

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Effects of "*Candidatus* Liberibacter solanacearum" (haplotype B) on *Bactericera cockerelli* fitness and vitellogenesis

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> Abstract "Candidatus Liberibacter solanacearum" (Lso) are phloem-restricted and unculturable Gram-negative bacteria. Presently five haplotypes have been identified worldwide; but only haplotypes A and B are associated with the vector Bactericera cockerelli (Šulc.) in the Americas. Previous studies showed that Lso-infection reduces B. cockerelli reproductive output and that Lso haplotype B is more pathogenic than Lso haplotype A. To understand the interaction of Lso haplotype B and B. cockerelli, the fitness of Lso-free and Lso B-infected insects, and the expression of vitellogenin (BcVg1-like), a gene involved directly in the insect reproduction were analyzed. Statistical differences in the number of eggs oviposited, and the total number of progeny nymphs and adults were found among crosses of insects with or without Lso. Significant differences in sex proportions were found between Lso B-infected and Lso-free crosses: a higher proportion of F_1 adult females were obtained from Lso B-infected mothers. A significant reduction of BcVg1-like was observed in crosses performed with Lso B-infected females compared to the Lso-free insects. In female cohorts of different age, a significant reduction of BcVg1-like expression was measured in 7-d-old Lso B-infected females (virgin and mated) compared with 7-d-old Lso-free females (virgin and mated), respectively. The reduction of *BcVg1-like* transcript was associated with a lower number of developing oocytes observed in female's reproductive systems. Overall, this study represents the first step to understand the interaction of Lso B with B. cockerelli, highlighting the effect of Lso B infection on egg production, BcVg1-like expression, and oocyte development.

> **Key words** feminization; insect–pathogen interaction; oviposition; psyllids; reproduction; vitellogenesis

Introduction

Many plant pathogenic bacteria depend on insect vectors to spread between hosts (Weintraub & Beanland, 2006; Orlovskis *et al.*, 2015; Perilla-Henao & Casteel, 2016;

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Tamborindeguy *et al.*, 2017). The association between the microorganism and the insect can result in numerous symbiotic interactions that can affect the insect fitness; these associations have been well described in the literature as mutualism, parasitism, and commensalism (Leung & Poulin, 2008; Su *et al.*, 2013; Solomon *et al.*, 2015).

In the last 30 years, emergent diseases caused by plant pathogenic bacteria associated with insects had caused significant economic losses worldwide (Nadarasah & Stavrinides, 2011). One of these associations involves psyllid species with the plant pathogenic bacteria "*Candidatus* Liberibacter spp." Psyllids are phloem-feeding hemipterans that transmit these pathogenic bacteria threatening the production of several crops (Aubert, 1992; Bové, 2006; Manjunath *et al.*, 2008).

Zebra chip has recently become an economically important disease in potato crops, documented in several countries of the Americas and also in New Zealand (Liefting et al., 2008; Secor et al., 2009; Teulon et al., 2009; Crosslin et al., 2010; Munyaneza et al., 2010; Munyaneza, 2012). The causative agent of zebra chip is "Candidatus Liberibacter solanacearum" (Lso) a phloem-restricted and unculturable Gram-negative bacterium transmitted by Bactericera cockerelli (Šulc.) (Hemiptera: Triozidae), also known as the potato psyllid (Munyaneza et al., 2007; Hansen et al., 2008; Liefting et al., 2008; Secor et al., 2009). Worldwide, five different Lso haplotypes have been described: Lso A, Lso B, Lso C, Lso D, and Lso E (Nelson et al., 2011, 2013; Teresani et al., 2014). Of those, only Lso haplotypes A and B are associated with B. cockerelli and solanaceous crops in the Americas (Nelson et al., 2011), Australia, and New Zealand, whereas the haplotypes C, D, and E are associated with Trioza apicalis and Bactericera trigonica in the old world (Munyaneza et al., 2010; Teresani et al., 2014; NPPO, 2017; Thomas et al., 2018).

