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Scientific Research of Plant Diseases For journal, see Plant Pathology (journal). Phytopathology redirects here. For the journal, see Phytopatology (journal). Plant disease redirects here. For the journal see Plant Disease (journal). The life cycle of the black rot pathogen, *Xanthomonas campestris* pathovar *campovarov* *campes* Plant pathology (also phytopathology) is a scientific study of plant diseases caused by pathogens (infectious organisms) and environmental conditions (physiological factors). Organisms that cause infectious diseases include fungi, omacets, bacteria, viruses, viroids, virus-like organisms, phytoplasma, protozoa, nematodes and parasitic plants. Not included are ectoparasites like insects, ticks, vertebrates, or other pests that affect plant health by eating plant tissue. Plant pathology also includes the study of the identification of pathogens, disease etiology, disease cycles, economic impact, epidemiology of plant diseases, resistance to plant diseases, how plant diseases affect humans and animals, pathosystem genetics and plant disease management. Review also: Morphological Symptoms of Plant Disease Disease Control Plant Diseases is critical to reliable food production, and it provides significant challenges in the agricultural use of land, water, fuel and other resources. Plants in both natural and cultivated populations are resistant to disease, but there are many examples of the devastating effects of plant diseases such as the Great Famine of Ireland and Chestnut Decline, as well as recurrent severe plant diseases such as rice explosion, soaked cysts and citrus canker. However, disease control is quite successful for most cultures. Disease control is achieved through the use of plants that have been bred for good resistance to many diseases, as well as approaches to growing plants such as crop rotation, the use of seeds without pathogens, appropriate planting date and plant density, field moisture control and pesticide use. Continuous advances in plant pathology are needed to improve disease control and to improve disease pressures caused by the ongoing evolution and movement of plant pathogens, as well as changes in agricultural practices. Plant diseases cause serious economic losses for farmers around the world. It is estimated that in large regions and in many types of crops, disease tends to reduce plant yields by 10% annually in more developed conditions, but in less developed conditions, yield losses often exceed 20 per cent. The Food And Eat pests and diseases account for about 25 per cent of crop losses. New methods of early detection of diseases and pests, such as new sensors that detect plant odors and spectroscopy and biophotonics that can diagnose plant health and metabolism, are needed to address this problem. Plant pathogens Additional information: lists of plant diseases Mold, Biotrophic Mushroom Mushrooms Most phytopathogenic fungi belong to ascomycetum and basidiomycetum. Mushrooms reproduce both sexually and asexually through the production of spores and other structures. Spores can spread over long distances through air or water, or they can be soiled. Many soils inhabiting fungi are able to live saprotrophically, performing part of their life cycle in the soil. It's saprotrophy. Fungal diseases can be controlled by fungicides and other farming methods. However, new species of fungi often develop that are resistant to various fungicides. Biotrophic fungal pathogens colonize living plant tissue and receive nutrients from living host cells. Necrotrophic fungal pathogens infect and kill host tissues and extract nutrients from dead host cells. Significant fungal plant pathogens include: citation is necessary the explosion of rice caused by the necrotrophic fungus *Ascomycetes Fusarium* spp. (*Fusarium* withering disease) *Thielaviopsis* spp. (canker rot, black rot root, *Tilaviopsis* root rot) *Verticillium* spp. *Magnaporthe grisea* (rice blast) *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* (cotton rot) *Basidiomycetes Ustilago* spp. (*smuts*) *barley* spp. *Phakospora pachyrhizi* (soy rust) *Puccinia* spp. (heavy rust of cereals and herbs) *Armillaria* spp. (honey fungus species, virulent tree pathogens) Fungal organisms *Oomycetes oomycetes* are fungus-shaped organisms. They include some of the most destructive plant pathogens, including the genus *Phytophthora*, which includes the pathogens of late-decaden potato and sudden oak death. Special species of *ovicetes* are responsible for root rot. Despite the lack of close association with fungi, *oomycetes* have developed similar infection strategies. *Oomycetes* are able to use effector proteins to turn plant defenses in its infection process. Plant pathologists usually group them with fungal pathogens. Significant pathogens of the *oomycete* plant include: *Pitium* spp. *Phytophthora* spp., including the potato decline of the Great Irish Famine (1845-1849) *Phytophyxa* Some forms of mucus in *Phytonicsea* cause important diseases, including the club root in the cabbage and its relatives and powdered scabs in potatoes. They are called species of *plasmidophora* and *spongospora*, respectively. *Bacteria corona* bile disease caused by *Agrobacterium* Most bacteria that are associated with plants are actually saprotrophic and do not harm the plant itself. However, a small number, about 100 known species, are capable of causing disease. Bacterial diseases are much more common in subtropical and tropical regions of the world. Most plant pathogens have the shape of a rod (bacilli). In order to be able to colonize the plant they have specific pathogenic factors. Five main types of bacterial pathogenic factors are known: the use of cell cells enzymes, toxins, effect proteins, phytohormones and exopolisaccharides. Pathogens, such as the *Ervinia* species, use cell enzymes that degrade walls to cause soft rot. Types of *agrobacteria* change the level of oxins to cause tumors with phytohormones. Exopolisaccharides are