

1 A decade of hidden phytoplasmas unveiled through citizen science

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Citizens looking for plant diseases.
Edel x DALL*E

27 **ABSTRACT**

28 Climate change is impacting agriculture in many ways, and a contribution from all is required to reduce
29 the imminent losses related to it. Recently, it has been shown that citizen science could be a way to trace
30 the impact of climate change. However, how can citizen science be applied in plant pathology? Here,
31 using as an example a decade of phytoplasma-related diseases reported by growers, agronomists, citizens
32 in general, and confirmed by a government laboratory, we explore a new way of valuing plant pathogens
33 monitoring data deriving from land-users or stakeholders. Through this collaboration we found that in
34 the last decade thirty-four hosts have been affected by phytoplasmas, nine, thirteen and five of these
35 plants were, for the first time, reported phytoplasma hosts in Eastern Canada, in Canada and worldwide,
36 respectively. Another finding of great impact is the first report of a ‘*Ca. P. phoenicium*’-related strain in
37 Canada, while ‘*Ca. P. pruni*’ and ‘*Ca. P. pyri*’ was reported for the first time in Eastern Canada. These
38 findings will have a great impact in the management of phytoplasmas and their insect vectors. Using
39 these insect-vectored bacterial pathogens, we show the needs of new strategies that allow a fast and
40 accurate communication between concerned citizens and those institutions confirming their observations.

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42 **KEYWORDS:** Citizen science, climate change, phytoplasmas, insect vectors, pest monitoring

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51 Phytoplasmas (*Candidatus Phytoplasma*), are phloem-limited and insect transmitted pathogens
52 associated with a vast number of plant diseases affecting many commercially important crops (Kumari
53 et al. 2019; Pusz-Bochenska et al. 2022). In the last decade, countries like Brazil, India, and China have
54 reported hundreds of new hosts affected by phytoplasmas, evidence of the risk that these pathogens
55 represent in tropical and warm regions (Canale et al. 2020; Rao 2021; Wang et al. 2022). In the coming
56 years, a warmer climate is expected to affect most regions as a consequence of climate change, which
57 will have a serious impact on insect pest distribution, disease incidence, and food security (Ristaino et
58 al. 2021; Outhwaite et al. 2022;). Increases of temperatures can (i) accelerate insect's metabolic rate and
59 herbivory (Dillon et al. 2010; Deutsch et al. 2018), (ii) increase the number of insect generations per year
60 (Deutsch et al. 2008), (iii) increase the multiplication of phytoplasmas in plants, and the dissemination
61 of the pathogen by insect vectors (Maggi et al. 2014; Bahar et al. 2018; Sabato et al. 2020), and (iv) favor
62 the colonization of new niches by expanding their thermal limits, especially for those in temperate regions
63 (Harvey et al. 2020). However, to trace the direct impact of such phenomena is difficult and requires
64 long term studies and active surveillance (Brown et al. 2020).

65 Recently, the role of citizen science on tracking the effects of climate change has been extensively
66 explored, with the platform *iNaturalist* (<https://www.inaturalist.org/>) as a successful example, allowing
67 to understand changes in global diversity (Callaghan et al. 2022; Wolf et al. 2022; Shumskaya et al.
68 2023). However, how could citizen science contribute to identify the incidence of plant diseases during
69 long periods of time? A tool like *iNaturalist* could help to report any encounter of plants affected by some
70 diseases, but for microorganisms like phytoplasmas, a laboratory confirmation is required to ensure that
71 the symptoms observed are related to the presence of the pathogen.

72 Plant pathology diagnostic laboratories or clinics can play a key role on this kind of studies confirming
73 observations made by growers, agronomists, or just concerned citizens worried by their ornamental
74 plants, community gardens or parks health status. Unfortunately, very often, important information like
75 pathogen diversity or host affected by different disease obtained by those labs remain nondisclosed

76 making difficult to develop efficient evidence-based management strategies, although policy makers are
77 usually informed (Debber et al. 2019). Here, in collaboration with the plant protection and diagnosis
78 laboratory (LEDP, from French *Laboratoire d'expertise et de diagnostic en phytoprotection*) from the
79 Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food of Quebec, Canada, we are exploring how to make the most
80 of passive surveillance using as a model phytoplasma-related disease reports from the last ten years.

