Title: Decoding muscle-resident Schwann cell dynamics during neuromuscular junction

remodeling

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Abstract

Understanding neuromuscular junction (NMJ) repair mechanisms is essential for addressing

degenerative neuromuscular conditions. Here, we focus on the role of muscle-resident Schwann

cells in NMJ reinnervation. In young $Sod1^{-/-}$ mice, a model of progressive NMJ degeneration, we

identified a clear NMJ 'regenerative window' that allowed us to define regulators of reinnervation

and crossing $Sod1^{-/-}$ mice with $S100GFP$-tg mice permitted visualization and analysis of Schwann

cells. High-resolution imaging and single-cell RNA sequencing provide a detailed analysis of

Schwann cell number, morphology, and transcriptome revealing multiple subtypes, including a

previously unrecognized terminal Schwann cell (tSC) population expressing a synapse

promoting signature. We also discovered a novel SPP1-driven cellular interaction between myelin

Schwann cells and tSCs and show that it promotes tSC proliferation and reinnervation following

nerve injury in wild type mice. Our findings offer important insights into molecular regulators critical

in NMJ reinnervation that are mediated through tSCs to maintain NMJ function.

Introduction

The neuromuscular junction (NMJ) is the terminal synapse of the motor system, orchestrating muscle contraction and, by extension, voluntary movement. Effective neurotransmission at the NMJ is paramount for neuromuscular communication, with any degenerative alterations at the synapse having the potential to impair muscle contractile function and overall mobility. NMJ degeneration and denervation are pivotal contributing factors to the onset and progression of degenerative neuromuscular diseases, such as amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS)[1,2], and sarcopenia, the age-related loss of muscle mass and function[3]. The incomplete understanding of mechanisms that control NMJ maintenance and regeneration represents a critical barrier to the development of effective therapeutic interventions for many devastating conditions.

The major cellular components of the NMJ are the pre-synaptic motor neuron (MN), the post-synaptic muscle fiber, and supporting glia. The primary glial cell type at the NMJ is a specialized non-myelinating Schwann cell population referred to as terminal Schwann cells (tSCs). tSCs regulate synaptic activity[4], and tSC proliferation is critical to generate a sufficient number of Schwann cells to sustain the physiological regenerative response required for effective muscle reinnervation[5,6]. Despite the importance of SCs and SC proliferation in promoting muscle fiber reinnervation, the cell biology and physiology of muscle resident SCs and their response to denervation remain poorly understood.

Widespread and progressive NMJ degeneration and denervation are prominent phenotypes of *Sod1*$^{-/-}$ mice, which lack the enzyme superoxide dismutase 1 (Sod1), making them a broadly used model for testing hypotheses focused on the regulators of NMJ structure and function[7–9]. An intriguing recent revelation from this mouse model is a distinct timeframe early in life during which the expression in muscles of acetylcholine receptor alpha (Chrna) mRNA levels and mitochondrial reactive oxygen species (mtROS) production are dramatically but transiently elevated[10]. Upregulation of Chrna and mtROS production are both known to increase significantly in response to muscle denervation[11–13]. The pattern of transient increases around 2 months of

age and return to baseline by 3 months for both Chrna mRNA and mtROS suggests a robust

denervation/reinnervation event that identifies a potential 'regenerative window' in which the

regulation of NMJ repair processes can be examined in detail.

To comprehensively assess the role of muscle-resident Schwann cells in these processes,

we crossed *Sod1*^{-/-} mice with *S100GFP*-tg mice[14] that express green fluorescent protein driven

by the S100B promoter, to create *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice, in which Schwann cells could be

easily visualized and subsequently isolated for detailed molecular analysis. Using these mice, we

assessed functional innervation, evaluated morphological features of tSCs in conjunction with

pre- and post-synaptic structural attributes of NMJs, and performed single-cell RNA-sequencing

on muscle-resident Schwann cells during the putative regenerative window between 1 and 3

months of age. We validated the occurrence and time course of an extensive denervation event

followed by a successful reinnervation response that involves substantial tSC proliferation. Our

muscle Schwann cell sequencing data provides single-cell resolution unprecedented in existing

data sets, elucidating several muscle-resident Schwann cell subtypes, including the emergence

of a previously unreported tSC subtype associated with the denervation-reinnervation response

marked by a neurogenic transcriptomic signature. Finally, we reveal a novel cell-cell interaction

driven by SPP1 signaling between myelin-producing Schwann cells and tSCs and provide

evidence that this interaction promotes proliferation of tSCs at the NMJ following acute nerve

injury and is critical for successful reinnervation. Collectively, this work provides important new

insights into the biology of muscle-resident glial cells that may be exploited for new therapeutic

interventions for neurodegenerative and denervating disorders.

Results

***Sod1*^{-/-} mice display dramatic denervation and reinnervation between 1 and 3 months of**

age. To directly validate prior findings that suggest an early-life transient NMJ denervation and

regenerative event in *Sod1*^{-/-} mice[10], we performed functional, molecular, and morphological

assessments of NMJ integrity on *S100GFP*-tg S*od1*^{-/-} mice between 1 and 3 months of age. We

first measured gastrocnemius (GTN) muscle contractile properties in situ in anesthetized mice

using both nerve stimulation and direct muscle stimulation (Fig. 1a). Comparing these two

measurements provides an indication of the level of functional NMJ neurotransmission[15]. As

indicated by the representative experimental records in Figure 1b, forces developed by muscles

of 2-month-old *S100GFP*-tg S*od1*^{-/-} mice during nerve stimulation were approximately 33% lower

than controls, whereas the forces generated in response to direct muscle stimulation were not

significantly different between the genotypes (Fig. 1b). Thus, when comparing forces developed

during nerve stimulation to those developed during direct muscle stimulation, a deficit of 25% was

observed for 2-month-old *S100GFP*-tg S*od1*^{-/-} mice compared with controls (Fig. 1c) indicating

the presence of a population of fibers that were not activated in response to nerve stimulation at

this age. In contrast to the deficit observed at 2 months for *S100GFP*-tg S*od1*^{-/-} mice, the nerve-

to-muscle stimulation force ratio for *S100GFP*-tg mice remained consistent at approximate 1.0

across all ages consistent with a high degree of fidelity in functional neurotransmission in control

mice across all NMJs during this time window (Fig. 1c). The impairments in neurotransmission in

S100GFP-tg S*od1*^{-/-} mice were observed only at 2 months, as indicated by no significant

difference in the forces elicited by nerve and direct muscle stimulation at 1 month or 3 months

(Fig 1c).

To investigate the activation of denervation response pathways in *S100GFP*-tg S*od1*^{-/-}

mice, we analyzed whole muscles by RT-qPCR and demonstrated increased mRNA levels

compared to controls for putative genes involved in neuromuscular denervation, Schwann cell

activation, and axonal growth (Fig. 1d). These included genes associated with post-synaptic

organization (Chrna1, Agrn)[16,17], Schwann cell repair and trophic support (Ngfr, Gdnf)[18,19], cell

proliferation (Mki67, Ccnd1)[20–22], Schwann cell development (Sox10)[23], synapse elimination

(Cd68)[24,25], and pre-synaptic axonal projection (Gap43, Ntn1)[26,27]. Transcriptional activation of

denervation responsive genes and genes indicative of Schwann cell activation was observed in

both GTN and tibialis anterior (TA) muscles in *S100GFP*-tg S*od1*^{-/-} mice. Together, our functional

data and qPCR data show that between 1 and 3 months of age *S100GFP*-tg S*od1*^{-/-} mice

experience transient but recoverable functional neuromuscular alterations with upregulation of

molecular pathways known to be associated with NMJ remodeling. We next aimed to directly

assess the integrity of the NMJs morphologically and define the cellular response of the tSCs.

