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Overview of Diverse Universe of Mycoviruses and Their Role in Pathogenesis of Fungi

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Abstract

All key families of plant-infecting fungi have been observed to be infected by mycoviruses, which are substantial and ubiquitous viruses. Mycoviruses, like all other plant and animal viruses, must reproduce in live cells. These viruses spread either during spore production or cell division. Few mycoviruses are known to have a positive single-stranded RNA genome, while the majority have double-stranded RNA genomes. Few mycoviruses have been identified as the causative agents of triggering atypical pigmentation and sporadic growth to alter the sexual reproduction of the host. These viruses are categorized into taxonomic groups as developed from plant viruses. mycoviruses are notable due to their amazing capacity to cause a dramatic decrease in the virulence (hypovirulence) of the host. It has been observed that mycoviruses do not necessarily cause hypovirulence, but they also impart hypervirulence to the host fungi. The current effort summarizes the data regarding mycoviral diversity, taxonomy and their role in the pathogenesis of pathogenic fungi.





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Introduction

Mycoviruses typically infect different classes of fungi and are observed to be in association with pathogenic fungal agents, especially infecting plants. These viruses are commonly associated with all major phyla of fungi. These viruses exist in the dormant phase and infrequently cause ailment [1-3]. With notable exceptions, mycoviruses are still less thoroughly researched than viruses that attack plants and mammals. Mycovirus illnesses have little economic impact, the fungal research group is comparatively small, as well as most of the mycovirus illnesses are silent. The intensity of mycovirus investigation, though, has significantly accelerated in the last years as a result of the growing curiosity about mycoviruses. In their hosts, this phenomenon has been prompted, in particular, by a rise in studies of mycovirus-induced morphological modifications, which are thought to be both intrinsically intriguing and potentially useful [4]. Advanced technologies in molecular mycovirus have shown the usefulness of mycoviruses as instruments for examining the processes driving fungal physiology and controlling the fungal host. The ability to easily manipulate the genetic makeup of both a virus and its eukaryotic target is a unique capability thanks to developments in the genetics of filamentous fungi. In the host fungi, some mycoviruses are observed to impart noticeable modifications, such as asymmetrical development, metamorphosed sexual reproduction and anomalous coloring [5, 6]. Hypovirulence is the utmost significant feature they display the capability to decrease the virulence of infective fungi [1, 7-10]. The occurrence of mycoviruses opens up the gates in the field of investigational mycology.

History of Mycoviruses

Siden and Hauser [11] first identified a disease in the cultivated fungus *Agaricus bisporus* in 1950. This mushroom resulted in irregular fruiting bodies, early tissue deformation, and a subsequent decrease in yield [7, 12, 13]. Following this, Hollings and colleagues discovered three more anatomically unique viruses linked to ill mushrooms [14-16]. Mycoviruses were found in *A. bisporus* in substantial numbers between 1962 and 1966, according to reports. Mycovirus evidence, other than that of *A. bisporus*, was documented before 1968. As early as 1936, probable evidence for the yeast virus was presented [17]. In fungal groupings, numerous more viruses have been found. These mycoviruses were found in two different *Penicilium* species (*Penicilium*)

stoloniferum and *P. funiculosum*). Mycoviruses are noticed to have traits in common including both plants and animals; however, they also exhibit some unique traits. For example, they lack motion proteins, spore formation, intracellular transmitting behavior, and extracellular ways of disease that are necessary for plant and animal viruses to accomplish their life cycles. According to some taxonomist accounts, 30% of mycoviruses have positive-sense single-stranded RNA (+ssRNA) genomes, while the majority of mycoviruses have double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) genomes [18-20]. A *Gemini* group virus associated with mycoviruses has been newly informed [7, 21, 22].

Diversity of Mycoviruses

Mycoviruses are recognized for root infection in many different phyla of fungi, including Basidiomycota, Ascomycota, Zygomycota, Chytridiomycota and Deuteromycota [23, 24].

Mycoviruses infecting Basidiomycota

Mushroom growers noticed a widespread issue in the 1950s, which they dubbed "The illness in the harvest". The deformed shape and drastically decreased yields of the affected mushroom were visible. A Laccaria laccata sporophore abnormality was identified in Czechoslovakia by Blattny and Pilate [25]. When irrigated on a healthy developing sporophore, extract from a diseased sporophore causes aberrant sporophores to proliferate in the following years. While a typical sporophore carried on growing and producing mycelium that was productive normallv [26]. Cantharellus infundibuliformis, C. cibarius, and Armillaria mellea all showed the same abnormalities, but no viral particles were found [26, 27].

