A novel mycovirus evokes transcriptional rewiring in *Malassezia* and provokes host inflammation and an immunological response

Shelly Applen Clancey[1§], Fiorella Ruchti[2§], Salomé LeibundGut-Landmann[2*],

Joseph Heitman[1*], and Giuseppe Ianiri[1*$]

[1]Department of Molecular Genetics and Microbiology, Duke University Medical Center, 312 CARL Building, Box 3546 DUMC, Durham, NC, USA
[2]Section of Immunology, Vetsuisse Faculty, University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland

[$]Present address: Department of Agriculture, Environmental and Food Sciences, University of Molise, 86100, Campobasso, Italy

[§]These authors contributed equally to this work.

*Corresponding author:
Giuseppe Ianiri
Email: giuseppe.ianiri@unimol.it
Phone: +39 0874 404 662

Joseph Heitman
Email: heitm001@duke.edu
Phone: (919) 684-2824
Fax: (919) 684-2790

Salomé LeibundGut-Landmann
Email: salome.leibundgut-landmann@uzh.ch
Phone: +41-44-635-8721

Abstract

Mycoviruses infect fungi, and while most persist asymptomatically, there are examples

of mycoviruses having both beneficial and detrimental effects on their host. Virus-infected

Saccharomyces and *Ustilago* strains exhibit a killer phenotype conferring a growth advantage

over uninfected strains, whereas hypovirus-infected *Cryphonectria parasitica* displays defects in

growth, sporulation, and virulence. In this study we identify a dsRNA mycovirus in five

Malassezia species. Sequence analysis reveals it to be a totivirus with two dsRNA segments: a

larger 4.5 kb segment with genes involved in viral replication and maintenance, and a smaller

1.4 kb segment encoding a novel protein. Furthermore, RNA-seq of virus-infected versus virus-

cured *Malassezia sympodialis* revealed an upregulation of dozens of ribosomal components in

the cell, suggesting the virus subjects the cell to a large transcriptional burden. Given that

Malassezia is the most abundant fungus on human skin, we assessed the impact of the

mycovirus in a murine cutaneous infection model and found infection with virus-infected strains

was associated with enhanced skin colonization and inflammatory response compared to virus-

cured strains. Moreover, interferon-β expression was significantly upregulated in bone marrow-

derived macrophages when challenged with virus-infected, compared to virus-cured *M.*

sympodialis, suggesting that the presence of the virus can induce an immunological response.

Although many recent studies have illuminated how widespread mycoviruses are, there are

relatively fewer in depth studies about their impact on disease caused by the host fungus. We

describe here a novel mycovirus in *Malassezia* and its possible implications in inflammatory

disorders of the skin and possibly other tissues.

Importance

Malassezia species represent the most common fungal inhabitant of the mammalian

skin microbiome, and are natural skin commensal flora. However, these fungi are also

associated with a variety of clinical skin disorders. Recent studies have reported associations of

Malassezia with Crohn's disease and pancreatic cancer, further implicating this fungal genus in

inflammatory and neoplastic disease states. Because *M. sympodialis* has lost genes involved in

RNAi, we hypothesized *Malassezia* could harbor dsRNA mycoviruses. Indeed, we report here a

novel mycovirus of the totivirus family in several *Malassezia* species, and characterized the

MsMV1 mycovirus of *M. sympodialis*. We found conditions that lead to curing of the virus, and

analyzed isogenic virus-infected/virus-cured strains to determine MsMV1 genetic and

pathogenic impacts. MsMV1 induces a strong overexpression of transcription factors and

ribosomal genes, while downregulating cellular metabolism. Moreover, MsMV1 leads to

increased pathogenicity in a murine model, and induced a significantly higher level of interferon-

β expression in cultured macrophages. This study sheds light on the mechanisms of

pathogenicity of *Malassezia*, focusing on a previously unidentified novel mycovirus.

Introduction

Viruses are widely distributed in nature and are found in a variety of hosts, ranging from single-celled organisms to plants and mammals. The presence of mycoviruses, viruses that infect fungi, can be benign but are also associated with toxin secretion in yeast, hypovirulence in pathogenic plant fungi, and hypervirulence in dimorphic fungi (1-5). Mycoviruses are typically composed of double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) genomes, but positive-sense and negative-sense single-stranded RNA viruses, as well as circular ssDNA viruses have been reported to infect fungi (6). Overall, more than 10 different families of viruses have been isolated from fungal hosts (7). Despite similar genomic features shared between mycoviruses and human viruses from the same family, one clear difference between the two is the absence of cell-to-cell transmission proteins in mycoviruses. Therefore, mycoviruses typically lack an extracellular stage and are only transmitted during cell division, or by cell or hyphal fusion (8-10).

A well-known example of a mycovirus is the killer virus of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. This toxin-producing dsRNA virus was characterized in the 1970s (11), and found to have two dsRNA segments: a larger, 4.5 kb dsRNA, and a smaller, 1.5 kb satellite dsRNA. The large segment, called L-A, is required for viral replication and maintenance. The smaller segment, called M, encodes a preprotoxin, which is processed into a mature toxin by host enzymes and then secreted from the cell (12, 13). During the replication cycle of L-A, the single-stranded positive-strand ((+)ssRNA) is transcribed by the virally encoded replication machinery and released from the virion to serve two roles; 1) it is the mRNA template for translation of the Gag and Gag-Pol fusion protein, and 2) it is the template that is packaged into new viral particles where transcription reoccurs (13, 14). Yeast cells harboring both the L-A and M dsRNA segments display a growth advantage over strains lacking these components. When toxin-producing strains compete with wild-type strains, the virus-infected strains secrete the mature killer toxin, killing neighboring cells, whereas the toxin-producing cells remain unharmed (15). A similar fitness advantage is conferred by toxin-producing strains of *Ustilago maydis* (2).

In contrast to the killer viruses that provide virus-infected strains a growth advantage, the

mycovirus that infects *Cryphonectria parasitica*, the causative agent of chestnut blight (which

decimated the population of chestnut trees in the United States in the early 1900s by killing

more than one billion trees) impairs growth of the fungus (16, 17). The growth defect of virus-

infected strains results in reduced virulence, hence the name <u>C</u>ryphonectria <u>p</u>arasitica <u>h</u>ypovirus

(CHV). Five different viral segments isolated from *C. parasitica* have been shown to confer a

high level of hypovirulence, although the level of impact on fungal growth observed in the

infected fungal strain appears to be virus strain-dependent (16, 18). A mycovirus infecting the

filamentous fungus *Pseudogymnoascus destructans* has also been implicated in the

epidemiology of white-nose syndrome, a lethal fungal infection in bats, as bats in North America

have experienced 5 million deaths in the past decade, and all *P. destructans* isolates from bats

in this region harbor a mycovirus (19). This is compared to European and Asian *P. destructans*

isolates, which do not harbor the mycovirus, and the resident bat populations appear to be

resistant to the endemic fungus.

RNAi is an important pathway conserved in many organisms and serves to regulate

gene expression, suppress transposon movement, and maintain genome integrity. Additionally,

a functional RNAi pathway has been shown to suppress mycovirus proliferation (20, 21). The

biogenesis of small RNAs (sRNAs) originating from the infecting virus (termed virus-derived

small interfering RNAs, or vsiRNAs) is analogous to that of endogenous sRNAs, requiring

essential components such as dicer (*DCL*), argonaute (*AGO*), and RNA-dependent RNA

polymerase (*RDP*) (22). It was previously thought that mycoviruses might only survive in

species that lack a functional RNAi pathway as introduction of argonaute and dicer into yeast

resulted in the elimination of the mycovirus (20). To this end, fungal species lacking canonical

RNAi pathways have been good candidates in which to screen for mycoviruses. However,

increased research on mycoviruses over the past decade has produced reports showing that

mycoviruses have developed strategies to counteract the RNAi defense mechanisms that

suppress antiviral activity (5). In *Aspergillus nidulans*, infection of conidia with Virus 1816

suppresses inverted repeat transgene (IRT)-induced RNA silencing, and when the virus was

cleared from ascospores, IRT silencing was restored (23). Other examples of mycovirus-

induced RNAi suppression in *C. parasitica* and *Rosellinia necatrix* involve viral targeting of the

RNAi machinery. In the case of *C. parasitica*, CHV1-EP713 encodes a papain-like protease

(p29) that suppresses hairpin RNA-triggered silencing in the fungus (24). In *R. necatrix*, the

mycoreovirus RnMyRV3 s10 gene encodes a product that appears to suppress RNA silencing

by interfering with the dicing of dsRNA (25). Most recently, a novel partitivirus, TmPV1, was

identified in *Talaromyces marneffei,* and is correlated with the downregulation of the *dcl*-1, *dcl*-2,

and *qde*-2 RNAi genes in both virus-infected yeast and mycelia (4). Examples of virus-induced

RNAi suppression spanning multiple classes of fungi is evidence that RNAi functions to control

viral levels and that mycoviruses have evolved ways to counteract this regulation.

The genus *Malassezia* is a monophyletic group of lipophilic yeasts that colonize

sebaceous skin sites and represent more than 90% of the skin mycobiome. Despite being a

commensal yeast, *Malassezia* is associated with a number of common skin disorders, such as

seborrheic dermatitis, atopic eczema, pityriasis versicolor, and also systemic infections (26).

Recently, two landmark studies reported the association of *Malassezia* with gastrointestinal

disorders such as Crohn's disease in a subset of patients with CARD9 mutations (which

enhance sensitivity to fungal pathogen-associated molecular patterns [PAMPs]) and pancreatic

cancer (27, 28), highlighting the importance of this understudied fungal genus as a crucial

component of the human mycobiome. All *Malassezia* species lack the fatty acid synthase gene

and thus are lipid-dependent, relying on exogenous fatty acids for growth. This feature makes

Malassezia unique and fastidious to study under laboratory conditions, and as consequence

relatively limited research has been done on the basic biology of this organism.

