

1 **Regeneration: Why junk DNA might matter**

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8 Abstract

9 The ability of certain natural species to restore or regenerate missing structures has been a
10 recurrent source of inspiration to forge our collective knowledge, from being used to adorn
11 mythological figures with superhuman powers to permitting controlled reproducible observations
12 that help setting the bases of entire research fields such as experimental biology and regenerative
13 medicine. In spite of being one of the oldest natural phenomena under study, what makes certain
14 species able or unable to regenerate missing parts is still largely a mystery. Recent advancements
15 towards the highly detailed characterization of the sequence, the spatial organization, and the
16 expression of genomes is offering a new standpoint to address the study of the natural variation
17 in regenerative responses. An intriguing observation that has not yet conveniently pursued is that
18 species with remarkable regenerative abilities tend to have genomes loaded with junk DNA
19 (jDNA), *i.e.*, genetic elements presumed to be useless for the benefit of the individual, whereas
20 species for taxa with limited regenerative abilities tend to have jDNA-poor genomes. Here, I use
21 existing knowledge on the role of jDNA as genome evolution facilitator and its non-random
22 chromosome and nuclear distributions to speculate about two non-excluding ways through which
23 the variation in jDNA genomic content might end up enhancing or limiting regenerative
24 responses. The present piece aims to go beyond the confines of correlational studies between
25 biological variables and to lay sensible conceptual grounds for future hypothesis-driven attempts
26 to substantiate the genomic determinants of the natural variation of regenerative responses.

27 Introduction

28 In recent years there has been an acceleration of the genomic characterization of species with
29 remarkable regenerative abilities such as the cnidarians *Hydra magnipapillata* and *Nematostella*
30 *vectensis*, the platyhelminths *Dugesia japonica*, *Macrostomum lignano*, and *Schmidtea*
31 *mediterranea*, the crustacean *Parhyale hawaiiensis*, the insect *Periplaneta americana* or the
32 urodeles *Ambystoma mexicanum*, *Notophthalmus viridescens*, and *Pleurodeles waltl* [1-11].
33 Beyond their enhanced regenerative abilities, these species share another feature that hindered
34 the assembly of their genome sequences and can be of great importance to understand the natural
35 variation in regenerative abilities, *i.e.*, their genomes tend to be highly enriched in repetitive
36 DNA [1-11]. Remarkably, not only species with enhanced regenerative abilities possess genomes
37 with large amounts of repetitive DNA, but most species within taxa with remarkably limited
38 regenerative abilities such as birds and nematodes have small compact genomes with reduced
39 fractions of repetitive DNA [12-14]. These opposite trends hint to the possibility that the natural
40 variation in repetitive DNA genomic content and regenerative abilities are somehow interrelated.
41 Although some studies already explored the relationship between genomic properties such as
42 general size, ploidy level, or intron size and the course of regenerative responses [15-19], little
43 attention has been given to the covariation of regenerative abilities and the genomic content in
44 repetitive DNA.

45 The study of the natural variation in regenerative responses is a particularly complex one. As it
46 has been amply discussed, in spite of being simply defined upon a common outcome, *i.e.*, the
47 restoration of missing parts upon injury, regenerative responses are very heterogenous [13, 20-
48 25]. Very briefly, natural species differ in the organization level that they are able to regenerate,

49 *i.e.*, tissue, organ, or whole body, the number of their parts that can regenerate, the temporal
50 dynamics of the process, on whether they require or not the formation of specific structures such
51 as the blastema, on the quantity and types of cells that are required to regenerate the missing part,
52 and on whether intervening cells do proliferate or not [13, 20-25]. Such multilayered
53 heterogeneity makes it very difficult to study the natural variation of regenerative responses by
54 focusing on a particular trait shared by all of them.

55 Although at the cellular level regenerative responses are also considerable heterogeneous, they
56 all seem to rely on the production of newly differentiated cells [22, 23, 26, 27]. Cells needed to
57 restore missing complex structures might result from pre-existing cells exchanging specialized
58 types, *i.e.*, transdifferentiation, or through the proliferation and differentiation of precursor cells
59 that are actively maintained or regained a multipotent undifferentiated state, *i.e.*, stem cells and
60 dedifferentiation respectively [22, 23, 26, 27]. Thus, regenerative responses ultimately rely on
61 intervening cells inherent or regained multipotentiality. If this is truly the case, it could be argued
62 that any factor that helped maintaining cells in multipotent states or mediated their irreversible
63 specialization could respectively enhance or limit natural species regenerative abilities.

