Intestine-enriched *apolipoprotein b* orthologs regulate stem cell differentiation and regeneration in planarians

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Abstract

Little is known about how lipid mobilization and utilization are modulated during stem-cell-driven tissue growth during regeneration. Planarian flatworms can regenerate all missing tissues in 10 days due to the proliferation and differentiation of pluripotent somatic stem cells called neoblasts. In planarians, diet-derived neutral lipids are stored in the intestine. Here, we identify two intestine-enriched paralogs of *apolipoprotein b, apob-1* and *apob-2,* that are required for regeneration. Consistent with apolipoproteins' known roles regulating neutral lipid (NL) transport in lipoprotein particles (LPs), NLs increased in the intestine upon simultaneous dsRNA-mediated knockdown of *apob-1* and *apob-2,* but were depleted in neoblasts and their progeny. *apob* knockdown reduced regeneration blastema morphogenesis, and delayed re-establishment of axial polarity and regeneration of multiple organs. Using flow cytometry, we found that neoblast progeny accumulated in *apob(RNAi)* animals, with minimal effects on neoblast maintenance or proliferation. In addition, ApoB reduction primarily dysregulated expression of transcripts enriched in neoblast progeny and mature cell types, compared to cycling neoblasts. Together, our results provide evidence that intestine-derived lipids serve as a source of metabolites required for neoblast differentiation. In addition, these findings demonstrate that planarians are a tractable model for elucidating specialized mechanisms by which lipid metabolism must be regulated during animal regeneration.

Introduction

Regeneration requires metabolites and energy for cell proliferation, differentiation, migration, and growth. Currently, specific mechanisms by which various metabolites are produced, transported, and utilized to drive regenerative growth are not well understood. In animals, neutral lipids (NLs) (e.g., triglycerides and cholesteryl esters) are stored in intracellular lipid droplets, which serve as central organelles for energy and lipid homeostasis (Walther et al., 2017; Olzmann and Carvalho, 2019). Lipid stores can be mobilized either by NL packaging and export in lipoprotein particles (LPs), or by lipolysis and secretion as FAs (Olofsson et al., 1999; Guo et al., 2009; D'Andrea, 2016). Mobilization enables transport to other tissues, for example between intestine, liver, and peripheral tissues such as brain and muscle in vertebrates, or between the fat body, intestine, nervous system, and imaginal discs in *Drosophila* (Lafontan and Langin, 2009; Heier and Kühnlein, 2018; Wong et al., 2019). Upon lipase-mediated hydrolysis, the fatty acids (FAs) and cholesterol produced serve as building blocks for membrane biosynthesis, substrates for energy via fatty acid beta oxidation, sources of acetyl-CoA and other precursors for histone modifications, and precursors of signaling molecules like eicosanoids and sphingolipids (Ruggles et al., 2013; Welte and Gould, 2017; Ly et al., 2020).

Considerable evidence indicates that dysregulation of NL and FA catabolism, biosynthesis, and transport can disrupt stem cell dynamics in adult somatic and germ line niches (Ito and Suda, 2014; Shyh-Chang and Ng, 2017; Clémot et al., 2020). For example, inhibiting fatty acid oxidation (FAO, the process of converting fatty acids to acetyl-CoA) causes symmetric production of differentiating progeny and stem cell depletion in the mammalian hematopoietic lineage (Ito et al., 2012). By contrast, in the adult mouse hippocampus, inhibiting FAO promotes exit from quiescence and proliferation of neural stem/progenitor cells (Knobloch et al., 2017). In *Drosophila*, compromising lipolysis and/or FAO causes intestinal stem cell necrosis (Singh et al., 2016), and loss of germ line stem cells (Sênos Demarco et al., 2019). On

the other hand, FAO-mediated production of acetyl-CoA (which, in addition to being a substrate

for energy production in the tricarboxylic acid cycle, is also a precursor for histone acetylation) is

required for differentiation, but not maintenance, of quiescent hematopoietic stem cells in

Drosophila larvae, illustrating the growing recognition of the intersection of lipid metabolism and

epigenetic regulation (Tiwari et al., 2020). Perturbing lipid synthesis and delivery also disrupts

stem cell dynamics. For example, inhibiting fatty acid synthase (required for *de novo*

lipogenesis) reduces proliferation by adult mouse neural stem and progenitor cells (Knobloch et

al., 2013). Similarly, mutations in *hydroxysteroid (17-beta) dehydrogenase 7*, a regulator of

cholesterol biosynthesis, cause premature differentiation of neural progenitors during

development (Driver et al., 2016). In culture, depriving human pluripotent stem cells of extrinsic

lipids promotes a "naive-to-primed" intermediate state, demonstrating the importance of

exogenous lipid availability for stem cell regulation (Cornacchia et al., 2019).

Because stem and progenitor cell activation, proliferation, and differentiation are central

to regeneration, these diverse observations underline the potential importance of lipid

metabolism during regenerative growth. Currently, however, evidence that lipid transport and

utilization influence regeneration is limited. In zebrafish, *leptin b* (a hormonal regulator of

systemic lipid metabolism) is one of the most upregulated genes during fin and heart

regeneration (Kang et al., 2016), and *apolipoprotein E* (a regulator of NL transport in LPs) is

upregulated during fin regeneration (Monnot et al., 1999). In the axolotl *Ambystoma mexicanum*,

genes involved in steroid, cholesterol, and fatty acid metabolism are among the most

upregulated at later stages of limb regeneration, when differentiation of cartilage and muscle

progenitors occurs (Voss et al., 2015). In a primary cell culture model of nerve injury, rat retinal

ganglion cells regrow projections after axotomy more efficiently in the presence of glial-derived

LPs, reinforcing the role of cholesterol in neuronal regeneration (Hayashi et al., 2004). In mice,

low density lipoprotein receptor deficiency delays liver regeneration and reduces hepatocyte

proliferation (Pauta et al., 2013). Similarly, elevated FA levels (induced by lipoprotein lipase

overexpression) causes lipotoxicity and compromises skeletal muscle regeneration

(Tamilarasan et al., 2012), while inhibition of peroxisomal FAO induces differentiation of

myogenic satellite cells and muscle hypertrophy during regeneration (Pala et al., 2018). During

skin wound repair, inhibiting triglyceride lipase-mediated lipolysis by dermal adipocytes

compromises recruitment of inflammatory macrophages and differentiation of extracellular-

matrix-secreting myofibroblasts (Shook et al., 2020).

Although these intriguing observations point to the importance of lipid trafficking and

metabolism, functional understanding of how lipid transport and metabolism impinges on stem

cell dynamics during regeneration is still quite limited, particularly in emerging animal models

with extensive regenerative capacity. In this study, we show that two *apolipoprotein b* orthologs

are required for NL transport, stem cell differentiation, and regeneration in the planarian

Schmidtea mediterranea, a freshwater flatworm capable of whole-body regeneration. In

planarians, pluripotent somatic stem cells called neoblasts divide and differentiate to replace

damaged and lost tissues after amputation (Newmark and Sánchez Alvarado, 2002; Reddien

and Sánchez Alvarado, 2004). As in *C. elegans* and *Drosophila*, diet-derived NLs are stored in

the planarian intestine in lipid droplets (Willier et al., 1925; Jennings, 1957; Mak, 2012; Heier

and Kühnlein, 2018). These lipid droplets have been proposed to be a source of metabolites

during extended fasting, as well as regeneration (Jennings, 1957; Gamo and Garcia-Corrales,

1987; Thommen et al., 2019), but whether delivery to neoblasts or their progeny is functionally

required for regeneration, has not been investigated. Previously, we demonstrated that

knockdown of an intestine-enriched transcription factor, *nkx2.2*, severely inhibited neoblast

proliferation and formation of the regeneration blastema, the unpigmented mass of tissue

produced after amputation (Forsthoefel et al., 2012). We now report that two intestine-enriched

apolipoprotein b orthologs were among the most down-regulated transcripts in *nkx2.2(RNAi)*

animals. In humans, ApoB protein mediates trafficking of NLs in LPs between the intestine, liver,

and target tissues, while in insects, ApoB function analogously to traffic NLs between the gut, fat

body, and other tissues (Olofsson et al., 1999; Palm and Rodenfels, 2020). In our study,

simultaneous knockdown of both planarian paralogs caused NL accumulation in the intestine,

NL depletion in neoblasts and their differentiation progeny, and delays in regeneration of

multiple cell types and organs. Flow cytometry analysis demonstrated that early neoblast

progeny accumulated in both uninjured and regenerating *apob(RNAi)* animals. This conclusion

was supported by transcriptomic analysis of *apob(RNAi)* animals, in which the gene expression

signature of differentiating progeny and mature cell types were disproportionately dysregulated

relative to that of neoblasts and progenitors. These results suggest a mechanism by which the

planarian intestine influences neoblast dynamics non-autonomously, and provide an entry point

into utilizing planarians as a model to understand regeneration-specific aspects of stem cell and

lipid metabolism.

