Wnt/β-Catenin coordinates muscle spindle development by regulating capsule differentiation, intrafusal fiber nuclei aggregation and proprioceptive nerve endings

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Abstract

Proprioception is essential for regulating posture, coordinating movements, and maintaining

musculoskeletal integrity. The muscle spindle, a mechanosensory organ composed of several

types of tissues, detects stretch, forming proprioceptive awareness. Despite its significance, the

molecular mechanisms underlying the coordinated development of the different tissues

composing the spindle remain unclear.

Here we show that Wnt ligands and their Fzd receptors are expressed in the developing spindle.

Similarly, β-catenin is active in both the spindle capsule and intrafusal fibers throughout their

development. Embryonic deletion of β-catenin from these tissues impaired capsule cell

differentiation, intrafusal fiber nuclei organization, and proprioceptive nerve ending morphology.

Postnatal deletion of β-catenin solely in intrafusal fibers results in abnormal proprioceptive nerve

endings, suggesting both cell-autonomous and cell-non-autonomous roles of β-catenin in muscle

spindle development. Our subsequent RNA transcriptome analysis of the β-catenin mutant

spindle not only provides a molecular mechanism underlying the role of β-catenin in spindle

development, but also expands the repertoire of molecules involved in spindle biology. By

exposing a vast repertoire of new molecules involving all spindle tissues, our transcriptome

could serve as a resource and benchmark for future discoveries in spindle biology.

Collectively, our findings position the Wnt/β-catenin pathway as a central regulator with cell-

autonomous and cell-non-autonomous roles, coordinating the diverse tissues of the spindle into a

functional organ. Our transcriptome data further provide insight into spindle biology through a

set of newly discovered molecules.

Introduction

The proprioceptive system reports on the relative position and movement of body parts and is therefore essential for control and coordination of movement and posture[1]. In humans, loss of proprioception leads to compromised sensory and motor control resulting in ataxia, abnormal gait, and difficulties in identifying the position of body parts[2]. Furthermore, in recent years, studies in mice show that proprioceptive dysfunction contributes to various musculoskeletal pathologies, including scoliosis, hip dysplasia, and joint contractures[3-6].

A central component of the mammalian proprioceptive system is the muscle spindle, a small mechanosensory organ that is sparsely embedded within skeletal muscles. The spindle detects changes in muscle length and transmits this information to the central nervous system to establish proprioceptive awareness[7-8]. A muscle spindle is a complex organ composed of specialized muscle fibers, termed intrafusal fibers, which are innervated by proprioceptive sensory neurons at their central region and by γ-motor neurons at their polar ends. Intrafusal fibers are classified by their nuclear organization and function into three types: bag1, bag2, and chain fibers. The spindle is partially isolated from its surroundings by a capsule rich in extracellular matrix (ECM) that is secreted by capsule cells[7-8].

Muscle spindle development begins around embryonic day 14 (E14), when slow myofibers first contact proprioceptive axons and differentiate into intrafusal fibers in a sequential process[8]. First, nuclear bag fibers are formed, followed by the formation of nuclear chain fibers[9]. In coordination with fiber differentiation, proprioceptive neurons undergo maturation. This morphogenetic process transforms a web-like network into a complex structure termed the annulospiral ending, where neurons wrap around the center of each intrafusal fiber[10]. Capsule development also involves progressive waves of cell differentiation, moving from the center of the spindle to its sides[11]. We know little about spindle development at the molecular level. Neuregulin 1 (NRG1), expressed by sensory neurons, activates ErbB2 signaling in myofibers to induce the intrafusal genetic program. In return, neurotrophin-3 expressed by intrafusal fibers activates the tropomyosin receptor kinase C (TrkC) receptor on proprioceptive sensory neurons, which is necessary for their survival[12-16]. Recent work has shown that LRP4 expression in intrafusal fibers is necessary to maintain the sensory synapses of annulospiral endings and thereby proprioceptive function[17]. Nevertheless,

molecular mechanisms underlying the coordinated development of the different tissues forming

the spindle are unknown.

Wnt/β-catenin signaling is a central pathway that regulates a variety of cellular processes during

development, including cell fate determination, migration, and polarity, as well as tissue

homeostasis, regeneration, and pathology. The pathway is activated when Wnt ligands bind to their

membrane receptors Frizzled and LRP5/6. This interaction results in the translocation of β-catenin

to the nucleus, where it activates transcription of target genes by interacting with TCF/LEF

transcription factors[18-19]. Interestingly, Wnt7A expression is detected in γ-motor neurons of the

muscle spindle, whereas Frizzled 5 is expressed in the capsule[20]. These observations suggest that

Wnt/β-catenin signaling may be involved in spindle development.

