Co-option of Lysosomal Machinery for Sponge Biosilicification

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Abstract

Biomineralization evolved repeatedly across animals, resulting in novel strategies for buoyancy, locomotion, and defense. Sponges are the only metazoans that build a silica-based skeleton and the mechanisms underlying their biosilicification are relatively understudied compared to other major silicifiers. Here, we show that in freshwater sponges, cells specialized for biosilicification, termed sclerocytes, highly express lysosomal-associated genes, including the V-H$^+$-ATPase (VHA) proton pump, oculocutaneous albinism type 2 (OCA2) anion channels, cathepsins, silicateins, TMEM55A/B, TMEM192, TMEM199, and other proteins involved in lysosomal maintenance and degradation. We demonstrate that VHA protein localizes to the sclerocyte silica deposition vesicle (SDV) and that VHA-dependent SDV acidification is essential for silica spicule formation. This function mirrors the role of VHA in diatom biosilicification and in biocalcification across a broad sweep of taxa. We also found that genes homologous to the plant silicon efflux transporter Lsi2 are highly upregulated in sclerocytes and confirmed their localization using Hybridization Chain Reaction Fluorescence In Situ Hybridization (HCR-FISH). These results corroborate phylogenetic and transcriptomic evidence that Lsi2 homologs are involved in sponge silicic acid transport. Data mining of previous studies revealed many of the sponge sclerocyte lysosomal-associated genes have been correlated with biomineralization across eukaryotes, including coccolithophores, bryozoans, crustaceans, mollusks, and mammals. As detoxification was a likely driver for the evolution of biomineralization, we propose that lysosomal machinery aided in detoxification by allowing sponges to sequester Si in acidified compartments to prevent its catastrophic intracellular precipitation. This lysosomal toolkit was likely independently co-opted for the formation of biomineralized structures in multiple species.

Introduction

The emergence of biomineralization, the formation of mineral structures by living organisms, played a key role in the explosion of body plan diversity during the Cambrian (Smith and Harper 2013). Sponges are the earliest diverged branch of metazoans (Steenwyk and King 2025) and are the only metazoans that build a silica-based skeleton (Müller et al. 2009). The cellular and molecular mechanisms underlying their silicification process are much less understood than in diatoms and land plants, the other two major biosilicifiers. One of the proposed selective pressures for the evolution of skeleton formation is detoxification (Simkiss 1977; Simkiss 1989; Kempe and Kazmierczak 1994). Si(OH)$_4$ and Ca^{2+} were present at high levels in the ocean during the pre-Cambrian/Cambrian boundary when the biomineralization began to emerge (Brennan et al. 2004; Marron et al. 2016). Given that their influx into cells and subsequent uncontrolled precipitation would severely disrupt cellular homeostasis (Orrenius et al. 1992; Kempe and Kazmierczak 1994; Martin-Jézéquel et al. 2000; Marron et al. 2016), it is proposed that what began as a waste-removal system may have initiated the process that resulted in biomineralization (Brennan et al. 2004). An ancestral mechanism for metal detoxification is sequestration within lysosomes (Berry et al. 1997; More et al. 2024). Indeed, one of the major proteins discovered to be important for sponge silicification is silicatein, a protein that is highly similar to members of the cathepsin L and papain family of lysosomal proteases (Shimizu et al. 1998). Similarly, cathepsins have been shown to play a role in calcification in mussels (Yarra, Ramesh, et al. 2021), sea urchins (Sciani et al. 2013), and corals (Levy et al. 2021). The V-H$^+$-

ATPase (VHA), a proton pump responsible for lysosomal acidification, is critical for biosilicification
in diatoms, allowing for silicic acid accumulation in the SDV (Yee et al. 2020). VHA has also been
linked to biomineralization in various calcifying organisms (Ziegler et al. 2004; Mackinder et al.
2011; Toyofuku et al. 2017; Iwayama et al. 2019; Hu et al. 2020; Yarra, Ramesh, et al. 2021;
Achilleos et al. 2024). Interestingly, lysozymes, enzymes that can hydrolyze bacterial cell wall
peptidoglycans, which have been shown to localize to lysosomes along with cathepsin D (Radons
et al. 1994) play a role in avian eggshell formation (Hincke et al. 2000) and have been used for
biomimetic mineralization (Luckarift et al. 2006; Wang et al. 2025). There is also transcriptional
evidence that Lsi2, a silicon transporter essential for plant silicification which belongs to the same
gene family as lysosome-related-organelle protein OCA2, may be involved in diatom (Shrestha et
al. 2012) and sponge silicification (Maldonado et al. 2020; Francis et al. 2023; Leria and
Maldonado 2026). Lsi2 genes have strong sequence orthology and functional similarity to arsenic
efflux pump ArsB and are thus used interchangeably in sponge silicification studies (Marron et al.
2016; Maldonado et al. 2020; Leria and Maldonado 2026). Here, we took advantage of single-cell
gene expression data, gene and protein *in situ* localization, and functional assays to visualize
spicule growth in live sponges and provide novel dynamic insights about the cellular and
molecular mechanisms that underlie sponge silicifcation. We show that multiple lysosome-
associated genes are highly expressed in spicule forming cells called sclerocytes. Further, we
demonstrate that VHA protein localizes to the sclerocyte SDV and pharmacological inhibition of
VHA abrogates silica spicule formation. Using Hybridization Chain Reaction Fluorescence In Situ
Hybridization (HCR-FISH), we confirmed that sponge Lsi2 genes are highly expressed in
sclerocytes.

Biomineralization has evolved independently multiple times, and it was proposed to be driven
by the co-option of genes within a conserved ancestral genetic toolkit (Murdock 2020): however,
a core set of broadly-shared genes within the biomineralization toolkit has not been well
described, and functional evidence is even more rare. Our findings indicate that lysosomal-
derived machinery plays an important role in sponge biosilicification and more broadly, may have
been co-opted independently multiple times for biomineralization.