Results

Planarian *apolipoprotein B* homologs are expressed by intestinal cells

In order to identify transcripts dysregulated by inhibition of Nkx2.2, we used RNA interference (RNAi) to knock down *nkx2.2,* and then extracted RNA for sequencing from control and knockdown animals. 772 transcripts were downregulated and 710 transcripts were upregulated (Fig. 1A-B and Table S1). These included many transcripts predicted to regulate various aspects of lipid metabolism and small molecule transport (Table S2), consistent with a role for Nkx2.2 in controlling expression of non-autonomous regulators. The majority (~2/3) of downregulated transcripts and ~1/3 of upregulated transcripts were also normally enriched in the intestines of uninjured animals (Fig. S1A-B). An ortholog of human *apolipoprotein b* ("*Smed-apob-1*" or "*apob-1*") encoding conserved Vitellogenin, DUF1943, and von Willebrand Factor D domains, was the second-most-downregulated transcript by significance and fold-change, while a second paralog, *apob-2,* was also significantly downregulated (Fig. 1B-C, Fig. S1B-C, and Table S1). Both transcripts were highly enriched in the intestine (Fig. 1C-D). Single cell expression (Fincher et al., 2018) predicted that *apob-1* and *apob-2* were enriched in intestinal phagocytes (absorptive cells responsible for digestion, nutrient storage, and metabolite secretion) as well as late differentiating neoblast progeny, but not in neoblasts (Fig. S1D). We confirmed these expression patterns using fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) (Fig. 1D and Fig. S1E-F).

ApoB paralogs are required for viability and regulate neutral lipid transport

To determine whether ApoB orthologs might be required for homeostatic tissue renewal and/or regeneration, we knocked down *apob-1* and *apob-2* using RNA interference (Rouhana et al., 2013). In uninjured planarians, knockdown of either *apob-1* or *apob-2* individually had no phenotype (not shown). However, after 3-5 double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) feedings, double

knockdown *apob(RNAi)* animals displayed a range of "mild" to "very severe" phenotypes, which

included head regression, ventral curling, and eventual lysis, phenotypes that are commonly

seen in planarians lacking functional neoblasts (Reddien et al., 2005a) (Fig. 2A). In addition, we

also observed that, prior to "very severe" phenotypes (Fig. 2A), animals gradually lost

pigmentation, suggesting a possible role for LPs in pigment biosynthesis, or generation/viability

of pigment cells. We also observed reduced motility (not shown), suggesting defects in ventral

epidermis, muscle, and/or neurons involved in light-responsiveness.

ApoB orthologs in vertebrates and insects regulate LP biogenesis and secretion

(Olofsson et al., 1999; Palm et al., 2012). To test whether ApoB protein was secreted, we made

a custom antibody recognizing the N-terminus of Smed-ApoB-1 (Fig. 2B-C). ApoB-1 protein was

enriched in the intestine, but also throughout the parenchyma, indicating that although *apob*

mRNAs are intestine-enriched, ApoB protein is robustly secreted and transported to peripheral

tissues (Fig. 2C). Expression was dramatically reduced in both regions in *apob-1;apob-2(RNAi),*

(*"apob(RNAi)"* hereafter for brevity) planarians, demonstrating that knockdown dramatically

reduced ApoB protein levels (Fig. 2C).

ApoB orthologs also regulate NL secretion and transport via LPs (Olofsson and Borén,

2005) (Palm and Rodenfels, 2020). To test whether planarian ApoB functioned similarly, we

knocked down both paralogs simultaneously, and evaluated NL distribution. In histological

sections, NLs (labeled with Oil Red O) were robustly elevated in both the intestine as well as

tissues surrounding the intestine, suggesting that both LP secretion by the intestine and

uptake/metabolism by peripheral tissues were compromised (Fig. 2D). Consistently, using thin

layer chromatography, we also found dramatic elevation of cholesteryl esters and triglycerides

in extracts from *apob(RNAi)* animals (Fig. 2E). These phenotypes predicted that delivery of NLs

to neoblasts and/or their progeny would be compromised by ApoB inhibition. To test this, we

dissociated control and RNAi planarians, and used an established flow cytometry protocol that

takes advantage of DNA labeling and sensitivity to X-irradiation to distinguish S/G2/M-phase

neoblasts ("X1"), G0/G1-phase neoblasts and their progeny ("X2"), and post-mitotic cells ("X-

ins," named for the fact that cells in this gate are insensitive to X-irradiation) (Hayashi et al.,

2006; Wagner et al., 2011) (Fig. 2F-H). In dissociated cells labeled with the NL probe BODIPY-

493/50, we found a dramatic reduction of fluorescence in both the X1 and X2 fractions in

apob(RNAi) animals vs. controls (Fig. 2I-J). Together, these data demonstrate that planarian

ApoB proteins are produced by the intestine and are likely secreted as LPs to transport NLs

from the intestine to stem cells and their progeny, thus playing an analogous role in NL

trafficking between the intestine, liver, and target tissues as in other animals.

***apob* paralogs are required for polarity re-establishment and organogenesis during**

regeneration

To assess regeneration, we chose "mild" and "severe" uninjured animals after three

dsRNA feedings, amputated their heads, and assessed blastema morphogenesis, which

absolutely requires neoblast proliferation and differentiation (Reddien et al., 2005b; Scimone et

al., 2010; Zhu et al., 2015). Controls, *apob-1(RNAi)*-only, and *apob-2(RNAi)*-only regenerates

regenerated normally (Fig. 3A). However, *apob(RNAi)* double knockdown animals had reduced

posterior blastemas (head fragments) and anterior blastemas (trunk fragments) at 8 days post-

amputation (Fig. 3A). This phenotype was qualitatively more severe in fragments from "severe"

("*apob-S"*) animals than "mild" ("*apob-M"*) animals (Fig. 3A). These results suggested that *apob-*

1 and *apob-2* may function redundantly to regulate neoblasts.

Amputation induces changes in gene expression during planarian regeneration

(Wenemoser and Reddien, 2010; Wurtzel et al., 2015; Zeng et al., 2018). Using quantitative

PCR, we found that both *apob-1* and *apob-2* transcripts were upregulated in amputated tissue

fragments at two distinct time points during earlier stages of regeneration commonly associated

with neoblast proliferation (1-3 days) and differentiation (4-5 days) (Fig. S2A). This dynamic

expression pattern was recapitulated in RNA-Seq data from a 14-day time course of whole-body

planarian regeneration (Fig. S2B) (Zeng et al., 2018). Using quantitative capillary-based

Western blotting, we also found that ApoB-1 protein levels increased by 3-5 days after

amputation (Fig. S2C). In addition, accumulation of neutral lipids was sustained in 3- and 6-day

apob(RNAi) regenerates (Fig. S2D-E). Intriguingly, we also found that three planarian orthologs

of human lipoprotein receptors (which bind apolipoproteins, enabling LP uptake/metabolism)

were upregulated in regenerating brain and pharynx (Fig. S3A-D). These transcripts were

expressed in both *piwi-1*-mRNA-positive neoblasts as well as *piwi-1*-negative cells that were

likely to be differentiating neoblast progeny in the regenerating pharynx and blastema (Fig.

S3D). Two lipoprotein receptor genes (*ldlr-1* and *ldlr-2*) were also differentially expressed in the

whole-body regeneration RNA-Seq dataset (Fig. S3C) (Zeng et al., 2018). Using the Gene

Ontology, we identified additional planarian genes predicted to regulate lipid transport,

triglyceride, and cholesterol metabolism, and found that many of these transcripts were also up-

and down-regulated during regeneration (Fig S3E) (Table S3). Together, these observations

indicate that *apob-1, apob-2,* and other genes involved in neutral lipid metabolism are

differentially expressed in response to amputation, consistent with roles during regeneration.

The reduction of blastema size in *apob(RNAi)* fragments, the upregulation of *apob-1/-2*

during regeneration, and elevated neutral lipids in *apob(RNAi)* regenerates all suggested that

regeneration of specific cell types and organs would be affected by *apob* knockdown. To

investigate this, we amputated both "mild" and "severe" *apob(RNAi)* animals (Fig. 2A), and used

fluorescent whole-mount in situ hybridization (FISH) to further characterize *apob(RNAi)*

phenotypes. First, we asked whether an early event during regeneration, the differentiation of

anterior and posterior cells responsible for expressing cues required to re-establish axial

polarity, was affected (Reddien, 2018). Indeed, at three days post-amputation (3 dpa), the

number of both posterior *wnt11-2*-expressing cells (Fig. 3B) (Adell et al., 2009) and anterior

notum-expressing cells (Fig. 3C) (Petersen and Reddien, 2011) was reduced in *apob-M* and

apob-S fragments. By 6 dpa, although most *apob(RNAi)* fragments had regenerated more of

these cells, many fragments (especially *apob-S*) still had fewer than 5+ cells observed in all

control fragments (Figs. 3B-C). These data suggest that *apob* inhibition delays, but does not

completely abolish, regeneration of these cells.

Next, we asked whether *apob* RNAi affected regeneration of planarian organs including

the brain, pharynx, and intestine. Similar to polarity-cue-expressing cells, we observed that brain

and pharynx regenerated, but that these organs were smaller than in controls (Fig. S2F-G).

Quantitatively, at 6 dpa, both brain and pharynx were smaller in size, especially in *apob-S*

fragments (Fig. 3D-E). To assess intestine, we analyzed both head and tail regenerates, in

which a combination of neoblast-driven new cell production and remodeling of differentiated

tissue is required for successful regeneration (Forsthoefel et al., 2011). Newly regenerated

posterior branches were significantly shorter in *apob(RNAi)* head fragments (Fig. 3F). By

contrast, in tail fragments, length of the new anterior branch was not significantly affected (Fig.

