Astrocyte modulation of synaptic plasticity mediated by activity-dependent Sonic hedgehog signaling

Anh Duc Le[1], Marissa Fu[1], Riya Kumar[1], Gloria Zacharias[1], A. Denise R. Garcia[2]

[1]Department of Biology, Drexel University

[2]Department of Neurobiology and Anatomy, Drexel University College of Medicine

Keywords: astrocyte, Sonic hedgehog, plasticity, synapse, Hevin, SPARC

ABSTRACT

The influence of neural activity on astrocytes and their reciprocal interactions with neurons has emerged as an important modulator of synapse function. Astrocytes exhibit activity-dependent changes in gene expression, yet the molecular mechanisms by which they accomplish this have remained largely unknown. The molecular signaling pathway, Sonic hedgehog (Shh), mediates neuron-astrocyte communication and regulates the organization of cortical synapses. Here, we demonstrate that neural activity stimulates Shh signaling in cortical astrocytes and upregulates expression of Hevin and SPARC, astrocyte derived molecules that modify synapses. Whisker stimulation and chemogenetic activation both increase Shh activity in deep layers of the somatosensory cortex, where neuron-astrocyte Shh signaling is predominantly found. Experience-dependent Hevin and SPARC require intact Shh signaling and selective loss of pathway activity in astrocytes occludes experience-dependent structural plasticity. Taken together, these data identify Shh signaling as an activity-dependent, neuronal derived cue that stimulates astrocyte interactions with synapses and promotes synaptic plasticity.

INTRODUCTION

Activity-dependent gene expression is a fundamental property of neurons by which they modify synapses in response to experience. The mechanisms by which neurons convert activity into gene expression are well characterized and involve Ca^{2+} elevations that trigger downstream molecular signaling programs, including activation of immediate genes such as *Fos* and *Jun*[1]. Emerging evidence demonstrates that astrocytes also exhibit activity-dependent gene expression that promotes synaptic plasticity[2-4]. How astrocytes couple neuronal activity into changes in gene expression is unknown.

Astrocytes are now recognized as influential partners in synaptic function. They associate intimately with synapses, comprising the third partner in the tripartite synapse, along with the pre and postsynaptic terminals[5]. Astrocytes monitor and respond to neural activity[6-9] and engage in reciprocal regulation of synapse function[10-14] through a large complement of receptors, transporters, and ion channels embedded within their membranes[15-17]. They also exert broad influence on the plasticity of synapses and circuits in development and in learning and memory[18-22]. Astrocytes deploy various mechanisms to modulate synaptic structure and function, including regulating receptor composition at the synapse[23,24], release of synaptogenic proteins[25-27], synaptic pruning[28], and release of gliotransmitter[29]. Transcriptional profiling shows that astrocytes also undergo activity-dependent changes in gene expression[2-4]. These activity-dependent transcriptional responses are as robust as many classes of neurons[4] and include several genes associated with synapse formation and function[2,30,31]. Yet, the precise molecular mechanism by which astrocytes convert neuronal activity into gene expression remains unknown.

The molecular signaling pathway, Sonic hedgehog (Shh) is emerging as an important mediator of reciprocal interactions between neurons and astrocytes. In the postnatal and adult brain, SHH is produced by neurons which acts directly on neighboring astrocytes, regulating SHH-dependent gene

expression programs[32-34]. Notably, genetic ablation of pathway activity, selectively in astrocytes,

decreases expression of the glial-specific, inward rectifying K^+ channel, $K_{ir}4.1$, perturbing extracellular

K^+ homeostasis and increasing neuronal excitability[35]. Conversely, unrestrained Shh signaling

promotes synapse formation mediated by increased expression of synaptogenic cues[34]. These

observations point to SHH as a key mediator of neuron-astrocyte interactions that reciprocally shape

synapse number and function. Further, non-canonical Shh signaling in neurons is required for

establishing cortico-cortical synapses[36], suggesting diverse and cell-type specific actions of SHH on

synaptic regulation. Here, we focus on SHH signaling in astrocytes mediated by canonical transduction

of the pathway.

Transduction of Shh signaling is mediated by transcriptional activation of its effectors, the GLI family of

transcription factors, that regulate expression of SHH target genes[37]. Binding of SHH to its receptor,

Patched (Ptch1), relieves inhibition of the obligatory co-receptor, Smoothened (Smo), promoting

transcription of SHH target genes, including Gli1. High levels of SHH promote transcriptional activation

of Gli1, which acts as a reliable readout of pathway activation[38]. At baseline, transcriptional abundance

of Gli1 in the cortex is low[34] and its expression is localized to astrocytes in layers 4 and 5, consistent

with the distribution of SHH-expressing neurons in layer V[32,36]. However, several components of the

pathway, including Ptch1, Gli2, and Gli3, show more widespread expression[32]. Whereas cells

expressing Gli1 at baseline comprise 40-50% of astrocytes in layers 4 and 5[35], expression of Ptch1,

Gli2 and Gli3 is found in nearly all astrocytes, indicating that many more cells possess the machinery

for transduction of SHH signal[32]. This suggests dynamic activity of the pathway in individual cells.

What regulates activation of the pathway is not known. High frequency stimulation of cultured

hippocampal neurons promotes SHH release that is sensitive to TTX treatment[39], suggesting that

neural activity promotes Shh signaling. Interestingly, SHH protein is localized in axons[40-43], where it is

associated with synaptic vesicles[44] making it well positioned to couple with neuronal activity. Whether

physiological neural activity promotes SHH-mediated interactions between neurons and astrocytes *in*

vivo, and how these interactions influence synapses, is not known.

To examine this, we exposed juvenile mice to an enriched somatosensory environment to stimulate

active whisking. We show that both sensory and chemogenetic stimulation increase Shh signaling in

cortical astrocytes. Exposure to an enriched environment produced an increase in synapse number

and a concomitant increase in expression of Hevin and SPARC, matricellular proteins produced by

astrocytes that modify synapses. Structural plasticity, and experience-dependent upregulation of Hevin

and SPARC, are occluded in astrocyte-specific conditional knock out (CKO) mice in which Shh

signaling is selectively abolished, demonstrating a requirement for Shh signaling in astrocyte

modulation of synapses. Taken together, these findings demonstrate novel, activity-dependent

regulation of Shh signaling and establish SHH as a molecular mechanism by which astrocytes couple

neuronal activity to gene expression and modulate synaptic plasticity.

RESULTS

Neuronal activity stimulates Sonic hedgehog signaling in vivo

To examine whether neural activity stimulates Shh signaling *in vivo*, we used a chemogenetic approach

to selectively excite cortical pyramidal neurons with the excitatory hM3DGq designer receptor

exclusively activated by designer drugs (DREADD) (**Figure 1A-B**). We injected AAV8-CamKIIα-

hM3DGq-mCherry virus[45] into the somatosensory cortex of *Gli1^{nlacZ/+}* mice which express nuclear lacZ

at the *Gli1* locus[38]. Because *Gli1* is a canonical target of Shh signaling, and because SHH is required

for *Gli1* expression, transcriptional activation of *Gli1* acts as a reliable readout of Shh signaling[38,46].

After 14 days, we treated mice with medicated drinking water containing the designer drug Clozapine

N-Oxide (CNO) for seven days to chronically activate the receptor[47]. Transfected cells expressed *c-Fos*

(Figure 1C), and CNO-treated mice showed a significant increase in the number of c-Fos-labeled cells

compared to virus-injected animals that were fed unmedicated drinking water, indicating successful

activation of neurons (**Figure 1D-E**). We observed a significant increase in the number of βGal+ cells

in the somatosensory cortex in the CNO-treated group compared to untreated controls (**Figure 1F-G**).

These cells colocalized with Sox9, a well-established marker for identifying astrocytes[48] (**Figure 1H**).

Taken together, these data demonstrate that neuronal excitation stimulates Shh signaling in astrocytes

in vivo.

Sensory experience stimulates Sonic hedgehog signaling

We next examined whether a more physiological stimulus can increase Shh signaling. To test this,

we placed *Gli1*$^{nlacZ/+}$ mice in an enriched sensory environment designed to stimulate active whisking[49].

Mice were weaned into large rat cages from which strings of beads were hung from the wire cage lid in

a manner requiring constant interaction at postnatal day 21 (P21). Control mice were weaned into

similar rat cages with only standard nesting materials and no beads. Mice were housed in the enriched

environment (EE) or standard housing (SH) conditions for three weeks (**Figure 2A**). A significant

increase in the number of cells labeled with cFos was observed in the somatosensory cortex of mice

housed in EE compared to SH conditions (**Figure 2C**), confirming increased activity in this region. Mice

housed in EE showed a significant increase in the number of βGal-labeled cells compared to control

mice housed in SH conditions (**Figure 2B, D**), indicating an increase in Shh activity in response to

sensory experience. Notably, there was no difference in either cFos or βGal labeling between EE and

SH conditions in the visual cortex (**Figure 2E-F**), demonstrating that sensory stimulation does not

produce a generalized increase in Shh signaling but rather, selectively increases activity of the pathway

in circuits that are stimulated by experience.

Colocalization with cell-type specific markers including Sox9, CAII, and NeuN to identify astrocytes,

oligodendrocytes, and neurons, respectively, showed that 96% of βGal-labeled cells correspond to

astrocytes in both SH and EE (**Supplemental Figure 1**) consistent with our previous observation that

astrocytes are the primary targets of canonical SHH signaling in the adult brain[32]. βGal+ cells did not

express Ki-67 (**Supplemental Figure 1**), ruling out the possibility that the observed increase in cell

number is due to proliferation. Because sensory activity stimulates Shh signaling, we next asked

whether sensory deprivation lowers activity of the pathway. To do this, we performed unilateral whisker

trimming on P21 $Gli1^{nlacZ/+}$ mice for three weeks, starting at birth. We analyzed the deprived,

contralateral hemisphere and compared it to the intact, ipsilateral hemisphere. We observed

significantly fewer βGal+ cells in the deprived, compared to the intact, hemisphere (**Supplemental**

Figure 2). Analysis of the auditory cortex showed whisker trimming had no effect on Shh signaling in

this region (**Supplemental Figure 2**). Taken together, these data demonstrate that activation of distinct

sensory circuits selectively stimulates Shh signaling in cortical astrocytes in a circuit-specific manner.

To precisely identify cells that show increased Shh activity following experience, we combined the

direct reporter approach with a tamoxifen-dependent labeling strategy, enabling us to monitor

temporally distinct populations of cells experiencing Shh signaling. We crossed $Gli1^{nlacZ/+}$ mice with

$Gli1^{CreER/+}$;Ai14 mice carrying the Cre-dependent Ai14 reporter allele expressing tdTomato (tdTom)

($Gli1^{nlacZ/CreER}$;Ai14), enabling identification of cells with Shh signaling at the start and conclusion of

sensory enrichment. Because $lacZ$ expression is directly regulated by transcriptional activity of $Gli1$,

cells actively transducing SHH can be monitored by immunohistochemistry for βGal, the protein product

of the $lacZ$ gene. In contrast, tamoxifen-dependent, Cre-mediated recombination produces permanent

expression of tdTom in cells, even after Shh activity is downregulated (**Figure 2G**). Thus, in

$Gli1^{nlacZ/CreER}$;Ai14 mice, $lacZ$ expression reflects active Shh signaling whereas tamoxifen-dependent

Cre-mediated expression of tdTom reflects historical signaling. Although these mice are effectively $Gli1$

nulls, GLI1 is dispensable for Shh signaling due to redundant activator function of GLI2[38,50] and we did

not observe any gross anatomical or behavioral phenotypes, consistent with previous studies[38,51]. To

mark cells with Shh signaling at baseline, mice received tamoxifen before placing them in EE or SH

housing for three weeks (**Figure 2G**). We first examined the population of βGal+ cells and found a large

fraction of cells that were negative for tdTom (**Figure 2H, I**), indicating Shh activity in a population of

cells distinct from those marked at the start of the experiment. Notably, there was a significant increase

in single-labeled βGal cells after EE compared to SH (**Figure 2J**). Whereas 59% of βGal labeled cells

were single labeled in SH mice, this fraction increased to 76% in EE mice (**Figure 2J**) demonstrating

experience-dependent activation of the pathway in cells distinct from those at baseline. These cells

were found in layers 4 and 5 (**Figure 2H**), suggesting that experience-dependent Shh activity remains

localized to deep cortical layers, consistent with the localization of SHH-expressing neurons in layer

V[32,36]. We next examined the population of cells expressing tdTom. tdTom+ were localized primarily in

layers 4 and 5 and show a bushy morphology characteristic of protoplasmic astrocytes, consistent with

previous studies[32,35] (**Figure 2H-I**). In SH mice, a large proportion of tdTom+ cells did not colabel with

βGal (**Figure 2I, K**), indicating downregulation of pathway activity. This fraction did not change after

exposure to EE (**Figure 2K**). We also observed a third population of cells, those co-expressing both

tdTom and βGal, suggesting either persistent or recurrent Shh activity in these cells (**Figure 2I, L**).

