Sulfatase modifying factors control the timing of zebrafish gastrulation morphogenesis

Ailen Soledad Cervino[1,2], Amrita Basu[3], Ryan J. Weiss[3,4], Gursimran Kaur Bajwa[5,6], Rubén Marín Juez[5,6],

Sandra Grimm[1,2], Cristian Coarfa[1,2], and Margot Kossmann Williams[1,2]

[1] Center for Precision Environmental Health, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX, USA

[2] Department of Molecular & Cellular Biology, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX, USA

[3] Complex Carbohydrate Research Center, University of Georgia, Athens, GA, USA

[4] Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, University of Georgia, Athens, GA, USA

[5] Centre de Recherche Azrieli, Centre Hospitalier Universitaire Sainte-Justine, Montréal, QC, Canada

[6] Department of Pathology and Cell Biology, Faculty of Medicine, Université de Montréal, QC,

Canada

ABSTRACT

To shape the emerging body plan, morphogenetic cell movements must be coordinated not only in space,

but also in time. Convergence and Extension (C&E) movements that elongate the anteroposterior axis initiate

with precise timing during vertebrate gastrulation, but the mechanisms controlling their onset remain unknown.

We examined this question using zebrafish embryonic explants that faithfully recapitulate C&E cell movements

and their precise timing in culture, in isolation from other gastrulation movements. We determined that new

transcription is required at gastrulation onset for C&E in explants and identified *sulfatase modifying factor 2*

(*sumf2*) as a candidate 'trigger' of C&E onset. *sumf2* encodes for pFGE, the paralog and inhibitor of the

Formylglycine Generating Enzyme (FGE, encoded by *sumf1*), which is the key activator of all sulfatase

enzymes. In zebrafish embryos and explants, *sumf1* expression declines just as *sumf2* is expressed, leading to

decreased sulfatase activity and increased sulfation of their heparan sulfate proteoglycan (HSPG) substrates.

We found that overexpression of *sumf1* and *sumf2* causes delayed or precocious C&E onset, respectively,

whereas mutations in *sumf1* and *sumf2* shift C&E timing in the opposite direction. We further identified Sulf1,

an extracellular sulfatase that modifies HSPGs, as the key effector by which *sumf1* and *sumf2* control C&E

timing. Accordingly, reduced or increased levels of sulfated heparan sulfate similarly shift C&E onset and

suppress *sumf1* and *sumf2* mutant phenotypes. Together, our work supports a model in which *sumf2*

expression at zebrafish gastrulation onset reduces sulfatase activity, rewriting HSPG sulfation patterns to

promote and/or permit C&E morphogenesis.

Key words: Sumf1, Sumf2, Sulf1, zebrafish, convergence and extension, HSPGs, gastrulation

INTRODUCTION

Morphogenetic cell movements must be coordinated not only in space, but also in time to properly shape

the embryonic body plan. Indeed, changes in the timing of developmental events, termed heterochrony, can

underlie malformations in individuals and fuel evolutionary change in populations (1, 2). One striking example

of morphogenetic timing is the onset of gastrulation cell movements that form the primordial germ layers and

shape them into the nascent embryonic axes. In many species, multiple gastrulation movements occur

simultaneously and/or in rapid succession, such that the absolute timing of one process is necessary to

preserve its timing relative to the others. For example, many teleost fish and amphibian embryos exhibit

epiboly (which thins and spreads the epiblast), internalization (which brings mesoderm and endoderm germ

layers inside the embryo), and convergence & extension (C&E) (which elongate the anteroposterior axis)

movements simultaneously. The onset of epiboly in zebrafish is thought to result from a rapid fluidization of the

epiblast, a consequence of cell rounding during meta-synchronous cell cleavages (3, 4). Initial internalization of

mesoderm and endoderm cells may be triggered by a threshold level of Nodal signaling activity (5), which

promotes cell protrusions that "un-jam" cells to enable them to ingress at the margin (6) or ectopically (7). Once

leader cells ingress at the margin, "followers" in adjacent spatial domains subsequently internalize in a

temporally ordered fashion according to their expression of *hox* genes (8), similar to a mechanism reported

during chick gastrulation (9). However, mechanisms controlling the timing of C&E morphogenesis remain

elusive.

C&E movements simultaneously narrow and elongate embryonic tissues via polarized cell rearrangements,

providing the major driving force of anteroposterior (AP) axis extension and, in many species, neural tube

closure (10-13). C&E are driven by polarized cell behaviors including mediolateral (ML) cell elongation and

alignment, ML-biased cell protrusions, and polarized contraction of cell interfaces by which cells exchange

neighbors to form a longer and narrower array (*14, 15*). Vertebrate C&E movements and/or their underlying ML

intercalation behaviors begin suddenly at mid-gastrulation (*16-18*). In zebrafish, this is marked by a switch in

the trajectory of cell movements toward the embryo's dorsal side at ~75% epiboly (~8 hours post fertilization

(hpf)) (*18, 19*). Evidence suggests that these movements result not from chemotaxis (*20*) but instead from

spatially restricted cell-cell interactions, the domains of which are defined by morphogen signaling gradients

(*21-23*). The signature ML polarity of vertebrate C&E behaviors is under control of planar cell polarity (PCP)

signaling, which orients cell behaviors with respect to the embryonic axes (*24, 25*). This results from the

polarized membrane localization of core PCP signaling components (*26-29*), which directly precedes the onset

of C&E cell behaviors (*22, 30*). The precision and coordination of these events imply the existence of a timing

cue that determines the onset of C&E cell behaviors. Several morphogen signaling pathways are known to

govern C&E, with BMP preventing C&E of the ventral mesoderm (*21, 31*) and Nodal and FGF signaling

promoting C&E dorsally (*22, 32-36*). However, all these pathways are active hours before C&E begins at mid-

gastrulation, suggesting that their activity is not responsible for the timing of C&E onset. Indeed, although

Activin (which signals through the Nodal pathway) was sufficient to induce C&E of *Xenopus* animal cap

explants, its timing remained constant regardless of when Activin was applied (*37*). This suggests that the

timing mechanism functions in parallel with known C&E regulators, but its molecular basis is unknown.

Mechanisms controlling the timing of other early embryonic events has been extensively studied, including

early cell cycles and zygotic genome activation (ZGA). For example, early cell cleavages are controlled by

cyclical expression and degradation of maternally expressed Cyclins (*38*). After a set number of cell divisions,

ZGA is triggered by a threshold nuclear/cytoplasmic (N/C) ratio (*39, 40*) (*40-42*), which is thought to function

through titration of histones and other nuclear factors (*41-44*). In amphibian embryos, gastrulation timing was

linked not to fertilization or ZGA , but the first embryonic cleavage (*45, 46*), and this timing is reportedly under

predominantly cytoplasmic control (*45, 47-49*). However, the onset of gastrulation morphogenesis is

unchanged in embryos with varying cell size and cell cycle length (*49-52*), making mechanisms that count cell

cycles or measure N/C ratios unlikely regulators of C&E timing. Zebrafish gastrulation morphogenesis requires

zygotic transcription (*53*), but its timing is uncoupled from that of ZGA, instead supporting a model by which

new gene expression triggers C&E at a specific time.

Using a reductive zebrafish embryonic explant model in which C&E are isolated from the other gastrulation

cell movements, we determined that new transcription is required at gastrulation onset for C&E to occur, and

that *sulfatase modifying factor 2* (*sumf2*) is initially expressed during this critical window in both explants and

intact embryos. *sumf1* and *sumf2* encode Formylglycine Generating Enzyme (FGE) (*54-57*) and its antagonist

and paralog pFGE (*58-60*), respectively, a pair whose balance determines the activity of every sulfatase

enzyme in the body (*61-64*). *sumf1* is maternally expressed, and its transcript abundance drops just as *sumf2*

is expressed at gastrulation onset, inverting *sumf1/sumf2* levels and altering sulfation in the embryo. We show

that overexpression of *sumf1* and *sumf2* causes delayed or precocious C&E onset, respectively, in both

explants and embryos, whereas mutations in *sumf1* and *sumf2* shift C&E timing in the opposite direction. We

further identified Sulf1 as a key sulfatase by which Sumf1 and Sumf2 modify C&E timing. Reduced or

increased levels of sulfated heparan sulfate, the predominant substrate of Sulf1 (*65-67*), similarly shifts C&E

onset and suppresses *sumf1* and *sumf2* mutant phenotypes, indicating that heparan sulfate proteoglycans

(HSPGs) mediate C&E timing downstream of sulfatase modifiers. Together, these data support a model in

which *sumf2* expression at gastrulation onset reduces sulfatase activity, triggering a switch in HSPG sulfation

patterns to promote and/or permit C&E morphogenesis.

RESULTS

***Ex vivo* convergence & extension requires new transcription at gastrulation onset**

Blocking transcription prior to ZGA prevents all gastrulation morphogenesis in zebrafish embryos (*53*).

However, it was not determined when new transcription is required for gastrulation cell movements nor the

specific genes that are required. We showed previously that otherwise naïve zebrafish embryonic explants

expressing Nodal signaling components recapitulate both C&E behaviors and their precise timing in culture

while lacking other gastrulation movements (*35*), making them an ideal system to study morphogenesis timing.

To identify the temporal window of gene expression required specifically for C&E, we treated explants

expressing the constitutively active Nodal receptor Acvr1b* (also known as TARAM-A* (*68*)) with a time-course

of the irreversible transcription inhibitor Triptolide (*69*) (**Figure 1A**). *acvr1b** explants treated when intact

siblings reached 50% epiboly (5.3 hpf) failed entirely to extend, while those treated shortly thereafter at shield

stage (6 hpf, gastrulation onset) or later were able to extend, albeit incompletely under some conditions

(**Figure 1B, C**). To rule out the possibility that Triptolide blocks C&E by disrupting Nodal signaling dynamics,

we repeated the experiment in explants expressing the Nodal ligand Ndr2/Cyc, which exhibit delayed Nodal

activation compared to *acvr1b** explants (*70*), and explants from Nodal signaling-deficient maternal-zygotic

(MZ)*oep*-/- embryos (*71*) expressing *acvr1b**, which exhibit continued signaling in the absence of feed-forward

synthesis of new Nodal ligands. Both conditions responded identically to wildtype (WT) *acvr1b** explants,

indicating that the requirement for transcription is independent of Nodal signaling *per se* (**Figure Suppl. 1A, B,**

D, E). This is consistent with Activin-induced *Xenopus* animal cap explants extending on time regardless of

when Activin was added (*37*). Finally, WT *acvr1b** explants treated with the reversible transcription inhibitor

Flavopiridol (*72*) at 50% epiboly and washed out at 90% epiboly (5.3–9 hpf) similarly failed to extend (**Figure**

Suppl. 1C, F), demonstrating that the stage of inhibition, rather than its duration, was responsible for failed

C&E. These results indicate that new gene expression starting at gastrulation onset is required for *ex vivo* C&E

movements, independent of Nodal signaling dynamics.

***sumf1* and *sumf2* transcript levels invert at gastrulation onset**

Having established that transcription at gastrulation onset is crucial for C&E, we next identified genes

whose expression is strongly upregulated during this window. We previously profiled transcription in *ndr2,*

*acvr1b**, and uninjected control explants by bulk RNA sequencing at seven developmental stages spanning

gastrulation (*70*) (**Figure 1D**). We examined these data for candidate "trigger" genes whose expression

exhibited a substantial increase between 50% epiboly and shield stage, corresponding to our experimentally

determined requirement for transcription. Because the timing of C&E onset is independent of Nodal signaling

dynamics, we only considered genes with similar temporal expression patterns in explants of all three

conditions, including uninjected controls. This analysis yielded a list of 180 genes, 129 of which had similar

increasing expression patterns in intact zebrafish gastrulae (*73*) (**Table suppl 1**). From these, we selected

genes exhibiting at least a 50% increase ($\Delta > 0.5x$) in expression at gastrulation onset (shield stage) from their

baseline at 50% epiboly and whose expression at shield stage *in vivo* was over 5 transcripts per million,

producing a list of 28 genes (**Figure 1E**) (**Table suppl 1**). Because C&E begins simultaneously in intact

embryos and explants, we hypothesized these 28 genes represent candidates whose expression at

gastrulation onset may trigger C&E cell behaviors.

