

Sturrock, Craig and Woodhall, James and Brown, Matthew and Walker, Catherine and Mooney, Sacha J. and Ray, Rumiana V. (2015) Effects of damping-off caused by Rhizoctonia solani anastomosis group 2-1 on roots of wheat and oil seed rape quantified using X-ray computed tomography and real-time PCR. Frontiers in Plant Science, 6 . pp. 1-11. ISSN 1664-462X

#### Access from the University of Nottingham repository:

http://eprints.nottingham.ac.uk/31218/1/Sturrock%20etal%202015.pdf

# Copyright and reuse:

The Nottingham ePrints service makes this work by researchers of the University of Nottingham available open access under the following conditions.

This article is made available under the Creative Commons Attribution licence and may be reused according to the conditions of the licence. For more details see: http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/2.5/

#### A note on versions:

The version presented here may differ from the published version or from the version of record. If you wish to cite this item you are advised to consult the publisher's version. Please see the repository url above for details on accessing the published version and note that access may require a subscription.

For more information, please contact <a href="mailto:eprints@nottingham.ac.uk">eprints@nottingham.ac.uk</a>

# frontiers in PLANT SCIENCE



Plant Biophysics and Modeling

Effects of damping-off caused by Rhizoctonia solani anastomosis group 2-1 on roots of wheat and oil seed rape quantified using X-ray Computed Tomography and real-time PCR

Craig J. Sturrock, James Woodhall, Matthew Brown, Catherine Walker, Sacha J. Mooney and Rumiana V. Ray

Journal Name: Frontiers in Plant Science

ISSN: 1664-462X

Article type: Original Research Article

First received on: 31 Oct 2014
Revised on: 03 Jun 2015

Frontiers website link: <a href="www.frontiersin.org">www.frontiersin.org</a>

- 1 Effects of damping-off caused by Rhizoctonia solani anastomosis group 2-1 on roots of
- 2 wheat and oil seed rape quantified using X-ray Computed Tomography and real-time
- 3
- Craig J. Sturrock<sup>1</sup>, James Woodhall<sup>2</sup>, Matthew Brown<sup>1</sup>, Catherine Walker<sup>1</sup>, Sacha J. Mooney<sup>1</sup> 4
- and Rumiana V. Ray<sup>1</sup>\* 5
- School of Biosciences, University of Nottingham, Sutton Bonington Campus, 6
- Loughborough, Leicestershire, LE12 5RD 7
- <sup>2</sup> The Food and Environment Research Agency, Sand Hutton, Yorkshire, YO41 1LZ 8
- 9
- \* To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: rumiana.ray@nottingham.ac.uk 10
- Running title: Effects of R. solani AG2-1 on wheat and OSR roots using X-ray µCT 11
- 12 **Keywords:** Rhizoctonia solani, X-ray Computed Tomography, qPCR, wheat, oil seed rape,
- damping-off, root system architecture, fungi, soil 13
- 14 **Abstract**
- Rhizoctonia solani is a plant pathogenic fungus that causes significant establishment and 15
- yield losses to several important food crops globally. This is the first application of high 16
- resolution X-ray micro Computed Tomography (X-ray µCT) and real-time PCR to study 17
- host-pathogen interactions in situ and elucidate the mechanism of Rhizoctonia damping-off 18
- disease over a 6-day period caused by R. solani, anastomosis group (AG) 2-1 in wheat 19
- (Triticum aestivum cv. Gallant) and oil seed rape (OSR, Brassica napus cv. Marinka). 20
- Temporal, non-destructive analysis of root system architectures was performed using 21
- 22 RooTrak and validated by the destructive method of root washing. Disease was assessed
- 23 visually and related to pathogen DNA quantification in soil using real-time PCR. R. solani
- 24 AG2-1 at similar initial DNA concentrations in soil was capable of causing significant
- damage to the developing root systems of both wheat and OSR. Disease caused reductions in 25
- 26 primary root number, root volume, root surface area and convex hull which were affected less
- in the monocotyledonous host. Wheat was more tolerant to the pathogen, exhibited fewer 27
- symptoms and developed more complex root system. In contrast, R. solani caused earlier 28
- damage and maceration of the taproot of the dicot, OSR. Disease severity was related to 29
- pathogen DNA accumulation in soil only for OSR, however reductions in root traits were 30
- significantly associated with both disease and pathogen DNA. The method offers the first 31
- 32 steps in advancing current understanding of soil-borne pathogen behaviour in situ at the pore
- scale, which may lead to the development of mitigation measures to combat disease influence 33
- 34 in the field.

37

### Introduction

- 38 Rhizoctonia solani Kühn (teleomorph = Thanatephorus cucumeris Donk) is a ubiquitous soil-
- borne plant pathogenic fungus which causes significant yield losses in many agriculturally 39
- 40 important crops (Verma, 1996; Paulitz et al., 2006). Individual isolates of R. solani are
- classified into anastomosis groups (AGs) based on their hyphal incompatibility and their host 41
- specificity (Anderson, 1982). For example, AG2-1 and AG4 are associated with stem and 42

- root rot diseases in dicotyledonous crop species belonging to Brassicace (Gugel et al., 1987; 43
- Sneh et al., 1991; Tewoldemedhin et al., 2006) whilst isolates of AG8 cause 'bare patch' or 44
- root rot on monocotyledonous crops from *Poacea* (Paulitz et al., 2002). 45
- The predominant population of R. solani causing severe seedling diseases associated with 46
- establishment losses of up to 80-100% and final yield loss of up to 30% of oil seed rape 47
- 48 (OSR, Brassica napus) worldwide belongs to AG2-1 (Tahvonen et al., 1984; Kataria and
- 49 Verma, 1992; Khangura et al., 1999). Highly virulent isolates of AG2-1 cause pre- and post-
- emergence damping-off, stem and root rot with characteristic water soaked lesions on the root 50
- 51 and hypocotyl, stunting of plant growth, root necrosis and cortex tissue maceration, and
- subsequent death in OSR (Yang et al., 1992). Recent soil surveys, carried out in USA 52
- (Schroeder et al., 2011) and UK (Brown et al., 2014) on fields growing winter wheat 53
- 54 (Triticum aestivum) have revealed the most common pathogen present in soils of increased
- rotational frequency with OSR is R. solani AG2-1, shown in > 69% of fields (n=90) in 55
- 56 England.
- Whilst the pathogenicity and aggressiveness of AG2-1 to OSR have been previously studied 57
- (Yitbarek et al., 1987; Kranz, 1988), less is known of the impact of this group of pathogens 58
- 59 on wheat roots. AG2-1 isolates have been shown to be pathogenic to cereals to varying
- degrees. Tewoldemedhin et al., (2006) reported AG2-1 isolates were weakly pathogenic to 60
- barley and wheat roots. In contrast, Roberts and Sivasithamparam (1986) reported AG2-1 61
- isolates from wheat roots in 'bare patch' in Western Australia were highly pathogenic to 62
- wheat causing an 80% disease index which was similar to disease caused by AG8 isolates. 63
- Thus, at present, the ability of AG2-1 to cause significant damage to the root system of 64
- seedlings of monocotyledonous crops such as wheat remains unclear. 65
- The aetiology of soil-borne diseases caused by pathogens such as R. solani on plant seeds and 66
- roots below ground has until recently been difficult to study. Traditionally, assessment of 67
- disease incidence and severity has involved the use of visual observations of symptoms of 68
- 69 infection on affected plant organs following the physical extraction of plants from the ground
- (Kranz, 1988). However, the inherently destructive nature of visual disease inspection means 70
- 71 that it is not possible to monitor temporal disease development and effects on root traits and
- system architecture. Furthermore, destructive sampling in the field often results in an 72
- 73 incomplete root system extraction and loss of the most severely infected or severed
- 74 primary/secondary roots.
- 75 Non-destructive methods for imaging plant roots in situ in soil, such as X-ray µCT, have
- 76 become an important tool for quantifying plant root system architecture development in three
- dimensions (see review by Mooney et al. (2012)). However, to date the application of X-ray 77
- μCT to investigate the impact of root rot pathogens has been relatively limited to Han et al. 78
- 79 (2008) who studied the effects of common potato scab caused by Streptomyces scabies on
- tubers in soil. This was the first use of medical X-ray CT in a phytopathological study to 80
- 81 successfully segment root structures from CT images and demonstrated diseased plants had
- significantly less complex root systems, in addition to delayed root growth and branching. A 82
- 83 subsequent study by the same researchers using CT showed the effects of common potato
- scab on the density of seed and peripheral organs of potato plants in soil over a 10 week 84
- 85 period (Han et al., 2009). Interestingly, an early application of a medical CT system to soil
- science by Grose et al. (1996) measured moisture content in bulk soil and in the soil around 86
- roots to predict suitable growth conditions for both R. solani and Gaeumannomyces graminis. 87
- 88 Although at relatively coarse resolutions (200 µm) compared to the resolution achievable on
- modern systems for similar sized pots (6 cm diameter), the study successfully quantified 89

