

1 **Untangling an insect virome from its endogenous viral elements**

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15 ABSTRACT

16

17 Insects are an important reservoir of viral biodiversity, but the vast majority of viruses associated
18 with insects have not been discovered. Recent studies have therefore employed high-
19 throughput sequencing of RNA, which has led to rapid advances in our understanding of insect
20 viral diversity. However, insect genomes frequently contain transcribed endogenous viral
21 elements with significant homology to exogenous viruses, complicating the use of RNAseq for
22 viral discovery. In this study, we use a multi-pronged sequencing approach to study the virome
23 of an important agricultural pest and prolific vector of plant pathogens, the potato aphid
24 *Macrosiphum euphorbiae*. We first used rRNA-reduced RNAseq to characterize the bacteria
25 and viruses found in individual insects. We then characterized the frequency of a heritable
26 Flavivirus and an Ambidensovirus in our population. We next generated a quality draft genome
27 assembly for *M. euphorbiae* using Illumina-corrected Nanopore sequencing. This analysis
28 showed that the Ambidensovirus, previously described from an RNAseq viral screen, is not a
29 exogenous virus and instead is a transcribed endogenous viral element in the *M. euphorbiae*
30 genome. Our study generates key insight into an important agricultural pest and highlights a
31 widespread challenge for the study of viral diversity using RNAseq.

32

33 KEYWORDS

34

35 Viral discovery; RNAseq; insects; aphids; endogenous viral elements

36 INTRODUCTION

37

38 The last decade has transformed our understanding of the viral communities associated with
39 insects, the most abundant and diversified animal group [1-4]. Insect viruses have been
40 primarily studied in the context of vector-borne pathogens, which are transmitted horizontally
41 between insect vectors and amplifying hosts and often have medical or agricultural relevance.
42 Other viruses, however, only replicate within the insect and are maintained in natural
43 populations through horizontal and/or vertical transmission. These insect-specific viruses have
44 been shown to have important impacts on host biology [5-7], but much work remains to be done
45 to describe insect-specific viral diversity and uncover the hidden role they play in insect
46 phenotypes and evolution [8-10].

47

48 To address this gap, researchers have employed high-throughput approaches to viral discovery,
49 including next-generation sequencing and analysis of RNA. Recent studies have used this
50 approach to characterize and discover an enormous diversity of viruses [2, 11-15]. However,
51 there are several serious limitations to this approach. For example, it is unclear from RNAseq
52 data whether viral reads come from microbes infecting insect cells or if they are present from an
53 organism ingested by the insect. Another potential challenge with using RNAseq for viral
54 discovery is that insects often harbor fragments of viral sequences in their genomes. The
55 endogenous viral elements (EVEs) described to date have homology with multiple clades of
56 single- and double-stranded DNA and RNA viral families [16]. We have a limited understanding
57 of the role EVEs are playing in insect biology, but transcriptionally active EVEs have been
58 shown to play functional roles in regulating host genome stability and as an antiviral defense
59 against exogenous viruses [17-19]. EVEs are remarkably common across insects [20], and thus
60 EVEs could represent a widespread challenge facing the field. As such, studies are needed to
61 uncover the contribution of EVEs to insect 'viromes'.

62

63 Aphids (Hemiptera: Aphidoidea) are hosts to diverse viruses, including plant pathogens with
64 agricultural significance and insect-specific viruses [21, 22]. Recent studies have used
65 metatranscriptome sequencing to describe viral diversity in aphids [23-27], and have described
66 insect-specific DNA viruses in the family Parvoviridae (Ambidensovirus) and RNA viruses in the
67 Bunyaviruses, Dicistroviruses, Flaviviruses, Iflaviruses, and Mesoviruses families [21].
68 The potato aphid *Macrosiphum euphorbiae* (Thomas, 1878) is an important cosmopolitan
69 agricultural pest that infests tomatoes, potatoes, and other economically important crops [28].
70 *M. euphorbiae* is also an important vector of plant viruses (Families Bromoviridae,
71 Closteroviridae, Geminiviridae, Potyviridae, and Solemoviridae) and was recently shown to host
72 several insect-specific viruses belonging to the families Flaviviridae (Flavivirus) and
73 Parvoviridae [24, 29, 30]. Despite *M. euphorbiae*'s economic importance, no genomic resources
74 are available outside the body and salivary gland transcriptomes [24, 31, 32].

75

76 The genomes of multiple aphid species have been shown to harbor EVEs that mediate growth,
77 development, and wing plasticity [33-37]. In this study, we use next-generation sequencing and
78 molecular techniques to show that aphid EVEs have led to the misidentification of aphid viruses
79 from RNAseq data. First, we used RNAseq to characterize the microbial diversity of field-
80 collected *M. euphorbiae* adults, and we found evidence of two insect-specific viruses infecting
81 aphids collected from the field, including a Flavivirus and Ambidensovirus. Then, we generated
82 a high-quality draft genome sequence of this species. Our genome showed that insect-specific
83 Ambidensoviral hits correspond to transcriptionally active EVEs, indicating that a previously
84 described virus is actually an endogenous viral element in the *M. euphorbiae* genome. Our
85 results illustrate how careful analysis using multiple methods is needed to untangle insect

86 viromes from EVEs, and this study furthers our understanding of the surprisingly widespread
87 presence of densoviral EVEs in aphid genomes.

