

# A screen of kinase inhibitors reveals a potential role of Chk1 in regulating *Hydra* head regeneration and maintenance

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ABSTRACT The cnidarian Hydra possesses remarkable regenerative capabilities which allow it to regrow lost or damaged body parts in a matter of days. Given that many key regulators of regeneration and development are evolutionarily conserved, Hydra is a valuable model system for studying the fundamental molecular mechanisms underlying these processes. In the past, kinase inhibitors have been useful tools for determining the role of conserved signaling pathways in Hydra regeneration and patterning. Here, we present a systematic screen of a commercially available panel of kinase inhibitors for their effects on Hydra regeneration. Isolated Hydra gastric segments were exposed to 5 μM of each kinase inhibitor and regeneration of the head and foot regions were scored over a period of 96 hours. Of the 80 kinase inhibitors tested, 28 compounds resulted in abnormal regeneration. We directed our focus to the checkpoint kinase 1 (Chk1) inhibitor, SB 218078, considering the role of Chk1 in G2 checkpoint regulation and the importance of G2-paused cells in Hydra regeneration. We found that Hydra exposed to SB 218078 were unable to regenerate the head and maintain head-specific structures. Furthermore, SB 218078-treated Hydra displayed a reduction in the relative proportion of epithelial cells; however, no differences were seen for interstitial stem cells or their derivatives. Lastly, exposure to SB 218078 appeared to have no impact on the level of mitosis or apoptosis. Overall, our study demonstrates the feasibility of kinase inhibitor screens for studying Hydra regeneration processes and highlights the possible role for Hydra Chk1 in head regeneration and maintenance.

KEY WORDS: Hydra, regeneration, kinase inhibitors, small molecule screen, Chk1

# Introduction

Regeneration is a complex biological process by which cells, tissues or body parts lost to injury and/or daily wear and tear activities are restored. It is deemed to be a key ancestral trait that is broadly yet inconsistently exhibited throughout the animal kingdom. Many invertebrates and primitive vertebrate species possess proficient regenerative capabilities that allow them to restore missing body structures (Mehta and Singh, 2019). Among the regeneration competent species, the freshwater cnidarian *Hydra* has captured the attention of developmental biologists for more than 200 years (Galliot, 2012). This primitive metazoan can regenerate a complete adult organism from a minor segment of the original body. Moreover, *Hydra* that is experimentally dissociated into single cells can reaggregate into clumps forming an intact animal within a few days (Vogg *et al.*, 2019).

Hydra possesses a radially symmetric, tubular body consisting of a head, body column, and basal disc. The head is made up of

the hypostome (mouth region) and a ring of tentacles that capture prey, while the basal disc (foot) secretes a mucous that allows the animal to attach to various surfaces. The overall *Hydra* body is essentially composed of two epithelial cell layers, the ectoderm (epidermis) and endoderm (gastrodermis) which are separated by acellular mesoglea layer. Three stem cell lineages are present in *Hydra*: unipotent ectodermal and endodermal epithelial cells, and multipotent interstitial stem cells (Hobmayer *et al.*, 2012). The outer body layer is composed of ectodermal epithelial stem cells, while the inner gastric lining constitutes of endodermal epithelial stem cells. Interstitial stem cells are distributed between the two layers and concentrated in the body column. These multipotent stem cells give rise to nematocytes, neurons, gland cells and gametes (Hobmayer *et al.*, 2012). More recently, whole-body single-cell transcriptomics of *Hydra* revealed that interstitial stem cells give

Abbreviations used in this paper: Chk1, Checkpoint Kinase 1; DDR, DNA Damage Response; DEI, Drug Exposure Impact; Hpe, Hours post exposure.

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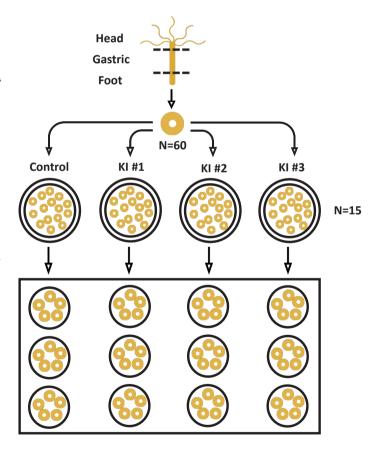
rise to a bipotential neuron/gland progenitor in the ectoderm that traverses the mesoglea to provide the endoderm with neurons and gland cells (Siebert *et al.*, 2019).

*Hydra* is capable of both asexual and sexual reproduction. During optimal environmental conditions, *Hydra* undergoes asexual reproduction through the process of budding. In contrast, when exposed to various environmental stressors, it engages in gametogenesis and sexual reproduction (Buzgariu *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, *Hydra* can maintain constant body size throughout its lifetime due to the synchronous gain and loss of cells. Epithelial stem cells have an average cycling time of 3-4 days, while interstitial cells have a cell cycle duration of 24-30 hours (Hobmayer *et al.*, 2012; Buzgariu *et al.*, 2014). While tissue growth is constant in the *Hydra* body column, there is a simultaneous loss of cells through sloughing at the buds, tentacles, and basal ends (Bode, 1996). Given this spatial restriction of stem cell cycling, *Hydra* is said to be "immortal" in the central body column, yet simultaneously aging at the extremities (Schenkelaars *et al.*, 2018).

Any isolated segment of the Hydra body column is capable of regenerating into an intact, viable animal maintaining the original oral aboral polarity. The central body column of Hydra is composed of large stocks of adult stem cells paused in G2 stage of the cell cycle, forming a constitutive pro-blastema, ready to divide upon injury (Galliot et al., 2018). In contrast, the apical and basal extremities of Hydra are enriched in terminally differentiated cells and thus incapable of regenerating missing structures. Upon mid-gastric bisection, head regeneration is achieved by a wave of injury-induced cell death and compensatory proliferation (Galliot et al., 2018). In contrast, following decapitation, apical head regeneration can proceed in the absence of cell proliferation and relies on a morphallactic mode of regeneration (Galliot and Chera, 2010). Additionally, Hydra regeneration can be accomplished with epithelial stem cells only, as the ablation of the interstitial stem cell lineage does not prevent regeneration following bisection (Marcum and Campbell, 1978; Sugiyama and Fujisawa, 1978). The regeneration capacity of such epithelial Hydra may be attributed to the ability of epitheliomuscular cells to modify their transcriptomic programme upon elimination of the cycling interstitial cells (Wenger et al., 2016).

Remarkably, Hydra share more genes with humans than the popular model organisms, Drosophila melanogaster and Caenorhabditis elegans (Wenger and Galliot, 2013a). Sequencing and in-depth analysis of the Hydra genome has estimated that it encodes approximately 20,000 protein coding genes, which is similar to the number found in the human genome (Chapman et al., 2010). Moreover, all major bilaterian signalling pathways including Wnt, transforming growth factor- $\beta$ , Hedgehog, receptor tyrosine kinase and Notch have been identified in Hydra (Chapman et al., 2010). To interrogate the function of genes underlying Hydra regeneration, several molecular tools have been developed including double-stranded RNA-mediated interference (dsRNAi) and stable transgenesis (Mehta and Singh, 2019). Nonetheless, limitations include the high mortality associated with dsRNAi approaches and the variability in success rate of transgenesis (Technau and Steele, 2011; Klimovich et al., 2019). Furthermore, a major caveat in performing functional genomics in cnidarian models is the difficulty in generating heritable genetic mutations that result in true knockouts/knockins. However, this may rapidly change as the application of CRISPR-Cas9 system for genome-editing in Hydra has shown great promise (Lommel et al., 2017).

