1 Title: A novel regulatory gene promotes novel cell fate by suppressing ancestral fate in

2 the sea anemone Nematostella vectensis

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17 manuscript.

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- 24 This PDF file includes:
- 25 Main Text
- 26 Figures 1 to 4

27 Abstract: Cnidocytes ("stinging cells") are an unequivocally novel cell type used by cnidarians (corals, jellyfish, and their kin) to immobilize prey. Although they are known to share a common 28 evolutionary origin with neurons, the developmental program that promoted the emergence of 29 cnidocyte fate is not known. Using functional genomics in the sea anemone, Nematostella 30 31 vectensis, we show that cnidocytes evolved by suppression of neural fate in a subset of neurons 32 expressing RFamide. We further show that a single regulatory gene, a C_2H_2 -type zinc finger transcription factor (ZNF845), coordinates both the gain of novel (cnidocyte-specific) traits and 33 34 the inhibition of ancestral (neural) traits during chidocyte development and that this gene arose 35 by domain shuffling in the stem cnidarian. Thus, we uncover a mechanism by which a truly novel regulatory gene (ZNF845) promoted the origin of a truly novel cell type (cnidocyte) 36 through duplication of an ancestral cell lineage (neuron) and inhibition of its ancestral identity 37 (RFamide). 38

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Significance: In this study, we demonstrate how new cell types can arise in animals through duplication of an ancestral (old) cell type followed by functional divergence of the new daughter cell. Specifically, we show that stinging cells in cnidarians (jellyfish and corals) evolved by duplication of an ancestral neuron followed by inhibition of the RFamide neuropeptide it once secreted. This is the first evidence that stinging cells evolved from a specific subtype of neurons and suggests some neurons may be easier to co-opt for novel functions than others.

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47 Main Text

48 Introduction

Understanding the mechanisms driving cell type diversification persists as one of the key
challenges in evolutionary biology (1). The gain of new adaptive cell functions requires either
the advent of novel genes (2, 3). the modification of existing gene regulatory networks (4), or
some combination of these two processes (5). Alone, this additive model, focused simply on the

emergence of novel gene interactions, is insufficient to explain expansion of cell identity as new
cell types would arise in place of ancestral cell types. In a process analogous to gene
duplication and divergence (6), new instances of cell division during embryogenesis could lead
to duplication of a cell lineage, providing the opportunity for one lineage to retain an ancestral
function and the other to acquire new functions. Cell type diversification, therefore, requires both
novel gene interactions and a novel cell lineage in which to express these traits.

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Cnidarians are an unparalleled model for studying the evolution of novelty because the defining 60 61 synapomorphy of this group (the cnidocyte or "stinging cell") is an unequivocally novel cell type. During embryogenesis, cnidocytes differentiate from a progenitor cell that also gives rise to 62 neurons, reflecting a common evolutionary origin for these two cell types (7, 8). Two key 63 features were necessary for the transition away from neural fate in early cnidocytes: the 64 65 development of the explosive secretory organelle (the cnidocyst) from which cnidocytes derive their "sting," and the suppression of neural phenotype (axons, synaptic signaling molecules, 66 67 etc). Studies tracking the synthesis of the cnidocyst-specific protein minicollagen have revealed key steps leading to the origin of this novel organelle (9, 10); the mechanisms driving the 68 69 suppression of neural phenotype in cnidocytes remain unknown. Here, we show that a single novel transcription factor, ZNF845, both promotes chidocyte fate and suppresses neural fate 70 during development of the sea anemone Nematostella vectensis. We further show that the six-71 72 domain topology of ZNF845 arose through domain shuffling in the last common ancestor of 73 cnidarians, making this a clear example of a cnidarian-specific gene driving development of a 74 cnidarian-specific trait.

