

Aus dem Institut für Klinische Pharmakologie und Toxikologie
der Medizinischen Fakultät Charité – Universitätsmedizin Berlin

DISSERTATION

Investigating the role of PGE₂/15-keto-PGE₂/EP2/EP4 axis in
kidney biology and disease

Untersuchung der Rolle der PGE₂/15-keto-PGE₂/EP2/EP4-
Achse in der Nierenbiologie und bei Nierenerkrankungen

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List of abbreviations

GH	Glomerular hyperfiltration
PGE₂	Prostaglandin E ₂
PGF_{2a}	Prostaglandin F _{2a}
PGD₂	Prostaglandin D ₂
GFB	Glomerular filtration barrier
EM	Electron microscopy
COX	Cyclooxygenase
dmPGE₂	16,16-dimethyl prostaglandin E ₂
MWF	Munich Wistar Frömter rat
SHR	Spontaneously hypertensive rat
qPCR	Quantitative real-time PCR
MRI	Magnetic resonance imaging
DEGs	Differentially expressed genes
hpf	Hours post fertilization
SBP	Systolic blood pressure
CrCl	Creatinine clearance
RNA-seq	RNA sequencing
gc-EGFP	Vitamin D binding protein tagged with enhanced green fluorescent protein
ESRD	End stage renal disease
PGs	Prostaglandins
CKD	Chronic kidney disease
FFSS	Fluid flow shear stress

FSGS	Focal segmental glomerulosclerosis
GBM	Glomerular basement membrane
AA	Arachidonic acid
cAMP	Cyclic adenosine monophosphate
PPAR-γ	Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma
DAPI	4',6-Diamidin-2-phenylindol
h	Hour(s)
min	Minute(s)
SD	Standard deviation
nt	Nucleotides
μL	Microliter
μm	Micrometer
μM	Micromolar

Abstract

Albuminuria represents a hallmark of both early kidney injury and chronic kidney disease (CKD). The importance of albuminuria as a prognosis marker is demonstrated by recent observations showing the high correlation of albuminuria with the probability of developing end-stage renal disease (ESRD).

Prostaglandins are lipid mediators demonstrating a crucial signaling role in various processes. PGE₂ is known to be the most abundant prostaglandin across tissues and has been found to be implicated in the regulation of renal homeostasis through its EP (EP1-4) receptors signaling, as well as affecting the incidence and progression of various kidney diseases. In addition, PGE₂ is implicated in proteinuria by affecting glomerular filtration barrier (GFB) permeability and its elevated levels are linked to increased fluid flow shear stress (FFSS) in podocytes. Despite the extensively studied role of PGE₂ on kidney physiology, the metabolic products occurring from its catabolism are considered biologically inactive. Recent *in vitro* data reported the ability of 15-keto-PGE₂ to activate EP receptors, however, the potential physiological roles of 15-keto-PGE₂ need to be investigated. Moreover, the role of PGE₂/15-keto-PGE₂/EP2/EP4 axis in kidney biology and glomerular morphology, as well as the potential renoprotective effect of combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors need to be further investigated.

In this study, I demonstrated that exogenous stimulation of zebrafish embryos with PGE₂ resulted in an albuminuria-like phenotype, mimicking the suggested PGE₂ effects on GFB dysfunction. Importantly, combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors significantly reduced the albuminuria phenotype in both zebrafish and the Munich Wistar Frömter (MWF) rat, a model of glomerular hyperfiltration (GH) and albuminuria. Using lipidomic analysis, it was shown that both PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ were present at considerable levels in zebrafish embryos and the latter could bind and stabilize EP2 and EP4 receptors on the plasma membrane in a yeast model. High-resolution image analysis revealed that the exogenous treatment with either PGE₂ or 15-keto-PGE₂ perturbed glomerular vascularization during zebrafish development. Specifically, I showed that elevated levels of PGE₂ or 15-keto-PGE₂ caused intercalation defects between podocytes and endothelial cells of glomerular capillaries, significantly affecting the podocyte surface area. Importantly, these defects were significantly reversed by combined blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors.

Altogether, these findings support two key conclusions: a) a confirmed role of PGE₂ in the development of albuminuria in GH, while demonstrating a renoprotective potential of combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors, and b) 15-keto-PGE₂ has a biologically active role and may potentially modulate the EP receptor signaling *in vivo*, thus playing a role in kidney biology.

Zusammenfassung

Albuminurie ist ein Merkmal der frühen Nierenschädigung als auch der chronischen Nierenerkrankung (CKD). Die Bedeutung von Albuminurie als Prognosemarker wurde durch jüngsten Studien belegt, in denen gezeigt wurde, dass Albuminurie mit der Wahrscheinlichkeit der Entwicklung einer Nierenerkrankung im Endstadium (ESRD) korreliert.