This fraction was similar between SH and EE conditions (**Figure 2L**). These data suggest that SHH

activity in individual cells is highly dynamic and that over a three-week period, individual cells are not

likely to experience persistent SHH signaling.

Sensory experience dynamically modulates Sonic hedgehog signaling

We next examined whether the experience-induced increase in Shh activity reflects a long-term change

in Shh signaling. We first examined whether a much shorter time frame was sufficient to increase Shh

activity. We housed *Gli1[nlacZ/+]* mice in either SH or EE for two days starting at P21. Mice housed in EE

showed a significant increase in βGal+ cells compared to SH controls (**Figure 3A-B**), suggesting that

brief exposure to sensory enrichment is sufficient to stimulate Shh signaling. To examine whether

experience-dependent Shh signaling persists after removal of the stimulus, we housed *Gli1[nlacZ/+]* mice

in EE for 2 days, then housed them in SH conditions for 2 days and compared *Gli1* activity with mice

continuously housed in EE or SH conditions for 4 days. To rule out the possibility that any observed

differences in βGal number may reflect perdurance of the protein rather than sustained Shh activity, we

used single molecule fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (smFISH) by RNAScope to more directly measure

Gli1 transcripts (**Figure 3C**). In mice continuously housed in EE, we found an increase in cells

expressing *Gli1* compared to SH control mice (**Figure 3C-D**). However, in mice returned to SH after 2

days of EE, *Gli1* expression returned to baseline (**Figure 3C-D**). Notably, individual cells expressing

Gli1 also showed a dramatic increase in the number of transcripts in the nucleus after exposure to EE

compared to SH-housed mice (**Figure 3C**). This suggests that neural activity not only stimulates Shh

signaling in new cells, but also further increases activity of the pathway in cells with baseline Shh

signaling. These data demonstrate that Shh signaling is highly dynamic and responsive to changing

experiences.

Sensory experience does not increase the number of Shh-expressing neurons

In the cortex*, Shh* is expressed predominantly in a subset of excitatory pyramidal neurons in layer

V[35,36]. To determine whether sensory experience increases the number or distribution of *Shh-*

expressing cells, we housed *Shh^CreER/+*; Ai14 mice in EE or SH conditions. Mice received tamoxifen

over the last three days of the housing experience and were analyzed two weeks later (**Figure 4A**).

Labeled neurons were found primarily in layer V and we found no difference in the number of *Shh-*

expressing neurons between SH and EE (**Figure 4B-E**). Because astrocytes in layer IV show high

levels of Shh activity, we also examined the ventral posterior medial nucleus of the thalamus (VPM)

where thalamocortical neurons projecting to layer IV of the barrel cortex reside[52]. We detected few, if

any, labeled neurons in this region (**Figure 4D**) suggesting that Shh signaling in cortical astrocytes is

initiated by ligand released from local neurons. We also performed chemogenetic activation of cortical

neurons in *Shh^CreER/+*; Ai14 mice. We injected mice with AAV5-Syn-hM3DGq-HA virus and began CNO

treatment two weeks later. Animals received CNO or unmedicated water for 10 days. To mark *Shh-*

expressing cells, animals received tamoxifen over the last three days of CNO treatment and were

analyzed two weeks later (**Figure 4F**). In agreement with our environmental stimulation, there was no

difference in the number or distribution of *Shh*-expressing cells between the CNO treated and control

animals (**Figure 4G-J**). These data suggest that the increase in astrocytic signaling reflects an increase

in availability of the ligand, rather than an increase in the number of neurons expressing *Shh*. This may

arise from an increase in SHH release or from increased diffusion in the extracellular space. This

suggests that while transduction of Shh signaling in astrocytes is dynamically modulated between

individual cells, SHH ligand is derived from a defined population of neurons.

Astrocytic Sonic hedgehog signaling is required for deep layer synaptic plasticity

Sensory experience promotes structural plasticity of cortical synapses[49]. To determine whether

experience-dependent Shh signaling in astrocytes promotes synaptic plasticity, we examined dendritic

spines of layer V cortical neurons. Excitatory synapses are localized predominantly on dendritic

spines[53], which demonstrate remarkable plasticity in response to sensory experience[49,54-57]. To

determine whether Shh signaling plays a role in astrocyte modulation of experience-dependent

plasticity, we examined spine density of cortical neurons in conditional knock out (CKO) mice lacking

Smo, the obligatory co-receptor for transduction of Shh signaling, selectively in astrocytes. We used

Gfap-Cre; *Smo^{fl/fl}* mice (*Gfap Smo* CKO) in which *Smo* is deleted in *Gfap*-expressing cells, effectively

abolishing Shh signaling in all astrocytes beginning at birth[32,35]. These mice also carry a *Thy1*-GFPm

allele which labels a subset of layer V pyramidal neurons[58], enabling the visualization of individual

dendrites and spines. *Gli1* expression measured by qPCR showed a 90% reduction in *Gfap Smo* CKO

mice compared to WT littermate controls lacking Cre, confirming effective ablation of Shh activity

(**Supplemental Figure 3**). We analyzed apical dendrites of layer V pyramidal neurons in the barrel

cortex, focusing on dendritic segments in layers 4 and 5 where high levels of Shh activity are found.

WT (Cre-negative littermates) mice housed in EE conditions showed a significant increase in the

density of protrusions compared to control SH mice (**Figure 5A,C**), demonstrating that enriched

sensory experience promotes structural synaptic plasticity, consistent with previous studies[49,56]. We

previously demonstrated that *Gfap Smo* CKO mice showed an elevated spine density arising from

deficits in developmental elimination of synapses[35]. Here, we find that sensory enrichment did not

produce any further increases in spine density (**Figure 5B,C**), consistent with a requirement for

astrocytic Shh signaling in structural plasticity. Alternatively, this may instead reflect a limit beyond

which no further spines can be added. Shh signaling acts on astrocyte progenitor cells in the perinatal

subventricular zone that generate cortical astrocytes[51]. Because recombination begins at P0 in cortical

astrocyte progenitors in this *Gfap-Cre* line[32], this impaired plasticity may reflect developmental

perturbation of cortical astrocyte development.

To more directly test whether Shh signaling in mature astrocytes is required for synaptic plasticity, we

generated *Gli1*[CreER/+]; *Smo*^{fl/fl}; Ai14 mice (*Gli1 Smo* CKO), in which tamoxifen-dependent *Smo* deletion

enables temporal control. Tamoxifen administration at P14 or older limits *Smo* deletion to postmitotic,

Gli1 expressing cells primarily in layers 4 and 5 (**Figure 5D**)[51]. *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice received tamoxifen

over three days between P18 – P20 and were housed in EE or SH at P21 for two days. We measured

Gli1 expression of cortical tissues by qPCR and detected a 66% reduction in *Gli1* transcripts in *Gli1*

Smo CKO mice compared to WT littermate controls that were Cre-negative, confirming effective

interruption of Shh signaling (**Supplemental Figure 3**). Cre-negative littermates with and without

tamoxifen as well as Cre-positive littermates without tamoxifen showed no significant difference in

dendritic spine density and were subsequently pooled as WT controls (**Supplemental Figure S3**). WT

mice housed in EE showed a significant increase in spine density compared to SH controls (**Figure**

5F). In contrast, *Gli1 Smo CKO* mice failed to show a significant difference in spine density between

housing conditions, demonstrating a requirement for astrocytic Shh signaling in structural plasticity

(**Figure 5E,F**). To determine whether plasticity is perturbed globally, we analyzed regions where Shh

activity in astrocytes is low or absent. Notably, analysis of dendritic segments in upper layers (layers II/

III) of both WT and *Gli1 Smo CKO* mice showed a significantly higher spine density in EE compared to

SH (**Figure 5G**), suggesting that structural plasticity of these synapses is intact. We also analyzed

apical dendrites of pyramidal neurons in area CA1 of the hippocampus, which lack astrocytic Shh

activity[35] (**Figure 5H**). *Gli1 Smo CKO* mice housed in EE also showed a significant increase in spine

density compared to SH (**Figure 5I**), further supporting the specificity of this mouse model. Taken

together, these data demonstrate that Shh signaling in astrocytes promotes structural plasticity induced

by enriched sensory experience. The observation that plasticity is impaired specifically in synapses

found where astrocytic Shh activity is high suggests that SHH-dependent astrocyte modulation of

synaptic plasticity is mediated by local interactions.

Sonic hedgehog signaling upregulates expression of astrocyte-derived synapse-modifying cues

In the developing neural tube, Shh acts on neural progenitor cells to regulate the expression of genes

that drive morphogenesis and cell type specification. In astrocytes, several lines of evidence

demonstrate that Shh regulates genes associated with synapse formation and function, including

Sparc, Kcnj10, and *Gria1*[33-35]. The observation that structural plasticity is impaired in *Gli1 Smo* CKO

mice suggests that Shh regulates an astrocyte-derived synaptogenic cue. Hevin is a matricellular

protein belonging to the SPARC family of proteins that is expressed in astrocytes and promotes

synapse formation[26,59-61]. To examine whether experience-dependent Shh activity regulates *Hevin*, we

examined its expression in the cortex of *Gli1$^{CreER/+}$*;Ai14 mice. Hevin immunostaining in the cortex

shows an enrichment in layers IV and V, where Shh activity is highest (**Supplemental Figure 4**). Single

cell analysis of deep and upper layer astrocytes in *Gli1$^{CreER/+}$*;Ai14 mice revealed that astrocytes in

layers IV and V, identified by tdTom labeling, express higher levels of Hevin compared to those in layer

II/ III, identified by Sox9 (**Figure 6A-B**), suggesting that Shh signaling regulates its expression. To test

this, we measured *Hevin* from whole cortical lysates of *Gfap Smo* CKO mice by qPCR and found a

significant reduction in expression compared to WT controls (**Figure 6C**). We next examined secreted

acidic cysteine rich glycoprotein (SPARC)*,* a structurally related protein to Hevin that is secreted by

astrocytes and which also acts to modify synapses *in vitro* and *in vivo*[61,62]. Expression of *Sparc* is

upregulated in *Glast Ptch1* CKO mice in which Shh signaling is elevated in astrocytes[34]. Similar to

Hevin, SPARC expression was enriched in deep layer, relative to upper layer, astrocytes in WT mice

(**Figure 6D-E, Supplemental Figure 4**). There was a significant reduction in *Sparc* expression in *Gfap*

Smo CKO mice compared to WT controls (**Figure 6F**), demonstrating a requirement for Shh signaling

in regulating its expression. Neither *Hevin* nor *Sparc* expression were completely abolished in *Gfap*

Smo CKO mice, suggesting that Shh signaling may cooperate with additional mechanisms to regulate

their expression. Indeed, although their expression is higher in deep layers of the cortex, their

expression is not absent in upper layers (**Figure 6A, D, Supplemental Figure 4**). Taken together,

these data show that *Hevin* and *Sparc* are enriched in deep layer astrocytes and further demonstrate a

requirement for Shh signaling in regulating their expression.