3G). However, intestinal branches failed to fuse at the anterior midline, leading to a "split"

anterior branch phenotype in ~50% of *apob(RNAi)* tail fragments (Fig. 3G). Together, these

results suggest that ApoB reduction delays regeneration of multiple cell types and organs, and,

in the case of the intestine, might affect both differentiation as well as collective cell migration or

other processes required for remodeling.

***apob* knockdown causes accumulation of early neoblast progeny**

Because *apob* knockdown disrupted multiple neoblast-driven processes during

regeneration, we asked whether defects in neoblast maintenance or proliferation were

responsible for the effects of *apob* RNAi on regeneration. First, we assessed neoblast numbers

using riboprobes that label all neoblasts (*piwi-1)*, or a subpopulation of putatively totipotent

neoblasts (*tgs-1*) (Reddien et al., 2005b; Zeng et al., 2018). In both uninjured planarians and

7.5-day regenerates, neoblast numbers and distribution were grossly normal (Fig. S4A-B). We

also assessed proliferation using anti-phospho-Histone H3 (Ser10) ("PS10") immunolabeling,

which marks cells in late G2 and M phase of the cell cycle (Hendzel et al., 1997; Newmark and

Sánchez Alvarado, 2000). In uninjured animals and 2-day head regenerates, the number of

mitotic neoblasts increased modestly in *apob-M,* but not *apob-S* samples (Fig. 4A-B). In 2-day

trunk regenerates, there was a more significant (~50%) increase in *apob-M* fragments, and a

modest increase in *apob-S* fragments (Fig. 4B). Together, these results suggested that ApoB

reduction might cause moderate hyperproliferation, or, alternatively, a modest mitotic delay,

without dramatically affecting *piwi-1+* or *tgs-1+* neoblast numbers. These mild phenotypes also

raised the possibility that ApoB reduction might preferentially dysregulate differentiation, rather

than proliferation or maintenance of actively cycling neoblasts.

We tested these possibilities quantitatively using flow cytometry. We dissociated

uninjured and regenerating planarians, and evaluated the proportions of cells in the "X1"

(S/G2/M neoblasts) and "X2" (G0/G1 neoblasts, early differentiating progeny, and X-insensitive

post-mitotic progeny) fractions (Fig. 4C-E) (Hayashi et al., 2006; Wagner et al., 2011). In

uninjured planarians, as well as 2-day and 7-day regeneration fragments, X1 neoblast numbers

were unaffected by *apob* knockdown (Fig. 4E), consistent with the moderate effect of *apob*

RNAi on neoblast proliferation (Fig. 4A-B). By contrast, in uninjured planarians as well as 2-day

trunk fragments, the proportion of cells in the X2 gate increased significantly by ~30-40% (Fig.

4E) in *apob(RNAi)* animals vs. control. In 2 dpa head fragments, there was also a modest, but

statistically insignificant increase (~15%) in the X2 fraction (Fig. 4E). Because the X2 fraction

includes both cycling G1-phase neoblasts and differentiating post-mitotic progeny (Eisenhoffer

et al., 2008; Hayashi et al., 2010), these results suggested that *apob* inhibition might cause

lengthening of G1 phase of the cell cycle, and/or a delay in differentiation of early neoblast

progeny, either of which could increase the proportion of cells in X2.

In order to distinguish between these possibilities, we examined the X2 fraction in

uninjured planarians 24 hr after X-irradiation, which preferentially ablates over 95% radiation-

sensitive cycling neoblasts in both X1 and X2, without affecting the majority of early neoblast

progeny in X2 (Eisenhoffer et al., 2008; Zeng et al., 2018). As expected, the X1 fraction (again,

comprised of S/G2/M-phase neoblasts) was almost completely eliminated in both control and

apob(RNAi) samples (Fig. 4F-G). However, although irradiation reduced the proportion of X2

cells by ~48-56% in both control and *apob(RNAi)* animals (Fig. 4G), the expansion of the X2

fraction persisted in *apob-M* (~62.5% increase) and *apob-S* animals (~42.5% increase) relative

to controls (Fig. 4G). This increase in radiation-insensitive cells in X2 strongly suggested that

the primary defect in *apob* knockdown animals was a delay in early differentiation of neoblast

progeny.

Intriguingly, the increase in radiation-resistant X2 cells was transient: by 48 hr post-

irradiation, the proportions of X2 cells in *apob(RNAi)* samples were only modestly (and not

significantly) elevated (Fig. 4G). Similarly, the increase in the X2 fraction was more modest in 7-

day trunk regenerates (17-26%), and was not observed in head fragments (Fig. S4C). These

observations suggest that differentiation is delayed, but not arrested, in *apob(RNAi)* animals.

That is, at later time points, progeny have differentiated further, and now reside in the "X-ins"

gate with more mature progeny and post-mitotic cell types. Alternatively, some early progeny

might undergo apoptosis or necrosis at later time points, reducing the apparent accumulation of

neoblast progeny in X2. This scenario is consistent with the death phenotype observed in very

severe knockdown animals, which exhibit ventral curling and head regression, similar to animals

in which neoblast numbers or function is reduced (Fig. 2A) (Reddien et al., 2005a). Either

possibility could explain why regeneration proceeds in *apob(RNAi)* animals, but at a reduced

rate (Fig. S2F-G). Additional investigation will be required to discern the ultimate fate of early

progeny level at the single cell level.

ApoB reduction preferentially dysregulates expression of transcripts enriched in

differentiating neoblast progeny and mature cell types

Our flow cytometry data suggested that the major defect in uninjured and regenerating

apob(RNAi) animals was a delay in the differentiation of neoblast progeny. To test this

interpretation further, we used global (whole animal) transcriptomic analysis to assess gene

expression in *apob(RNAi)* animals. We predicted that if ApoB is required by cycling neoblasts,

then *apob* knockdown would preferentially dysregulate known neoblast-enriched transcripts,

and transcripts involved in cell cycle progression, DNA replication, etc. Conversely, if ApoB is

primarily required by differentiating progeny, then we would predict altered expression of

transcripts known to be enriched in neoblast progeny, and with functional roles in differentiation

and maturation. To test these predictions, we used RNA-Seq to identify transcripts that were

differentially expressed (DE) in *apob-M* (842 upregulated and 1139 downregulated transcripts)

and *apob-S* animals (1960 upregulated and 2547 downregulated transcripts), relative to control

(Table S4A-D). Then, we used the Gene Ontology (GO) to identify patterns of dysregulation in

specific functional categories. In addition, we cross-referenced the global *apob* "dysregulation

signature" with recently published bulk transcriptomes of flow-sorted neoblasts (Zeng et al.,

2018), as well as single cell transcriptomes from whole planarians representing all planarian cell

types and states, from cycling neoblasts to mature post-mitotic progeny (Fincher et al., 2018).

For upregulated transcripts, "lipid metabolism" was the fifth-most over-represented

Biological Process (BP) term in *apob-M* animals, and was the most over-represented category

in *apob-S* animals (Fig. 5A, Table S5A-B). Enrichment of the subcategories of acylglycerol, fatty

acid, steroid, and glycerolipid metabolism was consistent with known roles of ApoB orthologs,

and suggested a possible compensatory gene expression response to *apob(RNAi)*-induced NL

transport disruption. *apob* knockdown also more broadly upregulated carboxylic acid

metabolism, which includes fatty acids but also amino acids and tricarboxylic acid cycle

intermediates (Fig. 5A, Table S5A-B). Interestingly, transcripts whose orthologs coordinate

morphogenesis of multiple tissues including epidermis, nervous system, and the eye were also

upregulated. Of note, transcripts predicted to regulate "differentiation" or "specification," but not

"proliferation," were common in these categories. *apob(RNAi)* also downregulated transcripts in

additional metabolism categories, including gluconeogenesis, glycolysis, pyruvate, and

nucleotide metabolism (e.g., NADH and ADP), as well as ion transport, indicating wide-ranging

dysregulation of metabolite processing and trafficking, especially in *apob-S* animals (Fig. 5B,

Table S5C-D). Downregulated transcripts also included numerous putative regulators of cilium

morphogenesis and function (possibly reflecting disruption of ciliated epidermal and/or

protonephridial cell function or numbers), muscle morphogenesis and function (consistent with

motility defects in *apob(RNAi)* animals), and extracellular matrix organization and collagen

metabolism (Fig. 5B, Table S5C-D). Again, categories related to the cell cycle, mitosis, etc.

were not enriched among downregulated transcripts. Together, these data suggest that ApoB

reduction mainly affects metabolism, cell/tissue differentiation, and functions of mature cell

types, but not processes required specifically for cellular proliferation.

To test whether *apob* preferentially dysregulated gene expression during differentiation,

we cross referenced our DE transcript list with recently published bulk transcriptomes from flow-

sorted X1, X2, and Xins cell fractions (above), as well as cells sorted based on their expression

of PIWI-1 protein, a widely used marker whose expression is thought to mark lineage "states" in

planarians (e.g., high PIWI-1 levels in neoblasts, low PIWI-1 levels in some neoblasts and all

differentiating progeny, and negligible PIWI-1 levels in mature post-mitotic cells) (Fig. 5C-D and

Fig. S5A-D) (Zeng et al., 2018). We first identified transcripts that were most highly enriched

(e.g., 2-fold vs. other fractions, see Methods) to generate a "signature" transcript list for each

fraction or state (Fig. S5A-D). We then asked what percent of these signature transcripts were

dysregulated in *apob-M* and *apob-S* animals. *apob* RNAi dysregulated signature transcripts in

all three categories (Fig. 5C-D, Fig. S5A-D). However, compared to X1 or "PIWI-HI" signature

transcripts, 2-4 times as many transcripts were up- or down-regulated in X2 and "PIWI-LO" cell

classes, which are thought to include both neoblasts and early progeny (Fig. 5C-D) (Eisenhoffer

et al., 2008; Zeng et al., 2018). More X2 and PIWI-LO signature transcripts, as a percentage,

were also up- or down-regulated relative to signature transcripts of mature cell types in Xins and

PIWI-NEG fractions (Fig. 5C-D).

