

An improved method for measuring quantitative resistance to the wheat pathogen Zymoseptoria tritici using highthroughput automated image analysis

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2*Zymoseptoria tritici* using high throughput automated image analysis

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36

37

38Abstract

39*Zymoseptoria tritici* causes Septoria tritici blotch (STB) on wheat. An improved 40method of quantifying STB symptoms was developed based on automated analysis 41 of diseased leaf images made using a flatbed scanner. Naturally infected leaves 42(n=949) sampled from fungicide-treated field plots comprising 39 wheat cultivars 43grown in Switzerland and 9 recombinant inbred lines (RILs) grown in Oregon, USA 44were included in these analyses. Measures of quantitative resistance were percent 45leaf area covered by lesions, pycnidia size and grey value and pycnidia density per 46leaf and lesion. These measures were obtained automatically with a batch 47processing macro utilizing the image processing software ImageJ. All phenotypes in 48both locations showed a continuous distribution as expected for a quantitative trait. 49The trait distributions at both sites were largely overlapping even though the field and 50host environments were quite different. Cultivars and RILs could be assigned to two 51or more statistically different groups for each measured phenotype. Traditional visual 52assessments of field resistance were highly correlated with quantitative resistance 53measures based on image analysis for the Oregon RILs. These results show that 54automated image analysis provides a promising tool for assessing quantitative 55resistance to *Z. tritici* under field conditions.

56

57Introduction

58

59Wheat is the most important food crop in Europe and second most important 60worldwide after rice, with an average annual global production of >600 million tons 61(http://faostat3.fao.org/browse/Q/QC/E). Zymoseptoria tritici (formerly 62Mycosphaerella graminicola) is the most damaging wheat pathogen in Europe 63(Jorgensen et al. 2014; O'Driscoll et al. 2014) and is considered an important fungal 64pathogen worldwide (Dean et al, 2012). Symptoms typically include leaf chlorosis 10-6514 days after infection that develops into necrotic lesions. Small dark asexual fruiting 66structures called pycnidia begin to develop soon after the onset of necrosis. 67Pycnidiospores are exuded from the pycnidia during periods of high humidity and are 68dispersed throughout the crop canopy by rain splash. The asexual cycle is the 69primary source of plant damage and may occur multiple times during a growing 70season. Currently there is no completely effective control strategy for Z. tritici. The 71 main control methods are fungicide treatments and planting resistant varieties. Even 72 with the combined use of resistant cultivars and regular fungicide treatments, yield 73losses of 5 – 10% can be expected (Fones & Gurr, 2015). In Europe, approximately 741 billion euros is spent on fungicides annually to control Z. tritici (Torriani et al, 2015). 75With resistance to fungicides becoming an increasing problem, greater focus must

76be placed on exploiting genetic resistance as a control method (Orton et al, 2011, 77Brown et al, 2015). Given that major gene resistance is prone to failure (Mundt, 782014) and most of virulence is quantitative (Zhan et al. 2007, Stewart and McDonald 792014), successful breeding strategies are likely to rely on quantitative resistance. 80Twenty-one resistance genes have been identified in wheat that confer mainly 81qualitative resistance to *Z. tritici* and show strong host-isolate specificity. In addition, 8289 genomic regions have been identified that confer low levels of quantitative 83(partial) resistance to a wide range of isolates (Brown et al, 2015).

84

85Accurate phenotypic data are needed to more effectively develop and deploy 86disease resistant varieties. Researchers need accurate measurements of disease to 87evaluate the effects of different types of resistance on the pathogen under controlled 88environmental conditions. Breeders would benefit from more accurate 89measurements to choose among resistant lines in breeding nurseries and field trials. 90National agricultural research agencies need accurate measurements of resistance 91under field conditions to generate lists of recommended cultivars for farmers. In 92addition, accurate and precise measurements of disease development are useful for 93measuring and validating the effectiveness of fungicides and biological control 94agents.

