

Detecting Genetic Introgression: High Levels of Intersubspecific Recombination Found in *Xylella fastidiosa* in Brazil

Leonard Nunney,^a Xiaoli Yuan,^a Robin E. Bromley,^b and Richard Stouthamer^b

Department of Biology, University of California, Riverside, California, USA,^a and Department of Entomology, University of California, Riverside, California, USA^b

Documenting the role of novel mutation versus homologous recombination in bacterial evolution, and especially in the invasion of new hosts, is central to understanding the long-term dynamics of pathogenic bacteria. We used multilocus sequence typing (MLST) to study this issue in *Xylella fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* from Brazil, a bacterium causing citrus variegated chlorosis (CVC) and coffee leaf scorch (CLS). All 55 citrus isolates typed (plus one coffee isolate) defined three similar sequence types (STs) dominated by ST11 (85%), while the remaining 22 coffee isolates defined two STs, mainly ST16 (74%). This low level of variation masked unusually large allelic differences (>1% divergence with no intermediates) at five loci (*leuA*, *petC*, *malF*, *cysG*, and *holC*). We developed an introgression test to detect whether these large differences were due to introgression via homologous recombination from another *X. fastidiosa* subspecies. Using additional sequencing around these loci, we established that the seven randomly chosen MLST targets contained seven regions of introgression totaling 2,172 bp of 4,161 bp (52%), only 409 bp (10%) of which were detected by other recombination tests. This high level of introgression suggests the hypothesis that *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* became pathogenic on citrus and coffee (crops cultivated in Brazil for several hundred years) only recently after it gained genetic variation via intersubspecific recombination, facilitating a switch from native hosts. A candidate donor is the subspecies infecting plum in the region since 1935 (possibly *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex*). This hypothesis predicts that nonrecombinant native *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* (not yet isolated) does not cause disease in citrus or coffee.

Xylella fastidiosa subsp. *pauca* is a bacterial plant pathogen causing citrus variegated chlorosis (CVC), a disease thus far only recorded in South America, primarily Brazil. It is considered to pose a serious potential threat to the citrus industry in the United States, and for this reason it is listed as a plant protection and quarantine select agent by the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA; see <http://www.selectagents.gov/>). It has caused significant economic losses within Brazilian agriculture since the first report of CVC in 1987 (5). The high economic impact of CVC promoted the sequencing of an *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* CVC strain (9a5c), the first plant pathogenic bacterium to have its genome completely sequenced and annotated (44). It also infects coffee, another economically important plant in Brazil: coffee leaf scorch (CLS) was first documented in Brazil in 1995 (3). *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* is presumed to be native to South America, and both citrus and coffee have been grown in Brazil and other South American countries since 1530/1540 and 1727, respectively (45, 35). This probable historical sympatry of host and pathogen raises the important question of why the diseases of CVC and CLS did not appear much earlier. We examine here the patterns of genetic variation seen within *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* to gain insight into this apparent paradox.

X. fastidiosa is a Gram-negative gammaproteobacterium limited to the xylem system of plants (46) and transmitted by xylem-feeding insects (38). *X. fastidiosa* has been divided into four subspecies (42, 43), and of these only *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* is absent from the United States. However, all four are restricted to the Americas.

This species is known to cause disease in a wide range of economically important plants in the United States (16); however, the three U.S. subspecies typically infect a limited range of different hosts, and none infect citrus. The *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa* causes Pierce's disease of grapevines and almond leaf scorch, the *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *sandyi* causes oleander leaf scorch, and the *X.*

fastidiosa subsp. *multiplex* is associated with scorch disease in a range of trees, including almond, peach, and oak trees.

X. fastidiosa subsp. *pauca* isolated from citrus and coffee is generally reciprocally host specific (1, 20), although infection of coffee plants by citrus isolates has sometimes been observed (19, 37). These two forms of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* are also found to be genetically distinct (1, 6, 39, 47; see also reference 28). Almeida et al. (1) used multilocus sequence typing (MLST) (21) to study the sequence diversity of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* based on the scheme introduced by Scally et al. (41) for the North American *X. fastidiosa*. In its original form, this MLST system was not optimized for use on *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*, and only four of the genes could be amplified, a problem that has now been corrected (49). Based on these four genes (*leuA*, *cysG*, *malF*, and *petC*) plus one other gene (*rfbD*) included in the Scally et al. (41) study, Almeida et al. (1) showed that the coffee (CLS-causing) and citrus (CVC-causing) strains are genetically distinct and that the phylogenetic trees of different genes using the same the *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* isolates were heterogeneous (i.e., they were not consistent with clonal evolution), providing strong evidence of recombination within the subspecies. This last result was consistent with a previous analysis of North American *X. fastidiosa*, which had indicated that recombination contributed about three times more to genetic diversity (measured at the nucleotide level) than point mutation (41).

Received 6 April 2012 Accepted 9 April 2012

Published ahead of print 27 April 2012

Address correspondence to Leonard Nunney, leonard.nunney@ucr.edu.

Supplemental material for this article may be found at <http://aem.asm.org/>.

Copyright © 2012, American Society for Microbiology. All Rights Reserved.

doi:10.1128/AEM.01126-12

The high level of recombination-related diversity found in the North American *X. fastidiosa* was in part due to intersubspecific homologous recombination, a phenomenon analyzed in *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa* (31, 49), where *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex* was the donor. Almeida et al. (1) suggested that the same process may have occurred in *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*, with *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa* (or perhaps some other North American subspecies) as the possible donor. These researchers found patterns consistent with intersubspecific recombination at two loci (*leuA* and *rflbD*); however, the data were not analyzed in any detail or subjected to statistical testing.

Intersubspecific recombination obviously requires the sympatry of two subspecies. *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa* and *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex* have been sympatric in the United States for more than 100 years (32), providing ample opportunity for genetic exchange. There appears to have been a similar opportunity in South America between *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* and an introduced North American form. *Xylella* causing plum leaf scald was first detected in 1935 in Argentina and then in Paraguay and Brazil (13, 18). Four genetic analyses of one plum isolate showed that it is more closely related to the U.S. subspecies than to *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* (6, 17, 27, 30).

The present work was designed to analyze in detail the hypothesis that *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* has been involved in intersubspecific recombination and, if so, to determine whether it was likely to be a major source of genetic variability. Our reason for investigating this question was to gain further insight into the paradox mentioned above: that although citrus and coffee have been grown in South America for about 250 years or more, the diseases of CVC and CLS only appeared around 25 years ago. A host shift following intersubspecific recombination might explain the time delay.

Our approach was first to type the available *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* isolates using the seven-locus MLST scheme already used to type *X. fastidiosa* (49), thus enabling a direct comparison among the subspecies using standardized data. Second, the MLST data were used to determine whether the hypothesis of intersubspecific homologous recombination could be rigorously verified using a new test specifically designed to detect genetic introgression and, if so, whether introgressed sequence was a significant source of genetic diversity. Third, we sought to determine whether our introgression test was substantially more effective at detecting regions of introgression arising from homologous recombination than some commonly used recombination tests.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

MLST analysis. The MLST analysis was based on 55 isolates of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* from citrus and 23 from coffee, including the 26 citrus and 20 coffee samples previously analyzed by Almeida et al. (1). These isolates were sampled from symptomatic plants in different regions of Brazil, mostly from São Paulo state (79%) (see Table S1 in the supplemental material). The seven MLST genes (plus one cell surface protein coding gene, *pilU*) were sequenced using previously described procedures (49). According to the MLST protocol, each allele of a particular MLST gene region was given a different number, building on the preexisting database of known *X. fastidiosa* variation (maintained at www.pubmlst.org/xfastidiosa). Thus, each isolate was characterized by its allelic profile, consisting of the seven numbers defining the alleles at each of the seven loci. Each unique allelic profile was assigned a sequence type (ST) number. The STs were grouped into clonal complexes using the grouping criterion

that within each complex the STs must share five or more alleles with at least one other member of the clonal complex (41, 49).