88
89

90 METHODS

91

92 **Aphid collection:** We collected asexual winged and wingless female *M. euphorbiae* adults from
93 cultivated tomato plants (var Husky Cherry Red) in Knoxville, TN, USA, between April and June
94 2021 and 2022. We stored individual aphids in 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes (Eppendorf, Hamburg,
95 Germany) at -80°C until processing. To validate our ability to identify *M. euphorbiae* (NCBI
96 TaxID: 13131), we used COI barcoding (LCO1490 5'-GGTCAACAAATCATAAAGATATTGG-3'
97 and HCO2198 5'-TAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAATCA-3'), sanger sequencing, and
98 comparisons of our COI sequences to the Barcode of Life Data System
99 (<https://www.boldsystems.org/>) [38]. Our partial COI barcode sequence was uploaded to NCBI
100 with accession number OQ588703.

101

102 **Cultivation of *M. euphorbiae* strain Me57:** To establish a colony of *M. euphorbiae* in the
103 laboratory, we used a single asexual female collected in 2021. After colonization, we maintained
104 this line on tomato plants (Husky Cherry Red) at 20°C 16L:8D. We screened the line for the
105 seven species of facultative symbionts found in aphids using established PCR protocols [39,
106 40]. For this screen, we extracted DNA using 'Bender buffer' and ethanol precipitation as in
107 previous studies [41, 42]. We then used PCR with species-specific primers [39, 43] to screen for
108 *Hamiltonella defensa*, *Fukatsua symbiotica* (X-type), *Regiella insecticola*, *Rickettsia* sp.,
109 *Rickettsiella* sp., *Serratia symbiotica*, and *Spiroplasma* sp. following the recommended thermal
110 profiles (94°C for 2 min, 11 cycles of 94°C for 20 sec, 56°C (declining 1°C each cycle) for 50
111 sec, 72°C for 30 sec, 25 cycles of 94°C for 2 min, 45°C for 50 sec, 72°C for 2 min, and a final
112 extension of 72°C for 5 min).

113

114 **RNA extraction and sequencing:** We homogenized individual aphids with a pestle in 500 µL of
115 TRIzol (Invitrogen; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc., Waltham, MA, USA) and extracted total RNA
116 using BCP (1-bromo-3-chloropropane; Life Technologies, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc.,
117 Waltham, MA, USA) with isopropanol precipitation. We used the Zymo RNA Clean &
118 Concentrator kit (Zymo Genetics Inc., Seattle, WA, USA) to improve the purity and to remove
119 gDNA using DNase I. We then performed metatranscriptome Sequencing at Novogene
120 (Novogene Corporation Inc., Sacramento, CA, USA). Library preparation was conducted using
121 ribosomal RNA (rRNA) depletion by Illumina TruSeq Stranded Total RNA with Ribo-Zero Plus
122 and NEBNext rRNA Depletion Kit (Zymo Genetics, Inc., Seattle, WA, USA). The libraries were
123 sequenced to approximately 9 billion base pairs (bp) per sample with 150 bp paired-end reads
124 on an Illumina NovaSeq platform. Raw reads were deposited into the NCBI Sequence Read
125 Archive under BioProject ID PRJNA942253 with BioSample accessions SAMN33770905-
126 SAMN33770908, and data accessions SRR23870213-SRR23870216.

127

128 **Microbial analysis using CZID:** We assessed the success of ribosomal reduction in the
129 metatranscriptome libraries using riboPicker [44] and the reference database SILVA_138 [45]
130 (supplementary file reads_report.csv). We then used the CZ ID platform pipeline V7.1
131 (<https://czid.org>) [46], a cloud-based, open-source bioinformatics platform designed to detect
132 microbes from metagenomic data. We removed host-specific reads (STAR host subtraction)
133 using the *Acyrtosiphon pisum* genome [47], trimmed adapters using Trimmomatic [48],
134 removed low-quality reads with PriceSeqFilter [49], and aligned the remaining reads to the NCBI
135 NT and NR databases using Minimap2 [50] and Diamond [51]. In parallel, short reads were *de*

136 *novo* assembled using SPADES [52] and mapped back to the resulting contigs using bowtie2
137 [53] to identify the contig to which each raw read belongs. We used the CZ ID water background
138 model, which evaluates the significance (z-scores) of relative abundance estimates for microbial
139 taxa in each sample. Potential bacterial reads were distinguished from contaminating
140 environmental sequences by establishing z-score metrics ≥ 10 , alignment length over 50
141 matching nucleotides (NT L ≥ 50), and a minimum of five reads per million aligning to the
142 reference protein database (NR rPM ≥ 5). Potential viruses were established by z-score metrics
143 of ≥ 1 , NT L ≥ 50 , and NR rPM ≥ 5 [46, 54, 55]. Bacterial and viral hits were confirmed with
144 BLASTX and BLASTN manual searches. Only annotated non-host hits with revised Taxonomy
145 IDs and BLAST-based match refinement were used for further analysis. The “Macrosiphum
146 euphorbiae” project is viewable and searchable to anyone in CZ ID.

