Ewing's Sarcoma EWS protein regulates skeletogenesis by modulation of SOX9

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ABSTRACT

Ewing sarcoma is the second most common form of bone cancer in adolescents, characterized by the presence of an aberrant chimeric fusion gene EWS/FLI1. Wildtype EWS has been proposed to play a role in splicing and transcription. Currently, how these functions affect early developmental stages is unknown. To elucidate the function of EWS in early development, we analyzed an ewsa zebrafish mutant line originally isolated from an insertional mutagenesis method. We generated a Maternal Zygotic (MZ) ewsa/ewsa line because ewsa/wt and ewsa/ewsa zebrafish appear to be normal and are fertile. Alizarin Red staining revealed that there are skeletal formation defects in the lower jaw with an aberrant angle and position of the dentary and basihyal bones in adult MZ ewsa/ewsa mutants. Alcian blue staining revealed that the MZ ewsa/ewsa mutation leads to craniofacial defects with higher numbers of smaller cells with disorganized polarization compared to wt/wt zebrafish at four days post fertilization (dpf). In addition, there were reduced intervertebral discs and asymmetrical vertebrae leading to curved spines in MZ ewsa/ewsa mutants. MZ ewsa/ewsa mutants display disorganized alignment of Sox9 expressing neural crest cells at 27hpf. Because both craniofacial skeletons and vertebrae arise from Sox9 expressing cells, we hypothesized that EWS interacts with Sox9 and modulates the transcriptional regulation activity of Sox9. Co-immunoprecipitation (IP) experiment revealed that EWS interacts with SOX9. Furthermore, qPCR analysis identified that known SOX9 target genes are either upregulated (ctgfa, ctgfb, col2a1a, col2a1b) or downregulated (sox5, nog1, nog2, bmp4) in MZ ewsa/ewsa mutants compared to wt/wt zebrafish embryos. This is the first evidence for a tissue specific role of EWS in skeletogenesis and suggests a novel mechanism by which Sox9 transcriptional regulation is modulated as it directs endochondral bone and cartilage development.

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INTRODUCTION

EWS was originally discovered in Ewing's Sarcoma, the second most common bone cancer in adolescents and young adults. EWS was found as a part of an aberrant fusion gene containing the sequence coding N-terminal transactivation domain of EWS fused to the C-terminal domains of an ETS transcription factor FLI1 (Delattre, 1994). Expression of the EWS-FLI1 fusion protein has been shown to lead to altered transcription and splicing (Tirode, 2007; Sanchez, 2008), and it has further been shown to interact directly with EWS antimorphically (Embree, 2009). EWS has been implicated to have roles in transcription and splicing (Rossow, 2001; Araya, 2003, 2005; Li, 2010; Sanchez, 2008). Its knockdown has further been shown to result in mitotic defects and senescence (Azuma, 2007; Cho, 2011). An EWS knockdown study in mice (Li, 2007) revealed that homozygous EWS^{-/-} mice are embryonic lethal in 129SvEv and C57BL/6 backgrounds. Whereas, runted homozygous EWS^{-/-} mice died soon after birth and displayed reduced thymi and spleens in a black swiss background. Although, the cause of death was undetermined, it suggests that EWS regulates early developmental stages. To address this, we utilized an ews zebrafish mutant, because they spawn eggs *ex vivo*, and this allows us to observe their development from the one cell stage.

We suspected EWS may have a role in skeletal development, because Ewing's Sarcoma is a bone related cancer and EWS knockout mice are smaller in size compared to wild type littermates (Li, 2007). Knockdown or knockout mutants of genes that regulate skeletogenesis (e.g. *pax1/pax9* in mice, *sox5/sox6* in mice, *sox9* in mice, *fzd7* in chickens, *fam20b* and *xylt1* in zebrafish) often result in a reduction of appendages, body regions, or the entire animal overall (Peters, 1999; Bi, 2001; Akiyama, 2002; Li, 2009; Eames, 2011; Henry, 2012). Skeletogenesis is a significant process, because skeletal elements shape and provide support to the body, allow locomotion, and protect vital tissues from damage. Skeletal elements

originate from mesenchymal cells which migrate to the proper regions followed by condensation. Skeletal differentiation follows two mechanisms: intramembranous ossification or endochondral ossification (reviewed in Karsenty, 2002). Intramembranous ossification is a differentiation process during which condensed mesenchymal cells differentiate directly into osteoblasts, osteocytes, and osteoclasts. While endochondral ossification is a process during which condensed mesenchymal cells ossification is a process during which condensed mesenchymal cells will first differentiate into chondrocytes, secrete extracellular matrix, and form cartilages that grow by convergent extension.

