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Development of an RNA interference (RNAi) gene knockdown protocol in the anaerobic gut fungus *Pecoramyces ruminantium* strain C1A

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Members of the anaerobic gut fungi (AGF) reside in rumen, hindgut, and feces of ruminant and non-ruminant herbivorous mammals and reptilian herbivores. No protocols for gene insertion, deletion, silencing, or mutation are currently available for the AGF, rendering gene-targeted molecular biological manipulations unfeasible. Here, we developed and optimized an RNA interference (RNAi)-based protocol for targeted gene silencing in the anaerobic gut fungus *Pecoramyces ruminantium* strain C1A. Analysis of the C1A genome identified genes encoding enzymes required for RNA silencing in fungi (Dicer, Argonaute, Neurospora crassa QDE-3 homolog DNA helicase, Argonaute-interacting protein, and Neurospora crassa QIP homolog exonuclease); and the competency of C1A germinating spores for RNA uptake was confirmed using fluorescently labeled small interfering RNAs (siRNA). Addition of chemically-synthesized siRNAs targeting D-lactate dehydrogenase (ldhD) gene to C1A germinating spores resulted in marked target gene silencing; as evident by significantly lower ldhD transcriptional levels, a marked reduction in the D-LDH specific enzymatic activity in intracellular protein extracts, and a reduction in D-lactate levels accumulating in the culture supernatant. Comparative transcriptomic analysis of untreated versus siRNA-treated cultures identified a few off-target siRNA-mediated gene silencing effects. As well, significant differential up-regulation of the gene encoding NADdependent 2-hydroxyacid dehydrogenase (Pfam00389) in siRNA-treated C1A cultures was observed, which could possibly compensate for loss of D-LDH as an electron sink mechanism in C1A. The results demonstrate the feasibility of RNAi in anaerobic fungi, and opens the door for gene silencing-based studies in this fungal clade.

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Abstract

39 Members of the anaerobic gut fungi (AGF) reside in rumen, hindgut, and feces of ruminant and 40 non-ruminant herbivorous mammals and reptilian herbivores. No protocols for gene insertion, 41 deletion, silencing, or mutation are currently available for the AGF, rendering gene-targeted 42 molecular biological manipulations unfeasible. Here, we developed and optimized an RNA 43 interference (RNAi)-based protocol for targeted gene silencing in the anaerobic gut fungus 44 *Pecoramyces ruminantium* strain C1A. Analysis of the C1A genome identified genes encoding 45 enzymes required for RNA silencing in fungi (Dicer, Argonaute, Neurospora crassa QDE-3 46 homolog DNA helicase, Argonaute-interacting protein, and Neurospora crassa QIP homolog 47 exonuclease); and the competency of C1A germinating spores for RNA uptake was confirmed 48 using fluorescently labeled small interfering RNAs (siRNA). Addition of chemically-synthesized 49 siRNAs targeting D-lactate dehydrogenase (ldhD) gene to C1A germinating spores resulted in 50 marked target gene silencing; as evident by significantly lower *ldhD* transcriptional levels, a 51 marked reduction in the D-LDH specific enzymatic activity in intracellular protein extracts, and 52 a reduction in D-lactate levels accumulating in the culture supernatant. Comparative 53 transcriptomic analysis of untreated versus siRNA-treated cultures identified a few off-target 54 siRNA-mediated gene silencing effects. As well, significant differential up-regulation of the 55 gene encoding NAD-dependent 2-hydroxyacid dehydrogenase (Pfam00389) in siRNA-treated 56 C1A cultures was observed, which could possibly compensate for loss of D-LDH as an electron 57 sink mechanism in C1A. The results demonstrate the feasibility of RNAi in anaerobic fungi, and 58 opens the door for gene silencing-based studies in this fungal clade.

