Systems genetics analyses in Diversity Outbred mice inform human bone mineral density GWAS and identify *Qsox1* as a novel determinant of bone strength

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ABSTRACT:

Genome-wide association studies (GWASs) for osteoporotic traits have identified over 1000 associations; however, their impact has been limited by the difficulties of causal gene identification and a strict focus on bone mineral density (BMD). Here, we used Diversity Outbred (DO) mice to directly address these limitations by performing the first systems genetics analysis of 55 complex skeletal phenotypes. We applied a network approach to cortical bone RNA-seq data to discover 72 genes likely to be causal for human BMD GWAS associations, including the novel genes *SERTAD4* and *GLT8D2*. We also performed GWAS in the DO for a wide-range of bone traits and identified *Qsox1* as a novel gene influencing cortical bone accrual and bone strength. Our results provide a new perspective on the genetics of osteoporosis and highlight the ability of the mouse to inform human genetics.

INTRODUCTION:

Osteoporosis is a condition of low bone strength and an increased risk of fracture [1]. It is also one of the most prevalent diseases in the U.S., affecting over 10 million individuals[2]. Over the last decade, efforts to dissect the genetic basis of osteoporosis using genome-wide association studies (GWASs) of bone mineral density (BMD) have been tremendously successful, identifying over 1000 independent associations [3–5]. These data have the potential to revolutionize our understanding of bone biology and discovery of novel therapeutic targets [6,7]; however, progress to date has been limited.

One of the main limitations of human BMD GWAS is the difficulty identifying causal genes. This is largely due to the fact that most associations implicate non-coding variation presumably influencing BMD by altering gene regulation [5]. For other diseases, the use of molecular "-omics" data (*e.g.*, transcriptomic, epigenomic, etc.) in conjunction with systems genetics approaches (*e.g.*, identification of expression quantitative trait loci (eQTL) and network-based approaches) has successfully informed gene discovery [8,9]. However, few "-omics" datasets exist on bone or bone cells in large human cohorts (*e.g*, bone or bone cells were not part of the Gene Tissue Expression (GTEx) project [10]), limiting the use of systems genetics approaches to inform BMD GWAS [11].

A second limitation is that all large-scale GWASs have focused exclusively on BMD [3–5]. BMD is a clinically relevant predictor of osteoporotic fracture; however, it explains only part of the variance in bone strength [12–15]. Imaging modalities and bone biopsies can be used to collect data on other bone traits such as trabecular microarchitecture and bone

formation rates; however, it will be difficult to apply these techniques "at scale"

(N=>100K). Additionally, many aspects of bone, including biomechanical properties,

cannot be measured *in vivo*. These limitations have hampered the dissection of the

genetics of osteoporosis and highlight the need for resources and approaches that

address the challenges faced by human studies.

The Diversity Outbred (DO) is a highly engineered mouse population derived from eight

genetically diverse inbred founders (A/J, C57BL/6J, 129S1/SvImJ, NOD/ShiLtJ,

NZO/HILtJ, CAST/EiJ, PWK/PhJ, and WSB/EiJ) [16]. The DO has been randomly mated

for over 30 generations and, as a result, it enables high-resolution genetic mapping and

relatively efficient identification of causal genes [17,18]. As an outbred stock, the DO also

more closely approximates the highly heterozygous genomes of a human population.

These attributes, coupled with the ability to perform detailed and in-depth

characterization of bone traits and generate molecular data on bone, position the DO as

a platform to assist in addressing the limitations of human studies described above.

Here, we created a resource for the systems genetics of bone strength consisting of

information on 55 bone traits from over 600 DO mice, and RNA-seq data from marrow-

depleted cortical bone in 192 DO mice. We demonstrated the utility of this resource in

two ways. First, we applied a network approach to the bone transcriptomics data in the

DO and identified 72 genes that were bone-associated nodes in Bayesian networks,

and their human homologs were located in BMD GWAS loci and regulated by

colocalizing eQTL in human tissues. Of the 72, 21 were not previously known to

influence bone. The further investigation of two of the 21 novel genes, *SERTAD4* and

GLT8D2, revealed that they were likely causal and influenced BMD via a role in

osteoblasts. Second, we performed GWASs in the DO for 55 complex traits associated

with bone strength; identifying 28 QTL. By integrating QTL and bone eQTL data in the

DO, we identified *Qsox1* as the gene responsible for a QTL on Chromosome (Chr.) 1

influencing cortical bone accrual along the medial-lateral femoral axis and femoral

strength. These data highlight the power of the DO mouse resource to complement and

inform human genetic studies of osteoporosis.

Figure 1. Resource overview. An overview of the resource including data generated and analyses performed.

RESULTS:

Development of a resource for the systems genetics of bone strength:

An overview of the resource is presented in **Figure 1**. We measured 55 complex skeletal phenotypes in a cohort of DO mice (N=619; 314 males, 305 females; breeding generations 23-33) at 12 weeks of age. We also generated RNA-seq data from marrow-depleted femoral diaphyseal bone from a randomly chosen subset of

the 619

phenotyped

mice (N=192;

96/sex). All 619

mice were

genotyped using

the GigaMUGA[19]

array (~110K

SNPs) and

these data were

used to

reconstruct the

genome-wide

haplotype

structures of

each mouse. As

expected, the

genomes of DO

mice consisted

of approximately

12.5% from

each of the eight

Figure 2. Characterization of the experimental cohort. a) Allele frequency per chromosome, across the DO mouse cohort. **b**) Bone volume fraction and max load across the DO cohort. Insets are microCT images representing low and high bone volume fraction. **c**) Heritability of each trait. Phenotypes are colored by phenotypic category.

DO founders (**Figure 2A**).

The collection of phenotypes included measures of bone morphology,

microarchitecture, and biomechanics of the femur, along with tibial histomorphometry

and marrow adiposity (**Supplemental Tables 1 and 2**). Our data included quantification

of femoral strength as well as many clinically relevant predictors of strength and fracture

risk (*e.g.*, trabecular and cortical microarchitecture). Traits in all categories (except tibial

marrow adipose tissue (MAT)) were significantly ($P_{adj}<0.05$) correlated with femoral

strength (**Supplemental Table 3**). Additionally, all traits exhibited substantial variation

across the DO cohort. For example, we observed a 30.8-fold variation (the highest

measurement was 30.8 times greater than the lowest measurement) in trabecular bone

volume fraction (BV/TV) of the distal femur and 5.6-fold variation in femoral strength

(**Figure 2B**). After adjusting for covariates (age, DO generation, sex, and body weight)

all traits had non-zero heritabilities (h^2) (**Figure 2C**). Correlations between traits in the

DO were consistent with expected relationships observed in previous mouse and

human studies (**Supplemental Table 4**) [20–23].

In addition to standard RNA-seq quality control procedures (**Methods**), we also

assessed RNA-seq quality by principal components analysis (PCA) and as expected,

we identified effects of sex (PC3) and batch (**Supplemental Figure 1**), which we then

corrected for prior to downstream analyses. Importantly, our PCA analysis did not

identify any outliers in the bulk RNA-seq data Furthermore, we performed differential

expression analyses between sexes and between individuals with high versus low bone

strength (**Supplemental Tables 5 and 6**). As expected, the most significantly

differentially expressed genes based on sex were located on the X chromosome. We

identified 83 significantly (FDR<0.05) differentially-expressed transcripts in the analysis

of low and high bone strength. Many were genes, such as *Ahsg* [24] and *Arg1* [25], which

have previously been implicated in the regulation of bone traits.

Identification of bone-associated nodes:

We wanted

to address

the challenge

of identifying

causal genes

from BMD

GWAS data,

using the DO

resource

described

above. To do

so, we

employed a

network-

based

approach

Figure 3. Overview of the network approach used to identify genes potentially responsible for BMD GWAS loci. Three WGCNA networks (124 total modules) were constructed from RNA-seq data on cortical bone in the DO (N=192). A Bayesian network was then learned for each module. We performed key driver analysis on each Bayesian network to identify bone-associated nodes (BANs), by identifying nodes (genes) that were more connected to more known bone genes than was expected by chance. We colocalized GTEx human eQTL for each BAN with GWAS BMD SNPs to identify potentially causal genes at BMD GWAS loci.

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similar to one we have used in prior studies [26,27] (**Figure 3**). First, we partitioned genes

into groups based on co-expression by applying weighted gene co-expression network

analysis (WGCNA) to the DO cortical bone RNA-seq data [28]. We generated three

WGCNA networks; sex-combined, male, and female. The three networks contained a

total of 124 modules (**Supplemental Table 7**). A Gene Ontology (GO) analysis revealed

that nearly all modules were enriched for genes involved in specific biological

processes, including modules enriched for processes specific to bone cells (osteoblasts

or osteoclasts) (**Supplemental Table 8**).

We next sought to infer causal interactions between genes in each module, and then

use this information to identify genes likely involved in regulatory processes relevant to

bone and the regulation of BMD. To do so, we generated Bayesian networks for each

co-expression module, allowing us to model directed gene-gene relationships based on

conditional independence. Bayesian networks allowed us to model causal links between

co-expressed (and likely co-regulated) genes.

We hypothesized that key genes involved in bone regulatory processes would play

central roles in bone networks and, thus, be more highly connected in the Bayesian

networks. In order to test this hypothesis, we generated a list of genes implicated in

processes known to impact bone or bone cells ("known bone gene" list (N=1,291;

Supplemental Table 9; see **Methods)**. The GWAS loci referenced in this study were

enriched in human homologs of genes in the "known bone list", relative to the set of

protein-coding genes in the genome (OR=1.35, P=1.45^{-7}). Across the three network

sets (combined, male and female), we found that genes with putative roles in bone

regulatory processes were more highly connected than all other genes (P=2.6 x 10^{-5},

P=5.2 x 10^{-3}, and P=5.5 x 10^{-7} for combined, male, and female network sets,

respectively), indicating the structure of the Bayesian networks was not random with

respect to connectivity.

