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SHORT NOTES

# Identification of three potential insect vectors of *Xylella fastidiosa* in southern Italy

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Summary. In order to identify potential vectors of Xylella fastidiosa in olive orchards in Puglia (southern Italy), Hemiptera insects were collected from October to December, 2013, in olive orchards with high incidences of X. fastidiosa associated with "rapid decline" symptoms. The study focused on species in the Auchenorrhyncha (sharpshooter leafhoppers and froghoppers or spittlebugs), a group that includes known vectors of X. fastidiosa. Adults of three species, i.e. Philaenus spumarius L. (Aphrophoridae), Neophilaenus campestris Fallén (Aphrophoridae) and Euscelis lineolatus Brullé (Cicadellidae) were captured, from which total DNA was extracted and assayed by PCR using three sets of specific primers designed for X. fastidiosa detection. Results of PCR showed that 38 out of a total of 84 tested insects were positive for X. fastidiosa, i.e. eight (of 20) P. spumarius, 14 (of 18) N. campestris and 16 (of 46) E. lineolatus. PCR amplicons of the RNA polymerase sigma-70 factor gene from six specimens (two of each insect species) were sequenced. The sequences obtained were 99.3-99.4% identical. BlastN analyses demonstrated these sequences to be similar to those of X. fastidiosa isolates from olive OL-X and OL-G reported from Puglia, whereas they displayed distant molecular identity (always less than 98%) with X. fastidiosa subspecies from other countries. The detection of X. fastidiosa in P. spumarius and, for the first time, in N. campestris and E. lineolatus (which, unlike the others, is a phloem feeder), indicates potential vectoring roles of these insects for the spread of the bacterium in Puglia. Further investigations and specific infectivity trials are required to definitively determine the roles of these insects as effective vectors of this pathogen.

Key words: olive trees, Philaenus spumarius, Neophilaenus campestris, Euscelis lineolatus, rapid decline.

## Introduction

*Xylella fastidiosa* is a xylem-inhabiting, vectorborne, Gram-negative bacterium that infects numerous host plant species, on which it can be latent or induce mild to severe symptoms. The main diseases caused by *X. fastidiosa* include Pierce's disease of grapevine (Davis *et al.*, 1978), citrus variegated chlorosis (Chang *et al.*, 1993), coffee leaf scorch (Li *et al.*, 2001), pecan leaf scorch (Sanderlin and Heyderich-Alger, 2000), phony peach (Wells *et al.*, 1983), plum

Corresponding author: A.M. D'Onghia Fax: +39 080 4606503 E-mail: donghia@iamb.it leaf scald (Raju et al., 1982), and almond leaf scorch (Mircetich et al., 1976). Xylella fastidiosa has also been shown to be the causal agent of leaf scorch diseases in landscape plants such as oleander (Purcell et al., 1999), mulberry (Hernandez-Martinez et al., 2006) and oak (Barnard et al., 1998). Less clear seems the etiological role of X. fastidiosa subsp. multiplex on Californian olive trees exhibiting leaf scorch and/or branch dieback symptoms (Krugner et al., 2014). The bacterium was known to occur only in the American continents and in some limited areas of Asia (Taiwan). The recent detection of X. fastidiosa in Puglia (southern Italy) (Saponari et al., 2013), has demonstrated that the pathogen is present in the European Union, and is relevant for the entire European region (Council Directive 2000/29/EC, Annex I-section II).

Some natural Auchenorrhyncha insect vectors (mainly sharpshooter leafhoppers and froghoppers or spittlebugs) contribute to its rapid spread, and adult insects remain infectious throughout their lives (Purcell and Finley, 1979). Many vectors of X. fastidiosa have been reported by Redak et al. (2004), and the following Hemiptera of the family Cicadellidae are particularly efficient: Homalodisca vitripennis Germar (glassy-winged sharpshooter), Draeculacephala minerva Ball (green sharpshooter), Graphocephala atropunctata Signoret (blue-green sharpshooter) and Hordnia circellata Baker for Pierce's disease; Cuerna costalis Fabricius, H. insolita Walker, Oncometopia nigricans Walker and O. orbona Fabricius for phony peach; Acrogonia terminalis Young, Dilobopterus costalimai Young and Oncometopia fascialis Signoret for citrus variegated chlorosis (Hill and Purcell, 1995; Hail et al., 2010). Putative vectors for Europe are considered to be Cicadella viridis L. (Cicadellidae) and Philaenus spumarius L. (Aphrophoridae) (Janse and Obradovic, 2010), even though the list of potential vectors should be extended to all the xylem-fluid feeders, as suggested by Purcell (1989).

