

DNA sequence incongruence and inconsistent morphology obscure species boundaries in the *Teratosphaeria suttonii* species complex.

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Abstract

Teratosphaeria suttonii (= *Kirramyces epicoccoides*) is a leaf pathogen that can cause premature defoliation, reduced growth and vigour and subsequent tree death of many *Eucalyptus* species. Although the fungus primarily infects mature leaves in the lower canopy, infections can spread to younger leaves during continued epidemics or when trees are stressed. *Teratosphaeria suttonii* has a wide distribution in Australia and has been introduced to many other parts of the world, most probably with germplasm used to establish plantations. The aim of this study was to establish the phylogenetic relationships between *T. suttonii* isolates from different countries and to consider whether cryptic species exist in a species complex. DNA from parts of the nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacer (ITS), β -tubulin and elongation factor-1 α genes was sequenced and analyzed for isolates from throughout the range of *T. suttonii* in Australia, and from six countries (China, Indonesia, South Africa, Uruguay, USA and Vietnam) where the pathogen is introduced. Morphometrics of conidia produced both *in vivo* and *in vitro* were also considered. Analysis of the sequence data resulted in incongruent genealogies. Furthermore, groups of isolates in the genealogies could not be linked to area of origin. Likewise differences in conidial morphology could not be linked to any of the phylogenetic groups. There was no evidence of distinct species

boundaries and isolates from Australia were closely related to those from other parts of the world. The results of this study support the treatment of *T. suttonii* as a morphologically and genetically diverse species in its natural range in Australia. The diversity is reflected in introduced populations.

Key words: Eucalyptus diseases, Fungal populations, Fungal taxonomy, Phylogenetics

Editor: References cited in the text should be arranged by a chronological order (not by an alphabetical order of author names)

Introduction

Species of *Eucalyptus* are a primary source of fiber for the international paper and pulp industry (Turnbull 2000). The trees are propagated extensively as exotics in different parts of the world. The absence of pests and pathogens affecting trees in their natural environments has, in part, contributed to the success of introduced *Eucalyptus* plantations (Burgess and Wingfield 2002; Wingfield et al. 2008). However, the productivity of commercial *Eucalyptus* plantations is increasingly reduced world-wide by diseases caused by fungi and insects (Wingfield et al. 2008). Of these, foliar fungi have been implicated in reduced growth, reduced canopy leaf area and delayed canopy closure in commercial plantations (Carnegie 2007b).

Teratosphaeria species are the most significant foliar pathogens of eucalypts (Carnegie et al. 1997; Park et al. 2000). They cause a complex of disease known as Teratosphaeria Leaf Disease (TLD) which has been reported to affect the eucalypt plantation industry in the subtropical and tropical areas of Australia (Andjic et al. 2010a; Carnegie 2007a, b, Hunter et al. 2011). Species with *Kirramyces* anamorphs involved in this complex include *T. suttonii* *T. destructans* *T. eucalypti* *T.*

viscidus and *T. pseudoecalypti*. Previously placed in the genus *Kirramyces* and later *Readeriella*, these species were transferred to the genus *Teratosphaeria* following the application of one genus name for anamorphs or teleomorphs in unambiguous monophyletic lineages in the families Mycosphaerellaceae and Teratosphaeraceae (Crous *et al.* 2009). The older name of the teleomorph state of the fungus *T. suttonii* took precedence over the epithet '*epicccoides*'. While the origin of *T. destructans* (Wingfield *et al.* 1996), the most destructive of these pathogens is unclear (Andjic *et al.* 2010a; Burgess *et al.* 2007), *T. suttonii*, *T. eucalypti*, *T. viscidus* and *T. pseudoecalypti* are endemic to Australia (Hansford 1957). These species have morphologically similar spores, display similar symptoms on infected *Eucalyptus* leaves and share common hosts. Unequivocal identification thus depends on DNA sequence comparisons (Andjic *et al.* 2007a, b; Burgess *et al.* 2006). Infection due to these fungi results in the formation of irregular chlorotic or necrotic lesions on both surfaces of the leaves (Andjic *et al.* 2007a, b, 2010; Burgess *et al.* 2007). These lesions are usually associated with substomatal pycnidia that exude conidia. Spore masses appear as irregular brown-black clusters or smears mostly on the lower leaf surfaces.

Among the species in this group, *T. suttonii* has a cosmopolitan distribution. It has been reported in native *Eucalyptus* forests and plantations in Australia (Carnegie 2007a, b; Walker *et al.* 1992) and other countries where these trees are grown as non-natives (Chipompha 1987; Chungu 2010; Crous *et al.* 1988; Gardner and Hodges 1988; Padaganur and Hiremath 1973; Simpson *et al.* 2005) from a variety of *Eucalyptus* species (Crous *et al.* 1988; Sankaran *et al.* 1995) in the subgenera *Corymbia*, *Monocalyptus*, *Symphyomytus* and *Indiogenes*. Carnegie *et al.* (2007b) reported *T. suttonii* on three new hosts, namely *E. argophloia*, *E. scias* and *E. longirostrata*.

Teratosphaeria suttonii infects seedlings, clonal hedges and mature trees (Crous *et al.* 1988; Sankaran *et al.* 1995; Walker *et al.* 1992). It first manifests itself on ageing leaves in the lower

canopy or on leaves of stressed trees (Carnegie 2007a; Crous et al. 1988; Nichol et al. 1992). The disease can spread to younger leaves higher in the canopies of trees during continued epidemics (Park et al. 2000). It has led to extensive defoliation of plantations in Australia and Indonesia (Old et al. 2003) and caused death of young plants in Malawi and South Africa (Chipompha 1987; Crous et al. 1989b). It has recently caused substantial and comprehensive damage in young *Eucalyptus* plantations in New South Wales, Australia (Carnegie 2007b).

Leaf disease caused by *T. suttonii* is characterized by small, angular, irregular, purplish-red blotches on living leaves (Fig.1b, c) (Andjic et al. 2007b; Wingfield et al. 1996). Individual lesions are delimited by veins and occur in large numbers on both sides of leaves (Hodges and Gardner 1984). Pycnidia exude spores in grey-brown to black cirri that form hair-like extrusions on the leaf surfaces or conidia can spread over the leaf surfaces giving them a sooty appearance (Fig. 1c, d) (Walker et al. 1992). However, depending on the host, stages of development of infection and climatic conditions a variety of disease symptoms due to infection with *T. suttonii* can be observed (Pegg et al. 2003; Walker 1962), thus leading to incorrect diagnosis of the pathogen.

A multiple geneology study based of four gene regions grouped the isolates of *T. suttonii* from Australia, China, Indonesia, and South Africa into three well supported sub-clades that could not be related to geographical origin (Andjic et al. 2007b). Several studies have demonstrated the significance of Multi-Locus Sequence Typing (MLST) in resolving relationships among fungal strains, characterizing the genetic diversity and identifying cryptic species (Taylor and Fischer 2003). However, lack of congruence among gene-trees and species-trees often present problems when interpreting species relationships. The Genealogical Sorting Index (GSI) has been introduced to detect the progression from polyphyly to monophyly in diverging populations and approximate genealogical incongruence among taxa from which gene copies were sampled (Cummings et al.

