Morphogen Directed Coordination of GPCR Activity Promotes Primary Cilium Function for Downstream Signaling

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Abstract

Primary cilium dysfunction triggers catastrophic failure of signal transduction pathways that organize through cilia, thus conferring significant pressure on such signals to ensure ciliary homeostasis. Intraflagellar transport (IFT) of cargo that maintains the primary cilium is powered by high ciliary cAMP. Paradoxically, Sonic Hedgehog (SHH) signaling, for which ciliary function is crucial, triggers a reduction in ciliary cAMP that could blunt downstream signaling by slowing IFT. We investigated this paradox and mapped a novel signal relay driven by SHH-stimulated prostaglandin E_2 that stabilizes ciliary cAMP flux through by activating $G\alpha_s$-coupled EP_4 receptor. Chemical or genetic blockade of the SHH-EP_4 relay cripples cAMP buffering, which leads to decreased intraciliary cAMP, short cilia, and attenuated SHH pathway induction. Accordingly, $EP_4^{-/-}$ mice show pronounced ciliary defects and altered SHH-dependent neural tube patterning. Thus, SHH orchestrates a sophisticated ciliary GPCR-cAMP signaling network that ensures primary cilium fitness for a robust downstream signaling response.

Introduction

The Sonic Hedgehog (SHH) signaling pathway is a crucial regulator of morphogenesis and tissue homeostasis that when corrupted, leads to developmental disorders and cancers (Barakat et al., 2010). Cellular responses to Hedgehog family ligands are orchestrated through primary cilia, which are dynamic sensory organelles that grow and retract with the cell cycle and in response to extracellular cues. Each cell possesses a single primary cilium anchored to the basal body that allows for organization of myriad signal transduction cascades to control diverse cellular responses (Anvarian et al., 2019; Wheway et al., 2018). Despite the membrane of the primary cilium being contiguous with the plasma membrane, it maintains a distinct membrane lipid composition due to lipid metabolic enzymes that function at or near the ciliary base (Arensdorf et al., 2017; Findakly et al., 2021; Garcia et al., 2018; Mukhopadhyay and Rohatgi,

2014; Raleigh et al., 2018). In addition, a cytoplasmic diffusion barrier controls entry of soluble

proteins, allowing primary cilia to offer controlled environments for interpretation and

transduction of extracellular signals (Garcia et al., 2018; Shi et al., 2017; Ye et al., 2013).

The SHH pathway requires primary cilia for regulated activity in both the absence and presence

of ligand. The SHH receptor Patched (PTCH), signal transducer Smoothened (SMO), and GLI2

and GLI3 transcriptional effectors all function at or flux through the primary cilium depending

upon SHH activation status (Arensdorf et al., 2016; Petrov et al., 2017). In the absence of

ligand, SMO entry into primary cilia is restricted by PTCH-mediated reduction of activating

sterols in ciliary membranes (Kinnebrew et al., 2019; Kinnebrew et al., 2021; Kong et al., 2019) .

In this off state, the primary cilium facilitates phosphorylation of GLI2 and GLI3 proteins by cyclic

AMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA), which tags them for partial degradation that removes

their transcriptional activation domains (Aza-Blanc et al., 2000; Aza-Blanc et al., 1997; Bangs

and Anderson, 2017). SHH binding to PTCH attenuates PTCH-mediated sterol depletion,

leading to SMO ciliary enrichment, binding to sterol agonist(s), and signaling to block PKA-

promoted GLI truncation. This leads to accumulation of full-length GLI2/3 proteins that are

subsequently phosphorylated at activating PKA sites for nuclear translocation and target gene

induction (Niewiadomski et al., 2014; Umberger and Ogden, 2021). The molecular mechanisms

driving the SHH-stimulated ciliary switch between inhibitory and activating GLI phosphorylation

are not yet known.

Current models suggest dependency of SHH signaling on primary cilia evolved from the

specialized lipid composition of ciliary membrane, which allows control over availability of sterols

and oxysterols that activate SMO to instruct GLI activation (Kinnebrew et al., 2019; Kong et al.,

2019; Raleigh et al., 2018). Moreover, second messengers such as cAMP can be rapidly

modulated in primary cilia independently of second messengers in the cytoplasm due to minimal

cytoplasmic content and a functional diffusion barrier at the ciliary base (Hansen et al., 2020;

Truong et al., 2021). Consistent with this functionality, and the key role of PKA in controlling

ciliary GLI regulation, SHH signal output is highly sensitive to cAMP flux in the primary cilium

(Mukhopadhyay et al., 2013; Truong et al., 2021; Vuolo et al., 2015). Moreover, alteration of

primary cilium length, architecture, or protein trafficking capability that can skew ciliary cAMP

diffusion, trigger pronounced disruption of pathway regulation (He et al., 2014; Truong et al.,

2021). This places significant pressure on SHH to ensure ciliary fitness for efficient downstream

signaling, suggesting mechanisms that link active signaling with primary cilium homeostasis

may exist.

A general mechanism by which ciliary homeostasis is directly affected is through activation of

prostaglandin signaling by prostaglandin E_2 (PGE_2) activating the E-type prostanoid receptor 4

(EP_4). Studies in zebrafish support that PGE_2 to EP_4 signaling is crucial for ciliary elongation

because mutation of the PGE_2 transporter ABC Transporter C4 (ABCC4) results in reduced

numbers and lengths of both motile and primary cilia (Jin et al., 2014). EP_4 promotes ciliary

elongation by activating $G\alpha_s$ heterotrimeric G proteins to raise intracellular cAMP for

anterograde IFT (Besschetnova et al., 2010; Hansen et al., 2020). Thus, rapid shifts in primary

cilium cAMP concentration can lead to pronounced shortening or lengthening of the organelle

(Besschetnova et al., 2010; Hansen et al., 2020). Paradoxically, activation of SHH signaling can

lead to reduction in primary cilium cAMP concentration. This occurs through SHH-stimulated

exit of the constitutively active $G\alpha_s$-coupled G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) GPR161 from

ciliary membrane. GPR161 exit is thought to lower ciliary cAMP to attenuate PKA-promoted

GLI2/3 truncation in some cell types (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2013). In addition, SMO is a GPCR

that can activate heterotrimeric G proteins of the $G\alpha_i$ family to lower cAMP (Barzi et al., 2011;

Ogden et al., 2008; Riobo and Manning, 2007), raising the possibility that induction of SHH

signaling could hinder its own activity by reducing ciliary length. The fail-safes that prevent this

from occurring are not known.

We previously reported that SHH activates cytosolic phospholipase A2α (cPLA$_2$) to produce the

PGE$_2$ precursor arachidonic acid (Arensdorf et al., 2017). This occurs through SMO-mediated

activation of $G\alpha_i\beta\gamma$ heterotrimeric G proteins, which induce cPLA$_2$ through direct βγ binding.

Inhibition of cPLA$_2$ attenuates agonist-induced SMO ciliary translocation and blunts the GLI

response, supporting a role for arachidonic acid or one of its metabolites in amplification of the

SHH signal. Consistent with this notion, arachidonic acid directly targets the transmembrane

domain of active SMO to promote its ciliary entry (Arensdorf et al., 2017). Roles for arachidonic

acid metabolites in promoting SHH signaling output have not yet been defined.

Herein, we report that SHH-stimulated activation of cPLA$_2$ links SHH signal induction with ciliary

length control through production of PGE$_2$. We find that SHH stimulates production and export

of PGE$_2$ through cyclooxygenase (COX) and ABCC4, respectively, to activate ciliary $G\alpha_s$-

coupled EP$_4$. This provides a mechanism by which SHH buffers cAMP flux to stabilize primary

cilium length. Genetic elimination or small molecule inhibition of SHH-to-EP$_4$ signaling corrupts

primary cilium cAMP control, shortens primary cilia, alters SMO ciliary entry, and reduces SMO

signaling to GLI2/3. Accordingly, mice lacking EP$_4$ function have defective primary cilia and

show neural tube patterning defects indicative of compromised SHH signaling. As such, we

propose the SHH pathway evolved to link with prostaglandin signaling to tightly control primary

cilium cAMP for optimal function of the organelle from which it initiates its downstream signaling

responses.

