

1 **Rapid identification of an *Arabidopsis* NLR gene conferring susceptibility to *Sclerotinia***
2 ***sclerotiorum* using time-resolved automated phenotyping**

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13 **Short title :** A NLR gene for susceptibility to *Sclerotinia*

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16 **Authors' Contributions**

17 A.B., O.N. and S.R. conceived the original screening and research plans; A.B., O.N., M.M and
18 S.R. supervised the experiments; R.V., M.B and A.L. performed most of the experiments; A.B.
19 and S.R. designed the experiments and analyzed the data; A.B and S.R. conceived the project
20 and wrote the article with contributions of all the authors; A.B and S.R. agree to serve as the
21 authors responsible for contact and ensure communication.

22

23

24 **ABSTRACT**

25 The broad host range necrotrophic fungus *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* is a devastating pathogen
26 of many oil and vegetable crops. Plant genes conferring complete resistance against *S.*
27 *sclerotiorum* have not been reported. Instead, plant populations challenged by *S.*
28 *sclerotiorum* exhibit a continuum of partial resistance designated as quantitative disease
29 resistance (QDR). Because of their complex interplay and their small phenotypic effect, the
30 functional characterization of QDR genes remains limited. How broad host range
31 necrotrophic fungi manipulate plant programmed cell death is for instance largely unknown.
32 Here, we designed a time-resolved automated disease phenotyping pipeline and assessed
33 the kinetics of disease symptoms caused by seven *S. sclerotiorum* isolates on six *A. thaliana*
34 natural accessions with unprecedented resolution. We hypothesized that large effect
35 polymorphisms common to the most resistant *A. thaliana* accessions, but absent from the
36 most susceptible ones, would point towards disease susceptibility genes. This identified
37 highly divergent alleles of the nucleotide-binding site leucine-rich repeat gene *LAZ5* in the
38 resistant accessions Rubenzhoe and Lip-0. Two *LAZ5*-deficient mutant lines in the Col-0
39 genetic background showed enhanced QDR to *S. sclerotiorum*, whereas plants mutated in
40 the closely related *CSA1* gene responded like the wild type. These findings illustrate the
41 value of time-resolved image-based phenotyping for unravelling the genetic bases of
42 complex traits such as QDR. Our results suggest that *S. sclerotiorum* manipulates plant
43 sphingolipid pathways guarded by *LAZ5* to trigger programmed cell death and cause disease.

44 **KEYWORDS**

45 Quantitative disease resistance, fungal pathogen, *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*, NBS-LRR, plant
46 phenotyping

47

48 INTRODUCTION

49

50 The fungal pathogen *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* is the causal agent of *Sclerotinia* stem rot (SSR),
51 also designated as white mold disease, on numerous crop and vegetable species, including
52 rapeseed, soybean, sunflower and tomato. *S. sclerotiorum* can be among the most damaging
53 pathogens of rapeseed and soybean when conditions are favorable (Peltier et al., 2012;
54 Derbyshire and Denton-Giles, 2016). *S. sclerotiorum* penetrates plant tissues through
55 wounds, natural openings, or actively forming compound appressoria (Bolton et al., 2006). It
56 employs a typical necrotrophic strategy to colonize host tissues, rapidly triggering plant cell
57 death (Kabbage et al., 2015; Mbengue et al., 2016). Adapted cultural practices, the use of
58 fungicides and biological control methods are frequently employed to limit damages due to
59 *S. sclerotiorum*, since genetic sources of resistance to SSR are lacking for most crop species
60 (Derbyshire and Denton-Giles, 2016). Instead of a clear demarcation between resistant and
61 susceptible genotypes, plants challenged with *S. sclerotiorum* generally show a continuum of
62 resistance levels designated as quantitative disease resistance (QDR) phenotype (Perchepped
63 et al., 2010; Roux et al., 2014). The molecular bases of QDR in plants remain largely elusive
64 (Poland et al., 2009; Roux et al., 2014). Whereas resistance (R) genes mediating complete
65 disease resistance all belong to the nucleotide-binding site leucine-rich repeat (NLR) family,
66 genes underlying QDR discovered to date span a broad range of molecular functions (Poland
67 et al., 2011; Roux et al., 2014; Corwin and Kliebenstein, 2017). Molecular function of genes
68 associated with QDR include for instance transporters (Krattinger et al., 2009), kinases (Fu et
69 al., 2009; Huard-Chauveau et al., 2013), peptidases (Poland et al., 2011; Badet et al., 2017b)
70 or actin-related proteins (Moscou et al., 2011). NLRs (Debieu et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2016)
71 and signaling components typically associated with R-mediated resistance (Iakovidis et al.,
72 2016) can also mediate QDR, illustrating the tight integration of QDR and R-mediated
73 immunity components.

74

75 Because of their complex interplay and their small phenotypic effect, the functional
76 characterization of QDR genes is challenging. With large collections of mutant lines available,
77 studies in the model plant *A. thaliana* enable the rapid functional characterization of
78 individual candidate QDR genes (Huard-Chauveau et al., 2013; Corwin et al., 2016;
79 Rajarammohan et al., 2018). Fully quantitative readouts are often required to reveal the
80 contribution of individual *A. thaliana* genes to QDR against *S. sclerotiorum*, such as ethylene
81 and ROS detection (Perchepped et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2013), lesion area measurements
82 and estimation of fungal biomass (Zhang et al., 2013; Badet et al., 2017b). To this end,
83 quantitative image analysis can be used as a proxy to evaluate disease severity (Baranowski
84 et al., 2015; Mutka et al., 2016; Badet et al., 2017b; Karisto et al., 2017) and the impact of
85 stress on plant fitness (Chen et al., 2014; Czedik-Eysenberg et al., 2018; Nelson et al., 2018).
86 Increasing the accuracy and robustness of such quantitative phenotyping often involves
87 increasing the number of measurements. This allowed for instance to reveal the role of
88 individual effectors from the bacterial pathogen *Xanthomonas axonopodis* pv. *manihotis* in

89 virulence (Mutka et al., 2016). High-throughput image-based plant phenotyping proved
90 valuable in crop breeding and for research purposes (Araus and Cairns, 2014; Fahlgren et al.,
91 2015; Coppens et al., 2017). There is therefore a need to improve our ability to generate
92 large datasets of quantitative plant disease measurements at low cost, low footprint and
93 reduced human intervention (Czedik-Eysenberg et al., 2018). Because it is generally non-
94 destructive, image-based disease measurement also gives access to the dynamics of disease
95 progression. This enabled for instance to study the spatial and temporal distribution of
96 pathogens in plants tissues (Mutka et al., 2016) and distinguish between infected and non-
97 infected plants long before qualitative symptoms are visible (Czedik-Eysenberg et al., 2018).
98 In spite of remarkable progress in the methods and technology in recent years, fundamental
99 advances in plant pathology enabled by automated plant phenotyping are still relatively
100 limited. For instance, the ability of image-based disease phenotyping methods to identify
101 novel QDR genes and advance our conceptual understanding of this complex trait remains
102 elusive.

