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Unprecedented genomic diversity of RNA viruses in arthropods reveals the ancestry of negative-sense RNA viruses

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1 **Unprecedented genomic diversity of RNA viruses in arthropods reveals the**
2 **ancestry of negative-sense RNA viruses**

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23
24 **Major subject areas:** Evolution, Microbiology

25 **Keywords:** virus, evolution, phylogeny, arthropods, segmentation, negative-sense

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27 **Abstract:** Although arthropods are important viral vectors, the biodiversity of arthropod viruses,
28 as well as the role that arthropods have played in viral origins and evolution, is unclear. Through
29 RNA sequencing of 70 arthropod species we discovered 112 novel viruses that appear to be
30 ancestral to much of the documented genetic diversity of negative-sense RNA viruses, a number
31 of which are also present as endogenous genomic copies. With this greatly enriched diversity we
32 revealed that arthropods contain viruses that fall basal to major virus groups, including the
33 vertebrate-specific arenaviruses, filoviruses, hantaviruses, influenza viruses, lyssaviruses, and
34 paramyxoviruses. We similarly documented a remarkable diversity of genome structures in
35 arthropod viruses, including a putative circular form, that sheds new light on the evolution of
36 genome organization. Hence, arthropods are a major reservoir of viral genetic diversity and have
37 likely been central to viral evolution.

38

39 **Impact statement:** We document extensive genetic diversity and novel genome structures in
40 RNA viruses from arthropods, shedding important new light on the ancestry and evolutionary
41 history of major classes of vertebrate and plant viruses.

42

43 **Introduction**

44 Negative-sense RNA viruses are important pathogens that cause a variety of diseases in humans
45 including influenza, hemorrhagic fever, encephalitis, and rabies. Taxonomically, those negative-
46 sense RNA viruses described to date comprise at least eight virus families and four unassigned
47 genera or species (King et al., 2012). Although they share (i) an homologous RNA-dependent
48 RNA polymerase (RdRp), (ii) inverted complementary genome ends, and (iii) an encapsidated
49 negative-sense RNA genome, these viruses display substantial diversity in terms of virion
50 morphology and genome organization (King et al., 2012). One key aspect of genome
51 organization is the number of distinct segments, which is also central to virus classification.
52 Among negative-sense RNA viruses, the number of segments varies from one (order
53 *Mononegavirales*; unsegmented) to two (family *Arenaviridae*), three (*Bunyaviridae*), three-to-
54 four (*Ophioviridae*), and six-to-eight (*Orthomyxoviridae*), and is further complicated by
55 differences in the number, structure, and arrangement of the encoded genes.

56 Despite their diversity and importance in infectious disease, the origins and evolutionary history
57 of the negative-sense RNA viruses is largely obscure. Arthropods harbor a diverse range of RNA
58 viruses, which are often divergent from those that infect vertebrates (Ballinger et al., 2014; Cook
59 et al., 2013; Marklewitz et al., 2011; Marklewitz et al., 2013; Qin et al., 2014; Tokarz et al.,
60 2014a; Tokarz et al., 2014b). However, those arthropod viruses sampled to date are generally
61 those that have a relationship with vertebrates or are known to be agents of disease (Junglen and
62 Drosten, 2013). To determine the extent of viral diversity harbored by arthropods, as well as their
63 evolutionary history, we performed a systematic survey of negative-sense RNA viruses using
64 RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) on a wide range of arthropods.

65

66 **Results**

67 **Discovery of highly divergent negative-sense RNA viruses.** We focused our study of virus
68 biodiversity and evolution on 70 potential host species from four arthropod classes: Insecta,
69 Arachnida, Chilopoda, and Malacostraca (Table 1 and Figure 1). From these samples, 16
70 separate cDNA libraries were constructed and sequenced, resulting in a total of 147.4 Gb of 100-
71 base pair-end reads (Table 1). Blastx comparisons against protein sequences of negative-sense
72 RNA virus revealed 108 distinct types of complete or nearly complete large (L) proteins (or
73 polymerase protein 1 (PB1) in the case of orthomyxoviruses) that encode the relatively
74 conserved RdRp (Tables 2-4). Four additional types of previously undescribed RdRp sequence
75 (>1000 amino acids) were identified from the Transcriptome Shotgun Assembly (TSA) database.
76 Together, these proteins exhibited an enormous diversity in terms of sequence variation and
77 structure. Most notably, this data set of RdRp sequences is distinct from both previously
78 described sequences and from each other, with the most divergent showing as little as 15.8%
79 amino acid sequence identity to its closest relatives (Tables 2-4). Overall, these data provide
80 evidence for at least 16 potentially new families and genera of negative-sense RNA viruses,
81 defined as whose RdRp sequences shared less than 25% amino acid identity with existing taxa.

82 Next, we measured the abundance of these sequences as the number transcripts per million
83 (TPM) within each library after the removal of rRNA reads. The abundance of viral transcripts
84 calculated in this manner exhibited substantial variation (Figure 2, Tables 2-4): while the least
85 abundant L segment (Shayang Spider Virus 3) contributed to less than 0.001% to the total non-
86 ribosomal RNA content, the most abundant (Sanxia Water Strider Virus 1) was at a frequency of

87 21.2%, and up to 43.9% if we include the matching M and S segments of the virus. The
88 remaining viral RdRp sequences fell within a range (10-1000 TPM) that matched the abundance
89 level of highly expressed host mitochondrial genes (Figure 2).

90 **Evolutionary history of negative-sense RNA viruses.** With this highly diverse set of RdRp
91 sequences in hand we re-examined the evolution of all available negative-sense RNA viruses by
92 phylogenetic analysis (Figure 3; Figure 3—figure supplement 1-3). These data greatly expand
93 the documented diversity of four viral families/orders – the *Arenaviridae*, *Bunyaviridae*,
94 *Orthomyxoviridae*, and *Mononegavirales* – as well as of three floating genera – *Tenuivirus*,
95 *Emaravirus*, and *Varicosavirus* (King et al., 2012). Most of the newly described arthropod
96 viruses fell basal to the known genetic diversity in these taxa: their diversity either engulfed that
97 of previously described viruses, as in the case of phlebovirus, nairovirus, and dimarhabovirus, or
98 appeared as novel lineages sandwiched between existing genera or families, and hence filling in
99 a number of phylogenetic ‘gaps’ (Figure 3; Figure 3—figure supplement 1-3). One important
100 example was a large monophyletic group of newly discovered viruses that fell between the major
101 groups of segmented and unsegmented viruses (Figure 4); we name this putative new virus
102 family the ‘Chuviridae’ reflecting the geographic location in China where most of this family
103 were identified (“Chu” is an historical term referring to large area of China encompassing the
104 middle and lower reaches of the Yangzi River). Also of note was that some of the previously
105 defined families no longer appear as monophyletic. For example, although classified as distinct
106 families, the family *Arenaviridae* fell within the genetic diversity of the family *Bunyaviridae* and
107 as a sister group to viruses of the genus *Nairovirus*. Furthermore, the floating genus *Tenuivirus*
108 was nested within the Phlebovirus-like clade, and another floating genus, *Emaravirus*, formed a
109 monophyletic group with the *Orthobunyavirus* and *Tospovirus* genera (Figure 3C; Figure 3—

110 figure supplement 2). Hence, there are important inconsistencies between the current virus
111 classification scheme and the underlying evolutionary history of the RdRp revealed here.

112 A key result of this study is that the much of the genetic diversity of negative-sense RNA viruses
113 in vertebrates and plants now appears to be contained within viruses that utilize arthropods as
114 hosts or vectors. Indeed, it is striking that all vertebrate-specific segmented and unsegmented
115 viruses (arenavirus, bornavirus, filovirus, hantavirus, influenza viruses, lyssavirus, and
116 paramyxovirus) fall within the genetic diversity of arthropod-associated viruses (Figures 3 and
117 5). Also nested with arthropod-associated diversity were plant viruses (emaravirus, tospovirus,
118 and tenuiviruses, nucleorhabdovirus, cytorhabdovirus, and varicosavirus) (Figures 3 and 5).
119 Surprisingly, our phylogeny similarly placed two non-arthropod invertebrate viruses, found in
120 nematodes (*Heterodera glycines*) and flatworms (*Procotyla fluviatilis*), within arthropod-
121 associated diversity (Figure 3C, Figure 3—figure supplement 2), indicating that the role of non-
122 arthropod invertebrates should be explored further. Finally, it was striking that although
123 individual arthropod species can harbor a rich diversity of RNA viruses, many viruses seemed to
124 be associated with different arthropod species that share the same ecological niche (Tables 2-4).
125 Interestingly, host species in the same niche had similar viral contents that were generally
126 incongruent with the host phylogeny (Figure 6). Such a pattern is indicative of frequent cross-
127 species and occasional cross-genus virus transmission in the context of ecological and
128 geographic proximity.

129 **Diversity and evolution of virus genome organizations.** The diversity of genome structures in
130 these virus data was also striking. This can easily be documented with respect to the evolution of
131 genome segmentation. The number of genome segments in negative-sense RNA viruses varies
132 from one to eight. Our phylogenetic analysis revealed no particular trend for this number to

133 increase or decrease through evolutionary time (Figure 4). Hence, genome segmentation (i.e.
134 genomes with >1 segment) has clearly evolved on multiple occasions within the negative-sense
135 RNA viruses (Figure 4), such that it is a relatively flexible genetic trait. Although most
136 segmented viruses were distantly related to those with a single segment (Figure 4), close
137 phylogenetic ties were seen in other cases supporting the relatively recent evolution of multiple
138 segments, with the plant-infecting varicosavirus (two segments) and orchid fleck virus (bipartite)
139 serving as informative examples.

140 In this context it is notable that the newly discovered chuviruses fell ‘between’ the phylogenetic
141 diversity of segmented and the unsegmented viruses. Although monophyletic, the chuviruses
142 display a wide variety of genome organizations including unsegmented, bi-segmented, and a
143 circular form, each of which appeared multiple times in the phylogeny (Figure 4 and 7). The
144 circular genomic form, which was confirmed by ‘around-the-genome’ RT-PCR and by the
145 mapping of sequencing reads to the genome (Figure 7C), is a unique feature of the Chuviridae,
146 and can be distinguished from a pseudo-circular structure seen in some other negative-sense
147 RNA viruses including the family *Bunyaviridae* and the family *Orthomyxoviridae*. Furthermore,
148 this circular genomic form was also present in both segments of the segmented chuviruses
149 (Figure 7B). In addition, the chuviruses displayed a diverse number and arrangement of
150 predicted open reading frames that were markedly different from the genomic arrangement seen
151 in the order *Mononegavirales* even though these viruses are relatively closely related (Figure 4
152 and 7). In particular, the chuviruses had unique and variable orders of genes: the linear chuvirus
153 genomes began with the glycoprotein (G) gene, followed by the nucleoprotein (N) gene and then
154 the polymerase (L) gene, whereas the majority of circular chuviruses were most likely arranged
155 in the order L-(G)-N (i.e. if displayed in a linear form) as the only low coverage point throughout

156 the genome lay between the 5' end of N gene and the 3' end of L gene (Figure 7B). In addition,
157 the genome organizations of the chuviruses were far more concise than those of the order
158 *Mononegavirales*, with ORFs encoding only 2-3 major (> 20kDa) proteins (Figure 7), and hence
159 showing more similarity to segmented viruses in this respect.

160 Although our phylogenetic analysis focused on the relatively conserved RdRp, in the case of
161 segmented viruses we searched for other putative viral proteins from the assembled contigs.
162 Accordingly, we were able to find the segments encoding matching structural proteins (mainly
163 glycoproteins and nucleoproteins) for many of the viral RdRp sequences (Figure 8), although
164 extensive sequence divergence prevented this in some cases. Surprisingly, M segments were
165 apparently absent in a group of tick phleboviruses whose RdRps and nucleoproteins showed
166 relatively high sequence similarity to Uukuniemi virus (genus *Phlebovirus*; Table 3 and Figure
167 8). Genomes with missing glycoprotein genes were also found in the chuviruses (Changping
168 Tick Viruses 3 and 5, Wuhan Louse Viruses 6 and 7, Figure 7) and the unsegmented
169 dimarhabdovirus (Taishun Tick Virus, Wuhan Tick Virus 1, Tacheng Tick Virus 6, Figure 9).
170 Although it is possible that the glycoprotein gene may have been replaced with a highly
171 divergent or even non-homologous sequence, we failed to find any candidate G proteins within
172 the no-Blastx-hit set of sequences under the following criteria: (i) structural resemblance to G
173 proteins, (ii) similar level of abundance to the corresponding RdRp and nucleoprotein genes, and
174 (iii) comparable phylogenies or levels of divergence (among related viruses) to those of RdRps
175 and nucleoproteins. The cause and biological significance of these seemingly “incomplete” virus
176 genomes requires further study. Finally, it was also of interest that a virus with four segments
177 was discovered in the horsefly pool. Although the predicted proteins of all four segments showed
178 sequence homology to their counterparts in Tenuivirus (Falk and Tsai, 1998), this virus lacked

179 the ambisense coding strategy of tenuiviruses (Figure 10). While the capability of this virus to
180 infect plants is unknown, it is possible that it represents a transitional form between plant-
181 infecting and arthropod-specific viruses.

182

183 **Novel Endogenous Virus Elements (EVEs).** As well as novel exogenous RNA viruses, our
184 metagenomic analysis also revealed a large number of potential EVEs (Katzourakis and Gifford,
185 2010) in more than 40 arthropod species; these resembled complete or partial genes of the major
186 proteins – the nucleoprotein, glycoprotein and RdRp – but without fully intact genomes (Table
187 5). As expected given their endogenous status, most of these sequences have disrupted reading
188 frames and many are found within transposon elements, suggesting that transposons have been
189 central to their integration. Interestingly, in some cases, such as the putative glycoprotein gene of
190 chuviruses, the homologous EVEs from within a family (Culicidae) or even an order
191 (Hymenoptera) form monophyletic groups (Figure 11). However, they are unlikely to be
192 orthologous because they do not share homologous integration sites in the host genome as
193 determined by an analysis of flanking sequences, which in turn limited the applicability of
194 molecular-clock based dating techniques. Furthermore, phylogenetic analyses of those EVEs
195 shared among different host species revealed extremely complex tree topologies which do not
196 exhibit simple matches to the host phylogeny at both the species and genera levels (Figure 11B-
197 C). In sum, these results suggest that EVEs are relative commonplace in arthropod genomes and
198 have been often generated by multiple and independent integration events.

