

1     **An experimental approach to study multi-species diseases interactions in**  
2                     **wheat using machine learning-aided image analysis.**

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24

25 **Abstract**

26 Fungal plant pathogens causing head blight and leaf blotch diseases are one of the most  
27 important threats to cereals such as oat and wheat. Although different resistant varieties have  
28 been developed, these diseases are still hard to control thus driving the use of chemical  
29 fungicide in Europe and worldwide. Plant breeding programs to develop new varieties with  
30 quantitative resistance could result in a longer resistance to the pathogens but require scalable  
31 quantitative methods to analyze complex phenotypes. Additionally, in nature, several diseases  
32 can occur at the same time due to the coexistence of different pathogen species, thus increasing  
33 the genetic complexity of the pathosystem. In the present study we develop a reductionist  
34 strategy to study disease resistance at a higher level of organismal complexity, through the  
35 application of machine learning to image analysis of artificial pathobiomes. Our results show  
36 that such approach enables a meaningful simplification of complex plant multi-pathogen  
37 species interactions, allowing the analysis of specific pathogen-pathogen interactions to  
38 unravel hidden phenotypic layers that are not visible or quantifiable under field conditions.

39

## 40 Introduction

41 Wheat is one of the main cultivated crops and a prime source of proteins and carbohydrates in  
42 our diets ([de Sousa et al., 2021](#)). It is cultivated worldwide and is the target of diverse fungal  
43 pathogens. Because of its importance to food security, the search for new disease resistance  
44 traits has been a major focus for plant pathologists and breeders. Traditionally, we can separate  
45 two types of disease resistance: qualitative resistance and quantitative resistance. Qualitative  
46 resistance is commonly associated with one, dominant resistance R gene/allele, while  
47 quantitative resistance is associated with an assortment of different trait loci (QTLs)  
48 representing putative resistance genes with additive effects. Although quantitative resistance is  
49 usually less efficient than the strong R gene based qualitative resistance ([Rousseau et al.,  
50 2013](#)), it is generally more durable, effective against a broader spectrum of races of a particular  
51 pathogen ([Corwin & Kliebenstein, 2017](#); [McDonald & Linde, 2002](#); [Van den Berg et al.,  
52 2014](#)), and usually involves a higher number of genes. Modern strategies for breeding  
53 quantitative disease resistance require the use of extensive genomic and phenotypic data from  
54 the host and the pathogen. Additionally, the ability to reveal and properly score complex and  
55 diverse phenotypical traits becomes essential to link host/multi-pathogen genotype interactions  
56 to their corresponding phenotypes. Such approach which has been coined as ‘phenomics’,  
57 implies the systematic acquisition of high-dimensional data on an organism-wide scale ([Houle  
58 et al., 2010](#); [Rousseau et al., 2013](#)).

59

60 In nature, it is common that different plant pathogens coexist on a single host ([Tollenaere et  
61 al., 2016](#)). Plants have thus developed complex responses to counter act and adapt to complex  
62 pathobiomes. This involve a variety of genetic factors rendering breeding for multiple disease  
63 resistance (MDR) rather challenging ([Barrett et al., 2021](#); [Orton & Brown, 2016](#); [Wiesner-  
64 Hanks & Nelson, 2016](#)). For example, it has been shown that the biotrophic pathogen  
65 *Pseudomonas syringae* induces salicylic-related defense triggering susceptibility of its host to  
66 *Alternaria brassicicola*, a necrotrophic pathogen ([Spoel et al., 2007](#)). Also, *Arabidopsis  
67 thaliana* plants previously infected with *Albugo candida* show increased susceptibility to an  
68 avirulent strain of *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis* ([Cooper et al., 2008](#)). In wheat, primary  
69 infection with *Zymoseptoria tritici* can induce systemic susceptibility and systemic shifts in the  
70 wheat metabolome and microbiome composition ([Seybold et al., 2020](#)), but at the same time  
71 it can also reduce the incidence of *Puccinia striiformis* ([Madariaga, 1986](#)) or inhibit the  
72 sporulation of wheat powdery mildew ([Orton & Brown, 2016](#)). These findings indicate there  
73 are higher levels of genetic organismal complexity regulating host/multi-pathogen interactions.

74

75 Such genetic complexity is also highly relevant for so called ‘disease complexes’ where several  
76 pathogen species can act in mixed infections to cause diseases such as ascochyta blight, black  
77 spot, and fusarium head blight (FHB). In the latter, over 17 *Fusarium* and non-fusarium species  
78 are known to be associated with FHB (Karlsson et al., 2021) thus making the disease difficult  
79 to control. Species associated with FHB in cereals include *Fusarium graminearum*, *F.*  
80 *langsethiae*, *F. avenaceum*, *F. poae*, *F. culmorum*, *F. tricinctum*, *Microdochium majus* and  
81 *Microdochium nivale* (Karlsson et al., 2021). Broadly speaking, *Fusarium* species can infect  
82 cereal hosts in virtually all organs, through the roots, the crown, or the stem base of the plant  
83 (Karlsson et al., 2021). This complex scenario makes the management of the disease and  
84 breeding for resistance particularly challenging considering the variety of tissues and organs  
85 that can host pathogenic *Fusarium* species (Karlsson et al., 2021; Vogelgsang et al., 2008).

86

87 Due to this complex scenario, several types of reductionist resistance screenings have been  
88 developed, such as detached leaf assays (Diamond & Cooke, 1999), seedling resistance  
89 (Mesterhazy, 1987), seed germination assay (Browne & Cooke, 2005), coleoptiles assay (Wu  
90 et al., 2005) and response to the *Fusarium* mycotoxin deoxynivalenol (DON) (Buerstmayr H,  
91 Lemmens M, 1996). All these methods have been useful in the identification of *Fusarium*  
92 resistance traits in cereals, and particularly the detached leaf assay, which has been particularly  
93 used due to the high correlation between pathogen latent period and quantitative disease  
94 resistance in the field (Diamond & Cooke, 1999; Niks & Skinnnes, 1998). As some pathogenic  
95 *Fusarium* species such as *F. avenaceum* or *F. graminearum* can be endophytes in grass plants  
96 (Inch & Gilbert, 2003; Postic et al., 2012), it is relevant to notice that the latent period could  
97 be a good predictor of plant resistance due to the well accepted assumption of the endophytic  
98 origin of pathogenic *Fusarium* species (Lofgren et al., 2018). As a result of this complex  
99 scenario (*interactions between pathogens during mixed infections, disease complex with*  
100 *diverse causal agents*), genetic studies of multispecies disease interactions are necessary to  
101 gain better understanding of multiple-disease resistance (MDR).

102

103 Here we describe a fully featured strategy inspired and co-developed with the Microphenomics  
104 platform at the Leibniz-Institute of Plant Genetics and Crop Plant Research (IPK, Germany).  
105 This simplified approach enables the study of host/multi-pathogen interactions in a controlled  
106 and scalable manner, which is suited for the exploration of large cereal germplasm collections  
107 in a space and time-effective manners.

