

FIG. 7. Methylation status of imprinted genes and satellite repeats at later passages (passage 5) in Vivo and Vitro ES cells (BPF1 mouse strain). There was no significant difference in the percentage of methylated sites for either ES cell line. M: marker, n.c: negative control, Un: unmethylated, Me: methylated.

normal imprinting can be easily disrupted during preimplantation development *in vitro*. For example, *in vitro* cultured blastocysts often exhibit hypomethylation of the *H19* DMR, which results in the biallelic expression of the *H19* gene (Doherty et al., 2000; Mann et al., 2004; Sasaki et al., 1995). In our study, abnormal imprinting was still observed in early-passage Vitro ES cells. According to the expression analysis at this time point, *Dnmt3b* mRNA expression levels were significantly lower in Vitro ES cells than in Vivo ES cells. *Dnmt3b* is well known as a *de novo* methyltransferase, and is required for the establishment of new methylation

patterns during embryonic development (Okano et al., 1999). *Dnmt3b* is also required for the maintenance of DNA methylation in addition to the major maintenance methyltransferase *Dnmt1* (Dodge et al., 2005). These reports suggest that low expression levels of *Dnmt3b* may result in unstable genomic imprinting in Vitro ES cells.

In addition, hypomethylation in XX ES cells is associated with reduced levels of *Dnmt3a* and *Dnmt3b*, and it is known that the ectopic expression of these factors restores global methylation levels (Zvetkova et al., 2005), which supports our hypothesis. However, the demethylation of the *H19*

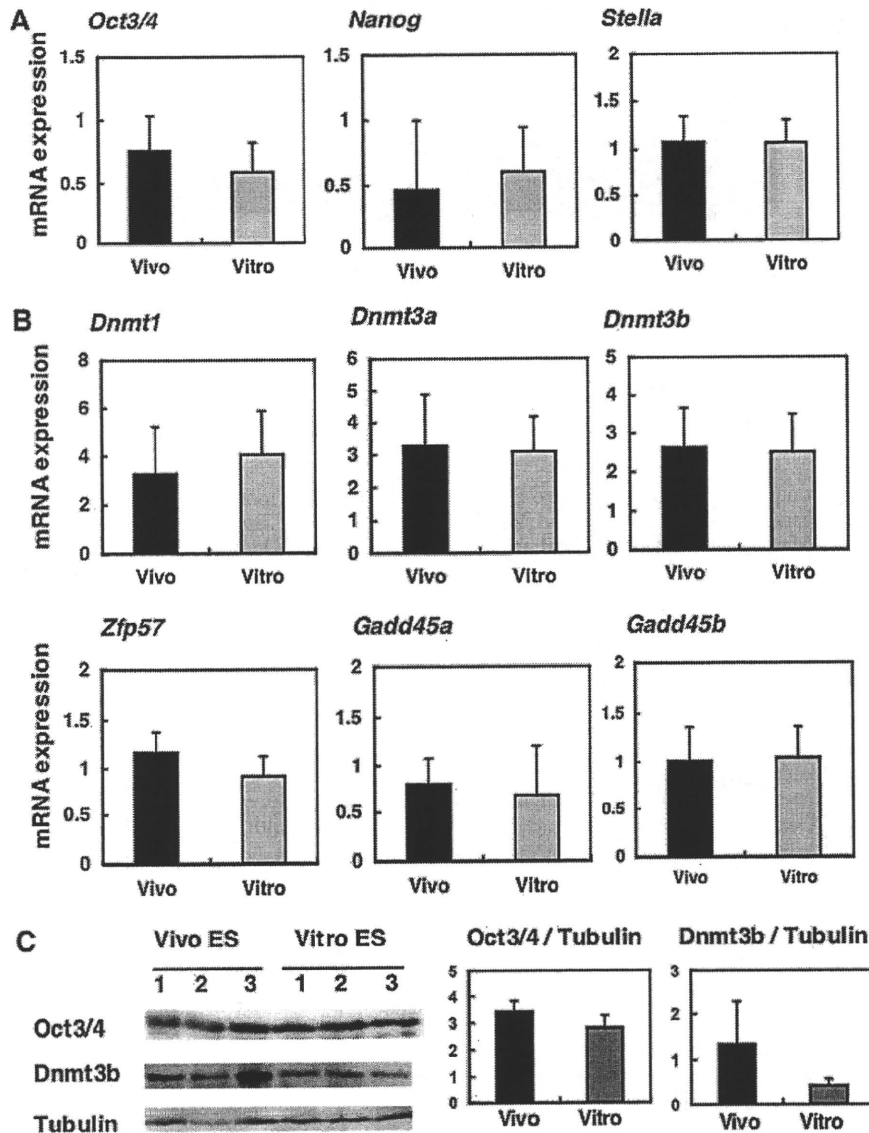


FIG. 8. Expression patterns of Vivo and Vitro ES cells (BPF1 mouse strain) at later passages (passage 6: V1–V4 and Vt1–Vt4, passage 5: V5, V6, Vt5, and Vt6). (A) Quantitative real-time PCR analysis for ES cell markers (*Oct3/4*, *Nanog*, and *Stella*). (B) Quantitative real-time PCR analysis for three DNA methyltransferases (*Dnmt1*, *Dnmt3a*, and *Dnmt3b*), and three putative methylation-related genes (*Zfp57*, *Gadd45a*, and *Gadd45b*). Data are the means \pm standard deviations ($n = 6$). (C) Immunoblot analysis with anti-*Oct3/4* and anti-*Dnmt3b*. Anti- α -tubulin was used for normalizing the data. Data are the means \pm standard deviations.

DMR was observed not only in XX ES cells but also in XY ES cells in our study (Fig. 6), indicating that other factors are also involved in demethylation. For example, *Gadd45b*, reported as a putative demethylation factor, was more highly expressed in Vitro ES cells than Vivo ES cells in the BPF1 mouse strain. *Gadd45* genes have been implicated in stress signaling in response to physiological or environmental stress factors, such as activated oxygen species, X-rays, and UV radiation (Liebermann and Hoffmann, 2008); therefore, *in vitro* culture conditions, which differ from the environments of the oviduct and uterus, could induce stress signaling and result in the upregulation of *Gadd45* mRNA

expression, possibly promoting disruption of normal imprinting. In contrast, the expression levels of *Stella* and *Zfp57* genes were not different in BPF1 ES cells. Although B6 ES cell lines showed significant differences in *Zfp57* expression, this gene is not associated with *H19* demethylation (Li et al., 2008). The shift in gene expression patterns of several methylation related-genes seems to promote demethylation and to inhibit methylation in early passage Vitro ES cells. On the other hand, immunoblot analysis did not detect differences in *Dnmt3b* expression levels, suggesting that *Dnmt3b* is unrelated to the epigenetic instability of Vitro ES cells and that other factors are involved in demethylation.

