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32	

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# 39 Abstract:

40 Environmental RNA (eRNA) studies have primarily focused on species detection and community 41 composition through metabarcoding or metatranscriptomics, and on gene expression through messenger 42 RNA (mRNA) abundance analysis. While valuable, this focus overlooks the broader functional roles of 43 other RNA types in cellular metabolism. Beyond mRNA, non-coding RNAs as well as structural RNAs play 44 critical roles in gene regulation during stress responses, development, and adaptation. Additionally, RNA 45 processes like RNA methylation or alternative splicing also respond to similar environmental or 46 developmental signals. When applied to eRNA research, these additional RNA types and RNA processes 47 hold significant potential as powerful, non-invasive tools for monitoring physiological state of entire 48 species communities. In this roadmap, we present underexplored RNA types and processes relevant for 49 eRNA research, outlining their functions and the challenges of integrating them into the field. Expanding 50 eRNA research to include more diverse aspects of RNA biology will require improved experimental 51 techniques for sensitive and reliable detection and quantification of specific RNAs in eRNA samples, along 52 with enhanced tools for taxonomic and functional annotation and the expansion of genetic reference 53 databases. Where species-level resolution is not possible, functional inferences could be drawn at higher 54 taxonomic levels. Expanding the scope of eRNA studies to encompass more diverse RNA types and RNA 55 processes will provide additional insights into species communities' state, their adaptation potential and 56 responses to stressors in a non-invasive way.

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60 Keywords:
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61 Environmental RNA, Ecosystem monitoring, RNA methylation, rRNA, miRNA, non-coding RNA

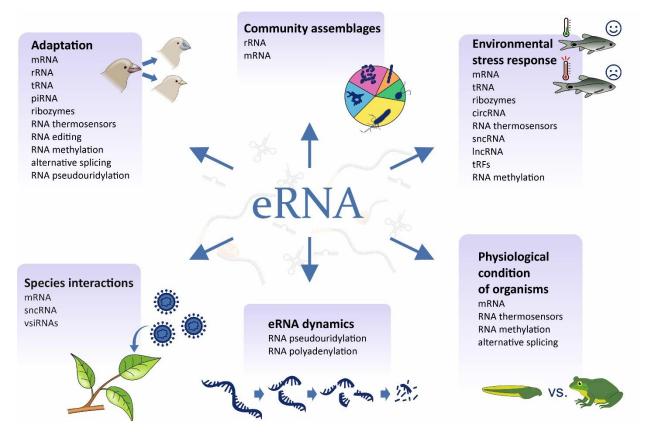
- 62
- 63 **1. Introduction**

64 The analysis of environmental RNA (eRNA) - RNA molecules released into the environment and collected from environmental samples - is emerging as a powerful, non-invasive tool for obtaining valuable 65 66 ecological and physiological insights for target organisms or even entire communities (Cristescu, 2019; M. 67 C. Yates, Furlan, Thalinger, Yamanaka, & Bernatchez, 2023; Matthew C. Yates, Derry, & Cristescu, 2021). 68 eRNA metabarcoding and metatranscriptomics have been shown to complement or even outperform 69 eDNA approaches in community assessments due to higher turnover time, more localized signals and 70 stronger indication of living organisms (Giroux, Reichman, Langknecht, Burgess, & Ho, 2022; Greco et al., 71 2022; Macher et al., 2024). But the true power of eRNA analysis could lie in its ability to provide 72 information on physiological condition or functional characteristics of organisms. Since the RNA molecules 73 in an eRNA sample are actively transcribed molecules in the bodies of organisms that have been released 74 into the environment, their abundance can reflect real-time gene expression changes linked to 75 physiological states, such as stress responses, metabolism, immune activity, or development, offering 76 insight into the condition of organisms at the time of release. However, to date, the focus of this functional 77 research has been on mRNA abundance, studying gene expression to infer ecosystem dynamics. While 78 this approach has been informative, it only scratches the surface of RNA's diverse roles in environmental 79 systems. Expanding the focus to other aspects of RNA dynamics can reveal critical insights into stress 80 responses, microbial interactions, and ecosystem stability, thereby broadening the scope of eRNA 81 research. A cell's RNA metabolism is a complex interplay involving different types of RNAs participating in 82 various chemical processes, where they can act as targets, catalysts, or both. These processes govern a 83 wide range of metabolic pathways, from protein synthesis to immune responses, providing valuable 84 insights into multiple aspects of the ecology and evolution of species, communities, and ecosystems 85 (Figure 1). In this opinion paper, we present several aspects of RNA biology beyond gene expression that could be relevant for eRNA research. Hereby we discuss 1) RNA types aside from mRNA and 2) RNA 86 processes that regulate, modify and process RNA. The RNA types discussed include regulatory RNAs, such 87 88 as miRNAs and siRNAs, which play key roles in stress responses, microbial interactions, and long-term 89 adaptation, as well as structural, translational, and catalytic RNAs, such as rRNAs and tRNAs, which are 90 essential for metabolic changes and adaptation (see details below). The discussed RNA processes include 91 RNA modification like methylation, pseudouridylation and polyadenylation are pivotal for RNA stability 92 or translation.

Despite their potential to address broader ecological and evolutionary questions, many of these
 approaches remain underexplored, partly driven by technical challenges that need to be overcome, as
 discussed in more detail below. These challenges include detecting low-abundance RNAs, lack of genetic

96 reference data or low genetic resolution, interpreting transient modifications, and analyzing complex RNA structures. To overcome these, advanced laboratory techniques, such as specialized RNA-seq methods 97 98 and mass spectrometry, must be adapted for use in environmental samples. Computational tools also 99 need improvement to support better annotation, splicing analysis, and detection of RNA modifications. 100 This review outlines the potential directions for eRNA research beyond mRNA studies (Figure 2). By 101 exploring diverse RNA types and processes, researchers can deepen their understanding of stress 102 adaptation, microbial interactions, and ecosystem resilience. These advancements will provide valuable insights into ecological stability and help address pressing environmental challenges such as climate 103 104 change and biodiversity loss.





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Figure 1: Research topics that could be addressed with the RNA types and RNA processes discussed in this manuscript. Boxes list the individual topics in bold with the RNA types and RNA process being informative on the respective topic given below. Note that individual RNA types and processes can be listed more than once.

