased panicles in fields,
252 indicating that there might be an existence of other pathways for UA accumulation in
253

254 rice plants, such as foliar uptake, in field condition. Although an exposure
255 experiment of UB was not carried out, which was mainly restricted by the limited
256 availability of pure UB, the uptake of UB in water-rice plant system was predictable
257 due to the very similar structure with UA (Table S1) (Li et al., 2008). Overall, the
258 field study and laboratory experiment demonstrated that ustiloxins could be taken up
259 by the roots and accumulated in grains in water-rice system of RFS-occurred regions,
260 which is likely a contributing factor to widespread contamination of rice grains even
261 in non-diseased panicles in RFS-occurred regions.

262 **3.3 Geographic Distribution of Ustiloxins in Polished Rice from Hubei Province**

263 To further explore the occurrence of ustiloxins, the concentrations of UA and
264 UB in 149 polished rice samples from Hubei Province (China) were analyzed.
265 Consistent with the results from the field survey of this study, ustiloxins were
266 prevalent in polished rice. UA was found in approximately 96% of the polished rice
267 samples, with concentrations in the range of <11.6 ng/kg dw (LOD) – 54.79 µg/kg
268 dw. In contrast, the levels and detection frequencies of UB (62.4%) found in those
269 samples were generally lower than those of UA, which ranged from <9.1 ng/kg
270 (LOD) to 2.76 µg/kg dw with a GM value of 0.06 µg/kg dw. The serious ustiloxin
271 contamination observed in polished rice was supposed to be a result of the extremely
272 high RFS incidence in Hubei Province annually (about 40%) (Lu et al., 2018; Zhang
273 et al., 2006). Descriptive statistics of the concentrations of UA and UB in polished
274 rice of 13 cities were shown in Fig S3 and summarized in Table S4 and S5. Among
275 the 13 cities, the detection frequencies of UA were greater than 85 %, and higher
276 abundances of UA were found in Yichang (GM: 2.76 µg/kg dw), Wuhan (GM: 1.75)
277 and Xianning (GM: 1.38). With the exception of Enshi Tujia and Miao Autonomous
278 Prefecture (93.0 %), Tianmen (100 %) and Xianning (81.8 %), much lower detection
279 frequencies of UB (below 70 %) were found in the rest of the 13 cities, which might
280 be closely linked with the fact that the contents of UB were generally lower (2-11
281 folds) in RFS balls than that of UA (Wang et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2018; Fu et al.,
282 2017). Meanwhile, significant differences could be found between the spatial

283 distribution of UA and UB, which might be due to the fact that the genetic diversity
284 of pathogens and the ratios of UA/UB in RFS balls varied substantially in different
285 places (Abbas et al., 2014). This result demonstrated the ubiquitous contamination of
286 ustiloxins in rice, which might be the consequence of ustiloxin uptake and
287 translocation in paddy fields as described above.

288 The geographical distribution of Σ ustiloxins in rice is shown in Fig. 4. A
289 remarkable degree of spatial variation of Σ ustiloxins concentrations was found, with
290 GM concentrations ranging from 0.37 to 2.79 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg dw}$. Relatively higher levels of
291 Σ ustiloxins were found in Yichang (2.79 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg dw}$), Xianning (1.92) and Wuhan
292 (1.66). The measured ustiloxin levels in rice from Hubei Province (GM range of 0.37
293 - 2.79 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg dw}$) were approximately 40 times lower than those found in peeled rice
294 from a supermarket of Heilongjiang Province (GM: 34.05 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg dw}$) (Fu et al.,
295 2015b), but were comparable with those found in brown rice from non-diseased
296 panicles in the present study (GM: 0.82 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg dw}$). Taken together, the results from
297 this study suggested the contamination of ustiloxins might occur widely in rice
298 planting countries, and widespread ustiloxin exposure in humans might be occurring.
299 Although the toxicity of ustiloxins toward humans remains unknown, animal studies
300 showed that exposure to ustiloxins was linked to obviously pathogenic changes
301 (Nakamura et al., 1994; Wang et al., 2017). Furthermore, it was reported that
302 relatively lower micromolar concentrations of ustiloxins were cytotoxic towards
303 various eukaryotes (the half maximal inhibitory concentration (IC_{50}): 0.39-17.05 μM)
304 (Joullie et al., 2011; Koiso et al., 1994; Li, et al., 2006). Further investigations are
305 needed to elucidate the contamination profiles of ustiloxins in global rice and their
306 potential threatens to environment and human health.

