ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Plasmopara invertifolia sp. nov. causing downy mildew on *Helichrysum bracteatum* (Asteraceae)

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Abstract *Plasmopara invertifolia* sp. nov. causes severe leaf distortion and necrosis on *Helichrysum bracteatum*, a beautiful and important ornamental plant for trade in Brazil. This oomycete pathogen is distinguished from other species of *Plasmopara* on Asteraceae by its smaller sporangia and larger sporangiophores, which justifies the proposition of a new taxon in the genus *Plasmopara* to accommodate it. The phylogenetic analysis of *cox2* gene sequence data supports such placement and also shows that *P. invertifolia* is close to the *P. halstedii* complex. *Plasmopara invertifolia* is then described, illustrated and discussed.

Keywords Molecular phylogeny · Oomycetes · Ornamental plant · Peronosporales · Plant pathology · Strawflower

Introduction

Helichrysum bracteatum (Vent.) Andrews (Asteraceae), popularly known as strawflower, everlasting or eternal flower (in Brazil, sempre-viva and flor de palha), is an annual plant native to Australia, known worldwide by the beauty

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D. J. Soares Embrapa Algodão, 58428-095 Campina Grande, PB, Brazil and durability of its flowers and widely cultivated as an ornamental garden plant or for the cut flower industry (Morley 1978; Lorenzi and Souza 2001). Although diseases are known by gardeners in Brazil to be a limiting factor for its cultivation there was no published record of diseases on this host until recently, when stem rot caused by *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* (Lib.) de Bary was first reported (Duarte and Barreto 2009). Everlasting is not an exception in terms of lack of knowledge about its mycobiota. Although of economic relevance and scientific interest such fungal pathogens have often been overlooked by plant pathologists in Brazil who have tended to concentrate on major crop plants.

In 2008, diseased individuals of *H. bracteatum* bearing typical downy mildew symptoms were observed in a small teaching and research area in the campus of the Universidade Federal de Viçosa (Viçosa, State of Minas Gerais, Brazil). Considering the scarcity of information about fungi in association with this host plant in Brazil, a study was initiated aimed at elucidating the etiology of this disease. This publication includes a description of the downy mildew pathogen found on everlasting in Brazil and the proposal of a new species to accommodate it.

Material and methods

Leaf samples of *H. bracteatum* bearing disease symptoms and sporulation of a pathogen were collected at the site of occurrence, dried in a plant press, and deposited in the local herbarium (Herbarium VIC). All samples were examined under a dissecting microscope, and wherever pathogen structures appeared to be associated with the disease symptoms, slides containing scraped fungal structures or free hands sections were prepared using lactophenol or lactofuchsin as mounting medium. Observations of fungal structures, as well as measurements and photographs were made with an Olympus BX 51light microscope fitted with an Olympus E330 camera (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan). All the structures were measured at least 80 times.

Additionally, total genomic DNA was isolated from the leaves samples using the Wizard® Genomic DNA Purification Kit (Promega Corporation, WI, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Part of the cytochrome c oxidase subunit 2 (cox2) was amplified using the peronosporomycetes-specific primer set designed in Hudspeth et al. (2000). The 25 µL PCR reaction consisted of the 2 µL (20 ng) of DNA, 12.5 µL of the Dream Taq Master Mix (Fermentas Company) and 10 µM of each primer. The PCR was performed as described by Hudspeth et al. (2000). The nucleotide sequence data were obtained by DNA sequencing (Macrogen Inc., South Korea) employing the same primers used for PCR amplification. The sequence fragments were assembled from the forward and reverse sequences with the help of DNA Dragon program v 1.1.9.1. For comparison to other Plasmopara species, 18 cox2 mtDNA sequences used in previous studies of Göker et al. (2007), Choi et al. (2009), Schröder et al. (2011) and Thines (2011) were retrieved from GenBank. Alignment of the sequences was performed using CLUSTAL X (Thompson et al. 1997), which is feasible as the alignment contains no gap. Phylogenetic analyses were done on the resulting alignment using Maximum Evolution (ME) and Maximum Likelihood (ML) methods. ME analysis was done using MEGA 5.0 (Tamura et al. 2011), with the default settings of the program, except for using the Tamura-Nei model instead of the maximum composite likelihood model. The strength of the internal branches from the resulting trees was tested by bootstrap analysis using 1,000 replications. For ML analyses, 1,000 rounds of random addition of sequences as well as 1,000 fast bootstrap replicates were computed with RAxML 7.0.3 (Stamatakis 2006) as implemented in raxmlGUI 1.3 (Silvestro and Michalak 2012) using the GTRCAT variant.

