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Additional Information

# In Memoriam of Ricardo Flores: The Career, Achievements, and Legacy of an inspirational plant virologist

V. Pallas<sup>1</sup>, C. Hernández<sup>1</sup>, J.F. Marcos<sup>2</sup>, J.A. Daros<sup>1</sup>, S. Ambrós<sup>3</sup>, B. Navarro<sup>4</sup>, J.A. Navarro<sup>1</sup>, M. de la Peña<sup>1</sup>, S. Gago<sup>5</sup>, M.E. Gas<sup>6</sup>, A. Carbonell<sup>1</sup>, C. Lopez<sup>7</sup>, Ángel E. Martínez de Alba<sup>8</sup>, F. Di Serio<sup>4</sup> and P. Moreno<sup>9</sup>

1. Instituto de Biología Molecular y Celular de Plantas, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas-Universitat Politècnica de Valencia, Avda, Ingeniero Fausto Elio s/n, 46022 Valencia, Spain.
2. Instituto de Agroquímica y Tecnología de Alimentos (IATA), Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Calle Catedra´tico Agustín Escardino 7, Paterna 46980, Spain
3. Instituto de Biología Integrativa de Sistemas I2SysBio, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas-Universitat de Valencia, C/Catedra´tico Agustín Escardino 9, Parque Científico, Paterna 46980, Valencia, Spain
4. Istituto per la Protezione Sostenibile delle Piante, Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Via Amendola 122/D, Bari 70126, Italy
5. Institute of Biochemistry and Biotechnology, Martin Luther University Halle-Wittenberg, Halle/Saale D-06120, Germany
6. Instituto de Investigación Sanitaria La Fe de Valencia, Avda. Fernando Abril Martorell nº 106, 106 Torre H 1ª planta, Valencia 46026, Spain
7. Instituto de Conservación y Mejora de la Agrodiversidad Valenciana-Universitat Politècnica de Valencia, Avda, Ingeniero Fausto Elio s/n, Valencia 46022, Spain
8. Department of Microbiology and Genetics, Institute for Agribiotechnology Research (CIALE), University of Salamanca, Villamayor 37185, Salamanca, Spain
9. Instituto Valenciano de Investigaciones Agrarias, Moncada 46113 Valencia, Spain

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3 **ABSTRACT**

4 Ricardo Flores (1947-2020) focused his research on the identification,  
5 replication, pathogenesis and evolution of viroids -minimal non-protein-coding  
6 circular RNAs (250-400 nt) able to replicate and incite diseases in plants- which  
7 are the lowest step of the biological scale. He and his collaborators initially  
8 identified and characterized additional group members, adding six new ones to  
9 the family Pospiviroidae, and expanding the Avsunviroidae from one to four  
10 components. They showed that members of the second family “encode”  
11 ribozymes, a property that -together with others- makes them candidates for  
12 being the most primitive replicons that emerged on our Planet 3500 million years  
13 ago. He also made important contributions regarding how viroids replicate,  
14 providing relevant data on the templates, enzymes and ribozymes that mediate  
15 this process (and on the mutation rate, which in the particular case studied,  
16 turned out to be the highest reported for any biological entity). More recently, he  
17 concentrated on the role that RNA silencing could play on viroid-host  
18 interactions, describing details of this process. His research has produced 160  
19 (WOS) original articles and reviews. He encouraged the scientific careers of a  
20 large number of researchers, some of whom have reviewed his scientific legacy in  
21 this review and contribute with other chapters in this special issue.

22

## 23 **1. Introduction**

24 Ricardo Flores, Research Professor at the Institute for Plant Molecular and Cell  
25 Biology, a research center funded by both the Polytechnic University of Valencia  
26 (UPV) and the Spanish Research Council (CSIC) passed away on December 23,  
27 2020. This special volume of *Virus Research*, for which R. Flores was member of  
28 the editorial board from 2012 until 2020, is dedicated to his memory and his  
29 outstanding contributions in the field of plant virology, more specifically in the  
30 world of viroid RNAs. Ricardo was member of the editorial board of eight more  
31 journals (*RNA Biology*, 2004-2013; *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 2012-2020,  
32 *Frontiers in Plant Science* (2015-2020), *Archives of Virology*, 2003-08, *Viruses*,  
33 2014-2020, *Molecular Plant Pathology*, 2003-08, *Journal of Plant Pathology*,  
34 2003-2020 and *Helyion-Elsevier*, 2018-2020). He was Vice-president of the  
35 Spanish Society for Virology (2007-2013) and Honorary Member of the  
36 Hungarian Academy of Sciences (2007). Ricardo was not only an excellent  
37 researcher, but also his curiosity encompassed very diverse aspects of history and  
38 art, which were his favorite subjects of coffee gatherings. This chapter, written by  
39 most of his PhDs, describes the main achievements of this inspirational scientist  
40 in the viroid RNA world.

