The nascent RNA labelling compound 5-ethynyl uridine (EU)

integrates into DNA in the sea anemone *Nematostella*

vectensis

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Abstract

The detection of *de novo* synthesized mRNA transcripts is crucial for understanding the regulation of eukaryotic transcription. Using nucleoside or nucleotide analogues to label nascent RNA is complicated by the ubiquitous presence of ribonucleotide reductase enzymes (RNRs) that convert ribonucleotides into 2'-deoxyribonucleotides, the building blocks of DNA. Despite this challenge, the uridine analogue 5-ethynyl uridine (EU) has been commercialized and routinely used as specific label for nascent RNAs. Here, we employ confocal imaging, flow cytometry and biochemistry methods to demonstrate that EU integrates into RNA and at considerable levels into DNA in the sea anemone *Nematostella vectensis*. We show that inhibiting RNR by hydroxyurea abolishes cell proliferation and the incorporation of EU into DNA. Alternative compounds for labelling nascent RNA, such as 5-ethynyl cytidine (EC), 5-ethynyl uridine triphosphate (EUTP) or 2-ethynyl adenosine (EA) show similarly low specificity for integrating into RNA. Our findings indicate that ethynylated nucleosides and nucleotides, including EU, do not specifically integrate into RNA in *Nematostella*, rendering them unsuitable for visualising nascent RNAs. Based on our results and a critical review of the literature, we suggest good practice guidelines for using EU as an RNA labelling tool and discuss pitfalls and indicators that hint at unintended DNA labelling.

Summary statement

A cautionary tale about the integration of the RNA labelling compound EU (5-ethynyl uridine) into DNA in a sea anemone.

Introduction

The regulation of eukaryotic gene expression is crucial for maintaining basic cellular
functions and adapting to environmental changes. In multicellular organisms (e.g.,
animals, plants), transcriptional regulation ensures that genes are expressed at the
right time, place and levels to control embryonic development and adult homeostasis
(Desvergne et al., 2006; Kaufmann et al., 2010; Levine, 2010). Intricate gene
regulatory networks underlie the development and evolution of complex cell types and
cellular specializations found in animals (Arendt et al., 2016; Hobert, 2008; Levine,
2010), plants (Chen et al., 2018) and some unicellular eukaryotes such as
Plasmodium sp. (Briquet et al., 2020). A key aspect of studying gene regulation is the
detection, quantification and analysis of *de novo* mRNA synthesis. As standard RNA
extraction and detection procedures cannot discriminate between stored and actively
transcribed mRNAs, modified nucleosides (i.e. nucleobase bound to a ribose) have
been introduced in the 1960s to label and isolate nascent RNAs (Konrad, 1963; Perry,
1962; Scherrer and Darnell, 1962; Uddin et al., 1984). Before they can be integrated
into RNA, nucleosides need to be tri-phosphorylated by specific nucleoside kinases to
become nucleosides triphosphates (NTPs) (Voet et al., 2016). The intermediate
nucleoside diphosphates (NDPs) are however not only a precursor of NTPs and RNA
synthesis. Highly conserved ribonucleotide reductase (RNR) enzymes can convert
NDPs into 2'-deoxy-NDPs (dNDPs) that act as precursors for DNA synthesis (Voet et
al., 2016). This conserved function of RNRs to convert nucleotides into 2'-
deoxynucleotides, discovered decades ago, is an essential and rate-limiting step for
DNA synthesis in bacteria, eukaryotes and archaea (Greene et al., 2020; Jordan and
Reichard, 1998; Nordlund and Reichard, 2006). The use of modified nucleotides
therefore risks labelling not only nascent RNA but also replicating DNA. Indeed, the
radioactively labelled nucleoside ^{3}H-uridine, ^{3}H-cytidine or uracil precursor ^{3}H-orotic
acid, which have been developed decades ago to quantify nascent RNA synthesis via
autoradiography, have been repeatedly found integrating at significant levels into DNA
(Amano et al., 1965; Uddin et al., 1984). For example, the pyrimidine analogue 5-
fluorouracil (5-FU) used in chemotherapy was found integrated into RNA (as 5-FU
triphosphate; 5-FUTP) and DNA (as 5-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine-5'-triphosphate; 5-

FdUTP) of cancer cells (Chalabi-Dchar et al., 2021; Longley et al., 2003; Major et al.,

1982). Similarly, the ribonucleosides cytosine arabinoside (cytarabine or Ara-C) and

9-β-D-arabinofuranosyl-2-fluoroadenine (F-ara-A) integrate into DNA and RNA

primers during DNA synthesis. This capacity, leading to the inhibition of DNA

replication, makes these compounds useful as chemotherapeutic agent to block

proliferation in rapidly dividing acute myeloid leukaemia cells (Messikommer et al.,

2020; Spriggs et al., 1986).

The recently developed nucleoside 5-ethynyl uridine (EU) uses 'click chemistry' as

detection method for covalently coupling fluorophores in a one-step, copper-catalysed

reaction. This approach avoids harsh denaturation steps necessary for

immunodetection and offers enhanced safety and sensitivity. EU has also been

claimed to specifically label RNA in mammalian cell lines (NIH 3T3), suggesting that it

constitutes a poor substrate for RNR (Jao and Salic, 2008). Since its introduction in

2008, EU has therefore been widely adopted to visualise and quantify global nascent

RNA synthesis and turnover in eukaryotic cells or tissues using confocal microscopy.