103

104 Like most pathogens, fungi secrete molecules, often termed “effectors”, to manipulate host
105 physiology and cause disease (Schornack et al., 2009; Doehlemann et al., 2014; Lo Presti et
106 al., 2015). Some pathogen effectors are recognized by specific plant R genes, leading to a
107 rapid and efficient immune response designated as effector-triggered immunity (ETI) (Dodds
108 and Rathjen, 2010). In some plant-pathogen interactions, plant resistance is triggered only in
109 plant genotypes carrying an R-gene enabling the specific recognition of an avirulence
110 effector produced by the pathogen, according to a gene-for-gene model (Flor, 1956).
111 However, this model rarely applies to plant interactions with necrotrophic pathogens. ETI
112 often involves the rapid programmed death of host cells at the site of infection, a process
113 designated as the hypersensitive response (HR) (Mur et al., 2008). Although very efficient to
114 control the spread of biotrophic pathogens, the HR can instead favor the colonization of
115 plants by necrotrophic fungi (Govrin and Levine, 2000). A number of necrotrophic fungal
116 pathogen specialized to infect a few plant species evolved effectors designated as host-
117 specific toxins (HSTs) that trigger cell death specifically in some plant genotypes (Friesen et
118 al., 2008; Oliver and Solomon, 2010). Typical HST examples are the victorin peptides
119 produced by the necrotrophic Victoria Blight fungal pathogen *Cochliobolus victoriae*. Victorin
120 is critical for *C. victoriae* virulence, which is mediated through the specific recognition by the
121 plant LOV1 protein belonging to the NLR class (Lorang et al., 2007). Functional and structural
122 analyses of LOV1 suggest that it corresponds to a typical R gene that has been hijacked by *C.*
123 *victoriae* to trigger cell death and facilitate infection (Lorang et al., 2012; Wolpert and Lorang,
124 2016). The wheat *Tsn1* gene belongs to the NLR class and recognizes the ToxA peptide
125 produced by the necrotrophic fungus *Stagonospora nodorum*, conferring effector triggered
126 susceptibility (ETS) to this pathogen (Faris et al., 2010). Another effector produced by *S.*
127 *nodorum*, SnTox1, triggers programmed cell death when recognized by the wheat gene *Snn1*
128 encoding a wall-associated kinase (WAK) (Liu et al., 2012; Shi et al., 2016). WAKs contribute
129 to resistance against biotrophic and hemibiotrophic fungal pathogens (Hurni et al., 2015;

130 Zuo et al., 2015) providing another example of a biotrophic pathogen defense mechanism
131 hijacked by a specialized necrotrophic fungus. Our knowledge on whether and how broad
132 host range necrotrophic fungi manipulate plant programmed cell death remains
133 nevertheless limited.

134

135 The analysis of HR-deficient *Arabidopsis thaliana* mutants suggested that the broad host
136 range necrotrophic fungi *S. sclerotiorum* and *Botrytis cinerea* can benefit from HR cell death
137 (Govrin and Levine, 2000). Similarly, inactivation of the BIK1 kinase enhances *A. thaliana*
138 resistance to avirulent bacterial pathogens but increases susceptibility to *B. cinerea* and
139 *Alternaria brassicicola* (Veronese et al., 2006). Several molecules secreted by broad host
140 range necrotrophic fungi trigger cell death in plants. Examples include *B. cinerea* endo-
141 arabinase BcAra1 (Nafisi et al., 2014), xyloglucanase BcXYG1 (Zhu et al., 2017), the *S.*
142 *sclerotiorum* necrosis and ethylene inducing peptide SsNEP1 (Dallal Bashi et al., 2010) or
143 *Alternaria tenuissima* Hrip1 protein elicitor (Kulye et al., 2012). Cell death induction by these
144 elicitors is often due to direct toxic effects on plant cells independently of the manipulation
145 of plant programmed cell death (Lenarčič et al., 2017). Conversely, the *A. thaliana* aspartyl
146 protease APCB1 cleaves the BAG6 cochaperone, triggering autophagy and restricting *B.*
147 *cinerea* colonization (Li et al., 2016). This findings points towards a role for autophagy cell
148 death in resistance to necrotrophic fungi (Lai et al., 2011; Lenz et al., 2011) and highlight the
149 complex role of plant programmed cell death in the interaction with necrotrophic pathogens.
150 Evidence for broad host range necrotrophic fungi exploiting cell death induced by typical
151 plant R genes has not been reported to date.

152

153 In this work, we show that the *A. thaliana* NLR gene *LAZ5* (At5g44870), but not its close
154 relative *CSA1*, confers susceptibility to *S. sclerotiorum*. For this, we designed a real-time
155 automated disease phenotyping tool and precisely assessed the kinetics of disease caused
156 by seven *S. sclerotiorum* strains on six *A. thaliana* natural accessions. We found that the
157 speed of lesion growth was highly dependent on the host plant genotype and a good
158 indicator of QDR level. We hypothesized that large effect polymorphisms common to the
159 two most resistant *A. thaliana* accessions, but absent from the four other accessions, would
160 point towards disease susceptibility genes. We identified highly divergent alleles of *LAZ5* in
161 the resistant accessions Rubenzhoe and Lip-0, while identical alleles existed in the other *A.*
162 *thaliana* accessions analyzed. As expected, two *LAZ5*-deficient mutant lines in the Col-0
163 genetic background showed enhanced QDR to *S. sclerotiorum*, whereas plants mutated in
164 the closely related *CSA1* gene responded like the wild type. Considering that the ectopic
165 activation of *LAZ5* triggers cell death (Palma et al., 2010), our results suggest that the broad
166 host range necrotrophic fungus *S. sclerotiorum* exploits this R-gene induced plant cell death
167 to its benefit.

