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# **Nematology Department**

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# NEMATOLOGY DEPARTMENT F. G. W. JONES

The department studies the control, life histories, behaviour, relationships and host ranges of eelworms (nematodes) that harm crops. All these are nicroscopic, and most live in the soil, where they feed on or in Plant roots. They are all worm-like when young and most remain so throughout their life, but the females of a few species are swollen, rounded and immobite. The swollen females of cyst-nematodes develop leathery walls which protect the many eggs they contain, enabling them to survive long periods in soils and facilitating their spread by movenent of infested soil or crops. These cyst-nematodes are all specialised parasites, each infesting only a few species of crop plants, but most of the crops commonly grown in the United Kingdom can be harmed by at least one species. Species that are mobile throughout life are usually less specialised and can feed on the roots of many kinds of plants, crops and weeds. They can not only greatly stunt the growth of seedlings by their feeding but some also transmit viruses to the plants on which they feed.

#### Feeding mecbanisns

When Ditylenchus destructor feeds on the epidermis of vetch stem and carrot crown, both its subventral and dorsal pharyngeal glands produce granular secretions, whereas when feeding on hyphae of the fungus Botrytis only the dorsal gland does. These secretions produce refractive zones around the point where they are injected into plant cells. Measurements from ciné-film show that the zone forms a few minutes after the feed begins and remains the same size (about 250  $\mu$ <sup>3</sup>) until a few seconds after it ends, about three-quarters of a hour later. The nematode takes in food by irregular pulsations of the median-bulb pump, which do not diminish the size of the zone of secretions in the plant cell until the last few pulsations, which are vigorous and collapse the zone. The zone differs physically from the plant contents and is bounded by a definite irterface or membrane through which plant sap must flow to be ingested by the nematode.

Feeding mechanisms of tylenchid nematodes were filmed. The medianbulb pump of Aphelenchoides blastophthorus and Ditylenchus dipsaci has an outlet valve only, which is closed by increased turgor in the wall of the median bulb when the muscles contract to dilate the pump. It opens again and is filled from the pump when the muscles relax. Unidirectional flow of fluid backward along the pharynx of *D. dipsaci* can be explained by Poiseulle's formula for the flow of viscous fluid through a capillary tube:  $Q = PR<sup>4</sup>/8VL$ , where Q is the volume of liquid flowing per second under pressure  $P$ , when  $R$  and  $L$  are the radius and length of the capillary respectively, and  $V$  the viscosity of the fluid. With the pump midway along the pharynx, and the radius of the pharyngeal lumen 0.08  $\mu$  in front and 0.23  $\mu$ behind, as in  $D$ . dipsaci, the resistance of the anterior tube to liquid flow 176

will be  $0.234/0.084$  or about 68 times that of the posterior tube. With the posterior (i.e. the outlet) valve closed, the pump will fill via the anterior tube under action of the strong radial muscles. When the pump is full and the radial muscles relaxed, the pressure in the pharyngeal wall will expel the fluid both through the anterior tube and, *via* the valve, through the posterior tube, but the relative resistance will ensure that 68 times as much flows into the posterior tube and thence into the intestine. The anterior tube is always open and acts as a leaky valve but oyer the whole cycle the net flow is rearwards.

Some members of the Tylenchida have a pump with an opening and closing inlet valve. This is well developed in *Hemicycliophora* but poorly in Hexatylus. In Hexatylus, portions of the triradiate pharyngeal lumen open and close successively and rapidly from the front backwards, causing food to flow backwards into the intestine. The pharynx is not divided into distinct regions and most of its length retains the pumping function, whereas in more specialised Tylenchida the pumping region is very short and confined to the median bulb. (Doncaster)

Examination under the light microscope suggested that the oesophagointestinal 'valve' of some dorylaimids is tipped with a sheath, apparently without an opening. Sections of the oesophagus of a species of Thornenema viewed under the electron microscope show that it has a triradiate lumen lined with cuticle. Near the oesophago-intestinal 'valve' the lining becomes thinner and the lumen narrower until it disappears in the cells of the sheath. At this point the sheath is a compact group of cells with their walls closely interdigitated, with distinct cell membranes resembling tight junctions. Where the tip of the sheath protrudes into the lumen of the intestine, there are two central cells and an outer ring of four to six cells. A passage through the sheath was not found. The sheath has an outer coat of intestinal cells bordered with microvilli. The intestine contains membraneous material, probably protein, which may have been liquid in the living animal, and many particles, some apparently bacteria and others virus-like.

The lack of a passage connecting oesophagus and intestine is puzzling, and how this genus and related ones feed is unknown. It seems improbable that particles could be forced through the 'valve' or carried in cell vacuoles.

Thornenema sp. has three small longitudinal muscles that run down the outside of the oesophagus at the mid-point of each of the three sectors seen in cross section. They may be the structures in dorylaimids previously thought to be nerves. The walls of ducts of the paired subventral glands that lie in the wall of the oesophagus are lined with closely packed, fingerlike, membrane-bound projections resembling small microvilli. Their function is unknown but they may be discarded membranes from secretory granules discharged into the ducts. The cuticles of *Thornenema* and Xiphinema index are similar, except that the layers next to the hypodermis differ slightly. (Shepherd and Yeates)

Cuticle in cyst-nematodes. Because the names given to the layers in nematode cuticle are confusing, a system of letters and numbers is used, starting from the outer edge inwards, and no attempt made to homolo-

 $12$ 

gise the layers in cyst-nematodes (*Heterodera* spp.) with those of other genera.

The ultrastructure of the cuticle of the young fifth-stage females of five lemon-shaped species of cyst-nematodes was basically similar. All had two well defined main layers, A (outermost) and B (innermost), each further subdivided. The main differences were in layer A and from these the species could be identified. The thickness of the cuticle differed in diferent parts ofthe body in individuals of the same species, and between different species, but the patterns, especially in layer A, remained characteristic.

