



Innate, translation-dependent silencing of an invasive transposon in *Arabidopsis*

Stefan Oberlin^{1,†} , Rajendran Rajeswaran¹ , Marieke Trasser^{2,3} , Verónica Barragán-Borrero^{1,2} , Michael A Schon² , Alexandra Plotnikova² , Lukas Loncsek² , Michael D Nodine^{2,4} , Arturo Marí-Ordóñez^{1,2,*}  & Olivier Voinnet^{1,**} 

Abstract

Co-evolution between hosts' and parasites' genomes shapes diverse pathways of acquired immunity based on silencing small (s)RNAs. In plants, sRNAs cause heterochromatinization, sequence degeneration, and, ultimately, loss of autonomy of most transposable elements (TEs). Recognition of newly invasive plant TEs, by contrast, involves an innate antiviral-like silencing response. To investigate this response's activation, we studied the single-copy element *EVADÉ* (*EVD*), one of few representatives of the large *Ty1/Copia* family able to proliferate in *Arabidopsis* when epigenetically reactivated. In *Ty1/Copia* elements, a short subgenomic mRNA (*shGAG*) provides the necessary excess of structural GAG protein over the catalytic components encoded by the full-length genomic *flGAG-POL*. We show here that the predominant cytosolic distribution of *shGAG* strongly favors its translation over mostly nuclear *flGAG-POL*. During this process, an unusually intense ribosomal stalling event coincides with mRNA breakage yielding unconventional 5'OH RNA fragments that evade RNA quality control. The starting point of sRNA production by RNA-DEPENDENT-RNA-POLYMERASE-6 (RDR6), exclusively on *shGAG*, occurs precisely at this breakage point. This hitherto-unrecognized "translation-dependent silencing" (TdS) is independent of codon usage or GC content and is not observed on TE remnants populating the *Arabidopsis* genome, consistent with their poor association, if any, with polysomes. We propose that TdS forms a primal defense against *EVD de novo* invasions that underlies its associated sRNA pattern.

Keywords RDR6; ribosome stalling; small RNAs; translation; transposons

Subject Categories Chromatin, Transcription & Genomics; Plant Biology; RNA Biology

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Introduction

Transposable elements (TEs) colonize and threaten the integrity of virtually all genomes (Huang *et al*, 2012). Chromosomal rearrangements caused by their highly repetitive nature (Fedoroff, 2012) are usually circumvented by cytosine methylation and/or histone-tail modifications at their loci of origin. The ensuing heterochromatic DNA is not conducive to transcription by RNA Pol II, bringing TEs into an epigenetically silent transcriptional state (Allshire & Madhani, 2018). This "transcriptional gene silencing" (TGS) is observed at the majority of TE loci in plants, including the model species *Arabidopsis thaliana*, and causes, over evolutionary times, accumulating mutations resulting in mostly degenerated, non-autonomous entities (Vitte & Bennetzen, 2006; Civián *et al*, 2011). Nonetheless, the genome invasiveness of these remnants remains evident by their methyl cytosine-marked DNA, which is perpetuated over generations by METHYL-TRANSFERASE 1 (MET1), among other factors. MET1 reproduces symmetrical methylation sites from mother to daughter strands during DNA replication (Kankel *et al*, 2003) aided by the (hetero)chromatin remodeler DEFICIENT IN DNA METHYLATION 1 (DDM1) (Saze *et al*, 2003; Zemach *et al*, 2013).

Loss of MET1 or DDM1 functions in *Arabidopsis* leads to genome-wide demethylation, transcriptional reactivation of many TE remnants, and mobilization of a small portion of intact, autonomous TEs (Mirouze *et al*, 2009; Tsukahara *et al*, 2010). Their proliferation together with genome-wide deposition of aberrant epigenetic marks likely explains why *met1* and *ddm1* mutants accumulate increasingly severe genetic and phenotypic burdens over inbred generations (Vongs *et al*, 1993). However, such secondary events can be avoided by backcrossing the first homozygous generation of *ddm1*- or *met1*-derived mutants with wild-type plants, upon which continuous selfing of F2 plants creates "epigenetic recombinant inbred lines" (epiRILs). These harbor only mosaics of de-methylated DNA while maintaining wild-type (WT) MET1 and DDM1 functions (Reinders *et al*, 2009; Teixeira *et al*, 2009). One such *met1* epiRIL,

1 Department of Biology, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology (ETH), Zurich, Switzerland

2 Gregor Mendel Institute of Molecular Plant Biology (GMI) of the Austrian Academy of Sciences, Vienna, Austria

3 Vienna BioCenter PhD Program, Doctoral School of the University of Vienna and Medical University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria

4 Laboratory of Molecular Biology, Wageningen University, Wageningen, The Netherlands

*Corresponding author. Tel: +43 1 79044 9901; E-mail: arturo.mari-ordonez@gmi.oeaw.ac.at

**Corresponding author. Tel: +41 0 44 633 93 60; E-mail: voinneto@ethz.ch

†Present address: Department of Microbiology and Immunology, UCSF Diabetes Center, University of California, San Francisco, CA, USA

epi15, endows epigenetic reactivation of the autonomous, long terminal repeat (LTR) retroelement *EVADÉ* (*EVD*) in the *Ty1/Copia* family, which is one of the most proliferative families in plants (Vitte & Panaud, 2005). Of the two *EVD* copies in the *Arabidopsis* Col-0 genome, only one is reactivated in epi15 (Marí-Ordóñez et al, 2013). By providing a proxy for a *de novo* genomic invasion, this reactivation granted a unique opportunity to grasp how, over multiple inbred generations, newly invasive TEs might be detected and eventually epigenetically silenced (Marí-Ordóñez et al, 2013).

We found that *EVD* is initially confronted to post-transcriptional gene silencing (PTGS) akin to that mounted against plant viruses (Voinnet, 2005; Marí-Ordóñez et al, 2013). Antiviral RNA-DEPENDENT RNA POLYMERASE 6 (RDR6) produces cytosolic, long double-stranded (ds)RNAs from *EVD*-derived transcripts, which are then processed by DCL4 or DCL2, two of the four *Arabidopsis* Dicer-like RNase-III enzymes, into populations of respectively 21- and 22-nt small interfering (si)RNAs. However, despite their loading into the antiviral PTGS effectors ARGONAUTE1 and ARGONAUTE2 (AGO1/2), they do not suppress expression of *EVDs* increasingly more abundant genomic copies. This ultimately gives way to DCL3, instead of DCL4/2, to process the RDR6-made long dsRNAs into 24-nt siRNAs. In association with AGO4-clade AGOs, these species guide RNA-directed DNA methylation (RdDM) of *EVD* copies. Initially localized within the *EVD* gene body, it later spreads into the LTRs to eventually shut down the expression of *EVD* genome-wide via TGS (Marí-Ordóñez et al, 2013).

A key, unsolved question prompted by this proposed suite of events pertains to the mechanisms whereby RDR6 is initially recruited onto *EVD*, and more generally on newly invasive TEs, during the primary antiviral-like silencing phase. “Homology-” or “identity”-based silencing entails sequence complementarity between TE transcripts and host-derived small RNAs. Loaded into AGOs, they likely attract RDR6 concomitantly to silencing execution. One such type of PTGS occurs with TEs reactivated in *ddm1/met1* mutants, which, by displaying complementarity mostly to host-encoded microRNAs, spawn “epigenetically activated siRNAs” (easiRNAs) in an AGO1-dependent manner (Creasey et al, 2014). easiRNA production likely entails substantial co-evolution between host and TE genomes (Sarazin & Voinnet, 2014) because miRNAs usually target short and highly conserved TE regions, including the primer-binding sites required for retroelements’ reverse transcription (RT; Šurbanovski et al, 2016; Borges et al, 2018). Another form of acquired immunity underlying identity-based silencing is conferred by siRNAs derived from relics of previous genome invasions by the same or sequence-related TE(s) (Fultz & Slotkin, 2017).

New intruder TEs are unlikely to engage either form of identity-based silencing, as indeed noted for *EVD* (Creasey et al, 2014). Thus, RDR6-dependent PTGS initiation should involve intrinsic features of the TEs themselves (Sarazin & Voinnet, 2014). In the yeast *Cryptococcus neoformans*, stalled spliceosomes on suboptimal TE introns provide an opportunity for an RDR-containing complex to co-transcriptionally initiate such innate PTGS (Dumesic et al, 2013). Studies of transgene silencing in plants (Luo & Chen, 2007; Thran et al, 2012) have advocated other possible mechanisms, though none has yet been linked to epigenetically reactivated TEs. These studies describe how uncapped, prematurely terminated or non-polyadenylated transcripts might stimulate RDR activities when they evade or overwhelm RNA quality control (RQC) pathways that normally degrade these “aberrant” RNAs (Herr et al, 2006; Gy et al,

2007; Parent et al, 2015). A recent model also contends that widespread translation-coupled RNA degradation as a consequence of suboptimal codon usage and low GC content might trigger RDR-dependent silencing in plants (Kim et al, 2021).

Initiation of innate PTGS in the context of *EVD* likely ties in with an unusual process of splicing-coupled premature cleavage and polyadenylation (PCPA) shared by *Ty1/Copia* retroelements to optimize protein expression from their compact genomes (Oberlin et al, 2017). On the one hand, an unspliced and full-length (*fl*) *GAG-POL* isoform codes for a polyprotein processed into protease, integrase/reverse-transcriptase RNase, and *GAG* nucleocapsid components. On the other hand, a spliced and prematurely terminated short (*sh*) *GAG* subgenomic isoform is solely dedicated to *GAG* production. Though less abundant than the *flGAG-POL* mRNA, *shGAG* is substantially more translated (Oberlin et al, 2017). This presumably results in a molar excess of structural *GAG* for viral-like particle (VLP) formation compared to Pr-IN-RT-RNase required for reverse transcription (RT) and, ultimately, mobilization (Oberlin et al, 2017; Lee et al, 2020). Supporting the notion that genome expression of *Ty1/Copia* elements influences PTGS initiation, *EVD*-derived RDR6-dependent siRNAs do not map onto the unspliced *flGAG-POL* mRNA, but instead specifically onto the spliced *shGAG* transcript of which, intriguingly, they only cover approximately the 3’ half (Oberlin et al, 2017).

Here, we show that differential subcellular distribution of the two mRNA isoforms due to splicing-coupled PCPA accounts for the peculiar *EVD* siRNA distribution and activity patterns. While the *flGAG-POL* isoform remains largely nuclear, the *shGAG* mRNA is enriched in the cytosol and endows vastly disproportionate translation over *flGAG-POL*. However, a previously uncharacterized innate PTGS process accompanies active *shGAG* translation, manifested as a discrete and unusually intense ribosome stalling event independent of codon usage or GC content, among other tested parameters. Ribosome stalling coincides precisely with the starting point of *shGAG* siRNA production and maps to the 5’ ends of discrete, *shGAG*-derived RNA breakage fragments. These harbor unconventional 5’OH *termini* that prevent their RQC-based degradation via 5’P-dependent XRN4 action (Stevens, 2001; Peach et al, 2015). Based on the well-documented substrate competition between XRN4 and RDR6 (Gazzani, 2004; Gy et al, 2007; Gregory et al, 2008; Moreno et al, 2013; Martínez-de-Alba et al, 2015), we suggest that the 5’OH status of breakage fragments contributes to their conversion into dsRNA by RDR6, thereby initiating PTGS of *EVD*. We further show that splicing-coupled PCPA suffices to recapitulate this “translation-dependent silencing” (TdS) in reporter-gene settings. Given that *Ty1/Copia* retroelements share a PCPA-based genome expression strategy (Oberlin et al, 2017), the phenomenon discovered here with *EVD* might constitute a more generic primal defense that shapes the siRNA patterns initially associated with *Ty1/Copia* TEs.

