

Phytophthora oleae, a new root pathogen of wild olives

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P. oleae on wild olive roots

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Phytophthora oleae, a new root pathogen of wild olives

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Abstract

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- Wild olive (*Olea europaea* subsp. *europaea* var. *sylvestris*) is an important component of Mediterranean forests and a key genetic source for olive improvement programs.
- of Mediterranean forests and a key generic source for once improvement programs

Since 2009, a severe decline caused by *Phytophthora cryptogea* and *P. megasperma*

- was detected in a protected wild olive forest of high ecological value (Dehesa de Abajo,
- 19 Seville, Spain). In this natural forest, samplings of roots and soil were done on 25
- 20 symptomatic wild-olives in 2014 and 2015. Apart from the already known *P. cryptogea*
- 21 Al and P. megasperma, a third Phytopththora species was consistently isolated from
- 22 symptomatic wild-olive rootlets. These isolates conformed morphologically with the
- 23 newly described species *P. oleae* and were confirmed by analysis of their ITS regions
- 24 and Cox-1 sequences. Temperature-growth relationships showed a maximum growth at
- 25 19.9°C on CA medium, being the lowest-temperature *Phytophthora* spp. infecting wild
- olive roots. Pathogenicity was confirmed on 1 year-old healthy wild olive seedlings and
- 27 was similar respect to the previously known pathogenic Phytophthoras. As temperature
- requirements are quite different, the three *Phytophthora* spp. may be active against wild

olive roots in different seasons. However, the prevalence of <i>P. oleae</i> infecting wil
olives in the last years could be due to its introduction as a new invasive pathogen. Th
likely invasive nature of P. oleae, together with increasing rain episodes concentrated i
short periods frequent in southern Spain, would allow outbreak infections in wild oliv
forests, also putting at risk cultivated olive orchards.

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Keywords: decline, invasive pathogen, Natural Reserve, Olea europaea var. sylvestris,

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Introduction

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Olive (Olea europaea subsp. europaea) is a fruit crop widely distributed in the Mediterranean region with economically important cultivars and also wild genotypes growing in natural forests. In Spain, the wild form (O. europaea subsp. europaea var. sylvestris) represents a distinct botanical variety of the subspecies europaea and is considered the best bioindicator of the Mediterranean Floristic Region (Rubio de Casas et al., 2002). Moreover, wild olives represent the main source of genetic traits for improvement of cultivated forms, commonly used in breeding programs for the high degree of resistance to diseases showed by some genotypes (Arias-Calderón et al., 2015). Recently, a wild olive root rot caused by *Phytophthora megasperma* and *P. cryptogea* was reported in a Natural Reserve in southern Spain (Dehesa de Abajo, Seville) affecting near 5 ha of wild olive woodland of high ecological value (González et al 50 2017a). This forest grows around a natural pond with marked fluctuations in water 51 tables due to the seasonal distribution of rainfall, alternating seasonal soil flooding and 52 drought periods. As expected for *Phytophthora* soilborne pathogens, affected trees

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exhibited different degree of symptoms depending on their distribution: moderate defoliation uphills, while severe defoliation and tree death were recorded downhills. Phytophthora megasperma was the only species isolated from declining wild olives in 2009. However, P. cryptogea was the main species associated with wild olive root disease in 2013 (González et al., 2017a). It was hypothesized that a higher-temperature P. cryptogea could replace the lower-temperature P. megasperma as a result of the global increase in temperatures in the Mediterranean region due to global climate change (Lindner et al., 2010). Given the intrinsic ecological and genetic value of wild olive populations, the main objective of this work was to know the evolution of Phytophthora spp. associated with the root disease, clarifying the role of temperature in the disease aetiology. Additionally, a new *Phytophthora* spp. associated with necrotic roots was isolated, identified, temperature-characterized, and checked for pathogenicity Policy on wild olive.

