

Document downloaded from:

[\[http://redivia.gva.es/handle/20.500.11939/6071\]](http://redivia.gva.es/handle/20.500.11939/6071)

This paper must be cited as:

[Martinez-Minaya, J., Conesa, D., Lopez-Quilez, A., Vicent, A. (2017). Response to the letter on "climatic distribution of citrus black spot caused by *phyllosticta citricarpa*. A historical analysis of disease spread in south africa" by fourie et al. (2017). *European Journal of Plant Pathology*, 148(3), 503-508.]

ivia
Institut Valencià
d'Investigacions Agràries

The final publication is available at

[\[http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10658-017-1163-3\]](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10658-017-1163-3)

Copyright [Springer]

1 **Response to the letter on “Climatic distribution of citrus black spot caused by**
2 ***Phyllosticta citricarpa*. A historical analysis of disease spread in South Africa” by**
3 **Fourie et al. (2016)**

4

5 Joaquín Martínez-Minaya • David Conesa • Antonio López-Quílez • Antonio Vicent

6

7 Joaquín Martínez-Minaya • Antonio Vicent (✉)

8 Centro de Protección Vegetal y Biotecnología, Instituto Valenciano de Investigaciones

9 Agrarias (IVIA), Moncada, 46113 Valencia, Spain.

10 e-mail avicent@ivia.es

11 Tel. (+34) 963424078

12 Fax. (+34) 963424001

13

14 David Conesa • Antonio López-Quílez

15 Departament d'Estadística i Investigació Operativa, Universitat de València, C/ Dr.

16 Moliner 50, Burjassot, 46100 Valencia, Spain.

17

18

19

20**Abstract** In a previous study, Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015) performed an analysis of
21 climate distribution of citrus black spot (CBS) in South Africa. It was found that CBS was
22 initially confined to humid areas with summer rainfall, but later spread to arid steppe and
23 even desert climates. A strong spatial autocorrelation of CBS distribution was found.
24 Fourie et al. (2016) take a critical view of our study, but without presenting any analysis of
25 results to refute our findings. Furthermore, Fourie et al. (2016) appear to have
26 misunderstood our work, since many of their criticisms relate to the potential distribution
27 of CBS in Europe, which is beyond the scope of our original study. Fourie et al. (2016)
28 highlight the limitations of climate classifications in species distribution modelling.
29 However, this was made explicit in our study, indicating that it was a preparatory work and
30 further advanced modelling studies, including spatial effects, will be needed. Fourie et al.
31 (2016) incorrectly assume that we used all of South Africa as the background in the spatial
32 autocorrelation analysis. However, only citrus areas were used and a strong spatial
33 autocorrelation was detected at all distances evaluated. Contrary to what Fourie et al.
34 (2016) suggest, similar climate distributions of CBS were obtained at 5' and 30' resolution,
35 and also with the national land-cover map of South Africa. The figure comparison
36 presented by Fourie et al. (2016) appears to ignore the fact that the maps we used were grid
37 cells of 10 × 10 km and not the line polygons they suggest. Therefore, we consider the
38 conclusions from the Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015) remain entirely valid.

39

40**Keywords** *Guignardia citricarpa*, spatial autocorrelation, mapping

41

42 Fourie et al. (2016) devote the greater proportion of their letter discussing the potential

43 global distribution of citrus black spot (CBS), caused by *Phyllosticta citricarpa*

44 (McAlpine) van der Aa, with a particular emphasis in European citrus-producing regions.

45 However, it was clearly stated in the title and the objectives of our study (Martínez-Minaya
46 et al., 2015) that it was limited to South Africa. Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015) stated that
47 “maps of the Mediterranean Basin were also obtained to discuss the boundaries and
48 geographic extent of Mediterranean-type climates”. However, climatic suitability of the
49 Mediterranean Basin for CBS was not analysed nor discussed in our study. Therefore, our
50 response will not address those comments of Fourie et al. (2016) relating to the potential
51 distribution of CBS in Europe. For a detailed discussion on this interesting topic, we
52 recommend a recent report by EFSA (2016), where our study and others were thoroughly
53 assessed by an independent panel of scientists.

54 We focus our response primarily on the methodological issues raised by Fourie et
55 al. (2016), as they might affect the conclusions of Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015). To
56 complement the results obtained by Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015), an additional raster
57 layer was assembled with the map published by Paul (2005) and its subsequent updates
58 (Yonow et al. 2013; Anonymous 2014), but including only those grid cells of the class
59 “cultivated commercial permanent orchards” in the 2013-2014 South African national
60 land-cover (NLC) dataset (DEA 2015). As in Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015), a resolution
61 of 5' and the coordinate system WGS84 were used with the raster package for R (Hijmans,
62 2014).

