Original Research Report

Dkk2 *interacts with* **Pax9** *in palate mesenchyme to pattern and tune osteogenesis*

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RUNNING TITLE: *Wnt genes pattern palatal bone*

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SUMMARY STATEMENT

Novel evidence of Wnt-mediated osteogenic differentiation and patterning of palatal bone is presented in a murine cleft palate model. *Dkk2* is implicated as a spatial regulator of palate ossification zones, in concert with *Pax9*.

ABSTRACT

Cleft palate is a common craniofacial disorder involving multiple genetic and environmental predisposing factors. Currently, limited insight exists into the molecular mechanisms regulating osteogenic differentiation and patterning in the palate during embryogenesis. This study utilized the *Pax9*-deficient mouse genetic model of cleft palate to investigate the role of *Pax9* in osteogenic differentiation. Single-nucleus transcriptomics and chromatin accessibility assays validated by whole-transcriptome and single-molecule spatial transcriptomics suggest a relationship between separate *Pax9+* and osteogenic populations. Loss of *Pax9* resulted in premature osteogenic differentiation and bone maturation. The spatially restricted osteogenic domains in $Pax9^{-/-}$ mice are bounded by *Dkk2*, which normally interfaces with *Pax9* in the mesenchyme. Together, these results confirm a regulatory role for the Wnt pathway in patterning of palatal bone, offering novel insights into the complex nature of developmental signaling and osteodifferentiation in the palate.

INTRODUCTION

Palatal morphogenesis involves a complex interplay of cell adhesion molecules, epigenetic regulators, transcription factors, and overlapping signaling pathways (Ji et al., 2020, Reynolds et al., 2019). It is well known that spatiotemporal molecular cues drive region-specific growth, migration, elevation, and midline fusion of the palatal shelves (Bush and Jiang, 2012, Li et al., 2017a). As for other intramembranous models, palatal osteogenesis first becomes evident as a focal area of mesenchymal condensation that subsequently functions as an ossification center (Wang et al., 2020, Baek et al., 2011, Li et al., 2021). While our recent work has highlighted the spatiotemporal transcriptional programming requisite for normal palatal osteogenesis to occur (Piña et al., 2023), the precise molecular mechanisms that modulate the differentiation and spatial patterning of palatal osteoblasts during morphogenesis are not well defined (Oliver et al., 2021). Such knowledge will improve our understanding of these mechanistic underpinnings to better advance the development of novel therapeutic interventions for patients affected with cleft disorders (Oliver et al., 2020).

The Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway has an important regulatory role in the development and homeostasis of the skeleton (Huybrechts et al., 2020, Joeng et al., 2017, Krishnan et al., 2006) and is known to be essential for craniofacial development. We and others have shown that Wnt signaling pathway genes play crucial roles in early palate formation, specifically driving mesenchymal cell proliferation and differentiation (Jia et al., 2020, Jia et al., 2017a, Li et al., 2017b, Jia et al., 2017b, Janeckova et al., 2023). Intracellular mediators of canonical Wnt signaling, such as beta-catenin, promote lineage specification of mesenchymal stem cells and the differentiation of osteogenic precursors into functional osteoblasts and osteocytes (Cruciat and

Niehrs, 2013, Glass et al., 2005, Kim et al., 2013). Notably, mutations in coding sequences of

Wnt factors result in skeletal dysplasias with clinical phenotypes that involve isolated alterations

in bone mass (Martinez-Gil et al., 2022, Regard et al., 2011).

The paired homeodomain-containing transcription factor, Pax9, serves critical functions in

mammalian development and organogenesis including the patterning of limbs and craniofacial

structures (Peters et al., 1998, Peters et al., 1999). *PAX9* has been identified as crucial for human

craniofacial development through genome-wide association studies (GWAS), which implicated it

in several disorders affecting the face, such as non-syndromic clefting (Shaffer et al., 2016).

