Molecular and functional characterization of the *Drosophila melanogaster*

conserved smORFome

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Summary:

Short polypeptides encoded by small open reading frames (smORFs) are ubiquitously

found in eukaryotic genomes and are important regulators of physiology, development,

and mitochondrial processes. Here, we focus on a subset of 298 smORFs that are

evolutionarily conserved between *Drosophila melanogaster* and humans. Many of these

smORFs are conserved broadly in the bilaterian lineage, with ~182 conserved in plants.

Within these conserved smORFs, we observed remarkably heterogenous spatial and

temporal expression patterns – indicating wide-spread tissue-specific and stage-specific

mitochondrial architectures. In addition, an analysis of annotated functional domains

revealed a predicted enrichment of smORF polypeptides localizing to mitochondria. We

conducted an embryonic ribosome profiling experiment finding support for translation of

137 of these smORFs during embryogenesis. We further embarked on functional

characterization using CRISPR knockout/activation, RNAi knockdown, and cDNA

overexpression, revealing diverse phenotypes. This study underscores the importance

of identifying smORF function in disease and phenotypic diversity.

Introduction:

Genome annotations have often overlooked proteins with less than 100 amino acids, although many have been shown to play important roles in development and physiology and are pervasive across the Tree of Life (Couso and Patraquim, 2017; Guerra-Almeida et al., 2021; Plaza et al., 2017). While some small proteins are cleavage products of longer proteins, many others are encoded in the genome by small open reading frames (smORF genes; δ 100 amino acids). Strikingly, it has been reported that human disease-associated variants from genome-wide association studies (GWAS) are enriched in smORF genes (Jain et al., 2023). These estimates underscore the functional roles of smORFs and relevance to human diseases.

Advances in proteomics and next-generation sequencing (NGS) technologies have led to a significantly improved annotation of smORF genes. There is evidence for >2,500 smORF genes in humans (Martinez et al., 2020), and there are over 1,000 annotated smORF genes in the *Drosophila melanogaster* genome (Adams et al., 2000). Some smORF genes are important regulators of physiology, development and metabolism and encode hormones (Pearson et al., 1993), neurotransmitters (Snyder and Innis, 1979), ligands and cofactors (Yang et al., 2015), RNA and DNA binding factors, and components of ribonucleoproteins (Henras et al., 1998). Interestingly, a number of them are involved in numerous mitochondrial functions and processes (Bosch et al., 2022; Rathore et al., 2018; Stein et al., 2018). Notably, studies in insects have defined the functions of several smORF peptides, such as Tarsal-less/mille-pattes/polished-rice (Chanut-Delalande et al., 2014; Galindo et al., 2007; Kondo et al., 2010; Savard et al.,

2006), Brd (Bardin and Schweisguth, 2006; Chanet and Schweisguth, 2012; Lai et al.,

2000), and Pgc (Hanyu-Nakamura et al., 2008).

Although smORF genes are prevalent in metazoan genomes, a surprisingly small

number of these genes are evolutionarily conserved in animals suggesting a high birth

and death rate for these genes (Mackowiak et al., 2015; Martinez et al., 2020). For

instance, there are over 2,500 smORF sequences with ribosome profiling evidence of

translation across human cell lines, but only 273 of these human smORFs in the mouse

genome based on computational analysis (Martinez et al., 2020). smORF genes with

deep evolutionary conservation are therefore of particular interest because of their

assumed importance to the health and fitness across Metazoa and their implications for

human health and disease. Again, studies in Drosophila have pioneered the

bioinformatic identification of smORF peptides, using techniques such as amino acid

conservation, ribosomal profiling, and proteomics (Fabre et al., 2022; Ladoukakis et al.,

2011; Patraquim et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022).

Here, we characterize a collection of 298 fly smORFs conserved with human. For a

subset of these smORFs, we describe their spatial expression patterns and phenotypes

associated with gene loss of function or overexpression. Many of the pronounced

phenotypes are associated with expression in neural tissue, and genes encoding

mitochondrial proteins. In addition, several phenotypes were detectable only in flies

subjected to stressful diets. This study serves as a resource for the functional

annotation of this diverse and under-studied class of genes.

Results:

Deep conservation of smORFs

We identified 298 smORF genes that are evolutionarily conserved between humans and

Drosophila melanogaster, which we refer to as conserved smORFs (Materials and

Methods; Supplemental File 1). All 298 are currently annotated as protein coding. We

further analyzed conservation of these smORFs with the well-annotated transcriptomes

of zebrafish (*Danio rerio*), nematodes (*Caenorhabditis elegans)* and thale cress

(*Arabidopsis thaliana)* (Figure 1A). There are 274 conserved in zebrafish, and 239

conserved in *C. elegans*. Notably, 182 conserved smORFs were also conserved in

Arabidopsis, providing evidence for the functional importance of this dataset in non-

Bilateria eukaryotes. Finally, amino acid alignment of many of the human-fly conserved

smORFs, such as *bc10*, *CG42497*, and *Tim10,* reveal that they are also conserved

among other invertebrate and vertebrate species (Figure 1B).

Of the 298 *Drosophila* conserved smORFs, 32 are polycistronic (Supplemental File 1,

see example in Figure 1C). Remarkably, while the individual smORFs that reside in

Drosophila polycistronic transcripts are evolutionarily conserved, their polycistronic

structure is generally not - indicating a complex evolutionary history. Interestingly, there

are three conserved smORFs encoded by polycistronic transcripts in both fly and *C.*

elegans, *CG42372, CG42375* and *Mocs2A*. Between flies and zebrafish, there are two

smORFs encoded by polycistronic transcripts in both species, *CG42497* and *Mocs2A*.

However, between flies and humans, or flies and *Arabidopsis,* there are none. All non-

fly smORF orthologs are currently annotated as protein-coding.

Gene Ontology analysis of conserved smORFs

The functions of conserved smORFs are diverse, as with any broad category of genes.

Gene Ontology (GO) Cellular Component enrichment analysis of conserved smORFs

determined that the majority of significantly enriched GO terms are associated with

mitochondrial function and localization (Figure 2, Supplemental File 2). Indeed, 66

conserved smORFs are predicted to be involved in mitochondrial function

(Supplemental File 2). "Mitochondrion" ($P = 1.46 \times 10^{-51}$) which contains 63 conserved

smORFs is the most significantly enriched GO Cellular Component terms in this

dataset, with "Mitochondrial Envelope" as the second most significantly enriched GO

Cellular Component term ($P = 2.2 \times 10^{-49}$) (Figure 2). Additional significantly enriched

terms include mitochondrial inner membrane ($P = 1.4 \times 10^{-45}$) and cytochrome complex

($P = 6.09 \times 10^{-24}$) (Figure 2).

The oxidative phosphorylation pathway is the only significantly enriched pathway in the

smORF dataset ($P = 7.33 \times 10^{-31}$; (Kanehisa et al., 2021) KEGG; Supplemental File 2,

Figure 2, Figure S1). Four of the genes in the oxidative phosphorylation pathway,

COX6CL, CG40472, COX7CL, and *UQCR-6.4L,* are paralogs of annotated fly genes:

cyclope (*cype*) encoding the *cytochrome c oxidase subunit 6C, NADH dehydrogenase*

(ubiquinone) AGGG subunit (*ND-AGGG*)*, Ubiquinol-cytochrome c reductase 6.4 kDa*

subunit (*UQCR-6.4*) and *Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 7C* (*COX7C*). Interestingly,

COX6CL, COX7CL and UQCR-6.4L are primarily expressed in the adult testis, whereas

their paralogs (*cype*, *COX7C,* and *UQCR-6.4*, respectively*)* are ubiquitously expressed

(Brown et al., 2014).