To discover genes potentially responsible for GWAS associations, we identified bone-

associated nodes (BANs). BANs were defined as genes connected in our Bayesian

networks with more genes in the "known bone gene" list than would be expected by

chance [29–32]. The analysis identified 1,465 genes with evidence ($P_{nominal}$<0.05) of being a

BAN (*i.e.,* sharing network connections with genes known to participate in a bone

"regulatory" process) (**Supplemental Table 10**).

Using BANs to inform human BMD GWAS:

We reasoned that the BAN list was enriched for causal BMD GWAS genes. In fact, of

the 1,465 BANs, 1,251 had human homologs and 738 of those were within 1 Mbp of

one of the 1,161 BMD GWAS lead SNPs identified in [3] and [5]. This represents an

enrichment of BANs within GWAS loci (+/- 1Mbp of GWAS SNP), relative to the number

of protein-coding genes within GWAS loci (OR=1.28, P=1.97 x 10^{-5}).

However, a gene being a BAN is likely not strong evidence, by itself, that a particular

gene is causal for a BMD GWAS association. Therefore, to provide additional evidence

connecting BMD-associated variants to the regulation of BANs, we identified local eQTL

for each BAN homolog in 48 human non-bone samples using the Gene Tissue

Expression (GTEx) project [10,33,34]. Our rationale for using GTEx was that while these

data do not include information on bone tissues or bone cells, a high degree of local

eQTL sharing has been observed between GTEx tissues [10,35]. This suggests that a

colocalizing eQTL in a non-bone tissue may represent either a non-bone autonomous

causal effect or may reflect the actions of a shared eQTL that is active in bone and

shared across non-bone tissues. We then tested each eQTL for colocalization (*i.e.*,

probability the eQTL and GWAS association share a common causal variant) with their

respective BMD GWAS association [3,5]. Of the 738 BANs located in proximity of a BMD

GWAS locus, 72 had colocalizing eQTL (PPH4≥0.75, **Supplemental Table 11,** see

Methods) in at least one GTEx tissue (**Table 1**). Of these, 51 (70.8%) were putative

regulators of bone traits (based on comparing to the known bone gene list (N=40) and a

literature search for genes influencing bone cell function (N=11)), highlighting the ability

of the approach to recover known biology. Based on overlap with the known bone gene

list, this represents a highly significant enrichment of known bone genes in the list of

BANs with colocalizing eQTL relative to the number of known bone genes in the list of

GWAS-proximal BANs (OR=2.53, P=1.65 x 10^{-4}). Our approach identified genes such

as *SP7* (Osterix) [36], *SOST* [37,38], and *LRP5* [39–41], which play central roles in osteoblast-

mediated bone formation. Genes essential to osteoclast activity, such as *TNFSF11*

(RANKL) [42–45], *TNFRSF11A* (RANK) [46,47], and *SLC4A2* [48] were also identified. Twenty-

one (29.2%) genes were not previously implicated in the regulation of bone traits**.**

One of the advantages of the network approach is the ability to identify potentially

causal genes and provide insight into how they may impact BMD based on their module

membership and network connections. For example, the "cyan" module in the female

network (cyan_F) harbored many of the known BANs that influence BMD through a role

in osteoclasts (the GO term "osteoclast differentiation" was highly enriched P=2.8 x 10-

[15] in the cyan_F module) (**Supplemental Table 8**). Three of the twenty-one novel BANs

with colocalizing eQTL (**Table 1**), *ATP6V1A*, *PRKCH* and *AMZ1*, were members of the

cyan module in the female network. Based on their cyan module membership it is likely

they play a role in osteoclasts. *ATP6V1A* is a subunit of the vacuolar ATPase V1

domain [49]. The vacuolar ATPase plays a central role in the ability of osteoclasts to

acidify matrix and resorb bone, though *ATP6V1A* itself (which encodes an individual

subunit) has not been directly connected to the regulation of BMD [49]. *PRKCH* encodes

the eta isoform of protein kinase C and is highly expressed in osteoclasts [50]. *AMZ1* is a

zinc metalloprotease and is relatively highly expressed in osteoclasts, and is highly

expressed in macrophages, which are osteoclast precursors [50].

Table 1. Homologous human BANs with colocalizing eQTL. Genes in bold are known

bone genes.

Gene	WGCNA module	PPH4	# neighbors	# bone neighbors	BAN P-value	Tissue of strongest colocalizing eQTL
ADAM12	Brown_F	0.90	13	5	4.0×10^{-3}	Testis
AMZ1	Cyan_F	0.87	18	4	4.3×10^{-2}	Thyroid
ADGRD1	Yellow_M	0.93	9	4	6.5×10^{-3}	Testis
ARHGAP1	Blue_M	0.99	8	3	3.2×10^{-2}	Muscle_Skeletal
ATP2B2	Pink_F	0.79	10	3	3.5×10^{-2}	Lung

ATP6V1A	Cyan_C	0.87	33	12	1.5×10^{-5}	Nerve_Tibial
B4GALNT3	Brown_F	0.99	7	3	1.9×10^{-2}	Artery_Coronary
BICC1	Brown_C	0.76	16	4	4.8×10^{-2}	Brain_Caudate_basal_ganglia
BMP8A	Yellow_M	0.82	12	5	3.2×10^{-3}	Nerve_Tibial
CAVIN1	Pink_F	0.76	4	2	4.3×10^{-2}	Esophagus_Muscularis
CCR1	Cyan_C	0.99	50	11	4.0×10^{-3}	Whole_Blood
CD109	Brown_C	0.86	22	6	1.1×10^{-2}	Spleen
CKB	Cyan_C	0.96	18	9	8.0×10^{-6}	Artery_Aorta
COPZ2	Brown_C	0.91	11	3	4.4×10^{-2}	Testis
COX4I2	Red_F	0.98	11	3	4.5×10^{-2}	Muscle_Skeletal
DOCK9	Red_F	0.98	9	5	5.5×10^{-4}	Nerve_Tibial
EN2	Blue_C	0.84	31	6	2.5×10^{-2}	Colon_Sigmoid
FAM3C	Brown_C	0.84	30	6	4.6×10^{-2}	Heart_Left_Ventricle
FAT1	Yellow_M	0.97	8	3	3.2×10^{-2}	Heart_Left_Ventricle
FGFRL1	Turquoise_F	0.99	11	4	1.3×10^{-2}	Muscle_Skeletal
FRZB	Brown_F	0.99	7	3	1.9×10^{-2}	Nerve_Tibial
GBA	Cyan_F	0.94	17	5	1.5×10^{-2}	Nerve_Tibial
GHR	Turquoise_F	0.95	11	3	4.5×10^{-2}	Lung
GJA1	Brown_C	0.89	11	4	1.2×10^{-2}	Nerve_Tibial
GLT8D2	Royalblue_M	0.88	21	5	4.1×10^{-2}	Pituitary
GNA12	Darkturquoise_C	0.91	40	7	2.7×10^{-2}	Lung
GREM2	Greenyellow_F	0.99	10	4	8.9×10^{-3}	Artery_Tibial
IBSP	Brown_C	0.99	48	8	2.5×10^{-2}	Muscle_Skeletal
IGDCC4	Brown_C	0.87	52	8	3.8×10^{-2}	Adrenal_Gland
IHH	Red_C	0.89	7	3	1.9×10^{-2}	Esophagus_Gastroesophageal_Junction
ITPKB	Green_M	0.84	11	3	4.9×10^{-2}	Colon_Sigmoid
KDELR3	Brown_C	0.78	17	4	3.4×10^{-2}	Testis

KLC1	Turquoise_C	0.81	26	5	4.1×10^{-2}	Esophagus_Gastroesophageal_Junction
LRP4	Brown_C	0.96	13	4	2.3×10^{-2}	Pancreas
LRP5	Yellow_M	0.92	5	3	7.1×10^{-3}	Pancreas
MDK	Brown_C	0.97	9	3	4.0×10^{-2}	Colon_Sigmoid
MEPE	Red_F	0.8	20	7	1.3×10^{-3}	Lung
MMP14	Brown_C	0.83	27	10	6.3×10^{-5}	Adrenal_Gland
MPRIP	Yellow_M	0.75	15	5	9.6×10^{-3}	Adipose_Subcutaneous
MRC2	Brown_F	0.99	3	2	2.3×10^{-2}	Adipose_Subcutaneous
MYPOP	Turquoise_C	0.78	7	3	1.9×10^{-2}	Esophagus_Muscularis
NAB2	Brown_F	0.77	32	6	3.1×10^{-2}	Skin_Sun_Exposed_Lower_Leg
NEK6	Yellow_M	0.97	4	2	4.6×10^{-2}	Thyroid
NPR2	Turquoise_M	0.86	8	3	3.2×10^{-2}	Liver
PAPSS2	Green_M	0.91	10	3	3.8×10^{-2}	Testis
PGF	Brown_C	0.75	11	3	4.4×10^{-2}	Colon_Sigmoid
PJA2	Turquoise_F	0.96	11	3	4.5×10^{-2}	Thyroid
PKD1	Midnightblue_M	0.88	13	4	2.7×10^{-2}	Nerve_Tibial
PKDCC	Turquoise_C	0.93	15	4	3.9×10^{-2}	Brain_Cerebellum
PLEKHM1	Cyan_C	0.78	18	5	1.8×10^{-2}	Brain_Cerebellum
PLS1	Black_M	0.87	17	4	3.9×10^{-2}	Artery_Aorta
PRKCH	Cyan_C	0.78	33	9	1.9×10^{-3}	Muscle_Skeletal
PSTPIP1	Yellow_C	0.88	41	8	2.6×10^{-2}	Nerve_Tibial
RASD1	Tan_C	0.88	38	8	1.7×10^{-2}	Stomach
SBNO2	Brown_M	0.99	25	5	4.2×10^{-2}	Esophagus_Mucosa
SERTAD4	Royalblue_M	0.77	13	6	6.4×10^{-4}	Adipose_Subcutaneous
SH3RF3	Greenyellow_F	0.99	15	4	4.0×10^{-2}	Cells_Transformed_fibroblasts
SLC4A2	Cyan_F	0.99	19	7	9.2×10^{-4}	Testis

