**EPPO Datasheet: *Badnavirus venavitis***

Last updated: 2022-02-07

**IDENTITY**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Preferred name:** *Badnavirus venavitis* **Taxonomic position:** Viruses and viroids: Riboviria: Pararnavirae: Artverviricota: Revtraviricetes: Ortervirales: Caulimoviridae: Badnavirus **Other scientific names:** *GVCV*, *Grapevine vein clearing virus* [view more common names online...](https://gd.eppo.int/taxon/GVCV00/) **EU Categorization:** A1 Quarantine pest (Annex II A) [view more categorizations online...](https://gd.eppo.int/taxon/GVCV00/categorization) **EPPO Code:** GVCV00 | 13878.jpg [more photos...](https://gd.eppo.int/taxon/GVCV00/photos) |

**Notes on taxonomy and nomenclature**

In 2004, a new and severe virus-like disease was reported on Chardonnay vines in a Missouri vineyard, resulting in significant reduction of vine vigour and yield with symptoms resembling those of fanleaf disease (see Symptoms). This syndrome was named Grapevine vein clearing complex (GVCC) (Qiu *et al.*, 2007). The pathogen(s) involved could be transmitted via cuttings and grafting. Chardonnay, Cabernet Franc and Baco 22A vines that were grafted with the buds from the original diseased Chardonnay vines exhibited distinct vein-clearing symptom. Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) tests indicated the association of grapevine fanleaf virus, tomato ringspot virus and grapevine Rupestris stem pitting-associated virus with the disease (Lunden *et al.*, 2010). Other reports of similar symptoms were made at this time, and based on this symptomatology, this syndrome of vein clearing and decline was speculated to be associated with a nepovirus. In 2011, virus-derived small interfering RNA (vsiRNA) high-throughput sequencing demonstrated the association of the vein clearing syndrome with a *Badnavirus* in the Caulimoviridae family. This was the first report of a DNA virus infecting grapevine and the virus was named Grapevine vein clearing virus (GVCV) (Zhang *et al*., 2011, Singh *et al*., 2012).

**HOSTS**

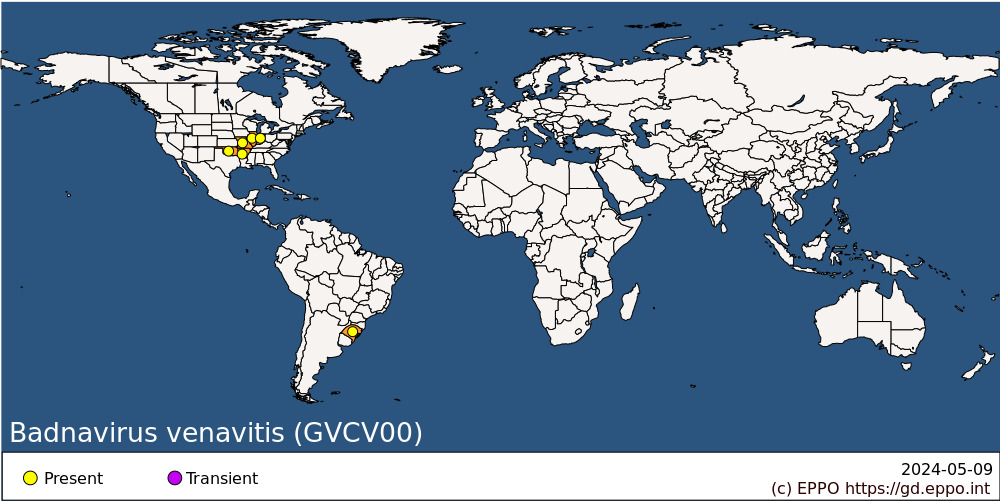
The cultivated grape *Vitis vinifera* and its hybrids with other *Vitis* species (e.g. used for rootstocks) are hosts of GVCV. A survey initiated in 2017 throughout Missouri and involving over 400 leaf samples collected randomly from 25 grape cultivars found that GVCV was exclusively detected in white-berried cultivars (Schoelz *et al*., 2021). For example, GVCV has already been detected in the following cultivars: Cayuga, Chardonel, Chardonnay, Riesling, Valvin Muscat, Vidal, Vidal Blanc, Vignoles and Viognier (Qiu & Schoelz, 2017; Schoelz *et al.*, 2021). However, some infected red-berried cultivars such as Cabernet Franc, Cabernet Sauvignon and Noiret have also been reported (Qiu & Schoelz, 2017). Some cultivars are reported to be resistant (see Control).

