- 1 Anterior-posterior polarity signals differentially regulate regeneration-competence of the 2 tapeworm Hymenolepis diminuta. 3 4 Elise McCollough Nanista<sup>1</sup>, Landon Elizabeth Poythress<sup>1</sup>, Isabell Reese Skipper<sup>1</sup>, Trevor 5 Haskins<sup>1</sup>, Marieher Felix Cora<sup>2</sup> and Tania Rozario<sup>1</sup>\* 6 7 <sup>1</sup>University of Georgia, Athens, GA, USA 8 <sup>2</sup>University of Puerto Rico-Cayey, PR, USA 9 10 Running title: Tapeworm regeneration-competence 11 12 \* corresponding author 13 tania.rozario@uga.edu 500 D.W. Brooks Dr., Athens, GA 30602, USA 14 15 16 ORCIDS:
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#### Abstract

Competence to regenerate lost tissues varies widely across species. The rat tapeworm, *Hymenolepis diminuta*, undergoes continual cycles of shedding and regenerating thousands of reproductive segments to propagate the species. Despite its prowess, *H. diminuta* can only regenerate posteriorly from a singular tissue: the neck or germinative region (GR). What cells and signaling pathways restrict regeneration competence to the GR? In this study, we show that the head regulates regeneration-competence by promoting maintenance of the GR and inhibiting proglottid formation in a distance-dependent manner. Anterior-posterior (A-P) patterning within the GR provide local signals that mediate these head-dependent responses. *Bcat1* is necessary for stem cell maintenance, proliferation and proglottidization. On the other hand, *sfirp* is necessary for maintaining the GR at its proper length. Our study demonstrates that the head organizes a balance of pro- and anti-regeneration signals that must be integrated together and therefore control competence to regenerate.

## **Summary statement**

- 41 We uncover how the tapeworm head organizes pro- and anti-regeneration signals that control
- 42 competence to regenerate at prolific rates.

#### Introduction

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Regeneration occurs over a wide range of biological scales from regeneration of axons at the cellular scale to whole body regeneration in planarians and hydra (Bely and Nyberg, 2010). Tapeworms represent a fascinating case study in the field of regeneration. They descend from a monophyletic clade (Neodermata) exclusively populated by parasites within the Playhelminthes phylum (Laumer et al., 2015). As a sister group to planarians, it is tempting to assume that shared regenerative abilities have enabled tapeworms to achieve their monstrous growth potential and reproductive prowess. In the normal life cycle of many adult tapeworms, large pieces of their body are shed to disperse the developing embryos for consumption by an intermediate host. Simultaneously, the adult tapeworm continues to replenish the lost tissue in the intestine. Studies with the rat tapeworm, Hymenolepis diminuta, demonstrated that serially transplanting anterior pieces of tapeworms into new host intestines could greatly extend the lifespan of this parasite (Goodchild, 1958; Read, 1967). H. diminuta can regenerate all lost reproductive segments (proglottids) and may not inherently need to age and die. However, regeneration only occurs from one anatomical structure: the neck or germinative region (GR) (Rozario et al., 2019). H. diminuta regeneration is dependent on a large and heterogeneous population of adult stem cells that are distributed throughout the body and do not preferentially reside in the GR (Rozario et al., 2019). By transplanting cells from regeneration-competent and regeneration-incompetent regions into lethally irradiated tapeworm GRs, we previously demonstrated that proglottid regeneration is independent of stem cell source (Rozario et al., 2019), suggesting that signals within the GR play important roles in regulating tapeworm regeneration.

A plethora of signals likely operate in the GR and control stem cell proliferation, survival, differentiation, as well as proglottidization and competence to regenerate. What these signals are and how they operate is largely unknown. Here we show that regeneration competence is tightly linked to signals from the head. The head plays seemingly contradictory roles as it is necessary to maintain the GR but negatively regulates proliferation and proglottid regeneration. We find two genes typically associated with Wnt signaling, *sfrp and \betacatenin1*, as critical mediators of each head-dependent phenotype. Our study demonstrates that for successful proglottid regeneration to occur, a balance of pro- and anti-regeneration signals must be overcome to enable GR regeneration

- and then initiation of proglottids. *H. diminuta* provides a fascinating example of how extrinsic
- signals can promote or restrict the ability to regenerate.

#### Results

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### H. diminuta is competent to regenerate the GR.

The basic adult body plan of H. diminuta includes a head (scolex), an unsegmented GR and a strobilated body made of metameric proglottids (Fig. 1A). H. diminuta cannot regenerate its anterior or head but can regenerate proglottids from the GR when amputated outside of the GR (Rozario et al., 2019). The GR is the only regeneration-competent tissue, but it is unclear if the GR itself can regenerate. Nuclei staining with DAPI enables a quick and easy way to observe and measure the GR, which is defined as the region between the base of the head and the first proglottid. When tapeworms are continuously grown in vitro, the GR length is typically 1 mm (Rozario et al., 2019). After acclimating worms to in vitro culture conditions for 3 days, we amputated within the GR (0.5 mm) vs. outside the GR (2 mm) and grew the anterior fragments for 15 days. In both cases, proglottids were regenerated (Fig. 1A). Regenerates that were amputated within the GR, successfully formed 1 mm long GRs 15 days post amputation (dpa) comparable to regenerates that were amputated outside of the GR (Fig. 1B). The 0.5 mm fragments first regenerated GRs within 2-4 days before new proglottids were added (Fig. 1C). Once proglottids were formed, the rate of proglottid regeneration was comparable between 0.5 mm and 2 mm fragments, at 14-15 proglottids per day (Fig. 1C). Growth curves for both regenerates were also comparable and non-linear since individual proglottids increase in length as they mature (Rozario et al., 2019). Thus, when amputated within the GR, H. diminuta is capable of regenerating the posterior GR and subsequently proglottids.

The GR is patterned by differentially expressed genes along the anterior-posterior (A-P) axis (Rozario et al., 2019). If *H. diminuta* can regenerate its GR, then A-P polarized patterns should be restored following amputation. We performed whole mount in situ hybridization (WISH) for three posterior-enriched transcripts: βcatenin1 (βcat1), frizzled5/8 (fzd5/8), and tumor necrosis factor receptor-16 (tnfr16) and one anterior-enriched transcript: secreted frizzled related protein (sfrp) (Fig. 1D; uncut). At 0 dpa, all markers were reduced or lost but normal A-P polarized patterns in successful regenerates were restored by at least 10 dpa demonstrating normal GR patterning (Fig. 1D). These data indicate that *H. diminuta* can successfully regenerate its GR and reestablish AP patterning within 10 days.

## GR regeneration fails after serial amputation.

Regeneration of proglottids is a stem cell-driven process and can occur after multiple rounds of serial amputation (Goodchild, 1958; Read, 1967; Rozario et al., 2019). Is GR regeneration similarly robust? We amputated worms within the GR and allowed them to regenerate for 18 days before re-amputating within the GR (Fig. 2A). Subsets of each group were fixed and analyzed to capture the variation and reproducibility of the amputations performed. Amputations were targeted at the half-way point or ~0.5 mm in worms that were briefly immobilized in cold media. We find that tissues extend slightly after heat-killing and fixation resulting in slightly longer 0 dpa fragments: 0.63±0.07 mm and 0.61±0.16 mm after each amputation (Fig. 2B). The percentage of GR length retained calculated over the mean GR length of uncut worms was close to the target range of 50% and was not statistically significant between the two amputations (48±9% after cut 1 and 56±11% after cut 2) (Fig. 2C). Despite making comparable cuts at each timepoint, marked differences in regeneration were observed after the second amputation within the GR (Fig. 2D-F). Successful regenerates were almost always produced after cut 1 but ranged wildly between 10-100% regeneration after cut 2 (Fig. 2E). When worms did regenerate after cut 2, they were significantly shorter (Fig. 2D) and produced fewer proglottids (Fig. 2F). The additional challenge of serial amputation revealed that GR regeneration does fail under certain conditions.

### Signals from the head regulate proglottid regeneration and maintenance of the GR.

When amputated within the GR, the wound site was closer to the head. Could the head be exerting a negative effect on regeneration? Following head amputation, regenerates exhibited increased growth and proglottid regeneration (Fig. 3A) indicating that signals from the head do inhibit growth. Using thymidine analog F-ara-EdU incorporation to quantify the density of proliferating cells in the GR, we found that head amputation resulted in increased proliferation, which can explain the increased growth (Fig. 3B). In uncut worms, proliferation density in the GR increases with distance from the head (Fig. 3C) further supporting our conclusion that the head provides anti-proliferation signals. Upon head amputation and in vitro culture for 3 days, the increasing proliferation density along the GR A-P axis was no longer significant (Fig. 3D). However, the curves did not fully flatten and the pattern of decreased proliferation toward the most anterior was still detectable. This suggests that while signals from the head do regulate proliferation in the GR, the effects are mediated by factors resident within the GR as well.

