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Enjoy the silence: Canonical and non-canonical RNA silencing activity during plant sexual reproduction Jinping Cheng and German Martinez



Plants produce small RNAs that accomplish a surprisingly versatile number of functions. The heterogeneity of functions of plant small RNAs is evident at the tissue-specific level. In particular, in the last years, the study of their activity in reproductive tissues has unmasked an unexpected diversity in their biogenesis and roles. Here, we review recent findings about the biogenesis pathways and roles of small RNAs during plant sexual reproduction.

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Keywords

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Introduction

Plants produce a diversity of small RNAs (sRNAs) that are key for the posttranscriptional control of mRNAs and the epigenetic regulation of specific loci. The activity of sRNAs is essential for multiple aspects of plants' life cycle, including developmental regulation, response to stress, and maintenance of genome integrity [1]. sRNAs are categorized into microRNAs (miRNAs) and small interfering RNAs (siRNAs). Both sRNA categories share a size range from 20- to 25-nt and a biogenesis pathway that relies on DICER-LIKE (DCL) RNase-III enzymes and ARGONAUTE (AGO) proteins to effect their roles. miRNAs are characterized by their origin from single-stranded RNAs (ssRNAs) with partial self-complementarity and a biogenesis pathway that involves DCL1, which excises a single duplex from the ssRNA, and AGO1, AGO2, AGO7 and/or AGO10, which preferentially load one of the sRNAs from the excised duplex termed the mature miRNA. AGO-loaded miRNAs mediate the posttranscriptional regulation of complementary mRNAs. siRNAs, on the other hand, are a diverse and heterogeneous category that derive from dsRNAs of different origins. siRNAs can be further divided into secondary siRNAs and heterochromatic siRNAs (hcsiRNAs). Secondary siRNAs are characterized by a biogenesis route that is initiated by the miRNAs or siRNAs targeting a longer RNA that is then converted into dsRNA by RDR6. This dsRNA is further processed into a complex population of siRNA duplexes by DCL4, DCL2, and/or DCL5, which are loaded into AGO1, AGO2, and/or AGO3 to mediate the posttranscriptional regulation of complementary mRNAs. hc-siRNAs have a well-defined biogenesis pathway that, uses dsRNAs derived from the combined activities of a specialized DNA-dependent RNA polymerase, RNA polymerase IV (Pol IV) and its tightly associated RNA-dependent RNA polymerase, RDR2. These dsRNAs are then processed into hc-siRNAs by DCL3, which are loaded into AGO4/6/9 to introduce DNA methylation at complementary sites transcribed by Pol V [2,3]. The boundaries of these canonical pathways and the role of the different sRNA types have been increasingly blurred, partially due to the increased study of the role of these pathways in different tissues and developmental stages (summarized in Figure1) [4].

In particular, sRNAs play a pivotal role during reproduction, where they regulate sexual development and its associated molecular events. Recent fascinating examples of both canonical and non-canonical RNA silencing have revealed its crucial role for achieving reproductive success. In the following section, we review recent discoveries in the role and pathways mediating reproductive RNA silencing.

Subfunctionalization of miRNAs during sexual reproduction

miRNAs mediate the posttranscriptional regulation (termed posttranscriptional gene silencing, PTGS) through the endonucleolytic cleavage or translational repression of their target mRNAs [1]. In animals,





Canonical and non-canonical sRNA biogenesis pathways. a) Summary of the three canonical sRNA biogenesis pathways in somatic tissues. First (left panel), the miRNA pathway generates miRNAs ranging in size from 20- to 22-nt mediated by the processing of single-stranded RNAs (ssRNA) with self-complementarity by DICER-LIKE1 (DCL1). The miRNAs generated are mainly loaded into ARGONAUTE1 (AGO1), 10, 2 and 7. The secondary siRNA pathway (middle panel) generates 21-/22-nt siRNAs that can be initiated from different types of RNAs that include ssRNAs, dsRNAs generated by

miRNAs play integral roles during sexual reproduction. such as controlling gamete maturation and fertilization [5-8]. In plants, several components of the miRNA biogenesis pathway and specific miRNAs are implicated in the specification of the male and female germlines [9-11], but until recently, their activity in plant gametes was not well understood. This knowledge has been boosted due to the combined use of improved gametophyte-purification techniques and sRNA/RNA high-throughput sequencing. In Arabidopsis, miRNAs show a characteristic accumulation pattern during pollen gametogenesis [12] and embryogenesis [13]. In both tissues, miRNAs target diverse transcription factors and development-associated genes, similar to their role in somatic tissues, that are key for the proper development of reproductive structures [12,13].

