# Phosphoproteomic profiling highlights CDC42 and CDK2 as key players in the regulation of the TGF-β pathway in *ALMS1* and *BBS1* knockout models

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# ABSTRACT:

**BACKGROUND:**

The primary cilium is a sensory organelle that extends from the plasma membrane. It plays a vital role in physiological and developmental processes by controlling different signalling pathways such as WNT, Sonic hedgehog (SHh), and transforming growth factor β (TGF-β). Ciliary dysfunction has been related to different pathologies such as Alström (ALMS) or Bardet-Biedl (BBS) syndrome. The leading cause of death in adults with these syndromes is chronic kidney disease (CKD), which is characterised by fibrotic and inflammatory processes often involving the TGF-β pathway.

**METHODS:**

Using genomic editing with CRISPR-CAS9 and phosphoproteomics we have studied the TGF-β signalling pathway in knockout (KO) models for *ALMS1* and *BBS1* genes. We have developed a network diffusion-based analysis pipeline to expand the data initially obtained and to be able to determinate which processes were deregulated in TGF-β pathway. Finally, we have analysed protein-protein interactions to prioritise candidate genes in the regulation of the TGF-β pathway in Alström and Bardet-Biedl syndrome.

**RESULTS:**

Analysis of differentially phosphorylated proteins identified 10 candidate proteins in the *ALMS1* KO model and 41 in the *BBS1* KO model. After network expansion using a random walk with a restart model, we were able to obtain processes related to TGF-β signalling such as endocytosis in the case of *ALMS1* or extracellular matrix regulation in *BBS1*. Protein interaction analyses demonstrated the involvement of CDC42 as a central protein in the interactome in *ALMS1* and CDK2 in the case of *BBS1*.

**CONCLUSION:**

In conclusion, the depletion of *ALMS1* and *BBS1* affects the TGF- β signalling pathway, conditioning the phosphorylation and activation of several proteins, including CDC42 in the case of *ALMS1* and CDK2 in the case of *BBS1*.

**KEYWORDS:** ALMS1, BBS1, ciliopathies, TGF-β, phosphoproteomics, Alström syndrome, Bardet-Biedl syndrome.

# INTRODUCTION:

The primary cilium is a microtubule-based sensory organelle that extends from the plasma membrane. It is present in all cell types and plays a vital role in physiological and developmental processes by controlling different signalling pathways such as WNT, Sonic hedgehog (SHh), and transforming growth factor β (TGF-β) (Berbari et al., 2009; Ishikawa and Marshall, 2011; Christensen et al., 2012; May-Simera et al., 2018; Anvarian et al., 2019).  Ciliary dysfunction generates different phenotypes, the most common of which are obesity, type 2 diabetes mellitus, retinopathies or the appearance of multi-organ fibrosis leading to liver, kidney, or lung dysfunction (Gerdes et al., 2009; Waters and Beales, 2011; Reiter and Leroux, 2017; May-Simera et al., 2018).

The group of diseases characterised by ciliary dysfunction, mutations in primary cilium or basal body genes, are commonly known as ciliopathies. Alström syndrome (ALMS) and Bardet-Biedl syndrome (BBS) are two model ciliopathies where, despite the progress made in recent years, a clear pathological mechanism has not yet been established. (Forsythe and Beales, 2012; Forsythe et al., 2018; Hearn, 2018). ALMS is a monogenic recessive disease with an incidence of 1 in 1,000,000 individuals in the general population. To date, the only known causative gene is the *ALMS1* gene, which codes for a centrosome-associated protein, responsible for maintaining cohesion between the mother centriole and the daughter centriole (Collin et al., 2002; Hearn et al., 2005; Marshall et al., 2011). On the other hand, BBS is also an autosomal recessive disorder, with 23 causative genes described to date, named from *BBS1* to *BBS23*, being BBS1 the most prevalent gene with mutations in 23% of described cases (Forsythe and Beales, 2012; Forsythe et al., 2018). The main proteins of BBS, BBS1, BBS2, BBS4, BBS5, BBS7, BBS8, BBS9 and BBS18/BBSIP1, encode for an octameric protein complex called the BBSome involved in primary cilia transport (IFT), retrograde and anterograde (Klink et al., 2020; Singh et al., 2020). The clinical phenotypes of these two ciliopathies are overlapping, making their differentiation difficult and complicating the correct diagnosis (Aliferis et al., 2012). One of the main causes of death in adult patients with these syndromes is chronic kidney disease (CDK) (Li et al., 2007; Marshall et al., 2011; Putoux et al., 2012; Jaykumar et al., 2018; Waldman et al., 2018; Baig et al., 2020; Meyer et al., 2022). This disease is usually accompanied by inflammatory and fibrotic processes that

progressively degrade normal kidney function until eventually renal failure and death

occur (Meng et al., 2014).

