Canonical Wnt signaling Is Involved in Anterior Regeneration of the Annelid *Aeolosoma viride*

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Abstract

Annelids are regenerative animals, but the underlying mechanisms await to be discovered. Because Wnt pathway is involved in animal regeneration to varying extents, we used *Aeolosoma viride* to interrogate whether and how this pathway plays a role in annelid anterior regeneration. We found that the expression of *wnt4*, *β-catenin* and nuclear-localized β-catenin protein were up-regulated during blastemal formation and down-regulated as anterior structures gradually reformed. Consistent with potential Wnt activities in the blastema, treatments with either Wnt pathway activator (azakenpaullone) or inhibitor (XAV939) inhibited head regeneration, which further supports a role of Wnt pathway during anterior regeneration. Detailed tissue-level examines demonstrated that wound closure and blastemal cell proliferation were impaired by over-activating the pathway, and that neuronal and musculature differentiation were affected under Wnt inhibition. Combined, gene expression and chemical inhibitor data suggest the presence of dynamic Wnt activities at different anterior regeneration stages: an initial low activity may be required for wound closure, and the following activation may signal blastemal formation and cell differentiation. In a nutshell, we propose that the canonical Wnt signaling regulates blastemal cellular responses during annelid regeneration.

Introduction

Among regeneration models, researches from hydra and planarian have uncovered many

cellular and molecular mechanisms (King & Newmark, 2012; E. M. Tanaka & Reddien, 2011). To

gain more perspectives into animal regeneration and to relate to broader evolutionary

implications, researches in other emerging models are indispensable. Annelids are known for

regeneration capabilities and some underlying mechanisms are evolutionarily shared with other

animals. For example, similar to the neoblasts of planarian (King & Newmark, 2012; E. M.

Tanaka & Reddien, 2011), *Enchytraeus japonensis* and *Pristina leidyi* maintain stem cells in

every segment for regeneration (Myohara, 2012; Yoshida-Noro & Tochinai, 2010; Zattara,

Turlington, & Bely, 2016). Proliferative stem cells of planarian and *Eisenia foetida* express

pluripotent factors, such as *oct4*, *nanog* and *sox2* (Onal et al., 2012; Zheng, Shao, Diao, Li, &

Han, 2016). Consistent with the requirement of innervation for vertebrate limb regeneration

(Bryant, Endo, & Gardiner, 2002), diverted neuron fiber induces ectopic axis in *Eisenia* annelids

(Bely, 2014). However, whether any molecular mechanism regulates annelid regeneration is not

clear yet (Bely, 2014).

Canonical Wnt signaling pathway (i.e. the Wnt/β-catenin pathway) plays major roles in various

regenerative models. In hydra, injury induced apoptosis triggers the secretion of wnt3 from

dying cells and activates the oral pole regeneration (Chera et al., 2009). Knocking-down Wnt

pathway genes affect the anterior-posterior axial registration during planarian regeneration

(Augustin et al., 2006; Broun, Gee, Reinhardt, & Bode, 2005; Gurley, Rink, & Alvarado, 2008;

Iglesias, Gomez-Skarmeta, Saló, & Adell, 2008; King & Newmark, 2012; Lengfeld et al., 2009;

Petersen & Reddien, 2008; E. Tanaka & Weidinger, 2008). Additionally, activating Wnt signaling

enhances fin and limb regeneration in zebrafish and axolotl (Kawakami et al., 2006; Yokoyama,

Ogino, Stoick-Cooper, Grainger, & Moon, 2007). In *Xenopus laevis,* activation of Wnt pathway

rejuvenates the regenerative ability of aged limbs (Yokoyama et al., 2007). Therefore, Wnt

pathway is likely to regulate regeneration in other models.

Here, we used an emerging annelid regeneration model *Aeolosoma viride* to interrogate the

involvement of canonical Wnt pathway in annelid regeneration (C.-P. Chen et al., 2020). *A.*

viride belongs to Aeolosomaitidae, Annelida, and is phylogenetically classified as "clitellate-like

polychaetes" by morphological or molecular evidences (Hessling & Purschke, 2000; Zrzavý, Říha,

Piálek, & Janouškovec, 2009). *A. viride* is a freshwater annelid, typically ranges 2-3 mm in length

and 0.1-0.2 mm in width with brown spots scatter on its semitransparent epithelium. In lab

conditions, *A. viride* only reproduce asexually by adding posterior segments, and the progeny

detaches from the parent worm via paratomic fission (Falconi, Gugnali, & Zaccanti, 2015).

Taking the advantage of its semitransparent appearance, we are able to directly observe its

internal organs, such as horseshoe-shaped mouth and the digestive tract (Fig. 1A). In our

preliminary tests, we found *A. viride* can robustly regenerate anterior segments in 5 days (C.-P.

Chen et al., 2020). The posterior-most pygidium segment is hardly distinguishable from

posterior wounds, resulting in biased assessment to successful regeneration. Therefore, we

focused on anterior regeneration here.