147
148 **Densoviral analysis using *de novo* assembly and Travis:** We conducted an additional
149 screening and viral genome assembly of potential Ambidensovirus using *de novo*
150 transcriptome assemblies obtained as follows. We used Trimmomatic v.0.39 [48] to trim the
151 sequence adapters and filtered low-quality/complexity reads, and assessed for post-trimming
152 quality using FastQC v.0.11.9 [56]. Then, we used Trinity v.2.14 [57] to *de novo* assemble the
153 remaining reads. We used TRAVIS (v.20221029, <https://github.com/kaefers/travis>) to scan the
154 assembled transcriptomes for Densovirus-like sequences. We built the reference database
155 according to the currently accepted Densovirinae (ICTV, 29. Oct 2022, see supplementary file
156 parvoviridae_reference_library.csv), extracted open reading frames between 100 and 2000
157 amino acids from the assembled transcriptomes, and screened using HMMER v3.3.1 [58],
158 MMSeqs2 [59], BLASTP v2.12.0 [60], and Diamond v2.0.15 [51]. We set the e-value cutoff at 1
159 $\times 10^{-6}$, where applicable. All hits were again searched with Diamond against the non-redundant
160 protein database (NCBI, downloaded on 29 Oct 2022).

161
162 **MeV-1 genome analysis:** We used the CZ ID viral consensus genomes pipeline to build a
163 consensus genome from the sample with MeV-1 present at high levels. In short, contigs were
164 aligned to the reference MeV-1 genome (NCBI Entry KT309079.1) using minimap2 [50] and
165 then trimmed using TrimGalore (Phred score < 20) [61]. The consensus genome was generated
166 with iVar consensus using a depth of five or more reads [62].

167
168 **MeV-1, MeV-2, and *Hamiltonella defensa* screening:** Like all aphids, *M. euphorbiae* hosts an
169 obligate heritable bacterial symbiont called *Buchnera aphidicola* that synthesizes amino acids
170 missing from the aphid’s diet of plant phloem, and can also harbor several other facultative
171 symbiotic bacteria (listed above) [43]. To screen for these microbes, we used 1 μg of total RNA
172 extracted (as above) from each of the 23 adults collected during 2022 for cDNA synthesis with
173 iScript cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., Hercules, CA, USA). To screen for the
174 Flavivirus Macrosiphum euphorbiae virus 1 (MeV-1), we used 100 ng of cDNA, the primers
175 MevirF1 (5'-GTACACTTGCCTTACCTTACTGT-3') and MevirR1b (5'-
176 AACACGGGTCACGACCTTAG-3'), and the PCR conditions previously described [30]. To
177 screen for the Ambidensovirus Macrosiphum euphorbiae virus 2 (MeV-2), we used 100 ng of
178 cDNA, the MeV2-F (5'-CCGGATGACAAATCCCACGA-3') and MeV2-R (5'-
179 AATAGGCGCAGAGATGGACG-3') primers, and the recommended PCR conditions [24]. In
180 addition, we extracted DNA from colonized Me57 aphids (as above) and used 40 ng of genomic
181 DNA to screen for MeV-2. The aphid Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (G3PDH)
182 was used as internal control (primers G3PDH_F (5'-CGGGAATTTTCATTGAACGAC-3') and
183 G3PDH_R (5'-TCCACAACACGGTTGGAGTA-3') [35]).

184
185 We used 200 ng of the cDNA previously synthesized for MeV-1 and MeV-2 screening and the
186 protocols for *Hamiltonella defensa* PCR screening (as described above) to evaluate the

187 proportion of field-collected aphids harboring this bacterial symbiont (supplementary file
188 samples_metadata.csv). Furthermore, we used a non-parametric (Spearman) correlation to
189 investigate the potential interaction between *Hamiltonella* and MeV-1.

190
191 **DNA extraction and sequencing:** We pooled seven genetically identical adult unwinged
192 aphids from cultivated lab line Me57 and isolated genomic DNA (gDNA) using a
193 phenol/chloroform extraction. We then sheared the gDNA to approximately 20kb fragments
194 using Covaris G-tubes (Covaris LLC., Woburn, MA, USA) at 4200 RMP for 1 minute, followed
195 by tube inversion. For library preparation, we used the NEB Next PPF E repair kit with Ultra II
196 end prep reaction (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA) under recommended conditions
197 and Nanopore ligation sequencing kit SQK-LSK110. For sequencing, we used a Nanopore
198 R9.4.1 (FLO-MIN106D) flow cell and a MinION MIN-101B sequencing device (Oxford Nanopore
199 Technologies, Oxford, UK). We ran the flow cell for 24 hours, followed by a wash with Flow Cell
200 Wash Kit (EXP-WSH004); we then reloaded the flow cell with a second library prep and ran the
201 sequencer for an additional 48 hours. We stopped the second sequencing run at 72 hours (~22
202 Gbps of sequencing). In addition, we performed an additional 5.3 Gb of 150 bp paired-end
203 sequencing to polish the assembly on an Illumina NovaSeq platform. DNA was extracted as
204 above, and library prep and sequencing were performed by Novogene Inc. Raw reads were
205 filtered for low quality and adapter contamination by Novogene Inc.