Craniofacial skeletons are derived from neural crest cells. During neurulation, cells at the lateral edges of the neural plate will form the dorsalmost region of the neural tube and attain neural crest specification. Neural crest cells are a unique multipotent cell population that migrates long distances to form multiple lineages including craniofacial skeleton, pigment cells, and peripheral nerves. After neural closure, cranial neural crest cells will migrate ventrally to form the pharyngeal arches. These arch cells will receive patterning signals from dlx gene expression (Talbot, 2010) and migrate further to form mesenchymal condensations which will give rise to the craniofacial cartilages destined to become endochondral bones of the head (Noden, 1983; Kague, 2012). Later in development, vertebrae are formed by sclerotomes and After somitogenesis is completed, somitic cells differentiate into dermomyotome notochord. and sclerotome. Sclerotomal induction is mediated by shh, bmp, and noggin cues received from the notochord and neural tube (Fan, 1994; Johnson, 1994; McMahon, 1998; Watanabe, 1998). Sclerotomal cells then migrate around the notochord and undergo resegmentation (Remak, 1855; von Ebner, 1888; Bagnall, 1988; Aoyama, 2000). As a result of sclerotomal resegmentation, the rostral half of somites form the caudal half of anterior vertebra and the caudal half of somites form the rostral half of the adjacent posterior vertebra. After sclerotomal cells surround the notochord and are resegmented, they undergo endochondral ossification and form the vertebrae (Arratia, 2001).

Importantly, differentiation of craniofacial skeletons and vertebrae are both regulated by the transcription factor SOX9 (Akiyama, 2002; Cheung, 2003). To undergo endochondral ossification, craniofacial prechondrocytes and vertebral condensations require Sox9 activity to regulate their proliferation, maturation, and expression of extra cellular matrix proteins such as aggrecan and collagen type II α 1 (Lefebvre, 1997; Bi, 1999; Akiyama, 2002). Sox9 mutations are associated with campomelic dysplasia. Here, we demonstrate that EWS interacts with SOX9 and regulates skeletogenesis. The *ewsa* knockout zebrafish mutant was utilized, and we show it leads to craniofacial and axial skeleton defects. This is the first demonstration of a role of EWS in skeletogenesis, and it may contribute to understanding the mechanism for regulation of SOX9 and ultimately to Ewing's Sarcoma formation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Aquaculture

Zebrafish families were bred and maintained at 28.5°C using an automatic filtration system from Aquatic Eco-Systems Inc, and embryos were staged as previously described (Kimmel et al, 1995). The wild type line used was the Oregon AB line. The *ewsa/ewsa* line was generated by insertional mutagenesis by Znomics Inc, and is maintained as a Maternal Zygotic (MZ) line in our system.

Alizarin red staining

Zebrafish were stained with alizarin red as previously described (Javidan and Schilling, 2004). Fish were anesthetized with 0.04% Tricaine Methanesulfonate (MS222) and fixed overnight at 4°C in 4% paraformaldehyde. Viscera were removed surgically, and pigment was ablated by treatment with 3% H_2O_2 in 1% KOH. Tissue was permeabilized with acetone at room temperature and cleared with 0.05% trypsin at 37°C. Cleared specimens were stained with 0.05% alizarin red dissolved in 1% KOH, destained with 1% KOH, and stored in glycerol.

Images were taken with a Leica DFC320 camera mounted on a Leica MZ FLIII dissecting microscope.

Alcian blue staining

Embryos were stained with alcian blue as previously described (Walker, 2007; Neuhauss, 1996) with minor modifications. Embryos were anesthetized with MS222 and fixed overnight at 4°C in 4% paraformaldehyde. Pigment was ablated by treatment with 10% H_2O_2 in 0.1% KOH. Embryos were equilibrated to acidified ethanol (5% HCl, 70% ethanol) before staining overnight in 0.1% alcian blue dissolved in acidified ethanol. Specimens were then washed extensively with acidified ethanol and dehydrated by ethanol series before transferring to glycerol. Double stained embryos were treated the same way, but without any acid using a 0.02% alcian blue / 0.005% alizarin red solution in 60 mM MgCl₂ / 70% ethanol. Microdissections and flat mounting were performed using tungsten needles as described (Javidan and Schilling, 2004). Images were taken with a Leica DFC320 camera mounted on a Leica MZ FLIII dissecting microscope.

Immunohistochemistry

Embryos were visualized as previously described (Azuma et al, 2007). Fixed embryos were permeabilized with methanol at -20°C overnight, digested with 0.01% trypsin, and then blocked with blocking solution (10% fetal bovine serum, 1% dimethyl sulfoxide, 0.1% triton x-100). Primary antibodies were applied overnight at 4°C; embryos were washed thoroughly; and secondary antibodies were applied overnight at 4°C. Embryos were then washed thoroughly again, equilibrated to 50% glycerol, and stored in 100% glycerol. We used a mouse monoclonal anti-collagen II primary antibody (II-II6B3 from Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank at University of Iowa) diluted 1:250 and anti-mouse Alexa 594 secondary antibody diluted 1:250 to visualize collagen II. We used a mouse monoclonal anti-sox9 primary antibody (ab76997 from

abcam) diluted 1:250 and anti-mouse Alexa 594 secondary antibody diluted 1:250 to visualize sox9. Images were taken with a Leica DFC320 camera mounted on a Leica MZ FLIII dissecting microscope.