To date, 18 different species of *Malassezia* have been identified and sequence for 15 of

these genomes is publicly available. Of these, the *M. sympodialis* ATCC42132 genome is the

most well annotated reference genome based on whole genome sequencing, RNA-seq, and

proteomics (29, 30). As commensal inhabitants of the skin, *Malassezia* yeasts interact with the

skin immune system, and specific T cells, as well as IgG and IgM antibodies, can be detected in

healthy individuals, whereas specific IgE antibodies are prevalent in a large proportion of

patients suffering from atopic eczema. A number of molecules with immunoglobulin E (IgE)-

binding capabilities have been identified in extracts of *Malassezia* and have been named MalaS

allergens. Ten allergens have been identified in *M. sympodialis*, and three in *M. furfur*. Eight of

these allergens are conserved proteins that share high similarity with the corresponding

mammalian homolog, suggesting that the induction of autoreactive T cells by *Malassezia*

allergens could play a role in sustained inflammation (26, 31). Nevertheless, both the fungal and

host factors contributing to the transition of *Malassezia* from commensal to pathogen are

unknown and this is an active area of research.

Malassezia has a relatively small genome of 7.7 Mb, and due to its reduced size has lost

nearly 800 genes compared to other sequenced Basidiomycota, including genes of the RNAi

pathway (29). Given that *Malassezia* has lost the RNAi machinery, we hypothesized it could

harbor mycoviruses and screened our collection of *Malassezia* strains for novel dsRNA viruses.

Here, we report the discovery of a novel mycovirus from *M. sympodialis*, MsMV1. Following the

screening of three dozen *M. sympodialis* isolates in our collection, we observed that this

mycovirus is present in approximately 25% of the isolates. Fungal cells can be cured of the

mycovirus upon exposure to high temperature or the antimicrobial agent biphenyl. RNA

sequencing of infected and cured strain pairs revealed the complete genome of MsMV1 and

illuminated a large shift in the cellular transcriptional profile comparing the congenic virus-

infected and virus-cured strains. The presence of MsMV1 correlated with an increased ability to

colonize and induce an inflammatory response in the skin, and we found that infection by

MsMV1 resulted in increased production of interferon-β in cultured macrophages. These

findings reveal a novel mycovirus harbored by *Malassezia* with possible implications for

interactions with the host in both the commensal and disease states.

Results

Identification and characterization of a novel mycovirus in *Malassezia*

Whole genome sequencing revealed that the *Malassezia* species have lost the genes required for a functional RNAi pathway (29); therefore, we hypothesized the fungus had the capacity to harbor mycoviruses. Following the screening of *M. sympodialis*, *M. pachydermatis,* and *M. furfur* laboratory freezer stocks, dsRNA species were detected in 11 of 36 *M. sympodialis* isolates (30.5%), one of three *M. pachydermatis* isolates (33.3%), and no *M. furfur* isolates. dsRNA species were also found in one of two *M. globosa* isolates, one *M. obtusa* isolate, and one *M. yamatoensis* isolate (Figure 1A, 1B, and Figure S1). For *M. sympodialis*, two dsRNA segments were visualized on an ethidium bromide-stained agarose gels, one at ~4.5 kb and another at ~1.4 kb. The sizes of these dsRNA segments are similar to those found in *S. cerevisiae* strains that produce killer toxins (1), suggesting the segments may correspond to a helper virus and a satellite RNA encoding a toxin precursor. *M. obtusa* and *M. yamatoensis* appear to only have the larger ~4.5 kb species as no dsRNA species of ~1.4 kb was detected. *M. globosa* also has a ~4.5 kb dsRNA species as well as two smaller species of ~500 bp and ~600 bp (Figure 1B).

In the present study we focused on the characterization of the mycovirus of *M. sympodialis* as a representative species of the *Malassezia* genus. To unveil the biological and physiological roles of the putative *Malassezia* mycovirus, a crucial first step was to define conditions that allow elimination (i.e. curing) of the mycovirus. In other fungi, mycoviruses can be cured by exposure to stressful conditions or certain drugs. In *S. cerevisiae*, exposure to the fungicide cycloheximide cures killer cells of the killer phenotype (32). This has varying rates of success in other organisms, such as *Aspergillus*, where a less than 50% success rate of mycovirus curing was observed after exposure to cycloheximide (33). In filamentous fungi, conidial isolation and hyphal tipping are more commonly used methods for curing (33), and polyethylene glycol was shown to cure *P. destructans* of PdPV-pa infection (19). To determine if

M. sympodialis could be cured of the dsRNA, the strains were passaged on modified Dixon's

(mDixon) media and subjected to various stresses. We found that six passages on mDixon

medium with no additives at high temperature (37°C) resulted in a complete loss of both dsRNA

segments in four *M. sympodialis* virus-infected strains (Figure 1C, middle section). Following a

single passage on mDixon medium with 10 µg/mL biphenyl, strains SEC555 and SEC557

derived from KS013 and KS016, respectively, lost both dsRNA species, while strains SEC554

and SEC558 (derived from KS012 and KS017, respectively) retained both dsRNA species

(Figure 1C, right section). All dsRNA containing strains retained both segments when passaged

on mDixon with no additives at 30°C (Figure 1C, left section).

To determine if the dsRNA moieties isolated from *M. sympodialis* are of viral origin, the

dsRNA molecules of *M. sympodialis* were converted to cDNA and subjected to TA-cloning and

Sanger sequencing. Clones of the large moiety were obtained from strain KS013, and from

KS012 for the smaller one. Primer walking with Sanger sequencing revealed only partial

insertions of the two into the cloning plasmid: a 1.3 kb region of the large ~4.5 kb segment, and

a 374 bp portion of the ~1.4 kb segment. Blastx of the 1.3 kb sequence derived from the larger

dsRNA revealed similarities with other mycoviruses deposited in GenBank, while a blastx

search of 374 bp sequence derived from the smaller dsRNA found no hit (see later in the text for

details). In parallel with the cDNA synthesis, cloning and sequencing, the congenic virus-

infected and virus-cured strains KS012 and SEC494 of *M. sympodialis* were subjected to

ribosomal RNA-depleted RNA sequencing. The rationale of the RNA-seq analysis was two-fold;

first, allowing a more facile identification of the entire viral genome and second, elucidating

possible transcriptomic changes evoked by the mycovirus in the host cells.

For the identification of the viral genome, adaptor-free RNAseq reads derived from *M.*

sympodialis virus-infected and virus-cured isolates were assembled with Trinity. The resulting

transcripts were searched using the sequences previously obtained through TA-cloning as a

query, and two perfect hits (*E* value 0.0) were obtained following a blastn search against the

virus-infected strain KS012. Both hits are part of two larger independent contigs (DN8321 of

4613 bp, and DN4986 of 4601 bp; see File S1 legend for details) that subsequent analyses

(described in detail below) reveal represent the entire viral genome. The two identified contigs

are identical with the exception of a few nucleotides located at the sequence extremities and

outside coding regions, likely being residual adaptor or assembly artifacts (File S1). Conversely,

blastn analysis of the 1.3 kb viral TA-cloned sequence against the genome of the virus-cured

isolate SEC494 found only a small 308 bp hit (E value 1e-143) that is part of the *M. sympodialis*

ATCC42132 *MRP4* ortholog, which encodes a mitochondrial ribosomal protein of the small

subunit (MSYG_4110, accession SHO79760). Combined with nucleic acid analysis based on

agarose-ethidium bromide stained gels, this sequencing further supports that the dsRNA had

been completely eliminated in the virus-cured strain.

Moreover, PCR analyses with primers designed to specific regions of the large and small

dsRNA segments failed to produce amplicons on *M. sympodialis* KS012 genomic DNA,

suggesting that the viral sequence is not integrated in the genome but is rather cytoplasmic.

This finding is corroborated by *in silico* blast searches that failed to detect either large or small

segment viral sequences in the *de novo* genome assembly of *M. sympodialis* KS012 (described

below).

Using the ExPASy Translate web tool, the 4.6 kb segment was found to contain two

open reading frames (ORFs), distinguished by a -1 ribosomal frameshift, a common feature of

totiviruses (Figure 2A) (34). A BLASTp search of the ORF produced by a frame 1 translation

revealed the RNA-dependent RNA polymerase gene (*RDP*) from *Scheffersomyces segobiensis*

virus L (SsV L) with 52.69% homology. A BLASTp search of the ORF produced by a frame 2

translation identified the capsid protein from the same *S. segobiensis* virus, in this case with

53.87% homology (35). Phylogenetic analysis of the Rdp1 sequence obtained from RNA-seq

grouped it with Rdp1 sequences from other mycoviruses of the totiviridae family (Figure 2B).

Moreover, bidirectional blast analysis using the *S. segobiensis* SsV L virus genome as a query

against the *M. sympodialis* KS012 transcriptome assembly found the contigs DN8321 and

DN4986 (File S1). These results strongly support that the large dsRNA segment isolated from

M. sympodialis is a novel mycovirus and encodes proteins required for mycoviral replication and

maintenance.

Similarly, the 374 bp query sequence from the smaller dsRNA segment identified via TA-

cloning was subjected to a blastn search against the assembled transcriptomes of the virus-

infected and virus-cured *M. sympodialis* strains KS012 and SEC494, respectively. Two highly

significant hits (*E* value 3e -170 and 2e -166) were obtained only against the genome of the

virus-infected strain KS012. The two hits are part of two independent contigs (DN7179 of 1546

bp and DN6052 of 1479 bp; see File S2 legend for details), consistent with the size of the small

dsRNA segment based on agarose gel electrophoresis. These contigs are identical with the

exception of a few nucleotides located at the sequence extremities and outside coding regions

(File S2). Translation of this contig showed a single ORF (Figure 2C), which when used in a

BLASTp search in NCBI returned only weak (≤29% homology, *E* value ≥1.6) hits to the 3' region

of uncharacterized and hypothetical proteins in *Sporisorium reilianum* and *Streptomyces*,

respectively; no significant hits were obtained from NCBI for the small segment.

To infer the function of this virally-encoded protein, the predicted amino acid sequence

was subjected to domain prediction using Interpro Scan. A 305 amino acid non-cytoplasmic

domain was identified at the C-terminal end of the protein and a short 19 amino acid signal

peptide is predicted at the N-terminus (Figure 2D). Signal peptides are commonly present at the

N-terminus of proteins that are destined for secretion. Signal peptides are composed of three

regions: an N-region, an H-region, and a C-region. Typically, the N-region contains a stretch of

positively charged amino acids, the H-region is the core of the signal peptide that contains a

stretch of hydrophobic amino acids, and the C-region contains a stretch of amino acids that are

recognized and cleaved by signal peptidases (36). The presence of this signal peptide, and the

lack of homology to any protein in the NCBI database, suggests the ~1.5 kb dsRNA segment

from *M. sympodialis* encodes a previously unidentified, novel protein of unknown function that is

likely secreted from the cell. Given the data supporting that these dsRNA segments represent a

dsRNA virus in *M. sympodialis*, we termed this virus MsMV1 (<u>*Malassezia*</u> <u>*sympodialis*</u> <u>m</u>yco<u>v</u>irus

<u>1</u>).

