

1 Limited Cross-Species Virus Transmission in a Spatially
2 Restricted Coral Reef Fish Community

3

4

5 Vincenzo A. Costa¹, David R. Bellwood², Jonathon C.O. Mifsud¹, Jemma L. Geoghegan^{3,4},
6 Edward C. Holmes¹, Erin Harvey¹

7

8

9 ¹Sydney Institute for Infectious Diseases, School of Life and Environmental Sciences and
10 Sydney Medical School, The University of Sydney, Sydney, NSW 2006, Australia.

11 ²Research Hub for Coral Reef Ecosystem Functions, College of Science and Engineering,
12 James Cook University, Townsville, QLD 4811, Australia

13 ³Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Otago, Dunedin 9016, New
14 Zealand.

15 ⁴Institute of Environmental Science and Research, Wellington 5022, New Zealand.

16

17

18 Author for correspondence:

19 Erin Harvey

20 erin.harvey@sydney.edu.au

21

22

23 Competing interests: None declared.

24 **Abstract**

25 The Great Barrier Reef (GBR) – the largest coral reef ecosystem in the world – supports
26 over 1200 fish species with some of the highest population densities and diversities seen in
27 vertebrates, offering a high potential for virus transmission among species. As such, the
28 GBR represents an exceptional natural ecosystem to determine the impact of host
29 community diversity on virus evolution and emergence. In recent decades the GBR has also
30 experienced significant threats of extinction, making it one of the most vulnerable
31 ecosystems on the planet. However, our understanding of virus diversity and connectivity in
32 tropical reef fishes remains poor. Here, we employed metatranscriptomic sequencing to
33 reveal the viromes of 61 reef fish species. This identified a total of 132 viruses, 38 of which
34 were vertebrate-associated and therefore likely infecting the fish, including a novel isolate of
35 *Santee-cooper ranavirus* (*Iridoviridae*). Notably, we found little evidence for virus
36 transmission between fish species living within a very restricted geographical space – a 100
37 m² coral reef ecosystem – suggesting that there might be important host genetic barriers to
38 successful cross-species transmission despite regular exposure. We also identified
39 differences in virome composition between reef fish families, such that cryptobenthic reef
40 fishes – characterized by small body sizes and short life-spans – exhibited greater virome
41 richness compared to large reef fishes. This study suggests that there are important barriers
42 to cross-species transmission, and that successful emergence in a reef fish community likely
43 requires active host adaptation, even among closely related host species.

44 **Introduction**

45 Despite their long evolutionary history, extensive diversity and complex ecological
46 interactions, fish are severely under-sampled in studies of viral ecology and evolution.
47 Economically, fish represent approximately 401 billion USD to the global economy and
48 supply a yearly average of 20.5 kilograms per capita for consumption [1]. Yet fish face
49 continual and potentially ruinous threats from emerging viral infections [2]. Climate-
50 associated changes in species interactions are likely to have devastating ecological and
51 economic consequences, particularly in the context of infectious disease emergence [3]. It
52 was recently estimated that climate change may be responsible for the extinction of almost
53 half of the economically important fish species in the tropical Pacific region by 2100 [4].

54 Tropical coral reefs are particularly vulnerable to biodiversity loss. In recent decades, global
55 warming has caused numerous coral bleaching events worldwide, with detrimental
56 cascading effects on reef ecosystem functioning and biodiversity [5, 6, 7]. While tropical
57 coral reefs make up only a small fraction of the marine environment, they support enormous
58 biodiversity, accounting for approximately one-third of all currently described marine fish
59 species [8]. Many are ‘cryptobenthic reef fishes’, characterized by small body sizes (i.e. adult
60 sizes of approximately five centimetres), short life-spans, cryptic behaviour and benthic
61 positioning on coral reefs [9, 10]. These diverse reef fish assemblages are of significant
62 economic and cultural value to humans through aquaculture, fisheries, tourism and the
63 aquarium trade [10, 11, 12].

64 Despite their economic and socio-ecological importance, little is known about the natural
65 diversity of viruses that infect reef fishes, and how ecological and phylogenetic variability
66 within a reef fish community impacts cross-species virus transmission and disease
67 emergence. Host community diversity likely plays a central role in virus emergence, as
68 contact between donor and recipient hosts is a prerequisite for virus transmission [13]. Yet,
69 revealing the exact nature of that role has proven challenging [14]. On one hand, a high
70 diversity of hosts could provide more transmission opportunities for viruses, thereby

71 elevating the risk of disease emergence. Conversely, increased host community diversity
72 may reduce the probability of disease emergence through the 'dilution effect', in which
73 species richness provides more possible hosts for pathogens, in turn reducing disease
74 occurrence in some species [14, 15]. As tropical coral reefs are considered biodiversity
75 hotspots, they serve as an ideal natural ecosystem for exploring the impact of host diversity
76 on the extent, pattern and evolution of virus diversity. Indeed, reef fishes display some of the
77 highest densities and highest diversities of potential vertebrate hosts on the planet. In our
78 study location, a standard sampling area of 3.5 m² consistently supports between 50 to 150
79 fishes belonging to 15 to 25 species [74]. Furthermore, this density and richness is sustained
80 year-round [75], offering a continual potential for cross-species transmission and high
81 individual densities all in a readily transmitting aquatic medium.

82 Much of our knowledge on the tropical reef virosphere is skewed towards those viruses
83 associated with coral species and their symbionts [16]. While epizootic infections have
84 previously been reported in tropical reef fishes across the Western Atlantic and Gulf of
85 Mexico [17], there is minimal data on viral diversity in fish from the Great Barrier Reef
86 (GBR), Australia, although this is the largest and among the most threatened reef
87 ecosystems in the world [5, 6, 18]. A recent metatranscriptomic analysis of the pygmy goby
88 (*Eviota zebra*) identified three viruses (families *Arenaviridae*, *Hantaviridae*,
89 *Paramyxoviridae*) despite *Eviota* exhibiting maximum lifespans of between 60 and 100 days
90 (including a 24 to 26 day pelagic larval phase) [19, 20].

91 The rate of infectious disease emergence is expected to increase in marine environments,
92 particularly in the context of climate change [3]. As ocean temperatures continue to rise,
93 many Eastern Australian tropical fishes have begun to shift their distribution poleward to
94 temperate reefs situated at higher latitudes, through tropicalization [21, 22]. While the broad-
95 scale ecological impacts of tropicalization are becoming increasingly apparent in native
96 temperate fishes [22], it is unclear how this will impact virus ecology and infectious disease
97 emergence.

98 Tropical ornamental fishes may also act as viral vectors of disease in economically important
99 farmed species. For example, in Australia, dwarf gourami (*Trichipodus lalius*) can transmit
100 infectious kidney and spleen necrosis virus (genus *Megalocytivirus*, *Iridoviridae*) to domestic
101 fishes, often with detrimental impacts including disease outbreaks in iconic species such as
102 Murray cod (*Maccullochella peelii*) [23, 24]. Moreover, tropical wrasses (Labridae) have
103 been considered effective biological control agents in aquaculture for their natural ability to
104 consume pests [25]. However, temperate cleaner wrasses have been reported to be
105 important drivers of outbreaks of viral haemorrhagic septicaemia virus (*Rhabdoviridae*) in
106 farmed salmonids [26]. As such, revealing viral diversity in ornamental tropical reef fishes is
107 imperative to understanding the risk of disease emergence in both wild and domestic fish
108 populations.

109 Revealing the nature of viral transmission within and among species in natural environments
110 is central to our understanding of disease emergence. With exceptionally high species
111 diversity and highly variable individual abundances and ecologies, coral reefs offer an
112 exciting opportunity to explore cross-species virus transmission in a complex natural high-
113 diversity ecosystem. Our goal, therefore, was to employ total RNA-sequencing (i.e.
114 metatranscriptomics) to reveal the diversity, abundance and composition of viruses infecting
115 reef fishes from the GBR, utilising a fish community from a 100 m² coral reef ecosystem. In
116 particular, we aimed to: (i) reveal viral diversity and evolution in tropical reef fishes, (ii)
117 identify how often viruses are exchanged in a spatially restricted reef fish community, (iii)
118 determine whether there are differences in virome composition between reef fish families, as
119 well as between cryptobenthic reef fishes and large reef fishes, that differ enormously in
120 size, metabolic rate, lifespan and fecundity [10], and (iv) identify novel viruses that may pose
121 an emerging threat to Australian fisheries, aquaculture and the aquarium trade.

122

123 **Materials and Methods**

124 ***Animal ethics***

125 Fish were collected under a Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Authority permit (G16/37684.1)
126 and James Cook University Animal Ethics permit A2752.

127 ***Tropical reef fish sample collection***

128 Seemingly healthy fishes (n = 193) were collected in early April 2021 at Orpheus Island,
129 GBR (18°36'44.3"S 146°28'59.4"E). These included 61 species across 16 reef fish families:
130 Gobiidae (gobies) (n = 30 species), Labridae (wrasses) (n = 6), Pomacentridae
131 (damselfishes) (n = 5), Blenniidae (blennies) (n = 5), Acanthuridae (surgeonfishes) (n = 3),
132 Apogonidae (cardinalfishes) (n = 2), Monacanthidae (filefishes) (n = 2), Tetraodontidae
133 (pufferfishes) (n = 1), Pseudochromidae (dottybacks) (n = 1), Chaetodontidae
134 (butterflyfishes) (n = 1), Atherinidae (silversides, hardyheads) (n = 1), Serranidae (groupers)
135 (n = 1), Tripterygiidae (triplefin blennies) (n = 1), Muraenidae (moray eels) (n = 1), Bythitidae
136 (brotulas) (n = 1) and Ophichthidae (snake eels) (n = 1). (Supplementary Table 1).

137 Importantly, of these species, 42 were collected from the reef fish community within a 100
138 m² sampling area (along the northern margin of Pioneer Bay) (Supplementary Table 1). All
139 fish caught were euthanized using clove oil, transported to the lab on ice, then placed either
140 dissected (liver and gills) or whole in RNAlater. Specimens were then stored at -80°C until
141 RNA extraction.

142 ***RNA extraction, library preparation and metagenomic next-generation sequencing***

143 Tissue specimens were combined based on species (e.g. liver and gills) and total RNA was
144 extracted using the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) as previously
145 described in [18, 26]. RNA was quantified using a UV-Vis cuvette spectrophotometer
146 (DeNovix, Delaware, United States) and a parallel capillary electrophoresis instrument
147 (Fragment Analyzer) (Agilent, California, United States). RNA from each individual fish was
148 then pooled within each species (Supplementary Table 1), resulting in a total of 61 RNA
149 sequencing libraries. These libraries were constructed using the Truseq Total RNA Library

150 Preparation Protocol (Illumina). Host ribosomal RNA (rRNA) was depleted with the Ribo-
151 Zero Plus Kit (Illumina) and paired-end sequencing (150 bp) was carried out on the NovaSeq
152 500 platform (Illumina). To reduce the impact of index hopping and false virus-host
153 assignments, each library was sequenced on two different lanes. Library construction and
154 metatranscriptomic sequencing were performed by the Australian Genome Research Facility
155 (AGR).

156 ***Virus discovery pipeline and genome annotation***

157 Illumina sequencing reads were first quality trimmed using Trimmomatic v.0.38 [28] then *de*
158 *novo* assembled into contigs using MEGAHIT v.1.2.9 [29]. The resultant contigs for each
159 library were used as a query against the NCBI nucleotide (nt) and non-redundant protein (nr)
160 databases using BLASTn and Diamond (BLASTX) with an e-value search threshold of 1 x
161 10^{-5} [30]. Contigs with positive matches to viral sequences were inspected and predicted into
162 open reading frames (ORFs) using Geneious Prime (v.2022.0) [31] (www.geneious.com).
163 We first assigned a virus to a fish library if it was identified on both sequencing lanes. Next,
164 to distinguish between those viruses infecting fish or those associated with diet or gill
165 contamination (e.g. invertebrates, fungi, algae), we used our predicted viral sequences as a
166 single query against the NCBI nt and nr databases using BLAST implemented in Geneious
167 Prime. Using these results, we then assigned a virus as 'vertebrate-associated' based on
168 sequence similarity to established vertebrate viruses on the NCBI databases, as well as e-
169 value. Final confirmation was based on phylogenetic analysis (see below) as vertebrate and
170 non-vertebrate viruses often exhibit a large degree of genetic divergence and hence are
171 phylogenetically distinct [47, 51]. Viruses were defined as novel based on the broad criteria
172 by The International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (<https://talk.ictvonline.org>). Viral
173 genomes were annotated using the NCBI conserved domain (CDD) search and 'Live
174 Annotate and Predict' tool in Geneious Prime, using related sequences obtained from
175 NCBI/GenBank with a gene similarity cut-off of 25%.

