

1 Transcriptome Mining Reveals a Spectrum of RNA

2 Viruses in Primitive Plants

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15 Running Head: Mining Reveals RNA Viruses in Primitive Plants

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20 **Abstract**

21 Current knowledge of plant viruses stems largely from those affecting economically important
22 plants. Yet, plant species in cultivation represent a small and bias subset of the plant kingdom.
23 Here, we describe virus diversity and abundance from a survey of 1079 transcriptomes from
24 species across the breadth of the plant kingdom (Archaeplastida) by analysing open-source
25 data from the One Thousand Plant Transcriptomes Initiative (1KP). We identified 104 potentially
26 novel viruses, of which 40% comprised single-stranded positive-sense RNA viruses across eight
27 orders, including members of the *Hepelivirales*, *Tymovirales*, *Cryppavirales*, *Martellivirales* and
28 *Picornavirales*. One-third of the newly described viruses comprised double-stranded RNA
29 viruses from the orders *Durnavirales* and *Ghabrivirales*. The remaining were negative-sense
30 RNA viruses from the *Rhabdoviridae*, *Aspiviridae*, *Yueviridae*, *Phenuiviridae* and the newly
31 proposed *Viridisbunyaviridae*. Our analysis considerably expands the known host range of 13
32 virus families to include lower plants (e.g., *Benyviridae* and *Secoviridae*) and four virus families
33 to include algae hosts (e.g., *Tymoviridae* and *Chrysoviridae*). The discovery of the first 30 kDa
34 movement protein in a non-vascular plant, suggests that the acquisition of plant virus movement
35 proteins occurred prior to the emergence of the plant vascular system. More broadly, however,
36 a co-phylogeny analysis revealed that the evolutionary history of these families is largely driven
37 by cross-species transmission events. Together, these data highlight that numerous RNA virus
38 families are associated with older evolutionary plant lineages than previously thought and that
39 the scarcity of RNA viruses found in lower plants to date likely reflects a lack of investigation
40 rather than their absence.

41 **Importance**

42 Our knowledge of plant viruses is mainly limited to those infecting economically important host
43 species. In particular, we know little about those viruses infecting primitive plant lineages such
44 as the ferns, lycophytes, bryophytes and charophytes. To expand this understanding, we
45 conducted a broad-scale viral survey of species across the breadth of the plant kingdom. We
46 find that primitive plants harbour a wide diversity of RNA viruses including some that are
47 sufficiently divergent to comprise a new virus family. The primitive plant virome we reveal offers
48 key insights into the evolutionary history of core plant virus gene modules and genome
49 segments. More broadly, this work emphasises that the scarcity of viruses found in these
50 species to date likely reflects the absence of research in this area.

51 **1. Introduction**

52 Viruses are responsible for almost 50% of all emerging plant disease (1). Historically, virus
53 identification and characterisation have focused on pathogenic viruses that infect species of
54 economic importance with 69% of the current phytovirosphere — the total assemblage of
55 viruses across the plant kingdom — discovered in cultivated plant species even though they
56 represent less than 0.17% of all known plant diversity (2, 3). Importantly, the advent of
57 metagenomic sequencing technology enables the comprehensive screening of plant tissues for
58 novel and known viruses (4). Despite this, virus diversity in the vast majority of plants remains
59 unquantified (5).

60 Our ability to infer the origins and diversification of the phytovirosphere from genomic data
61 requires adequate sampling of the viruses across the plant kingdom. Several key plant groups
62 are severely underrepresented or absent in previous studies of the phytovirosphere, including
63 green algae (excluding the Chlorophytes), lower plants, gymnosperms and several angiosperm
64 orders (5, 6). Improving knowledge across these groups will undoubtedly help uncover the
65 evolutionary history of plant virus lineages. For instance, an analysis of the evolutionary history
66 of viruses from algal ancestors might reveal deep associations that shaped the trajectory of
67 plant evolution, including how the key evolutionary transitions of plants – such as
68 terrestrialisation – have shaped the contemporary land plant virome (5). Similarly, through broad
69 sampling across the plant kingdom, we can gain a stronger understanding of the acquisition of
70 viruses through cross-species transmission from plant-associated organisms such as
71 invertebrates, fungi, or protists (5).

72 The majority (68%) of the currently documented genera of plant viruses have positive-sense
73 single-stranded RNA (+ssRNA) genomes and the majority of virus diversity is known only from
74 angiosperms (7) (Figure 1). Currently, 16 viruses belonging to 12 virus families have been found

75 in gymnosperms (8-12). Outside of several viruses found in ferns, we know little of the diversity
76 of viruses in the lycophytes, bryophytes and charophytes that together encompass ~27,000
77 species (13-16) (Figure 1). A partial analysis of published transcriptome data detected
78 homologs of the canonical RNA virus RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) in algae,
79 several lower plants and gymnosperms (17). However, it is yet to be determined whether
80 viruses that infect freshwater algae – that include the *Zygnematophyceae* ancestors of land
81 plants – resemble those infecting angiosperms or that of the green algae (chlorophytes) which
82 are dominated by double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) viruses particularly from the *Phycodnaviridae*
83 (18). To date, two +ssRNA viruses related to the benyvirids have been identified in freshwater
84 algae (19, 20). Unlike the Chlorophyta, the Charophyta characteristically contain
85 plasmodesmata and homologs of the key components of the land plant innate immune system,
86 both of which have been speculated to explain the absence of double-strand (ds) DNA viruses
87 in land plants (5, 21, 22). An understanding of the viruses infecting the Charophyta and other
88 lower plants is required to effectively test these ideas.

89 Transcriptome mining has become an inexpensive and efficient method of virus discovery that
90 leverages previous investment (23-29). To this end, we mined the transcriptome data generated
91 by the One Thousand Plant Transcriptomes Initiative (1KP) using sequence homology searches
92 of known plant viruses. The 1KP project provides a major untapped source of polyA-selected
93 transcriptome data for virus discovery drawn from species across the breadth of the plants in a
94 broad sense including green plants (Viridiplantae), glaucophytes (Glaucophyta), red algae
95 (Rhodophyta) (30, 31). Our broad aim was to revise our understanding of the phytovirosphere
96 using data across the plant kingdom and undertake phylogenetic analyses of plant viruses to
97 provide insights into their origins and diversification.

98 **2. Methods**

99 **2.1 Transcriptome data generation**

100 The 1KP generated RNA sequencing libraries from 1,143 species across the breadth of the
101 plant kingdom (30). In addition, 30 Chromista and red alga species were also included. Due to
102 the diversity of species examined, samples were obtained from multiple sources including field
103 collections, greenhouses, culture collections and laboratory specimens (32). For the majority of
104 species, young leaves or shoots were collected, although occasionally a mix of vegetative and
105 reproductive tissues was used. To avoid RNA degradation, RNA extraction was performed
106 immediately after tissue collection or tissue was frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored in a -80°C
107 until extraction (32). Several extraction protocols were used including CTAB and TRIzol (see
108 (32) for complete details). All sequencing was conducted at BGI-Shenzhen, China, using a
109 combination of in-house protocols or TruSeq chemistry (32). All libraries were prepared from
110 polyA RNA. Paired-end sequencing was initially completed using Illumina GAII machines (11%
111 of libraries) with a ~72bp read length but later the HiSeq platform was used (89% of libraries)
112 with a 90 bp read length (32).

113 **2.2 Surveying for viruses in the 1KP**

114 Raw transcriptomes (n = 1079, belonging to 960 plants species) from the 1KP major release
115 were downloaded from the NCBI Short Read Archive (SRA) database (BioProject accession
116 PRJEB21674) and converted to FASTQ format using the SRA Toolkit program fastq-dump in
117 combination with the parallel-fastq-dump wrapper (<https://github.com/rvalieris/parallel-fastq-dump>)
118 dump) (33). One hundred transcriptomes within the BioProject were not publicly available
119 (released 22/08/2019) at the commencement of this study and thus not analysed.
120 Transcriptomes from the 1KP pilot study (BioProject accession PRJEB4921) and secondary
121 project (BioProject accession PRJEB8056) were similarly not analysed. To reduce the
122 downstream computing resources needed, raw sequences were mapped to their respective

123 host genome scaffold using bowtie2 (34). Genome scaffolds were assembled as part of a
124 previous study (30). Where genome scaffolds were not available (n = 2) all reads were
125 assembled *de novo*. Trinity RNA-seq (v2.1.1) was used to quality trim and assemble *de novo*
126 the unaligned reads captured from mapping (35). The assembled contigs were then assigned to
127 known virus families and annotated through similarity searches against the NCBI nucleotide
128 database (nt), the non-redundant protein database (nr) and a custom viral RdRp database using
129 BLASTN and Diamond (BLASTX) (36, 37). To filter out weak BLAST sequence matches an e-
130 value cut-off of 1×10^{-10} was employed. To identify potential false positives, putative viral
131 contigs were manually compared across the three BLAST searches (nt, nr and RdRp) to ensure
132 matches to virus-associated sequences were consistent.

133 **2.3 Virus filtering and abundance calculations**

134 For all analyses, we focused on virus families known to infect plants or algae. As our analyses
135 rely on sequence-based similarity searches for virus detection it is necessarily biased towards
136 viruses that exhibit to existing virus families. Together, the Virus-Host database (38) and the
137 International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (39) were used to develop a list of plant virus
138 families and genera to filter out virus-like contigs associated with vertebrate, invertebrate or
139 fungi hosts based upon their top BLASTx and BLASTn matches. Packages within the Tidyverse
140 collection (v1.3.0) in RStudio were used to complete these tasks (40-42). Where the host was
141 ambiguous (e.g., belonged to a family or genera known to infect both plant and fungal species)
142 the contig was inspected manually.

143 The relative abundance of each transcript within the host transcriptome was calculated using
144 RNA-Seq by Expectation-Maximization (v1.2.28) (43). To account for variation in the number of
145 unaligned reads between libraries after mapping, contig abundance was standardised by the

146 total number of unaligned paired reads. Contigs under 200 nucleotides in length were excluded
147 from further analysis.

148 **2.4 Genome extension and annotation**

149 Where a novel virus-like contig was discovered, we re-assembled the complete library – without
150 removing host reads – in an attempt to recover a complete virus genome. For all re-assembled
151 libraries, we recalculated abundance measurements to account for both host and non-host
152 reads. The recalculated abundance measurements are shown in Supplementary Table 4. We
153 further re-assembled all libraries belonging to non-flowering plants (n = 402). Reads were
154 mapped onto virus-like contigs using Bbmap and heterogeneous coverage and potential
155 misassemblies were manually resolved using Geneious (v11.0.9) (44, 45).

156 To determine whether a virus was novel, we followed the criteria as specified by The
157 International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (39) (<http://www.ictvonline.org/>). Novel viruses
158 were named using a combination of the host common name - if documented – and the
159 associated virus taxonomic group (e.g., *Interrupted club-moss deltapartivirus*). In cases where
160 host assignment proved difficult the suffix “associated” was added to the host name to signify
161 this (e.g., *Calypogeia fissa associated deltaflexivirus*). Where the taxonomic position of a virus
162 was ambiguous the suffix “-like” was used (e.g., *Goldenrod fern qin-like virus*). Virus acronyms
163 were created using a combination of the first and/or second letters of the host common name - if
164 documented – and virus taxonomic group (e.g., *Leucodon julaceus beny-like virus* (LjBV)).
165 Where multiple related viruses were found in the same host, we assigned each a number (e.g.,
166 *Odontoschisma prostratum bunyavirus 3* (OdprBV3)).

167 The percentage identity among virus sequences was calculated via multiple sequence
168 alignments using Clustal Omega (v1.2.3) (46). The RdRp protein coding domain was used for

169 all sequence alignments. Percentage identity matrices were converted to heat map plots using a
170 custom R script provided by (28).

171 To characterise functional domains, predicted protein sequences along with their closest viral
172 relatives were subjected to a domain-based search using the Conserved Domain Database
173 (v3.18) (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/cdd/cdd.shtml>) and cross-referenced with the
174 PFAM (v34.0) and Uniclust30 (v2018_08) databases available within the MMseqs2 webserver
175 (47). To recover additional annotations, we used HHpred within the MPI Bioinformatics Toolkit
176 webserver to query the PDB_mmCIF70 (v.12_Oct), SCOPe70 (v2.08), UniProt-SwissProt-
177 viral70 (v3_Nov_2021) and TIGRFAMs (v15.0) databases (48). Virus genome diagrams were
178 produced using the program littlegenomes (49). Where available NCBI/GenBank CDS
179 information was used to annotate reference virus sequences (50).

180 **2.5 Detection of endogenous virus elements**

181 All genome scaffolds produced by the 1KP were used as a database in which we queried using
182 the protein translations of the viruses discovered in this study. Endogenous viral elements (i.e.,
183 EVEs) were detected using the tblastn algorithm (51). The search threshold was limited to 100
184 amino acids in length with an e-value cut off of 1×10^{-20} . Where multiple hits across several plant
185 scaffolds were observed we manually examined the sequence. Suspected endogenous virus
186 sequences were queried against a subset whole-genome shotgun contig database which
187 included green plants (taxid: 33090) and red algae (taxid: 2763). In addition, the virus-like
188 sequences discovered in this study were checked for host gene contamination using the
189 contamination function implemented in CheckV (v0.8.1) (52). All potential endogenous
190 sequences were removed from further analyses.

191 **2.6 Assessing library contamination by eukaryotes, bacteria, and protozoa**

192 For libraries in which a novel virus was discovered we investigated whether reads belonging to
193 other eukaryotes were also present in the sequencing libraries. To achieve this, we obtained
194 taxonomic identification for raw reads in each library – without the removal of host reads – by
195 aligning them to the NCBI nt database using the KMA aligner and the CCMetagen program (53,
196 54). Sequence abundance was calculated by counting the number of nucleotides matching the
197 reference sequence with an additional correction for template length (the default parameter in
198 KMA). Krona charts generated by CCMetagen were edited were further edited in Adobe
199 Illustrator (<https://www.adobe.com>) (55). Library contamination was also assessed by the 1KP
200 and used to inform our host-virus assignments (31).

201 **2.7 Phylogenetic analysis of plant viruses**

202 Phylogenetic trees of the plant-associated viruses discovered here were inferred using a
203 maximum likelihood approach. We combined our translated virus contigs with known virus
204 protein sequences from each respective virus family taken from NCBI/GenBank (50).
205 Sequences were then aligned with the program Clustal Omega (v1.2.3) with default parameters
206 (46). Sites of ambiguity were removed using trimAl (v1.2) (56). To estimate phylogenetic trees,
207 selection of the best-fit model of amino acid substitution was determined using the Akaike
208 information criterion, corrected AIC, and the Bayesian information criterion with the ModelFinder
209 function (-m MFP) in IQ-TREE (57, 58). All phylogenetic trees were created using IQ-TREE with
210 1000 bootstrap replicates. Phylogenetic trees were annotated with FigTree (v1.4.4) (59) and
211 further edited in Adobe Illustrator (<https://www.adobe.com>).