MsMV1 infection causes an upregulation of a large number of ribosomal genes

As described, total RNA from congenic virus-infected and virus-cured strain pairs KS012

and SEC494 was subjected to analysis of differentially expressed genes in the virus-infected

strain compared to its cured counterpart. For RNA-seq analysis, three biological replicates of

each sample were analyzed. RNA-seq reads of virus-infected and virus-cured strains KS012

and SEC494 were mapped against the reference *M. sympodialis* genome ATCC42132 using

HiSat2. Transcript abundance was estimated through StringTie, and differentially expressed

genes with a false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05 and a $\log_2$-fold change +/- 1 were identified with

EdgeR (37, 38).

The virus-infected strain displayed differential expression of 172 genes in comparison to

the virus-cured strain, with 89 genes being upregulated ($\log_2$-fold change between 1 and 8.14)

and 83 genes being downregulated ($\log_2$-fold change between -1 and -4.6) (Figure 3A). Among

the proteins differentially upregulated, 50% are involved in ribosomal biogenesis and translation

(Figure 3B). The remaining genes are involved in DNA replication and maintenance,

transcription, stress responses, and other cellular metabolic processes. The most highly

upregulated gene in the virus-infected strain, with a $\log_2$-fold change of 8.14, was MSYG_3592,

encodes an uncharacterized mediator complex protein. The mediator complex is a

transcriptional coactivator that interacts with transcription factors and RNA polymerase II, which

transcribes all protein-coding and most non-coding RNA genes (39). The change in expression

of this gene, combined with the upregulation of phosphorylation activity, ribosomal biogenesis,

and cytoplasmic translation, indicates a large transcriptional shift in the virus-infected strain.

Downregulated genes included those involved in metabolic processes, oxidation-reduction

processes, transmembrane transport, cell cycle and cell division, and many uncharacterized

transcripts. In particular, the most downregulated gene that passed the FDR <0.05 threshold

with a $\log_2$-fold change of -4.6 is an endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane protein,

MSYG_1988, a gene whose predicted product is involved in the movement of substances

across the ER membrane and/or protein synthesis. The second most downregulated gene is

MSYG_0220 ($\log_2$-fold change = - 4.1), which is an ortholog of *S. cerevisiae CDC39.* Cdc39 is a

component of the Ccr4-Not1 complex that, in addition to its role as a global transcriptional

regulator, regulates mRNA decay. These data suggest that elimination of aberrant mRNA

transcripts may be inhibited in the virus-infected strain. Interestingly, we identified a gene

(MSYG_3324) with the lowest $\log_2$-fold change (-11.88) that did not pass the statistically

significant threshold of FDR <0.05. The gene MSYG_3324 gene encodes a hypothetical protein

that has a guanine nucleotide exchange factor domain, leucine-rich repeats of the ribonuclease

inhibitor (RI)-like subfamily, and an N-terminal Herpes BLLF1 superfamily domain, which

consists of the BLLF1 viral late glycoprotein that is the most abundantly expressed glycoprotein

in the viral envelope of the Herpes viruses. Strikingly, BLLF1 represents a major antigen

responsible for production of neutralizing viral antibodies *in vivo* (40), and we speculate that it

might be strongly downregulated by the MsMV1 mycovirus as a mechanism to dampen *M.*

sympodialis antiviral defense systems. Overall our RNA-seq dataset is clearly indicative of a

significant transcriptional rewiring of *M. sympodialis* in the presence of the dsRNA mycovirus

MsMV1.

The three technical replicates of each strain produced highly similar expression profiles,

which are distinct from one another (Figure 3C). The largest cluster of upregulated genes in the

virus-infected strains included ribosomal components, and a gene network map shows the tight

interaction of these ribosomal components (Figure 3D). The large, central cluster consists of

ribosomal proteins that are regulated by translation initiation factors Anb1 and Rpg1, and also

Noc3, which bind ribosomal precursors to mediate their maturation and intranuclear transport.

One question that we sought to answer was whether the conditions employed to cure

the virus changed the strain in any way other than virus elimination. We generated whole

genome Illumina data and then performed genome-wide analyses and SNP calling of the *M.*

sympodialis cured strain SEC494, comparing it to the virus-infected strain KS012. Only two

nucleotide changes unique to the virus-cured isolate SEC494 were identified. These include

mutations in the coding regions of *KAE1*, an ATPase, and *CRM1*, a karyopherin responsible for

the transport of molecules between the cytoplasm and the nucleus (Table S1, File S3). Being as

these mutations were only found in the virus-cured strain, they may be a consequence of the

"curing treatment" and we predict their impact on fitness to be minimal given similar growth

characteristics of the two strains (Table S1; File S3). Moreover, the assembled KS012 and

SEC494 genomes are co-linear with the reference *M. sympodialis* genome ATCC42132, and no

change in ploidy or aneuploidy was observed for any chromosome (Figure S2).

Virus-infected strains induce inflammation in a cutaneous murine model

In a recent study, Sparber and colleagues described a murine epicutaneous infection

model that involves application of *Malassezia* to the mouse dorsal ear following mild tape

stripping (41). Colonization of host tissue (fungal load) is determined by plating homogenized

tissue onto agar plates and counting colony forming units; an increase in ear thickness is used

as a measurement for skin inflammation. When mice were challenged with congenic virus-

infected and virus-cured strains in this model, a more prominent ear thickening was observed in

response to the virus-infected strains compared to their cured counterparts (Figure 4A, note

statistical significance only for the KS012 and SEC494 virus-infected and virus-cured strain

pairs). Moreover, for one of the two strain pairs tested, the virus-infected strain displayed

increased colonization compared to their virus-cured counterpart by day 4 post-infection (Figure

4B). To determine if there was a difference in the immune response elicited by the virus-infected

and virus-cured strains, we assessed the expression of interleukin-17 (IL-17), a key mediator of

the host response against *Malassezia* on the skin (41). However, we could not detect any

statistically significant differences in cytokine induction in response to virus-infected and virus-

cured strains (Figure 4C), indicating that IL-17 expression was not regulated by the virus and

not responsible for the observed differences in fungal load and skin thickness. We also

assessed expression of IFN-β, a central player in antiviral immunity, but could not measure

expression above the basal levels detected in the skin of naïve control animals (Figure 4C). The

same was also true at earlier or later time points after infection (Figure S3).

Virus-infected strains induce interferon-β expression in bone marrow-derived

macrophages in a TLR3-independent manner

Given its close relationship with the skin, *Malassezia* primarily interacts with

keratinocytes and tissue-resident mononuclear phagocytes, including macrophages. Therefore,

we assessed the interaction of *M. sympodialis* virus-infected and virus-cured strains with

macrophages. Bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDMs) are mature, differentiated bone

marrow monocyte/macrophage progenitors that are suitable for host-pathogen interaction

studies (42). Interferon-β (IFN-β) expression in BMDMs was measured by RT-qPCR following

incubation with virus-infected and virus-cured *M. sympodialis* strains for 24 hours. The presence

of MsMV1 induced significantly more IFN-β expression in BMDMs than virus-cured strains

(Figure 5A).

In leishmaniasis, a parasitic disease caused by *Leishmania*, an elevated burden of

Leishmania RNA virus-1 (LRV1) in the parasite is associated with parasite dissemination and

increased disease severity (43, 44). Toll-like receptors (TLRs) are innate immune-recognition

receptors known to play a role in viral infection, and TLR3, which recognizes and responds to

dsRNA (45), was found to be required for the induction of pro-inflammatory factors and disease

exacerbation in leishmaniasis (43). Given the relationship between TLR3 and dsRNA

recognition, TLR3 deficient BMDMs were incubated with the virus-infected and virus-cured

Malassezia strains. In contrast to observations with LRV1, the increased production of IFN-β by

MsMV1-infected strains was not dependent upon TLR3, as deletion of this gene in BMDMs did

not result in a loss of IFN-β expression by the infected strains (Figure 5B).

BMDM viability and macrophage activation, as measured by CD86^{+} surface expression

and TNF expression, was also assessed (Figure S4A). No significant differences were found in

BMDMs incubated with virus-infected and virus-cured *M. sympodialis* strains, and deletion of

TLR3 did not change this result (Figure S3C). The seemingly enhanced induction of CD86 by

the virus-cured strain SEC494 (Figure S4A) was not reproducible in independent repeat

experiments, not paralleled by other readouts of macrophage activation, and not consistent with

the results obtained with other virus-infected and virus-cured strain pairs. Therefore, it seems

unlikely to be related to the absence of the virus.

Discussion

Mycoviruses are proving to be much more ubiquitous in nature than previously

appreciated. Fungi harboring mycoviruses display a range of phenotypes, which in some cases

can prove beneficial or detrimental for the host plant or animal. For instance, *C. parasitica*

carries the CHV1 virus that causes reduced growth and pathogenicity of the fungus. Therefore,

trees infected with virus-infected strains of *C. parasitica* display smaller cankers than trees

infected with virus-free strains (16). Application of hypovirus-infected strains to infected cankers

has proven to be an effective biocontrol agent as it halted the decimation of the chestnut tree in

North America (17). Conversely, virus-infected *L. guyanesis* exacerbates leshmaniasis in mice

and increases parasitemia, leading to the dissemination and metastasis of the parasite from the

infection site (43).

