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 a sequence-specific mRNA degradation mechanism, which

serves as an antiviral pathway by processing viral double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) into short

interfering RNAs (siRNAs), leading to virus destruction. It is considered as an ancestral

mechanism which invertebrates rely on for defense against viruses, whereas vertebrates have

evolved instead the interferon pathway. Recent studies suggest that sea anemones, members

of the basally-branching phylum Cnidaria, might possess an immune response with more

vertebrate characteristics than previously thought; however, it is unknown whether cnidarians

also employ RNAi as an antiviral response similarly to nematodes and insects. Here, we

characterize the response of the model cnidarian *Nematostella vectensis* to simulated viral

infection. We injected dsRNA with eGFP sequence into eGFP-expressing transgenic zygotes

and show that siRNAs mapping to the eGFP sequence are generated and induce a moderate

but significant knockdown of eGFP expression. Interestingly, we detected no evidence for

secondary siRNA production, despite their crucial role in the amplification of antiviral

response in other organisms. Notably, siRNA pathway components are specifically

upregulated upon dsRNA injection, while microRNA pathway components are

downregulated. Furthermore, injection of mRNA coding for self-replicating viral gene fused

to eGFP, also induced upregulation of siRNA-related genes and a mild decrease in transgene

expression. Overall, we propose that *N. vectensis* possesses an siRNA-mediated antiviral

response that lacks secondary amplification and functions as a short-term antiviral

mechanism.

Introduction

RNA interference (RNAi) is a conserved gene expression regulation mechanism that

encompasses several pathways mediated by 20-30 nucleotide long RNA molecules, which

silence specific targets through base pairing. The three major RNAi-related pathways are the

microRNA (miRNA), short interfering RNA (siRNA), and PIWI-interacting RNA (piRNA).

Among these, the miRNA pathway primarily targets endogenous protein coding genes and the

siRNA pathway provides defense against transposons and viral infection (1,2). The siRNA

pathway is considered to be the main antiviral immune 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 siRNA

system persists only in specific tissues or developmental stages, and in general their main

antiviral innate immune response instead relies heavily on the interferon pathway (6–9). The

siRNA 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, integral

components of the RNA-Induced Silencing Complex (RISC), 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 and mosquitoes, the amplification is RdRp-independent and is mediated by reverse

transcriptases (17,18). In *C. elegans*, secondary siRNAs are typified by carrying 5'-

triphosphate modification and they are 22 nucleotide long and tend to display sequence biases

(19–22). *D. melanogaster* also generates secondary antiviral siRNAs with 5'-triphosphate

modifications, likely synthesized by an as-yet-unidentified reverse transcriptase (18,23).

Antiviral RNAi is 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 (24,25). Cnidarians, comprising the Anthozoa (sea

anemones and corals) and the Medusozoa (jellyfish and hydras), occupy a key phylogenetic

position for exploring the early evolution of immune pathways (26). Intriguingly, despite their

basal position, some cnidarians exhibit unexpected complexity in their antiviral pathways

(27,28), and so far, there has been contradictory evidence regarding the functionality of the

antiviral RNAi system in cnidarians.

First, *N. vectensis* possesses homologs to antiviral 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)] (27). This could point to activation of the

antiviral siRNA pathway; however, *N. vectensis* also has homologs to components of the

interferon pathway, such as Interferon Regulatory Factors (IRFs) (27–29). 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 predominates in the antiviral

response (27).

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

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

specialized in carrying distinct populations of small RNAs, with AGO1 loading only miRNAs

and AGO2 loading both miRNAs and endogenous siRNAs (30,31). Evidence for RNAi

activity has also been reported in other cnidarians. In the medusozoan *Hydra magnipapillata,*

dsRNA-driven RNAi has been successfully used to achieve gene knockdown by

electroporation or feeding (32,33). In the sea anemone *Exaiptasia diaphana* (formerly

Aiptasia pallida), dsRNA was shown to be effective when delivered by soaking (34);

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 corresponding to viral

sequences were found in the sea anemone *Actinia equina* (35), and failures to perform gene

knockdown by dsRNA were reported in *N. vectensis* (36), pointing against robust activity of

the antiviral RNAi pathway.

To address the contradicting evidence and clarify whether antiviral RNAi is an immune

mechanism in cnidarians, we characterized the molecular response to dsRNA presence in *N.*

vectensis zygotes. Because no natural viruses have yet been isolated from *N. vectensis*, we

used synthetic approaches to mimic viral infection by injecting dsRNA into zygotes. This was

complemented by injection of mRNA coding for the Flock House Virus RdRp. Similar

methods have been employed in *Drosophila* and *C. elegans* to simulate viral replication and

activate antiviral RNAi (37,38).

Results

Injection of dsRNA results in mild and transient transgene knockdown

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

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

(39). We injected dsRNA carrying the sequence of eGFP into individual heterozygous zygotes

of this line (**Figure 1A**) and visualized the embryos under a fluorescence stereomicroscope.

As control, we injected dsRNA with a scrambled sequence of eGFP (srGFP). After 24 hours,

the fluorescence of eGFP was dimmer in the embryos injected with eGFP dsRNA compared

to srGFP (**Figure 1B**). 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 1C**). To validate this at the molecular level, we

performed RT-qPCR and confirmed that at 24 hours post-injection (hpi) 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 1D,**

Supplementary file 1). As expected, no significant difference in eGFP transcript level was

detected by RT-qPCR at 72 hpi (**Figure 1D, Supplementary file 1**). In addition, we

quantified the fluorescence intensity of eGFP from stereomicroscope images and showed that

animals injected with eGFP dsRNA exhibited significantly lower mean fluorescence intensity

compared to those injected with srGFP, although the difference was modest, consistent with

the moderate reduction observed at the transcript level (**Figure 1E, supplementary file 2**).

By 72 hpi, fluorescence intensity was indistinguishable between treatments, in accordance

with the visual and RT-qPCR results (**Figure 1E, Supplementary file 2**).

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

knockdown

A. Schematic representation of the dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence used in this study and of

the transgene of the *actin::eGFP* line, adapted from (39).

B. Heterozygous *actin::eGFP* embryos showing dimmer eGFP fluorescence 24 hpi of

dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence (left) compared to scrambled eGFP sequence (right).