199

200 **Discussion**

201 Our study suggests that arthropods are major reservoir hosts for many, if not all, of the negative-
202 sense RNA viruses in vertebrates and plants, and hence have likely played a major role in their
203 evolution. This is further supported by the high abundance of viral RNA in the arthropod
204 transcriptome, as well as by the high frequencies of endogenous copies of these viruses in the
205 arthropod genome, greatly expanding the known biodiversity of these genomic “fossils” (Cui and
206 Holmes, 2012; Katzourakis and Gifford, 2010). The often basal position of the arthropod viruses
207 in our phylogenetic trees is also compatible with the idea that the negative-sense RNA viruses
208 found in vertebrates and plants ultimately have their ancestry in arthropods, although this will
209 only be confirmed with a far wider sample of virus biodiversity.

210 The rich genetic and phylogenetic diversity of arthropod RNA viruses may in part reflect the
211 enormous species number and diversity of arthropods, and that they sometimes live in large and
212 very dense populations that provide abundant hosts to fuel virus transmission. Furthermore,
213 arthropods are involved in almost all ecological guilds and actively interact with other
214 eukaryotes, including animals, plants and fungi, such that it is possible that they serve as both
215 sources and sinks for viruses present in the environment. In addition, not only were diverse
216 viruses present, but they were often highly abundant. For example, in the pool containing twelve
217 individuals (representing two species) from the Gerridae (Water striders) collected at the same
218 site, we identified at least five negative-sense RNA viruses whose TPM values are well above
219 100, and where the viral RNA collectively made up more than 50% of the host total RNA (rRNA
220 excluded). Determining why arthropods are able to carry such a large viral diversity and at such
221 frequencies clearly merits further investigation.

222 The viruses discovered here also exhibited a huge variation in level of abundance. It is possible
223 that this variation is in part due to the stage or severity of infection in individual viruses, and may

224 be significantly influenced by the process of pooling, since most of our libraries contain an
225 uneven mixture of different host species or even genera. In addition, it is possible that some low
226 abundance viruses may in fact be derived from other eukaryotic organisms present in the host
227 sampled, such as undigested food or prey, gut micro flora, and parasites. Nevertheless, since the
228 majority of the low abundance viruses appear in the same groups as the highly abundant ones in
229 our phylogenetic analyses, these viruses are most likely associated with arthropods.

230 Viral infections in vertebrates and plants can be divided into two main categories: (i) arthropod-
231 dependent infections, in which there is spill-over to non-arthropods but where continued virus
232 transmission still requires arthropods, and (ii) arthropod-independent infections, in which the
233 virus has shifted its host range to circulate among vertebrates exclusively (Figure 12). The first
234 category of infections is often associated with major vector-borne diseases (Zhang et al., 2012;
235 Zhang et al., 2011). Given the biodiversity of arthropod viruses documented here, it seems likely
236 that arthropod-independent viruses were ultimately derived from arthropod-dependent infections,
237 with subsequent adaptation to vertebrate-only transmission (Figure 12).

238 One of the most notable discoveries was that of a novel family, the Chuviridae. The
239 identification of this diverse virus family provides a new perspective on the evolutionary origins
240 of segmented and unsegmented viruses. In particular, the chuviruses occupy a phylogenetic
241 position that is in some sense ‘intermediate’ between the segmented and unsegmented negative-
242 sense RNA viruses, and display genomic features of both. Indeed, our phylogenetic analysis
243 reveals that genome segmentation has evolved multiple times within the diversity of chuviruses
244 (Figure 7), such that this trait appears to be more flexible than previously anticipated. In addition,
245 the majority of the chuviruses possess circular genomes. To date, the only known circular RNA
246 virus is (hepatitis) deltavirus, although this potentially originated from the human genome

247 (Salehi-Ashtiani et al., 2006) and requires hepatitis B virus for successful replication. As such,
248 the chuviruses may represent the first report of autonomously replicating circular RNA viruses,
249 which opens up an important line of future research.

250 Our results also provide insights into the evolution of genome segmentation. Within the Bunya-
251 arena-like viruses (Figure 3C and 4), the three-segment structure is the most common, with the
252 viral polymerase, nucleoprotein, and surface glycoproteins present on different segments.
253 Notably, our phylogenetic analysis seemingly revealed independent occurrences of both
254 increasing (Tenuivirus and Emaravirus) and decreasing (Arenavirus) of segment numbers from
255 the three-segment form (Figure 4). Independent changes of genome segmentation numbers are
256 also observed in the mononegavirales-like viruses (Figure 4) and, more frequently, in the
257 chuviruses (Figure 7A). Consequently, the number of genome segments appears to be a
258 relatively flexible trait at a broad evolutionary scale, although the functional relevance of these
259 changes remains unclear. While the segmented viruses (bunya-arenaviruses, orthomyxoviruses,
260 and ophioviruses) appear to be distinct from the largely unsegmented mononegavirales-like
261 viruses in our phylogenetic analysis, this may be an artifact of under-sampling, especially given
262 that only a tiny fraction of eukaryotes have been sampled to date. With a wider sample of
263 eukaryotic viruses it will be possible to more accurately map changes in segment number onto
264 phylogenetic trees and in so doing come to a more complete understanding of the patterns and
265 determinants of the evolution of genome segmentation.

266 In sum, our results highlight the remarkably diversity of arthropods viruses. Because arthropods
267 interact with a wide range of organisms including vertebrate animal and plants, they can be seen
268 as the direct or indirect source of many clinically or economically important viruses. The viral
269 genetic and phenotypic diversity documented in arthropods here therefore provides a new

270 perspective on fundamental questions of virus origins, diversity, host range, genome evolution,
271 and disease emergence.

272

273 **Materials and Methods**

274 **Sample collection.** Between 2011 and 2013 we collected 70 species of arthropods from various
275 locations in China (Table 1). Among these, ticks were either directly picked from wild and
276 domestic animals, or captured using a tick drag-flag method; mosquitoes were trapped by light-
277 traps; common flies were captured by fly paper; horseflies were picked from infested cattle; bed
278 bugs and cockroaches were trapped indoors; louse flies were plucked from the skin of bats;
279 millipedes were picked up from the ground; spiders were collected from their webs; water
280 striders were captured using hand nets from river surfaces, and crabs and shrimps were bought
281 (alive) from local fisherman. In addition, three pools of mixed insect samples (Table 1) were
282 collected from a rural area adjacent to rice fields (Insect Mix 1), from a lakeside (Insect Mix 3),
283 and from a mountainous area near Wuhan (Insect Mix 4). After brief species identification by
284 experienced field biologists, these samples were immediately stored in liquid nitrogen and were
285 later put on dry ice for shipment to our laboratory.

286

287 **Total RNA extraction.** The specimens were first grouped into several units (Table 1).
288 Depending on the size of specimens, one unit could include from 1 to 20 individual arthropods
289 belonging to the same species and sampling location. These units were first washed with
290 phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) three times before homogenized with the Mixer mill MM400
291 (Restsch). The resultant homogenates were then subjected to RNA extraction using TRIzol LS

292 reagent (Invitrogen). After obtaining the aqueous phase containing total RNA, we performed
293 purification steps from the E.Z.N.A Total RNA Kit (OMEGA) according to the manufacturer's
294 instructions. The concentration and quality of final extractions were examined using a ND-1000
295 UV Spectrophotometer (Nanodrop). Based on host types and/or geographic locations, these
296 extractions were further merged into 16 pools for RNA-seq library construction and sequencing
297 (Table 1).

298

299 **Species identification.** To verify the field species identification, we took a proportion of the
300 homogenates from each specimen or specimen pool for genomic DNA extraction using E.Z.N.A.
301 DNA/RNA Isolation Kit (OMEGA). Two genes were used for host identification: the partial 18S
302 rRNA gene (~ 1100nt) which was amplified using primer pairs 18S#1 (5'-
303 CTGGTGCCAGCGAGCCGCGGYAA-3') and 18S#2RC (5'-TCCGTCAATTYCTTTAAGTT-
304 3'), and partial COI gene (~ 680nt) using primer pairs LCO1490 (5'-
305 GGTCAACAAATCATAAAGATATTGG-3') and HCO2198 (5'-
306 TAAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAATCA -3'). PCR reactions were performed as described
307 previously (Folmer et al., 1994; Machida and Knowlton, 2012). For taxonomic determination,
308 the resulting sequences were compared against the nt database as well as with all COI barcode
309 records on the Barcode of Life Data Systems (BOLD).

310

311 **RNA-seq sequencing and reads assembly.** Total RNA was subjected to a slightly modified
312 RNA-seq library preparation protocol to that provided by Illumina. Briefly, following DNase I
313 digestion, total RNA was subjected to an rRNA removal step using Ribo-Zero™ Magnetic Gold
314 Kit (Epidemiology). The remaining RNA was then fragmented, reverse-transcribed, ends

315 repaired, dA-tailed, adaptor ligated, purified, and quantified with Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer and
316 ABI StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System. Pair-end (90bp or 100bp) sequencing of the RNA
317 library was performed on the HiSeq 2000 platform (Illumina). All library preparation and
318 sequencing steps were performed by BGI Tech (Shenzhen, China). The resulting sequencing
319 reads were quality trimmed and assembled *de novo* using the Trinity program (Grabherr et al.,
320 2011). All sequence reads generated in this study were uploaded onto NCBI Sequence Read
321 Achieve (SRA) database under the BioProject accession SRP051790.

322

323 **Discovery of target virus sequences.** The assembled contigs were translated and compared
324 (using Blastx) to reference protein sequences of all negative-sense RNA viruses. Sequences
325 yielding e-values larger than $1E^{-5}$ were retained and compared to the entire nr database to
326 exclude non-viral sequences. The resulting viral sequences were merged by identifying
327 unassembled overlaps between neighboring contigs or within a scaffold using the SeqMan
328 program implemented in the Lasergene software package v7.1 (DNASTAR, Madison, WI). To
329 prevent missing highly divergent viruses, the newly found viral sequences were included in the
330 reference protein sequences for a second round of Blastx.

331

332 **Sequence confirmation and repairing by Sanger methods.** For each potential viral sequence,
333 we first used nested RT-PCR to examine which unit contained the target sequence, utilizing
334 primers designed based on the deep-sequencing results. In the case of segmented viruses this
335 information was also used to determine whether and which of the segments recovered from the
336 pool belonged to the same virus. We next designed overlapping primers to verify the sequence
337 obtained from the deep sequencing and assembly processes. Based on the verified sequences, we

338 determined the sequencing depth and coverage by mapping reads to target sequences using
339 bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012). All virus genome sequences generated in this study
340 have been deposited in the GenBank database under accession numbers KM817593-KM817764.

341
342 **Quantification of relative transcript abundances.** Before quantification, we first removed the
343 rRNA reads from the data sets to prevent any bias due to the unequal efficiency of rRNA
344 removal steps during library preparation. To achieve this, we blasted the Trinity assembly results
345 against the SILVER rRNA database (Quast et al., 2013), and then used the resulting rRNA
346 contigs as a template for mapping using BOWTIE2 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012). The
347 remaining reads from each library were then mapped on to the assembled transcripts and
348 analyzed with RSEM (Li et al., 2010), using the run_RSEM_align_n_estimate.pl scripts
349 implemented in the Trinity program (Grabherr et al., 2011). The relative abundance of each
350 transcript is presented as transcripts per million (TPM) which corrects for the total number of
351 reads as well as for transcript length (Li et al., 2010).

352
353 **Genome walking.** Some of the sequences obtained were substantially shorter than expected. To
354 obtain longer sequences, we used a Genome walking kit (TaKaRa). Briefly, three gene-specific
355 primers close to the end of the known sequence were designed. RNA from positive samples was
356 used as input for reverse transcription primed by random primer N6. TAIL-PCR (thermal
357 asymmetric interlaced PCR) was performed according to the manufacturer's protocol. The
358 cDNA was used as a template for PCR with specific primers and the manufacturer-supplied
359 degenerate primers. After three rounds of amplification, the products were analyzed on 1.0%
360 agarose gels, and single fragments were recovered from the gels and purified using an agarose

361 gel DNA extraction kit (TaKaRa). The purified products were then ligated into pMD19-T vector
362 (TaKaRa) which contains the gene for ampicillin resistance. The vector was transformed into
363 DH5 α cells, which were spread on agar plates and incubated overnight at 37°C. A total of 10
364 clones were randomly selected and sequenced using M13 primers on ABI 3730 genetic analyzer
365 (Applied Biosystems).

366

367 **Determination of genome/segment termini.** The extreme 5' sequences were recovered by
368 performing a 5'-Full RACE kit with TAP (TaKaRa) according to the manufacturer's protocol.
369 Briefly, two gene-specific primers close to the end of the known sequence were designed. The 5'
370 end of RNA was ligated to the 5'RACE adaptor (without 5' end dephosphorylating and
371 decapping) and then reverse-transcribed using random 9 mers. The resulting cDNA was used as
372 a template for nested PCR with 5' RACE primers provided by the kit and gene-specific reverse
373 primers. The PCR products were separated on an agarose gel, cloned into pMD19-T cloning
374 vector, and subsequently sequenced.

375 The extreme 3' sequences were recovered by performing a 3'-full RACE Core Set with
376 PrimeScript RTase (TaKaRa) according to the manufacturer's protocols. Because the RNA
377 template lacks a polyadenylated tail, a Poly(A) Tailing Kit (Applied Biosystems) was used to
378 add this to the RNAs prior to first-strand 3'-cDNA synthesis. 20 μ L of the Poly(A)-tailing
379 reaction mixture was prepared according to the manufacturer's instructions and was incubated at
380 37°C for 1 hr before reverse transcription using PrimeScript Reverse Transcriptase. The cDNA
381 was then amplified by nested PCR using the 3' RACE primers provided by the kit and gene-
382 specific reverse primers. The PCR products were separated on agarose gels, cloned into pMD19-
383 T cloning vector, and subsequently sequenced. The 5' and 3' ends of the genome fragment were

384 also determined by RNA circularization. RT-PCR amplification was performed across the ligated
385 termini and the resulting PCR products were subsequently cloned and sequenced.