Using a similar approach, we also compared the gene expression signature of

apob(RNAi) animals with single cell transcriptomes to determine how *apob* RNAi affected

expression of genes thought to mark specific cell states during the progression from pluripotent

neoblast to mature cell types in eight planarian lineages (Fincher et al., 2018). Strikingly, in

apob(RNAi) animals, in three well characterized lineages (epidermis, intestine, and

protonephridia), the percentage of dysregulated "state-enriched" transcripts was lowest for

subclusters likely to be neoblast/progenitor subpopulations or early transition states ("N/TS"),

but higher for later progeny ("P") and mature cell types ("M") (Fig. 5E-G). These trends were

also observed in less well-characterized lineages such as muscle, pharynx, and *cathepsin-*

positive cells (Fig. S6A-F), in which *apob* RNAi dysregulated the smallest proportions of genes

in subclusters with the highest *piwi-1* mRNA levels, while preferentially dysregulating transcripts

enriched in later progeny and mature cell types (Fig. S6A-F).

Together, the results of these transcriptome comparisons are strikingly parallel to

analyses of *apob(RNAi)* phenotypes *in vivo* and as assessed by flow cytometry. Altogether, the

most straightforward interpretation of our data is that the effect of ApoB reduction on

regeneration is not due to disrupted neoblast maintenance or proliferation, but rather, to a delay

in the differentiation and maturation of neoblast progeny, which could be caused or exacerbated

by disrupted functions of mature cell types.

Discussion

We demonstrate that reducing ApoB levels blocks NL export from the intestine and uptake by neoblasts and their progeny. This deprives neoblasts and their post-mitotic daughters of LP cargo needed for efficient differentiation and maturation, and may also compromise the function(s) of mature tissues including the intestine, muscle, nervous system, and epidermis -- both of which could slow regeneration. Because *apob-1* and *apob-2* are downregulated by inhibition of *nkx2.2,* an intestine-enriched transcription factor also required for regeneration (Forsthoefel et al., 2012), our results provide a specific example of how the planarian intestine can non-autonomously influence neoblast dynamics, and also suggest an understudied role for Nkx-family transcription factors in regulation of lipid metabolism. Intriguingly, unlike *nkx2.2* RNAi, *apob* knockdown does not reduce the abundance of phosphoHistone-H3-S10-positive neoblasts, indicating that the proliferative defect in *nkx2.2(RNAi)* animals is not caused by *apob* reduction, and additional downstream regulators of proliferation remain to be discovered. Intriguingly, dozens of additional regulators of lipid metabolism and transport of other metabolites are downregulated in *nkx2.2(RNAi)* animals, suggesting additional ways by which the intestine could influence neoblasts and their niche. Our study complements other recent efforts demonstrating that global triglyceride reduction, caused by inhibition of an exocyst complex component, increases planarian neoblasts and inhibits regeneration (Deb et al., 2020), and that inhibition of *nuclear hormone receptor-1 (nhr-1)* increases LD size and abundance, while reducing acetyl-CoA and planarian reproductive organogenesis (Zhang et al., 2018).

apob knockdown could affect neoblast differentiation through multiple mechanisms. First, a simple explanation is that depriving neoblasts and progeny of TGs and CEs impairs their ability to produce energy through FAO, elaborate membranes and organelles during differentiation into mature cell types, and/or produce signaling lipids such as sphingolipids or eicosanoids. Second, our data also suggest that lipid accumulation in *apob(RNAi)* planarians

may induce cellular stress, inflammation, autophagy, and/or compromise the functions of other

tissues that signal to neoblasts, particularly muscle, thereby indirectly influencing stem cell

differentiation (Reddien, 2018). Third, LPs also transport fat soluble vitamins (Rigotti, 2007;

Hussain, 2014), as well as morphogens like Hedgehog and Wnt (Panáková et al., 2005).

However, ApoB deficiency delays differentiation of multiple planarian lineages (including cells

expressing polarity cues), and dramatically dysregulates lipid metabolism at both biochemical

and gene expression levels. This suggests that ApoB proteins' functions in lipid transport

underlie roles in stem cell dynamics. Nonetheless, further characterization of planarian LP cargo

may yield additional insights. Finally, in other animals, disruptions in FAO/lipid metabolism

cause deficiencies in acetyl-CoA production and histone acetylation, causing genome-wide

epigenetic dysregulation that can alter stem cell pluripotency and differentiation (Ly et al., 2020;

Tiwari et al., 2020).

More broadly, the effect of *apoB* knockdown on regeneration raises additional questions

and priorities. First, although the existence of LDs in planarian neoblasts has been known for

decades (Betchaku, 1967), the roles of this intriguing organelle have not been investigated. We

did not assess neoblast LDs specifically, but *apoB* knockdown dramatically reduced NL content

in both X1 (S/G2/M) and X2 (G0/G1) neoblast fractions, suggesting that ApoB and LPs could

influence neoblast LD content and/or function. Once thought of as static storage particles,

recent work has demonstrated that LDs in animal cells are dynamic, multi-functional organelles

that regulate nutrient sensing, cell stress responses, and even intracellular localization of

histones, transcription factors, and other proteins (Welte and Gould, 2017; Olzmann and

Carvalho, 2019). Additionally, although emerging data suggest LDs as a potential therapeutic

target in cancer stem cells (Tirinato et al., 2017; Cruz et al., 2020), our knowledge of the

regulation and functions of LDs in stem cells, especially during regeneration, is limited. Studies

in planarians and other regeneration models could further illuminate the roles of this organelle.

Second, coordinated metabolic shifts between glycolysis and oxidative phosphorylation may be

a widespread aspect of stem cell transitions between quiescence, proliferation, and

differentiation, and extrinsic lipids can influence these states (Ito and Suda, 2014; Shyh-Chang

and Ng, 2017; Clémot et al., 2020; Ly et al., 2020). Indeed, our RNA-Seq data suggest that

transcription of regulators of amino acid metabolism, glycolysis, the tricarboxylic acid cycle, and

other metabolic pathways respond to *apob(RNAi)*, suggesting that planarian stem cell

metabolism is just as dynamic as in other animals. The fact that *apob(RNAi)* seems to primarily

affect post-mitotic states also suggests that planarian neoblasts might rely primarily on

glycolysis for energy, and shift to lipid metabolism and oxidative phosphorylation during

differentiation, as in other systems (Shyh-Chang et al., 2013; Love et al., 2014; Sinclair et al.,

2020). Again, studies in animals with high regenerative capacity could generate greater insights

into whether and how injury can induce metabolic switching. Finally, we found that expression of

apob-1 and *apob-2,* as well as numerous other regulators of NL metabolism were dynamically

up- and down-regulated at the transcript level during regeneration (Fig. S3E). This suggests that

coordination of lipid metabolism is part of a genome-encoded program of regenerative gene

expression. Unraveling which transcription factors, chromatin modifiers, and other regulators are

responsible for such regulation is thus a third priority for future study.

In summary, we have identified *apolipoprotein B* orthologs and neutral lipid metabolism

as important regulators of stem cell dynamics and regenerative tissue growth. Efforts to define

the precise functions of NLs and their metabolic derivatives in planarians and other models will

improve our understanding of metabolic requirements of stem-cell-driven regeneration. In

addition, because lipid metabolism is amenable to pharmacological manipulation (Gaudet et al.,

2017), these studies may provide new insights relevant to the dual goals of promoting repair of

damaged human tissues, and inhibiting growth in pathological contexts like cancer.

Methods

Ethics Statement

Anti-ApoB-1 antibodies were generated by GenScript USA (Piscataway, NJ), an OLAW, AAALAC, and PHS-approved vendor. GenScript's animal welfare protocols were approved by OMRF IACUC. No other vertebrate organisms were used in this study.

Planarian care

Asexual *Schmidtea mediterranea* (clonal line CIW4, RRID:NCBITaxon:79327) (Sánchez Alvarado et al., 2002) were maintained in 0.5 g/L Instant Ocean salts with 0.0167 g/L sodium bicarbonate dissolved in Type I water (Roberts-Galbraith and Newmark, 2013), and fed with beef liver paste. Planarians were starved 7-10 days prior to initiating RNAi. Animals were 2-5 mm in length for most experiments except flow cytometry, for which 5-10 mm animals were used. Uninjured, intact animals were randomly selected from large (300-500 animal) pools.