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Materials and methods

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Samplings and isolations

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In November 2014 and November 2015, two field surveys were carried out at the Natural Reserve "Dehesa de Abajo" (Seville, Spain, UTM 29: 37°12'33"N; 6°10'16''W). Soil is a mixture of gravel and sand with rainfall rates averaging 648 mm per year, mainly distributed in autumn and winter (Consejería de Agricultura, Pesca y Desarrollo Rural, 2017). Cardinal temperatures (minimum and maximum) recorded in the period 2001-2015 at the nearest meteorological station (La Puebla del Río II

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Meteorological station; 37°04'48"N, 06°02'47"W, altitude 41 m.a.s.l.) are summarized 78 79 in Table 1. Using the methodology described in González et al. (2017a), samples of rootlets and 80 rhizosphere soil were taken at approximately 1 m distance from the trunk at 10–30 cm 81 depth of a total of 25 symptomatic (crown wilting or/and defoliation) wild olives. 82 Samples from different trees were independently processed. For each sample, rotten 83 feeder roots were cut in 3-4 mm segments, washed under running water for 2 h, and 84 directly plated on NARPH medium (Hüberli et al., 2000). Soil samples were air dried 85 and sieved (2 mm) and isolations from soil were performed using pieces of newly 86 87 formed olive leaves as baits, according with González et al. (2017a). Six beakers per sample with a soil-water mixture (15:200 w:vol) and six floating baits each one, were 88 incubated for 4 days at 22°C under 12 h photoperiod. After the incubation period, the 89 90 leaf pieces were washed and plated in Petri dishes containing NARPH medium. All the dishes (roots and soil baits) were incubated at 22°C in the dark for 4 days. Colonies 91 92 obtained from damaged roots and soil baits were grouped according to their morphology and transferred to 20% carrot agar (CA) medium. Five isolates per colony 93 94 morphology were selected among the pure cultures obtained for molecular and 95 morphological identification and growth-temperature characterization.

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DNA extraction, amplification and sequencing

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DNA of the isolates was obtained by harvesting the mycelium from 1-week-old pure cultures grown on PDA at 20°C in the dark. DNA was extracted using the PowerSoil DNeasy kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's protocol. The internal transcribed spacer (ITS1-5.8S-ITS2) region of the rDNA was amplified by PCR using the universal

primers ITS-6 (Cooke *et al.*, 2000) and ITS-4 (White *et al.*, 1990). The PCR reaction conditions used were an initial denaturing step of 94°C for 2 min followed by 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, annealing at 55°C for 30 s and an extension at 72°C for 45 s, with a final extension of 72°C for 10 min. The mitochondrial cox1 gene was amplified using the primers OomCoxI-Levup and Fm85mod (Robideau *et al.*, 2011) and were sequenced with the same primers. The PCR reaction conditions for cox 1 consisted of 3 min at 94°C followed by 35 cycles of 30 s at 94°C, 30 s at 50°C and 60 s at 72°C, with a final extension of 5 min at 72°C (Ruano-Rosa *et al.*, 2018).

Morphological and growth-temperature characterization

For isolates molecularly identified but not previously associated with wild olive root rot,

a morphological and growth-temperature characterization were carried out.

To characterize colony morphologies, the five selected isolates were grown at 20°C in

the dark on CA and PDA medium for 5 days to describe colony colour, pattern, edge

shape and presence of aerial mycelium.

To describe sexual structures (oogonia, antheridia and oospores), isolates were individually transferred onto CA medium, incubated at 22°C in the dark, and periodically observed under the inverted microscope (Olympus IMT-2, 40×). When sexual reproductive structures were detected in single cultures (after 10 days of incubation), small pieces of agar were placed on glass slides, stained with acid fuchsin in lactophenol (0.0005%) and observed under the microscope (Nikon Eclipse 80i, 100×). For each isolate, 30 mature oogonia, 30 antheridia and 30 oospores were selected

and measured (NIS-Elements D 2.30, Nikon Instruments): oogonium and oospore

diameter, antheridium length and thickness of the oospore wall.