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Many regenerating animals respond by increasing proliferation at the wound site. Is this true in H. diminuta? Following amputation in the GR, we quantified proliferation at both anterior- and posterior-facing wounds and found increased proliferation (Fig. S1). However, the local increase in proliferation was equivalent regardless of head presence (Fig. S1) indicating that amputation itself does not explain the increased proliferation in -head regenerates. This implies that the head does indeed negatively regulate proliferation.

In addition to proliferation within the GR, maintenance of GR tissue must also be preserved as regeneration cannot occur without it. Previous results have shown that GR maintenance depends on the head; after head amputation, the GR is eventually lost, the regenerates become fully proglottidized and cannot continue adding proglottids (Rozario et al., 2019). To further characterize how the head affects proglottid regeneration and GR maintenance, four amputation schemes were compared: + head, ½ head, -head, and -0.5 mm anterior (Fig. 4A). Of these four schemes, making transverse cuts through the head was the most challenging. A sampling of ½ head fragments were fixed immediately and stained with anti-SYNAPSIN antibodies to visualize the nervous system. Though the amount of head tissue removed did vary, the brain was always retained (Fig. S2A: yellow arrowheads). After making the four different amputations at the anterior region, we tested how the four fragment types would regenerate following serial amputation. All worms were amputated posteriorly to obtain 2 mm fragments that were grown in vitro for 14 days, then re-amputated for 3 more cycles (Fig. 4A). The posteriors of regenerates were fixed and analyzed to determine the number of proglottids regenerated after every cycle. As previously reported (Rozario et al., 2019), tapeworms regenerated after serial amputation when the head was present (Fig. 4B). The ½ head regenerates consistently displayed increased proglottid regeneration compared to +head regenerates (Fig. 4B). Both +head and ½ head regenerates maintained their GRs throughout 2 months of in vitro culture. When the head was amputated completely (-head), proglottid regeneration eventually ceased though some regenerates still had GRs after the 4th amputation (Fig. 4B). However, the GR lengths in -head regenerates that were not fully proglottidized were significantly shorter (Fig. S2B) indicating that complete proglottidization was imminent. Previously, we observed rapid loss of the GR after head amputation, but anterior GR tissue was also removed in those experiments (Rozario et al., 2019). Cognizant of regional

differences along the A-P axis of the GR, we were careful to make minimal head amputations that retained as much anterior GR as possible in this study. We find that the GR persists for much longer than previously reported but does eventually recede. On the other hand, fragments in which both the head and anterior GR were removed (-0.5 mm) became fully proglottidized by the second amputation or earlier (Fig. 4B). In sum, GRs were maintained if the brain region was retained but GRs were lost when more and more anterior tissue was removed (Fig. 4C).

The number of proglottids regenerated was also dependent on amputations at the head though our analysis was complicated by GR loss in -head and -0.5mm fragments. After the first amputation, a clear dose-dependent response was detected; when more head tissue was retained, the number of proglottids decreased (Fig. S2C). This trend was maintained after serial rounds of amputation when comparing +head and ½ head regenerates where GRs were not lost (Fig. S2D). After the 4th round of amputation, the remaining head area plotted against number of proglottids for +head and ½ head regenerates revealed a negative correlation between head tissue abundance and proglottidization (Fig. 4D). We also measured the effect of head tissue abundance on proliferation within the GR using F-ara-EdU. A general trend of increasing proliferation with decreasing head and anterior tissue emerged though differences between +head and ½ head were not statistically significant (Fig. 4E-F). Taken together, the head effects on maintaining the GR and regulating proliferation can be separated. Signals from the brain region are necessary to maintain the GR whereas proliferation and proglottidization are regulated by head-dependent signals in a dose-dependent manner.

#### Bcatenin1 is necessary for proglottid regeneration and stem cell maintenance.

What is the molecular basis for the head-dependent effects on tapeworm regeneration? The Wnt signaling pathway has been implicated in A-P polarity across many systems (Petersen and Reddien, 2009) and plays roles in regulating cell proliferation, survival, and differentiation (Nusse and Clevers, 2017). Multiple members of the Wnt signaling pathway were found to be either anterior-enriched or posterior-enriched after RNA sequencing along the A-P axis of the GR (Rozario et al., 2019). As  $\beta$  catenin protein is a key downstream effector of Wnt signaling, we decided to examine its function further. *H. diminuta* has three  $\beta$ catenin paralogs as do other parasitic flatworms (Montagne et al., 2019). BLASTp comparisons of putative *H. diminuta* 

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βcatenin paralogs with published sequences for other flatworms (Schmidtea medditerranea, Schistosoma mansoni and Ecchinococcus multilocularis) demonstrated that Hdim-βcatI (WMSIL1\_LOCUS14475) is the rat tapeworm ortholog of βcatI (Table S1). Hdim-βcatI retains expected conserved domains including multiple armadillo repeats and the DSGxxSxxx[S/T]xxxS motif for CKI/GSK-phosphorylation necessary for targeting by the destruction complex (Montagne et al., 2019; Valenta et al., 2012) (Fig. S3A). Capacity to bind α-catenin cannot be ruled in or out at present (Fig. S3B; discussed further below). Thus Hdim-βcatI likely mediates Wnt signaling and may also function in cell adhesion.

Where is Hdim- $\beta cat1$  (hereafter  $\beta cat1$ ) expressed in H. diminuta? In 6-day-old adults,  $\beta cat1$ expression is largely absent in the head and anterior GR but progressively increases toward the posterior GR (Fig. 5A). Bcat1 is also expressed throughout the body, in transverse stripes at proglottid boundaries and within a subset of accessory reproductive structures (Fig. S4). The broad expression pattern throughout the worm indicates that  $\beta cat1$  is expressed in many tissues and is not restricted to a particular cell type. The posterior-biased pattern of  $\beta cat1$  expression was restored after successful GR regeneration (Fig. 1D) leading us to wonder if \(\beta cat 1\) is necessary for proliferation and proglottidization from the GR. We performed RNAi by injecting double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) targeting \(\beta cat 1\) throughout the GR. 2 mm anterior fragments were amputated and grown in vitro to assay regenerative ability. A dramatic growth defect was captured just 7 dpa/10 days post injection (dpi) (Fig. 5B). Decreased growth was evident by 3 dpa and this RNAi treatment was ultimately lethal. The proglottids formed were extremely small and impossible to quantify but there was a marked decrease in worm lengths following *Bcat1* RNAi (Fig. 5C). RNAi of  $\beta cat1$  reduced transcript levels to 8.7 $\pm$ 2.0% (Fig. 5D). As  $\beta cat1$ -dependent Wnt signaling is mediated through degradation of BCAT1 protein by the destruction complex, we investigated expression of a key destruction complex component: axin1. Previous work has demonstrated that tapeworm E. multilocularis, AXIN proteins directly interact with Emul-βCAT1 and overexpression of Emul-AXIN1 results in degradation of Emul-βCAT1 (Montagne et al., 2019). We find that after βcat1 RNAi, axin1 expression is markedly reduced to 18.8±11.1% of normal levels (Fig. 5D). This suggests that canonical Wnt signaling is inhibited following *Bcat1* RNAi though other roles for  $\beta cat1$  cannot be ruled out.

The strong decrease in growth after  $\beta cat1$  RNAi suggests that the cycling stem cell population in the GR is likely dependent on  $\beta cat1$ . We measured proliferation in the GR and detected a dramatic decrease in dividing cells compared to controls (Fig. 5E). This suggests that the stem cell population likely cannot be maintained in the absence of  $\beta cat1$ . To visualize the stem cell population, we performed WISH for two known stem cell markers in H. diminuta: minichromosome maintenance complex component-2 (mcm2) and laminB receptor (lbr) (Rozario et al., 2019). Both stem cell markers showed decreased expression indicating that  $\beta cat1$  is required to maintain stem cells in the GR (Fig. 5F).

# GR maintenance requires sfrp.

Our analyses so far suggest that signals from the head set up gene expression patterns within the GR with posteriorly enriched  $\beta cat1$  playing indispensable roles in maintaining stem cells.

However, it is unclear if *Bcat1* regulates stem cell maintenance through Wnt signaling, cell

adhesion or both. If Wnt signaling is necessary, the head may segregate Wnt inhibitors toward the

anterior. Previously, RNA sequencing of A-P polarized transcripts in the GR found that sfrp was

anterior-enriched (Rozario et al., 2019). Like other tapeworms, H. diminuta has one true sfrp

family member and a second highly divergent member, sfrp-like, which was not investigated

further in this study. Interpro (Blum et al., 2020) predicts that Hdim-SFRP retains both frizzled

and netrin domains albeit with some variation (Fig. S5; discussed further below). Since SFRP can

inhibit Wnt signaling (Leyns et al., 1997; Rattner et al., 1997; Wang et al., 1997), we decided to

pursue its potential role in regeneration.