Results

shGAG is the main source and target of *EVD*-derived siRNAs

Arabidopsis lines constitutively overexpressing an LTR-deficient but otherwise intact form of *EVD* driven by the 35S promoter (35S:

EVD_{wt} recapitulate the restriction of *EVD* siRNA to the 3' part of the *shGAG* sequence (Marí-Ordóñez et al, 2013; Oberlin et al, 2017; Fig 1A and B). We explored *EVD* transcripts levels in *35S:EVD_{wt}* in WT (siRNA-proficient) as opposed to *rdm6* (siRNA-deficient) background (Fig 1B, Appendix Fig S1A). Both in RNA blot and qRT-PCR analyses, the spliced *shGAG* mRNA levels were increased in *rdm6* compared to WT, whereas those of unspliced *flGAG-POL* were globally unchanged (Fig 1C and D). Accordingly, accumulation of the GAG protein—mainly produced via *shGAG* translation (Oberlin et al, 2017)—was higher in *rdm6* compared to WT background (Fig 1E). Essentially identical results were obtained upon epigenetic reactivation of endogenous *EVD* in non-transgenic *Arabidopsis* with the *ddm1* single- versus *ddm1 rdm6* double-mutant background (Appendix Fig S1B–E). Following *EVD* mobilization from an early (F8) to a more advanced (F11) *epi15* inbred generation (Marí-Ordóñez et al, 2013) revealed that its progressively increased copy number correlates with progressively higher steady-state levels of *EVD*-derived transcripts and *EVD*-derived siRNAs (Appendix Fig S1F and G). Again, these siRNAs disproportionately target the *shGAG* relative to *flGAG-POL* mRNA from F8 to F11 (Appendix Fig S1H). Collectively, these results indicate that PTGS activated *de novo* by *EVD* is both triggered by, and targeted against, the spliced *shGAG* mRNA. Therefore, features associated with *shGAG*, but not *flGAG-POL*, likely stimulate RDR6 recruitment, which we explored by testing current models for PTGS initiation from TEs and transgenes.

shGAG siRNA production is miRNA-independent

Though unlikely (Creasey et al, 2014; Sarazin & Voinnet, 2014), we first considered that production of RDR6-dependent siRNAs from *shGAG* might require its cleavage by miRNAs via the *easiRNA* pathway (Creasey et al, 2014). *Arabidopsis* miRNA biogenesis depends on DCL1 and the dsRNA-binding protein HYL1, among other factors (Brodersen & Voinnet, 2006). Analyses of publicly available sRNA-seq data (Creasey et al, 2014) showed, however, that epigenetically reactivated *EVD* spawns qualitatively and quantitatively identical *shGAG*-only siRNAs in both *ddm1* single and *ddm1 dcl1* double mutants (Fig 1F and G). Moreover, levels of *shGAG* siRNA, *shGAG* mRNA, and GAG protein remained unchanged in *35S:EVD_{wt}* plants with either the WT, hypomorphic *dcl1-11*, or loss-of-function *hyl1-2* background (Appendix Fig S2A–D). By contrast and as expected, production of trans-acting (ta)siRNAs, which is both miRNA and RDR6 dependent, was dramatically reduced and the levels of tasiRNA precursors and target transcripts enhanced in both mutant backgrounds (Appendix Fig S2A–I). Therefore, RDR6 recruitment to the spliced *shGAG* mRNA is unlikely to involve endogenous miRNAs

via an identity-based mechanism. We then explored known innate processes of PTGS initiation instead.

Splicing-coupled premature cleavage and polyadenylation suffices to generate *EVD*-like siRNA accumulation and activity patterns

Some cases of transgene-induced PTGS correlate with a lack of polyadenylation due to aberrant RNA transcription (Luo & Chen, 2007). We ruled out that this feature underlies *EVD*-derived siRNA production because *shGAG* displays no overt polyadenylation defects regardless of the onset of PTGS (Appendix Fig S3A–E). Next, we considered splicing defects, such as inaccurate splicing or spliceosome stalling, and premature transcriptional termination as possible PTGS triggers, two processes previously independently linked to innate, RDR-dependent siRNA production in plants and fungi (Dumesic et al, 2013; Dalakouras et al, 2019). *Ty1/Copia* elements have introns that are significantly longer than those of *Arabidopsis* genes. Moreover, *shGAG* undergoes atypical splicing-coupled PCPA (Oberlin et al, 2017). When engineered between the *GFP* and *GUS* sequences of a translational fusion, the *shGAG* intron and proximal PCPA signal spawn unspliced *flGFP-GUS* and spliced *GFP*-only (*shGFP*) mRNAs in the *Arabidopsis* line *35S:GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* (Oberlin et al, 2017) (Fig 2A and B; Appendix Fig S4A). Since this artificial system recapitulates the production of respectively *flGAG-POL* and *shGAG*, we asked whether an *EVD*-like siRNA pattern was likewise reproduced.

The majority of RDR6-dependent 21-nt siRNAs mapped to the *GFP*, but not the *GUS* region downstream of the PCPA signal (Fig 2C and D) suggesting that, just like *shGAG* in *EVD*, the spliced *shGFP* mRNA is the main source of siRNAs in *GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS*. Accordingly, and similar to *EVD* (Oberlin et al, 2017), many siRNAs spanned the exon–exon junction of *GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* (Appendix Fig S4B). Moreover, *shGFP*, unlike *flGFP-GUS*, over-accumulated in *GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* plants with the *rdm6* background (Fig 2B, Appendix Fig S4A), indicating that only *shGFP* is efficiently targeted by PTGS (Fig 2B). Therefore, in the reconstituted setting, the intron and PCPA signal found in *shGAG* suffice to spawn RDR6-dependent siRNAs displaying accumulation and activity patterns resembling those generated in the authentic *EVD* context (Fig 1A–D).

Neither splicing nor intron-retention *per se* initiate RDR6 recruitment

The above result prompted us to investigate a potential facilitating role for splicing in *shGAG* siRNA biogenesis or, conversely, a role

Figure 1. *EVD shGAG* is both a trigger and a target of RDR6-dependent but miRNA-independent siRNAs.

- A *EVD flGAG-POL* and spliced *shGAG* mRNAs are distinguishable using specific PCR primer sets (arrows) for quantification and northern analysis. (*35S*) *Cauliflower Mosaic Virus 35S promoter*, (*Pr*) protease, (*IN*) integrase, (*RT-RNase*) reverse-transcriptase RNase; red squares: stop codons.
- B sRNA-seq reads profile of *EVD* expressed from *35S:EVD_{wt}* in WT (black) or *rdm6* (red). (RPM) Reads per million. Positions are indicated in nucleotides (nt) from the start of the *35S* sequence. Dashed vertical lines: *shGAG* and *GAG-POL* 3' ends.
- C Northern analysis of *EVD* RNA isoforms using a probe for the *GAG* region or for *ACTIN2* (*ACT2*) as a loading control.
- D qPCR quantification of *shGAG* and *flGAG-POL* normalized to *ACT2* and to *GLYCERALDEHYDE-3-PHOSPHATE DEHYDROGENASE C SUBUNIT* (*GAPC*) levels. qPCR was performed on *n* = 3 biological replicates; bars: standard error. ***P* < 0.01 (two-sided *t*-test between indicated values).
- E Western analysis of GAG and RDR6 with Coomassie (coom.) staining as a loading control. Arrow indicates cognate RDR6 protein band.
- F, G sRNA-seq profiles from *EVD* de-repressed in the *ddm1* (F) or *ddm1 dcl1* (G) backgrounds. Different siRNA size categories are stacked. Nomenclature as in (B).

Source data are available online for this figure.

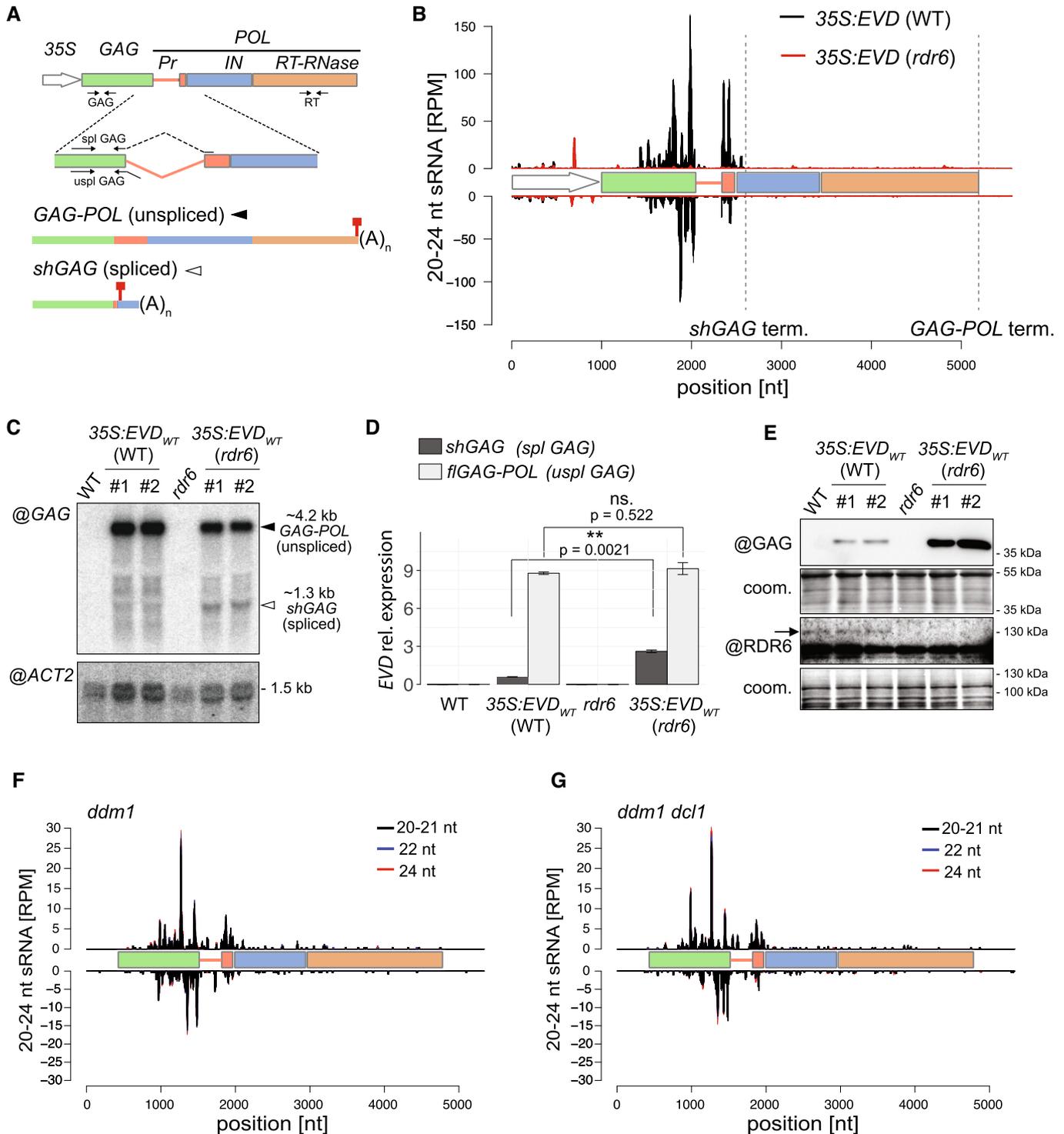


Figure 1.

for intron retention in inhibiting RDR6 recruitment to *flGAG-POL*. We used previously engineered *Arabidopsis* EVD-overexpression lines with a point-mutated U1 snRNP-binding site ($35S:EVD_{mU1}$) or a fully deleted intron ($35S:EVD_{\Delta i}$) (Oberlin et al., 2017; Fig 3A–C). $35S:EVD_{\Delta i}$ spawns fully matured *shGAG* transcripts that do not associate with the spliceosome, leading exclusively to prematurely

terminated and polyadenylated mRNA species with a stop codon (Oberlin et al., 2017; Fig 3B,D,E, Appendix Fig S5A). However, lack of the intron, and hence splicing, did not prevent RDR6-dependent siRNA production from $35S:EVD_{\Delta i}$, which was comparable to that of $35S:EVD_{wt}$ (Fig 3E). Moreover, the *shGAG* mRNA and GAG protein levels from $35S:EVD_{\Delta i}$ were higher in an *rdr6* compared to WT

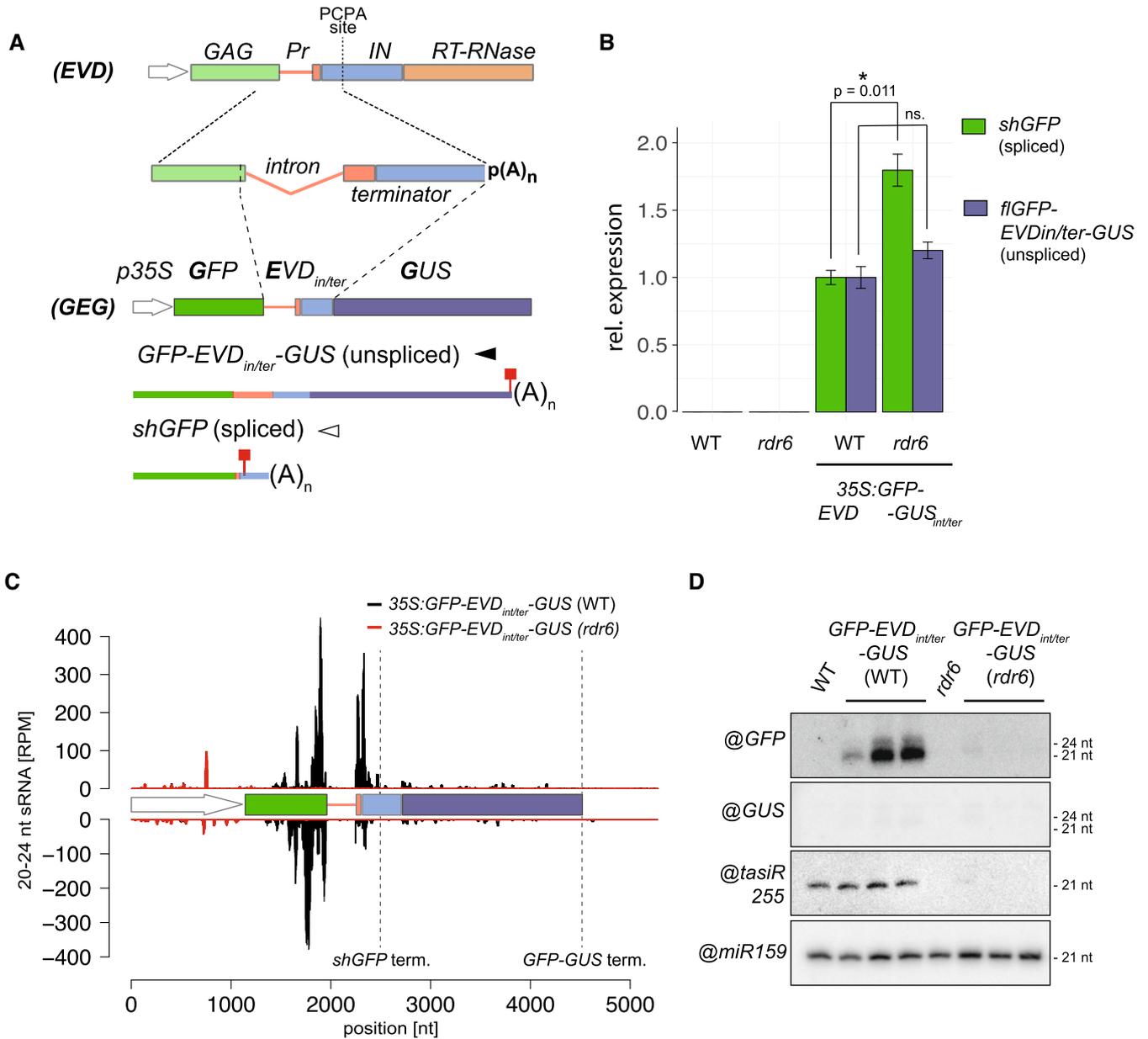


Figure 2. The EVD intron and terminator suffice to initiate PTGS.