Scale bars represent 500 µm.

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

72 hpi of dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence (left) compared to scrambled eGFP sequence

(right). Scale bars represent 500 µm.

D. eGFP transcript levels fold change measured by RT-qPCR, 24 and 72 hpi of dsRNA.

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

biological replicates, p-values = 0.0268, 0.4899).

E. eGFP mean intensity values, measured at 24 and 72 hpi of dsRNA. Statistical significance

is shown for pairwise comparison (one-tailed Student's t-test, n=6 biological replicates for

24 hpi and n=3 for 72 hpi, p-values = 0.02087, 0.5935).

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

The knockdown of eGFP following dsRNA injection suggested that a sequence-specific small

RNA silencing pathway was activated; hence, we proceeded with investigating if siRNAs,

which are the hallmark of antiviral RNAi in nematodes, flies, and plants, were produced. To

detect eGFP-derived siRNAs, we generated small RNA libraries for both *actin::eGFP*

heterozygotes and wild-type (WT) animals injected with eGFP dsRNA, at 24 hours hpi. 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 3**). For this analysis, read counts

were normalized to spikeins for quantitative comparison of small RNA abundance across

samples (**Figure 2**) and in addition calculated in RPM (**Supplementary Figure 1A and B**).

Consistent with the difference in read counts, eGFP fluorescence was visibly weaker in

dsRNA-injected *actin::eGFP* heterozygotes compared to controls, and the eGFP transcript

levels were measured lower by RT-qPCR (**Supplementary figure 2A and B**). As expected,

there was no difference in read counts that map to eGFP between the *actin::eGFP* and the WT

animals (**Figure 2A**). Moreover, the size distribution of the reads peaked at 20-21 nt long,

which resembles the length of siRNA in other organisms but one nucleotide shorter and is in

accordance with endogenous siRNAs previously reported for *N. vectensis* (12,19,40) (**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 4). 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 4**).

Next, we analyzed the phasing of the siRNA reads, which can indicate whether the dsRNA is

processed by Dicer in a slowly processive manner from one side of the sequence or that

processing is initiated by cleavage at internal sites (41,42). The structure of the injected

dsRNA allows processing from the ends (**Figure 1A**). We tested for both 20 and 21 nt

registers, corresponding to the two dominant size peaks (**Figure 2B**), for transgenic and WT

datasets. In all cases, the radar plots showed no pronounced periodicity (**Supplementary**

Figure 3A-D), indicating a lack of strong phasing. We also examined nucleotide composition

biases, since some siRNA types in frequently studied organisms like flies and nematodes

exhibit 5′ nucleotide preferences (43–45). Analysis of both total (**Supplementary Figure 3E**

and F) and uniquely mapping reads (**Supplementary Figure 3G and H**) showed no notable

sequence bias for either the 20 or 21 nt siRNA populations.

We then proceeded to validate that the eGFP-derived siRNAs are loaded into the AGOs, the

carriers of siRNAs within the RISC. For this purpose, we collected WT zygotes injected with

eGFP dsRNA at 24 hpi and applied immunoprecipitation (IP) of AGO2 using specific

antibodies, followed by small RNA sequencing. The read count of eGFP-mapped siRNAs was

significantly higher in AGO2 IP compared to IgG control, confirming the loading of the

dsRNA-derived siRNAs (**Supplementary Figure 4A, Supplementary file 3**). The size

distribution of the reads repeated the 20-21 nt peaks seen in the non-IP libraries

(**Supplementary Figure 4B, Figure 2B**). Furthermore, we employed Trans-kingdom rapid

affordable Purification of RISCs (TraPR), a method that purifies RISCs and their associated

small RNAs from diverse taxa (46). Corroborating the AGO2 IP results, in WT animals

injected with dsRNA, the read counts of eGFP-mapping siRNAs were significantly more

abundant than in uninjected animals (**Supplementary Figure 4C, Supplementary file 3**).

The size distribution followed a similar pattern of 20-21 nt peaks (**Supplementary Figure**

4D). To assess the efficiency of the loading of dsRNA-derived siRNAs, we compared the

number of reads to the total reads of miRNAs captured by the two AGO-isolation methods,

since miRNAs represent efficiently loaded molecules. For both AGO2 IP and TraPR methods,

eGFP-mapping siRNAs are captured in significantly higher numbers compared to miRNAs

(**Supplementary Figure 4E and F**, **respectively, Supplementary file 7**), implying that the

dsRNA-derived siRNAs are loaded with high efficiency into AGO2. Together, these results

demonstrate that injected dsRNA is processed in *N. vectensis* into 20–21 nt siRNAs that are

incorporated into AGO2.

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

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

dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence (24 hpi). *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, n=3 biological

replicates, p-value = 0.0080447, pairwise comparison with Tukey's HSD post-hoc test, p-

values = 0.0077625, 0.0306363, 0.4711136).

H. 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 in *N. vectensis*</u>

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

Drosophila, by amplifying the response and enhancing the magnitude and duration of viral

RNA silencing. 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 (27),

we hypothesized that secondary siRNAs might be produced by RdRps, hence contain a 5'-

triphosphate moiety, similarly to *C. elegans* secondary siRNAs (19). 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 the same RNA

extracted from *actin::eGFP* and WT embryos that were injected with eGFP dsRNA and was

used for the small RNA libraries in Figure 2. 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 3**). The reads were normalized to spikeins

(**Figure 3**) and calculated in RPM (**Supplementary Figure 1C**). In addition, there was no

difference in the size distribution of the reads between the treatments, unlike similar

experiments in *C. elegans* (**Figure 3B**) (19,20,22). 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 the absence of this modification cannot rule out by itself the production of

secondary siRNAs (16).

To investigate this further, we took a different approach, based on a mechanism that occurs in

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

RNA-dependent RNA replication (19,47). To test if this mechanism is active in *N. vectensis*,

we injected into *actin::eGFP* transgenic zygotes a shorter eGFP dsRNA, which includes only

the 3' half of the original sequence, and looked 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'-mapping siRNAs. 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 4**). The injection

of half-eGFP was still able to knock down eGFP levels, as eGFP transcript levels were not

significantly different between half-eGFP and full-length-eGFP injected animals, and

fluorescence was visibly similar (**Figure 3D and Supplementary Figure 5A,**

Supplementary file 1). Moreover, there was no difference between the number and size

distribution of reads mapping to eGFP (**Supplementary Figure 5B and C, Supplementary**

Figure 1D, Supplementary file 3). Consistent with previous sequencing results, we observed

a recurring mapping pattern between replicates (**Figure 3C, Supplementary file 4**).