64 The progressive characterization of genomes has shown that they encompassed large amounts of
65 elements such as intergenic regions, introns, transposable elements or highly repetitive satellite
66 DNA that were hard to categorize with the functional and/or selective criteria commonly used to
67 define genes [28]. New concepts were coined to collectively refer to all or some of these
68 elements in virtue of them not being transcribed and/or translated, *i.e.*, non-coding DNA, being
69 of a repetitive nature, *i.e.*, repetitive DNA, their inherent abilities to change location within the
70 genome and to propagate at the expense of the coding genome, *i.e.*, transposable elements and

71 selfish DNA respectively, or their apparent uselessness for the well-being of biological systems,
72 *i.e.*, junk DNA [28]. In particular, the utility of the junk DNA (jDNA) concept, the one among
73 these concepts spanning the larger spectrum of elements, has been frequently called into question
74 because of the stark heterogeneity of the elements it encompasses and the difficulty in definitely
75 assessing the lack of function of any genetic element [28]. In spite of the debates on how to
76 define jDNA or even the utility of this concept, it is widely acknowledged that jDNA elements
77 act as evolutionary facilitators by directly participating in the causation of genetic changes, being
78 exapted into new genes or regulatory elements, or tuning the expression gene expression [29-37].
79 In the present piece, I use existing knowledge on jDNA acting role as genome evolution
80 facilitator and its non-random distribution within chromosomes and nuclei to explore two non-
81 excluding avenues that would relate the natural variation in jDNA genomic content, the balance
82 between cell multipotentiality and irreversible specialization, and regenerative abilities.

83 **Junk DNA-driven genetic diversification and cell specialization**

84 In recent years it has been proposed that the jDNA genomic content itself is an important
85 element driving the spatiotemporal and evolutionary dynamics of natural populations [35-37].
86 The heterochromatic jDNA (hjDNA)-based capacitance model spans organization levels to
87 explain how the inherent ability of jDNA to vary within natural populations results in phenotypic
88 heterogeneity, and how the ultimately hjDNA-based phenotypic heterogeneity permits natural
89 populations better enduring variable environments and modulates genetic variation phenotypic
90 exposure [35-37]. Very briefly, the idea that hjDNA genomic content promoting phenotypic
91 heterogeneity in natural populations ultimately relies on four lines of evidence. First,
92 chromosome elements such as centromeres, telomeres or the chromosome Y, originally referred

93 to as heterochromatin because of their susceptibility to be stained with carmin acetic acid [38],
94 tend to be gene-poor highly enriched in jDNA elements such as transposons and satellites [39].
95 Second, the amount of jDNA in large repositories of heterochromatin or hjDNA has been
96 observed to be intrinsically variable resulting in obvious differences between closely-related
97 species, natural populations of a single species, individuals of the same population or laboratory
98 strain, or even between dizygotic human twins [40-60]. Third, the maternal-to-zygotic transition
99 (MZT) refers to the time elapsed between oocyte fertilization and the transcriptional activation of
100 the entire zygotic genome [61-63]. Along MZT there is a pressing need for chromatin-forming
101 elements because of the intensive chromatin remodeling sperm chromosomes undergo just after
102 fertilization and the formation of new chromatin after each zygotic division, both of which occur
103 at the expense of limited mostly maternally-deposited material [61-63]. Fourth, there is an ample
104 phenomenology showing that the variation in hjDNA correlates with the variation in expression
105 of many genes along the genome [56, 64-69]. Based on all this knowledge, the hjDNA-based
106 capacitance model proposes how the inherent variation in hjDNA within natural populations
107 results proximately in a variation in chromatin dynamics early in embryogenesis which is
108 ultimately manifested as a gene expression and phenotypic heterogeneity, even in the absence of
109 genetic variation within the coding portion of the genome [35-37].

