

Phylogenetic species recognition and hybridisation in Lasiodiplodia: A case study on species from baobabs



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ABSTRACT

Lasiodiplodia species (Botryosphaeriaceae, Ascomycota) infect a wide range of typically woody plants on which they are associated with many different disease symptoms. In this study, we determined the identity of Lasiodiplodia isolates obtained from baobab (Adansonia species) trees in Africa and reviewed the molecular markers used to describe Lasiodiplodia species. Publicly available and newly produced sequence data for some of the type strains of Lasiodiplodia species showed incongruence amongst phylogenies of five nuclear loci. We conclude that several of the previously described Lasiodiplodia species are hybrids of other species. Isolates from baobab trees in Africa included nine species of Lasiodiplodia and two hybrid species. Inoculation trials with the most common Lasiodiplodia species collected from these trees produced significant lesions on young baobab trees. There was also variation in aggressiveness amongst isolates from the same species. The apparently widespread tendency of Lasiodiplodia species to hybridise demands that phylogenies from multiple loci (more than two and preferably four or more) are compared for congruence prior to new species being described. This will avoid hybrids being incorrectly described as new taxa, as has clearly occurred in the past.

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Introduction

Species represent the basic units of taxonomy. However, decisions on how to define species boundaries, especially in fungi, are often problematic. Three species concepts are most commonly applied in fungal taxonomy, namely the Morphological (MSR), Biological (BSR) and Phylogenetic Species Recognition (PSR) concepts (Taylor *et al.* 2000) and all three present some challenges. Historically, fungal taxonomy has relied on the MSR concept, where species were described only when they could be distinguished based on distinct morphological characteristics (Taylor *et al.* 2000). The advent of DNA sequencing

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and an ability to apply phylogenetic inference has shown clearly that MSR has substantially underestimated the global fungal diversity (Crous et al. 2006; Schoch et al. 2014).

The BSR concept postulates that individuals of different species should be reproductively isolated (Taylor *et al.* 2000). However, there are growing numbers of examples where different species of fungi are able to cross and effectively reproduce to form hybrids. For example, a viable interspecies hybrid of *Fusarium circinatum* and *Fusarium subglutinans* has been produced under laboratory conditions (De Vos *et al.* 2011). Other examples include the hybrid poplar rust *Melampsora* × columbiana, which is a natural hybrid of *Melampsora medusae* and *Melampsora occidentalis* (Newcombe *et al.* 2000), and the hybrids between the white pine blister rust *Cronartium ribicola* and *Cronartium comandrae* (Joly *et al.* 2006). An additional problem with the BSR concept is the fact that many fungi are known only in their asexual states and it is not possible to determine whether they are able to reproduce sexually.

The PSR concept, and more specifically the Genealogical Concordance Phylogenetic Species Recognition (GCPSR) concept, is increasingly widely used to delineate species of fungi. This approach relies on determining the concordance between multiple gene genealogies and delimiting species where the branches of multiple trees display congruence (Taylor *et al.* 2000). The GCPSR ensures that species are not described based on small differences arising from within taxon variation.

The PSR has been widely applied during the last decade to describe cryptic species that could not be identified using the MSR. One example where a number of cryptic species have been described is in Lasiodiplodia, a common genus in the Botryosphaeriaceae (Phillips et al. 2013). The type species of this genus, Lasiodiplodia theobromae, has been reported from more than 500 plant species (Punithalingam 1976). This was, however, before the advent of DNA sequence-based identification (Pavlic et al. 2004; Slippers et al. 2004; Alves et al. 2008; Pavlic et al. 2009; Phillips et al. 2013). For many years L. theobromae was the only species in Lasiodiplodia, but 28 additional species have been described since 2004, based on both DNA sequence data and morphological characteristics (Pavlic et al. 2004; Burgess et al. 2006; Damm et al. 2007; Alves et al. 2008; Pavlic et al. 2008; Abdollahzadeh et al. 2010; Begoude et al. 2010; Ismail et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2012; Urbez-Torres et al. 2012; Machado et al. 2014; Netto et al. 2014; Prasher and Singh 2014; Chen et al. 2015; Linaldeddu et al. 2015; Trakunyingcharoen et al. 2015). It has also become clear that some of the reports of L. theobromae prior to 2004 represent other species of Lasiodiplodia and a new list of host species for this fungus is required.

Lasiodiplodia plurivora was the first cryptic species to be described in Lasiodiplodia (Damm et al. 2007), based on sequence variation in the internal transcribed spacer of the rDNA (ITS) and translation elongation factor-1 α (tef1- α) regions. Shortly thereafter Alves et al. (2008) described Lasiodiplodia parva and Lasiodiplodia pseudotheobromae using the same loci. Subsequently, 20 additional species have been described in the L. theobromae complex. The majority of the 24 species that are now known in this complex cannot be identified based on morphology alone. Five species consistently group outside the L. theobromae species complex, namely Lasiodiplodia crassispora, Lasiodiplodia gonubiensis, Lasiodiplodia pyriformis, Lasiodiplodia rubropurpurea, and Lasiodiplodia venezuelensis (Pavlic et al. 2004; Burgess et al. 2006; Slippers et al. 2014).

The PSR concept provides the most powerful means to distinguish between taxa, also in terms of practical uses in quarantine and disease management. Unfortunately this approach is not without problems, especially where only a few loci are used. For example, hybridisation cannot always be recognised if sequences of only one (and often even two) loci have been considered. This is an important consideration because many fungi have the capacity to hybridize through sexual reproduction or exchange genetic material through anastomosis (fusion) of their vegetative hyphae in a parasexual cycle (Olson & Stenlid 2002; Schardl & Craven 2003; Stukenbrock 2016).

There are different possible outcomes of hybridisation in fungi, but only the two outcomes most applicable to this study will be discussed. The first and probably most common is introgression, where the hybrids in the population transfer novel genes to the parent population through backcrosses and the hybrid isolates eventually disappear from the population (Brasier 1995). The second outcome is the establishment of hybrid species that remain stable in the environment (Brasier 1995). These species are then described as nothospecies and indicated as hybrids with the symbol ' \times ' as was done for M. × columbiana (Newcombe et al. 2000), Phytophthora × alni, Phytophthora × multiformis (Husson et al. 2015), and Phytophthora ×pelgrandis (Nirenberg et al. 2009). It is important to indicate when a new species being described is a hybrid as these species can cause incongruence between different trees of different loci (Schardl & Craven 2003).

Lasiodiplodia occurs globally on woody plants in the tropics and sub-tropics (Punithalingam 1976). Species in the genus have been associated with many different plant diseases including fruit and root rots, die-back of branches and stem cankers (Burgess et al. 2006; Sakalidis et al. 2011a; Ismail et al. 2012; Urbez-Torres et al. 2012). Lasiodiplodia species have many different plant hosts, but pertinent to this study, they are also wellknown on the iconic Baobab (Adansonia species), native to Africa and Australia (Roux 2002; Sakalidis et al. 2011a). In pathogenicity tests on the Australian baobab (Adansonia gregorii), Lasiodiplodia iraniensis and Lasiodiplodia mahajangana were shown to cause stem lesions and root rot (Sakalidis et al. 2011a).

