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Nested-quantitative PCR approach with improved sensitivity for the detection of low titer levels of *Candidatus Liberibacter asiaticus* in the Asian citrus psyllid, *Diaphorina citri* (Kuwayama)

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ABSTRACT

Candidatus Liberibacter asiaticus (CLas) is a phloem-limited bacterium transmitted by the Asian citrus psyllid, *Diaphorina citri*. It is the presumptive causal agent of citrus greening disease, also known as huanglongbing (HLB). A critical component of HLB management is the detection of CLAs within plant and insect samples to avoid the transport of infected material and to monitor the spread of CLAs through citrus groves and psyllid populations. The current method of surveillance is by a presence/absence qPCR assay which utilizes C_q cutoff values to categorize samples as positive, negative, or inconclusive, using the CLas 16S rDNA gene sequence. Upon reviewing the results from routine monthly assays to monitor infection rates in a CLas-positive psyllid colony, it was noted that a large proportion of negative results were being obtained. This observation, coupled with the disjunction between the reported low transmission efficiency of CLAs by the psyllid vs. how rapidly HLB has spread, led us to suspect that false-negatives were being obtained using the 16S presence/absence qPCR assay. To investigate this possibility, we developed a nested-qPCR assay with increased sensitivity for CLas. Using this method, we found that the false-negative rate of the presence/absence qPCR assay was greater than 50%, confirming our suspicion and demonstrating that psyllids can harbor titers of CLAs below the detection limit of the assay. To investigate if poor qPCR efficiency could be contributing to the high rate of false-negatives, we conducted studies to determine the amplification efficiency, sensitivity, dynamic range and reproducibility of the qPCR assays for CLas 16S rDNA and *Wingless* (*Wg*), the *D. citri* endogenous gene, using plasmid and psyllid DNA templates. Average efficiencies and sensitivity limits of the plasmid assays were 99.0% and 2.7 copies of template for *Wg*, and 98.5% and 2.2–22.1 copies for 16S. Variability in efficiency was significantly greater in psyllid samples for both gene targets compared to the corresponding plasmid assays. Efficiencies as low as 76% were obtained for 16S, suggesting that the sensitivity limit of the assay could be significantly compromised, especially for low-abundant templates. A secondary structure analysis revealed the formation of two stem-loop structures that block the forward and probe binding sites, which could, in part, explain the suboptimal qPCR efficiency of the 16S assay. In summary, our results suggest that suboptimal qPCR efficiency is not uncommon for the 16S presence/absence qPCR assay, which combined with low-abundant CLas template in some samples, likely contributes significantly to the under-reporting of CLas infection in psyllid and plant samples.

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1. Introduction

Quantitative PCR is an exquisitely sensitive method that, under optimal conditions, can detect a few molecules of template among a complex background of nucleic acids. This sensitivity combined with the high-throughput and cost-effective nature of qPCR, has made it a standard method for diagnostic screening for the presence of disease using characteristic molecular markers associated with disease states, such as cancer (e.g., Hochhaus et al., 2000). This method is also highly

amenable for the detection of disease-causing agents, from viruses to nematodes, and is used regularly to identify these agents in human and plant tissue samples. Examples include the detection of hepatitis C in humans (Santos et al., 2012) and cyst nematodes in potato (Christoforou et al., 2014). Despite the high sensitivity of qPCR, it does have limitations. If the copy number of the template is too low within the sample, or the qPCR reaction is not optimal, adequate amplification may not occur so that the signal from the amplicon is detected above the background fluorescence threshold. In these cases, false-negatives are generated. An approach to increase the sensitivity of qPCR to circumvent these problems, and thus reduce the rate of false-negatives, is to pre-amplify the gene target using conventional PCR, and use the resulting amplicon as template in qPCR. Known as nested-qPCR, this

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method has been used to detect low titers of disease-causing agents in humans and plants, such as the detection of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* in humans (Takahashi and Nakayama, 2006) and *Phytophthora cinnamoni*, the fungus that causes *Phytophthora* root rot in avocado (Engelbrecht et al., 2013).

Microbial plant pathogens, such as viruses, bacteria and trypanosomes, are often transmitted by Hemipteran insect vectors that feed on plant tissue (reviewed in Mitchell, 2004). *Diaphorina citri* (Kuwayama), the Asian citrus psyllid, transmits *Candidatus Liberibacter asiaticus* (CLas),¹ a phloem-limited, gram-negative α -proteobacteria and the presumed causal agent of citrus greening disease (Huanglongbing, HLB).² Huanglongbing is a devastating disease of citrus, causing small, asymmetrical, bitter fruit, aborted seeds, and rapid tree decline (Bové, 2006). At this time, no cure exists, and vector control is a main component of HLB management (Grafton-Cardwell et al., 2013). Rapid screening for CLas in psyllid and plant material is imperative in the efforts to control the spread of HLB through inadvertent activities, and qPCR was quickly adopted for the detection of CLas in quarantine and field samples. In 2006, Li et al. published a qPCR assay for the detection of the bacterium in plant and insect samples using the CLas 16S rDNA gene sequence, and *Wingless* and *Cytochrome Oxidase I* for the detection of psyllid and citrus DNA, respectively. This protocol was then adapted and implemented by the Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service, US Department of Agriculture (APHIS, USDA) to screen vast numbers of quarantine specimens. APHIS publishes a guideline for conducting the high-throughput, standardized presence/absence qPCR assay using cutoff C_q values to categorize samples as positive, negative or inconclusive (USDA, 2012). Through routine monthly screening to determine infection rates of a CLas-positive psyllid colony using the APHIS presence/absence qPCR assay, it was noted that a large proportion of samples were classified as negative or inconclusive, up to 65% and 20% of the total, respectively. Inspection of the amplification plots of the negative samples revealed that some were starting log-phase amplification at the end of the qPCR routine (Fig. A1A). The replicates for these samples were tightly overlaid on one another, suggesting the potential amplification of genuine templates rather than stochastic background noise (Fig. A1B). Other samples crossed the threshold with tight replicates, but did so too late to be considered positive based on APHIS guidelines and were considered negative (Fig. A1C), or inconclusive (Fig. A1D). These observations, coupled with the disjunction between the reported low efficiency by which the psyllid transmits CLas (Pelz-Stelinski et al., 2010) vs. the widespread infection rate of citrus with CLas in Florida (Gottwald, 2010), led us to suspect that false-negative reporting could be high using the APHIS presence/absence 16S qPCR assay.