produced by bacteria and block xylemic vessels, which often leads to the death of the plant. *Bacteria* control the development of pathogenic factors using a probing quorum. *Vitis vinifera* with infection *Ca*. *Phytoplasma vitis* Significant bacterial plant pathogens: *Burkholderia* (*Burkholderia*) *Proteobacteria Xanthomonas* spp. *Pseudomonas* spp. *Pseudomonas sirinae* pv. The tomato makes tomato plants produce less fruit, and it continues to adapt to tomatoes, minimizing its recognition by the immune system of tomatoes. *Phytoplas* and *spioplasma* Main article: *Phytoplasma Phytoplasma and Spiroplasma* The genus of bacteria that have no cell walls and are associated with mycoplasma, which are human pathogens. Together they are called *mollucites*. They also tend to have smaller genomes than most other bacteria. They are usually transmitted by sucking insects, transmitted to the flax of the plant where it reproduces. Tobacco mosaic virus viruses, viruses and virus-like organisms Main article: Plant virus there are many types of plant virus, and some are even amptomatic. Under normal circumstances, plant viruses cause only loss of yield. It is therefore economically impractical to try to control them unless they infect perennial species such as fruit trees. Most plant viruses have small, single-string RNA genomes. However, some plant viruses also have double RNA or single or double DNA genomes. These genomes can only encode three or four proteins: replica, protein coat, protein movement to allow the cell to move cells through plasmasmat, and sometimes a protein that allows transmission of vector. Plant viruses can have several more proteins and use many different molecular translation techniques. Plant viruses are usually transmitted from plant to plant vector, but there is also mechanical transmission and transfer of seeds. The vector transmission often comes from an insect (such as aphids), but some fungi, nematodes and protozoa have been shown as viral vectors. In many cases, the insect and virus are specific to the transmission of the virus, such as the beet leafhopper, which transmits a kinky top virus that causes disease in several agricultural plants. One example is the mosaic disease of tobacco, in which the leaves of dwarf and chlorophyll leaves are destroyed. Another example is the Bunchy top of the banana, where the plant dwarfs, and the upper form a dense socket. Nematodes Home article: Nematodes Root-node nematode bile nematodes are small, multicellular worms like animals. Many live freely in the soil, but there are some species parasitize the roots of plants. They are a problem in tropical and subtropical regions of the world, where they can infect crops. Potato nematode cysts (*Globodera pallida* and *G. rostochiensis*) are widespread in Europe, North and South America and cause \$300 million in damage in Europe each year. The nematodes of the root nodes have a fairly large host range, they parasitize on the root systems of the plants and thus directly affect the absorption of water and nutrients needed for normal plant growth and reproduction, while nematode cysts are usually able to infect only a few species. Nematodes are able to cause radical changes in root cells to facilitate their lifestyle. The simplest and algae there are several examples of plant diseases caused by the protozoa (e.g. *phytomons*, kinetoplasty). They are transmitted as strong zoospores that may be able to survive at rest in the soil for years. They can also transmit plant viruses. When mottled zoospores come into contact with root hair, they produce plasmodium, which invades the roots. Some colorless parasitic algae (e.g. *Cephaleuros*) also cause plant diseases. (quote is necessary) Parasitic plants of parasitic plants such as broomsticks, mistletoe and dodder are included in the study of phytopathology. A dodder, for example, can be a conduit for the transmission of viruses or a virus-like agent from the host plant to the plant, which is not usually the owner, or for an agent who is not a transplant. Common methods of pathogenic infection of cell wall degrading enzymes: They are used to break down the wall of plant cells in order to release nutrients inside. Toxins: They may be non-host specific that damage all plants, or host specific ones that cause damage only to the plant-host. Effective proteins: They can be secreted in extracellular environments or directly into the host cell, often through a type three secretion system. Some effectors are known to suppress host protection processes. This may include: reducing plants of internal signaling mechanisms or reducing the production of phytochemicals. Bacteria, fungus and oacetes are known for this function. Controversy: Spores of phytopathogenic fungi can be a source of infection to host plants. The spores first stick to the cuticular layer on the leaves and stems of the host plant. In order for this to occur infectious spores must be transported from the source of the pathogen, it occurs through wind, water and vectors such as insects and humans. Under favorable conditions, spores form a modified hyphae called a germ tube. This germ tube later forms a bulge appressory, which forms melanized cell walls to create *tigura* pressure. After accumulating sufficient pressure, the appressoria asserts pressure on the cokular layer in the form of a hardened binding to penetration. The secretion of secretion also helps this process walls that demean enzymes from the appressoria. After penetrating the peg enters the host's tissue he develops a specialized if called haustorium. Based on the life cycle of pathogens, this gutzoria can invade and feed neighboring cells intracellularly or extend intercellularly inside the host. Blight - Citrus Canker - Rust - Tobacco Mosaic - Mosaic of Yellow Veins Physiological Plant Disorders Main article: Physiological Plant Disorders Abiotic Disorders Can be caused by natural processes such as drought, frost, snow and hail; Flooding and poor drainage; Nutritional deficiencies; deposition of mineral