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Archivio istituzionale della ricerca

Mitochondrially mediated RNA interference, a retrograde signaling system affecting nuclear gene expression

This is the final peer-reviewed author's accepted manuscript (postprint) of the following publication:

Published Version:

Plazzi F., Le Cras Y., Formaggioni A., Passamonti M. (2023). Mitochondrially mediated RNA interference, a retrograde signaling system affecting nuclear gene expression. *HEREDITY*, 2023, 1-6 [10.1038/s41437-023-00650-5].

Availability:

This version is available at: <https://hdl.handle.net/11585/952489> since: 2024-05-21

Published:

DOI: <http://doi.org/10.1038/s41437-023-00650-5>

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1 Mitochondrially-mediated RNA interference, a retrograde signaling
2 system affecting nuclear gene expression

3

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12

13 Word count for main text (excluding references, tables and figures):

14 3,683

15

16 Abstract

17 Several functional classes of short noncoding RNAs are
18 involved in manifold regulatory processes in eukaryotes, including,
19 among the best characterized, miRNAs. One of the most intriguing
20 regulatory networks in the eukaryotic cell is the mito-nuclear
21 crosstalk: recently, miRNA-like elements of mitochondrial origin,
22 called smithRNAs, were detected in a bivalve species, *Ruditapes*
23 *philippinarum*. These RNA types originate in the organelle, but were
24 shown *in vivo* to regulate nuclear genes. Since miRNA genes evolve
25 easily *de novo* with respect to protein coding genes, in the present
26 work we estimate the probability with which a newly arisen smithRNA
27 finds a suitable target in the nuclear transcriptome. Simulations with
28 transcriptomes of twelve bivalve species suggest that this probability
29 is not species-specific and high: one in a hundred million (1×10^{-8}) if
30 five mismatch between the smithRNA and the 3' mRNA are allowed,
31 yet many more are allowed in animals. We propose that novel
32 smithRNAs may easily evolve as exaptations of the pre-existing
33 mitochondrial genome architecture, where suitable secondary
34 structures are common and constitutive. In turn, the ability of evolving
35 novel smithRNAs may have played a pivotal role in mito-nuclear
36 interactions during animal evolution, including the intriguing
37 possibility of acting as speciation triggers.

38 RNA-silencing pathways

39 Beside well-known ribosomal, messenger, and transfer RNAs,
40 many short and long RNA type are known from the cell cytoplasm.
41 Among short noncoding RNAs (sncRNAs), small interfering RNAs
42 and microRNAs play a pivotal role in the regulation of eukaryotic
43 cytoplasmic translation, and involve a DICER-related protein and an
44 Argonaute-related protein (Shabalina and Koonin 2008; Ghildiyal and
45 Zamore 2009; Auyeung et al. 2013; Fang and Bartel 2015;
46 Michlewski and Cáceres 2019). DICER proteins are required to
47 process the immature RNA transcript to its functional form (Bernstein
48 et al. 2001; Bartel 2018), while Argonaute proteins load the mature
49 sncRNA and take part in the repression of the target transcripts
50 (Bartel 2009; O'Brien et al. 2018).

51 Primary small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) are generally
52 produced from exogenous double stranded RNAs; conversely,
53 primary microRNAs (miRNAs) are transcribed from specific genomic
54 loci (for instance, Ghildiyal et al. 2008; O'Brien et al. 2018; and
55 references therein). However, this distinction is blurred, since siRNAs
56 have been documented arising from selfish elements integrated in
57 the genome (Yang and Kazazian Jr 2006; Chen et al. 2012), hairpins
58 or endogenous double stranded RNAs (Czech et al. 2008;
59 Kawamura et al. 2008; Okamura et al. 2008; Tam et al. 2008;

60 Watanabe et al. 2008; Ghildiyal and Zamore 2009). Moreover,
61 siRNAs involve a complete base pairing with the target mRNA,
62 whereas miRNAs may show more flexible complementarity to their
63 targets. This is the case of metazoans, where a short sequence at
64 the 5' of the mature miRNA, called the "seed", is crucial in the
65 interaction with mRNAs (Shabalina and Koonin 2008; Ghildiyal and
66 Zamore 2009; Bofill-De Ros et al. 2020).