In contrast to the GO Cellular Component enrichment analysis, the most significantly

enriched Biological Function and Molecular Process GO terms are related to serine-

endopeptidase inhibitor activity (Figure 2; Supplemental File 2). For instance, the most

significantly enriched Molecular Function GO term is serine-type endopeptidase inhibitor

activity (P = 2.91 x 10^{-22}) (Figure 2). Notably, 32 of the 80 predicted serine-

endopeptidase inhibitors in the *D. melanogaster* genome are in the conserved smORF

dataset. Of these 32 smORFs, 22 contain a predicted pancreatic trypsin inhibitor Kunitz

domain (Interpro: IPR036880), and 10 smORFs contain a predicted a Kazal domain

(Interpro: IPR036058) - providing evidence that these 32 conserved smORFs are

serine-endopeptidase inhibitors (Rawlings et al., 2004). Additionally, all 32 of these

predicted serine-endopeptidase inhibitors contain an N-terminal secretion signal

(SignalP6.0; 0.982 or higher score) (Teufel et al., 2022).

In situ imaging of smORF mRNA expression in embryos

To better understand the functional roles of smORFs in *Drosophila*, we performed in situ

mRNA hybridization to visualize smORF expression during embryogenesis

(Supplemental File 3; https://insitu.fruitfly.org/). Of these, organ-specific expression (i.e.,

"patterned" expression) could be assigned for 143 conserved smORFs during

embryonic development (Supplemental File 3).

In addition to patterned expression, conserved smORFs can also be classified as being

"maternally deposited", and therefore ubiquitously expressed in the embryo in the

earliest developmental stage(s), and/or classified as being "ubiquitously expressed",

where expression is observed throughout the full embryo after the earliest

developmental stage (Supplemental File 4). We found that 59 conserved smORFs were

classified as only being maternally deposited and/or being ubiquitously expressed (i.e.,

expressed throughout the entire embryo without assigned organ patterns) in at least

one embryonic stage. Of these 59 smORFs, *CG15456* and *UQCR-6.4L* are the only

smORF with no observed expression after maternal deposition (i.e., after initial

embryonic stages 1-3).

The remaining 86 smORFs revealed no observed expression in the embryo. In each

case this was concordant with RNA-seq (Brown et al., 2018): these smORFs are

expressed later in development, and in specific tissues, or under stress conditions

(Brown et al., 2018).

In situ imaging of mitochondria-associated smORF mRNA expression

Notably, mitochondria-associated conserved smORFs exhibited heterogenous spatial

expression patterns, indicating tissue- and stage-specific mitochondrial architectures,

and, by extension, tissue- and stage-specific mitochondrial functions (Figure 3). Of

these, expression could be assigned as patterned for 42 smORFs. (Figure 3). We

clustered these mitochondria-associated conserved smORFs with patterned expression

into six groups - showing extensive inter- and intra-group heterogeneity in organ system

expression patterns (Figure 3).

Nearly all (42/45) patterned mitochondria-associated conserved smORFs were

maternally deposited (Supplemental Files 3 and 4), and 32/34 were annotated as being

ubiquitously expressed in at least one later embryonic stage (Supplementary File 3). Of

the two conserved smORFs without ubiquitous expression after maternal deposition,

one (*Cox17*) shows robust embryonic expression under RNA-seq (Brown et al., 2014),

but *in situ* hybridization was unsuccessful; while the other is only annotated as

patterned post maternal deposition (*CG17734*) (Supplemental File 4). However, nearly

all patterned, mitochondrial smORFs (33/34) exhibit complex and tissue specific

expression patterns after early embryonic ubiquitous expression (usually due to

maternal deposition) (Supplemental File 4). Hence, the zygotic regulation of structural

and functional components of mitochondria is highly patterned and specific to individual

tissues and cell types.

Ribosome profiling and proteomics analysis to support the translation of

conserved smORFs

To verify the translation of conserved smORFs, we performed ribosome profiling for six,

2-hour embryonic stages and six, 0-24 hr. mixed stage embryo samples (Figure 4;

Figure S2, Supplemental Files 5 and 6). We find evidence of translation for 137 (46%)

conserved smORFs from these embryonic samples. We find that 42 (14%) conserved

smORFs are detected in only a single embryonic stage (Supplemental File 5),

consistent with transcriptional evidence from extensive RNA-seq experiments in a

developmental time course (Brown et al., 2014; Graveley et al., 2011).

We analyzed published *Drosophila* proteomics datasets (Aradska et al., 2015; Brown et

al., 2018; Bucio-Mendez et al., 2019; Cammarato et al., 2011; Casas-Vila et al., 2017;

Chen et al., 2015; Dorus et al., 2006; Fabre et al., 2022; Wasbrough et al., 2010) that

provided translation and/or polypeptide support for 186 total conserved smORFs

(Supplemental File 5). Our polysome experiments provide support for an additional 22

smORFs, leaving 90 with no proteomics support. Analysis of comprehensive *Drosophila*

modENCODE mRNA expression data (Brown et al., 2014) revealed 53/90 (59%) of the

conserved smORFs without evidence for translation or peptides are maximally

expressed in testes or accessory gland (Figure S3). Notably, 47/53 (89%) of these

conserved smORFs that are maximally expressed in testes and accessory gland are

classified as having no or low mRNA expression throughout embryogenesis, and their

expression is testes- and/or accessory gland-specific (Brown et al., 2014; Graveley et

al., 2011). Interestingly, 40/47 (85%) of these smORFs have a human homolog that are

expressed in testes (GTEx Portal, TPM >1).

Functional analysis of smORF genes by F1 CRISPR screens

Next, we assessed if conserved smORFs have important biological functions in

Drosophila by modifying their gene function in vivo. First, to knock out (KO) smORF

gene function in a systematic manner, we used a CRISPR/Cas9-based transgenic

crossing strategy (Port et al., 2020; Zirin et al., 2020) where a Cas9-expressing line is

crossed with sgRNA lines that target 5' coding sequence (sgRNA-KO). The resulting

progeny will contain somatic indels in the target gene that disrupt gene function. We

generated a collection of 177 sgRNA-KO lines that target 165 smORF genes

(Supplemental File 7). Each smORF sgRNA-KO line was crossed with *Act5c-Cas9*

(ubiquitous Cas9) and F1 progeny were screened for defects in viability, morphology, or

gross motor behavior (Figure 5A). Of the 115 sgRNA-KO lines tested, 14 (representing

14 genes) gave no mutant adult progeny or very few compared to controls (Figure 5B;

Supplemental File 7), suggesting that they are essential genes. No other obvious

morphological or behavioral phenotypes were observed for the remaining sgRNA-KO

lines.