386

387 **Phylogenetic analyses.** Potential viral proteins identified from this study were aligned with their
388 corresponding homologs of reference negative-sense RNA viruses using MAFFT version 7 and
389 employing the E-INS-i algorithm (Kato and Standley, 2013). The sequence alignment was
390 limited to conserved domains, with ambiguously aligned regions removed using TrimAl
391 (Capella-Gutierrez et al., 2009). The final alignment lengths were 224 amino acids (aa), 412aa,
392 727aa, and 364aa for data sets of overall, bunya-arena-like, mononega-like, and orthomyxo-like
393 data sets, respectively. Phylogenetic trees were inferred using the maximum likelihood method
394 (ML) implemented in PhyML version 3.0 (Guindon and Gascuel, 2003), with the WAG+Γ
395 amino acid substitution model and a Subtree Pruning and Regrafting (SPR) topology searching
396 algorithm. Phylogenetic trees were also inferred using a Bayesian method implemented in
397 MrBayes version 3.2.2 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003), with the same substitution model as
398 used in ML tree inference. In the MrBayes analyses, we used two simultaneous runs of Markov
399 chain Monte Carlo sampling, and the runs were terminated upon convergence (standard
400 deviation of the split frequencies <0.01). The phylogeny was subsequently summarized from
401 both runs with an initial 10% of trees discarded as burn-in.

402

403 **Prediction of protein domains and functions.** For each of the putative viral protein sequences,
404 we used TMHMM v2.0 (<http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TMHMM/>) to predict the
405 transmembrane domains, SignalP v4.0 (<http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/SignalP/>) to determine

406 signal sequences, and NetNGlyc v1.0 (<http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/NetNGlyc/>) to identify N-
407 linked glycosylation sites. For some of the highly divergent viruses belonging to the
408 Mononegavirales and the Chuviridae, a protein was regarded as a potential glycoprotein if it
409 contained (i) a N-terminal signal domain, (ii) a C-terminal transmembrane domain, and (iii)
410 glycosylation sites in cytoplasmic domains.

411

412 **Identification and characterization of endogenous viruses.** Endogenous copies of the
413 exogenous negative-sense RNA viruses newly described here were detected using the tBlastn
414 algorithm against arthropod genomes available in the Reference Genomic Sequences Database
415 (refseq_genomic) and Whole Genome Shotgun Database (WGS) in GenBank, and using viral
416 amino acid sequences as queries. The threshold for match was set to 1e-05 for the e-value and 50
417 amino acids for matched length. The query process was reversed for each potential endogenous
418 virus to determine their corresponding phylogenetic group. Orthologous insertion events were
419 determined by examining flanking gene sequences. Sequence alignment and phylogenetic
420 analyses were carried out as described above.

421

422 **Characterization of bi-segmented viruses in the Chuviridae.** Within the Chuviridae, Wuhan
423 Louse Fly Virus 6 and 7, Wenzhou Crab Virus 2, Lishi Spider Virus 1, and Wuchang Cockroach
424 Virus 3 possessed bi-segmented genomes. Both segments were discovered using Blastx against
425 pools of predicted proteins from unsegmented chuvirus or mononegavirales sequences. To
426 determine that these sequences were indeed from separate segments, we performed all
427 combinations of head-to-tail RT-PCR which allowed us to ascertain whether the sequence
428 fragments came from a single genome. Furthermore, checking sequencing depth can help

429 eliminate the possibility of separate contigs being generated due to inadequate sequencing
430 coverage. To prove that a pair of segments belonged to the same virus, we checked; (i)
431 sequencing depth for both segments, (ii) the presence of conserved regulatory sequences at non-
432 coding regions of the genome, (iii) whether there is match for PCR-positive units, and (iv) the
433 phylogenetic positions of the different viral proteins (Figure 7A).

434

435 **Characterization of a circular genome form within the Chuviridae.** The circular genome
436 organization within the Chuviridae was identified after we found that their genome sequences
437 were “over assembled” (i.e. generating contigs that contained more than one genome connected
438 head-to-tail). This circular genomic form was also observed in both segments of the segmented
439 chuviruses (Figure 7B). In addition, RT-PCR and sequencing over the entire genome did not
440 reveal any break-points. As a control, the same protocol failed to connect the genome termini
441 within the Mononegavirales, suggesting the circular genomic form is unique to the chuviruses.
442 To further validate that these genomes are circular, we mapped the high-throughput sequencing
443 reads to these assembled genomes. The coverage and depth was adequate throughout the genome
444 with the exception of one location upstream to the 3' end of the ORF encoding RdRp (Figure
445 7C). This genomic location had only 0-20 X coverage depending on the virus, although all RT-
446 PCRs were successful across this location. Interestingly, sequencing of the cloned PCR products
447 revealed extensive sequence variation (i.e. insertions and deletions) (Figure 7C), which is the
448 likely cause of the low sequence coverage in this location. Collectively, these data provide strong
449 evidence for circular genomes in the chuviruses, although this does not exclude the potential
450 presence of linear genomic forms.

451

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541

542

543 **Figure legends**

544 **Figure 1.** Host component of each pool used in the RNA-seq library construction and
545 sequencing. The taxonomic units in the tree correspond to the unit samples used in the RNA
546 extraction. Species or genus information is marked to the left of the tree.

547

548 **Figure 2.** Abundance level (transcripts per million – TPM) of the RdRp genes from the negative-
549 sense RNA viruses detected in this study. Abundance is calculated after the removal of
550 ribosomal RNA reads. As a comparison, we show the abundance of the two well characterized
551 (positive-sense) RNA viruses: Japanese encephalitis virus and Gill-associated virus found in the
552 Mosquito-Hubei and Shrimp libraries, respectively, as well as the range of abundance of host
553 mitochondrial COI genes in these same multi-host libraries.

554

555 **Figure 3.** Evolutionary history of negative-sense RNA viruses based on RdRp. This is initially
556 displayed in an unrooted maximum likelihood (ML) tree including all major groups of negative-
557 sense RNA viruses (A). Separate and more detailed ML phylogenies are then shown for the
558 Orthomyxoviridae-like (B), Bunya-Arenaviridae-like (C), and Mononegavirales-like viruses (D).
559 In all the phylogenies, the RdRp sequences described here from arthropods are either shaded
560 purple or marked with solid grey circles. The names of previously defined genera/families are
561 labeled to the right of the phylogenies. Based on their host types, the branches are shaded red
562 (vertebrate-specific), yellow (vertebrate and arthropod), green (plant and arthropod), blue (non-
563 arthropod invertebrates) or black (arthropod only). For clarity, statistical supports (i.e.
564 approximate likelihood-ratio test (aLRT) with Shimodaira-Hasegawa-like procedure / posterior
565 probabilities) are shown for key internal nodes only.

566

567 **Figure 3—figure supplement 1-1.** A fully labelled ML phylogeny for Orthomyxoviridae-like
568 viruses. The phylogeny is reconstructed using RdRp alignments. Statistical support from the
569 approximate likelihood-ratio test (aLRT) is shown on each node of the tree. The names of the
570 viruses discovered in this study are shown in red. The names of reference sequences, which
571 contain both the GenBank accession number and the virus species name, are shown in black. The
572 names of previously defined genera/families are shown to the right of the phylogenies.

573

574 **Figure 3—figure supplement 1-2.** A fully labelled ML phylogeny for Bunya-Arenaviridae-like
575 viruses. The phylogeny is reconstructed using RdRp alignments. Statistical support from the
576 aLRT is shown on each node of the tree. The names of the viruses discovered in this study are
577 shown in red. The names of reference sequences, which contain both the GenBank accession
578 number and the virus species name, are shown in black. The names of previously defined
579 genera/families are shown to the right of the phylogenies.

580

581 **Figure 3—figure supplement 1-3.** A fully labelled ML phylogeny for Mononegavirales-like
582 viruses. The phylogeny is reconstructed using RdRp alignments. Statistical support from the
583 aLRT is shown on each node of the tree. The names of the viruses discovered in this study are
584 shown in red. The names of reference sequences, which contain both the GenBank accession
585 number and the virus species name, are shown in black. The names of previously defined
586 genera/families are shown to the right of the phylogenies.

587

588 **Figure 4.** The unrooted ML phylogeny based on RdRp showing the topological position of
589 segmented viruses within the genetic diversity of negative-sense RNA viruses. The segmented
590 viruses are labeled with segment numbers and shaded red. The unsegmented viruses are shaded
591 green. The Chuviridae, which exhibit a wide variety of genome organizations, are shaded cyan.
592 Three major types of putative chuvirus genomes (circular, circular and segmented, and linear)
593 are shown in the right panel and are annotated with predicted ORFs: putative RdRp genes are
594 shaded blue, putative glycoprotein genes are shaded orange, and the remaining ORFs are shaded
595 grey.

596

597 **Figure 5.** The unrooted ML phylogeny of negative-sense RNA viruses (RdRp) with the common
598 names of the principle arthropod hosts analyzed in this study indicated. Vertebrate-specific
599 viruses are shaded red, those infecting both vertebrates and arthropods (or with unknown
600 vectors) are shaded yellow, those infecting both plants and arthropods are shaded green, those
601 infecting non-arthropod invertebrates are shaded blue, and the remainder (arthropod only) are
602 shaded black.

603

604 **Figure 6.** Phylogenetic congruence between viruses (M segments) and hosts, including (A)
605 Wuhan Horsefly Virus, (B) Wuhan Fly Virus 1, (C) Wuhan Mosquito Virus 2, and (D) Wuhan
606 Mosquito Virus 1. Different host species/genera are distinguished with different colors, which
607 are then mapped onto virus phylogeny to assess the phylogenetic congruence. ML phylogenetic
608 trees were inferred in all cases.

609

610 **Figure 7.** The differing genome organizations in the Chuviridae. (A) ML trees of three main
611 putative proteins conserved among the chuviruses. Viruses with circular genomes (Type I) are
612 shaded blue, while those with segmented genomes (Type II) are shaded red. (B) Structures of all
613 complete chuvirus genomes. Circular genomes are indicated with the arrow (blue) situated at the
614 3' end, and the genome is drawn in a linear form for ease of comparison only, being broken at
615 the region of variable sequence (refer to the materials and methods). (C) An example showing
616 mapping of sequencing reads to the circular chuvirus genome. The template for mapping
617 contains two genomes connected head-to-tail. The two boxes magnify the genomic region
618 containing abundant sequence variation.

619

620 **Figure 8.** Genome structures of segmented negative-sense RNA viruses. Predicted viral proteins
621 homologous to known viral proteins are shown and colored according to their putative functions.
622 The numbers below each ORF box give the predicted molecular mass.

623

624 **Figure 9.** Genome structures of unsegmented negative-sense RNA viruses. Predicted ORFs
625 encoding viral proteins with > 10kDa molecular mass are shown and colored according to their
626 putative functions. The numbers below each ORF box give the predicted molecular mass.

627

628 **Figure 10.** Comparison of the genome structure of a potential tenui-like virus from horsefly with
629 a prototype tenuivirus (Rice grassy stunt virus) genome.

630

631 **Figure 11.** ML phylogeny of EVEs based on the glycoprotein of chuviruses in the context of
632 exogenous members of this family (A), with subtrees magnified for (B) the Culicidae clade and

633 (C) the Hymenoptera clade. The EVEs used in the phylogeny covered the complete or near
634 complete length of the glycoprotein gene, and are shown in red and labeled according to host
635 taxonomy in the overall tree. For clarity, monophyletic groups are collapsed based on the host
636 taxonomy. Only bootstrap values >70% are shown.

637

638 **Figure 12.** Transmission of negative-sense RNA viruses in arthropods and non-arthropods.

639 Three types of transmission cycle are shown: (i) those between arthropods and plants are shaded
640 green; (ii) those between arthropods and vertebrates are shaded yellow; and (iii) those that are
641 vertebrate-only are shaded red. Viruses associated with each transmission type are also indicated.

642

644 **Table 1.** Host and geographic information and data output for each pool of arthropod samples
645

Pool	No of unit	Order	Species	Locations	Data generated (bases)
Mosquitos - Hubei	24	Diptera	<i>Aedes sp, Armigeres subalbatus, Anopheles sinensis, Culex quinquefasciatus, Culex tritaeniorhynchus</i>	Hubei	26,606,799,000
Mosquitos - Zhejiang	26	Diptera	<i>Aedes albopictus, Armigeres subalbatus, Anopheles paraliae, Anopheles sinensis, Culex pipiens, Culex sp, Culex tritaeniorhynchus, Atherigona orientalis, Chrysomya megacephala,</i>	Zhejiang	7,233,954,480
True flies	24	Diptera	<i>Lucilia sericata, Musca domestica, Sarcophaga dux, S. peregrina, S. sp</i>	Hubei	6,574,954,320
Horseflies	24	Diptera	unidentified <i>Tabanidae</i> (5 species)	Hubei	8,721,642,060
Cockroaches	24	Blattodea	<i>Blattella germanica</i>	Hubei	6,182,028,000
Water striders	12	Hemiptera	unidentified <i>Gerridae</i> (2 species)	Hubei	3,154,714,200
Insects mix 1	6	Diptera, Coleoptera, Lepidoptera, Neuroptera	<i>Abraxas tenuisuffusa, Hermetia illucens, unidentified Chrysopidae, unidentified Coleoptera, Psychoda alternata, unidentified Diptera, unidentified Stratiomyidae</i>	Zhejiang	7,745,172,660
Insects mix 2	4	Diptera, Hemiptera	unidentified <i>Hippoboscidae</i> (2 species), <i>Cimex hemipterus</i>	Hubei	5,916,431,520
Insects mix 3 (insect near water)	10	Odonata, Hemiptera, Hymenoptera, Isopoda	<i>Pseudothemis zonata, unidentified Nepidae</i> (2 species), <i>Camponotus japonicus, Diplonychus sp, Asellus sp</i>	Hubei	11,973,368,200
Insects mix 4 (insect in the mountain)	12	Diptera, Orthoptera, Odonata, Hymenoptera, Hemiptera	<i>Psychoda alternata, Velarifictorus micado, Crocothemis servilia, unidentified Phoridae, unidentified Lampyridae, Aphelinus sp, Hyalopterus pruni, Aulacorthum magnolia,</i>	Hubei	6,882,491,800
Ticks	16	Ixodida	<i>Dermacentor marginatus, Dermacentor sp, Haemaphysalis doenitzi, H. longicornis, H. sp, H. formosensis, Hyalomma asiaticum, Rhipicephalus microplus, Argas miniatus</i>	Hubei, Zhejiang, Beijing, Xinjiang	24,708,479,580
Ticks Hyalomma asiaticum	1	Ixodida	<i>Hyalomma asiaticum</i>	Xinjiang	2,006,000,100
Spiders	32	Araneae	<i>Neoscona nautica, Parasteatoda tepidariorum, Plexippus setipes, Pirata sp, unidentified Araneae</i>	Hubei	11,361,912,300
Shrimps	48	Decapoda	<i>Exopalaemon carinicauda, Metapenaeus sp, Solenocera crassicornis, Penaeus monodon, Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	Zhejiang	5,365,359,900
Crabs and barnacles	35	Decapoda, Scalpelliformes	<i>Capitulum mitella, Charybdis hellerii, C. japonica, Uca arcuata</i>	Zhejiang	5,833,269,360
Millipedes	12	Polydesmida	unidentified <i>Polydesmidae</i> (2 species)	Hubei, Beijing	7,176,702,400