Despite the economic importance of Lso, few studies focusing on the fitness of Lso-infected *B. cockerelli* have been performed. Previous studies showed that Lsoinfected females are less fecund on tomato plants compared to uninfected females (Nachappa *et al.*, 2012, 2014; Yao *et al.*, 2016). Similarly, other studies performed in *Drosophila melanogaster*, *Anopheles gambiae*, *Euoniticellus intermedius*, and *Teleogryllus oceanicus* showed that exposure to pathogenic bacteria results in a reduction of the number of eggs oviposited (Ahmed & Hurd, 2006; Reaney & Knell, 2010; McNamara *et al.*, 2014; Nystrand & Dowling, 2014). However, the molecular mechanisms that might affect the egg production in Lso-infected psyllids are still undetermined.

The reproductive success of oviparous species depends on egg production; insects are not an exception. However, egg production is energetically demanding and can be influenced by external or internal factors. During oocyte development, yolk proteins (including vitellogenins), lipids, maternal RNAs, ribosomes, and organelles provide nutrients and/or patterning information for the future zygote (Chen *et al.*, 1997; Arukwe & Goksøyr, 2003). In most insect species, including in members of the Hemiptera order such as *B. cockerelli, Nilaparvata lugens, Lethocerus deyrollei* and *Riptortus clavatus* (Shinoda *et al.*, 1996; Nagaba *et al.*, 2011; Ibanez *et al.*, 2017), juvenile hormone initiates the vitellogenic process and egg development (Tufail & Takeda, 2008). The synthesis of vitellogenins (Vgs), which is essential for egg production, occurs in most insects in the fat body. After synthesis, Vgs are secreted into the hemolymph and they accumulate as vitellin proteins in the developing oocytes by a receptor-mediated pathway (Raikhel, 1992). In *B. cockerelli*, *BcVg1-like* is highly expressed in females after mating and following exogenous application of juvenile hormone III (Ibanez *et al.*, 2017).

In this study, the effect of Lso B in *B. cockerelli* was evaluated by analyzing life table parameters of crosses between Lso B-infected and/or Lso-free females and males, and by determining the level of expression of *BcVg1-like* in females. Our objective was to start unraveling the cause(s) of the reduced reproductive output previously reported in Lso B-infected *B. cockerelli* females.

Materials and methods

Plant material

Tomato (Solanum lycopersicum cv. Moneymaker) plants were cultivated in a room $(23 \pm 3 \text{ °C})$ in plastic pots filled with Metro-Mix 900 (Sungro, Horticulture Distribution, Inc., WA, USA) and grown with a photoperiod of 16:8 h (light : dark). The plants were watered every 2 d.

Insect source

The Lso-free *B. cockerelli* colony used in this study was obtained in 2013 from Dr. Don Henne, AgriLife Research Weslaco, TX, USA. The colony was maintained on tomato plants in 35.5 cm \times 35.5 cm \times 61 cm insect cages (BioQuip, Rancho Dominguez, CA, USA) at room temperature and photoperiod of 16: 8 h (light : dark). Insects from Lso-free colony were transferred to tomato plants infected with Lso haplotype B in order to create laboratory psyllid colonies harboring Lso haplotype B. Insects and plants were tested regularly using the SSR1 primers (Lin *et al.*, 2012) as was previously reported (Yao *et al.*, 2016) to verify the presence and the haplotype of Lso.

In order to obtain cohorts of insects of similar age, fourth to fifth instar nymphs from the Lso-free and Lso B-infected colonies were transferred to 4-week-old uninfected tomato plants separately. On the day adults emerged, they were sexed under a dissection microscope (Leica EZ4W, I. Miller Precision Optical Instruments, Inc., PA, USA), and females and males of each colony were kept separated as same age cohorts in different tomato plants until required.

Insect crosses

To perform the individual crosses, one couple of 3-dold insects (a male and a female) was placed in a 1.7 mL Eppendorf tube for copulation during 4–5 h or until they mated. Different crosses were performed using females and males, those included: Lso-free \times Lso-free: Lso-free × Lso B-infected; Lso B-infected × Lso-free; and Lso Binfected \times Lso B-infected insects. In each cross the first insect refers to the female and the second to the male. For each cross type, at least 7 couples were allowed to mate. After mating the males were discarded and the females were grouped according to the cross type on 4-week-old tomato plants and allowed to oviposit for 4 d. On the fourth day after mating, females (mothers) were collected, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C for gene expression analyses. The plants and progeny were kept for life history analyses. The experiment was repeated three times.

