

1 Current Opinion in Virology

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3 Whitefly-transmitted viruses threatening cassava production in Africa

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24 **Abstract**

25 Emerging plant viruses are one of the greatest problems facing crop production worldwide, and  
26 have severe consequences in the developing world where subsistence farming is a major source  
27 of food production, and knowledge and resources for management are limited. In Africa,  
28 evolution of two viral disease complexes, cassava mosaic begomoviruses (CMBs)  
29 (*Geminiviridae*) and cassava brown streak viruses (CBSVs) (*Potyviridae*), have resulted in  
30 severe pandemics that continue to spread and threaten cassava production. Identification of  
31 genetically diverse and rapidly evolving CMBs and CBSVs, extensive genetic variation in the  
32 vector, *Bemisia tabaci* (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae), and numerous secondary endosymbiont  
33 profiles that influence vector phenotypes suggest that complex local and regional vector-virus-  
34 plant-environment interactions may be driving the evolution and epidemiology of these viruses.

35 **Highlights**

36 • Cassava mosaic disease is caused by frequently recombining ssDNA virus species.  
37 • Cassava brown streak disease is an emergent concern, caused by two ssRNA viruses.  
38 • Complex genetic structure and endosymbionts may impact vector status of *B. tabaci*.

39 **Introduction**

40 Two whitefly (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae) transmitted viral disease complexes, cassava mosaic  
41 disease (CMD) and cassava brown streak disease (CBSD), are the primary threats to cassava  
42 production across Africa [1]. Cassava, *Manihot esculenta* (Crantz), also referred to as yucca,  
43 tapioca and manioc, originated in the New World [2], and is now grown across Central and  
44 South America, Asia and Africa as an industrial source of starch and for human and animal  
45 consumption [3]. It is an easy crop to grow with exceptional drought resistance [4], which has  
46 made it a staple food for close to 1 billion people in the tropics [5]. This is especially true in  
47 Africa, where cassava is currently the highest production crop and the most resistant crop to  
48 climate change [6]. While cassava production is sometimes affected by viral diseases worldwide  
49 [5], in sub-Saharan Africa, these viruses are a persistent and emergent threat to food security,  
50 causing losses over US\$1 billion annually [5,7].

51 These viruses are believed to have originated in Africa, and have been spread across the  
52 continent by human-mediated movement of vegetatively propagated cassava cuttings [8], and

53 whitefly vectors [9–12]. Although cassava viruses have been reported in Africa for more than 70  
54 years, severe epidemics of both CMD and CBSD causing viral complexes have emerged in sub-  
55 Saharan Africa during the past 30 years that have caused famine, reduced yields, and in some  
56 areas severely restricted cassava production. Research findings during the first 1-2 decades after  
57 the emergence of the severe CMD and CBSD addressing disease incidence, mechanisms of  
58 spread, virus identification, vectors, management strategies, and proposed theories for the  
59 widespread occurrence of the causative virus and abundance of the vectors have been reviewed  
60 in [5,13–20,21\*]. Molecular biology tools and approaches developed over the past decade such  
61 as Next Generation Sequencing (NGS), NextRAD sequencing, and bioinformatics tools have  
62 enabled identification and characterization of the genetic diversity of vector [22–24,25\*,26\*27]  
63 and viral [28,29,30\*,31] populations which have long been recognized as important factors  
64 underlying reported variation in disease severity, vector competence [32] and coevolution of  
65 vectors and viruses [33]. The objective of this review is to provide a current synthesis of  
66 literature on the diversity of whiteflies, cassava viruses, and their interactions across the African  
67 continent, and including Madagascar, Réunion Island, and Seychelles.

## 68 **Whitefly-Transmitted Viral Disease Complexes of Cassava**

69 Single-stranded DNA viruses that cause CMD, typified by chlorotic yellow mosaics, deformed  
70 leaves and stunted growth [34] have been recognized as a threat to cassava production for a  
71 longer period of time than viruses causing CBSD – since the 1894 [35]. Molecular typing and  
72 sequencing have revealed CMD is caused by seven related species of cassava mosaic  
73 begomoviruses (CMVs) (family *Geminiviridae*) occurring in single or mixed infections: *African*  
74 *cassava mosaic virus* (ACMV), *Cassava mosaic Madagascar virus* (CMMGV), *East African*  
75 *cassava mosaic virus* (EACMV); *East African cassava mosaic Kenya virus* (EACMKV), *East*  
76 *African cassava mosaic Malawi virus* (EACMMV), *East African cassava mosaic Zanzibar virus*  
77 (EACMZV), and *South African cassava mosaic virus* (SACMV) [36] (Figure 1). The CMVs can  
78 co-infect a cassava plant, enhancing infection severity [37] and leading to recombinants with  
79 altered virulence [38]. While CMD had been a problem for farmers for decades, the emergence  
80 of *East African cassava mosaic virus, Uganda variant* (EACMV-UG2), a recombinant of  
81 EACMV in which approximately 400 nucleotides of the Coat Protein (CP) gene of ACMV  
82 replaced a similar region of EACMV [39–42], in 1997 led to a resurgence of severe CMD that

