1 **Title**
2 <u>Discovery of several thousand highly diverse circular DNA viruses</u>
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Summary
Although it is suspected that there are millions of distinct viral species, fewer than 9,000 are catalogued
in GenBank's RefSeq database. We selectively enriched for and amplified the genomes of circular DNA
viruses in over 70 animal samples, ranging from cultured soil nematodes to human tissue specimens. A
bioinformatics pipeline, Cenote-Taker, was developed to automatically annotate over 2,500 circular
genomes in a GenBank-compliant format. The new genomes belong to dozens of established and
emerging viral families. Some appear to be the result of previously undescribed recombination events

between ssDNA viruses and ssRNA viruses. In addition, hundreds of circular DNA elements that do not
encode any discernable similarities to previously characterized sequences were identified. To
characterize these "dark matter" sequences, we used an artificial neural network to identify candidate
viral capsid proteins, several of which formed virus-like particles when expressed in culture. These data
further the understanding of viral sequence diversity and allow for high throughput documentation of
the virosphere.
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56 **Keywords**
57 Viral metagenomics, virome, virus discovery, microbial genomics, evolution
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Introduction
There has been a rush to utilize the massive parallel sequencing approaches to better understand the
complex microbial communities associated with humans and other animals. Although the bacterial
populations in these surveys have become increasingly recognizable (Lloyd-Price et al., 2017), a
substantial fraction of the reads and *de novo* assembled contigs in many metagenomics efforts are
binned as genetic "dark matter," with no recognizable similarity to characterized sequences
(Krishnamurthy and Wang, 2017, Oh et al., 2014). Some of this dark matter undoubtedly consists of viral
sequences, which have remained poorly characterized due to their enormous diversity (Simmonds et al.,
2017, Paez-Espino et al., 2016, Emerson et al., 2018). Recent efforts have shown that our understanding
of viral diversity, even of viruses known to directly infect humans, has been incomplete (Pastrana et al.,
2018, Turnbaugh et al., 2007, Gilbert et al., 2010). To increase the power of future studies seeking to
more comprehensively catalog the virome and find additional associations between viruses and disease,
reference genomes for all clades of the virosphere need be identified, annotated, and made publicly
accessible.
Virus discovery has typically proven to be more difficult than discovery of cellular organisms.
Whereas all known cellular organisms encode conserved sequences (such as ribosomal RNA genes) that
can readily be identified through sequence analysis, viruses, as a whole, do not have any universally
conserved sequence components (O'Leary et al., 2016, Brister et al., 2015, Sullivan, 2015, Rohwer and
Edwards, 2002). Nevertheless, some success has been achieved in RNA virus discovery by probing for
the conserved sequences of their distinctive RNA-dependent RNA polymerase or reverse transcriptase
genes in metatranscriptomic data (Shi et al., 2016). Also, many bacteriophages of the order
Caudovirales, such as the families *Siphoviridae*, *Podoviridae*, and *Myoviridae*, have been reported in high
numbers due to their and their hosts' culturability and their detectability using viral plaque assays (Pope
et al., 2015, Grose and Casjens, 2014, Grose et al., 2014). The relatively abundant representation of
these families in databases has allowed new variants to be recognized by high-throughput virus
classification tools like VirSorter (Roux et al., 2015, Gregory et al., 2019, Roux et al., 2019b). In contrast,
many small DNA viruses are not easily cultured (Bedell et al., 1991), use diverse genome replication
strategies, and typically lack DNA polymerase genes such as those in large DNA viruses (Koonin et al.,
2015). An additional challenge is that small DNA viruses with segmented genomes may have segments
that do not encode recognizable homologs of known viral genes. Therefore, small DNA viruses are more
sparsely represented in reference databases. However, some groups have been successful in discovery
of small DNA genomes in a wide range of viromes (Blinkova et al., 2010, Pastrana et al., 2018, Dayaram
et al., 2015, Dayaram et al., 2016, Labonte and Suttle, 2013, Rosario et al., 2018, Victoria et al., 2009).
Despite the apparent challenges in detecting small DNA viruses, many have physical properties
that can be leveraged to facilitate their discovery. In contrast to the nuclear genomes of animals, many
DNA virus genomes have circular topology, which allows selective enrichment through rolling circle
amplification (RCA) methods (Kim et al., 2008). Further, the unique ability of viral capsids to protect

nucleic acids from nuclease digestion and to mediate the migration of the viral genome through
ultracentrifugation gradients or size exclusion columns allows physical isolation of viral genomes.
The current study grew out of an effort to find papillomaviruses (small circular DNA viruses) in
humans and economically important or evolutionarily informative animals (Pastrana et al., 2018, Peretti
et al., 2015). The sampling included several types of animals that might serve as laboratory models (e.g.,
mice, fruit flies, soil nematodes). A number of papillomaviruses were detected among a vastly larger set
of circular DNA sequences that were not easily identifiable in standard BLASTN searches. The goal of the
present study is to catalog and annotate the circular DNA virome from these animal tissues to
understand the diversity and evolution of viral sequences. We developed a comprehensive
bioinformatics pipeline, Cenote-Taker, to classify and annotate over 2,500 candidate viral genomes and
generate GenBank-compliant output files. Cenote-Taker is available for free public use with a graphical
user interface at http://www.cyverse.org/discovery-environment.
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Results
Virion enrichment, genome sequencing, and annotation
We have previously developed methods for discovery of new polyomavirus and papillomavirus species
in skin swabs and complex tissue specimens (Peretti et al., 2015). Nuclease-resistant DNA from purified
virions was amplified by random-primed rolling circle amplification (RCA) and subjected to deep-
sequencing. Reads were *de novo* assembled into contigs and analyzed with a bioinformatics pipeline,
Cenote-Taker (a portmanteau of *cenote*, a naturally occurring circular water pool, and *note-taker*), to
identify and annotate *de novo* assembled contigs with terminal direct repeats consistent with circular
DNA molecules. In this pipeline, putative circular sequences were queried against GenBank's nucleotide
database using BLASTN to remove circles with extensive nucleotide identity (>90% across any 500 bp
window) to known sequences. Sequences with >90% identity to previously reported viral sequences
represented less than 1.5% of circular contigs and are not included in further analysis. Open reading
frames (ORFs) from remaining unidentified circular DNA sequences >240 nucleotides (nt) in length were
translated and used for RPS-BLAST queries of GenBank's Conserved Domain Database (CDD). ORFs that
did not yield E values better than 1×10^{-4} in RPS-BLAST were subjected to BLASTP searches of viral
sequences in GenBank's nr database (Altschul et al., 1990, Marchler-Bauer and Bryant, 2004, Marchler-
Bauer et al., 2015). For ORFs that were not confidently identified in BLAST searches, HHBlits (Remmert
et al., 2011) was used to search the CDD, Pfam (El-Gebali et al., 2019), Uniprot (UniProt, 2019), Scop
(Chandonia et al., 2019), and PDB (Burley et al., 2017) databases. The results were used to annotate and
name each sequence in a human-readable genome map as well as a format suitable for submission to
GenBank. After checking the Cenote-Taker output of each genome, minor revisions were made, as
needed, and files were submitted to GenBank (BioProject Accessions PRJNA393166 and PRJNA396064).
All annotations meet or exceed recently proposed standards for uncultivated virus genomes (Roux et al.,
2019a).
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Discovery of 2514 DNA viruses in animal metagenomes
Of the novel circular sequences detected in the survey, 1844 encode genes with similarity to proteins of
ssDNA viruses and 55 encode genes with similarity to dsDNA viral proteins (Fig. 1A). The large majority
of genomes from this study are highly divergent from RefSeq entries (Fig. S1). We discovered 868
genomes that had similarity to unclassified eukaryotic viruses known as circular replication associated
protein (Rep)-encoding single-stranded DNA (CRESS) viruses. The group is defined by the presence of a
characteristic rolling circle endonuclease/superfamily 3 helicase gene (Rep) (Zhao et al., 2019,
Kazlauskas et al., 2019), but has not been assigned to families by the ICTV or RefSeq. We estimate that
199 non-redundant unclassified CRESS virus genomes had been previously deposited in GenBank, and 85
are listed in RefSeq (Fig. 1B). Also abundant was the viral family *Microviridae*, a class of small

<u>Figure 1: Novel viruses associated with animal samples</u>
Gross characterization of viruses discovered in this project compared to NCBI RefSeq virus database entries.
(A) Pie chart representing the number of viral genomes in broad categories. (B) Bar graph showing the
number of new representatives of known viral families or unclassified groups. Note that genomes in this study
were assigned taxonomy based on at least one region with a BLASTX hit with an E value $<1×10-5$, suggesting
commonality with a known viral family. Some genomes may ultimately be characterized as being basal to the
assigned family.