By WISH, sfrp expression is strikingly anterior-enriched. We detected sfrp expression sparsely within the head and strongly throughout the GR with expression tapering off posteriorly (Fig. 6A). In adult tapeworms, sfrp expression is largely absent from the strobilated body except at the lateral ends of proglottids (Fig. S4). Perhaps knocking down sfrp would result in the opposite phenotypes observed from  $\beta cat$  RNAi and would phenocopy head amputation. We injected dsRNA into the head, amputated 2 mm anterior fragments, reinjected dsRNA into the head and collected worms at 10-12 dpa (Fig. 6B). Contrary to our expectations, a modest decrease in worm lengths and proglottid regeneration were observed (Fig. 6C-D). Strikingly, we discovered that the GRs were

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significantly shortened following sfrp RNAi (Fig. 6E-F). This is the first time GR length has been affected by RNAi of any target gene. Injecting dsRNA into the head does not preclude diffusion into the GR but the knockdown is likely to be anteriorly biased. If so, we may inadvertently miss other potential roles for sfrp toward the posterior GR. We injected dsRNA throughout the GR and observed the same phenotypes (Fig. S6A-D). Both injection schemes resulted in similar sfrp knockdown efficacy (Fig. S6E). While the levels of knockdown did vary substantially, GR length reduction was consistently observed. Our results indicate that sfrp is necessary for proper GR maintenance but is unlikely to be involved in head-dependent inhibition of proliferation or proglottidization. Instead, sfrp likely mediates head-dependent GR maintenance. Accordingly, we observed decreased sfrp expression just 3 days after head amputation (Fig. 6G). This correlation supports the conclusion that the failure to maintain the GR after head amputation is mediated through anterior-enriched sfrp expression. Decreased proglottid regeneration after sfrp RNAi does not support the hypothesis that sfrp functions as a Wnt inhibitor. Proliferation within the GR was not significantly changed after sfrp RNAi (Fig. S5D). However, the shortening of the GR would bring the posterior boundary of the GR closer to the head. Thus, sfrp RNAi may indirectly exacerbate the anti-proglottidization and anti-proliferation effects from the head. Amputation distance from the head determines whether pro- or anti-regeneration signals dominate. The mechanisms that govern the two head-dependent effects on regeneration have begun to emerge. The presence of the head is necessary for sfrp expression and GR maintenance. However, the presence of the head also inhibits proliferation and proglottidization, which are dependent on Beat1. Perhaps when the posterior wound is too close to the head, the growth inhibitory effect of the head dominates, and GR regeneration fails. This suggests that regeneration would fail more when the posterior cut is made at decreasing distance from the head. To test this, worms were allowed to regenerate after 0.5 mm amputation within the GR and then cut a second time at 4 different distances from the head. All samples were cut at ~1mm and then subsets were

progressively shaved closer and closer toward the head (Fig. 7A; cuts A-D). Subsets of fragments

were fixed at 0 dpa and we verified that cut A-D progressively retained 87±5%, 64±7%, 47±9%, and 22±4% of the GR (Fig. 7B). As expected, GR and proglottid regeneration plummeted at cut B or C over three independent experiments (Fig. 7C). Surprisingly, the smallest fragments (cut D) regenerated equivalently to the longest fragments (cut A) (Fig. 7C-D and Fig. S7). Fragments from cut A and D achieved different absolute lengths at 18 dpa but the fold change in growth was comparable (Fig. 7E). Also, no significant difference is GR length was detected in regenerates from cut A or D (Fig. 7F). Thus, the inhibitory effect of the head was overcome when enough posterior GR tissue was removed. These results suggest that there are yet more signals to be uncovered that explain how regeneration is promoted and restricted in tapeworms.

While there is still much to discover, we propose the following working model (Fig. 8A). The head likely produces direct or indirect inhibitor(s) of a posterior signal that we dub factor X. Factor X may be posterior Wnts, other signaling pathways that crosstalk with Wnt signaling or Wnt-independent signals. The head promotes sfrp expression, which is necessary to maintain the GR. The posterior GR produces a counteracting signal that results in stable maintenance of the GR length. Factor X acts via  $\beta cat1$  to promote proglottid formation. Proglottids only form at sufficient distance from the head where high  $\beta cat1$  activity is present. Upon head amputation (Fig. 8B), sfrp expression is inhibited causing the posterior boundary of the GR to creep up towards the anterior. Without the head, inhibition of factor X is relieved and overstimulation of  $\beta cat1$  results in increased proglottid regeneration until the GR is fully lost.

Our experiments also demonstrated that cutting within the GR produced highly mixed results, which can now be explained by our model. Tapeworms grown in vitro are adjusting to a new environment and all tissue dimensions change with time. The various amputation schemes within the GR used throughout this paper revealed that depending on the state of signaling gradients from the head and GR, we pushed regeneration competence toward a pro- or anti-regeneration state. When cuts were made "mid" GR at an unfavorable distance from the head (Fig. 8C), inhibition of factor X dominated leading to failure to regenerate proglottids. However, when a minimal fragment was produced (Fig. 8D), perhaps the absence of factor X negates the inhibitory functions of the head. The head could promote establishment of *sfrp* and proper growth of the GR. At a sufficient distance from the head, factor X is now stimulated and can promote proglottid

323 regeneration. The exact players, direct and indirect relationships, as well as additional molecular

mechanisms predicted by our working model still need to be tested but the general take-home

holds: a balance of pro- and anti-regeneration factors operate in the GR of *H. diminuta*.

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**Discussion** Regenerative abilities vary widely even amongst species that are competent to regenerate. Thus, it is important to understand the factors that both promote and inhibit regeneration. The flatworm phylum offers opportunities to study variations in regenerative abilities. While the free-living planarian S. mediterranea can regenerate from almost any amputation fragment, regeneration in H. diminuta is far more limited. This study explores how a balance of activating and inhibiting signals operate in the regeneration-competent region: the GR. We show that in addition to regenerating proglottids, *H. diminuta* can also regenerate the posterior GR following amputation. However, the challenge of serial amputation within the GR revealed that there are anti-regeneration factors that were previously unknown. By testing amputation schemes at the anterior, we revealed that the head plays at least two seemingly contradictory roles: 1) the head promotes GR maintenance and 2) the head inhibits proliferation within the GR and proglottid regeneration. Interestingly, these two roles can be separated both anatomically and through molecular regulators. GR maintenance depends on the brain-region without which the GR will eventually be lost. Loss of the GR is gradual unless the anterior GR is also removed. The head likely acts as an organizer that relays signals within the GR. In this model, total loss of the GR will occur after anteriorenriched patterns within the GR turnover and cannot be reestablished following head amputation. One critical mediator of head-dependent GR maintenance is sfrp. Like head amputation, RNAi of sfrp results in shortened GRs. However, sfrp RNAi does not phenocopy the growth spurts observed after head amputation. The mechanism by which sfrp maintains the GR is more mysterious. While sfirp is primarily known as a Wnt antagonist, it has also been shown to bind and stimulate frizzled receptors, interact with other signaling pathways and modulate cell-matrix interactions by binding integrins (Bovolenta et al., 2008; Mii and Taira, 2011). There is evidence that sfirps can stimulate Wnt and BMP signaling in the zebrafish retina (Holly et al., 2014). In Drosophila, sfrps can modulate Wnt signaling in a biphasic manner: inhibiting Wnt signaling when expressed at high levels while promoting Wnt signaling when expressed at low levels (Üren et al., 2000). In H. diminuta, the sfrp RNAi phenotypes were not the opposite of the \(\beta cat1\) RNAi phenotypes as one

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might predict if *sfrp* and *βcat1* were acting solely as Wnt antagonist and Wnt effector respectively. Nonetheless, it is still possible that *sfrp* is inhibiting Wnt signaling. In many flatworms, Wnt ligands are secreted from both anterior and posterior domains (Armstrong et al., 2025; Koziol et al., 2016; Reddien, 2018; Soria et al., 2020). Expression of *sfrp* throughout the GR may be required as a permissive signal to tune Wnt signaling to a moderately low level so that it can be acted upon differentially by other modulators. Alternatively, *sfrp* may be functioning independent of Wnt signaling. Future studies investigating the RNAi phenotypes of other Wnt antagonists, Wnt ligands and frizzed receptors will be necessary to determine how Wnt signaling regulates individual celland tissue-level behaviors at the GR that are necessary for regeneration.

