1 ***Trans*-species microRNA loci in the parasitic plant *Cuscuta campestris* have a U6-like**
2 **snRNA promoter**
3

4 Collin Hudzik[1,2], Sean Maguire[3], Shengxi Guan[3], Jeremy Held[2,4], and Michael J. Axtell[1,2]
5
6 1. Department of Biology, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA, 16802, USA
7
8 2. Huck Institutes of the Life Sciences, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA,
9 16802, USA
10
11 3. New England Biolabs, Inc., 240 County Road, Ipswich, MA 01938, USA
12
13 4. Department of Plant Pathology and Environmental Microbiology, The Pennsylvania State
14 University, University Park, PA, 16802, USA
15
16 Corresponding Author: Michael J. Axtell, mja18@psu.edu

17
18
Abstract

Small regulatory RNAs can move between organisms during pathogenic interactions and
regulate gene expression in the recipient. If and how such "*trans*-species" small RNAs are
distinguished from normal small RNAs is not known. *Trans*-species microRNAs from the
parasitic plant *Cuscuta campestris* are known to specifically accumulate at the haustorium, the
organ that invades host plant stems. We find that haustorial accumulation of *trans*-species
microRNAs has no host specificity, and can be replicated in haustoria stimulated to develop in
the complete absence of a host. We also find that the loci encoding *C. campestris trans*-species
microRNAs are distinguished by a common 10 base-pair *cis*-regulatory element. This element is
identical to a previously described upstream sequence element used by all plant small nuclear
RNA loci. The sequence context of this element strongly suggests U6-like transcription by RNA
polymerase III. The element promotes accumulation of *trans*-species miRNAs in a heterologous
system. This common promoter element distinguishes *C. campestris trans*-species microRNA
loci from other plant small RNAs; other plant small RNA loci are transcribed by polymerases II
or IV, and lack any common promoter motifs. Our data suggest that *C. campestris trans*-species
miRNAs are produced in a manner distinct from canonical miRNAs. This distinct production may
allow them to be exported to hosts.

36
Significance statement
Pathogens and parasites often manipulate their host's physiology and immune responses. One
manipulation method is delivery of small regulatory RNAs into the host. The small RNAs target
specific host messenger RNAs for degradation. There are numerous examples of such "*trans*-
species" small RNAs, but little has been known about their genetic regulation. This study
identifies a common promoter motif unique to the *trans*-species small RNA genes in the
parasitic plant *Cuscuta campestris* (field dodder). This shows that the *trans*-species miRNAs are
a distinct type of small RNA with a common transcriptional program. Targeting this common
element may be a way to increase host resistance to *C. campestris*.
46
Introduction
Small regulatory RNAs are 21 to 24 nucleotide RNAs which play an important role as regulators
of gene expression. Plants produce at least three distinct classes of small RNAs. MicroRNAs
(miRNAs) are usually 21-22 nucleotides in length and derived from single-stranded stem-loop
precursors (Chen, 2005; Axtell, 2013). MiRNAs usually regulate specific target mRNAs post-

transcriptionally. Canonical plant miRNAs are processed from longer primary transcripts.
Canonical plant miRNA precursors in *Arabidopsis thaliana* are transcribed by RNA polymerase
II, have variable lengths, and besides a TATA box (Xie et al., 2005) lack any common *cis*
regulatory elements. There are also two distinct types of short interfering RNAs (siRNAs), both
of which originate from double-stranded RNA precursors. Shorter siRNAs are 21-22 nucleotides
long, and function outside of the nucleus in post-transcriptional silencing of endogenous
mRNAs, aberrant RNAs, and viral RNA (Fei et al., 2013). Longer siRNAs are mostly 24
nucleotides long and function in the nucleus to direct *de novo* DNA methylation to transposons
and other non-genic sequences (Matzke and Mosher, 2014). *Trans*-species small RNAs,
defined as small RNAs that naturally move from one organism to another, play important roles
in plant-pathogen interactions by targeting mRNAs in the recipient organism (Huang et al.,
2019; Hudzik et al., 2020). Most experimentally verified cases involve miRNAs (Zhang et al.,
2016; Shahid et al., 2018) or 21-22 nucleotide siRNAs (Weiberg et al., 2013; Cai et al., 2018;
Hou et al., 2019).

Cuscuta campestris is an obligate parasitic plant which uses a specialized organ called the
haustorium to pierce the host stem and fuse with the vasculature to feed (Heide-Jørgensen,
2008). The haustorium facilitates bidirectional movement of photosynthates and
macromolecules between the host and parasite (Birschwilks et al., 2006; Roney et al., 2007;
David-Schwartz et al., 2008; Kim and Westwood, 2015). Haustorium organogenesis is divided
into the adhesive, intrusive, and conductive phases (Shimizu and Aoki, 2019). During the
adhesive phase, cortical cells from the parasite stem begin to differentiate and divide to form the
endophyte primordia. Digitate cells from the endophyte primordia eventually extend through
and invade the host stem, marking the transition into the intrusive phase. Digitate cells, now
referred to as searching hyphae, continue to extend and move in-between cortical cells to
identify the host's vasculature (Vaughn, 2003). Searching hyphae will differentiate into xylic or
phloic hyphae once in contact with the respective vasculature. Haustoria have fully matured
and reached the conductive phase once differentiated hyphae begin to actively receive nutrients
from the host (Vaughn, 2006).

C. campestris produces a set of miRNAs specifically at the interface between the host and
parasite (Shahid et al., 2018; Johnson et al., 2019), some of which can move long distances in
the host plant (Subhankar et al., 2021). Several interface-induced miRNAs from *C. campestris*
have been experimentally demonstrated to target and regulate host mRNAs, and thus act in a
trans-species manner. Host mRNAs involved in biotic defense, hormone signaling, and vascular
development are targeted (Shahid et al., 2018; Johnson et al., 2019). A subset of the interface-
induced, *trans*-species miRNAs are 22 nucleotides long, which allows for production host-
derived secondary siRNAs to accumulate during parasitism (Chen et al., 2010; Cuperus et al.,
2010). Analysis of interface-induced miRNA diversity within and between *Cucuta* species
provides clear evidence that several miRNA-target relationships have been under selection
(Johnson et al., 2019). When *C. campestris* is grown on a host plants with a non-functional
copy of certain targets parasite biomass increases significantly (Shahid et al., 2018). Thus we
hypothesize that *C. campestris* uses interface-induced miRNAs to manipulate host gene
expression to increase parasite fitness. We use the term "interface-induced miRNAs" to refer to
all such differentially expressed miRNAs because not all of them have been directly proven to
target host mRNAs.
96
97 In this study we examine the regulation of *C. campestris* interface-induced miRNAs with respect
98 to haustorial development and host identity. We also analyze *cis*-regulatory features found at
99 the loci encoding *C. campestris* interface-induced miRNAs.
100