2008). The GSI has recently been used to delineate a fungal species within the *Neofusicoccum parvum-N. ribis* species complex (Sakalidis et al. 2011). The level of monophyly of a group as represented by the GSI value can range from 0-1. GSI values at or close to 0 indicate the early stages of lineage sorting and thus absence of exclusive ancestry. The GSI value of 1 marks the end of the divergence process. For a given tree topology the statistical support for the observed monophyly is denoted by the corresponding p-value. The overall GSI value for gene trees from multiple unlinked loci is provided by the GSI_T , which indicates the degree of distinctiveness of the genome of a group, relative to that of another group (Cummings *et al.*, 2008), thus GSI is applicable for both single and multiple gene phylogenies.

The aims of this study were to use MLST to confirm the identity of the causal agent of Teratosphaeria Leaf Disease on eucalypts from various locations and hosts by comparing isolates collected from leaves of a variety of *Eucalyptus* species with known *T. suttonii* isolates and closely related species. A further aim was to establish the phylogenetic relationship of *T. suttonii* isolates from these different parts of the world and because differences have been observed in the morphology of conidia of this fungus, to consider whether collections do not encompass cryptic species.

Materials and Methods

Origin and sampling of fungal isolates

A collection of isolates used in this study were obtained from diseased *Eucalyptus* leaves sampled from Australia, China, Indonesia, South Africa, United States of America, Uruguay and Vietnam. Using a dissection microscope, conidia exuding from single pycnidia were collected at the tip of a sterile needle. Spores were placed on malt extract agar (MEA) (20g.L⁻¹ Biolab malt extract, 15g.L⁻¹

Biolab agar) and left to hydrate for 5min. Under a dissecting microscope, a sterile needle was used to draw conidia across the agar surface, after which single spores were picked from the agar and transferred onto new MEA plates with $150\mu\text{gml}^{-1}$ streptomycin (Sigma-Aldrich). Cultures were grown at 25°C for 2 weeks, after which they were transferred to new MEA plates. Additional isolates from Australia, China and Indonesia were obtained from the Murdoch University Culture Collection (MUCC), Perth, Western Australia and from the collection (CMW) of the Forestry and Agricultural Biotechnology Institute (FABI), University of Pretoria, South Africa. All cultures are maintained in the CMW collection. Leaf specimens were deposited with (PREM), the South African National Mycological Herbarium.

Multi-Locus Sequence Typing

Total DNA was extracted from actively growing cultures by scraping mycelium from the surface of cultures into sterile 1.5ml Eppendorf tubes, and grinding freeze dried mycelium to a fine powder. This was followed by DNA extraction using the protocol of Cortinas et al. (2004), modified by adding Proteinase K ($1\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{l}$) to the extraction buffer and $5\mu\text{l}$ ($1\text{mg}/\text{ml}$) RNase to the final product (incubated overnight at room temperature) to digest RNA. The presence of DNA was confirmed by electrophoresis on 2% (w/v) agarose gels (Roche Diagnostics) stained with ethidium bromide and visualized under Ultra Violet light. Subsequently, the concentrations of the extracted DNA were determined using a Nanodrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (Nanodrop Technologies Rockland USA).

For the purpose of phylogenetic comparisons between isolates, PCR was used for the partial amplification of three gene regions. These included the internal transcribed spacer regions ITS1, ITS2 and 5.8S regions of the rDNA operon using the primers ITS-1 and ITS-4 (White et al. 1990), part of the β -tubulin genes using primers BT2a and BT2b (Glass and Donaldson, 1995) and the

transcription elongation factor-1 α (EF-1 α) gene region using primers EF1-728F and EF1-986R (Carbone and Kohn,1999). All amplifications were carried out in 25 μ l reaction mixtures, with cycling conditions as described previously (Cortinas et al. 2006) using the GeneAmp PCR system 2700 thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems). PCR products were purified and sequenced as described previously (Andjic et al. 2007b).

The resulting sequences of both strands were edited individually, and assembled into contigs using Vector NTI Advance TM 11. An initial identification of the isolates was done by performing a similarity search of the ITS rDNA sequences (standard nucleotide BLAST) against the GenBank database (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST>). Additional sequences of related species were retrieved from GenBank (Table 1). Sequences were aligned using Mafft version 6. Where required, adjustments were made manually by inserting gaps.

Parsimony analysis was executed using (PAUP) version 4.0 b10 (Swofford, 2001), and its heuristic search component. The most parsimonious trees were obtained by employing heuristic searches with random stepwise addition in 100 replicates, the tree bisection-reconnection branch swapping option (TBR) on and the steepest-descent option off. The analysis excluded all parsimony-uninformative and ambiguous characters, and gaps were considered as a fifth character. Approximate levels of homoplasy and phylogenetic signal, tree length (TL), retention index (RI) and the consistency index (CI) were determined. Trees were unlimited, tree branches of zero length were collapsed and the multiple equally parsimonious trees generated were saved. The bootstrap proportions (Felsenstein, 1985) were used to estimate confidence levels of the phylogenies. Related species, including *T. destructans* (CMW17919), *T. eucalypti* (CMW17917), *T. cryptica* (CMW3279), *T. viscidus* (MUCC452), *T. zuluensis* (CBS117262), *T. nubilosa* (CMW11560) and *T.*

molleriana (CMW4940), were treated as outgroup taxa. All sequences generated in this study were deposited in GenBank (Table 1).

The aligned data sets used in the parsimony analysis were subjected to Bayesian analysis. The process involved determining the best nucleotide substitution model using MrModeltest version 2.5 (Nylander, 2004), Evolutionary Biology Centre, Uppsala University. Subsequently the specifications of the general time-reversible (GTR) substitution model and a proportion of invariable site (I) were used to integrate variable rates across sites as part of performing phylogenetic analyses with MrBayes version 3.1 (Huelsenbeck *et al.*, 2001; Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003). Beginning at random tree topology, the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analysis of four chains went up 1,000,000 generations. Every 1000 generations trees were saved, resulting in 1001 saved trees. Burn-in was set at 50,000 generations (after the likelihood values converged to stationary), 950 trees were left, from which the consensus tree and posterior probabilities were calculated. The consensus tree was reconstructed in PAUP 4.0b10, and maximum posterior probabilities were allocated to branches following the construction of a 50% majority rule consensus tree from sampled trees. Sequence alignments have been deposited in TreeBASE (www.treebase.org).

Bootstrap consensus trees and trees generated from Bayesian analysis from individual gene trees were uploaded into the online Genealogical Sorting Index (GSI) program from www.genealogicalsortingindex.org. Each isolate was designated a corresponding ITS haplotype number previously obtained from a heuristic search of the ITS sequence data. Using 1000 permutations, the GSI was calculated following the methods of Cummings *et al.* (2008).

Morphological characterization

For the purpose of comparing *in vivo* and *in vitro* spore characteristics (i.e. spores obtained from specimen and cultures respectively), a sterile needle was used to obtain conidia from cultures and/or herbarium material. In order to induce sporulation, isolates were grown on 2% MEA and oatmeal agar (OMA) at 20°C in the dark for 30 days. Conidia from leaf material and squash mounts of fruiting structures were mounted in lactic acid and water (1:1 volume), and observed under a compound microscope. Characteristics determined for each isolate or specimen included conidial size, shape, number of septa and pigmentation. Fifty measurements of spore length and width were recorded for each isolate or specimen at 1000X magnification, using the Carl Zeiss microscope (Carl Zeiss Ltd., Mannheim, West Germany). The extremes of measurements were recorded in parenthesis.

Results

Multilocus sequence typing

The three gene regions ITS, EF-1 α and β -tubulin were sequenced for a total of 100, 90, and 88 isolates respectively including the ex-type sequences obtained from GenBank (CMW5348) (Table 1). A few isolates to be sequenced were selected at random from each of the populations from each country sampled. Phylogenetic analysis of the generated DNA sequence data was initially performed on data for the three gene regions separately. For each gene region, isolates with identical sequence data were given the same haplotype number (Table 1). The final analysis performed on the three gene regions separately was performed on a reduced number of isolates, which included representatives of all polymorphisms observed (indicated by an asterisk in Table 1) and including the out groups.

