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2 chestnut mosaic disease

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25 ABSTRACT

Although the chestnut mosaic disease (ChMD) was described several decades ago, its etiology is still 27 not elucidated. Here, using classical approaches in combination with high throughput sequencing 28 (HTS) techniques, we identify a novel Badnavirus that is a strong etiological candidate for ChMD. Two disease sources from Italy and France were submitted to HTS-based viral indexing. Total RNAs were extracted, ribodepleted and sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq500 (2x150 or 2x 75 nt). In each source, we identified a single contig of about 7.2 kilobases that corresponds to a complete circular viral genome and shares homologies with various badnaviruses. The genomes of the two isolates have an average nucleotide identity of 90.5% with a typical badnaviral genome organization comprising three open reading frames. Phylogenetic analyses and sequence comparisons show that 35 this virus is a novel species for which we propose the name Chestnut mosaic virus (ChMV). Using a newly developed molecular detection test, we systematically detected the virus in symptomatic graft-inoculated indicator plants (chestnut and American oak), as well in chestnut trees presenting typical ChMD symptoms in the field (100% and 87% in France and Italy surveys, respectively). Datamining of publicly available chestnut SRA transcriptomic data allowed the reconstruction of two 40 additional complete ChMV genomes from two Castanea mollissima sources from the USA, as well 41 as ChMV detection in C. dentata from the USA. Preliminary epidemiological studies, performed in France and in Central Eastern Italy, showed that ChMV has a high incidence in some commercial orchards, with a low within-orchard genetic diversity.

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46 European chestnut (Castanea sativa Mill.) has a long-standing tradition of cultivation in many European countries. It is an important species, both economically as a source of timber and fruit and ecologically through the multiple ecosystemic services it provides. In Europe, chestnut covers about 2.5 million hectares, mainly concentrated in France, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Switzerland, the 50 Balkan regions, and Southern England (Conedera et al. 2016). Chestnut (Castanea spp.) can be heavily affected by various pathogens. The most detrimental are caused by fungal-like organisms 52 (Oomycetes) and fungi such as Phytophthora cambivora Petri and P. cinnamomic Rands., the agents 53 of ink disease, or Cryphonectria parasitica, the causal agent of chestnut blight, which all provoke disorders that can lead to tree mortality (Prospero et al. 2012; Rigling and Prospero, 2018). In Italy, Gualaccini (1958) described a chestnut disease associated with viral symptoms (mosaic, shoots with asymmetric leaf blade deformation) which was again reported in Campania during the 80s, (Ragozzino and Lahoz 1986), and in the Marche region (central eastern Italy) in 2000 (Antonaroli and Perna; 2000). In France, the disease was first identified circa 1987 on cultivars of C. sativa x C. 59 crenata hybrids from commercial orchards located in the south-west of the country. Desvignes (1999b) made a more detailed description of the symptoms, which are characterized by necrotic lesions in the bark and wood that turns into cankers, chlorotic lesions and yellow stripes on leaf veins and partial limb atrophy, and called this disease Chestnut Mosaic Disease (ChMD). This disease can heavily affect the production of both young and secular trees (Antonaroli and Perna, 2000). It has also been reported in Japan and Hungary (Shimada, 1962; Horvath et al. 1975). Even if its etiology has long remained unknown, researchers hypothesized that the causal agent of ChMD could be a virus, introduced in Europe between 1940 and 1960 when a number of C. crenata cultivars were imported from Japan for breeding purposes. Investigations in France and Italy established that the causal agent can be eliminated by thermotherapy, is aphid-transmissible, and 69 is graft-transmissible to Castanea and Quercus species in which it may elicit symptoms (Desvignes

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and Lecocq, 1995; Desvignes, 1999b; Vettraino et al. 2005). The susceptibility to the ChMD agent of Castanea species/cultivars has been evaluated in several studies (Desvignes, 1992; 1999b; Desvignes and Lecoq, 1995). Three categories of cultivars could thus be defined from tolerant to moderately and fully susceptible. Graft incompatibility was also observed when cultivars of different 74 susceptibilities are assembled by grafting. Most of the C. sativa cultivars and hybrids are tolerant to ChMD, although some well-known French hybrids like 'Maraval' (Ca 74) are fully susceptible, and used for indexing purposes to detect the ChMD agent in tolerant cultivars (Desvignes and Lecoq, 1995).

In the last decade, a number of studies have highlighted the potential of non-targeted molecular diagnostics based on high-throughput sequencing (HTS) to elucidate the etiology of viral plant diseases and to provide viral sequence data from which rapid diagnostic molecular assays can be developed (Martin et al. 2016; Villamor et al. 2019). Since 2009, HTS combined with bioinformatics 82 have been used for the discovery, characterization, and de novo assembly of the genome of known and novel plant viruses and viroids (Rott et al. 2017; Kreuze et al. 2009). This has accelerated the 84 application of HTS technologies in the field diagnostic of diseases (Massart et al. 2014), and in quarantine regulations (Martin et al. 2016; Massart et al. 2017).