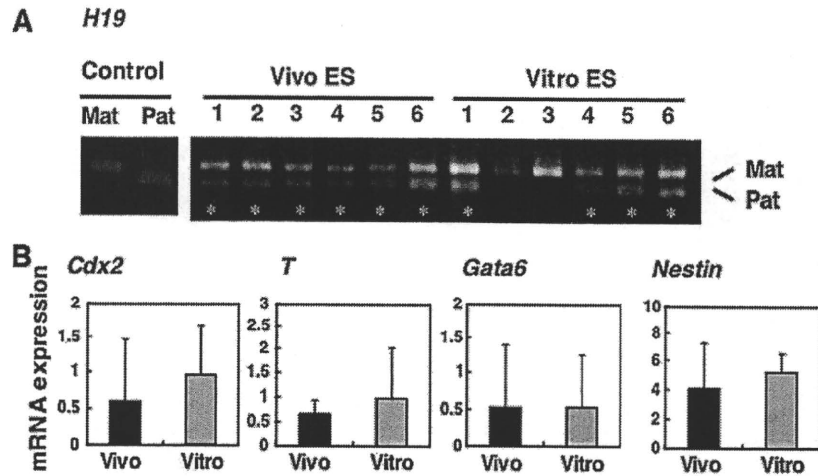


FIG. 9. Gene expression patterns of Vivo and Vitro ES cell-derived EBs (BPF1 mouse strain). (A) Allelic expression patterns of the *H19* imprinted gene in individual Vivo and Vitro ES cell-derived EBs. Both Vivo and Vitro ES cells often display biallelic expression (*). Mat: maternal allele (B6), Pat: paternal allele (PWK). (B) Quantitative real-time PCR analysis for genes expressed in each of the three germ layers, *Cdx2* (trophoblast), *T* (mesoderm), *Gata6* (primitive endoderm), and *Nestin* (neural progenitor). Significant differences in differentiation ability were not observed between Vivo and Vitro ES cells. Data are the means \pm standard deviations ($n = 6$).

In any case, we observed several differences in methylation status and mRNA expression patterns between Vivo and Vitro ES cells at very early passages, but no significant differences were found at later passages. Long-term culture of ES cells often affects the methylation status of imprinted genes and their totipotency (Dean et al., 1998). In our study, obviously abnormal genomic imprinting appears in both Vivo and Vitro ES cell lines at passage 5. The *H19* gene shows monoallelic expression in normal embryos (Mann et al., 2004); however, biallelic expression of this gene was observed at later passages of both types of ES cell line. We generated EBs to elucidate the pluripotency of Vitro ES cells, but we found no significant differences between Vivo and Vitro ES cells.

Our study has clarified that Vivo ES cells exhibited a more normal epigenotype than Vitro ES cells only at very early passages (below passage 2). In contrast, there was no significant difference between Vivo and Vitro ES cells at later passages. Therefore, we have to consider that repeated passages of ES cells disrupt normal genomic imprinting, leading to the abnormal biallelic expression of imprinted genes. Epigenetic alterations that arise after establishment and culture of ES cell lines are not corrected during postimplantation development, and these alterations are associated with aberrant imprinted gene expression in the fetus (Dean et al., 1998). In conclusion, it is advisable to use early-passage Vivo ES cells whenever possible to avoid abnormalities caused by long-term culture in mice. On the other hand, because Vitro ES cells are the only ones available in humans, a careful selection of ES cell lines is necessary to avoid the aberrant expression of imprinted genes, which could lead to abnormal development and disease.

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Author Disclosure Statement

The authors declare that no conflicting financial interests exist.

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Address correspondence to:

Dr. Izuho Hatada

Laboratory of Genome Science

Biosignal Genome Resource Center Institute

for Molecular and Cellular Regulation

Gunma University

3-39-15 Showa-machi

Maebashi, Gunma 371-8512, Japan

E-mail: ihatada@showa.gunma-u.ac.jp

RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Two-step cleavage of hairpin RNA with 5' overhangs by human DICER

Yoshinari Ando¹, Yoshiko Maida², Ayako Morinaga¹, Alexander M Burroughs¹, Ryuichiro Kimura³, Joe Chiba³, Harukazu Suzuki¹, Kenkichi Masutomi^{2,4}, Yoshihide Hayashizaki^{1*}

Abstract

Background: DICER is an RNase III family endoribonuclease that processes precursor microRNAs (pre-miRNAs) and long double-stranded RNAs, generating microRNA (miRNA) duplexes and short interfering RNA duplexes with 20~23 nucleotides (nts) in length. The typical form of pre-miRNA processed by the Drosha protein is a hairpin RNA with 2-nt 3' overhangs. On the other hand, production of mature miRNA from an endogenous hairpin RNA with 5' overhangs has also been reported, although the mechanism for this process is unknown.

Results: In this study, we show that human recombinant DICER protein (rDICER) processes a hairpin RNA with 5' overhangs *in vitro* and generates an intermediate duplex with a 29 nt-5' strand and a 23 nt-3' strand, which was eventually cleaved into a canonical miRNA duplex via a two-step cleavage. The previously identified endogenous pre-miRNA with 5' overhangs, pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA, is also determined to be a substrate of rDICER through the same two-step cleavage.

Conclusions: The two-step cleavage of a hairpin RNA with 5' overhangs shows that DICER releases double-stranded RNAs after the first cleavage and binds them again in the inverse direction for a second cleavage. These findings have implications for how DICER may be able to interact with or process differing precursor structures.

Background

DICER plays a key role in RNA interference pathways through the biogenesis of microRNA (miRNA) and small interfering RNA (siRNA) [1-3]. Most miRNA genes are transcribed as long primary transcripts (pri-miRNAs) where stem-loop structures with mature miRNA sequences embedded in the arm of a stem are cleaved by the Drosha nuclear microprocessor complex releasing a precursor miRNA (pre-miRNA) hairpin [4,5]. The cleavage site is determined mainly by the distance (~11 bp) from the stem-single stranded RNA junction of pri-miRNA and most pre-miRNAs have 2 nt-3' overhangs [6]. Pre-miRNAs, exported into the cytoplasm by Exportin-5 and Ran-GTP [7], are processed by the RISC loading complex (RLC) into 20~23 nt duplexes where the RNase III enzyme DICER plays a central role together with the double stranded (ds) RNA-binding proteins TRBP and PACT and the

miRNA-associated RNA-induced silencing complex (miRISC) core component Argonaute-2 (AGO2) [8-10]. miRNA duplexes processed by RLC are finally loaded to miRISC as a double stranded-structure [11] and separated into the functional guide strand, which is complementary to the target, and the passenger strand, which is subsequently degraded [12,13]. Strand selection of the functional guide strand by AGO2 depends on the thermodynamic stabilities of the base pairs at the 5' ends of the two strands [12,14,15]. Duplexes of siRNA or miRNA produced by DICER can be loaded in either direction to Argonaute [16-18]. Indeed, the mature miRNA either in the 5' or 3' strands can be harboured from pre-miRNA [19-21]. On the other hand, endogenous human AGO2 can bind directly to pre-miRNAs in DICER-knockout cells [22]. Recently, it was reported that human DICER is not essential for loading dsRNAs to AGO2 but functions in pre-selection of effective siRNAs for handoff to AGO2 [23].

Human DICER is a ~220 kDa protein consisting of several domains; an N-terminal DExH-box RNA heliase-like domain, a DUF283 domain, a PAZ domain,

* Correspondence: yoshihide@gsc.riken.jp

¹RIKEN Omics Science Center, 1-7-22 Suehiro-cho, Tsurumi-ku, Yokohama 230-0045, Japan

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article

two RNase III domains (RIIIa and RIIIb), and a dsRNA binding motif domain (DARM) [24]. The two RNase III domains of DICER form a single dsRNA processing center via intramolecular dimerization which together cleave the opposite strands of the dsRNA, generating dinucleotide-long 3' overhangs on both ends [25]. The crystal structure of Dicer from *Giardia intestinalis* showed that the hydrophobic pocket of the PAZ domain was responsible for the binding of the 3' dinucleotide overhangs of the substrate and the connector helix between the PAZ domain and RNase III domain functioned as a molecular ruler measuring the distance from the 3' end of pre-miRNA to the cleavage site [26,27]. However, 3'-dinucleotide dsRNA overhangs are not essential for binding with DICER [28]. When the 3' overhang is removed, DICER can still cleave dsRNA through interaction with the remaining 5' overhang [28]. This is consistent with MacRae et al. who found that the recombinant Dicer protein of *Giardia intestinalis* could cleave the dsRNA with 5' overhangs [27]. However, they used perfectly matched dsRNAs with no gap, which might resemble an endogenous siRNA precursor. An additional study by Flores-Jasso et al. showed that human recombinant DICER protein could nick either strand of a mononucleotide-5' overhanged pre-miRNA with some strand preferences [29]. Despite this, the detailed step mechanism for pre-miRNA cleavage, especially for the pre-miRNA with 5' overhangs, is not yet elucidated.