Furthermore, the temporally dynamic antero-posterior morphogenetic gradient of *Pax9* in the

palate indicates its central role in palatogenesis (Jia et al., 2020, Hilliard et al., 2005). *Pax9*

knockout mice demonstrate defects in elongation, delayed elevation, and failed contact and

fusion of the palatal shelves (Jia et al., 2017a, Peters et al., 1998). The regulatory role of *Pax9* in

orchestrating overlapping pathways such as Shh, Eda, Fgf, and Wnt signaling has previously

been established and is appreciated in the context of secondary palate development (Ji et al.,

2020, Reynolds et al., 2019). Nevertheless, the exact role of *Pax9* in osteogenesis in the

secondary palate remains speculative.

Here, we demonstrate that global loss of *Pax9* results in altered spatiotemporal patterning and

consequent premature differentiation of the osteogenic condensation. By dissecting the spatial

transcriptomic milieu of osteogenic commitment and terminal differentiation in the cleft palate of

Pax9 knockout mouse embryos, we present a Wnt-centered framework for osteogenic patterning,

the balance of which depends on the regulatory influence of *Pax9.* This study expands

contemporary understanding of the functional roles played by *Pax9* and its overlapping Wnt

modulators to palate osteogenic patterning and differentiation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The spatiotemporal expression domain of *Pax9* guides, but is not required for, subsequent

osteogenic differentiation in the developing palate.

We began this study by contextualizing *Pax9* within normal palate osteogenesis in mice using

spatially resolved, quantitative whole-transcriptome RNA-sequencing (Visium, 10x Genomics,

Inc.). At embryonic day 13.5 (E13.5), the palatal shelves had not yet elevated, and ossification

was not evident, though the initial mesenchymal condensation that would give rise to bone could

be detected (**Fig. 1A**). *Pax9* was most highly expressed at bordering edges of *Sp7+* regions,

bounding more mature osteoblast *Cd200* expression (**Fig. 1B**). The palate mesenchyme had

fused by E15.5 and mineralizing bone was evident histologically with condensations of cells

arranged at medial, lateral, and superior edges of the palatine ossification center (**Fig. 1A**).

Interestingly, *Pax9* expression was maximally enriched within the medial palate mesenchyme, a

region which is also enriched for progenitor cell markers (*Six2, Erg, Crabp1*) (**Fig. 1B, B'**). This

expression was mirrored in adjacent lateral compartments by markers of osteoblast commitment

(*Sp7*, *Cd200*, **Fig. 1B, B'**), with highest enrichment surrounding the ossification centers and

radiating outward in a decreasing gradient of expression. The osteogenic compartment, with

comparatively lower *Pax9* expression than mesenchymal, is enriched for osteoblast (*Cd200,*

Bglap, Ifitm5) and osteocyte (*Sost, Dmp1, Phex*) markers. This expression gradient and inverse

osteogenic/mesenchymal enrichment suggested that *Pax9* was linked to the gradual formation of

bone during embryonic palate development, perhaps guiding the eventual patterning of

osteogenesis (Paudel et al., 2022).

We followed this observation with assessment of cell type-specific *Pax9* expression and binding

motif enrichment via integrated single-nucleus gene (snRNA)- and transposase-accessible

chromatin (snATAC)-sequencing of microdissected secondary palate tissues from E13.5 and

E15.5 mouse embryos. Initial clustering of this dataset revealed ten distinct cell states (**Fig. S1**).

Gene ontology enrichment analysis of marker genes from these populations determined the

presence of six general cell types: epithelium, mesenchyme, muscle cells, neural cells,

endothelium, and blood cells (**Fig. C'**, **Fig. S1**). Further isolated analysis of the mesenchyme

identified eight subtypes of this population. Canonical marker genes separate these cells into four

broad categories: osteogenic cells, chondrogenic cells, generalized mesenchyme, and *Pax9+*

mesenchyme (**Fig. S2**).

When compared to all cell types in the developing palate, we observed that the population of

Pax9+ mesenchymal cells demonstrated a 3.62 $\log_2$-fold enrichment of *Pax9* expression (FDR

3.01e-04) (**Fig. 1C"**). Similarly, we noted a bias of the *Pax9* motif within marker peaks for the

Pax9 mesenchyme cluster, confirming enrichment of the *Pax9* motif within regions of accessible

chromatin unique to this population (marker peaks) (**Fig. 1C'''**). Notably, chromatin regions

accessible in the osteogenic cell population were depleted for the *Pax9* motif and demonstrated

minimal *Pax9* expression. Hence, while *Pax9* is important for a specific mesenchymal

population, it is not required for osteogenic cells.