63 Fourie et al. (2016) indicate that CBS distribution patterns in South Africa
64 depended on the point of introduction and the movement of infected plant material, which
65 we agree is self-evident. Furthermore, Fourie et al. (2016) point out that “*P. citricarpa* has
66 had abundant opportunity over many years for range expansion, including the recorded
67 movement of citrus trees from CBS-endemic areas (Powell 1930; Kiely 1948; Ramón-Laca
68 2003)”. Only the reference by Powell (1930) relates to South Africa, and CBS was not
69 mentioned in the publication, as the disease was only reported in South Africa in 1929

70(Doidge 1929). Powell (1930) indicated that citrus was first introduced in the Western
71Cape in 1654, from where the crop progressively expanded east. Recent phytosanitary
72regulations in South Africa still consider the Western Cape to be a CBS-free area, whereas
73most citrus regions in the east are CBS-affected (Anonymous 2014). Therefore, Powell
74(1930) cannot be considered by any means as a valid reference for the movement of citrus
75trees from CBS-endemic areas in South Africa. As indicated by Martínez-Minaya et al.
76(2015), “the movement of citrus material in South Africa was not regulated until 1984, but
77quantitative trade data among provinces was not found”. Fourie et al. (2016) do not
78provide any additional data or reference on this subject.

79 Fourie et al. (2016) indicate that the use of climate classifications is the most
80simplistic of all the species distribution models available, and so the biological relevance
81of climate zones should be carefully considered. We were fully aware of this point, as
82EFSA (2014) already indicated that global climate zones are based on factors and
83thresholds that are broad and not necessarily representative of those that are critical for the
84pathogen and its host. This point was stated explicitly by Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015) in
85the objectives: “This preparatory work was part of a larger modelling project where the
86potential geographical range of CBS will be estimated based on relevant environmental
87variables and spatial effects”, and in the conclusions: “Further modelling studies should
88integrate the relative contribution of environmental variables together with the spatial
89structure of the data to better estimate the potential geographical range of CBS”. Fourie et
90al. (2016) do not acknowledge these statements in their letter.

91 Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015) indicated that “A map of the CBS distribution in
92Australia was also available (Paul 2005), but without details and resolution of the original
93data, so it was not considered in the present study”. However, Fourie et al. (2016) criticize
94our study for not considering CBS data from Australia and claim that both CBS

95 distribution maps, Australia and South Africa, had a similar level of detail. For South
96 Africa, Paul (2005) indicated that “areas of CBS presence and absence in commercial
97 orchards and backyard trees were mapped by six field specialists with extensive knowledge
98 of the disease onto a map of South Africa at a scale 1:10⁶ (2 × 2 m). Disease presence
99 records (...) were transcribed to a 29.7 × 45 cm map and scanned. Data on CBS
100 distribution were confirmed by 200 citrus growers and researchers from South Africa at a
101 citrus meeting in 2002”. However, for Australia, Paul (2005) only indicated that
102 “Information on the presence of CBS in Australia was obtained from the Australian Plant
103 Pest Database” and “A map of the known occurrence of CBS in Australia was drawn up
104 from these data”. Hence, the paucity of details in Paul (2005) on the original data from
105 Australia when compared with those from South Africa is self-evident.

106 With regard to our analysis of spatial autocorrelation of CBS distribution in South
107 Africa, Fourie et al. (2016) point out that “Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015) used all of South
108 Africa as the background for the analysis (...) Had Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015) used
109 citrus production regions as the background for the autocorrelation analysis, the apparent
110 levels of spatial autocorrelation can be expected to decrease significantly”. Fourie et al.
111 (2016) make these serious assertions without presenting any analysis of spatial
112 autocorrelation of the data. Furthermore, it is an incorrect assumption of Fourie et al.
113 (2016) that we used all of South Africa as the background. Moran’s I and Geary’s C
114 analyses were performed with the 2014 dataset considering only grid cells in citrus areas,
115 assigning a value of 0 for CBS absence and 1 for CBS presence or low prevalence. Indeed,
116 Moran’s I and Geary’s C were not calculated for the 1950 dataset because only CBS
117 presence, and not CBS absence, was available for that year.