## 108 **Materials & Methods**

### 109 ***Plant growth conditions***

110 An overview of the phenotyping pipeline is provided in **Figure 1**. We used the reference  
111 hexaploid wheat cultivars ‘Chinese Spring’, ‘Fielder’, and ‘Bob White’, *Triticum aestivum* spp.  
112 *aestivum* parental breeding lines (‘Agadir’, ‘Artico’, and ‘Victo’), a *T. turgidum* spp. *durum*  
113 cultivar (‘Latino’), a *T. dicoccum* accession (MG5323), and an old cultivar of *T. turgidum* spp.  
114 *turanicum* (Zardak), and commercial spring wheat cultivars were germinated in pots with  
115 sterilized substrate at 20-21 °C, RH of 70% and with light intensity of 300  $\mu\text{mol}$  and 18 h light/  
116 6 h dark photoperiod. Commercial spring wheat cultivars were provided by the Swedish  
117 Agricultural Cooperative Lantmännen Lantbruk (Sweden). Plants for inoculation with *Z. tritici*  
118 were maintained in a closed infection chamber inside a growth chamber with the same above  
119 conditions, and supplemented with and additional LED light sources enriching the light  
120 spectrum in the 380 and 700 nm wavelength, respectively (**Supplementary Figure 1**)

121

### 122 **Preparation of *Zymoseptoria tritici* inoculum**

123 *Z. tritici* reference isolates ST99CH\_3B8 (3B8), ST99CH\_3C4 (3C4), ST99CH\_3C7 (3C7),  
124 ST99CH\_3D5 (3D5), ST99CH\_3D7 (3D7), ST99CH\_3F2 (3F2), and ST99CH\_3G6 (3G6)  
125 were isolated in Switzerland in 1999 (courtesy of Prof. Bruce McDonald, ETH Zürich). *Z.*  
126 *tritici* isolates were incubated in yeast extract-malt extract-starch agar, YMS (4 g/L yeast  
127 extract, 4 g/L malt extract, 4 g/L sucrose, 16 g/L agar), in darkness at 20 °C for 11 days until  
128 the day of the infection. At that stage, spores were collected from the plates by scraping the  
129 cells in sterile conditions and resuspending them in TWEEN 0.01%. The solution was filtered  
130 throughout a sterile filter with pore diameter of 22-25  $\mu\text{m}$ . Spore concentration was calculated  
131 with a hemocytometer and adjusted in all isolates to  $1 \times 10^6$  spores/ml. Before air gun infection,  
132 all isolates were mixed at equal volume and concentration.

133

### 134 **Preparation of *Fusarium* sp. inoculum**

135 *F. avenaceum*, *F. culmorum* and *F. graminearum* were collected from Swedish fields in summer  
136 of 2021 and previously genotyped by **Kaur et al. (2024)** using universal ITS primers ITS1 (5’-  
137 TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG-3’) and ITS4 (5’-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3’), and  
138 species specific primers for *F. graminearum* marker GOFW (5’-  
139 ACCTCTGTTGTTCTTCCAGACGG-3’) GORV (5’-CTGGTCAGTATTAACCGTGTGTG-  
140 3’), and for *F. culmorum* with marker Fc03 (5’-TTCTTGCTAGGGTTGAGGATG-3’) Fc02  
141 (5’-GACCTTGACTTTGAGCTTCTTG-3’) (**Astrid Bauer & Seigner, 2015; De Biazio et al.,**

142 **2008**). For coinfections with the three *Fusarium* species, isolates were grown for two weeks at  
143 25 °C on oatmeal agar or OMA (3 g/L ecological oatmeal and 16 g/L agar) and sporulation was  
144 induced by incubation under natural light for 3 days. For coinfections with *Zymoseptoria tritici*,  
145 all *Fusarium* species were incubated in muesli agar or MA (25 g/L muesli, 2 g/L malt extract  
146 and 12 g/L agar) plates at 25 °C for 30 days. After the incubation period, spores were collected  
147 by scratching from the plate and suspended in TWEEN 0.01%. The final spore concentration  
148 was adjusted to 250 spores/ $\mu$ L and aliquoted into vials at -20 °C until infection day.

149

### 150 **Coinfection assays**

151 For coinfections with different *Fusarium* species, 6 cm-length leaf segments were cut from 15-  
152 days-old wheat seedlings. Leaf segments were placed with the abaxial surface touching  
153 Benzimidazole Agar medium (BA, 5% water agar supplemented with 0.03 mg/L  
154 benzimidazole). Three dimensional (3D)-printed frames of polylactic acid (PLA) were  
155 designed to keep the leaf surface in contact with the BA medium, thus preventing desiccation  
156 of the leaves. A wound was performed in the middle of each leaf segment with a 0.02 mm  
157 diameter bore needle, then, a 15  $\mu$ L drop with a *Fusarium* spore concentration of 10 spores/ $\mu$ L  
158 was deposited. Leaf segments were secured with masking tape to seal the wound and avoid  
159 curling. As a control, a group of leaf segments were inoculated with TWEEN 0.01%. In the  
160 case of *Fusarium* species coinfections, an equal volume and concentration of spores (10  
161 spores/ $\mu$ L) were mixed into a 15  $\mu$ L drop and inoculated as described above. Pictures were taken  
162 at 8 dpi using a DSLR camera. *Fusarium* coinfection assays of the commercial cultivars, lab  
163 standards, and parental lines was performed using 4 cm length leaf segments, with a spore  
164 concentration of 250 spores/ $\mu$ L and an incubation time of 5 days without frames.

165

166 For *F. graminearum* – *Z. tritici* coinfections, 9-days-old wheat seedlings were placed in a closed  
167 infection chamber. *Z. tritici* cultures were isolated from YMS plates by scratching and  
168 resuspended in TWEEN 0.01%. Spore concentration was calculated with a hemocytometer,  
169 and adjusted to  $10^6$  spores/ml. The different isolates were mixed in equal proportions and  
170 sprayed with a spray gun over the seedlings using 0.33 ml per seedling. As a control, a group  
171 of plants were inoculated with TWEEN 0.01%. After the inoculation, the chamber was  
172 maintained at high humidity (over 70% of RH) and in darkness for 24 hours. Then plants were  
173 placed back in a day-night cycle as described above, and kept at high RH by spraying distilled  
174 water, using a low-pressure spray gun. Then, 6 cm length leaf segments were cut from *Z. tritici*-  
175 infected and mock-inoculated plants at 3-days-post infection (dpi). Secondary infections with

176 *F. graminearum* were performed as described above, using a 15 µl drop with a *F. graminearum*  
177 spore concentration of 250 sp/µl. Leaf segments were kept on plates with BA medium and  
178 maintained in darkness with high RH% for 24 hours, then moved day/night cycle and at high  
179 RH until 4 dpi (MG5323) and 5 dpi (Fielder), and then photographed.

180

### 181 **Machine learning-aided image analysis**

182 Each leaf segment from the original picture was extracted individually using ImageJ. To  
183 quantify disease severity, Jupyter Notebooks (<https://jupyter.org/>) were used to run code from  
184 the PlantCV (<https://plantcv.org/>) and OpenCV packages (<https://opencv.org/>). Images showing  
185 the juxtaposition of different masks were obtained using the Jupyter Notebooks terminal  
186 interface. Bash commands were used to simultaneously analyze multiple samples from one  
187 directory, while the PlantCV based script was used to analyze the images and create a JSON  
188 file as an output in a selected directory. The implementation of PlantCV allows binary image  
189 transformation from original RGB pictures, mask creation, and pixel classification in different  
190 predefined classes through a multiclass Naïve Bayes (NB) algorithm. A probability function  
191 for red, green, and blue values, allowing pixel classification from these values is calculated.  
192 The JSON file output contains the number of counted pixels in each predefined class. Data was  
193 transformed to a tabular file and uploaded to the R statistical environment for further analysis.