Examples include plants (Dvorackova and Fajkus, 2018) and various animals such as

mice (Jao and Salic, 2008), *Drosophila* (Mikhaleva et al., 2019), snails (Ierusalimsky

and Balaban, 2016; Ierusalimsky and Balaban, 2018) and cnidarians such as

Hydractinia (Febrimarsa et al., 2023) or *Nematostella* (Amiel et al., 2015). Many

studies have used EU for nascent RNA labelling without thoroughly considering a dual

integration into both RNA and DNA.

Here, we aimed to establish an EU-based assay to visualise and quantify *de novo*

transcriptional levels in the sea anemone *Nematostella vectensis*. It has recently been

shown that growth and proliferation rates of juvenile *Nematostella* polyps are strongly

dependent on food supply (Garschall et al., 2024). We therefore wanted to employ the

EU-Click system in *Nematostella* to visualise and quantify changes in nascent RNA

abundance upon starvation and re-feeding. We found that EU and several other

ethynylated nucleosides or nucleotides intensively label DNA of proliferative cells in

addition to RNA. This dual labelling of DNA and RNA thus renders EU unsuitable for

visualising and quantifying *de novo* RNA transcripts in *Nematostella*. Our results also

prompted us to critically evaluate the previous literature and propose guidelines to
prevent inadvertently identifying EU-labelled DNA as nascent RNA.

Results

EU strongly labels nuclei of proliferating cells

We aimed to establish Click chemistry-based EU labelling (Jao and Salic, 2008) to
visualise and quantify *de novo* RNA transcripts in fed juveniles of the sea anemone
Nematostella vectensis (Fig. 1A). Using flow cytometry (Supplementary Fig. 1 &
Methods), we benchmarked EU in different concentrations (0.5mM, 1mM and 5mM)
to determine the optimal working concentration. We found that 2h incubation with
0.5mM and 1mM resulted in similar, but small, fractions of EU-labelled cells (i.e. EU
index) and fluorescent signal intensities, and in a reduction of the EU index and signal
intensity at 5mM (Supplementary Fig. 2). As this result might indicate that higher EU
concentrations inhibit uptake or integration, we decided to use 0.5mM as standard
working concentration for EU incubation.

We then used confocal imaging to show that after a 2-hours long 0.5mM EU pulse
labelling of juvenile *Nematostella*, an unexpectedly small subset of cells exhibited high
EU signal (Fig. 1B-C''). Within these EU+ cells, the fluorescent signal appeared
broadly distributed throughout the nuclei (Fig. 1C, D-D'''), unlike the intense signal in
the nucleolus described from EU labelling in other systems (Bryant et al., 2022;
Dvorackova and Fajkus, 2018). To test if active mRNA transcription is limited to a
small fraction of cells in *Nematostella* juveniles, we used immunofluorescence to
detect phosphorylated Ser-2 (pSer2) on RNA polymerase II C-terminal repeats that
mark active transcription elongation. In contrast to the EU signal, however, pSer2 was
detected in all cells (Supplementary Fig. 3).

The spatial distribution and relative proportion of EU+ cells mirrored the results
obtained by labelling proliferative cells in fed juveniles with EdU, a 2'-deoxynucleoside
analogue that integrates into DNA during S-phase (Garschall et al., 2024). A direct
comparison showed that indeed, the EU signal strongly resembles the EdU signal after
a 2 hours-long incubation both in appearance and abundance (compare Fig. 1C-C''
with 1E-E''). As both EU and EdU contain ethynyl moieties, they cannot be

independently click-labelled with two different alkynylated fluorophores. We therefore

co-incubated EU with BrdU as alternative to EdU and found that they co-localize to

the nuclei of the same epidermal cells (Fig. 1F-F'''). To test if EU+ cells are indeed

undergoing DNA replication during S-phase, we quantified their DNA content using

flow cytometry (Fig. 1G, H; see Supplementary Fig. 1 and Methods for gating strategy).

We confirmed that the EU+ cells constitute only a small fraction (6±0.3%) of all cells

(Fig. 1G) and that their DNA content ranges between 2N and 4N as is typical for S-

phase cells (Fig. 1H). Altogether, our results thus indicate that EU consistently labels

the nucleus of proliferating cells in *Nematostella*.

EU signal in proliferating cells is insensitive to RNase A, RNase H and the

transcriptional inhibitor actinomycin D

In many organisms, DNA replication during S-phase is accompanied by mRNA

transcription (Wang et al., 2021). Also, DNA primase enzymes generate RNA primers

necessary for the initiation of DNA replication of both the lagging and leading strand

(Alberts et al., 2016). We therefore tested if the strong nuclear labels of EU and EdU

(as control) are sensitive to RNase A that degrades single-stranded RNA (Sharma et

al., 1993), or to RNase H that degrades RNA hybridized to DNA (Stein and Hausen,

1969). We found that neither RNase A nor RNase H treatments had any effect on the

intensity of the EU or EdU signal (Fig. 2C-F), supporting that both EU and EdU

integrated into DNA.

If EU labelled DNA, the signal should also be insensitive to RNA transcription inhibitors

such as actinomycin D (ActD) that inhibits RNA synthesis by intercalating into

transcriptionally active DNA (Goldberg et al., 1962; Sobell, 1985). ActD has previously

been used as inhibitor of RNA transcription to validate that EU integration into RNA is

transcription-dependent in cultured cells (Jao and Salic, 2008). We observed that

neither low (0.2μM) nor high concentrations (8μM) of ActD, applied before and during

a 2 hours-long EU or EdU pulse, affected the nuclear EU or EdU staining in

Nematostella (Fig. 2G-J). EU labelling of the nucleus in proliferative cells is thus

insensitive to transcription inhibition by ActD and to RNase A and H treatments,

leading us to conclude that EU integrates into DNA during S-phase.

