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3 **_map3k1_ is required for spatial restriction**
4 **of progenitor differentiation in planarians**
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Planarian regeneration and tissue turnover involve fate specification in pluripotent stem cells called neoblasts. Neoblasts select fates through the expression of fate-specific transcription factors (FSTFs), generating specialized neoblasts. Specialized neoblasts are spatially intermingled and can be dispersed broadly, frequently being far from their target tissue. The post-mitotic progeny of neoblasts, serving as progenitors, migrate and differentiate into mature cell types. Pattern formation is thus strongly influenced by the migratory assortment and differentiation of fate-specified progenitors in precise locations, which we refer to as progenitor targeting. This central step of pattern maintenance and formation, however, is poorly understood. Here, we describe a requirement for the conserved *map3k1* gene in targeting, restricting post-mitotic progenitor differentiation to precise locations. RNAi of *map3k1* causes ectopic differentiation of eye progenitors along their migratory path, resulting in dispersed ectopic eyes and eye cells. Other neural tissues similarly display ectopic posterior differentiation and pharynx cells emerge dispersed laterally and anteriorly in *map3k1* RNAi animals. Ectopic differentiated cells are also found within the incorrect organs after *map3k1* RNAi, and ultimately teratomas form. These findings implicate *map3k1* signaling in controlling the positional regulation of progenitor behavior – restricting progenitor differentiation to targeted locations in response to external cues in the local tissue environment.

Introduction

Planarians are capable of regenerating any missing body part through the action of pluripotent stem cells called neoblasts (Reddien, 2018). Neoblasts also maintain all cell types of the adult body through a process of constitutive cell turnover. Because planarians have >125 different adult cell types, these stem cells must be capable of choosing among a large array of possible cell fates (Fincher et al., 2018; Plass et al., 2018; Zeng et al., 2018; King et al., 2024). Fate specification can occur in neoblasts through the activation of transcription factors called fate-specific transcription factors (FSTFs), producing specialized neoblasts (Reddien, 2022). Specialized neoblasts divide and can produce daughter cells that act as migratory precursors (post-mitotic progenitors) for differentiated cell types (Eisenhoffer et al., 2008; van Wolfswinkel et al., 2014; Reddien, 2022; King et al., 2024).

Fate choice in neoblasts can be regulated by position. For instance, eye-specialized neoblasts are formed in roughly the anterior third of the animal (Lapan and Reddien, 2011, 2012). However, this spatial regulation of stem cell fate specification is coarse, when compared to the precise positioning of cell differentiation to form functional, complex tissue architecture (Lapan and Reddien, 2011, 2012; Adler et al., 2014; Scimone et al., 2014a; van Wolfswinkel et al., 2014; Park et al., 2023). Because specialized neoblasts are produced in broad regions, they are often found far from their target tissue. Indeed, specialized neoblasts can frequently be found closer to other differentiated cell types than to the differentiated tissue they are fated to mature into (Park et al., 2023). Furthermore, neoblasts are specified in a highly spatially intermingled manner, in heterogenous neoblast neighborhoods (Park et al., 2023). For instance, a muscle-specialized neoblast could have a neural, intestinal, epidermal, eye, or other specialized neoblast as its nearest neoblast neighbor (Park et al., 2023). These observations suggest that the regulation of differentiation programs for post-mitotic migratory progenitors is a crucial aspect to patterning and maintaining the various tissues in the animal. Neoblasts themselves are not highly migratory, however (Saló and Baguñà, 1985; Guedelhoefer and Sánchez Alvarado, 2012; Abnave et al., 2017). By contrast, the post-mitotic descendant cells of neoblasts can remain immature for a number of days – serving as progenitors – and can be migratory (Eisenhoffer et al., 2008; Wenemoser and Reddien, 2010; Guedelhoefer and Sánchez Alvarado, 2012; van Wolfswinkel et al., 2014; Abnave et al., 2017; Park et al., 2023). These findings generate a model for pattern maintenance during tissue turnover and formation in planarian regeneration in which specialized neoblasts generate post-mitotic progenitors that assort and target precise locations for differentiation through migration (Park et al., 2023).

From a messy state of planarian progenitor formation, order must arise. Terminal

differentiation of post-mitotic progenitors must be regulated to occur at precise positions to

prevent disordered differentiation along migratory trails. Defects in this process could lead to

errors in tissue pattern, such as supernumerary organs, ectopic differentiation of single cells,

incorrect incorporation of a particular cell type into the wrong tissue, and teratoma formation.

Therefore, understanding how migratory progenitors know when and where to terminally

differentiate into a mature stationary cell is a central problem for understanding how systems of

migratory progenitors generate and maintain pattern. Little is known about the molecular

regulation of differentiation, restricting it to occur in precise locations. Given that progenitor

migratory targeting and differentiation are the predominant processes involved in planarian adult

tissue patterning, identification of the molecular processes regulating these behaviors is central

for understanding adult regeneration and pattern maintenance. Planarians present the

opportunity to uncover general mechanisms underlying migratory progenitor targeting and

differentiation regulation, which could apply to a myriad of developmental and regenerative

contexts across the animal kingdom.

Results

map3k1 *RNAi results in the ectopic posterior differentiation of eye cells along the AP*

axis.

We sought to understand how the differentiation of fate-specified progenitors is spatially

regulated to control planarian patterning through RNAi studies. The RNAi of a single gene

(*map3k1,* dd_5198) encoding a MAP3K1-like signaling protein resulted in a striking phenotype

of ectopic eye formation that was distinct in nature from previously described planarian

patterning phenotypes, and was suggestive of having a candidate role in progenitor targeting

(Figure 1A). We therefore selected this gene for detailed investigation given the robust and

unique nature of its patterning phenotype. Planarian *map3k1* encodes a member of the

MAP3K1 subclass of MAP3K signaling proteins. MAP3K1 proteins, including the planarian

ortholog, possess a unique domain architecture among MAP3Ks. Aside from its characteristic

kinase domain, MAP3K1 has other unique domains: a PHD-like RING finger, a SWIM-type

RING finger, and a TOG-like domain. These domains have been implicated in non-canonical

MAP kinase signaling cascades that enable MAP3K1 to act as a ubiquitin ligase, a scaffold

protein, and to signal through MAP kinase proteins (Figure 1- figure supplement 1).

The bilaterally symmetric anterior location of planarian eyes represents the normal

targeting location of eye progenitors (Lapan and Reddien, 2011, 2012). RNAi of *map3k1*

resulted in the gradual emergence of ectopic eyes posterior to the normal eye location (Figure

1A,B). Ectopic eyes displayed some variance in their posterior and medial-lateral (ML) positions

in the pre-pharyngeal animal region (Figure 1A,B). Fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH)

experiments showed that both optic cup and photoreceptor cells were present ectopically

(Figure 1A,B). Ectopic optic cup and photoreceptor cells were observed both as clusters of cells

that nucleated and grew into additional eyes, as well as individual, isolated eye cells (Figure

1A,B; Figure 1- figure supplement 1B). Isolated, individual photoreceptor neuron or optic cup

cell differentiation is rarely observed in the wild-type state. Surprisingly, although ectopic eye

cells appeared most frequently in the normal zone of eye progenitor specification, they also

appeared along the entire AP axis, including in the posterior half of the tail – far from the normal

eye-progenitor specification zone (Figure 1C, Figure 1- figure supplement 1B). Most animals

had at least one ectopic eye cell in the tail after 26 days of *map3k1* RNAi. The *map3k1* RNAi

phenotype did not appear to result from a anterior-to-posterior progression of eye formation,

because isolated eye cells were observed in RNAi animal tails even at early RNAi timepoints

when no, or very few other ectopic differentiated eye cells appeared between the head and tail

(Figure 1C, F, Figure 1- figure supplement 1B). The very posterior ectopic eye cells that

appeared in *map3k1* RNAi animals were more sparse than those in the head, and more likely to

appear as singletons rather than aggregates (Figure 1C, Figure 1- figure supplement 1B).

