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#### 20 ABSTRACT

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Tapeworms (cestodes) of the genus *Hymenolepis* are the causative agents of hymenolepiasis, a 22 zoonotic neglected disease. *Hymenolepis nana* is the most prevalent human tapeworm, especially 23 affecting children. The genomes of Hymenolepis microstoma and H. nana have been recently 24 sequenced and assembled. MicroRNAs (miRNAs), a class of small non-coding RNAs, are 25 principle regulators of gene expression at the post-transcriptional level and are involved in many 26 different biological processes. In previous work, we experimentally identified miRNA genes in 27 28 the cestodes *Echinococcus*, *Taenia* and *Mesocestoides*. However, current knowledge about miRNAs in *Hymenolepis* is limited. In this work we described for the first time the expression 29 profile of the miRNA complement in *H. microstoma*, and discovered miRNAs in *H. nana*. We 30 found a reduced complement of 37 evolutionarily conserved miRNAs, putatively reflecting their 31 low morphological complexity and parasitic lifestyle. We found a high expression of a few 32 miRNAs in the larval stage of H. microstoma that is conserved in other cestodes suggesting that 33 these miRNAs may have important roles in development, survival and for host-parasite 34 interplay. We performed a comparative analysis of the identified miRNAs across the Cestoda 35 and showed that most of the miRNAs in Hymenolepis are located in intergenic regions implying 36 that they are independently transcribed. We found a Hymenolepis-specific cluster composed of 37 three members of the mir-36 family. Also, we found that one of the neighboring genes of mir-10 38 39 was a Hox gene as in most bilaterial species. This study provides a valuable resource for further experimental research in cestode biology that might lead to improved detection and control of 40 these neglected parasites. The comprehensive identification and expression analysis of 41 Hymenolepis miRNAs can help to identify novel biomarkers for diagnosis and/or novel 42 43 therapeutic targets for the control of hymenolepiasis.

44 Keywords: *Hymenolepis microstoma*, *Hymenolepis nana*, Cestoda, tapeworm, microRNA,
45 hymenolepiasis; miRNA discovery

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#### 47 **1. Introduction**

48 Tapeworms (cestodes) of the genus *Hymenolepis* are the causative agents of hymenolepiasis, a zoonotic neglected disease transmitted by rodents. Two cosmopolitan species of *Hymenolepis* 49 50 infect humans, the rat tapeworm *H. diminuta* and, particularly, the dwarf tapeworm *H. nana* that 51 is the most prevalent human tapeworm worldwide, especially affecting children in temperate areas (Soares Magalhaes et al., 2013). Whereas most H. nana infections are asymptomatic, 52 53 heavy infections contribute to increased morbidity in children and symptoms including severe 54 diarrhea, abdominal pain, decreased appetite and reduced growth (Soares Magalhaes et al., 55 2013). Although drugs such as praziquantel are available and effective against adult tapeworm infections, they do not prevent re-infection in endemic areas with poor hygiene and sanitation 56 57 where the frequency of transmission is high (Thompson, 2015). Infections in such areas 58 frequently co-occur with other intestinal helminths (Soares Magalhaes et al., 2013) and diseases such as HIV-AIDS. The latter poses a particular threat as H. nana infections in 59 immunocompromised individuals have been shown to give rise to invasive, tapeworm-derived 60 tumors (Olson et al., 2003; Muehlenbachs et al., 2015). Finally, praziquantel resistance could 61 62 become a problem in large scale deworming campaigns (Olson et al., 2012) and thus novel strategies for the control of hymenolepiasis are needed. The mouse bile-duct tapeworm H. 63 microstoma that is prevalent in rodents worldwide, is a laboratory model for the human parasite 64 65 H. nana and for other tapeworms causing neglected tropical diseases such as Echinococcus and *Taenia* for which complete life cycles cannot be maintained in the lab. The genome of H. 66

67 *microstoma* and other cyclophyllidean cestodes have been recently sequenced and assembled (Olson et al., 2012; Tsai et al., 2013). Importantly, the laboratory strain of H. microstoma used 68 69 for genome sequencing has been previously characterized (Cunningham and Olson, 2010). In 70 addition, the draft genome of *H. nana* is available as part of the Helminth Genomes Initiative, a collaborative project that aims to survey the genomes of parasitic helminths that are either of 71 medical or veterinary importance, or are used as models for those (International Helminth 72 73 Genomes Consortium, 2017). These unique genomic resources will enable the discovery of novel biomarkers for diagnosis and/or therapeutic targets for the control of the infections they 74 75 cause.

76 MicroRNAs (miRNAs), a class of small non-coding RNAs, are principle regulators of gene expression at the post-transcriptional level and are involved in many different biological 77 78 processes (Bartel, 2004; He and Hannon, 2004; Filipowicz et al., 2008). MiRNAs are transcribed 79 by RNA polymerase II as long, primary miRNAs (pri-miRNAs) from miRNA genes or from introns of protein coding genes (Filipowicz et al., 2008). The primary miRNA is cleaved by 80 Drosha to produce a ~70-nt long stem-loop precursor miRNA (pre-miRNA) that is further 81 82 cleaved by Dicer to generate both the mature miRNA and antisense miRNA products. The mature miRNA is incorporated into the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) and bind to 83 complementary sequences of target genes. In most bilaterian animals, target recognition is 84 primarily through Watson-Crick pairing between miRNA nucleotides 2-7 (miRNA seed) and 85 sites located in the 3' untranslated regions (3'UTRs) of target mRNAs (Bartel, 2018). This 86 promotes the repression of protein translation and/or degradation of the target mRNA 87 (Hutvagner and Zamore, 2002; Filipowicz et al., 2008; Bartel, 2009; Ghildiyal and Zamore, 88 2009). MiRNAs have been identified in a range of organisms such as viruses, plants and 89 90 metazoans including free-living and parasitic helminths, with an increase in the number of