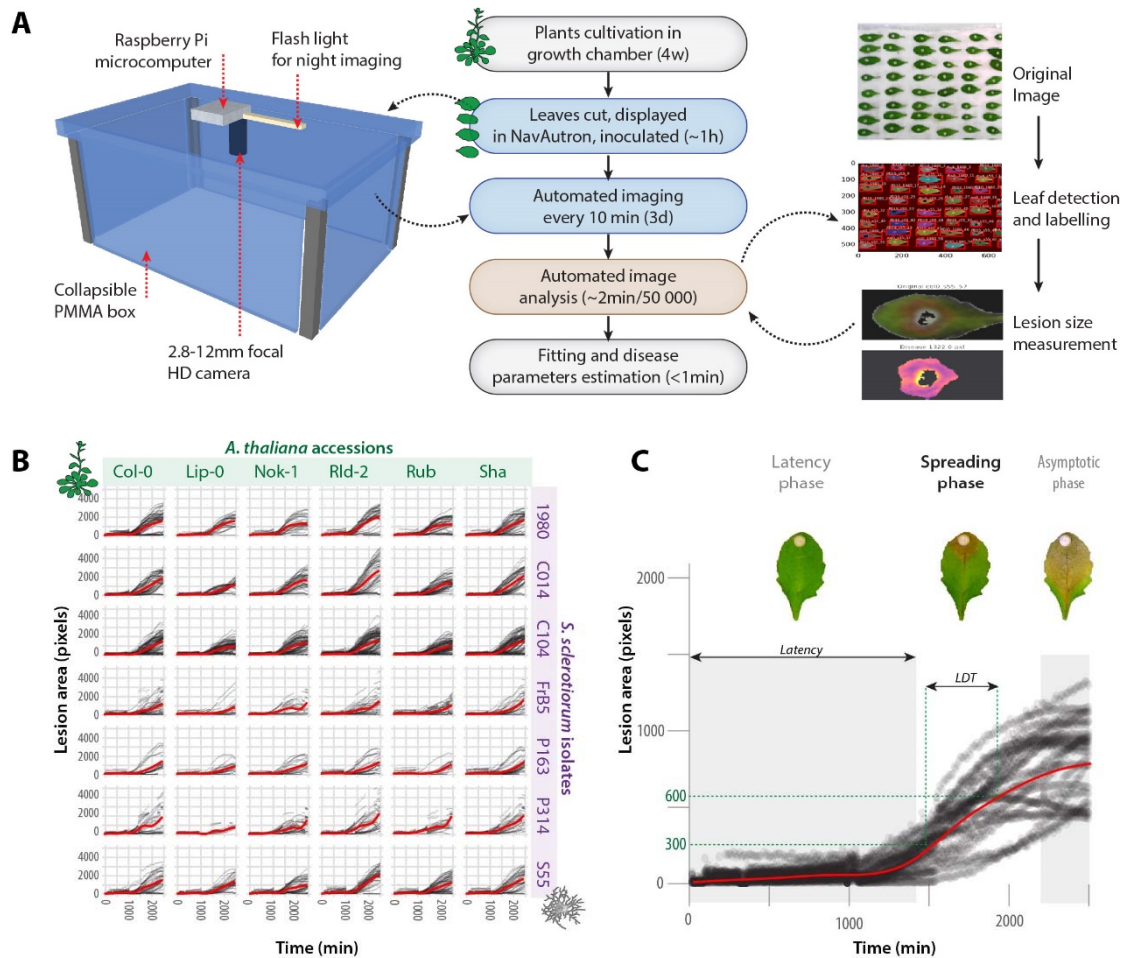
168

169 **RESULTS**

170 **Quantification of disease resistance to *S. sclerotiorum* by automated real-time image**
171 **analysis**

172 To generate massive, quantitative and kinetic measurements of disease caused by *S.*
173 *sclerotiorum*, we designed mobile imaging cabinets (Navigable automatized phytotron,
174 Navautron) and the associated automatized image analysis pipeline for detached leaves (**Fig.**
175 **1A**). A single Navautron allows imaging simultaneously up to 24 whole *A. thaliana* plants or
176 120 detached *A. thaliana* leaves. A typical phenotyping session of detached leaves
177 inoculated by *S. sclerotiorum* involves automated imaging every 10 minutes over three days,
178 the automated recognition of disease lesions on individual leaves, yielding a total of $>10^6$
179 lesion measurements with almost no human intervention.

180 We quantified the area of necrotic lesions caused by seven isolates of *S. sclerotiorum* (Badet
181 et al., 2017a) on detached leaves from six natural accessions of *A. thaliana* (**Fig. 1B**). We
182 distinguished three major phases along the kinetics of lesions development: (i) a latency
183 phase, during which no necrotic lesion was detected, (ii) a spreading phase, during which the
184 area of necrotic lesions grew exponentially, and (iii) an asymptotic phase, when lesions have
185 reached the border of leaves (**Fig. 1C**). The overall kinetics are therefore depicted by a
186 logistic function. The asymptotic phase was dependent only on leaf size and did not provide
187 information on disease progression. In the 42 interactions tested, the duration of the latency
188 phase and the speed of lesion size increase during the spreading phase were independent
189 ($R^2 = 0.07$). The duration of the latency phase was mainly dependent on *S. sclerotiorum*
190 genotype ($p=1.2 \cdot 10^{-21}$) with a significant but weaker effect of plant genotype ($p=2.95 \cdot 10^{-4}$).
191 This suggested that the latency phase was primarily determined by fungal strains virulence.
192 Although exponential, the spreading phase can be approximated classically by a linear
193 function through Taylor development at first order. The disease lesion doubling time (LDT, in
194 minutes) is deduced from the slope of the lesion size curve during the spreading phase. The
195 LDT is the characteristic value for the infection since it is sufficient to characterize
196 completely the spreading phase. Of practical importance, the LDT is not dependent on the
197 zoom factor of the cameras used to image symptoms. By contrast with latency, $\log(\text{LDT})$ was
198 mostly dependent on the *A. thaliana* genotype ($p=7.16 \cdot 10^{-37}$) and weakly function of *S.*
199 *sclerotiorum* isolates ($p=2.39 \cdot 10^{-3}$). We conclude that the $\log(\text{LDT})$ provides an appropriate
200 measure of quantitative disease resistance (QDR) to *S. sclerotiorum*.



201

Figure 1. Analysis of quantitative disease resistance (QDR) against *S. sclerotiorum* with the Navatron system. (A) Overview of the Navatron setup and the pipeline for QDR analysis. Left: Each Navatron consist in a transparent plastic box equipped with a Raspberry Pi microcomputer, a HD camera and a LED flash light. Center: pipeline describing the experiments reported in this manuscript, detached leaves were analyzed with the Navatron through automated imaging, automated image analysis, curve fitting and QDR parameters estimation. The major steps of the automated image analysis are shown on the right. D, days; HD, high definition; PMMA, Poly(methyl methacrylate); w, weeks. (B) Kinetics of disease lesion development for 42 different combinations of *A. thaliana* natural accessions (columns) and *S. sclerotiorum* isolates (lines). Red curves show smooth fitting curves for 1,500 to 12,250 measurements. (C) Typical kinetics of *S. sclerotiorum* disease lesion development on *A. thaliana*, illustrating the latency phase, spreading phase and asymptotic phase. Characteristic values are the duration of latency phase, dependent on the fungal genotype, and the lesion doubling time (LDT) dependent on the plant genotype.