647 **Table 2.** Mononegavirales-related RdRp sequences discovered in this study

Virus name	Length of RdRp	Classification	Pool	Abundance	Putative arthropod host	Closest relative (aa identity)
Bole Tick Virus 3	2155	chuvirus	ticks	202.35	<i>Hyalomma asiaticum</i>	Midway virus (17.1%)
Changping Tick Virus 2	2156	chuvirus	ticks	185.73	<i>Dermacentor sp</i>	Midway virus (17.6%)
Changping Tick Virus 3	2209	chuvirus	ticks	41.80	<i>Dermacentor sp</i>	Midway virus (16.5%)
Lishi Spider Virus 1	2180	chuvirus	spiders	5.82	<i>Parasteatoda tepidariorum</i>	Maize mosaic virus (16.9%)
Shayang Fly Virus 1	2459	chuvirus	true flies	8.99	<i>Atherigona orientalis</i>	Maize mosaic virus (16.8%)
Shuangao Fly Virus 1	2097	chuvirus	insect mix 1	23.63	unidentified <i>Diptera</i>	Lettuce big-vein associated virus (16.3%)
Shuangao Insect Virus 5	2291	chuvirus	insect mix 1	209.31	unidentified <i>Diptera</i> , <i>Abraxas tenuisuffusa</i> , unidentified <i>Chrysopidae</i>	Potato yellow dwarf virus (16.3%)
Shuangao Lacewing Virus	2145	chuvirus	insect mix 1	44.48	unidentified <i>Chrysopidae</i>	Potato yellow dwarf virus (16.8%)
Tacheng Tick Virus 4	2101	chuvirus	ticks	137.22	<i>Argas miniatus</i>	Midway virus (17.5%)
Tacheng Tick Virus 5	2201	chuvirus	ticks	276.32	<i>Dermacentor marginatus</i>	Midway virus (16.8%)
Wenzhou Crab Virus 2	2208	chuvirus	crabs and barnacles	4054.25	<i>Charybdis japonica</i> , <i>Charybdis lucifera</i> , <i>Charybdis hellerii</i>	Midway virus (15.8%)
Wenzhou Crab Virus 3	2077	chuvirus	crabs and barnacles	169.21	<i>Charybdis japonica</i>	Midway virus (16.3%)
Wuchang Cockroach Virus 3	2203	chuvirus	cockroaches	440.14	<i>Blattella germanica</i>	Midway virus (16.3%)
Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 6	2182	chuvirus	insect mix 2	4.12	unidentified <i>Hippoboscidae</i>	Midway virus (16.4%)
Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 7	2174	chuvirus	insect mix 2	99.83	unidentified <i>Hippoboscidae</i>	Midway virus (17.2%)
Wuhan Mosquito Virus 8	2159	chuvirus	mosquito hubei	300.33	<i>Culex tritaeniorhynchus</i> , <i>C. quinquefasciatus</i> , <i>Anopheles sinensis</i> , <i>Armigeres subalbatus</i>	Midway virus (16.7%)
Wuhan Tick Virus 2	2189	chuvirus	ticks	154.46	<i>Rhipicephalus microplus</i>	Midway virus (16.7%)
Culex tritaeniorhynchus rhabdovirus	2142	<i>Culex tritaeniorhynchus</i> rhabdovirus	mosquito hubei	3517.32	<i>Culex tritaeniorhynchus</i> , <i>C. quinquefasciatus</i> , <i>Anopheles sinensis</i> , <i>Armigeres subalbatus</i> , <i>Aedes sp</i>	Isfahan virus (38.5%)
Wuhan Insect virus 4	2105	cytorhabdovirus	insect mix 4	94.92	<i>Hyalopterus pruni</i> OR <i>Aphelinus sp</i>	Lettuce necrotic yellows virus (40.6%)
Wuhan Insect virus 5	2098	cytorhabdovirus	insect mix 4	622.97	<i>Hyalopterus pruni</i> OR <i>Aphelinus sp</i>	Persimmon virus A (47.9%)
Wuhan Insect virus 6	2079	cytorhabdovirus	insect mix 4	991.99	<i>Hyalopterus pruni</i> OR <i>Aphelinus sp</i>	Persimmon virus A (45.2)
Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 5	2123	Kolente virus like	insect mix 2	98.92	unidentified <i>Hippoboscidae</i>	Kolente virus (54.5%)
Yongjia Tick Virus 2	2113	Nishimuro virus like	ticks	13.14	<i>Haemaphysalis hystricis</i>	Nishimuro virus (54.2%)
Shayang Fly Virus 2	2170	sigmavirus like	true flies	36.83	<i>Musca domestica</i> , <i>Chrysomya megacephala</i>	Isfahan virus (44.1%)
Wuhan Fly Virus 2	2134	sigmavirus like	true flies	18.37	<i>Musca domestica</i> , <i>Sarcophaga sp</i>	Vesicular stomatitis Indiana virus (43.4%)
Wuhan House Fly Virus 1	2098	sigmavirus like	true flies	31.04	<i>Musca domestica</i>	Isfahan virus (42.8%)
Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 10	2146	sigmavirus like	insect mix 2	235.94	unidentified <i>Hippoboscidae</i>	Drosophila melanogaster sigmavirus (51.2%)
Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 8	2145	sigmavirus like	insect mix 2	292.11	unidentified <i>Hippoboscidae</i>	Drosophila melanogaster sigmavirus (50.6%)
Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 9	2145	sigmavirus like	insect mix 2	69.37	unidentified <i>Hippoboscidae</i>	Drosophila melanogaster sigmavirus (51.4%)
Bole Tick Virus 2	2171	unclassified dimarhabdovirus 1	ticks	38.19	<i>Hyalomma asiaticum</i>	Isfahan virus (38.1%)
Huangpi Tick Virus 3	2193	unclassified dimarhabdovirus 1	ticks	15.81	<i>Haemaphysalis doenitzi</i>	Eel virus European X (40%)
Tacheng Tick Virus 3	2182	unclassified dimarhabdovirus 1	ticks	96.30	<i>Dermacentor marginatus</i>	Eel virus European X (39.8%)
Taishun Tick Virus	2226	unclassified dimarhabdovirus 1	ticks	24.56	<i>Haemaphysalis hystricis</i>	Vesicular stomatitis Indiana virus (36.6%)
Wuhan Tick Virus 1	2191	unclassified dimarhabdovirus 1	ticks	119.92	<i>Rhipicephalus microplus</i>	Eel virus European X (38.3%)
Wuhan Insect virus 7	2120	unclassified dimarhabdovirus 2	insect mix 4	241.7	<i>Hyalopterus pruni</i> OR <i>Aphelinus sp</i>	Isfahan virus (42.6%)
Lishi Spider Virus 2	2201	unclassified mononegavirus 1	spiders	5.57	unidentified <i>Araneae</i>	Maize fine streak virus (19.6%)
Sanxia Water Strider Virus 4	2108	unclassified mononegavirus 1	water striders	4767.82	unidentified <i>Gerridae</i>	Orchid fleck virus (20.5%)
Tacheng Tick Virus 6	2068	unclassified mononegavirus 1	ticks	17.92	<i>Argas miniatus</i>	Maize mosaic virus (20.6%)
Shuangao Fly Virus 2	1966	unclassified mononegavirus 2	insect mix 1	25.94	<i>Psychoda alternata</i>	Midway virus (21.3%)
Xincheng Mosquito Virus	2026	unclassified mononegavirus 2	mosquito hubei	400.12	<i>Anopheles sinensis</i>	Midway virus (19.2%)
Wenzhou Crab Virus 1	1807	unclassified mononegavirus 3	crabs and barnacles	382.29	<i>Capitulum mitella</i> , <i>Charybdis japonica</i> , <i>Charybdis lucifera</i>	Midway virus (22.2%)
Tacheng Tick Virus 7	2215	unclassified rhabdovirus 1	ticks	35.86	<i>Argas miniatus</i>	Orchid fleck virus (24.5%)
Jingshan Fly Virus 2	1970	unclassified rhabdovirus 2	true flies	4.43	<i>Sarcophaga sp</i>	Maize fine streak virus (23.4%)
Sanxia Water Strider Virus 5	2264	unclassified rhabdovirus 2	water striders	4373.68	unidentified <i>Gerridae</i>	Northern cereal mosaic virus (22.6%)
Shayang Fly Virus 3	2231	unclassified rhabdovirus 2	true flies	27.73	<i>Chrysomya megacephala</i> , <i>Atherigona orientalis</i>	Maize fine streak virus (22.6%)
Shuangao Bedbug Virus 2	2207	unclassified rhabdovirus 2	insect mix 2	16.29	<i>Cimex hemipterus</i>	Maize fine streak virus (22.5%)
Shuangao Insect Virus 6	2088	unclassified rhabdovirus 2	insect mix 1	14.37	unidentified <i>Diptera</i> , <i>Abraxas tenuisuffusa</i>	Potato yellow dwarf virus (21.2%)
Wuhan Ant Virus	2118	unclassified rhabdovirus 2	insect mix 3	169.79	<i>Camponotus japonicus</i>	Lettuce necrotic yellows virus (21.4%)
Wuhan Fly Virus 3	2230	unclassified rhabdovirus 2	true flies	6.00	<i>Musca domestica</i> , <i>Sarcophaga sp</i>	Maize fine streak virus (21.9%)
Wuhan House Fly Virus 2	2233	unclassified rhabdovirus 2	true flies	221.04	<i>Musca domestica</i>	Northern cereal mosaic virus (23.4%)
Wuhan Mosquito Virus 9	2260	unclassified rhabdovirus 2	mosquito hubei	56.19	<i>Culex tritaeniorhynchus</i> , <i>C. quinquefasciatus</i> , <i>Aedes sp</i>	Persimmon virus A (23.2%)
Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 11	2110	Vesiculovirus like	insect mix 2	6.11	unidentified <i>Hippoboscidae</i>	Vesicular stomatitis Indiana virus (52.9%)