118 In addition to the Moran’s I and Geary’s C calculated with contiguity-based
119 neighbours by Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015), we present all the values for these indices at

120increasing distances (Fig. 1). The presence of strong spatial autocorrelation in the current
121CBS distribution data in citrus areas in South Africa was evident in both, the dataset used
122by Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015) and the one assembled based on the NLC map. As
123pointed out by Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015), further modelling efforts should consider not
124only environmental variables, but also the spatial dependence of CBS distribution data in
125South Africa. Ignoring this dependence may lead to inaccurate model parameterization and
126inadequate quantification of uncertainty (Banerjee et al. 2015).

127 In Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015), a raster layer of CBS distribution in South Africa
128was generated from the map published by Paul (2005) and its subsequent updates (Yonow
129et al. 2013; Anonymous 2014). As indicated in the Material and Methods of Martínez-
130Minaya et al. (2015), and also noted in the acknowledgments, all data were georeferenced
131to the coordinate system WGS84 by a mapping specialist. In their letter, Fourie et al.
132(2016) point out that CBS distribution maps in Paul et al. (2005) are adequate for
133modelling at 30' scale, but not at a 5' scale used in our study. Martínez-Minaya et al.
134(2015) stated that “similar results (not shown for the sake of simplicity) were obtained with
135the 30' resolution”. To demonstrate this, we now present the proportion of grid cells
136according to CBS status by Köppen-Geiger climate types (Köppen 1936) at both the 30'
137and 5' resolution obtained by Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015) (Fig. 2). As previously
138indicated and as can now be seen, similar results were obtained at both scales.
139Furthermore, comparable results were derived from the dataset assembled using the NLC
140map at 5' resolution, where only grid cells with “cultivated commercial permanent
141orchards” were considered (Fig. 2c). In this dataset, no commercial citrus areas were
142located under the arid cold desert (BWk) climate, which were indeed considered as CBS-
143free by Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015).

144 Fourie et al. (2016) plot side by side Fig. 1d of Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015) and
145 Fig. 1a of Yonow et al. (2013), stating that “polygons depicting CBS distribution were
146 clearly coarser than those of Yonow et al. (2013)”. Although Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015)
147 made it explicit in Material and Methods, Fourie et al. (2016) apparently misunderstood
148 that our maps were in fact grid cells and not line polygons as in Yonow et al. (2013). Each
149 grid cell represented a 5' square of about 10 × 10 km, which was evident from the scale bars
150 in both Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 of Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015). Values of CBS status and
151 environmental variables were for the grid centroids, always contained within the polygons
152 of the map published by Paul (2005) and its subsequent updates (Yonow et al. 2013;
153 Anonymous 2014). Fourie et al. (2016) persist in this misapprehension stating that “CBS-
154 present polygons also extended into neighbouring countries and even into the ocean”.
155 Again, it should be noted that grid cells and not polygons were represented by Martínez-
156 Minaya et al. (2015). Moreover, the WorldClim database includes only land areas and not
157 oceans (Hijmans et al. 2005). Also, as clearly indicated in Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015),
158 our study was limited to South Africa. For more in-depth information on this point, the
159 functions 'getData' and 'crop' in the raster package for R as used in our study should be
160 examined (Hijmans, 2014).

161 Fourie et al. (2016) state that “it is clear that CBS occurs in the BSh climate zone in
162 South Africa, and is essentially absent from BSk climates”. Again, Fourie et al. (2016)
163 make this strong assertion without presenting any analysis of the data. Presence of CBS
164 under the cold arid steppe climate (BSk) was obtained by Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015) at
165 5' and 30' resolutions, as well as here with the dataset assembled using the NLC map (Fig.
166 2). Fourie et al. (2016) focus more directly on the BSk climate, but they appear to overlook
167 that the hot arid steppe climate (BSh), which is the predominant climate under which CBS
168 is becoming established in South Africa (Fig. 2), is also a climate type occurring in

169important citrus-producing areas in the Mediterranean Basin (Fig. 3a of Martínez-Minaya
170et al. (2015)).

171 From a biogeographical perspective, it is more remarkable that *P. citricarpa* thrives
172under the hot arid desert climate (BWh) found in parts of South Africa (2.3% of grid cells),
173although Fourie et al. (2016) made no comments on this fact. The arid desert areas where
174CBS is present in South Africa are located in northern Limpopo province (Fig. 2a of
175Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015)), as clearly specified by phytosanitary regulations “The
176Limpopo province, towns of Musina and Soutpansberg - north of the 22° 50'S or west of
17729° 20' E” (Anonymous 2014). These areas have low pest (disease) prevalence for CBS
178(Anonymous 2014), so they are subject to effective surveillance, control or eradication
179measures (IPPC 2005; 2007). The presence of CBS in desert areas demonstrates that *P.*
180*citricarpa* is able to complete its disease cycle under arid conditions typical of the BWh
181climate classification. Indeed, with the dataset assembled using the NLC map, annual
182rainfall as low as 340 mm was recorded in areas where CBS is endemic, similar to the
183values reported by Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015).