We next asked whether experience-dependent Shh activity promotes an increase in expression of

these synapse modifying cues. We performed immunostaining for Hevin and SPARC in *Gli1*[nlacZ/+] mice

housed in SH or EE from P21-P23 and analyzed their expression selectively in βGal+ cells in deep

layers of the cortex. Mice housed in EE showed a significant increase in Hevin and SPARC compared

to SH controls (**Figure 6G, H, K**), demonstrating that enriched sensory experience promotes

upregulation of these proteins. Notably, exposure to EE failed to increase Hevin or SPARC in both

Gfap Smo CKO and *Gli1 Smo CKO* mice (**Figure 6I, L, Supplemental Figure 4**), demonstrating a

requirement for Shh signaling in experience-dependent upregulation of these genes.

Hevin and SPARC act, respectively, to modify synapses structurally and functionally. SPARC has been

shown to increase the number of GluA1 containing AMPA receptors at synapses[63], whereas Hevin

promotes the formation of spines with a mushroom morphology[61]. Analysis of GluA1 in dendritic spines

showed that only a small fraction of spines contained GluA1 receptors and this did not change following

exposure to EE (**Supplemental Figure 5**). We found no difference in the fraction of spines containing

GluA1 AMPARs in either Gfap Smo CKO or Gli1 Smo CKO mice, arguing against a role for Shh

signaling in synaptic GluA1 (**Supplemental Figure 5**).

We next analyzed spine morphology, classifying them into mushroom, thin, and filopodial morphologies

and examined whether the proportion of spines in each class change in response to experience and

Shh signaling. Spine morphology is associated with synapse size and strength[64,65]. In WT mice housed

in EE, we observed an increase in the proportion of spines with a mushroom morphology (**Figure 6M-**

N), consistent with previous reports demonstrating that activity promotes the enlargement of spines[66].

This was accompanied by a concomitant reduction in the fraction of intermediate spines, while the

fraction of filopodia was unchanged (**Figure 6O-R**). In contrast, the proportion of mushroom spines

was similar between EE and SH conditions in both *Gfap Smo* CKO and *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice (**Figure**

6N, Supplemental Figure 5) indicating that selective perturbation of Shh signaling in astrocytes

interferes with activity-dependent spine enlargement. These mice also showed no difference in the

fraction of spines with intermediate or filopodial morphology between EE and SH conditions (**Figure 6P,**

R, Supplemental Figure 5). These data suggest that activity-dependent Hevin promotes the

enlargement of spines in a Shh-dependent manner.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we demonstrate that neural activity stimulates Shh signaling between neurons and

astrocytes. Activity of the pathway is highly dynamic and responsive to both an increase and decrease

in neural activity, key features for effective translation of experience into functional gene expression.

Neural activity also promotes expression of the astrocyte-derived synapse modifying molecules, Hevin

and SPARC, in a Shh-dependent manner. Selective perturbation of the pathway in astrocytes occludes

experience-dependent structural plasticity in deep, but not upper, layer cortical synapses,

demonstrating highly localized regulation over astrocyte modulation of synapses. Taken together,

these data demonstrate that neural activity stimulates Shh signaling and identify the Shh pathway as a

molecular mechanism by which astrocytes convert neuronal activity into gene expression, promoting

synaptic plasticity.

Transcriptional profiling demonstrates that activity induces gene expression changes in astrocytes that

include early and late response genes as well as genes associated with synapse modification[2,4].

Activity stimulates dynamic Ca^{2+} signals[67] and intracellular cAMP signaling promotes synaptic

plasticity[68]. Yet the precise molecular mechanisms by which astrocytes translate neural activity into

changes in gene expression have not been identified. Here we show that neural activity bidirectionally

modulates Shh signaling between neurons and astrocytes in the cortex. Neural activity generated by

either chemogenetic or environmental stimulation increased Shh signaling and conversely, sensory

deprivation or removal of the stimulus downregulated the pathway.   Notably, activity-dependent Shh

signaling was selectively increased in appropriate circuits as somatosensory stimulation failed to

increase Shh signaling in the visual cortex. While EE increases the number of astrocytes transducing

SHH, neurons expressing *Shh* remains consistent between EE and SH conditions. This suggests that

Shh signaling is initiated by a defined population of neurons that can modulate the number of

astrocytes they communicate with depending on need. In this way, Shh signaling cooperates with

glutamatergic signaling, acting as a molecular mechanism by which neurons recruit astrocytes during

times of heightened activity promoting astrocyte interactions with synapses.

Shh signaling is a pleiotropic molecular signaling pathway with diverse roles in CNS development and

function. Though best characterized for its roles as a morphogen and mitogen during embryonic neural

development, several lines of evidence point to a role for SHH in regulating synapses. Genetic

activation of the pathway selectively in astrocytes increases cortical synapse density that is mediated

through upregulation of synapse-modifying genes[34]. Consistent with this, our data show that the

synaptogenic cues, Hevin and SPARC, are regulated by Shh signaling. Interestingly, selective loss of

Shh signaling in astrocytes from birth also increases synapse number. However this phenotype arises

due to perturbation of developmental elimination of cortical synapses, leading to elevated synapse

number that persists into adulthood[35]. The experiments in this study were performed on mice at P21,

359 corresponding to the end of critical period plasticity for the somatosensory cortex[69], suggesting that Shh

360 signaling also mediates astrocyte modulation of mature, relatively established circuits. Collectively,

361 these observations demonstrate that SHH regulates gene expression programs that promote astrocyte

362 modulation of synapses in both developing and mature circuits. In addition, our observation that Shh

363 signaling can be regulated by neural activity uncovers a novel dimension to this versatile signaling

364 pathway that exerts powerful control over diverse cellular behaviors from development into adulthood.

366 Astrocyte modification of synapses is mediated by a diverse repertoire of molecular cues, including the

367 release and secretion of matricellular and cell adhesion molecules[70,71]. Constitutive activation of Shh

368 signaling in cortical astrocytes increases SPARC expression[34], suggesting SHH is sufficient for its

369 upregulation. Here, we extend this finding and report that selective interruption of pathway activity in

370 astrocytes significantly decreases SPARC expression, demonstrating a requirement for Shh signaling

371 in regulating SPARC. It has been demonstrated that SPARC promotes GluA1 AMPARs at the

372 synapse. Although we failed to observe an increase in GluA1 in spines following EE, despite an

373 increase in SPARC, it is possible that the levels of SPARC induced by activity in this paradigm are

374 insufficient to promote GluA1 AMPARs at the synapse. Indeed, only intermediate concentrations of

375 SPARC were sufficient to increase synaptic GluA1 AMPARs in culture[63]. Further experiments are

376 necessary to determine whether a stronger stimulus or more prolonged exposure to sensory

377 enrichment promotes a greater increase in SPARC expression and concomitant GluA1 AMPARs.

379 Nevertheless, we found that exposure to EE increases Hevin, a structurally related protein to SPARC

380 with synaptogenic function, in a SHH-dependent manner. Immunohistochemical labeling, together with

381 genetic marking of *Gli1*-expressing astrocytes, shows that both Hevin and SPARC are enriched in cells

382 with Shh activity. However, it should be noted that upper layer astrocytes also express these proteins,

383 suggesting that their expression is regulated by additional mechanisms that remain to be discovered.

384 Hevin promotes the structural formation of synapses through its interactions with neurexin and

neuroligin and also promotes spine maturation[61,72]. Our data show that both spine density and the

proportion of spines with a mushroom morphology increase in a SHH-dependent manner following

sensory experience.   Taken together, these observations are consistent with the idea that experience-

dependent structural plasticity is mediated by upregulation of Hevin in a SHH-dependent manner. In

contrast to Hevin, the actions of SPARC on synapses are less well understood. SPARC has been

shown to both antagonize and promote synapses[26,63]. Our data showing that synapse density

increases following sensory experience, despite an increase in SPARC expression, would seem to be

in conflict with reports that SPARC antagonizes the synaptogenic actions of Hevin. An intriguing

possibility is that Hevin and SPARC are differentially upregulated at specific synapses, enabling local

regulation by specific perisynaptic astrocyte processes. In support of this, shRNA knockdown of

SPARC in astrocytes selectively reduces cortico-cortical VGlut1-labeled synapses, but not

thalamocortical VGlut2-labeled synapses in deep layers[34]. Both the Hevin and SPARC antibodies used

in this study were raised in the same species, precluding a direct test of this possibility, however future

studies including EM approaches are necessary to fully elucidate the role of SPARC in SHH-dependent

astrocyte modulation of synapses.

Although active Shh signaling is found predominantly in deep cortical layers, several components of the

pathway, including *Gli2*, *Gli3,* and *Ptch1* are found in upper layer astrocytes[32], suggesting these cells

fail to receive sufficient ligand to initiate pathway activity. This suggests that promoting SHH availability

to upper layer astrocytes would promote similar effects on synapses. In support of this, ectopic

expression of *Shh* in upper layer neurons promotes expression of SHH target genes, including *Sparc*

and *Kcnj10*[34]. The precise mechanism restricting SHH to deep layers is not known. In development,

the SHH gradient is established by interactions with extracellular matrix (ECM) proteins, including

heparin sulfate proteoglycans (HSPGs)[73]. In *Drosophila*, the movement of Hedgehog (Hh) across cells

is regulated by Dally and Dally-like, two glypicans that colocalize with Hh and act to restrict its

movement[74]. Recent work in vertebrate cells suggests that loss of glypican 5 (*gpc5*) broadens the

spread of SHH[73], suggesting that glypican-mediated regulation of SHH movement is conserved. The

related glypicans, glypican 4 and 6, are expressed by astrocytes and regulate AMPA receptor

composition at the synapse[23] and more recently, *gpc5* has been shown to regulate GluA2 at the

synapse and promote synapse stabilization[75]. This suggests that Shh signaling and glypicans work

cooperatively in astrocyte modulation of synaptic function.

Precisely how SHH is released from neurons is poorly understood. Several lines of evidence point to

axonal trafficking and release[76,77], consistent with activity-dependent release. Studies in cell culture

and by EM demonstrate that SHH is localized with synaptic vesicles[44] and is released by high

frequency stimulation[39]. Although cells with *Gli1* activity are found most abundantly in layers IV and V

of the cortex, we found few *Shh*-expressing neurons in the thalamus. Instead, *Shh* expression is found

predominantly in layer V pyramidal neurons, suggesting that Shh activity in the cortex is derived from

local neuronal sources, rather than long distance projections. This may arise from recurrent collateral

innervation by layer IV and V neurons[52].   SHH is also found in extracellular vesicles[78,79], specialized

vesicles derived from endosomes carrying diverse cargoes, including proteins, lipids and RNA

molecules, that mediate cell-cell communication. Exosome release is stimulated by neuronal activity[80].