In this report, we first showed transcriptional activation of *wnt4* and *β-catenin* during

regeneration. Then, to assay Wnt pathway activity, we labeled nuclear localized β-catenin

protein by immunohistochemistry. We found blastemal formation was accompanied with

increasing levels of nuclear β-catenin between 12-24 HPA, which was followed by dropping

levels of nuclear β-catenin when anterior structures gradually reformed. To functionally

interrogate the pathway, we treated the worms with chemical inhibitors and found that both

activating and inhibiting the pathway impaired regeneration. Further short-term treatments

demonstrated that the chemical activator blocked wound closure and blastema formation;

while the inhibitor affected neuron and muscle regeneration in the blastema. Lastly, we labeled

proliferating cells and found that cell proliferation in wound tissue was inhibited when over-

activating Wnt pathway. The dynamic changes of nuclear β-catenin level and discrete cellular

responses under inhibitor treatments suggest that wound closure, blastemal formation and cell

differentiation depends on mild activation of endogenous Wnt pathway. Tilting the balanced

pathway activity to either extremity impaired complete tissue regeneration.

Results

Wnt pathway is activated in the regenerating blastema

To investigate whether Wnt pathway is involved in regeneration, we first tested the

spatiotemporal expression patterns of *wnt4, wnt8* and *β-catenin* by whole-mount *in situ*

hybridization (WMISH, Fig. 1). Upon amputation, the cutting plane was immediately covered by

wnt4 expressing epithelial cells (Fig. 1C). Then the epithelial *wnt4* signal diminished from the

first hour-post-amputation (HPA) to 6 HPA before the gene was activated again at the wound

from 12 HPA (Fig. 1D-F). The *wnt4* signal persisted in blastema until head structures completely

reformed at 120 HPA (Fig. 1K). On the contrary, we did not detect significant up-regulation of

wnt8 throughout the repairing process (Fig. 1M-U'), suggesting preferential Wnt ligand

activation during regeneration. *β-catenin* was activated from 24 HPA through 72 HPA and

diminished when nascent head structures became recognizable at 96 HPA (Fig. 1DD).

Additionally, we observed *wnt4* and *β-catenin* expression at the posterior 1/4th segment of

intact worms (Fig. 1B and V) where asexual fission occurs and EdU labeled proliferating cells are

enriched (C.-P. Chen et al., 2020; Falconi et al., 2015) The expression of *wnt4* and *β-catenin* at

this domain suggest that these genes may regulate the development of posterior growth zone,

like other multipotent genes, such as *piwi*, *vasa* and *nanos* in other annelids (Gazave et al., 2013;

Kozin & Kostyuchenko, 2015; Zheng et al., 2016).

In most studied models, active Wnt signaling cascade stabilizes cytoplasmic pool of β-catenin

protein, which then translocate and accumulate in the nuclei and mediate downstream gene

transcription (Clevers & Nusse, 2012). We labeled β-catenin protein by immunohistochemistry

to evaluate the pathway activity during regeneration (Fig. 2). Combining with nuclear staining,

we found β-catenin localized in the nuclei of regenerating blastema (Fig. 2A-D). Because

nascent blastema was hardly distinguishable during early wound closure, we quantified the

ratio of β-catenin-enriched (β-catenin$^+$) nuclei to the blastemal nuclei from 12 HPA (Fig. 2R). We

found that when the proliferating blastema gradually became distinguishable from wound

epithelium between 12 to 24 HPA, the ratio of β-catenin$^+$ nuclei increased. Then the ratio of β-

catenin$^+$ nuclei decreased as head regeneration completed. Combined with ISH data, we

proposed that Wnt signaling is activated in the proliferating blastema from 12 HPA and is

gradually silenced until regeneration completes at 120 HPA.

Perturbing Wnt pathway inhibited *A. viride* regeneration

We next asked whether tuning Wnt pathway can modulate *A. viride* regeneration or not. To

further test the role of Wnt signaling in *A. viride* regeneration, we incubated amputated worms

in chemical activators: Wnt Agonist, Alsterpaullone (a GSK-3β inhibitor) and 1-azakenpaullone

(Azkp, a GSK-3β inhibitor) or inhibitor: XAV939 (XAV, a tankyrase inhibitor and, in turn stabilizes

axin Broun et al., 2005; Huang et al., 2009; Kunick, Lauenroth, Leost, Meijer, & Lemcke, 2004).

Since endogenous Wnt pathway was activated during blastemal initiation, we expected

chemically activating Wnt pathway may enhance blastemal proliferation. However, to our

surprise, these compounds inhibited *A. viride* regeneration in dose-dependent manners (Fig.

3A-D). For consistency, we applied 0.25 μM Azkp or 5 μM XAV in the following experiments. We

found smaller blastema of Azkp treated worms, suggesting over-activating Wnt pathway may

inhibit blastema formation (Fig. 3H-J). On the other hand, XAV did not affect blastema

formation (Fig. 3K-M), but worms did not regenerate prostomium (Fig. 3G, M).

Additionally, we validated the inhibitor effects by assaying the nuclear β-catenin level in Azkp or

XAV treated blastema (Fig. 2I-R). As expected, Azkp resulted in more nuclear localized β-catenin,

whereas XAV treated blastema showed less nuclear β-catenin than control at 24 and 48 HPA,

demonstrating the efficacy of these inhibitors.

In the above assays, we applied treatments throughout regeneration and found both Wnt

pathway activator and inhibitor impaired regeneration. From nuclear β-catenin level of control

worms, we found dynamic Wnt activities during regeneration. We hypothesized that different

Wnt pathway activities may be required at different regeneration stages. To test the hypothesis,

we applied 24H pulse of Azkp or XAV for detailed temporal examinations (Fig. 3N-O). We found

treatments of Azkp and XAV before 72 HPA resulted in greater incidences of defective

regeneration, suggesting the activity of Wnt pathway is required during early regeneration

stages. However, the two treatments showed different effective time windows: 0-24 HPA

amputees were sensitive to Azkp, while 24-48 HPA amputees were sensitive to XAV. Combining

nuclear β-catenin data with 24H pulse treatments, we propose that wound tissue may require

low Wnt pathway activities during initial 0-24 HPA and then high activities between 24-48 HPA.

