Computational analysis of microRNA-mediated interactions in SARS-CoV-2 infection

Müşerref Duygu SAÇAR DEMİRCİ 1* and Aysun ADAN 2

- ¹ Bioinformatics, Abdullah Gül University, Kayseri, Turkey
- 2 Molecular Biology and Genetics, Abdullah Gül University, Kayseri, Turkey
- * Correspondence: duygu.sacar@agu.edu.tr

Abstract

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are post-transcriptional regulators of gene expression that have been found in more than 200 diverse organisms. Although it is still not fully established if RNA viruses could generate miRNAs that would target their own genes or alter the host gene expression, there are examples of miRNAs functioning as an antiviral defense mechanism. In the case of Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), there are several mechanisms that would make miRNAs impact the virus, like interfering with replication, translation and even modulating the host expression. In this study, we performed a machine learning based miRNA prediction analysis for the SARS-CoV-2 genome to identify miRNA-like hairpins and searched for potential miRNA – based interactions between the viral miRNAs and human genes and human miRNAs and viral genes. Our PANTHER gene function analysis results indicate that viral derived miRNA candidates could target various human genes involved in crucial cellular processes including transcription. For instance, a transcriptional regulator, STAT1 and transcription machinery might be targeted by virus-derived miRNAs. In addition, many known human miRNAs appear to be able to target viral genes. Considering the fact that miRNA-based therapies have been successful before, comprehending mode of actions of miRNAs and their possible roles during SARS-CoV-2 infections could create new opportunities for the development and improvement of new therapeutics.

Introduction

Coronoviruses (CoVs) are pathogens with serious health effects including enteric, respiratory, hepatic and central nervous diseases on human and animals. Zoonotic CoVs, Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome-Coronavirus (SARS-CoV) and Middle East Respiratory Syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV), have been identified the sources of outbreaks in 2002/2003 and 2012, respectively with high mortality rates due to severe respiratory syndrome 1,2. Besides zoonotic CoVs, there are four types of human CoVs have been identified known as HCoV-OC43, HCoV-2293, HCoV-NL63 and HCoV-HKU1 1. Unknown pneumonia have been detected in Wuhan, China and spread globally since December 2019. The World Health Organization (WHO) named this new coronavirus as Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) responsible for the new disease termed Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) and it is the seventh identified CoV with animal origin infecting human 2.

Coronaviruses are positive-single stranded RNA (+ssRNA) viruses with exceptionally large genomes of ~ 30 kb with 5'cap structure and 3'polyA tail. The coronavirus subfamily is divided into four genera: α , β , γ , and δ based on serotype and genome features 3. The genome of a typical CoV codes for at least 6 different open reading frames (ORFs), which has variations based on the CoV type 4. Some ORFs encode non-structural proteins while others code for structural proteins required for viral replication and pathogenesis. Structural proteins include spike (S) glycoprotein, matrix (M) protein, small envelope (E) protein, and nucleocapsid (N) protein with various roles for virus enterance and spread. SARS-CoV-2 belongs to β CoV with 45-90% genetic similarity to SARS-CoV based on sequence analysis and might share similar viral genomic and transcriptomic complexity 3.5. Currently, it has been also revealed that SARS-COV-2 has a very high homology with bat CoVs, which indicated how it is transmitted to human without knowing intermediate carriers 6. S protein of SARS-CoV-2 has a strong interaction with human angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) expressed on alveolar epithelial cells which shows the way of virus infection in human 7.

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are small, noncoding RNAs that play role in regulation of the gene expression in various organisms ranging from viruses to higher eukaryotes. It has been estimated that miRNAs might influence around 60% of mammalian genes and their main effect is on regulatory pathways including cancer, apoptosis, metabolism and development 8.

Although the current release of miRNAs, the standard miRNA depository, lists miRNAs of 271 organisms, only 34 of them are viruses 9. While, the first virus-encoded miRNAs was discovered for the human Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) 10, more than 320 viral miRNA precursors were reported so far. Although it has been shown that various DNA viruses express miRNAs, it is still debatable if RNA viruses could also encode. The major concerns regarding miRNAs of RNA viruses are based on 11:

- the fact that RNA viruses that replicate in cytoplasm, do not have access to nuclear miRNA machinery
- since RNA is the genetic material, miRNA production would interfere with viral replication

On the other hand, many features of miRNA - based gene regulation seems to be especially beneficial for viruses. For instance, through targeting specific human genes by viral miRNAs, it is possible to form an environment suitable for survival and replication of the virus. Furthermore, for viral miRNAs it is likely to escape host defense system since host itself generates miRNAs in the same manner.

