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 determine which processes were deregulated in TGF-β pathway. Finally, we have analysed protein-protein and kinase-substrate interactions to prioritise candidate genes in the regulation of the TGF-β pathway in ALMS and BBS.

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 algorithm, we were able to identify the TGF-β signalling pathway together with other related processes such as endocytosis in the case of *ALMS1* or the regulation of the extracellular matrix 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 pathogenic variants in 23% of described cases (Forsythe and Beales, 2012; Forsythe et al., 2018; Perea-Romero et al., 2022). 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

phosphoproteomics 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.

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

Reduction, alkylation and precipitation

Initially, samples were centrifuged 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.

Protein digestion and cleaning, TiO$_2$ enrichment, 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 false discovery
rate (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
normalization (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 signalome 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 raw PIN was normalised
to avoid hub bias using "correct.for.hubs" option in diffusR.

The differentially phosphorylated proteins detected in the "*Protein identification and
differential phosphorylation analysis*" section, 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 sorted by RWR
score after diffusion, and to ensure at least 10% real (not inferred) data, the top 100
were used in subsequent 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 and BioPlanet 2019 datasets in
independent enrichment analysis. Only the 20 processes with the lowest FDR were
considered using an FDR < 0.05 as a threshold.

The protein-protein interaction results obtained after network diffusion for the top 100
proteins was visualised with the help of Cytoscape software (v 3.9.1) (Shannon et al.,
2003).

Lastly, a kinase-substrate enrichment analysis (KSEA) was performed using the KEA3
web application (Kuleshov et al., 2021). The 100 proteins with the highest RWR score

were used as input. Both rows and columns of the graph were clustered using rank by

sum to obtain the top substrate and top kinase in the first row and column of the

heatmap.

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).

To identify whether TGF-beta signalling was affected in the ALMS1 and BBS1 knockout cells and discover potentially new processes, we performed global phosphoproteomics in the presence and absence of TGF-β1 stimulation **(methods)**. The experiment was designed using two multiplexes of 10 samples each. 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)**. We identified a total of 2,720 phosphopeptides (1,406 proteins) in batch 1 (samples without stimulation) and 3,317 phosphopeptides (1,619 proteins) in batch 2 (samples 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

228 in batch 2) **(Figure S1 C-F)**.

Figure 2. Differential phosphorylation analysis showed alterations in protein activation after TGF-β stimulation. Labelled proteins have an FDR < 0.01. **(A)** Volcano-plot of differentially phosphorylated proteins (DPP; FDR < 0.05) in *BBS1* knockout before TGF-β stimulation **(B)** Volcano-plot of DPP in *BBS1* knockout after TGF-β stimulation **(C)** Volcano-plot of DPP in *ALMS1* knockout before TGF-β stimulation **(D)** Volcano-plot of DPP 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 differentially phosphorylated proteins (DPP) were detected in the case of *ALMS1* knockout (ALMS1KO) **(Figure 2A-C)**. Results from

239 batch 2 showed 41 DPP in BBS1KO and 10 in ALMS1KO **(Figure 2B-D)**. Of the total DPPs

240 detected in the cell models, 4 were common among them, 3 of them were infra-

241 phosphorylated (EHBP1, CDC42EP3, RPL27A) while 1 (SLC38A1) was over-

242 phosphorylated.

Network diffusion highlights the involvement of *ALMS1* and *BBS1* in processes coordinated by the TGF-β pathway

Figure 3. Over-representation analysis (ORA) after network diffusion reveals processes

controlled by TGF-β such as endocytosis, mitosis, or extracellular matrix in Bioplanet DB.

(A) ORA of DPP in the *BBS1*KO before network diffusion. **(B)** ORA of top 100 proteins

with the highest RWR score in the *BBS1*KO after network diffusion. **(C)** ORA of DPP in the

*ALMS1*KO before network diffusion. **(D)** ORA of top 100 proteins with the highest RWR

score in the *ALMS1*KO after network diffusion.

Then, we performed a pathway enrichment analysis **(methods)** to identify the processes

that are most affected by *ALMS1* and *BBS1* depletion after TGF-β stimulation **(Figure 3)**.