176 ***Phylogenetic analysis***

177 To infer the evolutionary history of the viruses discovered here, we estimated family level
178 phylogenetic trees using amino acid sequences of conserved genomic regions. These
179 included RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) for RNA viruses, and the DNA
180 polymerase and major capsid protein for DNA viruses. We then aligned our novel viral
181 sequences with those available on the NCBI/GenBank database (August 2021) using
182 MAFFT v.7.450, employing the E-INS-i algorithm [32]. The amino acid sequence alignment
183 was pruned using TrimAl v.1.2 to remove ambiguously aligned regions with a gap threshold
184 of 0.9 and a variable conserve value [33]. The best-fit model of amino acid substitution was
185 estimated with the ‘ModelFinder Plus’ (-m MFP) flag in IQ-TREE [34, 35]. Using these data,
186 we then estimated phylogenetic trees using a maximum likelihood (ML) approach with 1,000
187 bootstrap replicates using IQ-TREE.

188 ***Abundance estimation and virome statistical analysis***

189 We employed RNA-seq by Expectation-Maximization (RSEM) (v1.2.28) to quantify the
190 relative abundance of transcripts within each fish species transcriptome [36]. These included
191 both viral genes and the stably expressed host reference gene, ribosomal protein S13
192 (RPS13). Abundance measures were standardised by dividing values against the total reads
193 for each library. We calculated both alpha and beta diversity to compare virome composition
194 between reef fish families, as well as between cryptobenthic reef fishes and large reef
195 fishes. We also compared non-fish virome composition (i.e. those viruses associated with
196 diet, environment or microbiome) as a form of internal control as these viruses are not
197 impacted by aspects of host biology. Accordingly, we used Rhea scripts to calculate alpha
198 diversity, including viral abundance, observed virome richness and Shannon diversity [37].
199 Statistical comparisons of alpha diversity were modelled using generalized linear models
200 (GLMs) and tested using a likelihood-ratio test (χ^2) and Tukey’s post hoc analysis with the
201 *multcomp* package [38]. To compare viral communities between reef fish assemblages, we
202 calculated beta diversity using a Bray–Curtis distance matrix with the *phyloseq* package [71].
203 These data were then tested using permutational multivariate analysis of variance

204 (permanova) with the *vegan* package (adonis) [72]. All plots were constructed using *ggplot2*
205 [39].

206

207 **Results**

208 **Total diversity and abundance of viruses discovered in tropical reef fish**

209 We sequenced 61 metatranscriptomes of tropical reef fish species for virus discovery,
210 resulting in a median of 99,658,615 (range 45,583,181 – 121,905,422) reads and 371,944
211 (range 161,447 – 626,467) contigs per library. From this, we identified a total of 132 viruses
212 infecting apparently healthy fish and their associated invertebrate and microbial species.
213 This included 38 vertebrate-associated viruses, comprising 11 negative-sense single-
214 stranded RNA viruses (-ssRNA) (*Hantaviridae*, *Chuviridae*, *Orthomyxoviridae*,
215 *Rhabdoviridae*, *Paramyxoviridae*), 18 positive-sense single-stranded RNA viruses (+ssRNA)
216 (*Astroviridae*, *Hepeviridae*, *Picornaviridae*, *Flaviviridae*, *Coronaviridae*), one double-stranded
217 RNA virus (dsRNA) (*Reoviridae*), six single-stranded DNA viruses (ssDNA) (*Parvoviridae*,
218 *Circoviridae*), and two double-stranded DNA viruses (dsDNA) (*Iridoviridae*) (Figure 1).

219 Our metatranscriptomic analysis also identified 94 viruses that shared sequence similarity
220 and phylogenetically clustered with viruses associated with invertebrate (arthropods,
221 crustaceans, molluscs, platyhelminths, myriapods, nematodes) and fungal hosts
222 (Supplementary Figures 1-4). These viruses were classified within the *Flaviviridae* (27% of
223 total non-vertebrate virome abundance), *Narnaviridae* (24%), *Picornaviridae* (20%),
224 *Nodaviridae* (10%), *Hepeviridae* (7%), *Solemoviridae* (4%), *Totiviridae* (1%), *Partitiviridae*,
225 *Iflaviridae*, *Picobirnaviridae*, *Phenuiviridae*, *Qinviridae*, *Rhabdoviridae*, *Tombusviridae*,
226 *Mimiviridae*, *Natareviridae*, *Jingchuvirales* (all less than 1%) [40, 41]. We also identified
227 viruses that were related to negeviruses (2% of non-vertebrate virus abundance) [42] and
228 quenaviruses (<1%) [43] (Supplementary Figure 1). While many of these families include
229 viruses that are known to infect fishes (e.g. *Flaviviridae*, *Picornaviridae*, *Nodaviridae*,

230 *Hepeviridae, Totiviridae, Rhabdoviridae*), the viruses identified here were highly divergent
231 and clustered with those that infect a broad range of invertebrate and fungal species
232 (Supplementary Figures 1-4). We therefore focused our analysis on vertebrate-associated
233 viruses.

234 **Genome organisation and phylogenetic relationships of vertebrate-associated viruses**
235 **-ssRNA viruses**

236 Five actinoviruses were identified (subfamily *Actantavirinae, Hantaviridae*) (Figure 2). All of
237 these were novel, with the exception for pygmy goby hantavirus, previously identified in *E.*
238 *zebrina* [19]. We identified complete and partial actinovirus genomes in *Trimma fangi*,
239 *Luposicya lupus*, *Cephalopholis boenak* and *Pleurosicya* sp. (Figure 2; Supplementary Table
240 2). The genome of *L. lupus* actinovirus contained all three expected actinovirus genomic
241 regions (Figure 2). Notably, the S segment possessed an additional ORF upstream of the
242 nucleoprotein in antisense orientation, also seen in the genome of perch actinovirus, but not
243 in other actinoviruses [44].

244 Two partial genomes of paramyxoviruses were identified, one in *E. zebrina* (i.e., pygmy goby
245 paramyxovirus) [19] and the other in the *Enneapterygius tutuilae*. This virus was highly
246 divergent from other classified ray-finned fish paramyxoviruses, including the genus
247 *Aquaparamyxovirus* (Figure 2). We also identified partial genomes (L protein and
248 nucleocapsid sequences) of two novel rhabdoviruses in *Trimma okinawae* and *Trimma*
249 *striatum*. *T. okinawae* rhabdovirus fell within the monophyletic *Tupavirus* group that infects
250 birds and mammals [45, 46], while *T. striatum* rhabdovirus clustered with the
251 dimarhabdoviruses [47] (Figure 2). Among other -ssRNA viruses, we identified a novel
252 pischichuvirus in *Salarius guttatus* and orthomyxovirus in *Cheilodipterus quinquelineatus*
253 that showed sequence similarity to quaranjaviruses (Figure 2; Supplementary Table 2).

254 **+ssRNA viruses**

255 Astroviruses were detected in seven fish species. All of these were members of the
256 Gobiidae, except for *Blenniella* sp. (Blenniidae) which clustered with astroviruses that infect
257 a broad range of ray-finned and jawless fish species (Figure 3). Similarly, we identified a
258 divergent virus from this group in *L. lupus*, tentatively named goby astrovirus 3. This virus
259 exhibited a genome of 7,355 nt with a predicted 5' untranslated region (UTR) of 347 nt, two
260 main ORFs, and a 3' UTR of 347 nt. One ORF encoded the astrovirus ORF1a protein
261 (protease) and the other, a polyprotein encoding RdRp and capsid protein. Notably, this
262 arrangement is also seen in the genome of Wenling rattails astrovirus 5, but not in other
263 currently described fish astroviruses that exhibit three main ORFs [47].

264 The complete genomes of three novel picornaviruses and partial sequences of five novel
265 picornaviruses were identified (Figure 3). Although these fish species were members of the
266 same community, all eight viruses were highly divergent. Phylogenetic analysis of the 3D
267 polymerase gene reveals clustering with other fish picornaviruses, except for *E. tutuilae*
268 picornavirus and *Exyrias* picornavirus that clustered with *Ampivirus*, identified in the common
269 newt (*Lissotriton vulgaris*) [48] (Figure 3).

270 We also identified the full genome of a novel hepacivirus (*Flaviviridae*) in *Chaetodon*
271 *aureofaciatus* that contained conserved genomic regions – Core C, Envelope E1, NS2, NS3,
272 NS4, NS5B – and fell within a distinct group of aquatic hepaciviruses [47] (Figure 3).

273 **dsRNA viruses**

274 The near complete genome of a novel reovirus was identified in *Istigobius nigroocellatus*.
275 This included six segments encoding the VP1 (guanyl transferase), VP2 (RdRp), VP3
276 (helicase), VP4 (NTPase), VP5 (outer capsid protein) and VP6 (core protein) proteins.
277 Phylogenetic analysis of the VP2 gene revealed clustering within the *Aquareovirus* genus,
278 as this virus shared 48-60% amino acid similarity with its closest relatives (Supplementary
279 Table 2; Supplementary Figure 5).

280 **ssDNA viruses**

281 We discovered a basal group of four parvoviruses that fell within the subfamily *Parvovirinae*
282 (*Parvoviridae*). The genome of *Ecsenius stictus* parvovirus was a single contig of 4286 nt,
283 containing two main ORFs. The left ORF was 1374 nt and encoded the conserved non-
284 structural protein NS1 that has DNA helicase and ATPase function [65]. The right ORF
285 encoded the structural VP1 protein (2571 bp). *I. ornatus* parvovirus exhibited a genome of
286 4284 nt and contained three main ORFs, one encoding NS1 (1878 nt) and the other two,
287 encoding putative structural proteins (Figure 4).

288 We also identified the partial genome of a novel ichthamaparvovirus in *L. lupus* and a novel
289 circovirus in *Abudefduf bengalensis* that clustered within a distinct clade of fish circoviruses.
290 (Figure 4).

291 **dsDNA viruses**

292 Analysis of the *Halichoeres melanurus* meta-transcriptome identified nine conserved
293 proteins sharing 99-100% similarity with all currently described *Santee-Cooper ranavirus*
294 isolates such as largemouth bass virus, manadarin fish ranavirus, koi ranavirus, doctor fish
295 virus, and guppy virus 6 (*Iridoviridae*; Supplementary Table 2). We used the highly
296 conserved major capsid protein and DNA polymerase for phylogenetic analysis [50], which
297 further confirmed a novel *Santee-cooper ranavirus* isolate, tentatively named *H. melanurus*
298 ranavirus (Figure 5). Largemouth bass virus and mandarin fish ranavirus are highly lethal in
299 farmed populations, causing 95-100% mortality [60, 61]. Our metatranscriptomic analysis
300 also identified a novel iridovirus in *E. tutuilae* that fell sister to erythrocytic necrosis virus
301 (ENV) [51] and clustered with other erythrocytic-like viruses identified in amphibians and
302 reptiles [52, 53, 54, 55]. ENV was the closest relative across all proteins identified
303 (Supplementary Table 2).

