Endogenous viral element-derived piRNAs are not required for production of ping-pong-

dependent piRNAs from Diaphorina citri densovirus

Jared C. Nigg[1], Yen-Wen Kuo, and Bryce W. Falk

Department of Plant Pathology, University of California, 1 Shields Avenue, Davis, CA 95616

[1] Present address: Viruses and RNA Interference Unit, Institut Pasteur, UMR3569, CNRS, Paris,

France

Abstract

Partial integrations of DNA and non-retroviral RNA virus genomes, termed endogenous viral

elements (EVEs), are abundant in arthropod genomes and often produce PIWI-interacting RNAs

(piRNAs) speculated to target cognate viruses through the ping-pong cycle, a post-transcriptional

RNA silencing mechanism. Here we describe a Diaphorina citri densovirus (DcDV)-derived

EVE in the genome of *Diaphorina citri*. We found that this EVE gives rise to DcDV-specific

primary piRNAs and is unevenly distributed among *D. citri* populations. Unexpectedly, we

found that DcDV is targeted by ping-pong-dependent viral piRNAs (vpiRNAs) in *D. citri*

lacking the DcDV-derived EVE, while four naturally infecting RNA viruses of *D. citri* are not

targeted by vpiRNAs. Furthermore, a recombinant Cricket paralysis virus containing a portion of

the DcDV genome corresponding to the DcDV-derived EVE was not targeted by vpiRNAs

during infection in *D. citri* harboring the EVE. These results represent the first report of ping-

pong-dependent vpiRNAs outside of mosquitoes.

Introduction

The Piwi-interacting RNA (piRNA) pathway is a small RNA (sRNA) guided gene silencing

mechanism responsible for repressing transposable elements (TEs) in animals and emerging

evidence supports a role for this pathway in antiviral responses in some mosquito species and

mosquito-derived cell lines (1–5). In *Drosophila melanogaster*, biogenesis of primary piRNAs

begins with transcription of single-stranded piRNA precursor transcripts from discrete genomic

regions called piRNA clusters (6). TE sequences integrated into piRNA clusters can become

transcribed as part of a piRNA precursor transcript and these precursor transcripts are processed

into primary piRNAs that direct transcriptional and post-transcriptional silencing of TEs by

association with the Piwi-family Argonaute proteins Piwi and Aubergine, respectively (1).

During the ping-pong cycle, cleavage of sense TE RNA directed by Aubergine-bound antisense

primary piRNAs triggers production of sense secondary piRNAs from cleaved TE RNA and, in

turn, sense secondary piRNAs direct cleavage of antisense piRNA precursor transcripts via

association with another Piwi-family Argonaute protein, Argonaute 3 (Ago3), to specifically

amplify the response against active TEs (6). piRNAs are distinguished from other sRNAs by

their size (24-32 nt), nucleotide biases (uridine as the first nucleotide for primary piRNAs and

adenine as the tenth nucleotide for secondary piRNAs, known as the 1U and 10A bias), and

association with a Piwi-family Argonaute protein (1). Additionally, complementary piRNAs

produced by the ping-pong cycle have 5' ends separated by exactly 10 nt, known as the ping-

pong signature (1).

The presence of ping-pong-dependent virus-derived piRNAs (vpiRNAs) during infection with

several RNA viruses in *Aedes* and *Culex* mosquitoes and cell lines has been reported (2–5,7–12)

and reduced expression of piRNA pathway components leads to increased replication of Semliki

Forest virus, Bunyamwera virus, Cache Valley virus, and Rift Valley Fever virus in *Aedes*

aegypti-derived Aag2 cells (2–5). Despite the prevalence of virus-derived piRNAs and evidence

supporting their antiviral role, little is known regarding their biogenesis or antiviral function *in*

vivo. *Ae. aegypti* expresses an expanded group of Piwi-family Argonaute proteins containing

eight proteins (Piwi1-7 and Ago3) rather than the three proteins seen in *D. melanogaster* (Piwi,

Aub, and Ago3) (13). In Aag2 cells, Piwi5 and Ago3 are the primary Piwi-family Argonaute

proteins required for biogenesis of vpiRNAs upon infection with Sindbis virus (9). Importantly,

induction of the ping-pong cycle in mosquitoes is thought to involve recognition of exogenous

viral RNA, triggering biogenesis of primary vpiRNAs directly from viral RNA without the need

for primary piRNAs derived from endogenous loci (9,11). This is in contrast to the canonical

ping-pong cycle, which produces primary piRNAs only from endogenous transcripts (6). Thus,

mosquitoes possess a unique piRNA pathway that produces vpiRNAs by virtue of novel

functionality that has so far not been found in other groups of organisms. Indeed, the piRNA

pathway was not found to play an antiviral role in *D. melanogaster* and no evidence for an

antiviral piRNA pathway, or even the presence of ping-pong-dependent vpiRNAs, has been

reported outside of the mosquito lineage (14).

Arthropod genomes contain an abundance of sequences derived from DNA viruses and non-

retroviral RNA viruses (15–20) . These sequences, termed endogenous viral elements (EVEs),

are often enriched within piRNA clusters and are known to serve as sources of primary piRNAs

in a wide variety of arthropod species (15–17). These observations have led to speculation that

EVE-derived primary piRNAs may play an antiviral role by targeting cognate viruses in a

manner analogous to piRNA-mediated repression of TEs via the ping-pong cycle (15–17).

Importantly, such a role for EVE-derived piRNAs could theoretically be mediated by the

canonical ping-pong cycle and could thus expand the antiviral potential of the piRNA pathway

beyond mosquitoes. In support of this idea, Whitfield et al. found that a single EVE-derived

piRNA maps to the genome of Phasi Charoen-like virus (PCLV) in Aag2 cells, which are

persistently infected with PCLV, and that a vpiRNA is produced from the complementary strand

(16). Moreover, the authors found that knockdown of Piwi4 led to a ~2 fold increase in the

abundance of PCLV RNA in Aag2 cells (16). While these results are intriguing, it is difficult to

assess how the EVE-derived piRNA affects PCLV RNA abundance in the context of the Piwi4

knockdown, as only global sRNA mapping data to the entire PCLV nucleocapsid-encoding

segment are presented, the abundance of the EVE-derived piRNA and its potential PCLV-

derived ping-pong partner were not discussed, and Piwi4 knockdown has been shown to reduce

both siRNA and piRNA production (16,21). More recently, Tassetto et al. found that Piwi4 is

required for vpiRNA maturation in Aag2 cells and binds specifically to piRNAs derived from

EVEs (21). Furthermore, they found that insertion of EVE sequences into the 3' UTR of Sindbis

virus reduced viral replication in a Piwi4-dependent manner in Aag2 cells (21). These results

raise the possibility that EVE-derived piRNAs may target cognate viruses in these cells through

an interaction with Piwi4, however, detailed sRNA profiles and more thorough examinations of

the interplay between virus-specific piRNAs derived from endogenous and exogenous sources

are needed to establish the link between EVE-derived piRNAs and an antiviral response.

We previously identified the EVEs present within the genomes of 48 arthropod species (15).

Among the EVEs that we estimated to be similar enough to their corresponding exogenous

viruses at the nucleotide level such that piRNAs derived from them could potentially target viral

RNA during infection, Diaphorina citri densovirus (DcDV) and a DcDV-derived EVE located

within a piRNA cluster on *Diaphorina citri* genomic scaffold 2850 stood out as an EVE-virus

pair sharing exceptionally high nucleotide identity over a relatively long region (15). *D. citri*,

also known as the Asian citrus psyllid, is a hemipteran insect pest and serves as a vector of

Candidatus Liberibacter species that cause Huanglongbing, or citrus greening disease, in all

types of commercially cultivated citrus throughout the world (22). This disease represents the

greatest threat to the citrus industry worldwide and has devastated many citrus growing regions,

such as in the US state of Florida, where citrus production has decreased by 74% since the first

report of citrus greening disease in the state in 2005 (23). Control strategies for the disease are

limited and primarily involve removal of infected trees and management of *D. citri* populations

with chemical insecticides (24). The continued spread of citrus greening disease and the

development of insecticide resistance in field populations of *D. citri* highlight the need for new

management approaches (24). Biological control strategies relying on infectious agents have

proven to be effective methods for controlling insect pests and the use of parasites and viruses

have been proposed as possible vector control approaches for *D. citri* (25–28). Current

understanding of immune processes in *D. citri* is limited and studies in this field are needed to

facilitate the development of effective biological control strategies. In particular, antiviral

mechanisms in *D. citri* have not been experimentally evaluated. The presence of a highly similar

virus-EVE pair, a lack of novel Piwi-family of Argonaute proteins like those observed in

mosquitoes, and the need to study antiviral mechanisms in *D. citri* make this species an excellent

and relevant model to study the interactions between EVE-derived piRNAs and corresponding

viruses.

Here we further characterized the DcDV-derived EVE present within the *D. citri* genome. We

found that piRNAs are produced from this EVE in multiple tissue types and that this EVE is

conserved among some geographically distinct populations of *D. citri*, but is absent from other

populations. By analyzing sRNA profiles in *D. citri* insects infected with DcDV, we found that

this virus is targeted by ping-pong-dependent vpiRNAs independent of DcDV-derived EVEs and

endogenous DcDV-specific piRNAs. Additionally, analysis of sRNA profiles during infection

with other viruses suggests that RNA viruses are not a target of vpiRNAs in *D. citri*.

Results

A DcDV-derived EVE with high nucleotide identity to DcDV is conserved in some populations

of D. citri, but absent in others

We previously identified a 621 bp DcDV-derived EVE located within a piRNA cluster on *D.*

citri genomic scaffold 2850 by comparing deduced virus protein sequences to deduced *D. citri*

genome-encoded protein sequences using BLASTx (15). This EVE was 85.5% identical to the

corresponding region of the DcDV genome at the deduced amino acid level and resided just

downstream from another 624 bp EVE derived from a different portion of the DcDV genome. To

characterize these EVEs at the nucleotide level, we aligned the nucleotide sequence of the DcDV

genome to the region of the *D. citri* genome harboring these DcDV-derived EVEs. We found

that this region of the *D. citri* genome contains sequences corresponding to the DcDV inverted

terminal repeats (ITRs) and to two regions of the non-structural protein (NS) gene cassette

together spanning 1,396 bp. For simplicity we refer to these regions as endogenous ITR (EITR)

and endogenous NS (ENS) (Fig. 1a). Notably, the portion of ENS spanning nucleotides 7,523 to

8,175 within genomic scaffold 2850 shares 86% nucleotide identity with the corresponding

region of the DcDV genome.

Because our EVE prediction shown in Fig. 1a was based only on BLAST results and a previous

D. citri genome assembly, we wanted to confirm the presence, sequence, and organization of the

DcDV-derived EVEs. To confirm the presence of these EVEs, we designed PCR primers to

amplify this region from *D. citri* genomic DNA (Fig. 1a). We obtained PCR products of

unexpected size (based on the available sequence of scaffold 2850 and the organization depicted

in Fig. 1a) for both primer sets (Fig. 1b). Sequencing of these PCR products revealed that the

portion of ENS spanning nucleotides 5,248 to 5,871 within genomic scaffold 2850 was not

present and the distance between the ITR-like fragments was 3,885 bp rather than 11,038 bp.

Additionally, EITR was 210 bp instead of 114 bp. The portion of ENS corresponding to the

region between DcDV nucleotides 263-916 was present and closely matched the sequence

observed by BLAST. Figure 1c shows the correct organization of this region of the DcDV

genome, as confirmed by sequencing of the PCR products shown in Fig. 1b. This organization

and sequence is supported by a more recent draft of the *D. citri* genome assembled using PacBio

long reads (Diaci2.0,

ftp://ftp.citrusgreening.org/genomes/Diaphorina_citri/assembly/DIACI_v2.0/).

Our PCR reactions were performed using DNA extracted from *D. citri* insects collected from a

colony located at the University of California Davis Contained Research Facility (CRF) that was

originally started using insects collected in the US state of California (this colony is designated

CRF-CA). The *D. citri* reference genome used for BLAST searches and nucleotide alignments

was produced by sequencing DNA from insects collected in the US state of Florida (29).

Haplotype network analysis of global *D. citri* populations based on the mitochondrial

cytochrome oxidase subunit I gene indicates the existence of 44 *D. citri* haplotypes belonging to

two distinct lineages, denoted lineages A and B (30–32). The invasion history of *D. citri* out of

Southern Asia has resulted in segregation of the two lineages, such that only lineage B is found

in North America, while lineage A predominates in Southeast Asia, Africa, and South America

(30). Besides CRF-CA, three other *D. citri* colonies are maintained at the CRF and these were

started using *D. citri* insects collected in Taiwan, Uruguay, and the US state of Hawaii

(designated CRF-TW, CRF-Uru, and CRF-HI, respectively). To determine whether ENS is

conserved among geographically distinct *D. citri* populations, we performed PCR using primers

flanking ENS and DNA extracted from insects collected from CRF-CA, CRF-TW, CRF-Uru,

and CRF-HI. We also included DNA extracted from field collected *D. citri* insects from

Pakistan, Brazil, and the US states of Arizona and Florida. We obtained nearly identical PCR

products from insects from CRF-CA, CRF-HI, Pakistan, Arizona, and Florida, but no PCR

products from insects from CRF-TW, CRF-Uru, or Brazil (Fig. 2a & S1). Based on the known

distribution of the two *D. citri* lineages, these results suggest that ENS is absent in *D. citri* from

lineage A.