184 The incorrect assumptions made by Fourie et al. (2016) in respect to our methods,
185their apparent misinterpretations of our results, and taking into account the additional
186evidence we present here we consider that the conclusions of Martínez-Minaya et al.
187(2015) are indeed correct, valid, and stand, further demonstrating the facts that: i) CBS in
188South Africa has expanded from its original geographic range in summer rainfall areas to
189adjacent, more arid regions; ii) the results contradict statements indicating that CBS occurs
190exclusively in climates with summer rainfall (Fourie et al. 2016; Graham et al. 2014; Kotzé
1912000); and iii) further modelling studies are required to integrate the relative contribution
192of environmental variables and the spatial structure of the data.

193

194References

195

196Anonymous (2014). R.442 Agricultural pest act, 1983 (Act 36 of 1983). Control measures:

197 Amendment. *Government Gazette*, 37702, 4-11.

198Banerjee, S., Carlin, B. P., & Gelfand, A. E. (2015). *Hierarchical modeling and analysis*

199 *for spatial data. 2nd ed. Monographs on Statistics and Applied Probability 135*. Boca

200 Raton: CRC Press.

201DEA, Department of Environmental Affairs South Africa (2015) South African national

202 land-cover dataset 2013-2014, Geoterraimage. <http://egis.environment.gov.za>,

203 accessed on 8 February 2016.

204Doidge, E. M. (1929). Some diseases of citrus prevalent in South Africa. *South African*

205 *Journal of Science*, 26, 320-325.

206EFSA, European Food Safety Authority. (2014). Scientific opinion on the risk of

207 *Phyllosticta citricarpa* (*Guignardia citricarpa*) for the EU territory with

208 identification and evaluation of risk reduction options. *EFSA Journal*, 12, 3557.

209EFSA, European Food Safety Authority. (2016). Evaluation of new scientific information

210 on *Phyllosticta citricarpa* in relation to the EFSA PLH Panel (2014) Scientific

211 Opinion on the plant health risk to the EU. *EFSA Journal*, 14, 4513.

212Fourie, P. H., Schutte, G. C., Carstens, E., Hattingh, V., Paul, I., Magarey, R. D., Gottwald,

213 T. R., Yonow, T., & Kriticos, D. J. (2016). Scientific critique of the paper "Climatic

214 distribution of citrus black spot caused by *Phyllosticta citricarpa*. A historical

215 analysis of disease spread in South Africa" by Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015).

216 *European Journal of Plant Pathology*, DOI 10.1007/s10658-016-1056-x.

217Graham, J. H., Gottwald, T. R., Timmer, L. W., Bergamin Filho, A., Van den Bosch, F.,

218 Irey, M. S., Taylor, E., Magarey, R. D., & Takeuchi, Y. (2014). Response to

219 "Potential distribution of citrus black spot in the United States based on climatic
220 conditions", Er et al. 2013. *European Journal of Plant Pathology*, 139, 231-234.

221Hijmans, R. J. (2014). raster: geographic data analysis and modeling. R package version
222 2.2-31. <http://CRAN.R-project.org/package=raster>.

223Hijmans, R. J., Cameron, S. E., Parra, J. L., Jones, P. G., & Jarvis, A. (2005). Very high
224 resolution interpolated climate surfaces for global land areas. *International Journal
225 of Climatology*, 25, 1965-1978.

226IPPC, International Plant Protection Convention. (2005). *Requirements for the
227 establishment of areas of low pest prevalence. International Standards for
228 Phytosanitary Measures, ISPM 22*. Rome: IPPC.

229IPPC, International Plant Protection Convention. (2007). *Recognition of pest free areas
230 and areas of low pest prevalence. International Standards for Phytosanitary
231 Measures, ISPM 29*, Rome: IPPC.

232Kiely, T. B. (1948). Preliminary studies on *Guignardia citricarpa*, n. sp.: The ascigenous
233 stage of *Phoma citricarpa* McAlp. and its relation to black spot of citrus.
234 *Proceedings of the Linnean Society of New South Wales*, 68, 249-292.