202

Grouping of plant and fungal genotypes according to QDR phenotypes

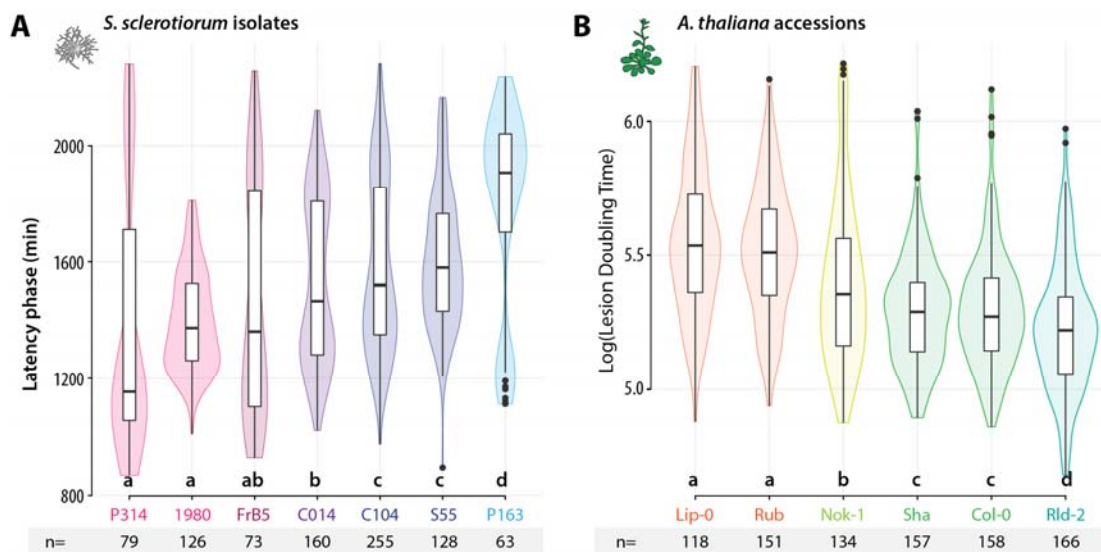
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Necrotic disease lesions were detected after a latency phase of 1 to 1.5 days in average, mostly determined by *S. sclerotiorum* genotypes. Post hoc pairwise t tests with Benjamini-Hochberg p-value correction (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995) revealed four groups of *S. sclerotiorum* isolates with distinct latency phases (Fig. 2A). Isolates 1980 and p314 had the shorter latency phase (average 22.6 and 23.2 hours), isolates FrB5 and C014 had an intermediate latency phase (average 24.4 and 25.5 hours), isolates C104 and S55 had a

208

209 longer latency phase (average 26.4 and 26.7 hours) and isolate P163 had the longest latency
210 phase (29.8 hours). The smallest significant difference in latency phase that could be
211 detected in this experiment was about 1h. The ranking of isolates according to their latency
212 phase was identical on all *A. thaliana* accession and therefore not dependent on the plant
213 genotype.

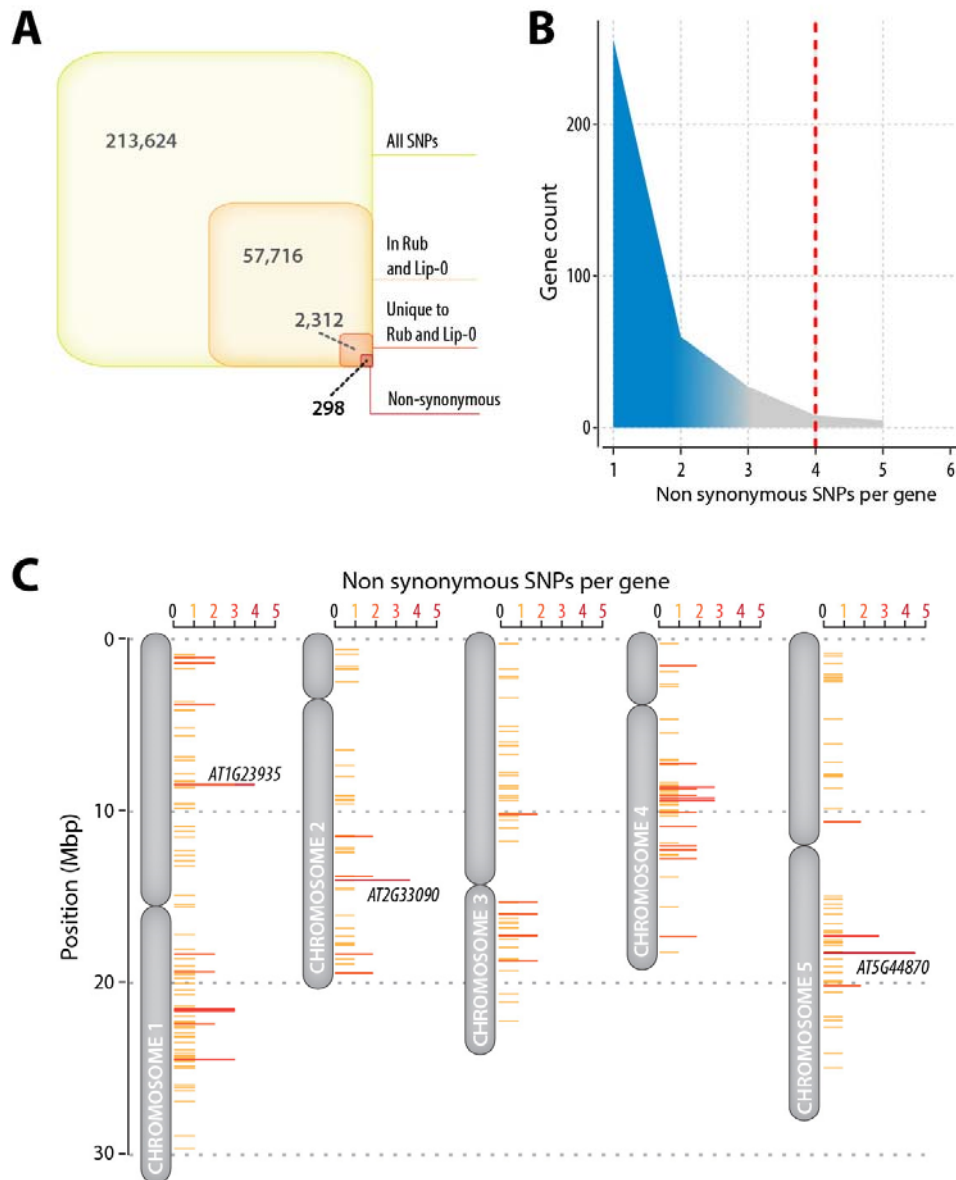
214 The average LDT ranged between 3.08 and 4.24 hours, corresponding to $\log(\text{LDT})$ of 5.22 to
215 5.54 (**Fig 2.B**), mostly determined by *A. thaliana* genotypes. Post hoc pairwise t tests with
216 Benjamini-Hochberg p-value correction (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995) revealed three
217 groups of resistance (**Fig. 2B**). With an average $\log(\text{LDT})$ 5.55 and 5.51, Lip-0 and Rubezhnoe
218 (Rub) accessions were substantially more resistant than Nok-1, Col-0 and Shahdara (Sha)
219 (average $\log(\text{LDT})$ 5.40, 5.30 and 5.30 respectively), whereas Rld-2 exhibited the highest
220 susceptibility to any *S. sclerotiorum* strain tested (average $\log(\text{LDT})$ 5.23). The smallest
221 significant difference in LDT that could possibly be detected in this experiment was 13.3 min
222 ($\log=0.069$). The ranking of *A. thaliana* accessions according to LDT was identical with all *S.*
223 *sclerotiorum* genotypes. Although the precise ranking of accessions based on LDT differs
224 from the ranking obtained previously with disease severity index on whole plants with *S.*
225 *sclerotiorum* strains S55 (Perchepped et al., 2010) and 1980 (Badet et al., 2017b), we
226 consistently found Lip-0 and Rub among the most resistant accessions and Rld-2 among the
227 most susceptible ones.