Among our candidate genes was *sulfatase modifying factor 2* (*sumf2*). *sumf2* encodes pFGE, a paralog

and antagonist of Formylglycine Generating Enzyme (FGE) (*64, 74*), encoded by *sulfatase modifying factor 1*

(*sumf1*). As its name implies, FGE converts cysteine residues to formylglycine, a rare but essential post-

translational modification required within the active site of all sulfatase enzymes for their activity (*74*).

Sulfatases catalyze the removal of sulfate groups from a variety of substrates, including lipids, steroids, and

glycosaminoglycans, modifying their biological activity (*75, 76*). Both pFGE (*sumf2*) and FGE (*sumf1*) are ER-

resident proteins that share high amino acid sequence similarity, with the main distinction that pFGE lacks

enzymatic activity (*54, 74*). It is not clear how pFGE (*sumf2*) antagonizes FGE (*sumf1*) function, but evidence

suggests that pFGE binds FGE alone or in complex with its sulfatase substrates (*58, 64*). Although other

candidates exhibited more dramatic expression increases at gastrulation onset, we selected *sumf2* for further

study because its function during vertebrate development has never been explored, and its intriguing

complementary temporal expression patterns with *sumf1* during gastrulation. In zebrafish embryos and

explants, *sumf1* is maternally expressed but exhibits a sharp reduction in transcript levels just prior to

gastrulation onset, coinciding with increased *sumf2 (73)* (**Figure 1F, Figure Suppl. 1G**). Because *sumf2* and

sumf1 encode a negative and positive regulator of sulfatase activity, respectively, we hypothesized that this

peak in the *sumf2/sumf1* ratio at gastrulation onset (6hpf) (**Figure 1G**) reduces sulfatase activity and thus

increases sulfation of their substrates to trigger C&E movements.

Figure 1. *Ex vivo* convergence & extension requires new transcription at gastrulation onset. (A)
Diagram of embryonic explants and Triptolide treatments (modified from (*35*)). **(B)** Representative images of
uninjected and *acvr1b** explants at 12 hpf (equivalent of 4-somite stage) after treatment with triptolide at the
indicated stages or with DMSO at 50% of epiboly. **(C)** Length/width ratios of explants shown in (B). Each dot
represents a single explant from three independent trials, black bars are median values; p<0.0001, Mann-
Whitney test. **(D)** Overview of comparisons between published bulk RNA-sequencing experiments from seven
developmental stages in three explant conditions (uninjected, *acvr1b*, and *ndr2*) (top) and intact embryos
(bottom). Candidate 'trigger' genes were strongly upregulated within the previously determined transcriptional
window (5.3–6 hpf). **(E)** (Top) 180 genes exhibited 'trigger' expression patterns in all explant conditions (light
blue); of these, 129 were also upregulated in intact embryos (blue), and 28 showed a sharp increase (Δ > 0.5x)
with significant expression levels (>5 TPM, dark blue). (Bottom) Heatmap of candidate 'trigger' genes in
uninjected*, acvr1b*, and *ndr2* explants. *Sumf2* (highlighted in yellow) was selected for further study. **(F)** Fold-
change expression of *sumf1* and *sumf2* transcripts over 4 hpf in explants (solid lines) and embryos (dashed
lines) over time. **(G)** *Sumf2/sumf1* expression ratio in explants (solid line) and embryos (dashed line) over time.
Note the peak in the *sumf2/sumf1* ratio at 6 hpf, coinciding with the previously determined transcriptional
window.

Figure Suppl. 1. *Ex vivo* convergence & extension requires new gene expression at gastrulation onset independently of Nodal signaling dynamics. **(A, B)** Representative images of WT uninjected and *ndr2* explants (A), or MZ*oep-/-* uninjected and *acvr1b** explants (B) at 12 hpf (equivalent of 4-somite stage) after treatment with triptolide at the indicated stages or with DMSO at 50% of epiboly. Scale bar 200 μm. **(C)** Representative images of WT uninjected and *acvr1b** explants at 12 hpf (equivalent of 4-somite stage) after treatment with reversible transcription inhibitor Flavopiridol at the indicated stages or with DMSO at 50% of epiboly. **(D-F)** Length/width ratios of explants shown in (A, B and C), respectively. Each dot represents a single explant from three independent trials, black bars are median values; p<0.0001, Mann-Whitney test. **(G)** Expression levels of *sumf1* and *sumf2* in uninjected (light grey lines), *ndr2* (grey lines) and *acvr1b** (black lines) explants (left), and embryos (dashed lines, right) over time. Dots represent the mean of three (for explants) or five (for embryos) bulk RNA-seq replicates and error bars represent standard deviation.

Excess or loss of sulfatase modifying factors causes C&E defects in zebrafish gastrulae

To investigate the role of sulfatase modifying factors in C&E morphogenesis, we employed both gain- and loss-of-function approaches and performed morphometric analysis at the end of gastrulation (tailbud stage, 10 hpf). We first overexpressed *sumf1* or *sumf2* by mRNA injection into single-cell WT embryos. *sumf1* overexpressing (OE) gastrulae exhibited a significant reduction in anteroposterior (AP) axis length and wider notochords, characteristic of C&E defects, and *sumf2* OE embryos showed similar but milder phenotypes (**Figure 2**). We next examined gastrulae of the recently characterized *sumf1^{la015919Tg}* mutant line (hereafter *sumf1*-/-), which harbors a viral insertion in exon 1 and abolishes FGE activity (77). Homozygous mutant embryos survived to adulthood (77), enabling examination of MZ*sumf1*-/- gastrulae, which also exhibited reduced AP axis length and wider notochords (**Figure 2**). Because no existing *sumf2* mutant line was available, we used CRISPR to generate a 7 bp insertion in exon 2 of *sumf2* (named *bcm126*), resulting in a premature stop codon (**Figure Suppl. 2A**). Homozygous *sumf2$^{bcm126/bcm126}$* embryos (hereafter *sumf2*-/-), showed a substantial reduction in *sumf2* transcript levels by qRT-PCR (**Figure Suppl. 2C**), confirming this as a strong loss-of-function allele. These mutants also survived to adulthood, enabling us to maintain the line as homozygotes and analyze MZ*sumf2*-/- embryos. Notably, approximately 10% of homozygous larvae displayed a tail-curled-up phenotype at 48 hpf and a variable number of *sumf2*-/- adults were undersized and scoliotic (**Figure Suppl. 2D, E**). Although MZ*sumf2*-/- mutant gastrulae did not exhibit C&E defects, *sumf1* OE in this background produced more severe C&E phenotypes than in WT embryos (**Figure 2**), supporting an antagonistic role for *sumf2*/pFGE on *sumf1*/FGE. Together, these results demonstrate that altering levels of *sumf1* or/and *sumf2* disrupts C&E gastrulation morphogenesis *in vivo*.

209
Figure 2. C&E defects in zebrafish gastrulae with altered sulfatases modifiers factor levels.
(A) Representative images of whole mount in situ hybridization (WISH) for *tbxta* (mesoderm), *dlx3b* (neural
plate border) and *egr2b* (rhombomeres 3 & 5) in tailbud stage (10 hpf) embryos of the indicated conditions.
Anterior is up in all images, lateral views are shown on top, dorsal views on bottom. Scale bar 100 μm. **(B, C)**
Anteroposterior (AP) axis length (B, yellow arrowheads) and notochord width (C, red lines) of embryos
depicted in (A). Each dot represents a single embryo, N: number of independent experiments, n: number of
embryos. Means and standard deviation are indicated; * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, **** p<0.0001 compared to WT
control group by Kruskal–Wallis and Dunn's multiple comparisons tests.
218

Figure Suppl. 2 Characterization and genotyping of new *sumf2* loss-of-function allele. (A) Diagram of
CRISPR-induced 7 bp insertion (green) in exon 2 of *sumf2* (*sumf2^{bcm126}*), resulting in a premature stop codon
(red). **(B)** The *sumf2^{bcm126}* allele creates an XcmI restriction site (purple underline in (A)), enabling genotyping
by digestion of a 322 bp PCR-amplified fragment, which yields 242 bp and 80 bp products in heterozygous
(+/−), and homozygous (−/−) but not WT (+/+) samples. **(C)** Relative expression of *sumf2* transcripts in WT and
MZ*sumf2* -/- larvae, measured by RT-qPCR using primers spanning *sumf2* exon 1–2 and exon 3–5. Means
and standard deviation are indicated. Each dot represents one of three independent clutches; ** $p < 0.01$, Mann-
Whitney test. **(D)** Representative images of WT and MZ*sumf2* -/- larvae at 48 hpf. Approximately 90% of
MZ*sumf2* -/- larvae developed normally, while ~10% displayed varying degrees of tail-curled-up phenotypes.
Anterior is to the left; scale bar 200 μm. **(E)** Representative images of MZ*sumf2* -/- adult fish showing *Normal*
and *Scoliosis* phenotypes. Scale bar 500 μm.

sumf1 and sum2 levels modify the timing of C&E *ex vivo*

We next examined the effects of altered *sumf1* and *sumf2* levels in zebrafish embryonic explants, in which

C&E is isolated from other concurrent morphogenetic processes. Surprisingly, neither OE nor deficiency of

sumf1 or *sumf2* impaired the extension of *acvr1b** explants at the equivalent of 4-somite stage (**Figure Suppl.**

3), indicating that they are dispensable for C&E *per se*. To assess whether *sumf1* or *sumf2* levels instead

influenced the timing of C&E morphogenesis, we acquired time-lapse recordings of *acvr1b** explants from

which we determined the precise onset of morphological extension (**Figure 3A**). Importantly, all explants were

staged relative to blastopore closure in age-matched intact embryos of the same genetic background mounted

in the same dish. As described previously (*35*), WT *acvr1b** explants (WT control) and controls co-injected with

superfold-GFP mRNA (*sf-GFP* OE) initiated extension around 8hpf. Strikingly, extension began significantly

later upon *sumf1* OE and significantly earlier upon *sumf2* OE (**Figure 3B**). Co-overexpression of *sumf1* and

sumf2 restored the normal time of extension onset (**Figure 3B**), demonstrating that the balance between these

factors (rather than their absolute levels) determines the time of C&E onset. In the converse loss-of-function

experiments, we found that extension onset was precocious in MZ*sumf1*-/- explants and delayed in MZ*sumf2*-/-

explants (**Figure 3A, B**), consistent with - but opposite to - *sumf1* and *sumf2* OE phenotypes. MZ*sumf1*-/-,

MZ*sumf2*-/- double mutant explants phenocopied the precocious extension of MZ*sumf1*-/- single mutants,

consistent with *sumf2/*pFGE modulating C&E timing via its role as an antagonist of *sumf1*/FGE. Together,

these results demonstrate that the ratio of *sumf1/sumf2* governs the timing of explant extension, with higher

sumf1 delaying and higher *sumf2* advancing C&E onset.

