

## Changes in brain microRNAs are associated with social evolution in bees

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37 **ABSTRACT**

38 Evolutionary transitions to a social lifestyle in insects are associated with lineage-specific  
39 changes in gene expression, but the key nodes that drive these regulatory changes are largely  
40 unknown. We tested the hypothesis that changes in gene regulatory functions associated with  
41 social evolution are facilitated by lineage-specific function of microRNAs (miRNAs). Genome  
42 scans across 12 bee species showed that miRNA copy number is highly conserved and is not  
43 associated with variation in social organization. However, deep sequencing of small RNAs of six  
44 bee species that exhibit varying types of sociality revealed a substantial proportion (20-35%) of  
45 detected miRNAs with lineage-specific expression in the brain, 24-72% of which did not have  
46 any known homologs in other species. Lineage-specific miRNAs disproportionately target  
47 lineage-specific genes, and have lower expression levels than more evolutionarily conserved  
48 miRNAs. Consistent with our hypothesis, the predicted targets of lineage-specific miRNAs are  
49 enriched for genes related to social behavior, such as caste-biased genes, in social species, but  
50 they are either not enriched for or significantly depleted of genes under positive selection.  
51 Together, these results suggest that novel miRNAs may contribute to lineage-specific patterns of  
52 molecular evolution associated with the origins and elaborations of eusociality. Our analyses also  
53 lend support to the earlier hypothesis that many new miRNAs are quickly purged by selection  
54 due to slightly deleterious effects on mRNA targets, and suggest genome structure is not as  
55 influential in regulating bee miRNA evolution as has been shown for mammalian miRNAs.

56

57 **Keywords:** Gene regulation; small, non-coding RNA; microRNA targets; eusociality; lineage-  
58 specific

59

## 60 INTRODUCTION

61 Eusociality, the most complex form of social organization, has evolved several times in  
62 insects from the order Hymenoptera. In its most basic form, this lifestyle involves reproductive  
63 queens living with their worker daughters who forego direct reproduction of their own to  
64 cooperatively defend the nest, care for their siblings, and forage for the colony (Wilson 1971).  
65 Due to the complex nature of this lifestyle, the evolution of eusociality likely requires  
66 modification of molecular pathways related to development, behavior, neurobiology, physiology,  
67 and morphology (Robinson and Ben-Shahar 2002; Toth and Robinson 2007; Bloch and  
68 Grozinger 2011; Sumner et al. 2018). The evolution of eusociality is thus expected to involve  
69 both genetic changes as well as changes in the way the genome responds to the environment  
70 (Robinson and Ben-Shahar 2002; Johnson and Linksvayer 2010). It is therefore unsurprising that  
71 recent studies aimed at identifying the genomic signatures of eusocial evolution in insects have  
72 found that social species share an increased capacity for gene regulation (Simola et al. 2013;  
73 Kapheim et al. 2015). Evidence for this comes from signatures of rapid evolution of genes  
74 involved in transcription and translation, gene family expansions of transcription factors, and  
75 increasing potential for DNA methylation and transcription factor binding activity in conserved  
76 genes. Interestingly, while these types of regulatory changes are common to independent origins  
77 and elaborations of eusociality, the specific genes and regulatory elements involved are unique to  
78 each lineage in which eusociality evolved (Simola et al. 2013; Kapheim et al. 2015; Warner et al.  
79 2019). This suggests that lineage-specific processes are influential in generating new patterns of  
80 gene regulation that contribute to social behavior.

81

82           Small, non-coding RNAs such as microRNAs (miRNAs) may be an important source of  
83 regulatory novelty associated with the evolution of phenotypic complexity, including eusociality.  
84 MiRNAs are short (~21-22 nt) noncoding RNAs that regulate protein-coding genes through post-  
85 transcriptional binding to the 3' UTR region of messenger RNA (mRNA) transcripts, in most  
86 cases preventing translation or causing mRNA degradation (Bartel 2018). Each miRNA can  
87 target dozens to hundreds of mRNAs, and therefore miRNAs have enormous pleiotropic  
88 potential to regulate gene networks (Filipowicz et al. 2008; Friedman et al. 2009; Bartel 2018).  
89 Like mRNAs, the majority of miRNAs are generated via Pol II transcription, and therefore, are  
90 spatially- and temporally-specific in their expression patterns. Thus, complex changes in gene  
91 regulation can be achieved with relatively minor changes in miRNA expression. This can result  
92 in major phenotypic shifts or fine-tuning of phenotypic optimization (Bartel 2018). Novel  
93 miRNAs can originate in a variety of genomic features, including exons and introns of protein-  
94 coding and non-coding RNA genes, transposable elements, pseudogenes, or intergenic regions,  
95 and thus emerge and disappear over relatively rapid timescales (Chen and Rajewsky 2007; Lu et  
96 al. 2008; Berezikov 2011; Zhu et al. 2012; Meunier et al. 2013). It is thus not surprising that  
97 expansion of the miRNA repertoire is associated with the evolution of morphological complexity  
98 across the tree of life (Grimson et al. 2008; Heimberg et al. 2008; Wheeler et al. 2009;  
99 Christodoulou et al. 2010; Berezikov 2011).

100

101           There is accumulating evidence for a role of miRNAs in regulating the social lives of  
102 insects. MiRNAs have been identified in the genomes of most major insect groups (Asgari 2013;  
103 Quah et al. 2015; Ylla et al. 2016), including several ant and bee species (Weaver et al. 2007;  
104 Bonasio et al. 2010; Kocher et al. 2013; Patalano et al. 2015; Sadd et al. 2015). Bioinformatic

105 scans of insect genomes have identified candidate miRNAs present in the genomes of social, but  
106 not solitary, insects (Søvik et al. 2015). While most miRNAs seem to be conserved in major  
107 lineages of insects (Søvik et al. 2015; Ylla et al. 2016), expression levels have been found to vary  
108 across individuals performing different social functions, such as between workers performing  
109 different tasks in honey bees (*Apis mellifera*) (Behura and Whitfield 2010; Greenberg et al. 2012;  
110 Liu et al. 2012). MiRNAs may also play a role in caste determination, as queen- and worker-  
111 destined larvae express different sets of miRNAs throughout development in honey bees  
112 (Weaver et al. 2007; Shi et al. 2015; Ashby et al. 2016) and bumble bees (*Bombus terrestris*)  
113 (Collins et al. 2017). Additionally, miRNAs play a role in regulating some of the physiological  
114 correlates of social behavior in honey bees, including activation of ovaries in queens and workers  
115 (MacEdo et al. 2016) and response to the reproductive protein *vitellogenin* (Nunes et al. 2013).  
116 Together, these studies suggest that miRNAs could play a role in the evolution of eusociality  
117 through their effects on gene regulatory networks that are involved in traits important for social  
118 behavior. A rigorous test of this hypothesis requires comparisons of the presence, expression,  
119 and function of miRNAs across related species that vary in social organization. However, none  
120 of the previous studies of insect miRNAs have included solitary species that are closely related  
121 to eusocial insects, and thus assumed to be more representative of the ancestors from which  
122 sociality evolved.

