Title: MEST inhibits ciliary sphingomyelin synthesis to promote tendon stem/progenitor

cells osteochondrogenesis in traumatic heterotopic ossification

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Abstract: Traumatic heterotopic ossification (tHO) is a musculoskeletal disorder characterized

by ectopic bone formation in soft tissues following trauma. However, the etiology and

mechanisms of tHO remain unknown, and no treatments are highly effective for tHO. Here, by

performing single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) on two tHO mouse models, we found that

ciliary Hedgehog (Hh) and PI3K-Akt signaling in tendon stem/progenitor cells (TSPCs) is

upregulated during tHO development, leading to the activation of GLI family zinc finger 2

(GLI2) transcription factor, which promotes mesoderm-specific transcript (MEST) gene

expression. Untargeted lipidomics using liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-

MS/MS) on detached cilia indicated that MEST could reduce ciliary sphingomyelin (SM) levels

by inhibiting SM synthesis in TSPCs, creating a positive feedback loop that amplified ciliary Hh

signaling, enhancing TSPCs osteochondrogenesis and driving tHO formation. Targeting ciliary

genes intraflagellar transport 88 (IFT88) or ADP ribosylation factor like GTPase 3 (ARL3)

restored normal TSPCs osteochondrogenesis in vitro and attenuated ectopic bone formation in

vivo by suppressing Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling. AAV-mediated MEST inhibition or exogenous

SM administration in vivo also alleviates tHO progression. These findings may provide novel

insights into tHO pathogenesis and potential therapeutic strategies.

Keywords: heterotopic ossification; primary cilia; tendon stem/progenitor cells; mesoderm-

specific transcript; sphingomyelin

Main Text:

INTRODUCTION

Traumatic heterotopic ossification (tHO) is a common musculoskeletal disorder

characterized by the formation of ectopic bone in soft tissues, affecting a significant proportion

of patients who experience severe injuries or orthopedic procedures[1]. Although most cases of

tHO present with localized symptoms such as pain, swelling, and restricted joint movement,

severe cases can lead to significant functional impairments, including joint ankylosis and chronic

disability, necessitating intensive surgical interventions like amputation[2]. However, the etiology

and underlying biological mechanisms of tHO remain unknown. Notably, there are no effective

drugs available that can specifically eliminate ectopic bone formation or decelerate the

progression of tHO. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct more studies exploring the molecular

mechanisms of tHO to provide new strategies for clinical treatment that alleviate the suffering of

patients and the burden on medical resources.

Primary cilia are solitary, non-motile microtubule-based organelles that protrude from the

cell surface, acting as essential sensory antennae for cells to receive and transduce extracellular

signals[3]. They play crucial roles in various developmental and physiological processes, including

embryonic patterning, tissue homeostasis, and cellular differentiation[4]. Recent studies have

increasingly highlighted the involvement of primary cilia in skeletal biology. For instance,

primary cilia in osteocyte function as critical mechanosensors to maintain normal bone formation

and help to treat osteoporosis[5]. Our previous study found that primary cilia can positively

regulate the process of osteochondral differentiation of stem cells from patients with

fibrodysplasia ossificans progressiva (FOP), a genetic form of HO caused by gene point

mutations[6]. However, there is currently no research involving the function and regulatory

mechanisms of primary cilia in the pathogenesis of tHO.

The recruitment of stem/progenitor cells and their differentiation into osteoblasts or

chondrocytes are key steps in the formation of tHO[7]. Tendon stem/progenitor cells (TSPCs) are

located between the long and parallel collagen fiber chains of tendon and are surrounded by the

extracellular matrix[8]. TSPCs can differentiate into tenocyte tissue (tendon) and non-tenocyte

tissues (such as bone, cartilage, and adipose tissue) in different circumstances. Studies have

reported that the increased ectopic bone volume in Achilles tendon of rats is accompanied with

increased bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) expression and enhanced osteogenesis in TSPCs[9].

Moreover, the inhibition of the mTOR signaling by rapamycin treatment can suppress the

osteochondral differentiation of TSPCs and tHO[10]. Thus, it is important to explore whether

primary cilia regulate the abnormal osteochondrogenic differentiation in TSPCs and how

primary cilia contribute to the progression of tHO via specific mechanisms.

High-throughput sequencing technologies have been used to find potential mechanisms of

various diseases in recent years. In our study, we indicated that MEST might be a key

downstream molecule in the regulation of tHO by primary cilia by performing single-cell RNA

sequencing (scRNA-seq) in two tHO mouse models. MEST (mesoderm-specific transcript) is an

imprinted gene predominantly expressed from the paternal allele. The protein encoded by it is

widely expressed in mesodermal tissues (e.g., sclerotome-derived structures such as vertebrae,

ribs, and cartilage), belongs to the α/β hydrolase superfamily, and has enzymatic activity. A

study showed that knocking down MEST in human periodontal ligament stem cells will inhibit

the expression of their stem cell markers and proliferation ability and weaken their multi-lineage

differentiation (including osteogenesis and chondrogenesis) abilities[11]. MEST can also

upregulate mouse mesenchymal stem cells chondrogenesis along with miR-335-5p[12]. However,

no study focuses on whether MEST is involved in regulating TSPCs osteogenic or chondrogenic

differentiation. Therefore, it is necessary to explore the role of MEST in the development of tHO

and the possibility of targeting MEST as a novel therapeutic strategy.

There is a diffusion barrier in the transition zone at the base of the primary cilia, which can

restrict the free movement of proteins and lipids in and out of the cilia, resulting in differences in

the composition of proteins and lipids on the ciliary membrane and the cytoplasmic membrane.

Under the stimulation of mechanical stress or chemical signals, the selective movement of

specific lipids in and out of the cilia can dynamically influence the function of receptors on the

ciliary surface and the activity of downstream signaling, thereby regulating cell proliferation and

differentiation[13]. The disruption of the homeostasis of ciliary lipids has been reported to be

associated with a variety of diseases, including Joubert syndrome[14], Meckel-Gruber syndrome[15],

nephronophthisis[16], and polycystic kidney disease[17]. Some studies have reported that

abnormalities in genes encoding key enzymes involved in cholesterol metabolism can lead to

defects in the formation of primary cilia in osteoblasts and in the differentiation of osteoblasts,

resulting in craniofacial malformation[18,19]. Since MEST has been found to possess the

characteristics of lipase, which can promote the hypertrophy of adipocytes and expand the

volume of adipose tissue[20], MEST may be involved in lipid metabolism in tHO. Exploring the

role of MEST in regulating TSPCs ciliary lipids may be of great significance for clarifying the

pathogenesis of tHO.

In this study, we used single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) on two tHO mouse models:

1) burn/tenotomy in C57BL/6 mice; 2) cardiotoxin (CTX)-induced injury of tibial muscle in *Nse-*

Bmp4 mice (overexpresses bone morphogenetic protein 4 (BMP4) under the control of neuron-

specific enolase (Nse) promoter). We demonstrated that the activity of ciliary Hh and PI3K-Akt

signaling of TSPCs is significantly upregulated during tHO development, leading to the

activation and nuclear translocation of the transcription factor GLI2, which promotes the

expression of the MEST gene. The upregulation of MEST expression reduces ciliary

sphingomyelin (SM) abundance by inhibiting SM synthesis, which in turn amplifies the

activation of the ciliary Hh signaling. This forms a positive feedback loop that significantly

enhances the osteochondrogenesis of TSPCs, thereby driving local ectopic bone deposition and

contributing to the development and progression of tHO. Moreover, knocking down ciliary gene

or suppressing Hh/PI3K-Akt signaling restored normal TSPCs differentiation. Inhibiting MEST

expression or exogenous SM administration in vivo also had great therapeutic effects on tHO.

Unraveling these mechanisms may enhance our understanding of the pathogenesis of tHO and

pave the way for the development of innovative and effective therapeutic approaches.

RESULTS

1. Primary cilia in stem/progenitor cells contribute to tHO progression

To induce tHO by burn/tenotomy[21], 6- to 8-week-old male C57BL/6 mice were subjected to a

burn injury using a 60°C heated aluminum block on the dorsal skin, followed by resection of the

right Achilles tendon and subsequent experiments (Figure 1a). Tendon tissues from the injured

sites were harvested at 0 days (prior to injury), and at 3, 7, 21, and 56 days after injury for

subsequent histological examination (Figure 1b). H&E staining demonstrated disorganized and

irregular tendon fibrous tissue at 3 to 7 days post-injury. Chondrogenic structures were detected

at 21 days, and osteogenic structures were observed at 56 days. Masson trichrome staining

showed blue-stained tendon collagen fibers, with the progression of structural disorganization

and tHO being similar to that observed with HE staining. Von Kossa staining revealed the

appearance of brown calcified nodules at 21 days, which became deeply stained by 56 days,

suggesting calcium deposition due to new bone formation.

To explore the function of cilia in tHO, we performed immunofluorescence staining on

tendon tissues collected from mice at 0, 3, 7, 21, and 56 days post-injury (Figure 1c, S1a).

ARL13B, a specific marker for primary cilia, was used to quantify ciliated cells. The percentage

of ARL13B-positive cells was 27.21% in the control group (0 days post-injury). After injury, the

proportion of ARL13B-positive cells increased to 40.14% at 3 days, 38.07% at 7 days, and

44.42% at 21 days, before declining to 39.10% at 56 days (Figure S1b). These data indicated that

ciliated cells increased rapidly during tHO and may contribute to its development. To further

identify the potential specific cell types targeted by cilia in the process of tHO, double

immunofluorescence staining was performed on tendon tissue samples collected at various time

points post-injury (Figure 1c, S1a). The following marker pairs were used: ARL13B with CD31

(endothelial cells marker), ARL13B with F4/80 (macrophages marker), ARL13B with PDGFRα

(stem/progenitor cells marker), ARL13B with TNMD (tendon cells marker), and ARL13B with

α-SMA (smooth muscle cells marker). Immunofluorescence analysis revealed significant co-

localization between ARL13B and all five cell markers, with PDGFRα showing particularly

strong association (Figure 1c). Quantitative analysis demonstrated that the proportion of

ARL13B+PDGFRα+ double-positive cells was the highest among the five marker combinations

(Figure S1c). Specifically, the percentage of ARL13B+PDGFRα+ cells was 55.91% in the

control group, and this proportion significantly increased to 78.62% at 3 days, 85.56% at 7 days,

90.17% at 21 days, and 95.49% at 56 days after tHO injury (Figure S1b). We also found that

ARL13B is co-stained with both chondrogenic marker gene COL2A1 and osteogenic marker

gene OCN at 21 days and 56 days during tHO when osteochondrogenesis have occurred (Figure

1d, e). These data suggested that primary cilia may play a crucial role in tHO development,

potentially through their localization in stem/progenitor cells.