A The *35S:GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* fusion was made by introducing the *EVD* intron and proximal *shGAG* terminator (including the premature cleavage and polyadenylation site; PCAP) between the *GFP* and *GUS* coding sequence. Like *EVD*, it spawns full-length unspliced and short-spliced mRNAs. Red squares: stop codons.

B Expression levels of *shGFP* (spliced) and *GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* (unspliced) transcripts, relative to *ACT2* and *AT4G26410* (*RHIP1*), in the WT or *rdr6* background. qPCR was performed on three biological replicates and error bars represent the standard error on. **P* < 0.05 (two-sided *t*-test against corresponding controls).

C sRNA-seq profile mapped on the genomic *35S:GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* locus. (RPM) Reads per million. Positions indicated in nucleotides (nt) from the start of the *35S* sequence. Dashed vertical lines: *shGFP* and *GFP-GUS* 3' ends.

D Low-molecular-weight RNA analysis of the *GFP*- and *GUS*-spanning regions. *tasiRNA255* is a control for the *rdr6* mutation and *miR159* provides a loading control.

Source data are available online for this figure.

background (Fig 3D–F), indicating that *EVD*'s unconventional splicing is unlikely to underpin *shGAG* siRNA production.

To test the alternative possibility that intron-retention or specific sequences within the *EVD* intron prevent siRNA biogenesis from *flGAG-POL*, we analyzed the siRNAs from *35S:EVD_{mU1}*. Impeding U1 binding and its inhibitory action on PCPA causes a complete lack

of splicing in *EVD_{mU1}* (Fig 3C and D). This generates short unspliced transcripts, alternatively terminated at the cognate *shGAG* terminator or at an intronic cryptic site previously mapped by 3' RACE (Oberlin et al, 2017), both detected here by northern analysis (Fig 3C–E, Appendix Fig S5A). Both alternatively terminated transcripts likely undergo translation, albeit largely unproductively

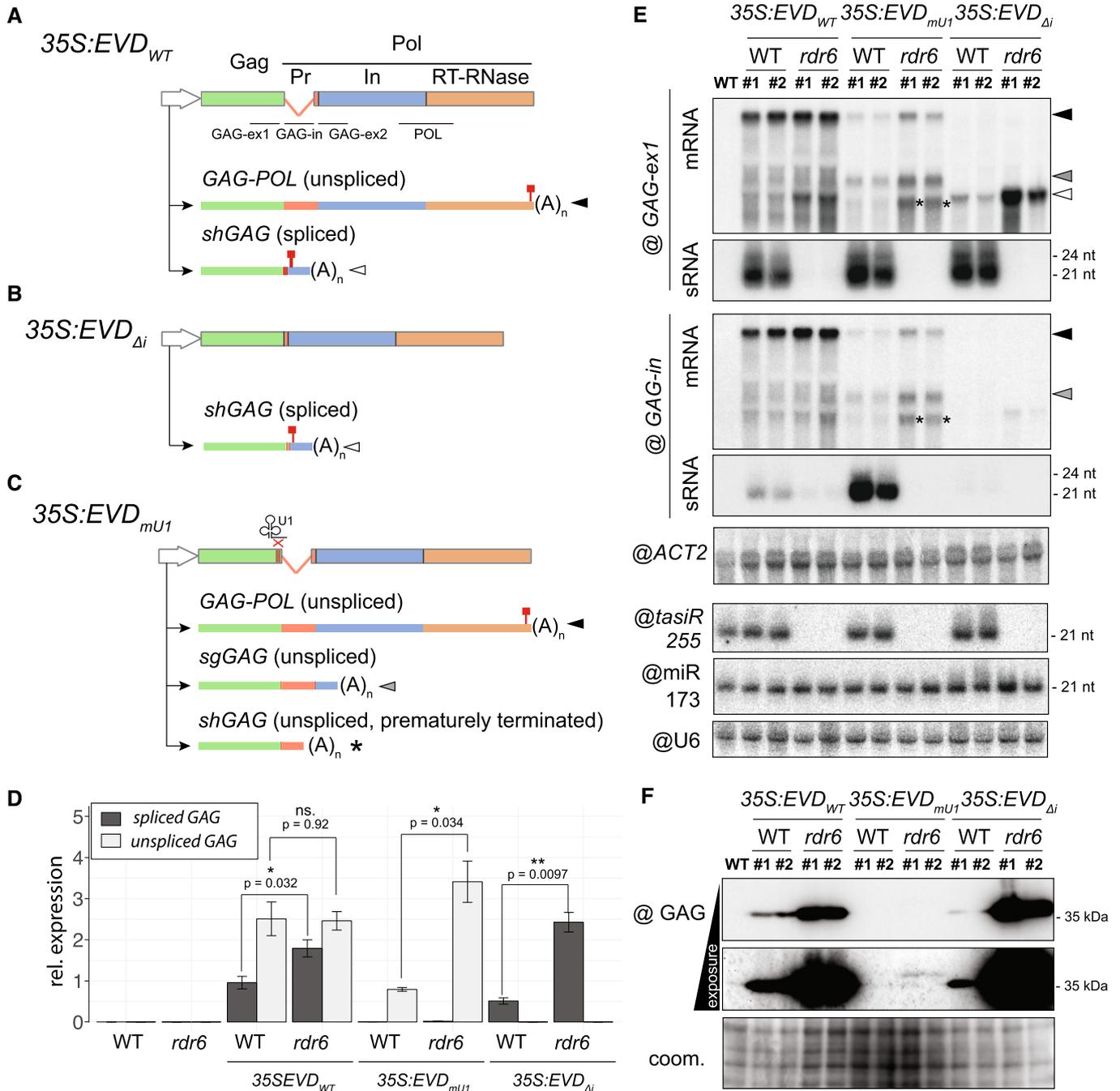


Figure 3. Impact of splicing and premature termination on EVD silencing.

A–C Constructs and isoforms transcribed from *35S:EVD_{WT}* (A), *35S:EVD_{Δintron}* (B) and *35S:EVD_{mU1}* (C). Probes for northern analysis of GAG exon 1 (GAG-ex1), intron (GAG-in), exon2 (GAG-ex2), and the POL region are depicted with black lines. Red squares: stop codons.

D Relative expression levels of spliced and unspliced transcripts in the three EVD constructs relative to *ACT2*. qPCR was performed on three biological replicates and error bars represent the standard error. (ns.) = non-significant, **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, (two-sided t-test between indicated samples/targets).

E High- and low-molecular-weight RNA analysis of EVD GAG (GAG-ex1) and EVD intron (GAG-in) in two independent T1 bulks from each indicated line. The filled arrows on the right-hand side or with an asterisk on the blots correspond to the transcripts depicted in (A–C). *ACT2*: loading control for mRNAs; *tasiR*255, miR173, and U6: loading controls for sRNAs. Hybridizations for GAG-ex2 and POL probes are found in Appendix Fig S5A.

F Western blot analysis of the GAG protein with Coomassie (coom.) staining as a loading control.

Source data are available online for this figure.

(Fig 3F), because low levels of cryptic GAG translation products were detectable in *rd6* compared to WT (Appendix Fig S5B). *EVD_{mU1}* bestowed RDR6-dependent siRNA production expanding—as expected from its non-spliceable nature—into the retained intron sequence (Fig 3E). The near-complete lack of siRNAs downstream of the intron (Appendix Fig S5A), by contrast, suggested that both cryptically terminated *shGAG* transcripts are mainly involved in recruiting RDR6. Therefore, even though the *shGAG* intron and PCPA signal suffice to trigger PTGS from *EVD* and *GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* (Figs 1 and 2), neither splicing nor intron-retention *per se* seem to initiate PTGS. This suggests that splicing-coupled PCPA does not co-transcriptionally condition the sensitivity of *shGAG* to RDR6 but, rather, downstream in the gene expression pathway.

RDR6 recruitment onto *shGAG* likely requires translation

Splicing-coupled PCPA, conserved among *Arabidopsis Ty1/Copia* elements, correlates with the over-representation of *shGAG* on polysomes as opposed to the paradoxically more abundant *flGAG-POL* (Oberlin et al, 2017). However, among the *ddm1*- or *met1*-reactivated *Ty1/Copia* elements sharing the same genome expression strategy, only *EVD* spawns detectable RDR6-dependent *shGAG* siRNAs (Oberlin et al, 2017), prompting us to explore the basis for this difference. Polysome association, independently of translation efficiency, is the most decisive prerequisite for any given RNA to engage the translation machinery. For instance, many non-coding RNAs are mostly nuclear (Khanduja et al, 2016), and aberrant (e.g., uncapped and/or poly(A)⁻) mRNAs are actively degraded by RQC, both of which explain their general absence from polysomes (Doma & Parker, 2007). We conducted genome-wide correlation analyses between steady-state transcript accumulation, polysome association, and siRNA levels of reactivated TEs in the *ddm1* versus *ddm1 rd6* background by calculating the ratio of polysome-associated versus total mRNA levels. The same approach was applied to *Arabidopsis* protein-coding compared with non-coding RNAs used as references (Oberlin et al, 2017). This analysis revealed two distinct TE populations according to the levels of associated RDR6-dependent siRNAs. On the one hand, approximately ¾ of *ddm1* de-repressed TEs (530/674) display varying degrees of polysome association, some within the range of protein-coding genes (Fig 4A, quartiles 1–3). However, RDR6-dependent siRNA production does not accompany their reactivation presumably because of their low expression levels (Fig 4B, quartiles 1–3). The remaining ¼ (144/674) of TEs spawn RDR6-dependent siRNAs, correlating with higher RNA expression levels (Fig 4A and B quartile 4). Nonetheless, unlike those of quartiles 1–3, these TEs, almost exclusively composed of degenerated *LTR/Gypsy* elements (i.e., elements shorter than full-length reference ORFs; Fig 4C), resemble non-coding RNAs in being poorly associated with polysomes, if at all (Fig 4A, quartile 4). By contrast, *EVD* is the sole *LTR/Copia* element within quartile 4, in which it is one of the most strongly polysome-associated elements that concurrently spawn 21–22-nt siRNAs. Furthermore, when the two *EVD* isoforms are considered separately, *shGAG* emerges as a clear outlier by being associated with polysomes to the same extent as protein-coding mRNAs, (Fig 4A, quartile 4, inset). *flGAG-POL*, by contrast, displays low polysome association albeit higher than most degenerated *LTR/Gypsy* elements populating quartile 4. In summary, *shGAG*, compared to *flGAG-POL*, is both vastly overrepresented on polysomes

(Oberlin et al, 2017) and is the major, if not unique source of *EVD*-derived siRNAs (Figs 1 and 3, and Appendix Fig S1). This analysis suggests, therefore, that translation is the step stimulated by splicing-coupled PCPA of *shGAG*, upon which RDR6 is recruited specifically onto this mRNA isoform.

Splicing-coupled PCPA promotes selective translation and PTGS initiation from *shGAG*-like mRNA isoforms

To test whether differential translation due to splicing-coupled PCPA indeed underlies siRNA production from *shGAG* as opposed to *flGAG-POL*, we used *GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS*, from which the two *EVD* RNA isoforms and associated siRNA production/activity patterns are recapitulated (Fig 2). Of the *shGAG*-like *shGFP*- and *flGAG-POL*-like *flGFP-GUS*- mRNAs, only the former produced a detectable protein under the form of free GFP (Appendix Fig S4C and D) despite accumulation of both mRNAs (Fig 2A, Appendix Fig S4A). Free GFP levels were increased in the *rd6* background (Appendix Fig S4C), coinciding with increased *shGFP*- but unchanged *flGFP-GUS*- mRNA levels (Fig 2B). The lack of detectable GFP-GUS fusion protein—the expected product of *flGFP-GUS*—in either WT or *rd6* backgrounds (Fig 2D, Appendix Fig S4C and D) was not due to intrinsically poor translatability. Indeed, GFP-GUS was the sole protein detected in independent lines undergoing RDR6-dependent PTGS of *35S:GFP-GUS*, a construct identical to *35S:GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS*, save the *shGAG* intron and PCPA signal (Fig 5A and B). As expected, the GFP-GUS fusion protein and *GFP-GUS* mRNA levels were strongly enhanced in the *rd6* versus WT background (Fig 5A and B). Yet, in contrast to *GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS*, from which siRNAs are restricted to *shGFP*, the siRNAs from *GFP-GUS* encompassed both the *GFP* and *GUS* sequences (Fig 5A). These results therefore indicate that splicing-coupled PCPA promotes selective translation of, and PTGS initiation from, *shGAG*-like as opposed to *flGAG-POL*-like mRNA isoforms.