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Analysis of single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNASeq) data of demosponge *Spongilla*
lacustris (Musser et al. 2021) revealed that mRNA transcripts of genes involved in lysosomal
machinery were upregulated (log2fold change > 1) in sclerocytes (Figure 1); including most
subunits of VHA, an ATP-driven proton pump essential for lysosomal acidification (Mindell 2012),
OCA2, also known as the pink-eyed dilution protein or P protein (H. Brilliant 2001), which
localizes to lysosome related organelles called melanosomes in vertebrate pigment-producing
cells (Sauka-Spengler and Bronner-Fraser 2008; Sitaram et al. 2009), lysosomal cysteine
protease cathepsin-L proteins, silicateins (Shimizu et al. 1998), TMEM55A/B and TMEM192,
proteins involved in lysosomal autophagy, phagocytosis, and lysosome repair (Nguyen et al.
2017; Morioka et al. 2018; Jeong et al. 2024), TMEM199, a VHA assembly factor (Miles et al.
2017), SNX8, a protein that enables lysosome reformation (Li et al. 2024), and CLIP4 and
RNF11, proteins that mediate processes leading to lysosomal degradation (Mattioni et al. 2020;
Tang et al. 2020).

VHA is highly conserved across all eukaryotes (Kibak et al. 1992), plays a critical role in
biosilicification in diatoms (Yee et al. 2020), and has been associated with calcification in various
organisms (Ziegler et al. 2004; Mackinder et al. 2011; Toyofuku et al. 2017; Iwayama et al. 2019;
Hu et al. 2020; Yarra, Ramesh, et al. 2021; Achilleos et al. 2024). Further, we found that two of
the upregulated sponge genes annotated as OCA2 bore greater structural resemblance to plant
silicon efflux transporter Lsi2 (Figure 2) and are thus referred to as sponge Lsi2 genes in this

study. However, it is worth noting that Lsi2 sponge genes are often called ArsB in the literature
(Maldonado et al. 2020; Leria and Maldonado 2026). Due to the roles of VHA and Lsi2 in
biomineralization in other organisms, we specifically explored their roles in sponge
biosilicification.

<u>VHA is abundant in sclerocytes and is essential for skeleton formation</u>
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VHA plays a wide range of physiological roles in marine organisms (Tresguerres et al.
2007; Tresguerres et al. 2013; Barott et al. 2015; Tresguerres 2016; Yee et al. 2020; Barott et al.
2022; Hargadon et al. 2024; Allard et al. 2025; Thies et al. 2025). Notably, VHA is essential for
biosilicification in diatoms, allowing for silicic acid accumulation in the SDV (Yee et al. 2020). VHA
has been linked to biomineralization in calcifying organisms as well. In foraminifera, VHA
maintains the proton flux responsible for calcification (Toyofuku et al. 2017). The c/c′ subunit of
the V0 sector of VHA has been shown to be upregulated in calcifying strains of coccolithophores
(Mackinder et al. 2011). A transcriptomic study on bryozoans identified VHA as a candidate
biomineralization protein as it was upregulated in younger zooids, which are at the distal growth
margin of the colony, compared to older zooids (Achilleos et al. 2024). Similarly, VHA was
transcriptionally identified to be involved in bivalve shell remodeling (Yarra, Blaxter, et al. 2021).
In sea urchin larvae, VHA has been shown to play an essential role in skeleton re-calcification
(Hu et al. 2020). VHA also contributes to the mineralization-demineralization cycle of terrestrial
isopods (Ziegler et al. 2004).

Our analysis of published scRNASeq data from *S. lacustris* (Musser et al. 2021) found
that all subunits of VHA were upregulated in sclerocytes compared to other cell types, with the
exception of integral domain V0 subunit e which was more highly expressed in myopeptidocytes
(Supplementary Figure 1). However, this subunit does not seem to be essential for proton pump
activity and may instead play a role in endomembrane specific VHA-assembly or targeting (Seidel
et al. 2008). Some subunit isoforms such as V0 subunit a gene 3 and V0 subunit c gene 2 were
specifically upregulated in sclerocytes compared to other cell types and to other isoforms
suggesting that these isoforms may only localize to sclerocyte-specific organelles, presumably
the SDV. Indeed, immunostaining with specific antibodies against VHA subunit B (VHA$_B$)
revealed a striking VHA localization within sclerocytes and around spicules in *S. lacustris* as well
as in *Ephydatia muelleri* (Figure 3), another freshwater sponge. In both cases, the VHA protein
appeared to be surrounding the SDV within sclerocytes, and was distributed throughout the
cytoplasm, potentially on vesicles (Supplementary Figure 2). Airyscan 'super-resolution' imaging
showed VHA surrounding spicules fluorescently labelled with PDMPO [2-(4-pyridyl)-5-((4-(2-
dimethylaminoethylaminocarbamoyl)methoxy)-phenyl)oxazole], an acidotropic dye that is
selectively incorporated and co-deposited with Si into the newly polymerized silica (27) (Figure
4A). To test the functional role of VHA in spiculogenesis, sponges were incubated with 100 nM of
the specific pharmacological inhibitor of VHA, concanamycin (concA) (Dröse and Altendorf 1997;
Huss et al. 2002), for 24 hours along with PDMPO or with vehicle DMSO as a control (Figure 4B).
VHA inhibition significantly decreased the number of spicules per mm^2 of actively growing sponge
tissue by 41.6% $\pm$ 10.6% in *E. muelleri* and 77.5% $\pm$ 7.1% in *S. lacustris*. The proportion of
spicules labeled with PDMPO decreased by 85.8% $\pm$ 4.7% in *E. muelleri* and 98.3%$\pm$ 1.7% in *S.*
lacustris indicating that spiculogenesis is stunted by VHA inhibition (Figure 4C-D). Given that *S.*
lacustris and *E. muelleri* are phylogenetically distinct sponges with divergent life history, these
observations suggest that VHA-dependent silicification is a conserved mechanism in freshwater
demosponges.

These results show that, as reported in diatoms (Yee et al. 2020), VHA-dependent SDV
acidification is critical for sponge biosilicification. By acidifying the SDV in both diatoms and
sclerocytes, VHA drives silicic acid accumulation and prevents its rapid polymerization into silica
(Vrieling et al. 1999; Mejía et al. 2013). Given prior evidence that VHA plays a role in calcification
across a wide range of phyla, VHA appears to have been co-opted independently by multiple

lineages for biomineralization. Interestingly, plants also use a proton pump to acidify the xylem
sap where silicic acid is stored prior to hardening. The xylem is acidified by the plant and fungi-
specific (Baxter et al. 2005) plasma membrane P-type H$^+$-ATPase (Jahn et al. 1998;
Sattelmacher 2001). The co-option of proton pumps for maintenance of accumulated silicic acid
appears to be a shared feature for biosilicification over vastly diverged lineages.

