Establishing farm dust as a useful viral metagenomic surveillance matrix

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Running Head: Viromes from farm dust and farmed chicken feces

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ABSTRACT (192 words, word limit = 200 words)

Farm animals may harbor many viral pathogens, some with zoonotic potential which can possibly cause

severe clinical outcomes in animals and humans. Documenting viral content of dust may provide

information of potential sources and movement of viruses. Here, we describe a dust sequencing

strategy that provides detailed viral sequence characterization from farm dust samples and use this

method to document the virus communities from chicken farm dust samples and paired feces collected

at multiple time points during the production cycle in broiler farms in the Netherlands. From the

sequencing data, *Parvoviridae* and *Picornaviridae* were the most prevalent families, detected in 85-

100% of all feces and dust samples. Surprisingly large genomic diversity was identified in *Picornaviridae*

and viruses from the *Caliciviridae* and *Astroviridae* were also obtained. This study provides a unique

characterization of virus communities in farmed chickens and paired farm dust samples and our

sequencing methodology enabled the recovery of viral genome sequences from farm dust, providing

important tracking details for virus movement between livestock animals and their farm environment.

This study serves as a proof of concept supporting that dust sampling could potentially be incorporated

as part of viral metagenomic surveillance.

1. INTRODUCTION

Many emerging infectious diseases are of zoonotic origins [1]. Approximately 70 % of zoonoses are

proposed to originate from wildlife and outbreaks of MERS-CoV [2], Nipah virus [3] and SARS-CoV-2 in minks

[4] have shown that livestock and farmed animals can act as intermediate hosts and/or reservoirs which

can sustain zoonotic transmission. In addition to passing viruses from wildlife to humans, livestock and

farmed animals are also reservoir of zoonotic pathogens, such as bacteria *Coxiella burnetii* (*C. burnettii*)

that causes Q-fever in goats, sheep and cattle [5], and avian influenza [6,7]. Additionally, epidemiological

studies have found evidence for an increased risk of respiratory disease in persons exposed to large-

scale animal farming [8,9]. In part, this can be attributed to farm dust exposure for which adverse health

effects have been demonstrated [10–12], and the potential of zoonotic infections in these cases could be

important yet under-reported. For instance, a Q-fever outbreak affecting approximately 4,000 people

was reported in the Netherlands in 2007-2010 that was linked to circulation of *C. burnettii* in local dairy

goat farms and dairy sheep farms [13]. Q-fever was not notifiable in small ruminant farms in the

Netherlands before the outbreak, making early detection of zoonotic transmission of *C. burnettii*

challenging [14]. Similarly, MERS-CoV had been circulating among dromedary camels long before it was

recognized as a cause of severe respiratory disease in humans [15]. These livestock-associated zoonotic

disease outbreaks emphasize that continued surveillance of health risks due to livestock exposure is

essential, especially when the intensification of livestock production is widely practiced to meet

increasing food demands of growing populations [16].

Advances in next-generation sequencing (NGS) technology can provide a detailed description of the

viral content of environmental samples offering great potential for viral surveillance. This metagenomic

NGS (mNGS) approach (using random priming rather than target specific primers) allows the detection

of viruses present in the samples without prior knowledge of its presence [17,18] as well as characterization

of complex viral communities [19,20]. Indeed, reports of virus diversity in animals including bats [21–23], pigs

[24–26], wild birds [27,28], and chickens [29] have been published since the development of NGS methods.

Chickens (*Gallus gallus domesticus*) are the most abundant domestic livestock in the world.

According to the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), the global chicken

population was >22 billion birds in 2017 [30]. Chicken farming ranges from backyard to large-scale

commercial farms that house ten-thousands of chickens. The Netherlands is the second largest

agricultural exporter in the world [31,32]. There are approximately 0.1 billion housed chickens and around

1,700 chicken farms in the Netherlands in 2020 [33]. Chicken can carry various pathogens such as

Salmonella [34], *Campylobacter* [35] and avian influenza viruses including subtypes that can cause severe

infection in humans like H5N1 [36] and H7N9 [6]; and it has been found that avian influenza virus can be

transmitted to humans as a result of close exposure to contaminated chicken [7]. Monitoring virus

diversity in chickens and other livestock may be a key component for identifying potential zoonotic

threats. Meanwhile, little is known about the virome composition of farm dust, although it has been

suggested that farm dust might play a role in infectious disease transmission [37,38]. Farm dust typically

consists of fragments of animal feed, bedding material, animal feces, animal dander, mites and

microorganisms [39], as well as fragments of poultry feathers in the case of poultry farm dust. The

complex composition of dust particles allows them to accumulate and serve as a vector of biologically

active material including antibiotic resistance genes, endotoxin, and, as shown here, complete viral

genomes. Farm dust exposure may cause adverse health effects [40,41]. Most studies on farm dust have

focused on measuring antimicrobial gene sequences [42] and endotoxins [10,12], with no published reports

documenting the viral sequence content of farm dust samples.