An alternative nuclear pathway of pre-miRNA biogenesis was described where a short intron with a hairpin can be spliced and debranched into pre-miRNA hairpin mimics (mirtrons) [30-32]. This processing pathway uses intron splicing machinery instead of the Drosha endonuclease; miRNA precursors generated from intronic sequences (debranched mirtrons) are believed to be incorporated into the canonical miRNA pathway as a substrate of DICER. Interestingly, mouse pre-mir-1982 is a mirtron with an 11 nt tail at the 5' end [33], although most mammalian mirtrons are hairpin structures with single nucleotide overhangs at both ends [32-34]. Mature mouse miR-1982* miRNA emerges without 11 nt-5' overhangs from deep sequencing data of murine cells [33,35] while the elimination mechanism of this 11 nt-5' tail is still unknown.

In this paper, we investigated the detailed processing pattern of hairpin RNAs containing 5' overhangs by human recombinant DICER. We show here that human recombinant DICER is able to process hairpin RNA with 5' overhangs and two-step cleavage by DICER forms the mature miRNA duplex from the hairpin RNAs. Additionally, pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA, which is a natural hairpin RNA with 5' overhangs, is also

processed by a two-step cleavage mediated by human recombinant DICER protein *in vitro*.

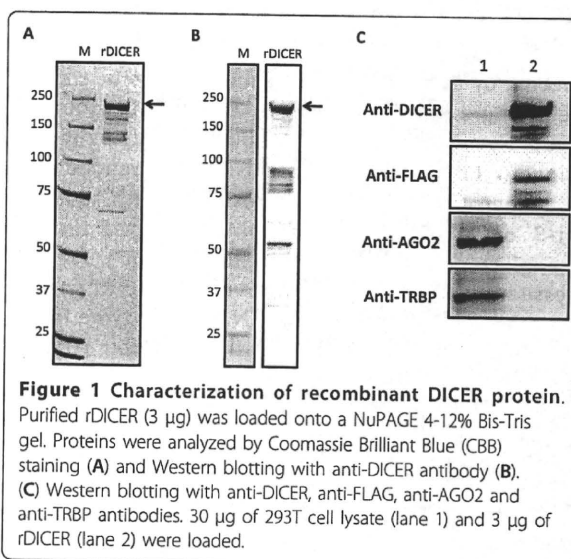
Results and Discussion

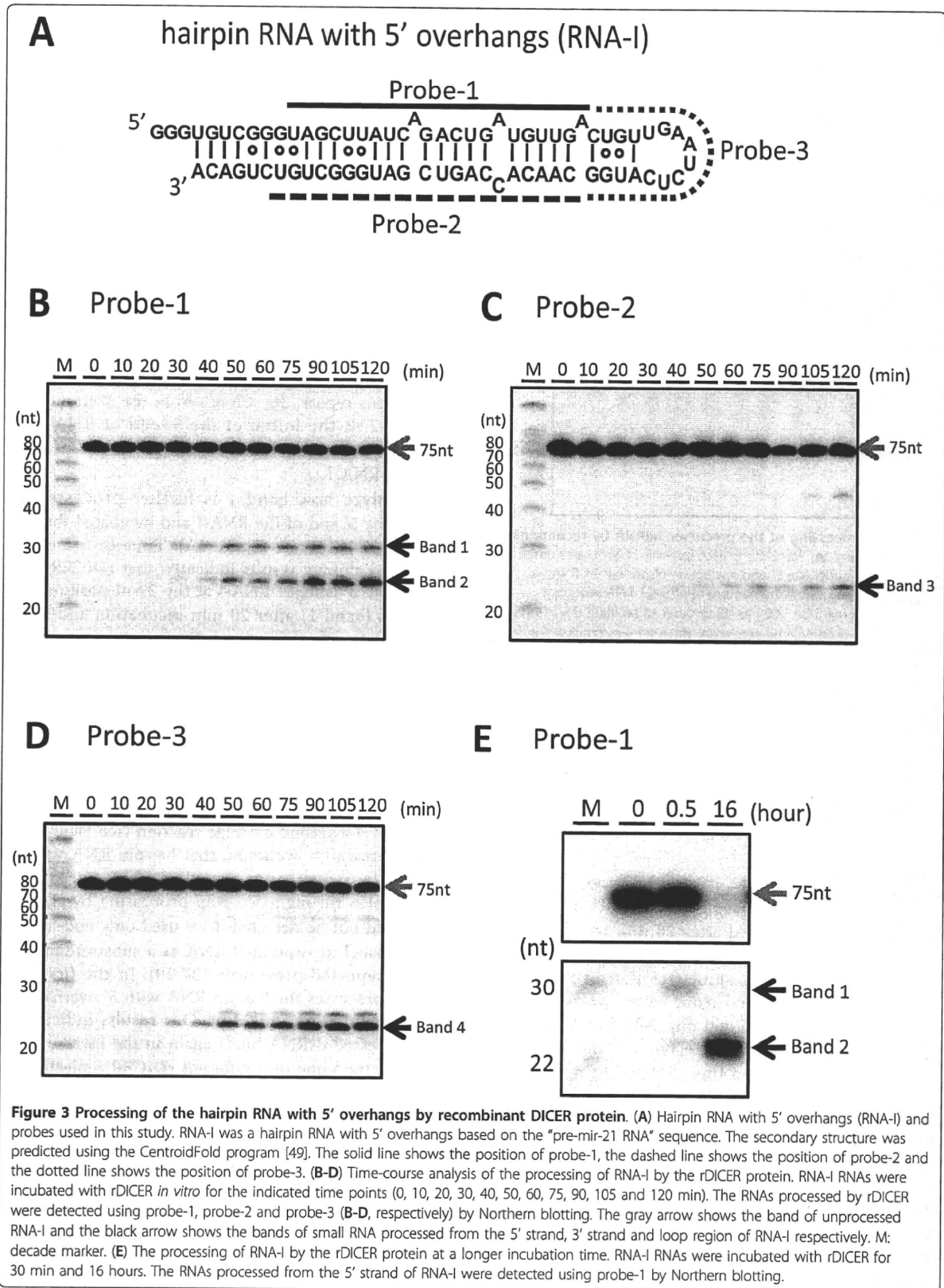
Processing of the pre-miRNA by recombinant DICER protein

We prepared purified recombinant DICER1 (rDICER) protein containing a FLAG-tag at the N-terminus (see Figures 1A and 1B). This rDICER does not contain known DICER-binding partners, AGO2 and TRBP (see Figure 1C). In order to confirm activity, we attempted to cleave pre-miRNA hairpin RNA using the rDICER. Forty-five pmol of pre-mir-21 RNA (see Figure 2A) was incubated with 2 pmol of the purified rDICER at the indicated times followed by purification. The reacted RNA substrates were subjected to Northern blotting using probe-1, corresponding to the antisense sequence of bases 2-22 of pre-mir-21 (see Figure 2A). A single band, 23 nucleotides in length, appeared after 20 min incubation and gradually increased. Thus, the purified rDICER possessed reasonable pre-miRNA processing activity to produce ~23 nt mature miRNA *in vitro* (see Figure 2B).