212 To visualise the occurrence of cross-species transmission and virus-host co-divergence across
213 plant virus families, we reconciled the co-phylogenetic relationship between viruses and their
214 hosts. For each select plant virus family, a vascular plant host cladogram was constructed using

215 trees from (60) and (61), using the R package V.PhyloMaker (v0.1.0) (62). As lower plants and
216 non-plant species are not present in the V.PhyloMaker megatree, these hosts were added to the
217 cladogram using the software phyloT, a phylogenetic tree generator based on NCBI taxonomy
218 (<http://phyloT.biobyte.de/>) as well as topologies available in the appropriate literature. The host
219 information was obtained from the NCBI Virus database (accessed 14/12/2021) and available
220 literature (63) A tanglegram that graphically represents the correspondence between host and
221 virus trees was created using the R packages phytools (v0.7-80) and APE (v5.5) (64, 65). Virus
222 sequences from each family were obtained through a broad survey of all virus genomic data
223 available on GenBank. The virus phylogenies used in the co-phylogenies were constructed as
224 detailed above. To quantify the relative frequencies of cross-species transmission versus virus-
225 host co-divergence we reconciled the co-phylogenetic relationship between viruses and their
226 hosts using the Jane co-phylogenetic software package (66). Jane employs a maximum
227 parsimony approach to determine the best ‘map’ of the virus phylogeny onto the host
228 phylogeny. The cost of duplication, host-jump and extinction event types were set to one, while
229 host-virus co-divergence was set to zero as it was considered the likely null event. Following the
230 parsimony principle, the reconciliation proceeds by minimising the total event cost. The number
231 of generations and the population size was both set to 100. Jane was chosen over its successor
232 eMPress as it allows for a virus to be associated with multiple host species and handle
233 polytomies (67). For a multi-host virus, we represented each association as a polytomy on the
234 virus phylogeny.

235 **2.8 Assigning plant host clades**

236 Each plant host was assigned to each clade in a previous study based upon their phylogenetic
237 positioning and lineage information (30). To improve clarity when colouring the phylogenies
238 (although not the tanglegrams) we reduced the number of clades from 25 to ten (core eudicots,

239 basal eudicots, monocots, basalmost angiosperms, gymnosperms, fern and fern allies, non-
240 vascular, green algae, red algae and lastly Chromista) by combining those that were closely
241 related or potentially overlapping to increase the number of species in each group (SI Table 1).

242 **2.9 Data availability**

243 The raw One Thousand Plant Transcriptomes Initiative sequence reads are available at
244 BioProject PRJEB21674. All viral genomes and corresponding sequences assembled in this
245 study have been deposited in NCBI GenBank and assigned accession numbers xxxx-yyyy.

246 **3. Results**

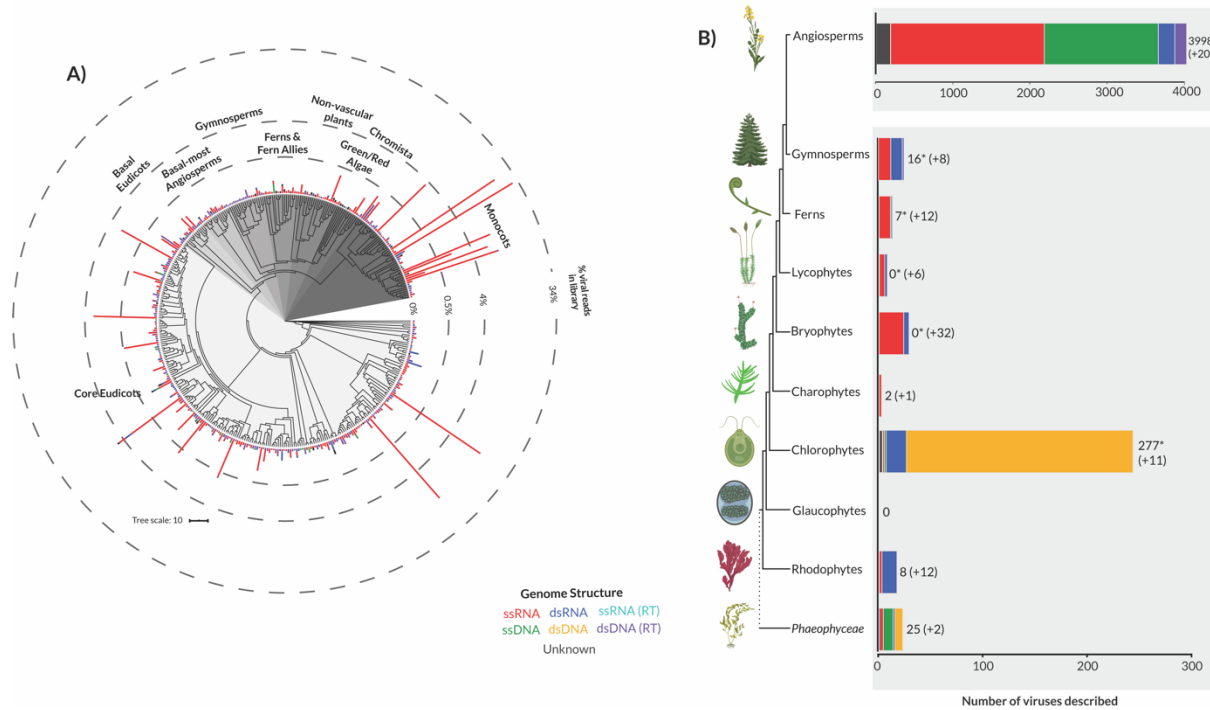
247 We characterised the viruses found in the transcriptomes of 960 plant species within the 1KP
248 major release. The transcriptomes represented a broad taxonomic sampling across the
249 Archaeplastida (green plants, glaucophytes and red algae). Sequencing libraries had a median
250 of 25,187,714 paired reads (range 10,156,464–46,650,336). A median of 82% of reads (range
251 1%-96%) in these libraries mapped to host genome scaffolds and were subsequently removed.
252 *De novo* assembly of the sequencing reads resulted in a median of 36,015 contigs (range
253 1,396–146,217) per library, with a total of 41,256,176 contigs generated (SI Table 2).

254 **3.1 Diversity and abundance of plant viruses**

255 In total, virus-like transcripts were found for 603 plant species; 69% of these were plant-
256 associated while numerous identified sequences shared high similarity to non-plant associated
257 viruses including those known to infect fungi, invertebrate and vertebrate hosts. Among the non-
258 plant-associated virus transcripts, 34% were unclassified (10% of total virus-like transcripts)
259 such that they were most closely related to a virus sequence with little to no taxonomic
260 information (i.e., a virus sequence classified as only belonging to the *Riboviria*). If an RdRp-like
261 region was detected in an unclassified virus-like transcript we further assessed whether it could

262 be plant-associated (see Phylogenetic analysis of identified viruses). The remaining non-plant-
263 associated virus transcripts were largely classified within the *Orthomyxoviridae* (vertebrate
264 associated) (25%), *Rhabdoviridae* (invertebrate associated) (17%), *Partitiviridae* (fungus
265 associated) (10%), *Mimiviridae* (amoeboid associated) (10%) and *Adenoviridae* (vertebrate
266 associated) (7%) and excluded from the remainder of this study. These sequences are
267 discussed in more detail in the section on “Presence of contaminants in sequencing libraries”
268 below. Although some of these viruses could represent plant infection it remains challenging to
269 discern and we, therefore, made the conservative decision to remove them from the analysis.

270 We detected transcripts closely associated with viruses containing single and double-stranded
271 DNA and RNA genomes. The majority of virus-like sequences belonged to families with
272 +ssRNA genomes (61%) or reverse-transcribing dsDNA viruses (22%) (Figure 1). The +ssRNA
273 virus transcripts were predominately classified within the *Betaflexiviridae* (30%), *Potyviridae*
274 (19%), *Secoviridae* (16%) and *Alphaflexiviridae* (10%) (SI Table 3). Negative-sense single-
275 stranded RNA (-ssRNA) virus transcripts were classified within the *Aspiviridae* (0.04%),
276 *Rhabdoviridae* (6%) and *Tospoviridae* (3%) (*Phenuiviridae* and *Yueviridae* transcripts were later
277 detected in the unclassified virus-like transcripts) (SI Table 3). dsDNA virus transcripts with
278 sequence similarities to the *Phycodnaviridae* were detected across the algae samples. These
279 phycodna-like virus transcripts frequently encoded the chitinase and DNA ligase genes which
280 are homologous to those in distantly related host organisms including fungi and bacteria. Due to
281 the difficulties discerning whether these transcripts represent *Phycodnaviridae* sequences or
282 contamination, we excluded all phycodnavirus-related sequences. All remaining dsDNA viruses
283 were exclusively reverse-transcribing viruses from the *Caulimoviridae*. We failed to detect any
284 sequences that shared homology with several plant virus families including *Reoviridae*,
285 *Nanoviridae* and *Fimoviridae* (although see the Discussion for caveats).



286

287 **Figure 1.** (A) Phylogram of virus composition across the One Thousand Plant Transcriptomes

288 Initiative (1KP) samples. Plant-associated virus abundance was summarised for each plant

289 species and normalised using a Box-Cox transformation. The height of each bar represents the

290 percentage of virus reads detected in each plant species (after the removal of host reads). Plant

291 clades are labelled and differentiated by shades of grey. The 1KP ASTRAL tree was used as

292 the basis for this tree (30). Clade and abundance annotations were added using the Interactive

293 Tree of Life (iTOL) web-based tool (109). (B) The phytovirosphere across the Plantae and

294 *Phaeophyceae*. A schematic tree of the evolution of major plant groups. Each bar represents

295 the number of total viruses formally or likely associated with each host group and is coloured by

296 virus genome composition. The total number of viruses for each plant group plus those found in

297 this study is also shown at the end of each bar. The Virus-Host (38) and NCBI virus databases

298 (110) combined with literature searches were used to obtain virus counts. Lineage branches are

299 not drawn to scale. To our knowledge, no viruses have been found in the Glaucophytes. Plant

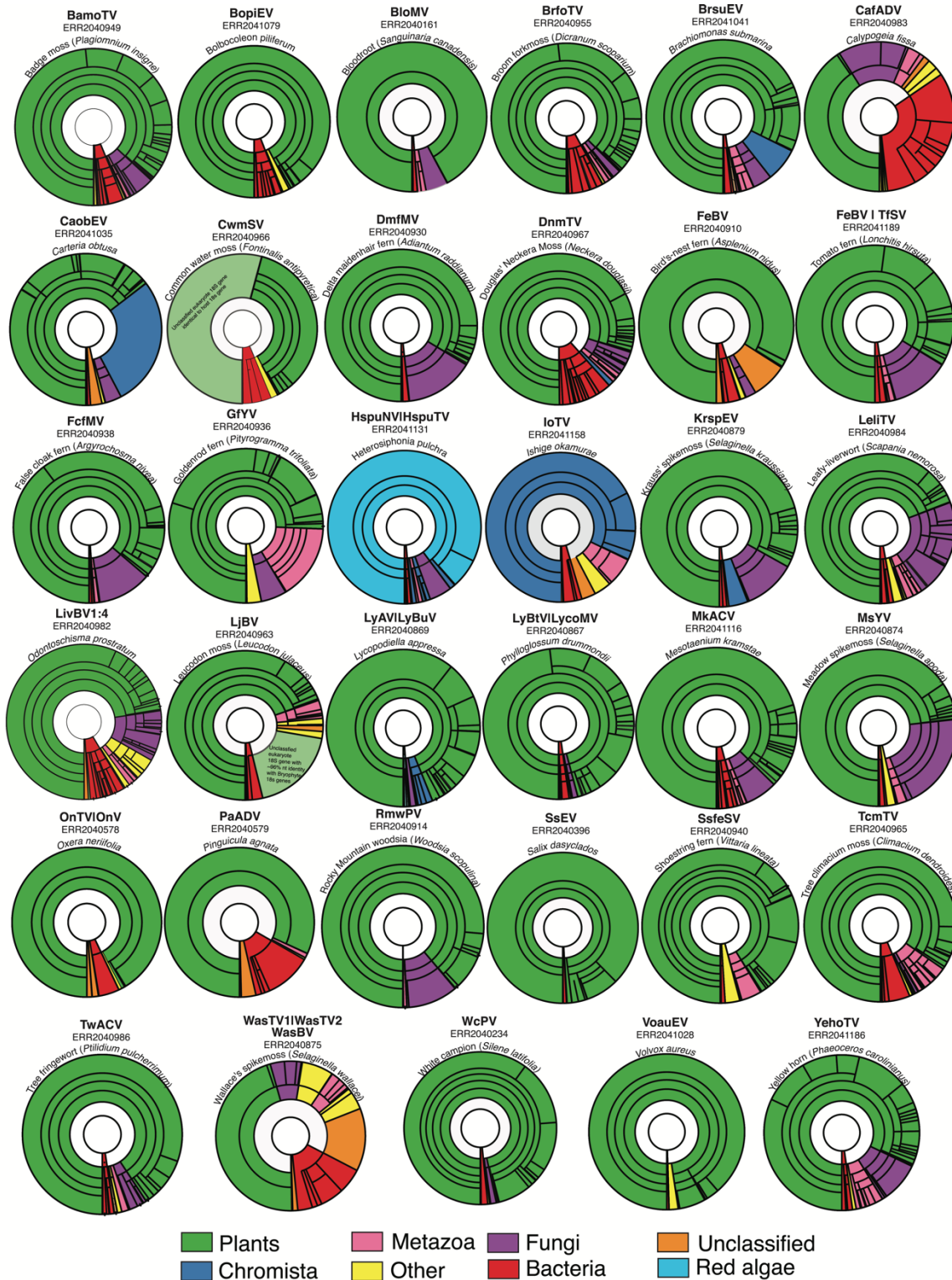
300 and algae images were obtained from BioRender.com or drawn in Adobe Illustrator

301 (<https://www.adobe.com>). *Transcriptome scaffolds from libraries belonging to these host
302 groups shared homology to virus RdRps and were partially analysed but not assembled or
303 deposited to GenBank (17).

304 There was a large range of total viral abundance in each library ($5 \times 10^{-6}\%$ – 31% reads after
305 host-associated reads were removed). Viruses with +ssRNA genomes accounted for the vast
306 majority (99.8%) of virus abundance detected (Figure 1, SI Table 3). As expected, virus
307 discovery was concentrated in the flowering plants (angiosperms), which have the highest
308 number of previously classified viruses. For instance, plant virus-like sequences were frequently
309 discovered in the core eudicots and monocots (i.e., 73% of libraries in which plant virus
310 transcripts were found). The detection rate of plant viruses was highest in the most basal
311 angiosperms (57%) and monocots (50%). No significant difference in virus abundance was
312 observed between sequencing platforms (Genome Analyzer II and Illumina HiSeq 2000;
313 $p=0.327$).

314 **3.2 Presence of contaminants in sequencing libraries**

315 The bacterial, fungal and insect species that live in or on plant tissues are commonly sampled
316 within plant sequencing libraries (31), although contamination from other plants is also a
317 possibility during sample preparation or sequencing. To quantify the extent of library
318 contamination we used the KMA and CCMetagen tools (Figure 2). Among the libraries analysed
319 ($n = 95$), bacteria were consistently detected representing a median of 1.5% of total abundance
320 (range 0.01%-33%). A median of 2% of library abundance was associated with fungi sequences
321 (range 0%-53%). Arthropods and chordates were also commonly detected across libraries
322 (found in 87 and 89 libraries, respectively) but at lower abundance (median 0.15%, range 0%-
323 11.4%). The presence of chordate associated reads is likely attributed to various routes of
324 sample contamination (e.g., faeces) or during sample processing and sequencing.



