Single cell RNA sequencing of the *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* larva reveals the blueprint of major cell types and nervous system of a non-chordate deuterostome

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Abstract

Identifying the molecular fingerprint of organismal cell types is key for understanding their function and evolution. Here, we use single cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) to survey the cell types of the sea urchin early pluteus larva, representing an important developmental transition from non-feeding to feeding larva. We identify 21 distinct cell clusters, representing cells of the digestive, skeletal, immune, and nervous systems. Further subclustering of these reveal a highly detailed portrait of cell diversity across the larva, including the identification of neuronal cell types. We then validate important gene regulatory networks driving sea urchin development and reveal new domains of activity within the larval body. Focusing on neurons that co-express *Pdx-1* and *Brn1/2/4*, we identify an unprecedented number of transcription factors shared by this population of neurons in sea urchin and vertebrate pancreatic cells. Using differential expression results from Pdx-1 knockdown experiments, we reconstruct the Pdx-1-driven gene regulatory network in these cells. We hypothesize that a similar network was active in an ancestral deuterostome cell type and then inherited by neuronal and pancreatic developmental lineages in sea urchins and vertebrates.

Introduction

Multicellular organisms consist of numerous cell types, specialized in performing different tasks that guide growth and survival. During embryonic development, cells go through rounds of proliferation, specification and differentiation into cell types with distinct functions. The information for this developmental diversification lies in the genome and the spatio-temporal expression of regulatory genes that specifies the molecular fingerprint of a given cell type (Fu et al., 2017).

The identity of each cell type is established, controlled and maintained by distinct Gene Regulatory Networks (GRNs). GRNs are logical maps of the regulatory inputs and outputs active in a cell at a given place and time, and are enacted by transcription factors, signaling molecules and terminal differentiation genes (Davidson et al., 2003, Davidson and Erwin, 2006). GRNs have been studied in a variety of organisms ranging from plants to animals in order to analyze the gene interactions at a specific time and place during the life of an organism (Krouk et al., 2013), and have been used for understanding the relationship between genome and development (Davidson and Erwin, 2006). Therefore, understanding the genetic mechanisms that provide cell types with a specific identity, and the conservation of this identity across animal taxa, is essential for understanding cell type function and evolutionary history (Arendt, 2008, Arnone et al., 2016).

Until recently, most approaches for comparing cell types relied on the identification of molecular markers, perturbation of gene expression and fate mapping. However, technological advances in microfluidics and nucleic acid barcoding now allow the high-through-put recognition of an organism's cell types at a single cell level. In particular, single cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) technology, developed during the last decade, is a powerful method used to unravel the transcriptional content of individual cells, resulting in the identification of distinct cell types in an unbiased manner (Tang et al., 2009, Klein et al., 2015). ScRNA-seq involves dissociation of an organism, organ or tissue into single cells, isolation and capture of the single cells into droplets, specific barcoding of individual mRNAs, and sequencing of transcriptomic content of each cell. Computational analysis can then identify putative cell types by clustering cells with similar transcriptional profiles.

Within deuterostomes, echinoderms are a member of the phylogenetic sister group to chordates, making them an ideal model for understanding the origin and diversification of deuterostome and chordate cell types. Sea urchin embryos and larvae have also been extensively used to unravel the general mechanisms of cell type specification and differentiation during development (Cameron and Davidson, 1991, Davidson et al., 1998, McClay, 2011, Lyons et al., 2012, McClay et al., 2020). The main reason for this lies in the ease with which different cell types and biological processes can be observed in the optically transparent embryos and larvae. Among the most well-studied sea urchin cell types are those comprising the nervous (Bisgrove and Burke, 1987, Burke et al., 2006a, McClay et al., 2018), immune (Rast et al., 2006, Ho et al., 2017) and digestive systems (Annunziata et al., 2014, Annunziata and Arnone, 2014, Perillo and Arnone, 2014, Perillo et al., 2016), and of both musculature (Andrikou et al., 2013, Andrikou et al., 2015) and skeleton (Okazaki, 1965, Duloquin et al., 2007, Rafiq et al., 2012, Sun and Ettensohn, 2017). For these, the developmental origins and gene regulatory wiring has been described in great detail, making the sea urchin an ideal model for GRN comparative analyses in development and evolution (Cary et al., 2020).

Here we take advantage of the detailed characterization of the sea urchin cell types performed over the years, the available cell type specific molecular markers, and the ease with which the sea urchin larvae are dissociated into single cells, to perform scRNA-seq and generate a comprehensive atlas of sea urchin larval cell types. Our findings suggest that the larva consists of 21 genetically-distinct cell clusters, each

representing a distinct cell type or set of closely related subtypes (Shekhar and Menon, 2019), which we validate using fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH) and immunohistochemistry (IHC). Based on previous studies tracing developmental lineage, we assign cell types to specific germ layers, revealing that most transcription factors are expressed pleiotropically in cells derived from multiple germ layers, yet tend to be cell type-specific within a germ layer. In addition, we illustrate how single-cell data complement and validate previously studied GRNs, and also reveal novel cellular domains where these GRNs are likely also activated. Lastly, we investigate neuronal diversity in the sea urchin larva, identifying 12 distinct neuronal cell types. Among these, we recover a unique neurosecretory type controlled by *Sp-Pdx1* and *Sp-Brn1/2/4* exhibiting a pancreatic-like gene expression signature (Perillo et al., 2018). Our results confirm and extend this pancreatic-like signature, suggesting that an ancestral neuron in early deuterostomes may have given rise to the endocrine cells in the vertebrate pancreas. Supporting this, knockdown of *Sp-Pdx1* shows it is necessary for differentiation of this pancreatic-like neuronal endocrine population, indicating it has an evolutionary conserved role as a mediator of endocrine fate.

Results

Building a cell type atlas of the sea urchin larva with single-cell transcriptomics

Sea urchin early pluteus larvae were cultured and collected at 3 dpf. We performed single-cell RNA sequencing on six samples from four independent biological replicates. Individual samples were dissociated into single cells using a gentle enzyme-free dissociation protocol and using the 10x Chromium scRNA-seq system (Figure 1A). In total, transcriptomes from 19,699 cells were included in the final analysis. To identify sea urchin larval cell types, we used Louvain graph clustering as implemented in the Seurat pipeline (see methods). This revealed 21 genetically-distinct cell clusters (Figure 1B, supplement 1A and B), each representing an individual cell type or set of closely related cell types in the early pluteus larva.

Next, we set out to explore the identity of our initial 21 cell clusters. We first assigned preliminary identities to each cluster based on the expression of previously described cell type markers, benefiting from the unique and rich knowledge on sea urchin developmental lineages: ciliary band (*Btub2*) (Harlow and Nemer, 1987), apical plate (*Hbn*) (Burke et al., 2006a), aboral ectoderm (*Spec2a*) (Yuh et al., 2001), lower oral ectoderm (*Bra*) (Wei et al., 2012), upper oral ectoderm (*Gsc*) (Wei et al., 2012), neurons (*SynB*) (Burke et al., 2006a), esophageal muscles (*Mhc*) (Andrikou et al., 2013), coelomic pouches (*Nan2*) (Juliano et al., 2010), blastocoelar cells (185/333) (Ho et al., 2017), immune cells (*Gcm*) (Materna et al., 2013), skeleton (*Msp130*) (Harkey et al., 1992), anus (*Hox11/13b*), intestine (*Cdx*), pyloric sphincter (*Pdx-1*), different stomach domains (*Chp, ManrC1a, Endo16*) (Annunziata and Arnone, 2014), exocrine pancreas-like domain (*Ptf1a*) (Perillo et al., 2016), cardiac sphincter (*Trop1*) (Yaguchi et al., 2017) and esophagus (*Brn1/2/4*) (Cole and Arnone, 2009). Further, we grouped putative cell types according to embryonic germ layer origin (Figure 1C) using

knowledge from previous lineage tracing experiments (Angerer and Davidson, 1984, Cameron et al., 1987).