Intron retention causes selective nuclear seclusion of *flGAG-POL*-like mRNAs

What mechanism linked to splicing-coupled PCPA might underpin the differential translation of *shGAG*-like versus *flGAG-POL*-like mRNAs? Noteworthy, splicing generally enhances mRNA nuclear export and translation (Valencia et al, 2008; Sørensen et al, 2017). Conversely, polyadenylated, unspliced mRNAs are retained in the nucleus in *Arabidopsis* and only exported to the cytoplasm upon splicing (Jia et al, 2020). Moreover, 5' splice motifs and U1 snRNP-binding promote chromatin tethering of long non-coding RNAs in animal cells (Lee et al, 2015; Yin et al, 2020). We thus tested if intron-retention might promote nuclear sequestration of the unspliced *flGFP-GUS* and *flGAG-POL* or if, conversely, splicing might favor export of *shGFP* and *shGAG* to the cytoplasm, thereby selectively promoting their translation. We performed nucleo-cytosolic fractionation (Appendix Fig S5C) to analyze the relative distributions of *EVD*-derived RNA isoforms produced in *3S:EVD_{wr}* or *35S:GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* plants, using spliced/unspliced isoform-specific PCR amplification. Additionally, unspliced isoforms were selectively analyzed using qPCR primer sets designed to amplify sequences located near the 3' end of *flGAG-POL* or *flGFP-GUS*, and absent from *shGAG* and *shGFP* (Figs 1A and 2A). A similar approach was used to differentiate the unspliced versus spliced *ACTIN* mRNA (Appendix

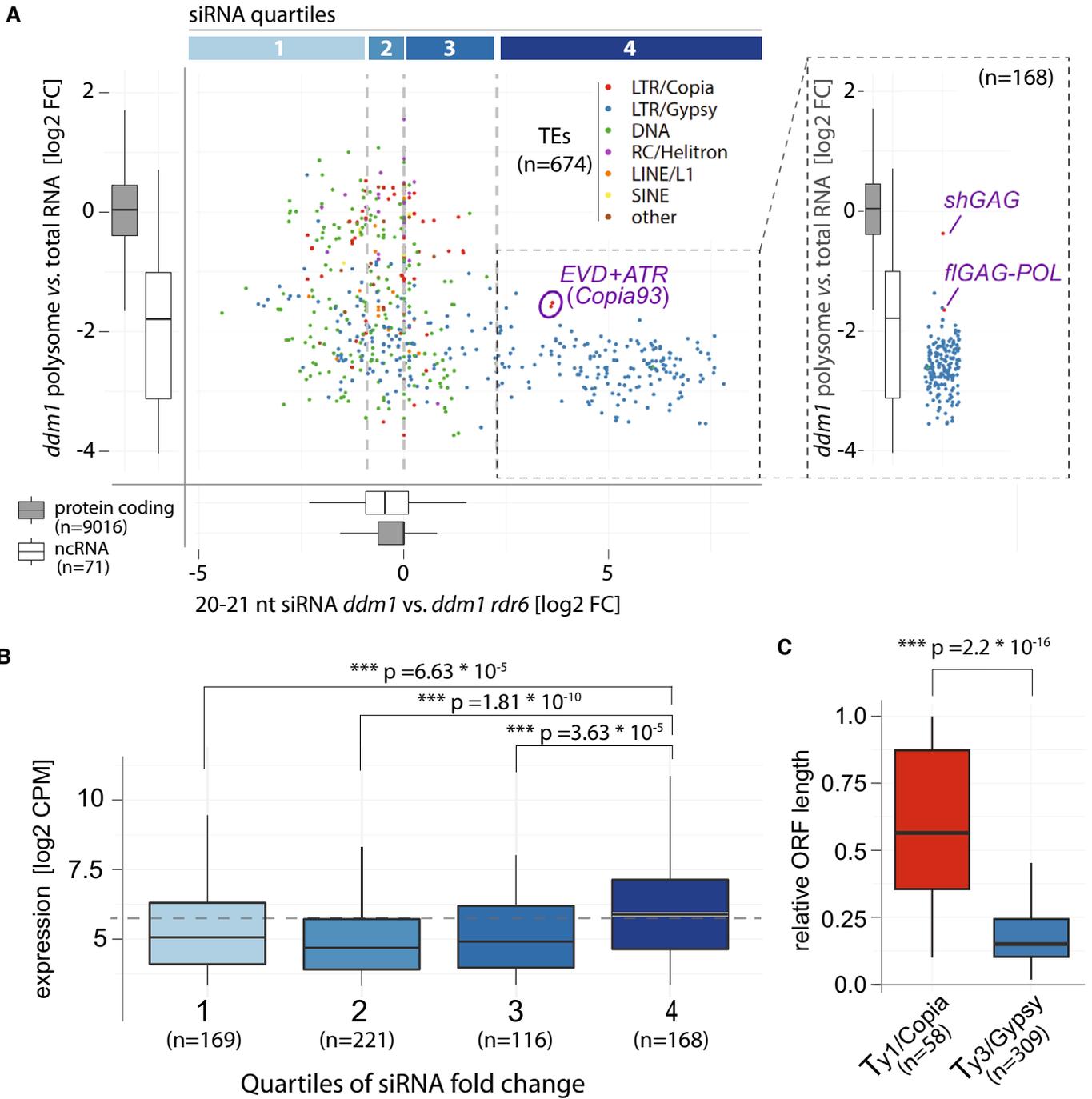


Figure 4. Expression, but not translation, is associated with RDR6 activity on most *ddm1*-reactivated TEs except *EVD*.

A Scatter plot comparing polysome association score (defined as fold-change between abundance in polysome libraries vs. total RNA) and RDR6-dependent siRNA levels of TEs found de-repressed in *ddm1* (brief description of RDR6 dependency). Quartiles of siRNA levels are confined by gray vertical lines. For comparison and reference, polysome association and RDR6-dependent siRNA levels of protein coding and non-coding transcripts are displayed as boxplots. *Copia93* elements: *EVD* (*AT5G17125*) + *ATR* (*AT1G34967*), are circled. Inlet: Polysome association score of TEs in quartile 4, *EVD* mRNA isoforms are displayed separately.

B Boxplots of RNA expression levels of TEs in *ddm1* from the quartiles in (A).

C ORF length of *Ty1/Copia* and *Ty3/Gypsy* elements expressed in *ddm1* relative to their genomic length.

Data information: In all panels: *** $P < 0.001$, (Wilcoxon rank-sum test against labeled controls or protein coding gene cohort). For all boxplots, the central band represents the median, boxes are range from the first to third quartile and whiskers range to the largest value within 1.5 times the interquartile range.

Fig S5D). Finally, the nuclear-only snoRNA U5 (Fig 5C) was used as a control to assess the quality of nuclear enrichments. To optimize accumulation of both types of RNA isoforms, the experiments were all conducted in the PTGS-deficient *rdr6* background.

The analysis revealed strikingly distinct nucleo-cytosolic distribution patterns for the full-length versus short-spliced mRNAs from both systems. Indeed, while the spliced *shGFP* and *shGAG* were found predominantly in the cytosol (Fig 5C), *flGAG-POL* and *flGFP-GUS* were strongly enriched in nuclear fractions (Fig 5C, Appendix

Fig S5D). To validate that nuclear unspliced full-length transcripts are *bona fide* poly(A)⁺ mRNAs as opposed to nascent transcripts or splicing intermediates, cDNA from the same RNA samples was synthesized using exclusively oligo-dT to capture polyadenylated RNAs only. This approach generated comparable results (Fig 5D), indicating that nuclear full-length transcripts are properly terminated mRNAs. Corresponding results were obtained in *epi15* F11 plants displaying endogenous *EVD* reactivation (Appendix Fig S5E and F). Collectively, these findings suggest that the unique splicing behavior

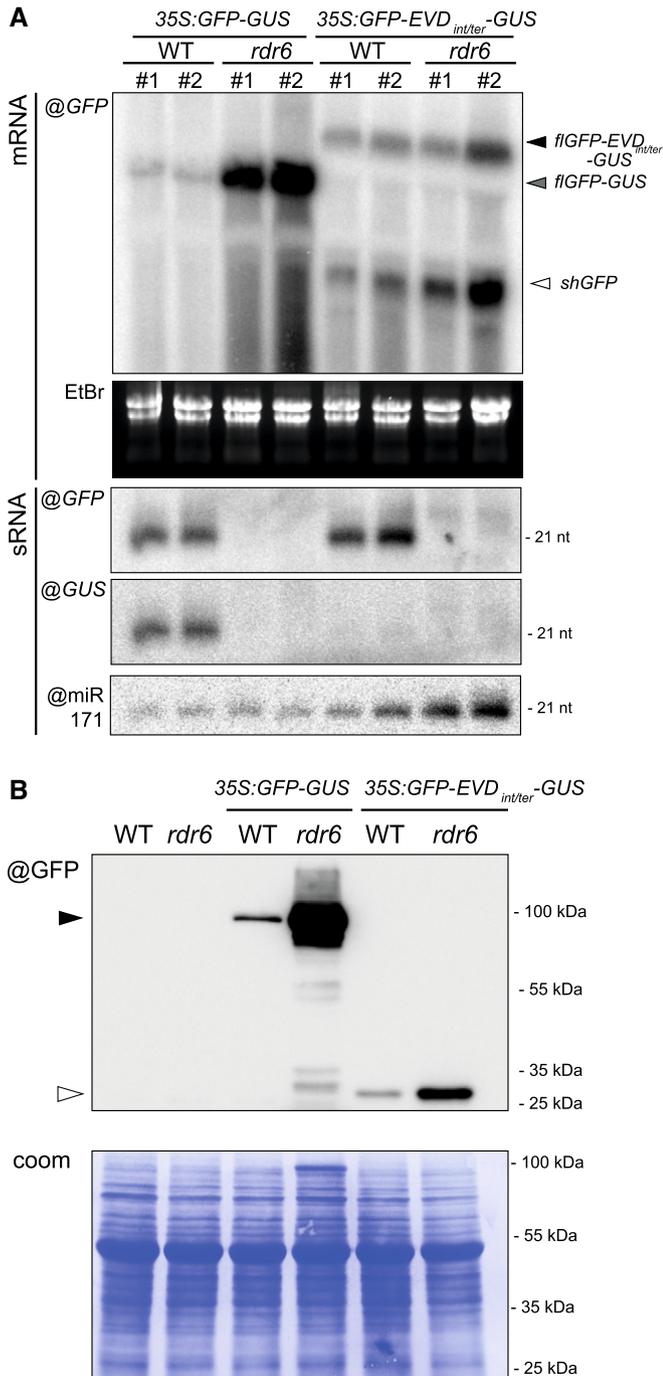


Figure 5.

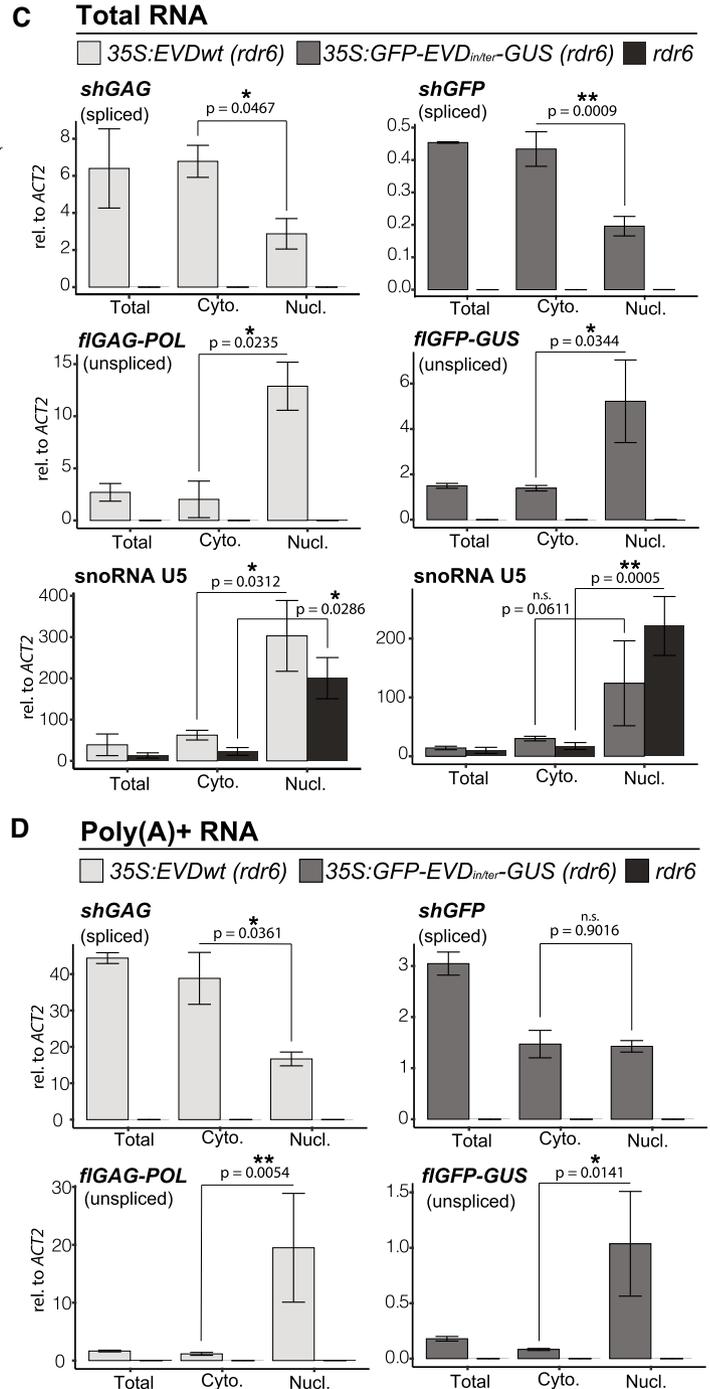


Figure 5. Splicing promotes translation and siRNA biogenesis from short-spliced mRNAs by influencing nucleocytoplasmic distribution of RNA isoforms.