Ossification centers in *Pax9⁻ᐟ⁻* embryos differentiate and mature precociously.

Next, we sought to understand the effects of global loss of *Pax9* on establishment of the osteogenic condensation in the secondary palate, considering its mesenchymal expression surrounding osteogenic compartments. At E13.5, when wild type bone formation in the palate was minimal, *Pax9⁻ᐟ⁻* mice had a subtle increase in overall birefringent intensity of bundled collagen, indicating a prematurely active osteogenic condensation (**Fig. 2A, A'**). By E15.5, the amount of collagen was greater in corresponding regions of the palatal shelves in *Pax9⁻ᐟ⁻* embryos (**Fig. 2B, B'**). The interface between cells lining the bone and the presumptive osteoid they deposited was less fibrillar, with clearly defined bone edges (**Fig. B', C**). Additionally, we noted hallmark features of maturing bone in the *Pax9⁻ᐟ⁻* palate, such as greater trabeculation and comparatively more *Sost⁺* mature osteocytes in the developing palatine bone when compared with age-matched wild type embryos (**Fig. 2C**). Micro-computed tomography revealed three-dimensional insufficiency of the mesial ossification front of this bone at E15.5, despite indications of mature bone (**Fig. 2D'**). Coronal cross-sectional analysis exhibited dense, spongy bone in knockout mice. These features of *Pax9⁻ᐟ⁻* palatal bone could indicate that, in the absence of *Pax9*, bone undergoes accelerated mineralization and remodeling events which may restrict the shelves' ability to achieve contact at the midline through sufficient inward growth.

Osteogenic differentiation is spatially restricted and focally accelerated in *Pax9⁻ᐟ⁻* embryos.

The early appearance of more mature bone in the absence of *Pax9* led us to assess the osteogenic front of the secondary palate in this context. In normal development of the palate at E13.5, pre-osteoblast *Runx2⁺* cells span the length of the mesial nasal domain of the palatal shelves, expressed in both epithelium and mesenchyme (**Fig. 3A**). However, the domain of *Runx2* was

more restricted to the superior portion of the nasal domain in *Pax9*$^{-/-}$ embryos. *Six2* expression

filled the *Runx2-* space of the palatal shelf in both *Pax9*$^{+/+}$ and *Pax9*$^{-/-}$ embryos, but the

RNAscope *in situ* fluorescent signal appeared more granular in *Pax9*$^{-/-}$ cells. In wild type cells,

Six2 and *Runx2* subcellular expression was organized in a concentric pattern, with central *Runx2*

nuclear expression. This distinctive transcript localization was absent in *Pax9* knockout cells,

and the transition between *Six2+/Runx2-* to *Six2-/Runx2+* cells was less clear. We noted marked

appearance of the maturing osteocyte marker *Dmp1* within the central ossification zone of *Pax9*$^{-/-}$

palatal shelves only, evidence of accelerated osteogenic differentiation.

By E15.5, an osteogenic gradient had been established in both wild type and *Pax9*$^{-/-}$ palatal

shelves, emanating from the ossification center(s) (**Fig. 3B**). This differentiation gradient from

Runx2+ pre-osteoblasts to *Sp7+* osteoblasts to *Dmp1+* osteocytes terminated at the bone center

(**Fig 3B'**). The osteogenic *Pax9*$^{-/-}$ front appeared proportionally compressed compared with wild

type bone surfaces. However, the *Runx2+* region was extended, with disruption centrally by a

zone of *Dkk2* positivity (**Fig. 3B"**). While *Dkk2* was found in the *Runx2+/Sp7+* region in

isolated wild type cells, it occupied a broader region in the *Pax9*-deficient context, corresponding

to regionally diminished *Runx2* expression.