Mycoviruses infecting Rhizoctonia species

The significant soil-borne fungal pathogen (necrotrophic) *Rhizoctonia solani* have its place in the family basidiomycetes [28, 29]. Though, different-sized dsRNA aspects were noticed in normal progeny in AG1 to AG-13 whereas characterization of just 4 mycoviruses was done. Two dsRNA genomes having sizes of 6.4 kb and 3.6 kb, correspondingly were isolated from strain Rbs 1A1 of *R. solani* AG-3. M1 showed phylogenetical relation with *Bromoviruses* of plants and was found to be linked with improved potency and pathogenicity. While M2 was found associated with Mitoviruses and known to cause hypovirulence [30, 31]. The Rhs 717 virus was

purified from Rhs 717 strain of *R. solani*. AG-2 was identified as a *Partitivirus* [32].

Rhizoctonia solani infecting mycoviruses

The primary dsRNA component in *R. solani* was originally defined by Castano and Butler [33]. Since then, several investigations have been executed to determine the varied particles of viruses that infect *R. solani*.

Mycoviruses infecting fungi imperfection

This category of fungi is much significant for their reputation in the synthesis of antibiotics. For example, antiviral features are found in filtrate attained from various species throughout the past years for instance, *P. stoloniferum* [44-46], *P. funiculosum* [47-49], *P. cyclopium* [50-52], *P. cyaneo-fulvum* [53, 54] and *Aspergillus niger* [55-57]. Lampson et al. [58] recognized virus-like particles in *P. funiculosum* in some statolon preparation [59]. The Department of Biochemistry, Imperial College London showed that *P. funiculosum* and *P. stoloniferum* were infected by a virus comprising dsRNA, which was known to initiate, in mice, the production of interferon [60].

Ascomycota infecting mycoviruses

The rest of the viruses mentioned, except for the fungus virus, are thought to be isometric. Ascomycetes *Peziza astracoderna* included lone rod-like particles [61]. Some isolated, highly purified apothecia had stiff, TMV-like 17×350 nm rods. However, their vaccination did not result in TMV indications. The virus was distinct from TMV antigenically [62]. Additionally, aberrant yeast was shown to contain virus-like particles [63]. They had a bilayer membrane and were 100 nm thick. They were unique in comparison to other fungi viruses.

Mycoviruses infecting Cryphonectria parasitica

Cryphonectria parasitica, an ascomycetes fungus, causative agent of chestnut blight [64, 65], which has been a catastrophe for *Castanea dentata* (American chestnut) in together North America as well as Europe [66, 67]. Cryphonectria hypovirulence virus-1 CHV1 is hypovirulence-related mycovirus of the *C. parasitica* and it was initially investigated in 1991 [68-70]. Knowing the biological features of CHV1, International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV) recognized a new family *Hypoviridae* [71, 72]. *Hypoviridae* contains only one genus of *Hypovirus*. Family *Hypoviridae* contains four species

that were isolated from *Cryphonectria parasitica*, that belongs to the genus *Hypovirus* and are designated as *C. hypovirus* 1 [73, 74], *C. hypovirus* 2 [75], *C. hypovirus* 3 [76] and *C. hypovirus* 4 [77]. The influence of *C. parasitica* on the virulence of these species was dissimilar. Three more viruses besides these hypoviruses were identified in *C. parasitica*. Two of these viruses were *Cryphonectria parasitica mycoreovirus* 1 isolated from hypovirulent strain 9B21 and *Cryphonectria parasitica mycoreovirus* 2 isolated from hypovirulent strain C18 [78]. Third isolated virus was *Cryphonectria parasitica* mitovirus 1, belonging to the mitovirus of Nanoviridae, identified from hypovirulent strain NB631 [79].

Mycoviruses infecting Sclerotinia sclerotiorum

Ascomycetous plant pathogenic fungus Sclerotinia sclerotiorum infects more than 300 types of plant hosts [8]. Sclerotinia sclerotiorum swarms many mycoviruses, together with single-stranded circular DNA mycovirus, ssRNA viruses and dsRNA viruses [80]. The primary DNA mycovirus that was known to cause infection and confer reduced virulence to fungi was S. sclerotiorum hypovirulence-associated DNA virus 1 (SsHADV-1) [81]. This was plant geminivirus-associated mycovirus. S. sclerotiorum debilitation-associated RNA virus (SsDRV) and S. sclerotiorum RNA virus L (SsRV-L) have RNA (genome) that encodes for RNA replication enzyme (relpicase). S. sclerotiorum partitivirus SsDRV is associated with Alphaflexiviridae in addition characterizes many associates of the genus Sclerodarnavirus. The SsRV-L is found to be associated with rubi-like viruses and the human pathogenic hepatitis E virus. A partitivirus (SsPV-S) along with an uncategorized non-segmented dsRNA virus, such as S. sclerotiorum non-segmented virus L, were identified as coinfection agent of a virulent strain.

