Nuclear Argonaute protein NRDE-3 switches small RNA partners during embryogenesis to mediate temporal-specific gene regulatory activity

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Abstract

RNA interference (RNAi) is a conserved gene regulation mechanism that utilizes the Argonaute protein and their associated small RNAs to exert regulatory function on complementary transcripts. While the majority of germline-expressed RNAi pathway components reside in perinuclear germ granules, it is unknown whether and how RNAi pathways are spatially organized in other cell types. Here we find that the small RNA biogenesis machinery is spatially and temporally organized during embryogenesis. Specifically, the RNAi factor, SIMR-1, forms visible concentrates during mid-embryogenesis that contain an RNA-dependent RNA polymerase, a poly-UG polymerase, and the unloaded nuclear Argonaute protein, NRDE-3. We also observe that many other RNAi factors form foci in embryonic cells distinct from "SIMR granules", including the Argonaute protein CSR-1, underscoring a potential role for cytoplasmic concentrates of RNAi factors to promote gene regulation in embryos. Curiously, coincident with the appearance of the SIMR granules, the small RNAs bound to NRDE-3 switch from predominantly CSR-class 22G-RNAs to ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs. Prior work has shown that NRDE-3 binds ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs in the somatic cells of larvae and adults to silence ERGO-target genes; here we demonstrate that NRDE-3-bound, CSR-class 22G-RNAs repress transcription in oocytes. Thus, our study defines two separable roles for NRDE-3, targeting germline-expressed genes during oogenesis to promote global transcriptional repression, and switching during embryogenesis to repress recently duplicated genes and retrotransposons in somatic cells, highlighting the plasticity of Argonaute proteins and the need for more precise temporal characterization of Argonaute-small RNA interactions.

Introduction

Precise gene expression is essential for organisms at all developmental stages. Small RNAs and their partners, the Argonaute (AGO) proteins, play an important role in regulating gene expression by targeting and silencing complementary nucleic acid sequences. This small RNA-mediated gene silencing process is known as RNA interference (RNAi) (Fire et al. 1998). The nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*, distinguished by its expanded Argonaute family and intricate RNAi pathway, is a well-established model organism to study the RNAi pathway. *C. elegans* has 19 functional Argonaute proteins and various classes of small RNAs (Yigit et al. 2006; Seroussi et al. 2023), which is greatly expanded compared to 8 Argonaute proteins in mammals, 5 in *Drosophila melanogaster*, and 1 in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (Höck and Meister 2008). This expansion of the Argonaute family in nematodes may be linked to the diversity of habitats in which nematodes reside and environmental cues to which they must respond. First, RNAi has been

well-studied in plants for its role as an antiviral defense mechanism (Ding et al. 2004); and like

plants, worms lack an adaptive immune system, making the RNAi system a primary means to

respond to viral intruders (Félix et al. 2011; Ashe et al. 2013; Sarkies and Miska 2013). Second,

nematodes have a specialized nucleic acid transporter required for the uptake of double-strand

(ds)RNA from the intestinal lumen (McEwan et al. 2012; Winston et al. 2007), indicating that

environmental sensing mediated by ingested dsRNA is an important aspect of nematode

physiology (Sarkies and Miska 2013). Lastly, it has been proposed that Ago diversity and rapid

evolution could be linked to the environmental plasticity of nematodes, including the capacity for

parasitism and challenges of invading and colonizing a host (Buck and Blaxter 2013). Regardless

of the evolutionary origin for the expansion of RNAi pathway proteins in nematodes, these

pathways are not only important for a response to the environment, but are essential for the

regulation of thousands of endogenous genes. Therefore, untangling the details of RNA silencing

in *C. elegans* will shed light on the mechanisms of small RNA-mediated gene regulation in *C.*

elegans and other organisms.

Argonaute proteins can be subdivided into three clades. Proteins are grouped into the

AGO and PIWI clades based on their similarity to *Arabidopsis thaliana* AGO1 and *Drosophila*

melanogaster PIWI, respectively. The third, WAGO, clade represents a nematode-specific

expansion of the Argonaute protein family (Yigit et al. 2006). While small RNAs bound by the

AGO- and PIWI-clade Argonaute proteins tend to be processed from longer, precursor transcripts,

the WAGO-clade Argonaute proteins bind 22-nucleotide, 5'-triphosphorylated small RNAs (22G-

RNAs) with which are each de novo synthesized by RNA-dependent RNA polymerases (RdRPs)

(Gu et al. 2009; Pak and Fire 2007; Aoki et al. 2007). However, even within the WAGO clade,

each of the 11 Argonaute proteins exhibits specificity for a unique group of 22G-RNAs and exhibits

distinct tissue and developmental expression patterns (Seroussi et al. 2023). For example,

WAGO-1 binds 22G-RNAs that target transposons, pseudogenes, and aberrant transcripts, and

silences genes post-transcriptionally in the germline cytoplasm (Gu et al. 2009), while CSR-1

binds 22G-RNAs targeting germline-expressed genes, functioning to clear maternal mRNA in

early embryos while licensing and tuning gene expression in the adult germline (Quarato et al.

2021; Gu et al. 2009; Claycomb et al. 2009). Other WAGO Argonautes, such as SAGO-1 and

SAGO-2, function exclusively in somatic cells and play roles in regulating endogenous genes,

exogenous RNAi, and immunity (Seroussi et al. 2023). Unique amongst the WAGO Argonautes

for their nuclear localization are HRDE-1 and NRDE-3, which are thought to silence genes co-

transcriptionally in germline and soma respectively, and are required for the inheritance of RNA

silencing signals from parents to offspring (Buckley et al. 2012; Guang et al. 2008). Despite

extensive characterization of the *C. elegans* Argonaute proteins, we still know little about the factors that promote the spatiotemporal expression of each Argonaute protein and the mechanisms that promote Argonaute-small RNA binding specificity. Furthermore, most Argonaute-small RNA sequencing experiments have been performed at a single time point, usually in adult *C. elegans*, meaning that we have little understanding as to how the RNA targets of each Argonaute protein change across development.

In the *C. elegans* germline, many of the RNAi components, including Argonaute proteins, RdRPs, and other small RNA processing machinery, localize within phase-separated germ granules. Often, proteins acting in different functional branches of the RNAi pathway seem to reside in separate compartments of the germ granules, suggesting that there are specialized areas within the germ granules where distinct molecular reactions occur. Presently, six sub-compartments of the germ granule have been identified in *C. elegans*: P granules, Z granules, *Mutator* foci, SIMR foci, and more recently, E granules and D granules (Brangwynne et al. 2009; Phillips et al. 2012; Wan et al. 2018; Manage et al. 2020; Chen et al. 2024; Huang et al. 2024). Processing bodies (P-bodies), a well-characterized condensate that contains proteins associated with mRNA turnover and translationally repressed mRNAs, also closely associate with germ granules (Du et al. 2023). These germ granule compartments are situated at the cytoplasmic side of the nucleus, proximal to nuclear pores. However, the mechanisms governing their spatial organization remain unknown. Moreover, with the majority of studies focusing on mechanisms of RNA silencing and germ granule organization in the germline, there is limited understanding of how each of these germ granule compartments assembles and functions in embryos. It has been observed that in *C. elegans* embryogenesis, the primordial germline cell P4 divides into Z2 and Z3 progenitor germ cells (PGCs) at around the 100-cell stage, coinciding with the demixing of Z granules from P granules, the appearance of *Mutator* foci and SIMR foci, and the initiation of germ cell transcription (Updike and Strome 2010; Uebel et al. 2021; Wan et al. 2018; Seydoux and Dunn 1997). Together, the assembly of this more complex germ granule organization coinciding with a burst of transcription from the germ cells, may indicate that these multi-compartment structures are necessary to monitor the newly synthesized germline transcripts. Yet even these limited studies of RNAi pathway factors in embryos fail to address a role for ribonucleoprotein granules in RNA silencing in the soma.

Here, we discovered that SIMR-1, the founding component of the germline SIMR foci, is also found in cytoplasmic granules in the somatic cells of *C. elegans* embryos. These embryonic "SIMR granules" additionally contain factors involved in 22G-RNA amplification and associated with the nuclear Argonaute protein, NRDE-3. However, NRDE-3 itself only associates with the

SIMR granules when not bound to small RNAs. Strikingly, the SIMR granules exhibit temporal
dynamics where they first appear in early embryogenesis (around the 8-cell stage), peak around
the 100-cell stage, and have mostly disappeared by the comma stage of embryogenesis.
Curiously, these embryonic SIMR granules are by no means the only RNAi-related embryonic
granules, as numerous other RNAi factors are found in separate granules in embryos, including
components of the CSR pathway, the Argonaute CSR-1 and its RdRP EGO-1. Interestingly,
clearance of many of these granules, including the embryonic SIMR, CSR, Z and P granules, is
regulated by a common mechanism of autophagic degradation. Furthermore, by sequencing the
small RNAs bound by NRDE-3 in early and late embryogenesis, we found that the formation of
the SIMR granules coincides with a switch in NRDE-3 small RNA targets, from CSR-class 22G-
RNAs to ERGO-class 22G-RNAs. Together, our data demonstrates that NRDE-3 has two
separate functions, first acting in oogenesis to repress RNA Polymerase II and promote genome-
wide transcription repression, and second acting downstream of ERGO-1 to transcriptionally
silence retrotransposons, pseudogenes, and aberrant transcripts. Further, the SIMR granules
themselves appear to be sites of NRDE-3-bound 22G-RNA biogenesis and loading and may
contribute to the efficiency or specificity of Argonaute-small RNA interactions during
embryogenesis.
120

121   **Results:**
122   **SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 localize to cytoplasmic granules during embryogenesis**
123   In previous work, we sought to identify proteins that associate with SIMR-1 and ultimately
found that SIMR-1 associates with HRDE-2 and the nuclear Argonaute protein, HRDE-1, to
promote correct HRDE-1 small RNA binding in germ cells (Chen and Phillips 2024a). In that work,
we also identified another nuclear Argonaute protein, NRDE-3, as an interactor of SIMR-1. NRDE-
3 has been shown previously to bind ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs and silence ERGO-target
genes in somatic cells (Figure 1—figure supplement 1 A-B). To delve further into this potential
interaction between SIMR-1 and NRDE-3, we first systematically compiled a list of the protein
interactions identified from previous studies for both SIMR-1 and NRDE-3 (Figure 1A).
Interestingly, the HRDE-2 paralog, ENRI-2, had been shown to interact with both SIMR-1 and
NRDE-3 in embryos by immunoprecipitation (IP) followed by mass spectrometry (mass-spec),
and another HRDE-2 paralog, ENRI-1, was similarly shown to interact with only NRDE-3 (Lewis
et al. 2020). These findings suggest that SIMR-1, NRDE-3, ENRI-2, and possibly ENRI-1 proteins
may function together in the somatic nuclear RNAi pathway, analogous to the roles of SIMR-1,
HRDE-1, and HRDE-2 in the germline nuclear RNAi pathway.

Here, we first aimed to address whether and where NRDE-3, SIMR-1, ENRI-1, and ENRI-2 colocalize. NRDE-3 has previously been shown to be expressed in the nucleus of most somatic cells (Guang et al. 2008). Until recently, all characterization of NRDE-3 was done using a low-copy, integrated transgenic strain in which the nuclear localization was not visible until the ~30-80-cell stage of development, and it was presumed that this localization reflected the endogenous NRDE-3 localization (Guang et al. 2008; Lewis et al. 2020). However, a more recent study constructed an endogenously-tagged NRDE-3 strain using CRISPR and found that NRDE-3 additionally localizes to the nucleus of oocytes and early embryos (Seroussi et al. 2023, 2022). In a recent study, we addressed this discrepancy, and demonstrated that the older, transgenic NRDE-3 construct is targeted for RNAi-mediated gene silencing in germ cells and early embryos (Chen and Phillips 2024b). SIMR-1 is a component of the SIMR foci, a sub-compartment of germ granules, that appears as punctate foci at the periphery of *C. elegans* germ cells starting in embryos through the adult stage (Manage et al. 2020; Uebel et al. 2021). ENRI-1 has been reported to localize to the cytoplasm of oocytes and embryos while ENRI-2 localized to both the nucleus and cytoplasm, varying depending on developmental stage (Lewis et al. 2020). With these four proteins showing distinct localization patterns from one another, it was unclear how these proteins could physically interact.

To investigate where and how these interactions might potentially occur, we chose to initially examine localization of these proteins in the germline of adult *C. elegans* using the endogenously-tagged NRDE-3 strain which is visible starting in late pachytene. As expected based on previous work, NRDE-3 localizes to the nucleus of germ cells, while SIMR-1 is found in the cytoplasm in SIMR foci, a compartment of the germ granule (Figure 1—figure supplement 2A) (Seroussi et al. 2022, 2023; Manage et al. 2020). Next, we decided to examine NRDE-3 and SIMR-1 localization in embryos, carefully dividing the embryos into distinct developmental stages, from 4-cell to comma stage. As expected, we found that NRDE-3 is consistently localized to the nucleus in all embryonic stages (Figure 1B). Interestingly, we observed that SIMR-1 forms granules in the cytoplasm of somatic cells during some embryonic stages (Figure 1B). By quantifying the total number of granules per embryo across embryonic development, we found that the "SIMR granules" first appear around the 8-cell stage and reach a peak at approximately the 100-cell stage, coinciding with the division of the germline precursor cell P_4 into the primordial germ cells Z_2 and Z_3 (Wang and Seydoux 2013). Subsequently, the number of SIMR granules decreases, and in late embryos, SIMR-1 localizes primarily to the germ granules surrounding the two germ cells, as previously observed (Uebel et al. 2021) (Figure 1B-C). We had previously shown that the Tudor domain of SIMR-1 was important for its assembly into germline SIMR foci.

Therefore, we next explored the requirement for the Tudor domain in assembling SIMR-1
cytoplasmic granules in embryos (Manage et al. 2020). We found that the Tudor domain mutant,
SIMR-1(R159C), fails to assemble in cytoplasmic granules in the embryos (Figure 1—figure
supplement 2B), indicating that, similar to germline SIMR foci, the Tudor domain is also required
for assembly of the cytoplasmic SIMR granules in embryos.

We next focused on ENRI-1 and ENRI-2 and observed that ENRI-2 shows similar
cytoplasmic granule localization and colocalizes with SIMR-1 in embryos, but it does not localize
to the germ granules in Z_2 and Z_3, suggesting that the activity of ENRI-2 is restricted to somatic
cells (Figure 1B). Finally, we examined the localization of N-terminal tagged 2xTy1::GFP::ENRI-
1, and could not detect any specific localization in either nuclei or cytoplasmic granules (Figure
1—figure supplement 2C) (Lewis et al. 2020). Consequently, we constructed a new strain with C
terminal tagged ENRI-1::mCherry::2xHA and confirmed the presence of full-length ENRI-1 protein
with Western Blot (Figure 1—figure supplement 2D). Nonetheless, we could not detect any ENRI-
1 localization in embryos with our newly generated strain (Figure 1—figure supplement 2C).
These results are consistent with the fact that ENRI-1 does not interact directly with either SIMR-
1 or ENRI-2 by immunoprecipitation (Figure 1A) (Lewis et al. 2020). Altogether, these data
indicate that SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 colocalize at cytoplasmic granules in the somatic cells of
embryos and suggest that ENRI-2 and SIMR-1 may function together at these sites. In contrast,
NRDE-3 is spatially separated in the nucleus and no clear expression pattern was observed for
ENRI-1.