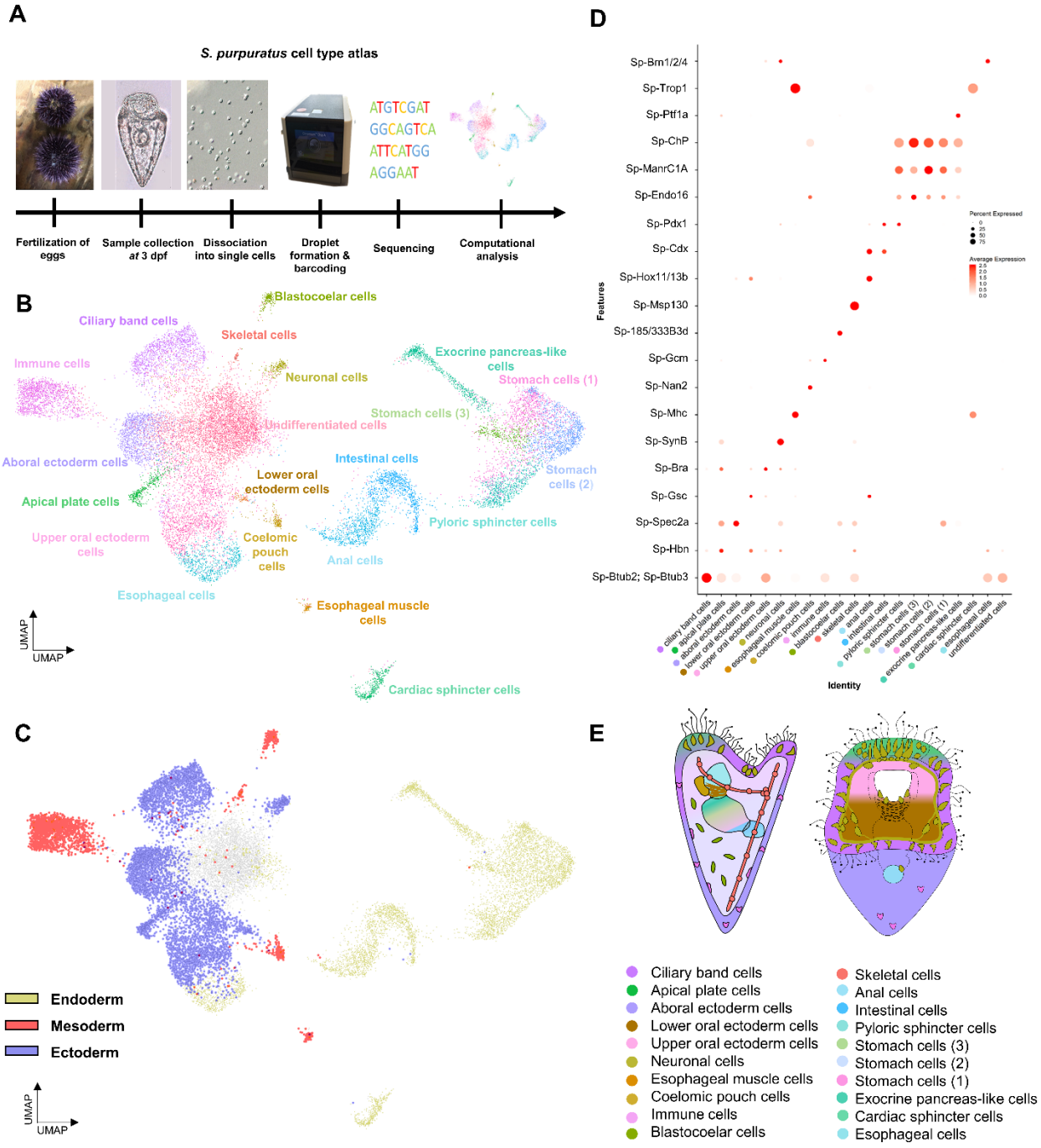

Figure 1. Cell type atlas of the 3 dpf *S. purpuratus* larva. A) Single-cell RNA sequencing pipeline from gamete fertilization to computational analysis. **B)** UMAP showing 3 dpf larval cells colored by their assignment to the initial set of 21 distinct cell clusters. **C)** UMAP with cells colored by germ layer of origin: endoderm (yellow), mesoderm (red), and ectoderm (blue). **D)** Dotplot of gene markers specific to cell clusters. **E)** Illustration depicting location of cell types on different larval domains. Color-code is the same as in Figure 1B.

To validate these identities, we identified all genes expressed in each cell type, totaling 15,578 genes (Supplementary file 1), and performed *in situ* hybridization on a selected set of these together in combination with previously described markers. Based on this, we mapped 20 of the 21 clusters to distinct larval domains and confirmed their identity (Figure 1E). Notably, the resulting expression patterns validated the initial predictions (Figure 2- Figure supplement 2), verifying the high quality of the single-cell dataset. Importantly, this approach identified various new markers for each cell type, including *Sp-FbsL_2* (ciliary band; Figure 2A1*)*, *Sp-hypp_2386* (skeletal cells; Figure 2A9), and *Sp-Serp2/3* (exocrine pancreas-like cells; Figure 2A14). The 21st cluster, which had a poorly-defined molecular signature and lacked specific localization, likely represents undifferentiated cells (Figure 1- Figure Supplement 1C-E).

Our scRNA-seq analysis and *in situ* hybridization protocol unraveled novel expression domains for several previously described cell type markers. For instance, the transcription factors *Sp-SoxC* and *Sp-Hbn*, previously described in early neuronal specification (Garner et al., 2016, Wei et al., 2016, Yaguchi et al., 2016), were predicted by our scRNA-seq analysis to also be expressed in skeletal cells (Figure 2B & 2C1-3, 2C4-6). Confirming this, we found *Sp-Hbn* expressed in skeletal cells using *In situ* hybridization with immunostaining of PMCs along the skeletal rods (Harkey et al., 1992) (Figure2- Figure supplement 3). Likewise, the FGF signaling ligand, *Sp-Fgf9/16/20*, is known to be involved in skeletal formation and is expressed in specific populations of PMCs (Adomako-Ankomah and Ettensohn, 2014). ScRNA-seq indicates it is also expressed in oral ectoderm, cardiac sphincter, intestine and anus (Figure 2B & 2C7-9).

We compared the limits of detection by *in situ* hybridization versus single cell RNA sequencing, using the coelomic pouch cell cluster as a case study. The coelomic pouch is derived from the mesoderm and gives rise to the rudiment and juvenile sea urchin after metamorphosis (Strathmann, 1987, Smith et al., 2008). The formation of the coelomic pouch is complex, and includes contributions from the small micromeres, and a mesodermal cell population that is set aside during early development (Pehrson and Cohen, 1986, Strathmann, 1987). Previous attempts to characterize this population had involved screening of genes active in germ line determination and maintenance in other species and revealed that, while some germ line-specific transcripts and proteins were found exclusively expressed in the small micromeres and the coelomic pouch of the sea urchin embryo (Juliano et al., 2006), the majority of the genes tested by *in situ* hybridization were not enriched in this cell type. Interestingly, plotting the Juliano and coauthors' gene list, alongside previously described coelomic pouch specific genes (Luo and Su, 2012, Martik and McClay, 2015), they were all found in our analysis to be expressed in the same cell cluster (Figure 2- Figure supplement 3). This suggests a higher sensitivity of single cell RNA sequencing compared to the *in situ* hybridization, adding crucial missing information on the molecular fingerprint of a complex cell type.

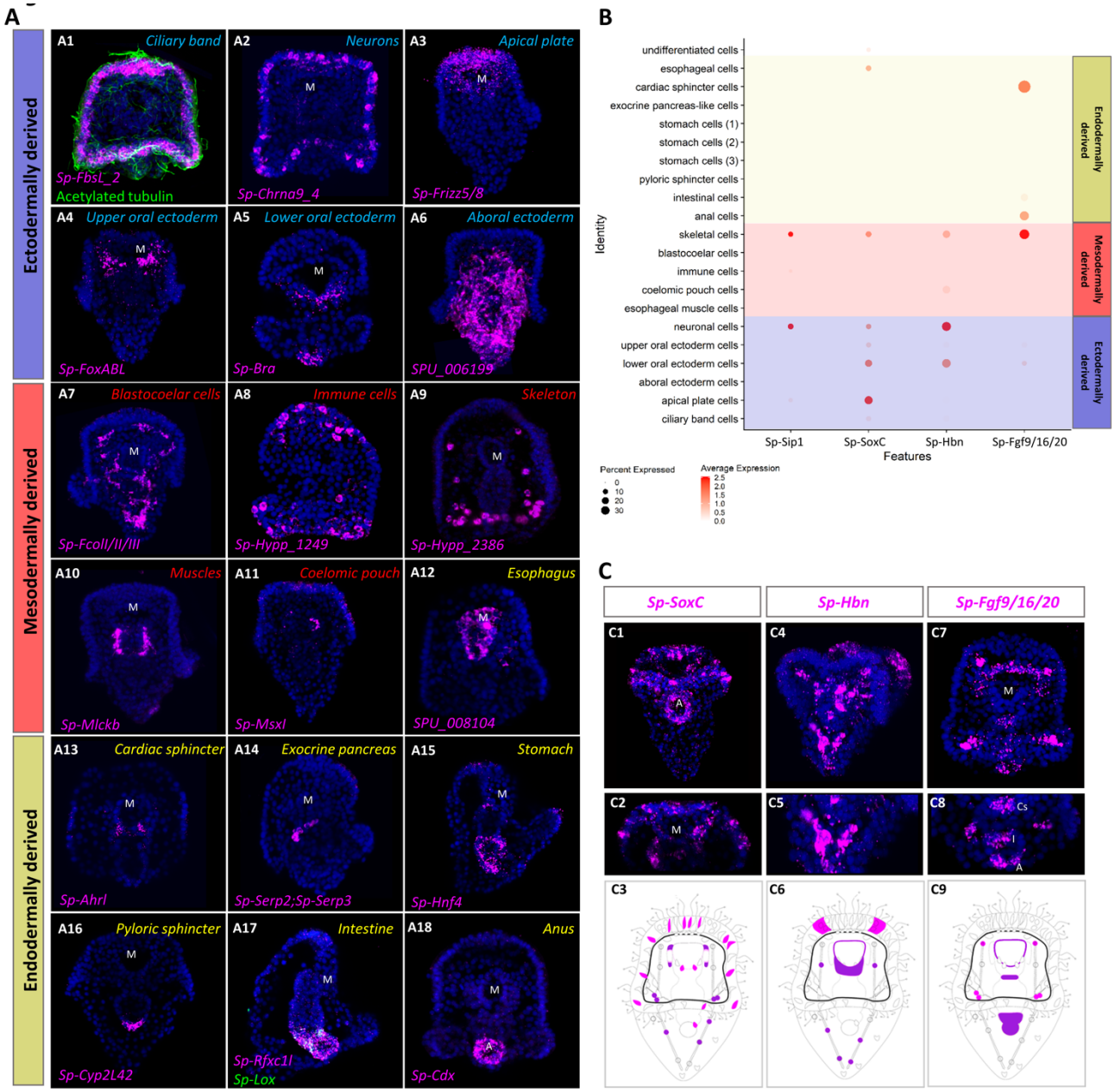

Figure 2. Validation of scRNA-seq predictions and novel expression domains.
A) FISH of *S. purpuratus* 3 dpf larvae with antisense probes for *Sp-FbsL_2* (A1), *Sp-Chrna9_4* (A2), *Sp-Frizz5/8* (A3), *Sp-FoxABL* (A4), *Sp-Bra* (A5), *SPU_006199* (A6), *Sp-Fcoll/II/III* (A7), *Sp-Hypp_1249* (A8), *Sp-Hypp_2386* (A9), *Sp-Mlckb* (A10), *Sp-Msxl* (A11), *SPU_008104* (A12), *Sp-Ahrl* (A13), *Sp-Serp2; Sp-Serp3* (A14), *Sp-Hnf4* (A15), *Sp-Cyp2L42* (A16), *Sp-Rfxc1l* (A17), *Sp-Pdx1* (A17) and *Sp-Cdx* (A18). Color-code indicates germ layer embryonic origin: endoderm (yellow), mesoderm (red), ectoderm (blue). Immunofluorescent detection of acetylated tubulin in ciliary band (green). **B)** Dotplot of *Sp-Sip1*, *Sp-SoxC*, *Sp-Hbn* and *Sp-Fgf9/16/20* expression showing previously described and novel expression domains. **C)** FISH of *S. purpuratus* 3 dpf larvae with antisense probes for *Sp-SoxC* (C1-C2), *Sp-Hbn* (C4-C5) and *Sp-Fgf9/16/20* (C7-C8). Illustrations depicting all expression domains of *Sp-SoxC* (C3), *Sp-Hbn* (C6) and *Sp-Fgf9/16/20* (C9); previously described expression domains are in magenta, newly identified

ones are in purple. Nuclei are labelled with DAPI (in blue). All images are stacks of merged confocal Z sections. A, Anus; Cs, Cardiac sphincter; M, Mouth; I, Intestine; Ps, Pyloric sphincter; St, Stomach.