Results

ABCC4 loss shortens primary cilia and reduces SHH signaling output.

Genetic studies in zebrafish revealed that the ABCC4 transporter is crucial for ciliogenesis *in*

vivo, and further, ABCC4 knockdown reduces ciliary lengths in cultured mammalian cells (Jin et

al., 2014). Given the pronounced sensitivity of canonical SHH signaling to alteration of ciliary

length (Caspary et al., 2007; He et al., 2014; Larkins et al., 2011), we sought to determine

whether loss of ABCC4 would lead to ciliary defects that alter SHH pathway activity. To quantify

the impact of ABCC4 loss on ciliary length in NIH-3T3 cells, we compared primary cilia of wild

type and CRISPR/Cas9-generated *ABCC4$^{-/-}$* NIH-3T3 cells in the presence and absence of

control conditioned media or conditioned media containing the amino-terminal SHH signaling

domain, SHH-N (hereafter referred to as SHH, Figure 1A). Ciliary lengths of control and

ABCC4$^{-/-}$ cells were determined by analyzing acetylated α−tubulin marked cilia using confocal

imaging and LAS X software. Primary cilia of *ABCC4$^{-/-}$* cells were on average ~25% shorter than

cilia of control NIH-3T3 cells in both control and SHH-treated cells (Fig. 1A-B).

To determine whether ciliary length reduction in *ABCC4$^{-/-}$* cells would impact SHH pathway

activity, we tested for alteration of ligand-induced ciliary accumulation of the SHH signal

transducing protein SMO in *ABCC4$^{-/-}$* cells. Localization of endogenous SMO to the primary

cilium was measured by quantifying immunofluorescence signal intensity of ciliary SMO protein

using confocal microscopy. Despite *ABCC4$^{-/-}$* cells having shorter primary cilia than control cells,

SHH-induced SMO ciliary enrichment was comparable between the two cell populations (Figure

1C). Whereas modest SMO signal intensities were recorded in primary cilia of control

conditioned media-treated cells, significant ciliary enrichment of SMO occurred in cells treated

with SHH-CM, indicating that SMO ciliary translocation is not directly regulated through ABCC4

effects on primary cilium length (Fig. 1C). Despite the observed ciliary enrichment of SMO in

$ABCC4^{-/-}$ cells, its ability to activate GLI transcriptional effectors was nonetheless compromised.

SHH target genes $Ptch1$ and $Gli1$ were induced to significantly lower levels in $ABCC4^{-/-}$ cells

compared to control cells (Fig. 1D), indicating that ciliary length alteration resulting from ABCC4

loss can directly impact SHH pathway activity.

ABCC4 is reported to influence ciliogenesis by exporting PGE_2, which activates EP_4 receptors

on ciliary membranes to drive anterograde IFT for ciliary elongation and cargo trafficking (Figure

1E) (Besschetnova et al., 2010; Jin et al., 2014). To determine whether decreased PGE_2

secretion was responsible for reduced primary cilia lengths of $ABCC4^{-/-}$ cells, ELISAs were

performed to calculate PGE_2 levels in conditioned media collected from control and knockout

cells (Fig. 1F). Basal PGE_2 secretion was similar between control and $ABCC4^{-/-}$ cells,

suggesting alternative export mechanisms likely allow for basal PGE_2 release in the absence of

ABCC4 function. Consistent with our previous report that SHH stimulation results in production

of the PGE_2 precursor arachidonic acid (Arensdorf et al., 2017), control cells significantly

increased PGE_2 export following SHH exposure (Figure 1E-F). This increase was blocked by

pretreatment with the inverse SMO agonist cyclopamine and by inhibition of COX2, which

generates PGE_2 from arachidonic acid (Coxib, Figure 1F). As such, the PGE_2 exported from

SHH-stimulated cells is likely generated through SHH-induced arachidonic acid production.

Notably, $ABCC4^{-/-}$ cells did not increase PGE_2 secretion in response to SHH pathway activation

(Figure 1F), suggesting ABCC4 is crucial for SHH-stimulated release of prostaglandin.

cPLA$_2$ contributes to ciliary length control downstream of SHH.

To determine whether cPLA$_2$ activation downstream of SMO provides arachidonic acid

substrate for PGE$_2$ production and export, we tested the effects of cPLA$_2$ inhibition on PGE$_2$

release and primary cilium length using murine kidney inner medullary collecting duct (IMCD3)

cells. IMCD3 cells provide a robust model for investigation of primary cilium biology because

they are SHH responsive and produce longer primary cilia than NIH-3T3 cells (Besschetnova et

al., 2010; Jiang et al., 2019). We first tested whether, like NIH-3T3 cells, IMCD3 cells secreted

PGE$_2$ in response to SHH pathway activation. Indeed, ELISA of conditioned media from SHH-

stimulated IMCD3 cells showed accumulation of PGE$_2$ that was blocked by cyclopamine pre-

treatment (Figure 2A). SHH-stimulated PGE$_2$ secretion was also blocked by pre-treatment with

the specific cPLA$_2$ inhibitor giripladib (GIRI) (Duvernay et al., 2015; Thotala et al., 2013),

supporting that the SHH-stimulated pool of arachidonic acid generated by cPLA$_2$ provides a

source for PGE$_2$ production (Figure 2A).

To determine whether inhibition of cPLA$_2$ would reduce ciliary lengths in IMCD3 cells, we

treated cells with GIRI or vehicle control in the absence and presence of SHH, and measured

lengths of acetylated α-tubulin-marked primary cilia. Primary cilia of IMCD3 cells showed an

average length of approximately ~5 μm in control and SHH-stimulated conditions and were

shortened by approximately 40% to an average of ~3 μm at the highest GIRI concentration

tested (Figure 2B-C). Consistent with the ability of the cPLA$_2$ product arachidonic acid to

promote SMO ciliary entry (Arensdorf et al., 2017), we observed reduced SHH-stimulated SMO

accumulation in primary cilia following GIRI treatment. Despite this, SHH-stimulated GPR161

ciliary exit occurred normally, indicating its ciliary trafficking is unaltered by $cPLA_2$ inhibition

(Supplementary Figure 1A).

To test whether similar changes in ciliary lengths would occur following direct inhibition of PGE_2

production, we quantified ciliary length changes following COX2 inhibition. Coxib treatment

reduced ciliary lengths similarly to GIRI treatment, indicating that arachidonic acid metabolism

provides PGE_2 for ciliary length control in IMCD3 cells (Figure 2C'). Importantly, ciliary lengths

of GIRI-treated cells could be rescued by addition of supplemental arachidonic acid or PGE_2 to

cell culture medium (Supplementary Figure 1), indicating ciliary length alteration was a specific

effect of PGE_2 depletion. Moreover, supplemental arachidonic acid increased average primary

cilium length in SHH-stimulated cells (Supplementary Figure 1B-C), further supporting a positive

role for arachidonic acid in ciliary length control downstream of SHH. Curiously, whereas

supplemental PGE_2 efficiently rescued GIRI-induced ciliary shortening in the absence of SHH

stimulation, it did not rescue short cilia in its presence (Supplementary Figure 1D-E). We do not

know why supplemental arachidonic acid could rescue ciliary lengths in SHH-stimulated cells

while PGE_2 could not. However, we speculate that arachidonic acid metabolites in addition to

PGE_2 may contribute to ciliary fitness downstream of SHH. Consistent with this possibility,

arachidonic acid derived leukotrienes are reported to contribute to SHH-regulated neurite

projection (Bijlsma et al., 2008).

We next tested whether $cPLA_2$ inhibition would impact primary cilia lengths in human cells by

treating SHH-stimulated retinal pigmented epithelial (RPE1) cells with GIRI and quantifying

length changes as above. Primary cilia of RPE1 cells treated with GIRI prior to SHH-CM

treatment were approximately 25% shorter than cells treated with vehicle (Figure 2D). As such,

the link between SHH activation of $cPLA_2$ and ciliary length control is conserved.