307

308 **4. Conclusion**

309 This study, for the first time, provided evidence that ustiloxins could be taken
310 up by roots of rice plants from contaminated paddy waters in RFS-occurred paddy
311 fields. Besides, the results indicated a ubiquitous occurrence of ustiloxins in polished

312 rice collected from Hubei Province (China). Although sample sizes were limited, our
313 findings highlighted a possibility that numerous people, particularly South and
314 South-East Asian, were likely to be suffering from ustiloxin exposure via the diet.
315 Considering that RFS is now categorized as one of the most devastating diseases of
316 rice, further efforts are urgently needed to evaluate the contamination of ustiloxins in
317 rice worldwide.

318

319 **Conflict of interest**

320 All of the authors declare no competing financial interests.

321

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326

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481

482 **Figure legends**

483 **Figure 1.** Correlation between numbers of RFS balls per 100 panicles and
484 concentrations of UA in paddy waters at the dough grain stage of rice (a) and at the
485 mature stage of rice (b); Correlation between numbers of RFS balls per 100 panicles
486 and concentrations of UB in paddy waters at the dough grain stage of rice (c) and at
487 the mature stage of rice (d). Each symbol denotes the result of an independent
488 sampling site (n = 33).

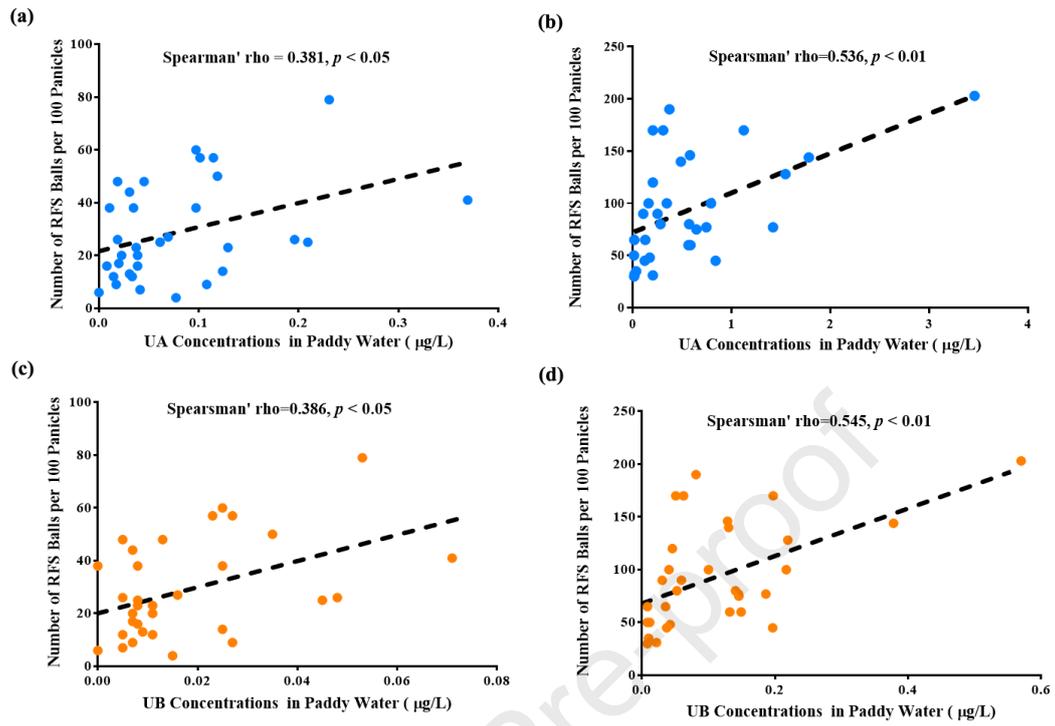
489 **Figure 2.** (a) Association of concentrations of UA in brown rice collected from
490 diseased panicles (with detectible rice false ball) and concentrations of UA in
491 surrounding paddy waters (n = 33); (b) Correlation of UA residues in brown rice
492 collected from non-diseased panicles (without detectible rice false ball) and
493 concentrations of UA in surrounding paddy waters (n = 33); (c) Association of
494 concentrations of UB in brown rice collected from diseased panicles (with detectible
495 rice false ball) and concentrations of UB in surrounding paddy waters (n = 33); (d)
496 Correlation of UB residues in brown rice collected from non-diseased panicles
497 (without detectible rice false ball) and concentrations of UB in surrounding paddy
498 waters (n = 33). Each symbol denotes the result of an independent sampling site.