123

124 Here we present a comprehensive comparative analysis of miRNAs across bee species  
125 that vary in social organization. We first looked for miRNA repertoire expansions associated  
126 with eusociality by scanning the genomes of 12 bee species for known miRNAs, and statistically  
127 evaluating copy number of each miRNA type with regard to differences in sociality in a

128 phylogenetic model. We then described and compared miRNAs expressed in the brains of six  
129 bee species from three families that include repeated origins of eusociality. In our analysis, we  
130 identified shared and lineage-specific miRNAs, their evolutionary histories, and their predicted  
131 gene targets. We then tested the hypothesis that changes in gene regulatory function associated  
132 with social evolution are facilitated by lineage-specific miRNA regulatory function. We tested  
133 three predictions of this hypothesis: (1) miRNAs that play a role in social behavior should target  
134 different genes in solitary and social species. (2) If lineage-specific miRNAs are assimilated into  
135 ancestral gene networks, then their predicted target genes should be ancient and conserved. (3) If  
136 lineage-specific miRNAs play a role in social evolution, then their predicted targets should be  
137 enriched for genes that function in social behavior (e.g., caste-biased expression) or genes that  
138 are under selection in social species.

139

## 140 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 141 **Sample Acquisition**

142 We used adult females from six bee species for our study. *Megalopta genalis* samples  
143 were collected on Barro Colorado Island, Panama in 2015 and exported to the U.S.A. under  
144 permit SEX/A-37-15. *Nomia melanderi* samples were collected in Touchet, WA, U.S.A. with  
145 permission from private land owners. *Megachile rotundata* samples were collected from Logan,  
146 UT, U.S.A. on the Utah State University campus. *Bombus impatiens* samples were collected  
147 from a commercial colony purchased from BioBest. *Bombus terrestris* samples were collected  
148 from colonies obtained from Pollination Services Yad-Mordechai, Kibbutz Yad-Mordechai,  
149 Israel. *Apis mellifera* samples were collected from typical field hives in Urbana-Champaign, IL

150 or the Tyson Research Field Station, MO, U.S.A. All samples were flash-frozen in liquid  
151 nitrogen upon collection and stored at -80 °C until dissection.

152

### 153 **RNA Isolation and Sequencing**

154 Head capsules from the *B. impatiens*, *M. genalis*, and *N. melanderi* samples were  
155 dissected after incubation in RNALater ICE (Ambion) to remove the entire brain. We used the  
156 mirVana miRNA Isolation kit with phenol (Ambion) to isolate total RNA from individual brains.  
157 Total RNA was sent to the University of Illinois Roy J. Carver Biotechnology Center for library  
158 preparation and sequencing. Libraries were prepared with the Illumina TruSeq Small RNA  
159 Sample Preparation kit. Libraries were pooled, quantitated by qPCR, and sequenced on one lane  
160 for 51 cycles on a HiSeq 2500, using TruSeq SBS sequencing kit version 2. Sequencing yielded  
161 a mean of 19,524,877 ( $\pm$  2,545,208 s.d.) reads per sample.

162

163 Whole brains of *A. mellifera*, *B. terrestris*, and *M. rotundata* were dissected from frozen  
164 heads. Total RNA from individual brains were isolated by using the TRIzol reagent (Thermo  
165 Fisher Scientific). All subsequent small-RNA sequencing steps were performed by the Genome  
166 Technologies Access Center at Washington University, using their Illumina TruSeq pipeline.  
167 Total RNA samples were size fractionated and multiplexed. Single-end small RNA libraries  
168 were prepared using the SMARTer kit (Clontech). Up to 12 barcoded libraries from a single  
169 species were run on a single Illumina HiSeq 2500 lane.

170

## 171 **miRNA Discovery and Quantification**

172 We used miRDeep2 (Friedländer et al. 2012) to identify and quantify miRNAs expressed  
173 in the brains of each species. We used a three-step process of miRNA detection in order to  
174 identify homologous miRNAs between species. For the first step, we generated a set of mature  
175 miRNA sequences previously described in other insect species (Table S1). Reads for each  
176 sample were quality filtered (minimum length 18, removal of reads with non-standard bases),  
177 adapter-trimmed, and aligned to the species genome (Table S2) with the mapper.pl script.  
178 Approximately 60-84% of reads successfully mapped.

179  
180 We then identified known and novel miRNAs in each sample with the miRDeep2.pl  
181 script, using our curated set of insect miRNAs (Table S1) as known mature sequences. We  
182 followed this with quantification of the miRNAs using the quantifier.pl script. This generated a  
183 set of known and novel miRNAs in each sample, along with quantified expression information  
184 for each. We then filtered the novel miRNAs in each species according to the following criteria:  
185 no rRNA/tRNA similarities, minimum of five reads each on the mature and star strands of the  
186 hairpin sequence, and a significant randfold p-value ( $p < 0.05$ ). Randfold describes the RNA  
187 secondary structure of potential pre-miRs (Friedländer et al. 2012).

188  
189 We used these filtered miRNAs in a second run of detection and quantification. We  
190 added the mature sequences of the novel miRNAs from each species to our set of known  
191 miRNAs, and repeated the pipeline above. This allowed detection of homologous miRNAs  
192 (based on matching seed sequences) that are not represented in miRBase across our species. We  
193 applied the same set of filtering criteria as for our first run.



194

195           Some of the novel miRNAs may exist in the genomes of other bees, even if they are not  
196 expressed. We used blastn (-perc\_identity 50 -evalue 1e-5) to search for homologous precursor  
197 miR (pre-miR) sequences in 12 bee genomes (Table S2) for each of the novel miRNAs without a  
198 matching seed sequence.

199

### 200 **miRNA Localization**

201           We characterized the location of each known and novel miRNA in its respective genome  
202 assembly in relation to genes and transposable elements. We used bedtools intersect (Quinlan  
203 and Hall 2010) to find overlap with predicted gene models (Table S3), and repetitive element  
204 repeatmasker (Smit et al. 2013) annotations from previously established repeat libraries  
205 (Kapheim et al., unpublished.; Elsik et al. 2014; Kapheim et al. 2015; Sadd et al. 2015; Kapheim  
206 et al. 2019).

207

### 208 **Target Prediction**

209           We used computational methods to predict targets of each miRNA in each species. We  
210 used bedtools flank and getfasta (Quinlan and Hall 2010) to extract a 500 bp region downstream  
211 from each gene model, following previous studies (Ashby et al. 2016) and an average 3' UTR  
212 region of 442 nt in *Drosophila melanogaster* (Grün et al. 2005). We used these as potential target  
213 sites in miRanda (Enright et al. 2004) and RNAhybrid (Krüger and Rehmsmeier 2006) target  
214 prediction analyses. miRanda v3.3 was run with a minimum energy threshold of -20, a minimum  
215 score of 140, and strict alignment in the seed region (parameters -en -20 -sc 140 -strict). We also  
216 used RNAhybrid v2.1.2 with a minimum free energy threshold of -20 and the fly 3' UTR set was

217 used to estimate xi and theta values (These are the position and shape parameters of the value  
218 distribution from which p-values are calculated). We kept only miRNA-target gene pairs that  
219 were predicted by both programs with  $p < 0.01$ .