In situ hybridization

In situ hybridization was performed as previously described (Azuma et al, 2006). Fixed embryos were permeabilized in methanol at -20°C overnight then washed in PBS. Embryos were then equilibrated in HYB buffer at 60°C for 3 hours. Embryos were then hybridized overnight at 60°C with antisense RNA generated with T7 RNA polymerase and DIG-labeled dUTP. Embryos were then treated with anti-DIG antibodies conjugated with alkaline phosphatase (AP) overnight at 4°C. After equilibration with AP buffer, signal was developed with BM Purple, and then embryos were fixed again in 4% paraformaldehyde at room temperature for 10 minutes.

Co-immunoprecipitation

HeLa cells were plated and grown to 95% confluency in 9 cm dishes and then incubated at 35°C for 16 hours in optimem media containing 10% fetal bovine serum. Matching dishes also contained either no DNA (untransfected), 26.4 μ g of a control plasmid having the Sox9 coding sequence cut out (empty vector), or 26.4 μ g of a Sox9 expression plasmid (sox9 experimental). Transfection DNA was incubated at room temperature in 3.3 mL optimem with 53 μ L of Lipofectamine2000 reagent (Invitrogen cat# 11668-019) prior to applying it to cells. After transfection, cells were then washed twice with phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and lysed in 3 mL of lysis buffer (2 mM Tris pH 7.6, 1% Triton X-100, 1 mM EDTA, 150 mM NaCl) containing protease inhibitors: leupepstatin, pepstatin, chymotrypsin, and AEBSF. Lysates were incubated on ice for 20 minutes before pelleting at 12,000 rpm for 1 minute. 50 μ L aliquots of the supernatant were collected to represent the input fraction. 900 μ L of the supernatant was

applied to antibody crosslinked magnetic dynabeads. Paired precipitations were done with each sample using an anti-mouse IgG nonspecific control and anti-FLAG antibodies (Agilent Ab 200472-21). The precipitations were rotated at 4°C for 1 hour, and then washed 3 times with lysis buffer (rotating at 4°C) for 20 minutes each wash. The precipitates were boiled in SDS sample buffer and subjected to SDS-PAGE alongside the input fractions. Presence of EWS and Sox9 were detected by western blot using anti-EWS (SantaCruz sc-48404) and anti-FLAG (Agilent Ab 200472-21) antibodies respectively. The western blots were visualized by antimouse antibodies conjugated to horseradish peroxidase and subjected to FEMTO ECL substrate (Pierce cat# 34095).

qPCR

Total RNA was isolated from whole embryos flash frozen at 27 hpf using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen cat# 74104) following the manufacturer's protocol and using the optional on column DNase digestion (Qiagen cat# 79254). Embyos were mechanically dissociated by repeatedly drawing them into and expelling them from a syringe with buffer RLT. Samples were centrifuged at max RPM for 3 minutes and the supernatant was mixed with 60% volume of ethanol then loaded onto spin columns. The columns were washed once, and then treated with DNase at 37°C for 30 minutes. The columns were washed once more with buffer RW1, 3 times with buffer RPE (2 washes included 5 minute incubations at room temperature), and then eluted with water. RNA was quantified using an Eppendorf BioPhotometer, and 1 μ g was used to make 20 μ L of cDNA or reverse transcriptase (RT) negative paired controls. Reaction tubes contained 10 U/ μ L M-MLV RT (Invitrogen cat# 18080-093), 1x Fist-Strand Buffer, 50 mM DTT, 0.5 mM dNTPs, and 2.5 μ M dT oligos. RNA was denatured at 65°C for 5 minutes with dT oligos and dNTPs, then the buffer, DTT, and RT were added. The reaction was incubated at room temperature for 5 minutes, 50°C for 1 hour, 70°C for 15 minutes, and put on ice before use in gPCR analysis. 1 μ L of cDNA, RT negative control, or water (no template control) was used in

20 μ L reactions with 1x Power SYBR Green PCR Master-Mix (Applied Biosystems part# 4367659) and 0.9 μ M forward and reverse primers (table S2). 96-well plates were run on a StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems), and cycle thresholds were determined using the manufacturer's software. Relative expression levels were calculated by the comparative $\Delta\Delta C_T$ method previously described (Schmittgen and Livak, 2008) using GAPDH mRNA levels as the endogenous control.