Results
Improved annotation of interface-induced *MIRNA* loci from *C. campestris*

A total of 43 *C. campestris* interface-induced *MIRNA* loci, representing 36 distinct families, were previously identified based on a single small RNA-seq experiment with two biological replicates per tissue type. Subsequently several more small RNA-seq datasets from *C. campestris* infestation of *A. thaliana* have been produced (Supplemental Table 1). A *C. campestris* draft genome assembly with higher contiguity relative to the one used by (Shahid et al., 2018) has also been described (Vogel et al., 2018). The additional small RNA-seq data were used in conjunction with the improved genome assembly to identify interface-induced *MIRNA* loci. A total of 156 *C. campestris* interface-induced *MIRNA* ("ccm-IIM") loci, representing 103 families, were annotated (Supplemental Datasets 1-3). None of these families have been annotated in other plant species (per miRBase version 22). These improved annotations more than triple the known number of ccm-IIM loci, and include all miRNAs previously shown to target host mRNAs. All data are searchable with genome browsers and integrated small RNA visualization tools at https://plantsmallrnagenes.science.psu.edu/Studies/Hudzik.

C. campestris interface-induced miRNAs accumulate prior to host penetration

Whether using *A. thaliana* inflorescence stems or *Solanum lycopersicum* hypocotyls as a host, haustorium organogenesis progressed at the same rate (Supplemental Figures 1-2). Haustoria were in the adhesive phase during days 0-2 of the time-course when the formation of the endophyte primordia was observed (Figures 1A, 1D). The intrusive phase, discerned by searching hyphae invading the host cortex, spanned days 3-5 (Figures 1B, 1E). A xylem bridge connecting host and parasite vasculature via the haustorium was not detectable until day 6 (Figures 1C, 1F); this marks the start of the conductive phase.

sRNA sequencing was performed across a 15 day time-series (days 0-14) of *C. campestris*-host interfaces for both *A. thaliana* and *S. lycopersicum* hosts. Interface-induced miRNAs began accumulating in the adhesive phase, and reached maximum levels by the start of the intrusive phase (Figure 1G, 1H). Interface-induced miRNAs can stimulate the generation of secondary siRNAs following an initial cleavage event on a host transcript (Shahid et al., 2018; Johnson et al., 2019). Appearance of secondary siRNAs must therefore occur after miRNAs interact with host mRNAs. Accumulation of secondary siRNAs did not begin until the intrusive phase, and did not reach maximum levels until the conductive phase (Figure 1G, 1H). These data show that interface-induced miRNAs appear early in haustorial development, before any penetration of host tissue has occurred.

Figure 1: Interface-induced miRNAs are detectable during the adhesive phase. Histological sections of haustoria growing on *A. thaliana* (A-C) and *S. lycopersicum* (D-F). Top right text in each image (A-F) denotes the stage of haustorium organogenesis, the color correlates with the phases labeled in G and H. (Scale bars: 200μm) (G, H) Detection of interface-induced miRNAs (IIM) and secondary siRNAs (Sec. siRNA) using *A. thaliana* or *S. lycopersicum* as hosts. Boxplots show medians (central line), 25th-75th percentiles (box boundaries), up to 1.5x the interquartile range (whiskers), and outliers (dots). RPMM: Reads per million mapped.

C. campestris interface-induced miRNA induction is not host-dependent

C. campestris has a broad host range. One possible method of adapting to diverse hosts could be to adjust interface-induced miRNA accumulation depending on the host species. This hypothesis was tested by plotting the median conductive phase small RNA accumulation levels of each interface-induced *MIRNA* locus from tomato and *A. thaliana* hosts. The resulting plot showed a linear correlation (Figure 2A), where each *MIRNA* locus accumulated miRNAs to similar levels with either species as a host. This argues against the hypothesis that miRNA induction varies depending on the host species.

Detached shoot tips of *C. campestris* can be stimulated to differentiate haustoria by specific light and tactile stimuli (Figure 2B; (Kaga et al., 2020)). These *in vitro* haustoria can be produced either with or without adjacent host tissue, such as detached host leaves (Figure 2B). *In vitro* haustoria produced with or without adjacent *A. thaliana* leaves were processed in triplicate for small RNA sequencing to test interface-induced miRNA accumulation. *C. campestris* shoot tips (also in triplicate) were used as a negative control. Interface-induced miRNAs were abundant in *in vitro* haustoria regardless of the presence or absence of detached host leaves (Figure 2C). Median accumulation levels of individual miRNAs were highly correlated between *in vitro* haustoria produced with or without adjacent host tissue (Figure 2D). These observations demonstrate that *C. campestris* interface-induced miRNA production is independent of any host. Instead, their sudden appearance during early haustorial development is part of an inherent developmental program.

Figure 2: Interface-induced miRNA production is independent of a host. (A) Comparing interface-induced miRNA population and abundance between hosts. Each dot represents the median value of conductive phase samples for an interface-induced miRNA. (B) Graphical overview of *in vitro* haustoria experiment. (C) Interface-induced miRNA accumulation from *in vitro* haustoria. Boxplots show medians (central line), 25th-75th percentiles (box boundaries), up to 1.5x the interquartile range (whiskers), and outliers (dots). (D) Comparing interface-induced accumulation between the Host Free and With Host *in vitro* haustoria. Each dot represents the median value across all replicates for a single microRNA. IIM: Interface-induced microRNA; RPMM: Reads per million mapped.