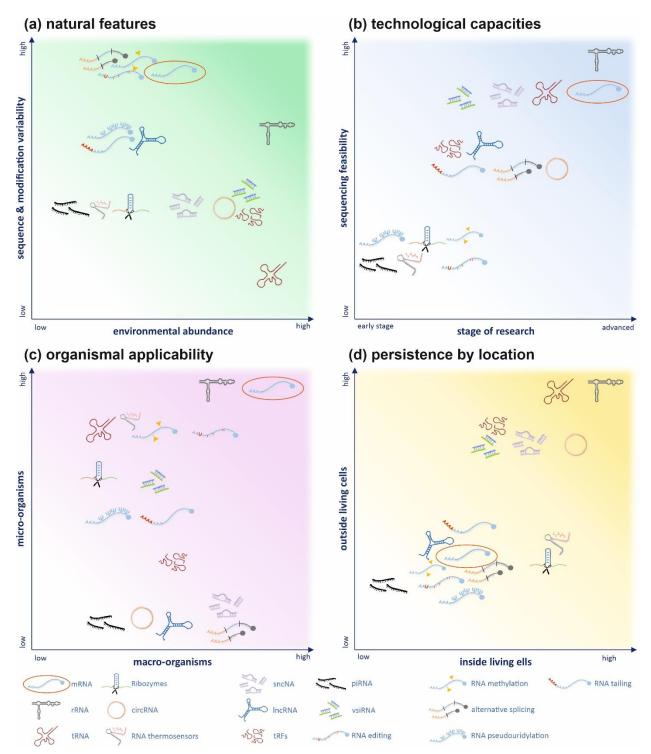


Figure 2: Natural features (a), technological capacities (b), organismal applicability (c), and environmental persistence (d) of RNA types/processes influencing their current suitability for eRNA research. Environmental abundance refers to the abundance of the RNA type in environmental samples, while sequence & modification variability is determined by molecule length and genetic diversity. Sequencing feasibility illustrates the need for deep sequencing or specialized library preparation, sequencing methods, or other techniques. Stage of research indicates the extent of existing studies on the respective RNA type or process. Organismal applicability refers to the relevance of RNA

types/processes for studying micro- or macro-organisms. Persistence by location illustrates the potential lifespan of RNA types/processes inside or outside organisms. Please note that the placement of RNA types/processes in this figure is purely relative to mRNA and simplified and based on general knowledge of their characteristics (e.g., size, variation, abundance, sequencing feasibility under laboratory conditions, and existing literature) and require additional experimental verification. Potential speciesspecific and environment-dependent variations are not considered.

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# 127

# 128 2. RNA types

A summary of the RNA types discussed in this section is provided in Table 1, including their functions,significance for environmental studies, and associated limitations.

#### 131 2.1. Ribosomal RNA (rRNA)

132 Ribosomal RNA (rRNA) forms the core of the ribosome's structure and plays a critical role in the translation 133 of genetic information from DNA into proteins. rRNA serves as already now a reliable marker for assessing 134 microbial community composition and activity from eRNA samples through eRNA metabarcoding, due to 135 its stability and ubiquity across all domains of life (An, Mun, & Kim, 2023; Blazewicz, Barnard, Daly, & 136 Firestone, 2013; Giroux, Reichman, Langknecht, Burgess, & Ho, 2023; Miyata et al., 2021; Yan, Zou, Zhu, 137 Hozzein, & Quan, 2017). Its high sequence conservation makes rRNA a preferred target for taxonomic 138 identification and phylogenetic studies, providing insights into species diversity and ecosystem function 139 (Adamo, Voyron, Chialva, Marmeisse, & Girlanda, 2020; Xue et al., 2024) and it's high abundance and stability make it a dependable biomarker even in degraded samples like eRNA samples (Cholet, Ijaz, & 140 Smith, 2019; Kagzi et al., 2023). However, the high conservation of rRNA can also limit its resolution for 141 142 differentiating closely related species. Furthermore, functional rRNA studies primarily reflect the potential 143 for variation in protein translation of an organism, rather than the true functional variability in gene 144 expression. In future eRNA studies, rRNA can continue to be applied to monitor active species 145 communities, assess ecosystem health at macro- and micro-organismal levels, and explore the dynamics 146 of communities in response to environmental changes (Gao et al., 2023) but expanding its application to 147 include rRNA modifications could uncover novel adaptations to stress or nutrient availability. For example, 148 in microbes, rRNA sequence variants have been linked to environmental stress such as heat shock or nutrient limitation (Leppek & Barna, 2019) and modifications of rRNA, such as methylation (see also 149 150 below) have been proposed as indicators of various environmental stressors (heat, cold, starvation, 151 oxygen stress) across the tree of life (Baldridge & Contreras, 2014). Therefore, detecting specific sequence 152 variants or identifying rRNA methylation patterns from eRNA samples could indicate micro- or microbial

species communities under such stressors. Furthermore, variation in rRNA gene copy number has been
 shown to reflect differing evolutionary strategies in responding to environmental changes (Klappenbach,
 Dunbar, & Schmidt, 2000), suggesting that analyzing copy number variation in environmental samples
 could reveal a species community's capacity to respond to environmental changes.

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# 159 2.2. Transfer RNA (tRNA)

