Resolving the origins of secretory products and anthelmintic responses in a human parasitic nematode at single-cell resolution.

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Abstract

Nematode excretory-secretory (ES) products are essential for the establishment and maintenance of infections in mammals and are valued as therapeutic and diagnostic targets. While parasite effector proteins contribute to host immune evasion and anthelmintics have been shown to modulate secretory behaviors, little is known about the cellular origins of ES products or the tissue distributions of drug targets. We leveraged single-cell approaches in the human parasite *Brugia malayi* to generate an annotated cell expression atlas of microfilariae. We show that prominent antigens are transcriptionally derived from both secretory and non-secretory cell and tissue types, and anthelmintic targets display distinct expression patterns across neuronal, muscular, and other cell types. While the major classes of anthelmintics do not affect the viability of isolated cells at pharmacological concentrations, we observe cell-specific transcriptional shifts in response to ivermectin. Finally, we introduce a microfilariae cell culture model to enable future functional studies of parasitic nematode cells. We expect these methods to be readily adaptable to other parasitic nematode species and stages.

Introduction

Lymphatic filariasis (LF) is a chronic and debilitating neglected tropical disease caused by the filarial nematodes *Wuchereria bancrofti, Brugia malayi,* and *Brugia timori.* Infective-stage larvae are transmitted by mosquitoes to the human definitive host, where they develop and molt to adult stages that persist in the lymphatics and produce blood-circulating pre-larval stage microfilariae (mf) (Roberts et al., 2009). LF afflicts an estimated 51 million individuals in tropical and subtropical climates around the world and endangers nearly a billion individuals worldwide (Local Burden of Disease 2019 Neglected Tropical Diseases Collaborators, 2020; World Health Organization, 2018). Chronic cases of LF manifest in elephantiasis, an extreme buildup of lymph resulting in stigmatizing disfiguration and additional socioeconomic challenges (Ton et al., 2015; Weiss, 2008). Mass drug administration (MDA) in endemic settings with combinations of ivermectin (IVM), diethylcarbamazine (DEC), and albendazole (ABZ) is used to disrupt parasite transmission, but this approach is only effective with years of repeated treatment. Additionally, contraindications for antifilarial drugs exist in regions co-endemic for other filarial parasites (Chippaux et al., 1996). With no cure and the growing threat of resistance to anthelmintics (Campbell, 1982; Geary et al., 2011, 2010a; Ismail et al., 1999; Osei-Atweneboana et al., 2011; Wolstenholme et al., 2015), there is a clear need to improve our understanding of basic biological processes that underpin the host-parasite interaction.

The excretory-secretory (ES) products of parasitic nematodes are known to be essential for parasite survival within the host (Harnett, 2014; Hotterbeekx et al., 2021; Lightowlers and Rickard, 1988). Despite the general understanding that the ES system is a conduit for the release of immunomodulatory proteins and extracellular vesicles that promote parasite survival, the biology of the ES system has yet to be investigated in medically important parasitic nematodes. Profiling of secretions (Bennuru et al., 2011; Harischandra et al., 2018; Hewitson

et al., 2008; Kaushal et al., 1982; Moreno and Geary, 2008; Zamanian et al., 2015) across the

filarial nematode life cycle has helped identify antigens that have been pursued therapeutically

and diagnostically (Harnett, 2014; Kalyanasundaram et al., 2020; Maizels et al., 2001; Morris et

al., 2013), but the origins of these proteins and the tissue systems that underlie their release at

the host-parasite interface are unknown. Recent studies have also implicated secretory

processes as a target of existing anthelmintics (Moreno et al., 2021, 2010). Ivermectin causes

rapid clearance of mf from host blood at concentrations that do not cause overt fitness effects

on cultured parasites (Geary et al., 2010b). This disconnect is reconciled by a model whereby

IVM unmasks mf from the host immune system by inhibiting protein and vesicle secretion (Rao

et al., 1987; Vatta et al., 2014; Zahner et al., 1997). While the ES apparatus is thought to be

the primary source of immunogenic proteins in the mf stage, the cells that comprise this

structure and control secretion have not been characterized.

Clear morphological descriptions of the filarial ES system are currently restricted to the mf

stage, but microscopy studies confirm that this structure is present in L3 and adult parasites

(Airs et al., 2022; Landmann et al., 2010; Mutafchiev et al., 2014; Tongu, 1974). Filarial

parasites possess tubular ES systems featuring a single large excretory cell connected through

a cytoplasmic bridge to an excretory vesicle and pore (Tongu, 1974). In the free-living model

nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*, the ES system is a well-studied and critical osmoregulatory

and excretory organ made up of a pore cell, duct cell, excretory/canal cell, and canal-

associated neurons (CAN) (Sundaram and Buechner, 2016). However, significant

diversification of ES anatomy and function between *C. elegans* and filariae and more generally

across nematode clades (A. F. Bird, 1991) demands more species-specific approaches to the

study of excretory-secretory systems.

Single-cell transcriptomics has facilitated resolution of cellular processes and functions that are

masked in tissue level or bulk transcriptomic approaches. Single-cell suspensions generated

from tissue dispersions of free-living nematodes (Zhang et al., 2011) have enabled high

dimensional transcriptomic analysis of cell types across developmental stages (Ben-David et

al., 2020; Cao et al., 2017; Packer et al., 2019; Taylor et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2011) and

provide a pathway to the characterization of essential cells and tissues in related parasites,

including those that control secretory behaviors. However, viable cell suspensions have yet to

be leveraged to transcriptomically profile human, animal, or plant parasitic nematodes at

single-cell resolution. This goal is complicated in many species by life cycle patterns that can

limit tissue availability and anatomical variation that can affect access to rare cell types.

Here, we applied single-cell approaches to generate and annotate a cell atlas of gene

expression in *B. malayi* microfilariae and to map secretory-associated cell types and the

distributions of prominent antigens and anthelmintic targets. We evaluated the effects of

anthelmintics on parasite cells and the amenability of mf cell suspensions to longer-term

culture. These data and methods allowed for novel inferences about the origins of

immunogenic molecules, the mechanism of action of existing anthelmintics, and provide an

avenue for future functional studies of *B. malayi* cell populations. We expect that many of these

tools can be extended to other medically important parasitic nematodes.

Results

Generation of viable single-cell suspensions from *Brugia malayi* microfilariae

We focused our efforts on generating single-cell suspensions from the blood-circulating microfilariae (mf) stage of the human parasitic nematode *B. malayi*. This pre-larval life stage is small (~177-230 µm in length, ~5-7 µm in diameter) but can be isolated from peritoneal fluid of infected jirds in large quantities (millions), potentially facilitating insight into early parasite development and the capture of rare cell types. Using larval tissue dispersion protocols from *C. elegans* as a scaffold, we developed a single-cell dissociation protocol in *B. malayi* mf that accounts for the unique biology of this parasite stage (**Figure 1A**)*. Microfilariae suspensions recovered from the jird peritoneal cavity are developmentally asynchronous and include an abundance of host cells, tissue debris, embryos, and nonviable mf, all of which contribute to transcriptomic contamination. To reduce contamination and enrich for viable mf, peritoneal lavages were filtered using Sephadex PD-10 desalting columns (Galal et al., 1989; Rathaur et al., 1987). This method reliably recovered high yields (60-70%) of highly motile mf which were then used as input into tissue dispersion reactions (**Figure 1B**).

B. malayi mf are encapsulated within an impermeable eggshell of carbohydrates including chitin (Fuhrman and Piessens, 1985). We treated filtered mf with chitinase to penetrate this sheath and allow downstream dispersion reagents to access the underlying cuticle and worm body. Chitinase treatment did not cause complete exsheathment, but produced a visible shrinking effect in the tail and head spaces indicating sheath breach (**Figure 1C**). SDS-DTT treatment was optimized to weaken protective structures (sheath and cuticle) of chitinase-treated worms while preserving cell health. Incubation in diluted SDS-DTT effectively

compromised cuticular structure and inhibited motility without causing parasite death (**Figure 1-**

figure supplement 1). Recoverable inhibition of motility, as revealed by subsequent wash

steps, served as visual confirmation of the efficient weakening of the cuticle and preservation of

the underlying body.

The generation of single-cell suspensions was completed using pronase enzymatic digestion

and mechanical disruption by continuous pipetting. Progression of the pronase digestion was

monitored throughout the treatment (**Figure 1D)**. mf cuticles were visibly compromised after

approximately 20 min of digestion, where the midsection of the filarial body plan exhibits

protrusions that break and release cells. Progression of the reaction yields a mixed suspension

of worm segments, single-cells, and intact mf, and an abundance of single-cells can be seen

by 30 min. Continuous mechanical disruption was essential to encourage the breakage of

worms and release of single-cells. The majority of undigested worms were removed by

centrifugation and filtration resulting in a highly viable single-cell mf suspension for downstream

applications.

High content imaging of cell suspensions confirms capture of rare parasite

cell types

The integrity of cells retrieved from *Brugia* mf dispersions was assessed by imaging flow

cytometry. A total of 20,000 objects were assessed and 15,683 were identified as debris,

undigested worm segments, or nonviable cells as indicated by negative Calcein-AM staining, a

cell-permeable viability dye that remains within healthy cells after acetoxymethyl (AM) cleavage

by non-specific esterase activity. The remaining 4,317 objects were analyzed using post-

acquisition image features to identify 2,893 objects as live, single cells that displayed round

cellular and nuclear morphology (**Figure 1E**). While the majority of recovered cells have a

diameter of 5.23 ± 0.77 µm, each mf is known to possess a large and morphologically distinct

secretory cell that is critical to parasite survival and immune evasion in the host (Tongu 1974;

Hewitson et al. 2009). The *Brugia* secretory cell is hypothesized to be responsible for the

release of prominent antigens, extracellular vesicles, and nucleic acids that operate at the host-

parasite interface. Classical descriptions of the mf ES system highlight the secretory cell as a

large cell with bipolar canal extensions (Moreno et al., 2010; Nelson and Riddle, 1984;

Sundaram and Buechner, 2016). We mined cells in our dataset that match this description and

identified a total of 11 cells with bipolar appendages that are notably the largest identifiable

cells (8.46 ± 0.77 µm in diameter) in this life stage (**Figure 1E**). Each mf possesses a single

secretory cell among hundreds of total cells and this recovery rate (0.4%) falls within the

expected range, providing us confidence that our dispersion protocol captures both common

and rare cell types.