RESULTS

MZ ewsa/ewsa mutation in zebrafish leads to craniofacial bone developmental defects

Previous reports have shown that there were not any EWS^{-/-} homozygous mice that managed to survive until birth in 129SvEv or C57BL/6 inbred mouse backgrounds. On the other hand, EWS^{-/-} knockout in black swiss outbred mice exhibit postnatal lethality with 90% of newborns dying before weaning and only one of 18 surviving to postnatal day 21 (Li, 2007). The surviving homozygous EWS^{-/-} mice were runted with disproportionately small thymi and spleens. Cause of death is yet to be determined. These results indicate that Ews plays a significant role during development. To address the role of Ews during development, we utilized a zebrafish model because they spawn eggs ex vivo, and this allows us to observe their development beginning at the one cell stage. Due to the genome duplication event before the teleost radiation (Amores, 1998; Postlethwait, 1998), there are two zebrafish homologues of human ews, ewsa and ewsb (Azuma, 2007). To elucidate the role of Ewsa, we obtained an ewsa zebrafish mutant line originally isolated in an insertional mutagenesis screen (Znomics Inc.). A retroviral vector was integrated immediately after the third amino acid from the start codon. We generated a peptide antibody that recognized Ewsa and Ewsb due conserved sequences of the antigen sites. Using this antibody, we performed a western blot using the lysates extracted from 24 hpf wt/wt and ewsa/ewsa embryos. As a result, the Ewsa protein was



Figure 1: ewsa/ewsa mutants are Ewsa protein null mutants

zebrafish cell lysates from *wildtype/wildtype* (wt/wt) and ewsa/ewsa (e/e) embryos that was probed with an anti-Ewsa antibody raised against zebrafish Ewsa showing that MZ ewsa/ewsa mutants are absent in the protein extracts from ewsa/ewsa mutants confirming that it is a protein null mutant for Ewsa (figure 1).

Heterozygous ewsa/wt and a subset of homozygous ewsa/ewsa zebrafish appear to be normal and are fertile. We further generated a maternal-zygotic (MZ) ewsa/ewsa mutant line by intercrossing zygotic

ewsa/ewsa homozygous mutants. Unlike the EWS^{-/-} mice which are infertile with high postnatal lethality (Li, 2007), the ewsa/ewsa zebrafish mutants survive until adulthood and are fertile. The phenotypic discrepancy between EWS^{-/-} mice and ewsa/ewsa mutant zebrafish lines is likely due to redundant expression of the ewsb gene in zebrafish. The MZ ewsa/ewsa mutants develop normal morphology including a straight notochord and somites at the 17 somite stage To examine whether specification is affected during development, in situ (figure S1C). hybridizations were performed in wt/wt and MZ ewsa/ewsa mutant embryos at 27 hours post fertilization (hpf). Three probes for tissue specific genes, ntl (notochord), eng3 (midbrainhindbrain boundary), and krox20 (rhombomere 2 and 4 in hindbrain) did not exhibit any significant differences between wt/wt and MZ ewsa/ewsa mutants indicating that patterning of brain and notochord are normal (figure S1D). Therefore, MZ ewsa/ewsa mutant zebrafish were raised until adulthood. Adult MZ ewsa/ewsa mutant zebrafish displayed protruding jaws and curved spines. To further investigate the morphological changes in MZ ewsa/ewsa mutant zebrafish, the skeletal elements were visualized with alizarin red staining by a Leica DFC320 camera attached to a Leica MZ FLIII dissecting microscope. The dentary (the dermal bone that



Figure 2: Craniofacial bone defects observed in MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutant zebrafish

Alizarin red staining of adult zebrafish, anterior is to the left in all images. (a-b) Lateral views of lower jaws showing a typical *wt/wt* fish (a), the protruding jaw commonly found in the MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutant fish (b), and the protruding basihyal found in MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants (b). (c-d) Ventral views of lower jaws of *wt/wt* and MZ *ewsa/ewsa* fish respectively showing the elongated slender basihyal bone found in mutants compared to the flanged basihyal of the wild type. Abbreviations: bh = basihyal, d = dentary. forms the antero-lateral region of the lower jaw), was pushed upward and anteriorly in adult MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants (65%, n=20 fish) compared to adult *wt/wt* zebrafish (0%, n=11 fish) (figure 2b compared to figure 2a). In addition, 40% (n=20) of MZ *ewsa/*ewsa mutants had ventral craniofacial bones extended

abnormally far ventrally and the basihyal bones projected anteriorly below the lower jawline (figure 2b), and this did not occur in *wt/wt* zebrafish (0%, n=11). In higher numbers of mutants (70%, n=20), the basihyal was also elongated and straight (figure 2d) compared to the more often flanged bones of the

wt/wt zebrafish (36%, n=11) (figure 2c).

To determine when the MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants start displaying skeletal defects, the chondrocytes of *wt/wt* and MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants at 2 to 9 dpf were visualized using alcian blue staining. There were no phenotypic differences between *wt/wt* and MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants at 3 dpf. At 4 dpf, the MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants displayed an aberrantly angled Meckel's cartilage (m) compared to *wt/wt* embryos (figure 3b and 3a respectively). Photographs of embryos from a lateral view were taken, and the angle formed by the Meckel's cartilage and palatoquadrate



and 7 dpf respectively; MZ *ewsa/ewsa* n=32 and 14 at 4 and 7 dpf respectively; error bars represent mean ± standard deviation). (d-e) Alcian blue stained, dissected, and flat mounted Meckel's cartilages of 4 dpf wild type and mutant embryos respectively, showing the smaller, misaligned, more numerous cells of the mutants.