Supplemental Figure 1: Divergence of proteins encoded by circular contigs
BLASTX summary of each circular DNA molecule recovered from virus enriched samples. Sequences were queried against a database of viral and plasmid sequences. Only hits with E values < 10-5 were plotted. Here, BLASTX only reports the most significant stretch of amino acid sequence from each circular contig, and, therefore, other regions of each contig can be assumed to be equally or less conserved.

bacteriophages, with 670 complete genomes. This represents a substantial expansion beyond the 459 non-redundant microvirus genomes previously listed in GenBank (of which 44 were listed in the RefSeq database). Other genomes that were uncovered represent *Anelloviridae* (n=170), *Inoviridae* (n=70), *Genomoviridae* (n=58), *Siphoviridae* (n=18), unclassified phage (n=14), *Podoviridae* (n=10), *Myoviridae* (n=7) unclassified virus (n=6), *Papillomaviridae* (n=4), *Circoviridae* (n=3), unclassified *Caudovirales* (n=3), *Bacilladnaviridae* (n=2), *Smacoviridae* (n=2), and *CrAssphage* (n=2) (Fig. 1B).

It is difficult to assign a host to most of the viruses from this study due to their divergence from known viral sequences. However, we searched the CRISPR database at (https://crispr.i2bc.paris-saclay.fr/crispr/BLAST/CRISPRsBlast.php), and three viruses had exact matches to CRISPR spacers in bacterial genomes (Siphoviridae sp. ctcj11:Shewanella sp. W3-18-1, Inoviridae sp. ctce6:Shewanella baltica OS195, Microviridae sp. ctbe523:Paludibacter propionicigenes WB4) and one virus had an exact match to the CRISPR spacer of an archaeon (Caudovirales sp. cthg227:Methanobrevibacter sp. AbM4), implying that these organisms are infected by these viruses. Further, the 142 anelloviruses found in human blood samples (Table S1) are almost certain to be bona fide human viruses based on their relatedness to known human anelloviruses.

In addition to circular genomes with recognizable similarity to known viruses, 609 circular contigs appeared to represent elements that lacked discernable similarity to known viruses (Fig. 1A).

The vast majority of the *de novo* assembled circular genomes were <10 kb in length (Fig S2). This is largely due to the fact that large genomes are typically more difficult to *de novo* assemble from short reads. Despite these technical obstacles, our detection of a new tailed bacteriophage with a 419kb genome (Myoviridae sp. isolate ctbc_4, GenBank Accession: MH622943), along with 45 other >10 kb circular sequences (Fig S2), indicates that the methods used for the current work can detect large viral genomes.

There has been a recent renewal of interest in the hypothesis that viruses may be etiologically associated with degenerative brain diseases, such as Alzheimer's disease (Itzhaki et al., 2016, Eimer et al., 2018). Conflicting literature suggests the possible presence of papillomaviruses in human brain tissue (Coras et al., 2015, Chen et al., 2012). Samples of brain tissue from individuals who died of Alzheimer's disease (n=6) and other forms of dementia (n=6) were subjected to virion enrichment and deep sequencing. Although complete or partial genomes of known papillomaviruses, Merkel cell polyomavirus, and/or anelloviruses were observed in some samples (Supplementary File S1), no novel complete viral genomes were recovered (Table S1). No viral sequences were detected in a follow-up RNA deep sequencing analysis of the brain samples. It is difficult to know how to interpret these negative data. It is conceivable that the known viral DNA sequences observed in the Optiprep-RCA samples represent virions from blood vessels or environmental sources.

It has recently become apparent that certain nucleic acid extraction reagents are contaminated with viral nucleic acids (Asplund et al., 2019). To ensure we were not merely reporting the sequences of the "reagent virome," we performed our wet bench and bioinformatic pipeline on three independent replicates of reagent-only samples. We found no evidence of sequences of any viruses reported here or elsewhere. Further, cross-sample comparison of contigs showed that almost no sequences were found in different animal samples, aside from technical replicates. In total, six viral genomes were observed in multiple unrelated samples from at least two sequencing runs (Table S2). It is unclear whether this small minority of genomes (0.24% of the genomes reported in the current study) represent reagent contamination, lab contamination, or actual presence of the sequences in different types of samples.

Assignment of hallmark genes to networks shows expansion of virus sequence space
Single stranded DNA viruses, in general, have vital genes encoding proteins that mediate genome replication, provide virion structure, and, in some cases, facilitate packaging of viral nucleic acid into the virion. Being structurally conserved, these genes also tend to be important for evolutionary comparisons

Length, in nucleotides, of circular DNA sequences representing putative viral genomes from this study.

and can serve as important "hallmark genes" for virus discovery and characterization. However, even
structurally conserved proteins sometimes do not have enough sequence conservation as to be
amenable to high confidence BLASTP searches. We therefore set out to catalog hallmark ssDNA virus
genes based using protein structural prediction. Structures of hallmark genes of exemplar isolates from
most established ssDNA virus families have been solved and deposited in publicly available databases,
such as PDB (Protein Data Bank) (Burley et al., 2017). Using bioinformatic tools, such as HHpred, one can
assign structural matches for a given gene based on the predicted potential folds of a given amino acid
sequence. HHpred has been extensively tested and validated for computational structural modelling by
the structural biology community (Meier and Soding, 2015, Huang et al., 2014). The method proves
especially useful for protein sequences from highly divergent viral genomes that have little similarity to
annotated sequences in current databases.
We extracted protein sequences from our dataset and compiled nonredundant proteins from
circular ssDNA viruses in GenBank and used them as queries in HHpred searches against the PDB, PFam,
and CDD databases. We then grouped structurally identifiable sequences into hallmark gene categories
and aligned them pairwise (each sequence was compared to all other sequences) using EFI-EST (Gerlt et
al., 2015). The resulting sequence similarity networks (SSNs) were visualized with Cytoscape (Su et al.,
2014), with each node representing an predicted protein sequence (Fig. 2-3, Fig. S3). Nodes (sequences)
with significant amino acid similarity are connected with lines representing BLAST similarity scores
below a threshold E value. Sequence similarity network analyses, it has been proposed (Iranzo et al.,
2017), represent relationships between viral sequences better than phylogenetic trees. Further, SSNs
have previously been used for viral protein and genome cluster comparison (Bolduc et al., 2017, Lima-
Mendez et al., 2008, Lefeuvre et al., 2019, Kazlauskas et al., 2019), and can be used to display related
groups of viral genes in two dimensions (Bin Jang et al., 2019). These clusters were also used to guide
the construction of meaningful phylogenetic trees (Fig. 2A-B, Fig. S4).
In Figure 2, sequences that showed a structural match to a known eukaryotic circular ssDNA
virus capsid protein are displayed as a network. This general capsid type features a single beta-jellyroll
fold and assembles into T=1 virions of 20-30 nm in diameter. The network shows that sequences from
this study expand and link smaller disconnected clusters of sequences found in GenBank entries (Fig. 2A-
C). Perhaps more importantly a number of previously unknown clusters were identified, providing
insight into highly divergent hallmark sequences and making this capsid sequence space amenable to
BLAST searches in GenBank (Fig. 2C). Although the satellite tobacco necrosis virus (STNV) capsid protein
encapsidates an RNA molecule, it has previously been noted that its structure is highly similar to the
capsid proteins of geminiviruses and other ssDNA viruses (Koonin et al., 2015, Kraberger et al., 2015,
Krupovic et al., 2009, Hipp et al., 2017, Bottcher et al., 2004, Zhang et al., 2001) and was included as a
model for populating this network.
A similar pattern can be seen in sequence similarity networks for the Rep genes of CRESS viruses
(Fig. 3). Rep genes have been the primary sequences used for taxonomy of CRESS viruses (Zhao et al.,
2019). In this case, it was determined that a network with alignment cutoffs with E values of 1×10^{-60}
could split the data neatly into "family-level" clusters (Fontenele et al., 2019, Kraberger et al., 2019),
precisely mirroring ICTV taxonomy of CRESS viruses. Many additional family-level clusters can be
discerned from unclassified CRESS viruses. Other eukaryotic and prokaryotic ssDNA virus hallmark gene
networks are shown in Supplementary Figure 3. Phylogenetic trees of networks from Figure 3 and
Supplemental Figure 3 are displayed in Supplemental Figure 4.
Cytoscape files of sequence similarity networks and phylogenetic trees can be found at
https://ccrod.cancer.gov/confluence/display/LCOTF/DarkMatter.
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238 **New classes of large CRESS viruses feature unconventional structural genes**

Figure 2: Sequence similarity network analysis of CRESS virus capsid proteins

EFI-EST was used to conduct pairwise alignments of amino acid sequences from this study and GenBank with predicted structural similarity to CRESS virus capsid proteins. The E value cutoff for the analysis was 10-5. (A) Cluster consisting of proteins with predicted structural similarity to geminivirus-like capsids and/or STNV-like capsids. The phylogenetic tree was made from all sequences in this cluster. (B) A cluster consisting of sequences with predicted structural similarity to Circovirus capsid proteins. The phylogenetic tree was made from all sequences in this cluster. (C) Assorted clusters and singletons from unclassified CRESS virus proteins that were modelled to be capsids. (D) Nanovirus capsids. (E) Gyrovirus capsids.

Figure 3: Network analysis of CRESS virus Rep proteins

EFI-EST was used to conduct pairwise alignments of amino acid sequences from this study and GenBank that were structurally modelled to be a rolling-circle replicase (Rep). The analysis used an E value cutoff of 10^{-60} to divide the data into family-level clusters.

Depiction of additional viral hallmark genes from this study and GenBank as sequence similarity networks. E value cutoff = 10^{-5}. See Figure 2 and Methods.

