vsRNAfinder: a novel method for identifying high-confidence viral small RNAs

from small RNA-Seq data

Zena Cai[1,#], Ping Fu[1,#], Ye Qiu[1], Aiping Wu[2,3], Gaihua Zhang[4], Yirong Wang[1], Taijiao Jiang[5],

Xing-Yi Ge[1], Haizhen Zhu[1], Yousong Peng[1,*]

[1]Bioinformatics Center, College of Biology, Hunan Provincial Key Laboratory of Medical

Virology, Hunan University, Changsha 410082, China

[2]Institute of Systems Medicine, Chinese Academy of Medical Sciences & Peking Union Medical

College, Beijing, China

[3]Suzhou Institute of Systems Medicine, Suzhou, China

[4] The National and Local Joint Engineering Laboratory of Animal Peptide Drug Development,

College of Life Sciences, Hunan Normal University, Changsha 410081, China

[5] Guangzhou Laboratory, Guangzhou, China

# Contributed equally;

*To whom correspondence should be addressed.

Abstract

Virus-encoded small RNAs (vsRNA) have been reported to play an important role in

viral infection. Unfortunately, there is still a lack of an effective method for vsRNA

identification. Herein, we presented vsRNAfinder, a de novo method for identifying

high-confidence vsRNAs from small RNA-Seq (sRNA-Seq) data based on peak

calling   and   Poisson   distribution   and   is   public   available   at

https://github.com/ZenaCai/vsRNAfinder. vsRNAfinder outperformed two widely-used

methods namely miRDeep2 and ShortStack in identifying viral miRNAs with a significantly improved sensitivity. It can also be used to identify sRNAs in animals and plants with similar performance to miRDeep2 and ShortStack. The study would greatly facilitate effective identification of vsRNAs.

Introduction

Small RNAs (sRNAs) are a kind of regulatory RNAs in cellular processes[1]. They are typically less than 200 nucleotides (nt) in length[1]. The sRNAs can be mainly divided into three classes including microRNA (miRNA) with a length of 18-24 nt, small interfering RNA (siRNA) with a length of 21-23 nt and piwi-interacting RNA (piRNA) with a length of 24-31 nt based on the mechanism of biogenesis and function[2]. By the mechanism of biogenesis, the miRNAs are derived from single-stranded RNA precursors with a hairpin structure which are firstly processed by Drosha in the nucleus and then processed by Dicer after being transported to the cytoplasm; the siRNAs are derived from double-stranded RNA precursors in the cytoplasm and are processed by Dicer; the piRNAs are derived from the fragmentation of single-stranded RNA precursors via a Dicer-independent mechanism[3-5]. By the mechanism of function, although all three kinds of sRNAs can target the mRNAs to regulate their expressions by incorporating sRNAs into the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC), their function mechanisms differ a lot: with the help of AGO protein, the miRNAs can repress mRNAs translation by binding imperfectly to their mRNA targets, while the siRNAs can degrade mRNAs by binding

perfectly to their mRNA targets; the piRNAs can degrade mRNAs by binding

perfectly their mRNA targets with the help of PIWI protein[5, 6]. The sRNAs play a

fundamental role in the maintenance of normal physiology and serve as potential

biomarkers for early diagnosis and therapeutic targets for a wide spectrum of diseases,

particularly the cancer[1]. For example, miR-130 can down-regulate the expression of

miRNA-221 and miRNA-222 by targeting the MET, thus reducing TNF-related

apoptosis-induced ligand (TRAIL) resistance in non-small cell lung cancer[7].

Numerous methods have been developed to identify sRNAs from sRNA-Seq data.

They can be mainly divided into two kinds. The first kind of method is to identify

sRNAs based on a known sRNA library, such as the sRNAbench[8], Manatee[9] and

sRNAnalyzer[10]. This kind of method can be used for accurate quantification of

known sRNA. However, they may not be suitable for organisms with only a few

known sRNAs such as viruses. The other kind of method is to identify sRNAs *de*

novo by firstly finding the precursor of sRNAs from assembly of reads and then

detecting the mature sRNA, such as miRDeep2[11] and ShortStack[12]. Most

methods mentioned above have been mainly used in the identification of sRNAs in

animals and plants. The viruses have much smaller genomes and stronger coding

ability compared to animals and plants. Thus, the distribution of vsRNAs is much

denser than that of other organisms, which may lead to assembly of adjacent vsRNAs

with overlaps into long contigs and missed detection of many vsRNAs by current

methods.

