Sox10 is required for systemic initiation of bone mineralization

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Abstract

Heterozygous variants in the gene encoding the SOX10 transcription factor cause congenital

syndromes affecting pigmentation, digestion, hearing, and neural function. Most of these

symptoms are attributable to failed differentiation and loss of neural crest cells. Extensive

research on mouse and zebrafish models has confirmed that Sox10 is essential for most non-

skeletal crest derivatives, but seemingly dispensable for skeletal development. We challenge that

concept here by revealing a novel requirement for Sox10 in skeletal mineralization. Neither neural

crest- nor mesoderm-derived bones initiate mineralization on time in zebrafish *sox10* mutants,

despite normal osteoblast differentiation and matrix production. We show that mutants are

deficient in the ionocyte subpopulation tasked with taking up calcium from the environment

through the Trpv6 epithelial calcium channel, leading to a severe calcium deficit that explains the

lack of mineralization. As these ionocytes do not derive from a *sox10*+ lineage, we hypothesized

that the primary defect instead resides in a separate organ that regulates ionocyte numbers or

calcium uptake at a systemic level. Screening of the endocrine hormones known to regulate

calcium homeostasis in adult vertebrates revealed significantly elevated levels of stanniocalcin

(Stc1a), an anti-hypercalcemic hormone, in larval *sox10* mutants. Previous studies demonstrated

that Stc1a inhibits calcium uptake in fish by repressing *trpv6* expression and blocking proliferation

of Trpv6+ ionocytes. Our epistasis assays indicate that excess Stc1a is the proximate cause of

the calcium deficit in *sox10* mutants. Lineage tracing shows that the pronephros-derived glands

that synthesize Stc1a interact with *sox10*+ neural crest-derived cells, and that the latter are

missing in mutants. We conclude that a subpopulation of Sox10+ neural crest non-cell-

autonomously limit Stc1a production to allow the inaugural wave of calcium uptake necessary for

the initiation of bone mineralization.

Keywords: Sox10, bone mineralization, neural crest, calcium, stanniocalcin

Introduction

Sry-box transcription factor 10 (SOX10) is essential for pigmentation of the hair and skin, the

ability to perceive sound and smell, and for digestive peristalsis. People with only one functional

copy of the *SOX10* gene present pigment anomalies such as iris heterochromia and a white

forelock, sensorineural hearing loss, deficient enteric innervation, anosmia, neurological

abnormalities, neuropathy, and/or stalled puberty[1]. Cases range from mild to potentially lethal and

are assigned to one of four congenital syndromes with overlapping clinical features: Waardenburg

syndrome types 2E and 4C, Kallmann syndrome, or PCWH (Peripheral demyelinating

neuropathy, Central dysmyelination, Waardenburg syndrome, and Hirschsprung disease)[1].

Besides the inner ear and central nervous system phenotypes, these symptoms are largely

attributable to failed neural crest (NC) differentiation. This transient, migratory population of

embryonic cells gives rise to pigment cells, sensory and enteric neurons and glia, the adrenal

medulla, and bone, cartilage, and connective tissues of the facial skeleton[2]. All NC cells (NCCs)

activate *SOX10* expression upon specification, prior to migration. The cranial subpopulation

destined to give rise to the facial skeleton turn it off upon reaching their destination in the

pharyngeal arches[3,4]. The remaining, non-skeletal NC populations retain Sox10 expression longer

to activate programs for differentiation into pigment, glia, and sensory or enteric neurons, among

other cell types[5]; in mutants, migration and differentiation stall, and the cells die[6]. Sox10 is also

expressed in differentiating chondrocytes of both neural crest and mesodermal origin, but it is not

critical there, as cartilage develops normally in zebrafish *sox10* mutants[7]. Accordingly, decades

of research on heterozygous patients as well as homozygous mouse and zebrafish models has

culminated in the notion that SOX10 is essential for non-skeletal neural crest derivatives but

dispensable for formation of the skeleton[6-10].

Bones mineralize by packing an organic collagenous extracellular matrix (ECM) with

hydroxyapatite crystals of calcium and phosphate in a highly ordered manner[11]. Mature bone-

forming osteoblasts secrete collagen I/X-rich ECM as well as enzymes (e.g. Alkaline

phosphatase, Phospho1) and accessory glycoproteins (e.g. Osteopontin, Osteonectin) involved

in synthesis and organization of the hydroxyapatite crystals[12-14]. Failed osteoblast maturation,

disturbed matrix formation, and calcium-phosphate imbalances can disrupt ossification[15,16].

Endocrine factors, particularly parathyroid hormone, vitamin D, and calcitonin, work in concert to

maintain calcium and phosphate homeostasis in adults through actions on bone, intestine, and

kidney[17-21]. Adult vertebrates obtain calcium and phosphate for all their cellular needs via dietary

sources, environmental uptake, and renal reabsorption, as well as by breaking down bone[22].

However, how the initial wave of calcium and phosphate uptake in the developing embryo is

regulated remains a gap in knowledge. Mammalian fetuses obtain minerals largely through the

placenta[23], while fish larvae take them from maternal yolk stores or directly out of the water

through ionocytes in the skin and gills[24,25]. Indeed, zebrafish larvae obtain the necessary amount

of phosphate through phospholipid metabolism in the yolk and do not require additional

environmental phosphate uptake[26-28]. Conversely, calcium uptake from the environment is

required for skeletal mineralization[29]. The major route of calcium ingress is the constitutively open

epithelial calcium channel (ECaC) encoded by *trpv6* (Transient Receptor Potential channel family,

Vanilloid subfamily member 6)[29-31]. Of the five major types of ionocytes in fish, only the Na^+/H^+-

ATPase-rich (NaR) subpopulation expresses *trpv6*[25,30]. *Trpv6* expression is also highly enriched

in both maternal and fetal cells of the mammalian placenta[32]. Because Trpv6 is constitutively

open, regulation of calcium uptake occurs through modulating levels of *trpv6* transcription or the

proliferation/quiescence of *trpv6*+ cells[30]. Whether the major endocrine hormones involved in

calcium and phosphate homeostasis in adults also control the initiation of calcium uptake via

Trpv6 for skeletal mineralization in the embryo remains largely unknown.