## 41 **2. The Early Years (1947–76)**

42 Ricardo Flores was born in Almoradí, a small town of the Alicante province  
43 (Spain), and studied at the Jesuits of Orihuela. He graduated in Agricultural  
44 Sciences in 1971 at the Polytechnic University of Valencia and two years later he  
45 obtained his degree in Chemistry at the University of Valencia. This unique and  
46 rich background was the key of Ricardo's many accomplishments. With this  
47 background and dual vision, he joined the Institute of Agrochemistry and Food  
48 Technology (IATA), created in 1966, a center of the Spanish National Research  
49 Council (CSIC), to carry out his doctoral thesis. Eduardo Primo Yúfera, the first  
50 Director of IATA favored the development of Biochemistry, a discipline that was  
51 still incipient in Valencia. Ricardo Flores combined enthusiasm, intellectual rigor  
52 and training in Agronomy to initiate this new biochemical approach in the  
53 Institute and studied the nucleoprotein particles associated with the citrus  
54 tristeza virus (CTV) to obtain his doctorate in 1975 (Flores et al., 1975).

## 55 **3. The postdoctoral years (1976-77, 81)**

56 After obtaining a PhD degree in 1975, with a dissertation on nucleoproteins  
57 associated with citrus tristeza virus (CTV), he became a post-doc in the laboratory  
58 of Joseph S. Semancik in Riverside, California, to study citrus exocortis viroid  
59 (CEVd), a viroid causing a serious disease to citrus, the most relevant crop in his  
60 native Valencia province in Spain. In Riverside, he studied the properties of a cell-  
61 free system for synthesis of citrus exocortis viroid (Flores and Semancik, 1982).  
62 Back in Valencia, he established his laboratory at the Plant Molecular and Cellular  
63 Biology Unit of the IATA. His laboratory, together with that of Prof. Vicente

64 Conejero at the Polytechnic University of Valencia and the Dr. Nuria Durán-Vila  
65 at the Valencian Agricultural Research Institute (IVIA), would constitute a  
66 powerful nucleus of research in viroids in Spain, subsequently becoming world  
67 reference laboratories. In 1992 Ricardo was part of the founding team of the Plant  
68 Molecular and Cellular Biology Institute (IBMCP), where he developed his  
69 research until the end of his days. Many PhD students and post docs had the  
70 opportunity of being involved in multifaceted and complex studies on viroids.

#### 71 **4. Detecting and characterizing new viroids and viroid-like** 72 **RNAs. The French and Italian Connection.**

73 A relevant part of the work led by Ricardo Flores was focused on the detection  
74 and description of new viroid and viroid-like RNAs. This was a non-negligible  
75 challenge at the eighties and nineties when this kind of projects started, since  
76 powerful and currently routine techniques, such as PCR or NGS, were either not  
77 available or, at best, not yet affordable. With enthusiasm as main tool, he  
78 encouraged his, by that time, reduced team to pursue becoming fishers in the  
79 small RNA world. Thanks to this initiative, a plethora of new viroid and viroid-  
80 like molecules came to light, starting with the early characterization, in the mid-  
81 80s, of distinct isolates of Citrus exocortis viroid, hop latent viroid or avocado  
82 sunblotch viroid (Flores et al., 1985; García-Arenal et al., 1987; Pallás et al., 1987;  
83 Pallás et al., 1988), two entities already known at the time, and ending with *de*  
84 *nov*o detection and sequencing of portulaca latent viroid in 2015 (Verhoeven et  
85 al., 2015). In between these two periods, the work of his successive teams highly  
86 contributed to expand (and revisit) viroid phylogeny through reports on new  
87 members of the two viroid families, *Pospiviridae* (nuclear viroids with a central  
88 conserved region and lacking ribozymes) and *Avsunviridae* (chloroplastic viroids  
89 with hammerhead ribozymes and devoid of central conserved region). This line  
90 of research resulted in the initial identification of peach latent mosaic viroid  
91 (PLMVd) (Hernández and Flores, 1992), pear blister canker viroid (PBCVd)  
92 (Hernández et al., 1992), apple dimple fruit viroid (Di Serio et al., 1996),  
93 chrysanthemum chlorotic mottle viroid (Navarro and Flores, 1997), eggplant  
94 latent viroid (Fadda et al., 2003a), pepper chat fruit viroid (Verhoeven et al.,  
95 2009) and dahlia latent viroid (Verhoeven et al., 2013). Some viroid-like RNAs  
96 were also identified for the first time from carnation and cherry, though no proof  
97 of their autonomous replication, one of the defining characteristics of viroids,  
98 were obtained (Hernández et al., 1992; Di Serio et al., 1997; 2006). Indeed, a DNA  
99 counterpart was found for the carnation viroid-like RNAs leading to the first  
100 report of a “retroviroid-like” element (Daròs and Flores, 1995; Vera et al., 2000).  
101 The initial characterization of all mentioned viroids and viroid-like RNAs was  
102 usually limited to a single isolate of the corresponding agent but subsequent  
103 surveys allowed determination of the primary structure of a vast array of  
104 molecular variants (Ambrós et al., 1995; 1998; 1999; Daròs and Flores, 1995; De  
105 la Peña and Flores, 2002; Di Serio et al., 2002; Eiras et al., 2010; Fadda et al.,  
106 2003b; Malfitano et al., 2003; Messmer et al., 2017; Minoia et al., 2014; Rodio et

107 al., 2006) that, in many cases, paved the way for further studies aimed at  
108 unveiling biological and functional properties of the corresponding RNA.