A key phase in osteodifferentiation is the transition at bone front interfaces from *Runx2+* to

Dmp1+ cells. In wild type embryos, differentiating osteogenic populations were evenly and

somewhat linearly spaced from *Runx2+/Sp7-* cells to *Runx2+/Sp7+/Dmp1-*, to more mature

exclusively *Dmp1* expressing cells (**Fig. 3C', 3C''**). It was difficult to distinguish a clear

progression of committed cell populations in the *Pax9*-null palate, with an abrupt transition

between *Runx2+/Sp7-* populations to *Runx2-/Sp7-/Dmp1+* cells. Very few cells expressed *Sp7* in

the absence of *Runx2* or *Dmp1*. Based on the disorganization of osteodifferentiation in the *Pax9$^{-/-}$*

palatine bone, we questioned whether *Pax9* may be responsible for commitment of cells to the

osteogenic lineage.

Wnt modulators interact with *Pax9* to define spatiotemporal ossification domains in the

palate.

The disruption of *Runx2* expression by *Dkk2* in *Pax9$^{-/-}$* embryos called to mind prior evidence of

Pax9 in patterning of palate mesenchyme, and how this relates to the regulatory role of the Wnt

signaling pathway in skeletal development and homeostasis (Nagasaka et al., 2022, Zhou et al.,

2013, Hamachi et al., 2003, Sasaki et al., 2007). Thus, we sought to interrogate the zones of

osteogenic patterning and differentiation in the secondary palate overlaying Wnt pathway

modulators known to interact with Pax9 directly (*Dkk1* and *Dkk2*). *Pax9* was strongly expressed

in the palatal shelf at E13.5, with predilection toward the oral domain of the vertically oriented

shelf prior to elevation above the tongue (**Fig. 4A**). We observed that the pattern of *Alpl*

expression, corresponding to osteogenesis, was complemented by *Pax9* and Wnt modulators

Dkk1 and *Dkk2*. *Dkk1* was expressed within the domain of *Pax9*, which was found in regions

inferior to *Alpl* expression, clearly interfacing midway through the medial side of the nasal

domain of the palate, corroborating our initial transcriptomic observations. *Dkk2* co-localized

with *Pax9* in the lateral oral domain. In the control palate, *Dkk2+* cells were also interspersed

amongst *Alpl+* cells in the nasal domain of the palate.

In the absence of *Pax9*, *Alpl* was focally increased in the superior aspect of the nasal domain,

with similar spatial restriction in the more lateral ossification center (**Fig. 4A**). *Dkk1* was lost in

regions where it is normally co-expressed with *Pax9* but increases at the point of maximal *Alpl*

expression. We hypothesized that this was due to the premature terminal differentiation of

osteocytes, which express *Dkk1* (Dincel et al., 2022). *Dkk2* positivity expanded downward into

the tip of the knockout palatal shelf into the space occupied by *Pax9* in the wild type palate,

overlapping with *Alpl+* cells in the margins of the ossification center. However, *Dkk2* was absent

from the central region of this highly *Alpl*-enriched condensation (**Fig. 4B**). In the *Pax9*-

knockout setting, *Dkk2* expression encapsulated the ossification center, restricting the

Dkk1+/Dkk2-/Alp1+ condensation (**Fig. 4C**).

Pax9 is a master orchestrator of patterning and morphogenesis throughout the body – from the

thymus, ultimobranchial bodies, limb bud, and tooth organ, to the axial skeleton (Peters et al.,

1998, Peters et al., 1999). This highly conserved morphogen has been shown to functionally

interact with a number of mesenchymal transcription factors and signaling pathways required for

palate development to ensue, which regulate cell proliferation and differentiation of cranial

neural crest-derived mesectoderm (Hilliard et al., 2005, Ichikawa et al., 2006, Jia et al., 2020, Jia

et al., 2017a, Li et al., 2017b, Neubuser et al., 1997). The role of Pax9 in patterning during

development of multiple organ systems, including the palate, are clearly established. However,

prior to the present study, this has not been explored sufficiently in the context of palate

osteogenesis. The resultant cleft palate phenotypes in the setting of either premature (Mori-

