Loss of Bbs8 leads to cystic kidney disease in mice and affects tubulin acetylation through HDAC2

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Abstract

Bardet-Biedl Syndrome (BBS) is a genetic disorder marked by considerable genetic and phenotypic

diversity. BBS often presents as a combination of retinitis pigmentosa, obesity, polydactyly, and cystic

kidney disease and is considered a model ciliopathy. The syndrome is caused by pathogenic variants in

BBS genes, some of which encode components of a ciliary multi-protein complex, known as the

BBSome, as well as a chaperonin-like complex, which is required for BBSome assembly. In this study,

we describe the occurrence of kidney cysts in a BBS mouse model. Specifically, loss of BBS8 led to the

development of cystic kidney disease by the end of the first year of life. In addition to transcriptional

changes of key genes involved in regulated cell death and inflammation, proteomic approaches

revealed increased expression and altered phosphorylation of histone deacetylase HDAC2 in knockout

kidneys. Consistently, loss of *Bbs8* resulted in a reduction of acetylated alpha-tubulin in primary cilia.

This leads to diminished stability and altered dynamics of primary cilia, potentially contributing to the

formation of cystic kidneys and other BBS manifestations previously described in *Bbs8* deficient mice.

Introduction

The primary cilium is a specialized microtubule-based sensory organelle that extends from the surface

of most mammalian cells (Pazour and Bloodgood, 2008). It consists of the axoneme, ensheathed by

the ciliary membrane, the transition zone and the basal body, which anchors the cilium to the cell

body. The transition zone, located between the basal body and the main ciliary shaft, is critical for

protein trafficking to and from the ciliary compartment (Reiter, Blacque and Leroux, 2012; Garcia-

Gonzalo and Reiter, 2017). Stringent regulation of the protein composition is required for cilia to

function as a hub for chemo- and mechano-transduction, as well as signaling (Reiter, Blacque and

Leroux, 2012) and as such, primary cilia play a pivotal role in modulating various signaling pathways,

e.g. Hedgehog, Wnt, and TGF-β signaling (Fan and Tessier-Lavigne, 1994; Munsterberg *et al.*, 1995;

Pourquié *et al.*, 1996). Unlike any other organelle, cilia periodically disappear during the mitotic cell

cycle: When cells re-enter mitosis, cilia are typically disassembled to subsequently release the basal

body, a modified mother centriole, to serve as microtubule organizing centers at the spindle poles.

Disassembly of cilia mechanistically involves the deacetylation and thus destabilization of microtubules

among others (Pugacheva *et al.*, 2007; Gopalakrishnan *et al.*, 2023). It is well established that

pathogenetic variants in proteins, which alter the structure or function of cilia, lead to a heterogeneous

group of genetic diseases and syndromes referred to as ciliopathies (Hildebrandt, Benzing and

Katsanis, 2011). Ciliopathies comprise a diverse group of genetic disorders with overlapping

manifestations in different organs and tissues, such as the brain, eye, skeleton, liver, vasculature and

kidney (Forsythe and Beales, 2013; Reiter and Leroux, 2017). Thereby, cystic and fibrotic kidney disease

is a common occurrence among many ciliopathies, leading to the frequent classification of a significant

subgroup, namely the renal ciliopathies (Hildebrandt and Zhou, 2007; McConnachie, Stow and Mallett,
2021).

The Bardet-Biedl-Syndrome (Bardet, 1995; Biedl, 1995; Laurence and Moon, 1995) is an archetypical
autosomal-recessive ciliopathy characterized by obesity, retinopathy, polydactyly and kidney disease
(Forsythe and Beales, 2013). This syndrome is caused by mutations in BBS genes leading to
pathogenetic variants of BBS proteins. BBS proteins can be classified according to the particular protein
complex they are part of. The so called BBSome complex (Nachury *et al.*, 2007; Loktev *et al.*, 2008)
(BBS1, BBS2, BBS4, BBS5, BBS7, BBS8, BBS9, BBS18) is required for trafficking of ciliary membrane
proteins. The 2nd group of BBS proteins build the chaperonin-like complex (BBS6, BBS10 and BBS12),
which catalyzes the assembly of the BBSome (Seo *et al.*, 2010). The remaining BBS proteins have
varying specific functions but are ultimately thought to influence ciliary trafficking.

Studies on various *Bbs* mutant mice, including *Bbs1^{M390R}* transgenic, *Bbs2$^{-/-}$*, *Bbs4$^{-/-}$*, *Bbs5$^{-/-}$*, *Bbs6$^{-/-}$*,
Bbs8$^{-/-}$ and *Bbs10$^{-/-}$*, revealed significant parallels to human disease. These mice exhibit a broad
spectrum of vision impairment, obesity, male fertility impairment, and neurological deficits (Kulaga *et*
al., 2004; Mykytyn *et al.*, 2004; Nishimura *et al.*, 2004; Fath *et al.*, 2005; Davis *et al.*, 2007; Rahmouni
et al., 2008; Seo *et al.*, 2009; Cognard *et al.*, 2015; Bentley-Ford *et al.*, 2021). For BBS10, total body
knockout resulted in renal abnormalities primarily affecting glomeruli and podocytes without any cyst
formation, while a tubular epithelial cell-specific knockout did not show any overt phenotype (Cognard
et al., 2015). Cyst formation has been observed in *Bbs2$^{-/-}$* and *Bbs4$^{-/-}$* mice, but again primarily affecting
glomeruli (Nishimura *et al.*, 2004; Guo *et al.*, 2011). Loss of *Bbs8* has so far shown to cause the most
severe retinal phenotype in mice (Tadenev *et al.*, 2011; Dilan *et al.*, 2018; Schneider *et al.*, 2021), which
is not only caused by ciliary defects of photoreceptor cells themselves but also due to ciliary defects in
the adjacent retinal pigmental epithelial cells (RPE) (Kretschmer *et al.*, 2019, 2023; Schneider *et al.*,
2021). The severity of *Bbs8* loss is likely due to the fact that BBS8 is one of the key components of the
BBSome. BBS8 (TTC8) is a tetratricopeptide repeat (TPR) protein with a critical role in planar cell
polarity and laterality (May-Simera *et al.*, 2010, 2015). Loss of *Bbs8* leads to changes in the composition
of the octameric BBSome complex, where BBS8 is a direct interactor of the scaffold protein BBS9
(Zhang *et al.*, 2012).