In this study, we find both Wnt ligands and Fzd receptors to be expressed in different spindle

tissues. Moreover, we find persistent activation of Wnt/β-catenin in capsule and Bag2 intrafusal

fibers throughout spindle development. Embryonic deletion of β-catenin from both capsule and

intrafusal fibers reduces differentiation of capsule cells, disrupts intrafusal fiber nuclear

organization, and causes disorganization of proprioceptive nerve endings. The latter also occurs

upon postnatal deletion from muscle fibers alone, indicating both cell autonomous and non-

autonomous regulation of β-catenin during spindle development. Our RNA-seq analysis identifies

molecular mechanisms for Wnt/β-catenin regulation of spindle development and reveals novel

muscle spindle genes. Collectively, our findings identify a new function of β-catenin in the

regulation of spindle development and implicate numerous previously unknown genes in spindle

biology.

Results

The Wnt/ β-catenin pathway is active in muscle spindles throughout development

To identify potential molecular pathways that regulate spindle development, we applied Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA)[21] on RNA-seq data we recently obtained from spindles[11]. We identified numerous upstream regulators of genes enriched in spindles, including the top candidates *Pou4f1, Dnmt3b,* and *Ctnnb1* (Table S1). *Ctnnb1*'s protein product β-catenin is a central intracellular signal transducer in the Wnt signaling pathway[18-19]. Indeed, IPA reveals enrichment of multiple components of the Wnt/β-catenin pathway (Figure 1A), including Wnt ligands, Frizzled receptors, and TCF/LEF transcription factors (Figure 1B). These results suggest an important role for Wnt/β-catenin signaling in spindle development.

Our transcriptomic analysis reveals upregulated expression of several Wnt ligands (*Wnt1, Wnt2b, Wnt3, Wnt6, Wnt7b and Wnt10a, Wnt10b, Wnt16)* and Frizzled receptors (*Fzd1, Fzd2, Fzd3, Fzd5, Fzd9* and *Fzd10)* in muscle spindles (Table S2). To validate these results and to determine the spatial distribution of some of these molecules, we applied HCR to frozen sections from deep masseter muscles and whole-mount extensor digitorium longus (EDL) muscles. To outline the various spindle tissues, we used *Gli1-CreER^{T2};TdTomato* to mark capsule cells[11] (Figure 1C-H) and *Calb1-Cre;TdTomato* to mark intrafusal fibers[22] (Figure S1). *Wnt2b*, *Wnt6,* and *Fzd2* are expressed by capsule cells (Figure 1C-E), whereas *Wnt7b* and *Fzd10* are expressed by intrafusal fiber cells (Figure 1F-G, Figure S1A, C). *Wnt10a* is expressed in both capsule cells and intrafusal fibers (Figure 1H, Figure S1B).

Figure 1. Transcriptomic and expression analysis reveals expression of Wnt/β-catenin pathway components in muscle spindles. (A) Ingenuity Pathway Analysis of differentially expressed genes (DEG) between muscle spindle and muscle samples. (B) Schematic representation of Wnt/β-catenin pathway. Purple blocks represent genes upregulated in spindles compared to muscles. (C-H) Confocal images of longitudinal sections of deep masseter muscles (C-D, F, H) and whole-mount of EDL muscles (E, G) from P33 *Gli1-CreER^{T2},Rosa26-tdTomato* mice. Expression of the indicated Wnt/β-catenin pathway genes was detected by HCR probes following tamoxifen administration at P26. *Wnt2b*, *Wnt6* and *Fzd2* are expressed in capsule cells (C-E) with enlarged image for *Fzd2* (E), *Wnt7b* and *Fzd10* are expressed in intrafusal fibers (F,G) with enlarged image for *Fzd10* (G), and *Wnt10a* is expressed in both (H) with enlarged image. Arrow points at capsule expression and arrowhead points at intrafusal expression. Top: schematic representation of muscle spindles show in purple the tissue in which the indicated genes were expressed. Scale bars: 100 µm for enlarged images, and 50 µm for the rest.

To directly study Wnt/β-catenin pathway activity in the developing spindle, we used *Axin2*-membrane GFP (mGFP) reporter mice. *Axin2* is a direct target of Wnt/β-catenin, and *Axin2-mGFP*

mice report pathway activity faithfully[23]. As seen in Figure 2A, we detect GFP signal in both

extrafusal fibers and muscle spindles at postnatal day 0 (P0) and P5. At P25 and P40, the GFP

signal is lost in extrafusal fibers but maintained in muscle spindles. To determine the spindle cell

types in which Wnt signaling is active, we stained EDL muscles from *Axin2-mGFP* mice using

antibodies against MyHC7B and Glut1, markers for bag2 fiber and capsule cells, respectively[11, 24].

As shown in Figure 2B-C and Figure S2, at all stages of development, Wnt/ β-catenin activity is

specific to bag2 fibers and capsule cells. Overall, these results show that Wnt signaling is active

and ongoing in developing spindles.

Figure 2. β-catenin activity is detected in muscle spindles throughout development. (A)
Confocal images of whole-mount EDL muscles from P0, P5, P25 and P40 *Axin2-mGFP* mice
stained with antibodies against GFP (magenta) and DAPI (blue). Dotted lines demarcate
equatorial region of spindles. Scale bars: 50 µm. (B-C") Confocal images of whole-mount EDL
muscles from P25 *Axin2-mGFP* mice stained with antibodies against GFP, DAPI and MyHC7B
(green, B-B") or Glut1 (white, C-C"). Above are schematic representations of muscle spindles
with the tissue analyzed in purple. Scale bars: 50 µm.