Introgression test. To detect regions of intersubspecific recombination, we developed an introgression test. The test was designed to detect short regions of DNA that have introgressed into a native population (in this case, *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*) from some donor group via homologous recombination by comparing native sequence variation to reference sequence from the probable donor. It is not essential that the reference group is the actual donor; the test can still be effective provided the reference is an outgroup to both the native and the donor taxa. In the present case, the reference group consisted of the North American subspecies.

The test is based on the null expectation that within any given short region of the genome there will be a constant ratio of the number of fixed differences (F) between the native and reference populations compared to the number of polymorphic sites (P) in the native population that share at least one variant base with the reference population. In the absence of homologous recombination, bases are shared between the native and reference populations due to common ancestry or, more rarely, due to homoplasy, and the ratio (F:P) is dependent upon mutation, selection, and genetic drift. Neighboring regions a few hundred bases long are expected to be affected equally by all three processes. The introgression test detects local heterogeneity in the F:P ratio by comparing the ratio of adjacent regions. Heterogeneity arises when some genomes of the native taxon carry a short stretch of introgressed donor sequence (and some carry the ancestral sequence) next to a region with no history of introgression. The region with introgression will have decreased F sites (fixed differences) and increased P sites relative to the region with only ancestral native sequence. This pattern will continue to apply even if homologous recombination within the native taxon has mixed the ancestral and introgressed sequence.

Potential “native” regions (i.e., no introgression) and “introgressed” regions (i.e., those polymorphic for introgressed and native sequence) are identified from the data. The criteria used to define the breakpoints between regions were as follows: (i) a reversal of site type (F to P or P to F) of three or more consecutive sites; (ii) however, if this point differed depending on direction (evaluating 5' to 3' or 3' to 5'), then to be conservative the partition maximizing the length of the nonrecombinant region was chosen; (iii) an informative P site was weighted as two sites in the application of criterion i; and (iv) if there was a potential breakpoint to a nonrecombinant region very close to the end of the sequence (typically involving two or three F sites), then (to be conservative) the ambiguous region was eliminated from the analysis, i.e., not included as part of the adjoining recombinant region.

Consider the case where the sequence data begins with a high F (native) region and ends with a lower F (possibly introgressed) region. (The argument is reversed if the first segment is high P and the second segment is high F.) We choose a dividing line as described above, with the first region containing $L_1 (= F_1 + P_1)$ sites of interest and the second containing $L_2 (= F_2 + P_2)$ sites, giving a total length of $L_{12} (= L_1 + L_2)$ sites. We wanted to know the probability of randomly getting a result at least as extreme as that observed in the separation of F and P sites among these two regions, sampling from $F_{12} (= F_1 + F_2)$ fixed and $P_{12} (= P_1 + P_2)$ polymorphic sites. This is defined by the following equation:

$$P = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^C \frac{L_1! L_2!}{(F_1 + i)!(P_1 - i)!(F_2 - i)!(P_2 + i)!}}{\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{L_{12}!}{F_{12}! P_{12}!} \right]} \quad (1)$$

where C equals the smaller of P_1 and F_2 . The numerator is the number of combinations that are at least as extreme as the observed sequence (i.e., having at least F_1 fixed sites in the 5' region of L_1 sites and at least P_2 polymorphic sites in the 3' region), i.e., the sum of the number of combinations given a partition as extreme ($i = 0$) or more extreme ($i > 0$) than the observed one. The total number of different combinations is $L_{12}!$

($F_{12}!P_{12}!$), but only half are relevant since half of these will have a higher F:P ratio at the 5' end, and half will have a higher F:P ratio at the 3' end. This defines the denominator.

The probability (equation 1) assumes that the two regions encompass the whole sequence; however, for any region internal to the DNA sequence one F (or P) must be ignored. This corrects the built-in bias due to the nonrandom choice of the beginning or ending base. For example, a 5' internal high F region will be chosen to start with an F site, and a 3' internal high P region will be chosen to end with a P site. This nonrandom base must be ignored when using equation 1. Consider the following specific case: if an internal high F segment (region 1, with 7 F and 2 P sites) is compared to a 3' high P segment (region 2 with 3 F and 11 P sites) that runs all of the way to the end of the sequence, then the first F site is ignored in defining F_1 ($= 7 - 1$), whereas, since the end of region 2 is objective (it corresponds to the end of the available sequence), all of its sites are counted. Thus, $F_1 = 6$, $P_1 = 2$, $F_2 = 3$, $P_2 = 11$, and $C = 2$. The probability, p , of a partition as extreme or more extreme is thus $[10,192 + 728 + 14]/248,710 = 0.044$, i.e., the partition is significant at the 5% level. A program calculating the probability is available on request.

The performance of the introgression test was compared to that of some published tests designed to detect recombination. We used the RDP3.44 package to implement RDP (22), GeneConv (34), MaxChi (23), Chimaera (36), and 3Seq (4).

Identifying regions of intersubspecific recombination. *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* alleles from five of the seven MLST genes (49) and those from the *rfbD* sequence analyzed by Almeida et al. (1) showed unusual levels of divergence, so the sequence at these sites was extended at the 5' and/or 3' end of the MLST sequence using a representative isolate of each of the *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* STs: 1,465 bp 5' of *leuA* (giving a total sequence length of 2173 bp), 695 bp 5' and 700 bp 3' of *petC* (total, 1,928 bp), 524 bp 5' and 716 bp 3' of *cysG* (total, 1,840 bp), 612 bp 5' of *malF* (total, 1,342 bp), 544 bp 5' of *holC* (total, 923 bp), and 699 bp 5' and 559 bp 3' of *rfbD* (total, 1,705 bp). The primer information is given in Table S2 in the supplemental material.

Our introgression test was applied across these regions by comparing the allelic variation in *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* to the intersubspecific variation represented by the corresponding sequence from the three other subspecies, using M12 (ALS0299, *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex* ST7), Temecula1 (PD0001, *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa* ST1), and Ann-1 (OLS0002, *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *sandyi* ST5).

Analysis of genetic distance and divergence time estimation. Given evidence of recombination, the genetic differences among the STs are best documented by genetic distance rather than using a phylogenetic model (which assumes clonality). We compared the concatenation of the seven MLST sequences (4,161 bp) of all of the *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* STs and compared these STs to the other *X. fastidiosa* subspecies, represented by ST5 (the only *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *sandyi* ST), ST7 (representing *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex*), plus ST1 and ST18 representing *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa* from the United States and Costa Rica, respectively (29, 32). The distance tree with bootstrap values (from 500 replicates) was created using the programs Seqboot, Dnadist, Fitch, and Consense from Phylip 3.69 (11, 12).

To estimate a diversification date for *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*, we used sequence data from the seven MLST loci, including the supplementary sequencing that was obtained for the recombination analysis, plus the sequences from *rfbD* and *pilU*. However, since intersubspecific recombination would bias downward the estimate of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* divergence from the other subspecies, we excluded all regions identified as recombinant by our Introgression Test. Noncoding intergenic regions were also excluded. The remaining sequence was concatenated in frame using data from the following strains: one isolate representing each of the *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* STs, plus reference sequences for the other subspecies, again using M12, Temecula1, and Ann-1.