Until now, research into BBS8's function has predominantly focused on embryonic development and
ocular health, leaving its specific role in cilia maintenance within the kidney and in preserving kidney
architecture and function largely unexplored. In this study, we report on tubular cystic and fibrotic
kidney disease in adult mice deficient in *Bbs8*. We further provide evidence for cell death and
inflammation in these kidneys. An unbiased proteomic analysis of kidney tissue revealed alterations in
protein expression and phosphorylation, including increased levels of HDAC2, which we also found to

co-precipitate with BBS8. Increased HDAC2 levels upon loss of *Bbs8* also resulted in deacetylation of

ciliary microtubules and impaired ciliary stability, which we suggest might be contributing to BBS

pathomechanisms.

Methods

Mouse lines

Bbs8^{-/-} mice have been previously described (Tadenev *et al.*, 2011). All animals were housed and

handled, and animal studies conducted, in accordance with approved institutional animal care and use

committee procedures. All experiments had ethical approval from the Landesuntersuchungsamt

Rheinland-Pfalz and were performed in accordance with institutional guidelines for animal welfare,

German animal protection law and the guidelines given by the ARVO Statement for the Use of Animals

in Ophthalmic and Vision Research. Animal maintenance and handling were performed in line with the

Federation for Laboratory Animal Science Associations (FELASA) recommendations. Animals were

housed in a 12 h light/dark cycle with food and water available ad libitum. For the preparation, mice

were weighted, followed by cervical dislocation; blood was collected prior to the perfusion of the

kidney with PBS through the aorta. Further, other organs and fat tissue were taken and, as the kidney,

processed by fixation in 4 % formaldehyde and embedded in paraffin as well as snap-frozen for further

tissue analysis. The blood was incubated for 2 h at RT, followed by centrifugation. Serum creatinine

levels were measured by the Institute of Clinical Chemistry, University Hospital of Cologne, Germany.

Immunohistology

For histological analysis, tissue was cut into 2-μm-thick sections and deparaffinized by xylene

treatment and rehydration in graded ethanol. For PAS staining the sections were stained with 0,9 %

periodic acid (cat# 3257.1, Roth) and Schiffsches Reagent (cat#1.09033, Merck) both for 10 min

embedded into washing steps with H_2O. Finally, to visualize nuclei in blue, the samples were stained

with Mayer's Haematoxylin for 20 s. For the Masson staining the Masson-Goldner's trichrome staining

kit (cat#3459, Roth) was used and performed according to the manufacturer instructions. After

dehydration of the sections, they were embedded with Histomount (HS-103, National Diagnostics).

Isolation and Immortalization of mouse embryonic fibroblasts

For the isolation of mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs), timed matings were set-up with one male

and two females of the desired genotype. At day 13, the pregnant mouse was anesthetized using

isoflurane (Piramal Healthcare) followed by a cervical dislocation. The lower abdomen was opened by

an abdominal incision to extract the two uterine horns. Embryos were isolated, transferred into a 24-

well plate filled with PBS, and the head and the red organs (heart and liver) were removed. The rest of

the embryo was placed into a 12-well plate filled with 2 ml ice-cold 0.25 % Trypsin/PBS (diluted from

2.5 % Trypsin, Gibco). The embryos were chopped into small pieces and incubated overnight at 4 °C.

Then, the trypsin solution was discarded and the remaining Trypsin/tissue mixture was incubated for

30 min in a 37 °C water bath. Afterwards of medium (composition: DMEM/Glutamax, 10 % FCS, 1 %

sodium pyruvate (100x), 1 % Pen Strep), was added, and the cell suspension was pipetted vigorously

up and down to break up the digested tissue into a single cell suspension. After 1 min to allow

sedimentation of the remaining tissue, the cell suspension was transferred into a new tube. This step

was repeated and afterwards, the cell suspension was filtered through a 100 µm cell-strainer (Corning).

Cells were plated and after 24 h, the medium was changed. Immortalization of MEFs was performed

as described previously (Todaro and Green, 1963). Briefly, cells are split every three days and seeded

with the same cell density. From passage three onwards, cells were seeded on at least two 10 cm

culture dishes. After around 15 passages, cells started to regrow. When MEFs were immortalized,

frozen back-ups were made.

Cell culture

Human embryonic kidney 293T cells (HEK293T, ATCC®) as well as wildtype and *Bbs8*^{-/-} mouse

embryonic fibroblasts were cultivated at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Thereby HEK293T cells were maintained in

DMEM + GlutaMAX™ medium (Gibco™) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Gibco™) and

MEFs in DMEM/F-12 + GlutaMAX™ medium (Gibco™) complemented with 10% FBS and 1% penicillin-

streptomycin. All cell lines were tested negative for mycoplasma (PCR Mycoplasma Test Kit I/C,

PromoKine). To induce ciliogenesis, cells were grown in serum-free media for 24 h. HEK293T cell

transfection was performed with 2x HEBS and 0.25 M CaCl2, thereby 5 µg (IP) or 6 µg (Interactome) of

the F.hBBS8 pcDNA6 was used and as control, 5 µg (IP) or 6 µg (Interactome) F.EPS[1-225] pcDNA6 as

negative control protein.

Co-Immunoprecipitation

Co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) was performed as previously described (Habbig *et al.*, 2011) using the

IP Buffer (20 mM Tris, 1% (v/v) TritonX-100, 50 mM NaCl, 15 mM $Na_4P_2O_7$, 50 mM NaF, pH 7.5)

supplemented with inhibitors (44 µg/µl PMSF, 2 mM Na_3VO_4). Input samples were collected, and the

remaining samples were incubated with anti-FLAG M2 Beads (A2220, Sigma-Aldrich) for 2 h. Samples

were lysed in 2x Laemmli (beads) and 1x Laemmli (input). For proteomic analysis, the IP Buffer was

supplemented with cOmplete™ Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche). Samples were ultracentrifugated

(45.000 rpm, 45 min, and 4°C) before being lysed with 80% SDS in PBS. Subsequently, samples were

reduced with 10 mM dithiothreitol and alkylated 40 mM chloroacetamide.

