# The most comprehensive annotation of the Krill transcriptome provides new insights for the study of physiological processes and environmental adaptation

Ilenia Urso[1], Alberto Biscontin[1], Davide Corso[1], Cristiano Bertolucci[2,3], Chiara Romualdi[1], Cristiano De Pittà[1], Bettina Meyer[4,5,6]*, Gabriele Sales[1]*

[1]University of Padova, Department of Biology Via U. Bassi 58/B, 35131 Padova (PD) – Italy

[2]University of Ferrara, Department of Life Sciences and Biotechnology Via Luigi Borsari 46 44121 Ferrara (FE) – Italy

[3]Biology and Evolution of Marine Organisms, Stazione Zoologica Anton Dohrn Napoli, Villa Comunale, 80121 Naples, Italy

[4]Alfred Wegener Institute Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research Am Handelshafen 12 D-27570 Bremerhaven – Germany

[5]Institute for Chemistry and Biology of the Marine Environment (ICBM) Carl-von-Ossietzky University Carl-von-Ossietzky-Straße 9-11 D-26111 Oldenburg – Germany

[6]Helmholtz Institute for Functional Marine Biodiversity (HIFMB) at the University of Oldenburg, Oldenburg, 26111, Germany.

**\* Co-corresponding authors**

# Abstract

The krill species *Euphausia superba* plays a critical role in the food chain of the Antarctic ecosystem, as the abundance of its biomass affects trophic levels both below it and above. Major changes in climate conditions observed in the Antarctic Peninsula region in the last decades have the potential to alter the distribution of the krill population and its reproductive dynamics. A deeper understanding of the adaptation capabilities of this species, and of the molecular mechanisms behind them, are urgently needed. The availability of a large body of RNA-seq assays gave us the

opportunity to extend the current knowledge of the krill transcriptome, considerably

reducing errors and redundancies. The study covered the entire developmental

process, from larval stages to adult individuals, information which are of central

relevance for ecological studies. We describe KrillDB$^2$ database, which combines the

latest annotation of the krill transcriptome with a series of analyses specifically

targeting genes and molecular processes relevant to krill physiology. KrillDB$^2$ provides

in a single resource the most complete collection of experimental data and

bioinformatic annotations: it includes an extended catalog of krill genes; an atlas of

their expression profiles over all RNA-seq datasets publicly available; a study of

differential expression across multiple conditions such as developmental stages,

geographical regions, seasons, and sexes. Finally, it provides information about non-

coding RNAs, a class of molecules whose contribute to krill physiology, which have

never been reported before.

# Introduction

Antarctic krill *Euphausia superba* (hereafter krill) represents a widely distributed

crustacean of the Southern Ocean and one of the world's most abundant species with

a total biomass between 100 and 500 million tonnes (Nicol & Endo, 1997). Due to its

crucial ecological role in the Antarctic ecosystem, where it represents a link between

apex predators and primary producers, several studies have been carried out over the

years in order to characterize krill distribution (Atkinson et al. 2008; Hofmann & Murphy

2004; Marr 1962; Siegel 2005), population dynamics and structuring (Bortolotto,

Bucklin, Mezzavilla, Zane & Patarnello, 2011; Valentine & Ayala 1976) and above all

to understand its complex genetics (Batta-Lona, Bucklin, Wiebe, Patarnello, & Copley,

2011; Bortolotto et al. 2011; Goodall-Copestake et al. 2010; Zane et al. 1998). A

sizable fraction of these studies focused on the DNA, specifically on mtDNA variation;

however, the information available about krill genetics remains relatively modest. The

difficulty in the progression of this kind of study mainly depends on the extraordinarily

large krill genome size (Jeffery, 2011), which is more than 15 times larger than the

human genome. This aspect largely complicates DNA sequencing, which is the reason

why in recent years - together with the advances in high-throughput RNA-sequencing

techniques - different krill transcriptome resources have been developed (Clark et al.

2011; De Pittà et al., 2008; De Pittà et al. 2013; Martins et al., 2015; Meyer et al., 2015;

Seear et al., 2010). However, it was with the KrillDB project (Sales et al., 2017) that a

detailed and advanced genetic resource was produced and made available to the

community as an organized database. KrillDB is a web-graphical interface with

annotation results coming from the *de novo* reconstruction of krill transcriptome,

assembling more than 360 million Illumina sequence reads.

Here we describe an update to KrillDB, now renamed KrillDB[2] (available at the address

https://krilldb2.bio.unipd.it/), specifically focusing on two aspects: the improvement of

the quality and breadth of the krill transcriptome sequences previously reconstructed,

thanks to the addition of an unprecedented amount of RNA-sequencing data; and,

correspondingly, an increase in the amount of annotation information associated to

each transcript, which is made available through interactive graphs, images and

downloadable files.

# Material and methods

## Krill collection

This study aims at covering the entire developmental process of krill. Therefore, we used samples coming from different developmental stages to cover the entire *E. superba* transcriptome, from larval to adult specimens. Specifically, adults included both male and female specimens, as well as summer and winter individuals and they also came from 3 different geographical regions: Lazarev Sea, South Georgia, and Bransfield Strait/South Orkney.

## Transcriptome assembly strategy

### Multiple independent de novo assemblies

The assembly of short (Illumina) reads to reconstruct the transcriptomes of non-model organisms has been subject to a considerable amount of research. Out of the many tools developed for this task, we have selected five which are arguably the most popular in the field: Trinity (Grabherr et al. 2011), BinPacker (Liu et al. 2016), rnaSPAdes (Bushmanova, Antipov, Lapidus & Prjibelski, 2019), TransABySS (Zhao et al. 2011) and IDBA-tran (Peng et al. 2013). We summarized all the steps of the assembly reconstruction strategy, annotation process and downstream analyses in **Figure 1a**.

At first, we performed a separate transcriptome reconstruction with each of the tools listed above. We evaluated their respective advantages through a series of independent measures, such as: the total number of transcripts; %GC content; the average fragment length; the total number of bases; the N50 value; and finally, the

96  results of the BUSCO analysis, which provides a measure of transcriptome

97  completeness based on evolutionarily informed expectations of gene content from

98  near-universal single-copy orthologs (Simão, Waterhouse, Ioannidis, Kriventseva &

99  Zdobnov, 2015).

## Assembly filtering and optimization

The raw sequencing data we used for the assemblies was obtained from different

experiments and included both stranded and unstranded libraries. As mixing these two

types of libraries in a single assembly is not well supported, we decided to run each

software twice: we thus generated a total of ten different *de novo* assemblies.

