Deciphering and modelling the TGF-β signalling interplays specifying the dorsal-

ventral axis of the sea urchin embryo

Swann Floc'hlay[1], Maria Dolores Molina[2#], Céline Hernandez[1#], Emmanuel Haillot[2],

Morgane Thomas-Chollier[1,3], Thierry Lepage[2]* and Denis Thieffry[1]*,

1. Institut de Biologie de l'ENS (IBENS), École Normale Supérieure, CNRS, INSERM,

Université PSL, 75005 Paris, France.

2. Institut Biologie Valrose, Université Côte d'Azur, Nice, France.

3. Institut Universitaire de France (IUF), 75005 Paris, France.

* Corresponding authors

Emails: denis.thieffry@ens.psl.eu ; tlepage@unice.fr

[#] These authors contributed equally to this work.

Abstract

During sea urchin development, secretion of Nodal and BMP2/4 ligands and their antagonists

Lefty and Chordin from a ventral organizer region specifies the ventral and dorsal territories.

This process relies on a complex interplay between the Nodal and BMP pathways through

numerous regulatory circuits. To decipher the interplay between these pathways, we used a

combination of treatments with recombinant Nodal and BMP2/4 proteins and a

computational modelling approach. We further developed a logical model focusing on cell

responses to signalling inputs along the dorsal-ventral axis, which was extended to cover

ligand diffusion and enable multicellular simulations. Our model simulations accurately

recapitulate gene expression in wild type embryos, accounting for the specification of the

three main ectodermal regions, namely ventral ectoderm, ciliary band and dorsal ectoderm.

Our model further recapitulates various mutant phenotypes. Temporal analysis revealed the

dominance of the BMP pathway over the Nodal pathway, and suggested that the rate of Smad

activation governs D/V patterning of the embryo. These results indicate that a mutual

antagonism between the Nodal and BMP2/4 pathways is the fundamental mechanism driving

early dorsal-ventral patterning.

Running title: Sea urchin DV axis specification

Key words: *Paracentrotus lividus*, embryo development, logical model, gene regulatory

network, Nodal pathway, BMP pathway.

Summary Statement: We propose a predictive computational model of the regulatory

network controlling the dorsal-ventral axis specification in sea urchin embryos, and highlight

key features of Nodal and BMP antagonism.

Introduction

During embryonic development, cell fate is specified by transcription factors activated in response to instructive signals. Regulatory interactions between signalling molecules and their target genes form networks, called Gene Regulatory Networks (GRN) (Arnone and Davidson, 1997). Deciphering such GRNs is a key for developmental biologists to understand how information encoded in the genome is translated into cell fates, then into tissues and organs, and how morphological form and body plan can emerge from the linear DNA sequence of the chromosomes (Levine and Davidson, 2005). Noteworthy, the gene regulatory network that orchestrates morphogenesis of the ectoderm along the dorsal-ventral axis of the embryo of the model sea urchin *Paracentrotus lividus* has started to be uncovered in great detail (Haillot et al., 2015; Lapraz et al., 2015; Li et al., 2012; Li et al., 2013; Li et al., 2014; Range et al., 2007; Saudemont et al., 2010; Su et al., 2009).

The ectoderm of the sea urchin larva is constituted of two opposite ventral and dorsal territories, separated by a central ciliary band (Fig. 1A):

The ventral ectoderm is the territory at the centre of which the mouth will be formed. Specification of the ventral ectoderm critically relies on signalling by Nodal, a secreted growth factor of the TGF-β family. *nodal* expression is turned on by maternal factors, while Nodal stimulates and maintains its own expression through a positive feedback circuit. Nodal is zygotically expressed and is thought to dimerise with another TGF-β ligand maternally expressed called Univin (Range et al., 2007); the Nodal-Univin heterodimer promotes Alk4/5/7 signalling and the activation of Smad2/3 together with Smad4. The ventral ectoderm boundary is thought to be positioned by the activity of the product of the Nodal target gene *lefty*, which prevents the expansion of *nodal* expression out of the ventral ectoderm region via a diffusion-repression mechanism (Chen et al., 2004; Cheng et al., 2004; Duboc et al., 2008; Sakuma et al., 2002).

The ciliary band ectoderm is a proneural territory located between the ventral and dorsal ectoderm (Angerer et al., 2011). The ciliary band is made of prototypical cuboidal epithelial cells and runs along the arms of the pluteus larva. Unlike specification of the ventral and the dorsal ectoderm, which actively requires TGF-β signalling, specification of the ciliary band

tissue does not rely on Nodal or BMP signalling, and this tissue develops as a "default" state

of the ectoderm in the absence of these signals.

The dorsal ectoderm is the territory that will differentiate into the apex of the pluteus larva.

Its specification relies on the diffusion of the ventrally synthesized protein BMP2/4, which

promotes dorsal fates by activating phosphorylation of Smad1/5/8 via the activation of the

BMP type I receptors Alk1/2 and Alk3/6. The inhibition of BMP signalling on the ventral

side and the translocation of BMP2/4 to the dorsal side requires the product of the *chordin*

gene, which is activated in the ventral ectoderm downstream of Nodal signalling (Lapraz et

al., 2009). Glypican5 is expressed downstream of BMP2/4 signalling and contributes to

stabilize BMP signalling on the dorsal side by a positive feedback circuit. In addition, the

BMP ligands Admp1 and Admp2 provide robustness to signalling fluctuations of BMP

through an expansion-repression mechanism and autoregulation (Ben-Zvi et al., 2008; De

Robertis, 2009; Joubin and Stern, 2001; Kimelman and Pyati, 2005; Lapraz et al., 2015; Lele

et al., 2001; Reversade and De Robertis, 2005; Willot et al., 2002). This mechanism, which

relies on the transcriptional repression of *admp1* expression by BMP2/4/ADMP2 signalling,

allows *admp1* expression to increase and ADMP1 protein to be shuttled to the dorsal side by

Chordin when BMP signalling decreases. Thus, an increase in *admp1* expression

compensates for the reduction of the intensity of BMP signalling.

One prominent feature of the D/V onset specification is that it relies extensively on the

maternal inputs Panda and Univin, which respectively represses and promotes ventral fate.

Univin is a TGF-β related to Vg1 and GDF1/3 signalling through the Nodal/Activin

receptors. Panda is a secreted factor structurally related to members of the TGF-β superfamily

presumed to repress ventral fate by a still unidentified mechanism. Finally, the transcriptional

repressor Yan/Tel acts as a negative regulator of *nodal* expression, whose function is required

downstream of Panda to restrict *nodal* expression to the ventral side (Molina et al., 2018).