Figure 3. *sumf1* and *sum2* levels control the timing of C&E. (A) Representative bright-field images of *acvr1b** explants of the indicated genotype over time. Black, red, and green arrowheads indicate timely, precocious, and delayed onset of extension, respectively. **(B)** Onset of extension in *acvr1b** explants of the indicated conditions. Dotted line shows typical extension onset of WT control explants around 8 hpf. Each dot represents a single explant. Means and standard deviation are indicated, N: number of independent experiments, n: number of explants, *** p<0.001, **** p<0.0001 compared with WT control group by Kruskal–Wallis and Dunn's multiple comparisons tests. **(C)** Representative images of automated nuclear tracking in the dorsal hemisphere of zebrafish gastrulae, starting before C&E onset (7 hpf). Tracks are color-coded by mean speed; dashed lines mark the dorsal midline; scale bar 100 μm. **(D-H)** ML cell displacement over time for WT control (gray lines) and *sumf1* OE (D), *sumf2* OE (E), *sumf1 + sumf2* OE (F), MZ*sumf1-/-* (G), and MZ*sumf2-/-* (H) embryos. Dotted line shows typical onset of convergence movements in WT control embryos around 8 hpf. Means and standard error are indicated, N: number of independent experiments, n: number of embryos. ** p<0.01, **** p<0.0001 compared with WT control group by Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

Figure Suppl. 3 Altered *sumf1* and *sumf2* levels do not impair extension of Nodal-induced explants (A)
Representative images of uninjected and *acvr1b** explants from the indicated experimental conditions. **(B)**
Length/width ratios of explants at the equivalent of 4-somite stage (12 hpf) shown in (A). Each dot represents a
single explant from three independent trials. Means and standard deviation are indicated. p>0.05, Kruskal–
Wallis test.

276 ***sumf1* and *sum2* levels modify the timing of C&E *in vivo***

277   To determine whether *sumf1* and *sumf2* similarly modify the timing of C&E cell movements *in vivo*, we

278   acquired confocal time-lapse movies of *H2B-scarlet*-labeled gastrulae from 6.5 – 11 hpf and performed

279   automated nuclear tracking (see *Methods*; **Figure 3C**). To ensure accurate stage matching across

280   experiments, all embryos were staged relative to formation of the second somite, which was readily visible at

281   the end of each movie. Convergence movements were quantified as the mediolateral (ML) displacement of

282   dorsal and lateral cells over time (**Figure 3D–H**). Because convergence movements are reduced within the

283   embryonic midline where extension is more prominent (*78*), cells within 100 μm of the dorsal midline were

284   excluded from our analysis. In WT control embryos, we observed an upward inflection of ML displacement

285   beginning around 7.75 - 8 hpf, marking the onset of convergence movements (consistent with previous findings

286   (*18, 19*)), which continued to increase gradually thereafter (**Figure 3D–H**). Upon *sumf1* OE, baseline

287   convergence speed was reduced and, although convergence movements began at the same time as controls,

288   they remained substantially slower (**Figure 3D)**. *sumf2* OE embryos, on the other hand, had similar baseline

289   convergence speeds as controls but with an earlier inflection point (**Figure 3E)**. For much of gastrulation, these

290   movements were also faster than those of controls, indicating a likely change in both onset and pace of

291   convergence movements. As in explants, co-OE of both *sumf1* and *sumf2* restored convergence movements to

292   control timing and speeds (**Figure 3F)**. Also as in explants, *in vivo* cell tracking of MZ*sumf1-/-* and MZ*sumf2-/-*

293   mutants revealed opposite effects to their overexpression. Convergence onset in MZ*sumf1-/-* embryos trended

294   earlier than controls and baseline speed trended higher, although these movements plateaued later in

295   gastrulation (**Figure 3G)**. Conversely, baseline convergence in MZ*sumf2-/-* mutants was slower than controls

296   with a later inflection point, indicating delayed convergence (**Figure 3H)**. Together with our *ex vivo* results,

297   these data support a model in which *sumf2*/pFGE counters the activity of *sumf1*/FGE to control the onset of

298   C&E cell movements during gastrulation.

299

Sulfatase modifiers govern C&E via the extracellular sulfatase Sulf1

Because *sumf1*/FGE and *sumf2*/pFGE together regulate sulfatase activity levels, we hypothesized that high *sumf2/sumf1* ratios trigger C&E onset by reducing the activity of one or more key sulfatases. Indeed, increased sulfatase activity was shown to disrupt gastrulation morphogenesis in *Xenopus* and sea urchin (*63, 79-82*). The zebrafish genome encodes 17 sulfatases, 11 of which are expressed during peri-gastrulation stages (*73*) (**Figure Suppl. 4A**). To identify which of these mediates the effect of *sumf1/sumf2* on C&E timing, we overexpressed each of these 11 sulfatases and performed morphometric analysis at tailbud stage and scored axis phenotypes at 24 hpf. Notably, three of them — the heparan sulfate endosulfatases *sulf1* and *sulf2a*, and the chondroitin sulfatase *arsb* — produced severe AP axis extension defects and increased notochord width, consistent with C&E defects (**Figure Suppl. 4B-E**). Unlike *sumf1* and *sumf2* OE, overexpression of these three sulfatases also prevented full extension of *acvr1b** explants at the equivalent of 4-somite stage (**Figure Suppl. 4F, G**). However, only *sulf1* OE significantly delayed *acvr1b** explant extension, while the other two had no effect on C&E timing (**Figure 4A**). Thus, of the 17 zebrafish sulfatases, only one was found to affect both C&E morphogenesis and its timing.

To further investigate the role of Sulf1 in zebrafish gastrulation morphogenesis, we examined C&E in MZ*sulf1*[sjr9/sjr9] full-locus deletion mutants (Kaur Bajwa et al, in submission) (hereafter MZ*sulf1-/-*). MZ*sulf1-/-* embryos exhibited reduced AP axis length at tailbud stage (**Figure 4B-D)** and MZ*sulf1-/- acvr1b** explants showed impaired extension (**Figure Suppl. 4F-G)**, indicating that both gain and loss of Sulf1 reduces C&E. Strikingly, MZ*sulf1-/- acvr1b** explants exhibited precocious extension (**Figure 4A**), similar to MZ*sumf1-/-* and *sumf2* OE explants (but opposite to *sulf1* OE). We next quantified the effect of Sulf1 levels on C&E onset *in vivo*. Convergence speed was drastically reduced upon *sulf1* OE (**Figure 4E**) while MZ*sulf1-/-* gastrulae exhibited earlier and enhanced convergence movements compared to WT controls (**Figure 4F**). These results highlight Sulf1 as a strong candidate for the key sulfatase controlling C&E onset.

To examine the relationship between Sulf1 and *sumf1*/FGE, we generated *acvr1b** explants co-injected with low doses of each mRNA alone or in combination. The combination of otherwise sub-phenotypic doses of *sumf1* and *sulf1* synergistically delayed and reduced explant extension (**Figure 4G, Figure Suppl. 4F, G),** consistent with *sumf1*/FGE enhancing Sulf1 activity. Finally, we tested whether *sumf1* OE could delay explant extension in the absence of *sulf1*. We found that although *sumf1* OE significantly delayed extension onset in

 WT explants, it had no effect on the onset of extension in MZ*sulf1-/-* explants, which remained precocious

(**Figure 4G**). Together, these results implicate Sulf1 as the primary sulfatase through which *sumf1*/FGE and

sumf2/pFGE govern the timing of C&E morphogenesis.

Figure 4. The extracellular sulfatase Sulf1 governs C&E and its timing. (A) Onset of extension in *acvr1b**
explants of the indicated conditions. Dotted line shows typical extension onset of WT control explants around 8
hpf. Each dot represents a single explant. Means and standard deviation are indicated, N: number of
independent experiments, n: number of explants. *** p<0.001, **** p<0.0001 compared with WT control group
by Kruskal–Wallis and Dunn's multiple comparisons tests. **(B)** Representative images of WISH for *tbxta*
(mesoderm), *dlx3b* (neural plate border) and *egr2b* (rhombomeres 3 & 5) in tailbud stage (10 hpf) embryos of
the indicated conditions. Anterior is up in all images, lateral views are on top, dorsal views on bottom. Scale bar
100 μm. **(C, D)** Anteroposterior (AP) axis length (C) and Notochord width (D) were quantified as in Figure 2
from embryos depicted in (B). Each dot represents a single embryo. Means and standard deviation are
indicated. **** p<0.0001 compared with WT control group by Kruskal–Wallis and Dunn's multiple comparisons
tests. **(E, F)** ML cell displacement from automated nuclear tracking (as in Figure 3) in WT control and *sulf1* OE
(E) and MZ*sulf1-/-* (F) zebrafish gastrulae. Means and standard error are indicated. N: number of independent
experiments, n: number of embryos. **** p<0.0001 compared with WT control group by Wilcoxon signed-rank
test. **(G)** Onset of extension in *acvr1b** explants of the indicated conditions. Dotted line shows typical extension
onset of WT control explants around 8 hpf. Each dot represents a single explant. Means and standard
deviation are indicated, N: number of independent experiments, n: number of explants. ** p<0.01, ****
p<0.0001 compared with WT control group by Kruskal–Wallis and Dunn's multiple comparisons tests.

Figure Suppl. 4. Evaluation of C&E defects upon sulfatase overexpression. (A) Expression levels of all 17 zebrafish sulfatases over time based on publicly available bulk RNA-seq data. Gray square indicates the 11 expressed during peri-gastrulation, HSPG endosulfatases are in red. **(B)** (Top) Representative images of 24 hpf embryos overexpressing each of the 11 peri-gastrulation sulfatases displaying a range of axis phenotypes scored as *"Not affected"*, *"Mild"* or *"Severe"*. (Bottom) Mean percentage of 24 hpf embryos of the conditions indicated exhibiting each class of axis defect. N: number of independent experiments, n: number of embryos. **(C)** WISH for *tbxta* (mesoderm), *dlx3b* (neural border) and *egr2b* (rhombomeres 3 & 5) in tailbud stage (10 hpf) embryos shown from lateral (top) and dorsal (bottom) views. **(D, E)** Anteroposterior (AP) axis length (D) and Notochord width (E) (as in Figure 2) in control and sulfatase-overexpressing embryos. Each dot represents a single embryo. Means and standard deviation are indicated. (** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$, **** $p<0.0001$ as compared with WT control group by Kruskal–Wallis and Dunn's multiple comparisons tests. **(F)** Representative images of *acvr1b** explants from the indicated experimental conditions. **(G)** Length/width ratios of 12 hpf explants shown in (F). Each dot represents a single explant. Means and standard deviation are indicated. * $p>0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, **** $p<0.0001$ compared with WT control group by Kruskal–Wallis and Dunn's multiple comparisons tests.

Sulfated heparan sulfate proteoglycans increase with C&E onset

Sulf1 is an extracellular sulfatase that removes 6-O sulfation from GlcA-GlcNS6S (D0S6) and IdoA2S-GlcNS6S (D2S6) disaccharide units of heparan sulfate proteoglycans (HSPGs)(*66*). We would therefore expect the inversion of *sumf1*/FGE and *sumf2*/pFGE levels at the beginning of gastrulation to decrease Sulf1 activity, leading to increased sulfated HSPG levels at late gastrulation. Indeed, Alcian Blue staining (at pH ~1) (*83*) for overall glycosaminoglycan (GAG) sulfation increased dramatically from early (50% epiboly) to late (90% epiboly) gastrulation stages, indicating increased embryo-wide GAG sulfation. Treatment with sodium chlorate, which prevents the formation of the sulfate donor 3'-phosphoadenosine 5'-phosphosulfate (PAPS) (*84, 85*), drastically diminished Alcian Blue staining (**Figure 5A**), confirming its specificity.

Because Alcian Blue stains all negatively charged GAGs, we next quantified levels of sulfated heparan sulfate (HS) disaccharides by hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography with mass spectrometry (HILIC-LC/MS) in early and late zebrafish gastrulae (*86*). We found that total HS levels increased significantly between 50% and 80% epiboly stages (**Figure 5B**). Although we observed no changes in the percentage of the 6-O sulfated D0S6 and D2S6 disaccharides between stages (**Figure 5C**), we did find a significant increase in total levels of these 6-O sulfated disaccharides at late gastrulation (reflecting the observed increase in total HS levels) (**Figure 5D**). These results indicate that sulfation of Sulf1 substrates increases during gastrulation, consistent with our hypothesis that the peak *sumf2/sumf1* ratio at gastrulation onset leads to reduced Sulf1 activity.