heterogeneous moisture gradient in the vicinity of the plant roots and demonstrated the potential of the technique for investigation of environmental factors on the soil-plant-microbe system. Recent advances in the sensitivity of X-ray detectors within industrial µCT systems have facilitated much faster acquisition times (minutes rather than hours) facilitating easier repeated scanning of the same sample to visualise the temporal dynamics of plant root systems in undisturbed soil a (Tracy et al., 2012; Zappala et al., 2013b)

Microbiological methods for detection and quantification of target AGs of *R. solani* in soil are highly labour intensive and time consuming, involving the use of soil baiting methods that are often inefficient in detecting and isolating *R. solani*, and microscopy (Sneh et al., 1991). Furthermore, low population densities of *R. solani* in the soil and the lack of selective isolation media for the species make quantification difficult and unreliable. In the last decade, several conventional or real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) assays have become an established tool for rapidly quantifying fungal pathogens including targeted AGs of *R. solani* at low detection limits in both soil and infected plant tissues (Filion et al., 2003a; Filion et al., 2003b; Sayler and Yang, 2007; Okubara et al., 2008; Budge et al., 2009; Woodhall et al., 2013). We propose that the combination of these two powerful techniques, qPCR and X ray μCT, can allow improved new insight into the temporal host-pathogen interactions and provide quantitative data on the impact of soil-borne pathogens on root architectural systems of crop plants grown in soil. The main aim of this study was to elucidate the mechanism of disease caused by AG 2-1 of *R. solani* on root traits and system architecture of two different crops, the monocot, wheat, and the dicot, OSR.

111

112

96 97

98

99

100

101

102103

104105

106 107

108

109110

#### **Materials and Methods**

- 113 *Soil, plant and inoculum preparation*
- The experiment was designed as a factorial block with two main factors, host and inoculation
- 115 with two levels. The host crops were wheat, (Triticum aestivum cv. Gallant) or OSR
- 116 (Brassica napus cv. Marinka) which were either non-inoculated or inoculated with R. solani
- 117 AG2-1 (Isolate 159/8, (Goll et al., 2014)). The isolate was previously determined to be
- weakly pathogenic to wheat and pathogenic to OSR. There were nine replicates of the
- treatment combinations resulting in a total of 36 columns.
- Soil columns (30 mm diameter x 70 mm length) were uniformly packed to a bulk density of
- 1.1 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> with a Newport series loamy sand soil (sand 72.6%, silt 13.2%, and clay 14.2%;
- pH 6.35; organic matter 2.93%) collected from the University of Nottingham farm at Bunny,
- Nottinghamshire, UK (52.52 ° N, 1.07 ° W). Prior to packing, the soil was air-dried, sieved to
- 124 <2 mm and sterilised by γ-irradiation at 27 kGy (Isotron, Daventry, UK). The pathogen
- treated soils were inoculated with five, 5-mm diameter plugs of actively growing *R. solani*
- 125 treated sons were mocurated with rive, 5-min drameter plugs of activery growing K. solum
- mycelium equally distributed in the vertical direction of the soil during packing of the
- 127 columns. Seeds of cv. Gallant and cv. Marinka were pre-germinated for 48 h on moist filter
- paper in petri dishes before being planted at 10 mm and 5 mm below the soil surface,
- respectively. The columns were then saturated, drained for two days (to a notional field
- capacity which represents the moisture content of the soil after free drainage had ceased) and
- placed in a growth room under conditions of 14 °C day/night with an eight hour photoperiod
- and a photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) at plant level of 1000 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. A transparent plastic unheated seed propagator was used to maintain high relative humidity
- levels and avoid surface drying of the soil during seedling establishment in the growth room.
- 135 Three replicates for each treatment combination were randomly selected and destructively