325

326 **Figure 2. Taxonomic assignments of reads in select One Thousand Plant Transcriptomes**

327 **Initiative (1KP) libraries.** Each Krona graph illustrates the relative abundance of taxa in a

328 metatranscriptome at varying taxonomic levels. For clarity, a maximum depth of five taxonomic
329 levels was chosen for each graph. The library Sequence Read Archive accession number, host
330 species, and the corresponding virus of interest are annotated above each graph. Segments are
331 highlighted based upon the species taxonomic grouping (plants = green, Chromista = blue,
332 unclassified = orange, bacteria = red, metazoa = pink, fungi = purple, red algae = light blue,
333 other = yellow). Here “plants” encompasses the Viridiplantae. Reads without any match in the nt
334 database are not shown.

335 The detection of four vertebrate associated viruses across several libraries provided further
336 evidence of library contamination. Sequences belonging to these viruses - *Influenza A virus* (16
337 libraries), *Human mastadenovirus C* (30 libraries), *Human immunodeficiency virus* (15 libraries)
338 and *Parainfluenza virus 5* (3 libraries) – were present at low abundance and showed little
339 genetic variation between libraries. Notably, chordate-associated reads were only present in
340 66% of libraries in which these viruses were found. The failure to consistently detect potential
341 hosts for these viruses suggests contamination during sequencing. The four vertebrate
342 associated viruses were largely absent in libraries in which novel plant-associated viruses were
343 discovered, except for the *Larix speciosa*, *Brachiomonas submarina*, *Climacium dendroides*,
344 *Silene latifolia* and *Oxera neriifolia* transcriptomes.

345 In addition, the 1KP compared all assembled sequences to a reference set of nuclear 18S
346 ribosomal RNA sequences from the SILVA small subunit rRNA database using BLASTn (31,
347 68). Where a sample had several alignments to any other plant sequences outside of the
348 expected source family the sample was described as having “worrisome contamination” (31).
349 This applied to eleven plant libraries in which novel viruses were identified. Below, we discuss
350 library contaminates from viewpoint of virus-host associations.

351 **3.3 Phylogenetic analysis of identified viruses**

352 To infer phylogenetic relationships between identified viruses, order and family-level
353 phylogenetic trees were estimated using the highly conserved viral region that comprises the
354 RdRp. In total, we assembled 104 RdRp contigs that likely represent novel virus species, of
355 which 41 were considered as unclassified or non-plant associated due to their similarities to
356 virus groups known to infect non-plant hosts (SI Table 4). Further analysis of these contigs
357 revealed that they are likely plant-associated.

358 **3.3.1 Positive-sense single-stranded RNA ((+)ssRNA) viruses**

359 ***Hepelivirales***

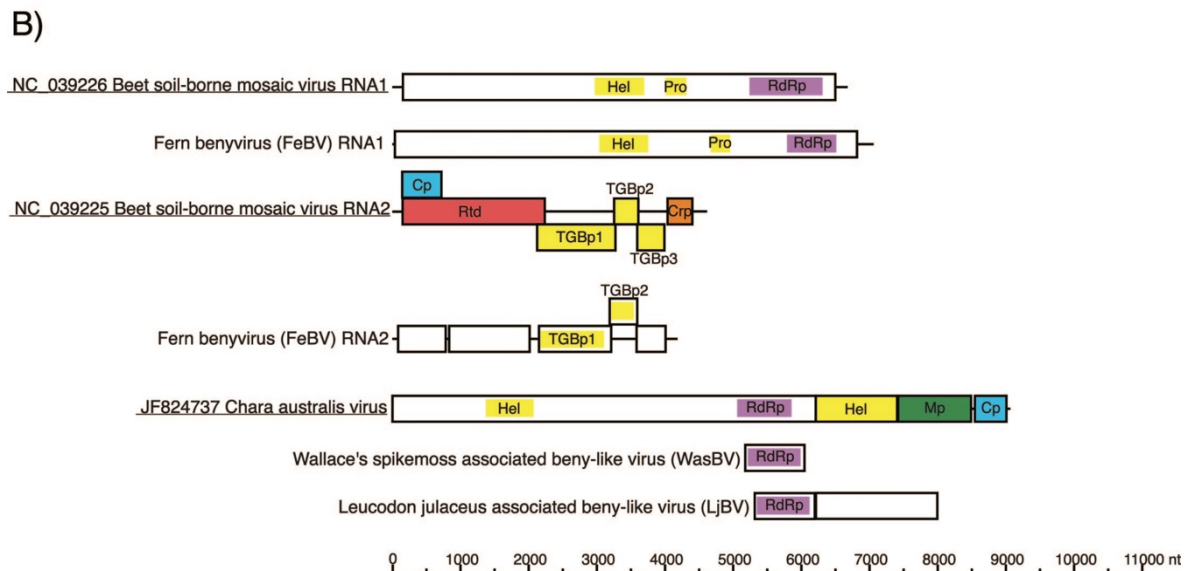
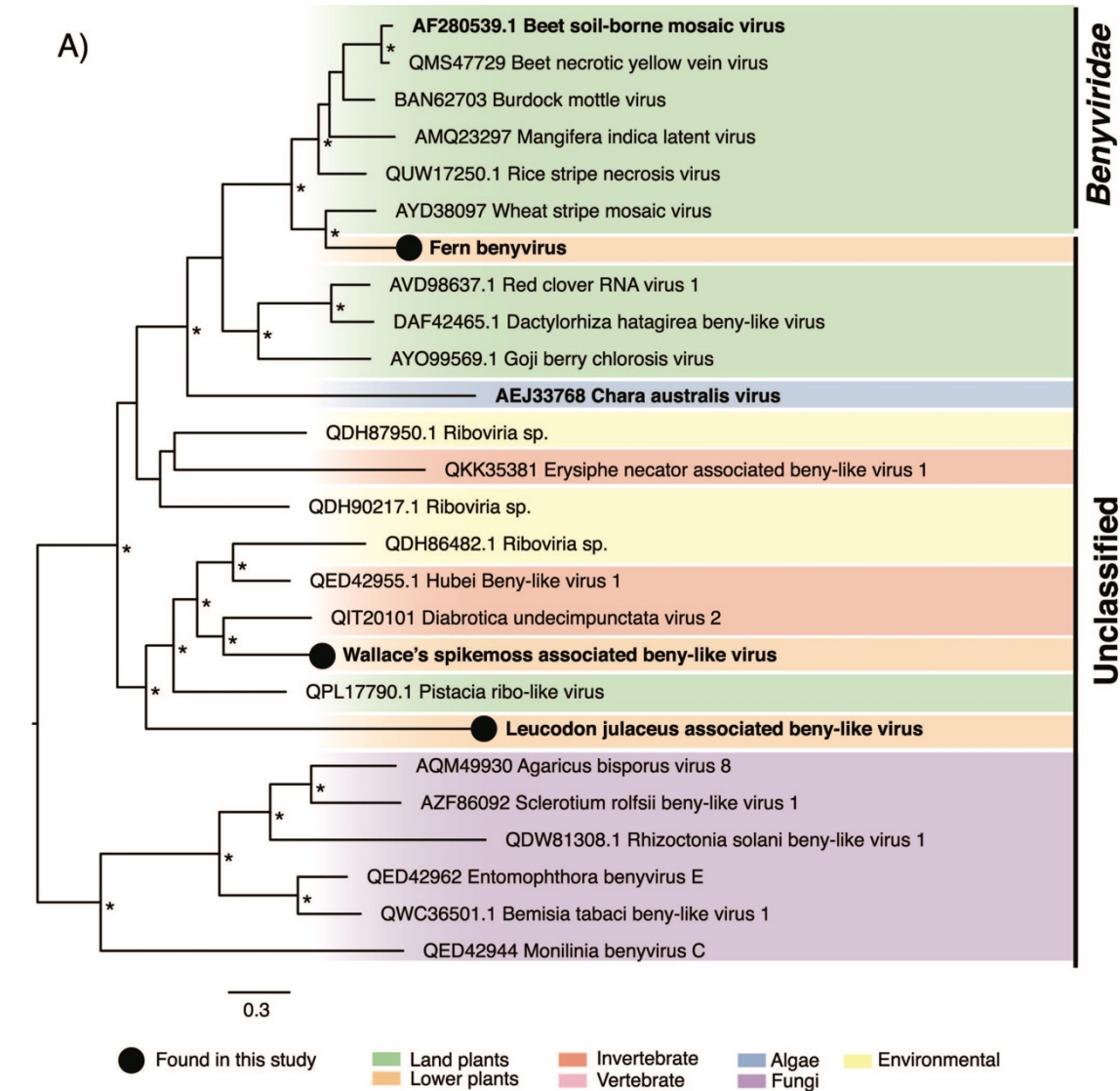
360 ***Benyviridae***. We identified three beny-like sequences that to our knowledge represent the first
361 benyvirid found in lower plants. The first sequence, tentatively named *Fern benyvirus* (FeBV),
362 was found in both the bird's-nest fern (*Asplenium nidus*) and tomato fern (*Lonchitis hirsuta*).
363 Together with *Wheat stripe mosaic virus*, FeBV represents a well-supported clade separate
364 from the remaining plant benyviruses (Figure 3).

365 The triple gene block (TGB) is a hallmark gene module of the *Benyviridae* among several other
366 virus families in the class *Alsuviricetes* (69)). In both fern libraries, proteins resembling the TGB
367 were assembled (Figure 3). The TGB proteins shared ~34% amino acid identity with the TGB
368 protein of other benyvirids. To our knowledge, this is the first TGB protein found outside of
369 flowering plants. Phylogenetic analysis placed the TGB1 protein of FeBV basal to the
370 *Benyviridae* (SI figure 1).

371 Two additional beny-like viruses, named here *Leucodon julaceus associated beny-like virus*
372 (LjBV) and *Wallace's spikemoss associated beny-like virus* (WasBV) were assembled. LjBV and
373 WasBV cluster with unclassified algae, invertebrates, fungi and soil-derived viruses forming a
374 group basal to all plant benyvirids and potentially constitute a novel virus group (Figure 3). LjBV

375 contains a second open reading frame (ORF) with no detectable homology to known sequences
376 (Figure 3).

377 Due to the phylogenetic placement of LjBV and WasBV close to viruses infecting distant hosts
378 (e.g., invertebrates and fungi), we investigated the potential of contamination from other
379 eukaryotes as the source of these viruses. Of note, the Wallace's spikemoss metatranscriptome
380 contained reads that matched various fungi orders (7% of all reads) as well as those matching
381 the plant-parasitic oomycete *Albugo laibachii* (7%) which makes inferring virus-host
382 relationships challenging (Figure 2). Reads belonging to various fungi species accounted for
383 10% of the bird's-nest fern transcriptome and 12% of the tomato fern transcriptome (Figure 2).
384 Despite the presence of fungi-associated reads, the phylogenetic position of FeBV suggests
385 that FeBV is likely plant-associated (Figure 3). No concerning contaminants were detected in
386 the *Leucodon julaceus* transcriptome.



388 **Figure 3.** (A) Phylogenetic relationships of the beny-like viruses identified in this study. ML
389 phylogenetic tree based on the RNA-1 replicase protein shows the topological position of virus-
390 like sequences discovered in this study (black circles) in the context of their closest relatives.
391 Branches are highlighted to represent host clade (land plants = green, lower plants = orange,
392 invertebrate = red, vertebrate = pink, algae = blue, fungi = purple, yellow = environmental,
393 Chromista = light blue, red algae = dark green). Here “Land plants” encompasses both
394 angiosperms and gymnosperms while “Lower plants” includes the bryophytes, lycophytes, and
395 ferns. All branches are scaled to the number of amino acid substitutions per site and trees were
396 mid-point rooted for clarity only. An asterisk indicates node support of >70% bootstrap support.
397 Tip labels are bolded when the genome structure is shown on the right. (B) Genomic
398 organization of the beny-like virus sequences identified in this study and representative species
399 used in the phylogeny. Beet soil-borne mosaic virus RNA three and four are not pictured here.
400 The data underlying this figure and definitions of acronyms used are presented in SI Table 5.

401 ***Tymovirales***

402 ***Betaflexiviridae.*** We identified 18 virus sequences that fell within the order *Tymovirales*. Four
403 virus transcripts were associated with the *Betaflexiviridae*. The first, named *Sea beet*
404 *betaflexivirus* (SbBV) clusters with *Agapanthus virus A*, an unclassified betaflexivirus (Figure 4).
405 The remaining sequences denoted *Iranian poppy betaflexivirus* (IpBV), *Linum macraei*
406 *betaflexivirus* (LimBV) and *Lycopod associated betaflexivirus* (LyBtV) resemble capilloviruses.
407 Notably, LyBtV may extend the known host range of the *Betaflexiviridae* from angiosperms to
408 lower plants. All sequences phylogenetically cluster with known capilloviruses and potentially
409 represent novel virus species (Figure 4). The *Phylloglossum drummondii* library in which LyBtV
410 was assembled had contamination from lycopod and dicot species (Figure 2). As the majority of

411 plant-associated reads were assigned to lycophytes (50%), LyBtV has been tentatively assigned
412 to this group.

414 **Figure 4.** Left: Phylogenetic relationships of the viruses within the order *Tymovirales*. ML
415 phylogenetic tree based on the replication protein shows the topological position of virus-like
416 sequences discovered in this study (black circles) in the context of their closest relatives. See
417 Figure 3 for the colour scheme. All branches are scaled to the number of amino acid
418 substitutions per site and trees were mid-point rooted for clarity only. An asterisk indicates node
419 support of >70% bootstrap support. Tip labels are bolded when the genome structure is shown
420 on the right. Right: Genomic organization of the virus sequences identified in this study and
421 representative species used in the phylogeny.

422 ***Tymoviridae*.** We identified 12 virus-like sequences that clustered within the *Tymoviridae* and
423 related viruses. *Ishige okamurae associated tymo-like virus* (IoTV) was detected in the brown
424 alga *Ishige okamurae* and likely represents the first virus in the order *Tymovirales* from brown
425 algae. IoTV, along with ten sequences assembled from hornworts, liverworts and bryophytes
426 grouped with tymo-like viruses from fungus and environmental samples (Figure 4). It is
427 uncertain whether the true hosts of the novel tymo-like viruses discovered here are plants.
428 Fungi contaminants were detected across these libraries but varied in abundance (range 1%-
429 21%, mean = 6%). Despite their clustering with mycotymoviruses, *Broom forkmoss associated*
430 *tymo-like virus* (BrfoTV) and *Tree climacium moss associated tymo-like virus* (TcmTV) were
431 assembled from libraries with ~1% fungal reads, highlighting the inherent difficulties in host-
432 virus assignment. Importantly, <1% of reads in *Ishige okamurae* transcriptome belonged to
433 species of fungi (Figure 2).