PGE₂, das in allen Geweben am häufigsten vorkommende Prostaglandin, wirkt über seine EP(EP1-4) -Rezeptoren, beeinflusst das Auftreten und Fortschreiten verschiedener Nierenerkrankungen, erhöht die Durchlässigkeit der glomerulären Filtrationsbarriere (GFB) und kann so zu Proteinurie führen. Eine Hochregulierung von PGE₂ in Podozyten ist mit einem erhöhten Scherstress des Flüssigkeitsstroms (FFSS) verbunden, wie er bei glomerulärer Hyperfiltration (GH) beobachtet wird. Trotz umfassender Studien zur Rolle von PGE₂ für die Nierenphysiologie werden die PGE₂ Metabolite weitgehend als biologisch inaktiv angesehen. Obwohl neue In-vitro Daten auf eine Aktivierung der EP-Rezeptoren durch 15-keto-PGE₂ hindeuten, blieb bislang ungeklärt, ob 15-keto-PGE₂ auch eine physiologische Rolle spielt. Zudem muss untersucht werden, welche Funktion die PGE₂/15-keto-PGE₂/EP2/EP4-Achse in der Nierenbiologie und der glomerulären Morphologie hat und ob eine duale pharmakologische Blockade von EP2-/EP4-Rezeptoren eine potenzielle renoprotektive Wirkung hat.

In dieser Arbeit habe ich gezeigt, dass die exogene Stimulation von Zebrafisch-Embryonen mit PGE₂ einen Albuminurie-ähnlichen Phänotyp hervorruft, welcher die erwarteten Effekte von PGE₂ auf die GFB-Dysfunktion nachahmt. Eine kombinierte pharmakologische Blockade von EP2-/EP4-Rezeptoren reduzierte signifikant den Albuminurie-Phänotyp sowohl in Zebrafischen als auch in der Munich Wistar Frömter Ratte, einem Modell für GH und Albuminurie. Lipidomanalysen haben gezeigt, dass sowohl PGE₂ als auch 15-keto-PGE₂ in Zebrafischembryonen in beträchtlichen Mengen vorhanden sind. 15-keto-PGE₂ konnte EP2-/EP4-Rezeptoren in der Plasmamembran eines Hefemodells binden und stabilisieren. Die exogene Behandlung mit PGE₂ oder 15-keto-PGE₂ störte die glomeruläre Vaskularisierung während der Entwicklung des Zebrafisches. Vor allem erhöhte Konzentrationen von PGE₂ oder 15-keto-PGE₂ verursachten Defekte bei der Interkalation zwischen Podozyten und Endothelzellen der glomerulären Kapillaren, was die Oberfläche der glomerulären Filtrationsbarriere

erheblich beeinträchtigte. Diese Defekte konnten durch die kombinierte Blockade von EP2-/EP4-Rezeptoren aufgehoben werden.

Insgesamt stützen diese Ergebnisse zwei wichtige Schlussfolgerungen: a) die Rolle von PGE₂ bei der Entwicklung von Albuminurie bei GH wurde bestätigt und zusätzlich wurde gezeigt, dass die duale pharmakologische Blockade von EP2-/EP4-Rezeptoren einen renoprotektiven Effekt hat, und b) 15-keto-PGE₂ hat eine biologisch aktive Rolle und kann möglicherweise die EP-Rezeptor-Signalübertragung in vivo modulieren und somit eine Rolle in der Nierenbiologie spielen.

Synopsis

Part of the present dissertation has been previously published in the following research publications:

1. Kourpa, Aikaterini; Kaiser-Graf, Debora; Sporbert, Anje; Philippe, Aurélie; Catar, Rusan; Rothe, Michael; Mangelsen, Eva; Schulz, Angela; Bolbrinker, Juliane; Kreutz, Reinhold; Panáková, Daniela**. **15-keto-Prostaglandin E₂ exhibits bioactive role by modulating glomerular cytoarchitecture through EP2/EP4 receptors.** *Life Sciences* 2022;310:121114. doi: 10.1016/j.lfs.2022.121114.
2. Kourpa, Aikaterini*; Schulz, Angela*; Mangelsen, Eva; Kaiser-Graf, Debora; Koppers, Nils; Stoll, Monika; Rothe, Michael; Bader, Michael; Purfürst, Bettina; Kunz, Severine; Gladytz, Thomas; Niendorf, Thoralf; Bachmann, Sebastian; Mutig, Kerim; Bolbrinker, Juliane; Panáková, Daniela; Kreutz, Reinhold**. **Studies in Zebrafish and Rat Models Support Dual Blockade of EP2 and EP4 (Prostaglandin E₂ Receptors Type 2 and 4) for Renoprotection in Glomerular Hyperfiltration and Albuminuria.** *Hypertension*. 2023;80:771-782. doi:10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.122.20392
3. Mangelsen, Eva.; Rothe, Michael.; Schulz, Angela.; Kourpa, Aikaterini.; Panáková, Daniela.; Kreutz, Reinhold.; Bolbrinker, Juliane**. **Concerted EP2 and EP4 Receptor Signaling Stimulates Autocrine Prostaglandin E₂ Activation in Human Podocytes.** *Cells* 2020;9:1256. doi: 10.3390/cells9051256

