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Distinctive population structure of Colletotrichum species associated with olive anthracnose in the Algarve region of Portugal reflects a host-pathogen diversity hot spot

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5 Olive anthracnose host-pathogen diversity hot spot

6
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17
18 Abstract

19 Anthracnose (*Colletotrichum* spp.) is an important disease of olive fruits. Diversity and
20 biogeographic relationships of the olive anthracnose pathogens in Algarve (Portugal)
21 were investigated along with disease levels during 2004-2007. Diverse *C. acutatum* and
22 *C. gloeosporioides* populations were identified based on rRNA-ITS and partial β -
23 tubulin 2 gene sequences of 95 isolates. Spatial and temporal variation in the occurrence
24 of the eight genetic entities of the pathogens was linked to olive biogeography. Disease
25 occurrence patterns suggest that *C. acutatum* populations are more stable pathogens,
26 while *C. gloeosporioides* populations seem more influenced by favourable conditions.
27 Three unique *C. acutatum* populations were identified but, none of the eight populations
28 were dominant, with the most frequent type representing only 27%. Thus the population
29 structure of olive anthracnose pathogens in Algarve is distinct from other parts of
30 Portugal and other world locations, where only one or two genetic entities are dominant.
31 This pattern and level of genetic diversity in a restricted area, where oleaster (wild olive
32 tree), ancient landraces and modern cultivars of olive occur in close proximity, suggests
33 Algarve as a centre of diversity of the anthracnose pathogens and corroborates recent
34 work suggesting western Mediterranean as an important centre of olive diversity and
35 domestication.

36
37 Keywords: *Colletotrichum acutatum*; *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*; olive
38 anthracnose; population structure; biogeography; olive domestication.

39 Introduction

40
41 Olive (*Olea europaea* ssp. *europaea* var. *europaea*) anthracnose is a very common and
42 severe disease in Portugal, mainly caused by *Colletotrichum acutatum* (97%) and
43 sporadically (3%) by *C. gloeosporioides* (Talhinhos *et al.*, 2005). Olive anthracnose has
44 also been reported in other central and western Mediterranean countries, Australia and
45 South Africa. Symptoms typically occur on mature fruits (during autumn), as dark
46 necroses with abundant orange conidial masses, leading to premature fruit drop or
47 mummification, damaged fruits and poor oil quality (high acidity). Under favourable
48 conditions symptoms can also occur on branches and leaves, leading to necroses, severe
49 defoliation and death of branches. Vegetative organs play an important role in pathogen
50 survival and multiplication and dissemination of inoculum to fruits (Talhinhos *et al.*,
51 2006).

52
53 The most common Portuguese olive cultivar, 'Galega', is very susceptible to
54 anthracnose. However, the disease can also seriously affect less susceptible varieties
55 under favourable environmental conditions and high inoculum pressure, even when the

recommended protection measures are followed. This was clearly evident following mild and wet weather conditions in autumn 2006, when important losses were reported from cultivars such as 'Arbequina' and 'Picual', previously regarded as moderately resistant, and widely cultivated throughout Iberia. This poses a threat to oliviculture even in regions where the disease incidence is currently low, suggesting that the use of a resistant variety and the application of appropriate control measures may not be enough to guarantee protection against the disease. The existence of a widespread inoculum reservoir on neglected olive orchards and on oleaster (wild olive tree, *Olea europaea* ssp. *europaea* var. *sylvestris*) in Portugal is considered the main reason for the disease being so common, and for frequently causing severe losses (Talhinhas *et al.*, 2006). Previous work showed that olive anthracnose populations in Portugal are vastly dominated (85%) by the genetic group A2 of *C. acutatum*, while other groups and *C. gloeosporioides* occurred at low frequency (Talhinhas *et al.*, 2005). Similarly, group A2 of *C. acutatum* was dominant in Spain, while *C. gloeosporioides* was in minority (Martín *et al.*, 2002; Talhinhas *et al.*, 2005). Olive anthracnose pathogens were assigned to *C. acutatum* group A9 in Australia (Whitelaw-Weckert *et al.*, 2007). In South Africa, the disease seems to be caused only by isolates belonging to *C. acutatum* group A5 (Gorter, 1956). Interestingly, in Sicily (Italy), *C. gloeosporioides* was reported as the sole olive anthracnose pathogen (Scarito *et al.*, 2003), while in Apulia (Italy) the disease is caused by *C. gloeosporioides* as well as isolates most likely belonging to *C. acutatum* group A4, based on the clustering of isolate CBS193.32 in two different studies (Agosteo *et al.*, 2002; Talhinhas *et al.*, 2005). Such A4 isolates were also found in other Italian regions (Calabria and Sardinia) and in Montenegro (Agosteo *et al.*, 2002; Talhinhas *et al.*, 2005). Preliminary data suggested a diverse population composition at Algarve compared to other parts of the world. This study investigated the population structure of the olive anthracnose pathogens in the Algarve and biogeographic relationships, including host diversity.