One factor known to not drive but rather limit calcium uptake in both embryonic and adult fish is

an anti-hypercalcemic hormone called stanniocalcin[33]. Stanniocalcin (Stc1) is a glycoprotein

secreted by a variety of tissues in mammals (e.g. kidney, intestine), where it is involved in local

calcium homeostasis[34-38]. Stc1a was first isolated from the Corpuscles of Stannius (CS),

intermediate mesoderm-derived endocrine organs unique to teleost fish[35,39,40]. Surgical removal

of the CS or mutation of the *stc1a* gene causes severe hypercalcemia, kidney stone formation,

and an increase in NaR cell numbers in fishes[35,41,42]. Conversely, exposure to high environmental

calcium increases *stc1a* mRNA levels and serum Stc1a content, in turn leading to decreased

calcium uptake[33]. Stc1a's anti-hypercalcemic activity involves inhibition of both *trpv6* expression

and NaR cell proliferation, working through a Pappaa-Igfbp5a-Igf-Igfr cascade that impacts PI3K,

mTor, and Akt signaling[42-46]. In normal or low calcium, active Pappaa cleaves the Igf-binding

protein Igfbp5a, releasing Igf ligands to activate downstream signaling and NaR cell proliferation.

In conditions of high environmental calcium, Stc1a inhibits Pappaa's protease activity, keeping

NaR cells quiescent[42-46].

In this study, we present a previously undescribed systemic requirement for Sox10 in the initiation

of skeletal mineralization in fish. We provide evidence of a striking Stc1a increase in *sox10*

mutants that severely reduces *trpv6*+ ionocyte number and whole-body calcium content. We find

sox10+ neural crest-derived cells interacting with the Corpuscles of Stannius in control but not

mutant fish, indicating that they may serve to moderate *stc1a* levels in the embryo, allowing the

massive wave of calcium uptake required to initiate bone mineralization

Results

Delayed onset of skeletal mineralization in zebrafish *sox10* mutants

Though Sox10 expression is activated in all NCCs upon specification[5,6,47,48], it is quickly

downregulated in the subset of cranial crest that will go on to form the facial skeleton[4]. These

skeletal progenitor cells were presumed to not require Sox10 function, as our early studies noted

no defects in the Alcian blue-labeled cartilages of the zebrafish *sox10* mutant facial skeleton[7].

However, while recently performing a routine bone stain in *sox10* mutants, we unexpectedly

noticed a striking absence of mineralization when the skeleton is first differentiating at 3-4 days

post fertilization (dpf) (Fig. 1A). At these stages, calcium deposits in newly mineralizing bones are

readily apparent by Alizarin red staining in sibling controls. Weak staining appears in mutants by

5 dpf and increases until larval lethality around 8 dpf, but never attains control levels. Mutants are

not edemic or developmentally delayed, ruling out these common explanations for poor

mineralization. The phenotype is also indiscriminate of ossification type (endochondral,

intramembranous, and even odontogenic) and bone developmental origin in the mesoderm

versus neural crest (Fig. 1B).

As deficient mineralization has not been reported in any of the many existing mouse, fish, or frog

Sox10 loss-of-function models, we questioned whether it could be a neomorphism specific to our

sox10[ci3020] allele[49]. *ci3020* is a 1495-bp deletion that removes part of the 5'UTR and the first coding

exon, encoding the homodimerization domain and part of the DNA-binding high mobility group

(HMG) domain (Fig. S1A). Some transcription still occurs from the deletion allele[49], and the first

in-frame methionine downstream of the deletion could conceivably produce an N-terminally

truncated protein lacking the HMG box but retaining the transactivation domain[1]. *sox10[ci3020/ci3020]*

embryos otherwise present the classic *colourless* phenotypes associated with *sox10* loss-of-

function (Fig. S1B-C)[50], lacking melanocytes and xanthophores, with malformed otic vesicles and

otoliths but normal facial cartilages. To test whether deficient mineralization is specific to the

ci3020 allele, we performed Alizarin red staining on homozygotes for the *m618* (L142Q) missense

allele first reported in 1996[51]. The same near-absence of staining was observed between 4 and

6 dpf (Fig. S1D), demonstrating that this phenotype is a general consequence of loss of *sox10*

function, at least in zebrafish. We further validated the Alizarin red results in *ci3020* mutants

(hereafter *sox10* mutants) using Von Kossa and Calcein stains (Fig. 1C, S1C'), which both label

calcium deposits,[52-55] as well as Osteoimage (Fig. 1D), a stain that specifically detects

hydroxyapatite[56]. These stains confirmed that mineralization gradually initiates around 5 dpf, first

apparent by Von Kossa staining (Fig. 1C). Supporting that the recovery is incomplete, fluorescent

Calcein staining in older 7 dpf larvae revealed a lack of endochondral bone collars around the

mutant hyomandibula and ceratohyal cartilages (Fig. S1C').

Osteoblasts are essential for mineralization, but do not themselves express Sox10 (Fig. 2A-B)[57].

The subset of osteoblasts derived from the cranial neural crest did transiently express *sox10* and

accordingly express the *SOX10:*Cre neural crest lineage label (by a human neural crest-specific

SOX10 promoter)[5,48], but those derived from mesoderm never pass through a *sox10*+ state. We

therefore presumed that the broad mineralization deficit would not be cell-autonomous to

osteoblasts, though it was still possible that their differentiation could be impacted by extrinsic

factors. Osteoblasts are evident as early as 3 dpf at the site of the future opercle (op) bone[58]. To

evaluate mutant osteoblasts, we used established transgenic markers *RUNX2*:mCherry[59],

sp7:EGFP[60] and *osc*:EGFP[29], which are respectively activated in osteoprogenitors and early and

maturing osteoblasts. Live imaging of the op bone in *sox10* mutants and sibling controls from 3

to 7 dpf revealed seemingly normal patterns for each marker (Fig. 2C-C''). Visualization of

*sp7:*GFP in combination with live Alizarin red staining confirmed that individual elements are

growing similarly between mutants and controls (Fig. 2D). Colorimetric *in situs* for the major bone

ECM component *col10a1a* also revealed normal expression in mutants (Fig. 2E). These findings

suggest that mutant osteoblasts are still differentiating and making collagenous matrix despite not

being able to mineralize it.