499 **Figure 3.** (a) A schematic setup of rice crops exposed to UA. (b) Concentrations of
500 UA in brown rice and stalks of rice after exposure to 0, 2.0 or 10.0 $\mu\text{g/L}$ UA for 30
501 days. ND means concentration below the detection limit. Means were averaged from
502 three replicates and error bars indicate SEM.

503 **Figure 4.** Concentration distribution of Σ ustiloxins (geometric concentration of UA
504 and UB) in polished rice from 13 cities of Hubei Province, China.

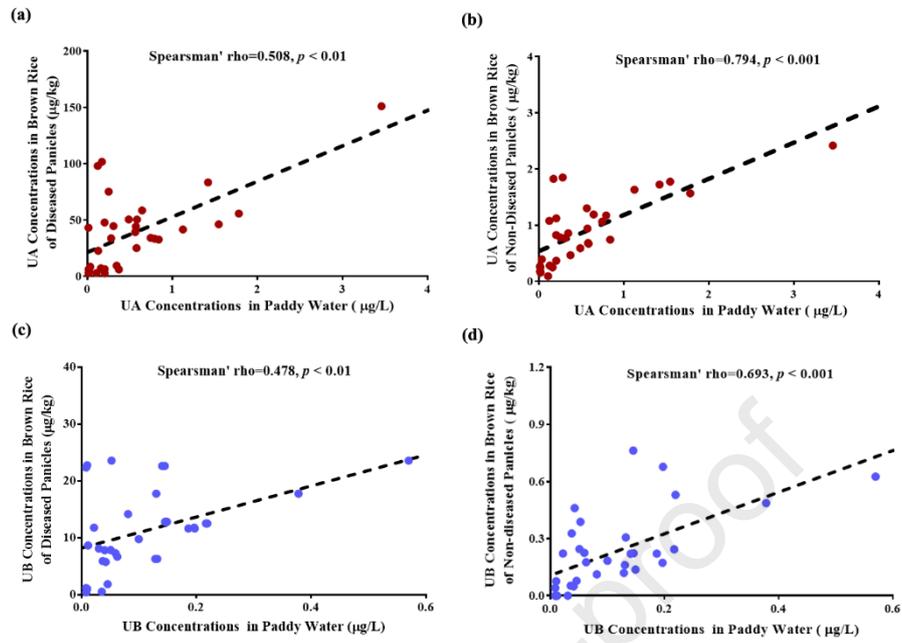
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507 **Fig. 1**