Lastly, to determine which cells in the larva were undergoing active proliferation, we plotted expression of cell division markers in sea urchin, including *pcna*, DNA polymerases, DNA ligases, condensins, and centromere proteins (Perillo et al., 2020). The majority of cell proliferation genes were found to be enriched in the ciliary band, apical plate, coelomic pouch, immune and skeletal cell clusters (Figure 2- Figure supplement 4A). We also observed Cdk genes enriched in several endodermally derived cell types (Figure 2-Supplement 4A). Validating this, we observed S-phase cells in endodermal and skeletal cells using Edu pulse labelling (Figure 2- Figure supplement 4B). In contrast, we did not observe Edu fluorescence in cell clusters that lacked expression of proliferation markers, such as aboral ectoderm.

Shared lineage information of the larval cell types

We next compared transcription factor profiles of early larval cell types. In general, cell types derived from the same germ layer shared more factors with each other than with cell types from other germ layers (Figure 3, Figure 3-Figure supplement 1), consistent with the finding that cell type expression programs often retain information about their developmental lineage (Sladitschek et al., 2020). Further analysis however revealed very few transcription factors specific to cells from a single germ layer, contrasting with many regulators expressed in derivatives of more than one germ layer (Figure 3A), and nearly one third (n = 187) shared by cell types from all three layers. Unexpectedly, mesodermal cell types share expression of more transcription factors with ectodermal than with endodermal cell types, even though they are more closely linked to endodermal lineage in development. We also noted that cell types derived from the same germ layer share up to one third of transcription factors, while the majority are cell type-specific (Figure 3B, 3D & 3E). In general, neighboring cell types and those with common developmental origins share a larger number of TFs (Figure 3D), compared to cell types with different developmental histories (Figure 3C).

To further characterize the regulatory profile of larval cell types we set out to identify the expression profiles of members of major transcription factor families (Figure 4 and Figure 4 supplement 1). In *S. purpuratus*, most homeobox transcription factors were previously found expressed at the gastrula stage (2 dpf), with several members expressed in domains derived from all three germ layers (Howard-Ashby et al., 2006). Our single cell analysis, although at a later developmental time point, supports these findings, and further refines our understanding of their expression to specific cell types. In the early pluteus larva, most homeobox class transcription factors are enriched in ectodermally derived cell types, such as the apical plate and neurons. In contrast, ANTP Class and HNF class transcription factors are enriched in endodermal derivatives (Figure 4). Other major transcription factor families, such as the Forkhead, Ets, and Zinc-finger families, members of which are expressed throughout sea urchin embryogenesis (Tu et al., 2006, Rizzo et al., 2006, Materna et al., 2006), are also expressed across a spectrum of cell types. Forkhead and zinc-finger transcription factors are highly expressed in specific cell types of all three germ layer derivatives,

whereas Ets family TFs are enriched in ectodermal and mesodermal derivatives (Figure 4).

Figure 3. Regulatory states of the 3 dpf *S. purpuratus* larva. A) Comparison of the transcription factor content per germ layer. Venn diagram showing the shared and unique transcription factors per germ layer. Ectodermally derived cell types are shown in blue, mesodermally derived in red, and endodermally derived in yellow. **B)** Comparison of the transcription factor content across mesodermal lineages and cell types. Venn diagram showing the shared and unique transcription factors per comparison. **C)** Transcription factor content comparison of pyloric sphincter (endodermally derived) and skeletal cells (mesodermally derived), used as a negative control of our comparison. **D)** Comparison of the transcription factor content per endodermal lineage and endodermally derived cell types. Venn diagram showing the shared and unique transcription factors per comparison. **E)** TF signature comparison of ectodermally derived cell types. Venn diagram showing the shared and unique transcription factors per comparison. Cartoons indicated the relative position of each cell type/lineage. Mesodermal cell types/lineages are shown in shades of red, endodermal ones in shades of yellow and endodermal ones in shades of blue.

The active regulatory state of a given cell type is an immediate consequence of the gene regulatory network active at this time point. Previous research in sea urchin has described in detail many regulatory networks active during embryonic and larval development. Our scRNA-seq data broadly corroborates previous studies, yet also identifies new domains and cell types in which these regulatory networks may be active. For instance, we plotted all transcription factors known to be active in specifying coelomic pouch cells. Our data confirmed their co-expression in coelomic pouch, but also revealed their co-expression in the apical plate (Figure 5A). Similarly, plotting genes involved in the aboral ectoderm gene regulatory network (Ben-Tabou de-Leon et al., 2013), we found all genes in both the aboral ectoderm cluster as well as in the apical plate cells (Figure 5B). On the other hand, plotting members of the pre-gastrula skeletogenic mesoderm regulatory network revealed most were still active in the pluteus larva and specific to skeletal cells (Figure 5C). These findings illustrate the immediate benefit of our dataset to drastically expand our knowledge of larval regulatory networks. Finally, our scRNA-seq recreates a nearly identical 3 dpf endoderm expression pattern atlas as that published previously by our group using more traditional methods (Annunziata et al., 2014), providing additional information on each gene's average expression and the percentage of cells expressing each marker (Figure 5- Figure Supplement 1).

Unravelling the neuronal diversity and molecular signature of the nervous system

The classification of neuronal cell type diversity is an important step for unravelling the evolution and function of the nervous system. The sea urchin free swimming larva is equipped with a nervous system consisting of interconnected ganglia (Burke et al., 2006a) that allows the animal to respond to environmental stimuli and coordinate its swimming ability (Soliman, 1983, Katow et al., 2010). Several neuronal types, including apical and ciliary band neurons, as well as neurons along the digestive tube, have been previously identified and their specification described in detail (Burke et al., 2006a, Burke et al., 2006b, Wei et al., 2009, Wei et al., 2011, Garner et al., 2016, Wei et al., 2016, McClay et al., 2018, Perillo et al., 2018, Wood et al, 2018).

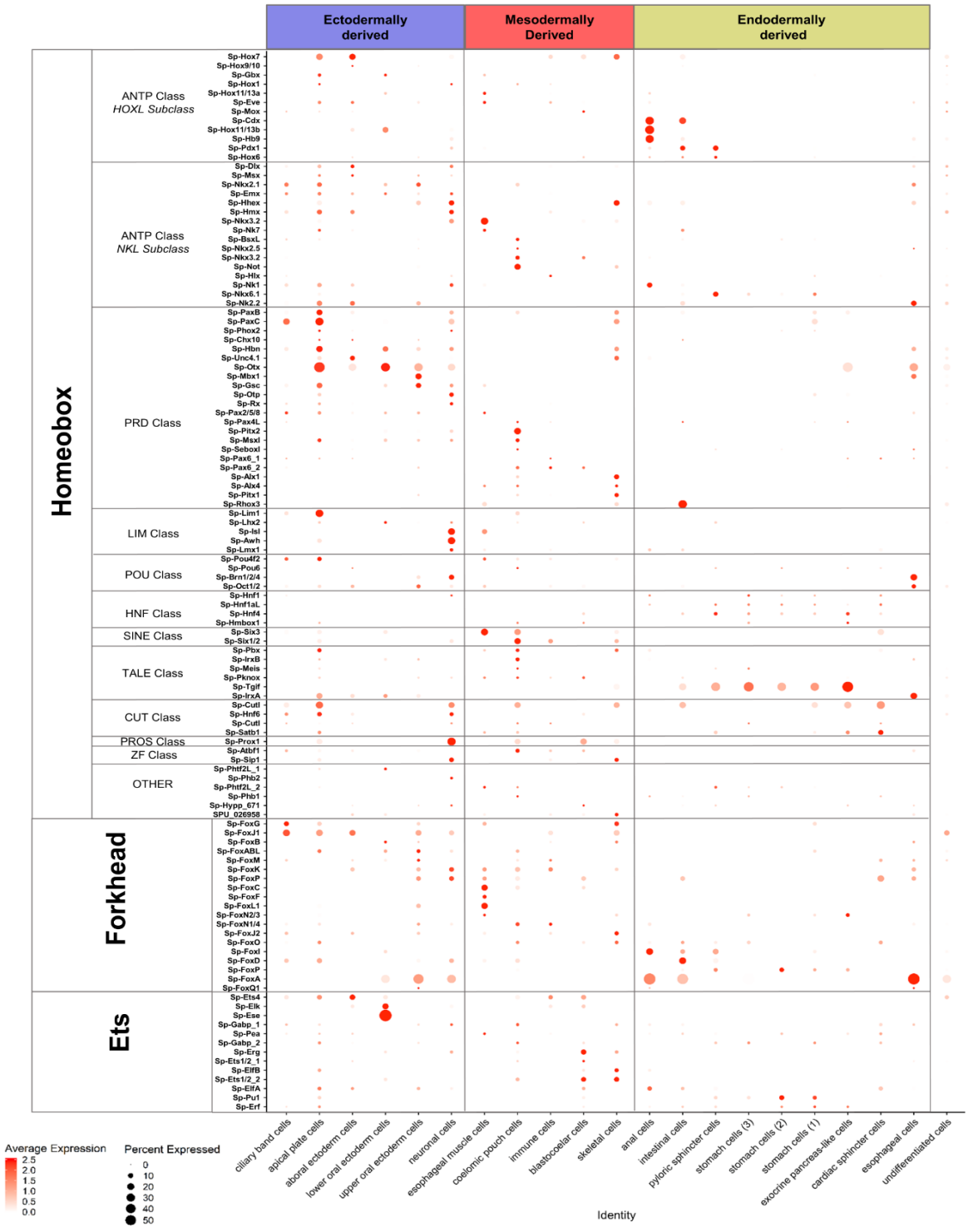

Figure 4. Localization of major transcription factor family members. Dotplot showing the average scaled expression of members of the Homeobox, Forkhead and Ets transcription factor families. The developmental origins of each cell type are shown in blue for ectodermally derived, red for mesodermally derived and yellow for endodermally derived ones.

