Characterization of RNA interference in the model cnidarian

Nematostella vectensis reveals partial target silencing but lack of small

RNA amplification

Yael Admoni[1], Magda Lewandowska[1], Reuven Aharoni[1], Junchao Shi[2,3], Xudong Zhang[2], Qi

Chen[2], Yehu Moran[1]

[1]Department of Ecology, Evolution and Behavior, Alexander Silberman Institute of Life

Sciences, Faculty of Science, Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Jerusalem 9190401, Israel

[2]Molecular Medicine Program, Department of Human Genetics, and Division of Urology,

Department of Surgery, School of Medicine, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah, USA

[3] Present address: China National Centre for Bioinformation and Beijing Institute of

Genomics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China

Corresponding authors: Yael Admoni (yael.admoni@mail.huji.ac.il); Yehu Moran

(yehu.moran@mail.huji.ac.il)

Short title: RNA interference in a cnidarian model

Abstract

RNA interference (RNAi) is an antiviral mechanism based on processing of viral double-

stranded RNA (dsRNA) into short interfering RNAs (siRNAs) leading to dsRNA destruction.

It is considered as an ancestral mechanism which invertebrates rely on for defense against

viruses, while vertebrates have evolved instead the interferon pathway. Recent studies showed

that sea anemones, members of the basally-branching phylum Cnidaria, might possess an

antiviral response with more vertebrate characteristics than previously thought; however, it is

unknown whether cnidarians also employ RNAi as an immune response similarly to

nematodes and insects. In this study we characterize the antiviral RNAi response in the model

cnidarian *Nematostella vectensis*. We injected dsRNA with GFP sequence to GFP-expressing

transgenic zygotes and show that siRNAs mapping to the GFP sequence are generated and

induce a moderate but significant knockdown of GFP expression. In addition, we find no

evidence of secondary siRNA generation, despite their crucial role in the amplification of

antiviral response in other organisms. Notably, RNAi pathway components are specifically

upregulated upon dsRNA injection while microRNA pathway components are downregulated.

Overall, our findings reveal that *N. vectensis* possesses an antiviral RNAi system with no

secondary amplification, suggesting that it serves only as a short-term antiviral mechanism.

Introduction

RNA interference (RNAi) is a gene expression regulation mechanism based on short 20-30

nucleotide long RNA molecules that lead to silencing of a specific target. The two major

RNAi pathways are the microRNA (miRNA) pathway that targets mostly endogenous protein

coding genes and the short interfering RNA (siRNA) pathway that provides defense against

transposons and viral infection (1,2). The siRNA pathway is assumed to be the main antiviral

immune response mechanism of invertebrates, based on its ancestral origin and studies of

common invertebrate models such as the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* and the fly

Drosophila melanogaster (3–5). In vertebrates, the RNAi system was shown to remain only

in specific tissues or developmental stages, and in general their main antiviral innate immune

response is instead the interferon pathway (6–9). The RNAi mechanism is based on detection

of double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) by cellular receptors that leads to processing of the dsRNA

by RNase III Dicer into 20-25 bases long primary siRNAs (10–12). These siRNAs are loaded

into Argonaute (AGO) proteins that carry them to the target viral RNA and apply mechanisms

to prevent its expression (13). As an important step, the primary response is amplified by the

production of secondary siRNAs that greatly increase target silencing and prolong the

response. In nematodes and plants, RNA-dependent RNA polymerases (RdRPs) are

responsible for secondary siRNA production (14–16), whereas in flies the amplification is

RdRP-independent and is mediated by reverse transcriptases (17). In *C. elegans*, secondary

siRNAs are typified by carrying 5' triphosphate modification and they are 22 nucleotide long

and tend to exhibit sequence biases (18–21). *D. melanogaster* also generates secondary

antiviral siRNAs with 5' triphosphate modification, which are made by an as-yet unidentified

reverse transcriptase (17,22). Antiviral RNAi has been well described in nematodes, insects,

and plants; however, major gaps remain in its evolutionary history as it has not been

characterized in many lineages including early branching metazoans, especially as both

insects and nematodes belong to the Ecdysozoa.

In this study, we investigate the antiviral immune response in the sea anemone *Nematostella*

vectensis, a model organism representing the phylum Cnidaria that diverged from most other

animals over 600 million years ago (23,24). Cnidaria is comprised of Anthozoa (sea

anemones and corals) and Medusozoa (jellyfish and hydras) and its phylogenetic position

provides unique opportunities to explore evolutionary processes (25). Interestingly, despite

their basal position some cnidarians show unexpected complexity in their antiviral pathways

(26,27), and so far, there have been contradicting evidence regarding the functionality of the

antiviral RNAi pathway in cnidarians.

First, *N. vectensis* possesses homologs to RNAi-related components such as AGO2, Dicer1

and three RdRPs that were shown to be upregulated upon injection of the viral dsRNA mimic,

polyinosinic:polycytidylic acid (poly(I:C)) (26). This could point to activation of the antiviral

siRNA system; however, *N. vectensis* also has homologs to components of the interferon

pathway, such as Interferon Regulatory Factors (26–28). In *N. vectensis*, interferon-related

components are upregulated following poly(I:C) injection along with RNAi-related genes and

it is unclear if one of these pathways plays a more major role in the antiviral response (26).

Second, all cnidarians employ a miRNA system, hence possess homologs to components of

the RNAi system such as AGO and Dicer. In *N. vectensis*, AGO paralogs are specialized in

carrying distinct populations of small RNAs, with AGO1 carrying only miRNAs and AGO2

carrying both miRNAs and endogenous siRNAs (29). In the medusozoan *Hydra*

magnipapillata RNAi was shown to be functioning and dsRNA is used as driver of gene

knockdown by electroporation or feeding (30,31). In the sea anemone *Exaiptasia diaphana*

(previously called *Aiptasia pallida*) dsRNA was shown to be effective when delivered by

soaking (32); however, no further studies reported the successful employment of this method

in *Exaiptasia* or other sea anemones in the last 17 years. In addition, no siRNAs carrying viral

sequences were found in the sea anemone *Actinia equina* (33), and failures of gene

knockdown by dsRNA were reported in *Nematostella*(34), which points against the robust

activity of antiviral RNAi pathway.

To address the contradicting evidence and answer the question if antiviral RNAi is an

immune-related mechanism in cnidarians, here we characterize the antiviral RNAi response to

dsRNA injection in *N. vectensis*.