- 136 harvested via root washing and scored for disease 2, 4 and 6 days following inoculation (dfi).
- Root disease severity was assessed at each destructive sampling point on soil-free plants on 137
- scales from 0 to 5; 0 = no lesions, clean roots; 1 = small lesion on tap root; 2 = necrosis of up138
- 139 to 30%; 3 = necrosis covering 31-60% of the tap root; 4 = necrosis covering 61-99% of the
- tap root; 5 = completely severed tap root (Khangura et al., 1999). In addition, the three 140
- replicates selected for harvest at 6 dfi were also scanned using X-ray µCT at 2, 4 and 6 dfi to 141
- 142 permit non-destructive quantification of root system development. Root architecture of the
- washed roots was assessed using WinRHIZO<sup>®</sup> 2002c scanning equipment and software on 143
- each harvest day. The images collected were used to compare with the X-ray µCT images. 144
- 145 Soil from the columns was further used for DNA extraction and pathogen quantification.
- X-ray micro Computed Tomography ( $\mu CT$ ) 146
- The replicate subset allocated for destructive sampling at 6 dfi (12 columns), were scanned at 147
- 2, 4 and 6 days using a Phoenix Nanotom® (GE Measurement & Control Solutions, 148
- 149 Wunstorf, Germany) X-ray µCT scanner. The scanner consists of a 180 kV nanofocus X-ray
- tube fitted with a tungsten transmission target and a 5-megapixel (2304 x 2304 pixels, 50 x 150
- 50 µm pixel size) flat panel detector (Hamamatsu Photonics KK, Shizuoka, Japan). A 151
- maximum X-ray energy of 110 kV, 140 µA current and a 0.15 mm thick copper filter was 152
- used to scan each sample which consisted of 1300 projection images acquired over a 360° 153
- rotation. Each projection image was the average of three images acquired with a detector 154
- exposure time of 500ms in 'Fast CT mode'. The resulting isotropic voxel edge length was 19 155
- µm (i.e. spatial resolution) and total scan time was 35 minutes. The total X-ray dose for each 156
- sample was calculated as 25.2 Gy over the three scans, which is below the 33 Gy threshold 157
- reported by Johnson (1936) which no detrimental effects of post-germination plant growth 158
- following exposure to X-ray radiation were observed (Zappala et al., 2013a). Reconstruction 159
- 160 of the projection images was performed using the software datos|rec (GE Measurement &
- Control Solutions, Wunstorf, Germany) to produce 3-D volumetric data sets with dimension 161
- 30 x 30 mm (diameter x depth). 162
- 163 *Image processing and analysis*
- Plant root systems were non-destructively segmented using the Region Growing selection 164
- tool in VG StudioMAX<sup>®</sup> 2.2 software as described by Tracy et al. (2012). To summarise, the 165
- region growing tool, allows the user to select connected structures within the data that have 166
- the same distribution of X-ray attenuation based on their grey values. The user assigns all 167
- 168 root material to a region of interest which is then extracted as a separate binary image stack
- for measurement of root system architecture in RooTrak software. RooTrak software 169
- (Mairhofer et al., 2012) permits quantification of descriptive traits on root system 170
- 171 architecture, such as total volume, surface area, maximum length and width, convex hull
- 172 (relates to the space filling in 3D of an object), and centroid Z (relates to the centre of mass of
- a 3D object). Due to small scales differences in seed depth in the reconstructed volumetric 173
- 174 data, the measurement field of view was standardised to 30 x 25.80 mm (diameter x depth).
- 175 Therefore, the maximum possible value for root length measurements is limited to 25.80 mm.
- 176 Soil porosity (total and incremental with depth) was quantified in FIJI image analysis
- 177 software (Schindelin et al., 2012) using a modified method of Tracy et al. (2012). To
- 178 summarise, a resized 16 bit image stack of dimensions 17.1 x 17.1 x 19 mm (900 x 900 pixels
- 179 x 1000 images) was first prepared to exclude the area outside of the soil column (i.e. the
- 180 container and the surrounding air space). Images were binarised to define the air filled pore
- space with a value of 0 and the 'solid' soil with a value of 1 using the isodata threshold 181

- algorithm which performed the best in an evaluation study. Soil porosity for each slice image
- 183 was calculated based on the percentage of air to the total volume of the resized stack.
- 184 Real time quantitative PCR for AG2-1 of R. solani
- DNA was extracted from soil as described in Woodhall et al. (2012), except sample size was
- reduced to 45 g and then added to a 250 ml Nalgene bottle with 3 ml antifoam B with six
- 187 25.4 mm stainless steel ball bearings and 90 ml grinding buffer (120 mM sodium phosphate
- buffer pH 8, 2% cetrimonium bromide, 1.5 M sodium chloride). Real-time PCR was
- undertaken using a 7500 real-time PCR system. Environmental Master Mix 2.0 (Life
- 190 Technologies, USA) was used for all real-time PCR and consisted of half the total reaction
- 191 volume of 25 μl, whilst 5 μl consisted of the DNA sample. Primers (MWG Biotech,
- 192 Germany) and hydrolysis probe specific for AG2-1 (Budge et al., 2009) were used and added
- to a final concentration in the reaction of 300 nM and 100 nM respectively with the
- remaining volume made up with molecular grade water. Cycling conditions consisted of 50
- °C for 2 min, 95 °C for 10 min, and 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 1 min. Each
- sample was tested in duplicate and an average Ct value was determined. Target DNA in soil
- samples was quantified by including six DNA standards on each PCR run. The standards
- consisted of a DNA sample of known concentration taken from culture of AG2-1 (Isolate
- 199 2023, Food and Environment Research Agency, UK) which was used to produce a dilution
- 200 series of five ten-fold dilutions. The amount of DNA was then determined by linear
- 201 regression.
- 202 Statistical Analysis
- 203 Root growth and architecture traits were analysed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) for
- 204 repeated measures and corrected for degrees of freedom for all time related effects with
- 205 Greenhouse-Geisser Epsilon factor. Architecture traits were root volume, surface area,
- 206 convex hull volume, maximum width and length. Pathogen DNA data were analysed by
- 207 ANOVA containing sampling time, crop and inoculation as interacting factors in the
- 208 treatment structure. Regression analysis was used to investigate the relationships between
- 209 root traits, disease score and pathogen DNA, using a simple linear model for each crop
- separately. All analyses were performed in Genstat 15, version 15.1.0.8035.
  - Results

- 212 Disease development and pathogen DNA accumulation in soil
- No symptoms of root disease were observed in the non-inoculated treatments (control) for
- either crop species (Figure 1). OSR plants developed visible lesions on roots as soon as 2 dfi.
- 215 The symptoms rapidly progressed from moderate (necrosis covering 31-60% of the root,
- disease score 3) to severe (completely severed taproot, disease score 5) by 4 dfi resulting in
- 217 complete maceration of root tissue by day 6 (Figure 1). Wheat plants exhibited significantly
- 218 lower disease severity compared to OSR plants (P=0.011), with symptoms classified as slight
- 219 (small lesions on the primary roots, disease score 1) which were first detected at 6 dfi (Figure
- 220 1).
- 221 DNA of R. solani was not detected in the soil of non-inoculated plants at 2 dfi, but was
- quantifiable at 4 and 6 dfi at low concentrations (0.008 and 0.019 ng  $g^{-1}$ ) in two soil columns.
- In contrast, DNA in inoculated soils of both crops at 2 dfi was above 100 ng g<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 2).
- 224 The trend of DNA accumulation over the duration of the sampling period was similar for the
- 225 two crops showing an increase in pathogen DNA by day 4 followed by a plateau by 6 dfi