Single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) can distinguish differences among individual cells

in a high-throughput manner, thereby clarifying cellular heterogeneity and underlying molecular

mechanisms during disease progression. Therefore, in our study, we reanalyzed a scRNA-seq

dataset of injured sites from burn/tenotomy mouse tHO model (GSE126060). The dataset

included 12 samples, with three samples per group at four time points: pre-injury (Day 0) and

post-injury (Day 3, Day 7, and Day 21). The UMAP plot showed a total of 21,880 cells detected

and divided into nine subclusters (Figure 2a) according to the previous study[22]. Bubble plot

revealed the marker genes of each cluster, and markers for the Mesenchymal cluster were Pdgfra

and Prrx1 (Figure 2b, c). Group-stratified UMAP plots revealed that, as tHO progresses, the

percentage of Macrophage cluster cells peaked at 3 days (74.43%) post-injury, later rapidly

reduced to 37.10% at 7 days and 15.02% at 21 days post-injury, indicating the evolution of the

local inflammatory phase (Figure 2d). In contrast, the Mesenchymal cluster cells exhibited a

larger proportion at 7 (43.44%) and 21 days (49.43%), suggesting that stem/progenitor cells

contributes greatly to tHO during this period (Figure 2d). Consequently, we analyzed the

differentially expressed genes in the Mesenchymal subcluster at 7 and 21 days post-injury

compared with the control group and revealed that 82 genes were upregulated in the

Mesenchymal subcluster at Day 7, and 53 genes were upregulated at Day 21 (Figure 2e).

Since the percentage of ciliated stem/progenitor cells greatly increased during tHO

development, we are interested in the expression of ciliary genes at single-cell level.

Intraflagellar transport protein 88 homolog (IFT88) functions as a core protein of the IFT-B

complex and drives anterograde transport within cilia. Many studies reported the role of IFT88 in

skeletal homeostasis[23] and bone diseases[24-27]. *Ift88* has low expression at single cell level likely

due to limited scRNA-seq depth, but still predominantly localizes to the Mesenchymal

subpopulation (Figure S2a, b), and shows a subtle upward trend during tHO (Figure S2c). We

then shifted our focus to another ciliary gene IFT20 which is also a component of the IFT-B

complex and has been reported to regulate ciliogenesis and skeletal development[28]. It can be

shown that *Ift20* are highly expressed in the Mesenchymal cluster (Figure 2f). Arf-like Protein 3

(ARL3), a small GTPase, is involved in ciliogenesis and the maintenance of ciliary function[29,30].

Specifically deleting ARL3 in muscle satellite cells impaired muscle hypertrophy, revealing its

potential role of regulating primary cilia in stem/progenitor cells. Indeed, *Arl3* mainly expressed

in Mesenchymal cluster in cells from tHO injured site (Figure 2f). Moreover, with the

development of tHO after injury, the expression of *Ift20* and *Arl3* in Mesenchymal cluster

rapidly increased in Day 7 and Day 21 group, while the trends over time were not significant in

other clusters (Figure 2g). qPCR analysis further demonstrated that the mRNA expression levels

of ciliary genes *Ift88, Ift20*, and *Arl3* had an increasing trend during tHO development and

peaked on Day 21 before slightly decreased on Day 56 (Figure S2d). We then explore the

expression of osteogenic (*Alpl, Runx2*, and *Bglap*) and chondrogenic (*Col1a1, Sox9*, and *Acan*)

genes during tHO development. scRNA-seq data showed these genes, especially chondrogenic

genes were mainly expressed in Mesenchymal cluster (Figure S2e) and showed increasing trends

during tHO progression with a higher expression in Day 7 and Day 21 after injury (Figure 1h).

qPCR analysis also showed the expression levels of osteogenic genes gradually increased and

reach the peaks at Day 56 (bone formation period) after injury (Figure 1i), while chondrogenic

genes peaked at Day 21 (cartilage formation period) and slightly reduced in Day 56 during tHO

progression (Figure 1j). These results indicated primary cilia and ciliary genes may mainly

functioned in stem/progenitor cells osteochondrogenesis during the progression of tHO.

2.   Inhibition of primary cilia alleviates TSPCs osteochondrogenesis and tHO

Since the above results suggested that primary cilia on stem/progenitor cells may be involved

in tHO pathogenesis, and considering that abnormal differentiation of tendon stem/progenitor

cells (TSPCs) has been reported to potentially contribute to the pathogenesis of tHO[31,32], we

isolated TSPCs from the tendon tissues of C57BL/6 mice. Microscopic examination showed that

these TSPCs exhibited a fibroblast-like spindle-shaped morphology (Figure 3a). Flow cytometry

analysis demonstrated that 88.1% of the TSPCs were double-positive for Pdgfrα and Prrx1

(consistent with the scRNA-seq results), thereby confirming the stem/progenitor cell

characteristics of the isolated TSPCs (Figure 3a). Immunofluorescence staining for ARL13B and Acetyl-α-Tubulin (AcTu) was used to observe changes of primary cilia in TSPCs following knockdown of ciliary genes IFT88 and ARL3 using letivirus-shRNA (*shIft88* and *shArl3*). The results showed a significant reduction in cilia counts and length (Figure 3b). Quantitative analysis revealed that the proportion of ciliated TSPCs was approximately 53.54% in the control group but decreased to 19.36% in the *shIft88* group and 34.70% in the *shArl3* group, indicating a marked decrease in cilia number in TSPCs following ciliary gene knockdown (Figure 3c). Additionally, the average cilia length was 3.37 μm in the control group but reduced to 2.06 μm in the *shIft88* group and 2.14 μm in the *shArl3* group, demonstrating a significant shortening of cilia length in TSPCs after ciliary gene knockdown (Figure 3d).

Previous studies have shown that the osteogenic and chondrogenic differentiation capabilities of TSPCs are abnormally activated during the process of tHO, leading to the formation of ectopic bone in tendon tissues[32]. Therefore, investigating whether cilia can regulate the TSPCs osteochondrogenesis is important for exploring the regulatory mechanisms of cilia in tHO. We first induced osteogenic differentiation in TSPCs and performed alizarin red staining. Compared with the control group, the alizarin red staining was lighter in the *shIft88* and *shArl3* groups, indicating less calcium deposition (Figure 3e, S3a). This suggests that knockdown of ciliary genes attenuates the osteogenic differentiation capacity of TSPCs. qPCR analysis revealed that the expression of osteogenesis-related genes *Alpl*, *Bglap*, *Run2* and *Sp7* was significantly reduced in the *shIft88* and *shArl3* groups compared with the control group (Figure 3f). Similarly, we induced chondrogenic differentiation in TSPCs with or without ciliary gene knockdown and performed alcian blue staining. Compared with the control group, the alcian blue staining was lighter in the *shIft88* and *shArl3* groups (Figure 3e, S3a). Meanwhile, qPCR analysis revealed that the expression of chondrogenesis-related genes *Col2a1, Sox9* and *Acan* was significantly reduced (Figure 3f). These findings identified a positive correlation between cilia function and the osteochondrogenic differentiation capacity of TSPCs.

To locally inhibit ciliary function in vivo, we administered adeno-associated virus (AAV) vectors carrying *shIft88* and *shArl3* via intramuscular injection into the lower limbs of mice with tHO. The results showed that knockdown of *Ift88* and *Arl3* significantly decreased the bone volume (BV) of ectopic bone formation, whereas bone mineral density (BMD) and trabecular thickness (Tb.Th) was not significantly altered (Figure 3g, h). These results indicate that primary

cilia may positively modulate the osteogenic and chondrogenic differentiation of TSPCs, leading

to abnormal bone formation in local soft tissues and ultimately resulting in tHO, which could be

rescued by inhibition of ciliary function without influencing normal bone quality.

3.   Ciliary Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling are involved in tHO pathogenesis

To further investigate the specific molecular mechanisms and downstream targets through

which primary cilia regulate tHO development, we conducted enrichment analysis on our

previously mentioned sequencing data. Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis showed that

differentially expressed genes at the site of tHO 21 days post-injury were significantly enriched

in functions related to the extracellular matrix, ossification, and cartilage development (Figure

4a). Consistent with these findings, differentially expressed genes in TSPCs following

knockdown of ciliary genes were also enriched in skeletal system development, ossification, and

bone mineralization (Figure 4b). These results suggest a strong correlation between the

differentially expressed genes and tHO, indicating that targeting these genes may represent a

potential strategy for treating tHO. We further conducted Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA)

on the differentially expressed genes in TSPCs following knockdown of ciliary gene *Ift88*, and

the results showed significant enrichment and negative correlation (NES = -2.124) in the Hh

signaling pathway (Figure 4c). Given that the activity of the Hedgehog (Hh) signaling pathway is

dependent on the primary cilia for regulating embryonic development and tissue differentiation,

and considering that aberrant upregulation of Hh has been implicated in the pathogenesis of tHO

following injury[33], the Hh signaling activity within TSPCs cilia is likely closely related to tHO.

Additionally, KEGG enrichment analysis indicated that differentially expressed genes in the

Mesenchymal cluster of tHO tissues, as well as those in TSPCs following knockdown of ciliary

gene *Ift88*, were significantly enriched in the PI3K-Akt signaling pathway (Figure 4d, e).

To verify the bioinformatics analysis results, we performed qPCR analysis and found that the

mRNA expression of Hh signaling molecules *Shh* and *Ptch1* was significantly downregulated in

TSPCs undergoing osteogenic and chondrogenic differentiation after *shIft88* or *shArl3* treatment

(Figure 4f). Western blot analysis also demonstrated a significant reduction in the protein

expression levels of SHH and PTCH1 (Figure 4g). Additionally, during TSPCs

osteochondrogenesis, the ratios of phosphorylated PI3K to total PI3K (p-PI3K/PI3K) and

phosphorylated AKT to total AKT (p-AKT/AKT) were significantly decreased following ciliary

gene knockdown (Figure 4g), indicating reduced phosphorylation of PI3K and AKT and the inactivation of the PI3K-Akt signaling. Smoothened (SMO) is a key seven-transmembrane receptor involved in Hh signaling and is inhibited by PTCH1 when Hh signaling is inactive. Upon binding of the Hh ligand to PTCH1, the inhibitory effect of PTCH on SMO is alleviated, thereby enabling the activation of SMO. Interestingly, scRNA-seq analysis showed that *Smo* mainly expressed (Figure 4h) and increased over time in Mesenchymal cluster (Figure 4i) during tHO progression, further demonstrating the Hh signaling was activated in tHO. Collectively, these results suggest that the primary cilia of TSPCs may lead to aberrant activation of Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling, thereby promoting TSPCs osteochondrogenesis and exacerbating tHO development.

