



Research article

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF *PHYTOPHTHORA PALMIVORA* IN DIFFERENT OLIVE GROWING REGIONS IN MOROCCO

Mohamed Chliyah¹, Youssef Rhimini¹, Karima Selmaoui¹, Amina Ouazzani Touhami¹, Abdelkarim Filali-Maltouf², Cherkaoui El Modafar³, Abdelmajid Moukhli⁴, Ahmed Oukabli⁵, Rachid Benkirane¹, and Allal Douira¹

¹Laboratoire de Botanique et de Protection des Plantes, UFR de Mycologie, Département de Biologie, Faculté des sciences BP, 133, Université Ibn Tofail, Kenitra, Maroc ; ² Laboratoire de Microbiologie et Biologie Moléculaire, Faculté des Sciences, Université Mohammed V Agdal, Av Ibn Batouta, BP 1014 Rabat, Maroc; ³ Laboratoire de Biotechnologie, Valorisation et Protection des Agroressources, Faculté des sciences et techniques Guéliz, B.P. 618, 40 000 Marrakech, Maroc; ⁴ UR, Amélioration génétique des plantes, Institut national de la Recherche agronomique F- 40 000 Marrakech, Maroc; ⁵ Institut national de la Recherche agronomique, Amélioration des plantes et Conservation des ressources phytogénétiques CRRA, BP 578, Meknès, Maroc.

ABSTRACT. *Phytophthora palmivora*, causative agent of olive wilting was searched during the spring 2012 and summer 2013 in different olive-growing regions of Morocco: Meknès, Souk Larbaa, Kénitra, Sefrou, Ouazzane, Marrakech (Azouzia, Aataouia, Ait Aourir, Sraghna, Tamnsourt, Jaidate, Tassaout...) and in the nurseries of Sidi Taibi. It was isolated from the roots and stems of olive plants and trees growing in nurseries and in the fields of different regions with varying percentages: Souk Larbaa (85 %), Sidi Taibi nurseries (73.6%), Aattaouia (64%), Jaidate (47 %), Sraghna (40 %) and Tassaout (32 %). The importance and the origin of this disease have been discussed in this study.

Keywords: *Phytophthora palmivora*, Olive tree, Morocco, Souk Larbaa, Sidi Taibi, Aattaouia, Jaidate, Sraghna, Tassaout.

INTRODUCTION

Olive-tree (*Olea europaea* L.) is one of the most ancient domesticated fruit trees and the most extensively cultivated fruit crop in the world [18]. The olive is native of the Mediterranean region, tropical and central Asia and various parts of Africa. *O. europaea* may have been cultivated independently in two places, Crete and Syria. Archaeological evidences suggest that olives were being grown in Crete as long ago as 2,500 B.C. From Crete and Syria, olives spread to Greece, Rome and other parts of the Mediterranean area. Olives are also commercially cultivated in California, Australia and South Africa [34]. It is concentrated between latitudes 30°–45° at both the northern and southern hemispheres in Mediterranean-type climatic regions. Thus, 97% of the global cultivation area (approximately 10.5 millions ha) is located in the Mediterranean Basin, 0.8% in the Americas, 1.5% in Asia and 0.01% in Oceania [19]. Morocco occupies the 4th place behind Spain, Italy, Greece [2], with an olive-growing area that amounts to 784 000 ha [25], with a production of 1,483,510 tons of olives per year [2]. Plus, it actively contributes to the establishment of the rural population by creating more than 11 million working days [32]. 5.6% of the global area [33] distributed on three main zones: the Rif (Taounate Chefchaoune), the center (Fez, Meknès, Taza) and the south (Haouz, Tadla and coastal region between Safi and Essaouira) [23]. In Morocco, the olive trees cultivation knows several problems related to pests and diseases [51] and to a various environmental stress under a Mediterranean climate, characterized by long drought periods [27]. One of the important foliar diseases affecting olive trees in humid regions in the world is peacock spot disease caused by *Cycloconium oleaginum*, also known as olive leaf spot and bird's-eye spot [47], *Verticillium dahliae* responsible to defoliation and wilting of olive trees and death of young trees [48], *Fusarium solani* that provokes the root rots to the olive trees [38] and *Phytophthora palmivora* that provokes leaf chlorosis, defoliation, wilting and twig dieback in the olive plants [7].