304 **Cross-species virus transmission in a reef fish community**

305 Despite the large number of viruses identified, we only found evidence for one cross-species
306 transmission within our GBR ecosystem. This involved astroviruses found in five different

307 fish species that exhibited high levels of amino acid sequence similarity and phylogenetic
308 clustering (Figure 3). Specifically, phylogenetic comparisons of ORF1b (RdRp) revealed two
309 viral species: goby astrovirus 1, identified in *I. goldmanni*, and goby astrovirus 2, identified in
310 *I. nigrocellatus*, *I. decoratus*, *Asterropteryx semipunctatus*, and *Cabillus tongarevae* (Figure
311 4). These two viruses exhibit 82.5% amino acid sequence similarity across the virus
312 genome, while the four sequences of goby astrovirus 2 had 96.8% amino acid similarity
313 (Figure 3).

314 We also detected related viruses (i.e., those from the same virus family) in several different
315 fish species, including the *Hantaviridae*, *Rhabdoviridae*, *Paramyxoviridae*, and
316 *Picornaviridae* (Figure 6). However, most of these were highly divergent and likely reflect
317 common ancestry rather than direct host-jumping in the reef ecosystem. For example, out of
318 the eight picornaviruses identified in this study, the closest relatives were *Asterropteryx*
319 *spinosa* picornavirus and *A. semipunctatus* picornavirus that shared only 44% amino acid
320 similarity.

321 Also of note was the identification of viral species not directly infecting the fish themselves,
322 but rather associated with the local environment, diet or microbiome (i.e., non-fish) that were
323 transmitted between reef fish assemblages. These were quenaviruses (95% amino acid
324 similarity between *Pomacentrus moluccensis* and *A. bengalensis*), flavi-like viruses (91.2%
325 between *I. goldmanni* and *I. ornatus*), narnaviruses (97.7% between *I. goldmanni*, *I.*
326 *nigrocellatus* and *I. rigillus*) and totiviruses (93.5% between *Amblygobius buanesis* and
327 *Amblygobius rainfordi*) (Supplementary figs 1, 2 and 4; Figure 6). That there were more
328 instances of cross-species transmission of non-fish viruses compared to those viruses that
329 actively replicate in fish suggests that the latter group are subject to strong host barriers,
330 even among closely related species.

331 **Comparisons of viral alpha and beta diversity between reef fish families**

332 We next compared vertebrate virome composition between reef fish families, as well as
333 between cryptobenthic reef fishes and large reef fishes (i.e. that differ in size). In our data

334 set, cryptobenthic reef fish families included the Gobiidae, Apogonidae, Blenniidae,
335 Tripterygiidae, Bythitidae and Pseudochromidae, while the large reef fish families included
336 the Pomacentridae, Acanthuridae, Tetraodontidae, Atherinidae, Serranidae, Monacanthidae,
337 Chaetodontidae, Labridae, Muraenidae, and Ophichthidae [10].

338 Three statistical measures were used to assess alpha diversity: viral abundance (i.e.,
339 standardised number of viral reads), observed viral richness (i.e., the number of viruses) and
340 Shannon diversity. Notably, we found an association between fish size and observed viral
341 richness, with cryptobenthic reef fishes harbouring more viruses than large reef fishes (χ^2
342 = 2.795, df = 1, P = 0.028). In particular, the Tripterygiidae exhibited greater observed viral
343 richness than all other reef fish families (χ^2 = 16.678, df = 15, P = 0.007). However, we
344 found no association between reef fish family and viral abundance (P = 0.153), Shannon
345 diversity (p = 0.901) or beta diversity (R^2 = 0.334, P = 0.064). Likewise, we identified no
346 significant differences in viral abundance (P = 0.271), Shannon diversity (P = 0.142) nor beta
347 diversity (R^2 = 0.048, P = 0.121) between cryptobenthic reef fishes and large reef fishes.

348 As a form of internal control, we repeated our analyses of viral abundance and diversity on
349 the non-fish viruses identified here. This analysis revealed no significant differences in viral
350 abundance between reef fish families (P = 0.994) nor between cryptobenthic reef fishes and
351 larger reef fishes (P = 0.355). Similarly, we found no significant difference in observed viral
352 richness between fish families (P = 0.733), although cryptobenthic reef fishes exhibited
353 higher observed non-vertebrate viral richness than large reef fish families (χ^2 = 10.805,
354 df = 1, P = 0.016). We observed no difference in Shannon diversity between fish families (P =
355 0.453), as well as between cryptobenthic reef fishes and larger reef fishes (P = 0.070).
356 Finally, we found no association between beta diversity and reef fish families (R^2 = 0.279, P
357 = 0.126) nor between cryptobenthic reef fishes and large reef fishes (R^2 = 0.335, P = 0.058).

358

359 **Discussion**

360 The GBR supports over 1200 species of fish and is the largest coral reef ecosystem in the
361 world, comprising 2500 reefs across approximately 344,400 km² [5]. Despite the global
362 importance of the GBR, little is known about the natural diversity of viruses that infect
363 tropical reef fishes, as well as the ecological and evolutionary processes that allow such
364 viruses to spread within a reef fish community. To this end, we employed metatranscriptomic
365 sequencing to characterize the viromes of 61 tropical reef fish species, including those
366 occupying a 100 m² reef fish community. This identified a total of 132 viruses, including 38
367 vertebrate-associated viruses and 94 that infected a broad range of invertebrate and fungal
368 hosts.

369 Importantly, while we sampled coral reef fishes from a small spatial area, we identified a
370 marked absence of cross-species virus transmission, with the only instance of host-jumping
371 being the presence of a single viral species (*Astroviridae*) in four goby species (Figures 3
372 and 6). However, the variation across the four viral genomes is indicative of past host-
373 switching throughout evolutionary history, which may span millions of years, rather than
374 direct host-jumping within the ecosystem sampled here. Given the restricted spatial area
375 considered, and the density of potential hosts, such a lack of cross-species transmission
376 suggests that there may be important host genetic barriers to virus switching among the reef
377 fishes sampled herein. This is supported by the observation that non-fish viruses – that are
378 not impacted by aspects of host genetics – were characterized by higher levels of cross-
379 species virus transmission. Although currently of unknown nature, these barriers are likely to
380 be subtle and may reflect nuances in host cell receptor binding [56]. For instance, although
381 the betacoronavirus RaTG13 sampled from *Rhinolophus affinis* bats is closely related (~96%
382 sequence similarity) to SARS-CoV-2, it is unable to bind to the human ACE2 receptor [73].
383 Another notable result was that we detected differences in vertebrate virome composition
384 between reef fish families, with cryptobenthic reef fishes harbouring more viruses than large
385 reef fishes (Figure 7). Due to their small body size, cryptobenthic reef fishes exhibit
386 significantly higher rates of metabolism compared to large reef fishes, resulting in high

387 energy demands with a low tolerance for starvation [10]. Given their extremely short
388 lifespans, a high degree of energy is used for their rapid growth as well as their complex
389 reproductive strategies (e.g. sex change), such that there might be important energy trade-
390 offs between growth, reproduction and immunity; particularly as immune systems require a
391 substantial allocation of resources for recognizing and eliminating pathogens [10, 70]. While
392 it is unclear if and how such energy demands impact immunity in cryptobenthic reef fishes, it
393 is notable that this lifestyle is associated with a more diverse virome compared to large reef
394 fishes, suggesting these species may be more susceptible to infection. Indeed, with a daily
395 mortality rate of 8 to 9% [20, 76] investing in immunity may be a poor strategy, and it is
396 possible that these energy-saving strategies are key to the spectacular success of these
397 cryptobenthic fishes [77]. Whether as simple larvae in the pelagic realm, or on the reef,
398 cryptobenthic fishes may be able to minimise energetically expensive activities such as
399 immunity and swimming, freeing up energy to maintain adequate fecundity, despite
400 exceptionally high mortality rates and infection risks.

401 Among reef fish families, the Tripterygiidae exhibited the greatest observed viral richness,
402 with *E. tutuilae* harbouring four viral species. *E. tutuilae* is a generalist on coral reefs,
403 utilising sand and rubble, soft coral, cave and open reef microhabitats [67]. It is therefore
404 possible that habitat generalism may increase interactions with other fish species and hence
405 increase the likelihood of being infected by a larger number of viruses. In contrast, *Gobiodon*
406 species are extreme habitat specialists and may often only occupy a single coral species as
407 habitat for its entire life with minimal interactions with other fish species [10, 68]. This
408 lifestyle may explain why all five *Gobiodon* species examined here harboured no vertebrate-
409 associated viruses, as well as few non-vertebrate associated viruses (Figure 1).

410 Given the phylogenetic distance between fish and other vertebrate classes, as well as the
411 long-term associations through virus-host co-divergence [47, 57], it was not unexpected that
412 95% of the vertebrate-associated viruses discovered here clustered with other fish viruses. A
413 case in point comes from the phylogeny of the *Hantaviridae* that clearly reflects the broad

414 evolutionary history of vertebrates with the *Agantavirinae* (jawless fish) falling basal to the
415 *Actantavirinae* (ray-finned fish), *Reptantavirinae* (reptiles) and *Mammantavirinae*
416 (mammals), respectively (Figure 2). Despite their likely long-term presence in ray-finned fish,
417 actinoviruses have only recently been discovered, and have been associated with disease in
418 farmed species [19, 27, 44, 47]. For instance, a novel actinovirus – perch actinovirus – was
419 identified in diseased European perch (*Perca fluviatilis*) with high concentrations of viral RNA
420 in gill endothelial cells and macrophages [44]. Our discovery of four actinoviruses in gobies
421 suggests these viruses may be widespread in this fish family and hence should be
422 monitored closely if interacting with farmed populations.

423 Another virus of concern identified in our study is a novel isolate of *Santee-cooper ranavirus*
424 in *H. melanurus*. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first discovery of this virus in
425 Australia. Our detection of this virus in seemingly healthy wrasses as well as its natural
426 presence in cleaner wrasses (*Labroides dimidiatus*), suggests this family of tropical reef
427 fishes may be important reservoir hosts for the *Santee-cooper ranavirus* group [63]. For
428 instance, disease outbreaks with high mortality rates have only been observed in farmed
429 freshwater fish species including largemouth bass (*Micropterus salmoides*), mandarinfish
430 (*Siniperca chuatsi*) and koi (*Cyprinus carpio*) [58, 59, 60, 61, 62].

431 Despite the long-known presence of viral erythrocytic necrosis in various fish species across
432 the North Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, the genome of the causative virus – ENV – was only
433 recently characterized [51]. We identified a closely related virus in *E. tutuilae*. Interestingly,
434 viral erythrocytic necrosis in a juvenile triggerfish (*Rhinecanthus aculeatus*) has been
435 reported nearby at Lizard Island [64], suggesting that this virus may be circulating between
436 several reef locations along the GBR. Phylogenetic comparisons of DNA polymerase and
437 major capsid protein revealed a distinct ‘ectothermic vertebrate’ clade that could be clearly
438 classified as a novel genus within the *Betairidovirinae*, *Iridoviridae* (Figure 5).

439 While we observed significant differences in virome composition between coral reef fishes,
440 there were necessary limitations in our sampling. For instance, cryptobenthic fishes made up

441 62% of the fish diversity in this study. In addition, 23 libraries contained only one individual.
442 Such unequal sample sizes likely impacted the statistical power of our analyses.
443 Accordingly, future work should balance the number of samples as well as increase the
444 number of reef sampling sites. Comparing virome composition between entire reef fish
445 communities is crucial to understanding how host community diversity affects viral dynamics
446 and disease emergence, particularly in the context of biodiversity loss. As such, larger
447 ecological studies are needed to better evaluate whether a dilution or amplification effect
448 occurs in a reef fish community.

449 In sum, our study identified a large diversity and abundance of viruses in tropical reef fish
450 assemblages. Notably, we identified a marked absence of virus exchange within a reef fish
451 community, suggesting there may be important host genetic barriers for successful cross-
452 species virus transmission. Importantly, our discovery of a novel *Santee-cooper ranavirus*
453 isolate in seemingly healthy wrasses, highlights the importance of virological surveillance in
454 marine wildlife, particularly as this virus can cause significantly high mortality in farmed
455 fishes. As such, these species should be considered in biosecurity risk assessments and
456 screened if utilized for aquaculture or aquarium operations [69]. Accordingly, future studies
457 should also investigate its susceptibility in important Australian food fish to fully assess its
458 emergence threat [63]. Overall, this study increases our knowledge on the severely
459 understudied coral reef fish virome and provides the first data on virus-host interactions in a
460 reef fish community.