The aims of this study were to identify species of *Lasiodiplodia* on baobab trees in Africa and to assess their ability to cause disease. We also evaluated the suitability of using sequence data from different nuclear loci for species delimitation in *Lasiodiplodia*. Using this information, all species in the genus were reassessed. The possible occurrence of hybrid *Lasiodiplodia* isolates from baobab trees, as well as in the previously described species was a specific focus.

Materials and methods

Sample collection and isolations

South Africa

Plant tissue samples from which to isolate endophytic Botryosphaeriaceae from baobab trees (Adansonia digitata s.l.) were collected during three surveys conducted in the Limpopo

Province of South Africa (Fig 1, Table 1). The first collections were made in the Soutpansberg and Musina areas in June 2007 and this was followed by sampling in the Venda area and Kruger National Park (KNP) in February 2009. A third collection was made in April 2010 and this extended from the Musina area towards the west and south. Endophyte isolations from the first collection trip were made after surface disinfestation of branch tissue with 5 % HOCl, rinsing in sterile distilled H₂O, disinfesting with 70 % EtOH and again rinsing in sterile distilled H₂O, each for 1 min. Branch samples were then cut into approximately 5 \times 5 mm pieces and plated onto 2 % MEA amended with streptomycin. Surface disinfestation of samples collected during the second and third surveys was done by immersing plant tissue in 5 % H₂O₂ for 5 min, followed by rinsing three times in sterile H₂O for 1 min each, after which the samples were cut and plated as described above.

Botswana and Namibia

Branch samples were collected from 12 and 51 Adansonia digitata s.l. trees in Botswana and Namibia, respectively (Fig 1, Table 1), from September—October 2007. Isolations for endophytic fungi were made after surface disinfestation with HOCl and EtOH as described above.

Madagascar

During October 2007, branch and bark samples were collected from five of the seven species of baobab trees occurring in Madagascar. Samples were collected from 77 trees (Fig 1, Table 1) and endophyte isolations were made after surface disinfestation with 5 % H₂O₂.

Cameroon

In December 2009, branch and bark samples were collected from 34 baobab trees in three areas in Cameroon (Fig 1, Table 1) and endophytic fungi were isolated as described above after surface disinfestation with $5 \% H_2O_2$.

Benin and Senegal

Bark and branch samples were obtained from Dr. Aida Cuni Sanchez in January and August 2008 from Senegal and Benin (Fig 1, Table 1). Endophytic fungi were isolated from these samples after surface disinfestation with 5 % H_2O_2 , as described above.

Zimbabwe

Bark samples were collected from ten baobab trees from the northern part of the country during July 2010. Endophytic fungi were isolated from these samples after surface disinfestation with 5 % H_2O_2 , as described above.

Mozambique

During August 2010, bark samples were collected from six baobab trees. Endophytic fungi were isolated from these samples after surface disinfestation with 5 % H₂O₂, as described above.



Fig 1 – Map of Africa, indicating areas sampled in southern Africa, West Africa, and Madagascar. Numbers of sample areas correspond to column 3 in Table 1.

Table 1 – Samples collected from baobab trees in southern Africa, West Africa, and Madagascar.								
Date	Country	Area on map (Fig 1)	Nr. of trees sampled	Twigs/Bark	Diseased/Healthy			
June 2007	South Africa – Musina	1; 2	37	Twigs	Discolouration in wood			
Sept. 2007	Botwsana — Nxai pan	3	9	Twigs	Healthy			
Oct. 2007	Namibia – Tsumkwe	4	14	Twigs	Many diseased			
Oct. 2007	Namibia – Joubert mountains	5	32	Twigs	Healthy			
	Namibia — Epupa	6	5	Twigs	Healthy			
	Botswana – Chobe	7	3	Twigs	Stressed			
Oct. 2007	Madagascar — Andranoboka ^{a,b}	14	15	Twigs & bark	Not visibly diseased			
	Madagascar — Antseza	15	18	Twigs & bark	Not visibly diseased			
	Madagascar — Morondava ^{a,c}	17	16	Bark	Not visibly diseased			
	Madagascar — Andranomena ^{a,d}	16	20	Bark	Not visibly diseased			
	Madagascar — Andranomena ^{a,e}	16	8	Bark	Not visibly diseased			
Jan. 2008	Senegal – Fatick	18	1	Twigs & bark	Healthy			
			6	Twigs & bark	Diseased			
	Senegal — Thies	19	3	Twigs & bark	Healthy			
			15	Twigs & bark	Diseased			
Feb. 2008	South Africa – Venda	8	14	Twigs	Mostly healthy			
	South Africa – Kruger National Park	9	31	Bark	Elephant damage			
Aug. 2008	Benin — Materi	20	3	Twigs & Bark	Diseased			
	Benin — Bogo bogo	21	1	Bark	Healthy			
	Benin		10	Twigs & Bark	Diseased			
Dec. 2009	Cameroon – Solawel/Figuil	22	4	Bark	Healthy			
	Cameroon — Maroua	23	9	Bark	Healthy			
	Cameroon — Lombel	24	21	Bark	Healthy			
Apr. 2010	South Africa – Musina area	2	41	Bark	Healthy			
	South Africa – Musina-Alldays	10	9	Bark	Healthy			
	South Africa – Lephalale	11	5	Bark	Healthy			
July 2010	Zimbabwe – Hurungu & Chewore	12	10	Bark	Healthy			
Aug. 2010	Mozambique – Monapo	13	6	Bark	Healthy			

a Adansonia species sampled not A. digitata.

b A. madagascariensis.

c A. grandidieri.

d A. rubrostipa.

e A. za.

Plates (MEA) were incubated at 25 °C for seven days and checked daily for fungal growth. Pure cultures were made by transferring hyphal tips of the fungi appearing to represent the Botryosphaeriaceae to clean MEA plates. Selected isolates from each region were deposited in the culture collection (CMW) of the Forestry and Agricultural Biotechnology Institute (FABI), University of Pretoria, South Africa.

DNA extraction, PCR amplification, and sequencing

Available isolates of previously described Lasiodiplodia species (Table 2) were obtained for this study. Isolates of five species described from Brazil (Lasiodiplodia brasiliense, Lasiodiplodia euphorbiicola, Lasiodiplodia jatrophicola, Lasiodiplodia macrospora, and Lasiodiplodia subglobosa) and one species from India (Lasiodiplodia indica) could not be obtained. Isolates of two species that were described during 2015, were also not included. These were Lasiodiplodia americana from the United States of America, which has subsequently been reduced to synonymy with Lasiodiplodia exigua (Rodríguez-Gálvez et al. 2017) and Lasiodiplodia thailandica (Trakunyingcharoen et al. 2015) from Thailand. The ex-type isolate of Lasiodiplodia laeliocattleyae was not included in this study, however the ex-type isolate of Lasiodiplodia egyptiacae, which was recently reduced to synonymy with L. laeliocattleyae (Rodríguez-Gálvez et al. 2017), was included.

All isolates, including those from baobabs, were grown for 7 d at 25 °C on 2 % MEA, after which mycelium was scraped from the surfaces of the medium and freeze dried. Freeze dried mycelium was ground to a powder and DNA was extracted as described by Möller *et al.* (1992). DNA was amplified with PCR using commonly applied primers (Table 3).

