# Persistence of the Mitochondrial Lineage Responsible for the Irish Potato Famine in Extant New World Phytophthora infestans

Michael D. Martin,<sup>\*,1</sup> Simon Y.W. Ho,<sup>2</sup> Nathan Wales,<sup>1</sup> Jean B. Ristaino,<sup>3</sup> and M. Thomas P. Gilbert<sup>1,4</sup> <sup>1</sup>Centre for GeoGenetics, Natural History Museum of Denmark, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark

<sup>2</sup>School of Biological Sciences, University of Sydney, Sydney, New South Wales, Australia

<sup>3</sup>Department of Plant Pathology, North Carolina State University

<sup>4</sup>Trace and Environmental DNA laboratory, Department of Environment and Agriculture, Curtin University, Perth, Western Australia, Australia

\*Corresponding author: E-mail: sameoldmike@gmail.com.

Associate editor: Anne Stone

This project has been deposited at the Dryad repository under the accession doi:10.5061/dryad.4n3d1.

### Abstract

The plant pathogen *Phytophthora infestans* emerged in Europe in 1845, triggering the Irish potato famine and massive European potato crop losses that continued until effective fungicides were widely employed in the 20th century. Today the pathogen is ubiquitous, with more aggressive and virulent strains surfacing in recent decades. Recently, complete *P. infestans* mitogenome sequences from 19th-century herbarium specimens were shown to belong to a unique lineage (HERB-1) predicted to be rare or extinct in modern times. We report 44 additional *P. infestans* mitogenomes: four from 19th-century Europe, three from 1950s UK, and 37 from modern populations across the New World. We use phylogenetic analyses to identify the HERB-1 lineage in modern populations from both Mexico and South America, and to demonstrate distinct mitochondrial haplotypes were present in 19th-century Europe, with this lineage initially diversifying 75 years before the first reports of potato late blight.

Key words: mitogenomics, ancient DNA, evolutionary biology, molecular evolution, pathogens, potato.

Phytophthora infestans (Mont.) de Bary is an oomycete pathogen of potatoes and tomatoes that causes late potato blight (Haas et al. 2009). Known to exist as two mating types (A1 and A2), it can reproduce sexually in regions where they both coexist and clonally when only one type is present (Fry 2008). Although it is clear that the pathogen originated somewhere in the New World, both the species' center of origin and the source of the 19th-century inoculum are debated. Deeply divergent nuclear and mitochondrial lineages are found in South America, but to date, there have been very few observations of the A2 mating type, suggesting sexual reproduction rarely occurs there (Grünwald and Flier 2005; Goméz-Alpizar et al. 2007; Vargas et al. 2009; Cárdenas et al. 2011). In contrast, Mexican populations maintain substantial genetic diversity and are known to harbor both mating types, implying that the origin may be in this region (Fry 2008).

The introduction of *P. infestans* to domestic potato crops in Europe in 1845 triggered massive crop losses, resulting in the Irish potato famine and its associated social and economic destruction (Stevens 1933; Bourke 1964). Initially, a single clonal lineage named US-1, which was globally distributed in the late 20th century, was suspected to be the cause of the "famine-era" outbreaks of *P. infestans* (Goodwin et al. 1994). However, subsequent direct polymerase chain reaction amplification of mitochondrial genes from 19th-century herbarium samples of blight-afflicted potato leaves led to the conclusion that these early historical *P. infestans* all possessed mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) haplotype Ia, whereas US-1 lineage isolates possessed haplotype Ib (Ristaino et al. 2001; May and Ristaino 2004). It was then concluded that another migration must have led to the introduction of the US-1 clonal lineage to the United States and Europe in the 20th century (Ristaino et al. 2013). The US-1 clonal lineage has now been mostly displaced by aggressive and genetically diverse new strains, along with the A2 mating type, introduced from the New World since the mid-1980s (Fry and Goodwin 1997; Fry 2008; Cooke et al. 2012).