461

462 **Acknowledgements**

463 This work was funded by Australian Research Council (ARC) Australian Laureate
464 Fellowships to ECH (FL170100022) and DRB (FL190100062), and an ARC Discovery
465 Project grant to ECH and JG (DP200102351). JLG is funded by a New Zealand Royal
466 Society Rutherford Discovery Fellowship (RDF-20-UOO-007) and a Marsden Fast Start
467 grant (20-UOO-105).

468 **Data availability**

469 All sequence reads are available on the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under
470 BioProject XXXX (submission: SUB11462050, awaiting ID) and all generated virus genetic
471 sequences have been deposited in NCBI/GenBank under accessions XXXX - XXXX
472 (submission: 2582698, awaiting accession IDs).

473

474 **Competing Interests**

475 The authors declare no competing interests.

476

477 **References**

- 478 1. Food and Agriculture Organization. Sustainability in action. State of World Fisheries and
479 Aquaculture. Rome. 2020;200.
- 480
- 481 2. Kibenge FSB. Emerging viruses in aquaculture. *Curr. Opin. Virol.* 2019;34:97-103.
- 482 3. Burge CA, Mark Eakin C, Friedman CS, Froelich B, Hershberger PK, Hofmann EE, et al. Climate
483 Change Influences on Marine Infectious Diseases: Implications for Management
484 and Society. *Ann Rev Mar Sci.* 2014;6(1):249-77.
- 485 4. Lam VWY, Allison EH, Bell JD, Blythe J, Cheung WWL, Frölicher TL, et al. Climate
486 change, tropical fisheries and prospects for sustainable development. *Nat. Rev. Earth
487 Environ.* 2020;1(9):440-54.
- 488 5. De'ath G, Fabricius KE, Sweatman H, Puotinen M. The 27-year decline of coral cover on
489 the Great Barrier Reef and its causes. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 2012;109(44):17995-9.
- 490 6. Stuart-Smith RD, Brown CJ, Ceccarelli DM, Edgar GJ. Ecosystem restructuring along the
491 Great Barrier Reef following mass coral bleaching. *Nature.* 2018;560(7716):92-6.
- 492 7. Heron SF, Maynard JA, van Hooidonk R, Eakin CM. Warming Trends and Bleaching
493 Stress of the World's Coral Reefs 1985-2012. *Sci Rep.* 2016;6(1):38402-.
- 494 8. Spalding MD, Grenfell AM. New estimates of global and regional coral reef areas. *Coral
495 Reefs.* 1997;16(4):225-30.
- 496 9. Depczynski M, Bellwood DR. The role of cryptobenthic reef fishes in coral reef
497 trophodynamics. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 2003(256):183-91.

498 10. Brandl SJ, Goatley CHR, Bellwood DR, Tornabene L. The hidden half: ecology and
499 evolution of cryptobenthic fishes on coral reefs. *Biol. Rev. Camb. Philos. Soc.*
500 2018;93(4):1846-73.

501 11. Moberg F, Folke C. Ecological goods and services of coral reef ecosystems. *Ecol Econ.*
502 1999;29(2):215-33.

503 12. Woodhead AJ, Hicks CC, Norström AV, Williams GJ, Graham NAJ, Fox C. Coral reef
504 ecosystem services in the Anthropocene. *Funct. Ecol.* 2019;33(6):1023-34.

505 13. Parrish CR, Holmes EC, Morens DM, Park E-C, Burke DS, Calisher CH, et al. Cross-
506 Species Virus Transmission and the Emergence of New Epidemic Diseases. *Microbiol. Mol.*
507 *Biol. Rev.* 2008;72(3):457-70.

508 14. Ostfeld RS, Keesing F. Effects of Host Diversity on Infectious Disease. *Annu. Rev. Ecol.*
509 *Evol.* 2012;43(1):157-82.

510 15. Schmidt KA, Ostfeld RS. Biodiversity and the Dilution Effect in Disease Ecology.
511 *Ecology.* 2001;82(3):609.

512 16. Thurber RV, Payet JP, Thurber AR, Correa AMS. Virus-host interactions and their roles
513 in coral reef health and disease. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* 2017;15(4):205-16.

514 17. Panek FM. Epizootics and Disease of Coral Reef Fish in the Tropical Western Atlantic
515 and Gulf of Mexico. *Rev. Fish. Sci. Aquac.* 2005;13(1):1-21.

516 18. Bellwood DR, Hughes TP, Folke C, Nyström M. Confronting the coral reef crisis. *Nature.*
517 2004;429(6994):827-33.

518 19. Geoghegan JL, Di Giallourdo F, Wille M, Ortiz-Baez AS, Costa VA, Ghaly T, et al.
519 Virome composition in marine fish revealed by meta-transcriptomics. *Virus Evol.*
520 2021;7(1):veab005-veab.

521 20. Depczynski M, Bellwood DR. Extremes, Plasticity, and Invariance in Vertebrate Life
522 History Traits: Insights from Coral Reef Fishes. *Ecology.* 2006;87(12):3119-27.

523 21. Booth DJ, Beretta GA, Brown L, Figueira WF. Predicting Success of Range-Expanding
524 Coral Reef Fish in Temperate Habitats Using Temperature-Abundance Relationships. *Front.*
525 *Mar. Sci.* 2018;5:31.

526 22. Vergés A, Steinberg PD, Hay ME, Poore AGB, Campbell AH, Ballesteros E, et al. The
527 tropicalization of temperate marine ecosystems: climate-mediated changes in herbivory and
528 community phase shifts. *Proc. Royal Soc. B.* 2014;281(1789):20140846.

529 23. Go J, Lancaster M, Deece K, Dhungyel O, Whittington R. The molecular epidemiology of
530 iridovirus in Murray cod (*Maccullochella peelii peelii*) and dwarf gourami (*Colisa lalia*) from
531 distant biogeographical regions suggests a link between trade in ornamental fish and
532 emerging iridoviral diseases. *Mol. Cell. Probes.* 2006;20(3):212-22.

533 24. Lancaster MJ, Williamson MM, Schroen CJ. Iridovirus-associated mortality in farmed
534 Murray cod (*Maccullochella peelii peelii*). *Aust. Vet. J.* 2003;81(10):633-4.

535 25. Barton JA, Humphrey C, Bourne DG, Hutson KS. Biological controls to manage
536 Acropora-eating flatworms in coral aquaculture. *Aquac. Environ. Interact.* 2020;12:61-6.

537 26. Murray AG. A Modelling Framework for Assessing the Risk of Emerging Diseases
538 Associated with the Use of Cleaner Fish to Control Parasitic Sea Lice on Salmon Farms.
539 *Transbound. Emerg. Dis.* 2016;63(2):e270-e7.

540 27. Costa VA, Mifsud JCO, Gilligan D, Williamson JE, Holmes EC, Geoghegan JL.
541 Metagenomic sequencing reveals a lack of virus exchange between native and invasive
542 freshwater fish across the Murray–Darling Basin, Australia. *Virus Evol.* 2021;7(1):veab034-
543 veab.

544 28. Bolger AM, Lohse M, Usadel B. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence
545 data. *Bioinform.* 2014;30(15):2114-20.

546 29. Li D, Liu C-M, Luo R, Sadakane K, Lam T-W. MEGAHIT: an ultra-fast single-node
547 solution for large and complex metagenomics assembly via succinct de Bruijn graph.
548 *Bioinform.* 2015;31(10):1674-6.

549 30. Buchfink B, Xie C, Huson DH. Fast and sensitive protein alignment using DIAMOND.
550 *Nat. Methods.* 2015;12(1):59-60.

551 31. Kearse M, Moir R, Thierer T, Ashton B, Meintjes P, Drummond A, et al. Geneious Basic:
552 An integrated and extendable desktop software platform for the organization and analysis of
553 sequence data. *Bioinform.* 2012;28(12):1647-9.

554 32. Katoh K, Standley DM. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7:
555 improvements in performance and usability. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 2013;30(4):772-80.

556 33. Capella-Gutierrez S, Silla-Martinez JM, Gabaldon T. trimAI: a tool for automated
557 alignment trimming in large-scale phylogenetic analyses. *Bioinform.* 2009;25(15):1972-3.

558 34. Nguyen L-T, Schmidt HA, von Haeseler A, Minh BQ. IQ-TREE: a fast and effective
559 stochastic algorithm for estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies. *Mol. Biol. Evol.*
560 2015;32(1):268-74.

561 35. Kalyaanamoorthy S, Minh BQ, Wong TKF, von Haeseler A, Jermiin LS. ModelFinder:
562 fast model selection for accurate phylogenetic estimates. *Nat. Methods.* 2017;14(6):587-9.

563 36. Haas BJ, Papanicolaou A, Yassour M, Grabherr M, Blood PD, Bowden J, et al. De novo
564 transcript sequence reconstruction from RNA-seq using the Trinity platform for reference
565 generation and analysis. *Nat. Protoc.* 2013;8(8):1494-512.

566 37. Lagkouvardos I, Fischer S, Kumar N, Clavel T. Rhea: a transparent and modular R
567 pipeline for microbial profiling based on 16S rRNA gene amplicons. *PeerJ.* 2017;5:e2836-e.

568 38. Hothorn T, Bretz F, Westfall P. Simultaneous Inference in General Parametric Models.
569 *Biom. J.* 2008;50(3):346-63.

570 39. Valero-Mora PM. *ggplot2:Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis*. *J. Stat. Softw.* 2010;35.

571 40. Li C-X, Shi M, Tian J-H, Lin X-D, Kang Y-J, Chen L-J, et al. Unprecedented genomic
572 diversity of RNA viruses in arthropods reveals the ancestry of negative-sense RNA viruses.
573 *eLife*. 2015;4.

574 41. Shi M, Lin X-D, Tian J-H, Chen L-J, Chen X, Li C-X, et al. Redefining the invertebrate
575 RNA virosphere. *Nature*. 2016;540(7634):539-43.

576 42. Nunes MRT, Contreras-Gutierrez MA, Guzman H, Martins LC, Barbirato MF, Savit C, et
577 al. Genetic characterization, molecular epidemiology, and phylogenetic relationships of
578 insect-specific viruses in the taxon Negevirus. *Virology*. 2017;504:152-67.

579 43. Obbard DJ, Shi M, Roberts KE, Longdon B, Dennis AB. A new lineage of segmented
580 RNA viruses infecting animals. *Virus Evol.* 2020;6(1):vez061-vez.

581 44. Hierweger MM, Koch MC, Rupp M, Maes P, Di Paola N, Bruggmann R, et al. Novel
582 Filoviruses, Hantavirus, and Rhabdovirus in Freshwater Fish, Switzerland, 2017. *Emerg.*
583 *Infect. Dis.* 2021;27(12):3082-91.

584 45. Kurz W, Gelderblom H, Flügel RM, Darai G. Isolation and Characterization of a Tupaia
585 Rhabdovirus. *Intervirology*. 1986;25(2):88-96.

586 46. Allison AB, Palacios G, Travassos da Rosa A, Popov VL, Lu L, Xiao SY, et al.
587 Characterization of Durham virus, a novel rhabdovirus that encodes both a C and SH
588 protein. *Virus Res.* 2011;155(1):112-22.

589 47. Shi M, Lin X-D, Chen X, Tian J-H, Chen L-J, Li K, et al. The evolutionary history of
590 vertebrate RNA viruses. *Nature*. 2018;556(7700):197-202.

591 48. Reuter G, Boros Á, Tóth Z, Gia Phan T, Delwart E, Pankovics P. A highly divergent
592 picornavirus in an amphibian, the smooth newt (*Lissotriton vulgaris*). *J. Gen. Virol.*
593 2015;96(9):2607-13.