Table 3. Bunya-arenaviridae-related RdRp sequences discovered in this study

Virus Name	Length of RdRp	Classification	Pool	Abundance	Putative arthropod host	Closest relative (aa identity)
Huangpi Tick Virus 1	3914	Nairovirus like	ticks	11.32	<i>Haemaphysalis doenitzi</i>	Hazara virus (39.5%)
Tacheng Tick Virus 1	3962	Nairovirus like	ticks	88.91	<i>Dermacentor marginatus</i>	Hazara virus (39.6%)
Wenzhou Tick Virus	3967	Nairovirus like	ticks	44.30	<i>Haemaphysalis hystricis</i>	Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus (39.1%)
Shayang Spider Virus 1	4403	Nairovirus like	spiders	90.95	<i>Neoscona nautica</i> , <i>Parasteatoda tepidariorum</i> , <i>Plexippus setipes</i>	Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus (26.2%)
Xinzhou Spider Virus	4037	Nairovirus like	spiders	3.79	<i>Neoscona nautica</i> , <i>Parasteatoda tepidariorum</i>	Erve virus (22.9%)
Sanxia Water Strider Virus 1	3936	Nairovirus like	water striders	26483.38	unidentified <i>Gerridae</i>	Hazara virus (23.4%)
Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 1	2250	Orthobunyavirus	insect mix 2	67.06	unidentified <i>Hippoboscoidea</i>	La Crosse virus (57.8%)
Shuangao Insect Virus 1	2335	Orthobunyavirus like	insect mix 1	7.97	unidentified <i>Chrysopidae</i> , <i>Psychoda alternata</i>	Khurdun virus (29.1%)
Wuchang Cockroach Virus 1	2125	phasmavirus like	cockroaches	11283.22	<i>Blattella germanica</i>	Kigluaik phantom virus (35.9%)
GAQJ01007189	1554	phasmavirus like	database	N/A	<i>Ostrinia furnacalis</i>	Kigluaik phantom virus (35.9%)
Shuangao Insect Virus 2	1765	phasmavirus like	insect mix 1	36.32	<i>Abraxas tenuisuffusa</i> , unidentified diptera	Kigluaik phantom virus (31.9%)
Wuhan Mosquito Virus 1	2095	phasmavirus like	mosquito Hubei, mosquito Zhejiang	3523.08	<i>Culex tritaeniorhynchus</i> , <i>Anopheles sinensis</i> , <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i>	Kigluaik phantom virus (39.5%)
Wuhan Mosquito Virus 2	2111	phasmavirus like	mosquito Hubei, mosquito Zhejiang	39.66	<i>Culex tritaeniorhynchus</i> , <i>Anopheles sinensis</i> , <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i> , <i>Aedes sp</i>	Kigluaik phantom virus (39.6%)
Huangpi Tick Virus 2	2121	Phlebovirus	N/A	N/A	<i>Haemaphysalis sp</i>	Uukuniemi virus (49.3%)
Bole Tick Virus 1	2148	Phlebovirus	ticks	67.86	<i>Hyalomma asiaticum</i>	Uukuniemi virus (37.9%)
Changping Tick Virus 1	2194	Phlebovirus	ticks	335.25	<i>Dermacentor sp</i>	Uukuniemi virus (39.7%)
Dabieshan Tick Virus	2148	Phlebovirus	ticks	250.62	<i>Haemaphysalis longicornis</i>	Uukuniemi virus (39.2%)
Lihan Tick Virus	2151	Phlebovirus	ticks	60.40	<i>Rhipicephalus microplus</i>	Uukuniemi virus (38.6%)
Tacheng Tick Virus 2	2189	Phlebovirus	ticks	132.59	<i>Dermacentor marginatus</i>	Uukuniemi virus (39.0%)
Yongjia Tick Virus 1	2138	Phlebovirus	ticks	119.49	<i>Haemaphysalis hystricis</i>	Uukuniemi virus (40.5%)
GAIX01000059	2151	Phlebovirus like	database	N/A	<i>Pararge aegeria</i>	Cumuto virus (24.1%)
GAKZ01048260	1583	Phlebovirus like	database	N/A	<i>Procotyla fluviatilis</i>	Cumuto virus (22.8%)
GAQJ01008681	2261	Phlebovirus like	database	N/A	<i>Ostrinia furnacalis</i>	Gouleako virus (22.0%)
Shuangao Insect Virus 3	2050	Phlebovirus like	insect mix 1	339.41	unidentified <i>Chrysopidae</i> , unidentified Diptera	Cumuto virus (23.7%)
Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 2	2327	Phlebovirus like	insect mix 2	3.57	unidentified <i>Hippoboscoidea</i>	Uukuniemi virus (25.2%)
Wuhan Insect virus 1	2099	Phlebovirus like	insect mix 3	178.53	<i>Asellus sp</i> , unidentified <i>Nepidae</i> , <i>Camponotus japonicus</i>	Cumuto virus (24.8%)
Huangshi Humpbacked Fly Virus	2009	Phlebovirus like	insect mix 4	13.13	unidentified <i>Phoridae</i>	Cumuto virus (18.1%)
Yichang Insect virus	2100	Phlebovirus like	insect mix 4	71.50	<i>Aulacorthum magnoliae</i>	Gouleako virus (45.3%)
Wuhan Millipede Virus 1	1854	Phlebovirus like	millipedes and insect mix 3	825.66	unidentified <i>Polydesmidae</i>	Cumuto virus (25.3%)
Qingnian Mosquito Virus	2243	Phlebovirus like	mosquito Hubei	17.09	<i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i>	Razdan virus (21.0%)
Wutai Mosquito Virus	2185	Phlebovirus like	mosquito Hubei	70.72	<i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i>	Rice stripe virus (26.4%)
Xinzhou Mosquito Virus	2022	Phlebovirus like	mosquito Hubei	98.95	<i>Anopheles sinensis</i>	Cumuto virus (24.7%)
Zhee Mosquito Virus	2443	Phlebovirus like	mosquito Hubei, mosquito Zhejiang	308.98	<i>Anopheles sinensis</i> , <i>Armigeres subalbatus</i>	Cumuto virus (22.6%)
Whenzhou Shrimp Virus 1	2051	Phlebovirus like	shrimps	5859.37	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	Uukuniemi virus (32.2%)
Wuhan Spider Virus	2251	Phlebovirus like	spiders	17.71	<i>Neoscona nautica</i> , <i>Parasteatoda tepidariorum</i> , <i>Plexippus setipes</i>	Uukuniemi virus (21.7%)
Wuhan Fly Virus 1	2192	Phlebovirus like	true flies	68.58	<i>Atherigona orientalis</i> , <i>Chrysomya megarcephala</i> , <i>Sarcophaga sp</i> , <i>Musca domestica</i>	Grand Arbaud virus (27.8%)
Wuhan horsefly Virus	3117	Tenuivirus like	horseflies	13.50	unidentified <i>Tabanidae</i>	Uukuniemi virus (28.2%)
Jiangxia Mosquito Virus 1	1889	Unclassified segmented virus 1	mosquito Hubei	11.55	<i>Culex tritaeniorhynchus</i>	Gouleako virus (16.7%)
Shuangao Bedbug Virus 1	2015	Unclassified segmented virus 2	insect mix 2	12.71	<i>Cimex hemipterus</i>	Murrumbidgee virus (16.3%)
Jiangxia Mosquito Virus 2	1860	Unclassified segmented virus 2	mosquito Hubei	2.81	<i>Culex tritaeniorhynchus</i>	Hantavirus (18.9%)
Shuangao Mosquito Virus	1996	Unclassified segmented virus 2	mosquito Zhejiang	11.67	<i>Armigeres subalbatus</i>	Hantavirus (18.7%)
Whenzhou Shrimp Virus 2	2241	Unclassified segmented virus 3	shrimps	3824.55	<i>Penaeus monodon</i> , <i>Exopalaemon carinicauda</i>	La Crosse virus (19.0%)
Shayang Spider Virus 2	2165	Unclassified segmented virus 4	spiders	12.75	<i>Neoscona nautica</i> , <i>Pirata sp</i> , <i>Parasteatoda tepidariorum</i> , unidentified <i>Araneae</i>	Akabane virus (16.6%)
Wuhan Insect virus 2	2377	Unclassified segmented virus 5	insect mix 4	223.06	<i>Hyalopterus pruni</i> OR <i>Aphelinus sp</i>	Kigluaik phantom virus (19.2%)
Sanxia Water Strider Virus 2	2349	Unclassified segmented virus 5	water striders	707.09	unidentified <i>Gerridae</i>	Kigluaik phantom virus (19.8%)
Wuhan Millipede Virus 2	3709	Unclassified segmented virus 6	millipedes	1513.41	unidentified <i>Polydesmidae</i>	Dugbe virus (17.2%)
Wuhan Insect virus 3	2231	Unclassified segmented virus 7	insect mix 3	3.50	<i>Asellus sp</i>	Herbert virus (17.2%)

649 **Table 4.** Orthomyxoviridae-related RdRp sequences discovered in this study

Virus Name	Length of RdRp	Classification	Pool	Abundance	Putative arthropod host	Closest relative (aa identity)
Jingshan Fly Virus 1	795	Quarantavirus	true flies	21.93	<i>Atherigona orientalis</i> , <i>Chrysomya megacephala</i> , <i>Sarcophaga sp.</i> , <i>Musca domestica</i>	Johnston Atoll virus (36.9%)
Jiujiu Fly Virus	653	Quarantavirus	horseflies	10.30	unidentified <i>Tabanidae</i>	Johnston Atoll virus (39.7%)
Sanxia Water Strider Virus 3	789	Quarantavirus	water striders	1101.03	unidentified <i>Gerridae</i>	Johnston Atoll virus (36.7%)
Shayang Spider Virus 3	768	Quarantavirus	spiders	1.95	<i>Neoscona nautica</i>	Johnston Atoll virus (38.5%)
Shuangao Insect Virus 4	793	Quarantavirus	insect mix1	59.90	unidentified <i>Diptera</i> , unidentified <i>Stratiomyidae</i>	Johnston Atoll virus (36.9%)
Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 3	784	Quarantavirus	insect mix2	500.77	unidentified <i>Hippoboscoidea</i>	Johnston Atoll virus (37.7%)
Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 4	783	Quarantavirus	insect mix2	96.80	unidentified <i>Hippoboscoidea</i>	Johnston Atoll virus (38.2%)
Wuhan Mosquito Virus 3	801	Quarantavirus	mosquito Hubei	40.07	<i>Culex tritaeniorhynchus</i> , <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i> , <i>Armigeres subalbatus</i>	Johnston Atoll virus (35.6%)
Wuhan Mosquito Virus 4	792	Quarantavirus	mosquito Hubei	86.21	<i>Culex tritaeniorhynchus</i> , <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i> , <i>Armigeres subalbatus</i>	Johnston Atoll virus (34.8%)
Wuhan Mosquito Virus 5	806	Quarantavirus	mosquito Hubei	75.05	<i>Culex tritaeniorhynchus</i> , <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i> , <i>Armigeres subalbatus</i>	Johnston Atoll virus (35.5%)
Wuhan Mosquito Virus 6	800	Quarantavirus	mosquito Hubei	56.30	<i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i>	Johnston Atoll virus (34.2%)
Wuhan Mosquito Virus 7	779	Quarantavirus	mosquito Hubei	20.74	<i>Anopheles sinensis</i> , <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i>	Johnston Atoll virus (34.1%)
Wuhan Mothfly Virus	710	Quarantavirus	insect mix4	14.47	<i>Psychoda alternata</i>	Johnston Atoll virus (39.7%)
Wuchang Cockroach Virus 2	671	Unclassified orthomyxovirus 1	cockroaches	4.01	<i>Blattella germanica</i>	Influenza C virus (27.0%)