These data were used to define a phylogeny based on changes at synonymous sites using PAML 4.4 (48), allowing the dN/dS ratio to vary

among branches (model 1 in the program). Assuming the neutrality of synonymous substitutions allows the branch lengths to be used to estimate a time scale (43). Specifically, this is calculated using the following equation:

$$T = K/\mu G \quad (2)$$

where T is the time in years, K is the estimated number of synonymous substitutions per synonymous site, μ is the per division mutation rate (using 5.4×10^{-10} changes per site per generation), and G is the division rate (using 1,000 generations per year). Measurement of the growth rate of *X. fastidiosa* under ideal culture conditions (10) showed a maximum rate (at 28°C) of $G = 1,700$, while $G = 1,000$ corresponds to growth at 22°C. We consider that the number of divisions in the field, under conditions of fluctuating temperature and low levels of nutrition, will be substantially lower than this value. Thus, using a value of $G = 1,000$ is expected to lead to estimated divergence times considerably shorter than the actual times.

To incorporate a measure of random variation and potential variation in the rate of evolution across the genome, we applied a jackknife procedure (see reference 43). Specifically, we divided the concatenated sequence into 10 regions, each containing 10% of the synonymous SNPs. Eliminating each of these 10 regions in turn, we created 10 sets of results from which we used the jackknife pseudovalues to estimate the mean and variance of each divergence time.

Nucleotide sequence accession numbers. The MLST data are available at the MLST website (<http://pubmlst.org>), and the previously published gene sequences are available at GenBank (32, 49). Newly determined from this study are *holC* allele 13 (JQ290485), *nuoL* allele 8 (JQ290486), *cysG* allele 9 (JQ290487), and the longer sequences from CVC0145, CVC0251, COF0239, and COF0238 (JQ290488 to JQ290511). The other longer sequences were from published genomes.

RESULTS

MLST-based genetic relationships. MLST of 78 isolates of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* revealed only five STs that were divided into three clonal complexes (CCs) (Table 1). MLST of the 55 isolates from citrus defined three STs that grouped as a single clonal complex (CC1), and 86% had the same sequence type (ST11). The second most abundant citrus ST (9%) was ST13, which included the sequenced strain 9a5c (CVC0018) (44). ST12 was the final citrus type (5%). This complex also included a single coffee isolate (COF0237) of the common ST11. The other coffee isolates defined two clonal complexes (CC2 and CC3), CC2 consisting of ST16 and CC3 consisting of ST14. These two CCs represented 74 and 22% of the 23 coffee isolates (Table 1). The level of site polymorphism seen in citrus isolates was 0.31%, which is half of the variation (0.77%) seen among the coffee isolates (after excluding the one "citrus type" isolate, COF0237, which would further inflate the variation of the coffee isolates).

The genetic distances among the concatenated sequences of the five STs of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* and their similarity to representative STs of the other three subspecies are shown in Fig. 1. A maximum-likelihood tree with the same subspecific topology but including more STs from *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex* and *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa* was given in Nunney et al. (32). This topology is consistent with prior analyses (see, for example, references 1, 15, 43, and 49).

Intersubspecific recombination. Although the number of STs was found to be very low, the pattern of variability among the alleles making up these STs is complex. Specifically, it is bimodal, with some allele pairs differing at one to four sites, while others showed unexpectedly large single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) differences, with no intermediate alleles bridging the difference. Using the allele numbers given in Table 1, the allelic dif-

TABLE 1 MLST of 55 CVC and 23 CLS isolates of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* showing all STs found^a

ST	Allele type at each MLST locus							Plant host	No. of isolates	Almeida et al. ^b	
	<i>leuA</i>	<i>petC</i>	<i>malF</i>	<i>cysG</i>	<i>holC</i>	<i>nuoL</i>	<i>glT</i>			Type	No. of isolates
Clonal complex 1											
ST11	7	7	7	9	10	8	8	Citrus	47	1	22
								Coffee	1		0
ST12	7	7	7	9	13	8	8	Citrus	3		0
ST13	7	6	7	9	10	7	8	Citrus	5	2	4
Clonal complex 2											
ST16	7	6	8	10	11	8	8	Coffee	17	3	2*
										4	13
										5	1*
Clonal complex 3											
ST14	8	8	8	11	12	9	9	Coffee	5	6	1*
										7	3

^a Each ST represents a unique allelic profile defined across the seven MLST loci, and each member of a clonal complex shares at least five alleles with another member. Data from Almeida et al. (1) are included in the last two columns of the table for comparison. The numbering of the alleles within each locus is arbitrary. It is not determined by genetic similarity.

^b All isolates used by Almeida et al. (1) were included in the MLST analysis. *, Subdivision of ST due to alleles at *rfbD*, a gene not included in the set of seven MLST genes.

ferences were as follows: three allelic pairs differed by one SNP (*petC*, 6 versus 8; *cysG*, 9 versus 10; and *glT*, 8 versus 9), while pairwise comparisons of two trios of alleles differed by 1, 2, and 3 bp (*nuoL*, 7, 8, and 9) and 1, 3, and 4 bp (*holC*, 10, 11, and 13); however, collapsing these three pairs and two trios leaves five comparisons that show minimum differences of 8 to 14 sites: *leuA*, 7 versus 8 = 8 SNPs (1.1% divergence); *cysG*, 9 versus 11 = 9 SNPs (1.5% divergence); *petC*, 6 versus 7 = 10 SNPs (1.9% divergence); *malF*, 7 versus 8 = 14 SNPs (1.9% divergence); and *holC*, 10 versus 12 = 10 SNPs (2.6% divergence). Such large allelic differences, reaching the level of subspecific divergence (43), can arise (i) via point mutation over a very long period of clonal diversification in the absence of recombination or (ii) via the homologous recom-

ination of one allele with some genetically distinct taxon. The first possibility is untenable given the strong evidence of homologous recombination in this species (49) and, specifically, in subspecies *pauca* (1).

Given the second possibility, the introgression of genetic variation from some distinct taxon, these divergent pairs were investigated further for evidence of recombination with the other *X. fastidiosa* subspecies. To increase the power of our analysis of these MLST data, we sequenced further upstream, downstream, or both depending on the pattern observed. These extended sequences were investigated using our new introgression test (see Materials and Methods). Regions of possible introgression via intersubspecific recombination were identified as segments of sequence with

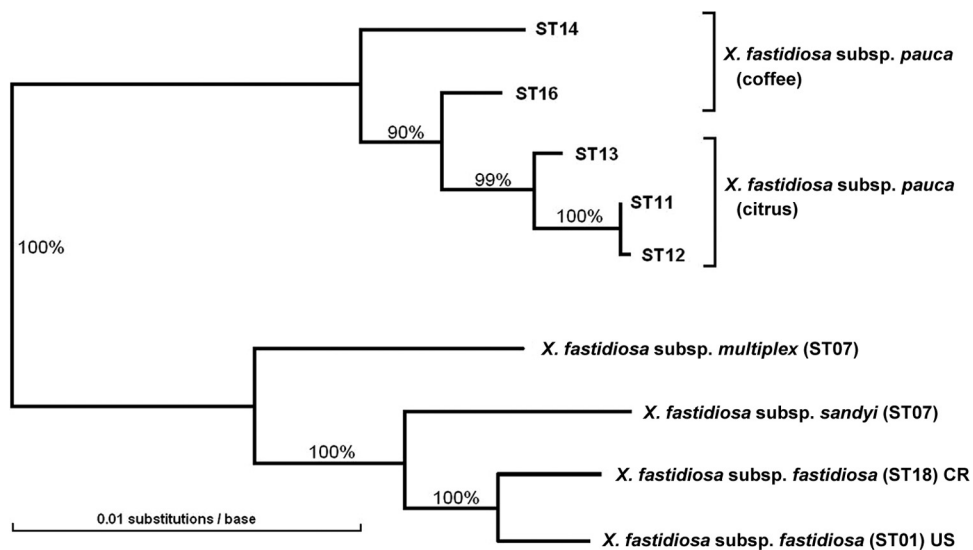


FIG 1 Genetic distance tree relating the five *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* MLST sequence types (STs) identified from 78 Brazilian isolates to each other and to the other *X. fastidiosa* subspecies. The tree is based on a concatenation of the seven MLST sequences. The other subspecies are defined by a single representative sequence type, except subsp. *fastidiosa*, which is represented by one U.S. ST and one ST from Costa Rica. The numbers at each node indicate the bootstrap percentages.