A long-standing approach to identify key signaling molecules of Hydra regeneration is the use of pharmacological modulators. In particular, kinase inhibitors identified on the basis of their ability to disrupt regeneration have provided valuable insight into the normal role of the target signaling pathway in Hydra patterning and regeneration. For instance, the induction of Wnt/B -catenin signaling by treatment with alsterpaullone, a specific glycogen synthase kinase-3 $\beta$  (GSK-3 $\beta$ ) inhibitor, induces the expression of head organizer genes and formation of ectopic tentacles along the Hvdra body column (Broun et al., 2005), Likewise, pharmacological inhibitors of protein kinase C (PKC), mitogen-activated protein kinase (MEK), Src tyrosine kinase, extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK), phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K), vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), and fibroblast growth factor (FGF) were used to implicate the importance of these signaling pathways in Hydra head regeneration (Cardenas et al., 2000; Cardenas and Salgado, 2003; Manuel et al., 2006; Arvizu et al., 2006; Turwankar and Ghaskadbi, 2019). Using similar paradigms, Glauber and colleagues demonstrated the feasibility of small molecule screens for dissecting Hydra patterning processes. Through this approach, they identified a novel molecule, DAC-2-25, which caused homeostatic



**Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of the 80 kinase inhibitor screen.** Three kinase inhibitors (KIs) were tested per 12-well plate. For each plate, 60 Hydra gastric regions were isolated by removing the head and foot. For each treatment, 15 gastric regions were rinsed with the respective solution (KI #1, KI #2, KI #3, or control) before dividing them into 3 wells (5 gastric regions per well) containing the respective exposure solutions. Control replicates were exposed to 1% DMSO alone and included on every plate.

transformation of the *Hydra* body column into a tentacle zone (Glauber *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, to identify novel regulators and signal transduction pathways underlying the *Hydra* regeneration processes, we screened a commercially available panel of 80 kinase inhibitors (Tocriscreen Kinase Inhibitor Toolbox Cat. No. 3514) for their impact on *Hydra* regeneration. Our screen identified 28 compounds that cause abnormal regeneration from which the Chk1 inhibitor, SB 218078, was prioritized for additional follow-up analysis. We show that SB 218078-treated *Hydra* were incapable of head-specific regeneration and maintenance, which may be in part due to a reduction in the relative proportion of epithelial stem cells.

## Results

### The use of kinase inhibitors to identify potential novel regulators of Hydra regeneration

To identify novel signaling pathways underlying Hydra regeneration, an unbiased screen of 80 kinase inhibitors (Tocriscreen Kinase Inhibitor Toolbox Cat. No. 3514) was performed. Isolated gastric segments were exposed to 5 µM of each kinase inhibitor, following the screen set up as illustrated (Fig. 1). After 96-hours, regeneration of each Hydra gastric segment was scored on a scale of 0 - 10 using the Wilby 1988 classification scheme (Quinn et al., 2012). Given that kinase inhibitors were supplied as pre-dissolved DMSO solutions, control Hydra were exposed to equivalent solvent concentrations to those in the inhibitor groups. The difference between the average regeneration score of each exposure group and its respective control was calculated to generate the Drug Exposure Impact (DEI) for each kinase inhibitor; an increasingly negative DEI value suggests a progressively negative impact of the kinase inhibitor on regeneration. Additionally, Hydra morphology following 96-hour exposure to each kinase inhibitor was noted. In total, four distinct morphological categories were observed: (1) complete regeneration (Fig. 2A), (2) partial regeneration - presence of shortened tentacles and body column (Fig. 2B), (3) arrested regeneration - no formation of a head and foot (Fig. 2C), and (4) disintegration - the breakdown of Hydra tissues into debris (Fig. 2D). Of the 80 kinase inhibitors, 24 inhibitors were associated with complete regeneration, 23 inhibitors with partial regeneration, 5 inhibitors with arrested regeneration, and 28 inhibitors with disintegration. DEI values for complete regeneration ranged between -1.07 and 1.2; partial regeneration ranged between -4.4 and 0.6; arrested regeneration ranged between -7.67 and -4; and disintegration ranged between -10 and -7.8 (Fig. 3).

Next, the 80 kinase inhibitors were organized by the main signal transduction pathway that they are presumed to target (Table. S1). Of the various pathways, kinase inhibitors of the DNA Damage Response (DDR) were of particular interest for the following reasons: (1) exposure to all of the DDR inhibitors prevented normal regeneration, (2) many components of the DNA repair mechanism are evolutionarily conserved in *Hydra* (Wenger and Galliot, 2013b; Barve *et al.*, 2013a; Barve *et al.*, 2013b; Pekhale *et al.*, 2017; Galande *et al.*, 2018; Galande *et al.*, 2021), and (3) the robust self-renewing potential of *Hydra* have been attributed to the efficiency of its DNA repair mechanisms (Dańko *et al.*, 2015; Haval *et al.*, 2020). We decided to further pursue SB 218078, a potent adenosine triphosphate (ATP)-competitive inhibitor of the G2 checkpoint protein kinase, Chk1 (IC<sub>50</sub> of 15 nM for human Chk1) (Jackson *et al.*, 2000; Kawabe, 2004; Chen *et al.*, 2006). SB

218078 is also a less potent inhibitor of cyclin-dependent protein kinase Cdc2 and PKC (IC<sub>50</sub> values of 250 nM and 1000 nM for human Cdc2 and PKC, respectively), which are also involved in G2 checkpoint regulation (Jackson *et al.*, 2000; Barboule *et al.*, 1999).

Activation of Chk1 is known to lead to G2 cell cycle arrest and the accumulation of G2 cells has been positively linked to regeneration in many species (Buzgariu et al., 2018; Bedelbaeva et al., 2010; Rao et al., 2009). To explore the likelihood that Chk1 is the target of SB 218078 in Hydra, we compared Hydra vulgaris Chk1 (XM 012700247.1) to human Chk1 (Isoform1: NP 001107593.1). These proteins are 51% identical and 66% similar based on EMBOSS Needle Pairwise Sequence Alignment (Madeira et al., 2019). Additionally, important amino acid residues are conserved between Hydra and human Chk1, including the ATP-binding pocket residue, Glu85, which participates in a protein-ligand hydrogen bond in the co-crystal structure of SB 218078 and human Chk1 (Zhao et al., 2002), and the 'gatekeeper' residue, Leu84, which controls selectivity for small molecule inhibitors (Blasius, 2011) (Fig. S1). Taken together, these analyses suggest that Hydra Chk1 is a potential target of SB 218078.

Given that the exposure of *Hydra* gastric segments to 5  $\mu$ M of SB 218078 resulted in a distinct morphological phenotype, we examined the effects of SB 218078 on regeneration at both lower (3  $\mu$ M) and higher (7  $\mu$ M) concentrations. In general, the exposure of gastric segments to 3, 5 and 7  $\mu$ M SB 218078 prevented regeneration and caused disintegration in both a dose- and time-dependent manner (Fig. 4). Additionally, the impact on regenera-

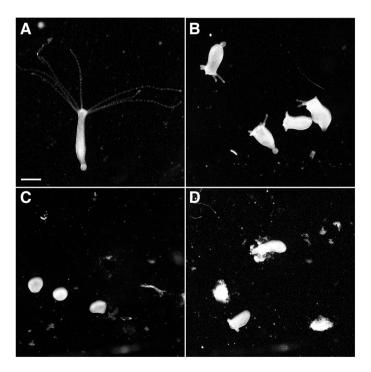


Fig. 2. Morphological categorization following exposure to the 80 kinase inhibitors. In total, 4 major morphologies were observed in Hydra following exposure to the 80 kinase inhibitors: (A) complete regeneration, (B) partial regeneration – the presence of shortened tentacles and/or body column, (C) arrested regeneration - no formation of a head and foot, and (D) disintegration - the breakdown of tissues into debris. Scale bar in (A) represents 1000  $\mu$ m and applies to all panels.