Perturbing Wnt pathway impaired neuron and muscle regeneration

Our key criteria for assaying anterior regeneration of *A. viride* are the reformation of head

structures (the prostomium, the horseshoe-shaped mouth in the peristomium, Fig. 1) and free

gliding behavior on substrates. Since the majority of Azkp and XAV treated amputees failed to

meet these criteria, we asked whether the neuron or muscle regeneration is impaired. We first

examined the underlying innervation by immunolabeling acetylated α-tubulin (Fig. 4). After five

days of regeneration, control *A. viride* recovered anterior neuron connections between the

neuropils and the ventral nerve cords through the circumesophageal commissures, as well as

dorsal-anterior sensory organs of the prostomium (Fig. 4A, D; Hessling & Purschke, 2000). Azkp

treated worms failed to regenerate prostomium, and the ventral nerve cords of the remaining

tissue showed degeneration and did not extend anteriorly to form circumesophageal

commissures or neuropils (Fig. 4E, H). The XAV treated worms showed partial recovery of the

neuron connection from the ventral nerve cords to the neuropil through the circumesophageal

commissures (Fig. 4I, L). However, the prostomium and the innervation from neuropil to the

dorsal-anterior sensory organs were missing, which may be the main reason for the failure of

behavioral recovery.

The rhomboid shape-arrayed muscle net underlying the intact prostomium supports its flat

shape and multi-directional movements (Fig. 4B). Such specialized musculature of prostomium

can be distinguished from the rest of body segments, which is composed by the perpendicular-

arrayed longitudinal and circular muscles. In addition to the observed neuronal regeneration

defects, both Azkp- and XAV-treated worms did not regenerate the characteristic prostomium

musculature (Fig. 4F, J), which further supported the observed regeneration defects from

morphology and behavior.

Over-activating Wnt signaling by Azkp resulted in blastemal cell proliferation defects

From our previous report, we observed that wound blastema increased in size and showed the

most cell proliferation between 24 and 48 HPA (Fig. 3E-G; C.-P. Chen et al., 2020). At the same

stages, Azkp treated wound blastema did not show comparable size change like control or XAV

treated worms (Fig. 3E-M). Despite Azkp and XAV treatments both inhibited anterior

regeneration, subtle differential cellular responses to Wnt activity perturbation may exist.

Because the blastema of Azkp treated wounds were smaller, we hypothesized that cell

proliferation can be impaired in these worms. We first examined cumulative cell proliferation

by 5-ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine (EdU) pulse between 24 and 48 HPA (Fig. 5B, G, L). EdU$^+$ cells at

the blastema were less condensed in Azkp treated worms than in control and XAV, suggesting

that over-activating Wnt compromised blastemal cell proliferation and resulted in smaller

blastema. Additionally, we observed that the EdU$^+$ cells were ectopically enriched in the 2nd

segment of Azkp treated worms (Fig. 5G). From single z section images, we found the secondary

EdU$^+$ cell domain located at the anterior tip of the midgut (Fig. 5J), which was observed to

lesser extents in control and XAV treated worms (Fig. 5E, O-P).

Additionally, we also labeled proliferating cells at 48 HPA by anti-phospho-histone 3 antibody

(H3P, Fig. 5C, H, M). By quantifying the H3P$^+$ cells, we found the number of proliferating cells

was significantly lower in the Azkp treated blastema than control and XAV treatments (Control:

55±33.4; Azkp: 18.8±8.2; XAV: 59.2±30.7; *p* of Control-Azkp = 0.01; *p* of Control-XAV = 0.89; *p* of

Azkp-XAV = 0.001; Mann-Whitney U-test). Combining EdU and H3P assays, Azkp-induced

blastemal formation defects can be attributed to lacking proliferation at blastema and mis-

regulation of proliferating domain at the 2nd segment.

Discussion

In this report, we interrogated the involvement of Wnt pathway in *A. viride* anterior

regeneration. Wnt pathway activities were dynamic during regeneration, with the highest

activity at 24 HPA when the wound blastema was actively proliferating. Long term incubation

with either chemical inhibitor or activator of Wnt pathway impaired regeneration. Further

temporal experiments suggested the requirements for the relatively low Wnt activity between

0-24 HPA and high activity between 24-48 HPA. Examinations of innervation, musculature and

cell proliferation revealed the underlying cellular responses under treatments. By integrating

current observations, we provide the following reasonings about how Wnt pathway is involved

in *A. viride* regeneration.

A. viride regeneration depends on dynamic Wnt signaling activities

The dynamic nuclear β-catenin levels suggest Wnt pathway activity varies through stages of *A.*

viride regeneration. Thus, long-term treatments by either Azkp or XAV may counteract against

endogenous Wnt activities at different stages and result in the ultimate regeneration failure.