434 We assembled two tymo-like virus sequences denoted *Oxera neriifolia tymo-like virus* (OnTV)
435 and *Bloodroot marafivirus* (BloMV). BloMV and OnTV grouped with the unclassified *Glehnia*
436 *littoralis marafivirus* (Figure 4). Marafiviruses and tymoviruses are commonly distinguished from
437 each other based upon a highly conserved 16 nucleotide (nt) sequence known as the “tymobox”

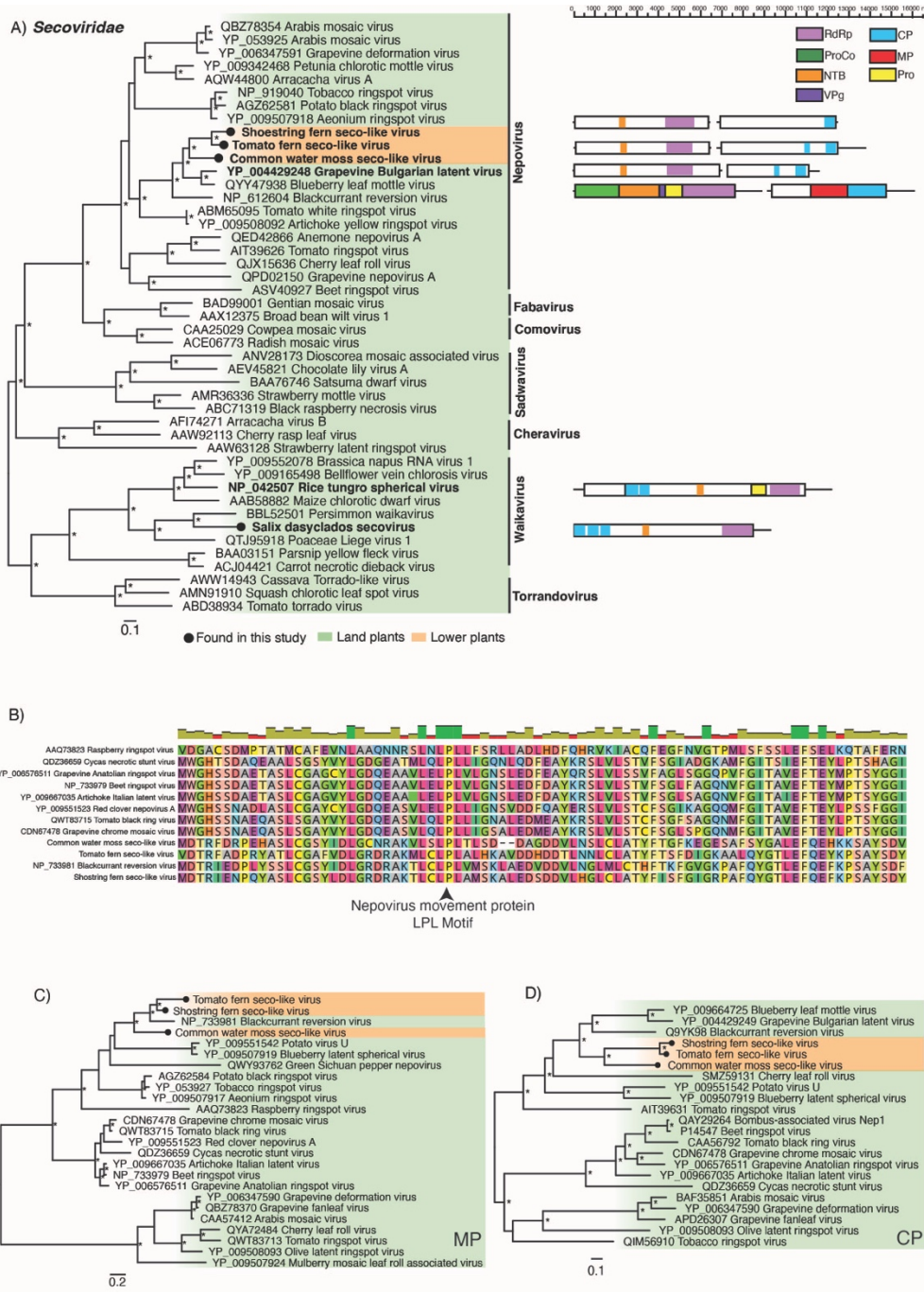
438 [GAGUCUGAAUUGCUUC] in tymoviruses and the “marafibox” [CA(G/A)GGUGAAUUGCUUC]
439 in marafiviruses (70, 71). While these two novel viruses cluster together phylogenetically, they
440 differ in terms of genome structure and motifs. A “marafibox” like sequence appears to be
441 present in BloMV (CAACGCGAAUUGCUUU) (5606-5621 nt) albeit differing by several
442 residues. This finding, combined with the BloMV genome likely consisting of a single large ORF,
443 supports the assignment of BloMV as a *Marafivirus*. OnTV, like members of the *Tymovirus*
444 genera, contains both a second ORF – likely encoding a coat protein (CP) – and a tymobox
445 (1493-1508 nt) (Figure 4). Phylogenetic analysis of the coat protein sequence places OnTV and
446 BloMV in a clade with macula- and marafi-like viruses (SI Figure 1).

447 ***Deltaflexiviridae***. We assembled two sequences that share similarities to members of the
448 mycotymovirus family, *Deltaflexiviridae*. The first sequence was detected in the liverwort
449 *Calypogeia fissa*, tentatively named *Calypogeia fissa associated deltaflexivirus* (CafADV) and
450 appeared distantly related to delta- and gammaflexiviruses. A second related partial sequence,
451 named here *Pinguicula agnata virus* (PaV), shared 32% amino acid identity with mycoflexivirus,
452 *Botrytis virus F*. In a phylogenetic analysis with members of the *Tymovirales*, CafADV and
453 PaAGV are placed with the deltaflexivirids (Figure 4).

454 It is unclear whether the source of these virus sequences is from plants or contamination from
455 other eukaryotes. The *C. fissa* library contained numerous contaminants including algae, fungi
456 and bacteria representing 1%, 15% and 33% of total reads respectively, which make discerning
457 the host association for CafAV challenging (Figure 2). Interestingly, no fungi-associated reads
458 were found in the *P. agnata* library suggesting a potential plant origin (Figure 2).

459 ***Picornavirales***

460 ***Secoviridae***. We identified four sequences that shared similarities to members of the
461 *Secoviridae* denoted *Common water moss secovirus* (CwmSV), *Salix dasyclados secovirus*
462 (*SadSV*), *Tomato fern secovirus* (TfSV) and *Shostring fern secovirus* (SfSV). CwmSV, TfSV and
463 SfSV cluster within the nepoviruses and likely represented the first seco-like virus detected in
464 the bryophytes and ferns (Figure 5).



465

466 **Figure 5.** (A) Left: Phylogenetic relationships of the viruses identified within the virus family
 467 *Secoviridae*. ML phylogenetic trees based on the Pro-pol region show the topological position of
 468 virus-like sequences discovered in this study (black circles) in the context of their closest
 469 relatives. Right: Genomic organization of the seco-like sequences identified in this study and

470 representative species used in the phylogeny. (B) Multiple amino acid sequence alignment of
471 the 30K movement protein “LPL” motifs which are highly conserved throughout the nepoviruses.
472 (C) Phylogenetic relationships of the Nepovirus 30K movement proteins. D) Phylogenetic
473 relationships of the Nepovirus coat proteins. For all trees, branches are scaled to the number of
474 amino acid substitutions per site and trees were mid-point rooted for clarity only. An asterisk
475 indicates node support of >70% bootstrap support. Tip labels are bolded when the genome
476 structure is shown on the right. See Figure 3 for the colour scheme. Viruses discovered in this
477 study are signified using a black circle on the tree tip.

478 A putative RNA2 ORF was assembled for the three nepovirus-like sequences each containing a
479 complete CP (Figure 5). The CPs fall within the nepovirus subgroup C (Figure 5D). While a
480 movement protein (MP) domain was not formally detected, we predict that the region upstream
481 of the CP contains a putative movement-like protein. For CwmSV, this region (amino acid
482 position 312-883) displayed sequence homology to the MP of *Blackcurrant reversion virus* (E-
483 value: 5.42e-86, amino acid identity: 46%). Both TfsV and SfSV displayed similar levels of
484 homology in this region. We detected the LPL motif which is commonly found in nepovirus MPs
485 in all three viruses (Figure 5B). Phylogenetic analysis of the putative MPs placed these viruses
486 with *Blackcurrant reversion virus* in the genera Nepovirus (Figure 5C).

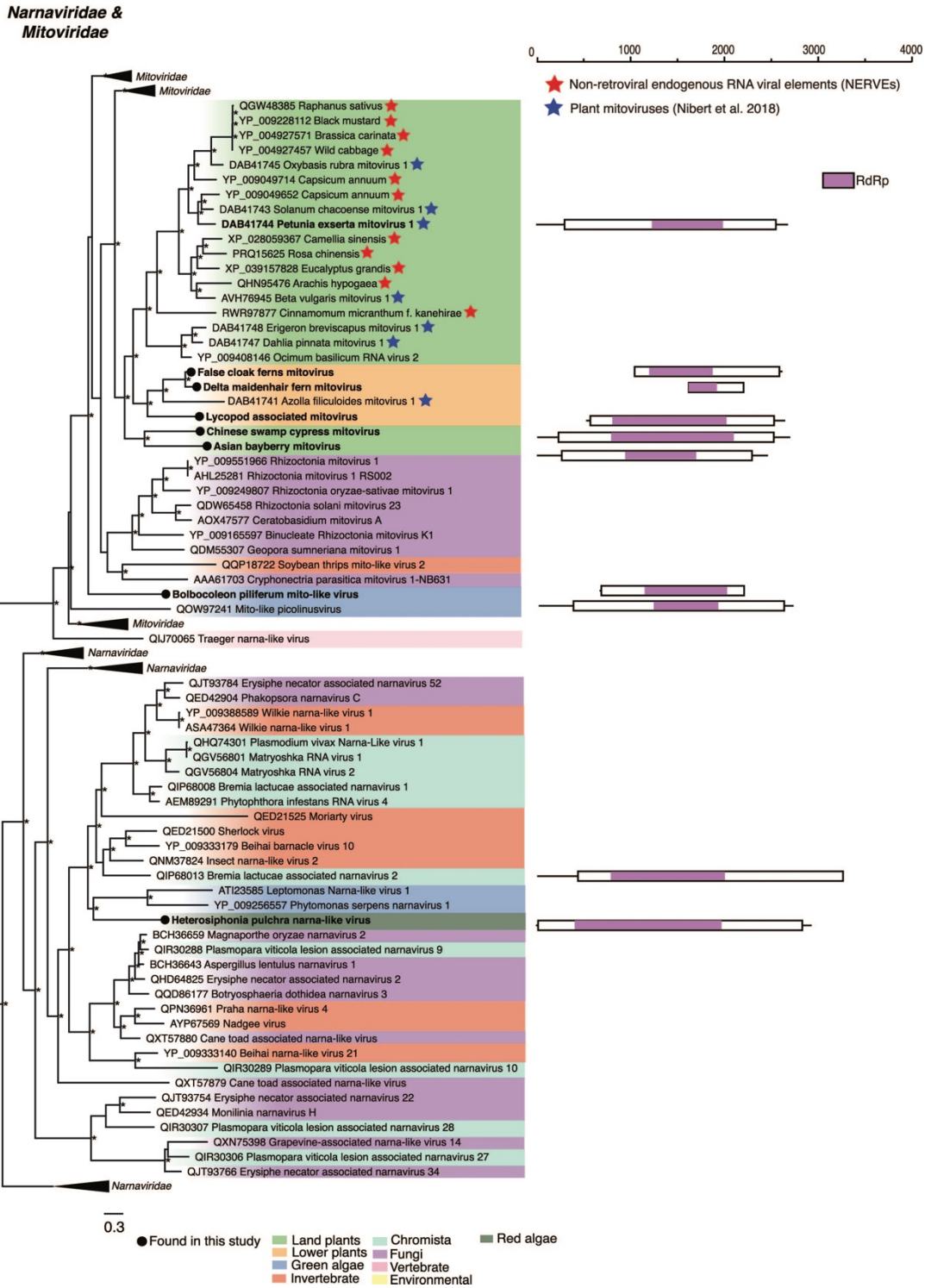
487 We found little evidence that these viruses were detected due to contamination by land plants or
488 other eukaryotes. The *F. antipyretica* transcriptome was composed of reads closely related to a
489 feather moss belonging to the order Hypnales to which *F. antipyretica* is also found.

490 Furthermore, a large proportion of reads were assigned to an uncultured eukaryote 18S rRNA
491 gene (54%) (HG421124.1) that was identical to the *F. antipyretica* 18S rRNA (AF023714.1)
492 among other bryophyte 18S rRNA genes in a blastn search (e-value = 2e-102, nucleotide
493 identity = 100%) (Figure 2). Fungi represented 12% of reads in the *L. hirsute* transcriptome.

494 Despite this, it is unlikely that TfSV is fungi-associated as no fungal contamination was detected
495 in the *Vittaria lineata* transcriptome in which the closely related SfSV sequence (amino acid
496 identity: 78%) was assembled (Figure 2).

497 ***Lenarviricota***

498 ***Mitoviridae***. We identified six virus sequences that cluster within the *Mitoviridae* - denoted
499 *Chinese swamp cypress mitovirus* (CscMV), *Asian bayberry mitovirus* (AsbaMV), *False cloak*
500 *ferns mitovirus* (FcfMV), *Delta maidenhair fern mitovirus* (DmfMV) and *Lycopod associated*
501 *mitovirus* (LycoMV). The fern (FcfMV and DmfMV) and lycophyte (LycoMV) associated
502 sequences cluster with the fern *Azolla filiculoides mitovirus 1* and form a sister group to the
503 plant mitoviruses and non-retroviral endogenous RNA viral elements (NERVEs) (Figure 6) (16).
504 The gymnosperm associated sequences form a sister all the plant-associated mitoviruses and
505 NERVEs. KpcMV extends the known host range of plant mitoviruses from ferns to lycophytes.
506 Another mito-virus sequence was detected in the green alga *Bolbocoleon piliferum*, denoted
507 *Bolbocoleon piliferum mito-like virus* (BopiMV). BopiMV falls basal to the mitoviruses, distinct
508 from various unclassified mito-like viruses including the green algae associated *mito-like*
509 *picolinusvirus* (QOW97241) (Figure 6). All novel sequences show strong conservation of the
510 motifs characteristic of mitovirus RdRps (SI Figure 2) (72).



511

512 **Figure 6.** Left: Phylogenetic relationships of the viruses within the virus families *Narnaviridae*
 513 and *Mitoviridae*. ML phylogenetic trees based on the replication protein show the topological
 514 position of virus-like sequences discovered in this study (black circles) in the context of their

515 closest relatives. See Figure 3 for the colour scheme. Blue stars signify mitovirus sequences
516 identified in (16). Red stars signify non-retroviral endogenous RNA viral elements (NERVEs). All
517 branches are scaled to the number of amino acid substitutions per site and trees were mid-point
518 rooted for clarity only. An asterisk indicates node support of >70% bootstrap support. Tip labels
519 are bolded when the genome structure is shown on the right. Right: Genomic organization of the
520 virus sequences identified in this study and representative species used in the phylogeny.