67 Pathways for RNA interference (RNAi) have deep eukaryotic
68 roots (Shabalina and Koonin 2008). The ancestral forms of RNAi
69 most likely worked as defense mechanisms against viruses and
70 transposons (Li and Ding 2005; Matzke and Birchler 2005). However,
71 alternative hypotheses have been put forward. RNA-mediated gene
72 silencing and suppression of exogenous or selfish elements may
73 have been an exaptation after the evolution of an RNA machinery
74 used for centromere assembly and proper formation of telomeres
75 during eukaryogenesis (Cavalier-Smith 2010). Alternatively, a
76 qualitative system drift has been proposed for RNAi, starting from the
77 prokaryotic antisense RNA gene regulation mechanism (Torri et al.
78 2022).

79 It is commonly accepted that the last eukaryotic common
80 ancestor possessed a proto-RNAi mechanism (Cerutti and Casas-
81 Mollano, 2006; Shabalina and Koonin 2008; Moran et al. 2017; Bråte

82 et al. 2018; Velandia-Huerto et al. 2022); moreover, it is increasingly
83 clear that miRNAs arose multiple times among eukaryotes, exploiting
84 the same ancient RNAi components (Moran et al. 2017; Yazbeck et
85 al. 2017; Bråte et al. 2018; Velandia-Huerto et al. 2022; but see
86 Poole et al. 2014). Conversely, miRNAs and their hairpin precursors
87 have been shown to be highly conserved within eukaryotic
88 supergroups (Hertel and Stadler 2015; Yazbeck et al. 2017;
89 Velandia-Huerto et al. 2022).

90 In metazoans, hundreds of conserved miRNA families have
91 been identified (for instance, Yazbeck et al. 2017; Velandia-Huerto et
92 al. 2022). If confirmed by the growing knowledge about miRNAs in
93 non-model species, this would mean that the expansion of miRNA
94 families in the kingdom is coincidental with, if not associated to, the
95 diversification of body plans and ultimately the evolution of bilaterians
96 (Hertel and Stadler 2015; Dexheimer and Cochella 2020; Desvignes
97 et al. 2021; Ma et al. 2021). However, multicellular organisms are
98 particularly prone to the evolution of complex regulatory networks by
99 neutral processes, and the evolution of miRNAs in animals may not
100 be adaptive at its roots (Lynch 2007).

101 To date, there is virtually no eukaryotic cell phenomenon
102 which has not been shown to be regulated by miRNAs, from stress
103 response (Larriba and del Mazo 2016; Riggs et al. 2018) to

104 biomineralization (van Wijnen et al. 2013; Jiao et al. 2014), from
105 immunity (Chen et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2018) to development and
106 aging (Yekta et al. 2008; Kim and Lee 2019).
107

108 Retrograde signaling through RNA-silencing: smithRNAs

109 The mitochondrion-to-nucleus communication is typically
110 referred to as “retrograde signaling” or “Mitochondrial Retrograde
111 Response” (MRR; Ovcariikova et al. 2022), because it was always
112 clear that nucleus ought to regulate mitochondria in the eukaryotic
113 cell, but the reverse regulatory function was not immediately
114 understood. MRR may be mediated by cholesterol, reactive oxygen
115 species and Ca²⁺ at nucleus-mitochondrion contact sites (Connelly et
116 al. 2021). However, there are short RNAs (Maniataki and Mourelatos
117 2005; Weber-Lofti and Dietrich 2018), long non-coding RNAs
118 (Vendramin et al. 2017; Weber-Lofti and Dietrich 2018) and peptides
119 (Lee et al. 2013; Cohen 2014) of mitochondrial origin that have been
120 proposed to interact with the nucleus.