● GenBank
● This study

Replication-associated protein
Microviridae/Inoviridae

Major capsid protein
Microviridae

Zonular occludens toxin
(packaging ATPase)
Inoviridae

ORF1 (replication/capsid)
Anelloviridae

A

B

C

Circoviridae

Alphasatellite/
Nanoviridae

Smacoviridae

Geminiviridae (collapsed)

Genomoviridae

D

E

F

G

This study
GenBank

Supplemental Figure 4: Phylogenetic trees of viral hallmark genes
Sequences were aligned with PROMALS3D using structure guid-
ance when possible. Trees were drawn using IQ-Tree with automatic
determination of substitution model. See methods. Branches are
labeled with bootstrap percent support after 1000 ultrafast bootstrap-
ping events.

Although no single family of viruses accounts for the majority of genomes in this study, these results
expand the knowledge of the vast diversity of CRESS viruses, which appear to be ubiquitous among
eukaryotes (Krupovic et al., 2016, Zerbini et al., 2017, Rosario et al., 2017, Varsani and Krupovic, 2018)
and are likely to also infect archaea (Díez-Villaseñor and Rodriguez-Valera, 2019, Kazlauskas et al., 2019).
Characterized CRESS viruses have small icosahedral virions (20-30 nm in diameter) with a simple T=1
geometry (Khayat et al., 2011). This capsid architecture likely limits genome size, as nearly all previously
reported CRESS virus genomes and genome segments are under 3.5 kb. Exceptions to this size rule are
bacilladnaviruses, which have 4.5 - 6 kb genomes (Tomaru et al., 2011) and cruciviruses, which have 3.5 -
5.5 kb genomes (Quaiser et al., 2016). Interestingly, the genomes of these larger CRESS viruses encode
capsid genes that appear to have been acquired horizontally from RNA viruses (Kazlauskas et al., 2017).
In our dataset, eight CRESS-like circular genomes exceed 6 kb in length (Fig. 4C-J). Further, this study's
large CRESS genomes are apparently attributable to several independent acquisitions of capsid genes
from other taxa and/or capsid gene duplication events.
Notably, a large CRESS genome (CRESS virus isolate ctdh33, associated with rhabditid
nematodes that were serially cultured from a soil sample) encoded three separate genes with structural
homology (HHpred probability scores 97-99%) to STNV capsid (Fig 4C). The three predicted STNV capsid
homologs in the nematode virus are highly divergent from one another, with only 28-30% amino acid
similarity, but also highly divergent from other amino acid sequences in GenBank. A possible explanation
for this observation is that the capsid gene array is the result of gene duplication events.
To further characterize the soil nematode virus, the three candidate capsid proteins were
overexpressed in combination in human-derived 293TT cells (Buck et al., 2004). Particles apparently
composed of all three capsid proteins were able to sediment in Optiprep gradients. Further, analysis by
negative stain electron microscopy (EM) revealed ~50 nm particles (Fig S5A). Interestingly these particles
were found to contain nonspecific nuclease-resistant RNA (Fig S5B). This supports the concept that
CRESS virus capsid proteins might theoretically be re-targeted to packing RNA virus genomes or vice
versa.
CRESS genomes ctba10, ctcc19, ctbj26, ctcd34, and ctbd1037 (ranging from 3.5 - 6.2 kb in
length) also each encode two divergent capsid gene homologs (Fig. 4D, Fig S6). Single genomes encoding
multiple capsid genes with related but distinct amino acid sequences have been observed in RNA viruses
(Agranovsky et al., 1995) and giant dsDNA viruses (Schulz et al., 2017), but we believe that this is the
first time it has been reported in ssDNA viruses.
Two related large CRESS viruses (ctdb796 and ctce741) encode capsid proteins similar to those
of bacilladnaviruses (Fig 4G,I). Interestingly, the Rep genes of the two viruses do not show close
similarity to known bacilladnavirus Reps and are instead similar to the Reps of certain unclassified CRESS
viruses, suggesting that CRESS ctdb796 and CRESS ctce741 are representatives of a new hybrid CRESS
virus family.
Two other CRESS virus genomes (isolates ctca5 and ctgh4) encode capsid genes that show amino
acid similarity to distinct groups of icosahedral T=3 ssRNA virus capsids (Makino et al., 2013) (tombus-
and tombus-like viruses), but not to cruciviruses or bacilladnaviruses (Fig 4A,F, Fig. 5). Further, a 6.6 kb
CRESS virus (isolate ctbd466) (Fig 4H) was found to encode a gene with some similarity to the capsid
region of the polyprotein of two newly described ssRNA viruses (ciliovirus and brinovirus (Fig. S7B)
(Makino et al., 2013, Greninger and DeRisi, 2015). Protein fold predictor Phyre[2] (Kelley et al., 2015)
showed a top hit (58% confidence) for the capsid protein of a norovirus (ssRNA virus with T=3
icosahedral capsid) for isolate ctbd466 (see GenBank: AXH73946).
Two CRESS genomes (ctbe30 and ctbc27) from separate Rhesus macaque stool samples combine
Rep genes specific to CRESS viruses with several genes specific to inoviruses, including inovirus-like
capsid genes, which encode proteins that form a filamentous virion (Fig 4B, J). The bacteriophage

A MK012470
CRESS virus ctgh4
4943 nts
Rep
Capsid protein (RNA virus-like)

B MH616676
CRESS virus ctbe30
5872 nts
Inovirus RtsB protein
Rep
putative Inovirus coat protein
Zonular Occludens Toxin

C MH552508
CRESS virus ctdh33
6089 nts
putative coil-coil protein
Rep
STNV capsid
STNV capsid
STNV capsid

D MH617208
CRESS virus ctba10
6208 nts
Rep
Capsid protein
Capsid protein

E MH616792
CRESS virus ctbh479
6249 nts
Rep
Capsid protein

F MH617450
CRESS virus ctca5
6368 nts
Rep
Capsid protein (RNA virus-like)

G MH617332
CRESS virus ctdb796
6405 nts
Rep
Triacylglycerol lipase
Bacilladnavirus capsid protein

H MH616840
CRESS virus ctbd466
6581 nts
Rep
Possible Capsid protein

I MH617353
CRESS virus ctce741
6979 nts
Rep
putative phosphodiesterase
Bacilladnavirus capsid protein

J CRESS virus ctbc27
8675 nts
Inovirus RtsB protein
Helix-turn-helix domain
Rep
Zinc metalloproteinase
Zonular Occludens Toxin
Inovirus coat protein
Elongation factor Tu 1

Figure 4: Genome maps of large CRESS virus genomes
Predicted CRESS Rep-like genes are displayed in orange, virion structural genes shown in green, other identifiable viral genes shown in pink, other genes in grey. GenBank accession numbers are displayed above the virus name.

Supplemental Figure 5: Nematode-associated virus capsid expression

Putative capsid proteins from CRESS virus ctdh33 associated with rhabditid nematodes (see Fig. 3) were expressed in a human cell line. (A) Negative Stain EM images of virus-like particles resulting from the expression of all three genes predicted to encode STNV-like capsid proteins. (B) Agarose gel electrophoretic analysis of nucleic acids extracted from ctdh33 VLPs shows that purified VLPs from fraction 4 of the Optiprep gradient contain encapsidated RNA. Note that Benzonase digests both DNA and RNA, DnaseI only digests DNA and Rnase only digests RNA.

A

B

= DNA ladder
= Fraction 3 + Benzonase
= Fraction 3 + DNaseI
= Fraction 3 + RNase
= Fraction 4 + Benzonase
= Fraction 4 + DNaseI
= Fraction 4 + RNase

Supplemental Figure 6: Genome maps of additional CRESS genomes encoding multiple capsid genes
CRESS Rep genes are shown in orange, predicted virion structural genes in green, other candidate genes in gray.

Figure 5: RNA virus capsid-like proteins

Sequence similarity network generated with EFI-EST (E value cutoff of 10-5) showing capsid protein sequences of select ssRNA viruses (Nodaviridae, Tombusviridae, tombus-like viruses) and ssDNA viruses (Bacilladnaviridae and crucivirus) together with protein sequences from DNA virus genomes observed in the present study with predicted structural similarity to an RNA virus capsid protein domain (PDB: 2IZW). Predicted capsid proteins for CRESS virus ctca5 and CRESS virus ctgh4 have no detectible similarity to any known DNA virus sequences. On the left, a phylogenetic tree representing the large cluster is displayed. Collapsed branches consist of Tombusviridae, tombus-like viruses, and Nodaviridae capsid genes.