Among round-cyst nematodes, the cuticle of  $H$ , tabacum closely resembled that of the lemon-shaped species. The B layer has four zones, Bl to B4, about 3.0, 6.0, 0.5 and 0.75  $\mu$  thick respectively. Zone Bl of most species of Heterodera has fibrils tending to run parallel, whereas the fibrils in zones B2 to B4 run irregularly. Layer A is about  $2.5 \mu$  thick, irregularly indented on the outside, with an inner zone containing electrondense areas interspersed with a network of lighter coloured veins or channels, and an osmiophilic outer zone. Layer A of H. rostochiensis is narrower (0.5  $\mu$ ) and barely distinguishable from B1. What seems to be zone B3, is 10  $\mu$  thick and is further subdivided into four to eight bands of orientated fibrils, those of adjacent bands running at different angles. Zones B1 and B2 are together 10  $\mu$  thick. In sections under the light microscope, the layers and zones stain differentially with toluidene blue. After staining with picro-sirius red, layers Bl and 82 of H. schachtii and Bl of H. rostochiensis were birefringent under polarised light, a test that usually indicates collagen. None of the zones stained strongly with the protein stains bromophenol blue or naphthol yellow. (Shepherd and Clark, with Dart, Soil Microbiology Deparfinent)

One hypothesis of how hatching agents act requires the existence of a permeability barrier within the eggshell or larval body wall. If this is correct, species of *Heterodera* that respond differently to hatching agents might be expected to have chemically diferent barriers. Previous analyses of cyst walls, which are derived from larval body walls (Rothamsted Report for 1967, ll9; for 1968, 152) showed quantitative diflerences between the cyst wall components of  $H$ . rostochiensis and  $H$ . schachtii, and a qualitative difference in hexosamine content has now been found. Whereas hydrolysates of the cyst walls of H. schachtii contained glucosamine (1.5 $\frac{9}{6}$  by weight), those of H. schachtii contained galactosamine  $(3.3\%)$ . (Clarke)

#### Internal structure of cyst-nematodes

To improve understanding of the internal structure of cyst-nematodes and help to identify organs under the electron microscope, serial sections  $2.5 \mu$  thick were cut of fourth-stage female larvae, young adult females and larvae in the intervening moult. In the species chosen, *Heterodera cruciferae*, the somatic muscles are still present in the fourth-stage females. The gut is filled with globules, has no apparent lumen and is attached to the body wall at six places. The gonads, which have started to elongate and in which the vagina and vulva are developing, seem to be engulfed by the gut but 178

lie close to the somatic muscles. At this stage the vulva does not open to the exterior. During the fourth moult the somatic muscles break down and the gut almost fills the body cayity. The gonads continue to lengthen and the wlva opens to the outside. The gonads of young adults are arranged regularly on either side of the body cavity, but have enlarged and started to coil at the base.

Contrary to Mackintosh's opinion (Nematologica  $(1960)$  5,  $158-165$ ), H. cruciferae has rectal glands, which can be seen in whole mounts of second-stage, third-stage and adult females, and in sections of moulting fourth-stage and adult females. From the anus a substance of unknown function passes into the gelatinous egg sac. (Clark and Doncaster)

### Hatching factors and sex attractants of cyst-nematodes

Nematodes live in the spaces between soil particles and are active only in moist soils. The eggs of some species do not hatch until the quiescent larvae within them are alerted by specific substances, usually given out by host plant roots. Some species are stimulated to moult by substances in root exudates and most plant-feeding nematodes are probably attracted by chemicals roots exude. Similarly, female nematodes seem to secrete substances that alert and attract their males. The kinds of substance that can act as sex attractants (pheromones) or relate parasite to plant host (phytomones) are probably limited by the moist environment around soil particles and the spaces between them, which are filled with an atmosphere that scarcely moves. Such an environment is dominated by water and unsuitable for aromatic air-borne scents. What little is known of the substances that influence nematodes in soil suggests that they are water-soluble glycosides, neutral or nearly so, and non-volatile or only slightly volatile. Nematodes seem to sense them at great dilution and their receptors probably respond to a few molecules. Concentrating and purifying them is difficult and bioassaying them tedious.

The method of purifying the hatching factor for the potato cyst-nematode, H. rostochiensis, produced by potato roots (Rothamsted Report for 1968, Part l, 153) was modified and improved. The raw material is still an extract from potato roots, and not root diffusate absorbed and eluted from charcoal but the new procedure includes two improved methods of column chromatography. The product resembles previous partially purified material in that, when further purified by thin layer chromatography, it gives a broad zone of active material about  $0.3 \text{ R}_f$  units wide. Further purification by column chromatography, or by electrophoresis, yields four components that stimulate hatching. (Clarke)

Time-lapse ciné records of Heterodera rostochiensis in root-observation boxes showed that females sometimes producc surges of secretions from their posterior ends that may attract males. The secretions remain fluid and disappear when males or other soil organisms disturb them. (Doncaster)

Attempts to concentrate and purify the male attractants emitted by Heterodera rostochiensis females have so far failed. They are partially destroyed by distilling extracts at 100"C and atmospheric pressure, but

not by either vacuum distillation at  $50^{\circ}$ C or freeze-drying. Appreciable amounts of attractive material distil oyer, suggesting that the attractant or at least one of its components is about as volatile as water.

Stronger extracts were obtained by leaving 500 young females on moist glassfibre filter-discs at  $15^{\circ}$ C for a week than by washing females repeatedly in small amounts of water. So far we have been unable to sepaxate attractive fractions by column or thin layer chromatography and only partially by electrophoresis. The attractant seems not to dissolve easily in acetone, ether or benzene, but traces can be carried in them either in water solution or as solids. These are not deposited in definite zones but scattered along the solvent track, where they can be detected by the sensitive bioassay. Nevertheless, paper chromatography suggests there are at least two attractive components. (Greet)

The hatching factor for H. rostochiensis and the sex attractant emitted by females have some common physical characteristics and both operate initially by alerting either larvae or males. The effect is to initiate movement after quiescence. As at least one component of the sex attractant is volatile, the hatching factor was re-tested but lack of volatility was confirmed. Also, the sex attractant did not initiate hatching and the hatching factor did not activate or attract males. The hatching factor is acidic, absorbed by anionic exchange resins and moves to the cathode duriog electrophoresis, whereas the sex attractant is near neutral and only slightly absorbed by anionic exchange resin, cellulose or Sephadex. Both are absorbed by activated charcoal. (Green)

Earlier observation suggested that females of the beet cyst nematode, H. schachtii, became less attractive to males for a while after being mated (Rothamsted Report for 1966, 158). Table 1 shows that  $H$ . rostochiensis behaves similarly. Some males and females were allowed to mate, and others not, either because they were separated by a dialysis nembrane that allows secretions to pass or because they were kept separate. After 15 hours the females were put on agar plates and tested with fresh males after 0.5, 3 and 24 hours. Males were similarly tested with fresh females.