GVCV has also been detected in wild *Vitis rupestris*, leading to the identification of two divergent GVCV variants (Beach *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, GVCV was identified in wild *Vitis cinerea*, *V. palmata*, and *V. vulpina*, as well as in *Ampelopsis cordata* (heart-leaf pepper vine) collected in the Midwest area of the USA (Petersen *et al*., 2017; Uhls *et al*., 2021). It is hypothesized that GVCV could have originated from *A. cordata* or from unidentified wild perennial hosts in the midwestern region of the USA, spreading to nearby cultivated vines fairly recently (Cieniewicz *et al*., 2020).

**Host list:** *Ampelopsis cordata*, *Vitis cinerea*, *Vitis hybrids*, *Vitis palmata*, *Vitis rupestris*, *Vitis vinifera*, *Vitis vulpina*

**GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION**

GVCVis considered as an emerging virus in the USA, widespread in the Midwest region. Outside the USA, it has only been reported so far in Brazil (Fajardo *et al*., 2017).

 **North America:** United States of America (Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, Oklahoma) **South America:** Brazil (Rio Grande do Sul)

**BIOLOGY**

As is the case for most other plant viruses, GVCV is easily graft-transmissible (Guo *et al*., 2014).  Certain members of the genus *Badnavirus* are reported to be seed-transmitted (Bhat *et al*., 2016; EFSA PLH, 2019), but this is considered to be exceptional and no information specific to GVCV is available. Members of genus *Badnavirus* are generally not reported to be pollen-transmitted (EFSA PLH, 2019). As is the case for other non-phloem-limited grapevine viruses, it is assumed that the virus spreads in the plant over 6-12 months (i.e. over one growing season and a winter dormancy) depending on the phenology and physiological state of the vines; older vines being probably less sensitive to the virus infection.

The large expansion of viticulture in the Midwest region of the USA in the 1980s has created interfaces between cultivated grapevines and ecosystems with wild *Vitis* and *A. cordata* hosting GVCV. The presence of genetically diverse isolates of GVCV in cultivated grapevine and wild *Vitis* suggests ongoing viral population exchanges between cultivated agro-ecosystems and their wild counterparts.

Observation of clusters of symptomatic vines suggested a transmission via an insect vector. Moreover, badnaviruses are known to be transmitted either by mealybugs or, in a few cases, by aphids. Vineyard observations validated the hypothesis of an association between GVCV spread dynamics and aphids’ abundance. Furthermore, *Aphis illinoisensis*, the grapevine aphid, which is ubiquitous in the Midwest region of the USA, has been shown to be able to transmit GVCV from *A. cordata* to the cultivated variety Chardonel, which then developed typical vein clearing symptoms. Presence of GVCV in both the stylets and whole body of aphids suggests a semipersistent or a circulative non propagative transmission mode of the virus (Uhls *et al*, 2021). Given the high (31%) infection rate recorded in wild populations of *A. cordata* in Missouri, this wild grapevine relative has been suspected as the natural reservoir from which the aphid *A.* *illinoisensis* acquired the virus and transmitted it to cultivated grapevines (Cieniewicz *et al*., 2020). Grape aphids in North America are heteroecious and alternate between *Viburnum prunifolium* and *Vitaceae* species (Baker, 1917). Spring migrants typically fly up to 20 km from *V. prunifolium* to their grapevine hosts, a pattern which appears to be consistent with the local epidemic pattern of GVCV in wild plants and in vineyards (Petersen *et al*., 2019). A recent large-scale survey of GVCV in wild *Vitaceae* (*A. cordata, V. cinerea, V. palmata, V. vulpina*) and in *A. illinoisensis* aphids in Missouri showed that identical GVCV variants were found in grape aphids sampled from wild and cultivated *Vitaceae*, indicating that viruliferous aphids likely migrate and disperse GVCV variants among wild and cultivated Vitaceae (Uhls *et al*., 2021).