Processing of the hairpin RNA with 5' overhangs, RNA-I, by recombinant DICER protein

Using this rDICER, we performed a cleavage assay on a designed pre-miRNA mimic of hairpin RNA with trinucleotide-5' overhangs (RNA-I, see Figure 3A) to analyze whether DICER could process a hairpin RNA with 5' overhangs. The cleavage products were detected by Northern blotting using three different probes, probe-1, probe-2 and probe-3, corresponding to antisense





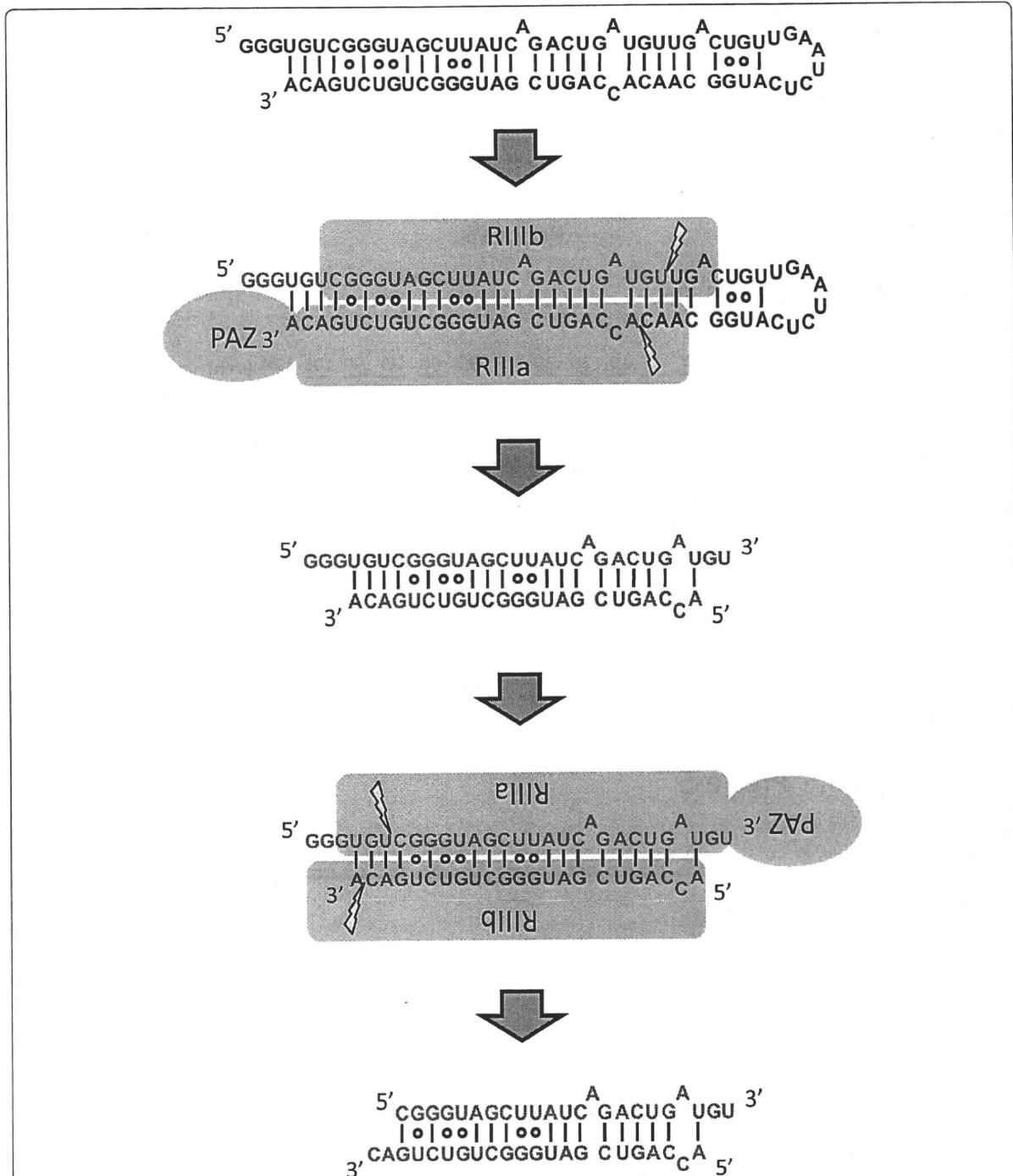


Figure 5 Model of the two-step processing of hairpin RNA with 5' overhangs (RNA-I) by DICER protein. rDICER processes hairpin RNA with 5' overhangs (RNA-I) to dsRNA with 29 nt-5' strand and 23 nt-3' strand after the first cleavage reaction and releases once from the binding site. Then, the dsRNA is bound in the inverse direction with the same or different rDICER molecule and is measured after the anchoring 3' end of the 29-nt strand to generate dsRNA with 23 nt cleaved from the 29-nt strand and 22 nt cleaved from the 23-nt strand. "PAZ" domain of rDICER colored purple; "RIIIa" and "RIIIb" domain of rDICER colored blue. Lightning marks indicate the cleavage sites in the RNA.