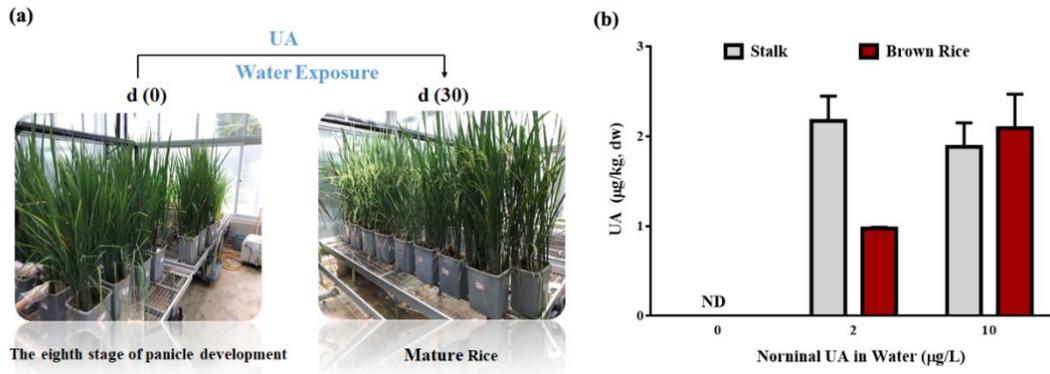
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510 **Fig. 2**

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513 **Fig. 3**

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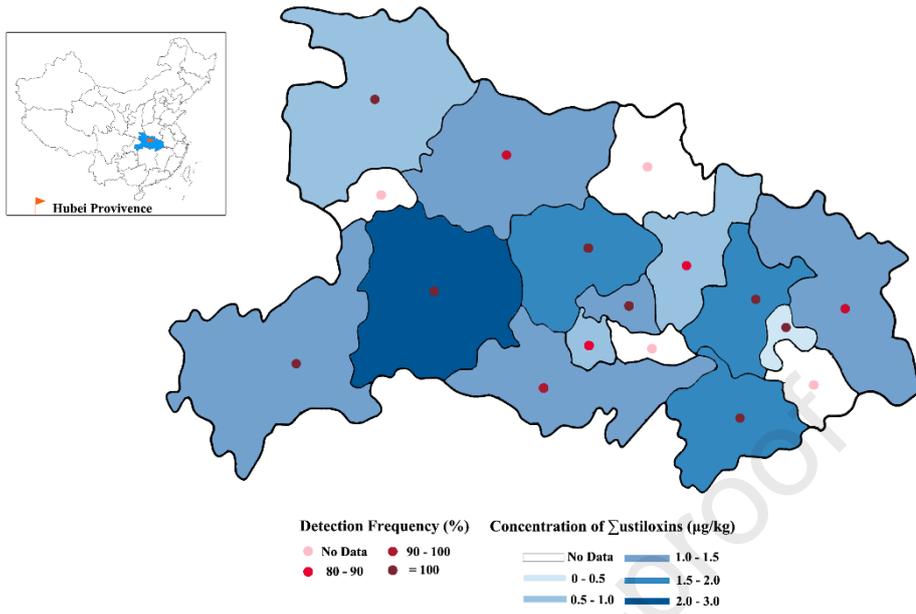
516 **Fig. 4**

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of UA and UB in rice grains samples and surface waters from RFS-occurred paddies in Enshi City, Hubei Province, China.

Samples ^a	Surface Waters ($\mu\text{g/L}$)		Rice Grains ($\mu\text{g/kg dw}$)		
	Dough Grain Stage	Mature Grain Stage	Diseased Panicles	Non-diseased Panicles	
UA	DF ^b (%)	100	100	100	100
	GM ^c	0.05	0.25	22.91	0.69
	Median	0.04	0.31	34.12	0.78
	Ranges	0.01-0.37	0.02-3.46	2.61-154.08	0.09-2.82
UB	DF ^b (%)	93.9	100	100	84.8
	GM ^c	0.01	0.07	4.66	0.13
	Median	0.01	0.06	7.31	0.18
	Ranges	<0.02 - 0.07	0.02-1.15	0.43-23.57	<0.09 - 0.82

^a n = 33; ^b detection frequency; ^c geometric mean.

Highlights:

- (1) Ustiloxins were widespread in surface waters of RFS-occurred paddies.
- (2) Root uptake of ustiloxins from surface water widely occurred in paddy fields.
- (3) Ustiloxins showed high detection frequency in rice plants due to root uptake.
- (4) Ustiloxins contamination was ubiquitous in polished rice of Hubei province.