Sequences derived from some insect infecting viruses are maintained as circular episomal

molecules that produce virus-specific sRNAs (12,33). Given the heterogenous distribution of

ENS among *D. citri* populations, we examined whether ENS is maintained episomally rather

than representing a true EVE. When we performed a Southern blot with DNA extracted from

CRF-CA *D. citri* using an RNA probe based on the sequence of ENS we observed a single DNA

species at high molecular weight (>12,000 bp) from undigested DNA and two species of lower

molecular weight in DNA digested with PstI and HindIII, indicating that ENS resides in high

molecular weight genomic DNA rather than low molecular weight episomal DNA (Fig. 2b). The

observation of two DNA species in the digested sample does not represent a second DcDV-like

EVE because ENS contains a PstI clevage site. To confirm that ENS is a true EVE, we treated *D.*

citri genomic DNA with an exonuclease to remove genomic DNA, but not circular episomal

DNA, and performed PCR with ENS-specific primers using exonuclease-treated DNA as

template. We obtained a PCR product from non-digested DNA, but not from digested DNA (Fig.

2c). Together, these results indicate the ENS is indeed integrated into the *D. citri* genome.

Finally, strand specific RT-PCR indicates that ENS is bidirectionally transcribed, although the

majority of transcripts are antisense to the corresponding DcDV transcript (Fig. 2d).

ENS and EITR give rise to DcDV-specific primary piRNAs

To evaluate whether ENS and EITR give rise to virus-specific primary piRNAs as described for

other EVEs, we mapped sRNAs from CRF-CA *D. citri* not infected with DcDV to the DcDV

genome. We found that sRNAs purified from CRF-CA *D. citri* mapped to EITR and to the

negative strand within the portion of the DcDV genome corresponding to ENS (i.e. antisense to

DcDV transcripts), but not to other regions (Fig. 3a). The size of these sRNAs was characteristic

of piRNAs and they possessed a strong 1U bias (Fig. 3b & c). Similar results were obtained for

other *D. citri* populations that are not infected with DcDV and for which sRNA datasets are

available (Fig. S2a & b). As expected based on the lack of ENS in *D. citri* insects collected in

Brazil or from CRF-Uru, DcDV-specific piRNAs were not observed in these insects (Fig. S2c &

d). We note that the DcDV ITRs are comprised of a 210 nt hairpin present on both ends of the

DcDV genome. Thus, it is not possible to determine whether the sRNAs mapping to EITR are

specific to the positive or the negative strand. For this reason, because of the relatively small size

of EITR compared to ENS, and because EITR does not correspond to a transcribed region of the

DcDV genome (34), we chose to focus our analysis on piRNAs derived from ENS.

The expression of piRNAs is known to display tissue specificity and piRNA expression patterns

could have important consequences for the ability of EVE-derived piRNAs to target cognate

viruses. To determine the tissue specificity of piRNAs produced from ENS and to determine the

tissues in which the ping-pong cycle is active in *D. citri*, we sequenced sRNAs purified from

dissected *D. citri* guts, heads, ovaries, testis, and hemolymph using insects collected from CRF-

CA. We found that while DcDV-specific piRNAs derived from ENS were present in all tissues

analyzed, their expression was significantly higher in *D. citri* guts than in any other tissue (Fig.

3d). The ping-pong cycle is restricted to germline tissues in *D. melanogaster* (1), however a

comprehensive analysis of somatic sRNAs mapping to TEs genome wide in 20 arthropod species

in combination with ancestral state reconstruction indicates that somatic ping-pong amplification

is widespread throughout arthropods despite having been independently lost in some species,

including *D. melanogaster* (35). To determine the tissues in which the ping-pong cycle is active

in *D. citri* we mapped sRNAs from CRF-CA *D. citri* guts, heads, hemolymph, ovaries, and testis

to all TEs identified within the *D. citri* genome and analyzed the mapped 27-32 nt sRNAs for the

presence of ping-pong signatures. We found evidence for ping-pong amplification of TE-derived

piRNAs in all tissues examined (Fig. S3).

DcDV is targeted by ping-pong-dependent piRNAs in the absence of a DcDV-derived EVE

We previously found that *D. citri* from CRF-CA are resistant to infection with DcDV (34). In

contrast, the virus is maintained as a persistent, maternally transmitted infection in *D. citri* from

CRF-TW (34). Thus, to understand the sRNA-based response to DcDV infection in *D. citri*, we

sequenced sRNAs from DcDV-infected *D. citri* from CRF-TW. These results revealed a major

population of 21 nt sRNAs, indicative of an siRNA-based response (Fig. 4a). Unexpectedly, we

also observed a smaller peak within the piRNA size range centered at 29 nt and we obtained

99.5% coverage of transcribed regions of the DcDV genome by mapping only 27-32 nt sRNAs

(Fig. 4a & b). We found that complementary 27-32 nt sRNAs mapping to opposite strands

throughout the DcDV genome possessed 5' ends separated by 10 nt more often than expected by

chance, an indication of ping-pong amplification (Z-score = 4.05±0.08)(Fig. 4c). Moreover, we

detected the 1U and 10A biases typical of ping-pong amplification in 27-32 nt sRNAs mapping

antisense and sense to the canonical DcDV transcripts, respectively (Fig. 4d & e).

We found that ENS is not present in the genome of CRF-TW *D. citri* (Fig. 2a)*, thus our

observation of ping-pong-dependent DcDV-derived piRNAs in these insects suggests that DcDV

is targeted by piRNAs independent of ENS. However, because this result was obtained by

performing PCR using primers flanking ENS, it is possible that ENS is present in CRF-TW *D.*

citri, but resides in different genomic context than seen in other *D. citri* populations. ENS is not

identical to the corresponding region of the DcDV genome at the nucleotide level (Fig. 1c).

Thus, some piRNAs derived from ENS do not perfectly map to DcDV, providing a means with

which to distinguish some ENS-derived piRNAs from DcDV-derived piRNAs. To rule out the

possibility that ENS is present in the genome of CRF-TW *D. citri*, we mapped 27-32 nt sRNAs

from CRF-TW *D. citri* to the DcDV genome without allowing any mismatches. When the

unmapped reads from this analysis were mapped to ENS without allowing any mismatches, no

reads mapped. In contrast, we obtained an average of 55.8% coverage of the ENS sequence when

the same analysis was performed using sRNAs from CRF-CA *D. citri* (data not shown). This

result indicates that ENS is indeed not present in the genome of CRF-TW *D. citri* and that the

targeting of DcDV by ping-pong-dependent vpiRNAs in these insects is independent of ENS-

derived piRNAs.

We cannot exclude the possibility that the genome of CRF-TW *D. citri* harbors a different

piRNA-producing DcDV-derived EVE. Because DcDV is maternally transmitted to 100% of the

progeny of CRF-TW females (34), it is not possible to determine the repertoire of endogenous

piRNAs in these insects in the absence of DcDV infection. Thus, we analyzed the sRNAs present

in *D. citri* from CRF-Uru, as these insects lack ENS and are not infected with DcDV (Fig. 2a).

We found that no DcDV-specific piRNAs are produced in uninfected CRF-Uru *D. citri*,

indicating that these insects do not harbor a piRNA-producing DcDV-derived EVE (Fig. S2d).

The absence of DcDV-specific piRNAs was not due to a lack of piRNAs in general, as we

detected abundant ping-pong-dependent TE-derived piRNAs in these insects (Fig. S4). In

contrast to *D. citri* from CRF-CA which are resistant to DcDV infection, we found that *D. citri*

from CRF-Uru were susceptible to DcDV infection by both oral acquisition and intrathoracic

injection (Fig. S5a & b)(34). Moreover, the progeny of CRF-Uru *D. citri* infected with DcDV

were also infected with the virus (Fig. S5c). Analysis of sRNAs from the progeny of CRF-Uru

D. citri that had been infected with DcDV by intrathoracic injection revealed the presence of

ping-pong-dependent DcDV-derived piRNAs (ping-pong Z-score = 2.55) (Fig. S6). Together,

these results demonstrate that DcDV is targeted by ping-pong-dependent vpiRNAs in two

populations of *D. citri* independent of EVE-derived piRNAs.

Other viruses of D. citri are not targeted by piRNAs

Besides DcDV, there are five other viruses known to infect *D. citri*: Diaphorina citri reovirus

(double-stranded RNA), Diaphorina citri picrona-like virus (plus strand single-stranded RNA; +

ssRNA), Diaphorina citri bunyavirus (minus strand single-stranded RNA), Diaphorina citri-

associated c virus (+ ssRNA), and Diaphorina citri flavi-like virus (+ ssRNA)(28,36–38). To

determine whether piRNAs are part of a general response to viruses in *D. citri*, we mapped

sRNAs from publicly available sRNA libraries known to be derived from insects infected with

one or more of each of these viruses to the corresponding viral genomes (with the exception of

Diaphorina citri-associated c virus for which no such sRNA library exists) (28,36). As expected,

we detected a prominent peak at 21 nt for each virus, indicating a siRNA-based response (Fig.

S7). While virus-derived sRNAs within the piRNA size range were present during infection with

all four viruses, there were no peaks above background levels within the piRNA size range and

27-32 nt reads lacked signatures typical of primary or ping-pong-dependent piRNAs (Fig. S7).

These results indicate that viruses in general are not targeted by piRNAs in *D. citri* and suggest

that the targeting of DcDV by the piRNA pathway in *D. citri* may be due to differences in the

infection cycles between RNA and DNA viruses.

A recombinant CrPV-based reporter virus carrying DcDV sequence is not targeted by piRNAs in

D. citri *that produce primary piRNAs from a DcDV-derived EVE*

As has been observed for RNA viruses in mosquitoes, our results suggest that DcDV is targeted

by ping-pong-dependent vpiRNAs due to the *de novo* production of vpiRNAs from exogenous

DcDV RNA. If EVE-derived piRNAs were to prime the ping-pong cycle in this context, it would

be difficult to distinguish priming driven by EVE-derived piRNAs from priming driven by virus-

derived vpiRNAs. Because our results suggest that RNA viruses are not targeted by vpiRNAs in

D. citri, we sought to construct a recombinant RNA virus harboring DcDV-derived EVE

sequence in order to study potential priming of the ping-pong cycle by EVE-derived piRNAs

without the background of vpiRNAs produced directly from viral RNA. For this purpose, we

used Cricket paralysis virus (CrPV), a dicistrovirus with a + ssRNA genome that was originally

isolated from field crickets (39). Due to the broad host range of CrPV and the availability of an

infectious clone, CrPV is often used to study antiviral mechanisms in insects (40,41).

To directly test the hypothesis that EVE-derived primary piRNAs can prime ping-pong

amplification during infection with viruses sharing complementary sequence, we inserted 57 nt

from the DcDV genome (from a region corresponding to ENS) into the CrPV genome between

the 1A and 2B coding sequences flanked by duplicate copies of the 1A cleavage site (Fig. 5a,

Fig. S8). The recombinant DcDV sequence was inserted into the CrPV genome such that ENS-

derived primary piRNAs mapping antisense to DcDV transcripts would map to the negative

strand of the recombinant CrPV-DcDV genome. Thus, in both cases, ENS-derived primary

piRNAs are complementary to the viral coding sequence and in analogy to the mechanisms of

ping-pong amplification in the context of TEs, should be theoretically capable of directing

cleavage of viral mRNAs. This recombinant virus is designated CrPV-DcDV. While the 57 nt

inserted region is relatively small in the context of the ~9 kb CrPV genome, piRNA target sites

corresponding to single piRNAs are known to be sufficient for induction of ping-pong

amplification and a single piRNA produced from a PCLV-derived EVE was proposed to mediate

a piRNA-based antiviral response in Aag2 cells (16,42–44). Additional analysis of the sRNA

mapping data from DcDV-uninfected CRF-CA *D. citri* shown in Figure 3a indicates that this 57

nt region gives rise to an average of 171.7 27-32 nt sRNAs made up of an average of 30.7 unique

sequences in the three sRNA libraries analyzed (data not shown).

We found that the virions produced following transfection of S2 cells with *in vitro* transcribed

CrPV-DcDV RNA were indistinguishable from those produced following transfection with wild-

type CrPV RNA (Fig. 5b & c) and RT-PCR of RNA purified from CrPV-DcDV virions indicated

that the recombinant sequence was retained (Fig. 5d). Finally, we found that infection of S2 cells

with either wild-type CrPV or CrPV-DcDV virions resulted in the cytopathic effects

characteristic of CrPV infection (Fig. 5e & f).

To determine whether ENS-derived piRNAs mediate a response to CrPV-DcDV in *D. citri*, we

inoculated CRF-CA *D. citri* with 1000 tissue culture infectious dose 50% (TCID$_{50}$) units of wild-

type CrPV or CrPV-DcDV per insect by intrathoracic injection. We observed a significant

difference in viral RNA levels for wild-type CrPV and CrPV-DcDV three days post injection

(Fig. 6a). By five days post injection, CrPV-DcDV RNA levels remained lower than those of

wild-type CrPV, but the difference was not statistically significant (Fig. 6a). RT-PCR results

indicated the recombinant DcDV sequence was retained throughout the course of infection with

CrPV-DcDV (Fig. S9). To determine if CrPV-DcDV was targeted by piRNAs, we sequenced

sRNAs from insects collected five days post infection. During infection with either virus, we

observed an abundance of 21 nt sRNAs of both polarities and these 21 nt sRNAs mapped to the

entire sequence of both viral genomes, indicating the presence of an siRNA-based response (Fig.