Embryonic β -catenin is necessary for muscle spindle development

To directly test the hypothesis that Wnt/β-catenin pathway regulates muscle spindle development, we deleted β-catenin from both intrafusal fibers and capsule cells using $Egr3^{Cre}$ mice, in which Cre recombination is induced in these cells[25]. $Egr3^{Cre}$, β-$catenin^{loxP/+}$ mice were crossed with β-$catenin^{loxP/loxP}$ mice[26]. β-catenin mutants were born at the expected ratio; however, during postnatal growth, mutants appeared smaller, lacked fur and died by P30.

Given that muscle spindles largely acquire adult morphology by P25[8,11], we studied the effect of β-catenin loss in P25 mice. First, we examined capsule development by analyzing the expression of GLUT1 and VCAN, markers for early and advanced capsule differentiation, respectively[11]. As shown in Figures 3A and 3E, we detect GLUT1 expression in control spindles throughout the muscle spindle, whereas in mutant spindles its expression is restricted to the equatorial region. Moreover, unlike in controls, VCAN expression is almost absent in mutant spindles (Figure 3B), suggesting that capsule cells failed to differentiate. Finally, the distance between GLUT1+ layers is smaller, indicating a thinner muscle spindle in mutants (Figure 3E')

Next, we examined intrafusal fiber development, by analyzing the typical morphological feature of nuclear organization at the equatorial regions of bag fibers[7-8]. We find that nuclear organization in mutant bag2 fibers is clearly abnormal, marked by abnormal aggregation in the equatorial region. By contrast, nuclear aggregation in mutant bag1 fibers is comparable to wild type (Figure 3C, C', F). Collectively and in agreement with the observed activation patterns of β-catenin, these results suggest that β-catenin is necessary for bag2 fiber development.

Finally, we studied the development of the annulospiral endings of type Ia proprioceptive neurons, which innervate intrafusal fibers, using an antibody against ATP1a3[11]. As seen in Figure 3D-D', while proprioceptive neurons of control mice exhibit stereotypical annulospiral loops, β-catenin mutant spindles show abnormal morphology (Figure 3G-G'). Quantification reveals loops with similar width, but with reduced number of loops and increased distance between loops in both bag1 and bag2 fibers (Figure 3G-G''). Interestingly, these morphological alterations are more severe in annulospiral endings innervating bag2 fibers than in those innervating bag1 fibers.

Overall, our findings indicate that Wnt/ β-catenin activity is necessary for the development of all spindle tissues, including the capsule, intrafusal fibers, and proprioceptive neuron, suggesting both cell-autonomous and cell-non autonomous roles of β-catenin.

Figure 3. Deletion of β-catenin from capsule and intrafusal fibers results in morphological abnormalities in three spindle tissues. (A-D') Confocal images of P25 muscle spindles from mice of the indicated genotypes. Capsules were stained with anti-GLUT1 antibodies in whole-mount gluteus muscles, ECM was stained with anti-VCAN antibodies in longitudinal sections from deep masseter muscles, bag2 intrafusal fibers were stained with anti-MyHC7B antibodies in whole-mount EDL muscles, and proprioceptive neurons were stained with anti-ATP 1a3 antibodies in whole-mount gluteus muscles. Scale bars: 50 µm. (E) GLUT1 expression was restricted to the equatorial regions in mutants (**$P<0.01$, n=3). Gluteus muscles were used for quantification. (E') Decreased distance between GLUT1$^+$ capsule layers indicates a shorter spindle height in mutants (**$P<0.01$, n=3). Gluteus muscles were used for quantification. (F) Abnormal nuclear aggregation and shorter nucleus height in the equatorial regions of mutant intrafusal fibers (**$P<0.01$, n=3). EDL muscles were used for quantification. (G-G") Although the width of annulospiral endings was not affected, the distance between loops and the number of loops per spindle was decreased in mutants (**$P<0.01$, *$P<0.05$, n=3). EDL muscles were used for the quantification.

Postnatal deletion of β-catenin in intrafusal fibers leads to abnormal annulospiral endings

Persistent β-catenin activity throughout spindle development strongly suggests its necessity past the embryonic stage. To test this possibility directly and to uncover the possible regulatory role of β-catenin in the postnatal spindle, we used the *HSA^{CreER}* line[27], which allows temporal targeting of extrafusal and intrafusal fibers. Previous postnatal studies using this line to delete β-catenin have not identified a major phenotype in the extrafusal fibers[28]. We therefore expected that any spindle phenotype will represent a postnatal, direct role of β-catenin in intrafusal fibers.