A combination of two filtering steps was then applied to the newly reconstructed

transcriptomes in order to discard artifacts and improve the assembly quality.

First, we estimated the abundances of all the transcripts reconstructed by each

assembler using the Salmon software (v. 1.4.0, Patro, Duggal, Love, Irizarry &

Kingsford, 2017). Samples were grouped according to the main experimental

conditions: (1) sex, with female and male levels; (2) geographical area, covering

Bransfield Strait, South Georgia, South Orkney and Lazarev Sea; and (3) season, with

summer and winter levels. Abundance estimates were imported in the R statistical

software using the *tximport* package (Love et al. 2017) and we implemented a filter to

keep only those transcripts showing an expression level of at least 1 transcript per

million (TPM) within each of the three experimental conditions.

In a second step, we considered the results of all assemblers jointly, and we ran the

"cd-hit-est" program (Li & Godzik, 2006) in order to cluster similar sequences and to

produce a set of non-redundant representative transcripts. Specifically, we collapsed

all sequences sharing 95% or more of their content, thus reducing the number of

transcripts from 1,650,404 to 551,110.

## Meta-assembly

The procedure described above was designed to identify near-duplicate sequences

deriving from different software, but likely corresponding to the same biological

transcript. As a further refinement, we were also interested in grouping resulting

transcripts into units corresponding to genes. To this end, we relied on the

EvidentialGene pipeline (Gilbert 2013, 2019). We applied the "tr2aacds" tool which

clusters transcripts and classifies them to identify the most likely coding sequence

representing each gene. The software subdivides sequences into different categories,

including primary transcript with alternates (main), primary without alternates

(noclass), alternates with high and medium alignment to primary (althi1, althi, altmid)

and partial (part) incomplete transcripts. A "coding potential" flag is also added,

separating coding from non-coding sequences (see section "KrillDB[2] Web Interface").

The meta-assembly thus obtained consisted in 274,840 putative transcripts,

subdivided into 173,549 genes.

As these figures remained unrealistically high, we performed another round of

analyses to identify redundant or mis-assembled sequences still appearing in our

transcriptome. Here we used a combination of BLAST searches against known protein

and nucleotide databases (NR, NT, TREMBL) and information deriving from full-

length, experimentally validated transcripts from a previous study (Biscontin et al.,

2017). Results confirmed that the newly reconstructed transcriptome fully represented

krill RNAs, but the large amount of input reads, together with the number of

independent de novo assemblers, likely led to an inflation in the number of alternative

splicing variants being reconstructed. Moreover, transcript alignments against BUSCO

genes (Simão et al., 2015) and the *doubletime*, *cry1, shaggy* and *vrille* full-length

transcripts from Biscontin *et al*. (2017) highlighted the fact that multiple fragments of

the same gene were incorrectly assembled as separate transfrags. To remove these

artifacts, first we aligned all transcript sequences in our dataset against each other

using the *blastn* tool. We discarded all sequences already included in a longer

transcript for more than the 90% of their length. This filter helped us remove 78,731

redundant sequences (29% of transcripts, overall). Then, we ran a new abundance

quantification using Salmon and we discarded all transcripts with an average

abundance below 0.1.

The combination of all the filters discussed above allowed us to reduce the number of

transcripts to 151,585 and, correspondingly, that of genes to 85,905. Our approach

retained alternative and paralog transcripts with sufficient level of uniqueness in their

sequence, as confirmed by the fact that although we removed almost 45% of the

initially assembled transcripts, the drop barely affected the medium mapping rate

value, reducing it from 89% (EvidentialGene only) to 88% (full filtering).

In order to enhance the interpretability of the transcriptome reconstruction, we also

performed a SuperTranscripts analysis, on the basis of the workflow proposed by

Davidson, Hawkins & Oshlack (2017). Starting from the clustering information (groups

of transcripts belonging to different genes) provided by EvidentialGene, we ran the

Lace software (https://github.com/Oshlack/Lace) to get a representation of the block

structure of each gene (see section "KrillDB[2] Web Interface").

## Expression Atlas

We estimated the abundances of all the transcripts in our final assembly using Salmon over a wide range of RNA-seq datasets, including:

- Larval krill at two different stages of development exposed to different $CO_2$ conditions, coming from Sales et al. (2017)
- Adult krill (48 samples) coming from different geographical areas (Bransfield Strait, Lazarev Sea, South Georgia, South Orkney) and different seasons (summer and winter), divided into male and female specimens (Höring et al., 2020)
- Adult krill divided into male and female specimens (Suter et al., 2019)
- Adult krill exposed to three different temperatures – Low Temperature, Mid temperature, High Temperature (data downloaded from NCBI BioProject: PRJNA640244)

Overall, the experimental design included six factors: geographical area, season, developmental stage, $pCO_2$ exposure condition, sex and temperature. Abundances and raw counts were imported using R (v. 4.0.5) and the package *tximport* (v. 1.18.0). Batch effect removal was performed using the *removeBatchEffect* function implemented in the *limma* package (v. 3.46.0). The resulting count matrix of transcripts (rows) across samples (columns) was then converted to the transcripts per million (TPM) scale. Finally, results were summarized to the gene level using the *isoformToGeneExp* function (IsoformSwitchAnalyzeR v. 1.12.0 package). The expression levels for each experimental condition are displayed in KrillDB[2] as a barplot, as part of the webpage for each gene or transcript (see section "KrillDB[2] Web Interface").

## Functional Annotation

Assembled fragments were aligned against the NCBI NR (non-redundant) UniProtKB/TrEMBL protein databases and also against the NCBI NT nucleotide collection (data downloaded on 22/04/2021). We also ran InterproScan (v. 5.51-85.0) in order to search for known functional domains and predict protein family membership.

In addition, all krill transcripts were searched against the RNAcentral database (https://rnacentral.org/; https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkw1008) in order to identify and characterize non-coding RNAs within the reconstructed sequences. Contextually, an orthology inference was performed using the OMA standalone package (https://omabrowser.org/standalone/; Altenhoff et al., 2019) which relies on a complete catalog of orthologous genes among more than 2,300 genomes covering the entire tree of life. This analysis helped us identify, based on protein sequences, those krill transcripts showing an orthology relationship with genes from other species and which sets of genes derived from a single common ancestral gene at a given taxonomic range (Altenhoff, Gil, Gonnet & Dessimoz, 2013).