The protein coat of SsPV-S displays a high similarity with indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) and ILR2 (leucine-resistant protein 2) of *Arabidopsis thaliana* [82]. A virus namely SsHV1 was identified, which was found to have a close association with both CHV3 as well as CHV4 in the *Hypoviridae* family [83]. Recently isolated, identified and characterized a new hypovirus namely SsHV2 was found to share a high degree of genome character with CHV1 and CHV2. At present, hypoviruses are being identified in *Valsa ceratosperma* and *Fusarium graminearum* [84]. Many *S. sclerotiorum* mycoviruses are yet to be characterized [85]. Categorized hypo virulent strain

XG36-1, that displays an infectious character. But neither DNA nor RNA extricates was obtained effectively. Two mycoviruses were isolated, and characterized, from a hypovirulent strain (strain KL-1) belonging to *S. sclerotiorum* [80]. The KL-1 was isolated from sclerotium on an infected lettuce farm in Lexington, KY, USA. This mycelial strain contained two dsRNA viral genome segments, dsRNA1 and dsRNA2, which were named *S. sclerotiorum* mitovirus-1 (SsMV1/KL-1) and *S. sclerotiorum* mitovirus-2 (SsM2/KL-1) [80] *S. sclerotiorum* deltaflexivirus 2 (SsDFV2) is the first ever reported (+)ssRNA mycovirus that can control the incompatibility system of vegetation to diffuse between the host population [85].

Mycoviruses of Fusarium

Fusarium is a significantly widely distributed plant pathogenic genus [86]. Some species not only reduce yield production and value of cereals but produces toxins in crops which can disturb the health of animal and human. Now, mycoviruses have been reported in *Fusarium graminearum*, *F. solani*, *F. oxysporum*, *F. poae*, *F. virguliforme* and *F. boothii* [80, 83, 87-90]. Fusarium viruses belong to *Totiviridae*, *Partitiviridae* and *Chrysoviridae* [91]. However, many mycoviruses were recognized to infect the *Fusarium* species, but the *F. graminearum*-virus1-DK2 1(FgV1), especially, confers hypovirulence to the host [84]. A new mycovirus recently isolated from strain HN10 of F. graminearum was reported [84]. This mycovirus, named (FgHV1), was almost associated with CHV1 and CHV2. It has a slight influence on the conidial synthesis and the growth rate of mycelia. It imparts no substantial influence on the virulence and production of mycotoxins.

Diversity of mycoviruses in Fusarium

During the past few years, the data of the miscellany of identified mycoviruses has rapidly amplified and this is because of the development and extensive use of next-generation sequencing techniques (NGS). Currently, full genome sequences are existing for twenty-nine mycoviruses from six recognized or tentatively nominated families (*Megabirnaviridae*, *Fusagraviridae*, *Partitiviridae*, *Alternaviridae*, *Crysoviridae*, *Totiviridae*) and one deallocated of group dsRNA, one deallocated (+)ssRNA virus belonging to Mymonaviridae family, and eleven (+)ssRNA viruses belonging to five recognized or temporarily nominated families (Table 1).

Viruses of Phycomycetes

Several phycomycetes species have been shown to transmit viruses [116]. Researchers experimented by infecting specie of *Pythium* with TMV. For this, they

Table 1: Typical viruses identified that infect *Rhizoctonia solani*.