miRNA signature in reproductive structures may be a consequence of the differential activity in their biogenesis pathways. Indeed, the study of the accumulation and role of AGO and DCL proteins in reproductive tissues has helped to identify a previously overlooked dynamism (summarized in Figure2). Analyses of AGO accumulation patterns in the gametophytes and embryo showed nearly all of these proteins accumulate in specific structures or cells (except AGO10 in the female gametophyte, and AGO3 and 10 in the male gametophyte) [14]. Importantly, AGO proteins belonging to the miRNA clade (composed of AGO1, 5, and 10), have a different hierarchy in reproductive structures which show accumulation and activity of AGO5 together with AGO1. Indeed, AGO1 and 5 accumulate in the gametic cells of both gametophytes, showing accumulation in the egg and central cells in the ovule, and the sperm cells in the pollen grain [14,15].

Additionally, the role of AGOs belonging to the miRNA clade has been inferred from recent direct analyses of the sRNA populations loaded into them [12,16]. Immunoprecipitation of AGO1 and 5 followed by sRNA sequencing from different stages of male gametogenesis

has shown that in these tissues both AGOs retain their miRNA-loading ability and 5' nucleotide signature [12]. Interestingly, both AGOs are enriched in different members of the miR845 family, and target TEs of the ATGP and ATCOPIA superfamilies, similar to their role in somatic tissues [17,18]. Targeting of TEs by miRNAs in the male gametophyte correlates with a decrease of 24-nt and an increase of 21- and 22-nt TE-derived siRNAs [12] and might be a protective mechanism against TE activity. Indeed, this protective role is evident in maize mutants for the two AGO5 homologs (MALE-ASSOCIATED ARGONAUTE-1 and -2. MAGO1 and 2) [19]. In this species, MAGO1 and 2 protect against stress-associated TE reactivation by loading TE-derived phased-secondary siRNAs (phasiR-NAs), an activity that is essential for the viability of maize pollen [19].

In animals, gamete-accumulating sRNAs can be transmitted during the fertilization process and exert their regulation transgenerationally [20,21]. In plants, this exciting role has not been identified until recently. In Arabidopsis, male-derived miR159 has been reported to act transgenerationally targeting the transcription factors MYB33/65 in the endosperm and promoting nuclear division [22]. This non-cell autonomous activity suggests a potential transgenerational role for, at least, pollen-derived miRNAs. Future studies are needed to determine if other sRNA classes share this ability. In summary, the canonical and non-canonical activities of the miRNA pathway are a fundamental aspect of both the regulation of the correct development of the reproductive tissues (pre- and postfertilization) and the maintenance of genome stability through the targeting of TEs.

Secondary siRNAs play a prime role during reproduction

Together with miRNAs, secondary siRNAs can also mediate PTGS of their target mRNAs. Similar to miRNAs, different types of secondary siRNAs show