The aligned ITS sequence data consisted of 617 characters, 127 base pairs of which were due to a large indel, in some isolates from Australia (47) and all isolates from South Africa, United States of America, Uruguay and Vietnam. Two Australian isolates had a shorter indel of 77 base pairs. The indel was coded and treated as a single evolutionary event thus leaving 106 parsimony informative characters that were used in the analysis. The data contained significant phylogenetic signal ($P < 0.01$; $g1 = -1.01$) to allow for meaningful analysis. Heuristic searches of unweighted characters in PAUP resulted in six most parsimonious trees of 167 steps ($CI = 0.82$, $RI = 0.96$), of similar topology, of which one is presented in Fig. 2A.

There were 25 polymorphic loci for the *T. suttonii* isolates and this resulted in 14 ITS haplotypes (Table 1, Fig. 2). These were distributed into two main groups, the first containing haplotypes 1–9 and the second containing haplotypes 10–14. Haplotype 4 comprised of the highest number of isolates (30) followed by haplotypes 13 and 8. Haplotypes 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 10 and 11 were found only in Australian isolates; haplotypes 1, 6 and 8 were restricted to Queensland isolates, haplotypes 2, 3, 10 and 11 were found in isolates from different parts of Australia. Haplotypes 4, 5, 7, 13 and 14 included isolates from Australia and other countries. These included the combinations Australia, South Africa, Uruguay and USA (haplotype 4), South Africa and Uruguay (haplotype 5), New South Wales and Vietnam (haplotype 7), New South Wales and Indonesia (haplotype 13) and Western Australia, Vietnam and China (haplotype 14). Haplotype 12 occurred only in China isolates and haplotype 9 was a single isolate from Queensland, Australia. ITS haplotypes 1, 8 and 12 resulted in equally high bootstrap values in parsimony and Bayesian analysis (Fig. 2A). ITS haplotypes 5, 6 and 11 had moderate parsimony and no posterior probability values, while ITS haplotypes 7, 10 and 14 had moderate parsimony and high posterior probability values. ITS haplotype 3 had no bootstrap support and a high posterior probability and ITS haplotypes 2, 4, 9 and

13, were not supported. Isolates of representative ITS haplotypes were deposited with PREM (Accession numbers:).

The aligned EF-1 α data set consisted of 290 characters, of which 112 were parsimony informative and included in the analysis. The data contained significant phylogenetic signal ($P < 0.01$; $g1 = -2.97$). Heuristic searches of unweighted characters in PAUP resulted in a single most parsimonious tree of 261 steps ($CI = 0.801$, $RI = 0.881$) as represented in Fig. 2B. Among isolates of *T. suttonii* there were 3 polymorphic loci which resulted in 4 EF haplotypes (Table 1, Fig. 2B). The smallest supported group of isolates in the EF tree consisted of three isolates from China, corresponding to isolates from ITS haplotypes 12 and 14. The other three EF haplotypes were made up of ITS haplotypes 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 14 including isolates from Australia, South Africa, Uruguay, USA, and Vietnam; ITS haplotypes 4, 5, 7, 10 and 11 representing of isolates from Australia and Uruguay; and ITS haplotypes 12, 13 and 14, representing of isolates from Australia, China and Indonesia.

The β -tubulin dataset consisted of 381 characters, of which 2 were parsimony informative and were used in the analysis. The data contained significant phylogenetic signal ($P < 0.01$; $g1 = -2.25$). Heuristic searches of unweighted characters in PAUP resulted in 2 trees of 140 steps ($CI = 0.79$, $RI = 0.91$). One of the trees was saved for representation (Fig. 2C). Among isolates of *T. suttonii*, there were 2 polymorphic loci which resulted in 2 BT haplotypes (Table 1, Fig. 2C), thus reducing the 14 ITS haplotypes to 2 haplotypes. The smaller BT sub-clade had equally high bootstrap values in parsimony and Bayesian analyses, the other sub-clade was not supported by posterior probability values. The smaller BT sub-clade consisted of the ITS haplotypes 2, 4, 5, 9 and 11. The group included isolates from Australia, South Africa, Uruguay and USA. The larger sub-clade included

isolates from Australia, China, Indonesia, South Africa and Vietnam, corresponding to ITS haplotypes 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 13 and 14.

For the GSI analysis (Table 3), 31 isolates in 9 of the 14 ITS haplotypes, namely haplotypes 1, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12 and 14, had a genealogical divergence of 1.000. Haplotypes 2, 3 and 4 had low genealogical divergence values 0.118, 0.087 and 0.369 respectively, while haplotype 13 scored a moderate GSI value of 0.688. Taxa in all haplotypes except 2 and 3 showed significant estimates of measures of exclusive ancestry. Statistics could not be produced for the ITS haplotype 9 since it consists of a single haplotype. Significant measures of exclusive ancestry were estimated for taxa of the ITS haplotypes 1, 11 and 13 in BT, but overall low to moderate genealogical divergence was found for all isolates at the BT and EF loci scoring GSI values ranging from 0.002–0.824 and 0.004– 0.075 respectively. Failure to separate isolates on the BT and EF trees (Fig. 2B, C; Table 3) supported the low levels of genealogical divergence at these loci.

Morphological characterization

Variable conidial shapes were observed amongst the isolates examined (Figs. 3, 4). Spores were straight, slightly curved and curved. Spores from all isolates and herbarium material were generally brown, with a few that were faint brown at the narrow ends. A collection of spore measurements was obtained from representative isolates and herbarium material (Table 2). The lengths and widths of spores *in vivo* ranged from 28.49 μm to 77.49 μm and 2.06 μm to 7.62 μm respectively. *In vitro* spore length and width ranged from 16.07 μm to 66.57 μm and 2.30 μm to 6.98 μm respectively. The shortest spores were recorded *in vitro* from isolate CMW31916, while the longest spores were recorded *in vivo* from specimen PREM60495. The narrowest and widest spores were recorded *in vivo* from leaf material (PREM60540 and PREM60536). Where both *in vivo* and *in vitro*, measurements could be recorded lengths of conidia from cultures was generally greater than for the

in vitro measurements. Conidial widths did not differ significantly for material from culture or from leaf tissue. The average length of spores for isolates CMW28689, CMW29223, and CMW32939 and from corresponding leaf material was similar. The number of septa recorded in the conidia ranged from 1–10. Where spores were observed both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, often fewer septa were recorded for those produced *in vitro*. In a few instances, the number of septa was the same both *in vivo* and *in vitro* collections. Single septate spores were obtained only *in vitro*.

Discussion

A multi-gene phylogeny was constructed for a large collection of *T. suttonii* isolates including those from across the natural range of this species, as well as from many countries where it has been introduced. Initial examination of ITS data alone revealed several distinct and strongly supported terminal clades suggesting that *T. suttonii* represents a species complex. This was consistent with early observations of considerably variability in the morphology of the conidia. However, much lower variability was observed in BT and EF sequence data. Additionally, the trees obtained for the different gene regions were not congruent and apart from the ITS region, there was no GSI support for monophyly for the other gene regions. The lack of clarity in the molecular support was also confounded by the wide range of conidial morphology in the fungus, with no relationships emerging consistent with the morphological and the molecular divisions. We therefore, conclude that *T. suttonii* represents a single, highly variable species. Such considerable genetic instability has also been observed in *Fusarium avenaceum* and *Fusarium heterosporum* isolates from the same host and geographic origin (Benyon et al. 2000). The high level of genetic variability was considered to be a factor of genetic instability. Similar to *T. suttonii* in this study, *Catenulostroma wingfieldii* has been reported to display variable spore characteristics (Crous et al. 2008).