152   Single-cell transcriptomic atlas identifies conserved and unique pre-larval

153   cell populations

To define the transcriptional profiles of *B. malayi* microfilariae cell types, we generated a single-

cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq) library from cell suspensions. Dimensional reduction of 46,621

filtered cells via Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) (McInnes et al., 2018)

identified 27 transcriptionally distinct clusters. Across all cells in the dataset, a median of 230

genes and 267 reads per cell were achieved (**Figure 2-figure supplement 1**). Transcript

abundance of single-cells strongly correlated with microfilariae bulk gene expression (Reaves

et al., 2018) (**Figure 2A inset**, r = 0.85, R^2 = 0.72, p = 2.2 x 10^{-16}), providing additional

evidence that our single-cell pipeline largely recapitulates the cell type distribution and

transcriptional profile of the intact parasite. An analysis of *B. malayi* transcription factors shows

both specific and broad-based transcription factor activity that aligns with known *C. elegans*

patterns (**Figure 2-figure supplement 2**). For example, *lin-14* exhibits broad expression in the

B. malayi mf scRNA-seq data and is congruent with broad expression of the transcription factor

in *C. elegans* (Taylor et al., 2021). In contrast, *C. elegans* has multiple cell type restricted

transcription factors including ciliated sensory neuron transcription factor *Cel-daf-19* and body

wall muscle specific transcription factors *Cel-hlh-1* and *Cel-unc-120* (Taylor et al., 2021), both

of which show restricted cluster expression in the *B. malayi* mf scRNA-seq atlas. These

analyses provide confidence in the biological signal acquired through scRNA-seq. Markers for

well-characterized *C. elegans* cell types (**Figure 2-figure supplement 3**) with one-to-one *B.*

malayi orthologs were used to annotate 16 UMAP clusters (**Figure 2A**) and pseudobulk

analysis confirms the robustness of these markers for differentiating cell types (**Figure 2-figure**

supplement 4). In total 18,317 cells (39.3% of global count) were assigned a cell type

annotation. Among these, 6,223 cells were identified as muscle derived (13.3% of global count)

and 5,527 cells expressed pan-neuronal markers (11.9% of global count). Additional

identifiable clusters include those representing canal-associated cells, coelomocytes,

mesodermal tissues, and a pre-alimentary canal related cell type.

Cell types belonging to the mesoderm lineage include 10,284 cells (22% of global count). Body

wall muscle cells represent the majority of the mesodermal cells identified (clusters 2 and 19)

and are distinctly categorized based on expression of *Bma-hlh-1* (Krause et al., 1994) and

markers shown to be enriched in *B. malayi* body wall muscle such as actin and multiple

myosins (*Bma-myo-3*, *Bma-unc-54.1*, *Bma-unc-54.2*, *Bma-act-1*) (Morris et al., 2015). An

additional two clusters (clusters 9 and 17) strongly express markers associated with

mesodermal lineage *C. elegans* cell types (enteric and vulval), including *Cel-hlh-8, Cel-hlh-2,*

and *Cel-mls-1* orthologs (Packer et al., 2019; Philogene et al., 2012). Differentially expressed

genes between the two clusters are proteins of unknown function and could not be further

parsed. Also belonging to the mesodermal cell lineage in *C. elegans* are coelomocytes,

phagocytic scavengers located within the pseudocoel. Using coelomocyte-specific *C. elegans*

orthologs (*Bma-cup-4*, *Bm6921*, *Bma-unc-122*, *Bma-let-381*), cluster 6 was annotated as

coelomocytes. These data show that mesodermal cells in the post-embryonic and pre-larval mf

state include well differentiated body wall musculature and coelomocytes and underdeveloped

enteric and vulval muscle structures.

Pan-neuronal *C. elegans* markers (*sbt-1, ric-4, ida-1, egl-3, egl-21*) were used to identify nine

clusters of putative neurons expressing all five markers (303 genes and 358 reads per cell)

(**Figure 2B**). We were able to further resolve a cluster of motor neurons (cluster 11) and

interneurons (cluster 23) characterized by one-to-one orthologs of the *C. elegans* motor neuron

marker (*Cel-unc-4*) and DVA tail interneuron marker (*Cel-nlp-12*), respectively (**Figure 2-figure**

supplement 4). Clusters 13 and 27 express *Bma-daf-19*, an ortholog of the RFX-family

transcription factor *Cel-daf-19* shown to be directly responsible for cilia development in ciliated

sensory neurons as well as genes involved in ciliogenesis (**Figure 2-figure supplement 3**)

(Blacque et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2006; Narasimhan et al., 2015; Swoboda et al., 2000).

These two clusters have been annotated as ciliated sensory neurons. Known genes involved in

neurotransmitter synthesis and transport were used to map neuropeptidergic (cluster 26) and

aminergic neurons (clusters 24 and 25) (**Figure 2B**). Acetylcholine is the primary excitatory

nematode neurotransmitter and we used cholinergic pathway genes (*Bma-cha-1*, *Bma-cho-1*,

and *Bma-ace-2*) to locate cholinergic neurons. The motor and interneuron neuronal clusters

(11 and 23) express *Bma-cha-1* and *Bma-cho-1* in 10-15% of all captured cells. Clusters 3-5

exhibit more abundant expression of *Bma-cha-1* (**Figure 2-figure supplement 5**) but no other

neuronal markers, cholinergic or pan-neuronal, and may represent a cholinergic neuronal

developmental state.

The phylogenetic distance between free-living clade V *C. elegans* and filarial clade III

nematodes is associated with known differences in anatomy (Chitwood and Chitwood, 1950)

and localization of some orthologous proteins (Moreno et al., 2010), which limits efforts to

comprehensively map all cell types across species (**Figure 2-figure supplement 6**). Cell types

and structures unique to filarial nematodes demand different annotation approaches. A cluster

of 503 cells (cluster 22) uniquely displays high expression of chitinases (*Bma-cht-1.1*, *Bma-cht-*

1.2, *Bma-cht-1.3*) and the immunomodulatory vaccine candidates *Bma-val-1* and *Bm97.*

Chitinase has been shown to be stored in the inner body of microfilariae which is positioned

between the excretory and G1 cells and is hypothesized to act as the precursor for the

intestinal tract of the developing larvae in the mosquito (McLaren, 1972; Wu et al., 2008). The

combination of chitinase and molting proteins within this segregated cluster support the

annotation of cluster 22 as inner body-associated cells.

Among *C. elegans* excretory-secretory cell types, only canal-associated (CAN) cell-specific

markers could be associated with a *B. malayi* single-cell cluster. *B. malayi* orthologs (*Bma-pks-*

1, *Bma-acbp-6*, *Bma-ceh-10*) of CAN markers identify cluster 14 as ES canal-associated cells

(1,006 total cells). Given the unique cell composition and structural adaptations of the ES

system in filarial nematodes, identification of additional secretory cell types demands other

approaches.

Identification of secretory-related cell types using FACS and RNA-seq

approaches

We exploited the large size of the *B. malayi* secretory cell as a means to enrich for and profile

this rare cell type within single-cell suspensions. The largest viable cells within a *B. malayi*

microfilariae suspension were FAC-sorted and pooled for downstream RNA-seq (**Figure 3A**

and **Figure 3-figure supplement 1**). The transcriptional profiles of these outlier cells were

compared to smaller round cells that typify the mf cell population, and unique identifiers of the

largest cells were mapped to the single-cell atlas UMAP. Cluster 15 shows a clear overall

enrichment for the 78 genes more highly expressed in this sorted cell population (**Figure 3B**

and **Figure 3-source data 1**) and individual cells within this putative secretory cell cluster

represent the largest group coexpressing different subsets of these markers (**Figure 3C** and

Figure 3-source data 2).

To assess whether the *C. elegans* excretory cell would have provided information relevant to

unearthing the filarial secretory cell, we carried out pooled single-cell RNA-seq of GFP tagged

(*vha-1p::*GFP) and sorted *C. elegans* excretory cells (**Figure 3D, Figure 3-source data 3,** and

Figure 3-figure supplement 2). Established and new *C. elegans* excretory cell markers

identified through this effort lack clear orthologs or display no meaningful overlap with highly or

uniquely expressed orthologous markers found in the *B. malayi* secretory cell. This aligns with

the distinct evolutionary history of the ES system in filariae and the parasite-specific functions

the secretory cell is likely to perform in the host context.

Abundantly-secreted parasite proteins have diverse tissue origins

We next investigated the origins of prominent molecules known to be secreted by blood-

circulating mf and that are likely necessary for parasite immune evasion and survival. Studies

have identified secreted proteins and antigens across the intra-mammalian life cycle stages

(Bennuru et al., 2011; Harischandra et al., 2018; Hewitson et al., 2008; Kaushal et al., 1982;

Moreno and Geary, 2008; Zamanian et al., 2015). We mined the literature for a comprehensive

list of major antigens, vaccine targets, diagnostic markers, and other notable secreted proteins

and probed the scRNA-seq data to identify their transcriptional origins (**Figure 3E** and **Figure**

3-source data 4). Transcripts encoding for secreted proteins exhibit variable patterns of

expression across the body and very few are specifically localized to the secretory cell (cluster

15). Some prominent antigens that are expressed across many tissue types (*Bma-tpi-1* and

Bma-cpi-2) have been localized to the ES apparatus via whole-mount antibody staining

(Moreno et al., 2010), an observation that is likely reconciled by aggregation and secretion of

these proteins through the ES apparatus. Additional broadly expressed antigens that are

included as vaccine targets and diagnostic markers include *Bma-tpi-1*, *Bma-sxp-2,* and

Bm3837 (**Figure 3E** and **Figure 3-figure supplement 3**) (Krushna et al., 2009; Lalitha et al.,

2002; Morris et al., 2013).

We identified prominent antigens and diagnostic markers that exhibit much more tissue-

restricted expression in both secretory and non-secretory cell types. *Bma-val-1*, *Bm97*, and

chitinases (*Bma-cht-1.1* and *Bma-cht-1.2*) have strong and nearly undivided expression in the

inner body (**Figure 3-figure supplement 3**). Muscle and undefined cell types also harbor an

abundance of interesting transcripts (ex. *Bma-unc-15*, *Bma-sxp-1*, *Bm7564*)*.* Notable genes

that showed strong or exclusive expression in the annotated secretory cells include

microfilariae-specific serpin *Bma-srp-2* and diagnostic antigens *Bm10631* (*BmR1)* (Greene et

al., 2022) and *Bm14*, a Cys_2His_2 zinc finger (C2H2-ZF) transcription factor (**Figure 3E**).