Results

Injection of dsRNA results in mild and short-lived transgene knockdown

To test the activation of the antiviral RNAi pathway in *N. vectensis*, we utilized a transgenic

line of anemones which expresses enhanced GFP (eGFP) ubiquitously under actin promoter

(35). We injected dsRNA carrying the sequence of eGFP to heterozygous zygotes of this line

and visualized the animals after 24 hours under a fluorescent stereomicroscope. As control,

we injected dsRNA with a scrambled sequence of eGFP (srGFP). The fluorescence of eGFP is

dimmer in the embryos injected with eGFP dsRNA compared to srGFP (**Figure 1A**). We

continued to track the fluorescence for 72 hours and documented that the difference in eGFP

fluorescence between the injected groups is no longer visually distinguishable at this

timepoint (**Figure 1B**). To validate this at the molecular level, we performed RT-qPCR and

confirmed that at 24 hours eGFP transcripts are significantly lower in eGFP dsRNA injected

animals; however, the level of knockdown is relatively modest, only 40 % compared to srGFP

injected animals (**Figure 1C, supplementary file 1**). As expected, no significant difference in

eGFP transcript level was detected by RT-qPCR at 72 hours after injection (**Figure 1D,**

supplementary file 1).

Figure 1 – dsRNA injection to *N. vectensis* zygotes triggers mild gene knockdown

A. Heterozygous *actin::eGFP* embryos showing dimmer eGFP fluorescence 24 hours

following injection of dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence (left) compared to injection of

scrambled eGFP sequence (right). Scale bars represent 500 µm.

B. No difference in eGFP fluorescence of heterozygous *actin::eGFP* embryos is exhibited

72 hours following injection of dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence (left) compared to

injection of scrambled eGFP sequence (right). Scale bars represent 500 µm.

C. eGFP transcript levels fold change measured by RT-qPCR, 24 hours following injection

of dsRNA. Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (one-tailed Student's

t-test, n=3 biological replicates, p-value = 0.0268).

D. eGFP transcript levels fold change measured by RT-qPCR, 72 hours following injection

of dsRNA. Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (one-tailed Student's

t-test, n=3 biological replicates, p-value = 0.4899).

dsRNA injection to *N. vectensis* zygotes leads to generation of siRNAs

The knockdown of eGFP following dsRNA injection suggested that the RNAi pathway was

activated, hence, next we wished to investigate if siRNAs, which are the hallmark of antiviral

RNAi in nematodes, flies and plants, were generated. To detect eGFP targeting siRNAs, we

generated small RNA libraries for both *actin::eGFP* heterozygotes and wild-type (WT)

animals injected with eGFP dsRNA, at 24 hours post-injection. We mapped the 18-30

nucleotide (nt) long small RNA reads to eGFP sequence and revealed a significant enrichment

of reads mapping to eGFP in groups injected with dsRNA compared to the mock injected

controls (**Figure 2A, supplementary file 2**). Consistent with this, fluorescence intensity was

weaker in dsRNA-injected *actin::eGFP* heterozygotes compared to controls (**Figure 2 supp**).

As expected, there was no difference in read counts that map to eGFP between the

actin::eGFP and the WT animals. Moreover, the size distribution of the reads showed that

most of them are 20-21 nt long, which resembles to the length of siRNA in other organisms

but one nucleotide shorter and is in accordance to endogenous siRNAs previously reported for

N. vectensis (12,18,36) (**Figure 2B**). We then visualized the mapping locations to eGFP and

interestingly found a reoccurring pattern between all replicates in both *actin::eGFP* and WT

injected animals (**Figure 2C and D, supplementary file 3**). This indicates that reads mapping

to eGFP are not a result of random degradation of the injected dsRNA but of mechanistic

processing. The origin of the reads from the sense or antisense strand of the dsRNA also

showed a recurring pattern between replicates (**Figure 2C and D, supplementary file 3**).

<u>Figure 2 – Primary siRNAs are generated following dsRNA injection</u>

A. Normalized number of reads mapping to eGFP sequence, from embryos injected with

dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence. *Actin::eGFP* zygotes were injected with either dsRNA

or mock injection mix. WT zygotes were injected with dsRNA. Statistical significance is

shown for pairwise comparison (one-way ANOVA with Tukey's HSD post-hoc test, n=3

biological replicates, p-values = 0.0077625, 0.0306363, 0.4711136).

B. Size distribution of reads mapping to eGFP sequence corresponding to the samples in (A).

C-D. eGFP sequence coverage by small RNA reads from *actin::eGFP* (C) or WT (D)

embryos injected with eGFP dsRNA. The top graph represents the sense strand, and the

bottom graph represents the antisense strand. Biological replicates are represented by different

colors.

<u>No production of secondary siRNAs was detected</u>

Secondary siRNAs production is a major part of antiviral RNAi response in *C. elegans* and

Drosophila, which amplifies the response and inflicts stronger and longer silencing of viral

RNA. Therefore, we wished to test if this process also occurs in *N. vectensis*. Since *N.*

vectensis has four RdRPs, three of which are upregulated upon viral mimic injection (26), we

hypothesized that secondary siRNAs might be produced by RdRPs, hence contain a 5'

triphosphate moiety similarly to *C. elegans* secondary siRNAs (18). This modification

prevents detection by 5'-ligation-dependent sequencing; thus, we applied treatment by RNA 5'

Pyrophosphohydrolase (Rpph) to remove the modification and expose secondary siRNAs to

ligation during small RNA libraries preparation. The treatment was applied to RNA extracted

from *actin::eGFP* and WT embryos that were injected with eGFP dsRNA. The small RNA

sequencing results revealed no significant difference in read counts mapping to eGFP between

the Rpph-treated and untreated libraries (**Figure 3A, supplementary file 2**). In addition, there

is no difference in the size distribution of the reads between the treatments, unlike similar

experiments in *C. elegans* (**Figure 3B**) (18,19,21). These results concluded that no secondary

siRNAs that chemically resemble the ones in *C. elegans* were generated. Nonetheless, unlike

in nematodes and flies, most plants secondary siRNAs do not include 5' triphosphate,

suggesting that absence of this modification cannot rule out by itself production of secondary

siRNAs (16). Next, we took a different approach, based on a mechanism which occurs in *C.*

elegans, in which secondary siRNAs are generated using the target mRNA as template for

RNA dependent RNA replication (18,37). To test if this mechanism is active in *N. vectensis*

we chose to inject into *actin::eGFP* transgenic zygotes a shorter eGFP dsRNA which includes

only the 3' half of the original sequence and look for siRNAs that map upstream to it,

covering the rest of the eGFP sequence. The presence of siRNAs mapping upstream of 3' half

would suggest that the eGFP mRNA transcribed from the transgene is used as template for the

transcription of the 5' siRNAs. Notably, following sequencing of small RNAs from half-eGFP

compared to full-length-eGFP dsRNA injected animals, it was apparent that siRNA reads map

only to the 3' half of the eGFP (**Figure 3C, supplementary file 3**). The injection of half-eGFP

was still able to knockdown eGFP levels, as eGFP transcript levels were not significantly

different between half-eGFP and full-length-eGFP injected animals and fluorescence was

similar (**Figure 3D and supp A, supplementary file 1**). In addition, there was no difference

between the number and size distribution of reads mapping to eGFP (**Figure 3 supp B and C,**

supplementary file 2). Moreover, a recurring mapping pattern between replicates was

observed, consistent with previous sequencing results (**Figure 3C, supplementary file 3**).