121 Recently, it has been shown that sncRNAs with some
122 similarities with miRNAs are involved in MRR as well; they were
123 termed small mitochondrial highly expressed RNAs (smithRNAs) and
124 were originally found in the Manila clam *Ruditapes philippinarum*
125 (Pozzi et al. 2017). Small RNAs were already known from animal
126 mitochondria (e.g., Mercer et al. 2011; Ro et al. 2013; Bottje et al.
127 2017; Riggs et al. 2018), but they had always been associated to
128 mitochondrial targets (Mercer et al. 2011; Ro et al. 2013; Bottje et al.
129 2017). Conversely, smithRNAs are transcribed from the

130 mitochondrial genome, but they regulate nuclear targets by definition.
131 The complementarity of a small region of the sncRNA with the 3'
132 UTR of target messengers was shown to be a good predictor of
133 regulated target genes (Pozzi et al. 2017; Passamonti et al. 2020).

134 The original *in silico* prediction of smithRNAs was
135 subsequently confirmed by *in vivo* experiments, which also showed
136 that smithRNAs can affect the epigenetic status of the nuclear
137 genome by regulating histone methylation/acetylation (Passamonti et
138 al. 2020). Finally, far from being a bivalve oddity, smithRNAs were
139 suggested to be present in distantly related bilaterians (Passamonti
140 et al. 2020). Notably, putative mitochondrial noncoding RNAs have
141 been also found in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Marker et al. 2002), as well
142 as in other plants (Weber-Lofti and Dietrich 2018).

143 As most sncRNAs, smithRNAs may well be genetic elements
144 that commonly arise *de novo* during evolution (Velandia-Huerto et al.
145 2022; and references therein). Duplication, reshuffling, transposition,
146 retrotransposition, chimeric phenomena account for most new genes
147 (Andersson et al. 2015; Schlotterer 2015; VanKuren and Long 2018;
148 Zhao et al. 2021), but small noncoding loci like miRNAs may
149 represent the most common source of *de novo* genes (Lu et al.
150 2008b; Lyu et al. 2014; Zhao et al. 2021). Most miRNAs arising *de*
151 *novo* are probably functionless (Lu et al. 2008b; Berezikov et al.

152 2010) or even dead-on-arrival (Petrov et al. 1996; Petrov and Hartl
153 1998), but many may become adaptive miRNAs (Lu et al. 2008a;
154 Mohammed et al. 2014; Lyu et al. 2014; Mohammed et al. 2018;
155 Zhao et al. 2021).

156 Therefore, it can be stated that (i) at least some smithRNAs
157 are miRNA-like molecules, structurally simple and requiring flexible
158 base pairing to nuclear targets; (ii) at least some smithRNAs exert
159 significant and broad-scope effects on the associated nuclear
160 genome; (iii) smithRNAs may be widespread among animals and
161 may have been present in the metazoan common ancestor; (iv)
162 miRNA-like elements can easily evolve *de novo*, be conserved as
163 adaptive traits, or be swept away by natural selection. Therefore, a
164 fundamental evolutionary question arises: how common is the
165 emergence of new smithRNAs and of novel smithRNA functions?

166

167 Target availability

168 As stated, at least some smithRNAs behave as animal
169 miRNAs and require only partial pairing with 3' UTRs of target
170 nuclear messengers. Namely, the extended seed region required to
171 basepair and regulate the target encompasses nucleotides 1-8 of the
172 mature miRNA molecule (Bartel 2009; McGeary et al. 2019).

173 Although cases of alternative and noncanonical pairing sites are
174 known (see Tan et al. 2014; Bartel 2018; McGeary et al. 2019; Bofill-
175 De Ros et al. 2020; Rissland 2020; Komatsu et al. 2023; and
176 reference therein), a handful of nucleotides are anyway involved in
177 target regulation.