220

## 221 **Target Age and Functional Enrichment**

222 We explored the taxonomic ages and putative functions of predicted target genes. Gene  
223 ages were determined using orthogroups from OrthoDB v9 (Zdobnov et al. 2017), which  
224 includes *A. mellifera*, *B. impatiens*, *B. terrestris*, and *M. rotundata*. OrthoDB delineates  
225 orthologs by clustering gene best reciprocal hits (BRHs) between all species pairs, first with  
226 triangulation of BRHs and then addition of in-paralogous groups and genes to build clusters of  
227 orthologs. Gene sets of *M. genalis* and *N. melanderi* were mapped to Metazoa-level (330  
228 species) orthogroups following the same procedure as for BRH clustering allowing genes to join  
229 existing orthogroups when all BRH criteria are met. The age of each gene from the six bee  
230 species was inferred from the taxonomic breadth of all species in each orthogroup, from  
231 Vertebrata (at least one of 172 vertebrates), to Metazoa (at least one of 25 non-arthropod and  
232 non-vertebrate metazoans), to Arthropoda (at least one of 17 non-insect arthropods), to Insecta  
233 (at least one of 16 non-holometabolous insects), to Holometabola (at least one of 68 non-  
234 hymenopteran holometabolous insects), to Hymenoptera (at least one of 7 non-Aculeata  
235 hymenopterans), to Aculeata (at least one of 13 non-Apoidea Aculeata), to Apoidea (at least one  
236 of 11 other Apoidea), and finally, genes without identifiable orthologs were labeled ‘Unique’.

237

238 Gene Ontology (GO) terms for each species were derived from a previous study  
239 (Kapheim et al. 2015), with the exception of *B. impatiens*, for which GO terms were assigned

240 based on reciprocal blastp (evalue  $< 1e^{-5}$ ) between two sets of gene models (OGS v1.2 and OGS  
241 v1.0). Functional enrichment was performed with the GOstats package (Gentleman and Falcon  
242 2013) in R (R Core Team 2016). We included all terms enriched at a value of unadjusted  $p < 0.1$   
243 to allow for more inclusivity in our cross-species comparisons.

244

### 245 **Enrichment tests of lineage-specific miRNA targets with previous studies**

246 For each species, brain or head gene expression datasets related to socially relevant  
247 phenotypes (e.g., caste) and genes under selection were compared against targets of lineage-  
248 specific miRNAs. Differential expression lists for *A. mellifera* included those from Grozinger et  
249 al. (2007) (queen vs. worker, reproductive worker vs. sterile worker, queen vs. reproductive  
250 worker), Whitfield et al. (2003) (nurse vs. forager), Alaux et al. (2009) (nurse vs. forager), and  
251 Wheeler et al. (2013) (*vitellogenin* RNAi vs. control). For *B. terrestris*, differential expression  
252 lists included three pairwise comparisons from Harrison et al. (2015) (queen vs. worker,  
253 reproductive worker vs. sterile worker, queen vs. reproductive worker), as well as a comparison  
254 between reproductive and sterile workers from Marshall et al. (2019). (The Harrison et al. dataset  
255 was from whole body including brain, rather than just head or brain.) We also included lists of  
256 differential expression between *B. terrestris* nurse and forager workers (Porath et al. 2019). For  
257 *M. genalis* caste data, RNAseq reads from Jones et al. (2017) (NCBI PRJNA331103) were  
258 trimmed using Trimmomatic (v. 0.36) and aligned to an unpublished genome assembly of *M.*  
259 *genalis* (NCBI PRJNA494872) using STAR (v. 2.5.3). Reads were mapped to gene features  
260 using the featureCounts function of the Subread package (v. 1.5.2). Remaining differential  
261 expression analysis followed the methods of Jones et al. (2017) using edgeR (Robinson et al.

262 2010) with tagwise dispersion estimates and FDR correction. The complete list of included  
263 studies and gene lists are in Table S4.

264  
265 In addition to gene expression comparisons, multiple datasets identifying genes under  
266 selection in bee species or across multiple social lineages of bees were tested for enrichment of  
267 lineage-specific miRNA targets. Species-specific selection datasets were used for *A. mellifera*  
268 (Harpur et al. 2014), *B. impatiens* (Harpur et al. 2017), *M. genalis* (Kapheim et al. unpublished),  
269 and *N. melanderi* (Kapheim et al. 2019). In addition, genes under selection in social relative to  
270 solitary lineages identified by Woodard et al. (2011) and Kapheim et al. (2015) were tested  
271 against each species' set of lineage-specific miRNA targets. The complete list of included studies  
272 and gene lists are in Table S4.

273  
274 In cases when we needed to identify orthologous genes across species, we used reciprocal  
275 blastp (evalue <  $10e^{-5}$ ). Only genes with putative orthologs were included in the final tested sets  
276 of genes. Hypergeometric tests (using phyper in R) were used to test for significance of over- or  
277 under-enrichment between each pair of lists. The representation factor (RF) given represents the  
278 degree of overlap relative to random expectation (RF=1).

279

## 280 **miRNA Diversification**

281 We explored the diversification of miRNAs that have been previously implicated in  
282 social behavior (miR-13b, miR-276, miR-6001-3p) or which are expressed in social bees, but not  
283 solitary bees (miR-305). We performed multiple sequence alignment with the web version of

284 Clustal Omega with default settings (Sievers et al. 2011), and generated a Neighbour-joining  
285 phylogenetic tree in Newick format.

286

287 We also performed genome scans for small RNAs across 12 bee genomes (Table S2)  
288 using covariance models implemented with Infernal cmsearch using the gathering threshold for  
289 inclusion (--cut\_ga) (Cui et al. 2016) to find all Rfam accessions in each bee genome. We used  
290 bedtools intersect to identify overlap between small RNAs identified through cmsearch and gene  
291 models. We then used Spearman rank regressions to test for significant associations between  
292 miRNA copy number and social biology. We categorized each species as either solitary,  
293 facultative basic eusociality, obligate basic eusociality, or obligate complex eusociality following  
294 Kapheim et al. (2015). We used the ape package (Paradis et al. 2004) in R (R Core Team 2016)  
295 to calculate phylogenetic independent contrasts for both social organization and miRNA copy  
296 number, cor.test to implement the Spearman's rank correlation, and p.adjust with the Benjamini-  
297 Hochberg method (method = "BH") to correct for multiple comparisons.

298

## 299 **RESULTS**

### 300 **Low levels of miRNA copy number variation among bee genomes**

301 Our genome scans revealed very little variation in copy number of most miRNAs among  
302 bee genomes. Of the 50 miRNA Rfam accessions, half had the same number of copies in all 12  
303 bee genomes (1 or 2 copies) (Table S5). The mean copy number across all miRNAs in all bee  
304 genomes was  $1.19 \pm 0.74$ . Seven of the Rfam miRNAs were detected in a single bee species, but  
305 mostly at low copy numbers (1-3). One exception was miR-1122, for which we found 70 copies

306 in *M. genalis*, but no copies in any of the other species. We did not find any significant  
307 associations between miRNA copy number and social organization (Table S5).

308

### 309 **Expressed miRNA diversity in bee brains**

310 We identified 97-245 known and novel miRNAs expressed in the brains of each of our  
311 six species (Table S6). The majority of these were located in intergenic regions or in introns  
312 (Table 1). Each species had at least one miRNA that originated from exons of protein-coding  
313 genes and repetitive DNA (Table 1). Most of the overlap between miRNA precursors and  
314 repetitive DNA corresponded to uncharacterized repeat elements, with very few overlaps with  
315 well characterized transposons or retrotransposons (Table 1).