Unloaded NRDE-3 associates with SIMR-1 in cytoplasmic granules
Next, to determine whether SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 are required for NRDE-3 localization, we
introduced the *simr-1* mutant, *enri-2* mutant, *enri-1* mutant, and *enri-1; enri-2* double mutant in
the endogenously tagged GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3 strain, and examined NRDE-3 localization
across embryonic developmental stages. We observed no changes in NRDE-3 expression or
nuclear localization in any of the mutants examined at any developmental stage (Figure 2—figure
supplement 1A).

In previous work, we demonstrated that the germline nuclear Argonaute protein HRDE-1
loses nuclear localization and associates in the cytoplasm with the SIMR compartment of germ
granules when it is unable to bind small RNAs (Chen and Phillips 2024a). Additionally, ENRI-2
interacts more strongly with NRDE-3 in an *eri-1* mutant background compared to wild-type (Lewis
et al. 2020), suggesting that the interaction occurs when NRDE-3 does not bind small RNAs.
Localization of unloaded NRDE-3 has been examined in the seam cells of L3 stage animals,

where, like HRDE-1, it loses nuclear localization and becomes restricted to the cytoplasm (Guang et al. 2008). Therefore, we next sought to examine the localization of NRDE-3 when it is unbound to small RNA in embryos and germline. First, we aimed to deplete the preferred small RNA binding partners of NRDE-3. NRDE-3 has previously been shown to bind secondary 22G-RNAs downstream of ERGO-class 26G-RNAs, dependent on ERI-1, which is required for 26G-RNA biogenesis (Guang et al. 2008; Han et al. 2009; Seroussi et al. 2023), and RDE-3/MUT-2, which is a component of the *Mutator* complex and necessary for 22G-RNA production (Chen et al. 2005; Phillips et al. 2012, 2014) (Figure 1—figure supplement 1A-B). Therefore, we introduced an *eri-1* mutant and a *rde-3/mut-2* mutant into the endogenously GFP-tagged NRDE-3 background. We observed that NRDE-3 associates with somatic granules with a similar spatiotemporal pattern to SIMR-1 and ENRI-2, peaking around the 100-cell stage, although the total number of granules per embryo is lower for NRDE-3 granules in the *eri-1* and *rde-3/mut-2* mutant backgrounds compared to SIMR granules (Figure 2A-B). Next, to fully abolish the small RNA binding capacity of NRDE-3 and to confirm that the observed granule localization was due to the loss of small RNA loading, we introduced mutations to abolish small RNA binding into the GFP-tagged NRDE-3; specifically, residues 687H and 691K in the Mid domain were mutated to alanine, hereafter referred to as NRDE-3(HK-AA) (Ma et al. 2005; Guang et al. 2008; Chen and Phillips 2024a). NRDE-3(HK-AA) localizes exclusively to the cytoplasm across embryonic development and in the adult germline, accumulating in somatic granules at 100-cell stage similar to SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 (Figure 2A). Quantification of the number of NRDE-3 granules per embryo in the NRDE-3(HK-AA) strain shows that the dynamics of NRDE-3 granule appearance and disappearance are similar to that of SIMR-1, where the number of granules increases from early embryos up until about 100-cell stage and then decreases as the embryos progress to later stages of development (Figure 2C). Overall, the total number of NRDE-3(HK-AA) granules quantified per embryo are similar to or modestly higher than SIMR-1 granules (Figure 1C, Figure 2C). Western blot analysis reveals that overall protein level are similar for wild-type NRDE-3 and NRDE-3(HK-AA) (Figure 2—figure supplement 1B), indicating that unloaded NRDE-3 is not subject to degradation. This result contrasts with our previous results for unloaded HRDE-1 (HRDE-1(HK-AA), which does show reduced protein expression compared to wild-type HRDE-1 (Chen and Phillips 2024a). Together, these data indicate that NRDE-3 forms granules in the cytoplasm of somatic cells when not associated with a small RNA binding partner.

It is also worth noting that despite the similarity in timing of NRDE-3 granule appearance and disappearance in the *eri-1* and *rde-3* mutants compared to the *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutant, we observed a striking difference in the NRDE-3 localization in early embryos. Specifically, in *eri-1*

and *rde-3* mutants, NRDE-3 localizes to the nucleus in early embryos while NRDE-3(HK-AA)
localizes exclusively to the cytoplasm (Figure 2A). Similarly, in the Z2 and Z3 primordial germ
cells of late embryos, NRDE-3 is still found in the nucleus in *eri-1* and *rde-3* mutants. In contrast,
NRDE-3 localizes exclusively to the cytoplasm in the somatic cells of late embryos of all three
mutants. This result suggests that there may be a fundamental difference in the small RNAs
bound by NRDE-3 in early compared to late embryos, and that the small RNAs bound by NRDE-
3 in early embryos are produced independently of ERI-1 and RDE-3.
To determine whether unloaded NRDE-3 localizes to SIMR granules, we examined the
localization of SIMR-1 and NRDE-3 together in the *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutant and *eri-1* mutant
backgrounds. We found that SIMR-1 colocalizes with unloaded NRDE-3 in embryonic granules
(Figure 2D, Figure 2—figure supplement 1C). Further, the SIMR granules in the *nrde-3(HK-AA)*
mutant background exhibit dynamics similar to the wild-type background (Figure 2—figure
supplement 1D), indicating that *nrde-3(HK-AA)* does not affect the localization of SIMR-1.
Interestingly, NRDE-3(HK-AA) does not form granules in germ cells and is instead present
exclusively in the cytoplasm, thus it does not colocalize with the SIMR compartment of germ
granules (Figure 2—figure supplement 1E). These results demonstrate that unloaded NRDE-3
associates with SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 in cytoplasmic granules in the somatic cells of *C. elegans*
embryos, indicating a potential role for SIMR-1 in the NRDE-3 nuclear RNAi pathway.

SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 recruit unloaded NRDE-3 to cytoplasmic granules
As previously described, unloaded NRDE-3 localizes to cytoplasmic granules in embryos
and colocalizes with SIMR-1. Next, we aimed to determine whether SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 are
required for the NRDE-3 granule localization. To this end, we introduced a *simr-1* mutant and an
enri-2 mutant into the GFP-tagged NRDE-3(HK-AA) strain and assessed NRDE-3(HK-AA)
localization. Strikingly, we found that NRDE-3(HK-AA) granules disappear completely and NRDE-
3(HK-AA) is instead found exclusively in the cytoplasm in all cells across all embryonic stages
(Figure 3A). Similarly, in a *simr-1; eri-1* double mutant, NRDE-3 granules are absent though
NRDE-3 remains in the nucleus in early embryos (Figure 3A), similar to NRDE-3 expression in
the *eri-1* single mutant (Figure 2A). However, neither wild-type NRDE-3 nor NRDE-3(HK-AA)
protein levels are affected by loss of *simr-1* (Figure 3—figure supplement 1A), indicating that loss
of granule localization in *nrde-3(HK-AA); simr-1* is not due to reduced NRDE-3 protein expression.
These results demonstrate that both SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 are required for the recruitment of
NRDE-3 to cytoplasmic granules.

To investigate the dependence of SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 on one another, we examined
ENRI-2 localization in a *simr-1* mutant and SIMR-1 localization in an *enri-2* mutant. We found that
ENRI-2 granules are lost in the *simr-1* mutant, while SIMR-1 granules are still present in the *enri-*
2 mutant, indicating that SIMR-1 functions upstream of ENRI-2 for granule assembly (Figure 3B).
To further assess whether ENRI-1 plays a role in the accumulation of unloaded NRDE-3
in cytoplasmic granules, we introduced an *enri-1* mutant into the GFP-tagged NRDE-3(HK-AA)
strain and found that NRDE-3 association with cytoplasmic granules was not disrupted (Figure
3—figure supplement 1B). We further examined NRDE-3(HK-AA) granule association in the *enri-*
1; enri-2 double mutant and found it to be fully cytoplasmic, indistinguishable from the *enri-2* single
mutant (Figure 3—figure supplement 1B). While we had already determined that ENRI-
1::mCherry did not form visible foci in embryos; to rule out the possibility of partial redundancy
between ENRI-1 and ENRI-2, we introduced an *enri-2* mutant into the mCherry-tagged ENRI-1
strain but still unable to detect any distinct ENRI-1 expression (Figure 3—figure supplement 1C).
Lastly, to determine if NRDE-3 recruitment to granules could alter ENRI-1 localization, we
introduced the mCherry-tagged ENRI-1 into the GFP-tagged NRDE-3(HK-AA) strain, and still we
could not see any granule localization for ENRI-1 (Figure 3—figure supplement 1D). Therefore,
we excluded ENRI-1 from further investigation, and conclude that SIMR-1 and ENRI-2, but not
ENRI-1, recruit unloaded NRDE-3 to cytoplasmic granules, with SIMR-1 also acting to recruit
ENRI-2.

SIMR-1 does not localize to P bodies or other previously identified embryonic granules

A variety of RNA-associated proteins have previously been shown to form granules in *C.*
elegans embryos. To determine whether the SIMR-1, ENRI-2, and unloaded NRDE-3 granules
that we have observed coincide with a previously identified granule, we examined the
colocalization between SIMR-1 and all other embryonic granule-associated proteins that we could
identify. It is well known that Processing (P) bodies, the condensates of translationally inactive
mRNAs and proteins, localize to cytoplasmic foci of soma in *C. elegans* embryos (Parker and
Sheth 2007; Gallo et al. 2008). To examine if the SIMR-1 cytoplasmic granules are P bodies, we
examined the localization of SIMR-1 and CGH-1, a core P body component, using a strain
expressing GFP-tagged SIMR-1 and mCherry-tagged CGH-1 (Du et al. 2023). We found that
CGH-1 does not colocalize with SIMR-1 (Figure 4—figure supplement 1A). CGH-1 also does not
colocalize with NRDE-3 cytoplasmic granules in the *eri-1* mutant (Figure 4—figure supplement
1B). Together, these data indicate that the cytoplasmic SIMR granules found in embryos are not
P bodies.

Next, we examined two proteins previously shown to colocalize with SIMR foci in the germ

cells of adult animals, RSD-2 and HRDE-2 (Manage et al. 2020; Chen and Phillips 2024a). RSD-

2 is a small RNA factor required for the response to low doses of exogenously-introduced double-

stranded RNA (Sakaguchi et al. 2014; Han et al. 2008; Tijsterman et al. 2004; Zhang et al. 2012)

and HRDE-2 is a factor critical for RNAi inheritance that promotes correct small RNA loading into

the nuclear Argonaute HRDE-1 (Chen and Phillips 2024a; Spracklin et al. 2017). However, we

did not observe any granule localization for RSD-2 and HRDE-2 in embryos (Figure 4—figure

supplement 1C-D). In addition, SIMR-1 cytoplasmic granules were not affected by the loss of

hrde-2 (Figure 4—figure supplement 1E). These results suggest that HRDE-2 and RSD-2 do not

function together with SIMR-1, ENRI-2, and NRDE-3 in embryonic granules and indicate that

embryonic SIMR granules and the SIMR compartment of germ granules are distinct, each

containing a unique set of proteins.

RDE-12 interacts with Argonaute proteins and RNAi-targeted mRNAs, and has also been

shown to localize to cytoplasmic granules in the somatic cells of *C. elegans* embryos (Shirayama

et al. 2014; Yang et al. 2014). We next assessed the localization of mCherry-tagged SIMR-1

relative to GFP-tagged RDE-12 and found that they do not colocalize (Figure 4—figure

supplement 1F). RSD-6 is a Tudor domain-containing RNAi factor that partially colocalizes with

RDE-12 in the R2 bodies in adult germ cells (Yang et al. 2014; Sakaguchi et al. 2014; Zhang et

al. 2012). We examined the expression of GFP-tagged RSD-6 in embryos and, while we did

observe RSD-6 at granules in somatic cells, no colocalization with mCherry-tagged SIMR-1 could

be detected (Figure 4—figure supplement 1G). The RNAi-inheritance factor and defining member

of the Z compartment of the germ granule, ZNFX-1, has also been observed in cytoplasmic

granules in the somatic cells of embryos (Wan et al. 2018; Ouyang et al. 2019), however these

somatic ZNFX-1 granules also fail to colocalize with SIMR-1 (Figure 4—figure supplement 1H).

Finally, we compared SIMR-1 localization to peri-centrosomal foci marked tubulin, based on a

recent report that NRDE-3 accumulates at these foci (Jin et al. 2024), but we did not observe any

colocalization between SIMR-1 and tubulin in a wild-type background (Figure 4—figure

supplement 1I). Altogether, we found that SIMR-1 fails to localize to any previously characterized

embryonic granules. These results further indicate that there are numerous granule-localized

proteins in the somatic cells of embryos, such as RDE-12, RSD-6, and ZNFX-1, which may play

important roles in the RNA biology of early embryos.

Multiple *Mutator* complex proteins localize to SIMR granules in embryos

Mutator foci localize adjacent to SIMR foci in the adult germline (Manage et al. 2020; Chen

and Phillips 2024a), so we next investigated the localization of *Mutator* components in embryos.

We first examined *Mutator* foci component RDE-3/MUT-2, a poly(UG) polymerase required for

WAGO-class 22G-RNA production (Figure 1—figure supplement 1A-B) (Phillips et al. 2012;

Shukla et al. 2020) and found that GFP-tagged RDE-3 is prominently localized to cytoplasmic

granules in embryos that colocalize with SIMR-1 (Figure 4A-B). This colocalization led us to the

hypothesis that SIMR-1 cytoplasmic granules are sites of WAGO-class 22G-RNA biogenesis.

Therefore, we speculated that more small RNA production machinery might be localized with

SIMR-1 at these cytoplasmic granules. We next examined the RNA-dependent-RNA-polymerase

(RdRP) RRF-1, which synthesizes WAGO-class 22G-RNAs and localizes to *Mutator* foci in the

adult germline (Figure 1—figure supplement 1A-B) (Sijen et al. 2001; Gent et al. 2010; Vasale et

al. 2010; Phillips et al. 2012). As we predicted, RRF-1 also colocalizes with SIMR-1 in somatic

granules (Figure 4B-C), and it fails to localize to somatic granules in the *simr-1* mutant (Figure

4D).

MUT-16 is the scaffolding protein for germline *Mutator* foci, thus we next investigated

whether MUT-16 similarly scaffolds the cytoplasmic SIMR granules in early embryos (Phillips et

al. 2012). We found that MUT-16 can be observed in cytoplasmic granules in the embryonic

somatic cells (Figure 4—figure supplement 1J), similar to what has been observed in a previous

study (Ouyang et al. 2019), and both SIMR-1 and RDE-3 fail to assemble into cytoplasmic

granules in the *mut-16* mutant (Figure 4E, Figure 4—figure supplement 1K). Notably, the germ

granule association of SIMR-1 is unaffected, as SIMR-1 still localizes to germ granules at comma

stage embryos and in the adult germline (Figure 4E) (Manage et al. 2020). Together, these data

indicate that MUT-16 functions upstream of SIMR-1 and mediates the assembly of cytoplasmic

granules in embryos. It is curious to note that, in a *mut-16* mutant where SIMR-1 association with

cytoplasmic granules is lost in the somatic cells, SIMR-1 instead associates with mitotic spindles

(Figure 4E), similar to the localization observed for NRDE-3 in embryos (Jin et al. 2024). To

conclude, we have shown that the SIMR granules found in the somatic cells of early embryos

contain the biogenesis machinery for WAGO-class 22G-RNAs, including RDE-3 and RRF-1, and

depend on the scaffolding protein MUT-16 for assembly (Figure 4J). The differential requirement

for MUT-16 on the assembly of somatic and germline SIMR granules highlights a key difference

between these two compartments, which have some parallel functions but distinct composition.