To characterize asexual structures (sporangia), small CA plugs (5 mm diameter) from
the edges of actively growing colonies were placed in the centre of 5-cm-diameter Petri
dishes, and after that, sterilized saline solution (MSS, Chen & Zentmyer, 1970) was
added to just cover the agar plugs. Petri dishes were incubated in darkness at 20°C.
Every 24 h, the saline solution was removed and replaced with fresh solution. After 4
days of incubation, mature sporangia present in the floating mycelium were removed
and placed on glass microscope slides and stained with acid fuchsin in lactophenol
(0.0005%) for observation under the microscope (Nikon Eclipse 80i, 100×). For each
isolate, 30 mature sporangia were randomly chosen, and the following parameters were
measured (NIS-Elements D 2.30, Nikon Instruments): sporangium length and breadth,
and pore width. Other sporangial characteristics such as shape, presence or absence of
papilla, were also recorded.
For growth rate tests, agar plugs of each isolate were plated in 9 cm Petri dishes with
CA or PDA medium and incubated in the dark at 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30 or 35°C. Three
replicates (dishes) per isolate were prepared. Colony radius was measured daily until the
colonies covered the agar surface and growth rate per day was calculated for each
isolate, culture medium and incubation temperature. Maximum average data were
adjusted to a regression curve using Statistix 10.0 for Windows (Analytical Software,
Tallahassee, FL). The best polynomial model was chosen from several combinations of
terms, based on the significance of the estimated parameters ($p < 0.05$), coefficients of
determination (R ²), coefficients of determination adjusted by degrees of freedom (R _a ²),
and pattern of residuals. Maximum growth rates and optimum growth temperatures
were estimated over the regression curves obtained.

Pathogenicity tests

Healthy wild olive seedlings (1-year-old) from a forest nursery of the Andalusian
Government (Vivero San Jerónimo, Seville) were inoculated with one isolate of the
Phytophthora spp. newly associated with wild olive root disease (Po group). To prepare
the inoculum, colonized agar plugs were placed in 9 cm Petri dishes containing 20 ml of
20% carrot broth and incubated at 22°C in the dark for 20 days. The mycelium produced
was then filtered, washed, and shaken in an electric mixer (Osterizer pulse-matic 16)
with sterile water for 3 min at the highest speed to break mycelium masses and liberate
oospores. Oospore concentration was estimated by counting in a Neubauer chamber and
adjusted to 2.2×10 ⁴ oospores×ml ⁻¹ . For inoculation, 50 ml of this inoculum was
homogeneously added to the root ball of each seedling, before transferring them into
plastic pots containing 2 l of soil (sand:lime:peat 1:1:1 vol.). Ten seedlings (replicates)
were inoculated and 10 additional seedlings (uninoculated controls) were treated in the
same way, but only 50 ml of sterile water was applied to their root balls. All the pots
were incubated in an acclimatized greenhouse and flooded 2 days per week (Romero et
al., 2007). Foliar symptoms were assessed weekly for each seedling based on a 0-4
scale, according to the percentage of yellowing, wilted foliage or defoliation recorded (0
= 0%, 1 = 1-33%, 2 = 34-66%, 3 = more than 67% and 4 = dead foliage) (Sánchez et
al., 1998; González et al., 2017a). After 14 weeks, the relative area under the disease
progress curve (rAUDPC) was calculated as percentage regarding the potential
maximum value (Campbell & Madden, 1990). At this moment, root symptoms were
also assessed according to a similar 0-4 scale referred to root necrosis or rootlet absence
percentage as follows: $0 = 0\%$, $1 = 1-33\%$, $2 = 34-66\%$, $3 = more than 67\%$, $4 = dead$
root (Sánchez et al., 1998; González et al., 2017a).

177	Data on foliar and root symptoms at the end of the experiment and rAUDPCs were
178	tested for homocedasticity by the Levene's test and then, a one-way ANOVA was
179	performed, and mean values compared by the Tukey's HSD test for $\alpha = 0.05$ (Statistix
180	software 10.0).
181	Additionally, root segments from inoculated or control plants were carefully washed
182	and plated on NARPH medium for re-isolation of the pathogen.
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184	Results
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186	Site temperatures
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188	Table 1 shows the mean values of minimum and maximum temperatures recorded at La
189	Puebla del Río II Meteorological station, grouped by season, for the period 2007-2015
190	and the wider historical temperature series available (2001-2015). It is remarkable the
191	occurrence of two exceptional cold episodes suffered in winter 2007 (2.9°C) and winter
192	2012 (3.1°C) in comparison with the mean of minimum temperatures registered in the
193	historical series (6.1°C).
194	instolled series (0.1 C).
	Species identification
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197	Three different groups of isolates respect to their colony morphology on CA were found
198	(Pm, Pc, and Po). The sequences of the ITS rDNA region (99% of homology with
199	GenBank) conformed with P. megasperma (Pm) and P. cryptogea (Pc) as described in
200	Gonzalez et al (2017a).