Previous studies have shown that Nodal produced by the ventral ectoderm is a strong

ventralising signal. Overexpression of *nodal* causes all ectodermal cells to adopt a ventral fate

(Duboc et al., 2004; Lapraz et al., 2015; Saudemont et al., 2010) (Fig. 1B), whereas a loss of

Nodal function prevents specification of both ventral and dorsal fates and causes the

ectoderm to differentiate as a ciliary band (Fig. 1C). Conversely, the activity of BMP2/4

protein promotes dorsalisation, and overexpression of BMP2/4 forces all ectoderm cells to

adopt a dorsal fate (Haillot et al., 2015; Lapraz et al., 2009; Lapraz et al., 2015) (Fig. 1D). In

contrast, removing the function of the BMP2/4 ligand from fertilization on prevents

specification of dorsal fates, leading to formation of an ectopic ciliary band territory in the

dorsal region (Fig. 1E). Additionally, knocking down *panda* expression in this BMP2/4 loss-

of-function experiment enables *nodal* to be expressed through the dorsal side of the ectoderm

and promotes ventral fates in all ectodermal cells (Fig. 1F). Conversely, a local *panda*

overexpression specifies the D/V axis by promoting dorsal fates, suggesting that *panda* is

sufficient to break the radial symmetry of the embryo and necessary to specify the D/V axis.

The BMP and Nodal ligands thus show strongly antagonistic activities. However, the

mechanism underlying this antagonism and the resulting cell fate decision still awaits

clarification.

Due to the largely non-cell autonomous nature of the D/V GRN and to the many events of

protein diffusion and feedback circuits involved, an intuitive understanding of the logic of the

network is hard to obtain. For example, Nodal and BMP2/4 are co-expressed in the ventral

territory, but active signalling pathways are located at opposite poles of the D/V axis. In this

context, a model of the D/V gene regulatory network is very useful to formalize the complex

regulatory interactions at stake (Wilczynski and Furlong, 2010). A Gene Regulatory Network

can be modelled as a static regulatory graph with standardized annotations to represent

molecular interactions between key regulator components (Arnone and Davidson, 1997). This

regulatory graph can be supplemented with threshold levels and regulatory rules to obtain a

predictive, dynamical model (Mbodj et al., 2016; Peter, 2019; Peter et al., 2012; Thomas and

D'Ari, 1990).

In the present study, we built a logical model (i.e. using Boolean algebra for the regulatory

rules) of the sea urchin dorsal-ventral specification GRN to (i) assess its accuracy, (ii)

compare the model predictions for different perturbations with the observed gene expression

patterns, (iii) explore the dynamics of the system, and (iv) develop a multicellular framework

to test the ability of the model to generate the spatial patterns observed in wild type or

perturbed embryos.

Results

Model building

We constructed a model of the GRN driving the D/V patterning of the sea urchin ectoderm. We started by compiling experimental data to identify the key genes and regulatory interactions (Fig. 2). The raw data that provided the spatial and temporal expression information to build the model were derived from high resolution in situ hybridization analysis, Northern blot experiments and systematic perturbations experiments. Loss-of-function experiments via morpholino injections are particularly important for GRN reconstruction since they allow to test if a gene is required for activation of another gene. Gain-of-function experiments via mRNA injection were also used in many instances to test for the ability of a given gene to induce another gene when overexpressed.

Based on these data, we first built a regulatory graph representing the D/V GRN in a single cell, using the software GINsim (ginsim.org) (Chaouiya et al., 2012). This construction is an iterative process: the model is subjected to simulations that are confronted to experimental data, and the network and regulatory rules are progressively refined until the simulations qualitatively recapitulate the experimental observations (Fig. 2).

We present here the final model and the simulations (cf. section below) that recapitulate the patterns observed experimentally. The model encompasses a total of 31 nodes, linked by 25 activations and 16 inhibitions (Fig. 3). The nodes included into the model correspond to signalling and regulatory components, while the signed arcs denote regulatory effects between these components. Signalling factors are modelled as input nodes (in yellow in Fig. 3), providing activating or inhibiting signals through the corresponding membrane receptors.

Each non-input node is classified as ventral (eleven nodes shown in blue in Fig. 3), ciliary band (two nodes shown in pink in Fig. 3) or dorsal (eight nodes shown in green in Fig. 3), according to the reported location and time of activation in the presumptive ectodermal regions. For example, *goosecoid* is activated by the Nodal cascade in the ventral region in wild-type condition, and is thus considered as a ventral gene. The model encompasses the main regulatory components of TGF-β signalling pathways, including the ligands, negative regulators such as the proteins that trigger receptor degradation, downstream transcription factors, and antagonists. Each node of the model is annotated with textual explanations and

database links (in particular to PubMed) documenting our modelling assumptions (main

references include the GRN diagram published for Paracentrotus lividus in (Haillot et al.,

2015; Lapraz et al., 2006; Lapraz et al., 2015; Range et al., 2007; Saudemont et al., 2010)).

Among the 31 components of the model, 22 are associated with Boolean variables (ellipsoid

nodes in Fig. 3, taking the values 0 or 1 depending on their activation state), while the

remaining components are associated with multilevel variables (rectangular nodes in Fig. 3,

associated with three or four integer levels, from zero to 2 or 3, see below). The nine input

nodes (shown in yellow in Fig. 3) define 2,304 possible input value configurations. Using the

Java library bioLQM (Naldi, 2018), we identified 1,258 stable states, which can be split into

three main patterns based on the active nodes: 456 ventral, 450 ciliary and 352 dorsal patterns

(cf. Jupyter notebook).

<u>An antagonism between the Nodal and BMP2/4 pathways drives allocation of cell fates along</u>

<u>the dorsal-ventral axis.</u>

A key feature of the D/V GRN is the strong antagonistic activities of BMP2/4 and Nodal. To

correctly account for this aspect in the model, additional experiments were conducted to

better characterize the underlying mechanisms. We first tested whether difference in relative

intensity between both pathways could favour the establishment of one cell fate over the

other. Treatment with an intermediate dose of BMP2/4 protein resulted in embryos

developing with a straight archenteron, no mouth, and covered with a ciliary band like

ectoderm (Fig. 4A), which is a prototypical Nodal loss-of-function phenotype. Similarly, at

intermediate doses of Nodal, the embryos developed with a reduced apex, a phenotype

resembling the BMP2/4 loss-of-function phenotype. These observations suggest that

ectodermal cells receive both antagonistic ventralising Nodal and dorsalising BMP2/4

signals, and integrate them even at intermediary doses at the level of the *cis*-regulatory

sequences of their target genes.

However, since these treatments were performed soon after fertilisation, it was not clear

whether the outcome was reflecting an antagonism between Nodal and BMP occurring during

cell fates allocation, or if they were only the consequence of one pathway being activated

early and dominantly in all cells of the embryo following the injection of mRNA into the egg.

To address this issue, we repeated the Nodal and BMP2/4 treatment at late blastula or early

mesenchyme blastula stage. Treatments with Nodal or with BMP2/4 proteins at late blastula

radialised the embryos by respectively inducing ventral or dorsal fate in all ectodermal cells

(Fig. 4B). These results confirm that the Nodal and BMP2/4 pathway act antagonistically also

during the fate specification phase and that a competition based on dosage rather than on time

of activation is driving the regulation. In order to take into account these results , we paid a

particular attention to the encoding of this antagonism in our model.

First, we associated nine nodes of the model with ternary or quaternary variables (rectangular

nodes in Fig. 3, taking values from 0 to 2 or from 0 to 3, respectively). These multivalued

nodes allow for a more fine-grained encoding of the activation states of key morphogens and

downstream components whose effects are dose-sensitive (nodes Nodal_In, Chordin_In,

BMP2_4_In, Alk4_5_7, Alk2_3_6, Smad2_3_4, Smad1_4_5_8 in Fig. 3). Second, the

antagonism between the Nodal and BMP pathways is encoded in the model in the form of a

double reciprocal inhibition between Smad2_3_4 and Smad1_5_8_4 (Fig. 3), which

implements the competition of these signalling complexes for the shared molecule Smad4.