To determine whether the mineralization machinery is intact in *sox10* mutant osteoblasts, we

performed *in situs* and/or semi-quantitative rt-PCR for *phospho1*, *spp1* (Osteopontin), *sparc*

(Osteonectin), *alpl* (Alkaline phosphatase), *enpp1*, *entpd5*, *phex*, *fgf23*, *runx2a*, and *runx2b* (Fig.

2E, S2))*.* These genes encode for secreted proteins and enzymes associated with matrix

formation, phosphate and calcium regulation, and hydroxyapatite synthesis, in addition to the

Runx2 transcription factors required for osteoblast specification. In rt-PCRs performed on cDNA

made from pooled 4-dpf embryos, we detected mild increases in *alpl* and *entpd5* in the mutants

($p < 0.05$, unpaired t-tests; Fig. S2A). We also observed slight decreases in *spp1*, *phospho1,*

enpp1, and *fgf23* in the mutants ($p < 0.05$, unpaired t-tests; Fig. S2A), a pattern opposite than

observed in the zebrafish *enpp1* mutant, which shows increased mineralization[61]. There was no

change in *sparc* or *phex*[61] ($p > 0.0.5$, unpaired t-tests) in mutant compared to wild-type embryos

(Fig. S2A). *In situ* hybridizations revealed unchanged *runx2a* and *runx2b* expression (Fig. S2B),

aligning with the live-imaging *RUNX2:*mCherry experiment (Fig. 2D). *spp1* was strikingly reduced,

consistent with the rt-PCR result (Fig. S2A-B). However, inconsistent with the rt-PCR results,

phospho1 expression in forming bones appeared largely unchanged in mutant heads (Fig. 2E),

while *sparc* appeared reduced (Fig. S2B). Discrepancies may be due to altered expression in

other tissues not captured by the *in situs.* These findings nonetheless demonstrate for the first

time that multiple factors linked with mineralization anomalies in animal models and human

patients[62-65] are dysregulated in *sox10* mutants.

sox10 mutants are calcium-deficient

Disrupted mineral homeostasis caused by mutations in the phosphate regulators *enpp1* and

entpd5 impacts the expression of many other mineralization-regulating factors, including many of

the genes we assayed[61,62]. To test whether the observed dysregulation in our mutant could also

be a consequence of a systemic mineral imbalance, we measured calcium and phosphate levels

in our mutants. As it is not possible to directly measure serum mineral contents in larval fish, we

used a colorimetric assay (Fig. 3B) on pooled whole-body samples between 36 and 168 hpf,

following standard practice in the field[33,42,66]. In wild-type zebrafish, Ca^{2+} content begins to

increase around 3 dpf as the first bones mineralize and continues to rise with age (Fig. 3A)[67]. By

contrast, *sox10* mutants had lower Ca^{2+} content compared with controls starting at 3 dpf (p=0.03,

unpaired t-test; Fig. 3A-B). Consistent with the bone staining in mutants first appearing around 5

dpf (Fig. 1A), we found that mutant Ca^{2+} levels at 5 dpf were approximately equivalent to control

levels at 3 dpf (0.01 μg/embryo), suggesting this may be the minimal Ca^{2+} threshold required to

initiate mineralization. To further investigate this possibility, we raised wild-type embryos in

medium completely devoid of Ca^{2+} and found that mineralization was absent everywhere except

the otoliths inside the otic vesicles (Fig. S3A'). These are made of calcium carbonate rather than

hydroxyapatite[68,69] and also still form in *trpv6* mutants that cannot take up external calcium[29,30].

The Ca^{2+} content of these wild-type fish raised in 0 mM Ca^{2+} was approximately the same as that

of mutants raised in 1 mM Ca^{2+} (Fig. S3A), supporting that this low level is below the threshold

needed for bone mineralization. On the other hand, phosphate levels were seemingly unaffected

in mutants between 36 and 168 hpf (Fig. S3B), suggesting that lack of calcium is the major cause

of the delayed and deficient hydroxyapatite formation (Fig. 1D).

Other zebrafish mutants with poor mineralization but seemingly normal osteoblasts, e.g., *msp* and

trpv6, can be rescued by simply increasing the concentration of Ca^{2+} in the media[29,70]. We tested

whether this would also improve our phenotype using Ca^{2+} concentrations two- and ten-fold higher

than our standard embryo media (2 and 10 mM versus 1 mM, respectively, following[62,70] (Fig. 3C-

D)). However, Alizarin red staining at 4 dpf revealed no increase in mineralization in mutants

reared in either high-Ca^{2+} medium (Fig. 3D). We then quantified their Ca^{2+} contents at 4 dpf to

specifically assess the calcium deficit, finding that mutants raised in the highest-Ca^{2+} environment

did show a non-significant increase in Ca^{2+} content, but they remained at a severe deficit relative

to controls (Fig. 3D'). Lowering or increasing the phosphate concentration likewise had no impact

on mineralization in mutants (Fig. S3C). The mineralization delay in the *sox10* mutants may thus

have a more complex etiology than other mutant lines with similar phenotypes.

Calcium is taken up from the environment in fish larvae through Trpv6 channels present on the

surface of specialized NaR ionocytes in the skin[71]. NaR cells also uniquely express *igfbp5a*[44,72]

and comprise a subset of ionocytes expressing Na^+/K^+ ATPase[25]. Immunostaining for Na^+/K^+

ATPase combined with the *SOX10:*Cre lineage label (driven by a human neural crest-specific

enhancer[5,48]) in otherwise wild-type fish confirmed that these skin ionocytes do not derive from

neural crest (Fig. 4A), in line with previous work tracing them to the ectoderm[73]. We questioned

whether the persistently low calcium content of *sox10* mutants could be due to a deficiency of

trpv6 expression or total NaR ionocytes. Though rt-PCR revealed no overt change in whole-body

trpv6 levels (Fig. 4B), we did detect significant decreases in the numbers of *trpv6*+ and *igfbp5a*+

cells at 4 dpf, with mild recovery by 7 dpf (Fig. 4C-D'). These patterns support reduced NaR

number (rather than *trpv6* transcription) as the cause of the systemic calcium deficit and the

associated lack of bone mineralization. Published scRNAseq data confirm that differentiating NaR

cells contain no *sox10* transcripts[74]. The NaR deficit in *sox10* mutants therefore cannot be

explained by a simple cell-autonomous requirement for Sox10.