Herein, we presented vsRNAfinder, a *de novo* method for the identification of

high-confidence vsRNAs from sRNA-Seq data based on peak calling and Poisson

distribution. The method can also be used in the identification of sRNAs in animals

and plants. The work would greatly facilitate the identification of vsRNAs.

Materials and methods

Data collection

To evaluate the performance of computational methods in identifying viral miRNAs, a

total of 196 known miRNAs in nine viruses were obtained from the miRBase

database (Release 22.1, http://mirbase.org/) (Table S1). The viral-infection-related

sRNA-Seq data of these viruses were obtained from the NCBI GEO[13] and SRA[14]

databases. Only the sRNA-Seq data with the study type of "Expression profiling by

high throughput sequencing" or "Non-coding RNA profiling by high throughput

sequencing" in GEO database, and those with the strategy of "RNASeq" or "other" in

SRA database were kept. Then, the sRNA-Seq data were further filtered manually.

Only those of viral infections with the genome sequence of the virus used in the

infection available were kept for further analysis. A total of 14 sRNA-Seq datasets for

nine viruses were used in the study (Table S1).

To evaluate the performance of computational methods in identifying viral siRNAs

and piRNAs, the experimentally-verified siRNAs in Sugarcane mosaic virus and

piRNAs in Dengue viruses were collected from the studies of Xia et al.[15] and Wang

et al.[16], respectively. The sRNA-Seq datasets of these two viruses were obtained

from the NCBI GEO and SRA database as mentioned above (Table S2).

To demonstrate the usage of our method in the identification of sRNAs from other

organisms, the known miRNAs in several widely-studied organisms including *Homo*

sapiens, *Mus musculus*, *Drosophila melanogaster*, *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Oryza*

sativa were obtained from the database of miRBase. Some representative sRNA-Seq

datasets of these organisms were also obtained from NCBI GEO and SRA databases

(Table S3).

The vsRNAfinder workflow

The vsRNAfinder workflow included four modules: Preprocessing, Identification,

Filtering and annotation, and Quantification, which were described as follows.

Preprocessing module. Firstly, the adapter sequences are trimmed from the raw reads

with cutadapt (version 2.6, parameter: '-m 15')[17] (Figure 1). Then, the clean reads

are mapped to the viral genome directly (the default), or the clean reads are firstly

mapped to the host genome and then the unmapped reads are mapped to the viral

genome, with bowtie (version 1.3.0, parameter: '-v 0 -m 2')[18]. The resulted SAM

files are converted to BAM files which are sorted by samtools (version 1.9)[19]. The

sorted BAM files are further converted to BED files by bedtools (version 2.29.2)[20].

Identification module. The coverage of mapped reads on the viral genome is

calculated by bedtools and then smoothed with the window-size of 11 nt. The peaks of

the smoothed curve are identified using the function of *findPeaks* ("minpeakheight =

5") in the R package pracma (version 2.3.3)[21]. The start and end site of the

candidate sRNA is restricted to the upstream and downstream 30 nt of the peak,

respectively. Then, the number of reads starting at each position in the upstream region of the peak, and that ending at each position in the downstream of the peak are calculated. The position with the highest number of reads in the upstream and that in the downstream are considered as the start and end site of the candidate sRNA, respectively.

Filtering and annotation module. To obtain the high-confidence sRNAs, the abundances of the start and end sites (defined as boundary sites) of the candidate sRNA are normalized using RPM (Reads Per Million) which is calculated by dividing the number of reads starting at the start site or ending at the end site by the total number of clean reads, and then multiplied by 10^6. Only the candidate sRNAs with both of the boundary sites having at least 5 RPM and with lengths ranging from 15 to 34 nt are retained for further analysis.