Note that each of these two inhibitory interactions can be counteracted by an increased

activity of the other antagonistic pathway, following the dose-dependent competition

hypothesis (this is encoded in the corresponding logical rules, see Table 1).

<u>Model stable states match experimental wild-type and morphants phenotypes.</u>

To test our model, we ran simulations and compared the resulting stable states with the wild

type phenotypes observed experimentally. We applied different sets of values for the inputs

nodes, each set corresponding to a specific territory of the ectoderm (Table 1 and Materials

and methods). Using proper combinations of active inputs, the model returns stable state(s),

which are then compared with the list of marker genes expected to be expressed in the

corresponding territory, based on *in-situ* hybridization experiments. We first ran simulations

using initial states corresponding to early 32-cell stage embryos signalling (Fig. 5A),

preceding the later blastula stage. This stage corresponds to the onset of specification of the

ventral organiser, which forms at the opposite side of the gradient of Panda mRNA (Haillot et

al., 2015). This pattern is correctly recapitulated by the stable states obtained from the wild-

type simulations (Fig. 5B-C). The resulting stable states were then used to specify the initial

conditions reflecting a later blastula stage of embryogenesis, after diffusion and shuttling of

maternal factors have taken place (Fig. 5B). Indeed, as multiple diffusion events occur, some

model inputs expressed in one territory are active in a broader region for blastula simulations

(Fig. 6A).

After some iterative refinements of the rules, model simulations qualitatively recapitulated

the expression patterns expected for each individual territory (ventral, ciliary, dorsal) (Fig.

6B). Hence, we can conclude that, the regulatory graph shown in Fig. 3 supplemented by the

logical rules of Table 1 are sufficient to specify the three main ectodermal D/V patterns of the

sea urchin embryo.

To further validate and explore the properties of our model, we simulated loss- or gain-of-

function experiments (mRNA or morpholino injection) by restricting the range of reachable

levels for one or multiple node(s), e.g. to zero for a loss-of-function, or to a higher value for a

gain-of-function (cf. Material and methods). As in the wild-type conditions, we assessed the

relevance of our model by comparing the resulting stable states with the patterns observed in

the corresponding *in-situ* experiments following mRNA or Morpholino injection in the

embryo at early stage. For seven of the eight mutants simulated, the model returned a unique

single stable state in each region, which qualitatively matched experimental observations

(Fig. 6B-D).

In the cases of *nodal* Morphants and of *lefty* mRNA overexpression, the ventral cascade fails

to be established, leading to the absence of both Nodal and BMP2/4 pathways, and the

presence of a default ciliary state in all the ectodermal cells. Following *nodal* mRNA

overexpression, competition between Smad2/3 and Smad1/5/8 for Smad4 creates an

advantage for the ventral cascade producing a fully ventralised embryo. The same pattern is

obtained for the *lefty* Morpholino, because this perturbation impacts the diffusion-repression

mechanism controlled by Lefty (Juan and Hamada, 2001), enabling *nodal* expression to

propagate without restriction (Duboc et al., 2008). In the case of overexpression of the dorsal

fate repressor *chordin* or in the case of BMP morphants, the absence of BMP2/4 signalling

fosters a ciliary band state in the presumptive dorsal territory. However, as BMP2/4 is not

necessary for the expression of *nodal*, the ventral cascade maintains a wild-type expression

pattern in these morphants. Finally, following *bmp2/4* overexpression, the competition for the

common Smad is driven toward the activation of the dorsal cascade, giving a fully dorsalised

ectoderm state.

Interestingly, in the case of the *chordin* morpholino, the model returned two stable states

(denoted by the green and blue triangles at the bottom of Fig. 6B) in the presumptive ventral

region, corresponding to ventral and dorsal fates, respectively. This situation is hereafter
further investigated using a probabilistic framework.
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<u>Stochastic logical simulation of the *chordin* Morphants</u>
Using stochastic simulations, one can unfold the temporal dynamics of the regulatory
network for given initial conditions and estimate the prevalence of any reachable stable state.
In the case of the ventral region in *chordin* morphant conditions, we have seen that our model
can reach two different stable states, corresponding to ventral and dorsal expression patterns.
Using the software MaBoss (https://maboss.curie.fr) (Stoll et al., 2017), we performed
stochastic temporal simulations of our model to generate mean time plots and estimate the
probability to reach each of these stable states. In the absence of precise kinetic information,
we first used equal rates for all (up or down) state transitions.
In the wild type ventral region, as expected, all stochastic simulations gave rise to a ventral
expression pattern (Fig. 7A). In contrast, for the *chordin* morphant, the dorsal state is reached
about twice as often as the ventral state (Fig. 7B). In other words, the dorsal pathway is more
likely to win the competition for Smad4. This partial dominance of the dorsal pathway
matches the experimental observations of weak dorsal patterns for *chordin* morphants (Fig.
6D), presumably resulting from the co-activation of the two antagonistic pathways.
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In the *chordin* morphants, BMP signalling goes unrestricted in the ventral ectoderm,
promoting dorsal fates and repressing the ventral cascade. However, since Nodal is critically
required for *bmp2/4* activation, *nodal* down-regulation in turn leads to the repression of
BMP2/4 signalling. Therefore, in the absence of Chordin, both the ventral and dorsal
cascades are activated through feedback circuits. This conclusion is supported by
experimental observation of transient Smad1/5/8 signalling and *tbx2/3* expression in the
ventral ectoderm (Lapraz et al., 2009).
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To further assess whether this imbalance in favour of the dorsal pathway activation is
sensitive to kinetic (transition) rates, we ran stochastic simulations with different Smad
activation rates for the two pathways. An imbalance in favour of the dorsal Smad activation
increased the gap between the final proportion of dorsal and ventral stable state compared to
wild type (Fig. 7C). On the contrary, an imbalance in favour of the ventral Smad activation
inversed the relationship, with a higher fraction of ventrally specified states than dorsally

specified states, almost mirroring the ratios obtained with equiprobable transition rates (Fig.

7D).

In conclusion, the outcome of the competition between the two pathways is strongly sensitive

to the kinetic rates for the activation of the different Smads. The pathway specific Smad

firstly activated immediately represses the other one by pre-empting Smad4 and thereby

fosters the corresponding state stable.

Multicellular simulations emphasize the crucial role of long-range signal diffusion

In the preceding section, we simulated the behaviour of cells of the three different

presumptive territories by selecting appropriate combinations of signalling input levels,

which were considered as fixed for the whole duration of the simulations. To model more

precisely the production and diffusion of signalling molecules across the ectoderm, we used

the software EpiLog (https://epilog-tool.org) (Varela et al., 2019), which supports simulations

of an epithelium encompassing multiple cells connected through signalling of diffusing

elements. The behaviour of each cell of the epithelium is modelled by the same cellular

logical model, but levels of input signal directly depend on the signal values output by

neighbouring cells. The input signals perceived by a given cell are integrated into logical

diffusion rules, and updated synchronously (see Materials and methods and Table 2) (Fig.