110 The hjDNA-based capacitance model also proposes that hjDNA-based phenotypic heterogeneity
111 can drive the spatiotemporal dynamics of natural populations in two ways [35-37]. First, hjDNA-
112 based phenotypic heterogeneity in natural populations might be important for them to thrive in
113 variable environments. Second, evolutionary or genetic capacitance can be defined as the ability
114 of biological systems to promote the random fluctuation of cryptic genetic variation, *i.e.*, genetic
115 variation with no phenotypic relevance [37]. hjDNA-based phenotypic heterogeneity could

116 promote capacitance by shielding from selection those genetic variants that resulted in
117 phenotypes indistinguishable from the phenotypic spectrum ultimately caused by hjDNA
118 inherent variation. Such cryptic genetic variation could be of great adaptive value if it were to
119 become phenotypically relevant following environmental changes and/or because of a reduction
120 in the hjDNA genomic content that subsequently resulted in a narrower spectrum of hjDNA-
121 based phenotypic heterogeneity.

122 Support for the validity of the hjDNA-based capacitance model has been accrued by directly
123 testing expected trends for individuals differing largely in their hjDNA genomic content within
124 and between species. On one hand, because *Y* and *W* chromosomes tend to be highly enriched in
125 hjDNA [65, 70, 71], it has been argued that within a single species heterogametic individuals (*XY*
126 or *ZW*) would show larger hjDNA-based capacitance than homogametic individuals (*XX* or
127 *ZZ*)[35, 37]. Such proposal was directly tested and supported by studying gene expression and
128 phenotypic heterogeneity for isogenic strains of *Drosophila melanogaster*, phenotypic
129 heterogeneity for same-sex dizygotic and monozygotic human twins, and sex-biased dispersal for
130 metazoan species [35, 37]. On the other hand, because the variation in genome size is mostly
131 caused by the variation in the genomic content in jDNA [72, 73], it has been proposed that
132 species with lower amounts of jDNA would show lower hjDNA-based capacitance than species
133 with larger amounts of jDNA [36]. Since lower capacitance would be expected to be manifested
134 by genetic variation being more often phenotypically relevant and therefore detectable by
135 selection, it follows that natural populations of species with lower hjDNA genomic content
136 would be prone to genetically diversify and become reproductively isolated faster than natural
137 populations for species with larger hjDNA genomic content [36]. Such proposal was directly

138 tested and supported by studying speciosity and measures of genetic diversification obtained
139 using interspecific genetic crosses in the Drosophilidae family [36].

140 Could it be possible that the comparatively faster genetic diversification of species with lower
141 hjDNA genomic content was perceivable at different complexity levels, *e.g.*, from faster
142 speciation to more complex specialized cells and tissues (Figure 1A-D)? Were this the case,
143 could ultimately hjDNA-based differences in tissue and cell specialization explained the natural
144 variation in regenerative abilities? Interestingly, Anura and Urodela, *i.e.*, frogs and salamanders,
145 the two largest orders within the Amphibia class probably epitomize the best the potential
146 relationship between the natural variation in jDNA genomic content, the balance between cell
147 multipotentiality and irreversible specialization, and regenerative abilities. First, the systematic
148 study of comparable regenerative responses in adult stages of amphibian species showed that
149 although both anurans and urodeles are able of regenerating amputated limbs during embryonic
150 stages, and plenty of anurans are able of producing an outgrowth following adult limb
151 amputation, only urodeles are able of fully regenerating adult amputated limbs [74, 75]. Second,
152 extant anurans and urodeles dramatically differ in their genome size, being considerably larger in
153 the latter [76-78]. In fact, phylogenomic reconstructions of genome size evolution suggest that
154 Anura and Urodela differing genomic sizes are mostly driven by their jDNA content, and that
155 since their last common ancestor the genomes of anuras and urodeles tended to shrink and bloat
156 respectively [76-78]. Third, as it would be expected if lower hjDNA genomic content strongly
157 favored genetic diversification leading to speciation, within the very diversified amphibians,
158 Anura span almost nine time more species than Urodela [79, 80]. Finally, nervous and immune
159 systems, and gene regulatory networks for mesoderm and mesendoderm specification have been
160 shown to be considerably simpler in urodeles than in anurans [81-84]. Since the immune system

161 plays an important role during regenerative responses, it has been suggested that the natural
162 variation in regenerative responses could be secondary to the variation in the immune system
163 complexity [85]. However, since Anura and Urodela show differences in the complexity of
164 tissues and regulatory networks for lineage specification other than for the immune system, it is
165 possible that Anura and Urodela regenerative abilities were not secondary to the complexity of
166 their immune systems but their differences in both regenerative abilities and immune system
167 complexity were consequence of a more general mechanism that promoted/limited cell
168 specialization.