91 miRNA families correlated with an increase in morphological complexity (Niwa and Slack, 92 2007; Berezikov, 2011). Recently, it has been suggested that miRNAs might be potential 93 therapeutic targets for the control of parasitic helminths (Britton et al., 2014). Furthermore, 94 worm-derived miRNAs have shown promise as markers for the early detection of helminth 95 infections (Cai et al., 2016). The recent availability of the genomes of parasitic helminths of medical and veterinary 96 97 importance (Howe et al., 2017), including cestodes, has provided a platform for the identification of miRNAs using both computational and experimental approaches. In previous work, we 98 identified miRNA genes through deep sequencing in the cestodes Echinococcus canadensis 99 100 (Cucher et al., 2015; Macchiaroli et al., 2015), E. granulosus s. s. (Macchiaroli et al., 2015), E. multilocularis (Cucher et al., 2015), Mesocestoides corti (Basika et al., 2016), Taenia solium 101 102 and T. crassiceps (Perez et al., 2017). In addition, miRNA genes have been computationally 103 identified in *H. microstoma* by Jin et al. (2013). However, a comprehensive identification of the miRNA repertoire and their expression profile are still lacking in *H. microstoma*, and there is no 104 previous report of miRNAs in H. nana. The aims of this study were to analyze the miRNA 105 expression profile in *H. microstoma* larvae and to discover miRNAs in *H. nana* from recently 106 available genome data. The comprehensive identification and expression analysis of 107 Hymenolepis miRNAs can help to identify biomarkers for diagnosis and/or novel therapeutic 108 targets for the control of hymenolepiasis. 109

#### 111 **2. Material and methods**

#### 112 2.1. Parasite material

Five-day old (ie. mid-metamorphosis) larvae were collected from the haemocoel of beetles. The 113 Nottingham strain (Cunningham and Olson, 2010) of H. microstoma was maintained in vivo 114 115 using flour beetles (Tribolium confusum) and outbred conventional BALB/c mice (Mus *musculus*). To produce mid-metamorphosis larval samples, beetles were starved for five days 116 117 and then exposed to freshly macerated, gravid proglottides of *H. microstoma* for ~ six hours. 118 Gravid tissues were removed and the beetles were allowed to feed on flour ad libitum. Beetles were dissected five days post-exposure and the resulting larvae collected from the haemocoel 119 into conditioned water. Morphologically the larva is elongated and well differentiated at both 120 121 poles (ie. stage 3 according to Voge's system). All larvae were approximately half way through 122 metamorphosis from the oncosphere to cysticercoid stages, albeit some variation in maturity was seen among individuals and thus the samples included 'stages' 2-4 as defined by Voge (Voge, 123 124 1964) with the majority representing stage 3. Approximately 550 individuals were combined in each of the three biological replicate larval samples. The samples were then transferred live to 125 RNAlater (Ambion) and stored at -80 C until RNA extraction. 126

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#### 128 2.2. Small RNA isolation, library construction and sequencing

Larval samples were mechanically homogenized in Trizol (Invitrogen) for 10 s. Then, 200  $\mu$ l of chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (24:1) was added and mixed thoroughly. Phase separation was carried out by centrifugation at maximum speed at 4 °C. Then, 0.5× isopropanol and 4  $\mu$ l of glycogen (5 mg/ml) were added to the aqueous phase and the RNA was pelleted by

133 centrifugation at maximum speed at 4 °C for 30 min. The resulting pellet was washed with 70%

ethanol, air dried, and re-suspended in nuclease-free water. The amount and integrity of total
RNA was determined using a 2100 BioAnalyzer (Agilent, USA). RNA was concentrated by
ethanol precipitation at -20°C overnight after elimination of polyadenylated mRNA using oligodT dynabead. The resulting pellet was re-suspended in 6µl nuclease free water and used as the
input material.

Small RNA libraries were prepared using the NEBNext Multiplex Small RNA Library Prep Set 139 140 for Illumina. The 3' and 5' adapters were sequentially annealed with the annealing of the RT 141 primer prior to 5' ligation to reduce the frequency of adapter dimer formation. First strand 142 synthesis was performed followed by PCR enrichment of the libraries during which the index 143 sequences were introduced post PCR, the small RNA libraries were quantified using the Agilent 144 Bioanalyzer and the libraries pooled based on the concentration of the 147 bp peak (small RNA 145 and adapters). The resulting pool was cleaned up through columns and sized selected using the Pippin Prep and the settings detailed in the NEB manual. Libraries were paired-end sequenced 146 147 using an Illumina sequencing platform (HiSeq 2500) for 100 cycles. Small RNA libraries were constructed from three independent samples in order to count with biological replicates. For each 148 sample, three technical replicates were sequenced. A total of nine libraries were sequenced. The 149 small RNAseq data are available in ArrayExpress under accession code E-ERAD-236 (samples 150 ERS353237, ERS353255 and ERS353262) (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress/experiments/E-151 152 ERAD 236/samples/?s\_page=1%26s\_pagesize=25).

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#### 154 **2.3.** Source of genome assemblies and annotations

The ~182 Mb *Hymenolepis microstoma* genome assembly (PRJEB124) and the gene annotations
of 12,368 coding genes (Tsai et al., 2013) were downloaded from the WormBase Parasite

- 157 database (Howe et al., 2017). Also, the ~163 Mb Hymenolepis nana genome assembly (PRJEB508) and the corresponding 13,777 coding genes were retrieved from the WormBase 158
- Parasite database (Howe et al., 2017). 159

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#### 2.4. MiRNA identification in Hymenolepis microstoma larvae

To identify conserved and novel miRNAs from the small RNA libraries, the miRDeep2 software 162 package (Friedländer et al., 2012) was used. The unique sequences were mapped to H. 163 164 *microstoma* genome and used as input for miRNA prediction as previously described (Cucher et 165 al., 2015; Macchiaroli et al., 2015). The initial miRDeep2 output list of candidate miRNA 166 precursors of each library was manually curated to generate a final high confidence set of 167 miRNAs retaining only candidate precursors with i) miRDeep2 score  $\geq 4$  ii) mature reads in more than one biological sample iii) star reads and/or seed conservation iv) no match to rRNA, 168 169 tRNA, mRNA. The secondary structures of putative precursors and clusters and the minimum 170 free energy were predicted using the mfold web server (Zuker, 2003) and RNAfold software (Gruber et al., 2008), respectively. MiRNA annotation and classification of the small RNAseq 171 reads into RNA types (miRNAs, rRNA, tRNA and mRNAs) were performed as previously 172 173 described (Cucher et al., 2015; Macchiaroli et al., 2015). In addition, mature miRNA sequences were compared by BLASTN against an in-house database of all previously reported cestode 174 miRNA sequences obtained by deep sequencing (Bai et al., 2014; Cucher et al., 2015; 175 Macchiaroli et al., 2015; Basika et al., 2016; Perez et al., 2017). Nucleotide sequence data 176 reported in this paper have been submitted to the miRBase database. 177

