Mitochondrial genomes of two parasitic *Cuscuta* species

show little evidence of horizontal gene transfer and

retain unusually fragmented *ccmFC* genes

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Abstract

Background: The intimate association between parasitic plants and their hosts favours the exchange of genetic material, potentially leading to horizontal gene transfer (HGT) between plants. With the recent publication of several parasitic plant nuclear genomes, there has been considerable focus on such non-sexual exchange of genes. To enhance the picture on HGT events in a widely distributed parasitic genus, *Cuscuta* (dodders), we assembled and analyzed the organellar genomes of two recently sequenced species, *C. australis* and *C. campestris*, making this the first account of complete mitochondrial genomes (mitogenomes) for this genus.

Results: The mitogenomes are 265,696 and 275,898 bp in length and contain a typical set of mitochondrial genes, with ten missing or pseudogenized genes often lost from angiosperm

mitogenomes. Each mitogenome also possesses a structurally unusual *ccmFC* gene, which exhibits splitting of one exon and a shift to trans-splicing of its intron. Based on phylogenetic analysis of mitochondrial genes from across angiosperms and similarity-based searches, there is little to no indication of HGT into the *Cuscuta* mitogenomes. A few candidate regions for plastome-to-mitogenome transfer were identified, with one suggestive of possible HGT.

Conclusions: The lack of HGT is surprising given examples from the nuclear genomes, and may be due in part to the relatively small size of our *Cuscuta* mitogenomes, limiting the capacity to integrate foreign sequences.

Key words: chloroplast, dodder, intracellular transfer, mitogenome.

Background

Horizontal gene transfer (HGT) may be broadly defined as the movement of genetic material between species by a means other than normal reproduction (e.g. fusion of gametes). The process has been inferred within and between both prokaryotes [1] and eukaryotes [2], and is now thought to potentially have a role in adaptation, as shown in recent examples from plants [3, 4]. While the concept is sometimes extended to include transfers between cellular compartments (e.g. chloroplast to mitochondrion), we here refer to HGT as exchange of genetic material between organisms and consider it distinct from intracellular transfers.

Mechanisms that facilitate HGT between plants have been postulated to include direct contact via e.g. wounds/grafting [5], parasitic haustoria [6], epiphytic interactions [7] and illegitimate pollination [8]. Indirect routes have also been suggested, such as via soil, bacteria, viruses or endophytic fungi [8]. Early cases of detected HGT in plants [9, 10] were principally found in their mitochondrial genomes (mitogenomes), possibly partly as a result of the greater sequence availability at the time compared to the nuclear genome. Cellular mechanisms such as active DNA uptake [11] and organelle fusion and fission [12, 13] have

been referenced to explain why HGT is more prevalent in the mitogenome, at least

compared with the extensively sequenced chloroplast genome (plastome). While examples

of HGT from nuclear genomes are accumulating, mitogenome examples still remain a

substantial portion of the evidence for HGT in plants.

A group of plants whose lifestyle makes them more likely to experience HGT are

parasites [14, 15], largely because of their close physical interaction with their hosts via

specialised connective organs called haustoria. Parasitic plants rely on other plants for water

and often for a source of carbon, having some degree of photosynthetic ability

(hemiparasites) or having lost it (holoparasites). The altered need for photosynthetic capacity

has impacted the size and gene content of plastomes of many parasitic plants [16, 17].

Parasites in the family Viscaceae also have markedly divergent and reduced gene content in

their mitogenomes [18–20], but such a reduction was not observed in other groups of

parasites [20, 21]. The more common feature associated with parasitic plant mitochondria is

the presence of foreign DNA. An extreme example of incorporated foreign DNA in a

mitogenome is *Lophophytum mirabile* (Balanophoraceae), which is inferred to have acquired

approximately 80% of its genes and 60% of its sequence from its host [22, 23]. Another

example includes members of Rafflesiaceae, for which up to 40% of their mitochondrial

genes are inferred to have been transferred, with many of the putatively transferred genes

shown to be actively transcribed [24].

Parasitic plants in the genus *Cuscuta* are twining stem parasites with reduced/absent

leaves that rely on their host plants for both water and a carbon source obtained via

haustorial connections [25]. Photosynthetic ability is variably retained in the genus, and there

is a diversity of chloroplast structure and plastome gene content [26–30]. The range of

possible host species for *Cuscuta* ranges from narrow to especially broad [25], and the

haustoria that *Cuscuta* plants use to obtain nutrients from their hosts are also capable of

transmitting genetic material in the form of RNA [6] and DNA [4, 31], making *Cuscuta* a

potentially ideal study system for exploring the phenomenon of HGT.

A number of studies have implicated *Cuscuta* species as sources and recipients of

HGT events. Studies of host *Plantago* [32, 33] and *Geranium* [34] species show evidence of

multiple mitochondrial genes likely obtained from *Cuscuta* parasites. Multiple transcriptomic

surveys identified candidate nuclear genes in *Cuscuta* that may have been acquired by HGT

[35–37]. Nuclear genome assemblies coupled with transcriptomic work have also revealed

numerous candidates for HGT in *Cuscuta campestris* [4, 31]. A recent report of an

Agrobacterium gene in three *Cuscuta* species could also represent an HGT from another

plant, though it could have also been acquired directly from the bacterium [38]. To date the

evidence suggests there is active exchange of genetic information between *Cuscuta* and its

hosts, with donations of mitochondrial genes and acquisitions of multiple nuclear genes, but

not yet any indication of imported mitochondrial genetic material.

While nuclear genomes for *Cuscuta australis* [39] and *C. campestris* [31] have been

assembled, our knowledge of the mitogenome in *Cuscuta* is limited to a subset of genes from

Cuscuta gronovii [34]. Given the lack of knowledge about *Cuscuta* mitogenomes and the

expectation that the mitogenome is a prime location to look for HGT, we set out to assemble

and characterise mitogenomes for *Cuscuta australis* and *C. campestris*. The complete

genomes will enable us to assess the evidence for HGT, and secondarily intracellular

transfers between genomic compartments, in *Cuscuta* mitogenomes, and test the unspoken

assumption that examples of HGT in *Cuscuta* should be abundant.