81 As a standard procedure, once the samples arrive to the LEDP, total DNA is extracted using a CTAB-
82 based method for samples analyzed before 2016, while DNeasy Plant Pro Kit (QIAGEN, CAD) after,
83 and used as template for PCR amplification of the 16S rRNA-encoding gene using phytoplasma universal
84 primers R16F2n/R16R2 as previously described (Gundersen and Lee 1996). Amplicons are later directly
85 sequenced using the amplification primers to confirm the presence of phytoplasma and the results were
86 provided to the client with a yes or no answer to the question if the sample is indeed infected by the
87 pathogen. As part of our study, in addition to information regarding host and year of collection, we also
88 had access to the forward and reverse 16S rRNA-encoding gene sequence amplified from the samples.
89 To identify the phytoplasma species, the sequences were assembled using the Staden package (Bonfield
90 and Whitwham 2010) and compared with references from GenBank using BLAST
91 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>). Phylogenetic analysis was conducted using the Neighbor Joining
92 algorithm in MEGA X (Kumar et al. 2018), and bootstrapping 1000 times to estimate stability.
93 *Acholeplasma laidlawii* strain PG-8 A (U14905) was used as outgroup to root the tree.

94 In terms of phytoplasma diversity, the vast majority of the phytoplasma strains identified in the last
95 decade affecting plants in East Canada are ‘*Candidatus Phytoplasma asteris*’-related strains (Fig. 1A,
96 Table 1). Interestingly, we found, for the first time in Canada, the presence of ‘*Ca. P. phoenicium*’-related
97 strains (16SrIX), and for the first time in Quebec and East Canada, the presence of ‘*Ca. P. pruni*’-related
98 strains (16SrIII) and ‘*Ca. P. pyri*’-related strains (16SrX) (Fig. 1A, Table 1). Here we found a ‘*Ca. P.*
99 *phoenicium*’-related strain infecting blueberry plants, which previous studies showed to be typically
100 infected by ‘*Ca. P. asteris*’ causing blueberry bushy stunt disease (BbSP) (Pérez-López et al. 2019;

101 Arocha-Rosete et al. 2019; Hammond et al. 2021). However, blueberry plants have been reported
102 infected by ‘*Ca. P. phoenicium*’ in New Jersey, USA, also causing BbSP in 2013 (Bagadia et al. 2013),
103 just a year before ‘*Ca. P. phoenicium*’-infected sample was collected in Quebec (Table 1). In Canada,
104 ‘*Ca. P. pruni*’ was previously reported affecting peach trees, milkweed, clover, and chokecherry in
105 Ontario (Davis et al. 1990; Gundersen et al. 1996; Lee et al. 1993; Wang and Hiruki 2005), chokecherry
106 in Saskatchewan (Wang and Hiruki 2005), and pin cherry in Alberta (Wang and Hiruki 2005), while now
107 we report that in 2012 a blackcurrant tree was positive for this phytoplasma species (Fig. 1A, Table 1).
108 Similarly, ‘*Ca. P. pyri*’ was previously reported in Canada but only infecting pear trees in British
109 Columbia and Ontario (Seemüller and Schneider 2004; Hunter et al. 2010), same host affected by this
110 phytoplasma species in Quebec in 2016 and later in 2019 (Fig. 1A, Table 1).

111 In terms of hosts affected by phytoplasmas, the results show a broad host range. Overall, we found 34
112 hosts infected by these pathogenic bacteria from 2012 to 2022, distributed in a total of 148 samples. For
113 nineteen of those hosts only one sample was analyzed but considering that this number is influenced by
114 several factors like, price of the tests, time availability of the observer/reporter to perform extensive
115 surveys in the field, and economic or ecologic importance of the infected plant, we believe that reporting
116 those hosts is necessary. Interestingly, twenty-eight of those hosts are new reports organized into three
117 categories: (i) new phytoplasma host for Eastern Canada, (ii) new phytoplasma host for Canada, and (iii)
118 new phytoplasma host worldwide. In the first category we have nine hosts: lettuce, celery, alfalfa, pear,
119 peony, garlic, broadleaf plantain, marigold, and aster (Table 1). All these have been previously reported
120 in Canada affected by phytoplasmas (Olivier et al. 2009). For example, celery and garlic have been
121 reported infected by ‘*Ca. P. asteris*’ in Alberta, pear trees, as we mentioned before, have been reported
122 affected by ‘*Ca. P. pyri*’ in British Columbia, and broadleaf plantain has been reported affected by ‘*Ca.*
123 *P. asteris*’ in Manitoba (Olivier et al. 2009) (Fig. 1B, Table 1). In the second category, new hosts for
124 Canada, we have thirteen including blackcurrant, raspberry, peony, apple trees, lily, gloxinia, wheat, soy,
125 tomatoes, speedwells, broccoli, pepper, and larkspur (Olivier et al. 2009) (Table 1). For example,