Akiyama et al., 2003, Sweat et al., 2020) or delayed (Baek et al., 2011) palate osteogenesis

exemplify the importance of precise temporal onset and spatial regulation of intramembranous

ossification. The unusually broad expression of *Six2* and precocious, restricted osteogenesis in

the *Pax9*^{-/-} palate mesenchyme are reminiscent of the premature ossification and cleft palate

described in *Sox9*^{-/-} (Mori-Akiyama et al., 2003) and *Six2*^{-/-} mice (Sweat et al., 2020). Sweat *et al*.

further noted a direct up-stream regulatory relationship between the osteoprogenitor transcription

factor, Six2, and Pax9, supporting a predicted role for Pax9 in progression of palate osteogenesis,

and perhaps explaining the broad presence of *Six2+* cells in the absence of *Pax9*. It should be

noted that initial formation of osteogenic centers and ability to form bone are not directly

affected by the *Pax9*^{-/-} mutation. However, the spatial patterning and osteodifferentiation

mechanics in the palate appeared to be dysregulated in its absence.

In summary, this study addresses the perturbation of osteogenic patterning and differentiation in

relation to Wnt signaling mediators in the *Pax9*^{-/-} genetic model of secondary cleft palate. We

characterized the onset of premature osteogenic differentiation as well as spatial restriction of

committed osteogenic cells in the absence of *Pax9*, pointing to its role in patterning and tuning

osteogenesis in the palate. This contribution to our fundamental understanding of the molecular

and cellular underpinnings of a cleft palate phenotype strengthens the framework required to

assess the safety and efficacy of targeted therapeutic strategies to prevent or correct cleft palate

disorders.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals.

All animal procedures were approved by the National Institutes of Health, National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Animal Care and Use Committee (ACUC), under Animal Study Protocol (ASP) #21-031. C57BL/6J mice were obtained from the Jackson Laboratory. Inbred strain of female C57BL/6 mice were utilized for all experiments. $Pax9^{+/-}$ mice were provided by Dr. Rulang Jiang (Cincinnati Children's Hospital). Timed pregnancies were conducted via vaginal plug identification, with day 0.5 indicating date of identification.

Single-nucleus RNA + ATAC Sequencing (Multiome-RNA+ATAC-seq, 10x Genomics).

Pregnant mice were sacrificed by CO_2 inhalation and cervical dislocation. All surgical procedures were performed by using a surgical loupe (Orascoptic, Eye Zoom, 5.5x magnification). Pregnant mice were placed in the supine position on a sterile, absorbent surgical pad and disinfected with 70% ethanol along the site of planned incision. An incision was made on the abdomen along the midline using small surgical scissors. A fresh microsurgical scissor was then used to carefully incise the peritoneum to expose the uterine chain. Using a blunt forceps, the uterine chain was externalized. Embryos were dissected out by releasing it along the myometrium, incising at the oviduct bilaterally and the median uterine horn ligament attachment. Whole embryos were transferred into ice-cold sterile PBS in a 10 cm petri dish. Each embryo was carefully dissected out from the uterus and extra-embryonic amnion and chorionic tissues, then transferred to a new 10 cm culture dish with fresh ice-cold PBS. A blunt forceps was used to hold each embryo and by using a small fine microsurgical scissor, an incision was made on bilateral oral commissures, allowing for extended opening of the mandible and clear vision of the

palate cranially. Careful microdissection of the palatal shelves only from respective embryonic

stages was performed, with noted potential extra-palatal tissue contamination due to surgical

imprecision. Pooled littermates (n=3 biological replicates per sample) of each respective stage

were utilized single nucleus dissociation (E13.5 and E15.5); 3 embryos' tissues per timepoint

were pooled into 1 sample per timepoint. Samples were mechanically broken into single-nuclei

suspensions following the manufacturer's instructions for Nuclei Isolation from Complex

Tissues for Single Cell Multiome ATAC + Gene Expression Sequencing (10X Genomics -

protocol CG000375). After isolation, the nuclei integrity was accessed under a microscope and

counted using the CellDrop (Denovix) and acridine orange (AO) and propidium iodide (PI) as

dye. Transposition and Gel Bead-in-Emulsion (GEM) generation, using a Chromium Single Cell

Multiome ATAC + 3′ Gene Expression following the manufacturer's instructions (10x Genomics