## Differential Expression Analysis

Transcript-level abundances and estimated counts were summarized at the gene-level using the package *tximport*; resulting counts were normalized to remove unwanted variation by means of the RUVg method (Risso & Course, 2015). Specifically, we performed a preliminary between-sample normalization (EDASeq package, v. 2.24.0) to adjust for sequencing depth. We defined a set of empirical negative control genes, by means of a differential expression (DE) analysis with the edgeR software (v.

3.32.1). Our design matrix for the model included all the independent factors (*season*,

*area* and *sex*) and, in addition, the interaction between *area* and *season*, *sex* and *area*,

*sex* and *season*. We selected the 30,000 less differentially expressed genes as

negative controls and we applied the RUVg method. We finally re-ran the differential

expression analysis extending the original model to include two estimated factors to

capture unwanted variation.

## Non-coding RNAs

We also investigated the possibility that the new transcriptome included sequences

corresponding to non-coding transcripts, specifically microRNAs.

To this aim, we ran the HHMMiR software (Kadri, Hinman & Benos, 2009), which

combines structural and sequence information to train a Hierarchical Hidden Markov

Model for the identification of microRNA genes. We also performed a *blastn* search of

all our assembled transcripts against the collection of miRBase

(http://www.mirbase.org/) mature sequences. Results from these two analyses were

combined: we collected all transcripts with a HHMMiR score below or equal to 0.71

and an alignment to a known mature microRNA with at most two mismatches. We then

used the QuickGO tool (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/QuickGO/) to identify any potential

association among our putatively identified microRNAs and GO categories.

## Opsin phylogeny

To identify novel opsin genes in krill, we examined manually the list of transcripts that

were annotated as "opsin" by our automated pipeline. Furthermore, the entire krill

transcriptome was aligned against a curated opsin dataset (including 996 visual and

non-visual opsins, Henze & Oakley, 2015) using Blast+ (version 2.11.0). The longest

transcript was selected as a representative sequence of those genes that possess

many alternative transcripts. Secondary structure was assessed by NCBI Conserved

Domain Search (CDD database, May 2021). Phylogenetic tree was generated with

MUSCLE alignment tool and Maximum Likelihood method (Dayhof substitution matrix

and Nearest-Neighbor-Interchange method) as implemented in MEGA X version

10.2.6 (https://www.megasoftware.net/). New opsins were aligned against a curated

invertebrate-only opsin data set (DeLeo & Bracken-Grissom, 2020), the previously

cloned krill opsins (Biscontin et al., 2016), and the full-length onychopsin and

arthropsin sequences available on NCBI Protein database (May 2021,

ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/protein). The tree was rooted using the human G protein-coupled

receptor VIPR1 as an outgroup.

## 248 Results

### 249 Transcriptome Quality

We checked for transcriptome reconstruction quality step by step, starting from the 5

independent de novo assemblies, going through the first filter applied (**Figure 1b**),

then testing the potential of merging all the assemblies in a unique meta-assembly

through EvidentialGene and finally filtering the transcriptome for redundancy

reduction. As previously mentioned, the assembly quality was evaluated using

different measures. **Figure 1c** reports result of this approach in terms of contig N50

statistics, which highlighted an increase of the assembly quality at each step. Recent

benchmarks, such as Hölzer & Marz (2019), have shown that, while reconstructing the

transcriptome of a species, no single approach is uniformly superior at reconstructing

the transcriptome of a species: the quality of each result is influenced by a number of

factors, both technical (*k*-mer size, strategy for duplicate resolution) and biological

(genome size, presence of contaminants). In our study we observed that, although a

consistent number of sequences was removed through each step of assembly,

merging and filtering, we didn't find any decline in the quality described by the basic

statistics of the reconstructed transcripts.

We then explored the completeness of the krill transcriptome according to conserved

ortholog content using BUSCO. **Figure 1d** shows the results of the analyses

comparing the EvidentialGene reconstructed transcriptome to the redundancy-filtered

assembly, where we observed a minimal reduction of complete matches to the

BUSCO profile.

## 270 Functional Classification

Results from the functional annotation analyses showed that 63,633 contigs matched

at least one protein from the NR collection, corresponding to about 42s% of the total

krill transcriptome, while 62,249 contigs found a match among TREMBL protein

sequences (41% of the total). A search against the NT nucleotide sequences produced

22,071 krill matches (15% of the total). To classify transcripts by putative function, we

performed a GO assignment. Specifically, 2,612 GO terms were assigned, with 1,128

of those terms representing multiple molecular functions, 1,099 corresponding to

multiple biological processes and 385 to cellular components.

## 279 A case study on the discovery of opsin genes

To evaluate the gene discovery potential of the new version of assembly, we searched

transcriptome for new members of the opsin family. Opsins are a group of light

sensitive G protein-coupled receptors with seven transmembrane domains. 14 genes

were annotated as putative opsins and the conserved domains analysis revealed that

all of them possess the distinctive 7 α-helix transmembrane domains structure. The 8

previously cloned opsins (Biscontin et al. 2016) were represented by as many genes

(sequence identity >90%; **Table S1**). The other 6 identified genes can therefore be

considered new putative opsins. Among these, we found 4 putative rhabdomeric

opsins: *Es*Rh7 and *Es*Rh8, with 70% and 59 % of amino acid identity to *Es*Rh1a and

*Es*Rh4, respectively; *Es*Rh9 and *Es*Rh10 showing high sequence identity (87% and

74%, respectively) to *Es*Rh5.  Further, we identified 2 putative ancestral opsins: a non-

visual arthropsin (*Es*Arthropsin), and an onychopsin (*Es*Onychopsin) with 70% and

49% of sequence identity with crustacean and onychophoran orthologous,

respectively. Phylogenetic analysis (**Figure 2**) suggested that *Es*Rh7-10 are middle-

wavelength-sensitive (MWS) rhabdomeric opsins, and further confirmed *Es*Arthropsin

and *Es*Onychopsin annotation.