The location where dispersed eye progenitors migrate towards and undergo terminal

differentiation is referred to as the target zone (TZ) (Atabay et al., 2018). A variety of genes can

be inhibited to result in eye formation in ectopic positions along the anterior-posterior (AP) axis:

for instance, posteriorly for RNAi of *nou darake (ndk)* (Cebria et al., 2002) or *wntA* (Kobayashi et

al., 2007), and anteriorly for RNAi of *notum* (Hill and Petersen, 2015) and *nr4A* (Li et al., 2019).

Furthermore, *wnt5* RNAi causes ectopic lateral eye formation and *slit* RNAi cause medial eye

formation (Oderberg et al., 2017; Atabay et al., 2018). However, in all of these cases ectopic

eyes appear along particular AP or ML trajectories (Figure 1D, summary cartoon), consistent

with alteration of the eye progenitor TZ along a single (AP or ML) axis, but still with

differentiation constrained to occur in a particular position on the orthogonal axis. By contrast,

map3k1 RNAi ectopic eyes were more diffuse, often being ectopic in both AP and ML position.

This distinct patterning phenotype raised the possibility that *map3k1* was required for a

patterning process not previously perturbed by inhibition of prior patterning genes.

Patterning in planarians prominently involves constitutive and regional expression of

genes constituting positional information referred to as position control genes (PCGs) (Reddien,

2018). PCGs are predominantly expressed in planarian muscle (Witchley et al., 2013). *slit, wnt5,*

ndk, nr4A, and *notum* are regulated in their spatial expression and are components of this PCG

patterning system. Therefore, these genes likely influence progenitor-extrinsic cues that guide

progenitor targeting. By contrast, *map3k1* is not expressed overtly in a spatially restricted

manner, instead being expressed broadly across tissues (Figure 1- figure supplement 1C).

The appearance of eye cells in the tail of *map3k1* RNAi animals suggests that some eye

progenitor specification is likely occurring in the tails of these animals. Eye specialized

neoblasts can be recognized by the co-expression of the eye-specific FSTF *ovo* (Lapan and

Reddien, 2012) and the neoblast marker *smedwi-1* (Reddien et al., 2005). Indeed, *ovo+;*

smedwi-1+ neoblasts were observed at low frequency in the midbody and tail of *map3k1* RNAi

animals (Figure 1E; Figure 1- figure supplement 1D, E). The frequency of these observed rare

ovo+ neoblasts was not substantially different from a low frequency observed in control animals,

raising the possibility that low frequency sporadic eye neoblast specification events in the body

can lead to ectopic differentiation when *map3k1* is inhibited.

map3k1 *prevents the posteriorization of some but not all anterior cell types*

To assess whether the ectopic differentiation of progenitors that occurred in *map3k1* RNAi

animals was specific to the eye, we visualized other features of differentiated tissue patterns.

For example, lateral branches are normally associated specifically with the planarian brain

(Hyman, 1951). However, after *map3k1* RNAi, ectopic brain branches emerged from the two

ventral nerve cords – most commonly observed in the anterior and mid-body, extending to the

far posterior of the animal over long-term (>6 weeks) RNAi in uninjured animals (Figure 2A,

Figure 2- figure supplement 1A). Ectopic eyes sent axons that traveled along branches and

main nerve cord tracts (Figure 2A, Figure 2- figure supplement 1A). Ectopic brain branches that

emerged from ventral nerve cords contained $GluR^+$ neurons, confirming that they are at least

partly comprised of normally brain-branch-restricted neurons (Figure 2B). $GluR^+$ neurons are

similarly found in ectopic brain branches observed after RNAi of *ndk* (Cebria et al., 2002).

Another anterior neural population, marked with an RNA probe to dd_17258, also

displayed ectopic differentiation across the AP axis of *map3k1* RNAi animals – including through

to the tip of the tail (Figure 2C, Figure 2- figure supplement 1B,C). By contrast, the AP location

of $cintillo^+$ neurons, which display posteriorization in *ndk* RNAi animals (Scimone et al., 2016),

remained unaffected in *map3k1* RNAi animals (Figure 2C). Another anterior-restricted neural

population (*glutamic acid decarboxylase, gad+*) also failed to show posteriorization following

map3k1 RNAi (Figure 2-figure supplement 1D). These findings suggest that *map3k1* is required

for the normal AP restriction of a subset of neural cell types during tissue turnover. The cell

types that displayed posteriorization following *map3k1* RNAi also maintained their general tissue

structure in their normal locations, rather than being lost anteriorly and replaced with a more

posterior domain.

To determine if tissue posteriorization occurred in non-neuronal cell types, we assayed

particular gland cell populations that predominantly reside in the head, with a small fraction

extending down to the pharynx and rarely to the tail. *map3k1* RNAi animals showed

posteriorization of gland cell distributions for the primarily anterior dd_7131+ and dd_8476+

populations (Figure 2D-F). As was the case with the neurons, not all gland cell types were

affected by *map3k1* RNAi. dd_9223+ cells, which are normally restricted to the anterior, did not

change in distribution (Figure 2D). These data indicate that *map3k1* broadly affects the spatial

distribution of differentiated cell types for multiple tissues during tissue maintenance through

turnover, but that its role in regulating differentiation is restricted to a subset of progenitor

populations.

map3k1 *inhibition causes ectopic anterior differentiation of pharynx progenitors*

Another regional tissue that is maintained through turnover from regional progenitors is the

planarian pharynx. *FoxA* is expressed in neoblasts surrounding the centrally located pharynx,

specifying progenitors for this organ (Adler et al., 2014; Scimone et al., 2014a). These

progenitors must enter the pharynx through a connection to the body at the anterior end of the

organ. After *map3k1* RNAi, *vitrin*$^+$ pharynx cells appeared at the anterior domain of the predicted

FoxA+ zone, through which pharynx progenitors are migrating, as well more anterior to the

normal *FoxA+* zone (Figure 3A). *vitrin*$^+$ cells clustered together to form small structures

containing pharyngeal cells between the original pharynx and the brain (Figure 3A). Most

animals developed one main ectopic pharynx cell cluster anterior to the original pharynx,

whereas others developed multiple anterior structures that could also exist lateral to the midline

(Figure 3A). This variable placement of ectopic pharyngeal cells on the ML axis is reminiscent of

the patterning defect observed with eyes described above. Interestingly, many progenitors in the

FoxA zone appear to differentiate as singletons – single pharynx cells, a phenotype not

previously observed with other patterning phenotypes, and also bearing similarity to the ectopic

eye cell defect.