160 Transfer RNA (tRNA) is essential for protein synthesis, serving as the adaptor molecule between mRNA 161 and amino acids during translation. Hereby, tRNA can be modified affecting its function in proteins 162 synthesis (Björk & Hagervall, 2014; Schauss, Kundu, Fingerhut, & Elsaesser, 2021). Different tRNA levels 163 and modifications can serve as indicators of cellular metabolic states, stress responses, and adaptive 164 strategies (Chan, Lin, Mak, & Lowe, 2021; Hoffmann et al., 2024; Huber, Leonardi, Dedon, & Begley, 2019; 165 Murakami, Fujishima, Tomita, & Kanai, 2012; Schauss et al., 2021; Schwartz et al., 2018). tRNA is more 166 stable than mRNA (Prossliner, Agrawal, Heidemann, Sørensen, & Svenningsen, 2023) suggesting longer 167 persistence times and more robust detection probabilities in eRNA samples. However, its high abundance 168 might obscure subtle changes, and the functional significance of many tRNA modifications remains poorly 169 understood (Abe et al., 2014) highlighting the need for further in vivo research. Furthermore, its high 170 conservation may complicate taxonomic annotation in mixed-origin samples like eRNA samples. However, 171 while this limits the ability to attribute inferred functions to specific species, the conserved nature of tRNA 172 may still allow for functional inferences at broader taxonomic levels, such as family, class, or even 173 kingdom, within an ecosystem or habitat. Potential applications of tRNA analysis from environmental 174 samples include the discovery of tRNA modifications in extreme environments, which may reveal 175 molecular mechanisms of adaptation (Hoffmann et al., 2024; Sharma, Zhang, Ehrenkaufer, & Singh, 2023). 176 For instance, the detection of specific tRNA modifications, such as methylation or thiolation at defined 177 nucleotide positions, could serve as indicators of community-level stress responses to temperature 178 extremes (Lorenz, Lünse, & Mörl, 2017; Rashad et al., 2024). Additionally, examining codon bias (i.e., the 179 difference in occurrence of different tRNAs encoding for the same amino acid) in eukaryotic communities 180 could reveal active stress responses, as codon bias can reflect the regulation of critical response proteins 181 to environmental stressors (Endres, Dedon, & Begley, 2015).

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#### 184 2.3. Ribozymes

185 Ribozymes are RNA molecules with enzymatic activity, that can catalyze chemical reactions without any 186 protein involved (Papastavrou, Horning, & Joyce, 2024). They play key roles in various aspects of protein 187 synthesis, like for RNA splicing (the removal of introns from RNA during protein synthesis) or translation 188 (Wilson & Lilley, 2021) (Wilson & Lilley, 2021). At an organismal level, ribozymes contribute to key 189 processes like nutrient cycling and energy metabolism, especially in microbial communities (Peri, Gibard, 190 Shults, Crossin, & Hayden, 2022; Popović, Fliss, & Ditzler, 2015) and they have been suggested as powerful 191 markers for adaptation (Belfort, 2017; Hayden & Wagner, 2012). However, ribozymes are often rare and 192 challenging to detect, requiring targeted sequencing and biochemical validation. The activity of ribozymes 193 can be influenced by physical (temperature, light) or chemical (ligands) signals (Frommer, Appel, & Müller, 194 2015), therefore the study of ribozymes structure and activity from environmental samples could reveal 195 community or species responses or adaptation to certain environmental settings.

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# 198 2.4. Circular RNA (circRNA)

199 Circular RNAs (circRNAs) are RNA molecules that lack free ends, making them exceptionally stable 200 compared to linear RNAs (Xuebing Chen, Xu, Lin, & Zhu, 2024; Verwilt & Vromman, 2024). They act as 201 regulators during gene expression through various processes (Ebbesen, Hansen, & Kjems, 2017) and have 202 been suggested to be an underexplored layer of gene regulation (Lasda & Parker, 2016). Their stability 203 makes them a particularly promising target for eRNA-based studies. However, the functional implications 204 of genetic variation in circRNA is still poorly understood at an organismal or environmental level, and their 205 detection may require sophisticated bioinformatics tools (Drula, Braicu, & Neagoe, 2024). In livestock, 206 expression profiles of circular RNAs have been linked to development and growth (Meng et al., 2020; S. 207 H. A. Raza et al., 2022). Hence, quantifying expression levels of these molecules in environmental samples 208 could be used to infer physiological conditions of vertebrate communities. Furthermore, circDNA 209 expression is known to be highly dynamic across different developmental stages (Dang et al., 2016; Fischer 210 & Leung, 2017; Szabo et al., 2015), suggesting that expression levels of circRNA in eRNA samples could be 211 used to trace the developmental status of vertebrates within ecosystems. Expression levels of circRNAs 212 have also been shown to vary in response to thermal and hypoxic stress in Echinodermata (Huo et al., 213 2021) and various plants (Kalwan et al., 2023; X. Yang et al., 2020), further supporting their potential as 214 indicators of stress in both animal and plant communities.

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#### 217 2.5. RNA thermosensors

218 RNA thermosensors are RNA molecules that sense and respond to temperature changes by altering their 219 conformation (Mandin & Johansson, 2020; Somero, 2018). These changes regulate gene expression, 220 typically at the level of translation, enabling organisms to adapt to thermal fluctuations. Commonly 221 studied in bacteria, RNA thermosensors are known to control heat-shock protein expression (Abduljalil, 222 2018; Mandin & Johansson, 2020; Steinmann & Dersch, 2013). RNA thermosensors offer a unique 223 mechanism to study real-time thermal adaptation, providing insights into how organisms sense and 224 respond to temperature changes, something conventional mRNA studies cannot address (Catalan-225 Moreno et al., 2021; A. Raza, Siddique, & Hu, 2024; Roncarati, Vannini, & Scarlato, 2024; Steinmann & 226 Dersch, 2013). However, identifying thermosensors requires resource-intensive techniques like SHAPE-227 seq and is often limited to bacterial systems (Meyer, Carlson, & Lucks, 2017), leaving their broader 228 ecological roles underexplored. In future eRNA studies, sequencing or structural analysis of 229 thermosensors could be used to detect ecosystem thermal stress such as temperature mediated 230 pathogen outbreaks (Loh, Righetti, Eichner, Twittenhoff, & Narberhaus, 2018; Noll et al., 2019; 231 Twittenhoff, Heroven, Mühlen, Dersch, & Narberhaus, 2020). Hereby, ongoing technological advances 232 may soon make it feasible to describe the secondary and tertiary structures of these molecules directly 233 from environmental samples. This could allow researchers to determine whether resident species 234 communities have reached critical thermal thresholds triggering physiological stress responses.