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1. Introduction

1.1 Vertebrate kidney

1.1.1 The human kidney

The human kidney comprises the main blood filtration organ of the body, reabsorbing water, nutrients, and ions, concentrating the urine, removing waste products and excess fluid from the body, therefore maintaining a homeostatic balance, and achieving blood pressure control¹⁻³. Human kidney consists of around a million of nephrons, which constitute the main structural and functional unit of the organ^{1,3,4}. Each nephron contains 5 essential and distinct segments: the glomerulus (responsible for the blood filtration), the proximal and distal tubules, the loop of Henle and the collecting duct¹⁻³. The glomerulus, the part of nephron responsible of the blood filtration, is composed of a small blood vessels network (capillaries) and contains specialized cells that form the principal filtration apparatus, called glomerular filtration barrier (GFB)⁵. The GFB is comprised by a layer of fenestrated endothelial cells, the glomerular basement membrane (GBM) and highly differentiated and specialized epithelial cells, the podocytes^{6,7}. The latter are connected through crucial adherence junctions called slit diaphragms, that allow podocytes and therefore the GFB, to regulate selective filtration of blood into an ultrafiltrate⁸. This specialized filter allows the passage and excretion of molecules of molecular weight of up to 70 kDa, while it prohibits the elimination of larger molecules, mainly proteins like albumin⁹. In kidney disease conditions, where the GFB has suffered vital damage, the albumin is eliminated from the vasculature, leading to the pathological state of albuminuria, that can be initially diagnosed by the detection of albumin traces in the urine^{9,10}.

Among other vertebrates, the human kidney shares a very similar segmentation pattern with zebrafish despite important distinct differences associated with the diverse living environment i.e., terrestrial versus aquatic, that can affect the development and/or function of different organs, including the kidney¹¹. The high similarity between human and zebrafish kidney constitutes the latter as a great model for studying kidney morphology and development and investigating a plethora of kidney related pathological conditions¹²⁻¹⁵.

1.1.2 The zebrafish kidney

During the recent decades, the various experimental tools using zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) as an animal model have significantly improved, allowing to expand and perform many vertebrate developmental and disease studies. This model possesses various strengths and advantages among which are: high genetic similarity to humans (around 70%), *ex utero* fertilization and development of embryos, numerous offspring on weekly bases with robust growth rate and ease of experimental manipulation, and nearly transparent embryo's body that allows monitoring of internal organs and structures^{16–18}. The above characteristics constitute an excellent tool for achieving high-throughput drug screenings, testing several chemical compounds, and performing detailed phenotypic analysis^{18–20}. Due to the close functional analogy between human and zebrafish organs, the latter has been widely used to gain better insights into different disease conditions, such as cancer²¹, diabetes^{22,23}, cardiovascular^{24,25} and brain²⁶ defects as well as various kidney pathological states^{27–29}.

The zebrafish embryonic kidney, called pronephros, comprises the primary kidney structure of the organism and displays high similarity to mammalian metanephros³⁰. Apart from blood filtration, the pronephros is responsible for water and ions excretion and osmoregulation maintenance³¹. The pronephros consists of only two nephrons derived from the lateral plate mesoderm, comparably to the intermediate mesoderm of mammals^{11,13}. The two nephrons consist of two glomeruli that are fused together at the embryo midline around 48 hours post fertilization (hpf), abutting the dorsal aorta, the main blood vessel of the embryo for the circulation of oxygenated blood^{11,13}. The nephron segmentation in zebrafish resembles that of higher vertebrates including human; the zebrafish pronephros does not contain specialized regions like the loop of Henle or the thick ascending limb, however, it contains proximal and distal tubules, divided into convoluted and straight as well as early and late parts, respectively^{11,30}. The corpuscles of Stannius, responsible for the maintenance of calcium balance, is located between the distal tubules' segments³². The last segment of the nephron is the pronephric duct which is comparable to the collecting duct in humans, while the tubular epithelium lining from the glomerulus to the duct is fusing to the cloaca, a common exit portal for waste products from the gut and pronephros^{13,30}. At 72 hpf, the GFB of the zebrafish pronephros is complete and functional, containing podocytes with extended interdigitating foot processes, a fenestrated endothelium and a GBM, covering the glomerular capillaries, thus demonstrating strong structural and functional similarity to the metanephric GFB of higher vertebrates³⁰.

All the above in combination with the simplicity of the zebrafish pronephros and the fact that more than 80% of human disease-associated genes have orthologues in the zebrafish genome³³, render embryonic pronephros as a great model for renal research, allowing the further investigation of complicated kidney diseases, such as glomerulopathies, polycystic kidney disease, and FSGS.

1.2 Prostaglandins

1.2.1 Prostaglandin E₂

Arachidonic acid (AA), a polyunsaturated omega-6 fatty acid, is the precursor for the synthesis of prostaglandins (PGs), a group of important bioactive lipid mediators³⁴. AA is converted to PGs, including prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂), F_{2a} (PGF_{2a}) and D₂ (PGD₂) by the cyclooxygenases 1 and 2 (COX1, COX2) and specialized enzymes for each of the PGs types, the prostaglandin synthases^{34,35}. PGs have been discovered in practically all tissues of both humans and other vertebrates and a plethora of studies have emphasized their critical function in a variety of physiological and pathological conditions, including tissue inflammation, cancer, homeostatic balance regulation and maintenance, hematopoiesis, and renal physiology³⁶⁻⁴³. The most prevalent prostaglandin among them is PGE₂, which has been widely studied in recent years, for its function in various organs, including the kidney^{35,43,44}. It has been extensively highlighted that PGE₂ is involved in both normal renal physiology as well as pathogenic pathways underlying the onset and development of chronic kidney disease (CKD)^{35,44}.