Integration of EU into DNA can be explained by a multistep conversion of EU to EdU

that involves a reduction of the ribose to 2'-deoxyribose by the highly conserved RNR

enzyme. We tested this possibility by using hydroxyurea (HU), a selective inhibitor of

RNR which broadly arrests the cell cycle in S-phase, for example in *Hydra* (Buzgariu

et al., 2018; Fujisawa and David, 1982), likely by a depletion of the dNTP pool (Skoog

and Nordenskjold, 1971; Slater, 1973). In previous studies, this assay was used to

confirm that EU specifically integrates into RNA during transcription, a process that

should be RNR-independent (Jao and Salic, 2008; Qu et al., 2013). As expected, we

found that 20μM HU incubation abolishes EdU labelling (Fig. 2L) and thus blocks cell

proliferation. Interestingly, HU treatment in *Nematostella* also abolished EU-labelling

of nuclei in proliferating cells (Fig. 2K). This further confirms that EU integrates into

DNA of proliferating cells, possibly after being converted into EdU by RNR.

Finally, we tested if EU is detected in total RNA or genomic DNA of incubated animals

using a dot blot approach (Fig. 3A). We found that EU was detected in both the RNase

A-treated DNA and DNase I-treated RNA fractions (Fig. 3B, D, F, G), showing that EU

integrated not only into DNA, but also into RNA.

EU also weakly labels RNA in small, nucleoli-like structures

The finding of EU integrating into RNA led us to revisit confocal imaging of EU-labelled

juveniles using increased laser intensity and detector sensitivities. We indeed found

weak EU signal in small, punctate structures of most nuclei, potentially highlighting

nucleolar RNA transcription (Fig. 4A-A"). Due to the oversaturation of the fluorescent

signal in replicating DNA of proliferative cells, we could not determine if they contain

additional EU+ nucleolar puncta. The nucleolar signal was sensitive to 200μg/ml

RNase A treatment, while the strong label in proliferating cells remained unaffected

(Fig. 4B-B"). In contrast to EU, incubation with EdU did not label any nucleolus-like

structures, indicating that the low signal consists indeed of labelled RNA (Fig. 4C-D").

Aiming to further test this assumption, we studied if the nucleolar-like label was

affected by inhibiting transcriptional activity with ActD (Fig. 4E, F). We observed that

0.2μM ActD had no detectable effect on nucleolar EU labelling (Fig. 4E). Instead, 8μM

ActD (Amiel et al., 2015) abolished any detectable EU+ puncti (Fig. 4F), indicating that

their labelling is dependent on transcriptional activity. Inhibiting RNR by using 20μM

hydroxyurea did not affect nucleolar EU staining, while the previously described strong

nuclear staining in proliferating cells was lost (Fig. 4G). Altogether, our results support

the conclusion that the weak, punctate EU signal corresponds to nascent ribosomal

RNA. The potential dual integration of EU into RNA and DNA raises the question if

supplementation with dNTPs could outcompete EU during DNA but not RNA

synthesis. Providing exogenous dNTPs in excess, however, did not result in any major

changes in the EU label of the nucleoli or in proliferating cells (Fig. 4H). Altogether,

our results suggest that EU is incorporated into both the DNA of proliferating cells and

the RNA of transcriptionally active cells in *Nematostella*.

5-ethynyl-UTP, 5-ethynyl cytidine and 5-ethynyl adenosine are also not

specifically labelling RNA

The dual labelling of DNA and RNA strongly limits the use of EU to visualise and

quantify *de novo* RNA transcription levels in *Nematostella*. In search for alternatives,

we explored the potential of 5-ethynyl-UTP (EUTP) to specifically label nascent RNA

in *Nematostella*, reasoning that it is likely not a direct substrate for RNR and can be

directly integrated into RNA (Long et al., 2022). In addition, we tested the labelling

characteristics of 5-ethynyl cytidine (EC) and 5-ethynyl adenosine (EA) as potential

alternatives. For EUTP and EC, we consistently found a strong, RNase A-insensitive

signal in a small subset of nuclei and a weak, RNase A-sensitive signal in small

nuclear puncta (Fig. 5A-D'). This strongly indicates that there are no obvious

differences in the labelling characteristics between EUTP, EC and EU. In contrast, EA

incubation led to broad, RNase A-insensitive labelling of the cytoplasm throughout the

epidermis (Fig. 5E, F) and especially in longitudinal and circular muscle cells (Fig.

5G)(Jahnel et al., 2014). Altogether, we conclude that EUTP, EC or EA are not suitable

alternatives to EU for the specific labelling of nascent RNA transcripts in *Nematostella*.

Discussion

Combining EU incubation with click chemistry-based fluorophore labelling promises a

quick, easy and commercially available method to specifically visualise nascent RNA

and transcriptional levels. In this study, in contrast to our expectations, we found that

EU considerably labelled nuclear DNA of proliferating cells in the sea anemone *Nematostella vectensis*. Using confocal imaging, we showed that EU and BrdU co-localized to a subset of nuclei in S-phase. In addition, we found that this strong nuclear EU label in proliferative cells was not sensitive to RNase A or H. Instead, it was abolished by hydroxyurea, which inhibits RNR enzymes that are essential to salvage ribonucleotides for DNA synthesis (Greene et al., 2020; Jordan and Reichard, 1998; Nordlund and Reichard, 2006). Biochemically, we detected EU in RNase A-treated, genomic DNA extracts, further confirming that EU integrates into DNA. Together, our data suggest that the strong nuclear EU label corresponds to replicated DNA strands and are compatible with a scenario where RNR is part of the metabolic network converting EU into EdUTP.