521 There is little evidence to suggest that these sequences are derived from a non-plant organism.
522 While the FcfMV and DmfMV libraries were contaminated with fungi, (12% and 15% of reads
523 respectively) fungi-associated reads were absent in the libraries of all other mitoviruses. As the
524 codon UGA encodes tryptophan (Trp) in fungal mitochondria this codon assignment is also
525 present in fungal mitoviruses (73-75). In contrast, the UGA codon in plant mitochondria is a stop
526 codon and hence absent from plant mitovirus sequences except as a stop codon (16). The
527 absence of internal UGA codons in these sequences is further evidence that these sequences
528 are plant-derived (16, 76). Although additional analyses are required, we found no evidence
529 through searches of the 1KP genome scaffolds and the WGS shotgun database that these
530 sequences are mitochondrial or nuclear NERVEs. Furthermore, CscMV, AsbaMV and LycoMV
531 contain complete RdRps and their UTRs share similarities in length and identity with plant
532 mitoviruses.

533 ***Narnaviridae*** A partial narna-like virus sequence was identified in the red alga *Heterosiphonia*
534 *pulchra* denoted *Heterosiphonia pulchra* narna-like virus (HspuNV). HspuNV clusters with
535 unclassified trypanosomatid associated viruses. While ~5% of reads in this library were
536 associated with fungi the phylogenetic position of this virus suggests that it is not derived from
537 fungi (Figure 2, Figure 6).

538 ***Tolivirales***

539 ***Tombusviridae***. An alphacarmo-like virus tentatively named *Ihi tombusvirus* (IhiTV) was
540 identified in an Ihi (*Portulaca molokiniensis*) sample. IhiTV is phylogenetically positioned within
541 the alphacarmoviruses (SI Figure 3).

542 ***Patatavirales***

543 ***Potyviridae***. We identified three virus-like sequences that clustered with plant viruses in the
544 family *Potyviridae* – *Traubia modesta potyvirus* (TramPV), *Common milkweed potyvirus*
545 (*ComPV*) and *Salt wort potyvirus* (*SawPV*). TramPV and ComPV shared 87% amino acid
546 identity and may therefore represent a single virus species. The potyvirus-like sequences
547 discovered all group with known potyviruses in a phylogenetic analysis of the Nib gene (SI
548 Figure 3).

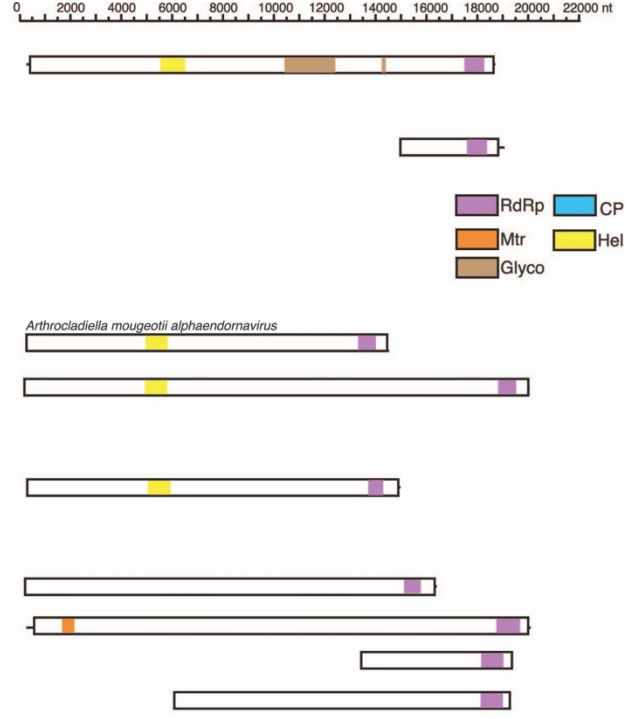
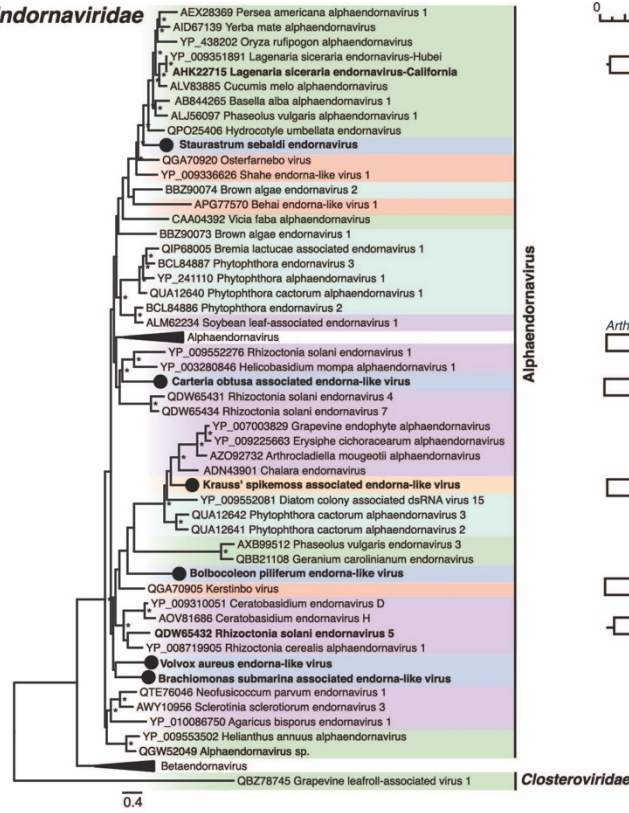
549 ***Martellivirales***

550 ***Endornaviridae***. Six alphaendorna-like virus sequences were detected in the four green algae
551 species and one lycophyte. The green algae and lycophyte associated alphaendorna-like
552 viruses termed *Bolbocoleon piliferum endorna-like virus* (BopiEV), *Volvox aureus endorna-like*
553 *virus* (VoauEV), *Carteria obtusa associated endorna-like virus* (CaobEV), *Brachiomonas*
554 *submarina associated endorna-like virus* (BrsuEV), *Staurastrum sebaldi endornavirus* (SsEV)
555 and *Krauss' spikemoss associated endorna-like virus* (KrspEV) fall across the
556 alphaendornavirus phylogeny and predominately cluster with algae and fungi associated viruses
557 (Figure 7). There was little evidence of algae (non-host) or fungi contamination in the *S. sebaldi*,
558 *B. piliferum* and *V. aureus* transcriptomes with <1% of all reads associated with these groups
559 (Figure 2). Non-green algae contaminants were present in the *C. obtus* (28%), *B. submarina*
560 (7%) and *S. kraussiana* (4%) transcriptomes where fungi also appeared as a notable
561 contaminate representing 11% of all reads (Figure 2). To our knowledge, these sequences

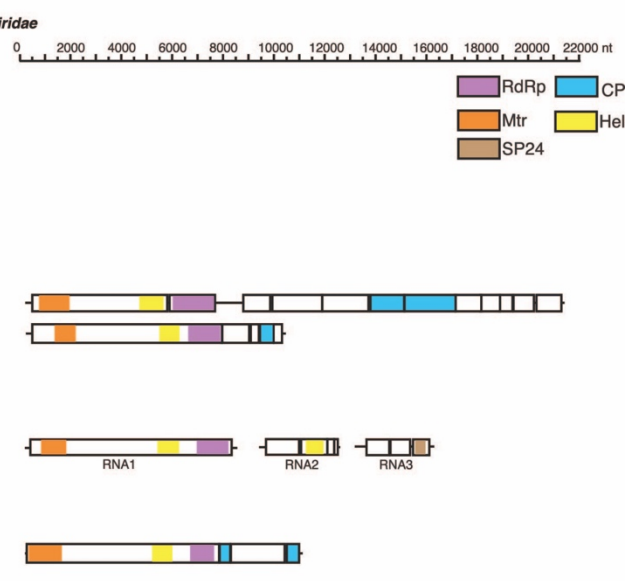
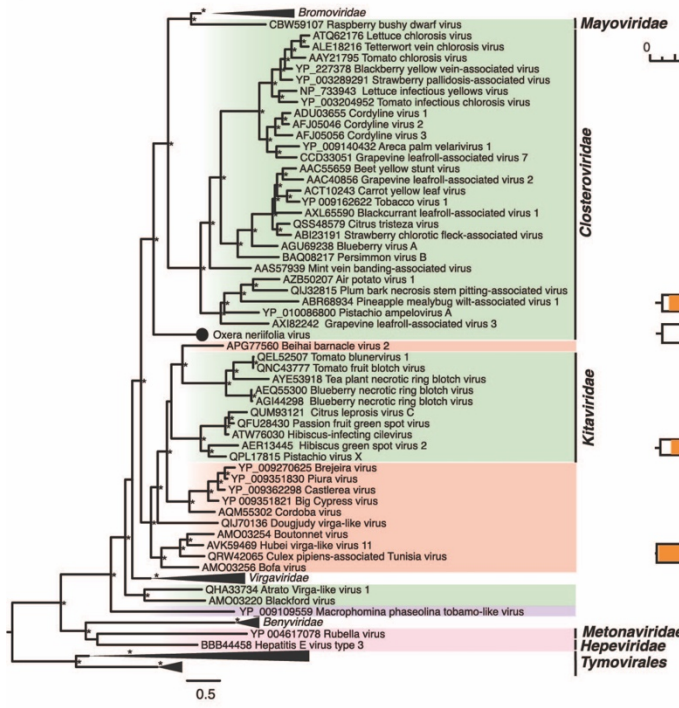
562 represent the first endornavirus associated with charophytes, chlorophytes and lycophytes
563 although further work is needed to confirm the virus-host associations.

564 **Unclassified.** We identified a virus-like sequence in an *Oxera neriifolia* library, termed *Oxera*
565 *neriifolia associated virus*. The sequence, 10,214 nt in length contained four ORFs. The first
566 ORF (7,536 nt) comprised of a viral methyltransferase, helicase, and RNA polymerase while the
567 third ORF (513 nt) most closely resembled a CP. ORF one and ORF three shared the greatest
568 sequence similarity with *Culex pipiens associated Tunisia virus* (32% amino acid identity). The
569 second and fourth ORF share no homology to known viruses. The genome organization of OnV
570 is distinct from the other related plant virus families (Figure 7). OnV forms a distinct and well-
571 supported outgroup to the *Closteroviridae*, *Bromoviridae* and *Mayoviridae* families. As such, OnV
572 may potentially constitute a new virus family (Figure 7). We found little evidence that OnV was
573 detected due to contamination by other eukaryotes (Figure 2).

a) **Endornaviridae**



b) ssRNA viruses



- Found in this study
- Land plants
- Lower plants
- Green algae
- Invertebrate
- Chromista
- Fungi
- Vertebrate
- Environmental

575 **Figure 7.** Left: Phylogenetic relationships of the (A) endorna-like and (B) unclassified (+)ssRNA
576 virus identified in this study. ML phylogenetic trees based on the replication protein show the
577 topological position of virus-like sequences discovered in this study in the context of those
578 obtained previously. Right: Genomic organization of the (A) endorna-like and (B) unclassified
579 ssRNA virus sequence identified in this study and representative species used in the phylogeny.
580 For all trees, branches are scaled to the number of amino acid substitutions per site and trees
581 were mid-point rooted for clarity only. An asterisk indicates node support of >70% bootstrap
582 support. Tip labels are bolded when the genome structure is shown on the right. See Figure 3
583 for the colour scheme. Viruses discovered in this study are signified using a black circle on the
584 tree tip.

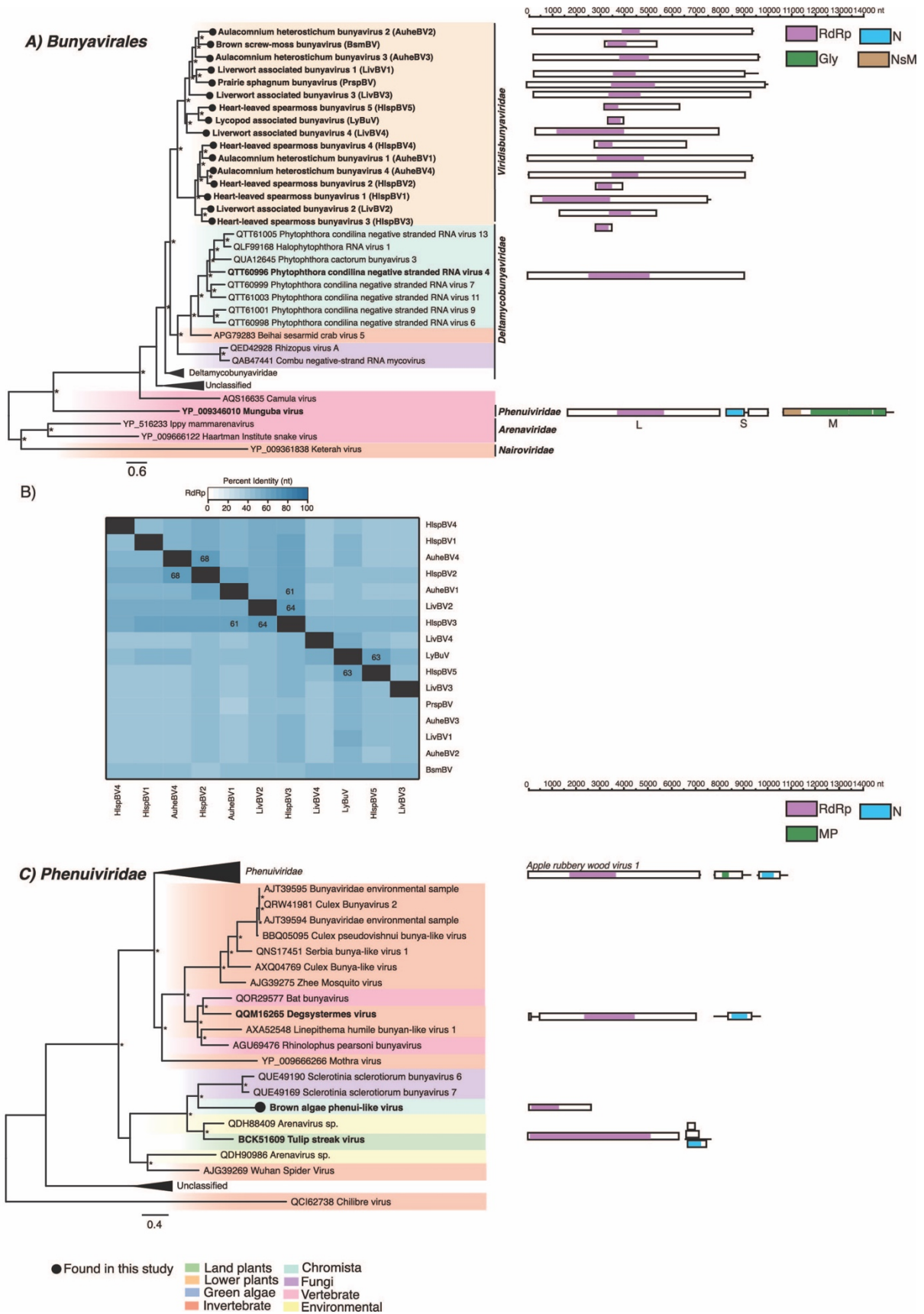
585 **3.3.2 Negative-sense single-stranded RNA ((-)ssRNA) viruses**

586 ***Bunyavirales***

587 ***Phenuiviridae.*** A phenui-like virus sequence termed *Brown algae phenui-like virus* (BralPV)
588 was recovered from a *Sargassum thunbergii* transcriptome. The partial L segment clusters with
589 the unclassified plant and fungi viruses (Figure 8). No additional phenui-like virus segments
590 were recovered. There were no concerning contaminants were detected in the *S. thunbergii*
591 transcriptome (Figure 2).