C. campestris interface-induced *MIRNA* loci share a common upstream sequence element known to control snRNA transcription in plants

Genomic DNA sequences upstream of the ccm-IIM loci were analyzed with MEME (Bailey et al.,
2009) to search for over-represented sequence motifs. Transcription start sites for these *MIRNA*
primary transcripts were initially unknown, so the ends of the upstream regions were defined by
the 5' basal DCL cut site on the *MIRNA* hairpins (Figure 3A). A highly overrepresented ten
nucleotide motif was discovered (Figure 3B). This motif, termed the Upstream Sequence
Element (USE), was found adjacent to most of the interface-induced *MIRNA* loci (Figure 3C). As
a control, a set of "canonical" *MIRNA* loci from *C. campestris* was annotated. These canonical
loci encode miRNAs universal among dicots such as miR156, miR164, and miR166. None of
the canonical *MIRNA* loci had the USE in their upstream regions (Figure 3C). The motif has a
strong tendency to be located ~100 base pairs upstream of the 5' basal DCL cut sites of the
interface-induced *MIRNA*s (Figure 3D). A previous study produced nanoPARE data from *C.*
campestris / *A. thaliana* haustorial interfaces (Johnson et al., 2019); nanoPARE is an RNA-seq
method that captures 5' ends of RNAs. These data were analyzed to find the 5' ends of *MIRNA*
primary transcripts. There was a clear peak of nanoPARE data around 40 base-pairs upstream
of the 5' basal DCL cut site of the interface-induced *MIRNA*s (Figure 3E). No such peak was
apparent when analyzing the canonical *MIRNA* loci (Figure 3E). This analysis suggests that the
transcriptional start sites of interface-induced *MIRNA* primary transcripts about 40 bps upstream
of the 5'-basal DCL cut site, and thus lie downstream of the USE.

196
Figure 3: Interface-induced miRNA loci share a *cis*-regulatory element with snRNAs. (A) Schematic showing
upstream and downstream regions. (B) MEME sequence logo of the USE found upstream of interface-induced
MIRNA loci. (C) Presence of the USE at interface-induced miRNA loci and canonical miRNA loci in *C. campestris*.
(D) Metaplot of USE coverage as a function of upstream position. (E) Metaplot of normalized nanoPARE 5' end
coverage. (F) Distances between USE and transcriptional start sites (arrows) for known USE-dependent Pol II and III
type promoters. (G) Frequency distribution of USE-TSS distances for interface-induced miRNAs. (H) Metaplot of
polyT coverage (defined as six or more consecutive T residues on the coding strand) in downstream regions. Canon.
: Canonical microRNA loci; IIM: Interface-induced microRNA loci; TSS: Transcriptional start site.
205

***C. campestris* interface-induced *MIRNA* loci have features consistent with RNA**
Polymerase III transcription
The USE found at *C. campestris* interface-induced *MIRNA* loci is identical to a motif known to
drive U-snRNA transcription in plants (Vankan and Filipowicz, 1989). U-snRNAs are short non-
coding RNAs that, along with associated proteins, form the spliceosome. The spliceosome
functions to catalyze intron removal from Pol II-transcribed RNAs during nuclear RNA
maturation. The USE is a unique *cis*-regulatory element because it can drive either Pol II or Pol
III transcription of U-snRNAs (Waibel and Filipowicz, 1990b). When the USE is 66-67 base-pairs
upstream from the transcriptional start site (TSS) it drives Pol II transcription (Figure 3F). When
the USE is 54-55 base-pairs upstream of the TSS (one helical turn of DNA shorter), it instead
drives Pol III transcription (Figure 3F). *A. thaliana* U2, U4, and U5 snRNA genes contain the
longer spacing and are transcribed by Pol II, while *A. thaliana* U6 snRNA genes have the
shorter spacing and are transcribed by Pol III (Waibel and Filipowicz, 1990b; Waibel and
Filipowicz, 1990a). The TSSs of 48 of the *C. campestris* interface-induced MIRNA primary
transcripts were inferred from nanoPARE data (Figure 3E); the rest could not be inferred due to
low/no coverage in the nanoPARE data. The USE-TSS distance at these loci had a sharp peak
at about 55 base-pairs (Figure 3G), exactly the spacing expected for USE-dependent Pol III
transcription. Pol III termination is triggered by runs of T residues on the non-template strand;
four Ts is a minimal signal for termination, and six or more Ts are maximally effective (Gao et
al., 2018). Runs of six or more T's were common immediately downstream of interface-induced
MIRNA loci (Figure 3H). The upstream similarity to U6 snRNA promoters and the prevalence of
downstream poly-T stretches suggests that *C. campestris* interface-induced *MIRNA* loci could
be transcribed by Pol III.

Accumulation of interface-induced microRNAs in a heterologous system depends on the
USE
Agrobacterium tumefacians T-DNA vectors containing *C. campestris* interface-induced *MIRNA*
loci were constructed (Figure 4A). The T-DNA did not contain any selectable markers to avoid
recruitment of RNA polymerases; transcription of these loci depends solely on any *cis* elements
present in the *MIRNA* loci. For each *MIRNA* tested a wild-type and USE-scrambled version
were prepared. These T-DNA were introduced to *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaf mesophyll cells by
Agro-infiltration. Mature miRNA levels were quantified by qRT-PCR. Mature miRNAs
accumulated when wild-type loci were introduced (Figures 4B-C). When the USE element was
scrambled, mature miRNA accumulation was dramatically lower (Figures 4B-C). This supports
the hypothesis that the USE is a *cis*-acting factor that promotes miRNA accumulation. This
result also demonstrates the *C. campestris* interface-induced *MIRNA* precursors can be
correctly processed by the RNAi machinery of a heterologous host.

244
245
Figure 4: The USE is required for accumulation of interface-induced miRNAs during transient expression in *N.*
benthamiana. (A) Graphical representation of constructs used during transient expression. LB: left border; USE:
upstream sequence element; pT: polyT stretch; RB: right border. (B-C) Relative expression of miR12463a or
miR12497f with scrambled USE sequence (-), wild-type USE sequence (+), and *N. benthamiana* leaf not infiltrated
(Nb). Expression was normalized to miR159. Each dot represents a biological replicate (RNAs from a distinct
infiltrated leaf).