- A Comparison of RNA isoforms and sRNA patterns generated by *35S:GFP-GUS* and *35S:GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS*. High- and low-molecular-weight RNA analysis using a GFP or GUS probe in two independent transgenic lines from each construct in the WT or *rdr6* background. mRNA isoforms are indicated with arrows and correspond to the transcripts depicted in Fig 2A. EtBr staining of the agarose gel and miR171 probe serve as loading control for mRNAs and sRNAs, respectively.
- B Western blot analysis of the translation products from *GFP* and *GFP-GUS* transcripts. Coomassie (coom.) staining as a loading control. Black arrow: GFP-GUS fusion protein; white arrow: GFP protein.
- C Nucleo-cytoplasmic distribution of *35S:EVD* and *35S:GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* RNA isoforms in *rdr6* relative to that of *ACT2* analyzed by qPCR. RNA extracted from total, nuclear (Nuc) and cytoplasmic (Cyto) fractions was reverse-transcribed with random hexamers and oligo(dT). snoRNA U5 is shown as a nuclear-only RNA control.
- D Same as in (C) but using exclusively oligo(dT) to reverse transcribe poly(A)⁺ RNAs.

Data information: Both in (C) and in (D), qPCR was performed on $n = 3$ biological replicates; bars: standard error. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$ (two-sided t -test between indicated samples).

Source data are available online for this figure.

of *EVD*—which is recapitulated in *GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS*—not only allows production of the GAG-encoding *shGAG* subgenomic mRNA, but simultaneously promotes nuclear retention of *flGAG-POL*. This is likely contributing to the disproportionate translation of *shGAG* over *flGAG-POL*, although we do not exclude the involvement of other processes. For instance, in animal cells, exon–junction complex (EJC) deposition enhances translation of mRNAs even when tethered to intron-less transcripts (Nott et al, 2004). This could also contribute to enhance translation of the splicing-dependent *shGAG* isoform. Under these premises, splicing-coupled PCPA likely predisposes *shGAG*, as opposed to *flGAG-POL*, to one or several co-translational processes which, in turn, signal(s) RDR6 recruitment.

Saturation of co-translational mRNA decay is unlikely to trigger *shGAG* siRNA production

In plants and fungi, decapping coupled to 5'→3' exonucleolytic activity operated by cytosolic XRN proteins regulate the intrinsic half-life of most actively translated transcripts by degrading decapped mRNAs after the last translating ribosome (Kastenmayer & Green, 2000; Hu et al, 2009; Pelechano et al, 2015; Yu et al, 2016). Of the three *Arabidopsis* XRNs, XRN2 and XRN3 are nuclear, whereas XRN4 is cytosolic and, hence, mediates co-translational mRNA decay (Gregory et al, 2008; Yu et al, 2016; Kurihara, 2017). Remarkably, transcripts undergoing improper decapping and/or XRN4-mediated exonucleolysis constitute competing substrates for RDR6 in *Arabidopsis* (Gazzani, 2004; Gy et al, 2007; Gregory et al, 2008; Moreno et al, 2013; Martínez-de-Alba et al, 2015) (Appendix Fig S6A). For instance, loss-of-RDR6 function suppresses the lethality of decapping mutants by preventing production of undesirable siRNAs from hundreds of endogenous mRNAs (Martínez-de-Alba et al, 2015). Conversely, loss of XRN4 activity enhances RDR6-dependent PTGS (Gy et al, 2007; Gregory et al, 2008; Moreno et al, 2013). These observations strongly suggest that RDR6-dependent PTGS takes over co-translational mRNA decay when this process becomes saturated by highly abundant and/or highly translated mRNAs.

Likewise, we reasoned that intense translation might overwhelm XRN4-mediated co-translational decay of *shGAG* and thereby concurrently promote RDR6 action (Appendix Fig S6A). This would predict an accumulation of RNA degradation fragments (reflecting XRN4 activity) coinciding with siRNA accumulation. PARE (parallel amplification of RNA ends) and related methods map mostly XRN4 products associated with co-translational decay as well as non-

translational RNA cleavage events, e.g., miRNA-mediated slicing of non-coding RNAs (Gregory et al, 2008; Schon et al, 2018). We therefore conducted nanoPARE analyses, which capture both capped and uncapped RNA fragments (Schon et al, 2018), in *ddm1* vs WT *Arabidopsis* (Fig 6A, Appendix Fig S6B). Simultaneously, mRNA-seq (i.e., SMART-seq2) was conducted on the same RNA to monitor gene expression (Schon et al, 2018; Fig 6A). Analysis of *TAS1c*, which undergoes miR173-mediated slicing, confirmed that the ensuing 3' RNA cleavage fragment, a common substrate of XRN4 (Schon et al, 2018), was readily detected in both backgrounds, despite spawning vast amounts of RDR6-dependent siRNAs (Fig 6A). Analyzing *EVD* upon its reactivation in *ddm1* revealed a low level of RNA degradation fragments spanning the entirety of *EVD* despite the siRNAs being exclusively derived from *shGAG* (Fig 6A). Had RNA degradation contributed to siRNA biogenesis, these species would be expected to be distributed along the entirety of *EVD*, encompassing both *shGAG* and *flGAG-POL*. Inspection of the housekeeping *ACT2* locus revealed a similar ORF-spanning degradation pattern, albeit at substantially higher levels (~10-fold), presumably reflecting the higher transcript abundance. However, *ACT2* does not spawn siRNAs (Fig 6A). These observations therefore reveal no overt correlation between abundance of RNA degradation products, siRNA production, and/or polysome association.

The above results did not formally exclude the possibility that at least some *EVD*-associated degradation products identified by nanoPARE might contribute to siRNA biogenesis via competing RDR6 vs XRN4 activities. This would be genetically diagnosed by an increased accumulation of *shGAG* siRNAs in *xrn4* in contrast to their loss in *rdr6* (Gy et al, 2007; Gregory et al, 2008). To test this idea without the potential complication of *EVD* overexpression artificially saturating XRN4 activity in *35S:EVD_{wt}*, we introgressed the *xrn4* null mutation into *epi15* at the early F8 inbred generation, when PTGS of *EVD* is commonly initiated (Marí-Ordóñez et al, 2013). As negative controls, we used loss-of-function alleles of nuclear XRN2 and XRN3, which, by not contributing to co-translational mRNA decay, should not influence siRNA production. Finally, the *rdr6* mutation was introgressed in parallel, to prevent *shGAG* siRNA biogenesis. We analyzed two-to-three independent lineages with WT versus homozygous mutant backgrounds isolated from segregating F2s. However, neither *xrn4* nor *xrn2/xrn3* differed from the WT background with regard to *EVD* expression, copy number, or *shGAG* siRNA levels (Appendix Fig S6C–N). In contrast, *EVD* expression and copy numbers were increased in *rdr6*, coinciding with reduced *shGAG* siRNA levels (Appendix Fig S6F–H). We conclude from these

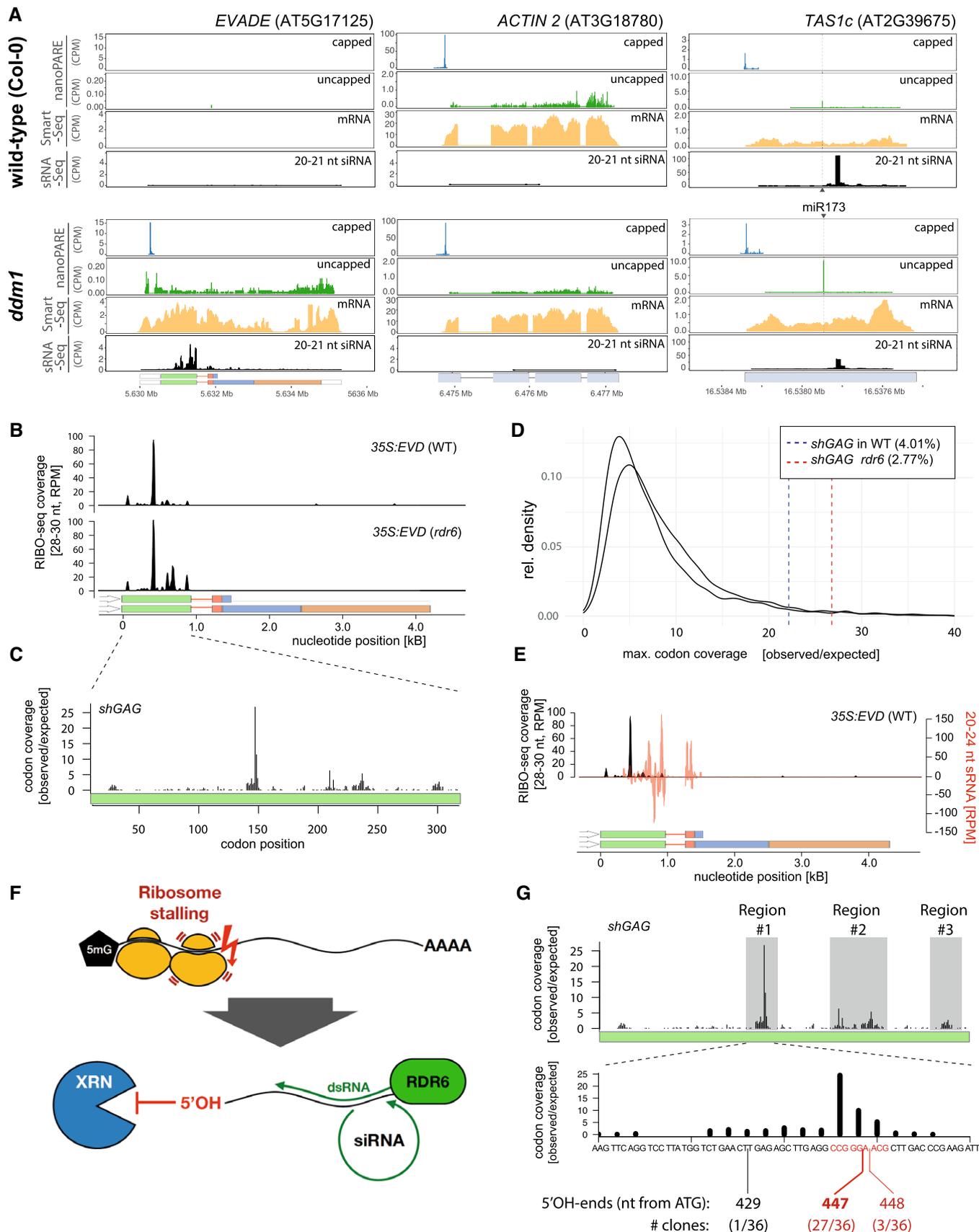


Figure 6.

Figure 6. Intense, discrete ribosome stalling on *shGAG* correlates with RDR6-dependent siRNA accumulation.

- A *EVD*, *ACT2*, and *TAS1c* capped and uncapped 5' ends from nanoPARE and Smart-seq2 libraries along 20–21 nt siRNA in WT and *ddm1*.
- B RIBO-seq coverage profiles from *35S:EVD* in WT or *rdm6*. RPM: Reads per million.
- C Ribosomal footprints on *shGAG* in *rdm6* displaying codon occupancy at P-sites to calculate codon coverage. The coverage observed at each codon position was divided by the expected mean coverage along the entire GAG coding sequence.
- D Maximal individual codon coverage over the expected coverage for all translated transcripts of *Arabidopsis*. Vertical lines indicate the strength of stalling sites of *shGAG* in the WT or *rdm6* background. Percentages specify the proportion of transcripts with more pronounced stalling events than *shGAG*.
- E Overlay between *35S:EVD* siRNAs (red) and RIBO-seq profiles (black) in the WT background.
- F Schematic representation of putative ribosome stalling-linked mRNA breakage generating 5'OH ends. Lack of 5'PO₄ prevents XRN 5'→3' exonucleolytic activity (see Fig 6A), granting the RNA to be used as template by RDR6.
- G Overlap between ribosomal footprints and mapping of 5'OH ends from *35S:EVD* in *rdm6* cloned through RtcB ligation. Regions investigated are highlighted in gray. 5'OH ends were only successfully cloned from region #1. Alignment of sequenced clones to *EVD* is displayed in Appendix Fig S9.
- Source data are available online for this figure.

collective results that saturation of XRN4-dependent co-translational mRNA decay (Appendix Fig S6A) is unlikely to underlie *shGAG* siRNA production. siRNAs are, instead, abruptly spawned from the middle up to the 3' end of *shGAG*, as if their production coincided with a discrete co-translational event (Fig 1B). A similar rationale should apply to the discrete *shGFP*-centric siRNA pattern spawned from *GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* (Fig 2C).