Isolates from Australia were scattered throughout the phylogenetic trees and they included 12 of the 14 ITS haplotypes identified for *T. suttonii* in this study. This result was not surprising given the broad natural distribution of the fungus in eastern Australia (Park et al. 2000; Walker et al. 1992). The two haplotypes not represented in Australia either represent unsampled haplotypes from Australia or they might be explained by a post-introduction mutation as Pérez et al. (2010) have shown for the related *T. nubilosa*. Isolates obtained from other countries where *T. suttonii* is believed to be an introduced pathogen were considerably less variable, and represented by only one or two ITS haplotypes. According to the results, the haplotypes introduced into Asia are different to those introduced into South Africa, USA and Uruguay and they thus represent independent introductions, probably directly from Australia. It was, however, not possible to determine whether isolates found in Florida and Uruguay originated from Australia or South Africa since both the South Africa and Australia isolates share similar haplotypes with isolates from the former two countries. *Eucalyptus* planting stock, particularly in the form of seed has been widely traded around the world and it is believed that this has been one of the important sources of pathogens moving into new areas (Andjic et al. 2011; Wingfield 2008). For example, *T. nubilosa*, an important *Eucalyptus* pathogen and relative of *T. suttonii* moved from Australia into South Africa and the latter country provided a beachhead for movement of the pathogen into Africa and Europe (Hunter et al. 2008). Thus, the origin of populations of forest pathogens such as *T. suttonii* in countries can often be linked to global trade in forest products and not necessarily to introductions from countries where these pathogens are native as has for example been established for *T. nubilosa* and *D. pinea* (Burgess and Wingfield 2002a; Hunter et al. 2008) .

Interestingly, *T. suttonii* is not endemic to Western Australia (Jackson et al. 2008). In contrast, it was probably introduced in the early 2000's when the rapidly expanding eucalypt plantation industry was sourcing seedlings from nurseries all down the eastern seaboard of Australia. This was

also reflected in the haplotypes of the pathogen observed in Western Australia in the current study where they were representative of isolates commonly found over a wide geographic range in Australia.

A high level of variability in conidial size, number of septa and shape was observed between isolates irrespective of their molecular aggregation. Conidial characteristics could not be related to origin, host or whether they were produced *in vivo* or *in vitro* under controlled conditions. Variation in spore morphology has previously been reported in *T. suttonii* (Knipscheer et al. 1990), although these authors did not mention all the different forms of variation observed in the current study. Based on the species description, *T. suttonii* is characterized by straight to slightly curved spores, that are brown, rough-walled with usually 3–5 septa, sinuate, narrowing to the rounded, slightly paler apex, sometimes slightly constricted at septa and measuring $(21\text{--})36\text{--}57(\text{--}61) \times 3\text{--}5.5(\text{--}7) \mu\text{m}$ (Crous et al. 1989; Hansford 1957; Padaganur 1973; Walker 1962). In general, conidia from different isolates observed in this study fit the original and subsequent descriptions of *T. suttonii*. This study has used nucleotide sequences for three genes and phenotypic characteristics to identify fungal isolates from leaves with typical Teratosphaeria Leaf Disease symptoms thought to be associated with *T. suttonii* and to infer their evolutionary history. The morphological and molecular data at hand, the indistinguishable symptoms of infection and similar biological niches provide convincing evidence for a single but diverse species rather than a species complex. Repeated recombination, interrupted deviation over time and incomplete geographical containment may have resulted in introgression between previously defined species (Taylor et al. 1999). Further studies using deep sequencing for the identification of SNP's (Perez 2010) may still elucidate species boundaries within this complex.

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Table 1 Isolates of *Teratosphaeria suttonii* considered in the phylogenetic study.

^A Culture no.	Herbarium no.	^B Host	^C Location	Isolator	^D GenBank Accession No.		
					ITS	EF1- α	β -tub
*MUCC575	PREM60538	<i>E. camaldulensis</i>	Australia; QLD, Davies Creek Plantation	TI Burgess	JF342909(1)	JF793414 (1)	JF793325 (1)
*MUCC576	PREM60539	<i>E. camaldulensis</i>	Australia; QLD, Davies Creek Plantation	TI Burgess	JF342910 (1)	JF793415 (1)	JF793326 (1)
*CMW31920		<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia, WA,	S Jackson	JF342911 (2)	JF793417 (1)	JF793327 (1)
*CMW31921		<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia, WA,	S Jackson	JF342913 (2)	JF793419 (1)	JF793329 (1)
CMW31924		<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia, WA,	S Jackson	JF342914 (2)	JF793420 (1)	JF793330 (1)
*CMW31923		<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia, WA,	S Jackson	JF342915 (2)	JF793421 (1)	JF793331 (1)
*CMW35799	PREM60518	<i>E. longifolia</i>	Australia; NSW, Garas Trial Plantation	AJ Carnegie	JF342944 (2)	JF793450 (1)	JF793359 (2)
*CMW35813	PREM60526	<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp.	Australia; NSW, Tunglebung	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342954 (2)	JF793459 (1)	JF793369 (1)
*CMW31950		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	Australia; NSW	TI Burgess	JF342965 (2)	JF793416 (1)	JF793380 (1)
*CMW31916		<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia, WA,	S Jackson	JF342912 (3)	JF793418 (1)	JF793328 (1)
*CMW31934		<i>E. g x E. c</i>	Australia; QLD	G Hardy	JF342917 (3)	JF793423 (1)	JF793333 (1)
*CMW35620	PREM60506	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; Central QLD, Koumala	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342949 (3)	JF793454 (1)	JF793364 (1)
CMW35650	PREM60507	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; Central QLD, Koumala	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342950 (3)	JF793455 (1)	JF793365 (1)
CMW35685	PREM60508	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; Central QLD, Koumala	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342951 (3)	JF793456 (1)	JF793366 (1)
*CMW35807	PREM60523	<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	Australia; NSW, Tunglebung	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342952 (3)	JF793457 (1)	JF793367 (1)
*CMW31936		<i>E. g x E. c</i>	Australia; QLD	G Hardy	JF342919 (4)	JF793425 (1)	JF793335 (1)
CMW31938		<i>E. g x E. c</i>	Australia; QLD	G Hardy	JF342920 (4)	JF793426 (1)	JF793336 (1)
*CMW31926		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	Australia; QLD, Mackay	TI Burgess	JF342922 (4)	JF793428 (1)	JF793338 (1)
*CMW35800	PREM60519	<i>E. longifolia</i>	Australia; NSW, Garas Trial Plantation	AJ Carnegie	JF342945 (4)	JF793451 (1)	JF793360 (2)
*CMW35796	PREM60516	<i>E. saligna</i>	Australia; NSW, Myrtle Greek	AJ Carnegie	JF342946 (4)	JF793452 (2)	JF793361 (2)
CMW35798	PREM60517	<i>E. saligna</i>	Australia; NSW, Myrtle Greek	AJ Carnegie	JF342947 (4)	JF793452(2)	JF793362 (1)
CMW35808	PREM60524	<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	Australia; NSW, Tunglebung	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342953 (4)	JF793458 (1)	JF793368 (1)
CMW35801	PREM60520	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; NSW, Morrow	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342955 (4)	JF793460 (2)	JF793370 (2)