<u>Figure 3 – No secondary siRNAs were detected following dsRNA injection</u>

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

with RppH enzyme or mock treatment without enzyme. The treatment was performed on

RNA extracted from *actin::eGFP* or WT embryos injected with dsRNA carrying eGFP

sequence (24 hpi). Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (one-way

ANOVA, n=3 biological replicates, p-value = 0.803, pairwise comparison with Tukey's

HSD post-hoc test, 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 (24 hpi). 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 hpi 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).

E-F. eGFP sequence coverage by small RNA reads sequenced by PANDORA-seq (E) or

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

injected with dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence (24 hpi). 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.

G. Size distribution of reads mapping to eGFP sequence corresponding to the samples in (E).

H. Size distribution of reads mapping to eGFP sequence corresponding to the samples in (F).

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 (48). PANDORA-seq is able to remove RNA

methylations such as m^1A, m^3C, m^1G and m^2_2G and convert 3' phosphate and 2'3' cyclic

phosphate into 3' hydroxyl, which allows sequencing of modified classes of RNAs that are

hidden from traditional sequencing. For this assay, four replicates of *actin::eGFP* were

injected with dsRNA and collected at 24 hpi, and the extracted RNA was used for

PANDORA-seq and traditional small RNA sequencing for comparison. Mapping the reads

from both PANDORA-seq and traditional sequencing to eGFP sequence did not reveal an

increase in reads mapping to eGFP or any major changes in mapping distribution (**Figure 3E**

and F, Supplementary file 4). 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 3G and H**).

As reported in other systems, a prerequisite step in the production of antiviral siRNAs in flies

is reverse transcription of the viral dsRNA (18). To test whether a similar process could be

occurring in *N. vectensis*, we analyzed genomic DNA from embryos collected 72 hpi with

eGFP dsRNA using PCR with eGFP-specific primers. No amplification of the eGFP sequence

was detected, whereas the endogenous control gene was successfully amplified

(**Supplementary Figure 6A and B**), indicating that the injected dsRNA was not reverse

transcribed in the anemone embryos. To verify that the absence of eGFP silencing at 72 hpi

was not due to degradation of the injected dsRNA, we extracted total RNA from injected

animals and performed PCR using cDNA and the same set of primers. eGFP amplicons were

detected at both 24 and 72 hpi, (**Supplementary Figure 6C and D**), demonstrating that the

dsRNA remained present during this period.

<u>Injection of self-replicating viral sequence induces upregulation of siRNA components and</u>

<u>reduction of eGFP expression</u>

To the best of our knowledge, viruses from cnidarian hosts were never isolated or cultured.

Hence, to generate a mimic of viral infection that is not just dsRNA, we synthesized mRNA

encoding the Flock House Virus (FHV) RNA1 segment, which contains the viral RdRp, fused

to eGFP (hereafter referred to as FHV-eGFP mRNA). We hypothesized that expression of the

viral RdRp would initiate self-replication, leading to the formation of dsRNA intermediates

containing eGFP sequences that could activate the siRNA-mediated antiviral response and

reduce eGFP transgene expression. To test this hypothesis, we injected FHV-eGFP mRNA

into *actin::eGFP* zygotes and collected embryos at 24 and 48 hpi. As a negative control, we

injected mRNA encoding mCherry protein, which is not expected to trigger antiviral activity.

Fluorescence microscopy revealed no clear difference in eGFP intensity at 24 hpi, but a

visibly weaker signal in FHV-eGFP injected animals at 48 hpi compared to mCherry injected

controls (**Figure 4A and B**). Quantification of mean fluorescence from captured images

confirmed a significant yet modest reduction in eGFP fluorescence at both time points

(**Figure 4C and D**), indicating a mild but significant knockdown of eGFP expression

consistent with the response observed following direct dsRNA injection (**Figure 1E**). Next,

we measured the transcript levels of eGFP and the siRNA-related genes *AGO2* and *Dicer1* by

RT-qPCR. At 24 hpi, eGFP transcript levels appeared elevated in FHV-eGFP-injected

embryos relative to controls, likely reflecting the presence of injected mRNA (**Figure 4E**). By

48 hpi, this difference was no longer apparent, and eGFP expression showed a mild, non-

significant decrease (**Figure 4F**), possibly due to siRNA-mediated targeting of the

replication-derived dsRNA. Notably, both *AGO2* and *Dicer1* were strongly upregulated at 24

hpi, indicating activation of the siRNA pathway in response to replication of the viral RNA

sequence (**Figure 4E**). This upregulation diminished by 48 hpi (**Figure 4F**), similar to the

transient immune activation pattern previously observed in *N. vectensis* following poly(I:C)

treatment (27). Together, these results suggest that expression of the self-replicating FHV-

eGFP construct triggers a transient siRNA-mediated response in *N. vectensis*, leading to

measurable downregulation of eGFP expression.

Figure 4 – Activation of the siRNA pathway by replication of FHV-eGFP mRNA and upon

poly(I:C) treatment

A. Heterozygous *actin::eGFP* embryos 24 hpi of FHV-eGFP mRNA coding for viral RdRp

fused to eGFP (left) or mCherry mRNA as negative control (right). Scale bars represent

500 µm.

B.   Heterozygous *actin::eGFP* embryos 48 hpi of FHV-eGFP mRNA coding for viral RdRp

fused to eGFP (left) or mCherry mRNA as negative control (right). Scale bars represent

500 µm.

C. eGFP mean intensity values, measured at 24 hpi of FHV-eGFP or mCherry mRNA.

Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (two-tailed Student's t-test, n=5

biological replicates, p-values = 0.01628).

D. eGFP mean intensity values, measured at 48 hpi of FHV-eGFP or mCherry mRNA.

Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (two-tailed Student's t-test, n=4

biological replicates, p-values = 0.01409).