126 blackcurrant has been previously reported affected by ‘*Ca. P. asteris*’ in Czech Republic (Špak et al.
127 2004), raspberry affected by ‘*Ca. P. hyssanicum*’-related strains in Mexico (Pérez-López et al. 2017),
128 lily has been reported infected by ‘*Ca. P. asteris*’-related strains in Mexico (Cortés-Martínez et al. 2013),
129 and peonies by ‘*Ca. P. solani*’-related strains in China (Gao et al. 2012). An interesting finding is that
130 apple trees were found positive for phytoplasma in 2013 in Quebec, same year when there was a big
131 controversy around apple trees that could be affected by the quarantine pest apple proliferation
132 phytoplasma (‘*Ca. P. mali*’), but fortunately in Quebec was ‘*Ca. P. asteris*’ (Table 1). The last category
133 includes those hosts that haven’t been reported to be infected by phytoplasma before at the global scale,
134 including elderberry, honeysuckle, marshmallow, New Guinea impatiens, and bonesets (Table 1). After
135 an extensive review of literature, we were not able to find any report of these plant species infected by
136 phytoplasmas elsewhere before.

137 Another element that we can discuss is the prevalence of phytoplasma-related disease, as well as the
138 diversity of hosts affected every year (Fig. 1B). Generally, we observed that those years with high
139 incidence have also a high diversity of infected hosts, except for 2015, when was experienced a high
140 number of cases, but almost exclusively limited to blueberry plants infected by BbSP (Fig. 2B). Although
141 without concrete evidence, we believe that many growers and agronomists could send samples to do
142 confirmation during one or two growing seasons and after they will be able to recognize the symptoms
143 and proceed to eliminate symptomatic plants to avoid spreading of the disease. This could explain why
144 we see how the number of samples for certain hosts is high in some years and then decreases in the
145 following years. That could be the case for BbSP, a disease we know has been present during all the past
146 decade in Quebec (Pérez-López et al. 2019; Rosete et al. 2019; Hammond et al. 2021), but we only see
147 a high number of samples up to 2015, and an increase later in 2020 (Table 1, Fig. 1B). Based on these
148 observations, we should be cautious correlating the number of cases analyzed by the LEDP with the real
149 incidence of certain phytoplasma-related disease.

150 Through this study we are highlighting the role of citizen science and plant pathology laboratories on
151 following the incidence of plant diseases. To this day, we don't have an open platform that could be
152 used to record in real time symptoms or the presence of certain diseases. *iNaturalist* has been used also
153 for this purpose and we were able to find aster yellow phytoplasma reports in several locations, although
154 we didn't find any report in Quebec (Fig. 1C). United Kingdom, New Zealand, South Africa, and United
155 States have been exploring citizen science to study the distribution of plant pathogens and pests for several
156 years (Hulbert 2017; Ryan et al. 2018; Brown et al. 2020; de Groot et al. 2023), with some examples
157 here in Canada, mainly to study the distribution of insect pests (Martel 2020). Currently, there is a citizen
158 project ongoing focused on the plant pathogen *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* affecting common bean
159 (<https://www.pulsebreeding.ca/research/canadian-sclerotinia-initiative>). This project follows a model
160 organize in three main steps: incidence and collection performed by citizens, analysis performed by a
161 laboratory to later release results and confirmation of the identity of the pathogen. Nonetheless, how can
162 transparency be increased in the process? We propose the following suggestions to ensure fast
163 availability and quality of the data generated through citizen science in Canada and elsewhere: (1)
164 registration of symptoms in an interactive app or database like *iNaturalist* by observer or analyzer, which
165 would also guarantee to have a photographic archive of symptoms, (2) laboratory confirmation by
166 academic, government, or private institutions interested on follow up the specific disease or pest, and (3)
167 divulgation of the results through the same app or database, reports or peer-review publications (Fig.
168 1D). This system is not sustainable for all plant pathogens due to the high volume of analysis, but for
169 diseases expected to be highly influenced by climate change like those transmitted by insect vectors, is
170 an option can be used as early warning to anticipate threats from domestic, latent, emerging, new and
171 transboundary pests and to be ready for possible outbreaks. Through this collaboration between the
172 provincial government and academia, we have been able to highlight an issue that goes further than
173 phytoplasmas and can have an impact in all of us.