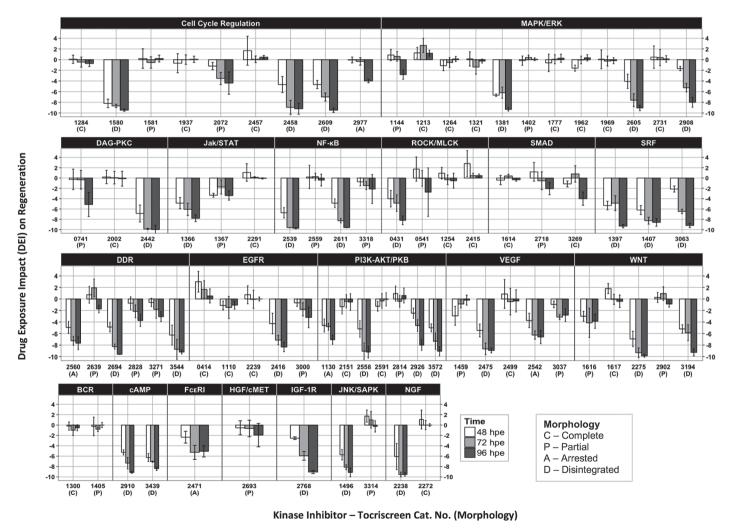
tion was observed relatively early in the regeneration process: at 48 hours post exposure (hpe), control *Hydra* displayed at least 1 complete tentacle (80%) (Fig. 4A), while *Hydra* treated with 3, 5 and 7  $\mu$ M appeared ball-shaped (Fig. 4 B-D).

Notably, *Hydra* head regeneration appeared to be more sensitive to SB 218078 exposure than regeneration of the foot. By 72 hpe, the majority of control *Hydra* displayed at least 4 complete tentacles (93%) and many formed a foot (40%) (Fig. 4E). In SB 218078-treated *Hydra*, while no tentacles or tentacle buds were observed (Fig. 4 F-H), 53% and 40% of *Hydra* in the 3  $\mu$ M and 5  $\mu$ M groups possessed a foot (Fig. 4 F-G). Additionally, disintegration begins to occur in the 7  $\mu$ M group (Fig. 4H). By 96 hpe, complete head regeneration is observed in all control *Hydra* and the majority also possessed a foot (73%) (Fig. 4I). In contrast, disintegration is seen (to varying degrees) in all of the SB 218078-treated groups (Fig. 4 J-L), resulting in the greatest differences in regeneration scores compared to control *Hydra* (Fig. 4M). Moreover, *Hydra* treated with SB 218078 remain unable to regenerate complete

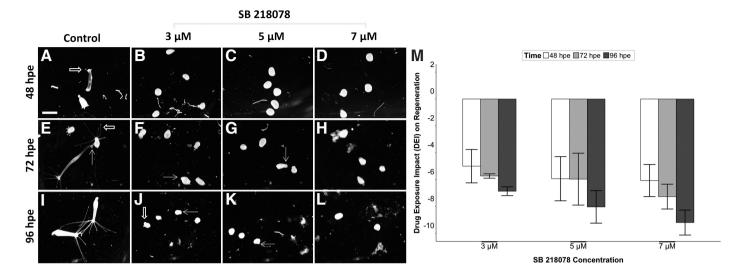
head structures: few *Hydra* treated with 3  $\mu$ M exhibited tentacle buds (20%) (Fig. 4J), while no tentacle-like formations are observed at the higher concentrations. However, foot regeneration was not inhibited to the same degree as head regeneration: complete foot structures were observed in some *Hydra* in the 3  $\mu$ M (40%) and 5  $\mu$ M treatment groups (20%) (Fig. 4 J-K). Taken together, these results show that the Chk1 inhibitor prevented regeneration and caused the loss of viability in a dose- and time-dependent manner. These trends are supported by the increasingly negative DEI values with both increasing concentration and exposure time (Fig. 4M). Furthermore, given that all SB 218078-treated *Hydra* were unable to form complete tentacle structures, head regeneration appears to be more sensitive to SB 218078 exposure than foot regeneration.

# *Exposure to SB 218078 disrupts* Hydra *head morphology and tentacle maintenance*

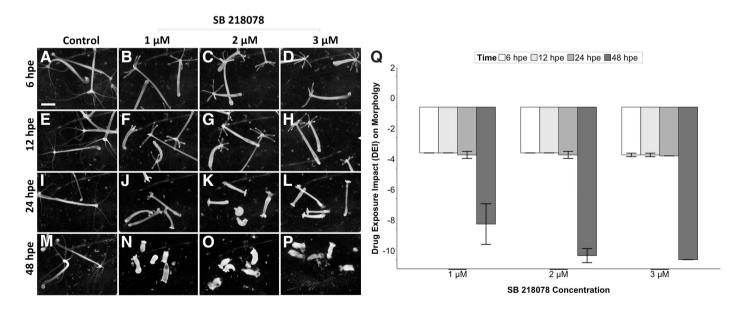
As Hydra stem cells are constantly undergoing division and rapid turnover (Schenkelaars et al., 2018), the Hydra model al-



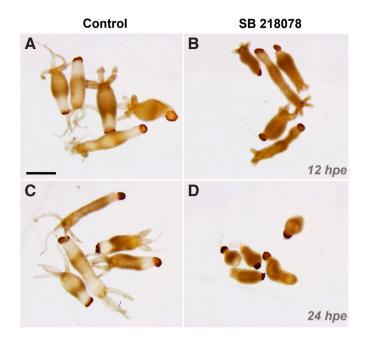
**Fig. 3. Drug Exposure Impact of the 80 kinase inhibitors on Hydra regeneration.** Kinase inhibitors were grouped by the main signal transduction pathways they are presumed to target. Drug Exposure Impact (DEI) values on regeneration were calculated as the difference in regeneration scores obtained for control and Hydra exposed to 5 μM kinase inhibitor. DEI values for complete regeneration ranged between -1.07 and 1.2; partial regeneration ranged between -4.4 and 0.6; arrested regeneration ranged between -7.67 and -4; and disintegration ranged between -10 and -7.8. Error bars represent ± 2x standard error.



**Fig. 4. Exposure to the Chk1 inhibitor SB 218078 prevents tentacle regeneration.** Hydra *gastric segments were exposed to 3, 5, and 7 \muM SB 218078 over a period of 96 hours.* Hydra regeneration was scored using the Wilby 1988 classification scheme. At 48 hpe, control Hydra displayed tentacle formation **(A)** (marked by double arrow), while SB 218078-treated Hydra remained ball-shaped **(B-D)**. By 72 hpe, most control Hydra displayed d4 tentacles **(E)** (marked by double arrow), while SB 218078-treated Hydra lacked tentacle structures. Foot formation was detected in control Hydra, as well Hydra treated with 3  $\mu$ M and 5  $\mu$ M SB 218078 **(E-G)** (marked by arrow). By 72 hpe, Hydra treated with 7  $\mu$ M SB 218078 also begin to experience disintegration **(H)**. By 96 hpe, all control Hydra possessed p 4 tentacles and many showed a foot **(I)**. Complete tentacle regeneration was not seen in SB 218078-treated with 3  $\mu$ M and 5  $\mu$ M SB 218078 **(J-K)** (marked by arrow). Drug Exposure Impact (DEI) values on morphology were calculated as the difference in morphology scores obtained for control and Hydra exposed to 1, 2 and 3  $\mu$ M SB 218078 **(M)**. By 96 hpe, disintegration **(M)**. Error bars represent  $\pm$  2x standard error. Scale bar in (A) represents 1000  $\mu$ m and applies to all panels.