Phytophthora and other oomycetous micro-organisms were long included within the fungi, but today, because of evolutionary phylogeny and structure of biflagellate zoospores, they are grouped in the kingdom Chromista, which includes e.g. brown algae [3, 17]. At least 60–80 *Phytophthora* species has been described and most of them are soil-borne pathogens causing damping off, root rot, collar and stem rot and foliar blight on different woody plant species [28]. *Phytophthora* species have limited saprophytic ability and do not grow and compete in soil with other microorganisms [17]. Most *Phytophthora* species attack only healthy, intact plant tissue or freshly made wounds and do not invade plant tissue previously invaded by other microorganisms; that is, they are primary, not secondary, invaders [17]. *Phytophthora* species are responsible for most of the crown rots of woody plants. Tsao [46] argues that if 90 % of the crown disease of woody plants is attributable to *Phytophthora*. *Phytophthora palmivora* is a ubiquitous pathogen causing many different diseases on a wide range of plants. The pathogen is believed to have originated in Southeast Asia but is now pantropical. It causes significant losses to farmers of tropical fruit and vegetable crops [15]. *P. palmivora* infects more than 200 species of ornamental, shade and hedge plants, mostly from tropical areas. In Argentina, for instance, *P. palmivora* was first recorded in *Citrus* spp. in 1937 [29]. One of the most common tropical species is *P. palmivora*, with more than 150 plant hosts. Some of the most important hosts are Citrus (Zitko et al., 1991), black pepper (*Piper nigrum*), rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis*), durian (*Durio zibethinus*), coconut (*Cocos nucifera*), cocoa (*Theobroma cacao*), breadfruit (*Artocarpus altilis*), African oil palm (*Elaeis guineensis*) in Colombia (Torres et al., 2010) and papaya (*Carica papaya*). In American Samoa, the last three hosts are attacked by *P. palmivora* [26]. Concerning olive tree, this fungi attacks young olive trees in southern Spain and causes wilt or dieback and death (Sanchez Hernandez et al., 1998), pathogen of olive tree in Italy that provoked leaf chlorosis, defoliation, wilting, twig dieback and eventual plant collapse associating the symptoms with the root rot [5], same symptoms on young olive trees in Sicily [30].

The objective of this study was to know the geographical distribution of *Phytophthora palmivora* in the olive regions of Morocco and to discuss the importance and the gravity of this responsible fungus of the olive wilting.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Surveys were conducted in different olive regions of Morocco exactly in Meknès, Souk Larbaa, Kénitra, Sefrou, Ouazzane, some olive fields in Marrakech province (Azouzia, Aataouia, Ait Aourir, Sraghna, Tamnsourt, Jaidate, Tassaout ...) and in some nurseries in Sidi Taibi during the spring 2012- summer 2013 (Figure 1).