194

### 195 **Statistical analyses**

196 As data did not pass the normality and homoscedasticity tests, a linear model with fixed effects  
197 was designed after performing an aligned-rank transformation with the values of necrosis or  
198 chlorosis ( $y$ ) as response variable and cultivar ( $x_1$ ), zymoseptoria ( $x_2$ ) and its interaction ( $x_3$ )  
199 as explanatory variables with their corresponding coefficients ( $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ ). The constant  $\mu$   
200 represents the intercept.

$$201 \quad y = \mu + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3$$

202 To test statistical differences, we performed an aligned-rank-transformation-two-way-ANOVA  
203 (robust two-way-ANOVA) and a *post hoc* test with Tukey adjustment. A Principal Component  
204 Analysis (PCA) was carried out with the average value of each cultivar and *Fusarium*  
205 combination (each combination has at least 5 biological replicates). Coordinates of each sample  
206 in the PCA were extracted to calculate the distance matrix which was used as input for cluster  
207 analysis throughout a hierarchical Agglomerative Nesting (AGNES) algorithm.

208

209 All statistical analyses were performed with the R statistical software ([https://www.r-](https://www.r-project.org/)  
210 [project.org/](https://www.r-project.org/), version 4.2.2) in the Rstudio environment (R Core Team, 2022) and the packages:  
211 readxl, dplyr, tidyr, stringr, reshape2, ggplot2, multcompView, forcats, ARTool, rcompanion,  
212 factoextra, cluster (Graves *et al.*, 2023; Kassambara & Mundt, 2020; Kay *et al.*, 2021; Maechler  
213 *et al.*, 2022; Mangiafico, 2023; Wickham, François, *et al.*, 2023; Wickham, Vaughan, *et al.*,  
214 2023; Wickham, 2007, 2016, 2022, 2023; Wickham & Bryan, 2023).

215

## 216 **Results**

### 217 **Phenotypic analysis of leaf segments with single and mixed *Fusarium* sp. infection**

218 We selected plants from the bread wheat cultivar Fielder to perform *Fusarium* infection assays  
219 as it turned out it was a good universal susceptible control suitable for obtaining clear disease  
220 phenotypes in our hands. Leaf segments were inoculated with *F. avenaceum*, *F. culmorum*, *F.*  
221 *graminearum* and their combinations by drop inoculation (see Material & Methods). PLA  
222 frames held the leaf segments in contact with the medium, maintaining the plant tissues  
223 humidified and without signs of stress for more than 7 days. Disease symptoms progression on  
224 the leaf segments was monitored for one week. At 8 dpi, variability in disease severity between  
225 single vs. mixed *Fusarium* sp. infection was scored (**Figure 2**).

226

227 We found that *F. graminearum* showed the most severe symptoms, triggering necrosis in large  
228 areas of the leaf segment. In contrast, the combination of *F. culmorum* and *F. graminearum*  
229 showed the lowest severity of the disease symptoms in comparison with single *F. graminearum*  
230 infections. These results suggest that *F. graminearum* is the most aggressive of the three  
231 *Fusarium* species tested, and that there are interactions between *F. avenaceum*, *F. culmorum*  
232 and *F. graminearum* that could change the plant response. Moreover, we can detect such  
233 differences using the detached leaf assay, demonstrating the ability of the image analysis script  
234 to distinguish among different phenotypes.

235

### 236 **Scoring of *Fusarium* sp. leaf symptoms using image analysis**

237 To define our region of interest (ROI) and reduce the error rate of the algorithm, the picture  
238 area inside the PLA frames that hold the leaves was extracted. Then, each leaf segment was  
239 extracted as an individual image using a PlantCV based script (Gehan *et al.*, 2017). Pixels were  
240 manually captured with ImageJ, and their RGB parameters (red, green, blue) were saved in a  
241 tab delimited file where we defined each class of pixel. To avoid class imbalance, we collected  
242 the same number of pixels for each class (necrosis, chlorosis, healthy tissue, and background).



243 We thus built a solid training set of over 1000 different pixels from each class. Once the RGB  
244 values of each class were defined in a training set, a Naïve Bayes algorithm (Gehan *et al.*, 2017)  
245 was used to develop a probability function for each pre-defined class. Throughout the  
246 probability function, the script classifies each pixel in the different pre-defined classes, creating  
247 a binary image for each class that is transformed into a mask. This procedure allows the  
248 differentiation of the regions that show necrosis, chlorosis, healthy tissue, or background.  
249 Finally, the number of pixels from each class was counted to quantify each feature in every leaf  
250 segment (**Figure 3**).

251

252 A total of 64 leaf segment pictures were analyzed to test this approach. The results of the  
253 quantification of each leaf segment grouped by treatment are illustrated in **Figure 4**. The script  
254 correctly identified the infection with *F. graminearum* as the one that triggers the most severe  
255 symptoms causing the largest area of necrotic tissue. The level of necrosis observed in the  
256 control groups are close to 0, indicating a high performance of the classifier algorithm. We  
257 could also quantify previously observed changes that had less necrosis than those infected with  
258 *F. graminearum* only. We therefore conclude that the resulting image-segmentation and pixel  
259 classification is biologically meaningful, and can correctly differentiate diseases severity  
260 levels, and disease symptoms.

261

### 262 **Comparison of disease severity values scored visually vs with the Naïve Bayes algorithm.**

263 We then compared the scorings obtained by a trained person with the results obtained with  
264 PlantCV. Usually, the disease severity of *Fusarium* species in detached leaves assays are  
265 calculated as a composite phenotype consisting of two attributes: chlorosis and necrosis. The  
266 different values of these two variables are combined on a scale from 0 to 5 degrees of severity  
267 (**Kaur *et al.* 2024; Supplementary Table 1**). We calculated the percentage of plant pixels  
268 classified as necrosis, the percentage of plant pixels classified as chlorosis and the sum of  
269 necrosis and chlorosis percentages.

270

271 To compare the results obtained by a human with the result of our image analysis, we used an  
272 image library previously generated by us (Kaur *et al.*, 2024). It consisted of images of detached  
273 infection assays with *F. avenaceum*, *F. culmorum*, *F. graminearum* and their combinations  
274 using the material described above. Due to the large number of putative comparisons (39 lines  
275 and 7 different treatments) and considering the complexity of the data, we decided to perform

276 an exploratory cluster analysis with the coordinates of each sample obtained from a Principal  
277 Component Analysis (PCA) and compare the relative position of each genotype.