6b & c, Fig. S10 a & b). The recombinant DcDV sequence within the CrPV-DcDV genome was

a target of this siRNA-based response, as we observed abundant 21 nt sRNAs derived from this

portion of the recombinant virus genome in *D. citri* infected with CrPV-DcDV (Fig. 6d). When

sRNAs from *D. citri* infected with wild-type CrPV were mapped to the same DcDV-derived

sequence, a peak within the piRNA-size range was observed due to the production of piRNAs

from ENS, but no 21 nt peak was seen (Fig. 6e)

To evaluate whether CrPV-DcDV was targeted by ping-pong-dependent piRNAs, we analyzed

27-32 nt sRNAs separately depending on whether they mapped to the recombinant DcDV

sequence within the CrPV-DcDV genome or to the rest of the CrPV genome. We detected ENS-

derived antisense piRNAs mapping to the recombinant DcDV sequence in *D. citri* infected with

either wild-type CrPV or CrPV-DcDV (Fig. 6d-f), however, there was no evidence for the

production of ping-pong-dependent secondary piRNAs from this region during infection with

CrPV-DcDV (ping-pong Z-score = 0.28±0.18)(Fig. 6g & h). Ping-pong signatures were also not

observed for the non-recombinant portion of the CrPV-DcDV genome or for wild-type CrPV

(Fig. S10 c & d). These results indicate that CrPV-DcDV is not targeted by piRNAs during

infection initiated by intrathoracic injection in *D. citri* despite the presence of ENS-derived

piRNAs identical to the recombinant DcDV sequence.

Because the expression of ENS-derived piRNAs is highest in the gut (Fig. 3d) we wanted to

examine whether a piRNA-based response to CrPV-DcDV could be detected during infection

initiated by oral acquisition. Thus, we orally inoculated *D. citri* insects from CRF-CA with wild-

type CrPV or CrPV-DcDV by allowing the insects to feed for 96 hours on an artificial diet

solution containing 10^9 $TCID_{50}$ units/mL of wild-type CrPV or CrPV-DcDV. Following the 96

hour feeding period, the insects were transferred to *Citrus macrophylla* plants and viral RNA

levels were evaluated every three days by RT-qPCR. Viral RNA levels in the insects were nearly

identical for wild-type CrPV and CrPV-DcDV immediately following their removal from the

virus-containing artificial diet and average viral RNA levels increased in the days following

transfer of the insects to plants, although there was a substantial amount of variation between

biological replicates (Fig. 7a). As with infections initiated by intrathracic injection, RT-PCR

results indicated the recombinant DcDV sequence was retained throughout the course of oral

infection with CrPV-DcDV (Fig. S9b). These results suggest that while wild-type CrPV and

CrPV-DcDV are both infectious in *D. citri* following oral acquisition, individual insects

displayed a variety of infection outcomes. Similar results have previously been reported for

orally acquired infections with other RNA viruses in insects (45). We sequenced sRNAs from

insects collected nine days after transfer of the insects from the virus-containing artificial diet to

plants. We analyzed this data as described above for infections initiated by injection and found

that while both wild-type CrPV and CrPV-DcDV were targeted by siRNAs, neither virus was

targeted by ping-pong-dependent vpiRNAs during oral infection (ping-pong Z-score for 27-32 nt

sRNAs mapping to the recombinant DcDV sequence during CrPV-DcDV infection = 1.04 ±

0.67)(Fig. 7b-h). Together, our results indicate that despite the presence of endogenous primary

piRNAs complementary to a portion of the recombinant viral genome, CrPV-DcDV is not a

target of the piRNA pathway in *D. citri* following infection initiated either orally or by

intrathoracic injection.

Discussion

Primary vpiRNAs were first reported for American nodavirus, Drosophila C virus, Drosophila

tetravirus, Nora virus, Drosophila X virus, and Drosophila birnavirus in a *D. melanogaster*

ovarian somatic sheet (OSS) cell line (46). However, these conclusions were based only the size

of the sRNAs and nucleotide biases for all virus-specific sRNAs pooled into a single analysis. A

subsequent study using whole flies found no evidence for the production of primary or secondary

vpiRNAs during infection with Drosophila C virus, Drosophila X virus, Sindbis virus, Nora

virus, Drosophila A virus, Drosophila melanogaster sigma virus, invertebrate iridescent virus 6,

or Flock house virus (14). To date, ping-pong dependent vpiRNAs have only been found in a

small number of mosquito species and cells lines that express an expanded group of Piwi-family

Argonaute proteins.

Aedes albopictus densovirus 1 (AalDV-1) was recently shown to be a target of both siRNAs and

ping-pong-dependent vpiRNAs during persistent infection in *Ae. aegypti*-derived Aag2 cells,

representing the first report of vpiRNAs targeting a DNA virus and the first report of siRNAs

targeting a ssDNA virus in insects (47). Densoviruses replicate exclusively in the nucleus (48)

and interestingly, analysis of nuclear and cytoplasmic sRNA fractions of AalDV-1-infected Aag2

cells revealed that while AalDV-1-derived primary piRNAs are found in both the nucleus and

cytoplasm, ping-pong-dependent piRNAs targeting AalDV-1 are found only in the cytoplasm

(47). Ago3 and Piwi5 are the sole Piwi family proteins required for the production of vpiRNAs

during infection of Aag2 cells with Sindbis virus (9). As these proteins are expressed only in the

cytoplasm, the observation that AalDV-1-derived primary piRNAs are present in the nucleus

during infection of Aag2 cells suggests that a different pathway may generate primary vpiRNAs

from viral RNA in the nucleus (47). Such a pathway would be distinct from the cytoplasmic

Ago3/Piwi5 pathway that is responsible for production of vpiRNAs from Sindbis virus and

might rely on a piRNA biogenesis factor expressed in the nucleus, such as zucchini endonuclease

(47).

How viruses are marked as substrates for piRNA biogenesis remains unclear. In Aag2 cells, viral

and TE RNAs are processed into piRNAs by distinct sets of Piwi-family Argonaute proteins, but

it is unknown how viral RNA is recognized by these proteins (9). Moreover, as discussed above,

the presence of AalDV-1-derived primary piRNAs in the nucleus of Aag2 cells suggests that a

different pathway for the production of primary vpiRNAs may operate in the nucleus (47).

Several previous reports have speculated that primary piRNAs derived from EVEs may facilitate

the targeting of cognate viruses in a manner analogous to the targeting of TEs by the canonical

ping-pong cycle (15–17). Theoretically, such a targeting mechanism could facilitate the

production of vpiRNAs in species that do not express the expanded group of Piwi-family

Argonaute proteins expressed by some mosquito species and mosquito-derived cell lines.

The *D. citri* genome contains a DcDV-derived EVE (denoted ENS) with 86% nucleotide identity

to the corresponding portion of the DcDV genome and here we found that ENS serves as a

source for DcDV-specific primary piRNAs in geographically distinct *D. citri* populations.

However, we found that ENS is not present in all *D. citri* populations and that *D. citri* insects

lacking ENS do not produce endogenous DcDV-specific piRNAs. While more comprehensive

analyses are needed, comparing our results with the known geographic distribution of *D. citri*

lineages suggests that ENS may be present in lineage B *D. citri* and absent in lineage A *D. citri.*

We previously established a colony of *D. citri* insects harboring DcDV as a persistent infection

(CRF-TW)(34) and here we found that insects from this colony do not possess ENS. Sequencing

of sRNAs from *D. citri* insects from CRF-TW revealed the production of DcDV-derived ping-

pong-dependent vpiRNAs. Similar results were obtained by sequencing sRNAs from DcDV-

infected CRF-Uru *D. citri*, another *D. citri* population which does produce any endogenous

DcDV-specific piRNAs. These were surprising results, as the *D. citri* repertoire of Piwi-family

Argonaute proteins is limited to homologs of those expressed in *D. melanogaster,* which have so

far not been associated with the production of vpiRNAs (29,49). The production of vpiRNAs in

D. citri seems to display some virus specificity as vpiRNAs were not seen during infection with

Diaphorina citri reovirus, Diaphorina citri picrona-like virus, Diaphorina citri bunyavirus,

Diaphorina citri flavi-like virus, or CrPV. Notably, these viruses are all RNA viruses that

replicate in the cytoplasm, but DcDV is a DNA virus that replicates in the nucleus. While the

production of ping-pong-dependent DcDV-derived vpiRNAs is noteworthy, we cannot determine

whether this process plays an antiviral role based on the present data.

Densoviruses are known to replicate exclusively in the nucleus (48). Given that vpiRNAs are not

produced during infection of *D. citri* with positive strand RNA viruses, a negative strand RNA

virus, or a dsRNA virus, future analysis should determine whether DcDV RNA is processed into

primary vpiRNAs in the nucleus as was suggested for AalDV-1 (47). Interestingly, abundant

virus-derived sRNAs within the piRNA size range are also observed during infection of *Myzus*

persicae with Myzus persicae densovirus and during infection of *Culex pipiens molestus* with

Mosquito densovirus, however, these sRNAs were not analyzed for the presence of piRNA

signatures (50,51).

In addition to ping-pong dependent vpiRNAs, our results show that DcDV is also targeted by 21

nt siRNAs. RNA interference mediated by siRNAs is the primary antiviral defense mechanism

against RNA viruses in insects and requires cleavage of dsRNA substrates by the RNase III

enzyme dicer (52). RNA interference mediated by siRNAs is also known to target dsDNA

viruses and a ssDNA virus was recently shown to be targeted by siRNAs in Aag2 cells (47,53–

56). Previous reports have suggested that overlapping viral transcripts represent the dsRNA

substrate that becomes processed into siRNAs during infection with DNA viruses (47,53–55).

Indeed, we previously found that transcriptional readthrough during transcription of the

ambisense DcDV genome leads to the production of nearly genome length complementary

transcripts (34). These transcripts may anneal to form the dsRNA required for production of

siRNAs and may constitute the sense and antisense precursors required for the ping-pong cycle.

Although our results indicate that EVE-derived piRNAs are not required for the production of

ping-pong-dependent DcDV-derived vpiRNAs, we cannot exclude the possibility that EVE-

derived piRNAs could serve as an additional pool of piRNAs that could also contribute to

priming of the ping-pong cycle. Thus, to investigate whether EVE-derived piRNAs can prime

ping-pong amplification during infection with a virus sharing complementary sequence in *D.*

citri, we constructed CrPV-DcDV, a recombinant CrPV harboring 57 nt derived from the DcDV

genome and corresponding to ENS. Despite the presence of endogenous primary piRNAs

derived from ENS perfectly mapping to the recombinant region of CrPV-DcDV, we did not

observe induction of the ping-pong cycle during infection with this virus initiated either by oral

acquisition or intrathoracic injection of virions. The lack of ping-pong cycle activation during

infection with CrPV-DcDV is unlikely to be due to an absence of ping-pong activity in the

tissues infected by CrPV-DcDV, as we detected abundant TE-derived ping-pong-dependent

piRNAs in dissected *D. citri* guts, heads, hemolymph, ovaries, and testis. These results indicate

that the presence of EVE-derived primary piRNAs sharing perfect nucleotide identity with an

exogenous virus is not in itself sufficient to mark that virus as a target for ping-pong

amplification in *D. citri*. We note that our approach has some limitations. Host-responses to virus

infection are shaped by coevolution and there is a possibility that CrPV-DcDV was not targeted

by ping-pong-derived piRNAs due to differences in the infection cycles between DcDV (a

naturally infecting DNA virus) and CrPV (a non-naturally infecting RNA virus). For example,

these may include potential differences in the spatial or physical accessibility of viral RNA to

piRNA biogenesis factors. Indeed, our results suggest that RNA viruses are not targeted by

piRNAs in *D. citri*. Thus, it is possible that even if EVE-derived piRNAs could prime ping-pong

amplification during infection with a cognate DNA virus, cognate RNA viruses may not be

susceptible to such targeting by the piRNA pathway. Future research aiming to uncover the

mechanisms of vpiRNA production during infection with DNA viruses such as DcDV and

AalDV-1 will help to resolve these questions.

We previously reported that while DcDV persistently infects CRF-TW *D. citri,* CRF-CA *D. citri*

are not susceptible to DcDV infection by oral acquisition or intrathoracic injection (34). We

report here that CRF-Uru *D. citri* can be persistently infected with DcDV by either of these

routes of infection. As discussed above, CRF-TW and CRF-Uru *D. citri* are likely to be of

lineage A, while CRF-CA *D. citri* are likely to be of lineage B. At present, no genotypic or

phenotypic differences between the two lineages have been described except for nucleotide

variation within the mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase subunit I gene (30–32). Genetic

background is known to contribute to susceptibility to virus infection within different

populations of the same species (57). In the case of Densoviruses, a single arginine residue at

position 188 within a mucin-like glycoprotein expressed in the midgut epithelium of *Bombyx*

mori strains susceptible to infection with Bombyx mori densovirus (BmDV) was substituted by

other amino acids in resistant strains (58). Further analysis showed that this mucin-like

glycoprotein was the cellular receptor for BmDV in the midgut epithelium and that the arginine

residue at position 188 was required for BmDV binding to this protein (58). EVEs have been

suggested to play a role in susceptibility to virus infection through a variety of potential

mechanisms (16,59–61). Our results suggest that ENS is present in lineage B *D. citri,* but absent

in lineage A *D. citri* and that the presence of ENS correlates with resistance to DcDV infection in

the populations tested. However, other genetic differences between the two lineages are likely to

exist and we cannot assess whether ENS may be involved with resistance to DcDV infection

based on the present data. Nevertheless, our data highlight both a genetic and phenotypic

difference between the two *D. citri* lineages. Other such differences between the lineages and

how they may contribute to susceptibility to DcDV infections should be the subject of future

investigations.