# Differential Expression

The availability of a new assembly of the krill transcriptome, reconstructed collecting

the largest amount of experimental data available thus far, suggested the possibility

of performing a more detailed investigation of differential expression patterns. In

particular, we decided to reanalyze the dataset from (Höring et al., 2020) in order to

assess the possibility of identifying differentially expressed genes which were not

detected in the original study due to the use of an older reference (Meyer et al., 2015).

In total 1,741 genes were differentially expressed (DEG) among experimental

conditions, corresponding to around 2% of the total reconstructed genes. **Table 2**

summarizes the list of contrasts that were performed, each one with the number of

differentially expressed up and down regulated genes.

1,195 DEGs were identified in the comparison between summer and winter

specimens: 1,078 were up-regulated and 117 down-regulated. 396 of such DEGs had

some form of functional annotation. Comparison between males and females

produced 14 DEGs (7 up-regulated and 7 down-regulated); none had some form of

annotation deriving from sequence homology. In general, these results are in

accordance with the discussion by Höring et al. (2020), which found that seasonal

differences are predominant in comparison to regional ones.

## 314 Summer vs Winter

We selected a series of genes among seasonal DEGs according to what has been

already described in literature. Höring et al. (2020) previously identified and described

35 relevant DEGs involved in seasonal physiology and behavior: we recovered the

same gene signature in our own analysis by comparing summer to winter samples.

The majority of these DEGs appear to be involved in the development of cuticles

(*chitine synthase*, *carbohydrate sulfotransferase 11*), lipid metabolism (*fatty acid*

*synthase 2, enoyl-CoA ligase*), reproduction (*vitellogenin*, *hematopoietic prostaglandin*

*D synthase*), metabolism of different hormones (*type 1 iodothyronine deiodinase*) and

in the circadian clock (*cryptochrome*). Our results also include DEGs that were found

to be involved in the moult cycle of krill in other studies (Seear et al., 2010).

Specifically, we identified a larger group of genes involved in the different stages of

cuticle developmental process (*peritrophin-A domain*, *calcified cuticle protein*,

*glycosyltransferase 9-domain containing protein*, *collagen alpha 1*, *glutamine-fructose*

*6 phosphate*), including proteins such as *cuticle protein-3,6,19.8, early cuticle protein,*

*pupal cuticle protein, endocuticle structural glycoprotein, chitinase-3* and *chitinase-4,*

the latter representing a group of chitinase which have been shown to be expressed predominantly in gut tissue during larval and/or adult stages in other arthropods and are proposed to be involved in digestion of chitin-containing substrates (Khajuria, Buschman, Chen, Muthukrishnan & Zhu, 2010). Finally, in addition to *trypsin* and *crustin 4* (immune-related gene, essential in early pre-moult stage when krill still have a soft cuticle to protect them from pathogen attack, as seen by Seear et al., 2010) we also identified *crustin-1,2,3,5* and *7*. All the reported genes were up-regulated in summer, the period in which growth take place and krill moult regularly.

Cuticle development genes were also identified as differentially expressed in the analysis of the interaction of multiple factors, in particular between male samples coming from South Georgia and female specimens coming from the area of Bransfield Strait-South Orkney (considered as a unique area since they are placed at similar latitudes). Strikingly, we also identified a pro-resilin gene, whose role in many insects consists in providing efficient energy storage, being upregulated in South Georgia male specimens.

## Interaction Effects

A number of relevant DEGs were found among specific interactions of regional and seasonal changes. In the comparison between krill samples in South Georgia in summer and individuals sampled in Bransfield Strait-South Orkney in winter we found genes, up-regulated in summer in South Georgia, that are related to reproductive activities, such as *doublesex* and *mab-3 related transcription factor*. The latter, in particular, is a transcription factor crucial for sex determination and sexual differentiation which has already described in other arthropods (Yi Jia et al., 2018) where the male-specific isoform represses its targets. Since no differentially expressed gene related to reproduction was found by Höring et al. (2020) in the same

comparisons, this suggests that the new krill transcriptome significantly improves the

interpretability of expression studies and the characterizations of krill samples.

Finally, comparison between male individuals from Lazarev Sea and female

specimens from Bransfield Strait-South Orkney showed additional DEGs involved in

reproduction, such as *ovochymase 2*, usually highly expressed in female adults or

eggs, *serine protease* and a *trypsin-like gene*. In particular, *trypsin-like genes* are

usually thought to be digestive serine proteases, but previous works suggested that

they can play other roles (Bao et al., 2014); many trypsins show female or male-

specific expression patterns and have been found exclusively expressed in males, as

in our analysis, suggesting that they play a role in the reproductive processes.

The simultaneous presence of genes involved in different steps of the krill moulting

cycle and in the reproductive process and sexual maturation that appear to be

differentially expressed in same comparisons is in accordance with what was already

observed in krill (Buchholz, Watkins, Priddle, Morris & Ricketts, 1996) and other krill

species (Tarling & Cuzin-Roudy, 2003). In particular, there are already evidences of a

strong relation between the krill moulting process and its growth and sexual maturation

during the year, which support and confirm the reliability of our results in terms of

genes involved in such krill life cycle steps.

All tables of differentially expressed genes tables are available and downloadable on

KrillDB[2] (**Figure 3c**; https://krilldb2.bio.unipd.it/, Section "Differentially Expressed

Genes (DEGs)").

## MicroRNA Identification

In total we identified 261 krill transcripts with sequence homology to 644 known

microRNAs from other species. 306 sequences were linked to at least one GO term,

matching 54 krill transcripts (**Table S2**). Among them, we identified 5 putative

microRNAs involved with changes in cellular metabolism (age-dependent general

metabolic decline - GO:0001321, GO:0001323), as well as changes in the state or

activity of cells (age-dependent response to oxidative stress - GO:0001306,

GO:0001322, GO:0001324), 35 microRNAs involved in interleukin activity and

production regulation. Moreover, we found 26 putative microRNAs likely involved in

*ecdysteroidogenesis* (specifically GO:0042768), a process resulting in the production

of ecdysteroids, moulting and sex hormones found in many arthropods. In addition,

we found a microRNA involved in fused antrum stage (GO:0048165) which appears

to be related, in other species, to the oogenesis process. We also identified 27

microRNAs related to *rhombomere* morphogenesis, formation and development

(GO:0021661, GO:0021663, GO:0021570). These functions are well described as

involved in the development of portions of the central nervous system in vertebrates,

but they are also homologous to a portion of the arthropod brain. Moreover, 26 krill

sequences showed high similarity with 2 mature microRNA related to the formation of

tectum (GO:0043676), which represents in arthropods and, specifically, crustaceans,

the part of the brain acting as visual center.