235Köppen, W. (1936). Das geographische system der klimate. In W. Köppen, & G. Geiger
236 (Eds.), *Handbuch der klimatologie* (pp. 44). Berlin: Gebrüder Borntraeger.

237Kotzé, J. M. (2000). Black spot. In L. W. Timmer, S. M. Garnsey, & J. H. Graham (Eds.),
238 *Compendium of citrus diseases 2nd ed.* (pp. 10-12). St. Paul, MN: APS Press.

239Martínez-Minaya, J., Conesa, D., López-Quílez, A., & Vicent, A. (2015). Climatic
240 distribution of citrus black spot caused by *Phyllosticta citricarpa* A historical
241 analysis of disease spread in South Africa. *European Journal of Plant Pathology*,
242 143, 69-83.

243 Paul, I. (2005). *Modelling the distribution of citrus black spot caused by Guignardia*
244 *citricarpa* Kiely. Ph. D. Thesis. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

245 Paul, I., van Jaarsveld, A. S., Korsten, L., & Hattingh, V. (2005). The potential global
246 geographical distribution of citrus black spot caused by *Guignardia citricarpa* Kiely:
247 likelihood of disease establishment in the European Union. *Crop Protection*, 24, 297-
248 308.

249 Powell, H. C. (1930). *The culture of the orange and allied fruits. South African*
250 *agricultural series No. 8*. Johannesburg: Central News Agency.

251 Ramón-Laca, L. (2003). The introduction of cultivated citrus to Europe via Northern
252 Africa and the Iberian Peninsula. *Economic Botany*, 57, 502-514.

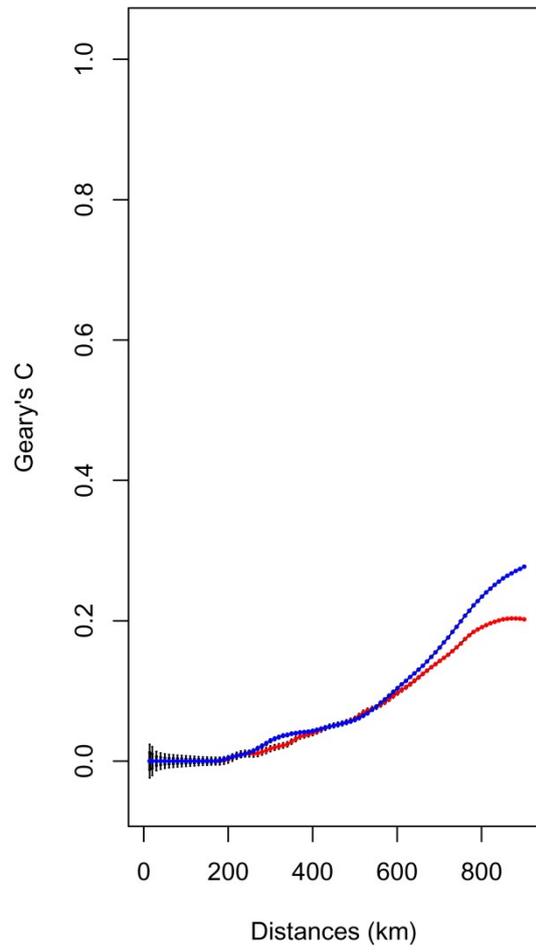
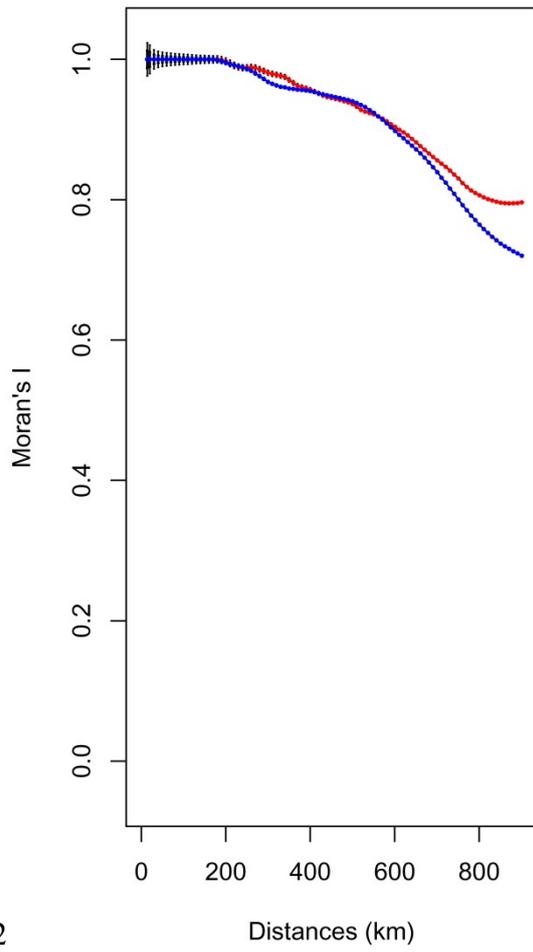
253 Yonow, T., Hattingh, V., & de Villiers, M. (2013). CLIMEX modelling of the potential
254 global distribution of the citrus black spot disease caused by *Guignardia citricarpa*
255 and the risk posed to Europe. *Crop Protection*, 44, 18-28.