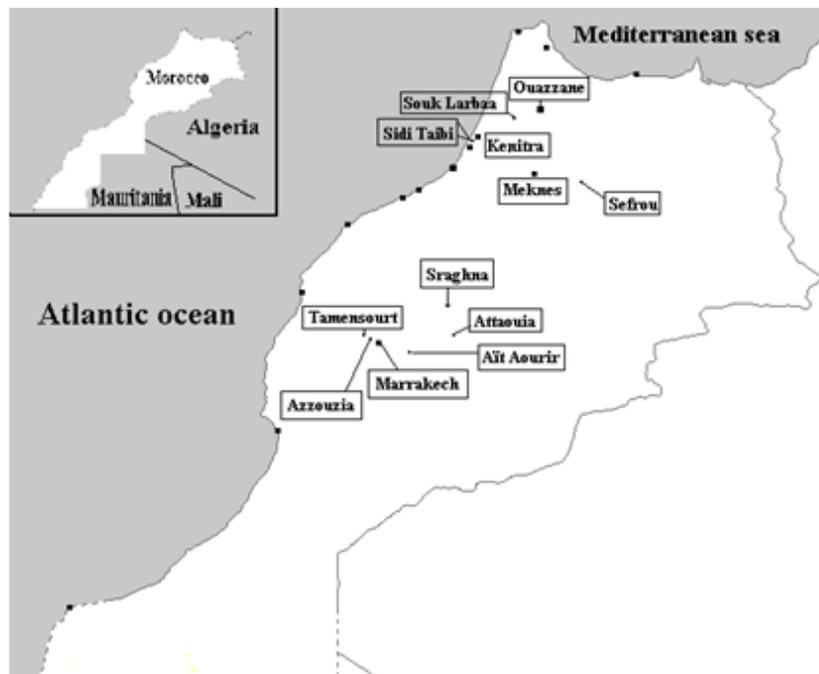


Figure 1: Geographical locality map of the studied sites in Morocco.

Olive Stems showing symptoms of the disease thus the roots of attacked trees were sampled and returned to the laboratory for analysis. Isolation of fungal species was realized on the roots and the stems of the olive trees showing decline, leaf chlorosis and wilting symptoms (Figure 2). The samples were cut into small pieces, washed with water, disinfected with alcohol for five minutes, put on sterile distilled water and then dried with sterile filter paper. Then, they were put on PSA agar plates (Potato Sucrose Agar: 200 g potato, 20 g sucrose, 15 g Agar-agar, and 1000 ml distilled water) and incubated on darkness at 28 °C.

Isolation percentage (Pi %) was obtained by applying the following formula:

$$Pi = N_sX / N_T \times 100$$

N_sX : Number of segments containing the fungal species X

N_T : Total number of used segments.



Figure 2. Leaf chlorosis, defoliation, wilting and twig symptoms on the olive tree.

On the PSA plates, some colonies appeared four to six days later on the segments of stems and roots of the diseased olive trees. The observation of different cultures and fragments under the optical microscope has allowed us to identify the fungal species by using the identification keys of Gilman [22], Tarr [43], Ellis [16], Chidambaram [8], Domsch [14], Ho [24], Champion [6], Cacciola [5], Lucero [29] and Gallegly and Hong [20].

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We have noted that in the field that the attacked Olive trees by *Phytophthora* can be distinguished from other through out the year. They have less dense foliage and relatively small leaves, as a result of prolonged drought. Indeed, at the end of April, leaves of the affected branches change their color; they take a dull green color and curl longitudinally towards the underside. Then, the color changes to brown and green to brown. A month and a half after the first few events, the leaves dry up and remain attached to branches for long. The stem of affected parts gradually takes the yellow-brown color, buds become mummified and fall at the slightest touch and the symptoms always evolve in end of the branches to the trunk of the tree. The isolations results showed that on the PSA plates, some colonies appeared four days later on the stems and roots segments of the diseased olive trees (Figure 3 A and B). *P. palmivora* morphological characterization showed that all isolates produced papillate sporangia on the soil extract medium (Figure 3c), which were ellipsoid to ovoid with a length of 15 to 20.1 µm and a larger of 11 to 13µm. Some isolates produced subglobose, non-papillate sporangia and abundant chlamydospores, sexual forms were absent (heterothallic species).

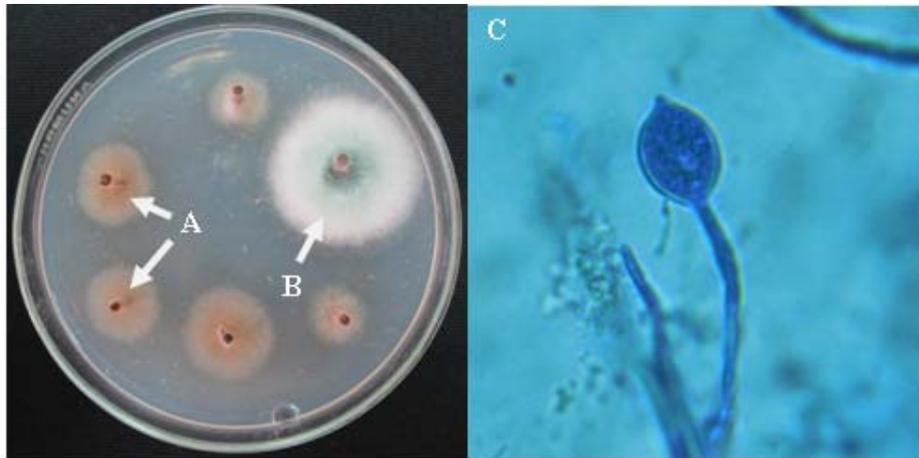


Figure 3. *Phytophthora palmivora* (A), *Penicillium* sp. (B) isolated from the olives stem segments on PSA agar; (C): Papillate sporangia of *P. palmivora*.