NaR cell numbers fluctuate depending on the amount of calcium in the environment, with low Ca^{2+}

stimulating their proliferation and thereby increasing Ca^{2+} uptake, versus minimal proliferation and

uptake under high Ca^{2+} [24,75]. These fluctuations still occur in *sox10* mutants (Fig. S4A), indicating

that they are still capable of responding to environmental conditions. However, the increase in

NaR cells observed in mutants raised at low Ca^{2+} is dampened relative to controls, apparently

insufficient to raise total Ca^{2+} content (Fig. S3A) or permit robust skeletal mineralization (Fig.

S3A').

Endocrine suppression of NaR ionocyte expansion in *sox10* mutants

The fact that the number of *trpv6*+ NaR cells remains so low in *sox10* mutants despite their clear

need for calcium struck us as paradoxical. We reasoned that mutants might be lacking a factor

needed to stimulate NaR proliferation, or, conversely, have too much of a different factor that

blocks their increase. In an rt-PCR screen of candidate endocrine factors, we identified

stanniocalcin-1a (*stc1a*) as being 3-fold upregulated in *sox10* mutants at 4 dpf (Fig. 5A). Stc1a is

an anti-hypercalcemic hormone triggered by high environmental calcium through activation of the

Calcium-Sensing Receptor (CaSR)[33,76-78]. Stc1a reduces calcium uptake to maintain

physiologically safe levels by inhibiting proliferation of NaR cells and suppressing *trpv6*

expression[42,45]. The dominant sources of Stc1a in fish larvae are the Corpuscles of Stannius,

teleost-specific glands that bud off the distal pronephros by 50 hpf and are positioned to either

side of the posterior cardinal vein with their own vascular supply by 3 dpf (Fig. 6A-B)[40,79,80]. *stc1a*

expression is detectable prior to completion of CS extrusion[40] and is thus potentially involved in

maintaining calcium balance as early as 24 hpf[40].

Aberrantly elevated *stc1a* expression in *sox10* mutants might thus explain their reduced number

of NaR cells and calcium uptake. In situ analyses showed that the robust increase first becomes

apparent after completion of CS extrusion (after 36 hpf; Fig. 5C), is most obvious at 4 dpf (Fig.

5B-C), then begins to level out by 7 dpf (Fig. 5C), when both *trpv6+* NaR cell numbers and

mineralization are partially recovering. The *stc1a* increase is due at least in part to higher numbers

of *stc1a+* cells in the mutant CS between 45 hpf and 4 dpf (p<0.001, unpaired t-test; Fig. 5D).

Interestingly, in low-Ca^{2+} medium, *stc1a* expression is undetectable in controls but merely reduced

in mutants (Fig. S4B), possibly explaining why mutants still have fewer NaR cells and less calcium

uptake than their siblings under these conditions (Fig. S3A, S4A).

The *stc1a*-expressing Corpuscles are derived from intermediate mesoderm[40,81] and never pass

through a *sox10+* state, so their dysfunction in *sox10* mutants must also be indirect. We looked

for *sox10* lineage+ cells in or surrounding the glands, predicting that they may be aberrant or

missing in mutants. We tracked neural crest using *SOX10*:Cre[5,48] in combination with the

*actb2:*BFP>DsRed Cre reporter[82] and all recently *sox10*-expressing cells using *sox10*:DsRed

(driven by the 4.9-kb zebrafish *sox10* promoter[83]). All traces were performed in combination with

the *Tp1:*VenusPEST Notch reporter[84] or the *her6:*mCherry reporter[85], both of which are expressed

in the CS after ~36 hpf. We detected a close physical interaction between *sox10:*DsRed+ cells

and the CS as early as 50 hpf (Fig. 6C), after the glands had fully formed. The closest cells appear

to turn off *sox10* shortly thereafter, as they became harder to find, though lineage-traced crest

were present in the vicinity of the CS up to 7 dpf (Fig. 6D-E). Strikingly, *sox10* mutants lack

SOX10:Cre lineage-labeled cells around the CS at all stages examined (Fig. 6D-E). This is

consistent with the complete or near-complete loss of many neural crest cell sublineages

previously reported in *sox10* mutant models[6,7,86]. Mutant VenusPEST+ CS cells are less

organized, and mutant gland volume is larger (p<0.0001 at 58 and 72 hpf, p=0.003 at 96 hpf, ns

at 168 hpf; unpaired t-tests; Fig. 5E'). These patterns suggest that *sox10+* crest-derived cells may

act locally to restrain CS growth and *stc1a* expression to regulate embryonic calcium

homeostasis.

***stc1a* is epistatic to *sox10* and the proximate cause of the mineralization deficit**

Our results thus far suggested that the absence of *sox10*+ cells leads to unrestrained growth and

Stc1a production by the Corpuscles, in turn inhibiting NaR cell proliferation and preventing

sufficient calcium uptake for mineralization. To test this model, we performed an epistasis assay

of *stc1a* on the *sox10* mutant background using the previously reported *stc1a^{mi610}* mutant[42].

sox10^{ci3020}; stc1a^{mi610} double mutants present both the trademark lack of pigmentation and

underdeveloped inner ears of *sox10* single mutants alongside the characteristic cardiac edema of

stc1a mutants (Fig. 7A), supporting that these phenotypes are genetically independent. However,

bone mineralization was strikingly improved in double mutants relative to *sox10* single mutants at

4 dpf (Fig. 7B). Eighty percent of the double mutants (24 out of 30) stained with Alizarin red: 13

weakly, 10 intermediate, and 1 strongly (Fig. 7E, also see Fig. S5B for examples). It is worth

noting that the presence of cardiac edema in the double mutants may have compromised bone

formation in some individuals. For comparison, among 23 *sox10^{-/-}; stc1a^{+/+}* individuals, 14 had no

staining, 5 had weak staining, 3 intermediate, and 1 strong (Fig. S5B; $p=0.0206$, Chi-square test).

In the original *sox10^{ci3020}* single mutant crosses, only 3/48 single mutants showed intermediate or

weak staining; the other 45 had none (Fig. S5A), suggesting the presence of genetic modifiers.