252
Discussion
We observed that *C. campestris* interface-induced miRNAs begin accumulating in the adhesive
phase, even before the parasite has penetrated the host stem. This suggests that interface-
induced miRNAs are primed for immediate use by developing haustoria. Accumulation of
interface-induced miRNAs is fully independent of the host identity, and does not even require
any host. This indicates that their accumulation is a programmed aspect of haustorial
development. *C. campestris* is a generalist parasite that feeds on a wide range of host plants.
This "shotgun" strategy of miRNA accumulation could be well-suited for a generalist that feeds
on diverse hosts. This host-insensitive, shotgun strategy is also consistent with earlier
observations of *Cuscuta* miRNA polymorphisms that compensate for most possible variations of
target sites within host mRNAs (Johnson et al., 2019).
264
We also found a snRNA-like USE adjacent to nearly all interface-induced miRNA loci. The USE
is not found at any canonical miRNA loci in *C. campestris,* and has not been reported at miRNA
loci in any other plant. The distance between the USE and transcriptional start sites of interface-
induced miRNAs is consistent with U6-like Pol III transcription, as is the presence of potential
Pol III terminators immediately downstream of most loci. The USE drives accumulation of
miRNAs in a heterologous system, directly demonstrating its function as an activating *cis*-
regulatory element. We hypothesize that the *C. campestris* interface-induced miRNA precursors
are transcribed by RNA Pol III in a USE-dependent manner. We speculate that the use of Pol III,
instead of Pol II, may somehow mark the interface-induced miRNAs for specialized processing
and eventual export from the parasite into the host. The interface-induced miRNAs avoid "self-
targeting" of *C. campestris* mRNAs (Shahid et al., 2018; Johnson et al., 2019); this is consistent
with the hypothesis that they are made for "export only" and not assembled onto *C. campestris*
AGO proteins. The accumulation of mature miRNAs in *in vitro* haustoria with no host tissue
present directly demonstrates that Dicing of the interface-induced miRNA precursors occurs
within *C. campestris*. Therefore the exported molecule is either mature miRNA or the
miRNA/miRNA* duplex.
281
Plant U6 promoters are workhorses for constitutive expression of short non-coding RNAs. For
instance, the U6-26 promoter from *A. thaliana* is widely used to drive Pol III-dependent sgRNA
expression in CRISPR experiments (Tsutsui and Higashiyama, 2017; Lowder et al., 2018). U6-
26 has the same USE as the *C. campestris* interface-induced miRNAs (Waibel and Filipowicz,
1990a). Indeed, the U6 snRNA is often used as a loading control for miRNA blots, including in
the first report of interface-induced miRNAs (Shahid et al., 2018). How does the USE, which in
all previously known contexts drives constitutive transcription, result in miRNAs with such a
tissue-specific accumulation pattern? One hypothesis is constitutive transcription but tissue-
specific dicing of the precursors. However RNA blots and RNA-seq experiments have yet to
detect any strong precursor accumulation in non-haustorial tissues. Resolving the mystery of
highly-specific accumulation from a promoter that is expected to be constitutive will be an
important goal for future research.
294
295 In summary, we find that the *C. campestris* interface-induced miRNAs are distinguished from
296 canonical miRNAs by a distinct set of genomic sequence features. This implies that these
297 miRNAs are fundamentally distinct from normal miRNAs and siRNAs. The common promoter
298 element suggests a possible avenue for disruption of *trans*-species miRNA activity: targeting the
299 factors that bind USE should reduce production of *trans*-species miRNAs.
300
Materials and Methods
Annotation of *Cuscuta campestris* interface-induced *MIRNA* loci

Annotation of *MIRNA* loci occurred in two steps (early and late) based on the availability of small
RNA-seq data during the course of the study. In the early step, previously published small RNA-
seq datasets from the interface or parasite stem of *C. campestris* attached to *A. thaliana* were
obtained as fastq files from the Sequence Read Archive (SRA; Supplemental Table 1). Trailing
3'-sequencing adapters were discovered and trimmed using gsat
(https://github.com/MikeAxtell/gsat). Trimmed small RNA datasets were then aligned to the *A.*
thaliana genome (version TAIR10, including plastid and mitochondrial genomes) using bowtie
(Langmead et al., 2009) demanding exact matches and directing unmapped reads to a new
fastq file (non-default settings '-v 0 --un'). Small RNA reads that aligned were discarded; this
eliminated most small RNAs that could have been produced by the host genome. The remaining
reads were analyzed together in a single ShortStack run (version 3.8.5; default settings)
(Johnson et al., 2016) using the *C. campestris* genome assembly version 0.32 (Vogel et al.,
2018) as the reference genome. This resulted in *de novo* annotation of thousands of discrete
small RNA-producing loci. Read counts of aligned small RNAs from each locus in each library
were retrieved (from the 'Counts.txt' file produced by ShortStack) and used as input for
differential expression analysis using DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014). Differential expression
analysis of interface vs. parasite stem was independently performed for each of the three
studies included in the first step (Shahid et al. expt.1, Shahid et al. expt. 2, and Johnson et al.;
Supplemental Table 1). DESeq2 analysis used 'lfcShrink' using the 'normal' shrinkage estimator;
loci up-regulated in interface relative to parasite stem with an FDR-adjusted p-value of < 0.05
were called differentially expressed. The union of all three sets of differentially expressed loci
from each study was then computed and retained. From these, loci where a) greater than 80%
of aligned reads were between 20-24 nucleotides in length and b) the single most abundant
aligned RNA size was 20, 21, 22, or 23 nucleotides long were retained. The retained loci were
then individually examined using multiple visualization tools: Integrative Genomics Viewer
(Robinson et al., 2011), strucVis (https://github.com/MikeAxtell/strucVis), and sRNA_Viewer
(https://github.com/MikeAxtell/sRNA_Viewer). Based on the manual examinations, loci that did
not conform to all of the guidelines for confident plant *MIRNA* locus annotation (Axtell and
Meyers, 2018) were discarded. The late phase of *MIRNA* annotation took advantage of the
much greater amount of sRNA-seq data generated during the time-course analyses of *C.*
campestris on both *A. thaliana* and *S. lycopersicum* hosts (Supplemental Table 1). The same
analysis approach was used to identify interface-induced *MIRNA* loci using days 9 and 10 as
'Interface' samples and day 0 and "host only" as negative control samples. Loci identified in the
late phase were then merged with those obtained in the early phase. All together 156 *C.*
campestris interface-induced *MIRNA* loci were found (Supplemental Datasets 1-3). These loci
and the supporting data can be interactively browsed at
https://plantsmallrnagenes.science.psu.edu/Studies/Hudzik.
340
The mature 5p-miRNA and 3p-miRNA from each locus was queried against miRBase (version
22) mature miRNAs using the SSEARCH function (hosted on the miRBase website), restricting
hits to Viridiplantae. The mature 5p-miRNA and 3p-miRNA from each loci were also queried
against the "superfamilies" described by (Johnson et al., 2019) using ggsearch36 (from the
FASTA package), restricting the search to forward strand hits only; alignments were kept that
had less than 3 mismatches. In order to group the loci into families, The mature 5p-miRNA and
3p-miRNA from each loci were queried against each other in an all vs. all search using
ggsearch36, restricting the search to forward strand hits only. Families were defined by no more