169 All these trends observed for the two closely related amphibian orders are indeed consistent with
170 the possibility that their remarkable differences in jDNA genomic content drove them to differ in
171 mechanisms that promote/limit cell specialization, which would subsequently enhance/limit their
172 regenerative abilities. However, this might not be the only way jDNA variation influenced cell
173 specialization and regenerative abilities.

174 **Subnuclear localization of jDNA and cell specialization**

175 The comparison of the natural variation in jDNA genomic content, speciosity, number of cell
176 types, and regenerative abilities between animals and plants point to one more factor through
177 which large differences in jDNA genomic content could modulate regenerative abilities. Since
178 most of the elements used to assemble the hjDNA-based capacitance model are shared between
179 animals and plants, it would be expected that plants differing in their jDNA genomic content
180 showed similar patterns to those observed for animals. Indeed, a clear division between genome
181 size and diversification similar to the one observed for Anura and Urodela is noticeable for the
182 two main taxa within the clade Spermatophyta, *i.e.*, seed plants. In this case, and in accordance

183 with what it would be inferable using the hjDNA-based capacitance model [35-37],
184 gymnosperms tend to have considerably larger genomes and be less diversified than angiosperms
185 [86-89]. Although further analyses are required, it is then possible that the hjDNA-based
186 capacitance was a common mechanism driving genetic diversification for all eukaryotes.

187 Contrary to animals though, a high capacity to regenerate is observed widespread in plants,
188 which has been key for the development of multiple strategies to induce their clonal propagation
189 [21, 90-92]. The possibility of regenerating whole new plants out of simple explants was
190 originally suggested to depend on plant cells being totipotent, which has been called into
191 question [21, 90-92]. Regardless of whether all or only particular plant cells are multi- or
192 totipotent, that the number of cell types identified in animals largely surpasses this of plants
193 suggest it is possible that animals and plants differed in mechanisms that promoted cell
194 specialization [93]. Furthermore, the difference between the respective patchy and widespread
195 phylogenetic distribution of regenerative abilities in animals and plants could then relate with the
196 existence in the former of specific mechanisms that promoted cell specialization.

197 The nuclear lamina refers to the filamentous meshwork that covers the inner side of eukaryotic
198 nuclear envelope [94-97]. Originally believed to be a metazoan innovation, it is now
199 acknowledged that some type of nuclear lamina mostly formed by the filamentous protein lamin
200 might have been present in the last eukaryotic common ancestor (LECA) and become extremely
201 dynamic evolutionarily later on [94-97]. The nuclear lamina became completely lost in fungi,
202 had lamin replaced by other filamentous proteins in plants, and became considerably
203 complicated due to the duplication and diversification of the ancestral lamin gene in animals [94-
204 97]. Animal and plant nuclear laminas might not only differ in their composition, but also in the

205 way they contact with the fraction of the genome that occupies the nuclear periphery, *i.e.*,
206 peripherome [98]. Although in both cases it has been observed a peripheral distribution of
207 silenced heterochromatic jDNA-enriched chromosome elements, in animals but not in plants the
208 peripherome is characterized by being also AT-enriched and gene-poor [99-102].

209 Metazoan lamin is known to be important for cell specialization. First, the lamin type
210 composition of the nuclear lamina and lamin posttranslational modifications are known to vary
211 along cell differentiation and between cell types [103]. Second, laminopathies refer collectively
212 to diseases caused by genetic mutations in lamin genes that course with degenerative alterations
213 of one or more tissues formed by very specialized cells, *e.g.*, myocytes, cardiomyocytes,
214 adipocytes, or neurons [103]. Third, it has been observed that the peripherome is enriched in
215 tissue-specific genes, which upon differentiation are removed from the repressive nuclear
216 periphery and become actively transcribed or poised for transcription [104, 105].