- 226 (Figure 2). The mean pathogen DNA in the OSR treatment at 4 dfi was approximately 45%
- higher than in the wheat treatment (P=0.063) although no differences were observed between
- crops for 2 or 6 dfi.
- 229 Impact of R. solani AG2-1 on root system architecture of wheat and OSR
- 230 Visual assessment of X-ray μCT 3D images and WinRHIZO® images suggested major
- 231 differences in root system architecture under the experimental factors, inoculation and crop
- 232 (Figure 3 & Supp. data Video1&2). Control OSR plants had a characteristic single tap root
- 233 that developed lateral roots by 6 dfi. Typically, wheat plants developed between 3 to 5
- primary roots with no lateral roots by the end of the experiment. Initial root growth of OSR
- plants was inhibited in soils inoculated with AG2-1 of R. solani and resulted in complete
- 236 maceration of root tissue by 6 dfi. Disease effects were less obvious on wheat roots from
- inoculated soils with *R. solani* (Figure 3).
- 238 There were significant temporal differences for root volume and surface area measured using
- 239 X-ray µCT between crops (Figure 4A & 4B; P<0.001) and between inoculated and non-
- 240 inoculated plants (Figure 4C & 4D; P<0.001). The absence of interactions between crop and
- 241 inoculation suggested root volume and surface area were affected mainly by intrinsic
- 242 differences in root system characteristics of individual crop species and the presence of the
- pathogen in the soils. Inoculation significantly reduced root volume and surface area in both
- 244 crops, however the effects were greater in OSR, where these traits were affected immediately
- 245 following inoculation and there were relatively small changes over time in trait parameters
- 246 (Figure 4).
- 247 Root system traits for which significant temporal interactions between crop and inoculation
- 248 were detected are shown in Table 1. The root system of wheat increased in length and width
- in time, despite inoculation, to a maximum of 25.8 and 29.3 mm, respectively (Table 1). A
- similar trend was observed for the control OSR plants with the root system length and width
- reaching 25.8 and 13.5 mm, respectively, by the end of the experiment. However, for the
- OSR plants inoculated with *R. solani*, root growth was inhibited from day 2, slight increases
- in length and width were observed by day 4 but ultimately at 6 dfi roots of inoculated plants
- were 96% shorter and 78% thinner than the controls (0.97 and 2.90 mm, respectively).
- Both inoculation treatments in wheat displayed a significant increase in centroid Z (an
- 256 indication of root structure with depth) after 4 days incubation with a mean value of 16.04
- 257 mm and 16.47 mm for the control and inoculated plants, which then reduced to 14.86 mm and
- 258 14.5 mm, respectively after 6 dfi. Control OSR plants displayed a sustained increase in
- centroid Z from 1.07 mm at 2 dfi to 18.52 mm at 6 dfi. Centroid Z remained consistently low
- 260 throughout the experiment for the R. solani treated OSR plants (1 mm). (Table 1; time x crop
- 261 x inoculation; P=0.010).
- 262 Convex hull (an indication of the volume of soil explored) increased in all treatments except
- 263 in OSR inoculated plants, where it remained the same after 4 dfi and for wheat was
- significantly higher compared to OSR (P=0.001). Inoculation with R. solani resulted in
- smaller rates of increase in convex hull in both plants (Table 1). The control wheat treatment
- showed a significantly higher convex hull which was almost twice the volume compared to
- 267 the R. solani inoculated treatment with values of 4123 and 2038 mm<sup>3</sup>, respectively after 6 dfi.
- The control OSR had a lower convex hull compared to wheat with a mean of 413 mm<sup>3</sup>. R.
- solani treated OSR exhibited the lowest convex hull with a mean of 7 mm<sup>3</sup> remaining the
- same at 4 and 6 dfi (Table 1; time x crop x inoculation; P=0.048).

- 271 Inoculation with R. solani AG2-1 had a major effect on primary root number of both crops
- and resulted in significant reductions throughout the experiment demonstrated by the absence
- of significant interactions between experimental factors and time (Figure 5A). The number of
- 274 primary roots was significantly higher in wheat compared to OSR plants which produced just
- one taproot (Figure 5B). Production of primary root numbers in wheat ceased at 4 dfi with no
- further significant increases being detected (Figure 5B). In OSR plants primary root number
- decreased at each sample time associated with effects of inhibition by the pathogen on root
- 278 development and digestion of root tissue in time (Figure 5B).
- 279 Comparison of the WinRHIZO<sup>®</sup> and RooTrak measurements supported all observations and
- 280 displayed strong significant relationships for comparable root system traits such as volume
- 281 (P<0.001,  $R^2$ =0.97) and surface area (P<0.001,  $R^2$ =0.97). The relationship for root length
- measured by the two methods was also significant (P=0.024) but weaker than previously
- 283 mentioned traits accounting for only 39% of the variance.
- 284 Relationship of pathogen DNA and root system traits
- 285 Linear regression analysis with groups for individual crops was carried out to test the fitted
- data for the measured traits, pathogen DNA and visual disease symptoms for position and
- 287 parallelism (Table 2). There was a significant relationship between disease score and
- pathogen DNA accounting for 82% of the variance, however the data fitted separate lines for
- each crop, with different slope and intercept indicating a positive relationship between
- 290 pathogen DNA in soil and disease expression on plant roots for OSR only. Data fitted
- separate lines for each crop for root length measured by  $\mu$ CT on both disease (P<0.001, R<sup>2</sup>=
- 292 0.96) and pathogen DNA (P<0.001,  $R^2 = 0.77$ ) with the same directionality showing negative
- relationships (Table 2). Similarly regressions (P<0.001) of surface area and root length,
- measured by WinRHIZO<sup>®</sup>, on disease score accounted for more than 96% of the variance.
- 295 Fitted separate lines with the same directionality for wheat and OSR suggested that the
- 296 magnitude of effects on developing traits of the different root systems of individual crops
- were related to the expression of disease symptoms. All other measured traits by different
- were related to the expression of disease symptoms. An other measured that's by different
- 298 systems fitted parallel lines for disease expression indicated that the final effects were similar
- but dependant on intrinsic differences between crops (Table 2).
- 300 Analysis of soil porosity
- 301 Total mean soil porosity, limited to an extent by the spatial resolution of the scans, was
- 302 consistent for all soil columns across all treatments (Mean, 15.4%, SEM 1.5). However,
- measurement of the porosity with depth within a column showed regions of variable porosity
- indicative of layering created during soil packing which varied between 8 and 50 % (Figure
- 305 6C). Furthermore, there was evidence of higher porosity at the interface of the emerging
- seedling and the surrounding soil in some of the samples, where the highest porosity values
- of 50% were recorded. This was particularly evident in one of the OSR replicates treated with
- 308 R. solani AG2-1 showing hypocotyl tissue maceration and decay in the area of high soil
- porosity (Figure 6D & 6E & Supplementary Video3). However, there was only weak
- regression between DNA concentration and soil porosity ( $R^2 = 0.21$ ).

# Discussion

- This work provides the first example of X-ray µCT used for the non-destructive detection of
- 313 below ground symptoms and impact of R. solani on the developing root systems of
- 314 monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous plants. *Rhizoctonia solani* AG 2-1 causes significant
- 315 pre- and post-emergence damping-off characterised by the inhibition of seed germination,

root elongation and ultimately the digestion of the root and hypocotyl of Brassica species (Kataria and Verma, 1992). We found moderate symptoms in OSR as early as 2 dfi and severe disease developed by 4 dfi. In contrast, only mild symptoms developed in wheat plants by 6 dfi for similar initial inoculum in the soil quantified using qPCR as pathogen DNA at 2 dfi. The difference in disease development and severity on the two crops is in agreement with previous reports on the virulence and aggressiveness of AG2-1 to OSR demonstrating that isolates belonging to this group are highly pathogenic to *Brassica* species (Gugel et al., 1987; Verma, 1996). The delay in symptom development on wheat suggests that AG2-1 is unable to cause significant symptoms on wheat confirmed by others in their investigations of pathogenicity of R. solani AG2-1 to cereals (Khangura et al., 1999; Oros et al., 2013). The effect of the primary host crop, OSR, on R. solani development was evident in the more rapid increase of pathogen DNA, reaching maximum of 300 ng g<sup>-1</sup> in soil by 4 dfi in contrast to a 2-fold less DNA in soils from wheat grown plants (data not shown). This fast DNA accumulation in the soil from OSR, compared to wheat, is most likely related to the differences in the rate of infection and digestion of the emerging radicle and hypocotyl of the primary host species, manifested by the numerous lesions (visualised in this study) inhibited growth and ultimately the complete seedling necrosis by 6 dfi. The plateau of soil pathogen DNA at 6 dfi may be due to an exhaustion of available nutrients from the host plants and return of the pathogen to saprophytic phase of survival. The temporal dynamics of the pathogen during the development of wheat or OSR in field rotations are currently unknown. However, Brown et al. (2014) found no significant differences in pathogen DNA of R. solani AG2-1 accumulation in English field soils of wheat following wheat or OSR, suggesting that short wheat/OSR rotations are unlikely to be effective in reducing inoculum concentrations for either crop.