8A). Hence, in general, input levels change over time.

To simulate the wild type condition, we initialised the model with a small concentration of

Nodal and Smad2/3/4 in the ventral territory (corresponding to the three left-most range of

cells) (Fig. 8B). This simulation correctly recapitulated the expected contiguous ventral,

ciliary and dorsal ectoderm territories (Fig. 8C). This result suggests that the relatively simple

diffusion rules properly account for the dynamics of the proteins governing the dorsal-ventral

patterning. In addition, this result highlights the crucial role of Nodal to direct specification of

the ectoderm along the whole dorsal-ventral axis.

As in the case of the unicellular model, we can apply specific perturbations to assess their

impact at the tissue level. As shown in Fig. 8C, our multicellular simulations accurately

recapitulated the phenotypes of the different morphant patterns observed experimentally.

Note that the chordin morpholino has been discarded from these simulations, as it gave rise to

two different stable states, which cannot be covered with the Epilog deterministic input

updating approach. Interestingly, in the course of *lefty* morpholino simulation, we could

clearly see a shift in the ventral-ciliary frontier, which progressively moved toward the dorsal

side, as Nodal diffused in the absence of Lefty repression, until it reached the fully

ventralised stable state (see Fig. S1).

Using Epilog, it is further possible to perform local perturbations by modifying the initial

levels of one or several signalling molecules at specific epithelium locations. Using this

feature, we could recapitulate in silico the results of an experiment reported by (Lapraz et al.,

2015), who injected *nodal* mRNA into two opposite cells of a 4-cell stage *nodal* knock-down

embryo (i.e. following a *nodal* Morpholino injection in the egg). This experiment triggered

the formation of an ectopic, inverted D/V axis and resulted in the development of siamese

pluteus larvae with two ventral sides, two ciliary bands and a central dorsal territory. Using

Epilog and imposing *nodal* and *smad2/3/4* activity at the initial state in both the ventral and

the dorsal side of the epithelium, our spatial logical simulation qualitatively reproduced the

siamese pattern observed experimentally (Fig. 8D).

Discussion

Gene regulatory networks integrate documented interactions between transcription factors, signalling components, and their target genes, which ultimately translate the information encoded into the genome into morphological form and body plan. However, as our delineation of developmental systems progresses, we are facing increasingly large and complex networks, which cannot be fully and rigorously understood without proper formalisation. This is, for example, clearly the case for the GRN governing D/V patterning of the sea urchin embryo, which relies on numerous signalling and regulatory factors, involved in multiple positive and negative feedback circuits.

In our modelling study, several key choices had to be made. As little is known regarding detailed mechanisms and kinetic parameters, we opted for a qualitative, logical formalism. However, to properly model morphogen diffusion and dose-dependent effects, we considered a multilevel extension of the classical Boolean framework. Importantly, in the course of its conception, the model was systematically tested through extensive simulations of wild-type and perturbed conditions. In wild-type conditions, our unicellular model fully recapitulated each territory pattern independently. We further took advantage of a recent multicellular extension of the logical framework to explicitly simulate spatial pattern formation, whose results can be more easily compared directly with the phenotypes of wild-type and mutant embryos.

A key step in our study was to model the interplay between the Nodal and BMP pathways. In this respect, we were guided by our experiments dealing with the treatment of embryos with recombinant Nodal or BMP2/4 proteins at blastula stage (i.e. after the initial specification of the ventral and dorsal territories). These experiments, which demonstrated that over-activation of one of these pathways is sufficient to abrogate signalling from the other pathway, highlighted the strong antagonism between Nodal and BMP2/4 signalling and suggested that this antagonism resulted from a direct competition between the two pathways activated by these TGF-βs ligands rather than from their timing of activation.

The competition between Nodal and BMP2/4 played a key role in understanding the regulatory dynamics within the *chordin* knock-down experiments, which was the only morphant not fully recapitulated by our model for all three territories. In the case of the

chordin knock-down, our logical model predicted that both the ventral and dorsal steady

states were possible in the presumptive ventral region. Accordingly, in the *chordin* morphant,

both the Nodal and the BMP2/4 pathways are activated, antagonising each other.

Consequently to this ectopic activation of BMP signalling, the ventral territory in *chordin*

morphants displays a transient dorsalisation, before reversing towards a ventral ectoderm fate

during gastrulation, as shown by the presence of a mouth opening. However, this brief

dominance of the dorsal fate over the ventral fate in the conditions of Nodal and BMP2/4 co-

activation is not well understood. To further explore the underlying regulatory mechanism of

this dorsal fate dominance, we performed a stochastic logical simulation of the unicellular

model in *chordin* knock-down condition. This analysis resulted in a higher proportion of

active dorsal fates over ventral fates, in agreement with the experiments. This result suggests

that the transient dorsal dominance is encoded in the structure of the GRN. Indeed, even in

the case of the *chordin* morphants, the model accurately recapitulates the conflict caused by

the coactivation of the Nodal and BMP2/4 pathways in the ventral ectoderm. However, by

modulating the rates associated with the different Smads and performing additional

simulation, we showed that the outcome of the competition between the two pathways is

strongly sensitive to these rates.

At this point, our model remains limited to the major early dorsal-ventral patterning events

occurring in the sea urchin embryo. However, in the future, this model could be tentatively

extended to integrate novel data and to explore more refined specification and differentiation

events. For example, it could be extended to investigate the specification of the boundary

ectoderm region, located at the interface between the ectoderm and endomesoderm, which

plays a central role in positioning the clusters of primary mesenchyme cells and spicules

patterning (Armstrong and McClay, 1994; Armstrong et al., 1993; Duloquin et al., 2007;

Hardin et al., 1992; Röttinger et al., 2008). This process is known to depend on Wnt

signalling, presumably in conjunction with Nodal, BMP2/4 and ADMP2 signalling (Lapraz et

al., 2015; McIntyre et al., 2013; Röttinger et al., 2008; Saudemont et al., 2010). With the

current unicellular model, the simulation with the input levels corresponding to the boundary

ectoderm (i.e. Admp2 and Wnt active) results in a dorsal stable state (Fig. S2).

Another possible addition to the model would be the integration of the negative feedback of

Smad6 on BMP2/4 pathway (Armstrong and McClay, 1994; Armstrong et al., 1993;

Duloquin et al., 2007; Hardin et al., 1992; Röttinger et al., 2008). Indeed, Smad6 is activated

by the dorsal signalling downstream of BMP2/4 ; it buffers the activation of the dorsal

pathway by acting as an inhibitor on BMP2/4 signalling. Such a negative feedback circuit

typically generates an oscillatory behaviour. In the frame of the Boolean logic, the

consideration of this negative feedback circuit would result in a cyclic attractor with

alternation of active and inactive BMP and Smad6 activities, which are more difficult to

interpret than stable states.