Currently, options for the prevention and treatment of CoVs are very limited due to the complexity. Therefore, detailed analysis of CoV-host interactions is quite important to understand viral pathogenesis and to determine the outcomes of infection. Although there are studies regarding to the viral replication and their interaction with host innate immune system, the role of miRNA-mediated RNA-silencing in SARS-CoV-2 infection has not been enlightened yet. In this study, SARS-CoV-2 genome was searched for miRNA-like sequences and potential host-virus interactions based on miRNA actions were analyzed.

Methods

Data analysis, pre-miRNA prediction, mature miRNA detection workflows were generated by using the Konstanz Information Miner (KNIME) platform 12

Data

Genome data of the virus was obtained from NCBI:

Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 isolate Wuhan-Hu-1, complete genome

GenBank: MN908947.3

MiRNA prediction workflow izMiR 13 and its related data were taken from Mendeley Data:

https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/mgh5r9wny7/1

Mature miRNA sequences of human were downloaded from miRBase Release 22.1 14.

Pre-miRNA prediction

Genome sequences of SARS-CoV-2 were transcribed (T->U) and divided into 500 nt long fragments with 250 overlaps. Then these fragments were folded into their secondary structures by using RNAfold 15 with default settings and hairpin structures were extracted, producing 950 hairpins in total.

A modified version of izMiR (SVM classifier is changed to Random Forest and latest miRBase version was used for learning) was applied to these hairpins with ranging lengths (from 7 to 176) (Figure 1). Based on the mean value of averages of 3 classifiers' prediction scores (Decision Tree, Naive Bayes and Random Forest), 29 hairpins passed 0.900 threshold and used for further analysis.

Mature miRNA prediction and targeting

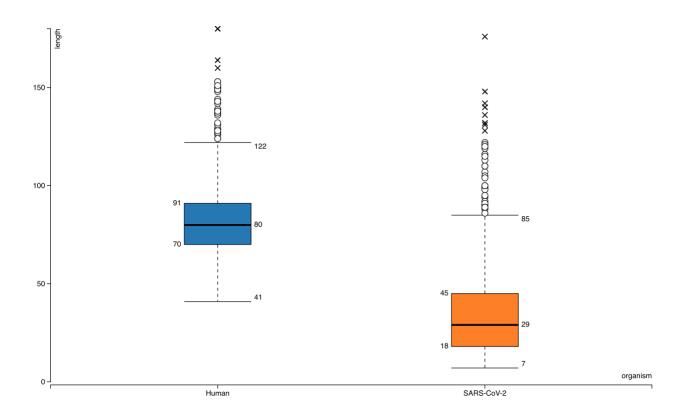
Selected hairpins were further processed into smaller sequences; maximum 23 nt length with 6 nt overlaps. Then, these fragments were filtered based on minimum length of 15 and their location on the hairpins (sequences not involving any loop nucleotides were included). Target search of these remaining 30 candidate mature miRNAs were performed against human and SARS-CoV-2 genes by using psRNATarget tool with default settings 16. Moreover, human mature miRNAs' from miRBase were applied for searching their targets in SARS-CoV-2 genes.

Gene Ontology

The targets of viral miRNAs in human genes were further analyzed for their Gene Ontology (GO). To achieve this, PANTHER Classification System (http://www.pantherdb.org) was used 17.

Results

Searching SARS-CoV-2 genome for sequences forming hairpin structures resulted in 950 hairpins with varying lengths (Supplementary Files). In order to use machine learning based miRNA prediction approach of izMiR workflows, hundreds of features were calculated for all of the pre-miRNA candidate sequences. Among those, minimum free energy (mfe) values required for the folding of secondary structures of hairpin sequences and hairpin sequence lengths of known human miRNAs from miRBase and predicted hairpins of SARS-CoV-2 were compared (Figure 1). Based on the box-plots shown in Figure 1, most of the extracted viral hairpins seem to be smaller than human miRNA precursors.



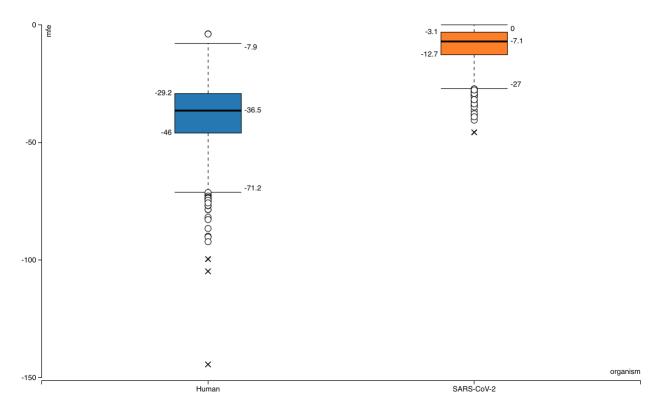


Figure 1: Box-plots for comparison of general features of human pre-miRNAs and SARS-CoV-2 hairpins. Hairpin lengths shown in top graph. Minimum free energy scores obtained from RNAfold 15 plotted in bottom panel.