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#### 179 2.5. MiRNA discovery in Hymenolepis nana from genome-wide data

To discover miRNAs in *Hymenolepis nana* genome, the miRDeep2 software package 180 181 (Friedländer et al., 2012) was used. The small RNAseq reads of *H. microstoma* were mapped to 182 H. nana genome and miRNAs predicted as previously described (Macchiaroli et al., 2015). In addition, an independent approach that required the *H. nana* genome and was based on the 183 184 combination of three methods i) miRNA-SOM (Kamenetzky et al., 2016), ii) deepSOM 185 (Stegmayer et al., 2017) and iii) miRNAss (Yones et al., 2018) was used. A unique list of best 186 candidates was obtained as the intersection of the three methods. Briefly, sequences with a minimum free energy threshold of -20 kcal/mol and single-loop folded sequences were selected 187 188 according to the miRNA biogenesis model (Bartel, 2004). After that, the best candidates to 189 precursor miRNA sequences in *H. nana* were identified as those sequences more similar to high confidence miRNAs of *H. microstoma* in the feature space (Yones et al., 2015). These methods 190 191 were recently used by our group for genome-wide discovery of miRNA precursor sequences in 192 E. multilocularis (Kamenetzky et al., 2016) and T. solium (Perez et al., 2017).

#### 193 **2.6.** *MiRNA expression profiling in* Hymenolepis microstoma *larvae*

The number of reads obtained in a small RNA sequencing experiment can be used as an indicator of the abundance of a given miRNA at a particular life cycle stage (Kato et al., 2009). To analyze miRNA expression, read counts of each individual miRNA in a sample (biological replicate) were normalized to the total number of mature miRNA read counts in that sample as described in Macchiaroli et al. (2015). Then, normalized miRNA reads were averaged between the three biological replicates and the most expressed miRNAs in *H. microstoma* larvae were determined. Correlation analyses between pairs of independent biological replicates were
performed.

#### 202 2.7. Evolutionary conservation analysis of Hymenolepis miRNAs

To identify miRNA families within Hymenolepis, all-against-all pairwise sequence alignments 203 204 were computed using BLASTN and all sequences sharing the seed region (position 2-7 of the mature miRNA) were considered to belong to the same *Hymenolepis* miRNA family. To analyze 205 206 conservation of all expected miRNA families in Hymenolepis (Fromm et al., 2013, 2017) mature 207 miRNA sequences were compared to those previously reported present in miRBase 22 for selected phyla; Cnidaria, Nematoda, Arthropoda, Annelida and the subphylum Vertebrata, using 208 209 only a seed match criteria. To analyze conservation of *Hymenolepis* miRNA sequences across 210 Platyhelminthes, the species used for comparative analysis were selected on the following 211 criteria: i) genome available; ii) data deposited in miRBase v22; iii) the species with a more complete miRNA complement within a same genera; iv) study based on high throughput 212 213 sequencing. Selected species were E. canadensis, E. multilocularis, E. granulosus, M. corti, T. solium, T. crassiceps, Schistosoma mansoni, Gyrodactylus salaris and Schmidtea mediterranea. 214 215

#### 216 2.8. Cluster identification and genomic location of Hymenolepis miRNAs

To identify miRNA clusters in both *Hymenolepis* species, the genomic arrangement of the
miRNAs identified in this study was assessed. Precursor miRNA sequences were considered to
be grouped in clusters if they were in the same scaffold/contig less than 10 kb apart and on the
same strand. Alignment of precursor miRNA sequences were performed using MUSCLE
(Edgar, 2004) followed by RNAalifold (Bernhart et al., 2008) using default parameters. The
phylogenetic analysis of the cluster mir-4989/277 was conducted in MEGA7 (Kumar et al.,

223 2016). The phylogenetic trees were inferred by Maximum Likelihood using the Tamura 3parameter model. The topology of the tree with the highest log-likelihood value is shown. 224 225 The percentage of trees in which the sequences clustered together is shown next to the branches. 226 The support for the node was assessed using 2000 bootstrap replicates. The genomic location (intronic, exonic and intergenic) of all miRNAs identified in this study and the genomic context 227 of mir-10 was assessed by BLAST searches against current annotation of Hymenolepis genomes 228 229 available in WormBase Parasite database v. WBPS9 (WS258). For intronic miRNAs, only miRNAs located in introns of coding genes with a predicted functional annotation were 230 considered. For the analysis of the genomic context of mir-10 only the two neighboring genes 231 232 were consider (i.e. the closest protein coding gene upstream/downstream with a functional annotation). 233

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#### 235 3. Results and Discussion

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## 3.1. *MiRNA identification in* Hymenolepis microstoma *and miRNA discovery in*Hymenolepis nana *from genome-wide data*

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To identify the repertoire of miRNAs expressed in *H. microstoma* larvae, we sequenced small
RNA libraries from three biological replicates of *H. microstoma* larvae. After trimming and
collapsing, between 8.4 and 83.9 million reads per sample were mapped to *H. microstoma*genome, representing about ~96% of reads. The general results of the Illumina deep sequencing
are shown in **Supplementary Table S1.** We predicted a high confidence repertoire of 37
conserved miRNAs in *H. microstoma*, providing for the first time experimental evidence of

246 miRNA expression in *H. microstoma* (**Table 1**). Of the 37 miRNAs, 26 precursors have

previously been bioinformatically predicted from the H. microstoma genome data (Jin et al., 247 248 2013) but 11 are new to this study. The latter precursor miRNAs comprised four mir-36 (hmi-249 mir-36b, hmi-mir-36c, hmi-mir-36d, hmi-mir-36e), two mir-3479 (hmi-mir-3479a and hmi-mir-250 3479b), hmi-mir-210, hmi-mir-307, hmi-mir-7b, hmi-mir-124a and hmi-mir-277b. The secondary structures of all precursor miRNA sequences identified in H. microstoma are shown in 251 Supplementary Figure S1. Thus, we expanded the miRNA repertoire of *H. microstoma* 252 253 highlighting the potential of the deep sequencing approach for miRNA discovery. The repertoire of precursor miRNA sequences and their genomic location are shown in Supplementary Table 254 S2. 255

256 To discover miRNA precursors in the *H. nana* genome by using small RNAseq data of *H.* 

257 *microstoma*, we first mapped the small RNAseq reads of *H. microstoma* to *H. nana* genome. We

obtained a high percentage of genome mapping (average 90%, **Supplementary Table S1**). Then,

259 we predicted a high confidence repertoire of 37 conserved miRNAs in the *H. nana* genome. All

precursor miRNAs identified in *H. nana* were conserved in *H. microstoma*, with 81% (mir-210)

to 100% (bantam, mir-71, mir-2162) of sequence identity (average 95%). We did not find H.