109 Some of these investigations were conducted in close collaboration with other  
110 research groups. Special mention should be made in this context to the  
111 importance that the early collaboration of Ricardo with the French researcher  
112 Jean Claude Desvignes (Centre Technique Interprofessionnel des Fruits et  
113 Légumes, CTIFL, Lanxade) (Fig. 1A) and later on with the Italian researcher  
114 Antonio Ragozzino (Fig. 1B)(University of Naples Federico II, Italy), had in the  
115 discovery of viroids and viroid-like RNAs. Both, J. C. Desvignes and A. Ragozzino  
116 had an agronomical background with a “clinical eye” for plant symptoms.  
117 Desvignes, had categorized some fruit tree diseases of unknown etiology as likely  
118 caused by a pathogen “smaller than a virus” on the basis of graft transmission  
119 experiments. This observation together with the difficulty of eradicating those  
120 diseases by thermotherapy, made him to propose a viroid as etiological agent.  
121 This proposal reached the ears of Ricardo through Gerardo LLácer (a researcher  
122 of Valencian Institute of Agrarian Research, IVIA, Fig. 2), and their joint efforts  
123 successfully culminated with the discovery of PLMVd and PBCVd at the  
124 beginning of the 90s (Hernández and Flores, 1992; Hernández et al., 1992). On  
125 his side, Ragozzino had excluded the association of three peach, apple and cherry  
126 diseases observed in Italy with known viruses. Instead, preliminary assays  
127 supported the involvement of viroids. Ragozzino informed Ricardo of these  
128 findings and this initial contact turned to be the first step of a long collaboration  
129 that allowed several Italian young students and fellows to enjoy the Ricardo’  
130 mentoring and guidance during their PhD and post-doctoral studies. This intense  
131 research activity resulted in the discovery of ADFVd (Di Serio et al., 1996) and the  
132 identification of some PLMVd variants containing a specific pathogenic  
133 determinant as the causal agent of peach calico disease (Malfitano et al., 1993).  
134 In addition, the above-mentioned viroid-like RNAs from cherry were also  
135 characterized in the frame of such fruitful collaboration (Di Serio et al., 2006;  
136 Minoia et al., 2014). This extraordinary period in which a good number of new  
137 viroids were identified and characterized allowed, in collaboration with other  
138 colleagues such as J. Randles (Fig. 3A), T.O. Diener (Fig. 3B) and M. Bar-Joseph  
139 to propose a scheme for viroid classification and nomenclature (Flores et al.,  
140 1998) and later on a reassessment of the phylogenetic relationships of viroid and  
141 viroid-like satellite RNAs (Elena et al., 2001). .

## 142 **5. Replicating the non-coding viroid RNA**

143 Ricardo was always intrigued about the question of how viroids, being exclusively  
144 constituted by small non-coding RNAs, were able to complete complex infectious  
145 cycles when they managed to enter into the appropriate host plants. All along his  
146 career, he continuously sparked this debate within his laboratory in the search of  
147 host enzymes and structures involved in viroid replication. Indeed, in his  
148 postdoctoral stay in the laboratory of J.S. Semancik at the University of

149 California, Riverside, Ricardo tried to understand how citrus exocortis viroid  
150 (CEVd) RNAs were transcribed in the nuclei of the host plant *Gynura aurantica*.  
151 Sensitivity to low concentrations of the mycotoxin  $\alpha$ -amanitin supported the role  
152 of a host DNA-dependent RNA polymerase, likely DNA-dependent RNA  
153 polymerase II, acting on a viroid RNA template (Flores and Semancik, 1982). This  
154 result, which was in agreement with a previous report obtained for potato spindle  
155 tuber viroid (PSTVd) in infected tomato protoplasts (Mühlbach and Sanger,  
156 1979), highlighted that central enzymes of host nucleic acid metabolism were in  
157 charge of viroid replication. Ricardo followed the same strategy, using  
158 mycotoxins, to learn about the host enzyme involved in RNA transcription in the  
159 case of the viroids belonging to the family Avsunviroidae (Marcos and Flores,  
160 1992), which later were definitively shown to accumulate (Bonfiglioli et al., 1994;  
161 Lima et al., 1994) and replicate through a symmetric rolling-circle mechanism  
162 (Daros et al., 1994) in the chloroplasts of infected plants (Navarro et al., 1999). In  
163 contrast to a series of chloroplast genes, low concentrations of tagetitoxin did not  
164 affect synthesis of avocado sunblotch viroid (ASBVd) RNA strands in purified  
165 chloroplasts from infected avocados. This result suggested that the nuclear-  
166 encoded polymerase (NEP), which localizes in chloroplasts and resembles phage  
167 RNA polymerases, was required in ASBVd transcription (Navarro et al., 2000).  
168 This line of research coincided with the move to a new institute in which Ricardo  
169 consolidated a numerically important research group (Fig. 4).