The remodeling of neuromuscular junctions is associated with increased numbers of tSCs

and larger synaptic areas. In addition to the functional and molecular assessments described

above, we directly assessed the cellular and morphological response during the denervation-

reinnervation event exhibited by *Sod1*^{-/-} mice. We performed detailed imaging of fixed fiber

bundles derived from *S100GFP*-tg S*od1*^{-/-} and *S100GFP*-tg controls at 1, 2, and 3 months of age.

Our comprehensive analysis covered NMJ structure, accounting for 16 distinct features related to

pre- and post-synaptic structures as well as tSC number and morphology (Fig. 2a,b). Detailed

descriptions of each morphological feature and how it was derived are described in Extended

Data Fig 1. Our findings revealed generalized decreases in *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice compared

to controls in the nerve terminal perimeter and the overlap of the nerve terminal with AChRs by

33% and 60% respectively (Fig. 2c). Meanwhile, the area of AChRs was observed to be 30%

larger in S100GFP-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice compared to controls. In addition, the total tSC area and count

per NMJ were 60% and 3-fold greater, respectively, in the *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} group compared

to controls (Fig. 2d). As a result of the large increase in tSC number, the area per tSC was 38%

smaller in *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice, suggesting a reduced tSC domain at the NMJ. Given that

both central and peripheral glia respond to neuronal injury by increasing cell number[5,28], increased

tSC number and area at the NMJ are likely acting to protect or promote NMJ integrity during the

early neuromuscular events linked to the *Sod1*^{-/-} phenotype.

Both the degree of overlap and the size of the synaptic area serve as indicators of how

well the pre- and post-synaptic components are in physical congruence[29]. These markers are

robust histological indicators of nerve-to-muscle connections. The percentage of overlap between

the nerve terminal and AChR was decreased at 2 months but returned to control levels by 3

months in *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice (Fig 2e). Re-establishment of control levels of overlap could

be explained primarily by presynaptic responses, compensatory postsynaptic changes, or a

combination. Our analysis revealed an expansion in synaptic area in between 2 and 3 months in

*S100*GFP-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice driven largely by an enlargement in nerve terminal area at the age of 3

months (Extended Data Fig 1c). The restoration in the degree of overlap coupled with the

reduction in denervated NMJs (characterized by NMJs with less than 10% overlap) (Fig. 2e)

observed at 3 months collectively indicate muscle reinnervation.

In addition to considering specific features associated with NMJ structure individually, we

also successfully distilled the 16 features of NMJ morphology measured into an overall

assessment of the state of the NMJs through unbiased clustering using uniform manifold

approximation and projection (UMAP) (Fig 2f) and k-means clustering (Fig 2g). This analysis

resulted in four distinct NMJ clusters (Fig 2g). Clusters 1, 2 and 3 were predominantly composed

of WT animals (all ages) and 1-month old *Sod1*^{-/-} mice. Cluster 4, on the other hand, was only

composed of NMJs from *Sod1*^{-/-} mice, with nearly 76% of the NMJs in 2-month-old mice appearing

in cluster 4. Consistent with the findings described above indicative of NMJ regeneration and

reinnervation by 3 months in *Sod1*^{-/-} mice, the majority of NMJs at this age appeared in one of the

"clusters associated with WT "innervated" NMJs; however, about 46% of the NMJs retained

features that placed them in cluster 4 (Fig 2g). The radar plots and representative images depicted

in Fig. 2h,i illustrate the distinctive NMJ feature compositions within each cluster. Clusters 1

through 3 exhibited a high degree of overlap, with each subsequent cluster containing

progressively larger NMJs. Cluster 4 is distinctive, presenting NMJs exhibiting higher numbers of

tSCs, smaller nerve terminal dimensions, larger post-synaptic proportions, prevalent poly-

innervation, and axonal blebbing. These results illuminate the heterogeneity and dynamic nature

of NMJ morphology as well as the spectrum of structural modifications observable during NMJ

remodeling in muscles experiencing partial denervation.

Based on our findings that NMJs in 2-month-old $Sod1^{-/-}$ mice were characterized by higher

numbers of tSCs than observed in other groups, we aimed to verify the presence of proliferation

of $S100$GFP+ cells at the NMJs in these mice. To directly test this, we stained muscle bundles

with an anti-Ki67 antibody (Fig. 3). We found large numbers of Ki67+ nuclei in the fiber bundles

from $Sod1^{-/-}$ mice compared to age matched WT mice. Moreover, the majority of Ki67+ nuclei

originated from cells that were also $S100$GFP+ positive. Ki67+ cells were observed both in

perisynaptic and extrasynaptic locations (within 50 microns of the nearest NMJ). These

observations corroborate our earlier finding of a 3-fold increase in tSCs, in $Sod1^{-/-}$ mice at two

months of age when compared to wild-type controls (Fig. 2c).

Collectively, our functional and morphological data strongly support the existence of a key

regenerative window centered around 2 months of age in $Sod1^{-/-}$mice that is ideal for studying the

cellular and molecular changes in muscle Schwann cells during NMJ remodeling and

reinnervation. We also present compelling evidence that this remodeling process includes, at

least in part, the growth of Schwann cells located in the muscle at the NMJ and a promotion of

increased synaptic area through nerve terminal growth. Thus, we next aimed to define the

transcriptional response of muscle-resident Schwann cells during NMJ remodeling.

scRNA-Seq reveals a unique muscle-resident Schwann cell subtype. While the classification

of Schwann cells has largely relied on histological examination and scRNA-Seq from nerve

extracts[30], transcriptomic data on muscle-resident Schwann cells, especially tSCs, remain

scant[31,32]. A particular challenge faced by these studies is the rarity of tSCs and the extensive

tissue requirement, limiting the cell numbers previously analyzed to as few as 100 individual cells.

To overcome this limitation and gain a thorough understanding of the transcriptomic changes in

muscle-resident Schwann cells, as well as other cells in the muscle microenvironment during NMJ

remodeling, we used scRNA-Seq on pooled TA and GTN muscles from both *S100GFP*-tg and

S100GFP-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice at 2 months of age (Fig 4a). After digesting the muscles, we sorted

GFP+ PI- and GFP- PI- single cells using fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) and then

subjected the cells to droplet-based scRNA-Seq. Post sequencing and quality control, we

successfully isolated a rich population of both GFP+ and GFP- cells (Fig. 4b). Our unbiased

clustering approach using uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) classified

15,256 cells [*S100GFP*-tg (n =5,260); *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} (n = 9,996)] into 11 non-Schwann cell

clusters and 4 Schwann cell clusters including 2 myelin Schwann cell clusters and 2 terminal

Schwann cell (tSC) clusters (Fig 4c). All the identified Schwann cell clusters displayed classic SC

markers such as *S100b* and *Sox10*. Notably, clusters of myelin Schwann cells were marked by

the expression of myelin-associated genes like *Mbp* and *Mpz* (Fig. 4d), while tSC clusters

presented the expression of recently reported non-myelin SC markers, *Ng2* and *Kir4.1* (Fig.

4d)[31,33]. Additionally, tSC clusters prominently expressed the essential NMJ organizing gene,

Agrn[34], the neurotrophic receptor gene, nerve growth factor receptor (Ngfr), and cyclin-D1

(Ccnd1) a recognized gene associated with Schwann cell proliferation (Fig. 4d)[22]. Both *S100GFP*-

tg and *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} samples displayed a comparable total number of Schwann cells (1,739

and 1,673, respectively).