 Immunofluorescence, Immunochemistry and TUNEL staining

The kidney tissue staining of 4 μm (cilia staining) and 2 μm (other stainings) fixed sections were
performed as previously described (Dafinger *et al.*, 2021). The primary antibodies (NF-kB, #8242 Cell
Signaling, 1:1000; CD3, MCA-1477 Biorad, 1:100; acetylated Tubulin, T6793 Sigma, 1:1000; Slc12a3,
HPA028748, Sigma Aldrich, 1:500; ARL13B, 17711-1-AP ProteinTech, 1:500) were incubated overnight
at 4°C, followed by incubation with secondary antibodies. For immunochemistry, the DBA kit (K3468
DAKO, 30 min for NF-kB; SK-4105 Vector, 5 min for CD3) was used and samples counterstained with
Hematoxylin. For immunofluorescence, fluorophore-coupled antibodies (Jackson ImmunoResearch,
1:500: anti-mouse-Cy5, # 715-175-150; anti-rabbit A647, 711-605-152; anti-mouse-Cy3, 715-165-150;
and FITC-Lotus Tetragonolobus Lectin (LTL), FL-1321-2; Vector laboratories, 1:500) were used for 1 h
at RT, samples were mounted after a short incubation of Hoechst 33342 (ThermoFisher Scientific,
1:5000) with ProLong™ Diamond (ThermoFisher Scientific). The DeadEnd™ Fluorometric TUNEL
System (Promega) was performed following the manufacturer's instructions, with the exception that
the samples were mounted, with a pre-incubation of Hoechst with ProLong™ Diamond. MEFs were
cultured on glass coverslips until confluent. Cells were fixed with 4% PFA for 10 min and washed with
1x PBS. Samples were quenched with 50 mM NH_4Cl for 10 min, before permeabilisation with 0,3% PBS-
TritonX-100 for 20 min. Antibodies were diluted in Fish-Block (0.1 % (w/v) ovalbumin, 0.5 % (w/v) fish
gelatine, in PBS), supplemented with 0,3% TritonX-100. The primary antibody (ARL13B 1:800;
acetylated Tubulin, 1:800) were incubated overnight at 4°C followed by the secondary antibodies (anti-
rabbit 488, A11034 Invitrogen, 1:400; anti-mouse 555, A31570, Invitrogen, 1:400; DAPI, Roth, 1:400).
Finally, coverslips were mounted with Fluoromount-G (ThermoFisher, 00-4958-02) and imaged with
the Leica microscope CTR6000, with DM6000B Laser and DFC360FX camera. MEF cell images were
deconvoluted with the Leica imaging software LASX. Cilia number and length were determined with
the open-source Fiji software.

Cyst index analysis

The cyst index was calculated for whole slide images using open-source software for bioimage analysis
QuPath (v0.4.0) (Bankhead *et al.*, 2017). Cysts were detected using an Artificial Neural Network-based
pixel classifier. Initially detected cysts were filtered for the minimal area of 400 μm² and a minimum
circularity value of 0.35. Plots were generated using the Plots of Data web app (Postma and
Goedhartid, 2019). For statistical analysis, all results were normalized to the control followed by a two-
tailed Student's t-test ($p<0.05$).

Immunoblotting

Confluent grown MEF cells were starved 24 h prior to harvest with 200 µl RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris HCl, 150 mM NaCl, 1% (v/v) NP-4O, 0.5% (w/v) Sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% (w/v) SDS), supplemented with 1% Halt Protease and Phosphatase Inhibitor Cocktail (Thermo Scientific™) (Brücker *et al.*, 2023). Cells were lysed on ice and sonicated for 2 s. Protein concentration of lysates was determined and 70 µg protein was loaded onto a 10% SDS-PAGE and subsequently transferred to a PVDF-FL membrane (Millipore). Membranes were incubated overnight at 4°C in primary antibodies (Flag, F7425, Sigma-Aldrich, 1:1000; HDAC2, ab32117 Abcam, 1:1000; acetylated Tubulin, T6793 Sigma, 1:1000; Calnexin, 10427-2 AP ProteinTech, 1:1000). Secondary antibodies were incubated for 1 h at RT (Li-COR Biosciences IRDye680 and IRDye800 1:10.000: rb680, 925-68073; mm680, 925-68072; rb800, 925-32213). Signals were visualized using the Odyssey Infrared Imaging System 2800 (Li-COR).

Phospho- and proteome analysis

For each biological replicate a quarter of kidney tissue was used and dounced with a Wheaton Dounce tissue grinder in urea buffer (8 M Urea, 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate) supplemented with Halt protease-phosphatase-inhibitor cocktail (Thermo Scientific™). After clearing of the sample (16.000 xg, 1 h at 4°C), the lysates were reduced (10 mM dithiothreitol), alkylated (50 mM chloroacetamide) and digested (LysC; 1:75). Samples (800 µg) were diluted to 2 M urea and subjected to tryptic digestion (1:50). After overnight incubation, phosphoenrichment was performed in the CECAD proteomics facility using the Thermo Scientific™ Kit High Select TiO2 Kit (#A32993). All samples were analyzed as well by the CECAD proteomics facility on a Q Exactive Plus Orbitrap mass spectrometer that was coupled to an EASY nLC (both Thermo Scientific™). Peptides were loaded with solvent A (0.1% formic acid in water) onto an in-house packed analytical column (50 cm, 75 µm inner diameter, filled with 2.7 µm Poroshell EC120 C18, Agilent). Peptides were chromatographically separated at a constant flow rate of 250 nL/min using the following gradient: 3-5% solvent B (0.1% formic acid in 80 % acetonitrile) within 1.0 min, 5-30% solvent B within 121.0 min, 30-40% solvent B within 19.0 min, 40-95% solvent B within 1.0 min, followed by washing and column equilibration. The mass spectrometer was operated in data-dependent acquisition mode. The MS1 survey scan was acquired from 300-1750 m/z at a resolution of 70,000. The top 10 most abundant peptides were isolated within a 1.8 Th window and subjected to HCD fragmentation at a normalized collision energy of 27%. The AGC target was set to 5e5 charges, allowing a maximum injection time of 55 ms. Product ions were detected in the Orbitrap at a resolution of 17,500. Precursors were dynamically excluded for 25.0 s. All mass spectrometric raw data were processed with MaxQuant (Tyanova, Temu and Cox, 2016) (version 2.2.0.0) using default parameters against the UniProt canonical murine database (UP10090, downloaded 20.01.2023) with the match-between-runs option enabled between replicates. Samples were sorted into two parameter