Century-old olive trees infected by *X. fastidiosa* and exhibiting leaf scorch and "rapid decline" symptoms have been recently observed in Lecce province of Apulia (southern Italy), where the pathogen has been detected by PCR and ELISA in a large area (Saponari *et al.*, 2013). Even though the etiological role of *X. fastidiosa* in the "rapid decline" disease in Italy remains to be demonstrated since other pathogens (fungi) and/ or insects could also be involved, the wide spread of the bacterium in Lecce province prompted an investigation to identify local insects which may be involved in the transmission of the bacterium.

# **Materials and methods**

#### **Capture of insects**

Four olive orchards with high incidence of *X. fastidiosa* were repeatedly visited from October to December, 2013, in Gallipoli area (Lecce province) for insect captures. Insects were also captured from one olive orchard located in an area where *X. fastidiosa* was absent. Two different collection methods were adopted: (i) three to five yellow sticky traps per orchard were placed outside the olive canopies; (ii) a sweeping net was used to manually trap the insects in the olive orchards both from the olive canopy and ground vegetation. Upon retrieval from the field after 20 d exposure, the sticky traps were placed into plastic bags and stored at 4°C. Once in laboratory, Hemiptera insects were removed from the traps by applying a solvent oil around each insect, and which was then washed in 95% ethanol and de-ionized water to remove any oil residue. The insects captured with nets were carefully collected (by aspiration) directly *in loco*, put in small tubes containing 95% ethanol and brought to the laboratory for identification.

#### Identification of insects

In this study, all leafhoppers and froghoppers were taken into consideration as potential vectors of the disease. Despite only xylem specialists have been proved to be effective vectors of *X. fastidiosa* (Almeida and Purcell, 2006) we examined also phloem feeders in that they can occasionally consume or get in contact with the xylem (Pompon *et al.*, 2011).

The classification and nomenclature of captured insects were based on Ribaut (1952), Della Giustina (1989) and Holzingher *et al.* (2003). To accomplish identification, male genitalia of each insect were dissected and kept in KOH (10%) for 24 h; these were then mounted on glass slides in Berlese's liquid and observed under a stereoscopic microscope.

#### Extraction of Xylella fastidiosa DNA and PCR

Insect heads of single adult specimens were removed as described by Bextine et al. (2004) and used for total DNA extraction using the commercial kit "DNeasy Plant Mini Kit", following the manufacturers' instructions (Qiagen). In parallel, 0.5 g of tissue from the midveins of infected olive leaves were used as X. fastidiosa-positive controls for the PCR assay using the same extraction kit. PCR assays were conducted with three sets of specific primers, targeting the RNA polymerase sigma-70 factor, the 16S rRNA and the hypothetical HL protein genes (Firrao and Bazzi, 1994; Minsavage et al., 1994; Francis et al., 2006), which generate PCR amplicons of size 733 bp, 404 bp and 221 bp, respectively. Each PCR mixture contained template DNA at 10 ng  $\mu$ L<sup>-1</sup>, 1.25 U of Go Taq polymerase (Promega), 1 × Go Taq Flexi DNA Buffer, 0.2 mM dNTPs, 0.3 µM forward and reverse primers, all in a final reaction volume of 25  $\mu$ L. The following thermocycling (IQ5Thermocycler, BioRad) programme was used: initial denaturation at 94°C for 4 min, followed by 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 55°C

for 30 s and 72°C for 40 s; with a final extension at 72°C for 7 min. Amplifications were confirmed on 1.2% agarose gel.

#### **Cloning and sequence analyses**

PCR amplicons were transformed in StrataClone<sup>TM</sup> PCR Cloning vector pSC-A (Stratagene), subcloned into *Escherichia coli* DH5 $\alpha$  or SoloPACK cells and custom sequenced (Primm). Four copies of each DNA clone were sequenced bi-directionally to eliminate any sequence ambiguity. The sequences obtained were cleaned from vector with the assistance of the DNA Strider 1.1 program (Marck, 1988). Sequence similarities were analyzed with BLASTN at the National Center for Biotechnology Information website (Altschul *et al.*, 1990). Multiple sequence alignments were generated using the default options of CLUSTALX 1.8 (Thompson *et al.*, 1997). Sequences obtained from the present study were deposited in GenBank.

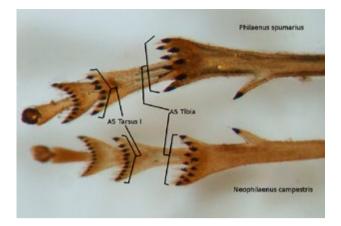
# **Results and discussion**

#### Identification of insects

A total of 84 adult insect specimens (Table 1), belonging to the taxon Auchenorrhyncha, were captured from the four infected olive orchards in Gallipoli, mainly using the sweeping net. The insects were identified as *P. spumarius* L. (Aphrophoridae), *Neophilaenus* campestris Fallen (Aphrophoridae) and Euscelis lineolatus Brullé (Cicadellidae). Specimens of the same insect species (32 P. spumarius, 15 N. campestris and 18 E. lineolatus) were also captured from one olive orchard located in Bari province, which is considered an X. fastidiosa-free area. Philaenus spumarius and N. campestris were easily distinguishable from one other based on rear leg morphology; for P. spumarius the number of apical spines was less than ten (7–8) both in tibia and tarsus, whereas the number was greater (11-12) in N. campestris (Figure 1). Philaenus spumarius is a cosmopolitan species and widely polyphagous (numerous herbs, shrubs and trees). This insect overwinters as eggs, and in Europe nymphs occur from April-May, according to the region, while adults appear 1 month

**Table 1**. Numbers of *Xylella fastidiosa*-positive Hemiptera insects captured from four infected olive orchards and one non infected orchard, using yellow sticky traps (YST) and sweeping net (SN).