Recently, two independent studies reported genomic sequence data from both modern and historical *P. infestans* samples (Martin et al. 2013; Yoshida et al. 2013). These historical samples were derived from leaves of infected herbarium potato samples from Western and Northern Europe, collected between 1845 (the initial outbreak of late potato blight in Europe) and 1889. Both studies concluded that the historical samples were distinct from modern populations at avirulence loci. Furthermore, one of the studies used a reference-guided iterative assembly strategy to produce the first historical-era mitogenome sequences (Yoshida et al. 2013). Using this data set of 13 19th-century mitogenomes, the authors described a new mitochondrial lineage that they named "HERB-1" and made the key observation that this lineage was distinct from the modern la lineage and from all other

<sup>©</sup> The Author 2014. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Society for Molecular Biology and Evolution. All rights reserved. For permissions, please e-mail: journals.permissions@oup.com

lineages (that previously had been characterized using a smaller number of standard mtDNA polymorphisms). As a consequence, the authors hypothesized that today HERB-1 is rare or possibly even extinct. Furthermore, based on the limited number of within-lineage polymorphisms that were observed, Yoshida et al. (2013) argued that HERB-1 was a rapidly evolving clonal genotype stemming from a single introduction into Europe. In contrast, Martin et al. (2013) analyzed nuclear genome data and found several distinct, rapidly evolving lineages of *P. infestans* in the 19th-century samples studied, which suggested multiple early introductions of the pathogen into Europe.

Herein, we report mitogenome sequences of a larger sample of *P. infestans* isolates from across its New World range, including Mexico and South America, as well as four additional 19th-century mitogenomes from Europe, and three mitogenomes from US-1 lineage samples collected in the United Kingdom during the 1950s. Through phylogenetic analyses of these and previously reported mitogenome sequences, we survey the global diversity of *P. infestans*, especially in the context of the historical outbreaks of the 19th and 20th centuries. We conclude by offering insights into the origin of both the species and the 1845 outbreak.

# Results

### Phylogenetic Analyses of Mitogenomes

A maximum-likelihood phylogeny of all well-assembled (table 1, supplementary tables S1 and S2, Supplementary Material online) P. infestans mitogenome sequences was consistent with previous mitogenomic estimates (Avila-Adame et al. 2006; Yoshida et al. 2013) and contained members from lineages already identified (fig. 1). Many of these lineages were well supported, with 100% bootstrap support at the common node of the IIb lineage, 97% support for the IIa lineage, and 94% support for the lb lineage. In addition, our extended data set enabled identification of two novel lineages. One of these lineages principally contains isolates from central Mexico (with the single exception being Ecuador isolate P13346), and the other is a Peruvian lineage closely related to the reference genome IIa that includes isolates PCO038, PCZ033, and PCZ098. Support for the Ia and HERB-1 lineages were somewhat lower than for other lineages (65% and 73%, respectively), and the node representing a common ancestor of these two sister lineages received only 34% support, indicating a relatively close phylogenetic relationship at this resolution.

Consistent with our expectation based on the observations of Yoshida et al. (2013), the HERB-1 lineage contains all additional 19th-century European specimens sequenced in this study (Pi1845A, Pi176, Pi1882, and Pi1889). Of these, Pi1845A, which is the oldest known sample and is believed to have been collected extremely close (both temporally and geographically) to the probable site of initial introduction (Bourke 1964), is basal to all others within the lineage. The HERB-1 lineage was distinct from the lineages containing the reference genomes for modern mtDNA haplotypes Ia and Ib, which were previously implicated as the first and later introductions to Europe, respectively. Although both phylogenies indicate the HERB-1 lineage shares a more recent common ancestor with the la lineage, this relationship is only well supported in the Bayesian phylogeny. Isolates 8140 (Mexico), P7036 (Mexico), and P13346 (Ecuador) were placed within the HERB-1 lineage, thus demonstrating that this lineage is not extinct today and is likely found across the native range of *P. infestans* in the New World.