groups, either containing the enriched or non-enriched samples. Enriched samples had the phosphorylation (STY) variable modification added, whereas non-enriched samples were quantified by LFQ. A follow-up analysis was done in Perseus 1.6.15 (Tyanova *et al.*, 2016). Results were cleaned up by removing hits from the decoy database, the contaminant list and, in case of non-enriched fractions, those only identified by modified peptides were removed. Afterwards, results were filtered for data completeness in at least one condition and LFQ values (WP) or intensities (PP), imputed using sigma downshift with standard settings. Finally, FDR-controlled two-sided t-tests between sample groups were performed (S0=0, FDR≤0.05) as well as a 1D enrichment using Perseus (version 1.6.15.0).

Interactome

Samples were analyzed by the CECAD Proteomics Facility on an Orbitrap Exploris 480 (Thermo Scientific, granted by the German Research Foundation under INST 1856/71-1 FUGG) mass spectrometer equipped with a FAIMSpro differential ion mobility device that was coupled to an Vanquish neo in trap-and-elute setup (Thermo Scientific). Samples were loaded onto a precolumn (Acclaim 5µm PepMap 300 µ Cartridge) with a flow of 60 µl/min before reverse-flushed onto an in-house packed analytical column (30 cm length, 75 µm inner diameter, filled with 2.7 µm Poroshell EC120 C18, Agilent). Peptides were chromatographically separated with an initial flow rate of 400 nL/min and the following gradient: initial 2% B (0.1% formic acid in 80 % acetonitrile), up to 6 % in 3 min. Then, flow was reduced to 300 nl/min and B increased to 20% B in 26 min, up to 35% B within 15 min and up to 98% solvent B within 1.0 min while again increasing the flow to 400 nl/min, followed by column wash with 98% solvent B and re-equilibration to initial condition. The FAIMS pro was operated at -50V compensation voltage and electrode temperatures of 99.5 °C for the inner and 85 °C for the outer electrode. The mass spectrometer was operated in data-dependent acquisition top 24 mode with MS1 scans acquired from 350 m/z to 1400 m/z at 60k resolution and an AGC target of 300%. MS2 scans were acquired at 15 k resolution with a maximum injection time of 22 ms and an AGC target of 300% in a 1.4 Th window and a fixed first mass of 110 m/z. All MS1 scans were stored as profile, all MS2 scans as centroid. All mass spectrometric raw data were processed with Maxquant (version 2.4) (Tyanova, Temu and Cox, 2016) using default parameters against the Uniprot HUMAN canonical database (UP5640) with the match-between-runs option enabled between replicates. Follow-up analysis was done in Perseus 1.6.15 (Tyanova *et al.*, 2016). Protein groups were filtered for potential contaminants and insecure identifications. Remaining IDs were filtered for data completeness in at least one group and missing values imputed by sigma downshift (0.3 σ width, 1.8 σ downshift). Afterwards, FDR-controlled two-sided t-tests were performed (S0=0, FDR≤0.05).

Quantitative real-time PCR

RNA isolation from kidney tissue, one-quarter of a kidney was ground with BeadBeater (Roth) using a
Precelly24 with 5.000 rpm two times for 30 s in Tri-Reagent. RNA extraction was performed with the
Direct-zol RNA Miniprep kit (Zymo Research) following the manufacturer's instructions, including a
DNase1 treatment step. Before the reverse transcription using the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse
Transcription kit (Applied Biosystems, 4368814), RNA concentration and sample quality were assessed
on a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Peqlab). mRNA was assessed by SYBR Green (Thermo Scientific™,
4309155) qPCR using mHprt1 as endogenous control. Primers are listed in the supplementary table S1.
The qPCR experiments were performed on a QuantStudio 12K Flex Real-time PCR System
(ThermoFisher Scientific). For data analysis, all results were normalized to the housekeeping gene
Hprt1 using the delta-delta CT followed by a two-tailed Student's t-test ($p < 0.05$).

IL-6 Elisa

Mouse IL-6 Uncoated ELISA kit (cat# 88-7064; Invitrogen) was used to measure Interleukin-6
concentrations of mouse tissue lysates. If not stated otherwise, the ELISA plate was prepared, and the
assay was conducted after manufacturer's instructions. For all washing steps 1x PBS supplemented
with 0.05% Tween™20 was used. To lyse tissue, approx. 10 mg of snap-frozen tissue was cut into small
pieces on dry ice before adding 200 μl of lysis buffer (200 mM NaCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl pH=7.4, 5 mM
EDTA, 1% NP-40, 1% Halt Protease-Phosphatase inhibitor (Thermo Scientific™). Tissue was
homogenized using a Disruptor Genie Digital (Scientific Industries; SI-DD38). Therefore, the tubes were
filled halfway with pre-chilled glass beads and the samples were homogenized with eight 1 min runs
at 2.640 rpm, placing the samples on ice in between runs. Kidney tissue was additionally homogenized
using a pellet pestle, before all lysates were incubated for further 30 min on ice. Samples were spun
down at 21.130 x g and 4°C for 10 min, the supernatant was transferred into a fresh reaction tube and
protein concentration was determined via BCA assay. Following amounts of protein were loaded in
triplicates and incubated overnight at 4°C: Kidney 300 μg; Liver 300 μg; Fat 125 μg. Sulphuric acid (2 N)
was used to stop the colorimetric reaction of Avidin-HRP, before measuring the absorbance at 450 nm
and 570 nm, for wavelength subtraction, using the TECAN Spark microplate reader (TECAN).

Quantification and statistical analysis

Data are expressed as mean ± standard deviation (SD). All experiments were performed in at least 3
independent biological replicates. The data were statistically analysed with GraphPad Prism version
9.5.1 unless otherwise mentioned.