Our data indicates the presence of at least two distinct tSC subgroups, which we termed

tSC-A and tSC-B.   Remarkably, we observed 8.5-fold greater representation of the tSC-B

subgroup in *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice than in *S100GFP*-tg control mice accounting for 35.9% of

the total SC population in *Sod1*^{-/-} mice compared with just 4.3% for control mice (Fig. 4e). In

addition, the *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-}samples showed a lower percentage of myelin SCs (47.8%)

when compared to the 78.8% in the control group. Both tSC clusters prominently displayed the

previously identified tSC marker, Cd44[35], as well as the synaptic adhesion molecule, Cadm1. One

significant observation was the robust expression in tSCs of Sox6, which is crucial for

neurogenesis[36] and prevents early cell cycle exit in glial oligodendrocyte precursor cells[37] but is

absent in adult mouse mSCs[38]. Within the tSC-B subgroup, we identified specific expression of

genes such as Pde10a, which is notably prevalent in the CNS[39], as well as Runx2 and Tnc, which

were specific to tSC-B (Fig. 4f) and have both recently been found at elevated levels in muscle-

resident Schwann cells in Sod1G93A mice and in acutely denervated mouse muscles[32].

Pathway analysis revealed that genes upregulated in the tSC-B cluster, compared to the

other muscle-resident Schwann cell types, were primarily involved in processes like synapse

organization (*Gap43, Tnc, Sema3e, Negr1, Cadm1, Ntng1*), neuron projection extension (*Postn,*

Plxna4, Sema3e), neuron migration (Adgrl3, Chl1, Ptpzr1) and extracellular matrix organizing

processes (*Adamtsl1*, *Col27a1*, *Col5a2*, *Lgals3*) (Fig. 4g, Extended Data Fig. 3). The tSC-B

cluster also showed downregulated biological processes involved in myelination, myelin assembly

and Schwann cell differentiation (Fig. 4h). Overall, our findings delineate two distinct tSC

subtypes, tSC-A and tSC-B, with the latter manifesting an enrichment in 2-month-old *Sod1*^{-/-} mice

and presenting a transcriptomic signature linked to cell adhesion, synapse organization, and axon

regeneration. Based on these findings, we hypothesize that tSC-B is a critical sub-population of

tSCs for successful NMJ reinnervation.

Intercellular communication network analysis reveals a novel Spp1 signaling dynamic

between myelin SCs and terminal SCs. To elucidate the interactions between muscle-resident

Schwann cells and other cells within the skeletal muscle niche during the robust NMJ remodeling

event identified in young *Sod1*^{-/-} mice, we performed an intercellular communication network

analysis on a subset of cells from our scRNA-Seq dataset using CellChat[40]. Information flow for

secreted signaling pathways was performed to identify signaling pathways that are changed in

S100GFP-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} muscles relative to control. We observed that Growth Arrest Specific (GAS)

signaling, a crucial regulator of proliferation inhibition, was predominantly expressed in myelin

SCs of *S100GFP*-tg compared to *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 5a, Extended Fig. 4b). GAS

incoming signaling pattern was found to be low in the proliferating cell and tSC-B cell clusters

(Extended Fig. 4a). Interestingly, the PERIOSTIN and SPP1 signaling network displayed an

information flow magnitude that was amplified by 40-fold in the *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} group relative

to the *S100GFP*-tg group (Fig 5a). Both periostin and Spp1 signaling have been implicated in

promoting tumor cell growth and are also known to be upregulated following nerve injury.

Our finding of marked induction of Spp1 signaling in *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice is

compelling in light of a recent study finding that Spp1 promotes Schwann cell proliferation and

survival, and its expression is notably upregulated in myelin Schwann cells following human

peripheral nerve injury[41]. Exploring Spp1 signaling in our dataset, we identified a predominant

expression of Spp1 in myelin SCs (Fig. 5b,c). While SPP1 appears to communicate with almost

every cell type, a marked increase in inferred SPP1 signaling was observed in *Sod1*^{-/-} mice (Fig

5c). Moreover, heightened incoming signals were predicted in tSC-B cells, alongside other cells,

including mesenchymal stem cells and proliferative cells (Fig. 5c, Extended Data Fig. 4b).

Notably, a significant communication probability was observed between myelin Schwann cells,

mainly mSC-A, and tSCs in *Sod1*^{-/-} mice, facilitated through the Spp1-Cd44 and Spp1-(Itgav-

Itgab1) signaling (Fig 5d).

To validate our CellChat findings, we performed targeted RT-qPCR to evaluate the

expression levels of key genes within the Spp1 pathway in GTN muscles isolated from 2-month-

old *S100GFP*-tg and *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 5e). We showed upregulation in the

expression of Tgfb1, Tgfbr2, and Spp1 in *Sod1*^{-/-} mice. While Cd44 levels remained unchanged,

we detected a borderline significant elevation in Cd44v6 ($p = 0.052$), the specific receptor variant

of Cd44 known to bind Spp1. We next sought to confirm our scRNA-Seq and bioinformatic findings

by pinpointing the protein localization of Spp1 in muscle fibers. Histological analysis using an

Spp1 antibody on fixed muscle fiber bundles revealed pronounced localization of Spp1 in myelin

SCs near the NMJ, with intensified staining observed in *Sod1*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 5g) compared to control

(Fig. 5f). In addition, we validated the protein localization of CD44 in tSCs (Extended Data Fig.

4c). Taken together, our findings illuminate a novel Spp1 signaling mechanism involving both

myelin SCs and tSCs, which could play a role in enhancing the tSC proliferation and survival

during muscle denervation important for successful NMJ remodeling and reinnervation.

Spp1 gene expression is markedly increased in muscles following nerve injury. To explore

whether an acute recoverable nerve injury alters the gene expression dynamics of Spp1 signaling

in skeletal muscle, we performed sciatic nerve crush procedures on 2-month-old C57BL/6 mice

(Fig. 6a). Subsequently, we assessed transcript levels of denervation response pathways and

genes involved in SPP1 signaling in GTN muscles in naïve non-injured controls, and 7-, 14-, and

28-days post injury (DPI). We observed a striking elevation in Spp1 expression, and its receptors

Cd44 and Itgav, peaking at 7 DPI and subsequently reverting to baseline levels by 14 DPI (Fig

6b). This temporal trend closely parallels the known post nerve injury gene expression pattern of

Chrna1[13], suggesting an inverse relationship with muscle innervation. In addition, Tgfb1 and its

receptor Tgfbr2, proposed to be upstream of Spp1 signaling were also elevated at 7 DPI, with

Tgfbr2 expression being reduced at 28 DPI compared to uninjured controls. Gene expression for

NGFR and GDNF, which are associated with Schwann cell mediated nerve regeneration, were

also highly expressed at 7 DPI, while the cell proliferation gene, Ccnd1, was elevated at 7 DPI

and persisted at high levels out to 14 DPI. Protein localization of Spp1 was also validated using

immunofluorescent imaging of muscle fiber bundles, which showed Spp1 localized to myelin

Schwann cells, as well as other GFP+ cells and GFP- cells (Extended Data Fig. 5). The

pronounced Spp1 expression during the initial nerve regeneration phase and its subsequent

normalization is consistent with known muscle reinnervation milestones and implicates the

potential involvement of Spp1 in muscle reinnervation.

Inhibition of muscle Spp1 after acute nerve injury results in reduced muscle reinnervation

and fewer tSCs. To determine the role of Spp1 signaling in muscle reinnervation and its potential

mediation of tSC responses post-nerve injury, we carried out peroneal nerve crush injuries on

control *S100GFP*-tg mice and administered intramuscular injections of either an Spp1 neutralizing

antibody (Spp1-nAb) or saline (Fig 6c). Evaluations of recovery of functional neurotransmission

as assessed by the ability of nerve stimulation to activate muscle contractions and tSC

characteristics were conducted at 7 DPI. To expedite the evaluation of the onset of muscle

reinnervation and reduce the number of muscle injections, nerve injuries were strategically

performed near the nerve entry point of the TA muscle, with muscles receiving injections at the

time of injury and every two days thereafter. Evoked force measurements by direct muscle

stimulation showed no difference between the saline- and Spp1-nAb-treated groups; however,

nerve evoked muscle forces were 43% lower for muscles of mice treated with Spp1-nAb (Fig 6d).