Mouse-associated
CRESS virus ctca5

Crucian-associated
CRESS virus ctgh4

- 🔴 *Tombusviridae* (RNA)
- 🟣 Tombus-like viruses (RNA)
- 🟡 *Nodaviridae* (RNA)
- 🟤 *Crucivirus* (DNA)
- 🟤 *Bacilladnaviridae* (DNA)
- 🟢 This study (DNA)

0.8

<u>Supplemental Figure 7: Validation of proteins with predicted similarity to RNA virus capsid proteins</u>
(A) First order neighbors for Crucian-associated CRESS virus ctgh4 capsid protein were extracted from the network shown in Figure 5 and aligned using Muscle. (B) The same approach was applied to CRESS virus ctbd466 capsid protein. (C) A visualization (Integrative Genomics Viewer) of a read alignment to CRESS virus isolate ctca5. The visualization shows no evidence of artifactual chimerization in the contig assembly process.

families *Inoviridae* and *Microviridae* are ssDNA viruses that replicate via the rolling circle mechanism,
but they are not considered conventional CRESS viruses because they infect prokaryotes and do not
encode Rep genes with CRESS-like sequences. Other inovirus-like genes encoded in the ctbe30 and
ctbc27 genomes include homologs of zonular occludens toxin (ZOT, a packaging ATPase) and RstB (a
DNA-binding protein required for host genome integration) (Falero et al., 2009) (Fig 4B, J). TBLASTX
searches using ctbe30 and ctbc27 sequences yielded large segments of similarity to various bacterial
chromosomes (e.g., GenBank accession numbers AP012044 and AP018536), presumably representing
integrated prophages. This suggests that ctbb30 and ctbc27 represent a previously undescribed
bacteria-tropic branch of the CRESS virus supergroup.
Viral genomes discussed in this section were validated by aligning individual reads back to the
contigs followed by visual inspection. No disjunctions were detected, indicating that illegitimate
recombinations are not evident (see Fig. S7C for an example).
298
Network analysis of genetic "dark matter" demonstrates conservation of gene sequence and genome
structure
We defined potential viral "dark matter" in the survey as circular contigs with no hits with E values
$<1\times10^{-5}$ in BLASTX searches of a database of viral and plasmid proteins. We posited that leveraging
sequence similarity networks would be useful both for analyzing groups of gene homologs and for
discerning which gene combinations tended to be present on related circular genomes. To categorize
the 609 dark matter elements based on their predicted proteins, we used pairwise comparison with EFI-
EST. A majority of translated gene sequences could be categorized into dark matter protein clusters
(DMPCs) containing four or more members (Fig. 6A). Further, groups of related dark matter elements
(i.e. dark matter genome groups (DMGGs)), much like viral families, could be delineated by the presence
of a conserved, group-specific marker gene. For example, DMPC1 can be thought of as the marker gene
for DMGG1. Certain DMPCs tend to co-occur on the same DMGG. For instance, DMPC7 and DMPC17
ORFs are always observed in genomes with a DMPC1 ORF (i.e., DMGG1) (Fig. 6B). This *pro tempore*
categorization method is useful for visualizing the data, but we stress that is not necessarily
taxonomically definitive.
HHpred, was again employed to make structural predictions for these data (Zimmermann et al.,
2018). Instead of querying individual sequences, alignments were prepared using MAFFT (Katoh and
Standley, 2013) for each major DMPC to identify conserved residues and increase sensitivity. Then, each
alignment was used for an HHpred query. The results indicate that ten DMPCs are likely viral capsid
proteins and 11 are rolling circle replicases (Fig. 6A).
While most of the circular dark matter in the survey could be characterized using these
methods, dark matter contigs represent a small remaining fraction in some samples (Fig. S9).
321
Cell culture expression of candidate "dark matter" capsids yields particles
In contrast to viral genes such as Rep with conserved enzymatic functions, sequences of the
capsid genes are often poorly conserved, even within a given viral family (Buck et al., 2016). Moreover, it
appears that capsid proteins have arisen repeatedly through capture and modification of different host
cell proteins (Krupovic and Koonin, 2017). This makes it challenging to detect highly divergent capsid
proteins using alignment-based approaches or even structural modelling. We therefore turned to an
alignment-independent approach known as iVireons, an artificial neural network trained by comparing
alignment-independent variables between a large set of known viral structural proteins and known non-
structural proteins (Seguritan et al., 2012) (https://vdm.sdsu.edu/ivireons/). As an example of the

Figure 6: Dark matter analysis

(A) Sequence similarity network analysis for genes from dark matter circular sequences (minimum cluster size = 4). Clusters are colored based on assigned dark matter genome group (DMGG). Structural predictions from HHpred are indicated (>85% probability). Rep = rolling circle replicases typical of CRESS viruses or ssDNA plasmids. Capsid = single-jellyroll capsid protein. Attachment = cell attachment proteins typical of inoviruses. DNA-Binding = DNA-binding domain. PLA2 = phospholipase A2. FtsL = FtsL-like cell division protein. Clusters that contain a representative protein that was successfully expressed as a virus-like particle are outlined by a dashed rectangle (See Fig. 7). (B) Maps of three examples of DMGG1 with DMPCs labeled (linearized for display). (C) DMGG1 iVireons 'structure' score summary by protein cluster. Scores range from -1 (unlikely to be a virion structural protein) to 1 (likely to be a virion structural protein). Additional iVireons score summaries can be found in Fig. S8.

Supplementary Figure 8 (related to Figure 6): iVireons scores of DMGGs with candidate viral structural gene(s)
Box-and-whisker plots of iVireons 'Structural' scores for individual DMPCs (numbers on x-axes) grouped by DMGG.
Scores (y-axes) range from -1 (unlikely to be a virion structural protein) to 1 (likely to be a virion structural protein).
DMGG2 and DMGG3 have been combined due to inferred chimerism.

Supplemental Figure 9: Sample characterization by iterative BLAST Searches

Contigs of over 1000 nts from each sample were subject to iterative BLAST searches. First, BLASTN was performed against the RefSeq database. Contigs without hits were then queried by BLASTX against all of GenBank 'nr' database. Contigs without hits were then queried by BLASTX against a database of proteins from genomes reported in this study. The proportion of total reads mapping to each contig was calculated and used for this plot. Individual inspection of contigs shows that most hits in the 'Translated AA alignment to GenBank 'nr' "Bacteria"' were likely plasmid or prophage proteins. The proportions of hits in each category are sensitive to stringency settings and to which databases are chosen for the analysis. The key aims of the figure are to display the proportion of reads the current survey rendered classifiable and the fraction of remaining dark matter reads in various samples.

approach, iVireons scores for DMPCs associated with DMGG1 are shown in Fig. 6C. Other sets of
iVireons scores can be seen in Fig. S8.
Of the 17 DMGGs for which HHPRED did not identify capsid genes, iVireons predicted that ten
contain at least one DMPC predicted to encode some type of virion structural protein (median score of
cluster >0.70). This allowed us to generate the testable hypothesis that some of these predicted
structural proteins would form virus-like particles (VLPs) if expressed in cell culture.
A subset of predicted capsid proteins were expressed in 293TT cells and/or in *E. coli* and
subjected to size exclusion chromatography. Electron microscopic analysis showed that several of the
predicted capsid proteins formed roughly spherical particles, whereas a negative control protein did not
form particles (Fig. 7). Although the particles were highly irregular, the DMGC11 isolate ctgh70
preparation was found to contain nuclease-resistant nucleic acids, consistent with nonspecific
encapsidation. The results suggest that, in multiple cases, we were able to experimentally confirm that
iVireons correctly predicted the identity of viral capsid proteins.
344
Discussion
Massive parallel DNA sequencing surveys characterizing microbial communities typically yield a
significant fraction of reads that cannot be mapped to known genes. The present study sought to
provide the research community with an expanded catalog of viruses with circular DNA genomes
associated with humans and animals, as well as a means to characterize future datasets. We hope that
the availability of this expanded viral sequence catalog will facilitate future investigation into
associations between viral communities and disease states. Our annotation pipeline, Cenote-Taker, can
be accessed via http://www.cyverse.org/discovery-environment. The CyVerse version of Cenote-Taker
can readily annotate circular or linear DNA viruses. RNA viruses with polyproteins or frameshifts will
require *post hoc* manual editing.
At the present time, GenBank's RefSeq database includes complete sequences for 8112 viral
genomes, most of which fit into 131 families recognized by the International Committee on Taxonomy
of Viruses (ICTV) (King et al., 2018). Similarly, the IMG/VR database contains over 14,000 circular virus
genomes from hundreds of studies, though some of these appear to be redundant with each other and
are not comprehensively annotated (Paez-Espino et al., 2019). The current study, which focused on
circular DNA viruses with detergent-resistant capsids, found 2,514 new complete circular genomes. The
availability of these comprehensively annotated genomes in GenBank contributes new information and
understanding to a broad range of established, emerging, and previously unknown taxa. Figure 3 shows
dozens of potential family-level groupings within the unclassified CRESS virus supergroup. Sequences
from this study contribute to 40 of such groupings and constitute the only members of seven groups.
There are also 192 singleton CRESS sequences that could establish many additional family-level groups.
Although small ssDNA viruses are ubiquitous, they are often overlooked in studies that only
characterize sequences that are closely related to reference genomes. In addition, ssDNA is not detected
by some current DNA sequencing technologies unless second-strand synthesis (such as the RCA
approach used in the current study) is conducted.
While many of the viruses discovered in this study appear to be derived from prokaryotic
commensals, it is important to note that bacteriophages can contribute to human and animal diseases
by transducing toxins, antimicrobial resistance proteins, or genes that alter the physiology of their
bacterial hosts (Waldor and Mekalanos, 1996). Furthermore, interaction between animal immune
systems and bacteriophages appears to be extensive (Hodyra-Stefaniak et al., 2015).
Over 100 distinct human anellovirus sequences were found in human blood. Anelloviruses have
yet to be causally associated with any human disease, but this study indicates that we are likely still just
scratching the surface of the sequence diversity of human anelloviruses. It will be important to fully
catalog this family of viruses to address the field's general assumption that they are harmless.