Then, we further narrowed the treatment into 24H pulses. We found that the two chemical

inhibitors were effective before 72 HPA when normal wound tissue repaired through wound

closure, blastemal formation and partial differentiation stages. Immediately after amputation,

we observed that the wound was covered by nearby *wnt4* expressing epithelium, and then

wnt4 expression was down-regulated from 1 HPA until being activated again at the blastema

from 12 HPA. Downregulation of *wnt4* at the wound site suggests that the wnt4-mediated Wnt

signaling was silenced during wound healing. Therefore, Azkp treatment at this stage may

counteract the Wnt inactivation as well as compromise the following blastemal cell

proliferations. Alternatively, over-activating Wnt pathway may override endogenous activation

between 12-24 HPA and turn the tissue into non-permissive conditions for regeneration. Then,

XAV inhibited regeneration during 24-48 HPA when the most β-catenin accumulated in the

nuclei. Although blastemal proliferation was not affected by XAV, the underlying innervation

and prostomium musculature could not completely recover. Because the appearance of neuron

and muscle cells are signatures of blastemal cell differentiation from nascent stem cells, we

propose that the endogenous Wnt activation at 24 HPA can be required for blastemal cell

differentiation.

Collectively, as summarized in Fig. 6, our data suggest that the progression of regeneration is

dependent on different Wnt activities: wound closure and initial repairing occur under low Wnt

activity (0-24 HPA); high Wnt activity initiates blastemal proliferation (24 HPA); blastemal

differentiation requires median Wnt activity (24-48 HPA); continued completion of

regeneration after 72 HPA is inert to exogenous Wnt activity modulators.

Wnt signaling may not regulate anterior-posterior identity of regenerating *A. viride*

Wnt pathway is indispensable for defining axis during embryogenesis and regeneration of many

animal models (Broun et al., 2005; Chera et al., 2009; Gurley et al., 2008; Iglesias et al., 2008;

Leclère, Bause, Sinigaglia, Steger, & Rentzsch, 2016; Lengfeld et al., 2009; Petersen & Reddien,

2008; E. Tanaka & Weidinger, 2008). In planarian, activating Wnt pathway promotes posterior

regeneration at the anterior wound; while inhibiting the pathway induces head formation at

the posterior wound (Iglesias et al., 2008; Petersen & Reddien, 2008). If axial patterning of Wnt

pathway is evolutionarily conserved in *A. viride*, we anticipated that anterior regeneration

would be enhanced when we inhibited the pathway, and that posterior regeneration would be

enhanced when we over-activated the pathway. However, our current data and methods do

not support such hypothesis, i.e. XAV did not enhance anterior regeneration. Additionally, we

did not observe ectopic head regeneration from the posterior wounds from our preliminary

XAV treatments. Prostomium and anterior neuronal regeneration were inhibited by XAV

treatments, suggesting other side effects existed. On the other hand, anterior regeneration was

inhibited when the pathway was over-activated by Azkp, but we could not confidently claim

that these Azkp treated wounds were transformed to posterior identity for lacking axial

markers. Therefore, labeling anterior-posterior molecular markers will be the future direction

for testing whether Wnt pathway regulates the axial identity of regenerating *A. viride*.

GSK-3β activity is required for *A. viride* neuronal regeneration and maintenance

Innervation to the regenerating tissues can be necessary and sufficient for complete

regeneration in many systems (A. Kumar & Brockes, 2012). For example, bisected salamander

limbs cannot regenerate if the remaining neuron is removed (A. Kumar & Brockes, 2012);

ectopic neuron growth initiates ectopic blastemal formation in annelids (Bely, 2014). In

planarian, β-catenin-1 localizes in the nuclei of brain and ventral nerve cords and is required for

brain patterning during regeneration (Hill & Petersen, 2015; Sureda-Gómez, Martín-Durán, &

Adell, 2016). Azkp treatment results in neuronal regeneration defects in planarian, such as

smaller cephalic ganglia and ectopically projected visual axons (Adell, Marsal, & Saló, 2008).

Consistent with this idea, the Azkp treated *A. viride* did not regenerate neurons and showed

degenerating ventral nerve cords, suggesting the requirement of GSK-3β in neuronal

regeneration and maintenance. On top of that, planarian neuron regeneration is required for

blastemal morphogenesis (Adell et al., 2008). In *A. viride*, the blastemal cell proliferation and

innervation were both impaired when GSK-3β was inhibited by Azkp, suggesting a linkage

between neuron regeneration and blastema formation. If neuron is generally required for

regeneration in diverse animal models, then it is likely that *A. viride* blastema formation can be

also regulated by innervation, which possibly requires active GSK-3β. However, the epistatic or

mutual regulation of innervation and blastema formation in *A. viride* is not clear yet and

warrants further investigations.

In summary, we demonstrated that proper regulation of Wnt signaling activities is required for

different stages of *A. viride* anterior regeneration. As an echo to other regeneration models, our

data further generalize the involvement of Wnt signaling to regeneration in an evolutionarily

conserved perspective. In the future, more sophisticate approaches, such as CRISPR/Cas9

mutagenesis, will provide detailed molecular mechanisms of annelid regeneration as well as

comparative regeneration biology in a broader context.

Materials and methods

Animal husbandry

Animal husbandry followed Chen et al. 2020. The whole culturing colony was asexually

descended from one single worm to avoid genetic differences.

Amputation

Before anterior amputation, *A. viride* was first bisected between the midgut and hindgut

junction (Fig. 1A). By this method, we aimed to synchronize the posterior segments and to

prevent any proliferating progeny interfering with assessing successful regeneration (C.-F. Chen,

Sung, Chen, & Chen, 2018). During synchronization, *A. viride* was cultured in ASW at 25°C

without feeding. The pygidium recovered in three days. Then, the anterior segments were

amputated between the foregut and midgut junction (Fig. 1A).