than 7 mismatches between a given 5p-miRNA and 3p-miRNA. Based on this analysis the 156
loci were grouped into 103 distinct families[1].
351
Plant growth conditions
Host plants grown for time-course experiments, *A. thaliana* (Col-0) and *S. lycopersicum* (IL-8-1-
1), were grown at 20-22°C and subjected to 16h photoperiods under fluorescent tube lighting.
C. campestris seeds were scarified with sulfuric acid for 1 hour, followed by 5-6 washes with
water. Scarified seeds were placed in glass petri dishes with moist paper towels and placed in
a growth chamber at 28°C with 16h photoperiods under fluorescent tube lighting for 3 days.
Emerged seedlings were then transplanted to the base of host plants and supplemented with
far-red LED lighting throughout the time-course to allow for attachment.
360
Time-course of *C. campestris* haustoria development
Host plants were grown as described above until inflorescence stems of *A. thaliana* hypocotyls
of *S. lycopersicum* were able to serve as hosts for *C. campestris*. *C. campestris* seedlings were
scarified and germinated as described above and were placed at the base of inflorescence
stems and hypocotyls under a combination of fluorescent tube lighting and far-red LED lights.
Day 0 of the time-course was defined as the day that *C. campestris* had successfully wrapped
around a host. Samples were subsequently collected every twenty-four hours. Each day in the
time course included three biological replicates consisting of four interfaces. Samples which
were used to create sRNA sequencing libraries were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at
-80°C until total RNA extraction was performed using a BioSpec Mini-Beadbeater and Tri-
Reagent (Sigma) following the manufacturer's protocol.
372
Samples which were subjected to vibratome sectioning were collected and sectioned within the
same day. A .stl file created by (Atkinson and Wells, 2017) containing instructions for 3D
printing a mold to embed samples in agarose for vibratome sectioning was printed. Interfaces
were placed in the mold and embedded in freshly prepared 5% agarose. Once solidified,
excess tissue and agarose were trimmed, and the samples were mounted on a metal block
using superglue. Mounted samples were secured with a vice grip in the Vibratome 1000 Plus
Sectioning System bath. Samples were submerged in ice-cold nanopure water and sectioned
with a thickness of 200μm using Personna 3-Facet Double Edge AccuTec Blades at a blade
angle of 15°. Sections were stained with freshly prepared 0.002% toluidine blue on a shaker for
ten minutes in 3x4 cell culture plates and rinsed 3-4 times with nanopure water. Sections were
observed on a Zeiss AXIO Scope A1 trinocular optical microscope using the 10x objective and
imaged with a Jenoptik ProgRes C14 Plus microscope CCD. Image processing to remove
excess stained agarose from the background was identical for all images. Scale bar of 200μm
was added to all images using ImageJ.
387
***In vitro* haustoria**
389 Stimulation of haustorial development in the absence of host tissues was similar to previously
390 described methods (Kaga et al., 2020; Jhu et al., 2021). *C. campestris* was cultivated on beets
391 in a greenhouse. Shoot tips, approximately 6-8 cm in length, were cut and placed on a 3%
392 agarose plate. Unstimulated shoot tips were flash-frozen at this point for later RNA extraction.
393 Shoot tips "with host" included fresh cut rosette leaves from wild-type (Col-0) *A. thaliana* plants

---

[1] *N.b.* for reviewers and preprint readers: Not all of these annotations are homologs of already described miRBase families, so many don't yet have miRBase-registered numbers. These cases are temporarily named "ccm-IIM", for *Cuscuta campestris* interface-induced *MIRNA*s. Upon acceptance, these will be registered at miRBase, and the final miRBase numbers will be substituted into the datasets during final revisions.

pressed on the tips. Shoot tips were stimulated to form haustoria by weighting with ~8 glass
cover slips, exposure to a far-red LED bulb for two hours, followed by four days in complete
darkness. The resulting haustoria were collected, flash-frozen, and used for RNA extraction.
Total RNA was extracted using a bead-beater and Tri-Reagent (Sigma) per the manufacturer's
instructions. Three samples per condition, each from a different plate, were collected and
extracted.
400
Small RNA sequencing and analysis
All small RNA-seq libraries were constructed using 500ng of total RNA using the splint-ligation
method described by (Maguire et al., 2020). Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq
550 (time-course experiments) or NextSeq 2000 (*in vitro* haustoria experiments). Time-course
experiment: After de-multiplexing, FASTQ files were trimmed using cutadapt (Martin, 2011) with
settings -a AGATCGGAAGAGCACACGTCTGAAC -m 15 --discard-untrimmed. Two
concatenated genomes were prepared: *A. thaliana* TAIR10 and *C. campestris* v0.32, and *S.*
lycopersicum release 5 and *C. campestris* v0.32. Trimmed reads were aligned to the
appropriate concatenated genome using ShortStack (Johnson et al., 2016) version 3.8.5 with
setting --align_only. The resulting BAM-formatted alignments were split based on reference
genome, to create two BAM files per time-course: One for *C. campestris*, the other for the host
genome. These are the alignments hosted at
https://plantsmallrnagenes.science.psu.edu/Studies/Hudzik. The *C. campestris* alignments were
analyzed using ShortStack version 3.8.5 with a 'locifile' containing the coordinates of all 156
interface-induced *MIRNA* loci (Supplemental Dataset 1). The host-genome alignments were
similarly analyzed with a 'locifile' containing locations of known secondary siRNA loci triggered
by interface-induced miRNAs (Supplemental Table 2). The resulting count matrices, showing
alignments by sample, were combined and processed to yield normalized values in units of read
per million mapped. Analysis of small RNA-seq from *in vitro* haustoria was identical except that
alignments used only the *C. campestris* genome and no secondary siRNA loci were analyzed.
421
Analysis of flanking DNA
Upstream and downstream DNA sequences (200 base-pairs each) flanking the 156 interface-
induced *MIRNA* loci were retrieved from the version 0.32 *C. campestris* genome assembly
(Vogel et al., 2018). Upstream regions were defined to end at the 5' basal DCL cut site;
downstream regions were defined to begin at the 3' basal DCL cut site (Figure 3A). Upstream
sequences were analyzed with MEME suite (version 5.4.1) (Bailey et al., 2009). Motif discovery
with meme used settings '-dna -mod zoops -nmotifs 1 -w 10 -objfun classic -revcomp -
markov_order 0'. The top-scoring motif was then used as a query of the upstream sequences
with the MEME suite tool fimo using settings '--qv-thresh --thresh 0.05'; this captured all
occurrences of the motif with a false-discovery rate of <= 0.05. In a few cases where the motif
was found more than once on the same upstream sequence, only the top-scoring instance was
retained. The motif consensus sequence is TCCCACA[CT]CG (Figure 3B). The fimo analysis
was also run using the upstream regions of conserved, canonical *MIRNA* loci from *C.*
campestris; no motif instances were found with an FDR <= 0.05. Motif locations were converted
to gff3 format, and then converted to modified gff file with metaplot coordinates based on
distance from the 5' basal DCL sites. The subcommand 'genomecov' from the bedtools suite
(Quinlan and Hall, 2010) was then used with option -d to calculate position-specific depths.
These values were then normalized by dividing by the number of loci in each set (interface-
induced *MIRNA* loci or conserved canonical *MIRNA* loci). Moving averages with a window size
of 10 were then plotted (Figure 3D). Downstream regions were searched for stretches of six or
more T nucleotides on the *MIRNA* coding strand; locations were converted to gff3 format and
processed as described above to create metaplots (Figure 3H).
444