170 Ricardo's interest in identifying host factors involved in viroid infectious cycles  
171 led to an experimental strategy based on UV cross-linking to identify proteins that  
172 bind viroid RNAs during infection. This strategy allowed to identify two closely  
173 related chloroplast RNA-binding protein (PARBP33 and PARBP35) that bind  
174 ASBVd RNA in infected avocado tissues. In vitro processing analysis of ASBVd  
175 transcripts in the presence of PARBP33 showed that this protein behaves as an  
176 RNA chaperone that stimulates the hammerhead ribozyme-mediated self-  
177 cleavage. This result indicated that oligomeric ASBVd cleavage to unit-length,  
178 despite being an RNA-based reaction, was facilitated by host proteins (Daros and  
179 Flores, 2002). Another influential experimental system that was set up in his lab  
180 consisted of transgenic lines of the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* that  
181 expressed viroid dimeric transcripts (Daros and Flores, 2004). Later, the use of  
182 this experimental system allowed characterizing the bonafide monomeric linear  
183 replication intermediate in CEVd replication, which in contrast to expected  
184 contained 5'-phosphomonoester and 3'-hydroxyl termini. This intermediate with  
185 such terminal groups implied that a host enzyme, member of the RNase III  
186 family, was involved in cleavage of multimeric RNAs during CEVd replication  
187 (Gas et al., 2007, 2008).

188 Regarding viroid replication, a mystery that really intrigued Ricardo was the  
189 identity of the enzyme involved in viroid circularization. This was a long-standing  
190 unanswered question until a combination of tomato protein chromatographic  
191 fractionation, mass spectrometry and silencing analyses allowed to identify

192 tomato DNA ligase 1 as the host enzyme involved in PSTVd circularization  
193 (Nohales et al., 2012b). This result, in combination with that of DNA-dependent  
194 RNA polymerase II mentioned above, indicated that nuclear viroids managed to  
195 reprogram host DNA enzymes to act on viroid RNA templates and substrates in  
196 a remarkable example of parasitic strategy. Coincidentally, Ricardo also  
197 participated this same year in the work that, using a combination of in vitro  
198 circularization assays and gene silencing analyses, showed the involvement of the  
199 chloroplastic isoform of tRNA ligase in the circularization of the RNAs of viroids  
200 belonging to the family Avsunviroidae (Nohales et al., 2012a).

## 201 **6. Characterizing viroid ribozymes and other elements of** 202 **tertiary structure of RNA.**

203 Catalytic RNAs or ribozymes were discovered in the 80s, including the first small  
204 self-cleaving ribozyme, the hammerhead ribozyme (HHR). HHRs were reported  
205 in the circular (circ) RNA genomes of a plant virus satellite (Prody et al., 1986)  
206 and a viroid (Hutchins et al., 1986), indicating that self-cleaving motifs should  
207 play a key role in the replication of these minimal entities. At that time, Ricardo  
208 was mostly working with non-ribozyme containing viroids (Pospiviroidae  
209 family), but the existence of small ribozymes in other viroid-like entities quickly  
210 caught his mind and interest. In fact, the discovery of RNA catalysis had deep  
211 implications for the whole scientific community, offering strong support to a  
212 hypothesis for the origin of life: the RNA world. In this hypothetical world, first  
213 “living entities” would have been based on RNA as both the genetic material and  
214 the catalyst (Crick, 1968; Orgel, 1968; Woese, 1968), and those ancient ribozymes  
215 and RNA genomes would have remained in extant organisms. This way, the  
216 “weird” group of viroidal RNAs and their ribozymes were suddenly considered  
217 not only as a present agronomic threat but also as molecular fossils of the ancient  
218 RNA world (Flores et al., 2014).