The samples Kew122, Kew123, and Kew126, derived from infected herbarium leaves collected in the United Kingdom in the 1950s, belong to the US-1 lineage, which contains the reference genome of mtDNA haplotype Ib. Similar findings of Ib haplotypes in early- and mid-20th century herbarium specimens screened for mtDNA SNPs have been reported (Ristaino 2002; May and Ristaino 2004). Interestingly, two more recent 20th-century samples from Mexico (P1362 and P8141) also grouped with the US-1 lineage.

# Bayesian Phylogenetic Analyses and Estimation of Evolutionary Timescale

Using the sample ages as calibrations for the molecular clock, we estimated the evolutionary timescale based on the mitogenome sequences. We confirmed that the sample ages were sufficient for this purpose using a date-randomization analysis (supplementary fig. S1, Supplementary Material online). The estimated coalescence time of all *P. infestans* mitogenomes is 638 years (95% credibility interval: 313–1,022 years), somewhat older than about 460-year estimate of Yoshida et al. (2013), although the 95% credibility intervals overlap (fig. 2). Similarly, the estimated coalescence time of all members of the HERB-1 lineage is 257 years (95% Cl: 193–357 years), also older than the estimate of Yoshida et al. (2013). In this analysis, the la mtDNA lineage is a well-supported sister group to the HERB-1 lineage.

Overall, the Bayesian and maximum-likelihood analyses produced compatible estimates of the phylogeny. As relationships within the HERB-1 lineage are not well supported, the position of the modern New World isolates differed between the two estimates of the phylogeny. In the maximum-likelihood phylogeny, these isolates were basal to all other HERB-1 samples other than Pi1845A, whereas these samples are nested in the lineage in the Bayesian phylogeny. Although support values were higher for many nodes within the maximum-likelihood phylogeny, the clustering of these New World HERB-1 samples is only supported in the Bayesian phylogeny.

### Discussion

The principal finding of this study is that the *P. infestans* HERB-1 lineage is neither extinct nor likely to be particularly rare or geographically limited, given its presence in two Mexican isolates and one from Ecuador. Furthermore, our observation from the Bayesian (and not the maximum like-lihood) phylogenetic analysis that these three modern-day New World isolates cluster with most of the more recent 19th-century historical European samples, with Pi1845A

Table 1. Provenance and Sampling Dates of Phytophthora infestans Samples for Which Novel mtDNA Genomes Were Assembled and Analyzed in This Study.