SLC7A7	Green_M	0.86	3	2	2.5×10^{-2}	Prostate
SMAD9	Red_C	0.92	22	7	2.3×10^{-3}	Colon_Transverse
SOCS2	Brown_F	0.96	6	3	1.2×10^{-2}	Cells_Transformed_fibroblasts
SOST	Red_C	0.95	24	8	7.8×10^{-4}	Brain_Frontal_Cortex_BA9
SP7	Brown_C	0.96	13	4	2.3×10^{-2}	Testis
SPP1	Cyan_C	0.99	29	7	1.2×10^{-2}	Nerve_Tibial
THBS3	Darkorange_C	0.98	22	5	4.1×10^{-2}	Colon_Sigmoid
TNFRSF11A	Cyan_F	0.79	14	8	7.9×10^{-6}	Whole_Blood
TNFRSF11B	Red_C	0.93	47	8	2.2×10^{-2}	Heart_Atrial_Appendage
TNFSF11	Lightcyan_F	0.76	9	4	5.8×10^{-3}	Cells_EBV-transformed_lymphocytes
UBE2R2	Red_M	0.93	15	4	4.5×10^{-2}	Cells_Transformed_fibroblasts
ZC2HC1C	Turquoise_C	0.96	19	4	4.9×10^{-2}	Adipose_Subcutaneous
ZFYVE21	Red_M	0.92	16	4	3.2×10^{-2}	Breast_Mammary_Tissue
ZNF609	Turquoise_C	0.78	9	3	3.9×10^{-2}	Whole_Blood

Next, we focused on two of the novel BANs with colocalizing eQTL, *SERTAD4* (GTEx

Adipose Subcutaneous; coloc PPH4=0.77; PPH4/PPH3=7.9) and *GLT8D2* (GTEx

Pituitary; coloc PPH4=0.88; PPH4/PPH3=13.4). Both genes were members of the

royalblue module in the male network (royalblue_M). The function of *SERTAD4* (SERTA

domain-containing protein 4) is unclear, though proteins with SERTA domains have

been linked to cell cycle progression and chromatin remodeling [51]. *GLT8D2*

(glycosyltransferase 8 domain containing 2) is a glycosyltransferase linked to

nonalcoholic fatty liver disease [52]. In the DO, the eigengene of the royalblue_M module

was significantly correlated with several traits, including trabecular number (Tb.N; rho=-

0.26; P=9.5 x 10^{-3}) and separation (Tb.Sp; rho=0.27; P=7.1 x 10^{-3}), among others

(**Supplemental Table 12**). The royalblue_M module was enriched for genes involved in

processes relevant to osteoblasts such as "extracellular matrix" (P=8.4 x 10^{-19}),

"endochondral bone growth" (P=5.7 x 10^{-4}), "ossification" (P=8.9 x 10^{-4}) and "negative

regulation of osteoblast differentiation" (P=0.04) (**Supplemental Table 8**). Additionally,

Sertad4 and *Glt8d2* were connected, in their local (3-step) Bayesian networks, to well-

known regulators of osteoblast/osteocyte biology (such as *Wnt16* [53], *Postn* [54,55], and

Col12a1 [56] for *Sertad4* and *Pappa2* [57], *Pax1* [57,58], and *Tnn* [59] for *Glt8d2*) (**Figure 4A and**

4B). *Sertad4* and *Glt8d2* were strongly expressed in calvarial osteoblasts with

expression increasing (P<2.2 x 10^{-16} and P=6.4 x 10^{-10}, respectively) throughout the

course of differentiation (**Figure 4C**). To further investigate their expression in

osteoblasts, we generated single-cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq) data on mouse bone

marrow-derived stromal cells exposed to osteogenic differentiation media *in vitro* from

our mouse cohort (N=5 mice (4 females, 1 male), 7,188 cells, **Supplemental Table 13**,

Supplemental Figure 2). Clusters of cell-types were grouped into mesenchymal

progenitors, preadipocytes/adipocytes, osteoblasts, osteocytes, and non-osteogenic

cells based on the expression of genes defining each cell-type (**Supplemental Table**

14). *Sertad4* was expressed across multiple cell-types, with its highest expression in a

specific cluster (cluster 9) of mesenchymal progenitor cells and lower levels of

expression in osteocytes (cluster 10) (**Figure 4D, Supplemental Figure 3**). *Glt8d2* was

expressed in a relatively small number of cells in both progenitor and mature osteoblast

populations (**Figure 4D, Supplemental Figure 3**).

Finally, we analyzed data from the International Mouse Phenotyping Consortium (IMPC)

for $Glt8d2$ [60]. After controlling for body weight, there was a significant (P=1.5 x 10^{-3})

increase in BMD in male $Glt8d2^{-/-}$ and no effect (P=0.88) in female $Glt8d2^{-/-}$ mice (sex

interaction P= 6.9 x 10^{-3}) **(Figure 4E)**. These data were consistent with the direction of

effect predicted by the human $GLT8D2$ eQTL and eBMD GWAS locus where the effect

allele of the lead eBMD SNP (rs2722176) was associated with increased $GLT8D2$

expression and decreased BMD. Together, these data suggest that $SERTAD4$ and

$GLT8D2$ are causal for their respective BMD GWAS associations and they likely impact

BMD through a role in modulating osteoblast-centric processes.

Identification of QTLs for strength-related traits in the DO:

Figure 4. Identifying *SERTAD4* and *GLT8D2* as putative regulators of BMD. a) Local 3-step neighborhood around *Sertad4*. Known bone genes highlighted in green. *Sertad4* highlighted in red. **b**) Local 3-step neighborhood around *Glt8d2*. Known bone genes highlighted in green. *Glt8d2* highlighted in red. **c**) Expression of *Sertad4* and *Glt8d2* in calvarial osteoblasts. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean. **d**) Single cell RNA-seq expression data. Each point represents a cell. The top panel shows UMAP clusters and their corresponding cell-type. The bottom two panels show the expression of *Sertad4* and *Glt8d2.* **e**) Bone mineral density in *Glt8d2* knockout mice from the IMPC. The center line is the median, and the whiskers represent 1.5 x IQR.

The other key limitation of human genetic studies of osteoporosis has been the strict

focus on BMD, though many other aspects of bone influence its strength. To directly

address this limitation using the DO, we performed GWAS for 55 complex skeletal traits.

This analysis identified 28 genome-wide significant (permutation-derived P<0.05) QTLs

for 20 traits mapping to 10 different loci (defined as QTL with peaks within a 1.5 Mbp

interval) (**Table 2 and Supplemental Figure 4**). These data are presented interactively

in a web-based tool (http://qtlviewer.uvadcos.io/). Of the 10 loci, four impacted a single

trait (*e.g.,* medial-lateral femoral width (ML) QTL on Chr2@145.4Mbp), while the other

six impacted more than one trait (*e.g.,* cortical bone morphology traits, cortical tissue

mineral density (TMD), and cortical porosity (Ct.Por) QTL on Chr1@155Mbp). The 95%

confidence intervals (CIs) for the 21 autosomal associations ranged from 615 Kbp to 5.4

Mbp with a median of 1.4 Mbp.

Table 2. QTL identified for complex skeletal traits in the DO

Locus	Trait	LOD	Chr.	Position (Mbp)	95% CI (Mbp)	# missense variants	Genes with colocalizing eQTL
1	TMD	23.9	1	155.1	154.8 - 155.6	7	*Ier5*
1	Ma.Ar	12.8	1	155.3	155.1 - 155.7	7	*Ier5, Qsox1*
1	Tt.Ar	11.5	1	155.2	155.1 - 156.2	7	*Ier5, Qsox1*
1	Ct.Por	11.4	1	155.4	155.1 - 156.4	7	*Ier5, Qsox1*
1	ML	10	1	155.4	155.1 - 155.7	7	*Ier5, Qsox1*
1	pMOI	8.8	1	155.1	154.8 - 158.2	7	*Ier5, Qsox1*
1	Ct.Ar/Tt.Ar	8.5	1	155.3	154.3 - 155.7	7	*Ier5, Qsox1*
1	Imax	8.3	1	155.1	155.1 - 158.2	7	*Ier5, Qsox1*
2	ML	7.9	2	145.4	144.1 - 145.6	-	-
3	Ma.Ar	8.8	3	68.1	66.6 - 70	8	*Mfsd1, Il12a, Gm17641, 1110032F04Rik*
4	Ma.Ar	8	4	114.6	113 - 118.4	-	-
4	Tt.Ar	8.2	4	114.6	113.6 - 114.8	-	-
5	Ct.Ar/Tt.Ar	8.1	4	127.7	125.4 - 128.1	-	*Csf3r, Gm12946, Clspn, Ncdn, Gm12941, Zmym6, Gm25600*
6	BMD	7.8	8	103.5	102.7 - 104.4	-	-

7	TMD	14.6	10	23.5	23.1 - 24.6	-	-
7	W	13.6	10	24.3	23.5 - 24.6	-	-
7	Wpy	11.9	10	23.8	23.5 - 25.3	-	-
7	Dfx	10.7	10	23.7	23.3 - 24.6	-	-
7	DFmax	9.4	10	23.7	21.8 - 25.2	-	*C920009B18Rik*
8	Fmax	8.8	16	23.3	22.3 - 23.4	-	-
8	Ffx	8.2	16	23.1	22.6 - 23.4	-	-
9	Ct.Ar	13.5	X	59.4	58.4 - 71.2	-	-
9	Imax	11	X	59.5	58.4 - 69.6	-	-
9	pMOI	10.4	X	59.4	58.4 - 61.4	-	-
9	Imin	8.4	X	59.5	57.3 - 61.2	-	*Zic3*
10	Ct.Th	9.9	X	73.4	58.4 - 74.1	-	-
10	TbSp	8.6	X	73.8	72.7 - 77.5	-	*Pls3*
10	Tb.N	7.9	X	74	72.7 - 76.8	-	*Fundc2, Cmc4, Pls3*

Overlap with human BMD GWAS:

We anticipated the genetic analysis of bone strength traits in DO mice would uncover

novel biology not captured by human BMD GWAS. To evaluate this prediction, we

identified overlaps between the 10 identified mouse loci and human BMD GWAS

associations [3,5]. Of the 10 mouse loci, the human syntenic regions (**Supplemental**

Table 15) for six (60%) contained at least one independent GWAS association

(**Supplemental Figure 5**). We calculated the number expected by chance by randomly

selecting 10 human regions (of the same size) 1000 times, followed by identifying

overlaps. Six overlaps corresponded to the 57th percentile of the null distribution.

