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Phylogenomic relationship and evolutionary insights of sweet potato viruses from the western highlands of Kenya

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Sweet potato is a major food security crop within sub-Saharan Africa where 90 % of Africa's sweet potato production occurs. One of the major limitations of sweet potato production are viral infections. In this study, we used a combination of whole genome sequences from a field isolate from Kenya and those available in GenBank. Sequences of four sweet potato viruses: *sweet potato feathery mottle virus (SPFMV)*, *sweet potato virus C (SPVC)*, *sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus (SPCSV)*, *sweet potato chlorotic fleck virus (SPCFV)* were obtained from the Kenyan sample. SPFMV sequences both from this study and from GenBank were found to be recombinant. Recombination breakpoints were found within the NIa-Pro, coat protein and P1 genes. The SPCSV, SPVC and SPCFV viruses from this study were non-recombinant. Bayesian phylogenomic relationships across whole genome trees showed variation in the number of well-supported clades; within SPCSV (RNA1 and RNA2) and SPFMV two well-supported clades (I and II) were resolved. The SPCFV tree resolved three well-supported clades (I-III) while four well-supported clades were resolved in SPVC (I-IV). Similar clades were resolved within the coalescent species trees. However, there were disagreements between the clades resolved in the gene trees compared to those from the whole genome tree and coalescent species trees. However the coat protein gene tree of SPCSV and SPCFV resolved similar clades to genome and coalescent species tree while this was not the case in SPFMV and SPVC. In addition, we report variation in selective pressure within sites of the individual genes across all four viruses; overall all viruses were under purifying selection. We report the first complete genomes of SPFMV, SPVC, SPCFV and a partial SPCSV from Kenya as a mixed infection in one sample. In addition, we reveal their phylogenomic relationships and provide evolutionary insights into these viruses. Our findings demonstrate the need for clean planting materials as the first line of control for these viruses, in particular for smallholder farmers within eastern Africa region.

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37 Abstract

38
39 Sweet potato is a major food security crop within sub-Saharan Africa where 90 % of Africa's sweet
40 potato production occurs. One of the major limitations of sweet potato production are viral
41 infections. In this study, we used a combination of whole genome sequences from a field isolate
42 from Kenya and those available in GenBank. Sequences of four sweet potato viruses: *sweet potato*
43 *feathery mottle virus (SPFMV)*, *sweet potato virus C (SPVC)*, *sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus*
44 *(SPCSV)*, *sweet potato chlorotic fleck virus (SPCFV)* were obtained from the Kenyan sample.
45 SPFMV sequences both from this study and from GenBank were found to be recombinant.
46 Recombination breakpoints were found within the N1a-Pro, coat protein and P1 genes. The
47 SPCSV, SPVC and SPCFV viruses from this study were non-recombinant. Bayesian
48 phylogenomic relationships across whole genome trees showed variation in the number of well-
49 supported clades; within SPCSV (RNA1 and RNA2) and SPFMV two well-supported clades (I
50 and II) were resolved. The SPCFV tree resolved three well-supported clades (I-III) while four well-
51 supported clades were resolved in SPVC (I-IV). Similar clades were resolved within the coalescent
52 species trees. However, there were disagreements between the clades resolved in the gene trees
53 compared to those from the whole genome tree and coalescent species trees. However the coat
54 protein gene tree of SPCSV and SPCFV resolved similar clades to genome and coalescent species
55 tree while this was not the case in SPFMV and SPVC. In addition, we report variation in selective
56 pressure within sites of the individual genes across all four viruses; overall all viruses were under
57 purifying selection. We report the first complete genomes of SPFMV, SPVC, SPCFV and a partial
58 SPCSV from Kenya as a mixed infection in one sample. In addition, we reveal their phylogenomic
59 relationships and provide evolutionary insights into these viruses. Our findings demonstrate the
60 need for clean planting materials as the first line of control for these viruses, in particular for
61 smallholder farmers within eastern Africa region.

62

63 Keywords

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65 Sweet potato virus disease, recombination, next-generation sequencing, smallholder farmers,
66 selective pressure

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72 **Introduction**

73

74 Sweet potato is grown in over nine million hectares (FAO, 2016) with 97% of global production
75 confined to China and Africa (FAOSTAT, 2006). In Africa, 90% of the production occurs around
76 the Lake Victoria region and in the western highlands of Kenya (Ewell, 1960; Loebenstein, 2010).
77 Sweet potato is considered to be a food security crop and is grown within smallholder agro-
78 ecosystems. It is intercropped with legumes such as beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris*), cowpea (*Vigna*
79 *unguiculata*) and groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea L.*) particularly within smallholder farms in Africa.
80 However, there is a two-fold difference in production levels between smallholder farms in Africa
81 compared to Asia, and America (Loebenstein, 2010). One major reason for these differences is the
82 spread of viral diseases within the cropping system. Sweet potato is vegetatively propagated
83 through cuttings, and viruses are often spread this way. In addition, viruliferous aphids in
84 particular: *Aphis gossypii*, *Myzus persicae*, *A. craccivora* and *Lipaphis erysimi* and some whiteflies
85 (*Bemisia tabaci*, *Trialeurodes vaporariorum*) are associated with the spread of these viruses
86 (Navas-Castillo et al., 2014; Tugume, Mukasa and Valkonen, 2008).

87

88 Some of the major viruses affecting sweet potato production include: *Sweet potato feathery mottle*
89 *virus* (SPFMV, genus *Potyvirus*, family *Potyviridae*), *sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus* (SPCSV,
90 genus *Crinivirus*, family *Closteroviridae*), *sweet potato mild mottle virus* (SPMMV, genus
91 *Ipomovirus* family *Potyviridae*), *sweet potato virus C* (SPVC, genus *potyvirus* family *Potyviridae*),
92 and *sweet potato chlorotic fleck virus* (SPCFV) (Tairo et al., 2005). Of interest within the family
93 *Potyviridae* and previously reported in the western highland of Kenya are SPFMV and SPVC,
94 which are typical members of the genus *Potyvirus*. They are flexuous, non-enveloped, rod-shaped
95 particles that are 680-900 nm long and 11-15 nm wide (Urcuqui-inchima and Haenni, 2001). They
96 contain a single open reading frame that is approximately 10 Kb and transcribes ten genes with
97 varying functions (Wainaina et al., 2018; Urcuqui-inchima and Haenni, 2001). On the other hand,
98 sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus (genus *Crinivirus*, family *Closteroviridae*) has a non-enveloped
99 bipartite genome (Karasev, 2000). The genome is composed of a positive-stranded single-stranded
100 RNA (+ssRNA) that encodes two open reading frames ORF1a and ORF1b (Kreuze, Savenkov and
101 Valkonen, 2002). The co-infection of SPFMV and SPCSV results in a synergetic reaction between
102 these two viruses leading to severe symptoms observed in sweet potato virus disease (SPVD),

103 which is the most devastating viral disease of sweet potato (Karyeija *et al.*, 2000; Kreuze and
104 Valkonen, 2017). Moreover, another major virus found within the sweet potato production zones
105 in eastern Africa is the *sweet potato chlorotic fleck virus* (SPCFV, genus *Carlavirus* Family
106 *Flexiviridae*) (Aritua *et al.*, 2009; Aritua *et al.*, 2007). SPCFV is a single-stranded positive-sense
107 RNA genome. It has filamentous particles of between 750 to 800 by 12 nm in size (Aritua *et al.*,
108 2009). The complete genome of SPCFV consists of 9,104 nucleotides (nt) containing six putative
109 open reading frames (ORFs) (Aritua *et al.*, 2009). Typical symptoms of SPCFV infection include
110 fine chlorosis spots on the sweet potato cultivar. Co-infection of SPCFV with SPCSV results in
111 milder symptoms compared to those observed in SPVD (Tugume, Mukasa and Valkonen, 2016).
112 It is postulated that the whitefly vector is associated with the transmission of SPCFV (Aritua *et*
113 *al.*, 2007), however, vector transmission studies on this are yet to be performed to confirm this
114 (Tugume, Mukasa and Valkonen, 2016; Aritua *et al.*, 2007).