Given the established connection between PGE_2 signaling and anterograde ciliary IFT (Jin et

al., 2015; Jin et al., 2014), we hypothesized $cPLA_2$ might serve as a general modulator of ciliary

fitness through its ability to produce the PGE_2 precursor arachidonic acid. Alternatively, $cPLA_2$

linkage to primary cilium function could occur specifically in the context of SHH signaling due to

its activation downstream of SMO (Arensdorf et al., 2017). To distinguish between these

possibilities, we tested for SHH-induced changes in expression of genes linked to primary cilium

function in control and GIRI-treated IMCD3 cells (Supplementary Figure 2). Whereas SHH did

not induce pronounced changes across the ciliary gene panel, GIRI treatment led to greater

than 2.5-fold expression changes in 13 of the 84 genes probed (Supplementary Figure 2A-B).

Strikingly, the effect of $cPLA_2$ inhibition on ciliary gene expression was amplified by SHH-

treatment. In SHH-stimulated cells, 32 genes showed pronounced expression changes

indicative of altered ciliary function upon combining $cPLA_2$ inhibition with SHH pathway

activation (Supplementary Figure 2C). Thus, $cPLA_2$ contributions to ciliary fitness are likely

linked to its function in the SHH signal relay.

EP_4 activation provides ciliary length control for SHH signaling to GLI.

PGE_2 promotes ciliogenesis by activating the prostaglandin EP_4 receptor, which signals through

$G\alpha_s$ heterotrimeric G proteins to raise ciliary cAMP for anterograde IFT (Besschetnova et al.,

2010; Jin et al., 2014). To determine whether PGE_2 produced downstream of SHH signals

through EP_4 to maintain ciliary length, primary cilia lengths were measured in control and SHH-

stimulated IMCD3 cells exposed to the EP_4 inhibitor L161,982 (Cherukuri et al., 2007). Primary

cilia of SHH-stimulated IMCD3 cells treated with increasing concentrations of L161,982

shortened in a dose-dependent manner, supporting a role for EP_4 in promoting ciliary length

homeostasis in SHH-stimulated cells (Figure. 3A). Like what occurred upon $cPLA_2$ inhibition,

short cilia resulting from EP_4 inhibition showed reduced accumulation of endogenous SMO

following SHH stimulation (Figure 3B-C). This led to compromised activation of GLI

transcriptional effectors downstream of SHH, as indicated by reduced expression of *Gli1* and

Ptch1 target genes in both NIH-3T3 and IMCD3 cells (Figure 3D-D'). Importantly, mouse

embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) generated from $EP_4^{-/-}$ embryos had shorter primary cilia than

control MEFs in both basal and SHH-stimulated conditions, supporting L161,982 effects were

the result of on-target EP_4 inhibition (Figure 3E-F). SHH-stimulated SMO ciliary enrichment was

also attenuated in EP_4 knockout MEFs (Figure 3E,G), indicating that altered primary cilium

fitness resulting from compromised PGE_2/EP_4 signaling adversely affects SHH signal

transduction.

EP_4 signaling buffers ciliary cAMP flux following SHH pathway activation.

Given that the principal influence of EP_4 on ciliary length occurs through its activation of $G\alpha_S$-

coupled heterotrimeric G proteins, we hypothesized the ciliary architecture and SHH signaling

defects observed following EP_4 inhibition were the result of disrupted ciliary cAMP flux (Figure

4A). To test this, we used a primary cilium-localized fluorescent sensor system to track ciliary

cAMP flux in control and SHH-stimulated IMCD3 cells in which EP_4 activity was disrupted

(Figure 4B-C and Supplementary Figure 3). We first determined whether pretreatment with

$cPLA_2$ or EP_4 inhibitors would compromise the ability of the adenylyl cyclase activator forskolin

(FSK) to raise cAMP in primary cilia. FSK stimulation of control cells showed a rapid and robust

increase in ciliary cAMP concentration, demonstrating efficacy of the cAMP sensor for

measuring ciliary cAMP flux in IMCD3 cells (Figure 4B-B', red, Supplementary Figure 3A-B).

Consistent with the reduced ciliary lengths and altered ciliary function that occurred following

$cPLA_2$ and EP_4 inhibition (Figures 2-3), pretreatment of IMCD3 cells with either GIRI or

L161,982 prior to FSK stimulation blunted ciliary cAMP accumulation by approximately ~30%

(Figure 4B-B', red vs. blue). Thus, attenuation of PGE_2 production or inhibition of its receptor

EP_4 disrupts ciliary cAMP flux.

To test the impact of attenuated EP_4 signaling on SHH-induced changes in ciliary cAMP, we

treated cells with the direct SMO agonist SAG in the absence or presence of EP_4 inhibitor

L161,982 (Figure 4C). Likely due to the ability of activated SMO to both couple with $G\alpha_i$ and to

induce exit of $G\alpha_s$-coupled GPR161 from primary cilia, the FSK response was both delayed and

blunted by SAG treatment (Figure 4C, red vs blue). Despite these reductions, primary cilia of

both control and SAG-treated cells equilibrated to similarly elevated cAMP concentrations. This

equilibration of ciliary cAMP following SAG treatment was blocked by EP_4 inhibition (Figure 4C,

green vs. blue). Thus, the SHH-$cPLA_2$-EP_4 signaling axis is likely induced to buffer against

sustained ciliary cAMP reduction following SHH pathway activation.

If cAMP generated through SHH-to-EP_4 signaling promotes IFT for ciliary length maintenance

and optimal SHH responsiveness, we reasoned that directly raising ciliary cAMP following EP_4

inhibition should restore ciliary length and rescue SHH pathway activity. To affect ciliary cAMP

in a controlled manner, we used a validated optogenetic system (Truong et al., 2021). In this

system, bacterial photoactivatable adenylyl cyclase (bPAC) is targeted to primary cilia and

activated to specifically raise ciliary cAMP by exposure to blue light (Supplementary Figure 4A).

IMCD3 cells were engineered to stably express ciliary bPAC, and then analyzed for ciliary

length changes following blue light stimulation (Figure 4D-F and Supplementary Figure 4). To

establish whether effects of blue light exposure were specific to bPAC-induced cAMP

modulation, we first confirmed that ciliary length did not change in wild type IMCD3 cells upon

blue light exposure. Although primary cilia of wild type cells were generally longer than those of

bPAC-expressing cells, they were not affected by blue light (Figure 4D and Supplementary

Figure 4B-C). Consistent with the established ability of cAMP to promote ciliary elongation,

IMCD3-bPAC cells exposed to blue light increased average primary cilium length by

approximately 25%, restoring the reduced average baseline length back to what is observed in

control cells (Figure 4D and Supplementary Figure 4B-C). These results support the feasibility

of using the ciliary bPAC system to directly manipulate ciliary length. Armed with this tool, we

next tested whether short cilia of EP_4-inhibited cells could be lengthened by stimulating bPAC

activity. Consistent with the hypothesis that reduced primary cilium length following EP_4

inhibition resulted from a failure in cAMP flux control, we observed that blue light partially

restored ciliary length in SHH-stimulated, L161,982-treated cells (Figure 4E and Supplementary

Figure 4D-F). Blue light increased average ciliary lengths by 25% following L161,982 treatment

in both the absence and presence of SHH, raising the possibility that SHH signal induction could

be partially restored by EP_4 cAMP bypass. To test this, we quantified SMO ciliary enrichment in

bPAC-expressing cells exposed to L161,982 in the absence of blue light or after 180 minutes of

blue light exposure. Consistent with the ability of blue light-induced cAMP to partially reverse

ciliary length reduction resulting from EP_4 inhibition, SHH-stimulated SMO ciliary enrichment

was also partially restored in blue light exposed cells (Figure 4F, column 3 vs.4). Intriguingly,

SHH-stimulated enrichment of SMO in vehicle treated cells was enhanced by blue light

stimulation, suggesting that augmenting cAMP production in cells with an active SHH pathway

may enhance anterograde IFT to facilitate increased SMO ciliary loading (Figure 4F, column 2

vs. 5). Thus, tight modulation of ciliary cAMP is likely crucial for appropriate SMO ciliary

trafficking behavior.

EP$_4$ is required for ciliary fitness and SHH signaling during neural tube development.