**DETECTION AND IDENTIFICATION**

**Symptoms**

The symptoms of GVCV are dependent on grapevine phenology and evolve during the growing season. On a single GVCV-infected grapevine, some shoots may exhibit typical symptoms, while other parts of the vine may remain symptomless. The most visible symptoms on young leaves are a translucent vein clearing of secondary and tertiary veins, followed as the season progresses by mosaic, mottling and crinkling patterns with leaf edge rolling. Chlorotic and mosaic symptoms appear on old leaves. A zigzag shoot growth and short internodes can be seen on young shoots with small and distorted leaves particularly on the Chardonel variety. Berries on the infected grapevines are deformed, discoloured, do not fully develop or do not ripen well and have a hard texture. Shoots of severely affected vines do not develop well and are stunted. Plant decline with severe yield losses, leading to the death of some plants, occurs in the years following the appearance of the first symptoms (Qiu and Schoelz, 2017).

Besides the typical vein clearing on young leaves, GVCV symptoms in wild *V. rupestris* progress to necrotic spots or veinal necrosis on mature leaves. Other infected wild *Vitis* and *A. cordata* often exhibit no symptoms or mild symptoms, although some infected *A. cordata* plants show mild vein clearing and mottle symptoms (Petersen *et al*., 2019).

**Morphology**

GVCV virions have been visualized through electron microscopy (Zhang *et al*., 2016). They are bacilliform without any envelope, 30 nm in width with a modal particle length of 130 nm. The GVCV-CHA reference genome (GenBank NC\_015784) consists of a double-stranded, circular DNA molecule of 7 753 bp. Three large open reading frames (ORFs) are predicted on the plus-strand of the genome, whose functions have not yet been fully characterized. ORF I and ORF II encode proteins of unknown function with predicted sizes of 24.2 and 14.3 kDa, respectively. ORF III encodes a polyprotein with a predicted size of 219.2 kDa. On the basis of conserved functional motifs, this polyprotein has been proposed to contain domains corresponding to a movement protein, the virus coat protein, a protease, a reverse transcriptase and an RNase H (Zhang *et al*., 2011, 2015). The comparison of complete genomic sequences of GVCV isolates has shown whole genome variation to be within a 10% range so far, with ORF II being the genome’s most variable part (Beach *et al*., 2017). GVCV isolates do not appear to cluster phylogenetically according to geographical location or grapevine cultivar (Guo *et al*., 2014).

**Detection and inspection methods**

A procedure for inspection of places of production of *Vitis* plants for planting is provided in Standard PM 3/85 (EPPO, 2018). Risks of confusion with symptoms of other pests should be taken in account, since symptoms such as deformation of leaves with mosaic, yellowing and translucent veins, abnormal and zigzag shoot growth and short internodes, depending on the grapevine variety, the season and putatively on the GVCV variant, might be attributed to nepoviruses.

GVCV infection can be detected by grafting on indicator grapes such as Cabernet Franc or Baco 22A, the former reacting with obvious vein clearing symptoms that are more pronounced than for the latter (Qiu and Schoelz, 2017).

There is currently no serological detection test available. Polymerase chain reaction is the conventional method of choice for the detection of GVCV. Four sets of primers have been designed to cover GVCV molecular diversity (Qiu and Schoelz, 2017). Very recently, hyperspectral imagery has been employed to identify and classify grapevines inoculated with GVCV at the early asymptomatic stages. A statistical approach was then used to discriminate reflectance spectra patterns between healthy and GVCV-infected vines enabling the specific detection of GVCV-infected grapevine seedlings (Nguyen *et al*., 2021).

**PATHWAYS FOR MOVEMENT**

Given the high rate of transmission of GVCV through vegetative propagation practices, the main pathway for long-distance movement is the circulation and trade of infected grapevine propagation materials. The trade of ‘wild’ *Vitaceae* for use as ornamentals is also to be considered since several of these species have been found to be infected by GVCV in their native range, including *A. cordata* which has high infection rates (Petersen *et al*., 2019). A minor pathway for entry could involve the movement of viruliferous winged *Aphis illinoisensis*or associated with non-regulated host plants. In this respect the recent introduction of *A. illinoisensis* in several European countries is of particular note (Havelka *et al*., 2011; Mifsud and Pérez Hidalgo, 2011; Pérez Hidalgo *et al*., 2011).