By 144 hour-post-amputation (HPA), successful anterior regeneration was assessed by the

following criteria: **1**) muscle contraction in prostomium and peristomium, **2**) appearance of

horseshoe-shaped mouth (Fig. 1A); **3**) voluntary gliding behavior on substrates. Regeneration

rates were assayed by averaging the proportion of successful regeneration worms form at least

3 biological replicates. Each replicate was started from >10 worms at 0 HPA.

Isolation of *A. viride wnt4*, *wnt8*, and *β-catenin* sequences

Total RNA of *A. viride* was purified from intact worms by TRIzol (Thermo Fisher Scientific;

Waltham, MA) following manufacturer's instructions. Then, the cDNA library was reverse-

transcribed by SuperScriptIII Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with oligo dT as

the first strand primer. Using cDNA library as template and degenerated primers (Table 1), we

amplified target fragments by PCR, cloned the fragments into T&A^{TM} vector (Yeastern Biotech

Co., Taiwan), and sequenced the insert fragment.

For 3' Rapid Amplification of cDNA Ends (3' RACE), the cDNA library was primed by 3' end

anchor primer (3' AP, Table 2). Then gene specific internal primers and 3' AP head primer were

used for nested PCR (Table S2). The amplified products were cloned into T&A^{TM} vector and

sequenced.

To amplify the 5' end sequence, we performed 5' RACE by reverse transcribing the first strand

cDNA by gene specific primer (Table 2). Then multiple deoxycytidines were added to the 3' end

of cDNA by terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase (ThermoFisher). The gene specific primers

and universal 5' end anchor primer (5' AP, Table 2) were used to amplify the 5' end sequence.

Secondary nested PCR with 5' AP head primer (Table 2) was used to further amplify the specific

sequence, which is followed by cloning and sequencing as described above.

Gene homology analysis

Thirteen subfamilies of Wnt homologues proteins were previously identified in

Lophotrochozoan genomes (Cho, Vallès, Giani, Seaver, & Weisblat, 2010; Prud'homme, Lartillot,

Balavoine, Adoutte, & Vervoort, 2002). To test the homology of *A. viride wnt* genes, we first

used SMART protein analysis (http://smart.embl.de/) to identify the WNT domain of

Lophotrochozaon Wnt genes and aligned them by the default parameter of MUSCLE of MEGA7

program (S. Kumar, Stecher, & Tamura, 2016). Then, the phylogenetic relationship of wnts were

resolved by Neighbor-joining method by p-distance model with 10,000 bootstrap repeats

clustering *A. viride wnt4* and *wnt8* within the corresponding subfamilies (Fig. 7).

The cloned β-catenin protein encodes 12 characteristic armadillo domains (ARM) by SMART

analysis. The amino acid sequence of β-catenin showed higher similarity to *β-catenin* than *α-*

catenin or *γ-catenin* homologs by NCBI protein BLAST, confirming the sequence identity as *Av-*

β-catenin.

Chemical inhibitor treatments

Anterior amputated *A. viride* were washed with treatment solutions four times before

incubating either through whole regeneration process (Fig. 3A-D) or at 24H intervals (Fig. 3N-O).

1-Azakenpaulone (Azkp; MilliporeSigma, Burlington, MA), XAV939 (XAV, MilliporeSigma),

Alsterpaullone (MilliporeSigma), Wnt Agonist (MilliporeSigma) were dissolved in dimethyl

sulfoxide (DMSO) as stock solutions, and then diluted in artificial spring water (ASW) as working

solutions at designed concentrations. Control solution was prepared with comparable

concentrations of DMSO in ASW.

Whole-mount Immunofluorescence (WMIF)

Worms were anesthetized by menthol saturated ASW, and then fixed with 4% PFA-ASW

overnight at 4°C. Then the samples were washed 5 times with phosphate buffered saline (PBS,

pH=7.4) containing 0.1% Triton X-100 (PBST). After washing, the fixed worms were rinsed with

100% methanol 3 times at RT and stored at -20°C until proceeded to immunohistochemistry.

To begin immunohistochemistry, the samples were re-hydrated through series of 66% and 33%

methanol in PBST washes and additional washes in PBST for 5 times. Then, the samples were

treated with 5 μg/mL protease K solution at RT for 5 minutes, followed by incubation in 2

mg/mL glycine for 5 minutes and post-fixation with 4% PFA-PBST at RT for 1 hour. After post-

fixation, the samples were washed 3 times with PBST, and immersed in the blocking solution

(PBST with 3% bovine serum albumin and 5% Goat serum) for up to 1 hour at RT. Primary

antibody incubation: Rabbit-anti-β-catenin antibody (in 1:800 dilution; MilliporeSigma, C2206),

Rabbit-anti-H3P antibody (in 1:1000 dilution; MilliporeSigma, 06-570) or Mouse-anti-acetylated

α-tubulin (in 1:1000 dilution; MilliporeSigma, T7451) was applied overnight at 4°C with blocking

solution as diluent. After 6 times washing with PBST, samples were incubated in fluorophore

conjugated Goat anti-Rabbit antibody or Goat anti-Mouse antibody (in 1:400 dilution; Thermo

Fisher Scientific) for 2 hours at RT with blocking solution as diluent. F-Actin staining was

performed on no methanol treated samples as follows: After 1 hour blocking by 1% BSA-PBST at

RT, we incubated samples in BODIPY® FL Phallacidin (1:40 dilution in blocking buffer, Thermo

Fisher Scientific) at RT for 1 hour. The nuclei were counter-stained with 1 μg/mL DAPI-PBST for

20 minutes at RT. After 4 times washes by PBST, the samples were immersed and cleared in

80% glycerol-PBS with 0.1% NaN$_3$ before mounting on slides.