Having established a cell-biological connection between SHH signaling and EP$_4$-regulated

primary cilium length homeostasis, we next sought to determine whether compromised EP$_4$

activity would affect primary cilium fitness to impact SHH signaling *in vivo*. To do so, we

analyzed developing neural tubes of *EP4$^{-/-}$* mice for ciliary morphology and ventral neural fate

specification (Segi et al., 1998). During neural tube development, SHH signals in a graded

manner from the notochord and ventral floor plate to instruct ventral cell fates. Ventrally-

localized cells nearest the floor plate are exposed to high concentrations of SHH, and thus

activate highest threshold transcriptional targets that enforce ventral fates. More dorsally-

localized cells are exposed to little or no SHH, and thus activate dorsally-restricted

transcriptional programs (Ericson et al., 1997; Patten and Placzek, 2000; Ribes and Briscoe,

2009). To determine whether ciliary fitness of the neuroepithelium was altered by EP$_4$ loss *in*

vivo, we examined primary cilium morphology along the luminal surface of neural tubes from

E9.5 *EP$_4$$^{+/-}$* and *EP$_4$$^{-/-}$* mice using scanning electron microscopy (Figure 5A). Primary cilia on

apical membranes of cells lining neural tube lumen in *EP$_4$$^{-/-}$* embryos were significantly shorter

than cilia of heterozygous littermate control embryos (Figure 5A-B). Whereas primary cilia of

ventral cells in control neural tubes averaged ~0.9 μm, ventral cilia in knockout embryos showed

an approximate 30% length reduction to an average length of ~0.6μm. Similar primary cilium

length differences between control and knockout embryos were observed in dorsal neural tube

scans, indicating that EP$_4$ is crucial for primary cilium length maintenance in the developing

neural tube. Curiously, primary cilia of more dorsally localized cells from control neural tubes

showed modestly reduced lengths compared to ventral cell cilia. Although ciliary length

differences between cilia of ventrally and dorsally localized luminal cells failed to reach

significance, we speculate the trend could indicate that sustained high-threshold SHH

stimulation that occurs in ventral cells may positively impact ciliary length by promoting EP_4

activity. Consistent with this hypothesis, the modest ventral/dorsal ciliary length difference was

not evident in $EP4^{-/-}$ neural tube sections (Figure 5B).

To test whether neural tube ciliary length alteration resulting from EP_4 loss compromised SHH-

dependent neural tube progenitor domain specification, we examined expression of the ventral

fate marker *Olig2* and intermediate marker *Pax6*, which is inhibited by high SHH signaling

(Ericson et al., 1997; Ribes and Briscoe, 2009). Because specification of ventral progenitor

domains is highly sensitive to signal attenuation, monitoring their induction allows for reliable

reporting of SHH pathway activity (Ribes and Briscoe, 2009). Comparison of knockout and

heterozygous littermate control neural tubes revealed consistent reduction of the SHH-

dependent *Olig2*-positive progenitor population in $EP_4^{-/-}$ animals (n=4). Conversely, the

expression domain of the intermediate fate marker *Pax6* was not significantly altered (Figure

5C). Thus, ciliary dysfunction resulting from EP_4 loss compromises SHH-directed ventral fate

specification *in vivo*.

Discussion

The study presented here identifies a previously unrecognized SHH-to-EP_4 signal relay that

stabilizes ciliary cAMP flux for primary cilium length homeostasis. In this relay, SHH counteracts

ciliary cAMP reduction that occurs following SMO activation and GPR161 ciliary exit by

activating $cPLA_2$ for production of PGE_2 and activation of $G\alpha_s$-coupled-EP_4. This increases

ciliary cAMP to power anterograde trafficking for maintenance of primary cilium length.

Disruption of prostaglandin signaling compromises ciliary cAMP control downstream of SHH,

leading to altered ciliary morphology, attenuated SMO ciliary accumulation, reduced GLI-

mediated target gene activation, and disruption of ventral neural tube patterning. Thus, we

propose SHH evolved to link with PGE_2/EP_4 signaling, via $cPLA_2$, activation for primary cilium

length control due to its strict dependency on the organelle for regulation of its downstream

effectors (Arensdorf et al., 2017; Arensdorf et al., 2016; Mukhopadhyay and Rohatgi, 2014).

Importantly, all experiments in this study were performed using cells with endogenously

expressed and genetically or chemically targeted SHH and EP_4 signaling components. We

intentionally avoided use of over-expression systems because GPCR over-expression can both

alter ciliary length and affect the protein composition of primary cilia (Guadiana et al., 2013). By

avoiding these pitfalls, we were able to uncover a direct contribution of SHH signaling to ciliary

length and cAMP control that may have been masked by use of over-expression systems.

Prostaglandin signaling has been appreciated as a modulator of motile and primary cilia function

for some time, and is documented to control motile cilia development and beat frequency in

multiple cell types (Gayner and McCaffrey, 1998; Haxel et al., 2001; Jin et al., 2014; Marra et

al., 2019). Further, clinical relevance for prostaglandin impact on primary cilium function is

suggested by over expression of PGE_2 pathway components in autosomal dominant polycystic

kidney disease, and by a growing body of work suggesting PGE_2 has therapeutic potential for

treatment of some ciliopathies (May-Simera et al., 2018; Song et al., 2009; Stokman et al.,

2021). The direct genetic link between PGE_2/EP_4 signaling and both motile and primary

ciliogenesis was revealed through analysis of the zebrafish *lkt* mutation, which compromises

ciliary growth by disrupting function of the PGE_2 transporter ABCC4 (Jin et al., 2014). *Lkt* fish

show reduced cilia numbers and a range of phenotypes associated with ciliary dysfunction

including hydrocephalus, curved bodies and abnormal left-looping hearts. Reduction of ABCC4

expression decreases length of primary cilia in mouse fibroblasts (Jin et al., 2014), and as we

show here, attenuates SHH target gene induction. Intriguingly, in addition to its positive impact

on ciliary cAMP through export of PGE_2, ABCC4 has also been demonstrated to deplete cAMP

from ciliary membrane through its multi-specificity exporter function (Wijaya et al., 2020). This

activity was revealed by a study focused on the SHH subtype of medulloblastoma in which

ABCC4 over-expression was found to reduce membrane cAMP to slow PKA-promoted

repressor processing of GLI2/3 transcription factors (Wijaya et al., 2020). Thus, like what we

show here for SHH, ABCC4 may buffer its own contributions to ciliary cAMP control by both

promoting and attenuating accumulation of the second messenger.

Despite a growing body of work supporting that cAMP flux occurs downstream of SHH, the

relationship between pathway activation and cAMP control remains complex and controversial.

This is due, at least in part, to the dual positive and negative regulatory contributions of PKA to

GLI effector activity and the ambiguous role of SMO-mediated $G\alpha_i$ activation downstream of

ligand (Arensdorf et al., 2016; Aza-Blanc et al., 2000; Low et al., 2008; Niewiadomski et al.,

2014; Ogden et al., 2008; Riobo et al., 2006). Moreover, evidence for direct $SMO/G\alpha_i$-induced

attenuation of PKA-directed GLI processing through cAMP reduction has been difficult to obtain.

Whether this is due to SMO-regulated, $G\alpha_i$-mediated cAMP control occurring in temporally and

spatially limited cellular contexts, or to $G\alpha_i$-independent modes of PKA regulation downstream

of SHH, remains unclear. In some cell types, SHH-directed removal of GPR161 from ciliary

membrane may lower cAMP to sufficiently halt PKA-directed GLI processing (Mukhopadhyay et

al., 2013). However, more recent work suggests the intracellular carboxyl tail of activated SMO

may act as a PKA inhibitor to block GLI phosphorylation upon pathway induction, suggesting a

cAMP-independent route to PKA control (Happ, 2021). Nevertheless, we and others have

reported cAMP reduction occurring in response to SMO activation (Barzi et al., 2011; Belgacem

and Borodinsky, 2015; Marada et al., 2015; Ogden et al., 2008; Riobo et al., 2006), suggesting

a need for cAMP buffering to prevent adverse effects on primary cilia homeostasis that might

occur following SHH-mediated cAMP reduction.