(pq) were measured (figure 3c). As a result, the average angle in MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants was wider than *wt/wt* (4 dpf MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants: 181° (\pm 14°), 4 dpf *wt/wt*: 153° (\pm 8°), 7 dpf MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants: 146° (\pm 4°), and 7 dpf *wt/wt*: 134° (\pm 3°)) (figure 3c'). We also found that the ventral cartilages in 44% (n=32) of MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants localized abnormally far downward, whereas none of the *wt/wt* (n=28 embryos) displayed the phenotype (figure 3b). To further analyze the cell morphology, the embryos were microdissected and the craniofacial cartilages were flat mounted. The Mecekl's cartilage of MZ *ewsa/ewsa* embryos contained smaller and increased numbers of cells compared to *wt/wt*. In addition, cells in *wt/wt* cartilages are long and were aligned perpendicular to the long axis. Whereas, the majority of cells in MZ *ewsa/ewsa* embryos dissected (100%, n=6) as well as in the ethmoid plates (100%, n=6), but not in the ceratobranchials (0%, n=6). These results indicate that Ewsa plays a role in craniofacial bone

development by defining the cell size and alignment of chondrocytes and mesenchymal condensations.

MZ ewsa/ewsa mutation leads to axial skeleton abnormalities

The axial skeleton in MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutant zebrafish visualized with alizarin red staining also displayed high incidence of aberrant neural spines and supraneurals. There was an increased incidence of anterior-posteriorly expanded and widely flanged neural spines (ns) (figure 4b) compared to the sharp spike appearance of neural spines in *wt/wt* fish (figure 4a).



Figure 4: MZ ewsa/ewsa mutants have aberrant dorsal elements

Lateral view of first ten vertebrae in adult fish, visualized with alizarin red staining, anterior is to the left and dorsal is up. (a) Typical wild type (b) Mutant displaying aberrant phenotypes observed in dorsal elements. > pointing to supraneural 5 fused to neural spine 5. Abbreviations: sn = supraneural.

The supraneural bone (sn) aligned between the neural spines in *wt/wt* fish, whereas the supraneurals in MZ ewsa/ewsa mutant zebrafish are often located dorsal to or fused to the neural In addition, supraneural bones are flat spines. and roughly uniform along the ventral-dorsal axis in *wt/wt* fish. On the other hand, the supraneural bones are irregularly shaped ventral-dorsally and also have projections laterally in the ΜZ ewsa/ewsa mutants (figure 4a and 4b). There were 35% (n=20) of MZ ewsa/ewsa mutant fish with misaligned supraneurals, 71% (n=7) of which had one or more fused to the adjacent neural spines (figure 4b). In *wt/wt* fish, the neural arches come back posteriorly across the vertebrae before

turning dorsally for the neural spines. In MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants, the trunk neural arches and spines are straight as is more common by the caudal vertebrae (figure 5b compared to 5a). One or more hemal spines were also irregularly shaped having bifurcations or kinks in 75%

(n=20) of MZ *ewsa/ewsa* zebrafish. In eleven wild type fish, one bifurcated hemal spine and one bent hemal spine were observed (9%, n=11). Additionally, the centrums of many caudal vertebrae were asymmetrical, and the intervertebral discs were reduced in MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants (figure 5d compared to 5c). We measured the distance between caudal vertebrae and found the average intervertebral space to be $63\mu m$ (± $29\mu m$) in MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutant zebrafish (n=216) and $82\mu m$ (± $33\mu m$) in *wt/wt* zebrafish (n=143) (figure 5e). This showed statistical



Figure 5: MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants have reduced intervertebral discs and curved spines

(a-b) Lateral views of middle vertebrae in *wt/wt* and MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutant adult zebrafish respectively, visualized with alizarin red staining, anterior is to the left and dorsal is up. (c-d) Magnified images of representative intervertebral discs in *wt/wt* and MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants respectively. (e) Graphical representation of invertebral space measurements. Error bars signify means ± standard deviations.

significance by a Welch's t-test with p=0.00000005. These defects lead to curved spines in 40% (n=20) of MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants (figure 5b). All of the spines of *wt/wt* fish were normal (n=11) (figure 5a).

To further specify the stage when defects in vertebrae starts, we performed immunohistochemistry

using anti collagen II antibodies at 27 hpf to 3 dpf embryos. There are no significant differences of collagen II protein localization between *wt/wt* and MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants at 27 hpf. At 36 hpf, MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants displayed bigger, higher numbers, and stronger intensity collagen II signals compared to *wt/wt* zebrafish. In addition, collagen II signals were also prominent in the

notochord extension of MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants. Whereas, *wt/wt* zebrafish have less distinct notochord extension with reduced Collagen II signals (figure 6). It is noteworthy that there were



Figure 6: MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants have increased Collagen II localization at 36 hpf

Notochords of 36 hpf embryos visualized by immunohistochemistry using an anti-Collagen II antibody. (a-b) 20x magnification of notochords midway along the embryos showing increased Collagen II localization at the notochord of MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants above the yolk sac extension. > points to signal localized at the tip of the yolk sac extension in mutants. (c-d) 20x magnification of notochord extensions showing increased localization in MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants. Abbreviations: nc = notochord, ne = notochord extension, ye = yolk sac extension. no significant differences of notochord lengths (table S1), and also the localization of Collagen II at the caudal fin between *wt/wt* and MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants (figure S2). These data suggest that Ewsa regulates the

expression of Collagen II at the notochord and the notochord extension.