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The third group of isolates (Po) was morphologically described since it was not previously known as associated with wild olive root rot. All these isolates showed colonies with scarce aerial mycelium and chrysanthemum growth pattern (Table 2). The sporangia of Po group were rarely produced in CA medium but very abundant in MSS saline solution. Gametangia were produced abundantly in CA single culture. Morphological characteristics of Po isolates are summarized in Table 2, and they were in good agreement with the description of *P. citricola* complex (Jung & Burgess, 2009), which includes P. plurivora, P. multivora and P. citricola. The sequence analyses of ITS rDNA regions conformed with P. plurivora, but only with a 95% homology with sequences in GenBank. Following the recent description of a new *Phytophthora* species, P. oleae (Ruano-Rosa et al., 2018), it was found that morphological data obtained for Po isolates were in a better agreement with features issued for *P. oleae* and, moreover, ITS rDNA regions and Cox-1 gene sequences conformed with P. oleae with a 100% Policy. homology.

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Growth-temperature relationships

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All five Po isolates had similar cardinal temperatures and growth rates at all temperatures. A 3rd degree polynomic model was selected: $y = aT^3 + bT^2 + cT + d$, as the best expression of growth rate versus incubation temperature, with y being the growth rate, T = incubation temperature, and a, b, c and d, the regression constants. According to the adjusted curve: $y = -0.0013 \text{ T}^3 + 0.0324 \text{ T}^2 + 0.253 \text{ T} - 1.85 \text{ (R}^2 = 0.0013 \text{ T}^2 + 0.00$ 0.9932), the estimated maximum growth rate for P. oleae isolates in CA medium was 5.8 mm day⁻¹ at the optimum temperature, estimated in 19.9°C (Figure 1a). The maximum growth rate in PDA medium was 2.5 mm day⁻¹ at the optimum temperature,

226	estimated in 20.6°C (Figure 1b) according with the adjusted curve $y = -0.0004 \text{ T}^3 +$
227	$0.0084 \text{ T}^2 + 0.164 \text{ T} - 0.9933 \text{ (R}^2 = 0.9726)$. Isolates did not grow neither at 5°C nor at
228	30°C in both culture media.

Isolation frequencies

Isolation frequencies (percentage of trees with positive isolation) of *Phytophthora* spp. obtained in 2014 and 2015 from root and soil samples are in Figure 2. All the three *Phytopththora* spp. (*P. cryptogea*, *P. megasperma* and *P. oleae*) were isolated from roots and rhizosphere soil in both samplings. In 2014, *P. cryptogea* was the main species associated with symptomatic roots (44% of positive isolation) and soil samples (36% of positive isolation); while in 2015 it was replaced by *P. oleae* as the main species in roots (36% of positive isolation) and rhizosphere (40% of positive isolation). *Phytophthora megasperma* was isolated from roots and soil in both samplings, but always at low frequencies (Figure 2). More than one *Phytophthora* spp. were recovered from roots of the same tree at the same sampling, but only from four individuals.

Pathogenicity

The inoculated wild olive seedlings showed foliar symptoms like those observed in the field: foliar yellowing and wilting, starting at the leaf edges and gradually spreading towards the centre, drop of wilted leaves and twigs dieback. Necrosis and absence of feeder roots were equally observed in the field and in inoculated seedlings.

Average values of foliar symptoms recorded weekly are in Figure 3a. Fourteen weeks after inoculation, final foliar symptoms were significantly higher for wild olives

inoculated with P. oleae in comparison with uninoculated controls (F = 17.59, p =251 252 0.0005). Respect to the disease progression, ANOVA analysis and comparison of means 253 also indicated that average rAUDPC recorded for foliar symptoms was significantly higher in seedlings inoculated with P. oleae than in uninoculated control seedlings (F = 254 255 19.80; p = 0.0003) (Figure 3b). Mean values of root symptoms at the end of the experiment are in Figure 3c. ANOVA 256 257 showed significant differences between inoculated and uninoculated wild olives (F = 56.18; p < 0.0001), and the Tukey's test revealed that P. oleae caused a level of root 258 symptoms significantly higher than those recorded for controls. Furthermore, P. oleae 259 260 was consistently re-isolated from necrotic roots from inoculated seedlings (16.6% of positive isolation). No Phytophthora spp. were isolated from roots of uninoculated 261 262 control seedlings.