206
207 ***M. euphorbiae* whole genome assembly:** We used Guppy (Oxford Nanopore Technologies)
208 for base-calling and quality trimming raw reads. For the removal of *Buchnera* reads, we used
209 minimap2 v.2.24 [50] in conjunction with SAMtools v.1.15.1 [63] to map our reads against the
210 *Buchnera aphidicola* (strain *Macrosiphum euphorbiae*) genome (NCBI accession
211 NZ_CP029205) and the corresponding plasmids (NCBI accession number NZ_CP029203 and
212 NZ_CP029204). We only kept unmapped reads for aphid genome assembly. We assembled
213 Nanopore reads using CANU v.2.0 [64] with an estimated genome size of 541 Mbp. We
214 removed allelic variants from the assembly using the purge_haplotigs v.1.1.2 [65], first by
215 mapping reads to the assembly using minimap2 v2.24-r1122 with Samtools v.1.15.1 and
216 manually choosing cutoffs for haploid vs. diploid coverage based on a histogram plot (v -l 5 -m
217 27 -h 60), and then by purging duplicated contigs based on coverage level (-j 80 -s 50). For
218 assembly polishing, we used the Illumina reads after quality assessment using FastQC V0.11.9
219 [56]. Then we used these reads to polish the purged assembly using Pilon v.1.24 with default
220 parameters [66]. We used BlobTools2 [67] to identify remaining contaminating contigs. For this,
221 we used blast results obtained from the BLASTN function against the NR database using blast
222 plus v.2.12.0 [68], read coverage obtained by mapping the Illumina reads to the assembly using
223 minimap2 v.2.24 [50], and GC content in this analysis. Based on these results, we removed all
224 the short contigs with strong homology to the plant genus *Solanum* (which includes the tomato
225 host plant species of *M. euphorbiae*) as we suspect these contigs were assembled from host
226 plant contamination in the guts of sequenced aphids. We also removed two short contigs with
227 homology to other bacterial contaminants such as *Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas* sp.
228 Lastly, we removed a contig nearly identical to the pLeu plasmid found in *Buchnera aphidicola*
229 and a small portion of two large contigs matching the *Buchnera* genome. The final annotation
230 was assessed using BUSCO v.5.3.2 [69] with the MetaEuk gene predictor [70] implemented in
231 galaxy.org, using the hemiptera_odb10 (2020-08-05) lineage dataset. The *M. euphorbiae*
232 genome is available in NCBI with BioProject ID PRJNA942253 and BioSample
233 SAMN33681650. The raw Nanopore (SRR23851809) and Illumina reads (SRR23919025)
234 associated with the genome are available through the Sequence Read Archive, and the finished
235 assembly is available with accession number JARHUA000000000.

236

237 **Characterizing endogenous viral elements in the *M. euphorbiae* genome:** DNA Illumina
238 raw reads were used as input to the CZ ID platform pipeline V7.1 (<https://czid.org>) and a z-score
239 metrics of ≥ 1 and NT L ≥ 50 as described above [46, 54]. Additionally, to screen for actively
240 transcribed Ambidensovirus-like EVES in the *M. euphorbiae* genome, we used BLASTN
241 searches using the seven viral hits provided in individual Trinity contigs flagged by TRAVIS
242 (supplementary file contigs_TRAVIS.fasta) against the genome scaffolds. All non-redundant hits
243 from these searches with E-values $< 1.10^{-3}$ were extracted and used in further analyses [33].
244

245

246 RESULTS

247
248 **Analysis of non-host sequences detected in single aphid:** We used the pea aphid (*A.*
249 *pisum*) genome to subtract host reads from our transcriptome data set. On average, 81.8% of
250 the reads mapped to this host and were subtracted from further analysis (see supplementary file
251 reads_report.csv). We then analyzed the remaining distribution of non-pea aphid reads, within a
252 single *M. euphorbiae* aphid, as the overall proportion of reads assembled into contigs that could
253 be assigned to bacterial, eukaryotic, and viral taxa (public project *Macrosiphum euphorbiae* at
254 <https://czid.org>). Bacterial taxa dominated the microbial signature (Figure 1A), and as expected,
255 the highest number of reads assembled into contigs matched the aphid obligate symbiont
256 *Buchnera aphidicola* with over 45,000 reads per million aligning to the nucleotide database (NT
257 rPM>45,000). Reads from an aphid facultative symbiont *Hamiltonella defensa*, were found in
258 two samples (NT rPM>8,700). One sample (Me152) showed a strong signature of bacterial
259 contaminants (*E. coli*, *Pseudomonas*, *Halomonas*, and *Agrobacterium*) commonly present in soil
260 and plant surfaces.
261

262 In terms of eukaryotes (Figure 1B), we found hits to Solanaceae, which includes the host plant
263 species of *M. euphorbiae*, and Brachonidae parasitoid wasps (Insecta: Hymenoptera) in two
264 samples (NT rPM>18,000). *M. euphorbiae* is known to be parasitized by hymenopterous wasps
265 belonging to the superfamilies Ichneumonoidea (Braconidae) and Chalcidoidea [71]. In addition,
266 there were some *M. euphorbiae* species-specific reads remaining, which did not map to the pea
267 aphid reference genome but showed some homology to other aphid species (Insecta:
268 Hemiptera).
269