salts such as sodium chloride and plaster; wind burns and breakage by storms; and wildfires. Similar disturbances (usually classified) can be caused by human intervention, resulting in soil compaction, air and soil pollution, salinity caused by irrigation and road salting, overuse of herbicides, clumsy treatment (e.g., damage to tree mowers) and vandalism. (quote needed) Orchid leaves with viral infections Epidemiology Main article: Epidemiology of Plant DiseaseEpidemiology: Exploring factors influencing the outbreak and the spread of infectious diseases. Triangle Plant Disease A tetraedre disease (pyramid disease) best captures the elements associated with plant diseases. This pyramid uses the triangle of disease as a basis consisting of elements such as the host, pathogen and environment. In addition to these three elements, people and time add the remaining elements to create tetraedra disease. History: Epidemics of plant diseases that are historically known on the basis of huge losses: - Irish potatoes of late decline - Dutch elm disease (18) - Chestnut Blight in North America Pathogen: Number of inoculum, genetics and reproduction typeThis section is empty. You can help by adding to it. (July 2017) Disease Resistance Main article: Plant Disease Resistance Resistance is the ability of plants to prevent and stop infections from plant pathogens. The structures that help plants prevent disease are: the chilling layer, cell walls and the stomat guard cells. They act as a barrier to prevent pathogens from entering the host plant. Once the disease more come these barriers, plant receptors initiate signaling pathways to create molecules to compete with foreign molecules. These pathways are influenced and caused by genes within the host plant and are subject to manipulation of genetic reproduction to create species of plants resistant to destructive pathogens. This section is empty. You can help by adding to it. (July 2017) Additional information: Pest control and antagonism (phytopathology) quarantine Sick area of vegetation or individual plants may be isolated from healthy growth. Specimens can be destroyed or moved to a greenhouse for treatment or study. Another option is to avoid the introduction of harmful non-non-positive organisms by controlling all human traffic and activities (e.g. ACIS), although legislation and enforcement are critical to long-term effectiveness. Cultural agriculture in some societies is kept on a small scale, usually by peoples whose culture includes agricultural traditions, dating back to ancient times. (An example of such traditions will be lifelong training in the methods of site terracing, weather forecasting and response, fertilization, vaccination, seed care and specialized gardening.) Plants that are carefully controlled often benefit not only from active external protection, but also from greater overall strength. Although primitive in the sense that the most laborious solution to date where practical or necessary is more than enough. Plant Sustainability Complex agricultural developments now allow growers to choose from a number of systematically interbred species to provide the greatest endurance in their crops as suitable for the pathological profile of a particular region. The practice of reproduction has been improving over the centuries, but with the advent of genetic manipulation it is possible to control even more subtly the characteristics of the immunity of the crop. The engineering of food plants may be less useful, however, as higher production is often offset by suspicions on humans and a negative view about this tampering with nature. Chemical (see: pesticide use) Many natural and synthetic compounds can be used to combat the above threats. This method works by directly eliminating pathogens or deterring their spread; however, it has been shown to have too broad an effect, usually for the local ecosystem. From an economic point of view, all but the simplest natural additives can disqualify the product from organic status, potentially reducing the cost of the crop. Biological rotation of crops can be an effective means of preventing the parasitic population from becoming well-established, as the organism that affects the leaves will starve when the leaf crop is replaced by tubular type, etc. The integrated use of two or more of these methods combined gives a higher chance of effectiveness. History Additional information: A chronology of plant pathology plant pathology has evolved since antiquity, beginning with the feophrasta, but scientific research began at the beginning of the modern period with the invention of the microscope, and in the 19th century. This section needs to be expanded. You can help by adding to it. (July 2017) See also the American Phytopathological Society of the Australian Society of Plant Pathology Biological Control with microorganisms of the British Society for Plant Pathology Burl Common Plant Names Resistance to Diseases in The Gene-for-Gene Plant Clinic Global Plant Clinic Glossary Phytopathology Herbivores Horsfall-Barratt Scale Unassuming Plant Protection From Herbivorous List of Phytopathological Journals Microbial Inculant Mico pharmacology Plant Defense Against Herbivorous Plants Disease Prediction Of zoo Academic Press. Martinelli F, Scalenghe R, Davino S, Panno S, Scuderi G, Ruisi P, Villa P, Stroppiana D, Boschetti M, Goulart LR, Davis CE (January 2015). Advanced methods of detecting plant diseases. Overview (PDF). Agronomy for sustainable development. 35 (1): 1–25. doi:10.1007/s13593-014-0246-1. S2CID 18000844. a b c Davis N (September 9, 2009). The genome of the Irish potato famine pathogen has been deciphered. Haas et al. Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard. 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Erwin Frink Smith Documents the Smith Documents Index (1854-1927), who was considered the father of bacterial plant pathology and worked for the United States Department of Agriculture for more than 40 years. 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