Genome	Mycovirus	Family	Host (strain)	Reference
(+)ssRNA	barnavirus 1	Barnaviridae	DV-8	[34]
(+)ssRNA	beny-like virus 1 BR2	Benyviridae	Ag-2.2 L-P BR2	[35]
(+)ssRNA	beny-like virus 1 42304-9a	Benyviridae	42304-9a	[34]
(+)ssRNA	ourmia-like virus 1	Botourmiaviridae	RsAG2	[34, 35]
(+)ssRNA	Cucumber mosaic virus	Bromoviridae	Ag-3	[36]
(+)ssRNA	flexivirus 1	Deltaflexiviridae	DC17, AG2-2 IV	[37]
(+)ssRNA	endornavirus RS002	Endornaviridae	Ag-3-PT RS002	[35]
(+)ssRNA	endornavirus 2 Illinois1	Endornaviridae	Illinois1	[35]
(+)ssRNA	hypovirus 1	Hypoviridae	AG-2.2 L-P BR20	[35]
dsRNA	megabirnavirus 1	Megabirnaviridae	Ag2-2 IV DC17	[35]
dsRNA	virus 717	Partitiviridae	Ag-2 Rhs 717	[32]
dsRNA	partitivirus 2 GD-11	Partitiviridae	IA GD-11, Ag-1	[38]
dsRNA	dsRNA virus 2 A	Partitiviridae	Ag-2.2 LP A	[35]
(+)ssRNA	positive-stranded RNA virus 1	Tymoviridae	Illinois1	[34]
dsRNA	bipartite-like virus 1	Bipartitiviridae	Ag-2.2 LP BR1	[35]
(–)ssRNA	Negative stranded RNA virus 1	Betamycoserpento viridae	Dk13-1	[32, 34]
(–)ssRNA	Negative stranded RNA virus 2	Betamycoserpento viridae	248-36	[35, 39]
(+)ssRNA	fusarivirus 1 BR18	Fusariviridae	Ag-2.2 LP BR18	[35, 37]
(+)ssRNA	alphavirus-like 1 BR15	Mycoalphaviridae	Ag-2.2 LP BR15	[35]
(–)ssRNA	bunya/phlebo-like virus 1	Mycopĥleboviridae	Ag-2.2 LP BR3	[35]
dsRNA	RNA virus HN008	Unclassified	HN008	[40]
RNA	putative virus 1 BR4	Unclassified	Ag-2.2 LP BR4	[41]
	(RsV1/BR4)		-	
dsRNA	M1 dsRNA	Unclassified	Ag-3 Rhs 1A	[42, 43]
dsRNA	M2 dsRNA	Unclassified	Ag-3 Rhs 1A	[42, 43]

mixed the fungal species in the virus-containing medium. The viral agent could be recovered from fungi and medium. Later, they shake it in the virusfree medium and the virus recovered from both the medium and fungi. But it was not confirmed that either the virus replicated in fungi or it was just detained in a medium inside the mycelium structure. A different virus-like particle has been reported from the specie of *Aphelidium* [117]. A total of 55 diverse mycoviruses have been recognized in 56 fungal species in 44 fungal genera (Table 2).

Viruses of Umbelopsis

In comparison to other fungal families like Ascomycota and Basidiomycota, the existence of viral infections in Mucoromycota has received less attention. Mycoviruses are being discovered from the early-diverging fungus genomes increasingly and more frequently nowadays. Using next-generation genotyping, researchers have identified the genomes of 11 unique dsRNA viruses in seven distinct strains of Umbelopsis. The viruses were characterized as

Table 2: Mycoviruses infecting Fusarium.

Umbelopsis gibberispora viruses 1 and 2, U. ramanniana viruses 5-9, as well as U. dimorpha viruses 1a, 1b, and 2. (UdV2). Two open reading frames (ORFs), putatively encoding the coat protein and the RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp), respectively, are present in all the newly discovered viruses. Eight viruses (UgV1, UdV1a, UdV1b, UrV7, UrV8b, UrV8a, UgV2, and UdV2) are recognized as fitting to the genus Totivirus based on the phylogenetic deductions from the RdRp transcripts, while UrV5, UrV6a, and UrV6b are put into a yet unconfirmed but well characterized Totiviridaerelated category. The unusual +1 (or 2) ribosomal frameshift that occurs in UgV1, UgV2, UdV1b, UdV1a, UdV2, UrV8b, and UrV5 is anticipated to translate ORF2 as a fusion protein and is not typical of the majority of Totivirus genus members [141].

Viruses of Exobasidium

Exobasidium gracile, a member of the basidiomycetous genera *Exobasidium*, is a plant disease that can cause *C. oleifera* leaflets to swell and