The planarian mouth is an epidermal opening associated with the posterior end of the

pharynx. Ectopic anterior mouth cells marked by RNA transcripts for the gene *NB.22.1e* were

also observed following *map3k1* RNAi. Ectopic mouth cells appeared as an anterior streak of

cells with *NB.22.1e* transcripts, originating from the original mouth. In addition, ectopic sparse,

scattered mouth cells were also present, sometimes lateral to the midline (Figure 3B). Rarely
(n=2/12 animals), an ectopic focus of *NB.22.1e+* mouth cells was observed in the tail, posterior
to the pharynx (Figure 3B). We also examined the pattern of cells expressing *mhc1*, which
marks pharyngeal muscle. Similar to the case of *vitrin+* cells, scattered ectopic foci of
pharyngeal muscle cells were observed in the anterior half of the animal (Figure 3C).
Because differentiated pharynx cells were observed outside of the normal progenitor
specification zone, we considered the possibility that pharynx progenitor specification itself
occurred in ectopic locations following *map3k1* RNAi. dd_554 transcripts mark a post-mitotic
pharynx progenitor population (Zhu et al., 2015). Ectopic dd_554 cells were observed anterior to
the pharynx in *map3k1* RNAi animals, including in foci (Figure 3D). *FoxA$^+$; smedwi-1$^+$* cells
include prominently pharynx progenitors. A small frequency of animals exhibited *FoxA$^+$;*
smedwi-1$^+$ cells between the lobes of the cephalic ganglia of long term *map3k1* RNAi animals.
This location is anterior to the normal progenitor specification zone for the pharynx (Figure 3E),
which is typically centrally restricted on the AP axis (Adler et al., 2014; Scimone et al., 2014a).
These findings are consistent with the interpretation that these *FoxA$^+$; smedwi-1$^+$* cells possibly
include pharynx progenitors and that stem cell fate specification may occur outside of the
normally spatially restricted domains in *map3K1* RNAi animals, at least in the case of the
pharynx.
Complete posterior duplication of the pharynx has previously been observed with *ptk7,*
ndl-3, and *wntP-2* RNAi (Scimone et al., 2016; Hill and Petersen, 2018), anterior duplication has
been observed after *roboA* RNAi (Cebria and Newmark, 2007), and lateral duplication has been
observed after *wnt5* RNAi (Gurley et al., 2010). The *map3k1* RNAi phenotype differs from these
other patterning phenotypes, in that it involves greater disorganization, small clusters of
pharyngeal cells, and even single pharyngeal cells. This scenario bears similarity to the
phenotype for the eye: disorganized ectopic tissue differentiation including in small clusters and
single cells. These scenarios suggest defects in the regulation of progenitor targeting for
differentiation in precise locations.
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The targeting and maintenance of tissues after* map3k1 *RNAi
Post-mitotic progenitors normally migrate to their target zone (TZ) and differentiate at this
location. Prior work indicates that in addition to the TZ, the target tissue itself can incorporate its
fate-specified progenitors and promote progenitor differentiation, even in ectopic locations
(outside of the TZ) (Atabay et al., 2018; Hill and Petersen, 2018). For instance, surgical
manipulations (including transplantation) that lead to ectopic eyes outside of the TZ in wild-type

animals result in stable maintenance of those ectopic eyes through progenitor incorporation and

differentiation as part of turnover (Atabay et al., 2018). This is enabled by the fact that

progenitors in wild-type animals are specified in broad regions, giving ectopic differentiated

tissues access to a constant supply of progenitors (Lapan and Reddien, 2011, 2012). Thus, at

least two components appear to be capable of promoting progenitor differentiation: the TZ and

the target tissue. The pharynx shows similar properties to the case of the eye – with an ectopic

pharynx being maintained through progenitor incorporation and differentiation (Hill and

Petersen, 2018). A surgically transplanted ectopic organ (outside of its TZ), however, will not

regenerate upon its removal. Because the original TZ location of the tissue is unchanged,

progenitors will target the correct location after resection of an ectopic organ (Atabay et al.,

2018; Hill and Petersen, 2018).

Given the above reasoning, ectopic eyes in *map3k1* RNAi animals could in principle be

explained by TZ movement or expansion, if *map3k1* primarily acted to control TZ locations. To

assess whether TZ alteration, or some other explanation for the *map3k1* RNAi phenotype is

more likely, we resected all visible eyes in *map3k1* RNAi animals to determine the location of

new progenitor differentiation in the absence of a target tissue. These eye-resected *map3k1*

RNAi animals grew back eyes at a comparable rate to control animals, and in the expected wild-

type (normal TZ) location (Figure 4A). Notably, however, *map3k1* RNAi animals did not

regenerate all other ectopic eyes that were removed. This indicates that the TZ location is

maintained after *map3k1* RNAi, and that at least some progenitors are capable of migrating and

differentiating at the normal TZ location in the absence of an eye. These data are consistent

with a model in which *map3k1* does not primarily control the positional information read by

progenitors, but instead affects the ability of progenitors to differentiate at proper locations in

response to a normal positional information system – a possibility explored further below.

To determine if the pharynx target zone is also maintained in its normal, wild-type

location in *map3k1* RNAi animals, we removed the entire pharynx from its normal location

during progression of the *map3k1* RNAi phenotype (Figure 4B, Figure 4- figure supplement 1A).

By 10 days after pharynx resection, animals regenerated a pharynx in the original pharynx

position, as well as displayed an additional anterior pharynx-like structure (Figure 4B, Figure 4-

figure supplement 1B). Thus, the case for the pharynx is more complex than for the eye.

Regardless, these findings for the pharynx suggest that at least the normal central TZ remains

and is not simply shifted anteriorly.

The location of* de novo *organ regeneration after* map3k1 *RNAi

To determine the location of progenitor targeting and de novo organ formation during

regeneration, we amputated *map3k1* RNAi animals into head, trunk, and tail fragments and

analyzed them after 10 days of regeneration. All fragments regenerated any organs that they

did not already contain at the time of amputation (Figure 4C, D). Two eyes formed in

approximately normal locations in *map3k1* RNAi head blastemas, rather than being posteriorly

shifted or appearing in multiple locations initially. This suggests, similarly to the results from the

eye resection experiments described above, that the TZ is regenerated in roughly the wild-type

location in *map3k1* RNAi animals.

Prior work in the planarian species *D. japonica* showed that *map3k1* RNAi results in tail

fragments regenerating pharynges in an anterior-shifted location (Hosoda et al., 2018).

Consistent with this previously reported effect, pharynges regenerated more anteriorly in

map3k1 RNAi *S. mediterranea* tail fragments, just posterior to the regenerating brain (Figure

4C-E). Notably, trunks also regenerated secondary pharynx-like aggregates very close to the

brain that were underdeveloped, and appeared to interfere with structures around them (Figure

4D, E). Head fragments regenerated multiple pharyngeal structures (Figure 4- figure

supplement 1C). Therefore, the situation for the pharynx in regeneration is more complex than

that of the eye, similar to the findings for organ resections described above.