There are two steps involved in the inactivation of PGE₂. The first and rate-limiting step is catalyzed by 15-prostaglandin dehydrogenase (15-PGDH), resulting in the synthesis of 15-keto-PGE₂⁴⁵, while prostaglandin reductase (PTGR or Δ^{13} -PG-Reductase) is the responsible enzyme producing 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ during the second and last step of PGE₂ degradation^{45,46}. Both metabolites, 15-keto-PGE₂ and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂, were previously thought to have no biologically active role^{45,47}. However, recent *in vitro* investigations have indicated that 15-keto-PGE₂ may operate as a partial agonist of PGE₂ receptors and replace PGE₂ in the signaling processes by activating the generation of cAMP^{48,49}. Furthermore, recent studies in different models reported that 15-keto-PGE₂ can activate peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR- γ), an important receptor implicated in diabetic nephropathies⁵⁰⁻⁵². Importantly, there is still debate over the physiological significance of PGE₂ metabolites, and more

specifically 15-keto-PGE₂. What role does it play in kidney biology and its ability to activate PGE₂ EP receptors *in vivo* demands further investigation.

1.2.2 Prostaglandin E₂ receptors

PGE₂ functions by binding to the EP1, EP2, EP3, and EP4 G-protein-coupled prostaglandin receptors^{53,54}. Their expression and function in human and mammals have been previously reported in various studies. In zebrafish, EP1 receptor has been detected mainly in the gill, muscle, brain, but also in the kidney^{55,56}. In contrast, EP3 has been reported to be hardly expressed in the zebrafish kidney, while it appeared to be essential for lymphatic vessel development during embryogenesis^{38,55}. The expression of both EP2 and EP4 receptors in the zebrafish nephron has been highlighted in previous studies, demonstrating the expression of these receptors in the zebrafish kidney among other tissues^{37,57,58} as well as supporting their crucial role in hematopoiesis³⁷. It has been shown that both receptors demonstrate an important role in the regulation of pronephric tubules segmentation in the framework of PGE₂ metabolism⁵⁷.

A recent study published in the framework of the present thesis demonstrated the expression of EP1, EP2 and EP4 in a human immortalized podocyte cell line *in vitro*, while EP3 receptor expression was not confirmed⁵⁹. Moreover, the functional role of EP2 and EP4 receptors was supported by using pharmacological blockade of both receptors, revealing that autocrine PGE₂ activation in human podocytes depends on concerted EP2 and EP4 signaling⁵⁹. These receptors may therefore serve as key targets for the development of therapeutic approaches against a variety of renal conditions associated with PGE₂ signaling.

1.3 Thesis Research questions

My thesis focuses on the role of PGE₂ pathway in the kidney physiology and development and targets *in vivo* the PGE₂ catabolic pathway in zebrafish embryos. Despite the fact that the renal pathological effects of PGE₂ have been extensively studied^{35,43,44}, it is yet to be investigated its potential implications in normal glomerular morphology and cytoarchitecture. Namely, it is yet to be determined whether PGE₂ affects the podocytes-endothelial cells physiological interactions important for the establishment of the functional GFB and the overall renal activity. Furthermore, as

already mentioned above, the metabolic products of PGE₂, 15-keto-PGE₂ and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂, have been considered biologically inactive until recently^{45,47-49}, and their role in kidney pathophysiology needs to be further elucidated.

The research aims of the present thesis are summarized as follows:

1. Study the renal implications of PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ by establishing a zebrafish disease model that mimics the pathological albuminuria state in glomerular hyperfiltration.
2. Analyze and evaluate the effects of exogenous PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ stimulation in glomerular cytoarchitecture and ultrastructure.
3. Further study the bioactive role of 15-keto-PGE₂ and its ability to bind EP2 and EP4 receptors.
4. Investigate the potential renoprotective effect of the separate and/or combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors *in vivo* and analyze their ability to reverse the adverse effects of PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ stimulation, thus serving as potential therapeutic targets for PGE₂ pathway-associated kidney diseases.

2. Methods

2.1 Materials

2.1.1 Equipment and software

Table 1. List of equipment used.

Equipment	Manufacturer
Hybridization Oven, HB-1000 Hybridizer	UVP
M165 Fluorescent Microscopy	Leica
Zeiss LSM980 Airyscan	Zeiss
Zeiss LSM700	Zeiss
MD G33 Brightfield Microscopy	Leica
Cryostat microtome	Leica
Steamer	WMH
Ultracut E ultramicrotome	Leica
FEI Morgagni Electron Microscope with Morada CCD Camera	EMSIS GmbH
Agilent 6495 Triplequad mass Spectrometer	Agilent Technologies
MR system	Bruker Biospec 94/20, Bruker Biospin, Ettlingen, Germany
NextSeq 2000 system	Illumina
TapeStation RNA and DNA ScreenTape	Agilent Technologies

Table 2. List of software used.