Several of the CRESS viruses detected in this study are larger than any other CRESS virus
genomes that have been described previously. In some cases, the larger size of these genomes may have
been enabled by a process involving capsid gene duplication events. Further, CRESS virus acquisition of
T=3 capsids from ssRNA *Nodaviridae* and *Tombusviridae* families has been previously suggested as the
origin of bacilladnaviruses (Kazlauskas et al., 2017) and cruciviruses (Steel et al., 2016, Dayaram et al.,
2016, Roux et al., 2013, Krupovic et al., 2015), respectively. We present evidence of additional
independent recombination events between CRESS viruses and ssRNA viruses and ssDNA
bacteriophages. In light of these findings, it should be reiterated that only DNA (not RNA) was
sequenced in our approach, so DNA/RNA *in silico* false recombination does not seem plausible. These
data suggest that CRESS viruses are at the center of a tangled evolutionary history of viruses in which
genomes change not just via gradual point mutations but also through larger scale recombination and
hybridization events.
It is likely that some dark matter sequences detected in this study share a common ancestor
with known viruses but are too divergent to retain discernable sequence similarity. In some cases, the
dark matter circles may represent a more divergent segment of a virus with a multipartite genome.
Alternatively, some of these sequences likely represent entirely new viral lineages that have not
previously been recognized.
396
397   **Methods**
398
399   LEAD CONTACT AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY
400
401   Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be
402   fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Chris Buck (buckc@mail.nih.gov)
403
404   EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS
405
406   Human-derived 293TT cells (female) were generated in-house (Buck et al., 2004). The cells were not
407   authenticated for this study.
408   T7 Express lysY/I^q *E. coli* were purchased from New England Biolabs.
409
410
411   METHOD DETAILS
412
413   Sample collection and sequencing
414
415   De-identified human swabs and tissue specimens were collected under the approval of various
416   Institutional Review Boards (Supplemental Table 1). Animal tissue samples were collected under the
417   guidance of various Animal Care and Use Committees.
418
419   Nematodes were cultured out of soil samples collected in Bethesda, Maryland, USA on OP50-Seeded
420   NGM-lite plates (*C. elegans* kit, Carolina Biological Supply).
421

Viral particles were concentrated by subjecting nuclease-digested detergent-treated lysate to
ultracentrifugation over an Optiprep step gradient, as previously described
https://ccrod.cancer.gov/confluence/display/LCOTF/Virome (Peretti et al., 2015). Specifically, for each
sample, no more than 0.5 g of solid tissue was minced finely with a razorblade. Alternatively, no more
than 500 µl of liquid sample was vortexed for several seconds. Samples were transferred to 1.5ml
siliconized tubes. The samples were resuspended in 500 µl Dulbecco's PBS and Triton X-100 (Sigma)
detergent was added to a final concentration of 1% w/v. 1 µl of Benzonase (Sigma) was added. Samples
were vortexed for several seconds. Samples were incubated in a 37ºC water bath for 30 minutes, with
brief homogenising using a vortex every 10 minutes. After incubation, NaCl was added to the samples to
a final concentration of 0.85M. Tubes were spun for 5 minutes at 5000g. Resulting supernatants were
transferred to a clean siliconized tube. Supernatant-containing tubes were spun for an additional 5
minutes at 5000g. Resulting supernatants were added to iodixanol/Optiprep (Sigma) step gradients in
ultracentrifuge tubes (Beckman: 326819) (equal volumes 27%, 33%, 39% iodixanol with 0.8M NaCl; total
tube volume, including sample, ~5.1ml). Ultracentrifuge tubes were spun at 55,000rpm for 3.5 hours
(Beckman: Optima L-90K Ultracentrifuge). After spin, tubes were suspended over 1.5ml siliconized
collection tubes and pierced at the bottom with 25G needle. Six fractions of equal volume were
collected drop-wise from each ultracentrifuge tube.
From each fraction, 200 µl was pipette to a clean siliconized tube for virus particle lysis and DNA
precipitation. To disrupt virus particles, 50 µl of a 5X master mix of Tris pH 8 (Invitrogen, final conc.
50mM), EDTA (Invitrogen, final conc. 25mM), SDS (Invitrogen, final conc. 0.5%), Proteinase K (Invitrogen,
final conc. 0.5%), DTT (Invitrogen, final conc. 10mM) was added and mixed by pipetting up and down.
Samples were heated at 50ºC for 15 minutes. Then, proteinase K was inactivated for 10 minutes at 72ºC.
To the 250 µl of sample, 125 µl of 7.5M ammonium acetate was added and mixed by vortexing. Then,
975 µl of 95% ethanol was added and mixed by pipetting. This was incubated at room temperature for 1
hour. Then, the samples were transferred to a 4ºC fridge overnight.
Samples were then restored to ambient temperature. Then, samples were spun for 1 hour at
20,000g in a temperature-controlled tabletop centrifuge set to 21ºC. Supernatant was aspirated, and
500 µl ethanol was added to each pellet. Pellets were resuspended by flicking. Then, samples were spun
for 30 minutes at 20,000g in a temperature-controlled tabletop centrifuge set to 21ºC. Supernatant was
aspirated, and samples were spun once more at 20,000g for 3 minutes. Remaining liquid was carefully
removed with a 10 µl micropipette. Tubes were left open and air dried for at least 10 minutes.
DNA from individually collected fractions of the gradient was amplified by RCA using phi29 polymerase
(TempliPhi, Sigma) per manufacturer's instructions. While we expected most viral particles to travel to
the middle of the gradient based on previous experiments, RCA was conducted on individual fractions
spanning the gradient, in an attempt to detect viruses with different biophysical properties (Kauffman et
al., 2018).   Pooled, amplified fractions were prepared for Illumina sequencing with Nextera XT kits. Then
libraries were sequenced with Illumina technology on either MiSeq or NextSeq500 sequencers. Contigs
were assembled using SPAdes with the 'plasmid' setting. Circularity was confirmed by assessing
assembly graphs using Bandage (Wick et al., 2015).
461
Analysis of brain samples

Brain samples were initially analyzed by Optiprep gradient purification, RCA amplification, and deep

sequencing, as described above. JC polyomavirus, which has previously been reported in brain samples

(Chalkias et al., 2018), can display high buoyancy in Optiprep gradients (Geoghegan et al., 2017).

Fractions from near the top of the Optiprep gradient were subjected to an alternative method of virion

enrichment using microcentrifuge columns (Pierce) packed with 2 ml of Sepharose 4B Bead suspension

(Sigma) exchanged into PBS. Fractions were clarified at 5000 x g for 1 minute, and 200 µl of clarified

extract was loaded onto the gel bed. The column was spun at 735 x g and the eluate was digested with

proteinase K, ethanol-precipitated, and subjected to RCA. No additional viral sequences were detected

by this method.

The brain samples were also subjected to confirmatory analysis by RNA sequencing. RNA was extracted

from brain tissues with Qiagen Lipid Tissue RNeasy Mini Kit and subjected to human ribosomal RNA

depletion with Thermo RiboMinus. The library was prepared with NEBNext Ultra™ II Directional RNA

Library Prep Kit for Illumina and subjected to massive parallel sequencing on the Illumina HiSeq platform

(see BioProject PRJNA513058).

<u>Cenote-Taker, Virus Discovery and Annotation Pipeline</u>

Cenote-Taker, a bioinformatics pipeline written for this project and fully publicly available on CyVerse,

was used for collection and detailed annotation of each circular sequence. The flow of the program can

be described as follows:

(1) Identifies and collects contigs (assembled with SPAdes) larger than 1000 nts

(2) Predicts which contigs are circular based on overlapping ends

(3) Determines whether circular contig has any ORFs of 80 AA or larger or else discards sequence

(4) Uses BLASTN against GenBank 'nt' database to disregard any circular sequences that are >90%

identical to known sequences across a >500 bp window

(5) Uses Circlator (Hunt et al., 2015) to rotate circular contigs so that a non-intragenic start codon of one

of the ORFs will be the wrap point

(6) Uses BLASTX against a custom virus + plasmid database (derived from GenBank 'nr' and RefSeq) to

attempt to assign the circular sequence to a known family

(7) Translates each ORF of 80 AA or larger

(8) Uses RPS-BLAST to predict function of each ORF by aligning to known NCBI Conserved Domains

(9) Generates a tbl file of RPS-BLAST results

(10) Takes ORFs without RPS-BLAST hits and queries the GenBank 'nr viral' database with BLASTP

(11) Generates a tbl file of BLASTP results

(12) Takes ORFs without any BLASTP hits and queries HHblits (databases: uniprot20, pdb70, scop70,

pfam_31, NCBI_CD)

(13) Generates a tbl file of HHblits results

(14) Complies with a GenBank request to remove annotations for ORFs-within-ORFs that do not contain

conserved sequences

(15) Combines all tbl files into a master tbl file

(16) Generates a unique name for each virus based on taxonomic results

(17) Generates properly formatted fsa and tbl files in a separate directory

(18) Uses tbl2asn to make gbf (for viewing genome maps) and sqn files (for submission to GenBank)

The source code can be found at: https://github.com/mtisza1/Cenote-Taker

This work utilized the computational resources of the NIH HPC Biowulf cluster. (http://hpc.nih.gov).