Our logical model focuses on the blastula and gastrula developmental stages of sea urchin

embryogenesis. One possible extension would be to further explore the regulatory

interactions taking place at earlier stages. In the case of the 32-cell stage, our model correctly

recapitulates wild-type pattern mainly driven by Panda expression. Furthermore, the

simulation results of Panda loss-of-function in 32-cell stage conditions mirror the fully

ventralised phenotype obtained experimentally (Haillot et al., 2015) (Fig. S3 A-B). However,

the simulations of Panda overexpression show discrepancies relative to the experimental

observations. In this case, our model predicts the ventral region become dorsalized, whereas

global injection of *panda* mRNA does not impact the wild-type pattern. Indeed, current

models suppose that an asymmetry of *panda* mRNA provides the spatial cue that in turn

controls the polarised activation of downstream genes. Therefore, an asymmetry of *panda*

mRNA or of Panda protein constitutes the main driving signal to allocate cell fates, rather

than a change in overall Panda concentration. This signalling based on multicellular gradient

cannot be currently recapitulated by our unicellular model, as it requires to integrate inputs

from multiple surrounding cells and also to rely on relative differences in concentration

instead of absolute levels. Further development of EpiLog features could enable us to build

logical rules accounting for the specificities of such multicellular gradient signalling.

To conclude, we have shown that logical modelling can capture several salient dynamical

features of the GRN governing early dorsal-ventral patterning of sea urchin embryos,

including the key role played by intercellular interactions. Such models should therefore be

useful to further explore the complex interplay between maternal factors and zygotic genes,

which orchestrates patterning of the ectoderm of the sea urchin embryo downstream of

intercellular signals. To this end, we provide our models and the Jupyter notebook

implementing all our analyses within the CoLoMoTo docker environment (see supplementary

materials).

Materials and methods

Animals, embryos and treatments

Adult sea urchins (*Paracentrotus lividus*) were collected in the bay of Villefranche-sur-Mer.

Embryos were cultured as described in (Lepage and Gache, 1989; Lepage and Gache, 1990).

Fertilization envelopes were removed by adding 1mM 3-amino-1,2,4 triazole (ATA) 1 min

before insemination to prevent hardening of this envelope followed by filtration through a 75

μm nylon net. Treatments with recombinant BMP2/4 or Nodal (R&D) proteins were

performed at the time indicated in the schemes by adding the recombinant protein diluted

from stocks in 1 mM HCl in 24 well plates containing about 1000 embryos in 2 ml of

artificial sea water (Lapraz et al., 2009).

Anti-phospho-Smad1/5/8 Immunostaining

Embryos were fixed with 4% formaldehyde for 15 min at swimming blastula stage (3 hours

after adding BMP2/4 protein) then briefly permeabilized with methanol. Anti-Phospho-

Smad1 (Ser463/465) / Smad5 (Ser463/465) / Smad9 (Ser465/467) from Cell Signalling

(D5B10 Ref. 13820) was used at 1/400. Embryos were imaged with an Axio Imager.M2

microscope.

In situ hybridization

In situ hybridization was performed using standard methods (Harland, 1991) with DIG-

labelled RNA probes and developed with NBT/BCIP reagent. The *nodal*, *chordin* and *tbx2/3*

probes have been described previously (Duboc et al., 2004; Lapraz et al., 2009). Control and

experimental embryos were developed for the same time in the same experiments. Embryos

were imaged with an Axio Imager M2 microscope.

Overexpression of mRNAs and morpholino injections

For overexpression studies, *nodal, lefty, chordin* and *bmp2/4* capped mRNAs were

synthesized from NotI-linearized templates using mMessage mMachine kit (Ambion). After

synthesis, capped RNAs were purified on Sephadex G50 columns and quantitated by

spectrophotometry. *Nodal , lefty*, *chordin* and *bmp2/4* mRNAs were injected at 400 μg/ml,

200 μg/ml, 1000 μg/ml and 500 μg/ml, respectively. Capped mRNA were injected mixed

with Tetramethylrhodamine Dextran (10000 MW) at 5 mg/ml (Duboc et al., 2004).

Morpholino oligonucleotides were dissolved in sterile water and injected at the one-cell stage

together with Tetramethylrhodamine Dextran (10000 MW) at 5 mg/ml as already described

(Duboc et al., 2004; Haillot et al., 2015).

<u>Logical formalism</u>

We built our model using the multilevel logical formalism introduced by R. Thomas (Thomas

and D'Ari, 1990). This qualitative approach relies on graph-based representations of the

network and of its dynamics. The network is formalized as a *regulatory graph*, where nodes

denote molecular species (e.g. proteins), whereas signed arcs denote regulatory interactions,

positive or negative. The nodes can take a limited number of integer values, only two (0 or 1)

in the simplest, Boolean case, but potentially more when biologically justified, for example in

the case of morphogens with clearly distinct activity ranges. Hence, each regulatory arc is

associated with an integer threshold, always 1 in the Boolean case, but potentially higher in

the case of a multilevel regulator. Logical rules further specify how each node reacts to the

presence or absence of the corresponding incoming interactions. Specific (non-overlapping)

Boolean rules are defined for each value of each node.

Boolean rules are built by combining literals (i.e. valued component) with the logic operators

AND (denoted "&"), OR (denoted "|") and NOT (denoted "!").

Table 1 lists the formula associated with the different components of our model.

Note that the formula associated with zero values are omitted, as they can be computed

directly as the complement of the formulae defined for the other values for a given node.

For example, the formula of the node FoxA

FoxA => 1 IFF (FoxA | Brachyury) & !Repressor_R1"

can be translated into "FoxA node tends toward the value 1 if and only if FoxA or Brachyury

are active and Repressor_R1 is not active".

In this example, the regulatory actions from Brachyury to FoxA and from Repressor_R1 to

FoxA correspond respectively to an activation and an inhibition.

The levels of the input (unregulated) nodes are defined at the start of simulations.

Using the Boolean rules of Table 1, we can simulate the behaviour of the system for different

input value combinations. In this respect, we use the asynchronous updating approach

proposed by R. Thomas (Thomas, 1991), which consists in following all the different

possible single unitary changes of values induced by the rules.

The dynamical behaviour of the model is generally represented in terms of a *state transition*

graph, where each node represents a discrete state of the model (i.e. a vector listing the

values of the different components of the model), whereas each arc represents a state

transition.

In this work, we took advantage of the implementation of this logical formalism into the user-

friendly Java software suite GINsim (version 3.0, see http://ginsim.org, (Naldi, 2018)). In our

analyses, we particularly focused on stable states (see e.g. Fig. 5B), which typically denote

cell differentiation states. These can be directly computed (i.e. without unfolding the state

transition graph) using a very efficient algorithm implemented in GINsim (Naldi et al., 2007).

Wild type simulation

We simulated the behaviour of each dorsal-ventral region independently, considering

different sets of values for the input nodes in the ventral, ciliary and dorsal presumptive

territories. These sets of input values were defined based on previously published results (see

Results section). As we simulate each territory individually, the unicellular model cannot

directly take into account the diffusion of morphogens, which are therefore specified as input

levels (e.g. the presence of Lefty is considered as an active input in the ciliary regions,

although it is known that it diffuses from the ventral region). For each simulation, we extract

the resulting stable state(s) and classify them as ventral, ciliary or dorsal pattern depending on

the set of output node levels.

For example, the initial conditions for the simulation of the ventral ectoderm territory

considered as active inputs Nodal (level 2), Lefty, Chordin and BMP2/4. This combination

produced a stable state in which all the ventral nodes were active and the dorsal nodes

inactive. In contrast, when the initial conditions were set as Nodal (level 1), Lefty. BMP2/4,

Chordin and Tolloid being active, the resulting stable state corresponded to the dorsal

regulatory state.