316

317

318319

320

321322

323

324325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335336

337338

339

340

341342

343

344

345

346347

348349

350

351

352353

354

355

356

357

358359

360

361

362

363

364

Visualisation of the 3-D root system of the two crops grown in soil showed how the contrasting root systems of the monocot and dicot species reacted to the pathogen infection. Differences in the impact of the pathogen appeared to be related to the intrinsic complexity of the architectural root systems of the two crops and their ability to compensate on specific traits. Using time series µCT data importantly revealed that although the infection in the monocot, wheat, appeared asymptomatic, it contrasted the severe symptom expression in the dicot, OSR. R. solani AG 2-1 was capable of causing significant damage on important developing root architectural traits of both crops including primary root number, root volume and root surface area that were affected less in the monocotyledonous host. Furthermore, the ability of both hosts to explore soil via their developing root system, indicated by the convex hull, was reduced. However, traits such as root length and centroid z were not affected in the monocot. Both inoculated and control wheat plants developed 3-4 primary roots that were thicker and longer by 4 dfi compared to OSR plants. In contrast, OSR plants were mostly dependent on the development of strong taproot and subsequent lateral roots for the acquisition of resources, thus early damage to the developing taproot by R. solani diminished significantly the ability of the plant to establish or recover from the disease. Wheat was able to compensate by producing more than one primary root (seminal roots) and it is likely that uninfected or less severely infected roots by the pathogen were able to escape the disease and thus compensate for resource use. Rhizoctonia solani AG2-1 is most aggressive to young seedlings and host resistance to infection increases with age (Verma, 1996). Therefore faster developing OSR cultivars are more likely to escape the disease and traits related to early germination and establishment, such as seed size will be important for breeding new varieties that are more likely to tolerate *R. solani* infection (Hwang et al., 2014).

Disease score and pathogen DNA were both strongly related to changes in the measured root traits. However, the transiency of these effects in particular in the maturing wheat plant is

unknown. The relationship between disease and pathogen DNA was different for the two crops and disease was only predicted successfully for OSR. This has implications in terms of assessment and prediction of disease in the field in relation to individual crop species as clear symptoms were not exhibited in wheat and not related to DNA concentrations. Furthermore, both crops suffered from *R. solani* at the seedling stage thus it is important to elucidate if the disease caused by AG2-1 is associated with significant yield loss of wheat in the field. Understanding the relationships between initial inoculum concentrations and final yield loss for the two crops can assist in the development of new strategies for prediction of risk and yield loss based on qPCR of soil prior to planting.

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375376

377378

379

380

381

382 383

384

385

386

387

388 389

390

391

392

393

394

395396

397

398

399 400

401

402 403

404 405

406

407

408 409

410

411

412413

From the measured root traits, only root length showed poor correlation between the two imaging approaches which can be attributed to the way the trait was measured. RooTrak root length measurements were limited to a maximum soil depth of 25.80 mm compared to the entire 30 mm column length in due to the field of view possible in a single µCT scan. However, as RooTrak can quantify novel root traits such as convex hull, there is potential to measure crop species specific descriptors to define root structure e.g. differences between the single tap root of OSR versus primary and seminal root system of wheat. A crucial advantage of the µCT imaging is that not only can the developing root systems be quantified nondestructively and temporally but as we have shown changes in the soil microstructure can also be considered. Although, our initial soil conditions were designed as in most repacked column studies to be uniform, verification of the microstructure by imaging showed localised variations in porosity when measured at high resolutions especially at the root surface. This zone i.e. the rhizosphere, is a crucial interface, where knowledge about the structural arrangement in particular is lacking. Variations in structure as we have revealed here will influence soil moisture availability considering the relationship between matric suction and pore size. Soil bulk density and moisture content are known to significantly influence hyphal growth and disease severity caused by R. solani (Glenn et al., 1987; Gill et al., 2001; Gill et al., 2004) but the impact at the pore scale is less well understood. Furthermore, it is generally accepted that the key limiting factor in hyphal proliferation is the availability of air filled pores within the soil (Glenn et al., 1987; Otten et al., 1999; Harris et al., 2003). We found OSR seedlings displaying the highest porosity around the seedling also had the lowest disease severity and longest root and shoot growth (Figure 6). This finding is in agreement with Gill et al (2000) who found that although saprotrophic growth was higher in more porous soils, the disease severity was lower highlighting the potential of X-ray µCT in the study of the physical effects of soil structure on soil borne pathogenic fungal diseases. This has potential implications for soil management practices, such as conventional and zero tillage as these may have very different soil structures (Mangalassery et al., 2014). For example, ploughing could potentially reduce soil-borne disease severity, by increasing the porous structure of soil, physical disruption to fungal hyphal networks and increasing background microbial activity. Indeed, the most effective cultural control method for soil-borne Rhizoctonia root patch in wheat is via tillage practice of soil disturbance by cultivation which destroys established fungal hyphal networks and can increase microbial activity (Paulitz et al., 2002). The effect of tillage on soil-borne pathogens in OSR has received less attention, however it is likely that reduced or zero tillage maximises disease and inoculum potential by allowing infected crop residues to remain on the soil surface and preserving hyphal networks in close proximity to the host (Kharbanda and Tewari, 1996). Although soil structure can routinely be imaged at high resolutions (i.e. <100 µm), it is still not possible to visualise fungi per se using X-ray μCT due to their very low X-ray attenuation (Gleason et al., 2012). However, indirect modelling approaches have been useful to aid understanding of the behaviour and functioning of fungi in both real (Pajor et al., 2010; Falconer et al., 2011) and artificial soil

- 414 microstructures (Otten et al., 2012). These combined approaches may be of value in the
- 415 future to facilitate further understanding of plant pathogenic fungi in the soil environment.
- 416 This study has successfully quantified the impact of *R. solani* on crop root system traits and
- 417 development through the combined use of X-ray μCT and qPCR. X-ray μCT offers more
- promise than destructive methods as the development of disease symptoms on the root can be
- 419 monitored non-destructively in soil. We have shown that disease symptoms developed
- 420 rapidly in OSR within 2 dfi, whereas wheat displayed a higher tolerance with only mild
- symptoms present after 6 dfi. Differences in the impact of the pathogen on the two hosts were
- related to complexity and developmental rates of the different root architectural types of the
- 423 monocot, wheat, and the dicot, OSR.

# Acknowledgements

424

428

- The authors would like to acknowledge support from the University of Nottingham and
- 426 Syngenta for the provision of AG2-1 isolate. James Woodhall received support from the
- 427 Defra Horizon Scanning and Technology Implementation Fund.