Isolate ID	Alternative IDs or Species	Host	Location	Date of Isolation or	Tissue Source	Sequence Reads, Sample Source	Genotype and/or mtDNA
Pi1845A	K91	Solanum tuberosum	Audenarde, Belgium	1845	Herbarium	Martin et al. (2013)	HERB-1
Pi1876	UPS 1	S. tuberosum	Skårop, Denmark	1876	Herbarium	Martin et al. (2013)	HERB-1
Pi1882	UPS 2	S. tuberosum	Stockholm, Sweden	1882	Herbarium	Martin et al. (2013)	HERB-1
Pi1889	K 79	S. tuberosum	Germany	1889	Herbarium	Martin et al. (2013)	HERB-1
Kew126		S. tuberosum	Britain	1952	Herbarium	This report	Ib
Kew122		S. tuberosum	Britain	1955	Herbarium	This report	Ib
Kew123		S. tuberosum	Ireland	1955	Herbarium	This report	Ib
P6636	PD_01096, Spelman 618		Toluca, MX	1980s	Mycelium	This report	la
P8844	Hohl, Pineda 151	S. tuberosum	Peru	1982	Mycelium	This report	Ib
P3681	Tooley 529	S. tuberosum	Mexico	1983	Mycelium	This report	la
P3683	Tooley 550	S. stoloniferum	Mexico	1983	Mycelium	This report	la
P3685	Tooley 533	S. tuberosum	Mexico	1983	Mycelium	This report	la
P6629	Tooley 511	S. tuberosum	Mexico	1983	Mycelium	This report; Peter Tooley	la
P6634	PD_02383, Speil543		Mexico	1983	Mycelium	This report; Linda Speilman	la
P7036	Goodwin 575	S. tuberosum	Central Mexico	1986	Mycelium	This report; Steve Goodwin	HERB-1
P8140	PD_01946 , P15103, Fry 572		Central Mexico	1986	Mycelium	This report	HERB-1
P6635	PD_02388, Fry 580		Toluca, MX	1986	Mycelium	This report	la
P8141	Fry 616		Central Mexico	1987	Mycelium	This report	Ib
P8143	PD_01949, P15154, Fry 619		Central Mexico	1987	Mycelium	This report	la
P8144	Fry 622		Central Mexico	1987	Mycelium	This report	la
T30-4		S. tuberosum	Netherlands	1988	Mycelium	Raffaele et al. (2010)	la
P6570	Davidse 89018, P570		Netherlands	1989	Mycelium	This report; Davidse	la
P6515	CIP 27, PD_00883, Fry 543	S. tuberosum	Peru	1989	Mycelium	This report; Greg Forbes	Ib
P6750	Goodwin 586	S. tuberosum	Saltillo, Mexico	1989	Mycelium	This report	lla
P6752	Goodwin 606	S. tuberosum	Saltillo, Mexico	1989	Mycelium	This report	lla
90128		S. tuberosum	Netherlands	1990	Mycelium	Raffaele et al. (2010)	la
PHU006		S. tuberosum	Peru	1996	Mycelium	This report	EC-1, lla
PIC97207		S. tuberosum	Mexico	1997	Mycelium	This report	la
PIC97605		S. tuberosum	Mexico	1997	Mycelium	This report	la
PIC97630		S. tuberosum	Mexico	1997	Mycelium	This report	la
PCO038		S. tuberosum	Peru	1997	Mycelium	This report; Greg Forbes	EC-1, lla
PCZ026		S. tuberosum	Peru	1997	Mycelium	This report	PE-6, Ila
PCZ033		S. tuberosum	Peru	1997	Mycelium	This report; Greg Forbes	EC1.2, Ila
PCZ050		S. tuberosum	Peru	1997	Mycelium	This report; Greg Forbes	PE-3, la
PCZ098		S. tuberosum	Peru	1997	Mycelium	This report; Greg Forbes	EC1.3, Ila
PIC98372			Mexico	1998	Mycelium	This report	la
P13198	CIP3198 tuq	S. tuquerrense	Napo, Ecuador	1998	Mycelium	This report	EC-1, lla
P10650	MX980099	S. tuberosum	Toluca, Mexico	1998	Mycelium	This report	la
PIC99189		S. stoloniferum	Mexico	1999	Mycelium	Raffaele et al. (2010)	la
P13346	CIP3346 col	S. colombianum	Napo, Ecuador	2001	Mycelium	This report; David Cooke	HERB-1
P13873	CIP 3873	S. tuberosum	Cañar, Ecuador	2005	Mycelium	This report	lla
BL2009P4	PA112	S. tuberosum	PA	2009	Mycelium	Martin et al. (2013)	US-23. la
IN2009T1	PA114	S. tuberosum	PA	2009	Mycelium	Martin et al. (2013)	US-22, la
RS2009P1	PA117	S. tuberosum	РА	2009	Mycelium	Martin et al. (2013)	US-8. la

NOTE.—PA, Pennsylvania.

and Pi1876 (dating to 1845 and 1876, respectively) basal to all other HERB-1 isolates, provides some evidence that the HERB-1 mitogenomes had diverged prior to their introduction to Europe. Two further sources of evidence support this conclusion. First, the estimated age of the most recent common ancestor of the HERB-1 lineage is 257 years (95%

Cl: 193-357 years), thus prior to the first reports of late blight in both the United States (1843; Stevens 1933) and Europe (1845; Bourke 1964) and 75 years prior to the 182-year best estimate of Yoshida et al. (2013). This difference is probably due to our inclusion of more divergent and older samples from 19th-century Europe. Moreover, our estimate of the Downloaded from http://mbe.oxfordjournals.org/ at D H Hill Library - Acquis Dept S on May 30, 2014