**Fig. 5. Exposure to the Chk1 inhibitor SB 218078 causes shortening and eventual loss of tentacles.** Intact Hydra were treated with 1, 2, and 3  $\mu$ M SB 218078 over a period of 48 hours. Hydra morphology was scored using the Wilby 1988 classification scheme. Control Hydra maintained elongated tentacles and body columns throughout the exposure (A,E,I,M), while SB 218078-treated Hydra exhibited tentacle shortening by 6 hpe (B-D), clubbed tentacles by 12 hpe (**F-H**), bud-like tentacles and shortened body columns by 24 hpe (**J-L**) and further shortening or disintegration by 48 hpe (**N-P**). Drug Exposure Impact (DEI) values on morphology were calculated as the difference in morphology scores obtained for control and Hydra exposed to 1, 2 and 3  $\mu$ M SB 218078 (**Q**). By 48 hpe, disintegration is seen (in varying degrees) in all of the SB 218078-treated groups (**N-P**), resulting in the largest negative DEI values on morphology (**Q**). Error bars represent  $\pm 2x$  standard error. Images were taken with the Leica M165 scope and Leica Application Suite software. Scale bar in (A) represents 1000  $\mu$ m and applies to all panels.



lows for the simultaneous study of both self-renewal and normal physiology. Since SB 218078-treated *Hydra* displayed a differential sensitivity in terms of head and foot regeneration, we became interested in the effects of the Chk1 inhibitor on intact *Hydra*. Given that the previous SB 218078 concentrations resulted in dramatic morphological effects and the loss of viability over time, we decided to test lower concentrations of 1, 2 and 3  $\mu$ M. Intact *Hydra* were exposed to these various SB 218078 concentrations for a period of 48 hours, and the morphology of each animal was scored. In general, exposure to 1, 2 and 3  $\mu$ M SB 218078 resulted in the gradual shortening of *Hydra* tentacles and body columns over time. While control *Hydra* possessed elongated tentacles and body columns throughout the entire experiment (Fig. 5 A, E, I, M), SB

Fig. 6. Exposure to the Chk1 inhibitor SB 218078 does not disrupt the foot specific of expression of peroxidase. Hydra exposed to 1  $\mu$ M SB 218078 for 12 and 24 hours were stained for peroxidase activity, a proxy for foot specific differentiation. The pattern of peroxidase activity in control (A, C) and SB 218078-treated Hydra (B,D) were indistinguishable indicating that exposure to this Chk1 inhibitor did not affect foot maintenance. In contrast, the tentacles of Hydra exposed to SB 218078 are dramatically shortened at 12 hpe (B), and bud-like or non-detectable by 24 hpe (D). Scale bar in (A) represents 1000  $\mu$ m and applies to all panels.

218078-treated *Hydra* displayed shortened tentacles by 6 hpe (Fig. 5 B-D), clubbed tentacles by 12 hpe (Fig. 5 F-H), bud-like tentacles and shortened body columns by 24 hpe (Fig. 5 J-L), and further shortening or disintegration by 48 hpe (Fig. 5 N-P). However, this time-dependent impact on morphology was not depicted in the DEI values (Fig. 5Q) since the Wilby 1988 classification scheme does not consider the varying degrees of tentacle and body shortening (Quinn *et al.*, 2012). With respect to the dose-dependent effects, *Hydra* morphology amongst the various SB 218078 concentrations were indistinguishable at the earlier time points (Fig. 5 B-D, F-H, J-L); this is represented by the relatively similar DEI values between the concentrations from 6-24 hpe (Fig. 5Q). However, by 48 hpe, the number of disintegrated *Hydra* increased with increasing concentrations (Fig. 5 N-P), which is shown by the increasingly negative DEI values at this time point (Fig. 5Q).

The *Hydra* basal disc is comprised of epithelial-derived mucous cells containing a peroxidase-like enzyme, which allows for the detection of foot-specific differentiation. *Hydra* stained with diaminobenzidine results in a dark-brown colour within the cells containing the peroxidase activity (Hoffmeister and Schaller, 1985). To confirm foot differentiation in *Hydra* exposed to the Chk1 inhibitor, we stained intact animals with diaminobenzidine immediately following exposure to 1  $\mu$ M SB 218078 for 12 and 24 hours. *Hydra* exposed to SB 218078 exhibited a strong dark brown staining at the basal end, similar to their respective controls (Fig. 6). Together with the above data, it is suggested that Chk1 inhibitor-exposed *Hydra* had no apparent disruptions in foot differentiation.

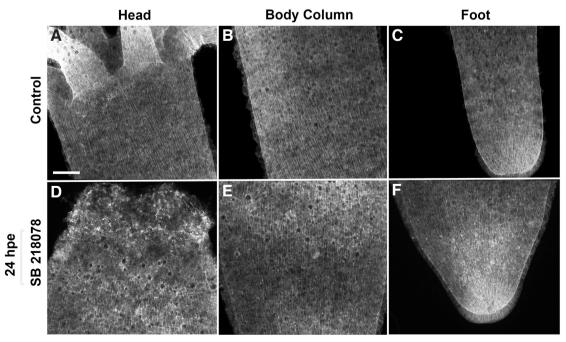


Fig. 7. Exposure to the Chk1 inhibitor SB 218078 results in F-actin disorganization in the Hydra head region. Hydra exposed to 1 µM SB 218078 for 24 hours were stained with rhodamine conjugated phalloidin in order to visualize the F-actin structures. Control Hydra displayed long, continuous filaments along the oral aboral axis (A-C), while SB 218078-treated Hydra exhibited disorganized F-actin only in the head region seen here with much reduced tentacles (D,E,F). Scale bar in (A) represents 100 µm and applies to all panels.

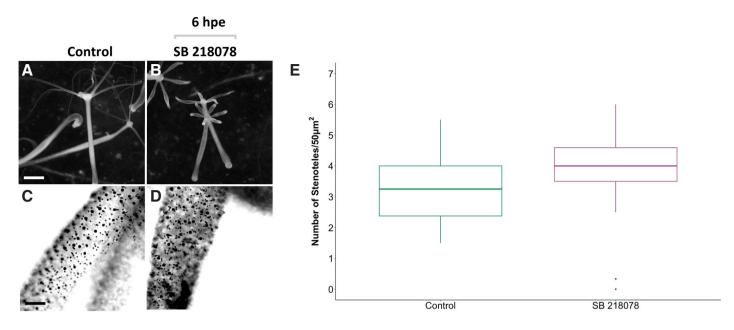


Fig. 8. Exposure to the Chk1 inhibitor SB 218078 does not appear to impact the density of stenoteles and the overall organization of the nematocytes in the battery cell complex. Hydra exposed to 1  $\mu$ M SB 218078 for 6 hours were stained with toluidine blue to detect the stenotele nematocytes. Panels (A) and (B) display the overall morphology of control and SB 218078-treated Hydra, respectively. Reduction in the overall length of the tentacles is already apparent at this time. Panels (C) and (D) display toluidine blue stained control and SB 218078-treated tentacles, respectively. The overall organization of the nematocytes seen here by toluidine blue staining of the nematocyst organelle does not appear to be affected by exposure to the Chk1 inhibitor SB 218078. The number of stenoteles in the proximal region of tentacles were counted manually and density was determined per 50  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup> fields. No significant difference in stenotele density was detected between control and SB 218078-treated Hydra (E). Scale bar in (A) represents 1000  $\mu$ m and also applies to (B). Scale bar in (C) represents 50  $\mu$ m and also applies to (D).

Actin organization is crucial for *Hydra* morphogenesis and regeneration (Livshits *et al.*, 2017). Thus, we hypothesized possible discrepancies in actin fiber alignment in *Hydra* treated with SB 218078. To test this, intact *Hydra* treated with 1  $\mu$ M SB 218078 for 24 hours were stained with rhodamine-phalloidin to visualize the F-actin structures. While control *Hydra* displayed long, continuous filaments throughout the whole animal (Fig. 7 A-C), SB 218078-treated *Hydra* showed disorganized filaments in the head region (Fig. 7D). However, F-actin structure in the body column and foot resembled those of control animals (Fig. 7 E-F). Taken together, these findings suggest that SB 218078 predominantly disrupts *Hydra* head morphology, contributing to its inability to maintain tentacle structures.