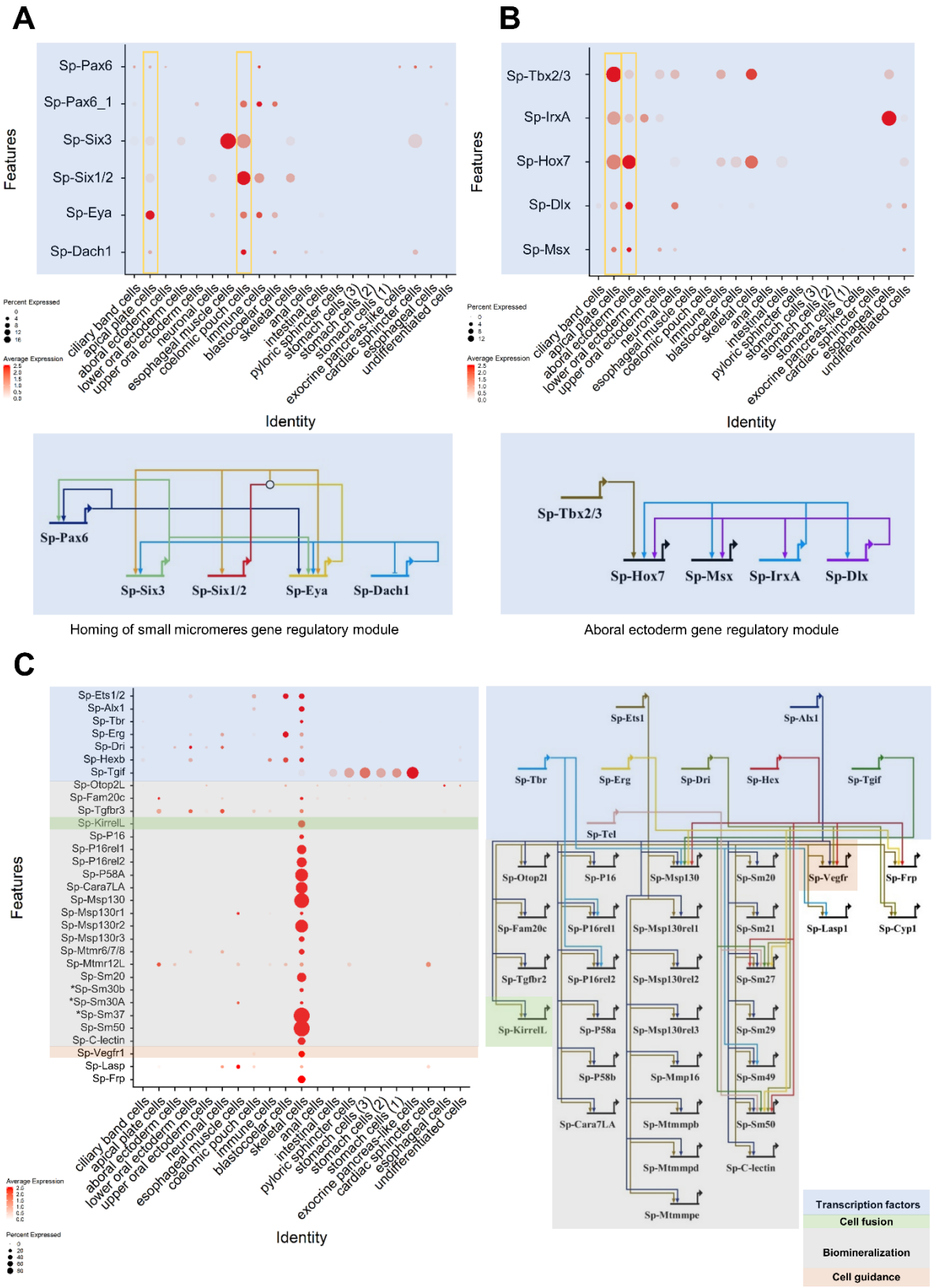

Figure 5. Validation of preexisting GRNs and putative novel function of specific gene regulatory modules. A) Dotplot showing the mRNA localization of genes involved in the homing of small micromeres to the coelomic pouch and novel apical plate domain. **B)** Dotplot of aboral ectoderm regulatory module genes showing novel apical plate expression. **C)** Pre-gastrula gene regulatory network enriched in skeletal cells of the sea urchin pluteus larva. Asterisks indicate larval genes involved in biomineralization, putative members of this GRN.

Our initial clustering analysis resolved single clusters for neuronal cells, as well as for PMCs and immune cells. However, expression of known markers suggested the presence of distinct subclusters in each of these cell type groups. In order to investigate this, we independently performed subclustering and re-analysis of the neuronal, immune, and PMC cells. Subclustering of each of these initial major clusters revealed 12 neuronal, 8 immune, and 5 PMC subclusters, each likely representing distinct cell types (Figure 6A and Figure 6- Figure Supplement 1). Two of the immune subclusters expressed polyketide synthase 1 (*Sp-Pks1*), suggesting these represent sea urchin pigment cell populations (Calestani and Rogers, 2010). We also found a subcluster of immune cells that expresses the membrane attack complex/perforin family gene (*Sp-MacpfA2*), suggesting this corresponds to immune system globular cells (Figure 6-Supplement 2). Notably, our finding of 5 PMC subclusters corroborates previous reports showing five distinct groups of PMC cells along the syncytium (Sun and Ettensohn, 2014) (Figure 6- Figure Supplement 1).

To annotate the 12 neuronal cell types revealed via subclustering we took advantage of the extensive previous work investigating neurogenesis and neuronal differentiation in sea urchin. Plotting neuronal markers, we resolved unique molecular signatures for each subcluster and assigned each a putative identity and location in the larva (Figures 6B-D). To validate this, we then conducted in-situ hybridization experiments for gene markers labeling these specific neuronal populations (Figure 6D), including genes encoding transcription factors (*SoxC*, *Delta*, *Ngn*, *Prox1*, *Isl*, *Hbn*, *SoxB2*, *Otx*, *NeuroD1*, *Six3*), and members of neurotransmitter (*Ddc*, *Nacha6*, *Chrna9_4*, *Tph*), and neuropeptidergic signaling pathways (*An*, *Salmfap*, *Trh*).

The sea urchin larva neuronal differentiation proceeds via stepwise differentiation, including transient expression of the Notch ligand Delta, followed by expression of the transcription factors *SoxC* and *Brn1/2/4* (Garner et al., 2016). During the final stages of neurogenesis, the transcription factors *Sip1*, *Z167*, *Ngn* and *Otp* regulate differentiation of diverse neuronal populations, including apical and ciliary band neurons (Wei et al., 2016, McClay et al., 2018). In our data, we observed *Sp-Delta*, *Sp-SoxC* and *Sp-Brn1/2/4,* as well different combinations of the transcription factors mentioned above, co-localize in three neuronal populations (subclusters 1, 2 and 4), indicating neuronal differentiation is taking place in those three subclusters (Figure 6C). Interestingly, in one of these populations (subcluster 2) we found expression of the transcription factors *Sp-Rx*, *Sp-Hbn* (Figure 6D10) and *Sp-Six3* (Figure 6D16), which are known to be expressed in the periphery of the larva's apical domain (Burke et al., 2006a, Wei et al., 2009). This suggests that this population is located in the periphery of the apical plate and not within the apical organ. In the apical domain, we also detected a subcluster (number 6), which coexpress *Sp-Trh* and *Sp-Salmfap* neuropeptides (Wood et al, 2018), as well as *Sp-Kp* (Kissepeptin) (Figure 6D17).