To determine if the 14 putative essential smORFs play an important role in individual

tissues, we crossed the 14 sgRNA-KO hit lines to cell-type specific Cas9 lines (muscles,

gut enterocytes, dorsal thorax, wing disc, neurons) (Figure S4). Nearly all sgRNA-KOs

reduced viability when expressing Cas9 in neurons (12/14), whereas none reduced

viability with muscle Cas9 (0/14). Interestingly, a subset of sgRNA-KO lines had

reduced viability only when Cas9 was expressed in neurons (CG14057, CG40127,

CG14812, CG17776). In contrast, Rbp12 sgRNA-KO was lethal or showed low viability

with all Cas9 lines except muscle, and CG4650 sgRNA-KO did not cause any obvious

phenotypes with any of the six tissue-specific Cas9 lines. Finally, using a larval wing

disc Cas9 line, seven sgRNA-KO lines caused adult wing defects, such as notching or

crumpled wings (Figure S4).

To over-express smORF genes in a systematic manner, we used CRISPR activation

(CRISPRa), where a sgRNA targets the promoter region and increases expression of

the endogenous gene (sgRNA-OE) via a catalytically dead Cas9 (dCas9) fused with a

transcriptional activator (e.g. VPR or SAM) (Ewen-Campen et al., 2017; Jia et al., 2018).

Similar to our sgRNA-KO collection, we generated a collection of 197 transgenic

sgRNA-OE lines that target 176 smORF genes. Each smORF sgRNA-OE line was

crossed with *tub-Gal4*, *UAS-dCas9-VPR* (abbreviated *tub>VPR*), and the F1 progeny

were screened for phenotypes as described for the sgRNA-KO collection (Figure 5C;

Supplemental File 7). Of the 123 sgRNA-OE lines tested, a small number had reduced

numbers of expected progeny, however none were statistically significant when

compared to control crosses (Figure 5D). Interestingly, CG13838 sgRNA-OE resulted in

viable adults that were flightless and had a "held-up" wing phenotype (Figure 5E). Both

phenotypes were 100% penetrant (n=100 flies). None of the remaining tested lines

produced aberrant morphological or behavioral phenotypes. To validate overexpression

by CRISPRa, we crossed 14 smORF-OE lines to *tub>VPR* and analyzed target gene

expression in adults using quantitative PCR (qPCR) (Figure S5). These results showed

that 6/14 sgRNA-OE lines had significantly elevated transcript expression when

normalized to *Rp49* or *Gapdh* and compared to negative control crosses (*attP40*).

To complement our results with CRISPRa, we overexpressed a subset of smORFs

using *UAS-cDNA* lines (Figure 5F; Supplemental File 7), which generally results in

higher levels of overexpression (Ewen-Campen et al., 2017). Of the 63 lines tested,

representing 58 genes, two lines were lethal, *UAS-CG18508* and *UAS-CG13838*. All

other lines had no obvious defects in viability, morphology, or behavior.

Functional analysis of 25 uncharacterized smORF genes by whole animal KO

F1 CRISPR screening tools are fast and scalable but have technical limitations, namely

that CRISPR-KO can produce mosaic phenotypes (Zirin et al., 2020) or phenotypes

outside the target tissue (Port and Bullock, 2016). Therefore, we wanted to apply a

more robust genetic tool to modify smORF gene function – whole animal knockout.

Since this requires greater time and resources, we targeted a subset of the conserved

smORFs.

Using a combination of gene function prediction and manual searching (see Materials

and Methods), we identified 25 conserved smORF genes with minimal to no previous

experimental characterization in any organism with a corresponding homolog

(Supplemental File 7). Interestingly, 12 of these smORFs have a paralog in *Drosophila*

(Figure S6A). Using CRISPR/Cas9, we generated whole animal KOs for each of the 25

smORF genes and multi-gene KOs for each paralog group (Supplemental File 7; Figure

S6B-D). When possible, we generated at least two independently derived alleles for

each smORF. The resulting homozygous animals were assessed for mutant

phenotypes. Remarkably, nearly all smORF KO lines were viable, fertile, and had no

obvious morphological or behavioral defects (Supplemental File 7). Interestingly, KO of

the paralogs *CG32736* and *CG42308* was lethal, either as single or double KO

(Supplemental File 7; Figure S6B-C). Characterization of *CG32736* and *CG42308* is

described elsewhere (Bosch et al., 2022).

We reasoned that viable smORF KO mutants might reveal a mutant phenotype if raised

under stressful conditions. To test this, we transferred 24hr old homozygous smORF

KO embryos onto modified foods known to cause animal metabolic stress, starvation

(Zirin et al., 2015), high fat (Birse et al., 2010), and high salt (Stergiopoulos et al., 2009),

and measured developmental timing. On normal food, all tested KO mutants had similar

developmental timing compared to wild-type (Figure 6A). However, several KO mutants

exhibited significant developmental delays, low viability, or lethality on stressful foods

(Figure 6B-D). For example, two independent CG17931-KO alleles were lethal on

starvation food and were developmentally delayed or low viability on high salt food. In

addition, two independent alleles of CG42371-KO showed low viability on high salt food,

and one CG42371 allele had low viability on high fat food. Finally, bc10-KO was

developmentally delayed on high salt food.

Discussion

We identified 298 conserved smORFs between humans and fruit flies, the vast majority

of which are conserved broadly across bilaterians, with 68 conserved in *Arabidopsis*.

The decreased number of smORFs in C.elegans, zebrafish, and Arabidopsis may be

due to gene loss or extreme divergence. Ribosome profiling and prior proteomic

experiments support the translation of 208 of these smORFs. The remaining 90 without

direct evidence of translation are largely highly tissue specific (50 are specific to male

reproductive tissues), and likely more targeted samples are needed for detection. Of

course, the thresholds we selected for defining smORFs are somewhat arbitrary, and

more lenient parameterizations (>100aa) would yield more expansive lists. Certainly,

this threshold produced an under-studied collection of genes with diverse functions and

phenotypes.

Of the 298 conserved smORFs, 32 are arranged in polycistronic transcripts. However,

this gene architecture is rarely conserved in distant species, with only four remaining

polycistronic in distant species – the remainder are partitioned into distinct

transcriptional units, often on different chromosomes. Polycistronic gene architectures

may have been selected against in eukaryotes – possibly as part of antiviral defense, as

mRNA viruses often make use of internal ribosome entry sites.

The largest class of conserved smORFs is related to mitochondrial structure and

function – including components of the oxidative phosphorylation pathway. Two of these

predicted mitochondrial smORFs were recently functionally characterized (Bosch et al.,

2022), though it possible that not all function in mitochondria. For example, 22 out of 66

predicted mitochondrial smORF genes are uncharacterized "CGs".

Similarly, human mitochondria are enriched in smORF peptides (Zhang et al., 2020).

Intriguingly, *Drosophila* mitochondrial smORFs exhibit highly tissue specific expression

patterns after initial ubiquitous maternal deposition. While mitochondrial functional

diversity has been explored in the nervous system (Fecher et al., 2019), this study

indicates a far broader diversity in mitochondrial architecture throughout the developing

organism. The profound conservation of these genes, along with their tissue-specific

expression patterns, indicates that mitochondria are compositionally, and therefore

functionally, optimized in a tissue-specific fashion. This observation points to an

evolutionary impetus for the translocation of mitochondrial genes to the host nuclear

genome -- tissue-specific regulation by host nuclear factors – an intriguing direction for

future study.