Since *Hydra* exposed to 1  $\mu$ M SB 218078 displayed shortened tentacles as early as 6 hpe (Fig. 8 A-B), we examined the cellular components within the tentacles, specifically those involved in feeding functions. *Hydra* tentacles are normally constituted of battery cells that are epitheliomuscular cells embedded with numerous nematocysts that are responsible for prey capture (Hufnagel *et al.*, 1985). We focused on stenotele nematocysts since they are easily distinguished by their large size. To this end, *Hydra* exposed to 1  $\mu$ M SB 218078 for 6 hours were stained with toluidine blue and the stenoteles in the proximal tentacle regions were counted (Fig. 8 C-D). We examined the proximal areas since the medial and distal portions were easily tangled during the staining process. No significant difference in stenotele density was detected between control and SB 218078-treated *Hydra* (Fig. 8E). These results indicate that although the Chk1

inhibitor disrupts the overall morphology of the tentacles, select components inside the tentacular epithelial cells appear to be unchanged.

# *Exposure to SB 218078 alters cellular composition of the* Hydra *gastric region*

Hydra epithelial cells are constantly being displaced from the gastric zone to the apical and basal extremities, differentiating into either tentacle- or foot-specific cells (Schenkelaars et al., 2018). Given the gradual loss of tentacles structures in SB 218078-treated Hydra, we decided to investigate the cellular composition of the body column. Hydra exposed to 1µM SB 218078 for 12 and 24 hours were dissected to isolate the gastric region, subsequently macerated, and the various cell types were counted: ectodermal epithelial, endodermal epithelial, interstitial, nematoblasts, nematocysts, gland, and nerve cells (Fig. 9A). Notably, Hydra treated with SB 218078 revealed significantly lower proportions of ectodermal epithelial cells compared to their controls at both 12 and 24 hours; and significantly lower proportions of endodermal epithelial cells at 24 hours (Fig. 9B). The remaining cell type proportions were comparable between SB 218078-treated and control Hydra at both time points. These results correspond to the unchanged stenotele density observed in SB 218078-treated Hydra at 6 hpe, given that nematocysts are derived from nematoblasts and interstitial cells, and no changes in proportions were seen in any of these cell types. Overall, these results indicate that the Chk1 inhibitor primarily impacts the Hydra epithelial stem cells, which may account for its overall poor tentacle maintenance.

### Changes in Hydra cellular composition caused by exposure to SB 218078 is not accompanied by alterations in mitotic or apoptotic activities

Disruptions in the G2/M cell cycle checkpoint may allow a damaged cell to enter pre-mature mitosis and subsequently apoptotic cell death (DiPaola, 2002). The mitotic and apoptotic activities of SB 218078-treated Hydra were investigated, as changes in these cellular processes may account for its poor regeneration, disrupted tentacle maintenance and reduced epithelial cell proportions. First, we performed a phospho-histone H3 antibody assay to detect mitotically active cells. Hydra treated with 1µM SB 218078 for 12 and 24 hours were stained with anti-phosphorylated histone H3 and the fluorescent nuclei in the body column were manually counted (Fig. 10 A-D). DAPI was used to verify that the fluorescence signal from anti-phosphorylated histone H3 were indeed nuclei (Fig. 10 E-F). The average fluorescent nuclei density (fluorescent nuclei/µm<sup>2</sup>) in Hydra exposed to 1µM SB 218078 at both 12 and 24 hours were not significantly different to their corresponding control groups (Fig. 10G). Next, SB 218078-treated Hydra were stained with acridine orange to detect possible changes in apoptotic activity (Fig. 11 A-D). Similarly, acridine orange fluorescence intensity (a.u) of Hydra exposed to 1µM SB 218078 for 12 hours and 24 hours were not significantly different to their corresponding control groups (Fig. 11E). Taken together, these results indicate that reduced epithelial cell proportions in SB 218078-treated Hydra are not due to major changes in cell division or apoptotic cell death.

# Discussion

To date, the molecular basis of tissue regeneration and wound repair is not fully understood, consequently limiting the development of novel clinical strategies in regenerative medicine (Eming et al., 2016). Interestingly, cross-phyla studies within the animal kingdom have demonstrated that regeneration maintains an extensive conservation of molecular signaling pathways (Alvarado and Tsonis. 2006). For this reason, the study of animals that exhibit robust regeneration, such as Hydra, may improve our knowledge of the key regulators and mechanisms driving adult tissue repair and wound healing. Many studies have utilized kinase inhibitors to identify molecular regulators and signal transduction pathways underlying Hydra regeneration and patterning (Cardenas et al., 2000; Cardenas and Salgado, 2003; Broun et al., 2005; Manuel et al., 2006; Arvizu et al., 2006; Turwankar and Ghaskadbi, 2019). In the present study, we describe a systematic screen of a kinase inhibitor library to investigate their effects on Hydra regeneration. We focused on SB 218078, a potent inhibitor of Chk1, considering its crucial role in the G2/M checkpoint and the importance of G2-paused cells in Hydra regeneration.

We found that *Hydra* that had been exposed to the Chk1 inhibitor SB 218078 were incapable of head-specific regeneration and maintenance. Specifically, *Hydra* gastric segments exposed to SB 218078 were unable to regenerate complete tentacle structures; while foot regeneration was seen in *Hydra* exposed to lower con-

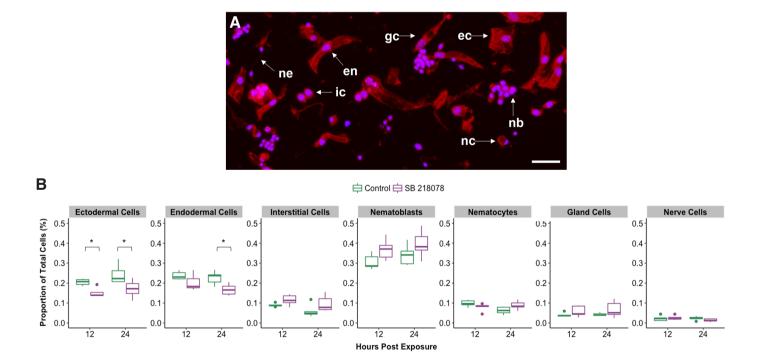


Fig. 9. Exposure to the Chk1 inhibitor SB 218078 leads to reduction in the relative proportion of epithelial cells in the gastric region. Cell macerates from Hydra exposed to 1  $\mu$ M SB 218078 for 12 and 24 hours were stained with Mitotracker and DAPI to visualize the mitochondria and nuclei. Panel (A) shows a representative photomicrograph from a control cell macerate with the cell types counted in this experiment (ec - ectodermal epithelial cells; en - endodermal epithelial cells; ic - interstitial cells; nb - nematoblasts; nc - nematocysts; gc - gland cells; ne - nerve cells). For each treatment group, 627 – 1333 cells were counted to determine the relative proportion of the various cell types. (B) Hydra exposed to SB 218078 had significantly lower proportion of ectodermal epithelial cells compared to control at both 12 and 24 hours; and significantly lower proportions of endodermal epithelial cells at 24 hours. Asterisks indicate significant differences (p<0.05). Scale bar in (A) represents 100  $\mu$ m.