592 ***Viridibunyaviridae.*** We identified 16 bunya-like virus sequences from eight liverwort, moss
593 and lycophyte libraries. Three libraries contained multiple distinct putative complete and partial
594 viruses. The overall pairwise nucleotide identity was <70% between each sequence (Figure 8).
595 As such we consider each a different bunya-like viruses. These sequences group together to
596 form a novel clade of unclassified bunya-like viruses distantly related to oomycete, fungi, and
597 invertebrate viruses (Figure 8). Bunyaviruses typically comprise three segments (L, M, and S),

598 although only the L segment was recovered for these sequences. These sequences represent
599 the first plant-associated viruses that cluster near the unofficially named *Deltamycobunyaviridae*
600 (77) (Figure 8). As the complete coding sequences of the viruses discovered share <30% amino
601 acid identity to the nearest relatives in the *Deltamycobunyaviridae*, they may constitute a new
602 virus family. We tentatively name this virus family the *Viridisbunyaviridae*, (*Viridis* meaning
603 green, while bunya is derived from the virus order *Bunyavirales* in which this clade falls within).
604 There was no evidence suggesting that these sequences originated from non-plant
605 contaminants. Host assignment was unclear for *Lycopod associated bunyavirus* and *Liverwort*
606 *associated bunyavirus 1:4* as reads belonging to several lycophyte and liverwort species,
607 respectively, were found in the source transcriptomes (Figure 2).



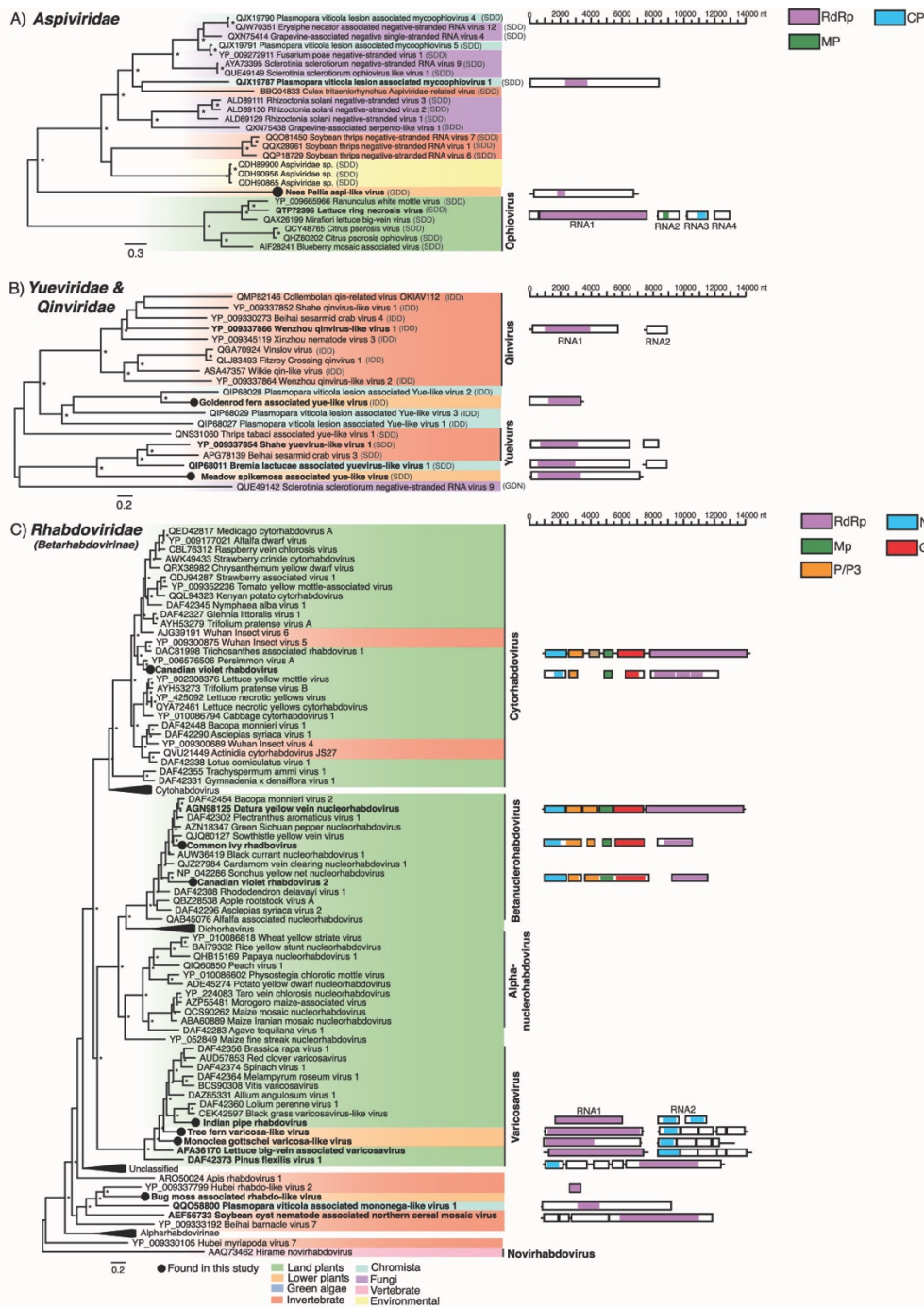
609 **Figure 8.** Phylogenetic relationships of the viruses (A) Left: A phylogeny depicting a novel clade
610 of viruses related to the *Deltamycobunyaviridae* in the context of the *Bunyavirales*. Right:
611 Genomic organization of the virus sequences identified in this study and representative species
612 used in the phylogeny (B) Percent identity matrix of the novel bunya-like viruses. Identity scores
613 are calculated from an alignment of the RdRp protein coding sequence. For clarity, the 100%
614 identity along the diagonal has been removed. Where sequence identity is $\geq 60\%$ the value is
615 shown. (C) Left: A phylogeny depicting the phenui-like virus identified in this study in the context
616 of the *Phenuiviridae*. Right: Genomic organization of the virus sequences identified in this study
617 and representative species used in the phylogeny. For all trees, branches are scaled to the
618 number of amino acid substitutions per site and trees were mid-point rooted for clarity only. An
619 asterisk indicates node support of $>70\%$ bootstrap support. Tip labels are bolded when the
620 genome structure is shown on the right. See Figure 3 for the colour scheme. Viruses discovered
621 in this study are signified using a black circle on the tree tip.

622 ***Mononegavirales***

623 ***Rhabdoviridae.*** We identified seven sequences that clustered with plant viruses in the family
624 *Rhabdoviridae* denoted *Canadian violet rhabdovirus 1* (CvRV1), *Canadian violet rhabdovirus 2*
625 (CvRV2), *Common ivy rhabdovirus* (CoiRV) and *Indian pipe rhabdovirus* (InpRV), *Tree fern*
626 *varicosa-like virus* (TfVV), *Monoclea gottschei varicosa-like virus* (MgVV) and *Bug moss*
627 *associated rhabdo-like virus* (BmRV). Notably, TfVV and MgVV expand the host range of the
628 rhabdoviruses from angiosperms and gymnosperm to ferns and liverworts. RNA2 segments
629 were recovered for both viruses, TfVV RNA2 contained five genes while MgVV contained four
630 (Figure 9C). Two partial segments sharing similarities to the nucleocapsid (N) of *Black grass*
631 *varicosavirus-like virus* (YP_009130620.1) were found in the Indian pipe library and share 50%

632 amino acid identity. All sequences likely represent novel species within known plant infecting
633 genera (Figure 9C).

634 BmRV is a partial sequence (693 nt) most closely related to the unclassified *Hubei rhabdo-like*
635 *virus 2* (44% amino acid identity). Further evidence is needed to confirm BmRV as the first moss
636 rhabdovirus, but the relatively low proportion of contaminants in this library (3% algae and 3%
637 fungi) suggests that this virus is plant-associated (Figure 2). While 53% of reads in the MgVV
638 library were fungi associated the phylogenetic position of MgVV suggests it is derived from
639 plants (Figure 2, Figure 9C).



640

641 **Figure 9.** Left: Phylogenetic relationships of the viruses within the families, (A) *Aspiviridae*, (B)

642 *Yue-* and *Qinviridae* and (C) *Rhabdoviridae*. Right: Genomic organization of the virus

643 sequences identified in this study and representative species used in the phylogeny. For all

644 trees, branches are scaled to the number of amino acid substitutions per site and trees were

645 mid-point rooted for clarity only. An asterisk indicates node support of >70% bootstrap support.
646 Tip labels are bolded when the genome structure is shown on the right. See Figure 3 for the
647 colour scheme. Viruses discovered in this study are signified using a black circle on the tree tip.
648 For trees (A) and (B), the RdRp motif C trimer of each sequence is shown in brackets at the end
649 of the tip label.

650 ***Serpentovirales***

651 ***Aspiviridae***. We identified an aspi-like sequence termed *Nees' Pellia aspi-like virus* (NpAV). A
652 complete RNA1 segment (6989 nt) was assembled, although no other segments were
653 recovered (Figure 9A). NpAV most closely resembles *Rhizoctonia solani negative-stranded*
654 *virus 3* (amino acid identity: 22%) and falls basal to all the unclassified aspi-like viruses
655 including those found in fungi, invertebrates, and oomycetes. NpAV is the first aspi-like virus
656 identified in plants outside of the angiosperms and may constitute a novel virus group (Figure
657 9A). Notably, unlike the other aspiviruses that possess a SDD sequence in motif C of the RdRp
658 – a known signature for segmented negative-stranded RNA viruses – NpAV has a GDD
659 sequence (Figure 9A).

660 ***Goujianvirales***

661 ***Yueviridae***. An yue-like virus sequence termed *Meadow spikemoss associated yue-like virus*
662 (MsYV) was found in the lycophyte *Selaginella apoda* and most closely resembles algae
663 associated *Bremia lactucae associated yuevirus-like virus 1* (amino acid identity: 26%).
664 Phylogenetic analysis supports the assignment of MsYV as the first plant yuevirus (Figure 9B)
665 A second partial yue-like virus sequence was detected in a *Pityrogramma trifoliata* library and
666 termed *Goldenrod fern associated yue-like virus* (GfYV). GfYV falls with a group of oomycete
667 associated viruses. Consistent with the qin-like viruses, GfYV has an IDD (Ile-Asp-Asp)

668 sequence motif instead of the common GDD (Gly-Asp-Asp) in the catalytic core of its RdRp,
669 while MsYV contains SDD (Ser-Asp-Asp) in the same manner as many yue-like viruses (Figure
670 9B). The libraries from which GfYV and MsYV were assembled are contaminated with fungal
671 reads (5% and 21%, respectively) as such host assignment is made with caution (Figure 2).
672 Reads belonging to oomycetes were not found in either library.

673 **3.3.3 Double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) viruses**

674 ***Durnavirales***

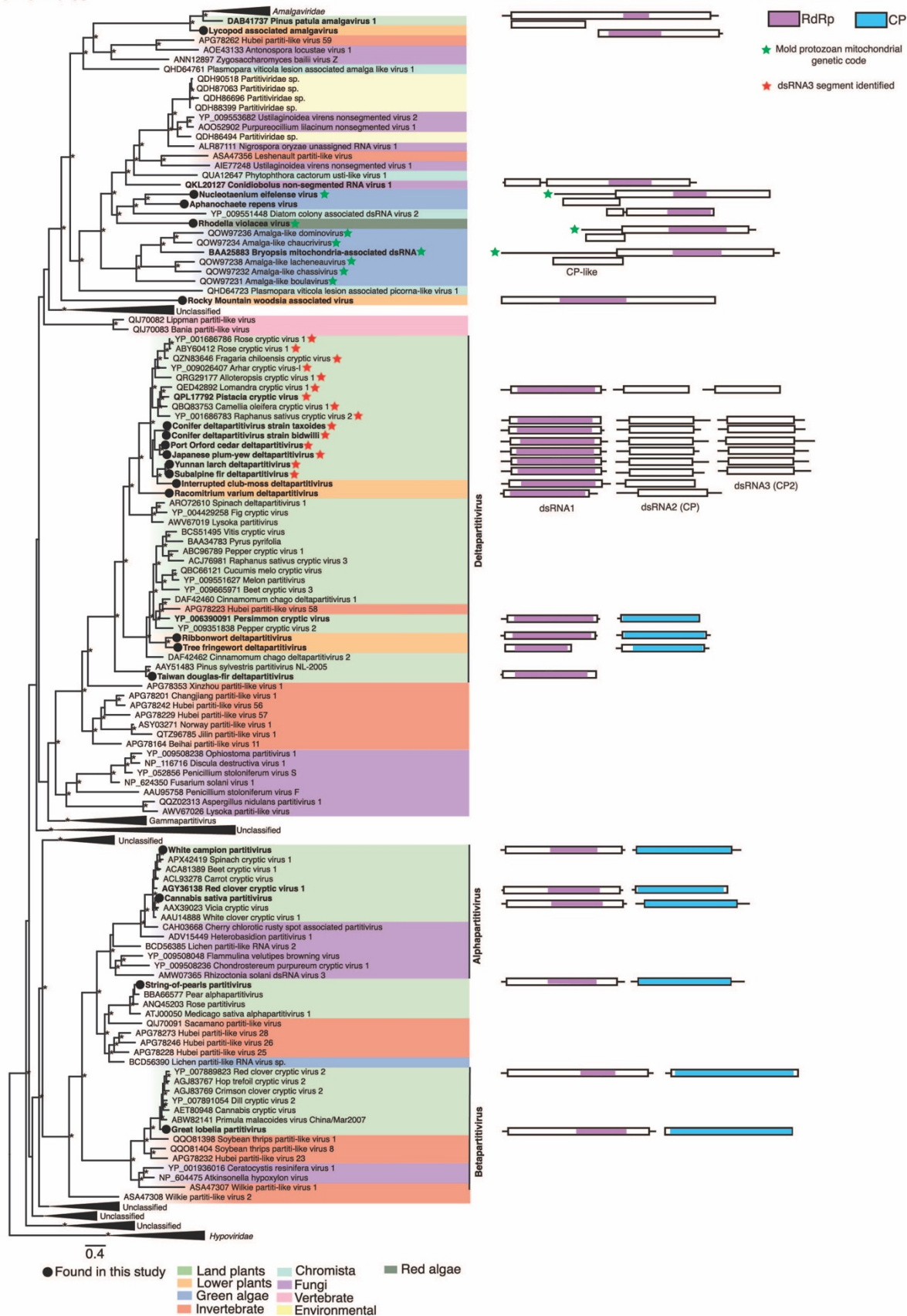
675 ***Amalgaviridae***. We detected five sequences that cluster with amalga-like viruses. *Lycopod*
676 *associated amalgavirus* (LycoAV) is a partial RdRp containing a sequence that falls basal to the
677 *Amalgaviridae* and represents the first amalga-like virus in the lycophytes (Figure 10). Three
678 amalga-like sequences were discovered in green and red algae transcriptomes and cluster with
679 *Diatom colony associated dsRNA virus 2* (Figure 10). As noted in the case of *Bryopsis*
680 *mitochondria-associated dsRNA virus* and several green algae associated viruses (78) when
681 translated into amino acids using the protozoan mitochondrial code, two overlapping ORFs are
682 present: the first, encoding a hypothetical protein, while the second, a replicase through a -1
683 ribosomal frameshift (79). For two of the amalga-like sequences identified in this study –
684 *Nucleotaenium eifelense virus* (NueiV) and *Rhodella violacea virus* (RhviV) – a similar structure
685 was observed but we were unable to identify any ribosomal frameshift motifs in either sequence
686 (Figure 10). Further work is needed to confirm if these sequences should be translated through
687 the mitochondrial genetic code.