CSR-1 and EGO-1 associate with a distinct type of granule in early embryos

The Argonaute protein CSR-1 has also been previously seen at cytoplasmic granules in the soma of early embryos, a time at which CSR-1 is functioning to clear maternal-inherited mRNAs (Quarato et al. 2021; Seroussi et al. 2023; Ouyang et al. 2019). Using a GFP-tagged CSR-1 strain we constructed previously (Nguyen and Phillips 2021), we confirmed that CSR-1 forms prominent cytoplasmic granules in embryos visible prior to the 4-cell stage and present through 100-cell stage embryos, but disappear by the 200-cell stage, at which point only germ granule localization is visible (Figure 4F). Quantification of the total number of "CSR granules" per embryo across development shows that the CSR granules are more abundant than the SIMR-1 and NRDE-3(HK-AA) granules and differ in the timing of their appearance and disappearance relative to SIMR-1 and NRDE-3(HK-AA) granules (Figure 1C, 2C, 4G). Specifically, CSR granules appear earlier and peak at the 28-cell stage, while SIMR-1 and NRDE-3(HK-AA) granules appear between 8- and 28-cell stages and peak at the 100-cell stage (Figure 1C, 2C, 4G). The small RNAs bound by CSR-1 are synthesized by the RdRP, EGO-1, so we next assessed the localization of EGO-1 in early embryos. We found that EGO-1 colocalizes with CSR-1 in the somatic CSR granules (Figure 4B,H) and neither CSR-1 nor EGO-1 fully colocalizes with SIMR-1, although we occasionally observed adjacent localization between SIMR-1 and CSR-1 (Figure 4B,I, Figure 4—figure supplement 1L). Lastly, unlike RRF-1 which requires SIMR-1 to localize to embryonic foci, EGO-1 localizes to cytoplasmic granules in the absence of *simr-1* (Figure 4D). Together, our results show that the RdRPs, RRF-1 and EGO-1, localize to different cytoplasmic granules in the somatic cells of *C. elegans* embryos, where they colocalize with Argonaute proteins, NRDE-3 and CSR-1, respectively. Thus, we postulate that WAGO-class and CSR-class 22G-RNA biogenesis and loading are compartmentalized into cytoplasmic granules, differing from one another both spatially and temporally, in the somatic cells of early embryos (Figure 4J).

Autophagy regulates the removal of SIMR granules and other cytoplasmic granules during embryogenesis

Both SIMR and CSR granules exhibit dynamic expression patterns across embryonic development, where the granules increase in abundance from early to mid-embryogenesis, and then subsequently disappear from somatic cells, becoming restricted to germ cells by late embryogenesis (Figure 1B-C, Figure 4F-G). In contrast, P granules become enriched at the posterior half of one-cell embryos and are subsequently partitioned with the germline progenitor cells through the remainder of embryonic development (Strome and Wood 1983). Previous work has shown that autophagic degradation is one mechanism by which P granules are removed from somatic blastomeres (Zhang et al. 2009). Autophagy, often referred to as the 'self-eating'

pathway, is one of the two major protein degradation systems in eukaryotic cells. Autophagy
involves the formation of autophagosomes, which engulf cytoplasmic structures and proteins and
deliver the contents to lysosomes for degradation (Klionsky 2005; Mizushima 2007). In contrast,
the ubiquitin-proteasome system degrades proteins though ubiquitination and degradation by the
26S proteosome complex, bypassing lysosomes (Nedelsky et al. 2008). In the absence of the
autophagy protein LGG-1, the *C. elegans* ortholog of *S. cerevisiae* Atg8, the core P granule
proteins PGL-1 and PGL-3 are ectopically expressed in somatic foci during mid to late
embryogenesis (Zhang et al. 2009). So we sought to test whether the removal of SIMR and CSR
granules from the somatic cells during mid-to-late embryogenesis might similarly depend on the
autophagy pathway.

To address this possibility, we first examined the expression of PGL-1 and SIMR-1 at 8-
cell, 100-cell, and comma stages of embryogenesis following *lgg-1* or control (L4440) RNAi
treatment of the parental animals. Consistent with previous work (Zhang et al. 2009), RNAi of *lgg-
1* leads to ectopic expression of PGL-1 in cytoplasmic foci of the somatic cells at mid (100-cell)
and late (comma) embryonic stages, while its germ granule localization remains unaffected
(Figure 5A). Similarly, we found that the number of somatic SIMR granules at the 100-cell stage
increases by approximately 2-fold in *lgg-1* RNAi-treated embryos compared to control (L4440)
(Figure 5A-B). Further, in the comma stage, somatic SIMR granules remain in the soma in *lgg-1*
RNAi-treated embryos, whereas SIMR granules are cleared from the somatic cells and restricted
to germ cells in control (L4440) RNAi-treated embryos (Figure 5A). Examination of other somatic
SIMR granule-associated proteins, including ENRI-2, RDE-3, and RRF-1, and unloaded NRDE-
3 revealed that they also exhibit ectopic expression in the somatic cells of comma-stage embryos
and continue to colocalize with SIMR-1 (Figure 5—figure supplement 1A-B). These findings
indicate that the removal of SIMR granules from somatic cells during mid and late embryogenesis
is regulated by autophagy, similar to the role of autophagy in the degradation of P granules form
early somatic blastomeres.

Since both SIMR granules and P granules are regulated by the autophagy pathway during
embryogenesis, we also examined the role for autophagy in regulating other granule-associated
proteins in early embryos, specifically CSR-1 and ZNFX-1. Similar to PGL-1 and SIMR-1, CSR-1
and ZNFX-1 show increased numbers of somatic granules in 100-cell and comma stage embryos
following parental treatment with *lgg-1* RNAi compared to control (L4440) (Figure 5C). To further
investigate the spatial organization of these somatic granules in the absence of autophagy-
mediated degradation, we examined the 100-cell stage embryos following *lgg-1* RNAi treatment
using strains expressing PGL-1::BFP; SIMR-1::GFP; RFP::ZNFX-1, and GFP::CSR-1; SIMR-

1::mCherry. Interestingly, these proteins display a variety of configurations relative to one another,

distinct from their typical organization in the germline (Uebel et al. 2023). These configurations

included granules composed of individual protein, multiple proteins adjacent to one another, and

large aggregates composed of multiple proteins (Figure 5D). We speculate that many of the PGL-

1-containing granules, including the larger aggregates, are associated with autophagosomes, as

has been shown previously (Zhang et al. 2009). Overall, our findings demonstrate that the

autophagy pathway is utilized to regulate the spatial-temporal expression of many embryonic

granule-associated proteins, including proteins found in P, Z, SIMR, and CSR granules. Further,

it is worth noting that P, Z, SIMR, and CSR granules are not all removed at the same

developmental timepoint (for example, Figure 1C, 4G), suggesting the presence of additional

regulatory mechanisms controlling the timing of their degradation.

NRDE-3 switches small RNA partners during embryonic development

The nuclear localization of NRDE-3 in the somatic cells of larvae depends on ERGO-1

and other proteins required for the biogenesis of ERGO-class 26G-RNAs (Figure 1—figure

supplement 1A-B) (Guang et al. 2008). Sequencing of NRDE-3-bound 22G-RNAs at the L4 to

young adult transition identifies a set of endogenous targets that overlaps substantially with those

of ERGO-1 (Seroussi et al. 2023). Together, these data have led to the conclusion that NRDE-3

acts downstream of ERGO-1 to transcriptionally silence ERGO-target genes. Yet our data looking

at the nuclear localization of NRDE-3 in embryos, demonstrate that this model may be an

incomplete picture. Specifically, in *eri-1* and *rde-3* mutants where 26G-RNA or WAGO-class 22G-

RNA biogenesis are abolished, respectively, NRDE-3 remains localized to the nucleus in early

embryos (Figure 2A). The small RNA binding-defective NRDE-3(HK-AA) is localized exclusively

to the cytoplasm at the same time point, indicating that small RNA binding is critical for nuclear

import at this stage (Figure 2A). Accordingly, we must postulate that NRDE-3 binds another class

of small RNA to promote nuclear entry in very early embryos. To investigate the identity of NRDE-

3-bound small RNAs across embryonic development and to explore the role of the SIMR granules

in promoting NRDE-3 small RNA binding, we immunoprecipitated NRDE-3 and sequenced

associated small RNAs (IP-sRNA seq) in early embryos (<=100-cell) and late embryos (>=300-

cell) in wild-type, *eri-1* mutant, *simr-1* mutant, and *enri-2* mutant animals (Figure 6A).

Prior to analyzing our data, we sought to better define the expected NRDE-3-bound small

RNAs. We initially planned to use two previously defined ERGO-target gene lists: the first list

(ERGO - Manage) is defined by small RNAs significantly depleted at least two-fold in *ergo-1*

mutant compared to wild-type at the gravid adult stage, with at least 10 reads per million (RPM)

in wild-type samples and a DESeq2 adjusted p-value of <0.05 (Manage et al. 2020); the second

list (ERGO - Fischer) is defined by genes reduced by 67% in *eri-7* adults or an average of 67% in

ergo-1, eri-1, eri-6, and *eri-7* embryos, with at least 10 RPM in wild-type (Fischer et al. 2011).

However, there is a poor overlap between these two datasets (Figure 6—figure supplement 1D),

and small RNAs targeting many of these previously defined ERGO targets were not enriched by

NRDE-3 in a published NRDE-3 IP-sRNA seq data on young adult animals that have begun

oogenesis but do not yet have embryos (Seroussi et al. 2023) (Figure 6—figure supplement 1A-

B). To define a more stringent NRDE-3-target gene list at the young adult stage, we chose genes

with at least four-fold enrichment (log$_2$FC ≥2) and 100 RPM (RPM ≥100) from the NRDE-3 IP-

sRNA seq in young adults (Seroussi et al. 2023). This new list contains 119 genes and largely

overlaps with the two previously defined ERGO-target gene lists (Figure 6—figure supplement

1C-D). To further confirm that this newly defined gene list represents NRDE-3 targets, we

analyzed published small RNA and mRNA sequencing data from wild-type and *nrde-3* mutant

mixed-stage embryos (before the bean stage) (Padeken et al. 2021). Compared to the Manage

and Fischer ERGO-target gene lists, the NRDE-3-target gene list shows more significant small

RNA depletion and a greater increase in mRNA expression in the *nrde-3* mutant compared to

wild-type (Figure 6—figure supplement 1A-C,E-F). Therefore, we use the new NRDE-3-target

gene list to represent the ERGO-1 pathway-dependent, NRDE-3-target genes (referred to here

as ERGO targets) in the rest of this study.

We next examined the small RNAs bound to NRDE-3 in wild-type early embryos and late

embryos, comparing our data to the published NRDE-3 IP-sRNA seq data on young adult animals

(Seroussi et al. 2023). Strikingly, we found that in early embryos, the majority of small RNAs

bound by NRDE-3 are CSR-class 22G-RNAs, which become progressively less enriched as the

animals develop into late embryos and then young adults (Figure 6B-D). In contrast, enrichment

for small RNAs targeting ERGO-target genes increases as *C. elegans* develops, and they become

the majority of NRDE-3-bound small RNAs by young adulthood (Figure 6B-D). NRDE-3 also binds

to CSR-target genes in the early embryos of the *eri-1* mutant, when it is observed to localize to

the nucleus, indicating that the production of these NRDE-3-bound CSR-class 22G-RNAs is

independent of *eri-1* and that CSR-class 22G-RNAs are likely sufficient to promote nuclear entry

of NRDE-3 in the early embryo (Figure 2A, Figure 6—figure supplement 2A). To conclude, NRDE-

3 binds to CSR-class 22G-RNA in early embryos but switches to bind preferentially to ERGO-

dependent 22G-RNA in late embryos and young adults, suggesting that NRDE-3 may have two

separable functions at distinct developmental time points. It is also curious to note that the change

in small RNA preference of NRDE-3 coincides with the appearance and disappearance of the

cytoplasmic SIMR granules, suggesting a potential role for SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 in promoting the
switch of small RNA loading of NRDE-3.

SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 contributes to an efficient switch of NRDE-3 bound small RNAs

Since ERGO-dependent 22G-RNA loading was mainly observed in late embryos, we
focused on NRDE-3-bound small RNAs in the *eri-1* mutant, *simr-1* mutant, and *enri-2* mutant late
embryos to determine the role of SIMR granules in promoting NRDE-3 small RNA binding
specificity. We first examined the levels of ERGO-dependent small RNAs in the total small RNA
samples and observed depletion of small RNAs mapping to ERGO-target genes in the *eri-1*
mutant (Figure 6E, Figure 6—figure supplement 2A). This result is consistent with previous
research indicating that ERI-1 is required for ERGO-class 26G RNA production and downstream
ERGO-dependent 22G-RNA production (Vasale et al. 2010; Han et al. 2009; Guang et al. 2008).
ERGO-dependent small RNAs are not substantially depleted in *simr-1* or *enri-2* mutants,
indicating that RRF-1 can still synthesize a similar amount of ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs when
the cytoplasmic SIMR granules are absent (Figure 6E). Following NRDE-3 immunoprecipitation
in the *eri-1* mutant, we observed a reduction in NRDE-3 binding to ERGO-dependent small RNAs
and an increase binding to CSR-class small RNAs (Figure 6F-G, Figure 6—figure supplement
2A). These data indicate that in the absence of ERGO-dependent small RNAs, some NRDE-3
protein remains associated with CSR-class small RNAs into late embryogenesis. In the *simr-1*
and *enri-2* mutants, although we did not observe a significant reduction of NRDE-3-bound ERGO-
dependent small RNAs, we saw a significant increase of CSR-class 22G-RNA binding in the *simr-*
1 mutant and a more modest but still significant increase of CSR-class 22G-RNA binding in the
enri-2 mutant (Figure 6F-G, Figure 6—figure supplement 2B). These results indicate that SIMR-
1 and ENRI-2 are not required for the production of the ERGO-dependent small RNAs during
embryogenesis, but may be required for an efficient switch from CSR-class to ERGO-dependent
22G RNAs.