95

96Accurately scoring subtle differences in quantitative resistance showing a continuous 97distribution is more difficult than scoring major gene resistance that shows a largely 98binomial distribution. High throughput systems are needed to screen multiple plant 99lines, possibly over multiple time points. Digital image analysis provides an accurate 100way to measure levels of plant disease as well as other traits of interest. Image101based phenotyping is increasingly used in experimental systems, but has not been 102widely adopted in breeding programs. We previously described a method for 103quantifying disease in the *Z. tritici* - wheat pathosystem based on high throughput 104image analysis using a batch processing macro in the open source image 105processing software ImageJ (Rasband, W.S., ImageJ; U.S. National Institutes of 106Health, Bethesda, MD. (http://imagej.nih.gov/ij/, 1997–2015)) (Stewart & McDonald 1072014). This method was shown to be more accurate and reproducible than visual 108estimates in a controlled greenhouse seedling assay. Two shortcomings of this 109method were difficulties in implementation for users not familiar with ImageJ macros 110and variations in camera and light set-ups, making comparisons between 111experiments and groups difficult. Conventional flatbed scanners are inexpensive and 112offer consistent settings and light levels. Scanners have previously been used to 113phenotype rice root architecture (Kato et al, 2010), microbial growth in microtiter 114plates (Gabrielson et al, 2002), Arabidopsis leaf morphology (Maloof et al, 2013), 115and *Cladosporium fulvum* symptoms in tomato (Abd-El-Haliem, 2012).

116

117We adapted our previously described camera-based method to utilize flatbed 118scanners and improve the ease of acquisition of digital images of symptoms caused 119by *Z. tritici*. We then used this method to measure quantitative resistance to *Z. tritici* 120under field conditions among 39 naturally infected wheat cultivars in Switzerland and 1219 naturally infected recombinant inbred lines (RILs) in Oregon. Our findings indicate 122that automated image analysis can provide a powerful tool to differentiate among 123different degrees and forms of quantitative resistance under field conditions, 124suggesting that this method may be useful for breeding quantitative resistance to *Z.* 125*tritici*. 126

127 Materials and Methods

128

129Several changes were made to the method reported previously (Stewart & 130McDonald, 2014). To address the issue of variation among labs due to differences in 131 lighting and camera setups, the method was adapted to use a flatbed scanner 132instead of a camera. This allows the settings to be more consistent between 133 experiments and laboratories. In addition, the ImageJ macro was modified to make it 134more user-friendly and easier to customize (Supplementary File 1). A Linux shell 135script (Supplementary File 2) reads a text file containing a list of sample names as 136 input and creates a .pdf file with the typesetting software LaTeX (LaTeX3 Project 137Team. 2015. https://latex-project.org) containing pages on which to mount infected 138 leaves. Each printed page contains fixed reference points used to set the image 139scale and boxes within which to mount the leaves. Each box contains one of the 140sample names provided in the text file in human readable text as well as encoded as 141a QR code. After mounting the leaves, the pages are scanned using a conventional 142 flatbed scanner at a resolution of 1200 dpi and images are saved in .tiff or .jpg 143 format. After scanning, the images are processed using ImageJ via a batch 144processing macro described below.

145

146Several plugins were used or modified to achieve greater usability of the macro 147(Supplementary Files 3-7). The macro automatically checks if these plugins are 148present and compiles them if necessary. Before running the image analysis, the new 149macro produces several pop-up boxes asking the user for various inputs. Here the 150user specifies various parameters such as colour threshold values for lesion 151 detection and size and shape descriptors for pycnidia detection. These inputs are 152stored as variables and used throughout the macro, eliminating the need to manually 153 customize the macro code. Macro settings are saved and can be used in subsequent 154 runs of the macro without having to re-enter the parameter values. Each leaf is 155analyzed individually with the sample name for each leaf read from the QR code. A 156customized results table was also added that outputs summary data on total leaf 157 area, lesion area, percent leaf area covered by lesions (PLACL), pycnidia count, 158pycnidia per cm² leaf area, pycnidia per cm² lesion leaf area, mean pycnidia size and 159mean pycnidia grey value as well as sample name for each leaf. By choosing 160different color threshold settings, the macro will either measure leaf necrosis (brown 161 senesced tissue) or leaf lesions (brown senesced tissue, chlorotic tissue and any 162other non-green leaf tissue). Leaf lesions were used in this study. Pycnidia grey 163 values are obtained by converting the RGB image into an 8-bit grey scale image and 164 calculating the mean grey value of the pixels making up each pycnidium. The 165 grevscale ranges from 0 (black) to 255 (white) and can be used as a proxy for 166degree of melanization in Z. tritici (Lendenman et al, 2014). An overlay image for 167each leaf is produced with the total leaf area, lesion area and each pychidium visibly 168outlined. Coherent step-by-step instructions to implement the analysis were also 169written (Supplementary File 8).