235

#### 236 2.6. Small non-coding RNAs

237 Small non-coding RNAs (sncRNAs), such as microRNAs (miRNAs), piwi-interacting RNAs (piRNAs) or RNA 238 virus-derived siRNAs are short RNA molecules that do not encode proteins but play critical roles in 239 regulating gene expression at the post-transcriptional level by binding to target mRNAs, leading to their 240 degradation or translational inhibition. On an organismal level, sncRNAs have been shown to mediate 241 stress responses, regulate microbial community interactions, and other inter-organismal communication 242 (Asgari, 2017; Xuemei Chen & Rechavi, 2021; Chi et al., 2023; Nawaz & Wang, 2022; Weiberg, Wang, 243 Bellinger, & Jin, 2014). The regulation of gene expression by small non-coding RNAs has been suggested 244 to provide understanding of RNA-mediated regulation in ecosystems which are not captured in mRNA 245 abundance studies (Weiberg, Bellinger, & Jin, 2015). However, their short sequences and diverse targets pose challenges for their analysis in complex, mixed-origin environmental samples, such as taxonomic 246 247 classifications or functional interpretation (Gelsinger et al., 2020; Heintz-Buschart et al., 2018; Lott, Voigt, 248 Lambrecht, Hess, & Steglich, 2020). Nevertheless, in future eRNA studies, sncRNAs could be instrumental in elucidating interspecies communication across kingdoms, host pathogen interactions and communitylevel stress signaling (Xuemei Chen & Rechavi, 2021; Chi et al., 2023; Gualtieri, Leonetti, & Macovei, 2020;
Sarshar, Scribano, Palamara, Ambrosi, & Masotti, 2022). For instance, pathogen-derived sncRNAs have
been shown to modulate gene expression in their plant hosts (Regmi, Penton, Anderson, & Gupta, 2022;
M. Wang, Weiberg, Dellota, Yamane, & Jin, 2017). When applied to eRNA samples, abundance profiling
of specific sncRNAs could help identify active pathogen-host interactions within a given species
community.

256 miRNAs: MicroRNAs (miRNAs), typically less than 25 nucleotides long, play crucial roles in gene regulation 257 during development, immune responses and adaptation to stress (Carrington & Ambros, 2003; Leung & 258 Sharp, 2010). Their small sizes may complicate taxonomic annotation but their high abundance relative 259 to other sncRNAs (Lu et al., 2005; C. Zhang, 2008), their stability due to frequent packaging in extracellular 260 vesicles (J. Zhang et al., 2015) and our comparatively advanced understanding of their functions makes 261 them promising targets for eRNA research nevertheless - particularly when inferences are drawn at higher 262 taxonomic levels. In animals, miRNA have been implicated in regulating metabolically depressed state, 263 such as during mammalian hibernation, in freeze-tolerant insects, anoxia-tolerant amphibians and reptiles 264 and, in bivalves exposed to toxins (Abo-Al-Ela & Faggio, 2021; Biggar & Storey, 2018). As such, the analysis 265 of miRNA expression profiles could identify vertebrate species communities currently experiencing 266 environmental conditions that triggered extensive physiological reactions. This could, in turn, reveal 267 community-level adaptation strategies and coping mechanisms in the assessed communities.

268 piRNAs: Piwi-interacting RNAs (piRNAs) are animal specific, sncRNAs that protect genomes from 269 transposable elements (Ozata, Gainetdinov, Zoch, O'Carroll, & Zamore, 2018) mostly in cells of the germ 270 line (like eggs or sperm). Transposable elements are mobile fractions of the genome that insert 271 themselves into new places and can originate from an organism's own genome but also from parasitic 272 infections such as viral infections. Since they are particularly crucial for protecting the germline of 273 transposable elements, they can have a profound effect onto the fitness of the next generation (Belicard, 274 Jareosettasin, & Sarkies, 2018; Ozata et al., 2018). In environmental contexts, they could play roles in 275 stress adaptation and genome stability (Casier, Boivin, Carré, & Teysset, 2019; Casier, Delmarre, et al., 276 2019; Ter Horst, Nigg, Dekker, Falk, & Pfeiffer, 2019). Therefore, the assessment of presence and diversity 277 of piRNA in a species community could not only elucidate the current community's ability to fight off viral 278 infections or to cope with environmental stressors, but it could also infer the next generation's ability to 279 adapt to and cope with these stressors.

280 vsiRNAs: Small interfering RNAs derived from viral RNA (vsiRNA) are small RNA molecules that are 281 produced by a host organism in response to infection by an RNA virus and are important for the host's 282 immune defense by silencing viral genes in plants, invertebrates, and some vertebrates (Li, Weng, Shih, & 283 Brewer, 2016; Llave, 2010). vsiRNAs therefore highlight active viral infections and host responses. 284 However, similar to other sncRNAs, they are challenging to detect and to assign to individual species due 285 to their small size and low abundance. As vsiRNAs are used as defense systems against viral infections 286 viral RNA, guantifying these RNA types in communities would enable researchers to identify and track 287 viral infections of entire communities and ecosystems.

288

# 289 2.7. Long non-coding RNAs

290 Long non-coding RNAs (IncRNAs) is a large and highly diverse group of RNA molecules longer than 200 291 nucleotides that do not encode proteins but are involved in diverse cellular processes, such as 292 transcriptional regulation, chromatin remodeling, and gene expression control (Toomer, Gan, & Sztuba-293 Solinska, 2020). Similar to sncRNAs, IncRNAs are implicated to be involved in stress responses, organismal 294 adaptation, and microbial-host interactions (Fahad, Tariq, Muhammad, & Wu, 2024; Ou et al., 2022; Qu 295 et al., 2019; H. Yang et al., 2023; X. F. Zhao et al., 2021). But unlike sncRNAs, IncRNAs operate already at 296 the transcriptional level and on chromatin levels, meaning they are affecting larger areas of the genome 297 and influence gene expression more globally and fundamentally than sncRNAs. However, their functions 298 are less conserved across species, requiring a better understanding of their functions on a species-by-299 species basis first. Currently, our understanding of IncRNAs' roles in environmental stress response is 300 more advanced in plants, while knowledge in animals or microorganisms is still very limited (Nejat & 301 Mantri, 2018; Song & Zhang, 2017; H. Yang et al., 2023). Once a better understanding of their function 302 has been established, the sequence and/or expression analysis of IncRNAs from environmental samples 303 could further help to elucidate stress responses of species communities.