219 Ricardo initially worked on the phytopathological features of the first viroid  
220 described with HHRs, the ASBVd, (Marcos and Flores, 1990; Pallas et al., 1988),  
221 but later on, he got interested into the role of the ribozymes in the rolling-circle  
222 mechanism of replication (Daròs et al., 1994; Marcos and Flores, 1993, 1992).  
223 With the molecular characterization of a new HHR viroid associated to the peach  
224 latent mosaic disease (Hernández and Flores, 1992) and a circRNA with HHRs  
225 related to a carnation stunting syndrome (Hernández et al., 1992), Ricardo’s lab  
226 started a new era in the discovery of a new family of viroids with ribozymes: the  
227 Avsunviroidae. Newer examples of viroids and other circRNAs with HHRs were  
228 soon discovered and characterized in his group, such as CChMVd (Navarro and  
229 Flores, 1997), csc viroid-like RNA (Di Serio et al., 1997) or ELVd (Fadda et al.,  
230 2003b). As part of the molecular characterization of these novel agents, he always  
231 included an analysis of the in vitro self-cleavage capabilities of these RNAs, or  
232 even the role of host plant factors in ribozyme catalysis (Daròs and Flores, 2002).



233 But research in Ricardo's lab not only allowed a better understanding of the  
234 biology behind the ribozymes. The thorough analysis of naturally occurring  
235 HHRs vastly improved the basic knowledge of this model ribozyme. The plant-  
236 viroid system nicely allowed both in vivo and in vitro approaches, revealing for  
237 example a higher sequence flexibility in the canonical HHR core (Ambrós and  
238 Flores, 1998). Especially fruitful was the study of CChMVd HHRs; the minus  
239 polarity ribozyme was found to harbour a pathogenicity determinant (De la Peña  
240 et al., 1999), whereas the ribozyme in the positive polarity taught us how to  
241 improve self-cleavage efficiency with a single nucleotide insertion in the HHR  
242 core (De la Peña and Flores, 2001). Studies with the ELVd ribozyme allowed to  
243 explain the evolutionary conservation of the trinucleotide sequence preceding the  
244 cleavage site (Carbonell et al., 2006). Moreover, in vitro studies in 2003 showed  
245 an unexpected discovery for a ribozyme thoroughly studied for almost 20 years.  
246 Since their discovery, HHR catalysis was analysed using minimal variants lacking  
247 peripheral loops, but experiments using whole RNA motifs showed the key role  
248 of tertiary interactions between loops, unveiling the full catalytic power of the  
249 HHR (De la Peña et al., 2003). Structural characterization of the CChMVd loops  
250 done by NMR analysis (Dufour et al., 2009) helped us to better understand these  
251 tertiary interactions in the HHR. All these data were crucial for the basic and  
252 applied research in the ribozyme field, and also derived in the discovery of  
253 genomic HHRs across all kingdoms of life, including HHRs in our own genome  
254 (Hamman et al., 2012).

255 But the interest of Ricardo on RNA catalysis went even further, and he developed  
256 new biotechnological advances based on trans-acting ribozymes that included the  
257 tertiary stabilizing motifs (TSMs). In vitro and in vivo studies demonstrated their  
258 ability to cleave and interfere with PSTVd infection (Carbonell et al., 2011),  
259 supporting the idea that TSM-containing HHRs have potential to control  
260 pathogenic RNA replicons.

261 Ricardo was also interested in finding interactions that could stabilize the viroid  
262 RNA and be relevant for its survival in the host. In silico predictions and natural  
263 variation identified a tertiary interaction in the CChMVd genome that is crucial  
264 for RNA folding and viroid viability (Gago et al., 2005). The conservation of  
265 similar interactions in other avsunviroids suggests that they are biologically  
266 relevant. UV crosslinking assays revealed another tertiary interaction within the  
267 PLMVd RNA, which connected the conserved residues U81 and the 3'-terminal  
268 C289. Since the initiation site of PLMVd minus-strand RNA maps at a double-  
269 stranded motif containing C289, biological significance of this tertiary structure  
270 can be anticipated (Hernández et al., 2006).

271 More recently, Ricardo focussed on the whole structure of viroid genomes  
272 through SHAPE approaches (López-Carrasco and Flores, 2017a, 2017b). That was  
273 not enough, he really wanted to see viroids face to face, and AFM experiments  
274 (Moreno et al., 2019) allowed a last close sight to his long trip fellows.

## 275 **7. Viroid pathogenesis and RNA silencing.**

276 Ricardo Flores devoted major interest to the study of pathogenic processes  
277 induced by viroids. Being the fulfilment of Koch's postulates one of the first steps  
278 in the study of pathogenesis (Di Serio et al., 2018), his research provided  
279 conclusive evidence of the viroid nature of several plant diseases. This kind of  
280 studies were not limited to viroids infecting herbaceous hosts, like CChMVd  
281 (Navarro and Flores, 1997) and PCFVd (Verhoeven et al., 2009) that cause  
282 diseases in chrysanthemum and pepper, respectively, but were extended to  
283 several viroids infecting woody hosts, such as PLMVd (Hernández and Flores,  
284 1992), PBCVd (Hernández et al, 1992) and ADFVd (Di Serio et al., 2001), which  
285 were shown to be the agents of diseases in peach, pear and apple trees,  
286 respectively. The long time needed to complete these biological studies, especially  
287 in woody hosts, was never considered by Ricardo as an acceptable justification to  
288 elude this relevant step in the characterization of a viroid. In contrast, he believed  
289 that the efforts to fulfil the Koch's postulates were beneficial also to develop  
290 appropriate experimental systems to further investigate the molecular  
291 mechanisms underlying viroid pathogenesis.