59

60 Introduction 61 The role played by non-coding RNA (ncRNA) molecules in epigenetic modulation of gene 62 expression at the transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels is now well recognized (1). Small 63 interfering RNAs (siRNA) are short (20-24 nt) double stranded RNA molecules that mediate 64 post-transcriptional regulation of gene expression and gene silencing by binding to mRNA in a 65 sequence-specific manner (2). The process of RNA interference (RNAi) has been independently 66 documented in fungi (3-5), animals and human cell lines (6, 7), as well as plants (8). The fungal RNAi machinery has been investigated in several model fungi, e.g. Neurospora crassa (5), 67 68 *Mucor circinelloides* (9), and *Magnaporthe oryzae* (10), and encompasses: 1. Dicer (Dic) 69 enzyme(s): RNaseIII dsRNA-specific ribonucleases that cleave double stranded RNA (dsRNA) 70 to short (20-25 bp) double stranded siRNA entities, 2. Argonaute (Ago) protein(s), the core 71 component of the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) which binds to the dicer-generated 72 siRNAs and other proteins and cleaves the target mRNA, 3. RNA-dependent RNA polymerase 73 (RdRP) enzyme (present in the majority, but not all fungi) that aids in amplifying the silencing 74 signal through the production of secondary double stranded siRNA molecules from single 75 stranded mRNAs generated by the RISC complex, 4. DNA helicase, Neurospora crassa QDE-3 76 homolog (11), that aids in the production of the aberrant RNA to be targeted by RdRP, and 5. 77 Argonaute-interacting protein, *Neurospora crassa* QIP homolog (12), an exonuclease that 78 cleaves and removes the passenger strand from the siRNA duplex. 79 The phenomenon of RNA interference could induce gene silencing due to the action of 80 endogenously produced microRNA (miRNA), or could be triggered due to the introduction of 81 foreign siRNA (e.g. due to viral infection or genetic manipulation). Under normal physiological 82 conditions, RNAi is thought to play a role in endogenous regulation of gene expression (13),

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83 development of resistance to viruses (14-17), and silencing the expression of transposons (18, 84 19). On the other hand, the introduction of foreign siRNA could be utilized for targeted, 85 sequence-specific, gene knockdown in fungi (2, 3, 5). Indeed, demonstration of the feasibility of 86 RNAi approaches for targeted gene silencing has been shown in Ascomycota (5, 20-30), 87 Basidiomycota (31-35), and Mucoromycota (36, 37); and RNAi-based protocols were used to 88 infer the putative roles of several genes or simply as a proof of principle. 89 The anaerobic gut fungi (AGF) represent a basal fungal phylum (Neocallimastigomycota) 90 that resides in the herbivorous gut and plays an important role in enhancing plant biomass 91 metabolism by the host animals (38). The AGF have multiple potential biotechnological 92 applications such as a source of lignocellulolytic enzymes (39-45), direct utilization of AGF 93 strains for sugar extraction from plant biomass in enzyme-free biofuel production schemes (46), 94 additives to biogas production reactors (47, 48), and feed additives for livestock (49-55). 95 However, the strict anaerobic nature of AGF renders genetic manipulation procedures involving 96 plating and colony selection extremely cumbersome. Consequently, there are currently no 97 protocols for transformation, gene insertion, gene deletion, or sequence-specific homologous 98 recombination-based genetic manipulation in AGF, hindering in-depth investigation of their 99 biotechnological potential.

We here report on the development of an RNAi-based protocol for targeted gene knockdown in the anaerobic gut fungal isolate *Pecoramyces ruminantium* strain C1A. The protocol does not involve transformation, and does not require homologous recombination, or colony selection. We demonstrate the uptake of chemically synthesized short double stranded siRNA by germinating spores of *P. ruminantium* strain C1A, and subsequently demonstrate the feasibility of using this approach for silencing D-lactate dehydrogenase (*ldhD*) gene. We finally

- 106 examine the off-target effects of *ldhD* gene knockdown, as well as the impact of inhibiting D-
- 107 lactate production on the glycolytic and fermentation pathways in C1A.

108

109 **Materials and Methods** 110 Microorganism and culture maintenance. Pecoramyces ruminantium strain C1A was isolated 111 previously in our laboratory (56) and maintained by biweekly transfers into an antibiotic-112 supplemented rumen-fluid-cellobiose medium (RFC) as described previously (57). Identification and phylogeny of RNAi complex in anaerobic fungi. The occurrence of genes 113 114 encoding Dic, Ago, RdRP, QIP, and QDE3 proteins was examined in the genome of P. 115 ruminantium C1A (58) (Genbank accession number ASRE00000000.1), as well as in three 116 additional publicly available Neocallimastigomycota genomes (59) (Genbank accession numbers: 117 MCOG0000000.1, MCFG00000000.1, MCFH00000000.1). The phylogeny of the translated 118 amino acid sequences of identified homologues was compared to fungal and eukaryotic 119 homologues in MEGA7. Representative sequences were aligned using ClustalW and the aligned 120 sequences were manually refined and used to construct Neighbor Joining trees in Mega7 (60) 121 with bootstrap values calculated based on 100 replicates. 122 RNAi experimental design. 123 Choice of delivery procedure. Delivery of the inhibitory RNA molecules to fungal cultures is 124 commonly achieved using appropriate vectors that either express short hairpin RNA (61-63), or

125 individual sense and antisense RNA strands that will subsequently be annealed into dsRNA (64,

126 65). The process involves transformation (PEG-CaCl₂-mediated into protoplasts, Li acetate-

127 mediated, Agrobacterium-mediated, or via electroporation) and necessitates transformants'

128 selection on marker (usually hygromycin) plates. Alternatively, direct delivery of exogenous,