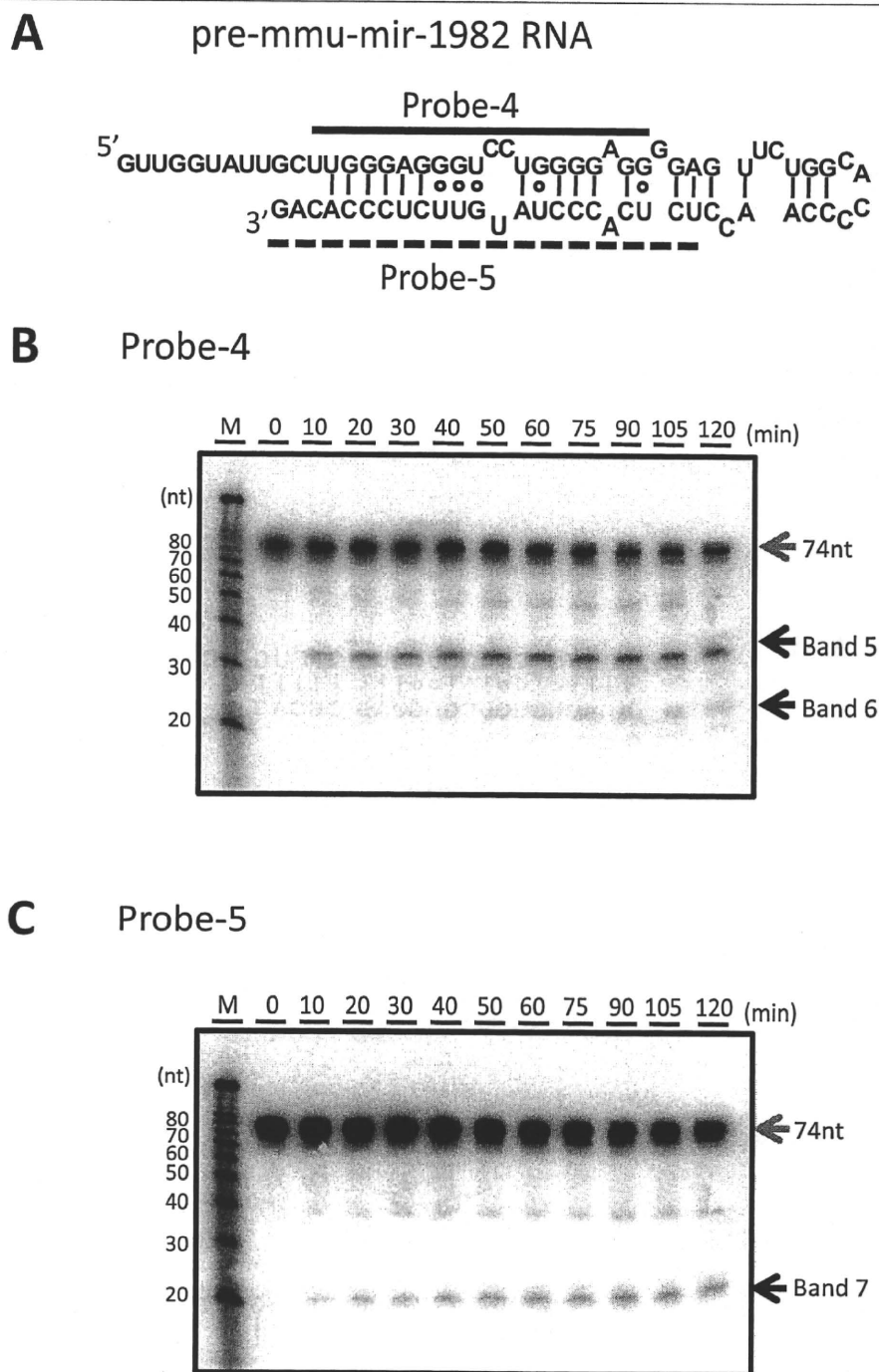


Figure 6 Processing of pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA by recombinant DICER protein. (A) Pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA and probes used in this study. The secondary structure was predicted using the CentroidFold program [49]. The solid line shows the position of probe-4 and the dashed line shows the position of probe-5. (B-C) Time-course analysis of the processing of pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA by the rDICER protein. pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNAs were incubated with rDICER *in vitro* for the indicated time points (0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 75, 90, 105 and 120 min). The RNAs processed by rDICER were detected using probe-4 (B), probe-5 (C) by Northern blotting. The gray arrow shows the band of unprocessed RNA and the black arrow shows the bands of small RNA processed from the 5' strand and 3' strand of pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA respectively. M: decade marker.

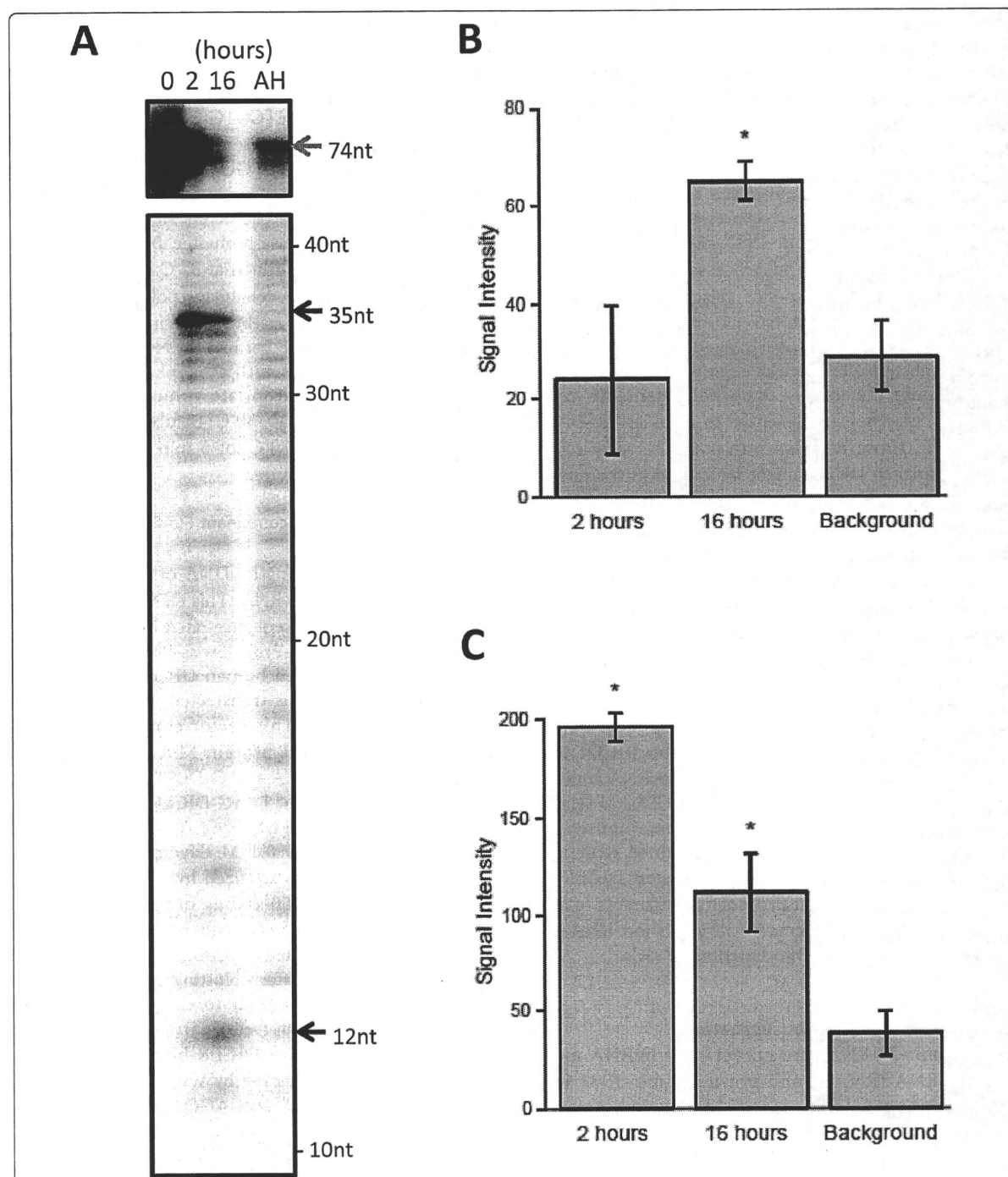


Figure 7 Two-step processing of the 5'-end labelled pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA by recombinant DICER protein. (A) *In vitro* processing of the pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA by the rDICER protein at a longer incubation time. 5' labelled pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNAs were incubated with rDICER for 0, 2 and 16 hours. The gray arrow shows the band of unprocessed RNA and the black arrow shows the bands of small RNA processed from pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA. AH: the alkaline hydrolysis ladder of pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA. The size of each band was determined by the AH ladder. **(B-C)** The signal intensities were quantified from the 12 nt **(B)** and 35 nt **(C)** bands in Figure 7A. These plots show average values bracketed by s. e.m. error bars; calculated from two independent experiments. Background refers to the signal intensity of the same sized band in the AH lane. The p-value was calculated using a simple t-test for each time point (2 hrs and 16 hrs) relative to the background. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) in signal intensities are denoted with an asterisk. The significant calculated p-values are as follows: the 12-nt band at 16 hours, $p = 0.017$; the 35-nt band at 2 hours, $p = 0.0073$; and the 35-nt band at 16 hours, $p = 0.024$.

Conclusions

We show human rDICER recognizes and processes a hairpin RNA bearing a trinucleotide-5' overhang, and the two-step cleavage by rDICER forms canonical miRNA duplexes from the hairpin RNAs. It indicates that human rDICER functions as a molecular ruler by anchoring the 3' end of both the hairpin RNA with 5' overhangs and the 5' strand in the intermediate duplex. Moreover, an endogenously-expressed pre-miRNA with 5' overhangs, pre-mmu-mir-1982, also can be utilized as a substrate of rDICER and processed into a canonical miRNA duplex by the two-step cleavage reaction. While pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA is a naturally expressed pre-miRNA [33,35], this 5'-overhanged structure is not a suitable substrate for nuclear export by Exportin-5 [43] and, assuming the absence of possible alternative export pathways, may not be presented to cytoplasmic DICER in the cells. However, it is worth noting a recent report, that mammalian DICER might be located in the nucleus and associate with ribosomal DNA chromatin [44]. We have also observed human DICER localized in both cytoplasm and nucleus (unpublished data, Ando *et al.*). These findings raise the intriguing possibility that nuclear DICER could process hairpin RNA with 5'-overhangs, like pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA.