Results

Phylogenetic analysis

The phylogenetic relationship among *Plasmopara* species was inferred from the ME and ML analyses of partial *cox2* mtDNA sequences. Since no differences were found between the tree topologies of the ME and ML analyses, only the ME tree is shown in Fig. 1, with the addition of the bootstrap support values of the ML analysis. In the phylogenetic tree, *Plasmopara* sp. on *Helichrysum* occupied a separate branch within the genus *Plasmopara*. The sequence distances to the *P. halstedii* complex were considerable as 9.8 % (46 of 505 nucleotides characters were different) to *P.*



0.02 substitutions/site

Fig. 1 Maximum evolution tree inferred from partial *cox2* sequence matrix. ME and ML bootstrap supports above 60 % are given at first and second position, respectively, above the branches

halstedii in Europe (HM628739 & HM628743), 10.5 % (49 of 505 nucleotides) to *P. halstedii* in East Asia (EU743813), and 11.3 % (52 of 505 nucleotide) to *P. halstedii* s.l. on *Gerbera jasmonii* (GenBank no. KC690148).

Taxonomy

Plasmopara invertifolia L.L Duarte & R. W Barreto sp. nov. Mycobank no.: MB 803920 (Fig. 2).

Etymology—Referring to the tendency of the fungal infection to invert the leaves

Type: Brazil, Minas Gerais, Viçosa, on leaves of *Helichrysum bracteatum*, collected by Robert W. Barreto in 15 September 2009, VIC 32069. Sequences ex-type: KC841909 (*cox2* mtDNA).

Description: Lesions on living leaves, irregular, initially appearing as ill-delimited yellowed area and becoming yellowish adaxially and finally necrotic leading to blight of large parts or entire leaves; abaxially a sparse to dense layer of downy whitish sporulation formed on the lower leaf side of infected areas; often causing to lamina and petiole distortion resulting in overturned leaves and appearing like spoons, containing sporangia and sporangiophores. External mycelium absent. Internal mycelium and haustoria not visible. Sporangiophores hypophyllous, emerging through stomata, cylindrical, straight, up to 670 μ m long, 7.5–12 μ m diameter, with slightly swollen base 8 to 13.5 μ m wide, hyaline, aseptate, with up to 6 monopodial ramifications, mainly at right angles; ultimate branchlet straight to slightly curved, 7–13.5 μ m long, 2–4 μ m wide at the base; tips truncate and with 2 or 3 sterigmata; sporangia hyaline, globose to ovoid, tip and base round, smooth, 9–20×9–18 μ m, non-papillate or with a slight papilla, pedicel absent. Resting organs not observed.

Discussion

Three different genera of Peronosporaceae, *Bremia*, *Paraperonospora*, and *Plasmopara*, have been reported to cause downy mildew disease on *H. bracteatum*. The morphology of the asexual structures of the present pathogen is typical of the genus *Plasmopara*. The genus *Bremia*, known previously from *H. bracteatum*, is easily distinguishable from the present pathogen by mostly dichotomous branching pattern of the conidiophores and the shape of the tip of the ultimate branchlets (Choi et al. 2011). The other *Plasmopara* species described on *H. bracteatum*, *Plasmopara helichrysi*, was combined under *Paraperonospora* (Tao 1991). This genus also clearly differs from *Plasmopara* by conidiophores that branch differently in obtuse angles as opposed to right angles in the latter genus.

Initially the newly collected pathogen was considered to represent *Plasmopara halstedii* (Farl.) Berl. & De Toni, a



Fig. 2 Plasmopara invertifolia on H. bracteatum. **a**, **b** Downy mildew symptoms on leaves (note in **b** a leaf with advanced blight due to infection by *P. invertifolia*). **c** Sporangiophore with young sporangia

still attached. **d** Close-up of sporangiophore apex showing branching pattern (**c** and **d** mounted in lactofuchsin). **e**, **f** Branches. **g**–**i** Sporangia. Scale bars=10 μ m