262 *nana*-specific precursor miRNAs in the genome. The precursor miRNA sequences of *H. nana* 

and their genomic location are shown in **Supplementary Table S3**.

In addition, we performed a genome-wide discovery of miRNAs in Hymenolepis nana by using a

different approach based on the combination of three methods. We found a unique list of 36 best

266 candidates to miRNA precursors by the intersection of the three methods (Supplementary

**Figure S2).** All best candidates were previously found by using small RNAseq data of *H*.

268 *microstoma*. This is the first time that miRNAs are described in *H. nana*.

#### 270 3.2. *MiRNA expression profiling in* Hymenolepis microstoma *larvae*

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272 To analyze miRNA expression profiling in *H. microstoma* larvae the normalized reads per million of each mature miRNA were averaged among the three biological replicates. Correlation 273 analyses between pairs of biological replicates indicated high technical reproducibility and low 274 275 biological variation (r > 0.83). The mature miRNA repertoire and larval expression levels for the 276 37 mature *H. microstoma* miRNAs are shown in **Table 1**. For almost all precursor sequences identified (32/37), we detected the corresponding antisense 277 miRNA sequences consistent with the miRNA biogenesis model, adding confidence to the 278 predictions obtained (Supplementary Figure S1). Also, we found that most mature miRNAs in 279 *H. microstoma* (~ 65%) are processed from the 3' arm (**Table 1, Supplementary Figure S1**). 280 This bias was also observed in *Echinococcus* (Cucher et al., 2015; Macchiaroli et al., 2015), T. 281 crassiceps (Perez et al., 2017) and M. corti (Basika et al., 2016). In addition, this bias toward 3' 282 283 arm processing was observed in nematodes, fruit fly and plants (de Wit et al., 2009). For three precursor miRNAs (hmic-mir-36b, hmic-mir-210 and hmic-mir-3479b) the antisense miRNA 284 sequence was abundantly expressed (>30% with respect to the mature sequence) 285 286 (Supplementary Figure S1). Since the antisense miRNA sequence has a different seed sequence 287 that is the principal determinant of the interaction between miRNA and mRNA target, it may 288 indicate additional functions for the same miRNA gene. 289 Regarding miRNA expression profile, a few miRNAs showed very high expression levels 290 (Table 1). The most expressed miRNAs identified in *H. microstoma* larvae were hmic-miR-9-291 5p, hmic-miR-71-5p and hmic-miR-10-5p, which accounted for about 60% of total miRNA 292 expression. The expression of these miRNAs was followed by hmic-4989-3p and hmic-bantam-293 3p (Fig. 1). These top five miRNAs accounted for about 70% of the total miRNA expression.

294 The high expression of these miRNAs in *Hymenolepis larvae* is conserved in the larval stages of 295 the cestode parasites Echinococcus (Cucher et al., 2015; Macchiaroli et al., 2015), M. corti 296 (Basika et al., 2016) and T. cracisseps (Perez et al., 2017), suggesting an essential function in the 297 biology of the parasites. Interestingly, miR-9 and miR-10 are highly conserved miRNAs across metazoans with known roles in neural development (Yuva-Aydemir et al., 2011) and Hox 298 regulation (Lund, 2010; Tehler et al., 2011), respectively. MiR-71, a bilaterian miRNA absent in 299 300 vertebrates, is known to be involved in lifespan regulation and stress response in Caenorhabditis elegans (Zhang et al., 2011; Boulias and Horvitz, 2012). Recently, miR-71 and miR-10, were 301 predicted to target developmental pathways such as MAPK and Wnt in Echinococcus 302 303 (Macchiaroli et al., 2017). In addition, most miRNAs identified in H. microstoma larvae (24/37) showed very low expression levels, less than 1% of total miRNA reads (Table 1) and the low the 304 305 expression is conserved in the larval stages of the cestode parasites Echinococcus (Cucher et al., 306 2015; Macchiaroli et al., 2015), M. corti (Basika et al., 2016) and T. cracisseps (Perez et al., 2017). 307

#### 308 3.3. Evolutionary origin and conservation analysis of Hymenolepis miRNA families

309 The 37 miRNAs identified in both *Hymenolepis* species were classified into 27 miRNA families

according to the conservation of their seed regions (positions 2–7 of the mature miRNAs).

Among them, we found that six miRNA families had multiple members: miR-2 (miR-2a, miR-

2b, miR-2c), miR-7 (miR-7a, miR-7b), miR-36 (miR-36b, miR-36c, miR-36d, miR-36e), miR-

313 124 (miR-124a, miR-124b), miR-277 (miR-277a, miR-277b, miR-4989) and miR-3479 (miR-

314 3479a, miR-3479b). All miRNA families identified in *Hymenolepis* were conserved across

evolution and the protostomian-specific miR-36 family is the largest in *Hymenolepis*. Regarding

their evolutionary origin, we found one eumetazoan-specific miRNA family, 18 bilaterian-

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specific miRNA families and 8 protostomian-specific miRNA families in Hymenolepis (Fig. 2). 317

318 We did not find either lophotrochozoan-specific miRNA families or platyhelminth-specific

319 miRNA families (Fig. 2). The phylogenetic distribution of all expected miRNA families (Fromm

320 et al., 2013, 2017) was based on the classification of miRNA families by Wheeler et al. (2009)

and Tarver et al. (2013) and was confirmed by homology searches in miRBase v.22. 321

Interestingly, miR-71 is a bilaterian-specific miRNA that is absent in the subphylum Vertebrata 322 323 (Fig. 2).

We found that the small number of conserved miRNA families identified in Hymenolepis (~27) 324

is similar to that found in species of Echinococcus and Taenia, as well as M. corti, the trematode 325

326 S. mansoni, the monogenean Gyrodactylus salaris and the planarian S. mediterranea (Table 2).

These results agree with the loss of flatworm miRNAs proposed by Fromm et al. (2013) and 327

reflect the low morphological complexity of platyhelminths compared with other metazoans 328 329 consistent with previous knowledge (Niwa and Slack, 2007; Berezikov, 2011).