Furthermore, nerve-to-muscle force ratios in Spp1-nAb administered mice were 38% lower than

for muscles of saline-treated mice. Collectively, these findings suggest that functional

reinnervation post-injury was either impaired or delayed by neutralizing intramuscular Spp1

signaling.

We concurrently evaluated the effects of intramuscular Spp1 neutralization on tSCs in

fixed muscle fiber bundles following injury histologically (Fig. 6e). Mice treated with Spp1-nAb at

7 DPI displayed a pronounced decrease in the nerve terminal area, perimeter, and synaptic area

in comparison to the saline-treated controls (Fig 6f). In terms of denervated NMJs, the Spp1-nAb-

treated group exhibited a significantly higher proportion of denervated muscle fibers relative to

the saline-treated group (67% Spp1-nAb vs 33% saline), and NMJ synaptic area was also lower

in Spp1-nAb mice. Further examination of tSC characteristics revealed a diminished number of

tSCs per NMJ and a smaller tSC area for muscles that had Spp1 signaling inhibited (Fig 6f).

Taken together, this evidence, coupled with our functional analyses, underscores the role of Spp1

in muscle reinnervation and its involvement in augmenting the tSC count at the NMJ.

Discussion

To our knowledge, the current study boasts the most detailed scRNA-Seq repository to

date of muscle-resident Schwann cells, encompassing tSCs, across both healthy and partially

denervated muscles. The results presented elucidate the critical role of a previously unrecognized

reactive population of tSCs that has synapse promoting, cell adhesion, and ECM organizing

properties. One prior study isolated tSCs using a dual mouse reporter that expressed both NG2-

dsRed and S100GFP and performed bulk-RNA Seq[31], but bulk sequencing doesn't allow for the

distinction between different tSC subtypes or illuminate cell specific responses to NMJ

remodeling. Our data also demonstrate that this reactive phenotype is underpinned by an intricate

SPP1 signaling mechanism, bridging myelin Schwann cells and tSCs. Our observations of

marked elevations in both Spp1 gene expression and protein immunofluorescence in the acute

phase post muscle denervation is consistent with prior reports of induction of Spp1 in samples

from nerve injury patients[41], and we show for the first time that Spp1 expression has functional

relevance for the efficacy and/or efficiency of the response of tSCs to effect NMJ reinnervation.

This significant conclusion is supported by our observations of increased tSC numbers following

peroneal nerve injury that were notably decreased following intramuscular administration of an

Spp1-nAb resulting in a diminished synaptic contact area, a pronounced percentage of

denervated NMJs, and impaired recovery of functional innervation. Collectively, our findings

suggest a pivotal role of Spp1 signaling, facilitated by myelin Schwann cells, in regulating tSC

proliferation and reinnervation of denervated NMJs.

While upregulation of Spp1 in muscles of patients suffering from Duchenne Muscular

Dystrophy (DMD)[42] and in mice following exercise[43] has been reported, our study uncovers a

novel cellular origin contributing to this signaling — originating from muscle-resident myelin

Schwann cells, rather than or perhaps in addition to macrophages targeting Fibro/adipogenic

progenitors (FAPs)[43–45]. The strong induction of Spp1 signaling pathway transcripts we observed

concurrent with intense Spp1 immunofluorescence in skeletal muscle after nerve injury suggests

Spp1 may have multiple functions to mediate muscle reinnervation. Integral to muscle

reinnervation is Wallerian degeneration, a process governed by dynamic interactions among

immune cells, FAPs, and Schwann cells. Thus, it is reasonable to hypothesize that Spp1 engages

with multiple cell types in response to severe nerve trauma, such as nerve crush or nerve

transection, to facilitate myelin clearance, ECM remodeling, and axon regeneration. In contrast,

our observations, based on both imaging for protein and scRNA-Seq, of no significant Spp1

signaling stemming from immune cells in muscles of $Sod1^{-/-}$ mice disrupts conventional

understanding of Spp1 signaling in muscle. These findings open the door for additional studies of

the necessity for engaging immune cells during transient physiological innervation remodeling.

Spp1 signaling between glial cell subtypes is further supported by recent investigations showing

elevated levels of Spp1 in nerve samples post-injury, which positively correlated with Schwann

cell proliferation and survival[41]. Furthermore, Spp1 has neuroprotective roles in the eye and is

expressed by reactive astrocytes to promote retinal ganglion cell survival after traumatic optic

nerve damage[46]. Beyond this regenerative aspect, Spp1 is implicated in pathological contexts,

including tumor growth and metastasis, highlighting its versatility and likely the complexity of its

regulation in promoting cell survival and growth in various contexts and cell types.

The synaptic regenerative signature we identified in tSCs during their response to

denervation is distinctly characterized by the expression of *Gap43* and *Ntng1*. Gap43 is noted for

its concentrated presence within regenerating growth cones of neurons and plays an

indispensable role in axon guidance[47]. The expression of Gap43 is not exclusive to neurons but

is also found in reactive astrocytes and in tSCs after denervation, correlating with the elongation

of tSC processes[48,49]. Beyond axonal guidance, Gap43 is also involved in the transfer of

mitochondria between astrocytes and glioblastoma cells[50]. Given that mitochondria are abundant

within growth cones to meet energy demands[51], one might speculate that Gap43+ tSCs promote

axon regeneration through mitochondrial transfer, thereby contributing to metabolic support. This

proposition opens new areas for exploring unconventional pathways of axon regeneration and

delineating the multifaceted roles of Gap43 in neural repair mechanisms. Netrins are also

important for axon guidance and has been shown to promote SC migration and proliferation[52,53].

Recently, Ntng1 was discerned to facilitate signaling interactions between tSCs and sensory

neurons, crucial for organogenesis in both hairy and non-hairy skin[54]. The expression of *Ntn1g* in

muscle-resident tSCs could function to support reinnervation of the endplate after denervation.

Collectively, the expression of synaptic related genes in tSCs highlights the potential for new

therapeutic targets to promote NMJ repair.

Cellular proliferation is universally recognized as a fundamental mechanism in various

tissue regeneration processes. The proliferation dynamics of myelin Schwann cells have been

extensively studied, with nerve injuries recognized as their primary trigger. A pertinent example

is the marked 3 to 4-fold elevation in Schwann cell numbers observed within a week of sciatic

nerve injury[55]. Although inhibition of Cyclin D1 mediated Schwann cell proliferation was ineffective

in preventing nerve regeneration in the distal sciatic nerve stump[56], that study did not examine

muscle-resident Schwann cells nor perform any functional assessment of NMJ transmission. tSCs

not only proliferate after nerve injury but also extend cytoplasmic processes, promoting axonal

sprouting, although the cellular signals remain under studied[5,57]. Further highlighting the

importance of tSCs for nerve regeneration, a recent study used an anti-GD3 antibody to

selectively eliminate tSCs after a peroneal nerve injury. The result was a reduction in the number

of tSCs, decreased muscle reinnervation, and impaired functional recovery[6]. Our study

significantly expands on these previous studies by providing novel understanding of the role of

Spp1-signaling acting on Schwann cells near the NMJ and its importance for the regeneration of

NMJs.

Our research further highlights the *Sod1*^{-/-} mice as a useful model for understanding NMJ

repair processes and tSC responses during the remodeling of innervation. In support of this

contention are our observations during the remodeling phase, of key characteristics reminiscent

of NMJ regeneration, such as increased AChR area, tSC proliferation[5], polyinnervation[58], and

axonal blebbing[59]. Unlike nerve injury, which denervates every fiber leading to a lack of NMJ

structural diversity, young *Sod1*-/- mice recapitulate what we postulate to be a more faithful

representation of NMJ remodeling in the context of normal aging and/or degenerative

neuromuscular diseases. Recognizing the potency of this model for investigating NMJ diversity

and the response of muscle-resident Schwann cells to denervation propelled our decision to

perform single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-Seq) of muscle niche cells, emphasizing GFP+

Schwann cells, which identified two distinct subtypes each for myelin Schwann cells and tSCs. A

particular tSC subtype demonstrated traits related to ECM organization and synapse promotion

and was considerably enriched in the *Sod1*-/- muscles at 2-months of age, supporting their

important role in NMJ regeneration.