#### TABLE <sup>1</sup>

# Influences of mating or proximity on attractiveness of females to males and vice versa



Log scores in bioassay of attraction

\* Figures in parenthesis indicate the number of tests.

Recently mated females and those exposed to males but separated by a membrane were less attractive than virgin females but they partly recovered their attractiveness in 3 hours and completely in 24 hours. Exposing males to secretions from females did not afect their behaviour nor was it affected by previous mating. (Green)

The ability of females of  $H$ , rostochiensis (pathotype A),  $H$ , rostochiensis (pathotype B), H. tabacum, H. virginiae, H. mexicana, and Osborne's cyst nematode, an unnamed species, to attract each others' males was tested. In contrast to results from similar tests done last year (Rothamsted Report for 1968, Part 1, 154), no difference was found that might lead males of one species to be selected or rejected by females of any other. As the females in this closely related group of round-cyst nematodes attracted all males strongly, presumably they secrete the same or a similar sex attractant, which would be in keeping with their close morphological similarity and the fact that the host plants of all seem confined to the Solanaceae. (Green)

#### Survival of different stages of potato cyst-nematode at high temperatures

During hot weather larvae of the potato cyst-nematode infesting plants in the glasshouse often fail to produce cysts. Therefore we put infested plants, at different intervals after they were inoculated, at temperatures between 26' and 38'C for periods of 24 and 96 hours to see whether this affected the number of adults produced and the sex ratio. Fewer adults matured after exposure at 32, 35 and 38°C, than after exposure at 26 and 29°C (Table 2). Larvae were least sensitive to raised temperatures when youngest and became increasingly sensitive as they aged. Fewest became adult when the temperature was raised 16 or 20 days after the plants were inoculated.

#### TABLE 2

# The effect of temperature and time of treatment of larvae that become adult



The pre-adult stage males were the most sensitive and raising the temperature to only 26°C 20 to 21 days after inoculation significantly decreased the numbers that became adult. Heating 1, 4 or 8 days after inoculation

increased the proportion of the surviving larvae that became female, presumably because the death of some larvae meant less competition for space and food among survivors (Rothamsted Report for 1966, 159). Plants exposed to 26"C for 18 days produced a mean number of adults of 734, whereas those kept at 29° produced only 179. Air temperatures often exceed 26'C in glasshouses during summer, so unless pots are cooled larvae in them may be killed. (Trudgill)

## A mathematical model relating the sex ratio of potato cyst-nematode to the numbers of larvae that invade host roots

The average size of females changes little as the density of infestation increases in potato roots. This contrasts with the behaviour of many invertebrate animals, which produce smaller adults when crowded. The sex of potato cyst-nematodes is determined after larvae enter the plant root and the proportion that become male increases when the plant tops are cut off or when larvae are crowded in the roots (Rothamsted Report for  $1965$ , 146). Laryae need more food to become female than to become male and ultimately need 200 to 300 times more, so it was suggested that, having invaded the root at random, larvae compete for space to produce giant-c€ll groups and only those with large enough groups become female. This situation was simulated by a computer model. The stele of 1 cm of roots was represented as a cylinder and the giant-cell groups by rectangles placed at random on its surface. As more giant-cell groups were added, it was assumed that those placed in an unoccupied space could support a female, whereas those that overlapped an occupied space produce males. The size of the giant-cell groups occupying onefourteenth and one-twentieth of the total surface area of the stele simulated the actual situation found in tomato and potato roots, respectively. Total numbers of giant-cell groups able to support females, for the mean of fifty random placements at each of ten larval densities, were printed. Table 3 shows that the sex ratio obtained by inoculating the main roots of tomato and potato with different numbers of larvae agrees well with that calculated from the mathematical model. Lateral roots are often so much thinner than main roots that larvae can rarely form giant-cell groups large

TABLE 3

Nematodes per cm of root	Sex ratio in tomato roots		Nematodes	Sex ratio in potato roots	
	Observed	Expected	per cm of root	Observed	Expected
5.5	0.64	0.69	6.0	0.62	0.69
$11 \cdot 0$	1.27	$1 - 42$	12.0	1.14	$1 - 18$
16.5	2.00	2.17	18.0	1.65	1.69
22.0	2.67	2.86	$24 - 0$	2.14	2.16
27.5	3.37	3.47	30.0	2.70	2.77
33.0	4.04	4.12	36.0	3.21	3.36
$38 - 5$	4.70	4.75	42.0	3.72	3.94
44.0	5.38	5.33	$48 - 0$	4.25	4.30
49.5	6.02	5.97	54.0	4.71	4.74
56.0	6.83	6.67	60.0	5.28	5.19

# The sex ratio on tomato and potato compared with that expected from the mathematical model at diferent population densities

enough for them to become female. (Trudgill with Ross, Statistics Department)

### Size of adult potato cyst-nematode on resistant potato hybrids

Potato plants resistant to some populations of potato cyst-nematode restrict the development of giant-cell groups and prevent larvae from becoming female. In some plants this is accompanied by an increase in the numbers of males of usual size, but in others food may be so restricted that the larvae develop into small males or many larvae may die. Table 4 shows the mean numbers of males and females and the mean length of 80 males produced by two nematode populations on one susceptible potato variety and three resistant hybrids, each infested with 4000 larvae. The mean body length of both populations was significantly smaller on the ex andigena and ex andigena  $\times$  ex multidissectum hybrids, and for the Jersey population on the ex *multidissectum* hybrid, than on the susceptible variety. Some of the small males were only one-quarter the bulk of males from the susceptible variety. The average size of the females that developed on the resistant hybrids was the same as on the susceptible variety.

#### TABLE 4

The mean numbers of males and females and mean lengths of males of two populations of the potato cyst-nematode on one susceptible and three resistant potato hybrids



\* Significantly different from the susceptible variety at  $P = 0.01$ .