Here, we describe the discovery of dsRNA mycoviruses in five *Malassezia* species: *M.*

sympodialis, M. pachydermatis, M. globosa, M. obtusa, and *M. yamatoensis* (Figure 1A, 1B, and

Supplemental Figure S1), and characterize in detail the MsMV1 virus from *M. sympodialis.*

RNA-sequencing revealed the large dsRNA segment from *M. sympodialis* is of viral origin and

contains two open reading frames that encode the Rdp1 and capsid proteins, which are

translated by a -1 ribosomal frameshift, a hallmark feature of the Totiviridae virus family (Figure

2A)(34). In accord, phylogenetic analysis of the Rdp1 open reading frame groups most closely

with other mycoviruses from the totiviridae family (Figure 2B). Using the small dsRNA segment

sequence as a query, no significant matches were found in the NCBI database, suggesting the

satellite virus is unique to this fungus and could serve a specialized role. Taken together, these

data support the discovery of a novel mycovirus in the important skin fungus *M. sympodialis.*

Further investigation will be required to characterize the presumptive mycoviruses in the other

Malassezia species.

We find that exposure to high temperature (37°C) or to an antimicrobial agent (biphenyl)

cures *M. sympodialis* of MsMV1 (Figure 1C). These are two conditions frequently encountered

by fungi. Systemic human patient fungal isolates are exposed to high temperature during

infection, and isolates from both patients and the environment are often purified on media

containing antimicrobials to inhibit bacterial or filamentous fungal growth from the host or

environment. It is possible these typical microbiological isolation methods may be inducing

mycovirus curing during isolation. Taken together with the growing reports on their discovery of

novel mycoviruses, mycoviruses may be much more abundant than currently appreciated. Not

all of the *Malassezia* isolates analyzed in this study harbored a mycovirus, and this could reflect

either natural diversity or curing during isolation. It is not clear why these two conditions cause

virus curing. In the case of high temperature, this stressful condition may alter cellular

physiology rendering the cell a less favorable host for the mycovirus. Viral replication and

maintenance, while neutral at 30°C, could interfere with cellular processes required for survival

at 37°C. Moreover, high temperature is known to increase heat shock and misfolded proteins in

the cell (46), and if full Hsp90 function is required for viral replication then the virus could be lost

due to the overburdened Hsp90.

RNA-sequencing of virus-infected and virus-cured strains revealed major differences in

the transcriptional profile between the two strains. Most notably is the upregulation of a large

number of ribosomal components in the virus-infected strains. A similar result was found with

the plant fungus *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*, which harbors the SsHV2-L hypovirus, where rRNA

metabolic processes and cellular component biogenesis were the classes of the most

upregulated genes in virus-infected strains (47). Alternatively, the opposite has been observed

in *S. cerevisiae*, where virus-infection is associated with the down-regulation of ribosome

biogenesis and stress response, suggesting that in *S. cerevisiae*, virus-infected cells may be

less stressed due to host protection systems for the killer virus (48).

Genes involved in oxidation-reduction processes are another category that was

downregulated in the virus-infected strain. Denitrification, the biological process of converting

nitrate to ammonia through reduction, which is then broken down into nitrogen, nitrous oxide,

and nitric oxide (NO), is an important pathway in living organisms. NO is an important signaling

molecule in bacteria and fungi. Furthermore, NO production is positively correlated with aflatoxin

production in *A. nidulans*, where deletion of flavohemoglobin, a nitric oxide reductase, leads to

reduced sterigmatocystin production and *aflR* expression (49). Flavohemoglobin, encoded for

by the *YHB1* gene in *M. sympodialis*, does not appear to play a role in putative toxin producing

strains as it is downregulated only 0.69-fold in MsMV1-infected strains. Recent work from

Wisecaver and colleagues as well as our lab has identified that *Malassezia* acquired

flavohemoglobin via a horizontal gene transfer event from *Corynebacterium* (49)(unpublished

data). A likely explanation for the difference in the role of flavohemoglobin between *A. nidulans*

is because the gene was not endogenous to *Malassezia* and rather acquired from an

exogenous bacterial source, and therefore may not have been adapted to play a regulatory role

with the virus. The presence of the virus may be inducing the upregulation of transcriptional and

translational machinery in order to synthesize components required for viral replication,

maintenance, and persistence; how this signal is translated from the virus to the fungus is an

interesting area for future research.

RNAi is a common antiviral defense system that operates in fungi to combat viral

persistence in the cell. As expected, *C. parasitica* CHV1-infected cells exhibit an upregulation of

silencing-related genes in an effort to reduce the viral burden or clear the virus. Alternatively, a

different phenomenon occurs in *T. marneffei* TmPV1-infected cells where the virus can

subsequently dampen expression of silencing-related genes and blunt the cellular RNAi defense

mechanism (4, 50, 51). *M. sympodialis* has lost the canonical components of RNAi and

hypothesize that the loss of RNAi may be contributing to mycovirus replication and persistence.

Furthermore, we observed changes in genes related to regulating mRNA processing. One

significantly downregulated gene is involved in mRNA decay, MSYG_0220 (*CDC39*). As

described earlier, during the virus replication cycle, a ssRNA intermediate is formed prior to

virion assembly (13) and is vulnerable to fungal defense mechanisms. Suppressing the

expression of genes involved in eliminating anomalous mRNA transcripts could be a strategy for

the virus to survive in the fungal cell. Interestingly, the RNA-seq analysis identified the

downregulation of MSYG_03961 (*CPR3*) in virus-infected *M. sympodialis* cells. *CPR3* is a gene

that encodes a mitochondrial cyclophilin (52) that could be linked to pathogenesis via

established roles of mitochondria in basidiomycete pathogens (53).

Mycoviruses impact fungal virulence in different ways. Mycoviruses can be

asymptomatic, whereas others induce either a hypo- or hyper-virulent state in the host fungus.

We employed a recently developed murine model for *Malassezia* in which the fungus is applied

onto the mouse ear following mild barrier disruption to replicate hallmarks of atopic dermatitis

(41). We concluded that MsMV1 provides an enhanced virulence of *M. sympodialis* in this

model because virus-infected strains displayed a modest advantage in the ability to colonize the

skin, and in the degree of fungus-induced inflammation, assessed as ear thickness, compared

to their virus-cured counterparts (Figure 4A and 4B). Cultured macrophages also responded

differently to virus-infected and virus-cured strains in which more IFN-β was produced from

BMDMs incubated with virus-infected strains than virus-cured strains (Figure 5A). Furthermore,

other parameters such as BMDM viability and BMDM activation were measured in parallel and

no difference was detected between virus-infected and virus-cured strains (Figure S4A). Due to

the role of IFN-β in the stimulation of antiviral and antiproliferative products (54), it is possible

that the production of IFN-β may lead to enhanced clearing of virus-infected fungal cells from

macrophages. TLR3 binds dsRNA in mammalian cells and was shown to play a critical role in

disease exacerbation in leishmaniasis when the infecting *Leishmania* strain harbors a mycovirus

(43, 44). In the case of *M. sympodialis*, we did not observe a requirement of TLR3 for IFN-β

production in response to virus-infected strains (Figure 5B). Preliminary results also exclude

cytosolic dsRNA recognition via a MAVS-dependent receptor to be involved in MsMV1

recognition (data not shown). Thus, we posit that dsRNA recognition by *Malassezia* may occur

through an alternative virus recognition pathway yet to be elucidated that may recognize

mycoviral dsRNA as a fungal pathogen-associated molecular pattern (PAMP).

In conclusion, we report for the first time evidence of mycoviruses infecting the fungal

genus *Malassezia*. Although the target of the putative satellite toxin is unknown, it may induce

an immune response in macrophages. Co-incubation of the virus-infected *M. sympodialis* with

virus-cured *M. sympodialis* and bacterial species (*Escherichia coli, Corynebacterium* spp., and

Staphylococcus spp.) failed to reveal antifungal or antibacterial properties of the virus-infected

M. sympodialis strains. More research will be required to determine if this possible mycovirus

toxin plays a role in common skin disorders caused by *Malassezia* by targeting the host,

bacteria, or fungi of the skin microbiome.

Materials and methods

Strains

Malassezia sympodialis strains were stored at -80°C in 25% glycerol stocks and maintained on modified Dixon's (mDixon) medium at 30°C. mDixon media is composed of 3.6% malt extract, 1% mycological peptone, 1% desiccated ox bile, 1% Tween 60, 0.4% glycerol, and 2% agar for solid medium.

RNA extraction and dsRNA enrichment

Total RNA was extracted from *M. sympodialis* liquid cultures as follows. 5 mL liquid mDixon cultures were grown at 30°C until saturation, approximately 3-4 days. Cultures were pelleted at 3,000 rpm in a table top centrifuge for 3 minutes, washed with 5 mL dH$_2$O, and pellets were frozen at -80°C until lyophilization overnight. Following lyophilization, pellets were broken up with 3 mm glass beads and the RNA extraction was performed using TRIzol (ThermoFisher, 15596026) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was resuspended in 50 µl diethyl pyrocarbonate (DEPC) water. RNA was treated with TURBO DNase (ThermoFisher, #AM2238) according to manufacturer's instructions, and resuspended in 50 µl DEPC water. ssRNA precipitation/dsRNA enrichment was done overnight at -20°C by combining 25 µl of DNase treated RNA, with 28 µl 8 M LiCl ([final]=2.8 M) and 27 µl DEPC water for a final volume of 80 µl. The mixture was centrifuged at 4°C for 10 minutes and the supernatant was recovered and transferred to a fresh eppendorf tube (the pellet can be saved and resuspended in 25 µl DEPC water as a ssRNA control). To the supernatant, 7.5 µl 3 M NaCl ([final]=0.1 M) and 187.5ul 100% ethanol ([final]=85%) was added and placed at -20°C for at least 1 hour. dsRNA was pelleted at 4°C for 15 minutes and resuspended in 25 µl DEPC water. To visualize dsRNA and ssRNA bands, 10 µl was electrophoresed on an 0.8% agarose gel stained with 5 µg/mL of ethidium bromide.

TA cloning of dsRNA segments

Large and small dsRNA segments were purified from *M. sympodialis* strains KS012,

KS013, KS016, and KS017 as described above. Large and small dsRNA segments were

excised from the agarose gel and purified via gel extraction using the QIAquick Gel Extraction

Kit (Qiagen, 28704) 3' adapter sequences from the Illumina TruSeq Small RNA Library

Preparation Kit (Illumina, RS-200) were ligated onto the dsRNA species by mixing together 1 µl

of adapter with 1 µg dsRNA in a 6 µl reaction and heated at 70°C for 2 minutes. Following

heating, tubes were immediately placed on ice. To the adapter reaction, 2 µl of HML ligation

buffer, 1 µl RNasin, and 1 µl T4 RNA Ligase 2 (truncated) was added and mixed by pipetting.