Life history analyses

To understand the effects of Lso B in *B. cockerelli* insects, we compared several life history traits using the three biological replicates from the "crosses experiment," consisting of 7 mated females per replicate. Traits compared included average number of eggs per female, hatching percentage, average number of nymphs per female, average number of adults per female, percentage of nymphal survival, and sex ratio. Once F_1 adults emerged, the presence of Lso B was assessed by PCR.

Insect adult cohorts

Cohorts of 1-, 3- and 7-d-old virgin females were obtained as previously described. To obtain 7-d-old mated females, groups of ten 1-d-old females from the Lsofree and Lso B-infected colonies were kept on different 4-week-old uninfected tomato plants with ten 1-d-old males from the Lso-free colony, until they reached 7 d old. At day 7, the males were discarded and the females were collected for follow-up analyses such as dissection of reproductive systems and BcVg1-like gene expression. Each 10-female group was considered a biological replicate; the experiment was repeated three times.

DNA extraction and Lso-detection

DNA extraction was performed on single F_1 progeny psyllids from each cross following a procedure

previously described (Nachappa *et al.*, 2011). The presence of Lso in insects was determined by PCR reaction using the published LsoF/OI2 primers (Li *et al.*, 2009). Each PCR reaction consisted of 50 ng of genomic DNA, 5 μ L of Green Master Mix (Promega, Madison, WI, USA), 3.5 μ L of water, and 10 μ mol/L each Lso primer; the PCR conditions were the following: 94 °C for 5 min, 40 cycles of 95 °C for 30 s; 60 °C for 30 s and 72 °C for 80 s; and a final step of 72 °C for 7 min. The amplicons were analyzed through electrophoresis on 1% agarose gel containing ethidium bromide and the image of each gel was captured using a gel-documentation system (Fotodyne Incorporated, Hartland, WI, USA).

Gene expression analyses

Total RNA was extracted from pools of seven 7-d-old mated females (mothers from the crosses) and from pools of 10 insects per biological replicate (1-, 3-, and 7-d-old virgin and 7-d-old mated females). Insects were homogenized during 1 min on ice with a plastic pestle using 500 μ L of TRIzol reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. Genomic DNA was removed by DNase treatment using Turbo DNase (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Quantity and purity of the total RNA samples were determined using an Infinite[®] 200 PRO NanoQuant (Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland) and RNA integrity was visualized by electrophoresis in 1.2% agarose gels stained with ethidium bromide.

For females from the life stages cohort experiment, cDNA was synthesized using 300 ng of total RNA, anchored-Oligo (dT) primers and Verso cDNA Synthesis kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) following the manufacturer's instructions. The gene expression analysis was performed using PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix according to manufacturer's instructions. Each reaction contained 5 ng of cDNA, 250 nmol/L of each gene specific primer and $1 \times$ of SYBR Green Master Mix; the volume was adjusted with nuclease-free water to 10 μ L. The real-time PCR program was 95 °C for 2 min followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 5 s and 60 °C for 30 s. Real-time PCR assays were performed using an Applied Biosystems QuantStudioTM 6 Flex Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher Scientific). BcVg1-like gene expression was evaluated using the primers described previously (Ibanez et al., 2017), with elongation factor- 1α and ribosomal protein subunit 18 genes as references (Ibanez & Tamborindeguy, 2016).

Gene expression analyses from the mothers from the cross experiments were performed using SensiFAST

SYBR Hi-ROX One-step Kit (Bioline, London, UK) according to manufacturer's instructions. Each reaction contained 50 ng of total RNA, 250 nmol/L of each gene specific primer (*BcVg1-like* and the reference genes *elongation factor-1* α and *ribosomal protein subunit 18*) and 1× of SensiFAST SYBR Hi-ROX One-step Mix; the volume was adjusted with nuclease-free water to 10 μ L. The real-time PCR program was 45 °C for 10 min followed 95 °C for 2 min then 40 cycles at 95 °C for 5 s and 60 °C for 30 s. Real-time PCR assays were performed using an Applied Biosystems QuantStudioTM 6 Flex Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Three biological replicates were used and each RTqPCR reaction was performed in duplicate with a negative control in each run. The threshold cycle (Ct) values and the primer specificity were monitored with melting curve analysis using QuantStudioTM software V1.3 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The relative expression of *BcVg1-like* was estimated with the delta delta CT method (Schmittgen & Livak, 2008), using *elongation factor-1* α and *ribosomal protein subunit 18* as reference genes (Ibanez & Tamborindeguy, 2016).