In addition, confocal imaging at higher sensitives revealed that EU labels small, nucleolus-like puncta that were sensitive to RNase A treatment and to high concentrations of the transcriptional inhibitor actinomycin D. The biochemical detection of EU in DNase I-treated total RNA extracts confirmed integration of EU into RNA. Our results strongly support that EU integrates into RNA and to a considerable extent into DNA. Therefore, our study demonstrates the strong limitations of using EU-click labelling to visualise and quantify nascent RNA in *Nematostella* via confocal imaging, flow cytometry or fluorescence-assisted cell sorting (FACS). Likely, EU and other labelled nucleosides remain useful for nascent RNA sequencing approaches, such as 4sU-Seq (i.e. 4-thiouridine sequencing)(Rabani et al., 2011; Radle et al., 2013) or GRO-Seq (Global Run-On Sequencing)(Core et al., 2008), as EU-labelled DNA is removed during the sample and library preparation process. It should be noted however that high DNA integration rates likely result in low EU-RNA labelling yields.

To our knowledge, EU has so far not previously been reported to label both RNA and DNA in cell cultures or multicellular organisms. This is somewhat surprising as multiple studies have reported a dual labelling of RNA and DNA by other labelled nucleosides or nucleotides (see also introduction) (Chalabi-Dchar et al., 2021; Longley et al., 2003; Major et al., 1982). Our study reinforces these doubts on the general use of labelled nucleosides or nucleotides to specifically label RNA, which is often assumed but rarely verified in direct and systematic ways. Strongly proliferating tissues are especially

prone to dual labelling as their high demands in dNTPs could increase the likelihood

that EU is channelled towards DNA replication and converted into EdUTP. While

thoroughly screening the literature, we indeed found recurring reports of EU strongly

labelling the whole nucleus – and not only the small nucleolar parts – in a subset of

cells in highly proliferative tissues. Examples of this pattern, reminiscent of DNA

labelling by EdU or BrdU, were found during *Nematostella* regeneration (Amiel et al.,

2015), in the larval zebrafish brain (Akbalik et al., 2017), the mouse intestinal crypt

cells (Jao and Salic, 2008; Qu et al., 2013), spermaries (Naro et al., 2017), embryonic

cortex (Zhang et al., 2024) and cerebellum (Van't Sant et al., 2021).

The specificity of RNA labelling is commonly validated by using transcriptional

inhibitors such as ActD (Jao and Salic, 2008; Nainar et al., 2020), or α-Amanitin

(Kedinger et al., 1970; Lindell et al., 1970). Previous reports show however that the

resulting transcriptional stress can also induce DNA damage and inhibit the cell cycle

(Van't Sant et al., 2021). Therefore, these inhibitors can be unreliable to validate RNA

specificity as the loss of EU signal after using ActD or α-Amanitin can also result from

inhibiting DNA replication. While ActD was effective in *Nematostella* to discriminate

between EU-labelled DNA and RNA label, its use might be more problematic in other

systems.

Another validation assay used to demonstrate the specificity of RNA labelling is to

show that the EU label is insensitive to DNase I digestion (Zocher et al., 2024). It is

important to note that formaldehyde-based methods used for tissue fixation leads to

covalent bonds between DNA and proteins (Hoffman et al., 2015). Due to these stable

protein-DNA complexes, treatment of EU-labelled DNA with DNase I would not

necessarily lead to a significant change in the signal intensity. This phenomenon is

observed in BrdU detection assays, where DNase I digestion is used to enhance

antibody accessibility without significantly compromising the BrdU signal (Tkatchenko,

2006).

The specificity of EU has been validated most extensively in *in vitro* systems (e.g. NIH

3T3 or HeLa cells) with the assumption that the results are transferrable to more

complex animal systems, such as mice (Jao and Salic, 2008; Qu et al., 2013). We

cannot conclusively evaluate the validity of this assumption, but our findings underscore the importance of standardized controls to validate the specificity of EU or other nucleotide-based RNA labelling methods in all experimentally relevant contexts. Based on our experience and observations, we found that the following EU-labelling characteristics are indicative of DNA integration:

- Broad labelling of the nucleus without clear nucleolar signal
- Condensed chromosome labelling in dividing cells
- Nuclear labelling of a smaller subset of cells in proliferative tissues
- Insensitivity to RNase A treatment
- Insensitivity to transcriptional inhibitors (e.g. ActD)

The occurrence of one or several of these features should prompt further validation experiments. We propose the following good practice guidelines when using EU to visualise nascent RNAs:

- **RNA specificity of EU labelling should always be validated by RNase A or T1 treatment.** EU signal originating from the integration into RNA should be sensitive to RNase A or T1 treatment. In contrast, EU-labelled DNA will not be removed by RNase A or T1 treatment and may be insensitive to DNase I treatment in fixed tissues (see above).

- **High variation of EU labelling in proliferative tissues or in cell culture should be investigated by direct comparison with EdU or BrdU labelling.** A direct comparison between cells labelled by EU and EdU or BrdU will help revealing differences or similarities in labelling frequency, intensity and location. We propose co-labelling of EU and BrdU on the same tissue to test if EU integrates into replicating DNA of proliferative cells.