Currently, there are no published methods regarding the low-titer detection of CLas in either insect or plant tissue, and the lack of a highly sensitive CLas detection method may affect disease containment strategies, as well as hinder research efforts (Pelz-Stelinski et al., 2010). Here we report a method to detect low titers of CLas within *D. citri*, using the 16S rDNA gene target, with a nested-qPCR approach. In this study, we describe the development and validation of the nested-qPCR method, determine the false-negative rate of the presence/absence qPCR assay, report on the efficiency, dynamic range and sensitivity of the qPCR 16S and *Wingless* qPCR assays using plasmid and *D. citri* DNA templates, and provide evidence that suboptimal qPCR efficiency and secondary structure of template may be contributing to the false-negative reporting of CLas.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. *Candidatus Liberibacter asiaticus* – *D. citri* colony

D. citri harboring *Candidatus Liberibacter asiaticus* (CLas) were obtained from CLas-infected *Citrus aurantium* plants maintained in a secure

quarantine facility without exposure to insecticides in a greenhouse at 27–28 °C, 60–65% RH, and L14:D10 photoperiod. Monthly sampling conducted throughout 2013 showed that about 50% of *D. citri* individuals obtained from the colony tested positive for CLas according to APHIS guidelines (USDA, 2012). Citrus plants were infected with CLas by graft-inoculation of healthy ‘Valencia’ *C. aurantium* with infected budwood collected from commercial citrus groves in Immokalee, FL (Collier Co.). Infection was verified via qPCR as described in Pelz-Stelinski et al. (2010).

2.2. DNA isolation from *D. citri*

Genomic DNA was isolated from individual psyllids using the QIAGEN DNeasy Blood & Tissue Isolation Kit (69506; Valencia, CA) using the protocol for “Animal Tissues” with modifications. Briefly, per psyllid, 180 μ L of ATL buffer and 20 μ L of Proteinase K were premixed and 20 μ L of the mixture was added to an individual psyllid in a 1.5 mL tube and crushed with a disposable pestle (Kontes, K749520-0090). Another aliquot of 180 μ L of the mixture was then added to the psyllid and homogenized with a handheld homogenizer for 5–10 s (Kontes, K749540-0000). Homogenized samples were vortexed for 15 s and placed in a rocking incubator set at 56 °C overnight. The next day, 200 μ L of AL buffer was added to each tube and vortexed. Mixtures were then incubated at 70 °C for 10 min. After incubation, 230 μ L of 100% molecular grade ethanol was added to each sample and vortexed. The mixture was applied to a Spin Column and centrifuged at 16,000 \times g for 1 min. The column was washed with 500 μ L AW1 and then 500 μ L AW2. An additional centrifugation step at 16,000 \times g for 1 min was conducted to pull off residual ethanol prior to DNA elution with 35 μ L of AE buffer (10 mM Tris, 0.5 mM EDTA, pH 9.0). Eluted DNA was quantified spectrophotometrically using a NanoDrop 2000 (ThermoScientific, Wilmington, DE). To reduce risk of cross-contamination, all surfaces were treated with DNase/RNase solution (Eliminase, 04-355-32) and disposable sterile, DNase–RNase-free microcentrifuge tubes and filter tips were used for this and all subsequently described procedures.

2.3. *Candidatus Liberibacter asiaticus* 16S rDNA sequence and primers

GenBank entry DQ778016.1 was used to design primers for the 16S rDNA plasmid for the qPCR standard curve (CLas-16S-Temp-F1 and CLAS-16s-Temp-R1, Table 1; Fig. A2) and the external set of primers for nested-qPCR (CLas-16S-Ex-F1 and CLas-16S-Ex-R1, Table 1; Fig. A2). Upon inspection of this GenBank entry and subsequent BLASTn searches, it was noted that the forward qPCR primer designed by Li et al. (2006) contained several mismatches in the forward primer at the 3' end due to a gap in the original sequence (GenBank: L22532.1). This mismatch was verified upon sequencing of the plasmids for standard curves (see Section 2.5) and was corrected from 5' TCGAGCGGTATGCAATACG 3' to 5' TCGAGCGGTATGCGAATAC 3' (Fig. A2). All primers were designed using Primer3 v. 0.4.0 (Untergasser et al., 2012).

2.4. *D. citri* *Wingless* sequence and primers

To obtain a full-length *Wingless* (*Wg*) gene sequence for use as a template to generate a plasmid for the qPCR standard curve, the partial sequence for the *Wingless* gene (*Wg*) from *D. citri* (GenBank: AF231365.1) was retrieved from NCBI and used as a BLASTn query against a downloaded and formatted database of the draft *D. citri* genome (v. 1.0; February, 2013) using default parameters. The top hit was found in scaffold 5281.1 and shared 98% identity with the query sequence, with mismatches being ambiguous nucleotides in the query. The scaffold which contained the top hit was retrieved from the database and the *Wg* coding sequence (CDS) was determined using a BLASTx search in the NCBI nr database. Forward and reverse primers (Wng-Temp-F1 and Wng-Temp-R1, Table 1, Fig. A3) were designed using Primer3 (Untergasser et al., 2012) to generate a *Wg* plasmid for the qPCR standard curve as described in Section 2.5.

¹ CLas: *Candidatus Liberibacter asiaticus*.

² HLB: Huanglongbing.

t1.1 **Table 1**
t1.2 Sequences and details of primers and probes used in this study.

t1.3	Primer/probe	Sequence (5'–3')	Target gene	Amplicon size (bp)	Purpose
t1.4	Clas-16S-Temp-F1	TGACGTTGGAAGATGTTTGTAGC	Clas 16S rRNA	1402	Standard curve template
t1.5	Clas-16S-Temp-R1	GCCCGAGAACGTTATTCACC	Clas 16S rRNA	1402	Standard curve template
t1.6	Clas-16S-Ex-F1	TGACGTTGGAAGATGTTTGTAGC	Clas 16S rRNA	263	External nested set
t1.7	Clas-16S-Ex-R1	ACGCAGGCTCATCTCTCTCC	Clas 16S rRNA	263	External nested set
t1.8	HLBas_c ^{a,b}	TCGAGCGCGTATGCGAATAC	Clas 16S rRNA	79	qPCR
t1.9	HLBr ^a	GCGTTATCCCGTAGAAAAGGTAG	Clas 16S rRNA	79	qPCR
t1.10	HLBp ^a	AGACGGGTGAGTAACGCG	Clas 16S rRNA	79	qPCR
t1.11	Wg-Temp-F1	TTTACTGCCATGATTGTGAACC	Wingless	638	Standard curve template
t1.12	Wg-Temp-R1	GGATCAATAGGCACAGTTCTGG	Wingless	638	Standard curve template
t1.13	WgF ^c	GCTCTCAAAGATCGGTTTGACGG	Wingless	69	qPCR
t1.14	WgR ^c	GCTGCCACGAACGTTACCTTC	Wingless	69	qPCR
t1.15	WgP ^c	TTACTGACCATCACTCTGGACCG	Wingless	69	qPCR

t1.16 ^a Li et al. (2006).

t1.17 ^b The HLB primers designed by Li et al. (2006) were based on GenBank: L22532.1, which contains ambiguous and miscalled nucleotides. As a result, the original forward primer contains gap against its cognate target. HLBas_c primer reflects the corrected sequence. The “_c” is to denote this correction and distinguish it from the original forward primer, HLBas.

t1.18 ^c Pelz-Stelinski et al. (2010).