The initiation of RDR6 activity coincides with isolated and intense ribosome stalling events

To overcome the caveat of *EVD* cell-specific expression (Marí-Ordóñez *et al*, 2013) and simultaneously investigate which co-translational event(s) might trigger the siRNA patterns in both *shGAG* and *shGFP*, we generated RIBO-seq datasets (Ingolia *et al*, 2009) from *35S:EVD_{wt}* and *35S:GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS*. This resulted in high-quality ribosome footprints (RFPs) displaying the characteristic triplet periodicity (Appendix Fig S7A–E). We found that *EVD* RFPs in the *35S:EVD_{wt}* background map near-exclusively onto *shGAG*, underscoring its preferential translation (Figs 4A and 6B). However, a strong and isolated footprint peak was detected near the middle of the *shGAG* ORF (Fig 6B), suggesting intense ribosome stalling at this position. This stalling peak was also found within the *shGAG* coding sequence of endogenous *EVD* in one public *ddm1* RIBO-seq library (Kim *et al*, 2021) (Appendix Fig S8A). By specifying codon occupancy of ribosome P-sites—the sites of peptidyl transfer activity—reflecting the codon dwell time, we found that > 35% of *shGAG* translating ribosomes are located on two consecutive codons (pos.148–149) coinciding with this peak (Fig 6C). Having normalized these proportions to ORF lengths, we compared them to those of actively translated *Arabidopsis* mRNAs. To exclude artifacts from transcripts with low coverage, we restricted our analysis to the most abundant mRNA isoforms with coverage available for more than 70% of ORFs, as described (Sabi & Tuller, 2015). We found that *shGAG* ranks among the top 4.01 and 2.77% (in WT and *rdm6* backgrounds, respectively) of *Arabidopsis* transcripts displaying the most intense stalling events (Fig 6D). Remarkably, overlaying siRNAs and codon coverage intensity revealed that the intense stalling position coincides nearly exactly with the 5' starting point of the RDR6-dependent *EVD* siRNA pattern (Fig 6E). Stalling is not a consequence of RDR6 recruitment, because it also occurs in the *rdm6* background (Fig 6B).

To explore further a possible link between discrete, intense ribosome stalling and RDR6 activity, RFPs were conducted in the *35S:*

GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS background. As seen above for *shGAG* versus *flGAG-POL* in the *EVD* context, the analysis confirmed the vastly disproportional translation of *shGFP* versus *flGFP-GUS* (Appendix Fig S8B). It also identified a major stalling site only in the *shGFP* ORF (whose detection was enhanced in the *rdm6* background) in which two prominently covered and consecutive codons (pos. 235–236) accounted for ~40% of footprints (Appendix Fig S8C). Similarly to *shGAG*, *shGFP* ranked among the top 3.21–4.14% *Arabidopsis* transcripts displaying the most intense stalling events (Appendix Fig S8D). Furthermore, this stalling site was located between major peaks of *shGFP* siRNAs, in this case, in both the 5' and 3' directions within *GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* (Appendix Fig S8E).

A recent model advocates a possible link between suboptimal codon usage and PTGS initiation in plants (Kim *et al*, 2021). However, overlaying the *Arabidopsis* codon adaptation index with the codon coverage of ribosomes on *shGAG* and *shGFP* did not reveal any overt correlation between ribosome stalling and codon suboptimality (Appendix Fig S9). The cited study showed that codon optimization by increasing the CG3 content (CG content on the 3rd codon position) in a region corresponding, surprisingly, to the *shGAG* 3'UTR enhanced translation of a linked luciferase ORF (Kim *et al*, 2021). Yet, our analysis shows that neither CG nor CG3 content overtly influences ribosome association along *shGAG* or *shGFP*, let alone the intense stalling event detected on either mRNA (Appendix Fig S9). Two consecutive codons at the stalling site identified on *shGAG* code for proline and glycine (Appendix Fig S9A) and, interestingly, single prolines (P) and/or glycines (G) at P-sites correlate with ribosome stalling in animals and fungi (Artieri & Fraser, 2014; Sabi & Tuller, 2015; Zhao *et al*, 2021). To assess whether the consecutive proline-glycine amino acids influence translation and siRNA biogenesis, P148 and G149 were mutated to serine (S) and alanine (A), respectively, in the *EVD* construct (Appendix Fig S10A). In several bulks of T1 transformants, neither siRNA- nor Gag- levels were altered compared to those produced from the unmodified construct (Appendix Fig S10C and E). Consistent with this negative result, > 45% codon occupancy on *shGFP* occurs on consecutive glutamate and leucine, not proline/glycine, codons (Appendix Fig S9B).

In addition to the identity of some codons, secondary RNA structures have been correlated with ribosome stalling (Doma & Parker, 2006; Yan *et al*, 2015; Bao *et al*, 2020), including G-quadruplexes (Song *et al*, 2016; Fay *et al*, 2017). In particular, sites of “ribothrypsis”—a ribosome stalling-induced process recently described in metazoans—are positively correlated with such occurrences within

ORFs (Ibrahim *et al*, 2018). By forming secondary structures, G-quadruplexes are thought to act as “roadblocks” hampering proper ribosome progression during elongation (Song *et al*, 2016). G-quadruplex scoring along the *shGAG* and *shGFP* mRNA did reveal potential hot spots of such motifs (Appendix Fig S9). While they are localized far upstream or downstream of *shGAG* ribosome stalling sites (Appendix Fig S9A), a putative G-quadruplex is indeed located immediately downstream of the main *shGFP* stalling site (Appendix Fig S9B), which we deleted in the *shGFP* construct (Appendix Fig S10B). However, this did not have any overt effect on siRNA and Gag levels (Appendix Fig S10D and F). Therefore, *EVD* and *GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* transcripts display similar behavior, whereby RDR6-dependent production of *shGAG*- or *shGFP*-only siRNAs coincides with highly localized and unusually intense ribosome stalling events. While these stalling events have likely distinct albeit as-yet-unidentified causes for each transcript, both appear to stimulate co-translational processing of RNA intermediates that, in turn, serve as RDR6 substrates.

Ribosome stalling correlates with production of 5'-hydroxy 3'-cleavage fragments that possibly serve as RDR6 substrates

As described above, nanoPARE in *ddm1* did not reveal any discrete RNA products with 5' ends mapping consistently at, or near, the stalling site in *shGAG*. We also failed to detect such products using classic 5' RACE (Llave *et al*, 2002). Noteworthy, this technique relies on a 5' monophosphate (5'P) for RNA ligation of 5' adaptors (Silber *et al*, 1972; Wang & Fang, 2015). Intriguingly, 5'P was reported to be absent from various 3' cleavage RNA fragments produced co-translationally in budding yeast, including upon ribosome stalling (Peach *et al*, 2015; Navickas *et al*, 2020). A lack of 5'P is also strongly suspected for the 3' cleavage products of ribothrypsis (Ibrahim *et al*, 2018). Since siRNA production from *EVD* initiates just downstream of the major stalling site (codons 148–149; Fig 6E), we thus considered the possibility that discrete 3' cleavage RNA fragments devoid of a 5'P—and thus akin to the 5'OH RNA associated with the above-mentioned processes (Peach *et al*, 2015; Ibrahim *et al*, 2018; D'Orazio *et al*, 2019; Navickas *et al*, 2020)—might constitute RDR6 templates (Fig 6F).

To explore such a connection and simultaneously characterize and map the 5' ends of putative *shGAG* 3' cleavage fragments, we used the RtcB RNA ligase. RtcB contributes to tRNAs splicing by ligating RNAs with 3'P ends (or 2',3'-cyclic phosphate) to 5'OH ends and was used previously to map co-translational RNA cleavage fragments in yeast (Desai & Raines, 2012; Peach *et al*, 2015). A 5' RNA adaptor with a 3'P end was therefore RtcB-ligated to total RNA extracted from plants expressing *35S:EVD* or non-transgenic controls, both in the *rdr6* background. Use of *rdr6* prevented conversion of potential RDR6 templates into dsRNA as well as the accumulation of confounding cleavage fragments potentially caused by the ensuing secondary siRNAs. The ligated RNA was then subjected to reverse transcription using *EVD*-specific primers surrounding the major stalling site (Fig 6G; Region #1), amplified through PCR, and cloned following standard RACE procedures. Based on the *EVD* ribosome footprint profile (Fig 6C), we also investigated two additional regions more covered with ribosomes than expected (Fig 6G; Regions #2 & 3). Only region #1 yielded detectable amplification products within the expected size range. Nonetheless, gel excision

within the anticipated size ranges followed by cloning was performed for all regions in all genotypes (Appendix Fig S11A–C). Sanger sequencing revealed that 30 out of 36 fragments cloned from region #1 displayed 5'OH ends consistently mapping at nucleotides 447–448, strikingly defining the intense ribosome stalling site on *shGAG* (Fig 6G, Appendix Fig S11D) from which siRNA production is initiated (Fig 6E). By contrast, the clones obtained from regions #2 and #3 were either devoid of *EVD* sequences or empty. These results are consistent with the notion that the intense ribosome stalling event correlates with breakage of the *shGAG* RNA and that the ensuing 5'OH fragments serve as templates for RDR6 to initiate dsRNA production and downstream siRNA processing. Given that XRNs require a 5'-P for their 5'→3' exonucleolytic activities (Stevens, 2001; Schon *et al*, 2018), this could explain the insensitivity of *shGAG*-derived siRNA accumulation to any *xrn* mutation and to *xrn4* in particular (Appendix Fig S6). Being linked to 3' cleavage fragments inaccessible to the competing activity of XRN4, ribosome stalling might thus optimize the recruitment of RDR6 on *shGAG* for PTGS initiation. We note that nanoPARE, while being indiscriminative of RNA 5'-ends (including 5'OH) requires a 3' polyA tail to generate cDNA. Thus, the fact that the technique failed to detect the *shGAG* 5'OH cleavage fragments could indicate that they are indeed mostly poly(A)⁻. Preliminary PAGE-based analyses as conducted for the 3' ends of ribothrypsis products in mammalian cells (Ibrahim *et al*, 2018) suggested that discrete *shGAG*-derived 3' cleavage fragments are found in the poly(A)⁻ fraction isolated from *35S:EVD* in the *rdr6* background (Appendix Fig S12A). Lack-of-poly(A) could further optimize RDR6 recruitment because the enzyme is inhibited *in vitro* by 3' adenosine stretches (Baeg *et al*, 2017).

Discussion

Translation as an initiator of PTGS and epigenetic silencing

Protein synthesis is commonly merely seen as a target of PTGS by reducing the amount of available RNA and/or interfering with translation. Our study adds to a growing body of work identifying translation also as a trigger for PTGS (Sun *et al*, 2020; Iwakawa *et al*, 2021). This became evident after epigenetic reactivation of *EVD*, from which splicing-coupled PCPA generates separate RNA isoforms from a single transcription unit. Of the two, the shorter subgenomic *shGAG* RNA undergoes disproportionate translation over *flGAG-POL* as an indispensable feature of *Ty1/Copia* biology because this likely provides the stoichiometric protein balance necessary for efficient amplification and mobilization of the element. This process, however, concomitantly correlates with RDR6 activity. *shGAG* translation efficacy *per se* is within the range of moderately translated *Arabidopsis* mRNAs and is unlikely to explain this effect, nor do *GAG* expression or abundance. Rather, an exceptionally intense and highly discrete ribosome stalling event coincides with RDR6-dependent PTGS of *shGAG*. Our data also suggest how intron-retention in combination with active splicing accounts for the mostly nuclear *versus* cytosolic localization of *flGAG-POL versus shGAG*, respectively. Their asymmetrical subcellular distribution concurrently rationalizes (i) the disproportionate translation efficacies of each mRNA, (ii) the *shGAG*-centric distribution of translation-dependent *EVD*-derived siRNAs, and consequently, (iii)

the contrasted sensitivity of each isoform to cytosolic PTGS. Splicing-coupled PCPA probably underlies most, if not all, of features (i–iii) because they were recapitulated with the *GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* construct containing the *shGAG* intron and proximal PCPA signal (Figs 2 and 5, and Appendix Fig S4). Since splicing-coupled PCPA is at the very core of the *Ty1/Copia* genome expression strategy (Oberlin et al, 2017), the process described here for *EVD* is likely to be broadly applicable.