We crossed *HSA$^{CreER/+}$, β-catenin$^{loxP/+}$* mice with *β-catenin$^{loxP/loxP}$* mice, then administered tamoxifen at P5 before collecting spindles at P25. As shown in Figure 4A-B, the pattern and level of both capsule markers, GLUT1 and VCAN, is unaffected in *β*-catenin mutant mice. Similarly, the distance between GLUT1+ layers is normal, indicating that the capsule of *HSA^{CreER}-β-catenin* mutant spindles develops normally (Fig. 4E-E'). We compared intrafusal fibers between control and mutant spindles and find no difference in nuclear aggregation (Fig. 4C,C', F). Interestingly, however, mutant annulospiral endings innervating bag2 fibers are abnormal, with fewer and more spaced loops, while annulospiral endings of bag1 fibers are intact (Fig. 4D,D', G-G"). These

219   results suggest that β-catenin activity in intrafusal fibers is necessary for the postnatal integrity of

220   the proprioceptive neuron annulospiral endings.

	HSA$^{CreER/+}$—β-cat$^{loxP/+}$	HSA$^{CreER/+}$—β-cat$^{loxP/loxP}$
Capsule	**A** Glut1	
Extracellular matrix	**B** Vcan	
Bag1 fiber	**C** MyHC7B DAPI	
Bag2 fiber	**C'** MyHC7B DAPI	
Bag1 nerve	**D** ATP 1a3	
Bag2 nerve	**D'** ATP 1a3	

E Glut1 Length (μm) — ns — Control, Mutant

E' Spindle Height (μm) — ns — Control, Mutant

F Nuclei Height (μm) — ns, ns — Bag1, Bag2 — ● Control ○ Mutant

G Number of Annulospiral Ending Loops — ns, * — Bag1, Bag2

G' Distance Between Loops (μm) — ns, * — Bag1, Bag2

G'' Loop Width (μm) — ns, ns — Bag1, Bag2 — ● Control ○ Mutant

Figure 4. Postnatal deletion of β-catenin from intrafusal fibers results in disorganized annulospiral endings. (A-D') Confocal images of muscle spindles from whole-mount EDL muscles of mice with indicated genotypes unless specified. Capsules were stained with anti-GLUT1 antibodies, ECM was stained with anti-VCAN antibodies in longitudinal sections from deep masseter muscles, bag2 intrafusal fibers were stained with anti-MyHC7B antibodies, and proprioceptive neurons were stained with ATP 1a3 antibodies. Arrows point at bag1 fiber in (D) and bag2 fiber in (D'). Scale bars: 50 μm. (E-F) Expression of GLUT1, spindle height as measured by the distance between GLUT1$^+$ capsule layers, and nuclear aggregation in intrafusal fibers were not significantly different between controls and mutants (n=3). (G-G'') Although the width of annulospiral endings was similar, the distance between loops and the number of loops per spindle was decreased in mutants (*$P<0.05$, n=3).

Loss of β-catenin in the spindle results in extensive transcriptional changes across various spindle tissues

To provide a molecular understanding for the abnormal development of β-catenin mutant spindles, we compared the transcriptomes of *Egr3-β-catenin* mutant and control spindles. The extensive impact of losing β-catenin expression on spindle development suggests that deletion affects expression of a broad range of genes. Moreover, since most of the molecular components of the spindle remain poorly understood, identifying these genes will not only enhance our understanding of β-catenin's function but also provide a list of numerous previously unknown genes essential for spindle biology. Given that *Egr3^{Cre}* also targets β-catenin in other tissues, including the interstitial cells surrounding extrafusal fibers (Figure S3), we compared samples of extrafusal fibers from both lines to filter out differentially expressed genes (DEG) that are not spindle-specific.

Using principal components analysis (PCA), we find different transcriptional states in control and β-catenin mutant spindles (Figure S4A). In addition, we observe separation between control and mutant muscle samples. Differential expression analysis revealed 747 differentially downregulated and 297 upregulated genes in mutant spindles, as compared to the control (Figure S4B), indicating differential molecular signatures between control and β-catenin mutant spindles.

Next, to identify spindle-specific transcriptional changes, we performed K-means clustering of all DEGs in spindles and muscle samples using Partek[29]. As seen in Figure 5A, cluster 1 includes 418

spindle-specific downregulated genes, whereas cluster 7 includes 65 upregulated genes (Table S3).

In other five resulting clusters, similar gene expression changes between control and mutant

samples of spindles and extrafusal muscle tissues. This similarity suggests a global effects of β-

catenin deletion in other non-spindle tissues, for example the interstitial cells surrounding the

extrafusal fibers, as a result of *Egr3* expression in these cells.

To associate the observed transcriptional changes with the various spindle tissue types, we next

crossed-referenced the list of downregulated spindle-specific genes in cluster 1 with published

tissue type-specific transcriptomic data[11]. We identified 64 extracellular genes, 46 proprioceptive

neuron genes, and 10 intrafusal genes (Figure 5B and Table S4). GO terms and enriched pathway

analysis of these genes reveals terms like "extracellular matrix" and "collagen trimer" for

extracellular space genes, "neuron projection morphogenesis" and "positive regulation of synaptic

transmission" for proprioceptive neuron genes, and "neuron projection morphogenesis" and

"transporter complex" for intrafusal genes. Reduced expression of genes and associated GO terms

from all spindle tissue types is consistent with our finding that Wnt/*β*-catenin activity is necessary

for the development of all these tissues (Figure 3).