(Parrott and Trudgill)

# Potato cyst-nematode, pathotype or species?

More matings between individual males and females of different pathotypes of H. rostochiensis (Rothamsted Report for 1967, 147) were attempted, but this time two populations from the type locality of the species in the Rostock area of East Germany kindly supplied by Dr. H. Stelter, Gross Lusewitz, East Germany, which proved to be pathotype A, and four pathotype B populations from Northern Ireland were used as well as pathotype E from Cadishead and Frampton. Pathotype A reproduces on potatoes incorporating genes for resistance from Solanum multidissectum but not on those with genes for resistance from S. tuberosum ssp. andigena; pathotype B behaves in the opposite way and pathotype E reproduces on plants with genes for resistance from both sources.

 $\blacksquare$ 

# TABLE 5

# Single male/single female reciprocal crosses of Heterodera rostochiensis using three pathotypes



\* Obtained from the type locality of H. rostochiensis.

Type of motion

Table 5 shows that, as in 1967, matings between A females and E males yielded many fewer females with eggs than matings between males and females of the same pathotype, whereas the reciprocal cross produced only slightly fewer. The pathotype B populations behaved similarly to those of pathotype E, suggesting that these are more closely related to each other than to pathotype A. On average judged by the number of females that produced eggs, matings between A and E or B were less than half as successful as selfings or matings between B and E.

The progeny of earlier crosses between pathotypes A and E were cultured separately on the fully susceptible potato variety Arran Banner. Parental cysts (dead females containing  $F_1$  eggs) from the Sandy, St. Brelades and Gosberton females were used as inocula and the new females (cysts) produced were counted, whereas hatched  $F_1$  larvae and eggs from the Woburn and Cadishead females were used as inocula and the males and females formed were estimated (Table 6). Not only did fewer females

## TABLE 6

# Numbers of larvae, males, females and cysts produced by the  $F_1$ generation of single male-single female matings of pathotypes of potato cyst-nematode



from matings between pathotypes produce eggs, but fewer larvae hatched from them and many fewer produced adults, than from matings within pathotypes. The viability of  $F_1$  adults has yet to be determined. (Parrott)

The soluble proteins in extracts from nine populations of the potato cyst-nematode, made by crushing 400 adult females of each in isotonic buffer, were analysed by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, using a discontinuous buffer system in which the protein molecules separate according to their size and, after staining, the gel columns show a complex pattern of bands. The main protein bands from the nine populations fall into two groups, difering in that some bands vary in intensity and others do not occur in all.

The population from Woburn (pathotype A) has 12 strong bands (fable 7), whether extracts come from living yellow females or dead ones (cysts containing eggs with unhatched larvae). All four pathotype A populations produce similar patterns, although the Sandy population has an additional band (2a) between bands 2 and 3.

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# TABLE 7

Percentage of females on three resistant potato hybrids (Arran Banner = 100) and the band patterns produced by polyacrylamide<br>gel electrophoresis of extracts from females of nine populations of the potato cyst nematode



Main bands, 1-12; subsidiary bands 2a, 5a, 6a, 7a and 11a.

\* Obtained from the type locality in East Germany.

Band patterns from pathotypes B and E populations have eight bands in common with pathotype A but lack bands in positions 4, 5, l0 and 12. Additional bands sometimes appear between 5 and 6 (5a), 6 and 7 (6a), and l1 and 12 (lla). Pathotype B and E populations vary more, so probably they are genetically and physiologically more diverse than populations of pathotype A. Consistent differences between pathotype B and pathotype E populations have not been found. Selecting pathotype A populations on *andigena* hybrids may increase the proportion of larvae able to become females, change the band pattern and perhaps indicate which bands are associated with larvae unable to multiply in plants with genes for resistance derived from Solanum tuberosum ssp. andigena. (Trudgill with Carpenter, Plant Pathology Department)

The different protein-band patterns, the fact that pathotype A females are golden yellow, whereas those of pathotypes B and E are pale cream or white, the differences in spear length, body length and some other measurements between pathotype A and B and E, but not between B and E (Webley, Nematologia (1970) 16, 107-112) and finally the inability of A to hybridise freely with B and E whereas B and E seem to hybridise freely, suggests that two species of potato cyst-nematode exist in the  $U.K.$ . H. rostochiensis sensu stricto is pathotype A, the golden nematode, because that is the pathotype of the type locality near Rostock and the other (pathotype B and E) is so far undescribed and lacks a specific name. The pattern of distribution of the species, with pathotype A dominant in South East England, central Scotland and probably also in Northern Ireland, and the others dominant in the basin of the river Humber, with admixtures of both in other areas, probably stems from original introductions of both species from the Andes plateau of South America and their subsequent spread in seed potatoes and by other means. The two species belong to the group of round-cyst nematodes (page 181 of this Report) that have many characters in common and probably merit being split off from cyst nematodes with lemon-shaped cysts as a separate genus. They were assigned to a sub-genus, Globodera, by Skarbilovich in 1959 but this has not so far been generally accepted.

Most of the work at Rothamsted extending over many years has been with H. rostochiensis sensu stricto, which is dominant in old allotments at Rothamsted and in the fields at Woburn Experimental Station. The host ranges reported by Jones (Ann. appl. Biol. (1950) 37, 414) and Winslow (Ann. appl. Biol. (1954) 41, 591) are those of this pathotype. (Jones)

#### Genetics of eelworm resistant potatoes

Resistant potatoes bred from ex *andigena* have a major gene that confers resistance to  $H$ . rostochiensis pathotype A and those bred ex multidissectum another that confers resistance to pathotype B. Hybrids with both genes are resistant to both pathotypes but not to pathotype E. Tests with a range of nematode populations and resistant hybrids show that some ex andigena plants contain additional resistance as do those bred from ex multidissectum. The additional genes for resistance from *andigena* operate primarily against pathotype B and E populations. The hybrids lacking

this factor such as Maris Piper and Ulster Glade seem to distinguish sharply between pathotypes A and B or E. The presence or absence of minor factors in resistant hybrids goes some way to explaining the variation in the numbers of cysts formed on their roots. Nematode populations also vary in their reactions to the minor factors and in the number of cysts they form on plants that possess them. The resistant plants are probably best regarded not as non-hosts but as poor hosts able to support small populations. In a trial at Woburn using Maris Piper, in sandy soil, heavy infestations of H. rostochiensis pathotype A were decreased by 8076 but light ones were maintained at a few eggs/g of soil. So far as is known, the cysts formed were golden yellow, i.e. pathotype A. (Trudgill, Parrott and Jones)

Woody nightshade, Solanum dulcamara, a hedgerow plant, and black nightshade, S. nigrum, a common weed of arable land, are the only widespread native Solanaceous plants in Britain. The common races of S. nigrum in South Eastern England seem not to be hosts of pathotype A, B or E of H. rostochiensis, whereas S. dulcamara is a host of pathotype A and of most round-cyst nematodes. Because of its value as a common host when attempting to cross round-cyst nematodes, its status as a host for pathotypes A, B and E was compared with tomato in miniature pots each inoculated with 50 larvae. Both were equally good hosts for pathotype A, and both supported pathotypes B and E but they multiplied only half as much as pathotype A. All three pathotypes produced a larger ratio of females to males on woody nightshade than on tomato. (Green)

#### Reproduction and sex attraction in some root-knot nematodes

Inoculating host roots with single larvae proved that Meloidogyne ardenensis, M. naasi and M. thamesi reproduce parthenogenetically, for 60 days later females had produced viable eggs.