4.   Primary cilia modulate MEST expression to promote tHO

To further identify key genes involved in tHO and their potential crosstalk with primary cilia, we obtained bulk-RNA sequencing data and analyzed the differentially expressed genes (Figure S4a) from a public database for mouse tHO tissues (GSE233201). We then integrated these data with RNA sequencing results from TSPCs with ciliary gene *Ift88* knockdown and control groups (Figure S4b) to identify common differentially expressed genes. Genes upregulated in the Mesenchymal cluster at 7 and 21 days during tHO (GSE126060), genes upregulated in injured tissue at 21 days of tHO (GSE233201), and genes downregulated in TSPCs with ciliary gene *Ift88* knockdown were obtained respectively (Table S1). Venn diagram analysis identified three common differentially expressed genes: MEST, PTN, and COL2A1 among these three datasets (Figure 5a). COL2A1 is a key gene for chondrogenic differentiation, while PTN showed insignificant differences after validation (Figure S5a-d). Thus, we focused on the role of the MEST gene in tHO in subsequent studies.

scRNA-seq analysis revealed that *Mest* is predominantly expressed in the Mesenchymal cluster (Figure S4c, d). Both qPCR and Western blot analyses demonstrated a significant reduction in *Mest* RNA and protein expression following knockdown of the ciliary genes *Ift88* or *Arl3* (Figure S4e, f). Moreover, scRNA-seq analysis showed that the expression of *Mest* in the Mesenchymal cluster exhibits an upward trend with the progression of tHO (Figure S4g). Consistently, immunohistochemical analysis of tendon tissues at various time points after establishment of tHO further showed that MEST protein expression is progressively upregulated

304 during the tHO development (Figure S4h), suggesting that MEST may play a significant role in
305 the regulatory mechanisms of tHO. Notably, immunofluorescence staining showed no significant
306 co-localization between MEST and AcTu (Figure 5b), indicating that MEST likely functions
307 outside but not within the cilia in TSPCs to influence cilia function and thereby contribute to the
308 occurrence and progression of tHO.
309

5.   Targeting MEST inhibits TSPCs osteochondrogenesis and tHO formation

As MEST is primarily not localized within the cilia of TSPCs, we explored how MEST can
regulate tHO in a cilia localization-independent manner. We constructed two small interfering
RNAs (siRNAs): *siMest-1* and *siMest-2*, to inhibit *Mest* gene expression in vitro. qPCR analysis
revealed a significant decrease in *Mest* expression following *siMest* intervention, confirming that
siMest can effectively suppress MEST function (Figure 5d). Alizarin red staining showed that the
siMest group exhibited lighter staining and fewer calcium nodules compared with the control
group during osteogenic differentiation induction (Figure 5c, S3b). Additionally, the expression
of osteogenesis-related genes *Alpl, Runx2* and *Bglap* was significantly reduced (Figure 5d).
Similarly, alcian blue staining during chondrogenic differentiation induction showed that,
compared with the control group, the *siMest* group exhibited lighter staining and reduced
chondrogenic capacity (Figure 5c, S3b). The expression of chondrogenesis-related genes *Col2a1*,
Sox9 and *Acan* was also decreased (Figure 5d). Moreover, we divided the Mesenchymal cluster
to Mest-high and Mest-low subclusters based on the expression level of Mest in burn/tenotomy
tHO scRNA-seq dataset (Figure 5e). Though *Alpl, Sp7,* and *Col2a1* were not significantly
expressed between two subclusters probably because of their extreme low expression in single-
cell level (Figure S5e), the expression of *Runx2, Sox9,* and *Acan* were greatly higher in Mest-
high subcluster (Figure 5e). These findings indicated that alleviating MEST expression diminish
the osteochondrogenic differentiation capacity of TSPCs.
We further employed immunofluorescence staining with AcTu to label the cilia of TSPCs in
the control and *siMest* groups (Figure 5f). Quantitative analyses (Figure 4g) showed no
significant difference in cilia number (58.26% vs 53.11%), while cilia length was significantly
shorter in the *siMest* group compared with the control group (2.46 μm vs 3.48 μm). In addition,
we performed in vivo experiments by locally injecting a AAV vector carrying *shMest* into mice
with tHO to silencing *Mest* expression in local injured tissues. Micro-CT imaging revealed that

ectopic bone volume in the *shMest* group was significantly lower than that in the control group,

while bone mineral density remained largely unchanged (Figure 5h, i). Collectively, these results

suggest that MEST can regulate ciliary function and TSPCs osteochondrogenesis in a ciliary

localization-independent manner, while targeting MEST may serve as a potential method to

restore normal TSPCs osteochondrogenesis and treat tHO.

6.   Activation of MEST transcription by GLI2 mediates Hh signaling in tHO

GLI2, a key transcriptional activator of the Hh signaling pathway, can translocate to the

nucleus upon Hh signal activation and induces the expression of downstream genes involved in

cell proliferation and differentiation. The sequence logo of GLI2 transcription factor was shown

and the JASPAR database predicts that the GLI2 can bind to the MEST gene promoter at

positions 904-916 (gtgaccacccagc) and 1698-1710 (tggaccacgcact), both with relative score > 0.8

(Figure 6a). Dual-luciferase reporter assays using pGL4.10 as vector demonstrated that GLI2 can

bind to the MEST promoter at both predicted sites, with overexpression of GLI2 significantly

increasing luciferase activity, thus indicating that GLI2 positively regulates MEST transcription

(Figure 6b). To further elucidate the regulatory role of the GLI2 transcription factor in tHO, we

performed immunohistochemistry on injured tendon tissues obtained from mice with tHO and

found that GLI2 expression progressively increased during tHO development (Figure 6c).

Meanwhile, qPCR and Western blot analyses revealed that, compared with the control group, the

Gli2 mRNA and protein expression levels of GLI2 were significantly downregulated with *shIft88*

or *shArl3* treatment during TSPCs osteochondrogenesis (Figure 6d, e). ChIP-qPCR assay further

demonstrated that GLI2 transcriptional factor could significantly bind to site 1/2 on MEST

promoter region (Figure 6f). To further investigate the role of GLI2 in regulating MEST

transcription, overexpression (GLI2-OE) and knockdown (*siGli2*) of Gli2 were performed in

TSPCs, affecting the Mest mRNA expression during both osteogenic and chondrogenic

differentiation, which further demonstrated that GLI2 activity was positively associated with

MEST gene transcription in TSPCs osteochondrogenesis (Figure 6g). Moreover, local injection

of AAV-*shMest* into tHO mice injured site decreased protein expression levels of SHH, GLI2,

PTCH1, and SMO, as shown by immunohistochemistry (Figure 6h). qPCR analysis also showed

reduced mRNA expression of Hh signaling molecules (*Shh, Ptch1, Gli2*, and *Smo)* in *shMest*

treated tHO mice (Figure 6i). Thus, the in vivo experiments indicated that targeting Mest may

alleviate the occurrence and progression of tHO by reducing the activation level of the Hh/Gli2

signaling. Collectively, these results suggested GLI2 as a positive regulator of MEST

transcription, while MEST in turn modulates GLI2 and Hh signaling activity during tHO

development.

7. MEST regulates TSPCs osteochondrogenesis via Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling

Previous results have confirmed that: 1) MEST can influence TSPCs osteochondrogenesis

and regulate tHO development in ciliary localization-independent manner; 2) GLI2 promote

MEST transcription during TSPCs osteochondrogenesis via Hh signaling; 3) Cilia-mediated Hh

and PI3K-Akt signaling play a crucial role in tHO pathogenesis. Thus, we became intrigued by

whether MEST regulates TSPCs osteochondrogenesis through Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling. We

first transfected *siMest* in TSPCs to knock down Mest gene expression in vitro. Compared with

siNC treated TSPCs, the expression levels of key Hh signaling molecules were downregulated at

both the mRNA (Figure 7a) and protein (Figure 7b) levels in *siMest* treated TSPCs during

osteogenic and chondrogenic differentiation. In addition, the phosphorylation levels of PI3K and

AKT were also decreased significantly (Figure 7c). These findings suggest that silencing Mest

expression can attenuate TSPCs osteochondrogenesis via Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling in tHO.

To further demonstrate whether: 1) The regulatory effects of primary cilia on TSPCs

osteochondrogenesis and tHO development is dependent on MEST activity; 2) Hh or PI3K-Akt

signaling is essential for MEST-induced hyperactivation of TSPCs osteochondrogenesis, we

performed rescue experiments in MEST overexpression (MEST-OE) TSPCs by targeting cilia or

Hh/PI3K-Akt signaling. Both osteogenic and chondrogenic differentiation were upregulated in

MEST-OE group, indicated by higher positive area of alizarin red and alcian blue staining

(Figure 7d, S3c). However, the effects can be significantly rescued by inhibiting cilia function

under *shIft88* treatment in MEST-OE TSPCs (Figure 7d, S3c), which reveals that primary cilia

promote TSPCs osteochondrogenesis by activating MEST. Targeting Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling

by GANT61 (GLI2 inhibitor) and LY294002 (PI3K inhibitor) respectively in MEST-OE TSPCs

also restored the normal osteochondrogenesis (Figure 7d, S3c), suggesting that Hh and PI3K-Akt

signaling serve as critical mediators through which MEST enhances TSPCs differentiation.

qPCR analysis showed consistent changes of osteogenesis (*Alpl, Runx2,* and *Bglap*) and

chondrogenesis (*Col2a1, Sox9,* and *Acan*) related genes expression with the staining results

under different treatment (Figure 7e). We also found that overexpression of MEST (MEST-OE)

lead to upregulated GLI2 (Figure S3d, 7f) and other Hh signaling molecules (*Shh, Ptch1*, and

Smo) expression (Figure 7g), as well as the phosphorylation levels of PI3K and AKT (Figure 7h),

which is opposite to the MEST knockdown effects during TSPCs osteochondrogenesis. These

findings add to evidence of the crucial role of Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling in MEST-regulated

TSPCs osteochondrogenesis and tHO development.

Since both Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling are involved in tHO pathogenesis, exploring the

relationship and crosstalk between them is of great significance. qPCR (Figure S3d) and western

blot (Figure 7f) showed that GANT61 (the specific inhibitor of GLI2 expression and GLI2-

mediated transcription) can reduced both GLI2 and MEST expression in MEST-OE TSPCs

during in vitro osteochondrogenesis. However, GANT61 cannot rescue the phosphorylation

levels of PI3K and AKT during MEST-OE TSPCs osteochondrogenesis (Figure 7h), while

LY294002 (PI3K inhibitor) can significantly attenuate the expression of GLI2/MEST (Figure

S3d, 7f) and Hh signaling molecules (Figure 7g), indicating that GLI2 and GLI2-regulated

MEST transcription is the downstream of PI3K/Akt signaling and the activation of GLI2-MEST

axis involved in TSPCs osteochondrogenesis can be inhibited by targeting PI3K/Akt signaling.

8.　MEST reduced ciliary sphingomyelin levels in TSPCs

Recent studies have shown that ciliary lipids play a crucial role in maintaining ciliary

structure stability and regulating ciliary mechanosensation and signal transduction. Aberrant

distribution and dynamic changes in ciliary lipids have been implicated in various diseases,

including polycystic kidney disease[17] and obesity[34]. Moreover, deficiencies in key cholesterol-

metabolizing enzymes have been shown to cause ciliary defects that impact bone development[19].

These findings have prompted our interest in investigating the changes in lipids within TSPCs

cilia during tHO. We first isolated cilia from TSPCs in the control and *siMest* groups using

ultracentrifugation to prepare ciliary suspensions as previously reported[35] (for more details see

Methods). Immunofluorescence showed almost no cilia was left after isolation in non-ciliated

TSPCs (Figure 8a). Immunoblot further revealed ciliary enrichment of AcTu and absence of

cytoplasmic components (β-actin) in TSPCs cilia (Figure 8b), confirming that the cilia were

effectively removed from TSPCs without detectable components of cytoplasm. Then we

conducted untargeted lipidomics using liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-

MS/MS) on the collected ciliary suspensions. OPLS-DA analysis showed obvious differences in

the lipid profiles of TSPCs cilia between the *siNC* and *siMest* groups (Figure 8c). We performed

differential analysis of lipids based on the LIPID MAPS® classification system and the

differential expressed primary (Figure 8d, e) and secondary (Figure S6a) lipids were classified.