Figure 3 – no secondary siRNAs were detected following dsRNA injection

A. Normalized number of reads mapping to eGFP sequence following treatment of RNA

with RppH enzyme or mock treatment. The treatment was performed on RNA extracted

from *actin::eGFP* or WT embryos injected with dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence.

Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (one-way ANOVA with Tukey's

HSD post-hoc test, n=3 biological replicates, p-values = 0.9940685, 0.9998878).

B. Size distribution of reads mapping to eGFP sequence corresponding to the samples in (A).

C. eGFP sequence coverage by small RNA reads from *actin::eGFP* embryos injected with 3'

half-eGFP dsRNA. The top graph represents the sense strand, and the bottom graph

represents the antisense strand. Biological replicates are represented by different colors.

D. eGFP transcript levels fold change measured by RT-qPCR, 24 hours following injection

of either half-dsRNA or full length-dsRNA. Statistical significance is shown for pairwise

comparison (one-tailed Student's t-test, n=3 biological replicates, p-value = 0.3848).

After learning that secondary siRNAs are not generated by similar mechanisms to *C. elegans*,

we tested whether any species of siRNAs could be detected by removing a variety of RNA

modifications, by performing panoramic RNA display by overcoming RNA modification

aborted sequencing (PANDORA-seq) that combines treatments by T4 polynucleotide kinase

and α-ketoglutarate-dependent hydroxylase and was shown to expose numerous types of

modified small RNAs to sequencing (38). Mapping the reads from both PANDORA-seq and

traditional small RNA sequencing to eGFP sequence did not reveal an increase in reads

mapping to eGFP or any major changes in mapping distribution (**Figure 4A, B,**

supplementary file 3). The mapping peaks differ in read count which could be explained by

the fact that PANDORA-seq detects a larger variety of small RNAs, hence decreasing the

representation of dsRNA-originating siRNAs in the libraries. The size distribution of the

reads mapping to eGFP also did not reveal a difference in siRNAs following the removal of

modifications (**Figure 4C, D**).

<u>Figure 4 – Specific upregulation of antiviral RNAi components following dsRNA injection</u>

A-B. eGFP sequence coverage by small RNA reads sequenced by PANDORA-seq (A) or

traditional small RNA sequencing (B). RNA was extracted from *actin::eGFP* embryos

injected with dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence. The top graph represents the sense strand, and

the bottom graph represents the antisense strand. The blue line represents the mean of n=4

biological replicates and the grey is the confidence interval.

C. Size distribution of reads mapping to eGFP sequence corresponding to the samples in (A).

D. Size distribution of reads mapping to eGFP sequence corresponding to the samples in (B).

E-H. Western blots of antiviral RNAi-related components AGO2 (E) and Dicer1 (F) and

miRNA system specific components AGO1 (G) and GW182 (H) performed on protein

content extracted from WT embryos, 48 hours following injection of poly(I:C) or NaCl

control (protein sizes: AGO1 96 kDa, GW182 185 kDa, AGO2 122 kDa, and Dicer1 171

kDa).

I. Fold change of normalized band intensity corresponding to the Western blots in (E-H),

showing RNAi-related components signal in response to poly(I:C) or NaCl control.

Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (two-tailed Student's t-test or

Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon Test, n≥6 biological replicates, p-values = 0.02551, 0.00193,

0.00001079, 0.004998 for AGO1, GW182, AGO2 and Dicer1 respectively).

<u>dsRNA injection leads to downregulation of miRNA system components</u>

N. vectensis is known to have a functional miRNA system which employs components such

as Dicer1, AGO1 and AGO2 that were shown to be crucial for the early development of this

species (29,39,40). It was shown that AGO1 specifically carries miRNAs and AGO2 carries

both miRNAs and endogenous siRNAs (29). Another miRNA system component is GW182

(called TNRC6 in vertebrates) that has a homolog in *N. vectensis* and was shown to mediate

gene silencing when expressed in heterologously mammalian cells (41). Previous results

show that injection of poly(I:C), which mimics viral dsRNA, into *N. vectensis* zygotes leads

to upregulation of AGO2 and Dicer1, but not AGO1 or GW182 on the RNA level (26). To

further test the activation of the RNAi system in *N. vectensis* we performed Western blot

using RNAi components specific antibodies following injection of poly(I:C) to zygotes. In

accordance with previous results, the Western blot shows upregulation of AGO2 and Dicer1

(**Figure 4E, F**). Interestingly, AGO1 and GW182 that are miRNA specific components seem

to be downregulated (**Figure 4G, H**). This was found to be statistically significant by

comparison of normalized band intensities (**Figure 4I, supplementary file 4**). To assess the

effect of the antiviral immune response on miRNAs expression levels, we analyzed miRNA

expression after eGFP dsRNA injection. The total read count of all *N. vectensis* miRNAs was

not affected (**Figure 4 supp A, supplementary file 5**). A total of 10-12 miRNAs were

differentially expressed, with no clear trend regarding the function of their target genes

(**Figure 4 supp B and C**).

Discussion

Antiviral RNAi is an ancestral pathway that provides crucial defense against viruses to

nematodes and insects, both belonging to the superphylum Ecdysozoa. The contradicting

evidence regarding its activity in cnidarians have motivated us to test whether it has a role in

the sea anemone *Nematostella vectensis*. Using eGFP dsRNA injection to zygotes of

actin::eGFP anemones, we show that antiviral RNAi response is activated and it results in a

significant but mild silencing of eGFP expression. This comes in contrast to the striking effect

of silencing by RNAi exhibited in other organisms (42,43). Nonetheless, we show that

siRNAs are generated by processing of dsRNA into 20-21 nt long small RNAs, in a sequence

specific manner which repeats in all replicates. The highly reproducible pattern of the

mapping suggests that Dicer has a sequence preference for processing of the injected dsRNA,

as seen in previous experiments in mammalian cells (8). In addition, the recurrence of sense-

or antisense-specific mapping of each small RNA resembles the preference of AGO to select

one of the strands of the small RNA duplex it loads. This phenomenon is known from the

miRNA pathway where the guide strand gets selected by AGO whereas the star (also called

passenger strand) is ejected and eventually degraded, resulting in much higher representation

of the guide strand in sequencing data (44,45). It was previously shown that injection of

similar length dsRNA triggers upregulation of immune-related genes including of AGO2 and

Dicer1 in *N. vectensis* (26). This suggests that the injection of eGFP dsRNA activated the

antiviral RNAi response that resulted in the generation of siRNAs and knockdown of eGFP.