86 Badnaviruses are plant pararetroviruses belonging to the family Caulimoviridae that have emerged as serious pathogens causing severe yield losses in a wide range of economically important crops all over the world (Bhat et al. 2016). The genome of badnaviruses is composed of a non-covalently closed, circular double-stranded DNA (ranging from 7.2 to 9.2 kbp) and is encapsidated in bacilliform virions. This genome typically harbors three open reading frames (ORFs) encoding, respectively, a protein of unknown function, the virion-associated protein (VAP), and a polyprotein 92 containing functional and structural domains [movement protein (MP), coat protein (CP), aspartic protease (AP), reverse-transcriptase (RT) and RNase H)] (Hohn and Rothnie, 2013; Bhat et al. 2016).

Badnaviruses can also be present as integrated sequences in some host plant genomes (endogenous badnaviruses) (Staginnus et al. 2009; Bhat et al. 2016). The contribution of these integrated sequences to host and virus evolution is still poorly understood (Geering et al. 2014).

Given the very limited knowledge on the etiology of ChMD, and based on previously published studies (Desvignes, 1992; 1999a, 1999b; Desvignes and Lecoq, 1995; Desvignes and Cornaggia, 1996), we investigated the hypothesis that a virus might be involved in this disease. Combining HTS-based viral indexing and classical approaches, we report here the complete genome sequence of a 101 novel badnavirus species for which the name Chestnut mosaic virus (ChMV) is proposed. We further show that there is a strict correlation between the presence of the virus and the appearance of typical ChMD symptoms in various graft-inoculated indicator plants. Preliminary epidemiological studies carried out in Italy and in France reveal that the virus can have high incidence in some orchards, and, as expected, can be associated with symptomatic or asymptomatic infections.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

108 Plant samples and virus isolates. Virus isolates included in this study are listed in Supplementary 109 Table S1. Isolate LC1224H is originated from a red oak (Quercus rubra) artificially inoculated in 1992 110 with a chestnut mosaic source from a hybrid Castanea sativa x Castanea crenata included in a French breeding program. Leaves of grafted oaks displayed typical symptoms characterized by chlorotic mottle, yellow veins, and mosaic (Desvignes and Lecoq 1995) (Figure 1A). Isolate FRlc1224A was derived from the same source, and is the result of a back-inoculation by grafting of LC1224H to the natural chestnut hybrid Maraval (Ca 74; C. crenata x C. sativa) indicator (Desvignes et al. 1992). Isolate LC1224F originated from a Maraval indicator inoculated by aphid transmission 116 from an initial ChMD source in a C. crenata x C. sativa French hybrid (Desvignes and Cornaggia, 117 1996). The LCA552 and LCA584 isolates were collected from C. sativa trees in France in 2009 and

121 In the framework of a survey carried out in Italian chestnut orchards to monitor chestnut blight (Acquasanta Terme (AP), locality Umito, Italy) (Murolo et al. 2018), typical leaf symptoms of ChMD were recorded in 2016. Six symptomatic plants were collected, pooled (10 -15 symptomatic shoots) and included in the HTS analysis (ITumito39 source).

In order to evaluate the incidence of ChMV, chestnut trees from INRAE chestnut biological resource center (https://www6.bordeaux-aquitaine.inrae.fr/biogeco/Ressources) were sampled. This orchard is located on the Villenave d'Ornon INRAE center (France) with trees distributed in 128 three plots (A, E, or Port, Table S1). A total of 43 C. sativa, 14 C. mollissima, six C. crenata and 32 hybrid chestnut trees were sampled, corresponding to a total of 38 symptomatic trees with typical ChMD symptoms, 47 asymptomatic trees, and 10 trees with dubious or atypical symptoms. In addition, in the Central eastern Italy Marche region, leaves from 60 symptomatic and from 10 132 asymptomatic grafted C. sativa cv. Marrone trees of different ages were collected in a commercial chestnut orchard (Plot I, Table S1).

Isolates FRlc1224A and ITumito39 were used for the HTS analysis, whereas all other samples were included either in the incidence analysis or in the causal relationship analysis (Table S1).

Total RNA extraction and RNA-Seq analysis. Symptomatic leaves from a 'Maraval' indicator (FRlc1224A) were collected and used to extract total RNAs according to the protocol described by Reid et al. (2006). For the Italian material, total RNAs were extracted from symptomatic leaves according to the protocol described by Gambino et al. (2008). Total RNAs were then submitted to a DNAse treatment following the manufacturer's recommendations (Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France). Ribosomal RNAs were removed using a RiboMinus Plant Kit for RNA-Seq (Invitrogen, Fisher

Scientific, Illkirch, France) before cDNA library synthesis with the Illumina TruSeq Stranded RNA library Prep kit (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA) and sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq500 (2x150 nt or 2x75 nt) in a multiplexed format (GIGA-Genomics facility, Université de Liège, Belgium).