594 49. Pénzes JJ, de Souza WM, Agbandje-McKenna M, Gifford RJ. An Ancient Lineage of
595 Highly Divergent Parvoviruses Infects both Vertebrate and Invertebrate Hosts. *Viruses*.
596 2019;11(6):525.

597 50. Whittington RJ, Becker JA, Dennis MM. Iridovirus infections in finfish - critical review with
598 emphasis on ranaviruses. *J. Fish Dis.* 2010;33(2):95-122.

599 51. Pagowski VA, Mordecai GJ, Miller KM, Schulze AD, Kaukinen KH, Ming TJ, et al.
600 Distribution and Phylogeny of Erythrocytic Necrosis Virus (ENV) in Salmon Suggests Marine
601 Origin. *Viruses*. 2019;11(4):358.

602 52. Russo AG, Harding EF, Yan GJH, Selechnik D, Ducatez S, DeVore JL, et al. Discovery
603 of Novel Viruses Associated With the Invasive Cane Toad (*Rhinella marina*) in Its Native and
604 Introduced Ranges. *Front. Microbiol.* 2021;12:733631.

605 53. Alves de Matos AP, da Silva Trabucho Caeiro MFA, Papp T, da Cunha Almeida Matos
606 BA, Correia ACL, Marschang RE. New Viruses from *Lacerta monticola* (Serra da Estrela,
607 Portugal): Further Evidence for a New Group of Nucleo-Cytoplasmic Large
608 Deoxyriboviruses. *Microsc. Microanal.* 2010;17(1):101-8.

609 54. Wellehan JFX, Strik NI, Stacy BA, Childress AL, Jacobson ER, Telford SR.
610 Characterization of an erythrocytic virus in the family Iridoviridae from a peninsula ribbon
611 snake (*Thamnophis sauritus sackenii*). *Vet. Microbiol.* 2008;131(1):115-22.

612 55. Grosset C, Wellehan JFX, Owens SD, McGraw S, Gaffney PM, Foley J, et al.
613 Intraerythrocytic iridovirus in central bearded dragons (*Pogona vitticeps*). *J. Vet. Diagn.*
614 2014;26(3):354-64.

615 56. Longdon B, Brockhurst MA, Russell CA, Welch JJ, Jiggins FM. The evolution and
616 genetics of virus host shifts. *PLoS Pathog.* 2014;10(11):e1004395-e.

617 57. Zhang Y-Z, Wu W-C, Shi M, Holmes EC. The diversity, evolution and origins of
618 vertebrate RNA viruses. *Curr. Opin. Virol.* 2018;31:9-16.

619 58. Plumb JA, Grizzle JM, Young HE, Noyes AD, Lamprecht S. An Iridovirus Isolated from
620 Wild Largemouth Bass. *J. Aquat. Anim. Health.* 1996;8(4):265-70.

621 59. Grizzle JM, Altinok I, Fraser WA, Francis-Floyd R. First isolation of largemouth bass
622 virus. *Dis. Aquat. Org.* 2002;50(3):233-5.

623 60. Zhao R, Geng Y, Qin Z, Wang K, Ouyang P, Chen D, et al. A new ranavirus of the
624 Santee-Cooper group invades largemouth bass (*Micropterus salmoides*) culture in
625 southwest China. *Aquaculture.* 2020;526(C):735363.

626 61. Zhang W, Duan C, Zhang H, Weng S, He J, Dong C. Widespread outbreaks of the
627 emerging mandarinfish ranavirus (MRV) both in natural and ISKNV-FKC vaccinated
628 mandarinfish *Siniperca chuatsi* in Guangdong, South China, 2017. *Aquaculture.*
629 2020;520:734989.

630 62. George MR, John KR, Mansoor MM, Saravanakumar R, Sundar P, Pradeep V. Isolation
631 and characterization of a ranavirus from koi, *Cyprinus carpio* L., experiencing mass
632 mortalities in India. *J. Fish Dis.* 2015;38(4):389-403.

633 63. Hedricks RP, McDowell TS. Properties of iridoviruses from ornamental fish. *Vet. Res.*
634 1995;26(5-6):423-7.

635 64. Davies AJ, Curtis L, Grutter AS, Smit NJ. Suspected viral erythrocytic necrosis (VEN) in
636 a juvenile blackbar triggerfish, *Rhinacanthus aculeatus*, from Lizard Island, Great Barrier
637 Reef, Australia. *Mar. Biodivers. Rec.* 2009;2.

638 65. Pénzes JJ, Söderlund-Venermo M, Canuti M, Eis-Hübinger AM, Hughes J, Cotmore SF,
639 et al. Reorganizing the family Parvoviridae: a revised taxonomy independent of the
640 canonical approach based on host association. *Arch. Virol.* 2020;165(9):2133-46.

641 66. Chen X-X, Wu W-C, Shi M. Discovery and Characterization of Actively Replicating DNA
642 and Retro-Transcribing Viruses in Lower Vertebrate Hosts Based on RNA Sequencing.
643 *Viruses*. 2021;13(6):1042.

644 67. Depczynski M, Bellwood DR. Microhabitat utilisation patterns in cryptobenthic coral reef
645 fish communities. *Mar. Biol.* 2004;145(3):455-63.

646 68. Munday PL, Jones GP, Caley MJ. Habitat specialisation and the distribution and
647 abundance of coral-dwelling gobies. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 1997;152(1/3):227-39.

648 69. Rimmer AE, Becker JA, Tweedie A, Lintermans M, Landos M, Stephens F, et al.
649 Detection of dwarf gourami iridovirus (Infectious spleen and kidney necrosis virus) in
650 populations of ornamental fish prior to and after importation into Australia, with the first
651 evidence of infection in domestically farmed Platys (*Xiphophorus maculatus*). *Prev. Vet. Med.*
652 2015;122(1-2):181-94.

653 70. Lochmiller RL, Deerenberg C. Trade-offs in evolutionary immunology: just what is the
654 cost of immunity? *Oikos*. 2000;88(1):87-98.

655 71. McMurdie PJ, Holmes S. phyloseq: an R package for reproducible interactive analysis
656 and graphics of microbiome census data. *PLoS one*. 2013;8(4):e61217-e.

657 72. Dixon P. VEGAN, a package of R functions for community ecology. *Journal of vegetation
658 science*. 2003;14(6):927-30.

659 73. Wrobel AG, Benton DJ, Xu P, Roustan C, Martin SR, Rosenthal PB, et al. SARS-CoV-2
660 and bat RaTG13 spike glycoprotein structures inform on virus evolution and furin-cleavage
661 effects. *Nat. Struct. Mol.* 2020;27(8):763-7.

662 74. Bellwood DR, Hoey AS, Ackerman JL, Depczynski M. Coral bleaching, reef fish
663 community phase shifts and the resilience of coral reefs. *Glob Chang Biol.* 2006;12(9):1587-
664 94.

665 75. Lefèvre CD, Nash KL, González-Cabello A, Bellwood DR. Consequences of extreme life
666 history traits on population persistence: do short-lived gobies face demographic bottlenecks?
667 *Coral reefs*. 2016;35(2):399-409.

668 76. Depczynski M, Bellwood DR. Shortest recorded vertebrate lifespan found in a coral reef
669 fish. *Curr. Biol.* 2005;15(8):R288-R9.

670 77. Brandl SJ, Tornabene L, Goatley CHR, Casey JM, Morais RA, Côté IM, et al.
671 Demographic dynamics of the smallest marine vertebrates fuel coral reef ecosystem
672 functioning. *Science*. 2019;364(6446):1189-92.

673 **Tables**

674 **Table 1. Description of viruses identified in this study.**

675

676 **Figures**

677 **Figure 1.** Standardized abundance of viral and host reads across reef fish libraries.

678 Abundance (i.e., number of reads) of: (a) likely vertebrate-associated viruses; (b) non-
679 vertebrate associated viruses (i.e., those from algae, fungi, coral, arthropods, crustaceans
680 and protists); (c) host reference gene RPS13. Silhouettes represent the fish species and
681 virus families are indicated by colour. (d) Total standardized abundance of vertebrate-
682 associated viral families.

683 **Figure 2.** Genome structure and phylogenies of the RdRp gene of -ssRNA viruses identified
684 in this study. Maximum likelihood phylogenies of novel and related virus species. Trees were
685 midpoint rooted for clarity. Scale bar represents the number of amino acid substitutions per
686 site. Tip labels represent virus name with NCBI/GenBank Accession. Tree branches are
687 highlighted to broadly represent host taxonomy. Schematic genome diagrams illustrate
688 genome orientation, length, predicted ORFs and gene products.

689 **Figure 3.** Genome organisation and phylogenies of the RdRp gene of +ssRNA viruses
690 identified in this study. (a) Maximum likelihood phylogenies of the *Picornaviridae* and
691 *Hepacivirus* (*Flaviviridae*), midpoint rooted for clarity. Scale bar represents the number of
692 amino acid substitutions per site. Tip labels represent virus name with NCBI/Genbank
693 Accession. Trees are highlighted to broadly illustrate host taxonomy. (b) Schematic
694 genomes illustrate genome orientation, length and gene products. (c) Phylogeny of the
695 *Astroviridae* and amino acid alignment of goby astrovirus 2 (GAst2) isolates against goby
696 astrovirus 1 (GAst1). GAst2 are labelled to represent host species: GAst2 C.t = *C.*
697 *tongaravae*, I.d = *I. decoratus*, A.s = *A. semipunctatus*, I.n = *I. nigroocellatus*.

698 **Figure 4.** Phylogenetic relationships of the ssDNA viruses identified in this study (a)
699 Phylogenetic analysis of the NS1 gene of the *Parvoviridae*. Discovered viruses are
700 represented as black circles. The tree is midpoint rooted for clarity. Scale bar represents the
701 number of amino acid substitutions per site. (b) Schematic genomes (nt) of discovered
702 parvoviruses. Coloured boxes represent both structural (NS1) and non-structural (VP)
703 ORFs. (c) Unrooted phylogeny of the replication-associated protein of the genus *Circovirus*
704 (*Circoviridae*). Discovered circovirus is represented as a fish symbol. Branches of both trees
705 are highlighted to represent host class: blue, fish; red, invertebrates; green, birds; yellow,
706 mammals.

707 **Figure 5.** (a) Phylogenetic analysis of the DNA polymerase gene among the *Iridoviridae*.
708 Scale bar represents the number of amino acid substitutions per site. Tip labels represent
709 virus name with NCBI/GenBank Accession. Viruses discovered here are represented as a
710 black circle and fish symbol. Branches are highlighted to illustrate host class: blue, fish;
711 purple, amphibians; green, reptiles; yellow, invertebrates. (b) Unrooted phylogeny of the
712 MCP of the *Iridoviridae*. Branches are coloured to represent both subfamilies: orange,
713 *Alphairidovirinae*; red, *Betairidovirinae*.

714 **Figure 6.** (a) Bipartite network illustrating viral families shared between fish taxa. Viral
715 families are represented as a coloured box, with viruses connected between host species as
716 a coloured line. (b) Network diagram illustrating vertebrate-associated viral species shared
717 between fish. Coloured circle and lines illustrate viral species. (c) Network diagram revealing
718 non-fish viral species shared between fish libraries. All fish silhouettes broadly represent
719 host species at the family level.

720 **Figure 7.** (a) Vertebrate-associated viral richness observed in all tropical reef fish families
721 (b) Comparison of observed vertebrate-associated viral richness between cryptobenthic reef
722 fishes and large reef fishes.

723 **Supplementary information**

724 **Supplementary Table 1. Host and meta-transcriptomic library information**

725 **Supplementary Table 2. Description of novel viruses identified in this study**

726 **Supplementary Figure 1.** (a) Phylogenies of the RdRp gene of +ssRNA non-vertebrate
727 associated viruses in fish metatranscriptomes. Discovered viruses in this study are
728 represented as black circles. Maximum likelihood trees were midpoint rooted for clarity only.
729 Scale bar represents amino acid substitutions per site. Tip labels represent virus name with
730 NCBI/GenBank accession.