Gene region	Start ¹	Total length	Fixed	Poly	break posn	Fixed	Poly	break posn	Fixed	Poly	break posn	Fixed	Poly	break posn	Fixed	Poly
<i>leuA</i>	1734908	2173	9	0	445±5 ***	6 Rec. length	16 (1) >1728bp									
Recombinant introgression detected (Other Software)												None				
<i>petC</i>	877478	1928	6	2	568±18 **	1 Rec. length	13 (2) 698bp	1266±48 **	6	1						
Recombinant introgression detected (Other Software)												None				
<i>malF</i>	2333817	1341	10	4	387±45 ***	0 Rec. length	25 (2) 633bp	1020±77 ***	5	2						
Recombinant introgression detected (Other Software)						ST14: RDP (ns); GC (ns); MC san 181-880 **; CH san 428-794 **; 3S mul 240-967 *** ST16: RDP (ns); GC (ns); MC san 430-950 ***; CH san 428-794 **; 3S mul 240-967 ***										
<i>cysC</i>	785737	1840	8	0	504±42 **	0 Rec. length	5 (0) 201bp	705±22 **	10	0	957±43 ***	4 Rec. length	15 (0) 649bp	1606±9	3	0
Recombinant introgression detected (Other Software)												None				
<i>holC</i>	136469	905	2	93 (56)	543±8 ***	5	1	569±1 *	0 Rec. length	9 (4) 158bp	726±24	2	1			(too small to test)
Recombinant introgression detected (Other Software)												None				
<i>rfbD</i>	268264	1705	3	1	262±6 ***	2 Rec. length	68 (4) >1443bp									
Recombinant introgression detected (Other Software)						ST16: RDP fas 930-1689 ***; GC fas 929-end ***; MC fas 764-end ***; CH fas 929-end ***; 3S fas 764-end *** ST16: RDP ns ; GC fas 536-659 ***; MC ns ; CH ns ; 3S fas 536-658 ***										

¹ Based on 9a5c genome. ² Region on the complementary strand.

Sig Levels: * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001.

FIG 2 Regions of intersubspecific recombination were identified in five out of seven MLST gene regions plus *rfbD* using the introgression test. Recombinant introgression was identified by a significant increase in the ratio of polymorphic (Poly) to fixed (Fixed) sites (as defined in the text). The Fixed/Poly pairs progress from left to right along the sequence from 5' to 3'. The data from recombinant portions are in boldface, together with the number of informative sites (in parentheses) and an estimate of length of the event (Rec. length). The “break position” (measured from the start position) is the midpoint between sites defining where the regions start and end. Our detection of intersubspecific recombination was compared to the patterns revealed using five other recombination tests (RDP, GeneConv [GC], MaxChi [MC], Chimaera [CH], and 3Seq [3S]; see the text). Each introgression detected is defined by the subspecific donor, the region detected, and the significance. The sequence data available were extended beyond that available from MLST using one representative of each ST (see Table 2).

very few “fixed” (F) sites (fixed differences between *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* and all North American alleles) but with a concentration of “polymorphic” (P) sites (*X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* sites sharing at least one variant with a North American allele). By itself, an excess of P sites is not strong evidence of recombination; however, a sharp reversal of this pattern in the neighboring region of sequence does provide strong evidence of a recombinational breakpoint.

We first tested *leuA*, one of the two genes that Almeida et al. (1) suggested might be involved in intersubspecific recombination based on the observation that some fragments of the alleles were not consistent with the expected phylogeny. We sequenced 2,173 bp (including the 1,256 bp analyzed in reference 1) and despite the increased sequence length we found no evidence of such recombination using five different preexisting tests for recombination (see Fig. 2). However, application of our introgression test revealed a different picture. We found strong evidence ($P < 0.001$)

of a breakpoint between a nonrecombinant 5' portion and a recombinant region 3' portion (Fig. 2), with nine fixed differences and no shared polymorphism 5' of the breakpoint (9 F sites to 0 P sites), compared to 6 F sites to 22 P sites 3' of the breakpoint. The last nonrecombinant F site was 439 bp into the sequence and the first recombinant P site was at position 451. Between these limits, the precise location of the recombinational break is unknowable; however, we used the midpoint between the limits to provide a rough estimate. In this case, the midpoint defined a break at position 445 and hence a region of recombination >1,728, since the 3' end extended beyond the limits of our sequencing. This region of recombination included all 708 bp of the *leuA* sequence used for MLST. The details of the sequence differences (Table 2) show that within the recombinant region ST14 is highly differentiated from the other *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* STs (at 12 sites), but there is no clear pattern in their relationship to the sequence of the other subspecies.

The second sequence that Almeida et al. (1) suggested showed some evidence of intersubspecific recombination was in a 437-bp region of *rfpD*, a gene that Scally et al. (41) had considered in developing MLST for *X. fastidiosa* but was not included in the final scheme. The five standard recombination tests applied to the original *rfpD* sequence failed to show recombination; however, when applied to our extended data, all of the tests detected a 3' region of introgression of about 777 bp (Fig. 2). This region is shown in Table 3, 3' of the switch point (also shown) that is discussed below. Two of them (GeneConv and 3Seq) identified another short region of recombination (124 bp) just 5' of the switch point. All of these tests identified *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa* as the donor.

Our introgression test indicated a rather different pattern consisting of a single region of introgression of >1,443 bp containing four informative P sites extending over all but the first 262 bp of the region ($P < 0.001$; Fig. 2). This sequence includes a short region of two fixed sites 4 bp apart (positions 676 and 680) that marks a switch in the pattern of recombination across the *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* STs (Table 3). In the 414 bp before this point there are 18 polymorphic sites. Of the polymorphic sites, 94% in ST13 and 78% in ST14 are identical to the North American subspecies, whereas for ST16 the figure is just 22%. This suggests that in this region ST16 carries a largely unrecombined *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* sequence. However, after the 676 to 680 boundary, there were 46 noninformative polymorphic sites and, of these, ST16 shared 83% with the North American subspecies, a highly significant increase ($\chi^2 = 20.9, P < 0.001$), whereas the other STs showed the opposite effect, a highly significant decrease (e.g., ST14: 17%, $\chi^2 = 17.3, P < 0.001$). This switch may reflect two separate recombination events or after introgression recombination within *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*.