– protocol CG000338 Rev F) were performed, aiming for a total of 10,000 nuclei per sample. In

brief, the nuclei were transposed in a bulk solution using Tn5 transposase with sequencing

adapters that were pre-loaded. The transposed nuclei were loaded onto a microfluidic chip to

create GEMs. The gel beads contained two types of oligos that were used for snRNA-seq and

snATAC-seq. The mRNA was reverse transcribed and underwent template switching and

transcript extension to produce barcoded cDNA. The snATAC-seq oligo was formed of a partial

Illumina primer sequence, a 10X barcode, and a spacer that allowed the barcode to attach to the

adapter-tagged DNA fragments. The GEMs were broken using a recovery agent to produce a

bulk pool of barcoded molecules. The pre-amplified product was then split into portions

available for snRNA-seq and snATAC-seq library construction. P5, i7, and P7 sequences

compatible with Illumina bridge amplification were added to the DNA fragments through PCR

to produce snATAC-seq libraries. Additional amplification of the cDNA was performed on the

snRNA-seq samples before proceeding to fragmentation, end repair, A-tailing, and ligation. A

sample dual index PCR was used to add the P5, i5, i7, and P7 sequences to the final snRNA-seq

library. Sequencing was performed on the Illumina NovaSeq 6000 at the Molecular Genomics

Core (NICHD).

Single-nucleus RNA + ATAC-seq bioinformatics analysis.

Raw fastqs were aligned to mm10 genome build using the standard Cellranger multiomics

settings and imported to ArchR (v.1.0.1). Doublets were identified and filtered, and cells were

filtered for minimum 4 TSS enrichment, 2500 fragments per cell. Dimensionality reduction was

performed using LSI based on the cell by fragment matrix and cell by gene matrix, and clusters

were identified. Peaks were called based on original clustering, discarding reads from promoters

(2500bp +/- TSS) and exons. Cluster assignments were confirmed using canonical marker genes

based on gene expression, and gene ontology enrichment of marker genes identified using

getMarkerFeatures function of ArchR. Statistical significance and strength of enrichments was

determined using t-test, grouping cells by cluster. Detailed scripts of analysis can be found on the

Cotney Lab GitHub (https://github.com/emmawwinchester/mousepalate).

Spatial RNA Sequencing (spRNA-seq, 10x Genomics, Visium).

All steps from 10X Genomics' FFPE Visium Spatial workflow (SpaceRanger) were followed

(protocol CG000407 Rev D). Spatial RNA sequencing (spRNA-seq) slides are coated with an

array of poly-T primers, which encode unique spatial barcodes. FFPE murine craniofacial tissue

from E13.5 and E15.5 embryos was sectioned directly onto the barcoded slide, H&E stained,

then underwent enzymatic permeabilization, which allowed for mRNA release and subsequent

capture by primer-coated slides. Samples were sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq6000. All

spatial sequencing gene enrichment analyses were conducted using the 10X Genomics Loupe

Browser.

Fluorescent Multiplex mRNA In Situ Hybridization (RNAscope).

Mouse embryos were collected in biological triplicates and fixed in 10% formalin for 24 hours.

Samples were then processed to paraffin embedding and were sectioned at 5 μm with a Leica

RM2255 microtome (Leica Biosystems). RNAscope multiplex fluorescent v2 assay (Advanced

Cell Diagnostics, 323100) was used for *in situ* hybridization according to the manufacturer's

instructions with modified pretreatment custom reagent for antigen retrieval. RNAscope

hybridization has been validated in our laboratory using positive and negative control probes.

Marker probes from Advanced Cell Diagnostics were used in this study. Each experiment

included a negative control section excluding marker probes for quality control. Representative

serial slides were also stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) for histomorphometry context.

The fluorescent slides were imaged on an AxioScan.Z1 slide scanner (Zeiss) with Plan-

apochromat 40x/0.95 objective in five fluorescent channels (DAPI, FITC, Cy3, Cy5, Cy7). The

following gene marker probes were used: RNAscope™ Probe- Mm-Alpl (Cat No. 441161), ,

RNAscope™ Probe- Mm-Sost (Cat No. 410031), RNAscope™ Probe- Mm-Six2 (Cat No.