<u>Lsi2 and OCA2 are highly expressed in sclerocytes</u>

Lsi2 and OCA2 belong to a family of transmembrane transporters with similarity to SLC13
(Kondo et al. 2015; Marron et al. 2016; Maldonado et al. 2020; Coskun et al. 2021; Mesdaghi et
al. 2023). Lsi2 is a silicic acid/H$^+$ antiporter that mediates silicic acid efflux into the plant xylem
(Ma et al. 2007). OCA2 is an anion channel that localizes to melanosomes, lysosome related
organelles, in pigment-producing cells called melanocytes (Sitaram et al. 2009) which specifically
occur in vertebrates (Sauka-Spengler and Bronner-Fraser 2008). OCA2mediates chloride-
selective anion conductance, providing charge compensation and increasing proton-pumping
efficiency of VHA (Stauber and Jentsch 2013; Bellono et al. 2014). A phylogenetic analysis of the
evolutionary history of Si transport reported that Lsi2 has homologs across a broad range of
eukaryotes which resolve into two main groups: one containing vertebrate OCA2-like sequences,
and the other containing the land plant Lsi2s together with Lsi2-like genes from diverse
prokaryotic and eukaryotic organisms (Marron et al. 2016). This Lsi2-like clade was dominated by
homologs from silicifying organisms such as land plants, sponges, loricate choanoflagellates,
haptophytes, chrysophytes/synurophytes, radiolarians, and diatoms indicating that Lsi2-like
genes play a role in biosilicification. In alignment with this, Lsi2-like genes were upregulated in
marine hexactinellid sponge *Vazella pourtalesii* upon exposure to dissolved silicon (dSi)
(Maldonado et al. 2020) and a detailed phylogenetic analysis showed that these genes were
present in ancestral sponges and were retained and expanded in silicifying sponge lineages
(Leria and Maldonado 2026). In another marine hexactinellid sponge *Aphrocallistes vastus*, an
analysis of differentially expressed genes between the osculum, the vertical growth zone where
new skeletal growth is concentrated (Kahn and Leys 2017), and the main body, reported that Lsi2
was upregulated with other mineralization-related genes (Francis et al. 2023). Finally,
transcriptomic evidence suggests that an Lsi2-like gene may be involved in silicic acid transport in
diatoms (Shrestha et al. 2012). However, the cellular localization of the expressed genes has not
been reported in the literature.

Our analysis of published scRNASeq data from *S. lacustris* (Musser et al. 2021) showed
that Lsi2 genes were upregulated in sclerocytes (Figure 5A). Alignment of the protein sequences
of the Lsi2 genes in *S. lacustris* and their equivalent homologs in *E. muelleri* against rice *Oryza*
sativa Lsi2 (*Os*Lsi2) showed that transmembrane regions are highly conserved (Figure 2B).
OCA2 genes were also upregulated in sclerocytes but OCA2_1 was expressed in a smaller
percentage of sclerocyte cells than the Lsi2 genes and OCA2_2 was expressed in other cell
types as well indicating it may play a more generic housekeeping role, possibly in sponge
lysosomes within all cells. Sponge OCA2 genes may play a role similar to their function in
vertebrate melanocytes of providing counter-ion balance and improving efficiency of the VHA
acidification mechanism. Notably, we found that Lsi2 gene expression was much higher in
sclerocytes than the previously described sponge silicic acid uptake protein the
{Na$^+$/HCO$_3^-$[Si(OH)$_4$]} co-transporter or NBCSA (Schröder et al. 2004) (54A) which matches
recent claims that NBCSA is not critical for silicic acid transport in all sponges (Maldonado et al.
2020). Confirming the scRNASeq data, HCR-FISH probes designed against the Lsi2 genes in *S.*
lacustris and *E. muelleri* distinctly labeled sclerocytes (Figure 5B). Interestingly, the two Lsi2
homologs showed heterogeneous expression in sclerocytes: i.e. Lsi2_1 signal was stronger in
some sclerocytes, while Lsi2_2 signal was stronger in others; overall, Lsi2_2 was more
ubiquitously expressed around spicules than Lsi2_1 (Supplementary Figure 3). As we only
visualized mRNA, we could not definitively conclude whether the Lsi2 proteins localize to the SDV
membrane or the plasma membrane. Unfortunately, our attempt to design antibodies against

these proteins were unsuccessful. However, we speculate that they would localize to the SDV
membrane as the Lsi2 silicic acid/H$^+$ antiporter activity relies on a proton gradient and VHA would
only be able to pump H$^+$ ions from the cytosol to an intracellular compartment (Forgac 2007). Our
results provide novel transcriptomic and spatial evidence to support previous claims of the role of
Lsi2 in sponge silicic acid uptake (Marron et al. 2016; Maldonado et al. 2020; Leria and
Maldonado 2026).

In addition to their findings on Lsi2, Maldonado identified a homolog to passive plant
silicic acid transporter Lsi1 called the aquaglyceroporin channel (gAQP3/9) which was
upregulated in *V. pourtalesii* upon exposure to dSi (Maldonado et al. 2020) and appears to have
coevolved with Lsi2 in multiple lineages (Leria and Maldonado 2026). We did not find significant
upregulation of homologs of Lsi1/gAQP3/9 in sclerocytes compared to other cell types in our
scRNASeq analysis (Supplementary Figure 4), but this does not rule out their involvement in
silicification as the genes are positively expressed in sclerocytes and it is very likely that they are
involved in multiple other cellular functions. Leria and Maldonado 2026 hypothesize that, in
addition to sclerocytes, Lsi1/gAQP and Lsi2 transporters are localized to pinacocytes to facilitate
transport of dSi into the sponge from the external environment. While we see evidence of gAQP
homologs in apendopinacocytes and incurrent pinacocytes, they are once again not significantly
upregulated compared to other cell types (Supplementary Figure 4). Meanwhile, we see very
minimal expression of Lsi2 homologs in pinacocytes in the scRNASeq data and in our HCR FISH
localization studies (Figure 5). These findings indicate the Lsi2 and Lsi1/gAQP3/9 may not be
used in pinacocytes for silicic acid uptake. Instead, an alternative uptake mechanism may be at
play, or sclerocytes might directly take up silicic acid from the environment. These results
highlight the importance of cell type specific transcriptomic and spatial resolution for deciphering
complex mechanisms.