316

317 Most of the detected miRNAs in each species had known homologs in at least one other  
318 species. However, each species had a substantial proportion (20-35%) of detected miRNAs with  
319 lineage-specific expression in the brain (Table 1; Fig. 1A), 24-72% of which did not have any  
320 known homologs in other species (Table 1). We defined lineage-specific miRNAs as those  
321 miRNAs with lineage-specific expression and for which no seed match with a known mature  
322 miRNA was identified (columns 6 and 7 in Table 1), because these show the most evidence of  
323 being real miRNAs that are unique to a particular species. (Sequence similarity of pre-miRs in  
324 the genome of other bee species is not sufficient evidence that a mature miRNA is transcribed.)  
325 Lineage-specific miRNAs had significantly lower expression levels in each species (t-tests: *A.*  
326 *mellifera*,  $p = 3.81e^{-05}$ , *B. impatiens*,  $p = 0.003$ , *B. terrestris*,  $p = 0.006$ , *M. genalis*,  $p = 0.0003$ ,  
327 *M. rotundata*,  $p = 8.00e^{-05}$ , *N. melanderi*,  $p = 0.02$ ).

328

329 **Table 1.** Localization of miRNAs in the genomes of six bee species. Numbers not in parentheses  
 330 represent features on the same strand as the pre-miR. Numbers in parentheses indicate strand  
 331 mismatch. Some pre-miRs overlapped with one or more genes on both the same and opposite  
 332 strands, and are thus counted twice (*A. mellifera* and *M. genalis* – 1, *B. impatiens* – 5, *B.*  
 333 *terrestris* – 4, *N. melanderi* – 3). Seed match – Mature miR had a seed match with a known miR;  
 334 Pre-miR – Successful blastn hit to the pre-miR sequence in at least one other bee genome;  
 335 Unique – No homolog was found in other species (seed match to mature or blastn hit to pre-  
 336 miR).

Species	Sociality	Expressed miRs	miRs with lineage-specific expression in the brain				Location in the genome				
			Total	Seed match	Pre-miR	Unique	Intergenic	Exon	Intron	Transposable element	Uncharacterized repetitive DNA
<i>Apis mellifera</i>	Complex eusocial	97	25	0	15	10	45	5	38 (10)	0	0
<i>Bombus impatiens</i>	Basic eusocial	245	49	6	31	12	129	4 (1)	89 (27)	7	32
<i>Bombus terrestris</i>	eusocial	150	31	2	21	8	76	1 (1)	56 (20)	13	36
<i>Megalopta genalis</i>	Facultative eusocial	105	37	7	5	25	63	3	30 (10)	2	28
<i>Megachile rotundata</i>	Solitary	99	27	9	0	18	48	8 (1)	37 (5)	2	15
<i>Nomia melanderi</i>	Solitary	97	29	5	3	21	50	8	34 (8)	2	27

337

338 Lineage-specific miRNAs were localized both within genes and intergenically. The  
 339 proportion of lineage-specific miRNAs that were intra- or intergenic was similar to miRNAs  
 340 with homologs for every species except *N. melanderi*, for which a disproportionate number of  
 341 lineage-specific miRNAs were intragenic ( $\chi^2 = 4.78$ ,  $p = 0.03$ ). Genes that serve as hosts for  
 342 intragenic lineage-specific miRNAs were not significantly older than would be expected by  
 343 chance (i.e., belong to orthogroups shared with vertebrates) in any species (hypergeometric tests:  
 344  $p = 0.14-0.76$ ). Across all species, genes that serve as hosts for intragenic lineage-specific  
 345 miRNAs were not significantly older than genes that host miRNAs with known homologs ( $\chi^2$   
 346 tests:  $p = 0.05-0.89$ ).

347

348           Of the miRNAs with mature miRNA homologs, most were expressed in all six species,  
349 and we detected few family-specific expression patterns of miRNAs (Table S6). For example,  
350 miR-3049 and miR-3786 were only detected in the bees from the family Apidae (*A. mellifera*, *B.*  
351 *impatiens*, *B. terrestris*). miR-3049 is predicted to target a neurotransmitter-gated ion-channel in  
352 all three species (OG EOG091G0R20), and a histone acetyltransferase (OG EOG091G00D2), a  
353 zinc-finger protein (OG EOG091G0N0A), a leucine-rich repeat (OG EOG091G01ZI), and a  
354 sodium-potassium-calcium exchanger (OG EOG091G0M5C) in both *Bombus* species. The two  
355 *Bombus* species shared a cytochrome P450 (OG EOG091G06KN) as a predicted target of miR-  
356 3786, but did not share predicted targets with *A. mellifera*. We identified a miRNA (nmel-  
357 scaffold2759\_cov63\_18669) without a known seed match that was only expressed in the two  
358 halictid bees (*N. melanderi*, *M. genalis*) and is predicted to target kinase associated proteins in  
359 both species.

360

361           We identified one miRNA (miR-305) that was expressed in the brains of each of the  
362 social, but not the solitary, species. Although we did not detect expression of miR-305 in the two  
363 solitary species, *M. rotundata* and *N. melanderi*, genome scans of each species against the Rfam  
364 database suggested all bee species have one copy of this miRNA (Table S5). Predicted targets of  
365 miR-305 differed across species. *Oxysterol* (OG EOG091G0FV2) was a common target among  
366 the (social) Apidae bees, but was not among the targets for *M. genalis*. However,  
367 *arylformamidase* (OG EOG091G0KT8), which is also involved in lipid metabolism and  
368 transport, was a predicted target in *M. genalis*. *Synaptobrevin* (OG EOG091G0MPE), which is



369 involved in synaptic plasticity and neurotransmitter release, was a predicted target of miR-305 in  
370 *B. impatiens*.

371

### 372 **miRNAs associated with honey bee social behavior are conserved across bee species**

373 As existing gene networks become co-opted for social evolution, we should expect novel  
374 regulatory connections between existing miRNAs and protein-coding genes. If social evolution  
375 involves miRNA-mediated changes in gene regulatory networks, then miRNAs with functions in  
376 social behavior should target different genes in social and solitary species. We tested this  
377 prediction by comparing the diversification and targets of three miRNAs that have been  
378 repeatedly associated with social behavior in bees. miR-6001-3p is upregulated in queen-  
379 destined larvae, compared to worker-destined larvae, in both *A. mellifera* (Shi et al. 2015) and *B.*  
380 *terrestris* (Collins et al. 2017). However, we only detected brain expression of this miRNA in *M.*  
381 *rotundata*, despite the fact that the honey bee miR-6001-3p was included in our known set of  
382 miRNAs. Because this miRNA does not have an accession in Rfam, we were unable to verify  
383 presence or copy number of this miRNA across the bee species. Additional targeted sequencing  
384 is needed to determine the role of this miRNA in adult bee brains.