Since viruses would need to use at least some members of host miRNA biogenesis pathway elements, viral miRNAs should be similar to host miRNAs to a certain degree. Therefore, a classification scheme trained with known human miRNAs was applied on SARS-CoV-2 hairpins. Only 29 hairpins out of 950 passed the 0.900 prediction score threshold and used for further analysis. From these hairpins, 30 mature miRNA candidates were extracted and their possible targets for human and SARS-CoV-2 genes were investigated.

SARS-CoV-2 miRNA candidates were further analyzed to test if they were similar to any of the known mature miRNAs from 271 organism listed in miRBase. To achieve this, a basic similarity search was performed based on the Levenshtein distance calculations in KNIME. However, there was no significant similarity between hairpin or mature sequences.

While predicted mature miRNAs of SARS-CoV-2 were used to find their targets in SARS-CoV-2 and human genes, mature miRNAs of human were also applied on SARS-CoV-2 genes (Table 1, Supplementary Files). Although miRNA based self-regulation of viral gene expression is a hypothetical case, SARS-CoV-2 ORF1ab polyprotein gene might be the only one that could be a target of viral miRNAs. In total 1367 human genes seem to be targeted by viral miRNAs. Table 1 lists some of the predicted targets of SARS-CoV-2 miRNAs in human genes that have roles in transcription. The full list of miRNA – target predictions are available in Supplementary Files.

Table 1: Transcription related human gene targets of viral miRNAs. MiRNA column indicates the accession numbers of mature viral miRNAs; Target gene # column shows the total number of different genes involved in transcription and targeted by the corresponding viral MiRNAs.

miRNA	Target	Target Gene Names	
	gene #		
19	11	CNOT4 (CCR4-NOT transcription complex subunit 4), MED9 (Mediator of RNA polymerase II transcription subunit 9), GTF2H5 (General transcription factor IIH subunit 5), MED1 (Mediator of RNA polymerase II transcription subunit 1), STAT5B (Signal transducer and activator of transcription 5B), TAF4 (Transcription initiation factor TFIID subunit 4), EBF1 (Transcription factor COE1), CNOT10 (CCR4-NOT transcription complex subunit 10), MAFG (Transcription factor MafG), BACH1 (Transcription regulator protein BACH1), MED12L (Mediator of RNA polymerase II transcription subunit 12-like protein)	
		CNOT4 (CCR4-NOT transcription complex subunit 4), TFDP2	
15.2	4	(Transcription factor Dp-2), TCF4 (Transcription factor 4), MITF	
15_2		(Microphthalmia-associated transcription factor)	
1_2	3	LST1 (Leukocyte-specific transcript 1 protein), EBF4 (Transcription factor	
		COE4), TFEC (Transcription factor EC)	
1_4	3	HES2 (Transcription factor HES-2), TAF5 (Transcription initiation factor TFIID subunit 5), TFEC (Transcription factor EC)	
6_2	3	SOX11 (Transcription factor SOX-11), MED19 (Mediator of RNA	
		polymerase II transcription subunit 19), NFYB (Nuclear transcription factor Y subunit beta)	
29_1	2	TEAD1 (Transcriptional enhancer factor TEF-1), DMRT1 (Doublesex- and	
		mab-3-related transcription factor 1)	
29_2	2	TFDP2 (Transcription factor Dp-2), TCF4 (Transcription factor 4)	
6_3	2	CTCFL (Transcriptional repressor CTCFL), CNOT6L (CCR4-NOT	
		transcription complex subunit 6-like)	
9	2	TRPS1 (Zinc finger transcription factor Trps1), CREBZF (CREB/ATF bZIP transcription factor)	

12	1	BRF1 (Transcription factor IIIB 90 kDa subunit)
15_1	1	NFYB (Nuclear transcription factor Y subunit beta)
1_1	1	SUPT5H (Transcription elongation factor SPT5)
1_3	1	MYT1L (Myelin transcription factor 1-like protein)
1_5	1	PHTF2 (Putative homeodomain transcription factor 2)
29_4	1	TAF7L (Transcription initiation factor TFIID subunit 7-like)
29_5	1	POU2F1 (POU domain, class 2, transcription factor 1)
6_1	1	STAT1 (Signal transducer and activator of transcription 1-alpha/beta)
7_1	1	SWT1 (Transcriptional protein SWT1)

Considering the potential of miRNAs as biomarkers and therapeutic agents, it is essential to check if any of the known human miRNAs could target viral genes. Among 2654 mature entries of *Homo sapiens* in miRBase Release 22.1, 479 of them could target SARS-CoV-2 genes (Supplementary Files). While Envelope and ORF6 genes were targeted by single miRNAs, ORF1ab appeared to be the target of 369 different human mature miRNAs (Table 2). As expected, number of targeting events appear to be correlated with the gene length.