The short-lived and mild knockdown effect caused by dsRNA injection could be explained by

the lack of secondary siRNA generation. Three different methods were used in this study to

detect secondary siRNAs and resulted in no detection. Hypothetically there could be

secondary siRNAs in *N. vectensis* carrying yet unidentified modification masking them from

sequencing; however, the short-term knockdown effect strongly supports the notion that there

is no secondary amplification of the RNAi response. This result correlates with the moderate

knockdown effect and suggests that the siRNA-mediated antiviral response in *N. vectensis* is

not amplified by secondary siRNA generation, unlike in nematodes, flies and plants. It can

also explain the lack of siRNAs carrying viral sequences from natural sea anemone

populations (33). Another factor that might contribute to the moderate effect is that apoptosis

is activated in *N. vectensis* upon poly(I:C) injection to zygotes (46). Apoptosis is a mechanism

of host defense against viruses and its increased activity at 24 hours post-injection could mean

that a stronger RNAi response is not feasible or crucial in *N. vectensis*. It was shown that in

mammalian cells the RNAi response is inhibited in cells that carry out the interferon response,

and inhibition of the interferon pathway reveals a functional RNAi response in differentiated

mammalian cells (47,48). In *N. vectensis*, homologs of canonical vertebrate antiviral factors

that take part in the interferon response are upregulated in response to poly(I:C) (26). Unlike

in mammals where interferon and RNAi were shown to be mostly antagonistic one towards

the other (49,50), knockdown of the dsRNA receptor RLRb, a homolog of the mammalian

MDA5, in *N. vectensis* in combination with poly(I:C) injection leads to downregulation of

AGO2 and Dicer1 (26), which hints that the interferon-like and RNAi pathways act in a

synergetic manner in this species.

RNAi, especially in its form as homogenously-processed miRNAs, is an extremely useful tool

to regulate gene expression levels, which could explain its wide conservation, even in

organisms where alternative antiviral pathways have evolved (8,9). miRNAs tend to provide

milder and more accurate regulation of expression levels compared to siRNAs and hence are

less suitable for antiviral roles (51). Strikingly, the *N. vectensis* components that are specific

to the miRNA pathway (AGO1 and GW182) are downregulated at the protein level under

dsRNA challenge, whereas those that serve both miRNAs and siRNAs (Dicer1 and AGO2)

are strongly upregulated (**Figure 4I**). A few cases of loss of the RNAi system have been

described in fungi, but these are considered to have occurred recently in response to viral

mechanisms that adapted to hijack the RNAi system and could have harmful effects in the

long run (52,53). To fully understand the conservation of the antiviral RNAi system it must be

characterized in other organisms from different phylogenetic lineages (54). Based on previous

findings and the current study in *N. vectensis*, it could be concluded that RNAi as an antiviral

response might be conserved as a helpful immune mechanism, even if it is not the main one.

Furthermore, our work suggests that the synthesis of secondary siRNAs and the resulting

long-term silencing of specific viruses by RNAi, might have been lost in sea anemones, as it

is found in insects, nematodes and plants. Altogether this work challenges the common view

that antiviral RNAi is the main immune mechanism of invertebrates in general and calls for

further research of this system in other lineages.

Methods

Sea anemone culture and spawning

N. vectensis polyps were grown in the dark at 18 °C in 16 ‰ artificial sea water and fed three

times a week with freshly hatched *Artemia salina* nauplii. Spawning and fertilization were

conducted as previously described (40,55). *Actin::eGFP* anemones were kindly received from

Dr. Aissam Ikmi (European Molecular Biology Laboratory, Heidelberg, Germany) (35). For

injection to *actin::eGFP* line, sperm from heterozygous *actin::eGFP* males was used to

fertilize WT eggs.

Microinjection of dsRNA

Microinjection to zygotes was performed with Eclipse Ti-S Inverted Research Microscopes

(Nikon, Japan) connected to an Intensilight fiber fluorescent illumination system (Nikon) for

visualization of the fluorescent injected mixture. The system is mounted with a NT88-V3

Micromanipulator Systems (Narishige, Japan). dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence was ordered

from RiboPro (Netherlands) and SYNBIO technologies (USA) and was aliquoted and kept in

-80 °C until use. All injection mixes included dextran Alexa Fluor 594 (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, USA) as fluorescent tracer. dsRNA injected concentration was chosen according to

survival of the injected animals, which was very low (i.e., below 50 %) above 7 ng/µl. For

small RNA libraries eGFP dsRNA (RiboPro) was injected in concentration of 1.75 or 3.5

ng/µl (biological replicates of the same experiment were injected with the same

concentration), to zygotes of *actin::eGFP* line or WT. The mock injection control included

only water and tracer. Half-eGFP dsRNA was injected at the same molarity as full-length

dsRNA. For RT-qPCR, eGFP dsRNA and srGFP (SYNBIO technologies) were injected at 7

ng/µl. For western blot, high molecular weight poly(I:C) (average size of 1.5–8 kb) in 0.9%

NaCl (Invivogen, USA) was injected to WT zygotes in concentration of 6.25 ng/µl with 0.9%

NaCl as control. Injected animals were kept in an incubator at 22 °C, counted and transferred

to fresh 16 ‰ artificial sea water every day. The animals were visualized before being flash-

frozen in liquid nitrogen and were kept in -80 °C until RNA extraction. All sequences used in

this study appear in supplementary file 6.

RNA extraction

For generating small RNA libraries, total RNA was extracted from a few hundred injected

animals using Tri-Reagent® (Merck Millipore, USA) according to the manufacturer's

protocol, with minor changes. 1 µl of RNA-grade glycogen (Roche, Switzerland) was added

into the isopropanol during the isolation step and centrifugation for isolation and 75% ethanol

wash was at $21,130 \times g$. Final RNA pellets were re-suspended in 15-20 µl of RNase-free water

(Biological Industries, Israel). RNA concentration was measured by Qubit™ RNA BR Assay

Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). At this stage most of the extracted RNA was kept in -80 °C

until small RNA libraries preparation and 400 ng were separated to use for RT-qPCR. The

separated RNA was treated with Turbo DNase twice for 30 minutes at 37 °C (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) to remove residual genomic DNA followed by another round of purification. RNA

integrity was assessed by gel electrophoresis with 1:1 formamide (Merck Millipore) and 1 µl

of loading dye on 1.5 % agarose gel for RT-qPCR and by Bioanalyzer Nanochip (Agilent,

USA) for small RNA libraries. RNA that was not used for libraries was extracted using

Quick-RNA microprep kit (Zymo Research, USA) with two rounds including Turbo DNase

treatment.