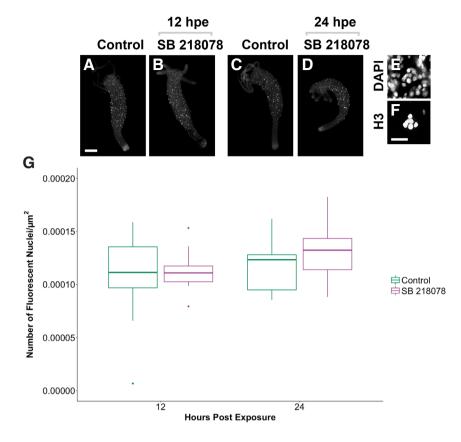


Fig. 10. Exposure to the Chk1 inhibitor SB 218078 does not impact mitotic activity in the Hydra gastric region as detected by anti-phosphorylated histone H3 immunolabelling. Hydra exposed to 1 µM SB 218078 for 12 and 24 were processed for anti-phosphorylated histone H3 immunolabeling to detect mitotically-active nuclei. (A) and (C) display nonexposed control Hydra at 12 and 24 hpe, respectively; (B) and (D) represent SB 218078-exposed Hydra at 12 and 24 hpe, respectively; (E) and (F) show the overlap of anti-phosphorylated histone H3 labelling and DAPI indicating that the structures detected with the antiphosphorylated histone H3 antibody are indeed nuclei. The number of fluorescent nuclei in the entire animal (excluding the tentacles) were counted manually to determine the density (fluorescent nuclei/µm<sup>2</sup>). No

significant differences in fluorescent nuclei density were found between the treatment groups at 12 or 24 hpe **(G)**. Images were taken with the Axio Observer

D1 scope and ZEN Blue software. Scale bar in (A)

represents 500 µm and also applies to (B-D). Scale

bar in (F) represents 25  $\mu$ m and also applies to (E).

centration of the inhibitor. Likewise, intact Hydra exposed to SB 218078 experienced a gradual shortening and eventual loss of tentacles; while foot structures appeared unchanged. In line with these observations, Hydra exposed to SB 218078 for 24 hours displayed disorganized actin filament structure in the head region, below the tentacles, but not in the foot region. Notably, SB 218078 treated Hydra had a significantly lower proportion of ectodermal epithelial cells compared to their controls at both 12 and 24 hours; and significantly lower proportion of endodermal epithelial cells at 24 hours. In contrast, no differences were seen for interstitial stem cells or their derivatives. This finding is consistent with the observation that exposure to SB 218078 did not affect the tentacle density of stenoteles; a specialized nematocyte derived from the multipotent interstitial stem cell. Lastly, exposure to SB 218078 appeared to have no impact on the level of mitosis or apoptosis as detected by anti-phospho H3 immuno-labelling and acridine orange respectively and under the conditions employed in our experiments.

Axial patterning in *Hydra* is largely determined by the morphogenetic gradients termed the head activation (HA) and head inhibition (HI) gradient; both signals originate from the head organizer, located in the hypostome, and decrease in concentration down the body column (Bode, 2009). In addition to these morphogenetic patterns, *Hydra* head and foot regeneration are associated with different signaling pathways; inhibition of Src tyrosine kinase, ERK 1–2, PI3K, MEK, and ribosomal S6 kinase (RSK) disrupts *Hydra* head but not foot regeneration (Galliot, 2013). Furthermore, phosphorylation patterns during head regeneration are different from foot regeneration: cAMP-response element-binding protein (CREB) is hyperphosphorylated in the regenerating head stumps; in the basal region, there are higher levels of phosphorylated Smad, indicating greater BMP signaling activity (Kaloulis *et al.*, 2004; Wenger *et al.*, 2019). Lastly, head and foot regeneration are different in terms of their cellular events. At the head-regenerating tips, there is an immediate wave of cell death promoting regeneration, however, this is not seen for the foot (Chera *et al.*, 2009). Collectively, these studies indicate that *Hydra* head and foot regeneration are independent processes. In the present work, we show that *Hydra* head regeneration is more sensitive to SB 218078 treatment, suggesting a potential role for *Hydra* Chk1 in the regeneration of head-specific processes.

In Hydra, epithelial stem cells generated in the body column are progressively displaced bidirectionally towards the oral aboral extremities. Once there, both ectodermal and endodermal epithelial cells stop cycling and undergo a tentacle or foot specific differentiation program. Tentacle and foot epithelial cells will eventually be shed into the media and new cells will differentiate and be incorporated in these structures (Bosch, 2007). Therefore, continuous cell shedding at the tentacles and foot is balanced by the differentiation of epithelial stem cells that by virtue of their continuous proliferation are displaced from the gastric column to the apical extremities. Interestingly, early experiments indicate that the displacement of epithelial cells from the base of the tentacle into the tentacle proper occurs much faster than that of epithelial cells into the basal disc or foot region (4 days versus 20 days) (Campbell, 1967). Taken together, these observations suggest that the turnover of tentacle epithelial cells is higher than that of foot epithelial cells. It is thus possible that the differential sensitivity of intact Hydra to SB 218078 observed along the oral-aboral axis reflects the higher turnover

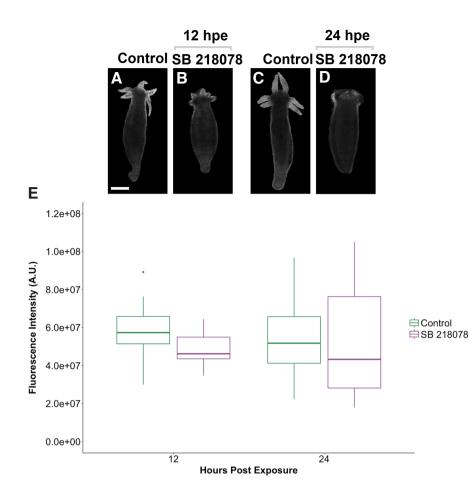


Fig. 11. Exposure to the Chk1 inhibitor SB 218078 does not increase apoptosis in the *Hy*dra gastric region. Hydra exposed to 1  $\mu$ M SB 218078 for 12 and 24 hours were stained with acridine orange to detect apoptotic cells. Panels (A) and (C) show control Hydra at 12 and 24 hpe, respectively; panels (B) and (D) show SB 218078-treated Hydra at 12 and 24 hpe, respectively. Fluorescence intensity in the entire animal, excluding the tentacles, was measured using ImageJ. No significant difference was found between the treatment groups at 12 or 24 hpe (E). Images were taken with the Axio Observer D1 scope and ZEN Blue software. Scale bar in (A) represents 500  $\mu$ m and applies to all panels.

of the tentacle structure. Alternatively, exposure to SB 218078 may cause a relative increased loss of tentacle structures due to disruption of the cell shedding processes. In the mammalian intestine, F-actin organization is thought to be important in facilitating the shedding of epithelial cells. Specifically, dying epithelial cells are squeezed out of the epithelium by the contraction of an actin myosin ring (Wang *et al.*, 2011). In our results, we found that SB 218078-treated *Hydra* showed disorganized actin filament structure in the head region immediately at the base of the tentacles, but not in the body column or foot region. Thus, this head-specific actin disruption may have resulted in reduced incorporation or differentiation of epithelial cells into the tentacles, as reflected in the shortened and stubby appearance of tentacles.

At the level of resolution investigated here, SB 218078 exposure reduced the relative proportion of epithelial stem cells without affecting interstitial stem cells and derivatives (nematoblasts, nematocytes, gland cells, nerve cells). It is possible that this differential impact to SB 218078 exposure is due to longer cell cycle duration of epithelial cells (3-4 days) relative to that reported for interstitial stem cells (24-30 hours) (Hobmayer *et al.*, 2012; Buzgariu *et al.*, 2014). *Hydra* regeneration can occur in the so-called epithelial *Hydra* nearly devoid of interstitial stem cells and derivatives (Marcum and Campbell, 1978; Sugiyama and Fujisawa, 1978). However, disruptions in the ability of epithelial stem cells to proliferate can drastically limit *Hydra* regenerative potential (Bosch, 2007), which appeared to be consistent with our results.