Software	Vendor/URL
ImageJ	https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/
Adobe Illustrator 2021 26.2	Adobe Systems, Inc. (San Jose, US)
Adobe Photoshop 2021 22.4.3	Adobe Systems, Inc. (San Jose, US)

GraphPad Prism 9 for Mac OS X, Version 9.0	GraphPad Software, Inc. (La Jolla, US)
Microsoft® Excel for Mac	Microsoft
ZEN Blue	Zeiss
Huygens Professional 22.04	Scientific Volume Imaging (SVI)
Imaris version 9.9	Bitplane AG, Zurich, Switzerland
String database	https://string-db.org/
MARS data analysis software	BMG Labtech

2.1.2 Chemicals and reagents

Table 3. List of the chemicals and the reagents used in the experiments.

Chemical/Reagent	Source	Cat#
Methyl Blue	Sigma-Aldrich	319112
Tricaine	PharmaQ	
ProLong™ Gold Antifade Mountant with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI)	Invitrogen	P36935
Paraformaldehyde 16%	ThermoFisher Scientific	28908
Tissue-Tek O.C.T Compound	Sakura	12351753
TSA Plus Fluorescein	PerkinElmer	NEL741001KT
TSA Plus Cyanine 3	PerkinElmer	NEL744001KT
TSA Plus Cyanine 5	PerkinElmer	NEL745001KT
4',6-Diamidin-2-phenylindol (DAPI)	Sigma-Aldrich	D9542
Antigen Unmasking Solution	Vector Laboratories, Inc.	H-3300
Dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO)	Sigma-Aldrich	276855
16,16-dimethyl-PGE ₂ (dmPGE ₂)	Cayman	Cay14750-1
15-keto-PGE ₂	Cayman	Cay14720-1
EP2 receptor antagonist	Sigma-Aldrich	PF04418948

EP4 receptor antagonist	Sigma-Aldrich	ONO-AE3-208
Indomethacin	Sigma-Aldrich	I0200000
BSA AlexaFluor555	ThermoFisher Scientific	A34786
Methyl cellulose	Sigma-Aldrich	1424506
TopVision low melting point agarose	ThermoFisher Scientific	R0801
Uranyl acetate	SERVA	77870

2.1.3 Critical commercial assays

Table 4. List of commercially available kits.

Kits	Source	Cat#
RNAscope Multiplex Fluorescent v2 Kit	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	323110
CloneAmp HiFi PCR Premix	TaKaRa Bio Inc.	639298
5X InFusion® HD Enzyme Premix	TaKaRa Bio Inc.	102518
rCutSmart™ Buffer	New England Biolabs	B6004
NanoGlo® Extracellular Detection System	Promega Corporation	N2420
First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit	ThermoFisher Scientific	K1612
NEBNext Ultra II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina	New England Biolabs	E7530

2.1.4 Buffers and solutions

Table 5. List of buffers used.

Name	Composition
E3 Embryo Medium	5 mM NaCl, 0.17 mM KCl, 0.33 mM CaCl ₂ , 0.33 mM MgSO ₄ ; pH 7.4
PBST	1× PBS, 0.1% Triton X-100
Midiprep Tris buffer	Macherey-Nagel

2.1.5 RNAscope probes

Table 6. List of the probes used for the RNAscope.

Probe	Source	Cat#
Dr- <i>ptger2a</i> ; Accession No: NM_200635.1 Target Region (bp): 2-926	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	859901-C2
Dr- <i>ptger4b</i> ; Accession No: NM_001128367.1 Target Region (bp): 550-1488	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	859911-C3

2.1.6 Zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) lines**Table 7.** Transgenic zebrafish lines.

Zebrafish Line	Source	ZFIN-ID
<i>Tg(wt1b:eGFP)^{li1}</i>	Reference 60	ZDB-ALT-071127-1
<i>Tg(fabp10a:eGFP)^{mi1000}</i>	Zhou & Hildebrandt (2012) ⁶¹	ZDB-ALT-121003-1

2.1.7 Yeast model

Table 8. Yeast strain used.

Strain	Genotype	Source
MMY28 strain (<i>S. cerevisiae</i>)	<i>W303-1A fus1::FUS1-HIS3 FUS1-lacZ::LEU2 far1Δ::ura3Δ gpa1Δ::ADE2Δ sst2Δ::ura3Δ MMY9 ste2Δ::G418^R TRP1::Gpa1/G_{as}(5)</i>	GlaxoSmithKline ⁶²

2.1.8 Plasmids

Table 9. List of plasmids used for the yeast experiments.

Vector	Source
pBiT3.1-N [CMV/HiBiT/Blast]	Promega Corporation
p42GPD yeast	GlaxoSmithKline ⁶²

2.1.9 Primers

Table 10. List of cloning primers used for the yeast constructs.