We further noted significant improvement in NaR cell number and calcium content in the double

sox10; stc1a mutants relative to *sox10* single mutants (Fig. 7C'-D), further supporting that *stc1a*

is epistatic to *sox10* in mineral regulation.

Discussion

Novel Sox10 requirement in bone mineralization

This study challenges the decades-old paradigm that Sox10 is not required for skeletal

development by revealing a previously undescribed, indirect role in mineralization. Two

independent *sox10* mutant lines exhibit delayed and reduced mineralization of all bones, no

matter their embryonic origin or ossification type. Mutant osteoblasts appear to differentiate

normally (Fig. 2D) and gradually lay down ECM to create typically-sized bone templates (Fig. 2C-

E). However, their transcriptomes may be subtly altered: we detected changes in whole-body

mRNA levels of genes encoding osteoblast-enriched enzymes involved in regulation of phosphate

availability and homeostasis (*phospho1*, *alpl*, *enpp1*, *entpd5*) or bone accessory proteins (*spp1*

(osteopontin) (Fig. S2A-B). We posit that these shifts may reflect secondary transcriptional

responses of osteoblasts to the major systemic calcium deficit or to changes in inorganic

phosphate availability incurred by the lack of calcium. Reduced levels of some of these factors

may exacerbate the mineralization defect in *sox10* mutants, as other studies have demonstrated

that partial or complete genetic loss of some of these accessory proteins and enzymes can lead

to decreased bone mineral density and/or mineralization deficits[62-65].

We noted with interest the changes in phosphate regulators, given that we did not measure any

consistent differences in mutants' total phosphate content by a colorimetric assay (Fig. S3B). It is

possible that the assay is insufficiently sensitive or overwhelmed by maternally deposited yolk

stores[26-28]. However, how osteoblast-engendered inorganic phosphate intended for

hydroxyapatite formation is managed when calcium is not available is an intriguing question. Of

note, in our comparison of bone stains, we observed recovery of Von Kossa staining before that

of Alizarin red, Calcein, or OsteoImage (hydroxyapatite). In Von Kossa staining, silver cations

from the silver nitrate staining solution interact with calcium phosphate to produce a yellowish

silver phosphate, which subsequently blackens surrounding organic matter[52,87,88]. It is possible

that the early recovery of this stain reflects a reaction with inorganic phosphate accumulating in

the bone matrix due to the calcium deficit.

How calcium uptake and bone mineralization begin to recover in *sox10* mutants is still an open question. One possibility is that other endocrine hormones come 'online' and begin to counteract elevated Stc1a activity. Parathyroid hormone and vitamin D are reported to have hypercalcemic properties in fish as well as in mammals, acting to increase Trpv6-mediated calcium uptake[21,89,90]. Zebrafish lack parathyroid glands, but express parathyroid hormones in the central nervous system and sensory neuromasts[91]. Similarly, fish synthesize vitamin D as early as 3 dpf in response to decreased environmental calcium[89]. Other physiological changes are occurring in fish larvae at the same time that mineralization begins to recover, including maturation of the digestive tract and auxiliary endodermal organs[92] and depletion of the yolk[26]. Though *sox10* mutants lack an enteric nervous system[7] and are not fed in our experiments, it is possible that passage of embryo medium through the digestive tract allows calcium uptake through intestinal enterocytes, contributing to the mutants' partial recovery. We have also observed ectopic calcium/hydroxyapatite deposits in the yolk area of mutants at 3 and 4 dpf that begin to resolve coincident with the onset of bone mineralization (Fig. 1C-D). The calcium in those deposits could conceivably be remobilized and made available for forming bones as the yolk is depleted. Two other zebrafish mutants that lack mineralization during larval stages (*msp*[70], *her9*[58]) also naturally recover to some extent, supporting robustness or complementarity in mechanisms driving calcium uptake for skeletal mineralization.

Sox10 drives bone mineralization indirectly through interactions with endocrine glands involved in calcium homeostasis

The most striking finding from the whole-body transcriptional analysis was the tripled *stc1a* mRNA levels in *sox10* mutants (Fig. 5A). High Stc1a blocks proliferation of *trpv6+* ionocytes[42], reducing calcium uptake. That elevated *stc1a* is the major driver of the calcium deficit in *sox10* mutants was confirmed by our epistasis studies (Fig. 7). However, whether the increase in *stc1a* mRNA is

attributable solely to the higher cell number in the mutant Corpuscles (Fig. 5C-D) or also to a per-

cell increase in transcription is not yet clear. Previous studies have shown that high external

calcium upregulates *stc1a* transcription at least in part via the Calcium-Sensing Receptor (CaSR),

which is also expressed in the CS[77]. Aberrant activity of CaSR in the absence of *sox10*+ lineage

cells could therefore potentially boost *stc1a* transcription. In support of the idea that the *stc1a*

increase is more complex than just increased CS cell number, another mineral-regulating

hormone enriched in the CS, *fgf23*[93,94], is downregulated in *sox10* mutants (Fig. S2A) despite the

increased size of the Corpuscles. Fgf23 has anti-hypercalcemic effects similar to Stc1a, reducing

Ca^{2+} uptake in conditions of high systemic calcium, in addition to regulating phosphate

homeostasis[77,95,96]; its low expression in *sox10* mutants is consistent with their calcium deficit[77].

Published scRNAseq data[74] shows that Corpuscle cells also express receptors for other

endocrine factors involved in mineralization between 2 and 4 dpf, including receptors for calcitonin

(*calcr*), cortisol (*nr3c1*), vitamin D (*vdrb*), Fgf23 (*fgfr1b*), and Msp (*mst1rb*). It remains to be seen

how these pathways are affected in the absence of *sox10*+ cells and whether they are involved

in *stc1a* upregulation.