**PEST SIGNIFICANCE**

**Economic impact**

GVCV infection has been shown to affect many aspects of vine physiology, from leaf metabolism to fruit development and ripening. Economic losses can be severe and are a consequence of a reduction in fruit and wine quality as well as reductions in vegetative growth and canopy development (Qiu and Schoelz, 2017, EFSA PLH, 2019). As of 2021, seven vineyards have been removed in Missouri as a consequence of GVCV infection (Uhls *et al*., 2021). However, it seems that spread of GVCV from wild *Vitis* (mainly *A. cordata*) to cultivated grapevines in the Midwest of the USA has occurred fairly recently, making it difficult to precisely estimate the economic impact of the vein clearing disease.

Infections have mainly been reported in white-berried cultivars (see Hosts), whereas most red-berries cultivars are suspected to be resistant (see Control): In Missouri, GVCV was absent from red-berried cultivars but detected at levels of 33% in Vidal, 24% in Chardonel and 20% in Valvin Muscat (Schoelz *et al*., 2021).

**Control**

Most red-berried cultivars are suspected to be resistant (Schoelz *et al*., 2021). In particular,  cultivars Chambourcin (Guo *et al*., 2014) and Norton (Qiu *et al*., 2020) have been shown to be fully resistant to GVCV after grafting infected scions onto these varieties. However, some other red-berried cultivars have been suggested to be tolerant, i.e. showing mild symptoms or no symptoms (Qiu & Schoelz, 2017); still others, such as Cabernet Franc and Cabernet Sauvignon are known to be susceptible.

There is no curative treatment available to control the vein clearing disease in vineyards so that all control strategies are based on prophylaxis or, possibly, on control of grape aphid vectors. In this context, a key control element is of course the use of GVCV-free planting materials. Thus, implementation of GVCV testing in certification and quarantine programs to prevent the spread of this virus are well established or should be considered.

In Midwest vineyards in the USA, it has been suggested that roguing symptomatic vines and replanting with vines derived from GVCV-free propagation stocks may minimize losses. The control or removal of wild *Vitaceae* populations, in particular *A. cordata,* that may serve as a significant inoculum reservoir could possibly be of interest as it would reduce alternative GVCV inoculum sources and the number of hosts for grape aphids (Petersen *et al*., 2019). Similarly, if eradication measures are taken, these should include attention to wild *Vitaceae* species if any grow nearby.

**Phytosanitary risk**

The phytosanitary risk is essentially linked to infected grapevine propagation material and seen as a significant risk given the clear pathogenicity and potential for negative impact of GVCV, and the importance of grapevine growing in the EPPO region. Should the virus be introduced, the possibility of local vector mediated spread already exists with the presence of *Aphis illinoisensis* in a range of countries in the Mediterranean area. *A.* *illinoisensis* is expected to be able to further expand its range to all the grape-growing areas of the Mediterranean and even those of South-Eastern and Central Europe (Havelka *et al*., 2011). Very recently, *A.* *illinoisensis* has been reported for the first time in France on grapevines in the Provence Alpes Côte d’Azur region (Mouttet and Balmes, 2021). Therefore, it is expected that GVCV could establish and spread in many Mediterranean grapevine growing countries, causing symptoms and having negative impacts on *Vitis* fruit yield and/or quality (EFSA PLH, 2019).

**PHYTOSANITARY MEASURES**

Adapted from the measures drafted for other viruses of *Vitis* (e.g. grapevine red blotch virus; EPPO, in preparation), phytosanitary measures to import *Vitis* plants for planting into the EPPO region could require that these plants are produced in a pest free area, or in a pest free place/site of production established according to EPPO Standard PM 5/8 *Guidelines on the phytosanitary measure ‘Plants grown under physical isolation’* (EPPO, 2016). The physical isolation should prevent both the virus and the vector from entering the place/site of production. Further options consisting of treating the consignment for the vector, and importing either varieties known to be fully resistant to GVCV infection, or combining the absence of GVCV symptoms during the growing period and testing of the consignment for GVCV, could be further investigated.