Totally, we screened 159 upregulated and 157 downregulated lipids in the *siMest* group with the

criteria of |log2FC| > 1 and P value < 0.05 (Table S2, Figure 8f, S6b). Compared with the *siNC*

group, the abundance of sphingomyelin (SM) within the cilia of TSPCs in the *siMest* group was

significantly increased, while the content of triglycerides (TG) was significantly decreased

(Figure 8g). Heatmaps revealed consistent differential changes in almost all subclasses of SM

and TG, including 22 types of SM and 53 types of TG (Figure S6c). Other sphingolipids except

for SM also differentially expressed (mostly upregulated) in *siMest* group (Figure S6d). We also

conducted KEGG enrichment analysis to find the key lipid signaling involved in *siMest* TSPCs.

Consistent with our prior findings, the differentially expressed metabolites were enriched in

pathways including glycerophospholipid metabolism, sphingolipid signaling, and sphingolipid

metabolism (Figure 8h, S6e). Since SM is the most abundant sphingolipid and exhibits the most

significant difference before and after *siMest* knockdown, we then concentrate on the role of

ciliary SM metabolism in tHO pathogenesis.

SGMS2 (sphingomyelin synthase 2) gene encodes sphingomyelin synthase 2, which is

mainly involved in the synthesis of SM on the cell membrane. It has been reported that SGMS2-

mediated SM metabolism was involved in skeletal homeostasis regulation and its mutation could

lead to a series of bone diseases like osteoporosis and skeletal dysplasia[36]. We found that *Sgms2*

was mainly expressed in Mesenchymal cluster but rarely expressed in Mest-high subcluster,

while the expression level of *Sgms2* in Mest-high subcluster gradually reduced over time after

tHO at single-cell level (Figure 8i, j), indicating that MEST may reduce ciliary SM synthesis in

tHO by inhibiting Sgms2 expression. Moreover, qPCR (Figure 8k) and Western blot (Figure 8l)

demonstrated that the mRNA and protein expression levels of SGMS2 significantly increased

after *siMest* treatment during TSPCs osteogenesis and chondrogenesis. scRNA-seq analysis

demonstrated a subtle decrease in SM biosynthetic gene expression during tHO development,

while SM catabolic genes showed no significant expression changes (Figure 8m). These results

indicated that MEST may reduce the synthesis and abundance of SM within the cilia of TSPCs in

tHO progression, and that silencing *Mest* expression can promote SM synthesis by upregulating
SGMS2 activity and reverse the reduction of ciliary SM levels in TSPCs.

9.   Targeting ciliary sphingomyelin attenuates tHO development

Since previous findings have demonstrated that MEST can activate TSPCs
osteochondrogenesis in ciliary localization-independent manner, thereby promoting the
occurrence and development of tHO, it is essential to explore whether ciliary lipids of TSPCs
also contribute to tHO pathogenesis. Research has shown that sphingomyelin and cholesterol
interact on the cellular membrane to regulate intracellular signaling processes, and their dynamic
balance is crucial for maintaining normal cellular functions[37]. Thus, exploring how MEST-
mediated sphingomyelin changes regulate TSPCs function is of great significance in tHO
pathogenesis. We induced osteogenic and chondrogenic differentiation in TSPCs and performed
alizarin red (ARS) and alcian blue (AB) staining with different treatments respectively (Figure
9a, b). Compared with the control group, treatment with exogenous sphingomyelin significantly
reduced the staining intensity and area, indicating that sphingomyelin can suppress TSPCs
osteochondrogenesis. Conversely, treatment of TSPCs with myriocin (a sphingomyelin synthesis
inhibitor) significantly enhanced TSPCs osteochondrogenesis. However, when sphingomyelin
and myriocin were applied together, the ARS or AB staining intensity and area were not
significantly different from the control group. Furthermore, downregulation of *Mest* gene
expression in TSPCs using *siMest* rescued the excessive upregulation of osteochondrogenesis
induced by myriocin treatment in TSPCs. qPCR analysis of the expression of osteogenic (*Alpl,*
Runx2, and *Bglap*) and chondrogenic (*Col2a1, Sox9,* and *Acan*) differentiation-related genes in
TSPCs revealed trends consistent with the staining results (Figure 9c), suggesting that inhibiting
Mest gene expression may increase ciliary sphingomyelin level in TSPCs, thereby attenuating
their osteogenic and chondrogenic differentiation capacities and alleviating tHO severity.

Notably, a study has demonstrated that depletion of sphingomyelin on ciliary membrane can
increase the accessibility of cholesterol, thereby amplifying the transmission of the Hh signaling
pathway within the cilia[38]. Therefore, we hypothesize that the results may be associated with the
activity of the Hh signaling pathway. Smoothened (SMO), a seven-transmembrane receptor
protein, serves as a bridge between Hh ligands and GLI transcription factors in the Hh pathway.
Direct targeting of SMO has become a trending area in drug research targeting the Hh signaling

pathway, with the SMO inhibitor vismodegib being FDA-approved for the treatment of basal cell

carcinoma[39]. When vismodegib was administered to TSPCs treated with myriocin, the ARS or

AB staining intensity and area was significantly reduced (Figure 9a, b), and the expression of

osteogenic (*Alpl, Runx2,* and *Bglap*) and chondrogenic (*Col2a1, Sox9,* and *Acan*) differentiation-

related genes was downregulated, with no significant differences compared to the control group

(Figure 9c). qPCR analysis of key Hh signaling molecules (*Shh, Ptch1, and Gli2*) during TSPCs

osteogenesis (Figure 9d) or chondrogenesis (Figure 9e) showed that myriocin strongly activated

Hh signaling during in vitro TSPCs differentiation, while exogenous sphingomyelin had the

opposite effect, inhibiting Hh signaling. In contrast, groups treated with myriocin +

sphingomyelin, myriocin + *siMest*, and myriocin + vismodegib exhibited Hh signaling gene

expression levels that were not significantly different from the control group (Figure 9d).

We also performed in vivo experiments by local injection of 1 mg/kg exogenous

sphingomyelin (SM) or 1X PBS (as the control group) into tHO mice injury site two times a

week for 8 weeks, resulting in a significantly reduced volume of ectopic bone in tHO mice after

SM treatment, with no significant differences in bone mineral density (Figure 9f). qPCR analyses

also showed reduced mRNA expression of Hh signaling molecules *Shh, Ptch1, Gli2*, and *Smo* in

SM treated tHO mice (Figure 9g). These findings suggest that the depletion of ciliary

sphingomyelin may facilitate the osteogenic and chondrogenic differentiation of TSPCs through

the activation of the Hh signaling, thereby exacerbating tHO progression. This effect can be

attenuated by silencing MEST gene expression or using SMO inhibitor vismodegib, which may

represent emerging candidate therapeutic targets for tHO.

10. scRNA-seq on injured muscle from Nse-Bmp4 tHO model mice

To further validate our findings and enhance the reliability of the results, we reanalyzed the

scRNA-seq data (GSE246445) on another tHO model mice which is performed by cardiotoxin

(CTX)-induced injury of tibial muscle in *Nse-Bmp4* mice[40].

After initial quality control, a total of 45287 cells of injured muscle from Nse-Bmp4 mice

were clustered into nine clusters based on the reported marker genes[40] (Figure 10a). While the

top two main cell types were skeletal muscle cells and MSC lineages, their proportion during

tHO development showed great changes. Notably, the percentage of MSC lineages increased

from 14.5% in uninjured group to 66.8% in Day 7 (post injury) group which showed converse

trend compared to the skeletal muscle cells (Figure 10b). Consistent with our findings, *Mest* was

mainly expressed in MSC lineages (Figure 10c) and showed an increasing expression in injured

muscle of *Nse-Bmp4* mice during tHO development (Figure 10d), especially expressing in

60.41% cells in Day 7 group (mainly in MSC lineages). These results demonstrated a significant

role of MEST from MSC lineages in tHO pathogenesis which supported our prior findings.

Moreover, we analyzed the significant differentiated expressed genes (DEGs) specifically in

MSC lineages among four groups (four different timepoints post injury) during tHO

development. The top10 higher variable genes in each group were shown by heatmap (Figure

10e). Chondrogenesis-related genes Acan and Col2a1 were top 2 DEGs in Day 7 group, which

showed the important role of MSC chondrogenesis in tHO, consistent with our results. GO and

KEGG enrichment analysis of DEGs in MSC lineages Day7 group (Figure 10f) also had several

common terms with the previous sequencing results shown in Figure 6, indicating that MSC

osteochondrogenesis was the key biological process in tHO progression.

Since we have found the potential role of primary cilia and cilia genes in tHO, we were

interested in the cilia genes expression in *Nse-Bmp4* tHO model mice at the single-cell level. A

total of 686 known cilia genes were obtained from the Syscilia Gold Standard[41]. Meanwhile, we

have identified 668 DEGs in Day 7 group of MSC lineages compared with other groups. We

then intersected two gene sets and got 13 common genes (Figure 10g), which could be

considered as important cilia genes in MSC lineage during tHO development. The expression

trends of 13 common cilia genes in each cluster (Figure 10h) or four groups in MSC lineages

(Figure 10i) were visualized. Among the 13 genes, IFT20 is the IFT-B complex which also

showed increased expression in injured cite of burn/tenotomy tHO model mice as shown in

Figure 2 and S2. PTCH1, the key receptor of Hh signaling, was also involved in the 13 common

cilia genes, which was consistent with our abovementioned findings. Furthermore, *Sgms2*

expression in the MSC lineage cluster declined over time after injury in the Nse-Bmp4 tHO

model (Figure S5f), consistent with the results from burn/tenotomy model (Figure 8), implicating

ciliary sphingomyelin metabolism (synthesis) in tHO development. Thus, scRNA-seq analysis of

the injured muscle from *Nse-Bmp4* tHO mice further demonstrated our conclusions.

DISCUSSION

The formation of traumatic heterotopic ossification (tHO) is a complex process involving the

aberrant differentiation of various types of cells into osteogenic and chondrogenic lineages.

Primary cilia are microtubule-based, non-motile organelles that act as cellular antennae, sensing

and transducing extracellular signals to regulate various developmental and physiological

processes. Several studies have revealed the relationship between primary cilia and skeletal

diseases, including defects of skeletal development such as polydactyly[42] and craniofacial

abnormalities[18]. Our previous research found that primary cilia in skeletogenic cells is crucial for

BMP and ActA-mediated osteogenesis and chondrogenesis and thereby governs the development

of fibrodysplasia ossifans progressiva (FOP)[6]. In this study, we demonstrate that cilia function

is significantly upregulated during tHO, with an increased prevalence of ciliated cells in the

injury site, particularly among stem/progenitor cells. This observation aligns with previous

studies indicating that primary cilia are essential for tissue repair[25] and regeneration[43] but extends

our understanding by linking cilia activity directly to the pathogenesis of tHO.