Here, we describe a metagenomic NGS characterization of virus diversity in a paired sample set of

farm dust and chicken feces collected at multiple time points in three commercial chicken farms across

the Netherlands. We develop and present a sequencing methodology that enables recovery of virus

genome sequences in farm dust samples. We show that the chicken fecal virome and farm dust virome

show similar patterns over time, host age and farms. This study provides useful insights in

understanding the virus communities in chicken and surrounding farm environments and provides an

important tool for monitoring viral movement by dust, a previously underappreciated source of viral

movement through our environment.

2. RESULTS

2.1 Comparative virus prevalence in chicken farm dust samples and paired feces

A total of 46 individual farm dust samples and 56 pooled chicken feces were collected. Five

chicken fecal samples were excluded due to insufficient cDNA concentration for library preparation.

Individual farm dust samples collected at the same sampling moment from the same farm were pooled

together during sample processing for sequencing, making up a final set of 13 pooled farm dust

samples. Metagenomic deep sequencing of pooled chicken farm dust samples (N=13) and pooled

chicken feces (N=51) generated ca 1-3 million paired-end short reads per sample.

From the total of 64 chicken farm dust samples and chicken feces analyzed, viruses belonging to

the family *Parvoviridae* were consistently detected in all samples, followed by *Picornaviridae* with a 85%

and 100% prevalence in chicken dust samples and chicken feces respectively (**Table 1**). *Astroviridae*

were the third most prevalent virus family detected in 85% of farm dust samples and 82% chicken feces,

followed by *Caliciviridae* which were present in 69% (farm dust samples) and 78% (chicken feces)

prevalence. The overall pattern of virus detection observed in dust samples was similar to that in

chicken feces, some more variability was observed within farms over time (**Table 1** and **Figure S1**).

Although the detection frequency of *Parvoviridae* was slightly higher than that of *Picornaviridae*,

the number of *Picornaviridae* contigs detected was the highest (**Figure 1**). Within the *Picornaviridae*

family, *Sicinivirus* was consistently detected in 69% of farm dust samples and all chicken feces (**Table 2**),

followed by *Anativirus* (farm dust samples: 61%; chicken feces: 70%), and *Megrivirus* (farm dust

samples: 46%; chicken feces: 43%). Of note, the number of contigs detected in different picornavirus

genera corresponded to the prevalence pattern (**Figure 2 & Figure S2**). In particular, *Anatvirus*,

Gallivirus, *Megrivirus* and *Sicinivirus* were detected in all three farms, while *Orivirus* was only identified

in farm F_01 and F_03 and *Avisivirus* was only found in farm F_03 (**Figure S2**). When looking at virus

family level, we did not observe any substantial differences in overall viral contents (**Figure 1**) and virus-

specific prevalence (**Figure S1**) of samples from different farms and from different production cycles

(different chicken ages) within farms.

2.2 Genomic diversity in viruses identified from chicken farm dust samples and paired feces

2.2.1   *Picornaviridae*

Phylogenetic construction was performed to compare the reported *Picornaviridae* sequences

from 5 genera (*Avisvirus*, *Anativirus*, *Gallivirus*, *Megrivirus* and *Sicinivirus*) with global sequences. Forty-

six picornavirus sequences with ≥ 80% genome coverage (farm dust samples: 8; chicken feces: 38) were

included in the phylogenetic analysis of the polyprotein region. The maximum-likelihood (ML)

phylogenetic tree (**Figure 3**) showed that the sequences identified from farm F_03, albeit small number

(N=12), belonged to all 5 different genera *Avisvirus*, *Anativirus*, *Gallivirus*, *Megrivirus* and *Sicinivirus*,

suggesting a high viral diversity circulating among chicken in this farm. Interestingly, farm F_02 with the

highest number of picornavirus contigs identified (N=31) has a moderate level of viral diversity, with

these contigs belonging to 3 genera *Anativirus*, *Sicinivirus* and *Megrivirus*. Only 3 picornavirus genomic

sequences identified were from farm F_01, belonging to *Sicinivirus* (N=1) and *Anativirus* (N=2).

Sicinivirus and *Anativirus* are the most prevalent virus genera found with virus sequences detected in all

3 farms, while sequences of *Gallivirus* and *Avisivirus* were less prevalent, found in only 1 farm, farm

F_03.

Genome sequences detected from farm dust samples belonged to *Sicinivirus* and *Megrivirus*

from farm F_02 that clustered with sequences identified in chicken feces from the same farm (**Figure 3**).