385

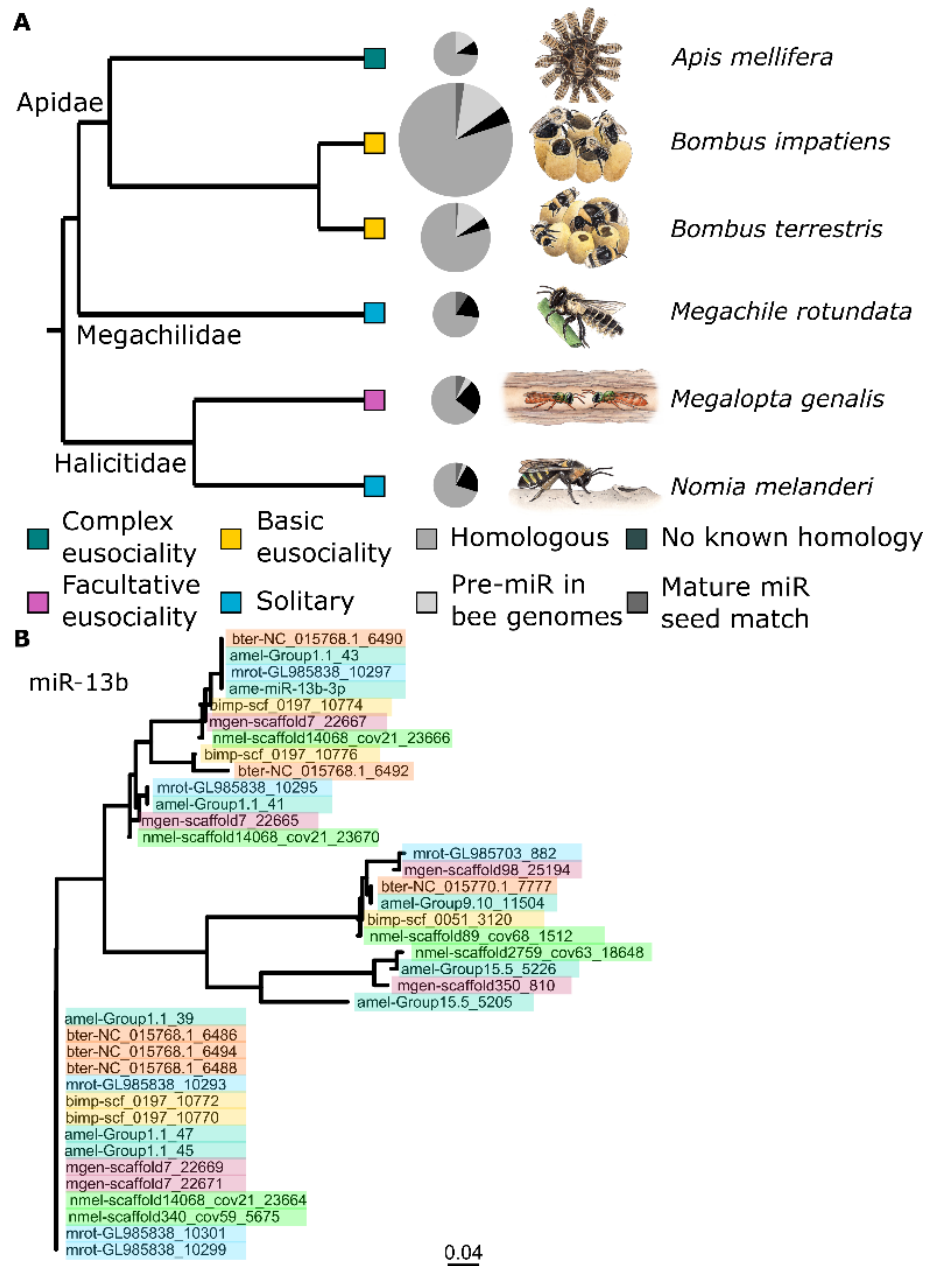
386 MiR-276 is upregulated in honey bee worker ovaries (MacEdo et al. 2016) and in queen-  
387 destined larvae, but it is unknown if or how it functions in the brain (Shi et al. 2015; Ashby et al.  
388 2016). Our genome scans revealed that each bee species has a single copy of this miRNA, and  
389 we detected expression in the brains of each of our six focal species. Multiple alignment of the  
390 expressed mature miRNA revealed almost no sequence variation across the species. There were  
391 few shared gene targets across the six species, but the functional enrichment of predicted miR-

392 276 targets was similar among species. Target genes in each species were enriched for cell  
393 signaling, though the specific pathways differed. *A. mellifera*, *B. impatiens*, and *M. rotundata*  
394 targets were enriched for insulin receptor binding, and the two halictids (*Megalopta genalis* and  
395 *N. melanderi*) were enriched for G-protein coupled receptor signaling. All species except *N.*  
396 *melanderi* shared enrichment for functions related to protein translation, including translation,  
397 protein-containing complex binding, structural constituent of ribosome, peptide biosynthetic  
398 process, peptide metabolic process, and amide biosynthetic process.

399

400         MiR-13b is differentially expressed across honey bee castes in different life stages and  
401 tissues. It is upregulated in worker ovaries compared to queen ovaries (MacEdo et al. 2016),  
402 downregulated in queen-destined larvae compared to worker-destined larvae (Shi et al. 2015;  
403 Ashby et al. 2016), and downregulated in workers performing nursing tasks compared to  
404 foragers (Liu et al. 2012). This miRNA has expanded and diversified among the bees, with three  
405 major clades containing at least one copy from each species (Fig. 1B). As with miR-276, there  
406 was very little overlap in predicted targets among species. Just one gene, the *beta subunit of*  
407 *nuclear transcription factor Y*, is predicted to be a target of miR-13b in each of the social  
408 species. However, there were more similarities across species at the functional level (Table S7).  
409 All species had enrichment for transcription factor activity, and all species except the two  
410 halictid bees had significant enrichment for genes involved in ecdysone-mediated signaling.  
411 Within the family Halictidae, the predicted targets of miR-13b for *M. genalis* were enriched for  
412 genes related to neurotransmitter-gated ion channel activity, while *N. melanderi* targets were  
413 enriched for phospholipid metabolic processes.

414



415

416 **Fig. 1. Diversity of miRNAs expressed in the brains of six bee species.** (A) Homologous and  
 417 lineage-specific miRNAs expressed in the brain of each species. The three types of homology  
 418 (shades of grey) correspond to those in Table 1. Black – has not been previously detected in other  
 419 species. Pie size corresponds to number of miRNAs detected from small RNA sequencing. Boxes  
 420 indicate social organization (green – complex eusociality, yellow – basic eusociality, pink –  
 421 facultative eusociality, blue – solitary). Phylogenetic relationships are following previous studies  
 422 (Cardinal and Danforth 2011; Sadd et al. 2015; Branstetter et al. 2017). (B) Diversification of miR-  
 423 13b across six bee species. Each miRNA has a matching seed sequence to ame-miR-13b-3p  
 424 (miRBase v21). Tip labels are the name of each miRNA expressed in the brain, beginning with a  
 425 four letter code for species. Different species are also indicated by colors. Scale indicates  
 426 substitution rate.