Methods

We downloaded from GenBank portions of previously published datasets from whole

genome sequencing studies of *Cuscuta australis* and *C. campestris* [31, 39]. For *C. australis*,

we downloaded 150 bp paired-end reads from an Illumina 350 bp insert library (SRA

accession SRR5851367; 155 M reads) and PacBio long reads (SRA accessions

SRR5851361–6; 711 k reads). For *C. campestris*, we downloaded 301 bp paired-end reads

from Illumina 800 bp insert libraries (SRA accessions ERR1917169–71; 9.5 M reads) and

PacBio long reads (SRA accessions ERR1910865–7; 490 k reads). Illumina short reads

were evaluated with FastQC [40] before and after read deduplication, adapter and low quality

base trimming, error correction and read merger using Clumpify, BBDuk, BBMerge and

Tadpole in the BBMap package v. 38.08 [41; https://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/]. As part

of initial assembly, long reads were corrected then trimmed using default settings in Canu v.

1.8 [42]. After initial quality control, the datasets consisted of 1 M merged and 122 M

unmerged short reads and 399 k long reads for *C. australis*, and 316 k merged and 7 M

unmerged short reads and 79 k long reads for *C. campestris*.

For transcriptome data of *C. australis* [39], we downloaded 150 bp paired-end reads

for various tissues (SRR6664647–54; 411 M reads). After read deduplication and adapter

and low quality base trimming using Clumpify and BBDuk, 268 M reads were retained with

an average read length of 142 bp (72% of reads were untrimmed).

Organelle genome assemblies

We approached organellar assembly by running separate short and long read *de*

novo assemblies, searching resulting contigs using BLAST v. 2.6.0+ [43–45] for hits to

reference coding sequences (CDS), then using those contigs with hits as targets for further

mapping with BBMap and assembly.

Short read datasets were first filtered using the Kmer Analysis Toolkit (KAT) v. 2.4.2

[46] to select a high coverage subset of reads for easier assembly. Coverage targets were

based on mapping reads to sequences from reference plastome (*Cuscuta exaltata*,

NC_009963) and mitogenome (*Ipomoea nil*, NC_031158) CDS. Based on the mapping, we

chose kmer depth filters of 500–25000 selecting ~35 M reads and 30–2100 selecting ~700 k

reads for *C. australis* and *C. campestris*, respectively. The filtered read sets were assembled using Unicycler v. 0.4.8 [47], which when given only short reads optimizes a SPAdes v. 3.14.0 [48] assembly.

Long read datasets were assembled in Canu v. 1.8 [42] using default settings and with genome size estimates of 280 M and 550 M for *C. australis* and *C. campestris*, respectively. In order to complete one run, we set the stopOnLowCoverage parameter to 0.1 for *C. campestris*.

We examined contigs from the short and long read assemblies in Bandage v. 0.8.1 [49] to identify those with BLAST hits to the reference CDS sequences (*Cuscuta exaltata* and *Ipomoea nil*) and which had similar depths (for distinguishing plastid and mitochondrial contigs). Contigs with hits and identified as putatively plastid or mitochondrial were used as targets for mapping the full sets of short reads to create input datasets for Unicycler. The mapped reads were assembled along with long reads (corrected and trimmed with Canu) in Unicycler, which assembles long reads with miniasm [50] and Racon v. 1.4.3 [51] and uses the assembly to resolve repeats and create bridges in the SPAdes small read assembly graph.

Plastome assemblies were obtained after a single round of Unicycler, producing single circular contigs. In order to complement our assembly approach, we also used NOVOPlasty v. 3.7.2 [52] with the deduplicated and adapter-trimmed (but not error corrected or merged) short read datasets. We used an *rbcL* sequence from *Cuscuta exaltata* as a seed, which NOVOPlasty uses to select an initial matching read and begin iterative extension until it can circularize an assembly. The resulting two options per assembly (different configurations across the inverted repeats) were then compared with BLAST to the assemblies from Unicycler to verify the sequences were identical.

The mitogenome assemblies were more challenging, given the presence of long repeats and linear and circular contigs that in some cases could be joined at multiple

locations. For *C. australis*, a second round of Unicycler was run after extending contigs by up

to 100 kbp using Tadpole (part of the BBMap package) and then mapping short reads again.

Simplifying the assembly graph included removing small contigs that were fully present in a

larger contig or were too short (e.g. <100 bp). We then checked long read contigs from the

initial assembly in Bandage to ensure they were covered by hits from the remaining

assembly. Since there were four linear and four circular contigs, we did not attempt to merge

them into a single contig. For *C. campestris*, the first round of Unicycler produced four circles

along with three small linear contigs (totalling <5 kb), which were either not found in the long

read contigs or had hits to the plastome that were already present in one of the circles. Since

the four circles had shared long repeats, these were examined using long reads to determine

if multiple configurations were present, suggesting the separate contigs are sometimes

contiguous. Long reads were mapped and aligned to extracted repeats with Minimap2 v.

2.14-r883 [50], Samtools v. 1.7 [53] and MAFFT v. 7.310 [54] and using a custom Python

script including 'pysam' (https://github.com/pysam-developers/pysam). When the reads

indicated multiple configurations across the repeat, we manually joined the circles. The

circles all shared repeats that showed multiple configurations, so we were able to merge the

four circles into a single circular contig.