Viruses in the *Sicinivirus* genus were detected in 69% of dust samples and all chicken feces samples with

the highest number of viral contigs identified in each sample as compared to other genera in the

Picornaviridae family. Slightly longer branches in the *Sicinivirus* sequences in the ML tree indicates

higher diversity within this *Sicinivirus* clade (**Figure 3)**. We further reconstructed a ML tree for all

identified *Sicinivirus* polyprotein nucleotide sequences (N=15; farm dust samples: 4; chicken feces: 11) in

this study and compared them with global reference sequences (**Figure 4**). Two sequences from chicken

feces (V_M_005_picorna_5 from farm F_01 and V_M_034_picorna_3 from farm F_03) were most

distinct from the rest of the identified sequences (sharing only 69.4-72.3% nt identity) and were most

closely related to strain JSY previously identified in China (78.9-79.0% nt identity). Other *Sicinivirus*

sequences from the same farm often formed a monophyletic lineage, suggesting within-farm *Sicinivirus*

sequences are highly genetically similar. Viruses identified from chicken feces and farm dust samples

consistently clustered with each other forming their own sub-clusters within major clades in the ML

trees, indicating high similarity between sequences from feces and dusts and that they are more closely

related as compared to global reference sequences.

2.2.2   *Astroviridae*

Sixteen astrovirus sequences with ≥ 80% genome coverage were identified in this study, among

which only 1 astrovirus sequence was found in farm dust (VE_7_astro_14; farm F_02). There was only 1

astrovirus genomic sequence from farm F_01. RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) and capsid

regions of these sequences were extracted for phylogenetic analyses (**Figure 5A and 5B**, respectively).

ML trees of both regions showed that these 16 astrovirus sequences belonged to two distinct lineages,

A1 and A2 (**Figure 5**). Sequences from samples from farm F_02 and F_03 were found in both lineages A1

and A2, suggesting co-circulation of different astrovirus strains in both farms. The 12 sequences from

lineage A1 were most closely related to avian nephritis virus strains previously reported in China and

Brazil (GenBank accession number: HM029238, MN732558 and MH028405), while the 4 sequences

from lineage A2 were more closely related to each other and clustered with chicken astroviruses

previously identified in Malaysia, Canada and the USA (GenBank accession number: MT491731-2,

MT789782, MT789784 and JF414802). The 12 sequences from lineage A1 shared 96-100% amino acid

(aa) identity in the RdRp region while 4 sequences from lineage A2 shared a higher 99-100% aa identity.

For the less conserved capsid region, three small sub-lineages can be observed within lineage A1 (**Figure**

5B). Notably, the only astrovirus sequence found in dust (strain VE_7_astro_14) was identical to

astrovirus recovered from its paired chicken feces sample (strain V_M_038_astro_4) at the same farm.

2.2.3 *Caliciviridae*

Similar to astrovirus distribution in feces versus dust, 13 out of 14 calicivirus sequences identified (with ≥ 80% genome coverage) were recovered from fecal samples with only 1 calicivirus sequence identified from a dust sample. Partial ORF1 polyprotein region of these sequences was extracted to construct ML tree comparing the local calicivirus with global sequences. The ML tree showed that the reported calicivirus sequences were from two distinct lineages (C1 and C2) (**Figure 6**). All calicivirus sequences from farm F_02 and F_03 belonged to lineage C1, while sequences from F_01 belonged to both lineages C1 and C2. The 11 sequences in lineage C1 shared 98.7-100% aa identity despite being collected from different farms and they shared 97.2-99.1% aa similarity with two partial ORF1 sequences identified in Germany in 2010 (GenBank accession number: JQ347523 and JQ347527). BLAST searches and multiple sequence alignment indicated that these 11 local calicivirus sequences are the first report of complete ORF1 sequence of that particular chicken calicivirus lineage. The only calicivirus sequence from dust (VE_8_calici_66) clustered in lineage C1. The 3 sequences in lineage C2 are highly similar, sharing 99.9-100% aa identity and were all collected from farm F_01 at two time points. These 3 sequences shared 93.8-96.8% aa similarity with reference sequences from Germany, USA, Korea and Brazil (*Bavaria virus*, *Bavovirus* genus, GenBank accession number: HQ010042, MN810875, KM254170-1, MG846433-4).

2.2.4 Other virus families

Three nearly-complete coronavirus genome sequences were identified in 3 chicken feces (V_M_001, V_M_002 and V_M_003) from farm F_01. BLAST analyses showed that these sequences are infectious bronchitis virus (IBV) strains and share 99.92-99.95% identity at the nucleotide level with IBV vaccine strain 4/91 (GenBank accession number: KF377577), suggesting these IBV may possibly be viral shedding following vaccination or environmental contamination as vaccines are generally provided in drinking water.