Overall, our research deepens the existing knowledge on the intricate cellular processes

of NMJ regeneration orchestrated by Schwann cells. Specifically, we highlight the importance of

Spp1 signaling and elucidate the distinct roles played by specialized subtypes of muscle-resident

Schwann cells. These insights not only expand our understanding of neuromuscular biology but

also present promising avenues for targeted therapeutic strategies. Such innovations hold the

potential to revolutionize the treatment landscape for debilitating neuromuscular disorders,

including ALS and sarcopenia.

Study Approval

All animal experiments were approved by the University of Michigan Institutional Animal Care and

Use committee (IACUC)(PRO00008744).

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

Methods

Animal Models. All experimental procedures were approved by the University of Michigan Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (PRO00010548) and conducted in accordance with National Institutes of Health guidelines. Animals were sacrificed via intraperitoneal injection of tribromoethanol, followed by administration of a pneumothorax.

All mice used for experimentation were bred at the University of Michigan with $Sod1^{-/-}$ and WT mice initially provided generously by Dr. Holly Van Remmen while she was at the University of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio[60]. Mice expressing enhanced Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP) driven by the S100B promoter to visualize Schwann cells (S100GFP-tg Kosmos mice)[14] were generously provided by Dr. Alison Snyder-Warwick at Washington University in St. Louis, MO. *S100GFP*-tg mice were crossed with $Sod1^{-/-}$ mice to form a first generation of mice that contained a knockout allele for Sod1 and wild type allele for the Sod1 gene and the S100GFP transgene, S100GFP-tg $Sod1^{+/-}$. First generation mice were crossed to generate a second generation of $Sod1^{-/-}$ mice expressing GFP under the S100B promoter to be used for our experiments. To maintain a stable colony of *S100GFP*-tg $Sod1^{-/-}$ mice, male *S100GFP*-tg $Sod1^{-/-}$ and female S100GFP-tg $Sod1^{+/-}$ mice were consistently bred to produce litters with approximately 50% of the mice containing the experimental genotype, *S100GFP*-tg $Sod1^{-/-}$. Control mice in this study contain the genotype, S100GFP-tg $Sod1^{+/+}$, simply referred to as S100GFP-tg.

***In situ* Force Testing.** Mice were anesthetized with initial intraperitoneal injections of Avertin (tribromoethanol, 250 mg/kg) with supplemental injections to maintain an adequate level of anesthesia during all procedures. Gastrocnemius (GTN) or tibialis anterior (TA) muscle contractile properties were measured in situ, as described by Larkin et al. (2011)[61]. In anesthetized mice, the whole GTN or TA muscle was isolated from surrounding muscle and connective tissue using great care not to damage the nerve and/or blood vessels during the dissection. A 4-0 silk suture was tied around the distal tendon and the tendon was severed. The animal was then placed on a

temperature-controlled platform warmed to maintain body temperature at 37°C. The hindlimb was

secures to the platform, and the tendon was tied to the lever arm of a servomotor (model 6650LR,

Cambridge Technology). A continual drip of saline warmed to 37°C was administered to the

muscles to maintain temperature. Muscle were activated either by stimulation of the tibial (GTN

muscle) or common peroneal (TA muscle) nerve using a bipolar platinum wire electrode or by

direct stimulation of the muscle via cuff electrodes wrapped around the proximal and distal ends

of the muscle. Custom-designed software (LabVIEW 2018; National Instruments, Austin, TX)

controlled electrical pulse properties and servomotor activity and recorded data from the force

transducer. The voltage of 0.2 ms stimulus pulses was increased, and optimal muscle length (Lo)

was subsequently adjusted, to give maximum twitch force. The Lo was measured with digital

calipers. Muscles were held at Lo and subjected to 300 ms trains of pulses with increase

stimulation frequencies maximum isometric force (Po) was achieved. Previously established Lf-

to-Lo ratios of 0.45 for GTN muscles and 0.6 for TA muscles were used to calculate Lf for each

muscle. The physiological cross-sectional area (CSA) of muscles was determined by dividing the

mass of the muscle by the product of Lf and 1.06 g/cm3, the density of mammalian skeletal

muscle[62]. Po was normalized by the CSA to calculate specific Po (sPo), as a measure of intrinsic

force generating capacity. Functional innervation was assessed by calculating the ratio of force

production in response to nerve stimulation relative to the force elicited by direct muscle

stimulation. A value of 1.0 indicates high fidelity of the nerve-muscle functional connections, while

the extent to which the ratio is less than 1.0 provides an indication of the fraction of muscle fibers

that are unable to respond to nerve stimulation.

Immunofluorescent Staining and Imaging. Animals were sacrificed and the muscles were fixed

in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS for 15 min and sucrose protected overnight with 20%

sucrose, followed by embedding in optimal cutting temperature (OCT) compound (Tissue Tek)

and stored at -80°C prior to use. For visualization and examination of neuromuscular junction

(NMJ) structure, muscles were dissected using fine forceps to tease muscle fibers into layers

consisting of a maximum of 10-20 muscle fibers. The samples were then treated with ice cold

methanol for 30 seconds, washed 3 times in PBS for 5 min each, then blocked for 30 minutes at

room temperature in 5% goat serum, PBS, triton X-100 (0.5%), and 2% bovine serum albumin

(BSA). Fab fragments (10% in blocking solution) were used to block endogenous IgG before

applying any mouse monoclonal primary antibodies. Muscle fiber bundles were then stained with

antibodies and mounted on a slide, and coverslips were applied.

Primary antibodies used for this experiment were as follows: a combination of NF and SV2

(Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank) for labeling α-motor axon terminals and axons, anti-

S100 (Dako, Z0311) to enhance labeling of all SCs, anti-Ki67 (rat), anti-SPP1 (Abcam, ab8448),

and anti-CD44 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 50-143-16). Secondary antibodies consisted of Alex

Fluors that were conjugated to the secondary antibodies (Life Technologies). α-BTX conjugated

to Alexa Fluor 555 (Invitrogen, B35451) was used to label the acetylcholine receptors (AChR),

and 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) was used to label all nuclei.

A Nikon A1 high-sensitivity confocal laser scanning microscope with 40× oil immersion

objective was used to capture 16-bit, 512×512-pixel frame size, Z-stack images with 1 μm interval.

A minimum of 20-30 NMJs were acquired per animal.

NMJ feature quantification. Fiji software was used for quantitative analysis of confocal

micrographs. All analyses were performed on maximum intensity projections using guidelines

described in detail in the NMJ-Morph image processing pipeline.[29] The obtained images were

preserved as nd2 Nikon files and subsequently imported into ImageJ software, with channels

consolidated into a single tiff image prior to their separation for individual component analysis.

Initial preparations involved the division and cropping of images to ensure each contained a

singular NMJ, enabling individual analysis of each NMJ. The analysis was constrained to en-face

NMJs only.

For each channel, a threshold was set using the thresholding tool to produce a binary

mask that most closely resembled the real image of the NMJ component being analyzed. The

binary mask was selected and measured to provide the area and perimeter of the selected

channel (Extended Data Fig 1). The endplate mask was generated by applying the 'Create

background' FIJI tool on the AChR mask, which completely fills in the AChR mask. Endplate area

and diameter were also measured (Extended Data Fig. 1a). This process was repeated for every

NMJ image, for each of the NMJ components.