Using the introgression test, we also detected a clear pattern of introgression in *malF*, the second MLST region with highly divergent alleles. We added 612 bp of 5' sequence to the portion of the gene used for MLST, for a total sequence length of 1,341 bp. Our analysis revealed a recombinant region of 633 bp (both breakpoints $P < 0.001$; Fig. 2), which included 409 bp of the 5' end of the MLST target sequence. The pattern of sequence divergence within the recombinant region (Table 4) shows that the coffee STs (ST14 and ST16) closely resemble the other three subspecies, uniquely sharing 21 SNPs with them, whereas the citrus STs (ST11 to ST13) are strongly differentiated from them, uniquely sharing only one SNP (at position 444). Four of the five other recombination tests detected intersubspecific introgression into both ST 14 and ST16, identifying the donor either as *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *sandyi* or as *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex* (Fig. 2). In the case of Max-Chi, the recombinant region of ST16 identified was the same as that found with the introgression test (Table 4).

The third MLST locus with divergent alleles was *petC*. The *petC* MLST sequence data was increased to encompass the whole gene plus 150 bp downstream. This 1,928-bp sequence showed a region of recombination of about 698 bp (two breakpoints with $P \leq 0.003$; Fig. 2) encompassing all of the gene except for roughly the first 75 bp, including all of the region used in MLST (533 bp). As in the case of *malF*, within the recombinant region some STs were very similar to their subspecific relatives; however, in this case they were not the coffee-type STs, but ST11 and ST12, both from citrus. These STs uniquely shared eight SNPs with the other subspecies, whereas ST13, ST14, and ST16 uniquely shared only two SNPs (Table 5). In addition, there were two informative sites involving

TABLE 2 *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* sequence variability around the *leuA* gene showing a region of apparent intersubspecific recombination beginning around position 445 (indicated by “-” in the sequence), as detected using the introgression test^a

Type	Isolate ^b	Position in <i>leuA</i> sequence																																	
		9	3	8	3	3	0	1	8	9	5	1	8	8	4	8	0	8	5	2	2	3	3	5	6	6	7	7	7	9	9	9	0	1	2
ST11	CVC00145	T	G	C	G	G	A	C	G	G	-	G	T	G	C	A	A	A	A	C	A	A	A	G	G	G	G	G	T	G	A	C	T	T	
ST12	CVC0251	T	G	C	G	G	A	C	G	G	-	G	T	G	C	A	A	A	A	C	A	A	A	G	G	G	G	T	G	A	C	T	T		
ST13	9a5c*	T	G	C	G	G	A	C	G	G	-	G	T	G	C	A	A	A	A	C	A	A	A	G	G	G	G	T	G	A	C	T	T		
ST14	COF0239	T	G	C	G	G	A	C	G	G	-	A	C	A	C	G	G	A	A	C	A	A	A	G	G	G	A	G	T	C	G	C	C	C	
ST16	COF0238	T	G	C	G	G	A	C	G	G	-	G	T	G	C	A	A	A	A	C	A	A	A	G	G	G	A	G	T	C	G	C	C	C	T
<i>X. fastidiosa</i> subsp. <i>multiplex</i>	M12*	C	A	T	A	A	A	G	T	A	A	G	T	T	G	T	G	C	A	A	G	G	G	G	A	A	G	G	T	T	A	G	C	T	C
<i>X. fastidiosa</i> subsp. <i>sandyi</i>	Ann-1*	C	A	T	A	A	A	G	T	A	A	G	T	G	T	G	C	A	A	G	G	G	G	A	A	G	G	C	T	T	A	G	C	T	A
<i>X. fastidiosa</i> subsp. <i>fastidiosa</i>	Temecula*	C	A	T	A	A	A	G	T	A	A	G	T	G	T	G	C	A	A	G	G	G	G	A	A	G	G	C	T	T	A	G	C	T	A

^a In comparison to sequences from the other three subspecies (using the isolates shown). Sites in white indicate bases found in those three subspecies, with informative sites indicated in boldface (in this case, a single site at position 1078).
^b *, Sequenced genomes with aliases CVC0018, ALS0299, OLS0002, and PD0001, respectively.

59%; *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *sandyi*, 58%; and *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa*, 53%.

We also considered the question of whether citrus and coffee STs differed in their levels of intersubspecific recombination. To this end, we summed the number of P sites within recombinant regions where a given ST shared a base with the three other subspecies (the unshaded sites in Tables 2 to 5). Summing across recombinant regions of *leuA*, *petC*, *malF*, *cysG*, and *rfbD* showed that ST16 and ST14 (coffee types) had 81 and 70 such shared sites, while the three citrus types (ST11 to ST13) all shared 47. This substantial difference indicates that, at least based on our limited sample of genes, the coffee forms have undergone more intersubspecific recombination than the citrus forms.

The MLST gene regions represent a small (4,161-bp) random sample of the sequence of housekeeping genes. Within this sample, we identified two regions of introgression within each of *cysG* (180 + 167 bp) and *holC* (17 + 158 bp), one region within *malF* (409 bp), and all of *leuA* (708 bp) and *petC* (533 bp). There were no indications of introgression within *nuoL* or *gltT*. Thus, seven regions of introgression were identified totaling 2,172 bp out of a total of 4,161 bp (52%). The other recombination tests detected a total of only 409 bp, all in *malF* (just 10% of the MLST data).

Estimated divergence time of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*. Documenting the time scale of the separation of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* from the other *X. fastidiosa* subspecies is complicated by the evidence of extensive intersubspecific homologous recombination. We minimized this problem by eliminating the regions recognized as probable recombination sites from the data, since the remaining nonrecombinant regions could be expected to give an accurate phylogenetic picture. The data used for this analysis included our additional sequence as well as the MLST regions. A concatenation of the nonrecombinant coding regions consisted of 5,271 bp, and the resulting tree (based on synonymous substitutions) showed an early split of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* from the other three subspecies (Fig. 4), consistent with the only other tree based on synonymous substitutions (43). If we assume that neutral evolution in *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa*, *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *sandyi*, and *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* has been occurring at similar rates (*X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex* is consistently slower for reasons considered elsewhere [see reference 32]), then the time of the split between *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* and the other subspecies can be estimated at about 60,000 years ago. Our jackknife estimate of the variance suggests that the standard error of this estimate is roughly 14,000 years, i.e., roughly the square root of $(3.4)^2 + (54.2/84.2)(17.0)^2$ (Fig. 4). The time estimates shown in Fig. 4 are dependent upon specific parameter values (see Materials and Methods); however, the relative branch lengths are independent of these values.

DISCUSSION

The value of MLST schemes in documenting the genetic variation of bacterial species is well established, both in general (see reference 21) and specifically for the case of *X. fastidiosa* (32). The MLST scheme previously proposed for this species (41, 49) is based on seven randomly chosen housekeeping genes subject to the typical levels of selective constraint (as measured by a range of 0.08 to 0.32 in the ratio of nonsynonymous to synonymous substitution rates [*dN/dS*]; see reference 41). We typed 78 *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* isolates from Brazil, which included completing the typing of 46 isolates studied previously (1). Given this overlap

TABLE 4 *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* sequence variability around the *malF* gene showing a region of apparent intersubspecific recombination beginning around position 387 and ending around position 1020 identified using the introgression test^a

Type	Position in <i>malF</i> sequence																																
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30			
ST11	C	C	C	A	T	A	C	C	A	T	G	A	A	A	C	-	A	A	T	T	T	T	A	T	C	T	G	T	C	C	T	A	
ST12	C	C	C	A	T	A	C	C	A	T	G	A	A	A	C	-	A	A	T	T	T	T	A	T	C	T	G	T	C	C	T	A	
ST13	C	C	C	A	T	A	C	C	A	T	G	A	A	A	C	-	A	A	T	T	T	T	A	T	C	T	G	T	C	C	T	A	
ST14	C	C	C	A	T	A	C	C	A	T	G	A	A	A	C	-	A	A	T	T	T	T	A	T	C	T	G	T	C	C	T	A	
ST16	C	C	C	A	T	A	C	C	A	T	G	A	A	A	C	-	A	A	T	T	T	T	A	T	C	T	G	T	C	C	T	A	
<i>X. fastidiosa</i> subsp. <i>multiplex</i>	T	T	G	G	C	G	T	T	G	C	A	G	G	T	G	G	G	G	T	T	G	A	G	G	G	C	A	C	T	G	C	C	G
<i>X. fastidiosa</i> subsp. <i>sandyi</i>	T	T	G	G	C	G	A	T	G	C	A	G	G	T	G	G	G	G	T	T	G	A	G	G	C	A	C	T	G	C	C	G	G
<i>X. fastidiosa</i> subsp. <i>fastidiosa</i>	T	T	G	G	C	G	T	T	G	C	A	G	G	T	G	G	G	G	T	T	G	A	G	G	C	A	C	T	G	C	C	G	G

^a All five of the other recombination tests identified a recombination region in both ST14 and ST16 roughly corresponding to the same region. Precise start and endpoints differed, and as an example the results for the MaxChi test are indicated in *italic* and *boldface* font. For further table details, see footnotes to Table 2.