- **Potential cell cycle off-target effects should be considered when using transcriptional inhibitors to control for RNA specificity.** Inhibition of transcription often causes cellular stress that can alter the cell cycle, thus affecting DNA synthesis rate or leading to cell death. Any resulting loss of EU signal may therefore be caused by decreased transcription or blocked proliferation.

320   Due to the strong limitations of EU and other RNA labelling compounds, the
321   development of new ribonucleotide analogues that more specifically label nascent
322   RNA in a wider range of organisms is necessary. Understanding the metabolic steps
323   leading to the integration of EU into DNA will help developing more specific RNA
324   labelling tools.

Methods

Animal culture

Adult *Nematostella vectensis* polyps derive from the original CH6 female and CH2
male lab strains and were cultured as previously described (Fritzenwanker and
Technau, 2002; Hand and Uhlinger, 1992). Shortly, adults were kept at 18°C in 16‰
salt concentration. The juveniles *Nematostella vectensis* polyps used in this study
result from crosses between wild type animals and were raised at 25°C in a darkened
incubator at 16‰ salt concentration (*Nematostella* medium). Polyps were fed 5x/week
with *Artemia* nauplii and grown until they had developed the second pair of
mesenteries when they were defined as 'juveniles'. The culture medium was replaced
on the same day after each feeding.

EU, EdU, EC, EUTP or EA labelling

Working concentrations for EU (5-ethynyl uridine, Invitrogen) were determined by
testing the fraction and fluorescent signal intensity of EU-labelled cells (EU index) by
flow cytometry after incubation of 0.5mM, 1mM and 5mM. As the EU index was similar
between 0.5mM and 1mM but reduced in the 5mM EU treatment (Supplementary Fig.
2A) and the fluorescent signal intensity decreased with EU concentration
(Supplementary Fig. 2B), all labelling experiments were carried out at 0.5mM EU.

Nematostella juveniles were prepared for incubations by relaxing them for 15 min in
50mM $MgCl_2$ in *Nematostella* medium. Relaxed animals were then transferred to
labelling medium containing 2% DMSO, 50mM $MgCl_2$ and 0.5mM EU, 0.5mM EdU (5-
ethynyl 2'-deoxyuridine, Invitrogen), 0.5mM EC (5-ethynyl cytidine, Jena Bioscience),
0.5mM EUTP (5-ethynyl UTP, Jena Bioscience) or 0.5mM EA (2-ethynyl adenosine,
Jena Bioscience). All incubations were carried out for 2h at RT. For unlabelled

controls, we used animals that were only exposed to 2% DMSO and 50mM MgCl$_2$. Up

to 15 animals were incubated in a single well of a 12-well plate, or up to 50 animals

when using a 6-well plate. Following incorporation, the animals were briefly rinsed with

Nematostella medium containing 50mM MgCl$_2$ before fixation and dissociation.

Fixation and sample preparation for whole mount confocal microscopy

After incubation with EU, EdU, EC, EUTP, EA and/or BrdU the relaxed polyps were

transferred gently into fixation solution (1x PBS, 3.7% FA, 0.2% TritonX, 0.5% DMSO),

incubated for 30 min at RT followed by an over-night fixation in fresh fixative at 4°C.

After fixation, the polyps were washed 3-5x with PTx (1x PBS, 0.2% TritonX) for

permeabilization, briefly blocked in PBTx (1x PBS, 0.2% TritonX, 3% BSA) and rinsed

with 1x PBS. The Click-iT™ reaction cocktail containing an Alexa fluorophore azide

(Alexa488 or Alexa555) was added to all samples, including unlabelled controls, and

incubated for 30 min at RT in the dark according to manufacturer protocol (Click-iT™

Nascent RNA/cell proliferation kit, Invitrogen). The polyps were then washed 3-5x with

PTx (1x PBS, 0.2% TritonX), incubated with Hoechst33342 (1:5000) and mounted for

confocal microscopy.

Cell maceration using ACME and Click-iT™ reaction on cell suspensions

For blotting of extracted DNA or RNA or to quantify the proportion and signal intensity

of EU cells by flow cytometry, polyps were dissociated and fixed after labelling by

adapting the 'ACetic acid/MEthanol' (ACME) maceration protocol to *Nematostella*

juveniles as previously described (García-Castro et al., 2021; Garschall et al., 2024).

Shortly, 5ml of fresh ACME solution (15% methanol/10% glacial acetic acid/10%

glycerol in Milli-Q water) were added to labelled polyps in gentleMACS™ C-tubes

(Miltenyi Biotec). During the ACME incubation, all tubes were kept on a see-saw

shaker. Dissociation using the gentleMACS™ tissue homogenizer (Miltenyi Biotec)

was started after 10 min by running the program "B_01" for initial dissociation, followed

by four runs of the "Multi_A_01" programme over the following 50 min until all tissue

was dissociated. The resulting cell suspension was washed twice with 10ml of ice-cold

1×PBS/1% BSA, pelleted for 5min at 800g at 4°C, resuspended in 1ml of 1× PBS/1%

BSA and filtered through a pre-wetted 50μm CellTrics strainer (Sysmex). The resulting

cells were permeabilized with PTx (1x PBS, 0.2% TritonX) at RT for 15 min, washed

with 1x PBS and incubated for 30 min at RT in the dark with a modified Click reaction

cocktail (Click-iT™ Nascent RNA kit, Invitrogen) where the reaction buffer was

replaced by 1x PBS. The cells were then pelleted in a centrifuge by spinning for 5min

at 800g at 4°C. Cells were then washed with PTx and transferred to 1xPBS containing

1% BSA for short term storage at 4°C or to 90% Methanol long-term storage at -20°C.