Identification of potentially causal genes:

For each locus, we defined the causal gene search space as the widest confidence

interval given all QTL start and end positions ±250 Kbp. We then used a previously

described approach, merge analysis, to fine-map QTL and identify likely causal genes

(Figure 5) [61]. Merge analysis was performed by imputing all known variants from the

genome sequences of the eight founders onto haplotype reconstructions for each DO

mouse, and then performing single variant association tests. We focused on variants in

the top 15% of

each merge

analysis as

those are most

likely to be

causal [61].

We next

identified

missense

variants that

were top

merge analysis

variants

common to all

QTL in a locus.

We identified

seven

missense

variants in

Figure 5. Overview of our approach to QTL fine-mapping. a) Overview of merge analysis. **b**) Overview of merge analysis as performed for the identification of missense variants. **c**) Overview of merge analysis as performed for the identification of colocalizing trait QTL/ gene eQTL within a locus. The pink columns around the QTL in each association plot represent the QTL 95% confidence intervals. The yellow box in panel (**c**) represents the gene search space for a locus, defined as the region within ± 250 Kbp around the outer boundaries of the 95% confidence intervals within a locus.

locus 1, and eight missense variants in locus 3 (**Table 2**). Of the seven missense

variants in locus 1, three (rs243472661, rs253446415, and rs33686629) were predicted

to be deleterious by SIFT. They are all variants in the uncharacterized protein coding

gene *BC034090*. In locus 3, three (rs250291032, rs215406048 and rs30914256) were

predicted to be deleterious by SIFT (**Supplemental Table 16**). These variants were

located in myeloid leukemia factor 1 (*Mlf1*), Iqcj and Schip1 fusion protein (*Iqschfp*), and

Retinoic acid receptor responder 1 (*Rarres1*), respectively.

We next used the cortical bone RNA-seq data to map 10,399 local eQTL in our DO

mouse cohort (**Supplemental Table 17**). Of these, 174 local eQTL regulated genes

located within bone trait QTL. To identify colocalizing eQTL, we identified trait

QTL/eQTL pairs whose top merge analysis variants overlapped. This analysis identified

18 genes with colocalizing eQTL in 6 QTL loci (**Table 2**).

Characterization of a QTL on Chromosome 1 influencing bone morphology:

Locus 1 (Chr1) influenced cortical bone morphology (Ma.Ar, total cross sectional area

(Tt.Ar), medial-lateral femoral width (ML), polar moment of inertia (pMOI), cortical bone

area fraction (Ct.Ar/Tt.Ar), and maximum moment of inertia (I_{max})), tissue mineral

density (TMD), and cortical porosity (Ct.Por) (**Figure 6A**). We focused on this locus due

to its strong effect size and the identification of candidate genes (*Ier5*, *Qsox1,* and

BC034090) (**Table 2**). Additionally, we had previously measured ML in an independent

cohort of DO mice (N=577; 154 males/423 females) from earlier generations

(generations G10 and G11) and a QTL scan of those data uncovered the presence of a

similar QTL on Chr1 [62] (**Supplemental Figure 6, Methods**). The identification of this

locus across two different DO cohorts (which differed in generations, diets, and ages)

provided robust replication justifying further analysis.

Figure 6. QTL (locus 1) on chromosome 1. a) For each plot, the top panel shows allele effects for the DO founders for each of the 8 QTL across an interval on chromosome 1 (Mbp, colors correspond to the founder allele in the legend). Bottom panels show each respective QTL scan. The red horizontal lines represent LOD score thresholds (Genome-wide P<=0.05). **b**) QTL scans across the same interval as panel (A), after conditioning on rs50769082. **c**) QTL scans after conditioning on rs248974780.

The traits mapping to this locus fell into two phenotypic groups, those influencing

different aspects of cross-sectional size (e.g., ML and Tt.Ar) and TMD/cortical porosity.

We suspected that locus 1 QTL underlying these two groups were distinct, and that QTL

for traits within the same phenotypic group were linked. This hypothesis was further

supported the observation that correlations among the size traits were strong and cross-

sectional size traits were not correlated with TMD or porosity **(Supplemental Table 4)**.

Therefore, we next tested if the locus affected all traits or was due to multiple linked

QTL. The non-reference alleles of the top merge analysis variants for each QTL were

private to WSB/EiJ. To test if these variants explained all QTL, we performed the same

association scans for each trait, but included the genotype of the lead ML QTL variant

(rs50769082; 155.46 Mbp; ML was used as a proxy for all the cortical morphology traits)

as an additive covariate. This led to the ablation of all QTL except for TMD which

remained significant (**Figure 6B**). We then repeated the analysis using the lead TMD

QTL variant (rs248974780; 155.06 Mbp) as an additive covariate (**Figure 6C**). This led

to the ablation of all QTLs. These results supported the presence of at least two loci

both driven by WSB/EiJ alleles, one influencing cortical bone morphology and Ct.Por

and the other influencing TMD, as well as possibly influencing cortical bone morphology

and Ct.Por.

Qsox1 **is responsible for the effect of locus 1 on cortical bone morphology:**

Given the importance of bone morphology to strength, we sought to focus on identifying

the gene(s) underlying locus 1 and impacting cortical bone morphology. We re-

evaluated candidate genes in light of the evidence for two distinct QTL. Immediate Early

Response 5 (*Ier5*) and quiescin sulfhydryl oxidase 1 (*Qsox1*) were identified as

candidates based on the DO mouse eQTL analysis and *BC034090* as a candidate

based on missense variants (**Table 2**). Interestingly, *Ier5* and *Qsox1* eQTL colocalized

with all QTL, except the TMD QTL, where only *Ier5* colocalized, providing additional

support for two distinct loci (**Table 2 and Figure 7A**). We cannot exclude the

involvement of the missense variants in *BC034090*; however, without direct evidence that they impacted *BC034090* function, we put more emphasis on the eQTL. As a result, based on its colocalizing eQTL and known biological function (see below), we predicted that *Qsox1* was at least partially responsible for locus 1.

QSOX1 is the only

Figure 7. Characterization of *Qsox1*. a) The top panel shows allele effects for the DO founders for *Ier5* and *Qsox1* expression an interval on chromosome 1 (Mbp, colors correspond to the founder allele in the legend). Y-axis units are best linear unbiased predictors (BLUPs). Bottom panels show each respective QTL scan. LOD score threshold for autosomal eQTL is 10.89 (alpha=0.05). **b**) *Qsox1* expression in calvarial osteoblasts. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean. **c**) Single cell RNA-seq expression data. Each point represents a cell. The top panel shows UMAP clusters and their corresponding cell-type. The bottom panel shows the expression of *Qsox1.*

known secreted catalyst of disulfide bond formation and a regulator of extracellular

matrix integrity [63]. It has not been previously linked to skeletal development. We found

that *Qsox1* was highly expressed in calvarial osteoblasts and its expression decreased

($P=6.4 \times 10^{-6}$) during differentiation (**Figure 7B**). In scRNA-seq on bone marrow-derived

stromal cells exposed to osteogenic differentiation media *in vitro*, we observed *Qsox1*

expression in all osteogenic cells with its highest expression seen in a cluster of

mesenchymal progenitors defined by genes involved in skeletal development such as

Grem2, *Lmna*, and *Prrx2* (cluster 1) (**Supplemental Table 18 and Figure 7C**).

Additionally, in the DO cortical bone RNA-seq data, *Qsox1* was highly co-expressed

with many key regulators of skeletal development and osteoblast activity (*e.g.*, *Runx2*;

rho=0.48, $P=<2.2 \times 10^{-16}$, *Lrp5*; rho=0.41, $P=6.2 \times 10^{-9}$).

To directly test the role of *Qsox1*, we used CRISPR/Cas9 to generate *Qsox1* mutant

mice. We generated

five different mutant

lines harboring

unique mutations,

including two 1-bp

frameshifts, a 171-bp

in-frame deletion of

the QSOX1 catalytic

domain, and two

large deletions (756

bp and 1347 bp)

spanning most of the

entire first exon of

Qsox1 (**Figure 8A,**

Supplemental

Tables 19 and 20).

All five mutations

abolished QSOX1

activity in serum

(**Figure 8B**). Given

Figure 8. *Qsox1* is responsible for several chromosome 1 QTL. a) Representative image of the *Qsox1* knockout mutations. **b**) QSOX1 activity assay in serum. Data is grouped by mouse genotype. Boxplot whiskers represent 1.5 x IQR, and the center line is the median. **c-e**) Caliper-based measurements of femoral morphology in *Qsox1* mutant mice. P-values above plots are ANOVA P-values for the genotype term, while P-values in the plots are contrast P-values, adjusted for multiple comparisons. **f-l**) microCT measurements of chromosome 1 QTL phenotypes in *Qsox1* knockout mice. **m**) Bone strength (max load, F_{max}) in the AP orientation, measured via four-point bending. **n**) Bone strength (max load, F_{max}) in the ML orientation, measured via four-point bending. **o**) Representative microCT images of the effect of *Qsox1* on bone size. All error bars represent confidence intervals at a 95% confidence level.

the uniform lack of QSOX1 activity, we combined phenotypic data from all lines to

evaluate the effect of QSOX1 deficiency on bone. We hypothesized based on the

genetic and DO mouse eQTL data, that QSOX1 deficiency would increase all traits

mapping to locus 1, except TMD. Consistent with this prediction, ML was increased

overall (P=1.8 x10^{-9}), and in male (P=5.6x10^{-7}) and female (P=3.5x10^{-3}) mice as a

function of *Qsox1* mutant genotype (**Figure 8C**). Also consistent with the genetic data,

we observed no difference in other gross morphological traits including anterior-

posterior femoral width (AP) (P=0.31) (**Figure 8D**) and femoral length (FL) (P=0.64)

(**Figure 8E**). We next focused on male *Qsox1*$^{+/+}$ and *Qsox1*$^{-/-}$ mice and used microCT to

measure other bone parameters. We observed increased pMOI (P=0.02) (**Figure 8F**),

Imax (P=0.009) (**Figure 8G**), and Ct.Ar/Tt.Ar (P=0.031) (**Figure 8H**). Total area (Tt.Ar)

(**Figure 8I**) was increased, but the difference was only suggestive (P=0.08). Marrow

area (Ma.Ar, P=0.93) was not different (**Figure 8J**). We observed no change in TMD

(P=0.40) (**Figure 8K**). We also observed no difference in cortical porosity (Ct.Por)

(P=0.24) (**Figure 8L**).