2.3 MASH analysis

The phylogenetic comparison of large contig sequences presented above support the findings about

the similarities between sequences from dust samples and possible farm animal sources. However,

additional information can be obtained with global analyses that would compare all available sequence

data from the dust material. A method that allows a comparison of the large amount of unclassified

sequences that are commonly observed in NGS data would provide additional information. We

therefore used a kmer comparison tool MASH [43,44] that prepares a hash description of all kmers of a

given length and then allows rapid quantitative comparison of similarity of the kmers sets generated

from different sequenced samples. We used the Mash distance function to calculate a Jaccard distance

value for all pairs of dust sequence samples.

We compared all assembled viral contigs of the dust samples. Figure 7 panel A shows the Jaccard

distance between all 13 dust samples from 3 farms, colored by farm source. In all comparisons, pairs of

dust samples from the same farm have lower Jaccard distance values (darker blue in the figure) than

inter-farm samples. It is also apparent that farm F_01 and farm F_02 were slightly more related to each

other than either were to farm F_03. Similar patterns were obtained using all quality-controlled short

read data from each dust sample (Figure 7 Panel B).

3. DISCUSSION

Animals including livestock kept in close proximity to humans can act as intermediate hosts and/or

sources for zoonotic disease transmission [45]. The current COVID-19 pandemic has raised awareness of

zoonotic risks and has prompted the need for more proactive surveillance strategies involving animal

surveillance, which could potentially guide zoonotic outbreak preparedness. Chickens are the most

abundant livestock in the world [30] and have been identified as reservoirs for various zoonotic pathogens

[35,36]. In this study, we employed viral metagenomic deep sequencing to document the viruses present in

farm dust samples and paired chicken feces collected within the same farms. These data revealed

potential virus flow between chickens and their farm environment.

In this study, we described a random-primed viral metagenomic deep sequencing strategy to viral

sequences from dust samples. We were able to obtain long viral sequences providing ≥ 80% viral

genome coverage from farm dust samples. Farm dust is known to be associated with adverse

respiratory effects observed in farm workers with prolonged exposure [40]; however, whether viruses play

a role is thus far unknown due to a knowledge gap in virus detection and virus diversity in farm dust.

Characterizing farm dust viromes could aid in investigating possible health effects of occupational and

environmental exposure to virus-containing farm dust. The method we have developed could provide a

platform for future surveillance in farm animals and environmental samples.

Our phylogenetic analyses indicated that for all three farms, viruses identified from farm dust

samples were genetically closer to viruses identified from chicken feces collected from the same farm

than from the other two farms in the study. Furthermore, the Jaccard similarity analysis further showed

that for both known and unknown sequences the dust sequences were closer to other samples from the

same farm, indicating some source specificity in the sampling method. The combined data support the

idea that farm dust could potentially be a good proxy for the animals in that farm. This observation is in

agreement with a previous study that reported the correlation found in the bacterial antimicrobial

resistomes between animal feces and farm dust [46]. More importantly, the detection of likely chicken-

derived virus sequences in dust samples suggested that dust-borne transmission of viruses is a real

possibility for chicken and/or zoonotic pathogenic viruses [47]. Although infectivity of the viruses

identified was not determined in our study, the presence of nearly complete viral genome sequences

and the complex protein/lipid/nucleic acid composition of dust makes it likely that dust indeed contains

infectious virus particles. Future investigation on the infectivity of viruses in farm dust will provide

useful insights in mapping virus flows between chickens and their surrounding environment, which

collectively would guide future outbreak control strategies within and between farms.

Viruses identified in chicken feces from different farms were phylogenetically closely related to each

other and formed sub-lineages or monophyletic lineages when comparing to global related sequences.

This could possibly be explained by the pyramid structure of the broiler production system, as chicks

found at each farm were all bought from a few suppliers; in other words, chicks could have been

infected from the supplier and then brought the virus to different broiler farms with further spread

within the farms, leading to similar viruses circulating in different broiler farms. Of note, the pyramid

production structure was also suggested as a possible transmission routes for ESBL/pAmpC producing

bacteria between broiler farms [48]. Future characterization of virus diversity of chickens from the top part

of the pyramid (suppliers) is needed to confirm the speculation.

Viruses belonging to five genera of the *Picornaviridae* family were identified in our study, suggesting

a great diversity of picornaviruses circulating in chickens, which is consistent with previous studies that

detected various picornavirus genera in chicken respiratory samples [49,50]. Astroviruses identified in this

study clustered in two distinct phylogenetic lineages; these astroviruses could present possible new

genotypes. For astrovirus, all chicken astroviruses are grouped to one single species according to the

current taxonomy assignment from International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses [51]. Current

classification of avastrovirus is based on phylogenetic analysis of capsid (ORF2) amino acid sequences [52].