129 chemically synthesized short double stranded RNA (siRNA) has also been utilized for targeted

130 gene silencing in fungi (22-24, 28, 66). This approach exploits the machinery for nucleic acids

131 uptake, and the natural competence of the germinating spore stage observed in the filamentous

132 fungus Aspergillus (23). Due to the strict anaerobic nature of AGF which would hinder the 133 process of transformation and selection on plates, we opted for direct addition of chemically synthesized siRNA to C1A germinating spores, in spite of its reported lower efficacy (24). 134 135 dsRNA synthesis. We targeted D-lactate dehydrogenase (*ldhD*) gene encoding D-LDH enzyme 136 (EC 1.1.1.28). D-LDH is an NAD-dependent oxidoreductase that reduces pyruvate to D-lactate, 137 a major fermentation end product in C1A (46). Only a single copy of *ldhD* (996 bp in length) 138 was identified in C1A genome (IMG accession number: 2511055262). A 21-mer siRNA 139 targeting positions 279-298 in the *ldhD* gene transcript (henceforth *ldhD*-siRNA) was designed 140 using Dharmacon® siDesign center (http://dharmacon.gelifesciences.com/design-center/) with 141 the sense strand being 5'-CGUUAGAGUUCCAGCCUAUUU-3', and the antisense strand being 142 5'-AUAGGCUGGAACUCUAACGUU-3'. Included within the designed siRNAs were 3' 143 overhanging UU dinucleotides to increase the efficiency of target RNA degradation as suggested 144 before (67). The siRNA was ordered from Dharmacon® (LaFayette, CO) as 21-mer duplex 145 (double stranded) with a central 19-bp duplex region and symmetric UU dinucleotide 3' 146 overhangs on each end. The 5' end of the antisense strand was modified with a phosphate group 147 required for siRNA activity (68), while the 5' end of the sense strand was modified with a Cy-3 148 fluorescent dye to facilitate visualization of the siRNA uptake by C1A germinating spores. In 149 addition, a 21-mer duplex that should not anneal to any of C1A's mRNA transcripts (henceforth 150 unrelated-siRNA) was also designed and used as a negative control with the sense strand being 151 5'-UCGUUGGCGUGAGCUUCCAUU-3', and the antisense strand being 5'-152 UGGAAGCUCACGCCAACGAUU-3'. The unrelated-siRNA was modified in the same way as the *ldhD* siRNA. 153

154 *RNAi protocol.* The basic protocol employed is shown in Figure 1. Strain C1A was grown on 155 RFC-agar medium in serum bottles at 39°C in the dark as described previously (57) until visible 156 surface colonies are observed (usually 4-7 days). Surface growth was then flooded by adding 10 157 ml sterile anoxic water followed by incubation at 39°C (57). During this incubation period, 158 spores are released from surface sporangia into the anoxic water. Previous work has shown that 159 the duration of incubation with the flooding solution has a major impact on the spore 160 developmental stage, where exclusively active flagellated spores were observed in incubations 161 shorter than 30 minutes, while 90-100-minute incubation exclusively produced germinating 162 spores. The onset of spore germination was observed at 75-80 minutes during incubation with 163 the flooding solution (57). Germinating spores were previously shown to be most amenable for 164 accumulating the highest amount of exogenously added nucleic acids (23). We, therefore, 165 reasoned that addition of chemically synthesized siRNA to the sterile anoxic flooding water at 166 the onset of spore germination (at around 75 minutes from the onset of flooding) followed by re-167 incubation at 39°C for 15 additional minutes (for a total of 90-minute incubation period) would 168 allow for uptake of the siRNA by the germinating spores. Chemically synthesized siRNA was 169 added from a stock solution constituted in a sterile anoxic RNase-free siRNA buffer (60 mM 170 KCl, 6 mM HEPES-pH 7.5, and 0.2 mM MgCl₂) to the desired final concentration. Initial 171 experiments were conducted using Cy3-labeled *ldhD*-siRNA molecules to test the uptake of 172 siRNA by the germinating spores. Subsequent experiments were conducted using unlabeled siRNA. Following siRNA addition and incubation, spores were gently recovered from the serum 173 174 bottle using a 16G needle and used to inoculate fresh RFC media bottles (57), and the impact of 175 silencing *ldhD* gene on gene expression, enzyme activities, and D-lactate concentrations was

assessed in these cultures. Controls included treatments with unrelated-siRNA, as well ascultures with no siRNA addition.

178 Impact of ldhD gene knockdown on transcriptional levels, D- LDH enzyme activity, and D-

lactate production in strain C1A. The supernatant of both siRNA-treated and control C1A
cultures was periodically sampled (0.5 ml) and used for D-lactate quantification. The fungal
biomass was vacuum filtered on 0.45 μm filters, and immediately crushed in a bath of liquid
nitrogen using a mortar and pestle as described previously (69). The crushed cells were then
poured into 2 separate 15-mL plastic falcon tubes, and stored at -80°C for subsequent RNA, and
protein extraction, respectively.