Construct	Forward primer (5'-3')	Reverse primer (5'-3')
hEP2-HiBiT	CGAGCGGTGGGAATTCGAT GGGCAATGCCTCCAATGAC	AAGCTTGACCTCTAGATCAAA GGTCAGCCTGTTTACTGGC
hEP4-HiBiT	CGAGCGGTGGGAATTCAT GTCCACTCCCAGGGTC	AAGCTTGACCTCTAGATTATAT ACATTTTTCTGATAAGTTCAGT GTTTCACT
hEP2-HiBiT- p426GDP	TAGAACTAGTGGATCCATG GTGAGCGGCTGGCGG	GCTTGATATCGAATTCTCAAAG GTCAGCCTGTTTACTGGC
hEP4-HiBiT- p426GDP	TAGAACTAGTGGATCCATG GTGAGCGGCTGGCGG	GCTTGATATCGAATTCTTATAT ACATTTTTCTGATAAGTTC

Table 11. List of primers for the quantitative real-time PCR analysis in the MWF rat. (Adapted from reference 63).

Gene	Ensembl no.	Sense Primer	Antisense Primer	Amplicon	Exon
<i>Adamts4</i>	ENSRNOT0000000471	AACTCCCTGTTCCCCAGACT	CCTGCTGCCGTACAAGGATA	230	8 + 9
<i>Apcs</i>	ENSRNOT0000001209	GCTGCTGCTTTGGATGTCTG	CTGCAGCGTTTTTCTAGCC	145	1 + 2
<i>Car15</i>	ENSRNOT0000000031	ATCTGACGTCCACCTTTGCG	ATCTGTGAGTGGTCTGGGGT	221	7 + 8
<i>Cks2</i>	ENSRNOT0000007615	TCAGACAAGTACTTCGACGAGC	TCTTTTGAAGAGGCCGTCTA	203	1
<i>Col3a1</i>	ENSRNOT0000000495	TGTTAACGGACAAATAGAGAGTCTT	CATCTTGACGCTTGTTAGG	142	48 + 49
<i>Cry1</i>	ENSRNOT0000000912	TGAGGACCTTGATGCCAATCT	ACGATGACTTCCACACCAGC	201	2 + 3
<i>Dlgap3</i>	ENSRNOT0000001921	CCTCCTGCAGCTCTCCATTG	CGCGAGGGCTTCTTTGGTAT	135	11 + 12
<i>Ifi2712b</i>	ENSRNOT0000003201	GCCAAGATGATGTCTGCTGC	CGAGGGTTAACTGGTGGAGA	235	3 + 4
<i>Havcr1</i>	ENSRNOT0000000957	ATTGTTGCCGAGTGGAGAT	TGTGGTTGTGGGTCTTGTAGT	125	3 + 4
<i>Lcn2</i>	ENSRNOT0000001877	GGCCGACACTGACTACGACC	GCCCCTTGGTTCTTCCGTAC	106	4 + 5
<i>Manf</i>	ENSRNOT0000001910	ATGATGCCGCCACCAAGATC	CCCCAATCGTCCAGGATTT	200	3 + 4
<i>Map3k7</i>	ENSRNOT0000000765	ACTCCATCCAATGGCGTATC	GGTCCTTTTCATCCTGGTCCA	201	15-17
<i>Npas2</i>	ENSRNOT0000005957	TCCAAGTCCTGACTCCCACC	GTGGAGAGAAGGAGCGAGTC	201	20 + 21
<i>Nphs1</i>	ENSRNOT0000004521	CTGAAGACCATGGAGCTCGG	ATCCCAGGATGGTAATGGCG	120	8 + 9
<i>Nphs2</i>	ENSRNOT0000009486	TGAATGTGGACGAGGTTCTGA	AGAGGACAAGAAGCCACTCG	129	1 + 2
<i>Nr1d1</i>	ENSRNOT0000001253	GTGCGGGAGGTGGTAGAATT	CGCTGAAGTCAAACATGGCA	235	6 + 7
<i>Pdpn</i>	ENSRNOT0000002031	GACATGGTGAACCCAGGTCT	AATGGGAGGCTGTGTTGGTA	108	2 + 3
<i>Sdr9c7</i>	ENSRNOT0000000591	AGCTGGTTGATAGGGGCATG	TCCAGCATTGTTACCAGGG	200	3 + 4
<i>Sfn</i>	ENSRNOT0000004395	TGTCTGTCCATCCTCGGAGT	TCTCTTCAGACCCCTCCTCG	250	2
<i>Tac3</i>	ENSRNOT0000000567	TTGAAGAGAACACCCCCAGC	TGGGGGTAGAGGCTGTTTCA	209	6 + 7
<i>Tmem86a</i>	ENSRNOT0000001868	CATGGTGTCTCCGGTCACTG	AGAAGACGAGTCCCGCAAAG	233	1 + 2

2.2 Methods

The following methods are included and described in the publication listed in the reference list as references **63** and **64**, that comprise part of my thesis. The LC/ESI-MS/MS methodology used to characterize the PGE₂ pathway in whole zebrafish embryo and in the rat glomerular tissue was established in the study cited in reference **59**.

For both zebrafish and rat models, the 'Principles of Laboratory Animal Care' (NIH publication no. 86-23, revised 1985) and the current version of German Law on the Protection of Animals and EU directive 2010/63/EU on the protection of animals were followed.

2.2.1 Zebrafish husbandry

Zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) were bred, raised, and maintained following the FELASA guidelines⁶⁵, the guidelines of the Max-Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine in the Helmholtz association and the local authority for animal protection (Landesamt für Gesundheit und Soziales, Berlin, Germany). The zebrafish transgenic lines used in the present thesis were *Tg(wt1b:EGFP)^{li1}*⁶⁰ and *Tg(fabp10a:gc-EGFP)^{mi1000}*⁶¹. Embryos were kept in E3 embryo medium at 28.5 °C, under standard laboratory conditions in all the experiments.