C2H2-ZF transcription factors are enriched in annotated secretory cells

We sought to further characterize transcripts that are specifically enriched in the annotated

secretory cell. A greater fraction of proteins with transcripts enriched in the secretory cell

contain signal peptides (43%) compared to other cell types (**Figure 4A** and **Figure 4-source**

data 1). Signal peptides may not be required for release into the host environment as many

proteins identified in ES studies do not possess this targeting signal (Hewitson et al. 2008).

41.8% of proteins with transcripts enriched in the secretory cell are predicted to contain

transmembrane domains (**Figure 4B** and **Figure 4-source data 2**). Subpopulations of these

putative membrane-spanning proteins may potentially serve as candidate hidden antigens that

may evade recognition by the host immune system but may be highly accessible to vaccine-

induced antibodies (Munn 1997).

We investigated the distribution of C2H2-ZF transcription factors in light of the high abundance

and restriction of the diagnostic marker *Bm14* in the secretory cell cluster. We generated a

phylogeny of *B. malayi* C2H2-ZF transcription factors and identified two expanded subgroups

that are secretory cell specific and that lack one-to-one *C. elegans* orthologs (**Figure 4C**).

Several of these transcription factors were also detected in the bulk RNA-seq data of FAC-

sorted "largest" cells. The C2H2-ZF family is a large, diverse family of proteins (Kang and Kim,

2000; Razin et al., 2012). Previous studies have reported an enrichment of this transcription

factor class in mf-derived ES products and elevated expression of these genes in mf (Bennuru

et al., 2011; Choi et al., 2011). The role of these proteins in ES cell types is poorly understood,

but may involve governing gene regulatory events at the host-parasite interface or to help

adapt mf for the stark environmental transition from the mammalian host to the mosquito

vector.

304 Mapping anthelmintic targets across the microfilarial body

Modulation of ES processes may explain the mechanism of action of essential anthelmintics

(Moreno et al., 2021) and a deeper understanding of the cellular or physiological processes

that regulate ES systems may identify new therapeutic strategies. Ion channels and structural

proteins in the neuromuscular system are the primary targets of nearly all anthelmintics. To

identify the distribution of the known and putative targets of existing and emerging

anthelmintics within the microfilarial body, we mapped the cell type locations of β-tubulins, cys-

loop ligand gated ion channels (LGICs), and additional ionotropic receptors (**Figure 5A**).

Benzimidazoles compromise nematode cell structural integrity by acting as microtubule

inhibitors, but the specific β-tubulin target(s) are unknown in filariae despite the use of ABZ in

MDA programs. The four β-tubulin *B. malayi* proteins exhibit broad expression across the mf

body, with *Bma-btub-1* (*Bm4733*) most highly expressed compared to all other β-tubulins

(**Figure 5A** and **5B**). This β-tubulin also has the highest sequence similarity to the benzimidazole

target in *C. elegans* (*ben-1*), and we hypothesize that *Bma-btub-1* is responsible for mediating the

antifilarial action of ABZ. *Bma-tbb-4* and *Bma-mec-7* were minimally represented but found in

muscle and neuronal cell types. The coexpression of β-tubulins in *C. elegans* cells provides

redundancy that allows for normal growth in *Cel-ben-1* loss-of-function mutants (Driscoll et al.

1989). Single-cell coexpression of β-tubulins within individual *B. malayi* mf cells shows strong

association between *Bma-tbb-4* and *Bma-btub-1* and a moderate association between *Bma-*

btub-1 and *Bma-btub-2* (**Figure 5C**), pointing to potential redundancy and compensatory drug

response mechanisms.

Transient receptor potential (TRP) channels are gaining recognition as anthelmintic targets

(Park et al., 2019) and the TRPC-like channel *Bma-trp-2* has recently been implicated as a

target of DEC (Verma et al., 2020; Williams et al., 2022). We observed the expression of all 10

B. malayi TRP channels with at least one TRP channel subunit expressed in every cell type

(**Figure 5A** and **Figure 5-figure supplement 1**). *Bma-trp-2* facilitates inward calcium currents

upon activation and results in subsequent opening of the SLO-1 K$^+$ channel (Verma et al.,

2020; Williams et al., 2022), the proposed target of the macrofilaricidal emodepside (Kashyap

et al., 2019). The majority of *Bma-trp-2* and *Bma-slo-1* transcripts are found in body wall

muscle (clusters 2 and 19), consistent with electrophysiological assays (Kashyap et al., 2019;

Verma et al., 2020) and the paralytic effect of emodepside.

The glutamate-gated chloride channels (GluCls) are of special interest as the targets of the

macrocyclic lactones and as regulators of ES processes. There is strong evidence that IVM

acts on muscle-expressed GluCls adjacent to the secretory apparatus leading to suppression

of secretory cargo and host clearance of mf (Harischandra et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Loghry

et al., 2020; Moreno et al., 2010). The *B. malayi* GluCl complement (*Bma-avr-14, Bma-glc-2,*

Bma-glc-3, and *Bma-glc-4*) display expression in neuronal and muscle cell types (**Figure 5A**

and **5B**). *Bma-avr-14* is noted as an important subunit for IVM sensitivity (Dent et al., 2000),

and the expression of *avr-14* in annotated muscle cell types is consistent with its expression in

muscle surrounding the ES pore (Moreno et al., 2010). While functional *B. malayi* GluCl

channels have been constituted in heterologous systems to determine IVM sensitivity

(Choudhary et al., 2022; Lamassiaude et al., 2022), not all subunit compositions are amenable

to expression and it is unclear what channel formations best reflect the native state

(Lamassiaude et al., 2022). To improve predictions of native channel compositions, we

examined the correlation of GluCl subunit expression in individual cells and identified *Bma-avr-*

14 and *Bma-glc-4* as the most commonly coexpressed GluCl subunits (**Figure 5C**). *Bma-avr-*

14 was also coexpressed with *Bma-glc-2*, a combination reported to be IVM-sensitive, however

Bma-glc-2 was minimally expressed and was not coexpressed with any other GluCl subunit.

Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChR) are activated by levamisole and other cholinergic

anthelmintics. As expected, the subunits that comprise *L*-type and *P*-type nAChR channels are

mainly restricted to the body wall muscle (**Figure 5A** and **Figure 5-figure supplement 1**).

Single-cell coexpression analysis of nAChRs reveals that *Bma-acr-15* could be an essential

and missing component of our understanding of nAChR composition and function in filarial

nematodes (**Figure 5C**). These data enrich our understanding of tissue-specific targeting of the

major anthelmintic classes and provide new cell-specific leads belonging to traditionally

druggable receptor families.

Measuring the effects of anthelmintics on the viability and transcriptional states of isolated cells

With a view of how anthelmintic targets are distributed across cells and tissues, we set out to investigate anthelmintic responses at single-cell resolution. To first validate flow cytometry as a cell viability quantification approach, single-cell suspensions from the same *B. malayi* dispersion reaction were exposed to DMSO, methanol (nonviable), or remained untreated (viable). Cell viability was successfully measured using DRAQ5 (nucleated objects) and Calcein Violet-AM, a shorter wavelength version of the Calcein-AM dye(**Figure 6A**). We also confirmed that cell health did not decline significantly after dissociation and incubation on ice in media for up to 8 hr and that DMSO at concentrations required for drug solubility did not compromise cell health (**Figure 6B**).

Next we examined the effects of three major anthelmintic classes (macrocyclic lactones, benzimidazoles, and nicotinic agonists) on parasite cell viability. Homogenous cell preparations from independent parasite infection cohorts were split into parallel treatment conditions and cells were exposed to drugs for a 20 min incubation period prior to flow cytometry analysis. Dose response curves (50 nM, 1 μM, 50 μM, 100 μM) were completed using IVM, levamisole (LEV), and albendazole sulfoxide (AZS), the active metabolite of albendazole (**Figure 6C**). We did not observe a significant decrease in cell viability in any of the primary classes of drug at pharmacologically relevant concentrations, however, higher concentrations of IVM did produce a cytotoxic effect (EC_{50} = 51 ± 5.16 μM) (**Figure 6D**).

While these anthelmintics did not exhibit strong cell-cidal activity, we reasoned they may differentially alter gene expression in various cell types. Single-cell RNA-sequencing was carried out using a homogenous *B. malayi* mf cell suspension that was equally split with one half receiving short-term IVM exposure at a concentration that does not affect cell viability (1

µM for 20 min). Compared to the untreated control, muscle, neurons, and unannotated cell

types revealed the most significant and abundant upregulation of genes in response to IVM

exposure (**Figure 6E** and **Figure 6-source data 1**). The greatest transcriptional shift occurs in

muscle cells, which house the highest transcriptional abundance of GluCls (**Figure 5-figure**

supplement 1). Differentially expressed genes of interest include serine protease inhibitor

Bma-srp-2, a highly abundant ES product released from mf, which showed the greatest

increase in expression in unannotated cluster 8 ($Log_2FC > 2.8$) but was also significantly

upregulated in 9 of 27 clusters. The IVM response was additionally characterized by

upregulation of genes previously identified in bulk RNA-seq studies (*Bm10661, Bm228,*

Bm9776, Bma-srp-2, Bm8514, Bma-unc-54.2, Bm33, Bm13260, Bma-rps-28) (Ballesteros et

al., 2016) and proteins with unassigned functions.

Cell culture of dispersed mf suspensions provides avenue for single-cell

functional analyses

Historically, cell culture models have revolutionized biological understanding and progress

towards drug discovery and development in mammalian systems. The complex

cyclodevelopmental life cycle of filarial worms and the absence of immortalized cell lines

derived from any helminth species complicate the translation of these approaches to

helminthology. While dispersions of embryonic *Brugia* cells have been performed, the captured

cells do not differentiate in culture (Higazi et al., 2004), limiting the advantages of the system.

To enable future studies of cell biology and drug interaction at single-cell resolution, we sought

to establish a filarial nematode cell culture system for the longer-term maintenance of adherent

and differentiated cell populations. To this end, *B. malayi* mf primary cell cultures were plated

onto peanut-lectin coated chamber slides and imaged to assess cell adherence and health.