Materials and Methods

Sampling locations

Surveys were conducted in the Algarve over four years (2004-2007) at fruit maturity, based on olive cultivation frequency (Fig. 1a) and distribution of oleaster (Pedro, 1991). In total, 133 different sites were surveyed including repetitive visits to some sites over different years.

Assessment of disease symptoms, incidence and severity

In each collection site, the presence/absence of anthracnose symptoms on fruits was recorded. Further, asymptomatic presence of inoculum was assessed by incubating symptomless fruits in wet chamber (100% relative humidity, 22°C) for 1-3 weeks to induce symptoms. Disease incidence was calculated as the proportion of orchards where symptoms were recorded, compared to the total number of orchards surveyed. Disease severity was scored as the proportion (%) of diseased fruits compared to total number of fruits sampled.

Agronomic, biogeographic and botanical data

For each site, the following data were recorded: exact location enabling retrieval of mapped data such as altitude and soil type; local and general topography; phytosociology - trees isolated, scarce or frequent, either in urban areas, among other crops, among other non-cultivated plants or in dominant populations (olive orchard/oleaster bushland); tree botanical/agronomical status: oleaster (*Olea europaea* ssp. *europaea* var. *sylvestris*) or oleaster-like (Belaj *et al.*, 2007), ancient

111 cultivars/landraces in long-time abandoned inland farms, modern cultivars ('Galega',
112 'Maçanilha' and others). Administrative limits, hipsometry, soil type and
113 phytogeography data were obtained from Instituto do Ambiente (Portugal) and
114 assembled using ArcView 3.1 (ESRI).

115 116 Isolation of the pathogens

117
118 The pathogen was isolated from spore masses on fruits with anthracnose symptoms,
119 onto Petri dishes containing Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA, Difco) amended with a
120 bacterial growth inhibitor (KCNS 50 mM). Conformity with *Colletotrichum* spp. was
121 verified according to colony characteristics. Single-spore cultures were obtained and
122 stored, comprising a collection of 95 *Colletotrichum* spp. isolates. In some cases, more
123 than one isolate was obtained from a single collection site, single tree or even from a
124 single fruit. Koch's postulates were verified through assays on mature fruits and
125 pathogen re-isolation.

126 127 Genetic diversity analysis based on rRNA-ITS region and partial β -tubulin 2 gene 128 nucleotide sequence

129
130 For each isolate, species and infra-specific diversity (genetic group) were identified by
131 molecular analyses. DNA was extracted using a rapid freeze-boil protocol (Talhinhas *et*
132 *al.*, 2008). For each isolate, the species (*Colletotrichum acutatum* or *C. gloeosporioides*)
133 was identified by PCR amplification of part of the β -tubulin 2 (*tub2*) gene using
134 species-specific primers (Talhinhas *et al.*, 2005). Infra-specific diversity among *C.*
135 *acutatum* isolates was assessed by PCR-RFLP of *tub2*, assigning isolates to various
136 groups (Talhinhas *et al.*, 2005). For detailed intra-group diversity analysis, nucleotide
137 sequences were obtained for the rRNA-ITS region and *tub2* (Talhinhas *et al.*, 2002).

138 139 Results and Discussion

140 141 Population composition of the olive anthracnose pathogens

142
143 Diagnostic PCR based on a 550 bp *tub2* gene fragment was performed with each of the
144 95 isolates collected and 79 belonged to *C. acutatum* (83%) and 16 to *C.*
145 *gloeosporioides* (17%). Among *C. acutatum* isolates, RFLP analysis of *tub2* revealed
146 that 32 clustered in A2 (34%), 26 in A4 (27%), 19 in A5 (20%) and two in A3 (2%),
147 based on previously described genetic groups (Sreenivasaprasad & Talhinhas, 2005;
148 Talhinhas *et al.*, 2005). This pattern contrasts markedly to the rest of Portugal and the
149 emerging pattern from other parts of the world, where single genetic entities are vastly
150 dominant (Talhinhas *et al.*, 2005). Therefore, the population composition of the olive
151 anthracnose pathogens in Algarve is unique by the occurrence of *C. acutatum* groups
152 A2, A4 and A5 and *C. gloeosporioides* at relatively comparable frequencies (Fig. 1a).
153 Another distinct feature is the detection of *C. acutatum* group A5 isolates,
154 distinguishable by their salmon/purple-coloured colonies. Pathogens clustering in group
155 A5 were never reported from field crops in the northern hemisphere (Sreenivasaprasad
156 & Talhinhas, 2005), but are common in the southern hemisphere including the *C.*
157 *acutatum* type specimen (IMI117617 and ATCC56816) from papaya (Simmonds,
158 1965), the olive anthracnose pathogen in South Africa (Gorter, 1956) and occurring
159 asymptotically in association with the coffee berry disease in Angola.
160 rRNA-ITS sequences revealed further diversity within some of the genetic entities
161 (Table 1). Three sub-groups (A2-1, A2-2 and A2-3), differing in 1-2 nucleotides, were
162 found within *C. acutatum* group A2. Sub-group A2-2 on olives in general and sub-
163 group A2-3 on any host globally have not yet been reported. No differences were found
164 within the remaining *C. acutatum* groups. *C. gloeosporioides* isolates divided into CG-1
165 and CG-2, differing in one nucleotide. Analysis of *tub2* nucleotide sequence revealed no