Table 2: Predicted virulent mRNA targets by Human miRNAs: bold miRNAs are the common ones targeting more than one indicated viral proteins. The functions of SARS-CoV-2 proteins are not fully characterized, however, its coding genes might share functional similarity with SARS-CoV as shown in column "Functions of Target Genes". Gene size indicates the size of genes in terms of number of nucleotides, hsa miRNAs shows the number of different human miRNAs that could target indicated viral genes.

Target Genes	Human miRNA	Functions of Target Genes
S (Spike) protein	hsa-miR-447b, hsa-miR-2052, hsa-miR-3127-5p, hsa-miR-34b-5p, hsa-miR-374a-3p, hsa-miR-6729-5p, hsa-miR-3927-3p, hsa-miR-410-5p, hsa-miR-432-5p,	Viral attachment for the host cell entry by interacting with
gene size: 3822	hsa-miR-4693-3p, hsa-miR-548ag, hsa-miR-6128, hsa-miR-676-3p, hsa-miR-6809-5p, hsa-miR-6893-	ACE2 7,18
hsa miRNAs: 67	5p	
E (Envelope) protein	hsa-miR-3672	Viral envelope formation and acting as viroporin to
		form hydrophilic pores on

gene size: 228		host membranes 19,20
hsa miRNAs: 1		
M (Membrane) protein gene size: 669 hsa miRNAs: 10	hsa-miR-325, hsa-miR-34a-5p, hsa-miR-6820-5p , hsa-miR-1252-5p, hsa-miR-1262, hsa-miR-2355-3p, hsa-miR-382-5p, hsa-miR-215-3p, hsa-miR-5047 , hsa-miR-6779-5p	Defining the shape of viral envelope, the central organiser of CoV assembly 21,22
N (Nucleocapsid) protein gene size: 1260 hsa miRNAs: 21	hsa-miR-8066, hsa-miR-1911-3p, hsa-miR-4259, hsa-miR-6838-3p, hsa-miR-208a-5p, hsa-miR-4445-5p, hsa-miR-451b, hsa-miR-6082, hsa-miR-8086, hsa-miR-1282, hsa-miR-1301-3p, hsa-miR-154-5p, hsa-miR-1910-3p , hsa-miR-3155a, hsa-miR-342-5p , hsa-miR-593-3p , hsa-miR-639, hsa-miR-6729-5p , hsa-miR-6741-5p, hsa-miR-6876-5p, hsa-miR-6882-3p	Only protein primarily binding to the CoV RNA genome to form nucleocapsid 22
ORF1ab gene size: 21291 hsa miRNAs: 369	hsa-miR-153-5p, hsa-let-7c-5p, hsa-miR-1910-3p, hsa-miR-342-5p, hsa-miR-4436b-3p, hsa-miR-5047, hsa-miR-203b-3p, hsa-miR-2052, hsa-miR-3127-5p, hsa-miR-3190-3p, miR-34b-5p, hsa-miR-3672, hsa-miR-374a-3p, hsa-miR-3927-3p, hsa-miR-410-5p, hsa-miR-432-5p, hsa-miR-4436a, hsa-miR-4482-3p, hsa-miR-4693-3p, hsa-miR-5011-3p, hsa-miR-548ag, hsa-miR-593-3p, hsa-miR-6128, hsa-miR-676-3p, hsa-miR-6809-5p, hsa-miR-6820-5p, hsa-miR-6866-5p, hsa-miR-6893-5p	Encoding 5'- viral replicase 23
ORF3a gene size: 828 hsa miRNAs: 16	hsa-miR-549a-3p, hsa-miR-1246, hsa-miR-7704, hsa-miR-203b-3p, hsa-miR-342-5p, hsa-miR-4422, hsa-miR-4510, hsa-miR-1229-5p, hsa-miR-190b-5p, hsa-miR-203a-3p, hsa-miR-367-5p, hsa-miR-4436b-3p, hsa-miR-4482-3p, hsa-miR-541-3p, hsa-miR-6751-5p, hsa-miR-6891-5p, hsa-miR-4482-3p	a sodium or calcium ion channel protein, involved in replication and pathogenesis together with E and ORF8a
ORF8 gene size: 366 hsa miRNAs: 13	hsa-miR-12129, hsa-miR-5047 , hsa-miR-148a-3p, hsa-miR-23b-5p, hsa-miR-5011-3p , hsa-miR-12119, hsa-miR-2392, hsa-miR-3190-3p , hsa-miR-3529-5p, hsa-miR-369-3p, hsa-miR-455-5p, hsa-miR-4779, hsa-miR-648	Might be important for interspecies transmission 20,24 in addition to its roles in replication