304

#### 305 2.8. tRNA fragments (tRFs)

tRNA fragments (tRFs) are small RNA molecules derived from the cleavage of tRNAs (Tosar & Cayota,
2020). These fragments have regulatory roles, such as repressing translation, modulating stress responses,
and influencing inter-organismal signaling (Lalande, Merret, Salinas-Giegé, & Drouard, 2020; Margis,
Eguiluz, Guzman, Rodrigues, & Dias-Oliveira, 2023; Z. Sun et al., 2022). However, they are poorly
characterized in environmental contexts, and detecting them requires specialized sequencing techniques
(Kimura, Srisuknimit, & Waldor, 2020; Lakshmanan et al., 2021; Molla-Herman et al., 2020). Furthermore,

their small size complicates genomic and taxonomic annotation, particularly from mixed-origin samples such as eRNA samples, and distinction between in-cell cleavage and degradation in the environment might be hard to achieve. However, certain stress conditions can induce cleavage of tRNAs into tRFs (Saikia et al., 2012), the analysis of accumulation of tRFs in relation to their progenitor tRNAs in environmental samples could indicate the presence of environmental stressors onto species assemblies.

317

#### 318 3. RNA processes

A summary of the RNA processes discussed in this section is provided in Table 2, including associated
 functions, significance for environmental studies, and associated limitations.

321

# 322 3.1. RNA editing

323 RNA editing involves post-transcriptional modifications that alter RNA sequences, such as adenosine-to-324 inosine (A-to-I) or cytosine-to-uracil (C-to-U) changes. These modifications enable rapid adaptation to 325 environmental conditions without altering the underlying genome (Krüttner & Caroni, 2019; Nie et al., 326 2020; Yablonovitch, Deng, Jacobson, & Li, 2017; A. Zhang, Jiang, Zhang, Wang, & Zhang, 2019) and 327 therefore provide insights into adaptive mechanisms and stress responses that are invisible in 328 conventional mRNA abundance studies. For instance, in Arabidopsis, reduced C-to-U RNA editing rates in 329 mitochondrial and chloroplast genes have been observed under heat or cold stress (Chu & Wei, 2020). 330 However, detecting editing events requires high sequencing depth and advanced computational tools. 331 Given the continuously dropping sequencing costs, this still holds a promising avenue for future research 332 and in future eRNA studies, RNA editing could be applied to track real-time adaptation in communities.

333

#### 334 **3.2. RNA methylation**

335 During RNA methylation, methyl groups are added to certain nucleotides in an RNA molecule. The most 336 common type of methylation, N6-methyladenosine (m6A), regulates RNA stability, translation, and 337 localization (Yue, Liu, & He, 2015). Studying methylation requires advanced techniques like specialized 338 sequencing, e.g., m6A-CLIP, MeRIP-seq and m6A-LAIC-seq , which can be resource-intensive (McIntyre et 339 al., 2020; Owens, Zhang, & Liu, 2021). However, recent advancements in these techniques have improved 340 the detection of m6A modifications in low-abundance RNA samples, making them highly valuable for 341 environmental research (Shabani, Dresselhaus, & Dukowic-Schulze, 2022; Xiao et al., 2023). M6A has 342 recently revealed to be a key molecular response to various environmental stressors such as hypoxia and

changes in temperature or salinity (Ahi & Singh, 2024; Hu et al., 2021; Y. J. Wang et al., 2021). Hence,
studying methylation patterns received from environmental samples could reveal either individual species
or entire communities reacting to environmental stressors.

346

# 347 3.3. Alternative splicing

348 Alternative splicing is a post-transcriptional process that enables a single gene to produce multiple mRNA 349 isoforms by selectively including or excluding specific exons during RNA maturation. This mechanism 350 significantly enhances transcriptomic and proteomic diversity, influencing various cellular functions and 351 adaptive responses (Kiran Mandadi et al., 2022; Singh & Ahi, 2022; Verta & Jacobs, 2022). The analysis of 352 alternative splicing provides insights into how organisms and communities modulate gene expression in 353 response to environmental fluctuations, such as temperature changes and pollutants (Bernatchez, 354 Ferchaud, Berger, Venney, & Xuereb, 2023; Liu, Guo, Xu, Liu, & Yan, 2022a; Salisbury, Delgado, & Dalziel, 355 2021; Steward, de Jong, Oostra, & Wheat, 2022; Verta & Jacobs, 2022; B. Zhao et al., 2024). The detection 356 of diverse spliced isoforms can reveal molecular strategies employed by organisms to rapidly adapt to 357 their habitats (Kiran Mandadi et al., 2022) or interact with other organisms (Betz et al., 2024; Legüe, 358 Aguila, & Calixto, 2021). While conventional methods quantify overall gene expression levels, they may 359 overlook the functional diversity generated by different mRNA isoforms. For instance, specific isoforms 360 can encode proteins with distinct, even opposing, functions, playing critical roles in stress responses and 361 developmental processes (Staiger & Brown, 2013). However, studying alternative splicing in complex 362 environmental samples presents challenges. Accurate identification of isoforms requires high sequencing 363 depth and advanced computational tools, especially when dealing with mixed-species samples where 364 reference genomes may be incomplete or unavailable. Additionally, RNA fragments long enough to 365 identify the exact isoform, are required to be available in the eRNA sample. Also, the functional 366 understanding of novel isoforms is often limited, complicating the interpretation of their ecological 367 significance. Despite these challenges, focusing on alternative splicing in eRNA research holds promise for 368 uncovering how species communities and ecosystems dynamically adjust to environmental pressures. For 369 example, high rates of alternatively spliced genes being expressed under temperature salt stress have 370 been described in plants (Ding et al., 2014; Liu, Guo, Xu, Liu, & Yan, 2022b), therefore the detection of 371 such alternative splicing variants from eRNA samples could reveal plant communities experiencing such 372 environmental stressors.