166 differences between A2-1 and A2-2, but they differed in 3 bp from A2-3; no differences
167 were found between CG-1 and CG-2. Sequences representing each genetic entity were
168 deposited in EMBL (Table 1).

170 Anthracnose incidence and pathogen dynamics

171
172 Over the four year survey period (2004-2007), anthracnose incidence was 65-70% in
173 Algarve, with another 10-15% samples showing symptoms upon incubation in wet
174 chamber. Therefore, the pathogens were absent from only 15-25% of orchards.
175 However, following prolonged rain, high humidity and mild temperature periods in
176 autumn 2006, symptoms were found at all sites (100% incidence). Average disease
177 severity was 22% in 2004 and 2005, 85% in 2006 and 36% in 2007. Although
178 meteorological conditions during autumn 2007 were not more favourable than 2004 and
179 2005, the higher disease severity recorded is likely due to inoculum abundance resulting
180 from the 2006 outbreak. Anthracnose incidence and severity was much lower on
181 oleasters than on olives. The pathogen was not present on over 60% of oleasters and the
182 average disease severity was only 2%, excluding 2006 when it was 60% under very
183 favourable environmental conditions.

184 Average disease severity was 38-47% for the main *C. acutatum* groups and 30% for *C.*
185 *gloeosporioides*. However, during 2006-07, when the overall anthracnose incidence was
186 higher compared to 2004-05, the difference in severity was much more accentuated for
187 *C. gloeosporioides* than for *C. acutatum* (Fig. 2b). This suggests that *C. gloeosporioides*
188 acts as an opportunistic pathogen, responding to favourable environmental conditions
189 and high inoculum pressure, while the diverse *C. acutatum* groups are more stable
190 pathogens. In fact, nearly 25% of *C. gloeosporioides* isolates were obtained from
191 symptomless fruits. This agrees with observations from Sicily (Italy) reporting *C.*
192 *gloeosporioides* as a weak opportunistic olive pathogen (Agosteo *et al.*, 2002).

193 Frequencies of the different olive anthracnose pathogen populations varied through the
194 years (Fig. 2a). Occurrence of *C. gloeosporioides* varied between minimum 8% (2006)
195 and maximum 24% (2005). Groups A2 and A4 of *C. acutatum* were 20-43%,
196 alternating as the most frequent populations, except in 2007, when group A5 was the
197 most frequent. In fact, A5 populations showed a steady increase from 9% in 2004 to
198 34% in 2007. Within the Algarve, A3 isolates were identified for the first time at Faro
199 and Silves. At Faro, the pathogen was isolated from fruits exhibiting 60% disease
200 severity, with typical anthracnose symptoms. At Silves, the fungus was isolated together
201 with *C. gloeosporioides*, making it difficult to associate to the symptoms or disease
202 severity value observed. In the past, *C. acutatum* group A3 was only detected at a single
203 location (Torres Vedras) from asymptomatic infections (Talhinhas *et al.*, 2005).

204 Previous surveys at Silves since 2001 identified only group A2, suggesting group A3 as
205 an emerging population in Algarve. Another interesting feature is the presence of
206 different genetic entities at single locations, sometimes on the same tree or even on the
207 same fruit (Fig. 1a). These observations clearly show the strong influence of
208 agroecological conditions on the diversity and dynamics of the olive anthracnose
209 pathogens.