NRDE-3 binds to CSR-class 22G-RNAs but does not silence CSR targets in early embryos

We discovered that NRDE-3 unexpectedly binds to CSR-class 22G-RNAs in early
embryos, suggesting a potential new role for NRDE-3 that has not been previously reported. We
hypothesized that NRDE-3 may function with CSR-1, perhaps to transcriptionally repress
germline-expressed genes in early embryos while CSR-1 utilizes its catalytic activity to clear the
same maternally-deposited transcripts (Quarato et al. 2021). To begin to address this hypothesis,
we first sought to assess the degree to which NRDE-3-bound 22G-RNAs are similar to CSR-1-

bound 22G-RNAs in early embryos. First, we examined the overlap of NRDE-3-targeted genes in early embryos with CSR-1-targeted genes in embryos or young adult animals. We found that the genes targeted by NRDE-3 substantially overlap with CSR-target genes at both stages (Figure 7A) (Quarato et al. 2021; Nguyen and Phillips 2021). Furthermore, the CSR-target genes yielding the highest abundance of CSR-1-bound small RNAs in embryos also have the highest abundance of NRDE-3-bound small RNAs (Figure 7B). These CSR-target genes with highly abundant CSR-bound small RNAs are highly enriched by NRDE-3 only in embryos and not in young adults (Figure 7—figure supplement 1A). Next, CSR-class 22G-RNAs tend to be enriched at the 3' ends of mRNAs while WAGO-class 22G-RNAs are more evenly distributed across the gene bodies in adult animals (Ishidate et al. 2018; Singh et al. 2021). Comparing NRDE-3-bound small RNAs from early embryos to a published dataset of CSR-1-bound small RNA from mixed-stage embryos, we found that both NRDE-3 and CSR-1 are heavily enriched for small RNAs derived from the 3' ends of CSR-target genes in embryos (Figure 7C). Interestingly, in adult animals, CSR-1-bound 22G-RNAs are still enriched for small RNA derived from the 3' end of CSR-target genes, however there is additionally a much higher enrichment of small RNAs derived from the gene bodies compared to in embryos (Figure 7C). It has previously been proposed that two types of CSR-class 22G-RNAs exist, those that depend on CSR-1 catalytic activity for their production and are derived primarily from target gene bodies, and those that are produced independently of CSR-1 catalytic activity and are derived primarily from target 3' UTRs (Singh et al. 2021). Our data points to both NRDE-3 and CSR-1 binding only the latter, CSR-1 catalytic activity-independent, type of CSR-class 22G-RNA in early embryos. In contrast, NRDE-3 does not show enrichment for small RNAs derived from the 3' ends of ERGO target genes in embryos, and rather the small RNAs are distributed more evenly across the gene bodies (Figure 7—figure supplement 1B). CSR-1 utilizes its catalytic activity to slice and clear maternally-inherited mRNAs from early embryos, preferentially binding to transcripts degraded early in embryogenesis (Quarato et al. 2021). We further demonstrate that NRDE-3 similarly binds preferentially to early-degraded transcripts (Figure 7—figure supplement 1C). Lastly, the expression of mRNAs targeted by CSR-1 decreases across embryonic development as CSR-1 actively slices and clears these maternal transcripts (Quarato et al. 2021). We similarly find that the mRNAs targeted by NRDE-3 in young embryos, which correspond primarily to CSR-target mRNAs, decrease in expression across development, while its targets in young adults, corresponding primarily to ERGO-target mRNAs, increase in expression across development (Figure 7—figure supplement 1D). Together, these data reveal that NRDE-3 binds to the same group of small RNAs as CSR-1 in early embryos.

To further investigate whether NRDE-3 and CSR-1 function synergistically, we examined
the fertility of the *csr-1::degron* strain and the *csr-1::degron*; *gfp::nrde-3(HK-AA)* strain upon auxin
treatment to deplete CSR-1. As expected, both strains had 100% viable progeny with ethanol
control treatment (Figure 7—figure supplement 1E). When growing on 4mM auxin plates, the
number of embryos laid by the *csr-1::degron*; *gfp::nrde-3(HK-AA)* double mutant was significantly
lower compared to the *csr-1::degron* single mutant and more of the double mutant produced no
embryos (11.9%) compared to the *csr-1::degron* single mutant strain (7.5%), indicating a more
severe sterility defect in the *csr-1::degron; nrde-3(HK-AA)* double mutant compared to the *csr-
1::degron* alone (Figure 7D, Figure 7—figure supplement 1E). Additionally, 5.9% of the auxin-
treated *csr-1::degron* animals produced some F1 progeny that hatched, compared to no F1
hatching for any of the auxin-treated *csr-1::degron; gfp::nrde-3(HK-AA)* double mutant animals
(Figure 7—figure supplement 1E). All together, these results indicate that loss of NRDE-3
enhances the fertility defects of CSR-1.

NRDE-3 is a nuclear Argonaute protein that recruits histone methyltransferases to target
genes to deposit histone modifications such as H3K9me3 and H3K27me3 at these loci (Guang
et al. 2008; Burton et al. 2011; Mao et al. 2015). To examine whether NRDE-3 promotes
deposition of H3K9me3 at CSR-target genes during embryogenesis, we analyzed the published
anti-H3K9me3 ChIP-seq data of wild-type and *nrde-3* mutant mixed-staged embryos (Padeken et
al. 2021). In wild-type embryos, the targets of NRDE-3 in young adults, which correspond to
ERGO-target genes, have high H3K9me3 levels, and are significantly decreased in the *nrde-3*
mutant (Figure 7E). These data are consistent with previous research demonstrating that NRDE-
3 deposits H3K9me3 at ERGO target genes (Burton et al. 2011). However, NRDE-3 targets in
early embryos do not show H3K9me3 enrichment in wild-type and do not have a significant
change in the *nrde-3* mutant (Figure 7E). The same trend is also observed in the early degraded
and late degraded targets (Figure 7E). These results indicate that the CSR targets are not H3K9
trimethylated in the early embryos. However, we cannot rule out the possibility that NRDE-3 may
function to deposit other histone modification targets such as H3K27me3 and H3K23me3 or inhibit
RNA Polymerase II (Pol II) on CSR targets to transcriptionally silence these genes in early
embryos.

NRDE-3 associates with CSR-class 22G-RNAs in oocytes

In addition to being expressed in early embryos, NRDE-3 is also expressed in germ cells,
starting in late pachytene through oogenesis (Seroussi et al. 2023; Chen and Phillips 2024b).
Because we were unable to detect a change in H3K9me3 in early embryos in the *nrde-3* mutant,

we next sought to determine whether NRDE-3 binds to CSR-class 22G-RNAs in germ cells.
Curiously, in late embryos from *eri-1* mutant and *rde-3* mutant, we have observed nuclear
localization of NRDE-3 only in the primordial germ cells (Figure 2A), raising an intriguing
hypothesis that NRDE-3 might bind to CSR-class 22G-RNAs in germ cells throughout
development and inherit NRDE-3-bound CSR-class 22G-RNAs to early embryos.

614   To determine whether NRDE-3 also binds to CSR-class 22G-RNAs in oocytes, we first
asked whether the nuclear localization of NRDE-3 in the adult germline depends on ERI-1 and
RDE-3, key components of the ERI and Mutator complexes, respectively (Figure 1—figure
supplement 1A-B). Loss of NRDE-3 nuclear localization in these mutants would indicate that
NRDE-3 binds to ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs in oocytes. Instead, we found that NRDE-3
localizes to the nuclei of oocytes in *eri-1* and *rde-3* mutants, similar to wild-type, but is restricted
to cytoplasm in the *nrde-3(HK-AA)* small RNA binding mutant (Figure 8A). These data
demonstrate that NRDE-3 nuclear localization remains dependent on small RNA binding, but
ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs are not required, consistent with NRDE-3 localization in early
embryos. Next, to more directly address whether NRDE-3 binds to CSR-class 22G-RNAs in
oocytes, we utilized the auxin-inducible degron (AID) system to deplete the RdRP EGO-1 by
growing the worms on 4mM auxin plates starting at the L1 stage (Zhang et al. 2015). Surprisingly,
NRDE-3 still localizes to nuclei in both germ cells and early embryos upon EGO-1 depletion
(Figure 8B), indicating that NRDE-3 either does not exclusively bind CSR-class 22G-RNAs in the
germline, or NRDE-3 has the capacity to bind other small RNAs when the CSR-class 22G-RNAs
are absent. We did observe some cytoplasmic NRDE-3 granules in a subset of 8-cell stage
embryos following EGO-1 depletion (Figure 8B), suggesting that a proportion of NRDE-3 might
be unloaded. To further probe which small RNAs NRDE-3 binds to in the germline, we introduced
a *rde-3* mutation into the GFP::NRDE-3; degron::EGO-1 strain to deplete all WAGO-class 22G-
RNAs, with include the ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs, along with the CSR-class 22G-RNAs. We
observed that NRDE-3 no longer localizes to the nucleus in both germline and early embryos in
the absence of both WAGO-class and CSR-class 22G-RNAs (Figure 8B). These results, in
combination with our sequencing data, indicate that NRDE-3 likely binds CSR-class 22G-RNAs
in the germline and early embryos but has the capacity to additionally bind WAGO-class 22G-
RNAs when CSR-class 22G-RNAs are depleted. Furthermore, because somatic transcription is
not initiated in early embryos until the 4-cell stage (Seydoux and Fire 1994), we conclude that the
NRDE-3 is loaded with CSR-class 22G-RNAs in the parental germline and then transmitted to
early embryos.

NRDE-3 represses RNA Pol II and promotes global transcriptional repression in oocytes

Oocytes undergo global transcriptional repression across diverse species (Woodland 1987). In *C. elegans*, transcriptional shutdown begins during the diakinesis stage of late oocytes to prepare for fertilization, and reactivates at the 4-cell stage embryos to initiate zygotic transcription (Walker et al. 2007). Previous work has shown that topoisomerase II acting with the condensin II complex, H3K9me3, and the zinc-finger containing protein PIE-1 are critical for global transcriptional repression (Belew et al. 2023), but the complete molecular mechanisms underlying the oocyte-to-embryo transition remain not fully understood. We therefore aimed to address whether germline-expressed NRDE-3 could play a role in these pathways.

Our hypothesis that NRDE-3 may mediate transcriptional repression in oocytes is supported by several lines of evidence. First, NRDE-3 is expressed at the correct place and time— in the germline, from late pachytene to diakinetic oocytes (Seroussi et al. 2023)—and is known to co-transcriptionally silencing genes by depositing H3K9me3 and inhibiting Pol II transcription (Guang et al. 2008). Second, the slicing activity of CSR-1 is required to inhibit Pol II-dependent transcription in maturing oocytes (Fassnacht et al. 2018). CSR-1 is not known to directly inhibit transcription, but it is required for the production of at least a subset of the CSR-class 22G-RNAs (Singh et al. 2021); therefore, the CSR-1-dependent Pol II inhibition could be mediated by NRDE-3-bound CSR-class 22G-RNAs. Third, H3K9me3 and the H3K9me3 methyltransferase SET-25 are required for transcription repression in oocytes (Belew et al. 2023). NRDE-3 can act to recruit SET-25 and establish H3K9me3-containing heterochromatin (Padeken et al. 2021), making it a strong candidate for initiating H3K9me3-dependent transcriptional silencing in oocytes.

The above evidence connects Pol II repression in oocytes to the co-transcriptional silencing function of NRDE-3 and the requirement for CSR-class 22G-RNAs in oocytes. Phosphorylation of RNA Polymerase II (Pol II) on its large subunit C-terminal domain (CTD) serves as a well-studied marker of transcription activity, with Ser5 phosphorylation indicating transcription initiation and Ser2 phosphorylation marks elongation. Therefore, to monitor Pol II activity in oocytes, we stained wild-type and *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutant gonads using an antibody specific for phosphorylated serine 2 (PSer2) on the Pol II C-terminal domain (CTD), a marker for transcription elongation (Belew et al. 2023; Seydoux and Dunn 1997). Consistent with previously reports, PSer2 staining in the most proximal oocytes exhibited distinct patterns of localization: (1) PSer2 excluded from DNA ('excluded from DNA'), (2) PSer2 present both on and off DNA ('diffuse'), and (3) PSer2 enriched on DNA ('enriched on DNA'). The PSer2 signal intensity and the localization pattern serve as indicators of active transcription levels (Belew et al. 2023). Quantification the PSer2 signal intensity shows a significant increase in PSer2 in the *nrde-3(HK-*

AA) mutant across all oocytes (from -1 to -7), indicating a global increase in transcription
elongation in the *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutant (Figure 8C). Furthermore, by quantifying the PSer2
localization patterns, we found that elongating RNA Pol II stays associated with DNA longer in
the *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutant, compared to wild-type. This data is consistent with what has been
observed previously in the *set-25* mutant (Belew et al. 2023) (Figure 8D-E). Therefore, we
conclude that NRDE-3 contributes to global transcriptional repression in oocytes by repressing
RNA Pol II.

Discussion

Germ granules are phase-separated condensates that localize to the perinuclear region
of germ cells. In *C. elegans*, the known constituents of the germ granule have expanded over the
last decades, such that germ granules now comprise multiple domains including P granules,
Mutator foci, Z granules, SIMR foci, E granules, and D granules. Here we discovered that several
components of SIMR foci and *Mutator* foci also localize to cytoplasmic granules during specific
stages of embryogenesis, where their temporal expression is regulated by autophagic
degradation. We propose that these granules may serve as sites for the synthesis and loading of
22G-RNAs into the nuclear Argonaute NRDE-3. Furthermore, we showed that NRDE-3 switches
its small RNA targets during embryogenesis, coincident with the formation of SIMR granules;
during oogenesis, NRDE-3 binds to CSR-class 22G-RNAs to promote global transcriptional
repression prior to the oocyte-to-embryo transition, and then in the developing soma, NRDE-3
binds to ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs to silence retrotransposons and recently duplicated genes.
Together, our study reveals a new world of embryonic RNAi factor condensates and uncovers
two temporally distinct roles for NRDE-3, underscoring the need for careful examination of
localization and targets of RNAi pathways across development (Figure 9).

A role for SIMR-1 as a platform for nuclear Argonaute protein loading

Previously we demonstrated that SIMR-1 and HRDE-2 are required to recruit unloaded
HRDE-1, the germline nuclear Argonaute protein, to germ granules and to ensure correct 22G-
RNA loading (Chen and Phillips 2024a). Here we reveal that SIMR-1 and another HRDE-2
paralog, ENRI-2, are similarly essential to recruit unloaded NRDE-3, the somatic nuclear
Argonaute protein, to embryonic SIMR granules. We speculate that SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 are
similarly important for NRDE-3 22G-RNA loading; however, we did not observe a significant
change in the ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs loaded by NRDE-3 in *simr-1* or *enri-2* mutant
embryos compared to wild-type. While initially surprising based on the results of similar

experiments with HRDE-1 in the germline, we envision several possible explanations. First, it is
possible that SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 act to bring unloaded NRDE-3 in close proximity to the ERGO-
dependent 22G-RNA biogenesis machinery, but that NRDE-3 loading can still occur diffusely in
the cytoplasm, albeit with lower efficiency. Both the RdRP RRF-1 and unloaded NRDE-3 diffusely
localize to cytoplasm in the *simr-1* mutant (Figure 3A, 4D), suggesting that NRDE-3 may load the
ERGO-class small RNAs synthesized in the cytoplasm in the absence of SIMR-1. Differences in
NRDE-3 loading efficiency would likely not be detected by our NRDE-3 IP-small RNA sequencing
experiment. Second, SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 could act to sequester unloaded NRDE-3 away from
other small RNAs (i.e. CSR-class 22G-RNAs) to prevent misloading. Misloading should be
detectable in our NRDE-3 IP-small RNA sequencing experiment and we do see a modest
increase in CSR-class 22G-RNAs loaded by NRDE-3 in late embryos; however, it is unclear the
extent to which newly synthesized, and unloaded CSR-class 22G-RNAs are even present in the
cytoplasm, as the primary source for CSR-class 22G-RNAs may be the maternal germline. Thus,
unlike in the adult germline where HRDE-1 incorrectly loads CSR-class 22G-RNAs in the absence
of HRDE-2, there may not be an equivalent source of incorrect small RNAs that NRDE-3 can bind
to (i.e. correct length, 5' nucleotide and modifications) in the embryo. To further probe these
possibilities, we need to more carefully assess the dynamics of NRDE-3 loading across embryonic
development and possibly disrupt the formation of embryonic CSR granules to determine whether
compartmentalization of the CSR-class 22G-RNA pathway is also contributing to correct loading
of NRDE-3 in the absence of SIMR-1 and ENRI-2.