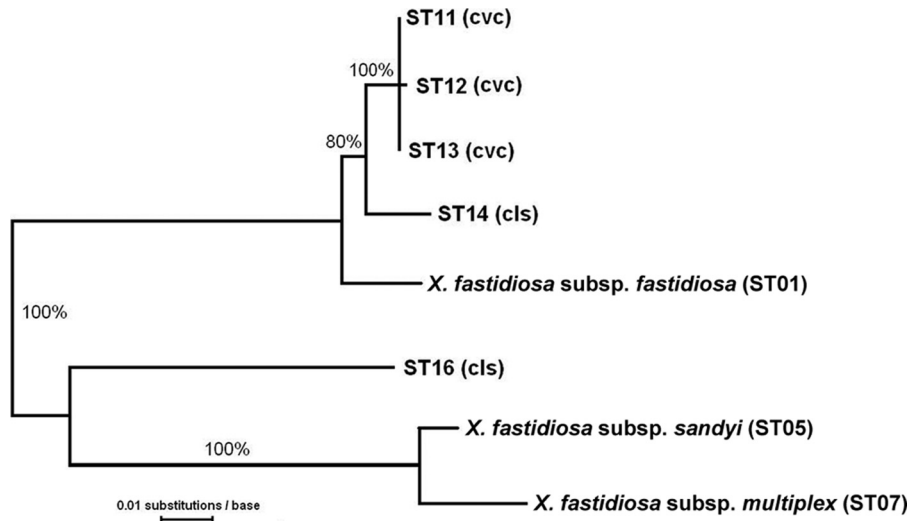


FIG 3 Genetic distance tree based on sequence data from the expanded *holC* MLST region showing representatives of the five *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* MLST sequence types (STs) and the other *X. fastidiosa* subspecies. The tree is consistent with two intersubspecific recombination events, one causing the similarity of ST16 to *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex* and *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *sandyi* and another causing the similarity of ST01 (*X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa*) to *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*. The numbers at each node indicate the bootstrap percentages. For the isolates used, see [Table 2](#).

found in *X. fastidiosa*, the available recombination tests were often ineffective at isolating regions of recombination, even those that were easily detected by eye. We compared the introgression test to five other tests (RDP (22), GeneConv (34), MaxChi (23), Chimaera (36), and 3Seq (4) (see Materials and Methods), and the introgression test was clearly superior. The introgression test identified eight regions of recombination (totaling 6,053 bp) in six loci, whereas the best-performing tests (3Seq, MaxChi, and Chimaera) identified just two of these regions ([Fig. 2](#)). 3Seq

identified the most recombinant bases (1,793 bp across these two regions, subdivided into three pieces), just 30% of the total found with the introgression test. Examples of recombination breakpoints only detected by the introgression test are shown in [Tables 2](#) and [5](#).

The effectiveness of the introgression test does not depend on including the true non-native donor in the analysis. It requires either that the reference taxa include the true donor or that they are an outgroup relative to the donor and native pair. Obviously,

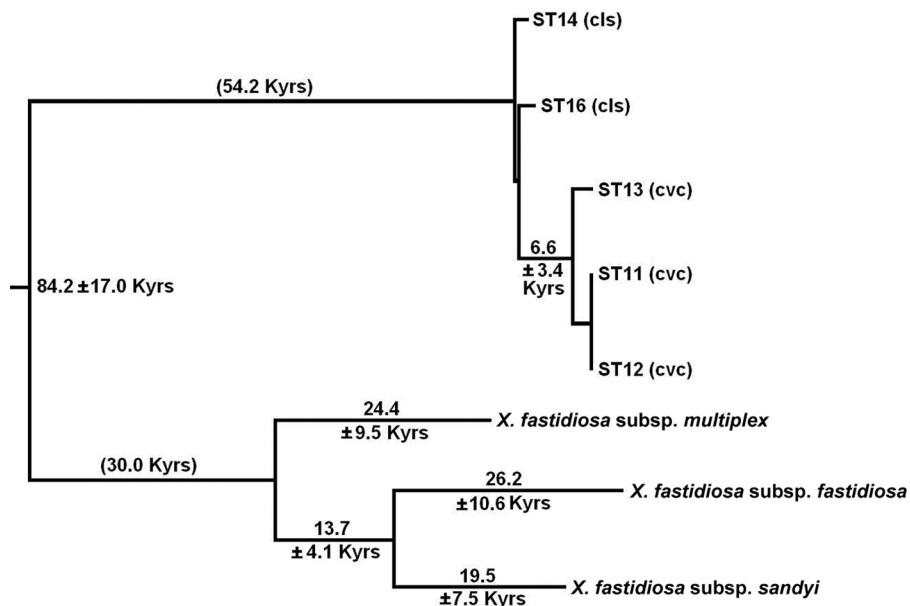


FIG 4 Estimates of the time of divergence of the S. American *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* from the Central and North American subspecies, based on the rate of synonymous substitution in the nonrecombinant gene regions. The time estimate of the long branch separating *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* from the other subspecies (84.2 thousand years [Kyrs]) is split into 54.2 and 30.0 Kyrs to approximately equalize the two halves of the tree; however, the tree is unrooted, and this split is for illustration only. For details of the estimation of divergence times and their jackknife standard errors, see Materials and Methods. Time estimates less than 5,000 years were omitted. For the isolates used, see [Table 2](#).

the power of the test declines as the donor and native taxa become more closely related relative to the reference taxa.

The genetic introgression into *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* acts to reduce its apparent phylogenetic distance from the other subspecies. Identifying recombinant and nonrecombinant regions in the sequence data allowed us to correct for this bias and to estimate the time of separation of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* from the other three subspecies. Schuenzel et al. (41) introduced a method for estimating the age of bacterial taxa using a central result of neutral evolutionary theory: the rate of substitution at neutral sites is equal to the neutral mutation rate. Applying this result to synonymous substitutions, they estimated that the *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa*/*X. fastidiosa* subsp. *sandyi* clade split from *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex* about 30,000 years ago. *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* is an outgroup to these subspecies, and here we carried out a similar analysis to estimate when *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* diverged from the other subspecies. After removing all regions of suspected intersubspecific recombination from the sequence data, analysis of the remaining (~5 kb) sequence from nine different genomic locations (the seven MLST loci, plus *pilU* and *rfbD*) indicated that *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* diverged from the other subspecies of *X. fastidiosa* about 60,000 years ago. The jackknife-estimated standard deviation of about 14,000 years showed that this age estimate is fairly consistent across the regions of the genome sampled.