PCGs and pole organization are largely unaffected by* map3k1 *RNAi

As noted above, numerous PCGs can be inhibited to cause organ duplications. However, the

map3k1 RNAi phenotype described so far is largely consistent with alteration of progenitor

targeting behavior rather than global positional information shifting, as exemplified by the case

of the eye. To directly examine the spatial maintenance of positional information in *map3k1*

RNAi animals we labeled these animals with RNA probes for multiple PCGs. Anterior, posterior,

and medial PCG expression domains were largely unaffected in *map3k1* RNAi animals –

including expression domains for *sFRP-1, ndl-5, ndl-2, ndl-3, wntP-2, axinB,* and *slit* (Figure 5A,

B). The *notum*+ anterior pole, which is produced from migratory *FoxD*+ progenitors (Scimone et

al., 2014b), was present, but displayed some dispersal of cells, somewhat reminiscent of the

eye phenotype (Figure 5B). The anterior pole also displayed some disorganization during head

regeneration (Figure 4- figure supplement 1D). The posterior pole appeared normal (Figure 5B).

axinB transcription can serves as a read-out of the posterior-to-anterior Wnt activity gradient in

planarians (Iglesias et al., 2008; Reuter et al., 2015; Stückemann et al., 2017; Tewari et al.,

2019). *axinB* was transcribed in a similar pattern in negative control and in *map3k1* RNAi

animals, indicating that Wnt activity was maintained in a relatively normal spatial distribution

(Figure 5A). These findings are consistent with results described so far: if enough progenitors

can still make it to the correct TZ location, eyes will be maintained and regenerated at the

normal TZ, indicating positional information still remains and defines a TZ for the eye at

approximately the correct location in *map3k1* RNAi animals. The fact that ectopic eyes emerge

over time in a disordered fashion suggests that it is progenitor targeting for differentiation at

precise locations that is affected by *map3k1* RNAi rather than positional information.

map3k1 *is expressed in neoblasts and migratory post-mitotic progenitors*

Recent scRNA-seq work has developed annotated fate-associated clusters of planarian

neoblasts and post-mitotic progenitors (King et al., 2024). If *map3k1* acts in progenitors to

regulate their differentiation, is should be transcribed in these cells. Indeed, *map3k1* transcripts

were present broadly across neoblast and post-mitotic progenitor clusters (Figure 5- figure

supplement 1), including for the eye (Figure 5- figure supplement 1C, D), neural classes

affected by *map3k1* RNAi (Figure 5- figure supplement 1E-G), and for the pharynx (Figure 5-

figure supplement 1H, I). Whereas expression data alone do not necessarily *map3k1*, these

data are consistent with the possibility that *map3k1* can act within migratory progenitors.

map3k1 *is required for restricting differentiation of eye progenitors along their migratory*

path to the target zone

Eye and pharynx progenitors are normally specified in restricted domains (Lapan and Reddien,

2011, 2012; Adler et al., 2014; Scimone et al., 2014a; Atabay et al., 2018), (referred to here as

progenitor specification zones). Within these domains, progenitors migrate to reach their target

tissue at their TZ, where they differentiate (Atabay et al., 2018; Hill and Petersen, 2018). We

sought to test the possibility that the ectopic differentiated cells in *map3k1* RNAi animals

resulted from premature progenitor differentiation at positions on their normal migratory paths,

before reaching the TZ. An alternative scenario we considered is that ectopic progenitor

specification at some distant location occurs after *map3k1* RNAi and requires excessively long-

range progenitor migration to reach the TZ, ultimately resulting in ectopic differentiation.

Planarian neoblasts can be killed with irradiation (Bardeen and Baetjer, 1904; Reddien

et al., 2005). Lead shielding can be utilized in X-irradiation experiments to locally protect

neoblasts, resulting in neoblasts present only in a restricted field (Dubois, 1948; Guedelhoefer

and Sánchez Alvarado, 2012; Abnave et al., 2017). Neoblasts expand only very slowly from

these restricted regions (barring amputation) (Saló and Baguñà, 1985), but their postmitotic

descendant cells serving as progenitors can readily migrate out from this region to differentiate

at target tissues (Guedelhoefer and Sánchez Alvarado, 2012; Abnave et al., 2017; Park et al.,

2023). We utilized lead shielding over the head and pre-pharyngeal region and X-irradiation to

preserve neoblasts only in the anterior region where eye progenitors are primarily specified

(Figure 6A). 48 hours after irradiation, we initiated RNAi of *map3k1* to observe the behavior of

any eye progenitors restricted to be born within their primary eye progenitor specification zone

(the zone of surviving neoblasts). 17 days after the initiation of *map3k1* RNAi, ectopic eye cells

and ectopic dd_17258+ neurons were apparent (Figure 6B, C). This indicates that ectopic

differentiation can occur after *map3k1* RNAi even from neoblasts restricted to undergo fate

specification close to their target tissue.

Second, we EdU-labeled neoblasts in *map3K1* RNAi animals after 24 days of RNAi, then

transplanted a pre-pharyngeal tissue fragment from these animals into the prepharyngeal region

of unlabeled control host animals (hosts lack *map3K1* RNAi) (Figure 6D). Animals were then

fixed 12 days later. This experimental design allowed assessment of the behavior of *map3k1*

RNAi progenitors that migrate into a non-RNAi host environment, from within the normal eye

progenitor specification zone. EdU-labeled cells migrated out of the transplantation region and

differentiated into eye cells at both the normal eye location (at the TZ) and at ectopic locations in

the host environment (Figure 6E). Additional ectopic eye cells were observed following

transplantation that were not EdU-labeled, likely the result of additional mistargeting of *map3k1*

RNAi progenitors from the transplant, but lacking EdU because of incomplete EdU labeling or

from cells born after the EdU pulse (Supplemental Figure 5A, B). These observations indicate

that eye progenitors originating from the normal specification zone can erroneously differentiate

before reaching their target location.

Differentiated cells in the wrong organ of* map3k1 *RNAi animals

We administered *map3k1* dsRNA for RNAi and let animals undergo normal long-term tissue

turnover to observe the consequences of errors in progenitor targeting. We observed

differentiated pharynx muscle cells within the cephalic ganglia (Figure 7A). We also observed

other differentiated pharynx and epidermal cell types within the eye (Figure 7B), including in

regenerated animals (Supplemental figure 5C). These striking cell-organization defects were not

previously observed in the patterning phenotypes observed following RNAi of PCGs. We

suggest that this defect highlights the risk to tissue architecture of not enacting tight spatial

regulation of differentiation, especially in a biological context where progenitors are spatially

dispersed and migratory. Ectopic differentiated cells can become incorporated into inappropriate

tissue environments where they would normally never be observed, potentially disrupting tissue
structure and function.
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map3k1 *RNAi animals develop teratomas*

Long-term *map3k1* RNAi in animals undergoing tissue turnover without injury led to the
inevitable emergence of tissue growths (Figure 7C, D, Figure 6- figure supplement 1C). These
growths predominantly formed in the anterior of the animal and presented as a heterogeneous
collection of cell and tissue types. *vitrin*+ cells and gland cells (*mag1*) were not as common in
lateral outgrowths. Cell types that were present in these teratomas included eye cells, various
neuron types from the central nervous system (*cintillo*+, dd_17258+, dd_3524+), glia, muscle
cells, and *NB.22.1e* cells (Figure 7D). A similar patterning defect has been observed in
planarians with a defect in progenitor migration caused by *integrin* RNAi (Bonar and Petersen,
2017; Seebeck et al., 2017). It is known that differentiated tissues, such as the eye, can trap
their own progenitors and lead to their differentiation (Atabay et al., 2018; Hill and Petersen,
2018). This suggests that ectopic differentiation in inappropriate locations in *map3k1* RNAi
animals can trap more progenitors and lead to an inappropriate aggregate of differentiated cells
with aberrant pattern and organization. This highlights a further risk to the formation of tissue
architecture if the differentiation of migratory progenitors is not tightly controlled spatially.
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Discussion