Highly viable populations of adhered cells were observed after a 24 hr incubation in 10% FBS

L-15 media (**Figure 7A**). We next plated primary cells onto peanut-lectin coated surfaces in

microtiter plate format to monitor viability over a longer time frame using high-throughput

imaging. Adhered cells remained viable at 96 hr as indicated by Calcein-AM fluorescence

(**Figure 7B** and **Figure 7-figure supplement 1**). We assessed the mitotic activity of these cells

using an EdU proliferation assay and determined these cells are not actively dividing in the

current culture conditions (**Figure 7-figure supplement 2**). Further development and

adaptation of this method will support transgenic manipulation and functional studies of

differentiated *B. malayi* cell populations.

419   Discussion

Excretory-secretory products released by parasitic nematodes into the host environment are

recognized as key molecular mediators for the establishment and maintenance of infections.

The secretory processes that underlie host immune evasion and modulation may serve as

targets for existing (Loghry et al., 2020; Moreno et al., 2010) and future drugs. Despite this, our

superficial knowledge of the structure and function of the secretory apparatus of human

parasitic nematodes has limited our understanding of the molecular events that drive host-

parasite interactions. To help address these knowledge gaps, we introduce the first single-cell

transcriptomic atlas of a parasitic nematode and leverage this resource to resolve tissue and

cell-specific gene expression patterns that allow for inferences about the origins of secretory

products and antiparasitic mechanisms of action.

We developed a single-cell dissociation and RNA-seq protocol to generate a transcriptomic

atlas of the blood-circulating microfilariae stage of the human filarial parasite *B. malayi*. Using

marker genes specific for terminal and developing cell types, we annotated ~30% of the cells

represented in our dataset as muscle and neuronally derived. Ten clusters in the dataset

(61.5% of total cell count) remain unannotated. The use of a pre-larval developmental stage

containing cells that have yet to terminally differentiate and a developmentally asynchronous

mf population likely contributed to difficulties in comprehensive disentanglement and

annotation of transcriptionally distinct cell clusters. The potential to annotate cells is further

confounded by the unknown biological functions of genes that distinguish different clusters.

Many unannotated clusters in the dataset may be resolved by deeper single-cell profiling and

validation efforts. For instance, cluster 7 lowly expresses several *C. elegans* genes found in

sensory neurons related to cilium assembly and organization (*osm-1, dyf-11, ccep-290, ift-74,*

dyf-17, che-3, T12B3.1) (Peter N. Inglis, Guangshuo Ou, Michel R. Leroux, and Jonathan M.

Scholey, 2006) but lowly expresses only a subset of pan-neuronal markers (**Figure 2-figure**

supplement 3).

Knowledge from *C. elegans* was useful in identifying rare cell populations such as

coelomocytes or canal-associated cells, but alternative approaches were necessary for the

identification of clade-diverged secretory cells. Pooled RNA-seq of sorted cell populations

enriched for the morphological characteristics of the *B. malayi* secretory cell allowed for the

annotation of secretory-like cells within the mf cell atlas. Surprisingly, prominent secreted

proteins and antigens show different patterns of transcript distribution across cell populations,

establishing that immunomodulatory ES products originate from different parasite tissues. For

example, the diagnostic marker *BmR1* (*Bm10631*) is exclusively transcribed in the secretory

cell while the vaccine immunogens *Bma-val-1* and *Bm97* are restricted to the inner body. It is

possible that many of the proteins encoded by these transcripts share a common exit route

from the worm through the ES apparatus (Moreno et al., 2010) or that many of these proteins

are exposed to the host by dead or dying parasites. The later possibility may warrant greater

focus on targets that are actively transcribed in the secretory cell of viable parasites.

The inner body is a chitinase-enriched (*Bma-cht-1.1, Bma-cht-1.2*) intestinal tract precursor,

and its breakdown leads to the release of chitinase and exsheathment within the mosquito (Wu

et al., 2008). Exposure of mf to IVM prevents later exsheathment in the mosquito (U. R. Rao,

A. C. Vickery, B. H. Kwa, J. K. Nayar, 1992), which we speculate is consistent with suppression

of ES function leading to the trapping of inner-body enzymes. This view of the mf ES apparatus

as a secretory choke point in the parasite life cycle offers a control target relevant to both the

arthropod and mammalian hosts. Later developmental stages in the parasite life cycle (L3 and

adults) present additional orifices and interfaces for host interaction, necessitating other

approaches to parse out the relationship between ES products and the ES apparatus in these

stages.

The putative targets for mainstay anthelmintics are known, but their tissue distributions

throughout the filarial worm body are unresolved. Further, the native subunit compositions of

the ion channel drug targets of the macrocyclic lactones and nicotinic agonists are unknown.

We leveraged these data to map the expression of known and putative antifilarial drug targets

across cell types and to predict ion channel subunit associations from single-cell coexpression

analysis. These predictions can guide the reconstitution and functional expression of

pharmacologically relevant ion channels in heterologous studies of channel function and

anthelmintic responses. We directly assessed the effects of anthelmintics on the viability of

isolated cells, showing that the major anthelmintic classes do not elicit cell death at

pharmacologically relevant concentrations. This suggests that the primary action of these drugs

requires cell-cell connectivity. The action of IVM in *C. elegans* is innexin-dependent (Dent et

al., 2000), underscoring the importance of gap junctions in the signaling cascade that results in

the whole-organism drug effect. To capture early transcriptional events that drive IVM action in

the mf stage, we identified core genes that are upregulated across isolated cell types in

response to acute drug exposure. Future studies that compare the transcriptional trajectories of

cells exposed to drug before and after dissociation may help resolve the role of cell-cell

communication and various compensatory responses in anthelmintic mechanisms of action.

Finally, we developed a protocol for culturing cells derived from *B. malayi* microfilariae tissue

dispersions. Efforts that improve our ability to manipulate these dispersed cell populations have

the potential to expand our understanding of parasite cell biology and receptor-mediated

responses to external drug and chemical stimuli. While there has been great progress in the

genetic manipulation of filariae (Higazi et al., 2002; Liu et al., 2020, 2018; Xu et al., 2011),

germline transgenesis has proven difficult and optimized protocols cannot overcome a two-host

life cycle with a long parasite pre-patent period. Transfection of cultured *Brugia* mf primary cells

with promoter-driven constructs and CRISPR reagents can help circumnavigate some existing

limitations and facilitate the study of parasite protein function. Although primary cells are often

difficult to transfect or transduce, optimization of both viral and non-viral approaches has

helped overcome these challenges in a cell-type specific manner (Chong et al. 2021).

Collectively, the continued development of these resources and associated methods can help

answer outstanding questions about the nematode parasite-host-drug interface.

502 Materials and Methods

503 Data and Code Availability

All data and scripts used for data analysis and visualization are publicly available at

https://github.com/zamanianlab/Bmsinglecell-ms and in a Zenodo repository

(https://zenodo.org/record/7110316). Single-cell and FACS-pooled RNA-seq data has been

deposited into NIH BioProjects PRJNA874113 and PRJNA874749. The processed data can

also be explored at https://github.com/zamanianlab/BmSC_shiny as a locally run RStudio

Shiny application.

Parasite and *C. elegans* Strains

Brugia microfilariae (mf) were supplied by the NIH/NIAID Filariasis Research Reagent

Resource Center (FR3) (Michalski et al., 2011). *B. malayi* mf were used for all experiments

except for the imaging flow cytometry data where the anatomically equivalent *B. pahangi*

species was used due to parasite availability at the time of the assay. Mf extracted from the jird

peritoneal cavity were filtered and cultured in RPMI-1640 with L-glutamine (Sigma-Aldrich, St.

Louis, MO) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA)

and 50 µg/mL penicillin/streptomycin (P/S) (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA). All experiments

used mf incubated at 37°C+5% CO_2 for at least 1 hr prior to experimentation within 24 hours of

host extraction, or stored at 4°C overnight in fresh media and processed within 48 hours of

host extraction. *C. elegans* strain BK36 was acquired from the *Caenorhabditis* Genetics Center

(CGC). *C. elegans* strains N2 and BK36 were maintained at 20ºC on NGM plates seeded with

Escherichia coli OP50. Worms were propagated by routine picking of L4 stage worms to

seeded NGM plates.

Microfilariae Purification

Brugia mf were purified using a PD-10 desalting column (Cytiva, Marlborough, MA) to remove

host cells, debris, embryos, and perished microfilariae as previously described (Galal et al.,

1989) with minor changes. Briefly, the PD-10 column was equilibrated by passing 25 mL of

RPMI-1640 with L-glutamine through the column. Mf were centrifuged at 2,000 rpm for 10 min

and the supernatant was drawn off leaving 5 mL of peritoneal fluid and the mf pellet. Mf were

resuspended and the entirety of the suspension was transferred to the equilibrated PD-10

column. RPMI-1640 medium was added to the column in 5 mL increments, and the flowthrough

was checked every 5 mL for the presence of mf and host peritoneal cells. Mf were collected

when no host peritoneal cells were present in the flowthrough and until mf were no longer

being eluted. Recovered mf were washed twice in RPMI-1640 by centrifugation, resuspended

in RPMI-1640, and allowed to recover at 37°C for at least one hour prior to beginning a single-

cell dissociation.

Microfilariae Single-cell Dissociation

PD-10 column purified mf from the same jird parasite infection cohort were used as input for

Brugia dispersions at ~1 million mf per reaction. The mf were aliquoted to a 1.5 mL

microcentrifuge tube, pelleted, and resuspended in 2 mg/mL chitinase from *Streptomyces*

griseus (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) and incubated at 37°C with light agitation for 20 min. mf

were washed once with 1 mL RPMI-1640 medium and the chitinase-treated pellet was

resuspended in SDS-DTT (200 mM DTT, 0.25% SDS, 20 mM HEPES, pH 8.0, 3% sucrose)

diluted 1:4 in Leibovitz's L-15 medium without phenol red (Gibco, Waltham, MA) and an

adjusted osmolality of 340 mOsm using 1 M sucrose. 200 µL of diluted SDS-DTT was added to

the mf pellet and placed on a nutator for 6 min, where the mf are alive but not thrashing. 1 mL

of L-15 medium was added to the tube and centrifuged at 16,000 rcf for 30 sec at 4°C. The

supernatant was removed and the pellet was resuspended in 1 mL fresh L-15 medium. The mf

were washed a total of 5 times or until the smell of SDS-DTT was no longer lingering. The

pellet was resuspended in 100 µL pronase from *Streptomyces griseus* (VWR, Radnor, PA) at a

concentration of 15 mg/mL in L-15 medium (340 mOsm). The reaction was continuously

pipetted 100 times every 5 minutes either manually or by the use of the Repetitive Pipettor

robot. The reaction was monitored by eye by checking small aliquots throughout the digestion.