M. hapla can also reproduce parthenogenetically, although it produces males. Tests on agar plates gave no evidence that M. arenaria females of any age attracted newly-emerged or old males. Similarly young females of Meloidogyne arenaria in observation boxes did not attract males placed near them in groups of ten.

Tests on agar also showed that males of these species are not attracted to females of other species. Heterodera cruciferae females attract males of all other species of Heterodera, and H. schachtii males are attracted to all other species of Heterodera females, but Meloidogyne females did not attract H. schachtii males and Meloidogyne males were not attracted to H. cruciferae females. (Santos)

# Nematodes in ploughed and unploughed land

Table 8 shows that the nematode fauna of the soil was similar after 3 and 4 years of growing wheat in unploughed land where weeds were killed with paraquat to that where the land was ploughed annually. The directseeded plots at Rothamsted probably yielded less than the ploughed plots because they were infected with couch grass, Agropyron repers, which was 188

# TABLE 8

Nematode populations under winter wheat grown with and without ploughing. Nematodes/l soil, detransformed from  $log(x + 1)$ 



\*, \*\* or \*\*\*, significantly different from the untreated at  $5\%$ ,  $1\%$  or  $0.1\%$  levels of probability.

not controlled by weed killer spray applied the previous autumn. The detailed analysis of nematodes in soil taken at approximately 3 months intervals show slight but inconsistent differences between numbers in the direct-seeded and ploughed plots. The changes between sampling dates followed the usual pattern, which is that all groups tended to be fewer during summer than at other times. Seemingly any compaction from not ploughing the Woburn sandy soil for 3 years or the Rothamsted clay soil for 4 years did not make the pore system of either less suitable for nema' todes.

### Damage to wheat roots by the lesion nematode Pratylenchus fallax

To gain information about P. fallax affecting wheat roots, roots were grown in sterile culture and inoculated with nematodes. Larvae invading the roots broke cell walls and some were discoloured. After 4 weeks many cell walls were broken and others thickened. P. fallax did not penetrate beyond the endodermis which greatly thickened near any nematode, became discoloured and produced peg like protrusions in the inner walls. These changes happened before the outside of the root showed any lesions. (Corbett and Webb)

### Migratory nematodes in barley

Barley was planted again in 1969 at Papplewick, Notts, and Woburn, Beds, to see whether fumigants applied to soil in 1968 to control nematodes had any residual effects (Rothamsted Report for 1968, Part 1, 164-165. Table 9 shows the number of nematodes, estimated at sowing, and the grain yields.

#### TABLE 9

# Residual efect of nematicides in barley



At both sites plots treated with 'D-D' and chloropicrin yielded significantly more than untreated plots. At Papplewick, 'D-D', aldicarb and chloropicrin applied before the 1968 crop significantly decreased numbers of Pratylenchus fallax and all parasitic nematodes. At Woburn 'D-D' 190

and chloropicrin significantly decreased  $P$ . minyus and  $P$ . crenatus. 'D-D', aldicarb and chloropicrin significantly decreased all parasitic nematodes. Only at Papplewick, in aldicarb treated plots, were all nematodes significantly fewer than in untreated plots. Apparently killing nematodes is at least partly responsible for fumigation increasing the yields of grain at both sites, and, as Pratylenchus was affected proportionately more than total nematodes by'D-D'and chloropicrin, this genus may have been largely responsible for the smaller yields from the untreated plots. (Corbett and Webb)

# Nematodes in the potatoes in the Woburn Ley-Arable

Fumigating the soil of plots in the Woburn Ley-Arable experiment with chloropicrin during autumn 1968, or applying Temik at planting 1968, significantly increased yield of potatoes and decreased the numbers of ettoparasitic nematodes- However, as populations of these nematodes and of the potato cyst-nematode (Heterodera rostochiensis) in untreated plots seemed too small to decrease yields, the increases may have been from the extra nitrogen mineralised by fumigatiou or the control of other pathogens.

The potato variety Maris Piper has been planted in this experiment since 1966. It is damaged when many larvae of H. rostochiensis invade its roots, but it prevents the nematode multiplying as it does following <sup>a</sup> susceptible variety. The block that grew potatoes in 1968 (rye in 1969) contained far fewer ectoparasitic nematodes in the plots fumigated with chloropicrin in autumn 1967 than unfumigated ones, but these again contained fewer than would be expected to cause measurable damage. Nevertheless the rye yielded better on previously fumigated plots. This, too, was probably a nitrogen effect, for the plants on fumigated plots matured later. Fumigation with chloropicrin greatly increased the <sup>1968</sup> potato yield (Rothamsted Report for 1968, Part 1, 150), but populations of H, rostochiensis were still appreciable in tiis block, despite growing the resistant variety. In 1969 the roots of potato plants grown in pots containing soil from unfumigated plots were invaded by twice as many larvae as roots of plants grown in soil treated with chloropicrin in autumn 1967. Hence the large yield differences (more than 10 tons/acre) after fumigating the soil for the 1968 potatoes were partly caused by  $H$ . rostochiensis. The block to be planted next year, like that planted in 1968, still contains an appreciable population of  $H$ , rostochiensis and its effect on potato yields will be tested. Salt (see page 17l of this Report) failed to find fungi attacking the potatoes that might explain the yield differences this year or last. (Evans)

# Nematodes of Sitka spruce nurseries

Tylenchus sp. and Tylenchorhynchus spp. are plant parasites common in the Chemistry Department's forestry reference plots on Stackyard field, Woburn. Paratylenchus, Pratylenchus and Trichodorus spp. also occur, but never in large numbers. Differences between the abundance of Tylenchorhynchus spp. and Tylenchus spp. in soil examined in November 1968 and

l9l

TABLE 10



1969 could not be related to fertiliser treatments or to root weights of the host plants. Populations were smaller in 1969 than in 1968, probably because the summer and autumn of 1969 were much drier (Table 10).