Genome	Mycovirus	Host	Family*	Reference
dsRNA	FgV2	F. graminearum 98-8-60 strain	Chrysoviridae	[92, 93]
	FgV_ch9	F. graminearum China 9 strain	Chrysoviridae	[94]
	FpgMBV1	F. pseudograminearum FC136-2A strain	Megabirnaviridae	[95]
	FodV1	F. oxysporum f.sp. dianthi 116 strain	Chrysoviridae	[96]
	FsV1	F. solani f. sp. robiniae SUF704 strain	Partitiviridae	[97]
	FpV1	F. poae A-11 strain	Partitiviridae	[98]
	FsPV2	F. solani f.sp. pisi	Partitiviridae	[99]
	FgAV1	F. graminearum AH11 strain	Alternaviridae	[100]
	FaW1	F. asiaticum F16176 strain	Totiviridae	[101]
	FiAV1	F. incarnatum LY003-07 strain	Alternaviridae	[102]
	FgAV1	F. graminearum AH11 strain	Alternaviridae	[103]
	FpV-2	F. poae SX-63 strain	Fusagraviridae	[104]
	FpV-3	F. poae SX-63 strain	Fusagraviridae	[104]
	FgV-3	F. graminearum DK3 strain	Fusagraviridae	[84]
	FgV-4	F. graminearum DK3 strain	Unassigned	[84]
	FgV-5	F. graminearum HN1 strain	Unassigned	[105]
	FvV1	F. virguliforme	Fusagraviridae	[106]
	FvV2	F. virguliforme	Fusagraviridae	[106]
(+)ssRNA	FbLFV1	F. boothii Ep-BL13 strain	Unassigned	[107]
	FgMTV1	F. graminearum SX-64 strain	Tymoviridae	[108]
	FgV1	F. graminearum strain DK21	Fusariviridae	[109]
	FgMV1	F. globosum (MAFF No. 237511)	Narnaviridae	[100]
	FbMV1	F. boothii strain Ep-BL13	Narnaviridae	[107]
	FcoMV1	F. coeruleum (MAFF No. 235976)	Narnaviridae	[100]
	FcMV1	F. circinatum FcCa070 strain	Narnaviridae	[110]
	FgHV1	F. graminearum HN10 strain	Hypoviridae	[111]
	FgHV2	F. graminearum JS16 strain	Hypoviridae	[112]
	FIHV1	F. langsethiae AH32 strain	Hypoviridae	[113]
	FgDFV1	F. graminearum BJ59 strain	Deltaflexiviridae	[114]
(-)ssRNA	FgNS-RV-1	F. graminearum HN1 strain	Mymonaviridae	[115]

* Family names are eight recognized or tentatively assigned

become thicker [142]. Three mycoviruses coinfecting the plant disease *E. gracile* strain Z-1 were identified in a recent investigation based on genealogical and molecular analysis. *E. gracile* Zybavirus 1, *E. gracile* Totivirus 1 and *E. gracile* Totivirus 2 are the names of these viruses [143].

Taxonomy and Evolution of Mycoviruses

The same classification was developed for mycoviruses by ICTV as the other viruses are classified. Their grouping produced seven groups having linear dsRNA. These are Chrysoviridae, Quadriviridae, Endornaviridae, Partitiviridae, Megabirnaviridae, Retroviridae and Tortiviridae. These are also categorized into 5 families with the linear genome (ss RNA); Hypoviridae, Barnaviridae, Alphaflexiviridae, Narnaviridae and Gammaflexiviridae. Some uncategorized linear negative-sense single-stranded RNA and spherical DNA viruses are also found [7]. Several mycoviruses synthesize dsRNA or dsRNA-related duplicating intermediates inside their host fungus. Such mycoviruses have been distinguished when purified from dsRNA [1]. This purified dsRNA produces huge mycovirus diversity. Many fungal isolates that possess dsRNA exhibit multiple patterns of dsRNA that may denote viral genomes in segmented nature. These dsRNA correspondingly, exhibit assorted contagions of over two defective RNAs or viruses [1, 107]. While investigating evolution, researchers have made a deduction that viruses in identical taxonomical families might contaminate several host species, such as animals, plants, protozoa and fungi. The current review suggested this by an example that viruses of the family Partitiviridae which contain dsRNA can infect plants or fungi [144]. Other fungal infecting viruses such as FgV1, CHV1-4 and Botrytis Virus X have a phylogenetical association with other plant viruses. It was found during their genome examination that their genome structure and expression approach is analogous to potex-like viruses [145]. Other viruses show a resemblance to human pathogenic Rubi like viruses and hepatitis E virus, like the virus of Sclerotinia sclerotiorum [8].

Two major hypotheses have been projected for the mycoviruses' origin [1]. The first hypothesis is called the "Ancient coevolution hypothesis". According to this hypothesis, the genesis of the mycoviruses is still a secret to unveil and it just echoes enduring coevolution. While another contrasting suggestion is called the "Plant virus hypothesis", which says

mycoviruses instigated from viruses of plants, *i.e.*, a plant virus wafted from plant to fungi inside the identical plant host and it was the original mycovirus [144].

Viral Families

Totiviridae

Viruses that cause infection by infective fungi are positioned in two genera of the family *Totiviridae*, *Victorivirus* and *Totivirus*. Viruses belonging to *Victorivirus* infect filamentous fungi, whereas those of the *Totiviridae* genus infect smut fungi [145].