The TGF-β pathway is one of the main pathways involved in fibrotic and inflammatory

processes at the cellular level (Lan, 2011; Finnson et al., 2020). It is related to the control

of several processes such as mitosis, apoptosis, cell migration or autophagy through

cross-signalling with other pathways such as MAPK, PI3K/AKT or SMADs (Massagué,

2012; Hamidi et al., 2017; Luo, 2017; Zhang et al., 2017; Gasior et al., 2019). In previous

studies in our laboratory, we have determined that *ALMS1* depletion leads to altered

signal transduction of the TGF-β pathway and other related pathways such as AKT or

p53 (Álvarez-Satta et al., 2021; Bea-Mascato et al., 2022b, 2022a), altering processes

such as cell migration or EMT. In this study, we apply an original approach based on

phospho-proteomics to delve into the regulation of the TGF-β pathway in ALMS and to

determine for the first time whether there are alterations in this pathway in BBS.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS:

## Cell culture and CRISPR knockouts:

The hTERT-BJ-5ta cell line, provided by the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC), was maintained in a medium composed of 4:1 of Dulbecco's minimal essential medium (DMEM, Gibco, Invitrogen, NY, USA) and Medium 199, Earle's Salts (Gibco, Invitrogen, NY, USA), supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Gibco, Invitrogen, NY, USA) and 2% penicillin/streptomycin (P/S) (Gibco, Invitrogen, NY, USA). In this study, a knockout model for the *BBS1* gene was generated **(Figure S1 A, B)** using 4 different sgRNAs **(Supplementary Table S1-2)** and a knockout (KO) model for the *ALMS1* gene previously generated in Bea-Mascato et al (Bea-Mascato et al., 2022b) was used. The methodology used in the generation of the *BBS1* model was the same as described in Bea-Mascato et al (Bea-Mascato et al., 2022b).

## TGF-β stimulation and protein extraction:

Cell lines were cultured in 150 mm dishes (Corning, NY, USA) until 90% confluence was reached and then serum starved for 24 hours. The following day, rhTGF-β1 ligand (R&D Systems; 240-B) was added to the plates at a final well concentration of 2ng/mL for 0 and 30 min. The plates were then washed 3 times with PBS and the cells were harvested in a volume of 1.5mL of PBS. They were then pelleted at 10000 rpm for 5 minutes in a Sigma® 1-14 K at 4°C. The PBS volume was removed from the tubes and the pellets were frozen at -80C until the experiment was continued.

Protein extraction was performed by adding 500μL of TEAB 100mM lysis buffer with 1% SDS (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, USA) to each sample. Samples were sonicated by giving five 5-second pulse intervals with a wave amplitude of 20% on a Branson ultra sonicator model 102C (Branson Ultrasonic, Connecticut, USA). They were then left to stand on ice for 10 minutes with moderate agitation. Finally, the cell debris was removed by centrifuging the samples for 30 minutes at 12000rpms in a Sigma® 1-14 K at 4°C. The supernatant from the tubes was transferred to low-binding tubes (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, USA) and stored at -80 degrees until the next step of the analysis.

119 Quantification of protein lysates was performed using the Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit
120 (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, USA).

## 121 Reduction, alkylation and precipitation:

Initially, samples were centrifugated at 16,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. Then, 600μg per
sample was transferred into a new 1.5 mL tube and adjusted to a final volume of 600μL
with 100mM TEAB buffer. Samples were divided into several tubes (200μL/tube). 10μL
of 200mM TCEP was added to each tube and incubated at 55°C for 1 hour. Then, 10μL
of 375mM iodoacetamide (IAA) was also added to the sample and incubated for 30
minutes protected from light at room temperature (RT). Finally, 6 volumes (1200μL) of
acetone pre-cooled to -20 degrees were added and left to precipitate overnight. The
next day the samples were centrifuged at 8000rpms for 12 min at 4°C, the acetone was
decanted off and the pellet was left to dry for 2-3 min.