ORF7a gene size: 366 hsa miRNAs: 8	hsa-miR-4436a, hsa-miR-3135b, hsa-miR-4436b-3p, hsa-miR-4774-5p, hsa-miR-6731-5p, hsa-miR-6866-5p, hsa-miR-1910-3p, hsa-miR-5590-3p	accessory protein that is composed of a type I transmembrane protein, induction of apoptosis in a caspase-dependent pathway 25,26
ORF10	hsa-miR-3682-5p, hsa-miR-411-5p, hsa-miR-379-5p, hsa-miR-548v	Might be involved in transspecies transmission 27
gene size: 117		transspecies transmission 27
hsa miRNAs: 4		
ORF6	hsa-miR-190a-5p	Blocking nuclear import of
gene size: 186		STAT1 by binding to nuclear imports 28
hsa miRNAs: 1		

Lastly, in order to understand the main mechanisms that would be affected by the influence of viral miRNAs on human genes, PANTHER Classification System was applied to targeted human genes. Based on the results presented in Figure 2-3 and Supplementary Files, a wide range of human genes with various molecular functions and pathways could be targeted.

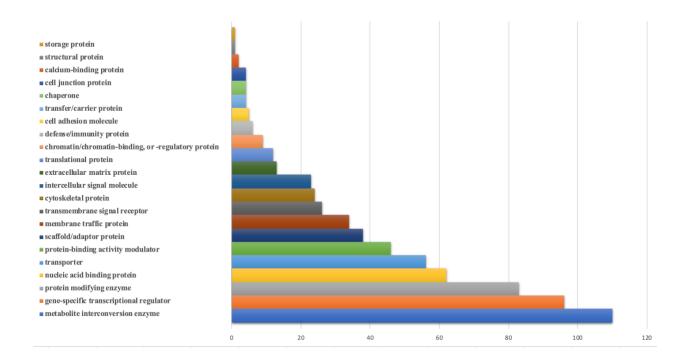


Figure 2: Bar-chart for the protein classes of human genes that could be targeted by viral miRNAs. Protein classes of genes were obtained from Panther. X-axis shows the number of genes with respected classes.

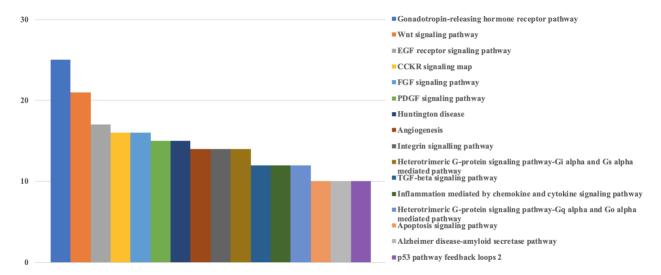


Figure 3: Bar-chart for the pathways of human genes that could be targeted by viral miRNAs. Graph is limited to the pathways that have at least 10 genes. Pathways of genes were obtained from Panther. Y-axis shows the number of genes with respected pathways. Legend is sorted from maximum to minimum (top to bottom).

The potential roles of miRNA-mediated RNA interference in infection biology has been defined

Discussion

as an essential regulatory molecular pathway. The involvement of miRNAs in host-pathogen interactions during infection might include the targeting of viral genes by host-cellular miRNAs as well as evolution of DNA and RNA virus-based gene silencing mechanisms to overcome host antiviral response and to maintain viral infection and disease 29,30. In addition, viruses might use host cellular miRNAs for their own advantage. Therefore, molecular elucidation of the roles of miRNAs in host-virus interaction might provide a deeper understanding for viral pathogenesis and the development of an effective antiviral therapy as shown in several viruses including Herpesvirus, Enterovirus and Hepatitis C 30-32. Although the detailed knowledge about viral miRNAs have been obtained from DNA viruses, it is still controversial for RNA viruses that whether they produce their own miRNAs or not 33. However, there are several reports showing the presence of non-canonical (due to the lack of classical stem-loop structure in miRNAs), small miRNA-like small RNAs produced during viral infections as shown in H5N1 Influenza 34, Ebola virus 35 and HIV-1 36. Although they play crucial roles in several viral infections, miRNAs have not been studied in the pathogenesis of SARS-CoV-2 infection. In this study, we elucidated miRNA-mediated regulation responsible for SAR-CoV-2 infection by predicting possible host genes targeted by viral miRNAs and viral genes targeted by cellular miRNAs, which might provide potential ways to understand the underlying mechanisms of SARS-CoV-2 infection. We investigated possible virulent genes of SARS-CoV-2 targeted by host-cellular miRNAs as shown in **Table 2**, which are mainly responsible for viral biogenesis, entrance, replication and infection. Except envelope (E) protein and ORF6, all viral genes (S, M, N, ORF1ab, ORF3a, ORF8, ORF7a and ORF10) are targeted by multiple human miRNAs. For instance, hsa-miR-203b-3p targeted ORF1ab and ORF3a with roles in viral replication was already shown to suppress influenza A virus replication 37. Even though hsa-miR-148a-3p targeted ORF8 to prevent interspecies transmission and also replication, it was found to target S, E, M and ORF1a protein in closely related SARS-CoV 38. hsa-let-7c-5p targeted ORF1ab in SARS-CoV-2 while it was found to be involved in H1N1 influenza A suppression by targeting its M1 protein 39. In another study, ORF6 of SARS-CoV suppressed type I interferon signaling by blocking the