E. Fold change of eGFP, *AGO2*, and *Dicer1* measured by RT-qPCR, 24 hpi of FHV-eGFP or

mCherry mRNA. Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (two-tailed

Student's t-test, n=5 biological replicates, p-values = 0.02261, 0.0003509, 0.0002978).

F. Fold change of eGFP, *AGO2*, and *Dicer1* measured by RT-qPCR, 48 hpi of FHV-eGFP or

mCherry mRNA. Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (two-tailed

Student's t-test, n=4 biological replicates, p-values = 0.2251, 0.08616, 0.1745).

G-J. Western blots of antiviral RNAi-related components AGO2 (G) and Dicer1 (H) and

miRNA system specific components AGO1 (I) and GW182 (J) performed on protein content

extracted from WT embryos, 48 hpi of poly(I:C) or NaCl control (protein sizes: AGO2 122

kDa, Dicer1 171 kDa, AGO1 96 kDa, and GW182 185 kDa).

K-N. Fold change of normalized band intensity corresponding to the Western blots in (G-J),

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 = 0.00001079, 0.004998, 0.02551,

0.00193, for AGO2, Dicer1, AGO1 and GW182, respectively).

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

N. vectensis has 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

(31,49,50). It was shown that AGO1 specifically carries miRNAs and AGO2 carries both

miRNAs and endogenous siRNAs (31). 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 heterologously in mammalian cells (51). Previous results revealed

that injection of poly(I:C), a dsRNA mimic, into *N. vectensis* zygotes leads to upregulation of

AGO2 and *Dicer1*, but no change of *AGO1* or *GW182* on the RNA level, a result that

phenocopies the injection of dsRNA (27). To further characterize the activation of the RNAi

pathways 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 demonstrates upregulation of AGO2 and Dicer1 (**Figure 4G and H**).

Interestingly, AGO1 and GW182 that are miRNA specific components, seem to be mildly

downregulated (**Figure 4I and J**). This was found to be statistically significant by comparison

of normalized band intensities (**Figure 4K-N, Supplementary file 5**). To assess the effect of

the antiviral immune response on miRNA expression levels, we analyzed miRNA expression

after eGFP dsRNA injection. The total read count of all *N. vectensis* miRNAs was not affected

(**Supplementary Figure 7A, Supplementary file 6**). A total of 10-12 miRNAs were

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

(**Supplementary Figure 7B and C**).

Recently, single-cell RNA sequencing datasets from *N. vectensis* identified immune cell

clusters in both embryos and adults (52,53). In embryos, the immune cell cluster was defined

based on immune activation following injection of the viral mimic poly(I:C) into zygotes of

an RLRb reporter line (53). Within this immune cell population, both *Dicer1* and *AGO2*

exhibited enrichment, with average $\log_2$-fold change of ~4 and ~3, respectively

(**Supplementary Figure 8 and Table 1**). In contrast, *AGO1* does not show enrichment. This

observation is consistent with the upregulation of AGO2 and Dicer1 detected by Western blot

analysis (**Figure 4K and L**) and implies that this upregulation occurs mostly in specialized

immune cells.

Gene name	Cell type	Average $\log_2$-fold change	Adjusted p-value	Percentage of immune cells expressing the gene	Percentage of non-immune cells expressing the gene

Dicer1	Immune	4.049	0	0.381	0.029
AGO2	Immune	3.032	1.25E-118	0.116	0.015
AGO1	Immune	0.1809	1	0.079	0.069

Table 1 – Gene expression in the immune cell cluster

Expression of *Dicer1*, *AGO2* and *AGO1*, analyzed from single-cell RNA-seq data (53)

obtained from poly(I:C) treated RLRb reporter line.

Discussion

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

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

evidence regarding its activity in cnidarians has 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 most likely activated, and it

results in a significant but mild silencing of eGFP expression, at the RNA and fluorescence

level (**Figure 1**). This comes in contrast to the striking effect of silencing by RNAi exhibited

in other organisms (54,55). 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 (**Figure 2**). 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 (56,57). Supporting the functionality of the eGFP-derived siRNAs is the

efficient loading of the eGFP-mapping siRNAs into AGO2, the carrier of siRNAs in *N.*

vectensis (**Supplementary Figure 4**).

The eGFP-derived siRNAs do not show phasing, indicating that dsRNA processing likely

occurs at multiple internal sites rather than progressively from one end, as seen in virally

infected mouse cells (41). This processing pattern resembles transfection of mouse cells with

dsRNA with long single-strand overhang, suggesting that in *N. vectensis* Dicer processing

starts by internal cleavage even when the dsRNA ends are accessible (42). This observation is

consistent with the dispersed distribution of siRNA reads across the eGFP sequence (**Figure**

2C and D).

Previous studies demonstrated that injection of long dsRNA in *N. vectensis* triggers

upregulation of immune-related genes, including *AGO2* and *Dicer1* within 24 hours, followed

by a decline at 48 hours (27). In this study, we show that injection of mRNA encoding the

Flock House Virus RdRp (fused to eGFP) similarly induces strong upregulation of the siRNA

machinery, peaking at 24 hpi (**Figure 4E and F**). This response is likely driven by RdRp

expression and self-replication, which generate dsRNA intermediates analogous to those

formed during viral infection. Activation of the siRNA pathway was accompanied by a

modest, yet significant, reduction in eGFP fluorescence, mirroring the effect observed

following direct dsRNA injection (**Figure 4C and D**). Together, these results suggest that

both dsRNA exposure and expression of a self-replicating viral gene can activate the siRNA-

mediated antiviral response in *N. vectensis*, resulting in siRNA production and transient

downregulation of eGFP expression. We note that *N. vectensis* or any other cnidarian

currently lacks cultured viruses suitable for experimental infection assays; therefore, dsRNA

and self-replicating viral mRNA were used as functional mimics of viral replication.

Considering the robust upregulation of immune-related genes such as *RLR*s and *IRF* along

with *AGO2* and *Dicer1* in response to dsRNA and poly(I:C) trigger (27), the enrichment of

siRNA pathway components in immune cell clusters (**Supplementary Figure 8**), the specific

activation of siRNA in contrast to miRNA pathway (**Figure 4K-N**) and the characteristics of

the siRNA pathway documented here, our findings support the existence of a transient

siRNA-mediated antiviral defense mechanism in *N. vectensis*.