217 Since the animal nuclear lamina-peripherome ensemble conflates clear differences with plants,
218 lots of jDNA, and genes related with cell specialization, it would make sense to explore how the
219 natural variation in jDNA genomic content could drive peripheromal changes that subsequently
220 modulated the balance between multipotentiality and irreversible specialization, and regenerative
221 abilities. Possibly the simplest inference that can be made is that the fraction of coding genes
222 within the confines of the repressive nuclear periphery might be respectively higher or lower for
223 species with jDNA-poor compact or jDNA-rich bloated genomes (Figure 1E-F). Such
224 differences in the gene density of the peripherome for species differing in jDNA genomic content
225 could result in more or less genes being inaccessible for regulatory inputs ultimately dependent
226 on regeneration-eliciting injuries, and therefore, a limited or enhanced ability to elicit

227 regenerative responses. Regrettably, the precise characterization of the nuclear peripherome is
228 still in its infancy having not yet reached those species with remarkable regenerative abilities and
229 very recently sequenced genomes, and very little information exists to lend some support to this
230 hypothesis. It is noteworthy that the mostly intergenic lamina-interacting domains (LADs) in
231 human and *D. melanogaster* cells tend to be considerably larger in the former than in the latter,
232 which parallels differences in jDNA-driven genome size between these two species [106, 107].
233 Although such differences would agree with the possibility that the gene density of the
234 peripherome was larger in species with jDNA-poor compact or jDNA-rich bloated genomes, to
235 our despair, neither *D. melanogaster* nor humans are particularly good regenerators [13, 20-25].
236 Another promising but insufficient piece of evidence comes from the recently sequenced genome
237 of the salamander *A. mexicanum* or axolotl, a true regenerative champion [11]. jDNA elements
238 such as introns are considerably smaller in humans than in the axolotl, again in parallel to
239 differences in jDNA-driven genome sizes [11]. Unfortunately, no information exists on the
240 composition of the axolotl peripherome to test whether different peripheromal gene densities for
241 axolotl and human cells correlated with differences in traits related with cell specialization,
242 and/or regenerative abilities.

243 Although at the present moment not enough information exists to test further whether jDNA
244 genomic content variation result in differences in the peripheromal gene density that modulates
245 the balance between cell multipotentiality and irreversible specialization and with it regenerative
246 abilities, or to envision alternative hypothesis for that matter, already existing knowledge on the
247 nuclear lamina-peripherome ensemble suggest this could be a key element to study the causal
248 relationship that might actually exists between the natural variation in jDNA genomic content
249 and regenerative abilities.

250 **Conclusions and future perspectives**

251 Here, I explored two potential non-excluding ways through which the amount of jDNA in the
252 genome of a species might make it more prone or recalcitrant to respond to gross insults by
253 regenerating missing structures (Figure 2). Because of the shared central role of cell
254 potentiality/specialization for regeneration, cancer, development, or aging, it is possible that the
255 thoughts barely sketched in here were of a much broader interest and will be explored further in
256 future occasions. With regard to the study of regeneration, in recent years, an increasing number
257 of voices are calling for a broadening of the exhaustively transited array of research models to
258 gain a definitive corpus of knowledge concerning the natural variation of regenerative responses
259 as a mandatory step to fulfill our long time will to enhance our own limited ability to regenerate
260 [108-110]. Mainly, such voices advise for redoubling our efforts in studying species with
261 already-known or newly appreciated enhanced regenerative abilities, which have been left
262 behind mostly because of their unsuitability for simple genetic analyses [108-110]. The potential
263 relationship between the natural variation in jDNA genomic content and regenerative abilities
264 that motivated this piece, at the very least, suggests that the study of regeneration could also
265 benefit from exploring non-gene-centric scenarios to reach a more complex understanding of the
266 genomic determinants of regenerative development. Fortunately, a number of technical,
267 analytical and conceptual advances are contributing to pave the way to fully comprehend the
268 nature of the relationship between jDNA genomic content and regenerative abilities. In
269 particular, of crucial importance would be, i) the increasing use of long-read sequencing
270 methodologies and the elimination of filters to mask out repetitive DNA from genome
271 annotations to have a fair representation of the historically overlooked jDNA fraction of
272 genomes [111, 112], ii) the realization that genomes are three-dimensional structures with a

273 complex organization and that such organization is highly relevant for gene expression dynamics
274 through development and/or in response to external cues [35, 101, 113, 114], and, iii) the
275 increasing appreciation that the use of high-throughput sequencing approaches for multiple
276 closely related species spanning natural variation of interesting traits is far more valuable than
277 genome sequencing individual model species [115]. In summary, the expansion of comparative
278 genomic non-gene-centric approaches to groups such as amphibians, platyhelminths, or annelids,
279 which show pertinent natural variation in regenerative responses, might be of definitive
280 relevance to explain why some species can regenerate missing parts and others, mostly us,
281 cannot.