A further complication is that the biochemical properties and interactors of SFRP proteins in flatworms in not well understood. Both frizzled and netrin domains are readily identifiable in flatworm SFRPs. The netrin domain should contain 6 conserved cysteine residues (Bhat et al., 2007; Chong et al., 2002) and conflicting conclusions have been asserted as to whether parasitic flatworm SFRPs satisfy this requirement (Armstrong et al., 2025; Koziol et al., 2016; Riddiford and Olson, 2011). Our alignments predict that all 6 cysteine residues are present, however, the 6<sup>th</sup> residue is displaced by three animo acids in flatworms but not humans (Fig. S5). The three additional amino acids are also present in free living S. mediterranea and Smed-sfrp1 is generally accepted as a Wnt antagonist. While planarian sfrp paralogs show complex expression patterns (Gurley et al., 2010), Smed-sfrp1 is an anterior marker that robustly responds to Wnt inhibition and loss of posterior identity (Doddihal et al., 2024; Hill and Petersen, 2018; Reuter et al., 2015; Scimone et al., 2016; Sureda-Gómez et al., 2015). RNAi of Smed-sfrp1 shifts the gradient of Smed-BCAT1 protein expression anteriorly supporting Smed-sfrp1 function as a Wnt antagonist (Stückemann et al., 2017). However, other Wnt antagonists such as Smed-notum demonstrate much clearer evidence of Wnt inhibition. Smed-notum RNAi results in tail regeneration in place of heads (Petersen and Reddien, 2011) as opposed to Smed-Bcat1 RNAi, which results in head regeneration in place of tails (Gurley et al., 2008; Iglesias et al., 2008; Petersen and Reddien, 2008). Thus, it remains possible that a muted or more ambiguous role in Wnt signaling by sfrp1 is a shared feature in free-living and parasitic flatworms.

In addition to GR maintenance, the head negatively regulates both proliferation in the GR and proglottid regeneration in a dose-dependent and distance-dependent manner with increased proliferation farther from the head. This observation suggests that the head may be the source of growth inhibitors that diffuse or are differentially received along the A-P axis of the GR. We find that at least one posterior-enriched factor,  $\beta cat1$ , is necessary for stem cell maintenance in the GR. Knockdown of  $\beta cat1$  results in a dramatic inhibition of growth, proglottid regeneration and ultimately death. Recently, a study in the liver fluke,  $Fasciola\ hepatica$ , demonstrated that RNAi of  $Fhep-\beta cat1$  resulted in stunted juvenile growth, decreased proliferation and worm death (Armstrong et al., 2025), phenocopying our observations. Thus, roles for  $\beta cat1$  in regulating stem cell proliferation and/or survival may be a common theme in parasitic flatworms as it is in many metazoans as well as in neoplastic transformations (Mohammed et al., 2016; Steinhart and Angers, 2018).

In addition to canonical Wnt signaling,  $\beta$ -catenin proteins have additional roles in cell adhesion through linking cadherins with the actin cytoskeleton via α-catenin. These two functions have been reported in many but not all species. In S. mediterranea, there is complete separation of function by two catenin paralogs: Smed-βCAT1 mediates Wnt signaling whereas Smed-βCAT2 mediates cell adhesion (Chai et al., 2010; Su et al., 2017). Accordingly, Smed-βCAT1 does not have αcatenin binding sites (Chai et al., 2010; Su et al., 2017). The presence/absence of α-catenin binding sites in βCAT1 from tapeworms is more ambiguous. Previously, a likely α-catenin binding region demarcated by 10 putative critical residues within a 26 amino acid span was identified for βCAT1 and βCAT2 in flatworms (Montagne et al., 2019). The 10 residues were identified as necessary for α-catenin binding to mammalian plakoglobin and/or βcatenin using alanine scanning mutagenesis (Aberle et al., 1996; Pokutta and Weis, 2000). When compared to human βcatenin (CTNB1), we and others find strong conservation of this α-catenin binding region in βCAT2 from multiple flatworms (Fig. S3B) (Montagne et al., 2019). While Smed-BCAT1 is clearly very divergent at this site, two tapeworms (H. diminuta and E. multilocularis) show more similarity to the human reference (Fig. S3B) (Montagne et al., 2019). Thus, we cannot rule out the possibility that βCAT1 in tapeworms functions in both Wnt signaling and cell adhesion, unlike their free-living counterparts. Future studies investigating the biochemical interactions and functional roles of all

 $\beta$ catenin paralogs will help resolve the mechanisms regulating stem cell maintenance in parasitic flatworms.

The role of  $\beta cat1$  in posterior identity is well conserved across many taxa (Petersen and Reddien, 2009). In planarian species that are deficient in head regeneration, knockdown of  $\beta cat1$  alone can rescue head regeneration indicating that failure to regenerate the head in wild type worms was due to the inability to overcome the posteriorizing effects of  $\beta cat1$  (Liu et al., 2013; Sikes and Newmark, 2013; Umesono et al., 2013). H. diminuta cannot regenerate its head and we initially assumed that tapeworm  $\beta cat1$  would be acting in a homologous fashion to planarians. Because  $\beta cat1$  is required for stem cell maintenance in H. diminuta, potential roles in posteriorization could not be uncovered. It remains possible that Wnt signaling is necessary to maintain GR posterior identity in H. diminuta. Extensive RNAi manipulations of Wnt signaling components that are beyond the scope of this study will help reveal a more holistic understanding of Wnt signaling in this system. However, tapeworms and planarians do differ in that  $Smed-\beta cat1$  is not necessary for stem cell maintenance.

The differences in utilization of  $\beta cat1$  between different species of platyhelminths is potentially very interesting. Perhaps segregating functions in posteriorization vs. stem cell maintenance in S. mediterranea has enabled more nimble remodeling of axes that makes this species so remarkable at regenerating from almost any amputated fragment. In intestinal tapeworms, the head contains suckers that are necessary for attachment without which the tapeworm will simply be extruded with the feces. Thus, maintenance of the head and proglottid regeneration should not be easily decoupled in tapeworms. Considering the wider role for  $\beta$ catenin in regulating stem cell proliferation and survival across metazoa, it would be easy to suppose that planarian phenotype is divergent. However, studies in the acoel  $Hofstenia\ miamia$ , a representative of a sister taxa to all bilaterians, show that RNAi of Hmia- $\beta cat1$  is necessary for maintaining posterior identity but functions in regulating stem cells, proliferation, or growth were not reported (Srivastava et al., 2014; Tewari et al., 2019). Considering that Hmia- $\beta cat1$  RNAi experiments were performed in the context of regeneration, inhibition of growth is unlikely to have been missed with the caveat the RNAi cannot be fully penetrant. Thus, there is evidence that the planarian phenotype is ancestral.

A deeper understanding of how catenin paralogs have evolved across platyhelminths and how they have functionally specialized will be illuminating. Such investigations would enrich our understanding of how strategies to regulate axial identity and stem cell proliferation/survival have evolved in regeneration-competent species.

Our work has revealed that a balance of opposing signals from anterior and posterior ends of the GR are necessary for proper regeneration. It makes intuitive sense that initiation of proglottids must be inhibited close to the head if the GR is to be maintained as an unsegmented tissue. A recent study from the mouse bile duct tapeworm, *Hymenolepis microstoma*, has described discrete expression of Wnt and Hedgehog signaling components in a signaling quartet (SQ) within the transition zone from GR to fully elaborated proglottids (Jarero et al., 2024). It is possible the SQ initiates proglottid formation and represents the unknown X factor predicted by our study. How the SQ responds to head-dependent signals and vice versa is currently unknown and warrants future investigation.

Our study also shows that regulation of proliferation dynamics is dependent on signals from the head. Why should the head provide anti-proliferation signals at all? One intriguing possibility is that distinct subpopulations of stem cells within the GR respond differentially to signals from the head. Such signals may affect the balance of self-renewal vs. differentiation. Alternatively, a slow-cycling pluri- or multi-potent subpopulation of stem cells may require these head-dependent signals. There is already evidence for different cycling rates in stem cells of parasitic flatworms (Herz et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2018). In this study, we observed that amputations made progressively closer to the head inhibited regeneration until enough posterior GR tissue was removed, which restored competence to regenerate. Perhaps the anterior portion of the GR contains the minimal cohort of stem cells required to regenerate the GR and seed new proglottids. These anterior stem cells may represent a slow-cycling population with greater potency. These ideas are highly speculative, but investigating how head-dependent signals impact stem cell subpopulations in the GR may shed light on the regulation of stem cell potency in tapeworms and potentially other species.