To validate the results and to obtain spatial information, we performed HCR on tissue-specific

candidate genes identified by the transcriptomic analysis. Starting with capsule genes, we verified

the expression of two novel spindle genes: *Gjb2,* a membrane protein that facilitates cell-to-cell

communication and mediates glucose transport[30]; and the retinol transporter STRA6, which binds

retinol-binding proteins[31]. As indicated by our bioinformatic analysis, expression of these top

DEGs in the β-catenin mutant spindle is reduced (Figure 5C and Figure S4C). Another novel

spindle gene, nerve growth factor receptor (NFGR), known to be important for axon guidance, was

indicated by our analysis to be expressed by the intrafusal fibers and proprioceptive neurons

(Figure 5C and Figure S4C). Interestingly, our transcriptomic data also identify genes encoding

Ngfr ligands, such as *Ngf, Bdnf, Ntf3,* and *Ntf5*[32], to be expressed in spindles, supporting a role for

this receptor in proprioceptive neuron development. We validated expression of *Ngfr* in the

equatorial region of muscle spindles, and identified reduced *Ngfr* expression in β-catenin mutant

spindles (Figure 5C'). Another new gene we predicted to be expressed in the intrafusal fibers is

Klhl6 that is known to be important for B-cell survival and maturation[33]. As can be observed in

Fig. 5C'', we confirm both the expression of *Klhl6* in the equatorial region and its reduction in the

β-catenin mutant spindle.

Figure 5. Transcriptomic analysis of *Egr3-β-catenin* mutant and control tissues. (A)
Heatmap of DE between control and mutant spindle and muscle tissues. (B-B") Top: schematic
representation of the tissue being analyzed in purple. Middle: A Venn diagram showing
overlapping genes between DE downregulated genes in mutant spindles and extracellular space
genes (B), proprioceptive neurons (B') and intrafusal genes (B"). Bottom: Gene ontology (GO)
analysis for enriched biological processes in each the overlapping datasets. (C-C") Confocal
images of whole-mount EDL muscle processed with HCR against Gjb2 in the capsule cells (C),
Ngfr in the proprioceptive nerve (C') and Klhl6 in the intrafusal fibers (C").

The molecular changes underlying the role of β-catenin in muscle spindle development.

To identify molecular signatures underlying the phenotypes in β-catenin mutated muscle spindles, we subjected the spindle-specific genes from cluster 1 to IPA. We find that the most affected cellular pathways are connective tissue-related and neuronal (Table S5 and Figure 6A). Connective tissue pathways contain terms such as "assembly of collagen fibrils and other multimeric structures"; genes downregulated in mutant spindle include various collagens, fibulin, and integrins, including *Col12a1* and *Col18a1*, and ECM genes, such as *Itgb4* and *Loxl4* (Figure 6B, Table S5). The neuronal pathways include terms like "axon guidance" and "synaptogenesis". Genes that were downregulated in β-catenin mutant spindle include *Dlg4*, *Grin2d,* and *Stx1b*, which are involved in synaptogenesis, as well as axon guidance-associated *Ntrk3* and *Ngfr* (Figure 6C, Table S5). Interestingly, our analysis also identified downregulation of genes encoding coupled guidance ligands and receptors crucial to both synaptogenesis and axon guidance, including the Eph-ephrin, neurexin-neuroligin, and semaphorin-plexin signaling pathways (Figure 6C'). These findings are consistent with the phenotypes in β-catenin mutant spindles, including capsule and sensory nerve defects.

In contrast to the sensory neurons and capsule cells, IPA analysis does not reveal a clear molecular explanation for the intrafusal phenotype. The loss of nuclear aggregation in the equatorial region of β-catenin mutant bag2 fibers led us to hypothesize that the affected genes might be specifically expressed by nuclei within the equatorial region. To test this possibility, we cross-referenced the list of 10 differentially expressed intrafusal fiber genes with a published dataset on the equatorial region[22]. This analysis revealed three genes—*Igfn1*, *Lrtm1*, and *Klhl6,* that we described above. Interestingly, *IGFN1* is an adhesion protein involved in myoblast fusion and differentiation[34], while *LRTM1* is a transmembrane protein found at synapses[35]. Although we see changes in the expression of several intrafusal fiber genes, which further expand our understanding of the molecular phenotype of β-catenin mutant spindles, these changes do not explain the loss of nuclear aggregation in the mutant spindles. Therefore, we investigated the expression of genes previously shown to be important for nuclear arrangements during development, regeneration, and at neuromuscular junctions (NMJ)[36]. Of the 29 relevant genes (Table S6), *Pard6g* and *Lmnb2* are significantly downregulated in mutant spindles.

Overall, we establish Wnt/β-catenin as a key molecular component in the coordinated development of the different muscle spindle tissues. Our transcriptional analysis of spindles from control and β-

catenin mutant mice sheds light on molecular mechanisms underlying spindle tissue development

regulated by β-catenin, and reveals many genes and pathways not previously implicated in muscle

spindle development.