More comprehensive assignment of genotypes is hindered by the limited number of complete capsid

sequences. A similar observation was seen for *Caliciviridae*, where we identified two types of

caliciviruses forming two distinct lineages in the ML tree. Lineage C2 is closely related to the *Bavovirus*

genus, while the sequences from C1 are most related to an unclassified chicken calicivirus strain

F10026n [53] that only possessed a partial ORF1 sequence. Our data have provided 16 astrovirus and 14

calicivirus sequences, which helps expand the current knowledge of chicken astrovirus and calicivirus

diversity and could potentially contribute to improved taxonomic assignment. Identification of novel

calicivirus and astrovirus genome sequences indicates that continued effort is needed for increasing

understanding of virus diversity in chicken feces.

We observed that viruses in the *Parvoviridae* and *Picornaviridae* families were consistently detected

in chicken feces and farm dust samples at multiple time points in all three farms. These virus families

could potentially be used as signature markers when monitoring chicken and farm dust exposure.

Additionally, these viruses could also be used as markers to assess the efficiency of disinfection

procedures in farms and their impact on surrounding environments although stabilities of different

viruses may differ due to different structures and we caution that viral activity assays have not yet been

performed on this material. Further and perhaps larger scale of longitudinal surveillance with the

inclusion of samples from layer hens and more environmental samples from surrounding areas are

certainly necessary to confirm our observation and the applicability of using these identified viruses as

signature virus fingerprint.

One limitation that should be considered is that fecal and dust samples were pooled and dust by its

very nature is a pooled sample (i.e. possibly containing sequences from multiple individual infections).

The possibility that the resulting assembled genomes are chimeras assembled from multiple individual

infections should be considered in interpreting the results. Truly striking and virologically important

variants should be examined using alternate methods such as direct isolation from individually infected

animals. Although we collected chicken feces and farm dust samples longitudinally, limited number of

samples per each time point especially for farm dust samples has hindered in-depth statistical

comparisons between samples collected from different time points.

In conclusion, we provide a dataset of virus sequences generated from farm dust samples and feces

and show a correlation between sequences from dust and feces samples obtained within the same

farm. These results support the idea that dust sampling can provide an accurate description of the farm

virome and could potentially be incorporated as part of viral metagenomic surveillance matrix. In the

long term, understanding virus flow between animals and humans is vital for identifying potential

zoonotic threats and zoonotic outbreak control and preparedness.

4. MATERIALS AND METHODS

4.1 Sample collection

Pooled chicken feces and farm dust samples were collected in three commercial broiler farms in the

Netherlands at 4-5 time points from May to August 2019. The three commercial broiler farms are

located in three different regions in the Netherlands (Western part: Noord/Zuid-Holland region;

Northern part: Friesland/Groningen region; Eastern part: Gelderland region). Detailed sampling strategy

and sample metadata is described in **Table 3**. Each pooled poultry fecal sample contains fresh fecal

material from 3-4 chicks. Farm dust samples were collected using a passive air sampling approach using

electrostatic dustfall collectors (EDCs) [54,55]. Electrostatic cloths were sterilized through incubation at

200°C for 4 hours. Sterilized electrostatic cloths were then fixed to a pre-cleaned plastic frame. EDCs

were exposed for 7 days at 1 meter above the floor with the electrostatic cloths facing up in broiler

farms to enable sampling of settling airborne dust instead of resuspended dust from the floor. EDCs

were contained in a sterile plastic bag before and after sampling. All samples were transported under

cold chain management and stored at -20°C/-80°C before processing.

4.2 Sample processing and metagenomic deep sequencing

Chicken fecal samples were processed as previously described [56]. Briefly, chicken fecal suspension

was prepared in Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and treated with TURBO DNAse (Thermo Fisher, USA)

at 37 °C for 30 minutes, and then subjected to total nucleic acid extraction using QIAamp viral RNA mini

kit (Qiagen, Germany) according to manufacturer's instruction without addition of carrier RNA. For dust

samples, electrostatic cloths were incubated in 3% beef extract buffer for 1 hour on rolling as previously

published [57]. After incubation, the suspension was collected and centrifugated at 4,000 g at 4°C for 4

minutes to pellet any large particles or debris. Total viruses in dust suspension were concentrated using

polyethylene glycol (PEG) similar to virus concentration in sewage published previously [58,59]. Briefly, PEG

6000 was added to each dust suspension to make up a final 10% PEG 6000 (Sigma-Aldrich, USA)

concentration, followed by pH adjustment to pH 4 and overnight incubation at 4°C with shaking. After

overnight incubation, sample was centrifuged at 13,500 g at 4°C for 90 minutes. Supernatant was

removed and the remaining pellet was resuspended in 500 μL of pre-warmed glycine buffer, and then

subjected to 5-minute centrifugation at 13,000 g at 4°C. Supernatant was collected, and supernatants

from EDC samples that were collected in the same farm at the same time point (N=1-4) were pooled

together for further processing. Viral-enriched dust suspension samples were then treated with TURBO

DNase as previously described [56] to remove non-encapsulated DNA, followed by total nucleic acid

extraction using MagMAX™ viral RNA isolation kit (Thermo Fisher, USA) according to manufacturer'

instructions but without the use of carrier RNA. Reverse transcription and second strand cDNA synthesis

of chicken fecal samples and dust samples was performed as previously described [56], using SuperScript

III reverse transcriptase and non-ribosomal hexamers [60] (reverse transcription) and Klenow fragment 3'-

5' exo- (New England BioLabs, USA) (2nd strand cDNA synthesis), respectively.