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76 Results

77 ZNF845 promotes cnidocyte fate

78 Beginning at the blastula stage, ZNF845 is expressed throughout the embryo in cells that are 79 actively undergoing DNA synthesis, as labeled by EdU (Fig. 1A). ZNF845 is co-expressed with SoxB2 in a subset of embryonic neural progenitor cells at the blastula stage (Fig. 1B) and is 80 also co-expressed in a subset of PaxA-expressing developing cnidocytes at the gastrula stage 81 82 (Fig. 1C). ZNF845 continues to be expressed through metamorphosis in a pattern reminiscent 83 of cnidocyte development (Supplementary Material Fig. S1). To understand the role of ZNF845 84 in neural/cnidocyte differentiation, we knocked down SoxB2 and PaxA using previously published morpholinos (MOs) (8, 11). ZNF845 expression was downregulated in embryos 85 86 injected with the SoxB2 MO but unaffected in embryos injected with PaxA MO (Fig. 1D). Paired 87 with the co-expression results, these data suggest that ZNF845 is part of the cnidogenesis pathway acting upstream of PaxA in N. vectensis. 88

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To further explore the role of ZNF845, we knocked down ZNF845 using small-hairpin RNAs 90 (shRNAs) (12) and assayed the effects on chidocyte development. Knockdown of ZNF845 was 91 effective through the late planula stage (Supplementary Material Fig. S1) and resulted in nearly 92 complete loss of cnidocytes throughout the ectoderm of the planula (Fig. 1E). Using an antibody 93 94 directed against the cnidocyte-specific protein minicollagen4 (α -Mcol4) (13) we demonstrate a significant loss of cnidocytes: from 10% of total cells in wildtype (WT) and control (ctrl) shRNA-95 96 injected embryos to less than 3% when ZNF845 was knocked down. We recovered identical 97 results in embryos injected with a splice-blocking ZNF845 MO, relative to those injected with a 98 standard control MO (Supplementary Material Fig. S2).

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To determine if ZNF845 acts upstream of PaxA and other markers specific to the cnidogenesis pathway, we examined the effect of ZNF845 knockdown on known markers of neural and cnidocyte differentiation in *N. vectensis* using quantitative PCR (**Fig. 1F, Table S2**). Knockdown of ZNF845 resulted in significant downregulation of PaxA, and all of its known targets (GGT, 104 Ngal, Mcol1, Mcol3, Mcol4, and Mef2IV) (11) as well as three cnidocyte-expressed transcription 105 factors identified from single-cell RNA-Seq analysis (TEA/Scalloped, FoxL2, Pou4) (14). Conversely, ZNF845 knockdown did not affect the expression of SoxB2 or the neuron-specific 106 107 regulatory genes Atonal and ELAV (15). While ZNF845 knockdown caused a statistically 108 significant increase in the expression of neural markers AshA, GLWamide, LWamide, and PaxC 109 assayed by gPCR, the response of these genes was minor relative to the large, significant upregulation of RFamide. To spatially characterize these results, we performed in situ 110 111 hybridization for RFamide and PaxC in embryos injected with control- or ZNF845 shRNAs and 112 counted the number of cells expressing these neural markers at the gastrula stage (Fig. 1G). Knockdown of ZNF845 significantly increased the number of RFamide-expressing cells from 113 2.23 (± 1.95; mean ± SD) in control embryos to 23.47 (± 17.85; mean ± SD) in ZNF845 114 knockdowns. Cell counts for PaxC expression revealed a small, non-significant increase in the 115 116 number of PaxC-expressing cells from 8.9 (± 4.4; mean ± SD) in controls to 14.3 (± 18.5; mean ± SD) in ZNF845 knockdowns. Because PaxC expression during embryogenesis is reminiscent 117 of RFamide expression, we hypothesized that PaxC might be an upstream regulator of 118 RFamide neuron differentiation. On the contrary, we found that PaxC and RFamide are not co-119 120 expressed (Fig. 1H) and that knockdown of PaxC using a previously published MO (11) did not affect the number or distribution of RFamide-expressing cells (Fig. 1I). 121