Number of developing oocytes

To determine the effect of Lso B-infection on the number of developing oocytes, 1-d-old Lso-free and Lso Binfected females were crossed with Lso-free males. On the seventh day following mating, the females were anaesthetized on ice for 15 min, and their reproductive organs were dissected using cold $1 \times$ phosphate-buffered saline $(1 \times PBS)$ in a dissection slide as previously described in (Ibanez et al., 2014). The dissected samples were transferred to a new 1.7 mL microcentrifuge tube previously filled with 200 μ L of 3.8% formaldehyde/1 × PBS buffer (fixation buffer) for 1 h. The fixation buffer was removed by washing the reproductive organs twice for 15 min using $1 \times PBS$. Then, the samples were mounted using 50 μ L of Vectashield mounting medium with DAPI (Vector laboratories Inc., Burlingame, CA, USA). The images of at least 20 female reproductive systems per cross category were obtained using an Axioimager A1 microscope (Carl Zeiss microimaging, NY, USA) and visualized with AxioVision SE64 Rel. 4.9.1 software (Carl Zeiss).

Statistical analyses

The effect of Lso B-infection on *B. cockerelli* life history analyses, such as number of eggs and nymphs, nymphal survival, number of adults (F_1 progeny), and number of developing oocytes were analyzed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's *post hoc* test. Sex ratio



Fig. 1 Average number of eggs oviposited per female from crosses performed with Lso-free and Lso B-infected *B. cock-erelli* on tomato leaves in a 4-d period. A significant reduction in oviposition was observed in the crosses in which at least one of the adults (female or male) was infected with Lso haplotype B. Data represent means \pm SD of three independent experiments. Different letters indicate statistical differences between treatments using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's *post hoc* test (*P* < 0.05).

statistical analysis was performed using Pairwise comparisons *t*-tests. Gene expression was analyzed using oneway ANOVA with Tukey's *post hoc* test. All analyses were conducted using RStudio environment (RStudio, 2015).

Results

Oviposition

The number of eggs oviposited on leaves of 4-weekold tomato plants by groups of seven mated females from different crosses (Lso-free × Lso-free; Lso-free × Lso Binfected; Lso B-infected × Lso-free; and Lso B-infected × Lso B-infected females and males) were counted after a 4-d-oviposition period (Fig. 1). A significant reduction in the number of eggs oviposited by crosses performed with Lso B-infected insects (females or males) compared to the control Lso-free × Lso-free (P < 0.05) was observed. No statistically significant differences were determined among the crosses performed with Lso B-infected insects (P > 0.05).

Egg hatching percentage

The percentage of egg hatching was analyzed for each group of samples, no statistically significant differences



Fig. 2 Influence of Lso B infection in egg hatching percentage in *B. cockerelli*. No statistically significant differences in the percentage of egg hatching among the crosses performed with Lso-free and Lso B-infected insects were observed (P > 0.05). Data represent means \pm SD of three independent experiments.

were found among the crosses performed with Lso-free and Lso B-infected insects (P > 0.05) (Fig. 2).

Number of nymphs, adults, and nymph survival

The number of nymphs on tomato leaves from the different crosses were counted daily during a period of three weeks (Fig. 3A). There were significant differences in the number of nymphs per female produced by the Lso-free \times Lso-free cross (31 nymphs) compared with those from crosses with Lso B-infected insects (P < 0.05). In detail, there were fewer nymphs in the Lso-free × Lso B-infected (8 nymphs), Lso B-infected \times Lso-free (14 nymphs), and Lso B-infected \times Lso B-infected (7 nymphs) crosses. No statistically significant differences were identified among the crosses performed with Lso B-infected insects (P > 0.05). Fewer adults were also produced in crosses involving Lso B-infected insects compared to the Lsofree \times Lso-free cross (Fig. 3B). However, no statistically significant differences (P > 0.05) in nymphal survival were observed among the crosses (Fig. 3C).