Journal Pre-proof

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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Supporting Information

Occurrence and translocation of ustiloxins in rice false smut-occurred paddy fields, Hubei, China

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Contents

Materials and Methods

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Tables S5: Concentration of UB across Hubei province

Text S1

Reagents

Ustiloxin A (UA) and ustiloxins B (UB) were isolated and purified from rice false smut balls according to a previous work (Sun et al., 2021), and the purity was > 95 %. Methanol (MeOH), acetonitrile (ACN), dichloromethane (DCM), formic acid (FA), ammonium acetate (AA) and ammonium hydroxide (NH₄OH) (LC-MS grade) were obtained from Honeywell (Seelze, Germany). CCl₃COOH was purchased from Aladdin Corporation (Shanghai, China). Ultrapure water was from a Milli-Q water purification system (Millipore, Bedford, MA, USA). Oasis HLB (60 mg, 3 cc) and CNW BOUD WAX (200 mg, 3 cc) SPE cartridges were obtained from Waters (Wexford, Ireland) and Anpel laboratory Technologies (Shanghai, China), respectively.

Text S2

Rice and straws extraction. The lyophilized rice grains were milled to obtain brown rice. 500 mg of grounded polished/brown rice (150 µm) or 300 mg grounded straws (150 µm) and 10 mL pure water were added into a centrifuge tube, and the mixture was shaken vigorously for 10 min using vertical oscillator and then ultrasonic for another 10 min. Subsequently, the mixture was centrifuged at 7000 rpm for 10 min, and the aquatic solution was collected. Then, the remaining residues were extracted twice, and the combined supernatant was extracted with 25 mL dichloromethane. The upper layer was collected and loaded on WAX cartridge (CNW, 200 mg, 3 mL) after acidized with formic acid (pH = 5.0). After the cartridge was washed with 2 mL water (pH = 5.0) and 2 mL MeOH, the residues of ustiloxins were eluted with 2 mL 1 % NH₄OH-MeOH. The elutes were evaporated to dryness with nitrogen stream, and reconstituted in 200 µL 5 % MeOH-water for LC-MS/MS analysis.

Paddy water extraction. Briefly, 4 mL unfrozen paddy water was added into a 10 mL polypropylene tube containing 4 mL DCM. The mixture was shaken vigorously and centrifuged at 7000 rpm for 10 min. Subsequently, the supernatants were collected and acidified with 0.4 mL ammonium acetate solutions (500 mM, 5 % FA). Then, the aquatic solution was purified with a HLB cartridge (Waters, 60 mg, 3 mL). The cartridge was preconditioned with 3 mL MeOH and 3 mL of 50 mM ammonium acetate solution

containing 0.5% FA, and was washed with 2 mL 0.5 % FA solution after loaded. Finally, the target analytes were eluted with 2 mL water-MeOH mixed solution (V:V = 5:95). The eluent was concentrated with nitrogen stream and then reconstituted in 200 μ L 5 % MeOH-water. The solution was filtered (0.22 μ m) for LC-MS/MS analysis.

Text S3

LC-MS/MS analysis. Analysis of UA and UB were carried out by Waters ACQUITY UPLC® H-Plus Class system (UHPLC) coupled to Waters® Xevos™ TQ-XS mass spectrometer (TQ-XS/MS) (Milford, MA, USA) with electrospray ionization source in positive model (ESI (+)). The separation was accomplished using Acquity UPLC HSS T3 (100 mm \times 2.1 mm, 1.8 μ m, Waters) column with water (0.01% formic acid, A) and MeOH (B) as mobile phase. Gradient condition with a flow rate of 0.3 mL/min was used for separation: 0-0.5 min, 5 % B; 0.5-5 min, 95 % B (linear); 5-7 min, 95% B; 7-7.2 min, 5 % B (linear); 7.2-9 min, 5% B. The injection volume was 2 μ L and the column temperature was set at 40 °C. Transitions of m/z 674.30 > 209.00 and m/z 646.25 > 181.10 were used for quantitative analysis of UA and UB, respectively. While, transitions of m/z 674.30 > 187.00 and m/z 646.25 > 187.00 were used for qualification analysis of UA and UB, respectively. The extraction recovery, matrix effect and LOD (limit of detection) and LOQ (limit of quantification) of proposed methods in this study for the analysis of UA and UB were shown in Table S3.