185 D-Lactate quantification. D-lactate was determined in the culture supernatant using the D-

186 Lactate Assay Kit (BioAssay Systems, Hayward, CA) following the manufacturer's instructions.

187 RNA extraction, qRT-PCR, and RNA-seq. RNA was extracted following the protocol in

188 Epicentre® MasterPureTM Yeast RNA Purification Kit, with few modifications as detailed

189 previously (69). RNA concentrations were measured using the Qubit® RNA HS Assay Kit (Life

190 Technologies®). Total RNA was utilized for both transcriptional studies using qRT-PCR, as well

191 as for transcriptomic analysis using RNA-seq.

For transcriptional studies, replicate samples were chosen to cover a range of fungal
biomass ranging from 6-22 mgs corresponding to various growth stages. Reverse transcription

194 (cDNA synthesis) was performed using the Superscript IV First-Strand Synthesis System kit for

195 RT-PCR (Life Technologies®), following the manufacturer's protocols. Quantitative reverse

196 transcription PCR (qRT-PCR) was conducted on a MyIQ thermocycler (Bio-Rad Laboratories,

197 Hercules, CA). *ldhD*, as well as the housekeeping gene glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate

198 dehydrogenase (GAPDH), were amplified using primers designed by the OligoPerfectTM

199 Designer tool (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) (*ldhD*-forward primer: 200 AGACCATGGGTGTCATTGGT, *ldhD*-reverse primer TTCATCGGTTAATGGGCAGT; 201 GAPDH-forward primer: ATTCCACTCACGGACGTTTC, GAPDH-reverse primer: 202 CTTCTTGGCACCACCCTTTA). The reactions contained 1µl of C1A cDNA, and 0.5 µM each 203 of the forward and reverse primers. Reactions were heated at 50°C for 2 min, followed by 204 heating at 95°C for 8.5 min. This was followed by 50 cycles, with one cycle consisting of 15 s at 205 95°C, 60 s at 50°C, and 30 s at 72°C. Using the Δ Ct method, the number of copies of *ldhD* is reported relative to the number of copies of GAPDH used as the normalizing control. 206 207 Transcriptomic analysis was used both to evaluate off-target effects of the chemically 208 synthesized *ldhD* siRNA (transcripts that will be down-regulated in siRNA-treated versus 209 untreated cultures), and to examine the effect of *ldhD* knockdown on other NADH-oxidizing 210 mechanisms to compensate for loss of D-LDH as an electron sink in C1A (transcripts that will be 211 up-regulated in siRNA-treated versus untreated cultures). For transcriptomic analysis, RNA from 212 untreated (2 biological replicates) as well as siRNA-treated (2 biological replicates) cultures was 213 sequenced using Illumina-HiSeq. RNA sequencing as well as sequence processing were as 214 described previously (70). Briefly, de novo assembly of the generated RNA-Seq reads was 215 accomplished using Trinity (71), and quantitative levels of assembled transcripts were obtained 216 using Bowtie2 (72). Quantitative values in Fragments Per Kilobase of transcripts per Million 217 mapped reads (FPKM) were calculated in RSEM. edgeR (73) was used to determine the 218 transcripts that were significantly up- or down-regulated based on the Benjamini-Hochberg 219 adjusted p-value (False discovery rate, FDR). We used a threshold of 10% FDR as the cutoff for 220 determining significantly differentially expressed transcripts.

221 Total protein extraction and D-Lactate dehydrogenase enzyme assay. For total protein extraction, 222 replicate samples were chosen to cover a range of fungal biomass ranging from 6-22 mgs 223 corresponding to various growth stages. C1A cells crushed in liquid nitrogen were suspended in 224 0.5mL of Tris-Gly buffer (3g Tris base, 14.4g Glycine, H₂O up to 1L, pH 8.3), and mixed briefly. 225 Cell debris were pelleted by centrifugation $(12,500 \text{ x g for } 2 \text{ min at } 4^{\circ}\text{C})$ and the sample 226 supernatant containing the total protein extract was carefully transferred into a sterile microfuge 227 tube. Protein concentrations were quantified in cellular extracts using QubitTM Protein assay kit 228 (Life Technologies). D-LDH enzyme activity was quantified in the cell extracts using the AmpliteTM Colorimetric D-Lactate Dehydrogenase Assay Kit (ATT Bioquest[®], Sunnyvale, CA), 229 230 following the manufacturer's protocols. Nucleotide Accession. This Transcriptome Shotgun Assembly project has been deposited at 231 DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank under the accession GFSU00000000. The version described in this 232 233 paper is the first version, GFSU01000000.