Cloning and expressed sequence tags

Transcripts were cloned as previously described (Forsthoefel et al., 2020). Sequences were identified in the dd_Smed_v6 transcriptome (Brandl et al., 2016) and the Smed_ESTs3 library (Zayas et al., 2005). These included *nkx2.2* (dd_2716_0_1/PL08007A2A07), *apob-1* (dd_636_0_1/PL06004B2E09), *apob-2* (dd_194_0_1/PL08004B1B10), *ldlr-1* (dd_9829_0_1), *ldlr-2* (dd_5596_0_1/PL04021A1C10), *vldlr-1* (dd_1510_0_1/PL05007B1H03), *notum* (dd_24180_0_1), *wnt11-2* (dd_16209_0_1), *choline acetyltransferase/ChAT* (dd_6208_0_1), *laminin* (dd_8356_0_1/PL030015A20A02), *cathepsin La/ctsla* (dd_2567_0_1/PL06020B2D09), *piwi-1* (dd_659_0_1/PL06008A2C06), *tgs-1* (dd_10988_0_1), *solute carrier family 22 member 6/slc22a6* (dd_1159_0_1), and Niemann-Pick type C-2/*npc2* (dd_73_0_1/PL030001B20C07). *S. mediterranea ldlr-1, ldlr-2,* and *vldlr-1* were identified by

BLAST homology and named after their top human refseq_protein BLASTX hits. Specific

sequences of primers and expressed sequence tags (Zayas et al., 2005) will be published in the

peer-reviewed manuscript.

Domain organization and phylogenetic analysis

For ApoB-1, ApoB-2, Ldlr-1, Ldlr-2, and Vldrl-1, protein domains were identified using

HMMSCAN (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/hmmer/search/hmmscan) to search Pfam, TIGRFAM,

and Superfamily databases, with Phobius for transmembrane and signal peptide predictions (E-

value cutoff of 1e-03) (Potter et al., 2018). For the ApoB phylogenetic tree, N-terminal

Vitellogenin domains from ApoB and related proteins were aligned in Geneious using MUSCLE

(default settings), and alignment was trimmed in Gblocks

(http://molevol.cmima.csic.es/castresana/Gblocks_server.html) selecting all "less stringent"

criteria. Phylogenetic tree was generated using PhyML 3.0 (http://www.atgc-

montpellier.fr/phyml/), using AIC for automatic selection of the LG substitution model, BioNJ

starting tree, NNI for tree topology improvement, and 100 bootstrap replicates. Accession

numbers for proteins used in domain diagrams and phylogenetic analysis will be included in the

peer-reviewed manuscript.

In situ hybridization

Riboprobe synthesis, WISH, and FISH were conducted as previously described

(Forsthoefel et al., 2020). Riboprobes were used at 0.05-1 ng/μl. Cryosections were generated

after FISH as in (Forsthoefel et al., 2014).

RNAi

dsRNA synthesis and RNAi experiments were conducted as described (Rouhana et al.,

2013; Forsthoefel et al., 2020) by mixing one μg of in vitro-synthesized dsRNA with 8-9 μl of

1:10 food coloring:water mix, and 40 μl of 2:1 liver:water homogenate. For *nkx2.2* RNAi, animals

were fed only once; RNA was extracted for RNA-Seq after seven days. For *apob* RNAi, 2 μg

control *egfp* dsRNA or 1 μg each *apob-1* and *apob-2* (for simultaneous RNAi) were mixed with

liver and food coloring, and animals were fed 5 times for initial viability experiments, and 3-5

times for most other experiments, separating animals with "mild" (*apob-M*) and "severe" *(apob-*

S) phenotypes prior to fixation, amputation, or flow cytometry. Non-eating planarians were

always removed from the experiment if they refused a second dsRNA feeding one day later.

pH3-PS10 immunolabeling

Mucus removal and fixation were conducted with 2% ice-cold HCl (3 min) and

methacarn (RT, 20 min), followed by bleaching in 6% H_2O_2 in methanol as in (Forsthoefel et al.,

2014). Fixed animals/regenerates were blocked (4 hr, RT) in IF block (1X PBS, 0.45% fish

gelatin, 0.6% IgG-free BSA, 0.3% Triton X-100), incubated in rabbit anti-phospho-Histone H3-

S10 at 1:2000 (O/N, 4°C) (Cell Signaling 3377S), washed 8X in PBSTx (1X PBS plus 0.3%

Triton X-100) (30 min each, RT), re-blocked for 1 hr, then incubated with goat anti-rabbit-HRP

(1:2000) (Jackson Immuno 111-035-003) (O/N, 4°C). Samples were again washed 8X (20-30

min each, RT), then tyramide signal amplification (TSA) was conducted for 20 min as described

(King and Newmark, 2013) with TAMRA-tyramide. Samples were washed in PBSTx for two

days, then mounted in Vectashield (Vector Labs H-1000-10).

Immunolabeling (cryosections)

Cryosections (12 μm) of planarians relaxed in 0.66M $MgCl_2$ and fixed overnight (4°C) in

4% formaldehyde (EM)/1X PBS were generated as in (Forsthoefel et al., 2014). After

rehydration, heat-mediated antigen retrieval (10 min) in 10 mM sodium citrate, pH 6.0 was

performed. Slides were permeabilized for 30 min in 1X PBS/0.2% Tween-20, then blocked for

30 min with 0.45% fish gelatin and 0.6% BSA for 30 min in PBSTw (1X PBS, 0.05% Tween 20).

incubated with custom rabbit anti-ApoB-1 (1:1000 in block) and mouse 6G10 anti-muscle (1:250

in block) (Ross et al., 2015) (ON, 4°C). Slides were washed 3 times (10 min, RT) with PBSTw

after each antibody incubation. Slides were then incubated with goat anti-rabbit-HRP (1:2000)

(Jackson Immunoresearch, 111-035-144), goat anti-mouse-488 (1:250), and DAPI (2 μg/ml) for

15 min at RT. TSA was conducted for 10 min with TAMRA-tyramide as in (King and Newmark,

2013). After washing, slides were mounted in Fluoromount G (Southern Biotech).

Anti-ApoB-1 antibody generation

Sequence corresponding to the N-terminal Vitellogenin domain of ApoB-1 (dd_636,

nucleotides 45-1919, amino acids 1-625) was supplied to GenScript USA (Piscataway, NJ).

GenScript synthesized a plasmid encoding this region fused to KLH and a HIS tag, expressed

and purified the fusion protein, immunized New Zealand rabbits, affinity purified the antibody,

and assessed antibody titer and immunogenicity with both ELISA and Western blot.

Protein extraction and Simple Western analysis

5-10 planarians were rocked gently (40-50 rpm) for 7 min in 7.5% N-Acetyl-L-Cysteine

and rinsed 2X in 1X PBS. Samples were then homogenized using a motorized Kontes pestle

grinder in 250 μl RIPA (50 mM Tris pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 0.5% sodium

deoxycholate, 0.5% SDS) with 40 mM DTT and 1X Halt Protease Inhibitor cocktail (Thermo

Scientific 78430). After 30 min on ice, samples were centrifuged (20,817 x *g,* 15 min, 4°C), and

supernatant was recovered and stored at -80°C. DTT concentration was reduced by buffer

exchange with RIPA (1 mM DTT) using Amicon Ultra 3 kDa columns (UFC500396), then protein

concentration was determined using a BCA kit (Pierce 23225) and DeNovix cuvet

spectrophotometer according to manufacturers' protocols. For Simple Western (ProteinSimple),

lysates were run according to the manufacturer's protocol on a Wes Instrument (running

Compass v4.0.0) at 0.1 mg/ml using the 66-440 kDa Wes Separation module (SM-W008) with

anti-ApoB-1 at 1:250 (~2.3 μg/ml). ApoB-1 peak areas were calculated with the following

settings: Range 10-600; Baseline Threshold 1.0, Window 15.0, and Stiffness 1.0; and Peak Find

Threshold 10.0 and Width 20.0 using the "Dropped Lines" method. Settings were identical for

total protein peak area, with these exceptions: Baseline Window 50.0 and Stiffness 0.5.

For the regeneration time course, ApoB-1 protein levels were run in biological triplicates,

normalized to total protein using the Wes Total Protein Detection Module (DM-TP01), and then

normalized to the "0 hour" time point. Statistical analysis was conducted in Prism 9.

Oil Red O staining

Planarians were relaxed in 0.66 M $MgCl_2$, fixed overnight (RT) in 4% formaldehyde (EM

grade) in 1X PBS, protected in sucrose, and cryosectioned (20 μm) onto SuperFrost Plus slides

(Forsthoefel et al., 2014). Slides were rehydrated in deionized (DI) water (3 x 10 min, RT), then

stained in Oil Red O (Sigma O0625) solution (6 ml Whatman-filtered 0.5% Oil Red O in 100%

isopropanol plus 4 ml ultrapure water) for 15 min at RT. Slides were quickly dipped 3-5X in 60%

isopropanol to remove excess dye, then rinsed for 1 min in 60% isopropanol, then rinsed 1 min

in DI water. Slides were then rinsed in PBS-Tween-20 (0.01%, to prevent drying), then mounted

in 90% glycerol/1X PBS, and imaged within 2-3 days.

Thin Layer Chromatography

Ten planarians (5-8 mm) were placed in 1.7 ml microcentrifuge tubes with all planarian

salts removed, and the animals' mass was obtained. Lipids were then extracted using the Folch

method (Folch and Lees, 1951). Briefly, 1 ml ice-cold 2:1 chloroform:methanol was added, then

animals were sonicated in ice water in a cup-horn sonicator (10 cycles of 5 second pulses at

~48-55W). Samples were rocked at RT for 5 hr, then centrifuged (2 min at 16,000 x g, 4°C) to

pellet insoluble material. Supernatant was recovered to a new tube and stored at -80°C. 1 ml

2:1 chloroform:methanol was added to the pellet, re-sonicated, rocked overnight at RT, then

centrifuged as above. 0.2 volumes 0.9% NaCl (in water) was added to each extract, tubes were

inverted gently 10-15X to mix, vortexed for 10-15 sec, then centrifuged (2 min at 2,000 x g, RT).