Phytophthora palmivora was widespread in six regions with different isolations percentages (Table 1). Souk Larbaa was the station where *P. palmivora* existed more (85 %), followed by the nurseries of Sidi Taibi (73.6 %), Aattaouia (64 %) and Jaidate (47 %). *P. palmivora* existed in the region of Tassaout with the lowest isolation percentage (32 %). Several species were isolated with *P. palmivora* (Table 1); *Alternaria alternata* was widespread in the all location sites (13 % in Aattaouia and 37 % in Sraghna). Other species were isolated in different regions: *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* (10.33%) and *Circinella* sp. (4%) in Tassaout, *Ulocladium* sp. (13%) in Jaidate and *Penicillium* (10%) in Sraghna (Figure 3 B). The disease may it was introduced in the different regions through the circulation of infected plants. In fact, olive plants in the nurseries of Sidi Taibi are attacked with the pathogen and probably farmers provide olive plants from these nurseries. In the region of Marrakech, cultivated olive varieties are diversified addition to the Moroccan Picholine. We find other varieties imported from other countries. The disease can be introduced from these varieties after incubation periods of development and multiplication necessary to produce inoculum for the appearance of the disease. Lucero [29] have reported that *P. palmivora* may be introduced in Argentina from olive varieties cultivated in the Mediterranean region.

Table 1. Isolation percentage of *Phytophthora palmivora* and of other fungal species

Regions Fungal species	Aattaouia	Jaidate	Tassaout	Sidi Taibi (nurseries)	Souk Larbaa	Sraghna
<i>Phytophthora palmivora</i>	64 ^c	47 ^d	32 ^e	73.6 ^b	85 ^a	40 ^d
<i>Alternaria alternata</i>	13 ^b	33 ^a	25 ^a	24.6 ^a	15 ^b	37 ^a
<i>Colletotrichum gloeosporioides</i>	-	-	10.33 ^a	-	-	-
<i>Ulocladium</i> sp.	-	13 ^a	-	-	-	-
<i>Circinella</i> sp.	-	-	4 ^a	-	-	-
<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	-	-	-	-	-	10.11 ^a

Numbers in the same line followed by the same letter (a, b, c, d) are significantly different at the 5% level of significance.

Phytophthora palmivora is known as a pathogenic agent of Citrus, notably in Japan [44], in Florida [49] and in Egypt [1]. But in Morocco, *P. palmivora* had never been reported on Citrus. We can also admit that the primary inoculum is already present in the soil, especially in parcels containing both olive and Citrus. This inoculum, probably constituted of non-pathogenic strains against olive, may subsequently present adaptation faculties on the olive tree. In fact, the ability to adapt to a new culture is known in *Verticillium dahliae* [12, 13]. This hypothesis seems to be very important if we consider the absence of the disease in the olive groves of Sefrou, Meknes and Ouazzane. Indeed, these regions are not known by Citrus cultivation. To verify this hypothesis, it is so important to realize some isolations of *Phytophthora palmivora* from olive tree and Citrus cultivate in the same parcels.

As with all cryptogamic diseases, field dissemination of olive wilting due to *P. palmivora* depends on the extent of the sites where the parasite survives or multiplies, on the abundance of primary and secondary inoculum in these sites, on factors which ensure their effectiveness as sources of contamination, and on vectors of the reproductive organs of the parasite. The pathogen is disseminated through rain splash, insects and human activity into the canopy of trees, where symptoms appear. Secondary inoculum spreads rapidly through wind and rain splash, contact and vector activity in humid weather [15]. Muller [35] reported that the secondary inoculum of cocoa black pod caused by *Phytophthora palmivora* is triggered once the wet season begins. In the case of the olive trees, zoospores may scatter on to healthy olive roots through the impact of rain drops falling on diseased olive trees or on the ground which acts as a reservoir of the parasite.