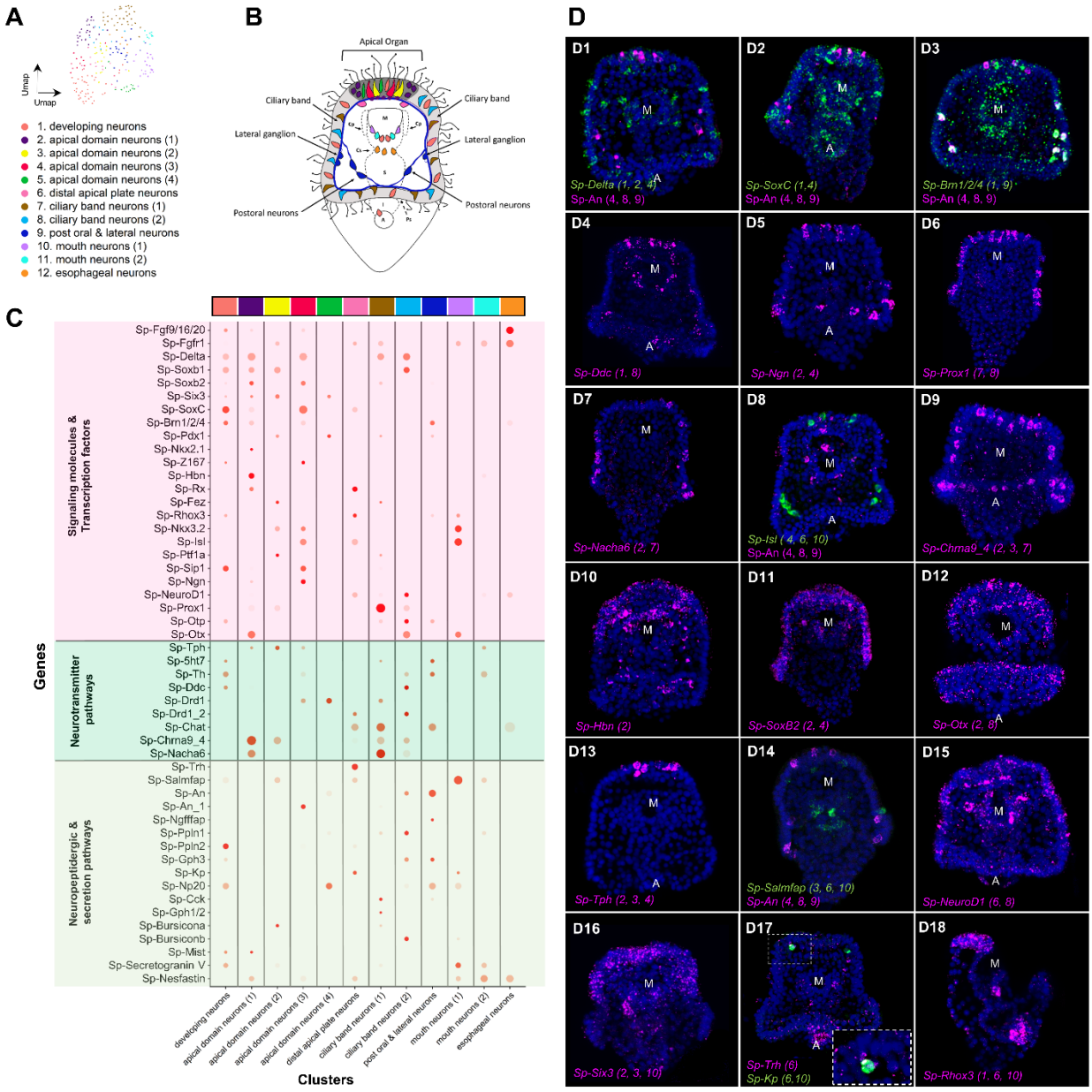

Figure 6. Neuronal complexity of the 3 dpf *S. purpuratus* larva. A) UMAP showing 12 distinct neuronal subclusters. **B)** Schematic representation of the 3 dpf pluteus larva showing the localization of neuronal subclusters (colors as in A). **C)** Dotplot of signaling molecules, transcription factors, and neurotransmitters involved in sea urchin neuronal function and neurogenesis (colors as in A). **D)** FISH of *S. purpuratus* 3 dpf larvae with antisense probes for the neuronal genes *Sp-Delta* (D1), *Sp-SoxC* (D2), *Sp-Brn1/2/4* (D3), *Sp-Ddc* (D4), *Sp-Ngn* (D5), *Sp-Prox1* (D6), *Sp-Nacha6* (D7), *Sp-Isl* (D8), *Sp-An* (D8 and D14), *Sp-Chrna9_4* (D9), *Sp-Hbn* (D10), *Sp-SoxB2* (D11), *Sp-Otx* (D12), *Sp-Tph* (A13), *Sp-Salmfap* (D14), *Sp-NeuroD1*(D15), *Sp-Six3* (D16), *Sp-Trh* (D17), *Sp-Kp* (D17) and *Sp-Rhox3* (D18). FISH shown in figures D1-3 are paired with immunohistochemical detection of the neuropeptide Sp-An. Nuclei are labelled with DAPI (in blue). All images are stacks of merged confocal Z sections. A, anus; M, mouth.

In total, we identified three neuronal subclusters located in the apical domain (subclusters 2, 3 and 4) of the larva that express Tryptophan hydroxylase (*Tph*), which encodes a key enzyme in the serotonin biosynthesis pathway, suggesting these represent serotonergic neurons in the larva. Within the ciliary band, which comprises the larva's peripheral nervous system (Slota et al., 2020), we identified two distinct cholinergic subclusters (7 and 8) expressing the enzyme involved in acetylcholine biosynthesis (*Sp-Chat*) (Figure 6C), one of which (subcluster 8) expresses also two nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (*Nacha6*, *Chrna9*). Moreover, we identified a neuronal subcluster in close proximity with the ciliary band, which corresponds to the lateral and post-oral neurons (subcluster 9). This population has been previously characterized by our group and was found to co-express *Sp-Pdx1*, *Sp-Brn1/2/4*, and the neuropeptide Sp-An (Perillo et al., 2018). Using gene markers that mark differentiated neurons expressed in the rim of the larva's mouth, including *Sp-Nkx3.2* (Wei et al., 2011), *Sp-Isl* (Perillo et al., 2018), the neuropeptide *Sp-Salmfap* (Wood et al, 2018), and the enzyme Tyrosine hydroxylase (*Sp-Th*) involved in the dopaminergic pathway, we identified two distinct mouth neurons subtypes (subclusters 10 and 11; Figure 6C). Lastly, we found one neuronal population that, based on its molecular signature, and in particular the co-presence of *Sp-Fgfr1* and *Sp-Fgf9/16/20,* could correspond to neurons associated to the cardiac sphincter within the esophageal endoderm (subcluster 12). Overall, our subclustering analysis increases the resolution of the different neuronal subtypes present at this developmental stage, describing new neuronal subtypes and providing novel markers and gene candidates for future studies of these cell types and their gene regulatory networks.

Characterizing a neuroendocrine neuronal population controlled by Pdx-1

Previous studies from our group suggested that the nervous system of the sea urchin larva displays a strong pre-pancreatic signature, with neurons expressing genes that are involved in endocrine cell differentiation in the vertebrate pancreas (Perillo et al., 2018). To investigate this, we focused on the post-oral and lateral neuron subcluster, which co-expresses *Sp-Pdx1*, *Sp-Brn1/2/4* and *Sp-An* (Figure 6). Double immunohistochemical staining of the neuronal marker 1E11 and Sp-An shows that these neurons lie in close proximity to the ciliary band, and project axons towards both the apical plate and ciliary band (Figure 7 A1-A3). Double FISH of *Sp-An* and *Sp-FbsL_2,* a ciliary band marker revealed by this study*,* as well as double IHC of Sp-An and acetylated tubulin (labeling cilia), further indicate their distribution relative to the ciliary band (Figure 7 A4-A6). Moreover, we found that the post-oral Sp-An neurons are found in close proximity to cells of both ciliary band subclusters (Figure 7 A7-A9), and project axons to the cell bodies of the *Sp-Prox1* positive neurons (Figure 7 A9). We also observed close proximity between An positive neurons in the post oral arms with the cells of the ventral-lateral cluster of PMCs (Figure 7 A10), and with immune globular cells (Figure 7 A11). Next, we set out to validate whether novel genes predicted by our single cell analysis to be expressed in this neuronal population can be validated *in vivo*. Among the genes predicted to be expressed in this population are the transcription factors *Sp-Nk1* and *Sp-Otp,* as well as the catecholaminergic and cholinergic neuronal markers Sp-Th and Sp-Chat (Slota and McClay, 2018), respectively. Double fluorescent *in situ* hybridization of Sp-Nk1 and the neuropeptide Sp-An, as well as fluorescent *in*

situ hybridization of *Sp-Otp* combined with the immunohistochemical detection of Sp-An, reveal co-localization of these three genes in the post-oral and lateral neuronal population (Figure 7 A13-A14), verifying the single-cell data. Additionally, double immunostainings of the anti-Sp-An with anti-Th (Figure 7A9) and anti-Chat antibodies suggest that these two key enzymes, involved in different neurotransmitter biosynthesis pathways, are co-produced in the Sp-*Pdx1/Sp-Brn1/2/4* neurons (Figure 7 A12 and A15).

The vertebrate orthologue of *Sp-Pdx1* is essential for pancreas development, β-cell differentiation, and maintaining mature β-cell function (Kaneto et al., 2007). As previously described by our group, knockdown of the pancreatic transcription factor Sp-Pdx1 results in severe downregulation of the Sp-An neuropeptide, compromising the neuroendocrine fate of this neuronal type (Perillo et al., 2018). To further characterize the *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* neuronal population, we performed a comprehensive analysis of genes involved in pancreatic development and β-cell differentiation, as well as gene markers related to neuroendocrine fate. We identified a total of 20 genes, all involved in the formation and proper function of vertebrate endocrine pancreas, which are differentially enriched in the *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* neurons (Figure 7B). Next, we intersected our scRNA-seq with bulk RNA sequencing data derived from Pdx1 morphants assayed at the same developmental stage in a previous study (Annunziata and Arnone, 2014). By coupling knowledge of cell type-specific expression programs with genes differentially expressed in the Pdx1 knockdown mutants, we were able to identify and refine likely gene targets specific to the *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* neuronal cell type. In total, we found 249 genes belonging to the *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* neuron subcluster (9) that were differentially expressed in the *Pdx1* knockdown dataset, with 65% of the targets being downregulated (Figure 7C). Among the downregulated genes, we found key transcription factors involved in neuronal differentiation, including *Sp-Brn1/2/4* and *Sp-Otp*, as well as terminal differentiation genes important in neuronal signaling, such as *Sp-An*, *Sp-Ngfffap*, *Sp-Th* and *Sp-Chat* (Figure 7C). Based on this, we reconstructed a provisional GRN of *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* neurons, reflecting the potential role of *Sp-Pdx1* as an activator of neuroendocrine fate. Future studies are needed in order to verify these gene interactions and thus the actual connectivity of the regulatory network, although our approach highlights the power of integrating single-cell RNAseq data with data from gene knockdowns.