234

235	Results
236	RNAi machinery in the Neocallimastigomycota. The four examined Neocallimastigomycota
237	genomes harbored most of the genes constituting the backbone of the RNAi machinery:
238	ribonuclease III dicer, argonaute, QDE3-homolog DNA helicase, and QIP-homolog exonuclease.
239	Phylogenetically, these genes were closely related to representatives from basal fungal lineages
240	(Figure 2). Gene copies in various genomes ranged between 1 to 4 (Figure 2). However, it is
241	notable that all four examined genomes lacked a clear homolog of RNA-dependent RNA
242	polymerase (RdRP) gene. RdRP has been identified in the genomes of diverse organisms
243	including Caenorhabditis elegans (74), plants, and the majority of examined fungi (75) but is
244	absent in the genomes of vertebrates and flies; in spite of their possession of a robust RNAi
245	machinery that mediates sequence-specific gene silencing in response to exogenously added
246	dsRNAs.
247	Uptake of synthetic siRNA by C1A germinating spores and effect on growth. The addition
248	of fluorescently labeled siRNA targeting <i>ldhD</i> transcript to C1A spores at the onset of
249	germination followed by a 15-minute incubation at 39°C resulted in the uptake of the siRNA by
250	the germinating spores as evident by their fluorescence (Fig. S1-A). Under the examined
251	conditions, the majority of the germinating spores picked up the siRNA since 80-90% of spores
252	stained with the nuclear stain DAPI also exhibited Cy3-fluoresence. <i>ldhD</i> -siRNA-treated spores
253	were collected and used to inoculate fresh RFC liquid media, and the growth rate of these
254	cultures were compared to siRNA-untreated controls. As shown in Fig. S1-B, <i>ldhD</i> -siRNA
255	treatment had no significant effect on either the rate of fungal growth or the final fungal biomass
256	yield.

257 **3.3 Knockdown of** *ldhD***-gene by exogenously added** *ldhD***-siRNA.**

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258 Inhibition at the mRNA level. Table 1 shows the effect of adding exogenous ldhD-siRNA on 259 *ldhD* transcriptional level relative to the housekeeping gene glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate 260 dehydrogenase. Results from qRT-PCR revealed that there was an observable decrease in *ldhD* 261 transcription levels in samples treated with *ldhD*-specific siRNA compared to siRNA-untreated 262 samples or unrelated siRNA-treated samples. The inhibitory effect increased with the 263 concentration of *ldhD*-specific siRNA added. At 100 nM, a four-fold decrease in transcription was observed. 264 265 Inhibition at the protein level. Similar to the effect of treatment on the mRNA level, *ldhD*-266 siRNA-treated samples exhibited a marked decrease in the specific D-LDH activity (Table 2).

267 This decrease was dependent on the concentration of siRNA added and ranged from 70-93%

268 reduction compared to siRNA-untreated samples.

269 Effect of ldhD gene knockdown on the extracellular levels of D-lactate in culture supernatants.

270 D-lactate production in C1A culture supernatant is non-linear, with higher amounts of D-lactate

271 produced at later stages of growth (Figure 3A). D-lactate production in *ldhD*-siRNA-treated

272 cultures was invariably lower when compared to controls, with the difference especially

273 pronounced at later stages of growth. The level of reduction was dependent on the siRNA

concentration added and ranged from 42-86% in the early log phase, 49-67% in the mid log

275 phase, and 57-86% in the late log-early stationary growth phase (Figure 3B).

276 **3.4 Transcriptomic analysis.** Differential gene expression patterns between *ldhD*-siRNA-

treated and siRNA-untreated samples were analyzed to identify possible off-target effects of

278 siRNA treatment, i.e. transcripts that were significantly down-regulated in the siRNA-treated

cultures. Only 29 transcripts were significantly (FDR < 0.1) down-regulated (Figure 4).

280 Predicted functions of these transcripts are shown in Table S1 and included hypothetical proteins

281 (n=11), several glycosyl hydrolases (n=5), and other non-fermentation related functions.

282 Comparison of the siRNA sequence to these 29 transcripts revealed matches to the first 7 bases

283 of the *ldhD*-siRNA sequence to only 3 of the down-regulated transcripts indicating that the off-

284 target effect was mainly not sequence-specific.