We do not know the precise functions of SIMR-1 and ENRI-2, however we have previously
proposed that SIMR-1 mediates protein-protein interactions through its extended Tudor domain
(Manage et al. 2020). ENRI-2 and its paralog HRDE-2 have structural similarities to a HELICc
domain, and SIMR-1, ENRI-2, and HRDE-2 have large unstructured domains (Figure 9—figure
supplement 1A) (Lewis et al. 2020; Chen and Phillips 2024a). With the advent of protein complex
prediction algorithms (Abramson et al. 2024), we sought to examine the potential physical
interactions between ENRI-2 and NRDE-3, as well as their paralogs HRDE-2 and HRDE-1. In
both models, the structured HELICc domain of HRDE-2 and ENRI-2 dock on the Mid domain of
their respective Argonaute partners. Interestingly, the unstructured C-terminal domains of ENRI-
2 and HRDE-2 extend into the small RNA binding pocket of their respective nuclear Argonaute
binding partners (Figure 9—figure supplement 1B). At this point, we do not know whether these
structures are reflective of the actual geometry of the proteins *in vivo*, but it is tempting to
speculate that the C-terminal disordered regions of the ENRI-2/HRDE-2 proteins could regulate
22G-RNA loading through interaction with the small RNA binding pocket of NRDE-3 and HRDE-

1. Further study will be necessary to determine whether these interactions between disordered regions and the small RNA binding pocket are necessary for correct small RNA loading and whether that mechanism extends to other WAGO proteins.

Compartmentalization of RNAi pathways

Most of the studies on the organization of *C. elegans* RNAi factors in granules focus on the germline. Here we find that multiple proteins associated with 22G-RNA biogenesis and function, including SIMR-1, RDE-3, RRF-1, ENRI-2, and unloaded NRDE-3, are localized to distinct condensates in *C. elegans* embryos. We speculate that these SIMR granules, which appear and then disappear during the course of embryonic development, play a functional role in the NRDE-3 nuclear RNAi pathway. This idea leads to an intriguing question: what role does organization of the RNAi pathways into condensates play in the soma vs. in the germline?

In germ cells, RNAi factors are visibly segregated into distinct compartments within the germ granule which assemble hierarchically (Uebel et al. 2023). Germ granules are also intimately linked to nuclear pores, leading to a model where highly concentrated mRNAs, newly exported from and adjacent to the nuclear pore, nucleate assembly of regulatory factors into visible granules. In fact, nuclear pores are clustered beneath germ granules in germ cells, and evidence suggests that most, if not all, nascent mRNAs are exported through pores associated with germ granules (Pitt et al. 2000; Sheth et al. 2010). In contrast, nuclear pores are distributed more evenly across the nuclear periphery in embryos and, in this work, we find that while some embryonic SIMR granules appear adjacent to the nuclear periphery, many are distributed in the cytoplasm (see Figure 2A, for example). Thus, unlike in germ granules, there is no obvious trajectory from the nucleus that RNAs would follow to end up in embryonic SIMR granules. Further, in the germline, we have speculated that the adjacent and hierarchical assembly of germ granule compartments could be determined by the order of molecular events required for RNA silencing (Uebel et al. 2023). While we on occasion see docking between embryonic SIMR granules and CSR granules (Figure 4I), we do not see any more complex arrangement of granule compartments in embryos similar to what we have observed in the germline. What that means regarding the functionality of embryonic SIMR granules is unclear. Another possibility worth considering is that SIMR granules are not actually required for ERGO-dependent 22G-RNA biogenesis and NRDE-3 loading in embryos but rather that they reflect a concentration of the small RNA biogenesis machinery beyond the solubility limit of the cytoplasm, resulting in the demixing of some RNP complexes into visible SIMR granules (Putnam et al. 2023). By this

"incidental condensate" model, ERGO-dependent 22G-RNA biogenesis and NRDE-3 loading

occur just as efficiently, or perhaps more so, diffusely in the cytoplasm.

Both embryonic and germ granules exhibit dynamic expression patterns, suggesting that

expression and function of small RNA factors are critical at discrete developmental time points.

In the germline, multiple Argonaute proteins are expressed exclusively during oogenesis (ERGO-

1) or spermatogenesis (ALG-3, ALG-4, CSR-1b, WAGO-10) (Billi et al. 2012; Han et al. 2009;

Conine et al. 2010; Reinke et al. 2004; Nguyen and Phillips 2021; Charlesworth et al. 2021) and

MUT-16 expression fluctuates across germ cell development, peaking in the mitotic region (Uebel

et al. 2020). Similarly, embryonic SIMR granules appear in early embryos and disappear by late

embryogenesis. Regardless as to whether SIMR granules are incidental condensates or

functional sites for NRDE-3 loading, these data indicate that the levels or activities of these

proteins are developmentally regulated.

It is additionally curious that embryonic and germ granules share many protein

components yet possess distinct differences in content and assembly requirements. For instance,

several RNAi proteins, such as RRF-1 and RDE-3, are shared between *Mutator* foci and

embryonic SIMR granules, while the paralogous ENRI-2/NRDE-3 and HRDE-2/HRDE-1 pairs are

found in embryonic SIMR granules and germline SIMR foci, respectively. It is unclear why the

Mutator and SIMR components are visible as separate compartments in germ granules but are

together in embryonic SIMR foci. This difference is highlighted by the requirement for MUT-16 in

the assembly of embryonic SIMR granules but not germline SIMR foci (Figure 4E) (Manage et al.

2020). Further investigation into the assembly and protein components of embryonic and germ

granules will be crucial for elucidating the functional differences between embryonic and germ

granules and dissecting the mechanisms of 22G-RNA loading into NRDE-3.

Spatial-temporal regulation of SIMR and other embryonic granules by autophagy

Autophagy is a conserved eukaryotic protein degradation pathway involving the formation

of double-membrane autophagosomes, which fuse with lysosomes for degradation (Nakatogawa

et al. 2009). Autophagy has been linked to small RNA pathways and germ granules in *C. elegans*

and other organisms. In *Arabidopsis*, the turnover of Argonaute protein AGO1 is controlled by

autophagy in both antiviral and nonviral contexts (Derrien et al. 2012). In mammalian cells, AGO2

and Dicer are targeted for degradation via autophagy (Gibbings et al. 2012). In *C. elegans*, P

granule components PGL-1 and PGL-3 are recruited to somatic aggregates during

embryogenesis and degraded by autophagy (Zhang et al. 2009). Interestingly, miRNA pathway

components ALG-1, ALG-2 and their interactor AIN-1/GW182 are also degraded by autophagy,

while in aggregates distinct from PGL somatic aggregates (Zhang and Zhang 2013).

Here, we discovered that, similar to P granule components, the expression of many other

granule-associated proteins in *C. elegans*, including the core Z granule protein ZNFX-1, the D

granule protein CSR-1, and the SIMR granule protein SIMR-1, are also controlled by autophagy

during embryogenesis. It is worth noting that the timing of degradation differs amongst the

different granules, with P granules and Z granules being cleared from somatic cells within the first

few cell divisions of the developing embryo (Strome and Wood 1983; Wan et al. 2018), while CSR

granules are removed between 28- and 100-cell stage (Figure 4G), and SIMR granules disappear

between 100- and 200-cell stage of embryonic development (Figure 1C,2C). These results

suggest an intriguing hypothesis that different granules might be produced independently at

designated developmental stages and cytosolic locations to perform specific functions, and later

actively degraded by autophagy when not needed. Future studies will be needed to carefully

examine the role and fate of each type of granule during embryogenesis to test this hypothesis.

Lastly, while autophagy pathway plays an important role in regulating expression of many

granule components, we cannot role the possibility that the ubiquitin-proteasome system may

also contribute to protein turnover in the small RNA pathway. In fact, Zhang et al demonstrated

that, unlike PGL-1 and PGL-3, the other P granule components GLH-1 and GLH-4 are not

degraded via autophagy (Zhang et al. 2009). Additionally, DeRenzo et al showed that germline-

expressed CCCH figure proteins, including PIE-1, POS-1, MEX-1, are selectively targeted for

degradation in somatic cells by the E3 ubiquitin ligase subunit-interacting protein ZIF-1 through

the ubiquitin-proteasome system (DeRenzo et al. 2003). Furthermore, previous research suggest

that the proteosome and autophagy pathways can act as compensatory mechanisms under

certain contexts (Ji and Kwon 2017). Future studies will be needed to interrogate the roles of

these two protein degradation pathways in regulating protein turnover in the small RNA pathway.

837　The small RNA plasticity of NRDE-3

Argonautes are conventionally known to bind small RNAs with high specificity. In this

study, we unveil the remarkable versatility of the nuclear Argonaute NRDE-3, demonstrating its

ability to bind multiple classes of small RNAs and exhibit distinct functions throughout

development. Argonaute proteins with the capacity to bind multiple types or classes of small RNAs

have been observed in other organisms. For example, both siRNAs and miRNAs can be loaded

into the four human Argonautes (Ago1-4) and both siRNAs and miRNAs can guide Ago2-

dependent target cleavage (Meister et al. 2004; Liu et al. 2004). Our discovery is somewhat

different, however, in that NRDE-3 binds its two preferred classes of small RNAs, CSR-class 22G-RNAs and ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs, at distinct developmental stages, indicating that there must be a switch from one class of small RNA to the other during embryogenesis. Interestingly, a more recent study in the parasitic nematode *Ascaris* revealed that the *Ascaris* paralog of NRDE-3, AsNRDE-3, exhibits a dramatic change in associated small RNAs during spermatogenesis, targeting repetitive sequences and transposons in early stages of spermatogenesis and mRNAs in late meiosis (Zagoskin et al. 2022). Curiously, the mRNAs targeted by AsNRDE-3 in late meiosis largely overlap with the targets of AsCSR-1, the *Ascaris* paralog of CSR-1, and it is proposed that AsNRDE-3 could act in concert with AsCSR-1 at the late stages of meiosis to clear spermatogenic and meiotic mRNAs from the developing spermatids (Zagoskin et al. 2022). These data further suggest that the ability of NRDE-3 to target both repetitive sequences and germline-expressed genes at distinct developmental timepoints may be a conserved feature of this protein. It is currently unknown how this small RNA switching is achieved. It is possible that there is an active mechanism to unload the CSR-class 22G-RNAs and replace them with ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs, or to degrade NRDE-3 loaded with CSR-class 22G-RNAs. However, we prefer the simpler model where NRDE-3 loaded with CSR-class 22G-RNAs, initially deposited into embryo from the maternal germline, are diluted out as the animal develops. Newly synthesized NRDE-3 in the embryo is loaded with ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs to execute the small RNA "switch". The idea that Argonaute proteins can be utilized at distinct timepoints with different small RNA partners to create multi-functionality is intriguing, especially in the vein of rapidly clearing transcripts from a cell to engineer a new developmental program. Achieving higher resolution small RNA-Argonaute interactions with tissue- and developmental-specific staging will be crucial to fully elucidate the roles of Argonaute proteins during development in *C. elegans* and other organisms.

In summary, this work investigating the role of SIMR granules in embryos, together with our previous study of SIMR foci in the germline (Chen and Phillips 2024a), has identified a new mechanism for regulating nuclear Argonaute protein localization in *C. elegans*. The two paralogous proteins, HRDE-2 and ENRI-2, recruit unloaded nuclear Argonautes HRDE-1 and NRDE-3 to small RNA production centers organized by SIMR-1, where we speculate that loading can occur. These small RNA loading sites are essential in the germline to promote small RNA binding specificity, however they may also contribute to efficiency and specificity of small RNA loading in embryos. We further discovered an intriguing repository of cytoplasmic granules during embryogenesis that do not exhibit the same organization or hierarchical assembly as germ granules, but share the same autophagy-mediated degradation as one another. These results

highlight the importance of further investigation into the relationship between RNA silencing pathways and RNA granules during embryogenesis. Lastly, we observed a striking phenomenon where the NRDE-3 nuclear Argonaute protein possesses the ability to switch small RNA binding partners, altering mRNA targets and function during development. Together, these findings reveal that the precise regulation of small RNA pathway components through diverse mechanisms, such as spatial-temporal separation and hierarchical physical interactions, is crucial for accurate gene regulation and developmental transitions in *C. elegans*.

Materials and methods

***C. elegans* stains**

 C. elegans strains were maintained at 20°C on NGM plates seeded with OP50 *E. coli* according to standard conditions unless otherwise stated (Brenner 1974). All strains used in this project are listed in Supplementary File 1.

CRISPR-mediated strain construction

 For *nrde-3(cmp324[HK-AA])*, *enri-1(cmp328)*, *enri-2(cmp318)*, and *rde-3/mut-2(cmp337)*, we used an oligo repair template and RNA guide. For *enri-1(cmp320[enri-1::mCherry::2xHA])*, we used an RNA guide and PCR amplified repair template (Supplementary File 2). For injections using a single gene-specific crRNA, the injection mix included 0.25 µg/µl Cas9 protein (IDT), 100 ng/µl tracrRNA (IDT), 14 ng/µl dpy-10 crRNA, 42 ng/µl gene-specific crRNA, and 110 ng/µl of the oligo repair template. For injections using two gene-specific crRNAs, the injection mix included 0.25 µg/µl Cas9 protein (IDT), 100 ng/µl tracrRNA (IDT), 14 ng/µl dpy-10 crRNA, 21 ng/µl each gene-specific crRNA, and 110 ng/µl of each repair template.

 The following strains were used for injection: *enri-2(cmp318)* and *enri-1(cmp320[enri-1::mCherry::2xHA])* into wild-type N2 strain. *nrde-3(cmp324[HK-AA]) and enri-1(cmp328)* into JMC237: *nrde-3(tor131[GFP::3xFLAG::nrde-3]) X*. *rde-3/mut-2(cmp337)* into USC1615: *ego-1(cmp317[ego-1::degron]) I; ieSi38 [Psun-1::TIR1::mRuby::sun-1 3' UTR] IV; nrde-3(tor131[GFP::3xFLAG::nrde-3]) X*. Following injection, F1 animals with the Rol phenotype were isolated and genotyped by PCR to identify heterozygous animals with the mutations of interest, then F2 animals were further singled out to identify homozygous mutant animals.

RNAi assays

 For RNAi experiment, control L4440 and *lgg-1* RNAi *E. coli* clones were sequenced verified and cultured at 37°C for 16 hours, then RNAi bacteria were seeded on fresh RNAi plates.

Two L4 animals were transferred to seeded RNAi plates and raised at 20°C. When the progenies of the L4 animals turn into young adults (about 4 days), the embryos of young adult animals were imaged to assess somatic granule expression.

Immunofluorescence imaging and quantification

For immunofluorescence, *C. elegans* were dissected in egg buffer containing 0.1% Tween-20 and fixed in 1% formaldehyde in egg buffer as described (Phillips et al. 2009). Samples were immunostained with anti-RNA Polymerase II CTD (phosphoSer2) at 1:500 (Abcam ab5095). The secondary antibody, anti-Rabbit IgG AlexaFluor 555 was used at 1:1000 (Thermo Fisher A21429). Animals were dissected at the adult stage (24 h post L4). Imaging was performed on a DeltaVision Elite microscope (GE Healthcare) using a 60x N.A. 1.42 oil-immersion objective, data stacks were collected and deconvolution was performed using the SoftWoRx package. 25 optical sections, for a total 12.5µm sample thickness, are presented as a maximum intensity projection. PSer2 signal intensity was calculated in ImageJ (version 1.53a) using a minimum of 10 individual adult gonads.