Our study reveals that primary cilia positively modulate TSPCs osteochondrogenesis,

contributing to the development of tHO. Knockdown of ciliary genes *Ift88* and *Arl3* significantly

reduced the osteochondrogenic differentiation capacity of TSPCs and ectopic bone volume in

tHO mice. This finding is consistent with the established role of primary cilia in regulating

stem/progenitor cell functions. For examples, loss of Numb (a ciliary protein) in spinal neural

progenitors lead to reduced cerebellar size via ciliary Hh signaling in mice[44]. The Hh signaling

pathway, which is cilia-dependent, is known to be aberrantly activated in postnatal

skeletogenesis[45] and heterotopic ossification in osteoblast[46]. Meanwhile, inactivated PI3K-Akt

signaling after ciliary gene IFT80 deficiency results in decreased odontogenic differentiation in

dental pulp stem cells[47]. Our study further supports this by showing that ciliary gene knockdown

in TSPCs downregulates Hh signaling and inactivates PI3K-Akt signaling, leading to reduced

osteochondrogenesis. Other pathway like TGFβ/BMP signaling is also widely studied on both

primary cilia[3] and tHO[48]. Fibrodysplasia ossifans progressiva (FOP) is a genetic form of HO

caused by mutations in the BMP type I receptor gene activin A receptor type 1 (ACVR1), while

our previous study[6] demonstrated that primary cilia regulate aberrant osteochondrogenesis via

pathological BMP signaling in FOP. Whether ciliary BMP signaling are involved in tHO

pathogenesis should be further explored in future research. In summary, we suggested that

primary cilia may serve as a crucial regulatory hub, integrating signals that drive the aberrant

TSPCs osteochondrogenesis during tHO progression.

A significant contribution of our study is the identification of MEST as a core regulator of

tHO for the first time. MEST encodes protein that is widely expressed in mesoderm. As we know,

the mesoderm develops into the skin, muscle, bone, and other connective tissues in our body,

which indicate the potential role of MEST in skeletogenesis. Our scRNA-seq results showed that

MEST is predominantly expressed in stem/progenitor cells and is upregulated during tHO

progression. A recent study reported that MEST specifically expressed in mesenchymal cells and

induced bone formation during mouse digit tip regeneration[49]. In our study, scRNA-seq showed

that the expression levels of osteogenic and chondrogenic genes in Mest highly expressed

stem/progenitor cells were higher than Mest low expressed stem/progenitor cells. Moreover,

knockdown of MEST in TSPCs attenuated their osteogenic and chondrogenic differentiation

capacities, while *shMest* significantly alleviate severity of tHO in mice, indicating a pivotal role

of MEST in promoting tHO by regulating TSPCs differentiation. Interestingly, MEST can

regulate the cilia length but not counts in TSPCs though it has no co-localization with primary

cilia. However, the specific mechanism of how MEST act on cilia remains unknown. Additional

studies are needed to characterize how MEST modulates ciliary structural remodeling and

interacts with key ciliary functional components. Overexpressing MEST in *shIft88* TSPCs can

rescue TSPCs reduced osteochondrogenic abilities, suggesting the effects of primary cilia on

TSPCs osteochondrogenesis and tHO is dependent on MEST activity. This finding is innovative

as it uncovers a novel regulatory axis involving cilia and MEST, highlighting a potential

therapeutic target for tHO.

Our study elucidates the molecular mechanisms through which MEST regulates tHO. We

showed that silencing MEST can suppress Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling and attenuate TSPCs

osteochondrogenesis in vitro. Overexpression of MEST promote TSPCs osteochondrogenesis via

activating Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling, and the effect can be rescued by Hh or PI3K-Akt inhibitor.

Furthermore, we show that the GLI2 transcription factor, a key activator of the Hh pathway,

binds to and promotes MEST transcription. This finding is supported by previous studies

indicating that GLI2 is a master regulator of bone homeostasis[50] and that its activity is tightly

regulated by cilia function[51]. Taken together, this study indicated that GLI2 transcriptional factor

activates MEST transcription and increase its gene expression, which in turn enhances TSPCs

osteogenesis and tHO progression via Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling.

In the presence of external stimuli, the selective influx and efflux of specific lipids in

primary cilia can dynamically modulate cell functions[13]. This process is intricately linked to

adipogenesis[34] and diseases such as polycystic kidney disease[17]. Thus, another novel aspect of

our study is the investigation of ciliary lipid metabolism in TSPCs during tHO. By untargeted

lipidomic after isolation of primary cilia, we show that MEST regulates the abundance of various

important lipids within TSPCs cilia, especially with sphingomyelin levels being significantly

upregulated upon MEST knockdown. This finding is intriguing as sphingomyelins are known to

interact with cholesterol to regulate ciliary signaling processes[38]. Recent studies showed that

SGMS2 mediated SM synthesis is involved in pancreatic cancer[52] and atherosclerosis[53].

Meanwhile, it is worth noting that SGMS2 is associated with early-onset osteoporosis[54] and

skeletal dysplasia[36], indicating its potential role in bone diseases. Our findings first indicated that

SGMS2 expression and SM synthesis may be activated by MEST knockdown, resulting in the

increased ciliary SM levels in *siMest* treated TSPCs, which may provide novel insights into the

treatment of tHO. Further studies should further concentrate on the mechanism by which MEST

may regulate SM metabolism in cilia. To explore the translational value of targeted SM

metabolism in tHO, we demonstrated that exogenous sphingomyelin treatment inhibits TSPCs

osteochondrogenesis and reduce ectopic bone volume in tHO mice. This effect is mediated

through the ciliary Hh signaling, as evidenced by the activation of Hh signaling upon myriocin

treatment and its inhibition by exogenous sphingomyelin. Vismodegib, a SMO inhibitor

targeting Hh signaling, can also diminish osteogenesis and chondrogenesis of TSPCs. The levels

of other sphingolipids and glycerophospholipids were also partly affected in *siMest* treated

TSPCs, indicating that other ciliary lipids except SM can also be involved in tHO pathogenesis

and need further studies to validate. These findings provide a new perspective on the role of lipid

metabolism in tHO and suggest that targeting ciliary sphingomyelin levels may represent a

potential therapeutic strategy.

Several limitations should be acknowledged in the study. First, our study primarily focuses

on the role of primary cilia in TSPCs, while other cell types[55,56] involved in tHO (such as

endothelial cells, muscle satellite cells, mesenchymal stem cells, adipose-derived stem cells,

fibroblasts, and immune cells) were not extensively investigated. Future studies should explore

the cilia-dependent functions of these cells and their interactions with TSPCs during tHO.

Second, our in vivo experiments were limited to local injection of AAV vectors carrying *shRNA*,

which may not fully recapitulate the complex physiological environment of tHO. Further studies

using genetically modified animal models are needed to validate our findings. Third, while we

identified MEST as a key regulator of tHO, the detailed molecular mechanisms through which

MEST modulates sphingomyelin metabolism within cilia remain unclear. Future studies should

investigate the specific interactions between MEST and lipid metabolic enzymes and their

impact on cilia function as the regulator of tHO. Finally, we did not explore whether and how

ECM stiffness alters cilia and their downstream signaling in tHO though 1) mechanical stimuli

can regulate bone formation via ciliary mechanical transduction[57]; 2) results of bioinformatic

analyses (Figure 5) show ECM-related biological processes may play a crucial role in TSPCs

osteochondrogenesis or tHO formation. Future studies should clarify how ECM stiffness after

injury influence local ectopic bone formation through ciliary mechanotransduction in tHO.

The schematic diagram of the study is shown in Figure 11. Our study opens several avenues

for future research. First, since primary cilia also located in other cell types during tHO

development, further investigation into the role of primary cilia in other cell types involved in

tHO is warranted. This will provide a more comprehensive understanding of the cilia-mediated

molecular mechanisms underlying tHO progression. Second, exploring the therapeutic potential

of targeting cilia function or MEST expression in preclinical models of tHO is an important next

step. This could involve the development of small molecules or gene therapies aimed at

modulating cilia activity or inhibiting MEST function. Third, elucidating the detailed molecular

mechanisms through which MEST regulates sphingomyelin or other lipid metabolism within

cilia will provide new insights into the pathogenesis of tHO and identify potential therapeutic

targets. Finally, translating these findings into clinical applications will require rigorous

preclinical and clinical trials to assess the safety and efficacy of cilia-targeted therapies for tHO.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

1.　Experimental tHO mice

Male C57/BL6 mice weighing approximately 20 g and aged 6–8 weeks bought from

Hangzhou Ziyuan Laboratory Animal Technology Co., Ltd were used for construction of

burn/tenotomy tHO mice model as previously reported[21]. Briefly, mice were anesthetized via

intraperitoneal injection of sodium pentobarbital. Hair was removed from the left hind limb

(from the knee to the ankle) and a 2×3 cm area on the left side of the midline of the spine using

an electric clipper for surgical preparation. A longitudinal incision was made along the Achilles

tendon to expose the gastrocnemius tendon, which was then transected transversely. The skin

was sutured using 5-0 surgical thread. Subsequently, a 2×3×3 cm aluminum block preheated to

60°C in a water bath was applied to the 2×3 cm area on the left side of the midline of the spine

for approximately 17 seconds without additional pressure. The surgical site was disinfected with

an alcohol swab postoperatively, and mice were housed individually. Antibiotics and analgesics

were administered as needed. The success of the tHO model was evaluated 8–10 weeks post-

surgery. Local injection of 1 mg/kg sphingomyelin (#HY-113498, MCE) and 1X PBS at the

same dose into the injured muscle in tHO mice were performed two times per week.

2. Micro-CT

After euthanasia, the lower leg and foot of the mice were harvested and fixed overnight at

4°C in 10% formalin solution. Subsequently, the samples were subjected to high-resolution

micro-CT using a SkyScan CT reconstruction software (Bruker Corporation). Three-dimensional

modeling and additional data analysis were performed using 3D.SUITE (Bruker Corporation).

The entire ectopic bone region of the specimen was selected as the region of interest (ROI) for

quantification of bone volume (BV). Additionally, the distal tibial epiphysis of the mouse was

selected as the ROI for quantification of bone mineral density (BMD) and trabecular thickness

(Tb.Th).

3. Immunofluorescence

For immunofluorescence staining of tissues and cells, samples were prepared by fixing in

4% paraformaldehyde at 4°C for 24 hours (tissues) or at room temperature for 15 minutes (cells).

Tissues were subsequently deparaffinized and rehydrated through gradient ethanol, while cells

were permeabilized with ice-cold methanol or 0.3% Triton X-100 (Solarbio Life Sciences) as

needed. Both tissues and cells were blocked with 10% normal goat serum or 1% BSA to reduce

nonspecific binding. Primary antibodies, raised in different host species, were applied and

incubated overnight at 4°C. After washing, fluorophore-conjugated secondary antibodies (#A-

11034, Thermo Fisher Scientific) were added and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature in

the dark. Nuclei were stained with DAPI for 10–15 minutes, followed by washing. Sections and

cells were mounted with an anti-fade medium and imaged using Nikon ECLIPSE Ni microscopic

system. Primary antibodies used in immunofluorescence are listed in Table S3.

4. Histology and immunohistochemistry

Following euthanasia, the tHO mice tendon tissues were collected and fixed in 4%
paraformaldehyde at 4°C for 24 hours. After three washes with PBS, the samples were
decalcified in 10% EDTA at 4°C for 21 days. The tissues were then embedded in paraffin, and
sagittal sections of the Achilles tendon were obtained via paraffin microtomy. Histological
staining was performed using hematoxylin and eosin (H&E), Masson's trichrome, and Von
Kossa staining to evaluate ectopic ossification in the Achilles tendon. The sections were
dehydrated in ethanol, mounted, and imaged using Nikon ECLIPSE Ni microscopic system.