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These results suggest that there is a closer evolutionary relationship between cnidocytes and RFamide-expressing neurons than between cnidocytes and other neural subtypes (**Fig. 1J**). This is congruent with a recent study showing that the selector gene Pou4 regulates terminal cell identity in cnidocytes and RFamide-expressing neurons in *N. vectensis* but not in other cell types (*16*). Second, we demonstrate that a single transcription factor (ZNF845) upregulates both the genes necessary to promote cnidocyte identity and the genes necessary to inhibit RFamide neuron identity. To understand the mechanism by which ZNF845 suppresses RFamide

- expression during cnidocyte differentiation, we searched for inhibitory transcription factors that
 were co-expressed with cnidocyte specific genes.
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133 ZNF845 inhibits neural fate through NR12

134 Nuclear receptors in the COUP-TF family (NR2F) are known to play an inhibitory role in neural cell fate decisions in both cnidarians (17) and bilaterians (18). In N. vectensis, there are five 135 NR2F paralogs: NR10-14, most of which appear to have originated through lineage-specific 136 137 duplication in cnidarians (19). We examined the expression of all five NR2F genes 138 (Supplementary Material Fig. S3) and found that three of them (NR11,12,13) were expressed in the ectoderm during early embryogenesis and were also downregulated in embryos injected 139 with ZNF845 shRNA (Fig. 2A). All three were also co-expressed with Mcol4 in differentiating 140 cnidocytes (Fig. 2B-D) and yet we found no evidence of that any of the NR2F paralogs were co-141 142 expressed together in the same cell (Fig. 2E,F) suggesting these NR2F paralogs are expressed uniquely in different subpopulations of cnidocytes. 143

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The cnidocyte-specific expression of NR12 that we observed was also supported by single cell 145 146 RNA-Seq in N. vectensis (14). We examined NR12 further and found that it is co-expressed in a subset of ZNF845-expressing cells at the gastrula stage (Fig. 2G) and in a subset of PaxA-147 expressing cells at the early planula stage (Fig. 2H). We then examined the effects of NR12 on 148 cnidocyte development using shRNAs (Supplementary Material Fig. S4, Table S1) and found 149 150 that knockdown of NR12 resulted in a four-fold increase in the number of RFamide-expressing cells but had no effect on expression of PaxC (Fig. 2I) or on the specification of cnidocytes (Fig. 151 2J). Knockdown of NR12 also had no effect on the number or distribution of NR11- or NR13-152 153 expressing cells (Fig. 2K).

155	Modularity in the regulation of neural phenotype would have enabled cnidocytes to retain
156	beneficial aspects of the ancestral phenotype while silencing others through selective inhibition,
157	as has been shown for neural subtype specification in C. elegans (18). The upregulation of
158	RFamide following NR12 knockdown suggests that RFamide expression may be coupled to the
159	expression of another trait that had adaptive value during the evolution of cnidocytes (e.g.,
160	secretory vesicles) (Fig. 2L). The independent expression of NR11 and NR13 in non-
161	overlapping populations of developing cnidocytes suggests that multiple cnidocyte subtypes
162	may be specified through NR2F-mediated inhibition of neural traits in other (non-RFamide)
163	neural subtypes.
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165	ZNF845 is a novel transcription factor
166	Transcription factors with Cys2-His2 zinc finger (ZF- C_2H_2) domains (PF00096) represent one of
167	the largest families of transcription factors across animals (20). Numerous evolutionary
168	processes have contributed to diversification in this gene family, including
169	duplication/divergence, gain/loss of $ZF-C_2H_2$ domains, and gain/loss of accessory domains (21).
170	Among the oldest members of this clade are ZNF proteins with multiple tandem C_2H_2 domains
171	but no other conserved functional domains (22). ZNF845 has six tandem ZF-C $_2H_2$ domains; to
172	understand how these six domains came together in a single protein, we generated a maximum
173	likelihood phylogeny of all $ZF-C_2H_2$ domains extracted from predicted proteomes for three
174	bilaterian taxa (Homo sapiens, Drosophila melanogaster, and Caenorhabditis elegans) and four
175	cnidarians (two anthozoans: N. vectensis and Acropora digitifera, and two medusozoans: Hydra
176	magnipapillata and Nemopilema nomurai). The full phylogeny contains over 11,000 branch tips;
177	the FASTA alignment is provided in Supplementary Material Data S1.
178	
179	Nematostella vectensis has 218 predicted proteins with one or more $ZF-C_2H_2$ domains, sixteen

of which, including ZNF845, encode six tandem $ZF-C_2H_2$ domains. We examined the