Live imaging

Live imaging of *C. elegans* embryos was performed in M9 buffer. Young embryos were obtained by dissecting gravid adult *C. elegans*, and old embryos were obtained by manually picking embryos laid on the NGM plate. Live imaging of *C. elegans* adult germline was performed in M9 buffer containing sodium azide to prevent movement. Day-one-adult *C. elegans* were obtained by manually picking L4s and leaving L4s at 20°C for about 24 hours. Imaging was performed on a DeltaVision Elite microscope (GE Healthcare) using a 60x N.A. 1.42 oil-immersion objective. Images were pseudocolored using Adobe Photoshop.

Granule number quantification

Granule number quantification was performed in FIJI/ImageJ2 (version 2.9.0). At least 10 embryos were imaged on a DeltaVision Elite microscope with 37 optical sections of a total 22.20µm sample thickness from the bottom of the sample. Images were deconvolved to eliminate backgrounds. Z stacks were opened using the 3D object counter plugin for FIJI, and the granule counting threshold for each image was manually adjusted to obtain the least background and most granules.

Colocalization analysis

Quantitative colocalization analysis between different granules was performed in
FIJI/ImageJ2 (version 2.9.0) using the Coloc2 package and 100-cell staged embryos imaged on
a DeltaVision Elite microscope. At least 3 granules from each embryo, and at least 4 individual
embryos for a total of at least 20 granules were used to calculate Pearson's R value.

Western blot

Synchronized adult *C. elegans* were harvested (~72 h at 20 °C after L1 arrest) and 200
adults were loaded per lane. Proteins were resolved on 4–12% Bis-Tris polyacrylamide gels
(Thermo Fisher, NW04122BOX), transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (Thermo Fisher,
LC2001), and probed with rat anti-HA-peroxidase 1:1000 (Roche 12013819001), mouse anti-
FLAG 1:1000 (Sigma, F1804), or mouse anti-actin 1:10,000 (Abcam ab3280). Secondary HRP
antibodies were purchased from Thermo Fisher. Unedited western blots are provided in the
Source Data File.

Small RNA library preparation and sequencing

For *C. elegans* embryo staging and collection, synchronized arrested L1s were grown on
enriched peptone plates at 17°C until the young adult stage. Adult *C. elegans* stage was
monitored carefully under DeltaVision microscope by live imaging. For early embryo collection
(<=100-cell), adult animals were washed off from plates with H_2O and bleached as soon as the
first animals had 1-4 eggs (around 68-70 hours depending on the strain and the incubator
temperature). For late embryo collection (>=300-cell), adult animals were washed off from plates
with H_2O and bleached when about half of the worms had 1~6 eggs (~70-72 hours depending on
the strain and the incubator temperature). After bleaching, embryos were washed twice with M9
buffer, and filtered through 40μm cell strainers (Fisherbrand™ Sterile Cell Strainers, 40μm) twice
to clear the residual worm body. To reach >=300-cell stage for late embryo collection, embryos
were additionally incubated in M9 buffer at 20°C for 4.5 hours. Then embryos were washed once
with IP buffer (50 mM Tris-Cl pH 7.5, 100 mM KCl, 2.5 mM MgCl2, 0.1% Nonidet P40 substitute)
containing Protease Inhibitor (Thermo Fisher A32965). Embryos were kept on ice during washes
to prevent further development. 500,000 embryos were collected for each replicate. Following
washes, embryos were flash-frozen by placing tubes in a container with ethanol and dry ice. A
small aliquot of embryos was examined on the Deltavision microscope to confirm the
developmental stage immediately before freezing. Frozen embryos were stored at -80°C until
immunoprecipitation.

For immunoprecipitation followed by small RNA sequencing in embryos, ~500,000 synchronized embryos were sonicated with Fisher Sonifier 550 with a microtip (15s on, 45s off, 10% power, total 2 minutes on time). After sonication, insoluble particulate was removed by centrifugation at 21,000g for 30 minutes. Immunoprecipitation was performed using anti-FLAG Affinity Matrix (Sigma Aldrich, A2220). NRDE-3-bound RNAs were isolated using TRIzol reagent (Thermo Fisher, 15596018), followed by chloroform extraction and isopropanol precipitation. Small RNAs (18 to 30-nt) were size selected on homemade 10% Urea-polyacrylamide gels from total RNA samples. Small RNAs were treated with 5' RNA polyphosphatase (Epicenter RP8092H) and ligated to 3' pre-adenylated adapters with Truncated T4 RNA ligase (NEB M0373L). Small RNAs were then hybridized to the reverse transcription primer, ligated to the 5' adapter with T4 RNA ligase (NEB M0204L), and reverse transcribed with Superscript III (Thermo Fisher 18080-051). Small RNA libraries were amplified using Q5 High-Fidelity DNA polymerase (NEB M0491L) and size selected on a homemade 10% polyacrylamide gel. Library concentration was determined using the Qubit 1X dsDNA HS Assay kit (Thermo Fisher Q33231) and quality was assessed using the Agilent BioAnalyzer. Libraries were sequenced on the Illumina NextSeq2000 (SE 75-bp reads) platform. Primer sequences are available in Supplementary File 2. Differentially expressed gene lists and gene lists used in this paper can be found in Supplementary File 3. Sequencing library statistics summary can be found in Supplementary File 4.

Bioinformatic analysis

For small RNA libraries, sequences were parsed from adapters and quality filtered using FASTX-Toolkit (version 0.0.13) (Greg Hannon 2010). Filtered reads were mapped to the *C. elegans* genome, WS258, using Bowtie2 (version 2.5.0) (Langmead and Salzberg 2012). Mapped reads were assigned to genomic features using featureCounts which is part of the Subread package (version 2.0.1) (Liao et al. 2014). Differential expression analysis was performed using edgeR (3.40.2) (Robinson et al. 2010). To define gene lists from IP experiments, a twofold-change cutoff, an edgeR adjusted p-value of ≤0.05, and at least 10 RPM in the IP libraries were required to identify genes with significant changes in small RNA levels.

Data Availability

The RNA sequencing data generated in this study are available through Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) under accession code GSE273239. Source data file is provided with this paper.

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1023 **Author contributions**

1024 S.C.: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing–original draft, Writing–reviewing

1025 and editing, Visualization

1026 C.M.P.: Conceptualization, Formal Analysis, Writing–original draft, Writing–reviewing and editing,

1027 Supervision, Funding Acquisition.

1028

1029 **Competing interests**

1030 The authors declare no competing interests.

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1295

Figure Legends

Figure 1. SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 colocalize at somatic granules in embryos.

A. Summary of IP-mass spectrometry interactions detected between NRDE-3, ENRI-2, ENRI-1, and SIMR-1 from previously published studies (Chen and Phillips, 2024, Lewis *et al.*, 2021). The number of replicates from which the interaction was detected relative to the total number of replicates performed is indicated.

B. Live imaging of GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3 and SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA; ENRI-2::2xTy1::GFP embryos at different stages (4-cell, 8-cell, 28-cell, 100-cell, 200-cell, and comma). Boxes identify the location of Z_2 and Z_3 primordial germ cells, showing that SIMR-1 is present in germ granules while ENRI-2 is not. At least five individual embryos were imaged for each genotype and stage. Scale bars, 5 µm.

C. Box plot of SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA granule number quantification at different embryonic stages (4-cell, 8-cell, 28-cell, 100-cell, and 200-cell). At least ten individual embryos at each stage were used for quantification. Each dot represents an individual embryo, and all data points are shown. Bolded midline indicates median value, box indicates the first and third quartiles, and whiskers represent the most extreme data points within 1.5 times the interquartile range. Lines connect the mean granule number for each stage, illustrating the change in number of SIMR granules across the developmental stages of the embryo. Two-tailed t-tests were performed to determine statistical significance and p-values were adjusted for multiple comparisons. See Materials and Methods for a detailed description of quantification methods.

Figure 1—figure supplement 1. Summary of NRDE-3 and CSR-1 small RNA pathway and components.

A. Illustration of NRDE-3 and CSR-1 pathways in *C. elegans*. In the NRDE-3 pathway, primary ERGO-class 26G-RNAs are synthesized by the ERI complex, including ERI-1. The primary Argonaute protein, ERGO-1, is loaded with the ERGO-class 26G-RNAs. The secondary ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs, a subset of the WAGO-class 22G-RNAs, are synthesized from ERGO-1-targeted mRNAs. Their synthesis depends on the Mutator complex, which includes the RNA-dependent RNA polymerase, RRF-1, and the poly(UG) polymerase, RDE-3. They are subsequently loaded into NRDE-3 and other cytoplasmic WAGO-family Argonaute proteins to promote gene silencing. In the CSR-1 pathway, the CSR-class 22G-RNAs are synthesized by the RNA-dependent RNA

1329	polymerase, EGO-1. CSR-1 is loaded with CSR-class 22G-RNAs to promote gene
1330	licensing in the germline and clearance of maternal transcripts in early embryos.
1331	B. A table summarizing the function of some key proteins in NRDE-3 and CSR-1 pathways.
1332	
1333	**Figure 1—figure supplement 2. Expression of NRDE-3, SIMR-1, and ENRI-1.**
1334	A. Live imaging of the germline from SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA; GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3 day-
1335	one-old adult animals. Late pachytene (left) and oocyte (right) regions are shown,
1336	revealing that SIMR-1 and NRDE-3 do not colocalize in the germline. At least seven
1337	individual germlines were imaged. Scale bars, 5 µm.
1338	B. Live imaging of SIMR-1::GFP(R159C)::GFP::3xFLAG embryo at 100-cell stage, showing
1339	that SIMR-1(R159C) fails to not localize to cytoplasmic granules. At least five individual
1340	embryos were imaged. Scale bars, 5 µm.
1341	C. Live imaging of 2xTy1::GFP::ENRI-1 (top two rows) and ENRI-1::mCherry::2xHA
1342	(bottom two rows) embryos at different stages (4-cell, 8-cell, 28-cell, 100-cell, 200-cell,
1343	and comma). Fluorescence and brightfield channels are shown, demonstrating that
1344	ENRI-1 does not show prominent localization in embryos. At least seven individual
1345	embryos were imaged for each genotype and stage. Scale bars, 5 µm.
1346	D. Western blot of ENRI-1::mCherry::2xHA (left lane) and wild-type (right lane) gravid adult
1347	animals (72 hours at 20°C after L1 arrest), showing that the ENRI-1::mCherry::2xHA is
1348	expressed in this strain. Anti-HA-HRP and anti-actin antibodies were used for the
1349	western blot. Source data of the original blot is provided.
1350	
1351	**Figure 2. Unloaded NRDE-3 localizes to cytoplasmic granules with SIMR-1.**
1352	A. Live imaging of GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3 embryos in *eri-1*, *rde-3*, and *nrde-3(HK-AA)*
1353	mutants at 8-cell, 100-cell, and comma stage embryos. At least five individual embryos
1354	were imaged for each genotype and stage. Arrows point to granule localization of
1355	NRDE-3 in the 100-cell stage. Asterisks highlight the nuclear localization of NRDE-3 in
1356	somatic cells of the 100-cell stage embryos and in the primordial germ cells of the
1357	comma stage embryos. Scale bars, 5 µm.
1358	B. Box plot of GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3 granule number quantification in different mutants.
1359	C. Box plot of GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3(HK-AA) granule number quantification at different
1360	embryonic stages. Lines connect the mean granule number (red dots) for each stage,
1361	illustrating the change in change in number of NRDE-3 granules across embryonic
1362	development.

D. Live imaging of SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA; GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3(HK-AA) at 100-cell stage. Arrows and insets show examples of colocalization between SIMR-1 and NRDE-3(HK-AA). At least ten individual embryos were imaged. Scale bars, 5 µm.

For box plots in B and C, at least twelve individual embryos in each mutant were used for quantification. Each dot represents an individual embryo, and all data points are shown. Bolded midline indicates median value, box indicates the first and third quartiles, and whiskers represent the most extreme data points within 1.5 times the interquartile range. Two-tailed t-tests were performed to determine statistical significance and p-values were adjusted for multiple comparisons. See Materials and Methods for a detailed description of quantification methods.

Figure 2—figure supplement 1. NRDE-3 and SIMR-1 localization and expression in various mutants.

A. Live imaging of GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3 embryos in the *simr-1* mutant, *enri-1* mutant, *enri-2* mutant, and *enri-1; enri-2* double mutant in 8-cell, 100-cell, and comma stage embryos. At least five individual embryos were imaged for each genotype and stage.

B. Western blot of wild-type N$_2$, GFP::NRDE-3, and GFP::NRDE-3(HK-AA) mixed staged embryos, showing that the level of NRDE-3 protein is not significantly changed in the *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutant compared to GFP::NRDE-3. Anti-FLAG and anti-ACTIN antibodies to detect NRDE-3 and ACTIN, respectively.

C. Live imaging of SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA; GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3 embryos in an *eri-1* mutant at the 100-cell stage. Arrows point to examples of colocalization between SIMR-1 and NRDE-3. At least five individual embryos were imaged. Dotted white line indicates the outline of the embryo.

D. Box plot quantifying the number of SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA granules in a *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutant at different embryonic stages. At least twelve individual embryos for each genotype were used for quantification. Each dot represents an individual embryo, and all data points are shown. Bolded midline indicates median value, box indicates the first and third quartiles, and whiskers represent the most extreme data points within 1.5 times the interquartile range. Lines connect the mean granule number (red dots) at each stage, illustrating the change in number of SIMR-1 granules across embryonic development. Two-tailed t-tests were performed to determine statistical significance and p-values were adjusted for multiple comparisons. See Materials and Methods for a detailed description of quantification methods.

1397   E. Live imaging of germline regions from SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA; GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-

1398   3(HK-AA) day-one-old adult animals shows that SIMR-1 and NRDE-3(HK-AA) do not

1399   colocalize and NRDE-3(HK-AA) does not form foci in the germline (late pachytene (top)

1400   and oocyte (bottom)). At least five individual germlines were imaged. All scale bars, 5

1401   µm. Source data are provided as a Source Data file.

1402

Figure 3. SIMR-1 recruits ENRI-2 and then NRDE-3 to cytoplasmic granules.

A. Live imaging of GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3(HK-AA) embryos in *simr-1* and *enri-2* mutants,

and GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3 embryos in a *simr-1; eri-1* double mutant at 8-cell, 100-cell,

and comma stages. At least five individual embryos were imaged for each genotype and

stage. Asterisk marks the nuclear localization of GFP::NRDE-3 in the *simr-1; eri-1*

mutant, visible in somatic cells of 8- and 100-cell stage embryos and in a primordial

germ cell of the comma stage embryo. Scale bars, 5 µm.

B. Live imaging of ENRI-2::2xTy1::GFP embryos in a *simr-1* mutant and SIMR-

1::GFP::3xFLAG embryos in an *enri-2* mutant. At least five individual embryos were

imaged for each genotype and stage. Arrows point to examples of cytoplasmic SIMR

granules still visible in the *enri-2* mutant. Box surrounds a primordial germ cell displaying

germ granule localization of SIMR-1. Scale bars, 5 µm.

1415

Figure 3—figure supplement 1. **NRDE-3(HK-AA) and ENRI-1 localization in various**

mutants.

A. Western blot of wild-type (N2), GFP::NRDE-3, GFP::NRDE-3; *simr-1*, GFP::NRDE-3(HK-

AA), GFP::NRDE-3(HK-AA); *simr-1* mixed staged embryos, showing that the

GFP::NRDE-3 and GFP::NRDE-3(HK-AA) does not exhibit higher expression level in the

simr-1 mutant. Anti-FLAG and anti-ACTIN antibodies were used to detect NRDE-3 and

ACTIN, respectively.