500011), RNAscope™ Probe- Mm-Runx2 (Cat No. 414021), RNAscope™ Probe- Mm-Sp7 (Cat

No. 403401), RNAscope™ Probe- Mm-Dmp1 (Cat No. 441171), RNAscope™ Probe- Mm-Pax9

(Cat No. 454321), RNAscope™ Probe- Mm-Dkk1 (Cat No. 402521), RNAscope™ Probe- Mm-

Dkk2 (Cat No. 404841). All slides were counterstained with DAPI (Cat No. 320858)

Modified pentachrome histochemical staining and picrosirius red polarized light imaging.

Modified pentachrome staining was applied to deparaffinized, rehydrated coronal mouse embryo

sections from E13.5 and E15.5 in biological triplicate. Rehydrated sections were pretreated with

6% nitric acid, then sequentially stained with0.1% toluidine blue (EMS, Cat No. 26074-15) and

picrosirius red (Abcam, Cat No. ab246832). Slides were dehydrated and mounted with in

toluene-based medium. Stained sections were imaged using an AxioScan.Z1 slide scanner

(Zeiss) with Plan-apochromat 40x/0.95 objective in brightfield. Bright-field and dark-field

polarized transmission images were acquired via a 10X/0.3NA objective using an Olympus

BX51 microscope (Olympus) equipped with a condenser with NA adjusted to 0.3, a rotatable

sample stage and Infinity 2C color camera (Luminera). White balance of the camera was

adjusted using a bright-field image of a sample slide area near a sample. For dark-field images, a

rotatable polarizer and polarizer-analyzer crossed at 90° were introduced into the microscope

light path.

Micro-computed tomography (CT) 3D-reconstruction and segmentation.

Embryonic day 15.5 heads fixed overnight in 10% NBF were scanned using a ScanCo μCT 50 *ex*

vivo cabinet system (Scanco Medical, Brüttisellen, Switzerland) in 70% ethanol using the

following parameters: 70kVp, 85μA, 0.5mm AI filter, 900-ms integration time, and 10μm voxel

size. 3D rendering and segmentation of reconstructed files were performed using 3D Slicer

software (slicer.org) using the semi-automatic segmentation function 'Islands', with standardized

thresholding and island size.

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Data and materials availability. All results and analysis data are available in the main text or the

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corresponding author upon reasonable request.

384
385
386

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. A gradient of *Pax9* expression guides expansion of ossification centers in the

developing palate. A) Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) stained palatal shelves (ps) at embryonic

days 13.5 and E15.5 orienting toward relevant anatomy within the surrounding region. Notably,

in normal development, mineralized bone is not seen in the palatal shelf mesenchyme at

embryonic day 13.5, while it is present by E15.5. Asterisk (*) indicates mesenchymal

condensation prior to bone formation. B) Whole-transcriptome spatially resolved RNA-

sequencing (*Visium, 10x Genomics*) of the posterior secondary palate at E13.5 and E15.5

visualizing enriched *Pax9, Sp7,* and *Cd200* gene expression. Orange to red color scale represents

increasing $\log_2$-fold gene enrichment. B') Globally distinguishing significant feature comparison

between manually selected osteogenic and mesenchymal barcode clusters at E15.5. Panels,

clockwise, represent log2-fold gene enrichment of *Pax9*, progenitor cell markers (*Six2, Erg,*

Crabp1), osteoblast markers (*Cd200, Bglap, Ifitm5*), and osteocytes (*Sost, Dmp1, Phex)*. C)

Single-nucleus gene and epigenetic sequencing (*Multiome RNA+ATAC-seq, 10x Genomics, Inc.*)

of the murine embryonic secondary palate. C') Annotated cell populations present in the E13.5

and E15.5 secondary palate include canonical cell types, with the addition of *Pax9+*

Mesenchyme. C'') Enrichment of *Pax9* expression in *Pax9+* Mesenchyme compared to all other

cell types in the secondary palate. C''') Bias of *Pax9* binding motif in regions of chromatin

uniquely accessible in *Pax9+* Mesenchyme.