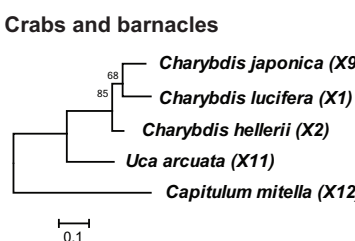
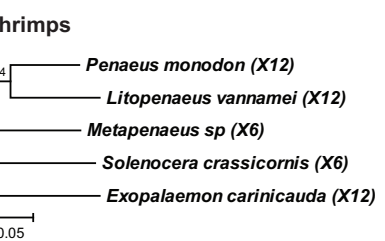
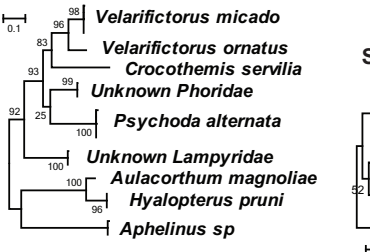
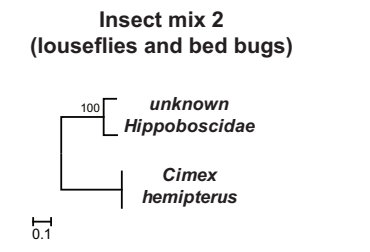
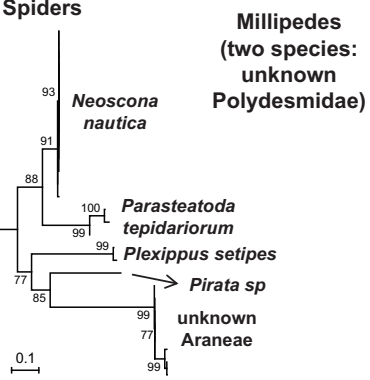
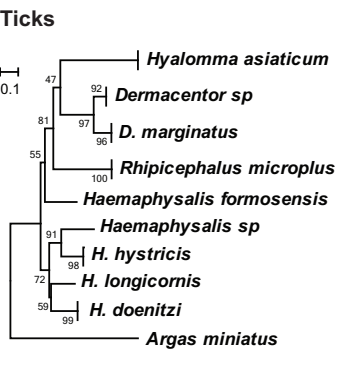
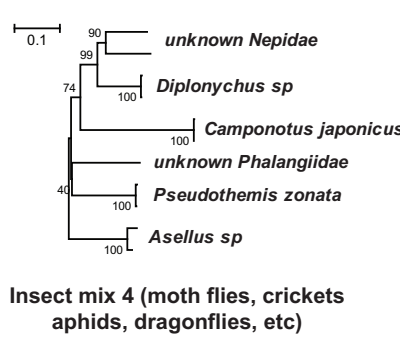
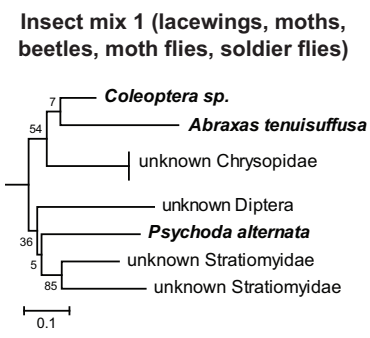
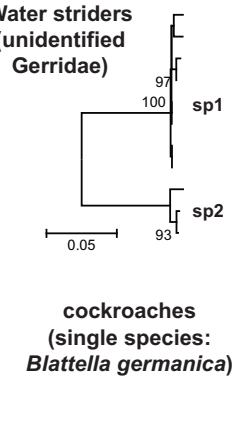
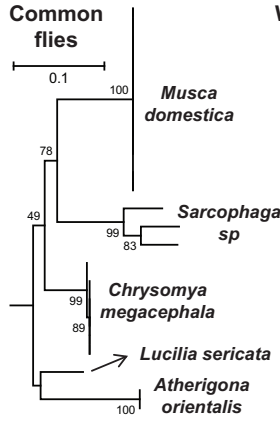
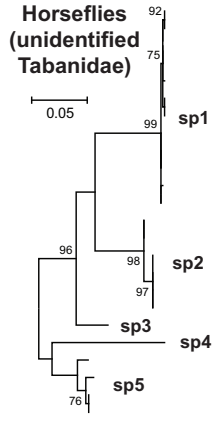
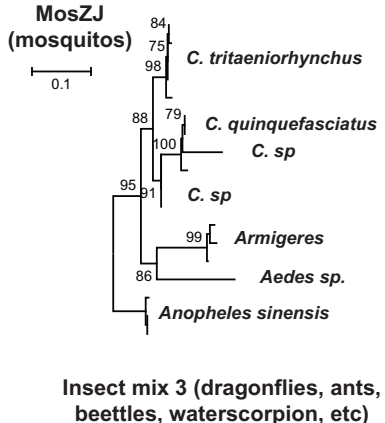
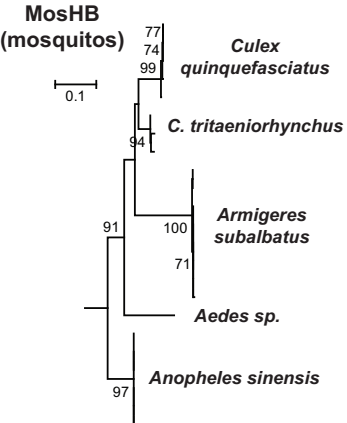
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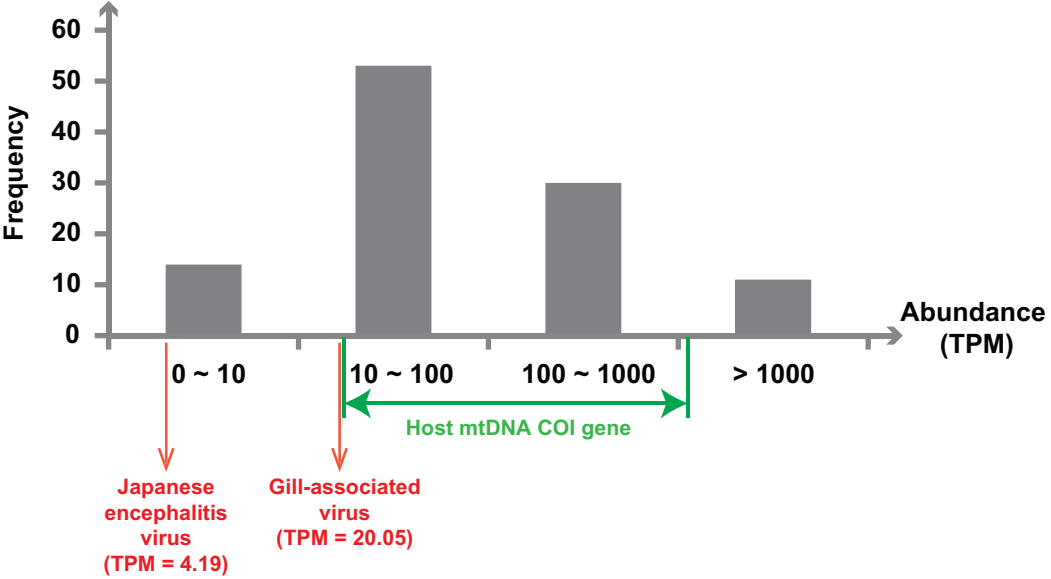
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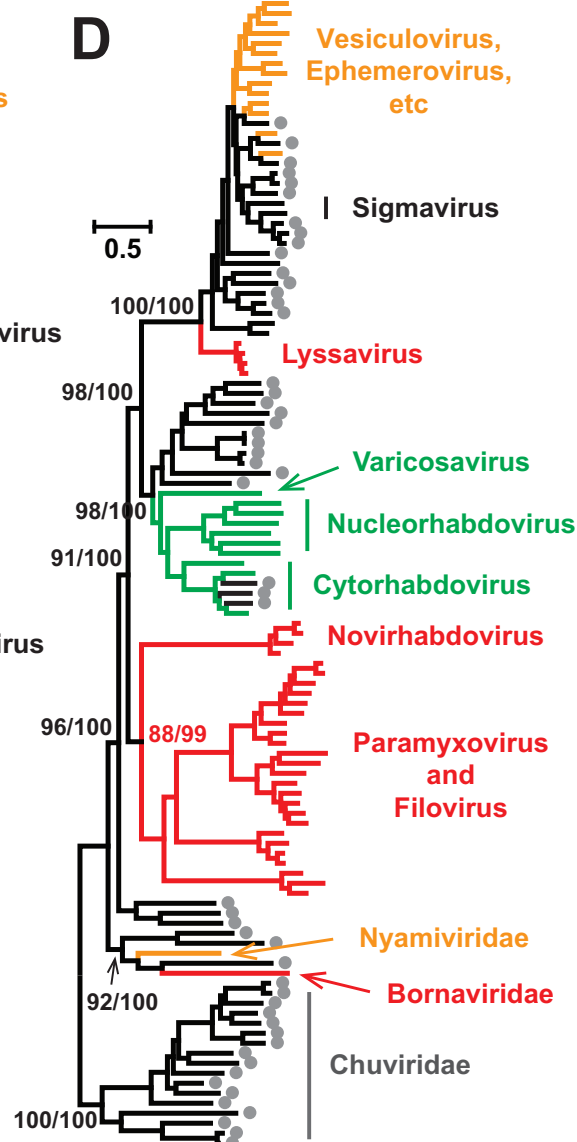
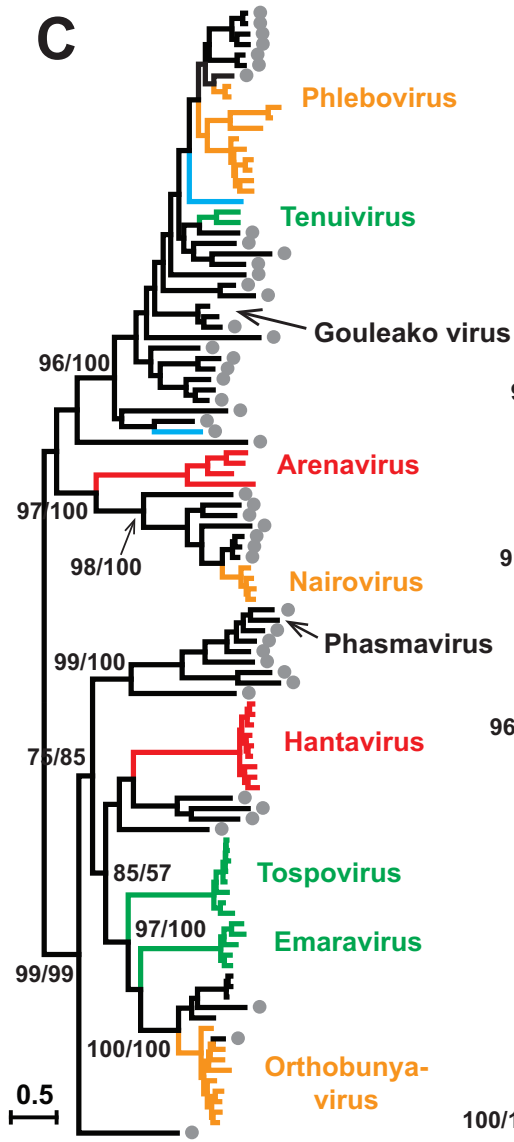
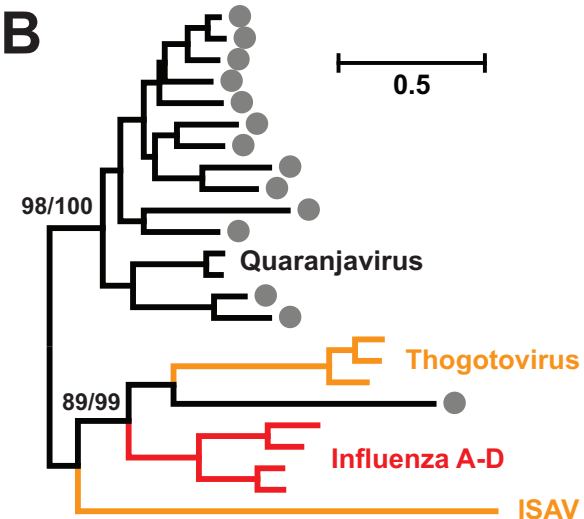
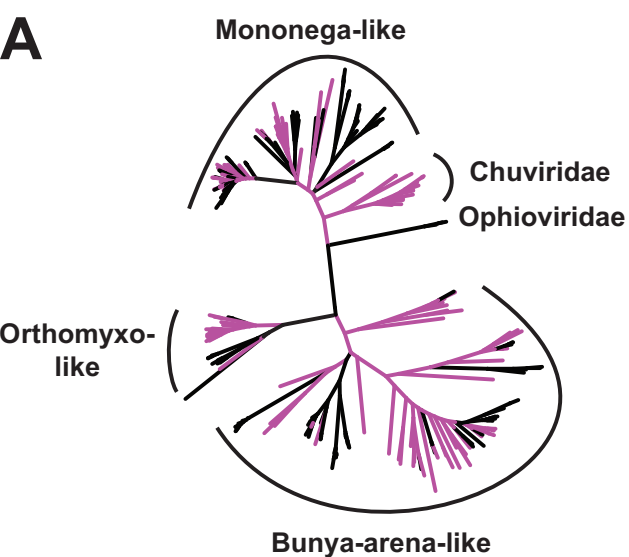
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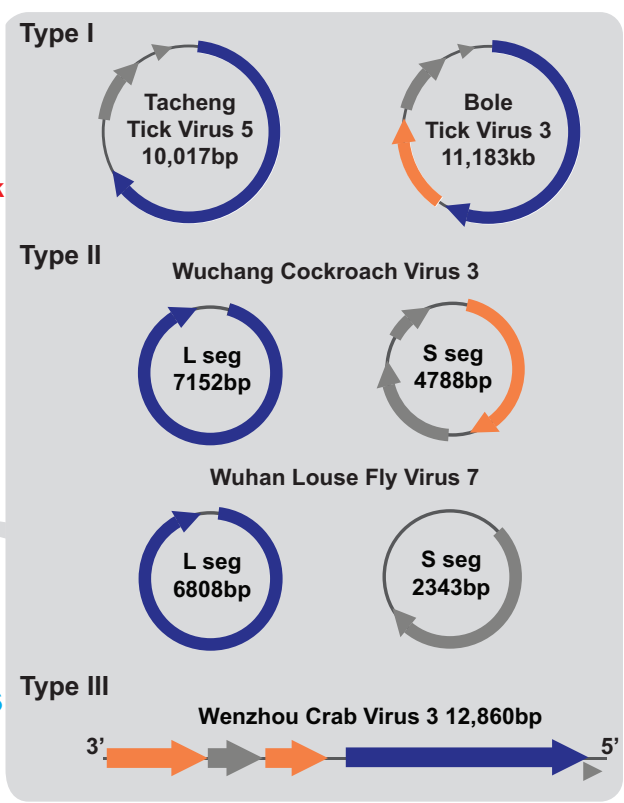
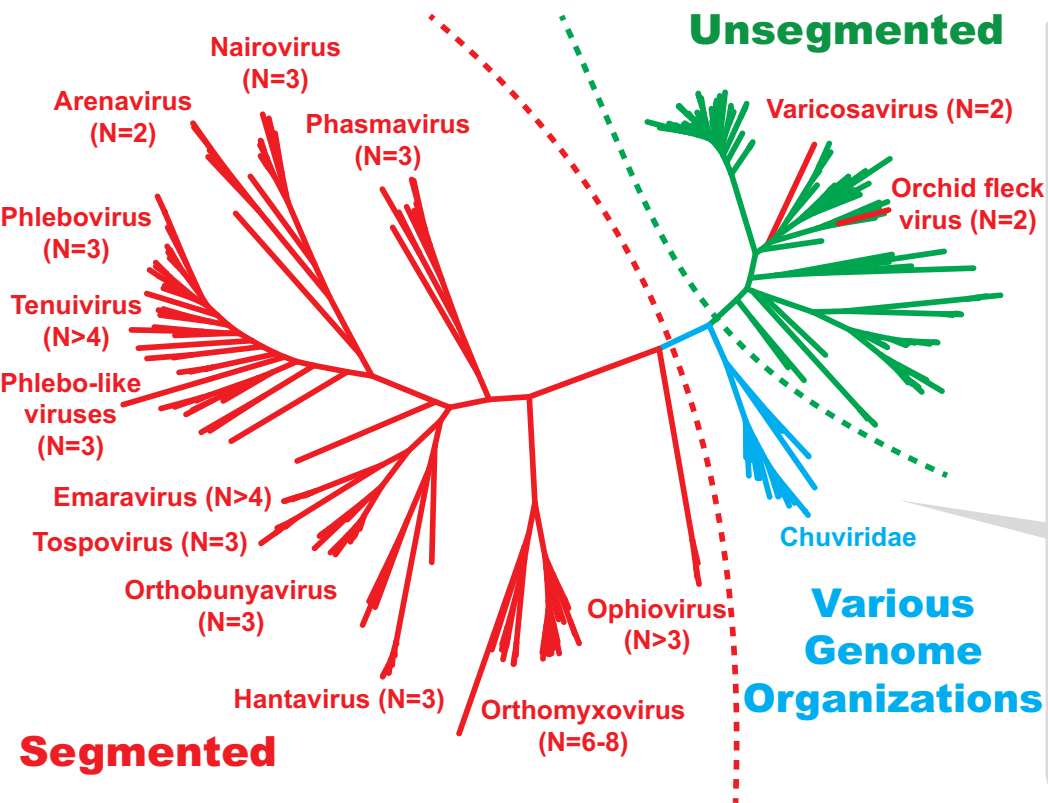
Table 5. Summary of Endogenous Virus Elements (EVEs) determined here

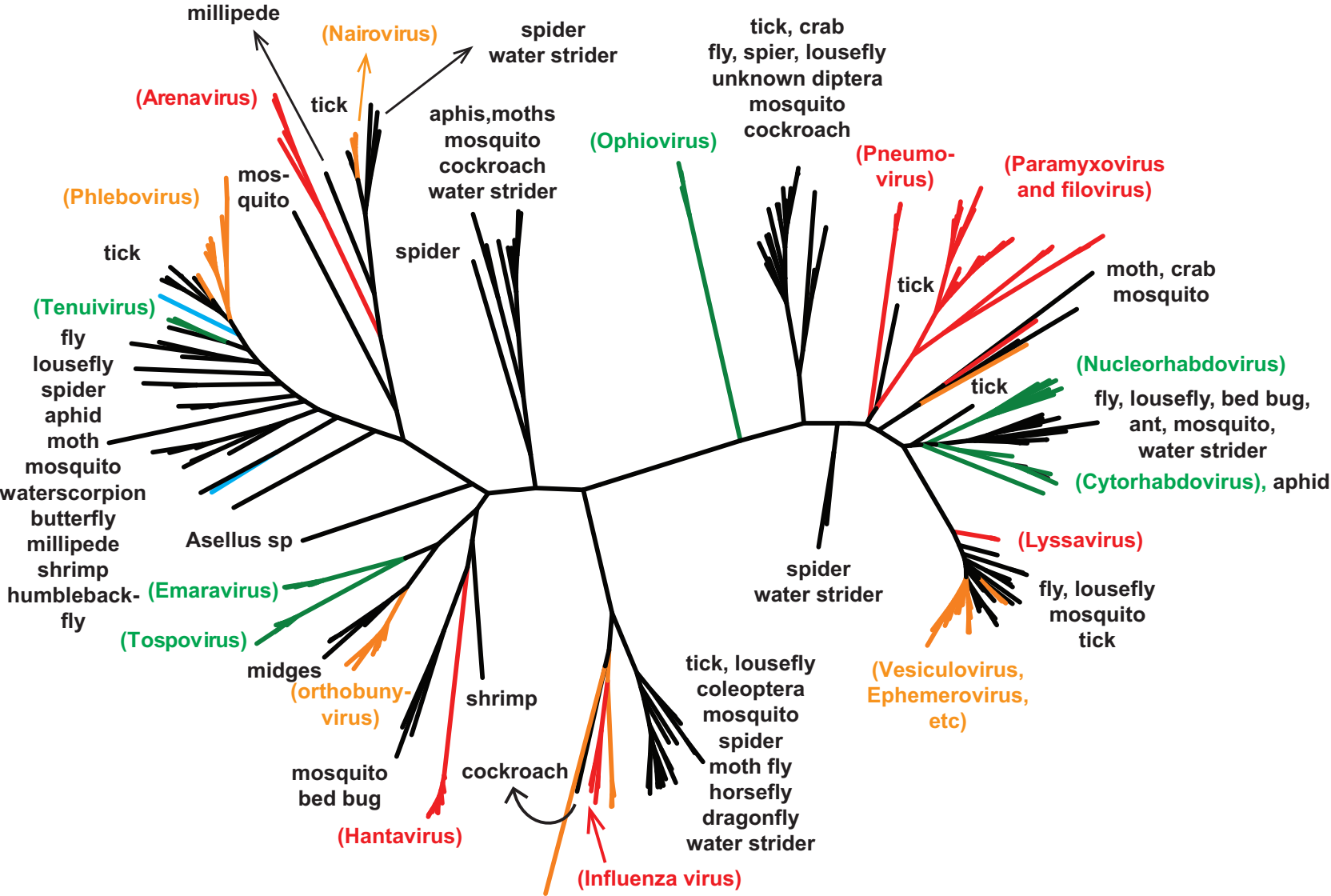
Host classification	Host name	Virus classification	Gene(s) present
Chelicerata	<i>Ixodes scapularis</i>	Chuvirus	G, N
		Dimarhabdovirus	RdRp, N
		Nairovirus like	N
		Phlebovirus	RdRp, N
		Quarantavirus	RdRp
	<i>Tetranychus urticae</i>	Dimarhabdovirus	N
Crustacea	<i>Daphnia pulex</i>	Phlebovirus like	RdRp
	<i>Eurytemora affinis</i>	Chuvirus	G
		Dimarhabdovirus	RdRp, N
	<i>Hyalella azteca</i>	Chuvirus	G, N
		Unclassified mononegavirus 3	RdRp, N
<i>Lepeophtheirus salmonis</i>	Phlebovirus like	N, G	
Insecta: Coleoptera	<i>Dendroctonus ponderosae</i>	Chuvirus	G
		Phasmavirus	G, N
	<i>Tribolium castaneum</i>	Chuvirus	G
Insecta: Diptera	<i>Aedes aegypti</i>	Chuvirus	RdRp
		Dimarhabdovirus	RdRp, N
		Phasmavirus	G
		Phlebovirus like	N
		Quarantavirus	RdRp
	<i>Anopheles spp.</i>	Chuvirus	G
		Dimarhabdovirus	RdRp, N
		Phasmavirus	G, N
		Phlebovirus like	N
	<i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i>	Quarantavirus	RdRp
		Chuvirus	G, N
		Dimarhabdovirus	N
	<i>Drosophila spp.</i>	Dimarhabdovirus	RdRp, N
		Phasmavirus	N
		Unclassified rhabdovirus 2	RdRp, N
Insecta: Isoptera	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	Chuvirus	N
Insecta: Hemiptera	<i>Acyrtosiphon pisum</i>	Chuvirus	G, N
		Dimarhabdovirus	N
		Phlebovirus like	N
		Quarantavirus	RdRp
		Unclassified mononegavirus 1	RdRp, N
	<i>Rhodnius prolixus</i>	Chuvirus	G
		Phasmavirus	G
Insecta: Hymenoptera	<i>Atta cephalotes</i>	Unclassified mononegavirus 2	RdRp
	<i>Acromyrmex echinatio</i>	Chuvirus	G
		Unclassified mononegavirus 2	RdRp
	<i>Camponotus floridanus</i>	Chuvirus	G
		Unclassified mononegavirus 1	N
		Unclassified mononegavirus 3	RdRp
		Unclassified rhabdovirus 2	RdRp
	<i>Harpegnathos saltator</i>	Chuvirus	G
	<i>Linepithema humile</i>	Chuvirus	G
	<i>Nasonia spp.</i>	Chuvirus	G
	<i>Pogonomyrmex barbatus</i>	Chuvirus	G
	<i>Solenopsis invicta</i>	Chuvirus	G
Unclassified mononegavirus 1		N	
Unclassified mononegavirus 3		RdRp, N	
Insecta: Lepidoptera	<i>Bombyx mori</i>	Chuvirus	RdRp, G
		Quarantavirus	RdRp
		Unclassified rhabdovirus 2	RdRp
	<i>Melitaea cinxia</i>	Dimarhabdovirus	N
		Quarantavirus	RdRp
	<i>Plutella xylostella</i>	Dimarhabdovirus	N, G
	<i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i>	Phlebovirus like	G
Myriapoda	<i>Strigamia maritima</i>	Chuvirus	N
		Phlebovirus like	G