Why the Corpuscles, derived from a *sox10*-negative mesodermal lineage, are so profoundly

affected by loss of *sox10* is not fully resolved. We did not observe an increase in *stc1a*+ cell

number before 2 dpf, i.e., only after the glands had fully extruded from the pronephros, ruling out

expanded CS specification as the explanation for the larger glands (as previously found in other

mutant lines[80,97]). Our experiments instead revealed that a *sox10*+ sublineage interacts with these

glands post-extrusion, and that these NC-derived cells are missing in *sox10* mutants (Fig. 6C-E),

like so many other crest derivatives[6-9]. A tantalizing possibility is that they may be precursors of

the sympathetic neurons that will innervate the CS in adults[79,98]. Sympathetic neurons derive from

sox10+ neural crest, in particular from Schwann cell precursors (SCPs)[99]. Differentiating Schwann

cells and SCPs are thought to be the predominant *sox10*+ cell types lining the trunk sensory and

motor axon tracts that pass by the Corpuscles[3,99], from which we see cells emerging to contact

the glands directly (Fig. 6C). Schwann cells and SCPs are largely absent in *sox10* mutant fish

and mice[7,10]. Interestingly, hallmark signs of sympathetic neuronal differentiation in the trunk are

not evident in wild-type zebrafish until around 7 dpf[100], well after this CS phenotype arises. The

regulatory interaction between the *sox10*+ lineage cells and the CS is thus expected to be non-

neuronal in nature at these early stages. Though mutant lethality makes it challenging to study

the onset of sympathetic control, we expect that the requirement for *sox10*+ lineage cells in

managing stanniocalcin production and/or secretion and thus calcium homeostasis persists

throughout the lifespan.

Humans and other mammals do make stanniocalcin hormones, but we do not develop a gland

homologous to the Corpuscles of Stannius[35]. If loss of *sox10* in fish impacts mineralization solely

through dysregulation of Corpuscle development and function, as our data support, it is

conceivable that mammals lacking *Sox10* will show no equivalent signs of mineral dysregulation.

However, our studies also prompt the more general notion that crest-derived cells destined to

become part of the sympathetic nervous system may make contact with and begin regulating their

target organs' growth and activity earlier in embryonic development than previously appreciated.

This could potentially drive physiological and endocrinological symptoms in individuals with

congenital neurocristopathies caused by deficient crest production or survival[101].

Materials & Methods

Zebrafish husbandry and lines

Zebrafish embryos were grown at 28.5°C in standard embryo medium (EM) [102] unless otherwise

noted: 15 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM KCl, 1 mM $CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$, 0.15 mM KH_2PO_4, 0.06 mM NaH_2PO_4 and

1 mM $MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$. Published mutant and transgenic lines used here include $sox10^{ci3020}$ [49]

$sox10^{m618}$ [51], $stc1l^{mi610}$ [42], $Tg(Hsa.RUNX2:mCherry)^{zf3244}$ (alias $RUNX2:mCherry$)[59],

Tg(sp7:EGFP)^{b1212} [60], *Tg(Ola.Bglap:EGFP)^{hu4008}* (alias *osc:EGFP*) [29], *Tg(Mmu.Sox10-Mmu-*

Fos:Cre)^{zf384} (alias *SOX10:Cre*) [48], *Tg(EPV.TP1-Mmu.Hbb:Venus-Mmu.Odc1)^{s940}* (alias

Tp1:VenusPEST) [84], *Tg(fli1:EGFP)^{y1}* [103], *Tg(Xla.Eef1a1:loxP-DsRed2-loxP-EGFP)^{zf284}* (alias

ef1a:DsRed>EGFP) [48], *Tg(actb2:LOXP-BFP-LOXP-DsRed)^{sd27}* (alias *actb2:*BFP>DsRed) [82] and

Tg(her6:mCherry)^{sd64} [85]. Lines were maintained as hetero- or hemizygotes.

Bone staining

For all fixed bone stains, zebrafish larvae were fully anesthetized with MS-222 (aka Tricaine,

Syndel, USA) at the desired stage and then fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde (PFA) (250 μl embryo

medium, 250 μl 4% PFA, and 500 μl PBS with 0.1% Tween) overnight at 4°C or for 1 hour at room

temperature. For Alizarin red-only staining, following fixation, larvae were rinsed twice in 25%

glycerol in 0.5% KOH for 10 minutes each and stained with 0.01% Alizarin in 25% glycerol/100

mM Tris pH 7.5 for 4 hours at room temperature. They were then bleached for 10 minutes in 3%

H_2O_2 in 0.5% KOH under a light source. Specimens were stored and imaged in 50% glycerol in

0.5% KOH or 100% glycerol immediately to prevent fading (adapted from[104]). Combined Alcian

blue and Alizarin red staining was performed as described previously[105]. For Von Kossa staining,

fixed embryos were rinsed with deionized water and stained with 2.5% silver nitrate solution

(Abcam ab150687) under a light source for 20 minutes. The reaction was stopped with 5% sodium

thiosulfate to prevent overstaining, and larvae were imaged immediately[106,107]. For the

Osteoimage^{TM} Mineralization Assay (Lonza PA-1503), we followed the manufacturer's protocol

after fixing. Briefly, fixed larvae were rinsed with diluted wash buffer then stained in diluted

Staining Reagent for 30 minutes at room temperature in the dark. Before imaging, they were

rinsed three times with wash buffer for five minutes each. For live staining, larvae were incubated

in Alizarin red (0.03 mg/ml in 30 ml EM) for 2 hours at 28.5°C or in Calcein green (0.1 mg/ml in

30 ml EM) at 28.5°C overnight[55]. For each round of each bone staining experiment, a minimum

of six individuals were stained and imaged per genotype/stage/group.

Calcium and phosphate supplementation and depletion treatments

For calcium treatments, the amount of $CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$ was increased two or ten-fold for 2 mM and

10 mM treatments, respectively, completely removed (0 mM), or decreased to 0.02 mM[70]). For

the high phosphate treatment (adapted from [62]), the concentrations of KH_2PO_4 and NaH_2PO_4 were

raised to 0.5 mM and 9.5 mM, respectively, to increase the total PO_4^{3-} to 10 mM, therefore

maintaining the proportional K^+/Na^+ ratio as in the control EM. The 'No PO_4^{3-}' treatment included

neither KH_2PO_4 nor NaH_2PO_4 in the media. A minimum of six control and six mutant larvae were

used per treatment group, and all treatments were repeated at least twice.