278

279 We found that the most coherent clustering was obtained with the percentage of necrosis scored  
280 with the NB algorithm (**Figure 5, Supplementary Tables 2, 3, 4, 5**). This approximation  
281 aggregates the samples in breeding lines (blue), lab standards (pink) and commercial lines  
282 (green, red and yellow). Moreover, the clusters obtained with the values of necrosis percentage  
283 are similar to the groups obtained with visual scores. In both cases there are two clear groups  
284 of commercial lines close to the lab standard and the breeding lines (blue and yellow in manual  
285 scoring and orange and yellow in ML scoring). A third commercial line group, which is less  
286 similar to the lab standards (green ML scoring), is split in two closely related groups in the  
287 manual scoring (green and pink). In contrast, with manual scoring, the parental lines are divided  
288 into the cluster of lab standards (Latino, Zardak and MG5323, tetraploid durum wheat) and one  
289 of the clusters of commercial lines (Artico, Victo and Agadir, hexaploid wheat). However,  
290 beyond these differences, the relative position of each genotype in comparison with the others  
291 remains relatively similar. For example, the lab standard Fielder is close to the lines Chinese  
292 Spring, Bob White, Eleven, Amulett, and Rogue in both cases, with manual scoring and with  
293 necrosis calculated with NB algorithm. In fact, the ML algorithm leads to better separation of  
294 the cluster of parental lines (although it aggregates closer tetraploid and hexaploid wheat  
295 species), lab standards, and the different commercial lines clusters. These results indicate that  
296 our image analysis pipeline can detect small differences in the amount of necrosis, and it  
297 suggests that is more accurate quantifying these differences than a discrete scale of disease  
298 severity analyzed by the human eye.

299

300 To corroborate the existence of differences among *Fusarium* combinations and wheat  
301 genotypes, we performed a robust ANOVA analysis (**Supplementary Table 6**), to detect  
302 statistically significant differences between genotypes, *Fusarium* combinations, and the  
303 combination of both. The results of the ANOVA indicate that there are statistically significant  
304 differences ( $p < 0.01$ ) between genotypes, *Fusarium* combination, and the combination of both,  
305 suggesting that our set up detects specific responses to each *Fusarium* species in a genotype-  
306 specific manner. These results further indicate that our image analysis pipeline is more sensitive  
307 to small differences thus allowing us differentiating genotype-specific responses in more  
308 coherent clusters. It is noticeable that our results strongly suggest that the manual scoring tends  
309 to overestimate the value of necrosis, meanwhile with our image analysis set up we can choose

310 explicitly if we prioritize to analyze necrosis, chlorosis, or both. Together, our results indicate  
311 that our imaging pipeline is accurate and can potentially reveal new layers of information in  
312 the analysis of the complex response of the plant to the pathogen.

313

### 314 **Phenotypic analysis of mixed *Z. tritici* / *F. graminearum* infections**

315 We decided to test our image analysis set up to process images from coinfections with *F.*  
316 *graminearum*, (the *Fusarium* species which triggers the highest percentage of necrosis), and  
317 the hemibiotroph *Z. tritici*. Nine days-old wheat plants were put in control conditions inside  
318 the chamber until they were infected with *Z. tritici* spores. The chamber is equipped with an  
319 opening that allows infect the plants with an admixture of spores from different *Z. tritici* isolates  
320 or a mock solution with an air gun. At 3 dpi, leaf segments were collected from infected and  
321 mock plants and inoculated with a suspension of *F. graminearum* spores at a concentration of  
322 10, 100 and 250 spores/ $\mu$ l (see Material & Methods). After an additional 5 days after *F.*  
323 *graminearum* infection we took pictures of the leaf segments, and we analyzed the levels of  
324 necrosis and chlorosis using our pipeline (**Figure 6A**). The NB algorithm recognized higher  
325 levels of necrosis and chlorosis in leaf segments infected at a concentration of 10 spores/ $\mu$ l in  
326 comparison with the negative controls, although the differences are not consistent enough to  
327 be statistically significant (**Figure 6B**). Leaf segments inoculated with a concentration of 100  
328 and 250 spores/ $\mu$ l showed similar levels of necrosis and chlorosis, although leaf segments  
329 inoculated at 250 spores/ $\mu$ l tend to have more severe disease symptoms (**Figure 6B, 6C**).  
330 Interestingly, differences in necrotic and chlorotic areas between leaf segments from *Z. tritici*  
331 infected plants and mock plants are detected by the NB algorithm, indicating an effect of  
332 primary infection with *Z. tritici* on secondary infection with *F. graminearum*.

333

334 Finally, we further assessed the performance of the set up in two different wheat cultivars. We  
335 developed a similar coinfection assay, evaluating disease severity symptom in 4 dpi (accession  
336 MG5323, tetraploid wheat) or 5 dpi (cv. Fielder, hexaploid wheat) after *F. graminearum*  
337 inoculation. Consistent with previous results, the image analysis reveals differences that are  
338 clear throughout visual inspection of the leaf segments (**Figure 7A**). Accession MG5323 seems  
339 less resistant to *F. graminearum* in comparison to Fielder (**Figure 7B**). Moreover, our pipeline  
340 can detect a trend in *Z. tritici* infected Fielder plants to develop less necrosis in comparison  
341 with mock plants, although this difference is not statistically significant. Additionally, even  
342 though we cannot detect differences in the chlorotic area between mock and *Z. tritici* infected  
343 Fielder plants, neither visually nor with our pipeline, our set up still detects an inhibition of the

344 chlorotic area in *Z. tritici* infected MG5323 plants in comparison with mock. In fact, this  
345 difference is statistically significant and can be confirmed visually.

346

347 Together, these results suggest that *Z. tritici* infection can modify the host response to *F.*  
348 *graminearum*. This modulation seems to depend on the wheat genotype/specie (tetraploid or  
349 hexaploid). In fact, this is coherent with our results from *Fusarium* coinfections, as we can  
350 group genotypes by their specific response to each *Fusarium* combination. Besides, our results  
351 indicate that our pipeline can detect disease interactions throughout changes in the phenotype.  
352 Moreover, the NB algorithm has detected changes related with *Z. tritici* infection in the  
353 necrosis, relatively easy to assess visually, and in the chlorosis, a difficult phenotypical trait to  
354 measure, allowing us to catch these changes in the plant response to *F. graminearum*. It means,  
355 our set up seems to allow a meticulous and objective analysis of the phenotypical responses of  
356 wheat to different pathogens and pathogen combinations.

357

## 358 **Discussion**

### 359 **Experimental set up**

360 In this study we present an original set up allowing the study of disease interactions in wheat.  
361 The detached leaf assay is highly suitable for large scale screens due to the relatively short time  
362 from seed to inoculation, and the low requirements of space. In fact, the full procedure can be  
363 performed in 17 days facilitating the screening of large populations. Another advantage of the  
364 system is the increased consistency between replicates, particularly when using our chamber  
365 where the air is saturated with *Z. tritici* spores during the infection. As with other systems, our  
366 strategy has also some limitations, and the predictive power of such approach must be carefully  
367 evaluated in a pathosystem-specific manner. However, it has been demonstrated that detached  
368 leaf assays can be used to predict resistance traits, thus giving us confidence that our strategy  
369 is suitable for resistance screenings (Diamond & Cooke, 1999; Niks & Skinnes, 1998).

370

### 371 **Image analysis strategy**

372 Currently, advances in computer sciences and machine learning algorithms have enabled the  
373 use high-throughput imaging to analyze disease symptoms in a quantitative manner  
374 (Bohnenkamp *et al.*, 2021; Gehan *et al.*, 2017; Karisto *et al.*, 2018; Rousseau *et al.*, 2013;  
375 Shoaib *et al.*, 2022; Stewart *et al.*, 2016; Stewart & McDonald, 2014). Here, we present the  
376 application of one of these machine learning algorithms, Naïve Bayes, to the detection and  
377 quantification of phenotypical differences in disease severity. The image analysis set up based

378 on the PlantCV package allows us to detect and quantify these differences. The algorithm has  
379 been demonstrated to be robust enough to analyze pictures with different parameters of  
380 exposition time and lens aperture. Moreover, this strategy facilitates an objective quantification  
381 of the disease symptom severity. There are several advantages of our pipeline in comparison  
382 with previous pipelines (Laflamme *et al.*, 2016; Peressotti *et al.*, 2011; Perochon & Doohan,  
383 2016). This includes for example the possibility of normalizing the disease area to the total area  
384 of the leaf, the possibility to analyzed complex, multilayered phenotype (necrosis and  
385 chlorosis), and the capacity of parallelize the script and automatize the extraction of data from  
386 large datasets.