145 Bioinformatic analysis. Primary quality analyses were performed using Geneious Prime 146 2019.2.1 Software (https://www.geneious.com). De novo assemblies of quality filtered reads were performed using Velvet (Zerbino and Birney, 2008), Geneious R 11 (https://www.geneious.com), and Spades (Bankevich et al. 2012), or using the CLC genomics workbench 8.0 149 http://www.clcbio.com). Contigs were annotated by BlastN and BlastX comparisons with nucleotide and non-redundant protein GenBank databases, respectively. Blast results were screened using e-151 value thresholds of 10^{-6} and 10^{-4} for BlastN and BlastX, respectively. Publicly available chestnut RNA-Seq transcriptomic data were retrieved from the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) and downloaded reads were mapped against the sequence of the FRlc1224A isolate using CLC Genomics 154 Workbench 11.0. When needed, de novo assembly and contig annotations were also performed as described above.

156 Total DNA extraction and PCR confirmation of genome completeness and circularity. In order to verify both the completeness of the assembled genome sequences and genome circularity, pairs of specific outward-facing primers were designed for each isolate (Ch-Bad-6976F/ Ch-Bad-252R for the isolate FRlc1224A and Bad-Ch-6481F/Bad-Ch-325R for the isolate ITumito39, Table S2). Leaf tissues (0.5 g) were pulverized in liquid nitrogen and total DNA was extracted in CTAB buffer (2% cetyl trimethylammonium bromide, 100 mM Tris-HCl, 1.4 M NaCl, 20 mM EDTA), adding 3% polyvinyl pyrrolidone 40, and 0.5% sodium metabisulfite (Doyle and Doyle, 1990). Finally, the DNA pellets were resuspended in 50 μl sterile water. PCRs were performed in a 50 μl reaction volume 164 containing 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.5), 2 mM MgCl₂, 50 mM KCl, 0.2 mM dNTPs, forward and reverse primers at 1μM each, and 1.25U of Dream Taq (ThermoFisher) using 50 ng of the template. After an

initial denaturation step at 95°C for 4 min, 40 or 35 cycles, respectively, were set at 94˚C for 30 sec, 60°C (Ch-Bad-6976F/ Ch-Bad-252R) or 55˚C (Bad-Ch-6481F/325R) for 30 sec, and 72˚C for 90 sec, followed by a final extension step of 10 min at 72˚C. PCR amplification products were sequenced on both strands (GATC, Eurofins, Ebersberg, Germany).

170 ChMV molecular detection and variant analysis by PCR. For the molecular detection of ChMV, two sets of primers were designed in conserved regions of ORF3 designed using the sequences of isolates FRlc1224A and ITumito39. One primer pair (Ch-Bad-1466F/Ch-Bad-1800R, Table S2) allows the amplification of a genomic region (335 nt) in the MP domain (Figure 2), whereas the second pair (Ch-Bad-5860F/Ch-Bad-6109R, Table S2) amplifies a 232-nt fragment in the RH domain (Figure 2). An aliquot of 25 ng of total DNA was used for the PCR assays in a 50 μl volume containing 10 mM 176 Tris-HCl (pH 8.5), 2 mM MgCl₂, 50 mM KCl, 0.2 mM dNTPs, forward and reverse primers at 1 μM each, and either 1.25U of DreamTaq or 1U of GoTaq. After an initial denaturation step at 95°C for 4 min, 35 cycles were set at 94˚C for 30 sec, 56˚C for 30 sec, and 72˚C for 90 sec, followed by a final extension step of 10 min at 72˚C. Amplicons were analyzed by electrophoresis on 1.5% agarose gel and were directly sequenced on both strands (GATC).

Possible phytoplasma infection was evaluated using primer pair P1/P7 (Deng and Hiruki. 1991; Smart et al. 1996) and, in nested PCR, primers R16F2n/R2 (Gundersen and Lee 1996).

183 Sequence and phylogenetic analyses. The full-length genomes were analyzed by ORF Finder 184 (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/gorf/) to identify putative ORFs in the viral genome. Deduced amino acid (aa) sequences were analyzed for conserved protein domains gathered in 186 Conserved Domains Database (CDD) (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/structure/cdd.shtml) and 187 theoretical molecular weights were calculated using ExPASy (http://web.expasy.org/compute_pi/). Multiple alignments of nucleotide (nt) or amino acid (aa) sequences were performed using the ClustalW program (Thompson et al. 1994) implemented in MEGA version 7.0 (Kumar et al. 2016).