Reverse transcription-quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR)

eGFP transcripts were amplified by RT-qPCR using primers designed via Primer3 version

0.4.0 (56), Primer calibration showed product specificity and 115 % efficiency, -2.99 slope

and R2 >0.98. cDNA was prepared using iScript according to manufacturer's protocol (Bio-

Rad, USA) and was diluted to 5 ng/µl and stored at -20 °C. RT-qPCR was performed using

StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System v2.2 (ABI, Thermo Fisher Scientific) with Fast SYBR

Green Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Each sample was quantified in triplicates for

GFP transcript and housekeeping gene 4 (HKG4) as an internal control (57). 1 µl of cDNA

template was used for each technical replicate. The Reaction thermal profile was 95 °C for 20

sec, then 40 amplification cycles of 95 °C for 3 sec and 60 °C for 30 sec, a dissociation cycle

of 95 °C for 15 sec and 60 °C for 1 min and then brought back to 95 °C for 15 sec (+0.6 °C

steps). eGFP fold-change was analyzed using a comparative Ct method ($2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$) (58). All RT-

qPCR experiments included three biological replicates. Primer sequences used in this study

appear in supplementary file 6.

<u>Small RNA library preparation</u>

Between 0.5-1 µg of extracted RNA was mixed with spikeins (0.025 fmol per 1 µg of RNA)

and size selected on 15% urea-PAGE gel (Bio-Rad). RNA in the size of 18-30 nucleotides

was cut and extracted from gel by incubation overnight in 810 µl 0.3 M NaCl at 4 °C in

rotation. Size-selected small RNAs were precipitated at -20 °C for a minimum of 3 hours in 1

ml ice-cold 100% ethanol with 1 µl glycogen (Merck Millipore), then washed with 900 µl of

ice-cold 75% ethanol, centrifuged at $21,130 \times g$ and resuspended in 7.5 µl RNase-free water.

Next, small RNA libraries were prepared using NEBNext Multiplex Small RNA Library Prep

Set for Illumina kit (New England Biolabs, USA) with some modifications (59). Library

preparation kit adapters 3' and 5' and reverse transcription primer were diluted 1:1 of stock

concentration before use. For overnight ligation of 3' adapter, T4 RNA Ligase 2 truncated KQ

and Murine RNase inhibitor were used (New England Biolabs). The ligated products were

subjected to 13-18 cycles of PCR amplification then Certified Low Range Ultra Agarose (Bio-

Rad) stained with orange gel loading dye (New England Biolabs). Bands ranging between 137

and 149 nucleotides (corresponding to adapter ligated small RNAs) were cut from gel and

purified using NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Clean-up (Macherey-Nagel, Germany) with elution

volume of 12 µl. Final concentrations were measured using Qubit HS dsDNA assay kit

(Thermo Fisher Scientific). The quality of cDNA libraries was checked by using TapeStation

system on High Sensitivity D1000 ScreenTape (Agilent). The libraries were validated for a

dominant peak at the size range of 150-167 nucleotides and sequenced with NextSeq500

(Illumina) in single end mode. Small RNA reads were analyzed using miRDeep2 (60).

Sequences shorter than 18 nucleotides were not included. Filtered reads were mapped to *N.*

vectensis genome using Bowtie1 (version 1.3.1) (61). Reads not mapped to the genome were

then mapped to eGFP sequence. miRDeep2 quantifier.pl module was used with default

parameters for quantification of miRNA reads. Read counts were normalized to spikeins and

multiplied by 10000 for read count comparison. The normalized reads were averaged between

three biological replicates.

<u>RNA 5' Pyrophosphohydrolase (RppH) treatment</u>

To remove potential 5'-triphosphate modification from small RNAs, total RNA was divided to

two reactions, one was treated with RppH enzyme (New England Biolabs) according to

manufacturer's protocol and the control libraries were treated with no enzyme.

<u>PANDORA-seq</u>

PANDORA-seq was performed as described before (38). Briefly, total extracted RNAs were

separated through a 15 % urea polyacrylamide gel and small RNAs of 15–50 nt were

visualized with SYBR Gold solution (Invitrogen, USA). 15-50 nt small RNAs were excised

and recovered by gel elution buffer as previously described (62). A sample of the eluted RNA

was stored in -80 °C for traditional-seq, the remaining eluted RNA was then treated with T4

polynucleotide kinase (T4PNK) enzyme in a 50 µl reaction mixture (5 µl 10× PNK buffer, 1

mM ATP, 10 U T4PNK) followed by RNA isolation with TRIzol (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

The collected RNAs were then treated with Alkane monooxygenase (AlkB) in a 50 µl

reaction mixture (50 mM HEPES, 75 µM ferrous ammonium sulfate, 1 mM α-ketoglutaric

acid, 2 mM sodium ascorbate, 50 mg/L BSA, 4 µg/mL AlkB, 2,000 U/mL RNase inhibitor)

followed by RNA isolation with TRIzol. The small RNA libraries were prepared by

NEBNext® Small RNA Library Prep Kit (New England Biolabs) as the manufacturer

described. In short, the adapters were ligated sequentially (3′ adapter, reverse transcription

primer, 5′ adapter). First-strand cDNA synthesis was performed followed by PCR

amplification with PCR index primer and PCR Master Mix to enrich the cDNA fragments.

Finally, the PCR products were purified from PAGE gel and prepared for sequencing. Small

RNAs were sequenced using NovaSeq 6000 (Illumina) in paired-end mode. Reads were

analyzed as described above (Small RNA library preparation), from one set of the paired

reads (R1) due to their short length. Read counts were normalized to reads unmapped to

genome and multiplied by 1 million.