#### References

430

448

449

450 451

452

453

458

459

460

461

462

463

- Anderson, N.A. (1982). The genetics and pathology of *Rhizoctonia solani*. *Annual Review of Phytopathology* 20, 329-347.
- Brown, M.J., Woodhall, J., Mooney, S.J., and Ray, R.V. (2014). The occurrence and population dynamics of *Rhizoctonia solani* in soil of winter wheat. *Proceedings Crop Protection in Northern Britain 2014*, P107-112.
- Budge, G.E., Shaw, M.W., Colyer, A., Pietravalle, S., and Boonham, N. (2009). Molecular tools to investigate *Rhizoctonia solani* distribution in soil. *Plant Pathology* 58, 1071-1080. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-3059.2009.02139.x.
- Falconer, R.E., Bown, J., White, N., and Crawford, J. (2011). Linking individual behaviour to community scale patterns in fungi. *Fungal Ecology* 4, 76-82.
- Filion, M., St-Arnaud, M., and Jabaji-Hare, S. (2003a). Quantification of *Fusarium solani* f. sp. *phaseoli* in mycorrhizal bean plants and surrounding mycorrhizosphere soil using real-time polymerase chain reaction and direct isolations on selective media. *Phytopathology* 93, 229-235.
- Filion, M., St-Arnaud, M., and Jabaji-Hare, S.H. (2003b). Direct quantification of fungal DNA from soil substrate using real-time PCR. *Journal of Microbiological Methods* 53, 67-76.
  - Gill, J., Sivasithamparam, K., and Smettem, K. (2000). Soil types with different texture affects development of *Rhizoctonia* root rot of wheat seedlings. *Plant and Soil* 221, 113-120. doi: 10.1023/a:1004606016745.
  - Gill, J., Sivasithamparam, K., and Smettem, K. (2001). Soil moisture affects disease severity and colonisation of wheat roots by *Rhizoctonia solani* AG-8. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 33, 1363-1370.
- Gill, J.S., Hunt, S., Sivasithamparam, K., and Smettem, K.R.J. (2004). Root growth altered by compaction of a sandy loam soil affects severity of *Rhizoctonia* root rot of wheat seedlings. *Australian Journal of Experimental Agriculture* 44, 595-599. doi: <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1071/EA02093">http://dx.doi.org/10.1071/EA02093</a>.
  - Gleason, F.H., Crawford, J.W., Neuhauser, S., Henderson, L.E., and Lilje, O. (2012). Resource seeking strategies of zoosporic true fungi in heterogeneous soil habitats at the microscale level. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 45, 79-88. doi: <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2011.10.011">http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2011.10.011</a>.
  - Glenn, O.F., Hainsworth, J.M., Parker, C.A., and Sivasithamparam, K. (1987). Influence of matric potential and soil compaction on growth of the take-all fungus through soil. *Transactions of the British Mycological Society* 88, 83-89.
- Goll, M.B., Schade-Schuetze, A., Swart, G., Oostendorp, M., Schott, J.J., Jaser, B., and Felsenstein, F.G. (2014). Survey on the prevalence of *Rhizoctonia* spp. in European soils and determination of the baseline sensitivity towards sedaxane. *Plant Pathology* 63, 148-154. doi: 10.1111/ppa.12063.
- Grose, M., Gilligan, C., Spencer, D., and Goddard, B. (1996). Spatial heterogeneity of soil water around single roots: use of CT scanning to predict fungal growth in the rhizosphere. *New Phytologist* 133, 261-272.
- Gugel, R.K., Yitbarek, S.M., Verma, P.R., Morrall, R.a.A., and Sadasivaiah, R.S. (1987). Etiology of the *Rhizoctonia* root-rot complex of canola in the Peace River region of Alberta *Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology-Revue Canadienne De Phytopathologie* 9, 119-128.
- Han, L., Dutilleul, P., Prasher, S.O., Beaulieu, C., and Smith, D.L. (2008). Assessment of common scab-inducing pathogen effects on potato underground organs via Computed

- 478 Tomography scanning. *Phytopathology* 98, 1118-1125. doi: 10.1094/phyto-98-10-479 1118.
- Han, L., Dutilleul, P., Prasher, S.O., Beaulieu, C., and Smith, D.L. (2009). Assessment of density effects of the common scab-inducing pathogen on the seed and peripheral organs of potato during growth using computed tomography scanning data.

  \*\*Transactions of the ASABE 52, 305-311.\*\*

485

486 487

488

489 490

501

502 503

504

505

506

507

511

512

- Harris, K., Young, I.M., Gilligan, C.A., Otten, W., and Ritz, K. (2003). Effect of bulk density on the spatial organisation of the fungus *Rhizoctonia solani* in soil. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology* 44, 45-56. doi: 10.1111/j.1574-6941.2003.tb01089.x.
- Hwang, S.F., Ahmed, H.U., Turnbull, G.D., Gossen, B.D., and Strelkov, S.E. (2014). The effect of seed size, seed treatment, seeding date and depth on *Rhizoctonia* seedling blight of canola. *Canadian Journal of Plant Science* 94, 311-321. doi: 10.4141/cjps2013-294.
- Johnson, E.L. (1936). Susceptibility of seventy species of flowering plants to X-radiation. Plant Physiology 11, 319.
- Kataria, H., and Verma, P. (1992). *Rhizoctonia solani* damping-off and root rot in oilseed rape and canola. *Crop Protection* 11, 8-13.
- Khangura, R.K., Barbetti, M.J., and Sweetingham, M.W. (1999). Characterization and pathogenicity of *Rhizoctonia* species on canola. *Plant Disease* 83, 714-721.
- Kharbanda, P.D., and Tewari, J.P. (1996). Integrated management of canola diseases using cultural methods. *Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology* 18, 168-175. doi: 10.1080/07060669609500642.
- Kranz, J. (ed.). (1988). Measuring plant disease. New York: Springer Verlag.
  - Mairhofer, S., Zappala, S., Tracy, S.R., Sturrock, C., Bennett, M., Mooney, S.J., and Pridmore, T. (2012). RooTrak: Automated recovery of three-dimensional plant root architecture in soil from X-Ray Microcomputed Tomography images using visual tracking. *Plant Physiology* 158, 561-569. doi: 10.1104/pp.111.186221.
  - Mangalassery, S., Sjoegersten, S., Sparkes, D.L., Sturrock, C.J., Craigon, J., and Mooney, S.J. (2014). To what extent can zero tillage lead to a reduction in greenhouse gas emissions from temperate soils? *Scientific Reports* 4. doi: 10.1038/srep04586.
- Mooney, S., Pridmore, T., Helliwell, J., and Bennett, M. (2012). Developing X-ray Computed Tomography to non-invasively image 3-D root systems architecture in soil. *Plant and* Soil 352, 1-22.
  - Okubara, P.A., Schroeder, K.L., and Paulitz, T.C. (2008). Identification and quantification of *Rhizoctonia solani* and *R. oryzae* using real-time polymerase chain reaction. *Phytopathology* 98, 837-847. doi: 10.1094/phyto-98-7-0837.
- Oros, G., Naár, Z., and Magyar, D. (2013). Susceptibility of qheat varieties to soil-borne Rhizoctonia infection. American Journal of Plant Sciences 4, 2240.
- Otten, W., Gilligan, C.A., Watts, C.W., Dexter, A.R., and Hall, D. (1999). Continuity of air-filled pores and invasion thresholds for a soil-borne fungal plant pathogen, *Rhizoctonia solani*. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 31, 1803-1810. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0038-0717(99)00099-1.
- Otten, W., Pajor, R., Schmidt, S., Baveye, P.C., Hague, R., and Falconer, R.E. (2012).
  Combining X-ray CT and 3D printing technology to produce microcosms with replicable, complex pore geometries. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 51, 53-55. doi: <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2012.04.008">http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2012.04.008</a>.
- Pajor, R., Falconer, R., Hapca, S., and Otten, W. (2010). Modelling and quantifying the effect of heterogeneity in soil physical conditions on fungal growth. *Biogeosciences Discussions* 7, 3477-3501.