Read mapping and annotation

In order to check the mitogenome assemblies for clear errors, we conservatively

mapped short and long reads then manually compared the resulting BAM files in IGV v. 2.6+

[55]. Short reads were mapped using BBMap with settings pairedonly=t minid=0.9

ambiguous=random maxindel=100 strictmaxindel=t pairlen=1000. Long reads were mapped

using Minimap2 in mode 'map-pb' and filtered with Samtools with option -F 2308, followed by

filtering the resulting BAM file with a custom Python script using 'pysam' to only retain

mappings where reads covered the target for at least 80% of their length. For *C. australis*,

only one location suggested a small (28 bp) sequence that needed to be deleted (absent in

most long reads). For *C. campestris*, one location of a plastome insert needed three single

base pair corrections and a small (9 bp) deletion to match the long reads that spanned the

region rather than the higher depth plastid reads.

Plastomes and mitogenomes were annotated using custom scripts to BLAST

(BLASTN, BLASTX, default search settings) against nucleotide and protein databases built

using reference plastid (14 from 13 genera and 13 families, see Table S1, Additional file 1)

and mitochondrial (172 from 130 genera and 62 families, see Table S2, Additional file 1)

genomes, an approach similar to that used in Mitofy [56]. For mitogenomes, we also used

the references to build protein alignments for constructing a HMMER v. 3.3 [57;

http://hmmer.org] database that we used to search open reading frames (ORFs) found using

ORFfinder v. 0.4.3 (NCBI; https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/orffinder/). Following searches, hits

were examined and adjusted manually, with input from MFAnnot v. 1.35

(https://github.com/BFL-lab/Mfannot) to select intron boundaries. Transfer RNAs were also

detected and checked with tRNAscan-SE 2.0 [58]. Pseudogenes were subjectively annotated

if hits had clear frameshifts and/or internal stop codons, or if they were only fragments of full

length genes (potentially broken due to alternative paths through the assembly).

Dispersed repeats were detected by searching the organellar genomes against

themselves using BLASTN with an E value of 1e-10 and filtering out hits less than 50 bp and

lower than 90% identity. Overlapping hits were then filtered with a custom python script, and

the percentage repeat content calculated. For visualization, the genomes were searched

against themselves using Circoletto [59] with an E value chosen to approximate a 90%

identity threshold (1e-70 and 1e-40 for *C. australis* and *C. campestris*, respectively). As a

proxy for recombinational activity, we used long repeats (>500 bp, >90% identity) and

mapped long reads. Up to 50 long reads that mapped to each repeat were aligned with the

repeat and evaluated manually for whether they showed indications of incongruence on

either side of the repeat. A proportion of the reads showing incongruence was used to

assess recombinational activity. Tandem repeat content was determined using Tandem

Repeat Finder v. 4.09 [60] with recommended settings: 2 7 7 80 10 50 500. Organelle

genome figures were based on output from OGDRAW [61].

To investigate the transcription and splicing of the mitochondrial *ccmFC* gene, we

mapped mRNA reads using BBMap with the setting pairedonly=t against three DNA

sequences manually stitched together and separated by N's from the annotated *ccmFC*

locations in the *C. australis* assembly. We also aligned *ccmFC* DNA sequences from both

Cuscuta species with *ccmFC* genes and CDS from reference mitogenomes using MAFFT to

determine the locations of the exon and intron boundaries. We visualized alignments and

mapping in Jalview v. 2.11.0 [62] and IGV v. 2.8.0 [55]. Intron domains were roughly

determined by iteratively running the Mfold web server [63] using the ccmFci829 from

Nicotiana tabacum (NC_006581). RNA editing sites were predicted with PREP-MT [64] to

compare with those observed in the transcriptomic reads.

To evaluate the notable gene structure of the final portion of *nad1*, we aligned

sequences from *Ipomoea nil*, *C. australis* and *C. campestris* using Mauve v.

snapshot_2015-02-13 [65].

Potential intracellular transfers

To detect the presence of transfers from a plastome to the mitogenome, we first

searched each *Cuscuta* plastome against its corresponding mitogenome using BLASTN with

default parameters. Next, we searched each mitogenome against the plastome of *Ipomoea*

nil (NC_031159) using BLASTN with default parameters, to include a close relative with a

more complete set of plastid genes. We also searched the mitochondrial ORFs against a

HMMER database built with the reference plastomes to detect whether there were intact

portions of plastid genes present and to interpret blast hits. Broader searches used the NCBI

non-redundant nucleotide database (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/).

To determine whether any missing mitochondrial genes were present in the nuclear

genome, and whether there were other transfers between the mitogenome and the nuclear

genome, we conducted BLAST searches of our assemblies and of our reference

mitogenomes against the two published nuclear genomes (*C. australis*: GCA_003260385.1,

C. campestris: PRJEB19879). For assessment of total hit coverage of our assemblies, we

ignored hits <250 bp and with <80% identity. For searches for missing genes, we ignored hits

with <50% identity.

Horizontal gene transfer

We investigated HGT using a phylogenetic approach, in which we built phylogenetic

trees for each mitochondrial gene present in *Cuscuta* (as well as one based on all genes

concatenated) and examined whether *Cuscuta* sequences were supported as grouping with

their close relatives (particularly *Ipomoea nil*) or with more distantly related plants. Using

reference mitogenomes (see Table S2, Additional file 1) and our *Cuscuta* assemblies along

with data from *C. gronovii* (GenBank accessions KP940494–514), we extracted all CDS

protein translations and corresponding nucleotide sequences, as well as nucleotide

sequences for ribosomal RNAs. We removed some sequences in cases of high divergence

(e.g. for *Viscum scurruloideum*) and when alignments suggested problematic annotations,

and in some cases we had to reverse complement ribosomal RNA sequences. For each

gene, we created protein alignments with ClustalOmega v. 1.2.4 [66] using default settings.

We then converted the protein alignments back to nucleotide alignments with PAL2NAL v. 14

[67] using default settings. For ribosomal RNA sequences, we aligned with MAFFT v. 7.310

using options --localpair and --maxiterate 1000. For each alignment we used a custom

python script to eliminate positions with >50% missing data, then ran RAxML v. 8.2.12 [68]

with rapid bootstrapping and a search for best tree in a single run, opting for 1000 bootstrap

replicates under the GTRGAMMA model. Finally, we plotted the resulting trees using R

package ape [69], rooting them on non-angiosperm seed plants, and manually examined

whether *Cuscuta* sequences grouped together, with their close relative *Ipomoea nil*, and

among lamiids or whether they grouped elsewhere with bootstrap support >80%.