The localization of *Gli1*-expressing cells in deep cortical layers, adjacent to *Shh*-expressing soma, is

consistent with an exosomal source of SHH. These mechanisms are not mutually exclusive and

further work with SHH fusion proteins to identify its localization within specific cellular compartments

could shed light on the precise mechanism by which neurons release SHH. Interestingly, our genetic

labeling experiments demonstrated that activity did not increase the number of neurons expressing

Shh. This suggests that activity increases the number of synaptic vesicles or exosomes releasing

ligand, enabling greater availability in the extracellular space to reach more cells.

Here, we focus on Shh activity in the somatosensory cortex. However, Shh signaling is found

throughout multiple cortical regions, including in the auditory and visual cortex, as well as in the frontal

cortex[32]. In contrast, Shh signaling in the hippocampus is largely absent in astrocytes[32,35] and instead

is found predominantly in adult neural stem cells[81], where its activity is required for their

maintenance[82,83]. Notably, differential activity of the pathway is also found within a given region. Our

data show that genetic deletion of Shh signaling, selectively in layers IV and V, does not perturb

structural plasticity in layer II/III, suggesting that astrocyte modulation of synapses is mediated by

distinct mechanisms, even within a defined circuit. This suggests that Shh signaling is broadly

available to multiple, discrete circuits as a molecular mechanism by which astrocytes convert neural

activity into changes in gene expression to support synaptic function and plasticity.

Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge Dr. Corey Harwell and Dr. Lucas Cheadle for thoughtful comments on this

manuscript and throughout the project. The authors would also like to acknowledge Pooja Sakthivel for

technical support on this project, as well as all members of the Garcia lab. This research was

supported by NIH grants R21NS116664 and R01NS096100.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization, A.D.L., M.F., A.D.R.G.; Investigation, A.D.L., M.F., R.K., G.Z.; Writing A.D.L. and

A.D.R.G.; Review and editing, A.D.L. and A.D.R.G.; Funding acquisition, A.D.R.G.; Supervision

A.D.R.G.

Declaration of Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Key Resources Table

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER

Antibodies		
Polyclonal Goat anti SPARC	R&D Systems	AF942
Polyclonal Goat anti SPARC-like 1 (SPARCL1/ Hevin)	R&D Systems	AF2836
Polyclonal Chicken anti β-Gal	Abcam	AB9361
Polyclonal Rabbit anti β-Gal	Invitrogen	A-11132
Polyclonal Rabbit anti c-Fos	Cell Signaling	2250S
Polyclonal Rabbit anti Sox9	Novus	NVP1-85551
Polyclonal Rabbit anti NeuN	Novus	NBP2-10491
Polyclonal Sheep anti CAII	Serotec	AHP206
Polyclonal Rat anti HA	Sigma/ Roche	11867423001
Polyclonal Rabbit anti GluA1	Millipore Sigma	AB1504
Polyclonal Chicken anti GFP	Invitrogen	A10262
Mouse Strains		
Gfap-Cre (line 73.12)[84]	The Jackson Laboratory;	Stock no. 12886
Gli1$^{CreER/+}$ [81]	The Jackson Laboratory;	Stock no. 7913
Gli1$^{nlacZ/+}$ [38]		
Shh$^{CreER/+}$ [85]		
Ai14 (B6.Cg Gt(ROSA)26Sor$^{tm14(CAG-tdTomato)Hze}$/J)[86]	The Jackson Laboratory;	Stock no. 7914
Smo$^{fl/fl}$ [87]	The Jackson Laboratory;	Stock no. 4526

Thy1-GFPm [58]	The Jackson Laboratory;	Stock no. 7788
Oligonucleotides		
Hevin CACTCCGAGTAGTCCCTCCA (forward) AAACTGTGAGTGGTGAGCGA (reverse)	Invitrogen	
Sparc TAGCTGCTCGGAGGGGAATGT (forward) TCACCATCCGCATGTTCCCAC (reverse)	Invitrogen	
Gli1 AACATGGCGTCTCAGGGAAG (reverse) GACGGAGGTCTCTTTGTCCG (forward)	Invitrogen	
Gapdh CATGGCCTACATGGCCTCCA (forward) TGGGATAGGGCCTCTCTTGCT (reverse)	Invitrogen	
Viral Constructs		
AAV8-CaMKIIa-hM3D(Gq)-mCherry	Addgene	50476-AAV8
AAV5-hSyn-hM3D(Gq)-HA	Addgene	121539-AAV5
Software		
PRISM	GraphPad	
ImageJ	Fiji	
CFX Manager	Bio-Rad	

METHODS

Animals

All experiments were approved by Drexel University's Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and were conducted according to approved protocols. Transgenic mouse lines are listed in the key resources table, used on the C57BL/6 background. Postnatal (P) day 18 – 90 mice were used for this study. Mice of both sexes were included in each experiment.

Enriched experience housing

P21 littermates were weaned into either enriched environment (EE) or standard housing (SH) cages for two days or three weeks. Large rat cages were used. The EE cage contained strings of beads hung from wire lids, positioned densely throughout the cage, requiring mice to constantly interact with the beads. The density and spacing of the beads were altered every 3 days (in 3-week experiment) to promote novelty. The SH cage contained only standard hub and nesting materials. A minimum of 7 mice was used for each cage. Data from each analysis was collected over 2-5 separate experiments from separate litters.

Whisker trimming

Whisker trimming procedure was conducted on P21 mice. Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane in an induction chamber (3%) and then placed under dissecting scope with continuous isoflurane inhalation (1.5%). Micro scissors were used to trim whiskers on the right side, as close to the skin as possible. Whiskers were trimmed every 3 days for the duration of 3 weeks.

Tamoxifen administration

Tamoxifen (Sigma) was dissolved in corn oil at a 20 mg/ml concentration at 37°C. For $Gli1^{CreER/nlacZ}$; Ai14 mice (Figure 2), 3 doses of 250mg/kg tamoxifen were administered by oral gavage over 3 days from P18-P20 and tissues were analyzed at P42. For Shh^{CreER}; Ai14 mice (Figure 4), 3 similar doses

were administered over 3 days at the end of the experiment (concurrent with when increases of BGal

cells were observed). For *Gli1^CreER*; *Smo^fl/fl*; Ai14 mice (Figure 5, 6), 3 similar doses were administered

from P18-P20, weaned into SH or EE cages from P21-P23 and analyzed on P23.

Virus injection

All AAV injections were conducted on adult mice at P60 or older. Immediately prior to surgery, mice

received a subcutaneous injection of carprofen (Rimadyl, 6.8 mg/kg), and a follow up injection given the

day after surgery. Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane in an induction chamber (3%) and then

placed in a stereotaxic apparatus (Stoelting) with continuous isoflurane inhalation (1.5%). The scalp

was opened and a small area of the skull was removed near injection site. Stereotaxic coordinates for

somatosensory cortex injection were AP -1.5 mm, ML -2.5 mm, DV -0.5 mm.

Viruses were stored in aliquots at -80°C and kept on ice until injection. Virus titers were ≥ 3×10^{12} vg/mL

for AAV8-CaMKIIa-hM3D(Gq)-mCherry and ≥ 7×10^{12} vg/mL for AAV5-hSyn-hM3D(Gq)-HA. Virus was

front-filled into a glass syringe (Hamilton). Injection volume was 1000 nL, delivered at 200 nL/ min

controlled by microinjector (WPI). After injection, mice were allowed to recover for 2 weeks before

administration of CNO (Tocris). CNO was dissolved in drinking water, aimed to deliver a dosage of 1mg

CNO per kg mouse over 1 week. Control mice received water only.

506
507
Collection of animal tissue

Animals used in experiments were each assigned a unique 4-5 digit ID in order to blind researchers of

genotypes and housing conditions. Mice were deeply anesthetized by intraperitoneal injection of

ketamine/ xylazine/ acepromazine, transcardially injected with 100 units heparin and perfused with ice-

cold PBS followed by 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA; Sigma-Aldrich). Brains were dissected and fixed for

at least 4 hours in PFA at 4°C then transferred to 30% sucrose at 4°C for at least 48 hours. Brains were

cryosectioned (Leica CM3050s) and collected in 40 µm sections. Sections were stored in 0.1M Tris-

buffered saline (TBS) with 0.05% sodium azide at 4ºC. Immunohistochemistry was performed with

primary antibodies listed in the resources table below. Sections were washed three times with 0.1M

TBS at room temperature (10 minutes/wash) then blocked in 10% Normal Serum with 0.5% Triton-X

(Sigma-Aldrich) for one hour at room temperature. Sections were then incubated with primary antibody

in 0.5% Triton-X at 4ºC overnight.

Immunohistochemistry

For fluorescent immunohistochemistry, sections were rinsed for three times the following day in 0.1M

TBS and incubated in AlexaFluor-conjugated secondary antibodies with 10% Normal Serum in 0.1M

TBS at room temperature for two hours. Sections were then rinsed in 0.1M TBS and incubated in DAPI

(Life Technologies) for 15 minutes. Sections were rinsed again in 0.1M TBS, mounted on microscope

slides (Fisherbrand), and coverslipped using ProLong Gold Antifade Mounting Medium (Invitrogen

#P10144) and Fisherfinest Premium Cover Glass. For brightfield immunohistochemistry, sections were

rinsed as previously described but were incubated with biotinylated secondary antibodies against the

primary species (Vector Laboratories) for one hour. Sections were transferred to Avidin-Biotin Complex

solution (Vector) for one hour and visualized using 3,3'-diaminobenzadine (DAB Peroxidase Substrate

Kit, Vector). Sections were then mounted onto slides as described, dehydrated through increasing

concentrations of EtOH, and cover slipped with DPX mounting medium (Fisher).

Fluorescent In situ hybridization (RNAscope)

All fluorescent in-situ hybridization (FISH) experiments were performed on brain tissue fixed with 4%

paraformaldehyde and processed using cryosectioning at 14 µm and directly slide mounted, with one

brain section per slide. The assay was carried out using the "fixed frozen sample preparation and

treatment" and the RNAscope Multiplex Fluorescent v2 Assay using the manufacturer's instructions.

The original protocol can be found here on the ACDBio website: https://acdbio.com/documents/product-

documents.

Confocal z-stack images were acquired at 63x for blinded analysis in ImageJ (FIJI). Cells with at least 4

puncta were identified as positive for *Gli1* mRNA. The number of *Gli1+* cells were divided by the total

number of DAPI cells within the z-stack, and then normalized to SH condition for each layer. For each

animal, each layer, at least 2 z-stacks were analyzed for a minimum of 100 DAPI cells.

Stereological quantification

The number of cells in each area of the cortex was estimated using a modified optical fractionator and

stereological image analysis software (Stereo Investigator, MBF Bioscience) with upright microscope

(Zeiss) with a computer-driven stage. The cortical area of interest (somatosensory, motor or visual

cortex) was outlined at a low magnification, using anatomical landmarks as described in Paxinos and

Franklin's The Mouse Brain in Stereotaxic Coordinates 4th Ed. For somatosensory cortex, sections

from A-P Bregma 1.33mm to -2.15mm were analyzed. For visual cortex, sections from A-P Bregma -

2.27mm to -4.59mm were analyzed. A target cell count of 150 and target coefficient of error (m=1) of <

0.1 was used to define number of sections counted, scan grid, and counting frame size. Counting

frames were randomly selected by the image analysis software and cells were counted at the 40x

objective with a DIC optic filter. Only cells with a clearly labeled cell body were counted.