RESULTS

Determination of the complete genome sequence of a novel badnavirus from two chestnut 195 disease sources. Two ChMD sources were included in the HTS analysis. The French source (FRlc1224A) showed typical ChMD symptoms, with leaf deformation, yellow veins and chlorotic diffuse mottling (Figure 1B) and the Italian source (ITumito39) is a mixture of six plants showing intensive vein banding and leaf blade deformation (Figure 1C). High-throughput sequencing of ribodepleted RNAs extracted from the sources FRlc1224A and ITumito39 yielded a total of 10,737,052 reads and 4,135,330 reads, respectively. De novo assembly and Blast annotation allowed 201 for the identification of a single long contig with significant homology with badnaviruses. These contigs were respectively 7,264 and 7,214 bp long and showed short terminal redundancies, consistent with the structure of the long RNA transcript involved in the replication of badnaviruses (Teycheney et al. 2020) and suggesting they represented the full coverage of a circular badnaviral genome. A total of 39,657 reads were integrated in the FRlc1224A contig, representing 0.37% of total reads, with a mean coverage depth of 795X, whereas 611 reads (0.015% of total reads) were integrated in the ITumito39 contig, with a mean coverage depth of 14.4X. The circularity and completion of the DNA genome sequence of each isolate were validated by a PCR on purified DNA extracted from the host plants and using specific outward-facing primers designed from the contig sequences. The respective 436 nt- and 1,007 nt fragments were amplified and sequenced, confirming DNA genome completeness and circularity (data not shown). The assembled sequences

have been deposited in GenBank under accession numbers MT269853 and MT261366, respectively.

No other plant virus was detected in the two datasets during the Blast annotation of contigs.

Genome organization of chestnut mosaic virus and determination of its phylogenetic 215 relationships. The badnaviral genomes characterized independently from the French and Italian ChMD sources are respectively 7,160 bp and 7,161 bp long, within the range of badnavirus genome sizes (Teycheney et al. 2020). The genomic organization is the same for both isolates, comprising three open reading frames (ORFs) encoded on the positive strand (Figure 2), and is typical for badnaviruses (Teycheney et al. 2020). The ORF1 (nt 245-751, numbering according to the isolate FRlc1224A sequence) encodes a protein of 169 aa (19.8 kDa), the ORF2 (nt 751-1161) encodes a 137-aa protein (15 kDa), and the third ORF (nt 1,163-6,721) encodes a polyprotein of 1,853 aa (211.7 kDa) with five conserved protein domains (Figure 2): a viral movement protein (MP, cl03100), a zinc-binding motif (ZnF, pfam00098), a retroviral aspartyl protease domain (RVP, pfam00077), a reverse transcriptase domain (RT, cd01647) and a ribonuclease H domain (RH, cl14782). The two "Cys" 225 motives (C-X₂-C-X₄-H-X₄-C, and C-X₂-C-X₁₁-C-X₂-C-X₄-C-X₂-C) usually found in the coat protein of badnaviruses (Bath et al. 2016) were also detected in the ORF3-deduced protein, between aa positions 777-790 and 902-928.

Both isolates are closely related, with an overall 90.5% nt identity. The three indels observed 229 between the two sequences are located in the intergenic region, the isolate ITumito39 ended up being one nucleotide longer. The three ORFs have the same sizes, are strictly colinear and the encoded proteins share respectively 95.2% (ORF1), 95.5% (ORF2) and 94.8% (ORF3) aa identity.

To characterize the phylogenetic relationships and taxonomic position of the chestnut badnavirus, a phylogenetic tree was reconstructed using an alignment of full genome nucleotide 234 sequences of Badnavirus genus members, with the rice tungro bacilliform virus used as an outgroup (Figure 3). Both isolates cluster in group 3 defined by Wang et al. (2014), together with gooseberry

vein banding virus (GVBV), rubus yellow net virus (RYNV), grapevine vein clearing virus (GVCV), birch leafroll-associated virus (BLRaV), wisteria badnavirus 1 (WBV1), and pagoda yellow mosaic-associated virus (PYMaV) (Figure 3). Nevertheless, they are clearly distant from all of these species, defining a novel branch, supported by a 99% bootstrap value (Figure 3). Tree topology was similar when using an alignment of representative badnaviral ORF3 protein sequences (Figure S1). To confirm these analyses, pairwise comparisons of genome sequences showed that the isolate 242 FRIc1224A has only weak identity levels with representative members of the genus Badnavirus, comprised between 42.1% nt identity (sugarcane bacilliform IM virus; 42.5% for the isolate ITumito39) and 50.9% (WBV1; 50.8% for the isolate ITumito39). The same tendency is observed when considering the genome proteins. The ORF1-encoded protein shows only weak homology with the corresponding proteins of WBV1 (27.8% aa identity) and PYMAV (26.1% aa identity), and the ORF2-encoded protein shares only 33.1% aa identity with the corresponding protein of the most closely related virus, WBV1. The polyprotein encoded by ORF3 shares 49.5% aa identity with the corresponding protein of the closest relative, PYMAV. Using the ORF3 region (RT and RH domain) used for taxonomical discrimination in the family Caulimoviridae (Teycheney et al. 2020), the FRlc1224A isolate shows between 64% (with GVBV) and 68.4% (with BLRaV) nt identity (Table 1), which is below the 80% nt identity value used as the species demarcation threshold in the family. 253 Therefore, this virus represents a novel species in the family Caulimoviridae, for which we propose 254 the name Chestnut mosaic virus (ChMV). In the same taxonomically informative region, the isolates FRlc1224A and ITumito39 share 91.9% nt identity (97.8% aa identity), indicating that they belong to the same viral species (Table 1).