## 396 KrillDB[2] Web Interface

The KrillDB website has been re-designed to include the new version of the

transcriptome assembly. **Figures 3**, **4** and **5** collect images taken from the main new

sections of the updated version of KrillDB. The integrated full-text search engine

allows the user to search for a transcript ID, gene ID, GO term, a microRNA ID or any

other free-form query. In particular, results of full-text searches are now organized into

a number of separate tables, each representing a different data source or biological

403 aspect (**Figure 3b**). Results of GO term searches are summarized in a table reporting

404 the related genes with corresponding domain (**Figure 4a**) or microRNA (**Figure 4b**)

405 match and associated description. Both gene and transcript-centric pages have been

406 extended with two new sections: "Orthology" and "Expression" (**Figure 5a**). The

407 Orthology section summarizes the list of orthologous sequences coming from OMA

408 analysis, each one with the species it belongs to and the identity score.

409 The "Expression" section shows a barplot, implemented using the Seaborn Python

410 library (v. 0.11.1), representing abundances estimates obtained from Salmon (Patro

411 et al., 2017). An additional section, called "Gene Structure" (**Figure 5a**), was added to

412 the gene page on the basis of the results coming from the SuperTranscript analysis.

413 Specifically, we modified the STViewer.py Python script (from Lace), optimizing and

414 adapting it to our own data and database structure, in order to produce a visualization

415 of each gene with its transcripts. Since Lace relies on the construction of a single

416 directed splice graph and it is not able to compute it for complex clusters with more

417 than 30 splicing variants, this section is available for a selection of genes only.

418 The new KrillDB[2] release includes completely updated transcript and gene identifiers.

419 However, the user searching for a retired ID is automatically redirected to the page

420 describing the newest definition of the appropriate transcript or gene.

421 The KrillDB[2] homepage now includes two additional sections (**Figure 3a**): one is

422 represented by the possibility to perform a BLAST search. Any nucleotide or protein

423 sequence (*query*) can be aligned against krill sequences stored in the database;

424 results are summarized in a table containing information about the krill transcripts

425 (*target*) that matched with the user's query, and the e-value corresponding to the

426 alignment. The other new section, called "Differentially Expressed Genes", allows the

user to browse all the tables listing the genes that were found to be differentially

expressed among the conditions we have described above. A drop-down menu gives

access to the different comparisons; DEG tables (**Figure 3c**) list for each gene its log

fold-change, p- and FDR values as estimated by edgeR. Moreover, each gene is linked

to a functional description (if available) inferred from sequence homology searches.

Information about krill transcripts that showed homology with an annotated microRNA

is available in the section "Predicted Hairpin" (**Figure 5b**). It contains a summary table

with details about the hairpin length and the similarity score (as estimated by

HHMMiR), followed by full listing of all the corresponding mature microRNAs (including

links to their miRBase page). In addition, an image displaying the predicted secondary

structure of the hairpin is included (computed by the "fornac" visualization software

from the ViennaRNA suite).

# Conclusions

The availability of a large amount of public RNA-seq data capturing krill transcripts has

given us the possibility to re-assemble its transcriptome and to significantly extend its

annotation. We have now covered the entire developmental process of this species

and included in our analysis individuals belonging to different seasons and affected by

different environmental conditions. KrillDB[2] provides the most complete source of

information about the krill transcriptome and will offer a reliable starting point

development of novel ecological studies.

The differential expression analysis we have performed highlights the importance of

specific processes in the complex krill life cycle and in its adaptation capability to the

harsh Antarctic environment.

The identification of 6 novel putative opsin sequences, in addition to the eight that were

previously cloned, demonstrates a significant improvement in the gene discovery

potential of this new version of krill transcriptome. The finding of four novel MWS

rhabdomeric opsins, an onychopsin, and a non-visual arthropsin further enrich the

opsin repertoire of *E. superba* shedding light on a complex photoreception system able

to coordinate the physiological and behavioral responses to the extreme daily (diel

vertical migration) and seasonal changes in photoperiod and spectral composition.

Arthropsins are rhabdomeric non-visual opsins and its clade is the sister group of the

bilaterian rhabdomeric opsins (Hering et al., 2012; Hering and Mayer, 2014). It was

first discovered in the crustacean *Daphnia pulex* and subsequently in other arthropods,

onychophoran, molluscs, anallids and flatworms (Colbourne et al., 2011; Hering et al.,

2012; Eriksson et al., 2013; Hering and Mayer, 2014; Futahashi et al., 2015). Of

relevance is the identification of an onychopsin which has been suggested to be the

common ancestor of *Panarthropoda* visual opsins (Hering et al., 2012), and possibly

sensitive to wavelength from UV to green light (Beckmann et al., 2015). *Es*Onychopsin

could represent the short-wavelength sensitive opsin (SWS/UV) which we have long

been searching for. Indeed, the absence of a SWS/UV opsin was truly unexpected in

an organism that shows daily vertical migration reaching depth beyond the 30 m,

where only short wavelength light can penetrate.

Finally, KrillDB[2] includes the first evidence of the role of non-coding RNAs in krill.

Although this is just a preliminary analysis, the results we have described already hint

at a role of microRNAs in defining the adaptive capabilities of this species to the

Antarctic environment. This represents a promising starting point for the study of non-

coding RNAs in the Antarctic krill and in other species belonging to the same family.

# Acknowledgments

The position of Illenia Urso was supported by the Helmholtz Vitual Institute "PolarTime": Biological timing in a changing marine environment - clocks and rhythms in polar pelagic organisms (VH-VI-500), headed by Bettina Meyer. Alberto Biscontin was funded by the "Programma Nazionale di Ricerche in Antartide – PNRA" (grant 2016_00225) and by the Promega Corporation 2019 Real-Time PCR Grant Program. We would also like to acknowledge the CAPRI initiative (Calcolo ad Alte Prestazioni per la Ricerca e l'Innovazione", University of Padova Strategic Research Infrastructure Grant 2017) for the technical support and the HPC resources we have used for the analyses. Cristiano Bertolucci was supported by the "Programma Nazionale di Ricerche in Antartide – PNRA" (grant 2016_00225) and by the University of Ferrara research grant (FIR2020 and FAR2021).