178 To provide a rough estimate of the probability of a random
179 sequence to behave as a miRNA-like regulatory element for a
180 transcript within the same organism, we generated 189,339,429
181 random pri-miRNA-like sequences using custom-tailored Python
182 scripts. The pri-miRNA is the canonical primary transcript of a miRNA
183 element: it will be cleaved by the protein DROSHA within the nucleus
184 at specific sites associated to its secondary structure, producing the
185 pre-miRNA. As described above, the pre-miRNA will be cleaved by
186 DICER in the cytoplasm to produce the functional molecule (Ghildiyal
187 and Zamore 2009; García-López et al. 2013; Ha and Kim 2014;
188 Bartel 2018; and reference therein). Sequences were randomly

189 generated following the canonical pri-miRNA structure detailed in
190 Bartel (2018): all sequences were then matured *in silico*, respecting
191 the sites of DROSHA and DICER cleavage (see Ha and Kim 2014;
192 Bartel 2018).

193 Since functional smithRNAs have been demonstrated *in vivo*
194 in the Manila clam only (Passamonti et al. 2020), we assembled
195 transcriptomes from 12 bivalve species for which transcriptome data
196 are available on GenBank: *Ruditapes decussatus* (SRR527757);
197 *Arctica islandica* (SRR1559269); *Galeomma turtoni* (SRR1560274);
198 *Sphaerium nucleus* (SRR1561723); *Laternula elliptica*
199 (SRR1687084); *Lyonsia floridana* (SRR1560310); *Margaritifera*
200 *margaritifera* (SRR1560312); *Arca noae* (SRR1559268); *Mytilus*
201 *edulis* (SRR1560431); *Placopecten magellanicus* (SRR1560445);
202 *Solemya velum* (SRR330465); *Yoldia eightsii* (SRR3205073).

203 Transcriptomes were curated using the software FastQC
204 (Andrews 2010), Trimmomatic (Bolger et al. 2014), BUSCO (Simão
205 et al. 2015), and Trinity (Grabherr et al. 2011; Haas et al. 2013). The
206 software Kraken2 (Wood et al. 2019) was used to classify potential
207 contaminants of human and prokaryotic origin, using a custom-
208 assembled database of prokaryotic sequences updated to June
209 2019. Peptide detection on noisy matured sequences was carried out
210 with FrameDP (Gouzy et al. 2009), and 3' UTRs were predicted

211 using ExUTR (Huang and Teeling 2017) and the invertebrate dataset
212 of 3' UTRs.

213 *In silico*-matured RNAs were mapped onto assembled
214 transcriptomes using Bowtie (Langmead et al. 2009), using the minus
215 strand of the Bowtie index and requiring at least a perfect match
216 between the 3' UTR and nucleotides 2-8 of the simulated miRNA-like
217 element, thus conservatively restricting the analysis to “canonical”
218 targeting only. Scripts, commands, and settings are available by YLC
219 and AF upon request.

220 The number of simulated miRNA-like elements able to find
221 targets in the transcriptome were normalized over the number of *k*-
222 mers ($k = 22$ nucleotides) available in the 3' UTRs of the focal
223 transcriptome: the result was divided by 189,339,429 (the number of
224 random pri-miRNAs) to get an estimate of the probability for a single
225 miRNA-like element to find a suitable target in a given *k*-mer.

226 The probability for a random pri-miRNA-like sequence to result
227 in a mature miRNA having a target on a transcriptome is
228 exponentially linked to the number of mismatches outside the seed
229 region, irrespective of the species the transcriptome is obtained from
230 (Fig. 1). Specifically, this probability is approximately one in a
231 hundred million (1×10^{-8}) if exactly five mismatches between the

232 mature miRNA-like molecule and a 3' UTR are considered (provided
233 that the seed basepairs perfectly).

234 Recall the large amount of replicating mitochondrial genomes
235 in the germline, and the huge number of individuals and populations
236 of these species, one in a hundred million should be regarded as a
237 high chance for a *de novo*-arisen mitochondrial miRNA-like element
238 to find a regulative target in the nuclear transcriptome of the same
239 cell. Notably, this probability does not change across species, which
240 means that it is independent from nuclear transcriptome features.