Figure 5. Heparan sulfate proteoglycans and their sulfation increase during gastrulation. (A)
Representative images of zebrafish early (50% epiboly, 5.3 hpf) and late (90% epiboly, 9 hpf) gastrulae stained
with Alcian Blue for sulfated GAGs. Alcian Blue staining was diminished in zebrafish embryos treated at dome
stage (4.3 hpf) with 200 mM sodium chlorate. Fractions indicate the number of embryos with the depicted
staining pattern over number of embryos examined. Scale bar 100 μm. **(B-D)** HILIC-LC/MS analysis of early
and late zebrafish gastrulae showing the total amount of Heparan Sulfate (HS) (B), the percentage of the D0S6
and D2S6 disaccharides (C), and the total amount of D0S6 and D2S6 disaccharides (D) at the stages
indicated. Plots show mean and standard deviation, with each dot representing an independent clutch of 50
embryos, ** p<0.01, * p< 0.05, Mann-Whitney test.

HSPGs mediate the effects of sulfatase modifiers on C&E timing

Sulfatases modify a large number of biological substrates, including lipids, steroids, and multiple GAGs (*87*). To test whether sulfated HSPGs influence C&E morphogenesis and its timing, we experimentally decreased and increased sulfated HS levels within embryos and explants. To inhibit overall sulfation, including GAGs, we treated dome stage embryos (4.3 hpf) with two different doses of sodium chlorate (200 mM and 50 mM), which we previously showed reduced Alcian Blue staining in zebrafish gastrulae (**Figure 5A**). We observed severe AP axis shortening and cyclopia in 24 hpf embryos treated with the higher dose, and milder axis defects at the lower dose (**Figure 6A**). A dose-dependent effect on C&E was also observed at tailbud stage (**Figure 6B-D**), demonstrating that sulfation is required for proper C&E morphogenesis (as previously reported (*88-90*)). Although explants treated with the higher dose were not viable, treatment with the lower dose of sodium chlorate also dramatically reduced extension of *acvr1b∗* explants (**Figure Suppl 5A, B**). Sodium chlorate treatment also significantly delayed extension onset in both WT control and, importantly, in MZ*sumf1*-/- explants in which extension otherwise occurred early (**Figure 6E**, **Figure Suppl 5C**). This finding strongly suggests that loss of *sumf1* induces precocious C&E by enhancing sulfation.

In a complementary experiment, we increased levels of sulfated HS by injecting the extracellular space of 256-cell stage embryos with 10 ng/ml HS (or water as a control) (**Figure 6F**). As previously reported (*91*), HS-injected embryos exhibited dorsalized phenotypes (**Figure Suppl. 5D**), likely reflecting increased FGF signaling (*92*). Notably, while increased HS did not affect the extension of *acvr1b∗* explants at the equivalent of 4-somite stage (**Figure Suppl. 5A, B**), their extension onset was significantly earlier than control explants (**Figure 6G, Figure Suppl 5E**). HS injection also advanced extension onset in MZ*sumf2*-/- explants (**Figure 6G, Figure Suppl 5E**), indicating that increased HS levels are sufficient to trigger precocious C&E *ex vivo* and can override the delay caused by *sumf2* deficiency. Taken together, these results support a model in which *sumf2* expression at gastrulation triggers the timely onset of C&E cell movements by reducing Sulf1 activity and consequently increasing sulfation of HSPGs.

Figure 6. HSPGs mediate the effect of sulfatase modifying factors on C&E timing. (A) Representative
images of 24 hpf zebrafish embryos treated at dome stage (4.33 hpf) with 200 mM or 50 mM of sodium
chlorate. **(B)** Representative images of WISH for *tbxta* (mesoderm), *dlx3b* (neural border) and *egr2b*
(rhombomeres 3 & 5) in tailbud stage (10 hpf) control and sodium chlorate treated embryos shown from lateral
(top) and dorsal (bottom) views. Scale bar 100 μm. **(C, D)** AP axis length (C) and Notochord width (D) (as in
Figure 2) of embryos depicted in (B). Each dot represents a single embryo. Means and standard deviation are
indicated. **** p<0.0001 compared with WT control embryos by Kruskal–Wallis and Dunn's multiple
comparisons tests. **(E)** Onset of extension in *acvr1b** explants of the indicated conditions. Dotted line shows
typical extension onset of WT control explants around 8 hpf. Each dot represents a single explant. Means and
standard deviation are indicated. N: number of independent experiments, n: number of embryos. ****/ ††††
p<0.0001 compared with WT and MZ*sumf1*-/- control groups, respectively, by Kruskal–Wallis and Dunn's
multiple comparisons tests. **(F)** Diagram of extracellular heparan sulfate (HS) or water (control) injections in
256-cell embryos prior to explantation (modified from (*35*)). **(G)** Explant extension onset as in (E). ** p>0.01;
****/ ####/ †††† p<0.0001 compared with WT, WT + water, and MZ*sumf2*-/- + water groups, respectively, by
Kruskal–Wallis and Dunn's multiple comparisons tests.

439
440
Figure Suppl. 5. Inhibition of sulfation, but not increased heparan sulfate levels, impairs C&E *ex vivo*.
(A) Representative images of *acvr1b** explants from the indicated conditions. **(B)** Length/width ratios of
explants shown in (A). Each dot represents a single explant. Means and standard deviation are indicated. ****
p<0.0001 compared to WT controls by Kruskal–Wallis and Dunn's multiple comparisons tests. **(C)**
Representative bright-field images of *acvr1b** explants of the indicated genotypes and treatments over time.
Black, red, and green arrowheads indicate timely, precocious, and delayed onset of extension, respectively. **(D)**
Heparan sulfate (HS) injected embryos display a dorsalized phenotype at the 2-somite stage, indicated by
increased animal–vegetal length (red lines). **(E)** Representative bright-field images of *acvr1b** explants of the
indicated genotypes and treatments over time, as in (C).
450

DISCUSSION

Morphogenesis requires precise temporal coordination of cell behaviors to ensure proper tissue shape and function, however, the molecular mechanisms governing its timing remain poorly understood. In this study, we uncover a novel a molecular mechanism controlling the timing of C&E morphogenesis. After establishing that transcription is required at gastrulation onset for C&E, we identified the sulfatase modifying factors *sumf1*/FGE and *sumf2*/pFGE as key temporal regulators. Our data support a model (**Figure 7**) in which, prior to gastrulation, maternally deposited *sumf1*/FGE activates sulfatases enzymes, including the extracellular sulfatase Sulf1. At gastrulation onset, *sumf1* and *sumf2* transcript abundance inverts, and the antagonistic effect of *sumf2*/pFGE on *sumf1*/FGE reduces Sulf1 activity. Consequently, increased levels of sulfated HSPGs promote and/or permit C&E morphogenesis.

Figure 7. A model for how sulfatase modifying factors regulate the timing of C&E morphogenesis
Before gastrulation (orange), maternally expressed *sumf1*/FGE activates Sulf1, maintaining low levels of 6-*O*-sulfation (cyan stars) on HSPGs. At the onset of gastrulation (light blue), an inversion in *sumf1* and *sumf2* transcript abundance (inversion point) increases the antagonistic action of *sumf2*/pFGE on *sumf1*/FGE, thereby reducing Sulf1 activity. This shift leads to increased 6-*O*-sulfation of HSPGs, generating a permissive environment for C&E morphogenesis via an unknown downstream mechanism.

Developmental roles of sulfatase modifying factors

This is (to our knowledge) the first report of a role for sulfatase modifying factors in vertebrate gastrulation. In humans, mutations in *SUMF1* cause multiple sulfatase deficiency (MSD), a rare and fatal autosomal recessive disorder characterized by lysosomal dysfunction, developmental delay, neurodegeneration, and skeletal defects including scoliosis, facial dysmorphism, and growth retardation (*54, 93*). Mouse *Sumf1*-/- models exhibit early postnatal lethality (*94*), and MZ*sumf1*-/- zebrafish recapitulate some MSD features such as cranial malformations and early growth retardation (*77*). However, these fish can survive to adulthood, suggesting the presence of alternative mechanisms of sulfatase activation in this species (*77*). Indeed, *Escherichia coli, Caenorhabditis elegans,* and *Sacchromyces cerevisiae* possess sulfatase genes but lack a Sumf1 homolog, suggesting the existence of an alternative formylglycine generating enzyme in these organisms (*55*). Whether a similar alternative enables MZ*sumf1*-/- zebrafish to survive is unknown.

The role of *sumf2*, on the other hand, had not been studied in vertebrate development. Like MZ*sumf1*-/- mutants, we found that MZ*sumf2*-/- fish can reach adulthood and some individuals exhibit scoliosis and craniofacial abnormalities (**Figure Suppl. 2E**). This indicates that although *sumf2*/pFGE has a significant role in the timing of C&E morphogenesis, it is not ultimately essential for life in zebrafish. Whether its loss is compatible with life in other vertebrate species remains to be tested. Although Sumf1 orthologs are present in prokaryotes, Sumf2 is restricted to eukaryotes and has been lost in several metazoan clades, including arthropods (*54, 74, 93, 95*). *sumf2*/pFGE and *sumf1*/FGE amino acid sequences are highly similar, but *sumf2*/pFGE lacks formylglycine generating activity due to the absence of an active site (*54, 58, 59*). It was shown in human tissue culture that *sumf2*/pFGE reduces *sumf1*/FGE enzymatic activity (*59, 64*), which is thought to occur through direct physical binding and possible interactions with sulfatase enzymes (*58, 64*). This antagonism is consistent with our findings in zebrafish that MZ*sumf2*-/- phenotypes are exacerbated by *sumf1* OE (**Figure 2**) and co-overexpression of both factors offsets the effects of their individual overexpression (**Figure 3**). Further, MZ*sumf1*-/-; MZ*sumf2*-/- double mutant explants phenocopy the C&E delay observed in MZ*sumf1*-/-, indicating that *sumf1* is epistatic to *sumf2* (**Figure 3**), consistent with a model in which *sumf2*/pFGE governs gastrulation cell movements in its capacity as a *sumf1*/FGE inhibitor.

Sulf1 and HSPGs regulate gastrulation cell movements

Our data implicate Sulf1 as the primary sulfatase affecting C&E timing downstream of *sumf1*/FGE and

sumf2/pFGE regulation. Sulf1 catalyzes the removal of 6-*O*-sulfation from the D0S6 and D2S6 disaccharides

of HSPGs (*66*), precisely the modifications that were increased between early and late zebrafish gastrulation

(**Figure 5**). Notably, this function is also served by the extracellular sulfatases Sulf2a and Sulf2b. However,

sulf2b OE did not cause pronounced gastrulation phenotypes, and although *sulf2a* OE induced C&E defects in

both embryos and explants (**Figure Suppl. 4**), it did not (unlike *sulf1* OE) alter the onset of explant extension.

Although these sulfatases target the same substrate, evidence indicates that human Sulf1 and Sulf2 act on

distinct polysaccharide substrates (*96*), which may also explain the differential effects of *sulf1* and *sulf2a/b* in

zebrafish gastrulae. While the contribution of other sulfatases cannot be excluded, our finding that *sumf1*

overexpression no longer affects C&E onset in the absence of *sulf1* strongly implicates Sulf1 as the key

regulator of C&E timing. It is less clear that reduced Sulf1 activity is predominantly responsible for the overall

increase in HS levels in later gastrulation, as the abundance and sulfation patterns of HS chains are ultimately

determined by the activity of multiple enzymes, including glycosyltransferases, heparinases, sulfatases and

sulfotransferases (*97*). Interestingly, *xylosyltransferase I* (*xylt1*)*,* whose activity initiates HS biosynthesis *(97),*

was also among our candidate 'trigger' genes upregulated at gastrulation onset (**Figure 1**)*,* making it an

especially compelling candidate for further investigation.