211 Biogeography of olive cultivation and anthracnose pathogens

212
213 The Algarve is crossed by a clear border line between two biogeographic provinces, the
214 Gaditano-onubo-algarvian to the south and the Luso-extremaduran to the north (Fig. 1d;
215 Costa *et al.*, 1998). South of this line is the Algarvic superdistrict dominated by
216 calcareous-derived soils (Fig. 1c), rich in paleomediterranean endemic vegetation, where
217 the phytosociological community *Oleo-Quercetum suberis* is frequent. This area
218 represents a glaciation refuge and a confluence point of floristic migratory routes. This
219 contrasts markedly with the area to the North, mostly the Serrano-monchiquense
220 superdistrict, which is climatically more continental, dominated by steep hills (Fig. 1b)

221 of thin schist-derived soils (Fig. 1c). Phytosociological associations such as *Myrto-*
222 *Quercetum suberis*, *Sanguisorbo-Quercetum suberis*, *Quercus lusitanicae-*
223 *Stauracanthetum boivinii* and *Erico australis-Cistetum populifolii* are common here
224 (Costa *et al.*, 1998). Olive cultivation represents 1.8% (ca. 8800 ha) of the total Algarve
225 area, contrasting with a national value of 3.4% (INE, 2001; Fig. 1a). Most (67%) of the
226 olive cultivation occurs in the calcareous-derived soils (Fig. 1c) of the Algarvic
227 superdistrict, locally known as ‘Barrocal’ (Fig. 1d). This is an undulating region (Fig.
228 1b), with important fruit tree cultivation, particularly almond, carob and citrus, with
229 typical Mediterranean conditions. Most common cultivars in Algarve are ‘Galega’ and
230 ‘Maçanilha’ (Pedro, 1991) but, to our knowledge, no detailed up-to-date information on
231 the relative importance of cultivars has been published.

232 Population structure of the olive anthracnose pathogens revealed varied biogeographic
233 relationships, although geographic variation in disease incidence and severity was
234 limited. *C. gloeosporioides* and *C. acutatum* group A2 occurred throughout the Algarve,
235 while *C. acutatum* groups A4 and A5 were more frequent in central Algarve (Fig. 1a).
236 Interestingly, all genetic entities identified were found in central Algarve. However,
237 only *C. acutatum* groups A2 and A5 were isolated from oleaster plants, regardless of
238 location (Fig. 2c). The frequency of these groups is higher on oleaster compared to
239 landraces and modern cultivars. On olive trees representing ancient cultivars/landraces,
240 four main genetic entities (*C. gloeosporioides* and *C. acutatum* groups A2, A4 and A5)
241 occurred at frequencies of 17-32%. On modern cultivars, *C. acutatum* group A5
242 occurred at a lower frequency (8%) and the other main genetic entities ranged from
243 21% (*C. gloeosporioides*) to 38% (*C. acutatum* group A2). This suggests differences in
244 the adaptive potential of various populations to different host genetic backgrounds.
245 Within *C. gloeosporioides*, isolates belonging to groups CG-1 (54%) and CG-2 (46%)
246 were evenly distributed across the region, over different years and hosts. However,
247 while all CG-1 isolates were associated with low disease severity, some CG-2 isolates
248 were obtained from plants with up to 100% disease severity. ITS sequences of both CG-
249 1 and CG-2 are similar to those of pathogens causing anthracnose on several hosts (e.g.,
250 avocado, rubber, strawberry and *Stylosanthes*) throughout the world (Sreenivasaprasad
251 & Talhinhas, 2005). Within *C. acutatum*, majority of group A2 isolates belonged to sub-
252 group A2-1 (75%), while A2-2 (17%) and A2-3 (8%) were less common. However, all
253 the A2 sub-groups occurred across the region, over different years and types of hosts
254 and were not associated with any differences in disease severity. Interestingly, A2-1 ITS
255 sequence is identical to that of isolates causing anthracnose on several hosts, e.g.
256 strawberry. A2-2 isolates are rare and only identical to a single isolate from photinia
257 (accession number AJ749676). Moreover, A2-3 isolates are unique in a collection of
258 over 150 *C. acutatum* group A2 isolates (Sreenivasaprasad & Talhinhas, 2005). Isolates
259 belonging to *C. acutatum* group A4 cluster together with olive pathogens from Italy
260 (CBS193.32 –accession AJ749688) and Montenegro (AJ749689 and AJ749690). ITS
261 sequence of the *C. acutatum* group A3 isolates from olive did not differ from the vast
262 majority of group A3 isolates, comprising pathogens of apple, blueberry, grapevine,
263 peach and strawberry (Sreenivasaprasad & Talhinhas, 2005). The low frequency of
264 group A3 on olive suggests that it may have originated from adjoining crops. These
265 isolates were pathogenic to olives in artificial inoculation experiments (Talhinhas *et al.*,
266 unpublished). Olive anthracnose pathogens clustering in *C. acutatum* group A5 did not
267 differ in their ITS sequence from isolates from several other hosts.