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, resulting in no detection, as well as no reverse transcription of the

injected dsRNA (**Figure 3 and Supplementary Figure 6A and B**). Hypothetically, there

could be secondary siRNAs in *N. vectensis* carrying yet unidentified modifications 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 (35). Another factor that might contribute to the moderate effect is that

apoptosis is activated in *N. vectensis* upon poly(I:C) injection to zygotes (58). 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 (59,60). In *N. vectensis*, homologs of canonical

vertebrate antiviral factors that take part in the interferon response are upregulated in response

to poly(I:C) (27). Unlike in mammals where interferon and RNAi were shown to be mostly

antagonistic towards each other (61,62), 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* (27), which hints that the interferon-like and RNAi

pathways act in a synergetic manner in this species. In addition, it is likely that this synergetic

relationship also exists in adults of *N. vectensis* and not limited to the embryos, which we

have tested in this work. An overlap of differentially expressed genes was observed between

poly(I:C) triggered embryos and 2□3□-Cyclic GMP-AMP (cGAMP) triggered juvenile

polyps (28). Furthermore, similar gene markers were reported to be expressed in immune cell

clusters in adults and in embryos (52,53). This suggests a similar immune response pattern

between embryos and adults, implying that the antiviral RNAi response in adults likely also

lacks secondary amplification and has a transient role in immune defense.

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 (63). Interestingly, the *N. vectensis* components specifically

associated with the miRNA pathway (AGO1 and GW182) are mildly downregulated at the

protein level under dsRNA challenge, whereas those that serve both miRNAs and siRNAs

(Dicer1 and AGO2) are strongly upregulated (**Figure 4K-N**). This pattern supports the idea

that the siRNA pathway plays a role in the response to invasive dsRNA, while transient

downregulation of the miRNA machinery may serve to prioritize antiviral siRNA activity

during infection.

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 (64,65). To fully understand

the conservation of the antiviral RNAi system it must be characterized in other organisms

from different phylogenetic lineages (66). 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.

<u>Methods</u>

<u>Sea anemone culture and spawning</u>

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

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

conducted as previously described (50,67). *Actin::eGFP* anemones were kindly received from

Dr. Aissam Ikmi (European Molecular Biology Laboratory, Heidelberg, Germany) (39). For

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

fertilize WT eggs.

<u>Microinjection of dsRNA</u>

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 (720 bp for

full-length and 360 bp for half-length) was ordered from RiboPro (Netherlands) and Synbio

Technologies (USA) and was aliquoted and kept in -80 °C until use. The dsRNA included 5'-

triphosphate and blunt ends and was prepared by the companies by annealing of single strands

followed by column purification. All injection mixes included dextran Alexa Fluor 594 at 50

ng/µl (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) as fluorescent tracer. The volume injected to each

individual zygote is determined visually by the fluorescent tracer and is estimated as ~10 pl

(although could be variable) (68). 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, which is roughly estimated as 1.75e-05 and 3.5 e-05 ng, into zygotes of *actin::eGFP*

line or WT, which are 200–300 μm in diameter (69). Biological replicates of the same

experiment were injected with the same concentration. 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, which is roughly estimated as 7e-05 ng. 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

(hundreds) were kept in an incubator at 22 °C, counted and transferred to fresh 16 ‰ artificial

seawater every day. The animals were visualized before being flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen

and were kept in -80 °C until RNA, DNA, or protein extraction. All sequences used in this

study appear in Supplementary file 8.

RNA extraction

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

animals using TRIzol™ (Thermo Fisher Scientific) 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

(Merck Millipore, USA). 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 (70), Primer calibration showed product specificity and 115 % efficiency, -2.99 slope

and R2 >0.98. AGO2 and Dicer1 primers are previously published (27) (primer sequences are

available in Supplementary file 8). 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 the transcript of interest and housekeeping gene 4 (HKG4) as an

internal control (71). 5 ng 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). Expression fold-change was analyzed using

a comparative Ct method ($2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$) (72). All RT-qPCR experiments included three biological

replicates.

<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 (Roche), 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. sRNAs

extracted from AGO2 immunoprecipitated or TraPR isolated samples were not further

processed. Next, small RNA libraries were prepared using NEBNext Multiplex Small RNA

Library Prep Set for Illumina kit (New England Biolabs, USA) with some modifications (73).

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.

<u>Bioinformatic analysis</u>

Small RNA reads were analyzed using miRDeep2 (74). Sequences shorter than 18 nucleotides

were not included. Filtered reads were mapped to *N. vectensis* genome using Bowtie1

(version 1.3.1) (75). 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. For miRNAs differential expression analysis only miRNA guides that had at

least two reads in one of the replicates were retained. Read counts were normalized to

spikeins or calculated in RPM for read count comparison. The normalized reads were

averaged between three biological replicates. Phasing analysis was performed using

coordinate-sorted eGFP-mapped reads according to the method described in (41,42). Unique,

perfectly-matching 20-22 nucleotides long reads were divided into phases in modulo 20 and

21 separately. Representation of nucleotide composition was done using WebLogo (76), for

reads of three biological replicates of dsRNA injected *actin::eGFP* zygotes.

<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.

PANDORA-seq

PANDORA-seq was performed as described before (48). 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 (77). 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 (Bioinformatic analysis), from one set of the paired reads (R1)

due to their short length.