181 evolutionary relationships of the ZF-C₂H₂ domains from ZNF845 (JGI protein ID: 81344) and compared the results with an analysis of another six-domain ZNF protein, Growth Factor 182 Independence 1B (Gfi1B; JGI PID: 112378). Gfi1B is a potent regulator of cell differentiation in 183 vertebrates (23), but the function of this protein has not been characterized in N. vectensis. 184 185 Each of the six domains from the *N. vectensis* ortholog of ZNF845 groups with ZF-C₂H₂ domains from the orthologous ZNF845 protein in other chidarians: Hmag XP 002158383.2 (originally 186 named ZNF845 by Hemmrich et al. (24)), Nnom 10870, and Nnom 3755 (Fig. 3A and 187 188 Supplementary Material Fig. S5). These relationships suggest the anthozoan and medusozoan 189 ZNF845 proteins descended from a common ancestor that already had six ZF-C₂H₂ domains in the stem cnidarian. Additionally, two of these domains (domains 1 and 5) appear to have arisen 190 by tandem duplication as these domains form a clade that lacks other $ZF-C_2H_2$ domains. Each 191 192 of the six ZF-C₂H₂ domains in ZNF845 shares some level of homology with a bilaterian ZF-C₂H₂ 193 domain, but none of these bilaterian domains are found in the same protein.

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Examination of the ZF-C₂H₂ domains from Gfi1B suggests that, unlike ZNF845, this six-domain 195 transcription factor emerged in its current form before cnidarians and bilaterians diverged from 196 197 their common ancestor (**Fig. 3B**, Supplementary Material Fig. S6). Each of the $ZF-C_2H_2$ domains from the *N. vectensis* ortholog of Gfi1B grouped with the syntenic ZF-C₂H₂ domain 198 from the Gfi1B ortholog in each of the bilaterian taxa examined (Homo NP 001120687.1, 199 Homo XP 006717360.1, Dmel Q9VM77, Cele 5376). Together, these observations suggest 200 201 that ZNF845 arose as a novel 6-domain protein in the stem cnidarian and that both domain shuffling and domain duplication/divergence were important for the emergence of this protein 202 203 (Fig. 3C).

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205 Modeling cell type expansion

Gene duplication and divergence is an important source for novel gene function (*6*, *25*). Extending this concept, we propose a model for the emergence of novel cell types through cell lineage duplication and divergence (**Fig. 4**). New cells are generated from progenitors during growth and tissue repair (**Fig. 4A**). Co-option of a progenitor cell to produce a novel daughter would not increase the number of differentiated cell types if the novel cell fate simply replaced its ancestor (**Fig. 4B**). Duplication of the progenitor cell first would allow for maintenance of ancestral cell identity and the origin of novel identity, increasing cell type diversity (**Fig. 4C**).