## 131 Protein digestion and cleaning, TiO$_2$ enrichment,
## 132 TMT labelling and LC-MS/MS analysis:

Approximately 200μg of protein pellets precipitated in acetone were resuspended with
200 μL of 100mM TEAB buffer. Then 5μL (5μg) of trypsin was added per tube and
digested at 37°C overnight. The next day, 10 μL of 5% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) was
added to reduce the pH of the solution. Finally, peptide samples were cleaned up using
C18 desalting tips (Agilent OMIX 100 μL, SPE with pipette) and the pooled eluents with
speed-vac at 45°C. Phosphopeptide enrichment was performed using TiO$_2$ spin tips from
the High-SelectTM TiO$_2$ Phosphopeptide Enrichment Kit following the manufacturer's
protocol (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, USA). After enrichment, a further cleaning was
performed using C18 desalting tips.

Samples were resuspended in 50 μL of 100mM TEAB buffer and 20 μL of TMT label
reagent was added to each sample, using TMT10plex™ Isobaric Mass Tagging Kit
(Thermo Fisher, Waltham, USA). Samples were multiplexed and analyzed by LC-MS/MS
using a 90-minute gradient on Orbitrap Eclipse (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, USA) with a
method using CID-MSA for the identification of MS2 and a real-time search algorithm to
quantify reporters in MS3. As a quality control, the BSA controls were digested in parallel

and ran between each of their samples to avoid carryover and assess instrument
performance.

# Protein identification and differential phosphorylation analysis:

The identification of peptides/proteins was performed using the software Proteome
Discoverer software (v2.5) **(Supplementary Table S3-4)**. Samples were searched against
the SP_Human database (March 2021), using the search algorithm Mascot v2.6
(http://www.matrixscience.com/). Peptides have been filtered based on FDR and only
peptides showing an FDR lower than 5% have been retained. The peptides were grouped
into proteins with the default option of Proteome discovery (v2.5) and these were used
in the downstream analysis.

The proteins resulting from the identification were used for differential phosphorylation
analysis. Each multiplexed/batch (with and without stimulation of the TGF-β pathway)
was analysed individually with the R (v4.2.1) package DEP (Zhang et al., 2018). The data
was filtered to keep only the proteins that were quantified in all samples of at least one
condition. Subsequently, the normalization of the data by variance stabilizing
transformation (VSN) was performed. Finally, for data imputation, the MiniProb
algorithm was used with a q-value of 0.01. The log2 fold change (FC) of the differentially
phosphorylated proteins was calculated against the controls (WT) of the corresponding
batch for both knockouts (*ALMS1* and *BBS1*) **(Supplementary Table S5-6)**. For
downstream analyses, the differentially phosphorylated protein was that with a value
of $|log2FC| > 0.5$ and an FDR $< 0.05$.

# Network diffusion, enrichment analysis and protein-protein interaction analysis:

For network diffusion analysis, a graph covering the entire human interactome was
created with the R package, igraph (Csardi and Nepusz, 2006). The creation of the human
interactome was performed as follows. Initially, the human interactome was extracted
from the IntAct database (version: 4.2.17, last updated May 2021) (Orchard et al., 2014).

In addition, kinase-substrate interactions and kinase-kinase interactions contained in

PhosphoSitePlus (Orchard et al., 2014) (version 6.5.9.3, last update May 2021),

OmniPath (Türei et al., 2016) (last version May 2021) and SIGNOR 2.0 (Licata et al., 2020)

(last version May 2021) were integrated in this interactome. All proteins not annotated

in Swiss-Prot (UniProt, 2021) and those not annotated with at least one GO term (Gene

Ontology, 2021) were removed. The resulting protein interaction network (PIN)

comprised a total of 16,407 nodes and 238,035 edges. The weight of edges was defined

by the semantic similarity between gene pairs, modelled according to Topological

Clustering Semantic Similarity (TCSS) algorithm (Jain and Bader, 2010) and calculated

using the Semantic Measure Library (Harispe et al., 2014). The networks were

normalised to avoid hub bias using "correct.for.hubs" option in diffusR.