241 It is worth noting that we conservatively focused on the 2-8
242 eptamer seed pairing, but other types of seed pairing are
243 conceivable, and, thus, this probability is largely underestimated.
244 Moreover, more than five mismatches are normally allowed in
245 miRNA-driven regulation in animals (Shabalina and Koonin 2008;
246 Ghildiyal and Zamore 2009; Bofill-De Ros et al. 2020), thus again
247 increasing the chances for a *de novo* mitochondrial miRNA-like
248 element, since the decimal logarithm of probability is positively
249 correlated with mismatches outside the seed ($r = +0.9858$; Fig. 1).

250 If this trend will be confirmed outside bivalves, it will be
251 tempting to conclude that the DNA chemistry and nucleotide
252 composition of eukaryotes, as well as constraints on pri-miRNA
253 structures, do result in a significant probability that a miRNA-like

254 element finds a suitable nuclear target, after having originated merely

255 by chance and random mutations on a mitochondrial genome.

256

257 Mitochondrial secondary structures are easily co-opted to deliver new
258 functions

259 Obviously, the probability of a simulated sequence to match a
260 3' UTR is not enough to state that smithRNA commonly arise *de*
261 *novo*. A smithRNA is a sncRNA associated to a specific biogenesis
262 pathway, which requires molecular signals for processing enzymes,
263 such as secondary structures.

264 In the traditional view, the animal mitochondrial genome is
265 believed to be small and compact, containing a conserved set of
266 protein-coding genes associated with the mitochondrial oxidative
267 phosphorylation (OXPHOS) pathway (Boore 1999). However, recent
268 research has shown that this may not always be the case,
269 challenging the notion of ubiquitous features in metazoan
270 mitochondrial genomics (Lavrov et al. 2013; Breton et al. 2014;
271 Formaggioni et al. 2021). Actually, animal mitochondrial genomes
272 are highly variable for what concerns genome architecture (Lavrov
273 and Pett 2016); genome size (Pu et al. 2019; Hemmi et al. 2020);
274 use of different genetic codes (Lavrov et al. 2013; Li et al. 2018);
275 gene arrangement (Trindade Rosa et al. 2017; Pu et al. 2019;
276 Hemmi et al. 2020; Monnens et al. 2020; Ghiselli et al. 2021;
277 Kutyumov et al. 2021); Doubly Uniparental Inheritance (DUI;
278 Passamonti and Ghiselli 2009; Zouros and Rodakis 2019;

279 Passamonti and Plazzi 2020); and post-transcriptional regulation
280 (Osigus et al. 2017; Schuster et al. 2017).

281 The finetuning of some of these mechanisms (for instance,
282 DUI, post-transcriptional regulation) and the origin of these features
283 involves a complex crosstalk with nuclear genomes, as well as the
284 availability of regulatory sequences and signals along the
285 mitochondrial genome (e.g., Ghiselli et al. 2013, 2021). For example,
286 since mitochondrial DNA is normally transcribed as a single
287 polycistron (e.g., Hillen et al. 2018), structural signals ought to be
288 present to cleave single transcripts, which are normally found
289 between protein coding genes as tRNA genes or short noncoding
290 regions with stem-and-loop secondary structures (e.g., Plazzi et al.
291 2013; Bettinazzi et al. 2016).

292 Therefore, mitochondrial genomics itself requires multiple
293 secondary structures to regulate the organellar functions. Moreover,
294 many of these structural sites are processing and cleavage signals,
295 as is the case for protein coding gene spacers, that are excised to
296 separate single transcripts. These RNA hairpins are normally
297 processed and degraded as part of the normal cellular turnover of
298 macromolecules.

299 However, it is easy to speculate that a hairpin might survive
300 being directly co-opted as pre-miRNA. It is sufficient that its

301 secondary structure can be recognized by some DICER ortholog:
302 hairpin structure that are normally found in cleavage signals are
303 indeed very similar to hairpin structure normally shown by pre-
304 miRNAs. In that case, the RNA would be cleaved and a miRNA
305 would be produced skipping the pri-miRNA/DROSHA stage – and will
306 find a suitable nuclear target one in a hundred million times, and
307 probably more (as per our simulation above). Other examples of
308 DROSHA-independent biogenesis of miRNAs are indeed known
309 (Ruby et al. 2007; Babiarz et al. 2008; O'Brien et al. 2018).