The two-step cleavage of a hairpin RNA with 5' overhangs shows that rDICER can release dsRNAs after the first cleavage and binds them again in the inverse direction for a second cleavage. The DICER protein's ability to release and bind dsRNA again indicates DICER could be capable of binding and processing dsRNA multiple times during short RNA maturation. DICER has recently been linked to the processing of diverse non-coding RNA precursors with as-yet undetermined structures. The experiments performed above suggest DICER has considerable flexibility in processing precursors, contributing to an ability to generate various short RNA products for incorporation into functional RISCs.

Methods

Preparation of hairpin RNA substrates

Pre-hsa-mir-21 RNA (pre-mir-21), pre-miRNA mimic hairpin RNA (RNA-I) and pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA used in this study were generated by *in vitro* transcription using the Ampliscribe T7 High Yield Transcription kits (Epicentre) according to manufacturer's instructions. We made double-stranded DNA templates with T7 RNA polymerase promoter sequence by overlap-PCR using the following oligonucleotide pair; pre-mir-21-sense 5'-taatacagactcactatagAGCTTATCAGACTGATGTTGACTG-3' and pre-mir-21-antisense 5'-ACAGCCATCGACTGGTGTGGCCATGAGATTCAACAGTCAACATC-3', RNAI-sense 5'-taatacagactcactatagg

TGTCGGGTAGCTTATCAGACTGATGTTGA-3' and RNAI-antisense 5'-TGTCAGACAGCCCATCGACTGTGTTGCCATGAGATTCAACAGTCAACA-3', pre-mmu-mir-1982-sense 5'-taatacagactcactataGTTGGTATTGCTTGGGAGGGTCTTGGGGAGGGGAGTT-3' and pre-mmu-mir-1982-antisense 5'-CTGTGGGAGAACATAGGGTGAGAGGTTGGGGTGCCAGAAACTCCCTCCCCA-3'. The overlapped sequences are underlined and the lower-case characters show the sequence of the T7 RNA polymerase promoter. *In vitro* transcription reactions were performed at 37°C overnight. Transcripts were run on 10% denaturing polyacrylamide gels in 0.5x TBE (45 mM Tris-borate, 1 mM EDTA), gel-excised, eluted from the gel in 1 M NaCl at 4°C overnight, and precipitated with ethanol. The pellet was resuspended in an appropriate volume of water and stored into the freezer at -30°C. Before use, RNA substrates were heated to 70°C for 5 min and then slowly cooled to room temperature.

Affinity purification of recombinant FLAG-DICER fusion proteins

We assembled a full-length cDNA of human DICER1 protein from HeLa total RNA. This cDNA sequence was identical to the coding sequence cited in the Swiss-Prot Protein Database (Swiss-Prot) [Swiss-Prot: Q9UPY3]. N-terminally FLAG-tagged human DICER1 protein was purified from 293T cells transfected with the plasmid pCA-FLAG-DICER1. This vector contained the full-length human DICER1 protein FLAG-tagged at the amino terminus in a pCA-FLAG-DEST vector [45]. We purified the recombinant FLAG-DICER1 fusion protein (rDICER) using ANTI-FLAG M2-Agarose Affinity Gel (Sigma) and eluted by 0.1 M Glycine-HCl (pH3.5). Then, the eluate was neutralized by Tris-HCl (pH8.0). The average yield was 50-100 µg of the active form of rDICER protein from 1 × 10⁸ culture cell. Purified rDICER protein was detected by Coomassie Brilliant Blue (CBB) staining and Western blotting using anti-DICER (H212, Santa Cruz) antibody to check for successful homogenous purification (see Figures 1A and 1B). The contamination of known DICER-binding proteins in rDICER samples was checked by Western blotting using anti-FLAG (M2, Sigma), anti-AGO2 (07-590, Upstate) and anti-TRBP (ab42018, Abcam) antibody, respectively (see Figure 1C).

Processing of RNA substrates using recombinant DICER enzyme

The affinity-purified rDICER protein (2 pmol) was incubated with 45 pmol of RNA substrates (pre-mir-21 RNA, RNA-I or pre-mmu-mir-1982 RNA) in 1x reaction buffer (300 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl, 20 mM

HEPES, 5 mM MgCl₂, pH 9.0) and 40 units of RNase-OUT (Invitrogen). These mixtures were incubated at 37°C for the indicated times. The reactions were purified by phenol-chloroform extraction followed by sodium acetate-ethanol precipitation at -20°C. The RNA pellet was resuspended in water at a final concentration of approximately 1 pmol/μl.

Northern blotting

rDICER-processed RNAs (1 pmol) were separated on 7 M urea-denaturing 20% polyacrylamide gels, then blotted onto Hybond-N+ membranes (GE Healthcare) using a Trans-Blot SD Semi-Dry Transfer Cell (Bio-Rad). Hybridization was performed in Church buffer (0.5 M NaHPO₄, pH 7.2, 1 mM EDTA and 7% SDS) containing 10⁶ c.p.m./ml of each ³²P-labelled probe for 14 h. The membranes were washed in 2x SSC, and the signals were detected by autoradiography. All experiments were repeated and replicated consistently.

The probe sequences in this study were as follows: probe-1 (5'-TCAACATCAGTCTGATAAGCTA-3'), probe-2 (5'-ACAGCCCATCGACTGGTGTTG-3'), probe-3 (5'-CCATGAGATTCAACAG-3'), probe-4 (5'-CCTCCCAGGACCCTCCCAA-3') and probe-5 (5'-CTGTGGGAGAACATAGGGTGAGA-3'). The probes were 5'-end labelled using T4 polynucleotide kinase (TaKaRa Bio) with [γ -³²P] ATP (6000Ci/mmol) at 37°C for 4 h.

Cloning of cleavage products

rDICER-processed RNAs (1 pmol) were separated on 7 M urea-denaturing 15% polyacrylamide gels, then the gel was stained by SYBR Gold (Invitrogen). The band around 23 nt was excised from the gel and purified as described above. The purified RNA was cloned by the Small RNA cloning kit (TaKaRa Bio) and sequenced by capillary sequencing.

5'-end labelling of the transcript

For the 5'-end labelling, RNA (45 pmol) was dephosphorylated with CIP at 37°C for 60 min. The reaction was inactivated by phenol-chloroform extraction and precipitated by sodium acetate-ethanol at -20°C. The pellet was resuspended in an appropriate volume of water. The dephosphorylated transcript was 5' end-labelled using T4 polynucleotide kinase (TaKaRa Bio) with [γ -³²P] ATP (3000Ci/mmol) at 37°C for 4 h. The 5'-end labeled transcript was PAGE-purified as described above and the RNA pellet was resuspended in water at a final concentration of approximately 0.5 pmol/μl. One microliter of this was used for the processing reaction by rDICER. These processed samples were run on 7.5 M urea-denaturing 20% polyacrylamide gels in 1x TBE buffer with RNA molecular

marker or the products of alkaline hydrolysis of the same RNA molecule. The alkaline hydrolysis ladder was generated by incubating the labelled RNA in alkaline hydrolysis buffer (Ambion) at 100°C for 10 min. The signals were detected by autoradiography and quantified using ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health; <http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/>). The signal intensities were calculated as the mean of pixel value of selected area.

Additional material

Additional file 1: Supplementary information.

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Author details

¹RIKEN Omics Science Center, 1-7-22 Suehiro-cho, Tsurumi-ku, Yokohama 230-0045, Japan. ²Cancer Stem Cell Project, National Cancer Center Research Institute, 5-1-1 Tsukiji, Chuo-ku, Tokyo 104-0045, Japan. ³Department of Biological Science and Technology, Tokyo University of Science, 2641 Yamazaki, Noda, Chiba 278-8510, Japan. ⁴PREST, Japan Science and Technology Agency, 4-1-8 Honcho Kawaguchi, Saitama 332-0012, Japan.