Planarians display continuous turnover of adult tissues through the fate specification and
differentiation of adult stem cells called neoblasts (Reddien, 2018). Fate specification in
neoblasts can occur regionally (such as in the head for eyes), but is still spatially broad and
intermingled. Fate-specified neoblasts (specialized neoblasts) produce progeny cells (post-
mitotic progenitors) that migrate to precise locations for local, highly patterned differentiation.
Progenitor targeting for local differentiation requires regulation from stem-cell-extrinsic signals,
in the form of regionally expressed genes in muscle that comprise adult planarian positional
information. How positional information interfaces with neoblasts and post-mitotic progenitors at
the molecular level to regulate migratory assortment and differentiation only at precise locations
is unknown and a fundamental problem of planarian regeneration and progenitor differentiation
regulation. We sought factors that might be required for this process through RNAi-based gene
perturbation experiments, and uncovered a requisite role in the spatial regulation of stem cell
differentiation for the *map3k1* gene, which encodes an ortholog of vertebrate MAP3K1. *map3k1*
RNAi animals displayed an abnormal pattern of progenitor differentiation, with differentiation

occurring in disorganized locations along post-mitotic progenitor migratory paths. We suggest a

model in which *map3k1* is required for the spatial restriction of differentiation in stem cell

lineages until suitable differentiation cues are encountered, either in the form of positional

information (a target zone) or cues from target tissues (Figure 8A).

The defect in spatial restriction of progenitor differentiation following *map3k1* RNAi can

lead to dramatic tissue patterning defects, including the differentiation of ectopic isolated cells

that normally only appear in groups (e.g., isolated photoreceptor neurons), the emergence of

ectopic organs, differentiated cells from one tissue type being present within an incorrect organ,

and teratoma formation (Figure 8B). These tissue mispatterning attributes highlight the

significance of spatial regulation of differentiation during targeting of migratory progenitors for

maintaining and regenerating adult pattern. This process might prove important development in

many organisms, and be particularly important in the context of adult regeneration, where tissue

scale can be large and adult progenitors at least in some contexts can be challenged to migrate

large distances before differentiating.

There is some differentiation of eye progenitors in the tail of *map3k1* RNAi planarians,

far from the normal location of eye progenitor production and differentiation. However, only a

very low rate of eye progenitor production was observed in the tail of *map3k1* RNAi animals,

and a comparable low frequency of eye-specialized neoblasts were present in control tails. One

interesting possibility that can be investigated in the future is that there is some noise in the

spatial regulation of stem cell fate specification in planarians that does not normally contribute to

errors in the spatial distribution of differentiated cells because of prevention of differentiation

until cells reach their appropriate location. The progenitor specification domain for pharynx cells,

by contrast, appeared to expand anteriorly after *map3k1* RNAi, indicating a possible role in the

spatial regulation of progenitor specification in some cases.

Several observations suggest that the defects in targeting in *map3k1* RNAi animals

involves a process within the neoblasts and their post-mitotic progenitor descendants, rather

than in a role for *map3k1* in establishing the progenitor-extrinsic cues (e.g., muscle PCGs) that

facilitate progenitor targeting. First, PCG expression patterns themselves were largely normal

following *map3k1* RNAi. Second, ectopic differentiation after *map3k1* RNAi was more spatially

disorganized than is observed for patterning phenotypes that occur following the shifting of PCG

coordinates (such as a posterior line of ectopic eyes in *ndk* RNAi animals (Cebria et al., 2002)

or a lateral line of ectopic eyes in *wnt5* RNAi animals (Atabay et al., 2018)). Third, ectopic cells

following *map3k1* RNAi were frequently isolated, as opposed to appearing exclusively in

organized aggregates or forming ectopically placed organs. Fourth, transplantation of EdU-

labeled tissue grafts from *map3k1* RNAi animals into the pre-pharyngeal region of control

animals showed instances of ectopic differentiation in wild-type host tissue. Finally, during

regeneration or following eye resection, progenitors can still be targeted to the correct target

zone for the eye, indicating that the eye target zone still remains after *map3k1* RNAi. One

possibility is that Map3k1 applies a brake on differentiation in progenitors that is released or

overcome by some cue associated with a progenitor reaching its target zone or by interacting

with its target tissue.

Map kinase signaling cascades are versatile pathway modules found throughout the

animal kingdom and are involved in diverse processes (Widmann et al., 1999). The kinases and

accompanying cofactors in these modules enable the regulated activation of various Map

kinases (e.g., ERK1/2, p38, JNK) (Suddason and Gallagher, 2015). Map kinase kinase kinases

(MAP3Ks) are one of the first activated proteins in these cascades, often responding to receptor

tyrosine kinase signaling at the cell membrane. In mammals, there are 24 characterized

MAP3Ks: MAP3K1 through MAP3K21, B-Raf, C-Raf, and A Raf, which activate downstream

MAP2K proteins through phosphorylation. Among the MAP3K proteins, MAP3K1 is unique in its

domain composition. In particular, MAP3K1 orthologs are the only MAP3K with a PHD domain

(Suddason and Gallagher, 2015). The MAP3K1 domain architecture enables a role in

ubiquitination as well as kinase activity (Pham et al., 2013). In mammals, *map3k1* has a role in

regulating many processes such as proliferation, differentiation, division, and cell death

(Suddason and Gallagher, 2015). *map3k1* gene functions are not well characterized in most

invertebrate systems, and *Drosophila* and *C. elegans* have no identified *map3k1* orthologs

(Widmann et al., 1999). Planarians therefore present an attractive invertebrate model for

dissection of *map3k1* function. There is evidence for the role of various Map-kinases (e.g., ERK,

MEK, RAS, p38) in planarian regeneration, particularly in the blastema formation and the wound

and missing tissue response programs (Tasaki et al., 2011a; Tasaki et al., 2011b; Owlarn et al.,

2017; Wang et al., 2020). *map3k1* has been studied in a different planarian species, *D. japonica*

(Hosoda et al., 2018). This work suggested a possible role for *map3k1* in the scaling and

patterning of the trunk and head regions of regenerating animals, proposed to be through

alternation of ERK and β-catenin gradients (Hosoda et al., 2018). Additionally, *map3k1* has

been implicated in germ cell proliferation and terminal differentiation of stem cells in the parasitic

flatworm *E. multilocularis* through JNK signaling (Stoll et al., 2021). It will be of interest to further

dissect the molecular role of *map3k1* in planarian progenitor differentiation, and to determine

whether *map3k1* orthologs have similar roles in regulating differentiation in additional

regenerative organisms.

Adult patterning systems in some organisms can rely on a spatially coarse progenitor

specification system, migratory assortment of progenitors, and local differentiation. This process

involves progenitor transitions from spatially broad and disorganized, to local and highly

patterned as cells transit from stem cell to post-mitotic migratory progenitor. This suggests that

regulation of terminal differentiation must have a central role in pattern production. Progenitor-

extrinsic positional information has a prominent regulatory role in this process, and some

mechanism(s) could exist within the progenitors themselves to enable spatial restriction of

differentiation until suitable cues have been received. We suggest that *map3k1* acts within

planarian progenitors to mediate such spatial restriction on differentiation, and that this is critical

for preventing mistargeting differentiation to the incorrect location or organ, and to prevent

teratoma formation.