HSPGs and the sulfatases that modify them have long been known to regulate gastrulation

morphogenesis. For example, elimination of HS chains or loss of HSPG core proteins glypicans and

syndecans caused C&E defects in *Xenopus*, zebrafish, and sea urchin gastrulae (*83, 88, 89, 98-102*). Although

our study does not address the HSPG core protein(s) responsible for the observed effects on C&E timing,

glypicans and syndecans with established roles in C&E (like *gpc4/kny (100)*) are good candidates. Notably, our

manipulations affecting HSPG sulfation tended to produce milder phenotypes that loss of core proteins like

Gpc4, consistent with sulfation as a modifier of their activity. Indeed, manipulations that decrease sulfation

levels – including overexpression of *sulf1* or *sumf1* mRNA and injection of purified sulfatases into the

blastocoel - also disrupted gastrulation in *Xenopus* and sea urchin (*63, 79-81*). Interestingly, loss of sulfatases

also caused gastrulation defects (*81, 103, 104*), suggesting that a correct balance of sulfatase activity is

required for proper C&E. Our data provide a possible explanation for this: altered timing of C&E movements.

We found that sulfatase overexpression both disrupts and delays C&E, but also that both precocious and

delayed C&E onset ultimately cause C&E defects (i.e. shorter and wider embryonic axes) in intact embryos.

This raises the possibility that previously reported C&E defects upon gain or (especially) loss of sulfatase

function could be the result of altered timing (discussed further below).

sulf1 deficiency, however, not only alters the timing of C&E but also prevents full explant extension

(**Figure 4, Figure Suppl. 4**). This discrepancy in phenotypic severity between Sulf1 and its key regulator

(*sumf1*/FGE) may reflect partially independent regulation of sulfatases during zebrafish gastrulation. As

discussed above, C&E defects resulting from altered sulfatase activity are relatively mild in zebrafish, and the

mutant embryos examined here can ultimately survive to become fertile adults. This suggests the existence of

compensatory mechanisms that support continued primary body axis elongation after gastrulation is complete.

Temporal dynamics of gastrulation cell movements

Although it is intuitive that delayed C&E ultimately manifests as a C&E defect *in vivo*, it is less clear how

increased and/or precocious convergence movements (as seen in MZ*sulf1*-/-, MZ*sumf1*-/-, and *sumf2* OE

embryos) lead to similar phenotypes (**Figure 3 and Figure 4**). We speculate that all gastrulation cell

movements – epiboly, internalization, and C&E – must be coordinated in both space and time to properly

shape the nascent body axes. If C&E movements are accelerated, they become out of sync with other

concurrent cell movements, disrupting axis extension. This would explain why morphological C&E defects are

detected in MZ*sumf1*-/- mutants but not explants (**Figure 2 and Figure Suppl. 3**), in which C&E occur in the

absence of epiboly and internalization. A similar phenomenon was reported in *Drosophila* gastrulae, in which

both slowed and accelerated germ band extension desynchronized morphogenesis between the three germ

layers (*105, 106*).

It is not yet clear whether sulfatase activity alters the onset of cell movements, their pace, or both. For

example, either accelerated cell movements or their precocious onset could manifest as "early onset" of

morphological extension within our explants. Indeed, *Drosophila* embryos with loss- and gain-of function

mutations in Serotonin signaling components reportedly exhibit slowed and accelerated cell movements driving

germ band extension, respectively, without a change in their time of onset (*105-107*). However, our *in vivo* cell-

tracking analysis revealed apparent changes in both the onset and speed of convergence movements in

zebrafish gastrulae with altered *sumf1, sumf2*, and *sulf1* levels, suggesting that multiple aspects of 'timing' are

affected (**Figure 3 and Figure 4**)**.** The precise changes in the timing of cell behaviors upon altered sulfatase

activity, and their contributions to our observed phenotypes, are areas of interest for future study.

How do HSPGs govern morphogenetic timing?

Cell surface and extracellular HSPGs play key roles in multiple morphogen signaling pathways. For

example, HSPGs modulate ligand diffusion and availability (*66, 80, 108, 109*) and receptor binding (*66, 80,*

110) of morphogens with known roles in C&E, including FGF, Wnt, BMP, and Nodal. HSPGs also regulate PCP

signaling through binding of non-canonical Wnt ligands (*98, 100, 110*) and membrane localization of

Dishevelled (*80, 98, 99*), which is required for PCP activity (*111, 112*). The structural features of HS chains,

particularly their sulfation patterns, are critical for these functions as they determine ligand-binding affinity and

selectivity (*97, 113, 114*). Notably, the precise role of HSPG sulfation in signaling is context-dependent and

changes throughout development. For example, reduced sulfation inhibits and enhances signaling by Wnt8

and Wnt11, respectively (*80, 81, 115, 116*), and HSPGs from different developmental stages have different

capacities to bind FGF ligands (*117, 118*). We speculate that sulfatase modifiers may regulate C&E timing by

controlling HS sulfation, thereby modulating the degree and dynamics of HSPG-mediated signaling. Indeed,

we observed an increase in the levels of sulfated HSPGs (Sulf1 substrates) during late gastrulation (**Figure 5**)

and demonstrated that both decreased and increased levels of sulfated HS were sufficient to alter C&E timing

(**Figure 6**). Importantly, the phenotypes associated with *sumf1/2* and *sulf1* perturbations reflect disrupted

morphogenesis rather than altered cell fate specification, as embryos still give rise to derivatives of all three

germ layers, consistent with observations in *Xenopus* and sea urchin gastrulation (*79, 83*). Whether this

putative role in morphogen signaling underlies the effect of sulfatase modifiers on C&E timing will be an

exciting topic for future studies.

580
581

METHODS

Zebrafish

Adult zebrafish were maintained following established protocols (*119*) in compliance with Baylor College of

Medicine Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees. Embryos were obtained through natural mating, and

staging was based on established morphology (*120*). Fish were chosen from their home tank to be crossed at

random, and embryos were randomly chosen from the clutch for injection and inclusion in experiments. WT

and mutant embryos were collected in parallel in a period not longer than 10–15 min to minimize

developmental differences and raised in egg water at 28.5°C under identical conditions. Experiments on WT

embryos were conducted in either the AB or TU background, depending on the background of the mutant line

used. The mutant lines used were *sum^la015919Tg* (ZFIN ID: ZDBALT-120806-11568), *sulf1^sjr9* (Kaur et al,

submitted), *sumf2^bcm126* (this study, described further below) and *oep^tz257* (*100*). *oep-/-* embryos were rescued to

viability by injection of 50 pg of *oep* mRNA (*121*) and raised to adulthood, then intercrossed to generate

MZ*oep-/-* embryos for explantation. MZ*sumf1-/-*; MZ*sumf2-/-* double mutants were generated by crossing

single homozygous mutants to obtain double heterozygotes, which were subsequently incrossed.

sumf2^bcm126 **generation and genotyping**

Sumf2 zebrafish mutants were generated using the CRISPR–Cas9 system. A single guide (sg)RNA targeting

exon 2 of *sumf2* (5′-GGATGGAGAATCGCCAACAC-3′) was designed using CRISPRscan (*122*). sgRNAs were

transcribed using T7 RNA polymerase (NEB, M0251S) from DNA templates generated with the forward primer

(Fw): gaaattaatacgactcactataGGATGGAGAATCGCCAACACgttttagagctagaaatagc, and the reverse primer

(Rv): aaaagcaccgactcggtgccacttttttcaagttgataacggactagccttatttttaacttgctatttctagctctaaaac. 1 µl of gRNA was pre-

incubated for 10 min at 37 °C with Cas9 protein (NEB, M0646M) and 300mM KCl (as described by (*123*)). AB

WT Embryos were injected at the single-cell stage with 1 nl of the gRNA–Cas9 complex and cutting efficiency

was assessed using a T7 endonuclease I assay (*124*). A PCR fragment encompassing the target sequence

was amplified from genomic DNA (gDNA) of individual embryos (using the following primers: Fw:

AGATGGTGTTTATTCCTGGTGG, Rv: TCCTCTGATACAAAATCCTGGAA) and incubated with T7

endonuclease I (NEB #M0302L) in NEB 10× Buffer 2. Injected F0 embryos were raised and outcrossed to AB

WT fish. F1 progeny were genotyped by Sanger sequencing to identify transmitted mutations. A 7 bp insertion

in exon 2 of *sumf2* (sumf2*bcm126*), resulting in an early stop codon, was selected (**Figure Suppl 2A**). This

mutation introduced an XcmI restriction site, enabling genotyping by digestion of the PCR-amplified target

fragment with XcmI (NEB, R0533S) (**Figure Suppl 2B**). Heterozygous F1 carriers were incrossed to produce

the F2 generation. Homozygotes F2 fish were raised and incrossed to obtained MZ*sumf2*-/- embryos for

experiments.

RT-qPCR

RNA was isolated from 50 pooled WT and MZ*sumf2*-/- 24 hpf larvae from three independent clutches. Total

RNA was extracted using TRIzol reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 15596018), purified by sodium acetate

precipitation, eluted in 10 mM Tris pH7.5 and treated with Turbo DNAase I (Invitrogen, AM2238) at 37°C for 30

min. For each sample, 1μg of the RNA was reverse-transcribed using iScript Reverse Transcription Supermix

for RT-qPCR (Biorad, #1708840). *sumf2* specific primers were designed to span exon-exon junctions [Exon 1-

2 (pair 1) FW: CACAGTGTCTTGTGCAGCAG, RV: AGTTGGAGTTGGTGACAGGA; Exon 3-5 (pair 2) FW:

GGCTGAAACATTTGGCTGGA, RV: GGCATCATTCCAGCTGACCT]. *rpl13a-1* was used as a housekeeping

gene [FW: TCTGGAGGACTGTAAGAGGTATGC, RV: AGACGCACAATCTTGAGAGCAG]. qPCR was

performed in technical triplicates using SsoAdvanced Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Biorad, #1725270).

Relative expression levels were calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method.

Preparation and microinjection of mRNA

All mRNAs were transcribed using the SP6 mMessage mMachine Kit (Fisher Scientific, AM1340) and purified

using Bio -Rad Microbiospin columns (Bio-Rad, 7326250). Single-celled embryos were placed in agarose

molds (Adaptive Science Tools, I-34) and injected with 0.5-1 nl volumes using pulled glass needles (Fisher

Scientific, 50-821-984). Doses of mRNA per embryo were as follows: 0.5 pg *acvr1b** (*68*), 10 pg *ndr2* (*125*),

50-100 pg s*umf1*, 100 pg *sumf2*, 500 pg *sfGFP,* 500 pg *sulf2b,* 500 pg *sulf2a,* 500pg *gnsb,* 50-500 pg *sulf1,*

500 pg *sgsh,* 500 pg *arsb,* 500 pg *gnsa,* 500 pg *ids,* 500 pg *galns,* 500 pg *arsa,* 500 pg *sts,* 100 pg *mem-GFP*

and 100 pg *H2B-scarlet.* Templates for *sumf1*, *sumf2*, and all sulfatases were generated by Gibson cloning

(*126*) each of their open reading frames (synthesized by Twist Biosciences) into a PJS2 vector linearized with

EcoRI.

Whole mount *in situ* hybridization (WISH)

tbxta (brachyury, t), *dlx3b* and *egr2b (krox20)* antisense riboprobes were transcribed using NEB T7 RNA

polymerase (NEB, M0251s) and labeled with digoxigenin NTPs (Sigma/Millipore, 11277073910) NTPs

(Sigma/Millipore, 11685619910). WISH was performed according to (*127*). Embryos were fixed overnight in at

4°C 4% PFA in PBS, rinsed in PBS + 10% tween-20 (PBT), and dehydrated into methanol. Following

rehydration into PBT, embryos were pre-incubated for at least two hours in hybridization buffer with 50%

formamide (in 0.75 M sodium chloride, 75 mM sodium citrate, 0.1% tween 20, 50 mg/mL heparin (Sigma), and

200 mg/mL tRNA) at 70°C, and hybridized overnight at 70°C with antisense probes (1-5 ng/mL) in hybridization

buffer. Samples were washed gradually into 2X SSC buffer (0.3 M sodium chloride, 30 mM sodium citrate),

and then gradually from SSC to PBT. Samples were blocked at room temperature for several hours in PBT

with 2% goat serum and 2 mg/mL bovine serum albumin (BSA), then incubated overnight at 4°C with anti-DIG

antibody (Roche #11093274910) at 1:5000 in block. After extensive washes in PBT, embryos were rinsed in

staining buffer (PBT +100 mM Tris pH 9.5, 50 mM MgCl$_2$, and 100 mM NaCl) and developed in BM Purple AP

substrate (Roche) until the desired staining intensity was achieved. Staining was stopped with 10 mM EDTA in

PBT before imaging.