Then, the Poisson distribution is used to evaluate the statistical significance of candidate sRNAs. Poisson distribution is a discrete probability distribution that expresses the probability of a given number of events occurring in a fixed interval of time, which is widely applied in NGS data analysis[22]. We hypothesized that the reads should be enriched in the region where the sRNA is expressed compared to the background region. Thus, the significance of candidate sRNAs could be analyzed by the Poisson distribution of which the parameter λ can be calculated as the average coverage of the mapped reads on the background region. For each candidate sRNA, the background region is defined as extending the upstream and downstream 10 nt of the candidate sRNA. Therefore, the λ is local and is calculated as follows:

$$\lambda = \frac{C}{L}$$

133 where C is the sum of the coverage of mapped reads on each position of the

134 background region, and L is the length of the background region.

135 Based on the local λ, for a given position X in the candidate sRNA with k mapped

136 reads covering the position, the p-value of the position is calculated as follows:

$$P_\lambda (X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k}{k! * e^{-\lambda}}$$

The p-value of the candidate sRNA is calculated as the 80% quantile of p-values in all

positions of the candidate sRNA. The candidate sRNAs with a p-value smaller than

0.05 are considered as statistically significant and highly confident.

The miRNAs are then annotated from the high-confidence sRNAs in two steps. Firstly,

the hypothesized precursor of miRNA (pre-miRNA) is obtained. Since the miRNA

may be located in either 5'-arm or 3'-arm of the hypothesized pre-miRNA, both cases

are considered. If the miRNA is supposed to be in the 5'-arm of the hypothesized

pre-miRNA, the start and end positions of hypothesized pre-miRNAs are determined

as follows according to Hackenberg et al.'s study[23]:

$$start_{pre-miRNA} = start_{sRNA} - step * i$$

$$end_{pre-miRNA} = start_{sRNA} + 2 * L_{sRNA} - 1 + L_{loop} + step * i$$

146 otherwise,

$$start_{pre-miRNA} = start_{sRNA} - (L_{loop} + L_{sRNA} + step * i)$$

$$end_{pre-miRNA} = end_{sRNA} + step * i$$

where $start_{sRNA}$ and end_{sRNA} refer to the start and end position of the sRNA,

respectively; L_{sRNA} refers to the length of sRNA; L_{loop} refers to the length of loop and

is set to be 15; *step* and *i* are set to be 5 and 8 for animals and viruses, 7 and 10 for

plants as plant pre-miRNA sequences are longer than those of animals and viruses,

according to Hackenberg et al.'s study[23].

Then, the secondary structure of the hypothesized pre-miRNA is predicted by

RNAfold (version 2.4.18)[24] with default parameters. The hypothesized pre-miRNA

which has the minimum free energy of less than -25 kcal/mol, and in which at least

70% of positions in the corresponding sRNA form base pairs, is considered to be

pre-miRNA having the hairpin structure, and is further processed into the mature

miRNA.

Quantification module. The abundances of sRNAs are normalized using RPM. The

total number of reads mapping to the sRNA is calculated as the sum of reads that

overlap with the sRNA by 80% and those that are utilized to estimate boundary sites

of the sRNA. The RPM of each sRNA is calculated by dividing the total number of

reads mapping to the sRNA by the total number of clean reads in the sample, and then

multiplied by 10^6.

Prediction of sRNAs with miRDeep2 and ShortStack

The miRDeep2 (version 0.1.2, https://github.com/rajewsky-lab/mirdeep2)[11] and

ShortStack (version 3.8.5, https://github.com/MikeAxtell/ShortStack)[12] were used

for prediction of sRNAs with default parameters.

Evaluating the performance of computational methods in identifying sRNAs

The known sRNAs (mentioned in Data collection) including miRNAs, siRNAs and

piRNAs were used to evaluate the performance of computational methods in

identifying sRNAs. For a given organism, the identified sRNAs whose sequences

match perfectly to those of known sRNAs are considered as true positives, otherwise

false positives; the known sRNAs which are missed by the method are considered as

false negatives. Three metrics including Precision, Recall and F1-score were used to

evaluate the performance of computational methods in identifying sRNAs, which are

calculated as follows:

$$Precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

$$Recall = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

$$F1 - score = \frac{2 * Precision * Recall}{Precision + Recall}$$

while TP is the number of true positives, FP is the number of false positives, FN is the

number of false negatives.