To explore intergenic sequences, we searched our reference mitogenomes against

our *Cuscuta* assemblies using BLASTN with default parameters, removing hits <250 bp and

with <80% identity. Using custom scripts we filtered blast hits so that only the top identity hit

and those within 2% identity were retained for a given position along the assembly. We

plotted hits using the R package Sushi v. 1.26.0 [70]. We then manually examined hits in

intergenic regions, looking for where the top hits were not from Solanales and evaluating

whether the hits were suggestive of longer, potentially transferred tracts.

In cases of possibly chimeric gene sequences based on top blast hits, we assessed

evidence for conversion using GENECONV v. 1.81 [71].

Results

Organelle genomes

The plastomes were assembled as single circular molecules having typical

quadripartite structure with two inverted repeats separating small and large single copy

regions (see Figs. S1 and S2, Additional file 2). The plastomes are 85,263 and 86,749 bp,

with GC contents of 37.8 and 37.7% for *C. australis* and *C. campestris*, respectively. Beyond

the inverted repeats (14,070 and 14,348 bp in *C. australis* and *C. campestris*, respectively),

there are no dispersed repeats longer than 50 bp and with identity >90%. Tandem repeats

make up approximately 0.2 and 0.4% of the plastomes of *C. australis* and *C. campestris*,

respectively. Similar to other reduced plastomes of *Cuscuta* species such as *C. gronovii* [28]

and *C. obtusiflora* [27], the plastomes are missing all *ndh* genes (a pseudogenized copy of

ndhB is present in *C. campestris*), *infA*, *matK*, *psaI*, all *rpo* genes, *rpl23*, *rpl32*, and *rps16*.

Missing tRNAs include *trnA*-UGC, *trnG*-UCC, *trnI*-GAU, *trnK*-UUU, *trnR*-ACG, and *trnV*-UAC.

The mitogenomes were assembled as 265,696 and 275,898 bp, with GC contents of

44.0 and 44.3% for *C. australis* and *C. campestris*, respectively (Fig. 1). Dispersed repeats

(see Fig. S3, Additional file 2) comprise approximately 21.8 and 34.1% while tandem repeats

make up approximately 5.0 and 2.5% of the mitogenomes of *C. australis* and *C. campestris*,

respectively. Recombinational activity as assessed with long repeats varied from 10–48%

(average = 29%, n=6) and 33–47% (average = 41%, n=10) for *C. australis* and *C.*

campestris, respectively. For each mitogenome, we annotated 31 protein-coding genes, 3

ribosomal rRNA genes, and 19 tRNAs (some in multiple copies; Table 1). Compared to *C.*

australis, *C. campestris* has an extra *trnQ*-UUG of plastome origin (within a possibly

transferred region), but is missing *trnT*-UGU. Common missing or pseudogenized genes for

both genomes include *sdh3* and *sdh4*, *rpl2* and *rpl10*, and six *rps* genes (*rps2, 7, 10, 11, 14,*

19). Some extra fragments of already present genes broken up by possible alternative paths

through the assembly include *atp1* and *cox1* for both species, and *atp6*, *rps12* and *rps3* for

C. campestris.

Table 1. Gene presence in the mitogenomes of *Cuscuta australis*, *C. campestris* and their close relative *Ipomoea nil*.

Gene	C. australis	C. campestris	Ipomoea nil	Gene	C. australis	C. campestris	Ipomoea nil
atp1	Y	Y	Y	rps10	-	-	Y
atp4	Y	Y	Y	rps11	-	-	-
atp6	Y	Y	Y	rps12	Y	Y	Y
atp8	Y	Y	Y	rps13	Y	Y	Y
atp9	Y	Y	Y	rps14	pseudo	pseudo	Y
ccmB	Y	Y	Y	rps19	pseudo	pseudo	Y
ccmC	Y	Y	Y	sdh3	-	-	-
ccmFC	Y	Y	pseudo	sdh4	pseudo	pseudo	Y
ccmFN	Y	Y	Y	rrn5	Y	Y	Y
cob	Y	Y	Y	rrn18	Y	Y	Y
cox1	Y	Y	Y	rrn26	Y	Y	Y
cox2	Y	Y	Y	trnC-GCA	Y	Y	Y
cox3	Y	Y	Y	trnD-GUC	Y	Y	Y
matR	Y	Y	Y	trnE-UUC	Y	Y	Y
mttB	Y	Y	pseudo	trnF-GAA	Y	Y	Y
nad1	Y	Y	Y	trnG-GCC	Y	Y	Y
nad2	Y	Y	Y	trnH-GUG	Y	Y	Y
nad3	Y	Y	Y	trnI-CAU	Y	Y	Y
nad4	Y	Y	Y	trnK-UUU	Y	Y	Y
nad4L	Y	Y	Y	trnM-CAU	Y	Y	Y
nad5	Y	Y	Y	trnM-CAU-cp	Y	Y	-
nad6	Y	Y	Y	trnfM-CAU	Y	Y	Y
nad7	Y	Y	Y	trnN-GUU	Y	Y	Y
nad9	Y	Y	Y	trnP-UGG	Y	Y	Y
rpl2	-	-	-	trnQ-UUG	Y	Y	Y
rpl5	Y	Y	Y	trnQ-UUG-cp	-	Y	-
rpl10	-	-	Y	trnS-GGA	-	-	Y
rpl16	Y	Y	Y	trnS-GCU	Y	Y	Y
rps1	Y	Y	Y	trnS-UGA	Y	Y	Y
rps2	-	-	-	trnT-UGU	Y	-	Y
rps3	Y	Y	Y	trnW-CCA	Y	Y	Y
rps4	Y	Y	Y	trnY-GUA	Y	Y	Y
rps7	-	-	-				

Table showing gene presence, where present genes are indicated with a 'Y', while absent genes are shown with a dash. Pseudogenes are indicated with 'pseudo'.