Consistent with the ability of SHH to transiently reduce ciliary cAMP through activation of SMO

and desensitization of GPR161, we did observe modest ciliary length reduction in cultured cells

exposed to SHH (Figures 1-4). However, these length reductions typically failed to reach

significance and were never as severe as what occurred following blockade of prostaglandin

signaling. We hypothesize this is due to buffering of cAMP flux by SHH-stimulated PGE_2/EP_4

signaling. It is also possible that additional $G\alpha_s$-coupled ciliary GPCRs could be engaged

downstream of SHH to prevent sustained cAMP reduction that could lead to ciliary dysfunction.

This is because multiple additional $G\alpha_s$-coupled GPCRs enrich in ciliary membrane. In addition

to EP_4 and GPR161, as discussed here, $G\alpha_s$-coupled, V2R, D1R, and 5-HT_6 receptors are also

commonly found in primary cilia in cell and tissue-specific manners (Domire et al., 2011; Jiang

et al., 2019; Jin et al., 2014; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2013). Intriguingly, and perhaps indicative of

coordination of activity occurring between ciliary GPCRs, a recent report suggests SMO

stimulation can amplify or sensitize responses by D1R and 5-HT_6 (Jiang et al., 2019). Whether

these effects result from direct communication between SMO and other GPCR classes, or from

ciliary GPCRs tuning their activity to ciliary cAMP status is not yet known. Importantly, cAMP

shifts induced by these GPCRs are confined to the primary cilium such that cytoplasmic cAMP

is unaltered, allowing for localized modulation of cAMP-regulated responses (Hansen et al.,

2020; Truong et al., 2021; Wheway et al., 2018). Future investigation focused on understanding

the complex regulation of ciliary cAMP control will likely provide insight into this fascinating cell

biology.

Remarkably, signal crosstalk occurring downstream of Hedgehog family ligands that buffers

cAMP flux to safeguard against pronounced changes in cAMP availability may be evolutionarily

conserved. In *Drosophila*, HH signaling is activated at the plasma membrane because cells of

most fly tissues lack functional primary cilia (Huangfu and Anderson, 2005). This mitigates the

need for a HH connection to pathways involved in ciliary homeostasis but does not eliminate the

requirement for cAMP control downstream of ligand. This is because, like what occurs in

vertebrate systems, PKA phosphorylation of the *Drosophila* GLI ortholog Cubitus interruptus (Ci)

leads to its conversion into a truncated transcriptional repressor (Aza-Blanc et al., 1997;

Smelkinson et al., 2007). Accordingly, genetic evidence indicates *Drosophila* SMO (dSMO)

activates $G\alpha_i$ to lower cAMP in response to HH, providing a mechanism by which ligand

stimulation may rapidly halt Ci processing (Ogden et al., 2008). However, a *Drosophila*-specific

positive regulatory role for PKA-mediated phosphorylation of dSMO that promotes high-level

pathway activity is also proposed, and is seemingly at odds with dSMO activation of $G\alpha_i$ (Jia et

al., 2004). A potential mechanism by which dSMO solves this problem was revealed through a

recent study demonstrating that, in some cell types, dSMO stimulation leads to cAMP

accumulation through $G\alpha_s$ activation (Praktiknjo et al., 2018). This activation is dependent upon

dSMO phosphorylation by G protein-coupled receptor kinase Gprk2 and is thought to enhance

pathway responsiveness to lower threshold HH stimulation (Praktiknjo et al., 2018). It is not yet

clear whether $G\alpha_s$ activation downstream of HH occurs through dSMO signal bias, or if it is

induced indirectly through dSMO crosstalk with $G\alpha_s$-coupled GPCR signaling partners.

Nevertheless, the observation that dSMO can lead to $G\alpha_s$ activation in flies supports an

evolutionarily conserved ability of Hedgehog family members to affect exquisite control of cAMP

flux to ensure appropriate downstream signaling activity.

Whereas this study is the first to reveal a mechanism by which SHH signaling actively

contributes to primary cilium homeostasis, SHH is not the only pathway regulated by the primary

cilium to tap into processes controlling ciliary growth and function. WNT signaling, which can be

both activated and repressed through the primary cilium, promotes primary ciliogenesis through

WNT3A-mediated reorganization of centriolar satellites, leading to increased ciliary length and

thickness (Kyun et al., 2020). Moreover, developmental signaling pathways including WNT,

TGFβ, and NOTCH impact growth of motile cilia through action of their downstream

transcriptional effectors (Jin et al., 2014; Tozser et al., 2015). The observations that multiple

developmental signaling pathways influence both primary and motile cilia growth suggest that

linking specific signal transduction cascades to ciliary regulators may be a common evolutionary

theme among pathways that work through or depend on ciliary function.

Methods

Chemicals

L161,982 (Tocris) and Celecoxib (Coxib, Cayman Chemical Company) were reconstituted in

DMSO and stored at -20°C. Cyclopamine (LC Laboratories) was reconstituted in ethanol and

stored at -80°C. Arachidonic acid (Cayman Chemical Company) was stored in ethanol at -20°C.

Prostaglandin E2 (Sigma Chemicals) and Forskolin (Sigma Chemicals) were reconstituted in

ethanol and stored at 4°C. Giripladib (GIRI) was synthesized and stored according to published

procedures (Duvernay et al., 2015; Thotala et al., 2013).

Cell culture and DNA expression plasmids

Wild type and Flp-In IMCD3 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium: F12

supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% Penicillin Streptomycin solution

(Gibco). NIH-3T3, Flp-In-3T3, RPE-1, $ABCC4^{-/-}$, NIH-3T3, and all MEF cell line media were

supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum. Cells were passaged routinely with 0.25%

Trypsin/EDTA solution and maintained under standard incubation conditions (5% CO_2, 37°C) in

a humidified incubator. All cell lines were routinely tested for mycoplasma contamination. To

promote ciliogenesis, cell lines were serum starved for 2 hours in serum-free media (DMEM

supplemented with 0.1 mM nonessential amino acids, 2mM L-Glutamine, 1mM sodium pyruvate

and 1% Pen-Strep). After starvation, media was replaced with low serum (0.5%) media and

cells were incubated for 24 or 36 hours.

Cyto-bPAC (pgLAP5-EF1a dTATA-bPAC-GFP) and Cilia-bPAC (pgLAP5-EF1a dTATA-Arl13b-

bPAC-GFP cloned into a version of pGLAP5 with a minimal chicken lens d-crystallin promoter)

have been previously described (Truong et al., 2021). IMCD3 cell lines stably expressing Cyto-

bPAC-GFP and Cilia-bPAC-GFP were generated using the Flp-In system following

manufacturer's instructions (Invitrogen). IMCD3 Flp-In cells (Breslow and Nachury, 2015) were

transfected using Lipofectamine 3000 with the appropriate plasmids and selected with 40

mg/mL hygromycin (GIBCO). Single colonies were expanded, and protein expression was

confirmed by fluorescence microscopy for GFP.

Immunofluorescence

IMCD3, RPE1, and MEF cells were plated onto coverslips (Corning) and pretreated with either

vehicle or drug in serum-free media. After 2 hours, media was changed to low serum media

containing drug and SHH-N conditioned media (100 μL/mL), and then incubated for ~20 hours.

After incubation, cells were washed with PBS, and then fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 12

minutes. Cells were then washed with wash buffer (PBS with 0.1% Triton X-100) three times for

5 mins and incubated in blocking buffer for 60 min at room temperature (PBS with 2% BSA, 1%

Tween-20, 1% goat serum). Primary antibody incubations were performed overnight at 4°C. The

following antibodies and dilutions were used: anti-Smo (Santa Cruz, 1:500) and anti-acetylated

α-tubulin (Cell Signaling, 1:1000), diluted in blocking buffer. Secondary antibody incubations

were performed with AlexaFluor 555 and 647 (1:10000) conjugated secondary antibodies (Life

Technologies) and DAPI for 60 min at RT. Following antibody incubation, samples were washed

three times in PBS + 0.05% Tween-20 for 5 minutes. Cells were washed 3x in wash buffer then

3x in PBS prior to mounting with Prolong Diamond without DAPI (Life Technologies). Images

were collected using a Zeiss LSM 710 or Leica TCS SP8 STED 3x confocal microscope with a

63x oil-immersion objective and processed using ZEN 2012 (blue edition, Zeiss), LAS X (Leica),

and Photoshop CS6. For all immunofluorescence experiments, multiple cells (≥100) were

examined over at least two independent experiments. Representative images are shown.