476 **Materials and Methods** 477 478 Animal care and use 479 The life cycle of *H. diminuta* was maintained in house using mealworm beetles (*Tenebrio molitor*) 480 and Sprague-Dawley rats for the larval and adult stages respectively. Rats were fed 200-400 481 infective cysticercoids by oral gavage in ~0.5 mL 0.85% NaCl. Typically, adult tapeworms were 482 collected 6 days post infection by euthanizing infected rats in a CO<sub>2</sub> chamber and flushing the small intestine with 1X Hanks Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS: 21-023-CV; Corning). Rodent care 483 484 was performed in accordance with protocols approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use 485 Committee (IACUC) of the University of Georgia (A2023 10-019-Y1-A0). 486 487 In vitro parasite culture 488 Adult tapeworms or amputated fragments were grown in vitro in biphasic cultures as described 489 before (Rozario et al., 2019). 2.5X MEM essential amino acids (M5550; Sigma-Aldrich) was 490 added to the liquid culture: Working Hanks 4 (WH4: HBSS/4 g/L glucose/antibiotic-antimycotic). 491 This ameliorated inconsistencies between batches of blood used for culturing but was not strictly 492 necessary. 493 494 In situ hybridization and other staining 495 Heat-kills were performed by swirling tapeworms in 75°C water for a few seconds before fixing 496 (4% formaldehyde in Phosphate Buffered Saline with 0.3% TritonX-100 (PBSTx)) for 30 min-2 497 hr at room temperature or overnight at 4°C. Worms were either dehydrated into methanol and 498 stored (-30°C) or used directly for staining. For simple phenotyping of growth and regeneration, 499 worms were stained in 1 µg/mL DAPI (D9542; Sigma-Aldrich)/PBSTx overnight at 4°C and 500 cleared in mounting solution (80% glycerol/10 mM Tris pH7.5/1 mM EDTA) overnight before 501 mounting and imaging. Previously published methods were employed for in situ hybridization 502 (Rozario et al., 2019) and immunostaining (Rozario and Newmark, 2015). Anti-Syn antibodies 503 (3C11; Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank) were used at 1:200 with Tyramide Signal 504 Amplification (TSA). 505 506

F-ara-EdU uptake and staining

507 F-ara-EdU pulses were performed in 0.1 μM F-ara-EdU (T511293; Sigma-Aldrich)/1% 508 DMSO/WH4 at 37°C for 1 hr. Staining was performed as previously described (Ishan et al., in 509 press) with the following specifics: 1) 15 min proteinase-K digestion and 2) 10 min TSA reaction. 510 511 Imaging and image processing 512 Confocal imaging was performed on a Zeiss LSM 900 with the following objectives: 20X/Plan-Apochromat/0.8 M27/FWD=0.55mm and 63X/Plan-Apochromat/1.40 Oil DIC M27. WISH and 513 514 DAPI-stained worms were imaged on a Zeiss AxioZoom V16 Microscope. Fiji (Schindelin et al., 515 2012) was used for brightness/contrast adjustments, maximum-intensity projections and 516 measurements of lengths, areas, and numbers of proglottids. F-ara-EdU+ cells were quantified 517 using Imaris (Oxford Instruments) spot finder as previously described (Ishan et al., in press). 518 519 RNAi 520 To perform knockdowns, tapeworms were microinjected with dsRNA (1-1.5 μg/μl in HBSS), 2 521 mm anterior fragments were amputated 3 days later and cultured in vitro. Injections were 522 performed using a Femtojet 4i (Eppendorf) at 500 hPa for 0.3-1s, dsRNA was synthesized as previously described (Rouhana et al., 2013) from ~1 kb PCR products from cDNA cloned into 523 524 pJC53.2 vector (Collins et al., 2010). Experimenters were blinded to the dsRNA used throughout 525 microinjections, staining and image analysis. 526 527 qRT-PCR 528 To exclude genomic DNA, primers were designed to flank introns or span an intron-exon junction. 529 Amplicon range was 133-277 bp. All primers were tested on cDNA +/- reverse transcriptase and 530 gel electrophoresis to confirm the presence of a single product. Primer efficiencies were calculated 531 from 2-fold serial dilutions of cDNA. 532 533 For RNA extractions, 3 mm anteriors from 4-5 worms were cut, submerged in 200 µL TRIzol 534 Reagent (15596026; Invitrogen) and processed according to manufacturer's instructions with these 535 exceptions: 1) samples were homogenized with a motorized pestle twice in a semi-solid state then 536 centrifuged at >12K RCF for 5 min to obtain 180 µL clean supernatant, 2) RNA pellets were 537 washed twice with 75% ethanol-DEPC and 3); pellets were resuspended in 40 μL nuclease-free

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water. DNAse (M6101; Promega) treatment was performed for 1 hr at 37°C. RNA was cleaned using RNA Clean & Concentrator-5 kit (R1016; Zymo Research) and the concentration measured on a Nanodrop spectrophotometer. cDNA synthesis was performed, according to manufacturer's protocol, using Oligo(dT)<sub>20</sub> primers and iScript Select cDNA Synthesis Kit (1708897; Bio-Rad) with undiluted RNA. cDNA was further diluted with 5-25 µL nuclease-free water depending on the number of reactions needed. qRT-PCR was performed using GoTaq MasterMix (A6001; Promega) according to manufacturer's instructions and scaled to 25 µL reactions with 2 µL cDNA template for each of 3 technical replicates. Each reaction had 0.4 µM primer pairs, 0.3 µM CXCR in 1X master mix. 7500 Real Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) was used for 40 amplification cycles: 15 s at 95°C and 1 min at 60°C. Relative gene expression change was calculated using the PFAFFL equation (Hellemans et al., 2007; Vandesompele et al., 2002) to account for different primer efficiencies. Internal normalization was done on the geometric mean of two previously published standards: 60S ribosomal protein L13 (60Srpl13) and myosin heavy chain (mhc) (Rozario et al., 2019). Statistical Analysis Graph Pad Prism 10 was used for all statistical analyses. All experiments were repeated at least twice. Error bars, statistical tests, number of replicates (N) and sample sizes (n) are indicated in corresponding figure legends. P-values: ns = not significant, \* = p<0.05, \*\*=p<0.01, \*\*\*=p<0.001, \*\*\*\*=p<0.0001.

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Figure legends

**Fig. 1.** The germinative region (GR) regenerates after a single amputation. (A) DAPI-stained images of anterior fragments cut within the GR (0.5 mm) or outside of it (2 mm) at 15 dpa. Quantification of growth in length and number of proglottids regenerated at 15 dpa. N=3, n=6-10 per condition; t-test. (B) DAPI-stained image of 0.5 mm anterior fragment at 15 dpa showing regenerated GR. Yellow arrowhead marks the first proglottid. Quantification of GR lengths from A; t-test. (C) Quantification of proglottids regenerated and length every 2 days from 0.5 mm vs. 2 mm anterior fragments. Change in proglottids was fitted with a simple linear regression and showed 14-15 proglottids regenerated per day. Change in length was fitted with a nonlinear curve as each proglottid increases in length. n=5-7 fragments per group per timepoint. (D) WISH for transcripts with A-P polarized expression patterns 3 days after acclimation to in vitro culture (uncut, n = 7-10 per transcript) then amputated at 0.5 mm and stained at 0 dpa (n= 7-8 per transcript) and 10 dpa (n= 5-13 per transcript). Asterisks mark pigmented debris that adhered to cut ends. Error bars= SD.

- Fig. 2. Serial amputation within the GR negatively affects regenerative ability. (A) Scheme for serial amputation within the GR. (B-C) GR lengths and percentage of GR retained compared to uncut whole worms at 0 dpa. n=7-10 per timepoint per experiment. (D) DAPI-stained regenerates 18 dpa for each cut. (E-F) Quantification of regeneration success rate and number of proglottids regenerated (n= 8-10 per timepoint per experiment). Error bars= SD; t-test.
- Fig. 3. The head inhibits proglottid regeneration and cell proliferation. (A) DAPI-stained regenerates from 0.5 mm amputations +/- head at 15 dpa. Quantification of proglottids regenerated from a representative experiment. n= 7; t-test. (B) Confocal micrographs from maximum intensity projections of +/- head worms at 3 dpa immunostained for neuronal marker SYN after a 1 hr pulse of F-*ara*-EdU to label proliferating cells. Quantification of the density of proliferating cells within the GR from a representative experiment. Each sample was normalized to the mean proliferation density in the corresponding +head group. n= 5-6 per group per timepoint; t-test. (C-D) Maximum intensity projections of worm anteriors after 1 hr pulse of F-*ara*-EdU either with the head (C) or head 3 dpa (D). Yellow dotted lines represent 200 μm-wide regions used for quantification of

proliferation density. H= head. Quantification across 3 cohorts, n=11 and 13; one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple testing correction. Error bars= SD.

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Fig. 4. Effect of head or head-adjacent amputations on proliferation and regeneration. (A) Scheme for results shown in B-C and Fig. S2. Step 1: Four amputation schemes were tested: intact head (+head), transverse cut through half the head while retaining the brain (½ head), full head amputation (-head) and cut 0.5 mm from the anterior into the GR (-0.5 mm). Step 2: all worms were amputated posteriorly to obtain 2 mm fragments. Step 3: fragments were grown in vitro for 14 days. Step 4-5: regenerates were collected and recut to obtain 2 mm anterior fragments that were cultured in vitro while the posteriors were fixed and stained with DAPI to measure the number of proglottids regenerated. (B) Quantification of proglottids regenerated. All samples were normalized to the mean of the +head worms set to 100%. Bars indicate the means from 2-3 experiments for all samples after cut 1 and only for samples with visible GRs for cut 2-4. Fully proglottidized worms without a GR are represented with a red dot. (C) Percentage of regenerates that still maintained a visible GR from B. (D) After cut 4, proglottids regenerated from +head and ½ head samples from one experiment were plotted against the area of the head remaining measured from DAPI stained worms. Linear regression fitted. (E-F) Quantification of F-ara-EdU+ cells normalized to area within the GR 3 dpa. All samples were normalized to the mean of the +head worms set to 100%. Means from 3-4 experiments analyzed with two-way ANOVA (mixed model) and Tukey's multiple corrections test (E). All pooled data from analyzed with one-way ANOVA compared to +head with Dunnett's multiple comparison test (n= 21-28). Error bars= SD.