B. Live imaging of GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3(HK-AA) embryos in an *enri-1* mutant and an

enri-1; enri-2 double mutant. At least five individual embryos were imaged for each

genotype and stage. Arrows point to cytoplasmic NRDE-3(HK-AA) granules visible in an

enri-1 mutant. Scale bars, 5 µm.

C. Live imaging of ENRI-1::mCherry::2xHA embryo in an *enri-2* mutant at 100-cell stage.

Both fluorescence (left) and brightfield (right) channels are shown to demonstrate that no

specific localization can be observed for ENRI-1 in the *enri-2* mutant. At least five

individual embryos were imaged. Scale bars, 5 µm.

D. Live imaging of ENRI-1::mCherry::2xHA; GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3(HK-AA) embryo at

100-cell stage, showing that no specific localization can be observed for ENRI-1 in the

nrde-3(HK-AA) mutant. Arrows point to cytoplasmic NRDE-3(HK-AA) granules. At least

five individual embryos were imaged. Scale bars, 5 µm.

1435

Figure 4. CSR and WAGO pathway proteins localize to distinct cytoplasmic granules.

A. Live imaging of SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA; RDE-3::GFP embryo at 100-cell stage,

showing that RDE-3 colocalizes with SIMR-1. At least five individual embryos were

imaged for each genotype and stage. Arrowheads and insets show examples of

colocalization between SIMR-1 and RDE-3 at cytoplasmic granules. Scale bars, 5 µm.

B. Box plot of Pearson's R value quantifications among different pairs of proteins at 100-cell

embryonic stage. At least 20 granules from at least 4 individual embryos were used for

quantification. Each dot represents an individual quantification, and all data points are

shown. Box indicates the first and third quartiles, and whiskers represent the most extreme

data points within 1.5 times the interquartile range. See Materials and Methods for a

detailed description of quantification methods.

C. Live imaging of SIMR-1::GFP::3xFLAG; HA::EGO-1::mCherry::RRF-1 at 100-cell stage

embryo, showing that RRF-1 colocalizes with SIMR-1. At least five individual embryos

were imaged for each genotype and stage. Arrowheads and insets show examples of

colocalization between SIMR-1 and RRF-1 at cytoplasmic granules. Scale bars, 5 µm.

D. Live imaging of mCherry::EGO-1::GFP::RRF-1 in a *simr-1* mutant, showing that RRF-1

no longer associates with cytoplasmic granules, while EGO-1 remains associated with

granules in the *simr-1* mutant. At least five individual embryos were imaged. Arrowheads

point to examples of cytoplasmic EGO-1 granules in a *simr-1* mutant. Insets show

examples of cytoplasmic localization of RRF-1 and granule localization of EGO-1 in a

simr-1 mutant. Scale bars, 5 µm.

E. Live imaging of SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA embryos in a *mut-16* mutant at 8-cell, 100-cell,

and comma stages. At least five individual embryos were imaged. Asterisks indicate

spindle localization of SIMR-1 in a *mut-16* mutant. Box highlights germ granule

localization of SIMR-1 in a comma-stage, *mut-16* mutant embryo. Scale bars, 5 µm.

F. Live imaging of GFP::3xFLAG::CSR-1 embryos at different stages (4-cell, 28-cell, 100-

cell, 200-cell, and comma), shows that CSR-1 localizes to cytoplasmic granules in early

embryos and is restricted to germ granules in late embryos. At least three individual

embryos were imaged for each stage. Dotted white line marks perimeter of the embryo.

Box marks germ granule localization of CSR-1. Scale bars, 5 µM.

G. Box plot quantifying GFP::3xFLAG::CSR-1 granules at different embryonic stages. At least

ten embryos at each stage were used for quantification. Each dot represents an individual

embryo, and all data points are shown. Bolded midline indicates median value, box

indicates the first and third quartiles, and whiskers represent the most extreme data points

within 1.5 times the interquartile range. Lines connect the mean granule number (red dots)

at each stage, illustrating the change in number of CSR granules across embryonic

development. Two-tailed t-tests were performed to determine statistical significance and

p-values were adjusted for multiple comparisons. See Materials and Methods for a

detailed description of quantification methods.

H. Live imaging of mCherry::EGO-1; GFP::3xFLAG::::CSR-1 embryo at 28-cell stage,

showing CSR-1 colocalization with EGO-1. At least ten individual embryos were imaged.

Arrowheads and insets show examples of CSR-1 and EGO-1 colocalization at

cytoplasmic granules. Scale bars, 5 µm.

I. Live imaging of SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA; GFP::3xFLAG::CSR-1 embryo at 28-cell stage,

showing the absence of colocalization between SIMR-1 and CSR-1 with occasional

adjacent localization. At least ten individual embryos were imaged. Arrowheads point to

examples of SIMR and CSR granules that do not colocalize. Insets show examples of

SIMR and CSR granules that are found adjacent to each other or fail to colocalize.

Dotted white line marks perimeter of embryo. Scale bars, 5 µm.

J. Model of CSR and SIMR granules in the somatic cells of *C. elegans* embryos. The

RdRP EGO-1, which synthesizes CSR-class 22G-RNAs, localizes to CSR granules,

where CSR-1 loading may take place. The RdRP RRF-1, along with RDE-3, ENRI-2,

and unloaded NRDE-3 localize to SIMR granules. SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 recruits unloaded

NRDE-3 to granule where RRF-1 may synthesize ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs for

loading into NRDE-3. After loading, NRDE-3 translocates to the nucleus and silences

genes co-transcriptionally.

1492

Figure 4—figure supplement 1. SIMR-1 does not colocalize with any previously identified

embryonic granules.

A. Live imaging of SIMR-1::GFP::3xFLAG; mCherry::CGH-1 embryo at 100-cell stage,

showing that SIMR-1 does not colocalize with CGH-1. Arrowheads and insets show

examples of SIMR-1 and CGH-1 granules that do not colocalize.

B. Live imaging of mCherry::CGH-1; *eri-1*; GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3 at 100-cell stage
embryo, showing that NRDE-3 in the *eri-1* mutant does not colocalize with CGH-1.
Arrowheads and insets show examples of NRDE-3 and CGH-1 granules that do not
colocalize.
C. Live imaging of SIMR-1::GFP::3xFLAG; RSD-2::mCherry embryo at 100-cell stage,
showing that RSD-2 does not localize to cytoplasmic granules in the embryo.
Arrowheads and insets show examples of SIMR granules.
D. Live imaging of SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA; HRDE-2::2xTy1::GFP embryo at 100-cell
stage, showing that HRDE-2 does not localize to cytoplasmic granules in the embryo.
Arrowheads and insets show examples of SIMR granules.
E. Live imaging of SIMR-1::GFP::3xFLAG; *hrde-2* embryo at 100-cell stage, showing that
SIMR-1 still localizes to cytoplasmic granules in the hrde-2 mutant. Arrowheads and
inset show examples of SIMR granules.
F. Live imaging of SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA; GFP::3xFLAG::RDE-12 embryo at 100-cell
stage, showing that SIMR-1 does not colocalize with RDE-12. Arrowheads and insets
show examples of RDE-12 and SIMR granules that do not colocalize.
G. Live imaging of SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA RSD-6::GFP::3xFLAG embryo at 100-cell
stage, showing that SIMR-1 does not colocalize with RSD-6. Arrowheads and insets
show examples of RSD-6 and SIMR granules that do not colocalize.
H. Live imaging of SIMR-1::GFP::3xFLAG; HA::tagRFP::ZNFX-1 embryo at 100-cell stage,
showing that SIMR-1 does not colocalize with ZNFX-1. Arrowheads and insets show
examples of SIMR and ZNFX-1 granules that do not colocalize.
I.   Live imaging of SIMR-1::mCherry::2xHA; tubulin::GFP embryo at 100-cell stage,
showing that SIMR-1 does not colocalize with tubulin. Arrowheads and insets show
examples of tubulin and SIMR granules that do not colocalize.
J.   Live imaging of MUT-16::GFP at 100-cell stage, showing that MUT-16 localizes to
somatic granules. Arrowheads and inset show examples of MUT-16 somatic granules.
K. Live imaging of RDE-3::GFP in a *mut-16* mutant embryo at 100-cell stage, showing that
RDE-3 no longer associates with granules in the *mut-16* mutant.
L. Live imaging of SIMR-1::GFP::3xFLAG; mCherry::EGO-1 embryo at 100-cell stage,
showing that SIMR-1 does not colocalize with EGO-1. Arrowheads and insets show
examples of SIMR-1 and EGO-1 granules that do not colocalize. At least five individual
embryos were imaged for all experiments. All scale bars, 5 µm.
1531

Figure 5. Autophagy regulates the removal of SIMR granules and other embryonic granules.

A. Live imaging of SIMR-1::mCherry and PGL-1::BFP at 8-cell, 100-cell, and comma stage embryos following treatment of parental animals with control (L4440) and *lgg-1* RNAi. At least ten individual embryos were imaged for each genotype and stage. Dotted white line marks perimeter of embryo. Scale bars, 5 μm.

B. Box plot quantifying the number of SIMR granules at the 100-cell stage following treatment of parental animals with control (L4440) and *lgg-1* RNAi. Fourteen embryos at each stage were used for quantification. Each dot represents an individual embryo, and all data points are shown. Bolded midline indicates median value, box indicates the first and third quartiles, and whiskers represent the most extreme data points within 1.5 times the interquartile range. Two-tailed t-test was performed to determine statistical significance.

C. Live imaging of GFP::CSR-1 and RFP::ZNFX-1 at 8-cell, 100-cell, and comma stage embryos following treatment of parental animals with control (L4440) and *lgg-1* RNAi. At least ten individual embryos were imaged for each genotype and stage. Dotted white line marks perimeter of embryo. Scale bars, 5 μm.

D. Live imaging of SIMR-1::GFP; RFP::ZNFX-1; PGL-1::BFP embryo and SIMR-1::mCherry; GFP::CSR-1 embryo at 100-cell stage embryos following treatment of parental animals with *lgg-1* RNAi. At least ten individual embryos were imaged for each genotype. Dotted white line marks perimeter of embryo. Insets show examples of granule adjacency. Scale bars for embryos, 5 μm. Scale bars for insets, 0.2 μm.

Images in A, C-D are maximum projections of deconvolved 12.5 μm z-stacks (about two-third of embryo depth).

Figure 5—figure supplement 1. Components of the SIMR granule are regulated by autophagy.

A. Live imaging of GFP::NRDE-3; *eri-1* at 8-cell, 100-cell, and comma stage embryos following treatment of parental animals with control (L4440) and *lgg-1* RNAi . At least ten individual embryos were imaged for each genotype and stage. Scale bars, 5 μm. Images are maximum projections of deconvolved 12.5 μm z-stacks (about two-third of embryo depth).

B. Box plot quantifying Pearson's R values of SIMR-1 with ENRI-2, RDE-3/MUT-2, RRF-1, and NRDE-3; *eri-1* at comma stage on *lgg-1* RNAi condition. At least twenty embryos at

1566 each stage were used for quantification. Each dot represents an individual embryo, and
1567 all data points are shown. Bolded midline indicates median value, box indicates the first
1568 and third quartiles, and whiskers represent the most extreme data points within 1.5 times
1569 the interquartile range.

1570

1571 Figure 6. NRDE-3 switches small RNA targets during development.

A. Diagram of IP-sRNA seq on NRDE-3 early embryos (<=100-cell stage) and late embryos
(>=300-cell). GFP::FLAG::NRDE-3 was immunoprecipitated from embryo lysate and its
associated small RNAs were isolated for sequencing.

B. Box plots depicting $\log_2$(fold change small RNA abundance) in NRDE-3 IP compared to
input for at least two biological replicates.

C. Normalized NRDE-3-bound small RNA read distribution across a CSR-target gene (*ztf-*
27) and an ERGO-target gene (Y37E11B.2) in early embryos, late embryos, and young
adults. One representative replicate is shown.

D. Normalized NRDE-3 IP compared to input small RNA reads in early embryos, late
embryos, and young adults. CSR-target and ERGO-target genes are indicated in blue
and red, respectively. One representative replicate is shown. Insets are pie charts
describing numbers of CSR targets, ERGO targets, and other targets that are
significantly enriched in the NRDE-3 IP. The enriched targets were defined as small
RNAs with at least 2-fold enrichment in IP compared to input, average RPM >10, and p-
values ≤0.05.

E. Box plot depicting $\log_2$(fold change small RNA abundance) in mutants compared to wild-
type in late embryos for two or three biological replicates.

F. Box plots depicting $\log_2$(fold change of ERGO-class small RNA abundance) in NRDE-3
IP compared to input in wild-type and mutants in late embryos for two or three biological
replicates.

G. Box plots depicting $\log_2$(fold change of CSR-class small RNA abundance) in NRDE-3 IP
compared to input in wild-type and mutants in late embryos for two or three biological
replicates.

For box plots in B,E-G, bolded midline indicates median value, box indicates the first and
third quartiles, and whiskers represent the most extreme data points within 1.5 times the
interquartile range, excluding outliers. Two-tailed t-tests were performed to determine
statistical significance and p-values were adjusted for multiple comparisons.

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Figure 6—figure supplement 1. Defining NRDE-3-bound ERGO-target genes.

A. Normalized NRDE-3 IP compared to input small RNA reads in young adults (left), *nrde-3* mutant compared to wild-type small RNA reads in mixed-stage embryos (middle), *nrde-3* mutant compared to wild-type mRNA reads in mixed-stage embryos (right). ERGO-target genes from *Manage et al (2020)* are indicated in yellow. One representative replicate is shown.

B. Normalized NRDE-3 IP compared to input small RNA reads in young adults (left), *nrde-3* mutant compared to wild-type small RNA reads in mixed-stage embryos (middle), *nrde-3* mutant compared to wild-type mRNA reads in mixed-stage embryos (right). ERGO-target genes from *Fischer et al (2011)* are indicated in green. One representative replicate is shown.

C. Normalized NRDE-3 IP compared to input small RNA reads in young adults (left), *nrde-3* mutant compared to wild-type small RNA reads in mixed-stage embryos (middle), *nrde-3* mutant compared to wild-type mRNA reads in mixed-stage embryos (right). NRDE-3-bound, ERGO-target genes are defined as genes with at least four-fold enrichment and an average of 100 RPM from the young adult NRDE-3 IP-sRNA seq libraries, and are indicated in red. One representative replicate is shown.

D. Venn diagrams indicate overlap of ERGO - Manage and ERGO - Fischer targets gene lists with the newly defined NRDE-3-bound, ERGO-target genes.

E. Box plots depicting log2(fold change of small RNA abundance) in a *nrde-3* mutant compared to wild-type in mixed-stage embryos for three biological replicates.

F. Box plots depicting log2(fold change of mRNA abundance) in a *nrde-3* mutant compared to wild-type in mixed-stage embryos for three biological replicates.

For box plots in E,F, bolded midline indicates median value, box indicates the first and third quartiles, and whiskers represent the most extreme data points within 1.5 times the interquartile range, excluding outliers. Two-tailed t-tests were performed to determine statistical significance and p-values were adjusted for multiple comparisons. Adjusted p-values are a comparison of the indicated gene list to all genes in the mixed-stage embryos.

Figure 6—figure supplement 2. NRDE-3-bound small RNA in different mutants.

A. Normalized NRDE-3 IP compared to input small RNA reads in *eri-1* mutant early (left) and late (right) embryos. CSR-target and ERGO-target genes are indicated in blue and red, respectively. One representative replicate is shown.

1634   B. Normalized NRDE-3 IP compared to input small RNA reads in *simr-1* mutant (left) and

1635   *enri-2* mutant (right) late embryos. CSR-target and ERGO-target genes are indicated in

1636   blue and red, respectively. One representative replicate is shown.