For immunohistochemistry on paraffin-embedded sections, the slides were first
deparaffinized in xylene and rehydrated through a graded ethanol series. Endogenous peroxidase
activity was quenched with 3% hydrogen peroxide in methanol. Antigen retrieval was performed
by heating the sections in citrate buffer (pH 6.0) for 10 minutes at 95–100°C. Sections were then
blocked with 10% fetal bovine serum or 1% BSA for 1 hour at room temperature. Primary
antibodies were applied and incubated either for 1 hour at room temperature or overnight at 4°C,
followed by washing with PBS. Secondary antibodies (#Ab205718, abcam) were added and
incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature. For visualization, sections were developed with
DAB substrate and counterstained with hematoxylin. Finally, the sections were dehydrated,
cleared, and mounted with neutral gum for microscopic examination using Nikon ECLIPSE Ni
microscopic system. Primary antibodies used in immunohistochemistry are listed in Table S3.

5. Isolation of TSPCs and cell culture

The isolation of TSPCs was conducted as previously reported[58]. Briefly, 6- to 8-week-old
C57/BL6 mice were sacrificed, and their entire gastrocnemius tendons were aseptically harvested.
The tendons were washed three times with 1X PBS and finely minced using ophthalmic scissors.
The minced tissue was collected in a 15 ml centrifuge tube and digested with 3 ml of 3 mg/ml
collagenase type I (#SCR103, Sigma-Aldrich) at 37°C in a shaking incubator for 45 minutes.
The mixture was then centrifuged at 500 rpm for 5 minutes to remove the collagenase.
Subsequently, the pellet was resuspended in 3 ml of 2 U/ml dispase type II (#4942078001,
Roche) and digested at 37°C for another 45 minutes. After centrifugation at 500 rpm for 1
minute to remove the dispase, the cell pellet was resuspended in 3 ml of low-glucose DMEM

supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. The cell

suspension was filtered through a 70 μm cell strainer into a 10 cm culture dish and supplemented

with 6-8 ml of complete culture medium. The medium was changed for the first time after 3 days

and then every other day. When the cells reached 80% confluence (7-10 days later), they were

passaged for further experimental use. The drugs or substances added to TSPCs and the

concentration in the cell experiment are listed below: 10 μM myriocin (#HY-N6798, MCE), 20

μM sphingomyelin (#HY-113498, MCE), 10 μM vismodegib (#HY-10440, MCE), 4 μM

GANT61 (#HY-13901, MCE), 20 μM LY294002 (#HY-10108).

6.   Flow cytometry

Fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) analysis of mouse TSPCs were performed

following the protocols of previous studies[31,59]. We first removed the red blood cells from the

TSPCs using RBC Lysis Buffer (#46232, CST) and resuspend the cells in FACS buffer (1X PBS

+ 2% FBS + 1mM EDTA). The extracted TSPCs were stained with antibodies for 30 min at 4°C

in the dark. Cells were then washed twice with FACS buffer to remove unbound antibodies.

Flow cytometry was performed using BD FACSAria™ III. Data were analyzed using BD FACS

Diva software and FlowJo software.

7.   Plasmid construction and transfection

The pLVX-shRNA-puro lentivirus vector carrying shRNA was constructed by Shanghai

OBiO Technology Inc. for targeted gene knockdown in vitro. For lentivirus-mediated

transduction in TSPCs, $8×10^4$ cells were seeded into each well of a 6-well plate. When the cell

density reached 20%–30%, cells were transduced with lentivirus in the presence of polybrene (8–

10 hours). Subsequently, stable transduced cells were selected using 2 μg/ml puromycin for 5–10

days. The successful establishment of stable cell lines was verified by quantitative qPCR and

Western blot (Figure S7a).

The pAAV-U6-shRNA-CMV-MCS-WPRE adeno-associated virus (AAV) vector carrying

shRNA was constructed by Shanghai OBiO Technology Inc. for targeted gene knockdown in

vivo. The shRNA sequences used are listed in Table S4. Forty-eight hours after tHO induction in

mice, 10 μL of the AAV was injected intramuscularly into the medial side of the injured hind

limb. Subsequent injections were administered every 3–5 days to achieve sustained knockdown

of the specific gene expression. The successful establishment of gene knockdown was verified

by quantitative qPCR and Western blot (Figure S7b, c).

The pCDNA3.1 plasmid carrying the full-length cDNA of Gli2 or Mest was constructed for

targeted gene overexpression in vitro. When cells reached 50%-60% confluence, plasmid (Gli2

pcDNA3.1 plasmid, Mest pcDNA3.1 plasmid, or pcDNA3.1 control plasmid) transfection was

carried out using Lipofectamine 3000 (#L3000001, Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's

protocol. The cell culture medium was refreshed 24h after transfection.

8.   siRNA transfection

The siRNA sequences used are listed in Table S4. For siRNA transfection, 1×10^5 cells were

seeded into each well of a 6-well plate. When the cell density reached 50%, cells were

transfected with siRNA using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX (Invitrogen). Specifically, the siRNA

was mixed with Lipofectamine RNAiMAX and incubated at room temperature for 10 minutes.

The mixture was then added to cells cultured in Opti-MEM reduced-serum medium. After

incubation for 48–72 hours, cells were harvested for subsequent experiments.

9.   Induction of TSPCs osteogenic and chondrogenic differentiation

To induce osteogenic differentiation of TSPCs, gelatin-coated 6-well plates were used to

promote cell attachment and growth. TSPCs were seeded at a density of 1×10^4 cells/cm^2 and

cultured in osteogenic induction medium containing 10 mM β-glycerophosphate, 50 µg/ml

ascorbic acid, and 100 nM dexamethasone. The medium was changed every 2-3 days to maintain

optimal conditions. Osteogenic differentiation was assessed by alizarin red staining after 2-3

weeks to visualize calcium deposits. Additionally, qPCR was performed to evaluate the

expression of osteogenesis related genes.

To induce chondrogenic differentiation of TSPCs, cells were seeded at a density of 1×10^4

cells/cm^2 on gelatin-coated 6-well plates and cultured in chondrogenic induction medium

containing 10 ng/ml transforming growth factor-β3 (TGF-β3), 100 nM dexamethasone, 50 µg/ml

ascorbic acid, and 10 mM β-glycerophosphate. The medium was refreshed every 2-3 days to

ensure optimal conditions for differentiation. Chondrogenic differentiation was assessed by

histological staining with alcian blue to detect glycosaminoglycans at 2-3 weeks. qPCR was also

performed to evaluate the expression of chondrogenic markers.

10. Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR)

To assess the mRNA levels of the target genes, total RNA was purified from TSPCs using an RNA Easy Fast Tissue/Cell Kit (#DP451, TIANGEN). The extracted mRNA was reverse-transcribed into cDNA using FastKing gDNA Dispelling RT SuperMix (#KR118, TIANGEN). Quantitative PCR was performed using the ABI Step One Plus system (Applied Biosystems). Each reaction mixture (final volume of 20 µL) contained 1 µL of total cDNA, Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (#A57155, Invitrogen), and gene-specific primers. The PCR protocol included an initial denaturation at 95°C for 10 minutes, followed by 45 cycles of 95°C for 20 seconds, 72°C for 30 seconds, and a final dissociation curve analysis from 60°C to 95°C at a heating rate of 0.1°C per second. GAPDH was used as an internal control. Relative gene expression was calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method. Primers used in the study are listed in Table S5.

11. Western blot

To perform western blot analysis, proteins were extracted from cells by washing with PBS, lysing in RIPA buffer (#R0278, Sigma-Aldrich) containing Protease & Phosphatase Inhibitor Cocktail (#78441, Thermo Fisher Scientific), and sonicating on ice. The lysates were centrifuged at 4°C to collect the supernatant, and protein concentrations were determined using a BCA Protein Assay Kit (#P0011, Beyotime). Equal amounts of protein were denatured by heating in SDS loading buffer, separated by SDS-PAGE, and transferred to PVDF or nitrocellulose membranes. Membranes were blocked with 5% skim milk in TBST to reduce nonspecific binding. Primary antibodies were applied overnight at 4°C, followed by washing and incubation with secondary antibodies conjugated to horseradish peroxidase (#SA00001-2, Proteintech Inc.) for 1 hour at room temperature. After additional washing, the membranes were developed using Super ECL Detection Reagent (#36208ES60, YEASEN) and imaged with ChemiDoc XRS+ Gel Imaging System (Bio-Rad). Band intensities were quantified using ImageJ software, and target protein expression levels were normalized to those of the internal control. Primary antibodies used in western blot are listed in Table S3.

12. RNA-seq

828  Total RNA was isolated from samples using RNA Easy Fast Tissue/Cell Kit (#DP451,

829 TIANGEN). The purity and concentration of the extracted RNA were assessed using the

830 NanoDrop One spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). RNA integrity was further

831 evaluated using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies). Subsequently, RNA

832 sequencing libraries were prepared using the VAHTS Universal V6 RNA-seq Library Prep Kit

833 (Vazyme). The transcriptome sequencing and subsequent bioinformatics analysis were

834 performed by Shanghai OE Biotech. Sequencing libraries were sequenced on the Illumina

835 Novaseq 6000 platform to generate 150-bp paired-end reads. The raw sequencing reads in

836 FASTQ format were processed using the fastp software to remove low-quality reads, yielding

837 clean reads for subsequent data analysis. The clean reads were aligned to the reference genome

838 using the HISAT2 software, and gene expression levels were calculated in terms of fragments

839 per kilobase of transcript per million mapped reads (FPKM). Additionally, read counts for each

840 gene were obtained using HTSeq-count. Subsequent analyses, including principal component

841 analysis (PCA), differential gene expression analysis, and enrichment analysis, were performed

842 using the R software.

844 **13. Untargeted lipidomics using liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-**
845  **MS/MS)**

846  TSPCs were cultured in serum-free medium to promote cilium growth until confluence. The

847 cells were washed with PBS and subjected to shear force by rotating at 360 rpm in a shaking

848 incubator at 37°C for 4 minutes to detach cilia as previously reported[35]. The cell debris was

849 removed by centrifugation at 1000×g for 10 minutes at 4°C, followed by ultracentrifugation at

850 40,000×g for 30 minutes at 4°C to isolate the ciliary suspension from the supernatant. The ciliary

851 suspension was then used for untargeted lipidomics sequencing.

852  For lipid extraction, 200 µL of pre-chilled methanol/water (3:1, v/v) was added to the ciliary

853 suspension, followed by sonication on ice for 15 minutes. Then, 1 mL of pre-chilled methyl tert-

854 butyl ether (MTBE) was added and vortexed thoroughly. The mixture was rotated at 4°C for 1

855 hour, followed by sonication on ice for another 30 minutes. After adding 100 µL of water and

856 vortexing for 1 minute, the mixture was left at room temperature for 10 minutes. The sample was

857 then centrifuged at 14,000×g for 15 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was collected, and the pellet

858 was dried under a stream of nitrogen. The dried pellet was re-dissolved in 200 µL of SDT buffer.

Protein concentration was measured using the BCA assay. Based on the protein content, the cell

quantity in each sample was estimated, and equal cell amounts were taken from each supernatant.