The 'Overlap' and 'SC Coverage' measurements (Extended Data Fig 1d,e) were derived

in accordance to NMJ-Morph guidelines. Briefly, the following calculations were used:

530
$$Overlap, SC\ Coverage = \left[\frac{AchR\ Area - unoccupied\ area\ of\ AChR}{AChR\ Area} \right] \times 100$$

531
532
533
$$Synaptic, SC\ Coverage\ Area\ =\ AchR\ Area - unnocupied\ area\ of\ AChR$$

534
The unoccupied area denotes regions lacking colocalization with α-BTX. Following the generation

of a binary mask for calculating the AChR, nerve teriminal, and tSC areas (Extended Data Fig.

1a-c), the masks were processed, inverted as needed, and merged to measure unoccupied areas

of AChR. Beyond structural area measurements, attention was given to NMJs manifesting visible

polyinnervation—characterized by the convergence of at least two axons onto a single NMJ

(Extended Data Fig. 1f). Furthermore, the presence of axon terminal blebs per NMJ was recorded

(Extended Data Fig. 1f).

NMJ UMAP and k-means clustering analysis. Raw data for all sixteen NMJ features described

above were imported into *R*. The numeric dataset underwent Z-score normalization through the

scale() function in *R*. This normalization ensured a transformation of every individual feature to

attain a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1, critical for subsequent analyses. Uniform

Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) was performed, using the 'umap' package on R,

on the scaled data using a fixed seed to ensure reproducibility. An elbow method was utilized to

determine the optimal number of clusters[63]. Within-cluster sum of squares was computed for each

'k', and an elbow curve was plotted to visually inspect the optimal number of clusters. After re-

establishing the seed to maintain result consistency during k-means clustering, four was

established as the optimal number of clusters. Using the kmeans() function in *R* each NMJ was

assigned to a specific cluster. The generated clusters were then visualized and overlaid on the

original UMAP plot to depict the identified groupings distinctly. All plots were generated using

ggplot2.

Quantification of Perisynaptic and Extrasynaptic Ki67+ Nuclei. Muscle fiber bundles from 2-

month-old *S100GFP*-tg and *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1$^{-/-}$* were processed and stained with anti-Ki67,

DAPI, α-BTX, and anti-S100B to delineate nuclei and cellular structures. Confocal imaging was

performed using a Nikon A1 microscope, with images captured at 20X and 40X magnifications.

The imaging focused on fields containing NMJs along with visualization of the surrounding areas.

Classification of perisynaptic Ki67+ nuclei involved those being DAPI+ Ki67+ and overlapping

with α-BTX stain. Perisynaptic Ki67+ GFP+ nuclei were identified as DAPI+ Ki67+ S100GFP+

and overlapping with an endplate (α-BTX stain). Extrasynaptic Ki67+ nuclei were those located

within 50 μm from the nearest endplate. The quantification was normalized by the number of

NMJs per image field to ensure comparability across different fields and conditions.

Single cell isolation via FACS. For tissue collection, mice were anesthetized with 3% isoflurane,

then euthanized by cervical dislocation, bilateral pneumothorax, and removal of the heart. Hind

limb muscles (TA and GTN) of control and experimental mice were quickly harvested using sterile

surgical tools and placed in separate plastic petri dishes containing cold phosphate-buffered

saline (PBS). Using surgical scissors, muscle tissues were minced and transferred into 50 mL

conical tubes containing 20 mL of digest solution (2.5 U/mL Dispase II and 0.2% [~1000 U/mL]

Collagenase Type II, 1 mg/mL of hyaluronidase in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium [DMEM]

per mouse). Samples were incubated on a rocker placed in a 37℃ incubator for 60 min with

manual pipetting the solution up and down to break up tissue every 30 min using an FBS-coated

10 mL serological pipette. Once the digestion was completed, 20 mL of F12 media containing

20% heat inactivated FBS was added into each sample to inactivate enzyme activity. The solution

was then filtered through a 70 mm cell strainer into a new 50 mL conical tube and centrifuged

again at 300g for 5 min. Live cells were sorted from the suspension via addition of 1 μg of

propidium iodide (PI) stain into each experimental sample and all samples were filtered through

70 mm cell strainers before the FACS. Cell sorting was done using a BD FACS Aria III Cell Sorter

(BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA). GFP+ PI- and GFP- PI- cells were sorted into 0.02% BSA PBS

solution for immediate processing.

scRNA sequencing. Freshly isolated single cells were sorted into staining solution, enumerated

by hemocytometer, and re- suspended into PBS. Cells were loaded into the 10X Genomics

chromium single cell controller for each sample and captured into nanoliter-scale gel bead-in-

emulsions. cDNAs were prepared using the single cell 30 Protocol as per manufacturer's

instructions and sequenced on a NovaSeq instrument (Illumina) with 26 bases for read 1 and 98

bases for read 2.

scRNA-Seq data processing and analysis. Cell Ranger 7.1.0 (10X Genomics) was used to

process raw data. The CellRanger workflow aligns sequencing reads to the mm10 transcriptome

using the STAR aligner and exports count data[64]. The CellRanger count command was run with

default parameters. Filtered feature barcode data were imported into Seurat (v4.3)[65]. Ambient

RNA was removed using Decontx[66] and only cells with greater than 200 genes and <10%

mitochondrial reads were included in our analysis. Scaling, normalization, variable gene selection,

dimensionality reduction, and clustering were performed with default settings using the Seurat.

Cell types were assigned to each cluster using known marker genes. Pathway analysis was

performed using enrichGO() function in clusterProfiler[67] with the default parameters and used

gene markers that were upregulated (log2FC > 1) in the tSC-B cluster compared to all other

muscle-resident Schwann cells as the gene list. Upregulated genes were determined using the

FindMarkers() function in Seurat. Secreted signaling intercellular interaction analysis was

performed using the CellChat package with standard parameters and setting the CellChat

database to "Secreted Signaling".[40]

Whole-tissue RNA extraction and RT-qPCR Analysis. GTN and TA muscle samples were

homogenized in TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific) using a bead mill. RNA was

isolated by phenol/chloroform extraction and RNA yield was determined using a NanoDrop

Spectrophotometer (NanoDrop 2000c, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Genomic DNA was removed by

incubation with DNase I (Ambion, Thermo Fisher Scientific, AM2222) followed by its heat

inactivation. Total RNA (1 µg) was reverse-transcribed to cDNA using SuperScript III Master Mix,

Random Hexamers, and dNTPs (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and RT-qPCR performed

on a CFX96 Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad, 1855195) in triplicate 20 µL reactions

of iTaq Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad, 1725124) with 1 µM forward and reverse

primer. Relative mRNA expression was determined using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method with Gapdh serving

as a control for the samples.

Nerve injuries and neutralization of intramuscular Spp1. Male C57BL/6J mice, aged between

10 - 16 weeks, were subjected to bilateral sciatic or peroneal nerve crush to induce muscle

denervation in both legs. Forceps were employed to produce the crush. Mice assigned to sciatic

nerve injury protocols had tissues harvested at intervals of 0, 7, 14, or 28 days following the injury.

For those undergoing peroneal nerve injury, a 10 µL intramuscular injection of Spp1 neutralizing

antibody (4 µg, AF808, R&D Systems) was administered into the tibialis anterior (TA) muscles,

utilizing a Hamilton syringe. This injection routine was repeated every two days post the initial

injury. Control mice received saline injections concurrent with the day of injury and repeated every

two days thereafter. Seven days post injury (DPI), all mice were anesthetized and TA muscles

were assessed for contractile functionality and collected for NMJ imaging.

Statistical analysis.   Data are presented as the mean ± SEM. All statistical analyses were

performed using GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software) and *R*. Between-group differences

were tested by two-tailed unpaired students t-tests (2 groups) or by a one-way analysis of variance

(ANOVA) followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. A two-way ANOVA followed by

Tukey's multiple comparison's test was executed when two factors were involved. Differences

were considered to be statistically significant at the $P < 0.05$ level (*p < 0.05, **p<0.01, ***p $<$

0.001, ns: not significant).