373

# 374 3.4. RNA pseudouridylation

375 Pseudouridylation, the conversion of uridine to pseudouridine ( $\Psi$ ) in RNA, is a prevalent RNA modification 376 that enhances RNA stability, folding, and functionality (B. S. Zhao & He, 2014). Pseudouridylation plays 377 essential roles in RNA processing, translation, and cellular stress responses (L. Sun et al., 2019; Z. Wang et 378 al., 2022). In environmental contexts, it likely enables organisms to stabilize RNA under harsh or 379 fluctuating conditions such as extreme temperatures, high salinity, or oxidative stress, contributing to 380 molecular resilience (Adamiec & Luciński, 2024; Niu & Liu, 2023). Pseudouridylation provides insights into 381 post-transcriptional regulatory mechanisms that stabilize and adapt RNA to environmental challenges 382 (Khan et al., 2023). Its ability to enhance RNA performance under stress conditions highlights its role in 383 organismal survival (Adamiec & Luciński, 2024). However, detecting pseudouridylation in environmental 384 samples remains technically challenging. Methods such as pseudouridine sequencing ( $\Psi$ -seq) and mass 385 spectrometry are required to map pseudouridine sites accurately, but these techniques are resource-386 intensive and not yet widely applied to environmental RNA studies (Begik et al., 2021; Zaringhalam & 387 Papavasiliou, 2016). Detecting pseudouridylation from environmental samples could illuminate whether 388 and how species communities adapt to extreme environments.

389

#### 390 **3.5. RNA tailing and polyadenylation**

391 RNA tailing is a process in which a string of nucleotides is added to the 3' end of mRNA molecules with 392 polyadenylation being the addition of adenine nucleotides. The addition of those nucleotides influence 393 RNA stability, transport and degradation (Roux et al., 2024; Tudek et al., 2021). Polyadenylation and other 394 variants in RNA tailing, including uridylation, have been observed in diverse organisms, indicating their 395 roles in RNA turnover and stress response (Roux et al., 2024; Wu, Wang, Wu, Hong, & Li, 2020; Zhou & Li, 396 2023). RNA tailing studies offer insights into RNA stability and degradation, aspects that are overlooked 397 in mRNA abundance analyses (Chou et al., 2015). A good understanding of RNA dynamics such as eRNA 398 production, persistence and degradation is crucial for any inference drawn on eRNA data (Kagzi et al., 399 2023; Wood et al., 2020) and therefore the influence of RNA tailing on eRNA stability is a key factor to 400 consider. However, the transient nature of RNA tails and their variability across species make them 401 challenging to study and they require tailored sequencing and bioinformatics approaches (M. Chen et al., 402 2020; Ye, Long, Ji, Li, & Wu, 2018). In future eRNA research, studying the influence of RNA tailing onto 403 eRNA persistence will expand our understanding of eRNA stability in and detection probabilities from 404 environmental samples.

405

#### 406 4. Regulatory connections between RNA processes and RNA types

The RNA processes described above can influence the various RNA types discussed earlier. While the full network of interactions between RNA types and RNA modifications within cellular metabolism is beyond the scope of this work, we summarize the key connections between RNA processes and RNA types outlined in this manuscript here and in Table 3.

RNA editing: In mRNAs and IncRNAs, editing can generate alternative isoforms or influence stability. For
 piRNAs and sncRNAs, editing may fine-tune their target specificity, potentially affecting stress or
 developmental responses (Picardi, D'Erchia, Gallo, Montalvo, & Pesole, 2014).

414 **RNA methylation:** N6-methyladenosine (m6A) affects mRNAs, lncRNAs, sncRNAs, tRNAs, tRFs and 415 circRNAs, marking them for degradation or protection (Motorin & Helm, 2022).

Alternative splicing: While primarily affecting mRNAs and lncRNAs, evidence suggests it also influences
 circRNA formation (X. O. Zhang et al., 2016). The resulting transcript variants, or isoforms can have
 differing functions and mediate responses to environmental triggers.

**RNA pseudouridylation**: This process is particularly relevant for rRNAs, tRNAs, and sncRNAs and affects
stability, folding, and functionality of these transcripts (De Zoysa & Yu, 2017).

Polyadenylation and RNA tailing: These processes regulate mRNAs, IncRNAs, and even some vsiRNAs which can either stabilize transcripts or mark them for decay (Yu & Kim, 2020). The poly(A) status of these RNAs influences their persistence outside the cell, as well, thereby affecting their detectability and usefulness in eRNA surveys (Chou et al., 2015; Kagzi et al., 2023; Wood et al., 2020).

425

# 426 **5. Overall potential for biodiversity and conservation research**

427 The primary strength of eRNA research lies in its ability to non-invasively infer the physiological state of 428 organisms, going beyond presence-absence data. In addition to mRNA, the RNA types and processes 429 discussed above hold significant potential for monitoring stress responses, developmental stages, 430 pathogen infections and adaptive processes. Most of these have been best studied in the context of stress 431 response, particularly to thermal stress and toxin exposure - conditions that are highly relevant for 432 assessing species and community health in natural environments. These stressors are also among the 433 most pressing conservation concerns, as climate change is projected to alter thermal regimes globally 434 (Burrows et al., 2011; Diffenbaugh & Field, 2013; Maberly et al., 2020), and pollution from domestic and 435 industrial sources is a persisting major threat to biodiversity (Bernhardt, Rosi, & Gessner, 2017; Groh, vom 436 Berg, Schirmer, & Tlili, 2022; Sigmund et al., 2023). Furthermore, the detection of ongoing viral or other 437 pathogen infections, along with corresponding immune responses, represents an additional promising

438 area that could be addressed through eRNA analysis of these diverse RNA types and processes. This 439 approach would enable non-invasive, large-scale disease monitoring at the ecosystem level and at a rapid 440 pace. Several of these RNA molecules may also enable the non-invasive detection of developmental 441 stages, offering key insights into population viability by assessing reproductive activity and age structure. 442 Finally, the potential of some RNA types to reflect real-time or transgenerational adaptation to 443 environmental stressors could provide critical information on both adaptive mechanisms and the 444 resilience of species and communities under changing environmental conditions. Taken together, among 445 the RNA types and processes discussed, we consider rRNA, microRNAs, and RNA methylation to be 446 particularly promising for future eRNA research and for the research questions discussed. This is due to their relatively well-understood biological functions, the availability of advanced analytical 447 methodologies, and/or their comparatively high stability, which enhances their persistence in 448 449 environmental samples over time.