^A Culture no.	Herbarium no.	^B Host	^C Location	Isolator	^D GenBank Accession No.		
					ITS	EF1- α	β -tub
CMW35791	PREM60512	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; NSW, Burns	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342956 (4)	JF793461 (1)	JF793371 (2)
CMW35536	PREM60504	<i>E. g x E. c</i>	Australia; NSW, Kew	V Andjic	JF342958 (4)	JF793463 (1)	JF793373 (1)
*CMW35547	PREM60505	<i>E. dunnii</i>	Australia; NSW, Emu Creek	V Andjic	JF342959 (4)	JF793464 (1)	JF793374 (1)
*CMW36017	PREM60536	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; Southern QLD, Imbill SF	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342962 (4)	JF793467 (2)	JF793377 (2)
CMW36016	PREM60536	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; Southern QLD, Imbill SF	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342961 (4)	JF793466 (1)	JF793376 (2)
CMW36011	PREM60535	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; Southern QLD, Imbill SF	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342963 (4)	JF793468 (2)	JF793378 (1)
CMW35997	PREM60534	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; Southern QLD, Imbill SF	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342964 (4)	JF793469 (1)	JF793379 (1)
CMW36020	PREM60537	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; Southern QLD, Imbill SF	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342960 (4)	JF793465 (2)	JF793375 (1)
CMW28708	PREM60486	<i>E. g x E. u</i>	South Africa; Gauteng, Pretoria	MM Taole	JF342924 (4)	JF793430 (1)	JF793340 (2)
CMW29031	PREM60487	<i>E. g x E. u</i>	South Africa; Gauteng, Pretoria	MM Taole	JF342925 (4)	JF793431 (1)	JF793341 (2)
CMW32939	PREM60496	<i>E. g x E. u</i>	South Africa; Gauteng, Pretoria	MM Taole	JF342928 (4)	JF793434 (1)	JF793344 (2)
CMW32940	PREM60494	<i>E. g x E. u</i>	South Africa; Gauteng, Pretoria	MM Taole	JF342927 (4)	JF793433 (1)	JF793343 (2)
*CMW32941	PREM60498	<i>E. g x E. u</i>	South Africa; Gauteng, Pretoria	MM Taole	JF342926 (4)	JF793432 (3)	JF793342 (2)
*CMW32942	PREM60499	<i>E. g x E. u</i>	South Africa; Gauteng, Pretoria	MM Taole	JF342929 (4)	JF793435 (1)	JF793345 (1)
CMW32943	PREM60500	<i>E. g x E. u</i>	South Africa; Gauteng, Pretoria	MM Taole	JF342930 (4)	JF793436 (2)	JF793346 (2)
CMW32781	PREM60492	<i>E. g x E. u</i>	Uruguay; Caldras	MJ Wingfield	JF342933 (4)	JF793439 (2)	JF793349 (2)
*CMW32814	PREM60494	<i>E. g x E. u</i>	Uruguay; La Negra	MJ Wingfield	JF342934 (4)	JF793440 (1)	JF793350 (2)
*CMW32803	PREM60493	<i>E. g x E. u</i>	Uruguay; La Negra	MJ Wingfield	JF342935 (4)	JF793441 (2)	JF793351 (2)
CMW34074		<i>E. grandis</i>	United States of America; Florida	MJ Wingfield	JF342937 (4)	JF793443 (1)	-
*CMW34077		<i>E. grandis</i>	United States of America; Florida	MJ Wingfield	JF342939 (4)	JF793445 (1)	JF793354 (2)
*CMW34081		<i>E. grandis</i>	United States of America; Florida	MJ Wingfield	JF342940 (4)	JF793446 (1)	JF793355 (2)
CMW34087		<i>E. grandis</i>	United States of America; Florida	MJ Wingfield	JF342938 (4)	JF793444 (1)	JF793353 (2)
*CMW28688	PREM60484	<i>E. g x E. u</i>	South Africa; Gauteng, Pretoria	MM Taole	JF342923 (5)	JF793429 (1)	JF793339 (2)
*CMW32817	PREM60495	<i>E. g x E. u</i>	Uruguay; La Negra	MJ Wingfield	JF342936 (5)	JF793442 (1)	JF793352 (2)
*MUCC581	PREM60491	<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	Australia; North QLD, Cairns	TI Burgess	JF342931 (6)	JF793437 (1)	JF793347 (1)

A Culture no.	Herbarium no.	B Host	C Location	Isolator	D GenBank Accession No.		
					ITS	EF1- α	β -tub
*MUCC582	PREM60491	<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	Australia; North QLD, Cairns	TI Burgess	JF342932 (6)	JF793438 (1)	JF793348 (1)
*CMW35793	PREM60514	<i>E. saligna</i>	Australia; NSW, McMullen Road	AJ Carnegie	JF342948 (7)	JF793453 (2)	JF793363 (1)
*CMW35052	PREM60501	<i>E. grandis</i>	Vietnam	TI Burgess	JF342957 (7)	JF793462 (1)	JF793372 (1)
CMW31939		<i>E. g</i> x <i>E. c</i>	Australia; QLD	G Hardy	JF342916 (8)	JF793422 (1)	JF793332 (1)
*CMW31933		<i>E. g</i> x <i>E. c</i>	Australia; QLD	G Hardy	JF342921 (8)	JF793427 (1)	JF793337 (1)
*CMW35768	PREM60509	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; QLD, Davies Creek Plantation	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342941 (8)	JF793447 (1)	JF793356 (1)
*CMW35776	PREM60511	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; QLD, Davies Creek Plantation	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342943 (8)	JF793449 (1)	JF793358 (2)
CMW35771	PREM60510	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; QLD, Davies Creek Plantation	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342942 (8)	JF793448 (1)	JF793357 (1)
*CMW31942		<i>E. g</i> x <i>E. c</i>	Australia; QLD	G Hardy	JF342918 (9)	JF793424 (1)	JF793334 (2)
*CMW31918		<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia, WA,	S Jackson	JF342966 (10)	JF793470 (2)	-
*CMW35937	PREM60529	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; NSW, Wedding Bells SF	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342995 (10)	JF7934498 (2)	JF793409 (1)
*MUCC426		<i>E. globulus</i>	Western Australia	S Jackson	DQ632704 (10)	DQ632715 (2)	DQ632620 (1)
*MUCC577		<i>E. camuldulensis</i>	Australia; QLD, Davies Creek Plantation	TI Burgess	JF342974 (11)	JF793477 (2)	JF793388 (2)
*MUCC578		<i>E. camuldulensis</i>	Australia; QLD, Davies Creek Plantation	TI Burgess	JF342975 (11)	JF793478 (2)	JF793389 (2)
*MUCC579		<i>E. camuldulensis</i>	Australia; QLD, Davies Creek Plantation	TI Burgess	JF342976 (11)	JF793479 (2)	JF793390 (2)
*CMW35804	PREM60521	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; NSW, Morrow	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342997 (11)	JF793500 (2)	JF793411 (2)
*CMW30595		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp.	China	TI Burgess	JF342977 (12)	JF793480 (4)	JF793391 (1)
*CMW33001		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp.	China	TI Burgess	JF342978 (12)	JF793481 (2)	JF793392 (1)
*CMW30597		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp.	China	TI Burgess	JF342979 (12)	JF793482 (4)	JF793393 (1)
*CMW31946		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	Australia; NSW	TI Burgess	JF342967 (13)	JF793471 (2)	JF793382 (1)
CMW31947		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	Australia; NSW	TI Burgess	JF342968 (13)	JF793472 (2)	JF793383 (2)
*MUCC431		<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; NSW	TI Burgess	DQ530227 (13)	-	-
*CMW35543	PREM60564	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; NSW; Kimbell Plantation	V Andjic	JF342987 (13)	JF793490 (2)	JF793401 (1)
*CMW35792	PREM60513	<i>E. saligna</i>	Australia; NSW, McMullen Road	AJ Carnegie	JF342988 (13)	JF793491 (2)	JF793402 (1)
CMW35794	PREM60515	<i>E. saligna</i>	Australia; NSW, McMullen Road	AJ Carnegie	JF342989 (13)	JF793492 (2)	JF793403 (1)