The differentially phosphorylated proteins detected in the previous step were used as

seed nodes in the interactome graph. These nodes were assigned the same weight and

a weight of 0 to the rest of the network. Finally, the random walk with restart (RWR)

algorithm (Tong et al., 2006; Köhler et al., 2008) was used through the R package diffusR

using a restart probability of 0.3, 10,000 iterations and a threshold of 1e-06. Nodes were

ordered by RWR score after diffusion, and the top 100 were used in downstream

analyses **(Supplementary Table S7-8)**.

The enrichment analysis was performed using the R package enrichR, an R interface for

accessing the enrichR database (Kuleshov et al., 2016). The differentially phosphorylated

proteins and the 100 nodes with the highest RWR scores were compared with the GO

Molecular Function 2021, GO Biological Process 2021, BioPlanet 2019, KEGG 2021

Human and MSigDB Hallmark 2020 datasets. Only the 20 processes with the lowest FDR

were considered using an FDR < 0.05 as a threshold.

Finally, a protein-protein interaction analysis was performed with the top 100 nodes

obtained after network diffusion using the STRING database (v 11.5)(Szklarczyk et al.,

2019). The results were visualised with the help of Cytoscape software (v 3.9.1)(Shannon

et al., 2003).

## RESULTS:

## *ALMS1* and *BBS1* depletion alters the phosphorylation of several proteins upon TGF-β1 ligand stimulation:

**Figure 1.** Experimental design of the phosphoproteome in basal and TGF-β-stimulated BJ-5ta. **(A)** Protocol followed for the generation of the phosphoproteomic datasets **(B)** Overlap between the proteins identified in Batch 1 (Basal) and Batch 2 (TGF-β).

The experiment was designed using two multiplexes of 10 samples each. All samples (20) were cultured without FBS 24 hours before the start of the experiment. The batch 1 contains all samples without TGF-β1 stimulation, while batch 2 contains all samples stimulated for 30 minutes with TGF-β1 **(Figure 1A-B)**. LC-MS/MS analysis identified a total of 2,720 phosphopeptides (1,406 proteins) in batch 1 (without stimulation) and 3,317 phosphopeptides (1,619 proteins) in batch 2 (with stimulation), 1076 common proteins were identified in both batches **(Figure 1B)**. Of the total peptides/proteins identified, 50-60% were quantified in all samples of at least one condition (731 proteins in batch 1 and 960 in batch 2) **(Figure S1 C-F)**.

**Figure 2.** Differential phosphorylation analysis showed alterations in protein activation after TGF-β stimulation. **(A)** Volcano-plot of differentially phosphorylated proteins (FDR < 0.05) in *BBS1* knockout before TGF-β stimulation **(B)** Volcano-plot of differentially phosphorylated proteins (FDR < 0.05) in *BBS1* knockout after TGF-β stimulation **(C)** Volcano-plot of differentially phosphorylated proteins (FDR < 0.05) in *ALMS1* knockout before TGF-β stimulation **(D)** Volcano-plot of differentially phosphorylated proteins (FDR < 0.05) in *ALMS1* knockout after TGF-β stimulation.

After differential phosphorylation analysis, no significant proteins were detected in batch 1 for *BBS1* knockout (BBS1KO) and 3 significant proteins were detected in the case of *ALMS1* knockout (ALMS1KO) **(Figure 2A-C)**. Results from batch 2 showed 41 significant proteins in BBS1KO and 10 in ALMS1KO **(Figure 2B-D)**.

# Network diffusion highlights the involvement of

*ALMS1* and *BBS1* in processes coordinated by the

TGF-β pathway:

**Figure 3.** Enrichment analysis after network diffusion reveals processes controlled by

TGF-β such as endocytosis, apoptosis, or extracellular matrix. **(A)** Over-representation

analysis (ORA) of differentially phosphorylated proteins in the *BBS1* knockout before

network diffusion. **(B)** Over-representation analysis (ORA) of top 100 most significant

proteins in the *BBS1* knockout after network diffusion. **(C)** Over-representation analysis

(ORA) of differentially phosphorylated proteins in the *ALMS1* knockout before network

diffusion. **(D)** Over-representation analysis (ORA) of top 100 most significant proteins in

the *ALMS1* knockout after network diffusion.