AGO2 Immunoprecipitation

For AGO2 immunoprecipitation, three biological replicates of WT zygotes were injected with

half-eGFP dsRNA and ~1500 animals were frozen after 24 hours. Immunoprecipitation of

AGO2 was performed using custom antibodies, as previously described (78). In brief, AGO2

antibodies (GenScript, USA) and rabbit IgG antibodies (Merck Millipore, I5006-10MG) were

added to PBS-washed Protein A Magnetic Beads (MedChem Express, USA) and incubated

overnight at 4 °C in rotation. Samples were homogenized with in lysis buffer [25mM Tris-

HCl (pH 7.4), 150 mM KCl, 25 mM EDTA, 0.5% NP-40, 1 mM DTT, Protease inhibitor

cOmplete ULTRA tablets (Roche), Protease Inhibitor Cocktail Set III, EDTA-Free (Merck

Millipore) and Murine RNAse inhibitor (New England Biolabs)], rotated and centrifuged at 4

°C for collection of the aqueous phase. The lysate was then added to pre-washed magnetic

beads for pre-clearance, and the samples were rotated at 4 °C. Then, added to the antibody-

bound beads and incubated in rotation at 4 °C before washing with wash buffer [50 mM Tris-

HCl (pH 7.4), 300 mM NaCl, 5 mM MgCl2 0.05% NP-40, Protease inhibitor cOmplete

ULTRA tablets (Roche), Protease Inhibitor Cocktail Set III, EDTA-Free (Merck Millipore)

and Murine RNAse inhibitor (New England Biolabs)]. The immunoprecipitated samples were

kept in -80 °C until RNA extraction followed by sRNA library preparation.

Trans-kingdom rapid affordable Purification of RISCs (TraPR)

For isolation of Argonaute-bound sRNAs, Trans-kingdom rapid affordable Purification of

RISCs (TraPR) kit was used (Lexogen, Austria) (46). Three biological replicates of frozen

half-eGFP dsRNA-injected or uninjected WT animal samples (24 hours old 600-900

embryos) were processed according to manufacturer's protocol. Extracted sRNAs were kept

in -80 °C until library preparation.

Western blot

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

$16,000 \times g$ 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 *N. vectensis* GW182 (51),

Dicer1 (49), AGO1 and AGO2 (Genscript) (31) 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 ℃ 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>FHV-eGFP and mCherry mRNA generation and injection</u>

The sequence for recombinant FHV RNA1 coding RdRp fused to eGFP was ordered from

Synbio Technologies based on previous publications (37,79). The mCherry mRNA template

was ordered as gBlock gene fragments (Integrated DNA Technologies) and in-vitro

transcribed as previously described (78). For both constructs, the complete sequence

including untranslated regions (UTRs) was amplified using Q5 High-Fidelity DNA

Polymerase (New England Biolabs) and gene-specific primers introducing a T7 promoter and

a Kozak sequence upstream of the coding region (primer sequences are available in

Supplementary file 8). In-vitro transcription was conducted with HiScribe T7 mRNA Kit with

CleanCap Reagent AG (New England Biolabs) following the manufacturer's instructions. The

resulting RNA was purified using the RNA Clean & Concentrator-25 kit (Zymo Research)

and eluted in 33 µl of RNase-free water. RNA concentration was quantified with the Qubit™

RNA Broad Range Assay Kit and a Qubit Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Polyadenylation was carried out using *Escherichia coli* Poly(A) Polymerase (New England

Biolabs) for 30 minutes at 37 °C. The final mRNA products were purified with the RNA

Clean & Concentrator-5 kit (Zymo Research) and eluted in 10 µl of RNase-free water. RNA

integrity was verified on a 1.5% agarose gel after denaturation at 95 °C for 2 minutes in a

thermocycler with a heated lid, cooling to 22 °C, and mixing with formamide (Merck

Millipore) at a 1:3 ratio. The mRNA was stored in -80 °C until microinjection. FHV-eGFP

mRNA (3788 bp) was injected to *actin::eGFP* zygotes at concentration of 40 ng/µl, and

mCherry mRNA (1046 bp) was injected at 11.05 ng/µl to account for molarity. All injection

mixes included dextran Alexa Fluor 594 at 50 ng/µl (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) as

fluorescent tracer.

<u>DNA extraction</u>

To detect potential reverse transcription of injected dsRNA, WT zygotes were injected with

dsRNA and collected 72 hpi. Genomic DNA was extracted using an extraction buffer

consisting of 10 mM Tris (pH 8), 150 mM EDTA (pH 8), 0.5% SDS and 100 µg/ml

Proteinase K (Thermo Fisher Scientific), added freshly before use. Samples were incubated in

1 ml of extraction buffer at 50 °C until complete tissue degradation, followed by an additional

30-minute incubation at 37 °C with 3 µl of Monarch® RNase A (New England Biolabs) to

remove residual RNA. DNA was purified by sequential organic extraction steps: 1 ml of basic

phenol (pH 7.5) was added to each sample, followed by centrifugation at 15,000 rpm for 3

minutes; the aqueous phase was retained. This was followed by extraction with an equal

volume of phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1) under the same centrifugation

conditions, and again the upper phase was collected. A final extraction with chloroform was

performed in the same manner. To precipitate DNA, 100 µl of 3 M Na-acetate (pH 5.2) and 1

ml of ice-cold ethanol were added and centrifuged for 10 minutes at 4 °C. The resulting DNA

pellet was washed with 1 ml of 70 % ice-cold ethanol, centrifuged again under the same

conditions, air-dried, and dissolved in 50 µl of nuclease-free molecular-grade water. DNA

samples were diluted 1:1 with nuclease-free water prior to PCR analysis.

<u>PCR</u>

PCR was performed using Q5 High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs) with

35 cycles for 100 ng cDNA and 30 cycles for 0.3 µl diluted genomic DNA. Specific primers

were used to amplify eGFP sequence and an endogenous gene (RLRa) as positive control

(available in Supplementary file 8). Product sizes were validated on 1.5 % agarose gel with 1

kb Plus DNA Ladder (New England Biolabs).

<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>Fluorescence analysis</u>

Fluorescence intensity was measured using ImageJ software (80). Between 20-30 embryos

were selected per picture in 3-6 biological replicates per treatment and mean intensity values

were calculated. Background intensity was subtracted and overlapping pixels or pixels not

containing embryos were removed beforehand.

<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 two-tailed Student's t-

test was used. For comparison of AGO2 immunoprecipitated and IgG read counts and TraPR

isolated dsRNA-injected and uninjected treatments two-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. For ΔCt values between groups injected with FHV-

GFP or mCherry mRNA, two-tailed Student's t-test was used. 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. For comparison of mean fluorescence intensity between treatments,

averages of 20-30 measurements were tested using two-tailed Student's t-test. For selection of

embryos in each picture blinding was used. 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.