268
269 Host gene pool and pathogen diversity

270
271 *Olea europaea* ssp. *europaea* gene pool in the Algarve, and particularly in the
272 ‘Barrocal’, is comprised of modern cultivars grown in orchards and among other crops,
273 ancient cultivars/landraces in neglected or long-time abandoned inland farms and
274 oleaster or oleaster-like plants (Pedro, 1991). Although *Olea europaea* ssp. *europaea* is
275 believed to have its origin in eastern Mediterranean, recent research suggests that

276 current distribution of oleaster would have arisen from glacial refuges both in east and
277 west Mediterranean. One of those seven estimated refuges is in Iberia. Moreover, the
278 genetic diversity in the west is expected to be higher compared to the east, rejecting the
279 hypothesis that western oleasters would be feral forms of eastern oleaster-like
280 populations (Breton *et al.*, 2006a). This questions the geographic origin of *Olea*
281 *europaea* ssp. *europaea* (Breton *et al.*, 2006b), while archaeological data also question
282 its place of domestication (Breton *et al.*, 2006b), suggesting that it may have also
283 occurred in western Iberia (Figueiral & Terral, 2002). Interestingly, the above-
284 mentioned archaeological data arise from an excavation in Estremadura, one of the two
285 main Portuguese calcareous massifs, where wild and cultivated olive trees are currently
286 found. The other main massif is in the Algarve. Samples from this region have been rare
287 or absent from *Olea europaea* phylogenetic investigations, although the importance of
288 west Mediterranean for olive diversity and domestication has been highlighted (e.g.,
289 Contento *et al.*, 2002; Breton *et al.*, 2006a; Besnard *et al.*, 2002, 2007).
290 Clearly, diversity of the olive anthracnose pathogens is high in the Algarve comprising
291 eight different populations, but no single population was dominant (Table 1). *C.*
292 *acutatum* group A4 was the most frequent (27%), followed by sub-group A2-1 (25%),
293 group A5 (20%), *C. gloeosporioides* groups CG-1 (9%) and CG-2 (8%), *C. acutatum*
294 sub-groups A2-2 (6%) and A2-3 (3%) and group A3 (2%). At Trás-os-Montes in
295 Portugal, A2-1 and A4-1 of *C. acutatum* were dominant representing ca. 40% each of
296 the pathogen population. In the rest of Portugal, A2-1 represented 94% of the
297 *Colletotrichum* spp. populations (Talhinhas *et al.*, 2005). Reports so far suggest little or
298 no intra-regional olive anthracnose population heterogeneity throughout the world
299 (Gorter, 1956; Agosteo *et al.*, 2002; Scarito *et al.*, 2003; Talhinhas *et al.*, 2005;
300 Whitelaw-Weckert *et al.*, 2007). For example, *C. acutatum* sub-group A4-1 in Calabria
301 and Sardinia (Italy) and Montenegro; *C. gloeosporioides* in Sicily (Italy); both *C.*
302 *acutatum* sub-group A4-1 (79%) and *C. gloeosporioides* (21%) in Apulia (Italy); group
303 A5 in South Africa and group A9 in Australia have been identified as the cause of olive
304 anthracnose. Within *C. acutatum*, groups A2 and A4 are considered as the two farthest
305 lineages (Sreenivasaprasad & Talhinhas, 2005). Groups A3, A5 and A9 are closer to
306 A2, while A6 is closer to A4 (Table 1). Interestingly, A2-1, A2-2, A2-3, A3 and A5, all
307 related to the A2 lineage, along with sub-group A4-1 and *C. gloeosporioides* were
308 identified in Algarve. This suggests wider diversity in the Algarve region of groups
309 related to the *C. acutatum* A2 lineage compared to the A4 lineage, which is more
310 diverse at Trás-os-Montes, where anthracnose incidence has only recently become
311 frequent.

312 Eight different populations of the olive anthracnose pathogens *C. acutatum* and *C.*
313 *gloeosporioides* displaying distinct structure and varied biogeographic association
314 patterns have been identified in the Algarve. The high level of pathogen genetic
315 variability coinciding with increased host gene pool suggests the Algarve as a centre of
316 pathogen diversity and corroborates recent work suggesting western Mediterranean as
317 an important centre of olive diversity and domestication. It is well recognised that
318 diversity of pests and pathogens tends to be higher in the centres of diversity of their
319 hosts. Phylogenetic knowledge of olives could further improve our understanding of the
320 evolution and adaptation of anthracnose pathogens, as was reported for another major
321 pest, the olive fly (Nardi *et al.*, 2005).