EU/BrdU co-labelling assay and RNA Pol II-Ser2 immunofluorescence

The EU/EdU co-labelling mix was prepared by combining 100μM BrdU (5-Bromo-2´-

deoxyuridine, Invitrogen) and 500μM EU in *Nematostella* medium with 2% DMSO and

50mM $MgCl_2$. After 2h of incubation, animals were rinsed with *Nematostella* medium

containing 50mM $MgCl_2$, followed by fixation and the Click-iT™ reaction to Alexa

Fluor™ 555 (Invitrogen) as mentioned above.

To make the DNA accessible for BrdU immunostaining, the tissue was incubated with

2M HCl in 1xPBS for 30 min at RT, followed by multiple washes with PBTx (1x PBS,

3% BSA, 0.2% TritonX) and a blocking step for 2h at RT in blocking solution (5% NGS,

3% BSA and 0.02% TritonX in 1x PBS). The primary anti-BrdU rabbit antibody 1:500

(Invitrogen, PA5-32256) was diluted in blocking solution and incubated o/n at 4°C on

a rotation shaker without inversion. After 3 washes with PBTx, the tissue was blocked

for 1h at RT in freshly prepared blocking solution and incubated for 2h at RT with

1:1000 goat-anti-rabbit-Alexa488 antibody (Invitrogen, A-11034), 1:5000

Hoechst33342 (Life Technologies) in blocking solution. Samples were then washed 3

times in PTx to reduce unspecific signal.

For the immunofluorescence labelling of RNA Pol II CTD repeat YSPTSPS phospho-

Ser2 (AB5095, Abcam), indicative of active transcription, polyps were fixed after 2h

EU incorporation o/n at 4°C, washed and blocked for 1h in blocking solution (5% NGS,

3% BSA and 0.02% TritonX in 1x PBS). Primary antibody (AB5095, Abcam) was

diluted 1:500 in blocking solution and incubated at 4°C over night on a rotation shaker

without inversion. Samples were washed 5 times with PBTx (1x PBS, 3% BSA, 0.2%

TritonX) and blocked for 30 min in blocking solution at RT. Secondary goat-anti-rabbit-

Alexa488 antibody (Invitrogen, A-11034) was added 1:1000 along with 1:5000

Hoechst33342 and incubated for 2 h at RT. Samples were then washed 3 times and
mounted for confocal microscopy.

Confocal imaging

Images of whole mount polyps were taken using juvenile polyps that were cut
transversally using a razorblade, and mid-section pieces were mounted on slides
using ProLong Gold™ (Invitrogen). Confocal imaging was performed using an
Olympus FLUOVIEW FV3000 confocal microscope with standard PMT detectors and
a 60x silicon-immersion lens. All epidermal images were recorded as z-stacks using
laser power and sensor sensitivity settings that were kept identical between
acquisitions within each of these groups of images: (i) strong nuclear EU label in
proliferating cells (Fig. 2A, C, E, G, I, K); (iia) nucleolar EU/EdU label (Fig. 4A-D'') or
(iib) Fig. 4E-H; (iii) EdU label (Fig. 2B, D, F, H, J, L); (iv) EUTP nuclear label (Fig. 5A-
B); (v) EUTP nucleolar label (Fig. 5A'-B'); (vi) EC nuclear label (Fig. 5C-D); (vii) EC
nucleolar label (Fig. 5C'-D'); (viii) EA label (Fig. 5E-F). Images were consistently
adjusted for brightness and contrast over all images within each group of images using
the QuickFigures PlugIn (Mazo, 2021) in Fiji/ImageJ (Schindelin et al., 2012;
Schindelin et al., 2015), except for the DNA stain that has been adjusted differently
between images.

Flow cytometry

For each of the experimental conditions (0.5mM, 1mM or 5mM EU), 2 (2% DMSO
control) or 3 (all others) replicate pools of 7 juveniles each were dissociated and fixed
using ACME and coupled to Alexa Fluor™ 555 as described above. The cell
suspensions were stained with 1μg/ml FxCycle violet DNA dye (Invitrogen) at 4°C
over-night and run on an LSRFortessa™ (BD Life Sciences) flow cytometer. EU-
labelled cells were analysed using FlowJo version 10.8 (BD Life Sciences) (see gating
strategy Supplementary Fig. S1). Shortly, individual cells were gated using FSC and
SSC parameters before selecting for cells with a FxCycle violet DNA signal ranging
between 2N and 4N. Within this cell population, cells were considered EU positive if
their Alexa555 signal was above the threshold of the unlabelled, 2% DMSO samples.

Individual cells were visualised after flow cytometry by adding 2 µg/ml Concanavalin

A conjugated to Alexa Fluor™ 488 to label cytosol in EU-labelled cell suspensions.

Flow cytometry data analysis

441   The fraction of EU positive cells in flow cytometry as well as their fluorescent intensity

442   were analysed between different concentration of EU (0.5mM/1mM/5mM) using One-

443   way ANOVA. Pairwise comparisons between the different EU concentrations were

444   calculated in Tukey's multiple comparison test and adjusted p-values indicated as

445   asterisks (Supplementary Figure 2).