However, the total number of conserved miRNAs is ~ two-fold lower in parasitic platyhelminths

compared to the free-living S. mediterranea (Table 2). This may be due to a reduction in the

332 number of members of almost all miRNA families in parasitic platyhelminths compared to free-

living S. mediterranea (with exception of miR-3479 and miR-36). The reduced complement of 333

evolutionarily conserved miRNAs found in both Hymenolepis species may reflect their parasitic 334

lifestyle as previously described for other cestodes (Macchiaroli et al., 2015). Many microRNA 335

families are deeply conserved in bilaterian animals and display similar tissue specificities 336

337 between divergent species, suggesting a role in the evolution of tissue identity (Christodoulou et

- al., 2010). The loss of some of these deeply conserved miRNA families in tapeworms may be 338
- related to the loss or reduction of tissues and organs. For example, miRNAs associated with 339
- 340 locomotor related cilia (miR-29), gut (miR-216/miR-283, miR-278) and sensory organs (miR-

2001) were specifically lost in tapeworms, probably reflecting the reduction or loss of these cellsand organs.

343 Some differences between the miRNA repertoires of *Hymenolepis* and other parasitic

platyhelminths were found. Interestingly, we found four members of the miR-36 miRNA family

in *Hymenolepis*, whereas only two members of miR-36 were described in the cestodes

346 Echinococcus, Taenia and M. corti and the trematode S. mansoni. We found members of miR-

347 210 family in *Hymenolepis* that are not found in *Echinococcus* and *Schistosoma*. Recently, two

348 members of the miRNA mir-210 family were identified by us for the first time in *M. corti:* mco-

miR-12065-3p and mco-miR-12066-3p (Basika et al., 2016) and one member in *Taenia* (Perez et

al., 2017).

We did not identify miR-8 and miR-1992 orthologs in *Hymenolepis*, consistent with a previous report from *H. microstoma* (Jin et al., 2013) and *M. corti* (Basika et al., 2016). Also, miR-8 was

not identified in *Taenia* (Perez et al., 2017). However, these two miRNAs were found to be

expressed in *Echinococcus* (Bai et al., 2014; Cucher et al., 2015; Macchiaroli et al., 2015),

suggesting that miR-8 and miR-1992 may have been lost during evolution in *H. microstoma* 

356 (Table 2). We also searched for mir-8 and mir-1992 orthologs bioinformatically within the

357 genome of *H. microstoma* but we did not find them. However, we cannot rule out that these

358 miRNAs that are not expressed in the larval stage here analyzed could be present in the genomes.

359 It would be interesting to analyze small RNAseq data of other stages in order to confirm if these

two miRNAs and other known cestode miRNA families are identified, especially miR-1992 that

is the only lophotrochozoan-specific miRNA present in cestodes.

#### 363 **3.4.** *MiRNA clusters in* Hymenolepis

evolutionary and functional importance.

MiRNAs can be grouped into clusters in the genome if they are less than 10 kb apart (miRBase 364 365 v22) suggesting co-expression as a single transcriptional unit (Bartel, 2004). MiRNA clusters 366 have been found in the genomes of many species, including helminth parasites (miRBase 22). To investigate the presence of miRNA clusters in Hymenolepis, the genomic arrangement of the 367 37 miRNAs identified in this study was assessed. We found three miRNA clusters conserved in 368 369 both Hymenolepis species: mir-71/2c/2b, mir-277a/4989 and mir-36c/36d/36e. Each miRNA cluster comprised a genomic region of up to 320 bp and located in intergenic regions 370 (Supplementary Table S4). The predicted secondary structure of the three clusters found in 371 372 Hymenolepis is shown in Fig. 3. The miRNA clusters mir-71/2c/2b and mir-277a/4989 were previously reported in H. microstoma (Jin et al., 2013), whereas the miRNA cluster mir-373 374 36c/36d/36e was identified for the first time in the class Cestoda in this study. All three miRNA 375 clusters were described for the first time in *H. nana*. It has been proposed that mir-1 and mir-133 form another cluster in H. microstoma (Jin et al., 376 2013). Although miR-1 and miR-133 clustering is highly conserved across metazoan species 377 (Campo-Paysaa et al., 2011), we found that mir-1 is located 15 kb far from mir-133 suggesting 378 that these miRNAs are not co-expressed as a single transcriptional unit in *Hymenolepis*, 379 380 consistent with the situation reported in *Echinococcus* (Cucher et al., 2015; Macchiaroli et al., 2015). *M. corti* (Basika et al., 2016) and *T. solium* (Perez et al., 2017). 381 It is estimated that more than 40% of human miRNAs and more than 30% in worms and flies are 382 383 found in cluster with other miRNAs (Griffiths-Jones et al., 2008). Here, we found a smaller percentage of miRNAs in clusters in both Hymenolepis genomes ~ 20% (8/37) and other 384 cestodes analyzed. The fact that miRNA clusters are conserved across evolution suggests 385

#### 388 3.4.1. *The miRNA cluster mir-71/mir-2c/mir-2b in* Hymenolepis

The miRNA cluster mir-71/mir-2c/mir-2b is a protostomian-specific miRNA cluster highly 389 390 conserved within platyhelminths. The mir-71 cluster with members of the mir-2 family is 391 conserved in Schistosoma (Huang et al., 2009; de Souza Gomes et al., 2011) and S. mediterranea (Palakodeti et al., 2006), among other species within platyhelminths. Also, clustering of mir-71 392 393 and mir-2 has been found in nematodes indicating wider evolutionary conservation (Winter et 394 al., 2012). Phylogenetic analyses have been done recently in other platyhelminths that showed 395 multiple copies of mir-71 cluster (Fromm et al., 2013; Jin et al., 2013). We did not find 396 additional copies of this cluster in *Hymenolepis* concurring with previous studies from 397 Echinococcus, Mesocestoides corti and Taenia solium (Cucher et al., 2015; Macchiaroli et al., 398 2015; Basika et al., 2016; Perez et al., 2017). Regarding the evolutionary origin of the members of this cluster, miR-71 is a bilaterian-specific miRNA family absent in vertebrata, whereas miR-399 400 2 is a protostomian-specific miRNA family. Whether the conserved genomic arrangement 401 among platyhelminths means functional conservation of this cluster within this lineage remains to be investigated. 402 Regarding expression of *H. microstoma* miRNAs encoded in clusters, we found different levels 403 404 of expression between members of the cluster mir-71/2c/2b. This result agree with previous

observations in Echinococcus (Cucher et al., 2015), M. corti (Basika et al., 2016) and T.

subject to sophisticated regulation through control of miRNA processing, RNA editing or

crassiceps (Perez et al., 2017). This could be explained by the fact that miRNA themselves are

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miRNA decay (Krol et al., 2010).