Given the strength of locus 1 on bone morphology and its association with

biomechanical strength, we were surprised the locus did not impact femoral strength.

Typically, in four-point bending assays, the force is applied along the AP axis. We

replicated this in femurs from *Qsox1*$^{+/+}$ and *Qsox1*$^{-/-}$ mice and saw no significant impact

on strength (P=0.20) (**Figure 8M**). However, when we tested femurs by applying the

force along the ML axis, we observed a significant increase in strength in *Qsox1*$^{-/-}$

femurs (P=1.0 x 10^{-3}) (**Figure 8N**). Overall, these data demonstrate that absence of

QSOX1 activity leads to increased cortical bone accrual specifically along the ML axis

(**Figure 8O**).

Discussion:

Human GWASs for BMD have identified over 1000 loci. However, progress in causal

gene discovery has been slow and BMD explains only part of the variance in bone

strength and the risk of fracture [7]. The goal of this study was to demonstrate that

systems genetics in DO mice can help address these limitations. Towards this goal, we

used cortical bone RNA-seq data in the DO and a network-based approach to identify

72 genes likely causal for BMD GWAS loci. Twenty-one of the 72 were novel. We

provide further evidence supporting the causality of two of these genes, *SERTAD4* and

GLT8D2. Furthermore, GWAS in the DO identified 28 QTLs for a wide-range of strength

associated traits. From these data, *Qsox1* was identified as a novel genetic determinant

of cortical bone mass and strength. These data highlight the power of systems genetics

in the DO and demonstrate the utility of mouse genetics to inform human GWAS and

bone biology.

To inform BMD GWAS, we generated Bayesian networks for cortical bone and used

them to identify BANs. Our analysis was similar to "key driver" analyses [29–31] where the

focus has often been on identifying genes with strong evidence ($P_{adj}<0.05$) of playing

central roles in networks. In contrast, we used BAN analysis as a way to rank genes

based on the likelihood ($P_{nominal} \leq 0.05$) that they are involved in a biological process

important to bone (based on network connections to genes known to play a role in bone

biology). We then identified genes most likely to be responsible for BMD GWAS

associations by identifying BANs regulated by human eQTL that colocalize with BMD

GWAS loci. Together, a gene being both a BAN in a GWAS locus and having a

colocalizing eQTL is strong support of causality. This is supported by the observation

that ~71% of the 72 BANs with colocalizing eQTL were putative regulators of bone

traits, based on a literature review and overlap with the "known bone gene" list.

One advantage of our network approach was the ability to not only identify causal

genes, but use network information to predict the cell-type through which these genes

are likely acting. We demonstrate this idea by investigating the two novel BANs with

colocalizing human eQTL from the royalblue_M module. The royalblue_M module was

enriched in genes involved in bone formation and ossification, suggesting the module as

a whole and its individual members were involved in osteoblast-driven processes. This

prediction was supported by the role of genes in osteoblasts that were directly

connected to *Sertad4* and *Glt8d2*, the expression of the two genes in osteoblasts, and

for *Glt8d2*, its regulation of BMD *in vivo*. Little is known regarding the specific biological

processes that are likely impacted by *Sertad4* and *Glt8d2* in osteoblasts; however, it will

be possible to utilize this information in future experiments designed to investigate their

specific molecular functions. For example, *Sertad4* was connected to *Wnt16*, *Ror2*, and

Postn all of which play roles in various aspects of osteoblast/osteocyte function. Wnt

signaling is a major driver of osteoblast-mediated bone formation and skeletal

development [64]. Interestingly, *Wnt16* and *Ror2* play central roles in canonical (*Wnt16*)

and non-canonical (*Ror2* in the *Wnt5a*/*Ror2* pathway) Wnt signaling [65] and have been

shown to physically interact in chondrocytes [66]. *Postn* has also been shown to influence

Wnt signaling [66,67]. These data suggest a possible role for *Sertad4* in Wnt signaling.

Despite their clinical importance, we know little about the genetics of bone traits other

than BMD. Here, we set out to address this knowledge gap. Using the DO, we identified

28 QTL for a wide-range of complex bone traits. The QTL were mapped at high-

resolution, most had 95% CIs < 1 Mbp [18]. This precision, coupled with merge and eQTL

analyses in DO mice, allowed us to identify a small number of candidate genes for

many loci. Overlap of existing human BMD GWAS association and mouse loci was no

more than what would be expected by chance, suggesting that our approach has

highlighted biological processes impacting bone that are independent of those with the

largest effects on BMD. This new knowledge has the potential to lead to novel pathways

which could be targeted therapeutically to increase bone strength. Future studies

extending the work presented here will lead to the identification of additional genes and

further our understanding of genetics of a broad range of complex skeletal traits.

Using multiple approaches, we identified *Qsox1* as responsible for at least part of the

effect of the locus on Chr. 1 impacting bone morphology. We use the term "at least part"

because it is clear that the Chr. 1 locus is complex. Using ML width as a proxy for all the

bone morphology traits mapping to Chr. 1, the replacement of a single WSB/EiJ allele

was associated with an increase in ML of 0.064 mm. Based on this, if *Qsox1* was fully

responsible for the Chr. 1 locus we would expect at least an ML increase of 0.128 mm

in *Qsox1* knockout mice; however, the observed difference was 0.064 mm (50% of the

expected difference). This could be due to differences in the effect of *Qsox1* deletion in

the DO compared to the SJL x B6 background of the *Qsox1* knockout or to additional

QTL in Chr. 1 locus. The latter is supported by our identification of at least two QTL in

the region. Further work will be needed to fully dissect this locus.

Disulfide bonds are critical to the structure and function of numerous proteins [68]. Most

disulfide bonds are formed in the endoplasmic reticulum [69]; however, the discovery of

QSOX1 demonstrated that disulfide bonds in proteins can be formed extracellularly [63].

Ilani et al. [63] demonstrated that fibroblasts deficient in QSOX1 had a decrease in the

number of disulfide bonds in matrix proteins. Moreover, the matrix formed by these cells

was defective in supporting cell-matrix adhesion and lacked incorporation of the alpha-4

isoform of laminin. QSOX1 has also been associated with perturbation of the

extracellular matrix in the context of cancer and tumor invasiveness [70,71]. It is unclear at

this point how QSOX1 influences cortical bone mass; however, it likely involves

modulation of the extracellular matrix.

In summary, we have used a systems genetics analysis in DO mice to inform human

GWAS and identify novel genetic determinants for a wide-range of complex skeletal

traits. Through the use of multiple synergistic approaches, we have expanded our

understanding of the genetics of BMD and osteoporosis. This work has the potential to

serve as a framework for how to use the DO, and other mouse genetic reference

populations, to complement and inform human genetic studies of complex disease.

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from the GTEx Portal on 01/15/18.

614   **Ethics declaration:** The animal protocol for the characterization of Diversity Outbred

615   mice and the generation and characterization of *Qsox1* mutant mice was approved by

616   the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) at the University of Virginia.

METHODS:

Diversity Outbred mouse population and tissue harvesting: A total of 619 (315 males, 304 females) Diversity Outbred (J:DO, JAX stock #0039376) mice, across 11 generations (gens. 23-33) were procured from The Jackson Laboratory at 4 weeks of age. DO mice were fed standard chow (Envigo Teklad LM-485 irradiated mouse/rat sterilizable diet. Product # 7912), and were injected with calcein (30 mg/g body weight) both 7 days and 1 day prior to sacrifice. Mice were weighed and fasted overnight prior to sacrifice. Mice were sacrificed at approximately 12 weeks of age (median: 86 days, range: 76-94 days). Immediately prior to sacrifice, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane, nose-anus length was recorded and blood collected via submandibular bleeding. At sacrifice, femoral morphology (length and width) was measured with digital calipers (Mitoyuto American, Aurora, IL). Right femora were wrapped in PBS soaked gauze and stored in PBS at -20°C. Right tibiae were stored in 70% EtOH at room temperature. Left femora were flushed of bone marrow (which was snap frozen and stored in liquid nitrogen, see below – Single cell RNA-seq of bone marrow stromal cells exposed to osteogenic differentiation media *in vitro*) and were immediately homogenized in Trizol. Homogenates were stored at -80°C. Left tibiae were stored in 10% neutral buffered formalin at 4°C. Tail clips were collected and stored at -80°C.

Measurement of trabecular and cortical microarchitecture: Right femora were scanned using a 10 µm isotropic voxel size on a desktop µCT40 (Scanco Medical AG, Brüttisellen, Switzerland), following the Journal of Bone and Mineral Research guidelines for assessment of bone microstructure in rodents [72]. Trabecular bone

architecture was analyzed in the endocortical region of the distal metaphysis. Variables

computed for trabecular bone regions include: bone volume, BV/TV, trabecular number,

thickness, separation, connectivity density and the structure model index, a measure of

the plate versus rod-like nature of trabecular architecture. For cortical bone at the

femoral midshaft, total cross-sectional area, cortical bone area, medullary area, cortical

thickness, cortical porosity and area moments of inertia about principal axes were

computed.

Biomechanical testing: The right femur from each mouse was loaded to failure in four-

point bending in the anterior to posterior direction, such that the posterior quadrant is

subjected to tensile loads. The widths of the lower and upper supports of the four-point

bending apparatus are 7 mm and 3 mm, respectively. Tests were conducted with a

deflection rate of 0.05 mm/s using a servohydraulic materials test system (Instron Corp.,

Norwood, MA). The load and mid-span deflection were acquired directly at a sampling

frequency of 200 Hz. Load-deflection curves were analyzed for strength (maximum

load), stiffness (the slope of the initial portion of the curve), post-yield deflection, and

total work. Post-yield deflection, which is a measure of ductility, is defined as the

deflection at failure minus the deflection at yield. Yield is defined as a 10% reduction of

stiffness relative to the initial (tangent) stiffness. Work, which is a measure of

toughness, is defined as the area under the load-deflection curve. Femora were tested

at room temperature and kept moist with phosphate buffered saline during all tests.