Each F_1 adult was tested for Lso infection. Lso B was only detected in the progeny of females from the Lso B-infected colony (Fig. S1).

Sex ratio percentages

Figure 4 shows the sex ratio of the progeny produced by Lso-free and Lso B-infected females. A significant



Fig. 3 Influence of Lso B infection in number of nymphs, and adults and in the percentage of nymphal survival in *B. cockerelli*. (A) A reduction in the number of nymphs was observed in the crosses performed with Lso B-infected insects compared to the crosses performed with Lso B-infected insects compared to the crosses performed with Lso B-infected insects compared to the crosses performed with Lso B-infected insects compared to the crosses performed with Lso B-infected insects compared to the crosses performed with Lso B-infected insects compared to the crosses performed with Lso B-infected insects compared to the crosses. Lso-free × Lso-free. (C) No statistically significant differences in the percentage of nymphal survival were found among the crosses. Data represent means \pm SD of three independent experiments. Different letters indicate statistical differences between treatments using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's *post hoc* test.



Fig. 4 Sex ratio in progeny of Lso-free and Lso B-infected *B. cockerelli* females. Significant increase in the proportion of females among the progeny of Lso B-infected females was observed. Data represent means \pm SD of independent experiments. Asterisks (*) show statistical differences using pairwise *t*-test (*P* < 0.05).

increase in the percentage of females was observed in the progeny of Lso B-infected females (55.8%) compared to Lso-free females (47.8%) as shown by the pairwise *t*-test (P < 0.05).

Developing mature oocytes

To evaluate a possible behavioral change in oviposition by Lso B-infected females such as egg retention, we dissected and counted the number of developing oocytes present on female ovaries in 7-d-old Lso-free and Lso B-infected mated females (in both cases females were crossed with Lso-free males) (Figs. 5 and 6). A significant reduction in number of developing oocytes was observed in the reproductive organs of the Lso B-infected females compared with Lso-free females, excluding a possible behavioral change of egg retention.

Expression of BcVg1-like in 7-d-old mated females (mothers from crosses) and life stages

The relative expression of the BcVg1-like transcript was determined in the mothers from the different crosses (those females were 7 d old) and also from Lso-free and Lso B-infected adult females of different ages (1-, 3-, and 7-d-old virgin females and 7-d-old mated females, for the latter Lso-free males were used) (Fig. 7). The expression of BcVg1-like transcript was higher in the 7-d-old mothers from the Lso-free × Lso-free cross compared



Fig. 5 Average number of developing oocytes present in 7-dold Lso-free and Lso B-infected mated females. A significant reduction in the number of developing oocytes in the dissected reproductive systems of Lso B-infected mated females was observed. Data represent means \pm 20 reproductive female organ samples. Asterisk (*) indicates statistical differences between treatments using unpaired *t*-test (*P* < 0.05).



Fig. 6 Representative images of female reproductive systems from 7-d-old Lso-free and Lso B-infected mated females. The dissected ovaries showed a reduction in the number of developing oocytes in Lso B-infected females. A1 and A2 are representative images from Lso-free mated females; B1 and B2 correspond to Lso B-infected mated females. Scale bar is equal to $200 \ \mu m$.

to the expression in the females from the Lso B-infected \times Lso-free and Lso B-infected \times Lso B-infected crosses. While no statistically significant differences were found in the *BcVg1-like* expression level between Lso-free females mated with Lso-free or Lso B-infected males, the relative expression of the transcript was reduced



Fig. 7 Expression analyses of BcVg1-like transcript in mothers from the crosses and among adult females of different ages. Relative BcVg1-like transcript expression was determined by RT-qPCR and normalized to the expression value of RpS18 and Ef-1a transcripts. (A) The expression of BcVg1-like was reduced in Lso B-infected females compared to Lso-free females mated with Lso-free males; however, no statistical differences were observed between females from the Lso-free \times Lso B-infected cross and any of the other females. (B) Overall, BcVg1-like relative expression was reduced in 7-d-old Lso B-infected females (virgin and mated; V and M in the figure, respectively) compared with 7-d-old Lso-free females (virgin and mated). White bars indicate the cross performed with Lso-free insects, while gray bars indicate the cross performed with Lso B-infected insects. Each bar represents the means \pm standard deviation (SD) of three independent experiments. Different letters indicate statistical differences among life stages using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's *post hoc* test (P < 0.05).

to 0.69 in the cross using the Lso B-infected male (Fig. 7A).