Results

Cystic kidney disease in Bbs8 knockout mice

To investigate the function of BBS8 in the kidney, we analyzed kidneys of a conventional *Bbs8* knockout mouse line (Tadenev *et al.*, 2011). Kidney tissue did not show any obvious phenotypic alterations by 24 weeks, so we continued monitoring the mice until 46 weeks of age. At this age *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ animals displayed significant obesity, with a body weight approximately 30% higher than in control **(Fig.1 A, B)**, a common BBS phenotype. Remarkably, loss of *Bbs8* significantly affected the kidneys at this age, as indicated by the small increase in kidney weight **(Fig.1 C),** as well as slightly elevated although not significantly altered blood urea levels **(Fig.1 D)**. PAS staining of kidney tissue revealed cyst formation and dilated tubules **(Fig.1 E/F)** and, remarkably, the cystic index used to quantify cyst formation was 6-fold higher in *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ as compared to control mice **(Fig.1 G)**. Further analysis revealed that the size of individual cysts detected in *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ was similar to dilated tubules and cysts from age-related dilated tubules of control animals **(Supp. Fig.1),** however the number of these cysts was significantly increased. Staining for proximal and distal tubules in the kidney revealed that the majority of cysts originated from distal tubules, as they were positive for Slc12a3 **(Fig.1 H)**. Interestingly, in keeping with the theory that BBS proteins are typically not essential for ciliogenesis per se, but rather for the sustained maintenance of cilia, epithelial cells of kidney tubules in *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ mice exhibited primary cilia on their apical surface, even within dilated or cystic areas **(Supp. Fig.3)**. Taken together, *Bbs8* knockout mice, in addition to obesity, fatty liver disease, retinal degeneration, and occasional polydactyly, exhibit cystic kidney disease by 46 weeks of age, where cyst formation predominantly originates from the distal tubular segments.

Cell death and fibrosis in cystic kidneys of Bbs8 knockout mice

Bbs8$^{-/-}$ kidneys showed a significant increase in fibrosis, as visualized by Masson's trichrome staining, which indicated an accumulation of connective tissue and collagen **(Fig.2 A**; blue color**)**. Further, this staining also showed clusters of inflammatory cells, as seen by aggregation of nuclei **(Fig.2 A**; dark red**)**. Increased TUNEL positive cells indicated increased cell death in *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ kidneys, while elevated γH2AX levels pointed to DNA damage and genomic instability. Additionally, we observed an accumulation of T-cells (CD3$^+$), as well as an increased nuclear translocation of the NF-κB protein RelA/p65, in particular in inflammation-rich areas, in *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ kidney tissue **(Fig.2 B)**. mRNA expression analysis revealed an increase of NF-κB *p50* and *p65* transcription **(Fig.2 C)**. Although mRNA expression level of the necroptosis key kinase *Ripk3* was not significantly altered, we detected a significant increase of the pyroptosis markers *Nlrp3* and *GsdmD*. To gain more information on modulators of the ongoing fibrotic change, we also examined interleukin-6 (IL-6) expression with an ELISA assay and found it significantly upregulated specifically in kidney lysates, with only a non-significant increase in fat or liver tissue **(Fig.2**

D). Thus, the loss of *Bbs8*, in addition to cyst formation and dilated tubules, leads to an increased rate

of cell death in the kidney, elevated expression of genes related to pyroptosis and the inflammasome,

as well as to renal fibrosis and inflammation.

Proteomic analyses of Bbs8-deficient kidneys

To gain insights into the mechanisms behind the kidney pathology, we performed unbiased proteomic

expression analysis of the whole proteome (WP); **(Fig.3 A)** and a phospho-proteome (PP) **(Fig.3 B)** of

lysates from both *Bbs8*^{-/-} and control kidneys. The principal component analysis clearly separated the

two genotypes in both datasets **(Supp. Fig.3 A)**. After quality control (QC), we found 2926 proteins in

the WP (**Fig.3 A)**. Based on the student's T-test (S0=0; FDR≤0.05), only 10 proteins were significantly

up- and 16 significantly downregulated in *Bbs8*^{-/-}**.** Analysis of the phospho-proteome identified 6223

phosphosites after QC, within a total of 2188 individual proteins **(Fig.3 B)**. From these phosphosites,

151 were significantly up- and 1041 significantly down-regulated. GO-term analysis of the significantly

regulated PP proteins revealed an enrichment of biological processes related to protein kinase

signaling. In general this analysis represents the kidney phenotype of inflammation, ECM remodelling,

and cell death **(Fig.3 C)**. Furthermore, consistent with the presence of inflammation **(Fig.2 D/E)**, KEGG

pathway analysis of the same protein set indicated enrichment of pathways related to a type II

inflammatory phenotype (Th1,2,17 cell differentiation), as well as toll-like receptor signaling **(Fig.3 D)**.

Among the differentially expressed proteins within the WP, some were specifically related to

cystogenesis and disease progression: here, dynein cytoplasmic 2 heavy chain 1 (DYNC2H1) and

dystrobrevin binding protein 1 (DTNBP1) were found to be downregulated in the knockout. Genetic

variants in DYNC2H1 are causative for skeletal and retinal ciliopathies, whereas mutations in DTNBP1

causes late-onset cystic kidney disease in mice (Monis, Faundez and Pazour, 2017). Over expressed

proteins include retinol binding protein 4 (RBP4), uromodulin (UMOD), nucleoporin 98 (NUP98), and

histone deacetylase 2 (HDAC2), each of which has a direct association to kidney diseases or ciliary

biology **(Supp. Fig.4 B)** (Zaucke *et al.*, 2010; Kobayashi *et al.*, 2017; Endicott and Brueckner, 2018; Xun

et al., 2018). To explore the impact of phosphorylation alterations in *Bbs8*^{-/-}, we identified candidates

that were significantly regulated in both the WP and PP, exhibiting a minimum fold change of 1.5 and

showing counter-regulation. These candidates are presented in a hierarchical clustered heat map

(Fig.3 E). Remarkably, this included differences in HDAC2 serine (Ser) residues: Ser424 and Ser422/424.