<u>Links between lysosomal detoxification and biomineralization</u>

In their phylogenetic analysis of silicon transport genes, Marron *et al*. propose that the
Lsi2 protein evolved in the original eukaryote as a detoxification mechanism to export silicic acid
out of cells in the high Si oceans of the Precambrian to prevent uncontrolled silica deposition and
were later co-opted for biosilicification by a specific set of lineages at the Precambrian/Cambrian
boundary (Marron et al. 2016). This hypothesis implies a switch of Lsi2 orientation within the
membrane from exporting silicic acid out of cells to transporting it in. Alternatively, it is possible
that Lsi2 detoxified silicic acid by sequestering it within lysosomes rather than by exporting it out
of cells. Such a mechanism would seamlessly lend itself to the accumulation of silicic acid into the
SDV of diatoms and sponges, while also inserting at the plasma membrane of plant cells in an
orientation that mediates silicic acid extrusion into the xylem.

Lysosomes and detoxification are intrinsically linked. For example, calcium and heavy
metal ions including zinc, copper, and iron are sequestered in lysosomes and vacuoles in many
invertebrate phyla into structures termed concretions or granules, rendering them insoluble and
detoxified (Howard et al. 1981; Engel 1983; Ballan-Dufrançais 2002; Wallace et al. 2003;
Desouky 2006; Pigino et al. 2006; Ahearn et al. 2010; Wang et al. 2011; Marin 2012). These
organelles are often acidified by VHA (Sterling et al. 2007; Blaby-Haas and Merchant 2014). The
sequestered concretions found in oysters (Wang et al. 2011), bivalves (Wallace et al. 2003),
snails (Howard et al. 1981; Desouky 2006) insects (Ballan-Dufrançais 2002), and crustaceans
(Sterling et al. 2007; Ahearn et al. 2010) could be considered precursors to skeletons. In fact,
detoxification was likely a selective pressure that shaped the evolution of biomineralization
(Simkiss 1977; Carney et al. 2007; Li et al. 2022). Calcium ions are disruptive to cellular
functioning as their precipitation intracellularly would be deleterious; therefore, sequestration
within a pre-existing acidified organelle may have provided an energetically effective solution
(Simkiss 1977), while also offering a parsimonious mechanistic explanation at the evolutionary
level. Recently, it was shown that mouse osteoblasts, cells responsible for secreting calcium
phosphate mineral precursors for bone formation, transport amorphous calcium phosphate via

lysosomes (Iwayama et al. 2019). Additionally, pharmacological inhibition of VHA prevented the
formation of electron-dense intracellular granules and extracellular calcified nodules, (Iwayama et
al. 2019) matching the importance of VHA for silicification in sponges (current study) and in
diatoms. (Yee et al. 2020) Furthermore, other studies have shown that increased expression of
the master regulator of lysosomal biogenesis, *Tfeb*, enhances osteoblastic differentiation
(Tsukuba et al. 2017) and increases bone mass and strength (James et al. 2025). Altogether, the
evidence suggests that ancient links between detoxification and lysosomal machinery set the
stage for the repeated independent evolution of biomineralization. However, this does not rule out
other possibilities for the co-option of lysosomal genes for skeleton formation. For example,
lysosomes are also essential for microbial defense (Levine and Deretic 2007). The role of anti-
bacterial protein lysozyme in avian eggshell formation (Hincke et al. 2000) might indicate that
interactions with microbes also played a role in the emergence of biomineralization in some
species.

<u>Lysosomal machinery as part of ancestral genetic toolkit for biomineralization</u>

It has been proposed that genes involved in biomineralization were independently co-
opted from an ancestral genetic toolkit (Murdock 2020), however, the specific genes within this
toolkit have not been clearly identified. Here, we found high expression of lysosomal-associated
genes in sclerocytes including cathepsins, silicateins, TMEM55A/B, TMEM192, and TMEM199.
Cathepsins are lysosomal proteases speculated to play a role in making precise cuts in matrix
and mineralization proteins for the process of biosilicification (Francis et al. 2023). They are
upregulated during shell repair in mussels (Yarra, Ramesh, et al. 2021), cathepsin B/X has been
identified in sea urchin spine extracts (Sciani et al. 2013), and our analysis of scRNASeq dataset
of a stony coral revealed that cathepsin L and cathepsin V are upregulated in skeleton-forming
cells, calicoblasts (Levy et al. 2021). Silicatein was discovered in the protein filaments of spicules
from demosponge *Tethya aurantia* (Shimizu et al. 1998)*.* Silicateins are highly similar to members
of the cathepsin L and papain family of proteases, but the cysteine at the active site in the
proteases is replaced by serine (Shimizu et al. 1998). They have been proposed to retain
protease activity similar to other cathepsins (Müller et al. 2008), catalyze the polymerization of
silicic acid (Povarova et al. 2018), or serve as scaffolding for spicule formation (Görlich et al.
2020). TMEM55A/B and TMEM192, involved in lysosomal autophagy, phagocytosis, and
lysosome repair (Nguyen et al. 2017; Morioka et al. 2018; Jeong et al. 2024), and TMEM199
(Miles et al. 2017), a VHA assembly factor, have not been previously described within the context
of biosilicification to our knowledge. We found upregulation of VHA mRNA in sclerocytes, VHA
protein localization around spicules, and showed that inhibition of VHA disrupts skeleton
formation. This aligns with similar findings on biosilicification in diatoms (Yee et al. 2020), and
calcification in coccolitophores (Mackinder et al. 2011), foraminifera (Toyofuku et al. 2017), sea
urchins (Hu et al. 2020), bryozoans (Achilleos et al. 2024), and crustaceans (Ziegler et al. 2004).
We report that Lsi2 genes were upregulated in sponge sclerocytes, likely playing a role in silicic
acid uptake similar to plants (Ma et al. 2007). In the marine hexactinellid sponge *Aphrocallistes*
vastus, VHA, Lsi2, and various cathepsins were upregulated in the osculum region, indicating a
potential link to sponge skeleton formation (Francis et al. 2023). Exposure of hexactinellid sponge
Vazella pourtalesii to dSi, led to the upregulation of cathepsins and Lsi2 (Maldonado et al. 2020).
Further, a proteomic analysis found that spicule contents of marine demosponge *Petrosia*
ficiformis were dominated by proteins involved in lysosomal function including cathepsins and
silicatein (Pozzolini et al. 2022). A recent phylogenetic study found that biomineralization evolved
independently in sponges multiple times (Rossi et al. 2026). Notably siliceous spicules seem to
have evolved once in Hexactinellida, twice in Demospongiae, and once in Homoscleromorpha
(Rossi et al. 2026). These different lineages evolved differing strategies for silica polymerization;
hexactinellids use hexaxilin, glassin, and perisilin protein to polycondense silicic acid into spicules
(Shimizu et al. 2015; Shimizu et al. 2024) demosponges use silicatein (Shimizu et al. 1998; Müller
et al. 2007; Mohri et al. 2008), and the silicifying proteins of sponges in the class
Homoscleromorpha remain unidentified (Leria and Maldonado 2026). However, past