Mutant simulations

Genetic perturbations are defined in GINsim by constraining one or sometimes several nodes

of the model. To simulate a *knock down* mutant (e.g. injection of a morpholino), the level of

the corresponding node is set and maintained to 0. In the case of an ectopic expression (e.g.

injection of a mRNA), the level of the corresponding node is set and maintained to its

maximal value, which can be 1 or higher in case of a multilevel node. Morphogen diffusion is

taken into account through the specifications of proper input values, which thus need to be

adjusted for each mutant. For example, the ectopic activation of Nodal is known to induce the

activation of its downstream target BMP2/4 very early on; hence, the corresponding input

variables must be set at their highest levels for the simulation of ectopic nodal expression.

Stochastic modelling using MaBoss

When several stable states can be reached (as in the case of *chordin* morpholino), we have

performed probabilistic simulations to evaluate the probability to reach each of these stable

states from the specified initial conditions. In this respect we used the software MaBoss

(https://maboss.curie.fr), a C++ software enabling the simulation of continuous/discrete time

Markov processes, applied to Boolean networks. The original unicellular model is converted

into the MaBoSS compliant format using a specific export functionality of GINsim, which

involves the replacement of multilevel nodes by sets of Boolean variables, without affecting

the model dynamic (Stoll et al., 2017). Per default, all up and down rates are considered

equal, but these can be modified at will.

In this study, we used MaBoSS to simulate the *chordin* morpholino perturbation (comparing

it with the wild-type situation), which resulted in two possible stable states in the unicellular

model. The inputs were fixed as for the ventral configuration (Nodal, Lefty, BMP2/4 and

Admp1 active) in the presence or inactivation of Chordin. We then modified the propensity to

activate the ventral or the dorsal cascade by adjusting the ratios of the rates assigned to the

Alk receptors corresponding to each of the two cascades: 0.5/0.5 (equiprobable rates),

0.75/0.25 (ratio favouring the dorsal Alk), 0.25/0.75 (ratio favouring the ventral Alk).

Multicellular simulation using EpiLog

We took advantage of recent software Epilog (https://epilog-tool.org, v1.1.1.) (Varela et al.,

2019) to perform multicellular simulations. The use of Epilog implies the definition of

additional logical rules for the diffusion of signals, e.g. of the values of input nodes

depending on the output nodes active in neighbouring cells, taking into account their distance

from the target cell. For example, the rule "{Nodal:2[0:1], min = 3}" states that a cell will

have its Nodal input node value converging toward the value 2 if at least 3 cells are

expressing Nodal at a value 2 at a maximum distance of one cell (i.e. the target cell itself and

its direct neighbours).

Our epithelium model is eight cells wide and six cells long, made of hexagonal shaped cells,

each one being in direct contact with at most six different neighbouring cells. The top and

bottom part of the epithelium are wrapped together to allow diffusion of signalling molecules

through these two sides. Each cell behaves according to the model described in our

unicellular simulations. In contrast with our previous unicellular simulations, the inputs are

dynamically updated based on the signals perceived in each cell, depending on the activation

levels of the output nodes of neighbouring cells. The rules integrating the extracellular signals

are identical for all cells of the epithelium. In our epithelium simulations, input nodes of all

cells are updated in a synchronous manner. Hence, each epithelium simulation gives rise to a

deterministic trajectory ending in a single attractor at the level of the whole tissue (a stable

state for the simulations reported here).

<u>Multicellular wild type and mutant simulations</u>

For our epithelium simulations, we define the initial state by selecting the nodes that will be

active in a specific set of cells at the start of the simulation. During simulations, the values of

these nodes can change depending on the model state and on paracrine signalling. To

simulate a wild-type embryo, we set the model to an initial state where the ventral cascade is

starting to be activated in the ventral region of the epithelium (3 leftmost cell columns of the

epithelium), with the initial and transient activation of Smad1_4_5_8 and Nodal output

nodes. Univin is also ubiquitously present at initial state. As in the unicellular simulation, for

simulating perturbations, the target nodes are set and maintained at a fixed value.

For the siamese simulation, we use the wild-type logical model with a larger epithelium, with

an initial state accounting for a ventral expression of Smad1_4_5_8 and Nodal on the ventral

side, but also on the dorsal side of the epithelium (3 rightmost cell columns of the

epithelium), i.e. a symmetrical activity pattern.

<u>Model and code availability</u>

The unicellular and multicellular models, together with the Jupyter notebook encoding all the

simulations performed with GINsim and MaBoss, are available in the GINsim model

repository (http://ginsim.org/node/236) and the GitHub repository

https://github.com/ComputationalSystemsBiology/echinodal_notebook. The Jupyter

notebook uses the colomoto-docker image (https://github.com/colomoto/colomoto-docker,

v2020-01-24) (Naldi et al., 2018). The models can be uploaded in zginml and peps format, to

be open with GINsim (v3.0.0b) and EpiLog (v1.1.1), respectively. The unicellular model has

been further deposited in SBML qual format in the BioModels database (ID

MODEL2002190001).

Table 1

A - Input nodes	Value ventral	Value ciliary	Value dorsal
Nodal_In	2	1	1
Lefty_In	1	1	1
Panda_In	0	0	0
Admp1_In	1	1	1
Bmp2_4_In	1	1	1
Chordin_In	1	1	1
Tolloid_In	0	0	1
Wnt_In	0	0	0
Admp2_In	0	0	0

B - Internal nodes	Value	Logical rule	Expression	Initial state
Univin	1	!Smad2_3_4:2	Ventral	1 (basal)
Alk4_5_7	1	(Nodal_In:1 & !Lefty_In & Univin & !Panda) | (Nodal_In:2 & Univin & !Panda)	Ventral	0
Alk4_5_7	2	Nodal_In:3 & Univin	Ventral	0
Smad_2_3_4	1	Alk4_5_7:1 & !Smad1_4_5_8 & !Smad6	Ventral	0
Smad_2_3_4	2	Alk4_5_7:2	Ventral	0
Nodal	2	Smad2_3_4	Ventral	0
Bmp2_4	1	Smad2_3_4:1	Ventral	0
Bmp2_4	2	Smad2_3_4:2	Ventral	0
Lefty	1	Smad2_3_4	Ventral	0
Chordin	1	Smad2_3_4	Ventral	0
Goosecoid	1	Smad2_3_4	Ventral	0
Repressor_R1	1	!Goosecoid	Ventral	0
FoxA	1	(FoxA | Brachyury) & !Repressor_R1	Ventral	0
Brachyury	1	!Repressor_R1 | FoxA	Ventral	0
Alk1_2_3_6	1	((Admp2_Trans & !Chordin_In) | (Admp2_Trans & Tolloid_In & !Chordin_In:2)) & !Bmp2_4_In:2	Dorsal	0
Alk1_2_3_6	1	((Bmp2_4_In:1 & Admp1_In & !Chordin_In) | (Bmp2_4_In:1 & Admp1_In & Tolloid_In & !Chordin_In:2)) & !Bmp2_4_In:2	Dorsal	0
Alk1_2_3_6	2	Bmp2_4_In:2 & !Chordin_In:2	Dorsal	0
Smad1_4_5_8	1	Alk1_2_3_6:2 & Smad2_3_4:2	Dorsal	0
Smad1_4_5_8	2	(Alk1_2_3_6:2 & !Smad2_3_4:2) | (Alk1_2_3_6:1 & !Smad2_3_4)	Dorsal	0
Tbx2_3	1	Smad1_4_5_8:2	Dorsal	0
IrxA	1	Tbx2_3	Dorsal	0
Smad6	1	Tbx2_3 | Smad1_4_5_8:2	Dorsal	0
Glypican5	1	Smad1_4_5_8:2	Dorsal	0
Frz	1	Wnt_In	Dorsal	0
Admp2	1	Frz | Smad1_4_5_8:2	Dorsal	0
FGFA	1	!Smad2_3_4 & !Smad1_4_5_8:2	Ciliary	0
Onecut	1	!(IrxA | Goosecoid | Smad2_3_4)	Ciliary	0

Table 1. Logical rules of the unicellular model.