387

388 Additionally, our results show that the image analysis can detect differences in the necrotic area  
389 in early stages of the infection (4 dpi) even at low spore concentration (10 spores/ $\mu$ l),  
390 demonstrating that our set up is highly sensitive. Although it seems that the percentage of  
391 necrosis is the most similar characteristic in the manual disease scoring, we cannot exclude the  
392 percentage of chlorosis as another valuable phenotype. Necrosis usually appears in the leaf as  
393 a dark lesion. This characteristic color, well differentiated from the green of the leaf, facilitates  
394 the training of the algorithm. Chlorosis, however, lays near the yellow color, which is adjacent  
395 to the green in the visible spectrum, plus it could also be triggered abiotic stress. This is  
396 especially relevant as chlorosis is a disease symptom which is difficult to quantify and can give  
397 us valuable clues about changes at molecular level in pathogen-host interactions.

398

### 399 **Statistical observations and their meaning**

400 We have performed a robust ANOVA over our linear model as our data did not pass normality  
401 tests. As we did not obtain a high enough number of samples, even in the case the data follows  
402 the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity the small size of the population would  
403 make the data sensitive to bias due to outliers and influential points, making it almost  
404 impossible to pass the tests. In any case, differences are robust enough to be significant with  
405 parametric and non-parametric methods, suggesting that our analysis pipeline can detect  
406 differences that could be biologically meaningful.

407

408 Although *F. graminearum* and *F. culmorum* seem to be more aggressive than *F. avenaceum*,  
409 still, each genotype has a typical response for each pathogen and pathogen combination,  
410 indicating that there are specific interactions between cultivars and pathogens. This is  
411 especially evident as we can aggregate cultivars in clusters depending on their specific

412 responses to each pathogen and pathogen combination. The clustering analysis of the PCA  
413 coordinates also reveals patterns in the data collected manually and by the NB algorithm. There  
414 are several tools to analyze putative clusters such as K-means clustering or model-based  
415 clustering, but Hierarchical Clustering is a standard in this type of analysis with a relatively  
416 low computational requirement. AGNES is one of the most common Hierarchical Clustering  
417 algorithms but has disadvantages as it is sensitive to outliers. Despite this, the clustering is  
418 coherent with our data, showing that manual scoring and ML scoring are similar. In fact,  
419 clusters based on ML scoring are more consistent, suggesting an increased accuracy of the  
420 algorithm.

421

### 422 **Biological relevance**

423 Our results show that *F. graminearum* induced the highest levels of necrosis in leaves in  
424 comparison to *F. avenaceum* and *F. culmorum*. Interestingly, different combinations of  
425 *Fusarium* species trigger specific different responses in the host. We found a statistical  
426 difference between single *F. graminearum* infections compared with *F. culmorum* and *F.*  
427 *graminearum* combined, where the latter developing less necrotic areas than *F. graminearum*  
428 alone. Despite the small populations size, our results strongly support the hypothesis that  
429 *Fusarium* species do interact in a way that changes the host response. This idea is especially  
430 relevant as FHB is a disease with different, interacting, causal agents. Similarly, *Z. tritici* - *F.*  
431 *graminearum* coinfections also reveal that pathogen-pathogen interactions are measurable and  
432 genotype-specific manner, which we argue is an important observation suggesting that traits  
433 controlling MDR could be genetically mapped using mixed infection strategies.

434

435 **Supplementary Material**

436

437 *Supplementary figures*

438 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Infection chamber used for *Z. tritici* inoculations of wheat

439 seedlings.

440

441 *Supplementary tables*

442 **Supplementary Table 1.** Disease severity score index.

443 **Supplementary Table 2.** Cluster composition based on manual scoring of disease severity  
444 from Figure 5A.

445 **Supplementary Table 3.** Cluster composition based on naïve bayes scoring of ‘necrosis’  
446 from Figure 5B.

447 **Supplementary Table 4.** Cluster composition based on naïve bayes scoring of ‘chlorosis’  
448 from Figure 5C.

449 **Supplementary Table 5.** Cluster composition based on naïve bayes scoring of ‘necrosis +  
450 chlorosis’ from Figure 5D.

451 **Supplementary Table 6.** ANOVA performed with disease symptom quantification obtained  
452 with our machine learning based set up.

453

454 *Supplementary files*

455 **Supplementary File 1.** G-code for the 3D printed PLA frames used to keep the leaf segments  
456 in contact with the agar medium.

457 **Supplementary File 2.** Jupyter Notebook containing the scripts to analyze pictures with the  
458 naïve bayes algorithm.

459 **Supplementary File 3.** Numerical data underlying the statistical analysis of Figures 2, 5, 6  
460 and 7.

461 **Supplementary File 4.** Html file with the R scripts underlying all the analyses showed in the  
462 figures.

463 *Data availability*

464 **GitHub DOI.** [10.5281/zenodo.10697381](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10697381)

465

466

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478



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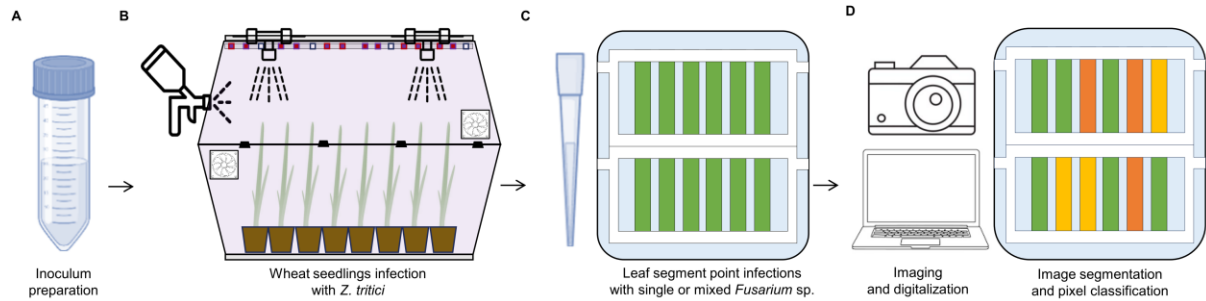
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638

639 **Figures**

640

641

642



644

**Figure 1.** Generic overview of the phenotyping pipeline.

645 **(A)** Step 1: 11-days-old *Z. tritici* (an hemibiotroph) culture is scratched from YMS plates, resuspended

646 in TWEEN 0.01% **(B)** Step 2: wheat seedlings are inoculated with *Z. tritici* and kept in a closed infection