Standard Illumina libraries were prepared using Nextera XT DNA library kit following the

manufacturer's instruction. Final libraries were sequenced on the Illumina MiSeq platform (600 cycles;

paired-end). Chicken fecal samples with a multiplex range of 16-19 samples. Dust samples and negative

blank controls were sequenced with a multiplex of 12 samples per run.

4.3 Sequencing data analysis

Raw reads were subjected to adapter removal using Trim Galore/default Illumina software, followed

by quality trimming using QUASR [61] with a threshold of minimum length of 125 nt and median Phred

score ≤ 30. The resulting quality controlled reads were *de novo* assembled using metaSPAdes v3.12.0 [62].

De novo assembled contigs were classified using UBLAST [63] against eukaryotic virus family protein

databases as previously described [23,26]. We set a detection threshold of contig with minimum amino acid

identity of 70%, minimum length of 300 nt and an e-value threshold of 1×10^{-10} when interpreting our

contig classification results. Contig classification results were analyzed and visualized using R packages

including dplyr, reshaped2 and ComplexHeatmap [64–66].

4.4 Phylogenetic analysis

Sequences with ≥ 80% of genome coverage from the *Picornaviridae*, *Astroviridae* and *Caliciviridae*

families were used for phylogenetic analyses, comparing them with global sequences retrieved from

GenBank. Multiple sequence alignment was performed using MAFFT [67] and manually checked in

Geneious v2021.0.3 (Biomatters, New Zealand). Best-fit models of evolution for phylogenetic tree

reconstruction were estimated using ModelFinder module in IQ-TREE v1.6.11 [68], determined by Akaike

Information Criterion (AIC). Maximum-likelihood trees were constructed using RAxML-NG v1.0.1 [69] with

100 pseudo-replicates. Resulting trees were visualized and annotated using R package ggtree [70].

4.5 Kmer analysis with MASH

To compare Jaccard distances between dust samples, all quality controlled short reads, or resulting

assembled viral contigs were analyzed using the Triangle function from MASH v2.3 [43,44] with a kmer size

of 32 (-k 32) and a sketch size of 10,000 (-s 10000). The resulting distances were visualized in a heatmap

using R package ggplot2 [71].

4.6 Data availability

The raw reads are available in the SRA under the BioProject accession number PRJNA670873 (chicken

feces) and PRJNA701384 (farm dust samples) (**Table S1**). All sequences in phylogenetic analysis have

been deposited in GenBank under the accession numbers MW684778 to MW684847 (**Table S2**).

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION

K.T.T.K., M.P.G.K. and M.V.T.P. conceived the study. K.T.T.K. and M.V.T.P. performed experiments.

M.M.T.dR and I.M.W. designed sampling strategy. M.M.T.dR. and A.B.M. conducted fieldwork, handled

sample collection and collected associated metadata. K.T.T.K. and M.V.T.P. analyzed data. K.T.T.K.

drafted the manuscript. M.V.T.P., M.P.G.K., L.A.M.S., I.M.W., M.M.T.dR and A.B.M. edited the

manuscript. M.V.T.P., M.P.G.K. and I.M.W. supervised the study. M.P.G.K., D.J.J.H. and L.A.M.S. acquired

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Figure legends

Figure 1. An overview of virus contigs detected in chicken feces and chicken farm dust samples. Each column represents one sample. Associated metadata is shown at the top panel. The color intensity of the heatmap (bottom panel) is determined by number of contigs with minimum length of 300 nt/bp, at least 70% identity and an e-value threshold of $1x10^{-10}$ when comparing with closest reference in our database. Sample order is assorted by farm ID, sampling time point. Time point is an arbitrary number. Samples were collected at the same time and place when both Farm ID and Time point match.

Figure 2. An overview of picornavirus contigs detected in chicken feces and chicken farm dust samples. Each column represents one sample. Associated metadata is shown at the top panel. The color intensity of the heatmap (bottom panel) is determined by number of contigs with minimum length of 300 nt, at least 70% identity and an e-value threshold of $1x10^{-10}$ when comparing with closest reference in our database. Sample order is assorted by farm ID, sampling time point. Time point is an arbitrary number. Samples were collected at the same time and place when both Farm ID and Time point match.