427 **Lineage-specific miRNAs preferentially target lineage-specific genes and genes with caste-**  
428 **biased expression, but not genes under selection**

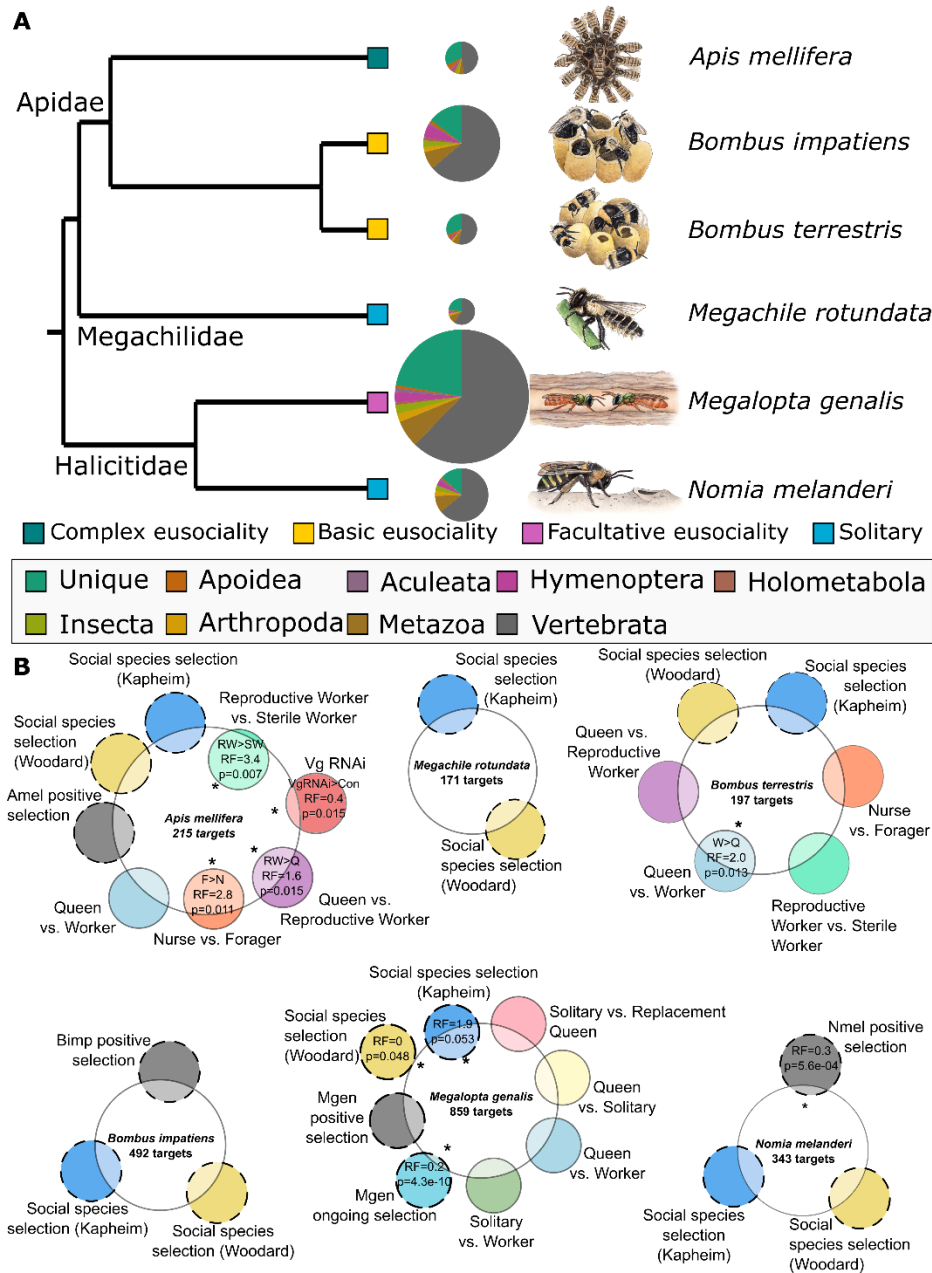
429 If lineage-specific changes in gene regulatory function associated with social evolution  
430 are facilitated by novel miRNAs inserted into existing gene networks, then the predicted targets  
431 of lineage-specific miRNAs should be highly conserved and enriched for genes with a known  
432 function in social evolution. Most of the predicted mRNA targets of lineage-specific miRNAs  
433 were highly conserved and belonged to orthogroups shared by vertebrates (Fig. 2A; Table S8).  
434 However, most of the genes in each genome are also highly conserved, and there was not a  
435 significant enrichment for conserved genes among predicted targets of lineage-specific miRNAs,  
436 beyond what would be expected by chance ( $p > 0.99$ ). We did, however, find a significant  
437 enrichment for lineage-specific genes that are unique to each species among the predicted targets  
438 of lineage-specific miRNAs ( $p = 0.02 - 1.48e^{-12}$ ), indicating that novel miRNAs are more likely  
439 to target novel genes than would be expected by chance (Fig. 2A; Table S8).

440  
441 We found mixed support for the prediction that novel miRNAs should target genes that  
442 function in social behavior and evolution. The predicted targets of lineage-specific miRNAs  
443 were enriched for genes that are differentially expressed between castes in the social Apidae (*A.*  
444 *mellifera* and *B. terrestris*), but not Halictidae (*M. genalis*) (Fig. 2B; Table S4). In *A. mellifera*,  
445 this included genes that are upregulated in the brains of reproductive workers, compared with  
446 sterile workers (RF = 3.4,  $p = 0.007$ ) and queens (RF = 1.6,  $p = 0.015$ ) (Grozinger et al. 2007), as  
447 well as genes upregulated in the brains of foragers compared with nurses (RF = 2.8,  $p = 0.011$ )  
448 (Whitfield et al. 2003). However, there was not significant enrichment for genes differentially  
449 expressed between nurse and forager honey bee brains in a later study ( $p = 0.09$ ) (Alaux et al.

450 2009). In *B. terrestris*, we find significant overlap between the predicted targets of lineage-  
451 specific miRNAs and genes that are upregulated in workers, compared to queens (whole body,  
452 including brain; RF = 2,  $p = 0.013$ ). We did not find significant overlap with genes differentially  
453 expressed in the brains of nurses and foragers ( $p = 0.103$ ) (Porath et al. 2019) or between  
454 reproductive and sterile worker brains ( $p = 0.39$ ) (Marshall et al. 2019), but these were much  
455 more limited gene sets. To our knowledge, there are no studies of gene expression differences  
456 between *B. impatiens* castes, so we could not evaluate target overlap with caste-biased genes in  
457 this species. We do not find significant enrichment for caste-biased genes in the brains of the  
458 facultatively eusocial halictid *M. genalis* ( $p = 0.25$ ).

459

460         Contrary to our prediction, targets of lineage-specific miRNAs were not significantly  
461 enriched for genes under selection in any species. We assessed overlaps between genes  
462 undergoing positive directional selection in *A. mellifera* (Harpur et al. 2014), *B. impatiens*  
463 (Harpur et al. 2017), *M. genalis* (Kapheim et al., unpublished), and *N. melanderi* (Kapheim et al.  
464 2019) and the predicted targets of lineage-specific miRNAs in each of these species. There was  
465 no significant enrichment for predicted targets of lineage-specific miRNAs with genes under  
466 positive directional selection in any species (Table S4). In fact, genes under selection in the  
467 halictid bees were significantly depleted for targets of lineage-specific miRNAs (*M. genalis* – RF  
468 = 0.2,  $p = 4.28e^{-10}$ ; *N. melanderi* – RF = 0.3,  $p = 5.59e^{-4}$ ). We also assessed overlaps with genes  
469 previously found to be under selection in social species, compared to solitary species (Woodard  
470 et al. 2011; Kapheim et al. 2015), but found only marginally significant overlap (Kapheim et al.  
471 2015) or depletion (Woodard et al. 2011) with predicted targets of lineage-specific genes in one  
472 species (*M. genalis* – RF = 1.9,  $p = 0.053$ ; RF = 0,  $p = 0.05$ ; Table S4).



