OIA12-015

1 0 AUG 2012

Joanne Clark

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Dear Joanne,

OFFICIAL INFORMATION REQUEST

Thank you for your Official Information Request dated the 10th of July 2012 for copies of all emails, memos, phone logs and other documentation relating to requests for a relaxation of the controls for the importation of kiwifruit pollen. This request was clarified by you, by way of email, on 20 July 2012.

The independent report released in July 2012 entitled 'A Review of Import Requirements and Border Processes in Light of the Entry of Psa into New Zealand' explains the history of the requirements for the importation of kiwifruit pollen. As stated in this report and despite imports of kiwifruit pollen being technically possible from at least 1993, the Ministry for Primary Industries (formerly MAF) was only first asked to consider an application for an import permit for kiwifruit pollen in November 2006. The details associated with the development of the import requirements are stated on pages 21 to 35 of this report, and the import permits that were issued, including those who requested these import permits, are stated in Appendix 5. This report is available on the MPI website:

http://www.biosecurity.govt.nz/files/pests/psa/psa-v-review-2012.pdf

MPI suspended all imports of kiwifruit pollen from 13th of November 2010 due to the detection of Psa near Te Puke and concerns raised by industry. Up until this time, the import requirements for imported kiwifruit pollen were based on a MPI review conducted on pollen-transmitted pathogens in 2007 and a subsequent 2007 peer-reviewed journal article (Card *et al.*, 2007). This review identified at the time that there was no evidence of pollen-transmitted bacteria associated with kiwifruit (*Actinidia*) species. Copies of the 2007 MPI review and journal article have been attached for your reference.

With regard to the provision of further information including all emails, memos, phone logs and other documentation, we note that the scope of your request is broad. MPI does hold information relating to your request, however due to the costs involved in obtaining this information, including searching through historical email records, it will be necessary for MPI to impose a charge for the time required in retrieving and considering the relevant material.

Our current best estimate for the time that this work will take is approximately 10 hours. This amounts to \$760, less \$76.00 for the first hour which is provided free of charge. The Charging Guidelines are set out by the Ministry of Justice at:

http://www.justice.org.nz/publications/global-publications/m/ministry-of-justice-charging-guidelines-for-official-information-act-1982-requests-18-march-2002/official-information-act#3 .

It may be that the information already provided has satisfied the question you were seeking to answer. Please let us know if you wish for us to proceed with obtaining this additional correspondence and documentation.

You have the right under section 28(3) of the Official Information Act to seek an investigation and review by the Ombudsman of our decision to charge for obtaining further information. An application must be made in writing to:

The Ombudsman
Office of the Ombudsmen
PO Box 10 152
WELLINGTON

Yours sincerely

Peter Thomson

Director, Plants, Food & Environment

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Plant pathogens transmitted by pollen

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Abstract. Pollen is a valuable source of germplasm for breeding and has few associated pests compared with other sources of genetic material. This review seeks to assist the development of appropriate phytosanitary measures by considering the pests that are transmitted by pollen. There are no invertebrates, bacteria, phytoplasmas or spiroplasmas that are pollentransmitted. Only a limited number of fungal pathogens are associated with the pollen of a restricted number of hosts. In contrast, 39 viruses are pollen-transmitted and a further six are tentatively considered to be pollen-transmitted. The majority of these viruses belong to the Alphacryptovirus, Harvirus, Nepovirus or Potyvirus genera. Five viroids have also been identified as being pollen-transmitted.

Additional keywords: biosecurity, seed.

Introduction

Pollination is a vital process in the reproduction of most spermatophytes and requires the transfer of pollen (male gamete) to the plant carpel, which contains the ovule (female gamete) in order that fertilisation can occur. When-the pollen is mature, the anthers open and the pollen grains escape. This process is termed anthesis. The period of time over which pollen is released depends on the plant species, and can last from a few hours to several weeks (Jackson 1999). Many plant species require a vector for successful pollination, such as insects, birds or bats, whereas some species rely on abiotic factors such as wind, and in a few instances, water. Pollination is of particular importance in horticulture as the fruits of most plants will not develop unless the ovules are fertilised.

As plants and plant pathogens have co-evolved, the latter have developed mechanisms of transmission, which are frequently correlated with their taxonomy. For example, many fungi have developed spores for their dissemination and these are dispersed by water, air currents or animals. The germinating fungus can then enter the plant directly or via openings such as wounds or stomata, Bacteria commonly rely on water splash, which is often aided by air currents or insects. Bacteria are usually unable to penetrate new hosts directly and rely on natural openings and wounds to-gain entry to the plant intercellular spaces. Plant viruses are also unable to enter their hosts directly and commonly rely on specific vectors, including insects, mites, nematodes and fungi to enable infection. A few viroids have specific vectors but are most commonly disseminated by human activities such as the propagation of planting material. Some viruses and viroids have also evolved mechanisms that exploit the plants' own reproductive processes and can be transmitted by seed and/or pollen (Mink 1993; Johansen et al. 1994; Hull 2004b).

Pollen is a valuable source of germplasm for breeding ourposes. From a biosecurity perspective, pollen has relatively few pests associated with it, compared with those that affect plants and seeds. Signatories to the International Plant Protection Convention set phytosanitary measures based on an assessment of the risks to plant health, in accordance with the International Standard for Phytosanitary Measures No. 02 (1995) 'Guidelines for Pest Risk Analysis' (Anonymous 2006). This standard defines plant pests as 'any species, strain or biotype of plant, animal or pathogenic agent injurious to plants or plant products'. For a plant commodity, such as pollen imported for breeding purposes, pest risk analysis involves assessing and managing pest risk. Pest risk assessment determines whether the pests associated with the commodity are regulated, characterised in terms of likelihood of entry, establishment, spread and economic importance. Pest risk management involves developing, evaluating, comparing and selecting options for reducing the risk to achieve the appropriate level of phytosanitary protection. This review seeks to assist countries develop appropriate phytosanitary measures by considering the pests that are transmitted by pollen.

Transmission of invertebrates, bacteria, phytoplasmas, spiroplasmas and fungi

There are no reports of arthropods, nematodes or insects being transmitted by pollen at any stage of their lifecycles. However, many insects are vectors for plant viruses and some may contaminate pollen with viruses when feeding, e.g. thrips, pollen beetles and honey bees (Brunt *et al.* 1996).

There are no pollen-transmitted bacteria, phytoplasmas or spiroplasmas, but there are a few reports of fungi associated with pollen, most of which involve saprophytic species on 456 Australasian Plant Pathology S. D. Card et al.

a restricted number of plant species. In studies on plant pathogenic fungi, Stelfox et al. (1978) reported that pollen of rapeseed (Brassica sp.) heavily contaminated with Sclerotinia sclerotiorum ascospores was carried by honey bees to healthy plants causing head blight. Huang (2003) observed that Verticillium albo-atrum, which causes wilt of alfalfa (Medicago sativa), can be spread by pollen and insect vectors. The only other reports of pollen-associated fungi are observations of pollen contaminated by saprophytic species and are not concerned with transmission (Spiewak et al. 1996).