Lower phases from each biological replicate (4 control and 4 *apob(RNAi)* replicates, 10 animals

each) were recovered, and speed-vacuumed (30°C x 60-90 min with spinning) to evaporate

solvent. Concentrated lipids were resuspended in 2 μl chloroform per mg animal mass (above)

and stored at -80°C (for less than 7 days). TLC was performed as in (Carten et al., 2011) with

slight modifications. 150Å silica gel HL 250 μl 20x20 cm plates (iChromatography 66011/Miles

Scientific P76011) were pre-equilibrated with 1:1 chloroform:methanol (~ 1 hr). After drying, 1 μl

lipids and 3 μl standards (30 μg mono-, di-, triglyceride mix, SUPELCO 1787-1AMP, plus 30 μg

cholesteryl palmitate, SIGMA C6072) were spotted onto the plates using TLC spotting

capillaries. Non-polar lipids were resolved with a 80:10:1 petroleum ether:ethyl ether:acetic acid

mix. After drying, TLC plates were sprayed with Primuline (SIGMA 206865) (1 mg/ml fresh stock

in ultrapure water, diluted 1:100 into 80 ml acetone plus 20 ml ultrapure water), dried, and

imaged on an Alpha Innotech chemiluminescent imager with Cy2 excitation/emission filters.

Peak areas in images were quantified in ImageJ/Fiji using the "Plot Lanes" function in the Gels

submenu (https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/docs/menus/analyze.html). Averages were calculated and

normalized in Excel; statistical analysis was conducted in Prism 9.

RNA extraction, library preparation, and RNA sequencing

Uninjured planarians and regenerating tissue fragments were homogenized in Trizol

using a motorized Kontes pestle grinder, and RNA was extracted using two chloroform

extractions and high-salt precipitation buffer according to the manufacturer's instructions. After

precipitation, solutions were transferred to Zymo RNA columns for DNAse treatment and

purification, according to manufacturer's instructions. RNA samples were analyzed using Agilent

RNA ScreenTape on an Agilent TapeStation 2200 according to manufacturer's protocol.

For analysis of gene expression in control vs. *nkx2.2(RNAi),* single-end (75 bp) libraries

were generated using the Lexogen Quantseq 3' mRNA Library Prep Kit as previously described,

except that sequence was generated with an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 instrument (Forsthoefel et

al., 2020). 32M-39M reads were generated for 3 biological replicates per condition. For analysis

of gene expression in control, *apob-M,* and *apob-S* animals, total RNA for 4-6 biological

replicates per condition was submitted to GENEWIZ (South Plainfield, NJ) for paired-end (2x150

bp) library generation using the NEB NEXT ULTRA library prep for standard RNA Seq with

standard Illumina adapters. Sequencing was conducted on an Illumina HiSeq instrument; 19M -

26M reads were generated for each replicate.

Read mapping

For *nkx2.2(RNAi)*, quality control and read mapping were conducted with FastQC

(v0.11.5) (Andrews, 2010), BBDuk (v35.66) (https://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/), Bowtie2

(v2.3.1) (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012), and Samtools (v1.3) (Li et al., 2009) to unique

transcripts in dd_Smed_v6 (Brandl et al., 2016) as previously described (Forsthoefel et al.,

2020). Similar methods were used for *apob(RNAi)* reads, with several exceptions as follows.

BBDUK (v36.99) settings for paired end reads: k=13 ktrim=r mink=11 qtrim=rl trimq=10

minlength=35 tbo tpe. Bowtie2 (v2.3.1) for paired end reads was used for mapping, with "-a"

multi-mapping and "--local" soft-clipping allowed. For read summarization, the "featureCounts"

utility in the Subread package (v1.6.3) (Liao et al., 2019) was used with a custom ".SAF" file and

options "-p -M -O -F SAF" to include multi-mapping and multi-overlapping reads.

For mapping of X1/X2/Xins, PIWI-HI/-LO/-NEG bulk neoblast transcriptome and

regeneration fragment data (Zeng et al., 2018), short read fastq files were downloaded from

NCBI GEO (GSE107874), and mapped to dd_Smed_v6_unique with the same settings used for

our *nkx2.2(RNAi)* data set.

Differential expression analysis

Read counts matrices were imported into R, then analyzed in edgeR v3.8.6 (Robinson et

al., 2010). First, all transcripts with counts per million (CPM) < 1 in 3/12 samples (*nxk2.2(RNAi)*

and X1/X2/Xins data) or 4/12 samples (all others) (e.g., lowly expressed transcripts) were

excluded from further analysis. Next, after recalculation of library sizes, samples were

normalized using trimmed mean of M-values (TMM) method, followed by calculation of

common, trended, and tagwise dispersions. Finally, differentially expressed transcripts were

identified using the pairwise exact test (*nkx2.2(RNAi)* and *apob(RNAi)* experiments) or the

generalized linear model (GLM) likelihood ratio test (Zeng data sets). Expression changes were

considered to be significant if the false discovery rate adjusted *p* value ("FDR") was <.05.

Gene Ontology analysis

GO analysis was conducted using BiNGO (Maere et al., 2005) using a custom *S.*

mediterranea GO annotation as previously described (Forsthoefel et al., 2020). RefSeq protein

collections used for BLASTX and UniProtKB Biological Process GO terms used for annotation

were downloaded for each organism in April 2020.

Hierarchical clustering and heat maps

Hierarchical clustering of transcripts annotated with lipid-metabolism-related GO terms

was conducted using EdgeR-generated log$_2$FC values in Cluster 3.0 (de Hoon et al., 2004), with

Euclidean distance and complete linkage. Heat maps were generated with Java Treeview

(Saldanha, 2004).

qRT-PCR

Total RNA was extracted from biological triplicates (5-10 animals/fragments per

replicate) using Trizol as for RNA-Seq samples. RNA was reverse transcribed using the iScript

cDNA Synthesis kit (BioRad 1708890). *apob-1* and *apob-2* levels were detected using the Fast

Start Essential Green DNA master mix (Roche 06924204001) on a Roche LightCycler 96

instrument. RNA levels were normalized to the geometric mean of endogenous controls *ef-2*

and *gapdh* using the Livak $\Delta\Delta$Ct method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). Statistical significance

was calculated in Microsoft Excel.

Flow cytometry

Planarians were dissociated and filtered in CMFB with collagenase as in (van

Wolfswinkel et al., 2014). Cells were labeled at RT with Hoechst 33342 (50 μg/ml) for 45 min,

followed by addition of propidium iodide (1 μg/ml). For neutral lipid labeling, BODIPY 493/503

(Molecular Probes D3922) at 10 ng/ml was included with Hoechst. Cells were analyzed on a

Becton Dickinson FACSCelesta instrument with 405 nm, 488 nm, and 640 nm lasers. X1, X2,

and Xins gates were drawn using two criteria: cell proportions were approximately 15% (X1)

25% (X2) and 60% (Xins), and reductions in X1 and X2 fractions in 4-day post-irradiation

animals were >95% and ~70%, respectively. Data were analyzed and plots were generated in

FloJo (v10.7.1), and statistical analyses were conducted in Prism 9. For irradiation, uninjured

planarians were dosed with 60 Grays (6,000 rads) using RS-2000 Biological Research X-Ray

Irradiator (Rad Source, Buford, GA).

Cross-referencing of *apob(RNAi)* RNA-Seq data with published transcriptomes

For comparison of dysregulated transcripts in *apob-M* and *apob-S* animals with bulk

neoblast transcriptome data (Zeng et al., 2018), we first identified "signature" transcripts as

follows. "X1 signature" transcripts were defined as those with a $\log_2FC>1$ (FDR<.05) compared

to both "X2" and "Xins." "X2 signature" transcripts had $\log_2FC>1$ (fdr<.05) vs. both "X1" and

"Xins." "Xins signature" had $\log_2FC>1$ (fdr<.05) vs. both "X1" and "X2." Similarly, "PIWI-HI

signature" transcripts were defined as those with a $\log_2FC>1$ (fdr<.05) compared to both "PIWI-

LO" and "PIWI-NEG." "PIWI-LO signature" transcripts had $\log_2FC>1$ (fdr<.05) vs. both "PIWI-HI"

and "PIWI-NEG." "PIWI-NEG signature" transcripts had $\log_2FC>1$ (fdr<.05) vs. both "PIWI-HI"

and "PIWI-LO." Next, we used the "merge" function and "VennDiagram" package in RStudio

(v1.2.1335) to identify signature transcripts in X1/X2/Xins or PIWI-HI/-LO/-NEG that were also

dsyregulated (up or down) in *apob-M* or *apob-S* animals, as shown in Fig. S5. "% of

dysregulated transcripts" was calculated as the number of overlapping transcripts divided by the

total number of X1/X2/Xins or PIWI-HI/-LO/-NEG transcripts.