473

474 **Fig. 2.** Predicted targets of lineage-specific miRNAs in relationship to social behavior. (A) Genes  
475 predicted to be targeted by lineage-specific miRNAs are more likely to be unique to each species  
476 than predicted by chance. Pie chart size is scaled to number of predicted target genes. Color slices  
477 indicate orthogroup age for each predicted gene. (B) Genes that are both predicted targets of  
478 lineage-specific miRNAs and genes with differential expression in a social context (solid outlines)  
479 or genes under selection (dashed outlines) are represented by overlapping circles for each study  
480 and species. Numbers of lineage-specific miRNA targets are given for each species. Colors  
481 indicate different studies. Overlaps not significantly different from random (representation factor,  
482 RF=1) are unlabeled, while significant over- or under-enrichments are marked with asterisks with  
483 RF and p-value as indicated.

484

485 **DISCUSSION**

486 Eusociality is a major evolutionary innovation that requires regulatory changes in a wide  
487 range of molecular pathways (Robinson and Ben-Shahar 2002; Bloch and Grozinger 2011;  
488 Sumner et al. 2018). We tested the hypothesis that miRNAs play a role in the evolution of  
489 eusociality via their regulatory effects on gene networks. Our results provide several lines of  
490 support for this hypothesis.

491  
492 First, miRNAs that have been previously implicated in social behavior (i.e., miR-276,  
493 miR-13b) do not show significant differences in copy number or diversification patterns  
494 consistent with social evolution, but the predicted targets of these miRNAs are largely disparate  
495 across species. This is consistent with what has been shown in vertebrates, flies, and nematodes,  
496 in which miRNAs are highly conserved at the sequence level, but miRNA-target relationships  
497 are highly divergent across clades (Chen and Rajewsky 2006; Chen and Rajewsky 2007). In our  
498 analysis, there were similarities in the broad functional categories of predicted targets across  
499 closely related species, and these categories were largely consistent with gene networks expected  
500 to play a role in social evolution (e.g., hormone and signal transduction pathways). Future  
501 research experimentally evaluating the function of these miRNAs in other social species will be  
502 necessary to understand the degree to which miRNA function has diversified during social  
503 evolution.

504  
505 Second, we identified a single miRNA (miR-305) that was expressed exclusively in the  
506 brains of the social bees in our study. The presence of this miRNA in the solitary bee genomes  
507 suggests that an evolutionary shift in expression pattern has accompanied at least two

508 independent origins of eusociality in bees. This miRNA coordinates Insulin and Notch signaling  
509 in *D. melanogaster*, and both of these pathways are important regulators of social dynamics in  
510 insects (Wheeler et al. 2006; Ament et al. 2008; de Azevedo and Hartfelder 2008; Nilsen et al.  
511 2011; Wang et al. 2013; Hartfelder et al. 2015; Duncan et al. 2016; Chandra et al. 2018;  
512 Hartfelder et al. 2018). Some of the predicted targets of miR-305 in bees (e.g., *oxysterol*,  
513 *synaptobrevin*) interact with Insulin and Notch pathways in *D. melanogaster* (Stewart et al.  
514 2001; Obniski et al. 2018). This miRNA was also found to be upregulated in worker-destined  
515 honey bee larvae, compared to queen-destined larvae, and may thus play a role in caste  
516 differentiation (Shi et al. 2015). Interestingly, miR-305 also promotes aging in *D. melanogaster*  
517 (Ueda et al. 2018). Extreme differences in lifespan are one of the defining characteristics of  
518 social insect castes, whereby queens of some ant and bee species live orders of magnitude longer  
519 than workers (Wilson 1971). The mechanisms underlying these differences are a topic of  
520 interest, and a role for a miRNA that modulates insulin signaling is consistent with current  
521 understanding of this phenomenon (Corona et al. 2007; Münch et al. 2008; Remolina and  
522 Hughes 2008). Additional investigation is necessary to determine how this miRNA may  
523 influence social behavior across species.

524

525 We focused additional attention on miRNAs for which no mature miRNAs with seed  
526 matches were detected in any other species, because these have the potential to influence the  
527 lineage-specific patterns of gene regulatory changes previously shown to influence social  
528 evolution (Simola et al. 2013; Kapheim et al. 2015). We hypothesized that if novel miRNAs are  
529 inserted into existing gene networks that become co-opted for social evolution, they should target  
530 genes that are highly conserved across species. Instead, we find that the targets of lineage-



531 specific miRNAs are enriched for lineage-specific genes, while genes belonging to ancient  
532 orthogroups were not more likely to be targets than expected by chance. This could suggest that  
533 novel miRNAs co-evolve with novel genes, as has been shown for the evolution of cognitive  
534 function in humans (Barbash et al. 2014). Previous work in honey bees has shown that  
535 taxonomically-restricted (i.e., younger) genes play an important role in social evolution.  
536 Expression of taxonomically-restricted genes is significantly biased toward glands with  
537 specialized functions for life in a social colony (e.g., the hypopharyngeal gland and the sting  
538 gland) (Jasper et al. 2015), and toward genes that are upregulated in workers (Johnson and  
539 Tsutsui 2011). Thus, it is reasonable to expect that new miRNAs targeting new genes could have  
540 important social functions in honey bees.

541

542         Alternatively, it is possible that new miRNAs that target lineage-specific genes are  
543 transient and more likely to be purged by natural selection because they are less likely to  
544 integrate into existing gene networks (Chen and Rajewsky 2007; França et al. 2016; França et al.  
545 2017). Emergent miRNAs are expected to initially have limited expression to mitigate potential  
546 deleterious effects on the protein-coding genes that they target. Thus, lineage-specific miRNAs  
547 with low levels of expression may be in the process of being purged and may not have  
548 accumulated gene targets with important functions (Chen and Rajewsky 2007; Berezikov 2011).  
549 Evidence for this model comes from primates (Berezikov et al. 2006) and flies (Lu et al. 2008;  
550 Tang et al. 2010). Likewise, we find that lineage-specific miRNAs are expressed at significantly  
551 lower levels than those with at least one homolog in another species. A purging process like this  
552 could explain why there are large differences in the numbers of miRNAs detected in even closely  
553 related species (e.g., the two *Bombus* species). It is also possible that some of this variation

554 comes from sequencing stochasticity. Functional analysis of lineage-specific genes in additional  
555 tissues and life stages will help to resolve their role in social evolution.

556

557         We find support for the prediction that lineage-specific miRNAs should target genes with  
558 social function in the Apidae (e.g., honey bees and bumble bees), but not the Halictidae (*M.*  
559 *genalis*). There are several potential explanations for this pattern. One explanation is technical.  
560 We define genes with social functions as those that are differentially expressed among castes.  
561 The genetic basis of social behavior has been much better studied in honey bees and bumble bees  
562 than in any other species, and the sets of genes known to function in sociality is thus richer for  
563 apids than for halictids. Further, not all genes that function in social behavior are expected to be  
564 differentially expressed in the brains of different castes, and our analysis is thus likely to exclude  
565 some important genes. Nonetheless, our results reflect differences in the degree of social  
566 complexity, and thus caste-biased gene expression patterns, between apid and halictid bees.  
567 Unlike for honey bees and bumble bees, which cannot live outside of social colonies, eusociality  
568 is facultative in *M. genalis*. As such, caste traits are not fixed during development, and females  
569 who once served as non-reproductive workers can transform into reproductive queens if given  
570 the opportunity (Smith et al. 2009; Kapheim et al. 2012). This flexibility is reflected in the  
571 magnitude of differences in brain gene expression patterns between queen and worker honey  
572 bees (thousands of genes; Grozinger et al. 2007) and *M. genalis* (dozens of genes; Jones et al.  
573 2017). Previous research suggests that miRNAs increase their functional influence over  
574 evolutionary time (Berezikov et al. 2006; Chen and Rajewsky 2007; Lu et al. 2008; Roux et al.  
575 2012; França et al. 2016; Patel and Capra 2017). Thus, emergent miRNAs are more likely to  
576 target genes with social function due to chance alone in species with increased social complexity

577 and a larger set of caste-biased genes. Consistent with this explanation, regulatory relationships  
578 between miRNAs and genes with caste-biased expression were not found among two other social  
579 insect species with reduced social complexity (Patalano et al. 2015).