- Paulitz, T.C., Okubara, P.A., and Schillinger, W.F. (2006). First report of damping-off of canola caused by *Rhizoctonia solani* AG 2-1 in Washington State. *Plant Disease* 90, 829-829. doi: 10.1094/pd-90-0829b.
- Paulitz, T.C., Smiley, R.W., and Cook, R.J. (2002). Insights into the prevalence and management of soilborne cereal pathogens under direct seeding in the Pacific Northwest, USA. *Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology* 24, 416-428.

534

535

549550

551552

553

554555

556

557

558559

566

567

568

- Roberts, F.A., and Sivasithamparam, K. (1986). Identity and pathogenicity of *Rhizoctonia* spp. associated with bare patch disease of cereals at a field site in Westeren Australia *Netherlands Journal of Plant Pathology* 92, 185-195. doi: 10.1007/bf01977685.
- Sayler, R.J., and Yang, Y. (2007). Detection and quantification of *Rhizoctonia solani* AG-1 IA, the rice sheath blight pathogen, in rice using real-time PCR. *Phytopathology* 97, S104-S104.
- Schindelin, J., Arganda-Carreras, I., Frise, E., Kaynig, V., Longair, M., Pietzsch, T.,
  Preibisch, S., Rueden, C., Saalfeld, S., Schmid, B., Tinevez, J.-Y., White, D.J.,
  Hartenstein, V., Eliceiri, K., Tomancak, P., and Cardona, A. (2012). Fiji: an opensource platform for biological-image analysis. *Nature Methods* 9, 676-682. doi: 10.1038/nmeth.2019.
- Schroeder, K.L., Shetty, K.K., and Paulitz, T.C. (2011). Survey of *Rhizoctonia* spp. from wheat soils in the U.S. and determination of pathogenicity on wheat and barley. *Phytopathology* 101, 161.
- 547 Sneh, B., Burpee, L., and Ogoshi, A. (1991). *Indentification of Rhizoctonia species* American 548 Phytopathological Society Press, St. Paul, MN.
  - Tahvonen, R., Hollo, J., Hannukkala, A., and Kurppa, A. (1984). *Rhizoctonia solani* damping-off on spring turnip rape and spring rape (*Brassica* spp.) in Finland. *Journal* of Agricultural Science in Finland 56, 143-154.
  - Tewoldemedhin, Y.T., Lamprecht, S.C., Mcleod, A., and Mazzola, M. (2006). Characterization of *Rhizoctonia* spp. recovered from crop plants used in rotational cropping systems in the Western Cape province of South Africa. *Plant Disease* 90, 1399-1406. doi: 10.1094/pd-90-1399.
  - Tracy, S.R., Black, C.R., Roberts, J.A., Sturrock, C., Mairhofer, S., Craigon, J., and Mooney, S.J. (2012). Quantifying the impact of soil compaction on root system architecture in tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) by X-ray Micro-Computed Tomography. *Annals of Botany*. doi: 10.1093/aob/mcs031.
- Verma, P.R. (1996). Biology and control of *Rhizoctonia solani* on rapeseed: A review. *Phytoprotection* 77, 99-111.
- Woodhall, J., Webb, K., Giltrap, P., Adams, I., Peters, J., Budge, G., and Boonham, N. (2012). A new large scale soil DNA extraction procedure and real-time PCR assay for the detection of *Sclerotium cepivorum* in soil. *European Journal of Plant Pathology* 134, 467-473. doi: 10.1007/s10658-012-0025-2.
  - Woodhall, J.W., Adams, I.P., Peters, J.C., Harper, G., and Boonham, N. (2013). A new quantitative real-time PCR assay for *Rhizoctonia solani* AG3-PT and the detection of AGs of *Rhizoctonia solani* associated with potato in soil and tuber samples in Great Britain. *European Journal of Plant Pathology* 136, 273-280.
- Yang, J., Verma, P.R., and Tewari, J.P. (1992). Histopathology of resistant mustard and susceptible canola hypocotyls infected by *Rhizoctonia solani*. *Mycological Research* 96, 171-179. doi: <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0953-7562(09)80962-3">http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0953-7562(09)80962-3</a>.
- Yitbarek, S.M., Verma, P.R., and Morrall, R.a.A. (1987). Anastomosis groups, pathogenicity, and specificity of *Rhizoctonia solani* isolates from seedling and adult rapeseed/canola plants and soils in Saskatchewan. *Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology* 9, 6-13. doi: 10.1080/07060668709501904.

577	Zappala, S., Helliwell, J.R., Tracy, S.R., Mairhofer, S., Sturrock, C.J., Pridmore, T., Bennett,
578	M., and Mooney, S.J. (2013a). Effects of X-ray dose on rhizosphere studies using X-
579	ray Computed Tomography. <i>PLoS ONE</i> 8, e67250. doi:
580	10.1371/journal.pone.0067250.
581	Zappala, S., Mairhofer, S., Tracy, S., Sturrock, C.J., Bennett, M., Pridmore, T., and Mooney,
582	S.J. (2013b). Quantifying the effect of soil moisture content on segmenting root
583	system architecture in X-ray Computed Tomography images. Plant and Soil 370, 35-
584	45. doi: 10.1007/s11104-013-1596-1.
585	
<b>506</b>	
586	

#### **List of Tables**

- Table 1. Means for root system traits measured using X-ray CT for incubation time, crop and
- inoculation.
- Table 2. Linear regression models for disease score (y) on pathogen DNA (x) and WinRHIZO $^{\otimes}$ , and X-ray CT based measurements of root system architecture traits (y) on
- disease score (x) and pathogen DNA (x) for each crop.