Materials and methods

Maintenance of D. citri *insects*

D. citri insects were reared on *C. macrophylla* plants in mesh cages (BugDorm, Taichung,

Taiwan) at 25 ± 2 °C under a 14:10 hour (light:dark) photoperiod and 60-70% relative humidity

at the University of California Davis CRF (62). *D. citri* insects from Uruguay and Taiwan were

imported under USDA APHIS-PPQ permit P526P-17-02906 by shipping adults and nymphs on

C. macrophylla or *Murraya paniculata* cuttings, respectively.

sRNA sequencing and analysis

For total insect sRNA sequencing of CRF-CA, CRF-TW, and CRF-Uru *D. citri*, total RNA was

extracted from groups of 50 adult *D. citri* insects using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad,

California) according to the manufacturer's instructions, but omitting the 75% ethanol wash. For

CRF-CA *D. citri* infected with wild-type CrPV or CrPV-DcDV by oral acquisition or injection

and for the progeny CRF-Uru *D. citri* infected with DcDV by injection, sRNAs were extracted

from groups of 25 adult *D. citri* insects using TRIzol reagent according to the manufacturer's

instructions, but omitting the 75% ethanol wash. For organ specific sRNA sequencing multiple

dissected organs were combined to be processed as one sample: 200 for gut, head, or hemolymph

and 100 for ovary or testis. RNA extraction was done from pooled organ samples with the

Direct-zol RNA Miniprep kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, California) following the manufacturer's

instructions. Three pooled samples of each organ were used. For all sRNA sequencing, total

RNA was sent to Beijing Genomics Institute for library prep with the TruSeq small RNA sample

preparation kit (Illumina, San Diego, California) and sequencing by 50 bp single end sequencing

with the BGISEQ-500 platform. For all sRNA reads, adaptor sequences were removed with Trim

Galore version 0.4.4 (63) and the fastxtoolkit was used to remove reads containing bases with

quality score <20 (64). The remaining reads were mapped to viral genomes, insect genomes, or

TEs using BowTie version 1.2.1.1 (65) using the default settings with the following exceptions: -

n 1 -l 20. When only perfectly mapped reads were considered (specifically indicated in the text),

the –v 0 option was used instead of the –n 1 –l 20 options. Sequence logos were produced using

WebLogo 3 (66). Ping-pong Z-scores were calculated with signature.py (67). All sRNA

sequence data generated for this study was deposited to the NCBI SRA database (BioProject

accession no. PRJNA629895).

Analysis of EVEs

DcDV-derived EVEs were identified in *D. citri* genomic scaffold 2850 by BLASTx using as

queries the deduced amino acid sequences of DcDV structural and non-structural proteins

(GenBank accession no.'s YP_009256210, YP_009256211, YP_009256212, and

YP_009256213). DcDV-derived EVEs were then inspected by aligning the DcDV genome

(GenBank accession no. NC_030296) to the nucleotide sequence of *D. citri* genomic scaffold

2850 using ClustalW (68). Deduced amino acid and nucleotide identities shared between ENS

and DcDV and between EITR and DcDV were calculated as p-distance with complete deletion

of gaps from ClustalW alignments using MEGA 7 (69).

Identification of TEs

We identified TEs present within the *D. citri* genome using RepeatMasker version 4.0.6 (70)

with the Metazoa library. In addition, to identify TEs lacking homology to previously annotated

TEs, we used RepeatModeler version 1.0.8 (71) to produce a *de novo* hidden Markov model for

TEs within the *D. citri* genome which was subsequently used as input for a second analysis using

RepeatMasker. All TE identification was performed using TEAnnotator.py as previously

described to produce a single strand-specific .fasta file containing the sequences of all TEs >100

nt identified in the *D. citri* genome (35).

Nucleic acid extraction, reverse transcription, PCR, exonuclease digestion, and Sanger

sequencing

Unless otherwise specified, DNA was extracted from groups of 25 homogenized *D. citri* insects

by phenol/chloroform extraction followed by ethanol precipitation. For PCR using exonuclease

treated DNA, 1 μg CRF-CA *D. citri* genomic DNA, an intact plasmid containing the ENS

amplicon, or the same plasmid digested overnight with HindIII-HF and SbfI-HF (New England

Biolabs, Ipswich, Massachusetts) were digested overnight with 10 units of Plasmid-Safe ATP-

Dependent DNAse (Lucigen, Middleton, Wisconsin) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. For analysis of ENS transcription, RNA was extracted from groups of 25

homogenized CRF-CA *D. citri* using TRIzol reagent according to the manufacturer's

instructions. RNA was treated twice with the Qiagen RNAse-free DNAse set (Qiagen, Hilden,

Germany) to remove DNA. cDNA was prepared from 50 ng RNA with SuperScript IV reverse

transcriptase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California) using specific primers (see the legend for Fig. 1)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. To assess retention of the insert in CrPV-DcDV,

RNA was extracted from CrPV or CrPV-DcDV virions using TRIzol LS (Invitrogen, Carlsbad,

California) according to the manufacturer's instructions. cDNA was prepared from 50 ng virion

RNA using the Applied Biosystems high capacity reverse transcription kit (Applied Biosystems,

Foster City, California) using random primers according to the manufacturer's instructions and

cDNA was diluted 1:10 prior to PCR. Primer sequences are given in supplementary Table 1 and

their use is described in the appropriate figure legends. All PCR reactions were performed with

CloneAmp HiFi PCR premix (Takara Bio, Mountain View, California) using 25 ng of DNA, 1 μl

of cDNA (for determination of ENS transcription), or 3 μl diluted cDNA (for determination of

CrPV-DcDV insertion retention). Detailed PCR protocols are available upon request. PCR

products were analyzed by 0.8% or 2% agarose gel electrophoresis and visualized under UV

after staining with SYBR safe DNA gel stain (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California). PCR products

were purified with the Zymoclean Gel DNA Recovery Kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, California)

and sequenced by Quintarabio using the Sanger method.

Southern blotting

5 μg undigested CRF-CA *D citri* DNA or 5 μg CRF-CA *D. citri* DNA digested overnight with

PstI-HF and HindIII-HF (New England Biolabs, Ibswich, Massachusetts) was electrophoresed in

a 0.8% agarose/0.5x TAE gel and the gel was prepared for transfer by incubation in 0.25 M HCl

for 30 minutes, then 0.5 M NaCl, 0.5 M NaOH for 30 minutes, and then 1.5 M NaCl, 0.5 M Tris-

HCl pH 7 for 30 minutes. DNA was then transferred to an Amersham Hybond Nx membrane

(GE Life Sciences, Boston, Massachusetts) for 24 hours in 20X SSC using the capillary method.

DNA was cross-linked to the membrane by exposure to 120,000 µjoles of UV light using a UV

Stratalinker 2400 (Stratagene, San Diego, California).

A PCR product corresponding to ENS was prepared by PCR with primers 27 and 3 using CRF-

CA *D. citri* DNA as a template. This PCR product was then used a template to prepare a

radioactive RNA probe by *in vitro* transcription using the MAXIscript T7 Transcription Kit

(Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California) with 32P-UTP according to the manufacturer's instructions.

The membrane with cross-linked DNA was prehybridized by incubation in Ambion ULTRAhyb

Ultrasensitive hybridization buffer (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California) for 2 hours at 42 °C in a

rotary incubation oven. Following prehybridization, 2×10^6 CPM/mL radioactive probe was

added and hybridization proceeded for 16 hours at 42 °C in a rotary incubation oven. The

membrane was then washed at 42 °C for 15 minutes each with 2X SSC/0.1% SDS, 0.2X

SSC/0.1% SDS, and 0.1X SSC/0.1% SDS.

DcDV infections and DcDV qPCR

DcDV virions were partially purified from 0.5 g of CRF-TW *D. citri* as previously described

(34). The number of DcDV genome copies in the virion preparation was determined by qPCR

with primers 29 and 30 (see table S1) as described previously (34). For infections by

intrathoracic injection, the virion preparations were diluted to 8.2×10^5 genome copies/µl in 100

mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5. Adult CRF-Uru *D. citri* were anesthetized on ice for approximately 15

minutes and intrathoracicly injected with approximately 200 nl of the diluted virion preparation

644 by manual injection using a syringe fitted to a 34 gauge stainless steel needle (Hamilton, Reno,

645 Nevada). Following injection, insects were maintained on *C. macrophylla* plants. For infections

646 by oral acquisition, the virion preparations were diluted to 8.2 x 10^5 genome copies/µl in 15%

647 sucrose, 0.1% green food coloring, 0.4% yellow food coloring prepared in 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH

648 7.5. Groups of 30 adult CRF-Uru *D. citri* were fed on the virus-containing sucrose solution for

649 96 hours by membrane feeding as described previously (34). Following the feeding period,

650 insects were maintained on *C. macrophylla* plants. Day 0 is designated as the day insects were

651 transferred from the virus containing artificial diet to plants. For both types of infection, adult

652 insects (>1 day old) were used and neither age nor gender of the insects was determined prior to

653 infection.

655 For both types of infection, five pools of three insects were collected every two days and DNA

656 was purified from each pool by phenol/chloroform extraction followed by ethanol precipitation

657 as described previously (34). All insects had been collected or were removed from the plants by

658 17 days post infection. During the maintenance period on plants, the DcDV-injected and -fed

659 insects laid eggs on the plants. Following removal of the DcDV-injected or –fed insects, the

660 plants were maintained to allow development of the progeny. The progeny were removed on the

661 day of emergency to the adult stage and DNA was extracted from 10 individual progeny insects

662 from each experiment as described above. A pool of 25 progeny of the DcDV-injected *D. citri*

663 was collected at the same time for sRNA purification. The concentration of DcDV genome

664 copies in the DNA pools or in DNA extracted from individual progeny insects was assessed by

665 qPCR with primers 29 and 30 (see Fig. S1) using 25 ng DNA as described previously (34).

666 Technical triplicates were used for all qPCR reactions.

Cloning of CrPV-DcDV

Complementary lyophilized oligonucleotides containing the DcDV sequence to be inserted

flanked upstream by 15 nt corresponding to the 3' end of the CrPV 1A nucleotide sequence and

downstream by 15 nt corresponding to the 5' end of the CrPV 2B nucleotide sequence were

suspended to a concentration of 100 µM in 100 mM potassium acetate, 300 µM HEPES, pH 7.5

(oligo sequences: 5'-

TCTAATCCTGGTCCTGCAGACCGTTCACCTTCTCCAGGACCTTCTACTGCATATCGCT

ATTGTAGCGAGGAAGTGCAATCGCGCCCC and 5' –

GGGGCGCGATTGCACTTCCTCGCTACAATAGCGATATGCAGTAGAAGGTCCTGGAG

AAGGTGAACGGTCTGCAGGACCAGGATTAGA). To anneal these oligonucleotides, the

oligonucleotides were mixed in equimolar ratios, incubated at 94 °C for 3 minutes, and allowed

to cool slowly to room temperature to form the duplex oligo. pCrPV-3 (a gift from Shou-Wei

Ding) (72) was linerized by inverse PCR with primers 13 and 14 and the duplex oligo was

ligated to the linearized plasmid in a 2:1 insert:vector molar ratio using NEBuilder Hifi

Assembly Master Mix (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, Massachusetts) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. The resulting plasmid (designated pCrPV-1A-DcDV) was

transformed into chemically competent *E. coli* DH5α and transformed cells were grown on luria

bertani (LB) agar plates containing 100 µg/mL ampicillin at 28 °C for 16 hours. Insert presence

was verified by colony PCR with primers 15 and 17 and by Sanger sequencing of colony PCR

products. Colonies containing the desired plasmid were used to inoculate 5 mL LB broth

containing 100 µg/mL ampicillin and the cultures were incubated at 28 °C for 16 hours with 220

rpm shaking. Plasmids were purified from overnight cultures with the QIAprep Spin Miniprep

Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

To duplicate the 1A cleavage site on the 3' end of the recombinant DcDV sequence, pCrPV-1A-

DcDV was linearized by inverse PCR with primers 17 and 18 and the linearized plasmid was

circularized by blunt end ligation with T4 DNA ligase (New England Biolabs, Ipswich,

Massachusetts) according to the manufacturer's instructions to create pCrPV-1A-DcDV-1A. The

ligation product was transformed into chemically competent *E. coli* DH5α and plasmids were

purified as described.

Transfection and infection of S2 Cells and virion purification

pCrPV-3 and pCrPV-1A-DcDV-1A were linearized by digestion with BamHI-HF (New England

Biolabs, Ipswich, Massachusetts). Wild-type and CrPV-DcDV RNA was prepared by *in vitro*

transcription of 1 μg linearized plasmid using the mMESSAGE mMACHINE T7 transcription

kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California) according to the manufacturer's instructions. 24 hours prior

to transfection, 5×10^6 S2 cells were seeded in 2 mL Schneider's Drosophila media (Thermo

Fisher, Waltham, Massachusetts) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum in

9.6 cm^2 wells of a tissue culture plate and incubated at 26 °C. The following day, cells were

transfected with wild-type CrPV or CrPV-DcDV RNA using the TransMessenger transfection

reagent (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions and the

transfected cells were incubated at 26 °C. After 72 hours, 1 mL of transfected cells was

transferred to a 50 mL tissue culture flask containing 3×10^6 S2 cells/mL that had been passed

24 hours prior in 6 mL Schneider's Drosophila media supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated

fetal bovine serum. After incubation at 26 °C for 96 hours, virions were purified from the

infected S2 cells by centrifugation at 8,000 RPM for 10 minutes at 4 °C using a Beckman GSA

rotor (Beckman Coulter, Brea, California). The supernatant was then collected and centrifuged at

8,000 RPM for 30 minutes at 4 °C using a Beckman GSA rotor. The supernatant was collected

and centrifuged through a 15% sucrose cushion (prepared in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5) at 45,000

RPM for 45 minutes at 11 °C in a Beckman 70.1 Ti rotor (Beckman Coulter, Brea, California).