228
229
Figure 2. Characteristic values describing disease symptom dynamics in the interaction between seven *S. sclerotiorum* isolates and six *A. thaliana* accessions. (A) The duration of latency phase (Y-axis) was mostly dependent on *S. sclerotiorum* isolates (X-axis), ranked from the most (P314) to the least virulent (P163). Duration of the latency phase was measured n=63 to 255 times for each isolate. **(B)** The lesion doubling time (LDT, Y-axis) was mostly dependent on *A. thaliana* accessions (X-axis), ranked from the most (Lip-0) to the least resistant (Rld-2). LDT was measured n=118 to 158 times on each accession. Letters and colors indicate groups of significance determined by post hoc pairwise t tests.

230 **Identification of candidate susceptibility genes in *A. thaliana* by an association approach**

231 We hypothesized that enhanced QDR in Lip-0 and Rub accessions could result from
232 disruptive mutations in susceptibility genes. To rapidly pinpoint such candidate susceptibility
233 genes, we screened the genome of *A. thaliana* for genes harboring non synonymous
234 mutations both in Lip-0 and Rub accessions but not in any of the other four accessions
235 analyzed (Nok-1, Col-0, Sha and Rld-2) (**Fig. 3A**). For this, we screened 213,624 positions
236 genotyped in the six *A. thaliana* accessions selected (Atwell et al., 2010). We found a total
237 57,716 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) present both in Lip-0 and Rub, among which
238 2,312 were not found in Nok-1, Rld-2 or Sha (unique to Rub and Lip-0). Among those, 298
239 were non-synonymous SNPs unique to Lip-0 and Rub. The density of non-synonymous SNPs
240 specific to Lip-0 and Rub accessions per gene followed an exponentially decreasing
241 distribution (**Fig. 3B**). Three genes harbored at least four non-synonymous SNPs in Lip-0 and
242 Rub but not any non synonymous SNP in Nok-1, Sha or Rld-2 (**Fig. 3C, Table 1**). This includes
243 *AT1G23935*, encoding an uncharacterized protein with similarity to apoptosis inhibitory
244 proteins, *AT2G33090*, encoding an uncharacterized member of the transcription elongation
245 factor IIS family, and *AT5G44870* encoding *LAZ5*, a disease resistance protein of the TIR-NBS-
246 LRR (NLR) family with similarity to *RPS4* and *CSA1* (Palma et al., 2010). The five non-
247 synonymous SNPs present in the dataset from (Atwell et al., 2010) resided in the NB and the
248 LRR domain of *LAZ5* (**Fig. 4A**). Two additional non-synonymous SNPs are present in the Lip-0
249 allele of *LAZ5* according to data from <http://signal.salk.edu/atg1001/> while the Rub allele
250 harbors large deletions. In a suppressor screen, single point mutations in *LAZ5* resulted in a
251 dominant negative phenotype (Palma et al., 2010), suggesting that Lip-0 and Rub alleles of
252 *LAZ5* could have diverged functionally from their Col-0 counterpart. *LAZ5* is expressed and
253 induced 2.32 fold during the infection of *A. thaliana* by *S. sclerotiorum* (Badet et al., 2017b),
254 and was given the highest priority for functional validation.



255

256 **Figure 3. Distribution of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in selected *A. thaliana* accessions and**
 257 **identification of candidate disease-relevant genes. (A)** Distribution of SNPs genotyped by (Atwell et al., 2010)
 258 through our pipeline for finding candidate disease-relevant genes. There were 2,312 SNPs common to Lip-0 and
 259 Rub but not present in Nok-1, Rld-2 and Sha, among which 298 were non-synonymous SNPs. **(B)** Number of non-
 260 non-synonymous SNP per gene in the list of 298 genes identified in (A). We report on the three genes including at
 261 least 4 non-synonymous SNPs in Lip-0 and Rub but no SNP in Nok-1, Rld-2 and Sha (red dotted line). **(C)** Map of *A.*
 262 *thaliana* chromosomes showing genes with non-synonymous SNPs in Lip-0 and Rub but no SNP in Nok-1, Rld-2
 263 and Sha. Genes discussed in the text are labeled on the figure.