Table 1 Morphology of	Plasmopara spp. recorded on	Asteraceae worldwide				
Specie	Host	Sporangiophore (µm)	Branches	Sporangia		Reference
				Shape	Size (µm)	
P. invertifolia	Helichrysum bracteatum	300-670	3–6	Globose to ovate	$9-20 \times 9-18$	This study
P. affinis		220–700	I	Ovate to ellipsoid	$12 - 30 \times 12 - 27$	Novatelnova 1963
P. angustiterminalis	Ambrosia artemisiifolia	350-650	I	Globose	$12 - 18 \times 9 - 18$	Novatelnova 1963
	Bidentis sp.	275–500	I	I	$12-21 \times 9-18$	Novatelnova 1963
	Xanthium strumarium	Ι	I	Ovate to peanut-like	$25-50 \times 20-30$	Komjáti et al. 2007
		225–695	I	Globose to ovate	$12-27 \times 9-18$	Novatelnova 1963
P. asterea	Aster alpinus	150–250 (500)	I	Ovate to limon shape	$18-42 \times 12-27$	Novatelnova 1963
P. domingensis	Parthenii hysterophori	300-450	3-5	Subglobose	$12-17 \times 13-15.5$	Ciferri 1956; Choi and Shin 2008
P. halstedii	Helianthus annuus	300–450 (750)	7-8	Ovoid to ellipsoid	$18-30 \times 14-20$	Hall 1989
P. galinsogae	Galinsoga parviflora	400 - 1,000	3-5	Ovate to ellipsoid	$17-20 \times 8-8.5$	Campbell 1932
P. lactucae-radicis	Lactuca sativa	150-520	3-5	Ovate to ellipsoid	$40-91 \times 29-52$	Stanghellini and Gilbertson 1988
P. palmii	Eupatorium areolare	250–900	2-5	Ovate to ellipsoid	$24-40 \times 12.5-24$	Campbell 1932
P. petasitidis	Petasites giganteus	180 - 700	3-6	Broad ellipsoid to ovate or globose	$16-30 \times 15-26$	Ito 1935
P. siegesbeckiae	Siegesbeckiae sp.	200–300	I	Ovate to ellipsoid	27–30	Tao and Qin 1987
P. solidaginis	Solidago virga	200–550	I		$15-27 \times 12-21$	Novatelnova 1963
P. spilanthicola	Spilanthes americana	325–500	3-6	Subglobose to ellipsoid	$17-26 \times 16-23$	Sydow and Sydow 1939
P. vernoniae-chinensis	Vernonia chinensis	360-760	59	Ovate to ellipsoid	$17-24 \times 13-17$	Ito 1935
P. yunnanensis	Galinsoga parviflora	(175) 250–340 (405)	2–3	Subglobose to ellipsoid	$15-20 \times 16.5-23$	Tao and Qin 1987

common species having a relatively broad host-range in the Asteraceae with a worldwide distribution excluding Australia and New Zealand (Hall 1989; Constantinescu and Thines 2010) and which has been already reported on *H. bracteatum* (Farr et al. 2013). Nevertheless, after a closer examination it became clear that the fungus collected in Brazil did not fit into *P. halstedii. Plasmopara invertifolia* has smaller sporangia than those of *P. halstedii*; it also has longer sporangiophores and its sporangia are of a different shape (Table 1). Sporangia in *Plasmopara invertifolia* are, as well, of a distinct size as compared with other species in this genus described on Asteraceae (Table 1). The exception is P. *angustiterminalis* which sporangia are only slightly bigger (Table 1).

Species in *Plasmopara* are usually regarded to be host specific and that, with the exception of *P. halstedii* host-specialization is also considered to be relevant for species distinction. Only *P. halstedii* has been reported on *H. bracteatum* and it is clearly morphologically distinct from the newly collected fungus and this is regarded here as additional evidence that a new species of *Plasmopara* is involved. Finally, the phylogenetic analysis also supports that *P. invertifolia* is a taxon distinct from *P. halstedii* and *P. angustiterminalis* (Fig. 1) with an independent position in the *Plasmopara*.

Although this was not investigated in detail, our observations of the tendency of the infection to lead to a distortion of the leaves, completely exposing the fungus colony, allows of a conjecture that this might represent an adaptation of the *P. invertifolia* favoring its dispersal by direct hit of rain drops, the wind and even a catapult effect. As *H. bracteatum* is not indigenous to Brazil, it is possible that this pathogen was originally introduced into Brazil from its native range in Australia together with its host and that earlier reports of *Plasmopara* on *H. bracteatum* actually represent *P. invertifolia*.

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