450

#### 451 **6. Current limitations and future directions**

Functional understanding of RNA types and RNA processes: While holding great potential, compared to mRNA, our understanding of the functions of the RNA types and processes discussed here remains relatively limited. Much of the current knowledge has been derived from studies in microorganisms, while the roles of these RNAs in macroorganisms, particularly in non-model species, are still poorly understood. Therefore, the integration of these molecules into eRNA research requires additional research of their in vivo functions across a broader range of organisms. Figure 2c indicates our estimation of current applicability of the different RNA types and processes for micro- and macro-organisms.

459 Varying eRNA persistence in the environment: Aside from the required basic knowledge of RNA function, 460 their persistence in the environment is a crucial factor to consider. Many of the analytical approaches 461 discussed here require reliable quantification of the RNA molecules, at least relative to reference 462 transcripts (e.g., housekeeping genes). When RNA is released into the environment, it is subjected to 463 degradation, a process likely to differ between RNA types. This differential RNA persistence directly affects 464 the abundance of RNA molecules in eRNA samples. As this must be accounted for in data interpretation, 465 a better understanding of persistence times and degradation rates of the different RNA molecules is 466 essential. In Figure 2d we give a speculative overview of eRNA persistence across RNA types and 467 processes, but this requires verification by experimental research.

Distinguishing between organismal and extra-organismal RNA: Also heavily linked to eRNA degradation,
 a key consideration in eRNA research is whether RNA is located within intact cells (organismal RNA) or

470 freely present in the environment (extra-organismal RNA) (Figure 2d). Organismal RNA is typically more 471 stable and better reflects of living biodiversity, while extra-organismal RNA is more susceptible to 472 degradation from environmental stressors (Jo, Tsuri, Hirohara, & Yamanaka, 2023) and might indicate 473 species presence or activity of species that are not present in the sampled environment (any more). 474 However, techniques like size-selective filtration or differential centrifugation could help to distinguish 475 these RNA pools in an eRNA sample (Nigro et al., 2021).

476 Taxonomic annotation of eRNA molecules: One of the major challenges in extended eRNA research is 477 determining the taxonomic origin of RNA molecules from mixed eRNA samples, as sequence conservation 478 and sequence length varies drastically among RNA type. Some of the RNA molecules described exhibit 479 high sequence conservation, resulting in genetic resolutions too low to distinguish closely related species. 480 One way to address this is to shift ecological inference from the species level to a higher taxonomic level, 481 especially when the observed function is known to be conserved across members of that group. This 482 approach could enable a more holistic interpretation of the physiological state of entire species 483 communities. However, it also carries the risk that variation in the physiological states of individual species 484 may be masked by those of other, potentially more abundant, species. The taxonomic annotation of RNA 485 (and DNA) sequences is furthermore highly dependent on comprehensive reference databases. Expanding 486 these databases is an ongoing global effort in eDNA and barcoding efforts (Blackman et al., 2023; Gostel 487 & Kress, 2022; Margues et al., 2021), but most of the current focus lies on individual genetic markers used 488 for barcoding or eDNA metabarcoding. Broadening RNA sequence databases beyond conventional 489 barcode and metabarcoding markers will require extensive transcriptome-level sequencing across a wide 490 range of micro- and macroorganisms. However, given the current pace at which sequence data is being 491 generated, we are optimistic that these resources will continue to expand rapidly.

492 Need for feasibility assessment of emerging RNA techniques in ecological contexts: Several advanced 493 molecular techniques discussed in this manuscript, such as SHAPE-seq, m6A-CLIP, and  $\Psi$ -seq, offer 494 exciting potential to expand the scope of eRNA research by enabling the study of RNA structure and 495 modifications. However, many of these methods remain technically demanding, costly, and currently 496 impractical for routine use in most ecology-focused laboratories. While we attempted to summarize cost 497 and workload under "sequencing feasibility" in Figure 2b), systematic evaluations of these techniques in 498 the context of large-scale environmental studies are still lacking. Such evaluations need to assess key 499 factors including cost-effectiveness, technical complexity, input material requirements, and robustness

when working with degraded or mixed-environmental samples. This is essential for determining theirpractical value and overall feasibility in advancing eRNA research.

#### 502 Conclusion

503 Exploring alternative RNA types and RNA processes in eRNA samples can help answer questions relevant 504 to ecology and conservation that mRNA alone cannot. Most dominantly, non-coding RNAs and RNA 505 modifications can provide additional information on whether species communities currently respond to 506 environmental stressors such as temperature shifts and pollution, detect ongoing pathogenic infections 507 and infer population viability and resilience. However, realizing their full potential in eRNA research is not 508 without challenges. Many alternative RNA types require specialized or costly sequencing techniques, 509 conserved and short RNA sequences hinder taxonomic resolution, and few genetic reference data 510 complicate taxonomic identification. Varying rates of RNA degradation among RNA types can obscure 511 biological signals, and low-abundance RNAs may be hard to detect. Despite these hurdles, progress is 512 accelerating. Sequencing costs are dropping, and new methods are being developed to capture rare or 513 degraded RNAs. For taxonomic inference, higher-level classifications (e.g., class or family) may be sufficient when function is conserved. Alternatively, community-level RNA profiling may offer ecological 514 515 insights without relying on species-level resolution and reference databases aside from conventional 516 (meta-)barcoding markers continue to expand. Future research needs to focus on a better functional 517 understanding of the RNA function beyond mRNA, developing approaches to distinguish extra- from intra-518 cellular RNA in eRNA samples, expand the knowledge of RNA persistence across RNA types, and 519 systematically assess feasibility of specialized sequencing techniques.

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1019 Table 1. Summary of eRNA types beyond mRNA with potential applications in eRNA studies. Table highlights their functions, significance for 1020 eRNA research, and current limitations in application. Also, it outlines the most common detection techniques and suggests improvements to 1021 make these methods more suitable for eRNA studies in diverse and complex environmental contexts. Finally, we give our subjective estimation of 1022 the current overall feasibility to incorporate the respective RNA type into eRNA studies in the upcoming 5-10 years (\*\*\* - high, \*\* - intermediate, 1023 \* - low).