Chrysoviridae

The Chrysoviridae family includes viruses having isometric symmetry of 34-39 nm with genomes that are dsRNA. This family includes a sole genus namely Chrvsovirus with Penicillium chrvsogenum virus (PcV). The only ICTV-documented Chrysovirus that attacks a plant pathogenic fungal species is Helminthosporium victoriae 145S virus (Hv145V). Virions of these family members contain four monocistronic dsRNA segments. The largest segment, dsRNA-1, encodes for RNA-dependent RNA polymerase while dsRNA-2 encodes to make capsid proteins (CP). The main function of dsRNA-3 and dsRNA-4 is not clear, but it is suggested that they may be virion related and may be a factor in RNA transcription. Phylogenetic analysis shows that chrysoviruses are more related to totivirus than to partitivirus [146].

Partitiviridae

This family encompasses viral agents with isometric virions ranging 34-42 nm in thickness having a genome involving two segments of dsRNA (1.4-2.3) kbp. 3 genera of *Partitiviridae* family have been discussed. Genus *Alphachryptovirus* and *Betachryptovirus* consist of viruses that infect fungal species. Both plant and fungal partitive uses display various mutual features, such as having similarities in virions particles, symptoms, infections, and genomic organization. The phylogenetic analysis suggests the likelihood of horizontal transfer between plants and fungi [147].

Positive sense RNA viruses

Several mycoviruses having ssRNA genomes that do not express any capsid protein, and are present in dsRNA replication form in their hosts, are recognized. Such viruses analogously reproduce by replication their genome as positive-stranded RNA viruses do. Their lineage, of genes for helicase, is within the lineage of RNA which is positive-stranded. They include members of the family *Narnaviridae*. Phylogenetic investigations of RdRp family illustrate far associations between *Narnavirus* and bacteriophages fitting to the family *Leviviridae*. Ophiostoma mitovirus infects phytopathogenic fungi and is related to hypovirulence (the ability to reduce infection-causing properties) [148].

Family Hypoviridae and Endornaviridae

The families *Endornaviridae* and *Hypoviridae* are deficient in infectious virions [149]. The linear RNA genome of *Hypoviridae* is 9-13 kbp in size. *Helicobaridium momp* endornavirus 1 and Phytophthora endornavirus 1 are nonphyto infecting viral agents in *Endornavirus* genus (family *Endornaviridae*) of viruses infecting plants. Endornaviruses were thought to have progressed from α -like virus which had vanished its gene responsible for capsid formation [147].

Table 3	Mycoviruses	infecting	different	fungi.

Unassigned/recently classified positive-strand RNA viruses

Many positive-strand RNA viruses are unassigned at present. Diaporhte RNA virus (DRV), Botrytis virus X (BVX), Sclerotinia sclerotiorum debiliatation (SsRV) and Botrytis virus F (BVF) are some of these. Due to phylogenetic analysis of sinuous filamentous units and protein for coat formation, BVF goes to a new family, Flexiviridae. Flexiviridae was recently divided into three families under the order Tymovirales; Aplhaflexiviridae, Betaflexiviridae, Gammaflexiviridae and Deltaflexiviridae. BVX was recently placed in the new genus Botrexvirus within the recently created family Alphaflexiviridae. The created genus sclerodarnavirus recently accommodates SsDRV placed in the family Alphaflexiviridae. DRV is an unassigned mycovirus related to the hypovirulence of its host fungi, Diaporthre spp. This shows homology to nonstructural carmovirus particles of positive-strand RNA viruses in the *Tombusviridae* family. Sequences