170

171Validation using naturally infected leaf samples from field experiments 172

173Leaves were collected from field plots naturally infected with *Z. tritici* at Lindau 174Eschikon, Switzerland (47.449683, 8.682461) and Corvallis, Oregon, USA 175(44.633400, -123.193957). Swiss plots were planted to winter wheat cultivars varying 176 in resistance to Z. tritici in a randomized block design with two blocks, with each 177 cultivar represented in both blocks. Plots received four fungicide treatments 178throughout the growing season, one in April (Input, Bayer), two in May, (Gladio, 179Syngenta & Aviator Xpro, Bayer) and a fourth in June (Proline, Bayer). Thirty Swiss 180 cultivars were sampled along with nine cultivars chosen because of differences in 181their stomatal density. Existing disease ratings for 21 of the Swiss cultivars were 182taken from the Swiss Granum recommended varieties lists (Courvoisier et al, 2015) 183published between 2008-2015. On 30th June 2015, twenty leaves were collected 184 from each cultivar, with 10 leaves sampled from each block. Non-senescent leaves 185exhibiting obvious STB lesions were collected from the topmost infected leaf layer in 186each plot, typically originating from one or two leaves below the flag leaf on a 187sampled plant. Infected leaves were placed in paper envelopes, kept on ice in the 188 field, and stored at 4°C overnight before mounting on plain paper containing 189 reference marks and sample names as described above. Absorbent paper was 190 placed between each sheet of mounted leaves and sheets were pressed with \sim 5 kg 191at 4°C overnight prior to scanning. Pages were scanned at a resolution of 1200 dpi 192using a flatbed scanner (EPSON XP-810) and the resulting images were saved in .tif 193 format.

194

195Oregon leaves were sampled from the Einstein x Tubbs recombinant inbred line 196(RIL) population (Vazquez et al. 2015), which consists of 259 RILs varying in 197resistance to *Z. tritici* and other pathogens. The population was planted in early 198October 2014 at the Oregon State University Hyslop Farm Field Laboratory north of 199Corvallis. Similarly to the Swiss plots, the Oregon plots were planted in a randomized 200block design with two blocks. Each plot consisted of three rows that were planted 3.0 201m long, with 20.3 cm between rows. All plots received four applications of 202azoxystrobin fungicide (Ouadris, Syngenta) over the course of the season to prevent 203 establishment of stripe rust (Puccinia striiformis) and to suppress development of 204 other fungal diseases. The Oregon Z. tritici population is predominately resistant to 205azoxystrobin at this point in time (Hagerty & Mundt 2015) and the Septoria tritici 206blotch epidemic progressed normally despite the fungicide applications. Nine of the 207259 RIL lines were chosen for analysis based on visible differences in resistance to 208*Z. tritici* coupled with late maturity. Field disease ratings for the Oregon lines were 209taken on 5 June 2015. Each plot was assigned a disease severity rating between 0-210100%. On 10 June 2015, 24 leaves were collected from each of the nine selected 211 lines, representing four flag leaves from each row of each plot. Flag leaves exhibiting 212Z. tritici symptoms that were not yet senesced were collected without regard to the 213 level of disease. Infected leaves were placed between pages of a heavy textbook in 214 the field, and stored on a lab bench overnight before mounting on plain paper the 215 following day. Mounted leaves were kept flat, cool, and dry until October 2015 when 216 leaves were re-mounted to paper containing reference marks and sample names as 217 described above. Oregon leaves were scanned immediately following the re-218mounting using a flatbed scanner (Canon CanoScan LiDE 700F) and the images 219were saved in .jpg format.

220

221 Image Analysis

222

223Images were analyzed using the ImageJ macro described above (macro settings 224given in Supplementary File 9). For each leaf the macro measured total leaf area, 225total lesion area, number of pycnidia, mean size of pycnidia and pycnidia grey value. 226PLACL was calculated by dividing the lesion area by the total leaf area. Pycnidia 227density per cm² leaf area and per cm² lesion area were calculated by dividing the 228number of pycnidia by the total leaf area and total lesion area respectively.

229

230Based on the image analysis results, 18 representative leaves were selected across 231the range of pycnidia counted, ranging from 0 to 1000 per leaf in increments of 232approximately 50 pycnidia. The pycnidia from these leaves were counted manually 233using the multi-point selection tool in ImageJ.

234

235The same leaves that were used for the comparison between scanner and manual 236counts were re-scanned with two different scanners (EPSON XP-810 and Canon 237CanoScan LiDE 220) using the above settings to test for variation between 238scanners. Grey values of the black reference points printed on each page were 239measured using the measure command in ImageJ. Similarly, three areas on each 240page containing neither printed matter nor leaves were measured per image to gain 241a measure of the grey value from blank areas.