The *ccmFC* gene was problematic to annotate in both species (annotated as a

pseudogene in *C. gronovii* and *Ipomoea nil*) and may not be properly transcribed, as it

appears to be both trans-spliced and missing a portion of the first exon. Based on alignments

with other angiosperms, including the inton-less *Platycodon grandiflorus* (NC_035958), it

appears that the *ccmFC* gene is split across three locations in both of the *Cuscuta*

mitogenomes (Fig. 2a). A large portion of exon 1 is separated from the 3' end of exon 1 and

most of the group II intron. The remainder of the intron plus exon 2 are in a third location.

Mapping mRNA reads resulted in low coverage of the *ccmFC* gene, but provided some

support (four read pairs) for successful trans-splicing of the 3' end of exon 1 and exon 2 (see

Fig. 2a). There was no indication of an mRNA product that included both portions of exon 1,

however, making it unclear whether the majority of exon 1 is actually translated into part of a

functional product. PREP-MT predicted 14 editing sites, three of which didn't have

transcriptome support, and missed four sites that appeared to be RNA edited based on

transcriptome read mapping (see Fig. S4, Additional file 2).

Another odd gene structure found in both *Cuscuta* species is the final portion of *nad1*,

namely exon 4, *matR* and exon 5 (see Fig. 2b). In our two *Cuscuta* assemblies, exon 5 is

found in the reverse orientation on the opposite strand, while exon 4 is located on the same

strand as *matR*. This may indicate nad1i728 has shifted to trans-splicing (as seen in some

other angiosperms, e.g. *Nicotiana tabacum*, NC_006581.1), but if that is the case, it seems

odd that exon 5 is in such close proximity to the rest of the intron and exon 4.

Potential intracellular transfers

Using the respective plastome of each *Cuscuta* species and that of *Ipomoea nil* as

BLAST queries, we plotted plastid hits on the mitogenome assemblies (see Fig. 1). Excluding

hits that occurred in the ribosomal genes or *atp1*, which are similar to plastid ribosomal

genes and *atpA*, we found 6 regions with hits (3 in each species), representing approximately

0.4 and 0.9% of the mitogenomes of *C. australis* and *C. campestris*, respectively (Table 2).

Table 2. Results of BLASTN searches of *Cuscuta* mitogenomes using queries of *Cuscuta*

and *Ipomoea* plastomes.

Species	Hit length (bp)	Hit coords (contig)	% ID	HMMER hit	HMMER coords (contig)	NCBI megablast
C. australis	288	17586..17873 (2)	64	*psbB*	17868..17641 (2)	*C. gronovii* (mitogenome); Malpighiales
	138	17432..17569 (2)	93		17580..17374 (2)	Myrtales; Cucurbitales; Malpighiales
C. australis	255	15995..16249 (2)	92	*ndhB*	16251..15917 (2)	Geraniales; Gentianales; others
	210	15698..15907 (2)	72			Celastrales; Rosales; others
C. australis	146	84001..84146 (1)	76	-	-	*Ipomoea* spp.
C. campestris	120	143582..143701	72	*psbB*	143587..143760	*C. gronovii* (mitogenome); Malpighiales
	76	143723..143798	67			*C. gronovii* (mitogenome)
	138	143823..143960	93		143812..143970	Cucurbitales; Malpighiales; Myrtales
C. campestris	343	144976..145318	80	*ndhB*	144886..144963	Gentianales; Geraniales; others
	219	145328..145546	75		144974..145377	Rosales; Celastrales; others
C. campestris	1616	61212..62827	93–95	*psbA*	61904..62623 62636..62826	*Cuscuta* spp.

Table showing locations of hits in the BLAST and HMMER searches. NCBI megablast results

are indicated for top scoring results, sometimes by order for simplicity, with multiple results

shown when top hits were not clearly better.

Both species share two regions corresponding to HMMER hits to plastid genes *psbB*

and *ndhB*. Examining the regions using megablast searches of the NCBI non-redundant

nucleotide database indicated top hits to orders outside Solanales. The *psbB* hit region was

also detected in *C. gronovii* mitogenome sequences (KP940494). In the case of the *ndhB*

hits, multiple orders were represented in the top hits, making it difficult to determine the best

candidate order for a possible foreign transfer. In both *Cuscuta* species, the *psbB* and *ndhB*

hit regions are within 2 kb of each other, possibly indicating a larger transferred region.

The third region found in *C. australis* is a hit to the *Ipomoea* plastome with no clear

HMMER hits. Searching NCBI also gave top hits to *Ipomoea*. The third region found in *C.*

campestris corresponds to HMMER *psbA* hits, though the region has a frameshift and does

not represent a full-length gene ORF. Searches of NCBI gave top hits to *Cuscuta* plastomes.

The region also includes a *trnQ*-UUG of plastid origin, which is co-located near *psbA* in the

C. campestris plastome.

Searches of the nuclear genomes produced markedly different results for the two

Cuscuta species. In *C. australis*, the ~260 Mbp assembly hit our mitochondrial assembly for

cumulatively ~27% of its length, but in *C. campestris*, the ~477 Mbp assembly hit our

mitochondrial assembly for ~99.8% of its length or essentially the entire assembly. Four of

the scaffolds in the *C. campestris* assembly are essentially entirely mitochondrial, and four

more are > 70% mitochondrial. These scaffolds could tentatively indicate recent large-scale

integration of mitochondrial sequences into the nuclear genome, but could also be simple

assembly artifacts since mitochondrial contaminations are difficult to identify.