Figure 3. Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree of 76 (sequences from this study: 46; reference sequences: 30) picornavirus partial polyprotein amino acid sequences (3786 sites) reconstructed using a best-fit evolutionary model LG+FC+R10. For clarity, only bootstrap supports >= 70 are shown as a navy-blue node point. Tip labels of our samples are color-coded by corresponding farm ID. Reference sequences are in grey. Tree was mid-point rooted for clarity.

Figure 4. Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree of 30 sicinivirus partial polyprotein nucleotide sequences (sequences from this study: 15; reference sequences: 15; 8672 sites) reconstructed using a best-fit evolutionary model GTR+F+R10. For clarity, only bootstrap supports >= 70 are shown as a navy-blue node point. Tip labels of our samples are color-coded by corresponding farm ID. Reference sequences are in grey and tree was mid-point rooted for clarity.

Figure 5. A. Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree of 33 astrovirus partial RdRp amino acid sequences (sequences from this study: 16; reference sequences: 17; 548 sites) reconstructed using a best-fit evolutionary model LG+FC+I+G4m. B. Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree of 33 astrovirus partial capsid amino acid sequences (sequences from this study: 16; reference sequences: 17; 908 sites) reconstructed using a best-fit evolutionary model LG+FC+I+G4m. For clarity, only bootstrap supports >= 70 are shown as a navy-blue node point. Tip labels of our samples are color-coded by corresponding farm ID. Reference sequences are in grey and tree was mid-point rooted for clarity.

Figure 6. Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree of 30 calicivirus partial polyprotein amino acid sequences (sequences from this study: 14; reference sequences: 16; 2794 sites) reconstructed using a best-fit evolutionary model LG+FC+R10. For clarity, only bootstrap supports >= 70 are shown as a navy-blue node point. Tip labels of our samples are color-coded by corresponding farm ID. Reference sequences are in grey and tree was mid-point rooted for clarity.

Figure 7. A. Jaccard distance analysis of assembled viral contigs of 13 pooled farm dust samples. B. Jaccard distance analysis of quality-controlled short reads of 13 pooled farm dust samples. The color intensity of the heatmaps is determined by MASH distance. Corresponding MASH distances are also shown in the heatmap. Sample labels are color-coded by farm ID and farm ID was added as prefix for clarity.

Table 1. Prevalence of different eukaryotic virus families in chicken feces and farm dust samples

Sample types		Chicken feces (N=51)	Farm dust (N=13)
Virus family	*Astroviridae*	42 (82%)	11 (85%)
	Caliciviridae	40 (78%)	9 (69%)
	Coronaviridae	19 (37%)	3 (23%)
	Parvoviridae	51 (100%)	13 (100%)
	Picobirnaviridae	8 (16%)	2 (15%)
	Picornaviridae	51 (100%)	11 (85%)
	Reoviridae	7 (14%)	3 (23%)

Table 2. Prevalence of picornavirus genera in chicken feces and farm dust samples

Sample types		Chicken feces (N=51)	Farm dust (N=13)
Picornavirus genera	*Anativirus*	36 (70%)	8 (61%)
	Avisivirus	3 (5%)	0 (0%)
	Gallivirus	16 (31%)	4 (30%)
	Megrivirus	22 (43%)	6 (46%)
	Orivirus	8 (15%)	0 (0%)
	Sicinivirus	51 (100%)	9 (69%)

Table 3. Detailed sampling strategy

Farm #	Sampling moment identifier	Time point	No. of pooled fecal sample(s) collected	No. of pooled EDC sample(s) collected (no. of individual EDC sample[s] collected)	Week production cycle
F_01	F_01_1	1	4	1 (4)	3
	F_01_2	2	4	1 (4)	4
	F_01_3	3	4	1 (4)	5
	F_01_4	4	4	1 (1)	4
	F_01_5	5	4	0 (0)	5
F_02	F_02_1	1	4	1 (2)	4
	F_02_2	2	4	1 (4)	5
	F_02_3	3	4	1 (4)	2
	F_02_4	4	4	1 (4)	4
	F_02_5	5	4	1 (4)	5
F_03	F_03_1	1	4	1 (3)	4
	F_03_2	2	4	1 (4)	5
	F_03_3	3	4	1 (4)	4
	F_03_4	4	4	1 (4)	5

Supplementary materials legends.

Figure S1. An overview of virus family prevalence in chicken feces and farm dust samples. Associated metadata is shown at the top panel. The color intensity of the heatmap (bottom panel) is determined by number of contigs with minimum length of 300 nt, at least 70% identity and an e-value threshold of 1×10^{-10} when comparing with closest reference in our database. Sample order is assorted by farm ID, sampling time point. Time point is an arbitrary number. Samples were collected at the same time and place when both Farm ID and Time point match.