^A Culture no.	Herbarium no.	^B Host	^C Location	Isolator	^D GenBank Accession No.		
					ITS	EF1- α	β -tub
CMW35934	PREM60531	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; NSW, Wedding Bells SF	AJ Carnegie	JF342992 (13)	JF793495 (2)	JF793406 (1)
CMW35941	PREM60532	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; NSW, Wedding Bells SF	AJ Carnegie	JF342990 (13)	JF793493 (2)	JF793404 (1)
CMW35943	PREM60527	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; NSW, Wedding Bells SF	AJ Carnegie	JF342991 (13)	JF793494 (2)	JF793405 (1)
*CMW18622		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	Indonesia	MJ Wingfield	JF342970 (13)	JF793473 (2)	JF793384 (1)
*CMW18625		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	Indonesia	MJ Wingfield	JF342971 (13)	JF793474 (2)	JF793385 (1)
*CMW18629		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	Indonesia	MJ Wingfield	JF342972 (13)	JF793475 (2)	JF793386 (1)
CMW18641		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	Indonesia	MJ Wingfield	JF342973 (13)	JF793476 (2)	JF793387 (1)
*CMW5348		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	Indonesia	MJ Wingfield	AF309621(13)	DQ240170 (2)	DQ240117 (1)
*CMW35947	PREM60533	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; NSW, Wedding Bells SF	AJ Carnegie	JF342993 (13)	JF793496 (2)	JF793407 (1)
CMW35935	PREM60528	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; NSW, Wedding Bells SF	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342994 (13)	JF793497 (2)	JF793408 (2)
CMW35940	PREM60530	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; NSW, Wedding Bells SF	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342996 (13)	JF793499 (2)	JF793410 (2)
*CMW35805	PREM60522	<i>E. grandis</i>	Australia; NSW, Morrow	MM Taole & K Taylor	JF342998 (13)	JF793501 (2)	JF793412 (1)
* MUCC428		<i>E. g x E. c</i>	Australia; QLD	TI Burgess	DQ632707 (14)	DQ632717(1)	DQ632618 (1)
CMW30584		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	China; Kaiping	MJ Wingfield	JF342980 (14)	JF793483 (2)	JF793394 (1)
*CMW33000		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	China; Kaiping	MJ Wingfield	JF342981 (14)	JF793484 (2)	JF793395 (1)
CMW30585		<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	China; Kaiping	MJ Wingfield	JF342982 (14)	JF793485 (2)	JF793396 (1)
*CMW29223	PREM60488	<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	China; Fujian Province	MJ Wingfield	JF342983 (14)	JF793486 (2)	JF793397 (1)
*CMW29249	PREM60489	<i>Eucalyptus</i> sp	China; Fujian Province	MJ Wingfield	JF342984 (14)	JF793487 (2)	JF793398 (1)
*CMW35061	PREM60503	<i>E. urophylla</i>	Vietnam	TI Burgess	JF342985 (14)	JF793488 (2)	JF793399 (1)
*CMW35059	PREM60502	<i>E. urophylla</i>	Vietnam	TI Burgess	JF342986 (14)	JF793489 (4)	JF793400 (1)

^A Designation of isolates and culture collections: CMW = Tree Pathology Co-operative Program, Forestry and Agricultural Biotechnology Institute, University of Pretoria, South Africa; MUCC = Murdoch University culture collection, Australia

^B Eg x Ec = *E. grandis* x *E. camaldulensis* hybrid; Eg x Eu = *E. grandis* x *E. urophylla* hybrid

^C SF = State Forest

^D Haplotypes for the isolates indicated in brackets next to GenBank numbers; Bold gene numbers represent sequence data from other studies

QLD = Queensland; WA = Western Australia; NSW = New South Wales

E = *Eucalyptus*

Table 2 Characteristic features of conidia obtained from leaves and cultures.

Culture number	Herbarium number	Conidial length in vivo (µm)	Conidial length in vitro (µm)	Conidial width in vivo (µm)	Conidial width in vitro (µm)	No. of septa	Pigmentation
DC1.1 (1)	PREM60538	28.49 (33.83) – (47.21) 52.49	n/a	3.06 (3.40) – (6.40) 7.13	n/a	3-6	brown
DC1.2 (1)	PREM60539	43.00 (44.83) – (54.59) 64.44	n/a	4.38 (1.85) – (13.39) 7.62	n/a	5-10	brown
CMW31920 (2)		n/a	21.12 (26.86) – (39.02) 45.31	n/a	3.13 (3.40) – (4.52) 5.09	1-4	brown
CMW35813 (2)	PREM60526	n/a	32.03 (36.63) – (45.91) 52.19	n/a	2.52 (2.99) – (3.87) 4.47	2-4	brown
CMW31916 (3)		n/a	16.07 (19.75) - (28.25) 37.44	n/a	3.60 (3.94) - (4.86) 5.53	1-3	brown
CMW35620 (3)	PREM60506	n/a	32.55 (38.87) - (48.11) 57.17	n/a	3.03 (3.88) – (4.92) 5.43	3-7	brown
CMW35808 (4)	PREM60524	n/a	23.02 (26.67) – (35.15) 40.23	n/a	3.28 (3.69) – (4.73) 5.66	1-2	brown
CMW36017 (4)	PREM60536	41.59 (52.18) - (67.14) 74.68	25.5 (33.1) - (44.2) 47.51	3.87 (4.77) - (6.19) 7.02	2.86 (3.6) - (4.52) 5.29	2-5/1-3	brown
CMW34087 (4)		n/a	32.06 (44.07) -(57.03) 63.68	n/a	2.84 (3.59) - (4.81) 5.73	2-4	brown
CMW35791 (4)	PREM60512	n/a	24.55 (29.03) – (37.73) 39.72	n/a	2.52 (3.35) – (4.39) 5.46	1-3	brown
CMW32941 (4)	PREM60498	36.11 (39.38) - (48.38) 54.15	32.61 (39.98) – (49.18) 55.50	3.06 (3.37) - (4.53) 6.62	4.08 (4.58) - (6.02) 6.98	2-5	brown
CMW32942 (4)	PREM60499	44.04 (51.22) – (63.74) 67.69	n/a	3.9 (4.12) – (5.68) 6.78	n/a	3-4	brown
CMW32939 (4)	PREM60496	37.89 (40.57) – (46.99) 49.39	30.98 (36.78) – (49.77) 66.57	3.64 (4.04) – (5.40) 5.85	3.38 (3.94) - (5.4) 6.29	4-5/3-4	brown
CMW32803 (4)	PREM60493	49.49 (53.31) - (64.67) 69.67	n/a	4.07 (4.38) – (5.4) 6.03	n/a	3-6	brown
CMW32814 (4)	PREM60494	38.89 (52.08) – (62.9) 67.75	23.52 (28.86) - (38.71) 44.64	3.76 (4.3) – (5.22) 5.66	2.60 (3.49) - (4.57) 5.49	2-5/1-3	brown
CMW28688 (5)	PREM60484	30.56 (41.85) – (54.13) 63.84	36.23 (40.33) – (47.73) 52.10	3.57 (5.63) – (6.59) 6.11	3.52 (3.86) – (4.86) 5.6	2-5	brown
CMW32817 (5)	PREM60495	40.26 (48.48) – (64.74) 77.49	n/a	3.29 (4.09) – (5.19) 5.81	n/a	3-6	brown
CMW31930 (6)	PREM60491	36.11 (39.38) – (48.38) 54.15	28.01 (32.99) – (40.39) 44.89	3.06 (3.37) – (4.53) 6.62	2.90 (3.34) - (4.26) 5.10	2-4	brown
TIN2.2 (6)	PREM60491	30.01 (37.06) - (47.26) 52.22	n/a	3.38 (4.18) – (5.42) 6.33	n/a	3-6	brown
CMW35052 (7)	PREM60501	n/a	33.20 (37.98) – (47.74) 53.84	n/a	3.01 (3.85) – (5.07) 5.72	1-4	brown
CMW35768 (8)	PREM60509	n/a	31.31 (37.25) - (46.05) 52.43	n/a	2.63 (3.07) - (3.91) 4.47	3-5	brown
CMW35776 (8)	PREM60511	n/a	36.30 (42.24) -(51.56) 56.5	n/a	2.730 (3.44) -(4.40) 5.00	2-4	brown
CMW31933 (8)		n/a	34.85 (37.94) – (47.38) 54.22	n/a	2.79 (3.19) - (3.89) 4.39	2-4	brown