Overall, relative expression analyses of BcVg1-like among adult females of different ages from the Lso-free and Lso B-infected colonies revealed that the transcript was expressed in all samples and that its expression increased as females aged and following mating (Fig. 7B). In Lso-free females, BcVg1-like expression increased from 1-d-old virgin to 7-d-old virgin females, and it was further upregulated after mating. However, in Lso B-infected females, no differences in BcVg1-like expression were found between 3- and 7-d-old virgin females, or between 7-d-old mated and 3-d-old virgin females even if on average the expression in 7-d-old mated females was three times higher than in 3- and 7-d-old virgin females. BcVg1like expression was significantly higher in 7-d-old virgin and mated Lso-free females compared to 7-d-old virgin and mated Lso-infected females, respectively.

Discussion

The effect of *Liberibacter* infection on psyllid fitness is not well understood. While the fitness analyses performed in Diaphorina citri revealed that infection by "Candidatus Liberibacter asiaticus" (CLas) resulted in increased fecundity, reduced nymphal development time, and increased female longevity of the insects harboring CLas (Pelz-Stelinski & Killiny, 2016; Ren et al., 2016), the interaction of B. cockerelli with Lso resulted in reduced oviposition (Nachappa et al., 2012, 2014). Also, previously, it was shown that the effects of Lso infection in B. cockerelli can differ depending on the Lso haplotype. The infection with each Lso haplotype resulted in the decrease of B. cockerelli fecundity, but only the infection with Lso B reduced the nymphal survival (Yao et al., 2016). On potato and silver leaf nightshade, Lso-infected B. cockerelli nymphs developed faster than uninfected psyllids, but their mortality was higher (Thinakaran et al., 2015). Also in tomato, Lso-infection resulted in lower nymphal survival (Nachappa et al., 2012, 2014; Yao et al., 2016). However, the effect of Lso infection on psyllid sex ratio and the effect of male infection on female oviposition, and nymphal development have not been investigated.

The present study confirms previous findings (Yao *et al.*, 2016) that crosses between Lso B-infected insects produce fewer eggs than crosses between Lso-free psyllids. This result might support the observed trade-off

between immune defense and reproduction, both energetically demanding processes (Schwenke *et al.*, 2016). However, in this study no differences in nymphal survival between those crosses were determined; one reason for this difference might be related to the difference in oviposition period between the two studies.

In addition, the present study revealed that the infectious status of the male can affect the oviposition of Lso-free females but not the percentage of nymphal survival. We had previously shown that mating induces the expression of the *BcVg1-like* transcript (Ibanez *et al.*, 2017). Here, we found a 30% reduction on the level of the *BcVg1-like* transcript when Lso-free females mated with Lso B-infected males compared to the females that mated with Lso-free males. However, this difference was not statistically significant. Seminal fluid proteins transferred to females during mating affect the physiology and behavior of the female (Avila *et al.*, 2011; Sirot *et al.*, 2015); changes in seminal fluid proteins between Lso-free and Lso B-infected males could lead to the identification of key proteins involved in psyllid reproduction.

In a previous study, it was observed that the expression of BcVg1-like was correlated with the number of eggs oviposited, suggesting its important role in psyllid reproduction (Ibanez et al., 2017). We also showed that in *B. cockerelli* juvenile hormone regulated Vg expression and oocyte development. Results from the present study showed that there was a significant reduction in the level of BcVg1-like transcript in Lso B-infected mated females (Fig. 7). Thus, these results might support the model whereby the physiological trade-off between reproduction and immunity is mediated by endocrine and metabolic signaling via juvenile hormone and/or other signaling molecules (Schwenke et al., 2016). More research is needed to evaluate the role of juvenile hormone on the immune function of psyllids.