Hydroxyurea, actinomycin D and dNTPs incubations

Juveniles were pre-incubated for 30 min with 20μM hydroxyurea (Sigma, H8627),

0.2μM or 8μM actinomycin D (Invitrogen, A7592) in 1% DMSO and 50mM $MgCl_2$ in

Nematostella medium prior to adding EU, EdU or DMSO to reach a final concentration

of 0.5mM EU or EdU and 2% DMSO. Animals were incubated for 2 hours. dNTPs

(New England Biolabs) were added directly into the EU labelling medium for a 2h

incubation at a final concentration of 2mM (0.5mM per nucleotide) in 2% DMSO.

Incubation in RNase A or RNase H

454   Following the Click reaction, the samples were treated with 200μg/ml RNase A

455   (PureLink™, Invitrogen) in PTx (0.2% TritonX, 1x PBS) for 15 min at 37°C, or 100U/ml

456   RNase H (Thermo Fisher Scientific) in 1x RNase H Reaction Buffer for 30 min at 37°C,

457   followed by 3-5 washes with PTx before mounting and confocal microscopy.

Total RNA extraction for visualising on a dot blot

Per sample, 50 EU-labelled animals were homogenized in 10ml of ACME solution with

all washing steps described above unchanged but without filtering through CellTrics™

strainers. After the Click reaction to Alexa Fluor™ 488, half of the resulting cell pellet

was used for total RNA and half for genomic DNA extraction.

For total RNA extraction, the cells were mixed with 1ml of TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen)

and stored at -20°C for up to a week. Total RNA extraction was done by adapting the

manufacturer's protocol. Shortly, samples were brought to RT for 5min before mixing

the pellets with 200μl 100% chloroform. Samples were gently mixed for 3 min by

repeated inversion and centrifuged at full speed (16.000 g) at 4°C. The aqueous phase

was transferred to a new tube and, after addition of an equal volume of 100%

isopropanol, shortly mixed by inversion and incubated for 15 min at RT. RNA was

pelleted by centrifuging for 15min at full speed (16 000 g, 4°C). Pellets were washed

with freshly prepared 80% ethanol and centrifuged again for 15min at full speed

(16 000 g) at 4°C. All ethanol was carefully removed and dried off on a heated block

at 60°C. RNA was resuspended in 10μl of ultrapure water and digested with 2U

TurboDNase (Invitrogen) in 30μl for 30min at 37°C according to manufacturer's

protocol. RNA precipitation was done at 2.5M LiCl (from MEGAscript® T3 kit,

Invitrogen) and 20 μg of glycogen (Roche) at -20°C for 30 min. RNA was pelleted by

centrifuging for 15min at full speed (16 000 g, 4°C) and washed with ice cold 80%

Ethanol. After air-drying the pellet, RNA was resuspended in ultra-pure water and

concentration was measured on a NanoDrop (Thermo Scientific).

Genomic DNA extraction

After ACME dissociation and Click reaction, cell suspensions of labelled and control

animals were stored in TE Buffer (10mM Tris pH 8, 1mM EDTA pH 8, 25mM NaCl) at

-20°C for up to a week. After thawing, 100μg/ml Proteinase K was added and the cells

were incubated at 50°C until fully digested (15-20 min). Each sample was mixed with

1ml of phenol by inverting and centrifuged for 3 min at full speed (16 000 g) at RT. The

supernatant was transferred to a fresh tube and 1ml of phenol/chloroform (1:1 mix)

was added and the mix was centrifuged for 3 min at full speed. The supernatant was

mixed with 1ml of 100% chloroform and spun down for 3 min at full speed. Again, the

supernatant was transferred to a new tube and precipitated with 100 μl 3M Na-Acetate

pH 5.2 and 1ml of ice-cold 100% ethanol. DNA was pelleted by centrifugation for 10

min at full speed (16 000 g, 4°C), washed with ice-cold 70% ethanol and spun down

again. After the ethanol was removed, the pellet was air-dried and resuspended in TE

buffer. The DNA was then incubated with 100μg/ml RNase A for 15 min at 37°C and

precipitated again using 0.1 vols 3M Na-Acetate and 2.5 volumes of ice-cold 100%

ethanol. DNA was pelleted by 10 min centrifugation at full speed (16 000 g, 4°C) and

washed with 80% ice-cold ethanol. After removal of ethanol and air-drying, the DNA

pellet was taken up into ultra-pure water and its concentration was measured on a

NanoDrop (Thermo Scientific).

Typhoon imaging

ACME fixed cell suspensions of EU-labelled animals and controls were split after

coupling to Alexa Fluor™ 488 for genomic DNA and total RNA extractions (see above).

0.4 μg of total RNA and genomic DNA were blotted on an Amersham Hybond^{TM} -N$^+$

membrane and the Alexa488 fluorescence was read with a Typhoon biomolecular

imager (FLA 9000) using a 473 nm laser with the standard LPB filter.

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figures

Fig. 1. EU labels the nucleus of proliferating cells. (A) Schematic overview of EU integration into RNA by RNA polymerases, or alternatively into replicating DNA by DNA polymerases during the S-phase of the cell cycle. Green arrow highlights the ethynyl moiety used to couple a fluorophore by click chemistry. Green stars represent fluorophores. **(B-F''')** Single confocal images of epidermal cells labelled for EU (B-D'''), EdU (E-E") or co-labelled for EU and BrdU (F-F''') in juvenile *Nematostella* sea anemones. C-C" represent higher magnification of the areas labelled in B-B". D-D''' represent high magnifications of a labelled nucleus to show nuclear morphology. Note the absence of any labelled nucleolus-like structures. **(G-H)** Flow cytometry histogram of FxCycle Violet DNA stain (G) or Density plot of DNA dye (DNA-A) and EU signal intensity (Alexa555) (H) show that EU+ cells range between 2N and 4N DNA content. G1, S and G2M: typical DNA content of cell cycle phases. Colour gradient in (H) represents event density from high (red) to low (blue). ±: represents standard error of the mean. Flow cytometry: n=3 replicates. Nuclear stain (blue in B'-C" and E'-F"): Hoechst33342. ConA: Concanavalin A. K: 1.000; Pol. Polymerase. Scale bars: 20µm (B") or 10µm (C", D", E", F''').