Molecule	Function	Significance for eRNA research	Limitation	Detection techniques	Required technical improvements	Current feasibility or eRNA research
rRNA	Form ribosome's core, facilitates protein synthesis	suitable for taxonomic and activity profiling, more stable and abundant than mRNA	Limited resolution for closely related species, focuses on translational potential	rRNA-seq, qPCR, metatranscrip tomics	Develop tools for higher taxonomic resolution and integrate functional analysis	***
tRNA	Transfer amino acids during translation, regulates translational machinery	more stable and abundant than mRNA, tRNA modifications occurring in extreme environments	poorly annotated modifications, low sequence variability	tRNA-seq, Northern blotting, qPCR	Improve annotations and study tRNA modifications in diverse environments	*
Ribozymes	Catalyze biochemical reactions independently of proteins	potential makers of adaption	low abundance, requires targeted biochemical validation	Directed evolution assays, RNA- seq, in vitro validation	Improve sensitivity of detection methods	**
circRNAs	Act as miRNA sponge, regulates proteins, stable under stress	Highly stable, persists longer in environmental samples	Limited understanding in non-model organisms, low abundance	CircRNA-seq, RIP	Optimize detection for low-abundance circRNAs	**
RNA thermosensors	Respond to temperature via conformational changes	Potential markers of temperature stress in species communities	Resource-intensive detection, mainly studied in bacteria, structural analysis required	SHAPE-seq, mutational assays	Enable conformation analyses from environnemental samples	*
sncRNAs	Regulate genes post- transcriptionally	Potential markers of stress response, microbial community interactions and inter-organismal communication	Low abundance, low sequence variability due to size, limited annotation for non-model species	Adjusted small RNA-seq	Improve annotation tools, expand genetic reference databases	**(*)
IncRNAs	Control transcription, remodels chromatin, aids adaptation	Potential markers of stress response, and host- pathogen interactions	Poorly conserved, requires extensive sequencing, functions poorly understood in non-model organisms	RNA-seq, ChIP	Expand functional and genetic reference databases of non-model organisms	*
tRFs	Modulate translation and stress responses	Potential markers of stress response	Challenging detection, small size hinders taxonomic annotation, functions poorly characterized	tRNA-seq, small RNA-seq	Expand functional understanding, improve sensitivity of sequencing techniques	*

Table 2. Summary of eRNA processes with potential applications in eRNA studies discussed in this manuscript. Table highlights their functions, significance for eRNA research, and current limitations in application. Also, it outlines the most common detection techniques and suggests improvements to make these methods more suitable for eRNA studies in diverse and complex environmental contexts. Finally, we give our subjective estimation of the current feasibility to incorporate the respective RNA type into eRNA studies in the upcoming 5-10 years (\*\*\* - high, \*\* - intermediate, \* - low).

RNA process	Function	Significance for eRNA research	Limitation	Detection techniques	Required technical improvements	Current feasibility or eRNA research
RNA editing	Alters RNA sequences post-transcriptionally for adaptation	Indicates adaptive molecular changes and stress responses; host-pathogen dynamics	Requires intensive sequencing and computational resources	RNA-seq, editing- specific tools	Enhance RNA editing detection bioinformatics	**
RNA methylation	Regulates RNA stability and translation via chemical modifications	Indicates cellular stress responses, metabolic activity, and developmental states	Costly, requires specialized tools like mass spectrometry	LC-MS/MS, nanopore, MeRIP-Seq	Simplify and lower cost of modification-specific sequencing	***
alternative splicing	Diversifies gene expression through alternative splicing	Enables organismal plasticity and adaptive responses to environmental pressures	Sequencing resource- demanding, limited functional annotations	High-depth RNA-seq, splice-aware aligners	Increase accessibility to splice-aware alignment tools	* *
RNA pseudo- uridylation	Stabilizes RNA and influences folding and interactions via chemical modifications	Indicator of organisms' resilience to extreme conditions	Detection is resource- intensive, functions often unknown in non-model species	LC-MS/MS, specialized RNA-seq platforms	Enhance detection techniques for low- abundance modifications	*
Polyadenylation and RNA tailing	Modifies RNA stability and degradation via nucleotide additions to 3' ends	Affecting RNA persistence in organisms and in the environment	Highly variable and transient, requires specific tools for accurate analysis	Poly(A)-tail- seq, nanopore-seq	Refine sequencing platforms for transient and variable RNA tails	*

# **Table 3. Regulatory effects of RNA processes on RNA types and their regulatory effects.**

RNA process	Affected RNA types	Regulatory effects		
RNA editing	IncRNAs, sncRNAs (e.g., miRNAs), piRNAs, ribozymes, RNA vsiRNAs	Alters sequence composition, target specificity, and function Regulates RNA stability, degradation, export, and translation efficiency		
RNA methylation (e.g., m6A)	mRNAs, IncRNAs, tRNAs, circRNAs, sncRNAs, tRFs			
Alternative splicing	mRNAs, IncRNAs, circRNAs	Creates alternative isoforms		
RNA pseudouridylation	mRNA, rRNAs, tRNAs, sncRNAs	affects stability, folding, and functionality		
Polyadenylation and RNA tailing	mRNAs, IncRNAs, vsiRNAs	Regulates transcript lifespan and translational potential; tags RNA for degradation or protection		

**Box 1** Summary of the key research questions that could be addressed using alternative RNA types or RNA processes

beyond conventional analysis of mRNA, along with the current main challenges in analyzing these and potentialsolutions.

Key questions for alternative eRNAs	Main challenges	Potential solutions
<ul> <li>Response to environmental stressors</li> <li>Adaptation</li> <li>Species interactions</li> <li>eRNA dynamics</li> <li>Physiological condition of organisms</li> <li>Community assemblages</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Need of high sequencing depth</li> <li>Expensive specialized sequencing techniques</li> <li>Taxonomic assignment of very conserved and/or short RNA fragments</li> <li>Lack of genetic reference data</li> <li>Degradation in the environment obscuring real biological patterns</li> <li>Low abundance of individual RNA types</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Sequencing costs continue to decline</li> <li>Library preparation, enrichment and sequencing methods are being developed at an unprecedented speed with more efficient workflows evolving continuously</li> <li>Species-level assignment might not be necessary for many biological inferences. Assignment to higher taxonomic level may be sufficient if the associated function is very conserved.</li> <li>Genetic data, including RNA-seq data continues to be produced at a fast speed for a growing list of species, which can all serve as future genetic reference data</li> <li>New enrichment methods continue to be developed, enabling access to more lowabundant RNA types</li> </ul>