2.2.2 Rat breeding

Munich Wistar Frömter (MWF) male rats with an inherited nephron deficiency were used as a model of GH and albuminuria^{66,67}. The rats were attained from our MWF/Rkb (RRID: RGD_724569, laboratory code Rkb, <http://dels.nas.edu/ilar/>) colony at the Charité-Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Germany and experiments were performed following the guidelines of the Charité-Universitätsmedizin Berlin and the local authority for animal protection (Landesamt für Gesundheit und Soziales, Berlin, Germany). The grouping of the rats was based on regular 12 h diurnal cycles with automated light switching (lights on from 8:00 am to 8:00 pm) and climate-controlled conditions at 22 °C. The rats were fed a normal diet containing 0.2% NaCl and had free access to food and water. Urinary albumin excretion in 24-h, creatinine clearance, and systolic blood pressure by the tail-cuff method in awake rats, was determined as reported⁶⁶. At the end of the study (at 12 weeks of age), animals were anesthetized by intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection with ketamine-xylazine (60 mg Ketamin and 12 mg Xylazin per kg body

weight). Blood was obtained retrobulbar and lithium heparinate plasma was used for creatinine level measurements. Kidneys were obtained, decapsulated, and sieved using a 125 μm steel sieve. Glomeruli were kept on the sieve, rinsed off with PBS, centrifuged, snap-frozen, and stored at $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for lipidomic analysis. For transcriptomic analysis, the dissected cortex of the left kidney was immediately snap-frozen and stored at $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. For glomerular morphology analysis, the right kidneys ($n=6-8/\text{group}$) were fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde solution and were preserved in 330 mosmol sucrose/1x PBS + 0.02% NaN₃.

2.2.3 HiBiT-tagged hEP2/hEP4 receptor constructs.

To generate hEP2-/ hEP4-HiBiT constructs with a HiBiT-taq, the full-length human Prostaglandin E Receptor 2 (hEP2) and 4 (hEP4) cDNAs were cloned into the pBiT3.1-N [CMV/HiBiT/Blast] vector including a short linker attached to the N-terminal receptor sequences. This was done by first preparing the cDNA from conditionally immortalized human podocytes⁶⁸, and designing primers that spanned either the start codon (forward-primers) or stop codon (reverse-primers) of the hEP2/ hEP4 receptor sequences. Full-length hEP2 and hEP4 cDNA sequences were amplified using CloneAmp HiFi PCR Premix and the designed cloning primers. Primer sequences are listed in 2.1.9. Restriction digestion of the pBiT3.1-N [CMV/HiBiT/Blast] vector was performed using CutSmart™ Buffer and *EcoRI* and *XbaI* restriction enzymes (New England Biolabs). The PCR products were integrated into the vector using the 5X In-Fusion® HD Enzyme Premix and the resulting plasmid was transformed into One Shot™ TOP10 chemically competent *E.coli* (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Sanger sequencing (LGC genomics) was used for the confirmation of the plasmid sequences.

Apart from the pBiT3.1-N vector, the hEP2-/hEP4-HiBiT constructs were also cloned into the p426GPD yeast plasmid⁶² using cloning primers of Table 10. The forward primer was designed with a 5' flanked complementary to the yeast plasmid, spanning a *BamHI* restriction site and the HiBiT-tag start codon. The reverse primer was designed with a 5'overhang spanning a restriction site close to the stop codon of the hEP2/ hEP4 sequence as well as the respective stop codon. Purified pBiT3.1-N [CMV/HiBiT/Blast] vector with integrated hEP2/ hEP4 sequences was used as a template for PCR amplification. Ligation, transformation, and sequencing performed as described above.

2.2.4 Yeast culture and transformation.

Prior to transformation, yeasts stored on glycerol beads at -80°C were thawed and plated on YPD plates for 2 days at 30°C before liquid pre-cultures were incubated in YPD medium shaking overnight at 30°C . Transformed yeasts grew on WHAUL plates supplemented with histidine (WHAUL-His) for three days. Three clones were picked and transferred on new WHAUL-His plates and incubated overnight at 30°C . On the next day, clones were pre-cultured in WHAUL-His medium overnight shaking at 30°C in flat 96-well plates (TPP).

The p426GPD plasmids carrying either hEP2-HiBiT or hEP4-HiBiT construct were transformed into *S.cerevisiae* (MMY28 yeast model) using lithium acetate (LiAc)/ single-stranded DNA (ssDNA)/ polyethylene glycol (PEG) method⁶².

Brief description of the method:

100mL of yeast extract peptone dextrose (YPD) medium was inoculated with 1.5mL yeast pre-culture and incubated for 2 hours shaking at 30° . Yeast cultures were centrifuged and washed, and the pellets were suspended in 1mL LiAcTE. For transformation, 5 μL of ssDNA (10mg/mL, Sigma-Aldrich), 1 μg plasmids and for mock-transformed controls the corresponding volume of Midiprep Tris buffer solution (Macherey-Nagel), 50 μL yeast solution and 300 μL LiAc PEG TE were mixed and incubated at room temperature for 10 min and then subjected to heat shock at 42°C for 20 min. The yeast solutions were then plated on WHAUL-His plates.