Fig. 5.  $\beta$ cat1 is a posterior-biased factor that is necessary to maintain the cycling stem cell population in the GR. (A) Schematic and WISH of  $\beta$ cat1 expression at the GR from a wild type 6-day-old adult. (B) DAPI-stained 2 mm anterior regenerates after single injection of dsRNA at 7 dpa. (C) Quantification of worm lengths after RNAi at 7 dpa. Bars show means and grey circles represent individual worms. N= 3, n= 23-24 per group; one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. (D) qRT-PCR from 3 RNAi experiments. Target expression normalized to two endogenous controls and compared to *GFP* RNAi set at 1 (dotted line). (E) Representative maximum intensity confocal projections at the GR stained after 1 hr F-ara-EdU uptake. Dotted yellow lines are the worm outlines. Quantification of F-ara-EdU+ cells normalized to area within

an 800 µm-wide cropped region directly posterior to the head at 6-7 dpi. All samples were normalized to the mean of *GFP* RNAi worms set to 100%. Bars show means and grey circles represent individual worms. N= 3, n= 16-20 per group; one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. (F) WISH for cycling stem cell markers *mcm2* and *lbr* at 6 dpi (N=3). Error bars= SD.

**Fig. 6.** *sfrp* is an anterior-biased factor that regulates GR length. (A) Schematic and WISH of *sfrp* expression at the GR from a wild type 6-day-old adult. (B) RNAi scheme for C-F. Double injections of dsRNA were performed into the head and 2 mm anterior fragments were allowed to regenerate for 10-12 days. (C) Representative DAPI-stained regenerates after RNAi. (D) Quantification of proglottids regenerated after RNAi normalized to mean from *GFP* RNAi set to 100%. Bars show means and grey circles represent individual worms. N= 3, n= 25-26 per group; one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. (E) Representative DAPI-stained images showing GR lengths (between yellow arrowheads) after RNAi. (F) Quantification of GR lengths from D. Bars show means and grey circles represent individual worms; one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. (G) qRT-PCR for *sfrp* expression normalized to two endogenous controls compared +head set at 1. N=3; t-test. Error bars= SD.

Fig. 7. How amputations at increasing distance from the head influence competence to regenerate. (A) Regenerates from 0.5 mm anterior fragments were grown for 18 days then amputated a second time at 1 mm (cut A). A subset was fixed to quantify GR length and a subset was grown in vitro for 18 days. The remaining fragments were cut again to shave off ~20-25% more GR (cut B) and the process repeated successively for cut C and cut D. Darkfield images showing the live fragments before transfer to in vitro culture show that the wound site is progressively closer to the head with successive cuts. (B) GR lengths of each fragment measured from DAPI-stained 0 dpa fragments and represented as a percentage of the GR relative to uncut worms from the same cohort. N=3, n= 3-9; one-way ANOVA. (C) Percent of fragments that regenerated proglottids after 18 days from 3 experiments. Each experiment represented by the same color in B and C. (D-F) Comparisons of worm length (D), growth fold change (E) and GR length (F). N=3, n= 20 and 17; t-test. Error bars = SD.

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Fig. 8. Models for regeneration in *H. diminuta*. (A) Working model for a minimal complement of factors within the GR. X represents unknown factor(s) that directly/indirectly promote *Bcatl* activity. (B-D) Graphical representation using the working model to explain three scenarios described in this study. For all: solid black activating or inhibiting arrows indicate activity in situ whereas dotted grey arrows indicate the associated function without spatial reference. Fig. S1. Proliferation response at wound site. Worms were amputated at 0.5 mm within the GR. Fragments were analyzed at both the posterior-facing wound (Pfw) and anterior-facing wound (Afw) at 1 dpa following a 1 hr pulse of F-ara-EdU. Proliferation density was quantified from a box width of 100 µm from the cut site to capture the local proliferation response to amputation. Ouantification from one representative experiment is shown, n= 5-7; error bars= SD, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple testing correction. Fig. S2. How head tissues influence regeneration. (A) Widefield fluorescent images of ½ head fragments at 0 dpa stained with anti-SYN antibodies. Yellow arrowheads point to the brain/cephalic ganglia. (B) GR lengths at the end of a representative serial amputation experiment. n= 5-8; one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. (C) Quantification of proglottids regenerated after cut 1, normalized to +head means. N=3; n=7-17; statistical significance for each of 3 experiments calculated using one-way ANOVA and was the same for all 3. (D) Quantification of proglottids regenerated normalized to +head means. N=2-3, n=5-16; means (black circles) and statistical significance for each experiment using t-test are shown. Error bars= SD. Fig. S3. Domain analysis of *H. diminuta* βCAT1. (A) Sequence alignment of βCAT1 from four flatworm species (Hd: H. diminuta, Em: E. multilocularis, Sm: S. mansoni, Smed: S. mediterranea). The conserved DSGxxSxxx[S/T]xxxS motif for CKI/GSK-phosphorylation (red) is present as are armadillo repeats (lilac). The boundaries of both domains are shown according to S. mediterranea (Su et al., 2017). The shading indicates identical residues between 4 species (grey) or 3 species (blue). The N- and C-termini are more divergent between all species. (B) Sequence alignment of 26 amino acids covering a putative α-catenin binding domain previously reported (Montagne et al., 2019). 10 critical residues for α-catenin binding (Aberle et al., 1996; Pokutta and

853 Weis, 2000) are marked by the symbol  $\alpha$  (green). In reference to human CTNB1, dark grey shading 854 highlights identical residues. Chemically similar residues marked in light grey for aromatic (F, Y, 855 W, H), aliphatic (V, I, L), positively charged (R, K, H), negatively charged (D, E), polar but not 856 charged (N, Q, T, S, Y, C) and hydrophobic (V, I, L, M, A, F, P, W, G) residues, also in reference 857 to human CTNB1. 858 859 Fig. S4. Wild type WISH expression patterns for *\beta cat1* and *sfrp*. Representative micrographs 860 spanning different stages of development in 6-day-old worms with anterior facing left. 861 862 Fig. S5. Domain analysis of H. diminuta SFRP. BLASTp alignment of SFRPs from flatworms 863 and human SFRP-1,-2 and -5 as references (Hd: H. diminuta, Em: E. multilocularis, Smed: S. 864 mediterranea). The frizzled domain (orange) and netrin domain (blue) are marked at the most 865 inclusive positions reported for human SFRP1 using Interpro (Blum et al., 2020). Conserved 866 cysteines are highlighted in yellow. 867 Fig. S6. Phenotypes observed after sfrp RNAi. (A) Scheme for RNAi with dsRNA injections 868 869 throughout the GR. (B-C) Quantification of proglottid regeneration (B) and GR length (C) from 870 two independent experiments; one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. (D) 871 Quantification of F-ara-EdU+ cells normalized to area within an 800 µm-wide cropped region 872 directly posterior to the head or to the first proglottid. Combined from single and double injections 873 of dsRNA throughout the GR all from experiments with significant sfrp knockdown. All samples 874 were normalized to the mean of GFP RNAi worms set to 100%. Bars show means and grey circles 875 represent individual worms. N= 3, n= 21-23 per group; one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple 876 comparison test. (E) qRT-PCR from 3 RNAi experiments where dsRNA was injected at the scolex 877 (Sc-biased) or throughout the GR. Expression of *sfrp* was normalized to two endogenous controls 878 compared to GFP RNAi set at 1 (dotted line). Error bars= SD. 879 880 Fig. S7. Comparison of regenerates from longest (cut A) vs. shortest (cut D) fragments after 881 re-amputation. (A) DAPI-stained regenerates at 18 dpa. (B) Proglottid regeneration at 18 dpa.

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N=3, n=20 and 17: t-test, error bars = SD.

Table S1. βcatenin paralogs. BLASTp analysis indicates that H. diminuta has three βcatenin paralogs with orthologs in other flatworms.
Table S2. Primers and transcripts used in this study.
Table S3. All source data used in this study.