The reaction was stopped with ice cold 1 mL L-15+10% FBS when most mf were broken open

and single-cells were clearly visible in the background (~30 min). The dispersed cells and

remaining worms and debris was pelleted by centrifugation at 1,000 rcf for 6 min at 4°C. The

pellet was resuspended in 1 mL cold L-15+10% FBS and centrifuged briefly for 5 sec at 1,000

rcf to separate remaining large debris and single-cells. The top ~900 µL of cell suspension was

drawn up into a 1 mL syringe and pushed through a reusable syringe filter (Millipore,

Burlington, MA) containing 7 µm mesh (Component Supply, Sparta, TN). The filtrates were

combined and used in downstream applications. A standard hemocytometer was the most cost

and time effective cell count estimation method with the caveat that differentiating cell versus

debris was very difficult. Comparisons between the methods can be found in the supplemental

material (**Figure 1-source data 1**).

Imaging Flow Cytometry

Single-cell suspensions maintained on ice were incubated with DRAQ5 (500 nM) (Biolegend,

San Diego, CA) and Calcein-AM (500 nM) (Biolegend, San Diego, CA) in L-15+10% FBS for a

minimum of 20 min on ice prior to acquisition. An Amnis ImageStream Mark II Imaging Flow

Cytometer equipped with a 60X objective and a 2-laser (488 nm and 642 nm), 6-channel

detection system was used for single-cell imaging acquisition. Samples were gated based on

viability (DRAQ5+, Calcein-AM+). Analysis of images was completed using the Amnis Image

Data Exploration and Analysis Software (IDEAS) and the integrated Feature Finder Wizard to

distinguish viable single-cells from the population based on a subset of hand-picked single-

cells as a training dataset.

Anthelmintic Drug Dose Responses

Single-cell suspensions generated from *B. malayi* microfilariae were subjected to drug

treatment using ivermectin (IVM) (Fisher), albendazole sulfoxide (AZS) (Fisher Scientific,

Hampton, NH), and levamisole (LEV) (VWR, Radnor, PA). Biological replicates were taken

from separate jird parasite infection cohorts. Drugs were suspended in DMSO (Santa Cruz

Biotechnology, Dallas, TX) and added to cell suspensions at 50 nM, 1 µM, 50 µM, and 100 µM

for 20 min on ice with a final DMSO concentration of 0.1%. At the completion of incubation, the

cell suspensions were centrifuged at 1,000 rcf for 6 min and as much supernatant as possible

was removed without disrupting the pellet. Cells were resuspended in 300 µL of L-15+10%

FBS containing DRAQ5 (2.5 µM) and Calcein Violet-AM (0.75 µM) and stored on ice until flow

cytometry analysis. Treatment controls included untreated and DMSO only (0.1%) treated cell

suspensions. Controls for spectral flow cytometry included L-15+10% FBS, unstained cells,

and DRAQ5 (2.5 µM) and Calcein Violet-AM (0.75 µM) fluorescence minus one controls.

Additional controls of L-15+100 µM IVM and unstained cells+100 µM IVM were necessary to

confirm the presence of IVM precipitation at high concentrations picked up by the spectral flow

cytometer. Viability curves of single-cell suspensions over time were generated using cells from

a *B. malayi* mf dissociation reaction (input of ~1 million mf) and split to create three treatment

groups (untreated, 0.1% DMSO, and methanol fixed) with four samples each to cover four

timepoints over 8 hr. Samples were stained with DRAQ5 and Calcein Violet-AM 30 min prior to

analysis on the flow cytometer. Methanol fixed cell suspensions served as a cell death control

and were prepared by adding 300 µL methanol (chilled to -20ºC) to 100 µL cell suspension and

incubated at 4ºC for 30 min prior to staining and analysis. Samples were analyzed on a Cytek

Aurora Spectral Cytometer equipped with five lasers (355 nm UV, 405 nm Violet, 488 nm Blue,

561 nm Yellow-Green, and 640 nm Red). The laser light channels include a forward scatter

and side scatter off of both the blue and violet lasers and has 64 fluorescence channel

detectors. Selection of single-cell entities was completed using FSC-A vs FSC-H followed by

selection of cells that are DRAQ5(+) and Calcein Violet-AM(+). Gated cells with a Calcein

Violet-AM intensity greater than 105 were considered Calcein Violet-AM(+) and viable. Percent

viability was calculated by dividing the Calcein Violet-AM(+) population by the total DRAQ5(+)

population and the EC_{50} was calculated using the R statistical software with the drc package

(Ritz et al., 2015).

10x Genomics Preparation and Sequencing

A *B. malayi* mf single-cell suspension was split into two equal parts and one part was treated

with 1 μM IVM in DMSO (1.0% final v/v) for 20 min on ice. At the end of incubation, the cells

were centrifuged at 1,000 rcf for 6 min at 4ºC, the supernatant was removed, and the cells

were resuspended in L-15+10% FBS. Cells were normalized to 1,400 cells/μL as estimated by

standard hemocytometer (INCYTO, Cheonan-si, South Korea) to target an input of 12,000 cells

for capture on the 10x Genomics Chromium controller. A single technical and biological

replicate was completed for each treatment. The 10x Genomics 3' Single Cell RNA-seq

protocol (v3.1 NextGEM User Guide Rev.D) was followed to generate the gel bead-in-

emulsions (GEMs) and post cDNA amplification cleanup. The cDNA library was prepared using

the Chromium Dual Index TT primers and the Single Cell 3' v3.1 Reagents and user guide. The

library was sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq6000 to generate ~550 M reads across control

and drug-treated samples (2x50 bp on S1 flow cell).

scRNA-seq Mapping

The ivermectin treated and untreated *B. malayi* mf scRNA-seq data were mapped and

processed independently. Single-cell RNA-seq data were mapped to the *Brugia malayi*

reference genome (Wormbase, WS285) using 10x Genomics Cell Ranger 5.0.1 analysis

pipeline. The 10x Genomics 3' Single Cell RNA-seq protocol is strongly biased towards the 3'

regions of mRNA which are not well annotated in *B. malayi* thus requiring a modified reference

genome to improve the mapping rates of the scRNA-seq data. The 3' UTRs were artificially

extended by 50, 100, 150, 200, 250, 300, 400, and 500 bp as previously described with

modifications (Taylor et al., 2021). Briefly, the scRNA-seq data was mapped using the Cell

Ranger pipeline for each iteration and the total reads for each gene in every iteration were

summarized across all of the cells. The gene counts for each extension were normalized to the

gene count of the 500 bp extension and the optimal extension length for each gene was

determined by identifying the extension that provided at least a 90% increase in mapping rate.

The *B. malayi* scRNA-seq raw data was mapped one final time using the newly generated

reference genome containing the optimal 3' UTR extension length for each gene. The Cell

Ranger filtered output drastically underreported the estimated cell count and is not optimized

for small, low expressing cells. Therefore the raw Cell Ranger output was used for filtration and

preprocessing.

scRNA-seq Bioinformatics Analysis

The raw Cell Ranger barcode matrix output for each scRNA-seq dataset (untreated and +IVM

treated) was filtered to remove empty droplets using the cluster-based R package scCB2 (Ni et

al., 2020). Using EmptyDrops (ED) as a scaffold, scCB2 increases the power to distinguish real

cells from background empty droplets as well as low-expressing, small cells by pooling low-

count barcodes with similar gene expression patterns. The cluster is then compared against

the estimated background population to identify irrelevant barcodes. This method of empty

droplet filtration allows for the identification of small, low-expressing cells which are prevalent in

the *B. malayi* mf single-cell dispersions. To facilitate this testing, scCB2's CB2FindCell()

function was used and droplets with 100 or fewer total counts were used to estimate the

background distribution (lower = 100). A False Discovery Rate (FDR) was set to 0.01. The

resulting cell matrix was converted to a Seurat object and genes detected in less than 3 cells

were omitted. The filtered cell population was then used as input into the R package SoupX

(Young and Behjati, 2020) to estimate the contribution of cell free mRNA contamination

captured in each droplet. Because SoupX can provide a better estimate of contamination when

cluster information is supplied, the scCB2-filtered datasets were taken through the Seurat

pipeline (Hao et al., 2021) to identify clusters. Briefly, each dataset was log normalized and

variable features were selected using the "vst" method and 2,000 features. PCA analysis was

completed using 50 dimensions, which were used for clustering and dimension reduction via

UMAP. The raw and clustered datasets were used as input to SoupX with cells containing 0-25

total UMI counts used to estimate the "soup". A lower UMI count to estimate the "soup" was

used to avoid unintentionally including lower expressing neuronal cells. The estimated

contamination fraction for the untreated and treated datasets were calculated to be

approximately 0.13 and 0.10 respectively, and the count matrix was adjusted accordingly using

the adjustCounts() function. The ambient mRNA contamination was removed and additional

filters were applied on the remaining cell population. Cells with high mitochondrial

representation (greater than or equal to 10% of all UMIs per cell) were identified using the

mitochondrial markers *Bm5157, Bma-nduo-4,* and *Bma-ctc-1 (Qing et al., 2021)*. Cells were

removed from the population if a single gene represented greater than or equal to 15% of the

total cell transcripts, had greater than 2,500 total genes expressed, and more than 1,800 total

UMIs. These cutoffs were determined by the distributions and to omit potential doublets. The

remaining count matrices for the untreated and treated datasets contained > 10,000 genes with

21,131 and 25,490 cells respectively. Seurat 4.1.1 was used for downstream integration and

normalization. First, each matrix was log normalized and the top 2,000 variable genes were

identified using the FindVariableFeatures() functions using the "vst" selection method. Variable

genes were then used to integrate the control and treated datasets using the

FindIntegrationAnchors() and IntegrateData() functions with default parameters. Principal

component analysis (dims = 50) for dimension reduction was completed for clustering and

visualization of the combined datasets. Differentially expressed genes between clusters was

completed using the FindConservedMarkers() function in Seurat, which uses a Wilcoxon Rank

Sum test and Bonferroni p-value correction to account for false positives. Genes with an

adjusted p-value > 0.05 were considered significant. Differentially expressed genes in

response to IVM treatment were identified using Seurat's FindMarkers() function with a

logfc.threshold = 0.25. Treated and untreated cells were compared by cluster assignment.