Genome maps were drawn, and multiple sequence alignments were computed and visualized using
MacVector 16.

Anelloviruses
Analysis of linear contigs in the survey found many instances of recognizable viral sequences. One
noteworthy example were anelloviruses, where many contigs terminated near the GC-rich stem-loop
structure that is thought to serve as the origin of replication. This segment of the anellovirus genome is
presumably incompatible with the short read deep sequencing technologies used in this study. Nearly
complete anellovirus genomes, defined as having a complete ORF1 gene and at least 10-fold depth of
coverage, were also deposited in GenBank (Table S1).

GenBank Sequences
Amino Acid sequences from ssDNA viruses were downloaded in June 2018 based on categories in the
NCBI taxonomy browser. As many sequences in GenBank are from identical/closely related isolates, all
sequences were clustered at 95% AA ID using CD-HIT (Fu et al., 2012).

Sequence Similarity Networks
Amino acid sequences from GenBank (see above) and this study were used as queries for HHsearch (the
command-line iteration of HHpred) against PDB, PFam, and CDD. Sequences that had hits in these
databases of 80% probability or greater were kept for further analyses. Note that capsid protein models
for some known CRESS virus families have little, if any, similarity to other capsid sequences and have not
been determined (e.g. *Genomoviridae* and *Smacoviridae*) and were therefore not displayed in networks.
Models used: (CRESS virus capsids network:5MJF_V, 3R0R_A, 5MJF_Ba, 4V4M_R, 4BCU_A, PF04162.11,
5J37_A, 5J09_C, 3JCI_A, cd00259, PF04660.11, PF03898.12, PF02443.14, pfam00844); (CRESS virus Rep
network:4PP4_A, 4ZO0_A, 1M55_A, 1UUT_A, 1U0J_A, 1S9H_A, 4R94_A, 4KW3_B, 2HWT_A, 1L2M_A,
2HW0_A, PF08724.9, PF17530.1, PF00799.19, PF02407.15, pfam08283, PF12475.7, PF08283.10,
PF01057.16, pfam00799); (*Microviridae*/*Inoviridae* replication-associated protein: 4CIJ_B, 4CIJ_C,
PF05155.14, PF01446.16, PF11726.7, PF02486.18, PF05144.13, PF05840.12); (*Microviridae* capsid:
1M06_F, 1KVP_A, PF02305.16); (*Anelloviridae* ORF1: PF02956.13); (*Inoviridae* ZOT: 2R2A_A,
PF05707.11).

Phylogenetic Trees
Sequences from this study and GenBank were grouped by structural prediction using HHpred. Then,
sequences were compared by EFI-EST to generate clusters with a cut-off of $1x10^{-5}$. Sequences from
these clusters were then extracted and aligned with PROMALS3D (Pei and Grishin, 2014) using structure

guidance, when possible. Structures used: (*Microviridae* MCP: 1KVP); (CRESS virus capsid STNV-like:
4V4M); (CRESS virus capsid circo-like: 3JCI); (*Inoviridae* ZOT: 2R2A); (CRESS virus Rep: 2HW0) (CRESS
virus/RNA virus S Domain capsid: 2IZW). The resulting alignments were used to build trees with IQ-Tree
with automatic determination of the substitution model and 1000 ultrafast bootstraps (Nguyen et al.,
2015). Models used: (*Microviridae* MCP: Blosum62+F+G4); (*Microviridae* Rep I: Blosum62+I+G4);
(*Microviridae* Rep II: LG+I+G4); (*Microviridae* Rep III: VT+I+G4); (CRESS virus/RNA virus S Domain capsid:
Blosum62+F+G4); (*Circoviridae* capsid: VT+F+G4); (CRESS virus capsid STNV-like: VT+F+G4); (*Inoviridae*
ZOT: VT+I+G4); (*Anelloviridae* ORF1: VT+F+G4). Trees were visualized with FigTree
(http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/) and iTOL (Letunic and Bork, 2019).
556
Expressing Potential Viral Structural Proteins in human 293TT cells
Codon-modified expression constructs encoding the three predicted STNV-like capsid proteins from the
nematode virus (CRESS virus isolate ctdh33) were designed according to a previously reported "as
different as possible" algorithm
https://ccrod.cancer.gov/confluence/display/LCOTF/Pseudovirus+Production. 293TT cells were
transfected with combinations of STNV capsid-like protein expression constructs for roughly 48 hours.
Cells were lysed in a small volume of PBS with 0.5% Triton X-100 or Brij-58 and Benzonase (Sigma). After
several hours of maturation at neutral pH, the lysate was clarified at 5000 x g for 10 min. The clarified
lysate was loaded onto a 27-33-39% Optiprep gradient in PBS with 0.8 M NaCl. Gradient fractions were
collected by bottom puncture of the tube and screened by PicoGreen nucleic acid stain (Invitrogen),
BCA, and SDS-PAGE analysis. Electron microscopic analysis was then performed. Expression in 293TT
cells of some "dark matter" virus capsids was attempted but not successful in any case.
569
Expressing Potential Viral Structural Proteins in *E. coli*
Several genes that were identified by iVireons as being potential viral structural proteins were cloned
into plasmids with a T7 polymerase-responsive promoter. Plasmids were transfected into T7 Express
lysY/I^q *E. coli*, which express T7 polymerase under the induction of IPTG. Bacteria were grown at 37ºC in
LB broth until OD600 = 0.5. Flasks were cooled to room temperature, IPTG was added to 1 mM, and
cultures were shaken at room temperature for approximately 16 hours. Cells were then pelleted for
immediate processing.
Total protein was extracted with a BPER (Pierce) and nuclease solution. Then, virion-sized particles were
enriched from the clarified lysate using size exclusion chromatography with 2% agarose beads
https://ccrod.cancer.gov/confluence/display/LCOTF/GelFiltration. Fractions were analyzed using
Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE gels for presence of a unique band corresponding to the expressed
protein. Fractions of interest were analyzed using negative stain electron microscopy.
582
583 Electron Microscopy
584 Five μl samples were adsorbed onto a carbon-deposited copper grid for one minute. Sample was then
585 washed 5 times on water droplets then stained with 0.5% uranyl acetate for 1 second. The negatively
586 stained samples were examined on a FEI Tecnai T12 transmission electron microscope.
587
588 Sequencing

589   Illumina sequencing was conducted at the CCR Genomics Core at the National Cancer Institute,
590   NIH, Bethesda, MD 20892.
591

DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

All reads and annotated genomes associated with this manuscript can be found on NCBI BioProject
Accessions PRJNA393166 and PRJNA396064.

Cenote-Taker, the viral genome annotation pipeline, can be used by interested parties on the Cyverse
infrastructure: http://www.cyverse.org/discovery-environment.

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

Relevant protocols on lab website: https://ccrod.cancer.gov/confluence/display/LCOTF/Virome

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Institute.
We would like to acknowledge the GenBank team at NCBI for productive discussion about their viral
genome submission requirements and facilitation of annotated genome deposition.

Author Contributions
M.J.T. conceived, performed, and validated experiments, developed methodologies and software,
performed analysis, curated data, wrote and revised the manuscript, and visualized data. D.V.P., N.L.W.,
B.S., A.P., and Y.S.P conceived and performed experiments and revised the manuscript. G.J.S. and S.R.K.
developed software and revised the manuscript. A.M.S. performed analysis, conceived of experiments,
and revised the manuscript. A.V. performed analysis, visualized data, and revised the manuscript. P.A.P.,
D.H.M., P.M.M., J.L.W., B.M., J.M.B., S.P.R., B.R., J.D., B.A.T., O.P., J.T., and S.M.R. provided resources
and reviewed the manuscript. B.B. and M.B.S. developed methods and software and reviewed the
manuscript. C.B.B. conceived of experiments, developed methods and software, supervised and
administered the project, and revised the manuscript.

Declaration of Interests
The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure Legends
Figure 1: Novel viruses associated with animal samples
Gross characterization of viruses discovered in this project compared to NCBI RefSeq virus database
entries. (A) Pie chart representing the number of viral genomes in broad categories. (B) Bar graph
showing the number of new representatives of known viral families or unclassified groups. Note that
genomes in this study were assigned taxonomy based on at least one region with a BLASTX hit with an E
value $<1\times10^{-5}$, suggesting commonality with a known viral family. Some genomes may ultimately be
characterized as being basal to the assigned family.