The pellet was resuspended in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5 and then filtered through a 0.22 μm

filter.

The titer of purified CrPV-DcDV or CrPV virions was measured by end-point dilution. Briefly, 4

x 10^5 S2 cells were seeded in 500 μL Schneider's Drosophila media supplemented with 10%

heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum in each well of 24 well plates. Cells were incubated for 24

hours at 26°C. After 24 hours cells were infected with tenfold serial dilutions of purified virions

in 100 μL volumes. Dilutions over the range of 10^{-5} to 10^{-10} were used and six individual wells

were used for each dilution. After 72 hours, cells were examined for the presence cytopathic

effects and the titer of the undiluted virus stock was calculated from these results using the Reed

and Muench method.

For infection of S2 cells using purified virions, 5 x 10^6 S2 cells were seeded in 2 mL Schneider's

Drosophila media supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum in 9.6 cm^2 wells

of a tissue culture plate and incubated at 26 °C. After 24 hours, 100 $TCID_{50}$ units of wild-type

CrPV or CrPV-DcDV virions suspended in 100 μL Schneider's Drosophila media were added to

the wells.

Microscopy

Wild-type CrPV or CrPV-DcDV virions (see above) were further purified by centrifugation

through a 1.2 g/cm^3 to 1.6 g/cm^3 cesium chloride density gradient at 50,000 RPM for 4 hours at

11 °C in a Beckman SW 65 Ti rotor (Beckman Coulter, Brea, California). Visible "virus bands"

in the gradients were collected using a Hamilton syringe and diluted 1:10 in 10 mM Tris-HCl,

pH 7.5. Diluted virions were then centrifuged at 75,000 RPM for 30 minutes at 11 °C in a

Beckman TLA 120 rotor (Beckman Coulter, Brea, California). The pellet was resuspended in 10

mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5 and negatively stained with uranyl formate. Negatively stained virion

samples were observed by transmission electron microscopy using a JEOL 1230 electron

microscope (JEOL, Tokyo, Japan) operating at 100 kV. Mock-infected S2 cells and S2 cells

infected with wild-type CrPV or CrPV-DcDV were observed by bright-field microscopy using a

Leica DM5000B microscope (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany).

CrPV infections in D. citri

Adult CRF-CA *D. citri* were infected with purified CrPV or CrPV-DcDV virions by

intrathoracic injection or membrane feeding exactly as described above for DcDV infections. For

injections, purified virions were diluted to 5000 TCID$_{50}$ units/μl and insects were injected with

approximately 200 nl each. Seven pools of three insects each were collected on days 0, 3, 6, and

9 for RNA extraction. Three additional pools of 25 insects each were collected on day 9 for

sRNA extraction. For membrane feeding, purified virions were diluted to 10^9 TCID$_{50}$ units/μl.

Five pools of three insects each were collected on days 0, 3, and 5 for RNA extraction. Three

additional pools of 25 insects each were collected on day 5 for sRNA extraction.

To determine viral RNA levels, RNA was extracted from the pools of three insects using TRIzol

reagent according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA pellets were resuspended in 25 μl

water and cDNA was prepared from 1 μl RNA (approximately 200-400 ng RNA) with the high

capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit using random primers according to the manufacturer's

instructions and cDNA was diluted 1:10. Wild-type CrPV and CrPV-DcDV RNA levels were

determined using 4.5 μL diluted cDNA for qPCR reactions with the SsoAdvanced Universal

SYBR Green Supermix (BioRad, Hercules, California) in 10 μL reactions. Primers 19 and 20

were used for CrPV RNA and primers 21 and 22 were used for *D. citri* actin. All primers were

used at a final concentration of 0.25 nM. The qPCR reaction conditions consisted of an initial

denaturation at 98 °C for 2 min followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 10 s and 60 °C for 20 s.

CrPV RNA levels were normalized based on the expression of *D. citri* actin using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$

method (73). Technical triplicates were used for al qPCR reactions. Diluted cDNA from each

day was pooled to assess retention of the insert in CrPV-DcDV as described above.

Acknowledgements

We thank colleagues who provided us *D. citri* samples: W.O. Dawson, H. Wuriyanghan, H.-H

Yeh, Y. Cen, A. M. Khan, M. A. Machado, T. da Silva, D. M. Galdeano, D. Jenkins, C. Higashi,

A. Chow, D. Morgan, K. Pelz-Stelinski, K. Godfrey, B. Baker, G. Simmons, M. Keremane, and

J. Buenahora. We thank S.W.-Ding for providing us with pCrPV-3. We also thank M-C. Saleh

for critical reading of the manuscript. The U.S. Department of Agriculture provided funding to

Bryce W. Falk under grant numbers 13-002NU-781 and 2015-70016-23011. This material is

based upon work supported by the National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship

Program under Grant No. 1650042.

788   Competing interests

789   The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

792   References

1.   Czech B, Hannon GJ. One loop to rule them all: the ping-pong cycle and piRNA-guided

silencing. Trends Biochem Sci. 2016;41(4):324–37.

2.   Dietrich I, Jansen S, Fall G, Lorenzen S, Rudolf M, Huber K, et al. RNA interference

restricts Rift Valley Fever virus in multiple insect systems. MSphere. 2017;2(3):e00090-

17.

3.   Varjak M, Maringer K, Watson M, Sreenu VB, Fredericks AC, Pondeville E, et al. Aedes

aegypti Piwi4 is a noncanonical PIWI protein involved in antiviral responses. MSphere.

2017;2(3):e00144-17.

4.   Dietrich I, Shi X, McFarlane M, Watson M, Blomström A-L, Skelton JK, et al. The

antiviral RNAi response in vector and non-vector cells against orthobunyaviruses. PLoS

Negl Trop Dis. 2017;11(1):e0005272.

5.   Schnettler E, Donald CL, Human S, Watson M, Siu RWC, McFarlane M, et al.

Knockdown of piRNA pathway proteins results in enhanced Semliki Forest virus

production in mosquito cells. J Gen Virol. 2013;94:1680-89.

6.   Brennecke J, Aravin AA, Stark A, Dus M, Kellis M, Sachidanandam R, et al. Discrete

small RNA-generating loci as master regulators of transposon activity in Drosophila. Cell.

2007;128(6):1089–103.

7.   Vodovar N, Bronkhorst AW, Van Cleef KWR, Miesen P, Blanc H, Van Rij RP, et al.

Arbovirus-derived piRNAs exhibit a ping-pong signature in mosquito cells. PLoS One.

2012;7(1):e30861.

8.   Leger P, Lara E, Jagla B, Sismeiro O, Mansuroglu Z, Coppée JY, et al. Dicer-2-and Piwi-

mediated RNA interference in Rift Valley fever virus-infected mosquito cells. J Virol.

2013;87(3):1631–48.

9.   Miesen P, Girardi E, van Rij RP. Distinct sets of PIWI proteins produce arbovirus and

transposon-derived piRNAs in Aedes aegypti mosquito cells. Nucleic Acids Res.

2015;43(13):6545–56.

10.   Miesen P, Ivens A, Buck AH, van Rij RP. Small RNA profiling in dengue virus 2-infected

Aedes mosquito cells reveals viral piRNAs and novel host miRNAs. PLoS Negl Trop Dis.

2016;10(2):e0004452.

11.   Morazzani EM, Wiley MR, Murreddu MG, Adelman ZN, Myles KM. Production of virus-

derived ping-pong-dependent piRNA-like small RNAs in the mosquito soma. PLoS

Pathog. 2012;8(1):e1002470.

12.   Goic B, Stapleford KA, Frangeul L, Doucet AJ, Gausson V, Blanc H, et al. Virus-derived

DNA drives mosquito vector tolerance to arboviral infection. Nat Commun.

2016;7:12410.

13.   Campbell CL, Black WC, Hess AM, Foy BD. Comparative genomics of small RNA

regulatory pathway components in vector mosquitoes. BMC Genomics. 2008;9(1):425.

14.   Petit M, Mongelli V, Frangeul L, Blanc H, Jiggins F, Saleh M-C. piRNA pathway is not

required for antiviral defense in Drosophila melanogaster. Proc Natl Acad Sci.

2016;113(29):E4218–27.

15.   ter Horst AM, Nigg JC, Dekker FM, Falk BW. Endogenous Viral Elements Are

Widespread in Arthropod Genomes and Commonly Give Rise to PIWI-Interacting RNAs.

J Virol. 2019;93(6):e02124-18.

16.   Whitfield ZJ, Dolan PT, Kunitomi M, Tassetto M, Seetin MG, Oh S, et al. The diversity,

structure, and function of heritable adaptive immunity sequences in the Aedes aegypti

genome. Curr Biol. 2017;27(22):3511–9.

17.   Palatini U, Miesen P, Carballar-Lejarazu R, Ometto L, Rizzo E, Tu Z, et al. Comparative

genomics shows that viral integrations are abundant and express piRNAs in the arboviral

vectors Aedes aegypti and Aedes albopictus. BMC Genomics. 2017;18(1):512.

18.   Katzourakis A, Gifford RJ. Endogenous viral elements in animal genomes. PLoS Genet.

2010;6(11):e1001191.

19.   François S, Filloux D, Roumagnac P, Bigot D, Gayral P, Martin DP, et al. Discovery of

parvovirus-related sequences in an unexpected broad range of animals. Sci Rep.

2016;6:30880.

20.   Suzuki Y, Frangeul L, Dickson LB, Blanc H, Verdier Y, Vinh J, et al. Uncovering the

repertoire of endogenous flaviviral elements in Aedes mosquito genomes. J Virol.

2017;91(15):e00571-17.

21.   Tassetto M, Kunitomi M, Whitfield ZJ, Dolan PT, Sánchez-Vargas I, Garcia-Knight M, et

al. Control of RNA viruses in mosquito cells through the acquisition of vDNA and

endogenous viral elements. Elife. 2019;8:e41244.

22.   Grafton-Cardwell EE, Stelinski LL, Stansly PA. Biology and management of Asian citrus

psyllid, vector of the huanglongbing pathogens. Annu Rev Entomol. 2013;58:413–32.

23.   Singerman A, Rogers ME. The economic challenges of dealing with citrus greening: The

case of Florida. J Integr Pest Manag. 2020;11(1):3.

24.   Tiwari S, Mann RS, Rogers ME, Stelinski LL. Insecticide resistance in field populations

of Asian citrus psyllid in Florida. Pest Manag Sci. 2011;67(10):1258–68.

25.   Juan-Blasco M, Qureshi JA, Urbaneja A, Stansly PA. Predatory mite, Amblyseius swirskii

(Acari: Phytoseiidae), for biological control of Asian citrus psyllid, Diaphorina citri

(Hemiptera: Psyllidae). Florida Entomol. 2012;95(3):543–51.

26.   Étienne J, Quilici S, Marival D, Franck A. Biological control of Diaphorina citri

(Hemiptera: Psyllidae) in Guadeloupe by imported Tamarixia radiata (hymenoptera:

Eulophidae). Fruits. 2001;56(5):307–15.

27.   Hajeri S, Killiny N, El-Mohtar C, Dawson WO, Gowda S. Citrus tristeza virus-based

RNAi in citrus plants induces gene silencing in Diaphorina citri, a phloem-sap sucking

insect vector of citrus greening disease (Huanglongbing). J Biotechnol. 2014;176:42–9.

28.   Nouri S, Salem N, Nigg JC, Falk BW. Diverse array of new viral sequences identified in

worldwide populations of the Asian citrus psyllid (Diaphorina citri) using viral

metagenomics. J Virol. 2016;90(5):2434–45.

29.   Saha S, Hosmani PS, Villalobos-Ayala K, Miller S, Shippy T, Flores M, et al. Improved

annotation of the insect vector of citrus greening disease: biocuration by a diverse

genomics community. Database. 2017;2017:bax032.

30.   Luo Y, Agnarsson I. Global mt DNA genetic structure and hypothesized invasion history

of a major pest of citrus, Diaphorina citri (Hemiptera: Liviidae). Ecol Evol.

2018;8(1):257–65.

31.   De León JH, Sétamou M, Gastaminza GA, Buenahora J, Cáceres S, Yamamoto PT, et al.

Two separate introductions of Asian citrus psyllid populations found in the American

continents. Ann Entomol Soc Am. 2011;104(6):1392–8.

32.   Boykin LM, De Barro P, Hall DG, Hunter WB, McKenzie CL, Powell CA, et al.

Overview of worldwide diversity of Diaphorina citri Kuwayama mitochondrial

cytochrome oxidase 1 haplotypes: two Old World lineages and a New World invasion.

Bull Entomol Res. 2012;102(5):573–82.

33.   Goic B, Vodovar N, Mondotte JA, Monot C, Frangeul L, Blanc H, et al. RNA-mediated

interference and reverse transcription control the persistence of RNA viruses in the insect

model Drosophila. Nat Immunol. 2013;14(4):396.

34.   Nigg JC, Falk BW. Diaphorina citri densovirus is a persistently infecting virus with a

888   hybrid genome organization and unique transcription strategy. J Gen Virol. 2020;101:226-

889   239.

890   35.   Lewis SH, Quarles KA, Yang Y, Tanguy M, Frézal L, Smith SA, et al. Pan-arthropod

891   analysis reveals somatic piRNAs as an ancestral defence against transposable elements.