Blastoderm explants

Blastoderm explants were prepared as described by (*128*). Briefly, uninjected, *acvr1b*-,* or *ndr2*-injected

embryos were dechorionated at the 256-cell stage using pronase (Roche; 1 ml of 20 mg/ml stock in 15 ml 3×

Danieau's solution). At the 512-cell stage, approximately 1/3 of the most animal blastoderm cells were excised

using Dumont #55 forceps (Fisher Scientific, NC9791564) on an agarose-coated plate containing 3× Danieau's

solution. Explants were allowed to heal briefly before being transferred into agarose-coated 6-well plates

containing explant medium [Dulbecco's modified eagle medium with nutrient mixture F-12 (Gibco 11330032)

containing 2.5 mM L-glutamine, 15 mM HEPES, 3% newborn calf serum (Invitrogen 26010–066), 50 units/mL

penicillin, and 50 mg/mL streptomycin (10,000 U/mL pen-strep at 1:200, Gibco 15140163)]. Explants were

incubated at 28.5 °C until sibling embryos from the same genetic background reached the desired

developmental stage.

Alcian Blue staining

669 Embryos were fixed in PFA 4% overnight, extensively washed in PBS, and incubated in Alcian Blue staining

670 solution pH 1 (0.2% Alcian Blue 8 GX (Sigma # A5268), 50% ethanol, ~0.1N HCl) for 48 h at room

671 temperature, protected from light. Samples were then gradually rehydrated into PBS, post-fixed in 4% PFA,

672 washed with PBS, and rinsed in 2% KOH. Embryos were cleared through a graded series of glycerol in 2%

673 KOH (20%, 40%, 60%) and stored in 80% glycerol in 2% KOH for imaging and long-term storage.

Transcription inhibitor treatment

676 1 μM Triptolide (Sigma # T3652) or an equivalent volume of DMSO was added to the media of blastoderm

677 explants in agarose-coated 6-well plates at 50% (4.7 hpf), shield (6 hpf), 70% (7.5 hpf) or 80% (8.5 hpf). 0.5

678 μM Flavopiridol (Selleck, S1230) or an equivalent volume of DMSO was added to the media of blastoderm

679 explants at 50% (4.7 hpf) and washed-out twice with 0.3x Danieau solution, before incubation with fresh

680 explant medium.

Sodium Chlorate treatment

683 Dome stage (4.33 hpf) embryos or blastoderm explants were treated with 200 or 50 mM of Sodium Chlorate

684 (VWR # 7775-09-9) in egg water or explant medium.

Heparan Sulfate injections

687 Uninjected or *acvr1b**-injected embryos were dechorionated at the 64-cell stage using pronase (Roche; 1 mL

688 of 20 mg/mL stock in 15 mL 3× Danieau's solution). Embryos were transferred to agarose-coated plates

689 containing cubical depressions (Adaptive Science Tools, PT-1) filled with 0.3× Danieau's solution. At the 256-

690 cell stage, embryos were injected with 2 nL of 5 ng/mL heparan sulfate (Sigma-Aldrich, H7640) or nuclease-

691 free water into the extracellular space.

Microscopy

Live embryos injected with *H2B-mScarlet* and *mem-GFP* mRNA were manually dechorionated and mounted in 0.3-0.35% low-melt agarose (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 16520100) in glass-bottomed 35 mm Petri dishes (Fisher Scientific, FB0875711YZ) for imaging using a Nikon ECLIPSE Ti2 inverted confocal microscope equipped with a Yokogawa W1 spinning disk unit, PFS4 camera, and 405/488/561 nm lasers (emission filters: 455/50, 525/36, 605/52). Temperature was maintained at 28.5°C during imaging using a Tokai Hit STX stage top Incubator. For live time-lapse series, 100 μm z-stacks with a 2 μm step were collected every 5 minutes for 5 hours using a Plan Apo Lambda 20x dry objective lens. Live blastoderm explants were mounted in rounded chambers made in 1% low-melt agarose in glass-bottomed dishes containing explants medium and imaged in the same scope. For live time-lapses, 14 μm z-stacks were obtained with a 2 μm step every 10 minutes for 6 hours using a Plan Apo Lambda 10x dry objective lens. Images of WISH and alcian blue-stained embryos and live embryos, larvae and explants were taken with a Nikon Fi3 color camera on a Nikon SMZ745T stereoscope.

Image analysis

ImageJ/Fiji was used to visualize and measure all microscopy data sets.

Morphometric analyses

During analysis, researchers were kept unaware of the conditions of all image data using the blind_renamer Perl script (https://github.com/jimsalterjrs/blindanalysis) (blindanalysis: v.1.0.) prior to analysis. To measure the length/width ratios of explants, the length of a segmented line drawn along the midline of each explant (accounting for curvature) was divided by the length of a perpendicular line spanning the maximal width of the explant. Tailbud morphometries were performed in whole-mount embryos staged using *egr2b* expression at the future mid-hindbrain boundary. Notochord width was quantified in dorsal-view images as the mediolateral extent of the *tbxta* expression domain at the midline. Anteroposterior (AP) axis length was measured in lateral-view images from the anterior to posterior boundaries of the *dlx3b* expression domain.

Explant onset of extension

The onset of explant extension was assessed in a blinded manner as the time point when a visible tip first

emerged from an initially rounded explant. Explant were staged according to sibling intact embryos from the

same genetic background cultured in the same plate.

Cell tracking analysis

Automated nuclear tracking was performed using the ImageJ TrackMate7 plugin (*129*) in the dorsal

hemisphere (encompassing dorsal and lateral cells) of zebrafish gastrulae injected with *H2B-scarlet* mRNA.

TrackMate generated color-coded trajectories and measurements of mediolateral (ML) displacement. Embryos

were staged relative to formation of the second somite. To minimize noise from reduced convergence

movements near the dorsal midline, cells within 100 µm of the midline were excluded from the analysis.

Average displacement in the X (ML) dimension was calculated per time frame, smoothed using a sliding

window of four time points, and plotted over time using GraphPad Prism 10.

GAG isolation and disaccharide analysis.

Whole zebrafish gastrulae (5.3 or 8.5 hpf, 100 embryos/sample) were homogenized and lysed in 0.5% CHAPS

lysis buffer (50 mM HEPES, 120 mM NaCl, 2 mM EDTA, pH 7.4) containing a protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche).

50 µL of cell lysate was set aside for protein quantification via BCA assay. Homogenates were diluted 1:10 in a

wash buffer (50 mM sodium acetate, 200 mM NaCl, 0.1% Triton X-100, pH 6.0) and incubated with Pronase (0.4

mg/ml, Sigma) overnight at 37 °C with mild agitation. The product was centrifuged (4,000 xg, 20 minutes) then

passed through a DEAE-Sephacel (Cytiva) column equilibrated in 50 mM sodium acetate buffer, pH 6.0,

containing 200 mM NaCl, and desalted using a PD-10 desalting column (Cytiva). The purified GAGs were

subsequently enzymatically depolymerized with 2 mU each of heparin lyases I-III (IBEX) and differentially mass

labeled by reductive amination with aniline, as described (*86*). Tagged HS disaccharides were analyzed by HILIC-

Q-TOF-MS on a Waters Synapt XS Q-TOF mass spectrometer, as previously described (*86*). Samples were

quantified using isotopically labeled internal disaccharide standards and normalized to total protein, as measured

by BCA.

Statistical analysis

Number of embryos (n) and independent experimental replicates (N) for animal studies are stated in graphs. All experiments were performed at least in triplicates. GraphPad Prism 10 software was used to perform statistical analyses and generate graphs for all data analyzed. Datasets were tested for normality prior to analysis and statistical tests were chosen accordingly. The statistical tests used for each data set are noted in figure legends.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Dr. Lila Solnica-Krezel for sharing plasmids and WISH probes, the BCM Center for Comparative Medicine for taking excellent care of our fish, and the Zebrafish International Resource Center for preserving and distributing fish lines used here and by countless members of the community. Thanks also to all members of the Williams lab for their help and feedback on this project.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

A.S.C. and M.K.W. conceived of the project. A.S.C. and M.K.W. performed zebrafish experiments, R.J.W. and A.B. performed HS disaccharide profiling, and R.M.J. and G.K.B. generated the *sulf1* deletion line. S.G. and C.C. performed bioinformatic analysis. A.S.C and M.K.W. wrote the original manuscript. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

FUNDING

This work was supported by NIH/NICHD grants R00HD091386 and R01HD104784 to M.K.W. R.J.W. is supported by NIH grant R35GM150736. The glycosaminoglycan disaccharide analyses performed at the CCRC were partially supported by NIH grant R24GM137782 to Parastoo Azadi. G.K.B. was supported by a Bourses d'excellence (Université de Montréal) and a FRQ Doctoral Scholarship. R.M.J. is supported by CIHR grants (PJT-178037, PJT-204048) and FRQS J1 and J2 awards. S.G. and C.C. were partially supported by

CPRIT RP210227 and RP200504, NIH/NCI P30 shared resource grant CA125123, NIH/NIEHS P42 ES027725 and P30 ES030285. Data analysis was performed on the HPC cluster that is managed by the Biostatistics and Informatics Shared Resource (BISR) and supported by an NIH S10 Shared Instrument Grant S10-OD032185, NCI P30-CA125123 and Institutional funds from the Dan L Duncan Comprehensive Cancer Center and Baylor College of Medicine.

References

1. K. K. Smith, Time's arrow: heterochrony and the evolution of development. *Int J Dev Biol* **47**, 613-621 (2003).
2. K. K. Smith, Sequence heterochrony and the evolution of development. *J Morphol* **252**, 82-97 (2002).
3. N. I. Petridou, S. Grigolon, G. Salbreux, E. Hannezo, C. P. Heisenberg, Fluidization-mediated tissue spreading by mitotic cell rounding and non-canonical Wnt signalling. *Nat Cell Biol* **21**, 169-178 (2019).
4. N. I. Petridou, B. Corominas-Murtra, C. P. Heisenberg, E. Hannezo, Rigidity percolation uncovers a structural basis for embryonic tissue phase transitions. *Cell* **184**, 1914-1928.e1919 (2021).
5. E. G. Hagos, S. T. Dougan, Time-dependent patterning of the mesoderm and endoderm by Nodal signals in zebrafish. *BMC Dev Biol* **7**, 22 (2007).
6. *D. Pinheiro*, *R. Kardos*, *É. H. Hannezo, Carl-Philipp*, *Morphogen gradient orchestrates pattern-preserving tissue morphogenesisvia motility-driven unjamming. Nature Physics* **18**, *1482–1493* (2022).
7. Z. Liu, S. Woo, O. D. Weiner, Nodal signaling has dual roles in fate specification and directed migration during germ layer segregation in zebrafish. *Development* **145**, (2018).
8. Y. Moriyama, T. Mitsui, C. P. Heisenberg, Hoxb genes determine the timing of cell ingression by regulating cell surface fluctuations during zebrafish gastrulation. *Development* **152**, (2025).
9. T. Iimura, O. Pourquié, Collinear activation of Hoxb genes during gastrulation is linked to mesoderm cell ingression. *Nature* **442**, 568-571 (2006).
10. J. B. Wallingford, R. M. Harland, Xenopus Dishevelled signaling regulates both neural and mesodermal convergent extension: parallel forces elongating the body axis. *Development* **128**, 2581-2592 (2001).
11. J. B. Wallingford, R. M. Harland, Neural tube closure requires Dishevelled-dependent convergent extension of the midline. *Development* **129**, 5815-5825 (2002).
12. L. A. Davidson, R. E. Keller, Neural tube closure in Xenopus laevis involves medial migration, directed protrusive activity, cell intercalation and convergent extension. *Development* **126**, 4547-4556 (1999).
13. R. Keller, L. A. Davidson, D. R. Shook, How we are shaped: the biomechanics of gastrulation. *Differentiation* **71**, 171-205 (2003).
14. R. Keller *et al.*, Mechanisms of convergence and extension by cell intercalation. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* **355**, 897-922 (2000).
15. R. J. Huebner, J. B. Wallingford, Coming to Consensus: A Unifying Model Emerges for Convergent Extension. *Dev Cell* **46**, 389-396 (2018).
16. J. Shih, R. Keller, Cell motility driving mediolateral intercalation in explants of Xenopus laevis. *Development* **116**, 901-914 (1992).
17. J. Shih, R. Keller, Patterns of cell motility in the organizer and dorsal mesoderm of Xenopus laevis. *Development* **116**, 915-930 (1992).
18. M. L. Concha, R. J. Adams, Oriented cell divisions and cellular morphogenesis in the zebrafish gastrula and neurula: a time-lapse analysis. *Development* **125**, 983-994 (1998).
19. D. S. Sepich, C. Calmelet, M. Kiskowski, L. Solnica-Krezel, Initiation of convergence and extension movements of lateral mesoderm during zebrafish gastrulation. *Dev Dyn* **234**, 279-292 (2005).
20. B. Schmid *et al.*, High-speed panoramic light-sheet microscopy reveals global endodermal cell dynamics. *Nat Commun* **4**, 2207 (2013).
21. D. C. Myers, D. S. Sepich, L. Solnica-Krezel, Bmp activity gradient regulates convergent extension during zebrafish gastrulation. *Dev Biol* **243**, 81-98 (2002).