The ITS and $tef1-\alpha$ gene regions were amplified for all Lasiodiplodia isolates from baobab trees. A sub-set of isolates from different geographic areas with different ITS and $tef1-\alpha$ sequences were further characterised by amplifying and sequencing the β -tubulin 2 (tub2) and RNA polymerase subunit II (*rpb2*) gene regions. The tub2, calmodulin (*cmdA*) and *rpb2* gene regions were also sequenced for all available isolates of previously described species. New primers (Table 3) were developed for the *rpb2* region, because the primers normally used for the *Botryosphaeriaceae* were not effective for Lasiodiplodia. The new forward primer binds at the same position as the primer developed by Sakalidis *et al.* (2011b) with one base pair that was changed. The reverse primer binds four base pairs away from the primer developed by Sakalidis *et al.* (2011b).

All amplification reactions consisted of 1.5 U MyTaq[™] DNA Polymerase (Bioline, London, UK), 5 µL MyTaq PCR reaction buffer, 0.2 µM of each primer and 50 ng template DNA (made up to a total volume of 25 µL with PCR grade water). PCR conditions were 2 min at 95 °C, followed by 35 cycles of 30 s at 94 °C, 30 s at 52–54 °C (depending on gene region), 1 min at

<table-container> Species Iolate no. CMW no. Mycoban Courty Host Courty Res Courty Res <t< th=""><th>Table 2 – Isolates o</th><th>f existing Lasiod</th><th>liplodia species</th><th>included in a</th><th>nalyses.</th><th></th><th></th><th></th><th></th><th></th><th></th></t<></table-container>	Table 2 – Isolates o	f existing Lasiod	liplodia species	included in a	nalyses.						
	Species	Isolate no.	CMW no.	Mycobank	Country	Host		GenBan	k accession r	numbers	
<table-container> beside CMM 90% Memory is an impact of the sector of the</table-container>							ITS	tef1- α	tub2	cmdA	rpb2
CMM 230	L. brasiliense	CMM 4015 ^a		MB807525	Brazil	 Mangifera indica	JX464063	JX464049			
L-chirolaCMW 3584CMW 3094MilagenceAdarsonia madagencemicKU88709KU88708<		CMM 2320			Brazil	Carica papaya	KC484814	KC481544			
L chrinola CIS 12470° CIW 3706 MS1677 Infa CIV sp. 0045354 0045359 KU88705 KU88706 KU96850 L crasisopra CIS 11874' CIW 1461 MS5025 Austalia CIV sp. 0010355 0010355 KU88706 KU8870 KU96850 CIW 3807 KU88707 KU88707 KU88707 KU968502 L caphorbitola CIS 11874' CIW 1461 MS5025 Austalia CIV sp. 0010355 0010355 KU88707			CMW 35884		Madagascar	Adansonia madagascariensis	KU887094	KU886972	KU887466	KU886755	KU696345
CBS 124706 CMW 37047 rnn Clrus n. CUPU 305 CUPU 3055 KUB8759 KUB8758	L. citricola	CBS 124707 ^a	CMW 37046	MB16777	Iran	Citrus sp.	GU945354	GU945340	KU887505	KU886760	KU696351
L crassispora CBS 113/21 CMW 14691 ME9025 Australia Santalum album DQ103550 DQ103557 RU382706 RU382706 RU382706 RU382706 RU382706 RU382707		CBS 124706	CMW 37047		Iran	Citrus sp.	GU945353	GU945339	KU887504	KU886759	KU696350
L. cughorbicola CMW 19488 Vernezuela Euclivptis turphylla D.013552 D.013552 D.013552 KU885707 KU885752 L. cughorbicola CMW 3051 MB804872 Brazil J. curcais KF234543 KT226698 KT226698 KT226698 KT226698 KT236543 KT226698 KT286574 KU88756 KU88757 KU88757 KU88576 KU88577 KU88576 KU88577 KU88576 KU88577 KU8	L. crassispora	CBS 118741 ^a	CMW 14691	MB500235	Australia	Santalum album	DO103550	DO103557	KU887506	KU886761	KU696353
L explorbiicola CMM 3009" MB804872 Brazil Jurrogia curcas K723453 K723653 K72355 K723755 K72355 K723755 K723755 K72355 K72355 K725355 K725555			CMW 13488		Venezuela	Eucalyntus uronhylla	DO103552	DO103559	KU887507	KU886762	KU696352
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$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $			CMW 36231		Zimbabwe	A digitata	KU887187	KU887063	KI 1887494	KU886756	KU696347
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	(I amoricana)	CEPC 1061 ^a		MP910024		D yora	VD217050	VD217067	VD217075		
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	Lanuhianaja	CDC 11E0108	CM31 14077	MPE00070	Couth Africa	F. Veru	DO4E9902	DO4E9977	DO4E9960	VI100C7C0	VIICOC2EO
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L. harica IbP 01 MB8 10909 India Wood KM3/151 L. irariensis CBS 124/11 CMW 37051 MB1750 Iran Suldara persica GU945348 GU945335 KU887517 KU886772 KU696362 (L. jatrophicola) CMW 3601° MB04809 Brazil J. curcas KE234544 KF226690 KU887501 KU886758 KU696349 L. haliocattleyae CSS 13092° CMW 40523 Mozambique A. digitata KU887121 KU886798 KU886758 KU696344 L. lagitocattleyae CSS 13092° CMW 40932 MB564516 Egypt M. indica JN81497 JN814424 KU887501 KU886758 KU696344 L. laginola CSS 130492° CMW 40932 MB804811 frailand dead wood JX646798 KU887518 KU886758 KU696344 L. marjarinzaea CSS 124210° CMW 4933 MB804871 Brazil J. curcas KF234597 KV246718 KV246494 KU696364 L. marjarinzaea CSS 124925° CMW 27816 Madag		CBS 124/08	CMW 40931	10040000	Iran	M. indica	GU945356	GU945344	KU887514	KU886769	KU696360
Li rardierisis CBS 124710° CMW 37051 MB16780 Iran Satuadora persica CU945348 CU945348 CU945335 KU88771 KU886772 KU696363 (L. jatrophicola) CMM 3610° MB804869 Brazil J. curcas KF23454 KF226690 KF254927	L. indica	IBP 01		MB810909	India	wood	KM3/6151				
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$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $			CMW 36237		Mozambique	A. digitata	KU887121	KU886998	KU887499	KU886757	KU696348
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $			CMW 36239		Mozambique	A. digitata	KU887123	KU887000	KU887501	KU886758	KU696349
	L. laeliocattleyae	CBS 130992 ^a	CMW 40930	MB564516	Egypt	M. indica	JN814397	JN814424	KU887508	KU886763	KU696354
L. lignicolaCBS 134112*CMW 40932MB801317Thailanddead woodJX646797KU88703JX646845KU696364MFLUCC 11-0657MB805462Thailanddead woodJX646798JX646798JX646798JX646845JX646845JX646845L. macrosporaCMM 383*aMB804871BrazilJ. curcasKF234557KF226718KF254941KU88753KU886773KU696355L. margaritaceaCBS 124926CMW 27818MadagascarTerminalia catappaFJ900596FJ900641KU887518KU886774KU696365L. margaritaceaCBS 12519*CMW 43392MB514012AustraliaA. gregoriiEU144050EU144055KU887520KU886776KU696367L. missourianaCBS 12787*CMW 43392MB519954USACatawbaHQ288226HQ288267HQ288304KU886778KU696369L. parvaCBS 128311°CMW 40933MB519954USACatawbaHQ288226HQ288268HQ288305KU886779KU696372L. plurivoraCBS 12082*CMW 40937MB501322South AfricaPrunus salicinaEF622083EF622063KU887523KU886781KU696372L. plurivoraCBS 12082*CMW 40939MB501322South AfricaPrunus salicinaEF42302EF445395KU887525KU886781KU696372L. plurivoraCBS 12082*CMW 40939MB501322South AfricaPrunus salicinaEF423052EF445395KU887525KU886781KU696375L. purivora	(L. egyptiacae)	BOT-29			Egypt	M. indica	JN814401	JN814428			
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$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	L. mediterranea	CBS 137783 ^a	CMW 43392	MB808356	Italy	Quercus ilex	KJ638312	KJ638331	KU887521	KU886776	KU696368
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		CBS 121771	CMW 25415		Namibia	A. mellifera	EU101308	EU101353	KU887528	KU886787	KU696379