190 2.5. Molecular cloning and sequencing of the *Clas* 16S rDNA and *Wg* 191 plasmids

192 To generate plasmids for qPCR standard curves, genomic DNA was
193 isolated from five adult *D. citri* individuals as described above and
194 used as templates in PCR using TaKaRa *Taq* recombinant Polymerase
195 (Clontech, R001A; Mountain View, CA). Primer, dNTP and MgCl₂ con-
196 centrations were 0.5 μM, 200 μM and 1.5 mM, respectively. For the
197 *Clas* 16S plasmid, the following PCR scheme was used: two cycles of
198 94 °C for 90 s, 63 °C for 45 s, and 72 °C for 90 s followed by 34 cycles
199 of 94 °C for 30 s, 63 °C for 45 s, and 72 °C for 90 s, with a final extension
200 time of 72 °C for 5 min. For *Wg*, the same scheme was used except for
201 the annealing temperature and extension time, which were 60 °C and
202 40 s, respectively. PCR reactions were run through a 1.0% agarose gel
203 and all reactions resulted in a single amplicon of the correct size
204 (Table 1). Amplicons were gel purified using Promega's Wizard® SV
205 Gel and PCR Clean-Up System (A9281; Madison, WI) and were ligated
206 into the cloning vector pGEM-T Easy (A1360). JM109 *Escherichia* cells
207 were transformed with ligation reactions and plated using standard mi-
208 crobial protocols. Two bacterial colonies for each of 16S and *Wg* cloning
209 reactions were selected for overnight growth in 3 mL LB/Amp and plas-
210 mids were isolated using Promega's Wizard Plus Miniprep Kit (A7510).
211 The plasmids were submitted to the University of Florida's Interdisci-
212 plinary Center for Biotechnology Research (ICBR; Gainesville, FL) for
213 Sanger sequencing from both directions using SP6 and T7 universal
214 primers. Sequences were aligned using CLUSTALX 2.1 (Larkin, et al.,
215 2007) and inspected for mismatches, which were verified by inspecting
216 respective chromatograms. The two 16S sequences from the plasmids
217 were 99% identical to one another and to the template GenBank entry
218 DQ778016.1 (Table A1, Fig. A2). Sequences from both *Wg* plasmids
219 were identical to another and to scaffold 5281.1, with a representative
220 sequence submitted to GenBank under accession number KF876339
221 (Fig. A3). All inserts were oriented in the pGEM-T Easy vector such
222 that the *Pst*I restriction enzyme site used to linearize the plasmids was
223 located at the 3' end.

224 2.6. Quantitative PCR

225 Quantitative PCR was conducted with an ABI 7500 Real-Time PCR
226 System (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) based on a multiplex
227 qPCR assay described previously with modifications (Pelz-Stelinski
228 et al., 2010; USDA, 2012). Briefly, the *Wingless* gene from *D. citri* was
229 used as an endogenous control for psyllid DNA and 16S rDNA was
230 used for the detection of *Candidatus* Liberibacter asiaticus. The qPCR re-
231 action volume was 20 μL containing 0.1 μM of each primer and probe
232 (Table 1) in 1 × *Taq*Man Universal PCR Master Mix containing ROX™

as the passive internal reference dye (Applied Biosystems, 4304437). 233
The probe for *Wg* was labeled with 4,5-dichloro-dimethoxy-fluorescein 234
(JOE™) and 16S with 6-carboxyfluorescein (FAM™). Standards and 235
samples were added to individual wells of the qPCR plate in a 2 μL 236
volume and 18 μL of the master mix was added over the sample to 237
wash the entire mixture to the bottom of the well. Other parameters, 238
such as amount of template, are indicated in relevant sections below. 239
All qPCR reactions were performed in triplicate except in the APHIS 240
presence/absence screening assays to identify negative and positive 241
samples, which were performed in duplicate. All plates included a 242
non-template control in triplicate with 2 μL Qiagen Elution Buffer 243
(EB, 10 mM Tris, pH 8.5). Plates were prepared in a sterile, biological 244
PCR laminar flow cabinet. The qPCR scheme for all qPCR reactions was 245
50 °C for 2 min and 95 °C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C 246
for 15 s and 60 °C for 1 min, with fluorescence data collected at the 247
last step. Sample amplification plots were inspected using the Applied 248
Biosystems 7500 software (v. 2.0.1) and raw data were exported as a 249
tab-delimited file and analyzed in Microsoft Excel (2013). 250

251 2.7. Validation of external primers for nested-qPCR and verification of the 252 specificity of the nested-qPCR 16S amplicon

253 Samples used to test the external set of primers for the nested-qPCR 254
assay were selected from psyllid DNA isolates collected in September 255
2013. These samples were isolated from a *Clas*-positive colony to esti- 256
mate the rate of infection for routine monthly screening, and had been 257
categorized as positive ($C_q < 32$), negative ($C_q > 37$ or undetected), or 258
inconclusive ($32 \leq C_q \leq 37$) based on APHIS guidelines (USDA, 2012) 259
with a presence/absence qPCR assay (see Results section). Eleven sam- 260
ples were selected for initial testing: four positive, two inconclusive, and 261
five negative. Out of the negative samples, one had a C_q value too high to 262
be considered positive (39.04) while the other four had no amplification 263
signal (undetected, UD). Using 1 μL of each sample, pre-amplification 264
was conducted with conventional PCR using the primers (*Clas*-16S- 265
Ex-F1 and *Clas*-16S-Ex-R1, Table 1) with the following PCR routine: 266
two cycles of 94 °C for 90 s, 62 °C for 45 s, and 72 °C for 20 s followed 267
by 34 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 62 °C for 45 s, and 72 °C for 20 s, with a 268
final extension time of 72 °C for 3 min. Non-template control (NTC) 269
contained all components of the reaction with 1 μL of EB used in place 270
of DNA template. As a negative control for non-specific amplification, 271
genomic DNA isolated from the sharpshooter, *Cuerna costalis*, was 272
used as a template. Following PCR, samples were diluted 1:5, including 273
the NTC from conventional PCR, and 2 μL of each dilution was used as a 274
template in nested-qPCR with the thermocycling routine as described 275
above. Following nested-qPCR, amplicons from positive reactions were 276
purified using a Qiagen MinElute Reaction Cleanup Kit (Qiagen, 277
28204) and TA-cloned into pGEM T-Easy as described in section 2.5. 278

278 Plasmids were submitted for Sanger sequencing at the University of
 279 Florida ICBR Genomics Core (Gainesville, Florida) using the T7 universal
 280 primer. Sequences were aligned and evaluated with CLUSTALX 2.1
 281 (Larkin, et al., 2007).

282 2.8. Optimization of nested-qPCR

283 Because the 1:5 dilution resulted in very low C_q values, the optimal
 284 dilution factor was determined by diluting conventional PCR reactions
 285 from two samples; one positive and one negative from the qPCR
 286 presence/absence assay, in a ten-fold serial dilution from 10^{-1} to
 287 10^{-8} and used as templates in nested-qPCR. A positive sample was
 288 run to estimate the lower C_q boundary of the range in each dilution series
 289 that might be observed. It was determined that a dilution of 10^{-2} to
 290 10^{-3} produced average C_q values of 4.1 and 6.7, and 13.9 and 17.3, for
 291 positive and negative samples, respectively, from the initial qPCR
 292 screening assay (Fig. A4). Although the dilution of 10^{-2} still resulted
 293 in low C_q values for the positive sample, the 10^{-2} dilution produced
 294 C_q values high enough to allow the instrument to accurately set baseline
 295 fluorescence, and thus was adopted in the subsequent assay for deter-
 296 mining an estimate for false-negative rates.