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Materials and methods

Animal husbandry and surgery

Asexual *S. mediterranea* clonal strain CIW4 was used for all experiments. Animals were

cultured in static 1x Montjuic water (1.6 mmol/l NaCl, 1.0 mmol/l $CaCl_2$, 1.0 mmol/l $MgSO_4$, 0.1

mmol/l $MgCl_2$, 0.1 mmol/l KCl and 1.2 mmol/l $NaHCO_3$ prepared in Milli-Q water) at 20°C.

Amputations were performed under cold conditions (~4C) with a scalpel. Animals were fed

homogenized beef liver weekly, with water changed biweekly. Animals were starved for

approximately seven days before experiments.

Whole-mount fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH)

516   Animal mucus was removed using 5% N-acetylcysteine in PBS; animals were then fixed with

517   4% formaldehyde in PBST for 20 minutes, with rocking. Animals were then washed with PBST,

518   incubated in 1:1 PBST:methanol, then stored in 100% methanol at -20C until ready for

519   bleaching. Animals were moved into mesh baskets in a 24-well plate where all remaining steps

520   were carried out. Animals were placed on a light source to bleach for 1.5 hours in a bleaching

521 solution (5% formamide, 0.5x SSC, and 1.2% hydrogen peroxide). After 2 PBST washes,

522 animals were then treated with 5 mg/ml Proteinase K for 10 minutes, followed by 4%

523 formaldehyde post-fixation in PBST.

525 RNA probes were transcribed using DIG, FITC, or DNP-modified nucleotides, allowing signal

526 amplification through the use of DIG, FITC, and DNP antibodies conjugated to an HRP. Probes

527 were diluted in Hybe solution (1:800) (50% deionized formamide, 5x SSC, 1 mg/mL yeast RNA,

528 1% Tween-20, 5% dextran sulfate), and left to incubate overnight. The following days, we

529 performed antibody incubations at 4C overnight using anti-DIG-POD (1:1500, Roche; 10%

530 western blocking solution (Roche)), anti-FITC-POD (1:2,000, Roche; 5% horse serum, 5%

531 western blocking solution), and anti-DNP-HRP (1:100, Perkin-Elmer; blocking solution with 10%

532 inactivated Horse Serum). Tyramide signal amplification involved incubating in rhodamine

533 (1:1,000), fluorescein (1:1,500), or Cy5 (1:300) in borate buffer (0.1M boric acid, 2M NaCl, pH

534 8.5) containing 0.0003% hydrogen peroxide for 10 minutes. Samples were incubated in 1%

535 sodium azide for 2 hours to inactivate the HRP. Blocking and antibody incubations then

536 occurred for detection of the second probe. Animals were incubated overnight in 1mg/mL DAPI

537 solution at 4C. Animals were mounted on coverslips in ProLong Gold Antifade Mountant

538 (Thermo Fisher).

540 **EdU labeling and detection**

541 F-ara-EdU (Click Chemistry Tools) was diluted in Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to 200mg/ml, then

542 diluted in static 1x Montjuic water to 1.25mg/mL. Animals were split into 10 animals per well in a

543 12-well plate, then soaked in 1.25mg/mL EdU solution for 20 hours following 1 week of

544 starvation. EdU solution was replaced with 5mg/mL Instant Ocean sea salt dissolved in Milli-Q

545 water. Prior to probe hybridization in the *in situ* hybridization protocol, following proteinase K

546 and 4% formaldehyde incubations, cells were incubated in a "click reaction"- 1% 100 mM

547 CuSO4, 0.1% 10 mM TAMRA-Azide-fluor 545 (Sigma-Aldrich), and 20% 50 mM ascorbic acid in

548 PBS- for 30 minutes in the dark, proceeded by 6 PBST washes and continuation of the probe

549 hybridization step.

551 **RNA interference**

552 dsRNA for RNAi was prepared using in vitro transcription with T7 polymerase (Promega).

553 Template was generated with PCR; primers contained T7 promoters. RNA was resuspended in

water and dsRNA annealed. *C. elegans unc-22* dsRNA was used as the negative control for all
RNAi experiments.

Transplantation

EdU plug transplants were performed using *map3k1* RNAi animals, 12 hours following a 20 hour
EdU pulse, as the donor to a recipient wild type animal. Donor animals were anesthetized with
0.2% chlorotone solution, followed by an incubation in Holfreter's solution, then placed on an ice
block covered in Whatman filter paper moistened with 1x Montjuic water to surgically manipulate
with a clean scalpel. EdU+ *map3k1* RNAi donor animals and wild type recipients both had a
center portion of their pre-pharyngeal regions removed. The pre-pharyngeal donor graft from the
map3k1 RNAi animal was placed in the EdU- wild type recipient's pre-pharyngeal region.
Recipients were then gently covered with cigarette paper soaked in chilled Holfreter's solution
and transferred to a small petri dish with just enough Holfreter's solution to cover the bottom of
the dish. Animals were put at 10C for 20 hours; the following day, transplant recipients were
gently recovered and put into 1x Montjuic water containing .1% gentamicin (Gibco).

Shielded irradiation

Animals were irradiated using a Gammacell-40 137-cesium source. For shielded irradiation
experiments, animals were anesthetized with 0.2% chlorotone, then arranged on Whatman filter
paper in a petri dish sitting on ice. Animals were oriented to have their anterior half covered by
the lead shield placed over the petri dish. Samples were placed in a Gammacell chamber and
exposed to 3000 Rad of unidirectional X-irradiation. Animals were rescued with 1x Montjuic
water and stored in 1x Montjuic water with .1% gentamicin (Gibco) until further experimentation.

Image analysis and statistical analysis

For cell counts, the AP axis was binned into 6 regions according to anatomical landmarks. AP_1
(head tip to bottom of brain), AP_2 (bottom of brain to top of pharynx), AP_3 (top of pharynx to
middle of pharynx), AP_4 (middle of pharynx to bottom of pharynx), AP_5 (top half of the tail)
and AP_6 (bottom half of the tail). Each animal had one data point for each of the 6 bins.
Graphpad Prism software was used for graph generation and statistical analysis using a Mann-
Whitney-U test with a significance cut off of p=.05. For cell count comparisons in the tail,
Graphpad Prism software was used for graph generation and statistical analysis using a student
t-test with a significance cut off of p=.05.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. *map3k1* RNAi results in ectopic eyes and ectopic isolated eye cells. A. Live images (upper panels) showing posterior eyes in *map3k1* RNAi animals. Upper panels, 6 feedings of RNAi over 36 days. FISH (bottom panels): single optic cup and photoreceptor cells are present ectopically with RNA probes for *opsin* (photoreceptors), a *catalase/tyrosinase/glut3* pool (optic cup), and an anti-Arrestin antibody (labeling photoreceptors and their projections). **B.** Examples showing a diversity of ectopic eyes and eye cells in *map3k1* RNAi animals. **A, B.** Dorsal up; Scale bar, 200µm. **C.** Schematic comparing previously identified eye-patterning phenotypes with the *map3k1* RNAi phenotype. **D.** FISH of single cells differentiated proximal to the pharynx and in the tail of *map3k1* RNAi animals. Dorsal up; scale bar, 100µm. **E.** FISH examples of *ovo*+; *smedwi-1*+ cells in the tail. **F.** Left graph depicts the number of ectopic optic cup differentiation events per animal along the AP axis over 10, 16, and 26 days. Right graph depicts the number of ectopic photoreceptor neurons at 26 days of *map3k1* RNAi; See also Figure 1- figure supplement 1.