nuclear transport of STAT1 in the presence of interferon β 40, therefore, hsa-miR-190a-5p might target ORF6 to overcome immune system escape in SARS-CoV-2. The presence of such miRNAs could be considered as a host's innate antiviral defense mechanism. On the other hand, virus could use these miRNAs to suppress their own replication to escape from immune system at the beginning of infection and transmission for a stronger infection. For instance, miR-146a-5p was upregulated in hepatitis C virus-infected liver cells of patients and in infected human hepatocytes, which promoted virus particle assembly 41. Moreover, ss RNA viruses could evolve very rapidly to change their gene sequences matching with these host miRNAs, therefore, they increase their host specificity. Once the virus establishes a successful transmission inside the host, they would mutate their genes very rapidly to escape from host miRNAs, which results from their RNA polymerases without proofreading activity 42,43.

Virus-derived miRNAs might function by targeting host and virus-encoded transcripts to regulate host-pathogen interaction. The roles of viral miRNAs in pathogenesis include alteration of host defense mechanisms and regulation of crucial biological processes including cell survival, proliferation, modulation of viral life-cycle phase 44. Although encoding miRNAs seems quite problematic for RNA viruses due to the nature of miRNA biogenesis pathway, it is possible to circumvent these problems through different ways as seen in HIV-1 36. Therefore, we analyzed possible human genes targeted by predicted miRNA like small RNAs (Table 1). Based on the panther analysis, regulators of eukaryotic transcription would be the most important targets of 18 SARS-CoV-2 derived mature miRNA like candidates out of 29 hairpins in total. These transcriptional regulators are involved in both basal transcription machinery including several components of human mediator complex (MED1, MED9, MED12L, MED19) and basal transcription factors such as TAF4, TAF5 and TAF7L. Viruses might downregulate host gene expression in order to increase their gene expression either co-transcriptionally in the nucleus or post-transcriptionally in the nucleus or cytoplasm 45. Therefore, targeting basal transcription machinery such as components (TAFs) of TFIID complex by SARS-CoV-2 could prevent RNA polymerase II to assemble on promoters of host genes at the initiation step. Viral factors have been shown to block transcription initiation by inhibiting TFIID or more specifically TAF4 in herpesvirus 46. Another interesting target gene by SARS-CoV-2 miRNA was different subunits of CCR4-NOT transcription complex including CNOT4, CNOT10 and CNOT6L, which are deadenylases involved in mRNA decay 47. Therefore, suppression of these genes by viral miRNAs could impede mRNA turnover in the host and provide opportunities for viral mRNA to escape from degradation. Additionally, site specific trans-acting factors such as MAFG, STAT1, STAT5B and SOX11 would be targeted by viral miRNAs. STAT family transcription factors are activated by cytokine-induced stimuli and generally involved in an interferon response. In Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV), viral miRNAs were found to inhibit STAT3 and STAT5, resulting in deregulated interferon response and transition into lytic viral replication 48.

As a conclusion, viral diseases have been paid attention as a global health problem due to the lack of proper treatment strategies and rapid evolution of viruses. In recent years, studies have focused on identifying miRNAs as targets for the treatment of viral diseases and there are promising clinical phase studies evaluating the therapeutic potential of antagomirs targeting host miRNAs such as miR-122 in hepatitis C 49. Based on the results shown in Table 2, it can be concluded that increases in the level of host miRNAs targeting virulent genes such as S, M, N, E and ORF1ab would block viral entry and replication. Moreover, decreasing the levels of host miRNAs would make SARS-CoV-2 more replicative and visible for the host immune system. However, alterations in host miRNA levels would interfere with specific cellular processes which are crucial for the host biology. In our study, we have also identified possible miRNA like small RNAs from SARS-CoV-2 genome which target important human genes. Therefore, antagomirs targeting viral miRNAs could be also designed even though there are only a few studies for DNA viruses 45. However, all these therapeutic possibilities need further mechanistical evaluations to understand how they regulate virus-host interaction. Therefore, further in vitro, ex vivo and in vivo studies will be required to validate candidate miRNAs for SARS-CoV-2 infection.