270 We detected the presence of two insect-specific viruses in our metatranscriptome data (Figure
271 1C). The highest number of hits matched a previously described insect-specific Flavivirus,
272 called *Macrosiphum euphorbiae* virus 1 (MeV-1), which we detected in two samples (NT rPM =
273 234 and 4055 for Me112 and Me202, respectively). We also detected viral hits to an insect-
274 specific Ambidensovirus (Me202 and Me152; NT rPM>60). Other viral reads in our samples
275 included a Bracovirus in one of the samples that was parasitized with the Brachonidae wasp
276 (Me202; NT rPM=1) and a Tombusvirus (Me152; NT rPM=2.9), a family of plant pathogenic
277 viruses with a single-stranded positive-sense RNA genome. Lastly, we detected two phage
278 genera, the *Hamiltonella*-specific phage APSE (NT rPM>310) in the same samples found
279 positive for this symbiont (Me112 and Me202) and Acinetobacter phage (NT rPM 0.5-18), a
280 bacteriophage largely prevalent in the environment [72].
281

282 **Figure 1.** Details of the per aphid breakdown of non-host reads aligning to specific bacteria
283 (**Figure 1a**), eukaryotic (**Figure 1b**), and viral (**Figure 1c**) taxa. Reads per million aligning to the
284 nucleotide database (NT rPM) used as the quantitative metric in the heatmaps (see
285 supplementary files heatmap_metrics.csv for metric details).
286

287 **Comprehensive and quantitative analysis of insect-specific viruses:** Using the CZ ID
288 platform, we aligned five assembled contigs to the MeV-1 reference genome (NCBI accession
289 KT309079) and found that they ranged between 85.8-97.2% nucleotide identity to the reference
290 genome (Figure 2A). Our transcriptome retrieved 17,397 informative nucleotides allowing the
291 assembly of a nearly complete genome for MeV-1. Our MeV-1 consensus genome has a
292 coverage breadth of 79% and a coverage depth of 673.2x (NCBI accession OQ504571)
293 (supplementary figure MeV1_coverage.tif). This single-stranded positive-sense RNA genome
294 contains a single large ORF encoding a polyprotein of 7,333 amino acids, which is subsequently
295 processed to generate structural and non-structural proteins [73]. Previous analysis indicated
296 that the polyprotein motifs of MeV-1 helicase, methyltransferase, and RdRp are similar to
297 domains in other *Flavivirus* (family Flaviviridae) [21, 30]. The characteristic secondary structures
298 (RNA stem-loop) in *Flavivirus* genomes most likely contributed to the 5,283 missing bases in our
299 MeV-1 consensus genome assembly [74].

300

301 **Figure 2.** Assembled *M. euphorbiae* transcriptome contigs aligning to previously described
302 insect Flavivirus (**Figure 2a**) and Ambidensovirus (**Figure 2b**) (see supplementary files
303 contigs_CZID.fasta and contigs_TRAVIS.fasta for sequence details).

304

305 In addition, using the CZ ID platform, we detected two contigs with 80% similarity to the non-
306 structural protein 1 (NS1) of *Dysaphis plantaginea* Densovirus (DpIDNV), single-stranded DNA
307 insect-specific *Ambidensovirus* (family Parvoviridae) (supplementary file contigs_CZID.fasta).
308 Due to the lack of a publicly available genome or partial viral sequences of *Macrosiphum*
309 *euphorbiae* virus 2 (MeV-2), an Ambidensovirus previously described in the same aphid species
310 [24], we were not able to explore the homology between both viruses. Therefore, we conducted
311 a more extensive analysis of our RNAseq data using TRAVIS, a consistency-based virus
312 detection pipeline for sensitive mass screening of transcriptomic data directed toward
313 Parvoviridae proteins. While degrees of sequence identity between Densovirinae (a subfamily of
314 viral species exclusively infecting arthropods) is very low, viral species often express NS1 and
315 VP proteins, which are useful for parvovirus phylogenetic inferences [75]. We used the seven
316 viral hits provided in individual Trinity contigs flagged by TRAVIS (supplementary file
317 contigs_TRAVIS.fasta) to identify the ORF orientation and similarity and to construct a
318 hypothetical genome assembly using DpIDNV as the closest reference available (Figure 2B).
319 We found three contigs with 68.8% to 81.3% similarity to the non-structural ORF1 (encoding for
320 the NS1 protein) and two contigs with 68.8% to 86.2% similarity to the structural ORF (encoding
321 for the VP protein). None of the assembled contigs showed similarity to DpIDNV ORF2
322 (encoding for the NS2 protein). We only detected 70% similarity with the ORF2 of a distantly
323 related Ambidensovirus (NCBI accession AMG693112), which genomic organization differs
324 from previously reported aphid densoviruses [21]. Importantly, all densoviral NS1-like
325 sequences also showed a high nucleotide similarity (72-85%) to the pea aphid APNS-2 (NCBI
326 accession NC_042493.1 and NC_042494.1), an EVE that contributes to wing phenotypic
327 plasticity in this species [35].