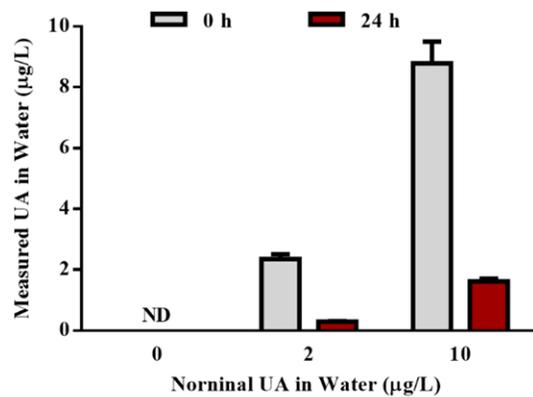


Fig. S1. Concentrations of UA in surface waters measured at two time points in rice exposure experiment. ND means concentration below the detection limit. Means were averaged from three replicates and the error bars indicated SEM.

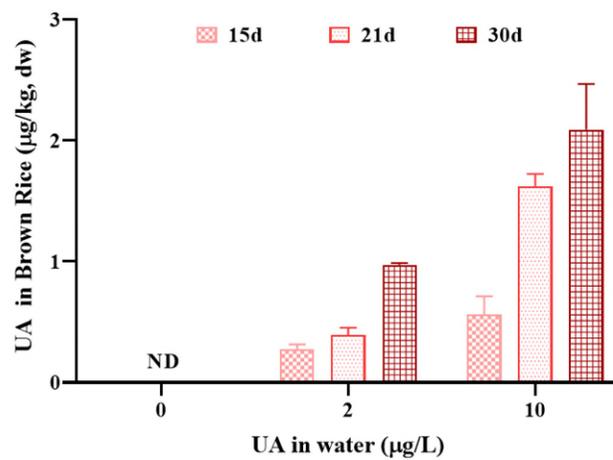


Fig. S2. Concentrations of UA in brown rice of rice plants after exposure to UA (0, 2 and 10 µg/L).