A number of EPPO countries already ban the import of *Vitis* plants for planting (other than seeds) (e.g. EU countries: Annex VI, points 10 of Regulation 2019/2072 (EU, 2019)). Host plants for planting could also be imported through post-entry quarantine (in the framework of a bilateral agreement). High Throughput Sequencing (HTS) procedures could also be implemented for such post-entry quarantine testing which would enable to detect all regulated exotic viruses, including GVCV, from imported plants in a single test.

**REFERENCES**

Baker AC (1917) Life history of *Macrosiphum illinoisensis*, the grapevine aphid. *Journal of Agricultural Research*, **11**, 83-89.

Bhat AI, Hohn T & Selvarajan R (2016) Badnaviruses: The Current Global Scenario. *Viruses* **8**(6), 177.

Beach S, Kovens M, Hubbert L, Honesty S, Guo Q, Pap D, Dai R. Kovacs L & Qiu WP (2017) Genetic and phenotypic characterization of Grapevine vein clearing virus from wild *Vitis rupestris*. *Phytopathology* **107**, 138-144.

Cieniewicz EJ, Qiu WP, Saldarelli P & Fuchs M (2020) Believing is seeing: lessons from emerging viruses in grapevine. *Journal of Plant Pathology* **102**, 619-632.

EFSA PLH (2019) EFSA Panel on Plant Health (PLH) Bragard C, Dehnen-Schmutz K, Gonthier P, Jacques MA, Jaques Miret JA, Justesen AF, MacLeod A, Magnusson CS, Milonas P, Navas-Cortes JA, Parnell S, Potting R, Reignault PL, Thulke HH, Van der Werf W, Vicent Civera A, Yuen J, Zappala L, Candresse T, Chatzivassiliou E, Finelli F, Martelli GP, Winter S, Bosco D, Chiumenti M, Di Serio F, Kaluski T, Minafra A & Rubino L. Pest categorisation of non-EU viruses and viroids of *Vitis* L. *EFSA Journal* **17**, 94. Available at <https://doi.org/10.2903/j.efsa.2019.5669>

EPPO (2016) EPPO Standard PM 5/8 *Guidelines on the phytosanitary measure ‘Plants grown under physical isolation’*46, 421-423. Corrected in 2021. Available at <https://gd.eppo.int/standards/PM5/>

EPPO (2018) EPPO Standard PM 3/85 Inspection of places of production – *Vitis* plants for planting. *EPPO Bulletin* **48**, 330-349. Available at <https://gd.eppo.int/standards/PM3/>

EPPO (in preparation) Report of a pest risk analysis for grapevine red blotch virus. EPPO, Paris. Available soon at <https://gd.eppo.int/taxon/GRBAV0/documents>

EU (2019) Commission implementing regulation 2019/2072 of 28 November 2019 establishing uniform conditions for the implementation of Regulation (EU) 2016/2031 of the European Parliament and the Council, as regards protective measures against pests of plants, and repealing Commission Regulation (EC) No 690/2008 and amending Commission Implementing Regulation (EU) 2018/2019. Version of 2019-12-10. *Official Journal of the European Union* **L319**, 1-278.

Fajardo TVM, Silva FN, Eiras M & Nickel O (2017) High-throughput sequencing applied for the identification of viruses infecting grapevines in Brazil and genetic variability analysis. *Tropical Plant Pathology* **42**, 250-260.

Guo Q, Honesty S, Xu ML, Zhang Y, Schoelz J & Qiu WP (2014) Genetic diversity and tissue and host specificity of Grapevine vein clearing virus. *Phytopathology* **104**, 539-547.

Havelka J, Shukshuk AH, Ghaliow ME, Laamari M, Kavallieratos NG, Tomanovic Z, Rakhshani E, Pons X & Stary P (2011) Review of invasive grapevine aphid, *Aphis Illinoisensis* Shimer, and native parasitoids in the Mediterranean (Hemiptera, Aphididae; Hymenoptera, Braconidae, Aphidiinae). *Archives of Biological Sciences* **63**, 269-274.

Lunden S, Meng BZ, Avery J & Qiu WP (2010) Association of Grapevine fanleaf virus, Tomato ringspot virus and Grapevine rupestris stem pitting-associated virus with a grapevine vein-clearing complex on var. Chardonnay. *European Journal of Plant Pathology* **126**, 135-144.