174

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295 **Table 1.** Full information of those samples affected by phytoplasmas identified and analyzed in Quebec
 296 from 2012 to 2022.

Host	No. samples (year)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma’ species	Genbank accession no.	New host
Highbush Blueberry (<i>Vaccinium corymbosum</i>)	6 (2012), 12 (2013), 6 (2014), 18 (2015), 2 (2016), 1 (2018), 1 (2019), 10 (2020), 1 (2022)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ211246- OQ211266, OQ211268- OQ211303	No
	1 (2014)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma phoenicium’	OQ211267	Canada
Grapevines (<i>Vitis vinifera</i>)	5 (2012), 8 (2013), 1 (2015)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ211335- OQ211348	No
Lingonberry (<i>Vaccinium vitis-idaea</i>)	12 (2021)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ211466- OQ211477	No
Lettuce (<i>Lactuca sativa</i>)	1 (2012), 3 (2020), 1 (2021)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ214210- OQ214214	Eastern Canada
Tomato (<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>)	3 (2020)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ214878- OQ214880	Canada
Carrot (<i>Daucus carota</i>)	1 (2012), 2 (2018), 1 (2021)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ214892- OQ214895	No
Raspberry (<i>Rubus fruticosus</i>)	1 (2012), 1 (2018), 1 (2019)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ214897- OQ214899	Canada
Lowbush Blueberry (<i>Vaccinium angustifolium</i>)	3 (2015)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ214925- OQ214927	No

Marigold (<i>Tagetes patula</i>)	3 (2018)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ214954- OQ214956	Eastern Canada
Elderberry (<i>Sambucus nigra</i>)	2 (2012), 1 (2020)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ214932- OQ214934	World
Apple (<i>Malus domestica</i>)	3 (2013)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215319- OQ215321	Canada
Honeysuckle (<i>Lonicera kamtschatica</i>)	1 (2013), 1 (2019)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ214952- OQ214953	World
Bell pepper (<i>Capsicum annuum</i>)	2 (2019)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215312- OQ215313	Canada
Garlic (<i>Allium sativum</i>)	1 (2013), 1 (2020)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215314- OQ215315	Eastern Canada
Blackcurrant (<i>Ribes nigrum</i>)	1 (2012)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma pruni’	OQ215738	Canada
	1 (2012)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215739	
Pear (<i>Pyrus communis</i>)	1 (2016), 1 (2019)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma pyri’	OQ215383- OQ215384	Eastern Canada
Speedwells (<i>Veronica persica</i>)	1 (2016), 1 (2020)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215735- OQ215736	Canada
Celery (<i>Apium graveolens</i>)	1 (2013)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215745	Eastern Canada
Broccoli (<i>Brassica oleracea</i>)	1 (2018)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215754	Canada
Lily (<i>Lilium candidum</i>)	1 (2013)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215755	Canada
Peony (<i>Paeonia officinalis</i>)	1 (2012)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215756	Canada
Larkspur (<i>Delphinium</i> sp.)	1 (2021)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215779	Canada

Potato (<i>Solanum tuberosum</i>)	1 (2015)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ221893	Eastern Canada
Wheat (<i>Triticum aestivum</i>)	1 (2014)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215792	Canada
Marshmallow (<i>Althaea officinalis</i>)	1 (2012)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215793	World
New Guinea impatiens (<i>Impatiens hawkeri</i>)	1 (2015)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215794	World
Soybean (<i>Glycine max</i>)	1 (2019)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ215796	Canada
Bonesets (<i>Eupatorium perfoliatum</i>)	1 (2013)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ216289	World
Broadleaf plantain (<i>Plantago major</i>)	1 (2016)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ216290	Eastern Canada
Gloxinia (<i>Gloxinia perennis</i>)	1 (2013)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ216489	Canada
Dahlia (<i>Dahlia pinnata</i>)	1 (2022)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ216557	Eastern Canada
Willow (<i>Salix alba</i>)	1 (2021)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ216558	Eastern Canada
Alfalfa (<i>Medicago sativa</i>)	1 (2020)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ216560	Eastern Canada
Aster (<i>Aster</i> sp.)	1 (2021)	‘ <i>Candidatus</i> Phytoplasma asteris’	OQ216559	Eastern Canada