#### 410 3.4.2. The miRNA cluster mir-277a/4989 in Hymenolepis

411 The miRNA cluster mir-277a/4989 is a lophotrochozoan-specific cluster highly conserved across Platyhelminthes. The alignment of the Hymenolepis cluster mir-277/4989 and its orthologs 412 413 across Plathyhelminthes is shown in Fig. 4A. The mature miRNA sequences miR-4989 and miR-277a are located in the 3'arm of their corresponding precursor sequences. The alignment showed 414 a high level of nucleotide conservation in the mature miRNA sequences of all platyhelminths 415 416 analyzed, especially in the seed regions, and the whole sequences are highly conserved only in 417 the Cestoda lineage. Although the two members of the cluster mir-277a/4989 belong to the protostomian miRNA family mir-277, their genomic organization in cluster was only found in 418 419 lophotrochozoan species (miRBase v22). One additional copy of a cluster that contains two members of the mir-277 family was described in the free living S. mediterranea (Palakodeti et 420 421 al., 2006). Recently, cluster mir-277/4989 was found in the trematode Schistosoma mansoni 422 (Protasio et al., 2017). Interestingly, the results of that study suggest that the cluster mir-277/4989 might play a dominant role in post transcriptional regulation during development of 423 juvenile worms in Schistosoma mansoni. Whether this cluster plays a developmental role in 424 425 *Hymenolepis* remains to be investigated. We also performed for the first time a phylogenetic 426 analysis of the cluster miR-277a/4989 that confirmed the relationship of the parasitic platyhelminths highlighting the potential of miRNAs as phylogenetic markers (Fig. 4B). 427 428

#### 429 3.4.3. The miRNA cluster mir-36c/36d/36e in Hymenolepis

The miRNA cluster mir-36c/36d/36e was identified for the first time in the class Cestoda in this
study. Although this cluster is not conserved in Platyhelminthes (Lophotrochozoa), members of
the mir-36 family were found to be in cluster with members of the same or other miRNA family

433 in S. mediterranea (sme-mir-36c/36a and sme-mir-36b/let7b) and S. mansoni (sma-mir-36b/8406). In addition, the miRNA family miR-36 has a protostomian origin, and also their 434 435 arrangement in cluster with members of the same family. Interestingly, this cluster is conserved 436 in Nematoda (Ecdysozoa), where this miRNA family has multiple members organized in clusters. In the free-living C. elegans the miR-36 cluster is composed of seven members of this 437 family (mir-35 to mir-41). In this model organism, deletion of the miR-36 cluster produces 438 439 embryonic and larval lethality suggesting an essential role in early development (Alvarez-Saavedra and Horvitz, 2010). In parasitic nematodes such as Brugia malayi, four members of the 440 miR-36 family have been identified (Poole et al., 2014) with three of them (miR-36c/36d/36c) 441 442 organized in a cluster with five members of other families. However, the whole cluster is contained in a genomic region of ~12,000 bp (miRBase v.22). Recently, miR-36 from S. 443 444 *mansoni*, among others, was found to be secreted *in vitro* (Samoil et al., 2018).

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#### 446 3.5. Genomic arrangement of Hymenolepis miRNAs

447 The genomic arrangement of the 37 miRNAs identified in both Hymenolepis species was analyzed. This analysis showed that most precursor miRNAs 92% (34/37) were located in 448 449 intergenic regions distant from annotated genes, and 8% (3/37) were located in introns of protein coding genes in Hymenolepis. The bias in the genomic location found in this study was also 450 451 observed in other platyhelminths such as E. multilocularis (Cucher et al., 2015) and S. japonicum 452 (Cai et al., 2011) where 81% and 90% of the miRNA complement, respectively, was located in intergenic regions. The three intronic miRNAs found in this study in Hymenolepis were mir-190. 453 454 mir-96 and mir-3479b (Supplementary Table S2 and Supplementary Table S3).

#### 456 **3.5.1.** The intronic miRNAs in *Hymenolepis*

457 We also performed a comparative analysis of the genomic location of the three intronic miRNAs

458 identified in each *Hymenolepis* species across selected platyhelminths with available genomes: *S*.

459 *mediterranea*, *S. mansoni*, *E. multilocularis*, *E. granulosus*, *E. canadensis*, *T. solium* and *M.* 

460 *corti*. The results of this analysis are shown in **Table 3**.

461 We found that the bilaterian miRNA mir-190 was located within the intron of the protein coding

462 gene *talin* in both *Hymenolepis* species. Also, we report for the first time that the genomic

463 location of miR-190 was conserved in *M. corti*, *T. solium*, *E. granulosus* and *E. canadensis*.

464 These findings are consistent with previous studies, where mir-190 has been found in the intronic

region of the *talin* gene in the platyhelminths *H. microstoma*, *E. multilocularis* and *S. mansoni* 

466 (Table 3) and in higher metazoans including *Homo sapiens* (Campo-Paysaa et al., 2011).

467 Recently, mir-190 was also found to be located in an intron of the gene encoding *talin* protein in

three Opisthorchiids (Ovchinnikov et al., 2015). Several functions have been proposed for miR-

469 190 in mammals, for example it regulates *neurogenic differentiation 1* (NeuroD) activity and can

also interact with other transcription factors that regulate neurogenesis, such as Pax6 (Zheng et

471 al., 2012). *Talin* is an adhesion plaque protein that links the integrin-mediated cell–matrix

472 contacts to the actin cytoskeleton. These interactions play an important role in regulating synapse

473 morphology and number, neuron-neuron and neuromuscular synaptic transmission, and

474 neuroplasticity that modulates neuronal cell proliferation, migration, and differentiation

475 (Venstrom and Reichardt, 1993).