Fungi	Reported description	References	
Viruses infecting Ascomycetes	· ·		
Diplocarpon rosae	Isometric (34-32 nm)	[118]	
Neurospora crassa	Isometric (60 nm)	[119]	
Ophiobolus graminis	Isometric (29 nm)	[61, 120, 121]	
Peziza ostracoderma	Rods (17 x 350 nm)	[115]	
Saccharomyces carlsbergensis	Phage like	[122]	
Viruses infecting Phycomycetes			
Aphelidium sp.	Iridescent type (f)	[123]	
Plasmodiophora brassicae	-	[14]	
Viruses infecting imperfect fungi			
Alternaria tenuis	Isometric (30-40 nm)	[61]	
Aspergillus flavus	Isometric (30nm)	[124]	
A. foetidus S (IMI-41871)	Isometric (40-42 nm)	[125]	
A. foetidus F (IMI-41871)	Isometric (30-40 nm)	[125]	
A. glaucus	Isometric (30-40 nm)	[61]	
A. niger (IMI-146891)	Isometric (25 nm)	[126]	
Helminthosporium maydis	Isometric (40 nm)	[127]	
Mycogone perniciosa	Isometric (40 nm)	[128]	
M. perniciosa	Rods (18 x 120 nm)	[128]	
Penicillium brevicompactum	Isometric (40 nm)	[129]	
P. chrysogenum (ATCC-9480)	Isometric (35 nm)	[130]	
P. chrysogenum (ATCC-9480)	Isometric (40 nm)	[131]	
P. chrysogenum (NRRL-1951)	Isometric (35 nm)	[132]	
P. cyaneo-fulvum (CMI-58138)	Isometric (32 nm)	[60]	
P. citrinum	Isometric (40-50 nm)	[59]	
P. funiculosum	Isometric (25-30 nm)	[133]	
P. stoloniferum (ATCC-14586)	Isometric (25-30 nm)	[133, 134]	
P. stoloniferum F (ATCC-14586)	Isometric (32-34 nm)	[135]	
P. stoloniferum F (ATCC-14586)	Isometric (32-34 nm)	[135]	
Piricularia oryzae	Isometric (32 nm)	[118]	
P. oryzae	Isometric 36 nm	[120]	
Sclerotium cepivorum	Isometric 30 nm	[119, 136, 137]	

obtained from complete cDNA copies are infectioncausing when injected into the sporophore. Its isolates that were transduced show phenotypical characteristics like isolates infected naturally [148].

Role of Mycoviruses in Plant Pathogenic Fungi

Depending on the C. parasitica paradigm, mycoviruses especially mvcovirusinduced hypovirulence have primarily been researched in plant infecting basidiomycetes and ascomycetes. They are comprised of plant (crop) pathogens like white mold pathogenic Sclerotinia sclerotiorum, the white root decay fungus Rosellinia necatrix, the rice detonation fungi Magnaporthe oryzae, the grey mold decay fungus Botrvtis cinerea. and Alternaria species, among others. Tree pathogens like the Dutch elm disorder fungi Ophiostoma novoulmi are also included (Table 3). A variety of mycoviruses, including some that produce hypovirulence and hold promise as possible biocontrol, are accommodated by S. sclerotiorum, which enhances our understanding and knowledge of the mycovirome. The very first mycovirus having a negative sense single-stranded RNA genome is called Sclerotinia sclerotiorum negative-stranded RNA virus 1 (SsNSRV-1) [10] and is grouped alongside important human infection-causing agents including mumps, measles, Ebola, and rabies category Mononegavirales. Mycovirus within invasion does not always result in hypovirulence, and neither does everv mycovirus reduce the pathogenicity of its fungal hosts (Fig. 1).

Mycoviruses, particularly SsHADV 1 invading S. sclerotiorum in Brassica napus [150] and Pestalotiopsis theae chrysovirus 1 infecting P. theae [151], have lately been proven to transform a harmful fungus into a non-pathogenic endophytic fungus that shields inhabited vegetation from other infections. A partiti virus that infects the black rot disease fungus Nectria radicicola is an early version of hypervirulence in plant pathogenic fungi [152]. Hypervirulence is a condition in which a mycovirus increases the pathogenicity of its fungal target, a condition acknowledged as hyper virulence [153]. In plant pathogenic fungi, hypervirulence would be regarded as a negative consequence of mycovirus invasion; nevertheless, this might be complemented by other advantageous compensatory features. For instance, Leptosphaeria biglobosa quadrivirus 1 (LbQV-1) [154] tends to enhance the radial proliferation, plant biomass, and pathogenicity of L. biglobosa, that also infects B. napus as well as, along with the highly associated Leptosphaeria maculans, causes the condition called as phoma stem canker mostly in UK as well as canola blackleg mostly in USA. Simultaneously to this, B. napus's exposure to L. biglobosa contaminated with LbQV-1 causes disease resistance, which shields the crops against the more vigorous L. maculans [155]. The fungus causing smut, which is dimorphic basidiomycete, Ustilago alternates mavdis between filamentous development and yeast growth [156], and possesses a lethal yeast mechanism that is comparable to S. cerevisiae. Crops become resilient to U. mavdis and kindred infections as a consequence of the infectious toxin's transgenic manifestation in *planta* [157].