285 In an attempt to decipher the impact of inhibiting the D-lactate dehydrogenase enzyme 286 (one of the major electron sinks in C1A) on the glycolytic and fermentation pathways in C1A, 287 we investigated the significantly up-regulated transcripts in the siRNA-treated cultures. A total of 53 transcripts were significantly upregulated in the siRNA-treated cultures (FDR < 0.1) 288 289 (Figure 4). Predicted functions of these transcripts are shown in Table S1. One transcript 290 encoding NAD-dependent 2-hydroxyacid dehydrogenase (Pfam 00389) was significantly 291 upregulated (1542-fold) in the siRNA-treated cultures (P-value = 0.02). Enzymes belonging to 292 this family act specifically on the D-isomer of their substrates (76). In case of D-LDH inhibition 293 in the siRNA-treated cultures, the Pfam 00389 enzyme might act to compensate for the loss of 294 NADH oxidation by acting on an alternate substrate (e.g. hydroxypyruvate, 2-oxoisocaproate, or 295 other 2-oxo carboxylic acids) and reducing it as a sink of electrons to regenerate NAD. However, 296 it is difficult to know the actual substrate based on sequence data alone. Transcripts of other 297 glycolytic and fermentative enzymes of C1A were not differentially expressed in siRNA-treated 298 cultures (Table S1). 299

300	Discussion
301	Here, we explored the feasibility of RNA interference for targeted gene silencing in the
302	anaerobic gut fungi (phylum Neocallimastigomycota) via the exogenous addition of synthetic
303	double stranded siRNAs targeting the <i>ldhD</i> gene to <i>Pecoramyces ruminantium</i> strain C1A
304	germinating spores. We show that ds-siRNA was uptaken by germinating spores, and, as a
305	consequence, the transcription of the target gene (<i>ldhD</i>) was down-regulated (Table 1), leading
306	to lower D-LDH enzymatic activity (Table 2) and lower D-lactate concentration in the culture
307	supernatant (Figure 3).
308	In general, the fungal RNAi machinery encompasses Dicer (Dic) enzyme(s), Argonaute
309	(Ago) protein(s), RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRP) enzyme, QDE3-like DNA helicase,
310	and Argonaute-interacting exonuclease (QIP-like). Genomes of Neocallimastigomycota
311	representatives belonging to four genera (Pecoramyces, Neocallimastix, Piromyces, and
312	Anaeromyces) encode at least one copy of Dic, Ago, QDE3-like helicase, and QIP exonuclease.
313	However, all genomes lacked a clear homolog of RdRP. The absence of an RdRP homolog is not
314	uncommon. While present in almost all studied fungi, RdRP seems to be missing from the
315	genomes of other basal fungal phyla (Chytridiomycota and Blastocladiomycota) representatives
316	(77, 78). The absence of clear RdRP homologues in the Neocallimastigomycota and related basal
317	fungal phyla despite their presence in other fungi could suggest that either an RdRP is not
318	involved in dsRNA-mediated mRNA silencing as shown before in mammals (79). Alternatively,
319	RNA-dependent RNA polymerase activity could be mediated through a non-canonical RdRP in
320	basal fungi, e.g. the RNA polymerase II core elongator complex subunit Elp1 shown to have
321	RdRP activity in Drosophila, as well as Caenorhabditis elegans, Schizosaccharomyces pombe,
322	and human (80, 81).

323 We chose as a gene knockdown target the D-Lactate dehydrogenase gene (ldhD) that 324 mediates NADH-dependent pyruvate reduction to D-lactate, for several reasons. First, the gene is 325 present as a single copy in the genome. Second, quantification of the impact of *ldhD* gene 326 knockdown is readily achievable in liquid media at the RNA (using RT-PCR and 327 transcriptomics), and protein (using specific enzyme activity assays) levels, as well as 328 phenotypically (by measuring D-lactate accumulation in the culture media); providing multiple 329 lines of evidence for the efficacy of the process. Finally, D-lactate dehydrogenase is part of the 330 complex mixed acid fermentation pathway in *P. ruminantium* (46, 58) and other anaerobic gut 331 fungi, and we sought to determine how blocking one route of electron disposal could lead to 332 changes in C1A fermentation end products.

333 *ldhD*-siRNA-treated cultures showed a significant reduction in *ldhD* gene transcription 334 and D-LDH enzyme activity. Both of these effects were dependent on the concentration of 335 siRNA added (Tables 1 and 2) similar to previous reports in filamentous fungi (22-24, 28). We 336 show that the addition of 100 nM of *ldhD*-siRNA resulted in a four-fold reduction in *ldhD* 337 transcription, 84% reduction in D-LDH specific activity, and 86% reduction in D-lactate 338 concentration in culture supernatant. The fact that targeted gene silencing using exogenously 339 added gene-specific siRNA results in reducing rather than completely abolishing gene function is 340 an important advantage of RNAi approaches allowing functional studies of housekeeping or 341 survival-essential genes.