Figure 2: Sequence similarity network analysis of CRESS virus capsid proteins
EFI-EST was used to conduct pairwise alignments of amino acid sequences from this study and GenBank
with predicted structural similarity to CRESS virus capsid proteins. The E value cutoff for the analysis was
10^{-5}. (A) Cluster consisting of proteins with predicted structural similarity to geminivirus-like capsids
and/or STNV-like capsids. The phylogenetic tree was made from all sequences in this cluster. (B) A
cluster consisting of sequences with predicted structural similarity to Circovirus capsid proteins. The
phylogenetic tree was made from all sequences in this cluster. (C) Assorted clusters and singletons from
unclassified CRESS virus proteins that were modelled to be capsids. (D) Nanovirus capsids. (E) Gyrovirus
capsids.
643
644 Figure 3: Network analysis of CRESS virus Rep proteins
645 EFI-EST was used to conduct pairwise alignments of amino acid sequences from this study and
646 GenBank that were structurally modelled to be a rolling-circle replicase (Rep). The analysis used an E
647 value cutoff of 10^{-60} to divide the data into family-level clusters.
648
649 Figure 4: Genome maps of large CRESS virus genomes
650 Predicted CRESS Rep-like genes are displayed in orange, virion structural genes shown in green, other
651 identifiable viral genes shown in pink, other genes in grey. GenBank accession numbers are displayed
652 above the virus name.
653
Figure 5: RNA virus capsid-like proteins
Sequence similarity network generated with EFI-EST (E value cutoff of 10^{-5}) showing capsid protein
sequences of select ssRNA viruses (*Nodaviridae*, *Tombusviridae*, tombus-like viruses) and ssDNA viruses
(*Bacilladnaviridae* and crucivirus) together with protein sequences from DNA virus genomes observed in
the present study with predicted structural similarity to an RNA virus capsid protein domain (PDB:
2IZW). Predicted capsid proteins for CRESS virus ctca5 and CRESS virus ctgh4 have no detectible
similarity to any known DNA virus sequences. On the left, a phylogenetic tree representing the large
cluster is displayed. Collapsed branches consist of *Tombusviridae*, tombus-like viruses, and *Nodaviridae*
capsid genes.
663
Figure 6: Dark matter analysis
(A) Sequence similarity network analysis for genes from dark matter circular sequences (minimum
cluster size = 4). Clusters are colored based on assigned dark matter genome group (DMGG). Structural
predictions from HHpred are indicated (>85% probability). *Rep* = rolling circle replicases typical of CRESS
viruses or ssDNA plasmids. *Capsid* = single-jellyroll capsid protein. *Attachment* = cell attachment proteins
typical of inoviruses. *DNA-Binding* = DNA-binding domain. *PLA2* = phospholipase A2. *FtsL* = FtsL-like cell
division protein. Clusters that contain a representative protein that was successfully expressed as a
virus-like particle are outlined by a dashed rectangle (See Fig. 7). (B) Maps of three examples of DMGG1
with DMPCs labeled (linearized for display). (C) DMGG1 iVireons 'structure' score summary by protein
cluster. Scores range from -1 (unlikely to be a virion structural protein) to 1 (likely to be a virion
structural protein). Additional iVireons score summaries can be found in Fig. S8.
675
676 Figure 7: Expression of putative capsid proteins
677 Images taken by negative stain electron microscopy. Genome maps are linearized for display purposes.
678 Expressed genes are colored green. iVireons scores are listed in parentheses. (A-C) Images represent
679 virus-like particles from iVireons-predicted viral structural genes. (D) Merkel cell polyomavirus small T
680 antigen (a viral non-structural protein) is shown as a negative control.
681

Supplemental Figure 1: Divergence of proteins encoded by circular contigs
BLASTX summary of each circular DNA molecule recovered from virus enriched samples. Sequences
were queried against a database of viral and plasmid sequences. Only hits with E values < 10^{-5} were
plotted. Here, BLASTX only reports the most significant stretch of amino acid sequence from each
circular contig, and, therefore, other regions of each contig can be assumed to be equally or less
conserved.
688
689   Supplemental Figure 2: Size distribution of circular DNA sequences from this study
690   Length, in nucleotides, of circular DNA sequences representing putative viral genomes from this study.
691
692   Supplemental Figure 3: Network Analysis of additional viral hallmark genes
693   Depiction of additional viral hallmark genes from this study and GenBank as sequence similarity
694   networks. E value cutoff = 10^{-5}. See Figure 2 and Methods.
695
Supplemental Figure 4: Phylogenetic trees of viral hallmark genes
Sequences were aligned with PROMALS3D using structure guidance when possible. Trees were drawn
using IQ-Tree with automatic determination of substitution model. See methods. Branches are labeled
with bootstrap percent support after 1000 ultrafast bootstrapping events.
(A) *Microviridae* major capsid protein. (B) *Inoviridae* zonular occludens toxin. (C) CRESS virus Rep. (D)
Anelloviridae ORF1 (E) *Microviridae/Inoviridae* Replication-associated protein I. (F)
Microviridae/Inoviridae Replication-associated protein II. (G) *Microviridae/Inoviridae* Replication-
associated protein III.
704
Supplemental Figure 5: Nematode-associated virus capsid expression
Putative capsid proteins from CRESS virus ctdh33 associated with rhabditid nematodes (see Fig. 3) were
expressed in a human cell line. (A) Negative Stain EM images of virus-like particles resulting from the
expression of all three genes predicted to encode STNV-like capsid proteins. (B) Agarose gel
electrophoretic analysis of nucleic acids extracted from ctdh33 VLPs shows that purified VLPs from
fraction 4 of the Optiprep gradient contain encapsidated RNA. Note that Benzonase digests both DNA
and RNA, DnaseI only digests DNA and Rnase only digests RNA.
712
713   Supplemental Figure 6: Genome maps of additional CRESS genomes encoding multiple capsid genes
714   CRESS Rep genes are shown in orange, predicted virion structural genes in green, other candidate genes
715   in gray.
716
Supplemental Figure 7: Validation of proteins with predicted similarity to RNA virus capsid proteins
(A) First order neighbors for Crucian-associated CRESS virus ctgh4 capsid protein were extracted from
the network shown in Figure 5 and aligned using Muscle. (B) The same approach was applied to CRESS
virus ctbd466 capsid protein. (C) A visualization (Integrative Genomics Viewer) of a read alignment to
CRESS virus isolate ctca5. The visualization shows no evidence of artifactual chimerization in the contig
assembly process.
723
724   Supplementary Figure 8 (related to Figure 6): iVireons scores of DMGGs with candidate viral structural
725   gene(s)
726   Box-and-whisker plots of iVireons 'Structural' scores for individual DMPCs (numbers on x-axes) grouped
727   by DMGG. Scores (y-axes) range from -1 (unlikely to be a virion structural protein) to 1 (likely to be a
728   virion structural protein). DMGG2 and DMGG3 have been combined due to inferred chimerism.
729

Supplemental Figure 9: Sample characterization by iterative BLAST Searches
Contigs of over 1000 nts from each sample were subject to iterative BLAST searches. First, BLASTN was
performed against the RefSeq database. Contigs without hits were then queried by BLASTX against all of
GenBank 'nr' database. Contigs without hits were then queried by BLASTX against a database of proteins
from genomes reported in this study. The proportion of total reads mapping to each contig was
calculated and used for this plot. Individual inspection of contigs shows that most hits in the 'Translated
AA alignment to GenBank 'nr' "Bacteria"' were likely plasmid or prophage proteins. The proportions of
hits in each category are sensitive to stringency settings and to which databases are chosen for the
analysis. The key aims of the figure are to display the proportion of reads the current survey rendered
classifiable and the fraction of remaining dark matter reads in various samples.
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1094

Sample Name	haddock1	16minnow	18minnow
Host Animal	Melanogrammus aeglefinus	Pimephales sp.	Pimephales sp.
Tissue/Sample Type	scales, tissue	whole animal	whole animal
Origin	fishmonger	wild	wild
Run	SRR5832142	SRR7122375	SRR7122375
Experiment	SRX3009445	SRX4043871	SRX4043871
BioSample	SAMN07319269	SAMN09074552	SAMN09074552
BioProject	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166
Anelloviridae	0	0	0
Bacilladnaviridae	0	1	0
CRESS virus	55	61	35
Caudovirales	0	2	0
Circoviridae	21	7	3
CrAssphage	0	0	0
Geminiviridae	1	2	0
Genomoviridae	5	7	5
Inoviridae	32	3	0
Microviridae	20	344	111
Myoviridae	0	0	2
Papillomaviridae	2	0	0
Phage	0	3	4
Podoviridae	0	0	0
Siphoviridae	0	0	0
Virus	0	0	0
circular genetic element	52	19	15

pompano1	crucian1	rainbowtrout1	redsnapper1	seabass1	seabass2	seabass3
Trachinotus s	Carassius car;	Oncorhynchus	Lutjanus camp	Centropristis s	Centropristis s	Centropristis s
scales, tissue	scales, tissue	scales, tissue	scales, tissue	scales, tissue	scales, tissue	scales, tissue
fishmonger	fishmonger	fishmonger	fishmonger	fishmonger	fishmonger	fishmonger
SRR7122328	SRR7122330	SRR7122364	SRR7122366	SRR7122359	SRR7122360	SRR7109542
SRX4043918	SRX4043916	SRX4043882	SRX4043880	SRX4043887	SRX4043886	SRX4037349
SAMN0907450	SAMN0907450	SAMN0907453	SAMN0907453	SAMN0907453	SAMN0907453	SAMN0906134
PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	2	0	0	0
2	32	22	81	19	6	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	12	20	104	13	5	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	1	0	0
0	0	3	0	0	0	0
0	0	5	1	3	0	0
0	10	6	42	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0	0	0
0	1	1	3	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	0	0	0
0	0	0	6	0	0	0
1	1	19	271	20	5	2