328

329 **Insect-specific virus frequency in natural populations:** To further investigate the infection
330 frequency of MeV-1 and MeV-2 infections in natural populations, we used a PCR approach to
331 screen 23 individual adult aphids collected during 2022 as well as aphids from our colonized
332 *Macrosiphum* line (Me57). We found only 13 field-collected aphids positive for MeV-1 (54.2%)
333 and 21 aphids (87.5%) positive for MeV-2, including the colonized individuals (Figure 3). We
334 also tested the cDNA of field-collected aphids (previously screened for MeV-1) for the presence
335 of *Hamiltonella defensa* and found that 54.2% of the aphids (n=13) were harboring this bacterial
336 symbiont. We found that 41.7% of individuals (n=10) shared a co-infection between this
337 Flavivirus and *Hamiltonella* (Figure 3), but this

338 association was not statistically significant (p-value= 0.078; r= 0.375).

339

340 **Figure 3.** Frequency of *Macrosiphum euphorbiae* virus 1 (MeV-1), *Macrosiphum euphorbiae*
341 virus 2 (MeV-2), and *Hamiltonella defensa* infections in wild-collected (n=23) and colonized
342 (n=1) aphids. All samples tested using cDNA for PCR screenings.

343

344 **Genome sequencing for analysis of endogenous viral elements (EVEs):** Our laboratory line
345 (Me57) was found to be PCR positive for MeV-2, and we then used DNA sequences from a
346 pooled sample of Me57 aphids to look for viral reads. We used the CZ ID platform as above to
347 identify viral taxa using the Illumina DNA reads from our colonized Me57 aphid line.

348 Surprisingly, we detected only a single contig with a low number of Ambidensovirus hits (NT
349 rPM>0.329), which also showed 79.0% similarity to the DpIDNV NS1 viral protein and 84.34%
350 similarity to an uncharacterized genomic transcript in pea aphids (NCBI accession
351 XM_029492170.1). Since both of our transcriptome and genomic data were unable to recover a
352 complete or near-to-complete Ambidensovirus genome, we then suspected that these viral
353 reads could correspond instead to actively transcribed EVEs, as previously reported in other
354 closely related aphid species [33, 35].

355

356 To determine with certainty whether the Ambidensovirus hits found in our transcriptome data
357 corresponded to an actively transcribed EVE, we assembled the first *M. euphorbiae* genome
358 publicly available. We obtained a total of 4,223,264 nanopore reads (at an average of 5.21kb)
359 and 35,578,886 Illumina reads (PE 150bp) from sequencing. After assembly, haplotig purging,
360 polishing, and manual removal of plant and bacterial contigs, our assembly contained 2,176
361 contigs with an N50 length of 665kb and a total length of 545.7 Mb (Figure 4A). *M. euphorbiae*
362 has a similar GC content (29.96%; Figure 4B) to other sequenced aphids (e.g., *A. pisum* at
363 29.6%, *M. persicae* at 30.1%, and *A. glycines* at 27.8%) [76, 77]. The size of our assembly is
364 close to a recent estimation of the *M. euphorbia* genome size based on flow cytometry which
365 was estimated at 531.7 Mb [76]. Similarly, an analysis of single-copy orthologs showed our
366 assembly contains 98.5% complete BUSCOs, with 94% present in single copies and 4.5%
367 duplicated (Figure 4C). An additional 1.2% of BUSCOs are fragmented, and 0.3% are missing.
368 Together these results suggest that this draft of the genome is highly complete.

369

370 **Figure 4.** *M. euphorbiae* genome assembly metrics (**Figure 4a**), GC content and coverage
371 (**Figure 4b**), and BUSCO metrics (**Figure 4c**).

372

373 We used the genome as a reference to screen for the seven individual Trinity contigs flagged by
374 TRAVIS as potential Ambidensovirus in our previous analysis. Initially, we selected hits with E-
375 values < 1.10^{-3} [33]; however, most of the 3,044 hits represent shorter sequences rather than
376 the actual transcript length (see supplementary file expressed_densoviral_EVEs.csv); therefore,
377 we restricted the search to matches consistently to the entire length of each transcript and E-
378 values=0 (Table 1). No full-length hits in the genome were found for the two largest viral contigs
379 assembled from transcriptome data (contig3 and contig4); instead, the best hits for these two
380 contigs corresponded to 16-17% of the total length. In insects, the EVE repertoire varies
381 between distinct populations of a given species and, in some cases, even between individuals
382 within the same population [78]. This phenomenon explains why all the field aphid samples
383 (n=3) that tested negative for MeV-2 by PCR amplified a product of approximately 500 bp,
384 which is about half of the expected size reported for the primers used. Given that the genome
385 assemblies and RNAseq data sets were derived from different aphid strains, it is not surprising
386 the wide range of partial-length Ambidensovirus hits obtained in our analysis. However, we are
387 confident that five full-length viral transcripts are constitutively expressed from three regions of
388 the *M. euphorbiae* genome (tig00030708_pilon, tig00029914_pilon, and tig00027226_pilon).