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Fig. 1| Muscle mechanics and transcriptional profiling of canonical markers reveals a marked but transient denervation/reinnervation response in young *S100GFP*-tg S*od1*-/- mice. a, Illustration of in situ muscle force testing protocol used to determine NMJ transmission. Evoked muscle forces were evaluated in gastrocnemius (GTN) muscles from anesthetized mice by stimulating directly at the muscle or by indirect stimulation of the sciatic nerve. **b**, Representative force traces for muscles of *S100GFP*-tg (blue) and *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*-/- (teal) mice. Specific forces (N/cm^2) (n = 4 per genotype) evoked during maximum tetanic contractions. **c**, Ratio of maximum isometric forces elicited by nerve stimulation relative to direct muscle stimulation across 1-3 months of age in *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*-/- (n = 3-5) and *S100GFP*-tg control mice (n = 3-5). **d**, RT-qPCR of canonical markers of NMJ regeneration, Schwann cell repair activation, cell proliferation, and axonal projection in whole GTN (n = 4-6) and tibialis anterior (TA) muscles (n = 4-6) of *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*-/- and *S100GFP*-tg control mice. Open circles indicate values for each individual mouse and bars represent the mean response ± SEM. *P ≤ 0.05, **P ≤ 0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001, ****P ≤ 0.0001 *S100GFP*-tg vs *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*-/- by two tailed unpaired t-test or 1-way ANOVA for multiple comparisons.

a NMJ Analysis

Original Image
Masks/Measurements

Feature 1,
Feature 2,
Feature 3,
...Feature 16

b S100GFP-tg

BTX NF/SV2   S100B DAPI   Merge

S100GFP-tg Sod1⁻/⁻

BTX NF/SV2   S100B DAPI   Merge

c
Nerve Terminal Area — ns
Nerve Terminal Perimeter — *
AChR Area — *
Overlap — ****

d
tSC Number — ****
tSC Area — ****

e
● S100GFP-tg
■ S100GFP-tg Sod1⁻/⁻
Denervated NMJs
**** / ***
Age (mo)

f Data Input

Feature 1,
Feature 2,
Feature 3,
...Feature 16

UMAP_2 vs UMAP_1

S100GFP-tg: 1mo, 2mo, 3mo
S100GFP-tg Sod1⁻/⁻: 1mo, 2mo, 3mo

g K-Means

Cluster 1, 2, 3, 4

Age (mo) 1 2 3 | 1 2 3
S100GFP-tg | S100GFP-tg Sod1⁻/⁻

h Cluster 1 | Cluster 2 | Cluster 3 | Cluster 4

Pre-Synaptic Features / tSC Features / Post-Synaptic Features
NT Perim, NT Area, tSC Coverage, tSC Coverage Area, Overlap, Syn Area, EP Dia, EP Perim, EP Area, AChR Perim, AChR Area, tSC No., tSC Perim, tSC Area, Blebs, Poly. In

i High Overlap — Low Overlap

Cluster 1 | Cluster 2 | Cluster 3 | Cluster 4

BTX NF/SV2 S100B DAPI

NMJ Size

Fig. 2| The remodeling of neuromuscular junctions (NMJs) is associated with greater tSC numbers and larger synaptic areas in *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice. a, Schematic of NMJ analysis – consisting of collecting NMJs images from muscle fiber bundles followed by the generation of feature masks and their measurements. Additional details on the generation of the masks is provided in Extended Data Figure 1 and Methods. **b**, NMJs stained with S100B (Schwann cells; Green), NF/SV2 (Nerve; Cyan), bungarotoxin (AChR; Red), and DAPI (nucleus; Blue) in 2-month-old *S100GFP*-tg control and *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice. **c,d,** Quantification of nerve terminal area, nerve terminal perimeter, AChR area, percentage overlap between AChR area and nerve terminal area, and tSC number and tSC area. **e**, Overlap between nerve terminal and AChR and the % of denervated NMJs for muscles of *S100GFP*-tg and *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice from 1-3 months of age. **f**, The 16 distinct morphological features from all NMJs (n = 522) across all recorded timepoints and genotypes were used to generate a UMAP visualization of the heterogeneity of NMJ structure. **g**, UMAP displayed using k-means clustering and the percentage of clusters represented across all animal groups. **h,** Radar plots indicating the NMJ features (n = 16) profiled across the four identified clusters. The innermost radius of the plot indicates a value of "0" representing the smallest relative mean value across all clusters, whereas the outermost cyan colored circle represents "1" - the maximum relative mean value for a specified feature. Values for all features across all NMJs analyzed are provided in Extended Data Figure 1. **i**, Representative NMJs in clusters 1-4. Open circles indicate average for each individual mouse of no fewer than 20 NMJs analyzed per muscle and bars represent means across animals ± SEM. *Denotes $p < 0.05$ vs *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} by two tailed unpaired t-test. Scale bar equals 25 μm and images constrained to the same dimensions.

Fig. 3| Enhanced proliferation of tSCs at the NMJ in 2-month-old *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice. Muscle fiber imaging from *S100GFP*-tg (**a**) and *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} (**b**) mice, immunostained for S100B (green), Ki67 (magenta), α-bungarotoxin (red), and DAPI (blue). White arrows point to extrasynaptic nuclei positive for Ki67 but lacking GFP, while the yellow arrow highlights a perisynaptic Ki67+GFP+ nucleus. **c**, Enlarged view of two NMJs from the highlighted region in b, detailing the S100B, Ki67, and BTX stains. **d**, The same NMJs from c, but focused on BTX and Ki67, revealing multiple Ki67+ nuclei in close proximity to the endplate. **e**, Quantification of extraysnaptic and perisynaptic nuclei either singly labeled for Ki67 or double labeled for Ki67 and GFP. A minimum of 50 NMJs were used per animal. Open circles indicate average values for each individual mouse and bars show the means across animals ± SEM. **Denotes $p < 0.01$ vs *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} by two tailed unpaired t-test. Scale bars equals 50 μm.

Fig. 4| Identification of diverse muscle-resident Schwann cell subtypes via single cell RNA-Sequencing (scRNA-Seq). a, Schematic outline of the experimental design: bilateral gastrocnemius (GTN) (n = 8) and tibialis anterior (TA) (n = 8) muscles were harvested from 2-month-old *S100GFP*-tg (n = 4) and *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice (n = 4), subjected to FACS to isolate live GFP+ and GFP- cells, followed by library preparation with 10X Chromium, scRNA-Seq, and quality control (QC). **b,** S100b expression plot across GFP+ and GFP- groups. **c,** UMAP reduction of resulting clusters. In total, 15 clusters were classified. Notably, four distinct clusters of muscle-resident Schwann cells were identified. **d,** UMAP plots illustrating the transcript levels of markers for pan-Schwann cells (S100b, Sox10), myelin Schwann cells (Mbp, Mpz), terminal Schwann cells (Agrn, Ng2, Kir4.1), proliferation (Ccnd1), and a SC repair phenotype (Ngfr). **e,** UMAP plot and quantification (%) of GFP+ muscle-resident Schwann cells. Cluster analysis determined two myelin Schwann cell clusters (mSC-A and mSC-B) and two tSC clusters (tSC-A and tSC-B). **f,** Expression plots displaying markers highly expressed in tSCs (Cd44, Cadm1, Sox6) and exclusive to tSC-B (Pde10a, Runx2, Tnc). **g,** Upregulated and **h,** downregulated biological processes in tSC-B compared to tSC-A and myelin Schwann cells. Pathway descriptions correspond to gene ontology terms representing distinct biological processes. See Extended Data Fig. 3 for genes contributing to upregulated pathways.