The supernatant was dried using a high-speed vacuum concentrator, re-dissolved in 60 µL of pre-

chilled isopropanol/methanol (1:1, v/v), and centrifuged at 20,000×g for 20 minutes at 4°C. The

supernatant was vortexed and transferred to an injection vial for analysis. The entire analysis was

performed at 4°C using an automatic sampler. The samples were analyzed using a SHIMADZU-

LC30 ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) system equipped with an

ACQUITY UPLC® HSS C18 column (2.1×100 mm, 1.9 µm) (Waters, Milford, MA, USA). To

avoid signal drift, samples were analyzed in a random order. A quality control (QC) sample was

inserted every 5-10 experimental samples to monitor system stability and data reliability. The

samples were analyzed in both positive and negative ion modes using electrospray ionization

(ESI). After separation by UHPLC, the samples were analyzed using a QExactive Plus mass

spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Lipid identification and quantification were performed

using the MSDIAL software (Version 5.2.240218.2-net472) with the following parameters:

precursor mass tolerance of 10 ppm, product mass tolerance of 10 ppm, retention time alignment

of 0.1 min, and peak area filtering to reduce false positives. Lipids with relative standard

deviations (RSD) exceeding 30% in QC samples were excluded. The data were normalized to the

total peak area, preprocessed with UV-scaling, and subjected to multivariate statistical analyses,

including unsupervised principal component analysis (PCA), supervised partial least squares

discriminant analysis (PLS-DA), and orthogonal partial least squares discriminant analysis

(OPLS-DA). Univariate statistical analyses included Student's t-test and fold-change analysis,

and volcano plots and hierarchical clustering were generated using R software.

14. Dual-luciferase reporter assay

The Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay was performed using the Dual-Luciferase Reporter

Assay System (Promega). The firefly luciferase reporter gene was cloned downstream of the

wild-type (WT) or mutant (MUT) pGL4.10-Mest promoter regions and co-transfected into

TSPCs with pcDNA3.1-GLI2 and Renilla expression vector pRL-TK. Following a 48-hour

incubation, cell lysates were prepared, and firefly luciferase activity was quantified and

normalized to Renilla luciferase activity as an internal control.

15. Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay

The ChIP assay was performed according to the previous study[60] using Pierce™ Agarose ChIP Kit (#26156, Thermo Fisher Scientific). In brief, TSPCs were fixed with 1% formaldehyde, quenched with 1X glycine solution, and lysed using Lysis Buffer supplemented with protease inhibitors. Chromatin was digested with ChIP-grade micrococcal nuclease. The digested chromatin was incubated overnight at 4°C with GLI2 antibody in Dilution Buffer. ChIP-grade Protein A/G Plus Agarose beads were added to each immunoprecipitation (IP), followed by centrifugation and washing with Wash Buffer. Elution was performed using 150 μL IP Elution Buffer, 6 μL 5 M NaCl, and 2 μL 20 mg/mL Proteinase K. DNA fragments were analyzed by real-time PCR. The primer sequences for ChIP-qPCR were designed based on +/-150 bp of the two predicted sites on MEST promoter region and provided in Table S5.

16. Bioinformatics analysis

The scRNA sequencing dataset from the GEO database (GSE126060 and GSE246445). Dimensionality reduction, clustering, and cell-type identification of the scRNA sequencing data were performed using the Seurat package in R software. Additionally, bulk RNA sequencing data from the heterotopic ossification sites of mice three weeks post-trauma was also obtained from the GEO database (GSE233201). Differential gene expression analysis was conducted using the DESeq2 package, while enrichment analysis was performed with the clusterProfiler package. Transcription factor binding sites were predicted using the JASPAR database (https://jaspar.elixir.no/).

17. Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS software and R Studio. Data are presented as mean ± standard deviation (SD) of three independent assays. Statistical analyses were performed by Student's t-test for two-group comparison and one-way ANOVA analyses with Tukey's post hoc test for multiple comparisons. Statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$.

List of Supplementary Materials

Figure S1 to S7 for multiple supplementary figures

Table S1 to S5 for multiple supplementary tables (including Excel files)

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Writing – review & editing: HJ, XHZ

Competing interests: Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Data and materials availability: The data that support the findings of this study are available

from corresponding author upon reasonable request. Publicly available datasets were

analyzed in this study, these can be found in Gene Expression Omnibus (GSE126060,

GSE246445 and GSE233201) of National Center for Biotechnology Information.

Ethical approval: All animal procedures were conducted in accordance with the guidelines of

the Ethics Committee on Animal Experiments of the Naval Medical University.

Figures

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Figure 1. The number of primary cilia-positive cells increases during tHO formation. (a) Schematic diagram of

the experimental workflow. (b) H&E, Masson trichrome, and Von Kossa staining of tHO tendon tissues collected

from different time points after injury (scale bar 50 µm). (c) Immunofluorescence images of PDGFRα (green) and

ARL13B (red) at different time points during tHO development. DAPI staining indicates nuclei (blue), scale bar 30

µm. (d) Immunofluorescence images of COL2A1 (green) and ARL13B (red) in injured sites at 21 and 56 days after

tHO. DAPI staining indicates nuclei (blue), scale bar 30 µm. (d) Immunofluorescence images of OCN (green) and

ARL13B (red) in injured sites at 21 and 56 days after tHO. DAPI staining indicates nuclei (blue), scale bar 30 µm.

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Figure 2. scRNA-seq indicated the role of stem/progenitor cells and ciliary genes in tHO development. (a)

UMAP plot of nine clusters identified in 21880 cells in total of tHO injured site. (b) Bubble plot shows the high

variable marker genes of each cluster. The red box highlights Pdgfra and Prrx1 as markers for the Mesenchymal

cluster. (c) The expression density of Pdgfra+, Prrx1+, and Pdgfra+Prrx1+ cells in each cluster are shown by UMAP

plot. The purple-to-yellow gradient signifies a progressive increase in expression levels. (d) UMAP plot of nine

clusters with single cells grouped by different time points (Day 0 ,3, 7, 21) during tHO demonstrates the trend of

changes in cell composition. (e) The volcano plot visualizes the differential expressed genes in the Mesenchymal

subcluster at Day 7 (left) or Day 21 (right) compared to the Day 0 group. (f) The dot plot visualizes the different

expression of *Ift20* and *Arl3* in nine clusters. (g) UMAP plot shows the expression of *Ift20* (upper) and *Arl3* (lower)

at different time points (Day 0 ,3, 7, 21) during tHO development. (h) Bubble plot shows the different expression of

osteogenic and chondrogenic genes in four groups during tHO development. (i) qPCR showed relative osteogenesis-

related genes (*Alpl, Runx2,* and *Bglap*) mRNA expression in different time points (Day 0, 3, 7, 21) during tHO

development. (j) qPCR showed relative chondrogenesis-related genes (*Col2a1, Sox9,* and *Acan*) mRNA expression

in different time points (Day 0, 3, 7, 21) during tHO development. Data are presented as means ± SD of three

independent assays. Statistical analyses were performed by one-way ANOVA analyses with Tukey's post hoc test

for multiple comparisons. ****$P < 0.001$; ns, $P > 0.05$.

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1107 **Figure 3. Primary cilia dysfunction impairs TSPCs osteochondrogenesis and ectopic bone formation.** (a)

1108 Fibroblast-like TSPCs extracted from mice for subsequent experiments (scale bar 100 µm) and flow cytometry

1109 analysis of the expression of Pdgfra and Prrx1 (stem/progenitor cell surface markers) on TSPCs. (b)

1110 Immunofluorescence images of AcTu (green) mark the cilia in *shNC, shIFT88,* and *shARL3* TSPCs. DAPI staining

1111 indicates nuclei (blue), scale bar 30 µm (left) and 10 µm (right). (c) Cilia counts (qualified by the percentage of

ciliated TSPCs) in TSPCs with or without *shIFT88* or *shARL3* treatment. (d) Cilia length in TSPCs with or without

shIFT88 or *shARL3* treatment (n= 25/group). (e) Representative images of alizarin red staining (upper) and alcian

blue staining (lower) in TSPCs with or without *shIFT88* or *shARL3* treatment during in vitro osteogenic or

chondrogenic differentiation. (f) qPCR showed relative osteogenesis-related genes (*Alpl, Runx2, Bglap, and Sp7*)

and chondrogenesis-related genes (*Col2a1, Sox9, and Acan*) mRNA expression in TSPCs with or without *shIFT88*

or *shARL3* treatment after during in vitro osteogenic or chondrogenic differentiation. (g) Micro-CT images show

tHO of lower limbs among *shNC, shIFT88,* and *shARL3* groups (n= 4/group). (h) Bone volume (BV, mm^3), bone

mineral density (BMD, g/cc), and Tb.Th (trabecular thickness, mm) are quantified. Independent experiments (n=

4/group) were performed for measurements. Data are presented as means ± SD of three independent assays.

Statistical analyses were performed by one-way ANOVA analyses with Tukey's post hoc test for multiple

comparisons. *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.005; ****P < 0.001; ns, P > 0.05.

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Figure 4. TSPCs ciliary Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling are involved in tHO progression. (a) GO enrichment

analysis of differential expressed genes in tHO mice injured site shows top 10 enriched biological processes that are

important for tHO. (b) GO enrichment analysis of differential expressed genes in TSPCs treated with *shIft88* shows

top 10 enriched biological processes. (c) GSEA enrichment of TSPCs treated with *shIft88* compared with *shNC*. The

enriched pathway with the absolute value of normalized enrichment score (NES) greater than 1 and adjusted P-value

less than 0.05 was considered significant. (d) KEGG enrichment analysis of differential expressed genes in

Mesenchymal subcluster of tHO injured site identified by scRNA-seq shows top 10 enriched pathways. (e) KEGG

enrichment analysis of differential expressed genes in TSPCs treated with *shIft88* showed top enriched pathways. (f)

qPCR showed relative Hh signaling genes (Shh, Ptch1) mRNA expression in TSPCs with or without *shIft88* or

shARL3 treatment during in vitro osteogenic or chondrogenic differentiation. (g) Western blot showed Hh signaling

(SHH, PTCH1) and PI3K-Akt signaling (PI3K, p-PI3K, AKT, p-AKT) protein expression levels in TSPCs with or

without *shIFT88* or *shARL3* treatment during in vitro osteogenic or chondrogenic differentiation. (h) The expression

level of *Smo* in each cluster are shown by violin plot. (i) UMAP plot shows the expression of *Smo* at different time

points (Day0 ,3, 7, 21) during tHO development. Data are presented as means ± SD of three independent assays.

Statistical analyses were performed by one-way ANOVA analyses with Tukey's post hoc test for multiple

comparisons. ***P < 0.005; ****P < 0.001

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Figure 5. MEST modulates TSPCs cilia length and osteochondrogenesis in tHO. (a) Venn diagram shows the common differential expressed genes among three gene sets and identified MEST, PTN, COL2A1 as the key genes. (b) Immunofluorescence images of AcTu (green) and MEST (red) in TSPCs. DAPI staining indicates nuclei (blue), scale bar 30 µm (upper) and 10 µm (lower). (c) Representative images of alizarin red staining (upper) and alcian blue staining (lower) in TSPCs with or without *siMest* treatment during in vitro osteogenic or chondrogenic differentiation. (d) qPCR shows relative *Mest* and osteogenesis-related (*Alpl, Runx2, Bglap*) or chondrogenesis-related genes (*Col2a1, Sox9, Acan*) mRNA expression in TSPCs with or without *siMest* treatment during in vitro osteogenic or chondrogenic differentiation. (e) tSNE map shows Mest-high and Mest-low subclusters divided from Mesenchymal cluster. The expression level of *Mest, Runx2, Sox9*, and *Acan* in Mest-high and Mest-low subclusters were visualize by violin plots. (f) Immunofluorescence images of AcTu (green) mark the cilia of TSPCs. DAPI staining indicates nuclei (blue), scale bar 30 µm (upper) and 10 µm (lower). (g) Cilia counts (qualified by ciliated TSPCs proportion) and cilia length (n= 25/group) in the *siNC* and *siMest* group. (h) Micro-CT images show tHO of lower limbs in *shNC* and *shMest* groups. (i) Quantification of tHO degree by bone volume (BV, mm^3) and bone mineral density (BMD, mg/cm^3). Independent experiments (n= 4/group) were performed for measurements. Data are presented as means ± SD of three independent assays. Statistical analyses were performed by Student's t-test for two-group comparison and one-way ANOVA analyses with Tukey's post hoc test for multiple comparisons. *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.005; ****P < 0.001; ns, P > 0.05.