Fig. 1. Maximum-likelihood estimate of the mitogenome phylogeny of *Phytophthora infestans* and close relatives from *Phytophthora* clade 1c. *Phytophthora infestans* reference genomes (la, lb, lla, and llb) were included in the alignment for illustrative purposes (bold sample labels). Shaded circles at nodes indicate the support from 100 bootstrap replicates: black, 90–100%; gray, 80–90%; white, 50–80%. Colored circles on the right indicate sampling location and correspond to the world map (inset). Sample labels in red for 19th-century samples, blue for 1950s samples, and black for modern isolates and reference genomes. The tree is rooted using the two *P. mirabilis* isolates PIC99114 and P7722 as outgroups. Gray shading highlights major clades that are well supported in this analysis. Scale bar indicates a branch length of 0.0009 substitutions per site.

evolutionary rate is conservatively high because there are various factors that can cause the elevation of rates when they are calibrated using sample ages (Gibbs et al. 2010; Ho et al. 2011). If the actual evolutionary rate is lower than that estimated in our analysis, then the most recent common ancestor of the HERB-1 lineage would be even older. Second, Pi1845A, which is recognized as deriving from the very first outbreak in 19th-century Europe and is likely the oldest sample analyzed in this study, is clearly basal (as opposed to ancestral) to the other members of HERB-1 in both phylogenetic analyses.

Highly supported structure within the HERB-1 lineage indicates that multiple distinct mitogenome haplotypes were present in 19th-century Europe, a situation compatible with either multiple introductions of different haplotypes or a single introduction containing multiple haplotypes. These observations are consistent with the hypothesis of Martin et al. (2013), based on nuclear genome polymorphisms differentiating 19th-century *P. infestans* strains, and do not support the conclusions drawn by Yoshida et al. (2013) from a more limited data set.

Whether multiple HERB-1 mitogenomes were present in 19th-century Europe as a result of multiple introduction events, as opposed to a single introduction containing multiple HERB-1 haplotypes, remains uncertain. We note, however, that the la and HERB-1 mtDNA lineages (both formerly type Ia) show some phylogenetic resolution at the sublineage level and appear to have radiated several times. Mexican samples are basal to the la lineage in both phylogenetic analyses, suggesting migration of la out of Mexico in recent times. However, given the lack of robust, relevant phylogeographic structure within the tree, we believe our data demonstrate that further work is needed to resolve the long-debated question (Grünwald and Flier 2005; Fry 2008; Gómez-Alpizar et al. 2007; Birch and Cooke 2013) as to whether the 19th century P. infestans outbreaks were derived from introductions sourced in Mexico versus South America. Although historical evidence of movement of potatoes supports the latter



Fig. 2. Bayesian phylogeny of assembled *Phytophthora infestans* mitogenome sequences from dated collections. Major mtDNA clades are highlighted and labeled. Node bars represent 95% credibility intervals for estimates of node ages. Note that the 95% CI of the root node bar extends to 987 AD, but the bar is truncated. Shaded circles at nodes indicate the node posterior probabilities: black, 90–100%; gray, 80–90%; and white, 50–80%. The red arrow indicates the first report of late blight in Europe in 1845, whereas the black arrow indicates the median estimated age for the HERB-1 lineage. BE, Belgium; CA, Canada; DK, Denmark; DR, Germany; EC, Ecuador; MX, Mexico; NL, Netherlands; PE, Peru; SA, South Africa; SE, Sweden.

possibility (Bourke 1964), a paucity of South American isolates in mtDNA lineages closely related to HERB-1 points to an introduction from Mexico.

Our study further sheds light onto the origins of the US-1 lineage (containing the reference genome for mtDNA

haplotype Ib), represented in our data by nine samples, including three derived from infected herbarium leaves collected in the United Kingdom in the 1950s (Kew122, Kew123, and Kew126). Although this lineage originally was proposed as the causative agent of the 19th-century potato