Transmission of viruses and viroids

Process of transmission

When a virus or viroid is transmitted by pollen, it may infect the plant through the fertilised flower (horizontal transmission), or more commonly, it may infect the seed and thus the seedling that will grow from that seed (vertical transmission) (Hull 2004b). However, even if a virus or viroid is observed in or on pollen grains, or replicates in pollen grains, it cannot be assumed that the pathogen is naturally pollen-transmitted (Mink 1993). For example, Tobacco mosaic virus (TMV) can be detected in pollen but is not pollen-transmitted (Brunt et al. 1996). Similarly, it cannot be assumed that if a virus or viroid is transmitted horizontally by pollen there will also be vertical transmission, or vice versa. For example, the virus may be unable to infect the developing embryo or may cause sterility of the oyule.

Pollen and seed transmission are closely related (Mink 1993; Hull 2004b); pollen-transmitted viruses are generally also transmitted by seed but not necessarily vice versa, e.g. Broad bean stain virus is seed-transmitted but not pollen-transmitted (Brunt et al. 1996). Considerably more-research has focused on seed transmission because seed is an important means of virus dissemination for several economically important vegetable and fruit crops (Mink 1993).

The mechanisms by which viruses and viroids are transmitted in seed and pollen are closely related. Seed transmission occurs either through contamination of the seed surface or maternally derived seed parts (e.g. TMV) or, more commonly, through infection of the embryo. The embryo may become infected either directly during embryogenesis or indirectly via infection of the reproductive tissues (i.e. ovule, megaspore mother cell or pollen mother cell) before embryogenesis (Johansen et al. 1994).

Infection of the pollen mother cell and resultant pollen leads indirectly to embryo infection (vertical transmission). Evidence for vertical transmission by pollen has come from studies on the ultrastructure of infected plants. For example, Gaspar et al. (1984) found-particles of Tobacco rattle virus in premeiotic pollen mother cells and subsequently in pollen of infected tomato plants.

Horizontal transmission of viruses and viroids by pollen requires movement of the virus or viroid from the infected embryo to the maternal tissues, i.e. movement in the reverse direction to that which occurs during direct infection of the seed. The embryo is separated physically from the mother plant by a callose layer and, therefore, a mechanism is required to enable the virus or viroid to move without direct vascular connection or cellular contact. Horizontal transmission by pollen is less common than vertical transmission and has been suggested

in only a few instances, e.g. Alfalfa mosaic virus (Hemmati and McLean 1977) and Tobacco streak virus (TSV) (Sdoodee and Teakle 1988). Although evidence of direct infection of the embryo has been reported (Wang and Maule 1992), the evidence for movement of viruses or viroids from an infected embryo into maternal tissues is more controversial. Mink (1993) has cast some doubt on the occurrence of unassisted horizontal pollen transmission, for example Sdoodee and Teakle (1987, 1988, 1993) demonstrated that thrips were required for consistent horizontal transmission of TSV via infected pollen. However, other viruses are reported to be transmitted horizontally by pollen without the aid of vectors, e.g. Blueberry leaf mottle virus (BLMoV) (Childress and Ramsdell 1986; Boylan-Pett et al. 1991) and Raspberry bushy dwarf virus (RBDV) (Murant et al. 1974). It has been proposed that the contact point between the testa and suspensor may be the point of entry for direct embryo infection and this may also enable outward movement of the virus (Wang and Maule 1992; Roberts et al. 2003).

The efficacy with which viruses or viroids are transmitted by pollen is determined by a range of factors including the species or strain of the pathogen, the species or cultivar of the host, the growth stage when infection occurs, and to a lesser extent, environmental conditions such as temperature and moisture (Bos 1983; Mink 1993). For example, Inouye (1962) (cited by Carroll and Mayhew 1976) found up to 35% seed transmission of Barley stripe mosaic virus in a highly susceptible barley cultivar after emasculated virus-free plants were pollinated with pollen from infected plants. However, in Hordeum vulgare 'Atlas' the MI-1 strain was seed- and pollen-transmitted but the NSP strain was neither (Carroll and Mayhew 1976). Pea seed-borne mosaic virus was reported to be pollen-transmitted at a rate of 4.2% in Pisum sativum 'Dual' (Kohnen 1992, cited by Johansen et al. 1994) but not in P. sativum 'Vedette' (Wang and Maule 1992).

The quantity and/or quality of pollen produced by virus- or viroid-infected plants may be reduced compared with healthy plants. For example, Tobacco ringspot virus-infected soybean produced less pollen, which had impaired germination rates and grew more slowly than virus free plants (Yang and Hamilton 1974). With the exception of self-pollinated plants, infected pollen must compete with healthy pollen, which may explain why some viruses and viroids are seed-transmitted but not pollentransmitted. However, pollen transmission is epidemiologically important for some viruses, e.g. Bristow and Martin (1999) concluded that pollen transmission can be a primary means of transmission for Blueberry shock virus (BIShV). In Rubus idaeus 'Lloyd George', Murant et al. (1974) concluded that pollen was the only method of field transmission of RBDV; in plots containing infected plants, healthy plants that were prevented from flowering for 3 years did not become infected but the majority of those that were allowed to flower became infected within 2 years. It is likely that pollen transmission is more important in cross-pollinated woody perennials than in annual crops (Hull 2004b).

Viruses transmitted by pollen

Mink (1993) listed nine viruses that were pollen-transmitted: Artichoke yellow ringspot virus, BLMoV, BlShV, Cherry leaf