292 After early studies focusing on the possible association between secondary  
293 structure of nuclear-replicating viroids and some pathogenic traits (Flores, 1984),  
294 Ricardo and his collaborators focused on the pathogenesis induced by the  
295 chloroplast-replicating viroids CChMVd and PLMVd. The molecular  
296 determinants of severe chlorosis symptoms induced by some variants of these  
297 viroids in their respective natural hosts were mapped to a specific tetraloop in  
298 CChMVd (De la Peña et al, 1999; De la Peña et al., 2002) and to an insertion  
299 forming a short stem-loop in PLMVd (Malfitano et al., 2003). The association of  
300 variants bearing these determinants with the symptoms was deeply studied,  
301 highlighting the differential fitness and uneven distribution of symptomatic and  
302 non-symptomatic variants in the infected hosts (De la Peña et al., 2002; Rodio et  
303 al., 2006; Rodio et al., 2007).

304 At the beginning of 2000, Ricardo started to investigate the role of RNA silencing  
305 in viroid-host interaction and showed that, similarly to nuclear-replicating  
306 viroids (Itaya et al., 2001; Papaefthimiou et al., 2001; Gómez et al., 2009),  
307 chloroplastic viroids are associated with viroid-derived small RNAs resembling  
308 host-derived microRNAs (miRNAs) (Martinez de Alba et al., 2002), the key  
309 molecules of post-transcriptional RNA silencing. Later on, his group showed that  
310 viroids are both triggers and targets of RNA silencing (Carbonell et al., 2008; Di  
311 Serio et al., 2009; Di Serio et al., 2010; Minoia et al., 2014), what motivated the  
312 subsequent development by several independent groups of different RNAi-based  
313 strategies for viroid control (Adkar-Purushothama et al., 2015; Carbonell and  
314 Daròs, 2017; Schwind et al. 2009).

315 This information was relevant to show the involvement of RNA silencing  
316 mediated by viroid-derived small RNAs as the primary cause of the pathogenic

317 process triggered by severe PLMVd variants inducing peach calico disease  
318 (Navarro et al., 2012). The same mechanism has been more recently extended to  
319 a different chlorosis induced by other severe PLMVd variants bearing a different  
320 pathogenic determinant (Delgado et al., 2019) and to CChMVd (Serra et al.,  
321 manuscript in preparation). Altogether these data strongly support the  
322 involvement of a similar RNA silencing-based mechanism as the primary event  
323 eliciting chlorotic symptoms by several chloroplast-replicating viroids. The same  
324 initial event seems less likely in the case of symptoms induced by nuclear  
325 replicating viroids, such as the stunting and leaf curling induced by PSTVd in  
326 tomato and *Nicotiana benthamiana* plants (Flores et al., 2020; Navarro et al.,  
327 2021).

## 328 **8. Not only viroids. The p23 of Citrus Tristeza virus**

329 In 1996 Ricardo Flores resumed his initial PhD research on Citrus tristeza virus  
330 (CTV) in close collaboration with colleagues in Valencia (Spain) and Lake Alfred  
331 (Florida). A first result of this collaboration was obtaining the full genomic RNA  
332 (gRNA) sequence of two mild CTV isolates from Spain and Florida (Albiach-Martí  
333 et al. 2000; Vives et al. 1999) that were essentially identical in spite of being  
334 separate for more than 30 years, suggesting that some virus genotypes are  
335 remarkably stable. Sequence comparisons suggested recombination events  
336 between genotypes, an important issue for CTV evolution (Martín et al., 2009).  
337 Analysis of genetic variation of the 3' and 5' gRNA ends revealed conservation of  
338 the first and wide variation in the second, with some isolates showing only 44%  
339 identity in their 5'UTR. All sequences studied belonged to one of three groups,  
340 with intra-group identity higher than 88% and between-group identities between  
341 44 and 64%. However, the predicted secondary structure of the three types was  
342 very similar (López et al. 1998). This secondary structure was found critical for  
343 efficient replication (Gowda et al., 2003).

344 Because different studies suggested that the CTV-specific p23 protein likely  
345 evolved to regulate specific interactions between CTV and citrus (Flores et al.  
346 2013), it became the main subject of Ricardo's CTV research. His laboratory  
347 demonstrated that p23 has RNA-binding activity in a non-sequence specific  
348 mode, with the RNA-binding domain being located between amino acid (aa)  
349 positions 50 and 86, containing a zinc-finger motif and several basic aa (López et  
350 al. 2000).