Phosphorylation of pSer394 and pSer422, as well as the double phosphorylation of pSer422/424

occurred predominantly in the wild type kidney, however in *Bbs8* knockout kidneys we only detected

the peptide phosphorylated at pSer424 **(Supp. Fig.3 C)**. Since this protein has been described to

suppress ciliogenesis in cancer cells via AuroraA (Kobayashi *et al.*, 2017), HDAC2 is an interesting

candidate, which could contribute to the pathogenesis of BBS. It has been suggested previously that

BBS proteins protect against HDAC6-mediated ciliary disassembly and loss of *Bbs8* results in increased

HDAC6 (Patnaik *et al.*, 2019). In *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ kidneys, the histone deacetylases HDAC6 and HDAC1 were

detected in the WP but, in contrast to HDAC2, not significantly altered. Therefore, we concluded that

HDAC2 could indicate a direct mechanistic link between BBS8 and ciliary tubulin deacetylation, as well

as ciliary destabilization.

BBS8 co-precipitates with HDAC2

In light of the significant changes in HDAC2 expression and phosphorylation, we sought to identity a

direct link between HDAC2 and BBS8. Therefore, we employed two different approaches to investigate

whether HDAC2 and BBS8 are part of a common protein complex. First, we expressed exogenous

human FLAG-tagged BBS8 in HEK293T cells and we were able to co-precipitate endogenous HDAC2 as

detected via immunoblotting **(Fig.4 A)**. Subsequently, we conducted a similar experiment but analysed

the co-precipitated proteins using MS/MS. The principal component analysis clearly separated the

F.hBBS8 pulldown from the control **(Supp. Fig.4 A, Supp. Tab. 2)**. We identified 1146 proteins of which

981 were potential significant BBS8 interactors **(Fig.4 B)**. Among those were not only many known

members of the BBSome (BBS1, BBS2, BBS4, BBS5, BBS7, BBS9) and the chaperonin complex (CCT6A,

CCT5, CCT3, CCT2, TCP1, CTT8, CCT4 and CCT7), but also HDAC2. Additional protein groups shown to

interact with BBS8 are heat shock binding proteins and proteins related to the Wnt signaling pathway

(Supp. Fig.4 B). To investigate this further we compared the list of putative interactors with the

published CiliaCarta proteins (Van Dam *et al.*, 2019) **(Fig.4 C)** and found a total of 67 ciliary proteins

co-precipitating with BBS8. Comparing the potential BBS8 interactors with significantly differential

expressed targets of the WP results in only four candidates, HDAC2 and 3 additional proteins (AGO2,

NUP98 and MTHFD1; **Supp. Fig.4 C**).

Increased levels of HDAC2 in Bbs8 deficient cells affects ciliary tubulin acetylation

We could confirm an increased expression of HDAC2 in lysates from mouse embryonic fibroblasts

(MEFs) generated from *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ and matched control mice by immunoblotting **(Fig.4 D)**. This suggests

that enhanced HDAC2 expression in *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ mice might not be restricted to the kidney, but represents

a mechanism relevant in other tissues as well. In parallel to immunoblotting, we performed qPCRs,

which revealed an upregulation of *Hdac2* mRNA in these cells, indicating that enhanced transcription

contributes to the increased levels of HDAC2 expression **(Fig.4 E)**. Since MEFs typically exhibit high

levels of ciliation and HDAC2 might be similar to HDAC6 in terms of affecting ciliary disassembly, we

analyzed the number and length of cilia in *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ and control MEFs. Quantification of cilia number and

length via ARL13B staining revealed no significant difference in serum starved MEFs **(Fig.4 F),** similar

to our findings in the kidney of *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ mice. Since HDAC2, similar to HDAC6, might negatively regulate

acetylation of alpha tubulin within the ciliary axoneme, we co-stained the ciliary membrane marker

ARL13B with acetylated tubulin. Quantification revealed that a significant number of cilia in the *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$

cells visualized by ARL13B staining did not exhibit labelling for acetylated tubulin **(Fig.4 G)**. Strikingly,

we could confirm this reduced acetylation of ciliary tubulin in the kidney tissue of *Bbs8*^{-/-} mice **(Fig.4**

H). In summary, the finding of high HDAC2 levels and reduced acetylation in cilia of both, *Bbs8*^{-/-} kidney

epithelial cells *in vivo* and in *Bbs8*^{-/-} MEFs, aligns perfectly with the previously described positive effect

of HDAC inhibition in ADPKD zebrafish and mouse models (Cao *et al.*, 2009), suggesting a potentially

relevant therapeutic option.

Discussion

In this work, we describe the occurrence of a tubular cystic kidney disease in a mouse model with a

knockout of a *Bbs* gene. Notably, these animals have long been known to exhibit symptoms such as

obesity, polydactyly and blindness. The ocular phenotype of *Bbs8*^{-/-} mice has been studied in great

detail, however the renal phenotype has not been previously examined. Here, we describe a relatively

late-occurring cystic fibrotic kidney disease in homozygous mouse knockouts, accurately reflecting the

patient renal manifestation. The kidney phenotype in BBS patients is variable with kidneys showing

parenchymal cysts, medullary and most often corticomedullary cysts, but also renal fibrosis, unilateral

agenesis or dysplastic kidneys (Beales *et al.*, 1999; Putoux *et al.*, 2012; Elawad *et al.*, 2022). However,

these phenotypes are highly variable among families and could be caused by the type of mutations

(Putoux *et al.*, 2012). In general, kidney disease in BBS patients is diagnosed in approximately 25% of

cases, through the fact that many patients do not undergo any specific kidney examination and thereby

kidney disease might not be recognized (Beales *et al.*, 1999).

It was the identification of BBS8 mutations that first suggested that the BBS phenotype might be

attributed to defective primary cilia (Ansley *et al.*, 2003). The loss of *Bbs8* causes a much more severe

phenotype than other patient mutations, which could be the reason why BBS8 variants are rare among

patients (Stoetzel *et al.*, 2006). Consistently, the phenotype of *Bbs8* deficient mice is likely the most

severe among BBS mouse models. Kidney phenotypes have been observed in *Bbs2*, *Bbs4* or *Bbs10*

knockout mice where the knockout primarily affected glomeruli and podocytes with indirect systemic

effects on tubular cells (Nishimura *et al.*, 2004; Guo *et al.*, 2011; Cognard *et al.*, 2015). The at hand

study now describes a tubular cystic kidney phenotype in a BBS mouse model which will allow to

conduct preclinical studies on tubular cystic kidney disease in a BBS genetic context.