Results from our F1 CRISPR knockout screens revealed a number of essential smORF

genes. Interestingly, animal homologs of these gene hits (10/14) show lethality in other

organisms (Marrvel.org) (Wang et al., 2017), and 5/14 are predicted mitochondrial

(Supplemental File 2), suggesting that fly lethality may be due to disrupted

mitochondrial function. Furthermore, these essential smORFs may be required in

different tissues. For example, Rbp12 knockout in either the gut, dorsal thorax, wing

disc, or neurons caused significant reduction in animal viability. In contrast, four

essential smORFs were only lethal when knocked out in neurons.

One interesting hit from our F1 knockout screen was *CG18508,* the fly homolog of

C18orf32. The encoded protein has been shown to associate with lipid droplets

(Bersuker et al., 2018). While ubiquitous *CG18508* knockout reduced viability, knockout

in six tissues did not. However, *CG18508* knockout in the wing disc caused adult wing

notching. Surprisingly, homozygous *CG18508* mutants are viable, fertile, and had

normal wing morphology, suggesting that *CG18508* sgRNA-KO has off-target effects.

Interestingly, overexpression of *CG18508* by UAS-cDNA was lethal. While it is not clear

if *CG18508* overexpression if physiologically relevant, it would be intriguing to examine

if animals die due to defects in lipid storage.

Results from the smORF overexpression screen revealed one additional smORF with

notable phenotypes. Overexpression of *CG13838* by CRISPRa resulted in flightless

adult flies with "held-up" wings, whereas overexpression by UAS-cDNA was lethal.

Since UAS-cDNA generally results in higher transcript expression compared to

CRISPRa (Ewen-Campen et al., 2017), *UAS-CG13838* cDNA lethality may be due to

higher expression. The *C. elegans* homolog of *CG13838*, *bubblin* (*bbln*), has recently

been characterized as essential for intermediate filament function (Remmelzwaal et al.,

2021). Interestingly, other fly mutations have been described that cause a wing

phenotype, such as *heldup*, which disrupts muscle thin filaments (Beall and Fyrberg,

1991). Like intermediate filaments, thin filaments are actin-based cytoskeletal structures

(Henderson et al., 2017). Therefore, *CG13838* overexpression may interfere with thin

filaments and/or intermediate filaments in muscle.

Many conserved smORFs have known or predicted functions. For example, smORF

CG14483 is uncharacterized in *Drosophila*, but its human homolog PET100 (65% aa

similarity, 37% aa identity) is a known regulator of mitochondrial complex IV biogenesis

and mutated in families with mitochondrial complex IV deficiency nuclear type 12

(MC4DN12) (Lim et al., 2014). In contrast, we identified 25 smORFs with little to no

characterization in any organism. For example, CG32736 is homologous to human

Small Integral Membrane Protein 4 (SMIM4) (66% aa similarity, 46% aa identity), but

had not been experimentally studied in any organism until recently (Bosch et al., 2022;

Dennerlein et al., 2021; Liang et al., 2022). Studying poorly characterized smORF

genes like *CG32736* could reveal new biology and/or help understand human disease

progression. Interestingly, we found three previously uncharacterized smORFs

(*CG17931/ SERFs*, *CG42371/ CEBPZOS*, *bc10/BLCAP*) that were required for normal

developmental progression on stressful food diets.

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publication.

Materials and Methods:

Bioinformatic identification of 298 fly-human conserved smORFs

First, 266,066 human smORFs were selected, including all annotated human smORF

transcripts (18,494 annotated in GENCODE version 24 less than 100aa), and 215,901

smORFs identified by 3-frame translations of all human transcripts that lack long ORFs

(11-100aa). This set was filtered to identify high-confidence elements by leveraging a

stringent, high-confidence set of conserved *Drosophila* smORFs. In *Drosophila*, there

are 960 genes encoding unique peptides with no more than 100 aa from protein-coding

genes annotated at FlyBase (release 6.49) with evidence of translation. This set was

expanded by taking smORFs (11-100aa) predicted from two independent studies

(Aspden et al., 2014), adding 2,819 additional smORFs with evidence of translation

from either Ribosome Profiling or conservation among Drosophilidae.

For our ortholog discovery workflow, see Fig. 1A. Specifically, we used Diopt v8 and 9

(https://www.flyrnai.org/cgi-bin/DRSC_orthologs.pl) for ortholog analysis. In parallel and

to corroborate results, we also used deltablast 2.9.0+ build Sep 30 2019 01:57:31 with

the following parameters: (Matrix : BLOSUM62); (Gap Penalties: Existence: 11,

Extension :1); (Neighboring words threshold: 11); (Window for multiple hits:40). We then

filtered the deltablast results for *D. rerio*, *C. elegans*, *A. thaliana* proteins using the

following cutoffs <=250aa and E-value <=10^{-1}. The *D. rerio*, *C. elegans* and *A. thaliana*

peptide sequence files used, are as follow: Danio_rerio.GRCz11.pep.all.fa,

Caenorhabditis_elegans.WBcel235.pep.all.fa

(https://ftp.ensemblgenomes.ebi.ac.uk/pub/metazoa/release-

[56/fasta/caenorhabditis_elegans/](https://ftp.ensemblgenomes.ebi.ac.uk/pub/metazoa/release-56/fasta/caenorhabditis_elegans/)) and TAIR10_pep_20101214.faa

(https://www.arabidopsis.org/download/index-

auto.jsp?dir=%2Fdownload_files%2FProteins%2FTAIR10_protein_lists). These

analyses identified orthologs in human for 291 fly genes, and an additional 7 were

discovered using sim3 analysis (Chao et al., 1997).

Clustering of ontological anatomical annotations of embryonic expression

patterns

Embryos were clustered using a bagged and cross validated procedure to ensure

cluster stability. The importance of stability was made apparent to us when, during the

course of our study, one additional smORF was discovered and added to this analysis,

and the resulting clusters differed significantly. We stabilized the clustering as follows:

First, we subsampled 80% of smORFs and used hierarchical clustering with Ward

linkage to form candidate clusters, holding out 20%. Here, the hold-out is to assess

stability by inducing some randomness -- note that this differs from the use of a holdout

in supervised learning. We selected 10K 80/20 splits. Cluster number was selected

using the Gap Statistic -- the first local maximum value was selected. We computed a

proximity matrix for consensus clustering as follows: for each pair of smORFs we

recorded the fraction of our 10K bagged clusterings in which they appeared in the same

cluster. This matrix was then input to hierarchical clustering with Ward linkage, and the

Gap Statistic was used to select cluster number as above.

Embryo Collections for Coordinated Ribosome and RNA-Seq Profiling

Embryos from ~14 g of Oregon-R flies were collected on standard molasses collection

trays after flies were acclimated to the environmental conditions of the cage (27℃ and

70% humidity) for three days. Six, two-hour embryonic time periods (0-2, 2–4 hr., 4–6

hr., 10-12 hr., 14–16 hr., and 16–18 hr. were collected simultaneously, which allowed

for immediate RNA-seq library and ribosome profiling construction of all six stages. See

Supplemental File 6 for detailed the ribosome profiling library protocol.