115
116 The agro-ecosystem in the western highlands of Kenya is characterised by a heterogeneous
117 cropping system (Wainaina *et al.*, 2018; Tittonell *et al.*, 2007), which allows for virus movement
118 between crops during the cropping season. To date, there have been limited efforts to identify the
119 diversity and phylogenomic relationships of plant viruses in this system. In addition, it is unknown
120 what the role of recombination and selective pressures are in the evolution of these viruses. In this
121 study, we used a high throughput sequencing approach to identify plant viruses within sweet
122 potato, and sought the answer to the question; “What is the phylogenomic relationship of sweet
123 potato viruses present in the western highlands of Kenya, and what evolutionary state are they
124 under?” We report the first complete genomes of SPFMV, SPVC and SPCSV and a partial SPCSV
125 from the western highlands of Kenya. In addition, we show the role of recombination events and
126 selective pressure across the complete genome in driving the evolution of these viruses.

127
128 These four viruses have previously been reported within east Africa, including Kenya (Ateka *et*
129 *al.*, 2004). However, detection was dependent on either immunoassay (ELISA) or PCR
130 amplification fragments of the coat protein gene (Ateka *et al.*, 2004; Opiyo *et al.*, 2010; Miano,
131 LaBonte and Clark, 2008). To date, there are no complete genomes of these viruses from Kenya.
132 Findings from this study, provide the basis for improving molecular diagnosis through primer
133 design and testing for various viral strains within eastern Africa. In addition, the new genomes
134 from this region will further contribute to the evolutionary analysis of this and related viruses.

135

136 Material and Methods

137

138 Field collection

139

140 Ethical approval to conduct this study was obtained from the University of Western Australia
141 (RA/4/1/7475). In addition, permission to access all privately owned farms was obtained through
142 signed consent forms by the head of each household. Sweet potato samples were collected as part
143 of a larger field survey in the western highlands of Kenya over two cropping seasons (2015 and
144 2016) during the long season (Wainaina et al., 2018).

145 Nucleic acid extraction and PCR screening viruses

146

147 From each leaf, RNA was extracted using the Zymo RNA miniprep kit (Zymo, USA) according
148 to the manufacturer's specifications. Extractions were then lyophilised and shipped to the
149 University of Western Australia for further processing.

150 Lyophilised RNA was subsequently reconstituted with nucleases free water. From an aliquot of
151 the RNA, cDNA was prepared using Promega master mix (Promega Corp) essentially as described
152 by the manufacturer. Subsequently, reverse transcription PCR (RT-PCR) was carried out using the
153 Bioneer master mix (Bioneer) using two sets of primers the universal *Potyvirus* primer

154 LegPotyF 5'-GCWKCHATGATYGARGCHTGGG-3' and

155 LegPotyR 5'-AYYTGTYMTCHCCATCCATC-3' (Webster, 2008) and a degenerate carlavirus
156 primers 5'-GTTTTCCCAGTCACGAC-3' and

157 5'-ATGCCXCTXAXXCCXCC-3' (Chen and Adams, 2002).

158

159

160 cDNA library preparation and RNA-Seq sequencing

161

162 A *cDNA* library was prepared from the a sweet potato sample that was positive after the initial
163 PCR screening using Illumina Truseq stranded total RNA sample preparation kit with plant
164 ribozero as described by the manufacturer (Illumina). All libraries containing the correct insert
165 size fragments and quantity were sent to Macrogen Korea for subsequent sequencing. Libraries
166 were normalised based on concentration and then pooled before sequencing. Pair-end sequencing
167 (2 x 150 bp) was done on the rapid run mode using a single flow cell on the Illumina Hiseq 2500
168 (Macrogen, Korea).

169

170 Assembly and mapping of RNA-Seq reads

171

172 Raw reads were trimmed and assembled using CLC Genomics Workbench (CLCGW ver 7.0.5)
173 (Qiagen). Trimmed reads were assembled using the following parameters: quality scores limit set
174 to 0.01, the maximum number of ambiguities was set to two and read lengths less than 100 nt were
175 discarded. Contigs were assembled using the *de novo* assembly function on CLCGW essentially
176 as described in (Wainaina *et al.*, 2018; Kehoe *et al.*, 2014). Reference-based mapping was then
177 carried out using complete genomes retrieved from GenBank reference sequences. Mapping
178 parameters were set as follows: minimum overlap 10%, minimum overlap identity 80 %, allow
179 gaps 10% and fine-tuning iteration up to 10 times. The consensus contig from the mapping was
180 aligned using MAFFT (Katoh and Standley 2013) to the *de novo* contig of interest. The resulting
181 alignments were manually inspected for ambiguities, which were corrected with reference to the
182 original assembly or mapping. The open reading frame and annotation of the final sequences were
183 done in Geneious 8.1.8 (Biomatters). Sequences were referred to as nearly complete if the entire
184 coding region was present, and complete if the entire genome including untranslated regions were
185 present.

186

187 Database retrieval of whole genome sequences

188 Whole genome sequences, of the four sweet potato viruses, were obtained from the National
189 Centre of Biotechnology Information (NCBI). The following sequences were obtained: *sweet*
190 *potato feathery mottle virus* (SPFMV) (n=25), *sweet potato virus C* (SPVC) (n=20), *sweet potato*
191 *chlorotic fleck virus* (SPCFV) (n=7) and *sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus* (n=6). Sequence
192 alignment was carried out using MAFFT v7.017 (Katoh and Standley, 2016).

193 Detection of recombination breakpoints

194

195 Assessment of the recombination breakpoints of the nearly complete genomes from this study and
196 those retrieved from GenBank was carried out using the seven programs within the RDP4 software
197 (Martin *et al.*, 2015). The programs used were: RDP (Martin *et al.*, 2005), GENECONV (Padidam,
198 Sawyer and Fauquet, 1999), Bootscan (Martin *et al.*, 2005) MaxChi (Smith, 1992) Chimaera
199 (Posada and Crandall 2001), 3Seq (Boni, Posada and Feldman, 2007) and SiScan (Gibbs,

200 Armstrong and Gibbs, 2000). A true recombination event was inferred if found by at least four of
201 the seven programs were supported by a Bonferroni correction with a P value cut-off of 0.05.

202

203 **Bayesian phylogenetic analysis, coalescent species tree estimation using a coalescent** 204 **framework and pairwise identity analyses**

205

206 Bayesian inference was used to estimate the phylogenetic relationships for *sweet potato virus C*
207 (*SPVC*), *sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus* (SPCSV) and *sweet potato chlorotic fleck virus*
208 (SPCFV). These analyses were carried out on the complete genomes and separately on individual
209 genes. The most suitable evolutionary models were determined by jModelTest (Darriba *et al.*,
210 2012). Bayesian analysis of the nearly complete genomes was carried out using Exabayes 1.4.1
211 (Aberer, Kobert and Stamatakis, 2014) while individual genes were analysed using MrBayes 3.2.2
212 (Huelsenbeck, 2001). MrBayes was run for 50 million generations on four chains, with trees
213 sampled every 1000 generations using GTR+I+G as the evolutionary model. In each of the runs,
214 the first 25% (2,500) of the sampled trees were discarded as burn-in. In the ExaBayes run, each
215 gene segment was assigned an independent evolutionary model. ExaBayes was run for 50
216 million generations on four chains. In each run, the first 25% of the sampled trees were discarded
217 as burn-in. Convergence and mixing of the chains were evaluated using Tracer v1.6
218 (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/tracer/>) and trees visualised using Figtree
219 (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>).

220 Species tree estimation using the complete genome was carried out using SVD Quartets (Chifman
221 and Kubatko, 2014) with a coalescent framework to estimate the species tree for SPFMV, SPCSV,
222 SPVC and SPCFV. The SVDQ analysis used all quartets with support of the species tree branches
223 based on a bootstrap support of > 50%. The species tree was visually compared to the gene trees
224 from MrBayes and the complete genome tree from ExaBayes. Pairwise identities on the complete
225 and partial sequences from Kenya, and from GenBank sequence were determined using Geneious
226 8.1.9 (Bio matters)

227

228 **Results**

229

230 RNA-Seq on total plant RNA resulted in 12,667,976 reads which after trimming resulted to
231 10,995,262 reads. *De novo* assembly produced 9,269 contigs from one sample (Table 1). Plant

232 virus contigs were identified after BLASTn searches with lengths of between 10,218 – 16,157 nt,
233 and average coverage depth of between 1,339 – 11,890 times. Genome sequences with complete
234 open reading frame were considered full genomes. However, genome sequences that lacked parts
235 of the 5' and 3' UTR regions were considered to be near complete genomes. The final sequence
236 was obtained from the consensus of *de novo* assembly and the mapped consensus of reads and
237 ranged from 9,414 – 16,157 nt in length (Table 1). The four sweet potato viruses obtained from
238 this study are summarised in Table 1. While whole genome sequences retrieved from GenBank
239 are summarised in (Supplementary Table 1). All viral sequences generated from this study were
240 deposited in GenBank with the accession numbers: SPVC (MH264531), SPCSV (RNA1
241 MH264532), SPCSV (RNA2, MH264533), SPCFV (MH264534), and SPFMV (MH264535).