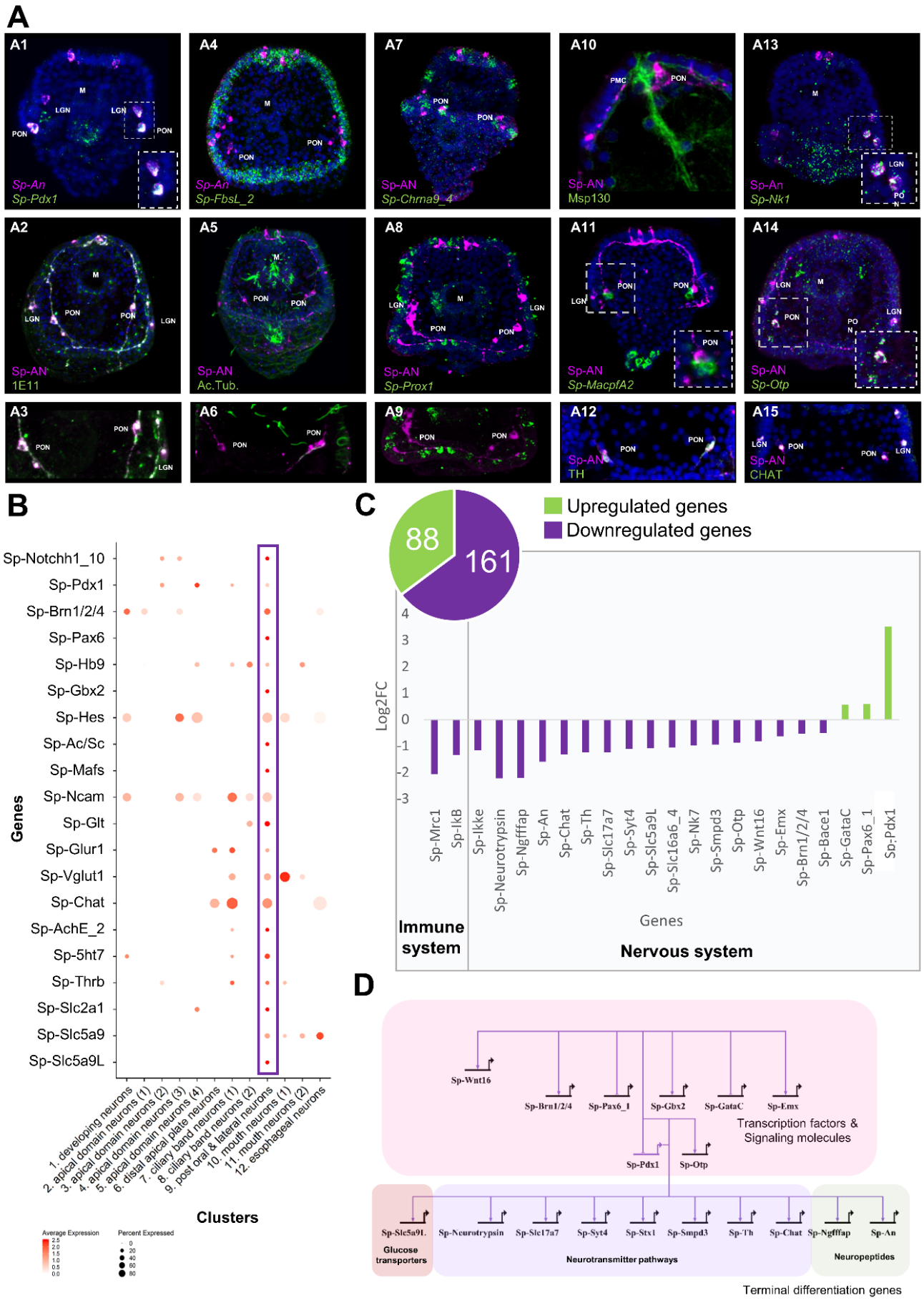

Figure 7. ScRNA-seq reveals a Pdx-1 dependent neuroendocrine cell type. **A)** Molecular characterization of a *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* double positive neuronal population. A1) Double FISH of *S. purpuratus* 3 dpf larvae with specific antisense probes for *Sp-Pdx1* and *Sp-An*. A2) Double immunohistochemical detection of the Sp-An and Synaptotagmin (1E11) proteins. A3) Close up caption of the Sp-An PON neurons shown in A2. A4) Double FISH of *S. purpuratus* 3 dpf larvae with specific antisense probes for *Sp-FbsL_2* and Sp-An. Double immunohistochemical detection of the Sp-An and acetylated tubulin proteins. A6) Close up caption of the Sp-An PON neurons shown in A5. A7) FISH of *S. purpuratus* 3 dpf larvae with a specific antisense probe for *Sp-Chrna9_4* paired with immunodetection of Sp-An. A8) FISH of *S. purpuratus* 3 dpf larvae with a specific antisense probe for *Sp-Prox1* paired with immunohistochemical detection of Sp-An. A9) Close up caption of the Sp-An PON neurons shown in A8. A10) Double immunohistochemical staining for the neuropeptide Sp-An and the skeletal cells marker Msp130. A11) FISH of *S. purpuratus* 3 dpf larvae with a specific antisense probe for *Sp-MacpfA2* paired with immunohistochemical detection of Sp-An. A12) Double immunohistochemical staining for the neuropeptide Sp-An and the enzyme Sp-TH. A13) Double FISH of *S. purpuratus* 3 dpf larvae with specific antisense probes for *Sp-Nk1* and Sp-An. A14) FISH of *S. purpuratus* 3 dpf larvae with a specific antisense probe for *Sp-Otp* paired with immunohistochemical detection of Sp-An. Double immunohistochemical staining for the neuropeptide Sp-An and the enzyme Sp-Chat. Nuclei are labelled with DAPI (in blue). All images are stacks of merged confocal Z sections. LGN, lateral ganglion neurons; M, Mouth; PON, Post-oral neurons. **B)** Dotplot of genes important in endocrine pancreas differentiation and function in vertebrates. **C)** Bar plot of selected Sp-Pdx1 target genes in the *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* positive population as revealed by differential RNA sequencing analysis of *Sp-Pdx1* knockdown larvae. **D)** Provisional GRN of the *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* neuronal population as revealed by the combination of scRNA-seq and differential RNA-seq analysis after *Sp-Pdx1* knockdown.

Discussion

Cell type identity is determined by the differential use of genomic information among cells. Unraveling the distinct transcriptomic signatures of cell types yields valuable insight into their function, as well their evolutionary and developmental origins. In recent years, single cell transcriptomics has emerged as a powerful and unbiased approach for characterizing cell type diversity across a wide variety of animal taxa, with studies spanning insects (Davie et al., 2018, Severo et al., 2018, Cho et al., 2020), cnidarians (Sebe-Pedros et al., 2018) and sea squirts (Sharma et al., 2019, Cao et al., 2019), as well as vertebrates such as zebrafish (Wagner et al., 2018, Chestnut et al., 2020), mice (Nestorowa et al., 2016, Jung et al., 2019, Ximerakis et al., 2019, Yu et al., 2019, Qi et al., 2020) and humans (Yu et al., 2019, Qi et al., 2020, Esaulova et al., 2020, Zhao et al., 2020).

The sea urchin embryo has served as a valuable model for understanding cell type molecular specification and differentiation via gene regulatory networks. Despite this, knowledge of later stages of development, including larval cell types, is limited. Here we used single cell RNA sequencing to generate a detailed atlas of early cell types of the pluteus larva, and to unravel the neuronal diversity at this critical stage that marks the end of embryogenesis and the beginning of the larval life cycle.

Cellular diversity of the *S. purpuratus* pluteus larva

Conducting scRNA-seq on isolated *S. purpuratus* early pluteus cells we initially identified 21 genetically distinct cell clusters from 19.699 cells (Figure 1 A), expressing in total 15.578 genes. Notably, the computationally identified number of cells per cluster did not correlate well with their actual distribution in the larva. This could be a bias linked to the dissociation process, as for instance skeletal structures are the last to dissociate and hence cells can get trapped within the debris and thus be underestimated in our datasets. Nonetheless, the cell types identified in our study include all known larval cell types, suggesting we obtained a sufficient number of cells to comprehensively survey cell diversity at this developmental stage. Further, the total number of genes expressed in our data was 15.578, in relatively close agreement to the 16.500 genes expressed at the end of *S. purpuratus* embryogenesis (Tu et al., 2014).

Our results reveal a rich tapestry of cell types within the early pluteus larva. In particular, our study reveals that a majority of transcriptional diversity among cells of the pluteus larva relates to feeding and digestion. This includes two distinct oral ectoderm cell types, as well as distinct cell expression programs for the esophagus, cardiac and pyloric sphincters, exocrine pancreas-like cells, three distinct stomach cell types, intestine and anus. We also identified the mesodermally derived muscle cell type that ensures the proper function of the digestive apparatus by regulating the flow of the water containing food within the different compartments of the gut.

Cell type tree reconstruction reveals two well supported groups (Figure 3 – Figure supplement 1). One group represents endoderm. It comprises a core of closely related cell types (stomach cells 1,2,3, pyloric and cardiac sphincter, and exocrine pancreas-like cells) and the more distant subgroup of intestinal and anal cells. The coherence of this group is also apparent from the transcription factor heatmap (Figure 4– Figure supplement 2), which reveals numerous factors shared between subsets or the entire endodermal group such as *Klf15* that is known to control lipid and glucose metabolism in the liver (Oishi and Manabe 2018). The other group represents ectoderm. It contains apical plate, ciliary band, the aboral and upper oral ectoderm cells, and neurons. Again, this group manifests in shared transcription factor expression including *Klf2/4, Tbx2/3,* and *SoxB1* and *SoxB2*. Unexpectedly, this group firmly comprises some cell types that are usually not considered ectodermal, such as the immune cells and the esophageal cells (Figure 3 – Figure supplement 1). Outside these two groups, the remaining cell types do not assemble into a well-supported group. Instead, they exhibit molecular affinities to either the endodermal or ectodermal clades. For example, the coelomic pouch cells express many transcription factors that are otherwise specific for endoderm, and the skeletal and esophageal muscle cells rather adhere to ectoderm together with the lower oral ectoderm cells (Figure 3 – Figure supplement 1). This indicates that the sea urchin larval mesoderm may consist of cells that evolved from either endoderm or ectoderm.

Beyond our initial cell clusters, we used subclustering to uncover diversity among neuronal, PMC, and immune cells in the pluteus larva. Among immune cells, the presence of two pigment cell subclusters is in line with findings by Perillo and colleagues that revealed two such populations (Perillo et al., 2020). However, in our

study we found that only one cluster is *Sp-Gcm* positive, in contrast to their findings which found both of their clusters expressed *Sp-Gcm*. This difference could be a result of the different approaches used to identify the different cell types or due to transient expression of *Sp-Gcm* in the additional pigment cell type.

The larval nervous system has been among the first echinoderm cell types to be characterized at a molecular level and yet the exact number of neuronal subtypes is still not clear. Extensive work has been done on identifying the molecular pathways guiding neuronal specification and the genes active during neuronal differentiation, however this is limited to describing general neuronal categories. Most of the current information on the different neuronal types relies on detection of specific neuropeptides, neurotransmitters and enzymes involved in their biosynthesis. The most recent estimate of neuronal diversity used neuropeptidergic content to identify seven distinct neuronal types (Wood et al, 2018). Our study supports and refines this earlier work by providing a comprehensive and unbiased survey of neuronal diversity in the early pluteus larva of *S. purpuratus.*

Neurons in *S. purpuratus* arise from two ectodermal neurogenic regions (ciliary band and apical domain) and from the anteriormost part of the foregut (Garner et al., 2016, McClay et al., 2018, Wei et al., 2011), which is derived from endoderm (mouth neurons and esophageal neurons, see Figure 6A). Different neuronal types from these domains arise at different developmental time points, although by 3 dpf most larval neurons are thought to be present and patterning diverse larval domains. Notably, our initial clustering analysis recovered neurons as a single cluster, suggesting they share a common molecular signature regardless of their developmental origin. Subclustering of these revealed twelve distinct neuronal cell types, which we were able to trace back on the larva. By doing so, we identified one cell type apparently undergoing differentiation, four associated with the apical domain, one matching the distal apical plate neurons, two corresponding to ciliary band neurons, two located in the rim of the mouth, one associated with esophageal structures, and one corresponding to the post-oral and lateral neurons. Thus, our study greatly enhances our knowledge of neuronal diversity in the *S. purpuratus* larva, nearly doubling the number of known neuronal cell types at this developmental stage.