RNA Preparation and Sequencing Methods

Embryos were homogenized using a Pellet Pestle Cordless Motor (Kimble Cat. No.

749540-0000; Pellet Pestles Sigma Cat. No. Z359947), RNA was extracted using

TRIzol Reagent (Thermo Fisher, Cat. No. 15596026) and purified with the RNeasy Mini

Kit (QIAGEN Cat. No. 74106). Libraries were constructed with the NEBNext Ultra

Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina according to manufacturer's

recommendations (NEB, cat. no. E7420) using 14 cycles of PCR. Libraries were

sequenced on the Illumina NovaSeq 6000. Raw sequencing data is available at the

NCBI Short Read Archive (SRA): SRR18575339, SRR18575340, SRR18575342,

SRR18575343, and SRR18575345 and SRR18575346.

We used the STAR aligner v2.73a to align RNA-seq data to the *D. melanogaster*

genome (Rel 6). The picard 2.20.1 MarkDuplicates tool was used to remove PCR

duplicates and the deduplicated BAM alignment files were converted to bigWig format

using a custom tool and the UCSC bedGraphToBigWig tool. We ran fastp 0.20.1 to get

FASTQ file statistics.

Ribosome Profiling Methods

Polysome profiling was performed on all six samples. Briefly, embryos from each time

period (i.e., sample) were treated with harringtonine (LKT Laboratories, H0169)

in mild lysis buffer followed by the addition of cycloheximide and immediate grinding.

Samples were subjected to a 10%-50% sucrose gradient and all polysomes were

collected and combined. Collected polysome fractions were pelleted via sucrose

cushion (34%) and subjected to RNaseI digestion. After resuspension another cushion

(34%) was performed and RNA was coprecipitated with GlycoBlue (Thermo Fisher, cat.

No. AM95150). Recovered RNA was then run on a 15% TBE-Urea Gel (Thermo Fisher

cat. no. EC68852BOX), followed by gel size selection to isolate ribosome protected

fragments (26-31 nt) (Zymo Research, cat. no. R1070). Following end-repair

phosphorylation of RNA molecules, libraries were constructed with the NEBNext Small

RNA Library Preparation Kit according to manufacturer's recommendations (NEB, cat.

no. E7330). See Supplemental File 6 for detailed protocol.

Sequencing, read processing and mapping

Ribo-seq libraries were sequenced with the Illumina NovaSeq 6000. Raw sequencing

data is available at the SRA: SRR18575338, SRR18575341, SRR18575344,

SRR18575347, SRR18575348, and SRR18575353. Read processing and mapping

were performed on an Ubuntu 18.04 Linux cluster running Kubernetes v1.16. on 240

total cores with 1500 GB of total RAM. Reads were processed with the following

commands:

I.   QC of raw reads with FastQC
(http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/)
508   fastqc file_one.fastq.gz file_two.fastq.gz
509

510   II.   Clip adapters from Illumina raw reads with the following commands with Cutadapt
511   (Martin, 2011)
512   cutadapt -a adapter sequence for file_one.fastq.gz \
513   -A adapter sequence for file_one.fastq.gz -j 10 \
514   -o file_one_clipped.fastq -p file_two_clipped.fastq \
515   file_one.fastq.gz file_two.fastq.gz
516

517   III.   Trim clipped reads based on position quality with the following commands:
518   cutadapt -q 33 -j 12 -o file_one_clipped_trimmed.fastq file_one_clipped.fastq
519   cutadapt -q 33 -j 12 -o file_two_clipped_trimmed.fastq file_two_clipped.fastq
520

521   IV.   QC of processed reads:
522   fastqc file_one_clipped_trimmed.fastq \ file_two_clipped_trimmed.fastq
523

524   V.   Remove reads smaller than 26 bp and larger than 31 bp:
525   cutadapt --pair-filter=any --minimum-length=26 --maximum-length=31 -j 20 \
526   -o file_one_clipped_trimmed_min_max_removed.fastq \
527   -p file_two_clipped_trimmed_min_max_removed.fastq \
528   file_one_clipped_trimmed.fastq file_two_clipped_trimmed.fastq
529

530   VI.   Map first to the rDNA reference with Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) to 1)
531   remove rRNA sequences and decrease mapping time to nuclear reference genome, and
532   2) assess the percentage of rRNA contamination in each library:
533   Bowtie2 -x rDNA_reference_directory \
534   -1 file_one_clipped_trimmed_min_max_removed.fastq \
535   -2 file_two_clipped_trimmed_min_max_removed.fastq \
536   --seedlen 12 --un-conc Bowtie2_mapping_directory -p 12 \
537   -S rDNA_mapping.sam
538

539   VII.   Map non-rRNA reads to nuclear reference genome with STAR (Dobin et al., 2013):
540   STAR --runThreadN 25 --genomeDir --outFileNamePrefix \
541   --outSAMtype BAM SortedByCoordinate \
542   --winAnchorMultimapNmax 100 --seedSearchStartLmax 20 \
543   --outFilterMismatchNmax 3 --readFilesIn \
544   Bowtie2_mapping_directory/un-conc-mate.1 \

545 `Bowtie2_mapping_directory/un-conc-mate.2`

546
547 **Detection of smORFs with Ribosome Profiling**

548
Identification of translated sequences was performed using ORFquant (Calviello et al.,

2020). For each predicted ORF with mapped reads we recorded all ORFquant summary

statistics. We classified ORFs as detected if the adjusted P-value was less than or

equal to 0.05 (Supplemental Table 5).

Gene enrichment analyses

GO and KEGG enrichment analyses were performed with g:Profiler (Raudvere et al.,

2019).

Molecular biology

Fly genomic DNA was isolated by grinding a single fly in 50µl squishing buffer (10 mM

Tris-Cl pH 8.2, 1 mM EDTA, 25 mM NaCl) with 200µg/ml Proteinase K (3115879001,

Roche), incubating at 37˚C for 30 min, and 95˚C for 2 minutes. PCR was performed

using Taq polymerase (TAKR001C, ClonTech) when running DNA fragments on a gel,

and Phusion polymerase (M-0530, NEB) was used when DNA fragments were

sequenced or used for molecular cloning. DNA fragments were run on a 1% agarose

gel for imaging or purified on QIAquick columns (28115, Qiagen) for sequencing

analysis. Sanger sequencing was performed at the DF/HCC DNA Resource Core facility

and chromatograms were analyzed using Lasergene 13 software (DNASTAR).

For isolating flies with frameshift indels in smORF genes, the target site was PCR

amplified from single fly genomic DNA and PCR fragments were Sanger sequenced.

For isolating flies with whole gene deletion of smORF genes by dual sgRNA cutting, the

target region was PCR amplified from single fly genomic DNA. Primers were designed

to flank the two sgRNA cut sites, such that a deletion of the intervening sequence would

produce a clear band size difference on an agarose gel. Deletion PCR fragments were

Sanger sequenced. Genotyping primer sequences are listed in Supplemental File 7.