Figure 6. IPA analysis of muscle spindle-specific DE downregulated genes between *Egr3-β-
***catenin* mutants and controls.** (A) IPA pathway analysis of genes from cluster 1 (Figure 5A). (B)
DEG from connective tissue IPA pathways. (C) DEG from neuronal IPA pathways. (C') DEG
from neuronal IPA pathways that show ligand-receptor interactions.

Discussion

Muscle spindles are the sensory receptors at the heart of proprioception, and yet surprisingly little is known about the molecular basis of their development. Here, we show that Wnt/β-catenin signaling is active in developing spindles and is required for proper development of specific components of the spindle apparatus. Deletion of β-catenin from the embryonic capsule and intrafusal fibers leads to malformations in the capsule, intrafusal fibers, and proprioceptive nerve endings, suggesting both autonomous and non-autonomous regulatory roles in spindle development. Specific deletion of β-catenin in postnatal muscle fibers disrupts the structure of proprioceptive nerves, further supporting a non-autonomous role for intrafusal β-catenin in nerve ending development. Finally, we use transcriptomic analysis of β-catenin mutant spindles to reveal genetic mechanisms under β-catenin control that may guide muscle spindle development.

Outside of the initial steps during embryogenesis[7-9,11-16], muscle spindle development is poorly studied, such that molecular mechanisms that coordinate the development of different spindle tissue types are unknown. In that context, our finding that β-catenin is active throughout spindle development in bag2 intrafusal fibers is interesting. Bag2 fibers are the first intrafusal fibers to form[9] and, therefore, it is tempting to speculate that β-catenin activity in these fibers is part of the coordinating mechanism.

Concurrently with the progression of intrafusal fiber development, proprioceptive neurons undergo maturation to form the complex structure of the annulospiral endings[10]. Recently, we showed that capsule development involves progressive waves of cell differentiation, moving from the center of the spindle to its sides[11]. Our new finding that blocking β-catenin in intrafusal fibers and capsule cells affects the development of all three spindle tissues supports its autonomous and non-autonomous regulatory roles in spindle development.

Substantial evidence suggests that the muscle spindle capsule functions as a diffusion barrier, similar to the blood-nerve barrier in peripheral nerves[37-39]. This requires a molecular mechanism to ensure sufficient nutrient transport into the spindle. Our finding that the expression of *Gjb2*, *Glut1* and *Stra6* is reduced in β-catenin mutants may provide insight into this mechanism. Studies of inner ear development have shown that Gjb2 regulates glucose uptake, whereas Gjb2 and Glut1

were reported to cooperate in the rat cochlea to allow proper glucose transport[30]. Stra6 is a cell-
surface receptor that transfers retinol from retinol-binding protein into the cell, and is upregulated
by Wnt1 and Wnt3a[31]. Thus, these nutrient receptors and transporters are likely to be part of this
mechanism, regulated by β-catenin.

Capsule formation involves extensive ECM production. In β-catenin mutant spindles, we see that
many ECM building blocks are downregulated, including collagens, fibulin, and integrins, which
facilitate cell-ECM adhesion[40], and lysyl oxidase like 4 (loxl4), which catalyzes crosslinks in
collagens[41]. Together with the downregulation of versican, these results indicate deficits in ECM
synthesis and assembly, further supporting a role for β-catenin in capsule cell development.

While nuclear aggregation is a hallmark of intrafusal bag2 and bag1 fibers, little is known of the
molecular mechanism that regulates this process. Our finding that β-catenin activity is required for
nuclear aggregation exclusively during early stages of spindle development provides a molecular
entry point into this interesting process. Since nuclear movement, including aggregation, also
occurs during the formation of regular muscle fibers and in the NMJ[36], the underlying molecular
mechanism, which may involve β-catenin, could be shared. Our analysis of genes important for
nuclear movement reveals downregulation of *Pard6g* and *Lmnb2* in β-catenin mutant mice.
Pard6g encodes polarity proteins belonging to Par6 family, which interact with dynein/dynactin
at the nuclear envelope to drive nuclear centration during muscle development. *Lmnb2* encodes B
type nuclear lamin in the inner nuclear membrane, which is important for all nuclear movements,
including centration, spreading, dispersion and clustering, throughout muscle development,
maintenance and regeneration[36]. Moreover, we identified IGFN and KLHL6 as intrafusal genes.
IGFN1 is implicated in myoblast fusion and diffeentiation[34], suggesting its potential role in
intrafusal nuclear aggregation. The only function reported for KLHL6 is in B-cell survival and
maturation; however, other Kelch-like genes such as *Klhl19*, *Klhl40,* and *Klhl41* are important for
skeletal muscle development[33], suggesting a role for KLHL6 in intrafusal fiber development.
Further investigation into these genes may reveal the mechanism responsible for nuclear
aggregation in the muscle spindle.