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214 These basic principles can be extended to explain the emergence of cnidocytes from a neural 215 precursor (Fig. 4D,E). At least one SoxB gene was present in the ancestor of all animals (26). Analyses of animal neural diversity have suggested RFamide-like neurons arose early in animal 216 217 evolution as well (27, 28). To generate a novel cell lineage, the progenitor cell would first have to 218 duplicate to generate a new progenitor lineage. Absent additional changes, duplication of a 219 neural progenitor cell would have doubled the number of RFamide-expressing daughters. 220 potentially leading to aberrant synapse formation. If progenitor cell duplication were coupled to the origin of a transcription factor that inhibited RFamide expression, the original number of 221 222 RFamide-expressing daughters would be maintained and RFamide neurons would now be 223 sister to a second lineage of "neurons" lacking a synaptic payload. Key to the emergence of 224 cnidocytes, therefore, was the origin of two transcription factors: one (ZNF845) that could 225 maintain progenitor cell fate in a newly duplicated cell lineage and another (NR12) that could 226 manipulate the identity of the secreted payload in the duplicated daughter cell. Without the 227 selection pressure to maintain synaptic signaling in this new daughter cell, these cells may have experienced relaxed selection for the maintenance of axons, allowing the secretory vesicles to 228 229 relocate to the cell body. Subsequent mutations resulting in the emergence of a novel payload 230 (e.g., minicollagen) would have further promoted daughter cell divergence following duplication 231 in this cell lineage.

232

233 Discussion

The stepwise model presented here illustrates three important paradigms for the evolution of 234 235 novel cell types. First, although the role of novel genes in driving evolutionary innovation has 236 been debated (29–31), cnidocytes have always provided a clear example of an adaptive role for 237 novel effector genes (e.g., minicollagen) in driving the evolution of a novel cell phenotype (9). In the present study, we extend this adaptive role for novel genes up the cnidocyte gene regulatory 238 239 network by showing that the emergence of a new transcription factor assembled through 240 domain shuffling in the stem cnidarian (ZNF845) was essential for the origin of cnidocytes. 241 Second, we demonstrate support for the hypothesis that modularity is an important driver of 242 243 phenotypic evolution (32, 33). During the early divergence of cnidocytes, modularity in neural 244 cell phenotype allowed for selective inhibition of certain traits (e.g., vesicular payload, axons) 245 and retention of others (e.g., secretory vesicle). In this scenario, a single mutation that allowed for inhibition of RFamide expression could rapidly change the selection pressures affecting the 246 recently duplicated sister cells, promoting retention of ancestral phenotype in one and allowing 247 248 additional mutations to arise in the other.

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Finally, our results broadly support the hypothesis that the origin of a secretory cell lineage was advantageous for the emergence of diverse novel cell functions (*34*, *35*). The ability to segregate gene products into a compartment within the cell and to target those products for delivery to the extracellular space allows for the retention of novel gene products that may otherwise be deleterious if retained intracellularly (e.g., collagen fibers).

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Applied broadly, this scenario of secretory cell duplication coupled to payload inhibition
combined with the early diversification of novel neuropeptides (*36–38*), could also explain the

258 rapid expansion of neural function in early bilaterians. Studies of neural fate in bilaterian model 259 systems have demonstrated that discrimination of specific subtypes within a neural lineage relies on inhibition of the effector genes that define other subtypes in the lineage (39), and that 260 this inhibition of sister cell fate is mediated through the actions of conserved transcription factors 261 262 including orthologs of NR2F/COUP-TF (18). The data presented here indicate that this role for 263 NR2F-mediated inhibition of cell fate may extend back to the common ancestor of cnidarians and bilaterians, suggesting the divergence-through-inhibition regulatory logic was already 264 265 driving the expansion of cell fate nearly 700 million years ago (40).

266

267 Materials and Methods

Gene knockdowns: To assess the influence of ZNF845 and NR12 on chidocyte fate, we 268 269 performed mRNA knockdown by microinjection of small-hairpin RNAS (shRNAs) following the 270 protocol of He et al. (12). shRNAs used in this study were synthesized in vitro (primer sequences provided in Table S1), diluted to 800ng/ul in nuclease-free water (Ambion AM9937) 271 272 with a final concentration of 0.2 mg/ml Alexa-555 RNAse free dextran (Invitrogen D34679) to facilitate injection. To account for non-specific effects, control embryos were injected with an 273 274 shRNA (Table S1; 800ng/ul) that was not complimentary to any part of the genome (42). Embryos were raised to the early planula stage (72 hours post fertilization) at 16C and effects of 275 knockdowns were assayed via immunofluorescence, in situ hybridization, or quantitative PCR 276 277 (qPCR). Independent confirmation of the effect of ZNF845 knockdown on cnidocyte 278 specification was assayed using a splice-blocking morpholino (GeneTools; Table S1) as previously described (11). Briefly, lyophilized morpholinos were reconstituted in nuclease-free 279 water to 1 mM following the manufacturer's instructions. Before each use, the stock was heated 280 281 to 60C for 5 mins and centrifuged for ~1 minute before being diluted to a final working 282 concentration of 0.3 mM in nuclease free water with 0.2 mg/ml RNase-free dextran. To control for non-specific effects, ZNF845-injected embryos were compared to embryos injected with a 283