RDR6 (as the ones resulting from amplification of certain miRNA-cleaved of mRNAs). These dsRNAs are processed by DCL4 and 2 into siRNAs, and are subsequently loaded into AGO1, 2 or 3. The canonical heterochromatic siRNA (hc-siRNA) pathway (right panel) generates DCL3-dependent 24-nt siRNAs from RNA polymerase IV (Pol IV) transcripts converted into dsRNA by RDR2 and subsequently loaded into AGO4/6/9. The chromatin remodeler CLASSY1 (CLSY1) interacts with Pol IV to produce the majority of hc-siRNAs. b) Summary of the main canonical and non-canonical sRNA biogenesis pathways in reproductive tissues. The miRNA pathway (left panel) has a similar composition as in somatic tissues with the difference of the increased activity of AGO5 in the loading of miRNAs (reported in the pollen grain), miRNA activity is also well-understood during embryogenesis. The involvement of other AGOs such as AGO2 and 7 is still not well-characterized. AGO10 is absent in all reproductive structures analyzed to date. The secondary siRNA pathway shows multiple variations in reproductive structures. In early pre-meiotic tissues of monocots, Pol II transcripts are processed by RDR6 into dsRNA and generate 21-/22-nt phasiRNAs by the action of DCL4 and 2. Additionally, in mature pollen grains in monocots, a non-canonical pathway where Pol II transcripts are processed by DCL5 to generate 24-nt phasiRNAs takes place. The involvement of the canonical RdDM-mediating AGOs (AGO4, 6, and 9 is not understood). Similarly, in Arabidopsis pollen, a non-canonical pathway uses Pol IV and RDR2 dsRNAs to generate 21-/22-nt epigenetically active siRNAs (easiRNAs) that are subsequently loaded into (at least) AGO5. The involvement of other AGOs in the loading of easiRNAs is not well understood. Finally (right panel) the hc-siRNA pathway in reproductive structures shows the involvement of different CLASY family members (CLSY3 and 4, which produce the majority of siRNAs in the endosperm, termed siRENs, in the ovule and endosperm, and CLSY3, which produces noncell autonomous nurse cell-derived siRNAs, niRNAs, in the tapetal cells that accumulate in the mature pollen grain). The dsRNAs produced by Pol IV activity are processed by DCL3 into 24-nt hc-siRNAs and at least loaded in AGO5 and AGO9. In the mature pollen grain AGO9 interacts with the transcription factor ARID1 to mediate epigenetic silencing in connection with H3K9me2. The main reproductive structures where these pathways have been identified are shown on top of each panel. The role of each pathway is indicated at the bottom of each panel.





Tissue-specific localization of the factors involved in the canonical and non-canonical sRNA biogenesis pathways in reproductive structures. a) Cartoon depiction of the reproductive tissue location in Arabidopsis. Nuclei colored blue show actual gametes, while nuclei colored in red show companion cells. b) Tissue-specific location of sRNA biogenesis pathways in the mature pollen grain. Mature pollen grains contain two different cell types, sperm cells (SCs) and the vegetative cell (VC), each with its nucleus (sperm nucleus, SN, and vegetative nucleus, VN). In the mature pollen grain, AGO1, 5, 2, and 7 accumulate in the cytoplasm of the SCs. AGO4, 6, and 9 accumulate in the SN, but there is evidence of AGO5 activity in the SN mediating DNA methylation. Mobile (between the VC and the SCs) 21-and 22-nt easiRNAs are known to be generated in the VC or VN by a Pol IVdependent pathway that involves RDR2. RDR6 is known to accumulate in the VC and could be involved in the generation of easiRNAs or other secondary siRNAs. Additionally, niRNAs derived from anthers and easiRNAs derived from meiocytes or immature pollen stages could be accumulated in the mature pollen and mediate their action in the SCs. This is known for niRNAs, which drive RdDM in the SCs. c) Tissue-specific location of sRNA biogenesis pathways in the ovule. Ovules contain different nuclei and tissues. Mainly, the egg cell (EC) and the central cell (CC) are involved in the generation of the embryo and endosperm after fertilization with the male-derived sperm cells. A mix of inner and outer integuments surround the ovule cells, including the chalazal integuments. All the canonical RdDM AGOs (AGO4, 6, and 9) have been detected in the EC and CC nuclei. Evidence of the activity of the RdDM pathway from sRNA sequencing and DNA methylation indicates that this pathway should be active in either the EC or the CC and driven by its interaction with CLSY3 and 4. miRNA and secondary siRNA associated AGOs such as AGO1, 5, and 7 accumulate in the cytoplasm of both the EC and CC. AGO2 and 8 accumulate only in the EC. The integuments show the accumulation of AGO1, 5, 7, and 10, while AGO3 accumulates only in the chalazal integuments. No activity of miRNAs or secondary siRNAs has been reported in the ovule, although there is evidence for the presence of mobile 21-/22-nt siRNAs, pointing to the activity of some of those pathways. d) Tissue-specific location of sRNA biogenesis pathways in the seed. After fertilization, the ovule generates the seed that contains two main tissues, the endosperm and the embryo. In the seed, the RdDM pathway should be active in either the endosperm and/or the embry. All the canonical RdDM AGOs (AGO4, 6, and 9) have been detected in the endosperm and the embryo. miRNA and secondary siRNA-associated AGOs such as AGO1. 5, and 7 accumulate in the cytoplasm of both the endosperm and the embryo at different times postfertilization. AGO10 accumulates only in the embryo postfertilization. The seed coat shows accumulation of AGO1, 4, 5,6, 7, and 10, while AGO3 accumulates only in the chalazal. miRNA activity is particularly important after fertilization and drives embryogenesis through all seed development. There is evidence of movement of 21-/22-nt secondary siRNAs at early seed developmental stages before the isolation of the seed coat between the seed coat and the endosperm. 24-nt siRENs accumulate in the seed coat and could potentially be transferred to the endosperm from this compartment at early seed development times. Additionally, male-transmitted miRNAs could mediate the regulation of transcripts in the seed, most likely in the endosperm.