389
390 **Table 1.** List of Ambidensoviral transcripts and the corresponding integrations in *M. euphorbiae*
391 genome.

Transcriptome contig	Transcript length	Percentage of identical sites	Hit end	Hit start	Genome contig	Query end	Query start
Travis_contig1	783	96.70%	783	1	tig00030708_pilon	198038	197258
Travis_contig1	783	98.90%	1	783	tig00029914_pilon	60345	59559
Travis_contig2	466	96.20%	416	1	tig00030708_pilon	198433	198018
Travis_contig2	466	99.80%	1	466	tig00029914_pilon	59579	59114
Travis_contig3	2155	-	-	-	-	-	-
Travis_contig4	2878	-	-	-	-	-	-
Travis_contig5	1174	99.90%	1	1174	tig00030708_pilon	92758	91585
Travis_contig6	1040	99.80%	1	1040	tig00030708_pilon	85562	84525
Travis_contig7	635	100.00%	635	1	tig00030708_pilon	86191	85557
Travis_contig7	635	84.90%	635	1	tig00027226_pilon	138266	137632

392
393
394 **DISCUSSION**

395
396 RNAseq is becoming an essential tool for virus discovery. Our study illustrates how endogenous
397 viral elements in insect genomes can be an obstacle to using RNAseq for characterizing viral
398 diversity in arthropods. We used rRNA-depleted RNAseq along with bioinformatic tools to
399 characterize the virome of an important insect pest species, the potato aphid *Macrosiphum*
400 *euphorbiae*. Our analysis found two insect-specific viruses from the families Flavivirus and
401 Ambidensovirus described in previous RNAseq studies. However, by sequencing and
402 assembling the genome of this insect using long-read sequencing, we found that the
403 Ambidensovirus is a transcriptionally active EVE rather than an exogenous virus. Endogenous
404 viral elements encoded in the host genome are abundant in arthropod genomes, and thus EVE
405 sequences in RNAseq studies are an important consideration for future studies of viral diversity
406 in arthropods.

407
408 Densoviral EVEs have been shown to be transcriptionally active in two other aphid species:
409 *Myzus persicae* and *A. pisum*. In pea aphids, two copies of a transcribed densoviral non-
410 structural protein (termed the “APNS” genes) were found to be upregulated in response to
411 crowded conditions and to be functionally linked to the plastic production of wings [35]. These
412 genes had close homology with the non-structural genes of *Dysaphis plantaginea* densovirus
413 (DpIDNV), which, when infecting rosy apple aphids, causes them to be winged [79], suggesting
414 the function of these viral genes had been conserved after endogenization. The transcribed
415 EVEs we found in *M. euphorbiae* have significant homology to the pea aphid APNS genes, and
416 it seems likely that these genes may also be playing a role in wing plasticity in *M. euphorbiae*
417 though additional data is needed.

418
419 Our study contributes to the growing list of sequenced aphid genomes, which together show
420 that transcribed densoviral EVEs are common in this insect group [33, 35, 37, 80]. Most
421 identified EVEs in insect genomes correspond to unclassified single-stranded RNA viruses and
422 viruses belonging to the families Rhabdoviridae and Parvoviridae [78]. Unlike RNA viruses,

423 which may produce abundant short mRNAs that favor virus endogenization [20], Parvoviruses
424 undergo a double-stranded DNA intermediate during nuclear replication, which along with the
425 endonuclease activity of NS1 and the eukaryote double-stranded break repair mechanism may
426 largely favor endogenization of this virus family [81, 82]. Previous studies have estimated that
427 around 10% of the parvoviruses described in animals are likely integrated into host genomes,
428 but in most cases, the EVE status remains uncertain due to unavailable or incomplete genomes
429 for those species in which transcriptome data is available [75]. Multiple recent studies have
430 described the presence of “new” densovirus in aphid’s transcriptome [23, 26, 83]; however,
431 our combined transcriptomic and genomic analyses suggest that some of those viral transcripts
432 may likely correspond to actively transcribed EVEs instead of heritable exogenous viruses
433 infecting aphids at very high rates.

434
435 Last, our study shed light on the biology of MeV-1, an insect-specific Flavivirus (family
436 Flaviviridae), previously characterized by RNAseq studies of *M. euphorbiae* populations
437 collected in France [30]. We found that this virus, contrary to previous reports, is present in a
438 North American population of *M. euphorbiae*, and we found that it is highly prevalent. By
439 assembling the genome of MeV-1 from our RNAseq data, we found that our local population is
440 infected with a potentially distinct viral strain from previous studies. No obvious infection
441 symptoms or abnormal phenotypes were observed in MeV-1-infected *M. euphorbiae* adults, and
442 future studies are needed to determine what phenotypic effects this virus has on its host. Other
443 heritable viruses have been found to interact with the secondary symbiotic bacteria found in
444 aphids [84-86] but we did not find significant patterns of co-infections with the bacterial symbiont
445 *Hamiltonella defensa*.