Figure 2. *map3k1* RNAi results in ectopic neuron classes and gland cells along the AP axis. A. *map3k1* RNAi animals exhibit posterior ectopic brain branches with *chat*+ neurons and *gluR*+ (dd_16476) neurons. Photoreceptor axons extend along ventral nerve cords and into ectopic brain branches. Ventral up; Scale bars, 200µm; Closeup images, scale bar, 100µm. **B.** FISH images showing no change in *cintillo*+ neuron distribution, but expansion of dd_17258+ cells down the entire AP axis. ventral up; scale bars, 200µm; See also Figure 2- figure supplement 1. **C.** Graph showing distribution of dd_17258+ cells along the AP axis in control and *map3k1* RNAi animals. **D.** Quantification of cells in the tail for dd_7131 and dd_8476. More cells are observed in the tails of *map3k1* RNAi animals compared to control animals; Student t-test using Graphpad Prism software ***p<.0001; **p<.001 . **E.** FISH examples of unaffected (dd_9223) and affected (dd_7131 and dd_8476) parenchymal cell types in *map3k1* RNAi animals. ventral up; scale bar, 200µm. Numbers of animals are represented on the bottom left of each panel.

Figure 3. *map3k1* RNAi results in pharynx cell types in ectopic anterior locations. A. FISH images showing anterior expansion and disorganization of *vitrin*+ (pharynx-specific marker) cells along the AP-axis. Ventral up; scale bars, 100µm. **B.** FISH showing anterior expansion of *NB.22.1e* (mouth and esophagus) cells along the AP axis. *map3k1* RNAi animals exhibit a low

frequency of *NB.22.1e* cells in the tail, posterior to the normal mouth location. **C.** FISH shows

anterior expansion of *mhc1+* cells in *map3k1* RNAi animals compared to control animals.

ventral up, scale bar, 100µm. **D.** FISH shows anterior expansion of dd_554 cells (pharynx

progenitors) in *map3k1* RNAi animals compared to control animals. Ventral, up. Scale bar,

100µm. **E.** FISH shows *FoxA+*; *smedwi-1+* cells close to the brain lobes and eyes. Scale bar,

50µm.

Figure 4. *map3k1* RNAi animals display tissue-specific regeneration at target zones. A.

Top, schematic depicts experimental design. Bottom panels show live image examples of

control and *map3k1* RNAi animal eye resections at d0, d1, and d10 post eye resection. Scale

bar, 200µm. **B.** Diagram, pharynx resection. Control and *map3k1* RNAi animals at d1 and d10

post resection; accompanied by FISH of d10 pharynx regeneration using probes to *vitrin*

(pharynx-specific), *NB.22.1e* (mouth and esophagus), and *mhc1* (pharynx muscle). Scale bar,

200µm**;** See also Figure 4- figure supplement 1. **C.** d10 regeneration in head, trunk, and tail

fragments. An anterior-shifted pharynx regenerated in a *map3k1* RNAi tail fragment. Scale bar,

200µm**. D.** FISH images of d10 trunk and tail regenerates showing regeneration of

photoreceptors (anti-Arrestin), pharynx (*vitrin*), and mouth and esophagus (*NB.22.1e*). An

anterior shift in *vitrin+* cells in d10 tail regenerate. Scale bar, 200µm. **E.** AP distributions of

original trunk pharynges in control and *map3k1* RNAi animals and ectopic differentiation events

in *map3k1* RNAi trunk regenerates **** $p < .0001$ Mann-Whitney-U test. **F.** AP distributions of

regenerated pharynges in tail fragments shows an anterior shift in pharynx regeneration in

map3k1 RNAi animals compared to control animals. *** $p < .0001$ Mann-Whitney-U test.

Figure 5. Positional information remains largely unaffected in *map3k1* RNAi animals

A. FISH panel of position control genes (*sFRP-1, ndl2, ndl5, ndl3, wntP-2, axinB, and slit*)

shows no obvious changes to positional information. Sample numbers are indicated in the lower

left of each panel. Scale bar, 200µm. **B.** FISH showing some dispersion of *notum+* cells in the

heads of *map3k1* RNAi animals compared to control animals. Right panels, no obvious changes

in posterior pole organization. Sample numbers are indicated in the lower left of each panel,

scale bars, 200µm.

Figure 6. *map3k1* RNAi eye progenitors prematurely differentiate along their typical

migratory path. A. Schematic of head-shielded irradiation experimental design. **B.** FISH

showing instances of ectopic photoreceptor (anti-Arrestin), optic cup (*catalase, tyrosinase,*

glut3), and dd_17258 cells born in the upper half of the animal (n=3/3 with good shielding and

cells present correspond to area of leftover neoblasts). **C.** Schematic of EdU-labeled transplant

experimental design. **D.** FISH and antibody staining showing examples of EdU+ eye cells from

map3k1 RNAi animals ectopically differentiated in wild-type animals (n=7/18 with EdU+ ectopic

cells; n=16/18 exhibiting any ectopic eye cells outside the transplant area). Scale bar, 50μm.

Figure 7. *map3k1* RNAi results in differentiation in incorrect organs and teratoma

formation. A. FISH of long term (>6 weeks) *map3k1* RNAi animal showing clusters of *mhc1*

cells that appear to have formed small structures within the lobes of the brain and ventral cords.

Right panels depict *NB.22.1e* cells incorporated into the eye (anti-Arrestin). Number of animals

analyzed is indicated in the lower left of each panel; Left panel scale bar, 200μm; all other

panels scale bars, 50μm. **B.** FISH showing *vitrin*+ cells incorporated into the eyes of a d10 tail

regenerate. n=9/24 animals contained at least one *vitrin*+ cell in one eye; left panels scale bar,

200μm. All other scale bars, 50μm. **C.** Left panel contains live images of early developing

growths in *map3k1* RNAi animals, accompanied by a DAPI image of an outgrowth in between

the brain lobes. Scale bars 200μm; The right panel contains live images and FISH examples of

late-stage teratomas from *map3k1* RNAi animals between 12 and 16 feedings, accompanied by

FISH examples showing eyes dispersed around the teratomas. Scale bars, 200μm. **D.** Left

panels are FISH images showing an exclusion of *vitrin*+ cells from lateral outgrowths but a

common presence of *NB.22.1e*+ cells in outgrowths. *mag1*, a parenchymal marker with

transcripts abundant in cells in the neck region is also mostly excluded from outgrowths. Right

panel shows examples of cell types commonly found in outgrowths: *cintillo* (neuron)*,* dd_17258

(neuron), dd_3534 (neuron)*, estrella* (glia), anti-Arrestin (photoreceptor projections), *NB.22.1e*,

lamin (mouth, epidermis), and *col2* (muscle). Scale bar 100μm.