242

243Data analyses

244

245All analyses were carried out in base R (R core team, 2012) unless specified 246differently. Mean values plus standard deviations were calculated for each 247phenotype on each host. The effect of cultivar on phenotype and comparisons of 248treatments were performed using the Kruskal Wallis test and multiple comparisons of 249treatments from the Agricolae package (de Mendiburu, 2014) using a Bonferroni 250correction for multiple comparisons. Differences between blocks were calculated with 251a Wilcoxon signed rank test. Correlations were performed with Pearson's product 252moment correlation coefficient. Correlations between phenotypes were made 253between values for each leaf. Correlations between field disease ratings and image 254analysis in the Oregon data set were made between visual scores for each plot and 255the mean value per plot from the image analysis. In the case of multiple correlations, 256p-values were corrected using Holm's correction. Differences in variance between 257phenotypes from the two datasets were calculated with a Fligner-Killeen test. Lin's 258concordance correlation coefficient (Lin, 1989) between actual values and values 259from image analysis was calculated as previously described (Stewart & McDonald 2602014) using the epi.ccc function in the epiR package (Stevenson et al, 2013). 261Differences between scanners were calculated using a Mann-Whitney test.

262

263<u>Results</u>

264

265From the image analysis output, the phenotypes PLACL, number of pycnidia per 266leaf, pycnidia per cm² leaf, pycnidia per cm² lesion, mean pycnidia size and mean 267pycnidia grey value were considered the traits most relevant to assessing 268quantitative resistance and were used for further analysis.

269

270All phenotypes showed a continuous distribution in both field sites (Figure 1). All 271phenotypes showed a similar distribution in the two datasets except PLACL, which 272showed a U-shaped distribution in the Oregon lines. The mean values of PLACL for 273each cultivar in Switzerland ranged from 11.3% to 34.6%. Total number of pycnidia 274per leaf ranged from 40 to 362 with pycnidia density within lesions ranging from 14.5/ 275cm² to 128/cm² (Supplementary Table 1). The mean number of pycnidia per leaf was

276149 (Table 1). Block had a significant effect on PLACL (W=77097, p=0.005) and 277pycnidia per cm² leaf (W=74022, p=0.017) but not on the other phenotypes. 278

279In the Oregon dataset, overall levels of disease were higher with PLACL ranging 280from 14.5% to 93.5%. Total number of pycnidia per leaf ranged from 52 to 1471 with 281pycnidia density within lesions ranging from 28.3/cm² to 65.5/cm² (Supplementary 282Table 1). The mean number of pycnidia per leaf was 640 (Table 1). No differences 283between blocks were observed in the Oregon dataset.

284

285Plant genotype had a significant effect on all phenotypes in both locations (Table 2). 286There was a significant difference between the genotype showing the highest and 287the genotype showing the lowest value for all phenotypes. Lines and cultivars could 288be grouped into 2 or more significantly different groups for all phenotypes in both 289locations (Supplementary Table 2).

290

291There was a significant, positive correlation between PLACL and pycnidia count and 292between PLACL and pycnidia per cm² leaf in both the Oregon ($r^2 = 0.45$, p<0.001 293and $r^2=0.46$, p<0.001 respectively) and Swiss ($r^2= 0.31$, p<0.001 and $r^2=0.36$, 294p<0.001 respectively) populations.

295

296Variance was significantly higher in the Oregon dataset for PLACL (χ^2 =246.55, 297p<0.001), pycnidia count (χ^2 =324.19, p<0.001) and pycnidia per cm² leaf (χ^2 =183.75, 298p<0.001). There was no difference in variance for mean pycnidia size, pycnidia per 299cm² lesion or pycnidia grey value between the two datasets.

301 Visual ratings made in the field in Oregon were significantly correlated with PLACL $302(r^2=0.67, p<0.001)$, pycnidia count ($r^2=0.63, p<0.001$) and pycnidia per cm² leaf ($r^2 = 3030.58, p<0.001$) from the image analysis. In the Swiss population, there was no visible 304 association between published cultivar disease ratings and the phenotypes observed 305 from image analysis. Due to the unbalanced numbers of cultivars found within each 306 disease rating (Supplementary Table 3), this association could not be tested 307 statistically.

308

309Pycnidia counts obtained with the ImageJ analysis were compared to absolute 310values obtained using manual counts. There was a strong agreement ($\rho_c = 0.94$) 311between the automated image analyses and the human-curated counts (Figure 2). 312Image analysis was both accurate ($C_b = 0.99$) and precise (r = 0.95) when compared 313to absolute values. For total leaf area and lesion area, overlay images generated by 314the image analysis were checked manually for accuracy and were deemed to be 315accurate.