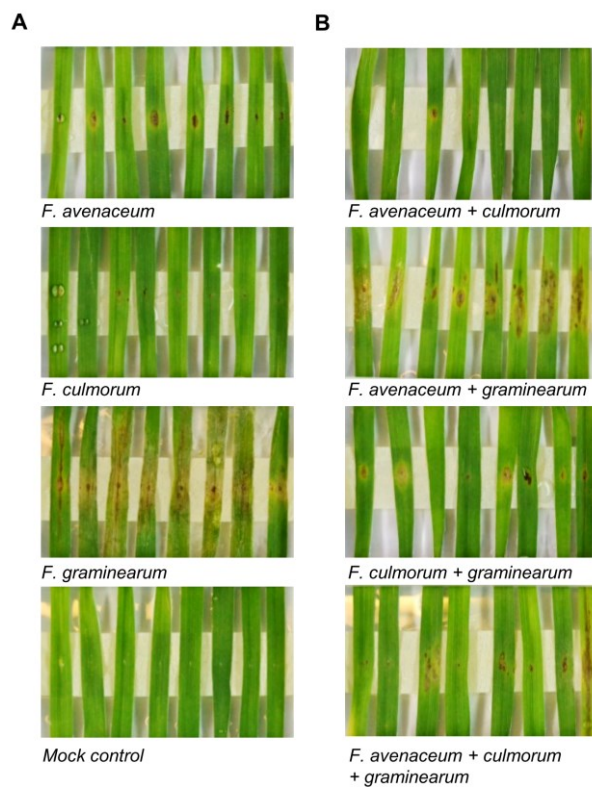
647 chamber kept until the appropriate stage. **(C)** Step 3: after 3 days, leaf fragments are harvested,

648 mounted on agar plates. and infected with a spore suspension of *Fusarium* spp. **(D)** Step 4: after 4-7

649 days of incubation, pictures of the disease symptoms were taken with a DSLR camera. The pictures

650 were analyzed with a combination of ImageJ, PlantCV python scripts, and R statistical software.5

651



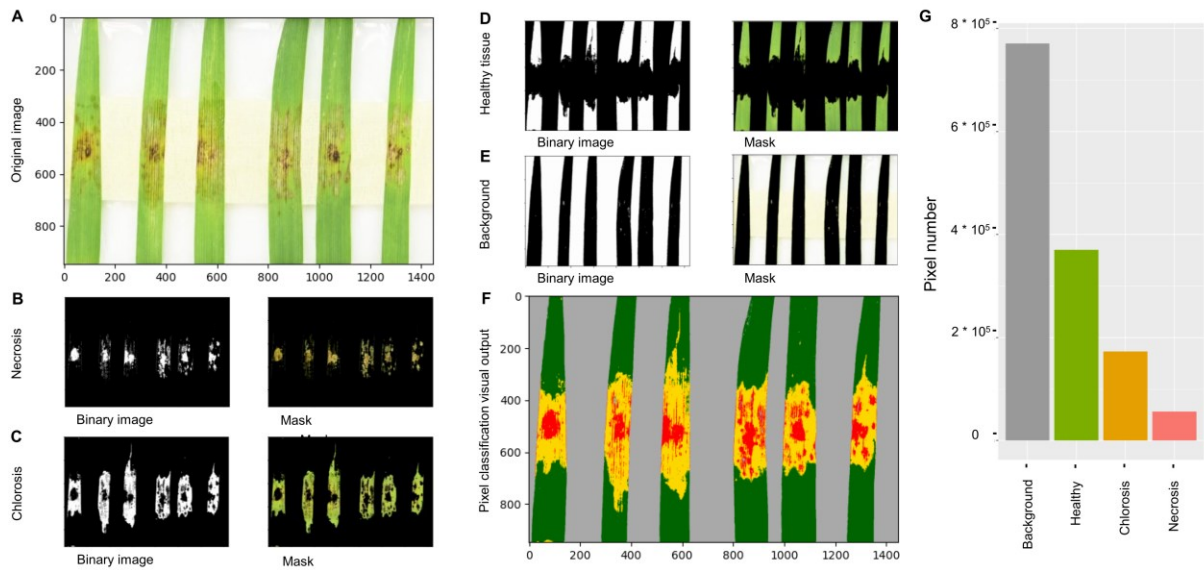
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654 **Figure 2.** Infection of wheat leaf segments with single and mixed *Fusarium* sp.

655 The cultivar Fielder was inoculated with *F. avenaceum*, *F. culmorum* and *F. graminearum* isolates from  
656 Sweden. Pictures were taken at 8 dpi. Two independent experiments with 8 biological replicates per  
657 treatment we performed.

658



659

660

661 **Figure 3.** Analysis of disease symptoms using image segmentation and pixel classification.

662 **(A)** Unprocessed images of symptoms caused by *F. graminearum* on wheat leaves **(B-E)** NB image

663 segmentation and pixel classification of tissue types into **(B)** necrosis, **(C)** chlorosis, **(D)** healthy tissue,

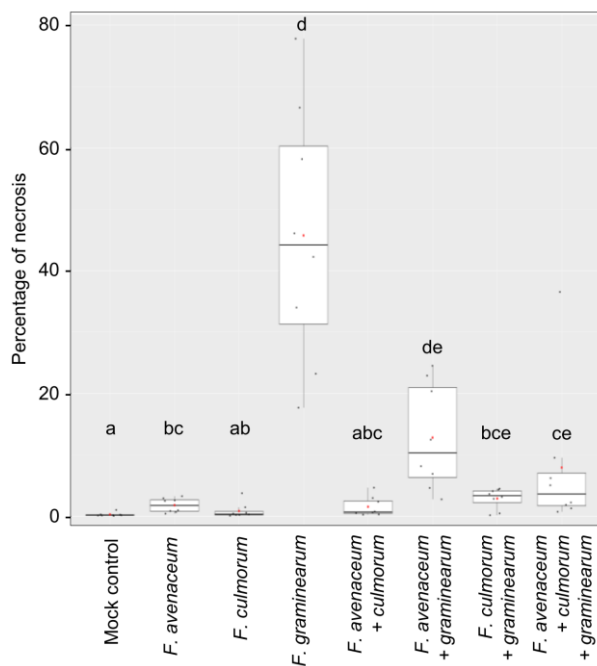
664 and finally **(D)** background. **(F)** Visualization and reconstruction of the original image using pre-defined

665 pseudo colors classes for necrosis (red), chlorosis (yellow), healthy tissue (green), and background

666 (gray). **(G)** Quantification of the pixel areas from the image in (F) and visualization as a bar plot.

667





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669

670 **Figure 4.** Quantification of disease severity using the Naïve Bayes algorithm.