297 2.9. Estimates of the false-negative error rate in the 16S presence/absence 298 qPCR assay

299 DNA isolated from psyllids for routine monthly screening for infec-
 300 tion rate of a CLas-positive colony was used to determine the rate of
 301 false-negatives in the presence/absence qPCR assay as compared to
 302 the nested-qPCR assay. DNA samples from five months were analyzed,
 303 September through November, 2013; and January through February,
 304 2014. Twenty psyllids were screened for each month except for Novem-
 305 ber, for which 18 psyllids were screened. An average of 65 ng was used
 306 in a presence/absence qPCR assay to determine initial estimates for CLas
 307 infection. One microliter of from each negative sample was used in con-
 308 ventional PCR as described above. Reactions were diluted 1:1000, in-
 309 cluding the NTC from the conventional PCR, and 2 μ L of each dilution
 310 was used as template in nested-qPCR.

311 2.10. Performance evaluation of the Wg and 16S qPCR assays

312 To investigate the efficiency and sensitivity of the Wg and CLas 16S
 313 TaqMan qPCR assays, calibration curves were generated from serial dilu-
 314 tions of linearized Wg and 16S plasmids. One microgram of each plas-
 315 mid was digested with *Pst*I restriction endonuclease (Promega, R6111)
 316 in a 20 μ L reaction volume and subsequently purified using a MinElute
 317 Reaction Cleanup Kit (Qiagen, 28204). Samples were eluted in 10 μ L
 318 EB. Quantification of purified, linearized plasmids was conducted spec-
 319 trophotometrically with a NanoDrop 2000. Two microliters of each pur-
 320 ified plasmid was run through a 1.0% agarose gel to confirm complete
 321 digestion and the presence of only one *Pst*I restriction endonuclease re-
 322 cognition site within each plasmid. Seven, ten-fold serial dilutions were
 323 made with each plasmid ranging from 5 μ g/ μ L to 5 μ g/ μ L. The amplifica-
 324 tion efficiency of Wg and 16S was also determined for genomic DNA iso-
 325 lated from individual psyllids using four, ten-fold serial dilutions
 326 ranging in concentration of 20 ng/ μ L to 20 μ g/ μ L. To reduce potential ef-
 327 fects on efficiency due to a buffer concentration gradient across dilu-
 328 tions, EB was used make serial dilutions. Five independent calibration
 329 curves were generated for each plasmid, and 15 Wg and 16S sample
 330 curves were generated from DNA isolated from independent psyllids
 331 previously been shown to be positive for CLas. Averaged raw C_q data
 332 were plotted against log input DNA (log pg or log ng) to determine
 333 slope of each regression line. Quantitative PCR efficiencies were calcu-
 334 lated using the basic equation: efficiency = $-1 + 10^{(-1/\text{slope})}$. Molecu-
 335 lar weights of plasmids were calculated using Sequence Manipulation
 336 Suite (http://www.bioinformatics.org/sms2/dna_mw.html). An analy-
 337 sis of deviance was conducted to determine statistical differences

between plasmid and sample calibration curves using GenStat, 15th
 Edition, Vsn International.

2.11. Secondary structure prediction of Wg and 16S qPCR amplicons 340

341 Predictions of secondary structures of Wg and 16S amplicons were
 342 determined using the DINAMelt Web Server (<http://mfold.rna.albany.edu/?q=DINAMelt>; Markham and Zuker, 2005) using the following pa-
 343 rameters: Molecule type, DNA; temperature, 60 $^{\circ}$ C; $[Na^+]$, 50 mM; and
 344 $[Mg^{2+}]$, 1.5 and 4.0 mM. The concentration of magnesium is proprietary
 345 in the TaqMan™ Universal Master Mix but is reported as being between
 346 1.5 and 4.0 mM, thus secondary structure was determined at these two
 347 concentrations. 348

3. Results 349

3.1. Validation of external primers for nested-qPCR and verification of the specificity of the nested-qPCR 16S amplicon 350

351 DNA samples from 20 psyllids collected in September 2013 from a
 352 CLas positive colony were evaluated for CLas in a presence/absence
 353 qPCR assay. Results were categorized as positive, negative or inconclu-
 354 sive according to APHIS guidelines (USDA, 2012) as described above
 355 (Fig. 1 and Table A2). The C_q values obtained for the endogenous control,
 356 Wg, for all 20 samples ranged between 22.8 and 24.3 with an average
 357 of 23.5 (SD 0.4). No amplification signals were detected for Wg or
 358 16S in the non-template control (NTC). Out of 20 samples, 11 were pos-
 359 itive for 16S, with C_q values ranging from 18.3 to 26.9, and four samples
 360 were classified as inconclusive (C_q 32.1, 34.3, 35.5 and 36.2). Five sam-
 361 ples were negative, four that were undetected and one with a C_q value
 362 too high to be considered inconclusive (39.0). Based on the presence/
 363 absence qPCR assay, the breakdown of infection was: 55% positive,
 364 20% inconclusive, and 25% negative (Fig. 1). From this screening, eleven
 365

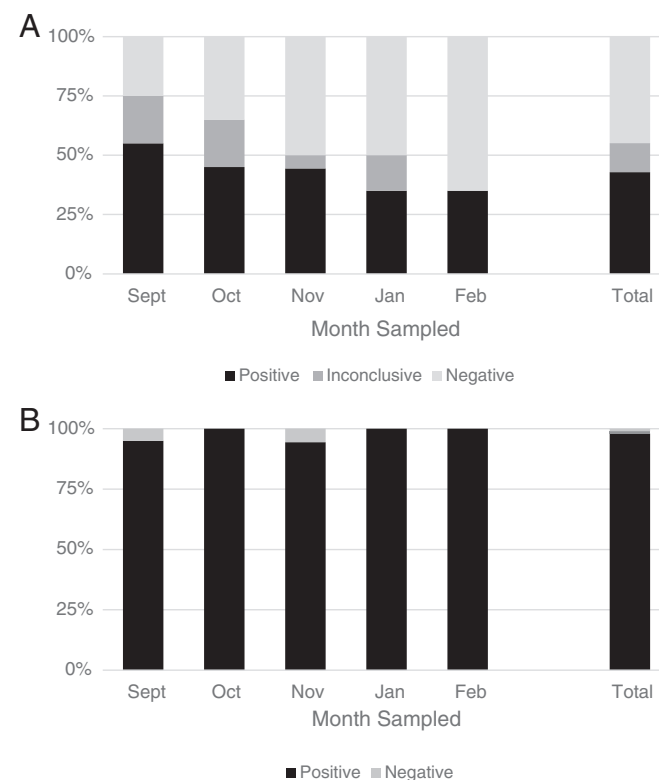


Fig. 1. CLas infection rate of psyllids surveyed by month as determined by A. positive/negative qPCR. Positive = $C_q \leq 32$; inconclusive $32 < C_q < 37$; negative $C_q > 37$; and B. nested-qPCR. $n = 20$ except for November, which $n = 18$. Total: summarized total for all five months.