# References

Altenhoff, A. M., Gil, M., Gonnet, G. H., & Dessimoz, C. (2013). Inferring hierarchical orthologous groups from orthologous gene pairs. PloS one, 8(1), e53786. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0053786

Altenhoff, A. M., Levy, J., Zarowiecki, M., Tomiczek, B., Vesztrocy, A. W., Dalquen, D. A., ... & Dessimoz, C. (2019). OMA standalone: orthology inference among public and custom genomes and transcriptomes. Genome research, 29(7), 1152-1163. doi: 10.1101/gr.243212.118

Atkinson, A., Siegel, V., Pakhomov, E. A., Rothery, P., Loeb, V., Ross, R. M., ... & Fleming, A. H. Atkinson, A., Siegel, V., Pakhomov, E. A., Rothery, P., Loeb, V., Ross, R. M., ... & Fleming, A. H. (2008). Oceanic circumpolar habitats of Antarctic krill. Marine Ecology Progress Series, 362, 1-23., 2008. doi: org/10.3354/meps07498

Bao, Y. Y., Qin, X., Yu, B., Chen, L. B., Wang, Z. C., & Zhang, C. X. (2014). Genomic insights into the serine protease gene family and expression profile analysis in the planthopper, Nilaparvata lugens. BMC genomics, 15(1), 1-17. doi: 10.1186/1471-2164-15-507

Batta-Lona, P. G., Bucklin, A., Wiebe, P. H., Patarnello, T., & Copley, N. J. (2011). Population genetic variation of the Southern Ocean krill, Euphausia superba, in the

Western Antarctic Peninsula region based on mitochondrial single nucleotide
polymorphisms (SNPs). Deep Sea Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography,
58(13-16), 1652-1661. doi: 10.1016/j.dsr2.2010.11.017

Beckmann, H., Hering, L., Henze, M. J., Kelber, A., Stevenson, P. A., & Mayer, G.
(2015). Spectral sensitivity in Onychophora (velvet worms) revealed by
electroretinograms, phototactic behaviour and opsin gene expression. Journal of
Experimental Biology, 218(6), 915-922. doi: 10.1242/jeb.116780

Biscontin, A., Frigato, E., Sales, G., Mazzotta, G. M., Teschke, M., De Pittà, C., ... &
Bertolucci, C. (2016). The opsin repertoire of the Antarctic krill Euphausia superba.
Marine genomics, 29, 61-68. doi: 10.1016/j.margen.2016.04.010

Bortolotto, E., Bucklin, A., Mezzavilla, M., Zane, L., & Patarnello, T. (2011). Gone with
the currents: lack of genetic differentiation at the circum-continental scale in the
Antarctic krill Euphausia superba. BMC genetics, 12(1), 1-18. doi: 10.1186/1471-2156-
12-32

Buchholz, F., Watkins, J. L., Priddle, J., Morris, D. J., & Ricketts, C. (1996). Moult in
relation to some aspects of reproduction and growth in swarms of Antarctic krill,
Euphausia superba. Marine Biology, 127(2), 201-208. doi: 10.1007/BF00942104

Bushmanova, E., Antipov, D., Lapidus, A., & Prjibelski, A. D. (2019). rnaSPAdes: a de
novo transcriptome assembler and its application to RNA-Seq data. GigaScience,
8(9), giz100. doi: 10.1093/gigascience/giz100

Clark, M. S., Thorne, M. A., Toullec, J. Y., Meng, Y., Peck, L. S., & Moore, S. (2011).
Antarctic krill 454 pyrosequencing reveals chaperone and stress transcriptome. PLos
one, 6(1), e15919. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0015919

Colbourne, J. K., Pfrender, M. E., Gilbert, D., Thomas, W. K., Tucker, A., Oakley, T.
H., et al. (2011). The ecoresponsive genome of *Daphnia pulex*. Science 331, 555–
561. doi: 10.1126/science.1197761

Davidson, N. M., Hawkins, A. D., & Oshlack, A. (2017). SuperTranscripts: a data driven
reference for analysis and visualization of transcriptomes. Genome biology, 18(1), 1-
10. doi: 10.5281/zenodo.830594

De Pittà, C., Bertolucci, C., Mazzotta, G. M., Bernante, F., Rizzo, G., De Nardi, B., ...
& Costa, R. (2008). Systematic sequencing of mRNA from the Antarctic krill
(Euphausia superba) and first tissue specific transcriptional signature. BMC genomics,
9(1), 1-14. doi: 10.1186/1471-2164-9-45

De Pittà, C., Biscontin, A., Albiero, A., Sales, G., Millino, C., Mazzotta, G. M., ... &
Costa, R. (2013). The Antarctic krill Euphausia superba shows diurnal cycles of
transcription under natural conditions. PLoS One, 8(7), e68652. doi:
10.1371/journal.pone.0068652

DeLeo, D. M., & Bracken-Grissom, H. D. (2020). Illuminating the impact of diel vertical
migration on visual gene expression in deep-sea shrimp. Molecular Ecology, 29(18),
3494-3510. doi: 10.1111/mec.15570

Eriksson, B. J., Fredman, D., Steiner, G., and Schmid, A. (2013). Characterisation and
localisation of the opsin protein repertoire in the brain and retinas of a spider and an
onychophoran. BMC Evol. Biol. 13:186. doi: 10.1186/1471-2148-13-186

Futahashi, R., Kawahara-Miki, R., Kinoshita, M., Yoshitake, K., Yajima, S., Arikawa, K., et al. (2015). Extraordinary diversity of visual opsin genes in dragonflies. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 112, E1247–E1256. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1424670112

Gilbert, D. G. (2019). Longest protein, longest transcript or most expression, for accurate gene reconstruction of transcriptomes? bioRxiv, 829184. doi: 10.1101/829184

Goodall-Copestake, W. P., Perez-Espona, S., Clark, M. S., Murphy, E. J., Seear, P. J., & Tarling, G. A. (2010). Swarms of diversity at the gene cox1 in Antarctic krill. Heredity, 104(5), 513-518. doi: 10.1038/hdy.2009.188

Grabherr, M. G., Haas, B. J., Yassour, M., Levin, J. Z., Thompson, D. A., Amit, I., ... & Regev, A. (2011). Trinity: reconstructing a full-length transcriptome without a genome from RNA-Seq data. Nature biotechnology, 29(7), 644. doi: 10.1038%2Fnbt.1883