22. H. Ninomiya, R. P. Elinson, R. Winklbauer, Antero-posterior tissue polarity links mesoderm convergent
extension to axial patterning. *Nature* **430**, 364-367 (2004).
23. R. Keller, J. Shih, A. K. Sater, C. Moreno, Planar induction of convergence and extension of the neural
plate by the organizer of Xenopus. *Dev Dyn* **193**, 218-234 (1992).
24. R. S. Gray, I. Roszko, L. Solnica-Krezel, Planar cell polarity: coordinating morphogenetic cell behaviors
with embryonic polarity. *Dev Cell* **21**, 120-133 (2011).
25. J. B. Wallingford, S. E. Fraser, R. M. Harland, Convergent extension: the molecular control of polarized
cell movement during embryonic development. *Dev Cell* **2**, 695-706 (2002).
26. R. Bastock, H. Strutt, D. Strutt, Strabismus is asymmetrically localised and binds to Prickle and
Dishevelled during Drosophila planar polarity patterning. *Development* **130**, 3007-3014 (2003).
27. C. Yin, M. Kiskowski, P. A. Pouille, E. Farge, L. Solnica-Krezel, Cooperation of polarized cell
intercalations drives convergence and extension of presomitic mesoderm during zebrafish gastrulation.
J Cell Biol **180**, 221-232 (2008).
28. B. Ciruna, A. Jenny, D. Lee, M. Mlodzik, A. F. Schier, Planar cell polarity signalling couples cell division
and morphogenesis during neurulation. *Nature* **439**, 220-224 (2006).
29. M. T. Butler, J. B. Wallingford, Spatial and temporal analysis of PCP protein dynamics during neural
tube closure. *Elife* **7**, (2018).
30. I. Roszko, D. S Sepich, J. R. Jessen, A. Chandrasekhar, L. Solnica-Krezel, A dynamic intracellular
distribution of Vangl2 accompanies cell polarization during zebrafish gastrulation. *Development* **142**,
2508-2520 (2015).
31. S. von der Hardt *et al.*, The Bmp gradient of the zebrafish gastrula guides migrating lateral cells by
regulating cell-cell adhesion. *Curr Biol* **17**, 475-487 (2007).
32. W. Shi, S. M. Peyrot, E. Munro, M. Levine, FGF3 in the floor plate directs notochord convergent
extension in the Ciona tadpole. *Development* **136**, 23-28 (2009).
33. E. Aamar, D. Frank, Xenopus Meis3 protein forms a hindbrain-inducing center by activating FGF/MAP
kinase and PCP pathways. *Development* **131**, 153-163 (2004).
34. B. Gao *et al.*, Coordinated directional outgrowth and pattern formation by integration of Wnt5a and Fgf
signaling in planar cell polarity. *Development* **145**, (2018).
35. M. L. K. Williams, L. Solnica-Krezel, Nodal and Planar Cell Polarity signaling cooperate to regulate
zebrafish convergence and extension gastrulation movements. *Elife* **9**, (2020).
36. G. Luxardi, L. Marchal, V. Thomé, L. Kodjabachian, Distinct Xenopus Nodal ligands sequentially induce
mesendoderm and control gastrulation movements in parallel to the Wnt/PCP pathway. *Development*
137, 417-426 (2010).
37. K. Symes, J. C. Smith, Gastrulation movements provide an early marker of mesoderm
induction in   Xenopus laevis. *Development*, 339-349 (1987).
38. J. Minshull *et al.*, The role of cyclin synthesis, modification and destruction in the control of cell division.
J Cell Sci Suppl **12**, 77-97 (1989).
39. J. Newport, M. Kirschner, A major developmental transition in early Xenopus embryos: I.
characterization and timing of cellular changes at the midblastula stage. *Cell* **30**, 675-686 (1982).
40. H. Chen, L. C. Einstein, S. C. Little, M. C. Good, Spatiotemporal Patterning of Zygotic Genome
Activation in a Model Vertebrate Embryo. *Dev Cell* **49**, 852-866.e857 (2019).
41. S. Chari, H. Wilky, J. Govindan, A. A. Amodeo, Histone concentration regulates the cell cycle and
transcription in early development. *Development* **146**, (2019).
42. S. R. Joseph *et al.*, Competition between histone and transcription factor binding regulates the onset of
transcription in zebrafish embryos. *Elife* **6**, (2017).
43. C. Collart, G. E. Allen, C. R. Bradshaw, J. C. Smith, P. Zegerman, Titration of four replication factors is
essential for the Xenopus laevis midblastula transition. *Science* **341**, 893-896 (2013).
44. J. Newport, M. Kirschner, A major developmental transition in early Xenopus embryos: II. Control of the
onset of transcription. *Cell* **30**, 687-696 (1982).
45. T. Itoh, A. Shinagawa, Timing system for the start of gastrulation in the Xenopus embryo. *Dev Growth
Differ* **45**, 261-273 (2003).
46. S. Kuroda, T. Satoh, A. Shinagawa, Involvement of a urethane-sensitive system in timing the onset of
gastrulation in Xenopus laevis embryos. *Dev Growth Differ* **43**, 401-413 (2001).
47. M. Takagi, T. Shimoda, A. Shinagawa, Dependence of the timing system regulating the onset of
gastrulation on cytoplasmic, but not nuclear, activities in the Xenopus embryo. *Dev Growth Differ* **47**,
415-422 (2005).

48.   K. Hara, P. Tydeman, M. Kirschner, A cytoplasmic clock with the same period as the division cycle in
Xenopus eggs. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **77**, 462-466 (1980).

49.   E. V. Chulitskaia, Desynchronization of cell divisions in the course of egg cleavage and an attempt at
experimental shift of its onset. *J Embryol Exp Morphol* **23**, 359-374 (1970).

50.   Y. Kobayakawa, H. Y. Kubota, Temporal pattern of cleavage and the onset of gastrulation in amphibian
embryos developed from eggs with the reduced cytoplasm. *J Embryol Exp Morphol* **62**, 83-94 (1981).

51.   I. J. T. Strong, X. Lei, F. Chen, K. Yuan, P. H. O'Farrell, Interphase-arrested Drosophila embryos
activate zygotic gene expression and initiate mid-blastula transition events at a low nuclear-cytoplasmic
ratio. *PLoS Biol* **18**, e3000891 (2020).

52.   M. Almuedo-Castillo *et al.*, Scale-invariant patterning by size-dependent inhibition of Nodal signalling.
Nat Cell Biol **20**, 1032-1042 (2018).

53.   D. A. Kane *et al.*, The zebrafish epiboly mutants. *Development* **123**, 47-55 (1996).

54.   T. Dierks *et al.*, Multiple sulfatase deficiency is caused by mutations in the gene encoding the human
C(alpha)-formylglycine generating enzyme. *Cell* **113**, 435-444 (2003).

55.   J. Landgrebe, T. Dierks, B. Schmidt, K. von Figura, The human SUMF1 gene, required for
posttranslational sulfatase modification, defines a new gene family which is conserved from pro- to
eukaryotes. *Gene* **316**, 47-56 (2003).

56.   J. Peng *et al.*, Eukaryotic formylglycine-generating enzyme catalyses a monooxygenase type of
reaction. *FEBS J* **282**, 3262-3274 (2015).

57.   A. Preusser-Kunze *et al.*, Molecular characterization of the human Calpha-formylglycine-generating
enzyme. *J Biol Chem* **280**, 14900-14910 (2005).

58.   A. Dickmanns *et al.*, Crystal structure of human pFGE, the paralog of the Calpha-formylglycine-
generating enzyme. *J Biol Chem* **280**, 15180-15187 (2005).

59.   M. Mariappan *et al.*, Expression, localization, structural, and functional characterization of pFGE, the
paralog of the Calpha-formylglycine-generating enzyme. *J Biol Chem* **280**, 15173-15179 (2005).

60.   M. Mariappan *et al.*, The non-catalytic N-terminal extension of formylglycine-generating enzyme is
required for its biological activity and retention in the endoplasmic reticulum. *J Biol Chem* **283**, 11556-
11564 (2008).

61.   T. Dierks *et al.*, Molecular basis for multiple sulfatase deficiency and mechanism for formylglycine
generation of the human formylglycine-generating enzyme. *Cell* **121**, 541-552 (2005).

62.   D. Roeser *et al.*, A general binding mechanism for all human sulfatases by the formylglycine-generating
enzyme. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **103**, 81-86 (2006).

63.   T. Sakuma *et al.*, HpSumf1 is involved in the activation of sulfatases responsible for regulation of
skeletogenesis during sea urchin development. *Dev Genes Evol* **221**, 157-166 (2011).

64.   E. Zito *et al.*, Sulphatase activities are regulated by the interaction of sulphatase-modifying factor 1 with
SUMF2. *EMBO Rep* **6**, 655-660 (2005).

65.   K. Uchimura, M. Morimoto-Tomita, S. D. Rosen, Measuring the activities of the Sulfs: two novel
heparin/heparan sulfate endosulfatases. *Methods Enzymol* **416**, 243-253 (2006).

66.   X. Ai *et al.*, QSulf1 remodels the 6-O sulfation states of cell surface heparan sulfate proteoglycans to
promote Wnt signaling. *J Cell Biol* **162**, 341-351 (2003).

67.   M. Morimoto-Tomita, K. Uchimura, Z. Werb, S. Hemmerich, S. D. Rosen, Cloning and characterization
of two extracellular heparin-degrading endosulfatases in mice and humans. *J Biol Chem* **277**, 49175-
49185 (2002).

68.   A. Renucci, V. Lemarchandel, F. Rosa, An activated form of type I serine/threonine kinase receptor
TARAM-A reveals a specific signalling pathway involved in fish head organiser formation. *Development*
122, 3735-3743 (1996).

69.   D. V. Titov *et al.*, XPB, a subunit of TFIIH, is a target of the natural product triptolide. *Nat Chem Biol* **7**,
182-188 (2011).

70.   A. A. Emig *et al.*, Temporal dynamics of BMP/Nodal ratio drive tissue-specific gastrulation
morphogenesis. *Development* **152**, (2025).

71.   K. Gritsman *et al.*, The EGF-CFC protein one-eyed pinhead is essential for nodal signaling. *Cell* **97**,
121-132 (1999).