Whole mount in situ hybridization and immunostaining

cDNAs for *stc1a*, *trpv6*, *igfbp5a, col10a1a*, *phospho1, sparc, spp1, runx2a, and runx2b*[108] were

amplified by Herculase II Fusion DNA Polymerase (Agilent) (see Table S1 for primer sequences)

and inserted into the pCR-Blunt II-TOPO vector (ThermoFisher). After sequence confirmation and

linearization by restriction digest, antisense probes were synthesized from each plasmid using

Sp6 or T7 polymerase and digoxigenin (DIG)-tagged nucleotides (Roche). Colorimetric and

fluorescent *in situ* hybridizations were performed as described previously[109]. Colorimetric *in situs*

were developed with either NBT-BCIP or BM Purple (Sigma-Aldrich), whereas fluorescent *in situs*

were developed with TSA Cyanine 3 (Akoya Biosciences). Immunostaining was performed as

described[49]. Primary antibodies included anti-Na^+/K^+ ATPase (1:400, DSHB α5) and anti-Sox10

(1:500, Genetex GTX128374), used with AlexaFluor 647-conjugated goat anti-mouse and donkey

anti-rabbit secondary antibodies (1:250, ThermoFisher A32728 and B40956). In both procedures,

permeabilization steps were skipped for markers limited to surface expression (*trpv6, igfb5a* and

α5). A minimum of six control and six mutant larvae were stained and imaged for each marker,

and the experiments were repeated at least twice.

Semi-quantitative reverse-transcriptase PCR (rt-PCR)

rt-PCRs were performed to estimate transcript levels of mineralization-associated genes in

sox10^{ci3020} mutants. Each sample consisted of 10-15 mutant and 10-15 stage-matched wild-type

controls that were pooled at 4 dpf and frozen at -80°C. RNA was extracted using the RNAqueous-

4PCR Total RNA Isolation Kit (Invitrogen), and equivalent amounts were used to synthesize cDNA

with the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems). rt-PCR was run

with a minimum of three biological replicates per genotype, and *eef1g* expression was used for

normalization (following [49]). Band intensity was quantified with Image Lab (BioRad) and analyzed

with Prism 10 (GraphPad). Primers, product sizes, and cycling conditions for each gene are listed

in Table S2.

Quantification of mineral content

Whole-body Ca^{2+} and PO_4^{3-} contents were quantified using colorimetric assay kits (Abcam

ab102505 and ab65622). For Ca^{2+} measurements, 10-15 larvae were pooled at the desired stage

in an Eppendorf tube without any liquid, dehydrated at 60°C for 1 hour, then digested for at least

4 hours in 125 μL of freshly prepared 1M HCl in an Eppendorf Thermomixer set at 95°C and 750

rpm. The samples were then centrifuged at 4°C for 45 minutes at 15,000 rpm. Supernatants were

distributed on a clear 96-well polystyrene flat-bottomed plate alongside the standard curve

reagents prepared according to the protocol provided with the kits. Absorbances were measured

on a SpectraMax M5 plate reader. The same procedure was followed for PO_4^{3-} quantification, with

the modification that the supernatants were diluted in deionized water to avoid precipitation.

Imaging and image analysis

Skeletal stains, brightfield images and colorimetric *in situs* were imaged on a Zeiss SteREO

Discovery.V8 or Zeiss Axioimager.Z1 microscopes, whereas fluorescent *in situs*, fluorescent bone

stains, live transgenic fish, and immunostained specimens were imaged on a Nikon C2 confocal.

trpv6+/igfbp5a+ ionocytes and *stc1a+* cells were quantified using the 'spots' option in Imaris

10.1.1. CS volumes were measured with the surface labeling option in Imaris 10.1.1. A minimum

of six replicates were counted for each genotype/stage combination.

Data analysis

Data analysis was performed with GraphPad Prism (Version 10.2.3). p-values were calculated

with Chi-square tests or unpaired two-tailed t-tests as noted in the figure legends.

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Author Contributions

The project was conceived by S.G. and L.B. Zebrafish experiments were performed by S.G., S.P.,

S.M. L.S., K.C.S., and L.B. Crucial fish lines and guidance were provided by C.D. and R.K. Writing

and interpretation were performed primarily by S.G. and L.B. with input from C.D. and R.K.

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Figures

Figure 1. Mineralization deficit in zebrafish *sox10* mutants. (A) A major delay in initiation of

bone mineralization in *sox10* mutants between 3 and 7 dpf is revealed by Alizarin red staining.

Some mineralization is present by 5 dpf but never achieves control levels before lethality at 8 dpf.

Scale bar: 100 µm. Schematic representation of the affected mineralized structures and their

embryonic origins. **(C, D)** Von Kossa (C, scale bar: 200 µm), and Osteoimage (D, scale bar: 100

µm) staining show absent calcium deposition and hydroxyapatite formation in *sox10* mutants at 4

dpf and gradual recovery starting at 5 dpf. Arrowheads pointing at the opercle (op). Numbers in

all panels indicate the proportion of larvae of that genotype with the presented phenotype.

Figure 2. Normal patterns of growth and differentiation in *sox10* mutant osteoblasts. (A) Reference image of a larva stained with Alcian blue and Alizarin red, with locations of skeletal elements shown in B (magenta dashed line) and C (white line) highlighted. op, opercle. **(B)** Immunostaining with an anti-Sox10 antibody reveals strong expression in chondrocytes but a lack of Sox10 protein (asterisk) in mineralizing osteoblasts (*sp7*:GFP+) forming the op bone at 3 dpf. Scale bar: 10 µm. **(C)** Normal growth of *sox10* mutant op (arrowhead) as well as other bones despite minimal calcium accumulation, revealed by live imaging of Alizarin red-stained *sp7*:GFP+ embryos at 4 and 7 dpf. Scale bar: 100 µm. **(D-D")** Sequential live imaging shows normal patterns of *RUNX2*:mCherry, *sp7*:GFP and *osc*:GFP transgene expression in mutant osteoblasts of the op at 4 and 7 dpf. Scale bar: 10 µm. **(E)** Colorimetric *in situ* hybridizations for *col10a1a* and *phospho1*, encoding key bone matrix components, revealed no overt abnormalities in *sox10* mutants at 4 dpf. Scale bar: 100 µm.