References

- 1. de Wilde, A. H., Snijder, E. J., Kikkert, M. & van Hemert, M. J. Host Factors in Coronavirus Replication. *Curr. Top. Microbiol. Immunol.* **419**, 1–42 (2018).
- 2. Chang, L., Yan, Y. & Wang, L. Coronavirus Disease 2019: Coronaviruses and Blood Safety. *Transfus. Med. Rev.* (2020). doi:10.1016/J.TMRV.2020.02.003
- 3. Deng, S.-Q. & Peng, H.-J. Characteristics of and Public Health Responses to the

- Coronavirus Disease 2019 Outbreak in China. J. Clin. Med. 9, (2020).
- 4. Cheng, Z. J. & Shan, J. 2019 Novel coronavirus: where we are and what we know. *Infection* 1–9 (2020). doi:10.1007/s15010-020-01401-y
- 5. Chen, Y., Liu, Q. & Guo, D. Emerging coronaviruses: Genome structure, replication, and pathogenesis. *J. Med. Virol.* **92**, 418–423 (2020).
- 6. Zhou, P. *et al.* A pneumonia outbreak associated with a new coronavirus of probable bat origin. *Nature* 1–4 (2020). doi:10.1038/s41586-020-2012-7
- 7. Xu, X. *et al.* Evolution of the novel coronavirus from the ongoing Wuhan outbreak and modeling of its spike protein for risk of human transmission. *Sci. China Life Sci.* **63**, 457–460 (2020).
- 8. Li, X. & Zou, X. An overview of RNA virus-encoded microRNAs. ExRNA 1, 37 (2019).
- 9. Griffiths-Jones, S., Saini, H. K., van Dongen, S. & Enright, A. J. miRBase: tools for microRNA genomics. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **36**, D154-8 (2008).
- 10. Pfeffer, S. et al. Identification of virus-encoded microRNAs. Science **304**, 734–6 (2004).
- 11. Saçar Demirci, M. D., Toprak, M. & Allmer, J. A Machine Learning Approach for MicroRNA Precursor Prediction in Retro-transcribing Virus Genomes. *J. Integr. Bioinform.* **13**, (2016).
- 12. Berthold, M. R. *et al.* KNIME: The Konstanz Information Miner. in *SIGKDD Explorations* **11**, 319–326 (2008).
- 13. Saçar Demirci, M. D., Baumbach, J. & Allmer, J. On the performance of pre-microRNA detection algorithms. *Nat. Commun.* **8**, 330 (2017).
- 14. Kozomara, A. & Griffiths-Jones, S. miRBase: integrating microRNA annotation and deep-sequencing data. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **39**, D152-7 (2011).
- 15. Hofacker, I. L. Vienna RNA secondary structure server. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **31**, 3429–3431 (2003).
- 16. Dai, X. & Zhao, P. X. PsRNATarget: A plant small RNA target analysis server. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **39**, W155-9 (2011).
- 17. Mi, H., Muruganujan, A. & Thomas, P. D. PANTHER in 2013: modeling the evolution of gene function, and other gene attributes, in the context of phylogenetic trees. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **41**, D377-86 (2013).
- 18. Gallagher, T. M. & Buchmeier, M. J. Coronavirus spike proteins in viral entry and pathogenesis. *Virology* **279**, 371–4 (2001).
- 19. Wilson, L., McKinlay, C., Gage, P. & Ewart, G. SARS coronavirus E protein forms cation-selective ion channels. *Virology* **330**, 322–31 (2004).
- 20. Castaño-Rodriguez, C. *et al.* Role of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus Viroporins E, 3a, and 8a in Replication and Pathogenesis. *MBio* **9**, (2018).
- 21. Neuman, B. W. *et al.* A structural analysis of M protein in coronavirus assembly and morphology. *J. Struct. Biol.* **174**, 11–22 (2011).
- 22. Masters, P. S. The molecular biology of coronaviruses. *Adv. Virus Res.* **66**, 193–292 (2006).
- 23. Graham, R. L., Sparks, J. S., Eckerle, L. D., Sims, A. C. & Denison, M. R. SARS coronavirus replicase proteins in pathogenesis. *Virus Res.* **133**, 88–100 (2008).
- 24. Lau, S. K. P. *et al.* Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) Coronavirus ORF8 Protein Is Acquired from SARS-Related Coronavirus from Greater Horseshoe Bats through Recombination. *J. Virol.* **89**, 10532–47 (2015).
- 25. Schaecher, S. R., Touchette, E., Schriewer, J., Buller, R. M. & Pekosz, A. Severe acute