The control of this fungus, based on agronomic, genetic and chemical measures [9, 10, 21, 42] is difficult and frequently ineffective. The failure of the control measures may be due to combinations of high density and virulence of the inoculum [4], the ability of the fungus to rapidly increase its population in the presence of rainfall or irrigation [39], and to select strains resistant to fungicides [36, 37, 40] or able to overcome the genetic resistance introduced to the commercial lines.

CONCLUSION

The geographic distribution of *Phytophthora palmivora* the causal agent of wilting, dieback and leaf chlorosis of the olive trees was widespread in different regions in the Moroccan olive fields as in the nurseries. In the long-term, it may constitute a real danger to this culture and to other cultures. So, due to the severe symptoms and the increasing incidence recorded; *P. palmivora* should be considered as a potential threat to olive cultivation and nurseries in Morocco that it must be controlled. The inoculum may be present from the start strains that were subsequently shown difference in details of adaptation to the climatic and cultural conditions in different regions of Morocco. Or, non pathogen strains that developed some faculties of adaptation to the olive trees.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was conducted under the project 'Rhizolive: Selection and use of soil rhizospheric microorganisms to optimize the arbuscular mycorrhization of the olive tree in Morocco's soils funded by Hassan II Academy of sciences and technology.

REFERENCES

- [1] Ahmed Y., D'Onghia A. M., Ippolito A., Yaseen T., 2014. First Report of Citrus Root Rot Caused by *Phytophthora palmivora* in Egypt. Plant disease. 98 (1): 155 pp.
- [2] Anonymous, 2012. "FAOSTAT," FAO Statistics Division 2012. <http://faostat.fao.org/site/339/default.aspx>.
- [3] Baldauf SL, Roger AJ, Wenk-Siefert L & Doolittle WF 2000. A kingdom-level phylogeny of eukaryotes based on combined protein data. Science 290: 972–977.
- [4] Bowers J.H., Mitchell D.J., 1991. Relationship between inoculum level of *Phytophthora capsici* and mortality of pepper. Phytopathology 81(2): 178-184.
- [5] Cacciola SO, Agosteo GE, and A Pane A. 2000. First Report of *Phytophthora palmivora* as a pathogen of olive in Italy. Plant disease 84 (10): 1153.
- [6] Champion R., 1997. Identifier les champignons transmis par les semences. INRA, Paris, 398 p.
- [7] Chliyeh M., Ouazzani Touhami A., Filali-Maltouf A., El Modafar C., Moukhli A., Oukabli A., Benkirane R., and Douira A., 2013. *Phytophthora palmivora*: A New Pathogen of Olive Trees in Morocco. Atlas Journal of Biology, 2 (2):130–135.
- [8] Chidambaram P., Mathur S. B. and Neergaard P., 1974. Identification of seed-borne Drechslera species. Handbook on Seed Health Testing, series 2 B (3): 165-207.
- [9] Clerjeau M., Beyriès A., 1977. Etude comparée de l'action préventive et du pouvoir systémique de quelques fongicides nouveaux (phosphites – prothiocarbal – pyroxychlore) sur poivron vis-à-vis de *Phytophthora capsici* Leon. Phytologie-Phytopharmacie 26(1): 73-84.
- [10] Della Pietà S., Gebert H., Stanich I., 1980. Nuove prospettive per la difesa del peperone dalla *Phytophthora capsici* mediante l'impiego del RidomilÒ. Atti Giornate Fitopatologiche 2: 241-247.
- [11] Douira A. et Lahlou H., 1989. Variabilité de la spécificité parasitaire chez *Verticillium albo-atrum* Rinke et Berthold, forme à microsclérotos. Cryptogamie Mycologie, 10 : 19-32.
- [12] Douira A., Benkirane R., Ouazzani Touhami A., Okeke B., and El Haloui N.E., 1995. *Verticillium* wilt of pepper (*Capsicum annum*) in Morocco. J. Phytopathology, 143 : 467-470.