<u>Acknowledgements</u>

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

Germany) for the kind gift of *actin::eGFP* anemones and Prof. Shou-Wei Ding (University of

California, Riverside, CA, USA) for generously sharing the sequence of recombinant Flock

House Virus RNA1. The authors also thank Prof. Petr Svoboda (Academy of Sciences of the

Czech Republic, Prague, Czech Republic) and Dr. Filip Horvat (Max Perutz Labs, Vienna,

Austria) for their advice in the phasing analysis and Dr. Michal Bronstein and Mrs. Adi

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

Israel) for their help with high-throughput sequencing.

<u>Supporting information</u>

<u>Supplementary Figure 1 – Read counts of primary siRNAs mapping to eGFP normalized by</u>

<u>RPM.</u>

A. Number of reads (RPM) mapping to eGFP sequence, from embryos injected with eGFP

dsRNA (24 hpi). *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 (Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test, n=4 biological replicates, p-value =

0.02307, pairwise comparison with Wilcoxon rank sum exact test and FDR correction, p-

values = 0.043, 0.043, 0.686).

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

C. Number of reads (RPM) 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 (24 hpi).

Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (one-way ANOVA, n=3

biological replicates, p-value = 0.4998972, pairwise comparison with Tukey's HSD post-

hoc test, p-values = 0.9322034, 0.8187711).

D. Number of reads (RPM) mapping to eGFP sequence, from embryos injected with either 3'

half- or full length-dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence, or mock injection mix (24 hpi).

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

biological replicates, p-value = 0.8221).

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

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

dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence (left) compared to mock injection mix (right). Scale bars

represent 500 µm.

B. eGFP transcript levels fold change measured by RT-qPCR, 24 hpi 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 – siRNAs show no phasing or nucleotide bias

A-B. Radar plot showing the average distribution of 20–22 nt siRNAs across 20 phasing

registers along the entire eGFP sense and antisense strands. The radial distance represents the

mean percentage of reads within each register, averaged from three biological replicates of

dsRNA injected *actin::eGFP* (A) or WT (B) zygotes.

C-D. Radar plot showing the average distribution of 20–22 nt siRNAs across 21 phasing

registers along the entire eGFP sense and antisense strands. The radial distance represents the

mean percentage of reads within each register, averaged from three biological replicates of

dsRNA injected *actin::eGFP* (C) or WT (D) zygotes.

E-F. Representation of sequence composition of total 20 (E) or 21 (F) nt eGFP-mapping

reads, from three biological replicates of dsRNA injected *actin::eGFP* zygotes.

G-H. Representation of sequence composition of unique 20 (G) or 21 (H) nt eGFP-mapping

reads, from three biological replicates of dsRNA injected *actin::eGFP* zygotes. Sequence

logos were generated using WebLogo (76).

<u>Supplementary Figure 4 – eGFP dsRNA-derived siRNAs are loaded into AGO2</u>

A. Number of reads (RPM) mapping to eGFP sequence, recovered from AGO2

immunoprecipitated, or IgG antibody as negative control, samples of WT embryos

injected with dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence (24 hpi). Statistical significance is shown

for pairwise comparison (two-tailed Student's t-test, n=3 biological replicates, p-value =

0.006932).

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

C. Number of reads (RPM) mapping to eGFP sequence, recovered from RISC-isolated

samples of WT embryos injected with dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence (24 hpi) or

uninjected as negative control (24 hours old). Statistical significance is shown for

pairwise comparison (two-tailed Student's t-test, n=3 biological replicates, p-value =

0.0008642).

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

E. Number of reads (RPM) mapping to eGFP sequence compared to miRNA reads,

recovered from AGO2 IP samples of WT embryos injected with dsRNA carrying eGFP

sequence (24 hpi). Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (two-tailed

Student's t-test, n=3 biological replicates, p-value = 0.01487).

F. Number of reads (RPM) mapping to eGFP sequence compared to miRNA reads,

recovered from RISC-isolated samples of WT embryos injected with dsRNA carrying

eGFP sequence (24 hpi). Statistical significance is shown for pairwise comparison (two-

tailed Student's t-test, n=3 biological replicates, p-value = 0.02566).

Supplementary Figure 5 – eGFP knockdown and siRNAs production in *actin::eGFP* embryos

injected with half-dsRNA

A. Heterozygous *actin::eGFP* embryos showing dimmer eGFP fluorescence 24 hpi 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 dsRNA carrying eGFP sequence, or mock injection mix (24 hpi).

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 6 – Injected dsRNA is not reverse transcribed and is stable after

injection

A. No eGFP amplicons are seen when amplified from genomic DNA extracted at 72 hpi of

WT animals with eGFP dsRNA. Uninjected WT animals serve as negative control (n=3

biological replicates). DNA ladder is 1 kb Plus DNA Ladder in all panels.

B. Amplification of endogenous gene as positive control to (A) shows clear bands (n=3

biological replicates).

C. Amplification of eGFP was successful when amplified from cDNA transcribed at 24 and

72 hpi of WT animals with eGFP dsRNA (n=3 biological replicates).

D. Amplification of endogenous gene as positive control to (C) shows clear bands (n=3

biological replicates).

Supplementary Figure 7 – miRNA levels are largely unaffected by dsRNA injection

A. Normalized total number of miRNAs reads from embryos injected with dsRNA (24 hpi).

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, p-value = 0.708, n=3 biological replicates, pairwise

comparisons with Tukey's HSD post-hoc test, 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 (24 hpi).

Supplementary Figure 8 - *Dicer 1* and *AGO2* are enriched in immune cells

Dot plot showing the percentage of cells expressing each gene (dot size) and the mean

normalized expression level (color intensity) across annotated cell clusters from single-cell

RNA-seq data.

Supplementary file 1 - RT-qPCR data

ΔCt, ΔΔCt and fold chang values for all RT-qPCRs.

Supplementary file 2 - eGFP intensity values

Mean intensity values of eGFP measured from injected *actin::eGFP* animals.

Supplementary file 3 - small RNA sequencing read counts

Raw and normalized read counts of eGFP and reads mapped to genome from small RNA

libraries generated from dsRNA injected animals. Raw read counts of spikeins provided for

relevant libraries.

Supplementary file 4 - eGFP coverage reads per base

Normalized read counts per base of eGFP sequence, used to determine mapping locations of

eGFP reads, from small RNA libraries generated from dsRNA injected animals.