Differentially phosphorylated proteins after TGF-β1 stimulation were used for network

diffusion analysis. Subsequently, an over-representation analysis (ORA) was performed

to determine the cellular pathways and processes related to these proteins **(Figure 3)**.

Pre-diffusion ORA was performed using the differentially detected proteins after TGF-β

stimulation (only seed nodes). Random results were obtained with no relation to the

TGF-β pathway **(Figure 3A, C)**. On the other hand, the ORA after diffusion was performed

with the top 100 nodes with the highest RWR score **(methods)**. Obtaining processes

related to the TGF-β regulation of the extracellular matrix in the case of BBS1KO and

endocytosis and apoptosis in the case of ALMS1KO **(Figure 3B, D)**.

# Analysis of protein-protein interactions involves

# CDC42 and several RAB proteins in the alterations of

# TGF-β signalling in *ALMS1* and CDK2 in *BBS1*:

**Figure 4.** Protein-protein interaction analysis highlights CDK2 and DCAF7 as the central

nodes of the *BBS1* interactome and CDC42 as the central node of the *ALMS1*

interactome. Red nodes represent the differentially phosphorylated proteins that were

detected in the first analysis. Blue nodes represent the nodes inferred by the random

walk with restart (RWR) algorithm. **(A)** Interactome of the top 100 most significant

proteins after network diffusion in the *BBS1* knockout. **(B)** Interactome of the top 100

most significant proteins after network diffusion in the *ALMS1* knockout.

Using the top 100 most significant proteins obtained after network diffusion, an analysis

of protein-protein interactions was performed. In the case of BBS1KO, CDK2 (seed

node), a key regulator of the cell cycle, was one of the most interconnected nodes,

highlighting its central role in this interactome. Another notable protein in BBS1KO was

*DCAF7*, one of the most interconnected of the inferred nodes **(Figure 4A)**. On the other

hand, in the case of ALMS1KO, CDC42, a key regulator of cell cycle and migration

processes, was found to be one of the most interconnected nodes in the network,

highlighting its central role in the deregulated interactome of this model. It also

highlights the highly interconnected cluster of RAB proteins such as RAB11 and RAB8

that play an important role in endocytosis **(Figure 4B)**.

# DISCUSSION:

The TGF-β pathway is one of the main signalling pathways regulated by the primary cilium (Clement et al., 2013; Pedersen et al., 2016; Christensen et al., 2017; Anvarian et al., 2019). It controls processes related to cell proliferation and migration and is associated with several pathologies such as liver or kidney fibrosis, recurrent phenotypes in ciliopathies (Zhang et al., 2017; Guan et al., 2021; McConnachie et al., 2021). Despite this, few studies have attempted to link ciliary gene dysfunction with signalling alterations in the TGF-β pathway (Mönnich et al., 2018; Álvarez-Satta et al., 2021; Bea-Mascato et al., 2022b). In this study, we have applied phosphoproteomics to determine alterations in the TGF-β signalling pathway in two model ciliopathies, ALMS and BBS. We have further elucidated the regulation of the TGF-β pathway in ALMS and established for the first time the link between the TGF-β pathway and BBS (Álvarez-Satta et al., 2021; Bea-Mascato et al., 2022b).

Phosphoproteomics is an approach that allows the global analysis of the activation of the cellular interactome. However, like any novel technique, it has several limitations, since the phosphoproteome is estimated at 30% of the total proteome and current enrichment techniques have a recovery of 1-3% of the total amount of starting sample (Low et al., 2021; Urban, 2022). The first limitation is due to a large amount of starting material needed to obtain the first data. The recommended starting material required is usually a minimum of 600μg-1mg of protein lysate (Solari et al., 2015). This is affordable when working with cell culture, but very complicated when working with tissue samples. This makes it necessary to develop techniques that increase the enrichment yield and allow the use of less starting material. Phosphoproteomics data are usually scarce and noisy, requiring the development of statistical techniques and analysis methodologies that allow robust inference from the data initially obtained (Solari et al., 2015). Furthermore, the nature of the data generated by current phosphoproteomics techniques introduces a bias in that kinases have only been identified from less than 5% of the phosphoproteome, and functional assignments of phosphosites are almost negligible (Needham et al., 2019). Currently, 90% of the phosphorylation sites have been assigned to 20% of the kinases, resulting in more than

150 kinases that do not have a single known substrate (Needham et al., 2019). This has

been named the dark phosphoproteome.