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398 Table 1. rRNA-ITS nucleotide sequence distance coefficients based on Kimura 2-P
 399 model and database references for the different *Colletotrichum* spp. populations
 400 responsible for olive anthracnose in general, and the frequency of occurrence of specific
 401 populations in the Algarve

	<i>C. acutatum</i>									<i>C. gloeosporioides</i>		Database reference
	A2-1	A2-2	A2-3	A3	A4-1	A4-2*	A5	A6*	A9**	CG-1	CG-2	
A2-1	0.0000	0.0033	0.0017	0.0123	0.0238	0.0256	0.0067	0.0312	0.0042	0.0815	0.0815	AM991131 ^a
A2-2	0.0033	0.0000	0.0050	0.0165	0.0238	0.0256	0.0101	0.0313	0.0084	0.0776	0.0776	AM991132 ^a
A2-3	0.0017	0.0050	0.0000	0.0144	0.0255	0.0273	0.0084	0.0334	0.0063	0.0834	0.0834	AM991133 ^a
A3	0.0123	0.0165	0.0144	0.0000	0.0228	0.0249	0.0082	0.0270	0.0126	0.1014	0.1014	AM991134
A4-1	0.0238	0.0238	0.0255	0.0228	0.0000	0.0017	0.0203	0.0143	0.0277	0.0779	0.0779	AM991135
A4-2	0.0256	0.0256	0.0273	0.0249	0.0017	0.0000	0.0221	0.0164	0.0299	0.0799	0.0799	AM991136
A5	0.0067	0.0101	0.0084	0.0082	0.0203	0.0221	0.0000	0.0270	0.0084	0.0777	0.0777	AM991137
A6	0.0312	0.0313	0.0334	0.0270	0.0143	0.0164	0.0270	0.0000	0.0320	0.0920	0.0920	AJ749700 ^b
A9	0.0042	0.0084	0.0063	0.0126	0.0277	0.0299	0.0084	0.0320	0.0000	0.0916	0.0916	DQ991751 ^c
CG-1	0.0815	0.0776	0.0834	0.1014	0.0779	0.0799	0.0777	0.0920	0.0916	0.0000	0.0017	AM991138
CG-2	0.0815	0.0776	0.0834	0.1014	0.0779	0.0799	0.0777	0.0920	0.0916	0.0017	0.0000	AM991139
Frequency in Algarve	25%	6%	3%	2%	27%	0%	20%	0%	0%	9%	8%	

402 ^a sequences for part of the β -tubulin 2 gene: AM992147 (A2-1 and A2-2) and
 403 AM992148 (A2-3);

404 ^b Talhinas *et al.*, 2005;

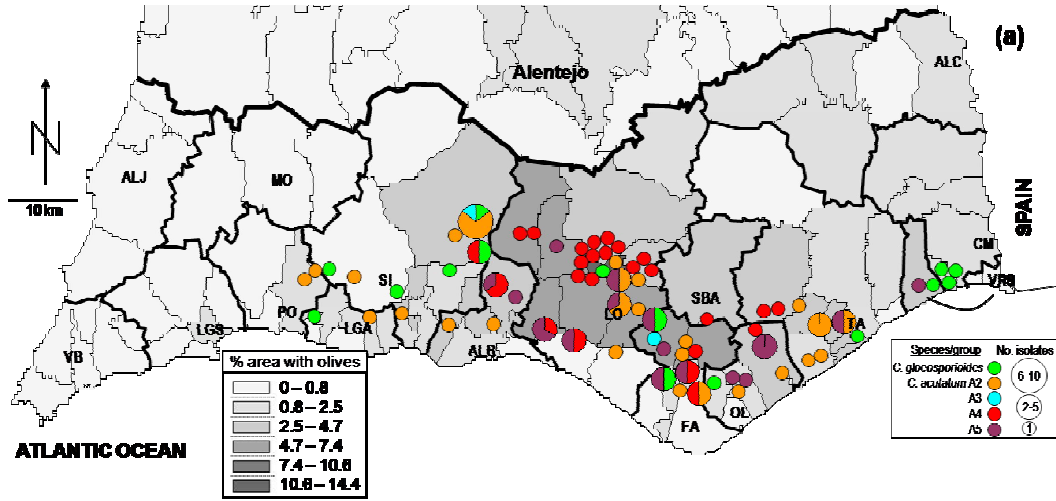
405 ^c Whitelaw-Weckert *et al.*, 2007;

406 * A4-2 and A6 are present at Trás-os-Montes, Portugal; ** A9 has been identified in
 407 Australia.