<u>Supplementary file 5 - Western blot band intensities</u>

Raw and normalized band intensities measured from Western blot replicates, conducted for

animals injected with poly(I:C).

<u>Supplementary file 6 - miRNAs read count</u>

Raw and normalized read counts of miRNAs from small RNA libraries generated from

dsRNA injected animals.

<u>Supplementary file 7 - miRNAs read count in AGO isolated libraries</u>

Raw and normalized read counts of miRNAs from small RNA libraries generated from

dsRNA injected animals after isolation of AGOs by TraPR method or AGO2

immunoprecipitation.

<u>Supplementary file 8 - DNA sequences</u>

DNA sequences of dsRNAs and primers used for this study.

<u>References</u>

1.   Matranga C, Zamore PD. Small silencing RNAs. Current Biology. 2007 Sept
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 June 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
Sept;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 July
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 July 31;9:e0146.

17. Goic B, Stapleford KA, Frangeul L, Doucet AJ, Gausson V, Blanc H, et al. Virus-derived
DNA drives mosquito vector tolerance to arboviral infection. Nat Commun. 2016 Sept
1;7(1):12410.

18. 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.

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

20. 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.

21. 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.

22. 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.

23. 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.

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

25. 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.

26. 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.

27. 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.

28. 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.

29. 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 June 29;36(6):959–73.

30. Moran Y, Praher D, Fredman D, Technau U. The Evolution of MicroRNA Pathway Protein
Components in Cnidaria. Mol Biol Evol. 2013 Dec;30(12):2541–52.

31. 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.

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

33. 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.

34. 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 June;212(3):250–8.

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

36.   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.

37.   Li WX, Li H, Lu R, Li F, Dus M, Atkinson P, et al. Interferon antagonist proteins of influenza
and vaccinia viruses are suppressors of RNA silencing. Proceedings of the National
Academy of Sciences. 2004 Feb 3;101(5):1350–5.

38.   Rechavi O, Minevich G, Hobert O. Transgenerational inheritance of an acquired small
RNA-based antiviral response in C. elegans. Cell. 2011 Dec 9;147(6):1248–56.

39.   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 Sept
28;361(6409):1377–80.

40.   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.

41.   Maillard PV, Ciaudo C, Marchais A, Li Y, Jay F, Ding SW, et al. Antiviral RNA Interference in
Mammalian Cells. Science. 2013 Oct 11;342(6155):10.1126/science.1241930.

42.   Demeter T, Vaskovicova M, Malik R, Horvat F, Pasulka J, Svobodova E, et al. Main
constraints for RNAi induced by expressed long dsRNA in mouse cells. Life Science
Alliance [Internet]. 2019 Feb 1 [cited 2025 Oct 13];2(1). Available from: https://www.life-
science-alliance.org/content/2/1/e201800289

43.   Ruby JG, Jan C, Player C, Axtell MJ, Lee W, Nusbaum C, et al. Large-Scale Sequencing
Reveals 21U-RNAs and Additional MicroRNAs and Endogenous siRNAs in C. elegans. Cell.
2006 Dec 15;127(6):1193–207.

44.   Asikainen S, Heikkinen L, Wong G, Storvik M. Functional characterization of endogenous
siRNA target genes in Caenorhabditis elegans. BMC Genomics. 2008 June 3;9(1):270.

45.   Ghildiyal M, Xu J, Seitz H, Weng Z, Zamore PD. Sorting of Drosophila small silencing RNAs
partitions microRNA* strands into the RNA interference pathway. RNA. 2010
Jan;16(1):43–56.

46.   Grentzinger T, Oberlin S, Schott G, Handler D, Svozil J, Barragan-Borrero V, et al. A
universal method for the rapid isolation of all known classes of functional silencing small
RNAs. Nucleic Acids Res. 2020 Aug 20;48(14):e79.

47.   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.

48.   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.

49.   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.

50.   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.

51.   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.

52.   Cole AG, Steger J, Hagauer J, Denner A, Ferrer Murguia P, Knabl P, et al. Updated single
cell reference atlas for the starlet anemone Nematostella vectensis. Front Zool. 2024
Mar 18;21(1):8.

53.   Kozlovski I, Sharoni T, Levy S, Jaimes-Becerra A, Talice S, Kwak HJ, et al. Functional
characterization of specialized immune cells in a cnidarian reveals an ancestral antiviral
program [Internet]. bioRxiv; 2025 [cited 2025 Oct 17]. p. 2025.01.24.634691. Available
from: https://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/2025.01.24.634691v2

54.   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.

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

56.   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.

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

58.   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 July 16;20(7):e1012320.

59.   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.

60.   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.

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

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

63.   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.

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

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

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

67. 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 Sept;2009(9):pdb.prot5281.

68. Layden MJ, Röttinger E, Wolenski FS, Gilmore TD, Martindale MQ. Microinjection of
mRNA or morpholinos for reverse genetic analysis in the starlet sea anemone,
Nematostella vectensis. Nat Protoc. 2013 May;8(5):924–34.

69. Fritzenwanker JH, Genikhovich G, Kraus Y, Technau U. Early development and axis
specification in the sea anemone *Nematostella vectensis*. Developmental Biology. 2007
Oct 15;310(2):264–79.

70. 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.

71. 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.

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

73. 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.

74. 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.

75. 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.

76. Crooks GE, Hon G, Chandonia JM, Brenner SE. WebLogo: A Sequence Logo Generator.
Genome Res. 2004 June;14(6):1188–90.

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

78. Admoni Y, Fridrich A, Weavers PK, Aharoni R, Razin T, Salinas-Saavedra M, et al. miRNA-
target complementarity in cnidarians resembles its counterpart in plants. EMBO reports.
2025 Feb 10;26(3):836–59.

79. Lu R, Maduro M, Li F, Li HW, Broitman-Maduro G, Li WX, et al. Animal virus replication
and RNAi-mediated antiviral silencing in Caenorhabditis elegans. Nature. 2005
Aug;436(7053):1040–3.

80. Schneider CA, Rasband WS, Eliceiri KW. NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image analysis.
Nat Methods. 2012 July;9(7):671–5.

1081