892   Nat Ecol Evol. 2018;2(1):174.

893   36.   Matsumura EE, Nerva L, Nigg JC, Falk BW, Nouri S. Complete Genome Sequence of the

894   Largest Known Flavi-Like Virus, Diaphorina citri flavi-like virus, a Novel Virus of the

895   Asian Citrus Psyllid, Diaphorina citri. Genome Announc. 2016;4(5):e00946-16.

896   37.   Marutani-Hert M, Hunter WB, Katsar CS, Sinisterra XH, Hall DG, Powell CA. Reovirus-

897   like sequences isolated from adult Asian citrus psyllid,(Hemiptera: Psyllidae: Diaphorina

898   citri). Florida Entomol. 2009;92(2):314–21.

899   38.   Chen Q, Godfrey K, Liu J, Mao Q, Kuo Y-W, Falk BW. A nonstructural protein

900   responsible for viral spread of a novel insect reovirus provides a safe channel for

901   biparental virus transmission to progeny. J Virol. 2019;93(15):e00702-19.

902   39.   Reinganum C, O'Loughlin G., Hogan TW. A nonoccluded virus of the field crickets

903   Teleogryllus océaniens and T.commodus (Orthoptera: Gryllidae). J Invertebr Pathol.

904   1970;16:216–20.

905   40.   Nayak A, Berry B, Tassetto M, Kunitomi M, Acevedo A, Deng C, et al. Cricket paralysis

906   virus antagonizes Argonaute 2 to modulate antiviral defense in Drosophila. Nat Struct Mol

907   Biol. 2010;17(5):547.

41.   Costa A, Jan E, Sarnow P, Schneider D. The Imd pathway is involved in antiviral immune

responses in Drosophila. PLoS One. 2009;4(10):e7436.

42.   Barckmann B, Pierson S, Dufourt J, Papin C, Armenise C, Port F, et al. Aubergine iCLIP

reveals piRNA-dependent decay of mRNAs involved in germ cell development in the

early embryo. Cell Rep. 2015;12(7):1205–16.

43.   Bagijn MP, Goldstein LD, Sapetschnig A, Weick E-M, Bouasker S, Lehrbach NJ, et al.

Function, targets, and evolution of Caenorhabditis elegans piRNAs. Science (80-).

2012;337(6094):574–8.

44.   Mohn F, Handler D, Brennecke J. piRNA-guided slicing specifies transcripts for

Zucchini-dependent, phased piRNA biogenesis. Science. 2015;348(6236):812–7.

45.   Mondotte JA, Gausson V, Frangeul L, Blanc H, Lambrechts L, Saleh M-C. Immune

priming and clearance of orally acquired RNA viruses in Drosophila. Nat Microbiol.

2018;3(12):1394.

46.   Wu Q, Luo Y, Lu R, Lau N, Lai EC, Li W-X, et al. Virus discovery by deep sequencing

and assembly of virus-derived small silencing RNAs. Proc Natl Acad Sci.

2010;107(4):1606–11.

47.   Parry R, Bishop C, De Hayr L, Asgari S. Density-dependent enhanced replication of a

densovirus in Wolbachia-infected Aedes cells is associated with production of piRNAs

and higher virus-derived siRNAs. Virology. 2019;528:89–100.

48.   Tijssen P, Bando H, Li Y, Jousset F, Zadori Z, Fediere G, et al. Evolution of densoviruses.

Parvoviruses. 2005;5:55–60.

49.   Taning CNT, Andrade EC, Hunter WB, Christiaens O, Smagghe G. Asian citrus psyllid

930   RNAi pathway–RNAi evidence. Sci Rep. 2016;6:38082.

931   50.   Pinheiro P V, Wilson JR, Xu Y, Zheng Y, Rebelo AR, Fattah-Hosseini S, et al. Plant

932   Viruses Transmitted in Two Different Modes Produce Differing Effects on Small RNA-

933   Mediated Processes in Their Aphid Vector. Phytobiomes J. 2019;3(1):71–81.

934   51.   Ma M, Huang Y, Gong Z, Zhuang L, Li C, Yang H, et al. Discovery of DNA viruses in

935   wild-caught mosquitoes using small RNA high throughput sequencing. PLoS One.

936   2011;6(9):e24758.

937   52.   Bronkhorst AW, van Rij RP. The long and short of antiviral defense: small RNA-based

938   immunity in insects. Curr Opin Virol. 2014;7:19–28.

939   53.   Bronkhorst AW, van Cleef KWR, Vodovar N, İnce İA, Blanc H, Vlak JM, et al. The DNA

940   virus Invertebrate iridescent virus 6 is a target of the Drosophila RNAi machinery. Proc

941   Natl Acad Sci. 2012;109(51):E3604–13.

942   54.   Jayachandran B, Hussain M, Asgari S. RNA interference as a cellular defense mechanism

943   against the DNA virus baculovirus. J Virol. 2012;86(24):13729–34.

944   55.   Karamipour N, Fathipour Y, Talebi AA, Asgari S, Mehrabadi M. Small interfering RNA

945   pathway contributes to antiviral immunity in Spodoptera frugiperda (Sf9) cells following

946   Autographa californica multiple nucleopolyhedrovirus infection. Insect Biochem Mol

947   Biol. 2018;101:24–31.

948   56.   Kemp C, Mueller S, Goto A, Barbier V, Paro S, Bonnay F, et al. Broad RNA

949   interference–mediated antiviral immunity and virus-specific inducible responses in

Drosophila. J Immunol. 2013;190(2):650–8.

57. Palmer WH, Varghese FS, Van Rij RP. Natural variation in resistance to virus infection in

dipteran insects. Viruses. 2018;10(3):118.

58. Ito K, Kidokoro K, Katsuma S, Sezutsu H, Uchino K, Kobayashi I, et al. A single amino

acid substitution in the Bombyx-specific mucin-like membrane protein causes resistance

to Bombyx mori densovirus. Sci Rep. 2018;8(1):7430.

59. Klenerman P, Hengartner H, Zinkernagel RM. A non-retroviral RNA virus persists in

DNA form. Nature. 1997;390(6657):298.

60. Fujino K, Horie M, Honda T, Merriman DK, Tomonaga K. Inhibition of Borna disease

virus replication by an endogenous bornavirus-like element in the ground squirrel genome.

Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2014;111(36):13175–80.

61. Maori E, Tanne E, Sela I. Reciprocal sequence exchange between non-retro viruses and

hosts leading to the appearance of new host phenotypes. Virology. 2007;362(2):342–9.

62. Galdeano DM, Breton MC, Lopes JRS, Falk BW, Machado MA. Oral delivery of double-

stranded RNAs induces mortality in nymphs and adults of the Asian citrus psyllid,

Diaphorina citri. PLoS One. 2017;12(3):e0171847.

63. Krueger F. Trim galore. A wrapper tool around Cutadapt FastQC to consistently apply

Qual Adapt trimming to FastQ files. 2015;

64. Gordon A, Hannon GJ. Fastx-toolkit. FASTQ/A short-reads preprocessing tools

(unpublished) http://hannonlab cshl edu/fastx_toolkit. 2010;5.

65.   Langmead B. Aligning short sequencing reads with Bowtie. Curr Protoc Bioinforma.

2010;32(1):11–7.

66.   Crooks GE, Hon G, Chandonia JM, Brenner SE. WebLogo: A sequence logo generator,

Genome Research. WebLogo a Seq logo Gener Genome Res. 2004;14(6).

67.   Antoniewski C. Computing siRNA and piRNA overlap signatures. In: Animal Endo-

SiRNAs. Springer; 2014. p. 135–46.

68.   Larkin MA, Blackshields G, Brown NP, Chenna R, McGettigan PA, McWilliam H, et al.

Clustal W and Clustal X version 2.0. bioinformatics. 2007;23(21):2947–8.

69.   Kumar S, Stecher G, Tamura K. MEGA7: molecular evolutionary genetics analysis

version 7.0 for bigger datasets. Mol Biol Evol. 2016;33(7):1870–4.

70.   Smit A, Hubley R, Green P. RepeatMasker Open-4.0 [Internet]. 2013-2015. Available

from: http://www.repeatmasker.org

71.   Smit A, Hubley R. RepeatModeler Open-1.0 [Internet]. 2008. Available from:

http://www.repeatmasker.org/RepeatModeler/

72.   Kerr CH, Wang QS, Keatings K, Khong A, Allan D, Yip CK, et al. The 5′ untranslated

region of a novel infectious molecular clone of the dicistrovirus cricket paralysis virus

modulates infection. J Virol. 2015;89(11):5919–34.

73.   Schmittgen TD, Livak KJ. Analyzing real-time PCR data by the comparative C T method.

Nat Protoc. 2008;3(6):1101.

Fig. 1
991

992
993
Fig. 1. A DcDV-like EVE is present in the *D. citri* genome. (A) Organization of DcDV-derived
EVEs identified in *D. citri* genomic scaffold 2850 by BLASTx followed by manual sequence
alignment. The DcDV genome organization is shown on top with the corresponding region of
scaffold 2850 on the bottom. Numbers above and below the sequence depictions represent
nucleotide positions. Vertical lines inside shaded boxes represent stop codons. The percent
nucleotide or deduced amino acid (aa) identity between EVEs and corresponding viral genomic
regions/proteins is given. Annealing positions of PCR primers are shown with arrows. (B)
Confirmation of EVE presence by PCR using primers shown in panel A. The product produced
with primers 5/6 was produced by nested PCR using as template a 1:1000 dilution of a PCR
product produced with primers 3/4. (C) The correct organization of the region of the *D. citri*
genome containing ENS and EITR, as confirmed by sequencing of the PCR products shown in
panel B.

1018 **Fig. 2**
1019

1020
1021
Fig 2. ENS is a transcribed EVE that is unevenly distributed among distinct *D. citri* populations.
(A) Upper: PCR products produced using primers flanking ENS (primers 2 and 8). Lower: PCR
products produced using primers specific to *D. citri* actin (primers 9 and 10). (B) Southern blot
of *D. citri* genomic DNA using an RNA probe based on the sequence of ENS; U = undigested, D
= digested with PstI and HindIII. Upper arrow denotes ENS in undigested genomic DNA. Lower
arrows denote cleavage products. (C) PCR products produced using primers 3 and 7 and the
indicated DNA samples. "Plasmid" is a plasmid containing the full ENS sequence and "Plasmid
HindIII + SbfI" is the same plasmid digested with HindIII and SbfI. DNA was left intact or
digested with an exonuclease (Exo.) prior to PCR. (D) Primers 3 or 7 were used to generate
cDNA from antisense or sense transcripts, respectively. cDNAs were used as templates for PCR
using primers 3 and 7. DNA or cDNA prepared without reverse transcriptase (RT) served as
controls.

1046 **Fig. 3**
1047

1048
1049
Fig. 3. DcDV-specific piRNAs are produced from ENS in *D. citri* from CRF-CA. (A) Positions
of all sRNAs from CRF-CA *D. citri* mapped to the DcDV genome. Dashed lines indicate the
region of the DcDV genome corresponding to ENS. sRNAs are shown as mapped to the genomic
strand containing the coding sequence for the NS proteins. Red = antisense sRNAs, blue = sense
sRNAs. Reads counts are an average of three independent libraries. (B) Length distribution of
sRNAs shown in (A). Red = antisense, blue = sense. Read counts are an average of three
independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard deviation. (C) Sequence logo of sRNAs shown
in (A). Data represents three pooled libraries. (D) Abundance of 27-32 nt sRNAs from CRF-CA
D. citri mapping to ENS in the indicated tissue types. Read counts for each library were
normalized using the read counts per million mapped reads method (RPM)(59). Normalized read
counts represent the average of three independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard
deviation. Average RPM values for each tissue were compared by one-way ANOVA and
Turkey's honestly significant difference post-hoc test. Significance is indicated by lowercase
letters and tissues sharing a letter do not have significantly different RPM values ($p < 0.05$).

1077 **Fig. 4**
1078

1079
1080
Fig. 4. DcDV is targeted by ping-pong-dependent vpiRNAs in DcDV-infected *D. citri* insects
from CRF-TW. (A) Length distribution of sRNAs mapping to the DcDV genome in DcDV-
infected *D. citri* insects from CRF-TW. To account for the bidirectional transcription strategy of
DcDV, sRNA mapping polarity was assigned from mapping location based on the start and stop
positions of the canonical DcDV transcripts. Red = antisense sRNAs, blue = sense sRNAs. Read
counts are an average of three independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard deviation. (B)
Positions of 27-32 nt sRNAs shown in (A). Red = antisense sRNAs, blue = sense sRNAs. Read
counts are an average of three independent libraries. (C) Z-scores for the indicated overlap
distances between the 5' ends of complementary 27-32 nt sRNAs shown in (A). Z-scores are an
average of three independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard deviation. (D & E) Sequence
logos for the 27-32 nt sRNAs shown in (A). Sequence logos for antisense sRNAs (D) or sense
sRNAs (E) are shown. Data represents three pooled libraries.

1103 **Fig. 5**
1104

1105
1106
Fig. 5. Construction of CrPV-DcDV, a recombinant CrPV mutant containing 57 nt of sequence
from the DcDV genome. (A) Genome organization of CrPV DcDV. Blue rectangles represent
the CrPV non-structural proteins. RdRp = RNA dependent RNA polymerase. VPg = viral protein
genome-linked. Green boxes represent the CrPV structural proteins. The orange rectangle
represents the recombinant DcDV sequence, which corresponds to nucleotides 803-859 from the
DcDV genome. Pink rectangles represent the cleavage site at which the 1A protein is released
from the polyprotein. (B & C) Electron micrographs of wild-type CrPV (B) or CrPV-DcDV (C)
virions purified from S2 cells transfected with viral RNA. 50,000x magnification. Scale bar is 50
nm. (D) RT-PCR products produced using primers flanking the site into which recombinant
DcDV sequence was inserted in CrPV-DcDV (primers 11 and 12). RNA extracted from purified
virions (VR) or *in vitro* transcribed viral RNA (TR) was used as a template. (E-G) Bright-field
microscopy images of S2 cells infected with wild-type CrPV virions (E), CrPV-DcDV virions
(F), or mock infected (G). Images were acquired 72 hours post-infection.