Table 1. Pollen-transmitted viruses

Genus	Species	Transmission	Principal hosts ^A	References	\nearrow
Alphacryptovirus	Alfalfa cryptic virus I Beet cryptic virus I	Vertical Vertical	Medicago sativa Beta vulgaris	Brunt et al. (1996) Kassanis et al. (1978); Brunt et al.
	Beet cryptic virus 2	Vertical	Beta vulgaris	(1996) Rassanis et al. (1978)	Brunt et al.
	Radish yellow edge virus	Vertical	Raphanus sativus	Boccardo et al. (1987	
	Red pepper cryptic virus I	Vertical	Capsicum annuum	Arancihia et al. (199	<u>(</u>)
	Ryegrass cryptic virus	Vertical	Lolium multiflorum	Boccardo et al. (1987	")
	Vicia cryptic virus	Vertical	Vicia faba	Kenten et al. (1980)	
Alfamovirus	Alfalfa mosaic virus	Horizontal and vertical	Lactuca spp., Medicago spp., Solanum spp., Trifolium spp.	Frosheiser (1974); Ho McLean (1977); Po Zitter (1991); Valk	esic et al. (1988);
Badnavirus	Kalanchoe	Vertical	Kalanghoë blossfeldjana	Hearon and Locke (1	
Comovirus	top-spotting virus Cowpea severe	Vertical	Vigna unguiçulata	> Brunt et al. (1996)	
Cucumovirus	mosaic virus Cucumber mosaic virus	Vertical	Spinacia gleracea	Yang et al. (1997)	
Hordeivirus	Barley stripe mosaic virus	Horizontal and vertical	Hordeum yulgare	Gold et al. (1954); C (1976); Brlansky e	
Idaeovirus	Raspberry bushy	Horizontal and	Rubus spp.	Murant et al. (1974);	
Ilarvirus	dwarf virus Asparagus virus 2	vertical Horizontal and vertical	Asparagus officinalis	MacLeod et al. (20 Evans and Stephens ((1996)	•
	Blueberry shock virus	Horizontal and	Vaccinium corymbosum	Bristow and Martin (1999)
	Fragaria chiloensis latent virus	Horizontal and vertical	Fragaria spp.	Martin and Tzanetak	is (2006)
	Prune dwarf virus	Horizontal and vertical	Prunus spp.	Williams et al. (1963 Brunt et al. (1996)); Gilmer (1965); ; Silva et al. (2003)
	Prunus necrotic ringspot virus	Horizontal and vertical	<u>Cucurbita maxima</u> , Humulus spp., <u>Prunus spp.</u> , Rosa spp.	Das et al. (1961); Wi Cole et al. (1982); Aparicio et al. (19 Walter (2003)	Mink (1998);
	Spinach latent virus	Horizontal and	Spinacia oleracea	Stefenac and Wrisch Brunt et al. (1996)	
	Tobacco streak virus	Horizontal and vertical	Cucumis spp., Lycopersicon esculentum, Fragaria spp., Phaseolus spp., Rubus spp., Trifolium spp.	Converse and Lister (1987, 198) et al. (1991); Walt Klose et al. (1996	8, 1993); Greber er et al. (1992);
Nepovirus	Arracacha virus B	Vertical	Oxalis spp., Solanum tuberosum	Jones (1982)	,
	Aytichoke yellow ringspot viyus	Horizontal and vertical	<u>Datura stramonium,</u> Nicotiana spp.,	Kyriakopoulou <i>et al.</i> (1996)	(1985); Brunt et al.
	Blueberry leaf mottle	Horizontal and	Petunia hybrida Vaccinium corymbosum	Childress and Ramso Boylan-Pett et al.	
	virūs Cherry leaf roll virus	vertical Horizontal and vertical	Betula spp., Juglans spp., Prunus spp., Rubus spp.	Callahan (1957); Min Cooper et al. (198	rcetich <i>et al.</i> (1982); 4); Massalski <i>et al.</i>
	Lucerne Australian latent virus	Vertical	Medicago sativa, Chenopodium quinoa	(1988); Rebenstor Blackstock (1978)	t et al. (2006)
	Raspberry ringspot virus	Vertical	Fragaria spp., Narcissus spp., Ribes spp., Rubus spp.	Lister and Murant (1 (1996)	967); Brunt <i>et al</i> .
	Tobacco ringspot virus	Vertical	Cucumis spp., Glycine max, Solanum spp., Vaccinium spp.	Yang and Hamilton ((1996)	1974); Brunt et al.
	Tomato black ring virus	Horizontal and vertical	Fragaria spp., Rubus spp., Solanum spp., Vitis spp.	Lister and Murant (1	967)
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Table 1. (continued)

Genus	Species	Transmission	Principal hosts ^A	References
	Tomato ringspot virus	Horizontal and vertical	Pelargonium spp., Rubus spp., Prunus spp., Vaccinium spp.	Scarborough and Smith (1977); Brunt et al. (1996)
Nucleorhabdovirus	Pittosporum vein yellowing virus (syn. Eggplant mottled dwarf virus)	Vertical	<u>Pittosporum tobira</u>	Brunt et al. (1996)
Potyvirus	Bean common mosaic virus	Vertical	Phaseolus spp.	Medina and Grogan (1961); Bos (1983); Brunt et-al. (1996)
	Lettuce mosaic virus	Vertical	Lactuca sativa	Ryder (1964); Brunt et al. (1996)
	Pea seed-borne mosaic virus	Vertical	Pisum sativum	Kohnen (1992) [cited by Johansen et al. (1994)]
	Soybean mosaic virus	Horizontal and vertical	Glycine max	Bos (1983); Brunt et al. (1996)
	Sugarcane mosaic virus	Vertical	Zea mays	Li et al, (2007)
Sobemovirus	Sowbane mosaic virus	Horizontal and vertical	Chenopodium spp., Prunus spp., Vitis spp.	Francki and Miles (1985); Hardy and Teakle (1992)
Tobravirus	Tobacco rattle virus	Vertical	Lycopersicon esculentum	Gaspar et al. (1984)
Trichovirus	Potato virus T	Vertical	Solanum spp.	Jones (1982); Slack (2001)
Unassigned	Pelargonium zonate spot virus	Vertical	Chrysanthemum spp., Pelargonjum zonale	Brunt <i>et al.</i> (1996); Gallitclli <i>et al.</i> (2005)

AHosts in which transmission by pollen has been reported are underlined.

roll virus, Prune dwarf virus (PDV), Prunus necrotic ringspot virus, Sowbane mosaic virus, RBDV and TSV Subsequently, 30 other viruses have been reported to be pollen-transmitted (Table 1). A further six viruses have been tentatively reported to be pollen-transmitted but the evidence is controversial or inconclusive (Table 2). These 45 viruses belong to 16 groups (15 genera and one unassigned species), the majority being in the Alphacryptovirus (at least seven species), Ilarvirus (10 species including three which are tentatively pollentransmitted), Nepovirus (nine species) or Potyvirus genera (five species).

Of particular interest among the pollen-transmitted viruses are those of the genus Alphaciyptovirus. This genus is unusual in that its members are only transmitted through seed or pollen and not by vectors or mechanical means. They are unable to move between cells in the host, spreading only via multiplying cells (Brunt et al. 1996). Of the 26 definite or tentative species in

the genus, seven have been reported to be transmitted vertically by pollen. It is likely that most, if not all, of the other 16 species will be found to be transmitted in this way. Hosts infected with viruses from this genus are usually asymptomatic and members of the genus appear to be of little or no economic importance (Mink 1993; Brunt et al. 1996). The members of the genus Betacryptovirus share many characteristics with those in the Alphacryptovirus but although they are seed-transmitted, pollen transmission has not been reported.