While initial studies of gene silencing using exogenously added siRNAs suggested that the process was highly sequence-specific (67, 82), subsequent studies showed silencing of offtarget genes based on less than perfect complementarity between the siRNA and the off-target gene (83). Here, we used RNA-seq to quantify the off-target effects of *ldhD*-siRNA. In contrast

to previous studies that used similar approaches to quantify RNAi off-targets (84), we show here that the off-target effects of *ldhD* silencing were minimal (only 29 transcripts out of 55,167 total transcripts were differentially down-regulated as a result of siRNA treatment) and appeared to be not sequence-specific.

Currently, and due to their strict anaerobic nature, there are no established procedures for genetic manipulations (e.g. gene silencing, insertion, deletion, and mutation) of AGF leading to a paucity of molecular biological studies of the phylum. This is in stark contrast to the rich body of knowledge available on genetic manipulations of various aerobic fungal lineages (22, 24, 28, 66, 85, 86). Our work here represents a proof of principal of the feasibility of the RNAi approach in AGF, and opens the door for genetic manipulation and gene function studies in this important group of fungi.

357 Conclusions

358 Anaerobic gut fungi (AGF) have a restricted habitat in the herbivorous gut. Due to their 359 anaerobic nature, gene manipulation studies are limited hindering gene-targeted molecular 360 biological manipulations. We used an AGF representative, Pecoramyces ruminantium strain 361 C1A, to study the feasibility of using RNA interference (RNAi) for targeted gene silencing. 362 Using D-lactate dehydrogenase (*ldhD*) gene as a target, we show that RNAi is feasible in AGF as 363 evidenced by significantly lower gene transcriptional levels, a marked reduction in encoded 364 enzymatic activity in intracellular protein extracts, and a reduction in D-lactate levels 365 accumulating in the culture supernatant. To our knowledge, this is the first attempt of gene manipulation studies in the AGF lineage and should open the door for gene silencing-based 366 367 studies in this fungal clade.

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- 370
- 371

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624 Figure Legends.

- Figure 1. A cartoon depicting the RNAi gene knockdown protocol used in this study.
- 626 Figure 2. Neighbor joining phylogenetic tree depicting the phylogenetic relationship between
- 627 Pecoramyces ruminantium strain C1A predicted Dicer (A), Argonaute (B), QDE-3 helicase (C),
- and QIP exonuclease (D) sequences and those from other fungal and eukaryotic species. Trees
- 629 were constructed in Mega7 with bootstrap support based on 100 replicates. Bootstrap values are
- 630 shown for branches with >50 bootstrap support.
- 631 Figure 3. (A) Pattern of D-lactate production in C1A culture supernatant as a factor of fungal
- 632 biomass. The majority of the D-lactate production occurs at the late log-early stationary phase.
- 633 Data is shown for both siRNA-untreated cultures (green), as well as *ldhD*-specific siRNA-treated
- 634 cultures with final concentration 20 nM (dark blue), 50 nM (orange), 75 nM (grey), 100 nM
- 635 (yellow), and 150 nM (light blue). (B) A bar-chart depicting average ±standard deviation (from
- 636 at least two replicates) of D-lactate levels in C1A culture supernatant during early log (6-13 mg
- biomass), mid-log (14-17 mg biomass), and late log/early stationary (18-23 mg) phases. Data is
- 638 shown for both siRNA-untreated cultures (green), as well as *ldhD*-specific siRNA-treated
- 639 cultures with final concentration 20 nM (dark blue), 50 nM (orange), 75 nM (grey), 100 nM
- 640 (yellow), and 150 nM (light blue).

Figure 4. Volcano plot of the distribution of gene expression for C1A cultures when treated with *ldhD*-specific siRNA (50 nM) versus untreated cultures. The fold change $[log_2$ (average FPKM in siRNA-treated cultures/ average FPKM in control cultures)] is shown on the X-axis, while the significance of the change $[-log_{10}$ (false discovery rate)] is shown on the Y-axis. Red data points are those transcripts that were significantly down-regulated (n=29), while green data points are those transcripts that were significantly up-regulated (n=53). The corresponding IMG gene

- 647 accession numbers and the predicted functions for these genes are shown in Table S1. The
- orange data point corresponds to the D-lactate dehydrogenase transcript (targeted in the RNAi
- 649 experiment) with 2.5-fold decrease in FPKM compared to the untreated control, while the purple
- data point corresponds to the NAD-dependent 2-hydroxyacid dehydrogenase (Pfam 00389)
- 651 transcript (possibly acting to compensate for the loss of NADH oxidation that occurred as a
- result of *ldhD* knockdown) with 1542-fold increase in FPKM compared to the untreated control.

Table 1(on next page)

Table 1

Table 1. Effect of the uptake of exogenous *IdhD*-siRNA by C1A germinating spores on the transcriptional level of *IdhD* relative to the housekeeping gene *gapdh*.