At the interface with the intrafusal fibers, sensory endings undergo extensive morphological changes during development to form the annulospiral loops[8,10]. The abnormal morphology of annulospiral endings in β-catenin mutant spindles clearly suggests that β-catenin is necessary for their maturation. However, we find that β-catenin is not active in sensory endings, implying a cell non-autonomous regulatory mechanism. This possibility is supported by the abnormal morphology of annulospiral endings upon blocking β-catenin expression only in intrafusal fibers.

The loss of β-catenin resulted in downregulation of several key signaling pathways that are involved in axon guidance and synaptogenesis, including components of ephrin-Eph, semaphorin-plexin and neurexin-neuroligin pathways. This may implicate these pathways in the regulation of annulospiral loops, downstream of β-catenin. Interestingly, Ephrin-A/EphA signaling is involved in proprioceptor muscle targeting[42]. Indeed, transcription of two of the downregulated guidance genes, Eph receptor B2 and neuroligin-3, is regulated by the Wnt/β-catenin pathway in intestinal stem cells and in hippocampal cells, respectively[43-44]. The three pathways share similar mechanisms, involving receptors on one cell and ligands on the other[45-47]. The interaction of receptors and ligands leads to downstream events, including attraction or repulsion of contacting cells and synaptic cleft bridging. Similarly, the expression of *Ngfr* in intrafusal fibers and of its ligands in spindles raises the possibility that some of these ligands interact with Ngfr on intrafusal fibers to control the modeling of annulospiral loops. Overall, our results provide several molecular entry points to study the formation of this interesting sensory structure and its connection with intrafusal fibers.

In summary, we establish Wnt/β-catenin as a key component in the mechanism regulating the coordinated development of the different muscle spindle components. The significance of our findings extends beyond addressing the regulatory role of β-catenin in spindle development. Since the molecular milieu of the spindle remains largely unexplored, our perturbation of β-catenin followed by comparative transcriptome analysis reveals a new molecular landscape, illuminating not only the function of β-catenin but also numerous previously unknown genes essential for spindle biology. Moreover, this collection of new molecules sheds light on previously unappreciated aspects of the tissues and processes involved in the functionality of this organ, offering fresh insights into muscle spindle development and function.

Methods

Mouse lines

The generation of *Axin2-mGFP* (The Jackson Laboratory, #037313)[23], *calbindin-Cre*[22], *Egr3-*
Cre[25], *HSA-MCM* (also known as Tg(ACTA1-cre/Esr1*)2Kesr/J; The Jackson Laboratory,
#025750)[27], *Gli1-CreER*[T2] (The Jackson Laboratory, #007913)[11], *Rosa26-tdTomato* (The Jackson
Laboratory, #007909)[48] and *β-catenin*[flox] (aka B6.129-*Ctnnb1*[tm2Kem]/KnwJ; The Jackson Laboratory,
#004152)[26] has been described previously. For HCR of *Wnts*, *calbindin-Cre* mice and *Gli1-CreER*
[T2] mice were crossed with *Rosa26-tdTomato* mice. To induce Cre-mediated recombination in *Gli1-*
CreER[T2]*:Rosa26-tdTomato* mice, 200 mg/kg of 50 mg/mL tamoxifen (Sigma-Aldrich, T5648)
dissolved in corn oil (Sigma-Aldrich, C-8267) was administered at indicated age via oral gavage
(Fine Science Tools). To generate *Egr3* control and mutant mice, *Egr3-Cre* mice were crossed with
β-catenin[flox/flox]*, Rosa26-tdTomato* mice. To generate HSA control and mutant mice, *HSA-MCM*
mice were crossed with *β-catenin*[flox/flox]*, Rosa26-tdTomato* mice. To induce Cre-mediated
recombination, 7 µL of 50 mg/mL tamoxifen in corn oil was administered by oral gavage for 3
consecutive days starting from P5. All animals were sacrificed by CO_2 inhalation, fixed overnight
shaking in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA)/PBS at 4°C, washed in PBS and stored at 4°C in PBS.
Mice were given free access to water and standard mouse chow with 12-h light/dark cycles. All
animal procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of
Weizmann Institute. Ear genomic DNA was used for genotyping by PCR.

Immunofluorescence

For cryosection immunofluorescence, tissues were processed as previously described[11]. In brief,
fixed deep masseter muscles were dissected and placed in 30% sucrose overnight with shaking.
The muscles were then embedded in OCT and sectioned at 30 µm thickness using a cryostat.
Cryosections were dried, post-fixed in 4% PFA, permeabilized with PBS containing 0.3% Triton
X-100, washed with PBS containing 0.1% Tween-20 (PBST) and blocked with 7% goat/horse
serum and 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in PBST. The sections were then incubated with
primary antibodies (Table S7) overnight at 4°C, followed by a 1-hour incubation with secondary
antibodies conjugated with fluorophores (Table S7) at room temperature. The sections were
counterstained with DAPI and mounted with Immu-mount aqueous-based mounting medium

(Thermo Fisher Scientific). Imaging was performed with LSM 800 or LSM900 confocal
microscope (Zeiss).