- [13] Douira A., 2003. Effet des rotations culturales sur l'agressivité de *Verticillium dahliae*. Al Awamia, 107 : 77-85.
- [14] Domsch K. H., Games W. and Anderson T. H., 1980. Compendium of soil fungi, Volume 1. Academic Press, New York, 859 p.
- [15] Drenth, Guest (2004) Diversity and Management of *Phytophthora* in Southeast Asia. ACIAR Monograph No. 114, 238p.
- [16] Ellis M.B., 1971. Dematiaceous Hyphomycetes. Kew, England: Commonwealth Mycological Institute Mycological Institute, 608 p.
- [17] Erwin D.C., Ribeiro O.K., 1996. *Phytophthora* diseases worldwide American Phytopathological Society Press. St. Paul. MN, USA.
- [18] Fabbri A, Lambaradi M, and Tokatli Y.O., 2009. Olive breeding in breeding plantation tree crops: Tropical species. Springer New York pp. 423-465.
- [19] FAO, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2008. <http://www.fao.org/corp/statistics/en/>
- [20] Gallegly ME and Hong CX, 2008. *Phytophthora*: Identifying species with morphology and DNA fingerprints. American Phytopathology Society Press, 158 pp ST. Paul, MN, USA.
- [21] Garibaldi A., Belletti C., Basoccu L., 1975. L'impiego dell'innesto nella lotta contro la "cancrena pedale" del peperone. Atti Giornate Fitopatologiche: 533-536.
- [22] Gilman C. J., 1957. A manual of soil fungi, Second Edition. The Iowa State College Press-Ames, Iowa, U.S.A., 452 p.
- [23] Herzenni, 2003. "Enjeux de la GPI au Maroc," Communication pour la réunion de coordination INRA-IFPRI-IWMI. In Nemmaoui Texte.
- [24] Ho HH 1992. Keys to the species of *Phytophthora* in Taiwan. Plant Pathol. Bull. 1: 104-109.
- [25] IOOC, 2008. (International Olive Council), "Olive Products Market Report Summary", vol. 30, pp. 1-3.
- [26] Irwin D.C. & Ribeiro O.K. 1996. *Phytophthora* Diseases Worldwide. St Paul, Minnesota, USA, APS Press.
- [27] Khabou W., Ben Amar F., Rekik H., Bekhir M., and Tourir A., 2009. Performance evaluation of olive trees irrigated by treated wastewater. Desalination Journal, 248, 8-15.
- [28] Lilja A., Kokkola M., Hantula J., and Parrikka P., 2005. *Phytophthora* spp. a new threat to tree seedlings and trees. Forest pathology research in Nordic and Baltic countries. Proceedings from the SNS meeting in Forest Pathology at Skogbrukets Kurisinstittut.
- [29] Lucero G, Vettraino AM, Pizzuolo P, Di Stefano C, and A Vannini, 2006. First report of *Phytophthora palmivora* on olive trees in Argentina. New Disease Reports 14: 32.
- [30] Lo Giudice V, Raudino F, Magnano Di San Lio R, Cacciola SO, Faedda R, and A Pane (2010) First report of a decline and wilt of young olive trees caused by simultaneous infections of *Verticillium dahliae* and *Phytophthora palmivora* in Sicily. Plant Disease 94 (11): 1372.
- [31] Kim C.H., Hwang B.K., 1992. Virulence to Korean pepper cultivars of isolates of *Phytophthora capsici* from different geographic areas. Plant Disease 76: 486-489.
- [32] MAMVA., 1996. "Ministère de l'Agriculture, de l'Équipement et de l'Environnement Plan d'action oléicole," Division de la production végétale, pp. 45-50.
- [33] MAPM, 2011. (Ministère de l'Agriculture et de la pêche maritime) "Filière oléicole. Ministère de l'agriculture et de pêche maritime," Rabat. Morocco available et [http:// www.agriculture.gov.ma/pages/acces-filiers/filiere-oleicole](http://www.agriculture.gov.ma/pages/acces-filiers/filiere-oleicole).
- [34] Mira, F., R., 2009. L'effeto delle micorrize arbuscolari sulla crescita di piante di olivio (*Olea europaea* L.) micropropagate. PhD Research in horticulture cycle, Faculty of Agriculture.
- [35] Muller R., 1974. Effect of prophylactic measures on the dissemination of *Phytophthora palmivora*. In Gregory, P. H. ed. *Phytophthora* disease of cocoa. London, Longman. pp.168-178.
- [36] Parra G., Ristaino J., 1998. Insensitivity to Ridomil Gold (Mefenoxam) found among field isolates of *Phytophthora capsici* causing *Phytophthora* blight on bell pepper in North Carolina and New Jersey. Plant Disease 82: 711.
- [37] Pennisi A.M., Agosteo G.E., Cacciola S.O., Pane A., Faedda R., 1998. Insensitivity to metalaxyl among isolates of *Phytophthora capsici* causing root and crown rot of pepper in Southern Italy. Plant Disease 82(11): 1283.
- [38] Perez A.B., Farinon O.M., and Berretta M.F., 2011. First report of *Fusarium solani* causing root rot of olive in southeastern Argentina. Plant Disease, 95(11):1476.
- [39] Ristaino J.B., Hord M.J., Gumpertz M.L., 1992. Population densities of *Phytophthora capsici* in field soils in relation to drip irrigation, rainfall, and disease incidence. Plant Disease 76(10): 1017-1024.
- [40] Romano, M. L.; Garibaldi, A., 1984: Biological characteristics of *Phytophthora capsici* Leonian strains resistant to acylalanine obtained in the laboratory. Difesa delle Piante (3): 145-152.