The negative effects of pathogen-infection in insect reproduction have been shown in many insect species (Ahmed & Hurd, 2006; Reaney & Knell, 2010; McNamara et al., 2014; Nystrand & Dowling, 2014). For instance, in A. gambiae, the transcription of Vg, the concentration of the Vg protein in the hemolymph, and Vitellin accumulation in oocytes were reduced following the infection with Plasmodium yoelii nigeriensis when ookinetes invaded the female's mosquito midguts (Ahmed et al., 2001). Also, when A. gambiae was challenged with lipopolysaccharides, an immune elicitor, there was a significant decrease in the accumulation of Vitellin in the oocytes and in the number of eggs oviposited (Ahmed et al., 2002). In D. melanogaster a reduced fecundity was observed during the acute phase of infection of the Gram-negative pathogen, Providencia rettgeri (McKean et al., 2008). However, Vgs have been also associated with other biological functions. For instance, another B. cockerelli Vg, BcVg6-like, has a putative function involving the transport of lipids or other molecules (Ibanez et al., 2018). Similarly, other Vgs were shown to be involved in immune defense in nonmammalian vertebrates and invertebrates (Zhang et al., 2011). Hexagrammos otakii Vg binds lipopolysaccharides from Gram-negative bacteria, lipoteichoic acids from Gram-positive bacteria, peptidoglycans from both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, β -1,3-glucans from eukaryotic fungi and laminarin from brown algae (Li et al., 2008). Similarly, the Bombyx mori Vg protein can bind the Gram-negative bacterium Escherichia coli and the Gram-positive bacterium Bacillus subtilis, resulting in a strong antibacterial activity (Singh et al., 2013). In A. gambiae, Vg was able to interfere with the anti-Plasmodium response (Rono et al., 2010). These findings suggest that Vg might be involved in the defense of hosts against microbes. However, this is a hypothesis that needs to be examined in *B. cockerelli*.

The third finding of this study was the change in the sex proportion between the progeny of Lso B-infected and Lso-free mothers; an increase in the female proportion in the progeny produced by B. cockerelli Lso B-infected females was determined (Fig. 4). Other studies had reported the association of insects with bacteria inducing feminization. For example, in whiteflies (Bemisia tabaci), Rickettsia was found to be associated with a significant female bias in two whitefly genetic lines (Cass et al., 2016). Also, other members of the order Rickettsiales, such as Wolbachia, a diverse group of intracellular bacteria with different symbiotic relationships, induce diverse phenotypes in their insect hosts including female-bias, parthenogenetic induction, and cytoplasmic incompatibility (Werren et al., 2008). Since in this study only the progeny from Lso B-infected females harbored the pathogen, the female bias observed in this report might be an adaptive strategy of Lso B to increase the fitness of Lso B-infected B. cockerelli; however, this interaction needs to be investigated in more detail. While the progeny of Lso B-infected females had a higher female ratio than the Lso-free counterpart, overall there were fewer females in the Lso B-infected progeny. Therefore, the increased proportion of females in the Lso B-infected population did not compensate for the decreased fecundity of the Lso B-infected females.

In conclusion, this study focused in the interaction between Lso B and *B. cockerelli* reproduction; in particular, it determined the effects of the bacteria on the female fecundity at the molecular level (*BcVg1-like* expression). These new findings could pave the way to a better understanding of the interaction between *Liberibacter* pathogens and their psyllid vectors. Further, knowledge gained in the control of psyllid reproduction could lead us to design and adopt novel strategies of integrated pest management to control the vector population.

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Disclosure

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article at the publisher's web-site:

Fig. S1. Evaluation of Lso presence in the progeny of the crosses between Lso-free and Lso B-infected females with Lso B-infected males. Individual insects were used to determine the incidence of Lso in the F^1 progeny for each cross. The presence of Lso was not detected in the F^1 progeny from the cross Lso-free females × Lso B-infected males. While all samples of F^1 progeny from the cross Lso B-infected females × Lso B-infected males. The progenes of Lso was not detected males showed the amplicon for Lso-detection (highlighted as Lso). The positive control of PCR amplification was performed detecting the psyllid 28S ribosomal RNA.