The solution was incubated for 1 hour at 28°C.

cDNA synthesis was achieved by combining 5 µl of adapter-ligated dsRNA with 1 µl RT

primer and heated at 70°C for 2 minutes, then immediately placed on ice. Next, the adapter-

ligated/RT primer mixture was used as template with the AffinityScript cDNA Synthesis Kit

(Agilent, 600559) with the following reaction conditions: 25°C for 5 minutes, 55°C for 15

minutes, 95°C for 5 minutes. cDNA was PCR amplified using the RT primer, cloned into the

pCR-Blunt vector using the Zero Blunt PCR Cloning Kit (Invitrogen, K270020), and transformed

into *E. coli* with One Shot TOP10 Chemically Competent *E. coli* (Invitrogen, C404003). Plasmids

were extracted from purified bacterial colonies and subjected to Sanger sequencing (Genewiz)

using universal M13F and M13R primers.

RNA sequencing

5 mL liquid mDixon cultures were grown at 30°C for 3 days. Cells were pelleted at 3,000

rpm in a table top centrifuge for 3 minutes, washed with 5 mL dH$_2$O, and resuspended in 1 mL

dH$_2$O. The 1 mL cell suspension was transferred to a bead beating tube with acid washed 425-

600 µm beads. Cells were pelleted with beads in a microcentrifuge at 6,000 rpm for 2 minutes.

The supernatant was removed and the cell pellet was flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. Frozen

bead/cell pellets were stored at -80°C until RNA extraction. To prepare RNA, bead/cells pellets

were thawed on ice and 1 mL TRIzol (ThermoFisher, 15596026) was added. Cells were bead

beated 10 times in 1 minute 'on', 1 minute 'rest' cycles. Following bead beating, 200 µl of

chloroform was added and the RNA extraction continued as described in the manufacturer's

instructions. Final RNA pellets were treated with TURBO DNase (ThermoFisher, AM2238)

according to manufacturer's instructions, and RNA was resuspended in 50 µl of nuclease free

water (Promega, P119A). Illumina 150 bp PE libraries were prepared using the TruSeq

Stranded Total RNA-seq Kit in combination with the Illumina Ribozero Yeast Kit. Library

preparation and RNA sequencing was performed at the Duke University Center for Genomic

and Computation Biology.

After sequencing, Illumina raw reads were trimmed with Trimmomatic to remove Illumina

adaptors (55). For the identification of the dsRNA mycovirus genome, one sequencing replicate

of both the virus-infected and virus-cured strains was assembled into a transcriptome using

Trinity (56), which was run on Galaxy (57). The generated transcriptome was searched using

the TA-cloned sequences derived from both the large and small dsRNA segments. *In silico*

functional characterization of the mycovirus sequences was performed through blast analyses

and InterPro scan (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/interpro/search/sequence/). For RNA-seq analysis, the

most recent *M. sympodialis* strain ATCC42132 genome assembly and annotation were used as

a reference (30). Illumina reads from three independent biological replicates were trimmed with

Trimmomatic as reported above, and cleaned reads were mapped to the *M. sympodialis*

reference genome using HiSat. Generated .bam files were used to run StringTie with the *M.*

sympodialis annotation as guide, and the –e option to provide the correct output for the

statistical analysis (37). Read count information for statistical analysis were extracted using a

provided python script (prepDE.py). EdgeR was used to determine the differentially expressed

genes (DEGs) in the *M. sympodialis* virus-infected strain KS012 compared to its cured

counterpart SEC494. StringTie and EdgeR were run on Galaxy (57). DEGs were considered

those with a FDR < 0.05 and with a $\log_2$-fold change ±1. Functional annotation of the DEGs was

performed using the Blast2GO pipeline, which includes the BLASTx against the NCBI non-

redundant protein database, gene ontology (GO) annotation and InterProScan (58). Heatmap

for the DEGs was generated using the web-based server heatmapper with the average linkage

for hierarchical clustering (http://www.heatmapper.ca/expression/), and gene network interaction

were determined using STRING (https://string-db.org/cgi/input.pl) with the *S. cerevisiae* protein

set as reference.

Whole genome DNA sequencing and assembly

25 mL liquid mDixon cultures of *M. sympodialis* KS012 and SEC494 were grown at 30°C

for 3 days. Cells were pelleted at 3,000 rpm in a table top centrifuge for 3 minutes, washed with

10 mL dH_2O, and cell pellets were frozen at -80°C. Cells pellets were lyophilized overnight,

pulverized using 3 mm glass beads, and subjected to genomic DNA extraction using the CTAB

method (59). Library preparation and 50 bp PE Illumina sequencing was performed at the Duke

University Center for Genomic and Computation Biology. Illumina reads for *M. sympodialis*

KS012 and SEC494 were assembled using SPAdes with default parameters (60). The de novo

genome assembly of *M. sympodialis* KS012 was used for blast searches using both large and

small dsRNA viral sequences.

Illumina reads of the *M. sympodialis* virus-infected strain KS012 and virus-cured

SEC494 were mapped to the *M. sympodialis* reference ATCC42132 using BWA (61), and the

resulting .sam file converted to .bam with samtools (62). Bam files were converted in .tdf format

using IGV, and the read coverage for *M. sympodialis* virus-infected strain KS012 and virus-

cured SEC494 visualized in the IGV browser using the *M. sympodialis* ATCC42132 as

reference. For variant analysis, the .bam files were generated as above and the *M. sympodialis*

reference ATCC42132 genome were used to run samtools mpileup; variant analysis was carried

out using the bcftools call option; the resulting .vcf file was merged with the *M. sympodialis*

annotation using the variant effector predictor software present on the EnsemblFungi database

(https://fungi.ensembl.org/Malassezia_sympodialis_atcc_42132_gca_900149145/Info/Index).

Phylogenetic analysis

The MsMV1 Rdp1 was aligned with representative viral Rdp1 sequences found on NCBI

using the Mega7 software. Phylogenies were built using 100 bootstrap values using the

Maximum Likelihood method based on the Tamura-Nei model (63). Protein domains were

predicted using NCBI Blastp and images were created using the MyDomain Image Creator from

PROSITE on the ExPASy Bioinformatics resource portal.

Murine topical infection model

WT C57BL/6j mice were purchased by Janvier Elevage and maintained at the

Laboratory Animal Science Center of University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland. Mice were used

at 6-12 weeks in sex- and age-matched groups. Epicutaneous infection of the mouse ear skin

was performed as described (41, 64). Briefly, *Malassezia* strains were grown for 3-4 days at

30°C, 180 rpm in liquid mDixon medium. Cells were washed in PBS and suspended in native

olive oil at a density of 20 OD_{A600}/mL. 100 μl suspension (corresponding to 2 OD_{A600}) of yeast

cells was applied topically onto the dorsal ear skin that was previously disrupted by mild tape

stripping while mice were anaesthetized. Ear thickness was monitored prior and after infection

using an Oditest S0247 0-5 mm measurement device (KROEPLIN) and the increase was

calculated by subtracting the values measured prior to the experiments from those measured at

the endpoint. For determining the fungal loads in the skin, tissue was transferred in water

supplemented with 0.05% Nonidet P40 (AxonLab), homogenized and plated on modified Dixon

agar and incubated at 30°C for 3-4 days.

Macrophage infection *in vitro*

Macrophages were generated from WT C57Bl/6j, *Tlr3*^{-/-} (65) (Swiss Immunological Mouse Repository (SwImMR) hosted by the University of Zurich) bone marrow cells in the presence of 20% L929 conditioned R10* medium. After 6 days of culture, cells were detached using PBS/5% FCS/2.5 mM EDTA and seeded at a density of 10^5 cells/100 µl in 96-well tissue culture plates (for transcript analysis) and 10^6 cells/1 mL in 24-well plates (for FACS analysis). Cells were rested overnight and infected the next day with *Malassezia* at the indicated MOI for 16 hours (for FACS analysis) or for 24 hours (for transcript analysis). PolyI:C (50 µg/mL) was included as a control.

Flow cytometry

Macrophages were gently detached by using cell scrapers and stained with antibodies directed against CD11b (clone M1/70), F4/80 (clone BM8), CD86 (clone GL-1), and MHC-II (clone M5/114.15.2) in PBS supplemented with 1% FCS, 5 mM EDTA and 0.02% NaN$_3$. LIVE/DEAD Near IR stain (Life Technologies) was used for exclusion of dead cells. Cells were acquired on a FACS Cytoflex (Beckman Coulter) and the data were analyzed with FlowJo software (FlowJo LLC). The gating of the flow cytometric data was performed according to the guidelines for the use of flow cytometry and cell sorting in immunological studies (66), including pre-gating on viable and single cells for analysis.

RNA extraction and quantitative RT-PCR

Isolation of total RNA from ear skin and from BMDM cultures was carried out according to standard protocols using TRI Reagent (Sigma Aldrich). cDNA was generated by RevertAid reverse transcriptase (ThermoFisher). Quantitative PCR was performed using SYBR Green (Roche) and a QuantStudio 7 Flex (Life Technologies) instrument. The primers used for qPCR were as follows: *Il17a* forward 5'-GCTCCAGAAGGCCCTCAGA-3', reverse 5'-AGCTTTCCCTCCGCATTGA-3' (67); *Tnf* forward 5'-CATCTTCTCAAAATTCGAGTGACAA-3',

reverse 5'-TGGGAGTAGACAAGGTACAACCC-3' (68); *Ifnb* forward 5'-

AACCTCACCTACAGGGC-3', reverse 5'-CATTCTGGAGCATCTCTTGG-3' (43); *Actb* forward

5--CCCTGAAGTACCCCATTGAAC-3', reverse 5'-CTTTTCACGGTTGGCCTTAG-3'. All RT-

qPCR assays were performed in duplicate and the relative expression (rel. expr.) of each gene

was determined after normalization to *Actb* transcript levels.

Data availability

Both sequencing reads for *M. sympodialis* virus-infected strain KS012 and *M. sympodialis* virus-

cured strain SEC494 are available in the NCBI SRA database (BioProject PRJNA593722). The

mycovirus genome has been deposited in GenBank under accession number MN812428.