In addition to the viruses described in the preceding two paragraphs, at least 16 other viruses have been detected in pollen and have either been demonstrated not to be pollentransmitted [Andean potato latent virus (Jones 1982), Onion yellow dwarf virus (Louie and Lorbeer 1966), Potato black ringspot virus (Jones 1982), Potato yellowing virus (Valkonen et al. 1992) and Tomato bushy stunt virus (Allen and Davidson 1967; Brunt et al. 1996)] or pollen transmission was not reported

Table 2. Viruses that are reported to be pollen-transmitted but for which the evidence for transmission is inconclusive

Genus	Species	Transmission	Principal hosts ^A	References
Badnavirus /	Taro bacilliform virus	Possibly vertical	Colocasia spp.	Macanawai et al. (2005)
<i>Ilarvirus</i> \	Amerigan plum line pattern virus	Possibly vertical	Prunus spp.	Mink (1998)
	Apple mosaic virus	Possibly horizontal and possibly vertical	Corylus avellana, Humulus spp., Malus spp.	Mink (1998); Aramburu and Rovira (2000); Pethybridge et al. (2002)
	Humulus japonicus latent virus	Possibly vertical	Humulus spp.	Adams et al. (1989)
Sadwavirus	Strawberry latent ringspot virus	Possibly vertical	Fragaria spp., Prunus spp., Ribes spp., Vitis spp.	Martin and Tzanetakis (2006)
Sobemovirus	Southern bean mosaic virus	Possibly horizontal and possibly vertical	Phaseolus spp., Vigna spp.	Hamilton <i>et al.</i> (1977); Brunt <i>et al.</i> (1996); Hull (2004 <i>a</i>)

AHosts in which transmission by pollen has been tentatively reported are underlined.

Table 3. Pollen-transmitted viroids

Genus	Scientific name	Transmission	Principal hosts ^A	References
Avsunviroid	Avocado sunblotch viroid	Vertical	Persea americana	Desjardins et al. (1979, 1984)
Cocadviroid	Coconut cadang-cadang viroid	Vertical	Areca spp., Chrysalidocarpus spp., Cocus spp., Corypha spp., Elaeis spp., Phoenix spp.,	Pacumbaba et al. (1994); Hadidi.
Hostuviroid	Hop stunt viroid	Horizontal and vertical	Roystonia spp., Veitchia spp., Humulus spp., Lycopersicon esculentum	Kryczynski at al. (1988)
Pospiviroid	Chrysanthemum stunt viroid Potato spindle tuber viroid	Horizontal and vertical Horizontal and vertical	Lycopersicon esculentum Lycopersicon esculentum	Kryczynski ek al. (1988) Fernow et al. (1970); Kryczynski er al. (1988); Hadidi et al. (2003

A Hosts in which transmission by pollen has been reported are underlined.

and has not been observed in other studies [Cherry rasp leaf virus (Wagnon et al. 1968), Cowpea aphid-borne mosaic virus (Tsuchizaki et al. 1970), Cucumber green mottle mosaic virus (Hollings et al. 1975), Dahlia mosaic virus (Pahalawatta et al. 2007), Elm mottle virus (Schmelzer 1969), Grapevine fanleaf virus (Cory and Hewitt 1968), Maize white line mosaic virus (Louie et al. 1982), Pelargonium flower break virus (Krczal et al. 1995), Pepper ringspot virus (Camargo et al. 1969), TMV (Brunt et al. 1996) and Turnip yellow mosaic virus (Brunt et al. 1996; de Assis and Sherwood 2000)].

There are also several viruses, which have either been erroneously reported to be pollen-transmitted, e.g. Popular mosaic virus (Brunt et al. 1996), or for which subsequent work has refuted earlier inconclusive-reports, e.g. Strawberry pallidosis-associated virus (Martin and Tzanetakis 2006; Tzanetakis et al. 2006).

Viroids transmitted by pollen

Five viroids in four genera are pollen-transmitted in one or more plant species (Table 3) These viroids have been detected in pollen and in three cases can be transmitted horizontally as well as vertically, although horizontal transmission has not been demonstrated in the field (Mink 1993). In addition, Coconut tijanga viroid has been detected in pollen of Cocus nucifera but transmission has not been demonstrated (Hadidi et al. 2003). Tomato apical stunt viroid has been reported to be spread by bumble bees during pollination but it is not clear whether this results from wounding of the flowers by the insects or pollen transmission of the viroid (Antignus et al. 2007).

Conclusions (/)

Compared with alternative sources of genetic material such as seeds or plants, pollen is affected by few pests. Therefore, it constitutes a relatively safe medium in which to move genetic material internationally or for use in breeding programs. As described here, there are no invertebrates, bacteria, phytoplasmas or spiroplasmas that are pollen-transmitted and only a limited number of fungi are associated with pollen. In contrast, 39 viruses and five viroids are pollen-transmitted and a further six viruses are tentatively considered to be pollen-transmitted. This represents less than 5% of the known plant viruses and 17% of plant viroids. However, pollen can harbour several important pests, such as PDV and *Potato spindle tuber*

viroid, and depending on its source, it may pose a serious risk to plant health. Therefore, although in general pollen poses little biosecurity risk, for particular plant species it is important that appropriate measures are taken when moving pollen between areas with differing phytosanitary status. This review lists the pests (defined as 'any species, strain or biotype of plant, animal or pathogenic agent injurious to plants or plant products') that are—pollen transmitted to assist countries in developing the phytosanitary measures that are required.

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POLLEN-TRANSMITTED PLANT PATHOGENS

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1.0 EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Pollen is a valuable source of germplasm for breeding and from a biosecurity perspective has relatively few pests and diseases associated with it compared to other types of genetic resource. The purpose of this review is to assist the risk analysis process by identifying the pests and diseases that are transmitted by pollen. There are a limited number of reports on the association of fungi with pollen, most of which involve saprophytic species on a restricted number of plant hosts and there are no known bacteria, mollicutes or invertebrates that use pollen as a form of transmission. In contrast, 39 viruses are pollentransmitted and a further 6 are tentatively considered to be pollentransmitted. The majority of these viruses belong to the Alphacryptovirus, Ilarvirus, Nepovirus or Potyvirus genera. Five viroids have also been identified as being pollen-transmitted. Only a limited number of pathogens are associated with the plant genera that are most likely to be imported as pollen into New Zealand (Actinidia, Malus, Pyrus, Ribes, Rubus and Vaccinium species) and these are listed in section 3.

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Pollination is a vital process in the reproduction of most seed plants and requires the transfer of pollen grains (the male gametes) to the plant carpel (which contains the ovule or female gamete) for fertilisation (Plough, 2000). When the pollen is mature, the anthers open and the pollen grains escape, this process is termed anthesis or blossoming. The pollen is then released over a period of time that is specific to each plant species, and can last from a few hours to several weeks (Jackson, 1999). Most plant species require a vector for successful pollination, such as insects, birds and bats and some plant species rely on abiotic factors such as wind, and in a few instances water. Pollination is of particular importance in horticulture as the fruits of most plants will not develop unless the ovules are fertilised.

There has been a constant co-evolution between plants and their pathogens. These pathogens have evolved mechanisms for their transmission and frequently these

mechanisms are correlated to their taxonomy. For example, fungi have developed spores for their dissemination and these are dispersed by water, air currents or animals. The germinating fungus can then enter the plant directly or via openings such as wounds or stomata. Bacteria commonly rely on air currents/splash dispersal, water and insects for the dissemination of their cells and are usually unable to access their new host directly and rely on natural openings and wounds. Plant viruses and viroids are also unable to enter their hosts directly and each species commonly relies on specific vectors to enable host plant entry. Vectors can include fungi, insects, mites, nematodes and parasitic weeds. However, some viruses and viroids have evolved mechanisms that exploit the plants own reproductive processes and can be transmitted from plant-plant via seed and/or pollen.