For RT-qPCR analysis of smORF overexpression by CRISPRa, adult flies (tub-Gal4,

UAS-dCas9-VPR, sgRNA-OE) were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. 4-14 frozen flies

(equal mixture of males and females) were homogenized in 1000ul Trizol (Invitrogen

15596026), RNA partially purified by chloroform extraction, and RNA extracted using a

Direct-zol RNA Miniprep kit (Zymo Research, R2050). cDNA was generated using the

iScript Reverse Transcription Supermix (BioRad 1708840). cDNA was analyzed by RT-

qPCR using iQ SYBR Green Supermix (BioRad 170-8880) on a CFX96 Real-Time

system (BioRad). qPCR primer sequences are listed in Supplemental File 7. Each

qPCR reaction was performed with five biological replicates (except *CG14818*, which

had two biological replicates), with two technical replicates each. Data from smORF

specific primers were normalized to primers that amplify GAPDH. Statistical significance

was calculated using a T-Test.

Molecular cloning

Plasmid DNAs were constructed and propagated using standard protocols. Briefly,

chemically competent TOP10 E.coli. (Invitrogen, C404010) were transformed with

plasmids containing either Ampicillin or Kanamycin resistance genes and were selected

on LB-Agar plates with 100µg/ml Ampicillin or 50µg/ml Kanamycin. Oligo sequences are

in Supplemental File 8.

sgRNA expression plasmids: Plasmids encoding sgRNAs were generated using

previously described protocols. sgRNAs were designed using the Find CRISPR tool

(https://www.flyrnai.org/crispr3/web) for optimal predicted cutting activity (Zirin et al.,

2020). For sgRNAs cloned into *pCFD3* (Port et al., 2014), annealed oligos encoding a

sgRNA spacer were ligated into *pCFD3* digested with BbsI (NEB, R3539). For sgRNAs

cloned into *pCFD4* (Port et al., 2014), dual sgRNAs were PCR amplified from *pCFD4*

template, and inserted by Gibson assembly (NEB, E2611) into *pCFD4* digested with

BbsI. For sgRNAs cloned into *pCFD5* (Port and Bullock, 2016), dual sgRNAs were PCR

amplified from *pCFD5* template, and inserted by Gibson assembly into *pCFD5* digested

with BbsI. sgRNAs cloned into *pCFD3* and were performed by DRSC/TRiP

(https://fgr.hms.harvard.edu/). Information on sgRNA-KO and sgRNA-OE plasmids

generated by the DRSC/TRiP is available at

https://www.flyrnai.org/tools/grna_tracker/web/. Information on remaining *pCFD4* and

pCFD5 sgRNA plasmids is in Supplemental File 8.

pEntr plasmids: Entry plasmids were generated by PCR amplifying coding sequence

and inserting into *pEntr* using either dTopo (Invitrogen, K240020) or Gibson assembly

(NEB, E2611). cDNA sequence was PCR amplified from cDNA reverse transcribed from

total RNA (either S2R+ cell or adult fly) or adult fly genomic DNA.

Gateway cloning LR reactions: Gateway cloning reactions were performed using LR

Clonase II Enzyme mix (Invitrogen 11791-020). pEntr cDNA plasmids were recombined

with *pWalium10-roe* (Perkins et al., 2015).

Fly Genetics

Flies were maintained on standard fly food at 25°C unless otherwise noted.

Fly stocks were obtained from the Perrimon lab collection, Bloomington Stock center

(indicated with BL#), or generated in this study (see below).

Perrimon Lab stocks:

yv; Gla/CyO

yw; nos-Cas9attP40/CyO

yw;; nos-Cas9attP2

lethal/FM7,GFP

yw; Gla/CyO

yw;; TM3, Sb/TM6b

lethal/FM7,GFP;; TM3, Ser

yw; Sp/CyO; MKRS/TM6B

Bloomington Stocks:

sgRNA lines (see Supplemental File 8)

UAS-dCas9-VPR; tub-Gal4/S-T (*tub>VPR*) (BL67048)

Actin-Cas9 (BL54590)

attP40 (BL36304)

Mhc>Cas9 (BL67079)

LSP>Cas9 (BL67087)

Myo1a>Cas9 (BL67088)

Pnr>Cas9 (BL67077)

Nub>Cas9 (BL67086)

Elav>Cas9 (BL67073)

yw (BL1495)

Information on the smORF KO and UAS-cDNA stocks are described in Supplemental

File 8, including Bloomington Stock #s.

smORF knockout by frameshift indel by transgenic crossing: Flies expressing a sgRNA

that targets the 5' coding sequence (see Supplemental File 8) were crossed with *nos-*

Cas9 flies. *nos-Cas9attP2* was used for targeting genes on Chromosomes X and II, and

nos-Cas9attP40 was used for targeting genes on chromosome III. F1 progeny were

crossed with a balancer strain. Single fly F2 progeny were crossed with a balancer

strain, taken for genotyping, and F2 crosses with a frameshift indel were kept and

balanced and homozygosed if possible. Frameshift knockout lines were generated

either by WellGenetics, Shu Kondo, or in the Perrimon lab.

smORF knockout by full gene deletion by injection: Plasmids encoding two sgRNAs that

flank a gene locus were injected into *nos-Cas9* embryos. Injected F0 adults were

crossed to with a balancer strain. Single fly F1 progeny were crossed with a balancer

strain, taken for genotyping, and F1 crosses with a full gene deletion were kept and

balanced and homozygosed if possible.

smORF knockout by CRISPaint insertion by injection: To generate the bc10 KO allele, a

plasmid encoding a sgRNA that targets the 5' coding sequence of bc10 (GP01409) was

co-injected with pCRISPaint-T2A-Gal4-3xP3-RFP (Addgene #127556) into *nos-*

Cas9attP40 embryos. Injected F0 adults were outcrossed to *yw*, single RFP+ F1

progeny were crossed with *yw;; TM3, Sb/TM6b,* and the insertion in bc10 was verified

by PCR and sanger sequencing. The *bc10-CRISPaint* allele contains *T2A-Gal4* inserted

in the reverse orientation relative to the 5'-3' *bc10* transcript, and thus is not a Gal4

reporter allele.

To generate double smORF knockout lines, smORF alleles on different chromosomes

were brought into the same strain by outcrossing to double balancer lines.

CRISPR-KO F1 crosses and phenotyping: Of the 165 smORF genes targeted with at

least sgRNAs for knockout, 11 genes were tested with two independent sgRNAs, and

four genes were tested with three sgRNAs. Lines expressing sgRNAs that target

smORF 5' coding sequence were crossed with a line ubiquitously expressing Cas9,

Act5c-Cas9. Specifically, male sgRNA flies were used that were heterozygous with a

balancer chromosome (CyO or TM3, Sb), and were crossed with homozygous *Act5c-*

Cas9 female flies. To quantify the viability of F1 flies with somatic KO, we recorded the

number of balancer progeny (*Act5c-Cas9/Bal*) and non-balancer progeny

(*sgRNA/Act5c-Cas9*). The total number of F1 progeny counted per cross was

920>n>31. To calculate a viability score, the number non-balancer flies was divided by

the mendelian expected number of non-balancer flies (# F1 progeny/2) and multiplied

by 100 (# observed non-balancer/# expected non-balancer*100). Negative control

crosses were *attp40/CyO* males crossed with *Act5c-Cas9* females. For crosses leading

to reduced viability, a Chi-square test was used to determine significance by comparing

the # expected non-balancer flies from negative control (attp40) vs experimental

(sgRNA) crosses. Those sgRNA hits that had significant reduced viability (Figure 5,

Supplemental File 7) were crossed with tissue specific Cas9 lines (Figure S4). Viability

scores and Chi-square tests were performed similarly to *Act5c-Cas9* crosses.