tissue-specific accumulation in reproductive structures. Trans-acting siRNAs (tasiRNAs) are a class of secondary siRNAs that derive from the targeting of TAS transcripts by different miRNAs, including miR173, miR828 and miR390, which generate phased siRNAs [23]. TasiRNAs are well-characterized in somatic tissues where they control the expression of key developmental regulators such as auxin response factor genes (ARFs) [24]. In addition to their important functions in somatic tissues the activity of the canonical tasiRNA pathway is partially needed in the cells surrounding the megaspore mother cell (the pre-meiotic cell that will give rise to the female gametophyte) for the specification of the female germline in Arabidopsis [25-27]. While the function of tasiRNAs in the PTGS regulation of their targets [28-30] or the mediation of DNA methylation through a non-canonical pathway [31] is well described in somatic tissues, their direct targets in reproductive tissues remain uncharacterized.

In addition to tasiRNAs, another type of secondary siRNAs, reproductive phasiRNAs, are crucial for the development of the male gamete. Similar to ta-siRNAs, phasiRNAs of 21- and 24-nt derive from miRNA-cleaved transcripts (termed *PHAS* loci) that are processed in a phased manner by DCL [32]. 21-nt phasiRNAs are initiated by different miRNA families (including miR2118/412, miR11308, and miR14051) which in premeiotic anthers of the majority of monocots and some dicots target several transcripts (termed 21-PHAS) [32-36] that differ from their targets in somatic tissues [32,37]. 21-nt phasiRNAs generated in the somatic layers of anthers mediate PTGS of a diverse group of transcripts (including genes and TEs) in the male germ cells of, at least, rice and maize [19,35]. On the other hand, 24-nt phasiRNAs are triggered by miRNAs (including miR2275, miR11308, miR2118/412, and miR14051), which drive their production from a set of transcripts termed 24-PHAS mediated by the monocotexclusive DCL5 [38,39]. In contrast to 21-nt phasiR-NAs, 24-nt phasiRNAs accumulate at later anther developmental stages [34] and mediate canonical DNA methylation [40]. The elimination of phasiRNAs reduces plant fertility, indicating their importance for the development of the male gametophyte [32-35]. Interestingly, in some plant species, certain miRNAs can drive the generation of both 21- and 24-nt phasiRNAs from the same PHAS loci [36,38]. This indicates that other factors regulating the accessibility of the targeted transcript to different DCL proteins might exist and highlights the potential dynamism of this secondary siRNA class [41].