282

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284 valuable comments and her constant support.

285

286 **Figure legends**

287 **Figure 1. Models for the covariation of jDNA and cell specialization.** A. The hjDNA-based
288 capacitance model spans multiple levels of biological organization to propose that hjDNA can
289 act as a genetic capacitor by modulating the phenotypic exposure of genetic variants. hjDNA-
290 based capacitance can be better observed between species that differ in their jDNA genomic
291 content. Such differences in jDNA genomic content will subsequently drive differences in
292 capacitance and genetic diversification (See main text for further details). For the sake of
293 continuity, large differences in jDNA genomic content are represented with a gradient of color

294 where red represent jDNA-rich genomes and blue represents jDNA-poor genomes. In principle,
295 ultimately jDNA-based differences in genetic diversification could be perceivable at multiple
296 levels, from jDNA-dependent differences in speciosity (B) to jDNA-dependent differences in
297 tissue complexity (C-D). B. Ideal representation of the phylogenetic relationships between
298 species for closely related genera Rich and Poor. Species for the genus Rich tend to have jDNA-
299 rich genomes, whereas species for the genus Poor tend to have jDNA-poor genomes. Such
300 differences in jDNA genomic content ultimately drive genus Rich to be less specious than genus
301 Poor. C-D. Ideal representation of cell composition for the ideal tissue X in species with jDNA-
302 poor (C) and jDNA-rich (D) genomes. In this case, the inverse relationship between jDNA
303 genomic content and genetic diversification causes that the number of cell types conforming
304 tissue X is larger for species with jDNA-poor than jDNA-rich genomes. E-F. Ideal representation
305 of the gene density for the fraction of the genome that occupies the nuclear periphery, *i.e.*,
306 peripherome, for species with jDNA-rich (E) and jDNA-poor (F) genomes. The differences in
307 jDNA all along chromosomes in general and in centromeres in particular are symbolized using
308 thicker and thinner lines and symbols. Since, intergenic distances for jDNA-rich genomes are
309 considerably larger than for jDNA-poor genomes, it is possible that the number of genes located
310 within the confines of the repressive nuclear periphery was lower for jDNA-rich than for jDNA-
311 poor genomes.

312 **Figure 2. Model for the covariation of jDNA and regeneration abilities.** Ideal representation
313 of cell transitions through development for jDNA-rich (A) and jDNA-poor (B) species. The
314 single totipotent zygote for each species is represented at the top, and the most specialized cells
315 marked with colored symbols are represented closer to the bottom of each panel. According to
316 the hjDNA-based capacitance model, jDNA-poor species would show a more diversified

317 spectrum of specialized cells than jDNA-rich species, which is represented with a larger number
318 of specialized cells in the former than in the latter. Also, here I speculate with the possibility that
319 the nuclear peripherome gene density would be higher for species with jDNA-poor genomes than
320 for species with jDNA-rich genomes. Considering that genes located within the repressive
321 confines of the nuclear periphery tend to be tissue-specific, it is possible to predict how
322 differences in peripheromal gene density might relate with differences in the balance between
323 cell multipotentiality and specialization, and regenerative abilities. A lower number of
324 peripheromal genes for cells with jDNA-rich genomes might make them less specialized, better
325 prepared to respond to external stimuli like gross injury, and, therefore, prone to elicit
326 regenerative responses or regeneration competent, whereas a larger number of peripheromal
327 genes for cells with jDNA-poor genomes might make them more specialized, less able to
328 respond to gross injury, and, therefore, less prone to elicit regenerative responses or regeneration
329 recalcitrant. Differences in cell specialization between species with jDNA-rich and jDNA-poor
330 genomes are symbolized by placing the more differentiated cells (colored symbols) closer to or
331 further from the bottom of each panel. Also, it is possible that the lower level of specialization
332 expected for terminally differentiated cells for species with jDNA-rich genomes permitted
333 specialization transitions or reversions typical for regenerative responses, *i.e.*, transdifferentiation
334 and dedifferentiation respectively. In panel A, transdifferentiations are symbolized using
335 horizontal bidirectional arrows, and dedifferentiations are symbolized using ascending arrows.