CRISPRa F1 crosses and phenotyping: Of the 176 smORF genes targeted with at least

sgRNAs for overexpression, 19 genes were tested with two independent sgRNAs, and

one gene was tested with three sgRNAs. Lines expressing sgRNAs that target

upstream of a smORF transcriptional start site (TSS) were crossed with line ubiquitously

expressing dCas9-VPR, *tub>VPR* (*tub-Gal4, UAS-dCas9-VPR/S-T*). "S-T" are a second

and third chromosome balancer pair that segregate together due to a reciprocal

translocation, and are marked by Cy, Hu, and Tb (T(2;3)TSTL14, SM5: TM6B, Tb[1]).

Male sgRNA flies were crossed with tub>VPR females. A viability score was calculated

similar to CRISPR-KO F1 crosses, (# observed non-balancer/# expected non-

balancer*100). When using homozygous sgRNA males, the expected number of non-

balancer flies was # F1 progeny/2. When using heterozygous sgRNA/Bal males, the

expected number of non-balancer flies was # F1 progeny/4. The total number of F1

progeny counted per cross was 346>n>56. Negative control crosses were *attp40/CyO*

males crossed with *tub>VPR* females. Chi-square analysis was performed similarly to

CRISPR-KO F1 crosses. No crosses had significantly reduced viability.

cDNA overexpression crosses and phenotyping: Transgenic UAS-cDNA lines were

crossed with a ubiquitous Gal4 line. For convenience, we used the same driver used for

CRISPRa crosses, *tub>VPR* (*tub-Gal4, UAS-dCas9-VPR/S-T*). A viability score was

calculated similar to CRISPRa F1 crosses. Negative control crosses were *attp40/CyO*

males crossed with *tub>VPR* females. The total number of F1 progeny counted per

cross was 706>n>100. Chi-square analysis was performed similarly to CRISPR-KO F1

crosses.

Stressful food recipes: For all food types, standard lab fly food was melted in a

microwave, and distilled water (dH20) was added as 10% boiled volume (100ml boiled

food + 10ml dH20) to replace the evaporated water. This is used as control food. For

high salt food, solid NaCl (Fisher Scientific, S271) was added at 30% weight per volume

of control food (e.g. 100ml control food + 30g NaCl) and mixed well. For high fat food,

solid coconut oil (Sigma, W530155) was added at 30% weight per volume of control

food (e.g. 100ml control food + 30g coconut oil) and mixed well. For starvation food,

control food was diluted to 30% in 1% melted agar (BD, 214030) in 1x PBS (Gibco,

10010-023) (e.g. 30ml control food + 70ml melted 1% agar in 1x PBS). Melted liquid

food types were poured into empty vials and cooled at 4°C.

Quantification of developmental timing on stressful food: 24hr larvae from homozygous

viable smORF lines were transferred to stressful food or control food and raised on this

food until pupal eclosion as adults. To increase the fecundity of the adult flies, four days

prior to the 24hr larval collection, ~150 adult flies from each KO line were transferred to

fresh food containing yeast paste. Adult flies were transferred onto fresh food bottles

containing yeast paste and allowed to lay for 4hr. 24hr after the end of egg deposition,

30 freshly hatched larvae (24hr-28hr old) were transferred into vials containing either

control food or stressful food (control, high fat, high salt, starvation). The time of

pupariation and fly eclosion was determined once at least 15 flies pupariated and

eclosed, respectively. yw flies were included as a negative control genotype. Each

genotype-foodtype experiment was carried out in at least triplicate. For those genotype-

foodtypes with a developmental delay, significance was calculated using a One-Way

ANOVA test run with a Dunnet post-hoc test using GraphPad Prism.

Adult wing mounting, imaging, analysis: sgRNA-KO lines were crossed with *nub>Cas9*

and the wings of adult progeny were removed using forceps under a dissecting

microscope. For each genotype, at least 6 wings were collected. Removed wings were

placed onto a drop of mounting medium (50% Permount (Fisher Scientific, SP15), 50%

Xylenes (Fisher Scientific X5)) on a microscope slide (Thermo Scientific, 3050) and

mounted using a coverslip (VWR, 48393059). The coverslip was sealed to the

microscope slide with clear nail polish. Images of the wings were taken using a stereo

microscope (Zeiss Axio Zoom V16) at 32x magnification. The area of each wing was

measured using the polygon function in ImageJ. The area measurements were

analyzed in Graphpad Prism. A One-way ANOVA test was carried out with a Dunnett

Post-Hoc test to determine the significance of the area of the wings of the experimental

cross progeny when compared with the control cross progeny (*attP40 X nub>Cas9).*

Bioinformatics and literature searching

For protein alignments in Figure S6, we downloaded protein sequence files from

Flybase.org or NCBI, aligned them using Clustal Omega

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalo), and generated alignment images using

JalView (https://www.jalview.org/).

For literature searching for smORF homolog characterization, we queried every

ultraconserved *Drosophila* smORF using the following online tools: Gene2function

(Gene2function.org), HUGO Gene Nomenclature Committee (genenames.org), Interpro

(ebi.ac.uk/interpro), and Alliance of Genome Resources (alliancegenome.org). Those

smORF genes (25) that had no or minimal characterization in orthologs were selected.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Conservation of smORF dataset. (*A*) Flowthrough of bioinformatic

identification of 298 fly-human conserved smORFs **(*B*)** Number of conserved smORFs

in dataset with and without homologs in a selection of species with well-annotated

transcriptomes. **(*C*)** Multiple-species alignments of conserved smORFs, including mean

amino acid hydrophobicity at each alignment position. *bc10* (upper transcript) is

encodes one smORF, whereas *CG42497* and *Tim10* (lower transcript) is polycistronic.

Figure 2. Gene Ontology (GO) and KEGG enrichment analysis of conserved

smORFs. Significantly enriched GO terms for molecular function ("MF"), biological

process ("BP"), cellular component ("CC") are plotted. GO and KEGG enrichment

analyses were performed with g:Profiler (Raudvere et al., 2019). Significantly enriched

terms $<10^{-5}$ are shown that also encompass all conserved smORFs classified as serine-

type endopeptidase inhibitors and mitochondria-associated conserved smORFs.

Figure 3. *In situ* mRNA hybridization patterns of mitochondria-associated

smORFs. (*A*) Clustering of mitochondria-associated conserved smORF *in situ* mRNA

expression patterns (Weiszmann et al., 2009). For each mitochondrial conserved

smORF, the organs where expression patterns were assigned are represented by red

boxes, while blue boxes represent no annotated expression. Expression patterns across

embryo stages are collapsed. "DPPM" = dorsal prothoracic pharyngeal muscle; "MT" =

Malpighian tubules; "VNC" = ventral nerve cord; "D and V epidermis" = dorsal and

ventral epidermis. **(*B*)** In-situ mRNA hybridization images for each mitochondria-

associated conserved smORF with patterned expression. Each image was taken

between embryonic stages 13-16.