In addition to tasiRNA and phasiRNAs, secondary siRNAs derived from TEs show a characteristic accumulation pattern in reproductive structures [42]. Initially observed in Arabidopsis mutants displaying TE transcriptional reactivation, TE-derived siRNAs of 21-/

22-nt (termed epigenetically activated siRNAs, easiR-NAs) silence TEs when RdDM activity is compromised [18,43]. In line with this role, easiRNAs accumulate naturally in the mature pollen grain of Arabidopsis thaliana [43], which has low levels of DNA methylation and repressive histone marks [44,45]. In somatic tissues, easiRNAs can be generated by a diversity of pathways that include the processing of RDR6-generated dsRNAs by DCL4 (including their natural genomic disposition with inverted repeats) [46], non-canonical miRNAmediated recognition of Pol II or Pol IV transcripts [12,17,18,47], and ribosome stalling due to the unfavorable codon usage of TE transcripts [48,49]. In Arabidopsis pollen, easiRNA accumulation is partially dependent on a non-canonical pathway that involves Pol IV [47,50], and DCL4 and 2 [17] (which also mediate the production of mobile secondary siRNAs [51]). easiRNAs are generated during pollen development [50], although certain populations could be transferred from meiocytes [17] or the tapetal cells, similar to nurse cell-derived 24-nt sRNAs [52]. In somatic tissues, easiRNAs use multiple overlapping mechanisms to silence TEs, including the PTGS of their transcripts via endonucleolytic cleavage [18,43,51] or translational repression [53], and transcriptional gene silencing (TGS) through H3K9me2 deposition [53,54] driven by non-canonical RDR6-RdDM. In the pollen grain, easiRNAs can, at least, mediate the PTGS of their targets [17,51], and also participate in non-canonical RdDM [50], although this later role needs further confirmation. In addition, easiRNAs might have functions that extend beyond the regulation of TE transcriptional and posttranscriptional activity. Indeed, their accumulation in the male gametophyte and their associated AGO proteins correlate with an increased intensity of the 'triploid block' hybridization barrier (which prevents interploidy crosses between tetraploid males and diploid females) in Arabidopsis [12,17,47,50]. Overall, these examples show the importance of secondary siRNAs for the correct development of reproductive tissues and genome stability in the gametes.

sRNA-mediated translational repression during sexual reproduction

sRNA-mediated translational repression is less understood than cleavage-based PTGS, in part due to the lack of technical approaches for studying this type of regulation in plants [55–57]. At the mechanism level, sRNAmediated translational repression is independent of mRNA deadenylation or RNA decay [58] and is mediated by, at least, AGO1, AGO3, and AGO10, which interact with cytoskeleton-, processing bodies (PBs)- and/or endoplasmic reticulum-associated components [59–61]. Both miRNAs and siRNAs can mediate this type of regulation [59,60,62,63]. Interestingly sRNA-mediated translational repression is modulated with cell/tissue specificity being reported to be high in the mature pollen grain compared to other tissues [64], and reduced in dark-grown plants [65]. The few reported events of sRNA-mediated translational repression in plants offer a treasure trove of fascinating PTGS examples. Several miRNAs induce the translational repression of their targets [66] and some of their translational repression events are developmentally modulated [67-69]. One of the most fascinating examples of this regulation was observed transgenerationally during reproduction. Wang et al. reported that a TE-derived siRNA (siRNA854), which naturally targets the PB component UBP1b to induce its cleavage [70], is sequestered by a paternally expressed gene (PEG2) transcript in the pollen grain. Interestingly, the effect of this sequestration is only evident transgenerationally in the seed, where appropriate amounts of siRNA854 are needed for proper seed development [63]. The mature pollen grain and the seed are known to exhibit strong translational repression [71,72]. Indeed, artificial miRNAs mediate strong translational repression of reporters in the mature pollen grain [64]. Future genome-wide analysis of the participation of miRNAs and siRNAs in the regulation of translational repression in reproductive tissues might reveal the overall relevance of this type of regulation.

Heterochromatic siRNAs diversity in reproductive tissues

Hc-siRNAs have a well-characterized genomic origin, biogenesis pathway, and role in mediating RdDM or TGS. Recent studies have shown that hc-siRNAs are produced with specificity for different cells and tissues. This specificity is regulated by the CLASSY (CLSY) proteins [73,74], a family of chromatin remodeling factors that interact with Pol IV [75,76]. This machinery is responsible for generating organ-specific populations of 24-nt siRNAs and is the main factor behind the production of ovule siRNAs in the endosperm (siren-RNAs) [77,78] and nurse cell-derived siRNAs in tapetal cells (niRNAs) [52]. Both types of 24-nt siRNAs can methylate targets with less perfect complementarity in trans [52,78], a feature that is not gametophyte-exclusive and was initially observed in somatic tissues [79].