L. rubropurpurea	CBS 118740 ^a	CMW 14700	MB500236	Australia	E. grandis	DQ103553	DQ103571	EU673136	KU886788	KU696380
	WAL 12350			Australia	E. granais					L D D D D D D D D D D D D D D D D D D D
L. subglobosa	CMM 3872 ^a		MB804870	Brazil	J. curcas	KF234558	KF226721	KF254942		
	CMM 4046			Brazil	J. curcas	KF234560	KF226723	KF254944		
L. thailandica	CBS 138760		MB810169	Thailand	M. indica	KP217058	KP217066			
	CBS 138653			Thailand	Phyllanthus acidus	KJ193637	KJ193681			
L. theobromae	CBS 164.96 ^a	CMW 40942	MB188476	New Guinea	Fruit on coral reef coast	AY640255	AY640258	KU887532	KU886789	KU696383
	CBS 111530	CMW 40953		Unknown	Unknown	EF622074	EF622054	KU887531	KU886790	KU696382
L. venezuelensis	CBS 118739 ^a	CMW 13511	MB500237	Venezuela	A. mangium	DQ103547	DQ103568	KU887533	KU886791	KU696384
	WAC 12540	CMW 13512		Venezuela	A. mangium	DQ103548	DQ103569	KU887534	KU886792	
L. viticola	CBS 128313 ^a	CMW 40944	MB519955	USA	hybrid grape Vignoles	HQ288227	HQ288269	HQ288306	KU886793	KU696385
	CBS 128314	CMW 41372		USA	Chardonel	HQ288228	HQ288270	HQ288307	KU886794	KU696386
Botryosphearia dothidea	CBS 115476	CMW 8000		Switzerland	Prunus sp.	KF766151	AY236898			DQ677944
BOT: A. M. Ismail, Plant CERC: Culture collection CMM: Culture Collection CMW: Culture collection CMW: Culture collection CBS: Centraalbureau voo MFLUCC: Mae Fah Luang	Pathology Resear of China Eucalyp of Phytopathogei of the Forestry ai r Schimmelcultui University Cultui	ch Institute, Egypt. t Research Centre, nic Fungi 'Prof. Ma nd Agricultural Bic res, Utrecht, The N re Collection, Chia	, Chinese Acade , Chinese Acade , ria Menezes', L otechnology Ins , Ietherlands. , ngRai, Thailan,	my of Forestry, Zl Iniversidade Feder titute (FABI), Univ d.	nanjiang, GuangDong, China. "al Rural de Pernambuco, Recife ersity of Pretoria, Pretoria, Sout	, Brazil. h Africa.				

72 °C, and a last extension step of 8 min at 72 °C. PCR products were visualised on a 1 % agarose gel stained with GelRed (Biotium, Hayward, California, USA) and successful PCR products were purified with Exosap (Mixture of Exonuclease I and FastAP Alkaline Phosphatase) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) following the manufacturer's specifications.

DNA sequencing was conducted with the ABI Prism[®] Big Dye[™] Terminator 3.1 Ready Reaction Cycle sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Sequences were determined with an ABI PRISMTM 3100 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems) at the University of Pretoria. The same primer sets as those used for PCR amplification were utilised. Forward and reverse sequences were assembled with CLC Main workbench v.6.1 (CLC Bio, www.clcbio.com).

Phylogenetic analyses

Sequences of the type strains of all Lasiodiplodia species on GenBank (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) were downloaded and aligned with newly generated sequences using the MAFFT v.7 server (http://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/server/) and manually adjusted where necessary. Botryosphaeria dothidea was used as the outgroup taxon in all analyses other than for cmdA, which was midpoint rooted. This exception was necessary because there were no closely related sequences for cmdA available on GenBank. Individual trees of existing species were first generated and the best substitution models were determined for each dataset with jModeltest v.2.1.3 using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) (Guindon & Gascuel 2003; Darriba et al. 2012). Maximum Likelihood (ML) analyses were done with PhyML v.3.0 (Guindon & Gascuel 2003) and 1000 bootstrap replicates were run to determine confidence levels for the branches. PHYLIP v.3.6 (Felsenstein 2005) was used to generate consensus trees using the consense option. Maximum parsimony (MP) analyses were performed using PAUP v.4.0 beta 10 (Swofford 2003) with Tree Bisection-Reconnection (TBR), with ten trees saved per replicate and with 1000 bootstrap replicates. Bayesian inference, based on a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach, was performed in MrBayes v.3.1.2 (Ronquist & Huelsenbeck 2003), with 1 000 000 generations, sampled every 100 generations. Burnin values were determined using Microsoft Excel 2013. All sampled trees having lower values than the burn-in were discarded.

Re-evaluation of existing Lasiodiplodia species identified hybrid isolates and species. These were not included in further analyses. A combined dataset of tub2, ITS, $tef1-\alpha$ and rpb2 was generated to identify the species from baobabs. The same analyses were applied as described above to generate phylogenetic trees.

Pathogenicity trials

WAC: Department of Agriculture Western Australia Plant Pathogen Collection, South Perth, Western Australia

Ex-type strain.

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Baobab seeds (Adansonia digitata s.l.) were treated with hot water overnight and placed in germination trays with a mixture of sand, top soil and potting soil. After germination, the seedlings were transplanted into larger containers in a mixture of sand: top soil: potting soil (50:25:25). Trees were grown in containers for three years.

Lasiodiplodia isolates of different species and from different regions were selected to test whether any of the species are

Table 3 – Primers used to amplify selected gene regions.						
Primer name	Sequence	Reference				
ITS1-F	5'-CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA-3'	Gardes & Bruns (1993)				
ITS4	5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3'	White et al.(1990)				
EF1-688F	5'-CGGTCACTTGATCTACAAGTGC-3'	Alves et al. (2008)				
EF1-1251R	5'-CCTCGAACTCACCAGTACCG-3'	Alves et al. (2008)				
Bt2a	5'-GGTAACCAAATCGGTGCTGCTTTC-3'	Glass & Donaldson (1995)				
Bt2b	5'-ACCCTCAGTGTAGTGACCCTTGGC-3'	Glass & Donaldson (1995)				
rpb2-LasF	5'-GGTAGCGACGTCACTCCT-3'	This study				
rpb2-LasR	5'-GCGCAAATACCCAGAATCAT-3'	This study				
CAL-228F	5'-GAGTTCAAGGAGGCCTTCTCCC-3'	Carbone & Kohn (1999)				
CAL-737R	5'-CATCTTTCTGGCCATCATGG-3'	Carbone & Kohn (1999)				