351 Deep sequencing and bioinformatic analyses of the small RNAs (sRNAs) showed  
352 that CTV infection induces in citrus a strong RNA silencing reaction, with sRNAs  
353 covering the full gRNA. However, sRNA distribution was asymmetrical and  
354 presented a hotspot in the 2500 3'-terminal nucleotides, comprising the three  
355 CTV genes encoding RNA silencing suppressors (RSS) (p25, p20 and p23). This  
356 sRNA distribution suggested that the Dicer-like (DCL) ribonucleases 2 and 4 act  
357 on the double stranded forms of both the gRNA and subgenomic RNAs (Ruiz-  
358 Ruiz et al. 2013).

359 Transgenic expression of the p23 RSS in sweet orange (CTV-susceptible) and in  
360 sour orange (SO) (partially resistant) allowed CTV escaping from the phloem of  
361 both hosts, but facilitated systemic infection and increased virus titer only in SO,  
362 suggesting a differential interaction between p23 and host factors in both species  
363 (Fagoaga et al. 2011). Silencing SO genes RDR1 (RNA-dependent RNA  
364 polymerase 1), NPR1, NPR3/NPR4 (non-expressor of pathogenesis-related genes  
365 1, 3 and 4) and DCL2/DCL4, using an adequate virus vector, revealed that  
366 reduced expression of RDR1, NPR1 and DCL2/DCL4 increases CTV spread and  
367 accumulation, suggesting that both the salicylic acid-signaling and the RNA-  
368 silencing pathways are involved in SO resistance. Contrarily, silencing  
369 NPR3/NPR4 decreases CTV titer in SO, likely as a result of higher NPR1  
370 accumulation enhancing the basal resistance (Gómez-Muñoz et al. 2017).

371 To investigate its subcellular localization, p23 or different mutants thereof fused  
372 with the green fluorescent protein (GFP) were agroexpressed in *Nicotiana*  
373 *benthamiana*. P23 preferentially accumulated in the nucleolus and in  
374 plasmodesmata, with the nucleolar localization signal including the zinc-finger  
375 motif and some basic aa within the 157 N-terminal residues, whereas  
376 plasmodesmatal localization requires the full 157-aa segment. Analysis of these  
377 mutants for RSS activity revealed that most protein regions are involved in RSS.  
378 Expression of the same constructs from a PVX vector revealed that p23 is a  
379 pathogenicity determinant in *N. benthamiana*, with the pathogenicity motif being  
380 located in the N-terminal 157 aa. Moreover, transgenic expression of p23 mutants  
381 in Mexican lime confirmed that the same p23 segment is the pathogenicity  
382 determinant in citrus (Ruiz-Ruiz et al. 2013). Constitutive expression of p23 from  
383 a mild or a moderate CTV isolate in transgenic citrus plants produced CTV-like  
384 symptoms and some non-specific aberrations, regardless the isolate  
385 pathogenicity characteristics. However, p23 expression under the control of a  
386 phloem-specific promoter incited only CTV-specific symptoms similar to those of  
387 the cognate CTV isolate (Soler et al. 2015), confirming that p23 is a pathogenicity  
388 protein when expressed in the phloem as in natural CTV infections.

389 Interaction of p23 with host factors was investigated by screening a *N.*  
390 *benthamiana* expression library using yeast-two-hybrid. Glyceraldehyde 3-  
391 phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) was detected as potential interactor with  
392 p23, with interaction being confirmed by bimolecular fluorescence  
393 complementation (BiFC) tests. Moreover, CTV agroinoculation of plants with  
394 GAPDH expression reduced by virus-induced gene silencing showed reduced  
395 CTV accumulation, indicating that the p23-GAPDH interaction facilitates the  
396 CTV infection cycle (Ruiz-Ruiz et al. 2018). Following a similar approach, a new  
397 p23-interacting host factor has been discovered that also facilitates the infection  
398 process (Yang et al., 2021).

399 Searching for p23-induced CTV resistance was a last objective of Ricardo's  
400 cooperation. Transgenic lime plants expressing p23 in different constructs

401 (sense, antisense or intron-hairpin) could not afford full protection against CTV  
402 infection (Fagoaga et al. 2006; López et al. 2010). Contrastingly, transformation  
403 with an intron-hairpin construct carrying untranslatable versions of the three  
404 CTV RSS, yielded transgenic lines displaying full CTV resistance against the  
405 homologous isolate, but partial resistance when plants were inoculated with a  
406 heterologous CTV isolate, indicating that the resistance mechanism is sequence-  
407 dependent (Soler et al. 2012).