Potential candidates for missing mitochondrial genes were identified in both nuclear

genomes for *rps2*, *rps10*, *rps11*, *rps14*, *rps19*, *sdh3* and *sdh4*. All the candidates had intact

open reading frames except for *sdh3*, which had no determined start codon. BLAST

searches of NCBI mostly gave top hits to the same mitochondrial genes (or a nuclear copy),

and mostly to *Ipomoea* species, though *rps10* and *rps19* had top hits to Amaranthaceae, and

sdh4 to Fabaceae. Phylogenetic analysis of the candidates with copies from our reference

mitogenomes consistently put the nuclear copies on long branches and with low support for

group placement (see Fig. S5, Additional file 3), making the origin of the sequences unclear.

Searching for indications of mitochondrial targeting sequences with Predotar v. 1.04 [72]

indicated possible mitochondrial targeting (p 0.21–0.44) for *rps10*, *rps14*, *rps19* and *sdh3* (if

an 'M' is added in place of the undetermined start codon).

Horizontal gene transfer

Phylogenetic analysis of the concatenation of all mitochondrial genes strongly

supports the grouping of *Cuscuta* within Solanales (Fig. 3). Based on the individual gene

trees with sampling across seed plants, the majority of genes (26/34, 76%) in the three

Cuscuta species are strongly supported (>80% bootstrap support) as grouping together and

sister to their close autotrophic relative *Ipomoea nil*, a pattern consistent with vertical rather

than horizontal inheritance (see Fig. S6, Additional file 4). Exceptions to this pattern are *atp9*

(64% sister to *Ipomoea*), *cox2* (74%), *nad3* (unsupported), *nad4L* (not sister to *Ipomoea*, but

88% support together with *Ipomoea* in Solanales), *rpl16* (74%), *rps1* (76%), *rps12*

(unsupported), and *rrn5* (unresolved) (note that *ccmFC* and *rrn5* from *C. gronovii* were not

included). In the cases with no support for a sister relationship with *Ipomoea*, there is no

strong support for a grouping elsewhere, as would be expected for HGT.

Intergenic sequences generally lacked clear evidence of longer (>500 bp) contiguous

groups of hits to single orders outside Solanales (see Figs. S7 and S8, Additional file 5).

Some exceptions could be identified, including hits to Asterales, Caryophyllales, Fabales,

Gentianales, Lamiales and Vitales, totalling approximately 5.9 and 3.9% of the mitogenomes

of *C. australis* and *C. campestris*, respectively. Top hits (by 2% identity) covering *cox3*, *nad4L*

and *rps13* were not to Solanales, though phylogenetic evidence indicates *cox3* and *nad4L*

group there, and *rps13* is associated with *Ipomoea nil*.

In portions of some genes there were indications that blast hits to other orders were

higher than to Solanales (*cox2* exon 1, *nad4* exon 3, and *nad5* exon 5), so we ran

GENECONV to detect possible conversion. In two cases there were some sequences

showing significant ($P < 0.05$) signal of conversion (4 sequences for *cox2* and 2 for *nad5*),

but not involving the *Cuscuta* sequences. For *nad4*, there were many significant

comparisons, but all but one involved *Vicia faba* (KC189947), suggesting it may have

undergone gene conversion, consistent with its long branch in the phylogenetic tree. There

was no significant indication that the *Cuscuta* sequences were chimeric.

Discussion

Recently sequenced genomes of parasitic *Cuscuta* species revealed extensive HGT

events into their nuclear genomes from a broad range of non-parasitic angiosperms that

serve as their hosts. It was a reasonable expectation that there would be high transfer

activity of genetic material into the mitogenomes of these parasites as well. The organellar

genomes of the two *Cuscuta* species that we have assembled and annotated here, however,

are not clearly different in gene content from other *Cuscuta* plastomes or typical angiosperm

mitogenomes. Based on phylogenetic analysis, we found little evidence for HGT into the

mitogenomes of the two species, an unexpected result given the parasitic lifestyle of *Cuscuta*

and evidence for HGT candidates in their nuclear genomes. In the process of examining the

mitogenomes, we also identified a novel structure of the *ccmFC* gene in *Ipomoea* and

Cuscuta, indicative of a shift to trans-splicing of the group II intron and possibly a shorter

product.

Gene losses and possible intracellular transfers

All of the ten genes missing from the two *Cuscuta* mitogenomes are commonly found

to be lost during angiosperm evolution [73, 74]. That *rps2* and *rps11* are missing is consistent

with the inference of their ancient losses in angiosperms [73]. For seven of the ten missing or

pseudogenized genes, potential candidates for nuclear copies were found. Transfers of

mitochondrial genes to the nucleus have been inferred to be numerous across plant

evolution and seem to be the primary mode of functional gene loss from the mitogenome

[75]. Whether the gene products from our nuclear candidates are functional or imported into the mitochondrion is uncertain, but tests for targeting sequences suggested some of them might be targeted to the mitochondrion. The nuclear candidates are on longer branches in phylogenetic trees, suggesting higher substitution rates. This is consistent with observations of higher substitution rates in the nuclear genome compared to the mitogenome [76], and of higher rates in nuclear copies of genes transferred from the mitogenome compared to the mitogenome copies [77].

The three missing mitochondrial genes not detected in the nuclear genomes are *rpl2*, *rpl10* and *rps7*. Losses of *rpl2* and *rps7* are frequent among angiosperms, but only for *rpl2* are losses commonly associated with functional transfers to the nucleus [34, 73, 78, 79]. Losses of *rpl10* are less common and have been associated with functional replacement by a duplicated nuclear gene normally encoding chloroplast RPL10 in some monocot and Brassicaceae lineages [74, 80, 81]. Searching ORFs from both nuclear genomes for possible copies of RPL10 suggested the presence of one (*C. australis*) or two (*C. campestris*) genes more similar to one of the copies from *Arabidopsis* (NP_196855) than to the other (NP_187843). Our search suggests there is only the chloroplast RPL10 present and not a duplicate targeted to the mitochondrion.