242

243 **Analysis of recombination**

244

245 Among the viral sequences from this study and those from GenBank, SPFMV was found to be
246 recombinant. SPFMV sequence from this study was found to be recombinant at position 9,9964 -
247 10,482 nt within the coat protein region (Table 2). Moreover, GenBank SPFMV sequences from
248 GenBank were also found to be recombinant sequences within P1, Nla-pro and coat protein gene
249 regions (Table 2).

250

251 **Bayesian Phylogenetic relationship, coalescent species tree estimation and percentage** 252 **pairwise identity**

253

254 Bayesian phylogenomic relationships among the sweet potato viruses were carried out across the
255 whole genome in the case of SPVC, SPFMV, and SPCFV and within RNA1 and partial RNA 2 in
256 the case of SPCSV. There was a variation in the number of clades resolved across the
257 phylogenomic trees; within SPCSV (RNA1 and RNA2) two well-supported clades were resolved
258 identified as clade I-II (Fig 1 and 2). The Kenyan sequences clustered within clade II and were
259 closely associated with two Uganda sequences and one sequence from China on both trees. Four
260 well-supported clades identified as clades I-IV were resolved within the SPVC phylogenomic trees
261 (Fig. 3). The Kenyan sequences clustered within clade II with sequences from Peru, Spain and
262 East Timor (Fig. 3). Three well-supported clades were resolved within the SPCFV phylogenomic
263 tree identified as clades I-III (Fig.4). The Kenyan sequence clustered within clade III with two

264 Uganda sequences. Within the SPFMV phylogenomic tree comprising of both recombinant and
265 non-recombinant sequences (Fig 5a) three clades were also resolved and identified as clades I-III
266 (Fig.5a). The Kenyan sequences were clustered in clade I (Fig. 5a). While phylogenomic analysis
267 using SPFMV non-recombinant sequences resolved two well-supported clades that were
268 associated with the two main SPFMV strains the russet crack (RC) clade I and ordinary (O) clade
269 (Fig. 5b). The Kenyan sequence was excluded from this phylogenomic tree since it was
270 recombinant. Moreover, phylogenetic analysis on the two genes where the recombination
271 breakpoint was identified resolved two clades, within the coat protein gene tree (Fig. 5c) and three
272 clades in Nla-Pro gene tree (Fig. 5d). Within the coat protein gene tree, recombinant sequence
273 formed a distinct sub-clade identified as 1a within the larger clade I. While in Nla-Pro the
274 recombinant sequence clustered in clade II (Fig. 5d). On the other hand, gene trees across the four
275 viruses resolved varying numbers of well-supported clades, with the majority of the clades
276 discordant to the whole genome tree clades. However, the coat protein gene tree used as the
277 primary virus diagnostic molecular marker resolved similar clades to both the concatenated
278 genome tree and the coalescent species tree (Fig.S1-S4 and Table S2a-2b) in SPCSV and SPCFV
279 but not in SPVC and SPFMV (Table S2a-S2b).

280 The discordance between the gene trees and the species trees could be attributed to; incomplete
281 lineage sorting (ILS), gene gain and loss, horizontal gene transfer (HGT) and gene duplication
282 (Maddison, 1997). It is probable that some of these factors could be the difference between the
283 gene and species trees. Percentage pairwise identities between the Kenya sequences and the
284 GenBank sequences varied across the viruses within SPCSV RNA1 (83 -99%), RNA 2 (70 -98%).
285 The closest match to the Kenyan sequence was two Uganda sequences (AJ428554.1 and
286 NC_004123.1) and a sequence from China (KC1468421) with nucleotide identities of between
287 98.7-98.8 %. Within the SPVC nucleotide, identity match ranged between (91-98 %). The closest
288 match to the Kenyan sequence was a sequence from Spain (KU511269) with 93.3 % percentage
289 identity. Percentage nucleotide identity within the SPCFV ranged between 72 -96 %. The closest
290 nucleotide identity matches to the Kenyan sequence were sequences from Uganda (NC_006550
291 and AY461421) with percentage identity of 96.5%. Percentage nucleotide identity within the
292 SPFMV ranged between 87-98 %. The closest nucleotide identity match to the Kenyan sequence
293 was a sequence from China (KY296450).

294

295 Selection pressure analysis across genes

296

297 Assessment of selective pressure based on the ratio of the average synonymous and non-
298 synonymous (d_N/d_S) substitution across the coding region of individual genes in each of the four
299 viruses showed evidence of purifying selection (Fig 6 a-d). However the rates of purifying
300 selection ($d_N/d_S < 1$) was not homogeneous across genes. Genes that were under relatively lower
301 purifying selection were the P1 gene in both SPVC and SPFMV (Fig. 6a and 6d). On the other
302 hand, triple block 3 and Nucleic acid binding virus gene in SPCFV (Fig. 6b) and the coat protein
303 gene in all four viruses was under strong purifying selection with d_N/d_S ratios of ~ 0.1 (Fig.6a-d).

304

305 Discussion

306

307 One of the major limitations to sweet potato production, especially within smallholder agro-
308 ecosystems in Kenya, are viral diseases. Among these viral diseases is the sweet potato virus
309 disease (SPVD) attributed to the co-infection of SPFMV and SPCSV that act in synergy to
310 exacerbate symptoms. In this study, we identified a mixed infection involving four viruses; *sweet*
311 *potato feathery mottle virus* (SPFMV), *sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus* (SPCSV), *sweet potato*
312 *virus C* (SPVC) and *sweet chlorotic fleck virus* (SPCFV). We report the first complete genome of
313 SPFMV, SPVC, SPCFV and partial SPCSV from Kenya. The SPFMV and SPVC genomes are the
314 first from sub-Saharan Africa. Moreover, we conducted phylogenomic relationship analysis of this
315 genomes. In addition we identified recombination events and selective pressure as acting on the
316 virus genomes and potential drives for their evolution in Kenya and globally.

317

318 High throughput RNA sequencing (RNA-Seq) was used to identify the complete genome and
319 partial genome of sweet potato viruses from a viral symptomatic sweet potato. We report the first
320 complete genomes of SPVC (10,392 nt), SPFMV (10,482 nt), SPCFV (9,414 nt) and partial
321 SPCSV (16,157 nt) (Table 1) from Kenya. Presence of the SPFMV and SPCSV are an indication
322 of sweet potato virus disease (SPVD), being prevalent on the farm where sampling was done.
323 SPVD remains one of the major diseases infecting sweet potato in eastern Africa. Previous reports
324 of sweet potato virus disease from the western highlands of Kenya and in the neighbouring regions
325 of Uganda have been reported (Ateka *et al.*, 2004; Opiyo *et al.*, 2010; Tugume, Mukasa and
326 Valkonen, 2016). Prevalence levels of SPFMV were reported to be at 89 % while those SPCSV to

327 be 55 % in Kenya using on ELISA. While in Uganda, the prevalence levels were between 1.3 %
328 for SPFMV and 5.4 % in SPCSV based on next-generation sequencing. In this study, we build on
329 these findings using a whole genome sequencing approach rather than single gene loci.