Assessment of bone marrow adipose tissue (MAT): Fixed right tibiae, dissected free

of soft tissues, were decalcified in EDTA for 20 days, changing the EDTA every 3-4

days and stained for lipid using a 1:1 mixture of 2% aqueous osmium tetroxide (OsO_4)

and 5% potassium dichromate. Decalcified bones were imaged using µCT performed in

water with energy of 55 kVp, an integration time of 500 ms, and a maximum isometric

voxel size of 10 µm (the "high" resolution setting with a 20mm sample holder) using a

µCT35 (Scanco). To determine the position of the MAT within the medullary canal and

to determine its change in volume, the bone was overlaid. MAT was recorded in 4

dimensions.

Histomorphometry: Fixed right tibiae were sequentially dehydrated and infiltrated in

graded steps with methyl methacrylate. Blocks were faced and 5 µm non-decalcified

sections cut and stained with toludine blue to observe gross histology. This staining

allows for the observation of osteoblast and osteoclast numbers, amount of

unmineralized osteoid and the presence of mineralized bone. Histomorphometric

parameters were analyzed on a computerized tablet using Osteomeasure software

(Osteometrics, Atlanta, GA). Histomorphometric measurements were made on a fixed

region just below the growth plate corresponding to the primary spongiosa.

Bulk RNA isolation, sequencing and quantification: We isolated RNA from a

randomly chosen subset (n=192, 96/sex) of the available mice at the time (mice number

1-417), constrained to have an equal number of male and female mice. Total RNA was

isolated from marrow-depleted homogenates of the left femora, using the mirVana™

miRNA Isolation Kit (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA). Total RNA-Seq libraries were

constructed using Illumina TruSeq Stranded Total RNA HT sample prep kits. Samples

were sequenced to an average of 39 million 2 x 75 bp paired-end reads (total RNA-seq)

on an Illumina NextSeq500 sequencer in the University of Virginia Center for Public

Health Genomics Genome Sciences Laboratory (GSL). A custom bioinformatics

pipeline was used to quantify RNA-seq data. Briefly, RNA-seq FASTQ files were quality

controlled using FASTQC [73], aligned to the mm10 genome assembly with HISAT2 [74],

and quantified with Stringtie [75]. Read count information was then extracted with a

Python script provided by the Stringtie website (prepDE.py). Finally, we filtered our gene

set to include genes that had more than 6 reads, and more than 0.1 transcripts per

million (TPM), in more than 38 samples (20% of all samples). This filtration resulted in

23,648 "genes" remaining from an initial set of 53,801 "genes". (Note that most of these

"genes" were defined by StringTie internally as "genes", but indicate loci – contiguous

regions on the genome where the exons of transcripts overlap). Sequencing data is

available on GEO (GSE152708).

Bulk RNA differential expression analyses:

RNA-seq data were subjected to a variance stabilizing transformation using the DESeq2

R package[76], and the 500 most variable genes were used to calculate the principal

components using the "PCA" function from the FactoMineR R package[77]. For

visualization, age was binarized into "high" and "low", with "low" defined as age equal to,

or less than, the median age at sacrifice (85 days) and "high" defined as age higher

than 85 days. Differential expression was then performed using DESeq2, for both sex

and bone strength (max load). For differential expression based on sex, we used a

design formula of ~batch+age+sex. For bone strength, we binarized bone strength into

"high" and "low" for each sex independently, using the median bone strength value for

each sex (35.66 and 37.42 for males and females, respectively). Differential expression

was performed using the following design formula: ~sex+batch+age+bone strength.

Log2 fold changes for both differential expression analyses were then shrunken using

the lfcShrink() function in DESeq2, using the adaptive t prior shrinkage estimator from

the "apeglm" R package[78].

Mouse genotyping: DNA was collected from mouse tails from all 619 DO mice, using

the PureLink Genomic DNA mini kit (Invitrogen). DNA was used for genotyping with the

GigaMUGA array [19] by Neogen Genomics (GeneSeek; Lincoln, NE). Genotyping reports

were pre-processed for use with the qtl2 R package [79 80] , and genotypes were encoded

using directions and scripts from (kbroman.org/qtl2/pages/prep_do_data.html). Quality

control was performed using the Argyle R package [81], where samples were filtered to

contain no more than 5% no calls and 50% heterozygous calls. Samples that failed QC

were re-genotyped. Furthermore, genotyping markers were filtered to contain only tier 1

and tier 2 markers. Markers that did not uniquely map to the genome were also

removed. Finally, a qualitative threshold for the maximum number of no calls and a

minimum number of homozygous calls was used to filter markers.

We calculated genotype and allele probabilities, as well as kinship matrices using the

qtl2 R package. Genotype probabilities were calculated using a hidden Markov model

with an assumed genotyping error probability of 0.002, using the Carter-Falconer map

function. Genotype probabilities were then reduced to allele probabilities, and allele

probabilities were used to calculate kinship matrices, using the "leave one chromosome

out" (LOCO) parameter. Kinship matrices were also calculated using the "overall"

parameter for heritability calculations.

Further quality control was then performed [82], which led to the removal of several

hundred more markers that had greater than 5% genotyping errors, after which

genotype and allele probabilities and kinship matrices were recalculated. After the

aforementioned successive marker filtration, 109,427 markers remained, out of 143,259

initial genotyping markers. As another metric for quality control, we calculated the

frequencies of the eight founder genotypes of the DO.

WGCNA network construction: Gene counts, as obtained above were pruned to

remove genes that had fewer than 10 reads in more than 90% of samples. Genes not

located on the autosomes or X chromosome were also removed. This led to the

retention of 23,335 out of 23,648 genes. Variance-stabilizing transformation (DeSeq2 [76])

was applied, followed by RNA-seq batch correction using sex and age at sacrifice in

days as covariates (sex was not included as a covariate in the sex-specific networks),

using ComBat ("sva" R package [83]). We then used the "WGCNA" R package to generate

signed co-expression networks with a soft thresholding power of 4 (power=5 for male

networks) [84,85]. We used the "blockwiseModules" function to construct networks with a

merge cut height of 0.15 and minimum module size of 30. WGCNA networks had 39, 45

and 40 modules for the sex-combined, female and male networks, respectively.

Bayesian network learning: Bayesian networks for each WGCNA module were

learned with the "bnlearn" R package [86]. Specifically, expression data for genes within a

WGCNA module were obtained as above (WGCNA network construction), and these

data were used to learn the structure of the underlying Bayesian network using the Max-

Min Hill Climbing algorithm (function "mmhc" in bnlearn).

Construction of the "known bone gene" list: We constructed a list of bone genes

using Gene Ontology (GO) terms and the Mouse Genome Informatics (MGI) database [87]

[88]. Using AmiGO2, we downloaded GO terms for "osteo*", "bone" and "ossif*", using all

three GO domains (cellular component, biological process and molecular function),

without consideration of GO evidence codes [89]. The resulting GO terms were pruned to

remove some terms that were not related to bone function or regulation. We then used

the MGI Human and Mouse Homology data table to convert human genes to their

mouse homologs. We also downloaded human and mouse genes which had the terms

"osteoporosis", "bone mineral density", "osteoblast", "osteoclast", and "osteocyte", from

MGI's Human – Mouse: Disease Connection (HMDC) database. Human genes were

converted to their mouse counterparts as above. GO and MGI derived genes were

merged and duplicates were removed. Finally, we removed genes that were not

expressed in our dataset. That is to say, they were not considered in generating the

WGCNA modules or Bayesian networks.

Bone Associated Node (BAN) analysis: We used a custom script that utilized the

"igraph" R package to perform BAN analysis [90]. Briefly, within a Bayesian network

underlying a WGCNA module, we counted the number of neighbors for each gene,

based on a neighborhood step size of 3. Neighborhood sizes also included the gene

itself. BANs were defined as genes that were more highly connected to bone genes

than would be expected by chance. We merged all genes from all Bayesian networks

together in a matrix, and removed genes that were unconnected or only connected to 1

neighbor (neighborhood size <=2). We then pruned all genes whose neighborhood size

was greater than 1 standard deviation less than the mean neighborhood size across all

modules. These pruning steps resulted in 15,546/17,264, 13,328/16,446 and

13,541/17,402 genes remaining for the full, male and female Bayesian networks,

respectively.

Then, for each gene, we calculated if they were more connected to bone genes in our

bone list (see construction of bone list above) than expected by chance using the

hypergeometric distribution (phyper, R "stats" package). The arguments were as

follows: q: (number of genes in neighborhood that are also bone genes) – 1; m: total

number of bone genes in our bone gene set; n: (number of genes in networks prior to

pruning) – m; k: neighborhood size of the respective gene; lower.tail = false. False

discovery rates were calculated using p.adjust().

GWAS-eQTL colocalization: We converted mouse genes with evidence of being a

BAN (P<=0.05) to their human homologs using the MGI homolog data table. If the

human homolog was within 1Mbp of a GWAS association, we obtained all eQTL

associations within +/- 200 kb of the GWAS association in all 48 tissues of version 7 of

the Gene-Tissue Expression Project (GTEx). These eQTL variants were colocalized

with the GWAS variants, using the R "coloc" package, using the coloc.abf() function [91].

This returned posterior probabilities (PP) for five hypotheses:

-    H0: No association with either trait.

-   H1: Association with trait 1, not with trait 2.

-   H2: Association with trait 2, not with trait 1.

-   H3: Association with traits 1 and 2, two independent SNPs.

-   H4: Association with traits 1 and 2, one shared SNP.

Genes were considered colocalizing if PPH4 >= 0.75.

Gene ontology: Gene ontology analysis for WGCNA modules was performed for each

individual module using the "topGO" package in R [92]. Enrichment tests were performed

for the "Molecular Function", "Biological Process" and "Cellular Component" ontologies,

using all genes in the network. Enrichment was performed using the "classic" algorithm

with Fisher's exact test. P-values were not corrected for multiple testing.