688 A contig containing what appears to be a complete coding sequence (3259 nt) and RdRp motifs
689 was assembled in the *Woodsia scopulina* transcriptome and tentatively named *Rocky Mountain*
690 *woodsia associated virus* (RmwPV). The predicted RdRp region (918-1921 nt) of RmwPV

691 shares similarity to both partiti-like viruses (e.g., *Ustilagoidea virens nonsegmented virus 2*,
692 26% aa identity) and the unclassified *Phytophthora infestans RNA virus 1* (42% aa identity)
693 which has been shown to likely constitutes a novel virus family (80). The resemblance RmwPV
694 shares with two seemingly distantly related virus groups suggest its position within the
695 *Durnavirales* should be treated with caution (Figure 10).

696 The transcriptome in which RmwPV was discovered is contaminated with fungal reads (10%
697 (Figure 2). If RmwPV was derived from fungal contaminates this could potentially explain the
698 phylogenetic placement of RmwPV (Figure 10). The *Lycopodiella appressa* transcriptome in
699 which LycoAV was discovered is contaminated by reads belonging to species across various
700 land plant groups. Reads belonging to land plants comprised 35% of plant-associated reads
701 while lycopod associated reads comprised 65% (Figure 2).

Durnavirales



703 **Figure 10.** Left: Phylogenetic relationships of the viruses within the order *Durnavirales*. ML
704 phylogenetic trees based on the replication protein show the topological position of the virus-like
705 sequences discovered in this study (black circles) in the context of their closest relatives. See
706 Figure 3 for the colour scheme. Green stars are used to signify sequences that have been
707 translated using the protozoan mitochondrial genetic code. Red stars are used to signify
708 sequences for which a dsRNA3 coat protein-like segment has been described. All branches are
709 scaled to the number of amino acid substitutions per site and trees were mid-point rooted for
710 clarity only. An asterisk indicates node support of >70% bootstrap support. Tip labels are bolded
711 when the genome structure is shown on the right. Right: Genomic organization of the virus
712 sequences identified in this study and representative species used in the phylogeny.

713 ***Partitiviridae*.** We detected 14 sequences that share a resemblance with members of the
714 *Partitiviridae*. For each of these sequences, complete dsRNA1 and dsRNA2 segments were
715 recovered. Ten sequences were found in non-flowering plants and cluster within the
716 deltapartitiviruses. A clade within the deltapartitiviruses is known to encode a third segment
717 comprising of a divergent dsRNA2 full-length capsid protein with unknown function (Figure 10).
718 We identified dsRNA3 segments in related conifer associated sequences but not in those found
719 in moss and lycophyte libraries (Figure 10). Phylogenies estimated on the coding sequences of
720 dsRNA2 and dsRNA3 reveal essentially the same grouping which is largely consistent with the
721 host phylogeny (SI Figure 4). We extend the known host range of the deltapartitiviruses to
722 include liverworts, mosses, and lycophytes. The remaining sequences were found in eudicots
723 and cluster with known plant partitiviruses (Figure 10). The white campion was judged to have
724 contamination from ginseng and chickweed (31). However, the relatively low proportion of the
725 library these contaminants compose (<1%) suggests that it is unlikely these species are the

726 host of WcPV (Figure 2). There is no evidence that the other partiti-like sequences discovered
727 are derived from contaminants.

728 ***Ghabrivirales***

729 ***Chrysoviridae***. We identified two partial sequences that share resemblance with members of
730 the alphachrysovirus denoted *Mesotaenium kramstae alphachyrso-like virus* (MkACV) and
731 *Tree fringewort alphachyrso-like virus* (TwACV) (Figure 11). A complete RNA2 segment was
732 recovered for MkACV which shared similarity with the p98 of various chrysovirus (Figure 11).
733 The MkACV RNA2 segment did not contain the “PGDGXCXXHX” motif commonly found in this
734 protein (81). To our knowledge, these sequences represent the first chrysovirus in liverworts
735 and algae. While reads belonging to fungi were found in the libraries MkACV and TwACV were
736 assembled from, the phylogenetic positioning of the viruses suggest that they are plant-derived
737 (Figure 2, Figure 11).



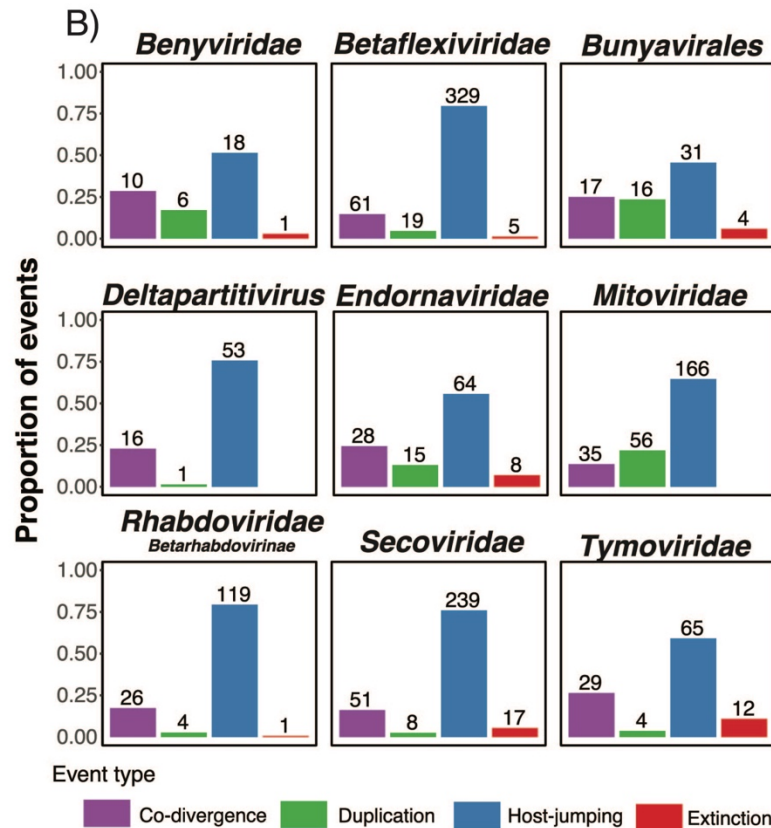
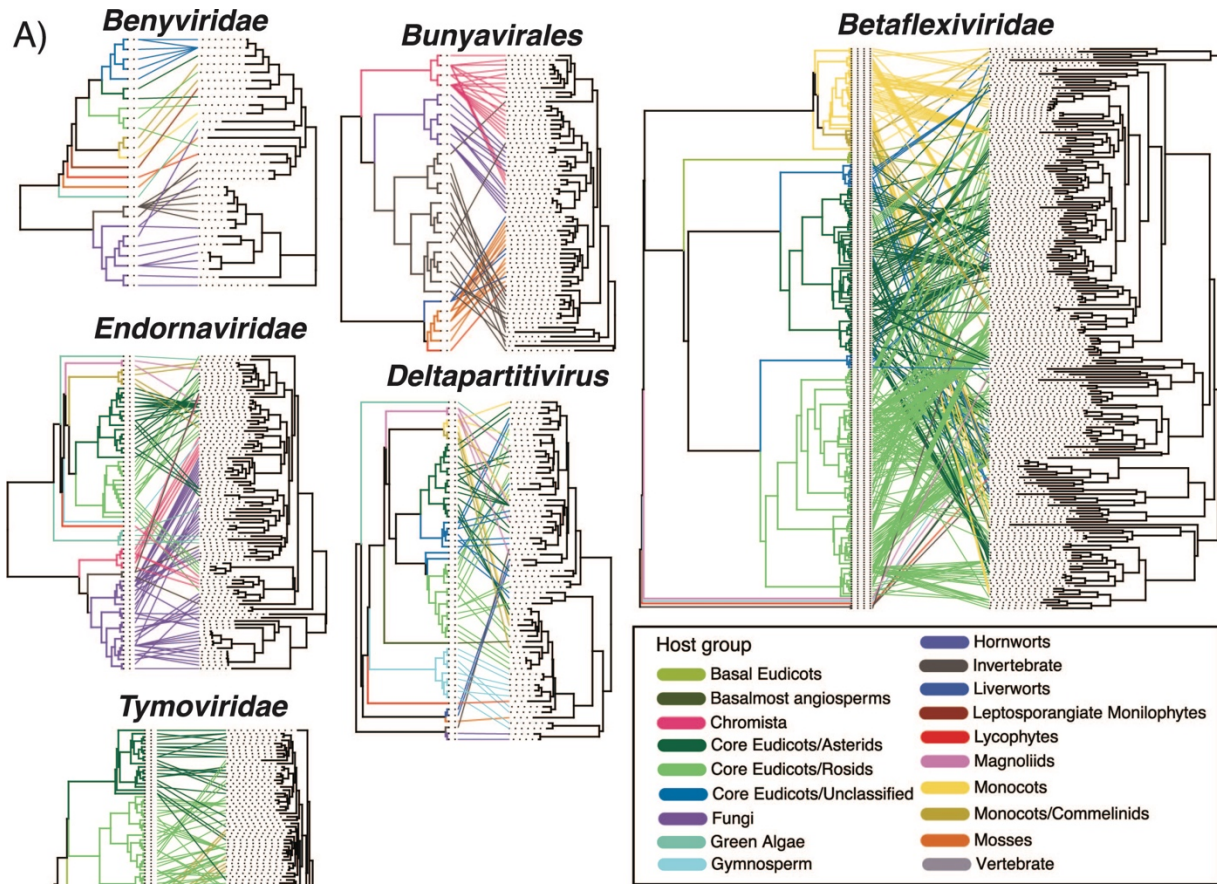
739 **Figure 11.** Left: Phylogenetic relationships of the viruses within the order *Ghabrivirales*. (A) A
740 phylogeny of the *Chrysoviridae*, (B) an order level phylogeny. ML phylogenetic trees based on
741 the replication protein show the topological position of the virus-like sequences discovered in
742 this study (black circles) in the context of their closest relatives. See Figure 3 for the colour
743 scheme. Green stars are used to signify sequences that have been translated using the
744 protozoan mitochondrial genetic code. All branches are scaled to the number of amino acid
745 substitutions per site and trees were mid-point rooted for clarity only. An asterisk indicates node
746 support of >70% bootstrap support. Virus taxonomic names are labelled to the right. Right:
747 Genomic organization of the virus sequences identified in this study and representative species
748 used in the phylogeny.

749 **Totiviridae.** Thirteen sequences sharing similarities to toti-like viruses were discovered in eight
750 red and green algae transcriptomes. All sequences share less than 50% amino acid identity
751 across their coding sequence, as such we consider each a putative toti-like viruses. Among
752 these sequences four cluster with *Delisea pulchra totivirus IndA* (AMB17469.1) to form a red
753 alga associated clade basal to the totiviruses (Figure 11). *Gracilaria vermiculophylla toti-like*
754 *virus* (GrveTV) along with *Red algae totivirus 1* (BBZ90082) form a sister group to the protozoan
755 infecting leishmaniaviruses (Figure 11). The remaining sequences are phylogenetically
756 positioned across the tree of toti-like viruses, commonly occupying basal positions (Figure 11).
757 *Prasiola crispa* is contaminated by reads from the fungi, *Candida albicans*. *Prasiola crispa toti-*
758 *like virus* (PrcrTV), clusters with unclassified protist, fungi, invertebrate and algae viruses
759 including *Elkhorn sea moss toti-like virus* (EsmTV) (Figure 2, Figure 11). The Kappaphycus
760 alvarezii transcriptome in which EsmTV was found showed no evidence of contamination
761 suggesting that PrcrTV may also be derived from algae (Figure 2). The *Mazzaella japonica*
762 transcriptome in which *Red algae toti-like virus 2:3* (RedTV2/3) were discovered was

763 predominantly composed of reads associated with the red algae genera *Chondrus*. As >99% of
764 reads in this library belong to red algae species RedTV2 and RedTV3 have been assigned to
765 this group. The *Porphyridium purpureum* transcriptome is highly contaminated by reads
766 belonging to flowering plants and an unidentified cloning vector (M10197.1) (Figure 2). The
767 phylogenetic positioning of the viruses discovered from this transcriptome (*Porphyridium*
768 *purpureum toti-like virus 1 & 2*) point towards being derived from red algae rather than flowering
769 plants (Figure 11).

770 **3.4 Long-term virus-host evolutionary relationships**

771 To examine the frequency of cross-species transmission and co-divergence among plant
772 viruses, we estimated tanglegrams that depict pairs of rooted phylogenetic trees displaying the
773 evolutionary relationship between a virus family and their hosts. This revealed cross-species
774 transmission as the predominate evolutionary event predicted among all the RNA virus groups
775 analysed (median 65%, range 46%-79%) (Figure 12). Cross-species transmission was most
776 frequent in the *Betaflexiviridae* (79%) and the subfamily *Betarhabdovirinae* (79%). Virus-host
777 co-divergence (median 23%, range 14%-29%) and to a lesser extent duplication (i.e.,
778 speciation) (median 4.6%, range 1.4%-24%) and extinction events (median 2.9%, range 0%-
779 11%) were detected across plant virus families (Figure 12). Co-divergence was most frequently
780 predicted in the *Benyviridae* and *Tymoviridae* representing 29% and 26% of events respectively.
781 Importantly, however, the results of our co-phylogenetic analysis are undoubtedly influenced by
782 the sample of plant viruses and will likely change as the number of plant viruses identified
783 increases.



785 **Figure 12.** (A) Tanglegram of rooted phylogenetic trees for select virus groups and their hosts.
786 Lines and branches are coloured to represent host clade. The cophylo function implemented in
787 phytools (v0.7-80) was used to maximise the congruence between the host (left) and virus
788 (right) phylogenies. Supplementary Figure 5 provides the names of the hosts and viruses along
789 with additional tanglegrams for the *Secoviridae* and *Rhabdoviridae*. (B). Reconciliation analysis
790 of select virus groups. Barplots illustrate the range of the proportion of possible events and are
791 coloured by event type.