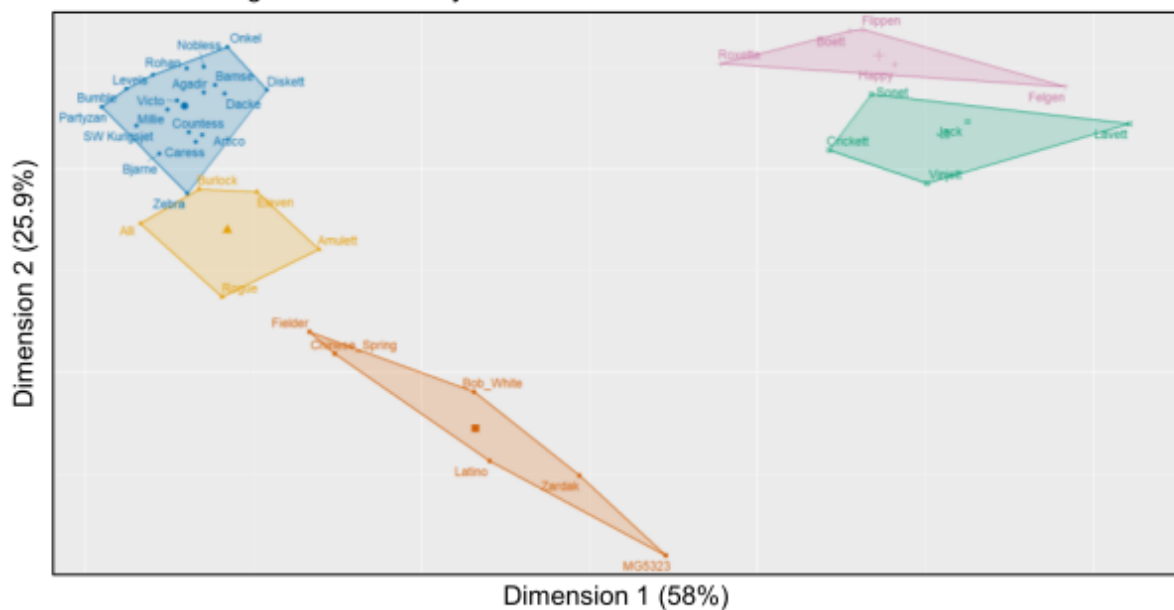
671 Pictures from Figure 2 were analyzed using the pipeline described in Figure 3. The percentage of pixel

672 area corresponding to 'necrosis' as described in Figure 3 was calculated. Statistically significant group

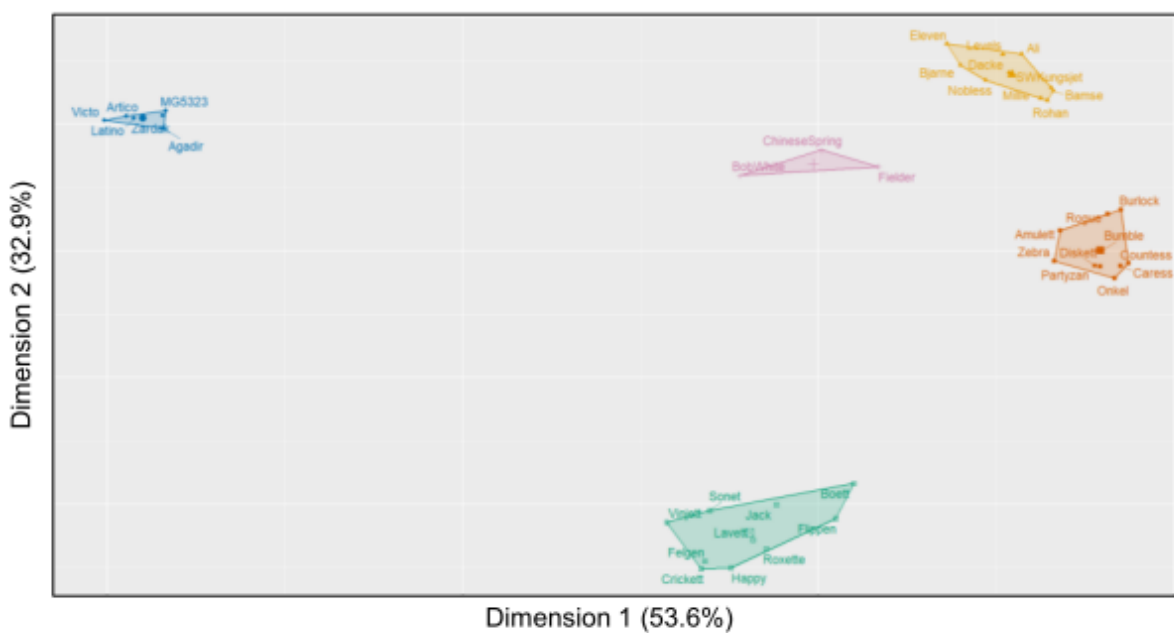
673 are indicated with a letter code a-e (two-way robust ANOVA:  $p < 0.05$ )

674

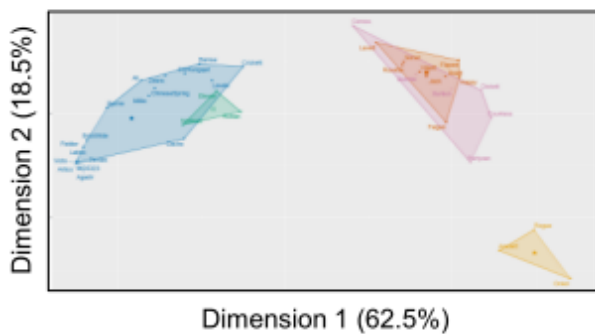
**A** Manual scoring 'disease severity scale'



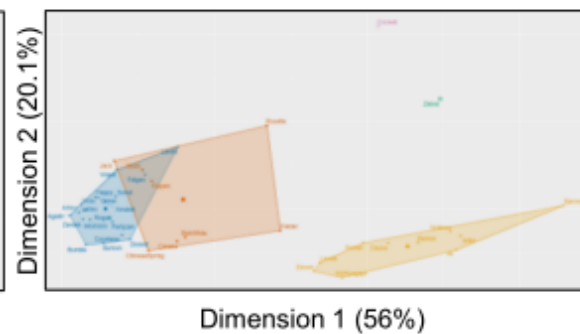
**B** Naïve bayes 'necrosis'