transcriptomic data corroborated by our spatial and functional work indicate that VHA and Lsi2,
the mechanisms for SDV acidification and silicic acid uptake, were ancestral to sponges and thus
must have been independently co-opted multiple times as biosilicification emerged.

While the many studies linking biomineralization and lysosomal genes largely relied on
methods like bulk RNASeq, phylogenetics, and proteomics of isolated spicules, a major advance
of our study is the usage of scRNASeq data, *in situ* protein and mRNA localization, and functional
assays to conclusively show the importance of lysosomal genes in sponge skeleton formation.
The machinery responsible for the biogenesis of lysosome-related organelles is present across
the eukaryotic tree of life and is likely to have been in place prior to the last eukaryotic common
ancestor (More et al. 2024). Given that lysosomal genes have been shown to be involved in
biomineralization across a broad range of taxa, the combined evidence suggest that lysosomal
machinery may have been co-opted independently multiple times for skeleton formation, forming
a key set of genes within the ancestral toolkit for biomineralization.

Conclusion

Skeleton formation was a major innovation that catapulted the trajectory of body plan
evolution during the Cambrian. It provided organisms with new possibilities for protection,
support, locomotion, and defense (Gilbert et al. 2022). Biomineralization is intrinsically linked with
global calcium and silica cycling. Importantly, many marine organisms are ballasted by their silica
and calcium skeletons for burial in the seafloor, allowing for carbon sequestration (Armstrong et
al. 2001; Aldridge et al. 2012). Here, we describe the co-option of lysosomal genes for
biosilicification in sponges, the earliest diverged branch of metazoans (Steenwyk and King 2025).
We discuss parallels to biomineralization pathways across the tree of life, from protists to
mammals. Although biomineralization evolved independently multiple times, the co-option of
genes from a conserved toolkit is remarkable (Murdock 2020). Our findings, combined with data
and ideas from previous studies, provide compelling evidence for the co-option of ancestral
lysosomal machinery for biosilicification, and potentially for biomineralization in general.

Materials and Methods

Organisms

  Ephydatia muelleri and *Spongilla lacustris* gemmules were obtained from the Nichols lab. They were collected from the upper peninsula of Michigan in 2023. Gemmules were stored at 4°C and hatched in spring water (Crystal Geyser) at room temperature in cover-slip bottom dishes as previously described (Nichols 2023a).

scRNASeq analysis

  Datasets acquired from Musser et al. (Musser et al. 2021) and used Seurat in R to plot the expression of sclerocytes markers. We referenced the *S. lacustris* transcriptome and proteome provided in Musser et al. (Musser et al. 2021) to identify homologs and design HCR-FISH probes. R code and lists of *S. lacustris* genes analyzed can be found in our [github repository](#).

Phylogenetic and structural analysis of Lsi2/OCA2 homologs

  Lsi2 and OCA2 homologs were identified in *Ephydatia muelleri* (abbreviated Em) and *Spongilla lacustris* (abbreviated Sl) genomic and transcriptomic datasets by BLAST searches using choanoflagellate sequences from Marron *et al.*(Marron et al. 2016) and by extraction of candidate orthogroups from OrthoFinder. Protein sequences were aligned with MAFFT using the DASH structure-guided alignment mode, after which DASH profile sequences were removed. The alignment was trimmed with ClipKIT to retain phylogenetically informative sites, and a maximum-likelihood phylogeny was inferred using IQ-TREE with automated model selection and branch support assessed by 1,000 ultrafast bootstraps and 1,000 SH-aLRT replicates.

  Sequence alignments of *OsLsi2* gene from rice (*Oryza sativa),* Lsi2_1 and 2 from *E muelleri*, and Lsi2_1 and 2 from *S. lacustris* were done on Clustal Omega and visualized using Jalview.

Antibodies

  Sponges were probed for VHA using a custom rabbit polyclonal antibody developed using a peptide antigen matching a conserved region of VHA's B subunit (VHA$_B$; AREEVPGRRGFPGY; GenScript Biotech Corporation, Piscataway, NJ, USA) which is conserved in species ranging from sponges to humans (Tresguerres et al. 2013; Barott et al. 2015; Roa and Tresguerres 2016; Armstrong et al. 2018; Damsgaard et al. 2020). We confirmed the epitope is 100% conserved in *E. muelleri* and *S. lacustris* (Supplementary Figure 5A).