<u>Western blot</u>

Animals were mechanically homogenized in the following lysis buffer: 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH

7.4), 150 mM KCl, 0.5 % NP-40, 10 % glycerol, protease inhibitor cOmplete ULTRA tablets

(Roche) and Protease Inhibitor Cocktail Set III, EDTA-Free (Merck Millipore), or

alternatively HALT protease inhibitor (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Protease inhibitors were

added fresh just before use. After 2 hours rotation in 4 °C the samples were centrifuged at

16,000 × g for 15 min at 4 °C and supernatant was collected. Protein concentration was

measured using Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Equal amounts of

protein were run on 4–15 % Mini-PROTEAN TGX Precast Protein Gel (Bio-Rad) followed

by blotting to a polyvinylidene fluoride or nitrocellulose membrane (Bio-Rad). Next, the

membrane was washed with TBST buffer (20 mM Tris pH 7.6, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween

20) and blocked with 5% skim milk (BD, USA) in TBST for 1 hour on the shaker at room

temperature. Previously validated custom-made antibodies for *Nematostella* GW182 (41),

Dicer1 (39), AGO1 and AGO2 (Genscript, USA) (29) or monoclonal mouse anti-GAPDH

(Abcam, United Kingdom) serving as loading control were diluted 1:1,000 in TBST

containing 5% BSA (MP Biomedicals, USA) and incubated with the membrane in a sealed

sterile plastic bag at 4 °C overnight. The membrane was washed three times with TBST for

10 min and incubated for 1 h with 1:10,000 diluted peroxidase-conjugated anti-mouse,

anti-rabbit or anti-Guinea pig antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch, USA) in 5 % skim milk in

TBST. Finally, the membrane was washed three times with TBST, and detection was

performed with the Clarity ECL kit (Bio-Rad) according to the manufacturer's instructions

and visualized with a CCD camera of the Odyssey Fc imaging system (Li-COR Biosciences,

USA). Size determination was carried out by simultaneously running Precision Plus Protein

Dual Color Protein Ladder (Bio-Rad) and scanning at 700 nm wavelength. Band intensities

were measured using the ImageStudio software (Li-COR). Band intensities were normalized

according to the darkest band in each membrane then the normalized values of investigated

proteins were divided by normalized values of GAPDH.

<u>Microscopy</u>

Fluorescence of eGFP protein was detected by SMZ18 stereomicroscope (Nikon) connected

to an Intensilight fiber illumination fluorescent system (Nikon). Images were captured by DS-

Qi2 SLR camera (Nikon) and were analyzed and processed with NIS-Elements Imaging

Software (Nikon).

<u>Statistical analysis</u>

Statistical analysis of small RNA read counts was done with one-way ANOVA with Tukey's

HSD post-hoc test. For read counts of half-eGFP and full length-eGFP one-tailed Student's t-

test was used. Comparison of eGFP transcript levels was conducted with one-tailed Student's

t-test, by comparing ΔCt values between groups. Comparison of Western blot band intensities

was done with two-tailed Student's t-test or Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon Test for non-normal

data by comparing normalized band intensities of the poly(I:C) compared to NaCl injected

samples. Normality of the data and homogeneity of variance was validated before every

statistical analysis. All experiments included at least three biological replicates, and three

technical replicates were added for RT-qPCR. The tests were performed in Rstudio 2021.09.0.

<u>Data availability</u>

All small RNA sequencing data in this paper are available on the SRA repository under

identification number PRJNA1145188.

Reviewer link:

https://dataview.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/object/PRJNA1145188?reviewer=36jpse10kih79r3t6akqk4

17nu

<u>Acknowledgements</u>

The authors thank Dr. Aissam Ikmi (European Molecular Biology Laboratory, Heidelberg,

Germany) for the kind gift of *actin::eGFP* anemones and Dr. Michal Bronstein and Ms. Adi

Turjeman (The Center for Genomic Technologies, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem,

Israel) for their help with high-throughput sequencing.

Supporting information

Supplementary Figure 2 – eGFP knockdown in *actin::eGFP* embryos injected with dsRNA

A. Heterozygous *actin::eGFP* embryos showing dimmer eGFP fluorescence 24 hours

following injection of dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence (left) compared to injection of

mock injection mix (right). Scale bars represent 500 µm.

B. eGFP transcript levels fold change measured by RT-qPCR, 24 hours following injection

of dsRNA. Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (one-tailed Student's

t-test, n=4 biological replicates, p-value = 0.02082).

Supplementary Figure 3 – eGFP knockdown in *actin::eGFP* embryos injected with dsRNA

A. Heterozygous *actin::eGFP* embryos showing dimmer eGFP fluorescence 24 hours

following injection of 3' half- (left) or full length-dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence

(middle) compared to injection of mock injection mix (right). Scale bars represent 500

µm.

B. Normalized number of reads mapping to eGFP sequence, from embryos injected with

either 3' half- or full length-dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence, or mock injection mix.

Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (two-tailed Student's t-test, n=3

biological replicates, p-value = 0.8221).

C. Size distribution of reads mapping to eGFP sequence corresponding to the samples in (B).

Supplementary Figure 4 – miRNA levels are largely unaffected by dsRNA injection

A. Normalized total number of miRNAs reads from embryos injected with dsRNA.

Actin::eGFP zygotes were injected with either dsRNA or mock injection mix. WT

zygotes were injected with dsRNA. Statistical significance is shown for pairwise

comparison (one-way ANOVA with Tukey's HSD post-hoc test, n=3 biological replicates,

p-values = 0.6853716, 0.9198027, 0.8905552).

B-C. Differentially expressed miRNAs in *actin::eGFP* (B) and WT (C) embryos following

injection of dsRNA.

Supplementary file 1 - RT-qPCR data

Supplementary file 2 - small RNA sequencing read counts

Supplementary file 3 - eGFP coverage reads per base

Supplementary file 4 - Western blot band intensities

Supplementary file 5 - miRNAs read count

Supplementary file 6 - DNA sequences

<u>References</u>

1.   Matranga C, Zamore PD. Small silencing RNAs. Current Biology. 2007 Sep
18;17(18):R789–93.

2.   Wilson RC, Doudna JA. Molecular Mechanisms of RNA Interference. Annual Review of
Biophysics. 2013 May 6;42(Volume 42, 2013):217–39.

3.   Ding SW, Li H, Lu R, Li F, Li WX. RNA silencing: a conserved antiviral immunity of
plants and animals. Virus Res. 2004 Jun 1;102(1):109–15.

4.   Cerutti H, Casas-Mollano JA. On the origin and functions of RNA-mediated silencing:
from protists to man. Curr Genet. 2006 Aug;50(2):81–99.

5.   Nayak A, Tassetto M, Kunitomi M, Andino R. RNA interference-mediated intrinsic
antiviral immunity in invertebrates. Curr Top Microbiol Immunol. 2013;371:183–200.

6.   Stetson DB, Medzhitov R. Type I interferons in host defense. Immunity. 2006
Sep;25(3):373–81.

7.   Ivashkiv LB, Donlin LT. Regulation of type I interferon responses. Nat Rev Immunol.
2014 Jan;14(1):36–49.

8.   Flemr M, Malik R, Franke V, Nejepinska J, Sedlacek R, Vlahovicek K, et al. A
Retrotransposon-Driven Dicer Isoform Directs Endogenous Small Interfering RNA
Production in Mouse Oocytes. Cell. 2013 Nov 7;155(4):807–16.