Henze, M. J., & Oakley, T. H. (2015). The dynamic evolutionary history of pancrustacean eyes and opsins. Integrative and comparative biology, 55(5), 830-842. doi: 10.1093/icb/icv100

Hering, L, Henze, M.J., Kohler, M., Kelber, A., Bleidorn, C., Leschke, M., Nickel, B., Meyer, M., Kircher, M., Sunnucks, P., Mayer, G. (2012) Opsins in onychophora (velvet worms) suggest a single origin and subsequent diversification of visual pigments in arthropods. Molecular Biology & Evolution, 29(11), 3451-3458. doi: 10.1093/molbev/mss148

Hering, L., and Mayer, G. (2014). Analysis of the opsin repertoire in the tardigrade Hypsibius dujardini provides insights into the evolution of opsin genes in Panarthropoda. Genome Biol. Evol. 6, 2380–2391. doi: 10.1093/gbe/evu193

Hofmann, E. E., & Murphy, E. J. (2004). Advection, krill, and Antarctic marine ecosystems. Antarctic Science, 16(4). doi: 10.1017/s0954102004002275

Hölzer, M., & Marz, M. (2019). De novo transcriptome assembly: A comprehensive cross-species comparison of short-read RNA-Seq assemblers. GigaScience, 8(5), giz039. doi: 10.1093/gigascience/giz039

Höring, F., Biscontin, A., Harms, L., Sales, G., Reiss, C. S., De Pittà, C., & Meyer, B. (2021). Seasonal gene expression profiling of Antarctic krill in three different latitudinal regions. Marine Genomics, 56, 100806. doi: 10.1016/j.margen.2020.100806

Jeffery, N. W. (2012). The first genome size estimates for six species of krill (Malacostraca, Euphausiidae): large genomes at the north and south poles. Polar Biology, 35(6), 959-962. doi: 10.1007/s00300-011-1137-4

Jia, L. Y., Chen, L., Keller, L., Wang, J., Xiao, J. H., & Huang, D. W. (2018). Doublesex evolution is correlated with social complexity in ants. Genome biology and evolution, 10(12), 3230-3242. doi: 10.1093/gbe/evy250

Kadri, S., Hinman, V., & Benos, P. V. (2009). HHMMiR: efficient de novo prediction of microRNAs using hierarchical hidden Markov models. BMC bioinformatics, 10(1), 1-12. doi: 10.1186/1471-2105-10-S1-S35

Khajuria, C., Buschman, L. L., Chen, M. S., Muthukrishnan, S., & Zhu, K. Y. (2010). A gut-specific chitinase gene essential for regulation of chitin content of peritrophic

matrix and growth of Ostrinia nubilalis larvae. Insect biochemistry and molecular
biology, 40(8), 621-629. doi: 10.1016/j.ibmb.2010.06.003

Li, W., & Godzik, A. (2006). Cd-hit: a fast program for clustering and comparing large
sets of protein or nucleotide sequences. Bioinformatics, 22(13), 1658-1659. doi:
10.1093/bioinformatics/btl158

Liu, J., Li, G., Chang, Z., Yu, T., Liu, B., McMullen, R., ... & Huang, X. (2016).
BinPacker: packing-based de novo transcriptome assembly from RNA-seq data. PLoS
computational biology, 12(2), e1004772. doi: 10.1371/journal.pcbi.1004772

Martins, M. J. F., Lago-Leston, A., Anjos, A., Duarte, C. M., Agusti, S., Serrão, E. A.,
& Pearson, G. A. (2015). A transcriptome resource for Antarctic krill (Euphausia
superba Dana) exposed to short-term stress. Marine genomics, 23, 45-47. doi:
10.1016/j.margen.2015.04.008

Meyer, B., Martini, P., Biscontin, A., De Pittà, C., Romualdi, C., Teschke, M., ... &
Kawaguchi, S. (2015). Pyrosequencing and de novo assembly of Antarctic krill (E
uphausia superba) transcriptome to study the adaptability of krill to climate-induced
environmental changes. Molecular ecology resources, 15(6), 1460-1471. doi:
10.1111/1755-0998.12408

Nicol, S., & Endo, Y. (1997). Krill fisheries of the world (No. 367). Food & Agriculture
Org..

Patro, R., Duggal, G., Love, M. I., Irizarry, R. A., & Kingsford, C. (2017). Salmon
provides fast and bias-aware quantification of transcript expression. Nature methods,
14(4), 417-419. doi: 10.1038/nmeth.4197

Peng, Y., Leung, H. C., Yiu, S. M., Lv, M. J., Zhu, X. G., & Chin, F. Y. (2013). IDBA-
tran: a more robust de novo de Bruijn graph assembler for transcriptomes with uneven
expression levels. Bioinformatics, 29(13), i326-i334. doi:
10.1093/bioinformatics/btt219

Risso, D., & Course, I. B. S. (2015). RNA-seq Normalization and Batch Effect
Removal.

Sales, G., Deagle, B. E., Calura, E., Martini, P., Biscontin, A., De Pittà, C., ... & Jarman,
S. (2017). KrillDB: A de novo transcriptome database for the Antarctic krill (Euphausia
superba). PLoS One, 12(2), e0171908. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0171908

Seear, P. J., Goodall-Copestake, W. P., Fleming, A. H., Rosato, E., & Tarling, G. A.
(2012). Seasonal and spatial influences on gene expression in Antarctic krill
Euphausia superba. Marine Ecology Progress Series, 467, 61-75. doi:
10.3354/meps09947

Seear, P. J., Tarling, G. A., Burns, G., Goodall-Copestake, W. P., Gaten, E., Özkaya,
Ö., & Rosato, E. (2010). Differential gene expression during the moult cycle of
Antarctic krill (Euphausia superba). BMC genomics, 11(1), 1-13. doi: 10.1186/1471-
2164-11-582

Siegel, V. (2005). Distribution and population dynamics of Euphausia superba:
summary of recent findings. Polar Biology, 29(1), 1-22. doi: 10.1007/s00300-005-
0058-5

Siegel, V. (Ed.). (2016). Biology and ecology of Antarctic krill. Cham, Switzerland:
Springer.