Statistical analysis

The Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used to compare the F1-score between the

vsRNAfinder and the other methods. A p-value less than 0.05 was considered as

statistically significant. All statistical analyses were conducted in Python (version

3.8).

Results

Overview of vsRNAfinder

The vsRNAfinder consisted of four modules including Preprocessing, Identification,

Filtering and annotation, and Quantification (Figure 1). The Preprocessing module

processed raw reads to clean reads by trimming adapters. Then, the clean reads were

firstly mapped to the host genome and then the unmapped reads were mapped to the

viral genome, or the clean reads were mapped to the viral genome directly (the default)

since the host reference genome was not always available.

Figure 1. Overview of vsRNAfinder which consisted of four modules including

Preprocessing, Identification, Filtering and annotation, and Quantification. Please see

Materials and methods for details.

The Identification module identified the candidate sRNAs with four steps: firstly, the

coverage of mapped reads across the viral genome was calculated; secondly, the

coverage was smoothed to reduce the noise of the peak detection and enhance the

peak signal; thirdly, the peak was detected which had a higher expression than its

adjacent sites; finally, the start and end sites of the candidate sRNA were determined

at the upstream and downstream of the peak identified, respectively (see Materials

and methods).

The Filtering and annotation module was designed for obtaining high-confidence

sRNAs and annotating miRNAs. The candidate sRNAs identified above were firstly

filtered by the abundance of the start and end sites (defined as boundary sites) of

sRNAs. Only the candidate sRNAs with both boundary sites having at least 5 RPM

were kept. Then, they were further filtered by the length. Only the candidate sRNAs

with 15-34 nt were kept which covered the length of most miRNAs, siRNAs and

piRNAs[2]. Then, the statistical significance of candidate sRNAs was obtained based

on the Poisson distribution. The remaining candidate sRNAs with a p-value smaller

than 0.05 were considered as statistically significant and highly confident. Finally, the

RNAfold[24] was used to annotate miRNAs from the high-confidence sRNAs (see

Materials and methods).

The Quantification module quantified the abundance of sRNAs by RPM. The total

number of reads mapping to the sRNA was calculated as the sum of reads that

overlapped with the sRNA by 80% and those that were utilized to estimate boundary

sites of the sRNA (see Materials and methods).

Performance analysis of vsRNAfinder in identifying viral miRNAs

To evaluate the performance of vsRNAfinder in identifying vsRNAs, vsRNAfinder

was used to identify viral miRNAs since the miRNAs are the most studied vsRNAs.

Nine viruses which had a range of 6-44 miRNAs reported in miRBase were used in

the evaluation (Figure 2). For comparison, two *de novo* methods, namely the

miRDeep2[11] and ShortStack[12] which are widely used in identifying sRNAs, were

selected in identifying viral miRNAs in nine viruses.

Figure 2. Performance analysis of vsRNAfinder, miRDeep2 and ShortStack in identifying viral miRNAs. Comparison of Recall, Precision and F1-score of vsRNAfinder with miRDeep2 and ShortStack in identifying viral miRNAs in viruses of Human gammaherpesvirus 4 (HHV-4), Murid gammaherpesvirus 4 (MuHV-4), Murid betaherpesvirus 1 (MuHV-1), Human betaherpesvirus 5 (HHV-5), Gallid alphaherpesvirus 2 (GaHV-2), Suid alphaherpesvirus 1 (PRV), Bovine alphaherpesvirus 1 (BoHV-1), Bovine leukemia virus (BLV) and Saimiriine gammaherpesvirus 2 (SaHV-2). The numbers in parentheses under the viral name referred to the number of miRNAs reported in miRBase.