316

317There was no difference between scanners for all of the phenotypes except pycnidia 318grey values, which were significantly darker (W=44.5, p=0.0002) from the Epson 319scanner, with a mean grey value of 98.5 over all pycnidia measured compared with a 320mean value of 110.9 for the Canon scanner. Black areas from the Epson scanner 321were significantly darker (W=1, p=0.004) compared to the Canon scanner with a 322mean grey value of 56.1 versus 62.2 for the Canon. However, white areas from the 323Epson scanner were significantly lighter (W=81, p <0.001) with a mean grey value of 324238.3 compared with 234.8 from the Canon scanner.

326The time needed to scan each page, representing 8 leaves, was ~2 minutes. The 327time needed to analyse the 140 pages of leaves from the Swiss dataset was 6 hours 32815 minutes of computational time on a standard desktop computer.

329

330Discussion

331

332An automated image analysis method developed to measure virulence-associated 333traits in *Z. tritici* was modified to assess quantitative resistance to Septoria tritici 334blotch in naturally infected, genetically diverse populations of wheat grown on two 335continents. The Swiss population was composed of a highly diverse set of popular 336wheat cultivars grown commercially in Switzerland. The Oregon population was 337composed of a series of experimental recombinant inbred lines based on a cross 338between two wheat cultivars known to differ for resistance to *Z. tritici* and chosen to 339represent different degrees of field resistance based on standardized disease rating 340scores. Automated image analysis was previously used to measure quantitative 341virulence traits among *Z. tritici* isolates under greenhouse conditions (Stewart & 342McDonald 2014) but this is its first application to naturally infected field populations. 343The method allows several different traits associated with quantitative resistance to 344be measured independently. Here we were able to measure PLACL, pycnidia size, 345pycnidia density over the entire leaf and within lesions, number of pycnidia per leaf 346and pycnidia grey values.

347

348There was no evidence for a binary resistant-susceptible phenotype in either of the 349datasets. All phenotypes showed a continuous distribution, providing further 350evidence that pathogen virulence and host resistance are usually quantitative traits

351in natural field infections of *Z. tritici*. PLACL showed a skew to the extremes of the 352distribution in the Oregon lines. In this case, a subset of nine RIL lines were chosen 353to represent a broad range of disease levels, but it appears that more plants showed 354symptoms at the extremes of the disease spectrum than in the middle. In the Swiss 355cultivars a more continuous distribution in quantitative resistance was observed.

356

357An overall correlation was found between PLACL and total number of pycnidia per 358leaf and pycnidia per cm² leaf in both datasets. However, there were some instances 359where lines and cultivars showed relatively high levels of PLACL coupled with low 360numbers of pycnidia and vice versa. In several cases, wheat cultivars (Switzerland) 361 and experimental lines (Oregon) showed different rankings for the different 362phenotypes. For example, in Switzerland PLACL was significantly higher in Caphorn 363than Magno, but there was no significant difference between pycnidia density within 364 lesions for the same cultivars. Conversely, Cambrena had significantly higher 365pycnidia density within lesions than Nirvana but PLACL was not significantly 366different. Similar patterns were observed in Oregon lines. This indicates that cultivars 367 may interact differently with the local pathogen population to produce different 368symptoms. Host specificity is well documented in Z. tritici (Zhan et al, 2002, Cowger 369& Mundt 2002). From these findings it appears that the same pathogen population 370can produce different symptoms on different hosts, suggesting that different 371 symptoms may reflect different mechanisms of resistance. Numerous resistance 372genes have been identified in wheat (Brown et al, 2015). Under the gene-for-gene 373paradigm, each resistance gene would interact with a counterpart in the pathogen. 374We speculate that different combinations of quantitative resistance genes in the host

375and quantitative virulence genes in the pathogen combine to produce the observed 376quantitative resistance phenotypes.