476 In addition, we found that the bilaterian miRNA mir-96 was located within the intron of the

477 protein coding gene *Fras1-related extracellular matrix protein (Frem1)* in *H. microstoma* 

478 consistent with Jin et al. (2013). Also, in this study, we found that this arrangement was

479 conserved in *E. granulosus*, concurring with previous reports from *E. multilocularis* and *S.* 

480 *mediterranea* (Table 3). Also, in this study, we found that this arrangement was conserved in E. granulosus, concurring with previous reports from E. multilocularis and S. mediterranea (Table 481 482 3). Unlike miR-190, the intronic location of miR-96 is not conserved in mammals. Recently, it 483 was shown that miR-96 is a sensory organ-specific miRNA expressed in the mammalian cochlea that regulates the progression of differentiation of inner and outer hair cells during development 484 (Kuhn et al., 2011). The extracellular matrix protein *Frem1* plays a role in epidermal 485 486 differentiation and is essential for epidermal adhesion during embryonic development in mice (Smyth et al., 2004). 487 Here we found for the first time that the bilaterian miRNA mir-3479b (family miR-92/25, seed 488 489 AUUGCA), was located within the intron of the protein coding gene minichromosome maintenance complex component 2 (mcm2) in H. microstoma. Also, in this study, we found that 490 this arrangement was conserved in *E. granulosus* consistent with previous reports in *E.* 491 492 *multilocularis* (Cucher et al., 2015). Interestingly, the human miRNA mir-25 (family miR-92/25, seed AUUGCA) is a member of the miRNA cluster mir-25/93/106b that is located in the 493 thirteenth intron of the gene mcm-7 in Homo sapiens (Rodriguez et al., 2004). Recently, the miR-494 495 25-93-106b cluster was shown to regulate tumor metastasis and immune evasion (Cioffi et al., 496 2017). Also, miR-92 was shown to be part of a cancer miRNA signature composed by a large portion of overexpressed miRNAs (Volinia et al., 2006). The protein encoded by the mcm7 497 belongs to the highly conserved *mcm* protein family of DNA helicases that are essential for the 498 initiation of genome replication in eukaryotes. High expression levels of this protein promote 499 500 cancer progression (Ou et al., 2017). Interestingly, the functions of both the intronic miRNAs and their host genes suggest that they 501

502 may be functionally related in higher organisms. It remains to be determined whether the intronic

503 miRNAs are functionally related with their host gene in *Hymenolepis* and in other flatworms.

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504 The three intronic miRNAs found here are bilaterian-specific and are located in the same 505 orientation of their corresponding host genes suggesting that they may depend on their host gene 506 promoter for transcription resulting in a coordinated expression. Also, the small length of mir-507 190 and mir-3479b harboring introns in all species supports this hypothesis. The only exception was mir-190 harboring intron in S. mansoni (Table 3). In addition, we found that all intronic 508 509 miRNAs were located in the last introns of their corresponding host genes and this structure is 510 conserved among the platyhelminths analyzed (Table 3). It would be interesting to determine whether this location has implications for the regulation of their expression. Interestingly, the 511 three intronic miRNAs and their host genes are expressed at very low levels; less than 1% 512 513 (Table 1) and less than 100 FPKM, respectively. Finally, the lack of conservation of the 514 genomic location of mir-96 and mir-3479b in H. nana genome could be due to the draft nature of 515 the genome assembly in this species. The H. nana genome is highly fragmented (16,212 516 scaffolds in the WBPS9 release available from Wormbase Parasite compared to 3,643 scaffolds for *H. microstoma*) making the genome localization of miRNAs and the analysis of their 517 genomic context more difficult. The same interpretation may be valid for E. canadensis. 518 519

#### 3.5.2. The mir-10 genomic organization in Hymenolepis 520

Mir-10 is one of the most ancient miRNAs that is present in all species of metazoans. In most 521 522 bilateral animal species, mir-10 is encoded within Hox clusters (Campo-Paysaa et al., 2011). In this work, we found that one of the neighboring genes of mir-10 in *H. microstoma* was a Hox 523 gene (HmN\_000772500) and was located 41 kb apart from mir-10. We also found that this 524 genome arrangement was conserved in E. granulosus and E. canadensis (Supplementary Table 525 **S5**). These findings are consistent with our previous results in the cestodes *E. multilocularis* 526 (Cucher et al., 2015) and T. solium (Perez et al., 2017) where the neighboring genes in these

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528	species were the Homeobox protein Hox B4a (EmuJ_000813900) and the Homeobox protein
529	mab 5 (TsM_000864600), respectively. These genes were found to be located 25 kb far from
530	mir-10 in both species (Supplementary Table S5). In addition, we found that one of the
531	neighboring genes of mir-10 in the trematode S. mansoni was a Gsx family Homeobox protein
532	(Smp_081620) and was located 84 kb far from mir-10, consistent with previous results (de Souza
533	Gomes et al., 2011). Recently, miR-10 was predicted to target Hox genes and transcription
534	factors in T. solium (Perez et al., 2017). Also, miR-10 was predicted to target one homeobox
535	containing protein from the Meis family in all <i>Echinococcus</i> species (Macchiaroli et al., 2017).
536	In mammals, mir-10a resides upstream from Hoxb4 and mir-10b upstream from Hoxd4 (Lund,
537	2010). We found that the flatworm Homeobox proteins above mentioned are all orthologs of
538	Hox4 in vertebrates (Tsai et al., 2013). Here, we showed a strong conservation of the genomic
539	organization of mir-10 and Hox4 gene in flatworms. However, the distance between mir-10 and
540	the corresponding Hox4 gene is greater than in vertebrates (i.e. whole HoxA cluster ~100 kb)
541	(Santini et al., 2003). Whether the genomic organization of mir-10 in Hymenolepis and related
542	flatworms is functionally linked with the Hox genes remains to be investigated.
543	In many species, miR-10 is co-expressed with Hox genes (Lund, 2010; Tehler et al., 2011).
544	Interestingly, we found that miR-10 was one of the most expressed miRNAs in <i>H. microstoma</i>
545	larvae. It would be interesting to determine whether the neighboring Hox gene is expressed in a
546	similar pattern in this parasite stage.
547	Parasitic flatworms, including Hymenolepis, have the smallest complement of Homeobox genes

of any studied bilaterian animal (Tsai et al., 2013). In addition, Hox genes are at least partially

- dispersed within the genome and flatworms and may not exhibit temporal colinearity in the 549
- expression patterns characteristic of Hox genes of many other animal groups (Olson, 2008). As 550

551 mentioned above, parasitic flatworms have only one copy of miR-10 in the genome, whereas

mammals and zebrafish have two and five copies, respectively (Tehler et al., 2011).