731 **Supplementary Figure 2.** (a) Phylogenies of the RdRp gene of +ssRNA non-vertebrate
732 associated viruses in fish metatranscriptomes. Discovered viruses in this study are
733 represented as black circles. Maximum likelihood trees were midpoint rooted for clarity only.
734 Scale bar represents amino acid substitutions per site. Tip labels represent virus name with
735 NCBI/GenBank accession.

736 **Supplementary Figure 3.** (a) Phylogenies of the RdRp gene of -ssRNA non-vertebrate
737 associated viruses in fish metatranscriptomes. Discovered viruses in this study are
738 represented as black circles. Maximum likelihood trees were midpoint rooted for clarity only.
739 Scale bar represents amino acid substitutions per site. Tip labels represent virus name with
740 NCBI/GenBank accession.

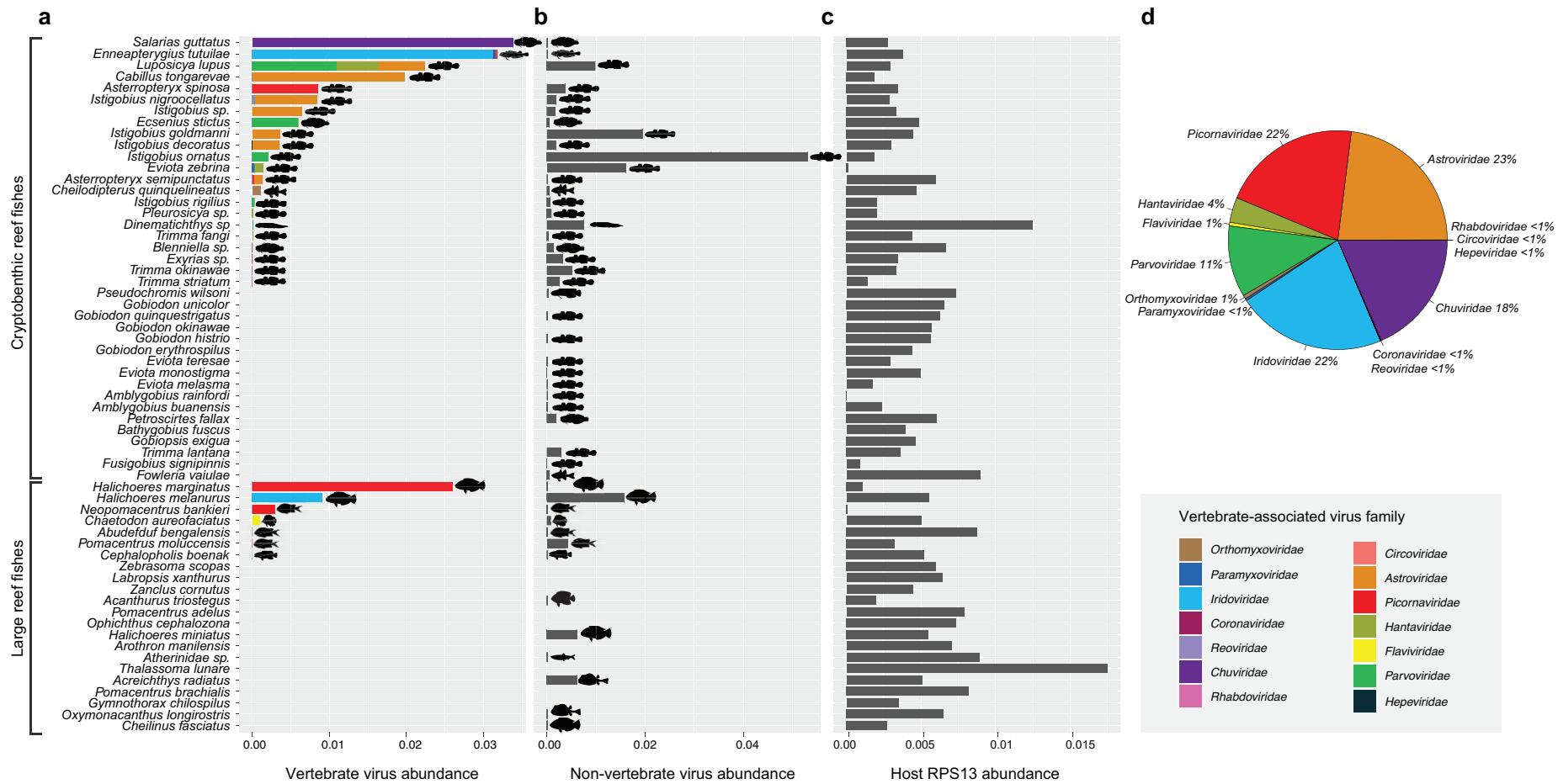
741 **Supplementary Figure 4.** (a) Phylogenies of the RdRp gene of dsRNA non-vertebrate
742 associated viruses in fish metatranscriptomes. Discovered viruses in this study are
743 represented as black circles. Maximum likelihood trees were midpoint rooted for clarity only.
744 Scale bar represents amino acid substitutions per site. Tip labels represent virus name with
745 NCBI/GenBank accession.

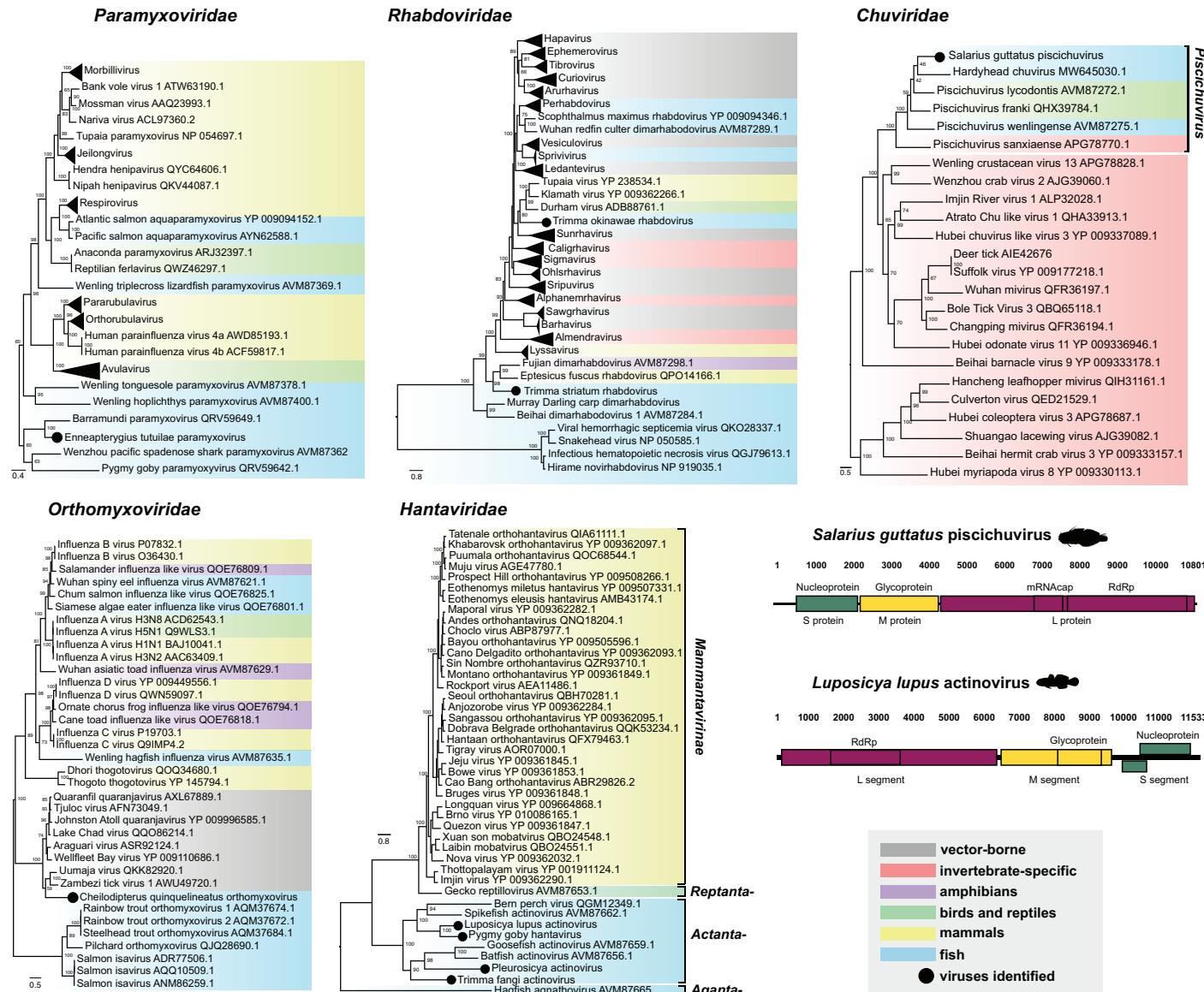
746 **Supplementary Figure 5.** (a) Phylogenetic tree of the VP2 (RdRp) gene of the subfamily
747 *Spinareovirinae* (*Reoviridae*). Discovered virus represented as a black circle. The tree is
748 midpoint rooted for clarity only. Scale bar represents amino acid substitutions per site and tip

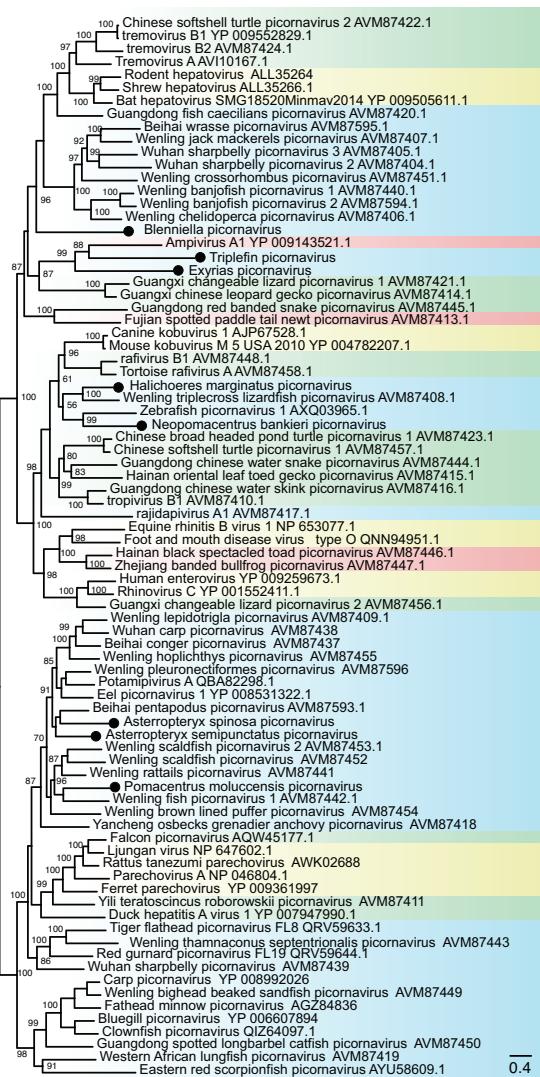
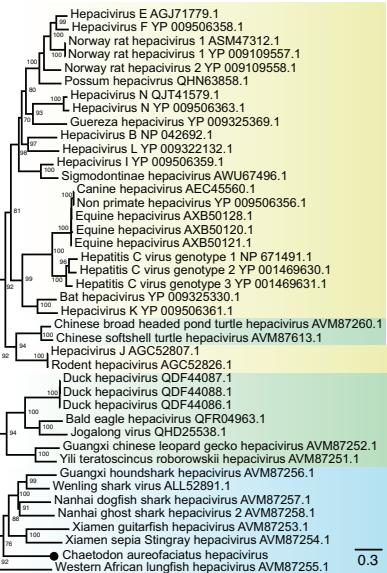
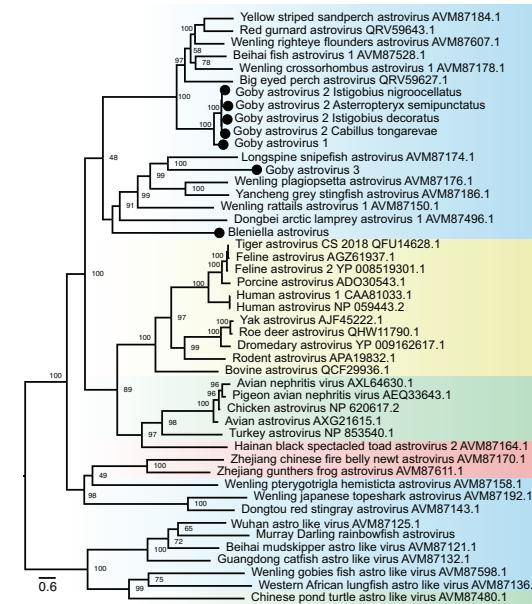
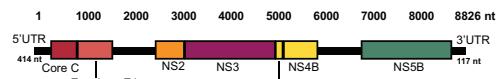
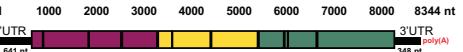
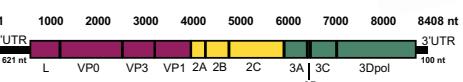
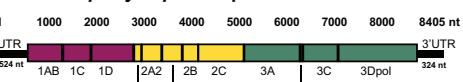
749 labels display virus name with NCBI/GenBank accession. Branches are highlighted to
750 illustrate host class: blue, fish; green, birds; red, mammals.