Regarding the precise mechanisms underlying kidney disease in *Bbs8*^{-/-}, our proteomic analyses

revealed a number of interesting candidates, which potentially contribute to kidney

pathomechanisms. The downregulation of DTNBP1, a subunit of the biogenesis of lysosome-related

organelles complex-1 (BLOC-1), could contribute to the kidney phenotype as it is known to cause cystic

kidney disease upon mutation in mice by reducing ciliary expression of polycystin-2 (Monis, Faundez

and Pazour, 2017). In addition, we observed decreased levels of DYNC2H1 in *Bbs8*^{-/-} mice. DYNC2H1 is

a known subunit of the IFT-dynein motor, which drives retrograde IFT-rafts and plays a role in the

formation of the transition zone. Mutations lead to the skeletal ciliopathies Jeune asphyxiating thoracic

dystrophy and short-rib polydactyly and also to non-syndromic retina degeneration (Jensen *et al.*,

2018; Vig *et al.*, 2020). Reduced levels of DYNC2H1 in *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ could contribute both to the renal and

retinal phenotype (Vig *et al.*, 2020). Another interesting finding is the increased abundance of UMOD,

a protein expressed in renal primary cilia. Variants of the UMOD gene lead to autosomal-dominant

tubulointerstitial kidney diseases (Zaucke *et al.*, 2010). Additionally, UMOD is found to be involved in

renal cyst formation in human kidney biopsies, which is in line with the upregulation in *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ (Gresh

et al., 2004). The proteomic analysis also revealed increased expression of RBP4 in kidney tissue.

Increased RBP4 has been suggested as a biomarker for renal damage and proteinuria (Ratajczyk *et al.*,

2022), which has also been suggested for UMOD (Thielemans *et al.*, 2023). Therefore, further studies

need to address whether serum or urinary RBP4 or UMOD levels could be used as a potential biomarker

for kidney disease onset and progression in BBS patients (Xun *et al.*, 2018; Swa *et al.*, 2022), similar to

what has been suggested for UMOD in ADPKD (Cansever *et al.*, 2021). In addition to the individual

expression and phosphorylation analysis, comparing the unbiased proteome- and phosphoproteome

with the BBS8 interactome unearthed further interesting candidates. Here, in particular four genes

showed up in all three analyses. Among those candidates, NUP98 is particularly notable, which is a

nucleoporin that plays a crucial role in size-selective diffusion at the base of cilia (Endicott and

Brueckner, 2018). AGO-2 has also been described at the base of cilia in astrocytes and could play a role

in BBS (Moser, Fritzler and Rattner, 2011), while *Mthfd1*, which codes for a protein in folate

metabolism, has not yet been associated with cilia or cystic kidneys.

Based on the role of tubulin acetylation in cilia and fundamental previous studies on HDAC6 in regard

to ciliary disassembly (Pugacheva *et al.*, 2007), we focused on HDAC2. HDAC2 showed increased

expression in our proteome analyses and we also found a strong interaction between HDAC2 and BBS8

upon IP. In addition to its nuclear functions, HDAC2 could regulate the stability and, thus, dynamics of

cilia through the deacetylation of tubulin, similar to HDAC6. HDAC6 is enriched at the centrosome and

basal body, where it catalyzes the deacetylation of alpha-tubulin and, therefore, plays a role in the

disassembly of primary cilia (Ran *et al.*, 2015). This process can be prevented by BBS proteins through

the recruitment of Inversin to the ciliary base (Patnaik *et al.*, 2019). In general, HDAC6 is activated by

phosphorylation after HEF1-dependent activation of the oncogenic Aurora A (AurA) kinase (Pugacheva

et al., 2007). We found increased levels of HDAC2 in *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ kidneys, as well as *Bbs8*$^{-/-}$ MEFs and

observed diminished acetylation of tubulin inside cilia on *Bbs8* knockout cells. This might result in a

subtle defect in ciliary dynamics.

Even though we found differences in HDAC2, we did not expect cilia to be severely affected. This would

not be in line with data from other BBS genes, nor would it explain the late-onset phenotype we

observed. Similarly, our findings related to cell death, fibrosis, and inflammation are relatively

moderate. Given the late onset and slow progression of kidney disease in this model, we would not

expect the loss of *Bbs8* to result in massive overactivity of any specific cell death pathway. Our results

suggest that cell death and inflammation are rather secondary processes that, while present, do not

constitute the primary cause of the kidney disease. Since the activity of HDAC2 is regulated by

phosphorylation through casein kinase II and the regulation of expression levels by proteasomal

degradation (Eom and Kook, 2015), it might open potential options for pharmacologically interventions

targeting HDAC2-dependent deacetylation. To what extent the nuclear functions of HDAC2 are also

altered and contribute to the pathogenesis of kidney disease requires further investigation.

Figure legends:

Figure 1. *Bbs8*^{-/-} mice develop late-onset cystic kidney disease.

(A/B) Image of 46-week-old control (*Bbs8*^{+/+}) and *Bbs8*^{-/-} mice, and the body weight indicated

significant obesity in knockout animals (n=4). **(C)** Kidney weight of the mice did not significantly alter

between both mouse models. **(D)** Serum urea of control and *Bbs8*^{-/-} mice show an increasing trend

(n=4). **(E/F)** PAS staining of the whole kidney in control and *Bbs8*^{-/-} animals; Scale bar: 1 mm. The area

in the zoom-in comprises the cortex and medullary area of the kidney; Scale bar: 200 μm. **(G)** Cyst

index described in a cyst-to-tissue area ratio, normalised to control animals. **(H)** Kidney image for distal

tubules (Slc12a3, magenta) and proximal tubules (LTL, green) show cyst formation in clustered distal

tubules; Scale bar: 500 μm.