In Hydra, head regeneration has been shown to rely on large numbers of G2-paused adult stem cells (Buzgariu et al., 2018). Hydra head regeneration following decapitation has been suggested to be a largely morphallactic process which depends on the differentiation of existing epithelial stem cells. In fact, it has been indicated that head-specific differentiation can occur in the absence of cellular proliferation, possibly as an adaptive mechanism (Buzgariu et al., 2018). Furthermore, the ectodermal epithelial cells of the Hydra tentacles (known as battery cells) and the foot (known as foot mucous cells) possess 4n DNA content (Dubel et al., 1987). Taken together, it is indicated that battery and foot mucous cells are G2-arrested and have been terminally differentiated in a single step.

Chk1 was first identified in fission yeast as a serine threonine kinase that controls G2/M transition in response to DNA damage (Walworth *et al.*, 1993). As a checkpoint protein, Chk1 negatively regulates G2/M transition. Increased activity of Chk1 holds cells in G2 phase. Activated Chk1 phosphorylates several different targets triggering a cascade of cellular processes that include cell cycle arrest or delay, DNA repair and on the extent of the DNA damage present, apoptosis (Zhang and Hunter, 2014). In addition, Chk1 plays a role in monitoring DNA

replication. Inhibition or downregulation of Chk1 may lead to socalled mitotic catastrophe due to cells with incomplete replication entering mitosis prematurely. Arole for Chk1 function in normal cell growth is mediated by phosphorylation events distinct from those mediating the DNA damage response. Mutational analysis indicates that the DNA damage response function of Chk1 dependent on phosphorylation of S317 residue is non-essential. In contrast, cell cycle regulation mediated by phosphorylation of S345 is essential for cell viability and has been proposed to promote progression to metaphase (Wilsker *et al.*, 2008). Consistent with these findings, downregulation of Chk1 in synchronized cells blocks cell cycle at metaphase (Tang *et al.*, 2006).

In general, stem cell differentiation is primarily associated with the length of the G1 phase. Indeed, manipulation of genes known to promote G1 length, particularly cdk2/cyclin E, is capable of influencing embryonic stem cell (ESCs) differentiation (Lange and Calegari, 2010). However, the link between G2 cell cycle pausing and differentiation has been demonstrated in human ESCs. Specifically, the disruption of Wee1-mediated G2 pausing in hESCs selectively reduced early lineage commitment to endoderm (Van Oudenove et al., 2016). The importance of G2 in stem cell differentiation is consistent with the postulation of Chk1's role in this process. In particular, treatment of CD133+ hematopoietic stem cells (HSC) with Chk1 inhibitors led to a decrease in myeloid precursor percentage, and an increase in lymphoid precursor percentage, suggesting a possible role of Chk1 in HSC differentiation (Carrassa et al., 2010). Moreover, loss of Chk1 has been associated with an inhibition of T lineage differentiation in thymocytes (Zaugg et al., 2007). Taken together, we postulate that Chk1 inhibitor-exposed Hydra may have defects in apical differentiation, contributing to their apparent inability to regenerate or maintain tentacles. Specifically, there may be disruptions in the terminal differentiation of epithelial stem cells to tentacle-specific battery cells. Considering there were no changes in the proportions of interstitial-derived cells in the gastric column or tentacles of SB 218078-treated Hydra, Chk1 may not impact the differentiation of interstitial stem cells.

G2 pausing has been proposed to assist in the protection against cell death (Buzgariu et al., 2014). Specifically, most cells in the G2 phase resist pro-apoptotic agents, while cells cycling in the G1 or S-phases rapidly undergo cell death (Reiter et al., 2012). Furthermore, human epithelial cells with stem-like properties are able to resist cell death in G2, due to increased levels of Chk1 and Chk2 proteins (Harper et al., 2010). In our study, gastric columns of SB 218078-treated Hydra displayed no detectable changes in apoptotic activity, as shown by acridine orange staining. In the future, SB 218078-treated Hydra should be exposed to apoptosisinducing agents such as colchicine or wortmannin to evaluate their resilience against cell death. Our results suggest that the baseline level of apoptotic cell death in Hydra is not affected by exposure to Chk1 inhibitor. It is possible that higher levels of apoptosis are occurring in the tentacles of SB 218078-treated Hydra; however, this is obscured by the affinity of acridine orange to poly- $\gamma$  -glutamate in nematocyst capsules. Thus, it would be worthwhile checking for programmed cell death in the tentacles using other apoptosis-detection assays such as terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase (TdT) dUTP Nick-End Labeling (TUNEL).

Overall, our study demonstrates the effectiveness of kinase inhibitor screens for investigating key regulators of *Hydra* regenerative processes. We determined that SB 218078, a Chk1 inhibitor, disrupts the head region in both regenerating and intact *Hydra*. Although molecular and biochemical assays are necessary to determine the specific targets of SB 218078 in *Hydra*, our findings suggest a potential role for Chk1 in head-specific regeneration and maintenance.

# **Materials and Methods**

#### Maintenance of Hydra cultures

*Hydra vulgaris* (synonym *H. littoralis*) were obtained from Ward's Natural Science Ltd (Rochester, New York). *Hydra* cultures were kept in glass Pyrex dishes (8 x 8 x 1.5 inch) containing 600 ml of *Hydra* medium (HM). HM was made fresh weekly by dissolving 0.5M CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.5 M NaCl, 0.5 M KCl, 0.05 M MgSO<sub>4</sub> and 0.5 M Tris Base into distilled water, which was then adjusted to a pH of 7.7. The cultures were maintained at 12/12 h light-dark photoperiod at a temperature of 22°C. *Hydra* were fed on the weekdays with *Artemia nauplii* and the HM was replaced with fresh solution approximately six hours after feeding.

#### Kinase inhibitor screen on regeneration

Apanel of 80 kinase inhibitors (Tocriscreen Kinase Inhibitor Toolbox Cat. No. 3514) dissolved as 10 mM solutions in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) was obtained from Tocris Bioscience (Bristol, United Kingdom). Hydra gastric segments were isolated by cutting starved (1-day) specimens with a scalpel immediately below the head and immediately above the basal disc. Three kinase inhibitors (5 µM) and one control (HM with 0.05% DMSO) were set up per 12-well plate: three replicate wells for each treatment group with 5 Hydra gastric segments/well. Each well contained 3 ml of the appropriate treatment solution (Fig. 1). Regeneration was scored for each specimen every 12 hours for 4 days using the Wilby 1988 classification chart of Hvdra regeneration (Quinn et al., 2012). This grading system consists of assigning a score between 0 – 10 for each individual Hydra, with a score of 10 indicating complete regeneration of the head and foot, while a score of 0 represents disintegration and a lack of regeneration. Additionally, the overall morphology of each Hydra was noted at the end of the 96-hour exposure. The drug exposure impact (DEI) value for regeneration was calculated by subtracting the mean regeneration score for the vehicle-treated control group from the mean regeneration score for the inhibitor-treated group. Throughout the exposure, Hydra were not fed, and the solution was not replaced. Specimens were imaged with the Leica M165 dissecting scope and Leica Application Imaging Suite software.

#### Morphology assay

Whole *Hydra* were distributed into 3 wells (5 *Hydra*/well) containing 3 ml of a given concentration of SB 218078 or DMSO vehicle control. The impact of kinase inhibitors on *Hydra* viability was assessed using the Wilby 1988 classification chart of *Hydra* morphology (Quinn *et al.*, 2012). This grading system consists of assigning a score between 0 – 10 for each *Hydra*, with a score of 10 indicating extended tentacles and a reactive body, while a score of 0 represents disintegration. The DEI value for morphology was calculated by subtracting the mean morphology score for the vehicle-treated control group from the mean morphology score for the inhibitor-treated group. Throughout the exposure, *Hydra* were not fed, and the solution was not replaced. Specimens were imaged with the Leica M165 dissecting scope and Leica Application Imaging Suite software.