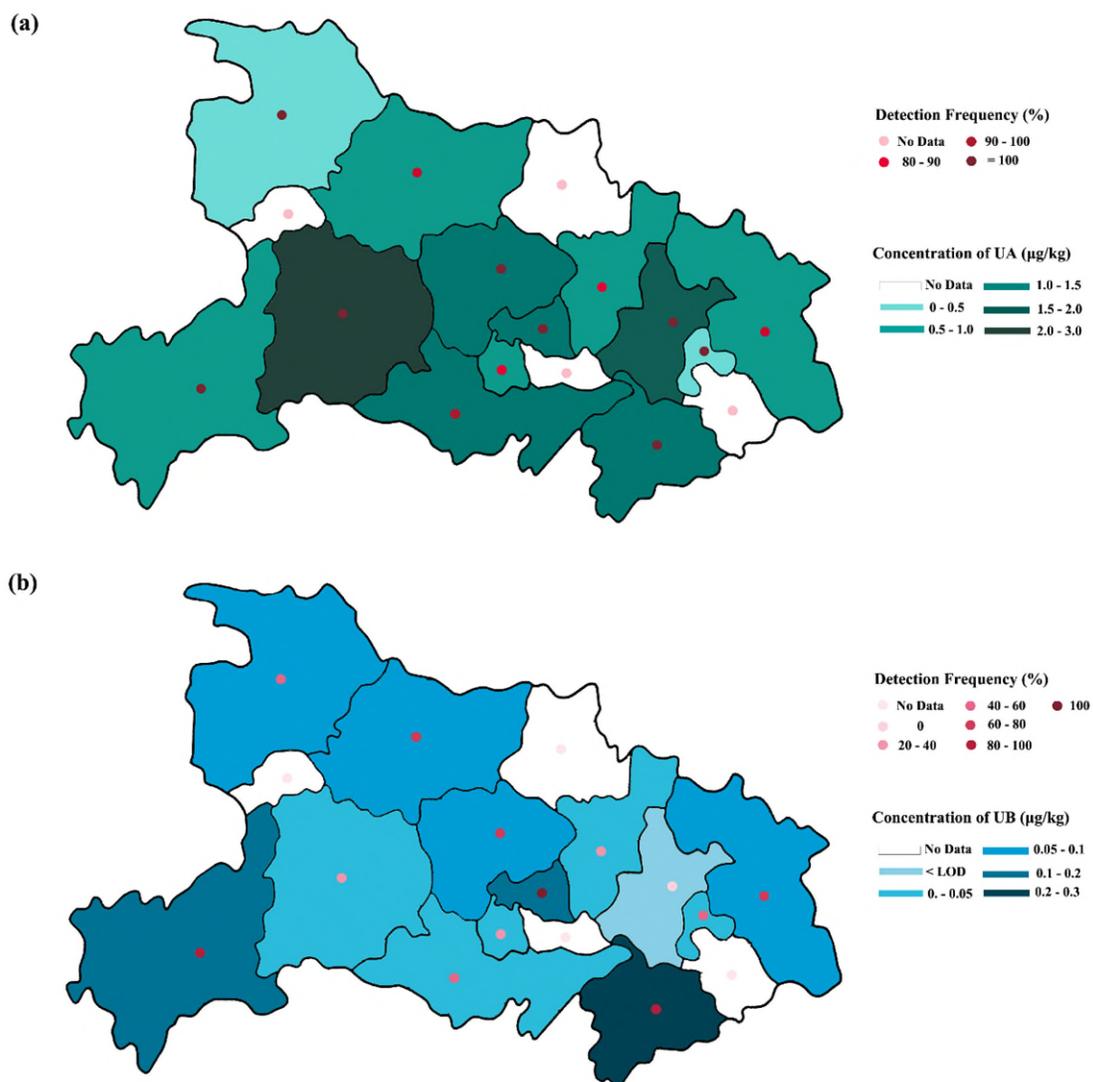


Fig. S3. Spatial distribution of UA (a) and UB (b) in rice across Hubei province. The colors of dots represent detection frequency of UA and UB in samples of rice. Colors of province or city show geometric concentrations of UA and UB in polished rice.

Table S1. Physico-chemical properties of ustiloxin A and ustiloxin B.

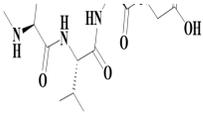
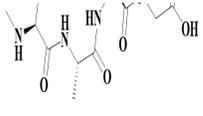
Compound	Structure	Water Solubility (g/L)	log K_{ow}	pKa	
				Acidic	Basic
Ustiloxin A		4.01	-1.6	1.05	8.8
Ustiloxin B		1.10	-1.5	1.05	8.85

Table S2. Information of the sampling sites.

No.	Location	Longitude	Latitude	Date and time	
				The first time	The second time
S1	Qingshan Village	109° 11' 37"	29° 43' 22"	2019.9.18 9:05	2019.10.08 8:23
S2	Qingshan Village	109° 11' 42"	29° 43' 3"	2019.9.18 10:53	2019.10.08 9:53
S3	Qingshan Village	109° 11' 45"	29° 43' 37"	2019.9.18 14:35	2019.10.08 13:33
S4	Qingshan Village	109° 11' 51"	29° 43' 41"	2019.9.18 15:21	2019.10.08 15:03
S5	Qingshan Village	109° 11' 57"	29° 43' 1"	2019.9.18 16:05	2019.10.08 16:43
S6	Laozhai Village	109° 8' 43"	29° 36' 5"	2019.9.19 8:12	2019.10.09 8:03
S7	Laozhai Village	109° 8' 45"	29° 36' 9"	2019.9.19 9:43	2019.10.09 9:28
S8	Laozhai Village	109° 8' 49"	29° 36' 12"	2019.9.19 11:12	2019.10.09 10:41
S9	Laozhai Village	109° 8' 51"	29° 36' 14"	2019.9.19 14:02	2019.10.09 14:03
S10	Laozhai Village	109° 8' 53"	29° 36' 23"	2019.9.19 15:25	2019.10.09 15:28
S11	Laozhai Village	109° 8' 32"	29° 36' 36"	2019.9.19 16:49	2019.10.09 16:51