Lastly, we also found one major cell cluster that could not be traced back to a specific domain, and we speculate that it consists of non-differentiated cells, owing to their weak transcriptomic identity compared to the rest of the cell types (Figure1- Figure supplement 1D). Overall, this cluster exhibited greatest transcriptional similarity to cell types derived from the ectoderm (Figure 1- Figure supplement 1E), suggesting it may be of ectodermal origin. Consistent with this, a recent study revealed a similar uncharacterized ectodermal cell type (Perillo et al., 2020), further suggesting this cell population exists and is not solely an artifact of our analysis. Taking into account the great plasticity and regeneration capability of the sea urchin larva, it is also possible that this non-differentiated ectodermal cell type is a progenitor population in stasis, waiting to be activated. Future studies are necessary to validate its identity, function, and origin during larval development.

Sp-Pdx1 as a regulator of neuroendocrine fate

Morphogenesis and organogenesis rely on the hierarchical control of gene expression as encompassed in the GRNs. Although sea urchins diverged from chordates prior to the origin of the pancreas, we have previously demonstrated that the neurogenic and neuronal territories of the sea urchin embryo and larva have a strong pancreatic-like molecular signature (Perillo et al., 2018). Interestingly, one neuronal population was found to express *Sp-Pdx1* and *Sp-Brn1/2/4*, as well as the echinoderm-specific neuropeptide An. *Pdx1* in mammals is essential for proper pancreatic formation, β-cell differentiation, and regulation of the mature β-cells physiology and function (Hui and Perfetti, 2002). In mice, *Pdx1* is on top of the gene regulatory hierarchy and its knockout leads to endocrine dysfunctions and absence of pancreas (Kaneto et al., 2008). In sea urchins, *Sp-Pdx1* is also found to be expressed in multiple posterior gut cell types, where it is essential for the digestive tube compartmentalization and thus proper function (Cole et al., 2009). On the other hand, the vertebrate orthologue of *Sp-Brn1/2/4*, *Brn4* is expressed in the α pancreatic cells, where it acts as a key differentiation factor of this lineage (Hussain et al., 2002).

The gene regulatory cascade leading to the endocrine pancreas formation in vertebrates has been described in great detail and several transcription factors have been characterized as essential for this process (Zaret and Grompe, 2008, Tritschler et al., 2017). The initial steps of the differentiation of a pancreatic progenitor cell includes Notch signaling, which is involved in determining whether a pancreatic cell remains in a progenitor state or adopting an endocrine or exocrine fate. The signaling cascade results in transcriptional activation of *Hes/hairy* and enhancer of split and *Hes1* that repress *Ascl1* (Ishibashi et al., 1995, de la Pompa et al., 1997, Iso et al., 2003). The transcription factor *Pax6*, a master-gene involved in several biological processes, is a crucial element in the pancreatic cell differentiation cascade and is important for maintaining the differentiated state of the mature β cell (Hart et al., 2013, Mitchell et al., 2017, Buckle et al., 2018). On the other hand, loss of the homeobox transcription factor *Hb9* in zebrafish results in inhibition of insulin production, while loss of its mice homologue results in abolishment of the pancreatic differentiation program (Li et al., 1999, Arkhipova et al., 2012). Similarly, the transcription factor *Mafs* negatively regulates β-cell function by competing with *MafA*, a transcription factor crucial for insulin synthesis, while Gbx2 has been found to be expressed in the insulin-producing MIN6 cell lines (Mizusawa et al., 2004), in which its role remains unknown.

Here, we dissected the molecular fingerprint of the *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* neuronal type and identified the presence of genes involved in pancreatic development as well as of genes known to be expressed in both endocrine pancreatic cells and neurons. From our scRNA-seq analysis it is evident that *Sp-Notch*, *Sp-Pax6*, *Sp-Hb9*, *Sp-Hes*, *Sp-Ac/Sc* (the orthologue of ASCL1), *Sp-Mafs* and the recently re-annotated *Sp-Gbx2* (previously annotated as Sp-Nk7- https://new.echinobase.org) are all expressed in the *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* neurons. This suggests that these neurons of a non-chordate deuterostome have a gene regulatory machinery similar to the endocrine pancreas cells.

It has also been demonstrated that both endocrine pancreas and neuronal cells share similar features and are able to produce and respond to several neuronal genes and neurotransmitters. Interestingly, we were able to identify these shared components in our *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* neurons. For instance, the neural cell adhesion molecule *Ncam* known to be produced in the nervous system and endocrine cells of the rat is also expressed in this cluster (Langley et al., 1989). Moreover, these neurons also express genes encoding members of the glutamate signaling pathway (*Sp-Glt*: glutamate synthase; *Sp-Vglut1*: glutamate transporter; *Sp-Glur1*: glutamate receptor), which in mammals are involved in glucose-responsive insulin secretion (Gonoi et al., 1994, Maechler and Wollheim, 1999), and tyrosine hydroxylase (*Th*), the rate-limiting enzyme of catecholamine biosynthesis, which is present in the endocrine pancreas of multiple species (Teitelman et al., 1993, Iturriza and Thibault, 1993). Furthermore, *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* neurons express choline acetyltransferase (*Chat*), which has been found to be highly expressed in human pancreatic islets and may be essential for the stimulation of insulin secretion by the neighboring β-cells (Rodriguez-Diaz et al., 2011).

Additionally, serotonergic signaling is believed to be involved in the regulation of insulin secretion as several serotonin receptors have been found to be expressed in human pancreatic islets (Amisten et al., 2015). Transcripts of the sea urchin serotonin receptor *Sp-5ht7* are present in *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* neuronal population suggesting the serotonin might regulate the neurotransmitter/neuropeptide secretion in a similar way as for insulin. Similarly, transcripts of the Thyroid hormone receptor B are also found in this population, suggesting that thyroid hormone signaling may play a similar role to its differentiation similar to the one in murine endocrine pancreas differentiation (Aiello et al., 2014). The hormone secretion mediated by pancreatic endocrine cells depends on their ability to detect changes in extracellular glucose levels. To this end, they are equipped with Glucose transporters and co-transporters (Navale and Paranjape, 2016, Berger and Zdzieblo, 2020). Our analysis revealed that the *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* neurons produce transcripts of three glucose co-transporter genes (*Sp-Slc2a1*, *Sp-Slc5a9* and *Sp-Slc5a9L*) proposing that they are able to detect such changes in glucose levels similarly to the endocrine pancreas cells.

Based on the significant role of all those genes in regulation, production and secretion of Insulin the question arises of whether these pancreatic-like cells in *S. purpuratus* are able to produce insulin. As previously demonstrated by our group (Perillo and Arnone, 2014) the sea urchin genome contains two genes encoding two Insulin-like peptides, Sp-ILP1 and Sp-ILP2. The gene structure of *Sp-ILP1* is evolutionarily conserved with vertebrate Insulin, whereas *Sp-ILP2* has diverged more substantially. Transcripts of *Sp-ILP1* were found localized in the gut starting from the 10 dpf pluteus larva, whereas transcripts of the divergent *Sp-ILP2* were found enriched in the coelomic pouch and esophageal structures of the 3 dpf pluteus larva (Perillo and Arnone, 2014). However, at this developmental time point (3 dpf) we were not able to detect transcripts for any of the insulin like genes in these neurons. One hypothesis is that these neurons produce Insulin only later in development, which is in line with the previous observation that Sp-Ilp1 is only found to be expressed at 10 dpf pluteus larva and onwards (Perillo and Arnone, 2014). Another hypothesis is that the *Sp-Pdx1*/*Sp-Brn1/2/4* neurons do not

produce Insulin and that the Insulin regulating machinery is reutilized for different functions. One of them could be the regulation of the production and secretion of different hormones and peptides such as growth factors, neuropeptides and neurotransmitters. Based on the fact that *Sp-Pdx1* is necessary for the differentiation of these neurons as demonstrated by both the study by Perillo et al., 2018 and this study, and that these neurons are able to produce several neuromodulators (Figure 6C and Figure 7B), we favor the hypothesis that this gene regulatory machinery is used to regulate the differentiation of those neurons as well as the activity and production of neuromodulators (Sp-An, Sp-Ngfffap, Dopamine, Acetylcholine). Nonetheless, future studies are needed to shed light on whether these pancreatic-like neurons in sea urchin produce Insulin, and to explore the exact function and regulatory connections of pancreatic genes in the differentiation cascade of these cells.

Evolutionary considerations

Taken together, our data show that the sea urchin *Sp-Pdx1/Sp-Brn1/2/4* neurons express a stunning number of key genes that are necessary for the endocrine pancreas differentiation and function in the vertebrates. These shared molecular features of *Sp-Pdx1/Sp-Brn1/2/4* neurons and pancreatic cells suggest these represent features of a cell type present in the deuterostome ancestor. What was the nature of these cells and what happened in the evolution of the descendant lineages so that the molecular characteristics of these cells are found in extant cell types as divergent as ectodermal neurons and pancreatic cells?

One possibility is that the ancestral deuterostomes already possessed a *Sp-Pdx1/Sp-Brn1/2/4* neuronal cell type similar to the one found in today's sea urchin, and that the regulatory program of this cell type was then co-opted into the endodermal lineage in the vertebrates. The co-option and incorporation of gene regulatory elements to different developmental or morphogenetic context has been postulated before and has the potential to give rise to diverse cell types (Monteiro, 2012, Preger-Ben Noon and Frankel, 2015, Martik and McClay, 2015, Hu et al., 2018, Morgulis et al., 2019, McQueen and Rebeiz, 2020, Cary et al., 2020). In particular, it has been hypothesized that β pancreatic cells arose during evolution by co-option of a preexisting neuronal cell type program into the pancreas developmental lineage (Arntfield and van der Kooy, 2011, Perillo et al., 2018) based on the many physiological, morphological and molecular features endocrine pancreatic cells share with neurons (Alpert et al., 1988, Eberhard, 2013). However, given the log list of genes shared between neurons and pancreatic cells, this would have necessarily represented a massive co-option event profoundly altering the identity and function of the receiving cells.