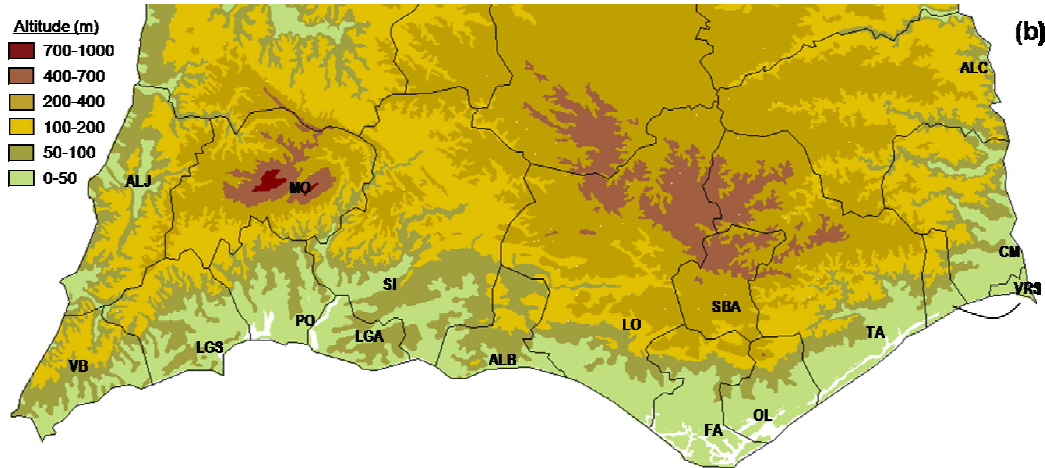
408 Fig. 1. Maps of the Algarve region in Portugal depicting: (a) geographic distribution of
409 olive (shades of grey based on % of total area dedicated to olive cultivation; INE, 2001)
410 at the level of 'freguesia' (the smallest administrative division) and anthracnose
411 pathogens *Colletotrichum acutatum* and *C. gloeosporioides*. Pie-charts represent the
412 proportion of the different genetic entities at each location, while their size reflects the
413 number of isolates analysed over the four years of study. Different genetic entities (*C.*
414 *acutatum* groups and *C. gloeosporioides*) were found at a single location in different
415 years (A4 and A5 at Pereiro, Olhão; A4 and *C. gloeosporioides* at Monte Branco,
416 Silves), on different host plants in the same year (A2, A3 and *C. gloeosporioides* at
417 Portela de Messines, Silves) and on the same tree or same fruit (A2 and A5 at Santa
418 Margarida, Tavira; A4 and A5 at Monchina, Albufeira; A3 and *C. gloeosporioides* at
419 Portela de Messines, Silves; and A5 and *C. gloeosporioides* at Patação, Faro), the latter
420 suggests the co-occurrence of different genetic entities on infected fruits; (b) hipsometry
421 (CNA, 1982); (c) soil type (Cardoso *et al.*, 1971); and (d) phytogeography (Franco,
422 1994) and biogeography (Costa *et al.*, 1998) of the Atlantic superprovince (Atlantic-
423 mediterranean sub-region, Euro-siberian region). Municipalities are ALB – Albufeira,
424 ALC – Alcoutim, ALJ – Aljezur, CM – Castro Marim, FA – Faro, LGA – Lagoa, LGS
425 – Lagos, LO – Loulé, MO – Monchique, OL – Olhão, PO – Portimão, SBA – São Brás
426 de Alportel, SI – Silves, TA – Tavira, VB – Vila do Bispo, VRS – Vila Real de Santo
427 António.

428
429 Fig. 2. Patterns of occurrence of olive anthracnose pathogen populations (*C. acutatum*
430 groups A2-A5 and *C. gloeosporioides*, CG) and the related disease severity ratings in
431 the field in the Algarve region during 2004-2007. (a) Temporal variation in the
432 frequency of occurrence of different components of the pathogens; (b) Average
433 anthracnose severity (%) recorded in the field related to the genetic identity of the
434 pathogen populations during autumns 2004-2005 and 2006-2007; and (c) Variation in
435 the frequency of occurrence (%) of different genetic entities of the anthracnose
436 pathogens in relation to host genetic backgrounds.