Figure 2. Cell death, fibrosis and inflammation in *Bbs8*^{-/-} kidneys.

Representative microscopic images of control and Bbs8^{-/-} mice for **(A)** Masson's trichrome stain; Scale

bar: 300 μm **(B)** TUNEL staining and γH2AX, Scale bar: 100 μm; CD3^{+} and NF-kB expression, Scale bar:

300 μm. Arrowheads, indicates positive events. **(C)** Quantitative real-time PCR of *NF-kB/p50*, *RelA/p65*

and inflammasome genes in control and *Bbs8*^{-/-} kidney samples (n=4). Statistical analysis was

performed using a two-sided student's *T-test* (*p*-value: <0.001***; 0.002**; 0.033*; ns = 0.12). **(D)** IL-6

Elisa performed for kidney, liver and fat tissue.

Figure 3. Proteomic analysis hints toward HDAC2 as putative key player in *Bbs8*^{-/-} kidneys.

Scatter blot of **(A)** whole proteome (WP) or **(B)** phosphoproteome (PP) marked with significantly

(FDR≤0.05) up- (yellow) or downregulated (cyan) proteins. Labelled HDAC proteins and their activator

kinase CK2 as well as further interesting candidates. **(C/D)** GOBP and KEGG pathway based on 1D-

enrichment of the proteins found in the PP, separated for up- (yellow) and downregulation (cyan). Top

10 candidates are ordered by p-values within the groups. **(E)** Clustered hierarchal heat map based on

$\log_2$ LFQ intensities and fold change=1.5 of WP and PP proteins wither their phosphorylation position

in the protein which are significantly, and counter regulated.

Figure 4. HDAC2 interacts with BBS8 and increased levels affect ciliary tubulin acetylation

(A) Co-IP from HEK293T cells, overexpressing F.hBBS8 or F.hEPS as control, show an interaction of BBS8

with HDAC2. Protein extracts (Lysate) were immunoprecipitated with α-Flag (IP) and detected and

detected with α-Flag (F.hBBS8 ~65 kDa, F.hEPS ~30 kDa) and α-HDAC2 (55 kDa) (n=3). **(B)** Scatter blot

of BBS8 interactors, performed in HEK293T cells overexpressing F.hBBS8 or F.hEPS as control. Potential

Interactors (FDR≤0.05), marked in magenta, revealed HDAC2 as an interactor of BBS8. **(C)**

Venn-Diagram showing the overlap between the BBS8 interactors and the published CiliaCarta**. (D)**

Control or *Bbs8*^{-/-} mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) were immunoblotted against HDAC2 (~55 kDa),

acetylated Tubulin (~55 kDa). All samples were normalized to Calnexin (~96 kDa). **(E)** qPCR of *Hdac2* in

control and *Bbs8*^{-/-} MEFs samples (n=3). Statistical analysis was performed using a two-sided student's

T-test (*p*-value: <0.001***; 0.002**; 0.033*; ns = 0.12). **(F)** Representative images of cultured MEF

Bbs8 knockout and control cells, stained with the cilia marker ARL13B and counterstained with DAPI;

Scale bar: 20 μm. Primary cilia are quantified for the number and length of cilia (n=4). **(G)** Primary cilia

count in MEFs, which are ARL13B and acetylated Tubulin (ac-Tub) positive. Representative images of

primary cilia in MEFs with the overlay of marker ARL13B and ac-Tub, counterstained with DAPI; Scale

bar: 10 μm. **(H)** ARL13B (green) and acetylated tubulin (magenta) staining of cilia in kidney tissue of

control and Bbs8^{-/-} mice and the ratio of ARL13B and acetylated tubulin positive cilia (n=3). All data in

this figure were statistically analysed using an unpaired Student's *t-test* (*p*-value: <0.001***; 0.002**;

0.033*; ns = 0.12).

Supplementary Figure 1. **Small-cyst formation in *Bbs8*^{-/-} kidney.**

(A) Measured cyst area depicted as jittered dots with the mean as a horizontal line. The values are

plotted on a $\log_{10}$ scale. The overall number of cysts was scientifically increased in knockout animals.

The data were statistically analysed using a two-sided student's *t-test* (*p*-value: <0.001***; 0.002**;

0.033*; ns = 0.12).

Supplementary Figure 2**. The occurrence of cilia in conventional *Bbs8 knockout is not altered.***

(A) Cilia staining with ARL13B showed no difference in ciliation between control and *Bbs8*^{-/-} kidney;

Scale bar: 50 μm; Zoom-in scale bar: 25 μm.

Supplementary Figure 3. ***Additional analyses based on the proteomic data***

(A) Principal component analysis (PCA) plots of the protein expression data of control and *Bbs8^{-/-}*
kidney samples. Depicted are the first two principal components for either whole proteome (WP) or
phosphoproteome (PP). The axes represent the percentages of variation explained by the principal
components. **(B)** Table of significantly up- and downregulated proteins of the WP. **(C)** Table of different
expressed HDAC2 residues with their related phosphosites and regulation. **(D)** KEGG, GOCC and GOMF
of WP **(E)** GOMF and GOCC of PP. All GO-terms based on 1D-enrichment, separated for up- (yellow)
and downregulation (cyan). Ordered by p-values within the groups**.**

Supplementary Figure 4. **Additional analyses of the interactome data**

(A) Principal component analysis (PCA) plots of the protein expression data of F.GFP and F.hBBS8,
shown with the first two principal components. The axes represent the percentages of variation
explained by the principal components. **(B)** Scatter plot of different protein clusters expressed in the
BBS8 interactome for different GO-terms: BBSome, chaperonin-containing T-complex, heat shock
protein binding and Wnt signaling pathway. **(C)** Venn-Diagram of BBS8 interaction partners (986) with
the significant candidates of the WP (26) showed an overlap of 4 proteins.

Supplementary Figure 5. **Original data: full-sized immunoblots.**

Original western blots only cropped to gel size **(A)** of Figure 4 A and **(B)** of Figure 4 E.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A

Supplementary figure 1

A

control   *Bbs8*^{−/−}

ARL13B DAPI

Supplementary figure 2

Supplementary figure 3

Supplementary figure 4

Supplementary figure 5