	Olive orchard	Capture mode	Philaenus spumarius		Neophilaenus campestris		Euscelis lineolatus		Infected/
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X. fastidiosa-inf	ected are	ea							
1		YST	2	0	0	1	1	3	19/33
		SN	4	3	4	4	3	8	
2		YST	0	1	2	0	2	0	15/21
		SN	2	2	0	4	5	3	
3		YST	0	1	0	0	0	3	1/14
		SN	1	1	0	1	2	5	
4		YST	1	0	0	0	0	2	3/16
		SN	0	2	0	2	7	2	
Infected / captured		2/10	6/10	4/6	10/12	8/20	8/26	38/84	
X. fastidiosa-fre	e area								
5		SN	13	19	5	10	8	10	65
Infected / captured		0/13	0/19	0/5	0/10	0/8	0/10	0/65	



**Figure 1.** Distinction between adults of *Neophilaenus campestris* (below) and *Philaenus spumarius* (above) based on rear leg morphology. AS, apical spines.

later and can be found until November–December. *Neophilaenus campestris* is present throughout Europe and in many other Mediterranean countries, with a life cycle very similar to *P. spumarius*. It is very common in grasslands but can be also found on trees, probably used as temporary shelter on hot days. *Euscelis lineolatus* is common in Europe and in the sub-Mediterranean region; it overwinters as adults and is polyphagous (Mazzoni, 2005).

#### PCR and sequence analysis of Xylella fastidiosa

Results of PCR assays showed that X. fastidiosa was detected in 38 of 84 insects (45%) captured from the infected area, and in none of the 65 insects from the X. fastidiosa-free area. In particular, in the infected area eight of 20 (40%) were specimens of P. spumarius, 14 of 18 (78%) were N. campestris and 16 of 46 (35%) were E. lineolatus. No differences in infection were observed due to the sex of insects. All the three sets of primers gave identical results in PCR assays (no case of dissimilarity was observed), and efficiently detected X. fastidiosa in the insect specimens and in the infected olive leaves used as positive controls. The six sequences obtained were 99.3-100% identical at the nucleotide level, and three of the sequences (one from each insect) were deposited in GenBank (accession No. HG939491, HG939505, HG939506). BlastN analysis showed that all these sequences had the greatest nucleotide identity (99.6-99.7%) with X. fastidiosa DNA fragments OL-X4-5 (accession No. HG532021) and

OL-G (accession No. HG532022) from olive of Puglia region. However, they shared 96–98% identity with homologous fragments of isolates from other countries, and in particular 98% with the strains of subspecies *fastidiosa* GB514 (CP002165 from Texas, USA) and M23 (CP001011 from California, USA), and 97% with the strain of subspecies *pauca* 9a5c (AE003849).

The detection of *X. fastidiosa* in these insects was not surprising, as much as the nucleotide differences found in the RNA polymerase sigma-70 factor gene, which was clearly distant from all sequences of *X. fastidiosa* reported in GenBank.

Based on our knowledge, this is the first report on X. fastidiosa detection in N. campestris and E. lineolatus, while the pathogen has previously been associated with P. spumarius (Severin, 1950; Guario et al., 2013). However, among these insects we expect that the ability to transmit X. fastidiosa is greater in P. spumarius and N. campestris, which are known to be xylem fluid feeders, than in E. lineolatus which is a phloem fluid feeding insect. As for the latter, our findings clearly indicate that also specialized phloem feeders such as leafhoppers, can come in contact with xylem vessels and become infected. Our contribution is the first documented evidence of this phenomenon in leafhoppers that needs further investigation, since up to date the role of phloem feeders in X. fastidiosa cycle and dissemination has been neglected. Furthermore it is worth to remind that *E. lineolatus* is already known as a vector for phytoplasmas [Aster Yellow (16SrI) and Stolbur (16SrXII)] (Landi et al., 2013).

If these insect species have effective roles in transmission of *X. fastidiosa* in Puglia, this needs to be confirmed by further investigations and specific infectivity trials. These should aim to demonstrate the ability of insects to transmit the bacterium from one plant to another. Nevertheless, the control of any of these potential vectors will be very difficult due to their polyphagous nature, which involves both wild and cultivated plants.

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