Immunohistochemistry

  Immunohistochemical localization of anti-VHA$_B$ antibody in sponges was done following previously described protocol (Nichols 2023b). Briefly, 4-7 day old gemmule-hatched *E. muelleri* and *S. Lacustris* sponges were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in 95% EtOH for 45 minutes at room temperature. Sponges were rinsed with 0.1% Tween 20 (v/v) in phosphate buffered saline (PTw) three times before incubation with blocking buffer (3% Bovine Albumin Serum in PTw) for 45 minutes at room temperature. Samples were incubated overnight (4°C) with either 0.962 µg ml^{-1} polyclonal anti-VHA$_B$ primary antibody in blocking buffer or 0.962 µg ml^{-1} polyclonal anti-VHA$_B$ primary antibody with 60x peptide as a "peptide preabsorption control". Sponges were rinsed with PTw three times and subsequently incubated with 4 µg ml^{-1} secondary antibody (goat anti–rabbit–Alexa Fluor 488; A-11008; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and 4 µg ml^{-1} 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) DNA stain (Invitrogen) in blocking buffer for 45 minutes in the dark at room temperature. Excess secondary antibody and DAPI were washed from samples by

rinsing three times with PTw and they were mounted for imaging using ProLong Glass Antifade
Mountant (P36982; Invitrogen). Confocal microscopy was performed on a Zeiss AxioObserver Z1
connected to a laser scanner equipped with 405, 488, 561, and 640 nm laser lines (Zeiss LSM
800 with Airyscan, Carl Zeiss AG, Oberkochen, Baden-Württemberg, Germany). Samples were
imaged with the following excitation and emission wavelengths: Alexa Fluor 488 — ex: 488 nm,
em: 488-561 nm; DAPI—ex: 405 nm, em: 400-488 nm.

Western blots

Approximately 50-80 *E. muelleri* and *S. lacustris* gemmules were hatched in separate
petri dishes. At 9-11 days old, sponges were scraped off the dishes with a razor blade and
dounce homogenized in 100 μL of 1x protease inhibitor cocktail (P2714; Sigma-Aldrich) in spring
water. Samples were sonicated for 3x10 second bursts with 1-minute rests on ice. Homogenates
were spun down for two minutes and the supernatant was retained. The protein concentrations of
samples were obtained using Bradford assay performed with a bovine serum albumin standard
curve (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA). Samples were incubated in Laemmli Sample buffer with 5%
(v/v) β-mercaptoethanol for 5 min at 100 °C and increasing amounts of protein were loaded into a
sodium dodecyl sulphate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis gel in duplicate (*E. muelleri*: 0.7 μg,
3.5 μg, 7 μg, 13.9 μg; *S. lacustris*: 0.7 μg, 3.5 μg, 7 μg, 13.9 μg). The gel was run in in Tris-
glycine running buffer (25 mM Tris-base, 192 mM glycine, 0.1% (w/v) sodium dodecyl sulphate,
pH 8.3; Sigma-Aldrich) at 47V for 35 minutes followed by 150V for 35-40 minutes until the
proteins had reached the bottom of the gel. Proteins were transferred from the gel onto a
polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane using a Mini Tans-Blot Cell (Bio-Rad) filled with
Towbin transfer buffer (25 mM Tris, 192 mM glycine, 20% (v/v) methanol, pH 8.3; Sigma-Aldrich)
at 90 mAmps overnight. PVDF membranes were incubated with blocking buffer (1g non-fat dry
milk powder in 10 mls Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween (TBS-T)) for 1 hour at room
temperature on an orbital shaker and subsequently incubated overnight at 4 °C with either 0.2405
μg/mL anti-VHA$_B$ primary antibody or anti-VHA$_B$ primary antibody with 60x excess peptide
("peptide preabsorption control") in blocking buffer. Membranes were washed with 3 x 10 min
TBS-T and then incubated with secondary antibody (goat anti–rabbit–horseradish peroxidase
diluted 1:5000; Bio-Rad) for 1 hour on an orbital shaker at room temperature. Membranes were
washed again with 3 x 10 min TBS-T and imaged with Clarity Max Western ECL Substrate (Bio-
Rad) using a Chemidoc Imaging system (Bio-Rad). Western blotting specifically detected the
expected ~55 kDa band (Supplementary Figure 5B).

HCR-FISH protocol

Probes were designed using publicly available HCR-FISH probe generator (Choi et al.
2018; Tsuneoka and Funato 2020; Kuehn et al. 2022; Wang et al. 2024). Sequences against
which probes were designed are provided in Supplementary Table 1 in our github repository. *E.*
muelleri Lsi2 homologs were identified by blasting Lsi2 sequences against an unpublished
transcriptome. 6-10 day old gemmule-hatched *E. muelleri* and *S. Lacustris* sponges were stained
using HCR FISH probes following an adapted previously described protocol (Nichols 2023c).
Briefly, sponges were fixed in cold 4% PFA in 1/4x HF buffer (147.5mM NaCl, 0.1675 mM KCl,
0.19 mM CaCl$_2$, 0.06mM NaHCO in RNAse-free water) on a gently rocking platform at 4C
overnight. Samples were rinsed with ¼ x HF buffer and then incubated with ¼ x HF buffer
containing an RNAse inhibitor (1 U/μl final concentration) at room temperature for 10 minutes.
Sponges were rinsed again with ¼ x HF buffer and progressively dehydrated into 100%
methanol. Subsequently, 100% methanol was replaced with 100% ethanol, sponges were
progressively rehydrated into 0.1% Tween 20 (v/v) in phosphate buffered saline (PTw) and
incubated with of 5 μg/mL Proteinase K in PTw for 90 seconds at room temperature. The
proteinase K solution was removed and sponges were incubated with 2mg/ml glycine in PTw for
5 minutes at room temperature twice. Samples were rinsed with PTw and re-fixed with 4% PFA in
PTw for one hour at room temperature. Following two rinses with PTw, samples were incubated
with 2x Saline Sodium Citrate (SSC) for 10 minutes at room temperature twice. Sponges were

then pre-hybridized by incubation with Hybridization buffer (Molecular Instruments), first at room
temperature for 10 minutes and then at 37°C for 30 minutes. Subsequently, samples were
incubated with 0.04 μM probe in hybridization buffer or just hybridization buffer for the "no probe,
hairpin only control" (Supplementary figure 6) at 37°C overnight. Sponges were rinsed with probe
wash buffer (Molecular Instruments) for 5 mins at 37°C three times, then incubated with 2x SSC
for 5 minutes at room temperature twice. Samples were pre-amplified with amplification buffer
(Molecular Instruments) for 5 minutes at room temperature twice, then incubated with 60 nM of
snapcooled (incubated at 95°C for 90 seconds, then cooled in the dark for at least 30 minutes)
hairpins (Molecular Instruments) in amplification buffer at room temperature in the dark overnight.
Specimens were rinsed with 2x SSC for 5 minutes at room temperature twice. 2x SSC was
replaced with 10 μg ml^{-1} 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) in PBS for 20 minutes at room
temperature. Sponges were rinsed with PBS and then mounted using ProLong Glass Antifade
Mountant (P36982; Invitrogen). Confocal microscopy was performed on a Zeiss AxioObserver Z1
connected to a laser scanner equipped with 405, 488, 561, and 640 nm laser lines (Zeiss LSM
800 with Airyscan, Carl Zeiss AG, Oberkochen, Baden-Württemberg, Germany). Samples were
imaged with the following excitation and emission wavelengths: Alexa Fluor 555 — ex: 561 nm,
em: 561- 585 nm; Alexa Fluor 488 — ex: 488 nm, em: 488-561 nm; DAPI—ex: 405 nm, em: 400-
488 nm.