330

331 SPFMV and SPVC belong to the family *Potyviridae* are spread by viruliferous aphids and through
332 infected cuttings within sweet potato (Ateka *et al.*, 2004). In addition, a *Carlavirus* sweet potato
333 chlorotic fleck virus (SPCFV) and partial *Crinivirus* sweet potato chlorotic stunt (SPCSV) were
334 also identified (Table 1) with the primary mode of transmission being whitefly vectors coupled
335 with infected cuttings (Navas-Castillo *et al.*, 2014; Kreuze, Savenkov and Valkonen, 2002). Co-
336 infection of whitefly and aphids results in the transmission of different viruses within the same
337 host plant. This increases the chances of co-infection of multiple insect transmitted viruses. It is
338 therefore likely that within the agro-ecosystems of western Kenya, there is heavy infestation of
339 both aphids and whitefly vectors. Thus resulting in the spread of these aphid and whitefly
340 transmitted viruses. Previous studies have reported aphid and whitefly-transmitted viruses in other
341 crops with the western region (Wainaina *et al.*, 2018; Mangeni *et al.*, 2014; Legg *et al.*, 2014; Legg
342 *et al.*, 2006). It is therefore probable that these sap-sucking insects vectors forage in sweet potato
343 leading to the co-infection of multiple viruses. Co-infection of both aphid-transmitted and
344 whitefly-transmitted viruses within sweet potato has previously been reported within the Lake
345 Victoria region (Adikini *et al.*, 2016; Tugume *et al.*, 2010; Adikini *et al.*, 2015). Moreover farming
346 practices within smallholder farmers, which include partial harvesting of mature sweet potato, are
347 thought to maintain the virus within the agro-ecosystem. The advantage of this practice is it allows
348 for the crop to remain underground, where it stores well (Loebenstein, 2010). This provides a
349 sustainable food source to the farmers. However, a major drawback of these practices is these
350 sweet potato crops may act as potential viral reservoirs. Which subsequently, become a viral
351 sources aiding dissemination to non-infected host plants by the insect vectors in the course of the
352 cropping season. This phenomenon results in the continuous circulation of viruses within the agro-
353 ecosystems.

354

355 Survival of plant viruses is dependent on their ability to be successful vectored and transmitted in
356 a suitable host plants. Survival within the host plant is dependent on the ability of the virus to
357 evade the host plant resistance system. While at the same time maintaining their genetic vigour to

358 allow for replication. One approach that utilise for their survival is recombination, which is a key
359 driver of virus evolution. Recombination ensures the survival of viruses, as they cross-different
360 environments from the vector to the host plants. In addition, beneficial traits are acquired while
361 deleterious are removed. Within *Potyviridae*, recombination is highly prevalent (Wainaina *et al.*,
362 2018; Ndunguru *et al.*, 2015; Varsani *et al.*, 2008; Elena, Fraile and García-Arenal, 2014; Tugume,
363 Mukasa and Valkonen, 2016). Moreover, co-infection of multiple viruses in particular within
364 sweet potato results in well-adapted viruses and have been adversely reported in sweet potato
365 (Tugume, Mukasa, *et al.*, 2010; Maina *et al.*, 2017; Maina *et al.*, 2018)

366

367 Analysis of recombination on both Kenya across GenBank sequences identified 11 recombinant
368 sequences in SPFMV (Table 2), among which was the Kenyan sequences, while the three viruses
369 identified (SPCV, SPVC and SPCFV) from Kenya were not recombinant. The SPVC sequences
370 from GenBank sequences were recombinant but are well described and discussed in (Maina *et al.*,
371 2018). Within SPFMV, recombination was mainly found within P1, Nla-Pro and the coat protein
372 region of the genome. These findings are consistent with previous SPFMV reports (Maina *et al.*,
373 2017; Maina *et al.*, 2018). The coat protein region is a hot spot of recombination mainly due to the
374 selective pressure from the host immune system. As a strategy to evade the host immune system,
375 viral coat protein is constantly changing. On the other hand, the P1 gene is postulated to be the
376 driver for diversity of the *Potyviruses* thus resulting in evolutionary branching of other members
377 of the potyviruses such as the ipomovirus and tritimoviruses (Valli, López-Moya and García,
378 2007). The main driver of recombination within the P1 region is postulated to be the interaction
379 between the N-terminal region of P1 gene and of the host plant (Valli, López-Moya and García,
380 2007). It is therefore common to have both intragenus and intergenus recombination within P1
381 thus facilitating better host adaption. Similarly, we postulate this could also be the primary reason
382 for the recombination events within Nla-Pro. Nla-Pro is associated with the proteolytic activities
383 within members of the family *Potyviridae*. In addition, it regulates the potyviral proteins at
384 different stages of infection thus ensuring successful viral colonisation (Ivanov *et al.*, 2014).

385

386 Phylogenetic analyses were carried out between the complete genomes from Kenya and reference
387 GenBank sequences (Fig. 1-5). In both, SPCSV RNA 1 and RNA 2 (Fig. 1 and 2) and SPCFV (Fig.
388 4) Kenya and Uganda sequences clustered together in a well-supported clade. The percentage

389 nucleotide similarity was over 96% compared to Uganda sequences. We suggest the clustering of
390 Uganda and Kenya sequences could be due to movement of infected plant cuttings across the
391 border of Kenya and Uganda. Communities living in this region have a shared kinship that
392 transcends the geopolitical borders and often there is exchange of vegetative planting material.
393 Moreover, there is inadequate phytosanitary screening across the borders of plant cuttings.
394 Previous studies have reported both virus and vector movement through plant cuttings along these
395 border regions (Legg *et al.*, 2011). In addition, this mode of virus spread has also been reported in
396 other vegetatively propagated crops such as cassava (Legg *et al.*, 2014; Alicai *et al.*, 2016).

397

398 SPVC sequences from this study clustered with the South-American (Peru) Spanish and one East
399 Timor sequences in a well-supported clade (Clade II) (Fig. 3) with the highest similarity to a
400 sequence for Spain (KU511269) at 93% nucleotide identity. SPVC is likely to have been
401 introduced into the eastern Africa regions through traders and the British colonialist and
402 missionaries with the introduction of sweet potato into eastern Africa. The Portuguese traders
403 transported sweet potato from South America to Africa through the Mozambique and Angola
404 around 15th century. The British colonialists subsequently followed them in 1662. We hypothesize
405 SPVC then 'jumped' into the native vegetation, and thereafter was maintained within the agro-
406 ecosystem a long time ago. More recently, international trade between Kenya, Europe and parts of
407 South America, is a likely route for the introduction of the SPVC into western Kenya. More SPVC
408 genomes across global geographical regions will in future provide an opportunity to better
409 understanding the evolutionary dynamics of SPVC.

410

411 Phylogenomic relationship of SPFMV sequences are likely distorted due to recombinant SPFMV
412 sequences (Table 2). Recombination has been implicated in misrepresenting the true phylogenetic
413 relationship of viruses (Varsani *et al.*, 2008; Schierup and Hein, 2000; Posada, 2002). In this study,
414 SPFMV sequence both from this study and GenBank were found to be recombinant (Table 2).
415 Recombinant sequences formed a distinct clade on both the coat protein and N1a-Pro gene trees
416 (Fig 5c-5d) and whole genome tree (Fig.5a-5b). A significant feature of recombination on the
417 phylogenetic tree is the splitting of sequences into recombinant versus non-recombinant clades,
418 which was observed (Fig 5a, 5c and 5d). Thus any inference in the clustering of SPFMV sequences,
419 in particular, with recombinant sequences present is likely to be inaccurate The SPFMV

420 phylogenomic tree with non-recombinant sequences resolved two clades associated with two of
421 the three main phylogroups present in SPFMV associated with the SPFMV strains (russet crack
422 (RC) and ordinary (O) (Maina *et al.*, 2017; Kreuze *et al.*, 2000) (Fig. 5b).

423

424 Single gene loci are used in routine molecular diagnostics and subsequent analysis on phylogenetic
425 relationship of viruses. A majority of the gene trees across all four viruses were discordant to the
426 concatenated genome tree except within the coat protein gene which is the primary diagnostic
427 marker (Colinet, Kummert, et al., 1995). However there was concordance between the number of
428 clades resolved from the concatenated whole genome tree, the coalescent species tree, and the coat
429 protein gene trees in SPCSV (RNA1 and RNA2) and SPCFV (Table S2b) however, this was not
430 the case in SPFMV, and SPVC (Table.S2b). These indicate that the coat protein remains an ideal
431 diagnostic marker for molecular diagnostics within viral families. These findings are comparable
432 to previous virus whole-genome studies (Wainaina *et al.*, 2018). However, they also differ with
433 other viruses within the *ipomoviruses* such as the cassava brown streak virus (CBSV) and Uganda
434 cassava brown streak virus (UCBSV) (Alicai *et al.*, 2016). A probable cause of these differences
435 could be that divergence of the *ipomoviruses* compared to other members of the family
436 *Potyviridae*. Therefore, it is necessary to evaluate all gene trees against the coalescent species tree
437 and concatenated genome tree of individual viruses to determine which of the genes reflects the
438 true phylogenetic relationship of the virus based on the sequences. This approach is more stringent,
439 and provides a robust phylogenetic relationship. This is imperative in the control and management
440 of viral infections.