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Discussion

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The present study shows P. oleae as a new pathogen for wild olive, causing root rot in a 266 267 natural forest at southwestern Spain. This species is added to the other two Phytophthora species (P. cryptogea and P. megasperma) already known causing root 268 269 rot in wild olive (González et al., 2017a). However, different Phytophthora species have 270 been described causing root rot in olive cultivars in different parts of the world: P. citricola (Teviotdale, 2005), P. drechsleri (Teviotdale, 2005), P. inundata (Sánchez-271 Hernández et al., 2001), P. megasperma (Sánchez-Hernández et al., 2001), P. 272 273 nicotianae (Vettraino et al., 2009) and P. palmivora (Vettraino et al., 2009). Initially, Po isolates were tentatively identified as P. plurivora (González et al., 2017b), 274 because of their similar morphology (Jung & Burgess, 2009), although sequence 275

276	homology appeared not strong enough (only 95%). In addition, Po wild olive isolates
277	showed a low optimum temperature (20°C) when compared with the 25°C observed by
278	Jung & Burguess (2009) for P. plurivora. After the recent description of P. oleae as
279	cause of fruit rot in cultivated olives in southern Italy (Ruano-Rosa et al., 2018), a new
280	molecular analysis (ITS and cox-1 regions) confirmed the identification of Po isolates
281	as P. oleae. It is frequent to find records of a Phytophthora spp. causing fruit rots and
282	root rots on woody plants; sometimes in different locations, as P. palmivora causing
283	pomegranate fruit rot in India and Greece (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996; Markakis et al.,
284	2017) but crown and root rot in Turkey (Türkölmez et al., 2016); and sometimes both
285	kind of symptoms occur simultaneously, as P. citrophthora causing fruit and root rot on
286	Citrus spp. (Erwin and Ribeiro, 1996); or P. parasitica as pathogen on papaya fruits and
287	roots in Hawaii (Hunter & Buddengagen 1969).
288	In previous samplings carried out in the same area between 2009 and 2013, González et
289	al. (2017a) hypothesized that the root rot pathogen P. cryptogea, a high-temperature
290	species, could be replacing a low-temperature one (P. megasperma) infecting wild-
291	olives, considering a global increase in temperatures in the Mediterranean Basin
292	(Lindner et al., 2010). However, the unexpected appearance of a new dominant species
293	of low-temperature as P. oleae, led us to consider that it could be favoured by the
294	extremely cold winter temperatures suffered in 2012 (minimum temperatures of 3.1°C
295	compared with the historical minimum mean of 6.1°C), likely explaining the prevalence
296	of this species in 2015. The prevalence of two low-temperature species infecting wild
297	olive roots following exceptionally cold winter temperatures 2 years ago, as P.
298	megasperma in 2009 (González et al., 2017a) and P. oleae in 2015, could be
299	hypothesized as likely unusual considering the long, hot and dry summers prevailing in
300	the area. However, some <i>Phytophthora</i> spp. with low optimum temperature and ability

to form thick-walled oospores and abundant sporangia, have been described as an
adaptation to Mediterranean climates with long, hot and dry summer and wet winters
(Brazee et al., 2016; Jung et al., 2017), including P. oleae (Ruano-Rosa et al., 2018).
According with this hypothesis, P. oleae would be able to survive severe summer
droughts in its dormant state (oospore) and rapidly resume growth and sporulation after
autumn-winter rainfalls, acquiring advantage to compete for wild olive root infection
when temperatures are cooler than usual. However, the prevalence of <i>P. oleae</i> infecting
wild olives in the last years could also be a result of its arrival to Spanish natural forests
as a new invasive Phythophthora pathogen. Phytophthora oleae was firstly described
causing a soft rot of mature olive fruits in a restricted area in Italy (Ruano-Rosa et al.,
2018) and, to our knowledge, this is the only report of this pathogen worldwide. Some
of the most destructive and well-documented epidemics of trees and forests are caused
by alien Phytophthora spp. Moreover, most of the ca. 150 currently known species of
Phytophthora were unknown to science before they turned up in other continents as
invasive aggressive pathogens of native plants or plantation crops (Jung et al., 2016).
Due to a lack of co-evolution between the likely newly introduced P. oleae and wild
olive, this endemic host can be highly susceptible to the pathogen and this fact could
explain why it is replacing native P. megasperma and P. cryptogea in natural forests.
Parameters commonly used as indirect indicators of the alien origin of a pathogen
include consistent association with diseased common indigenous plant species and
proven high aggressiveness to these plants in pathogenicity trials, as determined for P .
oleae causing root rot of wild olive or fruit rot of cultivated olive (Ruano-Rosa et al.,
2018). An stronger indicator is a low genetic variability and close phylogenetic
relatedness to other non-native species (Jung et al., 2016). Identical cox1 and ITS1-
5.8S-ITS2 region sequences were determined within the eight isolates characterized by