Figure 2. Evidence of *Pax9$^{-/-}$* palatal bone premature formation. A) Modified pentachrome

staining of E13.5 and E15.5 palatal shelves demonstrating distribution of collagen fibrils in red

(A, B) and their organization under polarized light, ranging from orange to green color

depending on degree of birefringence (A', B'). pb: palatine bone; nc: nasal cavity; m: molar. C)

Hematoxylin & eosin stain and multiplexed mRNA *in situ* hybridization (RNAscope) on

adjacent serial sections highlighting hallmark features of bone maturation within the palatal bone

ossification zone of $Pax9^{+/+}$ and $Pax9^{-/-}$ mice. Black arrows indicate trabeculae within palatine

bone. Merged images represent *Sost+* osteocytes (red) in the context of osteogenic *Alpl* (yellow),

with blue DAPI+ nuclei. White dotted overlay corresponds to borders of bone. D) Micro-

computed tomography 3D reconstruction of paired maxillary (yellow) and palatine bones

(blue)(D'), presented from a superior axial view (top) and coronal orthogonal slice (bottom) of

similar depth to histological sections. Dotted outline represents control bone silhouette

superimposed over knockout bone.

Figure 3. Loss of *Pax9* alters patterning of the palate osteodifferentiation gradient.

RNAscope *in situ* hybridization targeting osteogenic populations using probes for *Six2, Runx2,*

Dmp1, and *Dkk2.* A) Co-staining of progenitors (*Six2*, green), pre-osteoblasts (*Runx2*, red), and

immature osteocytes (*Dmp1,* white) in coronal control ($Pax9^{+/+}$) and knockout ($Pax9^{-/-}$) palatal

shelves at E13.5. Blue (A') and red (A") cropped regions highlight osteodifferentiation gradients.

Green, red, and yellow arrowheads indicate examples of *Six2+* cells, *Runx2+* cells, and

Six2+/Runx2+ cells (respectively). od: oral domain; nd: nasal domain B) Co-staining of pre-

osteoblasts (*Runx2*, red), osteoblasts (*Sp7*, yellow), and immature osteocytes (*Dmp1*, magenta)

with Wnt signaling modulator *Dkk2* (green) at E15.5. Blue (B') and red (B") cropped regions

focus on osteogenic fronts in the $Pax9^{+/+}$ and $Pax9^{-/-}$ palate. Colored bars in B'' represent range

of expression domains observed for each mRNA target, according to the color scheme in B.

Overlapping colored bars indicate co-expression. Green arrows highlight limited *Dkk2*

expression in Pax9$^{+/+}$ embryos. C', C") High magnification image at terminal boundary of

osteogenic front, highlighting relative distribution and spacing of *Runx2* (red), *Sp7* (green), and

Dmp1 (white) expressing cells.

Figure 4. *Dkk2*, in concert with *Pax9*, coordinates zones of osteogenic differentiation in the

developing palate.

A) RNAscope *in situ* hybridization targeting *Pax9* (green), Wnt modulators *Dkk1* (red) and *Dkk2*

(magenta), and osteogenic *Alpl* (yellow) at embryonic day 13.5 (E13.5). White dotted lines

outline margins of palatal shelf. Asterisk (*) indicates osteogenic center in Pax9$^{-/-}$ mice. B)

Cropped regions of interest from experiment pictured in (A) from ossification center (top) and

mesial edge of palate nasal domain (bottom). Merged ossification center region of interest is split

into individual stains along arrows (green *Pax9,* magenta *Dkk2*, yellow *Alpl*). C) Schematic

summary of the shifting landscape of Wnt-regulated osteogenesis in the E13.5 embryonic palate

with the loss of *Pax9*.

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

E13.5

A Pax9+/+   Pax9-/-

B E15.5 Pax9+/+   Pax9-/-

A' E13.5
Pax9+/+   Pax9-/-

B' E15.5
Pax9+/+   Pax9-/-

C E15.5
Pax9+/+
Pax9-/-

hematoxylin & eosin   Alpl   Sost   DAPI / Alpl / Sost

D a   a   maxilla   palatine bone   E15.5

Pax9+/+   Pax9-/-

D' Pax9+/+   Pax9-/-

axial

coronal   0.5mm

Fig. 3

Fig. 4