As shown in Figure 2, vsRNAfinder achieved the highest Recall ranging from 0.2 to

0.8 in all viruses, followed by miRDeep2 (0-0.64) and ShortStack (0-0.34). Taking the

MuHV-4 as an example, vsRNAfinder had a Recall of 0.54, while miRDeep2 and

ShortStack had a Recall of 0.21 and 0.07, respectively. In terms of Precision, the

ShortStack performed best with Precision higher than 0.5 in all viruses except three

viruses for which no miRNAs were identified by ShortStack. The vsRNAfinder had

Precisions ranging from 0.25-0.8 which were similar to those of miRDeep2. Overall,

when considering both the Recall and Precision using the F1-score, the vsRNAfinder

achieved the best F1-scores in all viruses except HHV-4 and BoHV-1. It had a median

F1-score of 0.41 which was significantly larger than that of miRDeep2 (0.26, p-value

= 0.0098) and ShortStack (0.13, p-value = 0.0039).

When comparing the number of viral miRNAs identified by three methods, we found

that most viral miRNAs identified by miRDeep2 and ShortStack were also identified

by vsRNAfinder (Table S4). For example, 19 and 3 viral miRNAs were identified by

miRDeep2 and ShortStack, respectively, in the MuHV-4, among which 14 and 3 were

also identified by vsRNAfinder. Moreover, vsRNAfinder identified more novel viral

miRNAs than the other two methods in most viruses (Table S4).

Identification of other classes of sRNAs with vsRNAfinder

Besides viral miRNAs, viruses can also express siRNAs and piRNAs during viral

infections[15, 16]. Although vsRNAfinder could not annotate siRNAs and piRNAs

from vsRNAs, it could identify them from sRNA-Seq data. To evaluate the

performance of vsRNAfinder in the identification of other vsRNA classes, 11

experimentally-verified siRNAs in Sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV)[15] and 6

experimentally-verified piRNAs in Dengue virus (DENV)[16] were collected from

literature. All SCMV siRNAs and four of six DENV piRNAs were identified correctly

by vsRNAfinder (Table S5). The remaining two DENV piRNAs were missed by

vsRNAfinder due to low abundance. For comparison, ShortStack only identified

correctly one SCMV siRNA and two DENV piRNAs (Table S5), while miRDeep2

can only be used to identify the miRNA.

Performance analysis of vsRNAfinder in identifying sRNAs in plants and animals

To investigate the ability of vsRNAfinder in identifying sRNAs in other organisms

besides viruses, the vsRNAfinder was used to identify sRNAs in *Homo sapiens* and

four model organisms including *Mus musculus*, *Drosophila melanogaster*,

Arabidopsis thaliana and *Oryza sativa*. The ability of vsRNAfinder was evaluated

based on its performance in identifying miRNAs in these organisms. For comparison,

miRDeep2 and ShortStack were also used to identify miRNAs in these organisms. As

shown in Table 1, vsRNAfinder had Recalls ranging from 0.06 to 0.13 in humans and

two animals which were a little lower than those of miRDeep2, while it had Recalls of

0.05 to 0.11 in two plants which were a little higher than those of miRDeep2. When

compared to ShortStack, vsRNAfinder consistently had higher Recalls in five

organisms. In terms of Precision, the ShortStack had the highest Precision among the

three methods in five organisms. Although the Precision of vsRNAfinder was lower

than that of ShortStack, it was consistently higher than that of miRDeep2 in five

organisms. Overall, in terms of F1-score which combined both the Recall and

Precision, the vsRNAfinder had an average F1-score of 0.122 which was similar to

that of miRDeep2 (0.116) and was slightly higher than that of ShortStack (0.098).

Table 1. Performance comparison of three computational methods in identifying

miRNAs in five organisms. Rec, Recall; Prec, Precision; F1, F1-score.

Organism	Method	Num of detected miRNA	Num of miRNAs in miRBase	Overlap of miRNA detected and those in miRBase	Rec	Prec	F1
Homo sapiens	vsRNAfinder	479		157	0.06	0.33	0.1
	miRDeep2	924	2632	213	0.08	0.23	0.12
	ShortStack	143		101	0.04	0.71	0.07
Mus musculus	vsRNAfinder	341		145	0.07	0.43	0.13
	miRDeep2	524	1963	177	0.09	0.34	0.14
	ShortStack	108		72	0.04	0.67	0.07
Drosophila melanogaster	vsRNAfinder	100		61	0.13	0.61	0.21
	miRDeep2	125	468	69	0.15	0.55	0.23
	ShortStack	51		37	0.08	0.73	0.14
Arabidopsis thaliana	vsRNAfinder	433		17	0.05	0.04	0.04
	miRDeep2	530	350	12	0.03	0.02	0.03
	ShortStack	14		9	0.03	0.64	0.05
Oryza sativa	vsRNAfinder	403		63	0.11	0.16	0.13
	miRDeep2	316	577	28	0.05	0.09	0.06
	ShortStack	116		55	0.1	0.47	0.16