Plastid transfers appear to be limited in the mitogenomes, with only a single 1.6 kb hit in *C. campestris* having high similarity to its plastome. The other main candidate regions included hits to *psbB* and *ndhB*, but based on BLAST searches appear to be more similar to regions in distantly related plants. The BLAST results are inconclusive as to the origin of the region, but it could represent a horizontal transfer, possibly via an intracellular plastome transfer to the donor's mitogenome and then a plant to plant transfer between mitogenomes, a common route for plastome to mitogenome HGT [82]. The close association of the *psbB* and *ndhB* hits suggest transfer of a larger contiguous block of DNA. Given *ndhB* is lacking from our *Cuscuta* plastomes (a pseudogene fragment in *C. campestris*), and given the two

435 genes are not closely associated in the plastomes of *C. campestris* nor *Ipomoea*, it is unlikely

436 the fragment is derived from an ancient *Cuscuta* intracellular plastome-to-mitogenome

437 transfer. If it is instead HGT, then it may have come from a species with close association of

438 those two genes in its plastome, or by two separate transfers from a plastome to close

439 proximity in a mitogenome, then a single transfer from that mitogenome to *Cuscuta*.

Lack of horizontal gene transfer

Phylogenetic evidence for HGT in our *Cuscuta* mitogenome assemblies is lacking,

with only a few genes having <80% bootstrap support for a close relationship to *Ipomoea nil*,

and those exceptions also with negligible support for alternative relationships. BLAST-based

assessment of intergenic sequences did uncover a few longer candidates for possible HGT,

but it is unclear how reliable the similarity search is for uncovering the origin of those

sequences. Given the dynamic nature of mitogenome size and structure in angiosperms

[83–86], our limited sampling of lineages may not include more similar sequences from more

closely related plants. The HGT candidates also lack embedded genes for the most part,

making it difficult to determine homology and to further support an origin. In cases where

BLAST hits to another order cover genes (*cox3*, *nad4L*, *rps13*), phylogenetic analysis of the

genes generally contradicts the BLAST-based assignment. The aforementioned presence of

sequences of chloroplast origin similar to regions in distantly related plants may also indicate

that some HGT has occurred, possibly earlier in the evolution of *Cuscuta* given the region is

shared by all the *Cuscuta* sequences we examined.

Why the mitogenomes lack clear evidence of HGT is unclear, given it is prevalent in

the nuclear genome of *Cuscuta*. One possible explanation may be related to the size of the

mitogenomes we have assembled, which are on the low side for angiosperms. Based on our

reference set of mitogenomes (with 168 angiosperms), the average size of the angiosperm

mitogenomes is roughly 670 kb, while our assemblies are less than half that. Given there has

been a correspondence observed between mitogenome size and the amount of incorporated plastid transfers [82] and that plant mitochondrial genomes appear to have relaxed restriction on the size of intergenic spacers [e.g. 87], it may be that larger mitogenomes with longer intergenic regions allow for the incorporation of more foreign DNA. Conversely, the smaller mitogenomes in *Cuscuta* may experience more restriction on what can be successfully incorporated.

It is unclear why there has not been an extensive expansion of intergenic material in *Cuscuta* or *Ipomoea* for that matter (265,768 bp). The wide range of sizes of angiosperm mitogenomes are difficult to explain, but recombination rates have been put forward as one potential factor, albeit a complex one [86]. In a study of the massive differences in size amongst *Silene* mitogenomes, Sloan et al. [86] found that the larger mitogenomes experienced lower recombinational activity (<20%) and had more divergent repeats, suggesting reduced gene conversion. Our assembled mitogenomes had relatively high recombinational activity across longer repeat sequences as assessed with long reads (often >20% and >40% for *C. australis* and *C. campestris*, respectively), though with small sample sizes. The difficulty in assembling the mitogenomes and the multiple potential paths through the assemblies are also consistent with multiple conformations across highly similar or identical repeats, possibly indicating ongoing recombination and conversion.

Curious structure of *ccmFC* and its trans-splicing intron

Both *Cuscuta* species and their close autotrophic relative *Ipomoea nil* appear to share a different structure of their *ccmFC* genes than other plants. In all three cases, the first exon is split into two pieces, and the same has happened for the group II intron, making trans-splicing of the intron necessary in order to join the now remotely located parts of the gene. In angiosperm mitogenomes, most introns are group II introns (having six domains) and require multiple protein factors, including some encoded in the nuclear genome, for

proper splicing [88]. While the exact mechanism of trans-splicing for group II introns and the splicing factors required remain unclear, this type of splicing has been observed in a number of other angiosperm mitochondrial genes, namely *nad1*, *nad2* and *nad5* [89] and *cox2* [90]. Typically, the break point for the two pieces of the intron that are trans-spliced is in domain IV [89, 91], which is where the intron is broken in *Cuscuta* and *Ipomoea*. The evidence presented here, namely the mRNA reads that indicate a product joined from two disparate locations in the genome and the break in domain IV, suggests this is the fifth such example of a gene with a group II intron that has shifted to trans-splicing.

Angiosperm *ccmFC* genes examined so far typically have intact rather than broken group II introns. For splicing of the intact intron, an essential nuclear-encoded splicing factor, WTF9, has been identified which shares an RNA-binding domain with another factor involved in intron splicing in plastids [92]. In examining the role of WTF9, des Francs-Small et al. [92] also elucidated the role of *ccmFC* in cytochrome biogenesis, showing that proper splicing of the intron for the formation of a complete protein was essential to the generation of cytochromes c and c_1 in *Arabidopsis*. In addition, splicing-impaired mutants had higher levels of alternative oxidase, suggesting problems with the respiratory chain [92]. It appears that being able to produce a fully intact *ccmFC* product is important for respiratory function, which makes the break in the first exon in *Cuscuta* and *Ipomoea* puzzling. While there is evidence that the intron is trans-spliced and connects the 3' portion of exon 1 with exon 2, there is no indication that the larger 5' portion of exon 1 is connected for translation into the final product. Transcriptomic reads show RNA editing in all parts of the gene (see Fig. 2a and Fig. S4, Additional file 2), similar to predictions from PREP-MT, but whether this indicates an intact product is unclear. Normally, the full *ccmFC* product is thought to be integrated into a larger complex potentially involved in heme ligation [93]. The functionality of at least part of the *ccmFC* gene would be consistent with its conservation in both *Ipomoea* and *Cuscuta*, but the longer branch lengths relative to other members of Solanales (see Fig. S6b, Additional file 4)

may suggest some relaxation of selection. Gene loci coding for homologs of the WTF9

splicing factor are present in *C. campestris* and *C. australis* (data not shown), excluding this

as a reason for the switch. How *Cuscuta* and *Ipomoea* are able to function effectively with

their *ccmFC* structure is unclear, and additional work would be helpful to characterise and

evaluate the *ccmFC* protein products in this group of plants.