Mifsud D & Pérez Hidalgo N (2011) The grapevine aphid *Aphis illinoisensis*: a good example of recent invasion and rapid colonization by aphids. *EPPO Bulletin* **41**, 183-184.

Mouttet R & Balmes V (2021) Un nouveau puceron sur vigne en France : *Aphis illinoisensis* Shimer, 1866 (Hemiptera, Aphididae). *Bulletin de la Société entomologique de France*, **126**(2), 206-208.

Nguyen C, Sagan V, Maimaitiyiming M, Maimaitijiang M, Bhadra S & Kwasniewski MT (2021) Early detection of plant viral disease using hyperspectral imaging and deep learning. *Sensors* **21**, 742. Available at <https://doi.org/10.3390/s21030742>

Pérez Hidalgo N, Laguna Garcia F & Nieto Nafría JM (2011) First Spanish record of *Aphis illinoisensis* Schimer (Hemiptera: Aphididae), the grapevine aphid. *Boletín de la Sociedad Entomólogica Aragonesa* **49**, 321-323.

Petersen S, Keith C, Austin K & Qiu WP (2017) Phylogenetic relationship of Grapevine vein clearing virus isolates in wild plant species and in cultivated grapevines. *Phytopathology* **107**, 102-103.

Petersen SM, Keith C, Austin K, Howard S, Su L & Qiu WP (2019) A natural reservoir and transmission vector of grapevine vein clearing virus. *Plant Disease* **103**, 571-577.

Qiu W, Avery J. & Lunden S (2007) Characterization of a severe virus-like disease in Chardonnay grapevines in Missouri. *Plant Health Progress*. Available at <https://doi.org/10.1094/PHP-2007-1119-01-BR>

Qiu W & Schoelz J (2017) Grapevine vein clearing virus: diagnostics, genome diversity and management. In *Grapevine Viruses: Molecular Biology, Diagnostics and Management*(Eds Meng BZ, Martelli GP, Fuchs M, Golino D), Springer International Publishing AG, pp 315-330.

Qiu WP, Petersen SM & Howard S (2020). North American grape 'Norton' is resistant to Grapevine vein clearing virus. *Plant Disease* **104**, 2051-2053.

Schoelz J, Volenberg D, Adhab M, Fang ZW, Klassen V, Spinka C & Al Rwahnih MA (2021) A survey of viruses found in grapevine cultivars grown in Missouri. *American Journal of Enology and Viticulture* **72**, 73-84.

Singh K, Talla A & Qiu WP (2012) Small RNA profiling of virus-infected grapevines: evidences for virus infection-associated and variety-specific miRNAs. *Functional and Integrative Genomics* **12**, 659-669.

Uhls A, Petersen S, Keith C, Howard S, Bao, XK & Qiu WP (2021) Grapevine vein clearing virus is prevalent and genetically variable in grape aphid (*Aphis illinoisensis* Shimer) populations. *Plant Disease* **105,** 1531-1538.

Zhang Y, Adhab M & Schoelz J (2016) Characterization of viral particles formed by Grapevine vein clearing virus (GVCV). *Phytopathology* **106**, 125-126.

Zhang Y, Angel CA, Valdes S, Qiu WP & Schoelz J (2015) Characterization of the promoter of Grapevine vein clearing virus. *Phytopathology* **105**, 157-157.

Zhang Y, Singh K, Kaur R & Qiu WP (2011) Association of a novel DNA virus with the grapevine vein-clearing and vine decline syndrome. *Phytopathology* **101**, 1081-1090.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

This datasheet was prepared in 2022 by Drs Olivier Lemaire and Thierry Candresse. Their valuable contribution is gratefully acknowledged.

**How to cite this datasheet?**

EPPO (2024) *Badnavirus venavitis*. EPPO datasheets on pests recommended for regulation. Available online. <https://gd.eppo.int>

**Datasheet history**

This datasheet was first published online in 2022. It is maintained in an electronic format in the EPPO Global Database. The sections on 'Identity', ‘Hosts’, and 'Geographical distribution' are automatically updated from the database. For other sections, the date of last revision is indicated on the right.