## 408 **9. Final comments and introduction to the other chapters**

409 Last year it was 50 years since Diener, of the U.S. Department of Agriculture  
410 (Beltsville, Maryland, U.S), discovered that the pathogenic agent of the potato  
411 spindle tuber disease was “a free RNA. . . much smaller than any viral genome”,  
412 which he named viroid (Diener, 1971). Shortly afterwards, Joseph S. Semancik of  
413 the University of California (Riverside, U.S.) showed that the causal agent of the  
414 citrus exocortis disease was also a viroid (Semancik and Weathers, 1972). Only  
415 six years later Ricardo began to publish his early studies on viroids (Flores et al.,  
416 1978). Since then, with the exception of his valuable contribution to the CTV,  
417 Ricardo dedicated his whole scientific career elucidating the structure,  
418 pathogenesis and biology of these exciting small infectious RNAs. He passed on  
419 his enthusiasm to a large number of PhD students. Many of them have continued  
420 to work on viroids or in Plant Virology. This volume of Virus Research underlines  
421 the work of several of Ricardo Flores’ former students as well as postdocs, and  
422 visiting scientists. This special issue updates the current knowledge on the  
423 different stages of the viroid infection cycle such as replication, movement,  
424 pathogenesis, epigenetics and interactions with host factors and highlights the  
425 value of viroid models in Virology, as a tribute to such an inspirational scientist.

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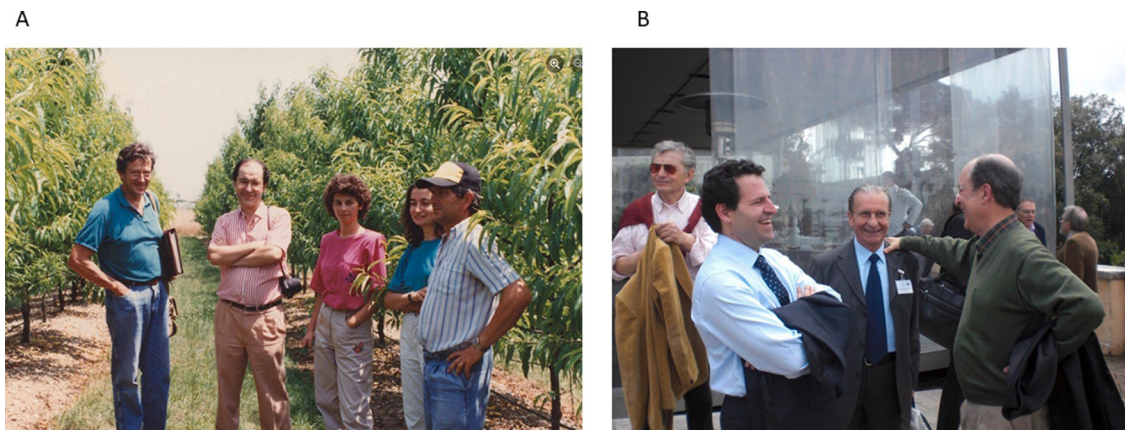
## FIGURE LEGENDS

431 Figure 1. (A). Ricardo Flores with J.C. Desvignes (left), C. Hernández (right) and  
432 two collaborators at the Centre Technique Interprofessionel des Fruits et  
433 Légumes, Prignonrieux, La Force, France in 1991. (B). With the Prof. A. Ragozzino  
434 (middle) and Dr. F. Di Serio (left) at Foundation of the European Society for  
435 Virology in 2008.

436 Figure 2. Ricardo, wearing a cap, between Dr. G. LLácer and Dr. V. Pallas on the  
437 XXth international symposium on virus and virus-like diseases of temperature  
438 fruit crops celebrated in Antalya, Turkey, 2006. Photo courtesy of Roberto  
439 Michelluti.

440 Figure 3. (A). Ricardo and J. Randles at the lake Okataina in New Zealand. (B)  
441 With T.O. Diener at the University of Maryland.

442 Figure 4. Ricardo and his research group at the IBMCP in 2004. Standing from  
443 left to right: A. Ahuir, D. Molina, E. Martinez de Alba, Ricardo, J.A. Daròs, A.  
444 Carbonell. Sitting, left to right are S. Minoia, L. Covell, M.E. Gas and S. Gago.



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Fig. 1.

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Fig. 2.

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A



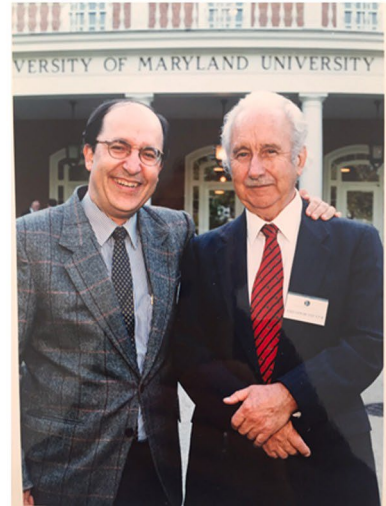
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Fig. 3.

B



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Fig. 4.

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