#### Visualization of filamentous actin with rhodamine-phalloidin

*Hydra* exposed to 1  $\mu$ M SB 218078 (Tocris) for 24 hours were stained with rhodamine conjugated phalloidin to visualize F-actin structures. Rhodamine-phalloidin staining was carried out as previously described (Aufschnaiter *et al.*, 2017). Briefly, *Hydra* were relaxed in 2% urethane/HM for 2 min, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde/HM at 4°C for 1 hour, washed 3× in 1X PBS for 10 min, then permeabilized with 0.1% Triton/PBS for 15 minutes at room temperature. After permeabilization, *Hydra* were incubated in Alexa Fluor 488 Phalloidin (1:200) (Thermo Fisher) in 0.1% Triton/PBS for 1 hour at room temperature, washed 3× in 1X PBS for 10 min, then mounted with Mowiol 4-88 (Sigma). Specimens were imaged with the Zeiss AXIO Observer D1 microscope and ZEN software. Sample size: N=15 for inhibitor-treated *Hydra* at 24 hpe; N=14 for control *Hydra*.

#### Anti-phosphorylated histone H3 immunolabelling

*Hydra* exposed to 1 μM SB 218078 (Tocris) for 12 and 24 were processed for anti-phosphorylated histone H3 immunolabeling to detect mitotically-active nuclei. The procedure was slightly modified from a previously established protocol (Buzgariu *et al.*, 2018). *Hydra* were relaxed in 2% urethane/HM for 2 minutes, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde/HM for 1 hour at room temperature, washed 3x in 1X PBS for 10 min, permeabilized in 0.5% Triton/PBS for 10 minutes at room temperature, blocked with 1% BSA (Sigma) in 0.1% Triton/PBS for 1 hour at room temperature. Fixed specimens were incubated with rabbit anti phospho-histone H3 antibody (1:200) (Thermo Fisher) and 1X HALT cocktail (Thermo Fisher) overnight at 4°C in blocking solution. Following incubation, specimens were washed 3x in 1X PBS for 10 min, then incubated with secondary FITC conjugated anti rabbit antibody (1:200) (Thermo Fisher), DAPI (1:5000) (Sigma) and

1X HALT cocktail in blocking solution for 2 hours at room temperature. Following incubation, specimens were washed 3× in 1X PBS for 10 min then mounted with Mowiol 4-88 (Sigma). Specimens were imaged with the Zeiss AXIO Observer D1 microscope and ZEN software. The number of fluorescent nuclei in the entire animal (excluding the tentacles) were counted manually to determine the density (fluorescent nuclei/ $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>). Sample size: N=13 and 14 for inhibitor-treated *Hydra* at 12 hpe and 24 hpe, respectively; N=14 for control *Hydra*.

#### Acridine orange staining

*Hydra* exposed to 1  $\mu$ M SB 218078 (Tocris) for 12 and 24 hours were stained with acridine orange to detect apoptotic cells. Acridine orange staining was performed as previously described (Miller *et al.*, 2000). *Hydra* were incubated with 3.3 mM acridine orange (Sigma) for 15 minutes in the dark, washed 2× with HM for 10 min and mounted in Mowiol 4-88 (Sigma). Specimens were imaged with the Zeiss AXIO Observer D1 microscope and ZEN software. Fluorescence intensity (a.u.) in the entire animal (excluding the tentacles) was measured using ImageJ. Sample size: N=14 and 13 for inhibitor-treated *Hydra* at 12 hours post exposure (hpe) and 24 hpe, respectively; N=14 for control *Hydra*.

#### Cell macerates

Cell macerates for Hydra exposed to 1 µM SB 218078 (Tocris) for 12 and 24 hours were prepared as described (David, 1973). Hydra gastric segments (10 segments/tube) were incubated in 200 µl of maceration solution (1:1:13 ratio of glycerol, glacial acetic acid and ddH<sub>2</sub>O) for 40 minutes at room temperature, with gentle intermittent mixing of the tube, to this 200  $\mu l$  of 8% paraformaldehyde/HM were added, incubated for 20 minutes at room temperature, followed by the addition of 20 µl of 10% Tween 80 (Sigma). Aliquots of 50  $\mu$ l of the final maceration solution were distributed on a poly-lysine coated glass slides and air-dried for 48 hours. Following the drying period, slides were washed 3x with 10X PBS and incubated with a 1X PBS solution containing 200 ul of 6000 nM DAPI (Sigma) and 1000 nM Mitotracker (Thermo Fisher) in the dark for 40 minutes. Following incubation, slides were washed 3x with 1X PBS and mounted in Mowiol 4-88 (Sigma). Slides were imaged using the Zeiss AXIO Observer D1 microscope and ZEN software. N=5 for each treatment group. Cells were counted manually to determine the relative proportion of each type: ectodermal epithelial cells, endodermal epithelial cells, interstitial cells, nematoblasts, nematocysts, gland cells and nerve cells (>500 cells counted for each slide).

#### Nematocyst staining with toluidine blue

*Hydra* exposed to 1  $\mu$ M SB 218078 (Tocris) for 6 hours were stained with toluidine blue to detect the stenotele nematocysts. Toluidine blue staining was performed as described (Ambrosone *et al.*, 2014). *Hydra* were relaxed with 2% urethane/HM for 2 minutes, fixed with absolute ethanol for 5 minutes, washed 5x with ddH<sub>2</sub>O for 10 minutes, then washed 2x with 10 mM Tris-Cl (pH 7.5) for 5 minutes. Next, specimens were stained with 0.01% toluidine blue (Sigma) in 10 mM Tris-Cl (pH 7.4) for 10 minutes, washed 5x with ddH<sub>2</sub>O for 10 minutes, dehydrated in an ethanol series (for 5 minutes each at 50%, 75%, 95% in water, then twice for 100%), cleared with 1:1 ethanol: xylene for 5 minutes, and twice with 100% xylene for 10 minutes. Specimens were mounted on DPX (Sigma) and then imaged with the Zeiss AXIO Observer D1 microscope and ZEN software. Two 50  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup> squares were sampled in the proximal region of the tentacles; the number of stenoteles per 50  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup> was counted manually to determine the stenotele density. N=14 for inhibitor-treated *Hydra*; N=11 for control *Hydra*.

#### Peroxidase foot staining

*Hydra* exposed to 1  $\mu$ M SB 218078 (Tocris) for 12 and 24 hours were stained for peroxidase activity to detect foot structures. Peroxidase staining was slightly modified from established protocols (Hoffmeister and Schaller, 1985). *Hydra* were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde/HM for 20 minutes at room temperature, washed with PBT (1X PBS and 0.25% Triton X-100, pH 7.4) 2x for 10 minutes, then incubated with the foot staining solution

consisting of 0.1% 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (Sigma), PBT, and 0.3%  $H_2O_2$  for 10 minutes. The peroxidase reaction was stopped by washing with PBT3x for 10 minutes. Specimens were imaged with the Leica M165 dissecting scope and Leica Application Imaging Suite software. Sample size: N=14 and 15 for inhibitor-treated *Hydra* at 12 hours post exposure (hpe) and 24 hpe, respectively; N=15 for control *Hydra*.

#### Statistical analysis

Data visualization and statistical analysis was performed using RStudio software. Shapiro and Bartlett's tests were performed to determine normality and homogeneity of variance respectively, where  $P \ge 0.05$  indicated normal distribution and equal variance across samples. Two sample t-tests or Wilcoxon tests were performed to assess the difference between control and SB 218078 treated samples in the following assays: cell macerates, stenotele density, phospho H3, and acridine orange. P-values < 0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.

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