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Fig. 1.

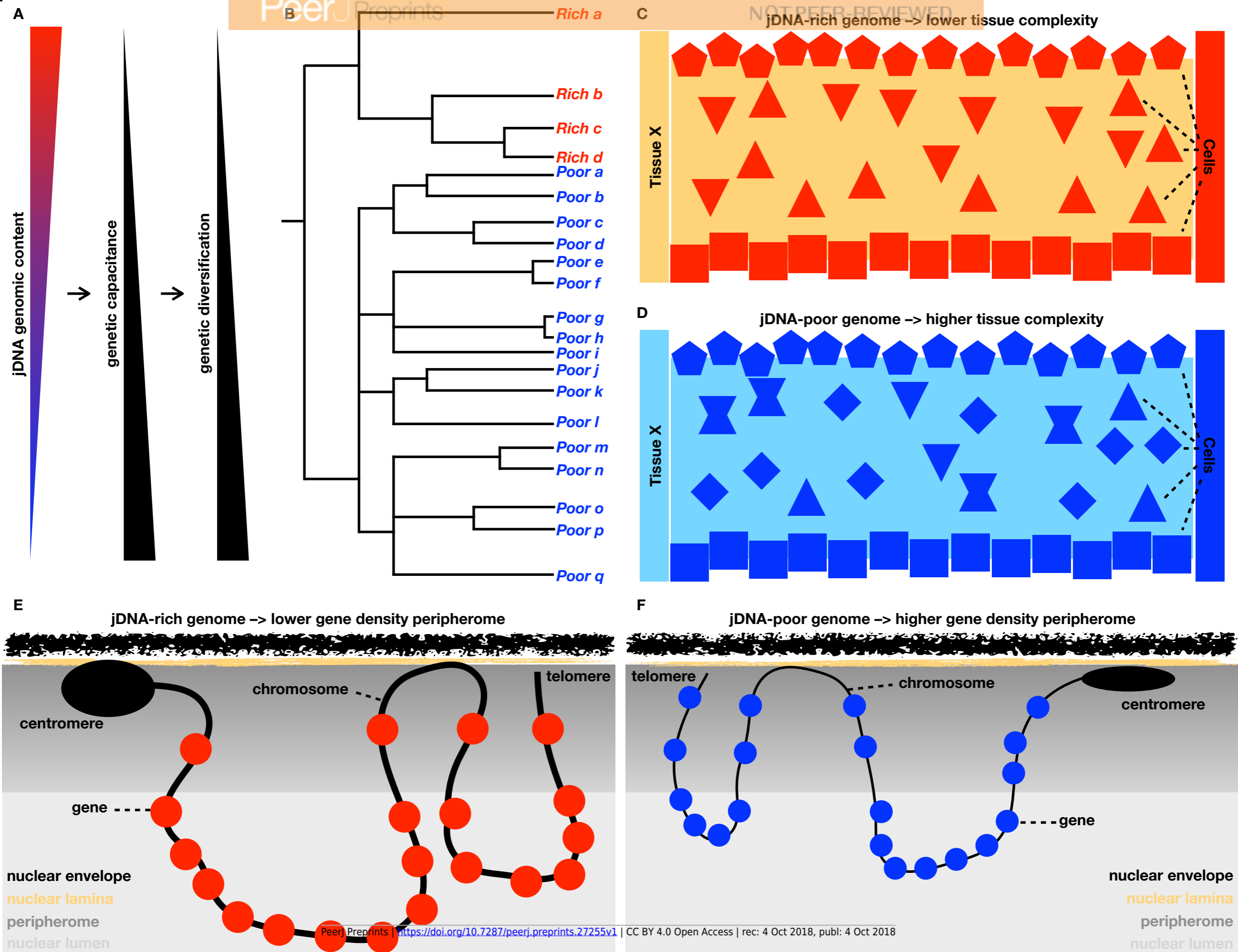


Fig. 2.