Whole-mount *in situ* hybridization (WMISH)

DNA templates of riboprobes were amplified by gene specific primers (Table 3) and cloned into

T&A^{TM} vector. After confirming the desired orientations by sequencing, we linearized the

plasmids as templates for DIG-labeled riboprobes synthesis by T7 polymerase (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) with DIG RNA labeling mix (MilliporeSigma).

The WMISH protocol was adopted from zebrafish WMISH protocol (Thisse & Thisse, 2008).

Sample preparation was similar to WMIF, but PBS with 0.1% Tween-20 (PBSTw) was used

instead of PBST. Pre-hybridization was performed in HYB$^-$ buffer (50% formamide, 5X SSC, and

0.1% Tween-20 in DEPC-treated H$_2$O) at 65 °C for 1 hour. The riboprobes were diluted at 1

ng/μL in HYB$^+$ buffer (HYB$^-$ buffer with 50 μg/mL Heparin and 0.5 mg/μL yeast tRNA;

MilliporeSigma). Hybridization was performed at 65 °C overnight. Then samples were washed at

65 °C by serial dilutions of HYB$^-$ and 2X SSCTw (2X SSC with 0.1% Tween-20) from 2:1 to 1:2 ratio,

one 2X SSCTw wash, two 0.2X SSCTw (0.2X SSC with 0.1% Tween-20) washes, and another serial

dilution of 0.2X SSCTw and PBSTw from 2:1 to 1:2 ratio. The samples were washed once by

PBSTw at RT and immersed in blocking solution (5% BSA in PBSTw) at 4 °C overnight. The

samples were then incubated in 1:10,000 diluted anti-DIG-AP antibody (MilliporeSigma) in

blocking buffer at 4 °C overnight. Then samples were washed 10 times with PBSTw and 3 times

with AP buffer (0.1 M Tris-Cl, 0.05 M MgCl$_2$, 0.1 M NaCl and 0.1% Tween-20 in DEPC-treated

H$_2$O). NBT and BCIP were added in AP buffer for colorimetric reaction at 4 °C overnight. Finally,

the reaction was stopped by 5 times PBSTw washes and once 100% methanol wash before

immersing in 80% glycerol-PBS for mounting.

EdU labeling

Regenerating *A. viride* were incubated in 100 μM 5-ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine (EdU; Thermo

Fisher Scientific) diluted in ASW from 24 to 48 HPA, when blastemal cells showed the most

proliferation (C.-P. Chen et al., 2020). Then, worms were anesthetized and fixed as WMIF

method. After protease K treatment and re-fixation, Click-iT® reaction was performed as

manufacturer's instruction (Click-iT® EdU Imaging Kits, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Experiments

validated the specificity of EdU is shown in Fig. 8.

Microscopy

Images of regenerating worms and *in situ* hybridization were taken by Stereo Investigator (MBF

Bioscience), Zeiss Axio Observer Z1 or Zeiss Axio Imager A1 microscope with a Zeiss AxioCam

MRc CCD camera. Fluorescent specimens were imaged by Leica TCS SP5 confocal laser scanning

microscope. Contrasts of images were adjusted as the corresponding control images by ImageJ.

Figures were prepared by Illustrator CC (Adobe).

Image quantification

β-catenin[+] and H3P[+] nuclei were manually quantified through z-stacks of regenerating blastema

by Fiji: in brief, the images were pre-processed by "Subtract Background", "Median" and the

nuclei were quantified by "3D Maxima Finder" (Boudier et al., 2013). EdU[+] nuclei quantification

was performed according to Cai et. al, 2009 with minor modifications (Cai, Vallis, & Reilly, 2009):

analysis of particles was set > 12 μm^2 corresponding to the cell size and covered the entire z

stack range of images.

Statistic analysis

Difference of successful regeneration rates were tested by Cochran Q test and McNemar

change test. The ratio of β-catenin$^+$ nuclei was analyzed by two-tailed t-test, assuming equal

variances. Parametric unpaired t-test between treatments was performed for comparing the

ratio of EdU$^+$ nuclei in blastema to 2nd segment with log-transformation. The number of H3P$^+$

nuclei in the blastema was assayed by Mann-Whitney U-test. p values less than 0.05 were

considered statistically significant.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

All experimental treatments on *A. viride* were approved by the Environmental Protection and

Occupational Safety and Health Center, National Taiwan University.