310 Obviously, a hairpin excised within the mitochondrion must be
311 delivered to the cytoplasm prior to the final, and in this case only,
312 maturation step driven by DICER. In fact, many studies found
313 mitochondrial RNA outside the source organelle, which accounts for
314 the possibility for RNA molecules to be exported. For example,
315 several tRNAs of mitochondrial origin were found in the cytoplasm of
316 human cells, even in association with Ago2, an Argonaute protein
317 included in the formation of the functional complex involved in RNA
318 silencing (Maniataki and Mourelatos 2005). Mitochondrially-encoded
319 RNAs can bind Ago2 as well (Pozzi and Dowling 2022), and long
320 non-coding RNAs from the mitochondrion were also reported within
321 the nucleus (Landerer et al. 2011; Rackham et al. 2011; Vendramin
322 et al. 2017). Interestingly, mitochondria of *R. philippinarum* have

323 been observed while releasing their content in the cytoplasm (Milani
324 et al. 2011), which would be a straightforward mechanism for
325 smithRNAs to enter cytoplasm, at least in this species.

326 RNAi driven by mitochondria might be a remnant of their origin
327 as free-living, aerobic prokaryotes. Notably, the intracellular
328 pathogen *Mycobacterium marinum* synthesize small, antisense
329 regulatory RNAs which are exported to the host cell and processed
330 as if they were miRNAs (Furuse et al. 2014) and, generally speaking,
331 many bacterial small RNAs show complex secondary structures
332 (Wagner and Simons 1994). Indeed, a connection between small
333 antisense regulatory RNAs in prokaryotes and the cytoplasmic proto-
334 RNAi system in eukaryotes has been suggested (Torri et al. 2022). In
335 sum, we propose that smithRNAs arise as an exaptation at the
336 molecular level of secondary structures that were always present in
337 mitochondrial genomes, possibly since their origin as endosymbionts.
338 Moreover, we also predict that this phenomenon might be more
339 common than thought, given the similar selective constraints on
340 hairpins.

341

342 Retrograde RNAi and mitonuclear co-adaptation

343 Mitochondrial and nuclear genomes must coevolve to provide
344 an efficient energy production (Hill 2019). The electron transport
345 system of mitochondria (ETS), to which the efficiency of energy
346 production through OXPHOS is strictly linked, is delivered by a
347 complex assembly of nuclear and mitochondrial subunits that are
348 forced to function together (Rand et al. 2004). An effective OXPHOS
349 is achieved by three different mechanisms: (i) protein-protein
350 interaction forming the ETS complexes (Phillips et al. 2010); (ii)
351 protein-RNA/DNA interactions during transcription and translation of
352 mitochondrial genes (Taanmann 1999; D'Souza and Minczuck 2018);
353 and (iii) protein-DNA interaction in the replication of the mitochondrial
354 genome (Clayton 2000).

355 In fact, speciation soon started to be discussed in the context
356 of mito-nuclear coadaptation, as a mechanism that may easily evolve
357 mito-nuclear incompatibilities (Dowling et al 2008; Gershoni et al.
358 2009; Burton and Barreto 2012). Examples of these mitonuclear
359 incompatibilities are for instance available for *Drosophila* and
360 *Tigriopus* copepods (see Hill 2019; and references therein).

361 Although the abovementioned system may suggest a strict
362 need of mito-nuclear coadaptation, other systems point in the
363 opposite direction. In bivalves with DUI, two mitochondrial genomes

364 are transmitted to offspring in a sex-linked way (Passamonti and
365 Ghiselli 2009; Zouros and Rodakis 2019; Passamonti and Plazzi
366 2020) and there is evidence of a functional assembly of the ETS with
367 two, highly divergent sets of mitochondrial proteins. Therefore, the
368 correct protein-protein interaction forming the ETS complexes is less
369 strict than previously thought, at least in these bivalve mollusks.