pathogenic to baobab trees. Variability in virulence between isolates of the species that were most commonly isolated from baobab trees was also tested. A total of 13 Lasiodiplodia isolates including Lasiodiplodia euphorbiicola (3 isolates), Lasiodiplodia iraniensis (1 isolate), Lasiodiplodia jatrophicola (1 isolate), Lasiodiplodia mahajangana (6 isolates), and Lasiodiplodia pseudotheobromae (2 isolates) were selected from amongst isolates from baobabs in southern Africa for use in pathogenicity trials. Isolates were grown on 2 % MEA for 7 d. A 5 mm-diameter cork borer was used to cut holes approximately 5 mm deep in the stems of the trees about 10 cm above ground level. Using the same size cork borer, discs of agar covered in mycelium were cut from actively growing cultures (one-week-old) and these were placed in the wounds on the plant stems. The inoculation sites were sealed with parafilm to minimize desiccation and to reduce chances of contamination. A randomised block design was generated with www.randomization.com and ten replicates per treatment were used. Non-colonised 2 % MEA was used for the controls. The trial was left for six weeks after which the lesions were measured and fungi reisolated. Statistical significance of the data was determined with a single factor ANOVA followed by a Duncan multiple range test in Microsoft Excel 2010.

Results

Sample collection and isolation

Endophyte isolations yielded a total of 420 isolates that resembled Lasiodiplodia species based on culture morphology. A total of 130 isolates were obtained from South Africa, 26 from Botswana, 30 from Namibia, 5 from Zimbabwe, 7 from Mozambique and 104 from Madagascar. From West Africa 59 isolates were obtained from Cameroon, 30 from Senegal and 29 from Benin. Of these, 320 were selected for further identification by DNA sequencing, after excluding multiple isolates from the same trees. The isolations from tissue samples that had been surface disinfested with H_2O_2 yielded more than double the number of Lasiodiplodia cultures than those where HOCl and EtOH were used. This may account for the low numbers of isolates obtained from Namibia and Botswana and from the first sampling trip in South Africa (20 isolates).

Phylogenetic analyses

Alignment of sequences for previously described species yielded datasets of 461 bp, 517 bp, 423 bp, 532 bp, and 510 bp for the ITS, *tef1-* α , tub2, *rpb2*, and *cmdA*, respectively. The alignment of the *tef1-* α sequences was the most problematic, due to a large amount of variability within the intron 3 region, and minor manual adjustments were made where necessary. The *tef1-* α sequence for *Lasiodiplodia lignicola* on GenBank (JX646862) did not group within *Lasiodiplodia* and is deemed to be an incorrect sequence for this isolate. A new *tef1-* α sequence (KU887003) was generated from the ex-type strain and used in analyses.

Phylogenetic analyses of sequences from the ITS (Fig 2A) and tub2 (Fig 2B) loci did not differentiate between all Lasiodiplodia species. Analyses of rpb2 sequences (Fig 2C) could distinguish between most Lasiodiplodia species other than Lasiodiplodia parva and Lasiodiplodia euphorbiicola, and Lasiodiplodia brasiliense, Lasiodiplodia laeliocattleyae, Lasiodiplodia theobromae, as well as Lasiodiplodia mediterranea, Lasiodiplodia missouriana, and Lasiodiplodia viticola. The most variable locus was tef1- α (Fig 2D) which could distinguish between most species, but not between L. brasiliense and L. viticola or between Lasiodiplodia iraniensis and Lasiodiplodia jatrophicola. The cmdA (Fig 2E) dataset appeared to distinguish between species better than ITS and tub2. None of the loci tested could distinguish between all of the currently described species and a combination of loci was, therefore, needed to identify Lasiodiplodia to species level.

The trees from individual loci (Fig 2) for previously described species showed concordance between tub2, cmdA, ITS, and rpb2. In the tef1- α tree, some species failed to show the same groupings found in the other phylogenetic trees and were not considered congruent. These included the *L*. theobromae group (including *L*. brasiliense and *L*. laeliocattleyae), Lasiodiplodia pseudotheobromae group (including *L*. iraniensis and *L*. jatrophicola) and the *L*. mediterranea group (including *L*. missouriana and *L*. viticola). The incongruence of the species in the tef1- α tree could be explained only by accepting that some of these species, as represented by the ex-type isolates, were hybrids.

Based on the ITS dataset, L. theobromae was identical to L. laeliocattleyae, L. brasiliense, and Lasiodiplodia hormozganensis; tub2, cmdA, and rpb2 also grouped L. theobromae and L.



Fig 2 – Maximum likelihood trees of currently described *Lasiodiplodia* species based on partial (A) ITS, (B) tub2, (C) rpb2, (D) tef1- α , and (E) cmdA gene sequences. Sequences in bold, as well as all cmdA sequences, were obtained during this study. Bootstrap values above 70 % (indicated as ML/MP) are given at the nodes. Branches with Bayesian posterior probabilities of more than 0.95 are printed in bold. Trees A–D were rooted with B. dothidea and E was midpoint rooted.

laeliocattleyae together. An ex-type isolate of *L*. brasiliense was not available to generate tub2, cmdA, and rpb2 sequences, but an isolate (CMW 35884) from baobab grouped with the extype isolate of this species based on ITS and tef1- α , and this isolate showed similarity to *L*. theobromae on tub2, cmdA, and rpb2. Lasiodiplodia hormozganensis was a sister species to *L*. theobromae based on tub2, cmdA, and rpb2, but not based on tef1- α .

Lasiodiplodia pseudotheobromae grouped with L. iraniensis based on ITS and tub2, while rpb2 and cmdA separated L. pseudotheobromae from L. iraniensis, but still grouped them as sister species. While tef1- α also separated L. pseudotheobromae from L. iraniensis, it did not group them as sister species. The tef1- α locus also did not distinguish L. jatrophicola from L. iraniensis, as occurs with the ITS, tub2, cmdA, and rpb2 sequences. Although an ex-type isolate of L. jatrophicola was not available for rpb2 and cmdA sequencing, several isolates from baobab trees (CMW 36237, CMW 36239) grouped with the ex-type isolate of this species based on its tef1- α and ITS sequences.

Lasiodiplodia iraniensis showed some variability within the species based on rpb2 and cmdA sequences. The ex-type isolate of *L*. iraniensis (CBS 124710) consistently grouped separate from *L*. jatrophicola based on ITS, tub2, cmdA, and rpb2. However, the paratype isolate (CBS 124711) grouped with the ex-type isolate in ITS, but grouped between *L*. iraniensis and *L*. jatrophicola based on cmdA, and was identical to *L*. jatrophicola based on rpb2. This may indicate gene flow and supports the synonymy of *L*. jatrophicola with *L*. iraniensis based on a phylogeny of combined ITS and tef1- α data by Rodríguez-Gálvez et al. (2017).

When considering the tub2, rpb2, and cmdA sequences L. missouriana, L. mediterranea, and L. viticola were identical. Although ITS separated the three species, it grouped them in a single clade. The tef1- α locus grouped the three species close

to three other unrelated species and not as sister species, as would be expected based on the *tub2*, *rpb2*, *cmdA*, and ITS loci.