a

Relative information flow

Information flow

S100GFP-tg
S100GFP-tg *Sod1⁻/⁻*

b Spp1 Signaling Network - *S100*GFP-tg

c Spp1 Signaling Network - *S100*GFP-tg *Sod1⁻/⁻*

d Spp1 Ligand + Receptor Pairs

Spp1 – Cd44
Spp1 – (Itgav+Itgb5)
Spp1 – (Itgav+Itgb3)
Spp1 – (Itgav+Itgb1)

p–value
● p < 0.01

Commun. Prob.
max
min

mSC-A → tSC-A
mSC-A → tSC-A
mSC-A → tSC-B
mSC-A → tSC-B

e Spp1 Signaling Transcripts

mRNA (Fold Change)

S100GFP-tg
S100GFP-tg Sod1⁻/⁻

*** Tgfb1
** Tgfbr2
*** Spp1
Cd44
p = 0.052 Cd44v6
Itga5

f *S100GFP-tg*

SPP1 BTX
S100B SPP1 DAPI

g *S100GFP-tg Sod1⁻/⁻*

SPP1 BTX
S100B SPP1 DAPI

Fig. 5| Intercellular communication infers an Spp1 signaling dynamic between mSC and tSC. a, Secreted signaling pathways enriched in the muscle-resident SC network in *S100GFP*-tg and *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*$^{-/-}$ mice. Dashed line through the middle on the 'Relative Information Flow' plot represents equal probability that a signaling pathway is active in both groups. Deviations away from the dashed line indicate greater information flow for a specific group. Information flow plot shows the strength of a specific signaling pathway in the overall signaling landscape **b, c,** Circle plots displaying the Spp1 signaling network across cell clusters for (**b**) *S100GFP*-tg and (**c**) *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*$^{-/-}$ mice. The thickness of connecting lines represents the communication likelihood between paired cell clusters, with arrowheads demarcating communication directionality. **d,** Dotplot visualizing signaling of the Spp1 ligand to Cd44 and integrin receptors, denoting interactions between a distinct population of mSCs (mSC-A) and tSCs (tSC-A and tSC-B) in both *S100GFP*-tg (blue) and *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*$^{-/-}$ (teal) mice. **e**, mRNA levels determined by qPCR for several presumed components of the Spp1 signaling pathway for muscles of *S100GFP*-tg (n = 4) and *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*$^{-/-}$ (n = 6) mice. **f,g,** Representative immunofluorescent images of NMJs stained with Spp1 (Red), S100B (Green), BTX (White), and DAPI (Blue). Open circles indicate values for individual mice and bars represent the mean across animals ± SEM **P ≤ 0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001, *S100GFP*-tg vs *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*$^{-/-}$ by two tailed unpaired t-test. Scale bars represent 25 μm.

Fig. 6| Spp1 signaling promotes tSC proliferation and muscle fiber reinnervation after nerve injury. a, Sciatic nerve crush injuries were performed, and gastrocnemius (GTN) muscles of C57BL/6 mice were harvested 0 (Control), 7, 14, and 28 days post injury (DPI). **b,** mRNA levels for denervation markers (Chrna1), components of Spp1 signaling (Spp1, Cd44, Itgav, Tgfb1, Tgfbr2), genes associated with SC mediated nerve regeneration (Ngfr, Gdnf), and cell proliferation (Ccnd1) at each time point. **c,** Peroneal nerve injuries were induced and tibialis anterior (TA) muscles were intramuscularly injected with either Spp1-nAb or saline (control) at time of injury and every 2 days thereafter. **d,** Data are shown for force (mN) evoked by direct muscle stimulation, with nerve stimulation, and ratio of force elicited by nerve and direct muscle stimulation at 7 DPI for saline- (gray) and Spp1-nAb-treated (blue) groups. **e,** Representative immunofluorescent images of NMJs at 7 DPI stained with S100B (green), DAPI (Blue), BTX (Red), and NF/SV2 (Cyan). **f,** Quantification of NMJ nerve terminal area and perimeter, synaptic area, percentage of denervated (>10% overlap) NMJs, tSC number and area. Open circles indicate values for individual mice and bars represent the mean across animals ± SEM. Scale bars represent 25 μm. *P ≤ 0.05, **P ≤ 0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001, ****P ≤ 0.0001 by two tailed unpaired t-test (Saline vs Spp1-nAb) or 1-way ANOVA (7, 14, 28 DPI vs Control) for multiple comparisons.

Extended Data Fig. 1| NMJ features analyzed. Binary masks were generated from the original image, and 16 en face NMJ morphological features were measured that represented the **a,** post-synaptic (AChR and Endplate), **b**, pre-synaptic (nerve terminal, axonal blebbing, polyinnervation), and **c**, tSC structures. These pixel measurements are visualized by distinct colorations in each mask: red for post-synaptic features, light blue for pre-synaptic features, and green for tSC structures. **d**, In addition, the percentage "Overlap" between axon terminal and AChR areas were measured. This overlap was further quantified in terms of synaptic area (μm^2), denoting the area where the nerve terminal co-localizes with the AChR region. **e**, Similarly, the "tSC coverage" was determined representing the tSC area that overlaps with the AChR region, and measured the "tSC Coverage Area," which is the expanse of tSC found within the AChR area. **f**, The number of axon terminal blebs and and the presence of polyinnervation were also assessed for each NMJ.

Extended Data Fig. 2| Analysis of NMJ in *S100GFP*-tg and *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice. a,**b**, Images of representative NMJs from 1- and 3-month-old mice, stained for S100B (indicating Schwann cells in Green), NF/SV2 (Nerve in Cyan), bungarotoxin (AChR in Red), and DAPI (Nucleus in Blue). **a,** Shows NMJs from S100GFP-tg mice, while **b** are NMJs from *S100*GFP-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice. **c,** Graphical representation of NMJ features in *S100GFP*-tg and *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} mice aged 1, 2, and 3 months. Each colored dot represents a single NMJ. Black circles denote the average for all NMJs in an individual animal. The horizontal bars show the overall mean for each group, while error bars illustrate the mean ± SEM. *Denotes $p < 0.05$ *S100GFP*-tg vs *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-} by two tailed unpaired t-test. Scale bar equals 25 µm and images constrained to the same dimensions.

Top 10 Upregulated Biological Processes in tSC-B

Extended Data Fig. 3| Genes involved in promoting synaptic function and regeneration are upregulated in tSC-B compared to tSC-A and myelin Schwann cells. Heatplot shows the top-10 gene ontology (GO) terms associated with genes upregulated in tSC-B compared to all other muscle-resident Schwann cells identified in this study.

Extended Data Fig. 4| Top 20 intercellular secreted signaling pathways and validation of CD44 protein locatlization. a, Incoming and **b,** outgoing secreted signaling patterns in 2-month-old *S100GFP*-tg *Sod1*^{-/-}. Rows delineate distinct signaling pathways, while columns indicate individual cell clusters. Intensity of heatmap color signifies relative signaling strength: darker hues indicate higher signaling strength, and lighter ones suggest weaker signaling. Pathways designated with a red font highlight those most dysregulated in *Sod1*^{-/-} relative to control. mSC, myelin Schwann cells; tSC, terminal Schwann cells; MSC, mesenchymal stem cells; MuSC, muscle stem cells; IC, immune cells. **c,** Representative immunofluorescent images of NMJs stained for CD44 (Red) and S100B (Green).

Extended Data Fig. 5| Localization of Spp1 Protein within Skeletal Muscle Fibers. Representative immunofluorescent images of muscle fiber bundles from *S100GFP*-tg mice, captured 7 days post-injury (7 DPI) following sciatic nerve crush, juxtaposed with non-injured controls (CTRL). The staining showcases S100B (Green), SPP1 (Red), BTX (White), and DAPI (Blue). Scale bar represents 25 μm.