For comparison of dysregulated transcripts in *apob-M* and *apob-S* animals with single

cell type/state data in (Fincher et al., 2018), we again used the "merge" function in RStudio to

identify the number of transcripts enriched in individual lineage subclusters (Table S2) (Fincher

et al., 2018) that were also dysregulated by *apob* RNAi. "% of dysregulated transcripts" was

calculated as the number of overlapping transcripts divided by the total number of transcripts in

each individual subcluster. In Fig. 5, the "N/TS" (Neoblast/Transition State) designation includes

subclusters with high *piwi-1* mRNA expression thought to be neoblast/progenitor subpopulations

in epidermal, intestine, and protonephridia lineages based on the conclusions of Fincher et al.

and other published data (Scimone et al., 2011; Wagner et al., 2011; van Wolfswinkel et al.,

2014; Thi-Kim Vu et al., 2015). Similarly, the "P" (Progeny) and "M" (Mature) designations are

based on conclusions from both single cell RNA-Seq data and previous work. For lineages that

are less well understood *in vivo* (Fig. S6), we designated subclusters with the highest *piwi-1*

mRNA levels in t-SNE plots (Fincher et al., 2018) as "N/TS," the most peripheral subclusters

(generally with negligible *piwi-1* mRNA levels) as "M", and all other subclusters (with

intermediate to low *piwi-1* mRNA levels) as "P."

Image Collection and Quantification

Epifluorescent images (FISH samples) were collected on a Zeiss AxioObserver.Z1 with

Excelitas X-Cite 120 LED Boost illumination and Zen 2.3 pro. For quantification of pharynx and

brain size, organ area and animal area were measured in ImageJ (Schneider et al., 2012) and

organ-to-body size ratios were calculated. For intestine, length of anterior branch and posterior

branches were measured in ImageJ. Means of posterior branch length were calculated, and

then posterior-to-anterior (head fragments) or anterior-to-posterior (tail fragments) length ratio

was calculated. For tail fragments, the "split" anterior branch phenotype (failure to fuse at the

midline) was scored if there was an obvious gap between anterior branches for at least half the

length of the anterior branch. For images of *apob-1* and *apob-2* FISH on cryosections, z-stacks

were collected with an Apotome.2 for generation of maximum orthogonal projections. Statistical

analysis was conducted in Prism 9.

For anti-pH3-PS10-labeled samples, z-stacks were collected on a Zeiss

AxioObserver.Z1 at 10X magnification, followed by tile stitching, extended depth of focus

projection, and background subtraction (PS10 channel only) with a radius of 30. Control and

experimental samples to be compared were imaged at identical exposures. For quantification,

animal area and PS10+ nuclei were quantified using the Automated Segmentation tools in Zen

2.3 pro. Briefly, animal area was measured with Gaussian smoothing, no background

subtraction or sharpening, Morphology separation, and custom threshold settings that were the

same for all samples to be directly compared. PS10+ nuclei number was measured using

Lowpass smoothing, Rolling Ball background subtraction, Delineate sharpening, Watersheds

separation, with threshold settings and other parameters that were identical for all samples to be

directly compared. Number of mitoses per area were calculated for each animal/fragment,

followed by statistical analyses in Prism 9.

Confocal images were collected on a Zeiss LSM 710 or LSM 880 laser scanning

microscope with 10X Plan NeoFluar, 20X Plan Apo, or 40X C-Apo objectives. For orthogonal

projections (anti-ApoB1 immunolabeling and *ldlr/vldlr* FISH), between three and ten z-planes

were collected at 1-2X "optimal" section thickness (based on objective NA). For *notum* and

wnt11-2 FISH, full fragment thickness stacks were projected to ensure counting of all mRNA-

positive cells.

Images of Oil-Red-O-stained sections, live animals, live regenerates, and WISH samples

were collected on a Zeiss Stemi 508 with an Axiocam 105 color camera, or a Zeiss Axio

Zoom.V16 with an Axiocam 105 camera. In some cases brightness and/or contrast were

adjusted in Adobe Photoshop to improve signal contrast.

Reagents and Primers

Detailed information on reagents and primer sequences will be made available on

publication of the peer-reviewed manuscript or by request.

Data availability

Raw and processed RNA-Seq data associated with this study will be made available in

the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) upon publication.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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Figures and Figure Legends

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Figure 1.

Figure 1. Transcripts encoding planarian *apolipoprotein b* orthologs are intestine-

enriched and downregulated in *nkx2.2(RNAi)* animals. (A) *nkx2.2* mRNA *in situ* expression

patterns in uninjured control and *nkx2.2(RNAi)* planarians. **(B)** Volcano plot showing

downregulation of *apob-1, apob-2,* and *nkx2.2* in *nkx2.2(RNAi)* animals*.* An offset of 1e-300 was

added to all FDR values to enable plotting of transcripts with FDR=0. **(C)** *apob-1* and *apob-2*

mRNA (ISH) expression in control (top) and *nkx2.2(RNAi)* planarians. **(D)** *apob-1* and *apob-2*

mRNA expression (FISH) in sagittal sections. Arrows indicate *apob*-expressing cells outside the

intestine (dotted yellow outline) in digitally brightened images. Scale bars: 500 μm **(A)**; 200 μm

(C); 50 μm **(D)**.

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Figure 2.

Figure 2. *apob* orthologs are required for viability and neutral lipid metabolism. (A)

Simultaneous RNAi-mediated knockdown of *apob-1* and *apob-2* causes mild (yellow) and

severe (orange) depigmentation, and very severe (pink) phenotypes including head regression,

ventral curling, and lysis. n>10 animals per time point. **(B)** Simple Western (capillary-based

protein analysis) lane view of extracts from control and knockdown planarians labeled with

custom anti-ApoB-1. **(C)** ApoB-1 protein expression in sagittal sections. Expression in intestine

(dotted outline) and outside the intestine (arrows) is dramatically reduced in "very severe" *apob-*

1(RNAi);apob-2(RNAi) planarians (right panels). mAb 6G10 (green) labels body wall,

dorsoventral, and visceral muscle fibers (demarcating the intestine.) **(D)** Neutral lipids

accumulate in the intestine and parenchyma (arrows) of "mild" *apob(RNAi)* planarians. Oil Red

O labeling, sagittal sections. **(E)** Cholesteryl esters (CE) and triglycerides (TG), but not

diacylglycerides (DG) or monoglycerides (MG) were significantly elevated in "mild" *apob(RNAi)*

animals. Thin layer chromatography, intensities of lipid species measured in ImageJ and

normalized to controls. n=4, p=.0092 (CE) and p=.0415 (TG), one-way ANOVA, two-stage linear

step-up procedure of Benjamini, Krieger, and Yekutieli. **(F)** Lineage schematic indicating cell

types in X1, X2, and Xins gates on flow cytometry scatter plots. **(G)** Sample flow plot for

uninjured animals. **(H)** Example plot for animals 4 days post irradiation ("4 dpi"), showing

ablation of cells in X1 and depletion of cells in X2. **(I-J)** *apob* knockdown causes reduction of

neutral lipids in X1 and X2 cells. n>6 biological replicates, one-way ANOVA and Tukey's

multiple comparisons test. Scale bars: 50 μm **(C)**; 200 μm **(D,** upper panels**)**; 100 μm **(D,** lower

panels**)**.

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Figure 3.

Figure 3. *apob* inhibition delays regeneration. (A) *apob* double knockdown results in smaller

blastemas (arrows) in head and trunk regenerates (8 dpa). **(B-C)** Differentiation of cells

expressing polarity genes *wnt11-2* (posterior) and *notum* (anterior) is delayed in *apob(RNAi)*

animals. FISH; max projections of confocal images. n=5-15 fragments per condition were

scored for number of positive cells. Control and *apob-M* fragments shown as phenotype

examples. **(D)** Pharynx regeneration is reduced in *apob(RNAi)* head regenerates (6 dpa)

(*laminin* mRNA FISH, epifluorescent images). p=.0021, control vs. *apob-S.* **(E)** CNS

regeneration is reduced in *apob(RNAi)* head regenerates (6 dpa) (*ChAT* mRNA FISH,

epifluorescent images). p=.0101, control vs. *apob-S.* **(F-G)** *apob* RNAi affects intestine

regeneration (6 dpa) (*ctsla* mRNA FISH, epifluorescent images). New branches are shorter in

heads **(F)**. p=.0004 (*apob-M*); p=.0016 (*apob-S*). New branches often fail to fuse in tails **(G)**. All

significance testing: one-way ANOVA (multiple comparisons) with Dunnet's T3 test. DAPI (blue)

in **(D-G)**. Error bars = mean +/- S.D. Scale bars: 500 μm **(A)**; 200 μm **(B-C);** 10 μm **(B-C** insets**);**

200 μm **(D-G)**.

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Figure 4. *apob* inhibition causes accumulation of neoblast progeny. (A-B)

phosphoHistone-H3-S10-positive (pH3-PS10) cells are modestly elevated in *apob-M,* but not

apob-S, uninjured animals (A) and 2-day regenerates (B). **(C)** Lineage schematic indicating cell

types/states in X1, X2, and Xins gates. **(D)** Examples of flow plots from uninjured planarians

indicating percentages of cells in each gate, with X2 increase in *apob(RNAi)* animals in red. **(E)**

Percentage of cells in X1 and X2 in uninjured (left), 2-day head (middle), and 2-day trunk (right)

regenerates. Arrows indicate significant increases in X2. **(F)** Examples of flow plots from

uninjured planarians, 24 hr post-irradiation, indicating percentages of cells in each gate, with X2

increase in *apob(RNAi)* animals in red. **(G)** Percentage of cells in X1 and X2 in uninjured

planarians, 24 hr (left) and 48 hr (right) post-irradiation. Arrows indicate significant increases in

X2. pH3-PS10 significance testing: one-way ANOVA (multiple comparisons) with Dunnet's T3

test. Flow cytometry significance testing: one-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparisons

test for non-irradiated samples, and two-way ANOVA and two-stage linear step-up procedure of

Benjamini, Krieger and Yekutieli for multiple comparisons for irradiated samples. Error bars =

mean +/- S.D. Scale bars: 200 μm **(A-B)**.