580

581 An additional explanation for these differences in the function of lineage-specific  
582 miRNAs between bee families concerns the role of miRNAs in gene regulatory networks. One of  
583 these roles is to stabilize regulatory relationships in the face of environmental variation, thus  
584 canalizing phenotypes during development (Hornstein and Shomron 2006; Peterson et al. 2009;  
585 Wu et al. 2009; Berezikov 2011). This is likely to be more important in species with obligate  
586 eusociality, such as the honey bees and bumble bees for which caste determination is canalized,  
587 than in species like *M. genalis*, where plasticity of phenotypes related to eusociality are  
588 maintained in totipotent females.

589

590 Contrary to their effects on genes with socially-differentiated expression patterns,  
591 lineage-specific miRNAs showed no evidence for preferential targeting of genes under positive  
592 selection – either within individual species or across social species. In contrast, we find these  
593 emergent miRNAs are less likely than expected by chance to target genes under positive  
594 selection in the two halictid bees. A potential explanation for this pattern is that genes that are  
595 adaptively targeted by miRNAs tend to be under purifying selection, because this maintains the  
596 regulatory relationship between the miRNA and target, thus preventing gene mis-expression  
597 (Chen and Rajewsky 2006; Saunders et al. 2007; Sarasin-Filipowicz et al. 2009; Franchini et al.  
598 2016). However, this selective constraint is likely to be most significant in the 3' UTR region,  
599 where miRNA binding sites are located.

600

601           A more likely explanation involves the hypothesized pattern of miRNA origins and  
602 assimilation, as proposed by Chen and Rajewsky (2007). This model suggests that newly  
603 emerged miRNAs are likely to have many targets throughout the genome due to chance. Most of  
604 these initial miRNA-target regulatory relationships are likely to have slightly deleterious effects,  
605 and would likely be purged through purifying selection very quickly. These deleterious effects  
606 could be particularly strong for target genes undergoing positive selection, because changes in  
607 the functional regulation of these genes are likely to have significant fitness consequences. Also,  
608 genes under positive selection are undergoing rapid evolution, and thus may be more likely to  
609 “escape” control by errant miRNAs. Indeed, it is easier for mRNAs to lose miRNA target  
610 binding sites, which typically require exact sequence matches, than to gain them (Chen and  
611 Rajewsky 2007). Thus, emergent miRNAs may not be expected to target adaptively or fast  
612 evolving genes, regardless of their role in social evolution.

613

614           The evolution of eusociality depends on many different tissues and physiological  
615 processes, and brain-specific expression patterns are not likely to be representative of the  
616 complete role of individual miRNAs in social behavior. Some or all of the predicted miRNA-  
617 gene relationships we identified may have evolved to support traits in other cell types or  
618 processes unrelated to sociality. Additional sequencing of miRNA and mRNA across tissue-  
619 types and stages of development in social and solitary species is necessary to provide a  
620 comprehensive assessment of the role of emergent miRNAs in social traits. Nonetheless, the  
621 brain is a major focus of research in social evolution because it is the primary source of

622 behavioral and neuroendocrine output. Our results thus provide a good starting place for  
623 evaluating the role of miRNAs in lineage-specific processes in the evolution of social behavior.

624

625 Our analyses reveal important differences in patterns of miRNA evolution between bees  
626 and other species. For example, expansion in miRNA repertoire is associated with the evolution  
627 of animal complexity in a wide range of species (Heimberg et al. 2008; Christodoulou et al.  
628 2010; Berezikov 2011). The evolution of eusociality from a solitary ancestor is associated with  
629 increases in phenotypic complexity, and considered to be one of the major transitions in  
630 evolution (Maynard Smith and Szathmary 1995). We therefore hypothesized that evolutionary  
631 increases in social complexity would be associated with expansions in the number of miRNAs  
632 found within bee genomes. To the contrary, we find that most bees have a single copy of  
633 previously identified miRNAs in their genomes. This is consistent with results of comparative  
634 genome scans across several ant species (Simola et al. 2013). A recent study of miRNA diversity  
635 in insects found that morphological innovations such as holometabolous development was  
636 accompanied by the acquisition of only three miRNA families (Ylla et al. 2016). This suggests  
637 that insect evolution is not as reliant on major expansions of miRNA families as other taxonomic  
638 groups.

639

640 Additionally, our characterization of lineage-specific miRNAs expressed in the brain of  
641 each species reveals that genome structure is not as influential in regulating bee miRNA  
642 evolution as has been shown for human miRNAs. Novel human miRNAs tend to arise in ancient  
643 genes that have multiple functions and broad expression patterns (Franca et al. 2016). It is  
644 hypothesized that this increases the expression repertoire of emergent miRNAs, and thus

645 facilitates persistence in the population (França et al. 2016; França et al. 2017). Only in one  
646 species (*N. melanderi*) were lineage-specific miRNAs more likely to be localized intragenically  
647 than previously identified miRNAs, while lineage-specific miRNAs did not differ from  
648 previously identified miRNAs in their genomic locations in the other five species. This suggests  
649 that emergence patterns for new miRNAs are unique to each lineage in bees. We also do not find  
650 a consistent pattern between young, emerging miRNAs and host gene age. There was no  
651 significant difference in the age of genes that serve as hosts for established versus lineage-  
652 specific miRNAs across all species. This is despite the fact that a similar proportion of bee  
653 miRNAs are located within introns (31-43%; Table 1), as compared to in vertebrates (36-65%)  
654 (Meunier et al. 2013). However, the fact that 73-88% of miRNAs that are localized to genes are  
655 encoded on the sense strand suggests that they would benefit from host transcription, as is  
656 observed in vertebrates (Meunier et al. 2013). Additional research with insects will be necessary  
657 to identify general patterns of miRNA evolution in relationship to genome structure.

658  
659 Our study identifies patterns of miRNA evolution in a set of closely related bees that vary  
660 in social organization. Our results highlight important similarities and differences in the  
661 emergence patterns and functions of mammalian and insect genomes. We also find evidence that  
662 emergent miRNAs function in lineage-specific patterns of social evolution, perhaps through co-  
663 evolution of novel miRNAs and species-specific targets. We do not see an overall increase in the  
664 number of miRNAs in the genome or expressed in the brains of species with more complex  
665 eusociality. However, we do find evidence that the role of miRNAs in social evolution may  
666 strengthen with increasing social complexity, perhaps due to an increased need for canalization  
667 of caste determination or due to chance, as a function of an increased number of genes with

668 caste-biased expression. Empirical tests of miRNA function across additional species with  
669 variable social organization will further improve our understanding of how gene regulatory  
670 evolution gives rise to eusociality.

671

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#### 930 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

931 Sequences are deposited at NCBI SRA as BioProject PRJNA559906. Code is available upon  
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