441

442 Selective pressure across genes of RNA viruses varies across viral families and genes (Duffy,
443 Shackelton and Holmes, 2008). Though RNA viruses undergo rapid evolutionary rates, this is
444 dictated by several factors such as viral populations, inter versus intra-host variation, and
445 population sizes (Duffy, Shackelton and Holmes, 2008). Across all the viral sequences (Fig 6a-6d)
446 the coat protein genes were under strong purifying selection ($d_N/d_S \sim 0.1$). This strong purifying
447 selection is evident in a majority of vector-transmitted viruses, due to the fitness trade-off
448 phenomena (Chare, and Holmes, 2004). The fitness trade-off states that due to the limited number
449 of insect vectors and specificity between the insect vectors and viruses that transmit RNA viruses,
450 the evolution of the RNA viruses is constrained by their insect vectors (Power, 2000; Chare and

451 Holmes, 2004). While deleterious mutations occurring within the RNA viruses, could potentially
452 affect their transmission, are subsequently removed, through purifying selection (Chare and
453 Holmes, 2004). Purifying selection is more pronounced within the coat protein as previously
454 reported (Chare and Holmes, 2004, Wainaina *et al.*, 2018; Alicai *et al.*, 2016). This further supports
455 the hypothesis of the fitness trade-off phenomena in particular within plant RNA viruses with
456 insect vectors.

457

458 On the other hand, SPFMV and SPVC from the family *Potyviridae* identified the P1 gene region
459 to be under the least selection pressure (Fig 6a and 6b). This indicates that though purifying
460 selection was evident within the P1 gene, it was to a lesser extent compared to the coat protein
461 gene. P1 is associated with viral adaptation to the host plant (Shi *et al.*, 2007, Salvador *et al.*, 2008;
462 Tugume, Mukasa, *et al.*, 2010). The P1 interferes with the host plant RNA induced silencing
463 complex (Tugume, Mukasa, *et al.*, 2010) this ensures that viruses evade the host immune response.
464 This increases the chances for the virus to establish itself and survive within the host plant.
465 Mutations that may facilitate survival of the virus in the nascent environment are therefore
466 tolerated within the P1 region. Overall all genes within the SPCFV were under strong purifying
467 selection.

468

469 **Conclusion**

470

471 We used high throughput sequencing on a viral symptomatic sweet potato plant collected within
472 the western highlands of Kenya. We identified a co-infection of SPCSV, SFMV, SPVC and
473 SPCFV and obtained the first complete genome of these viruses from Kenya. Moreover,
474 percentage nucleotide identity in SPCSV and SCFV sequences from Kenya were closely matched
475 to Ugandan sequences with similarity ranging of above 96%. This indicates that the primary mode
476 of viral spread within sweet potato is via infected plant cuttings. Inadequate phytosanitary measure
477 and a porous border between Kenya and Uganda further exacerbate the problem. In addition, the
478 SPVC whole genome from this study, clustered with sequences from South America. We postulate
479 that SPVC may have been introduced into eastern Africa from the initial sweet potato cultivars
480 from South America. SPVC was subsequently maintained within native vegetation's after the
481 initial viral 'jumping'. Evolutionary insights based on recombination events and selective pressure

482 analysis revealed the following. Within all four viruses, SPFMV sequences were found to be
483 recombinant, in particular within the P1, Nla-Pro and coat protein genes. Recombinant SPFMV
484 sequences formed a distinct clade on both the whole genome tree and the gene trees, in particular,
485 Nla-Pro and coat protein. Conversely, selection pressure analysis across the genes varied across
486 all four viruses. However, the coat protein gene was under strong purifying selection in all viruses,
487 while the P1 gene in SPFMV and SPVC showed tendencies of weak positive selection.

488

489 Future studies should be conducted within the Lake Victoria region and the western highlands of
490 Kenya, to identify all possible sweet potato viruses and viral reservoirs within this region.
491 Moreover, mitigation measures against sweet potato viruses in particular with the smallholder
492 agro-ecosystem need to be developed. We advocate for the establishment of clean seed and
493 multiplication systems that are run and managed by trained farmers. In addition to the need for
494 peer-peer training based on model school farms on proper viral disease management and control
495 are necessary.

496

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503

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Table 1 (on next page)

Table 1

1 **Table 1:** *De novo* assembly and mapping of viral reads using CLC Genomic Workbench version and Geneious 8.1.8. The four sweet
 2 potato viruses identified were: *sweet potato feathery mottle virus* (SPFMV), *sweet potato virus C* (SPVC), *sweet potato*
 3 *chlorotic fleck* (SPCFV) and *sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus* (SPCSV)
 4
 5
 6

Sample ID	Virus	No.of reads	No of reads after trimming	Number of contigs produced	Ref seq used for mapping	Length of consensus sequence from mapping (Geneious)*	No. Reads mapped to Ref.sequence	Mean coverage (Geneious)	Contig positive for virus and length	Average coverage (CLCGW)	Number of reads mapped to contig of interest	% Similarity BLAST	Final sequence length
SRF 109a	SPFMV	12,667,976	10,995,262	9,269	FIJ55666	11,424	890,045	11944.7	5(10,218)	11,890	884,699	96	10,482
	SPVC				KU877879	11,410	466,349	6133.5	9(10,368)	4309	325,619	93;95	10,392
	SPCFV				KU720565	10,305	280,077	4383.5	19(8, 427)	5430	335,367	97	9,414
	SPCSV (RNA1)/R NA2				NC_004123	12,610	76,902	1169.4	85(16,157)	1339	164,959	99	16,157

Table 2 (on next page)

Table 2

1 **Table 2** Recombination signals across SPFMV using RDP4. Table entries represent the recombinant sequences and the position of
 2 recombination within the complete genome. A recombinant was considered as true recombinant if more than four detection programs
 3 supported at a significance level of 0.05
 4
 5

Recombination Events	Recombinant Sequence	Detected Breakpoint	Parental Sequence (Major)	Parental Sequence (Minor)	Detected in RDP4	Avr P-Val
1	SPFMV_AB439206_Lab_Isolates SPFMV_MF572056.1_EastTimor	5 -1004	SPFMV_AB509454_Lab_Isolates	SPFMV_D86371_Lab_Isolates	RGBMCS3seq	2.62 E-44
2	SPFMV_KP115609_South_Korea	22 -948	SPFMV_AB465608_South_Korea	SPFMV_MF572056.1_EastTimor	RGBMCS3seq	1.41E-36
3	SPFMV_MF185715.1_Brazil	12 -8769	SPFMV_MF572055.1_EastTimor	SPFMV_MF572054.1_Australia	RGBMCS3seq	1.42 E-36
4	SPFMV_KU511268_Spain	7062-7946	SPFMV_KP115608_South_Korea	SPFMV_AB509454_Lab_Isolates	RGBMCS3seq	1.11 E-18
5	SPFMV_KU511268_Spain	51 - 7061	SPFMV_FJ155666_Peru	SPFMV_MF572054.1_Australia	RGBMCS3seq	0.0042
6	SPFMV_MF572055.1_EastTimor	10,199 -10,663	SPFMV_MF572054.1_Australia	SPFMV_MF572046.1_Australia	RGBMCS3seq	1.49 E-11
7	SPFMV_MF572054.1_Australia	10,218 -10,663	SPFMV_MF572049.1_Australia	SPFMV_SRF109a_Kenya	RGBMCS3seq	1.30 E-09
8	SPFMV_FJ155666_Peru	1,642 -7,476	SPFMV_MF572054.1_Australia	SPFMV_AB465608_South_Korea	RGBMCS3seq	1.53 E-09
9	SPFMV_MF572056.1_EastTimor	36 - 9,374	SPFMV_MF572053.1_EastTimor	SPFMV_MF572052.1_Australia	RGBMCS3seq	1.51 E-18
10	SPFMV_FJ155666_Peru	7,477 – 10,144	SPFMV_SRF109a_Kenya	SPFMV_KY296450.1_China	RGBMCS3seq	1.06 E-02
11	SPFMV_SRF109a_Kenya	9696 – 10,216	SPFMV_MF572050.1_Australia	SPFMV_KY296450.1_China	RGBMCS3seq	1.31 E -07

6
 7 **Key:** Recombinant programs in RDP4 that detected recombinant events across the whole genome of SPFMV **3**=3seq **B**=Bootscan
 8 **C**=Chimera **G**=Gencov **R**=RDP **M**=Maxchi **S**=Siscan

Figure 1(on next page)

Figure 1

Consensus of trees sampled in a Bayesian analysis of RNA 1 gene in sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus (SPCSV) with Cucurbit yellow stunting disorder virus(CCYV) as the outgroup to root the tree.