377

378There are numerous ways to measure resistance to Z. tritici, as described here and 379elsewhere (e.g. Suffert et al, 2013), though resistance is most commonly measured 380based on visible leaf damage (i.e. based on percentage of leaf area covered by 381 lesions and/or necrosis). It is possible that using the additional measures of virulence 382presented here could identify new resistance genes that affect different pathogen 383traits, such as pycnidial formation or pycnidial size, but this will require further 384 investigation. We postulate that larger pychidia contain more or larger 385pycnidiospores, thus giving isolates with larger pycnidia greater epidemic potential, 386 with more spores produced during each cycle of infection. In breeding programs, 387 resistant cultivars are typically selected primarily based on the presence of leaf 388 lesions or necrosis. In our dataset, some cultivars and genotypes showed high levels 389of leaf lesions but relatively low numbers of pycnidia. Because pycnidia represent a 390 direct measure of pathogen reproductive output and pycnidia density likely reflects 391 the epidemic potential of the pathogen on a particular host genotype, accurate 392 measurements of pycnidia production may provide a better indication of host 393resistance.

394

395Melanin is a dark pigment produced by a wide range of microbes, including plant 396pathogens. Melanisation in fungi has been linked to several agronomically relevant 397traits including stress tolerance (Singaravelan et al, 2008) and virulence (Scharf et 398al, 2014). By using grey values extracted from 8-bit grey scale images, we were able 399to obtain a proxy for melanisation based on the assumption that darker coloured 400pycnidia contain more melanin. In mapping populations generated using controlled 401crosses, melanization in *Z. tritici* was shown to be a quantitative trait *in vitro* 402(Lendenmann et al, 2015). Pycnidia size was also shown to be a quantitative trait in 403the same mapping populations using infections on two wheat cultivars conducted 404under highly controlled greenhouse conditions (Stewart & McDonald, 2014). The 405data presented here show that this is also the case in natural field infections 406encompassing many different host backgrounds and different environmental 407conditions. In this study, significant differences in pycnidia size and melanisation 408were found between cultivars. Assuming that a relatively homogeneous, though 409genetically diverse, population of *Z. tritici* exists across the sampled plots at both 410locations, this finding shows that the host influences not only the number and size of 411pycnidia but also the level of melanin produced by the pathogen.

412

413Despite regular fungicide applications throughout the growing season, high levels of 414*Z. tritici* infection were observed on treated plants in both locations. Swiss plots were 415treated primarily with azole (DMI) fungicides (Spiroxamin, Prothioconazol, 416Fenpropidin & Tebuconazol) with one application containing a mixture of 417Prothioconazol and Bixafen from the succinate dehydrogenase inhibitor (SDHI) class 418of fungicides. Resistance to DMI fungicides in Europe is widespread (Leroux & 419Walker, 2011) and has previously been reported in Swiss *Z. tritici* populations 420(Brunner et al, 2008). Although less widespread than DMI resistance, reduced 421sensitivity and resistance to SDHI fungicides has also been reported (Sierotzki & 422Scalliet, 2013, Torriani et al, 2015). Oregon plots were treated with azoxystrobin from 423the quinone outside inhibitor (QoI) fungicide class. Resistance to QoI fungicides was 424first observed in North America in 2012 in isolates collected from western Oregon 425(Estep et al, 2013) and has since been shown to be under selection (Hayes et al, 4262015). Given the known resistance of *Z. tritici* populations to widely used fungicides, 427it is not surprising that significant levels of disease were found in treated fields in 428both locations. Interestingly, other common fungal pathogens were rarely found on 429the treated plants in either location. This observation further highlights the increasing 430problem of fungicide resistance in natural *Z. tritici* populations, but also illustrates 431how the high level of fungicide resistance in natural populations can now be used as 432a tool to study STB in a nearly pure culture under field conditions, enabling an 433efficient measurement of differences in quantitative resistance among wheat lines 434and cultivars.

435

436Different overall levels of STB disease were observed at the two sampling locations. 437Different environmental conditions, pathogen populations and agronomic practices 438were present at each location and could account for the observed differences, but 439other factors may also play a role, including genetic differences associated with the 440two plant populations and different sampling protocols. The Oregon population was 441comprised of a series of RILs generated from two wheat cultivars whereas the Swiss 442population was comprised of a diverse group of widely grown cultivars and likely had 443a wider base of genetic diversity. Despite these host differences, there was more 444variance in disease phenotypes in the Oregon population than the Swiss population. 445This may reflect differences in leaf sampling protocols. The RIL lines were chosen 446based on visible differences in disease severity while the Swiss cultivars were not. In 447addition, the flag leaf was systematically sampled in the Oregon population whereas 448in Switzerland the plants were less mature and leaves typically were sampled one or 449two leaves below the flag leaf. Finally, a smaller number of host genotypes were 450sampled in Oregon compared to Switzerland. It is clear that a consistent method of 451sampling will need to be developed to enable more accurate comparisons of 452quantitative resistance between experiments and locations.