Being mostly nuclear, *flGAG-POL*, the template for RT required for mobilization, is neither a potent trigger nor a target of PTGS, likely explaining why increasing amounts of *shGAG* siRNAs have little impact on *EVD*'s genomic proliferation over successive epi15 inbred generations (Marí-Ordóñez et al, 2013). Previously attributed to GAG-mediated protection of *flGAG-POL* as part of VLPs (Marí-Ordóñez et al, 2013), we now consider *flGAG-POL* nuclear retention as an additional and perhaps major contributor to this shielding effect. The ensuing rise in *EVD* genomic copies causes increasing levels of RDR6-dependent *shGAG* dsRNA over generations. We previously suggested that these levels eventually saturate DCL4/DCL2 activities in the highly cell-specific expression domain of *EVD*, acting as a prerequisite to DCL3 recruitment and RdDM, ultimately causing LTR methylation and TGS of all *EVD* copies (Marí-Ordóñez et al, 2013). This proposed saturation-coupled PTGS-to-TGS switch invariably occurs in epi15 and other *EVD*-reactivating epiRILs when the *EVD* copy number reaches 40–50 (Marí-Ordóñez et al, 2013), causing only sporadic and minor developmental defects even in advanced generations (Mirouze et al, 2009; Marí-Ordóñez et al, 2013; Quadrona et al, 2016). By contrast, *EVD* copy number increases well beyond 80 in *rdr6* mutants already in F2s (Appendix Fig S6H) displaying loss of fertility (Appendix Fig S12B) likely solely ascribable to enhanced *EVD* proliferation. These data attest to a central role for RDR6 in controlling *EVD*'s mobilization and perhaps that of other autonomous TEs, at the level of translation. At least in the multi-generational context of epi15, our results also establish a hitherto-unrecognized role for translation in not only PTGS, but also, ultimately, epigenetic silencing and TGS.

Translation-dependent silencing as a sensor for *de novo* invading, foreign genetic elements

The vast majority of *ddm1*-reactivated TEs that spawn RDR6-dependent siRNAs is composed of *LTR/Gypsy* elements (Fig 4), which is the family most prominently associated with easiRNA production (Creasey et al, 2014; Borges et al, 2018). *Arabidopsis LTR/Gypsy* elements generally display significantly shorter-than-full-length ORFs as compared to the other main classes of *Arabidopsis* TEs, including the *LTR/Copia* family to which *EVD* belongs (Oberlin et al, 2017; Fig 4C). Although they likely constitute, therefore, degenerated transcription units, a substantial fraction of such *LTR/Gypsy* is nonetheless highly expressed as a possible source of abundant aberrant RNAs (Fig 4B). Thus, alternatively or concurrently to easiRNA production, some of these *LTR/Gypsy* remnants might also enter the RDR6 pathway by saturating RQC either co-transcriptionally or post-transcriptionally. While this process possibly underlies a previously documented expression-dependent form of innate TE silencing (Panda et al, 2016; Fultz & Slotkin, 2017), such loci might in turn autonomously produce siRNAs and become sources of identity-based silencing. Regardless, the combined action

of all these silencing pathways likely explains why most siRNA-generating TEs in *ddm1* do not actively engage translation, as evidenced by their conspicuous underrepresentation on polysomes (Fig 4A; quartile 4; Oberlin et al, 2017). In fact, siRNA-generating TEs are equally or even less polysome-associated than are non-coding RNAs (Fig 4A), indicating that there is no general correlation between siRNA production and translation. Conversely, numerous TEs are translated, yet do not spawn siRNAs (Fig 4A). These data contradict recent claims advocating a general correlation between siRNA production and translation based on the untested premise that most siRNA-generating TEs are translated (Kim et al, 2021), whereas they are, in fact, absent from polysomes (Oberlin et al, 2017; Fig 4A). Based on our experimental findings, we argue, on the contrary, that the process of “translation-dependent silencing” (TdS) described here is an attribute of only a handful of evolutionary young TEs. These chiefly include *EVD*, which concurrently undergoes productive translation (mostly of *shGAG*) and spawns RDR6-dependent siRNAs (Figs 1 and 4, and Appendix Fig S1).

EVD is among the few autonomously transposing LTR/TEs in the *Arabidopsis Col-0* genome (Mirouze et al, 2009; Reinders et al, 2009; Tsukahara et al, 2010; Gilly et al, 2014) and, as such, is unlikely controlled by identity-based mechanisms. TdS might enable the plant to detect its activity as the first line of defense against *de novo* invasions, for instance upon horizontal transfer of active TEs. TdS may likewise underpin silencing triggered upon experimental transfer of “exogenous” TEs between species separated by millions of years of evolution. For instance, similarly to *EVD*, the epigenetic silencing of two tobacco retrotransposons, *Tnt1* and *Tto1*, is copy-dependent when they are horizontally transferred into *Arabidopsis* by transgenesis (Hirochika et al, 2000; Fultz & Slotkin, 2017). Although the translation dynamics of *Tnt1* and *Tto1* in *Arabidopsis* has not been investigated, TdS might also contribute to their initial recognition in addition to a transcriptional-level of regulation as proposed for *Tto1* (Fultz & Slotkin, 2017).

Viruses divert a substantial fraction of the host translational apparatus to their highly compact and TE-like genomic and subgenomic RNAs (Gao et al, 2003; Dreher & Miller, 2006; Sztuba-Solińska et al, 2011), which might also predispose them to TdS. In all these circumstances, a key feature of TdS is an innate ability to detect transcripts by virtue of their foreign—as opposed to aberrant—nature, independently of any sequence homology to the host genome. We propose that foreignness is perceived by anomalies manifested during active translation, which likely include abnormal ribosome stalling. Despite extensive reverse genetics in *EVD* and *shGFP*, we failed to identify possible causes of stalling (Appendix Figs S9 and S10), having additionally ruled out any contribution of codon usage and CG/CG3 content (Appendix Fig S9). This is in sharp contrast with a recent model proposed by Kim and coworkers (Kim et al, 2021), which contends that PTGS via RDR6 might be caused by a multitude of presumptive translation stalling events. These were allegedly ascribed to pervasive suboptimal codons and low content in CG and CG3 along the ORFs of certain mRNAs, including TE-derived RNAs. This interpretation is neither compatible with the highly discrete nature of the stalling events experimentally detected in our study nor with the noticeable absence, from polysomes, of the TE RNAs used by Kim et al. to build their model, *EVD* excepted (Fig 4A). Possible causes of ribosome stalling, including mRNA-extrinsic ones, are further evoked in Appendix

Discussion and Appendix Fig S13. In particular, we argue why a recently proposed model of RISC-mediated stalling-coupled RDR6 recruitment (Iwakawa *et al*, 2021) during tasiRNA biogenesis unlikely applies to *EVD*, leading us to consider a potential causal role for stalling-coupled 5'-OH RNA fragment generation in stimulating RDR6 activity. Since we were unable, however, to genetically impede stalling (Appendix Fig S10), we can only speculate in the model described in the next section since, at this stage, 5'-OH RNA fragments might be mere byproducts of ribosome stalling.

Biogenesis of 5'-OH RNA fragments and their putative link to RDR6 recruitment

Independently of their possible role in TdS, a first question pertains to how 5'-OH RNA fragments might be generated. In budding yeast, the metal-independent endonuclease Cue2 cleaves, within the colliding ribosome's A site, mRNAs undergoing stalling-induced no-go decay, which generates 5'-OH 3' RNA fragments (D'Orazio *et al*, 2019). The mammalian homolog, N4BP2, additionally contains a polynucleotide kinase domain, which might directly couple endonucleolysis with the 5'-P-dependent XRN-licensing step evoked below (D'Orazio *et al*, 2019). We failed, however, to identify a plant Cue2/N4BP2 ortholog such that other mechanisms might underlie what we conservatively refer to as "translation-linked mRNA breakage" here.

Intense stalling is usually resolved on the protein side by ubiquitin-mediated proteolysis (Joazeiro, 2019). Translation-decoupled RNA degradation is involved on the RNA side (Ikeuchi *et al*, 2018), including XRN-mediated exonucleolysis operated in processing (P) bodies (Maldonado-Bonilla, 2014). Yet, 5'-OH RNA is not directly accessible to XRN action, which requires 5'-P *termini* (Stevens, 2001). In budding yeast, the Trl1 kinase phosphorylates these fragments to license their degradation by XRN5 (Navickas *et al*, 2020), which also likely occurs during ribothrypsis in mammalian cells (D'Orazio *et al*, 2019). Alternatively/additively, the mouse and fission yeast DXO/Rai1, which removes incomplete 5'-mRNA caps, catalyzes the removal of 5'-OH ends, exposing 5'-P for subsequent 5'->3' exoribonuclease activity (Doamekpor *et al*, 2020). In contrast to RNAi-deficient budding yeast or RNAi-proficient mammalian cells, plants display RDR activities (Stein *et al*, 2003; Drinnenberg *et al*, 2009). We suggest that in these organisms, 5'-OH *termini* would not only disqualify XRN4 action, but concurrently optimize that of RDR6, which is known to compete with XRN4 for substrates, including those evading co-translational decay (Gy *et al*, 2007; Gregory *et al*, 2008). RDR6 action in TdS is possibly further facilitated by the striking physical proximity of P-bodies—where unresolved 5'-OH RNA fragments should primarily accumulate—with the so-called "siRNA bodies" involved in RDR6-dependent tasiRNA processing (Martínez-de-Alba *et al*, 2015). In principle, RDR6 could also pick up a multitude of RNA cleavage fragments predictably produced *via* siRNA-guided cleavage of *shGAG* by RISCs. However, RISC-mediated slicing produces 5'-P *termini* (Martínez & Tuschl, 2004), qualifying these RNAs as XRN4-, as opposed to RDR6-, substrates unlikely, therefore, to contribute prominently to *shGAG* siRNA production.

Concluding Remarks

Transient ribosome stalling is a normal and favorable feature of translation, enabling proper folding of nascent peptides (Rodnina,

2016). Accordingly, many mechanisms exist to resolve such instances (Buskirk & Green, 2017) including ribothrypsis in mammalian cells, an apparent widespread component of ordinary translation (Ibrahim *et al*, 2018). However, while its initiation strongly resembles that of mammalian ribothrypsis, TdS is unlikely to be ubiquitous in plants, since its RNA products, by directly engaging RDR6 for amplified siRNA production, would promote degradation of the entire mRNA pool independently of its stalled or even merely translated status. While this would be highly detrimental as a common form of endogenous gene regulation, the process seems particularly well suited to eliminate highly proliferating foreign RNAs such as those of viruses and TEs.

Material and Methods

Plant material and growth conditions

Plants were grown in a growth chamber on soil at 22°C for two weeks in a 12-h/12-h light cycle and then transferred to a 16-h/8-h light cycle and pools of three to five plants were sampled for inflorescence tissue. Mutant genotypes *met1-3*, *dcl1-11*, *ddm1-2* (seventh inbred generation), *hyl1-2*, *rdr6-12*, *xrn2-2*, *xrn3-3*, *xrn4-3* plants are all derived from the Col-0 ecotype (Vongs *et al*, 1993; Peragine *et al*, 2004; Vazquez *et al*, 2004; Gy *et al*, 2007). Genotyping primers are described in Appendix Table S1. *met1*-derived epiRIL#15 plants (*epi15*) were described previously (Reinders *et al*, 2009; Mari-Ordóñez *et al*, 2013). *35S:EVDwt*, *35S:EVD_{mU1}*, *35S:EVD_{Δi}*, *35S:GFP-GUS* and *35S:GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* overexpression lines were previously depicted (Mari-Ordóñez *et al*, 2013; Oberlin *et al*, 2017).

Constructs and plasmids

All constructs are available from addgene (www.addgene.org): *35S:EVDwt* (#167119), *35S:EVD_{mU1}* (#167121), *35S:EVD_{Δi}* (#167120), *35S:GFP-GUS* (#167122) and *35S:GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* (#167123; Mari-Ordóñez *et al*, 2013; Oberlin *et al*, 2017).

Cyto-nuclear fractionations

For each sample, twice 250 mg of 3-week-old seedlings grown in 1/2 strength (2.2 g/l) Murashige and Skoog medium (#M0231, Duchefa Biochemie) was ground to fine powder in liquid nitrogen and homogenized in 575 μl of lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 0.15% IGEPAL (CA-630, Merk) and 1× cComplete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche)). Lysates were gently mixed and incubated on ice for 10 min. before being filtered through one layer of Miracloth. 400 μl from each lysate was recovered and one set aside as Total. The second set of cell lysate were gently overlaid on top of 1 ml of cold sucrose buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 24% sucrose and 1× cComplete EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (#04693159001, Roche)) in protein low binding 1.5-mL tubes (LoBind, Eppendorf) by slowly pipetting against the side of the tube. Samples were centrifuged at 3,500 g for 10 min. to separate nuclei (pellet) from cytoplasm (supernatant). Cytoplasmic fractions were cleared by centrifugation at 14,000 g for 1 min. in a new tube and the resulting supernatant set aside. Nuclear pellets were rinsed by inverting the tube 3–5 times without disturbing the pellet

with 1 ml of 1× PBS, 0.5 mM EDTA. Nuclei were spin for 15 s at 1,300 g before gently removing the wash solution. Nuclei pellets were resuspended by pipetting in 200 µl of nuclear lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 300 mM NaCl, 7.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM EDTA pH8, 1 M urea, 1% IGEPAL, and 1× cOmplete protease inhibitor cocktail). For isolation of total RNA and protein from the different fractions, samples were mixed 1 volume of acid PCI (phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol, #X985 Carl Roth). In addition, nuclear fractions were further homogenized after addition of PCI by passing the sample through a 21-gauge needle with a 1-ml syringe. All steps were carried on ice or centrifuged at 4°C. Buffers were freshly prepared in advance and chilled on ice before use.