1127 **Fig. 6**
1128

1129
1130
Fig. 6. CrPV-DcDV is not targeted by piRNAs during infection initiated by intrathoracic
injection of purified virions. (A) Relative viral RNA levels during infection with wild-type CrPV
or CrPV-DcDV. Infection was initiated by intrathoracic injection of CRF-CA *D. citri* with 1000
$TCID_{50}$ units of purified virions per insect. Viral RNA levels were assessed by RT-qPCR and
normalized based on the expression of actin. The amount of viral RNA present on day 0 was set
as 1 and log10 + 1 levels of viral RNA are shown relative to this value. Bars represent the
average viral RNA level in five pools of three insects. Error bars indicate the standard error of
the mean. ** = $p < 0.01$, two-tailed T-test. (B-F) analysis of sRNA sequencing data of sRNAs
purified from CRF-CA *D. citri* infected with wild-type CrPV or CrPV-DcDV by intrathoracic

injection as described for (A). sRNA was purified from pools of 25 *D. citri* collected 5 days post
injection. (B) Length distribution of sRNAs from wild-type CrPV-infected *D. citri* mapped to the
wild-type CrPV genome. Red = antisense, blue = sense. Read counts are an average of three
independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard deviation. (C) Length distribution of sRNAs
from CrPV-DcDV-infected *D. citri* mapped to the CrPV-DcDV genome. Red = antisense, blue =
sense. Read counts are an average of three independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard
deviation. (D) Length distribution of sRNAs from CrPV-DcDV-infected *D. citri* mapped to the
recombinant DcDV sequence present within the CrPV-DcDV genome. Red = antisense, blue =
sense. Read counts are an average of three independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard
deviation. (E) Length distribution of sRNAs from wild-type CrPV-infected *D. citri* mapped to
the recombinant DcDV sequence present within the CrPV-DcDV genome. Red = antisense, blue
= sense. Read counts are an average of three independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard
deviation. (F & G) Sequence logos for 27-32 nt sRNAs from CrPV-DcDV-infected *D. citri*
mapped to the recombinant DcDV sequence present within the CrPV-DcDV genome. Sequence
logos for antisense sRNAs (F) or sense sRNAs (G) are shown. Data represents three pooled
libraries. (H) Probability of overlap between the 5' ends of complementary 27-32 nt sRNAs
mapping to opposite strands of the recombinant DcDV sequence present within the CrPV-DcDV
genome during infection with CrPV-DcDV. Probabilities are shown for the indicated overlap
distances and represent the average of three independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard
deviation. The average Z-score and the standard deviation of the Z-score for an overlap length of
10 nt is shown

1186 **Fig. 7**

1187

1188
1189
Fig. 7. CrPV-DcDV is not targeted by piRNAs during infection initiated by oral acquisition of
purified virions. (A) Relative viral RNA levels during infection with wild-type CrPV or CrPV-
DcDV. Infection was initiated in CRF-CA *D. citri* by oral acquisition. Insects were allowed to
feed for 96 hours on an artificial diet solution containing 10^9 TCID$_{50}$ units/mL of wild-type
CrPV or CrPV-DcDV. Following the feeding period insects were moved to *C. macrophylla*
plants (day 0 post feeding). Viral RNA levels were assessed by RT-qPCR and normalized based
on the expression of actin. The amount of viral RNA present on day 0 was set as 1 and viral
RNA levels are shown relative to this value. Bars represent the average viral RNA level in seven
pools of three insects. Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean. (B-F) analysis of sRNA

sequencing data of sRNAs purified from CRF-CA *D. citri* infected with wild-type CrPV or
CrPV-DcDV by oral acquisition as described for (A). sRNA was purified from pools of 25 *D.*
citri collected 9 days post feeding. (B) Length distribution of sRNAs from wild-type CrPV-
infected *D. citri* mapped to the wild-type CrPV genome. Red = antisense, blue = sense. Read
counts are an average of three independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard deviation. (C)
Length distribution of sRNAs from CrPV-DcDV-infected *D. citri* mapped to the CrPV-DcDV
genome. Red = antisense, blue = sense. Read counts are an average of three independent
libraries. Error bars indicate standard deviation. (D) Length distribution of sRNAs from CrPV-
DcDV-infected *D. citri* mapped to the recombinant DcDV sequence present within the CrPV-
DcDV genome. Red = antisense, blue = sense. Read counts are an average of three independent
libraries. Error bars indicate standard deviation. (E) Length distribution of sRNAs from wild-
type CrPV-infected *D. citri* mapped to the recombinant DcDV sequence present within the
CrPV-DcDV genome. Red = antisense, blue = sense. Read counts are an average of three
independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard deviation. (F & G) Sequence logos for 27-32
nt sRNAs from CrPV-DcDV-infected *D. citri* mapped to the recombinant DcDV sequence
present within the CrPV-DcDV genome. Sequence logos for antisense sRNAs (F) or sense
sRNAs (G) are shown. Data represents three pooled libraries. (H) Probability of overlap between
the 5' ends of complementary 27-32 nt sRNAs mapping to opposite strands of the recombinant
DcDV sequence present within the CrPV-DcDV genome during infection with CrPV-DcDV.
Probabilities are shown for the indicated overlap distances and represent the average of three
independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard deviation. The average Z-score and the
standard deviation of the Z-score for an overlap length of 10 nt is shown.
1221
1222

1223

1224

1225

1226

1227

1228

1229

1230

1236   **Fig. S1**
1237

```
CRF-CA   AAAGCGATAA GTTGTCGTAT AAATAGTGGT GTTGGTAGCA TTGTAACTTT AGTATGGACT GTTCA [ 65]
Florida  AAAGCGATAA GTTGTCGTAT AAATAGTGGT GTTGGTAGCA TTGTAACTTT AGTATGGACT GTTCA [ 65]
Pakistan AAAGCGATAA GTTGTCGTAT AAATAGTGGT GTTGGTAGCA TTGTAACTTT AGTATGGACT GTTCA [ 65]
Arizona  AAAGCGATAA GTTGTCGTAT AAATAGTGGT GTTGGTAGCA TTGTAACTTT AGTATGGACT GTTCA [ 65]
CRF-HI   AAAGCGATAA GTTGTCGTAT AAATAGTGGT GTTGGTAGCA TTGTAACTTT AGTATGGACT GTTCA [ 65]

CRF-CA   GCAGCGAGAA AATTTGAACG TCTTGATTGC GTGTGTTATT TTTGTCTTTT ACCAAAATTG CCAAC [130]
Florida  GCAGCGAGAA AATTTGAACG TCTTGATTGC GTGTGTTATT TTTGTCTTTT ACCAAAATTG CCAAC [130]
Pakistan GCAGCGAGAA AATTTGAACG TCTTGATTGC GTGTGTTATT TTTGTCTTTT ACCAAAATTG CCAAC [130]
Arizona  GCAGCGAGAA AATTTGAACG TCTTGATTGC GTGTGTTATT TTTGTCTTTT ACCAAAATTG CCAAC [130]
CRF-HI   GCAGCGAGAA AATTTGAACG TCTTGATTGC GTGTGTTATT TTTGTCTTTT ACCAAAATTG CCAAC [130]

CRF-CA   ACCAGTAGTG AATTTAGTTC CGACGAGGAT GAGTTCCGAC GAGGATTCGT GTCACTCGGT GATCG [195]
Florida  ACCAGTAGTG AATTTAGTTC CGACGAGGAT GAGTTCCGAC GAGGATTCGT GTCACTCGGT GATCG [195]
Pakistan ACCAGTAGTG AATTTAGTTC CGACGAGGAT GAGTTCCGAC GAGGATTCGT GTCACTCGGT GATCG [195]
Arizona  ACCAGTAGTG AATTTAGTTC CGACGAGGAT GAGTTCCAAC GAGGATTCGT GTCACTCGGT GATCG [195]
CRF-HI   ACCAGTAGTG AATTTAGTTC CGACGAGGAT GAGTTCCGAC GAGGATTCGT GTCACTCGGT GATCG [195]

CRF-CA   AGGAGGATCC TCTGAGTTCT GCTCCAGCGA GTCCGGCGAC GAGTCAACAT GGTCACAACT TAAGC [260]
Florida  AGGAGGATCC TCTGAGTTCT GCTCCAGCGA GTCCGGCGAC GAGTCAACAT GGTCACAACT TAAGC [260]
Pakistan AGGAGGATCC TCTGAGTTCT GCTCCAGCGA GTCCGGCGAC GAGTCAACAT GGTCACAACT TAAGC [260]
Arizona  AGGAGGATCC TCTGAGTTCT GCTCCAGCGA GTCCGGCGAC GAGTCAACAT GGTCACAACT TAAGC [260]
CRF-HI   AGGAGGATCC TCTGAGTTCT GCTCCAGCGA GTCCGGCGAC GAGTCAACAT GGTCACAACT TAAGC [260]

CRF-CA   GATTCCGAGG AGACGAACTG TACCGTCGTG TTGGCACAGA ATCCCCTGCC CGACACACAA GAAGT [325]
Florida  GATTCCGAGG AGACGAACTG TACCGTCGTG TTGGCACAGA ATCCCCTGCC CGACACACAA GAAGT [325]
Pakistan GATTCCGAGG AGACGAACTG TACCGTCGTG TTGGCACAGA ATCCCCTGCC CGACACACAA GAAGT [325]
Arizona  GATTCCGAGG AGACGAACTG TACCGTCGTG TTGGCACAGA ATCCCCTGCC CGACACACAA GAAGT [325]
CRF-HI   GATTCCGAGG AGACGAACTG TACCGTCGTG TTGGCACAGA ATCCCCTGCC CGACACACAA GAAGT [325]

CRF-CA   CGAATCGATG TTTCAAGAAG ACCGGAGCGC ATCAGTACAT TTCGCAGACG ATCCTCCGAC GGGAG [390]
Florida  CGAATCGATG TTTCAAGAAG ACCGGAGCGC ATCAGTACAT TTCGCAGACG ATCCTCCGAC GGGAG [390]
Pakistan CGAATCGATG TTTCAAGAAG ACCGGAGCGC ATCAGTACAT TTCGCAGACG ATCCTCCGAC GGGAG [390]
Arizona  CGAATCGATG TTTCAAGAAG ACCGGAGCGC ATCAGTACAT TTCGCAGACG ATCCTCCGAC GGGAG [390]
CRF-HI   CGAATCGATG TTTCAAGAAG ACCGGAGCGC ATCAGTACAT TTCGCAGACG ATCCTCCGAC GGGAG [390]

CRF-CA   CCCGGAAGAA GAAATCTATT CTGAAACGGG CGACGAAAAA GAAAACGACT CCCAAAGCGA ACACA [455]
Florida  CCCGGAAGAA GAAATCTATT CTGAAACGGG CGACGAAAAA GAAAACGACT CCCAAAGCGA ACACA [455]
Pakistan CCCGGAAGAA GAAATCTATT CTGAAACGGG CGACGAAAAA GAAAACGACT CCCAAAGCGA ACACA [455]
Arizona  CCCGGAAGAA GAAATCTATT CTGAAACGGG CGACGAAAAA GAAAACGACT CCCAAAGCGA ACACA [455]
CRF-HI   CCCGGAAGAA GAAATCTATT CTGAAACGGG CGACGAAAAA GAAAACGACT CCCAAAGCGA ACACA [455]

CRF-CA   GCGAAGAAGA TGCTCACTCT GACTCCTCAG CAACAGACAT CAGTGTGGGA ACGGCAAACC AACAA [520]
Florida  GCGAAGAAGA TGCTCACTCT GACTCCTCAG CAACAGACAT CAGTGTGGGA ACGGCAAACC AACAA [520]
Pakistan GCGAAGAAGA TGCTCACTCT GACTCCTCAG CAACAGACAT CAGTGTGGGA ACGGCAAACC AACAA [520]
Arizona  GCGAAGAAGA TGCTCACTCT GACTCCT-AG CAACAGACAT CAGTGTGGGA ACGGCAAACC AACAA [520]
CRF-HI   GCGAAGAAGA TGCTCACTCT GACTCCTCAG CAACAGACAT CAGTGTGGGA ACGGCAAACC AACAA [520]

CRF-CA   CTTTATGGCA TTCTTGTTCC TCGTTTGAAC GCCCCTGCAG ACCGTTCACC TTCTCCAGGA CCTTC [585]
Florida  CTTTATGGCA TTCTTGTTCC TCGTTTGAAC GCCCCTGCAG ACCGTTCACC TTCTCCAGGA CCTTC [585]
Pakistan CTTTATGGCA TTCTTGTTCC TCGTTTGAAC GCCCCTGCAG ACCGTTCACC TTCTCCAGGA CCTTC [585]
Arizona  CTTTATGGCA TTCTTGTTCC TCGTTTGAAC GCCCCTGCAG ACCGTTCACC TTCTCCAGGA CCTTC [585]
CRF-HI   CTTTATGGCA TTCTTGTTCC TCGTTTGAAC GCCCCTGCAG ACCGTTCACC TTCTCCAGGA CCTTC [585]

CRF-CA   TACTGCATAT CGCTATCGTG GCGAGGAAAA CCCAAAATAT GGACCTAAAA AA-GCAGTGC ATCCG [650]
Florida  TACTGCATAT CGCTATCGTG GCGAGGAAAA CCCAAAATAT GGACCTAAAA AA-GCAGTGC ATCCG [650]
Pakistan TACTGCATAT CGCTATCGTG GCGAGGAAAA CCCAAAATAT GGACCTAAAA AA-GCAGTGC ATCCG [650]
Arizona  TACTGCATAT CGCTATCGTG GCGAGGAAAA CCCAAAATGT GGACCTAAAA AAACAAGGGA TTCCG [650]
CRF-HI   TACTGCATAT CGCTATCGTG GCGAGGAAAA CCCAAAATGT GGACCTAAAA AAACCATGGC TTCCG [650]

CRF-CA   TTGGGGGGAA GGCTTAGCGG T [671]
Florida  TTGGGGGGAA GGCTTAGCGG T [671]
Pakistan TTGGGGGGAA GGCTTAGCGG T [671]
Arizona  TGGGGGGAA- ---------- - [671]
CRF-HI   TTGGGGGAA- ---------- - [671]
```

1238
1239
1240   **Fig. S1.** Alignment of the sequences of the ENS PCR products shown in Fig. 2. Sequences were
1241   aligned using ClustalW and mismatched nucleotides are shaded.