83 devastated cassava crops causing rampant famine in Uganda [43]. Shortly thereafter, roughly  
84 half of all cassava harvested in East Africa had been affected by CMD [44], and by 2005 the  
85 CMD pandemic was estimated to cover roughly 3,000,000 square km over nine countries.

86 The more recently emerged CBSD is not yet as widespread as CMD, but has become the more  
87 pressing problem in African cassava production. CBSD exhibits fewer symptoms above ground  
88 (fainter yellowing, the titular streaks on the stems [45]), and mainly rots the tubers, leading to  
89 damage that fetches much lower prices (90% loss [46]). While it was first described in 1935 [47],  
90 it was an isolated disease restricted to the low altitude areas of East Africa [48]. Only in the last  
91 twenty years has it spread to higher altitudes and become a problem for a much larger area of  
92 cassava production [49,50] (Figure 1). CBSD is caused by two related RNA viruses (*Potyvirus*:  
93 *Ipomovirus*): *Cassava brown streak virus* (CBSV) and *Ugandan cassava brown streak virus*  
94 (UCBSV). The two viruses that cause CBSD can be referred to as CBSVs (cassava brown streak  
95 viruses).

96 Both the ssDNA CMBs and RNA CBSVs show high diversity in Africa, as expected for viruses  
97 with these genomes. Surveys of CMBs routinely reveal that variants are produced by both  
98 recombination and mutation [51\*]. While intraspecific and interspecific recombination  
99 frequently occur, and major changes in virulence have been associated with recombination  
100 events (e.g., the pandemic associated EACMV-UG2), the majority of the diversity in sequenced  
101 ACMV and EACMV is due to mutation [52]. Like other ssDNA viruses, EACMV evolves as  
102 quickly as RNA viruses, meaning that CMBs can swiftly evolve to cope with environmental  
103 changes, novel plant hosts and potentially to overcome host resistance [51\*,53]. The RNA  
104 CBSVs have been less intensively studied, but already show strong evidence of recombination  
105 [28] and high diversity due to mutations [54]. The overall divergence among sequenced genomes  
106 of CBSVs has led to high estimates of within species nucleotide diversity [54], and has prompted  
107 a reexamination of the number of species capable of causing CBSD [55]. CBSV evolves as fast  
108 as other potyviruses [29] strongly suggesting that CBSVs can also evolve quickly to overcome  
109 novel challenges like RNAi-mediated host resistance [56]. The evolvability of coat proteins of  
110 both CMBs [57–61] and CBSVs [30] may play a role in their use of vectors, and in efficient  
111 transmission, but data on co-adaptation of viruses to their vectors is limited [33,62].

112 **Whitefly Vectors of Cassava Viruses**

113 Although the incidence of cassava viruses in fields is more commonly attributed to the  
114 propagation of virus-infected cuttings, vector transmission can cause significant infection in crop  
115 fields [11,63] and spreads viruses across their population range and to non-crop reservoir hosts.  
116 CMBs are transmitted by *Bemisia tabaci* (Gennadius) [9,32,47,64,65\*] in a circulative and non-  
117 propagative manner whereas CBSVs are semipersistently transmitted by three whitefly species:  
118 *B. tabaci* [10,66], *Trialeurodes vaporariorum* (Westwood), and *Aleurodicus dispersus* (Russell)  
119 [10,12,66]. Differences in the number of vector species, modes of transmission, and vector  
120 competence of these viruses differentially affect incidence, spread, and distribution both locally  
121 and across the African continent. Faster acquisition and transmission (<1h) but lower persistence  
122 of CBSV in the vector (24-48h) reduces the incidence and distance of virus spread from infected  
123 hosts [10,11,66,67]. CMDs require up to 8 hours to circulate in the vector before they can be  
124 transmitted, but whiteflies remain viruliferous for at least 9 days which may increase incidence  
125 and distance of virus spread [9,47,64,66,68]. This review will focus on the primary vector and  
126 most abundant cassava-associated whitefly species in Africa, *B. tabaci*, due to the paucity of  
127 information on *T. vaporariorum* [69,70] and *A. dispersus* [70–72].