NanoPARE analysis and transcriptional start site inference
445
Previously described nanoPARE data (Johnson et al., 2019) from *C. campestris* haustorial
interfaces with *A. thaliana* stems were retrieved in FASTQ format from the Sequence Read
Archive (SRA): Accessions SRR9216111, SRR9216113, and SRR9216114. Contaminating
adapter sequences were removed using cutadapt (Martin, 2011) with settings -a
CCGAGCCCACGAGACTAAGGCGAATCTCGTATGCCGTCTTCTGCTTG -a
CCGAGCCCACGAGACCGTACTAGATCTCGTATGCCGTCTTCTGCTTG -a
CCGAGCCCACGAGACAGGCAGAAATCTCGTATGCCGTCTTCTGCTTG -a
CCGAGCCCACGAGACGGACTCCTATCTCGTATGCCGTCTTCTGCTTG -a
CCGAGCCCACGAGACTAGGCATGATCTCGTATGCCGTCTTCTGCTTG --trim-n -m 20.
Trimmed reads were aligned to the version 0.32 *C. campestris* genome assembly (Vogel et al.,
2018) using STAR (Dobin et al., 2013) with settings --outFilterMismatchNmax 999 --
outFilterMismatchNoverReadLmax 0.07 --outWigType wiggle read1_5p --outWigNorm None.
The two resulting .wiggle formatted files contained the depths of RNA 5' ends genome-wide;
these files were converted to bigwig format using wigToBigWig (Kent et al., 2010). The bigwig
files were then queried to retrieve data from the 200 base-pair upstream regions of each of the
interface-induced *MIRNA* loci and each of the conserved canonical *MIRNA* loci using
bigWigToBedGraph (Kent et al., 2010). The read depths for each locus were scaled by reads /
total reads; this scaled the data so that each locus had equal weight. Actual coordinates were
converted to metaplot coordinates based on distance from 5' basal DCL sites. Scaled depths
were normalized by dividing by the number of loci in each set (interface-induced *MIRNA* loci or
conserved canonical *MIRNA* loci). Moving averages with a window size of 10 were then plotted
(Figure 3E). Transcriptional start sites of interface-induced *MIRNA* primary transcripts were
inferred to be the maximum nanoPARE read depth location in the 200 base-pair upstream
regions; ties were broken randomly.
470
Agroinfiltration of interface-induced *MIRNA* loci
471
Synthetic double-stranded DNA fragments based on the genomic sequences of two *C.*
campestris interface-induced *MIRNA* loci were synthesized: ccm-*MIR12463a* and ccm-
MIR12497f. Two versions of each were constructed: wild-type, and a version where the ten
base-pair USE was randomly scrambled. Synthetic DNA fragments were golden-gate cloned
into vector pGGZ001 (Lampropoulos et al., 2013) using sites 'A' and 'G'. The T-DNA regions
were confirmed by Sanger sequencing. Complete plasmid sequences are in Supplemental
Dataset 4. Plasmids were transformed into *Agrobacterium tumefacians* GV3101-pMP90-pSoup.
Agroinfiltration into *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves was performed as previously described (Liu
et al., 2014). Leaf samples from infiltrated areas were collected four days after infiltration and
processed for total RNA extraction. Total RNA was extracted using one of the following
methods: Tri-Reagent (Sigma), New England Biolabs Monarch Total RNA Miniprep Kit (T2010),
or Zymo Quick-RNA Plant Miniprep kit (R2024). RNA samples were diluted to 100ng/ul, and
used in stem-loop reverse-transcription reactions (Yang et al., 2014) using primers specific to
the target miRNA, and to miR159 (which served as a reference gene). Stem-loop reverse
transcription primers were self-annealed at 100uM concentration in IDT Duplex Buffer (100mM
potassium acetate, 30mM HEPES pH7.5) by heating in a 94C heat block for two minutes
followed by de-activation of the heat block for slow cooling to room temperature. Self-annealed
primers were diluted to 50nM stocks in water and stored at –20C. Reverse transcription
reactions contained 4ul total RNA (at 100ng/ul), 2ul of a freshly prepared stem-loop primer
mixture that had each primer at 5nM concentration, 2ul of 5X reverse transcriptase buffer, 1ul of
100mM DTT, 0.5ul of 10mM dNTP, and 0.5ul of Protoscript II reverse transcriptase (New
England Biolabs M0368). Reverse transcription reactions were incubated at 16C for 20 minutes,
42C for 60 minutes, and 80C for five minutes. 1.5ul of the resulting cDNA was used as template
in 20ul scale qPCR reactions using Luna Universal qPCR master mix (New England Biolabs

M3003) with forward primers specific to the microRNA of interest and a universal reverse
primer. PCR conditions for miR12463 detection were 95C for 60 seconds (initial denaturation),
95C 5 seconds (denature), 55C 15 seconds (anneal), 70C 10 seconds (extend and detect).
PCR conditions for miR12497 detection were 95C for 60 seconds (initial denaturation), 95C 15
seconds (denature), 52C 15 seconds (anneal), 72C 30 seconds (extend and detect). Reaction
efficiencies for each miRNA were calculated by serial dilution of positive cDNA samples.
Efficiency-corrected accumulation relative to miR159 was calculated using the method of (Pfaffl,
2001). Primer sequences are in Supplemental Table 3.
504
Data Sharing Plan
Newly created small RNA-seq data have been deposited at NCBI GEO under accessions
GSE184641, GSE184642, and GSE205256. Accession numbers for each specific library
analyzed are in Supplemental Table 1. Small RNA-seq and associated data are posted on
genome browsers with embedded microRNA visualization tools at
https://plantsmallrnagenes.science.psu.edu/Studies/Hudzik. Critical datasets are provided in
Supplemental Datasets 1-4.
512
513   **Author Contributions**
514   MJA and CH conceived the project and planned the experiments. MJA and CH conducted most
515   experiments, analyzed data, crafted figures, and wrote the manuscript. SM and SG performed
516   small RNA sequencing. JH made the initial discovery of the upstream sequence element.
517
518   **Conflict of Interest**
519   SM and SG are employees of New England Biolabs, Inc. New England Biolabs is a
520   manufacturer and vendor of molecular biology reagents, including several enzymes and buffers
521   used in this study. This affiliation does not affect the authors' impartiality, adherence to journal
522   standards and policies, or availability of data. CH, JH, and MJA declare no conflicts of interest.
523

524   **Acknowledgements**
525   We thank the Huck Institutes Genomics Core Facility for small RNA-seq support and Shawn
526   Burghard for Greenhouse services. This research was supported by awards to MJA from the US
527   National Science Foundation (Award # 2003315) and from the US Department of Agriculture –
528   National Institute of Food and Agriculture (Award # 2018-67013-285).