257 Identification of ChMV in publicly available chestnut HTS data. The datamining of chestnut HTS data from various chestnut sources publicly available at GenBank [EST sequences, whole genome assembly, RNA-Seq and Genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) reads available as Sequence Read

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260 Archives (SRA)] allowed the identification of ChMV in several of those datasets (Table S3). In 261 particular, two complete genomes were obtained from datasets involving C. mollissima cv. Vanuxem 262 in the USA, one from the whole genome assembly (JRKL01079565) and the other by de novo 263 assembly of RNA-Seq data (SRX4015368) with 99.2% and 97.4% nt identity, respectively, with the 264 FRIc1224A isolate over the whole genome (Figure 4). In addition, partial ChMV genome assemblies 265 of >3 kbp could be obtained from a range of other datasets generated in the USA or in China from 266 C. mollissima (Table S3), all of which showed significant relatedness with the FRIc1224A sequence 267 as shown by a phylogenetic tree reconstructed using nucleotide alignments of concatenated ChMV 268 sequences retrieved from the various datasets (Figure 4). In addition, partial ChMV genomes could 269 also be reconstructed from two datasets obtained from C. dentata in the USA. Interestingly, one of 270 these two C. dentata isolate sequences shows closest relationship with ITumito39 sequence (Figure 271 4) with only 89.2% nt identity with the isolate FRlc1224A as compared to 93.9% nt identity with 272 ITumito39. The second isolate of C. dentata appears to be equally related to the FRIc1224A and 273 ITumito39 isolates, with 90.9% and 90.6% nt identity, respectively.

274 Incidence and genetic variability of ChMV in France and Italy. The incidence and genetic 275 variability of ChMV were investigated by analyzing two genomic regions of ORF3, one 335-nt long 276 located in the MP domain amplified using primer pair Ch-Bad-1466F/Ch-Bad-1800R and the other 277 232-nt long in the RNase H domain and amplified with primer pair Ch-Bad-5860F/Ch-Bad-6109R 278 (Table S2, and Figure 2). The two primer pairs were designed to be able to detect both isolates 279 FRlc1224A and ITumito39. In Italy, a total of 70 C. sativa cv Marrone samples were collected in the 280 same location, while in France, 95 chestnut accessions belonging to three different Castanea species 281 or hybrids were sampled in three plots (A, Port, E). Both symptomatic and asymptomatic samples 282 were collected, as well as some samples with atypical or dubious symptoms. Globally, ChMV was 283 frequent in the surveyed plots, with 57/70 (81.5%) infected C. sativa samples in Italy and 65/95 trees

(68%) in France (Table 2). In the Italian orchard, half of the asymptomatic trees were found to be infected by ChMV, compared to 87% of the symptomatic ones (Table 2). None of the analyzed samples were found positive using a phytoplasma-specific PCR assay. In the French collection, the virus was detected in 100% (38/38) of the trees showing typical ChMD symptoms, and in 49% (23/47) of the asymptomatic trees, including two trees that were symptomless but showed strong symptoms on rootstock off-shoots (Figure S2). ChMV was also detected in four out of the 10 trees showing atypical/doubtful symptoms.

The genetic variability of ChMV was evaluated by analyzing the sequences of the two PCR amplicons generated for the incidence survey. Considering the relative homogeneity of the origin of the Italian samples, the number of samples included in this analysis was limited to 13 (four from asymptomatic trees, and nine symptomatic ones) (Table S1). In total, the final dataset consisted in 53 isolates for which the sequence of the two genomic regions were available (49 from the incidence survey and four from independent ChMD sources held in collection at CTIFL, see below). As illustrated by the unrooted neighbor-joining tree reconstructed from the alignments of RT-RnaseH domain nucleotide sequences (Figure S3A), ChMV diversity is structured into two clusters, defined 299 by the geographical origin of the samples (Italy and France). The sequences determined from the four independent French disease sources (FRlc1224A, T30218, LCA552, LCA584) belong to the same «French» cluster. Overall, the level of genetic diversity is very low in this genomic region, with an average pairwise nt divergence (diversity) of 2.2% +/- 0.5%. This value is even lower when considering the intra-group diversity, as 0.2% +/- 0.1% within the French cluster and 0.1% +/- 0.1% within the Italian ones. In contrast, the inter-group diversity reaches 6.3% +/- 1.5%, confirming the existence of two geographical clusters. The same trends are observed when analyzing the genomic region located in the MP domain (Figure S3B). The same geographical clustering could be observed, with the exceptions of three French isolates that seem to be more closely related to the Italian

DISCUSSION

Since the seminal work of Desvignes and collaborators in the 1990s, it has been acknowledged that the agent responsible for ChMD is most likely a thermosensitive, graft-transmissible virus that 315 can be transmitted experimentally and probably naturally by the aphid Myzocallis castanicola Desvignes, 1992; 1999a; 1999b; Desvignes and Lecoq, 1995; Desvignes and Cornaggia, 1996). Depending on the chestnut genotype, this infection can either be asymptomatic or can result in the expression of severe and conspicuous ChMD symptoms. In chestnut orchards in the Marche region (Italy), both young and mature plants were shown to be affected, significantly decreasing chestnut 320 production. Symptoms have also been observed in some *Quercus* species following experimental graft inoculation. To date, however, the causal agent remains to be identified.