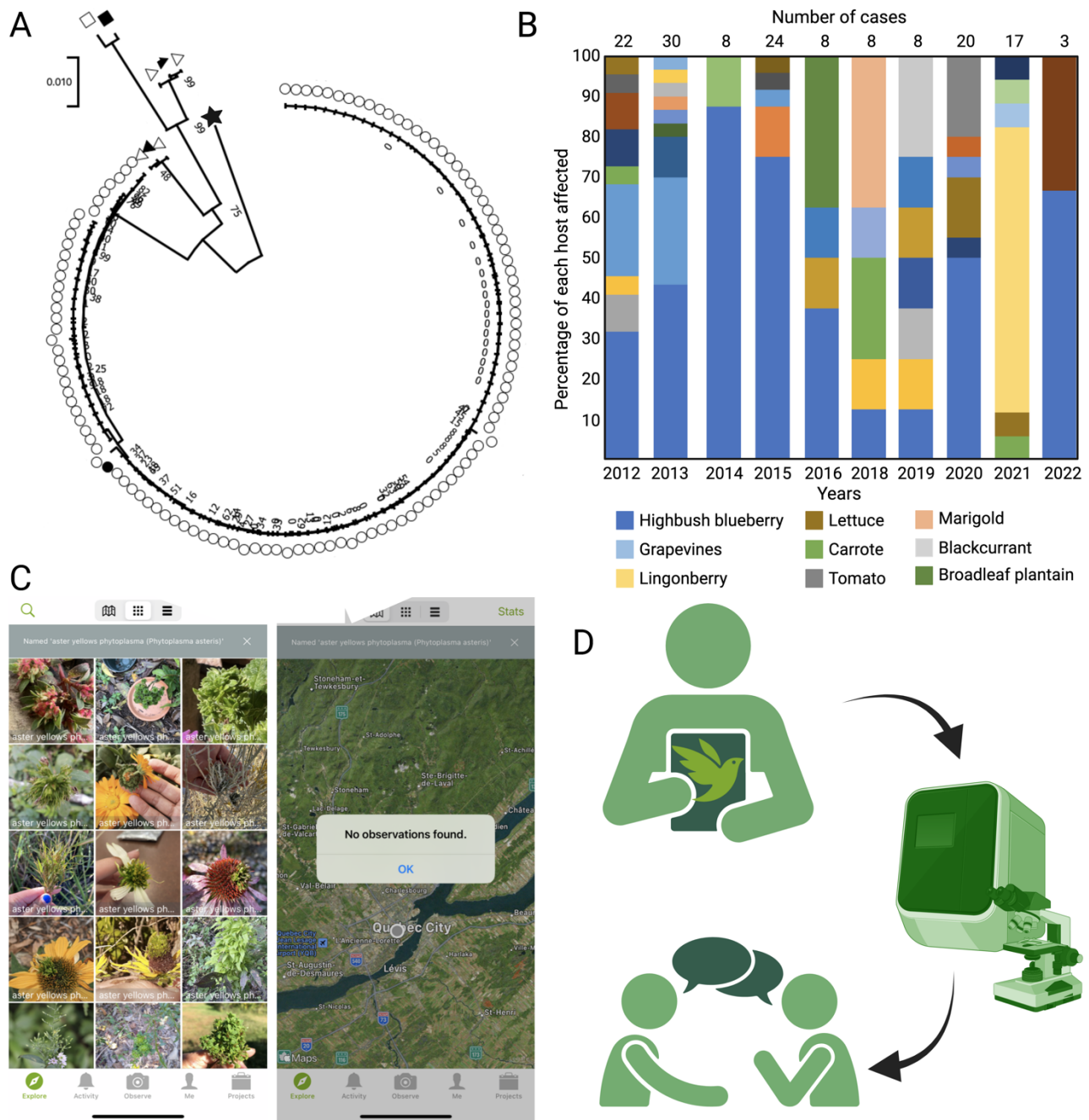
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302 **Fig. 1.** Phylogenetic analysis of 16S sequences generated by the LEDP in the last decade (A).
 303 Phylogenetic analysis was performed using the Neighbor Joining algorithm using 1000 replicates, as
 304 described in the main text. Circles are signaling '*Ca. P. asteris*'-related strains, square is marking '*Ca. P.*
 305 *phoenicium*'-related strain, triangle to the right is marking '*Ca. P. pruni*'-related strains, and triangle to
 306 the left is marking '*Ca. P. pyri*'-related strains. Filled labels represent reference species and star is the
 307 outgroup. Representation of the host diversity e incidence of phytoplasmas in the last decade (B).

308 *i*Naturalist search for ‘aster yellow phytoplasma’ shows several results in different geographic locations
309 but no results in Quebec despite knowing that hundreds of cases have been confirmed **(C)**. Schematic
310 representation of the model proposed by us to increase the impact of citizen science **(D)**.