128 A growing body of literature is documenting extensive genetic diversity of *B. tabaci* and its  
129 symbiome in Africa. *Bemisia tabaci* is a morphologically indistinguishable species complex  
130 hypothesized to comprise over 40 genetic groups that are currently distinguished using partial  
131 mtCOI gene sequences [73]. Nomenclature describing these groups is inconsistent in the  
132 literature because the species delimitations within this group are undergoing constant revision  
133 based on new knowledge [17,23]. In this review, this species complex will be referred to as *B.*  
134 *tabaci*, using nomenclature based on mtCOI phylogenies [73]. Working names on  
135 whiteflybase.org [24,74] are used because they were most easy to assimilate due to the high  
136 number of reports using this, or similar nomenclature, although the status of these groups as  
137 reproductively isolated species will change based on new information about evolutionary  
138 relationships, species ranges, gene flow, reproductive compatibility (see below), and limitations  
139 of mtCOI markers [75–77]. Published sequences of putative *B. tabaci*, not included on  
140 whiteflybase.org because they did not meet the exact criteria, are included here along with newly  
141 proposed genetic groups not yet present on whiteflybase.org [26\*] in order to present a  
142 comprehensive representation of the diversity and distribution of African *B. tabaci* reported in  
143 the literature. The greatest genetic diversity among *B. tabaci* worldwide has been observed

144 within and among the sub-Saharan Africa clades, and evidence for African origin of *B. tabaci* is  
145 supported by phylogenies from multiple studies [22,26\*,78–83]. Nineteen putative endemic and  
146 introduced species have been reported in Africa [21\*,25\*,26\*,27,63,65\*,77–80,84–101] (Figure  
147 2), and include Uganda (Uganda clade) [26\*,73], SubSahAf1-6, 8 (sub-Saharan Africa clade)  
148 [26\*,73], SubSahAf7 (Australia-Asia clade) [26\*], SubSahAf10-11, NewWorld1, (New World  
149 clade) [26\*], SubSahAf12-13, Mediterranean, MidEastAm1, IndianOcean (Africa-Middle East-  
150 Asia Minor clade) [26\*,73], and Italy1 (Italy clade) [26\*,73]. Genetically distinct sub-  
151 groups/clades have also been consistently identified within the SubSahAf1 clade, and new  
152 genetic diversity continues to be discovered as more robust genetic approaches are developed  
153 [24,25\*,26\*,75,77,102,103].

154 Research on genetic diversity, genomics, population genetic structure, and gene-flow are  
155 providing new information about variation in epidemiologically important biological and  
156 ecological characteristics such as host utilization that may play a role in population growth,  
157 gene-flow, and evolutionary dynamics of cassava viruses. Only nine *B. tabaci*, including  
158 SubSahAf1, SubSahAf2, SubSahAf3, SubSahAf4, SubSahAf9, SubSahAf10, SubSahAf11,  
159 Mediterranean, and IndianOcean, have been collected from cassava, but host preference and diet  
160 breadth of cassava associated whiteflies is variable, with some collected only from cassava,  
161 while others can colonize multiple crop hosts successfully [104–109]. Reciprocal backcross  
162 experiments and population genetic experiments have provided evidence for the occurrence of  
163 gene-flow and introgression between some cassava associated *B. tabaci* and their sub-groups at  
164 local, regional, and continental scales [17,21\*,25\*,90,94–96,110]. The magnitude and direction  
165 of gene flow among putative species and their sub-groups, however, is variable. Long-distance  
166 gene flow and admixture is possible through human-mediated dispersal, trade [25\*,95] and  
167 whitefly dispersal, however, geographic structuring among cassava-associated *B. tabaci* species  
168 and their subgroups is generally observed within countries and across Africa [21\*,96–98].  
169 Results of studies using genome-wide markers suggest that metapopulation structure of *B. tabaci*  
170 is a complex network through which introgression may occur directly between reproductively  
171 compatible groups, or indirectly through intermediates in the network [25\*,95]. Genomic and  
172 transcriptomic approaches are also identifying economically important genes and gene families  
173 that may be involved with vector-virus interactions [95,111\*], and new methods to investigate  
174 vector-endosymbiome-virus interactions [27]. Due to the genetic complexity of species- and

175 population-level boundaries, molecular ecology and genomics approaches will continue to play a  
176 major role in advancing our understanding about the geographic scales and temporal stability of  
177 genetic structuring, the occurrence of gene-flow, and the implications of genetic structure on  
178 economically important traits related to epidemiology and management of whitefly-transmitted  
179 viruses [25\*,95].