Pseudobulk Analysis

Pseudobulk analysis was completed using the single-cell dataset generated from *B. malayi* mf. The raw read counts from the gene-by-cell expression matrix were aggregated for each cluster and treatment assignment. Each cluster and treatment combination was handled as an individual sample (1_tBM = 1 sample). The size of the aggregated read counts for each sample was TMM normalized using edgeR (v3.38.4) (Robinson et al. 2010). Genes with less than 10 aggregated read counts across all samples were removed from the dataset. The pseudobulk gene expression matrix was $\log_2(x+1)$ and the resulting counts were median-centered. Genes and samples were hierarchically clustered in R using the ClassDiscovery package (v3.4.0) (Coombes 2021) using an uncentered Pearson correlation to calculate the distance matrix and complete-linkage for clustering. The gene expression heatmap was generated using pheatmap (v1.0.12) (Kolde 2018) where color indicates the level of expression (yellow=upregulated; blue=downregulated).

Phylogenetic Analyses

B. malayi transcription factors were identified using a reciprocal blastp and HMM approach using *C. elegans* transcription factors obtained from the CIS-BP database (v.2.0) (Weirauch et al. 2014) as input. Only transcription factors that were supported by direct experimental evidence were considered. Multiple sequence alignment was completed using MAFFT (v.7) with an iterative refinement approach (E-INS-i) and poorly aligned regions were removed using trimAI (v.1.2) (Capella-Gutiérrez et al. 2009). A maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree was built using iqtree (v.2.2.0) (Minh et al. 2020) and the ultrafast bootstrap approximation (UFBoot) method requiring a minimum of 1000 replicates (Hoang et al. 2018). The resulting tree was visualized in RStudio using the ggtree R package (v.3.4.4) (Yu et al. 2017). This method was

704   also used to identify orthologous and paralogous C2H2 zinc finger transcription factors in *B.*

705   *malayi.*

C. elegans Single-cell Isolation

Chunks (~5 mm^2) of media from 4 day old plates were excised by flame sterilized spatula,

transferred to 5-10 new 10 cm NGM plates, and incubated at 20ºC. At 102-120 hr post

chunking, worms were washed off plates with 15 mL M9, pelleted (~1,100 rpm / 5 sec), and

exposed to 6 mL of freshly prepared bleaching solution (20% NaOCl, 0.5 M NaOH in ddH$_2$O)

with mild rotation until partially degraded bodies were observed (6-8 min) under Stemi 508

stereo-microscope. Eggs were pelleted (~1,100 rpm / 5 sec) and washed 3 x in 15 mL M9

media. After the final wash embryos were resuspended in 2-4 mL M9 and counted in 5 x 5 µL

droplets on a glass slide under a Zeiss Stemi 508 stereo-microscope. 2,000-4,000 embryos

were plated in 125-150 µL M9 on 20 (N2) or 55 (BK36) 10 cm NGM plates seeded with OP50

and kept at 20°C for 46.5 hr prior to single-cell isolation. Single-cells were isolated from bleach

synchronized *C. elegans* N2 and BK36 L4 stage worms using an established protocol with

modifications (Kaletsky et al., 2016). Worms were transferred in ~30 mL M9 media to 3 x 1.5

mL centrifuge tubes by sequential pelleting by microfuge followed by washing 5 x in 1.5 mL M9.

Worms were washed once in 500 µL lysis buffer (200 mM DTT, 0.25% SDS, 20 mM HEPES pH

8.0, 3% sucrose) then incubated for a further 8 min in lysis buffer with continuous rotation.

Digested worms were washed 5 x in M9 then subject to 500 µL pronase (20 mg/mL from

Streptomyces griseus in L-15 for 14-15 min at RT with semi-continuous pipetting. Pronase

treatment was stopped with FBS (3% final v/v). Large debris was pelleted by microfuge and

cells were filtered (7 µm nylon mesh), stained with 0.5 µg/mL DAPI, and kept on ice.

Throughout the protocol, samples were checked under stereo and fluorescent microscopes to

determine the release and integrity of cells.

FACS Pooled RNA-seq

FACS was performed using a FACS Aria II (Becton Dickinson) for both *C. elegans* and *B. malayi* cell suspensions. *C. elegans* BK36 (Mattingly and Buechner, 2011) single-cell suspensions generated from L4 stage larvae were sorted directly into TRIzol™ LS (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA) in 1.5 mL microfuge tubes. N2 strain cells were used as reference. Gates included dead cells (DAPI+, 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole, 0.5 µg/mL), GFP+ cells (green fluorescent protein), and cell size by aspect ratios, respectively (**Figure 3-figure supplement 2**). Total RNA was purified using Direct-zol RNA Microprep kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA), eluted in a minimal volume of nuclease-free water and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen or dry ice and stored at -80ºC. RNA integrity was determined by Agilent RNA 6000 Pico Kit (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA) on a 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent) before library preparation. Total RNA was converted to double stranded cDNA and amplified using SMART-Seq v4 (Takara, Kusatsu, Shiga, Japan). Full length cDNA was quantified by 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent). 150 pg of amplified cDNA was tagmented and index-amplified using Nextera XT adapters (Illumina). Library quantity was assessed by Qubit HS DNA and quality assessed by 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent). Libraries were then balanced and 2x75 bp sequencing was carried on the Illumina MiSeq.

For *B. malayi* single-cell suspensions, gates were set to collect live single-cells (DRAQ5+, DAPI-) based on size (small, large, largest), granularity, and presence or absence of *Wolbachia* antibody (**Figure 3-figure supplement 1**). Presence of *Wolbachia* identified by fluorescent conjugated (Lightning-Link® R-Phycoerythrin Conjugation Kit #703-0030) *Wolbachia* surface protein *wBm*0432 / GenPept: WP_011256630 mouse monoclonal antibody (BEI Resources, Manassas, VA). Cells were sorted into 750 uL TRIzol™ LS and libraries were prepared using the NEBNext Single Cell/Low Input RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (NEB,

753 version 3.0, #E6420L) and NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (Index Primers Set 1, NEB,

754 #E6440G), followed by 2x150 bp sequencing on the Illumina MiSeq. Single technical replicates

755 for *C. elegans* strains and *B. malayi* mf dispersions were completed.

Secretory Cell Characterization

Differentially expressed genes for each major annotated *B. malayi* cell type were identified

using the FindConservedMarkers() from the Seurat R package with an adjusted p-value less

than or equal to 0.05. Gene ontology (GO) IDs for annotated *B. malayi* genes were acquired

from WormBase ParaSite (Howe et al. 2017) using the biomaRt R package (v.2.52.0)

(Smedley et al. 2009) and analysis of enriched secretory cell transcripts was completed using

the topGO R package (v.2.48.0) (Alexa and Rahnenfuhrer 2010). Significantly enriched GO

terms were identified using the topGO's Fisher's exact test (*p*<= 0.05). The protein sequences

for differentially expressed secretory cell genes were obtained from WormBase and used as

input into SignalP 6.0 (Teufel et al., 2022) to computationally predict signal peptide sequences.

The "slow" model and Organism option "Other" were used as settings. Transmembrane

domains were predicted and quantified using the same list of differentially expressed genes for

each major cell type as input to HMMTOP 2.1 (Tusnády and Simon 2001).

Microfilariae Cell Culture

Single-cell suspensions for the purpose of cell culture were prepared as previously described

with the exception of the pronase digestion step. After the initial 30 min incubation with

mechanical digestion, the suspension was briefly centrifuged at 1,000 rcf to pellet undigested

worms. The supernatant was removed and supplemented with 1 mL L-15+10% FBS and

placed on ice to inhibit further pronase digestion on released single-cells. The worm pellet was

resuspended in an additional 100 µL of pronase (15 mg/mL) for continued digestion for 30 min

with manual pipetting to release cells from worms in early stages of digestion. At the end of

pronase digestion, all microcentrifuge tubes were centrifuged at 1,000 rcf for 6 min at 4ºC to

pellet undigested material and single-cells. The supernatant was replaced with L-15+10% FBS,

tubes were briefly centrifuged (~5 sec) and the supernatant was filtered through 7 μm mesh.

Peanut lectin-coated chamber slides or plates were prepared by incubating peanut lectin (0.5

mg/mL) (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) suspended in water in chamber slide wells for 30 min,

removed, and allowed to dry while being UV treated for 2 hr for sterilization. Filtered cell

suspensions were concentrated prior to plating on peanut lectin-coated chamber slides or

plates by centrifugation and resuspension in a smaller volume. Cells were seeded and

incubated in a humid chamber at 37ºC+5% CO_2. Viability was visualized using live/nucleated

cell staining with DRAQ5, DAPI, or Calcein-AM dyes. Two biological replicates generated from

microfilariae obtained from different infected jirds were completed with at least two technical

replicates from the same single-cell suspension dissociation reaction

Cell Proliferation Assay

B. malayi cell suspensions were assessed for proliferative activity using the thymidine analog

EdU (5-ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine) and the Click-iT™ EdU Cell Proliferation Kit for Imaging with

the Alexa Fluor™ 488 dye (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA). Cells dissociated from *B. malayi* mf

were seeded onto peanut-lectin coated, UV-treated Nunc™ Lab-Tek™ II 8-well chamber slides

(Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA) at a density of 30k cells/chamber in L-15+10% FBS+P/S. Cells

were allowed to adhere overnight at 37ºC+5% CO_2 prior to incubating in EdU at 0 μM, 0.1 μM,

1.0 μM, 10 μM, and 50 μM concentrations. The CHO-K1+Gα16 cell line was used as a positive

proliferation control to confirm the EdU Click-chemistry reaction was functioning and was

incubated with 0 μM and 10 μM EdU. Cells were incubated with EdU for 48 hr prior to detection

of EdU incorporation using the kit protocol for cell fixation, permeabilization, EdU detection, and

staining with Hoescht 33324 prior to imaging. Cells were imaged at 10X and 40X for CHO-

K1+Gα16 and B. malayi mf-derived cells, respectively.