9. Poirier EZ, Buck MD, Chakravarty P, Carvalho J, Frederico B, Cardoso A, et al. An
isoform of Dicer protects mammalian stem cells against multiple RNA viruses. Science.
2021 Jul 9;373(6551):231–6.

10. Zamore PD, Tuschl T, Sharp PA, Bartel DP. RNAi: Double-Stranded RNA Directs the
ATP-Dependent Cleavage of mRNA at 21 to 23 Nucleotide Intervals. Cell. 2000 Mar
31;101(1):25–33.

11. Bernstein E, Caudy AA, Hammond SM, Hannon GJ. Role for a bidentate ribonuclease in
the initiation step of RNA interference. Nature. 2001 Jan;409(6818):363–6.

12. Elbashir SM, Lendeckel W, Tuschl T. RNA interference is mediated by 21- and 22-
nucleotide RNAs. Genes Dev. 2001 Jan 15;15(2):188–200.

13. Hammond SM, Boettcher S, Caudy AA, Kobayashi R, Hannon GJ. Argonaute2, a Link
Between Genetic and Biochemical Analyses of RNAi. Science. 2001 Aug
10;293(5532):1146–50.

14. Vaistij FE, Jones L, Baulcombe DC. Spreading of RNA Targeting and DNA Methylation
in RNA Silencing Requires Transcription of the Target Gene and a Putative RNA-
Dependent RNA Polymerase. The Plant Cell. 2002 Apr 1;14(4):857–67.

15. Garcia-Ruiz H, Takeda A, Chapman EJ, Sullivan CM, Fahlgren N, Brempelis KJ, et al.
Arabidopsis RNA-Dependent RNA Polymerases and Dicer-Like Proteins in Antiviral
Defense and Small Interfering RNA Biogenesis during Turnip Mosaic Virus Infection.
The Plant Cell. 2010 Feb 1;22(2):481–96.

16. Willmann MR, Endres MW, Cook RT, Gregory BD. The Functions of RNA-Dependent
RNA Polymerases in Arabidopsis. Arabidopsis Book. 2011 Jul 31;9:e0146.

17. Tassetto M, Kunitomi M, Andino R. Circulating Immune Cells Mediate a Systemic
RNAi-Based Adaptive Antiviral Response in Drosophila. Cell. 2017 Apr 6;169(2):314-
325.e13.

18. Pak J, Fire A. Distinct Populations of Primary and Secondary Effectors During RNAi in
C. elegans. Science. 2007 Jan 12;315(5809):241–4.

19. Pak J, Maniar JM, Mello CC, Fire A. Protection from Feed-Forward Amplification in an
Amplified RNAi Mechanism. Cell. 2012 Nov 9;151(4):885–99.

20. Félix MA, Ashe A, Piffaretti J, Wu G, Nuez I, Bélicard T, et al. Natural and Experimental
Infection of Caenorhabditis Nematodes by Novel Viruses Related to Nodaviruses. PLOS
Biology. 2011 Jan 25;9(1):e1000586.

21. Ashe A, Bélicard T, Le Pen J, Sarkies P, Frézal L, Lehrbach NJ, et al. A deletion
polymorphism in the Caenorhabditis elegans RIG-I homolog disables viral RNA dicing
and antiviral immunity. Weigel D, editor. eLife. 2013 Oct 8;2:e00994.

22. Poirier EZ, Goic B, Tomé-Poderti L, Frangeul L, Boussier J, Gausson V, et al. Dicer-2-
Dependent Generation of Viral DNA from Defective Genomes of RNA Viruses
Modulates Antiviral Immunity in Insects. Cell Host & Microbe. 2018 Mar;23(3):353-
365.e8.

23. Technau U, Steele RE. Evolutionary crossroads in developmental biology: Cnidaria.
Development. 2011 Apr;138(8):1447–58.

24. Layden MJ, Rentzsch F, Röttinger E. The rise of the starlet sea anemone Nematostella
vectensis as a model system to investigate development and regeneration. WIREs
Developmental Biology. 2016;5(4):408–28.

25. Kayal E, Bentlage B, Sabrina Pankey M, Ohdera AH, Medina M, Plachetzki DC, et al.
Phylogenomics provides a robust topology of the major cnidarian lineages and insights
on the origins of key organismal traits. BMC Evolutionary Biology. 2018 Apr
13;18(1):68.

26. Lewandowska M, Sharoni T, Admoni Y, Aharoni R, Moran Y. Functional
Characterization of the Cnidarian Antiviral Immune Response Reveals Ancestral
Complexity. Molecular Biology and Evolution. 2021 Oct 1;38(10):4546–61.

27. Margolis SR, Dietzen PA, Hayes BM, Wilson SC, Remick BC, Chou S, et al. The cyclic
dinucleotide 2'3'-cGAMP induces a broad antibacterial and antiviral response in the sea
anemone Nematostella vectensis. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2021 Dec
21;118(51):e2109022118.

28. Jiang X, Kinch LN, Brautigam CA, Chen X, Du F, Grishin NV, et al. Ubiquitin-Induced
Oligomerization of the RNA Sensors RIG-I and MDA5 Activates Antiviral Innate
Immune Response. Immunity. 2012 Jun 29;36(6):959–73.

29. Fridrich A, Modepalli V, Lewandowska M, Aharoni R, Moran Y. Unravelling the
developmental and functional significance of an ancient Argonaute duplication. Nat
Commun. 2020 Dec 3;11(1):6187.

30. Lohmann JU, Endl I, Bosch TCG. Silencing of Developmental Genes in *Hydra*.
Developmental Biology. 1999 Oct 1;214(1):211–4.

31. Chera S, de Rosa R, Miljkovic-Licina M, Dobretz K, Ghila L, Kaloulis K, et al. Silencing
of the hydra serine protease inhibitor Kazal1 gene mimics the human SPINK1 pancreatic
phenotype. J Cell Sci. 2006 Mar 1;119(Pt 5):846–57.

32. Dunn SR, Phillips WS, Green DR, Weis VM. Knockdown of Actin and Caspase Gene
Expression by RNA Interference in the Symbiotic Anemone Aiptasia pallida. The
Biological Bulletin. 2007 Jun;212(3):250–8.

33. Waldron FM, Stone GN, Obbard DJ. Metagenomic sequencing suggests a diversity of
RNA interference-like responses to viruses across multicellular eukaryotes. PLOS
Genetics. 2018 Jul 30;14(7):e1007533.