446
447 EVEs are common in insect genomes, and our results highlight this widespread challenge in
448 studying insect viromes. Our study further emphasizes how combining sequencing
449 methodologies is necessary to overcome the potential pitfalls of only RNAseq-based viral
450 discovery. Careful consideration of the biological characteristics and genome structure of
451 viruses discovered through RNAseq is essential [87]. In aphids and other widely study systems,
452 the development of cultured cell lines is also imperative to isolate viral species described by
453 sequence-based methods, to characterize viral replication, and for use in large-scale virus
454 production that will facilitate future investigation of the complex interaction of aphid viruses and
455 their hosts [21].

456
457 The relatively high transcription level of some EVEs suggests that viral integration may have
458 important biological implications for the fitness of aphids. Likewise, uncovering the phenotypic
459 effects of accurately described insect-specific viruses may also show promising targets for
460 alternative control strategies of agriculturally destructive organisms while providing important
461 foundational resources in the study of host-virus dynamics. Research efforts need to be done on
462 the evolutionary dynamics of heritable viruses to better understand how they are acting as
463 hidden drivers of host phenotypes.

464
465 DATA ACCESSIBILITY: All data is available through CZ ID (Macrosiphum euphorbiae project),
466 NCBI BioProject ID PRJNA942253, or included as a supplemental file.

467
468 AUTHORS’ CONTRIBUTIONS: PRL and BJP conceived of the project. PRL and BJP wrote the
469 manuscript.

470 PRL, WB, SK, BJP carried out the data curation, bioinformatic analysis and software validation.
471 PRL, WB, MMM carried out the molecular work. BJP contributed to funding acquisition. All
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473

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475

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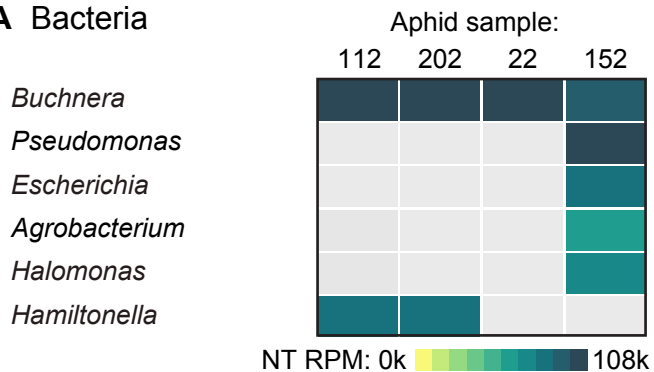
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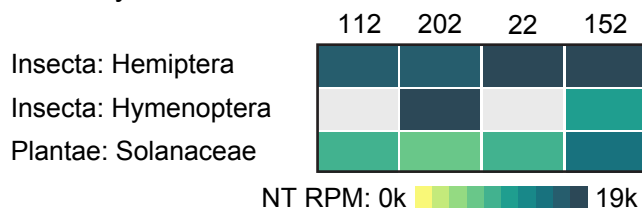
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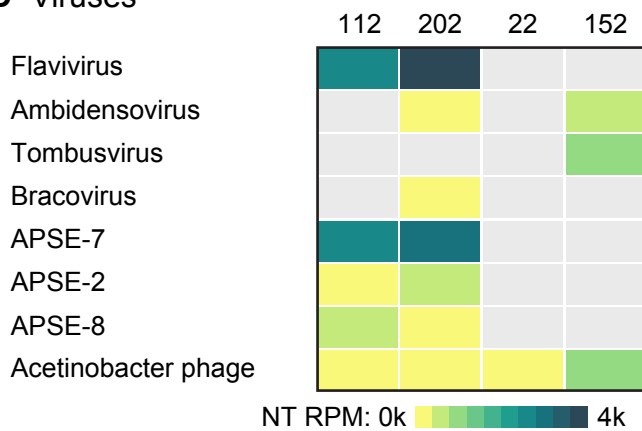
A Bacteria



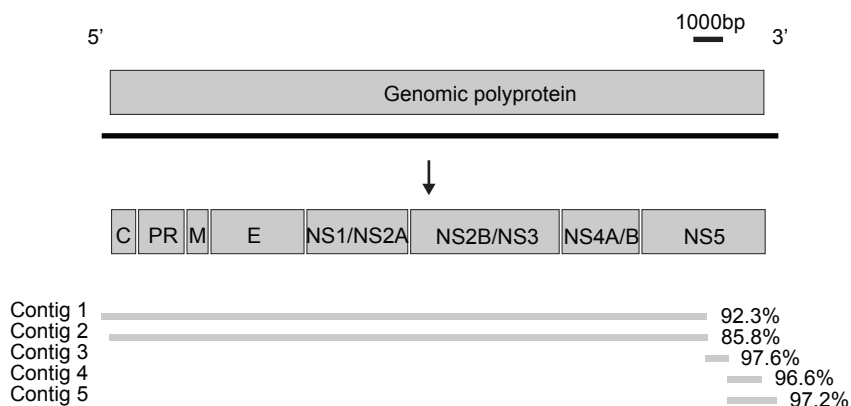
B Eukaryotes



C Viruses



A: Macrosiphum euphorbiae virus 1
(NCBI Reference Sequence NC_028137.1)



B: Dysaphis plantaginea Densovirus
(NCBI Reference Sequence NC_034532.1)