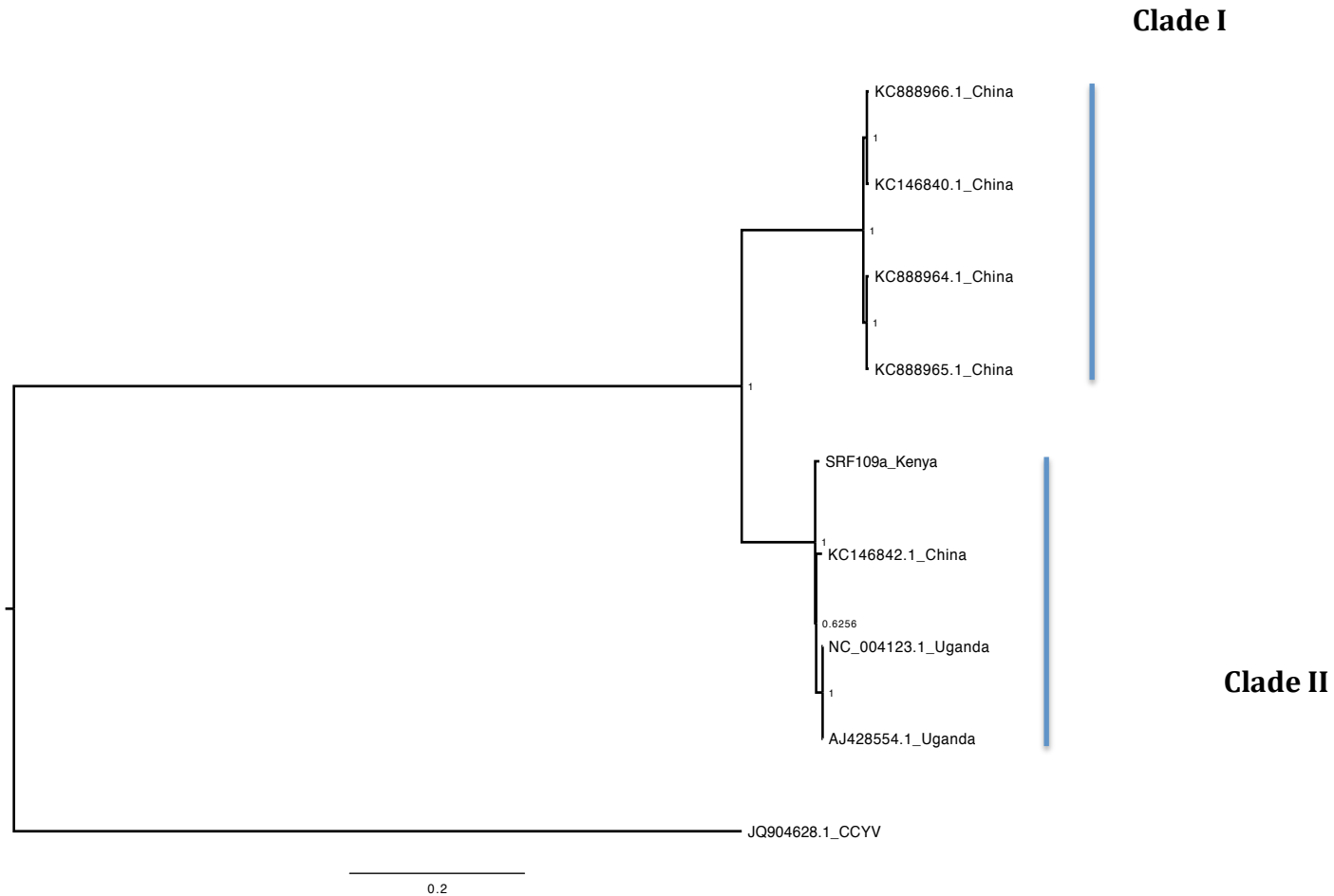


Fig 1: Consensus of trees sampled in a Bayesian analysis of RNA 1 gene in sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus (SPCSV) with Cucurbit yellow stunting disorder virus (CCYV) as the outgroup to root the tree.

Figure 2 (on next page)

Figure 2

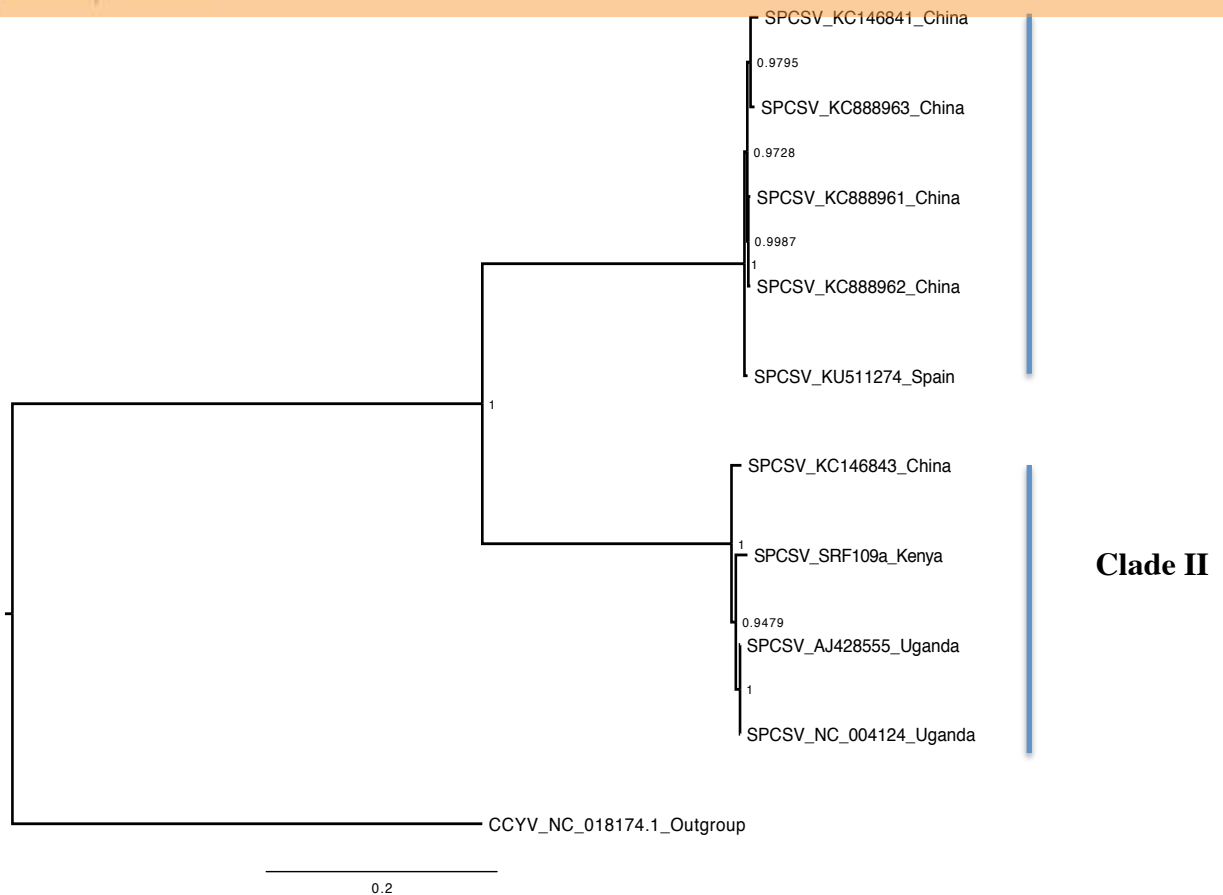


Fig. 2 : Consensus of trees sampled in a Bayesian analysis of RNA 2 gene in sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus (SPCSV) Cucurbit yellow stunting disorder virus (CCYV) as the outgroup to root the tree.