Discussion

Numerous methods have been developed to identify sRNAs from sRNA-Seq data.

However, there is still a lack of an effective method for sRNA identification in viruses.

The *de novo* methods such as miRDeep2 and ShortStack identified sRNAs based on

reads assembly, which may merge reads from multiple adjacent sRNAs with overlaps.

This became worse in viruses on whose genome the sRNAs were more densely

distributed than those in other organisms. Hence, many vsRNAs may be missed by

these methods. The vsRNAfinder presented in the study is also a *de novo* method and

outperformed miRDeep2 and ShortStack in capturing viral miRNAs with improved

Recalls. This may be explained by the following two reasons. Firstly, smoothing the

coverage of mapped reads on the viral genome before the peak calling could reduce

the noise of the peak detection and enhance the peak signal. Secondly, filtering

sRNAs by abundance and evaluating the statistical significance of vsRNAs based on

the Poisson distribution could help identify high-confidence vsRNAs. Therefore, it is

suggested to put vsRNAfinder on priority in the identification of vsRNAs.

Most methods have been developed for the identification of specific sRNA class such

as miRNA, or the identification of sRNAs in a specific organism such as humans[11,

23]. Compared to previous methods, vsRNAfinder could be used to identify multiple

classes of sRNAs including miRNA, piRNA and siRNA. Besides viruses,

vsRNAfinder also achieved similar performances to current methods in the

identification of sRNAs across several animal and plant organisms. This suggested

that vsRNAfinder could be taken as a universal method for the identification of

sRNAs, especially for the vsRNAs.

There are some limitations to the study. Firstly, only miRNAs were annotated in

vsRNAfinder as there were few effective methods of annotating other vsRNA types

such as piRNA and siRNA. For example, viral piRNAs were reported to lack the characteristic ping-pong signature that is common in piRNAs of other organisms, which makes it difficult to distinguish between viral piRNA and siRNA[25, 26]. More computational methods are needed to annotate vsRNAs. Secondly, the reads that mapped to more than two locations of the genome were excluded to reduce false positives in vsRNAfinder, which may lower the abundance of vsRNAs. Fortunately, only 0.007% of reads were mapped to more than two locations in the viral genomes as the viral genomes generally have a low level of sequence repeating.

Conclusion

Overall, this study developed a state-of-the-art method named vsRNAfinder which can not only be used for identifying high-confidence sRNAs in viruses with better performances than current methods, but also be used for sRNA identification in plants and animals.

Availability of data and materials

All data used in the study are available in supplementary materials. The vsRNAfinder is available at https://github.com/ZenaCai/vsRNAfinder.

Authors' contributions

Zena Cai and Ping Fu contributed equally to this work. Zena Cai developed the method, analyzed the data and wrote the draft; Ping Fu analyzed the data; Ye Qiu,

Aiping Wu, Gaihua Zhang, Yirong Wang, Taijiao Jiang, Xing-Yi Ge, Haizhen Zhu and

Yousong Peng supervised the project, reviewed and revised the manuscript; Yousong

Peng designed the project, wrote and revised the manuscript.

Funding

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China

(32170651), Hunan Provincial Natural Science Foundation of China (2020JJ3006),

and Double-First Class Construction Funds of Hunan university (521119400156).

Acknowledgements

We thank people in the PengLab for helpful discussions on the manuscript.