Authors' contributions

YA conceived the study, designed and performed experiments and drafted the manuscript. YM and AM participated in the experimental design and performed experiments. RK and JC participated in the experimental design and purified recombinant FLAG-DICER fusion proteins. AMB, HS and KM participated in the design of the study and revised the manuscript. YH designed the research project, provided funding, supervised the study and critically reviewed the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Minireview

RNA-dependent RNA polymerases in RNA silencing

Yoshiko Maida¹ and Kenkichi Masutomi^{1,2,*}

¹Division of Cancer Stem Cell, National Cancer Center Research Institute, 5-1-1 Tsukiji, Chuo-ku, Tokyo 104-0045, Japan

²PREST, Japan Science and Technology Agency, 4-1-8 Honcho Kawaguchi, Saitama 332-0012, Japan

*Corresponding author
e-mail: kmasutom@ncc.go.jp

Abstract

RNA-dependent RNA polymerases (RdRPs) synthesize double-stranded RNAs that are processed into small RNAs and mediate gene silencing. Viral RdRPs and cellular RdRPs show little structural homology to each other. Cellular RdRPs play key roles in RNA silencing by producing complementary strands for target RNAs via Dicer-dependent and -independent mechanisms. Although the existence of a functional mammalian homolog of RdRP has long been predicted, traditional approaches to identify such enzymes were unsuccessful. Recently, human telomerase reverse transcriptase, a polymerase closely related to viral RdRPs, has been shown to function as an RdRP and contributes to RNA silencing *in vivo*. These findings suggest that endogenous small interfering RNAs are produced by several mechanisms in eukaryotes.

Keywords: heterochromatin; human telomerase reverse transcriptase (hTERT); RNA component of mitochondrial RNA processing endoribonuclease (RMRP); RNA silencing; small interfering RNA (siRNA).

Introduction

RNA-dependent RNA polymerases (RdRPs) catalyze the formation of complementary RNA strands from single-stranded RNAs. In the beginning of evolution, all organisms used RNA as their genomes and RdRPs probably played pivotal roles for successive rounds of life cycle. RdRPs were identified from RNA viruses in the early 1960s (Baltimore et al., 1963), whereby RNA genomes encode viral RdRPs for the replication and transcription of their genomes. The discovery of eukaryotic RdRPs further revealed important functions of RdRPs *in vivo*. The first eukaryotic RdRP activity was found in Chinese cabbage in 1971 (Astier-Manificier and Cornuet, 1971). Subsequently, the homologs were identified in other plants (Boege and Heinz, 1980), fungi (Cogoni and Macino, 1999) and nematodes (Sardon et al., 2000). These eukaryotic RdRPs are categorized as cellular RdRPs different from viral RdRPs, and the studies have revealed that cellular

RdRPs play key roles in the regulation of gene expression through the RNA silencing mechanism.

The first report describing the RNA silencing phenomenon was published in 1928, before RNAs had been described. In the paper, Wingard described tobacco plants in which only the initially infected leaves were necrotic and diseased owing to tobacco ring spot virus, whereas the upper leaves had become asymptomatic and resistant to secondary infection, suggesting the acquisition of immunity to the virus (Wingard, 1928). This phenomenon was called 'recovery', and we now know that the 'recovery' from the virus disease involves RNA silencing (Covey et al., 1997). RNA silencing has been shown to be involved in various eukaryotic processes, such as defense against viruses and transposable elements, and developmental regulations. RNA silencing is a sequence-specific gene-regulatory mechanism, in which small RNAs, derived from precursor double-stranded RNAs (dsRNAs), repress the targeted gene expression transcriptionally and/or post-transcriptionally. In the organisms that possess RdRPs, the precursor dsRNAs are endogenously produced from the template single-stranded RNAs through the RdRP activity. In this review, we summarize the structural basis of RdRPs and the functions of RdRPs in gene regulation.

Structural and biochemical features of RdRP

There are two major groups of RdRP: viral RdRPs and cellular RdRPs. Viral and cellular RdRPs share little sequence homology. The crystal structures of viral RdRPs are similar to those of retroviral reverse transcriptases, and they share a structure resembling a closed 'right hand' containing palm, thumb and finger domains (Sousa, 1996). The palm domain structure is particularly conserved and contains four sequence motifs preserved in all of these polymerases, indicating the fundamental importance of these structural elements in the enzymatic function of the polymerases (van Dijk et al., 2004). The core of the 'palm' structure consists of two α -helices and a four-stranded antiparallel β -sheet, shared among numerous nucleic acids polymerases with RNA recognition motif.

Viral RdRPs initiate minus-strand RNA synthesis by two different mechanisms: *de novo* and primer-dependent initiation (van Dijk et al., 2004). *de novo* initiation, also known as primer-independent initiation, is widely used in RNA viruses for complete replication of viral genomes. Several RNA viruses initiate RNA synthesis using either nucleotide or uridylylated protein primers. The nucleotide primers used in primer-dependent initiation can be divided into two groups. One type is the orthodox primers binding to complementary

template RNA. This type of primer includes the oligonucleotide primers and the 5' end of capped cellular mRNA (cap-snatched) primers. Another is the 3' terminus of the template RNA that folds back as hairpin loop (back-priming). RNA viruses can use one or more priming mechanisms for RNA synthesis (van Dijk et al., 2004).

RdRPs are present in one or more copies in a wide range of eukaryotes, from early-branching parabasalids, such as *Giardia*, to multicellular forms, including plants, fungi, yeast and nematods (Table 1). These cellular RdRPs are encoded by *RDR* genes. Phylogenetic and protein motif analyses revealed a wide distribution of *RDR* homologs in eukaryote from protists to multicellular organisms, with no detectable prokaryotic or viral homologs (Zong et al., 2009). By contrast, no *RDR* homologs have been identified in vertebrate and insect genomes, even though these organisms also have RNA-mediated silencing mechanisms. Cellular RdRPs share the catalytic double-psi β -barrel (DPBB) domain, containing a signature metal-coordinating motif, with the universally conserved β' subunit of DNA-dependent RNA polymerase (Salgado et al., 2006). For example, the RdRP of *Neurospora crassa*, QDE-1, has two DPBB motifs on a single polypeptide chain and it forms dimer for polymerase reaction (Salgado et al., 2006). The highly conserved region in the DPBB domain of cellular RdRPs includes the DbDGD motif (b is a bulky residue), and the similar DxDGD motif is conserved in the β' subunit of DNA-dependent RNA polymerases. The DxDGD motif has been shown to be essential for cellular RdRP activity. Although the motif is reminiscent of the metal-binding GDD motif (motif C) of the viral RdRPs, each RdRP belongs to different superfamilies of nucleic acid polymerases, suggesting early branching of these polymerases in evolution. In principle, RDR proteins could mediate both pri-

mer-dependent and primer-independent RNA silencing (Sugiyama et al., 2005; Salgado et al., 2006). The primer-independent process can be seen in various organisms in the production of endogenous secondary small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) (Aoki et al., 2007), and the RNA products synthesized in this manner possess 5'-triphosphate termini, whereas siRNAs generated through the cleavage of long dsRNAs via RNase III enzymes share 5'-monophosphate structure (Aoki et al., 2007) (Figure 1A and B).