Figure 3(on next page)

Figure 3

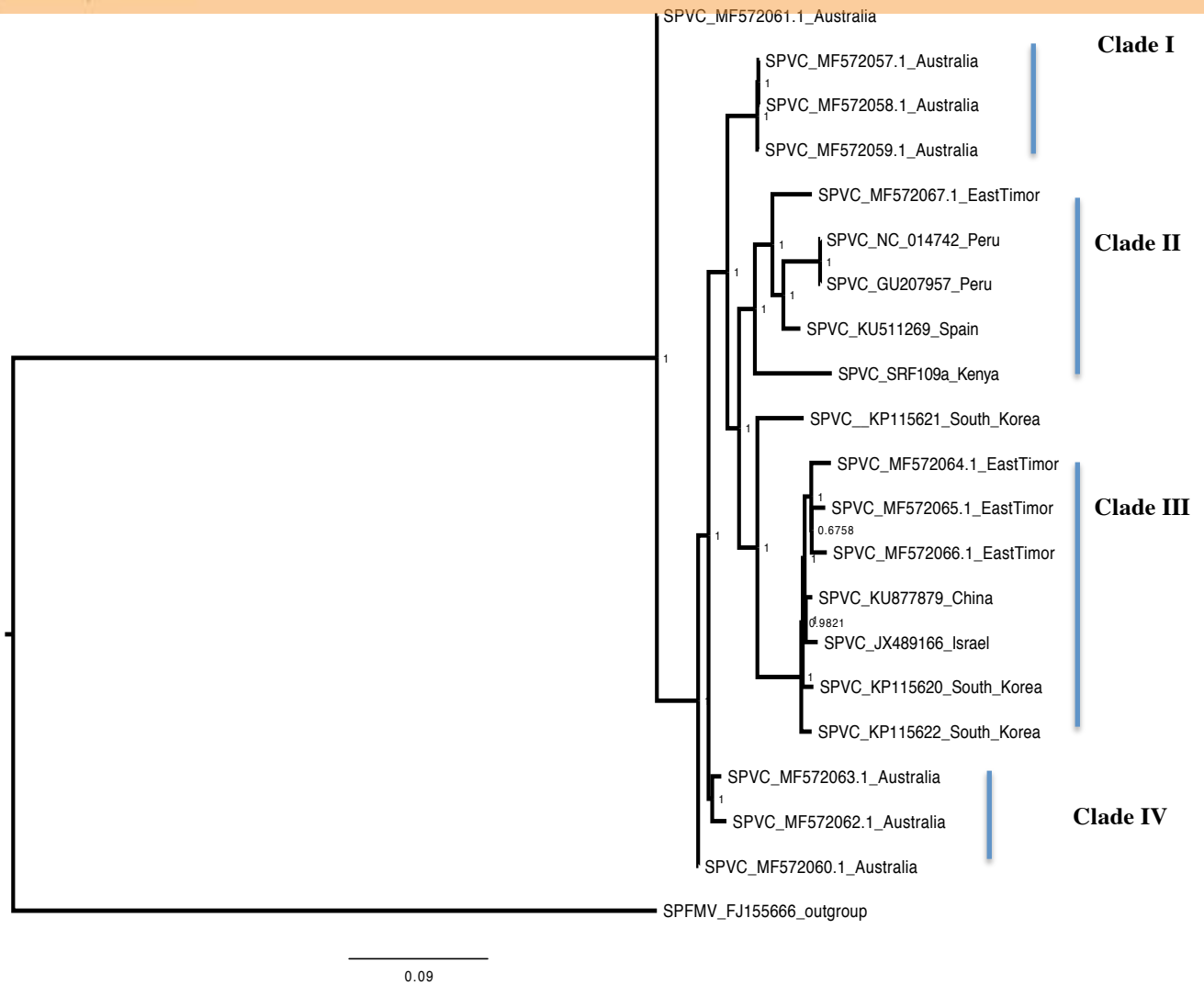


Fig. 3: Consensus of trees sampled in a Bayesian analysis of the whole genome of Sweet Potato virus C (SPVC) with Potato virus Y used as the out-group to root the tree.

Figure 4(on next page)

Figure 4

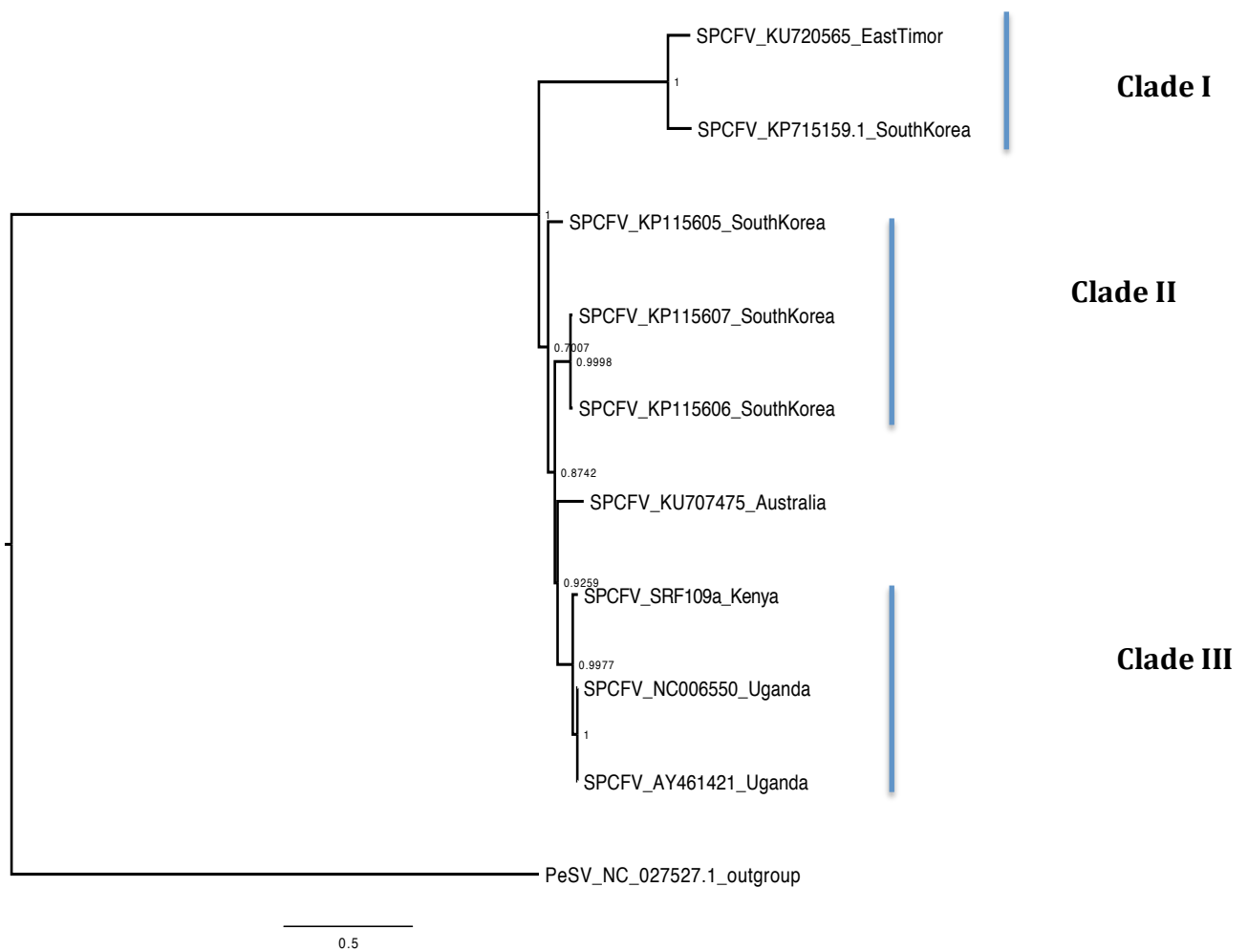


Fig. 4: Consensus of trees sampled in a Bayesian analysis of the whole genome of sweet potato chlorotic fleck (SPCFV) virus with *Pea Streak virus* (PeSV) used as the outgroup to root the tree

Figure 5 (on next page)