Given such a long evolutionary history, we would expect that *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* would be a genetically diverse group through the accumulation of both beneficial and neutral mutations in different lineages. In contrast, it appears that most of the genetic variation detected has its origins in intersubspecific recombination. To resolve this paradox, we propose the following hypothesis: that intersubspecific recombination was instrumental in facilitating the recent invasion of citrus and coffee, that colonization of these new hosts created a genetic bottleneck, and that native nonrecombinant *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* (with its expected genetic variability) has yet to be found.

The natural plant hosts of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* are unknown, and yet they must exist. We know of no studies in the native environment attempting to identify such hosts. To date, the only study examining alternate plant hosts was a study of weed infection within orange groves, where 10 of 23 weed species were found to be infected (20); however, within a grove a weed may test positive simply because of repeated feeding by leafhoppers carrying *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* from citrus. There is no evidence that any of these weed species support *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* infection at locations remote from citrus.

The known record of *Xylella*-related disease in South America goes back less than 50 years, even though the phylogenetic data indicate that *X. fastidiosa* is a long-term native of South America and the two affected crops, citrus and coffee, have been commercially grown for several hundred years. Citrus variegated chlorosis (CVC) was described in Minas Gerais, Brazil, in 1987, and in Sao Paulo soon after (5), and coffee leaf scorch (CLS) was first noted in Sao Paulo, Brazil, in 1995 (7), although Li et al. (19) suggested that that CLS probably appeared earlier than this, but only by about 30 years.

Why did these diseases appear only very recently? One possibility is that *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* invaded Brazil and Argentina from some other region of South America. Arguing against this possibility is the fact that there are relatively few natural geographical barriers in South America (excepting the extreme west), that the continent has abundant populations of potential vectors (40), and that both citrus and coffee are grown in other parts of the

continent, and yet there are no reports of *Xylella*-related disease in those areas (i.e., areas other than Argentina, Paraguay, and Brazil).

The alternative possibility that we propose is that *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* was originally unable to infect coffee and citrus but that adaptation to these host plants only became possible following the introduction of novel genetic variation resulting from intersubspecific recombination. Obviously, such an event requires the proximity of donor DNA, and it appears likely that this condition prevails. Current evidence suggests that only one subspecies of *X. fastidiosa* evolved in South America; however, an apparently distinct form of *X. fastidiosa* causes plum leaf scald in Argentina, Brazil, and Paraguay (13, 18). Four genetic analyses of the Brazilian plum isolate PL9746 suggest that it is genetically distinct from *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* and is probably an example of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex*. Array-based hybridization of genomic DNA against the *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* strain 9a5c showed that PL9746 has clear regions of similarity to North American *X. fastidiosa* (based on gene absences relative to 9a5c), but no subspecific comparisons were made (30). Da Costa et al. (6), using arbitrarily primed PCR, found that PL9746 was roughly equidistant from *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* isolates, a North American plum isolate, and a North American grape isolate. However, more recently, two genomic fingerprinting studies (17, 27) both showed that while PL9746 was distinct from both coffee and citrus isolates of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*, it had a very close relationship with PLS0135 (ATCC 35871), an isolate from plum that Schaad et al. (42) named as the type of the subspecies *multiplex* (ST41 [see reference 33]), and it had a clear separation from grape isolates (*X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa*). The conclusion that PL9746 is a representative of subspecies *multiplex* is consistent with its plum host. As noted above, the type for subspecies *multiplex* was isolated from plum, and furthermore two different plum isolates (PLS0026 and PLP0070) have been used to represent this subspecies in phylogenetic analyses (one each in references 43 and 49). We have typed an additional 16 plum isolates, and none of them were *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa* or *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *sandyi* (unpublished data).

Notwithstanding these data, at present we cannot exclude the possibility that PL9746 represents another, as-yet-undescribed, South American subspecies of *X. fastidiosa* that evolved in geographical isolation from *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*. This view gains some weak support from our finding that the sequence data failed to identify which of the known subspecies is the source that has recombined into *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*. Within the recombinant regions, the sites that are polymorphic within *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* are almost always monomorphic across the potential donor subspecies or they are “informative,” with the exact same polymorphism as *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* (see Tables 2 to 5). Additional information was gleaned from sites within recombinant regions where the potential donor sequences varied but *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* did not. If variants present in only one particular subspecies are also present in the *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* sequences then this would strongly support that subspecies as the donor. However, although *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex* does have the highest percentage of such sites (59%), the values for the other two subspecies (58 and 53%) are indistinguishable.

Over the last 20 years it has become increasingly apparent that homologous recombination is almost ubiquitous among bacteria, although the degree to which it occurs apparently varies widely among species (9, 14, 26). It typically involves short pieces of DNA

(often <1 kb [8, 24, 26]), which is consistent with the sizes of the recombinant fragments that we have identified in *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*, which averaged 757 bp (an underestimate, since the eight fragments included three with only one end identified [see Fig. 2]).

It is generally assumed that homologous recombination is beneficial by enabling bacteria to avoid host defenses (9, 25), but it has also been speculated that it may promote adaptation to novel hosts (2). Moreover, there is another example in *X. fastidiosa* where massive intersubspecific recombination has resulted in the colonization of a new host. Isolates from mulberry are a mix of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *fastidiosa* and *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex* genomes, and mulberry is a plant host that neither parent subspecies is capable of infecting (31). In the present study, we have established a strong circumstantial case for the involvement of the same kind of intersubspecific homologous recombination in the shift of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* from its unknown native hosts to citrus and coffee. The next step is to determine whether a nonrecombinant native form of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* can be found and tested for its host specificity. Our prediction is that it will infect citrus and coffee poorly or not at all.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was supported by a USDA-CSREES-NRI grant 2007-55605-17834 to L.N. and R.S.

We thank Rodrigo Almeida for providing DNA samples and Stephanie Russell for sequence curation. We thank Laramy Enders, Josh Wang, Elizabeth Mah, Qui Luong, and Mariel Garcia for help in sequencing genes from many of the isolates used in this study. We also thank Adam Retchless and two anonymous reviewers for their valuable comments.