seabass4	seabass_ms2	worm1	squid1	abalone1	crab1
Centropristis s	Centropristis s	Rhabditidae s	unidentified s	Haliotis sp.	Callinectes sa
scales, tissue	scales, tissue	whole animal	tissue	whole animal	prepared me
fishmonger	fishmonger	wild	supermarket	supermarket	supermarket
SRR7122361	SRR7501340	SRR7122374	SRR7122358	SRR7122363	SRR7122357
SRX4043885	SRX4370701	SRX4043872	SRX4043888	SRX4043883	SRX4043889
SAMN0907453	SAMN096342€	SAMN090745	SAMN090745	SAMN09074535	SAMN090745
PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA39316€	PRJNA39316€	PRJNA393166	PRJNA39316€
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
4	98	1	1	84	9
0	0	0	0	0	0
2	50	0	0	30	3
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	2	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	6	0
2	2	0	1	2	0
0	6	2	0	6	0
0	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0
0	1	3	0	0	0
0	2	6	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
11	77	0	0	71	2

fly1	axolotl1	axolotl_blastema1	turkey	10mus
Drosophila sp.	Ambystoma mexicanum	Ambystoma mexicanum	Meleagris gal	Mus musculus
whole animals	skin swab	blastema	ground meat	skin tissue
wild	laboratory animal	laboratory animal	supermarket	laboratory animal
SRR7122373	SRR7122381	SRR7122338	SRR7122322	SRR7122376
SRX4043873	SRX4043865	SRX4043908	SRX4043924	SRX4043870
SAMN09074550	SAMN09074558	SAMN09074560	SAMN090745	SAMN09074553
PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA39316(	PRJNA393166
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	2	3
1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	2	0
0	0	0	0	2
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	2	1
0	0	1	1	4
1	0	0	2	12
3	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	3
5	0	0	0	2
0	0	0	0	0
0	1	2	4	3

mice_vaginal Mus musculus vaginal swabs wild SRR7122365 SRX4043881 SAMN09074573 PRJNA393166	apo1 Apodemus sylvaticus skin tissue wild SRR7122347 SRX4043899 SAMN09074600 PRJNA393166	apo2 Apodemus sylvaticus skin tissue wild SRR7122346 SRX4043900 SAMN09074601 PRJNA393166	raccoon_spleen_ga11 Procyon lotor spleen tissue wild (UC-Davis) SRR7122354 SRX4043892 SAMN09074580 PRJNA393166
0	0	0	2
0	0	0	0
1	7	3	0
0	0	0	0
1	1	2	0
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0
0	16	3	0
1	0	0	0
3	1	0	0
0	1	0	0
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0
0	0	0	0
0	6	2	0

raccoon_spleen_ga014 Procyon lotor spleen tissue wild (UC-Davis) SRR7122350 SRX4043896 SAMN09074579 PRJNA393166	raccoonskin1 Procyon lotor skin tissue wild (UC-Davis) SRR7122367 SRX4043879 SAMN09074538 PRJNA393166	beef_bd3 Bos taurus ground meat supermarket SRR7122336 SRX4043910 SAMN090745 PRJNA393166	beef_bd4 Bos taurus ground meat supermarket SRR7122333 SRX4043913 SAMN090745 PRJNA393166	bison1 Bison bison ground meat supermarket SRR7122319 SRX4043927 SAMN090745 PRJNA393166	bison2 Bison bison ground meat supermarket SRR7122320 SRX4043926 SAMN090745 PRJNA393166
13	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	9	4	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	6	3	1	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	2	0	1	0	1
0	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	2	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	6	9	0	6	0

lamb1	pig1	macstool_D2CW	macstool_cl86	macstool_dcvf
Ovis aries	Sus scrofa	Macaca mulatta	Macaca mulatta	Macaca mulatta
ground meat	ground meat	feces	feces	feces
supermarket	supermarket	laboratory animal	laboratory animal	laboratory animal
SRR7122321	SRR7122327	SRR7122355	SRR7122337	SRR7122353
SRX4043925	SRX4043919	SRX4043891	SRX4043909	SRX4043893
SAMN09074!	SAMN09074!	SAMN09074562	SAMN09074561	SAMN09074563
PRJNA39316(	PRJNA39316(	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166
0	13	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
3	1	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
2	2	0	0	1
0	0	1	1	2
1	0	13	13	27
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
2	0	0	0	0

macstool_de1a Macaca mulatta feces laboratory animal SRR7122342 SRX4043904 SAMN09074564 PRJNA393166	macstool_de2c Macaca mulatta feces laboratory animal SRR7122341 SRX4043905 SAMN09074565 PRJNA393166	W01_blood Homo sapiens blood clinical (NIH CCR) SRR6442920 SRX3534153 SAMN08296098 PRJNA396064	W07_blood Homo sapiens blood clinical (NIH CCR) SRR6442879 SRX3534194 SAMN08296113 PRJNA396064	ms19_W08 Homo sapiens blood clinical (NIH CCR) SRR6442889 SRX3534184 SAMN08296116 PRJNA396064
0	0	4	2	44
0	0	0	0	0
2	3	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
1	2	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
2	5	0	0	0
19	27	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0
2	0	0	0	0

ms19_W18	ms19_W27	brain1	brain2	brain3	brain4
Homo sapiens	Homo sapiens	Homo sapiens	Homo sapiens	Homo sapiens	Homo sapiens
blood	blood	brain tissue, Non-A	brain tissue,	brain tissue,	brain tissue,
clinical (NIH CCR)	clinical (NIH CCR)	clinical (Johns Hop	clinical (Johns	clinical (NIH A	clinical (NIH A
SRR6442898	SRR6442973	SRR7122324	SRR7122344	SRR7122349	SRR7122313
SRX3534175	SRX3534100	SRX4043922	SRX4043902	SRX4043897	SRX4043933
SAMN08296125	SAMN08296159	SAMN09074582	SAMN090745	SAMN090745	SAMN090745
PRJNA396064	PRJNA396064	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166
24	68	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0

brain5	brain6	brain7	brain8	brain9	brain10	brain11
Homo sapien	Homo sapien	Homo sapien	Homo sapien	Homo sapien	Homo sapien	Homo sapien
brain tissue,	brain tissue,	brain tissue,	brain tissue,	brain tissue,	brain tissue,	brain tissue,
clinical (NIH A	clinical (NIH A	clinical (Johns	clinical (Johns	clinical (NIH A	clinical (Johns	clinical (NIH A
SRR7122314	SRR7122316	SRR7122317	SRR7122318	SRR7122315	SRR7122343	SRR7122356
SRX4043932	SRX4043930	SRX4043929	SRX4043928	SRX4043931	SRX4043903	SRX4043890
SAMN090745	SAMN090745	SAMN090745	SAMN090745	SAMN090745	SAMN090745	SAMN090745
PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166	PRJNA393166
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0

brain12   TOTAL   Taxon
Homo sapiens
brain tissue, Non-Alzheimer's Dementia, CERAD=0, BRAAK=2
clinical (Johns Hopkins ADRC)
SRR7122345
SRX4043901
SAMN09074585
PRJNA393166

0	170	Anelloviridae
0	3	Bacilladnaviridae
0	562	CRESS virus
0	3	Caudovirales
0	300	Circoviridae
0	2	CrAssphage
0	8	Geminiviridae
0	58	Genomoviridae
0	70	Inoviridae
0	670	Microviridae
0	7	Myoviridae
0	4	Papillomaviridae
0	14	Phage
0	10	Podoviridae
0	18	Siphoviridae
0	6	Virus
0	609	circular genetic element
	2514	

Microviridae sp. isolate ctgd198

MH552479

Illumina Library	SRR #	Illumina sequencing run #	Contig Coverage Depth
10mus	SRR7122376	18	97.2
bison1	SRR7122319	4	50.5
haddock1	SRR5832142	12	18.7
rainbowtrout1	SRR7122364	14	37.9

Inoviridae sp. isolate ctda6

MH552488

Illumina Library	SRR #	Illumina sequencing run #	Contig Coverage Depth
abalone1	SRR7122363	12	21.8
W01_blood	SRR6442920	19	62.4
ms19_W08	SRR6442889	19	3.5
ms19_W18	SRR6442898	19	2.5
ms19_W27	SRR6442973	19	3.4

CRESS virus sp. isolate ctbd281

MH617267

Illumina Library	SRR #	Illumina sequencing run #	Contig Coverage Depth
abalone1	SRR7122363	12	8.1
bison2	SRR7122320	4	84.9
haddock1	SRR5832142	12	73.9
squid1	SRR7122358	12	4.6

CRESS virus sp. isolate cthf761

MH552486

Illumina Library	SRR #	Illumina sequencing run #	Contig Coverage Depth
10mus	SRR7122376	18	65.1
apo1	SRR7122347	18	115.7
redsnapper1	SRR7122366	3	31.4

Circular genetic element sp. isolate ctbf001

MH648779

Illumina Library	SRR #	Illumina sequencing run #	Contig Coverage Depth
beef_bd3	SRR7122336	3	28.7
raccoonskin1	SRR7122367	8	10.1

Circular genetic element sp. isolate ctbi451

MK012536

Illumina Library	SRR #	Illumina sequencing run #	Contig Coverage Depth
10mus	SRR7122376	18	65.1
apo1	SRR7122347	18	115.7
beef_bd3	SRR7122336	3	11.1
bison1	SRR7122319	4	11.3
bison2	SRR7122320	4	5
lamb1	SRR7122321	4	9.4
haddock1	SRR5832142	12	8.9
redsnapper1	SRR7122366	3	31.4
turkey	SRR7122322	4	6