In vivo analysis

$EP4^{+/-}$ and $EP4^{-/-}$ embryos in the C57BL/6 background were harvested and processed for

immunohistochemistry at E9.5. Pregnant dams were harvested, uterine horns removed, and

embryos were dissected in 1X PBS, then rinsed three times in 1X PBS. Embryos were fixed

overnight at 4°C in 4% PFA. The following day, embryos were rinsed three times in 1X PBS and

transferred to 30% sucrose to cryo-protect. The following day, embryos were frozen in O.C.T.

Compound (Tissue-Tek) on dry ice. Embryos were sectioned transverse at 10 µm thickness on

a Leica Microm CM1950 cryo-stat. Sections were briefly dried, then washed in 1X TBST, then

blocked with 2% BSA, 1% goat serum, 0.1% Triton-X-100 in 1X PBS. Antibodies were diluted in

blocking buffer and incubated overnight on sections at room temperature. The following

antibodies and dilutions were used: mouse anti-PAX6 (1:25; DSHB), and rabbit anti-OLIG2

(1:300; Millipore). Primary antibody was removed, sections were washed with 1X TBST three

times, then incubated for 3 hours in secondary antibodies (Invitrogen) at a 1:500 dilution.

Sections were washed three times in 1X TBST, then rinsed with water, and cover slips were

applied with Pro Long Gold mounting media with DAPI. Sections were imaged on a Leica DMi8

widefield microscope. A minimum of four embryos per genotype were analyzed.

For electron microscopy of neural tube primary cilia, samples were fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde,

2% paraformaldehyde in 0.1M cacodylate buffer containing 2 mM $MgCl_2$. Following fixation,

samples were dissected to expose the interior of the neural tube lumen. Dissected samples

were buffer washed, post-fixed in 0.1% aqueous osmium tetroxide for 1 hour, washed with

ddH_2O, dehydrated with an ascending ethanol series, and critical point dried in liquid CO_2 using

an Autosamdri 931 (Tousimis, Rockville, MD). Dried samples were sputter-coated under

planetary rotation with 15nm iridium and imaged in a ThermoFisher Scientific Teneo scanning

electron microscope at 2kV using the Everhart-Thornley and T1 detectors.

Ciliary cAMP assay

IMCD3 cells were seeded at 18,000 cells/well in an 8-well chamber slide (Nunc™ Lab-Tek™ II

Chamber Slide™ System) and transduced the next day with the ratio metric cilia-targeted

cADDis BacMam (Molecular Montana, D0211G) per manufacturer's recommendation. Cells

were infected with 20 µl of BacMam sensor stock in a total of 250 µl of media containing 2 mM

Sodium Butyrate (Molecular Montana) for 30 minutes at room temperature in dark followed by 5

hours at 37 C°. BacMam was removed and replaced with low serum media containing 1 mM

Sodium Butyrate for 16-24 hours with or without GIRI or L-161,982 treatment. Prior to imaging,

cells were incubated in PBS for 20 minutes at room temperature. Positive agonist FSK (100 µM)

was added 30 seconds after the recording was initiated and images were acquired on a Nikon

A1R confocal on live cell imaging mode (63x, epifluorescence) every 10 seconds for 8 minutes.

For experiments with SAG, the signal was recorded for basal conditions followed by incubation

with FSK for 1.5 minutes and then treated with either SAG or vehicle and recorded every 10

seconds for 8 minutes. The red fluorescence and green fluorescence intensities over time were

processed on the Nikon NIS-Elements imaging software by determining a mask for each cilium

and determining the ratio of the green fluorescence to the red fluorescence. The data were

normalized to the time point at the beginning of each experiment (set to 100%) and the inverse

of the value was used to plot the GraphPad Prism.

Optogenetic stimulation

bPAC-expressing IMCD3 Flp-In cells were plated onto coverslips, grown to confluency, and

pretreated with either vehicle or L161-982 (10µM) in serum-free media. After 2 hours, media

was changed to low serum media containing drug and SHH-N conditioned media (100 µL/mL),

and then incubated for ~18 hours. Prior to immunofluorescence analysis, cells were transferred

to a custom-made LED humidified incubator with 5% CO_2 for continuous blue light 450nm

stimulation at ~0.4 mW/cm^2 for 3 hours (Zhang et al., 2019). Following this,

immunofluorescence staining was carried out as described above.

Quantitative Reverse Transcriptase Polymerase Chain Reaction (qRT-PCR)

The total RNA was extracted from cells using the Rneasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to

manufacturer's protocol. One thousand nanograms of RNA was used to synthesize

complementary DNA (cDNA) using High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied

Biosystems). qRT-PCR primers are described in Table S1. qRT-PCR reactions were performed

on a QuantStudio 7 Flex PCR machine using PowerUp Sybr Green Master Mix (Applied

Biosystems). Corresponding changes in the expression levels of selected genes were

calculated using the ΔΔCt method relative to housekeeping genes, Ppia and Btf3 (Arensdorf et

al., 2017).

Quantification of Ciliary Length and Ciliary Signal Intensity

At least three randomly chosen fields of view were selected per condition per experiment, and

all cilia within the field were quantified using ZEN 2012/LAS X. For ciliary length measurement,

a maximum projection of the Z stack images was created, and the length of cilia was traced

from the base to the tip using the line profile tool in the LAS X software. For ciliary SMO signal

intensity determination, each cilium surface area was traced from the base to the tip using

spline profile function. Line scan intensity values along the cilium were exported and analyzed in

Excel.

Statistical Methods

All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism. One-way unpaired non-

parametric ANOVA was performed for comparison of multiple means using Mann–Whitney test.

Statistics for ciliary length and Smoothened ciliary quantification were calculated from three

independent experiments with at least 100 cilia per condition per experiment. Smoothened

translocation intensity was normalized to acetylated α-tubulin intensity. All quantified data are

presented as mean ± SEM, with $p < 0.05$ considered statistically significant. Significance

depicted as *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$, n.s = not significant.

Cell Line Generation

EP_4 knockout cells were generated from $EP_4^{-/-}$ embryos as previously reported (Segi et al.,

1998). Embryos (13.5 dpc) were freshly isolated and placed in individual 10 cm culture dishes

where they were eviscerated. Heads were removed and used for genotyping to identify

homozygous null embryos and wild type littermates using conventional PCR. Embryo bodies

were transferred to 15 mL conical tubes containing 5mL fresh PBS and dissociated by

aspirating through a 16-G needle into a 10mL syringe and expelling the contents. Warm media

(DMEM+10%FBS+1%pen/strep) was then added to each conical tube to bring the total volume

to 10 mL. This solution was transferred to a 15cm culture dish containing 25mL additional media

and placed in a 37°C incubator. After 24h, media and non-adherent tissue pieces were

removed, and fresh media was added. Cells were grown to 80-90% confluence, after which they

were passaged and frozen down after passage number two. $ABCC4^{-/-}$ NIH-3T3 cells were

generated as previously described (Wijaya et al., 2020).

PGE_2 ELISA

IMCD3 cells were cultured in a 12-well culture plate and were pre-treated for 2 hours with either

Cyclopamine (10µM), Celecoxib (Coxib, 10µM) or Giripladib (GIRI, 2/4 µM) in serum free

medium. Following pretreatment, medium was changed to low serum containing either

Cyclopamine, Coxib, or GIRI in control or SHH-N conditioned media, and then incubated for 36

hours. PGE_2 levels were determined using by ELISA (R&D Systems) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. The absorbance of each well was measured at 450 nm with

correction at 540 nm.

RT^2 profiler PCR array analysis

Expression profiling of genes responsible for ciliary organization and maintenance was

performed using the RT^2 profiler PCR array PAMM-127Z (Qiagen). IMCD3 cells grown in 6-well

culture plates were pre-treated for 2 hours with GIRI (4µM) in serum free media. Following

pretreatment, media was changed to low serum containing either vehicle, GIRI, or SHH-N

conditioned media, and then incubated for 24 hours. Two biological replicates were prepared for

each condition and the isolated RNA from these replicates were pooled. cDNA was generated

and qRT-PCR was performed. The relative quantification changes in expression were measured

by obtaining the threshold cycle. Data from the array was analyzed using the GeneGlobe Data

Analysis Center (Qiagen).