326	Ruano-Rosa et al. (2018), with only one isolate showing a single base insertion in ITS1.
327	Additionally, the five isolates characterized in this work exhibit identical cox1 and ITS
328	sequences. Despite the low genetic variability exhibited by P. oleae, which points to its
329	alien origin, the low number of isolates analysed, together with their small area of
330	provenance in Italy (two olive orchards in the same province) and Spain (one wild olive
331	forest), make neccesary additional research to determine
332	For plant biosecurity and disease management, it is of utmost importance to know
333	whether P. oleae is indigenous in Europe or it must be considered as a new alien
334	invasive pathogen. Moreover, to know it possible alien origin is of utmost importance to
335	assess the risk of may be spreading from natural forest stands to olive plantation crops
336	in Spain, although it will not necessarily successfully establish.
337	The likely invasive nature of P. oleae, together with increasing rain episodes
338	concentrated in short periods frequent in southern Spain, would allow outbreak
339	infections in wild olive forests, also putting at risk cultivated olive orchards.
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450	Figure 1 Growth rate patterns for <i>Phytophthora oleae</i> isolated from wild oilives
451	growing on CA (a) and PDA (b) media. Lines represent the adjusted third degree
452	polynomic model on CA (y = -0.0013 $T^3 + 0.0324 T^2 + 0.253 T - 1.85$; $R^2 = 0.9932$)
453	and PDA (y = $-0.0004 \text{ T}^3 + 0.0084 \text{ T}^2 + 0.164 \text{ T} - 0.9933$; $R^2 = 0.9726$). Dots are the
454	main values of the observed growth rates. Arrows indicate the estimated optimum
455	growth temperature on CA (19.9°C) and PDA (20.6°C).

Figure 2 Percentage of trees with positive isolation of *Phytophthora oleae* (Po), *P. cryptogea* (Pc) or *P. megasperma* (Pm) from roots (a) and rhizosphere soil (b) of symptomatic wild olives sampled in 2014 and 2015.

Figure 3 Average values and standard errors of foliar symptoms (a), relative area under the disease progress curve (rAUDPC) (b), and root symptoms (c), recorded on wild olives inoculated with P. oleae and submitted to periodical soil flooding for 14 weeks. For each graph, values with different letters differ significantly according with Tukey's HSD test (p < 0.05).

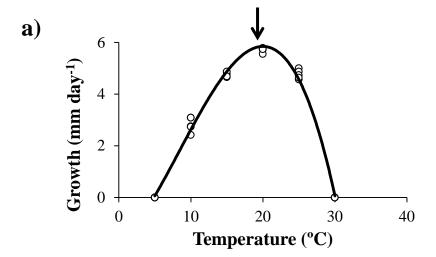
Table 1 Average seasonally minimal and maximal temperatures (°C) between 2007 and 2015. Data obtained from 'La Puebla del Río II' Meteorological station (37° 04' 48'' N, 06° 02' 47'' W), Seville, Spain.