264

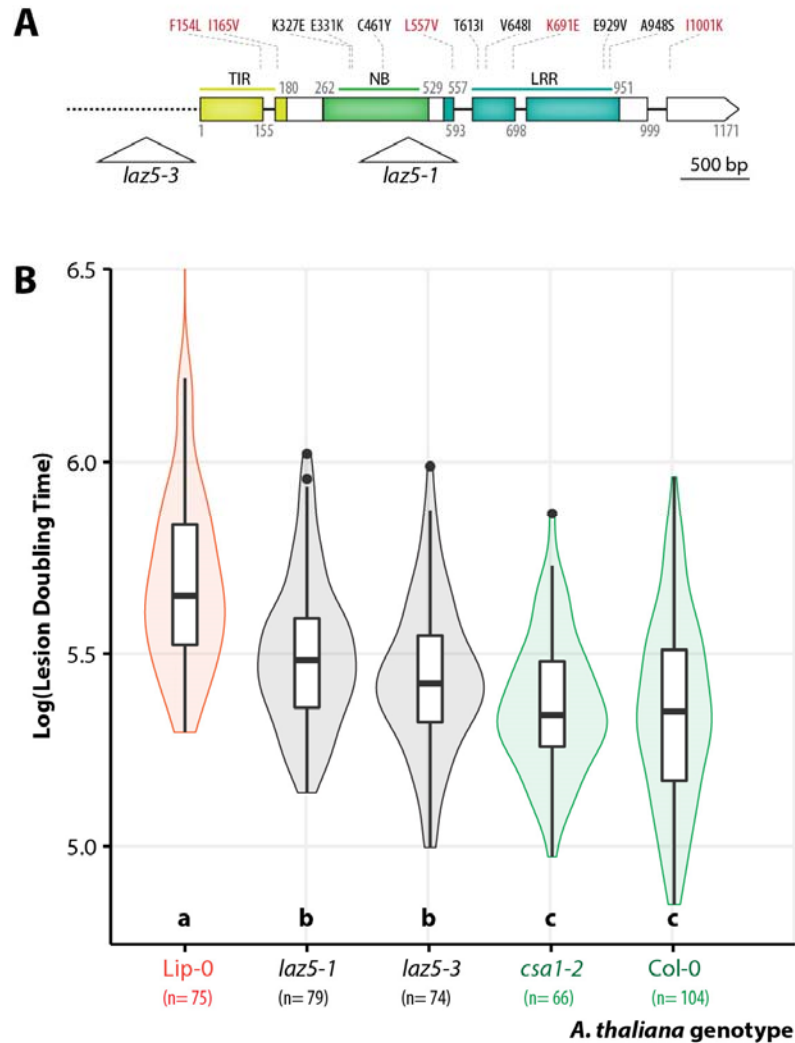
265 **Table 1. List of genes harboring at last four non synonymous SNPs in Lip-0 and Rub but none in Nok-1, Sha and**
 266 **Rld2.** Chr., chromosome; pos. position; LFC, Log₂ fold gene of gene expression upon inoculation by *S.*
 267 *sclerotiorum*, with the adjusted p-value for differential expression (NA, not applicable).

Gene id	Description	Chr.	SNP pos.	From	to	SNP type	Gene LFC
AT1G23935	Apoptosis inhibitory protein	1	8462159	C	G	not_syn	3.93
		1	8462342	C	G	not_syn	P=0
		1	8463263	T	C	not_syn	
		1	8465002	G	A	not_syn	
AT2G33090	Transcription elongation factor (TFIIS) family protein	2	14035515	C	G	not_syn	2.97
		2	14035545	G	T	not_syn	P=NA
		2	14035721	C	G	not_syn	
		2	14035944	C	G	not_syn	
AT5G44870	Disease resistance protein (TIR-NBS-LRR class) family (LAZ5)	5	18115125	T	C	not_syn	1.21
		5	18115243	A	G	not_syn	P=0
		5	18116419	C	G	not_syn	
		5	18116946	A	G	not_syn	
		5	18118097	T	A	not_syn	

268

269 **Disruption of *LAZ5* increases quantitative resistance to *S. sclerotiorum***

270 To test for a role of *LAZ5* as a susceptibility gene against *S. sclerotiorum*, we analyzed the
271 phenotype of two *LAZ5* insertion mutant lines in the Col-0 background during infection with
272 *S. sclerotiorum* 1980. The *laz5-1* null mutant (SALK_087262C) carries a t-DNA insertion in the
273 second exon of *LAZ5* and shows dominant suppression of autoimmune cell death in an
274 *acd11-2* background (Palma et al., 2010). The *laz5-3* mutant (SALK_068316) carries a t-DNA
275 insertion ~300bp upstream of *LAZ5* start codon (**Fig. 4A**). Using our Navatron system, we
276 also determined the resistance to *S. sclerotiorum* in *csa1-2* mutant plants defective in
277 *AT5G17880*, a TIR-NBS-LRR gene closely related to *LAZ5* (Faigón-Soverna et al., 2006). As
278 opposed to *laz5-1*, the *csa1-2* mutant showed enhanced susceptibility to avirulent strains of
279 the bacterial pathogen *Pseudomonas syringae* (Faigón-Soverna et al., 2006; Palma et al.,
280 2010). Consistent with our previous measurements (**Fig 2**), the average Log(LDT) was 5.35 on
281 Col-0, similar to the Log(LDT) on the *csa1-2* mutant (Student's t-test p-value= 0.68) (**Fig 4B**).
282 The *laz5-1* and *laz5-3* mutants had an average Log(LDT) of 5.5 and 5.44, significantly higher
283 than Col-0 (p-value= $1.3e^{-05}$ and 0.01 respectively). This represented a 16% gain of
284 quantitative disease resistance in the *laz5* mutants compared to wild type. The automated
285 analysis of 74 to 104 plants per genotype thanks to the Navatron setup allowed assessing
286 this quantitative variation robustly. In agreement with our previous measurements (**Fig 2**),
287 the Lip-0 accession showed an average Log₁₀(LDT) of 5.7, significantly higher than the *laz5*
288 mutants (p-value = $3.0e^{-07}$ and $1.6e^{-10}$). We conclude that disruption of the *LAZ5* gene
289 contributes to the enhanced quantitative disease resistance against *S. sclerotiorum*
290 measured in Lip-0 and Rub accessions compared to Col-0. This identifies *LAZ5* as a TIR-NBS-
291 LRR gene conferring susceptibility to *S. sclerotiorum* through its Col-0 allele.



292

293 **Figure 4. Disruption of the NLR gene LAZ5 reduces lesion doubling time upon *S. sclerotiorum* challenge. (A)**
 294 Schematic map of the *LAZ5* gene showing the position of T-DNA insertion in the *laz5-1* and *laz5-3* mutant lines
 295 (triangles). Exons are shown as boxes, introns as plain lines, upstream non coding region as a dotted line.
 296 Domains encoded by exons are color-coded and labeled TIR, NB and LRR. Positions are given as amino acid
 297 numbers. Non-synonymous mutations known in Lip-0 allele are indicated above boxes, in red when present in
 298 (Atwell et al., 2010), in black otherwise. **(B)** Lesion doubling time (LDT, Y-axis) in the most resistant accession Lip-
 299 0, two *laz5* mutant lines, the *csa1-2* mutant, and Col-0 wild type. LDT was measured n=74 to 104 times on each
 300 accession. Letters and colors indicate groups of significance determined by post hoc pairwise t tests.