**C** Naïve bayes 'chlorosis'



**D** Naïve bayes 'necrosis + chlorosis'



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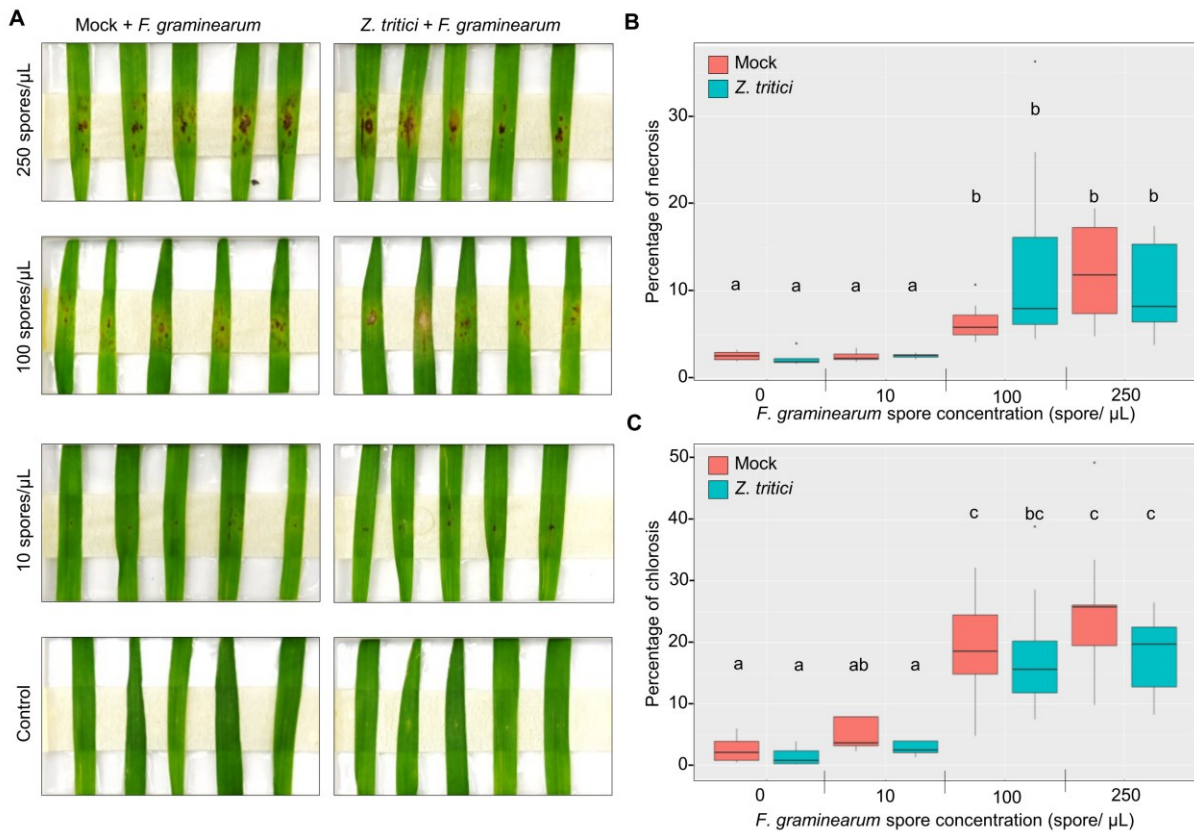
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678 **Figure 5.** Cluster analysis of genotype responses to infections with single and mixed *Fusarium species*  
679 **(A)** Cluster obtained from manual scoring of the symptoms. Cluster derived from NB analysis of the  
680 phenotypic classes **(B)** for 'necrosis', **(C)** for 'chlorosis', and **(D)** for 'necrosis' and 'chlorosis' combined.  
681 The Agglomerative nesting (AGNES) algorithm was applied to the distance matrix of the mean value of  
682 the PCA coordinates of each sample to develop the dendrogram. The defined number of clusters is 5  
683 ( $k = 5$ ). The exact content of each cluster is provided in Supplementary Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5.

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688 **Figure 6.** Dose-dependent *F. graminearum* symptom severity in coinfections assays with *Z. tritici*

689 **(A)** Original pictures from one experiment with 5 biological replicates applied to our image analysis

690 pipeline. **(B)** Scoring of the percentage necrosis using the NB algorithm. **(C)** Scoring of the percentage

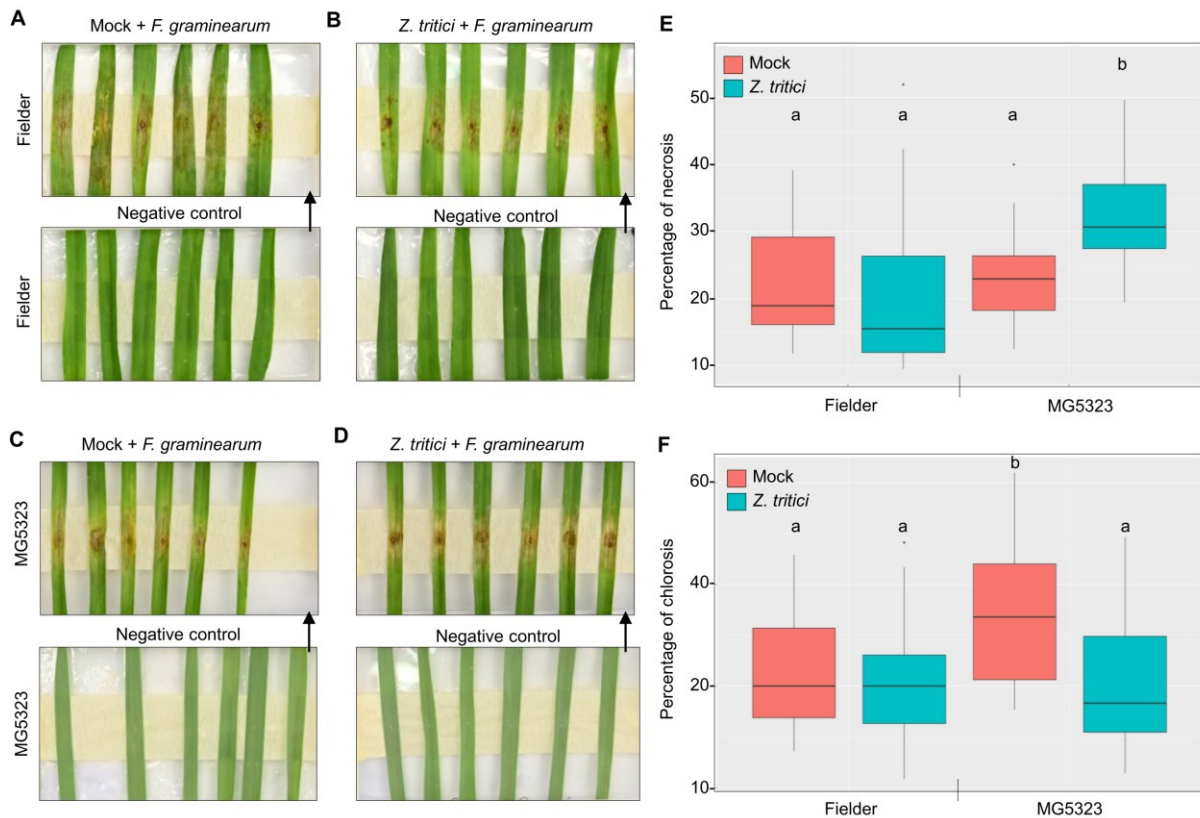
691 of chlorosis using the NB algorithm. In (B-C) control treatment where primary infection with *Z. tritici* was

692 replaced by Mock are indicated in 'red'. Treatments where plants were coinfecting with *Z. tritici* and *F.*

693 *graminearum* are indicated in 'blue'. The letters a-b refer to two groups of treatments with statistically

694 significant differences (two-way robust ANOVA:  $p < 0.05$ ).

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**Figure 7.** Comparison of *F. graminearum* / *Z. tritici* coinfections of 'Fielder' and 'MG5323'

(A-B) Original pictures from one experiment with 6 biological replicates with the cultivar 'Fielder' applied to our image analysis pipeline. (A) Experimental controls for (B) where *Z. tritici* is replaced by Mock (upper panel), and a double negative control where both pathogens are replaced with Mock (lower panel) – both pictures are from the same experiment (B) Coinfections with *Z. tritici* and *F. graminearum* (upper panel) and the corresponding double negative control (lower panel). (C-D) Original pictures from one experiment with 6 biological replicates with the accession 'MG5323' applied to our image analysis pipeline. (C) Experimental controls for (D) as described in (A). (D) Coinfections with *Z. tritici* and *F. graminearum* and the corresponding control as described in (B). (E) Soring of the percentage necrosis caused on 'Fielder' vs. 'MG5323' where *F. geaminearum* was inoculated alone (red bars) or in combination with *Z. tritici* (blue bars). (F) Soring of the percentage chlorosis caused on 'Fielder' vs. 'MG5323' where *F. geaminearum* was inoculated alone (red bars) or in combination with *Z. tritici* (blue bars). The letters a-b refer to two groups of treatments with statistically significant differences (two-way robust ANOVA:  $p < 0.05$ ).