Roles of cellular RdRPs in RNA silencing

Cellular RdRPs play important roles in both transcriptional and post-transcriptional gene silencing (Figure 1). Plants have six *RDRs* (*RDR1*–*RDR6*) (Wassenegger and Krczal, 2006), and each of them is involved in different gene silencing mechanisms. *RDR1* and *RDR6* are induced upon the cellular defense against exogenous invaders, such as viruses, viroids and transgenes. Antiviral immunity in plants is conceptualized into three phases: initiation, amplification and systemic spread. In initiation, DICER-LIKE (DCL) proteins cleave dsRNAs of viral replicative products into primary siRNAs. Following initiation, *RDR1* and *RDR6* amplify the silencing signals via catalyzing the synthesis of new viral dsRNAs, which are processed into secondary viral siRNAs by DCLs. This RDR-dependent antiviral silencing resulted in more than 20-fold amplification of viral siRNAs (Wang et al., 2010). *RDR6* is also involved in post-transcriptional gene silencing. Post-transcriptional gene silencing is occasionally observed in plants carrying multiple copies of transgene constructs. Extensive primary transcription of trans-

Table 1 RNA-dependent RNA polymerases (RdRPs) in various organisms.

Organism	RdRP	Characteristic functions and products in gene silencing
Fungus		
<i>Schizosaccharomyces pombe</i>	Rdp1	PTGS, TGS
<i>Neurospora crassa</i>	QDE-1	PTGS, qiRNA
	Two others	
Plant		
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	RDR1	PTGS
	RDR2	TGS, RdDM
	RDR6	PTGS, ta-siRNA
	Three others	
Nematode		
<i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i>	EGO-1	PTGS, TGS, 22G-RNA
	RRF-1	PTGS, 22G-RNA
	RRF-3	PTGS, 26G-RNA
	One other	
Fruit fly		
<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	D-elp1	TGS
Mammal		
<i>Homo sapiens</i>	hTERT	PTGS

PTGS, post-transcriptional gene silencing; TGS, transcriptional gene silencing; qiRNA, QDE-2-interacting small RNA; RdDM, RNA-directed DNA methylation; ta-siRNA, trans-acting siRNA.

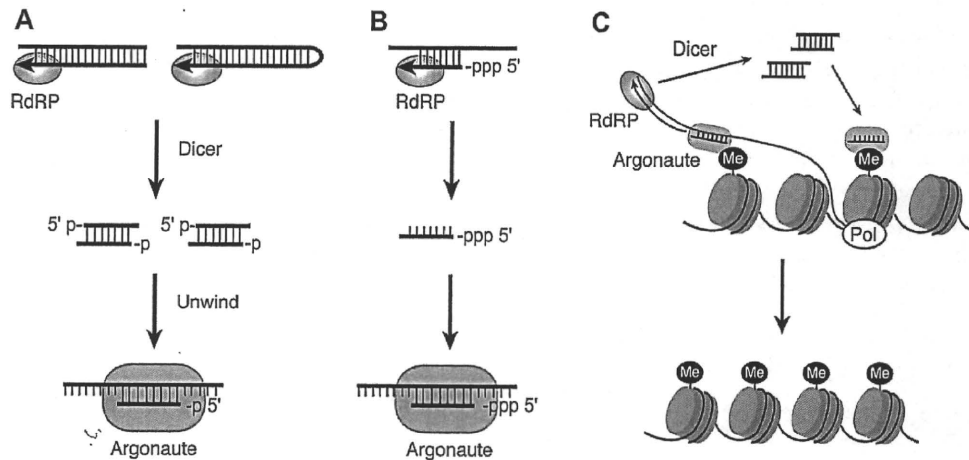


Figure 1 Common features of eukaryotic RdRP-dependent gene silencing pathways.

(A) Dicer-dependent functional small RNA synthesis. RdRPs produce long double-stranded RNAs, and the RNAs are cleaved into small double-stranded RNAs by Dicer. Argonautes load one of the strands for targeting. (B) Dicer-independent functional small RNA synthesis. RdRPs directly synthesize functional small RNAs *de novo*, independent of Dicer. (C) Heterochromatin formation. RdRPs produce antisense RNA strands for the transcripts from heterochromatic regions. Small RNAs from the regions guide histone H3K9 methylation.

genes leads to an accumulation of aberrant transgene mRNAs, which are decapped and/or unpolyadenylated (Luo and Chen, 2007). The aberrant RNAs are transcribed into dsRNA by RDR6, and subsequently processed into 21-bp siRNAs. The AGO1-bound siRNAs hybridize with complementary RNAs, both transgenes and related endogenous genes, thereby cleaving and downregulating the target RNAs. RDR6 amplifies post-transcriptional gene silencing through secondary dsRNA synthesis in a primer-dependent and primer-independent manner (Luo and Chen, 2007).

Transposable elements in eukaryotic genomes are typically silenced via the epigenetic mechanism. The plant *RDR2* genes are involved in the processes of RNA-dependent DNA methylation (RdDM) and RNAi-mediated heterochromatin formation. RdDM is triggered by the presence of nuclear dsRNAs, which are processed into 24-nt siRNAs via DCL3. The 24-nt siRNAs hybridize to the transcripts from methylated DNAs, and work as the guides for *de novo* methylation of DNA and histone H3K9 as well as RDR2-mediated secondary dsRNA production, which is required to maintain RdDM (Wassenegger and Krczal, 2006).

Plants have a unique class of endogenous siRNA named *trans*-acting siRNA (Allen et al., 2005; Cuperus et al., 2010). In *Arabidopsis*, the biogenesis of *trans*-acting siRNAs is initiated by miRNA-guided cleavage of *TAS* transcripts; *TAS1* and *TAS2* are cleaved by the AGO1-miR173 complex, *TAS3* is cleaved by the AGO7-miR390 complex, and *TAS4* is cleaved by the AGO1-miR828 complex. The resulting cleaved fragments are transformed into dsRNAs through primer-independent RNA synthesis of RDR6, and the dsRNAs are sequentially processed into phased *trans*-acting siRNA by DCL4. The miRNAs triggering biogenesis of *trans*-acting siRNAs are rather limited, and Cuperus and co-workers recently reported that only miRNA in 22-nt length can contribute to the pathway, although most of the miRNAs in *Arabidopsis* are 21-nt (Cuperus et al., 2010).

Apart from plants with functionally different six RdRPs, non-plant eukaryotes encode fewer RdRPs and each RdRP manages more than one function of plant RdRPs. In the fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, a single homolog of plant RdRP (Rdp1) is associated with both RNAi and RNA-mediated heterochromatin formation (Wassenegger and Krczal, 2006). The centromeric repeats of the yeast genome form heterochromatin, whereas they are not completely silenced and transcribed by Pol II. The nascent transcripts from the centromeric region become the platforms for the RNA-induced transcriptional silencing (RITS) complex, which contains Ago1 loading the complementary siRNA. The RITS complex recruits RNA-dependent RNA polymerase complex (RDRC) containing Rdp1 to the centromere, and the RDRC promotes dsRNA synthesis from the transcripts, leading to the amplification of centromeric siRNAs. The RITS complex also recruits the Clr4-Rik1-Cul4 complex to the centromeric repeats, which mediates histone H3K9 methylation and heterochromatin formation (Sugiyama et al., 2005).

A filamentous fungus *Neurospora crassa* encodes an RdRP named QDE-1, which plays a key role in transgene-induced gene silencing (quelling) (Makeyev and Bamford, 2002). QDE-1 produces extensive RNA strands either in template-length or ~9–21-nt length (Makeyev and Bamford, 2002; Wassenegger and Krczal, 2006), which could contribute to Dicer-dependent or -independent silencing mechanisms, respectively. Recently, a new type of siRNA named QDE-2-interacting small RNA (qiRNA) was detected in *Neurospora*. The induction of qiRNA is triggered by DNA damage, and the RNA specifically corresponds to ribosomal DNA (rDNA). The production of qiRNA depends on QDE-1 and DCLs, suggesting precursor dsRNA formation through QDE-1, but RNA polymerase I, which is responsible for the transcription of rRNAs. Surprisingly, the precursor aberrant RNA of qiRNAs was transcribed from rDNA by QDE-1 itself through its DNA-dependent RNA polymerase activity,