Availability of data and material

All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article, or

available upon reasonable request from the corresponding author.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests

Authors' contributions

CYC, WTY and JHC prepared the manuscript. CYC and WTY design and perform the experiments

and analyzed the data. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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 Figures

Fig. 1. Regenerating wounds show *wnt4* and *β-catenin* activation during blastemal cell

proliferation. (**A**) Dorsal view of an intact worm. Double arrow line indicates posterior

synchronizing cutting plane between midgut and hindgut junction. Dotted line indicates the

anterior amputation plane between foregut and midgut junction. (**C**-**K'**) *wnt4* expression

pattern during regeneration. Epithelial *wnt4* signal decreased within the first 6 HPA (**C**-**E**),

followed by activation in the blastema between 24-96 HPA (**G-J**). (**M**-**U'**) *wnt8* expression in the

blastema was indistinguishable from background signals. (**W**-**EE'**) *β-catenin* expression pattern

during regeneration. *β-catenin* was activated in the blastema between 24-72 HPA (**AA**-**CC**). In

intact worms, *wnt4* and *β-catenin* could be detected at the posterior proliferating segments of

intact worms (arrows of **B** and **V**). Ratio at the lower right corner indicates specimens showing

the corresponding expression patterns. Scale bar in **A** = 100 μm.

Fig. 2. Nuclear β-catenin suggests Wnt pathway activation during blastemal proliferation at

24 HPA. (A-D) Ventral view of 24 HPA blastema shows β-catenin protein (*magenta*)

accumulated in some nuclei (*green*) as indicated by arrowheads. Some non-specific signals were

also detected on the epithelium (arrows). (**B-D**) Higher magnification of the box region in **A**. (**E-**

P) Representative images of nuclear β-catenin at regeneration stages under control or inhibitor

treatments. (**Q**) Intact prostomium of β-catenin immunohistochemistry stain. (**R**) The ratio of β-

catenin$^+$ nuclei to total blastemal nuclei under different conditions. Control blastema showed

highest level of β-catenin$^+$ at 24 HPA. Azkp enhanced nuclear β-catenin level (*green* line), while

XAV down-regulated nuclear β-catenin level at 24 and 48 HPA (*red* line). **E-Q** are maximum

projections from ten serial focal planes. Error bars represent the standard deviation of the

mean from >3 worms. I.P. = Intact prostomium. Scale bar of **C** = 100 μm; **C'** = 10 μm. *Yellow*

dotted lines of **E-P** indicate the amputation plane. * denotes $p < 0.05$ of *t*-test compared with

control at the corresponding time point.

Fig. 3. Over-activating and down-regulating Wnt pathway both inhibited regeneration. (**A**-**D**)

Exogenous Wnt pathway activators (Wnt agonist, Alsterpaullone and Azakenpaullone), and

inhibitor (XAV939), inhibited regeneration in dose-dependent manners. (**E**-**M**) Lateral view of

regeneration stages under control, 0.25 μM Azkp or 5 μM XAV treatments. Azkp treated worms

showed smaller blastema (**H**-**J**). XAV939 did not affect blastema formation (**K**-**M**), but worms did

not regenerate prostomium (compare bracket regions of **G** and **M**). (**N**-**O**) Successful

regeneration rates under 24H pulses. Regeneration was significantly inhibited by 0.25 μM Azkp

treatment between 0-24 HPA (**N**), and by 5 μM XAV treatment between 24-48 HPA XAV (**O**).

Anterior end is toward the left and dorsal to the top. Dotted lines indicate cutting planes. Scale

bar in **M** = 100 μm. All images are at the same scale. * denotes $p<0.05$. ** denotes $p<0.01$.

Fig. 4. Over-activating Wnt pathway inhibited neuron regeneration and maintenance. (A-D)

By 144 HPA, control worms showed recovered innervation (acetylated α-tubulin, *green*) with

neuropil in the prostomium (*white* arrows) connecting to the ventral nerve cord (*white*

arrowhead) by the circumesophageal commissures (*black* arrowhead). The neuropil extended

exons dorsal-anteriorly to the epithelial sensory cilia. Ventral prostomial ciliary field was also

enriched with acetylated α-tubulin (bracket of **A**). Rhomboid shape-arrayed muscle net (F-actin,

red) supported the flat prostomium (bracket region of **B**). The *white* dotted line in **D** delineates

the pygidium of the worm. (**E**-**H**) Azkp treated worms did not regenerate anterior innervations

from the degenerated ventral nerve cord (*white* arrowheads) and the prostomium (**F**). (**I**-**L**) XAV

treated worms regenerated anterior innervation where the neuropil (*white* arrows) and

circumesophageal commissures (*black* arrowheads) connect to the ventral nerve cords (*white*

arrowheads). However, these worms did not regenerate the prostomium (**J**). Asterisks indicate

metanephridia. Anterior of all amputees are toward the left. Figure **A**-**C**, **E**-**G**, and **I**-**K** are lateral

views with dorsal to the top. Figure **D** is dorsal view; **H** and **L** are ventral views. Scale bar in **L**

=100 μm. All images are at the same scale.

Fig. 5. Over-activating Wnt pathway impaired blastemal cell proliferation. (**A**-**O**) Proliferating

cells between 24 to 48 HPA are labeled by EdU (*magenta*) or anti-H3P antibody (*yellow*). The

nuclei are false-colored in *cyan*. Higher magnification views of *white* rectangle areas of **A**, **F** and

K are in the corresponding lower panels. In control and XAV treated worms, active proliferating

blastema showed condensed EdU signals (**B** and **L**); while Azkp treatment resulted in less EdU$^+$

nuclei at the wound site (arrow) and a second domain of proliferating cells in the 2nd segment

(arrowhead, **G**). (**J**) Single z section image shows that the proliferating cells in the 2nd segment

were located at the front end of midgut. Anterior of all amputees are toward the left with

dorsal to the top. Black arrowheads in **E**, **J** and **O** delineate the blastema and the segment

boundary. (**P**) Ratio of EdU$^+$ nuclei between blastema and the following 2nd segment. Student *t*-

test comparison with control worms shows significant (p = 0.007) enrichment of EdU$^+$ nuclei at

the 2nd segment of Azkp treated blastema. Scale bar in **K** = 200 μm; **O** = 100 μm. **A**, **F** and **K** are

at the same scale. **B**-**E**, **G**-**J** and **L**-**O** are at the same scale.