Here, by using HTS-based viral indexing, we were able to identify and characterize, in two independent ChMD sources, two isolates of the same novel virus. Phylogenetic and sequence 324 analyses showed that this virus belongs to the genus Badnavirus, in the family Caulimoviridae, and 325 could be considered as a new species, for which the name Chestnut mosaic virus (ChMV) is proposed. Interestingly, this new virus clusters with a group of badnaviruses that includes RYNV, GVBaV, and GVCV.

There is unambiguous evidence that ChMV as reported here is an episomal virus. It was detected in graft-inoculated indicators, and not in non-inoculated control plants of the same variety, demonstrating its graft-transmissibility, a property of episomal viruses. This line of evidence is 331 further reinforced by the detection of ChMV in symptomatic, graft-inoculated indicator Quercus plants and, again, not in the corresponding control plants. In parallel, the HTS detection of ChMV from DNAse-treated RNAs, the failure to detect ChMV in a range of the surveyed chestnut trees and the sequence diversity identified in ChMV all rule out a scenario in which an endogenous ChMV genome, integrated in the chestnut genome could be responsible for the HTS and PCR results reported here. There was in fact no indication of ChMV in the chestnut genome assembly (JRKL01079565) since no integration borders could be identified and a single contig, representing a complete unintegrated viral genome transcript, was identified. Integration of ChMV as an endogenous viral element (EVE, Bhat et al. 2016) therefore does not appear to be a general genomic feature of chestnut.

According to the simplified hierarchical approach proposed by Fox (2020) for assessing causal relationships in plant virology, ChMV appears as a good candidate, if not as the causative agent of ChMD. There are several arguments and experimental evidence supporting this idea. Following HTS analyses, ChMV was the sole virus detected in the French source FRlc1224A, coming from a ChMD 345 source initially involving a C. sativa x C. crenata hybrid. It was also the sole virus detected in the Italian ChMD source analyzed by HTS. Using molecular detection tests developed in this work, the virus was consistently found in other symptomatic accessions derived from the same diseased source (LC1224H, a Q. rubra artificially inoculated and LC1224F, an indicator plant inoculated by aphid transmission; Figure 5). In addition, three other independent chestnut sources shown by biological indexing on the 'Maraval' indicator to be affected by ChMD were found to be infected by ChMV (LCA552, LCA584 and T32018 in Figure 5). There is therefore a correlation between the appearance of ChMD symptoms and the presence of ChMV in the graft-inoculated indicators, supporting the hypothesis of a causal relationship between ChMV infection and ChMD. In total, five independent ChMD sources collected between 1990 and 2018 in two countries (Italy and France)

were ChMV positive, satisfying the Bradford-Hill's experimental and consistency criteria (Bradford Hill, 1965; Fox, 2020).

Preliminary studies indicate that ChMV is highly prevalent in the analyzed orchards in France and Italy, confirming the earlier results of Desvignes (1999a). In parallel, the identification of ChMV sequences in publicly available HTS data provides a strong indication of the presence of ChMV in C. mollissima in the USA and in China and in C. dentata in the USA. In the surveys, ChMV was not systematically associated with symptomatic infections, although its frequency was systematically higher in symptomatic plants. This result was expected since previous grafting experiments had demonstrated that not all chestnut varieties/species are susceptible to ChMD and develop symptomatic infections (Desvignes and Lecoq, 1995; Desvignes, 1992; 1999b). Biological indexing on the susceptible 'Maraval' indicator has in particular identified latent ChMV infections in many 366 symptomless C. sativa varieties or C. sativa x C crenata hybrids (Desvignes and Lecoq, 1995; Desvignes, 1992; 1999b). On the other hand, all surveyed symptomatic plants in France were found to harbor the virus, while it was detected in 52/60 (87%) of tested symptomatic Italian trees. The failure to detect ChMV in eight symptomatic Italian trees might reflect sequence variability and an incomplete inclusiveness of the PCR primers used or low or uneven virus accumulation. Indeed, using biological indexing, Desvignes et al. have previously found an uneven distribution of the ChMD agent in infected trees leading to a failure to detect it in parts of some infected trees (Desvignes and Lecoq, 1995; Desvignes et al. 1999b).