Fig. 2. Nuclear EU label in proliferating cells is insensitive to RNase A, RNase H and actinomycin D, but sensitive to hydroxyurea. (A-L) Single confocal images of epidermal cells labelled for EU (A, C, E, G, I, K) or EdU (B, D, F, H, J, L) in juvenile *Nematostella* sea anemones without any treatment (A, B), or treated with RNase A (C, D), RNase H (E, F), the transcriptional inhibitor ActD at 0.2μM (G, H) and 8μM (I, J), or the ribonucleotide reductase (RNR) inhibitor hydroxyurea (K, L). Nuclear stain (blue): Hoechst33342. Scale bars: 10μm.

Fig. 3. EU is detected in extracted genomic DNA and total RNA. (A) Schematic summary of experimental setup. See Methods for details. (B-G) Dot blots of DNA-free total RNA (B, C) or RNA-free genomic DNA (D-G) from animals incubated with (B, D, F, G) or without EU (C, E), and treated without (F) or with DNase I (G). Sample volume put on blot corresponded to between 2 and 10μl.

Fig. 4. Small, nucleolus-like dots after EU but not EdU labelling are sensitive to
RNase A and actinomycin D, but insensitive to hydroxyurea or an excess of
dNTPs. Single confocal images of epidermal cells labelled by EU (A-B", E-H) or EdU
(C-D") and acquired at relatively high laser intensities and detector sensitivities. **(A-**
B") EU labels small, nucleolus-like dots (arrowheads) that are lost after RNase A
treatment. Inlet in A" shows higher magnification of the boxed area and depicts
labelled nucleolus-like dots in two nuclei. **(C-D")** Using the same detection parameters
as in A-B", EdU label is specific to nuclei of proliferating cells (C-D"). **(E-F)** EU label in

small nucleolus-like dots (arrowheads) is insensitive to low (E) but abolished by high

concentrations (F) of the transcriptional inhibitor ActD. **(G)** Inhibition of ribonucleotide

reductase by hydroxyurea leads to reduction of strong nuclear staining, but not of the

small nucleolus-like label (arrowheads). **(H)** Adding an excess of dNTPs appears to

have no effect on the EU label. Nuclear stain (blue): Hoechst33342. Scale bars: 10μm.

Fig. 5. The potential EU alternatives 5-ethynyl uridine triphosphate (EUTP), 5-ethynyl cytidine (EC) and 2-ethynyl adenosine (EA) also integrate in non-RNA structures. Single confocal images (A-F) or confocal imaging stacks (G) of epidermal (A-F) or gastrodermal (G) cells labelled using EUTP (yellow), EC (red) or EA (cyan). **(A-D')** EUTP (A-B') and EC (C-D') are detected in dispersed nuclei of putative proliferating cells and their signal is RNase A-insensitive (A-D). At high laser intensity and detector sensitivity, both compounds also label small nucleolus-like dots (arrowheads) that are RNase A-sensitive (A'-D'). **(E-G)** EA label is found broadly in epidermis (E) and is insensitive to RNase A degradation (F). EA signal is also prominently found in contractile filaments of muscle cells (G). Nuclear stain (blue): Hoechst33342. circ. mus.: circular muscle; fil.: filaments; par. mus.: parietal muscle. Scale bars: 10μm.

Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Fig. 1. Gating strategy to detect EU signal (Alexa 555) using flow cytometry. For gating cells, very small events were excluded based on size and granularity in the FSC-A/SSC-A gate, followed by gating for linear relation between

FSC-A and FSC-H to remove cell aggregates. We limited the analysis to events with
low side scattering by gating in FSC-H/SSC-W and plotted the resulting population
based on a linear relation in FxCycleViolet dye intensity of area and height (DNA-
A/DNA-H) within a range that corresponds to 2N to 4N DNA content. This gate
contains cells within the cell cycle and constitutes the base population for the
calculation of the EU positive cells. Based on the fluorescence signal of DMSO
controls in the DNA-A / Alexa555-A plot, we set a threshold gate above which cells
were considered EU positive. EU+ population was backgated and indicated as green
overlay in the parental gates.

Supplementary Fig. 2. Fraction of EU positive cells and their median
fluorescence after 2 hours of labelling with different EU concentrations. Box
plots depicting the fraction (A) and the median fluorescent signal intensity (B) of EU+
cells at different concentrations of EU and at 2% DMSO. Box plots indicate median
(middle line), 25th, 75th percentile (box) and 5th and 95th percentile (whiskers). Dots
show single data points. Differences between concentrations were calculated using
One-way ANOVA with Tukey's HSD post hoc test for pairwise comparisons. n.s.: not
significant, *: $p > 0.05$, **: $p > 0.01$, ***: $p > 0.001$.

Supplementary Fig. 3. EU labels a small subset of transcriptionally active cells.

Confocal imaging stack of epidermal cells shows that EU (B, D; 2h pulse) labels only

a fraction of cells detected by an antibody against phospho-Ser2 of the C-terminal

domain of RNA polymerase II (C, D). Nuclear stain (blue): Hoechst33342. Scale bar:

$10\mu m$.

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