72.   S. H. Chao, D. H. Price, Flavopiridol inactivates P-TEFb and blocks most RNA polymerase II
transcription in vivo. *J Biol Chem* **276**, 31793-31799 (2001).

73.   R. J. White *et al.*, A high-resolution mRNA expression time course of embryonic development in
zebrafish. *Elife* **6**, (2017).

74.   M. P. Cosma *et al.*, Molecular and functional analysis of SUMF1 mutations in multiple sulfatase
deficiency. *Hum Mutat* **23**, 576-581 (2004).
75.   M. Buono, M. P. Cosma, Sulfatase activities towards the regulation of cell metabolism and signaling in
mammals. *Cell Mol Life Sci* **67**, 769-780 (2010).
76.   P. Bojarová, S. J. Williams, Sulfotransferases, sulfatases and formylglycine-generating enzymes: a
sulfation fascination. *Current Opinion in Chemical Biology* **12**, 573-581 (2008).
77.   A. Fleming *et al.*, Unexpected Phenotype Reversion and Survival in a Zebrafish Model of Multiple
Sulfatase Deficiency. *Front Cell Dev Biol* **10**, 843079 (2022).
78.   N. S. Glickman, C. B. Kimmel, M. A. Jones, R. J. Adams, Shaping the zebrafish notochord.
Development **130**, 873-887 (2003).
79.   J. B. Wallingford, A. K. Sater, J. A. Uzman, M. V. Danilchik, Inhibition of morphogenetic movement
during Xenopus gastrulation by injected sulfatase: implications for anteroposterior and dorsoventral axis
formation. *Dev Biol* **187**, 224-235 (1997).
80.   S. W. Fellgett, R. J. Maguire, M. E. Pownall, Sulf1 has ligand-dependent effects on canonical and non-
canonical Wnt signalling. *J Cell Sci* **128**, 1408-1421 (2015).
81.   S. D. Freeman *et al.*, Extracellular regulation of developmental cell signaling by XtSulf1. *Dev Biol* **320**,
436-445 (2008).
82.   K. Mitsunaga-Nakatsubo, Y. Akimoto, H. Kawakami, K. Akasaka, Sea urchin arylsulfatase, an
extracellular matrix component, is involved in gastrulation during embryogenesis. *Dev Genes Evol* **219**,
281-288 (2009).
83.   K. F. Bergeron, X. Xu, B. P. Brandhorst, Oral-aboral patterning and gastrulation of sea urchin embryos
depend on sulfated glycosaminoglycans. *Mech Dev* **128**, 71-89 (2011).
84.   P. A. Baeuerle, W. B. Huttner, Chlorate--a potent inhibitor of protein sulfation in intact cells. *Biochem*
Biophys Res Commun **141**, 870-877 (1986).
85.   F. Safaiyan *et al.*, Selective effects of sodium chlorate treatment on the sulfation of heparan sulfate. *J*
Biol Chem **274**, 36267-36273 (1999).
86.   A. Basu *et al.*, Quantitative HILIC-Q-TOF-MS Analysis of Glycosaminoglycans and Non-reducing End
Carbohydrate Biomarkers via Glycan Reductive Isotopic Labeling. *Anal Chem* **97**, 17490-17500 (2025).
87.   V. Singh, R. Bhat, Proteoglycan desulfation: a critical step in oncogenesis? *Front Biosci (Landmark Ed)*
25, 760-780 (2020).
88.   S. Superina, A. Borovina, B. Ciruna, Analysis of maternal-zygotic ugdh mutants reveals divergent roles
for HSPGs in vertebrate embryogenesis and provides new insight into the initiation of left-right
asymmetry. *Dev Biol* **387**, 154-166 (2014).
89.   K. Itoh, S. Y. Sokol, Heparan sulfate proteoglycans are required for mesoderm formation in Xenopus
embryos. *Development* **120**, 2703-2711 (1994).
90.   G. W. Yip, P. Ferretti, A. J. Copp, Heparan sulphate proteoglycans and spinal neurulation in the mouse
embryo. *Development* **129**, 2109-2119 (2002).
91.   M. Gupta *et al.*, Fine-tuning of Fgf8 morphogen gradient by heparan sulfate proteoglycans in the
extracellular matrix. *Biophys J* **124**, 996-1010 (2025).
92.   M. Fürthauer, J. Van Celst, C. Thisse, B. Thisse, Fgf signalling controls the dorsoventral patterning of
the zebrafish embryo. *Development* **131**, 2853-2864 (2004).
93.   G. Diez-Roux, A. Ballabio, Sulfatases and human disease. *Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet* **6**, 355-379
(2005).
94.   C. Settembre *et al.*, Systemic inflammation and neurodegeneration in a mouse model of multiple
sulfatase deficiency. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **104**, 4506-4511 (2007).
95.   S. L. Gande *et al.*, Paralog of the formylglycine-generating enzyme--retention in the endoplasmic
reticulum by canonical and noncanonical signals. *Febs j* **275**, 1118-1130 (2008).
96.   F. Milz *et al.*, Cooperation of binding sites at the hydrophilic domain of cell-surface sulfatase Sulf1
allows for dynamic interaction of the enzyme with its substrate heparan sulfate. *Biochim Biophys Acta*
1830, 5287-5298 (2013).
97.   C. Marques, C. A. Reis, R. R. Vivès, A. Magalhães, Heparan Sulfate Biosynthesis and Sulfation Profiles
as Modulators of Cancer Signalling and Progression. *Front Oncol* **11**, 778752 (2021).
98.   B. Ohkawara, T. S. Yamamoto, M. Tada, N. Ueno, Role of glypican 4 in the regulation of convergent
extension movements during gastrulation in Xenopus laevis. *Development* **130**, 2129-2138 (2003).

99. R. Muñoz, M. Moreno, C. Oliva, C. Orbenes, J. Larraín, Syndecan-4 regulates non-canonical Wnt signalling and is essential for convergent and extension movements in Xenopus embryos. *Nat Cell Biol* **8**, 492-500 (2006).

100. J. Topczewski *et al.*, The zebrafish glypican knypek controls cell polarity during gastrulation movements of convergent extension. *Dev Cell* **1**, 251-264 (2001).

101. B. De Cat *et al.*, Processing by proprotein convertases is required for glypican-3 modulation of cell survival, Wnt signaling, and gastrulation movements. *J Cell Biol* **163**, 625-635 (2003).

102. M. C. Brickman, J. C. Gerhart, Heparitinase inhibition of mesoderm induction and gastrulation in Xenopus laevis embryos. *Dev Biol* **164**, 484-501 (1994).

103. E. Moro *et al.*, A novel functional role of iduronate-2-sulfatase in zebrafish early development. *Matrix Biol* **29**, 43-50 (2010).

104. J. R. Meyers *et al.*, Sulf1 modulates BMP signaling and is required for somite morphogenesis and development of the horizontal myoseptum. *Dev Biol* **378**, 107-121 (2013).

105. J. F. Colas, J. M. Launay, J. L. Vonesch, P. Hickel, L. Maroteaux, Serotonin synchronises convergent extension of ectoderm with morphogenetic gastrulation movements in Drosophila. *Mech Dev* **87**, 77-91 (1999).

106. B. Schaerlinger, J. M. Launay, J. L. Vonesch, L. Maroteaux, Gain of affinity point mutation in the serotonin receptor gene 5-HT2Dro accelerates germband extension movements during Drosophila gastrulation. *Dev Dyn* **236**, 991-999 (2007).

107. S. Karki *et al.*, Serotonin signaling regulates actomyosin contractility during morphogenesis in evolutionarily divergent lineages. *Nat Commun* **14**, 5547 (2023).

108. G. H. Baeg, X. Lin, N. Khare, S. Baumgartner, N. Perrimon, Heparan sulfate proteoglycans are critical for the organization of the extracellular distribution of Wingless. *Development* **128**, 87-94 (2001).

109. S. Veerapathiran *et al.*, Wnt3 distribution in the zebrafish brain is determined by expression, diffusion and multiple molecular interactions. *Elife* **9**, (2020).

110. B. Ohkawara, A. Glinka, C. Niehrs, Rspo3 binds syndecan 4 and induces Wnt/PCP signaling via clathrin-mediated endocytosis to promote morphogenesis. *Dev Cell* **20**, 303-314 (2011).

111. J. D. Axelrod, J. R. Miller, J. M. Shulman, R. T. Moon, N. Perrimon, Differential recruitment of Dishevelled provides signaling specificity in the planar cell polarity and Wingless signaling pathways. *Genes Dev* **12**, 2610-2622 (1998).

112. T. J. Park, R. S. Gray, A. Sato, R. Habas, J. B. Wallingford, Subcellular localization and signaling properties of dishevelled in developing vertebrate embryos. *Curr Biol* **15**, 1039-1044 (2005).

113. S. Sarrazin, W. C. Lamanna, J. D. Esko, Heparan sulfate proteoglycans. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol* **3**, (2011).

114. K. Hayashida, R. S. Aquino, P. W. Park, Coreceptor functions of cell surface heparan sulfate proteoglycans. *Am J Physiol Cell Physiol* **322**, C896-c912 (2022).

115. Y. Mii *et al.*, Roles of two types of heparan sulfate clusters in Wnt distribution and signaling in Xenopus. *Nat Commun* **8**, 1973 (2017).

116. Q. Tao *et al.*, Maternal wnt11 activates the canonical wnt signaling pathway required for axis formation in Xenopus embryos. *Cell* **120**, 857-871 (2005).

117. Y. G. Brickman *et al.*, Structural modification of fibroblast growth factor-binding heparan sulfate at a determinative stage of neural development. *J Biol Chem* **273**, 4350-4359 (1998).

118. V. Nurcombe, M. D. Ford, J. A. Wildschut, P. F. Bartlett, Developmental regulation of neural response to FGF-1 and FGF-2 by heparan sulfate proteoglycan. *Science* **260**, 103-106 (1993).

119. M. Westerfield, *The zebrafish book. A guide for the laboratory use of zebrafish (Danio rerio).* . (Univ. of Oregon Press   Eugene, Oregon, USA, 2000), vol. 4th edition.

120. C. B. Kimmel, W. W. Ballard, S. R. Kimmel, B. Ullmann, T. F. Schilling, Stages of embryonic development of the zebrafish. *Developmental Dynamics* **203**, 253-310 (1995).

121. J. Zhang, W. S. Talbot, A. F. Schier, Positional cloning identifies zebrafish one-eyed pinhead as a permissive EGF-related ligand required during gastrulation. *Cell* **92**, 241-251 (1998).

122. M. A. Moreno-Mateos *et al.*, CRISPRscan: designing highly efficient sgRNAs for CRISPR-Cas9 targeting in vivo. *Nat Methods* **12**, 982-988 (2015).

123. A. Burger *et al.*, Maximizing mutagenesis with solubilized CRISPR-Cas9 ribonucleoprotein complexes. *Development* **143**, 2025-2037 (2016).

124. D. Y. Guschin *et al.*, A rapid and general assay for monitoring endogenous gene modification. *Methods Mol Biol* **649**, 247-256 (2010).

049   125.   K. Sampath *et al.*, Induction of the zebrafish ventral brain and floorplate requires cyclops/nodal
050   signalling. *Nature* **395**, 185-189 (1998).
051   126.   D. G. Gibson *et al.*, Enzymatic assembly of DNA molecules up to several hundred kilobases. *Nat
052   Methods* **6**, 343-345 (2009).
053   127.   C. Thisse, B. Thisse, High-resolution in situ hybridization to whole-mount zebrafish embryos. *Nature
054   Protocols* **3**, 59-69 (2008).
055   128.   A. Alaniz Emig, M. L. K. Williams, Generation of Naïve Blastoderm Explants from Zebrafish Embryos. *J
056   Vis Exp*, (2021).
057   129.   D. Ershov *et al.*, TrackMate 7: integrating state-of-the-art segmentation algorithms into tracking
058   pipelines. *Nat Methods* **19**, 829-832 (2022).
059