Logical rules are used to define the behaviour of each node, for each territory, relative to its

direct upstream regulatory nodes. Input nodes (A) do not have any assigned rule, as they are

set to a given fixed value specific for each territory when performing simulations. Internal

nodes (B) have a logical rule assigned for each possible level they can converge to and an

initial state. All nodes have a basal level of 0 (inactive), except Univin (basal level 1), as it

tends to be ubiquitously active without the need for activators. The logical rules combines

literals, each representing the activity of one node, with the Boolean operators OR ("|"),

AND ("&") and NOT ("!").

Table 2

Input nodes	Value	Logical diffusion rule	Interpretation
Admp1_In	1	{Admp1[0:],min = 1}	Admp1 takes level 1 if a least one cell expresses Admp1 with no distance restriction
Bmp2_4_In	1	{Bmp2_4[0:], min = 1} & !{Bmp2_4:2[0], min = 1}	Bmp2_4 takes level 1 if at least one cell expresses Bmp2_4 with no distance restriction and the cell does not already express Bmp2_4 at level 2
Bmp2_4_In	2	{Bmp2_4:2[0], min = 1}	Bmp2_4 takes level 2 if the cell already expresses Bmp2_4 at level 2
Chordin_In	1	{Chordin[0:2], min = 1}	Chordin takes level 1 if at least one cell expresses Chordin among the cell itself and its neighbors at a distance equal or lower than two cells
Chordin_In	2	No function	Chordin cannot take level 2 by diffusion
Lefty_In	1	{Nodal:2[0:1], min = 1, max = 2}	Lefty takes level 1 if one or two cell(s) express Nodal at level 2 among the cell itself and its direct neighbors
Nodal_In	2	{Nodal:2[0:1], min = 3}	Nodal takes level 2 if at least three cells express Nodal et level 2 among the cell itself and its direct neighbors
Nodal_In	3	No function	Nodal cannot take level 3 by diffusion
Admp2_In	1	{Admp2[:0],min = 1}	Admp2 takes level 1 if the cell already expresses Admp2
Tolloid_In	*	No function	No Tolloid diffusion
Panda_In	*	No function	No Panda diffusion
Wnt_In	*	No function	No Wnt diffusion

Table 2. Logical diffusion rules used in Epilog.

Logical rules are used to define the diffusion dynamics perceived by the inputs nodes,

depending on the values of the output nodes in the neighbouring cells. Diffusion rules are

defined in the format "{N:L[D],S}", with N as the node emitting diffusing signal, L its

required activation level, D the distance range to perceive diffusion and S the minimum

and/or maximum number of cell required in this state. For example, the seventh row in the

table specifies that cells will have their Nodal input node value converging toward the value 2

if at least three cells are expressing Nodal at a value 2 at a maximum distance of one cell (i.e.

among the target cell itself and its direct neighbours).

 Figure legends

Figure 1. Panda, Nodal and BMP2/4 signalling directs patterning of the Dorsal/Ventral

axis of the sea urchin embryo.

Summary of the morphological phenotypes and identity of the ectodermal territories of wild-

type (control) embryos and embryos following perturbations of Nodal or BMP signalling.

(A) In control embryos, the balance between Nodal and BMP signalling patterns the

ectoderm in three main territories: Nodal signalling specifies the ventral ectoderm, BMP2/4

signalling specifies the dorsal ectoderm, while a ciliary band develops at the interface

between them. (B) The whole ectoderm differentiates into ventral territory when *nodal* is

overexpressed. (C) Both Nodal and BMP2/4 signalling are absent in Nodal morphants, which

gives rise to an expanded large ciliary band. (D) Following BMP2/4 overexpression, all the

ectoderm acquires dorsal identity. (E) In contrast, after BMP2/4 inhibition, ventral territories

are not perturbed but an ectopic ciliary band develops in place of the presumptive dorsal

ectoderm. (F) Simultaneous perturbation of both the TGF-β related factor Panda and BMP2/4

signalling allows the expansion of Nodal signalling to the whole territory resulting in the

ventralisation of the ectoderm. The genes, proteins or interactions that are inactive following

each perturbation are denoted in light grey. Activation and inhibition interactions are

respectively shown by green and red arrows. lv, lateral view. vv, vegetal view.

Figure 2. Iterative integration of biological data into the GRN model.

The GRN model has been built through an iterative process. A first version based on

literature curation and experimental evidence was set and then simulated in wild-type and

perturbation conditions. The results of wild-type and mutant simulations were systematically

compared with experimental results. In case of discrepancy, the regulatory graph and the

logical rules were refined, and the behaviour of the model was then re-examined through the

same process.

Figure 3. Logical model integrating the main signalling pathways controlling

specification the dorsal-ventral axis in the embryo of the sea urchin *Paracentrotus*

Lividus.

Relying on a logical formalism, this model was defined and analysed using the software

GINsim. Green and red arrows represent activations and repressions, respectively. Ellipsoid

and rectangular components represent Boolean and multivalued nodes, respectively. The

components in yellow correspond to model inputs. Internal components are coloured

according to their domain of expression along the dorsal-ventral axis, i.e. dorsal (green),

ventral (blue) or ciliary (pink) regions.

Figure 4. BMP2/4 and Nodal signalling antagonize each other to pattern the D/V axis of

the sea urchin embryo.

(A) Continuous treatments at increasing concentrations with Nodal or BMP2/4 protein from

the fertilized egg stage. Treatments with increasing concentrations of BMP2/4 protein

progressively dorsalise the embryo at the expense of the ventral territories, as reflected by the

expansion of the expression of the dorsal marker *tbx2/3* and the repression of the expression

of the ventral marker *chordin*. On the other hand, treatments with increasing concentrations

of Nodal protein gradually ventralises the embryo at the expense of the dorsal territories as

reflected by the gradual expansion of the expression of the ventral marker *chordin* and the

repression of the expression of the dorsal marker *tbx2/3*.