Nucleic acid and protein extractions

RNA was extracted from frozen and ground tissue with TRIzol reagent (#93289, Sigma) and precipitated with 1× vol. of cold isopropanol. For RNA extraction from cyto-nuclear fractionations, 20 µg of glycogen (#R0551, ThermoFisher) and 0.1× vol. of sodium acetate 3 M pH5.2 was mixed with recovered aqueous phases after PCI before RNA precipitation with 1× vol. of cold isopropanol. DNA was extracted using the DNeasy Plant Mini Kit (#69204, Qiagen) according to manufacturer's guidelines.

Protein of frozen and ground tissue was homogenized in extraction buffer (0.7 M sucrose, 0.5 M Tris-HCl, pH 8, 5 mM EDTA, pH 8, 0.1 M NaCl, 2% β-mercaptoethanol), and cOmplete EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (#04693159001, Roche). Water-saturated and Tris-buffered phenol (pH 8) was added to an equal volume and samples were agitated for 5 min. Phases were separated by 30-min centrifugation (12,000 g at 4°C). Proteins were precipitated from the phenol phase (including those from PCI) by the addition of 5 volumes of 0.1 M ammonium acetate in methanol. Precipitated proteins were collected by centrifugation for 30 min (12,000 g at 4°C), washed twice with ammonium acetate in methanol and resuspended in resuspension buffer (3% SDS, 62.3 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8, 10% glycerol).

RNA and protein blot analysis

For high-molecular-weight RNA analysis, 5–10 µg of total RNA was separated on a 1.2% agarose MOPS-buffered gel with 2.2 M formaldehyde. RNA was partially hydrolyzed on gel with 5× gel volumes of 0.05N NaOH for 20 min. Gel was washed twice for 20 min with 20X SSC, transferred overnight by capillarity to a HyBond-NX membrane (#RPN303, GE Healthcare) and UV-crosslinked for fixation. For high-molecular-weight RNA analysis by PAGE, 1–40 µg of RNA (total, poly(A)⁺ or poly(A)⁻) was separated on a denaturing 4% polyacrylamide-urea gel, transferred to a HyBond-NX membrane by electroblotting and UV-crosslinked. For low-molecular-weight RNA analysis, 10–40 µg of total RNA was separated on a denaturing 17.5% polyacrylamide-urea gel, transferred to a HyBond-NX membrane by electroblotting and chemically crosslinked (Pall & Hamilton, 2008). Probes from PCR products were radiolabeled using the Prime-a-Gene kit (#U1100, Promega) in the presence of [α -³²P]-dCTP (Hartmann Analytic) and oligo probes were radiolabeled by incubation of PNK (#EK0031, Thermo) in the presence of [γ -³²P]-ATP. Membranes were hybridized with these probes in PerfectHyb hybridization buffer (#H7033, Sigma) and detected on a Typhoon

FLA 9500 (GE Healthcare) laser scanner. Oligonucleotides used for probe generation are listed in Appendix Table S1.

Proteins were separated on SDS-polyacrylamide gels, transferred to Immobilon-P PVDF membranes (#IPVH00010, Millipore) by electroblotting and incubated with antibodies in 1× PBS with 0.1% Tween-20 and 5% nonfat dried milk. After incubation with HRP-conjugated secondary goat antibody against rabbit or rat primary antibodies (Sigma), detection was performed with the Clarity Max Western ECL substrate (#1705062, BIO-RAD) on a ChemiDoc Touch imaging system (BIO-RAD). Affinity-purified antibodies were used at the specified dilutions: GAG (1:2,000; Oberlin et al, 2017), GFP (1:5,000 Chromotek #3H9-100), GUS (1:1,000 Sigma-Aldrich #G5545), H3 (1:10,000 Abcam #ab1791), UGPase (1:2,000 Agrisera #AS5 086). Protein loading was confirmed by Coomassie staining of membranes.

Quantitative PCR

RNA was treated with DNaseI (#EN0521, Thermo Scientific) and cDNA was subsequently synthesized with the Maxima First-Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (#K1641, Thermo Scientific), or RevertAid cDNA Synthesis Kit with Oligo(dT) (#K1612, Thermo Scientific). qPCRs were run on a LightCycler480 II (Roche) or a QuantStudio5 (Applied Biosystems) machine with the SYBR FAST qPCR Kit (KAPA Biosystems). Ct values were determined by the 2nd derivative max method of minimally two technical replicates for each biological replicate. Relative expression values were computed as ratios of Ct values between targets of interest and *ACT2* and/or *GAPC* reference mRNA unless otherwise indicated. *EVD* copy numbers were determined by direct qPCR on genomic DNA, comparing relative *EVD* and *ACT2* levels, normalized by their inherent copy numbers of two and one in WT plants, respectively. Oligonucleotides used are listed in Appendix Table S1.

Separation of polyadenylated mRNA

Isolation of poly(A)⁺ from non-poly(A) RNA was performed from 75 µg of Trizol-extracted total RNA from floral buds, using the DynabeadsTM mRNA Purification Kit (Ambion Cat#.61006) following the manufacturer's instructions. Non-polyA RNA was precipitated from the DynabeadsTM-unbound fraction and resuspended in the same volume (200 µl) as the poly(A)⁺ RNA fraction. Efficiency of the separation was confirmed by running aliquots of each fraction on a 1% agarose gel to monitor efficient depletion of rRNA in poly(A)⁺ fractions before downstream analysis.

Cloning and mapping of 5'OH ends

Non-canonical cleavage sites in *EVADE* transcript were mapped by a modified 5' RACE method. Total RNA isolated from a pool of 2- to 3-week-old plants extracted by standard protocols (See nucleic acid extraction section) was taken for RNA ligations after DNase I treatment ((#EN0521, Thermo scientific). RNA adapters with a 5' inverted dT modification (see Appendix Table S1) were ligated to the DNase-treated RNA by T4 RNA ligase 1 (#M0204S, New England Biolabs) to render the canonical cleavage products not available for subsequent ligation reaction. To map the cleavage products with a 5' hydroxyl group, the RNA was subsequently ligated to an RNA

adapter with a 3' phosphate group by *RtcB* ligase (#M0458S, New England Biolabs). The ligated RNA was converted to cDNA with RevertAid first-strand cDNA synthesis kit (#K1612, Thermo scientific) and a primer specific to the EVADE transcript (Appendix Table S1). The cDNA was amplified by nested PCR by using primers from the adapter RNA and primers located ~100 nucleotides downstream of each stalling site (all adaptor and primers sequences can be found in Appendix Table S1). The PCR products were separated on an agarose gel and the DNA fragments were extracted from the gel by GeneJET gel extraction kit (#K0691, ThermoFisher scientific). The DNA fragments were cloned in pJET1.2 vectors by using CloneJET PCR cloning kit (#K1232, ThermoFisher scientific) and ~50 colonies were screened for each potential cleavage site by Sanger sequencing technology.

Small RNA sequencing

Small RNA sequencing of *35S:EVDwt* and *35S:GFP-EVD_{int/ter}-GUS* was performed as follows. Total RNA was resolved on a 17.5% polyacrylamide-urea gel and sizes between 18–30 nt were excised, eluted overnight in elution buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.9), 1 mM EDTA, 400 mM ammonium acetate, 0.5% (w/v) SDS), and collected by precipitation with equal volumes of isopropanol. RNA was quantified using the Qubit™ RNA HS Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific) and subsequently cloned using the Small RNA-Seq Library Prep Kit (Lexogen). Sequencing was performed on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 machine.

RIBO-seq

For RIBO-seq libraries, frozen inflorescence tissue was ground in digestion buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8), 40 mM KCl, 20 mM MgCl₂, 2% (v/v) polyoxyethylene (10) tridecyl ether, 1% (v/v) de-oxycholic acid, 1 mM DTT, 10 unit/ml DNase I (Thermo Scientific), 100 µg/ml cycloheximide). Pre-cleared solutions were incubated with 650 U RNase I (Ambion) for 45 min at 25°C. Nuclease digestion was stopped by the addition of 10 µl SUPERase In RNase Inhibitor (Ambion). Resulting monosomes were purified by ultracentrifugation of the lysate on a sucrose cushion (1 M sucrose, 20 mM HEPES (pH 7.6), 100 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, 10 µg/ml cycloheximide, 10 units/ml RiboLock (Thermo Scientific) and cOMplete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche) for 4 h at 250,000 g in 4°C. RNA was extracted using the TRIzol RNA extraction described above and treated with 10 U PNK (Thermo Scientific) for 30 min. Ribosomal RNA depletion was performed using the RiboMinus Plant Kit (Thermo Scientific) and libraries were generated as above, except that the 25–32 nt RNA fraction was excised from the denaturing polyacrylamide gel prior to RNA ligation.

nanoPARE

NanoPARE library preparation and analysis was performed following the protocol from Schon *et al* (2018). Briefly, 10 ng of total RNA was isolated from inflorescences. Two biological replicates each of Col-0 and *ddm1-2* were used for reverse transcription. After 9 cycles of PCR pre-amplification, 5 ng aliquots of cDNA were separately tagged and amplified using either standard Smart-seq2 Tn5 primers or 5'-end enrichment primers. The resulting Smart-seq2 and nanoPARE libraries were sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 using paired-end 50-bp reads and single-end 50-bp reads, respectively.

Seed counting

Plants germinated and grown in parallel under the same conditions were individually covered with paper bags before the maturation of siliques and harvested upon ripening. Total amount of seeds from each plant was counted twice with a C3 High Sensitive Seed Counter (Elmor).

Data analysis

Analysis of sRNA sequencing is based on the following workflow. Reads were trimmed using bbdutk (BBTools: sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/, version 38.41; ktrim=r k=23 mink=11 hdist=1) mapped against the TAIR10 *Arabidopsis* genome with STAR (Dobin *et al*, 2013) (version 2.5.2a; --outFilterMismatchNoverLmax 0.05 --outFilterMatchNmin 16 --outFilterScoreMinOverLread 0 --alignIntronMax 500 --alignIntronMin 50 --outFilterMultimapNmax 50), quantified using Rsubread (Liao *et al*, 2013) (version 1.20.6; allowMultiOverlap=T, largestOverlap=T, isPairedEnd=F, strandSpecific=1, countMultiMappingReads=T, fraction=T) and differential analysis using DESeq2 (Love *et al*, 2014; version 1.10.1). Reads were split in different lengths with Samtools (Li *et al*, 2009; version 0.1.19), and locus coverage among those read length was visualized using BEDtools (Quinlan & Hall, 2010; version 2.15.0) and R cran (version 3.2.5).

RIBO-seq libraries were analyzed as follows. Reads were trimmed of adapter sequences with bbdutk as above. Reads mapping to rRNA loci using Bowtie2 (Langmead & Salzberg, 2012) (version 2.2.1; -k 1 -x) were discarded from further analysis. Subsequent mapping and quantification were performed as for the sRNA sequencing analysis using STAR (Dobin *et al*, 2013) and Rsubread (Liao *et al*, 2013) as above, but reads were mapped to both *Arabidopsis* genome and transcriptome sequences. Quality control of the RIBO-seq libraries was performed with the riboWaltz (Lauria *et al*, 2018; version 1.1.0) package. P-site occupancies were estimated using the RiboProfiling (Popa *et al*, 2016; version 1.0.3) package based on 5' read offsets determined by the coverage profile around start codons dependent on read lengths. Codon occupancies were compiled for all three possible frames to generate a single codon occupancy score. A ribosomal stalling score at each codon position was defined as the ratio of observed over expected counts, where the expectation was the mean of occupancy counts over the entire transcript. To improve quality of the assessment, only the most translated isoform per gene and only isoforms with a minimal read coverage of 70% were considered. Codon dwell time was estimated as the mean value of log-normalized codon occupancies per individual transcript and codon usage was estimated from the subset of genes considered translated. Stop codons and stop codons containing di-codons were excluded from the analysis. Data were visualized using R cran and the packages Gviz (Hahne & Ivanek, 2016) and ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009).

Data availability

Sequencing data generated in this study are accessible on the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) under the accession number GSE167484 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE167484>).

Data from previous studies including sRNA sequencing in *ddm1* & *ddm1 rdr6*, *ddm1* & *ddm1 dcl1*, isoform-specific sequencing data of total and polysome-associated mRNA in TE de-repressed backgrounds are found under the accession numbers GSE41755 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE41755>; Nuthikattu et al, 2013), GSE52952 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE52952>; Creasey et al, 2014), GSE93584 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE93584>; Oberlin et al, 2017) and PRJNA598331 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJNA598331>; Kim et al, 2021). Every other raw data used in this study (including raw image files, qPCR data, and Sanger sequencing traces) have been deposited in Zenodo (www.zenodo.org) under the <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5564305>.

Expanded View for this article is available online.

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Author contributions

AM-O, SO, and OV conceived and designed the study. SO and AM-O performed most experiments. RR cloned and sequenced the *EVD* 5'OH ends, MT and VB-B investigated *EVD* copy number in *rdr6* and RNA isoform distribution in cytoplasmic fractions. MAS, AP, and MDN performed nanoPARE. LL conducted seed counting. SO and MAS performed computer analyses. SO and MT performed statistical analyses. AM-O, SO, and OV analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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