Figure S2. An overview of picornavirus genera prevalence in chicken feces and farm dust samples. Associated metadata is shown at the top panel. The color intensity of the heatmap (bottom panel) is determined by number of contigs with minimum length of 300 nt, at least 70% identity and an e-value threshold of 1×10^{-10} when comparing with closest reference in our database. Sample order is assorted by farm ID, sampling time point. Time point is an arbitrary number. Samples were collected at the same time and place when both Farm ID and Time point match.

Table S1. A list of corresponding BioProject, BioSample and SRA accession numbers for all samples.

Table S2. A list of corresponding GenBank accession numbers for sequences used in phylogenetic analyses.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

0.5 aa subs/site

Figure 4

Farm ID

F_01
F_02
F_03

Chicken_V_M_048_picorna_1
Chicken_V_M_047_picorna_3
Chicken_V_M_046_picorna_18
Chicken_V_M_045_picorna_1
Dust_VE_8_picorna_99
Chicken_MG846482_RSBR20153R_BRA_2015
Chicken_MN873047_GA1478_USA_2003
Dust_VE_8_picorna_68
Chicken_V_M_050_picorna_3
Chicken_V_M_056_picorna_2
Chicken_KT880665_PfCHK1SiV_HUN_2013
Chicken_MT225405_UTGMasoumi_IRN_2017
Chicken_KF741227_UCC001_IRL
Chicken_V_M_017_picorna_4
Chicken_V_M_019_picorna_4
Chicken_V_M_040_picorna_3
Dust_VE_7_picorna_3
Dust_VE_6_picorna_131
Chicken_MN873048_GA1479_USA_2004
Chicken_KY069112_RSBR20151_BRA_2015
Chicken_MG846483_RSBR20151R1_BRA_2015
Chicken_KY069113_RSBR20152_BRA_2015
Chicken_MG846485_RSBR20154S_BRA_2015
Chicken_MG846486_RSBR20155S_BRA_2015
Chicken_MG846481_RSBR20154R_BRA_2015
Chicken_NC_024765_55C_HKG_2008
Chicken_KF979332_100C_HKG_2009
Chicken_V_M_005_picorna_5
Chicken_V_M_034_picorna_3
Chicken_KP779642_JSY_CHN

0.2 nt subs/site

Figure 5

Figure 6

Farm ID
F_01
F_02
F_03

Chicken_V_M_052_calici_7
Dust_VE_8_calici_66
Chicken_V_M_041_calici_11
Chicken_V_M_050_calici_2
Chicken_V_M_051_calici_5
Chicken_V_M_019_calici_3
Chicken_V_M_030_calici_8
Chicken_V_M_056_calici_1
Chicken_V_M_053_calici_1
Chicken_V_M_054_calici_1
Chicken_V_M_036_calici_2
Chicken_JQ347523_F10026n_DEU_2010
Chicken_JQ347527_F10034n_DEU_2010
C1

AmericanBlackDuck_MN175556_B76_CAN_2015
Mallard_MN175552_B6_CAN_2015
Avian_MT138028_xftoti59cal1_CHN_2018
PinkEaredDuck_MK204416_MW23_AUS2017
Penguin_MT025075_ATA_Antarctic11_2016
Turkey_JQ347522_L11043_DEU_2011

Chicken_V_M_021_calici_5
Chicken_V_M_029_calici_1
Chicken_V_M_032_calici_1
Chicken_HQ010042_Bavaria04V0021_DEU_2004
Chicken_MN810875_GA1479_USA_2004
Chicken_KM254170_CALICID62_KOR_2013
Chicken_KM254171_CaliciQ45_KOR_2013
Chicken_MG846434_RS−BR−15−1R−1_BRA_2015
Chicken_MG846433_RS−BR−15−6R_BRA_2015
C2

Human_JX993277_BE−HPI01_DEU_2012
Human_MF431582_GI.2_IRL_2016

0.5 aa subs/site

Figure 7

Supplementary Figure 1

Supplementary Figure 2

Supplementary Materials

Figure S1. An overview of virus family prevalence in chicken feces and farm dust samples. Associated metadata is shown at the top panel. The color intensity of the heatmap (bottom panel) is determined by number of contigs with minimum length of 300 nt, at least 70% identity and an e-value threshold of 1×10^{-10} when comparing with closest reference in our database. Sample order is assorted by farm ID, sampling time point. Time point is an arbitrary number. Samples were collected at the same time and place when both Farm ID and Time point match.

Figure S2. An overview of picornavirus genera prevalence in chicken feces and farm dust samples. Associated metadata is shown at the top panel. The color intensity of the heatmap (bottom panel) is determined by number of contigs with minimum length of 300 nt, at least 70% identity and an e-value threshold of 1×10^{-10} when comparing with closest reference in our database. Sample order is assorted by farm ID, sampling time point. Time point is an arbitrary number. Samples were collected at the same time and place when both Farm ID and Time point match.