For whole-mount immunofluorescence, muscles were subjected to an optical tissue clearing
protocol as described previously[11]. Shortly, fixed EDL muscles were dissected and embedded into
an A4P0 hydrogel (4% acrylamide, 0.25% 2'-azobis[2-(2-imidazolin-2-
yl)propane]dihydrochloride in PBS) with shaking at 4°C overnight. Then, samples were
polymerized in hydrogel for 3 h at 37°C and the hydrogel was removed by washing in PBS. Next,
samples were transferred to 10% SDS (pH 8.0) with 0.01% sodium azide, shaking gently at 37°C
for 2 days. Cleared samples were then washed in wash buffer, blocked with CAS block for 5 h at
37°C with shaking, and incubated with primary antibodies (Table 1) for 4 days at 37°C with
shaking. They were then incubated with secondary antibodies (Table 1) and DAPI (8 µg/ml) for 2
days at 37°C with shaking. For clearing and mounting, samples were incubated in 500 µl of
refractive index matching solution (RIMS; 74% wt/vol Histodenz in 0.02 M phosphate buffer) for
1 day at room temperature with gentle shaking. Samples were then embedded in RIMS and imaged
using a Zeiss LSM800 or LSM900 confocal microscope. Images were processed with ImageJ 1.51
(National Institute of Health).

Single-molecule *in situ* hybridization chain reaction (HCR)
For cryosection HCR, deep masseter muscles were dissected, transferred to 30% sucrose overnight
with shaking, then embedded in OCT and sectioned at a thickness of 30 µm using cryostat.
Cryosections were processed for HCR smFISH as described in
http://www.molecularinstruments.com. Briefly, slides were incubated with the specified probes
overnight, washed and incubated with fluorophore-conjugated amplifiers. The sections were
counterstained with DAPI, mounted with Immuno-mount, and imaged using a LSM 800 or
LSM900 confocal microscope (Zeiss).

For whole-mount HCR, EDL muscles were dissected, subjected to optical tissue clearing, and
processed for HCR smFISH as previously described[49]. Shortly, samples were incubated in probe
solution overnight at 37 °C, washed, and then incubated with fluorescent amplifiers overnight at
room temperature. Next, samples were washed and counterstained with DAPI (8 µg/ml) for 2 h at
room temperature. Finally, samples were moved to 500 µl RIMS overnight at room temperature

and embedded in RIMS for imaging. Images were captured by LSM800 or LSM900 confocal
microscope (Zeiss).

Bulk RNA sequencing

For RNA-seq analysis, tissues were processed as described before[11]. Deep masseter muscles, each

containing about 20 spindles, were dissected from *Egr3-Cre;TdTom;catenin* control and mutant

mice. Then, bundles of spindles and adjacent extrafusal muscle fibers were micro-dissected and

frozen on dry ice. For each sample, we pooled the same tissue from two animals of the same

genotype. Each genotype had four replicates for each tissue, four samples of spindles and four

samples of extrafusal fibers for both mutants and controls.

Muscle spindle isolation

To isolate muscle spindles from deep masseter muscles, spindles were dissected in ice-cold Liley's

solution (Liley, 1956) (NaHCO$_3$ 1 g, KCl 0.3 g, KH$_2$PO$_4$ 0.13 g, NaCl 0.2 g, CaCl$_2$ 1 M 2 ml in

total of 1 L DDW).

Sample preparation

Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol Reagent followed by chloroform phase separation and

processing with the RNeasy Micro kit (Qiagen). The quality and concentration of RNA were

assessed using NanoDrop and TapeStation. RNA-seq libraries were generated at the Crown

Genomics Institute of the Nancy and Stephen Grand Israel National Center for Personalized

Medicine, Weizmann Institute of Science, following the INCPM-mRNA-seq protocol. The

libraries were quantified by Qubit and TapeStation. Sequencing was conducted on an Illumina

NextSeq instrument with a single end 75 cycles high output kit, yielding approximately ~20 M

reads or more per sample.

Analysis of RNA-seq data

Transcriptomic data from four replicates of spindle samples and four muscle samples from mutants

and controls were analyzed. A user-friendly Transcriptome Analysis Pipeline (UTAP) version

1.10.1 was used for analysis[50]. Reads were mapped to the *M. musculus* genome (GRCm38), using

STAR (v2.5.2b)[51] and RefSeq annotation. Only reads with unique mapping were considered for

further analysis. Gene expression was calculated and normalized using DESeq2 version 1.16.1[52],

using only genes with a minimum of five reads in at least one sample. Raw p-values were adjusted

for multiple testing[53]. A gene was considered differentially expressed if it passed the following

thresholds: minimum mean normalized expression of 5, adjusted p-value ≤0.05, and absolute value

of log2 fold change ≥1. Ingenuity pathway analysis[21] and Partek[29] were used for analysis.

Statistical analyses

All measurements were taken with confocal Z-stack projections through ImageJ 1.51. At least

eight spindles from three animals of each genotype were measured. Differences were assessed by

comparing animals with different genotypes with a linear mixed-effects model (with animal as a

random factor) and statistical significance was defined as a p-value lower than 0.05. The analyses

were done in R, v. 4.4.2, using the packages 'lmerTest' and 'lme4'.

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.