Table 1. Effect of the uptake of exogenous *ldhD*-siRNA by C1A germinating spores on the transcriptional level of *ldhD* relative to the
 housekeeping gene *gapdh*.

2 3

Treatment	Final siRNA concentration	Copies of <i>ldhD</i> relative to <i>gapdh</i> ¹	Fold change in transcription level	Number of	Fungal biomass yield (mg) at
	(nM)	01	$(\Delta\Delta C_t)$ compared to	biological	the time of
			untreated samples	replicates	sacrificing ¹
ldhD-siRNA	20	4.2E-03±3E-03	0.02	4	12.3±5
	50	4.4E-03±2E-03	0.02	5	9.3±5.2
	75	3.6E-04±1.8E-04	0.0017	4	15.4±3.7
	100	6.1E-05±2.4E-05	0.0003	4	15.9±6
	150	7.3E-04±3.6E-04	0.003	2	7.2±0.7
Untreated	NA	0.21±0.04		5	9.6±2
unrelated-siRNA	50	0.26±0.07	1.29	2	13.5±3.8

4 ^{1.} Values are average±standard deviation

5

Table 2(on next page)

Table 2

Table 2. Effect of the uptake of *ldhD*-siRNA by C1A germinating spores on the D-LDH specific activity.

1 **Table 2.** Effect of the uptake of *ldhD*-siRNA by C1A germinating spores on the D-LDH specific

2 activity.

Treatment	siRNA concentration (nM)	D-LDH specific activity (U/ mg protein) ¹	Fold change in D- LDH specific activity compared to untreated samples	Total number of biological replicates	Fungal biomass yield (mg) at the time of sacrificing ¹
ldhD-siRNA	20	332.2±90	0.29	6	16.5±5.8
	50	331.9±144.5	0.29	17	10±4.3
	75	194.2±79	0.17	6	12.8±5.3
	100	180.6±131	0.16	6	12.7±7.4
	150	85.4±32	0.07	2	7.2±0.7
Untreated	NA	1157.6±308.6		13	10.9±2.9
unrelated-siRNA	50	926.4±69	0.8	2	13.5±3.8

3 ^{1.} Values shown are average \pm SD.

4

Figure 1(on next page)

Figure 1

Figure 1. A cartoon depicting the RNAi gene knockdown protocol used in this study.



Figure 2(on next page)

Figure 2

Figure 2. Neighbor joining phylogenetic tree depicting the phylogenetic relationship between *Pecoramyces ruminantium* strain C1A predicted Dicer (A), Argonaute (B), QDE-3 helicase (C), and QIP exonuclease (D) sequences and those from other fungal and eukaryotic species. Trees were constructed in Mega7 with bootstrap support based on 100 replicates. Bootstrap values are shown for branches with >50 bootstrap support.



0.2









D. QIP homolog



Figure 3(on next page)

Figure 3

Figure 3. (A) Pattern of D-lactate production in C1A culture supernatant as a factor of fungal biomass. The majority of the D-lactate production occurs at the late log-early stationary phase. Data is shown for both siRNA-untreated cultures (green), as well as *ldhD*-specific siRNA-treated cultures with final concentration 20 nM (dark blue), 50 nM (orange), 75 nM (grey), 100 nM (yellow), and 150 nM (light blue). (B) A bar-chart depicting average ±standard deviation (from at least two replicates) of D-lactate levels in C1A culture supernatant during early log (6-13 mg biomass), mid-log (14-17 mg biomass), and late log/early stationary (18-23 mg) phases. Data is shown for both siRNA-untreated cultures (green), as well as *ldhD*-specific siRNA-treated cultures with final concentration 20 nM (dark blue), 50 nM (orange), 75 nM (grey), 100 nM (yellow), and 150 nM (light blue).

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Figure 4(on next page)

Figure 4

Figure 4. Volcano plot of the distribution of gene expression for C1A cultures when treated with *ldhD*-specific siRNA (50 nM) versus untreated cultures. The fold change [log₂ (average FPKM in siRNA-treated cultures/ average FPKM in control cultures)] is shown on the X-axis, while the significance of the change [-log₁₀ (false discovery rate)] is shown on the Y-axis. Red data points are those transcripts that were significantly down-regulated (n=29), while green data points are those transcripts that were significantly up-regulated (n=53). The corresponding IMG gene accession numbers and the predicted functions for these genes are shown in Table S1. The orange data point corresponds to the D-lactate dehydrogenase transcript (targeted in the RNAi experiment) with 2.5-fold decrease in FPKM compared to the untreated control, while the purple data point corresponds to the NAD-dependent 2-hydroxyacid dehydrogenase (Pfam 00389) transcript (possibly acting to compensate for the loss of NADH oxidation that occurred as a result of *ldhD* knockdown) with 1542-fold increase in FPKM compared to the untreated control.