Ewsa interacts with Sox9 and regulates its target genes

Most of the craniofacial bones develop endochondrally replacing the cartilages seen in figure 3. These craniofacial cartilages are neural crest

derived tissues (Noden, 1983; Kague, 2012). As such, they are under transcriptional regulation by Sox9 (Cheung, 2003; Lee, 2004). Sox9 has also been shown to be important for cartilage morphogenesis, endochondral ossification, and collagen II expression (Lefebvre, 1997; Bi, 1999; Yan, 2002; Akiyama, 2002; Dale, 2011). As the axial also develops endochondrally (Arratia, 2001), a commonality between the different phenotypes observed is Sox9 transcriptional regulation. Ews has been shown to be a transcriptional modulator (Rossow, 2001; Araya, 2003, 2005; Li, 2010). Therefore, we hypothesized that EWS directly interacts with SOX9 and modulates its target genes during skeletogenesis.

To determine whether EWS interacts with SOX9, we transfected a FLAG tagged-SOX9 DNA construct into HeLa cells. The cell lysates were extracted, and it was subjected to immunoprecipitation using an anti-FLAG antibody followed by western blotting using an anti-EWS antibody. The coimmunoprecipitation experiment revealed that EWS is precipitated with



SOX9, and it indicates the biochemical interaction between EWS and SOX9 (figure 7). This data suggests that EWS may directly regulate Sox9 activity.

Figure 7: EWS immunoprecipitates with SOX9

Western blot detection of proteins after coimmunoprecipitation with anti-FLAG antibody conjugated dynabeads precipitating FLAG-SOX9. (a) Blot for FLAG-SOX9 showing enrichment of recombinant SOX9 in the precipitate, and lack of signal in the nonspecific control precipitation. (a) Blot for EWS showing that EWS is present in starting lysates, but is only precipitated with SOX9 by the anti-FLAG antibody and not by the control nonspecific antibody.

To address whether the expression

levels of Sox9 target genes are changed in the

MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants compared to *wt/wt*, mRNAs were isolated from 27 hpf embryos that were obtained from both lines, and cDNAs were synthesized using poly T primers. Then, using primers specific to SOX9 target genes, qPCR was performed and relative mRNA expression levels between MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants and *wt/wt* embryos were compared. Thirty Sox9 target



genes were selected from a previous report (Table S2) (Oh, 2010). Among these genes, we

Target gene and biological replicate number (n)

Figure 8: SOX9 target genes have altered expression levels in MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants

Barplot showing eight SOX9 target genes with significant fold change in expression relative to wild type embryos at 27 hpf. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01

found that *Sox5*, *Noggin1*, *Noggin2*, and *Bmp4* are downregulated while *Ctgfa*, *Ctgfb*, *Col2a1a*, *and Col2a1b* are upregulated in MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants relative to *wt/wt* (figure 8). Relative expression levels and p-values

calculated by a two-tailed student's t test are listed in table 1. This data suggests that Ews regulates the mRNA levels of SOX9 target genes. Together with the data showing interaction between EWS

and SOX9, it suggests that EWS regulates SOX9 transcriptional regulatory activity, and by this mechanism, regulates skeletogenesis.

Target mRNA	Relative Fold Expression	p-value
Sox5	-2.0	0.03
Nog1	-1.7	0.006
Nog2	-1.9	0.03
Bmp4	-1.4	0.01
Ctgfa	+2.1	0.03
Ctgfb	+2.4	0.02
Col2a1a	+2.2	0.04
Col2a1b	+2.5	0.03

Table 1. Relative fold gene expression in wiz ewsu/ewsu mutants compared to wha type

DISCUSSION

We identified eight SOX9 target genes are either upregulated (*ctgfa, ctgfb, col2\alpha1a,* $col2\alpha 1b$) or downregulated (sox5, nog1, nog2, bmp4) in the MZ ewsa/ewsa mutant compared to the wt/wt zebrafish embryos. Together with the biochemical interaction between Sox9 and EWS (figure 7), we propose that EWS regulates skeletogenesis through modulating the transcriptional regulation activity of SOX9. This is the first demonstration of molecular function of EWS in skeletogenesis. Because a co-immunoprecipitation (IP) experiment only provides the information of the interaction ability between/among molecules, it is still unclear whether the EWS and SOX9 complex localizes on the chromatin structure and directly regulates transcription, or the complex localizes off the chromatin and thereby regulating the SOX9 protein levels that are recruited to chromatin. Previous reports have shown that EWS associates with p300 and regulates chromatin structure (Rossow, 2001). In addition, other reports have shown that SOX9 associates with p300 and regulate its target genes (Tsuda, 2003; Furumatsu, 2005). Based on these reports, it is conceivable that EWS, SOX9, and p300 form a complex or EWS/p300 and SOX9/p300 heterodimers compete for target loci. Alternatively, it is also possible that EWS and SOX9 form a heterodimer and regulate SOX9 target genes either on chromatin or on non-chromatin sites. In future studies, it will be critical to examine the DNA binding activity of these possible dimers or complexes, and their affect on transcriptional activity of SOX9 target genes.