Figure 5

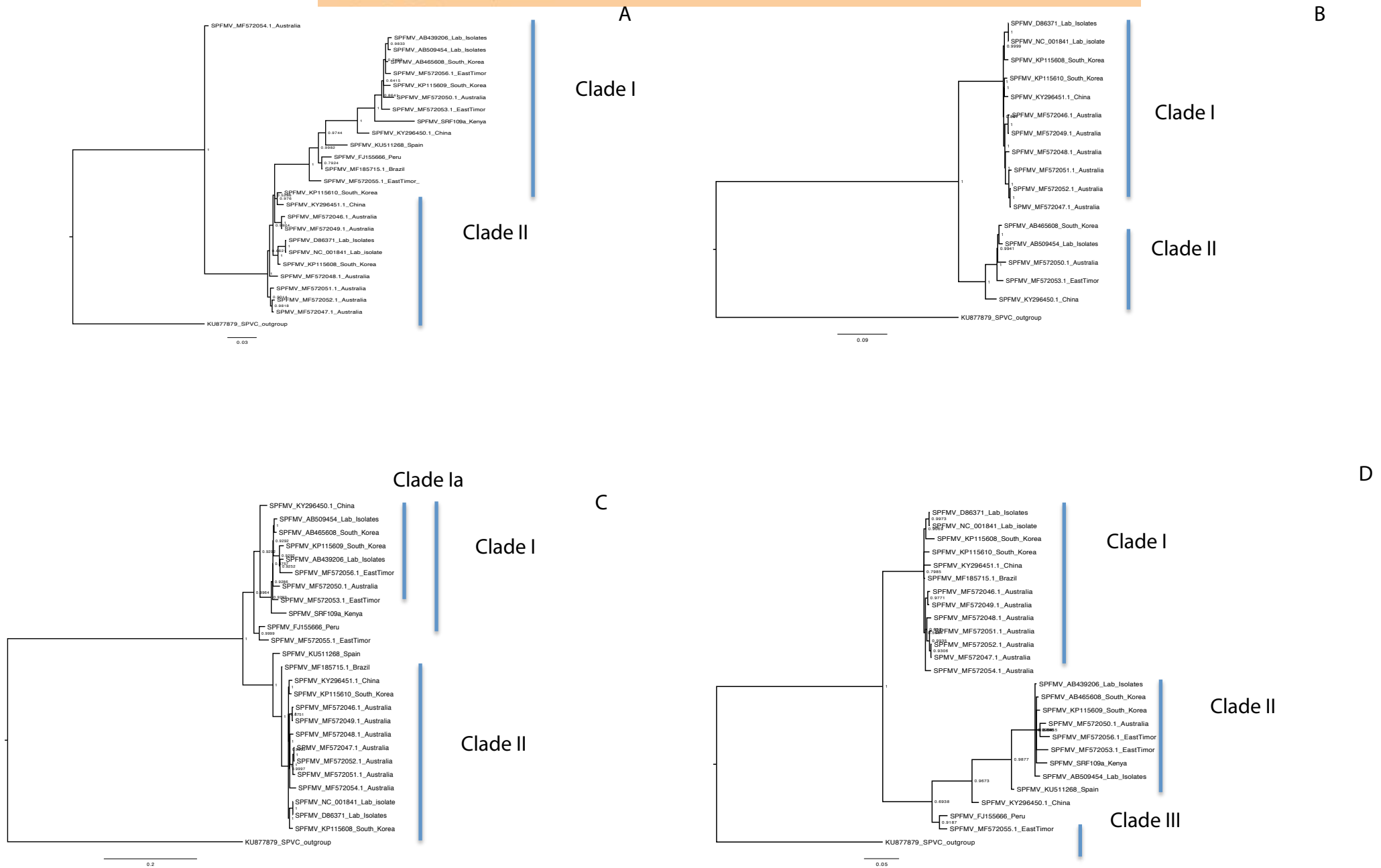


Fig 5. Consensus of trees sampled in a Bayesian analysis of the whole genome phylogenetic tree of:

(A) Sweet potato feathery mottle virus with sweet potato virus C as the out-group with both recombinant and non-recombinant sequences

(B) Sweet potato feathery mottle virus (SPFMV) with sweet potato virus C as the out-group with non-recombinant sequences.

(C) Consensus of trees sampled in a Bayesian analysis of the coat protein gene of sweet potato feathery mottle virus (SPFMV) with sweet potato virus C as the out-group using recombinant (clade Ia) and non-recombinant sequences

(D) Consensus of trees sampled in a Bayesian analysis of the Nla-Pro gene of sweet potato feathery mottle virus (SPFMV) with clade II comprising of recombinant sequences that are evolving at different rates compared to non-recombinant sequences.

Figure 6 (on next page)

Figure 6

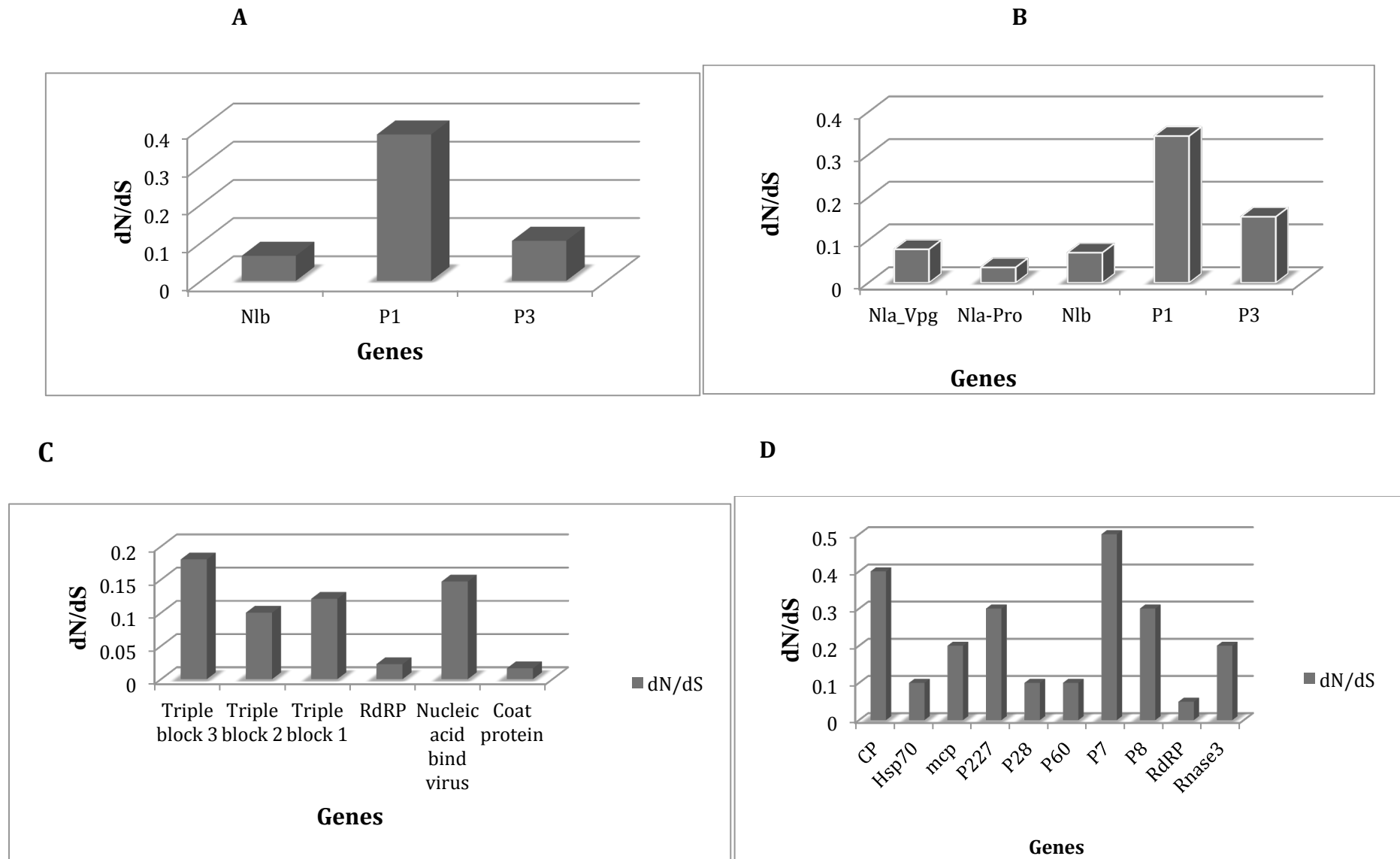


Fig 6. Selection pressure within sites of the coding region of viral gene fragments determined by assessing the average synonymous and non-synonymous (d_N/d_S) using SLAC that were plotted against each gene segment

(A) *Sweet potato virus C* (B) *Sweet potato feathery mottle virus* (SPFMV) (C) *sweet potato chlorotic fleck virus* (SPCFV) (D) RNA1 and RNA 2 genes of *sweet potato chlorotic stunt virus* (SPCSV). Genes with selection pressure of below 0.0 were not plotted