Acknowledgements

We thank Marco A. Coelho for performing the genomic assemblies of the virus-infected

and virus-cured *M. sympodialis* KS012 and SEC494 strains. This work was supported by

NIH/NIAID R37 award AI39115-21 and R01 award AI50113-15 awarded to JH and by SNSF

grant 310030_189255 awarded to SLL. JH is a Co-Director and Fellow of the CIFAR program

Fungal Kingdom: Threats & Opportunities. We thank Blake Billmyre and other members of the

Heitman lab, as well as Florian Sparber, Amanda McLeod, and Jessica Shannon for helpful

discussions and comments on the manuscript.

References

1. Bevan EA, Herring AJ, Mitchell DJ. 1973. Preliminary characterization of two species of dsRNA in yeast and their relationship to the "killer" character. *Nature* 245:81-86.
2. Park C-M, Banerjee N, Koltin Y, Bruenn JA. 1996. The *Ustilago maydis* virally encoded KP1 killer toxin. *Molecular Microbiology* 20:957-963.
3. Wu M, Jin F, Zhang J, Yang L, Jiang D, Li G. 2012. Characterization of a novel bipartite double-stranded RNA mycovirus conferring hypovirulence in the phytopathogenic fungus *Botrytis porri*. *Journal of Virology* 86:6605-6619.
4. Lau SKP, Lo GCS, Chow FWN, Fan RYY, Cai JJ, Yuen K-Y, Woo PCY. 2018. Novel partitivirus enhances virulence of and causes aberrant gene expression in *Talaromyces marneffei*. *mBio* 9:e00947-18.
5. Son M, Yu J, Kim K-H. 2015. Five questions about mycoviruses. *PLoS Pathogens* 11:e1005172.
6. Ghabrial SA, Castón JR, Jiang D, Nibert ML, Suzuki N. 2015. 50-plus years of fungal viruses. *Virology* 479-480:356-368.
7. King AMQ, Adams MJ, Carstens EB, Lefkowitz EJ. 2012. Part II. The Viruses, p 21-36, *Virus Taxonomy* doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-384684-6.00115-4. Elsevier, San Diego.
8. Ghabrial SA, Suzuki N. 2009. Viruses of plant pathogenic fungi. *Annual Review of Phytopathology* 47:353-384.
9. Fink GR, Styles CA. 1972. Curing of a killer factor in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *PNAS* 69:2846-49.
10. Bevan EA, Somers JM. 2009. Somatic segregation of the killer (k) and neutral (n) cytoplasmic genetic determinants in yeast. *Genetical Research* 14:71-77.
11. Herring AJ, Bevan EA. 1974. Virus-like particles associated with the double-stranded RNA species found in killer and sensitive strains of the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Journal of General Virology* 22:387-394.
12. Bostian KA, Elliott Q, Bussey H, Bum V, Smith AI, Tipper DJ. 1984. Sequence of the preprotoxin dsRNA gene of type I killer yeast: multiple processing events produce a two-component toxin. *Cell* 36:741-751.
13. Schmitt MJ, Breinig F. 2006. Yeast viral killer toxins: lethality and self-protection. *Nature Reviews Microbiology* 4:212-221.
14. Wickner RB. 1996. Double-stranded RNA viruses of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Microbiological reviews* 60:250-265.
15. Somers JM, Bevan EA. 2009. The inheritance of the killer character in yeast. *Genetical Research* 13:71-83.
16. Chen B, Nuss DL. 1999. Infectious cDNA clone of hypovirus CHV1-Euro7: a comparative virology approach to investigate virus-mediated hypovirulence of the chestnut blight fungus *Cryphonectria parasitica*. *Journal of Virology* 73:985-992.
17. Rigling D, Prospero S. 2018. *Cryphonectria parasitica*, the causal agent of chestnut blight: invasion history, population biology and disease control. *Molecular Plant Pathology* 19:7-20.
18. Hillman BI, Suzuki N. 2004. Viruses of the chestnut blight fungus, *Cryphonectria parasitica*, p 423-472, Advances in Virus Research, vol 63. Academic Press.
19. Thapa V, Turner GG, Hafenstein S, Overton BE, Vanderwolf KJ, Roossinck MJ. 2016. Using a novel partitivirus in *Pseudogymnoascus destructans* to understand the epidemiology of white-nose syndrome. *PLoS Pathogens* 12:e1006076.
20. Drinnenberg IA, Fink GR, Bartel DP. 2011. Compatibility with killer explains the rise of RNAi-deficient fungi. *Science* 333:1592-1592.

21. Segers GC, Zhang X, Deng F, Sun Q, Nuss DL. 2007. Evidence that RNA silencing
functions as an antiviral defense mechanism in fungi. *PNAS* 104:12902-12906.
22. Deleris A, Gallego-Bartolome J, Bao J, Kasschau KD, Carrington JC, Voinnet O. 2006.
Hierarchical action and inhibition of plant dicer-like proteins in antiviral defense. *Science*
313:68-71.
23. Hammond TM, Andrewski MD, Roossinck MJ, Keller NP. 2008. *Aspergillus* mycoviruses
are targets and suppressors of RNA silencing. *Eukaryotic Cell* 7:350-357.
24. Segers GC, van Wezel R, Zhang X, Hong Y, Nuss DL. 2006. Hypovirus papain-like
protease p29 suppresses RNA silencing in the natural fungal host and in a heterologous
plant system. *Eukaryotic Cell* 5:896-904.
25. Yaegashi H, Yoshikawa N, Ito T, Kanematsu S. 2013. A mycoreovirus suppresses RNA
silencing in the white root rot fungus, *Rosellinia necatrix*. *Virology* 444:409-416.
26. Gaitanis G, Magiatis P, Hantschke M, Bassukas ID, Velegraki A. 2012. The *Malassezia*
genus in skin and systemic diseases. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews* 25:106-141.
27. Limon JJ, Tang J, Li D, Wolf AJ, Michelsen KS, Funari V, Gargus M, Nguyen C, Sharma
P, Maymi VI, Iliev ID, Skalski JH, Brown J, Landers C, Borneman J, Braun J, Targan SR,
McGovern DPB, Underhill DM. 2019. *Malassezia* is associated with Crohn's disease and
exacerbates colitis in mouse models. *Cell Host & Microbe* 25:377-388.
28. Aykut B, Pushalkar S, Chen R, Li Q, Abengozar R, Kim JI, Shadaloey SA, Wu D, Preiss
P, Verma N, Guo Y, Saxena A, Vardhan M, Diskin B, Wang W, Leinwand J, Kurz E,
Kochen Rossi JA, Hundeyin M, Zambrinis C, Li X, Saxena D, Miller G. 2019. The fungal
mycobiome promotes pancreatic oncogenesis via activation of MBL. *Nature* 574:264-
267.
29. Wu G, Zhao H, Li C, Rajapakse MP, Wong WC, Xu J, Saunders CW, Reeder NL,
Reilman RA, Scheynius A, Sun S, Billmyre BR, Li W, Averette AF, Mieczkowski P,
Heitman J, Theelen B, Schröder MS, De Sessions PF, Butler G, Maurer-Stroh S,
Boekhout T, Nagarajan N, Dawson TL, Jr. 2015. Genus-wide comparative genomics of
Malassezia delineates its phylogeny, physiology, and niche adaptation on human skin.
PLoS Genetics 11:e1005614.
30. Zhu Y, Engström PG, Tellgren-Roth C, Baudo CD, Kennell JC, Sun S, Billmyre RB,
Schröder MS, Andersson A, Holm T, Sigurgeirsson B, Wu G, Sankaranarayanan SR,
Siddharthan R, Sanyal K, Lundeberg J, Nystedt B, Boekhout T, Dawson TL, Jr., Heitman
J, Scheynius A, Lehtiö J. 2017. Proteogenomics produces comprehensive and highly
accurate protein-coding gene annotation in a complete genome assembly of *Malassezia*
sympodialis. *Nucleic Acids Research* 45:2629-2643.
31. Glatz M, Bosshard PP, Hoetzenecker W, Schmid-Grendelmeier P. 2015. The role of
Malassezia spp. in atopic dermatitis. *Journal of Clinical Medicine* 4:1217-1228.
32. Fink GR, Styles CA. 1972. Curing of a killer factor in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*.
Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 69:2846.
33. Kotta-Loizou I, Coutts RHA. 2017. Mycoviruses in *Aspergilli*: a comprehensive review.
Frontiers In Microbiology 8:1699-1699.
34. Dinman JD, Icho T, Wickner RB. 1991. A -1 ribosomal frameshift in a double-stranded
RNA virus of yeast forms a gag-pol fusion protein. *PNAS* 88:174-178.
35. Taylor DJ, Ballinger MJ, Bowman SM, Bruenn JA. 2013. Virus-host co-evolution under a
modified nuclear genetic code. *PeerJ* 1:e50.
36. Käll L, Krogh A, Sonnhammer ELL. 2004. A combined transmembrane topology and
signal peptide prediction method. *Journal of Molecular Biology* 338:1027-1036.
37. Pertea M, Kim D, Pertea GM, Leek JT, Salzberg SL. 2016. Transcript-level expression
analysis of RNA-seq experiments with HISAT, StringTie, and Ballgown. *Nature Protocols*
11:1650-1667.