Pre-diffusion ORA was performed using the DPP after TGF-β stimulation (only seed

nodes). Due to the small number of proteins and the low signal-to-noise ratio of

phosphoproteomics, we were unable to identify the TGF-β pathway, which serves as a

control of the analysis **(Figure 3A, C)**. To improve the signal-to-noise ration from our

DPP, we applied a network diffusion-based analysis **(methods)**. The ORA after diffusion

was performed with the top 100 proteins with the highest RWR score **(Figure 3B, D)**. In

this case, we obtained TGF-β in both KO cell models. In addition, processes related to

TGF-β regulation such as mitosis, NOTHC1, p53 or SHh signalling in the case of *BBS1KO*

and endocytosis or Syndecan4 in the case of *ALMS1KO* were also identified **(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 as the central node of the

BBS1 interactome and CDC42EP3 as the central node of the *ALMS1* interactome. Red

nodes represent the DPP that were detected in the first analysis. Blue nodes represent

the nodes inferred by RWR algorithm. **(A)** Interactome of the top 100 proteins with the

highest RWR score after network diffusion in the *BBS1KO*. **(B)** Interactome of the top

100 proteins with the highest RWR score after network diffusion in the *ALMS1KO*.

Using the top 100 proteins with the highest RWR score, 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 **(Figure 4A)**. On the other hand, in the case of *ALMS1KO*, CDC42EP3

a direct effector of CDC42, 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 RAB8A, resulted by EHBP1, that play an

important role in endocytosis **(Figure 4B)**.

Kinase-substrate enrichment analysis uncovers CDK2 and CDC42 as the most phosphorylated substrates

To determine which DPP were subject to the highest level of up-regulation, a KSEA was

performed with the top 100 with the highest RWR score. The proteins (substrates)

subject to the highest level of up-regulation were again CDK2 in the case of *BBS1* and

CDC42 in the case of *ALMS1* **(Figure 5A-B)**. The main kinases regulating the selected

subset of proteins were AKT1 in *BBS1* and CDK2 in the case of *ALMS1* **(Figure 5A-B)**. This

shows that the observed alterations have commonalities but appear to differ in their

regulation.

BBS1KO

ALMS1KO

Figure 5. KSEA highlights CDK2 in *BBS1* and CDC42 in *ALMS1* as the main substrates subject to regulation. **(A)** KSEA of the top 100 proteins (substrates) with the highest RWR score after network diffusion in the *BBS1KO*. **(B)** KSEA of the top 100 proteins (substrates) with the highest RWR score after network diffusion in the *ALMS1KO*. The

299 plots only show the 20 most up-regulated proteins (substrates) out of the initial 100

300 proteins used in the analysis.

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

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 mitosis (*via* the Syndecan 4 signalling pathway, responsible for

cytokinesis) (Keller-Pinter et al., 2010). The role of *ALMS1* in endocytotic and mitotic

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 mitosis could be related to the

TGF-β signalling pathway affecting the activation of RAB11FIP5 and EHBP1 (seed nodes)

and other related proteins such as RAB8A and RAB11B (inferred nodes) among others

(Rai et al., 2020; Solinger et al., 2020). 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 **(Figures 4B, 2D)**. The significance of CDC42 has also been

determined by KSEA **(Figure 5B)**. 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). Inhibition of CDC42EP3 and EHBP1 in

*BBS1*KO could indicate commonalities in regulation between *ALMS1* and *BBS1*, so that

the alterations detailed above could also be present when BBS1 is inhibited.

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; cross-signalling with other

pathways such as p53, NOTCH1 or SHh and transport of cation ions (Ca^{2+} or Na^+) **(Figure**

3B). 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). Some of the main nodes of

the BBS1 interactome and KSEA were SYNPO2, CDK2 and PDGFRA proteins. SYNPO2,

which is over-phosphorylated, encodes actin binding proteins that has been

characterized as a tumor suppressor (OuYang et al., 2021). It is considered a protein with

inhibitory capacity on cell migration and proliferation (OuYang et al., 2021). On the

other hand, CDK2 and PDGFRA, which appear under-phosphorylated, are key regulators

of mitosis and cell proliferation (Elling et al., 2011; Spencer et al., 2013; Li et al., 2018).

Thus, the lack of BBS1 seems to prevent proper TGF-B-mediated proliferation. Our data

do not allow us to conclude the existence of a compensatory mechanism via another

pathway.

The main limitations of this study are related to the use of in vitro models, which often

do not fully reproduce patient phenotypes. For this reason, these results need to be

validated in primary samples or animal models to determine whether the alterations

described are conserved processes.

On the other hand, phosphoproteomics is an approach that allows the global analysis of

the activation of the cellular interactome. However, like any 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).

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

mitosis in the case of *ALMS1* and the regulation of the extracellular matrix, p53,

NOTCH1, SHh and transport of cation ions in the case of *BBS1*. These phenomena could

be explained by alterations affecting the inhibition of CDCD42 in the case of *ALMS1* or

CDK2 in the case of *BBS1*.

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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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