301

302 Discussion

303 Quantitative disease resistance is a complex trait governed by multiple genes of small to
 304 moderate effect (Poland et al., 2009; Roux et al., 2014; Corwin and Kliebenstein, 2017).
 305 Revealing the phenotypic contribution of such small-effect genes challenges our ability to
 306 quantify precisely and robustly the level of QDR in diverse plant genotypes. In *Botrytis*
 307 *cinerea* interaction with *A. thaliana*, most plant genes were associated with QDR against a

308 specific *B. cinerea* isolate (Corwin et al., 2016), emphasizing pathogen genetic diversity as a
309 determinant of QDR phenotype. Previous studies used disease index (Perchepped et al., 2010;
310 Rajarammohan et al., 2018), ethylene production (Zhang et al., 2013), camalexin production
311 (Corwin et al., 2016) and lesion area (Corwin et al., 2016; Badet et al., 2017b) to quantify
312 QDR against necrotrophic fungi in natural accessions and mutants of *A. thaliana*. Here we
313 chose lesion area measurement to assess QDR for being (i) a continuous parameter (by
314 contrast to discrete disease indices), (ii) non-destructive and therefore giving access to
315 disease kinetics, and (iii) amenable to automated image-based measurement, opening the
316 way to user-independent high-throughput quantification. For the experiments reported in
317 this manuscript, we conducted *S. sclerotiorum* inoculations and QDR measurement on *A.*
318 *thaliana* detached leaves to reach 120 samples analyzed with a single Navatron cabinet.
319 This approach does not provide a complete characterization of plant QDR as discrepancies
320 may exist between detached-leaves and whole plant disease resistance (Liu et al., 2007),
321 lesion area may differ from area colonized by the fungus (Kabbage et al., 2015). This could
322 explain differences in the ranking of *A. thaliana* accessions according to resistance between
323 this study and (Perchepped et al., 2010). Our Navatron pipeline gives access to the kinetics
324 of symptoms development during plant-fungal pathogen interactions, which offers several
325 advantages over single end-point measurements. First, it allows uncoupling lesion doubling
326 time (LDT) and latency duration. Since latency appeared mostly independent from plant
327 genotype in our analysis, LDT provides a more direct measurement of plant QDR potential
328 than end-point measurements. This approach would allow untangling plant and pathogen
329 genetic factors contributing to quantitative immunity (Corwin et al., 2016). Second, the
330 resolution and data richness offered by real time image-based phenotyping allows detecting
331 small phenotypic effects that are not accessible to classical approaches, revealing for
332 instance the virulence function of single pathogen effectors (Mutka et al., 2016). Here we
333 could detect robustly variations as small as 1h (about 3.9%) in latency period and 12 minutes
334 (about 5.24%) in LDT. Finally, LDT is independent of leaf shape and size and allows
335 comparison of QDR in plants with contrasted leaf architectures. In this initial study, *A.*
336 *thaliana* accessions ranked identically for their LDT against seven *S. sclerotiorum* isolates,
337 arguing against specific plant-pathogen genotype interactions below the species level.
338 Previous studies reported genetic determinants of plant QDR specific of pathogen genotypes
339 (i.e evidence for “pathotypes”) in the interaction of *B. cinerea* with *A. thaliana* interaction
340 (Corwin et al., 2016) and *S. sclerotiorum* with *Brassica napus* and *B. juncea* (Ge et al., 2012;
341 Barbetti et al., 2014). These pathotypes may result from the combined effect of fungal
342 genetic determinants of latency duration and plant determinants of LDT. Future experiments
343 will expand the diversity of *S. sclerotiorum* isolates and *A. thaliana* accessions screened by
344 real time phenotyping to search for specific plant x pathogen interactions affecting LDT.

345 Time-resolved image-based phenotyping with the Navatron system allowed identifying
346 *LAZ5* as a susceptibility gene to *S. sclerotiorum*. *LAZ5* belongs to the TIR-NBS-LRR family and
347 is required for *ACD11*-mediated cell death (Palma et al., 2010). Overexpression of *LAZ5*
348 results in hypersensitive cell death, while *LAZ5* mutant alleles suppress the autoimmune

349 phenotype of *acd11* mutants (Palma et al., 2010). To our knowledge, this analysis provides
350 with *LAZ5* the first example of a TIR-NBS-LRR gene controlling susceptibility to a broad host
351 range necrotrophic fungus. Whether effector molecules secreted by *S. sclerotiorum* interfere
352 directly or indirectly with *LAZ5* function remains to be determined. Testing for enhanced
353 resistance of *laz5* mutants to diverse *S. sclerotiorum* isolates and necrotrophic fungal species
354 should be a promising future direction to address this question.

355 Broad host range fungal pathogen invest a substantial fraction of their cellular energy in
356 secreted proteins to counter plant defenses and extract nutrients from plant cells (Badet et
357 al., 2017a). Manipulation of the *LAZ5* pathway may be part of *S. sclerotiorum* strategy to
358 actively trigger plant cell death. Autoimmune mutants such as *acd11* were proposed to be
359 altered in functions guarded by NB-LRR genes such as *LAZ5* (Palma et al., 2010; Tong et al.,
360 2017). *ACD11* encodes a ceramide-1-phosphate transfer protein, which led to the hypothesis
361 that *LAZ5* could guard sphingolipid metabolic pathways targeted by pathogen effectors
362 (Simanshu et al., 2014). Necrosis and ethylene-inducing peptide 1-like (NLP) are toxins
363 secreted by diverse plant pathogens that target plant sphingolipids (Lenarčič et al., 2017). *S.*
364 *sclerotiorum* produces NLPs (Dallal Bashi et al., 2010) the activity of which could be guarded
365 by *LAZ5*. *A. thaliana* mutants in the dihydrosphingosine-1-phosphate lyase AtDLP1 are more
366 resistant to *B. cinerea* (Magnin-Robert et al., 2015) supporting the view that sphingolipids
367 are important mediators of QDR against necrotrophic fungi. Alternatively, *LAZ5* activity could
368 be costly for plants so that the inactivation of this gene would be beneficial even in the
369 absence of pathogen. However, we did not detect growth defects in *laz5* mutants, arguing
370 against this hypothesis. The similar LDT measured in *csa1-2* and wild type plants upon *S.*
371 *sclerotiorum* inoculation also pleads for a relatively specific role of *LAZ5* in QDR against this
372 fungus. *CSA1* and *RPS4* are two TIR-NBS-LRR genes closely related to *LAZ5* that confer
373 resistance to avirulent strains of the bacterial pathogen *Pseudomonas syringae* (Gassmann
374 et al., 1999; Faigón-Soverna et al., 2006), whereas *LAZ5* does not (Palma et al., 2010),
375 supporting *LAZ5* specific function.