Culture number	Herbarium number	Conidial length in vivo (µm)	Conidial length in vitro (µm)	Conidial width in vivo (µm)	Conidial width in vitro (µm)	No. of septa	Pigmentation
CMW31942 (9)		n/a	29.05 (32.80) – (39.58) 44.80	n/a	3.20 (3.65) – (4.75) 5.75	2-4	brown
CMW31918 (10)		n/a	17.69 (22.32) – (32.54) 39.43	n/a	3.39 (3.49) – (4.91) 6.31	1-3	brown
DC10.2 (11)		35.57 (39.10) – (48.08) 54.15	n/a	3.06 (3.37) – (4.53) 6.62	n/a	3-6	brown
CMW35804 (11)	PREM60521	n/a	35.52 (39.25) - (48.67) 54.77	n/a	2.55 (2.90) - (3.94) 4.57	3-4	brown
CMW35947 (13)	PREM60533	n/a	22.79 (26.73) - (34.11) 37.42	n/a	3.35 (3.79) - (5.01) 6.06	1-3	brown
CMW18622 (13)		n/a	28.48 (31.18) - (39.18) 42.23	n/a	2.70 (3.03) - (3.77) 4.19	2-4	brown
CMW18625 (13)		n/a	42.02 (44.95) – (54.93) 61.51		2.79 (3.38) – (4.34) 5.08	3-4	brown
CMW18629 (13)		n/a	43.57 (49.43) – (59.53) 65.83		3.02 (3.56) – (4.82) 5.42	3-4	brown
CMW28689 (13)	PREM60485	36.11 (39.38) _ 48.38 (54.15	28.01 (32.99) - (40.39) 44.89	3.06 (3.39) - (4.53) 6.62	2.90 (3.34) - (4.26) 5.10	2-4	Brown
HERB2577 (13)	PREM60540	37.82 (51.23) – (65.77) 71.86	n/a	2.06 (2.37) – (3.05) 3.48	n/a	2-6	brown
HERB2676 (13)	PREM60541	32.01 (44.14) – (60.44) 71.49	n/a	2.15 (2.50) – (3.12) 3.36	n/a	2-3	brown
CMW29249 (14)	PREM60489	38.15 (41.76) – (53.72) 52.98	32.27 (50.48) – (58.46) 50.60	2.65 (3.53) – (4.43)5.25	3.08 (4.87) – (5.91) 5.39	3-6/3-5	brown
CMW29223 (14)	PREM60488	45.35 (52.79) – (64.39) 68.48	33.90 (38.71) – (48.51) 53.52	3.14 (3.74) – (5.06) 6.20	2.88 (3.37) – (4.19) 4.62	4-6/2-4	brown

The numbers in bracket next to the isolate numbers are the ITS haplotype numbers.
n/a = not applicable (conidial measurements not obtained)

Table 3 Genealogical Sorting Index (GSI) and probability values for the consensus bootstrap trees from parsimony analysis of sequence data from the three gene regions

ITS haplotype	N	ITS	EF	BT
1	2	1.000 P=0.002	0.005 P=0.575	0.824 P=0.001
2	5	0.118 P=0.032	0.024 P=0.185	0.007 P=0.519
3	4	0.087 P=0.084	0.017 P=0.268	0.027 P=0.150
4	12	0.369 P<0.001	0.075 P=0.012	0.029 P=0.201
5	2	1.000 P=0.004	0.006 P=0.576	0.051 P=0.069
6	2	1.000 P=0.004	0.006 P=0.569	0.002 P=0.934
7	2	1.000 P=0.002	0.006 P=0.575	0.008 P=0.459
8	3	1.000 P<0.001	0.012 P=0.367	0.018 P=0.257
9	1			
10	3	1.000 P<0.001	0.012 P=0.394	0.005 P=0.850
11	4	1.000 P<0.001	0.017 P=0.267	0.600 P=0.004
12	3	1.000 P<0.001	0.004 P=0.751	0.018 P=0.260
13	5	0.688 P<0.001	0.008 P=0.592	0.080 P=0.012
14	10	1.000 P<0.001	0.026 P=0.195	0.047 P=0.054

Fig. 1. Symptoms associated with infections by *Teratosphaeria suttonii*. (a). Trees severely defoliated. (b). Branch showing infections typically on the older leaves. (c). Sporulation of the fungus from stomata on the undersurface of a *Eucalyptus* leaf. (d). Infected leaf of a cutting during the rooting process where the infection by the fungus can reduce root strike.



Fig. 2. Phylogenetic relationships among *Teratosphaeria suttonii* isolates included in the study. The trees present a summary of the Parsimony and Bayesian analyses of DNA sequence data obtained from the ITS (A), EF-1 α (B) and β -tubulin (C) gene regions. Estimates of nodal support have been deduced from Parsimony jackknifing (above nodes) and Bayesian inference analysis (below nodes). The different colours represent the 14 ITS haplotypes, how they have been reduced and intermixed in the EF and BT phylogenies.

