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## Overlap of latent pathogens in the Botryosphaeriaceae on a native and agricultural host



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#### ABSTRACT

Some species of the Botryosphaeriaceae are capable of infecting a broad range of host plants. We studied the species diversity of Botryosphaeriaceae associated with marula (Sclerocarya birrea subsp. caffra, Anacardiaceae) trees in South Africa over two seasons, as well as species common to both S. birrea and adjacent mango (Mangifera indica, Anacardiaceae) trees in a subset of sites. Gene flow amongst populations of Botryosphaeriaceae shared on these tree species was tested using microsatellite markers. Twelve species were identified from S. birrea and eleven species were found on M. indica trees. From isolations done in 2006, the dominant species on S. birrea was Neofusicoccum vitifusiforme, while N. parvum was the dominant species isolated from M. indica. Neofusicoccum parvum was dominant in isolations from both hosts in 2012. Isolates of Botryosphaeria fabicerciana, Lasiodiplodia mahajangana, L. pseudotheobromae, L. theobromae, N. mediterraneum, and N. umdonicola were also collected from both hosts. Population genetic analyses on isolates of N. parvum suggested that three populations were present, each comprising isolates from both hosts. There was significant gene flow between N. parvum populations on these hosts. This ability to infect multiple hosts and to migrate amongst them facilitates the establishment and spread of species and genotypes of the Botryosphaeriaceae, such as N. parvum, in new areas.

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#### Introduction

Fungi in the Botryosphaeriaceae are well known as endophytic and opportunistic pathogens of woody plants. These fungi

infect plants via wounds or through natural plant openings such as buds, lenticels, and stomata (Slippers & Wingfield 2007). Many species in the family have a wide range of plant hosts, including commercial fruit crops (van Niekerk et al.

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2004; Slippers et al. 2005; Chen et al. 2014), forest trees (Burgess et al. 2006b; Slippers et al. 2009), and plants in native woody ecosystems (Pavlic et al. 2007; Mehl et al. 2011; Jami et al. 2014). These fungi occur in healthy plant tissues as latent pathogens and persist endophytically until stress occurs, after which disease symptoms can manifest (Slippers & Wingfield 2007).

The spores (sexual and asexual) of Botryosphaeriaceae are principally dispersed by wind or rain splash (Swart et al. 1987; Mehl et al. 2013). Since many of the Botryosphaeriaceae have broad host ranges (Slippers & Wingfield 2007; Jami et al. 2014), these fungi can spread to and infect both related and unrelated plants. There are many examples of inter-host exchanges of the Botryosphaeriaceae, and these include those amongst and between native and non-native trees. For example, species of the Botryosphaeriaceae have been shown to move between trees in native stands of Eucalyptus (Myrtaceae) and adjacent plantations of these trees (Burgess et al. 2006b), between native waterberry trees (Syzygium cordatum; Myrtaceae) and related eucalypt plantations (Myrtaceae) (Pavlic et al. 2007), from Pinus resinosa windbreaks to pine nurseries (Stanosz et al. 2007), among various tree hosts in the Casuarinaceae, Cupressaceae, Fabaceae, Myrtaceae, Proteaceae, Santalaceae (Sakalidis et al. 2011), and among native Terminalia spp. (Combretaceae) and between these trees and Theobroma cacao (Malvaceae) (Begoude et al. 2012), amongst others.

The ability of fungi such as the Botryosphaeriaceae to infect multiple hosts, increases the threat that they pose as potential economic and ecological important pathogens of native and cultivated trees globally. In South Africa, two related tree species, the native Sclerocarya birrea subsp. caffra known locally as marula, and non-native mango (Mangifera indica), in the Anacardiaceae commonly occur in close proximity to each other.

Mangifera indica is native to India and is an important subtropical crop cultivated in various countries, including South Africa (Snyman 1998). Species of the Botryosphaeriaceae are associated with two important diseases on M. indica globally. These include stem-end rot on fruit which occurs when these fungi gain entrance via the peduncle (Johnson & Kotzé 1994) causing disease when fruits ripen or are harvested (Menge & Ploetz 2003). The Botryosphaeriaceae can also infect M. indica via wounds that occur during fruit abscission, pruning or hand-picking, or via lenticels on the fruit surface (Menge & Ploetz 2003). Another important disease known as blossom blight occurs when Botryosphaeriaceae infect the M. indica inflorescences (Ploetz 2003).

Sclerocarya birrea is an iconic native African tree with a broad geographic range that extends from Senegal through Ethiopia to South Africa and into Angola and Namibia (Peters 1988). It is extensively used by local communities and is prominent in the production of well-known liqueur (Shackleton et al. 2002). Little is known regarding the diseases of S. birrea but a few fungi (7 species) have been recorded, and none of these include the Botryosphaeriaceae. This is likely due to a very limited number of studies that have considered the fungi associated with this tree species (Doidge 1950; Crous et al. 2000; Farr & Rossman 2016).

The aims of this study were to determine which species of the Botryosphaeriaceae infect S. birrea trees in South Africa. Since S. birrea and M. indica trees are taxonomically related and grow in close proximity to each other, M. indica trees were also sampled. This was principally to determine whether species of the Botryosphaeriaceae might be common to both trees. A subsequent aim was to seek evidence of gene flow in specific species of the Botryosphaeriaceae that occur on both S. birrea and M. indica.

#### Materials and methods

#### Sample collections and isolations

Two sample collections were made in 2006 and 2012. In 2006, branches from Sclerocarya birrea trees were sampled at three locations: Skukuza/Pretoriuskop area in the Kruger National Park (Mpumalanga Province), Hans Merensky estate close to Hoedspruit (Limpopo Province), and Lakelands, Mfolozi Village in the KwaZulu-Natal Province. One hundred and forty four branches from 130 Mangifera indica trees were also sampled at the Hans Merensky estate from two orchards; one an orchard where trees were chemically treated and a second where trees were organically grown. For the former, 15 branches were sampled from the central tree and then four trees in a 10 m diagonal to this tree were sampled (one branch each). This was followed by sampling one branch from 15 trees in the vicinity of each of the four trees, making up 79 branches from 65 trees. In the organic orchard, the same strategy was used except that a single branch was sampled from the central tree, resulting in 65 branches sampled. In 2012, three to five branches per tree were collected from neighbouring S. birrea and nearby M. indica trees alongside the road between Hoedspruit and Klaserie (Limpopo Province). Two sites along this road, less than 10 km apart, were sampled and these included six M. indica trees and three S. birrea trees at the first site, and 13 M. indica trees and 14 S. birrea trees at the second site.

Isolations were made from discoloured pith tissue, leaf samples, edges of visible lesions, and from asymptomatic twigs following the method described by Pavlic et al. (2004). Isolations were made one and four weeks after sampling for the 2006 samples and two, four, six, and eight weeks after sampling for the 2012 samples. Resulting cultures were purified and isolates resembling the Botryosphaeriaceae retained for further study.

Isolates from the 2006 collections were transferred to 2 % water agar (Biolab, South Africa) overlaid with sterile pine needles and incubated under near ultraviolet light (Smith et al. 1996) at 25 °C. Fruiting structures were sectioned and spores examined microscopically to group isolates into genera. Isolates collected in 2012 were purified using single hyphal tip transfers (Mehl et al. 2011). Cultures used in this study have been maintained in the culture collection (CMW) of the Forestry and Agricultural Biotechnology Institute (FABI) at the University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa.

#### DNA extractions

DNA was extracted from all isolates collected in both 2006 and 2012 for identification using DNA sequence data comparisons. For the 2006 isolates, DNA was extracted using the method of

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