529
530   **Supplemental Tables** (all in a single Excel file)
531
532   **Supplemental Table 1.** Small RNA-seq datasets used in this study.
533
534   **Supplemental Table 2**. Secondary siRNA loci in tomato and *A. thaliana*.
535
536   **Supplemental Table 3.** Oligonucleotide sequences
537
538   **Supplemental Datasets**
539
540   **Supplemental Dataset 1.** Annotations of *Cuscuta campestris* interface-induced *MIRNA* loci.
541   Includes mature microRNAs and stem-loop precursors. Reference genome is assembly version
542   0.32 from (Vogel et al., 2018), retrieved from https://plabipd.de/project_cuscuta2/start.ep
543   Format: general feature format version 3 (gff3).
544
545   **Supplemental Dataset 2.** *C. campestris* interface-induced *MIRNA* hairpin sequences. Format:
546   FASTA.

547
Supplemental Dataset 3. *C. campestris* interface-induced mature miRNA sequences. Both the
5p and 3p miRNAs are included for each locus. These are the actually sequenced miRNA
sequences; in a few cases there are polymorphisms between the actual sequences and the
corresponding sequence in the reference genome. This likely reflects polymorphisms between
the strain of *C. campestris* used in this study relative to the reference genome specimen.
Format: FASTA.
554
555 **Supplemental Dataset 4**. Sequences and annotations of interface-induced *MIRNA* vectors
556 used in agroinfiltration. Genbank flatfile format (text).
557
558 **Supplemental Figures**

A. thaliana

Supplemental Figure 1. *C. campestris* growth on *A. thaliana* stems. Cross-sections of toludine
blue stained vibratome sections for days 0-15 following parasite coiling. Scale bars: 200μm.

S. lycopersicum

563
564 **Supplemental Figure 2.** *C. campestris* growth on *S. lycopersicum* hypocotyls. Cross-sections
565 of toludine blue stained vibratome sections for days 0-15 following parasite coiling. Scale bars:
566 200μm.

567
568
References Cited

Atkinson JA, Wells DM (2017) An Updated Protocol for High Throughput Plant Tissue
Sectioning. Front Plant Sci **8**: 1721

Axtell MJ (2013) Classification and comparison of small RNAs from plants. Annual review of
plant biology **64**: 137–159

Axtell MJ, Meyers BC (2018) Revisiting Criteria for Plant MicroRNA Annotation in the Era of
Big Data. The Plant cell **30**: 272–284

Bailey TL, Boden M, Buske FA, Frith M, Grant CE, Clementi L, Ren J, Li WW, Noble WS
(2009) MEME SUITE: tools for motif discovery and searching. Nucleic Acids Res **37**:
W202-208

Birschwilks M, Haupt S, Hofius D, Neumann S (2006) Transfer of phloem-mobile substances
from the host plants to the holoparasite Cuscuta sp. Journal of Experimental Botany **57**:
911–921

Cai Q, Qiao L, Wang M, He B, Lin F-M, Palmquist J, Huang S-D, Jin H (2018) Plants send
small RNAs in extracellular vesicles to fungal pathogen to silence virulence genes.
Science **360**: 1126–1129

Chen H-M, Chen L-T, Patel K, Li Y-H, Baulcombe DC, Wu S-H (2010) 22-Nucleotide RNAs
trigger secondary siRNA biogenesis in plants. Proceedings of the National Academy of
Sciences of the United States of America **107**: 15269–15274

Chen X (2005) MicroRNA biogenesis and function in plants. FEBS Lett **579**: 5923–5931

Cuperus JT, Carbonell A, Fahlgren N, Garcia-Ruiz H, Burke RT, Takeda A, Sullivan CM,
Gilbert SD, Montgomery TA, Carrington JC (2010) Unique functionality of 22-nt
miRNAs in triggering RDR6-dependent siRNA biogenesis from target transcripts in
Arabidopsis. Nature structural & molecular biology **17**: 997–1003

David-Schwartz R, Runo S, Townsley B, Machuka J, Sinha N (2008) Long-distance transport
of mRNA via parenchyma cells and phloem across the host–parasite junction in
Cuscuta. The New phytologist **179**: 1133–1141

Dobin A, Davis CA, Schlesinger F, Drenkow J, Zaleski C, Jha S, Batut P, Chaisson M,
Gingeras TR (2013) STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. Bioinformatics **29**: 15–
21

Fei Q, Xia R, Meyers BC (2013) Phased, secondary, small interfering RNAs in
posttranscriptional regulatory networks. The Plant cell **25**: 2400–2415

Gao Z, Herrera-Carrillo E, Berkhout B (2018) Delineation of the Exact Transcription
Termination Signal for Type 3 Polymerase III. Molecular Therapy - Nucleic Acids **10**: 36–
44

Heide-Jørgensen H (2008) Parasitic flowering plants. doi: 10.1163/ej.9789004167506.i-438

Hou Y, Zhai Y, Feng L, Karimi HZ, Rutter BD, Zeng L, Choi DS, Zhang B, Gu W, Chen X,
Ye W, Innes RW, Zhai J, Ma W (2019) A Phytophthora Effector Suppresses Trans-
Kingdom RNAi to Promote Disease Susceptibility. Cell Host & Microbe **25**: 153-165.e5

Huang C-Y, Wang H, Hu P, Hamby R, Jin H (2019) Small RNAs - Big Players in Plant-Microbe
Interactions. Cell Host Microbe **26**: 173–182

Hudzik C, Hou Y, Ma W, Axtell MJ (2020) Exchange of small regulatory RNAs between plants
and their pests. Plant Physiol **182**: 51–62