366 samples were selected for pre-amplification in conventional PCR and
 367 subsequent nested-qPCR to validate the nested primers and test the
 368 assay: five negative samples; two inconclusive samples (C_q 34.3 and
 369 35.5); and four positive samples (C_q 18.3, 19.5, 25.7, 25.8). Ten samples
 370 tested positive with positive C_q values ranging from 2.3 to 10.2. One of
 371 the negative samples, Sept igc 1, resulted in a nested-qPCR C_q value of
 372 38.7, which raises questions about appropriate cutoffs for C_q values in
 373 this assay that remain to be decided, but for the purposes of this
 374 study, this sample was considered to be negative (Table A2). Important-
 375 ly, no signal was detected in the conventional PCR or nested-qPCR NTC,
 376 supporting the notion that contamination did not play a role in ob-
 377 served results. No signal was observed using DNA isolated from the
 378 sharpshooter, *C. costalis*, as a template. The sequences from all eleven
 379 amplicons were 100% identical to one another and to the expected se-
 380 quence for 16S as represented by GenBank entry DQ778016.1 (Fig. 2).
 381 The remaining samples that were initially categorized as inconclusive
 382 were tested in a nested-qPCR assay and found to be positive, for a
 383 final infection rate of 95% (Fig. 1).

3.2. Estimates of the false-negative error rate reported by the presence/absence qPCR assay

386 Comparison of the two methods, the presence/absence qPCR and
 387 nested-qPCR, was conducted over the course of five months starting
 388 with the data collected in September 2013. *Wg* was detected in all 98
 389 samples with an average C_q of 24.9 (SD 1.0; Table A2). Infection rates
 390 of 55, 45, 44, 35 and 35% were determined by the presence/absence
 391 qPCR assay for the months of September, October and November
 392 2013, and January and February 2014, respectively (Fig. 1A). Collectively,
 393 42 samples out of 98 were positive by APHIS guidelines, with a final
 394 infection rate of 42.9%. Out of the remaining 56 samples, 8 were incon-
 395 clusive and 44 were negative (Fig. 1A, Table A1). In comparison, the in-
 396 fection rate as determined by nested-qPCR was 95% for September,
 397 94.4% for November, and 100% for October, January and February. The
 398 final infection rate for all psyllids sampled across the five months
 399 using nested-qPCR was 97.9% (Fig. 1B, Table A2), resulting in an overall
 400 false-negative rate of 54.9%.

401 An unexpected observation was made in analyzing psyllid samples
 402 collected over the course of several months, and that is that the rate of
 403 infection that was detected by the presence/absence qPCR assay
 404 dropped gradually as the months progressed into the winter (Fig. 1A),
 405 presumably as an indicator of dropping *Clas* titers.

406 Whether this observation is biologically relevant or is an artifact of
 407 rearing insects in an artificial environment is unknown, but is consistent
 408 with the finding that *Clas* titer within the insect host is affected by
 409 temperature (Kingdom Gibbard et al., unpublished results).

3.3. Evaluation of qPCR assays: dynamic range, sensitivity and efficiency

410 **Q10** The dynamic range, sensitivity and efficiency of the *Wg* and 16S
 412 qPCR assays were evaluated using calibration curves generated with
 413 ten-fold serial dilutions of linearized plasmid templates. These curves
 414 were then compared to the *Wg* and 16S calibration curves generated
 415 with 10-fold serial dilutions of genomic DNA isolated from individual

416 psyllids harboring *Clas*. Five independent trials were conducted for
 417 plasmid DNA and 15 for psyllid DNA, the results of which are summa-
 418 rized in Fig. 3 and Tables A3 and A4. The dynamic range of the *Wg* plas-
 419 mid qPCR assay spanned seven orders of magnitude, with an average R^2
 420 value of 0.993 (SD 0.002), with the reproducibility between trials
 421 relatively high (Fig. 3A). The estimated minimum sensitivity of the
 422 assay was 2.7 starting molecules of template (Table A3). The range of
 423 efficiency for the *Wg* linearized plasmid across the five trials was
 424 97.4–103%, with an average of 99.2% (SD 2.3%). The 16S plasmid assay
 425 was less robust than that for *Wg* (Fig. 3B). The average R^2 value of cali-
 426 bration curves across the five trials was 0.983 (SD 0.019), with two trials
 427 falling below the desired R^2 cutoff of 0.99. The assay spanned seven or-
 428 ders of magnitude in two trials (sensitivity: 2.21 molecules; data not
 429 shown) and six in the remaining three (sensitivity: 22.1 molecules)
 430 (Table A3). Efficiencies ranged from 93.4 to 103.2% with an average am-
 431 plification efficiency of 98.9% (SD 3.6%). While the overall performance
 432 of the 16S assay was well within the guidelines for qPCR, it is not as sen-
 433 sitive as *Wg* (Fig. 3A vs B; Table A3). Maximal sensitivity is particularly
 434 important given that the *Clas* DNA template will be in low abundance
 435 relative to that of the host DNA. Low abundant templates are particu-
 436 larly sensitive to stochastic error that is inherent in every qPCR assay, and
 437 run the risk of being underestimated or undetected, even in well-
 438 performing assays. Any factor that reduces qPCR efficiency or sensitivity
 439 will exacerbate this phenomenon. In many cases, plasmid calibration
 440 curves perform better than those made from samples, with two main
 441 causes being non-specific binding of primers to non-target DNA, and in-
 442 hibitory contaminants that are co-isolated during DNA purification.
 443 Therefore, it was not unexpected that the parameters of the calibration
 444 curves made using psyllid DNA were not as robust as the *Wg* and 16S
 445 those made from plasmid DNA (Fig. 3C and D vs. Fig. 3A and B;
 446 Tables A3 and A4). The variability of the slopes, which correspond
 447 directly to qPCR efficiency (see formula in Materials and methods
 448 section), of the sample calibration curves were significantly greater
 449 than that of the plasmids (*Wg*: $F_{1,20}$ 72.30, $p = 0.001$; 16S: $F_{1,20}$ 20.50,
 450 $p = 0.006$). The *Wg* qPCR efficiencies for psyllid DNA samples ranged
 451 from 73.4 to 101.2% with an average efficiency of 91.1% (SD 7.8%) and
 452 nine out of the 15 standard curves had efficiencies that fell within the
 453 accepted range of 90–110% (Fig. 4). The average R^2 value for all curves
 454 was 0.996 (SD 0.004), with all but two making the 0.99 cutoff
 455 (Table A4). The corresponding 16S assays performed less optimally. Ef-
 456 ficiencies for nine out of the 15 calibration curves for 16S from the same
 457 psyllid samples fell outside of the accepted range (Fig. 4, Table A4), four
 458 of which had nonsensical efficiencies of 150% and above (Table A4). The
 459 corresponding *Wg* standard curves from the same psyllid samples for
 460 these four assays were as expected and within acceptable parameters
 461 for qPCR assays (Figs. 3 and 4, Table A4), with low standard deviations
 462 between technical replicates (≤ 0.5 ; data not shown), showing that
 463 these results were not due to error in serial dilution. This, coupled
 464 with normal reactions for 16S positive controls in the assay that rule
 465 out errors made with master mixes or degradation of primers and/or
 466 probes, suggests that stochastic error or other unknown factor, to
 467 which the 16S assay is particularly sensitive, contributed to these aber-
 468 rant results, rather than technical error (Fig. 3D; Table A4). The remain-
 469 ing six 16S efficiencies ranged from 76.0 to 100.25% with an average of