Microscopy

803   Differential Interference Contrast (DIC) imaging was completed using an upright Zeiss Axio

804   Imager.D1 microscope equipped with a 100X oil objective (Plan-Neofluoar 100x, NA = 1.3 ,

805   Zeiss). All other brightfield and fluorescence microscopy used an ImageXpress Nano

806   Automated Imaging System (Molecular Devices) with 10X and 40X air objectives.

Integrating Model Nematode Datasets

In an effort to identify cell types within the *B. malayi* scRNA-seq dataset, Scanorama was used

as an integration tool with publicly available *C. elegans* scRNA-seq datasets based on one-to-

one orthologs (Hie et al., 2019). The pre-processed untreated *B. malayi* dataset was reduced

to only genes that have a one-to-one ortholog in *C. elegans* followed by replacement of the *B.*

malayi gene IDs to *C. elegans* gene IDs using Seurat. The Seurat object was then exported as

an Ann Data object for input into Scanorama. The L2 larval stage specific dataset (Ben-David

et al., 2020) and the most notable L4 larval stage dataset (CeNGEN) (Taylor et al., 2021) were

integrated with the subsetted *B. malayi* dataset with batch integration and plotted using ScanPy

(Wolf et al., 2018).

Repetitive Pipettor (ReP)

The ReP is an automated, 3D-printed assembly that uses a DC motor (ServoCity, Winfield,

KS), Raspberry Pi (rpi) Nano (CanaKit, North Vancouver, Canada), and an L298N motor

controller (SunFounder, Shenzhen, China) to aspirate and dispense a p200 Eppendorf

Research Plus pipette (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) at any given rate, frequency, and

volume. The structure was designed and modeled in Solidworks 2020

(https://www.solidworks.com/). The design includes six independent parts that were converted

to STL files in Solidworks and sliced in Ultimaker Cura (https://github.com/Ultimaker/Cura)

using the default printing settings of 0.2 mm layer height, 20% infill, and support material

checked. The flat face of each part was positioned in contact with the build plate to reduce

support material and refine rounded surfaces. Parts were printed using polylactic acid plastic

filament and the support material was removed prior to assembly. Four pins were soldered to

the rpi at pin locations 16, 18, 20, and 22. The rpi was subsequently glued to the 3D-printed

structure at the four corner supports such that the SD card was facing upwards, and the USB

and HDMI ports were facing outwards. The LN298 motor controller was glued to the opposite

side of the structure such that the heat sink was facing downwards. For the rpi, ports 16, 18,

and 22 were general purpose input/output pins and were connected to the IN1, IN2, and ENA

ports of the motor controller, respectively. Port 20 was a ground inserted at the GND port of the

motor controller. The 12-volt power supply had a positive and negative lead inserted into the

motor controller at the +12V and GND ports, respectively. The OUT1 and OUT2 ports on the

motor controller were finally wired and soldered to the motor terminals. All code was written in

python, and the rpi was controlled remotely via SSH tunnels. All part files, protocol codes, and

in-depth fabrication instructions can be found at https://github.com/emmakn/ReP.

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High Parameter Flow Cytometer). The authors would also like to thank the University of

Wisconsin Biotechnology Center Gene Expression Center for facilitating single-cell and low-

input RNA-sequencing. *Brugia* life cycle stages were obtained through the NIH/NIAID Filarial

Research Reagent Resource Center (FR3), morphological voucher specimens are stored at

the Harold W. Manter Museum at University of Nebraska, accession numbers P2021-2032. *C.*

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857 Competing Interests

858   The authors have declared no competing interests exist.

859 Figures

Figure 1

Optimization of single-cell dissociation in *B. malayi* microfilariae.

(**A**) Schematic of dissociation protocol using 1 million *B. malayi* microfilariae as input. (**B**)

Images of 96-well plate wells containing pre- and post- PD-10 filtration of microfilariae-

containing peritoneal lavage. Unfiltered solutions (left) contain a plethora of host cell and tissue

contamination and parasite embryos. Filtered solutions (right) minimize host contamination

carryover prior to cell dissociation and downstream applications. (**C**) Representative Giemsa

stained microfilariae pre-chitinase (left) and post-chitinase (right) treatment. Chitinase disrupts

sheath integrity visible in the head (white arrows) and tail spaces (black arrows). Scale bar =

100 μm. (**D**) Cell dissociation timelapse during pronase digestion and mechanical disruption.

Scale bar = 50 μm. (**E**) High content imaging flow cytometry of single-cell suspensions. Left:

Gating scheme to identify objects based on nucleation (DRAQ5+ stain) and high viability

(Calcein-AM+ stain). Objects colored in green indicate highly viable, nucleated objects carried

forward in the downstream analysis. Right: Single-cell objects were segregated by IDEAS

software and objects with aspect ratios >= 0.8 for brightfield and DRAQ5 channels were

counted as single-cells (blue). A mixed population (grey) included objects belonging to

doublets/multiples/debris (orange). All captured images were scanned by eye for cells with ES-

like morphology (black) and included as single-cells. Bottom: Representative images of cells

belonging to the identified single-cell (blue), mixed (grey), ES-like (black), and multiplet/debris

(orange) populations. Scale bars = 10 μm.

Figure 2

A single-cell transcriptomic atlas of *B. malayi* microfilariae cell types.

(**A**) Global UMAP transcriptome clustering of 46,621 cells with cell type annotations. Inset:

Comparison of bulk transcript per million counts (tpm) (Bulk: Log_{10}(tpm)) and single-cell RNA-

seq total read counts (SC: Log_{10}(Total)) indicates the transcriptomic profile of the single-cell

atlas largely recapitulates the gene expression profile of bulk tissue RNA-sequencing.

Correlation between the bulk and single-cell RNA-seq datasets was assessed using Pearson

correlation coefficient. Linear model regression line is indicated in red. (**B**) Gene expression

distribution (color) and proportion of cells per cluster (size) expressing neurotransmitter-specific

genes. Clusters 24 and 25 are aminergic and cluster 26 is GABAergic. Glutamatergic and

cholinergic neurons are unresolved. MS=Muscle, MD=Mesoderm, C=Coelomocyte,

S=Secretory, CA=Canal-associated, IB=Inner body.

Figure 3

Annotation of the *Brugia* secretory cell and localization of secretory-related antigens

indicates broad distribution of antigen transcriptic origins.

(**A**) Schematic of FACS enrichment approach for isolating cell populations in *B. malayi* mf

single-cell dispersions. Viable cells were sorted by size, granularity and the presence or

absence of anti-*Wolbachia* fluorescent antibodies and collected directly into TRIzol LS^{TM} for

RNA isolation and sequencing. (**B**) Differentially expressed genes in the "Largest" cells sample,

the population hypothesized to contain the secretory cell, were projected on the mf single-cell

atlas and indicated expression enrichment in cluster 15. Read count represents summed reads

across mapped genes in the single-cell atlas. (**C**) Cell and marker coexpression quantification

in cells belonging to cluster 15 using the DEGs identified in Figure 3A. Cluster 15 includes the

majority of cells expressing DEGs and contains the most cells coexpressing 2 or more

markers. (**D**) Single-cell suspension of *C. elegans* strain BK36 with the excretory canal

cytoplasm labeled with GFP. Heatmap representing differential gene expression from sorted

cell populations by FACS based on size and GFP(+/-) expression. (**E**) Dot plot of secreted,

diagnostic, and vaccine antigens grouped by annotated cell type. Color indicates average gene

expression per cluster. Circle diameter denotes proportion of cells in each cluster expressing

the indicated gene. Presence of a blue box indicates whether the resultant protein from the

gene is considered an abundant secretory antigen, a diagnostic antigen (Diagnos.) or whether

the resulting protein has been investigated as a vaccine target (Vacc.). MS=Muscle,

MD=Mesoderm, C=Coelomocyte, S=Secretory, CA=Canal-associated, IB=Inner body.

Figure 4

Characterization of the secretory cell indicates an enrichment in signal peptide

containing proteins and C2H2 zinc finger transcription factors.

(**A**) Quantification of signal peptide-containing sequences among all DEGs ($p <= 0.05$) across

major annotated cell types. Differentially expressed transcripts in the secretory cell show an

enrichment for signal peptide sequences. S=Secretory, MS=Muscle, MD=Mesoderm,

C=Coelomocyte, CA=Canal-associated, IB=Inner body, N=Neurons. (**B**) Quantification of

transmembrane domains of differentially expressed transcripts in the secretory cell. Secretory

cells contain several genes with a single predicted transmembrane domain but very few

proteins contain more than one domain. (**C**) Phylogenetic and expression analysis of C2H2

zinc finger transcription factors in *B. malayi* (red) based on orthologous C2H2-ZF TFs

confirmed through direct evidence in *C. elegans* (black). Paralogous expansion (red boxes) of

these transcription factors is observed with nearly exclusive expression in the secretory cell.

A summary of gene ontology (GO) enrichment for differentially expressed genes of the

secretory cell can be found in **Figure 4-figure supplement 1**.

Figure 5

Distribution of putative anthelmintic targets and ligand-gated ion channel subunit

colocalization.

(**A**) Transcriptomic and gene expression profiles of major anthelmintic targets in microfilarial

cell types. Targets include β-tubulins and cys-loop ligand-gated ion channel (LGIC) subunits

corresponding to the following subfamilies: big potassium (BK), G protein-coupled receptor

(GPCR), glutamate-gated chloride channel (GluCl), acetylcholine-gated channel (ACC),

nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (nAChR), transient receptor potential channel (TRP), and cyclic

nucleotide-gated ion channels (CNG). (**B**) UMAP depiction of cells expressing putative targets

of benzimidazoles (β-tubulins), emodepside (*slo-1*), and macrocyclic lactones (GluCls). (**C**)

Phylogenetic trees showing single-cell correlations between subunits belonging to GluCl and

nAChR LGIC subfamilies and β-tubulins. Empty circles represent *C. elegans* and filled circles

represent *B. malayi*. Red links indicate positive Pearson correlation coefficients calculated

using the log normalized count values. MS=Muscle, MD=Mesoderm, C=Coelomocyte,

S=Secretory, CA=Canal-associated, IB=Inner body.

Figure 6

Cell viability and transcriptional shifts in response to anthelmintics.

(**A**) Schematic and representative flow cytometry contour plots depicting Calcein Violet-AM

(viable) fluorescence in control samples (untreated, 0.1% DMSO, and methanol fixed).