(B) Three-hour Nodal or BMP2/4 protein treatments at late blastula and hatching blastula

stages are sufficient to cross-antagonise each other signalling pathway. Three-hour Nodal

protein treatment at late blastula stage results in rounded-shaped embryos partially

ventralised that overexpress the ventral marker *nodal* at the expense of the dorsal marker

tbx2/3. Complementary, three-hour BMP2/4 protein treatment at hatching or late blastula

stages promotes massive pSMAD1/5/8 signalling and results in partially dorsalised embryos

that overexpress the dorsal marker *tbx2/3* at the expense of the ventral marker *nodal*. EB,

Early Blastula; HB, Hatching Blastula; SB, Swimming Blastula; LB, Late Blastula; MB,

Mesenchyme Blastula; V, Ventral; D, Dorsal.

Figure 5. Simulation of early 32-cell stage and specification of later stage inputs

By restricting the active input nodes to combinations of Nodal and Panda (A), our unicellular

model recapitulates the patterns observed in the 32-cell stage embryos (B upper part, C). In

wild-type condition, *panda* is expressed in the presumptive dorsal region and restricts *nodal*

expression to the presumptive ventral region (Haillot et al., 2015). The stable states resulting

from our ventral wild-type simulation (B upper part) were then used to define the input node

values for the simulation of later developmental stages, taking into account the diffusion and

shuttling events known to occur from the ventral region to further dorsal territories in this

developmental time window (B lower part).

Figure 6. Comparison of blastula model simulations and experimental results.

With proper logical rules (see Table 1), inputs and initial state conditions (A), our model gives rise to different stable patterns (B), which qualitatively match experimental results (C-D). Note that, in the simulation of the *chordin* morpholino injection, the model predicts two possible stable patterns in the ventral region, whereas experiments point to a mild ventral territory present in these embryos. In the middle area (C), the organisation of dorsal (green), ventral (blue) and ciliary (pink) territories are schematized based on images of wild-type and morphant embryos (D).

Figure 7. Probabilistic time-course simulations of the unicellular model starting with the ventral initial state.

Temporal evolutions of the mean activation levels of Goosecoid, Iroquois and Onecut, representing ventral (blue), dorsal (green) and ciliary (pink) phenotypes, respectively. All simulations start from a ventral initial state (orange). The first plot (A) corresponds to the wild type, while the three other ones (B, C, D) correspond to *chordin* knock down conditions. Simulations (A, B) were performed with equal up and down state transition rates. Further simulations were performed using rates favouring the dorsal cascade (C), or favouring the ventral cascade (D) (see supplementary materials and methods for details).

Figure 8. Multicellular logical simulations for wild-type and mutant conditions, using the software Epilog.

Across the multicellular epithelium, specific logical rules have been defined to model the diffusion of signalling components (A) (see Table 2 for diffusion rules). At the initial state, only Nodal is activated in the presumptive ventral territory (B). Multicellular simulation results for the wild-type and morphant conditions (C) qualitatively match our experimental results. Considering a larger epithelium, we further simulated the injection of *nodal* mRNA in two opposite blastomeres of a four-cell embryo (D), which resulted in an embryo displaying a mirror symmetric pattern of ventral, ciliary and dorsal territories along the dorsal-ventral axis, as observed by (Lapraz et al., 2015).

Supplementary figure legends

Supplementary Figure S1. EpiLog simulation of the Lefty morpholino condition.
Starting from the initial state with the Nodal pathway initiated in the ventral region, the Epilog simulation of the *lefty* morpholino condition ultimately results in a fully ventralized stable state. The activity dynamics of the three markers genes *goosecoid* (blue, ventral), *onecut* (pink, ciliary) and *irxa* (green, dorsal) denotes the progressive shift of the ciliary boundary toward the dorsal side, as the loss of Lefty enables Nodal to diffuse freely outside of the ventral region.

Supplementary Figure S2. Simulation of the boundary ectoderm in the unicellular model.
Stable state obtained with the unicellular model when considering Admp2 and Wnt inputs active. Active nodes (yellow for inputs and green for dorsal nodes) and edges (green for activation and red for inhibition) are shown in colour, inactive ones are shown in grey. This stable state corresponds exactly to the dorsal stable state shown in Figure 6.

Supplementary Figure S3. Simulation of *panda* perturbations at the 32-cell stage.
Starting with a restricted combination of inputs with Nodal and Panda, we simulated the 32-cell stage D/V patterning using the unicellular model. In wild-type condition, model predictions (A) correctly recapitulates experimental observations (B). It is also the case for the simulation of Panda loss-of-function, mirroring the fully ventralised phenotype observed upon *panda* Mo injection. Simulations of *panda* overexpression fully abrogate ventral specification and result in a global ciliary band phenotype (A), whereas experimental evidences show no impact of global overexpression of *panda* on the onset of D/V patterning (Haillot et al., 2015) (B).

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Competing interests

No competing interests declared.

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Figure 1

A Wild type

B *nodal* overexpression

C *nodal* morpholino

D *bmp2/4* overexpression

E *bmp2/4* morpholino

F *bmp2/4* + *panda* morpholino

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A

B

Figure 5

A

inputs 32-cell stage

nodal:1	nodal:1, panda:1	nodal:1, panda:1
presumptive ventral	presumptive ciliary	presumptive dorsal

initial state

univin:1	univin:1	univin:1
presumptive ventral	presumptive ciliary	presumptive dorsal

B

Model predictions 32-cell stage

	presumptive ventral	presumptive ciliary	presumptive dorsal
stable state wild-type 32-cell	nodal:2 , lefty:1 , bmp2/4:1 chordin:1 , admp1:1	onecut:1 , FGFA:1	onecut:1 , FGFA:1

Diffusion and/or shuttling

	ventral	ciliary	dorsal
inputs wild-type blastula	nodal:2 , lefty:1 , bmp2/4:1 chordin:1 , admp1:1	nodal:1 , lefty:1 , bmp2/4:1 chordin:1 , admp1:1	nodal:1 , lefty:1 , bmp2/4:1 chordin:1 , admp1:1

C

Experimental observations

	presumptive
	ventral ciliary dorsal
wild-type 32-cell	

Figure 6

A

inputs

ventral	ciliary	dorsal
nodal:2 , lefty:1 , bmp2/4:1 chordin:1 , admp1:1	nodal:1 , lefty:1 , bmp2/4:1 chordin:1 , admp1:1	nodal:1 , lefty:1 , bmp2/4:1 chordin:1 , admp1:1 , tolloid:1

initial state

ventral	ciliary	dorsal
univin:1	univin:1	univin:1

B Model predictions

ventral ciliary dorsal

wild-type

nodal Mo
nodal:0 , lefty:0 , bmp2/4:0

lefty mRNA
nodal:0 , lefty:1 , bmp2/4:0

nodal mRNA
nodal:3 , bmp2/4:2

lefty Mo
lefty:0 , bmp2/4:0

bmp2/4 Mo
bmp2/4:0

chordin mRNA
chordin:0

bmp2/4 mRNA
bmp2/4:2

chordin Mo
chordin:0

C Experimental observations

ventral ciliary dorsal

V D

D

Wild-type

lv

nodal Mo   lefty mRNA

lv   lv

nodal mRNA   lefty Mo

lv   lv

bmp24 Mo   chordin mRNA

lv   lv   vv

bmp24 mRNA   chordin Mo

lv   lv   vv

Figure 7

Figure 8

Supplementary Figure 1

Lefty morpholino
Initial state

Lefty morpholino
Stable state

Supplementary Figure 2

Supplementary Figure 3