Assessing the expression of *Glt8d2* and *Sertad4* in publicly available bone cell

data: We used bioGPS expression data from GEO (GSE10246) to assay the

expression of *Sertad4*, *Glt8d2,* and *Qsox1* in osteoblasts and osteoclasts[50]. We also

downloaded the data from GEO (GSE54461) to query expression in primary calvarial

osteoblasts.

Analysis of BMD data on *Glt8d2$^{-/-}$* mice from the IMPC: The International Mouse

Knockout Consortium [60] and the IMPC[93] have generated and phenotyped mice

harboring null alleles for *Glt8d2* (*Glt8d2$^{tm1a(KOMP)Wtsi}$,Glt8d2$^{-/-}$*) (N=7 females and N=7

males). Phenotypes for the appropriate controls (C57BL/6) were also collected

(N=1,466 females and N=1,477 males). A description of the battery of phenotypes

collected on mutants can be found at

(https://www.mousephenotype.org/impress/PipelineInfo?id=4). The mice were 14

weeks of age at DEXA scanning and both sexes were included. We downloaded raw

BMD, body weight and metadata for *Glt8d2* mutants from the IMPC webportal

(http://www.mousephenotype.org). These data were analyzed using the PhenStat R

package [94]. PhenStat was developed to analyze data generated by the IMPC in which a

large number of wild-type controls are phenotyped across a wide-time range in batches

and experimental mutant animals are tested in small groups interspersed among wild-

type batches. We used the Mixed Model framework in PhenStat to analyze BMD data.

The mixed model framework starts with a full model (with fixed effects of genotype, sex,

genotype x sex and weight and batch as a random effect) and ends with final reduced

model and genotype effect evaluation procedures [94,95].

QTL mapping: Phenotypes that notably deviated from normality were $\log_{10}$-transformed

(the MAT phenotypes as well as PYD and W_{py} were transformed after a constant of 1

was added). Then, QTL mapping with a single-QTL model was performed via a linear

mixed model using the "scan1" function of the "qtl2" R package. A kinship matrix as

calculated by the "leave one chromosome out" method was included. Mapping

covariates were sex, age at sacrifice in days, bodyweight, and DO mouse generation.

Peaks were then identified with a minimum LOD score of 4 and a peak drop of 1.5

LODs. To identify significant QTL peaks, we permuted each phenotype scan 1000 times

(using the "scan1perm" function of the "qtl2" package) with the same mapping

covariates as above, and calculated the significance threshold for each phenotype at a

5% significance level. Heritability for the phenotypes was calculated using the

"est_herit" function of the "qtl2" R package, using the same covariates as above, but

with a kinship matrix that was calculated using the "overall" argument.

DO eQTL mapping: Variance stabilizing transformation was applied to gene read

counts from above using the "DESeq2" R package, followed by quantile-based inverse

Normal transformation[96]. Then, hidden determinants of gene expression were calculated

from these transformed counts, using Probabilistic Estimation of Expression Residuals

(PEER)[97]. 48 PEER factors were calculated using no intercept or covariates. Sex and

the 48 PEER covariates were used as mapping covariates, and eQTL mapping was

performed using the "scan1" function, as above. To calculate a LOD score threshold, we

randomly chose 50 genes and permuted them 1000 times, as above. Since all genes

were transformed to conform to the same distribution, we found that using 50 was

sufficient. Thresholds were set as the highest permuted LOD score each for autosomal

chromosomes and the X-chromosome (10.89 and 11.55 LODs, respectively). Finally,

we identified peaks as above, and defined eQTL as peaks that exceeded the LOD

threshold and were no more than 1Mbp away from their respective transcript's start site,

as defined by the Stringtie output.

Merge analysis: We performed merge analysis, a previously published approach,

using the SNP-association methods in the "qtl2" R package [61,80]. For each DO mouse

QTL or eQTL peak, we imputed all variants within the 95% confidence interval of a

peak, and tested each variant for association with the respective trait. This was

performed using the "scan1snps" function of the "qtl2" R package, with the same

mapping covariates for QTL or eQTL, respectively. Then, we identified "top" variants by

taking variants that were within 85% of the maximum SNP association's LOD score. For

conditional analyses using a variant, we performed the same QTL scan as above, but

included the genotype of the respective SNP as an additive mapping covariate,

encoding it as a 0, 0.5 or 1, for homozygous alternative, heterozygous or homozygous

reference, respectively.

BMD-GWAS overlap: To identify BMD GWAS loci that overlapped with our DO mouse

associations, we defined a mouse association locus as the widest confidence interval

given all QTL start and end CI positions mapping to each locus. We then used the

UCSC liftOver tool [98] (minimum ratio of bases that must remap = 0.1, minimum hit size

in query = 100000) to convert the loci from mm10 to their syntenic hg19 positions. We

then took all genome-wide significant SNPs (P <=5 x 10^{-8}) from the Morris *et al.* GWAS

for eBMD and the Estrada *et al.* GWAS for FNBMD and LSBMD, and identified variants

that overlapped with the syntenic mouse loci ("GenomicRanges" R package [99]).

SIFT annotations: SIFT annotations for merge analysis missense variants were

queried using Ensembl's Variant Effect Predictor tool

(https://useast.ensembl.org/Tools/VEP) [100]. All options were left as default.

Prior ML QTL mapping: The cohorts used for the earlier QTL mapping of ML consisted

of 577 Diversity Outbred mice from breeding generations G10 and G11 [62]. G10 cohort

mice consisted of both males and females fed a defined synthetic diet (D10001,

Research Diets, New Brunswick, NJ), and were euthanized and analyzed at 12–15

weeks of age. G11 cohort mice were all females fed a defined synthetic diet (D10001,

Research Diets, New Brunswick, NJ) until 6 weeks of age, and were then subsequently

fed either a high-fat, cholesterol-containing (HFC) diet (20% fat, 1.25% cholesterol, and

0.5% cholic acid) or a low-fat, high protein diet (5% fat and 20.3% protein) (D12109C

and D12083101, respectively, Research Diets, New Brunswick, NJ), and were

euthanized and analyzed at 24–25 weeks of age. Mice were weighed and then

euthanized by CO_2 asphyxiation followed by cervical dislocation. Carcasses were frozen

at -80°C. Subsequently, the femur was dissected and length, AP width, and ML width

was measured two independent times to 0.01 mm using digital calipers. Mice were

genotyped using the MegaMUGA SNP array (GeneSeek; Lincoln, NE) designed with

77,800 SNP markers, and QTL mapping was performed as above, but with the inclusion

of sex, diet, age and weight at sacrifice as additive covariates.

Generation of *Qsox1* mutant mice: *Qsox1* knockout mice used in this study were

generated using the CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing technique essentially as reported in

[101]. *Qsox1* knockout mice used in this study were generated using the CRISPR/Cas9

genome editing technique essentially as reported in [101]. Briefly, Cas9 enzyme that was

injected into B6SJLF2 embryos (described below) was purchased from (PNA Bio) while

the guide RNA (sgRNA) was designed and synthesized as follows: the 20 nucleotide

(nt) sequence that would be used to generate the sgRNA was chosen using the

CRISPR design tool developed by the Zhang lab (crispr.mit.edu). The chosen sequence

and its genome map position is homologous to a region in Exon 1 that is ~225 bp, 3' of

the translation start site and ~20bp 5' of the Exon1/Intron1 boundary (**Supplemental**

Table 21). To generate the sgRNA that would be used for injections oligonucleotides of

the chosen sequence, as well as the reverse complement (**Supplemental Table 21**),

primers 1 and 2, respectively), were synthesized such that an additional 4 nts (CACC

and AAAC) were added at the 5' ends of the oligonucleotides for cloning purposes.

These oligonucleotides were annealed to each other by combining equal molar

amounts, heating to 90°C for 5 min. and allowing the mixture to passively cool to room

temperature. The annealed oligonucleotides were combined with BbsI digested pX330

plasmid vector (provided by the Zhang lab through Addgene; https://www.addgene.org/)

and T4 DNA ligase (NEB) and subsequently used to transform Stbl3 competent bacteria

(Thermo Fisher) following the manufacturer's' protocols. Plasmid DNAs from selected

clones were sequenced from primer 3 (**Supplemental Table 21**) and DNA that

demonstrated accurate sequence and position of the guide were used for all

downstream applications. The DNA template used in the synthesis of the sgRNA was

the product of a PCR using the verified plasmid DNA and primers 4 and 5

(**Supplemental Table 21**). The sgRNA was synthesized via *in vitro* transcription (IVT)

by way of the MAXIscript T7 kit (Thermo Fisher) following the manufacturer's protocol.

sgRNAs were purified and concentrated using the RNeasy Plus Micro kit (Qiagen)

following the manufacturer's protocol.

B6SJLF1 female mice (Jackson Laboratory) were super-ovulated and mated with

B6SJLF1 males. The females were sacrificed and the fertilized eggs (B6SJLF2

embryos) were isolated from the oviducts. The fertilized eggs were co-injected with the

purified Cas9 enzyme (50 ng/µl) and sgRNA (30 ng/µl) under a Leica inverted

microscope equipped with Leitz micromanipulators (Leica Microsystems). Injected eggs

were incubated overnight in KSOM-AA medium (Millipore Sigma). Two-cell stage

embryos were implanted on the following day into the oviducts of pseudo pregnant ICR

female mice (Envigo). Pups were initially screened by PCR of tail DNA using primers 6

and 7 with subsequent sequencing of the resultant product from primer 8, when the

PCR products suggested a relatively large deletion had occurred in at least one of the

alleles (**Supplemental Table 17**). For those samples which indicated a small or no

deletion had occurred PCR of tail DNA using primers 9 and 10 was performed with

subsequent sequencing of the resultant products from primer 11 (**Supplemental Table**

21). Finally, deletions were fully characterized by ligating, with T4 DNA ligase (NEB),

the PCR products from either primer pairs 6/7 or 9/10 with the plasmid vector pCR 2.1

(Thermo Fisher) followed by transformation of One Shot Top 10 chemically competent

cells (Thermo Fisher) following the manufacturers recommendations (**Supplemental**

Tables 19 and 20).