Fluorescent intensity analysis

Immunofluorescent slides were imaged using Leica DMI 4000B microscope equipped with TCS SPE

confocal system. Regions of interest were identified with 10x dry objective and confocal z-stacks were

acquired with 40x oil objectives. To analyze protein abundance in a single astrocyte, a 20 µm x 20 µm

region of interest is drawn in ImageJ around an astrocyte identified by fluorescent signal of either

tdTomato reporter protein or staining for βGal or Sox9. This region of interest should contain one

astrocyte of interest and not contain signal from other cells. The mean fluorescent intensity is then

collected. At least 25 cells were sampled per animal, dispersed throughout multiple sites encompassing

the somatosensory cortex. The mean fluorescent intensities of the cells were averaged to produce the

fluorescent intensity value for one animal, represented in the graph as one data point. For negative

controls, we measured fluorescent signals of Sox9 and found no difference between layers and housing

conditions.

Dendritic spine analysis

Analysis of spine density was performed in a blinded study design. WT controls were derived from Cre-

negative littermates. For analysis in the cortex, apical dendrites of layer V pyramidal neurons located in

layers II/III, IV and V were imaged. For analysis in the hippocampus, apical dendrites from CA1

pyramidal neurons were imaged. Confocal z-stacks were collected with 63x oil objective, at 0.35 μm

steps. Spine density was determined by first tracing the dendritic segment in ImageJ and obtaining the

length. Analyzed segments range from 75 – 125 μm in length. Protrusions were classified into

mushroom, intermediate or filopodial morphologies. Protrusions exhibiting a bright, bulbous head with a

large head-to-stalk ratio were classified as mushroom. Thinner protrusions with a dimmer, smaller or no

head were classified as intermediate. Dim, thin and elongated protrusions that lack any head were

classified as filopodia. For GluA1 colocalization analysis in dendritic spines, 63x z-stack images were

analyzed. Only spine heads colocalizing with a clearly defined GluA1 puncta were categorized as

positive for GluA1. The number of GluA1 positive protrusions were divided by the total number of

protrusions on the segment to obtain the fraction of GluA1 positive protrusions.

Quantitative reverse transcriptase – polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR)

Mice were deeply anesthetized by isoflurane before rapid decapitation. Cortices were dissected into

TRIzol reagent (Thermo-Fisher, Waltham, MA) and RNA was extracted according to TRIzol's standard

protocol. RNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA using the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription

Kit (Thermo-Fisher). qPCR was performed with the CFX96 Touch Real-Time PCR Detection System

(Bio-Rad) using PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermo-Fisher). Primers were designed using

NCBI Primer-BLAST (see resources table). Samples were run in triplicate. Data was analyzed using the

CFX Manager Software (Bio-Rad), using the ΔΔCt method. *Gapdh* was used as the reference gene,

itself having no difference of expression between sample groups.

Quantification and statistical analysis

Statistical analysis and data visualization were performed using Prism (GraphPad). Data were

assessed for normality using Shapiro-Wilk test. For t-tests, variances were compared before choosing

between Student's (if no significant difference) or Welch's t-tests (if there is a significant difference).

Pair-wise t-tests were used for measurements taken from the same animal. Additionally, one-way and

two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons were used with reported p-values. In all graphs,

data points represent individual animals.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Neuronal activity stimulates Shh signaling.

(**A**) Schematic depicting experimental approach. Gli1$^{nlacZ/+}$ mice were injected with AAV8-CamKIIα-

hM3DGq-mCherry in the somatosensory cortex. Two weeks later, mice were fed CNO-medicated or

unmedicated drinking water for 7 days before analysis. (**B**) Transfected region can be visualized with

mCherry. SSCtx, somatosensory cortex. Scale bar, 250 μm. (**C**) mCherry (magenta, left panel) and c-

Fos (green, middle panel) in transfected region. Arrows point to cells co-expressing mCherry and c-

Fos. Scale bar, 25 μm. (**D, F**) Brightfield immunohistochemistry for c-Fos (D) and βGal (F) in the

somatosensory cortex. Scale bar, 25 μm. (**E, G**) Stereological quantification of c-Fos (E) and βGal (G)

in the transfected region shows increased neural activity and increased Shh signaling in mice that

received CNO compared to water-fed controls. (**H**) Immunofluorescent staining for Sox9 (magenta, left

panel) and βGal (green, middle panel) in transfected region. Arrows point to βGal cells co-labeled with

Sox9. Scale bar, 25 µm. Data points represent individual animals; bars show mean ± SEM; Student's t-

tests.

Figure 2. Enriched experience stimulates Shh signaling.

(A) Experimental timeline. *Gli1^{nlacZ/+}* mice were weaned into standard housing (SH) or enriched

experience (EE) cages at P21 and analyzed at P42. **(B)** Representative brightfield

immunohistochemistry for βGal in the somatosensory cortex. Scale bar, 50 µm. **(C-F)** Stereological

quantification of cells expressing the immediate-early gene *c-Fos* (C, E) or βGal (D, F) in the

somatosensory (C, D) or visual (E, F) cortices. **(G)** Schematic depicting genetic strategy to label cells

with temporally distinct Shh signaling (left panel) and timeline of experiment (right panel). In *Gli1^{nlacZ/+}*

mice, βGal expression labels cells with active Shh signaling. In *Gli1^{CreER}*;Ai14 mice, Cre-mediated

recombination promotes permanent expression of tdTom. In *Gli1^{CreER/nlacZ}*; Ai14 mice, tdTom expression

identifies cells with Shh signaling at baseline (t_0) and βGal expression identifies Shh signaling in cells at

the end of the experiment (t_1). Double labeled cells identify cells with persistent Shh signaling

throughout the experiment. **(H-I)** Low power (H) and high power (I) images showing tdTom expression

(magenta, left panel) and immunostaining for β-Gal (green, middle panel; merged image, right panel) in

the cortex of mice housed in EE as described in (G). Scale bar, 250 µm. Individual cells show those

with upregulation (blue arrowhead), downregulation (open arrowhead) and persistent (white arrow) Shh

activity. Scale bar, 50 µm. **(J-L)** The fraction of βGal-labeled cells that are single labeled (J), tdTom-

labeled cells that are single labeled (K), and all cells that are double labeled (L) in SH or EE. Data

points represent individual animals; bars show mean ± SEM; Student's t-tests.

Figure 3. Shh signaling responds rapidly to sensory activation and is not persistent.

(**A**) Brightfield immunohistochemistry for β-Gal in the somatosensory cortex of *Gli1^{nlacZ/+}* mice housed in

SH (upper panel) or EE (lower panel) for 2 days. Scale bar, 50 µm. (**B**) Stereological quantification of β-

Gal shows increased SHH activity in the somatosensory cortex after 2 days of EE. (**C**) Representative

images of fluorescent *in situ* hybridization for *Gli1* mRNA in deep layers of the cortex from SH, EE and

EE+SH housing conditions. Dotted line outlines individual DAPI nuclei with *Gli1* mRNA. Note the

increase in *Gli1* transcripts in EE compared to SH. Scale bar, 10 µm. (**D**) *Gli1*+ cell count in Layers IV

and V of the cortex from mice housed in SH or EE for 4 days or EE for 2 days followed by SH for 2

days (EE+SH). In each layer, 100 - 800 DAPI cells analyzed per animal. Data points represent

individual animals; data represent mean ± SEM; Student's t-test (B) and one-way ANOVA with Tukey's

multiple comparisons (D).

Figure 4. Sensory experience does not increase the number of *Shh*-expressing neurons.

(**A**) Schematic depicting experimental approach. P21 *Shh$^{CreER/+}$;* Ai14 mice were weaned into SH or EE

cages and received 3 doses of tamoxifen from P39 - P41. Tissues were analyzed two weeks after the

last tamoxifen dose. (**B-D**) Low power image showing tdTom labeled cells (magenta) in *Shh$^{CreER/+}$;* Ai14

mice. Labeled cells are found predominantly in layer V. Insets show individual cells with neuronal

morphology in the cortex (C) and no labeled cells in the ventral posterior medial (VPM) nucleus of the

thalamus (D). Counterstained with DAPI (blue). Scale bar, 25 µm. (**E**) The number of *Shh* neurons in

the cortex in SH and EE mice. (**F**) *Shh$^{CreER/+}$*; Ai14 mice were injected with AAV5-hSyn-hM3DGq-HA

targeting the somatosensory cortex. After 2 weeks, mice were fed CNO-medicated or unmedicated

water for 10 days, receiving 3 doses of tamoxifen during the last 3 days. Tissues were analyzed seven

days later. dpi, days post injection. (**G-I**) Immunolabeling for HA (green) shows the transduced region

overlapping with tdTom labeled (magenta) cells in the cortex. Inset shown in (H). Individual cell shown

at high power in (I). Scale bar, 25 µm. (**J**) The number of *Shh* neurons in the cortex between water

control versus CNO. Data points represent individual animals; bars show mean ± SEM; Student's t-

tests.

Figure 5. Experience-dependent structural plasticity requires Shh signaling.

(**A-B**) Representative dendritic segments in deep layers of WT (A) and *Gfap Smo* CKO (B) mice

housed in SH or EE. Scale bar, 5 μm. (**C**) Spine density of dendritic segments in deep layers of WT and

Gfap Smo CKO mice housed in SH or EE. (**D**) tdTom (magenta) labeled astrocytes and GFP (white)

labeled neurons, counterstained with DAPI (blue), in the cortex of WT (left) and *Gli1 Smo* CKO (right)

mice. Scale bar, 100 μm. (**E**) Dendritic segments from *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice housed in SH or EE. (**F**)

Spine density of deep layer dendritic segments from WT and *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice housed in SH or EE.

(**G**) Spine density of upper layer dendritic segments from WT and *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice housed in SH or

EE. (**H**) tdTom (magenta) and GFP (white) labeled cells in area CA1 of the hippocampus from WT and

Gli1 Smo CKO mice, counterstained with DAPI (blue). Area CA1 contains few tdTom labeled cells

reflecting the absence of Shh activity in hippocampal astrocytes. Scale bar, 50 μm. (**I**) Spine density

from apical dendrites of CA1 neurons in WT and *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice housed in SH or EE. Data points

represent individual animals, bars show mean ± SEM, *n ≥ 3 - 5* dendritic segments analyzed per

animal. Statistical testing performed by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons. s.o.,

stratum oriens; s.r., stratum radiatum.

Figure 6. Experience-dependent Hevin and SPARC are Shh-dependent.

(**A, D**) Immunofluorescent staining for Hevin (A, gray) and SPARC (D, gray) in individual astrocytes

from upper layer labeled with Sox9 (green) and deep layers labeled with tdTom (magenta) in the cortex

of P60 *Gli1$^{CreER/+}$;* Ai14 mice. Merged images in right panels. Scale bar, 10 μm. (**B, E**) Analysis of

fluorescent intensity of Hevin (B) and SPARC (E) immunostaining in individual astrocytes from upper

versus deep layers. *n = 5-6* animals, ≥ 30 cells analyzed per animal. (**C, F**) qPCR for *Hevin* (C) or

Sparc (F) expression in WT vs *Gfap Smo* CKO mice. *n=8-12* WT mice, *n=6-8 Gfap Smo* CKO mice. (**G**)

Immunofluorescent staining for Hevin (gray) and βGal (green) in *Gli1$^{nlacZ/+}$* (WT) mice housed in SH vs

EE from P21-P23. Merged images in right panels. Scale bar, 10 μm. (**H, I**) Single cell analysis of Hevin

fluorescent intensity in WT (H) and *Gli1 Smo* CKO (I) mice housed in SH vs EE. 25-50 cells analyzed

per animal. (**J**) Immunofluorescent staining for SPARC (gray) in tdTom cells (magenta) in *Gli1$^{CreER/+}$;*

Smo$^{fl/fl}$; Ai14 (*Gli1 Smo* CKO) mice housed in SH vs EE. Merged images in right panels. Scale bar, 10

μm. (**K, L**) Single cell analysis of SPARC fluorescent intensity in WT (K) and *Gli1 Smo* CKO (L) mice

housed in SH vs EE. 25-50 cells analyzed per animal. (**M, O, Q**) Representative examples of dendritic

protrusions categorized as mushroom spines (M), intermediate spines (O) and filopodia (Q). Scale bar,

5 μm. (**N, P, R**) Fraction of mushroom spines (N), intermediate spines (P) and filopodia (R) from WT

and *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice housed in SH vs EE. At least 300 spines from 3 dendritic segments analyzed

per animal. Data points represent individual animals; bars show mean ± SEM; Student's t-tests (B, C,

E, F, H, I, K, L) and 2-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons (N, P, R).