A second possibility is that both ectodermal neurons and endodermal pancreatic cells are direct evolutionary descendants of the same precursor cell, i.e. represent sister cell types (Arendt, 2008). This explanation would avoid co-option; instead, it postulates a direct evolutionary link between cell types derived from different germ layers - ectoderm versus endoderm. Surprising at first, a similar link between digestive and neuronal-type expression profiles has been reported repeatedly. For example, it appears to hold true for choanocytes in the early-branching sponges (Musser et al., 2019), indicating that the family of sponge choanocytes might be related to the hypothesized digestive-neuronal

precursors. In the sea anemone *Nematostella vectensis*, pharyngeal cells give rise to both digestive cells and neurons (Steinmetz et al., 2017), and neuronal cell types and secretory gland cells exhibit related molecular profiles (Sebe-Pedros et al., 2018). In fact, based on these findings a close evolutionary link between endoderm and ectoderm has been postulated (Steinmetz et al., 2017). Finally, motor neurons in the vertebrate ventral neural tube and pancreatic islet cells share a specific combination of transcription factors including *pax6, nkx6*, and *hb9* (reviewed in Arendt, 2021). Overall, this second possibility is also in line with the hypothesis that at least subsets of neuron types in animal nervous systems may have originated from a mucociliary sole that initially harbored a neurosecretory network of cells with digestive and communicative functions (Arendt et al., 2015; Arendt, 2021). Via division of labor, these precursor cell types may have then given rise to both digestive as well as neuronal cell types in different animal phyla.

Materials and Methods

1. Animal husbandry and culture of embryos

Adult *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* individuals were obtained from Patrick Leahy (Kerckhoff Marine Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA, USA) and maintained in circulating seawater aquaria at Stazione Zoologica Anton Dohrn in Naples. Gametes were obtained by vigorous shaking of the animals. Embryos and larvae were cultured at 15°C in filtered Mediterranean Sea water diluted 9:1 with deionized water.

2. Larvae dissociation

Dissociation of the 3 dpf *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* plutei into single cells was performed according to adaptation of several protocols (McClay, 1986, McClay, 2004, Juliano et al., 2014). Larvae were collected, concentrated using a 40 µm Nitex mesh filter and spun down at 500 g for 5 min. Sea water was removed and larvae were resuspended in Ca^{2+} Mg^{2+}free artificial sea water. Larvae were spun down at 500 g for 5 min and resuspended in dissociation buffer containing 1M glycine and 0.02 M EDTA in Ca^{2+} Mg^{2+}Free artificial sea water. Larvae were incubated for 10 min on ice and mixed gently via pipette aspiration every 2 min. From that point and onwards the progress of dissociation was monitored. Dissociated cells were spun down at 700 g for 5 min and washed several times with Ca^{2+} Mg^{2+}Free artificial sea water. Cell viability was assessed via using Propidium Iodide and Fluorescein diacetate and only specimens with cell viability ≥ 90% were further processed. Single cells were counted using a hemocytometer and diluted according to the manufacturer's protocol (10x Genomics). Throughout this procedure samples were kept at 4°C.

3. Single cell RNA sequencing

Single cell RNA sequencing was performed using the 10x Genomics single cell capturing system. Specimens from four independent biological replicates, ranging from

6000-20.000 cells, were loaded on the 10X Genomics Chromium Controller. Single cell cDNA libraries were prepared using the Chromium Single Cell 3' Reagent Kit (Chemistries v2 and v3). Libraries were sequenced by GeneCore (EMBL, Heidelberg, Germany) for 75 bp paired-end reads (Illumina NextSeq 500), resulting in a mean of 88M reads. Cell Ranger Software Suite 3.0.2 (10x Genomics) was used for the alignment of the single-cell RNA-seq output reads and generation of feature, barcode and matrices. The genomic index was made in Cell Ranger using the S. purpuratus genome version 3.1 (Sea Urchin Genome Sequencing et al., 2006, Kudtarkar and Cameron, 2017). Cell Ranger output matrices for four biological and two technical replicates were used for further analysis in Seurat v3.0.2 R package (Stuart et al., 2019). The analysis was performed according to the Seurat scRNA-seq R package documentation (Butler et al., 2018, Stuart et al., 2019). Genes that are transcribed in less than three cells and cells that have less than a minimum of 200 transcribed genes were excluded from the analysis. The cutoff number of transcribed genes was determined based on feature scatter plots and varies depending on the replicate. 19.699 cells out of the 29,130 cells estimated by Cell Ranger passed the quality checks and were further analyzed. Datasets were normalized and variable genes were found using the vst method with a maximum of 2000 variable features. Data integration was performed via identification of anchors between the six different objects. Next the datasets were scaled and principal component (PCA) analysis was performed. Nearest Neighbor (SNN) graph was computed with 20 dimensions (resolution 1.0) to identify the clusters. Uniform Manifold Approximate and Projection (UMAP) was used to perform clustering dimensionality reduction. Cluster markers were found using the genes that are detected in at least 0.01 fraction of min.pct cells in the two clusters. Transcripts of all genes per cell type were identified by converting a Seurat DotPlot with all these transcripts as features into a table (ggplot2 3.2.0 R package). Subclustering analysis was performed by selecting a cell type of interest and performing similar analysis as described above. All resulting tables containing the genes transcribed within different cell types were further annotated adding PFAM terms (Trapnell et al., 2010, Finn et al., 2014) for associated proteins, gene ontology terms and descriptions from Echinobase (Kudtarkar and Cameron, 2017). Cell type tree reconstruction was performed in R (version 4.0.3) using the neighbor-joining tree function in package 'ape' (version 5.4-1). Two final trees were constructed, one that derived pairwise expression distances between clusters using all expressed genes, and a second in the analysis was restricted to only expressed transcription factors. A gene was defined as "expressed" when it had an average expression of greater than 3 transcripts per million in at least one of the 21 major clusters. For each tree, pairwise distances were calculated as 1 – spearman correlation between each of the 20 major clusters, excluding undifferentiated cells, using the spearman.dist function in the bioDist package (version 1.60.0). To assess the support of each bifurcation in the tree, we performed 10,000 bootstrap replicates using the boot.phylo function in 'ape'. Although not reported in this manuscript, we also tested the effect of using different distance metrics and normalization methods on tree topology. Specifically, we reconstructed trees using distances derived from Pearson

correlations of either log or square root normalized average expression values, and Euclidean distances of scaled log-normalized expression values. In general, similar topologies were found in all analyses, recovering clades of endodermal and ectodermal derivatives. Mesodermal derivatives often, but not always, grouped together, and the position of the neuron cluster moved in and out of the clade of ectodermal derivatives. This latter result may possibly arise because of conflicting signals resulting from cell type heterogeneity (i.e. different neuron types) within the cluster.

4. Whole mount RNA Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization

Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization was performed as outlined in (Perillo et al., 2021). Fluorescent signal was developed via using fluorophore conjugated tyramide technology (Perkin Elmer, Cat. #NEL752001KT). Antisense probes were transcribed from linearized DNA and labeled either during transcription via using digoxigenin-11-UTP nucleotides, or post-transcriptionally by using Fluorescein (Mirus Bio, Cat. #MIR3200) or DNP (Mirus Bio, Cat. #MIR3825) following the manufacturer's instructions. Probes for *Sp-Pdx1, Sp-Cdx, Sp-ManrC1A, Sp-Six1/2, Sp-Fgf9/16/20, Sp-Brn1/2/4, Sp-Ngn, Sp-Isl, Sp-NeuroD1, Sp-Pks1, Sp-Soxb2, Sp-An, Sp-Trh and Sp-Salmfap* were produced as previously published [*Sp-Pdx1, Sp-Cdx* (Cole et al., 2009), *Sp-ManrC1A* (Annunziata et al., 2014), *Sp-Six1/2, Sp-Fgf9/16/20* (Andrikou et al., 2015), *Sp-Brn1/2/4* (Cole and Arnone, 2009), *Sp-Ngn, Sp-Isl, Sp-NeuroD1* (Perillo et al., 2018), *Sp-Pks1* (Perillo et al, 2020), *Sp-SoxB2* (Anishchenko et al., 2018), *Sp-An, Sp-Trh, Sp-Salmfap* (Wood et al, 2018)]. Primer sequences used for cDNA isolation and probes synthesis are in Supplementary file 2. Specimens were imaged using a Zeiss LSM 700 confocal microscope.

5. Immunohistochemistry (IHC)

Immunohistochemical staining or IHC paired with FISH was performed as described in (Perillo et al., 2021). Briefly 3 dpf plutei were fixed in 4 % paraformaldehyde (PFA) in filtered sea water (FSW) for 15 min at room temperature (RT). FSW was removed and samples were incubated in 100% methanol for 1 min at RT, washed multiple times with phosphate buffer saline with 0.1% Tween 20 (PBST) and incubated blocking solution containing 1 mg/ml Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) and 4% sheep in PBST for 1h. Primary antibodies were added in the appropriate dilution and incubated for 1h and 30 min at 37°C. Anti-acetylated alpha tubulin (Sigma-Aldrich T67930) was used to label cilia and microtubules (1:200), Anti-Msp130 (gift from Dr. David R. McClay) to label skeletogenic cells (undiluted), 1E11 (gift from Dr. Robert Burke) to mark the nervous system (1:20), 5c7 (gift from Dr. David R. McClay) to label the endoderm (undiluted), Sp-An to label the post-oral and lateral neurons (1:250), Sp-Th (Sigma-Aldrich AB152) to label catecholaminergic neurons (1:100) and Sp-Chat (GeneTex GXGTX113164S) to label cholinergic neurons (1:100). Specimens were washed multiple times with PBST and incubated for 1h with the appropriate secondary antibody (AlexaFluor) diluted 1:1000 in PBST. Larvae were washed several times with PBST and imaged using a Zeiss LSM 700 confocal microscope.

6. EdU labelling paired with immunohistochemistry

In order to understand the spatial distribution of proliferating cells across the putative broad cell types, cell proliferation assays were carried out using Click-It EdU Cell Proliferation Kit for Imaging Alexa Flour™ 647 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Larvae were treated with EdU at a final concentration of 10 µM in FSW and let to grow for 2 hours. Samples were fixed in 4% PFA in FSW for 15 min (RT) and washed several times with PBST. PBST was removed, replaced by 100% Methanol for 1 min (RT) and followed by several washes with PBST. After this step one can continue with either developing the EdU signal or performing immunohistochemistry as described above. In order to develop the EdU signal the Click-iT ™ reaction mix was prepared according to the manufacturer's guidelines. PBST was removed and the reaction mix was added to the samples for 30 min (RT). Larvae were washed several times with PBST, mounted and imaged using a Zeiss LSM 700 confocal microscope

7. Gene regulatory network draft

Gene regulatory modules and networks were drafted using the interactive tool for building and visualizing GRNs BioTapestry (Longabaugh, 2012).

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests, or appearance of competing interests, in the production and dissemination of this work.

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