38. Robinson MD, McCarthy DJ, Smyth GK. 2010. edgeR: a Bioconductor package for
differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data. *Bioinformatics* 26:139-
140.
39. Allen BL, Taatjes DJ. 2015. The Mediator complex: a central integrator of transcription.
Nature Reviews 16:155-166.
40. Janz A, Oezel M, Kurzeder C, Mautner J, Pich D, Kost M, Hammerschmidt W, Delecluse
HJ. 2000. Infectious Epstein-Barr virus lacking major glycoprotein BLLF1 (gp350/220)
demonstrates the existence of additional viral ligands. *Journal of Virology* 74:10142-
10152.
41. Sparber F, De Gregorio C, Steckholzer S, Ferreira FM, Dolowschiak T, Ruchti F,
Kirchner FR, Mertens S, Prinz I, Joller N, Buch T, Glatz M, Sallusto F, LeibundGut-
Landmann S. 2019. The skin commensal yeast *Malassezia* triggers a type 17 response
that coordinates anti-fungal immunity and exacerbates skin inflammation. *Cell Host &*
Microbe 25:389-403.
42. Weischenfeldt J, Porse B. Bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMM): isolation and
applications. *Cold Spring Harbor Protocols* 2008; doi:10.1101/pdb.prot5080.
43. Ives A, Ronet C, Prevel F, Ruzzante G, Fuertes-Marraco S, Schutz F, Zangger H,
Revaz-Breton M, Lye L-F, Hickerson SM, Beverley SM, Acha-Orbea H, Launois P, Fasel
N, Masina S. 2011. *Leishmania* RNA virus controls the severity of mucocutaneous
leishmaniasis. *Science* 331:775-778.
44. de Carvalho RVH, Lima-Junior DS, da Silva MVG, Dilucca M, Rodrigues TS, Horta CV,
Silva ALN, da Silva PF, Frantz FG, Lorenzon LB, Souza MM, Almeida F, Cantanhêde
LM, Ferreira RdGM, Cruz AK, Zamboni DS. 2019. Leishmania RNA virus exacerbates
Leishmaniasis by subverting innate immunity via TLR3-mediated NLRP3 inflammasome
inhibition. *Nature Communications* 10:5273.
45. Alexopoulou L, Holt AC, Medzhitov R, Flavell RA. 2001. Recognition of double-stranded
RNA and activation of NF-κB by Toll-like receptor 3. *Nature* 413:732-738.
46. Parsell DA, Lindquist S. 1993. The function of heat-shock proteins in stress tolerance:
degradation and reactivation of damaged proteins. *Annual Review of Genetics* 27:437-
496.
47. Lee Marzano S-Y, Neupane A, Domier L. 2018. Transcriptional and small RNA
responses of the white mold fungus *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* to infection by a virulence-
attenuating hypovirus. *Viruses* 10:713.
48. Lukša J, Ravoitytė B, Konovalovas A, Aitmanaitė L, Butenko A, Yurchenko V, Serva S,
Servienė E. 2017. Different metabolic pathways are involved in response of
Saccharomyces cerevisiae to L-A and M viruses. *Toxins* 9:233.
49. Baidya S, Cary JW, Grayburn WS, Calvo AM. 2011. Role of nitric oxide and
flavohemoglobin homolog genes in *Aspergillus nidulans* sexual development and
mycotoxin production. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 77:5524-5528.
50. Zhang X, Segers GC, Sun Q, Deng F, Nuss DL. 2008. Characterization of hypovirus-
derived small RNAs generated in the chestnut blight fungus by an inducible *DCL-2*-
dependent pathway. *Journal of Virology* 82:2613-2619.
51. Sun Q, Choi GH, Nuss DL. 2009. A single Argonaute gene is required for induction of
RNA silencing antiviral defense and promotes viral RNA recombination. *PNAS*
106:17927-17932.
52. Davis ES, Becker A, Heitman J, Hall MN, Brennan MB. 1992. A yeast cyclophilin gene
essential for lactate metabolism at high temperature. *PNAS* 89:11169-11173.
53. Ma H, Hagen F, Stekel DJ, Johnston SA, Sionov E, Falk R, Polacheck I, Boekhout T,
May RC. 2009. The fatal fungal outbreak on Vancouver Island is characterized by
enhanced intracellular parasitism driven by mitochondrial regulation. *PNAS* 106:12980-
12985.

54. Bekisz J, Sato Y, Johnson C, Husain SR, Puri RK, Zoon KC. 2013. Immunomodulatory
effects of interferons in malignancies. *Journal of Interferon & Cytokine Research* 33:154-
161.
55. Bolger AM, Lohse M, Usadel B. 2014. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina
sequence data. *Bioinformatics* 30:2114-2120.
56. Haas BJ, Papanicolaou A, Yassour M, Grabherr M, Blood PD, Bowden J, Couger MB,
Eccles D, Li B, Lieber M, MacManes MD, Ott M, Orvis J, Pochet N, Strozzi F, Weeks N,
Westerman R, William T, Dewey CN, Henschel R, LeDuc RD, Friedman N, Regev A.
2013. *De novo* transcript sequence reconstruction from RNA-seq using the Trinity
platform for reference generation and analysis. *Nature Protocols* 8:1494-1512.
57. Afgan E, Baker D, Batut B, van den Beek M, Bouvier D, Cech M, Chilton J, Clements D,
Coraor N, Grüning BA, Guerler A, Hillman-Jackson J, Hiltemann S, Jalili V, Rasche H,
Soranzo N, Goecks J, Taylor J, Nekrutenko A, Blankenberg D. 2018. The Galaxy
platform for accessible, reproducible, and collaborative biomedical analyses: 2018
update. *Nucleic Acids Research* 46:W537-W544.
58. Conesa A, Götz S, García-Gómez JM, Terol J, Talón M, Robles M. 2005. Blast2GO: a
universal tool for annotation, visualization, and analysis in functional genomics research.
Bioinformatics 21:3674-3676.
59. Pitkin JW, Panaccione DG, Walton JD. 1996. A putative cyclic peptide efflux pump
encoded by the TOXA gene of the plant-pathogenic fungus *Cochliobolus carbonum*.
Microbiology 142:1557-1565.
60. Bankevich A, Nurk S, Antipov D, Gurevich AA, Dvorkin M, Kulikov AS, Lesin VM,
Nikolenko SI, Pham S, Prjibelski AD, Pyshkin AV, Sirotkin AV, Vyahhi N, Tesler G,
Alekseyev MA, Pevzner PA. 2012. SPAdes: a new genome assembly algorithm and its
applications to single-cell sequencing. *Journal of Computational Biology* 19:455-477.
61. Li H, Durbin R. 2010. Fast and accurate long-read alignment with Burrows-Wheeler
transform. *Bioinformatics* 26:589-595.
62. Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, Marth G, Abecasis G,
Durbin R, Genome Project Data Processing S. 2009. The sequence alignment/map
format and SAMtools. *Bioinformatics* 25:2078-2079.
63. Tamura K, Nei M. 1993. Estimation of the number of nucleotide substitutions in the
control region of mitochondrial DNA in humans and chimpanzees. *Molecular Biology and
Evolution* 10:512-526.
64. Sparber F, LeibundGut-Landmann S. 2019. Infecting mice with *Malassezia* spp. to study
the fungus-host interaction. *Journal of Visualized Experiments*
doi:doi:10.3791/60175:e60175.
65. Honda K, Sakaguchi S, Nakajima C, Watanabe A, Yanai H, Matsumoto M, Ohteki T,
Kaisho T, Takaoka A, Akira S, Seya T, Taniguchi T. 2003. Selective contribution of IFN-
alpha/beta signaling to the maturation of dendritic cells induced by double-stranded RNA
or viral infection. *PNAS* 100:10872-10877.
66. Cossarizza A, al e. 2019. Guidelines for the use of flow cytometry and cell sorting in
immunological studies (second edition). *European Journal of Immunology* 49:1457-1973.
67. Overbergh L, Giulietti A, Valckx D, Decallonne R, Bouillon R, Mathieu C. 2003. The use
of real-time reverse transcriptase PCR for the quantification of cytokine gene expression.
Journal of Biomolecular Techniques 14:33-43.
68. Schönherr FA, Sparber F, Kirchner FR, Guiducci E, Trautwein-Weidner K, Gladiator A,
Sertour N, Hetzel U, Le GTT, Pavelka N, d'Enfert C, Bougnoux ME, Corti CF,
LeibundGut-Landmann S. 2017. The intraspecies diversity of *C. albicans* triggers
qualitatively and temporally distinct host responses that determine the balance between
commensalism and pathogenicity. *Mucosal Immunology* 10:1335-1350.

 Figure legends

Figure 1. *Malassezia* species harbor dsRNA segments. A) dsRNA from representative *M.*

sympodialis strains. B) dsRNA from additional *Malassezia* species. Strain names can be found

in Table 1. C) dsRNA from *M. sympodialis* strains passaged at 30°C, 37°C, and on mDixon

media containing 10 µg/mL biphenyl. dsRNA (upper panel) and ssRNA (lower panel) were

visualized by electrophoresis in 0.8% agarose gels with 0.5 µg/mL ethidium bromide.

Figure 2. dsRNA segments code for viral protein products. A) Representative region of the

large dsRNA segment illustrating the two open reading frames for the capsid and Rdp1 and the

site of the -1 ribosomal frameshift. Stop codon for capsid highlighted in red. Start codon for

Rdp1 highlighted in green. Frameshift site highlighted in blue. B) Phylogenetic analysis of

mycovirus Rdp1 sequences. Scale bar represents the number of substitutions per site. Blue

boxes on protein diagrams represent the reverse transcriptase (RT) domain of the Rdp1 protein.

C) Protein sequence of the small dsRNA segment. The signal peptide is underlined and

hydrophobic residues indicated with stars. D) Pictorial representation of predicted domains of

the small dsRNA segment.

Figure 3. RNA-seq reveals transcriptional rewiring in virus-infected *M. sympodialis* strain.

A) Dot plot of $\log_2$ fold-changes in gene expression in virus-infected strain. Red and blue dots

represent upregulated and downregulated genes that pass a false discovery rate (FDR) of 5%,

respectively. Gray dots are genes that do not meet the FDR. B) Number of genes upregulated

(red) and downregulated (blue) categorized by gene ontology. C) Heat map of the three RNA-

seq technical replicates of virus-infected and virus-cured strains. Green represents upregulated

genes and red represents downregulated genes. D) Gene network map of upregulated genes in

virus-infected strain. Genes are clustered by color based on the Markov-Cluster (MCL) inflation

parameter.

Figure 4. Virus-infected strains cause enhanced inflammation in a murine ear skin infection

model. A) Ear thickening, B) fungal load, and C) cytokine expression in the skin of mice that

were epicutaneously infected with the indicated virus-infected and virus-cured strains for 4 days.

Each symbol represents one mouse. In A), each value represents the mean of the ear thickness

from both ears of each animal. The mean + SEM of each group is indicated. DL, detection limit.

Statistics were calculated using One-way ANOVA. *$p<0.05$, ****$p<0.0001$. Black bars below the

x-axis labels group virus-infected/virus-cured strain pairs. '+' indicates virus-infected, '-' indicates

virus-cured.