Virus name	No. of reads	Virus family	Host	No. of ORFs/Segments		Length (nt)	Complete genome
				ORFs	Segments		
Goby astrovirus 2	24100	Astroviridae	<i>Cabillus tongarevae</i>	3		7226	Y
Goby astrovirus 2	2767	Astroviridae	<i>Istigobius decoratus</i>	3		7085	Y
Goby astrovirus 2	9023	Astroviridae	<i>Istigobius nigroocellatus</i>	3		7155	Y
Goby astrovirus 2	1184	Astroviridae	<i>Asterropteryx semipunctatus</i>	3		7045	Y
Goby astrovirus 1	2863	Astroviridae	<i>Istigobius goldmanni</i>	3		7087	Y
Goby astrovirus 3	6709	Astroviridae	<i>Luposicya lupus</i>	2		7355	Y
<i>Blenniella</i> astrovirus	59	Astroviridae	<i>Blenniella</i> sp.	1		744	N
<i>Salarius guttatus</i> piscichuvirus	40334	Chuviridae	<i>Salarias guttatus</i>	3		10801	Y
<i>Abudefduf bengalensis</i> circovirus	54	Circoviridae	<i>Abudefduf bengalensis</i>	1		873	N
<i>Enneapterygius tutuilae</i> letovirus	26	Coronaviridae	<i>Enneapterygius tutuilae</i>	1		856	N
<i>Chaetodon aureofaciatus</i> hepacivirus	1029	Flaviviridae	<i>Chaetodon aureofaciatus</i>	1		8826	Y
<i>Luposicya lupus</i> actinovirus	6144	Hantaviridae	<i>Luposicya lupus</i>	3		11533	Y
Pygmy goby hantavirus	972	Hantaviridae	<i>Eviota zebrina</i>	3		5894	N
<i>Trimma fangi</i> actinovirus	106	Hantaviridae	<i>Trimma fangi</i>	2		1319	N
<i>Pleurosicya</i> actinovirus	123	Hantaviridae	<i>Pleurosicya</i> sp.	2		2103	N
<i>Cephalopholis boenak</i> actinovirus	9	Hantaviridae	<i>Cephalopholis boenak</i>	1		1029	N
<i>Istigobius decoratus</i> hepevirus	16	Hepeviridae	<i>Istigobius decoratus</i>	1		393	N
<i>Halichoeres melanurus</i> ranavirus	9835	Iridoviridae	<i>Halichoeres melanurus</i>	9		10821	N
<i>Enneapterygius tutuilae</i> iridovirus	35545	Iridoviridae	<i>Enneapterygius tutuilae</i>	9		20970	N

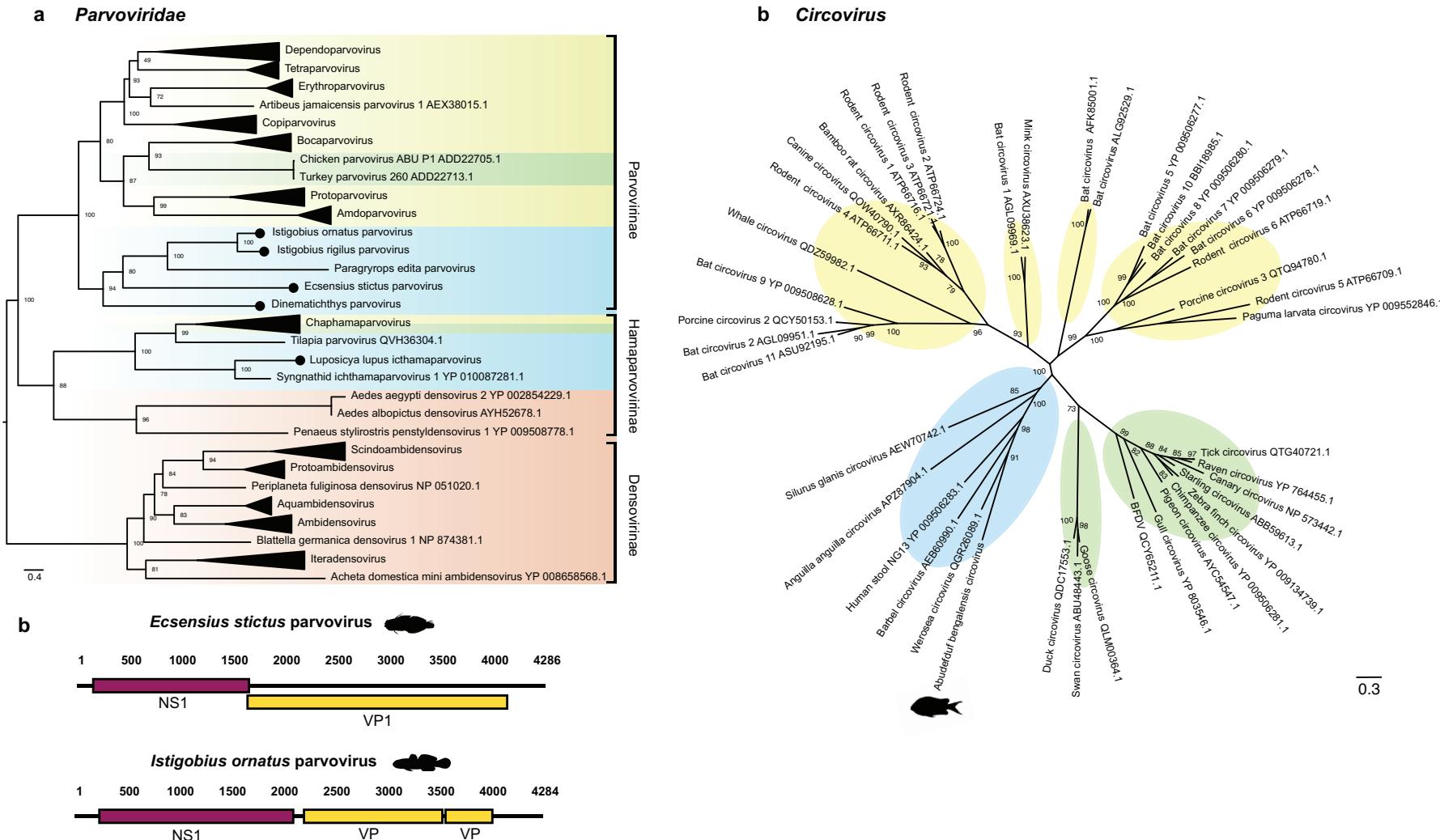
<i>Cheilodipterus quinquefasciatus</i> orthomyxovirus	979	Orthomyxoviridae	<i>Cheilodipterus</i> <i>quinquefasciatus</i>	5	9090	N
Pygmy goby paramyxovirus	238	Paramyxoviridae	<i>Eviota zebrina</i>	1	1314	N
<i>Enneapterygius tutuilae</i> paramyxovirus	322	Paramyxoviridae	<i>Enneapterygius tutuilae</i>	1	618	N
<i>Istigobius ornatus</i> parvovirus	1746	Parvoviridae	<i>Istigobius ornatus</i>	3	4284	Y
<i>Istigobius rigillus</i> parvovirus	266	Parvoviridae	<i>Istigobius rigillus</i>	1	1656	N
<i>Ecsenius stictus</i> parvovirus	2707	Parvoviridae	<i>Ecsenius stictus</i>	2	4286	Y
<i>Dinematicichthys</i> parvovirus	122	Parvoviridae	<i>Dinematicichthys</i> sp.	1	1236	N
<i>Luposicya lupus</i> icthamaparvovirus	12328	Parvoviridae	<i>Luposicya lupus</i>	1	1299	N
<i>Blenniella</i> picornavirus	2	Picornaviridae	<i>Blenniella</i> sp.	1	347	N
<i>Enneapterygius tutuilae</i> picornavirus	225	Picornaviridae	<i>Enneapterygius tutuilae</i>	1	3840	N
<i>Exyrias</i> picornavirus	44	Picornaviridae	<i>Exyrias</i> sp.	1	1373	N
<i>Halichoeres marginatus</i> picornavirus	27506	Picornaviridae	<i>Halichoeres marginatus</i>	1	8344	Y
<i>Neopomacentrus bankieri</i> picornavirus	2955	Picornaviridae	<i>Neopomacentrus</i> <i>bankieri</i>	1	8408	Y
<i>Asterropteryx spinosa</i> picornavirus	8307	Picornaviridae	<i>Asterropteryx spinosa</i>	1	8405	Y
<i>Asterropteryx semipunctatus</i> picornavirus	210	Picornaviridae	<i>Asterropteryx</i> <i>semipunctatus</i>	1	992	N
<i>Pomacentrus moluccensis</i> picornavirus	12	Picornaviridae	<i>Pomacentrus</i> <i>moluccensis</i>	1	321	N
<i>Trimma okinawae</i> rhabdovirus	13	Rhabdoviridae	<i>Trimma okinawae</i>	2	945	N
<i>Trimma striatum</i> rhabdovirus	2	Rhabdoviridae	<i>Trimma striatum</i>	1	488	N
<i>Istigobius nigrocellatus</i> reovirus	282	Reoviridae	<i>Istigobius nigrocellatus</i>	6	6966	N