Methanol fixed cells show no retention of Calcein Violet-AM indicated by decreased

fluorescence in the violet channel. (**B**) Viability of dispersed cell suspensions incubated on ice

for 8 hr. Significant variation in the percent viability of cell populations after dissociation was

observed and attributed to the variation in mf health prior to dispersion as well as small

nuances in pronase digestion. (**C**) Drug dose response curves on dispersed single-cell

suspensions at 50 nM, 1 µM, 50 µM, 100 µM, and a DMSO-only (0.1%) control. Viability was

normalized to the percent DMSO control. AZS = albendazole sulfoxide, LEV = levamisole, IVM

= ivermectin. Black line indicates the average of three biological replicates for IVM and two

biological replicates for LEV and AZS. Red line indicates the EC_{50} value for IVM at 51 ± 5.16

µM. (**D**) Representative flow cytometry contour plots of cell viability in response to IVM

treatment. A decrease in Calcein Violet-AM fluorescence at 50 µM and nearly total cell death at

100 µM. (**E**) Left: Single-cell transcriptomic response to IVM treatment (1 µM for 20 min, 1%

DMSO). UMAP plot showing treated (top) and untreated (bottom) clustering of cell types.

Middle: Volcano plots depicting differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in treated and untreated

groups by cell type annotations. DEGs were calculated using Seurat's FindMarkers() function

and comparing treated vs untreated clusters. Orange color indicates upregulation in IVM-

treated cells. Right: Volcano plot of differentially expressed genes colored by cluster.

Figure 7

Cells of dispersed microfilaria are viable in culture 96 hr after dissociation.

(**A**) DIC and fluorescence microscopy of cells from microfilarial stage *B. malayi* parasites on

peanut-lectin coated slides after 24 hr incubation in culture medium. The cell population

contains a range of cell sizes including single-cells and clustered cells and a subset of the cell

population have protrusions indicating a muscle or neuronal cell type. Calcein fluorescence

(live) with varying intensities of brightness indicates a range of viability among the cell

population. Scale bar = 20 µm. (**B**) Quantification of cell viability over a period of 96 hr using

DRAQ5 and Calcein-AM viability dyes. Black line represents the mean and standard error of

viability per replicate.

Supplemental Figure Legends

Figure 1-figure supplement 1 - Optimization of SDS-DTT incubation by time and

concentration.

Figure 1-source data 1 - Comparison of cell counting methods by hemocytometer, flow

cytometry, and automated cell counting instrument. Determining the total cell count in the

suspension was difficult due to remnants of debris and small and variable sized cells within the

suspension. The recommended tabletop automated cell counting system Countess II (Thermo

Fisher, Waltham, MA) was unreliable in confirming total and viable cell counts, likely due to cell

sizes below the lower threshold of the instrument and because the cells are in multiple focal

planes within the chip. Fluorescent activated cell sorting (FACS) was also used to estimate cell

count and to attempt enrichment of viable cells prior to loading the 10x Genomics. The majority

of cells did not survive the FACS process and could not be recovered for input into the 10x

Genomics Chromium controller. Estimating cell concentration was most reliable using a

hemocytometer. Bpa = *Brugia pahangi*; Bma = *Brugia malayi*; mf = microfilariae

Figure 2-figure supplement 1 - Histograms of genes (left) and UMIs (right) per cell across all

clustered cells. Red line indicates the mean.

Figure 2-figure supplement 2 - (**A**) Dot plot of orthologous *B. malayi* transcription factors

based on *C. elegans* transcription factors confirmed through direct evidence as indicated in the

CIS-BP database. Dot size indicates the proportion of cells within the corresponding cluster

expressing the gene and the color represents the average level of expression across the

expressing cells in the cluster. MS=Muscle, MD=Mesoderm, C=Coelomocyte, S=Secretory,

CA=Canal-associated, IB=Inner body (**B**) UMAP representation of ciliated sensory neuron

specific transcription factor *Bma-daf-19* and genes that contribute to ciliogenesis. Intraflagellar

transport (IFT) represented by *Bma-che-3.1, Bma-che-3.2, Bma-xbx-1, Bma-dylt-2, Bma-che-*

11, Bma-daf-10, Bma-osm-5, Bma-ift-81, Bma-ift-74, Bma-osm-6, Bma-osm-1, Bma-che-2,

Bma-che-13. Kinesin-II IFT motors represented by *Bma-klp-11, Bma-klp-20, and Bma-kap-1*.

Bardet-Biedl Syndrome (BBS) stabilizing proteins represented by *Bma-bb-1, Bma-bbs-2.1,*

Bma-bbs-2.2, Bm4542, Bma-bbs-5, Bma-osm-12, Bma-bbs-8, and *Bma-bbs-9*.

1006

1007   **Figure 2-figure supplement 3** - UMAP visualization of marker genes used to annotate cell

1008   type clusters.

1009

1010   **Figure 2-figure supplement 4** - Pseudobulk analysis of scRNA-seq transcriptomic data. The

1011   raw counts for each cluster based on treatment (untreated or IVM-treated) were aggregated to

1012 simulate a bulk transcriptomic library sample. Samples and *B. malayi* genes are hierarchically

1013 clustered to show samples that represent similar cell types and differentially expressed genes

1014 across cell types.

1015

1016 **Figure 2-figure supplement 5** - Distribution of neuronal gene transcripts across all clusters.

1017 Circle size (Total reads (%)) represents the proportion of total reads for each gene located in

1018 that cluster. Color indicates neuronal class. MS=Muscle, MD=Mesoderm, C=Coelomocyte,

1019 S=Secretory, CA=Canal-associated, IB=Inner body.

1020

1021 **Figure 2-figure supplement 6** - Integration of single-cell datasets using Scanorama algorithm.

1022 Bma = *B. malayi* mf. Ben-David = *C. elegans* L2 stage dataset from Ben-David et al. (2020).

1023 CeNGEN = *C. elegans* L4 stage from Taylor et al. (2021). Integration of the three datasets

1024 using the Scanorama algorithm is colored by dataset (A) and annotated cell type (B).

1025

Figure 3-figure supplement 1 - Representative FACS gating scheme for collecting *B. malayi*

single-cells based on size, granularity, and presence or absence of anti-*Wolbachia* IgG

antibody. Cells were separated from debris (Gate 1) and live single-cells were differentiated

from doublets using forward scatter, side scatter, and DAPI/DRAQ5 staining (Gates 2-4). Cells

were further separated based on increased granularity (Gate 5B), increased cell size (Gate

5C), or small, round cells (Gate 5A). Small, round cells were further separated by the presence

or absence of anti-*Wolbachia* IgG antibody binding (Gate 6 A1 and Gate 6A2, respectively).

1033

1034 **Figure 3-figure supplement 2** - Representative FACS gating scheme for collecting *C. elegans*

1035 strain BK36 cell populations. Cells were separated from debris (Gate 1) and live single-cells

1036 differentiated from doublets using forward scatter, side scatter, and DAPI intensity (Gates 2-4).

1037 GFP(-) cells were separated for collection (Gate 5) and GFP(+) cells were further separated by

1038 size based on forward scatter and collected as small and large cell populations (Gate 6).

1039

1040 **Figure 3-figure supplement 3** - Distribution of gene transcripts across all clusters. Circle size

1041 (Total reads (%)) represents the proportion of total reads for each gene located in the specified

1042 cluster. Transcript abundance distribution across cell types for prominent antigens.

1043 MS=Muscle, MD=Mesoderm, C=Coelomocyte, S=Secretory, CA=Canal-associated, IB=Inner

1044 body.

1045

1046 **Figure 3-source data 1** - List of differentially expressed genes identified in the *B. malayi* mf

1047 "largest" cell population collected via FACS and bulk RNA-seq.

1048

1049 **Figure 3-source data 2** - List of differentially expressed genes in secretory cells (cluster 15).

1050 Differentially expressed genes associated with secretory cells (cluster 15)

1051

1052 **Figure 3-source data 3** - List of differentially expressed genes identified in *C. elegans* large

1053 and GFP(+) cells collected via FACS and bulk RNA-seq.

1054

1055 **Figure 3-source data 4** - Comprehensive table of major antigens, vaccine targets, diagnostic

1056 markers, and notable secreted proteins.

1057

1058 **Figure 4-figure supplement 1** - Gene Ontology (GO) term enrichment analysis for

1059 differentially expressed genes identified in the secretory cell.

1060

1061 **Figure 4-source data 1** - Summary table of signal peptide sequence predictions in

1062 differentially expressed transcripts across major annotated cell types. S=Secretory,

1063   MS=Muscle, MD=Mesoderm, C=Coelomocyte, CA=Canal-associated, IB=Inner body,

1064   N=Neurons.

1065

1066   **Figure 4-source data table 2 -** Summary of transmembrane domain prediction in differentially

1067   expressed transcripts across major annotated cell types. S=Secretory, MS=Muscle,

1068   MD=Mesoderm, C=Coelomocyte, CA=Canal-associated, IB=Inner body, N=Neurons.

1069

1070   **Figure 5-figure supplement 1** - Distribution of gene transcripts associated with anthelmintic

1071   targets across all cell clusters. Circle size (Total reads (%)) represents the proportion of total

1072   reads for each gene located in the specified cluster. MS=Muscle, MD=Mesoderm,

1073   C=Coelomocyte, S=Secretory, CA=Canal-associated, IB=Inner body.

1074

Figure 6-source data 1 - Differential gene expression analysis between untreated and IVM (1

µM) treated single-cell suspensions. Positive average $\log_2$ fold-change (avg_log2FC) values

indicate the gene is more highly expressed in cells exposed to IVM. Pct.1 and pct.2 correspond

to the percentage of cells expressing the gene in the treated and untreated cell populations,

respectively. P-values were adjusted (p_val_adj) using a Bonferroni p-value correction

approach.

1081

1082   **Figure 7-figure supplement 1** - Representative images of cell viability over 96 hr. DRAQ5

1083   (red) indicates nucleated objects and Calcein-AM (green) fluorescence indicates viable cells.

1084   Scale bar = 20 µm.

1085

1086   **Figure 7-figure supplement 2** - EdU cell proliferation assay of *B. malayi* mf-derived cells and

1087   CHO-K1+Gα16 cells as a proliferating cell positive control. *B. malayi* cells were incubated with

1088   different EdU concentrations and EdU was detected using an anti-EdU Alexa Fluor 488 azide.

1089 No EdU incorporation is detected in the *B. malayi* cells indicating the dissociated cell

1090 suspensions are not proliferative in culture. Scale bars are 50 μm and 10 μm for CHO-

1091 K1+Gα16 and *B. malayi* cells, respectively.

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