370 The existence of mitochondrially mediated RNAi provides a
371 fourth mechanism for the evolution of mito-nuclear incompatibilities,
372 which can arise much faster than the other three. When a set of
373 smithRNAs is adapted to regulate nuclear gene expression in a
374 species, the system could easily produce genetic barriers with other
375 species having a differently adapted smithRNA subset. To our
376 knowledge, there is currently no study on this issue, but we strongly
377 suggest that the cases of mito-nuclear incompatibilities may be
378 reconsidered in light of the role of the mitochondrial genome in
379 regulating nuclear gene expression. In this conception, smithRNAs
380 (and maybe other MRR mechanisms) may represent classical
381 Dobzhansky-Muller speciation triggers (Dobzhansky 1937; Muller
382 1942), which lead to the evolution of postzygotic genetic barriers.

383

384 Concluding remarks

385 Notwithstanding their recent discovery (Pozzi et al. 2017), it is
386 likely that smithRNAs are not a peculiar feature of a single bivalve
387 species: they are probably widespread among metazoans
388 (Passamonti et al. 2020). This does not necessarily imply that they
389 are phylogenetically related, nor that the origin of smithRNAs is a
390 single event in evolutionary history. The peculiar features of
391 mitochondrial genomes involve the possibility that smithRNAs
392 spontaneously arose multiple times from the secondary structure
393 repertoire that is normally available along the mitochondrial genome.

394 Therefore, it is important to characterize the smithRNA toolbox
395 in as many animal species as possible, and functional studies are
396 required to prove that smithRNAs are regulatory elements *in vivo*.
397 This will increase the list of functions smithRNAs can exert in the cell;
398 moreover, light will be shed on the evolutionary conservation of
399 smithRNAs and on their multiple origin through molecular exaptation,
400 being the two things not mutually exclusive. Finally, if smithRNA
401 precursors (or at least some of them) arise as exaptation of ancient
402 legacies from free living bacteria, smithRNAs might be strictly
403 connected with early eukaryogenesis.

404

405 Acknowledgements

406 This study was supported by Italian Ministry of University and
407 Research PRIN 2020 (2020BE2BC3) funded to MP. YLC was
408 supported by EUR G.E.N.E. (reference #ANR-17-EURE-0013) and is
409 part of the Université Paris Cité (IdEx #ANR-18-IDEX-0001), funded
410 by the French Government through its “Investments for the Future”
411 program. We are grateful to people at the ESEB 2022 symposium
412 “*Beyond transcription: the role of post-transcriptional gene regulation*
413 *in adaptation and evolution*” for sharing ideas and suggestions. We
414 also want to thank three anonymous reviewers, whose comments
415 and criticism greatly improved the original manuscript.

416

417 Author contribution statement

418 FP and MP conceived and supervised the study; YLC and AF
419 analyzed data; FP and MP drafted the original manuscript; all authors
420 read and approved the final manuscript.

421

422 Conflict of Interest

423 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

424

425 Data archiving

426 All data used for the present study are publicly available in

427 GenBank.

428

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787

788 Figure Legends

789 Figure 1. Frequency of miRNA-like simulated molecules that
790 found at least one suitable target on 3' UTRs of the same species.
791 The seed was conservatively defined as nucleotides 2-8 of the
792 miRNA; a match was accepted if it was perfect at the seed and if it
793 included a maximum of 5 mismatches outside. An example of an
794 alignment with three mismatches is included in the insert. The
795 number of elements with an acceptable match was normalized on the
796 number of 22-mers in the relative 3' UTR set and divided by the
797 number of simulated pri-miRNAs. The y axis is Log-transformed for
798 the sake of readability. Regression line details: $y = 1.0757x -$
799 12.8616 ; $R^2 = 0.9719$; $P < 2 \times 10^{-16***}$.