standard control morpholino (GeneTools; Table S1) prepared the same way and injected at the
same concentration as the ZNF845 MO. Splicing defects were confirmed using PCR and gel
electrophoresis as described previously (*11*).

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288 **Cell and tissue analysis:** To assay effects of gene knockdown on cnidocyte specification, 289 developing cnidocytes were labeled, imaged, and counted as described in a similar study (11) using an antibody directed against minicollagen4 (Mcol4) (13). Additional targets of ZNF845 and 290 291 NR12 shRNAs were assessed using *in situ* hybridization as previously described (11). For 292 gPCR analysis, embryos injected with control shRNA and embryos injected with ZNF845 293 shRNA were both compared to uninjected embryos raised under the same conditions. Five 294 replicates of each condition (ZNFshRNA, control shRNA, and uninjected/WT) representing five 295 independent injections performed on different days were compared using the delta-delta CT 296 method and the PCR package (43) in the R statistical computing environment (44). ZNF845 297 expression in Figure 1D are presented as fold-change, relative to ZNF845 expression in 298 uninjected embryos and statistical significance for qPCR in Figure 1D was calculated from the comparison of SoxB2 MO and PaxA MO-injected embryos relative to control MO-injected 299 300 embryos. mRNA expression values in Figures 1F and 2A are presented as fold-change relative to expression of EF1B in the uninjected embryos (arbitrarily set to 1) and significance was 301 302 calculated from the comparison of ZNF845 shRNA-injected embryos to control shRNA-injected 303 embryos. Cell counts in Figures 1E, 1G, 1I, 2I, 2J, and 2K were analyzed with a Mann-Whitney 304 U nonparametric test for two-way comparisons (control vs target shRNA/MO) and are presented as mean ± standard deviation. Statistical significance for all quantitative comparisons is 305 306 indicated (*) where p<1E-02.

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Maximum likelihood phylogeny: Phylogenetic analysis of ZF-C₂H₂ domains was performed
 using a modification of a previously published protocol (*45*). In brief, an alignment was

310 denerated using a custom script (hmm2aln, available at dithub.com/iosephrvan) and the ZF-311 C₂H₂ HMM (PF00096) in predicted proteomes from all target taxa. For cnidarians, we sampled two anthozoans: Nematostella vectensis and Acropora digitifera, and two medusozoans: Hydra 312 magnipapillata and Nemopilema nomurai (46). For bilaterians, we sampled Homo sapiens, 313 314 Drosophila melanogaster, and Caenorhabditis elegans. Download information for each taxon is provided in Table S3. The alignment contains over 11,000 ZF-C2H2 domains from these 315 combined taxa and is provided in Data S1. To generate the phylogeny, we first used the model 316 317 finder function (-MF) with IQTREE to determine the best substitution model (VT+R8) and then 318 generated a single tree and applied 500 bootstraps using fast bootstrapping. 319 Acknowledgements and Funding 320 321 We are grateful to Namrata Ajuha and Malcolm Moses for their research assistance. Funding: 322 This work was funded by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (grant NNX14AG70G to MQM) and the National Science Foundation (grant 1542597 to JFR). Data 323 and Materials Availability: All data is available in the manuscript or the supplementary 324 materials. 325 326 References 327 D. Arendt, J. M. Musser, C. V. H. Baker, A. Bergman, C. Cepko, D. H. Erwin, M. Pavlicev, 328 1. G. Schlosser, S. Widder, M. D. Laubichler, G. P. Wagner, The origin and evolution of cell 329 330 types. Nat. Rev. Genet. 17, 744-757 (2016). 2. J. Zhang, Evolution by gene duplication: an update. Trends Ecol. Evol. 18, 292–298 331 (2003). 332