PDMPO experiments

4-11 day old gemmule-hatched *E. muelleri* and *S. Lacustris* sponges were incubated with
1 uM PDMPO [2-(4-pyridyl)-5-((4-(2-
dimethylaminoethylaminocarbamoyl)methoxy)phenyl)oxazole] or LysoSensor Yellow/Blue DND-
160 (Invitrogen L7545) and either 100nM concanamycinA (concA) or an equivalent volume of
DMSO for 24 hours (*E. muelleri* n=4 and *S. lacustris* n=3 for each condition). PDMPO
fluorescence (ex: 405 nm, em: 490-515 nm) and brightfield images were taken in five 0.408 mm^2
regions around the periphery of each sponge. The number of spicules per region and the number
of spicules per region exhibiting PMDPO fluorescence were counted in ImageJ. The proportion of
spicules with PDMPO fluorescence was calculated by dividing number of spicules exhibiting
PDMPO fluorescence by the total number of spicules per region. The number of spicules per
mm^2 and the proportion of spicules with PDMPO were averaged across regions to get the final
mean values per sponge (raw data provided in Supplementary Table 2, available in our [github](#)
[repository](#)). The statistical differences for both aforementioned parameters between sponges
treated with concA versus DMSO were calculated using a student t-test. Stereoscope images of
all sponges in the experiment were taken before and after treatment to confirm viability of the
sponges (Supplementary Figure 6).

464
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466

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471
472 **Data Availability Statement:** Supplementary figures are embedded in main text below.
473 Supplementary tables including supplementary tables 1 and 2 and R code are available in our
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475
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 Figures and Tables

Figure 1. Single-cell RNA-Seq expression of lysosome-related sclerocyte markers. (A)
Heatmap showing expression of genes upregulated (log2fold>1) in sclerocytes that are linked
with lysosomal function across *S. lacustris* cell types (scRNASeq data from Musser et al., 2021).
Note: not all VHA subunits are present here as they did not all make the cutoff log2fold cutoff. (B)
Cartoon of VHA showing *S. lacustris* genes encoding each subunit.

Figure 2. Phylogenetic and structural analysis of Lsi2/OCA2 homologs. (A) Maximum-likelihood phylogeny of Lsi2 and OCA2 homologs in *Ephydatia muelleri* (abbreviated Em) and *Spongilla lacustris* (abbreviated Sl). (B) Sequence alignment of *OsLsi2* gene from rice (*Oryza sativa),* Lsi2_1 and 2 from *E muelleri*, and Lsi2_1 and 2 from *S. lacustris.* Alignment shaded from light blue to dark blue based on percentage identity similarity. 11 predicted transmembrane (TM) domains in red (based on Ma et al., 2007).

Figure 3. VHA localization in *Ephydatia muelleri* and *Spongilla lacustris*.
Immunohistochemical localization of VHA$_B$ in *E. muelleri* and *S. lacustris* sponges incubated with anti-VHA$_B$ antibody or anti-VHA$_B$ antibody with excess peptide (peptide pre-absorption control). VHA$_B$ in green, DAPI in blue. VHA$_B$, DAPI, and DIC channels are also shown separately. All images except DIC are orthogonal projections. Scale bars: 20 μm. sp: spicules.

Figure 4. Essential role of VHA in spiculogenesis in *Ephydatia muelleri* and *Spongilla lacustris.* (A) Airyscan confocal image showing VHA$_B$ localization around *E. muelleri* spicule labelled with PDMPO (B) Representative images of PDMPO fluorescence of spicules in sponges incubated with DMSO or 100 nM concA for 24 hours. (C) Dot plot depicting the number of spicules per mm^2 of sponge tissue incubated with DMSO or 100 nM concA for 24 hours with error bars. (D) Dot plot depicting average proportion of spicules that showed PDMPO fluorescence in sponges incubated with DMSO or 100 nM concA for 24 hours with error bars. *E. muelleri* in red (n=4) and *S. lacustris* in cyan (n=3). Asterisks denote statistical significance (t test, p-value < 0.05). VHA$_B$ in green, PDMPO in magenta. Scale bars in (A): 5 µm and (B): 50 µm.

Figure 5. Gene expression of Lsi2 genes in *Ephydatia muelleri* and *Spongilla lacustris*. (A) Heatmap showing expression of Lsi2, OCA2, and [Na$^+$/HCO$_3^-$[Si(OH)$_4$]] co-transporter (NBCSA) genes in *S. lacustris* cell types. (B) HCR-FISH in *E. muelleri* and *S. lacustris* sponges incubated with probes designed against Lsi2_1 and Lsi2_2 genes. Lsi2_1 in green, Lsi2_2 in orange, DAPI in blue. Lsi2_1, Lsi2_2, DAPI, and DIC channels are also shown separately in grayscale. All images are orthogonal projections. Scale bars: 20 μm. sp: spicules

821 # Supplementary Figures and Table legends

Supplementary Figure 1. Single-cell RNA-Seq expression of VHA subunits in *S. lacustris.*
(A) Heatmap showing expression of genes encoding VHA subunits in *S. lacustris* cell types
(scRNASeq data from Musser et al., 2021). Highest expression of almost all VHA subunits occurs
in sclerocytes. (B) Cartoon of VHA showing *S. lacustris* genes encoding each subunit.