256

257**Fig. 1** Moran’s I and Geary’s C values at increasing distances. The blue lines represent the
258 dataset used by Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015) from Paul (2005) and its subsequent
259 updates (Yonow et al. 2013; Anonymous 2014). The red lines represent the same
260 dataset but including only grid cells of the class “cultivated commercial permanent
261 orchards” from the 2013-2014 South African national land-cover map (DEA 2015).
262

263**Fig. 2** Köppen-Geiger climate types and citrus-growing areas in relation to the distribution
264 of citrus black spot (CBS) caused by *Phyllosticta citricarpa* in South Africa. The
265 dataset used by Martínez-Minaya et al. (2015) from Paul (2005) and its subsequent
266 updates (Yonow et al. 2013; Anonymous 2014) shown at 30’ **(a)** and 5’ **(b)**
267 resolution, and **(c)** the same dataset at 5’ resolution but including only grid cells of
268 the class “cultivated commercial permanent orchards” in the 2013-2014 South
269 African national land-cover map (DEA 2015).
270

271Fig 1.

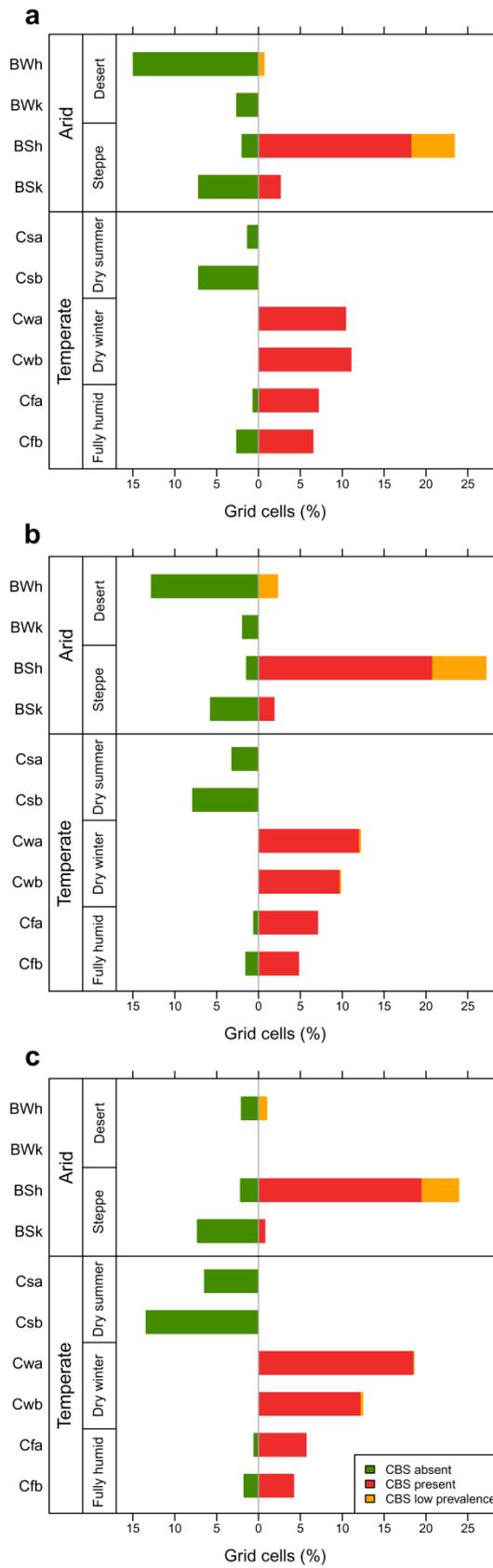


272

273

274

275
276Fig 2.



277

27
28