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450 Figures and Figure Legends

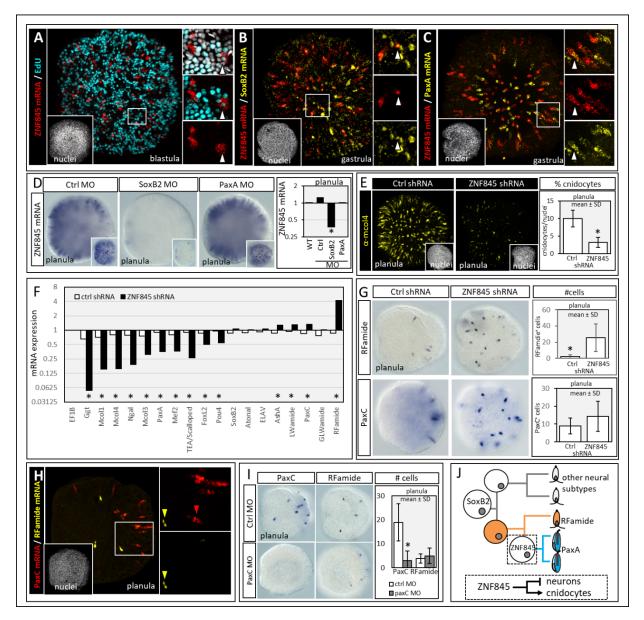


Fig. 1. ZNF845 specifies cnidocyte identity in *N. vectensis*. (A-C) ZNF845 is partially coexpressed with: (A) EdU (proliferating cells), (B) SoxB2 mRNA (neural progenitor cells), and (C)
paxA mRNA (cnidocytes). Insets: white arrowheads show co-expression; nuclei are white
(DAPI). (D) ZNF845 expression after knockdown of SoxB2 and PaxA (by morpholino, MO)
assayed by *in situ* hybridization and qPCR; significance (*) is indicated for SoxB2MO or PaxA
MO vs Ctrl MO. (E) Cnidocyte differentiation (α-Mcol4 antibody) after ZNF845 knockdown
(shRNA). (F) qPCR of target gene expression after ZNF845 knockdown; fold-change relative to

- 459 housekeeping gene EF1B. (G) Response of RFamide- and PaxC-expressing cells to ZNF845
- 460 knockdown. (H) RFamide and PaxC are not co-expressed. (I) Expression of RFamide and PaxC
- 461 after knockdown of PaxC (MO). (J) Model for ZNF845-mediated specification of cnidocyte
- 462 identity from and RFamide-expressing cell lineage. Significance (*) for all tests indicated as
- 463 p<1E-02. See Table S2 for supporting information.

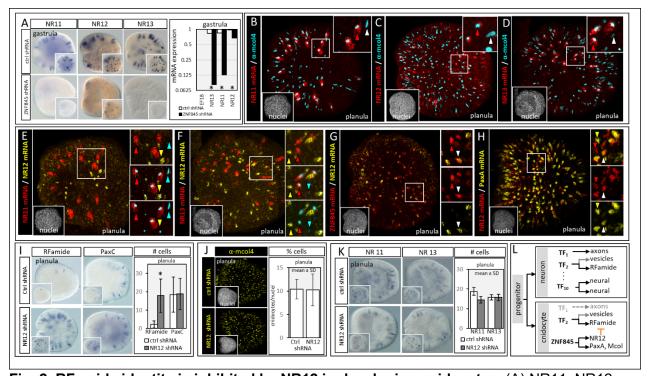


Fig. 2. RFamide identity is inhibited by NR12 in developing cnidocytes. (A) NR11, NR12,

and NR13 are downregulated in ZNF845 knockdowns (shRNA) as assayed by *in situ*

467 hybridization and qPCR. Insets: surface detail. (B-D) NR11, NR12, and NR13 are co-expressed

with Mcol4 (cnidocytes), but not with each other (E,F). Images B and E show the same embryo,

as do D and F. NR12 is partially co-expressed with (G) ZNF845 and (H) PaxA. (I) Response of