Supplementary Figure 2. VHA localization at sclerocyte SDV and within cytoplasm in *S. lacustris*. (A, B) Confocal microscopy showing VHA$_B$ immunolabeling in *E. muelleri* sclerocytes surrounding spicules and within cytoplasm. (C) Airyscan confocal image showing VHA$_B$ localization around *E. muelleri* spicule labelled with PDMPO. Arrows indicate vesicles surrounded by VHA$_B$. VHA$_B$ in green, DAPI in blue, PDMPO in magenta. Scale bars: 20 μm

Supplementary Figure 3. HCR-FISH in *E. muelleri* sponges incubated with probes against
Lsi2_1 and Lsi2_2 genes. Representative images showing more ubiquitous Lsi2_2 expression
around spicules than Lsi2_1. Lsi2_1 in green, Lsi2_2 in orange, DAPI in blue. Lsi2_1, Lsi2_2,
DAPI, and DIC channels are also shown separately in grayscale. Lsi2_1 and Lsi2_2 probes
imaged at same laser intensity and gain. All images are orthogonal projections.

Supplementary Figure 4. Single-cell RNA-Seq expression of aquaglyceroporins in *S.*
lacustris. Heatmap showing expression of genes encoding VHA subunits in *S. lacustris* cell
types (scRNASeq data from Musser et al., 2021)

A

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Homo sapiens    135  KGPVVMAEDFLDINGQPINPHSRIYPEEMIQTGISPIDVMNSIARGQKIPIFSAAGLPHNEIAAQICRQAGLVKKS-KAVLDYHDDNFAIVFAAMGVNMETARFFKSDFEQNGTMGNVCL  253
S. pistillata   124  KGPAVMAEDFLDIQGQPINPWSRIYPEEMIQTGISAIDTMNSIARGQKIPIFSAAGLPHNDIAAQICRQAGLVKFK-KGVMDDHSDNFAIVFAAMGVNMETARFFKQDFEENGSMENVCL  242
S. lacustris    133  KGPNILAEDFLDIQGQPINPWSRIYPEEMIQTGISAIDTMNSIARGQKIPIFSAAGLPHNDIAAQICRQGGLVKQTPKGVIDDHEANFAIVFAAMGVNMETARFFKQDFEENGSMENVCL  252
E. muelleri     133  KGPNILAEDFLDIQGQPINPWSRIYPEEMIQTGISAIDTMNSIARGQKIPIFSAAGLPHNDIAAQICRQGGLVKQTPKGVIDDHEANFAIVFAAMGVNMETARFFKQDFEENGSMENVCL  252

Homo sapiens    254  FLNLANDPTIERIITPRLALTTAEFLAYQCEKHVLVILTDMSSYAEALREVSAAREEVPGRRGFPGYMYTDLATIYERAGRVEGRGGSITQIPILTMPNDDITHPIDPLTGFITEGQIYV  373
S. pistillata   243  FLNLANDPTIERIITPRLALTTAEFLAYQCENHVLVILTDMSSYAEALREVSAAREEVPGRRGFPGYMYTDLATIYERAGRVEGRNGSITQIPILTMPNDDITHPIPDLTGYITEGQIYV  362
S. lacustris    253  FLNLANDPTIERIITPRLALTTAEFLAYQCEKHVLVILTDMSSYAEALREVSAAREEVPGRRGFPGYMYTDLATIYERAGRVEGRNGSITQIPILTMPNDDITHPIPDLTGYITEGQIYV  372
E. muelleri     253  FLNLANDPTIERIITPRLALTTAEFLAYQCEKHVLVILTDMSSYAEALREVSAAREEVPGRRGFPGYMYTDLATIYERAGRVEGRNGSITQIPILTMPNDDITHPIPDLTGYITEGQIYV  372

Homo sapiens    374  DRQLHNRQIYPPINVLPSLSRLMKSAIGEGMTRKDHGDVSNQLYACYAIGKDVQAMKAVVGEEALTSEDLLYLEFLQKFEKNFINQGPYENRSVFESLDLGWKLLRIFPKEMLKRIPQAV  493
S. pistillata   363  DRQLHNRQVYPPINVLPSLSRLMKSAIGEGMTRKDHADVSNQLYANYAIGKDVQAMKAVVGEEALTSEDLLYLEFLSKFEKNFITQGTYENRSVFDSLDIGWSLLRIFPKEMLKRIPQSI  482
S. lacustris    373  DRQLHNRQIYPPINVLPSLSRLMKSAIGDGMTRKDHADVSNQLYANYAIGKDVQAMKAVVGEEALTSEDKLYLEFLIKFEKNFITQGVYENRTVFESLEIGWQLLRIFPKEMLKRIPQSV  492
E. muelleri     373  DRQLHNRQIYPPINVLPSLSRLMKSAIGDGMTRRDHADVSNQLYANYAIGKDVQAMKAVVGEEALSSEDKLYLEFLQKFEKNFIAQGVYENRTVFESLEIGWQLLRIFPKEMLKRIPQAV  492

Homo sapiens    494  IDEFYSREG  502
S. pistillata   483  LAEYYPRDG  491
S. lacustris    493  LDEYYARD   500
E. muelleri     493  LDEYYARD   500
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B

Supplementary Figure 5. VHA expression and conservation in sponges. (A) Alignment of the human VHA$_B$ protein sequence with the coral *Stylophora pistillata, S. lacustris, and E. muelleri* VHA$_B$ protein sequences. (B) Western blot detection of VHA in E. muelleri and S. lacustris using anti-VHA$_B$ antibody, and anti-VHA$_B$ antibody preabsorbed with 60x excess peptide on blots loaded with 0.7 µg, 3.5 µg, 7 µg, and 13.9 µg protein (*E. muelleri*) and 0.53 µg, 5.3 µg, and 10.7 µg protein (*S. lacustris*).

Supplementary Figure 6. Stereoscope images of *E. muelleri* and *S. lacustris* before and
after concA treatment to assess viability. 4-day old sponges before and after 24 hr treatment
with 1 uM PDMPO and DMSO or 100 nM concA followed by washout and replacement with
spring water + 1uM PDMPO in (A) *E. muelleri* and (B*) S. lacustris.* Scale bars: 1 mm

Supplementary Table 1 (available at [github repository](#)): Sequences of *S. lacustris* and *E.*
muelleri Lsi2 homologs against which HCR FISH probes were designed

Supplementary Table 2 (available at [github repository](#)): Raw data of number of spicules and
proportion of spicules with PDMPO fluorescence following concA treatment for Figure 3C, D.