1242   **Fig. S2**

1243

1244

1245

Fig. S2. (A-D) Left: Length distribution of all sRNAs from various *D. citri* populations mapped
to the DcDV genome. Red = antisense, blue = sense. Middle: Positions of all sRNAs from
various *D. citri* populations mapped to the DcDV genome. sRNAs are shown as mapped to the
genomic strand containing the coding sequence for the NS proteins. Red = antisense sRNAs,
blue = sense sRNAs. Right: Sequence logo of 27-32 nt sRNAs shown in the left and middle
panels. sRNAs were purified from field-collected insects from China (GenBank accession no.
SRX1164134)(A), the US state of Florida (GenBank accession no. SRX1164135) (B), Brazil
(GenBank accession no. SRX1164127)(C), or laboratory reared insects from CRF-Uru (D).
Sequence data for (A-C) are described in (25,26).

1255

1256

1257

1258

1259

1260 **Fig. S3**

1261

1262

1263 **Fig. S3 continued**

1264

1265
1266
Fig. S3. (A-E) Analysis of sRNAs from dissected CRF-CA *D. citri* tissues. Figures indicate
mapping statistics for sRNAs mapping to all TEs identified in the *D. citri* genome. (A) sRNAs
from three pools of 200 *D. citri* guts. (B) sRNAs from three pools of 200 *D. citri* heads. (C)
sRNAs from three pools of hemolymph from 100 *D. citri* each. (D) sRNAs from three pools of
100 *D. citri* ovaries. (E) sRNAs from three pools of 100 *D. citri* testis. Upper left panels: length
distribution of sRNAs mapping to TEs. Red = antisense, blue = sense. Read counts are an
average of three independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard deviation. Upper right panels:
Z-scores for the indicated overlap distances between the 5' ends of complementary 27-32 nt
sRNAs. Z-scores are an average of three independent libraries. Errors bars indicate the standard
deviation. Lower panels: Sequence logos for 27-32 nt sRNAs mapping to TEs. Lower left =
antisense, Lower right = sense. Data represents three pooled libraries.
1278
1279
1280

1281 **Fig. S4**

1282

1283
1284
1285 **Fig. S3.** (A-E) Analysis of sRNAs from CRF-Uru *D. citri*. Figures indicate mapping statistics for
1286 sRNAs mapping to all TEs identified in the *D. citri* genome. (A) length distribution of sRNAs
1287 mapping to TEs. Red = antisense, blue = sense. (B) Z-scores for the indicated overlap distances
1288 between the 5' ends of complementary 27-32 nt sRNAs. (C & D) Sequence logos for 27-32 nt
1289 sRNAs mapping to TEs. (C) Antisense sRNAs. (D) Sense sRNAs.

1314 **Fig. S5**
1315

1316
Fig. S4. (A) Titer of DcDV following intrathoracic injection of virions into uninfected *D. citri*
insects from CRF-Uru. Each data point represents three pooled insects (n=5). The curve was
smoothed using loess regression. (B) Titer of DcDV following feeding of virions to uninfected
D. citri insects from CRF-Uru. Virions present in a 15% sucrose artificial diet solution were
acquired by *D. citri* for 96 hours by membrane feeding. After the feeding period, insects were
moved to *Citrus macrophylla* plants and this represents day 0 post feeding. Each data point
represents three pooled insects (n=5). The curve was smoothed using loess regression. (C) Titer
of DcDV in F1 progeny of the insects shown in (A), designated by injection, and (B), designated
by Feeding. n=10 individual insects. Individual insects were collected on the day of emergence
to adulthood.

1339 **Fig. S6**
1340
1341

1342
1343
Fig. S6. DcDV is targeted by ping-pong-dependent vpiRNAs in DcDV-infected *D. citri* insects
from CRF-Uru. sRNAs were purified from the progeny of CRF-Uru *D. citri* that had been
infected with DcDV by intrathoracic injection (see Fig. S5a & c). (A) Length distribution of
sRNAs mapping to the DcDV genome in DcDV-infected *D. citri* insects from CRF-Uru. To
account for the bidirectional transcription strategy of DcDV, sRNA mapping polarity was
assigned from mapping location based on the start and stop positions of the canonical DcDV
transcripts. Red = antisense sRNAs, blue = sense sRNAs. (B) Positions of 27-32 nt sRNAs
shown in (A). Red = antisense sRNAs, blue = sense sRNAs. (C) Z-scores for the indicated
overlap distances between the 5' ends of complementary 27-32 nt sRNAs shown in (A). (D & E)
Sequence logos for the 27-32 nt sRNAs shown in (A). Sequence logos for antisense sRNAs (D)
or sense sRNAs (E) are shown.

1365   **Fig. S7**

1366

A

B

C

1367
1368
1369
1370

1371 **Fig. S7 continued**

1372

1373
1374
Fig. S7. (A-E) Analysis of sRNAs from various field-collected *D. citri* populations infected with
one or more *D. citri*-specific viruses. (A) *D. citri* from the US state of Florida infected with
Diaphorina citri flavi-like virus (sRNA GenBank accession no. SRX1164135, viral genome
GenBank accession no. NC_030453.1). (B) *D. citri* from China infected with Diaphorina citri
reovirus (sRNA GenBank accession no. SRX1164134, viral genome GenBank accession no.'s
KT698830.1, KT698831.1, KT698832.1, KT698833.1, KT698834.1, KT698836.1). (C) *D.*
citri from China infected with Diaphorina citri picorna-like virus (sRNA GenBank accession no.
SRX1164134, viral genome GenBank accession no. KT698837.1). (D) *D. citri* from China
infected with Diaphorina citri bunyavirus (sRNA GenBank accession no. SRX1164134, viral
genome GenBank accession no.'s KT698825.1, KT698824.1, KT698823.1). (E) *D. citri* from
Brazil infected with Diaphorina citri picorna-like virus (sRNA GenBank accession no.
SRX1164127, viral genome GenBank accession no. KT698837.1). Upper left panels: length
distribution of sRNAs mapped to the various viral genomes. Red = antisense, blue = sense.
Upper right panels: Z-scores for the indicated overlap distances between the 5' ends of
complementary 27-32 nt sRNAs mapping to opposite strands of the various viral genomes.

Sequence data are described in (25,26). Lower panels: Sequence logos for 27-32 nt sRNAs
mapping to the various viral genomes. Lower left = antisense, Lower right = sense.

1436   **Fig. S8**
1437

```
CrPV-DcDNV (1352-1473)      CTTTTGATGA GTGGTgatgt cgaatctaat cctggtcctg CAGACCGTTC ACCTTCTCCA  [ 60]
DcDNV (803-859)             ---------- ---------- ---------- ---------g CAGACCGTTC ACCTTCTCCA  [ 60]
NW_007380266 (8062-8118)    ---------- ---------- ---------- ---------g CAGACCGTTC ACCTTCTCCA  [ 60]

CrPV (1171-1224)            CTTTTGATGA GTGGTgatgt cgaatctaat cctggtcctg ---------- ----------  [ 60]

CrPV-DcDNV (1352-1473)      GGACCTTCTA CTGCATATCG CTATTGTAGC GAGGAAgatg tcgaatctaa tcctggtcct [ 120]
DcDNV (803-859)             GGACCTTCTA CTGCATATCG CTATTGTAGC GAGGAA---- ---------- ---------- [ 120]
NW_007380266 (8062-8118)    GGACCTTCTA CTGCATATCG CTATCGTGGC GAGGAA---- ---------- ---------- [ 120]

CrPV (1171-1224)            ---------- ---------- ---------- ---------- ---------- ---------- [ 120]

CrPV-DcDNV (1171-1473)      gTGCAATCGC GCCCC [135]
DcDNV (803-859)            ---------- ----- [135]
NW_007380266 (8062-8118)   ---------- ----- [135]
CrPV (1171-1224)           -TGCAATCGC GCCCC [135]
```
1438
1439

Fig. 8. Alignment of a portion of the CrPV-DcDV genome, the recombinant DcDV sequence
present within CrPV-DcDV, the region of ENS corresponding to the recombinant DcDV
sequence present within CrPV-DcDV (represented by the GenBank accession no. of *D. citri*
genomic scaffold 2850, NW_007380266), and a portion of the wild-type CrPV sequence.
Numbers in parentheses indicate the nucleotide positions of the sequence shown. The CrPV 1A
cleavage site is shown in lowercase letters. The recombinant DcDV sequence present within
CrPV-DcDV and the corresponding region of ENS are shown in italics.

1475 **Fig. S9**

1476

1477
1478
Fig. S9. RT-PCR products produced using primers flanking the site into which recombinant
DcDV sequence was inserted in CrPV-DcDV (primers 15 and 16). RNA from all biological
replicates from each day shown in Fig. 4.6a (A) or Fig. 4.7a (B) was pooled and used as
templates for RT-PCR. RNA from CRF-CA *D. citri* was used as a negative control. *In vitro*
transcribed wild-type CrPV or CrPV-DcDV RNA was used as a positive control. DPI = days
post injection. DPF = days post feeding.

1508 **Fig. S10**

1509

1510

Fig. S10. (A & B) Positions of 21 nt sRNAs mapping to the wild-type CrPV genome (A) or the

CrPV-DcDV genome (B) during infection of CRF-CA *D. citri* initiated by intrathoracic injection

of virions. Red = antisense sRNAs, blue = sense sRNAs. Reads counts are an average of three

independent libraries. (C & D) Z-scores for the indicated overlap distances between the 5' ends

of complementary 27-32 nt sRNAs mapping to opposite strands of the wild-type CrPV genome

(C) or the non-recombinant portion of the CrPV-DcDV genome (D) during infection of CRF-CA

D. citri initiated by intrathoracic injection of virions. Z-scores represent the average of three

independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard deviation. (E & F) Positions of 21 nt sRNAs

mapping to the wild-type CrPV genome (E) or the CrPV-DcDV genome (F) during infection of

CRF-CA *D. citri* initiated by oral acquisition of virions. Red = antisense sRNAs, blue = sense

sRNAs. Reads counts are an average of three independent libraries. (G & H) Z-scores for the

indicated overlap distances between the 5' ends of complementary 27-32 nt sRNAs mapping to opposite strands of the wild-type CrPV genome (G) or the non-recombinant portion of the CrPV-DcDV genome (H) during infection of CRF-CA *D. citri* initiated by oral acquisition of virions. Z-scores represent the average of three independent libraries. Error bars indicate standard deviation.

1568   **Table S1**

Primer #	Sequence (5' → 3')
1	GGGAAAATCGGTCTCATGCTGCTGTT
2	AAATTGGAGTTAGAAGCTAAAGTTACC
3	TGTAACTTTAGTATGGACTGTTCAGC
4	TTCTTTCACTCCAAACTCTTTCTAGAATGC
5	CCTCTGAGTTCTGCTCCAGC
6	AACAGCAGCATGAGACCGATTTTCCC
7	TGACACCGCTAAGCCTTCC
8	ACACTTTTTTAAAAGCGATAAGTTGTC
9	CCCTGGACTTTGAACAGGAA
10	CATTTGCGGTGAACGATTCC
11	CCAGAACATCGATATGGATCAAC
12	TTGAATTTGGGCTGTTAGTGTC
13	GTGCAATCGCGCCCCGTATATG
14	AGGACCAGGATTAGATTCGACATCAC
15	CCAGAACATCGATATGGATCAAC
16	/phos/TTGAATTTGGGCTGTTAGTGTC[†]
17	/phos/AGATTCGACATCTTCCTCGCTACAATAGCG[†]
18	AATCCTGGTCCTGTGCAATCGCGCC
19	GGAAGAATGGCGAATTTTGA
20	CTCGGGAAAGATCCATTTCA
21	TCGTGACATCAAGGAGAAGCTGTGC
22	TTGACCGTCGGGAAGTTCGTAGGAT
23	TATAAATAGAGGCGTTTCTGTTGTG
24	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGCGATCGCCAAGCCTTCC
25	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGTATAAATAGAGGCGTTTCTGTTGTG
26	CGATCGCCAAGCCTTCC
27	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGTGACACCGCTAAGCCTTCC

1569   [†] /phos/ indicates 5' phosphorylation

1570

1571

1572

1573