1637

Figure 7. NRDE-3 associates with CSR-class 22G-RNAs in early embryos.

A. Venn diagrams indicate overlap of NRDE-3 IP enriched targets in early embryos (this

work), CSR-1 IP enriched targets in young adults (Nguyen *et al.*, 2021), and CSR-1 IP

enriched targets in embryos (Quarato *et al.*, 2021).

B. Normalized NRDE-3 IP compared to input small RNA reads in early embryos. CSR-

target genes with 1-50 RPM, with 50-100 RPM, and with more than 150 RPM are

indicated in light blue, medium blue, and dark blue, respectively. One representative

replicate is shown.

C. Density plot of small RNA enrichment on CSR targets in CSR-1 IP (dark blue), NRDE-3

IP (light blue) in embryos (left) and adults (right). Transcription start site (TSS) to

transcription end site (TES) were plotted using normalized small RNA reads. All

replicates are shown as individual lines.

D. Box plot quantifying the number of embryos laid per adult *csr-1::degron* or *csr::degron,*

gfp::nrde-3(HK-AA) animal on 4mM auxin plate. At least 65 individuals from each strain

were scored. Each dot represents an individual animal, and all data points are shown.

E. Box plot depicting $\log_2$(fold change of H3K9me3 level in IP vs input) in wild-type (grey)

and *nrde-3* mutant (green) mixed-stage embryos, indicating that the H3K9me3 level of

NRDE-3 targets in early embryos are not affected in *nrde-3* mutant. Anti-H3K9me3

ChIP-seq data was obtained from Padeken *et al.* (2021).

For box plots in D-E, bolded midline indicates median value, box indicates the first and

third quartiles, and whiskers represent the most extreme data points within 1.5 times the

interquartile range, excluding outliers. Two-tailed t-tests were performed to determine

statistical significance and p-values were adjusted for multiple comparisons.

1661

Figure 7—figure supplement 1. NRDE-3 associates different classes of small RNAs

during development.

A. Normalized NRDE-3 IP compared to input small RNA reads in late embryos (left) and

young adults (right). CSR-target genes with 1-50 RPM, with 50-100 RPM, and with more

than 150 RPM are indicated in light blue, medium blue, and dark blue, respectively. One

representative replicate is shown.

B. Density plot of small RNA enrichment on ERGO targets in CSR-1 IP (dark red), NRDE-3 IP (light red) in the embryos (left) and adults (right). Transcription start site (TSS) to transcription end site (TES) were plotted using normalized small RNA reads. All replicates are shown as individual lines.

C. Box plots depicting normalized log2(fold change of small RNA abundance in IP vs input) in a NRDE-3 IP in early embryos and CSR IP in embryos for two or three biological replicates. All genes list includes all genes expressed in IP or input. Early degraded mRNAs are maternal mRNAs that show at least twofold reduction in mRNA levels in early embryos (4 to 20 cell-stage) compared to 1-cell embryos (*Quarato et al., 2021*). Late degraded mRNAs are maternal mRNAs that show stable levels of mRNAs in early embryos and at least twofold reduction in late embryos (more than 20-cell stage) (*Quarato et al., 2021*). Zygotic mRNAs are mRNAs that are not detectable in 1-cell embryos but accumulate in early and late embryos (*Quarato et al., 2021*).

D. Box plot depicting mRNA RPM in one-cell embryo (dark blue), early embryo (medium blue), and late embryo (light blue) on NRDE-3 targets in early embryos (this study) and CSR-1 targets in embryos (*Quarato et al., 2021*) (left), and mRNA RPM in one-cell embryo (dark pink), early embryo (medium pink), and late embryo (light pink) on ERGO targets (this study) (right). All biological replicates (two or three) are included. mRNA-seq data was obtained from *Quarato et al. (2021).*

E. Quantification of the fertility for *csr-1::degron* and *csr-1::degron, gfp::nrde-3(HK-AA)* animals on ethanol and 4mM auxin plate. The fertility of each animal was categorized as: hatched (some embryos laid by the animal hatched), >=50 dead embryos (animal laid at least 50 unhatched embryos and no hatched embryos), <50 dead embryos (animal laid less than 50 unhatched embryos and no hatched embryos), no embryos (animal did not lay any embryos). At least 65 individual adult animals of each strain and each condition were used for quantification.

Figure 8. NRDE-3 associates with CSR-class 22G-RNAs to represses RNA Polymerase II in oocytes.

A. Live imaging of GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3 in one-day-adult germlines for wild-type, *eri-1*, *rde-3*, and *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutants, showing that NRDE-3 localizes to the nuclei of oocytes in wild-type, *eri-1* mutant, and *rde-3* mutants, and to the cytoplasm in the *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutant. At least five individual gonads were imaged for each genotype. Dotted

white line traces the proximal portion of the *C. elegans* gonad and outlines the individual

oocytes. Scale bars, 25 μm.

B. Live imaging of one-day-adult germlines and 8-cell embryos for EGO-1::degron;

GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3 (top) and EGO-1::degron; GFP::3xFLAG::NRDE-3 in a *rde-3*

mutant (bottom) with ethanol (control) and 4mM auxin treatment, showing that loss of

both WAGO-class and CSR-class 22G-RNAs (*rde-3* mutant and degron-mediated EGO-

1 depletion) is necessary to result in cytoplasmic localization of NRDE-3 in both oocytes

and early embryos. At least five individual gonads and embryos were imaged for each

treatment condition. Dotted white line traces the proximal portion of the *C. elegans*

gonad and outlines the individual oocytes. Arrowheads indicate granule localized NRDE-

3 in 8-cell stage embryos. Scale bars, 25 μm in adults and 5 μm in embryos.

C. Box plot quantifying the RNA Pol II PSer2 signal intensity in oocytes of wild-type

(GFP::NRDE-3 strain), and *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutant (GFP::NRDE-3(HK-AA) strain),

showing that PSer2 signal is significantly increased in all oocytes in the *nrde-3(HK-AA)*

mutant. Each dot represents an individual oocyte, and all data points are shown. Bolded

midline indicates median value, box indicates the first and third quartiles, and whiskers

represent the most extreme data points within 1.5 times the interquartile range. Two-

tailed t-tests were performed to determine statistical significance. See Materials and

Methods for a detailed description of quantification methods.

D. Bar plot quantifying the RNA Pol II PSer2 expression pattern in wild-type (GFP::NRDE-3

strain), and *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutant (GFP::NRDE-3(HK-AA) strain) oocytes, showing that

the PSer2 signal is retained on DNA longer in the *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutant. At least 10

oocytes were used for quantification for each strain. Examples of three patterns of PSer2

signal are shown on right. Arrows point to a region of DNA to highlight PSer2 enrichment

or exclusion. Scale bars, 2 μm.

E. Immunofluorescence imaging of PSer2 signal and DAPI stained DNA in oocytes of wild-

type (GFP::NRDE-3), and *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutant (GFP::NRDE-3(HK-AA)), showing that

the PSer2 signal appears earlier on DNA in the *nrde-3(HK-AA)* mutant. Images are

maximum intensity projections of 12.5 μm z-stack, which allows for optimal visualization

of the DNA-associated PSer2 signal, but obscures the 'excluded from DNA' pattern. At

least five individual animals for each genotype. Arrows indicate the PSer2 signal on

DNA. Scale bars, 25 μm.

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Figure 9. Model for temporally- and developmentally-regulated NRDE-3 function.

Model of NRDE-3, SIMR-1, and CSR-1 function during *C. elegans* development. In early

embryos, CSR-1 and EGO-1 localize to CSR granules and synthesize CSR 22G-RNAs

to slice and clear maternal mRNAs. NRDE-3 binds CSR 22G-RNA in the nucleus, which

are inherited from the oocytes. During mid-embryogenesis (e.g. around the 100-cell

stage), unloaded NRDE-3, ENRI-2, RRF-1, and RDE-3 are localized to SIMR granules in

somatic cells dependent on SIMR-1, where we propose that ERGO-dependent 22G-

RNAs are produced and loaded into NRDE-3. In late embryos, NRDE-3 binds ERGO-

dependent 22G-RNAs and silences ERGO-target genes in the nucleus, while autophagy

controls selective degradation of SIMR and other embryonic granules. In adult *C.*

elegans, somatic localized NRDE-3 associates with ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs to

transcriptionally silence ERGO-target genes, while germline localized NRDE-3

associates with CSR-class 22G-RNAs to globally repress transcription and promote

chromatin compaction in oocytes, ultimately being deposited into early embryos.

1748

Figure 9—figure supplement 1. Predicted structures of SIMR-1, nuclear Argonaute

proteins, and interactors.

A. Graph displaying disorder tendency for the SIMR-1 protein sequence and AlphaFold3

predicted structures of SIMR-1. The disorder prediction was made using PONDR

(http://www.pondr.com) with VSL2 and VSL3 parameters. Regions with PONDR scores

of greater than 0.5 indicate disorder and regions with PONDR score less than 0.5

indicate order. The AlphaFold3 predicted confidence score of SIMR-1 is shown. The

extended Tudor domain (aa. 89-259) of SIMR-1 is highlighted in orange.

B. AlphaFold3 predicted structures of HRDE-1 - HRDE-2, and NRDE-3 - ENRI-2

complexes, showing that the C-terminus of HRDE-2 and ENRI-2 are inserted into small

RNA binding pockets of HRDE-1 and NRDE-3 respectively. Domains of HRDE-1 and

NRDE-3 are indicated and AlphaFold3 predicted confidence scores are shown.

1761

1762 **Supplementary Files**

1763

1764 **Supplementary File 1. Reagents, resources, and strains used in this study.**

1765

1766 **Supplementary File 2. Oligonucleotides sequences used in this study.**

1767

1768 **Supplementary File 3. Small RNA enrichment in NRDE-3 immunoprecipitations.**

1769

1770 **Supplementary File 4. Sequencing library statistics.**

1771

1772 **Source Data Files**

1773

1774 **Figure 1—source data 1**

1775 This file contains the raw data used to generate the graph of SIMR granule number shown in

1776 Figure 1C.

1777

1778 **Figure 1—figure supplement 2—source data 1**

1779 This file contains the original western blots of ENRI-1::mCherry::2xHA used in creating Figure

1780 1—figure supplement 2D.

1781

1782 **Figure 2—source data 1**

1783 This file contains the raw data used to generate the graphs of NRDE-3 granule number shown

1784 in Figure 2B-C.

1785

1786 **Figure 2—figure supplement 1—source data 1**

1787 This file contains the original western blots of GFP::NRDE-3 used in creating Figure 2—figure

1788 supplement 1B and the raw data used to generate the graphs of NRDE-3 granule number

1789 shown in Figure 2—figure supplement 1D.

1790

1791 **Figure 3—figure supplement 1—source data 1**

1792 This file contains the original western blots of GFP::NRDE-3 used in creating Figure 3—figure

1793 supplement 1A.

1794

1795 **Figure 4—source data 1**

1796 This file contains the raw data used to generate the graphs of colocalization analysis and CSR-1

1797 granule number shown in Figure 4B, G.

1798

1799 **Figure 5—source data 1**

1800 This file contains the raw data used to generate the graph of SIMR granule number shown in

1801 Figure 5B.

1802

1803 **Figure 5—figure supplement 1—source data 1**

1804 This file contains the raw data used to generate the graphs of colocalization analysis shown in

1805 Figure 5—figure supplement 1—source data 1B.

1806

1807 **Figure 7—source data 1**

1808 This file contains the raw data used to generate the graph of number of embryos laid shown in

1809 Figure 7D.

1810

1811 **Figure 8—source data 1**

1812 This file contains the raw data used to generate the graphs of oocyte PSer2 signal intensity and

1813 pattern number shown in Figure 8C-D.

1814

A

mass spectrometry interactions				
	SIMR-1	NRDE-3	ENRI-2	ENRI-1
SIMR-1 IP (adult)	NA	2/3	0/3	0/3
NRDE-3 IP (embryo)	2/5	NA	2/5	5/5
ENRI-2 IP (embryo)	3/3	3/3	NA	0/3
ENRI-1 IP (embryo)	0/3	3/3	0/3	NA

C

SIMR-1 granule number in embryos

B

Figure 1. SIMR-1 and ENRI-2 colocalize at somatic granules in embryos.

A

NRDE-3 pathway   CSR-1 pathway

Primary

ERI-1

ERGO-class
26G-RNAs

ERGO-1

Secondary

RRF-1 RDE-3

unknown trigger

EGO-1

ERGO-dependent
22G-RNAs

CSR-class
22G-RNAs

NRDE-3

CSR-1

B

Summary of NRDE-3 and CSR-1 small RNA pathway proteins			
	Gene name	Description	References
NRDE-3 pathway	ERI-1	DEDDh-like 3' to 5' exonuclease, member of the ERI complex, required for 26G-RNA biogenesis	Kennedy et al., 2004
	ERGO-1	Primary Argonaute protein, binds to 26G-RNAs	Yigit et al., 2006
	RRF-1	RdRP, required for WAGO-class 22G-RNA biogenesis, and required redundantly with EGO-1 for CSR-class 22G-RNA biogenesis	Aoki et al., 2007; Gu et al., 2009
	RDE-3/MUT-2	Poly(UG) polymerase, required for WAGO-class 22G-RNA biogenesis	Phillips et al., 2012; Shukla et al., 2020
	NRDE-3	Nuclear Argonaute protein, binds to ERGO-dependent 22G-RNAs for gene silencing	Guang et al., 2008
CSR-1 pathway	EGO-1	RdRP, required for biogenesis of CSR-class 22G RNAs	Gu et al., 2009
	CSR-1	Argonaute protein, binds to CSR-class 22G-RNAs for gene licencing in the germline, and maternal transcripts clearance in early embryos	Claycomb et al., 2009; Quarato et al., 2021

Figure 1—figure supplement 1. Summary of NRDE-3 and CSR-1 small RNA pathway and components.

Figure 1—figure supplement 2. Expression of NRDE-3, SIMR-1, and ENRI-1.

Figure 2. Unloaded NRDE-3 localizes to cytoplasmic granules with SIMR-1.

Figure 2—figure supplement 1. NRDE-3 and SIMR-1 localization and expression in various mutants.

Figure 3. SIMR-1 recruits ENRI-2 and then NRDE-3 to cytoplasmic granules.

Figure 3—figure supplement 1. NRDE-3(HK-AA) and ENRI-1 localization in various mutants.

Figure 4. CSR and WAGO pathway proteins localize to distinct cytoplasmic granules.

Figure 4—figure supplement 1. SIMR-1 does not colocalize with any previously identified embryonic granules.

Figure 5. Autophagy regulates the removal of SIMR granules and other embryonic granules.

Figure 5—figure supplement 1. Components of the SIMR granule are regulated by autophagy.

Figure 6. NRDE-3 switches small RNA targets during development.

Figure 6—figure supplement 1. Defining NRDE-3-bound ERGO-target genes.

Figure 6—figure supplement 2. NRDE-3 bound small RNA in different mutants.

Figure 7. NRDE-3 associates with CSR-class 22G-RNAs in early embryos.

Figure 7—figure supplement 1. NRDE-3 associates different classes of small RNAs during development.

Figure 8. NRDE-3 associates with CSR-class 22G-RNAs to represses RNA Polymerase II in oocytes.

Figure 9. Model for temporally- and developmentally-regulated NRDE-3 function.

Figure 9—figure supplement 1. Predicted structures of SIMR-1, nuclear Argonaute proteins, and interactors.