Table S3. Method limits of quantification (LOQ), limit of detection (LOQ), extract recoveries and matrix effects of UA and UB in various matrixes (n = 3).

Compounds	Samples	Recovery \pm SD %	Matrix Effect \pm SD %	LOD ^a	LOQ
UA	Paddy Water	85.5 \pm 3.5	91.5 \pm 8.5	1.2	3.8
	Rice	89.3 \pm 8.6	101.8 \pm 0.4	11.6	38.9
	Straw	80.7 \pm 2.1	80.8 \pm 1.9	192.1	640.4
UB	Paddy Water	80.5 \pm 2.1	92.0 \pm 6.3	1.5	5.0
	Rice	85.1 \pm 6.6	98.3 \pm 1.2	9.1	30.3
	Straw	81.3 \pm 3.2	86.5 \pm 3.1	161.2	537.3

^a ng/L (ng/kg)

Table S4. Descriptive statistics of UA residues ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg dw}$) in 149 polished rice samples collected from Hubei provinces, China.

City	Sample Number	Detection Frequency (%)	Mean	Median	Geomean	Maximum
Enshi Tujia and Miao Autonomous Prefecture	43	100	1.70	0.69	0.69	9.67
Ezhou	2	100	0.66	0.66	0.33	1.23
Huanggang	21	95.2	1.37	0.90	0.86	7.10
Jingmen	6	100	1.64	1.71	1.36	2.53
Jingzhou	23	95.2	2.37	1.34	1.10	14.12
Qianjiang	8	87.5	1.05	0.69	0.55	2.10
Shiyan	2	100	0.45	0.45	0.43	0.60
Tianmen	2	100	1.07	1.07	1.06	1.22
Wuhan	2	100	1.75	1.75	1.75	1.87
Xianning	14	100	2.14	1.31	1.38	7.74
Xiangyang	13	92.3	5.19	0.98	0.87	54.79
Xiaogan	9	88.9	1.76	0.83	0.56	8.81
Yichang	4	100	3.33	3.36	2.76	5.39

Table S5. Descriptive statistics of UB residues ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg dw}$) in 149 polished rice samples collected from Hubei provinces, China.

City	Sample Number	Detection Frequency (%)	Mean	Median	Geomean	Maximum
Enshi Tujia and Miao Autonomous Prefecture	43	93.0	2.06	0.35	0.16	2.76
Ezhou	2	50	0.09	0.09	0.04	0.18
Huanggang	21	61.9	0.17	0.09	0.06	0.81
Jingmen	6	66.7	0.20	0.18	0.08	0.55
Jingzhou	23	47.9	0.20	<LOD	0.03	2.01
Qianjiang	8	25.0	0.03	<LOD	0.01	0.20
Shiyan	2	50	0.43	0.43	0.08	0.85
Tianmen	2	100	0.25	0.25	0.24	0.31
Wuhan	2	0	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD
Xianning	14	81.8	1.64	0.09	0.10	7.74
Xiangyang	13	61.5	0.14	0.15	0.06	0.45
Xiaogan	9	22.2	0.09	<LOD	0.02	0.54
Yichang	4	25.0	0.05	<LOD	0.02	0.17

Reference

1. Sun, Q., Liu, H., Zhang, Y.et al., **2021**. Detection of ustiloxin A in urine by ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry coupled with two-step solid-phase extraction. *J. Chromatogr. B* 1181, 122916. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jchromb.2021.122916>