Signatories to the International Plant Protection Convention set phytosanitary measures based on an assessment of the risks to plant health, in accordance with the International Standard for Phytosanitary Measures No. 02 (1995) "Guidelines for Pest Risk Analysis".

For a plant commodity, such as pollen imported for breeding purposes, pest risk analysis consists of assessing and managing pest risk. Pest risk assessment determines whether the pests associated with the commodity is a quarantine (regulated) pest, characterized in terms of likelihood of entry, establishment, spread and economic importance. Pest risk management involves developing, evaluating, comparing and selecting options for reducing the risk to achieve the appropriate level of phytosanitary protection.

New Zealand has developed pest risk analyses for plant commodities from which specific import requirements for plants and plant products have been developed. This includes pollen imported for breeding purposes although the import requirements have yet to be formalised. Pollen is a valuable source of germplasm for breeding purposes. From a biosecurity perspective pollen has relatively few pests and diseases associated with it, these being a sub-set of those pathogens which affect plants for planting and seed.

The purpose of this review is to assist the risk analysis process by identifying the pests and diseases that are transmitted by pollen. In considering whether a pest or disease is transmitted by pollen the following criteria were considered during the review:

- association with pollen; and
- transmission via pollen to the mother plant during pollination and/or to the seed following fertilisation; and
- whether observations had been made in vivo or from experimental studies; and
- · the existence of contradictory reports; and
- the quality of the evidence presented.

2.1 POLLEN TRANSMISSION

2.1.1 INVERTEBRATES

There are no reports of arthropods, nematodes or insects being transmitted by pollen at any stage of their lifecycles. However, many insects serve as vectors for plant viruses and can carry particles onto pollen when feeding, for example: thrips, pollen beetles and honey bees.

2.1.2 BACTERIA, MOLLICUTES AND FUNGI

There are no known bacteria or mollicutes (including phytoplasmas and spiroplasmas) that are pollen transmitted (Nemeth, 1986). There are a limited number of reports on the association of fungi with pollen, most of which involve saprophytic species on a restricted number of plant hosts. Examples involving plant pathogenic fungi include: (i) pollen grains of rapeseed (Brassica spp.) were found to be heavily contaminated with ascospores of Sclerotinia sclerotiorum (Stelfox et al., 1978), which were found to be transported by honey bee vectors to healthy plants resulting in head blight of rapeseed and (ii) Verticillium albo-atrum, which causes wilt of alfalfa (Medicago sativa), which is also known to be spread by pollen and insect vectors (Huang, 2003). The severe strain of V. albo-atrum is regulated in New Zealand, but the hop and lucerne strains are not regulated.

The only other reports in the literature that associate pollen and fungi are not concerned with mechanisms of transmission but observations of pollen contamination by saprophytic species, for example Spiewak *et al.* (1996).

2.1.3 GENERAL DISCUSSION ON TRANSMISSION OF VIRUSES AND VIROIDS

Pollen transmission of viruses is closely related to seed transmission (Mink, 1993) and therefore it is necessary to first discuss seed transmission before considering the transmission of viruses and viroids by pollen. Although many viruses that are seed transmitted are also transmitted by pollen (Hull, 2004b) considerably more work has focused on seed transmission because seed is an important pathway for virus dissemination in several economically important vegetable crops and fruit trees (Nemeth, 1986; Mink, 1993).

There are two mechanisms by which viruses can be seed transmitted: either directly through the mother plant or through the pollen. These routes lead to seed transmission through the plant embryo. However, as embryos are physically separated from their mother plant tissues by a callose layer, they lack direct vascular connection and cellular contact with the mother plant (Bos, 1983); this prevents the cell-cell movement of viruses. Consequently, for a virus to infect the mother plant tissues during or after fertilisation, a mechanism must be proposed whereby the virus can escape this constraint (Mink, 1993). Embryo infection therefore requires mother plant infection before the production of gametes or at least before the cytoplasmic separation of embryonic tissue from the mother plant. Male gametes or pollen may become infected and lead to embryo infection (Bos, 1983). However, the presence of a virus in a seed, even in the embryo, does not always lead to seedling infection (de Assis & Sherwood, 2000). Seed transmissibility starting in the oxule of the mother plant depends upon the ability of a virus to infect floral parts early in development. Infection after flowering does not usually lead to virus transmission through seed or the pollen (Bos, 1983). Whether seed transmission occurs and what proportion of the seed is infected is governed by the host-virus interaction (including the pathogenicity of the virus strain and the susceptibility of the host cultivar), the timing of

the infection and the prevalent environmental conditions (Bos, 1983; Lawson *et al.*, 1995). Seed transmission rates can vary from a fraction of a percent to nearly 100% in some host-virus combinations, although it rarely exceeds 50% (Lawson *et al.*, 1995), and is often much lower.

The majority of seed-transmitted viruses are carried within the embryo, although there are exceptions; for example, *Tobacco mosaic virus* (TMV) which is a contaminant on the seed surface. The virus is sometimes found in the endosperm, where it may persist for many years (Hull, 2004b), but not in the embryo (Brunt et al., 1996). TMV is a highly stable virus and can withstand desiccation, thereby easily surviving the time it takes for the seed coat to mature. The virus infects seedlings during germination and early growth (Mink, 1993; Lawson et al., 1995) and therefore this type of seed transmission is largely due to contamination by mechanical means. Other viruses within the genus *Tobamovirus* may also be transmitted through the seed in the same manner as TMV. These include *Tomato mosaic virus* (ToMV) (Hollings et al., 1975) and *Pepper mild mottle virus* (PMMoV) (Wetter & Conti, 1988).

2.1.3.1 **VIRUSES**

When a virus is transmitted by pollen, it may infect the seed and the seedling that will grow from that seed (termed vertical transmission), or it may infect the plant through the fertilized flower (termed horizontal transmission) (Hull, 2004b). However, just because virus particles are observed in or on pollen grains, or are found to replicate in pollen grains, it cannot be assumed that the virus is naturally transmitted by pollen. Similarly it cannot be assumed that if a virus is transmitted horizontally by pollen there will also be vertical transmission.

Viruses that are pollen or seed transmitted have now been identified in 16 virus genera. The majority of the known pollen-borne viruses are found in the *Ilarvirus* and *Nepovirus* genera. Ilarviruses are economically important and widespread in fruit trees. They are generally host specific and may be transferred from host to host via pollen (Cooper,

1993). Nepoviruses have a wide host range, and their main method of dispersal is via nematode vectors. However, some nepoviruses, such as *Raspberry ringspot virus* (RpRSV), can be transmitted through pollen and seed (Cooper, 1993).

Experimental work has shown that pollen transmission of viruses may be strain specific and/or host specific and also change in frequency according to a range of abiotic factors, such as temperature and moisture at the time of infection and also the time of year. For example, Inouye in 1962 (cited by Carroll & Mayhew, 1976) found up to 35% seed transmission of *Barley stripe mosaic virus* (BSMV) in a highly susceptible barley cultivar after emasculated virus-free plants were pollinated with pollen from infected plants. However, when two strains of BSMV infecting cultivars of 'Atlas' barley were compared, it was found that strain NSP was not-seed or pollen transmitted, while strain M1-1 was.