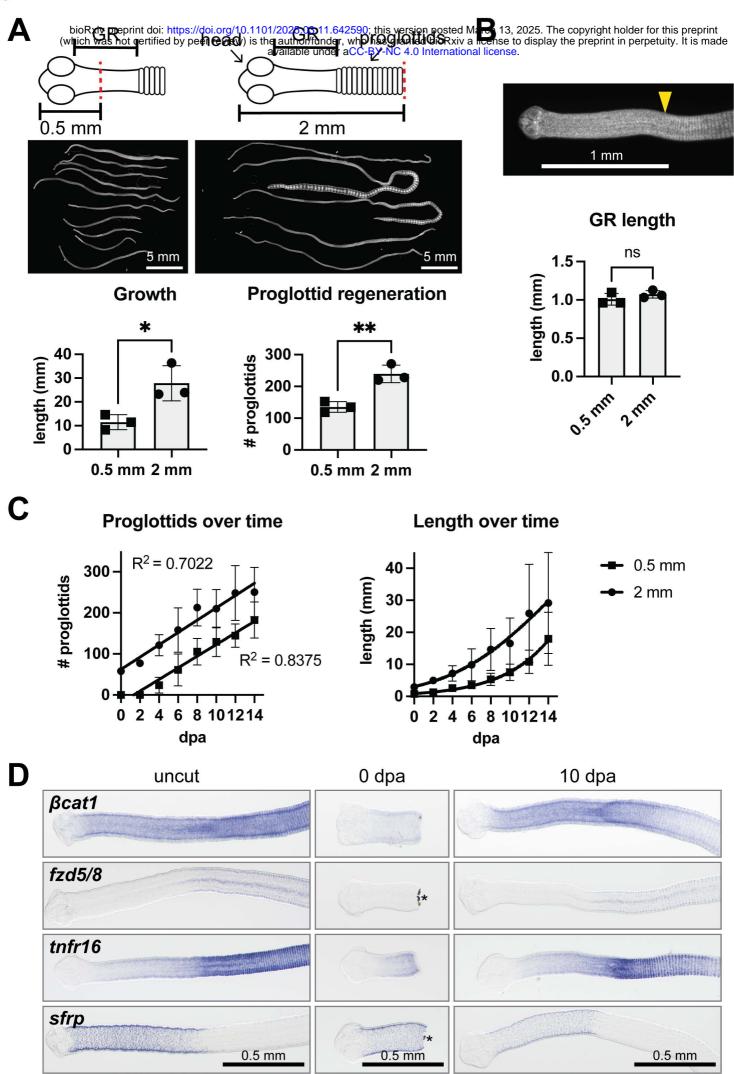
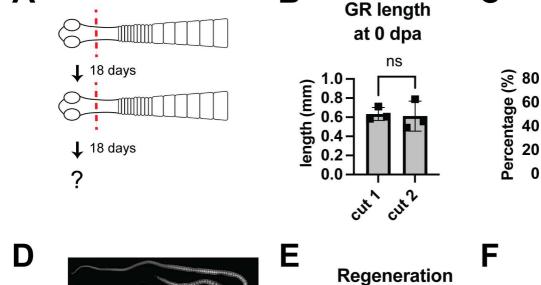
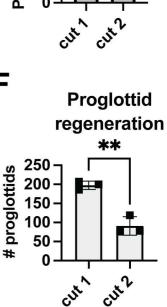


Figure 2





**GR** retained

at 0 dpa

C

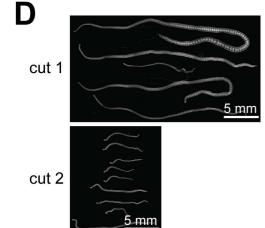
success

150

100

50

Percentage (%)



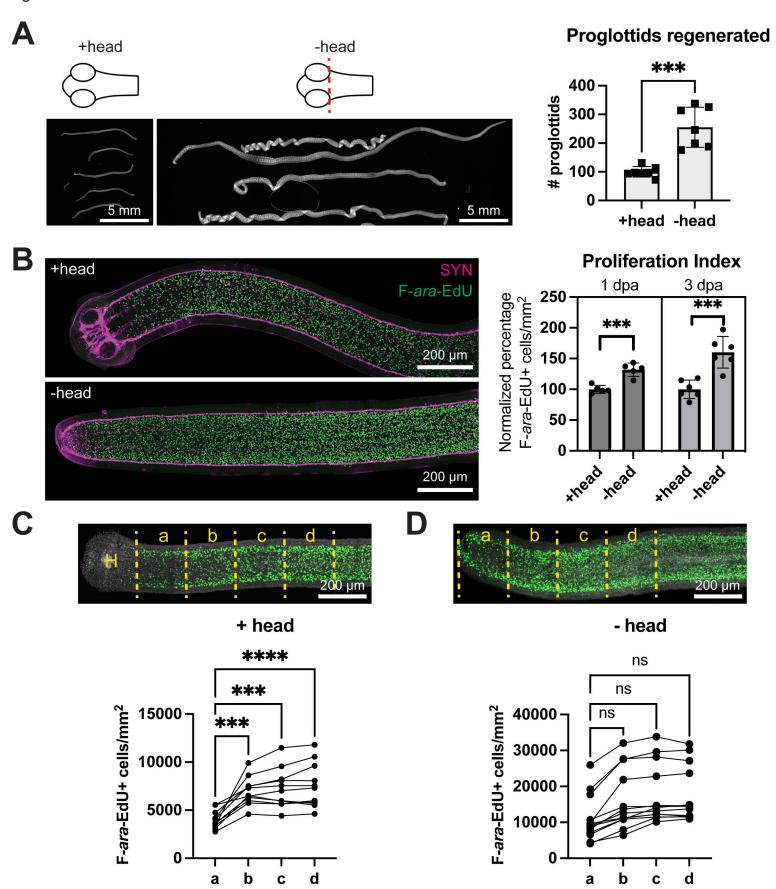


Figure 4

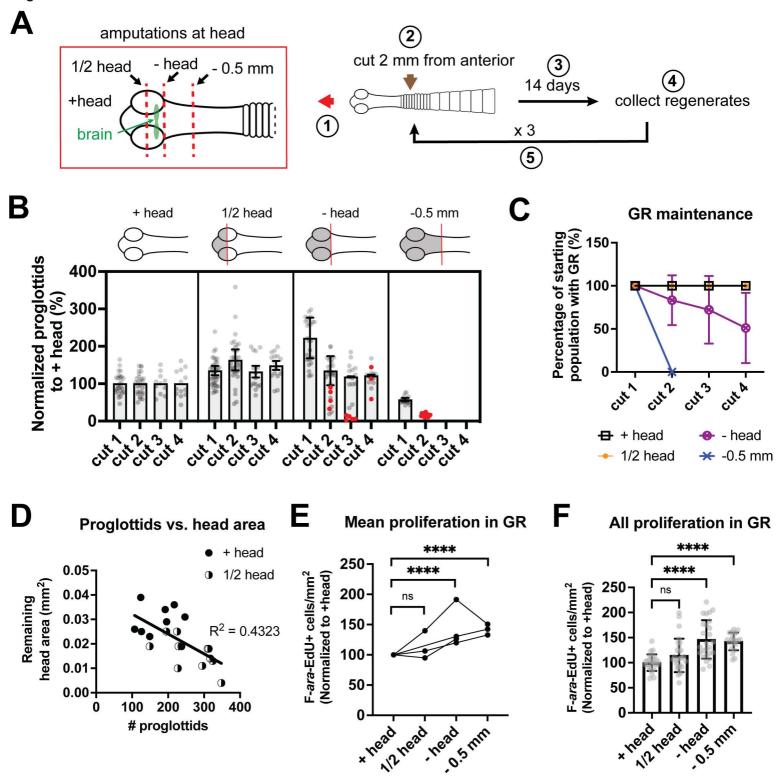
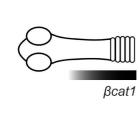
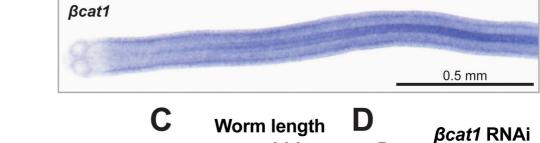


Figure 5

A

B





ns \*\*\*

RNAi:

GFP

Bcat1

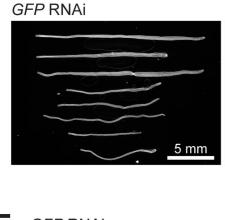
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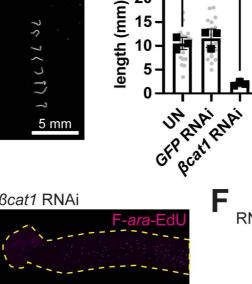
Bcat1

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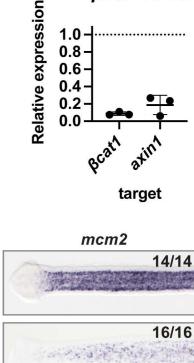
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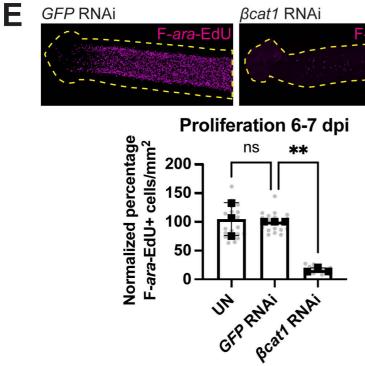
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βcat1 RNAi