Nested-1	TCGAGCGCGTATGCGAATACGAGCGGCAGACGGGTGAGTAACGCGTAGGAATCTACCTTTTCTACGGGATAACGC
Nested-2	TCGAGCGCGTATGCGAATACGAGCGGCAGACGGGTGAGTAACGCGTAGGAATCTACCTTTTCTACGGGATAACGC
Nested-3	TCGAGCGCGTATGCGAATACGAGCGGCAGACGGGTGAGTAACGCGTAGGAATCTACCTTTTCTACGGGATAACGC
Nested-4	TCGAGCGCGTATGCGAATACGAGCGGCAGACGGGTGAGTAACGCGTAGGAATCTACCTTTTCTACGGGATAACGC
Nested-7	TCGAGCGCGTATGCGAATACGAGCGGCAGACGGGTGAGTAACGCGTAGGAATCTACCTTTTCTACGGGATAACGC
Nested-8	TCGAGCGCGTATGCGAATACGAGCGGCAGACGGGTGAGTAACGCGTAGGAATCTACCTTTTCTACGGGATAACGC
Nested-9	TCGAGCGCGTATGCGAATACGAGCGGCAGACGGGTGAGTAACGCGTAGGAATCTACCTTTTCTACGGGATAACGC
Nested-10	TCGAGCGCGTATGCGAATACGAGCGGCAGACGGGTGAGTAACGCGTAGGAATCTACCTTTTCTACGGGATAACGC
Nested-12	TCGAGCGCGTATGCGAATACGAGCGGCAGACGGGTGAGTAACGCGTAGGAATCTACCTTTTCTACGGGATAACGC
Nested-17	TCGAGCGCGTATGCGAATACGAGCGGCAGACGGGTGAGTAACGCGTAGGAATCTACCTTTTCTACGGGATAACGC
Nested-18	TCGAGCGCGTATGCGAATACGAGCGGCAGACGGGTGAGTAACGCGTAGGAATCTACCTTTTCTACGGGATAACGC
CP001677.5	TCGAGCGCGTATGCGAATACGAGCGGCAGACGGGTGAGTAACGCGTAGGAATCTACCTTTTCTACGGGATAACGC

Fig. 2. *Candidatus Liberibacter asiaticus* 16S sequence alignment of nested-qPCR products with reference 16S rDNA sequence CP001677.5.

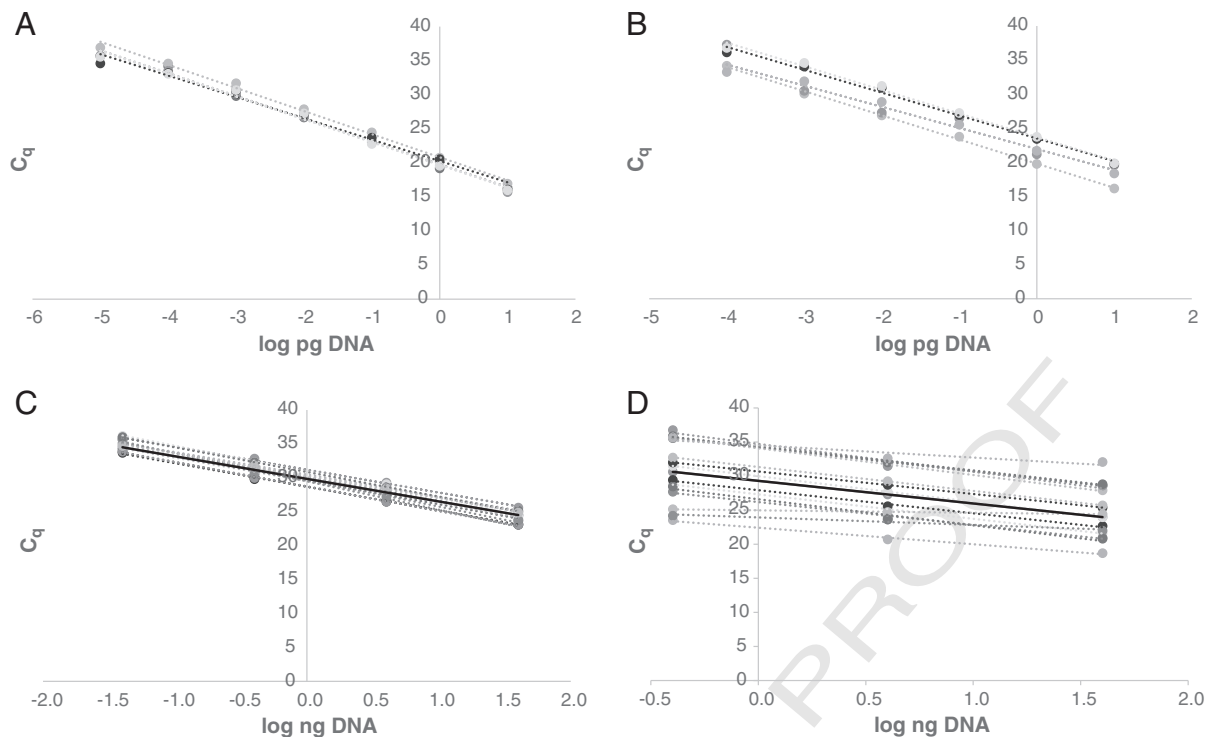


Fig. 3. *Wingless* and *16S* 10-fold serial dilution standard curves. Standard curves of five independent *Wg* (A) and *16S* (B) plasmid preparations. *Wg* (C) and *16S* (D) standard curves from 15 psyllid samples. *Wg* and *16S* were determined from the same psyllid sample for each of the 15 curves. Heavy regression lines in C and D represent optimal amplification with a slope of -3.321 and the average intercept for the data set. Note that variability of intercepts for *16S* plots is expected due to the fact that samples have varying titers of CLas.