Figure 4. Ribosome Profiling. *(A)* Overview of ribosome profiling workflow, where

polysomes are isolated followed by digestion of inter-ribosome RNA. Ribosome

protected fragments are then collected. **(*B*)** After sequencing, the number of in frame

reads are analyzed to determine if RPFs were successfully sequenced. Distribution of

tags per million (TPM) for six, embryonic time periods. **(*C*)** Comparison of ribosome

profiling sequencing to mRNA-seq sequencing showing ribosome profiling libraries are

constrained to CDS while mRNA libraries map to the entire annotated transcript.

Figure 5. Functional characterization of conserved smORFs by F1 CRISPR in vivo

screening. (*A*) Genetic cross to perform CRISPR somatic knockout in F1 generation.

(*B*) Quantification of viability of F1 flies from 115 sgRNA-KO crosses. Number of F1

progeny counted per cross was 918>n>33. **(*C*)** Genetic cross to perform CRISPR gene

overexpression in F1 generation. *(D)* Quantification of viability of F1 flies from 123

sgRNA-OE crosses. Number of F1 progeny counted per cross was 220>n>56. **(E)**

Images of adult female flies aged seven days after eclosion for two indicated genotypes.

(F) Quantification of viability of F1 flies from 68 UAS-cDNA crosses. Number of F1

progeny countered per cross was 706>n>101.

Figure 6. Full CRISPR knockout of 25 uncharacterized smORFs raised on

stressful foods. Developmental timing of egg deposition to adult eclosure in smORF

KO mutants raised on *(A)* control food, *(B)* high salt food (30% NaCl), *(C)* high fat food

(30% coconut oil), *(D)* starvation food (30% food, 70% PBS+1%agar). Significance was

determined by One Way Anova test followed by a Dunnet Post-Hoc, P=0.05(*),

P=0.01(**), P=0.001(***), error bars calculated with SD.

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1010

A

Fly smORF Ortholog Analysis – Initial DIOPT Step

Fly ORFs <100aa (n=960)

Ortholog ≤250aa → DIOPT, *H. sapiens* → Y
Delta-BLAST, *H. sapiens* → ≤250aa + evalue ≤0.1 → Y

Ortholog ≤250aa → DIOPT, *D. rerio, C. elegans, A. thaliana* → Y
1. *H. sapiens (n=259)*
2. *D. rerio (n=246)*
3. *C. elegans (n=224)*
4. *A. thaliana (n=161)*

Delta-BLAST, *D. rerio, C. elegans, A. thaliana* → ≤250aa + evalue ≤0.1 → Y
1. *H. sapiens (n=291)*
2. *D. rerio (n=257)*
3. *C. elegans (n=226)*
4. *A. thaliana (n=163)*

Does the ORF have a significant Delta-BLAST hit? → N → No ortholog

Domain search, sim3

smORF Orthologous Genes
1. *H. sapiens (n=298)*
2. *D. rerio (n= 274)*
3. *C. elegans (n=239)*
4. *A. thaliana (n=182)*

B

smORFs with Homologs (black), smORFs without Homologs (white)

Species	with Homologs	without Homologs
A. thaliana	182	133
C. elegans	239	67
D. rerio	274	27
H. sapiens	298	

C

Bc10
chr3L 5,565,231bp — 5,566,231bp
124 insects Basewise Conservation by PhyloP
25 / -4.5

Bc10-PA
Mean Hydrophobicity

CG42497/Tim10
chr2R 21,691,139bp — 21,690,215bp
124 insects Basewise Conservation by PhyloP
25 / -4.5

CG42497-PA

Tim10-PA
Mean Hydrophobicity

A

Clusters
- 1 (purple)
- 2 (blue)
- 3 (light blue)
- 4 (green)
- 5 (teal)
- 6 (light green)

Expression
- No
- Yes

Columns: cluster, DPPM, s muscle, v muscle, midgut, M tubule, hindgut, anal pad, spiracle, gonad, other

Rows: CG15386, ATPsynεL, CG17734, sloth1, sloth2, COX7A, ATPsynG, CG34132, CG42497, CG6878, Neb-cGP, CG42381, COX8, ND-MNLL, EMRE, COX7C, UQCR-11, CG41128, Ccdc56, sun, Tom7, Tim8, COX6B, osi, Tim10, ATPsynE, ND-AGGG, cype, ND-15, Tim9a, ox, UQCR-Q, mRpS21, UQCR-6.4, CG42375, CG11825, ND-MWFE, CG12355, CG14483, CG40472, CG44194, CG13018

B

— CG15386
— ATPsynεL, CG17734
— sloth1/2, COX7A, ATPsynG, CG34132, CG42497, CG6878, Neb-cGP, CG42381, COX8, ND-MNLL
— EMRE, COX7C
— UQCR-11, CG41128, Ccdc56, sun, Tom7, Tim8, COX6B, osi, Tim10, ATPsynE, ND-AGGG, cype, ND-15, Tim9a, ox, UQCR-Q, mRpS21, UQCR-6.4, CG42375
— CG11825, ND-MWFE, CG12355, CG14483, CG40472, CG44194, CG13018

A. Polysome Isolation and RNase Treatment

Sucrose Gradient Analysis

Polysomes

rRNA

Ribosome

mRNA

RNaseI treatment

RPF

RPF

RPF

Polysomes

B. Ribosome Profiling

Start codon

Stop codon

Position (Nucleotide Resolution)

Frame 1   Frame 2   Frame 3

C. Comparison of Ribo-seq and RNA-seq Profiles

REPTOR-BP

53 _

Ribo-seq

981 _

RNA-seq

+1

PhyloCSF +2

+3

A

Act-Cas9 X smORF sgRNA-KO / Balancer

Control F1 sibling: Act-Cas9 / Balancer

Somatic KO F1 sibling: Act-Cas9 / smORF sgRNA-KO

B

y-axis: (Observed # flies/Expected # flies)*100
x-axis: 115 sgRNA-KO lines

Control Cross

Strongly lethal hits

Fly smORF	Human smORF
* CG42496	COX19
CG40127	RNASEK
CG34191	UFM1
CG6610	LSM5
CG32069	IER3IP1
* ATPsynE	ATP5ME
CG14057	POP5
* CG14483	PET100
* CG17776	Cox14
CG33774	OST4
* CG42376	COA6
CG4650	Trypsin-like serine proteases
Rpb12	POLR2K
CG18508	C18orf32

* = mitochondrial

C

tub-Gal4; UAS-VPR / S-T X smORF sgRNA-OE / Balancer

Control F1 sibling: tub-Gal4; UAS-VPR / Balancer

Somatic KO F1 sibling: tub-Gal4; UAS-VPR / smORF sgRNA-OE

D

y-axis: (Observed # flies/Expected # flies)*100
x-axis: 123 sgRNA-OE lines

Control Crosses

E

tub>VPR; attP40 control   *tub>VPR; CG13838 CRISPRa*

F

y-axis: (Observed # flies/Expected # flies)*100
x-axis: 63 UAS-cDNA lines

Control Crosses

CG18508, CG13838