Fig. 6. A proposed model of endogenous Wnt pathway activity during *A. viride* regeneration.

A rainbow pallet defines hypothesized blastemal Wnt activities. After amputation, wound

closure finishes in the first 6 HPA. Then blastema gradually enlarges at the wound site by cell

proliferation. By 72 HPA, blastemal tissue initiates occasional contraction, indicating neuron

and muscle cell differentiation. By 120 HPA, worms complete regeneration with a horseshoe-

shaped mouth and can freely glide on substrates.

Fig. 7. Neighbor-joining tree clusters *A. viride wnt* genes into the corresponding

Lophotrochozoan *wnt* subfamilies. *Av-wnt4* and *Av-wnt8* are indicated by arrows. Within the

10,000 replicates bootstrap tests, the percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa

clustered together are shown at the branches. Note that the nodes with bootstrap percentage

<50% are compressed. Species name abbreviations: *Av: Aeolosoma viride*; *Ct*: *Capitella teleta*;

Hr: *Helobdella robusta*; *Lg*: *Lottia gigantea*; *Pd*: *Platynereis dumerilii*.

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666 **Fig. 8. EdU incubation specifically labeled proliferating cells.** The regenerating worms were

667 incubated with or without EdU between 24-48 HPA. Without EdU, background signal appeared

668 only when the contrast of image was highly enhanced (**B'**).

671 **Table 1.** Degenerate primers initially used to clone Wnt pathway related genes.

Primer name	Sequence
wnt4-F1	CCDCGYGGRCAGCAAAGCA
wnt4-R1	ARTGCAARTGTCATGGHGTG
β-catenin-F1	GTGCGHCTGGCYGGHGGRYTGCA
β-catenin-R1	CRGCYRTVTGTGCTCTTCGTC

672 Code: M = A or C; B = C, G, or T; R = A or G; Y = C or T; V = A, C, or G; H = A, C, or T.

674 **Table 2.** Primers for 5' and 3' RACE. Note that *wnt4*-R2 and *β-catenin*-R2 were used as gene
675 specific primers for first strand cDNA synthesis during reverse transcription of 5' RACE.

Primer name	Sequence	Primer partner	Amplification target
3' AP	GGCCACGCGTCGACTAGTACTTTTTT TTTTTTTTTTTTT		
3' AP head	GGCCACGCGTCGACTAGTAC		
5' AP	GGCCACGCGTCGACTAGTACGGGG GGGGGGGGGGG		
5' AP head	GGCCACGCGTCGACTAGTAC		
wnt4-F2	TTCAAAGCGTTGGCACAAGACTGC	3' AP	*wnt4* cDNA and *wnt4* 3' RACE 1st nested PCR
wnt4-F3	TCAAGGCACACGTGACGTTCTACA	3' AP head	*wnt4* 3' RACE 2nd nested PCR
wnt4-R2	GGTGAAGGCACTAGGTACACTAG	5' AP	*wnt4* 5' RACE 1st nested PCR
wnt4-R3	TGTAGAACGTCACGT	5' AP head	*wnt4* 5' RACE 2nd nested PCR
wnt8-F1	GTGGACGAACACTGCGGCTGCA	3' AP	*wnt8* 3' RACE 1st nested PCR
wnt8-F2	GCGTTGCTCTCAGCCAACCGAA	3' AP head	*wnt8* 3' RACE 2nd nested PCR
β-catenin-F2	GATGCTGCTACTAAAGTGGATG	3' AP	*β-catenin* 3' RACE 1st nested PCR
β-catenin-F3	GCAAGAGGGTGCCACAGCTCC	3' AP	*β-catenin* 3' RACE 2nd nested PCR
β-catenin-F4	GACACCGTGGTACGACACGG	3' AP	*β-catenin* 3' RACE 3rd nested PCR
β-catenin-R2	GCCACCAGCTTCAACAACAGCAGG		*β-catenin* cDNA
β-catenin-R3	GTTCACCAGGACCTCCAGAAGCC	5' AP	*β-catenin* 5' RACE 1st nested PCR
β-catenin-R4	TAGCTTGCTTTCTTGGTTACC	5' AP head	*β-catenin* 5' RACE 2nd nested PCR

677 **Table 3.** Primers for synthesizing riboprobe templates.

Primer name	Sequence	Target product length (bp)
*wnt4*_ISH-F1	CATGTTGGAGAGCGCTGCC	792
*wnt4*_ISH-R1	CATGTGTATTCGTTGATGTGCAC	
*wnt8*_ISH-F1	CGGAGAGATGGTGAGTCGCCTT	934
*wnt8*_ISH-R1	TGTGCGGGCGTGCTTTGCGTAT	
*β-catenin*_ISH-F1	CGCAATGAAGGAGTTGCCAC	885
*β-catenin*_ISH-R1	TCGTCTACCATGTACACAGG	