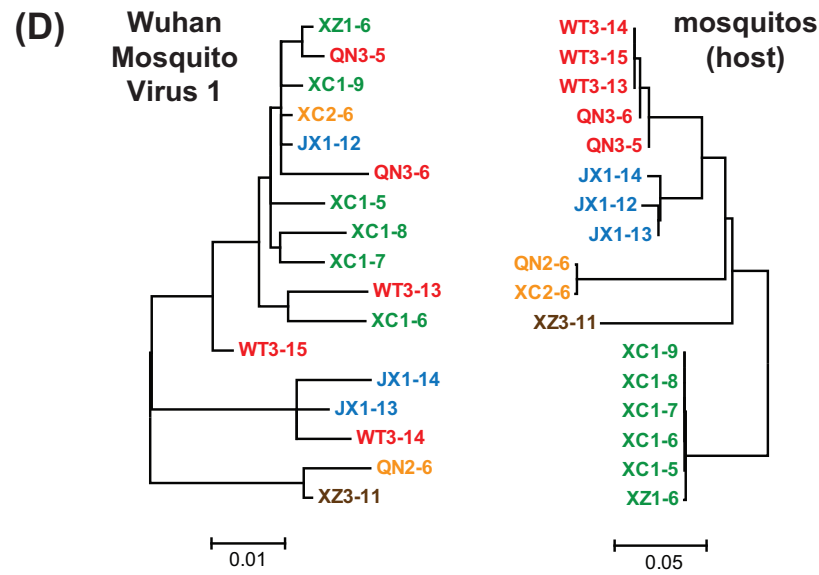
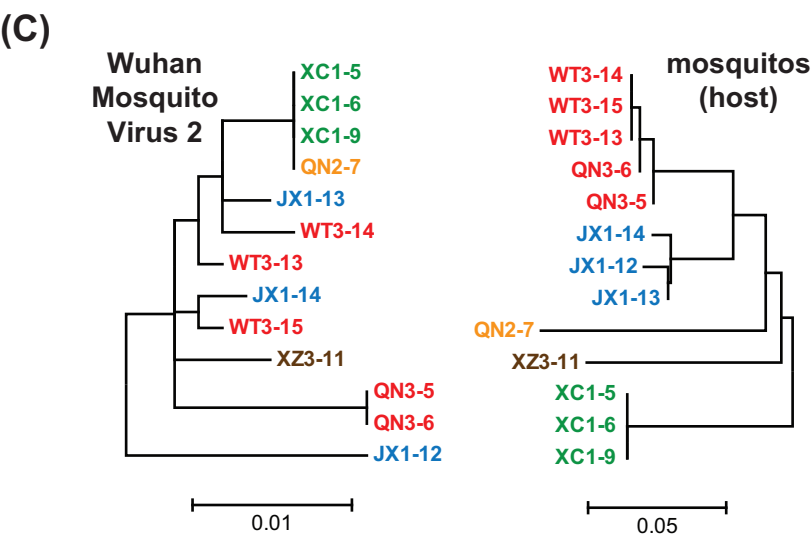
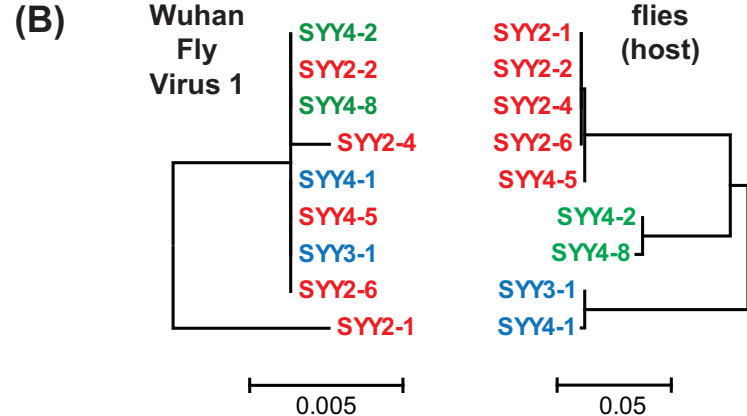
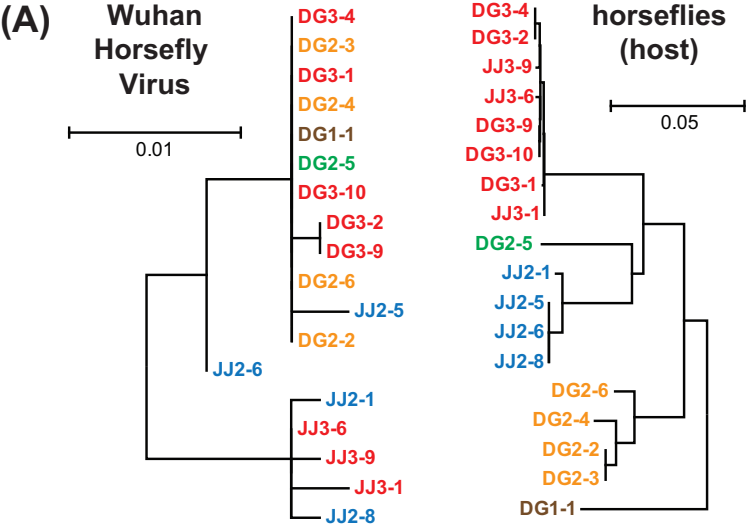


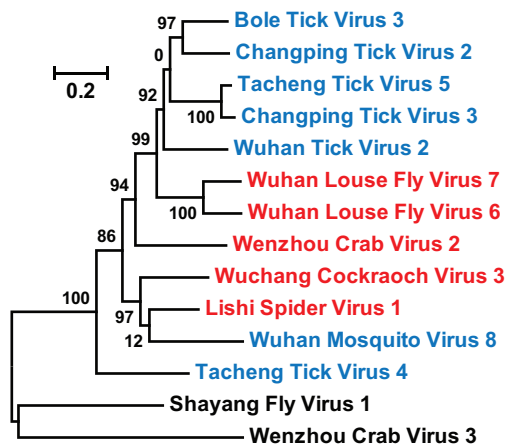
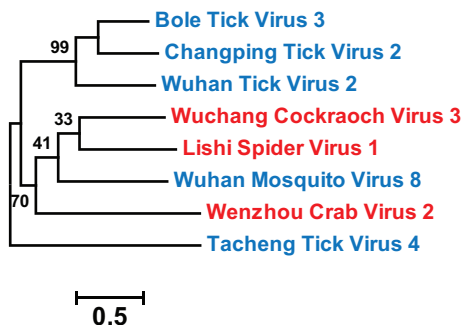
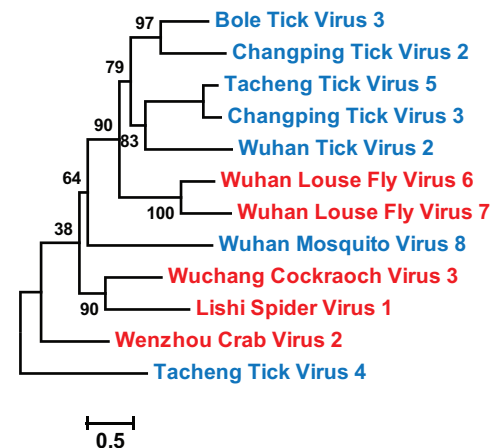
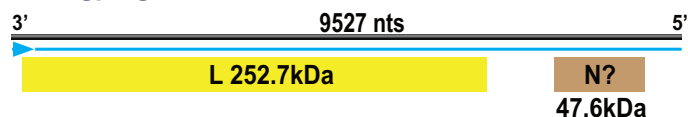
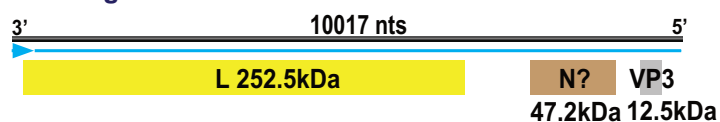
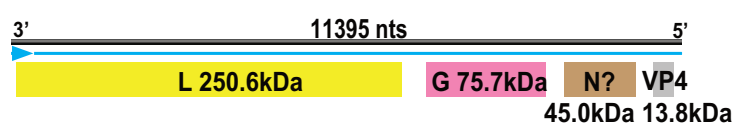
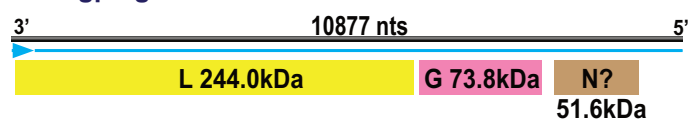
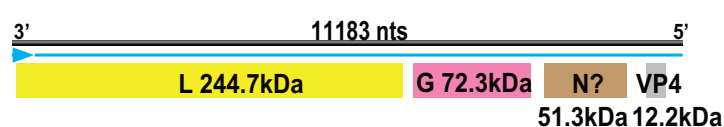
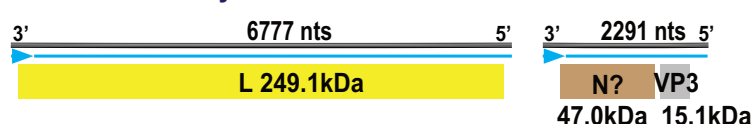
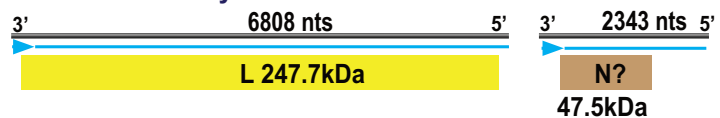
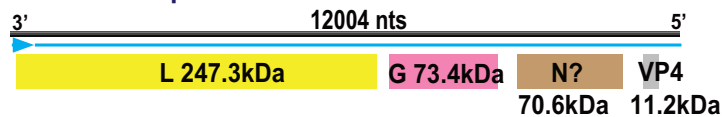
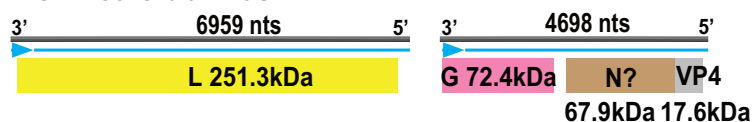
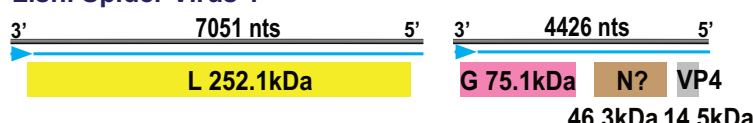
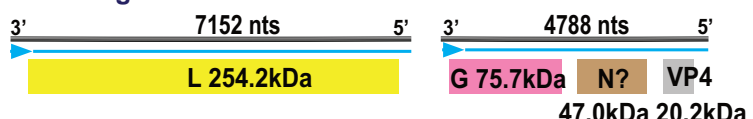
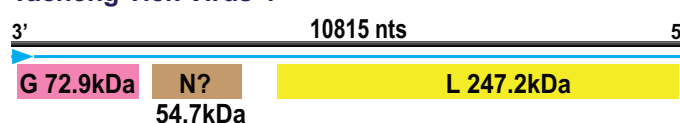
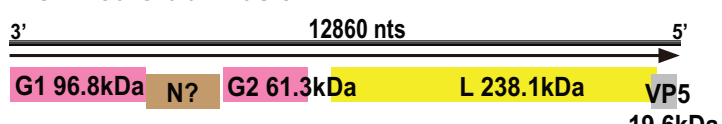
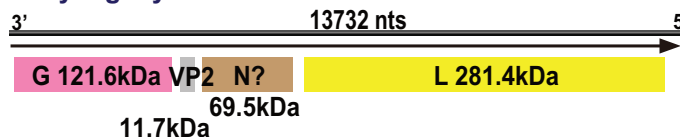
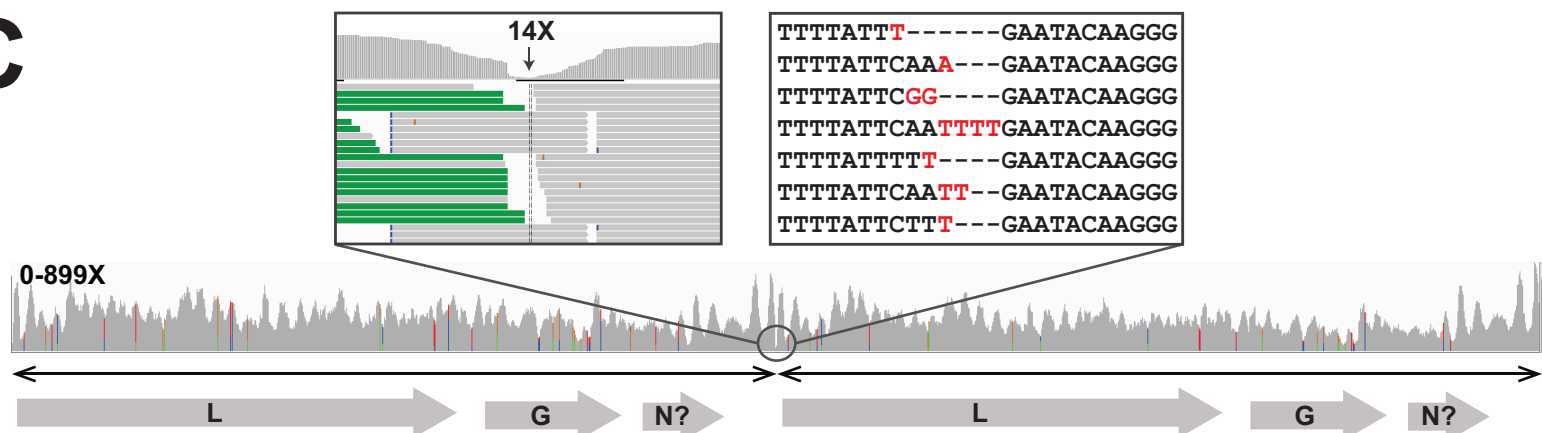