#### **TABLE 11**

Tylenchus spp. and Tylenchorhynchus spp. as a percentage of total nematode populations in Stackyard, Woburn, in November



\* The 6-course rotation.

† The ley-arable experiment.

Where Sitka spruce has been grown annually for 4 to 9 years, the proportions of Tylenchus spp. and Tylenchorhynchus spp. to other species were greater than elsewhere in the field (Table 11). T. emarginatus was the dominant species of Tylenchus, with T. costatus many fewer, and other unidentified species occurred occasionally. Tylenchorhynchus spp. were less numerous than Tylenchus spp. T. dubius, the most common species, occurs about the roots of many crops on Stackyard. T. emarginatus was probably introduced on conifer transplants from the forestry nursery at Kennington near Oxford, as this species does not occur elsewhere at Woburn.

Tylenchus emarginatus, T. costatus, Tylenchorhynchus dubius, T. brevidens, Rotylenchus robustus and Trichodorus pachydermus feed on the roots of Sitka seedlings growing in water agar and lay eggs but only Tylenchus *emarginatus* completes its life cycle. Eggs laid by the other species hatched, but the juveniles soon became quiescent. When placed in water they became active but did not mature even when moved to fresh roots. T. emarginatus reproduced readily without males. The mean numbers of

# TABLE 12

#### Fecundity and longevity of T. emarginatus females at different tomporatures



larvae produced at constant temperatures of 15°, 20°, and 25°C, and with a daily fluctuating temperature of 17–23°C, were not significantly different, although most viable eggs were laid at 15°C (Table 12). Nematodes lived longer at 10° and 15°C, and reproduced more slowly than at the higher 193

13

pp 19

temperatures. At  $10^{\circ}$ C females were still alive 3 months after the first eggs were laid, at l5'C adults lived about 128 days (72-168), at 25'C only 33 days (12–60). Egg-laying capacity is independent of temperature. Egglaying depends on a continued supply of food; it is slowed and longevity increased by food shortage and/or cold.

T. emarginatus did not reproduce at 30 $^{\circ}$  or 5 $^{\circ}$ C, or when the temperature fluctuated between 3 and 8"C, and eggs failed to hatch after 3 weeks at these temperatures. It can be assumed that  $T$ . emarginatus cannot reproduce in field soils between October and April, when soil is usually colder than  $10^{\circ}$ C, and that it overwinters in either juvenile or adult stages. T. emarginatus has a shorter generation time than most other plantparasitic species. At  $25^{\circ}$ C the life-cycle takes only 5–6 days, at  $20^{\circ}$ C or at temperatures fluctuating between 17 and  $23^{\circ}$ C 6–7 days, and at 15 $^{\circ}$ C l3-15 days.

That Tylenchus emarginatus and Tylenchorhynchus dubius reproduce on Sitka spruce was shown in the glasshouse. After 9 months at temperatures between 15-30 $\degree$ C, which allowed some 20 generations of T. emarginatus, numbers increased from the initial 50 and 500 in the inoculum to 1216 and 12768 of Tylenchus and from 213 to 5832 of Tylenchorhynchus (Table l3). The weights of the Sitka spruce tops and roots were not significantly affected. In agar cultures  $Ty$  lenchus spp. and  $T$ . dubius fed on epidermal root cells, but never penetrated deep into the roots, halted growth or caused obvious injury. (Gowen)

#### TABLE 13

## Reproduction of Tylenchus emarginatus and Tylenchorhynchus dubius on Sitka spruce seedlings in pots



\* Including some T. costatus.

#### Cereal cyst-nematode at Woburn

The experiment studying the effects of treatments applied in 1966 on populations of *Heterodera avenae* and the yield of spring wheat and spring barley ended. A barley resistant to the Woburn population of  $H$ , avenae (kindly supplied by the Welsh Plant Breeding Station) was grown and all plots were given the same amount of nitrogen fertiliser  $(1.0 \text{ cut } N/\text{acre})$ . Neither yield nor nematode numbers were affected by giving different amounts of nitrogen in previous years, so all replicates for each main treatment were pooled.

The 'D-D' applied in 1966 significantly ( $P = 0.01$ ) increased the yield ofthe nematode resistant barley in 1969 (Table l4), possibly partly by controlling the nematode, for the resistant barley is invaded by  $H$ . avenae l94

larvae, or by controlling other pathogens, and partly by inhibiting nitrification. The fact that it did not increase yield in 1968, although varieties of wheat and barley susceptible to the nematode were grown may be explained by the severe lodging in the wet summer. In 1969 a wet spring was followed by a dry summer, conditions that favour invasion of roots by larvae and increase the stress on plants with damaged roots. Early in 1968 it seemed that the 1966 'D-D' was beneficial to wheat, but the benefit did not show in increased yield.

## **TABLE 14**

#### Effects of rotavation and 'D-D' (1966) on resistant barley and H. avenae 1969



\*, \*\*, or \*\*\*, significantly different from A at 5%, 1% or 0.1% levels of probability.

 $t_{\text{model}}$  in 1066

### **TABLE 15**

Total grain production, 1967-69, after different treatment in 1966 cwt/acre (85% D.M.)