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1111   **Figure 5.**

Figure 5. *apob* RNAi preferentially dysregulates transcripts in differentiating neoblast

progeny and mature post-mitotic cells. (A-B) Gene Ontology Biological Process categories

over-represented among transcripts up- or down-regulated by *apob* RNAi. Numbers of

transcripts dysregulated in (*apob-M/apob-S*); -log$_{10}$(FDR) on X-axis. **(C-D)** *apob* knockdown

dysregulates greater proportions of X2 and PIWI-LOW signature transcripts (arrows in

histograms). Venn diagrams show analysis scheme: percent of X1/X2/Xins and PIWI-HI/PIWI-

LO/PIWI-NEG signature transcripts that overlap with transcripts dysregulated in *apob-M/apob-S*

animals. Histograms show percentage of signature transcripts up- and down-regulated in *apob-*

M/apob-S animals. **(E-G)** *apob* knockdown dysregulates greater proportions of transcripts

enriched in progeny ("P") and mature ("M") post-mitotic cell subclusters in multiple cell type

lineages. Arrows indicate less-affected transcripts enriched in neoblasts/transition state ("N/TS")

subclusters. Venn diagrams show analysis scheme: proportion of subcluster-enriched

transcripts that overlap with transcripts dysregulated in *apob-M/apob-S* animals. t-SNE plots

(digiworm.wi.mit.edu) indicate subclusters and *piwi-1* mRNA expression.

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Supplemental Figures and Figure Legends

Figure S1.

Figure S1. *apob-1* and *apob-2* encode intestine-enriched ApoB orthologs. (A) Overlap of

downregulated (top) and upregulated (bottom) transcripts in *nkx2.2(RNAi)* animals with

intestine-enriched transcripts. 466/672 downregulated and 177/664 upregulated genes were

present in intestine-enriched data set (Forsthoefel et al., 2020); total numbers of dysregulated

transcripts in *nkx2.2(RNAi)* samples were slightly lower than Table S1, because some did not

have detectable expression in the intestine data set. **(B)** Conserved domains in human (H.s.), fly

(D.m.), chicken (G.g.), and planarian (S.m.) ApoB proteins. **(C)** Phylogenetic relationship of

planarian (*Smed*) ApoB-1 and ApoB-2 N-terminal Vitellogenin domains those of closely related

ApoB and Vitellogenin-domain-containing proteins in human (*Hom_sap*), mouse (*Mus_mus*),

chicken (*Mus_mus*), fly (*Dros_mel*), honeybee (*Apis_mel*), frog (*Xen_laev*), and *C. elegans*

(*C_el*). **(D)** t-SNE plots from single cell transcriptomes (Fincher et al., 2018) showing expression

of *nkx2.2, apob-1,* and *apob-2* in the intestinal lineage. All transcripts were enriched in progeny

(subclusters 0/7) and mature phagocytes (arrow); *nkx2.2* was also present in

neoblasts/transition state (subcluster 1). **(E)** Double FISH showing co-expression of *apob-1,*

apob-2, and *nkx2.2* mRNA. **(F)** Double FISH showing expression of *apob-1, apob-2* in

phagocytes and basal cells (*apob-1 only*), but not goblet cells. Scale bars: 200 µm **(D-E)**; 10 µm

(D-E insets, bottom left**).**

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Figure S2.

Figure S2. Further characterization of *apob* expression and RNAi phenotypes. (A) *apob-1* and *apob-2* mRNA levels are upregulated in head and trunk regenerates (qRT-PCR). **(B)** *apob-1* and *apob-2* mRNA levels are upregulated in whole fragment RNA-Seq data (Zeng et al., 2018). **(C)** ApoB-1 protein is upregulated during regeneration (3-5 dpa) in head and trunk fragments. **(D-E)** Neutral lipids accumulate in *apob*(RNAi) ("mild") regenerates. Dashed line indicates approximate plane of amputation. Anterior is left. **(F-G)** Brain and pharynx regeneration are delayed, but not blocked, by *apob* RNAi. Arrows indicate smaller organs in *apob-M* animals relative to controls (representative images). Significance testing (qPCR): Student's t-test (two-tailed, heteroschedastic) on pairwise comparisons to 0 day time points. Significance testing (Wes): one-way ANOVA (multiple comparisons) with Dunnet's T3 test. DAPI (blue) in **(D-G)**. Error bars = mean +/- S.D. Error bars = mean +/- S.D. Scale bars: 200 μm **(D-E, upper panels)**; 100 μm **(D-E, lower panels)**; 100 μm **(F-G)**.

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Figure S3.

Figure S3. Lipoprotein receptors are upregulated during planarian regeneration. (A)

Schematic showing domains in LDLR and related homologs. **(B)** WISH showing upregulation of

planarian *ldlr* homologs in blastemas at 2 and 5 dpa. **(C)** *ldlr-1* and *ldlr-2* mRNA levels are

upregulated in whole fragment RNA-Seq data (Zeng et al., 2018). **(D)** *ldlr* homologs (magenta,

mRNA FISH) are expressed in *piwi-1*+ neoblasts (green, mRNA FISH) as well as differentiating

(*piwi-1*-negative*)* brain and pharynx (arrows). **(E)** Heat maps showing numerous planarian

transcripts related to lipid metabolism are up- and down-regulated during regeneration in whole

fragment RNA-Seq data (Zeng et al., 2018). Scale bars: 200 μm **(B)**; 200 μm **(D,** left panels**)**; 20

μm **(D,** right panels**)**.

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Figure S4.

Figure S4. Further characterization of effects of *apob* inhibition on neoblasts and

neoblast progeny. (A-B) Numbers and body-wide distribution of of *piwi-1+* and *tgs-1+*

("totipotent") neoblasts are grossly normal in uninjured (left panels) and 7.5 dpa head and tail

regenerates (right panels). Whole-mount FISH, representative samples, epifluorescent images.

Dotted lines, approximate amputation plane. **(C)** Percentage of cells in X1 and X2 in 7 day head

(left) and trunk (right) regenerates. Arrows indicate significant increases in X2. Flow cytometry

significance testing: one-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Error bars = mean

+/- S.D. Scale bars: 200 μm **(A-B)**.

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1191 **Figure S5.**

 Figure S5. *apob* RNAi preferentially dysregulates transcripts in differentiating neoblast

progeny and mature post-mitotic cells. (A) Venn diagram showing no overlap between X1,

X2, and Xins "signature" transcripts (defined as having logFC>1 (FDR<.05) vs. transcripts in

both other fractions). **(B)** Venn diagrams showing overlap between X1, X2, and Xins signature

transcripts and transcripts up or down in *apob-M* and *apob-S*. Percentages of X1/X2/Xins

dysregulated are indicated. **(C)** Venn diagram showing no overlap between PIWI-HI, PIWI-LO,

and PIWI-NEG signature transcripts (defined as having logFC>1 (FDR<.05) vs. transcripts in

both other fractions). **(D)** Venn diagrams showing overlap between PIWI-HI, PIWI-LO, and

PIWI-NEG signature transcripts and transcripts up or down in *apob-M* and *apob-S*. Percentages

of PIWI-HI/PIWI-LO/PIWI-NEG dysregulated are indicated.

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Figure S6.

Figure S6. Additional examples of dysregulation of transcripts in differentiating neoblast

progeny and mature post-mitotic cells by *apob* RNAi. (A) Venn diagram depicting generic

scheme used to identify overlap of transcripts enriched in specific subclusters in Fincher et al.,

2018 that are dysregulated in *apob(RNAi)* planarians. **(B-F)** *apob* knockdown dysregulates

greater proportions transcripts in progeny ("P") and mature ("M") post-mitotic subclusters (based

on *piwi-1* mRNA levels, see Methods) in multiple cell type lineages. Arrows indicate less-

affected transcripts in neoblast/transition state ("N/TS") subclusters. t-SNE plots

(digiworm.wi.mit.edu) indicate subclusters and *piwi-1* mRNA expression in progenitors/early

progeny.

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1224 **Supplemental Tables**

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1226 **Table S1. Up- and downregulated transcripts in *nkx2.2(RNAi)* planarians.**

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1228 **Table S2. Gene Ontology Biological Process terms enriched for transcripts up- and**

1229 **downregulated by *nkx2.2* RNAi.**

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1231 **Table S3. Transcripts annotated with lipid-related Gene Ontology terms in the planarian**

1232 **transcriptome.**

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1234 **Table S4. Up- and downregulated transcripts in *apob-1;apob-2(RNAi)* "mild" and "severe"**

1235 **planarians.**

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1237 **Table S5. Gene Ontology Biological Process terms enriched for transcripts up- and**

1238 **downregulated by *apob* RNAi.**