The resulting founder mice (see **Supplemental Table 19**) were mated to C57BL/6J

mice (Jackson Laboratory), with CRISPR/Cas9-deletion heterozygous F1 offspring from

the 1st and 2nd litters mated to generate the F2 offspring used in the study of bone

related properties reported herein. In addition, mouse B (**Supplemental Table 19**) was

subsequently mated to an SJL/J male (Jackson Laboratory), and the F2 offspring from

the heterozygous F1 crosses, as outlined above, were also used in this study. All F1

and F2 mice from all deletion 'strains' were genotyped using primer pairs 9/10, with the

PCR products sequenced from primer 11 for mice possessing the 7+6 and 1bp

deletions (**Supplemental Table 21**). An additional PCR using primers 6 and 7 was

performed with tail DNA from mice carrying the 1347 bp and 756 bp deletions; the

products from this 2nd PCR assisted in determining between heterozygous and

homozygous deleted genotypes (**Supplemental Table 21**).

ML was measured for both femurs using calipers on a population of 12-week old F2

mice and ML was averaged between the two femurs. A linear model with genotype,

mutation type, length, and weight was generated separately for males and females. For

the sex-combined data, a sex term was also included in the model. ANOVAs were

performed using the Anova() function from the "car" R package [102]. Lsmeans were

calculated using the "emmeans" R package [103]. The same procedure was performed for

the AP and FL sex-combined data.

We randomly selected 50 male F2 mice (25 wt + 25 mut) from the same population, and

microarchitectural phenotypes were measured as above, but on left femurs. Bone

strength was measured as above but in both the AP and ML orientations. A linear model

with genotype, mutation type and weight was generated, and lsmeans were calculated

using the "emmeans" R package [103].

Measuring Qsox1 activity in serum: Serum was collected via submandibular bleeding

from isoflurane anesthetized mice, prior to sacrifice and isolation of femurs for bone trait

analysis. Blood samples were incubated at room temperature for 20-30 m followed by

centrifugation at 2000 x g for 10 m at 4°C. The supernatants were transferred to fresh

tubes and centrifuged again as described above. The 2nd supernatant of each sample

was separated into 50-100 µl aliquots, snap frozen on dry ice and stored at -70°C. Only

'clear' serum samples were used for determining QSOX1 activity, because pink-red

colored samples had slight-moderate activity, presumably due to sulfhydryl oxidase

enzymes released from lysed red blood cells.

Sulfhydryl oxidase activity was determined as outlined in Israel *et al.*, 2014 [104] with minor

modifications. Briefly, serum samples were thawed on wet ice whereupon 5 µl was

used in a 200 µl final reaction volume which consisted of 50 mM KPO_4, pH7.5, 1mM

EDTA (both from Sigma), 10 µM Amplex UltraRed (Thermo Fisher), 0.5% (v/v) Tween

80 (Surfact-Amps, low peroxide; Thermo Fisher), 50 nM Horseradish Peroxide (Sigma),

and initiated with the addition of dithiothreitol (Sigma) to 50 µM initial concentration.

The reactions were monitored with the 'high-sensitive dsDNA channel' of a Qubit

Fluorimeter (Thermo Fisher) by measuring the fluorescence every 15-30s for 10m. The

assay was calibrated by adding varying concentrations (0-3.2 µM) of freshly diluted

H_2O_2 (Sigma) to the reaction mixture minus serum. Enzyme activity was expressed in

units of (pmol H_2O_2/min/µl serum) and typically calculated within the first several

minutes of the reaction for wild-type and heterozygous mutant mice. It was calculated

using the entire 10m of the reaction for homozygous mutant genotypes.

Single cell RNA-seq of bone marrow stromal cells exposed to osteogenic

differentiation media *in vitro*:

Bone marrow isolation: The left femur was isolated and cleaned thoroughly of all muscle

tissue followed by removal of its distal epiphysis. The marrow was exuded by

centrifugation at 2000 x g for 30 seconds into a sterile tube containing 35 µl freezing

media (90% FBS, 10% DMSO). The marrow was then triturated 6 times on ice after

addition of 150 µl ice cold freezing media and again after further addition of 1ml ice cold

freezing media until no visible clumps remained prior to being placed into a Mr. Frosty

Freezing Container (Thermo Scientific) and stored overnight at -80° C. Samples were

transferred the following day to liquid nitrogen for long term storage.

1004

Bone marrow culturing: Previously frozen bone marrow samples from 5 DO mice

(mouse IDs: 12, 45, 48, 50, and 84) were thawed at 37° C, resuspended into 5 ml bone

marrow growth media (Alpha MEM, 10% FBS, 1% Pen/Strep, 0.01% Glutamax),

pelleted in a Sorvall tabletop centrifuge at 1000 rpm for 5 minutes at room temperature

and then subjected to red blood cell lysis by resuspending and triturating the resultant

pellet into 5 ml 0.2% NaCl for 20 seconds, followed by addition and thorough mixing of

1.6% NaCl. Cells were pelleted again, resuspended into 1 ml bone marrow growth

media, plated into one well per sample of a 48 well tissue culture plate and placed into a

37° C, 5% CO_2 incubator undisturbed for 3 days post-plating, at which time the media

was aspirated, cells were washed with 1 ml DPBS once and bone marrow growth media

was replaced at 300 µl volume. The process was repeated through day 5 post-plating.

At day 6 post-plating, cells were washed in same manner; however, we performed a

standard *in vitro* osteoblast differentiation protocol, by replacing bone marrow growth

media with 300 µl osteogenic differentiation media (Alpha MEM, 10% FBS, 1% Penicillin

Streptomycin, 0.01% Glutamax, 50 mg/ml Ascorbic Acid, 1M B-glycerophosphate,

100µM Dexamethasome). Cells undergoing differentiation were assessed for

accumulated mineralization on days 4, 6, 8 and 10 of the differentiation process as

follows: IRDye 680 BoneTag Optical Probe (Li-Cor Biosciences, product #926-09374)

was reconstituted according to the manufacturer's instructions. On days 3, 5, 7 and 9,

0.006 nmoles were added to each sample. Twenty-four hours later the cells were

washed with 0.5 mls DPBS (Gibco, product #14190250) and media was replaced. The

cells were then placed on the Odyssey CLx Imaging System (Li-Cor Biosciences) to

measure mineralization density as reflected by IRDye 680 BoneTag Optical Probe

incorporation. Final values for mineralization were computed by subtracting the average

number of fluorescent units recorded in designated background wells from the number

of fluorescent units recorded in the sample wells.

1031

RNA isolation: The isolation procedure outlined below was inspired by [105]. Mineralized

cultures were washed twice with Dulbecco's Phosphate Buffered Saline (DPBS). 0.5ml

60mM EDTA (pH 7.4, made in DPBS) was added for 15-minute room temperature (RT)

incubation. EDTA solution was aspirated and replaced for a second 15-minute RT

incubation. Cultures were then washed with 0.5ml Hank's Balanced Salt Solution

(HBSS) and incubated with 0.5ml 8mg/ml collagenase in HBSS/4mM $CaCl_2$ for 10

minutes at 37° C with shaking. Cultures were triturated 10x and incubated for an

additional 20 minutes and 37° C. Cultures were then transferred to a 1.5ml Eppendorf

tube, and spun at 500 x g for 5 minutes at RT in a Sorvall tabletop centrifuge. Cultures

were resuspended in 0.5ml 0.25% trypsin-EDTA (Gibco, Gaithersburg, MD) and

incubated for 15 minutes at 37° C. Cultures were then triturated and incubated for an

additional 15 minutes. 0.5ml of media were added, triturated and spun at 500 x g for 5

minutes at RT. Cultures were then resuspended in 0.5ml bone marrow differentiation

media and cells were counted.

1046

Library preparation, sequencing and analysis: The samples were pooled and

concentrated to 800 cells/µl in sterile PBS supplemented with 0.1% BSA. The single cell

suspension was loaded into a 10x Chromium Controller (10X Genomics, Pleasanton,

CA, USA), aiming to capture 8,000 cells, with the Single Cell 3' v2 reagent kit, according

to the manufacturer's protocol. Following GEM capturing and lysis, cDNA was amplified

(13 cycles) and the manufacturer's protocol was followed to generate sequencing

library. The library was sequenced on the Illumina NextSeq500 and the raw sequencing

data was processed using CellRanger toolkit (version 2.0.1). The reads were mapped to

mm10 mouse reference genome assembly using STAR (version 2.5.1b) [106]. Overall,

7,188 cells were sequenced, to a mean depth of 57,717 reads per cell. Sequencing data

is available on GEO (GSE152806).

1058

Analysis was performed using Seurat [107,108]. Features detected in at least 3 cells where

at least 200 features were detected were used. We then filtered out cells with less than

800 reads and more than 5800 reads, as well as cells with 10% or more mitochondrial

reads. This resulted in 7,092 remaining cells. Expression measurements were multiplied

by 10,000 and log normalized, and the 3000 most variable features were identified. The

data were then scaled. Cells were then scored by cell cycle markers, and these scores,

as well as the percentage of mitochondrial reads, were regressed out [109]. Finally,

clusters were found with a resolution of 1 and the UMAP was generated. An outlier

cluster consisting of 13 cells was removed. Cluster cell types were manually annotated

after performing differential expression analyses of the expression of genes in each

cluster relative to all other clusters (**Supplemental Table 14**), using the Seurat

FindAllMarkers() function, with the only.pos=TRUE argument.

1071

Data availability:

Raw genotyping data, calculated genotype and allele probabilities, and R/qtl2 cross files

are available from Zenodo at DOI:10.5281/zenodo.4265417. Raw sequencing data is

available from the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus database (GSE152708,

GSE152806). Mapped DO mouse QTL and eQTL can be viewed at

http://qtlviewer.uvadcos.io/.

GWAS summary statistics used for this study can be downloaded from

http://www.gefos.org/?q=content/data-release-2018 and

http://www.gefos.org/?q=content/data-release-2012.

1081

1082   **Code availability:**

1083   Analysis code is available at https://github.com/basel-maher/DO_project

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