180 Endosymbionts are an important characteristic of *B. tabaci* that are likely influencing  
181 epidemiologically important life history and transmission phenotypes, and should be included in  
182 *B. tabaci* characterizations to determine their importance. Several studies have documented  
183 genetic diversity of whitefly endosymbionts, their distributions among *B. tabaci* species and  
184 populations, and the impact of symbiosis on whitefly fitness, host plant, and vector phenotypes  
185 [27,65\*,84–90]. Specialized cellular compartments in *B. tabaci* harbor the primary/obligate  
186 endosymbiont *Candidatus Portiera aleyrodidarum* that is required to synthesize essential amino  
187 acids required for growth and development [112–114]. Secondary/facultative endosymbionts are  
188 not required for survival, but may affect fitness. Endosymbionts are primarily maternally  
189 transmitted [85], and although absent from some populations, secondary endosymbionts  
190 *Arsenophonus*, *Cardinium*, *Hamiltonella*, *Rickettsia*, and *Wolbachia* have been found in 30  
191 combinations of single, double, triple and quadruple infections in African *B. tabaci* [27,65\*,84–  
192 90] (Table 1). The underlying causes for the large number of endosymbiont profiles for *B. tabaci*  
193 is not understood, but introduction of new *B. tabaci* species with overlapping hosts and/or gene-  
194 flow may result in the acquisition of new endosymbionts. Studies have shown associations  
195 between specific combinations of endosymbiotic bacteria, or strains of a bacteria [84,87], and *B.*  
196 *tabaci* species, sub-groups, and populations [84,85,87,88], but none are clearly associated with  
197 host plant utilization. The few laboratory studies examining endosymbiont effects on *B. tabaci*  
198 showed that endosymbionts may negatively impact vector competence and fitness of cassava  
199 associated *B. tabaci*. Decreased acquisition and retention of EACMV-UG2 by SubSahAfl-  
200 subgroup3 was generally observed in a laboratory colony infected with *Arsenophonus* and  
201 *Rickettsia* compared to a colony without secondary endosymbionts, and secondary endosymbiont  
202 infections were absent from a high number, but not all, field collected SubSahAfl-subgroup1 *B.*  
203 *tabaci*, which is the primary haplotype implicated in spread of CMBs in East Africa [65\*,89].  
204 Reductions in adult emergence, and increasing development time from first instar to adult were  
205 also observed in SubSahAfl-subgroup3 infected with *Arsenophonus* and *Rickettsia* [65\*].

206 Future research is needed to better understand the incidences, spread and influence of  
207 endosymbionts in African *B. tabaci*.

208 **Conclusions**

209 Accurate identification of distinct species and populations of cassava viruses and their vectors is  
210 an essential first step towards understanding vector-virus-plant-environment interactions  
211 underlying the epidemiology of cassava viruses in Africa, but knowledge of the similarities and  
212 differences of life history traits among CMBs, CBSVs, and *B. tabaci* is still lacking. Many field  
213 and laboratory studies were conducted before molecular identification of study populations was  
214 available, limiting conclusions that can be drawn about incidence, spread, and severity of viruses  
215 and the role of specific vectors, especially when genetic variation in local populations influence  
216 vector-virus-crop interactions among research locations. Studies that provide genetic  
217 characterizations of vectors and viruses are revealing genetic variation that has the potential to  
218 explain regional and phenotypic variation in epidemiological important phenotypes such as host  
219 range, vector competence of whiteflies, transmission efficiency of cassava viruses, disease  
220 severity, and the timing and magnitude of whitefly spread due to host utilization patterns,  
221 population size, and dispersal. Fundamental studies are also needed to examine vector-virus-  
222 plant interactions described for other related viruses affecting different cropping systems not  
223 examined in this review, including virus mediated changes in vector-plant interactions,  
224 localization and circulation in the vector, the role of endosymbionts in virus circulation, variation  
225 in transmission efficiency, and mechanisms underlying these interactions reviewed in [20,115-  
226 121,122\*,123-125]. Ultimately, understanding the emergence, spread and epidemiological  
227 potential of whitefly-transmitted cassava viruses will require a whole-systems approach that  
228 examines cassava agroecosystems with the recognition that interbreeding whitefly and  
229 recombining viral metapopulations extend across landscapes and beyond a single crop.

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