Q2

470 95.9% (SD 4.2%). It is interesting to note that in all but two of the *16S* 471 472 assays, it would require greater than 50 cycles of qPCR to detect 22 473 molecules of template, the highest reliable dilution determined in the corre- 474 sponding *16S* assay using plasmid (Table A3). All but four regression 475 lines met the required cutoff of 0.99 with an overall average R^2 of 476 0.997 (SD 0.004; Table A4). As would be expected for samples with 477 varying titers of CLas, the intercept of the calibration curves varies wide- 478 ly as this parameter is directly affected by starting copy number of tem- 479 plate. The most striking result is that in some cases, the efficiencies of 480 *16S* vs *Wg* from the same psyllid sample differed significantly, suggest- 481 ing that the *16S* assay may be more sensitive than the *Wg* counterpart to 482 inherent differences between DNA isolations. As stated above, contam- 483 ination co-isolated with the DNA such as salt, buffer or carbohydrates, or 484 other contaminant can negatively impact qPCR efficiency. However, no correlation was found between the measured A_{260}/A_{230} ratio and

efficiency for either gene target (data not shown). Interestingly, in 485 some cases, the standard deviations between technical replicates were 486 well below the 0.3 cutoff for one target, while exceeding the cutoff for 487 the other target from within the same sample, again suggesting that sto- 488 chastic error, rather than pipetting or other technical error, contributed 489 to variation across replicates (data not shown). 490

3.4. Secondary structure predictions of qPCR *Wg* and *16S* amplicons 491

To determine if secondary structure could potentially contribute to 492 greater variability in efficiencies of the *Wg* and *16S* qPCR assays, struc- 493 tures and their thermodynamic parameters were predicted using the 494 DINAMelt Webserver (Markham and Zuker, 2005). The thermodynamic 495 parameters for *Wg* were: $\Delta G = 0.1$ kcal/mol, $\Delta H = -18.9$ kcal/mol, 496 $\Delta S = -56.9$ e.u., $T_m = 59.1$ °C; and $\Delta G = -0.1$ kcal/mol, $\Delta H = 497$

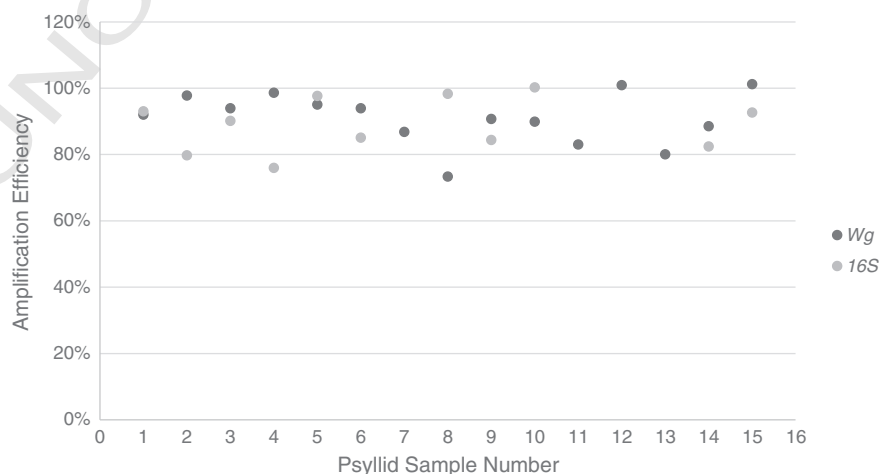


Fig. 4. Percent efficiency for *Wg* and *16S* qPCR assays from 15 independent psyllid samples. *16S* efficiencies for samples 7 and 11–13 were greater than 150%, and are not plotted.

498 -18.9 kcal/mol, $\Delta S = -56.5$ e.u., $T_m = 61.5$ °C for 1.5 and
 499 4.0 mM Mg^{2+} , respectively (where $\Delta G =$ Gibb's Energy, $\Delta H =$ enthalpy,
 500 $\Delta S =$ entropy). The predicted secondary structures at both Mg^{2+}
 501 concentrations are the same for *Wg* and *16S*, and are shown in Fig. 5.
 502 The predicted secondary structure for *Wg* had one small loop at the 3'
 503 end of the amplicon, which partially blocks the binding site for the reverse
 504 primer (center, gray shading, Fig. 5A). However, the free energy
 505 associated with this structure would likely be overcome at the tempera-
 506 tures used in the qPCR assay. In contrast, the thermodynamic param-
 507 eters for *16S* suggested greater stability of secondary structure, with
 508 predictions of: $\Delta G = -1.8$ kcal/mol, $\Delta H = -94.4$ kcal/mol, $\Delta S =$
 509 -278.0 e.u., $T_m = 66.5$ °C; and $\Delta G = -2.4$ kcal/mol, $\Delta H =$
 510 -94.4 kcal/mol, $\Delta S = -276.1$, e.u. $T_m = 68.8$ °C for 1.5 and
 511 4.0 mM Mg^{2+} , respectively. The secondary structure for *16S* contained
 512 two loops at the 5' end of the amplicon; one blocking the binding site
 513 for the forward primer and the second blocking the binding site for
 514 the probe (gray shading, Fig. 5B). These results suggest that secondary
 515 structure could have a negative impact on *16S* qPCR amplification
 516 efficiency.

517 4. Discussion

518 Here we describe a nested-qPCR assay that can be used in conjunc-
 519 tion with the *CLas* *16S* presence/absence qPCR assay to reduce the num-
 520 ber of false-negatives obtained when using the presence/absence assay
 521 alone. It is simple, inexpensive, and can be used in series with existing
 522 assays without disrupting workflow. The decision to employ the com-
 523 panion assay will depend on the question being addressed, and whether
 524 or not false-negatives will affect the interpretation of the data collected
 525 to address that question. In many cases, a few false-negatives will not
 526 change the outcome and the extra step to investigate them would be
 527 wasted effort. Examples include the detection of one positive sample
 528 within a batch that calls for the destruction of the entire batch, or mak-
 529 ing the determination if any insects within a colony test positive for
 530 *CLas*. However, there are cases where false-negatives could have serious
 531 consequences. For example, the use of an assay with high rates of false-
 532 negatives is inappropriate for addressing complex biological, molecular
 533 and biochemical questions such as: the localization of *CLas* within plant
 534 and insect tissues, the elucidation of transmission rates given certain
 535 conditions, or the determination of what titer levels constitute an infec-
 536 tion. False-negatives are also problematic in the evaluation of new
 537 methods to control or combat the disease, such as treatments to clear
 538 the insect or plant of *CLas*, or the identification of resistant cultivars.
 539 False negatives are of the most serious consequence in instances when
 540 the tolerance of a disease-causing agent is zero. A relevant example of
 541 this is the screening of budwood to be certified as free of viruses and
 542 other graft-transmissible diseases. No method of detection can say
 543 with absolute certainty that all negatives are genuinely negative, but