Table 1.Means for root system traits measured using X-ray CT for incubation time, crop and inoculation

	Root Max Length (mm)				Root Max Width (mm)				Centroid Z (mm)				Convex Hull (mm³)			
	Wheat		<u>OSR</u>		Wheat		<u>OSR</u>		<b>Wheat</b>		<u>OSR</u>		Wheat		<u>OSR</u>	
Time (dfi)	Control	AG2-1	Control	AG2-1	Control	AG2-1	Control	AG2-1	Control	AG2-1	Control	AG2-1	Control	AG2-1	Control	AG2-1
2	9.88	11.13	7.97	1.20	13.87	5.61	10.42	1.85	6.44	8.01	5.46	1.07	128	49	30	2
4	25.80	25.80	23.00	1.27	27.63	25.43	13.18	3.77	16.04	16.47	15.65	1.03	1815	729	156	7
6	25.80	25.80	25.80	0.97	28.66	29.39	13.50	2.90	14.86	14.50	18.52	0.69	4123	2038	416	7
	SED	df			SED	df			SED	df			SED	df		
A	1.64	(16)			2.73	(10)			1.49	(16)			243	(12)		
В	1.53	(10)			1.76	(10)			1.45	(16)			244	(7)		
Effects	P				P				P				P			
T	0.001				0.001				0.001				0.001			
ТхС	0.002				0.001				0.066				0.001			
ΤxΙ	0.001				0.176				0.002				0.009			
TxCxI	0.001				0.041				0.010				0.048			
GGE	0.6906				0.6699				0.6952				0.5052			

dfi = days following inoculation; T = time; C = crop; I = inoculation; GGE = Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon; SED = standard error of difference; df = number of degrees of freedom

A: SED for comparing means for with different levels of inoculation and crop, B: SED for comparing means with the same level of inoculation and crop (CxI) for different times (dfi) of measurement

Table 2. Linear regression models for disease score (y) on pathogen DNA (x) and WinRHIZO<sup>®</sup>, and X-ray CT based measurements of root system architecture traits (y) on disease score (x) and pathogen DNA (x) for each crop.

<b>D</b>		Dise	x)	Pathogen DNA detected in soil (x)				
Dependent variable (y)	R <sup>2</sup> P Value			Equation	$R^2$	R <sup>2</sup> P Value		Equation
Disease Score	*	*	*		0.82	0.001	$y_{\text{wheat}}$	= -0.014  x + 0.004
							$y_{osr}$	= 0.423  x + 0.018
CTV 1 ( 3)	0.00	0.001	$\mathbf{y}_{\mathrm{wheat}}$	= 0.03  x - 0.002	0.07	0.001	$y_{\text{wheat}}$	= 0.037  x - 0.00003
CT Volume (mm <sup>3</sup> )	0.96		$y_{osr}$	= 0.009  x - 0.002	0.96		$y_{osr}$	= 0.008  x - 0.00003
CTE G G A ( 2)	0.00	0.001	$y_{\text{wheat}}$	= 2.725 x -0.160	0.05	0.001	$y_{\text{wheat}}$	= 2.961 x -0.002
CT Surface Area (mm <sup>2</sup> )	0.96		$y_{osr}$	= 0.889  x - 0.160	0.95	0.001	$y_{osr}$	= 0.779  x  -0.002
CTI (1 ( )	0.00	0.001	$y_{wheat}$	= 2.644  x + 0.170	0.77	0.004	$y_{wheat}$	= 2.436  x + 0.002
CT Length (mm)	0.96	0.001	$y_{osr}$	= 2.990  x - 0.578	0.77		$y_{osr}$	= 2.727 x -0.0108
CTC HILL	0.02	0.001	$y_{wheat}$	= 299.3 x - 12.1	0.00	0.001	$y_{\text{wheat}}$	= 336.9 x -0.373
CT Convex Hull (cm)	0.82	0.001	$y_{osr}$	= 57.3 x - 12.1	0.89		$y_{osr}$	= 67.9  x - 0.373
3	0.02	0.001	$y_{wheat}$	= 0.06  x - 0.003	0.05	0.001	$y_{\text{wheat}}$	= 0.07 x -0.0007
WinRhizo Volume (cm <sup>3</sup> )	0.93		$y_{osr}$	= 0.013  x - 0.003	0.97		$y_{osr}$	= 0.013 x -0.0007
2.			$y_{wheat}$	= 4.261 x - 0.956		0.001	$y_{wheat}$	= -0.4.365 x -0.004
WinRhizo Surface Area (cm <sup>2</sup> )	0.96	0.001	$y_{osr}$	= 1.011 x - 0.202	0.97		$y_{osr}$	= 0.993 x -0.004
w. 51. • 1./ ·	0.05	0.001	$y_{\text{wheat}}$	= 21.269  x - 4.60	0.05	0.001	$y_{\text{wheat}}$	= 22.0 x -0.024
WinRhizo Length (cm)	0.97		$y_{osr}$	= 6.517 x - 1.303	0.96		$y_{osr}$	= 5.876  x - 0.024
		0.001	$y_{\text{wheat}}$	= 4.242 x -0.22		0.001	$y_{wheat}$	= 4.563 x -0.004
Primary Root Number	0.94		$y_{osr}$	= 1.069 x -0.22	0.95		y <sub>osr</sub>	= 0.963 x -0.004

# Figure legends

Figure 1. Disease severity (0 = no lesions, clean roots; 1 = small lesion on tap root; 2 = necrosis of up to 30%; 3 = necrosis covering 30-60% of the tap root; 4 = necrosis covering 61-99% of the tap root; 5 = completely severed tap root) assessed 2 days following inoculation (dfi), 4 and 6 dfi on wheat and oil seed rape plants inoculated with *R. solani* AG2-1 (Rs AG 2-1). No disease symptoms were shown in the control treatment for both crops. Bar shows standard error of difference (SED) for the interaction between sample time (T) at 2, 4 or 6 dfi and crop (C) species (wheat or OSR).

Figure 2. Pathogen DNA quantified using real-time PCR at 2 days following inoculation (dfi), 4 and 6 dfi from soil inoculated with *R. solani* AG2-1 (Rs AG 2-1). Bar shows standard error of difference (SED) for sample time (T) for both crop species.

Figure 3. Root system architecture at 2, 4 and 6 days following inoculation (dfi) visualised non-destructively by X-ray CT and at 6 dfi by destructive WinRHIZO<sup>®</sup> (white background) for control and *R. solani* AG 2-1 treated wheat (A & B) and OSR plants (C & D). Scale bar = 5 mm.

Figure 4. Root system volume and surface area over time (T) for crop (C) (a & b) and inoculation (I) with *R. solani* AG 2-1 (c & d). Interactions for surface area and volume were detected using repeated measures ANOVA with degrees of freedom (df) corrected by Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon factor. Bars show standard error of difference for (1) comparing means for treatment combinations; 2) comparing means with the same level of C; (3) for comparing means for the same level of inoculation I and species (wheat or OSR); 4) comparing means with the same level of I.

Figure 5. A: Effect of inoculation (I) or B: crop species (C), on primary root number sampled 2, 4 and 6 days following inoculation (dfi) (T) with *R. solani* AG2-1. Interactions detected using repeated measures ANOVA with degrees of freedom (df) corrected by Greenhouse-Gisser epsilon factor. Bars show standard error of difference for (1) comparing means for treatment combinations 2) comparing means with the same level of C.

Figure 6. Root cortex maceration and necrosis of developing taproot of OSR by *R. solani* AG2-1. (A) 3D X-ray CT image of soil and root (yellow). (B) Image showing only root tissue (white solid arrow indicates maceration of tissue. (C) 2D cross-section (zx plane) image showing high porosity around OSR root (scale bar = 2 mm). (D) Magnified view of image shown in (C), showing necrosis of root cortex (scale bar = 1 mm). (E) 2D cross-section (xy plane) image showing preservation of the stele (solid arrow) but complete necrosis of cortex tissue (scale bar = 0.5 mm).