References

1. Romano G, Veneziano D, Acunzo M et al. Small non-coding RNA and cancer,
Carcinogenesis 2017;38:485-491.
2. Liu C, Li F, Sun Y et al. Virus-derived small RNAs in the penaeid shrimp
Fenneropenaeus chinensis during acute infection of the DNA virus WSSV, Sci Rep
2016;6:28678.
3. Wahid F, Shehzad A, Khan T et al. MicroRNAs: synthesis, mechanism, function,
and recent clinical trials, Biochim Biophys Acta 2010;1803:1231-1243.
4. Wilson RC, Doudna JA. Molecular mechanisms of RNA interference, Annu Rev
Biophys 2013;42:217-239.
5. Neeb ZT, Zahler AM. An expanding world of small RNAs, Dev Cell
2014;28:111-112.
6. Jeang KT. RNAi in the regulation of mammalian viral infections, BMC Biol
2012;10:58.
7. Acunzo M, Visone R, Romano G et al. miR-130a targets MET and induces
TRAIL-sensitivity in NSCLC by downregulating miR-221 and 222, Oncogene
2012;31:634-642.
8. Aparicio-Puerta E, Lebrón R, Rueda A et al. sRNAbench and sRNAtoolbox 2019:

intuitive fast small RNA profiling and differential expression, Nucleic Acids Res 2019;47:W530-w535.

9. Handzlik JE, Tastsoglou S, Vlachos IS et al. Manatee: detection and quantification of small non-coding RNAs from next-generation sequencing data, Sci Rep 2020;10:705.

10. Wu X, Kim TK, Baxter D et al. sRNAnalyzer-a flexible and customizable small RNA sequencing data analysis pipeline, Nucleic Acids Res 2017;45:12140-12151.

11. Friedländer MR, Mackowiak SD, Li N et al. miRDeep2 accurately identifies known and hundreds of novel microRNA genes in seven animal clades, Nucleic Acids Res 2012;40:37-52.

12. Shahid S, Axtell MJ. Identification and annotation of small RNA genes using ShortStack, Methods 2014;67:20-27.

13. Barrett T, Wilhite SE, Ledoux P et al. NCBI GEO: archive for functional genomics data sets--update, Nucleic Acids Res 2013;41:D991-995.

14. Kodama Y, Shumway M, Leinonen R. The Sequence Read Archive: explosive growth of sequencing data, Nucleic Acids Res 2012;40:D54-56.

15. Xia Z, Peng J, Li Y et al. Characterization of small interfering RNAs derived from Sugarcane mosaic virus in infected maize plants by deep sequencing, PLoS One 2014;9:e97013.

16. Wang Y, Jin B, Liu P et al. piRNA Profiling of Dengue Virus Type 2-Infected Asian Tiger Mosquito and Midgut Tissues, Viruses 2018;10.

17. Martin M. Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput sequencing reads, 2011 2011;17:3 %J EMBnet.journal.

18. Langmead B, Trapnell C, Pop M et al. Ultrafast and memory-efficient alignment of short DNA sequences to the human genome, Genome Biol 2009;10:R25.

19. Danecek P, Bonfield JK, Liddle J et al. Twelve years of SAMtools and BCFtools, Gigascience 2021;10.

20. Quinlan AR, Hall IM. BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing genomic features, Bioinformatics 2010;26:841-842.

21. Borchers HW. pracma: Practical Numerical Math Functions 2022.

22. Conesa A, Madrigal P, Tarazona S et al. A survey of best practices for RNA-seq data analysis, Genome Biol 2016;17:13.

23. Hackenberg M, Rodríguez-Ezpeleta N, Aransay AM. miRanalyzer: an update on the detection and analysis of microRNAs in high-throughput sequencing experiments, Nucleic Acids Res 2011;39:W132-138.

24. Lorenz R, Bernhart SH, Höner Zu Siederdissen C et al. ViennaRNA Package 2.0, Algorithms Mol Biol 2011;6:26.

25. Varjak M, Donald CL, Mottram TJ et al. Characterization of the Zika virus induced small RNA response in Aedes aegypti cells, PLoS Negl Trop Dis 2017;11:e0006010.

26. Öhlund P, Hayer J, Hesson JC et al. Small RNA Response to Infection of the Insect-Specific Lammi Virus and Hanko Virus in an Aedes albopictus Cell Line, Viruses 2021;13.