Figure 5. MsMV1 dsRNA virus induces interferon-β (IFN-β) expression in cultured

macrophages in a TLR3-independent manner. A) IFN-β expression in bone marrow-derived

macrophages (BMDM) after infection with the indicated virus-infected and virus-cured strains at

MOI=5 for 24 hours. Bars are the mean + SEM of four replicate samples with each being the

pool of two separate wells. Data are pooled from two independent experiments. B) IFN-β

expression by wildtype (solid bars) and *Tlr3*-/- (dashed bars) BMDM after infection with the

indicated virus-infected and virus-cured strains at MOI=5 for 24 h. Bars are a pool of two wells.

Data are representative of one out of two independent experiments. polyI:C (pI:C) was included

as a positive control; US, unstimulated. The dotted line indicates the expression levels under

unstimulated conditions. Statistics were calculated using unpaired Student's t test. *p<0.05,

**p<0.01. Black bars below the x-axis labels group virus-infected/virus-cured strain pairs. '+'

indicates virus-infected, '-' indicates virus-cured.

Supplemental Figure 1. *Malassezia* species harbor dsRNA segments. dsRNA from select *M.*

sympodialis (A) and *M. furfur* (B) strains was analyzed by electrophoresis on a 0.8% agarose

gel with 0.5 µg/mL ethidium bromide.

Supplemental Figure 2. Read coverage of the *M. sympodialis* strains KS012 and virus-cured

SEC494 compared to the haploid reference strain ATCC42132.

Supplemental Figure 3. IL-17A and IFN-β expression in the *Malassezia*-infected ear skin is not

altered by virus infection of the fungus. Cytokine transcripts were analyzed by RT-qPCR in the

skin tissue of mice that were infected with the indicated strains for 2 days (A) or 7 days (B). Data

are the mean + SEM from three mice per group. DL, detection limit. Statistics were calculated

using One-way ANOVA. ****$p<0.0001$. Black bars below the x-axis labels group virus-

infected/virus-cured strain pairs. '+' indicates virus-infected, '-' indicates virus-cured.

Supplemental Figure 4. Macrophage viability, CD86 expression, and TNF expression is not

affected by the presence of MsMV1 in *M. sympodialis* strains. A) BMDM were infected with the

indicated virus-infected and virus-cured strains at MOI=1 and analyzed for viability and CD86

surface expression by flow cytometry at 16 hours post-infection or infected at MOI=5 and

analyzed for TNF expression by RT-qPCR at 24 hours post-infection. Each bar represents the

mean + SEM of four samples, each being the pool of two separate wells. Data are pooled from

two independent experiments. The dotted line indicates the expression levels under

unstimulated conditions. B) Flow cytometry gating strategy used to assess BMDM viability (top

row) and CD86 expression (bottom row). C) BMDM viability, CD86 surface expression and TNF

expression of wild-type and *Tlr3*-/- BMDM infected with the indicated virus-infected and virus-

cured strains and analyzed as in A). Data are from one out of two representative experiment

with each value being the pool of two wells. Statistics were calculated using an unpaired

Student's t test. *$p<0.05$. '+' superscripts indicate virus-infected strains, '-' superscripts indicate

virus-cured.

Table 1. Strains used in dsRNA gel images. Strains are listed top to bottom in order of gel wells

from left to right. If known, clinical data and sample location are listed. U = unknown, H =

healthy individual, D = dandruff, TV = tinea versicolor, PV = pityriasis versicolor, SD =

seborrheic dermatitis, OE = otitis externa. '*' indicates strains sampled from an animal.

Table 2. Strains used in this study.

Table S1. Variants present only in the *M. sympodialis* virus-cured SEC494 compared to the

virus-infected KS012.

File S1. Identification of the large dsRNA segment of the *M. sympodialis* MsMV1. Note that the

designations "TRINITY_DN8321_c1_g1_i1 len=4613 path=[4591:0-4612] [-1, 4591, -2]" and

"TRINITY_DN4986_c1_g1_i1 len=4601 path=[4579:0-4600] [-1, 4579, -2]" are automatically

generated by the software Trinity. We arbitrary used the denomination DN8321 and DN4986 to

indicate the contigs that represent the *M. sympodialis* MsMV1 mycovirus genome, as identified

by blast analyses. Considering "TRINITY_DN8321_c1_g1_i1 len=4613 path=[4591:0-4612] [-1,

4591, -2]", according to the software instructions, TRINITY_DN8321_c1_g1_i1 indicates Trinity

read cluster 'TRINITY_DN8321_c1', gene 'g1', and isoform 'i1'. 'Len' indicates the length of the

cluster (contig) in bp, and path information indicates the path traversed in the Trinity compacted

de Bruijn graph to construct that transcript.

File S2. Identification of the small dsRNA segment of the *M. sympodialis* MsMV1. For the

contigs designation, see explanation in the legend of File S1.

File S3. Screenshot of the variants presents in the coding regions of the genes *KAE1* and

CRM1 in the *M. sympodialis* strains SEC494.

978   Figure 1

998   Figure 2

1016   Figure 3

1017

1018

1019

1020

1021

1022

1023

1024

1025

1026

1027

1028

1029

1030

1031   Figure 4

1032

1033

1034

1035

1036

1037

1038

1039

1040

1041

1042

1043

1044

1045

1046

1047

1048

1049

1050

1051

1052 Figure 5

1071   Figure S1

1072

1073

1074

1075

1076

1077

1078

1079

1080

1081

1082

1083

1084

1085

1086

1087

1088

1089

1090

1091

1092

1093

1094   Figure S2

1095

1096

1097

1098

1099

1100

1101

1102

1103

1104

1105

1106

1107

1108

1109

1110

1111

1112

1113

1114

1115   Figure S3

1116

1117

1118

1119

1120

1121

1122

1123

1124

1125

1126

1127

1128

1129

1130

1131

1132

1133

1134

1135   Figure S4

1136

1137

1138

1139

1140

1141

1142

1143

1144

1145

1146

1147

1148

1149

1150

1151

1152

1153

1154

1155   Table 1

Species	Strain	dsRNA	Fragment size(s)	Clinical data
M. sympodialis	ATCC44340	N	-	U
	ATCC44031	N	-	TV
	ATCC44337	N	-	U
	ATCC96806	N	-	H
	ATCC96804	N	-	TV
	CBS7222	N	-	U, ear
	KS005	Y	1500 bp, 4500 bp	H
	KS008	N	-	H
	KS009	N	-	H
	KS010	N	-	H
	KS011	N	-	H
	KS012	Y	1500 bp, 4500 bp	H
	KS013	Y	1500 bp, 4500 bp	H
	KS014	N	-	H
	KS015	N	-	H
	KS016	Y	1500 bp, 4500 bp	H
	KS017	Y	1500 bp, 4500 bp	H
	ATCC42132	N	-	TV
	ATCC44341	N	-	H
	KS004	N	-	H
	KS020	N	-	H
	KS022	N	-	H
	KS024	Y	1500 bp, 4500 bp	H
	KS025	Y	1500 bp, 4500 bp	H
	KS026	N	-	H
	KS027	N	1500 bp, 4500 bp	H
	KS028	Y	1300 bp, 4500 bp	H
	KS029small	N	-	H
	KS029big	N	-	H
	KS030	N	-	H
	KS031	N	-	H
	KS032	N	-	H
	NIH70	N	-	H
	NIH71	N	-	H
	NIH90	Y	4500 bp	H
M. furfur	CBS1878a	N	-	D, scalp
	CBS1878b	N	-	D, scalp
	CBS1878c	N	-	D, scalp
	CBS4172a	N	-	U
	CBS4172b	N	-	U
	CBS7019a	N	-	PV, torso
	CBS7019b	N	-	PV, torso
	CBS7019c	N	-	PV, torso

	CBS7710a	N	-	U
	CBS7710b	N	-	U
	CBS7982a	N	-	H, ear
	CBS7982b	N	-	H, ear
	JPLK23	N	-	U, blood
	WL_MF1	N	-	U, scalp
	CBS7866	N	-	U
M. globosa	CBS7874	Y	500 bp, 600 bp, 4500 bp	D, scalp
M. japonica	CBS9431	N	-	H
M. obtusa	CBS7876	Y	4500 bp	U
	DUMC184.03	Y	4500 bp	U*, ear
	CBS1879a	N	-	OE*, ear
M. pachydermatis	CBS1879b	N	-	OE*, ear
M. sloofiae	CBS7956	N	-	H*, ear
M. yamatoensis	CBS9725	Y	4500 bp	SD

U = unknown, H = healthy individual, D = dandruff, TV = tinea versicolor, PV = pityriasis versicolor, SD = seborrheic dermatitis, OE = otitis externa.

'*' indicates strains sampled from an animal.

1156

1157

1158

1159

1160

1161

1162

1163

1164

1165

1166

1167

1168

1169

1170

1171

1172   Table 2

Strain name	Details
KS012	*M. sympodialis*; MsMV1-infected
KS013	*M. sympodialis*; MsMV1-infected
KS016	*M. sympodialis*; MsMV1-infected
KS017	*M. sympodialis*; MsMV1-infected
SEC494	*M. sympodialis*; MsMV1 temperature-cured congenic strain of KS012
SEC495	*M. sympodialis*; MsMV1 temperature-cured congenic strain of KS013
SEC498	*M. sympodialis*; MsMV1 temperature-cured congenic strain of KS016
SEC499	*M. sympodialis*; MsMV1 temperature-cured congenic strain of KS017
SEC554	*M. sympodialis*; MsMV1 biphenyl-passaged congenic strain of KS012
SEC555	*M. sympodialis*; MsMV1 biphenyl-cured congenic strain of KS013
SEC557	*M. sympodialis*; MsMV1 biphenyl-cured congenic strain of KS016
SEC558	*M. sympodialis*; MsMV1 biphenyl-passaged congenic strain of KS017

1173

1174

1175

1176

1177

1178

1179

1180

1181

1182

1183

1184

1185

1186

1187 Table S1

cation	ele	nsequence	pact	ne	mbol	scription	cession
671822.1:1098983-1098983		ssense_variant	oderate	YG_1556	*E1*	ghly conserved ATPase of HSP70/DnaK family	O77215
671824.1:502360-502360		ssense_variant	oderate	YG_1556	*M1*	jor karyopherin	O78388

1188

1189