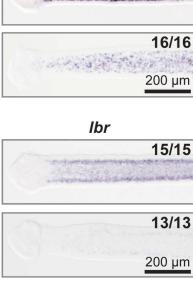
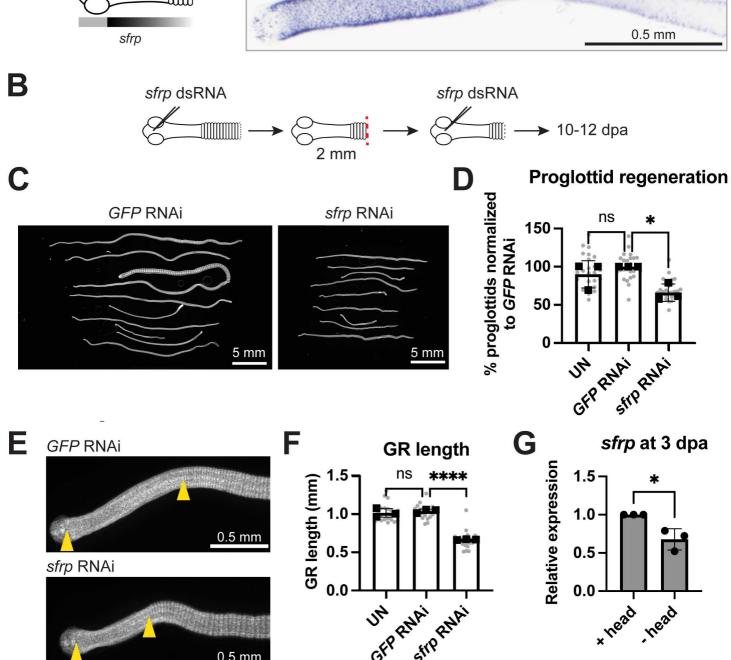


Figure 6 A sfrp 0.5 mm sfrp B sfrp dsRNA sfrp dsRNA



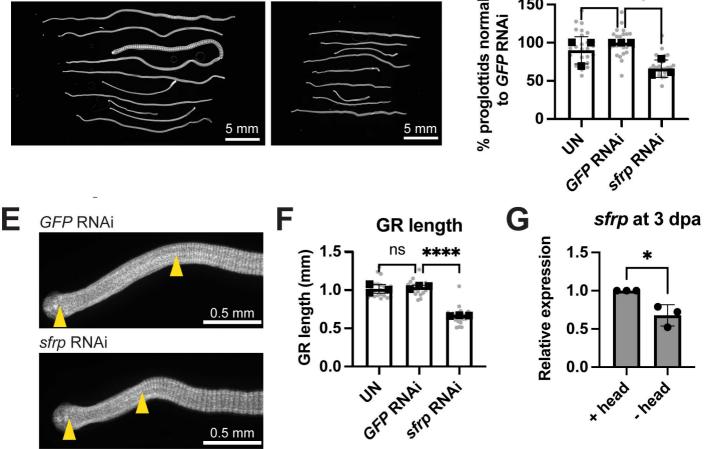
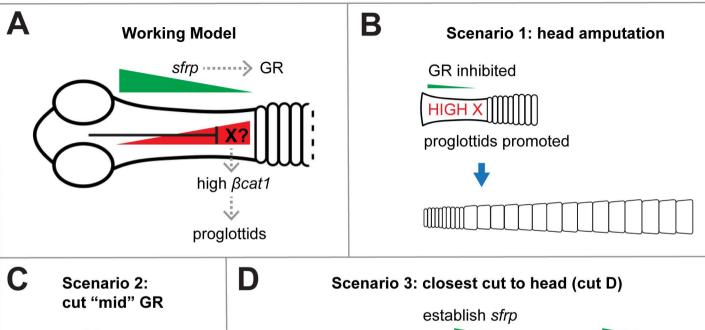
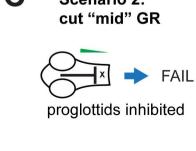


Figure 8





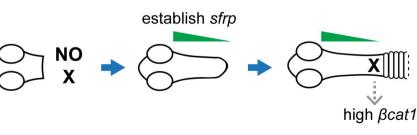
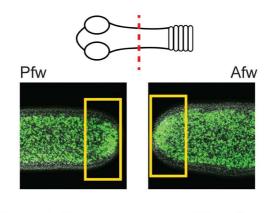
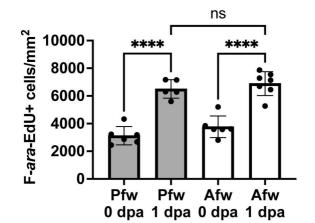
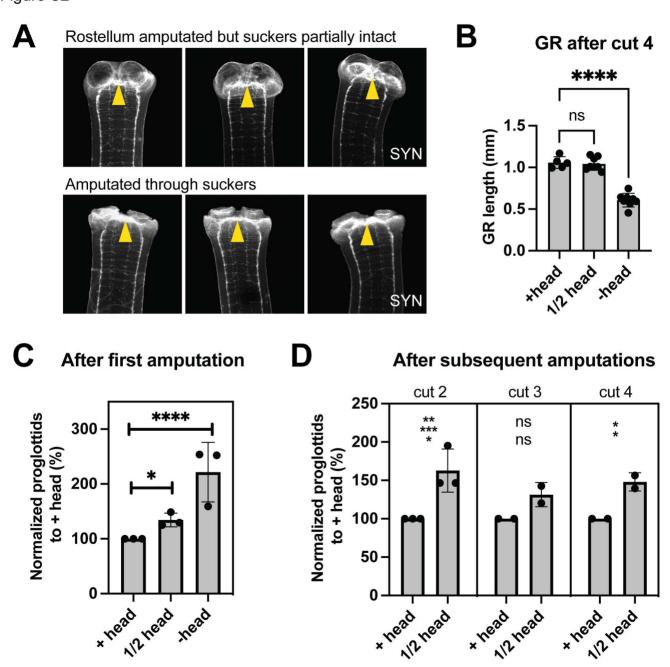


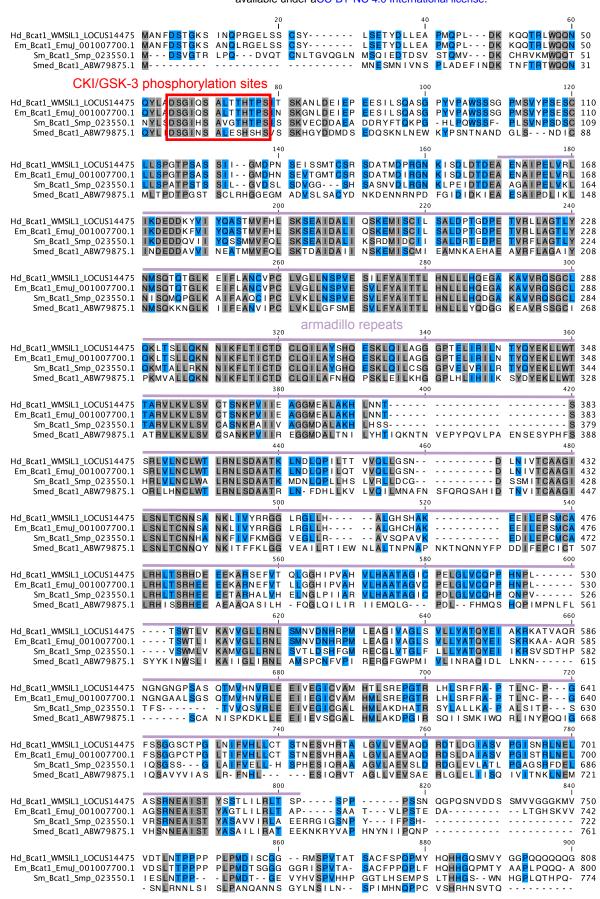
Figure S1

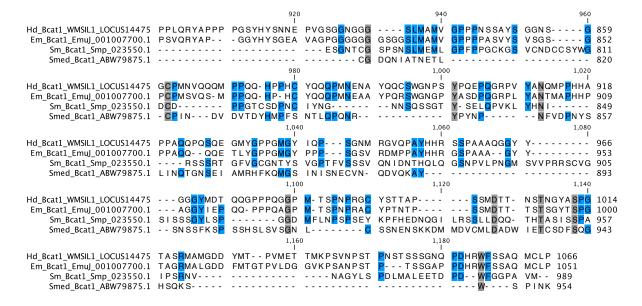


## Amputation induced proliferation











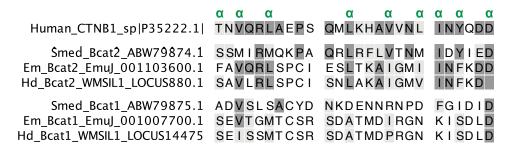


Figure S4