The craniofacial skeletal defects in MZewsa/ewsa mutants can be explained by multiple possibilities. The craniofacial bone cell morphology is reminiscent of what is seen in endochondral bones of mice mutant for *sox5* and *sox6* (smits, 2001). In their mouse model, the chondrocyte differentiation pathway is errant resulting in chondroblasts which poorly differentiate and mature in a disordered pattern. This leads to cells that fail to form regular columnar shapes and fail to stack orderly. Sox5 and Sox6 transcription factors work

cooperatively with Sox9 in the chondrocyte differentiation pathway (Akiyama, 2002). The expression level of *sox5* mRNA was reduced in the MZ ewsa/ewsa mutant compared to the wt/wt zebrafish embryos. This reduction of *sox5* expression may contribute to the mispolarized and non-columnar cells in the MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutant craniofacial bones. Second, craniofacial skeletal defects in MZewsa/ewsa mutants may be due to failure in cell migration. Cell migration is a critical step for skeletogenesis, and mesenchymal condensations and developing cartilages must move into the correct position for bone deposition. During this process, cellular adhesions and extra cellular matrix remodeling have to be tightly regulated. We discovered that the mRNA expression levels of both zebrafish *connective tissue growth factor* homologues (*ctgfa* and *ctgfb*) are upregulated in MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants. Ctgf is an important secreted molecule which enhances cell adhesion of chondrocytes (Hoshijima, 2006). Based on this, it is conceivable that upregulation of Ctgfa and Ctgfb lead to increased cellular adhesion in the developing cartilages of MZ ewsa/ewsa mutant. And it ultimately may inhibit their migration and lead to a protruding jaw.

The development of the supraneural bones and neural spines is not well understood beyond that they develop endochondrally from scleratomal cells (Deutsch, 1988; Watanabe, 1998; Aoyama, 2000; Arratia, 2001), and it is patterned by antagonizing *noggin* and *bmp4* signals and *hox* gene expression. The MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutant displayed reduced expression of *noggin* and *bmp4*. It has been shown in a mouse model of campomelic dysplasia, that Sox9 is expressed at the growth plates of vertebrae and in the intervertebral discs (Henry, 2012). In these mice, vertebral growth plates arrested and intervertebral discs compressed after induction of Sox9 knockout. This also leads to increased apoptosis in the vertebrae and severe kyphosis. In addition to asymmetrical vertebral centrums, we report that MZ *ewsa/ewsa* mutants also have reduced intervertebral disks. It stands to reason that because known patterning targets of Sox9

transcriptional regulation (*noggin* and *bmp4*) are misregulated, altered Sox9 activity due to Ews loss could lead to the axial skeletal defects including the curved spines.

Among the identified misregulated SOX9 target genes in the MZ ewsa/ewsa mutant, it is significant to further elucidate which gene(s) misregulation is responsible for the defects in craniofacial bone, or in spine and misdifferention of notochord extension. All of the genes are expressed in the cranial facial skeleton, spine and notochord extension. Importantly, it is highly possible that these defects are induced by misexpression of either single genes or combinations of multiple genes. Therefore, conducting the knockdown or overexpression experiments for single or combinations of SOX9 target genes in the zebrafish will reveal which skeletal structures may be regulated by particular gene sets. We provide evidence for a novel layer of regulation on SOX9 control of endochondral bone and cartilage development, and the tissue specific role for EWS may provide some insight into the formation of Ewing's Sarcoma.

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SUPPLEMENTAL TABLES AND FIGURES

Table S1: wt/wt and MZ ewsa/ewsa embryos grow at similar rates based on notochord

length

age (days post fertilization)	wt/wt notochord length (± s.d.):	MZ ewsa/ewsa notochord length (± s.d.):	n (wt,mutant)
2	2.73 (± 0.07)	2.71 (± 0.05)	(6,4)
3	3.43 (± 0.08)	3.27 (± 0.07)	(11,11)
4	3.64 (± 0.10)	3.52 (± 0.09)	(8,11)
6	3.69 (± 0.07)	3.62 (± 0.07)	(11,8)
7	3.74 (± 0.09)	3.70 (± 0.12)	(11,8)

Table S2: Primer sequences used in qPCR analysis.