Table 15 shows the total yields over the three years of this experiment. The differences in yield between plots where oats were grown to maturity in 1966 and those where they were rotavated in during May, with and without applying 'D-D', probably underestimates the effects of these treatments, because the largest N dressing given in 1967 and 1968 depressed yields. These modest responses in yield cannot justify the cost of using a sterilant such as 'D-D' for cereal growing alone, but they add an extra return where land is treated primarily for crops such as potatoes and sugar-beet, with which 'D-D' can produce substantial yield increases. When this experiment began in 1966, the *H. avenae* before sowing were fewer than 1 egg/g soil; at the end of 1967, after two susceptible crops it reached 6 eggs/g in untreated plots. It was still 6 eggs/g after the susceptible crop was grown in 1968, confirming the tendency noted earlier for populations of H. avenae at Woburn to stabilise at the relatively small value of

 $\blacksquare$ 

# TABLE 16

Heterodera avenae, Ophiobolus graminis-their effect on each other and the growth of winter wheat seedlings at 14°C



 $5-10$  eggs/g, unless the land is treated with formalin, when they increased considerably. (Williams)

#### The interaction between cereal cyst-nematode and the take-all fungus

After an indication in 1965 (Rothamsted Report for 1965, 149) that H. avenae became fewer when cereals were much affected by take-all and increased when they were not, the interaction between  $H$ . avenae and O. graminis was studied in pots planted with winter wheat. Some pots were inoculated with H. avenae, some with O. graminis, some with both, and some with neither. In some pots both were inoculated simultaneously, and in others at different times.

H. awnae alone (at 500 larvae/plant) had no detectable effect on root or shoot weights (Table 16). Take-all alone significantly ( $P = 0.001$ ) decreased shoot weights and H. avenae did not enhance its effects. Although there were more males/g root when O. graminis was added first, this was probably because the delay in adding the larvae meant more immature males were in the roots when these were macerated.

Female H. avenae (per g of root or per pot) were fewer when larvae were inoculated at the same time as the fungus ( $P = 0.05$ ) than when they were inoculated first, possibly because when established first they had more chance of becoming females. Only limited conclusions can be reached from this experiment because some males were lost and could not be counted.

In another experiment the males were counted by transfering plants from soil to Cornish grit in plastic baskets standing in trays before males began to emerge. Ophiobolus graminis from Woburn soil (25 mesh sieve fraction) and 1600  $H$ . avenae larvae were added simultaneously to the pots. Table l7 shows that roots were heaviest in the un-inoculated pots

## TABLE 17

# The effects of Heterodera avenae and Ophiobolus graminis on each other and on winter wheat seedlings at  $14^{\circ}$ C



\* or \*\*\*, significantly different from control at  $5\%$  or 0.1% levels of probability.

and lightest in pots with  $O$ . graminis. H. avenae did not significantly increase the effect of  $O$ , graminis, although alone it significantly decreased the weight of moist root ( $P = 0.05$ ). There was little sign of the 'knotting' of seminal roots which follows H. avenae irvasion of spring wheat in the field. Take-all invasion of roots was not influenced by  $H$ , avenae, but O. graminis greatly decreased the number of male and female nematodes that matured  $(P = 0.001)$ . In pots where take-all developed extensively the sex ratio  $(3 : 9)$  was 4.2, compared with 2.8 where it failed to develop

extensively, and 2.6 in uninoculated pots. It was 9.1 in one pot in which 85% of the roots had take-all lesions. (Williams and Hornby, Plant Pathology Dept.)

## Fumigation of potato soil to control nematodes and Verticillium wilt

Heterodera rostochiensis worsened Verticillium wilt of potatoes grown in pots (Rothamsted Report for 1968, Part 1, 157). Hence attempts were made in an infested field at Woburn to control either pest or fungus or both. Aldicarb (660 lb/acre of 10% granules) was rotavated in before planting to kill nematodes; benomyl was applied as dust to seed tubers to try and control the fungus, and methyl bromide (2 lb/100 sq ft) was applied under gas-tight sheets to control both organisms.

Benomyl was ineffective and did not affect the tuber yield (Table 18). Aldicarb and methyl bromide killed nematodes so effectively that there were few females on roots during June and even fewer cysts and eggs in the soil after harvest, but methyl bromide increased the yield by 7.7 and aldicarb by only 4.2 tons/acre. (Corbett and Hide, Plant Pathology Department)

#### **TABLE 18**

# Effect of methyl bromide, aldicarb and benomyl on potato yields and numbers of the cyst nematode

(Counts are  $log(x+1)$  with detransformed numbers in parenthesis)



#### Control of 'Docking disorder' in sugar beet

In plots 4 yards  $\times$  about 500 yards on Honeyhills, Docking, Norfolk, where the soil was infested with Trichodorus (chiefly T. cylindricus) and Longidorus attenuatus, 'D-D' injected on 26 March 6 in beneath the predetermined sugar-beet rows greatly increased the yield of sugar-beet sown on 21 April. One ml 'D-D'/ft of row (6.4 gal/acre) increased seedling weight in June ten-fold, 14 ml increased it twenty-fold and 2 ml increased it twelvefold. Seedlings in untreated soil on one side of the field grew well during summer but on the other side, where the soil was coarser, they remained stunted. Although total yields were increased sugar was less than the maximum because the plant population was excessive and gave many roots too small to harvest. At Bircham, Norfolk, where the soil was lightly infested with Trichodorus and where herbicide killed many seedlings, Docking disorder did not occur and 'D-D' neither increased seedling vigour nor vield (Table 19).

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## NEMATOLOGY DEPARTMENT



# **TABLE 19** Effect on sugar yield of 'D-D' injected beneath rows before sowing

\*, \*\*, or \*\*\*, significantly different from the untreated at  $5\%$ ,  $1\%$  or  $0.1\%$  levels. of probability.

At Bircham, because of heavy rain, sugar-beet was sown 6 weeks after fertilisers were applied to the seedbed. In spite of this an extra 122 lb N/acre added to the seedbed as ammonium sulphate or as ammonium sulphate with  $2\%$  of the nitrogen as 'N-serve' (2-chloro-6-trichloromethyl-pyridine), which is said not to be leached, did not increase yields. (Whitehead and Tite)

#### Control of the needle-nematode Longidorus elongatus

In fen peat soil (more than 50% organic matter) near Stoke Ferry, W. Norfolk, Longidorus elongatus injures spring-sown crops, especially cocksfoot-ryegrass leys, sugar-beet and kale. Dazomet 100 lb (prill)/acre rotavated into the top 6 in of soil during August killed about 70% of the nematodes down to 8 in. Aldicarb, 40 lb granules (10% active ingredient)/ acre rotavated into the top soil, or 'D-D' 400 lb/acre injected 6 in. deep during August, killed half of the nematodes but as much as 200 lb 'Mocap' granules (O-ethyl S,S-dipropyl phosphorodithioate)  $(10\%$  active ingredient) did not kill any. None of the treatments improved the good vields of the 1969 cocksfoot-ryegrass sown in autumn 1968 after the treatments had been applied. Although soil from untreated plots contained more than 300 L. elongatus/litre during spring, the autumn sown grass was undamaged whereas the spring sown grass failed. Other new leys sown in spring 1969 on similar peat soils at Stoke Ferry were badly damaged by L. elongatus. Damage by this pest to grass is therefore best avoided by sowing in autumn, when it is presumed the nematodes are not feeding. (Whitehead and Tite)