Figure S1: Enriched experience stimulates Shh activity in astrocytes. Related to Figure 2.

(**A-D**) Immunofluorescence for βGal (green), and Sox9 (A), NeuN (B), CAII (C) or Ki67 (D; magenta) in

the cortex of *Gli1$^{nlacZ/+}$* mice. Counterstained with DAPI (blue). Merged images shown in right panels.

(**E**) The fraction of βGal-labeled cells colocalizing with Sox9 does not change between SH and EE. *n=4*

mice in SH, *n=4* mice in EE, 100-400 βGal cells analyzed per animal. Scale bars, 10 μm; data points

represent individual animals; bars show mean ± SEM; Student's t-test.

Figure S2: Whisker deprivation reduces SHH activity.

(**A-B**) Sterelogical quantification of βGal cells from the ipsilateral (intact) and contralateral (deprived)

barrel (A) and auditory (B) cortex after 3 weeks of unilateral whisker trimming. *n=3* mice, data points

represent individual animals, bars show mean ± SEM; paired t-tests.

714
Figure S3: Shh activity is effectively disrupted in *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice without altering spine

density. Related to Figure 5.

(**A-B**) qPCR for *Gli1* expression in WT and *Gfap Smo* CKO (A) and *Gli1 Smo* CKO (B) mice. *n=4-6*

mice. (**C**) Representative dendritic segments from P60 WT versus *Gli1 Smo* CKO at standard housing

conditions. Scale bar, 5 µm. (**D**) Protrusion density of deep layer dendrites between P60 WT vs *Gli1*

Smo CKO at standard housing conditions. *n=2* WT mice, *n=3 Gli1 Smo* CKO mice, 3 dendritic

segments analyzed per animal. (**E**) Spine density of deep layer dendritic segments in wild-type

littermate controls of *Gli1 Smo* CKO animals housed in SH, including Cre-, Cre- / + tamoxifen, Cre+ (no

tamoxifen). Animals were subsequently pooled as WT for comparison with *Gli1 Smo* CKO. (**F**) Spine

density of deep layer dendritic segments in wild-type littermate controls of *Gli1 Smo* CKO animals

housed in EE, including Cre- and Cre+ (no tamoxifen). Animals were subsequently pooled as WT for

comparison with *Gli1 Smo* CKO. Data points represent individual animals; bars show mean ± SEM;

statistical analyses were Welch's t-test (A), Student's t-tests (D, F) and one-way ANOVA with Tukey's

multiple comparisons (B, E).

Figure S4: Hevin and SPARC are regulated by Shh activity. Related to Figure 6.

(**A, C**) Immunostaining for Hevin (gray, A) and SPARC (gray, C) in the cortex of P60 *Gli1$^{CreER/+}$;* Ai14

mice showing tdTom cells (magenta) primarily localized to deep layers (IV and V) of the cortex in

contrast to upper layer (II/III). (**B, D**) Fluorescent intensity measurements of Hevin (B) and SPARC (D)

across cortical layers. *n=5-8* animals, 2 sections analyzed per animal. (**E, G**) Immunofluorescent

staining for Hevin (E, gray, left panels) and SPARC (G, gray, left panels) in Sox9 cells (green) from *Gli1*

Smo CKO mice housed in SH vs EE. Merged images in right panels. Scale bar, 10 µm. (**F, H**)

Fluorescent intensity analysis of Hevin (F) and SPARC (H) in Sox9 astrocytes from *Gfap Smo* CKO

mice housed in SH or EE from P21-P23. Data points represent individual animals; bars show mean ±

SEM; statistical tests are one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons (B, D) and Student's t-

tests (H, J).

Figure S5: Enriched experience does not increase GluA1 AMPAR in dendritic spines. Related to

Figure 5 and 6.

(**A - C**) Fraction of mature (A), intermediate spines (B) and filopodia (C) in *Gfap Smo* CKO mice housed

in SH or EE. (**D**) Immunostaining for GluA1 (magenta) in dendritic spines (gray). Arrow points to spine

colocalizing with GluA1 puncta. Merged images in right panel. Scale bar, 5 μm. (**E**) The fraction of

GluA1+ protrusions in WT, *Gfap Smo* CKO and *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice after SH or EE. At least 200

spines analyzed per animal. Data points represent individual animals; bars show mean ± SEM;

statistical tests are Student's t-tests (A, B, C) and two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons

(E).

REFERENCES

Yap, E. L. & Greenberg, M. E. Activity-Regulated Transcription: Bridging the Gap between Neural Activity and Behavior. *Neuron* **100**, 330-348 (2018). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.neuron.2018.10.013

Farhy-Tselnicker, I. *et al.* Activity-dependent modulation of synapse-regulating genes in astrocytes. *Elife* **10** (2021). https://doi.org:10.7554/eLife.70514

Hasel, P. *et al.* Neurons and neuronal activity control gene expression in astrocytes to regulate their development and metabolism. *Nature Communications* **8**, 1-17 (2017). https://doi.org:10.1038/ncomms15132

Hrvatin, S. *et al.* Single-cell analysis of experience-dependent transcriptomic states in the mouse visual cortex. *Nature Neuroscience* **21**, 120-129 (2018). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41593-017-0029-5

Perea, G., Navarrete, M. & Araque, A. Tripartite synapses: astrocytes process and control synaptic information. *Trends Neurosci* **32**, 421-431 (2009). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.tins.2009.05.001

Armbruster, M. *et al.* Neuronal activity drives pathway-specific depolarization of peripheral astrocyte processes. *Nature Neuroscience* **25**, 607-616 (2022). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41593-022-01049-x

Covelo, A. & Araque, A. Neuronal activity determines distinct gliotransmitter release from a single astrocyte. *Elife* **7** (2018). https://doi.org:10.7554/eLife.32237

Haydon, P. G. & Carmignoto, G. Astrocyte control of synaptic transmission and neurovascular coupling. *Physiol Rev* **86**, 1009-1031 (2006). https://doi.org:10.1152/physrev.00049.2005

Stobart, J. L. *et al.* Cortical Circuit Activity Evokes Rapid Astrocyte Calcium Signals on a Similar Timescale to Neurons. *Neuron* **98**, 726-735.e724 (2018). https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2018.03.050

Araque, A., Parpura, V., Sanzgiri, R. P. & Haydon, P. G. Tripartite synapses: glia, the unacknowledged partner. *Trends in Neurosciences* **22**, 208-215 (1999). https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-2236(98)01349-6

Halassa, M. M., Fellin, T. & Haydon, P. G. The tripartite synapse: roles for gliotransmission in health and disease. *Trends in Molecular Medicine* **13**, 54-63 (2007). https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molmed.2006.12.005

Jourdain, P. *et al.* Glutamate exocytosis from astrocytes controls synaptic strength. *Nat Neurosci* **10**, 331-339 (2007). https://doi.org:10.1038/nn1849

Sapkota, D. *et al.* Activity-dependent translation dynamically alters the proteome of the perisynaptic astrocyte process. *Cell Rep* **41**, 111474 (2022). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.celrep.2022.111474

Wang, F. *et al.* Photolysis of caged Ca2+ but not receptor-mediated Ca2+ signaling triggers astrocytic glutamate release. *J Neurosci* **33**, 17404-17412 (2013). https://doi.org:10.1523/jneurosci.2178-13.2013

Ahmadpour, N. *et al.* Cortical astrocyte N-methyl-D-aspartate receptors influence whisker barrel activity and sensory discrimination in mice. *Nat Commun* **15**, 1571 (2024). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41467-024-45989-3

16   Liu, J., Feng, X., Wang, Y., Xia, X. & Zheng, J. C. Astrocytes: GABAceptive and GABAergic
Cells in the Brain. *Front Cell Neurosci* **16**, 892497 (2022).
https://doi.org:10.3389/fncel.2022.892497

17   Shelton, M. K. & McCarthy, K. D. Mature hippocampal astrocytes exhibit functional metabotropic
and ionotropic glutamate receptors in situ. *Glia* **26**, 1-11 (1999).
https://doi.org:10.1002/(sici)1098-1136(199903)26:1<1::aid-glia1>3.0.co;2-z

18   Adamsky, A. *et al.* Astrocytic Activation Generates De Novo Neuronal Potentiation and Memory
Enhancement. *Cell* **174**, 59-62.e14 (2018). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.cell.2018.05.002

19   Henneberger, C., Papouin, T., Oliet, S. H. R. & Rusakov, D. A. Long-term potentiation depends
on release of -serine from astrocytes. *Nature* **463**, 232-236 (2010).
https://doi.org:10.1038/nature08673

20   Ribot, J. *et al.* Astrocytes close the mouse critical period for visual plasticity. *Science* **373**, 77-81
(2021). https://doi.org:10.1126/science.abf5273

21   Sancho, L., Contreras, M. & Allen, N. J. Glia as sculptors of synaptic plasticity. *Neurosci Res*
167, 17-29 (2021). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.neures.2020.11.005

22   Wahis, J., Hennes, M., Arckens, L. & Holt, M. G. Star power: the emerging role of astrocytes as
neuronal partners during cortical plasticity. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* **67**, 174-182 (2021).
https://doi.org:10.1016/j.conb.2020.12.001

23   Allen, N. J. *et al.* Astrocyte glypicans 4 and 6 promote formation of excitatory synapses via
GluA1 AMPA receptors. *Nature* **486**, 410-414 (2012). https://doi.org:10.1038/nature11059

24   Blanco-Suarez, E., Liu, T. F., Kopelevich, A. & Allen, N. J. Astrocyte-Secreted Chordin-like 1
Drives Synapse Maturation and Limits Plasticity by Increasing Synaptic GluA2 AMPA
Receptors. *Neuron* **100**, 1116-1132 e1113 (2018). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.neuron.2018.09.043

25   Christopherson, K. S. *et al.* Thrombospondins are astrocyte-secreted proteins that promote
CNS synaptogenesis. *Cell* **120**, 421-433 (2005). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.cell.2004.12.020

26   Kucukdereli, H. *et al.* Control of excitatory CNS synaptogenesis by astrocyte-secreted proteins
Hevin and SPARC. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **108**, E440-449 (2011).
https://doi.org:10.1073/pnas.1104977108

27   Jones, E. V. *et al.* Astrocytes control glutamate receptor levels at developing synapses through
SPARC-beta-integrin interactions. *J Neurosci* **31**, 4154-4165 (2011).
https://doi.org:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4757-10.2011

28   Chung, W. S. *et al.* Astrocytes mediate synapse elimination through MEGF10 and MERTK
pathways. *Nature* **504**, 394-400 (2013). https://doi.org:10.1038/nature12776

29   Araque, A. *et al.* Gliotransmitters travel in time and space. *Neuron* **81**, 728-739 (2014).
https://doi.org:10.1016/j.neuron.2014.02.007

30   Genoud, C. *et al.* Plasticity of astrocytic coverage and glutamate transporter expression in adult
mouse cortex. *PLoS Biol* **4**, e343 (2006). https://doi.org:10.1371/journal.pbio.0040343