Taken together, and even though Koch's postulates were not fully verified, the experiments reported here make a very strong case for a role of ChMV as the causal agent of the chestnut mosaic disease. The low ChMV diversity observed in France and Italy are consistent with the scenario of its recent introduction in Europe (Desvignes and Lecoq, 1995), while the genetic separation of the Italian and French clusters is suggestive of separate introduction events. These results and the

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associated development of molecular tools for the detection of ChMV will help speed up the selection of virus-free mother plants and mitigate the virus spread in new chestnut orchards and layerings. However, many questions remain regarding the variability of symptom intensity in relationship to cultivar susceptibility, ChMV-induced graft incompatibility, the impact of pedoclimatic conditions and of synergic and competitive interferences with other chestnut pathogens, and silvicultural management.

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489 TABLE 1. Percentage of identity between the ORF3 region encoding the Reverse Transcriptase -

490 Rnase H^a of chestnut mosaic virus (ChMV) isolate FRIc1224A and the corresponding genomic regions

491 of the isolate ITumito39 and of the most closely related members of the genus Badnavirus

492 ^a This region is the one typical used for taxonomic discrimination in the family Caulimoviridae 493 (Teycheney et al. 2020)

494 b Acronyms used: RYNV, rubus yellow net virus; GVBV, gooseberry vein banding virus; GVCV, 495 grapevine vein-clearing virus; BLRaV, birch leafroll-associated virus; WBV1, wisteria badnavirus 1;

496 PYMaV, pagoda yellow mosaic-associated virus.

497

498

- 499 TABLE 2. Number and percentage of chestnut mosaic virus-infected plants regarding the plot, the
- 500 Castanea species sampled, and the symptomatology

- 501 a Interspecific hybrids between C. crenata, C. mollisima and C. sativa
- 502 b not applicable
- 503

504 CAPTIONS FOR FIGURES

Fig. 1. Symptoms of chestnut mosaic disease on various hosts. (A) Isolate LC1224H: Red oak (Quercus rubra) graft-inoculated with a diseased source; (B) Isolate FRlc1224A: 'Maraval' Ca 74 graft-inoculated with LC1224H; (C) Isolate ITumito39: symptomatic leaves from cv Marrone grafted onto Castanea sativa; (D) non-inoculated Q. rubra; (E) non-inoculated 'Maraval' Ca 74; (F) Asymptomatic leaves from cv Marrone grafted onto C. sativa.

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Fig. 2: Schematic representation of the genomic organization of the chestnut mosaic virus. The tRNA binding site is indicated and defines the position 1 on the genome. The three open reading frames (ORFs) are shown as grey arrows, as well as their position in parentheses. Five conserved motifs are identified in the ORF3 polyprotein: MP, Viral movement protein (pfam01107); ZnF, Zinc finger (pfam00098); RVP, Retroviral aspartyl protease (pfam00077); RT, Reverse transcriptase (cd01647); RH, Ribonuclease H (cd09274)

Fig. 3. Phylogenetic tree reconstructed using the complete genome sequences of badnavirus **members.** Virus names as well as GenBank accession numbers are indicated. The tree was reconstructed using the neighbor-joining method, and randomized bootstrapping was performed 521 to evaluate the statistical significance of branches (1,000 replicates). Bootstrap values above 70% are shown. The scale bar represents 5% nucleotide divergence between sequences. The groups as defined by Wang et al. (2014) are indicated. Chestnut mosaic virus isolates determined in this work are indicated by black triangles. Rice tungro bacilliform virus was used as outgroup.

Fig. 4. Unrooted neighbor-joining phylogenetic tree reconstructed from the alignment of concatenated nucleotide sequences related to chestnut mosaic virus detected by datamining of publicly available transcriptomic chestnut data. Randomized bootstrapping was performed to evaluate the statistical significance of branches (1,000 replicates). Bootstrap values above 70% are shown. The scale bar represents 10% nucleotide divergence between sequences.

Fig. 5. Detection of chestnut mosaic virus in various samples by PCR using primers pairs Ch-Bad1466F/1800R (A) and Ch-Bad5860F/6109R (B). Lane 1: LC1224F; Lane 2: LC1224H; Lane 3: FRlc1224A; Lane 4: T32018; Lane 5: LCA552; Lane 6: LCA584; Lane 7: 'Maraval' Ca 74 non-inoculated 535 plant; Lane 8: Quercus rubra non-inoculated plant; Lane 9: no template; L: molecular weight marker. Horizontal bars on the left of the figure indicate the size of the amplification products. The isolates are listed in Table S1.

e-EXTRA FIGURE CAPTIONS AND TABLE TITLES

Supplementary Fig. S1. Phylogenetic tree reconstructed using the ORF3-deduced amino acid 542 sequences of badnavirus members. Virus names as well as GenBank accession numbers are indicated. The tree was reconstructed using the neighbor-joining method, and randomized bootstrapping was performed to evaluate the statistical significance of branches (1,000 replicates). Bootstrap values above 70% are shown. The scale bar represents 10% amino acid divergence between sequences. Chestnut mosaic virus isolates determined in this work are indicated by black triangles. Rice tungro bacilliform virus was used as outgroup.