In this article, we designed and applied a pipeline that allowed us to obtain a global view

of the processes altered in the TGF-β pathway by inhibiting two ciliary genes, *ALMS1* and

*BBS1*. In the case of *ALMS1*, we found that the altered processes were mainly related to

endocytosis and apoptosis. The role of *ALMS1* in endocytotic and apoptosis processes

has already been established in the past (Zulato et al., 2011; Collin et al., 2012; Leitch et

al., 2014; Jaykumar et al., 2018; Bea-Mascato et al., 2022b). However, this is the first

time that these alterations in endocytosis and apoptosis could be related to the TGF-β

signalling pathway affecting the activation of RAB11FIP5 (seed node) and other related

proteins such as RAB8A and RAB11B (inferred nodes) among others. In addition, the

relationship of CDC42 in this interactome has also been established through CDC42EP3,

a CDC42 effector protein that is under-phosphorylated in the differentially

phosphorylated proteins detected in the differential analysis. CDC42 plays a key role in

cell polarity and regulation of mitosis (Witte et al., 2017; Moran et al., 2019; Rich-

Robinson et al., 2021). CDC42EP3 acts downstream of CDC42 and regulates the

rearrangement of the actin and septin cytoskeleton (Farrugia and Calvo, 2016). Cell cycle

disorders and cytoskeleton alterations are common phenotypes in *ALMS1*-depleted

cells, so a dysfunction of CDC42 and CDC42EP3 could be a possible cause of them (Zulato

et al., 2011; Collin et al., 2012; Shenje et al., 2014; Bea-Mascato et al., 2022b).

*BBS1* gene inhibition altered the phosphorylation of 41 proteins after TGF-β stimulation.

Following network diffusion, these proteins were found to be mainly involved in the

regulation of the extracellular matrix *via* the TGF-β pathway. Alterations of TGF-β

signalling have already been described when inhibiting other ciliary genes such as

*ALMS1* or *CEP128*, but never for the *BBS1* gene (Mönnich et al., 2018; Álvarez-Satta et

al., 2021; Bea-Mascato et al., 2022b). The main nodes of the interactome obtained from

the phosphoproteome were the *DCAF7*, *CDK2* and PDGFRA genes. In the case of *DCAF7*,

this gene acts by up-regulating *EDN1* and *GLI1* (Morita et al., 2006; Nissen et al., 2006).

In fibroblasts, *EDN1* is involved in the regulation of proliferative and fibrosis processes

related to diseases such as chronic kidney disease (CKD) (Arfian et al., 2020; Zhang et al.,

2020), while *GLI1* is one of the main transcription factors regulating signalling through

the SHh pathway (Dahmane et al., 1997; Lee et al., 1997). Moreover, SHh/GLI1 axis is implicated in EMT-mediated migration regulation and *GLI1* can be regulated by the SMAD-dependent TGF-β pathway in a non-canonical manner (Dennler et al., 2007; Peng et al., 2019). CDK2 and PDGFRA appear under-phosphorylated, as these two proteins regulate key processes such as mitosis and cell proliferation, a first indication that the lack of *BBS1* prevents cells from proliferating properly by stimulating the TGF-β pathway (Elling et al., 2011; Spencer et al., 2013; Li et al., 2018).

# CONCLUSION:

In conclusion, the depletion of ciliary genes such as *ALMS1* and *BBS1* alters signal transduction through the TGF-β pathway, altering processes such as endocytosis and apoptosis in the case of *ALMS1* and the regulation of the extracellular matrix in the case of *BBS1*. These phenomena could be explained by alterations affecting the inhibition of CDCD42 in the case of *ALMS1* or CDK2 and DCAF7 in the case of *BBS1*.

**Author Contributions:** BB-M, DV designed the study. BB-M performed the experiments and analysis. EP led the design of the analysis pipeline for differential phosphorylation and network diffusion. GG and IP-S supervised and assisted in the analysis. CS performed the screening and characterisation of clones for the *BBS1* KO model. All authors wrote the manuscript and provided approval for publication.

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