Simão, F. A., Waterhouse, R. M., Ioannidis, P., Kriventseva, E. V., & Zdobnov, E. M.
(2015). BUSCO: assessing genome assembly and annotation completeness with
single-copy orthologs. Bioinformatics, 31(19), 3210-3212. doi:
10.1093/bioinformatics/btv351

Suter, L., Polanowski, A. M., King, R., Romualdi, C., Sales, G., Kawaguchi, S., ... &
Deagle, B. E. (2019). Sex identification from distinctive gene expression patterns in
Antarctic krill (Euphausia superba). Polar Biology, 42(12), 2205-2217. doi:
10.1007/s00300-019-02592-3

Tarling, G. A., & Cuzin-Roudy, J. (2003). Synchronization in the molting and spawning
activity of northern krill (Meganyctiphanes norvegica) and its effect on recruitment.
Limnology and Oceanography, 48(5), 2020-2033. doi: 10.4319/lo.2003.48.5.2020

Valentine, J. W., & Ayala, F. J. (1976). Genetic variability in krill. Proceedings of the
National Academy of Sciences, 73(2), 658-660. doi: 10.1073/pnas.73.2.658.

Zane, L., Ostellari, L., Maccatrozzo, L., Bargelloni, L., Battaglia, B., & Patarnello, T.
(1998). Molecular evidence for genetic subdivision of Antarctic krill (Euphausia
superba Dana) populations. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B:
Biological Sciences, 265(1413), 2387-2391. doi: 10.1098/rspb.1998.0588

Zhao, Q. Y., Wang, Y., Kong, Y. M., Luo, D., Li, X., & Hao, P. (2011, December).
Optimizing de novo transcriptome assembly from short-read RNA-Seq data: a
comparative study. In BMC bioinformatics (Vol. 12, No. 14, pp. 1-12). BioMed Central.
doi: 10.1186/1471-2105-12-S14-S2

# Data Accessibility

659 Data used for the krill transcriptome reconstruction and for the generation of the
660 Expression Atlas was downloaded from the NCBI Short Read Archive, under
661 accessions: PRJEB30084, PRJNA362526, PRJEB30084, PRJNA362526 and
662 PRJNA640244.

# Author Contributions

665 IU, CDP, BM and GS conceived the study. IU and DC performed the analyses. IU, AB,
666 BM and GS wrote the manuscript. CB, CR and CDP advised on data analysis and
667 reviewed the text.

 Tables and Figures

**FIGURE 1.** Workflow of the assembly process, annotation, database re-design and
downstream analyses (**a**) with transcriptome quality assessment results (**b**, **c**, **d**).
Panel **b** shows the results of the first assembly filtering in terms of total number of
transcripts. Quality measures computed at each assembly step are reported in panel
**b**, from the five de novo assembly algorithms (top), after the first filtering process
(bottom) and finally comparing the quality of the EvidentialGene meta-assembly and
the final krill transcriptome after the redundancy filter (right). BUSCO assessment
results (**d**) on EvidentialGene transcriptome (left) and krill transcriptome after last filter
(right): the EvidentialGene transcriptome was characterized by 95.3% Complete
sequences (50.2% single-copy, 45.1% duplicated), 0.6% Fragmented and 4.1%
Missing sequences. The same analysis on the final krill transcriptome reconstruction
produced 93.2% Complete transcripts (49.8% Single-copy, 43.4% Duplicated), 0.6%
Fragmented and 6.2% Missing sequences.

**FIGURE 2.** Phylogenetic relationships of *Euphausia superba* opsins shown as circular cladogram. Colored dots indicate krill opsins: red, previously cloned opsins; green, novel identified opsins. The spectral sensitivities of rhabdomeric opsin clades were inferred from the curated invertebrate-only opsin dataset proposed by DeLeo & Bracken-Grissom, 2020. Represented opsin classes: LWS, long-wavelenght-sensitive; LSM, long/middle-wavelenght-sensitive; MWS, middle-wavelenght-sensitive; SWS/UV, short/UV-wavelenght-sensitive; ONY, onychopsins; MEL, melanopsins; PER, peropsin; ART, arthropsin. Rectangular phylogram is reported in **Figure S1**.

**TABLE 1.** List of contrast computed with total number of differentially expressed genes and numbers of up- and downregulated genes.

| Contrast | # Total | # Upregulated | # Downregulated |
|---|---|---|---|
| Summer vs. Winter | 1195 | 1078 | 117 |
| Male vs. Female | 14 | 7 | 7 |
| Male/Summer vs. Female/Winter | 12 | 6 | 6 |
| South Georgia vs. Lazarev Sea | 79 | 26 | 53 |
| South Georgia vs. Bransfield Strait-South Orkney | 28 | 6 | 22 |
| Lazarev Sea vs. Bransfield Strait-South Orkney | 17 | 13 | 4 |
| South Georgia/Male vs. Bransfield Strait-South Orkney/Female | 10 | 6 | 4 |
| South Georgia/Male vs. Lazarev Sea/Male | 19 | 8 | 11 |
| South Georgia/Summer vs. Bransfield Strait-South Orkney/Winter | 75 | 66 | 9 |
| Lazarev Sea/Summer vs. Bransfield Strait-South Orkney/Winter | 359 | 173 | 186 |
| South Georgia/Summer vs. Lazarev Sea/Summer | 188 | 150 | 38 |
| Lazarev Sea/Male vs. Bransfield Strait-South Orkney/Female | 20 | 10 | 10 |

**FIGURE 3.** New search engine of KrillDB[2]: the homepage sections **(a)** with an example
of the results of a fulltext-search **(b)**, of a blast-search **(d)** and the tables listing
differentially expressed genes related to the contrast selected **(c)**.

**FIGURE 4.** Table summarizing results of a GO term search: an example of a GO term
associated to genes matching different protein domains **(a)** and a GO term associated
to genes matching a known mature microRNA **(b)**.

**FIGURE 5.** Additional sections in gene and transcript pages. The new sections in the
gene-centric page show a table listing the orthologous sequences with their belonging
species and the identity score, a visualization of the gene structure as estimated by
Lace software and a boxplot coming from Expression Atlas analyses **(a)**. Both
Orthology and Expression section are integrated also in the transcript-centric page.
When a transcript was annotated as a putative microRNA, a "Predicted Hairpin"
section displays a visualization of the hairpin predicted secondary structure and tables
showing the alignment length, the HHMMiR score and the list of mature microRNA
matching **(b)**.