It is important to note that although pollen transmission may result in the production of virus-infected seed from initially uninfected mother plants, pollen infected by some viruses is less viable than healthy pollen and may be outcompeted by non-virus-infected pollen during the process of pollination (Bos, 1983), thereby not effectively transmitting the virus to a new host (Lawson et al., 1995). Despite the above limitations, some researchers (e.g. Bristow & Martin, 1999) have concluded that pollen transmission in the field can be a primary means of transmission for some plant pathogenic viruses.

Cryptoviruses are classified within the family *Partitiviridae* and the spread of these viruses is unusual in that they are only transmitted through seed or pollen and not by vectors or mechanical methods. They cannot be move from cell-cell in the host, spreading only via multiplying cells. Host plants usually appear symptomless and for this reason cryptoviruses appear to have no economic importance (Mink, 1993). However, some viruses within the family cause disease in plants, for example sugar beet infected with *Beet cryptic virus* (BCV) showed mild symptoms and appeared to have a reduced fresh root weight when compared to the BCV-free plants (Kassanis *et al.*, 1978). In the same

experiment it was also shown that BCV was transmitted through both the ovule and pollen of the infected plants.

Hull (2004b) states "The extent to which infected pollen is a significant factor in the spread of viruses in the field has not been thoroughly assessed. It may be more important economically with cross-pollinated woody perennials than with annual crops". Many of the reports on pollen-transmitted viruses over the past 60 years are now either considered erroneous, or the virus names have been found to be synonyms of other viruses. Mink (1993) reviewed the subject and concluded that only 9 viruses are pollen transmitted. These 9 viruses are Artichoke yellow ringspot virus (AYRSV), Blueberry leaf mottle virus (BLMoV), Blueberry shock virus (BIShV), Cherry leaf roll virus (CLRV), Prune dwarf virus (PDV), Prunus necrotic ringspot virus (PNRSV), Sowbane mosaic virus (SoMV), Raspberry bushy dwarf virus (RBDV) and Tobacco streak virus (TSV). Since Mink's review, an additional 30 viruses have been reported to be pollen-transmitted (Table 1). A further 6 viruses have been tentatively reported to be pollen-transmitted but the evidence is controversial or inconclusive (Table 2). These 45 viruses belong to 16 groups (15 genera and Yunassigned species), the majority being found in the Alphacryptovirus (at least Lepecies), Plarvirus (10 species including 3 which are tentatively pollen-transmitted), Wepovirus (9 species) or Potyvirus genera (5 species).

In addition to the viruses already described, at least an additional 16 viruses have been detected in pollen and have either been demonstrated not to be pollen-transmitted (Andean potato latent virus (Jones, 1982), Grapevine fanleaf virus (Cory & Hewitt, 1968), Onion yellow dwarf virus (Louie & Lorbeer, 1966), Potato black ringspot virus (Jones, 1982), Potato yellowing virus (Valkonen et al., 1992) and Tomato bushy stunt virus (Allen & Davidson, 1967; Brunt et al., 1996)) or pollen transmission was not reported during the research and has not been observed in other studies (Cherry rasp leaf virus (Wagnon et al., 1968), Cowpea aphid-borne mosaic virus (Tsuchizaki et al., 1970), Cucumber green mottle mosaic virus (Hollings et al., 1975), Dahlia mosaic virus (Pahalawatta et al., 2007), Elm mottle virus (Schmelzer, 1969), Maize white line mosaic virus (Louie et al., 1982), Pelargonium flower break virus (Krczal et al., 1995), Pepper

ringspot virus (Camargo et al., 1969), TMV (Brunt et al., 1996) and Turnip yellow mosaic virus (Brunt et al., 1996; de Assis & Sherwood, 2000)).

There are also a number of viruses which have either been erroneously reported to be pollen-transmitted, e.g. *Poplar mosaic virus* (Brunt *et al.*, 1996) or for which subsequent work has refuted earlier inconclusive reports, e.g. Strawberry pallidosis-associated virus (Martin & Tzanetakis, 2006; Tzanetakis *et al.*, 2006).

2.1.3.2 **VIROIDS**

A viroid is an infectious entity similar to a virus but smaller and consisting only of a single strand of RNA. Viroids lack the characteristic protein coat usually associated with viruses and are the smallest known replicating pathogenic agents (Hadidi et al., 2003; Owens et al., 2003). Five viroids have been found to be transmitted through seed to seedlings in one or more plant host and four of these viroids have been detected in pollen from infected plants (Table 2). In addition, Coconut tijanga viroid has been detected in pollen of Cocus nucifera but transmission has not been demonstrated (Hadidi et al., 2003).

In all cases pollen transmitted viroids were shown to invade the mother plants indicating that horizontal transmission can occur as a direct result of pollination, although this has not been demonstrated under field conditions (Mink, 1993). The mechanisms by which viroids move from gametophytic tissues to invade maternal vegetative cells is not known, although it is assumed that their extremely small size helps them to escape from gametophytic tissues (Mink, 1993).

The following tables have been prepared to summarise details of viruses (Table 1) and viroids (Table 2) that have been identified as being pollen transmitted or have been found to contaminate pollen.

Table 1: Viruses that are pollen-transmitted

			a now a many control professional to the first terms of the first term	1970
Genus	Species ///>	Transmission	Principal hosts ¹	References
Alphacryptovirus	Alfalfa cryptic virus I	• Vertical	Medicago sativa	Brunt et al., 1996
Alphacryptovirus	Beet cryptic virus	Vertical	Beta vulgaris	Kassanis et al., 1978; Brunt et al., 1996
Alphacryptovirus	Beet cryptic virus 2	Vertical	Beta vulgaris	Kassanis et al., 1978; Brunt et al., 1996
Alphacryptovirus	Radish yellow edge virus	/ Vertical	Raphanus sativus	Boccardo <i>et al.</i> , 1987
Alphacryptovirus	Red pepper cryptic virus 1	• Vertical	<u>Capsicum annum</u>	Arancibia <i>et al.</i> , 1995
Alphacryptovirus	Ryegrass cryptic virus	• Vertical	Lolium multiflorum	Boccardo <i>et al.</i> , 1987
Alphacryptovirus	Vicia cryptic virus	• Vertical	$\frac{Vicia faba}{\sqrt{Vicia faba}}$	Kenten <i>et al.</i> , 1980
Alfamovirus	Alfalfa mosaic virus	• Horizontal • Vertical	Lactuca spp., Medicago spp., Solanum spp., Trifolium spp.	Frosheiser, 1974; Hemmati & McLean, 1977; Pesic <i>et al.</i> , 1988; Zitter, 1991; Valkonen <i>et al.</i> , 1992
Badnavirus	Kalanchoe top- spotting virus	• Vertical	Kalanchoë blossfeldiana	Hearon & Locke, 1984
Comovirus	Cowpea severe mosaic virus	• Vertical	Vigna unguiculata 🤇	Bruntset al., 1996
Cucumovirus	Cucumber mosaic virus	• Vertical	Spinacia oleracea	Yang et al., 1997
Hordeivirus	Barley stripe mosaic virus	• Horizontal • Vertical	<u>Ho</u> rdeum vulgare	Gold'et al., 1954; Carfoll & Mayhew, 1976; Brlansky et al., 1986
Idaeovirus	Raspberry bushy dwarf virus	• Horizontal • Vertical	Rubus spp.	Murant et al., 1974; Converse, 1991; Mackeod et al., 2004