Figure 8. Model: Map3K1 restricts migratory progenitor differentiation until they reach

their target. A. Schematic showing the inhibition of differentiation of a specific progenitor until

reaching its target tissue at the target zone. **B.** Defects observed with *map3k1* RNAi,

highlighting significance of restricting differentiation until suitable contextual cues are reached.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

A

| sFRP-1 | ndl-5 | ndl-2 | ndl-3 | wntP-2 | axinB | slit |

control

15/15 · 16/16 · 7/7 · 12/12 · 17/17 · 4/4 · 14/14

map3k1 RNAi

15/15 · 16/16 · 11/11 · 22/22 · 10/10 · 11/11

B

chat *notum*   *wnt1*

control

8/8   12/12

map3k1 RNAi

7/8   12/12

Figure 6

A

lead shield

wild type

X-irradiation

live dividing neoblasts

17 days of map3k1 RNAi feedings

B

smedwi-1   optic cup   dd_17258

3/3

C

24 days of map3k1 RNAi

20hr EdU pulse

plug transplant into wildtype

d12 tissue graft

D

EdU   optic cup   anti-Arrestin

20μm

20μm

20μm

20μm

Figure 7

Figure 8

A

wild type differentiation

target zone

mature tissue

differentiation

map3k1

post-mitotic migratory progenitor

neoblast

B

map3k1 RNAi

premature differentiation

ectopic organ formation

incorrect incorporation

teratoma formation

Figure 1- figure supplement 1

Figure 1- figure supplement 1. *map3k1* **RNAi results in differentiated eye cells throughout the AP axis, and no overt change in eye progenitor distribution***. **A.** Domain structure of human and *Schmidtea mediterranea* MAP3K1. % identity/ similarity is displayed above each domain. **B.** FISH of *map3k1* RNAi animals at 10 days, 16 days, and 6 weeks of RNAi shows optic cup (*catalase1, tyrosinase, glut3*) in the posterior at early timepoints. **C.** FISH with an RNA probe to the *map3k1* gene in a wild-type animal. Scale bar, 200µm for full body images; Scale bar, 100µm for closeup of the brain. **D.** FISH showing double-positive *ovo+* ; *smedwi-1+* cells near the posterior half of the pharynx. Scale bars, 50µm. **E.** quantification of *smedwi-1* high, *smedwi-1* low, and *smedwi-1* negative *ovo+* cells in the tails of *map3k1* RNAi and control animals. No significant change is observed between the number of *smedwi-1+* ; *ovo+* cells in the tail between *map3k1* RNAi and control animals.

Figure 2- figure supplement 1

Figure 2- figure supplement 1. *map3k1* **RNAi results ectopic brain branches posterior to the brain and posterior expansion of some neural cell types. A.** Close-up FISH of ventral nerve cord (VNC) and branches in a *map3k1* RNAi animal. Photoreceptor projections (anti-Arrestin) are travel along the VNC and into ectopic branches labeled by the pan-neural markers *chat* and *pc2*. Scale bar, 100µm. **B.** FISH of dd_17258+ cells and optic cup cells (*catalase1, tyrosinase, glut3*), together with antibody labeling of photoreceptors (anti-Arrestin), extending down the AP axis. All scale bars, 200µm, unless otherwise specified in the lower left. **C.** FISH showing expansion of dd_17258 cells down the entire AP axis in a *map3k1* RNAi animal. Scale bar, 200µm. **D.** FISH showing an unchanged neural cell type (*gad*) in *map3k1* RNAi and control animals. Scale bar, 200µm.

Figure 4- figure supplement 1

A

NB.22.1e *vitrin* mhc1

d0 phx resection

| control | *map3k1* RNAi |

B

NB.22.1e *vitrin* mhc1

map3k1 RNAi d10 phx resection

| dorsal | ventral |

C

day 10 head fragments

NB.22.1e *vitrin*

control

map3k1 RNAi

D

day 7 tail fragments

notum

control

notum

map3k1 RNAi

Figure 4- figure supplement 1. *map3k1* **RNAi animals can undergo tissue-specific and whole-body regeneration, with some errors in pharynx organization. A.** FISH following pharynx resection at day zero (d0) with the markers *vitrin* (pharynx-specific), *NB.22.1e* (mouth and esophagus), and *mhc1* (pharynx muscle). Scale bars, 200µm. **B.** Example of *map3k1* RNAi d10 pharynx resection. FISH shows dorsal (left) and ventral (right) views of the same animal, showing disorganized pharynx regeneration in *map3k1* RNAi animals. **C.** FISH of d10 head regeneration showing disorganized regeneration of the pharynx using *vitrin* and *NB.22.1e* RNA probes. Scale bars, 200µm. n=10/10. **D.** FISH showing dispersed *notum+* cells in a d7 tail regenerate compared to control animals. Scale bar, 200µm

Figure 5- figure supplement 1

A All Neoblasts

six1/2-1 + Eye

map3k1

Pharynx

Neural

Parenchymal

B All G₀ Post-Mitotic Progenitors

Neural

Eye

map3k1

Pharynx

Parenchymal

C *six1/2-1* Neoblasts

Eye

map3k1

D Neural 7 G₀ Post-Mitotic Progenitors

Eye

map3k1

E Neural 1 G₀ Post-Mitotic Progenitors
Predicted dd_16476 and dd_17258 progenitors

map3k1

F Neural 1 G₀ Post-Mitotic Progenitors

dd_17258

G Neural 1 G₀ Post-Mitotic Progenitors

dd_16476

H Select Neoblasts

map3k1 Expression

neural   parenchymal   pharyngeal   *six1/2-1*

I Select G₀ Post-Mitotic Progenitors

map3k1 Expression

neural   parenchymal   pharyngeal

Figure 5- figure supplement 1. *map3k1 i*s expressed in neoblasts and post-mitotic progenitors. **A**. *map3k1* is expressed broadly across neoblast clusters. Plot points are ordered. **B.** *map3k1* is expressed broadly across post-mitotic progenitors; plot points are ordered. **C.** *map3k1* is expressed in some *six-1/2+* neoblasts, which contain eye neoblasts; plot points are ordered. **D.** *map3k1* is expressed in some G0 post-mitotic eye progenitors; plot points are ordered. **E.** *map3k1* is expressed within the predicted progenitor cluster (Neural 1) of the affected cell types: dd_17258 and dd_16476; plot points are ordered. **F.** dd_17258 mature marker expression within its predicted progenitor cluster (Neural 1); plot points are ordered. **G.** dd_16476 mature marker expression within its predicted progenitor cluster (Neural 1); plot points are ordered. **H.** *map3k1* expression in neural, parenchymal, pharyngeal, and *six1/2+* neoblast clusters. **I.** *map3k1* expression in neural, parenchymal, and pharyngeal post-mitotic progenitor clusters.

Figure 6 - figure supplement 1

A

B

C

5-6 weeks *map3k1* RNAi

Figure 6- figure supplement 1. *map3k1* **RNAi animals display to improper progenitor targeting and teratoma formation.** **A.** FISH showing EdU+ photoreceptors (anti-Arrestin) in the eye of the recipient animal. These cells differentiated from *map3k1* RNAi progenitors born during the EdU pulse of the donor animal, following wild-type migratory cues out of the graft and into the recipient eye. Scale bar, 200µm. **B.** FISH image of EdU- ectopic eye cells in recipient wild-type animals after EdU plug transplantation. Scale bar, 200µm. **C.** Live images of early growths that will eventually become teratomas in *map3k1* RNAi animals. Scale bar, 100µm.