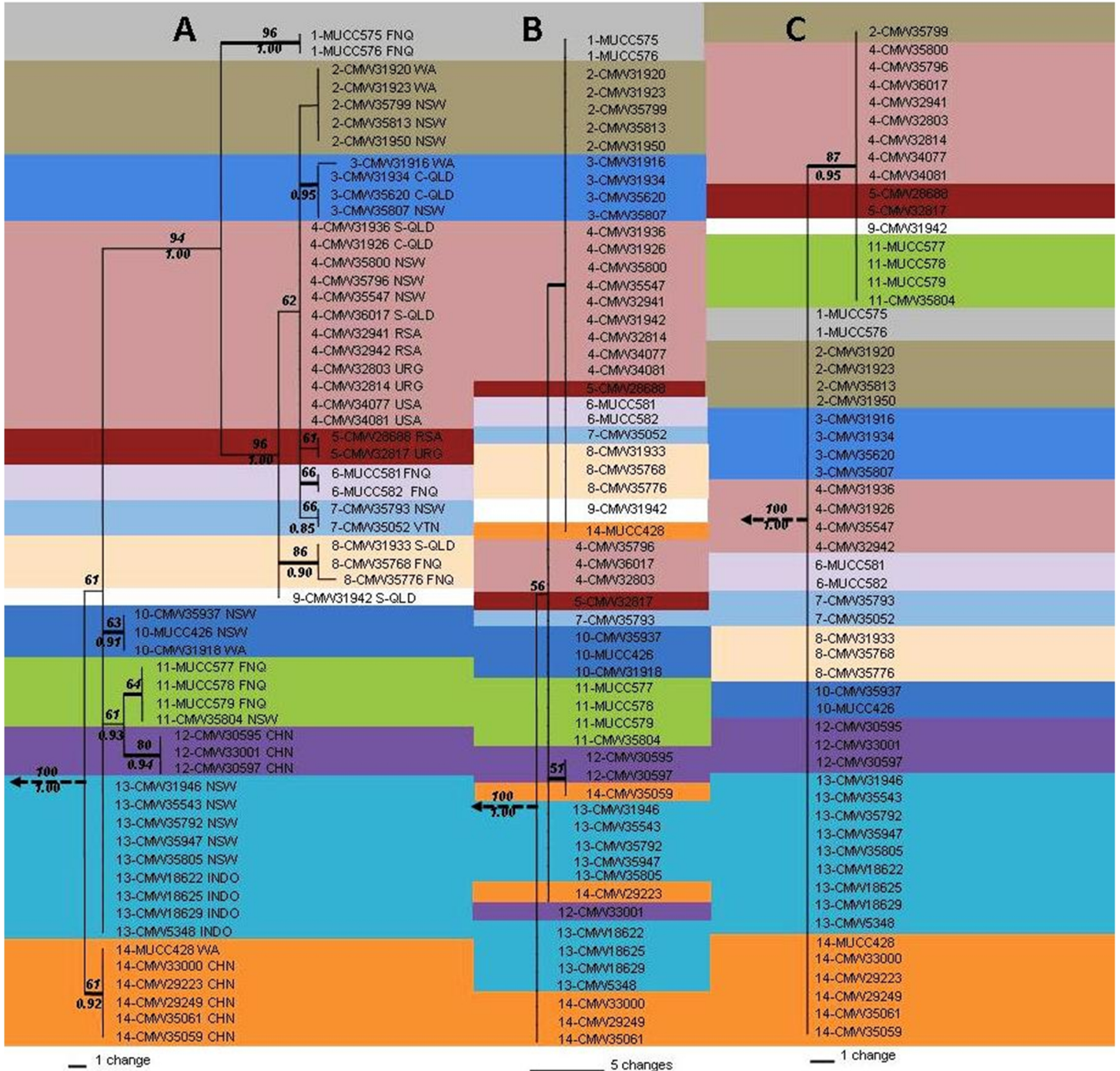


Fig. 3. Average lengths and widths of spores obtained from cultures and leaves. Error bars represent the standard deviation

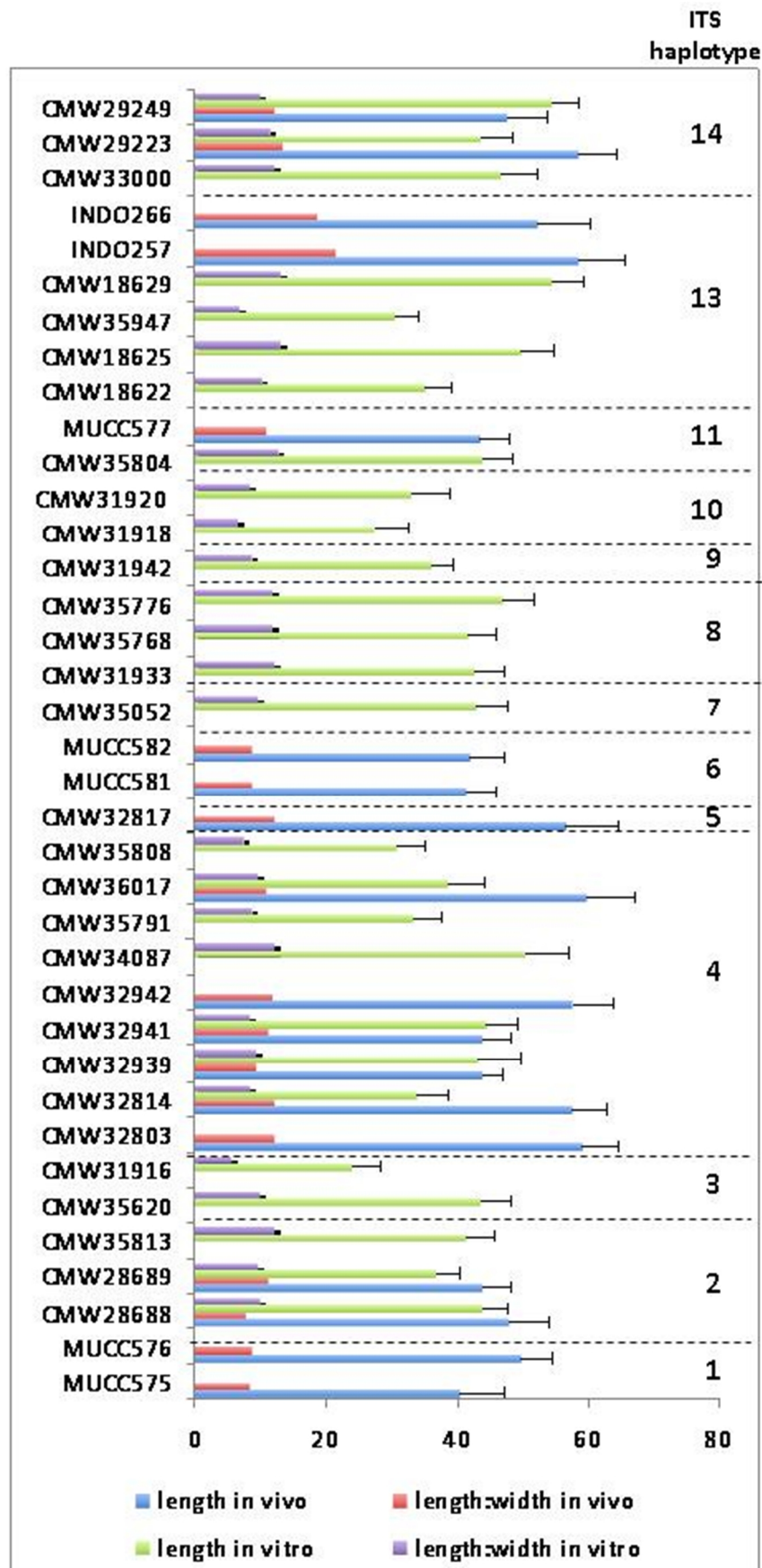


Fig 4. Conidia obtained from isolates of *Teratosphaeria suttonii*. (a) CMW35813, (b) CMW35768, (c) CMW35791, (d) CMW29223, (e) CMW18629, (f) CMW31916 and leaf specimen (g) PREM60538, (h) PREM60488, (i) DC10, (j) PREM60484, (k) PREM60491, (l) PREM60495. Where two spore images are given, as for b, c, f, j, j and l, the image on the right represents spores from culture and the one on the left from an infected leaf. The numbers in brackets represent those for ITS haplotypes.