Figure 3. *sox10* mutants have a severe whole-body calcium deficit. (A-B) Colorimetric
calcium assay reveals significantly lower levels of Ca^{2+} in *sox10* mutants after mineralization is
initiated at 3 dpf. Each data point represents a pool of 10-15 embryos. Different shapes represent
biological replicates assayed on different days (unpaired t-tests: 36 hpf: p=0.580, df=8; 48 hpf:
p=0.083, df=8; 72 hpf: p=0.091, df=7; 96 hpf: p=0.0002, df=6; 120 hpf: p=0.0008, df=4; 144 hpf:
p=0.000008, df=4; 168 hpf: p=0.000005, df=6). B is an example of the colorimetric assay, showing
a clear reduction in mutants. **(C)** Schematic representation of the Ca^{2+} treatment protocol. **(D-D')**
Increasing ambient Ca^{2+} levels to 2 or 10 mM does not rescue the mineralization deficit (D; scale
bar: 100 μm) or Ca^{2+} content (D') (unpaired t-tests: 1 vs. 2 mM: p=0.963, df=2; 1 vs. 10 mM:
p=0.778, df=2; 2 vs. 10 mM: p=0.748, df=2). Ratios reflect the number of imaged larvae of that
genotype with the presented phenotype. In D', bars indicate the median; significance determined
by unpaired t-test. Scale bar: 100 μm.

Figure 4. Reduction in *trpv6+* NaR cell number in the *sox10* mutants. (A) Immunostaining of

a 3 dpf *SOX10:Cre; ef1a: DsRed>GFP* larva with an antibody against the Na+/K+ ATPase pump

confirms that NaR ionocytes do not derive from neural crest. Scale bar: 100 µm. **(B)** rt-PCR

demonstrates that *trpv6* transcription is not overtly altered at the whole-body level at 4 dpf. Each

point represents a pool of 10-15 embryos (unpaired t-test: p=0.954, df=4). **(C-D')** Fluorescent *in*

situ hybridizations for *igfbp5a* and *trpv6* (C,D) both demonstrate a striking and significant

reduction in the number of NaR cells in mutants at 4 dpf (quantified in C', D'), with partial recovery

by 7 dpf (unpaired t-tests; *trpv6*: 4 dpf: p<0.000001, df=20; 7 dpf: p=0.0006, df=17; *igfbp5a:* 4 dpf:

p=0.0001, df=23; 7 dpf: p<0.0001, df=17). Scale bar: 100 µm.

Figure 5. Upregulation of anti-hypercalcemic hormone *stc1a* in *sox10* mutants. (A-B) Both

semi-quantitative rt-PCR (A) and *in situ* hybridization (B) detect a robust upregulation of *stc1a*

mRNA in *sox10* mutants at 4 dpf (unpaired t-test in A, p<0.0001, df=4). Scale bars: 200 µm in B

and 100 µm in inset. (C-D) The increase in *stc1a* transcript levels is due at least in part to an

increase in the number of *stc1a+* cells in *sox10* mutant Corpuscles, first detected at 45 hpf and

resolving at 7 dpf (unpaired t-tests; 36 hpf: p=0.640, df=11; for 45 hpf: p=0.00009, for df=8; for 72

hpf: p=0.002, df=6; for 96 hpf: p=0.00003, df=10; for 168 hpf: p=0.0007, df=10. Scale bars in C:

10 µm.

Figure 6. *sox10+* crest-derived cells surround the Corpuscles of Stannius and are missing

in *sox10* mutants. (A) Schematic representation of the Corpuscles' position and surrounding

environs. The glands are positioned ventral to the dorsal aorta (da), dorsal to the pronephros, and

flanking the posterior cardinal vein (pcv). *sox10+* lineage cells branch off neighboring axon tracts

(lined with sox10+ Schwann cells and Schwann cell precursors) to contact the Corpuscles. **(B)**

Control 72 hpf larva doubly transgenic for *fli1:*EGFP (magenta, labeling vasculature) and

*her6:*mCherry (green, labeling the Corpuscles). Top image is a single optical section from the

lateral perspective showing endothelial cells wrapping around the CS. Bottom image is a

maximum intensity projection rotated orthogonally to show the close interaction of the CS with the

pcv. **(C)** Single optical section showing that *sox10:*DsRed+ cells are also in close contact with the

Tp1:VenusPEST+ Corpuscles by 50 hpf. **(D-E)** Whole-mount live imaging of *SOX10:Cre B>R;*

Tp1:VenusPEST fish shows *sox10+* lineage cells surrounding the CS at earlier stages (58 and 72

hpf), nearby at 96 and 168 hpf, and absent in the *sox10* mutants. The entire fish is shown in D to

highlight the deficiency of trunk NCCs (magenta). **(E')** Volume measurements of control and

mutant *Tp1:*VenusPEST+ CS between 58 and 168 hpf. Only the right CS, closest to the lens, was

845   measured (unpaired t-tests; 58 hpf: p=0.0001, df=16; 72 hpf: p=0.00001, df=24; 96 hpf: p=0.003,

846   df=19; 168 hpf: p=0.068, df=10). Scale bars: B and D: 10 µm, C: 100 µm.

Figure 7. *stc1a* is epistatic to *sox10* in control of systemic calcium content. **(A)** Brightfield

images of *sox10* and *stc1a* controls and mutants at 4 dpf. Double mutants phenocopy the loss of

pigment (arrow) and the inner ear malformations (asterisk) of single *sox10* mutants and the

cardiac edema of the *stc1a* mutant (arrowhead). **(B-C')** Loss of *stc1a* on the *sox10* mutant

background improves mineralization **(B)** and the number of *trpv6*+ ionocytes **(C)** at 4 dpf,

quantified in C' (unpaired t-test; p=0.0207, df=18). Dashed bars indicate the median. **(D)** Calcium

quantification shows an increase (unpaired t-test; p=0.143, df=6) in calcium levels in *sox10⁻/⁻;*

856   *stc1a*$^{-/-}$ compared to *sox10*$^{-/-}$. Dashed bars indicate the median. **(E)** Quantitation of mineralization

857   levels in *sox10; stc1a* clutches grouped based on the intensity of the Alizarin red staining. There

858   was a significant increase in the proportion of double mutants with detectable mineralization

859   compared with *sox10* single mutants (Chi-square; p=0.0206, df=3). In C'-E, 'control' includes wild-

860   type and heterozygous larvae. Scale bars: 100 μm.