Besides Pol IV-derived transcripts the RdDM pathway can accept non-canonical substrates. For example, in somatic tissues, Pol II-produced pre-miRNAs can generate 24-nt sRNAs that mediate the methylation in cis of their producing loci [80]. Furthermore, Pol IItranscribed loci containing inverted repeats, as the ones found in a member of the TE family Mutator, can enter the canonical RdDM and mediate the DNA methylation of loci with sequence complementarity [81]. In reproductive tissues, the use of non-canonical substrates in the generation of hc-siRNAs is exemplified by the use of Pol II-transcripts for the generation of 24-nt phasiRNAs [34,40], as explained above. It is unknown if other classes of reproductive 24-nt siRNAs can derive from similar non-canonical transcripts. The analyses of the subcellular localization of the AGO proteins associated with hc-siRNAs have revealed a strong versatility and potentially important roles of this pathway in the gametophytes and embryo. AGO4, 6, and 9 accumulate in the egg and central cells in the female gametophyte, and in the sperm cells (with AGO6 accumulating also in the vegetative nucleus) in the male gametophyte [14]. Interestingly, AGOs that do not play a major role in regulating RdDM activity in somatic tissues are important in reproductive structures. For example, both AGO5 and AGO9 participate in the regulation of DNA methylation in the SAM and the male gametophyte [16,82]. This indicates that AGO5 has a dual role in the loading of 21-/22-nt miRNAs and TE-derived siRNAs, but also 24-nt TE-derived siRNAs [16]. Genetic analyses have shown that AGO5 and AGO9 play a partial role in the correct determination of the precursor cell (termed megaspore mother cell, MMC) that will give rise to the mature ovule [10,25]. The activity of these AGOs in the cells surrounding premeiotic ovules, most likely through canonical RdDM (at least for AGO9), is redundant with that of tasiR-NAs [10,25].

Other forms of non-canonical RdDM such as RDR6-RdDM might be active in reproductive structures. Indeed, RDR6-RdDM shows an inflorescence-specific activity determined by the expression pattern of AGO6 [3,31,83–85]. AGO6 is also present in the sperm cells, the vegetative nucleus of pollen, and the central cell in the ovule [14]. This subcellular localization points to a potential role of non-canonical RdDM in the gametophytes or postfertilization tissues, but the influence of this form of RdDM remains unexplored. Interestingly, other tissue-specific factors that do not belong to the canonical RdDM pathway in the plant body can modulate its tissue-specific activity. In the male gametophyte, AGO9-mediated heterochromatic silencing in the sperm cells is promoted by its interaction with the pollen-exclusive transcription factor ARID1 [86]. Beyond their role in regulating RdDM in the gametophytes where they are produced, hc-siRNAs have also been connected to the transgenerational inheritance of epialleles in maize [87], although, in Arabidopsis, this class of sRNAs seems to have a limited transgenerational influence [50]. In sum, these findings suggest that hc-siRNA populations and activity in reproductive tissues are heavily influenced by tissue/ cell-specific factors that might modulate RdDM activity according to their needs.

Concluding remarks

The role of RNA silencing during plant sexual reproduction involves a diverse array of canonical and noncanonical mechanisms. These mechanisms are determined both by the tissue-specific expression of its factors (with the examples of AGO5, AGO9, and CLSY

proteins as some of the most versatile components) and interactors (such as ARID1). Further, other components such as sRNA consumption during non-cell autonomous RNA silencing [88], the role of sRNA posttranscriptional modifications [89], or the incorporation of non-canonical sRNAs derived from functional noncoding RNAs (such as rRNAs and tRNAs) [90-93], are underexplored aspects that might play relevant roles during sexual reproduction. Yet, certain developmental stages such as pre-meiotic and meiotic tissues are understudied due to their relative inaccessibility which makes them incompatible with high-throughput sequencing. Future research on this topic will likely bear more fascinating examples of RNA silencing diversity expanding our understanding of the tissuespecific activities of this mechanism in eukaryotic organisms.

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Declaration of competing interest

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Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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