blight outbreaks (Goodwin et al. 1994), this hypothesis was subsequently disproven (Ristaino et al. 2001). Our analysis shows that the introduction of this lineage to Europe must have occurred before 1952, and is consistent with the identification of the US-1 lineage in Southeast Asia and China from herbarium samples collected in the early part of the 20th century (Ristaino and Hu 2009). We also note that this lineage existed in Europe with considerable substructure. In the Bayesian phylogeny, Kew126 (collected 1952) clusters with one group of more modern Mexican and South American isolates, whereas Kew122 and Kew123 (both collected 1955) cluster with another group of New World and introduced isolates. Although both Mexican and Peruvian isolates belong to the US-1 lineage, the lineage has been found more commonly in South America than in Mexico (Grünwald and Flier 2005). Neither the Bayesian nor the maximum likelihood analyses support an emergence of the US-1 mtDNA lineage from the HERB-1 lineage as suggested in a recent review (Birch and Cooke 2013). In our BEAST analysis, the la mtDNA lineage is a well-supported sister group to the HERB-1 lineage, suggesting that they shared a common ancestor more recently than did HERB-1 and the lb lineage (fig. 2).

Indeed, we report the presence of most of the identified lineages in South American and Mexican populations. Thus, lacking any clear phylogeographic structure, we cannot contribute substantially to the open question of whether the P. infestans species complex originated in Mexico or South America and conclude that this question is unlikely to be resolved using mitochondrial data alone. Interestingly, the most divergent mtDNA lineages (type II), basal to all others, are from South America, further supporting previous observations that the earliest measurable evolutionary divergence within this species (separating the type I and II mtDNA lineages) occurred in South America (Avilia-Adame et al. 2006; Goméz-Alpizar et al. 2007). It should be noted that this deepest divergence in the P. infestans mitogenome tree is dated at 638 years (95% Cl: 313-1,022 years), which, as implied by Yoshida et al. (2013), is recent enough that human-mediated movement of potato tubers from South America to Mexico is a possible factor (Salaman 1949). Increased resolution of the phylogeny through detailed sampling of the P. infestans lineages of the South American Andes could answer this open question.

# **Supplementary Material**

Supplementary tables S1 and S2 and figure S1 are available at *Molecular Biology and Evolution* online (http://www.mbe. oxfordjournals.org/).

# Acknowledgments

M.D.M., N.W., and J.B.R. performed DNA extractions. M.D.M. and N.W. prepared Illumina libraries. M.D.M. and S.Y.W.H. analyzed the data. M.D.M. wrote the paper with contributions from all authors. M.T.P.G. and J.B.R. contributed equally as senior authors of this study. This work was supported by Lundbeck Foundation grant R52-5062 to M.T.P.G. and United States Department of Agriculture National Institute of Food and Agriculture grant #2011-68004-30154 to J.B.R. The authors thank Mike Coffey, Niklaus Grünwald, and Greg Forbes for initially providing many of the cultures. They also thank Soledad Gamboa at C.I.P. Peru for helping to identify isolate sources and Amanda Saville for valuable technical assistance. They are grateful to the herbaria at the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, England (K), for granting generous access to their specimens. Finally, they thank the staff of the Danish National High-Throughput DNA Sequencing Center for their services.

## References

Avila-Adame C, Gómez-Alpizar L, Zismann V, Jones KM, Buell CR, Ristaino JB. 2006. Mitochondrial genome sequences and molecular evolution of the Irish potato famine pathogen, *Phytophthora infestans. Curr Genet.* 49:39–46.

Birch PRJ, Cooke DEL. 2013. The early days of late blight. *eLife* 2:e00954. Bourke PM. 1964. Emergence of potato blight. *Nature* 203:805–808.