792

793 **4. Discussion**

794 Our ability to reconstruct the evolutionary history of plant viruses and understand the drivers of
795 their emergence has been constrained by inadequate sampling across the enormous, extant
796 diversity of plant species. Here, we provide a large-scale virus discovery project based on
797 mining transcriptomes from across the entire breadth of the plant kingdom. In doing so we have
798 identified 104 potentially novel virus species. We considerably expand upon the known host
799 range of 13 virus families to now include lower plants and expand a further four virus families to
800 include host associations with algae. We also find the first evidence of a movement protein with
801 a predicted molecular weight of ~30 kDa (herein referred to as a “30K MP”) in a virus of non-
802 vascular plants. Collectively, this new knowledge advances our understanding of RNA virus
803 diversity across the Archaeplastida.

804 **4.1 RNA viruses are widespread across lower plant lineages**

805 To date, viral surveys in basal plant lineages (namely ferns, bryophytes and algae) have
806 revealed only the minimal occurrence of (+)RNA viruses (5, 17, 20, 78, 82, 83), supporting the
807 idea that RNA viromes in angiosperms evolved as they diversified during the Cretaceous (84).

808 However, our results potentially challenge this paradigm as we detected the first evidence of
809 sets of (+)ssRNA viruses in lower plants and algae, implying that these groups are associated
810 with older lineages of plants. Several of these viruses are deep branching and sit basal to
811 angiosperm infecting viruses (e.g., LycoAV and LyBuV) in phylogenetic trees. Other viruses
812 discovered here occupy ambiguous positions between established plant virus families (e.g.,
813 OnV) or cluster in large numbers to form novel plant-associated clades (e.g., the
814 *Viridibunyaviridae* in the *Bunyavirales*). Benyviruses are typically transmitted by the root-
815 infecting plasmodiophorids *Polymyxa betae* and *Polymyxa graminis* (85, 86). The Phytomyxids
816 (plasmodiophorids and phagomyxids) are parasites of plants, diatoms, oomycetes and brown
817 algae and have been shown to demonstrate cross-kingdom host shifts (e.g., between
818 angiosperms and oomycetes) (87). As such the plasmodiophorids may be a vehicle for cross-
819 species transmission between aquatic protists and land plants (5). FeBV, a beny-like virus
820 identified in this study, formed a clade along with *Wheat stripe mosaic virus* distinct from
821 members of the genus *Benyvirus*. Deciphering the evolutionary history and mode of
822 transmission for the lower plant beny-like viruses will require further studies with particular
823 emphasis on these taxa. Interestingly, no plasmodiophorid-associated reads were detected in
824 any of the libraries from which we assembled a beny-like virus. LjBV and WasBV appear
825 distantly related to the benyviruses. These viruses group with a suite of unclassified viruses
826 assembled from a soil metatranscriptome study suggesting that, like the benyviruses, this larger
827 group of unclassified viruses may involve soil-borne parasites like the plasmodiophorids (88).
828 Our detection of tymovirid-like sequences in the lycophytes, bryophytes and brown algae
829 dramatically expands the known host range of the *Tymovirales*. Several of these viruses were
830 similar to unclassified Riboviria species assembled from a recent survey of common wild oat soil
831 rhizosphere and detritosphere (88) (Figure 4). The metatranscriptome of the sequenced soil
832 samples from the common wild oat study was largely composed of Viridiplantae, fungi,

833 Amoebozoa, protists, nematodes, and other eukaryotes. As such, using phylogenetic clusters to
834 infer host associations of our viruses remains challenging. Indeed, these viruses may result
835 from contamination from other eukaryotes (e.g., fungi or invertebrates) although we found no
836 consistent evidence among these viruses (Figure 2). Assuming these viruses are plant-
837 associated, their phylogenetic pattern suggests that they may have resulted from cross-kingdom
838 transmission events that frequent the Alsuviricetes.

839 The partial deltaflexi-like virus we detected in *P. agnata* (PaADV) is particularly noteworthy. The
840 deltaflexiviruses are only known to infect fungi, although no fungi associated reads were found
841 in the *P. agnata* metatranscriptome (Figure 2). The mycovirus families *Delta-* and
842 *Gammaplexiviridae* are thought to have been derived from the plant alpha- and betaflexivirids
843 through cross-species transmission (5, 89)). As such PaAGV could potentially represent an
844 intermediate between the plant and fungi flexiviruses or perhaps a more recent fungus to plant
845 transmission. As only a fragment of the polymerase gene was assembled for this virus future
846 work should confirm the presence of PaAGV and its phylogenetic position.

847 **4.2 The extension of the *Mitoviridae* to a lycophyte host**

848 Through the analysis of mitoviruses-like, non-retroviral endogenous RNA viral elements
849 (NERVEs), it was argued that the origin of plant mitovirus NERVEs was a single horizontal
850 transfer from a fungal mitovirus before the origin of vascular plants in the early Silurian, ~400
851 MYA (90). Evidence of contemporary mitoviruses in flowering plants and a fern have challenged
852 this view, suggesting that a lineage of plant rather than fungal mitoviruses are the immediate
853 ancestors of plant mitovirus NERVEs (16). Indeed, plant-to-fungus transmission would eliminate
854 code conflicts between fungi and plant mitochondrial genetic codes (76). Herein, we
855 demonstrate the existence of a lower plant-associated sister clade to the angiosperm
856 mitoviruses and NERVEs. This clade includes a clubmoss associated mitovirus, the most

857 primitive plant mitovirus sequence to date. This finding aligns with the estimation of the origin of
858 plant mitovirus NERVEs occurring as early as the evolution of the clubmoss (90). The recent
859 finding of mitoviruses in green algae – including BopiMV in this study – highlight the broad host
860 range of mitoviruses (78, 83). The phylogenetic position of these viruses and the absence of
861 NERVEs from these groups suggest that they are not the ancestors of land plant mitoviruses
862 and NERVEs.

863 **4.4 Establishment of a new virus family in the *Bunyavirales*: *Viridisbunyaviridae***

864 We identified 16 bunya-like viruses assembled from six non-vascular plant libraries including
865 liverwort, moss, and lycophyte species. These viruses form a novel clade within the
866 *Bunyavirales* and represent the first viruses in this order to be associated with lower plants. This
867 clade likely represents a novel virus family which we have tentatively named the
868 *Viridisbunyaviridae*. Several libraries contained up to five distinct viruses (each sharing <70%
869 nucleotide identity). Virus co-infections are frequently observed in plants and have been
870 reported in the closest relatives of these viruses, the *Deltamycobunyaviridae* (91, 92). As with
871 previous studies we were only able to recover the bunyavirus L segment (92, 93). Further
872 studies are needed to recover the missing small and medium-sized segments and to confirm the
873 presence of mixed infections in plants.

874 **4.5 Discovery of the first 30 kDa movement protein in non-vascular plants**

875 Through the discovery of lower plant-associated viruses, we have gained insights into how the
876 genome structure and composition of contemporary flowering plants viruses have evolved. The
877 detection of secovirid-like sequences in bryophytes and ferns represents the first occurrence of
878 plant secoviruses outside of angiosperms and the first evidence of a 30K MP homolog in non-
879 vascular plants. These proteins aid the cell-to-cell movement of viruses in plants. For example,

880 the MP of *Cucumber mosaic virus* increases the size exclusion limit of plasmodesmata allowing
881 virus particles to pass through cell walls (94). To date, homologs of 30K MP have only been
882 detected in plant viruses infecting angiosperms to the lycophytes (17, 95). Further work is
883 needed to confirm the presence and function of 30K MPs in viruses infecting the bryophytes and
884 other lower plants.

885 **4.6 Detection of Deltapartivirus dsRNA3 segments in gymnosperms but not in non-** 886 **vascular plants**

887 Our discovery of six tri-segmented deltapartivirus species provides insights into the evolution of
888 the deltapartivirus dsRNA3 segment. dsRNA3 segments have been found in several alpha-
889 and deltapartiviruses infecting flowering plants (96-99). These segments typically encode
890 seemingly full-length capsid protein or in the case of alphapartivirus *Rosellinia necatrix*
891 *partivirus 2*, a truncated version of the RdRp which may serve as an interfering RNA (100).
892 There is some debate as to the source of dsRNA3 segments, particularly whether they are
893 satellite viruses that co-opt the RdRp of the co-infecting helper viruses or that the additional
894 segment is a result of coinfection of two different plant partitiviruses and the second RdRp-
895 encoding segment is lost after the initial infection (101). For the first time, we find dsRNA3
896 segments in conifer associated viruses but not in those found in lower plants including
897 bryophytes and lycophytes. The absence of dsRNA3 in non-vascular plants means that it is
898 possible that this segment evolved after the divergence of vascular and non-vascular plants in
899 the Silurian period (102). It is possible that dsRNA3 segments exist for the non-vascular plant
900 infecting deltapartiviruses but was not detected due to the large degree of divergence between
901 this segment and reference sequences (including those found in this study). However, the
902 dsRNA1 and dsRNA2 segments of the putative lower plant deltapartiviruses shared >50% aa
903 identity with the tri-segmented deltapartiviruses - well above the detection limit for tools such

904 as Diamond BlastX (37). dsRNA3 segments typically appear no more divergent than dsRNA2
905 segments therefore it is unlikely that we would be able to detect both the dsRNA1 and dsRNA2
906 segments without detecting dsRNA3. Further work is needed to confirm the presence of
907 deltapartitivirus dsRNA3 segments.

908 **4.7 Discovery of an unsegmented varicosavirus-like viruses in ferns and liverworts**

909 Finally, the recently discovered gymnosperm varicose-like *Pinus flexilis virus 1* in the family
910 *Rhabdoviridae* contains an unsegmented genome organisation that differs from the typical bi-
911 segmented structure of the varicosaviruses (25, 103). We find the bi-segmented structure in
912 varicosavirus-like viruses for the first time in ferns and liverworts (TfVV and MgVV) which
913 predate the gymnosperms.

914 **4.8 Caveats**

915 Importantly, the data generated under the 1KP were not explicitly created for virus discovery,
916 such that there are important caveats associated with the methods and metatranscriptomic data
917 mined for virus contigs. For instance, as axenic cultures are not a viable option in most
918 instances, the 1KP samples are commonly contaminated by nucleic acids belonging to
919 bacterial, fungal, and insect species. We addressed this by using a combination of host/virus
920 abundance measurements and phylogenetic analyses to improve the accuracy of virus-host
921 assignments. For most of the viruses described, phylogenetic placement within plant infecting
922 virus families strongly supports their association with plants. However, several of the viruses
923 found in algae and lower plants were associated with lineages known to infect invertebrates and
924 fungi or unclassified viruses recovered from environmental samples. The association between
925 the viruses of lower plants and algae with that of fungi and invertebrate viruses may reflect the

926 absence of algal and lower plant viruses in reference sequence databases. Experimental
927 confirmation is needed to formally assign the viruses discovered in this study to their hosts.

928 The average sequencing depth of the 1KP libraries was 1.99 gigabases of sequence per
929 sample (range 1.3-3.0), lower than many other virus discovery studies (6, 104, 105).

930 Sequencing depth has been shown to correlate with the ability to detect viruses present at low
931 abundance (106, 107). Further, a large proportion of the virus transcripts detected were from
932 viruses whose full-length genomic or subgenomic mRNAs were polyadenylated at the 3' end (SI
933 Table 4, Figure 1). Although this was anticipated (i.e. the libraries generated by the 1KP
934 initiative were prepared from polyA+ RNA), it limited the detection of non-polyadenylated viruses
935 (e.g., dsRNA, dsDNA) and may have contributed to the lack of phycodnavirus sequences
936 detected in algae (107).

937 To reduce the computational burden of assembly, we attempted to remove host-associated
938 reads before contig assembly by mapping them to the host scaffolds provided by the 1KP
939 initiative. While this step reduces the occurrence of false-positive virus detection it also risks
940 removing virus reads, particularly reverse-transcribing plant viruses (108). While we frequently
941 detected transcripts associated with the reverse-transcribing family *Caulimoviridae*, no members
942 of the *Metaviridae* or *Pseudoviridae* were detected.

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947

948

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1241 **Supplementary Information**

1242 **Supplementary Figure 1.** (A) Phylogram of the triple gene block (TGB) protein 1. ML

1243 phylogenetic trees show the topological position of the newly discovered TGB sequence in the

1244 tomato fern (black circle) in the context of the closest relatives. (B) Phylogram of the

1245 Tymoviridae virus coat proteins (CP). ML phylogenetic trees show the topological position of the

1246 newly discovered CP sequences in (black circle) in the context of the closest relatives.

1247 Branches are highlighted to represent virus taxonomy (Maculavirus = green, Marafivirus =

1248 orange, Tymovirus = red and unclassified = grey). For each colour, a lighter shade signifies that

1249 this virus is related to but has not formally been assigned to this genus. (C) Phylogram of the

1250 *Oxera neriifolia associated virus* coat protein (CP). ML phylogenetic trees show the topological

1251 position of the newly discovered CP sequence (black circle) in the context of the closest

1252 relatives. For all trees, branches are scaled to the number of amino acid substitutions per site

1253 and trees were mid-point rooted for clarity only. Numbers at the nodes indicate bootstrap

1254 support over 70% (1000 replicates).

1255 **Supplementary Figure 2.** Multiple sequence alignment conserved amino acid motifs in RNA-

1256 dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) regions of the mitoviruses discovered in this study along

1257 with reference mitoviruses. The bar above each residue is green if 100% of residues in that

1258 column are identical, green-brown if they are 30%-99%, and red if under 30%. The numbers

1259 under each section correspond to regions containing motifs identified in (72).

1260 **Supplementary Figure 3.** (A) Phylogenetic relationships of the viruses identified within the

1261 virus families *Potyviridae* and *Tombusviridae*. ML phylogenetic trees based upon alignments of

1262 the amino acid sequences of the RdRp protein show the topological position of discovered

1263 virus-like sequences (black circles) from this study in the context of their closest relatives. See

1264 Figure 3 for the colour scheme. All branches are scaled to the number of amino acid

1265 substitutions per site and trees were mid-point rooted for clarity only. An asterisk indicates node
1266 support of >70% bootstrap support.

1267 **Supplementary Figure 4.** Phylogram of the deltapartitii-like virus (A) coat protein/RNA2 (CP)
1268 and (B) RNA3/coat protein 2. ML phylogenetic trees show the topological position of the newly
1269 discovered CP sequences in (black circle) in the context of the closest relatives. All branches
1270 are scaled to the number of amino acid substitutions per site and trees were mid-point rooted for
1271 clarity only. Numbers at the nodes indicate bootstrap support over 70% (1000 replicates).

1272 **Supplementary Figure 5.** Tanglegram of rooted phylogenetic trees for select virus families and
1273 their hosts. Lines and branches are coloured to represent host clade. The cophylo function
1274 implemented in phytools (v0.7-80) was used to maximise the congruence between the host (left)
1275 and virus (right) phylogenies.

1276 **Supplementary Table 1.** Clade assignment for all One Thousand Plant Transcriptomes
1277 Initiative (1KP) species for which a virus was detected.

1278 **Supplementary Table 2.** Summary information for each One Thousand Plant Transcriptomes
1279 Initiative (1KP) libraries analysed.

1280 **Supplementary Table 3.** Proportion of transcripts and abundance assigned to each plant virus
1281 family.

1282 **Supplementary Table 4.** Summary table of the viruses discovered in this study

1283 **Supplementary Table 5.** Genome annotation information underlying the annotation graphs

1284 **Supplementary References**

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1286 hyovirulent isolate of the plant pathogenic fungus *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*. *Virology*
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