- [41] Sanchez Hernandez ME, Ruiz Davila A, Perez De Algaba A, Blanco Lopez MA, and A Trapero Casas (1998). Occurrence and etiology of death of young olive trees in southern Spain. *European Journal of Plant Pathology* 104 (4): 347-357.
- [42] Tamietti G., Ritucci F., 1986. Cinque anni di lotta chimica contro la cancrena pedale del peperone. *La Difesa delle Piante* 9: 347-358.
- [43] Tarr S., 1962. Diseases of Sorghum, Sudan Grass and Broom Corn. CAB, the Commonwealth Mycological Institute, Kew, England, 380 p.
- [44] Tashiro N., Uematsu S., Ide Y., Matsuzaki M., 2012. First report of *Phytophthora palmivora* as a causal pathogen of citrus brown rot in Japan. *Journal of General Plant Pathology*. 78 (3), pp 233-236.
- [45] Torres G. A., Sarria G. A., and Varon F., 2010. First Report of Bud Rot Caused by *Phytophthora palmivora* on African oil palm in Colombia. *Plant diseases*. 94(9): 1163.
- [46] Tsao, P.H. (1990) Why many phytophthora root rots and crown rots of tree and horticultural crops remain undetected. *Bulletin OEPP/EPPO Bulletin* 20, 11-18.
- [47] Vossen P., 2004. Timing sprays for control peacock spot and olive knot disease. Olive News University of California Cooperative Extension Glenn County. From http://www.oliveoilsource.com/peacock_spot.htm#Timing.
- [48] Vossen P., Gubler D., Blanco M.A., 2008. Verticillium Wilt of Olive. Newsletter of Olive Oil production and Evaluation, Univ. of California Cooperative Extension, 4(3), 1-4.
- [49] Zitko S. E., Timmer L. W., and Sandler, H. A. 1991. Isolation of *Phytophthora palmivora* pathogenic to Citrus in Florida. *Plant Dis.* 75: 532-535.
- [50] Zitko S., E. and Timmer L. W., 1994. Competitive Parasitic abilities of *Phytophthora parasitica* and *P. palmivora* on Fibrous Roots of roots. Florida Agricultural Experiment Stations Journal Series. 84 (10): pp 1000-1004.
- [51] Zouiten N., El Hadrami I., 2001. Le psylle de l'olivier: état des connaissances et perspectives de lutte. *Cahiers d'études et de recherches francophones/Agricultures*, 10(4), 225-232.
<http://popups.ulg.ac.be/Base/document.php?id=5130>