Ilarvirus Ilarvirus	Asparagus virtus	 Horizontal Vertical 	Asparagus officinalis	Evans & Stephens, 1988; Brunt et al., 1996
Ilarvirus	Blueberry shackvirus	1 ^ \	Vaccinium corymbosum	Bristow & Martin, 1999
	Fragaria-chiloensis	• Horizontal	Fragaria spp.	Martin & Tzanetakis, 2006
Ilarvirus	Prune dwarf virus	• Horizontal	Prumus spp.	Williams et al., 1963; Gilmer, 1965; Brunt et al., 1996; Silva et al., 2003
llarvirus	Prunus necrotic ringspot virus	• Horizontal	Spp. Priums spp., Rosa spp.	Das et al., 1961; Williams et al., 1962; Cole et al., 1982; Mink, 1998; Aparicio et al., 1999; Milne & Walter, 2003
Ilarvirus	Spinach latent virus	Horizontal Vertical	Spinacia-oleracea	Stefenac & Wrischer, 1983 (cited by Brunt et al., 1996)
Ilarvirus	Tobacco streak virus	• Horizontal	Cuclumis spp., <u>Lycopersicon</u> esculentum, Fragaria spp., <u>Phaseolus spp., Rubus spp.,</u> Trifolium spp.,	Converse & Lister, 1969; Sdoodee & Teakle, 1987; Sdoodee & Teakle, 1988; Greber et al., 1991; Walter et al., 1992; Sdoodee & Teakle, 1993; Klose et al., 1996
Nepovirus	Arracacha virus B	• Vertical	Oxalis spp., Soldrum Auberosum	Jones, 1982
Nepovirus	Artichoke yellow ringspot virus	Horizontal Vertical	Datura stramonium, <u>Nicottaĥa</u> spp., <u>Petunia hybrida</u>	Kyriakopoulou et al., 1985; Brunt et al., 1996
Nepovirus	Blueberry leaf mottle virus	• Horizontal	Vaccinium corymbosum	Childress & Ramsdell, 1986; Childress & Ramsdell, 1987; Boylan-Pett et al. 1991

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Nepovirus (Cherry leaf roll virus	• Horizontal	Betula spp., Juglans spp., Prunus spp., Rubus spp.	Callahan, 1957; Mircetich et al., 1982; Cooper et al., 1984;
)				Massalski et al., 1988; Rebenstorf et al., 2006
Nepovirus	Lucerne Australian latent virus	• Vertical	Medicago sativa, <u>Chenopodium</u> guinoa	Blackstock, 1978
Nepovirus	Raspberry (• Vertical	Fragaria spp., Narcissus spp., Ribes spp., Rubus spp.	Lister & Murant, 1967; Brunt <i>et al.</i> , 1996
Nepovirus	or S	$\sqrt[3]{ ho}$ Vertical $\sqrt[3]{\binom{3}{2}}$	Cucumis spp., Glycine max, Solanum spp., Vaccinium spp.	Yang & Hamilton, 1974; Brunt et al., 1996
Nepovirus	Tomato black ring virus	· Horizontal	Fragaria spp., <u>Rubus spp.,</u> Solanum spp., Vitis spp.	Lister & Murant, 1967
Nepovirus	Tomato ringspot virus	• Horizontal //	Pelargonium spp., Rubus spp., Primus spp., Vaccinium spp.	Scarborough & Smith, 1977; Brunt et al., 1996
Nucleorhabdovirus	Pittosporum vein yellowing virus (syn. Eggplant mottled dwarf virus)	• Vertical	Pittosporum tobifa	Brunt <i>et al.</i> , 1996
Potyvirus	Bean common mosaic virus	• Vertical	Phaseolus spp.	Medina & Grogan, 1961; Bos, 1983; Brunt et al., 1996
Potyvirus	Lettuce mosaic virus	• Vertical	Lactuca sativa	Ryder, 1964; Brunt et al., 1996
Potyvirus	Pea seed-borne mosaic virus	• Vertical	Pisum sativum	Kohnen, 1992 (cited by Johansen et al., 1994)
Potyvirus	Soybean mosaic virus	HorizontalVertical	$\frac{Glycine\ max}{\bigcirc}$	Bos, 1983; Bruntet al., 1996
Potyvirus	Sugarcane mosaic virus	• Vertical	Zea mays	Eret di, 2007
Sobemovirus	Sowbane mosaic virus	 Horizontal Vertical 	Chenopodium spp., Prunus spp., Vitis spp.,	Francki.& Miles, 1985; Hardy & Teakle, 1992

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Gaspar <i>et al.</i> , 2004	Jones, 1982; Slack, 2001	Brunt et al., 1996; Gallitelli et al., 2005	
Lycopersicon esculentum	Solanum spp.	Chrysanthemun spp., <u>Pelargoniun zonale</u>	re underlined.
Tobravirus () Tobacco ratife virus • Vertical	Trichovirus Potato virus/I) • Vertical	Unassigned Pelargonium zonate Vertical spotvirus	Hosts in which transmission by politen has been reported are underlined.

Table 2: Viruses that are reported to be pollen-transmitted but the evidence for transmission is inconclusive

Genus	Species // Saissage	Transmission	Principal hosts	References
Badnavirus	Taro bacilliform	• Possibly vertical	Colocasia spp.	Macanawai et al., 2005
Ilarvirus	American plum line	Possibly vertical	Prunus spp.	Mink, 1998
Ilarvirus	Apple mosaic virus	• Possibly horizontal	Corylus avellana, Humulus) spp., Malus spp.	Aramburu & Rovira 2000; Mink, 1998; Pethybridge <i>et al.</i> , 2002
Ilarvirus	Humulus japonicus latent virus	Possibly vertical	Hamulus spp.	Adams <i>et al.</i> , 1989
Sadwavirus	Strawberry latent ringspot virus	Possibly vertical	Fragaria spp., Prunus spp., Ribes spp., Vitis spp.	Martin & Tzanetakis, 2006
Sobemovirus	Southern bean mosaic virus	 Possibly horizontal Possibly vertical 	Phaseolus/spp., Vigna spp.	Hamilton et al., 1977; Brunt et al., 1996; Hull, 2004a

Hosts in which transmission by pollen has been tentatively reported are underlined.