31   Allen, N. J. & Eroglu, C. Cell Biology of Astrocyte-Synapse Interactions. *Neuron* **96**, 697-708
(2017). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.neuron.2017.09.056

32   Garcia, A. D. R., Petrova, R., Eng, L. & Joyner, A. L. Sonic Hedgehog Regulates Discrete
Populations of Astrocytes in the Adult Mouse Forebrain. *The Journal of neuroscience : the*
official journal of the Society for Neuroscience **30**, 13597-13608 (2010).
https://doi.org:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0830-10.2010

33 Farmer, W. T. *et al.* Neurons diversify astrocytes in the adult brain through sonic hedgehog
signaling. *Science* **351**, 849-854 (2016). https://doi.org:10.1126/science.aab3103

34 Xie, Y. *et al.* Astrocyte-neuron crosstalk through Hedgehog signaling mediates cortical synapse
development. *Cell Reports* **38**, 110416 (2022).
https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2022.110416

35 Hill, S. A. *et al.* Sonic hedgehog signaling in astrocytes mediates cell type-specific synaptic
organization. *eLife* **8**, e45545 (2019). https://doi.org:10.7554/eLife.45545

36 Harwell, Corey C. *et al.* Sonic Hedgehog Expression in Corticofugal Projection Neurons Directs
Cortical Microcircuit Formation. *Neuron* **73**, 1116-1126 (2012).
https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2012.02.009

37 Briscoe, J. & Therond, P. P. The mechanisms of Hedgehog signalling and its roles in
development and disease. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* **14**, 416-429 (2013).
https://doi.org:10.1038/nrm3598

38 Bai, C. B., Auerbach, W., Lee, J. S., Stephen, D. & Joyner, A. L. Gli2, but not Gli1, is required
for initial Shh signaling and ectopic activation of the Shh pathway. *Development* **129**, 4753-4761
(2002). https://doi.org:10.1242/dev.129.20.4753

39 Su, Y., Yuan, Y., Feng, S., Ma, S. & Wang, Y. High frequency stimulation induces sonic
hedgehog release from hippocampal neurons. *Sci Rep* **7**, 43865 (2017).
https://doi.org:10.1038/srep43865

40 Charytoniuk, D. *et al.* Sonic Hedgehog signalling in the developing and adult brain. *J Physiol*
Paris **96**, 9-16 (2002). https://doi.org:10.1016/s0928-4257(01)00075-4

41 Peng, J. *et al.* Sonic Hedgehog Is a Remotely Produced Cue that Controls Axon Guidance
Trans-axonally at a Midline Choice Point. *Neuron* **97**, 326-340 e324 (2018).
https://doi.org:10.1016/j.neuron.2017.12.028

42 Traiffort, E. *et al.* Discrete localizations of hedgehog signalling components in the developing
and adult rat nervous system. *Eur J Neurosci* **11**, 3199-3214 (1999).
https://doi.org:10.1046/j.1460-9568.1999.00777.x

43 Traiffort, E., Charytoniuk, D. A., Faure, H. & Ruat, M. Regional distribution of Sonic Hedgehog,
patched, and smoothened mRNA in the adult rat brain. *J Neurochem* **70**, 1327-1330 (1998).
https://doi.org:10.1046/j.1471-4159.1998.70031327.x

44 Beug, S. T., Parks, R. J., McBride, H. M. & Wallace, V. A. Processing-dependent trafficking of
Sonic hedgehog to the regulated secretory pathway in neurons. *Molecular and Cellular*
Neuroscience **46**, 583-596 (2011). https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mcn.2010.12.009

45 Alexander, G. M. *et al.* Remote Control of Neuronal Activity in Transgenic Mice Expressing
Evolved G Protein-Coupled Receptors. *Neuron* **63**, 27-39 (2009).
https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2009.06.014

46 Hui, C.-c. & Angers, S. Gli Proteins in Development and Disease. *Annual Review of Cell and*
Developmental Biology **27**, 513-537 (2011). https://doi.org:10.1146/annurev-cellbio-092910-
154048

47 Armbruster, B. N., Li, X., Pausch, M. H., Herlitze, S. & Roth, B. L. Evolving the lock to fit the key
to create a family of G protein-coupled receptors potently activated by an inert ligand.
Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences **104**, 5163-5168 (2007).
https://doi.org:10.1073/pnas.0700293104

48 Sun, W. *et al.* SOX9 Is an Astrocyte-Specific Nuclear Marker in the Adult Brain Outside the
Neurogenic Regions. *The Journal of neuroscience : the official journal of the Society for*
Neuroscience **37**, 4493 - 4507 (2017). https://doi.org:10.1523/jneurosci.3199-16.2017

49 Yang, G., Pan, F. & Gan, W.-B. Stably maintained dendritic spines are associated with lifelong
memories. *Nature* **462**, 920-924 (2009). https://doi.org/10.1038/nature08577

50 Niewiadomski, P. *et al.* Gli Proteins: Regulation in Development and Cancer. *Cells* **8** (2019).
https://doi.org/10.3390/cells8020147

51 Gingrich, E. C., Case, K. & Garcia, A. D. R. A subpopulation of astrocyte progenitors defined by
Sonic hedgehog signaling. *Neural Development* **17**, 2 (2022). https://doi.org:10.1186/s13064-
021-00158-w

52 Staiger, J. F. & Petersen, C. C. H. Neuronal Circuits in Barrel Cortex for Whisker Sensory
Perception. *Physiological Reviews* **101**, 353-415 (2020).
https://doi.org:10.1152/physrev.00019.2019

53 Nimchinsky, E. A., Sabatini, B. L. & Svoboda, K. Structure and function of dendritic spines.
Annual review of physiology **64**, 313-353 (2002).

54 Chen, C.-C., Bajnath, A. & Brumberg, J. C. The Impact of Development and Sensory
Deprivation on Dendritic Protrusions in the Mouse Barrel Cortex. *Cerebral Cortex* **25**, 1638-1653
(2015). https://doi.org:10.1093/cercor/bht415

55 Jung, C. K. E. & Herms, J. Structural Dynamics of Dendritic Spines are Influenced by an
Environmental Enrichment: An In Vivo Imaging Study. *Cerebral Cortex* **24**, 377-384 (2014).
https://doi.org:10.1093/cercor/bhs317

56 Landers, M. S., Knott, G. W., Lipp, H. P., Poletaeva, I. & Welker, E. Synapse formation in adult
barrel cortex following naturalistic environmental enrichment. *Neuroscience* **199**, 143-152
(2011). https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2011.10.040

57 Zuo, Y., Yang, G., Kwon, E. & Gan, W.-B. Long-term sensory deprivation prevents dendritic
spine loss in primary somatosensory cortex. *Nature* **436**, 261-265 (2005).
https://doi.org:10.1038/nature03715

58 Feng, G. *et al.* Imaging Neuronal Subsets in Transgenic Mice Expressing Multiple Spectral
Variants of GFP. *Neuron* **28**, 41-51 (2000). https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0896-
6273(00)00084-2

59 Bradshaw, A. D. Diverse biological functions of the SPARC family of proteins. *The International*
Journal of Biochemistry & Cell Biology **44**, 480-488 (2012).
https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocel.2011.12.021

60 Gan, K. J. & Südhof, T. C. SPARCL1 Promotes Excitatory But Not Inhibitory Synapse Formation
and Function Independent of Neurexins and Neuroligins. *J Neurosci* **40**, 8088-8102 (2020).
https://doi.org:10.1523/jneurosci.0454-20.2020

61 Risher, W. C. *et al.* Astrocytes refine cortical connectivity at dendritic spines. *eLife* **3**, e04047
(2014). https://doi.org:10.7554/eLife.04047

62 Albrecht, D. *et al.* SPARC prevents maturation of cholinergic presynaptic terminals. *Molecular*
and Cellular Neuroscience **49**, 364-374 (2012).
https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mcn.2012.01.005

63 Jones, E. V., Bernardinelli, Y., Zarruk, J. G., Chierzi, S. & Murai, K. K. SPARC and GluA1-
Containing AMPA Receptors Promote Neuronal Health Following CNS Injury. *Frontiers in*
Cellular Neuroscience **12** (2018).

64 Arellano, J., Benavides-Piccione, R., DeFelipe, J. & Yuste, R. Ultrastructure of dendritic spines:
correlation between synaptic and spine morphologies. *Frontiers in Neuroscience* **1** (2007).

65 Holtmaat, A. & Svoboda, K. Experience-dependent structural synaptic plasticity in the
mammalian brain. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience* **10**, 647-658 (2009).
https://doi.org:10.1038/nrn2699

66 Matsuzaki, M., Honkura, N., Ellis-Davies, G. C. R. & Kasai, H. Structural basis of long-term
potentiation in single dendritic spines. *Nature* **429**, 761-766 (2004).
https://doi.org:10.1038/nature02617

67 Ahrens, M. B., Khakh, B. S. & Poskanzer, K. E. Astrocyte Calcium Signaling. *Cold Spring Harb*
Perspect Biol (2024). https://doi.org:10.1101/cshperspect.a041353

68 Zhou, Z. *et al.* Astrocytic cAMP modulates memory via synaptic plasticity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U*
S A **118** (2021). https://doi.org:10.1073/pnas.2016584118

69 Pedrosa, L. R. R., Coimbra, G. d. S., Corrêa, M. G., Dias, I. A. & Bahia, C. P. Time Window of
the Critical Period for Neuroplasticity in S1, V1, and A1 Sensory Areas of Small Rodents: A
Systematic Review. *Frontiers in Neuroanatomy* **16** (2022).
https://doi.org:10.3389/fnana.2022.763245

70 Dallérac, G., Zapata, J. & Rouach, N. Versatile control of synaptic circuits by astrocytes: where,
when and how? *Nat Rev Neurosci* **19**, 729-743 (2018). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41583-018-
0080-6

71 Shan, L., Zhang, T., Fan, K., Cai, W. & Liu, H. Astrocyte-Neuron Signaling in Synaptogenesis.
Frontiers in Cell and Developmental Biology **9** (2021). https://doi.org:10.3389/fcell.2021.680301

72 Singh, S. K. *et al.* Astrocytes Assemble Thalamocortical Synapses by Bridging NRX1α and NL1
via Hevin. *Cell* **164**, 183-196 (2016). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.cell.2015.11.034

73 Guo, W. & Roelink, H. Loss of the Heparan Sulfate Proteoglycan Glypican5 Facilitates Long-
Range Sonic Hedgehog Signaling. *Stem Cells* **37**, 899-909 (2019).
https://doi.org:10.1002/stem.3018

74 Han, C., Belenkaya, T. Y., Wang, B. & Lin, X. Drosophila glypicans control the cell-to-cell
movement of Hedgehog by a dynamin-independent process. *Development* **131**, 601-611
(2004). https://doi.org:10.1242/dev.00958

75 Bosworth, A. P. *et al.* Astrocyte glypican 5 regulates synapse maturation and stabilization.
bioRxiv, 2023.2003.2002.529949 (2023). https://doi.org:10.1101/2023.03.02.529949

76 Traiffort, E., Moya, K. L., Faure, H., Hässig, R. & Ruat, M. High expression and anterograde
axonal transport of aminoterminal sonic hedgehog in the adult hamster brain. *European Journal*
of Neuroscience **14**, 839-850 (2001).