REFERENCES

- Almeida RPP, et al. 2008. Genetic structure and biology of *Xylella fastidiosa* strains causing disease in citrus and coffee in Brazil. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 74:3690–3701.
- Baldo L, Bordenstein S, Wernegreen JJ, Werren JH. 2005. Widespread recombination throughout *Wolbachia* genomes. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 23:437–449.
- Beretta MJG, Harakava R, Chagas CM. 1996. First report of *Xylella fastidiosa* in coffee. *Plant Dis.* 80:821.
- Boni MF, Posada D, Feldman MW. 2007. An exact nonparametric method for inferring mosaic structure in sequence triplets. *Genetics* 176:1035–1047.
- Chang CJ, Garnier RM, Zreik L, Rossetti V, Bove JM. 1993. Culture and serological detection of the xylem-limited bacterium causing citrus variegated chlorosis and its identification as a strain of *Xylella fastidiosa*. *Curr. Microbiol.* 27:137–142.
- da Costa PI, Franco CF, Miranda VS, Teixeira DC, Hartung JS. 2000. Strains of *Xylella fastidiosa* rapidly distinguished by arbitrarily primed-PCR. *Curr. Microbiol.* 40:279–282.
- de Lima JEO, et al. 1998. Coffee leaf scorch bacterium: axenic culture, pathogenicity, and comparison with *Xylella fastidiosa* of citrus. *Plant Dis.* 82:94–97.
- Falush D, et al. 2001. Recombination and mutation during long-term gastric colonization by *Helicobacter pylori*: estimates of clock rates, recombination size, and minimal age. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 98:15056–15061.
- Feil EJ, Spratt BG. 2001. Recombination and the population structures of bacterial pathogens. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* 55:561–590.
- Feil H, Purcell AH. 2001. Temperature-dependent growth and survival of *Xylella fastidiosa* in vitro and in potted grapevines. *Plant Dis.* 85:1230–1234.
- Felsenstein J. 1989. PHYLIP: phylogeny inference package (version 3.2). *Cladistics* 5:164–166.
- Felsenstein J. 2005. PHYLIP (phylogeny inference package) version 3.6. Department of Genome Sciences, University of Washington, Seattle.
- French WJ, Kitajima EW. 1978. Occurrence of plum leaf scald in Brazil and Paraguay. *Plant Dis. Reporter* 62:1035–1038.
- Hanage WP, Fraser C, Spratt BG. 2006. Sequences, sequence clusters and bacterial species. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B Biol. Sci.* 361:1917–1927.
- Hernandez-Martinez R, de la Cerda KA, Costa HS, Cooksey DA, Wong FP. 2007. Phylogenetic relationships of *Xylella fastidiosa* strains isolated from ornamentals in southern California. *Phytopathology* 97:857–864.
- Hopkins DL. 1989. *Xylella fastidiosa*: xylem-limited bacterial pathogen of plants. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.* 27:271–290.
- Kishi L, et al. 2008. Evaluation of *Xylella fastidiosa* genetic diversity by fAFLP markers. *Rev. Bras. Frutic.* 30:202–208.
- Kitajima EW, Bakarcic M, Fernandez-Valiela MV. 2003. Association of *Rickettsia*-like bacteria with plum leaf scald disease. *Phytopathology* 65:476–479.
- Li WB, et al. 2001. Coffee leaf scorch caused by a strain of *Xylella fastidiosa* from citrus. *Plant Dis.* 85:501–505.
- Lopes SA, et al. 2003. Weeds as alternative hosts of the citrus, coffee, and plum strains of *Xylella fastidiosa* in Brazil. *Plant Dis.* 87:544–549.
- Maiden MCJ. 2006. Multilocus sequence typing of bacteria. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* 60:561–588.
- Martin D, Rybicki E. 2000. RDP: detection of recombination amongst aligned sequences. *Bioinformatics* 16:562–563.
- Maynard Smith J. 1992. Analyzing the mosaic structure of genes. *J. Mol. Evol.* 34:126–129.
- Maynard Smith J, Dowson CG, Spratt BG. 1991. Localized sex in bacteria. *Nature* 349:29–31.
- Maynard Smith J, Smith NH, O'Rourke M, Spratt BG. 1993. How clonal are bacteria? *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 90:4384–4388.
- Mau B, Glasner JD, Darling AE, Perna NT. 2006. Genome-wide detection and analysis of homologous recombination among sequenced strains of *Escherichia coli*. *Genome Biol.* 7:R44.
- Mehta A, Leite RP, Rosato YB. 2001. Assessment of the genetic diversity of *Xylella fastidiosa* isolated from citrus in Brazil by PCR-RFLP of the 16S rDNA and 16S-23S intergenic spacer and rep-PCR fingerprinting. *Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek* 79:53–59.
- Miranda VS, Farias PRS, Roberto SR, Lacava PM. 2007. Genetic characterization of *Xylella fastidiosa* isolated from citrus and coffee plants. *Sci. Agric.* 64:482–485.
- Montero-Astua M, et al. 2007. Genetic diversity of *Xylella fastidiosa* strains from Costa Rica, São Paulo, Brazil, and the United States. *Phytopathology* 97:1338–1346.
- Nunes LR, et al. 2003. Microarray analyses of *Xylella fastidiosa* provide evidence of coordinated transcription control of laterally transferred elements. *Genome Res.* 13:570–578.
- Nunney L. 2011. Homologous recombination and the invasion of a new plant host by the pathogenic bacterium, *Xylella fastidiosa*. *Phytopathology* 101:S130.
- Nunney L, et al. 2010. Population genomic analysis of a bacterial plant pathogen: novel insight into the origins of Pierce's disease of grapevine in the U.S. *PLoS One* 5: e15488. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0015488.
- Nunney L, Elfekih S, Stouthamer R. 2012. The importance of multilocus sequence typing: cautionary tales from the bacterium *Xylella fastidiosa*. *Phytopathology* 102:456–460. doi:10.1094/PHYTO-10-11-0298.
- Padidam M, Sawyer S, Fauquet CM. 1999. Possible emergence of new geminiviruses by frequent recombination. *Virology* 265:218–225.
- Pendergrast M. 2001. Uncommon grounds: the history of coffee and how it transformed our world. Texere, London, United Kingdom.
- Posada D, Crandall KA. 2001. Evaluation of methods for detecting recombination from DNA sequences: computer simulations. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 98:13757–13762.
- Prado S, Lopes JRS, Demetrio C, Borgatto A, Almeida RPP. 2008. Host colonization differences between citrus and coffee isolates of *Xylella fastidiosa* in reciprocal inoculation. *Sci. Agricola* 65:251–258.
- Purcell AH. 1990. Homopteran transmission of xylem-inhabiting bacteria. *Adv. Dis. Vector. Res.* 6:243–266.
- Qin X, Miranda VS, Machado MA, Lemos EGM, Hartung JS. 2001. An evaluation of the genetic diversity of *Xylella fastidiosa* isolated from diseased citrus and coffee in São Paulo, Brazil. *Phytopathology* 91:599–605.
- Redak RA, et al. 2004. The biology of xylem fluid-feeding insect vectors of *Xylella fastidiosa* and their relationship to disease epidemiology. *Annu. Rev. Entomol.* 49:243–270.

41. Scally M, Schuenzel EL, Stouthamer R, Nunney L. 2005. Multilocus sequence type system for the plant pathogen *Xylella fastidiosa* and relative contributions of recombination and point mutation to clonal diversity. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 71:8491–8499.
42. Schaad NW, Postnikova E, Lacy G, Fatmi M, Chang CJ. 2004. *Xylella fastidiosa* subspecies: *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *piercei*, subsp. nov., *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *multiplex* subsp. nov., and *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* subsp. nov. *System. Appl. Microbiol.* 27:290–300.
43. Schuenzel EL, Scally M, Stouthamer R, Nunney L. 2005. A multigene phylogenetic study of clonal diversity and divergence in North American strains of the plant pathogen *Xylella fastidiosa*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 71:3832–3839.
44. Simpson AJG, et al. 2000. The genome sequence of the plant pathogen *Xylella fastidiosa*. *Nature* 406:151–159.
45. Webber HJ, Batchelor LD (ed). 1943. The citrus industry: history, botany, and breeding, University of California Press, San Diego, CA.
46. Wells JM, et al. 1987. *Xylella fastidiosa* gen. nov, sp. Nov: gram-negative, xylem-limited, fastidious plant bacteria related to *Xanthomonas* spp. *Int. J. Syst. Bacteriol.* 37:136–143.
47. Wickert E, Machado MA, Lemos EG. 2007. Evaluation of the genetic diversity of *Xylella fastidiosa* strains from citrus and coffee hosts by single-nucleotide polymorphism markers. *Phytopathology* 97:1543–1549.
48. Yang Z. 2007. PAML4: a program package for phylogenetic analysis by maximum likelihood. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 24:1586–1591.
49. Yuan XL, et al. 2010. MLST analysis of *Xylella fastidiosa* isolates causing Pierce's disease of grape and oleander leaf scorch across the United States. *Phytopathology* 100:601–611.