for the purposes described above, the method of detection must be opti- 544
 mized to provide the greatest sensitivity possible, i.e., optimized to 545
 provide the lowest rate in false-negative reporting achievable. As seen 546
 in this study, the rates of false-negative reporting can be significantly 547
 high in the presence/absence qPCR assay – up to more than half of 548
 the samples tested. We propose that two characteristics inherent in 549
 the *16S* target contribute to problem of underestimation made by this 550
 assay: low abundance and sensitivity to suboptimal conditions. Both 551
Wg and *16S* showed greater variability in performance using DNA isolat- 552
 ed from psyllids over that observed for plasmid DNA, in some cases 553
 performing below acceptable parameters. For *Wg* that is not as prob- 554
 lematic because this gene target is in abundance. However, *16S* can be 555
 in low abundance, especially in samples where bacterial titer is low. It 556
 is well demonstrated that the stochastic error inherent in any qPCR 557
 assay, even one that has been developed to perform optimally, has a 558
 greater effect on the amplification of low-abundant targets (<1000 cop- 559
 ies) than those in greater copy numbers, and that the lower the starting 560
 copy number, the less likely the abundance will be reflected in the final 561
 analysis of the qPCR (Bustin and Nolan, 2004; Karrer et al., 1995). The 562
 implication of this is that for some low-abundance templates, the accu- 563
 mulation of sufficient product for signal detection above the fluorescent 564
 background noise might not occur, and template within samples goes 565
 undetected. Any factor that negatively impacts efficiency will magnify 566
 this limitation of qPCR. Several observations made in this study suggest 567
 that the efficiency of the *16S* assay is variably affected by some com- 568
 ponent present DNA samples isolated from host tissue. First, the *Wg* and 569
16S qPCR assays perform well under the conditions of pure template 570
 in highly purified conditions. This demonstrates that overall, the qPCR 571
 assays are optimal for the basic parameters of the reaction, such as mag- 572
 nesium, primer and probe concentrations. However, it was noted that 573
 the *16S* assay is on average an order of magnitude less sensitive than 574
 the *Wg* counterpart. In using calibration curves with psyllid DNA, differ- 575
 ences in performance between the *Wg* and *16S* start to diverge further. 576
 Most of the *Wg* assays performed within acceptable efficiency range for 577
 qPCR assays, the majority of the *16S* assays did not, with 60% falling out- 578
 side the acceptable range of 90–110%. In four cases, calculated efficien- 579
 cies for *16S* were nonsensical values of greater than 150%, while the 580
 corresponding *Wg* assays were normal; suggesting something within 581
 the isolated DNA sample is affecting *16S* more profoundly than *Wg*. In 582
 one case, C_q values for *16S* were about 24.5 for all four, ten-fold serial dilu- 583
 tions of the psyllid sample. This was not an error in dilution or pipet- 584
 ting because the serial dilution for the *Wg* counterpart from the same 585
 psyllid sample was normal with a calculated efficiency of 100.9%. In 586
 most cases, there was a lack of correlation in the efficiencies for most 587
 of psyllid samples between *Wg* and *16S*. In summary, *16S* qPCR assay 588
 is not as sensitive or consistent in its performance as compared to the 589
Wg counterpart, and can demonstrate aberrant behavior using psyllid 590
 DNA as template. Our current hypothesis is that contaminants 591

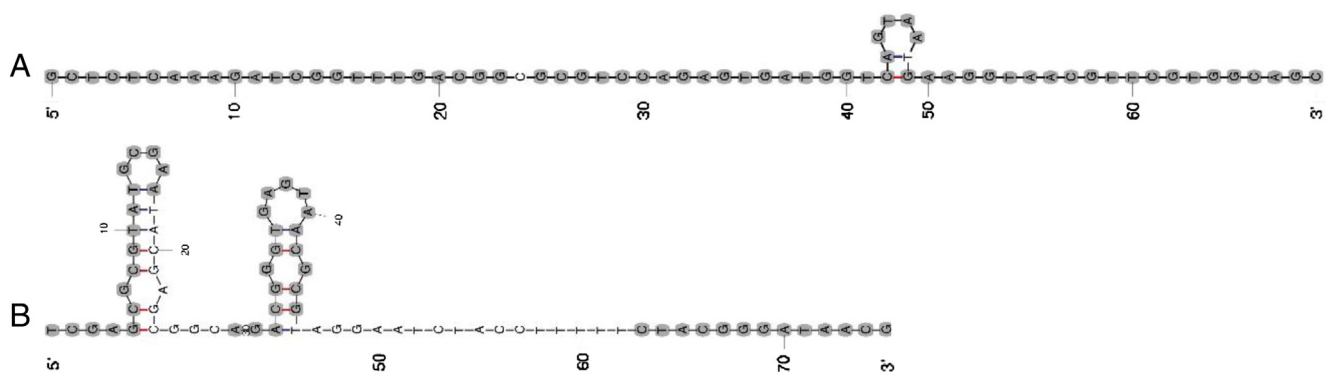


Fig. 5. Predicted secondary structures of A. *Wg* and B. *16S* amplicons at 60 °C. Predicted structures were the same for both 1.5 and 4.0 mM Mg^{2+} . Gray shading are primer (5' and 3' ends) and probe binding (center) sites.

co-isolated with sample DNA are contributing to these results, which is consistent with the observations in other systems (e.g., Hargreaves et al., 2013). In addition, the two relatively stable secondary structures that are thermodynamically favorable at the thermocycling temperatures used in the 16S qPCR assay may contribute to less-than-optimal amplification as these stem/loop structures may block the primer binding site of the forward primer. Secondary structures formed in an amplicon are known to cause reduction of PCR efficiency (McDowell et al., 1998). While the utility of 16S in PCR-based methods for the discovery, identification and detection of pathogens are undeniable (for a historical overview, see Sontakke et al., 2009), the propensity to form secondary structure, on which its biological function depends, needs to be considered when designing primers. It is also possible that the introduction of host DNA provides template for non-specific binding of the CLas primers, thus forming non-specific products, resulting in decreased efficiency of the qPCR reaction. Most likely, the observations made in this study are a result of a complex combination of underlying factors, and it is not surprising that other gene targets for CLas detection are now being used (Ananthakrishnan et al., 2013). However, we chose to develop a nested-qPCR assay to be compatible with previous studies conducted by our group that utilized the 16S assay, and for researchers who are not able to shift to different gene targets for various reasons. While other methodologies with even greater sensitivity than qPCR are available and are being used for screening for disease-causing agents, such as Droplet Digital™ PCR (ddPCR™, Bio-Rad; Carlsbad, CA; White et al., 2012), they are not currently mainstream. Therefore, building on commonly available instrumentation and methodology is a necessity for many laboratories. Currently, we are using nested-qPCR to begin addressing the potential of cryptic and/or latent infection of the psyllid with CLas, and to further understand the transmission dynamics that facilitate the spread of HLB in citrus. In addition, we have determined that this method is not only applicable to studies in the psyllid, but in plant tissue as well. We have used this method to screen plant tissue, and found it to be of high utility in detecting early CLas infection (data to be published in the future). In addition, we are evaluating methods to enrich for bacterial DNA isolation from host tissue, both of psyllid and host origin, in order to increase the ratio of CLas to host DNA to reduce stochastic effects of low-abundance templates in qPCR assays.

Q11 5. Uncited references

632 Koressaar and Remm, 2007
633 Thompson et al., 1997

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640 Appendix A. Supplementary data

641 Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.mimet.2014.04.007>.

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