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Reagent Requests

Cell lines and novel reagents will be available upon request pursuant to SJCRH material

transfer agreement.

Animal Use

Data and materials generated from animals were obtained in accordance with SJCRH/IACUC

approved protocol 608-100616-10/19 and Vanderbilt protocol M1600016-01.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization, S.S.A. and S.K.O.; Methodology, S.S.A., M.A.A., B.M.Y., M.D.S, Y.Z.,

E.L.S., A. J., C. G. R. and S.K.O.; Validation, S.S.A., M.A.A., M.D.S. and Y.Z.; Analysis, S.S.A.,

M.A.A., M.D.S., Y.Z. and A.J.; Investigation, S.S.A, M.A.A., M.D.S. and Y.Z.; Resources, Z.R.,

C.G.R., N.B., J. D. S., E.L.S. and S.K.O.; Writing – Original Draft, S.S.A. and S.K.O.; Writing –

Review & Editing, S.S.A., J.D.S., E.L.S and S.K.O.; Visualization, S.S.A.; Supervision, S.K.O.

All authors approved the submitted manuscript.

Declaration of Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1: ABCC4 loss reduces primary cilium length and attenuates SHH signal

induction. **(A)** $ABCC4^{-/-}$ NIH-3T3 cells have shortened primary cilia. Cells were treated with

control or SHH conditioned media as indicated. The ciliary axoneme is marked by acetylated α-

tubulin (magenta). DAPI (blue) marks nuclei. The scale bar represents 10 µm. **(B)**. Primary cilia

of ≥100 cells/condition were measured to determine average ciliary length. Experiments were

performed at least twice, and all data pooled. Statistical significance was determined using a

one-way ANOVA. Error bars indicate SD. **(C)**. SMO ciliary signal intensity was determined for

wild type and $ABCC4^{-/-}$ NIH-3T3 cells treated with control or SHH as in **B**. Statistical significance

was calculated using one-way ANOVA. Error bars indicate SD. **(D)**. Control or $ABCC4^{-/-}$ NIH-

3T3 cells were stimulated with SHH for 18 hours and induction of SHH targets *Gli1* and *Ptch1*

was determined by qPCR. Fold change over vehicle control conditioned media treatment was

calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method. **(E)**. A model of PGE_2 signaling downstream of SHH.

Arachidonic acid is generated by SMO-activated $cPLA_2$ and metabolized by COX into PGE_2.

ABCC4 exports PGE_2 to activate EP_4 signaling to raise ciliary cAMP for anterograde IFT

(orange motors). **(F)**. SHH stimulates PGE_2 secretion. Measurement of PGE_2 in conditioned

media from control and $ABCC4^{-/-}$ NIH-3T3 cells was determined by ELISA. Cells were pretreated

with vehicle (DMSO), cyclopamine (10 µM), or COX2 inhibitor Celecoxib (Coxib,10 µM) and

then stimulated with control or SHH conditioned media. PGE_2 was measured in the supernatant

~36 hours after treatment. The average concentration was calculated from two independent

experiments, each with n=3 biological replicates. Error bars indicate SEM. For all experiments *

indicates $p \leq 0.05$; **** indicates $p \leq 0.0001$; ns, $p > 0.05$.

Figure 2: PGE$_2$ generated downstream of SHH contributes to ciliary length control. (A).

PGE$_2$ secretion requires SMO and cPLA$_2$ activation. PGE$_2$ was measured in cell culture media

as in **Figure 1F**. Cells were pretreated with vehicle control (DMSO), the inverse SMO agonist

cyclopamine (10µM) or cPLA$_2$ inhibitor GIRI (4µM), and then exposed to SHH. PGE$_2$ was

measured in the culture supernatant ~36 hours post treatment. Statistical significance was

calculated using one-way ANOVA. The average concentration was calculated across three

experiments, and the representative graph is shown. Error bars indicate SEM. **(B-D).** cPLA2

inhibition shortens primary cilia. **(B)**. IMCD3 cells were treated with SHH conditioned media in

the presence of GIRI (2 or 4 µM), or vehicle control (DMSO). Cilia were imaged by

immunofluorescence. The ciliary axoneme is marked by acetylated α-tubulin (magenta). DAPI

(blue) marks the nucleus. The scale bar represents 10 µm. **(C-D)**. Lengths of primary cilia were

quantified in IMCD3 **(C-C')** and RPE1 **(D)** cells, treated with SHH conditioned media in the

absence or presence of GIRI or Coxib (**C'**, 10µM) as indicated. Average primary cilia length

was determined by measuring cilia of ≥100 cells/condition across three independent

experiments. Significance was calculated based upon total cell number analyzed using a one-

way ANOVA. Error bars indicate SD. For all experiments * indicates $p \leq 0.05$; **** indicates $p \leq$

0.0001; ns, $p > 0.05$.

Figure 3: EP$_4$ is required for primary cilium length homeostasis and maximal SHH signal

output. (A). EP$_4$ inhibition shortens primary cilia in IMCD3 cells. Average primary cilia length

was determined in IMCD3 cells as in **Figure 2** following treatment with L161,982 (10 µM and 20

µM). Cells were pretreated with vehicle control (DMSO) or EP4 inhibitor L161,982, then cultured

in control or SHH conditioned media for ~18 hours. **(B-C).** SMO ciliary enrichment is attenuated

by EP$_4$ inhibition. SHH-stimulated SMO (**B,** red) enrichment in primary cilia was examined in

IMCD3 cells. Primary cilia are marked with acetylated α-tubulin (magenta). Cells were

pretreated with vehicle (DMSO) or GIRI 4 µM or L161,982 at 10 µM and 20 µM for 18 hours.

The scale bar represents 5 µm. Statistical significance was calculated using one-way ANOVA.

Error bars indicate SD **(C).** Average SMO ciliary signal intensity was quantified for each

condition. Statistical significance was calculated using one-way ANOVA. Error bars indicate SD.

(D-D'). qRT-PCR analysis of *Gli1* and *Ptch1* expression in NIH-3T3 and IMCD3 cells was

performed. Cells were pretreated with vehicle (DMSO), GIRI (4 µM) or L161,982 (10 µM) and

then cultured in control or SHH conditioned media for 18 hours. Fold-change in expression was

determined using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method. **(E-G).** EP_4 loss shortens primary cilia and attenuates SMO

ciliary enrichment. Ciliary length and SMO (red) ciliary translocation were examined in wild type

and *EP4$^{-/-}$* MEFs 18 hours post treatment with control or SHH conditioned media. Cilia are

marked by acetylated α-tubulin (magenta). The scale bar represents 10 µm. A representative

experiment is shown. **(F-G)**. Quantification of average primary cilium length **(F)** and ciliary SMO

signal intensity **(G)** were determined as above. For all experiments * indicates $p \leq 0.05$; ****

indicates $p \leq 0.0001$; ns, $p > 0.05$. Average fold change was calculated across three biological

replicates over two experiments. Error bars indicate SD.

Figure 4: PGE$_2$/EP$_4$ signaling is required for ciliary cAMP control downstream of SHH. (A).

A model for SHH-mediated cAMP buffering in the primary cilium. **(B-C).** IMCD3 cells

expressing ciliary cAMP cADDis sensors were monitored by live cell imaging after treatment

with the indicated compounds. Cells were pretreated overnight with either vehicle, GIRI (4 µM,

B), or L-161,982 (10 µM, B'-C) and were stimulated with vehicle or Forskolin (100 µM). A

minimum of 6 cilia were recorded for each condition per experiment. The experiment was

repeated three times. A representative experiment is shown. **(C)** EP$_4$ signaling buffers SMO-

induced cAMP flux. cADDis-expressing IMCD3 cells were pretreated overnight with vehicle or L-

161,982 (10 µM), exposed to FSK for 1.5 minutes, then stimulated with SAG or vehicle control.