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Figure 6. GLI2 binds to the MEST promoter to activate its transcription via Hh signaling. (a) The sequence

logo of GLI2 transcription factor and two potential binding sites of the GLI2 transcription factor on the MEST

promoter region predicted by the JASPAR database. (b) The luciferase reporter assay using pGL4.10 as vector

showed that GLI2 can bind to the MEST promoter at both site 1 and 2. (c) Immunohistochemistry images

demonstrated GLI2 in tHO tendon tissues at different time post injury (scale bar 100 µm). (d) qPCR shows relative

Gli2 mRNA expression in TSPCs with or without *shIft88* or *shARL3* treatment during in vitro osteogenic or

chondrogenic differentiation. (e) Western blot shows GLI2 protein expression levels in TSPCs with or without

shIFT88 or *shARL3* treatment during in vitro osteogenic or chondrogenic differentiation. (f) ChIP-qPCR shows

GLI2 can binds to both the site 1 and site 2 of the MEST promoter region. (g) qPCR showed relative Mest mRNA

expression in TSPCs with or without Gli2-OE or *siGli2* treatment during in vitro osteogenic or chondrogenic

differentiation. (h) Immunohistochemistry images demonstrated SHH, GLI2, PTCH1, and SMO expression in tHO

tendon tissues with *shNC* or *shMest* treatment after injury (scale bar 150 µm). (i) qPCR shows relative *Shh, Ptch1,*

1174   *Gli2,* and *Smo* mRNA expression in tHO tendon tissues with *shNC* or *shMest* treatment after injury. Data are

1175   presented as means ± SD of three independent assays. Statistical analyses were performed by Student's t-test for

1176   two-group comparison and one-way ANOVA analyses with Tukey's post hoc test for multiple comparisons. **P <

1177   0.01; ***P < 0.005; ****P < 0.001; ns, P > 0.05.

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Figure 7. MEST enhances TSPCs osteochondrogenesis through Hh and PI3K-Akt signaling. (a) qPCR showed

relative Hh signaling genes (*Shh, Ptch1, and Smo*) mRNA expression in TSPCs with or without *siMest* treatment

during in vitro osteogenic or chondrogenic differentiation. (b) Western blot shows Hh signaling (SHH, PTCH1)

protein expression levels in TSPCs with or without *siMest* treatment during in vitro osteogenic or chondrogenic

differentiation. (c) Western blot showed PI3K-Akt signaling (PI3K, p-PI3K, AKT, p-AKT) protein expression levels

in TSPCs with or without *siMest* treatment during in vitro osteogenic or chondrogenic differentiation. (d)

Representative images of alizarin red staining (upper) and alcian blue staining (lower) in TSPCs during in vitro

osteogenic (upper) and chondrogenic (lower) differentiation in Vector, MEST-OE, MEST-OE + *shIft88*, MEST-OE

+ GANT61, and MEST-OE + LY294002 treated groups. (e) qPCR showed relative osteogenesis-related genes (*Alpl,*

Runx2, Bglap) and chondrogenesis-related genes (*Sox9, Col2a1, Acan*) mRNA expression after in vitro TSPCs

osteogenic or chondrogenic differentiation in five groups. (f) Western blot showed GLI2 and MEST protein

expression levels in TSPCs under different treatment during in vitro osteogenic or chondrogenic differentiation. (g)

qPCR showed relative Hh signaling genes (*Shh, Ptch1, and Smo*) mRNA expression in TSPCs under different

treatment during in vitro osteogenic or chondrogenic differentiation. (h) Western blot showed PI3K-Akt signaling

(PI3K, p-PI3K, AKT, p-AKT) protein expression levels in TSPCs under different treatment during in vitro

osteogenic or chondrogenic differentiation. Data are presented as means ± SD of three independent assays.

Statistical analyses were performed by Student's t-test for two-group comparison and one-way ANOVA analyses

with Tukey's post hoc test for multiple comparisons. $*P < 0.05$; $**P < 0.01$; $***P < 0.005$; $****P < 0.001$.

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Figure 8. MEST regulates ciliary sphingomyelin metabolism in TSPCs. (a) Immunofluorescence images of AcTu (green) marked cilia in ciliated and non-ciliated mouse primary TSPCs after cilia isolation. DAPI staining indicates nuclei (blue). scale bar 100 μm. (b) Western blot analysis of extracted TSPCs cilia lysates and non-ciliated TSPCs. (c) OPLS-DA plot shows the differences between *siNC* (blue, n= 7) and *siMest* (green, n= 6) groups. (d) Circular diagram of the classification statistics of differential lipids. (e) Bubble chart of lipid classification. The horizontal axis represents the quantity range of lipids, and the vertical axis represents the logarithmic transformation

of fold change. Each circle represents a lipid substance. The larger the circle, the higher the variable importance.

Different colors represent the primary classification, and lipids of the same classification are arranged together. (f)

The volcano plot visualizes the differential expressed lipids in *siMest* group compared to the *siNC* group.

Differential expressed lipids are visualized as red (upregulated) or blue (downregulated) bubbles, identified by

expression fold-change and p-value. (g) Relative abundance of sphingomyelin and triglyceride are significantly

different in *siMest* and *siNC* group. (h) KEGG enrichment analysis of differential expressed lipids between *siMest*

and *siNC* group (C: cellular processes; E: environmental information processing; H: human diseases; M: metabolism;

O: organismal systems). (i) The expression density of *Sgms2* in each cluster (left) and in Mesenchymal subcluster

(right) are shown by UMAP plot. (j) UMAP plot shows the expression of *Sgms2* in Mesenchymal subcluster at

different time points (Day0 ,3, 7, 21) during tHO development. (k) qPCR shows relative *Sgms2* mRNA expression

in TSPCs with or without *siMest* treatment during in vitro osteogenic or chondrogenic differentiation. (l) Western

blot shows SGMS2 protein expression levels in TSPCs with or without *siMest* treatment during in vitro osteogenic

or chondrogenic differentiation. (m) Bubble plot shows the different expression of SM biosynthesis (red) or

catabolism (blue) related genes at different time points (Day 0 ,3, 7, 21) during tHO development. Data are

presented as means ± SD of three independent assays. Statistical analyses were performed by Student's t-test for

two-group comparison. ****$P < 0.001$.

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Figure 9. Targeting ciliary sphingomyelin in TSPCs alleviates tHO via Hh signaling. (a) Representative images of alizarin red staining (upper) and alcian blue staining (lower) in TSPCs during in vitro osteogenic (upper) and chondrogenic (lower) differentiation in control, myriocin, sphingomyelin, myriocin + sphingomyelin, myriocin + siMest, and myriocin + vismodegib treated groups. (b) Quantification of the percentages of alizarin red positive (ARS+) and alcian blue positive (AB+) areas in six groups. (c) qPCR showed relative osteogenesis-related genes *(Alpl, Runx2, Bglap*) and chondrogenesis-related genes (*Sox9, Col2a1, Acan*) mRNA expression after in vitro TSPCs osteogenic (upper) or chondrogenic (lower) differentiation in six groups. (d) qPCR showed relative Hh signaling genes (*Shh, Ptch1, Gli2, Smo*) mRNA expression after in vitro TSPCs osteogenic differentiation in six groups. (e) qPCR showed relative Hh signaling genes (*Shh, Ptch1, Gli2, Smo*) mRNA expression after in vitro TSPCs chondrogenic differentiation in six groups. (f) Micro-CT images show tHO of lower limbs between 1X PBS and sphingomyelin (SM) treated groups. Quantification of tHO degree by bone volume (BV, mm^3) and bone mineral density (BMD, mg/cm^3). Independent experiments (n= 4/group) were performed for measurements. (g) qPCR shows relative *Shh, Ptch1, Gli2,* and *Smo* mRNA expression in tHO mice injured site with PBS or SM treatment. Data are presented as means ± SD of three independent assays. Statistical analyses were performed by Student's t-test for two-group comparison and one-way ANOVA analyses with Tukey's post hoc test for multiple comparisons. *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.005; ****P < 0.001; ns, P > 0.05.

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Figure 10. scRNA-seq analysis of the injured tibial muscle from *Nse-Bmp4* tHO mice. (a) UMAP plot of nine

clusters identified in 45287 cells in total of *Nse-Bmp4* mice injured muscle. (b) The percentage of each annotated

cell type in four groups and its trend. (c) UMAP plot shows the expression density of *Mest* in each cluster. (d)

UMAP plot shows the expression of *Mest* from *Nse-Bmp4* mice injured muscle in different groups during tHO

development at single-cell levels. (e) Heatmap of the top 10 higher variable genes of four groups in MSC lineages

cluster. (f) GO and KEGG enrichment analyses of differential expressed genes (DEGs) in *Nse-Bmp4* mice muscle at

7 days post injury shows top 10 enriched functions and pathways that are important for tHO. (g) Venn plot shows

the 13 common genes between cilia genes and DEGs of Day 7 group in MSC lineages cluster. (h) The dot plot

visualizes the different expression of 13 common genes in nine clusters. (i) Bubble plot shows the different

expression of 13 common genes in four groups of MSC lineages cluster.

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Figure 11. Schematic diagram of the study. SHH is unregulated within the primary cilia of TSPCs after trauma, activating the Hh signaling through its interaction with PTCH1 and SMO receptors. Subsequently, the GLI2 transcription factor activated and translocated to the nucleus, where it promotes the expression of the MEST gene. Concurrently, the phosphorylation levels of PI3K and AKT are enhanced. The upregulation of MEST expression inhibits sphingomyelin synthesis and leads to a reduction in sphingomyelin levels within the cilia, further amplifying the activation of the ciliary Hh signaling. This positive feedback loop dramatically enhances the osteogenic and chondrogenic differentiation potential of TSPCs, resulting in localized ectopic bone deposition and tHO. Conversely, when the ciliary genes Ift88 and Arl3 are knocked down in TSPCs, the production of SHH ligands is markedly reduced. Thus, SMO is inhibited by PTCH1, preventing the activation of GLI2. Additionally, the phosphorylation of PI3K and AKT is suppressed. The reduction in MEST expression subsequently increases the sphingomyelin within the cilia, which further inhibits the ciliary Hh signaling. As a result, the osteogenic and chondrogenic differentiation capacity of TSPCs is significantly diminished, thereby alleviating the occurrence and development of tHO.

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