#### Control of potato cyst-nematode

In Butt Furlong, Woburn, where the sandy soil (about  $10\%$  clay) is infested with potato cyst-nematode, 'D-D' injected 9 in. deep into preformed ridges 5 weeks before potatoes were planted decreased the number of larvae invading the roots and increased the yield of ware-sized tubers (Table 20). Applying 32 gal 'D-D'/acre doubled the yield of ware, as it did on the same plots in 1968 but it controlled the nematode less well than in 1968. In Long Mead, Woburn, where the soil is a loam with 39% clay, dazomet (98% granules (prill)) and aldicarb ('Temik') granules (10%

active ingredient) rotavated into the top 6 in. controlled the nematode better than 'D-D' applied to preformed ridges, and greatly increased yields.

In a new experiment on sandy loam in Butt Close, Woburn, 780 lb methyl bromide/acre was applied under gas-tight polythene sheeting during spring, and dazomet rotavated into the top 6 in. of soil either during autumn or 8 weeks before planting. Both controlled potato cyst-nematode better than did 'D-D' or 'Telone', whether these were applied during autumn or to preformed ridges in spring, and greatly increased yields of ware tubers (Table 21).

### **TABLE 20**

# Nematicides and potato cyst-nematode at Woburn



\*, \*\* or \*\*\*, significantly different from the untreated at  $5\%$ ,  $1\%$  or  $0.1\%$  levels of probability.

#### TABLE 21

Nematicides and potato cyst-nematode in sandy loam, Butt Close, Woburn



\*, \*\* or \*\*\*, significantly different from the untreated at  $5\%$ ,  $1\%$  or  $0.1\%$  levels of probability.

# TABLE 22

# Nematicides and potato cyst-nematode in peaty loam soil, Mepal

# Ware tubers ton/acre (larval invasion  $\frac{9}{6}$  of untreated plots)



\*, \*\*, or \*\*\*, significantly different from the untreated at 5%, 1% or 0.1% levels of probability.<br>† Larval invasion of Arran Banner potato roots determined from soil samples collected after aldicarb treatment but before M

Means

'D-D', dazomet and aldicarb were tested for a second year in fen peat soil (25-30% organic matter) at the Arthur Rickwood Experimental Husbandry Farm, Mepal, Isle of Ely (fable 22). Yields of ware-sized tubers from untreated plots were small. 'D-D' injected 6 in. deep in rows l2 in. apart in November again increased potato yields but controlled potato cyst-nematode poorly. Smaller amounts of 'D-D' injected into preformed ridges during spring neither controlled the nematode nor increased the yields. Dazomet rotavated into the top 6 in. of soil in November controlled the nematode better but damaged the plants. Aldicarb rotavated into the top 6 in. of soil just before planting controlled the nematode well and gready increased yields. In contrast to 1968, when the soil was less heavily infested, aldicarb also significantly increased the yield of Maris Piper potatoes.

'D-D' and dazomet were also tested in fen silt soil  $(73\%$  fine sand) near Terrington St. Clement, Norfolk (fable 23). The soil was heavily infested and yields of Maris Piper and Majestic potatoes from untreated plots were small. Although 'D-D' controlled the nematode poorly when injected 9 in. deep into preformed ridges 5 weeks before planting, it greatly increased the yields of both varieties. Dazomet rotayated into the top 6 in. of soil, which was then formed into ridges 9 weeks before planting, controlled the nematode better and also greatly increased the yield of Majestic.

#### TABLE 23

# Nematicides and potato cyst-nematode in silt soil, Terrington Ware tubers ton/acre (larval invasion  $\%$  untreated plots)



<sup>\*</sup>, \*\*, or \*\*\*, significantly different from the untreated at 5%, 1% or 0.1% levels of probability.

Applied during spring to the same plots and in the same amounts as in 1968, 'D-D', dazomet and aldicarb at Woburn and 'D-D' and aldicarb at Mepal killed a smaller percentage of the nematodes than in 1968, perhaps because the spring of 1969 was wetter. (Whitehead and Tite)

In Long Mead, Woburn, carbon disulphide, 'D-D' and methyl bromide applied under gas-tight sheeting in May significantly decreased the invasion of potato roots by larvae and greatly increased potato yields (Iable 24). Dibromochloropropane ('Nemagon') injected 6 in. deep into soil, which was then covered with gas-tight sheeting for 3 weeks, also decreased larval invasion of potato roots but was toxic to potatoes planted in early 202

## **TABLE 24**

#### Assessing nematicidal activity of pesticides, Long Mead, Woburn



\*, \*\*, or \*\*\*, significantly different from the untreated at  $5\%, 1\%$  or  $0.1\%$  levels of probability.

 $\dagger$  (C) = covered with gas-tight sheeting.

June. Aldicarb, chlorfenvinphos, demeton-S-methyl, diazinon, dimefox, 'Isolan', phosphamidon and thionazin, applied to the soil surface and rotavated in just before potatoes were planted, greatly decreased the invasion of potato roots by larvae and greatly increased potato yields. Dimefox, thionazin, 'Isolan' and perhaps 'Dursban' and schradan, damaged potatoes at the amounts applied. (Whitehead and Storey)

# **Staff and visiting workers**

A. R. Stone joined the staff in October and Miss J. B. Vincent (Liverpool Regional College of Technology), Miss Ljubica Rajicic (Yugoslavia), Mr. S. Gowen (Trinidad), Mr. O. O. Olowe (Nigeria), Dr. G. W. Yeates (New Zealand) and Dr. U. Wyss (Germany) worked in the Department.

G. Storey (Liverpool Regional College of Technology) and M. Williams (Barking Regional College of Technology) worked as sandwich-course students. A. G. Whitehead organised sessions on the control of nematodes at the 5th British Insecticides and Fungicides Conference, Brighton, in November at which F. G. W. Jones and T. D. Williams gave papers.