453

454For the Swiss cultivars, there was little agreement between the existing disease 455ratings and the observed phenotypes. However, in the Oregon population there was 456a strong correlation between field scores and PLACL, pycnidia count and pycnidia 457per cm² leaf. Field scores were made by visually assessing the percentage of 458diseased tissue within plots, so it is not surprising that this correlated well with 459PLACL from image analysis. From the image analysis it is also evident that a strong 460correlation exists between PLACL and both pycnidia count and pycnidia per cm² leaf. 461It therefore follows that pycnidia count and pycnidia per cm² leaf would also correlate 462with the field scores.

463

464The method of counting pycnidia using automated image analysis was shown to be 465accurate when compared to true values based on manual counts. Image analysis 466was previously shown to be more accurate than visual estimation in several 467pathosystems (Bock et al, 2008, Kokko et al, 2000, Martin & Rybicki 1998, Xie et al, 4682011). Field plots are most commonly assessed for disease levels using visual 469estimates. Whilst this method reduces the subjectivity associated with visual 470estimates, some subjectivity remains when comparing image analysis with manual 471counts. In some cases it is difficult to ascertain which features on a leaf are actually 472pycnidia. An advantage of image analysis is that any variation will be consistent 473through time as computers are not subject to subjectivity and fatigue like human 474scorers. The ability to accurately dissect the various components of *Z. tritici* virulence 475in the field will enable researchers and breeders to more accurately assess virulence 476in the pathogen and resistance in the host.

477

478Field estimates of STB severity based on PLACL can be accomplished in 479approximately 30 s per plot (C. H. Hagerty, unpublished), allowing a large number of 480host genotypes to be assessed very guickly. This can be very important in a 481breeding program, as the number of progeny assessed is closely related to breeding 482progress. Although the time needed to pre-process and scan the leaves will be 483longer than field-based visual estimates, the use of image analysis has several 484benefits. The work can be carried out by more than one person without any risk of 485variation between people as is the case with visual estimates. The ability to dissect 486different aspects of the disease (e.g. leaf damage vs. pathogen reproduction) into 487leaf symptoms as well as provide a direct measure of pathogen reproduction 488 provides a more accurate representation of the disease. It is already clear that some 489isolate/cultivar interactions produce high levels of leaf lesions but relatively few 490pycnidia (e.g. Stewart and McDonald 2014). Therefore, making an assessment of 491 pathogen virulence or host resistance based solely on leaf lesions or necrosis may 492not give a complete picture. Unlike field estimates, images can be stored and 493 referred back to in the future should anomalies be identified.

494

495There was no difference in the phenotypes measured by two different scanners from 496two different manufactures except for pycnidia grey value. Comparisons between 497datasets made with different hardware can therefore be considered valid with the 498exception of pycnidia melanization where caution should be exercised. From the 499measurements of black reference points and blank areas, it appears that the Epson 500scanner was able to capture a significantly wider range of values which resulted in 501the overall lower pycnidia grey values. It is unclear where these differences arise but 502possible explanations include differences in the light source, sensors or 503interpretation of values into visible images.

504

505Feedback from users of the original image analysis macro (Stewart & McDonald, 5062014) highlighted areas that required improvement to enhance the usability of the 507system. The implementation of a OR code reader and a custom results table that 508 includes sample names and relative measures such as pycnidia density means that 509the output can be used directly without any additional manipulation. The use of a 510 flatbed scanner eliminates variation in lighting and camera settings. The ability to 511scan eight leaves at one time also reduces operator input and time needed to 512generate a dataset. Comprehensive instructions were provided to help others utilize 513the method. This has resulted in a method that is easier to use, more consistent in 514 outputs and requires less pre- and post-processing time. The ever-decreasing costs 515of hardware and data storage mean that, in contrast to more sophisticated 516phenotyping systems, this method can be implemented with minimal capital 517 investment. The results presented here could be obtained using equipment costing 518<\$1,000. Our results show that STB resistance to natural infections under field 519 conditions is guantitative and comprised of several components. It remains to be 520determined how best to combine these resistance components to optimize progress 521 in breeding wheat cultivars that are more resistant to STB.

522

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686<u>Tables</u>

687

688Table 1. Summary of Septoria tritici blotch resistance phenotypes measured by 689image analysis. Values are mean and standard deviation (SD) for leaves sampled 690from 39 wheat cultivars from Switzerland (n=733 leaves) and 9 wheat recombinant 691inbred lines from Oregon (n=216 leaves).