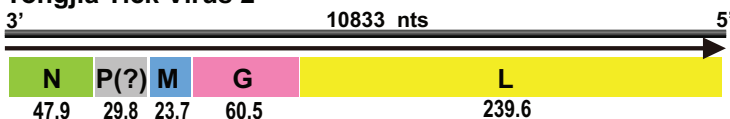
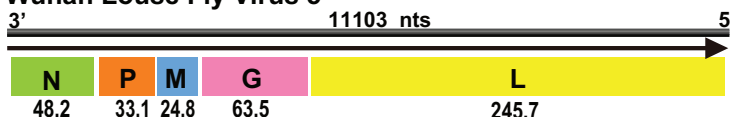
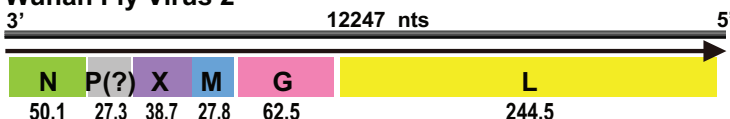
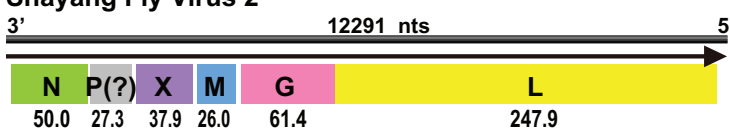
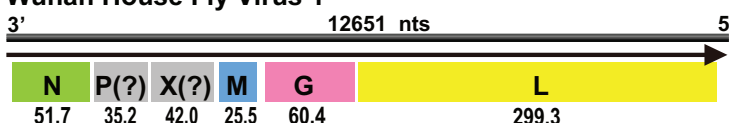
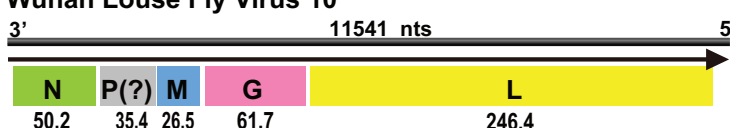
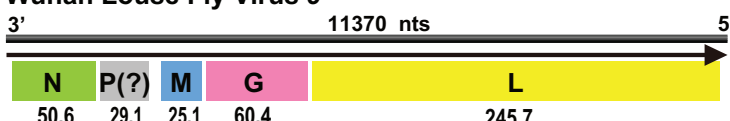
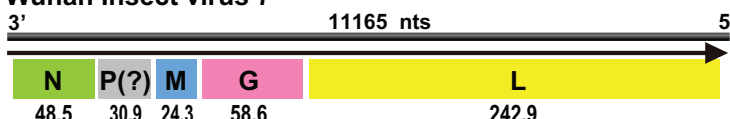
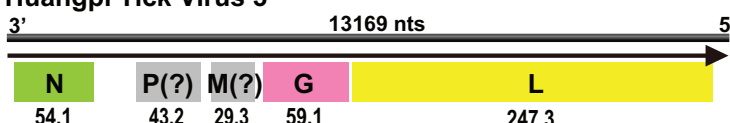
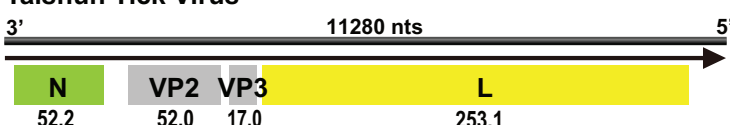
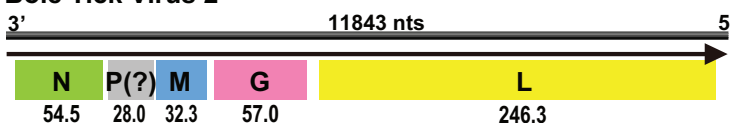
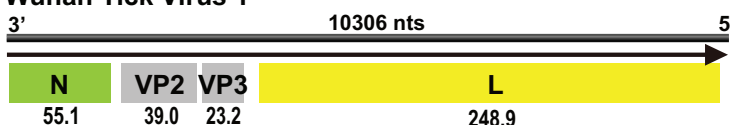
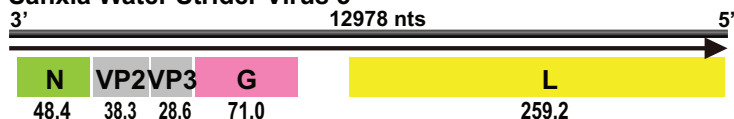
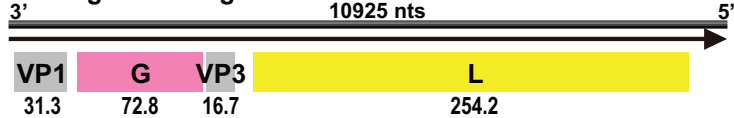
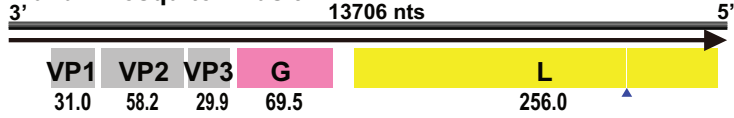
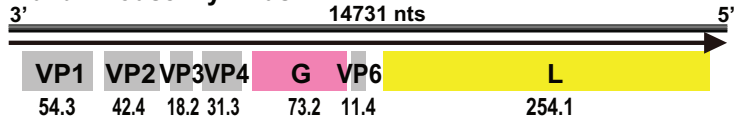
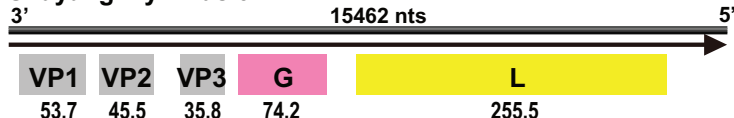
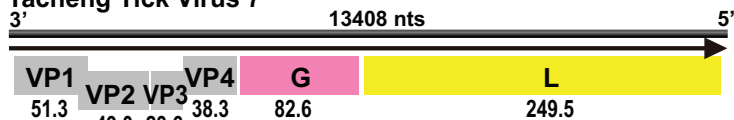
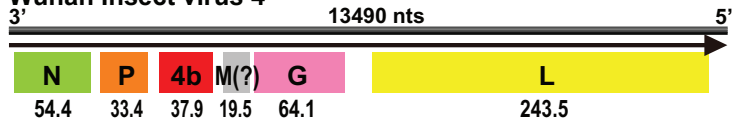
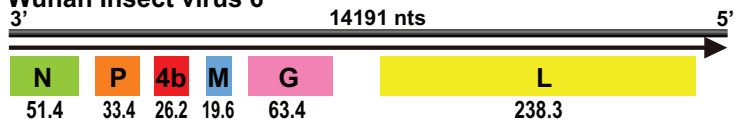
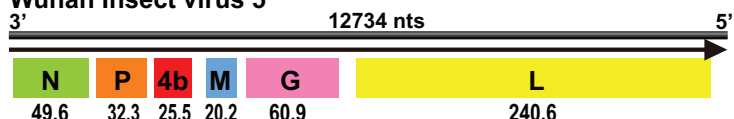
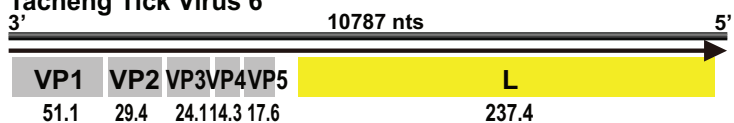
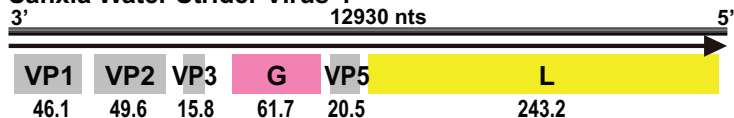
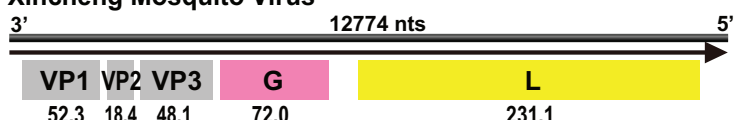
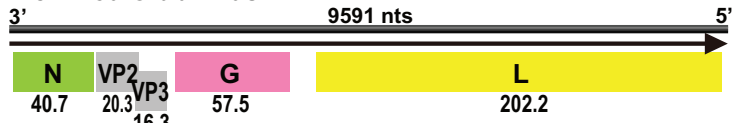




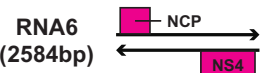




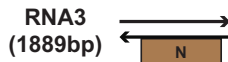
A**RdRP****Putative Glycoprotein****Putative Nucleoprotein****B****Changping Tick Virus 3****Tacheng Tick Virus 5****Wuhan Tick Virus 2****Changping Tick Virus 2****Bole Tick Virus 3****Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 6****Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 7****Wuhan Mosquito Virus 8****Wenzhou Crab Virus 2****Lishi Spider Virus 1****Wuchang Cockroach Virus 3****Tacheng Tick Virus 4****Wenzhou Crab Virus 3****Shayang Fly Virus 1****C**

Nonimovirus virus like**Yongjia Tick Virus 2****Kolente virus like****Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 5****Sigmavirus_like****Wuhan Fly Virus 2****Shayang Fly Virus 2****Wuhan House Fly Virus 1****Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 10****Wuhan Louse Fly Virus 9****Unclassified Dimarhabdovirus 2****Wuhan Insect virus 7****Unclassified Dimarhabdovirus 1****Huangpi Tick Virus 3****Taishun Tick Virus****Bole Tick Virus 2****Wuhan Tick Virus 1****Unclassified Rhabdovirus 2****Sanxia Water Strider Virus 5****Shuangao Bedbug Virus 2****Wuhan Mosquito Virus 9****Wuhan House Fly Virus 2****Shayang Fly Virus 3****Unclassified Rhabdovirus 1****Tacheng Tick Virus 7****Cytorhabdovirus_like****Wuhan Insect virus 4****Wuhan Insect virus 6****Wuhan Insect virus 5****Unclassified Mononegavirus 1****Tacheng Tick Virus 6****Sanxia Water Strider Virus 4****Unclassified Mononegavirus 2****Xincheng Mosquito Virus****Unclassified Mononegavirus 3****Wenzhou Crab Virus 1**

Rice grassy stunt virus

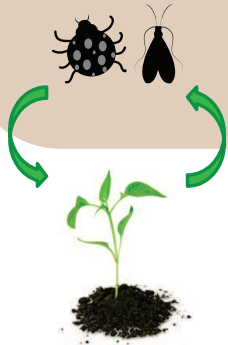


Wuhan horsefly Virus



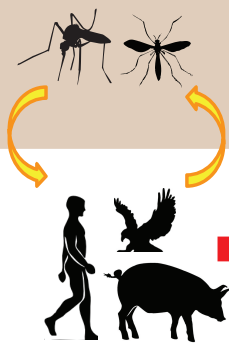
Arthropods

Phytophagous vectors

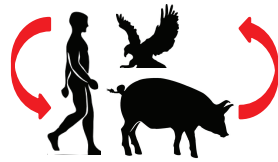


Plants

Blood-feeding vectors



Vertebrates



Vertebrates

Tospovirus
Cytorhabdovirus
Nucleorhabdovirus
Emaravirus
Tenuivirus

Nairovirus
Phlebovirus
Orthobunyavirus
Ephemerovirus
Vesiculovirus

Filovirus
Arenavirus
Bornavirus
Influenza virus
Paramyxovirus
Lyssavirus
Hantavirus