553 The other neighboring gene of mir-10 in *H. microstoma* was HmN\_002012500, a protein coding

gene that is the ortholog of the nuclear hormone receptor protein nhr-25 of *C. elegans*. Thus,

555 mir-10 is flanked by two transcription factors in *H. microstoma*, and this genomic organization is 556 conserved in *E. multilocularis* and *E. granulosus*, but not in *S. mansoni*.

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#### 558 **3.6. Hymenolepis** miRNAs as potential biomarkers

In this work, we identified some mature miRNAs in *Hymenolepis* that could represent potential biomarkers or therapeutic targets. Some parasite miRNAs are protostome-specific such as miR-277 and bantam or bilaterian-specific but absent in the vertebrate host such miR-71. Others are bilateria-specific but divergent at the sequence level from their host orthologs such as miR-3479 (miR-92 family). In addition, other miRNAs are highly conserved across metazoans such as miR-10. Interestingly, several recent works have shown that members of these families are

secreted in parasitic helminths and can be detected in the serum of the host.

In recent work from our group, miR-71 and miR-277 from the cestode *T. crassiceps* were found

to be secreted *in vitro* (Ancarola et al., 2017). Recently, miR-71, bantam and miR-3479 from the

trematode S. mansoni were found to be secreted in vitro, and also miR-71 and bantam were

detected in serum of infected mice (Samoil et al., 2018). In a previous study, miR-277, miR-

570 3479 and bantam from *S. mansoni* were detected in the serum of infected mice and human

571 patients and could distinguish infected individuals with high specificity and sensitivity (Hoy et

al., 2014). In addition, miR-10 was only found in serum of mice infected with S. mansoni (Hoy

et al., 2014). Also, miR-100 (miR-10 family), bantam and miR-71 from the filarial nematode

*Litomosoides sigmodontis* were among the most abundant miRNAs detected in the serum of
infected mice, thus confirming *in vivo* secretion of parasite miRNAs (Buck et al., 2014). Also,
miR-10 and miR-71 from the filarial nematode *Dirofilaria immitis* were detected in plasma of
infected dogs (Tritten et al., 2014). Among others, miR-71, miR-100 and bantam from the filarial
nematode *Onchocerca volvulus* were detected in serum of infected humans (Quintana et al.,
2015).

Taken together, these results suggest that parasite miRNAs might be evaluated as novel biomarkers for detecting helminth infection. It will be important to determine whether these miRNAs can also be secreted by *Hymenolepis* and to assess whether they may be detected in serum of infected humans. Since miRNAs are main components of the eukaryotic transcriptome they require further investigation in *Hymenolepis*. Parasite miRNAs could complement existing diagnostic techniques to improve diagnosis and may provide a platform for further research in the area of therapeutic targets of neglected parasites.

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#### 588 4. Conclusions

The recent availability of the genome assemblies of *Hymenolepis* and the limited knowledge 589 590 about miRNAs in these zoonotic neglected parasites encouraged us to identify and characterize these small, non-coding RNAs that have recently emerged as potential biomarkers and 591 therapeutic targets of infections. In this work we described for the first time the expression 592 profile of the miRNA complement in H. microstoma, and discovered miRNA genes at the 593 594 genome-wide level in *H. nana* using two different approaches. The high expression of a few 595 miRNAs in the larval stage of *H. microstoma* is conserved in other cestodes suggesting that these miRNAs may have important roles in development, survival and for host-parasite interplay. We 596 597 found a reduced complement of evolutionarily conserved miRNAs in both *Hymenolepis* species,

putatively reflecting their low morphological complexity and parasitic lifestyle. We performed a 598 599 comparative analysis of the identified miRNAs and examined their genomic arrangement across 600 the Cestoda providing new insights about their post-transcriptional mechanisms. Our results 601 showed that most of the miRNAs in *Hymenolepis* are located in intergenic regions implying that they are independently transcribed. Interestingly, we found a Hymenolepis-specific cluster 602 composed of three members of the mir-36 family. Also, we found that one of the neighboring 603 604 genes of mir-10 in H. microstoma was a Hox gene as in most bilaterial species. In addition, some *Hymenolepis* miRNAs are protostome-specific or bilaterian-specific, but divergent from host 605 orthologs and therefore could represent novel biomarkers of *Hymenolepis* infection. This study 606 607 provides a valuable resource for further experimental research in cestode biology that might lead to improved detection and control of these neglected parasites. 608

609

#### 610 Conflict of interest

611 All authors declare no conflict of interest.

#### 612

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Fig. 3. Secondary structures of miRNA clusters identified in *Hymenolepis microstoma* and *Hymenolepis nana* predicted with RNAfold. hmi-mir-71/2c/2b (A), hmi-mir-277a/4989 (B),
hmi-mir-36c/36d/36e (C), hna-mir-71/2c/2b (D), hna-mir-277a/4989 (E), hna-mir-36c/36d/36e
(F). Precursor miRNA sequences are indicated and the minimun free energy (MFE) of each
cluster is shown.

Fig. 4. Alignment and phylogenetic analysis of the *Hymenolepis* miRNA cluster mir-4989/277a 883 884 with its orthologs across Plathyhelminthes: Schmidtea mediterranea (sme), Schistosoma mansoni 885 (sma), Mesocestoides corti (mco), Taenia solim (tsol), Echinococcus multilocularis (emu), 886 Echinococcus canadensis (eca), Echinococcus granulosus (egr). Alignment of precursor miRNA sequences was performed using MUSCLE followed by RNAalifold. The conserved nucleotides 887 888 are highlighted in grey scale and the mature miRNA are indicated with a box. The level of 889 nucleotide identity is indicated with grey color below the alignment (A). Phylogenetic tree was inferred using the Maximum Likelihood method based on the Tamura 3-parameter model in 890 891 MEGA7. The sequence alignment used as input is shown above. The percentage of trees in 892 which the sequences clustered together is shown next to the branches. The support for the node 893 was assessed using 2000 bootstrap replicates (B).

#### 894 Supplementary Figure legends

Supplementary Fig. S1. Secondary structures of all precursor miRNA sequences identified in *Hymenolepis microstoma* predicted with mfold.

Supplementary Fig. S2. Genome-wide discovery of *Hymenolepis nana* miRNAs based on the
combination of three methods, miRNA-SOM, deepSOM and miRNAss. The number of miRNA
candidates discovered by each method is shown.