- respiratory syndrome coronavirus gene 7 products contribute to virus-induced apoptosis. *J. Virol.* **81**, 11054–68 (2007).
- 26. Tan, Y.-X. *et al.* Induction of apoptosis by the severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 7a protein is dependent on its interaction with the Bcl-XL protein. *J. Virol.* **81**, 6346–55 (2007).
- 27. Paraskevis, D. *et al.* Full-genome evolutionary analysis of the novel corona virus (2019-nCoV) rejects the hypothesis of emergence as a result of a recent recombination event. *Infect. Genet. Evol.* **79**, 104212 (2020).
- 28. Frieman, M. *et al.* Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus ORF6 antagonizes STAT1 function by sequestering nuclear import factors on the rough endoplasmic reticulum/Golgi membrane. *J. Virol.* **81**, 9812–24 (2007).
- 29. Ghosh, Z., Mallick, B. & Chakrabarti, J. Cellular versus viral microRNAs in host-virus interaction. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **37**, 1035–48 (2009).
- 30. Piedade, D. & Azevedo-Pereira, J. M. The Role of microRNAs in the Pathogenesis of Herpesvirus Infection. *Viruses* **8**, (2016).
- 31. Engelmann, I., Alidjinou, E. K., Bertin, A., Sane, F. & Hober, D. miRNAs in enterovirus infection. *Crit. Rev. Microbiol.* **44**, 701–714 (2018).
- 32. Khatun, M. & Ray, R. B. Mechanisms Underlying Hepatitis C Virus-Associated Hepatic Fibrosis. *Cells* **8**, (2019).
- 33. Mishra, R., Kumar, A., Ingle, H. & Kumar, H. The Interplay Between Viral-Derived miRNAs and Host Immunity During Infection. *Front. Immunol.* **10**, 3079 (2019).
- 34. Li, X. *et al.* H5N1 influenza virus-specific miRNA-like small RNA increases cytokine production and mouse mortality via targeting poly(rC)-binding protein 2. *Cell Res.* **28**, 157–171 (2018).
- 35. Liang, H. *et al.* Identification of Ebola virus microRNAs and their putative pathological function. *Sci. China. Life Sci.* **57**, 973–81 (2014).
- 36. Klase, Z. *et al.* HIV-1 TAR miRNA protects against apoptosis by altering cellular gene expression. *Retrovirology* **6**, 18 (2009).
- 37. Zhang, S. *et al.* Up-regulation of microRNA-203 in influenza A virus infection inhibits viral replication by targeting. *Sci. Rep.* **8**, (2018).
- 38. Mallick, B., Ghosh, Z. & Chakrabarti, J. MicroRNome analysis unravels the molecular basis of SARS infection in bronchoalveolar stem cells. *PLoS One* **4**, e7837 (2009).
- 39. Ma, Y.-J. *et al.* Cellular microRNA let-7c inhibits M1 protein expression of the H1N1 influenza A virus in infected human lung epithelial cells. *J. Cell. Mol. Med.* **16**, 2539–46 (2012).
- 40. Huang, S.-H. *et al.* Phage display technique identifies the interaction of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus open reading frame 6 protein with nuclear pore complex interacting protein NPIPB3 in modulating Type I interferon antagonism. *J. Microbiol. Immunol. Infect.* **50**, 277–285 (2017).
- 41. Bandiera, S. *et al.* Hepatitis C Virus-Induced Upregulation of MicroRNA miR-146a-5p in Hepatocytes Promotes Viral Infection and Deregulates Metabolic Pathways Associated with Liver Disease Pathogenesis. *J. Virol.* **90**, 6387–6400 (2016).
- 42. Ye, R., Montalto-Morrison, C. & Masters, P. S. Genetic analysis of determinants for spike glycoprotein assembly into murine coronavirus virions: distinct roles for charge-rich and cysteine-rich regions of the endodomain. *J. Virol.* **78**, 9904–17 (2004).
- 43. Trobaugh, D. W. & Klimstra, W. B. MicroRNA Regulation of RNA Virus Replication

- and Pathogenesis. *Trends Mol. Med.* **23**, 80–93 (2017).
- 44. Raza Naqvi, A., Ahmad, I., Valverde, A., Siddiqui, H. & Schaller, S. Viral MicroRNAs: Interfering the Interferon Signaling. *Curr. Pharm. Des.* (2020). doi:10.2174/1381612826666200109181238
- 45. Herbert, K. M. & Nag, A. A Tale of Two RNAs during Viral Infection: How Viruses Antagonize mRNAs and Small Non-Coding RNAs in The Host Cell. *Viruses* **8**, (2016).
- 46. Yang, Y.-C. & Chang, L.-K. Role of TAF4 in transcriptional activation by Rta of Epstein-Barr Virus. *PLoS One* **8**, e54075 (2013).
- 47. Abernathy, E. & Glaunsinger, B. Emerging roles for RNA degradation in viral replication and antiviral defense. *Virology* **479–480**, 600–8 (2015).
- 48. Ramalingam, D. & Ziegelbauer, J. M. Viral microRNAs Target a Gene Network, Inhibit STAT Activation, and Suppress Interferon Responses. *Sci. Rep.* **7**, 40813 (2017).
- 49. van der Ree, M. H. *et al.* Safety, tolerability, and antiviral effect of RG-101 in patients with chronic hepatitis C: a phase 1B, double-blind, randomised controlled trial. *Lancet (London, England)* **389**, 709–717 (2017).