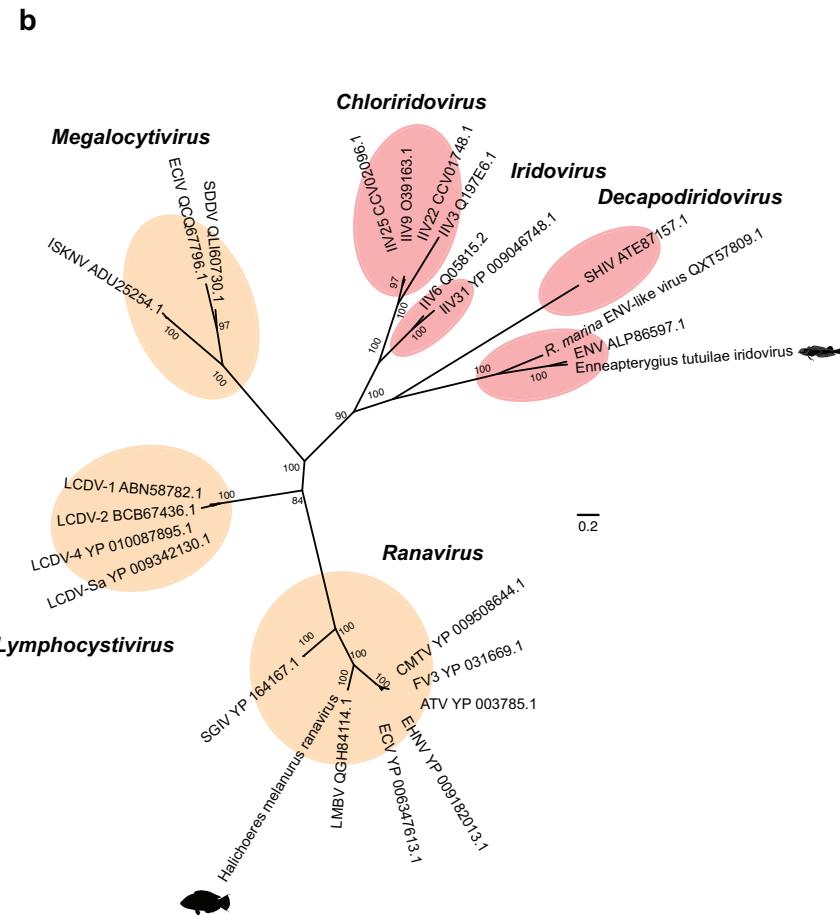
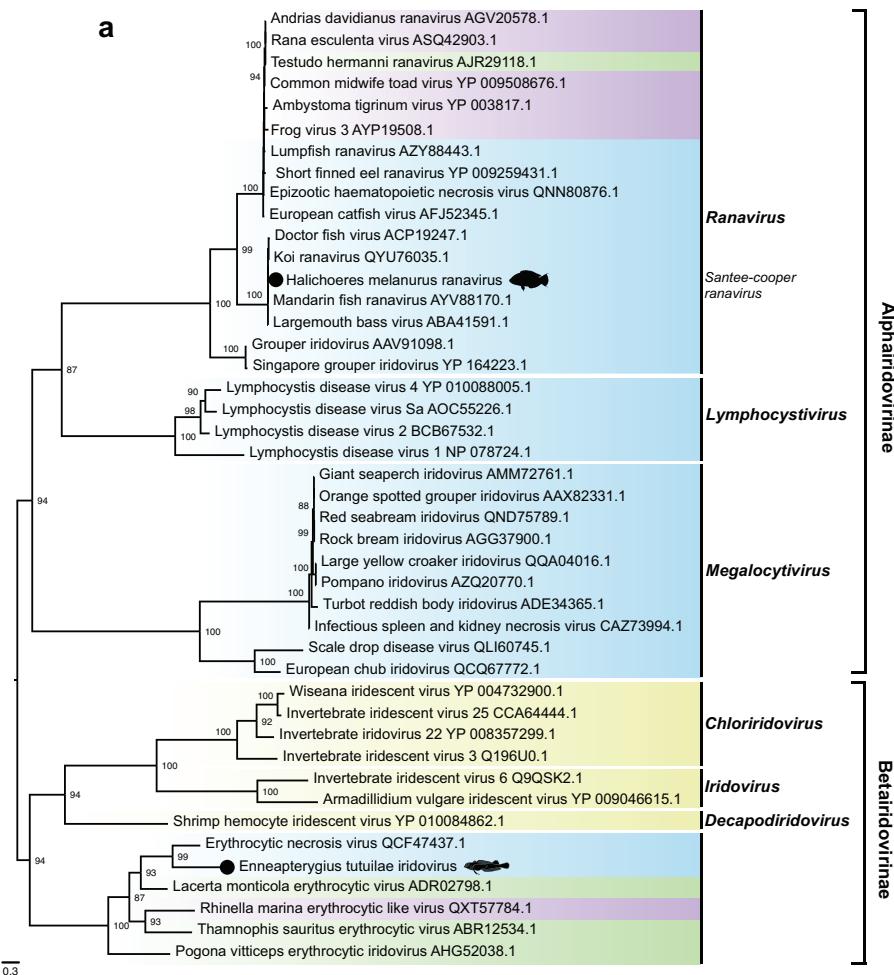


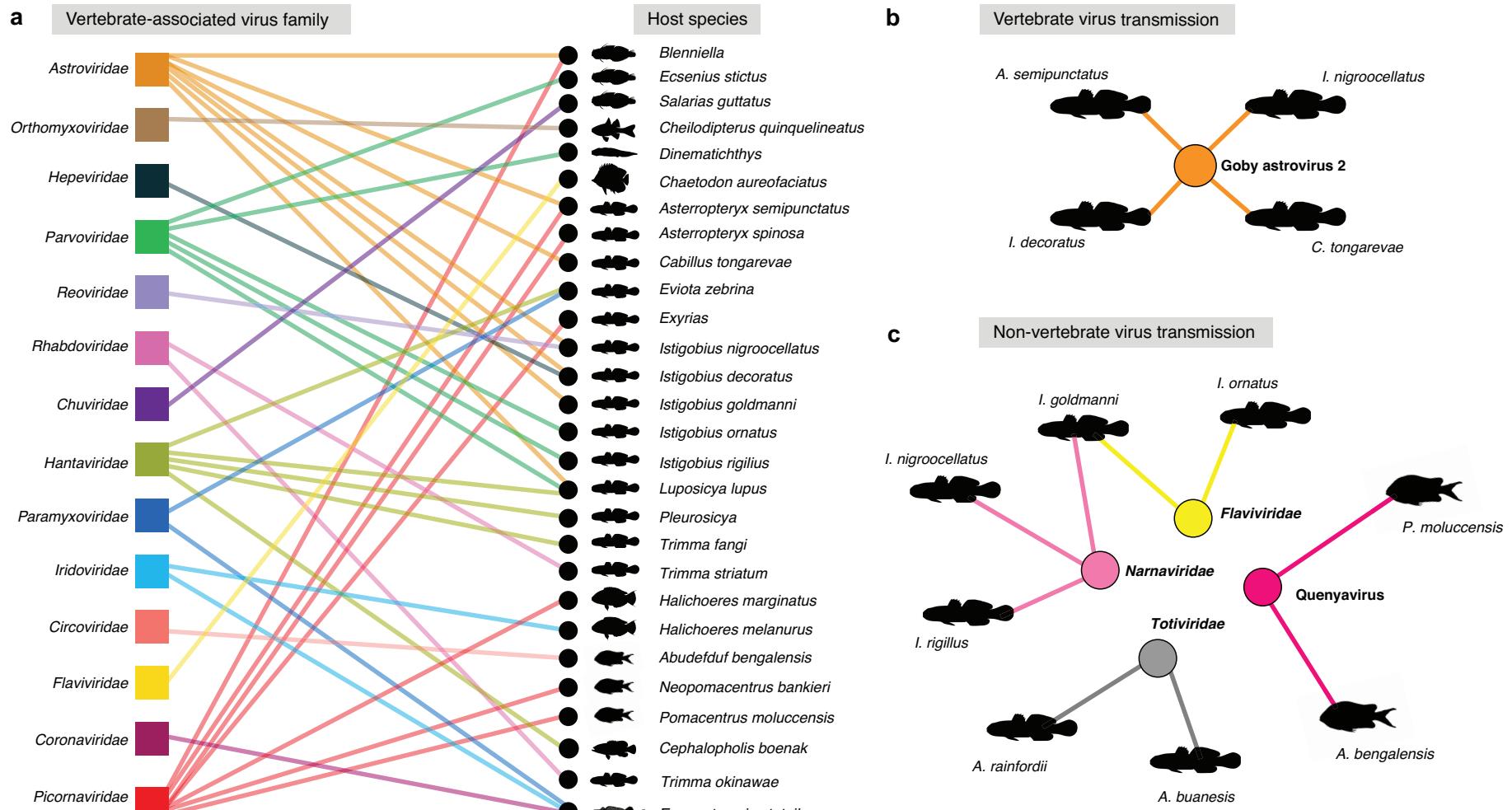


a**Picornaviridae****Hepacivirus****c****Astroviridae****b Chaetodon aureofaciatus hepaticivirus****Halichoeres marginatus picornavirus****Neopomacentrus bankieri picornavirus****Asteroptyeryx spinosa picornavirus**

amphibians
birds and reptiles
mammals
fish
● viruses identified

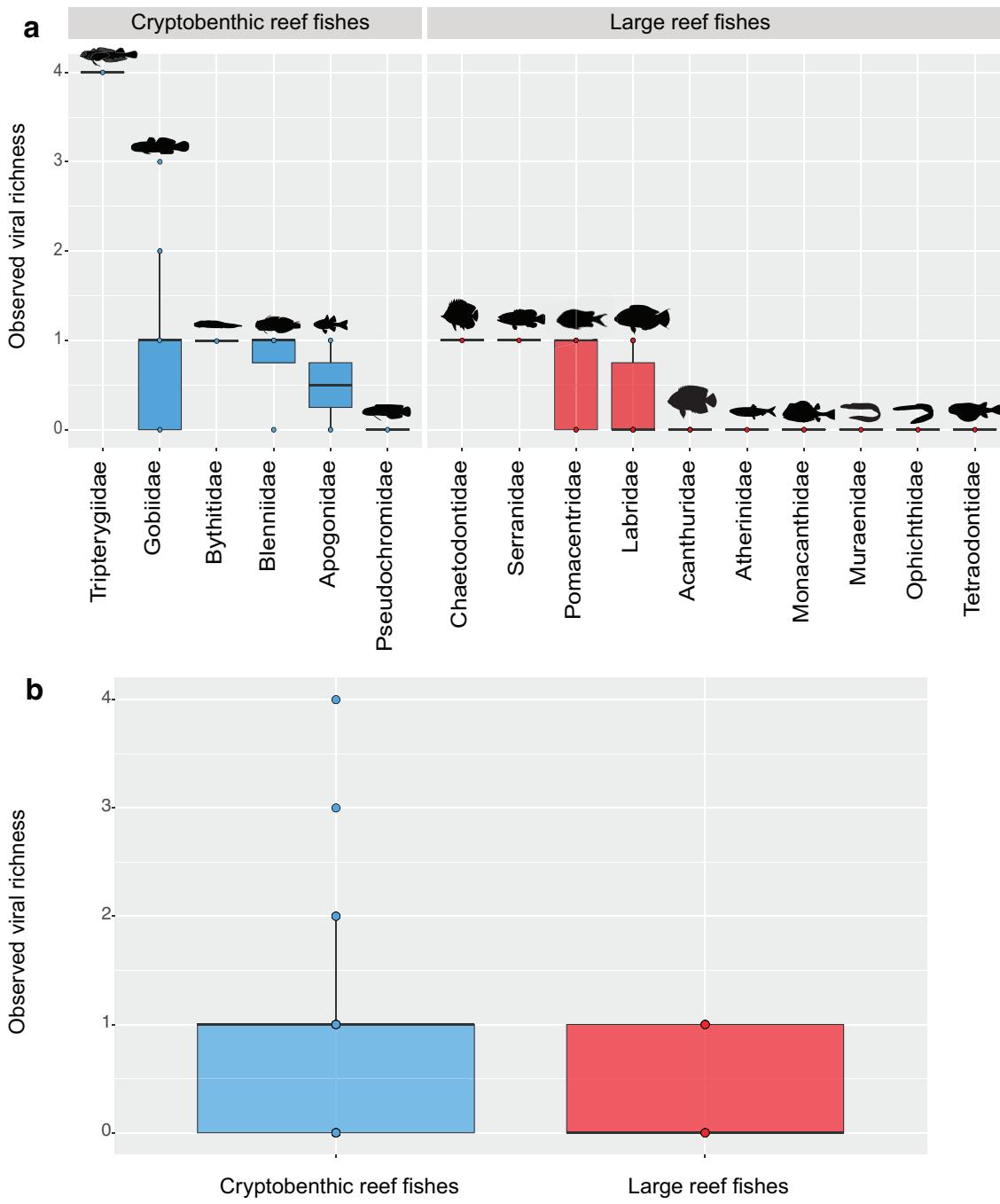






761

762



763