- Cárdenas M, Grajales A, Sierra R, Rojas A, González-Almario A, Vargas A, Marín M, Fermín G, Lagos LE, Grünwald NJ, et al. 2011. Genetic diversity of *Phytophthora infestans* in the Northern Andean region. *BMC Genetics* 12:23.
- Cooke DEL, Cano LM, Raffaele S, Bain RA, Cooke LR, Etherington GJ, Deahl KL, Farrer RA, Gilroy EM, Goss EM, et al. 2012. Genome analyses of an aggressive and invasive lineage of the Irish potato famine pathogen. *PLoS Pathog.* 8:e1002940.
- Fry W. 2008. Phytophthora infestans: the plant (and R gene) destroyer. Mol Plant Pathol. 9:385-402.
- Fry W, Goodwin SB. 1997. Resurgence of the Irish potato famine fungus. *BioScience* 4:363-371.
- Gibbs AJ, Fargette D, García-Arenal F, Gibbs MJ. 2010. Time—the emerging dimension of plant virus studies. J Gen Virol. 91:13-22.
- Goméz-Alpizar L, Carbone I, Ristaino JB. 2007. An Andean origin for *Phytophthora infestans* inferred from nuclear and mitochondrial DNA sequences. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 104:3306–3311.
- Goodwin SB, Cohen BA, Deahl KL, Fry WE. 1994. Migration from Northern Mexico as the probable cause of recent genetic changes in populations of *Phytophthora infestans* in the United States and Canada. *Phytopathology* 84:553–558.
- Grünwald NJ, Flier WG. 2005. The biology of Phytophthora infestans at its center of origin. Annu Rev Phytopathol. 43:171–190.
- Haas BJ, Kamoun S, Zody MC, Jiang RH, Handsaker RE, Cano LM, Grabherr M, Kodira CD, Raffaele S, Torto-Alalibo T, et al. 2009. Genome sequence and analysis of the Irish potato famine pathogen *Phytophthora infestans. Nature* 461:393–398.
- Ho SYW, Lanfear R, Phillips MJ, Barnes I, Thomas JA, Kolokotronis S-O, Shapiro B. 2011. Bayesian estimation of substitution rates from ancient DNA sequences with low information content. Syst Biol. 60: 366–375.
- Martin MD, Cappellini E, Samaniego JA, Zepeda ML, Campos PF, Seguin-Orlando A, Wales N, Orlando L, Ho SY, Dietrich FS, et al. 2013. Reconstructing genome evolution in historic samples of the Irish potato famine pathogen. *Nat Commun.* 4:2172.
- May KJ, Ristaino JB. 2004. Identity of the mtDNA haplotype(s) of *Phytophthora infestans* in historical specimens from the Irish potato famine. *Mycol Res.* 108:471–479.
- Raffaele S, Farrer RA, Cano LM, Studholme DJ, MacLean D, Thines M, Jiang RH, Zody MC, Kunjeti SG, Donofrio NM, et al. 2010. Genome evolution following host jumps in the Irish potato famine lineage. *Science* 330:1540–1543.
- Ristaino JB. 2002. Tracking historic migrations of the Irish potato famine Pathogen Phytophthora infestans. Microbes Infect. 4:1369–1377.
- Ristaino JB, Groves CT, Parra G. 2001. PCR amplification of the Irish potato famine pathogen from historic specimens. *Nature* 41: 695–697.
- Ristaino JB, Hu C. 2009. DNA sequence analysis of the late-blight pathogen gives clues to the world-wide migration. *Acta Horticult.* 834: 27–40.

- Ristaino JB, Hu CH, Fitt BDL 2013. Evidence for presence of the founder la mtDNA haplotype of *Phytophthora infestans* in 19th century potato tubers from the Rothamsted archives. *Plant Pathol.* 62: 492–500.
- Salaman RN. 1949. The history and social influence of the potato. London (UK): Cambridge University Press. p. 685.
- Stevens NE. 1933. The dark ages in plant pathology in America: 1830-1870. J Wash Acad Sci. 23:435-446.
- Vargas AM, Quesada Ocampo LM, Céspedes MC, Carreño N, González A, Rojas A, Zuluaga AP, Myers K, Fry WE, Jiménez P, et al. 2009. Characterization of *Phytophthora infestans* populations in Colombia: first report of the A2 mating type. *Phytopathology* 99:82–88.
- Yoshida K, Schuenemann VJ, Cano LM, Pais M, Mishra B, Sharma R, Lanz C, Martin FN, Kamoun S, Krause J, et al. 2013. The rise and fall of the *Phytophthora infestans* lineage that triggered the Irish potato famine. *eLife* 2:e00731.