The trees from the individual loci in conjunction with a decision tree (Fig 3) were used to determine which of the currently described species are hybrids, and this approach was also taken for the isolates from baobab trees. To give one example, isolate CMW 33342 grouped with *Lasiodiplodia mahajangana* based on ITS and tef1- α and with *L. euphorbiicola* based on tub2 and rpb2. This would place it in the category of multiple incongruent genes that grouped it with non-sister species and it is, therefore, identified as a hybrid.

The ex-type strains of *L*. brasiliense, *L*. laeliocattleyae, *L*. missouriana, and *L*. viticola displayed incongruence between all other loci and tef1- α , grouping with distant species in the phylogenies of different loci. Following the logic provided by the decision tree in Fig 3, these isolates were considered hybrids. The species names are consequently invalid and they are designated here as hybrid species. All isolates identified as *L*. brasiliense, *L*. laeliocattleyae, *L*. missouriana, and *L*. viticola were identified based on tef1- α , which is where the incongruence with other genes emerge and as such they must also be hybrids. Isolates from baobab trees that appeared to be hybrids are not described as hybrid species because they could be transient hybrid isolates that may yet disappear.

Taxonomy

Based on comparison of ITS, tef1- α , tub2, rpb2, and cmdA gene regions for the ex-type isolates, L. laeliocattleyae, L. brasiliense, L. missouriana, and L. viticola are designated as hybrid species and are described as follows:

Lasiodiplodia ×laeliocattleyae A.M. Ismail, L. Lombard & Crous nothosp., Australas. Plant Path. 41: 655 (2012).



Fig 3 – Decision tree used together with multiple single gene phylogenies to identify hybrids amongst Lasiodiplodia isolates. Species and isolates used as examples correlate to Fig 2 and Table 4.

MycoBank MB564516

Lasiodiplodia laeliocattleyae was described from the Laeliocattleya orchid in Italy (Rodríguez-Gálvez et al. 2017) and has also been reported from Mangifera indica (Mango) in Egypt, Jatropha curcas in Brazil (Machado et al. 2014) and Adansonia grandidieri in Madagascar (this study). This species has conidial sizes that overlap with those of L. theobromae, although the conidia of L. laeliocattleyae are slightly smaller than those reported for L. theobromae. DNA sequences of L. theobromae and L. laeliocattleyae are identical based on ITS, rpb2, and cmdA and there is a one base pair difference in the tub2 gene between L. theobromae and L. laeliocattleyae sequences. However, the tef1- α sequences of these two species group them as distantly related, non-sister groups. Therefore, L. laeliocattleyae is considered a hybrid of L. theobromae and another species, possibly L. parva or L. citricola.

Lasiodiplodia ×brasiliense M.S.B. Netto, M.W. Marques & A.J.L. Phillips nothosp., Fungal Divers. 67: 134 (2014). MycoBank MB807525

Lasiodiplodia brasiliense was described from Carica papaya and M. indica in Brazil (Netto et al. 2014). It has also been reported from Tectona grandis in Thailand (Doilom et al. 2015), strawberries in Turkey (Yildiz et al. 2014) and A. madagascariensis in Madagascar (this study). The conidial sizes of L. theobromae and L. brasiliense overlap, although the conidia of L. brasiliense are slightly smaller than those reported for L. theobromae. Based on ITS, rpb2, and cmdA sequences L. theobromae and L. brasiliense are identical, while there is only one base pair difference between them in sequences of the tub2 locus. Based on the tef1- α dataset, L. brasiliense is identical to L. viticola and groups as a sister species to L. theobromae. The hybrid Lasiodiplodia ×brasiliense described here could have arisen from hybridisation between L. theobromae and another currently unknown species.

Lasiodiplodia ×missouriana J.R. Úrbez-Torres, F. Peduto & W.D. Gubler nothosp. Fungal Divers. 52: 181 (2012). MycoBank MB519954

Lasiodiplodia missouriana was described from grape cultivars in the USA (Urbez-Torres et al. 2012). In the current study *L*. missouriana grouped with *L*. mediterranea and the hybrid species *L*. viticola based on tub2, cmdA, ITS, and rpb2 sequences, but based on tef1- α it grouped with *L*. gilanensis with only one base pair difference. Therefore, isolates of the hybrid species *L*. ×missouriana described here appear to have arisen through a hybridisation between *L*. mediterranea and *L*. gilanensis.

Lasiodiplodia ×viticola J.R. Úrbez-Torres, F. Peduto & W.D. Gubler nothosp. Fungal Divers. 52: 183. 2012. MycoBank MB519955

Lasiodiplodia viticola was described from grape cultivars (Urbez-Torres et al. 2012), and has also been found on M. indica in Brazil (Marques et al. 2013). Based on tub2, cmdA, ITS and rpb2 sequences for the ex-type isolate the hybrid species L. \times viticola, defined here, groups with L. mediterranea and hybrid

species L. ×missouriana. However, based on tef1- α it is identical to hybrid species L. ×brasiliense that is closely related to L. the obromae, as discussed above. Isolates of Lasiodiplodia ×viticola have probably arisen from hybridization between L. mediterranea and L. theobromae. Grape is a known host of L. theobromae (Úrbez-Torres & Gubler 2009) and also of L. mediterranea (Linaldeddu et al. 2015) and co-infection of this host by the two species may have provided the opportunity for the hybridization.

Identification of isolates from baobab trees

The individual trees for ITS, tef1- α , tub2, and *rpb2* sequence datasets for the baobab isolates were compared and 30 hybrid isolates from baobabs excluded (Table 4). The individual trees, as well as a combined dataset for the tub2, ITS, tef1- α , and *rpb2* sequences were then used to identify Lasiodiplodia species from baobab trees. The combined dataset contained 1772 base pairs, of which 1410 characters were constant and 217 characters were parsimony-informative, while 145 variable characters were parsimony uninformative. Maximum Parsimony analyses yielded a tree (Fig 4) having a RI = 0.92, CI = 0.76 and HI = 0.244, and a tree length of 545. The best model selected for Maximum Likelihood analyses for the combined dataset was TrN + G.

Table 4 – Hybrid Lasiodiplodia isolates from baobab trees,
indicating which species isolates grouped with based on
different gene regions.

Isolate	Country	ITS	tef1-α	tub2	rpb2
CMW 33258	Senegal	М	Eu	Eu	Eu
CMW 33280	Benin	М	М	Eu	М
CMW 33283	Benin	М	Eu	Eu	Eu
CMW 33293	Benin	М	Eu	Eu	Eu
CMW 33342	SA	М	М	Eu	Eu
CMW 35849	Madagascar	М	М	Eu	Eu
CMW 35860	Madagascar	М	М	Eu	Eu
CMW 35882	Madagascar	М	М	Eu	Eu
CMW 35909	Madagascar	М	М	Eu	Eu
CMW 35911	Madagascar	М	М	Eu	Eu
CMW 36075	Cameroon	PS/I	М	Eu	М
CMW 36081	Cameroon	PS/I	Eu	Eu	Eu
CMW 36086	Cameroon	Eu	Ι	PS/I	Ι
CMW 36090	Cameroon	М	М	Eu	М
CMW 36091	Cameroon	М	Eu	Eu	Eu
CMW 36092	Cameroon	М	EU	Eu	Eu
CMW 36094	Cameroon	Eu	М	М	EX
CMW 36096	Cameroon	Eu	М	Eu	Eu
CMW 36099	Cameroon	М	Eu	Eu	Eu
CMW 36105	Cameroon	Eu	М	Eu	Eu
CMW 36106	Cameroon	М	Eu	Eu	Eu
CMW 36119	Cameroon	EX	Eu	Eu	Eu
CMW 36122	Cameroon	М	Eu	Eu	Eu
CMW 36123	Cameroon	М	Ι	PS/I	Ι
CMW 36126	Cameroon	Eu	М	М	Eu
CMW 36232	Zimbabwe	Eu	М	М	Eu
CMW 36233	Zimbabwe	Eu	М	М	Eu
CMW 36234	Zimbabwe	Eu	М	М	Eu

M = Lasiodiplodia mahajangana, Eu = L. euphorbiicola, Ex = L. exigua, I = L. iraniensis, PS/I = L. pseudotheobrome/L. iraniensis clade.