34. Reitzel AM, Ryan JF, Tarrant AM. Establishing a model organism: a report from the first
annual Nematostella meeting. Bioessays. 2012 Feb;34(2):158–61.

35. He S, Del Viso F, Chen CY, Ikmi A, Kroesen AE, Gibson MC. An axial Hox code
controls tissue segmentation and body patterning in Nematostella vectensis. Science.
2018 Sep 28;361(6409):1377–80.

36. Moran Y, Fredman D, Praher D, Li XZ, Wee LM, Rentzsch F, et al. Cnidarian
microRNAs frequently regulate targets by cleavage. Genome Res. 2014 Apr;24(4):651–
63.

37. Sijen T, Fleenor J, Simmer F, Thijssen KL, Parrish S, Timmons L, et al. On the Role of
RNA Amplification in dsRNA-Triggered Gene Silencing. Cell. 2001 Nov 16;107(4):465–
76.

38. Shi J, Zhang Y, Tan D, Zhang X, Yan M, Zhang Y, et al. PANDORA-seq expands the
repertoire of regulatory small RNAs by overcoming RNA modifications. Nat Cell Biol.
2021 Apr;23(4):424–36.

39. Modepalli V, Fridrich A, Agron M, Moran Y. The methyltransferase HEN1 is required in
Nematostella vectensis for microRNA and piRNA stability as well as larval
metamorphosis. PLOS Genetics. 2018 Aug 17;14(8):e1007590.

40. Tripathi AM, Admoni Y, Fridrich A, Lewandowska M, Surm JM, Aharoni R, et al.
Functional characterization of a 'plant-like' HYL1 homolog in the cnidarian Nematostella
vectensis indicates a conserved involvement in microRNA biogenesis. Ketting R, Weigel
D, Ketting RF, editors. eLife. 2022 Mar 15;11:e69464.

41. Mauri M, Kirchner M, Aharoni R, Ciolli Mattioli C, van den Bruck D, Gutkovitch N, et
al. Conservation of miRNA-mediated silencing mechanisms across 600 million years of
animal evolution. Nucleic Acids Res. 2017 Jan 25;45(2):938–50.

42. Fire A, Xu S, Montgomery MK, Kostas SA, Driver SE, Mello CC. Potent and specific
genetic interference by double-stranded RNA in Caenorhabditis elegans. Nature. 1998
Feb;391(6669):806–11.

43. Li H, Li WX, Ding SW. Induction and Suppression of RNA Silencing by an Animal
Virus. Science. 2002 May 17;296(5571):1319–21.

44. Lim LP, Lau NC, Weinstein EG, Abdelhakim A, Yekta S, Rhoades MW, et al. The
microRNAs of Caenorhabditis elegans. Genes Dev. 2003 Apr 15;17(8):991–1008.

45. Bartel DP. Metazoan MicroRNAs. Cell. 2018 Mar 22;173(1):20–51.

46. Kozlovski I, Jaimes-Becerra A, Sharoni T, Lewandowska M, Karmi O, Moran Y.
Induction of apoptosis by double-stranded RNA was present in the last common ancestor
of cnidarian and bilaterian animals. PLOS Pathogens. 2024 Jul 16;20(7):e1012320.

47. Maillard PV, Van der Veen AG, Deddouche☐Grass S, Rogers NC, Merits A, Reis e Sousa
C. Inactivation of the type I interferon pathway reveals long double☐stranded
RNA☐mediated RNA interference in mammalian cells. The EMBO Journal. 2016
Dec;35(23):2505–18.

48. Seo GJ, Kincaid RP, Phanaksri T, Burke JM, Pare JM, Cox JE, et al. Reciprocal
Inhibition between Intracellular Antiviral Signaling and the RNAi Machinery in
Mammalian Cells. Cell Host & Microbe. 2013 Oct 16;14(4):435–45.

49. Witteveldt J, Ivens A, Macias S. Inhibition of Microprocessor Function during the
Activation of the Type I Interferon Response. Cell Rep. 2018 Jun 12;23(11):3275–85.

50. Witteveldt J, Knol LI, Macias S. MicroRNA-deficient mouse embryonic stem cells
acquire a functional interferon response. Elife. 2019 Apr 23;8:e44171.

51. Moran Y, Agron M, Praher D, Technau U. The evolutionary origin of plant and animal
microRNAs. Nat Ecol Evol. 2017 Feb 21;1(3):27.

52. Nicolás FE, Garre V. RNA Interference in Fungi: Retention and Loss. Microbiol Spectr.
2016 Dec;4(6).

53. Drinnenberg IA, Fink GR, Bartel DP. Compatibility with killer explains the rise of RNAi-
deficient fungi. Science. 2011 Sep 16;333(6049):1592.

54. Iwama RE, Moran Y. Origins and diversification of animal innate immune responses
against viral infections. Nat Ecol Evol. 2023 Feb;7(2):182–93.

55. Genikhovich G, Technau U. Induction of spawning in the starlet sea anemone
Nematostella vectensis, in vitro fertilization of gametes, and dejellying of zygotes. Cold
Spring Harb Protoc. 2009 Sep;2009(9):pdb.prot5281.

56. Untergasser A, Cutcutache I, Koressaar T, Ye J, Faircloth BC, Remm M, et al. Primer3--
new capabilities and interfaces. Nucleic Acids Res. 2012 Aug;40(15):e115.

57. Columbus-Shenkar YY, Sachkova MY, Macrander J, Fridrich A, Modepalli V, Reitzel
AM, et al. Dynamics of venom composition across a complex life cycle. Sánchez
Alvarado A, editor. eLife. 2018 Feb 9;7:e35014.

58. Schmittgen TD, Livak KJ. Analyzing real-time PCR data by the comparative CT method.
Nat Protoc. 2008 Jun;3(6):1101–8.

59. Plotnikova A, Kellner MJ, Schon MA, Mosiolek M, Nodine MD. MicroRNA Dynamics
and Functions During Arabidopsis Embryogenesis. The Plant Cell. 2019 Dec
1;31(12):2929–46.

60. Friedländer MR, Mackowiak SD, Li N, Chen W, Rajewsky N. miRDeep2 accurately
identifies known and hundreds of novel microRNA genes in seven animal clades. Nucleic
Acids Res. 2012 Jan;40(1):37–52.

61. Langmead B, Trapnell C, Pop M, Salzberg SL. Ultrafast and memory-efficient alignment
of short DNA sequences to the human genome. Genome Biol. 2009;10(3):R25.

62. Nilsen TW. Gel purification of RNA. Cold Spring Harb Protoc. 2013 Feb 1;2013(2):180–
3.