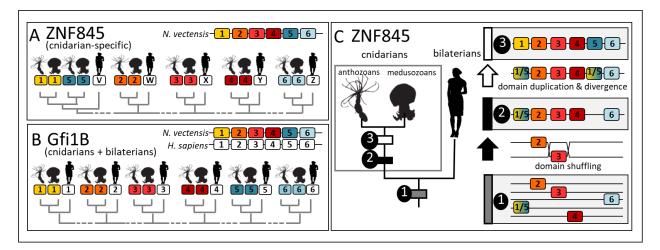
470 RFamide- and PaxC-expressing cells after NR12 knockdown. No effect of NR12 knockdown on

471 (J) cnidocyte differentiation (α -Mcol4) or (K) expression of NR11 or NR13. (L) Modular

regulation of neural traits (e.g., axons, vesicles + neuropeptides) explains how some traits can

be lost (e.g., axons) and others retained but inhibited (RFamide) in developing cnidocytes.

Significance (*) for all tests indicated as p<1E-02. See Table S2 for supporting information.



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Fig. 3. Evolutionary history of two 6-domain ZNF proteins. Relationships among ZF-C₂H₂ 477 478 domains from (A) ZNF845 (N. vectensis JGI PID 81344) and (B) Gfi1B (N. vectensis JGI PID: 479 112378). (C) Proposed model for the emergence of ZNF845: 1. In the common ancestor of 480 cnidarians and bilaterians ZF-C₂H₂ domains were in distinct proteins, 2. In the stem cnidarian, domain shuffling brought domains 1/5, 2, 3, 4 and 6 together in a single protein, 3. Domain 1/5 481 then duplicated and diverged to become two distinct domains (1 and 5) before the diversification 482 of extant cnidarians. Broken grey lines in A, B represent the locations of the other ~11,000 483 484 branch tips of the complete tree. See Supplementary Figs S5,S6 for supporting information. 485

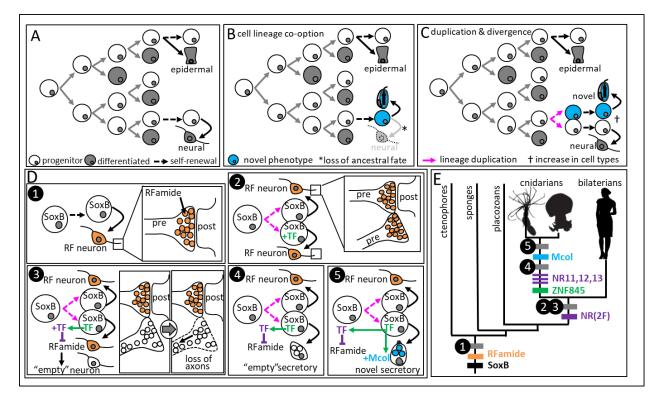




Fig. 4. Origin of novelty through lineage duplication and suppression of ancestral fate. 487 (A) Embryogenesis as a model for cell type evolution. (B) Co-option of a progenitor cell for novel 488 fate does not increase cell type diversity. (C) Duplication of the progenitor cell prior to co-option 489 490 allows for the expansion of differentiated cell types. (D) A stepwise model for the origin of cnidocytes by duplication and divergence of an RFamide neural lineage. (E) A proposal for the 491 492 evolutionary timing of these events; similar duplication of a neural progenitor cell and inhibition of the neural payload (steps 2,3) may also have facilitated the expansion of neural subtypes in 493 494 early bilaterians.