	Switzerland		Oregon	
Phenotype	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
% Leaf Area Covered by	20.7	16.6	54.7	36.1
Lesions Pycnidia Count Mean Pycnidia Size (mm² x	149.3 8.3	158.2 0.6	640.6 8.3	725.0 0.4
10-3)				
Pycnidia per cm ² Leaf	10.3	11.2	27.3	28.9
Pycnidia per cm ² Lesion	57.2	50.9	51.1	44.2
Pycnidia Grey Value ¹	103.1	9.2	107.9	9.2

 692^{1} The greyscale ranges from 0 (black) to 255 (white)

693

695Table 2. Kruskal Wallis test summary of wheat cultivar/genotype effect on Septoria

696tritici blotch resistance phenotypes measured on 39 wheat cultivars from Switzerland

697and 9 wheat recombinant inbred lines from Oregon.

698

	Switzerland		Oregon	
Phenotype	W	p value	W	p value
% Leaf Area Covered by				
	70.0	0.001	100 5	. 0. 001
Lesions	72.8	0.001	126.5	< 0.001
Pycnidia Count	188.5	< 0.001	130.1	< 0.001
Mean Pycnidia Size	104.6	< 0.001	22.0	0.005
Pycnidia per cm ² Leaf	177.4	< 0.001	124.1	< 0.001
Pycnidia per cm ² Lesion	171.6	< 0.001	44.7	< 0.001
Pycnidia Grey Value ¹	183.9	< 0.001	38.5	< 0.001

699¹ The greyscale ranges from 0 (black) to 255 (white)

701 Figure Legends

702

703Figure 1. Frequency histograms of *Zymoseptoria tritici* virulence phenotypes in 704naturally infected field plots measured using automated image analysis from 705Switzerland (CH, white bars) and Oregon (OR, black bars).

706

707Figure 2. Agreement between *Zymoseptoria tritici* pycnidia counts made by image 708analysis and true values based on manual counts. Dashed line denotes line of 709perfect concordance and solid line is line of best fit.

710

711Table 1. Summary of Septoria tritici blotch resistance phenotypes measured by

712image analysis. Values are mean and standard deviation (SD) for leaves sampled

713 from 39 wheat cultivars from Switzerland (n=733 leaves) and 9 wheat recombinant

714inbred lines from Oregon (n=216 leaves).

715

716Table 2. Kruskal Wallis test summary of wheat cultivar/genotype effect on Septoria

717tritici blotch resistance phenotypes measured on 39 wheat cultivars from Switzerland 718and 9 wheat recombinant inbred lines from Oregon.

719

720Supplementary Table 1. Mean values and standard deviation of Septoria tritici blotch 721resistance phenotypes measured by image analysis on 39 wheat cultivars from 722Switzerland (CH) and 9 wheat recombinant inbred lines from Oregon (OR).

723

724Supplementary Table 2. Rank means and groups of Septoria tritici blotch resistance 725phenotypes measured by image analysis on 39 wheat cultivars from Switzerland 726(CH) and 9 wheat recombinant inbred lines from Oregon (OR). Values calculated by 727Kruskal Wallis and LSD pos-hoc tests. Different group letters denote significant 728differences between cultivars/genotypes.

729

730Supplementary Table 3. Disease resistance ratings for 21 of the 39 Swiss wheat 731cultivars to *Zymoseptoria tritici* where existing ratings were available. (1 = very poor, 7322 = poor, 3 = poor to average, 4 = average, 5 = average to good, 6 = good, 7 = very 733good, 8 = excellent)

734

735Supplementary Figure 1. ImageJ macro for measuring Septoria tritici blotch disease 736symptoms on infected wheat leaves.

737

738Supplementary Figure 2. Linux shell script that reads a list of sample names from 739a .txt file and generates a .pdf file containing pages on which to mount infected 740leaves. Each page contains fixed reference points, boxes in which to mount each 741leaf and sample names within each box in human readable text as well as encoded 742as a QR code for use within the macro.

743

744Supplementary Figure 3. QR decoder plugin for ImageJ.

745

746Supplementary Figure 4. Modified colour thresholding plugin for ImageJ.

747

748Supplementary Figure 5. RGB to Lab plugin for ImageJ. Required by the colour 749thresholding plugin.

751Supplementary Figure 6. RGB to YUV plugin for ImageJ. Required by the colour

752thresholding plugin.

753

754Supplementary Figure 7. Modified 'Wait for user' plugin for ImageJ.

755

756Supplementary Figure 8. Macro instructions for measuring Septoria tritici blotch

757 disease symptoms on infected wheat plants.