77 Wallace, V. A. & Raff, M. C. A role for Sonic hedgehog in axon-to-astrocyte signalling in the
rodent optic nerve. *Development* **126**, 2901-2909 (1999).
https://doi.org:10.1242/dev.126.13.2901

78 Coulter, M. E. *et al.* The ESCRT-III Protein CHMP1A Mediates Secretion of Sonic Hedgehog on
a Distinctive Subtype of Extracellular Vesicles. *Cell Reports* **24**, 973-986.e978 (2018).
https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2018.06.100

79 Vyas, N. *et al.* Vertebrate Hedgehog is secreted on two types of extracellular vesicles with
different signaling properties. *Sci Rep* **4**, 7357 (2014). https://doi.org:10.1038/srep07357

80 Sharma, P., Schiapparelli, L. & Cline, H. T. Exosomes function in cell-cell communication during
brain circuit development. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* **23**, 997-1004 (2013).
https://doi.org:10.1016/j.conb.2013.08.005

81 Ahn, S. & Joyner, A. L. In vivo analysis of quiescent adult neural stem cells responding to Sonic
hedgehog. *Nature* **437**, 894-897 (2005). https://doi.org:10.1038/nature03994

82 Balordi, F. & Fishell, G. Hedgehog signaling in the subventricular zone is required for both the
maintenance of stem cells and the migration of newborn neurons. *J Neurosci* **27**, 5936-5947
(2007). https://doi.org:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1040-07.2007

83 Petrova, R., Garcia, A. D. & Joyner, A. L. Titration of GLI3 repressor activity by sonic hedgehog
signaling is critical for maintaining multiple adult neural stem cell and astrocyte functions. *J
Neurosci* **33**, 17490-17505 (2013). https://doi.org:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2042-13.2013

84 Garcia, A. D., Doan, N. B., Imura, T., Bush, T. G. & Sofroniew, M. V. GFAP-expressing
progenitors are the principal source of constitutive neurogenesis in adult mouse forebrain. *Nat
Neurosci* **7**, 1233-1241 (2004). https://doi.org:10.1038/nn1340

85 Harfe, B. D. *et al.* Evidence for an Expansion-Based Temporal Shh Gradient in Specifying
Vertebrate Digit Identities. *Cell* **118**, 517-528 (2004).
https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2004.07.024

86 Madisen, L. *et al.* A robust and high-throughput Cre reporting and characterization system for
the whole mouse brain. *Nature Publishing Group* **13**, 133-140 (2009).
https://doi.org:10.1038/nn.2467

87 Long, F., Zhang, X. M., Karp, S., Yang, Y. & McMahon, A. P. Genetic manipulation of hedgehog
signaling in the endochondral skeleton reveals a direct role in the regulation of chondrocyte
proliferation. *Development* **128**, 5099-5108 (2001). https://doi.org:10.1242/dev.128.24.5099

Figure 1. Neuronal activity stimulates Shh signaling.
(A) Schematic depicting experimental approach. *Gli1ⁿˡᵃᶜᶻ/⁺*
mice were injected with AAV8-CamKIIα-hM3DGq-mCherry in
the somatosensory cortex. Two weeks later, mice were fed
CNO-medicated or unmedicated drinking water for 7 days
before analysis. **(B)** Transfected region can be visualized with
mCherry. SSCtx, somatosensory cortex. Scale bar, 250 µm.
(C) mCherry (magenta, left panel) and c-Fos (green, middle
panel) in transfected region. Arrows point to cells co-expressing
mCherry and c-Fos. Scale bar, 25 µm. **(D, F)** Brightfield
immunohistochemistry for c-Fos (D) and βGal (F) in the
somatosensory cortex. Scale bar, 25 µm. **(E, G)** Stereological
quantification of c-Fos (E) and βGal (G) in the transfected region
shows increased neural activity and increased Shh signaling
in mice that received CNO compared to water-fed controls. **(H)**
Immunofluorescent staining for Sox9 (magenta, left panel) and
βGal (green, middle panel) in transfected region. Arrows point to
βGal cells co-labeled with Sox9. Scale bar, 25 µm. Data points
represent individual animals; bars show mean ± SEM; Student's
t-tests.

Figure 2. Enriched experience stimulates Shh signaling.
(A) Experimental timeline. *Gli1^nlacZ/+* mice were weaned into standard housing (SH) or enriched experience (EE) cages at P21 and analyzed at P42. **(B)** Representative brightfield immunohistochemistry for βGal in the somatosensory cortex. Scale bar, 50 μm. **(C-F)** Stereological quantification of cells expressing the immediate-early gene *c-Fos* (C, E) or βGal (D, F) in the somatosensory (C, D) or visual (E, F) cortices. **(G)** Schematic depicting genetic strategy to label cells with temporally distinct Shh signaling (left panel) and timeline of experiment (right panel). In *Gli1^nlacZ/+* mice, βGal expression labels cells with active Shh signaling. In *Gli1^CreER*;Ai14 mice, Cre-mediated recombination promotes permanent expression of tdTom. In *Gli1^CreER/nlacZ*; Ai14 mice, tdTom expression identifies cells with Shh signaling at baseline (t_0) and βGal expression identifies Shh signaling in cells at the end of the experiment (t_1). Double labeled cells identify cells with persistent Shh signaling throughout the experiment. **(H-I)** Low power (H) and high power (I) images showing tdTom expression (magenta, left panel) and immunostaining for β-Gal (green, middle panel; merged image, right panel) in the cortex of mice housed in EE as described in (G). Scale bar, 250 μm. **(I)** Individual cells show those with upregulation (blue arrowhead), downregulation (open arrowhead) and persistent (white arrow) Shh activity. Scale bar, 50 μm. **(J-L)** The fraction of βGal-labeled cells that are single labeled (J), tdTom-labeled cells that are single labeled (K), and all cells that are double labeled (L) in SH or EE. Data points represent individual animals; bars show mean ± SEM; Student's t-tests.

Figure 3. Shh signaling responds rapidly to sensory activation and is not persistent.
(A) Brightfield immunohistochemistry for β-Gal in the somatosensory cortex of *Gli1*$^{nlacZ/+}$ mice housed in SH (upper panel) or EE (lower panel) for 2 days. Scale bar, 50 μm. **(B)** Stereological quantification of β-Gal shows increased SHH activity in the somatosensory cortex after 2 days of EE. **(C)** Representative images of fluorescent *in situ* hybridization for *Gli1* mRNA in deep layers of the cortex from SH, EE and EE+SH housing conditions. Dotted line outlines individual DAPI nuclei with *Gli1* mRNA. Note the increase in *Gli1* transcripts in EE compared to SH. Scale bar, 10 μm. **(D)** *Gli1+* cell count in Layers IV and V of the cortex from mice housed in SH or EE for 4 days or EE for 2 days followed by SH for 2 days (EE+SH). In each layer, 100 - 800 DAPI cells analyzed per animal. Data points represent individual animals; data represent mean ± SEM; Student's t-test (B) and one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons (D).

Figure 4. Sensory experience does not increase the number of *Shh*-expressing neurons.
(A) Schematic depicting experimental approach. P21 *Shh^CreER/+*; Ai14 mice were weaned into SH or EE cages and received 3 doses of tamoxifen from P39 - P41. Tissues were analyzed two weeks after the last tamoxifen dose. **(B-D)** Low power image showing tdTom labeled cells (magenta) in *Shh^CreER/+*; Ai14 mice. Labeled cells are found predominantly in layer V. Insets show individual cells with neuronal morphology in the cortex (C) and no labeled cells in the ventral posterior medial (VPM) nucleus of the thalamus (D). Counterstained with DAPI (blue). Scale bar, 25 μm. **(E)** The number of *Shh* neurons in the cortex in SH and EE mice. **(F)** *Shh^CreER/+*; Ai14 mice were injected with AAV5-hSyn-hM3DGq-HA targeting the somatosensory cortex. After 2 weeks, mice were fed CNO-medicated or unmedicated water for 10 days, receiving 3 doses of tamoxifen during the last 3 days. Tissues were analyzed seven days later. dpi, days post injection. **(G-I)** Immunolabeling for HA (green) shows the transduced region overlapping with tdTom labeled (magenta) cells in the cortex. Inset shown in (H). Individual cell shown at high power in (I). Scale bar, 25 μm. **(J)** The number of *Shh* neurons in the cortex between water control versus CNO. Data points represent individual animals; bars show mean ± SEM; Student's t-tests.

Figure 5. Experience-dependent structural plasticity requires Shh signaling.
(A-B) Representative dendritic segments in deep layers of WT (A) and *Gfap Smo* CKO (B) mice housed in SH or EE. Scale bar, 5 μm. **(C)** Spine density of dendritic segments in deep layers of WT and *Gfap Smo* CKO mice housed in SH or EE. **(D)** tdTom (magenta) labeled astrocytes and GFP (white) labeled neurons, counterstained with DAPI (blue), in the cortex of WT (left) and *Gli1 Smo* CKO (right) mice. Scale bar, 100 μm. **(E)** Dendritic segments from *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice housed in SH or EE. **(F)** Spine density of deep layer dendritic segments from WT and *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice housed in SH or EE. **(G)** Spine density of upper layer dendritic segments from WT and *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice housed in SH or EE. **(H)** tdTom (magenta) and GFP (white) labeled cells in area CA1 of the hippocampus from WT and *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice, counterstained with DAPI (blue). Area CA1 contains few tdTom labeled cells reflecting the absence of Shh activity in hippocampal astrocytes. Scale bar, 50 μm. **(I)** Spine density from apical dendrites of CA1 neurons in WT and *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice housed in SH or EE. Data points represent individual animals, bars show mean ± SEM, *n* ≥ *3 - 5* dendritic segments analyzed per animal. Statistical testing performed by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons. s.o., stratum oriens; s.r., stratum radiatum.

Figure 6. Experience-dependent Hevin and SPARC are Shh-dependent.
(A, D) Immunofluorescent staining for Hevin (A, gray) and SPARC (D, gray) in individual astrocytes from upper layer labeled with Sox9 (green) and deep layers labeled with tdTom (magenta) in the cortex of P60 *Gli1^{CreER/+}*; Ai14 mice. Merged images in right panels. Scale bar, 10 μm. **(B, E)** Analysis of fluorescent intensity of Hevin (B) and SPARC (E) immunostaining in individual astrocytes from upper versus deep layers. *n = 5-6* animals, ≥ 30 cells analyzed per animal. **(C, F)** qPCR for *Hevin* (C) or *Sparc* (F) expression in WT vs *Gfap Smo* CKO mice. *n=8-12* WT mice, *n=6-8 Gfap Smo* CKO mice. **(G)** Immunofluorescent staining for Hevin (gray) and βGal (green) in *Gli1^{nlacZ/+}* (WT) mice housed in SH vs EE from P21-P23. Merged images in right panels. Scale bar, 10 μm. **(H, I)** Single cell analysis of Hevin fluorescent intensity in WT (H) and *Gli1 Smo* CKO (I) mice housed in SH vs EE. 25-50 cells analyzed per animal. **(J)** Immunofluorescent staining for SPARC (gray) in tdTom cells (magenta) in *Gli1^{CreER/+}; Smo^{fl/fl}*; Ai14 (*Gli1 Smo* CKO) mice housed in SH vs EE. Merged images in right panels. Scale bar, 10 μm. **(K, L)** Single cell analysis of SPARC fluorescent intensity in WT (K) and *Gli1 Smo* CKO (L) mice housed in SH vs EE. 25-50 cells analyzed per animal. **(N, O, Q)** Representative examples of dendritic protrusions categorized as mushroom spines (M), intermediate spines (O) and filopodia (Q). Scale bar, 5 μm. **(N, P, R)** Fraction of mushroom spines (N), intermediate spines (P) and filopodia (R) from WT and *Gli1 Smo* CKO mice housed in SH vs EE. At least 300 spines from 3 dendritic segments analyzed per animal. Data points represent individual animals; bars show mean ± SEM; Student's t-tests (B, C, E, F, H, I, K, L) and 2-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons (N, P, R).