Jhu M-Y, Ichihashi Y, Farhi M, Wong C, Sinha NR (2021) *LATERAL ORGAN BOUNDARIES*
DOMAIN 25 functions as a key regulator of haustorium development in dodders. Plant
Physiology **186**: 2093–2110

Johnson NR, dePamphilis CW, Axtell MJ (2019) Compensatory sequence variation between
trans-species small RNAs and their target sites. eLife **8**: e49750

Johnson NR, Yeoh JM, Coruh C, Axtell MJ (2016) Improved placement of multi-mapping
small RNAs. G3 (Bethesda, Md) **6**: 2103–2111

Kaga Y, Yokoyama R, Sano R, Ohtani M, Demura T, Kuroha T, Shinohara N, Nishitani K
(2020) Interspecific Signaling Between the Parasitic Plant and the Host Plants Regulate
Xylem Vessel Cell Differentiation in Haustoria of Cuscuta campestris. Front Plant Sci **11**:
193

Kent WJ, Zweig AS, Barber G, Hinrichs AS, Karolchik D (2010) BigWig and BigBed:
enabling browsing of large distributed datasets. Bioinformatics **26**: 2204–2207

Kim G, Westwood JH (2015) Macromolecule exchange in Cuscuta-host plant interactions.
Current opinion in plant biology **26**: 20–25

Lampropoulos A, Sutikovic Z, Wenzl C, Maegele I, Lohmann JU, Forner J (2013)
GreenGate---a novel, versatile, and efficient cloning system for plant transgenesis. PLoS
ONE **8**: e83043

Langmead B, Trapnell C, Pop M, Salzberg SL (2009) Ultrafast and memory-efficient
alignment of short DNA sequences to the human genome. Genome biology **10**: R25

Liu Q, Wang F, Axtell MJ (2014) Analysis of complementarity requirements for plant microRNA
targeting using a Nicotiana benthamiana quantitative transient assay. The Plant cell **26**:
741–753

Love MI, Huber W, Anders S (2014) Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for
RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome biology **15**: 550

Lowder LG, Malzahn A, Qi Y (2018) Plant Gene Regulation Using Multiplex CRISPR-dCas9
Artificial Transcription Factors. Methods in molecular biology (Clifton, NJ) **1676**: 197–214

Maguire S, Lohman GJS, Guan S (2020) A low-bias and sensitive small RNA library
preparation method using randomized splint ligation. Nucleic Acids Research gkaa480

Martin M (2011) Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput sequencing reads.
EMBnet. journal

Matzke MA, Mosher RA (2014) RNA-directed DNA methylation: an epigenetic pathway of
increasing complexity. Nature reviews Genetics **15**: 394–408

Pfaffl MW (2001) A new mathematical model for relative quantification in real-time RT-PCR.
Nucleic acids research **29**: e45

Quinlan AR, Hall IM (2010) BEDTools: A flexible suite of utilities for comparing genomic
features. Bioinformatics **26**: 841–2

Robinson JT, Thorvaldsdóttir H, Winckler W, Guttman M, Lander ES, Getz G, Mesirov JP
(2011) Integrative genomics viewer. Nat Biotechnol **29**: 24–26

Roney JK, Khatibi PA, Westwood JH (2007) Cross-species translocation of mRNA from host
plants into the parasitic plant dodder. Plant physiology **143**: 1037–1043

Shahid S, Kim G, Johnson NR, Wafula E, Wang F, Coruh C, Bernal-Galeano V, Phifer T,
dePamphilis CW, Westwood JH, Axtell MJ (2018) MicroRNAs from the parasitic plant
Cuscuta campestris target host messenger RNAs. Nature **553**: 82–85

Shimizu K, Aoki K (2019) Development of Parasitic Organs of a Stem Holoparasitic Plant in
Genus Cuscuta. Front Plant Sci **10**: 1435

Subhankar B, Yamaguchi K, Shigenobu S, Aoki K (2021) *Trans*-species small RNAs move
long distances in a parasitic plant complex. Plant Biotechnology **38**: 187–196

Tsutsui H, Higashiyama T (2017) pKAMA-ITACHI Vectors for Highly Efficient CRISPR/Cas9-
Mediated Gene Knockout in Arabidopsis thaliana. Plant Cell Physiol **58**: 46–56

Vankan P, Filipowicz W (1989) A U-snRNA gene-specific upstream element and a -30 'TATA
box' are required for transcription of the U2 snRNA gene of Arabidopsis thaliana. The
EMBO Journal **8**: 3875–3882

Vaughn KC (2003) Dodder hyphae invade the host: a structural and immunocytochemical
characterization. Protoplasma **220**: 189–200

Vaughn KC (2006) Conversion of the Searching Hyphae of Dodder into Xylic and Phloic
Hyphae: A Cytochemical and Immunocytochemical Investigation. International Journal of
Plant Sciences **167**: 1099–1114

Vogel A, Schwacke R, Denton AK, Usadel B, Hollmann J, Fischer K, Bolger A, Schmidt
MH-W, Bolger ME, Gundlach H, Mayer KFX, Weiss-Schneeweiss H, Temsch EM,
Krause K (2018) Footprints of parasitism in the genome of the parasitic flowering plant
Cuscuta campestris. Nature communications **9**: 2515

Waibel F, Filipowicz W (1990a) U6 snRNA genes of Arabidopsis are transcribed by RNA
polymerase III but contain the same two upstream promoter elements as RNA
polymerase II-transcribed U-snRNA genes. Nucleic acids research **18**: 3451–3458

Waibel F, Filipowicz W (1990b) RNA-polymerase specificity of transcription of Arabidopsis U
snRNA genes determined by promoter element spacing. Nature **346**: 199

Weiberg A, Wang M, Lin F-M, Zhao H, Zhang Z, Kaloshian I, Huang H-D, Jin H (2013)
Fungal small RNAs suppress plant immunity by hijacking host RNA interference
pathways. Science (New York, NY) **342**: 118–123

Xie Z, Allen E, Fahlgren N, Calamar A, Givan SA, Carrington JC (2005) Expression of
Arabidopsis MIRNA genes. Plant physiology **138**: 2145–2154

Yang L, Wang S, Tang L, Liu B, Ye W, Wang L, Wang Z, Zhou M, Chen B (2014) Universal
stem-loop primer method for screening and quantification of microRNA. PloS one **9**:
e115293

Zhang T, Zhao Y-L, Zhao J-H, Wang S, Jin Y, Chen Z-Q, Fang Y-Y, Hua C-L, Ding S-W,
Guo H-S (2016) Cotton plants export microRNAs to inhibit virulence gene expression in
a fungal pathogen. Nature Plants **2**: 16153