While our assembly approach is not guaranteed to have captured the entirety of the

mitogenomes (for instance, our *Cuscuta australis* assembly consists of multiple contigs, and

our *C. campestris* assembly was circularized from multiple smaller circular contigs), our

search approach makes it unlikely that any missing sequences would carry substantially

different phylogenetic signals of HGT than the bulk of our assemblies or that they would

harbour intact foreign genes or a contiguous copy of *ccmFC*. Alternative structural

arrangement of our contigs and construction of our assemblies are also unlikely to affect our

conclusions on HGT, but could have some impact on how we have interpreted the structure

of *ccmFC*. The lack of mRNA support for a fully intact *ccmFC* product, however, supports our

assembly and interpretation of a fragmented gene structure.

Conclusions

Our search of the assembled mitogenomes of *Cuscuta australis* and *C. campestris*

revealed little to no indication of HGT, contrary to our expectations based on examples from

their nuclear genomes. This finding suggests that elevated rates of HGT into mitogenomes,

where the bulk of examples from parasitic plants have been found to date, is not always the

case. The observed amount of HGT appears to also be influenced by species-specific factors

such as mitogenome size and recombination frequency that allow for any DNA uptake to be

retained.

Additional files

Additional files

Additional file 1: supplementary Tables S1 and S2. (pdf)

Additional file 2: supplementary Figs. S1–S4. (pdf)

Additional file 3: supplementary Fig. S5. (pdf)

Additional file 4: supplementary Fig. S6. (pdf)

Additional file 5: supplementary Figs. S7 and S8. (pdf)

Additional file 6: fasta alignment files for phylogenetic analyses. (zip)

Abbreviations

541 **Abbreviations**

542   CDS: coding sequence; HGT: horizontal gene transfer; ORF: open reading frame.

Availability of data and materials

543 **Availability of data and materials**

544   Organelle genomes have been submitted to GenBank and are awaiting accession

545 numbers.

546   Sequence alignments used in phylogenetic analysis are included as Additional file 6.

Competing interests

547 **Competing interests**

548   The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Funding

Funding

B. Anderson and G. Petersen were supported by the Department of Ecology,

Environment and Plant Sciences, Stockholm University. Some assemblies and analyses

were performed on computing resources provided by the Swedish National Infrastructure for

Computing (SNIC) through Uppsala Multidisciplinary Center for Advanced Computational

Science (UPPMAX) under Project SNIC 2018/8-336. K. Krause was supported by a grant

from the Tromsø Research Foundation [grant number 16-TF-KK].

Authors' contributions

557   BMA and GP conceived and designed the study. KK provided access to genomic

558 data. BMA conducted bioinformatic assembly and analysis. BMA drafted the manuscript. All

559 authors contributed to critically revising the manuscript. All authors read and approved the

560 final version.

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Figures

Fig. 1. Linear representations of mitogenomes of *Cuscuta australis* and *C. campestris*. The assembly of *C. australis* consists of eight contigs (divided by gaps), while that of *C. campestris* is represented as a single circle. Pseudogenes are indicated with a capital psi (Ψ).

Cuscuta australis

265,696 bp

Cuscuta campestris

275,898 bp

Fig. 2. Notable structures for two mitochondrial genes in *Cuscuta*. (**a**) Schematic of the

ccmFC gene structure in angiosperms, and mapped mRNA reads to three DNA sequences

from *Cuscuta australis*. Group II intron domains are denoted with Roman numerals. Break

points are indicated with jagged symbols. Solid lines indicate connected sequences (no gap).

Dashed lines indicate intervening sequences. *Platycodon grandiflorus* does not have an

intron in its *ccmFC* gene. *The third domain in *Cuscuta* may not fold properly given its

sequence divergence. (**b**) Mauve alignment of the third portion of *nad1* (exon 4, *matR*, exon

5) for *Ipomoea nil*, *Cuscuta australis* and *Cuscuta campestris*. Coloured regions (red and

green) correspond to locally collinear blocks determined by Mauve. Shaded boxes with

labels show annotations, while arrows indicate the inferred direction of transcription.

Fig. 3. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree based on concatenation of all mitochondrial

genes present in *Cuscuta* together with representatives from angiosperm orders with fully

assembled mitogenomes. Orders are shaded, along with the outgroup gymnosperms, and

the location of *Cuscuta* is circled in yellow. Two asterisked branches in Fabales are (top to

bottom) a likely misidentified/contaminated *Bupleurum falcatum* (NC_035962.1) and

Lophophytum mirabile, with multiple horizontally transferred genes. Bootstrap support >60%

is shown above branches. The scale bar shows mean nucleotide substitutions per site.

Fabales

Cucurbitales

Rosales

Brassicales

Malvales

Sapindales

Malpighiales

Myrtales

Solanales

Cuscuta

Gentianales

Lamiales

Aquifoliales

Asterales

Apiales

Ericales

Caryophyllales

Saxifragales

Geraniales

Vitales

Proteales

Magnoliales

Poales

Arecales

Asparagales

Alismatales

Austrobaileyales

Amborellales

Nymphaeales

Gymnosperms

0.03