376 Inactivation of *LAZ5* contributed ~30% of the reduced LDT in Lip-0 accession, indicating that
377 Lip-0 harbors other genetic variants positively affecting QDR. Lip-0 also shows high QDR
378 against *B. cinerea*, *Plectosphaerella cucumerina* and *Fusarium oxysporum* (Llorente et al.,
379 2005), making it a useful natural resource for studying the determinants of QDR. The
380 Navatron system is flexible allowing for variations and improvements. Future experiments
381 will include imaging whole plants to detect putative spatial bottlenecks to disease
382 progression, age-related factors associated with QDR and tradeoffs between QDR and plant
383 growth.

384

385 MATERIAL AND METHODS

386 **Plant material and cultivation.** Six natural accessions of *A. thaliana* were chosen to cover

387 the range of resistance to *S. sclerotiorum* (Perchepped et al., 2010): Lip-0 (CS76542; ecotype
388 ID: 8325), Rubenzhnoe-1 (CS76594; 7323), Nok-1 (CS78282; 7270), Shahdara (CS78397;
389 6962), Col-0 (CS76778; 6909), Rld2 (CS78349; 7457). Plants were grown at 22°C, 9 hours light
390 period at 120 µmol/m²/s during 4 weeks before inoculation. Arabidopsis insertion mutant
391 lines in the Col-0 background were obtained from the Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre
392 (NASC). Mutant lines in *LAZ5* (*AT5G44870*) were SALK_087262C (*laz5-1*) and SALK_068316
393 (*laz5-3*), the *csa1-2* mutant line was SALK_057697C. Homozygous T-DNA insertion was
394 verified by PCR for each line following recommendations from the NASC website.

395

396 **Fungal cultivation and inoculation.** The seven isolates of *S. sclerotiorum* used in this work
397 are described in (Badet et al., 2017a). Four isolates (C014, C104, P314, P163) were obtained
398 from a rapeseed field population collected in Blois (France) in 2010, isolate FrB5 was
399 obtained from (Vleugels et al., 2013), isolate S55 was obtained from (Perchepped et al.,
400 2010) and isolate 1980 is *S. sclerotiorum* reference strain (Derbyshire et al., 2017). *S.*
401 *sclerotiorum* isolates were grown on Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) plates for 5 days at 23°C in
402 the dark prior inoculation. 240 combinations of *A. thaliana* accessions and *S. sclerotiorum*
403 isolates were distributed in two Navautrons in a fully randomized design. Leafs were cut
404 with a scalpel blade at the time of inoculation, placed adaxial face up on wet paper towel
405 overlaid at the bottom of Navautrons. Inoculations were performed as described in (Badet et
406 al., 2017b), using PDA plugs of 5mm diameter colonized by the fungus placed upside down
407 on the adaxial surface of leaves (mycelium in contact with the leaf). The experiment was
408 repeated three times independently and results from the three replicates were combined
409 for analysis. Statistical analyses were performed using R software and the ‘car’ library for
410 type II ANOVA and pairwise t test with Benjamini and Hochberg p-value correction
411 (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995; R Core Team, 2014). Distributions of LDT were normalized
412 by log transformation. Plots were made using the ‘ggplot2’ library (Wickham, 2010).

413

414 **Design of the Navautron phenotyping cabinets.** Five mm-wide PMMA plates were cut on a
415 Trotec Speedy 500 Laser cutting machine according to plans provided as **Supplementary file**
416 **1**. Holes were drilled at the center of the upper panel to place full HD 1080p USB cameras
417 with 2.8-12mm focal length (model ELP-USBFHD05MT-FV-F1 manufactured by ELP, China).
418 The cameras were plugged to Raspberry Pi 3 Model B motherboards equipped with
419 Waveshare 3.2 inch TFT touchscreens. Autofocus and automatic white balance were
420 disabled. For each experiment, pictures were taken every 10 minutes during 4 days and
421 stored on SD cards. During nighttime, a LED flash light is turned on during 5 seconds for
422 image acquisition. Navautrons were placed in Percival AR-41L2 growth chambers at 22°C
423 with ~90% humidity under 9h light period.

424 **Image analysis pipeline.** The area of necrotic disease lesions was computed by numeric
425 method for each individual leaf at each time point. We designed is a thresholding method
426 based on color analysis using the scikit-image python image analysis toolbox (van der Walt
427 et al., 2014). The method splits images of an infected leaf into three layers corresponding to
428 the background, the lesion and the leaf. The ‘background’ corresponded to pixels with a
429 saturation value superior or equal to 0.3 in HSV color space. The lesion corresponded to
430 pixels with red component higher than green value in RGB color space. The area of disease
431 lesions was computed as the sum of pixels in the ‘lesion’ layer. The remaining pixels were
432 attributed to the ‘leaf’ layer. Image analysis allowed the collection of lesion area values over
433 time. Every kinetics was fitted by a polynomial regression. The latency time and lesion
434 doubling time were extracted from the fit. The latency time was defined as the time needed
435 to reach a lesion area of 300 pixels. The lesion doubling time was computed as the
436 difference between the time when lesion area reached 600 pixels and the time when lesion
437 area reached 300 pixels. Kinetics that exhibited excessive signal to noise ratio were
438 automatically excluded from the analysis as follows: we excluded leaves of size <300 pixels
439 and leaves with a maximum lesion size < the variance of lesion size during the latency period.
440 About 3 leaves were excluded per Navatron representing <2.5% of all leaves.

441 **Analysis of polymorphisms and identification of candidate genes.** We used a dataset of
442 214,000 SNPs on 1,196 *A. thaliana* accessions (Atwell et al., 2010; Horton et al., 2012) to
443 search for non-synonymous mutations present in Lip-0 and Rubeshnoe accessions but not in
444 Col-0, Nok-1, Shahdara and Rld-2. The functional consequences of SNPs were predicted
445 automatically using a script derived from the BioPython library (Cock et al., 2009) provided
446 as **Supplementary file 2**. For this, gene models from TAIR version 9 were used. Predictions
447 were verified manually for the top candidates using ExPASy translate tool and
448 <http://signal.salk.edu/atg1001/> genome browser.

449

450 **Accession Numbers**

451 Arabidopsis Genome Initiative locus identifiers for the genes in this article are as follows:
452 At5g44870 (*LAZ5*); AT5G17880 (*CSA1*).

453

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459

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