Target	Forward Primer (5'-3')	Reverse Primer (5'-3')
Cata1	GGGATCCCAAGAGTTTGGAG	GATGGACCTTTGTTGCTGGAG
Cata2	GACGAGCGCTACGTCCCC	CTGTGTGACCAGCGGCTCC
Bmp4	CCTGGTAATCGAATGCTGATG	CGCTTTCTTCTTCCCTTCCTC
Ctsb	CGGCTGGCGTTCCTGTGTG	GACCATCTCATGGGACAAGG
Col1a1a	GCTTTGTGGATATTCGGCTGG	CCAATGTGCAGCTGCCGCC
Col2a1a	GCTGGATTCACGGACTCTCC	CCTTTGCACCAAGTGACCGG
Col2a1b	GGAGCAAGACCCCGGCGG	GCCGCTGTCACACACACAG
Col9a2	GCTGAGTTCTTCATCGTCCTC	CAGCGGGGCCTTGAGCTC
Col11a1a	GAGAGGCCAAGGTGGTCCC	CCTGCAGAACCAGGACGAG
Col11a1b	GTGGTCCACGAGATGGAAAAC	GCTCTCACTTGTGTTGCCTG
Col11a2	GATATTCGGAAGAAGCGGAGG	CGCAAAACATCTACTGGATCTG
Ctgfa	GTGTGATTGCTCTGCTGTTCC	GGTGAACACTGGGGCGGC
Ctgfb	CTGGAACAGCATTCACCAGAG	CTCGTCTGGGCAATCACAGG
Ерус	CTCCCCCGAGATACGTCCG	CCTCGTAGGCATTGTCGCC
Erk1	GCGGAATCGGGCAGTAGCG	CGCTTGGTCCCCCAGGTG
Fmoda	GCGGCTAATTGCTCTCCTGC	CATAACCCCGGCTGTGTAAAG
Grb10a	CCTTAGCTGGATGTCCAGAC	GGATGGTCTGTGAGATGAGG
lgf2r	GTCGTGTTGGATTTTGCGGAG	GGCTGTCATCCGAAGCCGC
IL1	GCATGCGGGCAATATGAAGTC	GCGGATCTGAACAGTCCATC
Lef1	CGCAGTTGTCAGGTGGAGG	GCTCCTTGTGCGGGTCTCC

Matn4	GTGTTGGTGTATGTCAGTGTG	GTCAACCGGGCCAGATTTAC
Nog1	GTTTGCTGTCCGCGTACTTG	GCTCCAGCAGGGGTAAAGTG
Nog2	CTACTGCTGCTCCTGTGCG	CTCGATGAGGTCTGGGACG
Ptch1	CTCGGCTGTTAATGTCTCCTC	CGATAGTTGCCCCTATTTCTC
Ptch2	GCCGCCTGTGAACTCAGATC	CTTTCTGTCCCACAGCTTTCC
Prkacaa	GCCAAGAACAAGGGCAATGAG	CAGTGTTCTGTGCTGGGTTC
Prkacab	GGGGCAACGAAATGGAAAGC	CCAGGCAGGCGGTGTTCTG
Prelp	GCTGGGCTTGCATACTGCTG	GATGGGCGAACAGGCTTTGG
Runx2b	CATTCCCGTAGATCCCAGCG	CTGCTGAGGTCCTGCATTCG
Sox5	CTTACTGAGCCTGAGCTTCC	CGTCGCCATGACTACCTCTC
Sox9a	GACCCCTACCTGAAGATGAC	CGCGGAGTCCTCGGACATG
Sox9b	GAAGATGAGTGTGTCCGGAG	GTCTCGCTGTCCGATCCCG
Stat1a	CTCAGTGGTTGGAGCTTCAG	CTGAGATATTGTCGGATGGCC
Stat1b	GCTCTGGAACCAGCTGCAG	GTCGGATCTCCATTGGGAAAG
Sdc3	GCTCCCGTGCTGGATAACG	CTCATCTCCAGAGCTCTCATC
Tgfb3	GCAAAGGACTGCTGTTTGTTC	CAATGTCCACTGTGGTGCAG
Vegfaa	GCGTGCAAGACCCGAGAGC	GCGCATGAGAACCACACAGG
Vegfab	CTTTGCTGTTCGCGTGCTCC	GTGCTTCTGCCTCCCTCTC
Gapdh	CGGATTCGGTCGCATTGGC	GGTCATTGATGGCCACGATC



Figure S1: MZ ewsa/ewsa embryos develop normally to 24 hours

(a) Mutated sequence showing a premature stop codon shortly after translation initiation site.
(b) Peptide sequences aligned for Ewsa and Ewsb at antigen site for Ewsa antibody. (c) *wt/wt* and MZ *ewsa/ewsa* embryos at 17 somite stage showing normal notochord and somite development. (d) *in situ* hybridization (anterior is to the left) in 24 hpf embryos for *ntl, eng3, krox20,* and *wnt1.* (e) *in situ* hybridization (anterior is to the left) in 24 hpf embryos for *shh*.