Table 3: Viroids that are pollen-transmitted

Genus	Scientific name / Transmission	Transmission Principal hosts ¹	References
Avsunviroid	Avocado sunbloten • Vertical viroid	<u>Persea americana</u>	Desjardins et al., 1979; Desjardins et al., 1984
Cocadviroid	cadang virold	Areca spp., Chrysalidocarpus spp., Cocus spp., Corypha spp., Elaeis spp., Phoenix spp., Roystonia spp., Veitchia spp.,	Pacumbaba <i>et al.</i> , 1994; Hadidi <i>et al.</i> , 2003
Hostuviroid	Hop stunt viroid (Nertical	Halmulus spp., <u>Lycopersicon</u> esculentum	Kryczynski et al., 1988
Pospiviroid	Chrysanthemum stunt • Horizontal viroid • Vertical	Lycopersicon esculentum	Kryczynski <i>et al.</i> , 1988
Pospiviroid	Potato spindle tuber • Horizontal (V)	Lycopersicon esculentum	Fernow et al., 1970; Kryczynski et al., 1988; Hadidi et al., 2003
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Hosts in which transmission by pollen has been reported are underlined

3.0 PATHOGENS SPECIFIC FOR PLANT GENERA LIKELY TO BE IMPORTED AS POLLEÑO

The Biosecurity Organisms Register for Imported Commodities (BORIC) records organisms that may be associated with plants or plant products that are imported into New Zealand. The quarantine status for each species is indicated (i.e. regulated or non-regulated) as listed on 1st March 2007.

3.1 ACTINIDIA SPECIES

Genus of woody plants in the family Actinidiaceae. There are no recorded pests or pathogens that are pollen transmitted in Actinidia species.

3.2 *MALUS* SPECIES

The apples belongs in the family Rosaceae, under the sub-family Maloideae. Most apples are self incompatible and must be cross-pollinated. The following pollen-transmitted viruses have been observed in some Malus species;

- Apple mosaic virus infects Malus domestica and M. sylvestris (Brunt et al., 1996) and is non-regulated in New Zealand.
- Prunus necrotic ringspot virus, the virus is non-regulated in New Zealand.
- *Sowbane mosaic virus first isolated from apple trees in 1965 (Šutić et al., 1999)

 and is regulated in New Zealand. However, a recent risk analysis for Malus
 budwood recommends that this virus is of negligible risk because of its
 questionable host association with Malus (Feb 07 IRA Malus budwoods Viruses
 etc.doc; http://fcs.maf.govt.nz/webtop/drl/objectId/090101b380180277)
 - Tomato ringspot virus infects Malus sylvestris (Brunt et al., 1996); only the strains not present in New Zealand are regulated.

Tobacco ringspot virus, the virus is non-regulated in New Zealand.

3.3 PYRUS SPECIES

This genus comprises the pears and belongs in the family Rosaceae, sub-family Maloideae. The following pollen-transmitted virus has been observed in some *Pyrus* species;

• Apple mosaic virus, the virus is non-regulated in New Zealand

3.4 RIBES SPECIES

This genus belongs in the family Grossulariaceae and includes all the edible currants such as blackcurrant, whitecurrant, redcurrant and gooseberry. There are no accounts of any viruses that have *Ribes* crops as their primary natural host (Sutic *et al.*, 1999). However the following viruses have been detected in restricted areas with little or no spread in some *Ribes* species;

- Alfalfa mosaic virus is non-regulated in New Zealand.
- Cucumber mosaic virus is non-regulated in New Zealand.
- Raspberry ringspot virus commonly found in small numbers with limited spread in Ribes nigrum in the Soviet far east and in redcurrant in Germany and Finland (Šutić et al., 1999). The virus is regulated in New Zealand.
- Strawberry latent ringspot virus was isolated from one Ribes nigrum bush in Scotland in 1964 (Lister, 1964 cited in Šutić et al., 1999); only the strains not present in New Zealand are regulated.
- Tobacco rattle virus, only the strains not present in New Zealand are regulated.
- Tomato ringspot virus was isolated from a few Ribes nigrum cultivars in the Soviet far east (Gordejchuk et al., 1977 cited in Šutić et al., 1999); only the strains not present in New Zealand are regulated.
- Tomato black ring virus was isolated from a few Ribes nigrum bushes in Finland (Adams and Thresh, 1987 cited in Šutić et al., 1999) and is regulated in New Zealand.

3.5 RUBUS SPECIES

Rubus is a genus of plant in the Family Rosaceae, Subfamily Rosoideae and includes the plants that produce bramble fruit which are formed by an aggregation of druplelets. Examples include the blackberry, raspberry and loganberry. The following viruses have been observed in some Rubus species:

- Apple mosaic virus is probably distributed worldwide (Sutic et al., 1999; Brunt et al., 1996) and is non-regulated in New Zealand.
- Cherry leaf roll virus was discovered in New Zealand red raspberry plantations with an incidence up to 70% (Jones and Wood, 1978 cited in Sutic et al., 1999). Only the strains not present in New Zealand are regulated.
- Cucumber mosaic virus is non-regulated in New Zealand
- Raspberry bushy dwarf virus is found wherever Rubus species are grown (Šutić et al., 1999). The virus is not regulated in New Zealand.
- Raspberry ringspot virus was first observed in raspberry (Rubus idaeus and R. occidentalis) in the U.K., Europe and the former U.S.S.R. (Murant 1987 cited in Sutić et al., 1999). The virus is regulated in New Zealand.
- Strawberry latent ringspot virus has been observed in Rubus idaeus and R. occidentalis in the U.K., Italy and France (Putz and Stocky, 1970; Vegetti et al., 1978 cited in Sutic et al., 1999).
- Tobacco ringspot virus is non-regulated in New Zealand.
- Tobacco streak virus has been observed in R. occidentalis in the U.S.A. (Šutić et al., 1999) and is non-regulated in New Zealand.
- Tomato black ring virus has been observed in raspberry (Rubus idaeus and R. occidentalis) in the U.K. and the former U.S.S.R. (Murant, 1987 cited in Šutić et al., 1999) and is regulated in New Zealand.
- Tomato ringspot virus is found in raspberry (Rubus idaeus and R. occidentalis) in North America and Europe (Šutić et al., 1999); only the strains not present in New Zealand are regulated.

3.6 *VACCINIUM* SPECIES

Genus of shrubs in the family Ericaceae that includes the economically important crops cranberry and blueberry. The following viruses have been observed in some *Vaccinium* species;

- Blueberry leaf mottle virus has one principle host, Vaccinium corymbosum. Kangustifolium and V. myrilloides and V. corymbosum x Vangustifolium have all been found to be infected with the virus but show no symptoms (Brunt et al., 1996; CABI & EPPO, 2006a). The virus is regulated in New Zealand.
- Blueberry shock virus has one principle host, V. corymbosum (Bristow & Martin, 1999) and is regulated in New Zealand.
- Tobacco ringspot virus is recorded in Vaccinium but is non-regulated in New Zealand.
- Tomato ringspot virus was recorded in V. corymbosum in U.S.A. in 1972 (Šutić et al., 1999); only the strains not present in New Zealand are regulated.

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