Supplementary Fig. S2. Leaves of the sample 20893. (A) rootstock leaves (Castanea sativa); (B) cultivar leaves

Supplemental Fig. S3. Unrooted neighbor-joining phylogenetic trees reconstructed from the alignment of nucleotide sequences of the PCR fragments targeted partial RT-RnaseH domain (A) and partial MP domain (B) obtained from a range of chestnut mosaic virus isolates (listed in Table 555 S1). Randomized bootstrapping was performed to evaluate the statistical significance of branches (1,000 replicates). Bootstrap values above 70% are shown. The scale bar represents 5% (A) or 10% (B) nucleotide divergence between sequences.

Supplemental Table S1. List of chestnut samples used in the present study together with relevant ChMV accession numbers

Supplemental Table S2. Primers used for genome circularity confirmation and for molecular detection of chestnut mosaic virus by PCR

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- 565 Supplemental Table S3. Datamining of publicly available chestnut HTS data for chestnut mosaic
- 566 virus sequences

Fig. 2: Schematic representation of the genomic organization of the chestnut mosaic virus. The tRNA binding site is indicated and defines the position 1 on the genome. The three open reading frames (ORFs) are shown as grey arrows, as well as their position in parentheses. Five conserved motifs are identified in the ORF3 polyprotein: MP, Viral movement protein (pfam01107); ZnF, Zinc finger (pfam00098); RVP, Retroviral aspartyl protease (pfam00077); RT, Reverse transcriptase (cd01647); RH, Ribonuclease H (cd09274)

338x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)

Fig. 3. Phylogenetic tree reconstructed using the complete genome sequences of badnavirus members. Virus names as well as GenBank accession numbers are indicated. The tree was reconstructed using the neighborjoining method, and randomized bootstrapping was performed to evaluate the statistical significance of branches (1,000 replicates). Bootstrap values above 70% are shown. The scale bar represents 5% nucleotide divergence between sequences. The groups as defined by Wang et al. (2014) are indicated. Chestnut mosaic virus isolates determined in this work are indicated by black triangles. Rice tungro bacilliform virus was used as outgroup.

190x338mm (96 x 96 DPI)

Fig. 5. Detection of chestnut mosaic virus in various samples by PCR using primers pairs Ch-Bad1466F/1800R (A) and Ch-Bad5860F/6109R (B). Lane 1: LC1224F; Lane 2: LC1224H; Lane 3: FRlc1224A; Lane 4: T32018; Lane 5: LCA552; Lane 6: LCA584; Lane 7: 'Maraval' Ca 74 non-inoculated plant; Lane 8: Quercus rubra non-inoculated plant; Lane 9: no template; L: molecular weight marker. Horizontal bars on the left of the figure indicate the size of the amplification products. The isolates are listed in Table S1.

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Fig. S2

Fig. S3A

Fig. S3B

1 Supplementary Table S1. List of chestnut samples used in the present study together with relevant ChMV

2 accession numbers

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3 a Isolates from asymptomatic trees are indicated in bold; isolates with doubtful symptoms are underlined; isolates from 4 asymptomatic cultivars with typical symptoms visible on rootstock regrowths are indicated in bold italic.
5 $\frac{b}{r}$; hybrid SC : hybrid between *C. sativa* and *C. crenata*, regardless the knowledge about which are th

5 b; hybrid SC : hybrid between C. sativa and C. crenata, regardless the knowledge about which are the female and male parents.
6 c : Five plots have been sampled (A, Port, E, I, Ctifl)

 c : Five plots have been sampled (A, Port, E, I, Ctifl)

^d: Accession numbers are relative to the sequences obtained with both PCR detection assays (Ch-Bad-1466F/Ch-Bad-1800R and
8 Ch-Bad-5860F/Ch-Bad-6109R) 8 Ch-Bad-5860F/Ch-Bad-6109R)
9 e^{e} Isolates were included either

e: Isolates were included either in the HTS analysis, or in the incidence analysis, or in the causal relationship analysis (CRA)

10 ^f: Only the fragment amplified with Ch-Bad-1466F/Ch-Bad-1800R was sequenced

11 : 8: Only the fragment amplified with Ch-Bad-5860F/Ch-Bad-6109R was sequenced

12 ^h 'Mengshankui' (C. mollissima cultivar) seedling

13 C. mollissima seedling

14 15

16 17 Supplemental TABLE S2. Primers used for genome circularity confirmation and for molecular detection of chestnut mosaic virus by PCR

1 Supplemental TABLE S3. Datamining of publicly available chestnut HTS data for chestnut mosaic

2 virus sequences

^a EST: expressed sequence tags; WGA: whole genome assembly; GBS: genotyping by sequencing

 4 ^b Reads mapped to the genomic sequence of chestnut mosaic virus (French isolate)

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