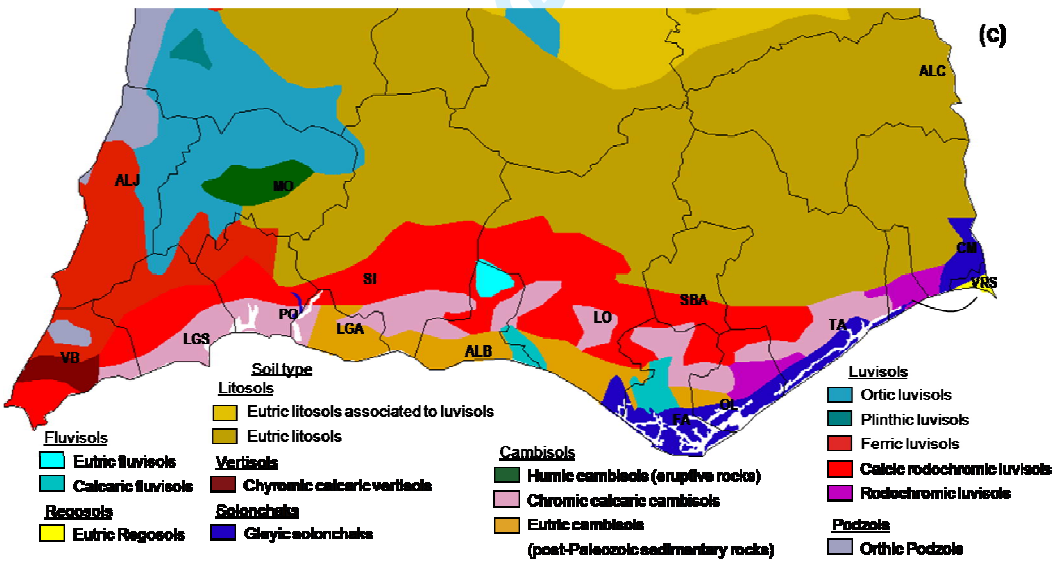
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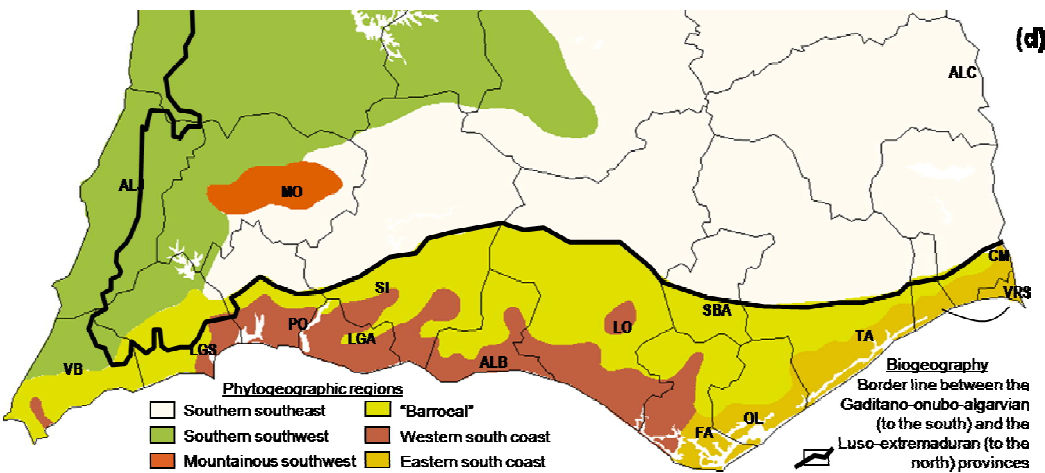
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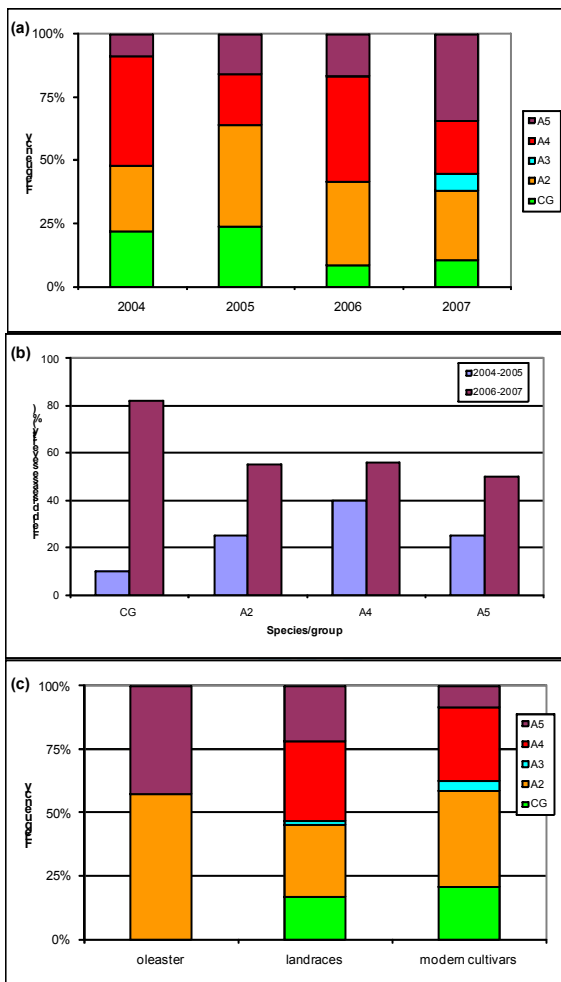
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