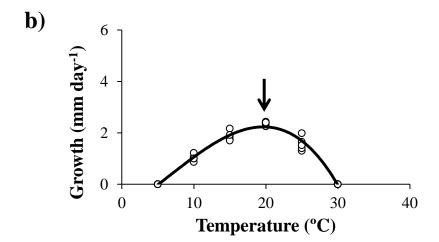
	Season					Year					Mean (2001-2015)
		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	(2001-2015)
. 74	Winter (Jan-Mar)	2.9	5.6	5.8	7.9	7.0	3.1	6.8	6.8	5.1	6.1
Mean of minimals	Spring (Apr-Jun)	10.8	12.5	12.1	13.0	14.9	13.2	12.1	13.2	14.0	13.2
Mea	Summer (Jul-Sep)	16.1	16.8	17.0	17.9	17.4	16.7	18.0	16.6	16.9	17.3
	Autumn (Oct-Dec)	6.8	7.2	10.2	9.1	9.4	10.4	8.6	10.2	11.0	9.5
	Winter (Jan-Mar)	15.2	18.2	17.4	16.2	17.4	18.6	16.6	17.9	18.1	17.4
of	Spring (Apr-Jun)	24.7	26.2	27.0	26.3	28.5	27.7	26.3	27.5	28.7	27.0
Mean of maximals	Summer (Jul-Sep)	31.2	31.5	32.6	32.9	32.1	32.2	32.3	30.3	31.9	31.7
Z E	Autumn (Oct-Dec)	19.3	18.6	21.8	19.4	21.5	20.2	20.9	20.9	21.4	20.3

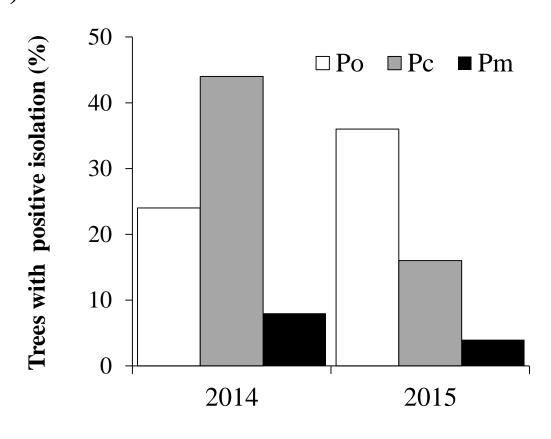
 Table 2 Morphological characteristics of Po isolates (Phytophthora oleae)

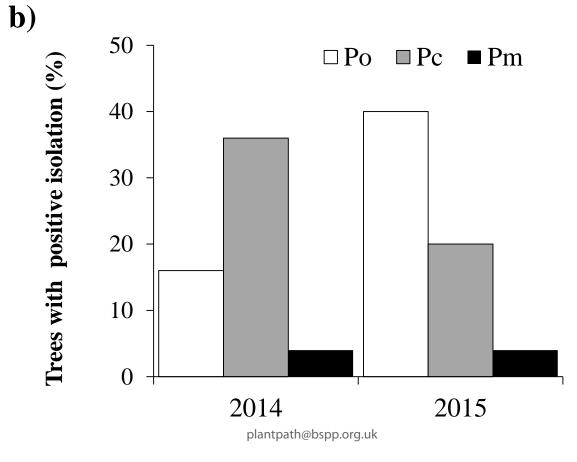
Colony morphology on CA (6 days at 20° C)	Chrysanthemum
Sexual system	Homothallic
Oogonia diameter ($\mu m \pm SE$)	28.8 ± 0.3
Oospores	Aplerotic
Diameter ($\mu m \pm SE$)	26.8 ± 0.2
Oospore wall thickness ($\mu m \pm SE$)	1.5 ± 0.1
Antheridia	
Amphigynous	0%
Paragynous	100%
Length ($\mu m \pm SE$)	6.3 ± 0.3
Oogonium diam:antheridium length ratio	4.6
Sporangia	
Shape	Obpyriform, ovoid
Length ($\mu m \pm SE$)	39.1 ± 0.3
Breadth ($\mu m \pm SE$)	28.2 ± 0.3
Length: breadth ratio	1.4
Papilla	Semi-papillate
Pore width $(\mu m \pm SE)$	6.6 ± 0.1

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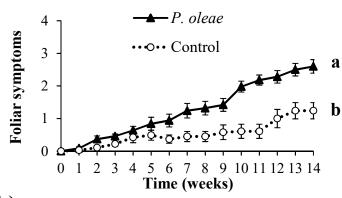




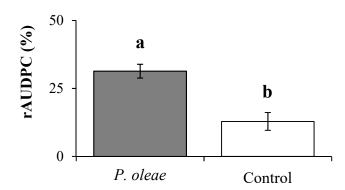








b)



c)