Fig 4 – Maximum likelihood tree of currently described Lasiodiplodia species based on partial tub2, ITS, tef1- α , and rpb2 gene regions, tree was rooted with *B. dothidea*. Sequences in bold were obtained during this study. Bootstrap values above 70 % (indicated as ML/MP) are given at the nodes. Branches with Bayesian posterior probabilities of more than 0.95 are printed in bold.

The isolates from baobab trees were identified as Lasiodiplodia × brasiliense, Lasiodiplodia crassispora, Lasiodiplodia ×laeliocattleyae, Lasiodiplodia euphorbiicola, Lasiodiplodia exigua, Lasiodiplodia gonubiensis, Lasiodiplodia iraniensis, Lasiodiplodia mahajangana, Lasiodiplodia pseudotheobromae, and Lasiodiplodia theobromae. One isolate from Madagascar grouped close to, but distinct from Lasiodiplodia thailandica and L. iraniensis. The L. mahajangana clade included the largest number of isolates (186) and it also had the largest degree of variation within a species, forming four sub-groups. Isolates in these sub-groups did not consistently group together based on different loci and could not be described as new species. This species was found in all countries sampled and appears to be the dominant species in South Africa, Namibia and Madagascar, where it was obtained from both healthy and diseased trees.

The second largest group of isolates (70) grouped with *L. euphorbiicola*. There was less sequence variation between these isolates than within the *L. mahajangana* group, but the same trend was evident where the sub-groups of isolates did not consistently group together based on the different gene regions. *Lasiodiplodia euphorbiicola* was the dominant species isolated from all three West African countries, where it occurred on both healthy and diseased trees. Other countries where it was found included Botswana, Namibia, Madagascar, and Zimbabwe.

Species isolated only from West Africa included *L. exigua* (7 isolates) from Benin, Cameroon and Senegal and the two *L. theobromae* isolates that originated from Benin and Cameroon. *Lasiodiplodia crassispora* was isolated only from Senegal, and was collected from five trees. There was no distinction in the species assemblage from healthy and diseased trees.



Fig 5 – (A) Sunken lesions around inoculation site, three weeks after inoculation with Lasiodiplodia isolate on baobab trees, (B) sporulation by Lasiodiplodia on bark and parafilm, (C) lesion under bark after six weeks, (D) lesion extending to middle of stem, (E) lesion inside stem extending past external lesion and (F) rotting symptom inside stem.

Mozambique was the only country where *L. gonubiensis* were found, bringing the total number of species from that country to four. These were from only seven isolates obtained from six trees. Two isolates of *L. pseudotheobromae* were collected from South Africa and Mozambique respectively.

Lasiodiplodia iraniensis was isolated from healthy and diseased trees in Benin, Cameroon, Senegal, South Africa, Madagascar and Mozambique. There was some sequence variation between the different isolates. A single isolate from Madagascar (CMW 35879) grouped closest to L. thailandica, but distinct from both L. iraniensis and L. thailandica.

A group of 30 isolates (Table 4), mostly from Cameroon, grouped incongruently between trees from the various loci and these isolates are, therefore, considered as hybrids. Most of the hybrids formed between *L. mahajangana* and *L. euphorbiicola*, while two isolates were hybrids with *L. exigua* and *L. euphorbiicola*. Four isolates from Cameroon formed hybrids between *L. iraniensis* and *L. euphorbiicola*, and/or *L. mahajangana*. There was one hybrid each from Senegal and South Africa, three from Benin and Zimbabwe each, and five from Madagascar. While there was only one isolate of *L. euphorbiicola* from Madagascar and five from Madagascar.





Fig 6 – Baobab tree in KNP that had recently collapsed (A) main stem broken due to rotten wood inside, (B) loose fibres of rotten wood inside main stem.

were between L. mahajangana and L. euphorbiicola. This suggests that L. euphorbiicola is more prevalent in Madagascar than is apparent from this survey.

Pathogenicity trials

Sunken areas around the points of inoculation were observed on young baobab trees approximately three weeks after inoculation with the selected *Lasiodiplodia* species (Fig 5A). Some isolates sporulated profusely on the bark (Fig 5B) and parafilm, covering the inoculation sites. After six weeks, the lesions under the bark were measured (Fig 5C,D), but some lesions at the centres of the stems extended further up and down within the stem tissue than the lesions underneath the bark (Fig 5E). Some of the fungi caused severe rotting of the wood near the inoculation site (Fig 5F) and this resembled the wood rot observed in the trunks of recently fallen mature baobab trees (Fig 6).

Variation in the lesion lengths was observed associated with inoculations of different isolates of the same species (Fig 7). Both isolates of Lasiodiplodia pseudotheobromae, as well as the Lasiodiplodia iraniensis isolate, caused lesions that were significantly (p < 0.001) larger than those of the controls. Two of the three Lasiodiplodia euphorbiicola isolates tested caused significant lesions while the third isolate (CMW 33327) did not. Most of the Lasiodiplodia mahajangana isolates gave rise to only small lesions or did not result in lesion development. An exception was found with isolates CMW 36212 that were associated with lesions significantly larger than those of the controls.

Discussion

Phylogenetic inference based on four gene regions made it possible to identify numerous species of Lasiodiplodia occurring on baobabs. Importantly, the results show that several isolates of previously described Lasiodiplodia species, including the extype isolates of Lasiodiplodia brasiliense, Lasiodiplodia laeliocattleyae, Lasiodiplodia missouriana, and Lasiodiplodia viticola, as well as a group of isolates from baobab trees, grouped incongruently in trees derived from different loci. This incongruence could be explained only by hybridisation. The described species are, therefore, invalid and they have consequently been designated as the hybrid species Lasiodiplodia × brasiliense, Lasiodiplodia \times laeliocattleyae, Lasiodiplodia \times missouriana, and Lasiodiplodia ×viticola. The isolates from baobab trees were identified as the hybrid species L. × brasiliense and L. ×laeliocattleyae, together with Lasiodiplodia crassispora, Lasiodiplodia euphorbiicola, Lasiodiplodia exigua, Lasiodiplodia gonubiensis, Lasiodiplodia iraniensis, Lasiodiplodia mahajangana, Lasiodiplodia pseudotheobromae, and Lasiodiplodia theobromae.