Fluorescence ciliary intensity was recorded over 10 mins in live cell imaging mode. An average

of ~6 cilia were recorded for each condition and the experiment was carried out in duplicate. A

representative experiment is shown. Average ciliary length **(D-E)** and SMO ciliary intensity **(F)**

was quantified in IMCD3-bPAC cells exposed to control or SHH conditioned media in the

absence or presence of L161,982, as indicated in control or blue light-exposed cells.

Significance was determined by one-way ANOVA. For all experiments * indicates $p \leq 0.05$; ****

indicates $p \leq 0.0001$; ns, $p > 0.05$. Error bars indicate SD. For all ciliary length determinations,

50-100 cells per condition were analyzed over at least 3 independent experiments.

Figure. 5: EP$_4$ is required for primary cilium length homeostasis and SHH signaling in the

developing neural tube. (A). Scanning electron microscopy imaging of cardiac level neural

tube sections shows apical plasma membranes of cells lining the neural tube lumen. Zoom

images of primary cilia from $EP_4^{+/-}$ and $EP_4^{-/-}$ embryos are shown. **(B)**. Average primary cilium

length was calculated by measuring cilia of ~30 cells each lining ventral and dorsal regions of

the neural tube lumen. Primary cilia of $EP_4^{-/-}$ embryos show a statistically significant length

reduction. Statistical significance was calculated using one-way ANOVA. Error bars indicate SD**.**

(C). $EP_4^{-/-}$ embryos show altered ventral progenitor domains. Cardiac level sections of E9.5

neural tubes from the indicated genotypes were immuno-stained for neural progenitor domain

markers *Olig2* and *Pax6*. $EP_4^{-/-}$ neural tubes show disrupted ventral progenitor specification as

indicated by reduced *Olig2*-labeled cellular populations. For all experiments, four embryos per

genotype were analyzed.

 Supplementary Figure Legends

Supplementary Figure 1: (A). cPLA2 inhibition reduces SMO ciliary entry but does not

alter GPR161 ciliary exit. IMCD3 cells were treated with vehicle or GIRI (4 µM) in the absence

or presence of SHH as indicated. GPR161 is magenta, SMO is red, Arl13b (green) marks

primary cilia. Scale bar is 3 µm. **(B-C). Arachidonic acid and pGE$_2$ rescue primary cilium**

length following cPLA2 inhibition. IMCD3 cells were treated with SHH conditioned media in

the presence of vehicle or 4 µM GIRI in media supplemented with increasing concentrations of

arachidonic acid (12.5 µM or 25 µM) as indicated. Ciliary length quantification is shown in **C**. **(D-**

E). Ciliary length reduction of IMCD3 cells following cPLA$_2$ inhibition (4 µM GIRI) is partially

rescued by PGE$_2$ media supplementation (40µM). Ciliary length quantification is shown in **E**.

Statistical significance was calculated using one-way ANOVA. Error bars indicate SD. For all

experiments * indicates $p ≤ 0.05$; **** indicates $p ≤ 0.0001$; ns, $p > 0.05$. For all experiments 50-

100 cells per condition were analyzed over at least 2 experiments. Scale bars represent 10 µm.

Supplementary Figure 2: cPLA2 inhibition changes ciliary gene expression. (A). Heat Map

visualization indicates fold-changes occurring in expression of 84 ciliary genes examined using

the RT^2 Profiler PCR Cilia Array in the presence of vehicle (DMSO), SHH, GIRI (4 µM), or GIRI

(4 µM)+SHH. **(B)**. A Venn diagram indicates the number of genes modulated between GIRI and

GIRI+SHH over vehicle treatment. Only genes having a cut-off of $± 2.5$-fold are included. **(C).**

Differential expression changes of the 32 genes specific to the GIRI+SHH condition are shown.

Supplementary Figure 3: cADDis detects changes in ciliary cAMP. Live imaging of cADDis-

expressing IMCD3 cells shows fluorescent changes of a ciliary cAMP sensor and stable

fluorescence of the ciliary reference marker (magenta) following exposure to vehicle **(A)** or FSK

(100 µM**, B**). Increasing cAMP decreases red fluorescence. **(C-C').** Relative cAMP shift is

shown as native **(C)** or inverse **(C')** of the fluorescent intensity ratio of the cAMP sensor to

reference marker. Inverse ratios are shown in the main figures to more clearly illustrate

increased cAMP.

Supplementary Figure 4: Activation of ciliary bPAC by blue light increases primary cilium

length. (A) Schematic of optogenetic cAMP modulation. Ciliary bPAC is activated by blue light

to specifically increase ciliary cAMP**. (B-F).** Primary cilia were imaged by confocal microscopy

after treatment with the indicated compounds and then exposed to control or blue light for 180

minutes. Blue light-mediated cAMP accumulation promotes ciliary elongation.

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Smoothened	SCBT	sc-166685
Acetylated a-Tubulin	Cell Signaling	5335S
GPR161	Gift from Saikat Lab	N/A
Alexa-conjugated secondary antibodies	Life Technologies	Multiple
Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombinant Proteins		
Arachidonic Acid	Cayman Chemical Co.	90010-50
Giripladib	This Paper	N/A
L161,982	Tocris Chemicals	2514
Prostaglandin E2	Sigma Chemicals	P5640
Cyclopamine	LC Laboratories	C-8700
Celecoxib	Cayman Chemical Co.	10008672
Forskolin	Sigma Chemicals	F6886-10MG
Lipofectamine 3000	ThermoFisher Scientific	L3000008
PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix	Applied Biosystems	A25742
Critical Commercial Assays		
Prostaglandin E2 Parameter Assay Kit	R&D Systems	KGE004B
BCA Protein Assay Kit	Thermo Fisher Scientific	23227
RNeasy Plus Mini Kit	Qiagen	74136
Primary Cilia RT^2 Profiler PCR	Qiagen	PAMM-127Z
High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit	Applied Biosystems	4368813
Ratio-metric Cilia-Targeted cADDis cAMP	Molecular Montana	D0211G
Oligonucleotides		
Ptch1 Forward: TCACCTCCATCAGCAATGTC	This Paper	N/A
Ptch1 Reverse: GAATACCACCACCACAGCAG	This Paper	N/A

Gli1 Forward: CCAAGCCAACTTTATGTCAGGG	This Paper	N/A
Gli1 Reverse: AGCCCGCTTCTTTGTTAATTTGA	This Paper	N/A
Ppia Forward: AGCACTGGAGAGAAAGGATT	(Arensdorf et al., 2017)	
Ppia Reverse: ATTATGGCGTGTAAAGTCACCA	(Arensdorf et al., 2017)	
Btf3 Forward: GAACAACATCTCTGGTATTGAAGA	(Arensdorf et al., 2017)	
Btf3 Reverse: AATGGTGAAGGTGTTTGCTG	(Arensdorf et al., 2017)	
Experimental Models: Cell Lines		
IMCD3	ATCC	CRL-2123
IMCD3 Flp-In Cells	Maxence Nachury lab	
RPE1	ATCC	CRL-4000
NIH-3T3	ATCC	CRL-1658
ABCC4^{-/-} NIH-3T3	John D Schuetz lab	N/A
EP4 KO Mouse Embryonic Fibroblast	This paper	N/A
Wild Type Mouse Embryonic Fibroblast	This paper	N/A
Experimental Models: Mouse Model		
EP4^{+/-} Mice	Elaine L Shelton lab	
EP4^{-/-} Mice	Elaine L Shelton lab	
Recombinant DNA		
pgLAP5-EF1a dTATA-bPAC-GFP	Gift from Jeremy Reiter	N/A
pgLAP5-EF1a dTATA-Arl13b-bPAC-GFP	Gift from Jeremy Reiter	N/A
Software and Algorithms		
Prism	GraphPad	v. 8.2.0
ImageJ	https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/	v. 2.0.0-rc-59/1.51n

LAS X	Leica	
NIS-Elements Viewer	https://www.microscope.healthcare.nikon.com/products/software/nis-elements/viewer	v. 4.50.00

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Figure.1

Figure. 2

A IMCD3: PGE2 Assay

B Vehicle | Vehicle-SHH | GIRI 4μM | GIRI 4μM+SHH

Ac.α-Tubulin / DAPI

Figure.3

Figure.4

Figure.5