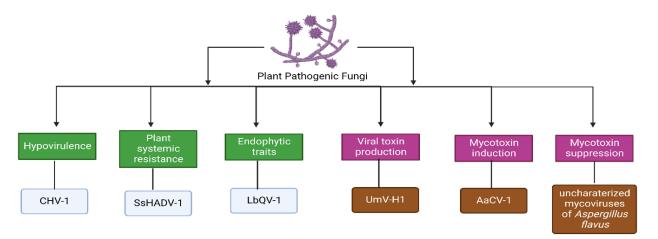


Fig. 1 Phenotypes of mycovirus in phytopathogenic fungus. Filamentous fungus that affects plants, shrubs, and agricultural crops either directly or by producing poisons have been shown to have mycovirus-induced phenotypes. With each trait, example of mycoviruses and associated host fungus are provided.

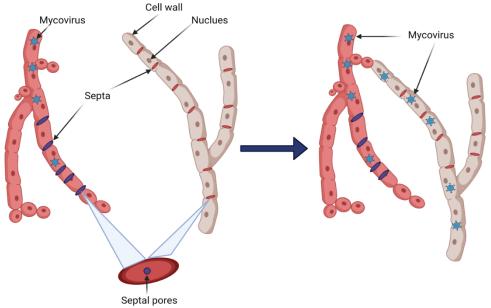


Fig. 2 Horizontal transmission of mycoviruses from infected hyphae to normal ones [160].

Quite far, it has been demonstrated that mycovirus infection alters the manufacturing of fungal toxins, suppressing the development of cancer-causing aflatoxins in *Aspergillus flavus*, the fungus that causes ear decompose, or, on the other hand, evoking the synthesis of tenuazonic acid, a supplementary chemical compound and mycotoxin, in *M. oryzae* [158] and in *Alternaria alternata*, AK-toxin [152]. Lastly, it has recently been suggested that mycovirus contamination and azole resistance are related; however, this connection has solitary been demonstrated so far in the *Penicillium digitatum*, a green mold fungus (Fig. 2) [10, 159].

Future Challenges and Conclusions

Early research on fungal infecting viruses made them objectionable since they attacked many marketable mushroom species. But after that, they were accepted as being beneficial as they can control fungal pathogenic activity. The application of mycoviruses as operative biocontrol mediators further necessitates the careful contemplation of some aspects, including both virus and host properties. Recently, Sclerotinia sclerotiorum hypo virulence related DNA virus 1 was utilized to control the rot disease of rapeseed stem, as an effect, this lowered the disease symptoms [8]. Mycovirology is currently in its early stage compared to other areas of microbiology specially discussing virology; further advancement could contribute to long-term, achieving sustainability to a number of important issues in the environment, such as antimicrobial resistance, biological control of contagious diseases or agricultural plants, and forest management. There is a lot of unrealized promise in applied mycovirus science, as demonstrated by the most recent developments in our knowledge of linkages between mycovirus and fungus hosts. There is the possibility to employ mycoviruses more effectively and manage them to achieve their full potential if researchers have a deeper grasp of the molecular processes behind mycovirus-mediated phenotypes. In the future, there will be several challenges regarding the use of hypo virulent strains for the administration of plant infective fungi. Inhibition of mycoviruses' transmission, from hypo virulent strains to target strains due to vegetative incompatibility, will be the greater challenge. Potentially unfit hypo virulent strains may cause infections. Another important issue is the adaptation of mycoviruses to live with fungal hosts. Consequently, several mycoviruses do not disturb their host species. Some mycoviruses do not tempt infectious indications in their hosts, although they harm their host. Some mycoviruses enhance the virulence of plant pathogenic fungi by altering their phenotype.

The identification of targeted species for various fungal infections, or the acquisition of pertinent data for the treatment of these fungi-induced plant ailments, are indicated to be made possible by an awareness of mycoviral variety and approaches of new virus detection. In the upcoming years, research on the complex interactions between viruses, fungi, plants, and environments is anticipated to rise, as well as the discovery of new mycoviruses. So, it is recommended that plenty of widely accessible data on viral sequencing besides bioinformatics tools may be employed as the first screening procedures for the construction of biological control measures in farming practices that have not yet been the research focus. It is anticipated that two approaches will be valuable to advance: in the first, the known hypovirulence implications of mycoviruses on their fungal hosts can also be implemented to related phytopathogens, aiming to reduce their growth and infectivity; in the second, hypervirulence associations can be tried in fungi known to be helpful to plants as stress-resistance stimulators, biocontrol and growth regulators. Moreover, molecular characterization or docking can be performed to find their molecular nature [161]. Virtual screening can also be performed to know these entities better [162]. Mycoviruses have a wide range of conceivable applications and substitutes as prospective biocontrol mediators in numerous fungi-plant systems, signifying a potential research field in the coming days.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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