The fact that evidence of hybridisation was found in extype as well as other isolates of described *Lasiodiplodia* species is not surprising. The broad host ranges and endophytic nature of these fungi facilitate their global movement with plant material. This brings related fungi that had speciated in allopatry into contact, which would be ideal for hybrids to form because these species are expected to not have evolved mating barriers in all cases (Brasier 1995; Brasier 2001). The large



Isolate name and number

Fig 7 – Mean lesion length (mm) of pathogenicity trial with Lasiodiplodia isolates on young baobab (Adansonia) trees. Significant differences (p < 001) are indicated with different letters above the bars.

numbers of sexual and asexual spores produced by fungi also make successful hybridisation more likely because only a few of the millions of spores produced require a fitness advantage over the parental species. These fungi with new combinations of genes would then be able to outcompete the parental species or occupy a novel niche (Stukenbrock 2016).

The hybrid species and isolates identified in this study showed incongruence between different gene trees. This has also been found in the studies of endophytes of tall fescue grasses (Schardl & Craven 2003; Moon *et al.* 2004) and Fusarium (O'Donnell *et al.* 2000). The evidence that at least four of the previously described *Lasiodiplodia* species are hybrids, emphasises the importance of using multiple loci, and as many isolates as possible, to define cryptic species. In particular, interpretation of *tef*1- α data must be made with caution and not only in combination with ITS. This is because phylogenies based on the *tef*1- α locus commonly display incongruence with other gene trees. As part of this study and to facilitate future work, we have also presented a decision tree that can be used to identify other groups of hybrid fungi in the Botryosphaeriaceae.

Our study is not the first to observe hybrids in Lasiodiplodia, but is the first to describe these hybrid species. Sakalidis (2011) reported on Lasiodiplodia isolates that appeared to be hybrids of two different Lasiodiplodia species, where Lasiodiplodia hybrid 1 was similar to L. pseudotheobromae based on ITS and intermediate between Lasiodiplodia parva and L. pseudotheobromae based on tef1- α . Hybrid 2 was similar to Lasiodiplodia citricola based on ITS and intermediate between L. parva and L. citricola based on tef1- α . These species were, however, not described.

The 30 isolates considered as hybrids and collected from baobab trees in this study varied in the number of gene regions in which they grouped with different species. Some isolates grouped with *L. mahajangana* based on two loci and *L.* *euphorbiicola* based on the other two loci evaluated. Other isolates showed congruence based on three loci and they grouped with a different species based on only a single locus. It is, therefore, clear that hybrids can easily be overlooked when only one or two loci are used for identification, as has clearly occurred in many of the cases that we have described in this study. This appears to be a common problem in *Lasiodiplodia* and it is likely also true for other species in the Botryosphaeriaceae.

The hybrid isolates from baobab trees were classified based on information from four loci. Many hybrids have traditionally been classified based on morphology that was intermediate between that of the parental strains, or changes in pathogenicity (Newcombe *et al.* 2000; Joly *et al.* 2006). However, the similar morphology of *Lasiodiplodia* species and their broad host ranges would make it impossible to use morphology or pathogenicity for hybrid identification. A single locus has been used to infer hybridisation in diploid organisms or where a locus is duplicated (Nielsen & Yohalem 2001; Man in 't Veld *et al.* 2006; Man in 't Veld *et al.* 2012). It would appear that only single versions of the loci tested thus far are present in *Lasiodiplodia*, therefore hybrids cannot be detected in this way. The utilisation of multiple loci is currently the most efficient way to recognise hybrids in *Lasiodiplodia*.

Lasiodiplodia mahajangana was the species most often isolated from baobabs in Africa and it was isolated from healthy and diseased trees. Interestingly, this was also the species most commonly found on Adansonia gregorii in Australia where it caused lesions in a pathogenicity trial (Sakalidis et al. 2011a). The pathogenicity trials with the African isolates in the present study revealed considerable variation, with only two of the six isolates causing lesions. Lasiodiplodia mahajangana was isolated from all the countries sampled, and it appears to have a wide host range and worldwide distribution. This species was originally described from Terminalia catappa in Madagascar (Begoude *et al.* 2010), but has subsequently been reported from various other hosts and countries. Some of the hosts and countries from which it has been collected include A. gregorii, Santalum album, M. indica and Melaleuca sp. in Australia (Sakalidis 2011); Pistacia vera in the USA (Inderbitzin *et al.* 2010) and Euphorbia ingens in South Africa (Van der Linde *et al.* 2011).

The second major group of isolates from baobabs clustered with *L. euphorbiicola*. Isolates of this species were obtained from seven of the nine countries where samples were collected, but not from South Africa and Mozambique. Pathogenicity trials revealed variability in aggressiveness, with one isolate not causing lesions, and two others used in the tests, causing significant lesions on baobab seedlings. *Lasiodiplodia euphorbiicola* was described from *Jatropha curcas* in Brazil (Machado *et al.* 2014) and is closely related to *L. parva*. *Lasiodiplodia euphorbiicola* and *L. parva* are identical based on four loci and differed only by six base pairs based on the tef1- α locus.

Species of Lasiodiplodia that were found in only one country included *L. gonubiensis* collected only in Mozambique, and *L.* crassispora isolated from diseased and healthy trees in Senegal. Although these species were found on baobab trees infrequently, they have been reported from different hosts in other countries and continents. For example, *L. crassispora* was described from *S. album* in Australia (Burgess et al. 2006). Consequently these species also have broad host and distribution ranges and may be present on baobab trees more often than is evident from this study.

Several isolates in the present study clustered with L. iraniensis and were found from Benin, Cameroon, Madagascar Senegal and South Africa. Most of the isolates were obtained from healthy trees, with the exceptions being those from Senegal and Benin. In a survey of fungi occurring on baobabs trees in Australia, Sakalidis et al. (2011a) found that L. iraniensis was the most aggressive species. The L. iraniensis isolate included in the current pathogenicity trial also gave rise to significant lesions. However, no L. iraniensis were isolated from the population of baobab trees with the highest incidence of disease observed in this study (Tsumkwe area in Namibia); only L. mahajangana and L. euphorbiicola were found from these trees. Lasiodiplodia iraniensis clearly has a worldwide distribution and wide host range having been described from Mangifera indica in Iran and reported on Juglans sp., Citrus sp. and Salvadora persica in the same country (Abdollahzadeh et al. 2010). Lasiodiplodia iraniensis has also been isolated from A. gregorii in Australia (Sakalidis et al. 2011a).

The worldwide occurrence of many of the Lasiodiplodia species in this study suggest that these species are being moved around the world. Botryosphaeriaceae occurring as endophytes in plants are efficient, opportunistic colonisers of plants (Slippers & Wingfield 2007) and Lasiodiplodia is probably being moved with plant material. Our discovery of four hybrid species and many hybrid isolates within Lasiodiplodia, raises concerns that introductions of new species may result in the formation of more hybrids. These hybrids can evolve more rapidly (Brasier 2001) and may be more aggressive or have wider host ranges than the parental species, as was found for both the poplar rust pathogen *Melampsora* ×columbiana (Newcombe et al. 2000) and Verticillium longisporum, a pathogen of crucifers (Inderbitzin *et al.* 2011). This emphasises an urgent need to restrict the global movement of plant material (Liebhold *et al.* 2012; Wingfield *et al.* 2015).

This study serves as a foundation towards understanding the distribution and role of endophytic *Lasiodiplodia* on baobabs in Africa. It is not clear whether these fungi play a role in the baobab deaths that have been observed. But the fact that some of the isolates tested caused substantial lesions and severe rotting of the stems, may be linked to the rotting of mature trees seen in the field. The global movement and distribution of these fungi deserves further study to fully understand the occurrence of different species in their countries of origin.

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