2.2.5 Expression of the receptors on the yeast membrane.

The expression of hEP2 and hEP4 receptors on the yeast membrane was studied using the NanoGlo® Extracellular Detection System. This system focuses on detecting the expression of HiBiT-tagged protein/receptor. Incubation with the NanoGlo® Extracellular reagent results in a luminometry signal that reflects the number of receptors on the plasma membrane. If the ligand of interest can bind the HiBiT-tagged receptor, a modification in the receptor's expression is triggered, causing a change in the luminometry signal. The yeast pre-cultures were diluted 1:5 in WHAUL- medium and 5 μL of yeast dilution were incubated with 100 μL WHAUL- medium supplemented with BU Salts for 20h. Following 20h incubation, yeasts were stimulated for 20 min with 100nM PGE₂, 1 μM 15-keto-PGE₂ or plain medium for untreated control. Nine transformed colonies and one mock-transformed colony that served as a negative control, were tested at a time. Then, yeasts were treated with the Nano-Glo®

Extracellular Detection System according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, yeast solutions after stimulation were transferred to white 96-well plates (Corning Inc.). Thereby, one stimulated yeast solution was split into 2 wells after mixing. Equal volume of the reagent (consisting of NanoGlo® Extracellular Detection Buffer, NanoGlo® HiBiT Extracellular Substrate diluted 1:50 and LgBiT Protein diluted 1:100) was added to the yeast solutions. After shaking for 5 minutes, luminescence was measured using a FLUOstar Omega microplate reader (BMG Labtech) and analyzed with Optima and MARS software (BMG Labtech). Colonies with luminescence values lower than the medium control and the negative yeast control were considered unsuccessful transformations and excluded from analysis.

2.2.6 Lipidomic analysis of whole zebrafish embryo and MWF rat glomerular tissue.

The lipidomic analysis was performed by liquid chromatography electrospray ionization tandem mass spectrometry (LC/ESI-MS/MS) following the protocol reported recently⁵⁹. The zebrafish embryos at two different developmental stages, 48 hpf and 120 hpf, as well as, isolated glomeruli of young MWF at the onset of albuminuria (8 weeks of age) and of albuminuria resistant spontaneously hypertensive rats (SHR) were frozen using liquid nitrogen and analyzed using an Agilent 1290 HPLC system with binary pump, multisampler and column thermostat with a Zorbax Eclipse plus C-18, 2.1 × 150 mm, 1.8 µm column using a solvent system of aqueous acetic acid (0.05%) and acetonitrile. A gradient starting with 5% organic phase was used, which was increased within 0.5 min to 32%, 16 min to 36.5%, 20 min to 38%, 28 min to 98% and held there for 5 min, was used for the elution. The flow rate was set at 0.3 mL/min and the injection volume was 20 µL. The HPLC was coupled with an Agilent 6495 Triplequad mass spectrometer with electrospray ionization source. Source parameters: Drying gas: 115 °C/16 L/min, Sheath gas: 390 °C/12 L/min, Capillary voltage: 4300 V, Nozzle voltage: 1950 V, and Nebulizer pressure: 35 psi.

2.2.7 Pharmacological approach used for the analysis of glomerular morphology and GFB integrity.

For the phenotypic evaluation of the zebrafish embryonic kidney and the functional assessment of GFB integrity, the transgenic lines *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]*⁶⁰ and *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]*⁶¹ were used, respectively. The glomerular morphology was evaluated using

Tg[wt1b:EGFP] zebrafish embryos that allow the observation of podocytes and parietal epithelial cells of the glomerulus, as well as part of the proximal pronephric tubules⁶⁰. For the evaluation of GFB integrity, *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]* larvae were used. This strain expresses the fluorescent albumin surrogate (*gc-EGFP*), consisting of a vitamin D binding protein fused to enhanced green fluorescent protein in the liver from which it is released into the blood stream and circulates in the blood⁶¹ under normal conditions, allowing its observation in the trunk vasculature. Upon GFB damage, *gc-EGFP* will leak through the glomerular filtration barrier, which results in a decrease of the fluorescence in the trunk vasculature of the embryos, mimicking thereby an albuminuria-like phenotype.

The drugs were applied to the zebrafish embryos between 6 hpf and 48 hpf for the early treatment and between 72 hpf and 96 hpf for the late treatment. For the drug treatments, the E3 media was completely drawn off the embryos and the desirable solution of DMSO vehicle control, dmPGE₂ (a long-active derivative of PGE₂) or 15-keto-PGE₂, PF-04418948, ONO-AE3-208 and Indomethacin in E3 water was applied on zebrafish embryos. For the PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ stimulation, 125 µM and 500 µM concentrations were used, respectively. For the separate and combined blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors, 20 µM EP2 and 20 µM EP4 receptors antagonists in E3 water with either 125 µM dmPGE₂ or 500 µM 15-keto-PGE₂ were used. For blocking the COX activity, 30 µM Indomethacin with 125 µM dmPGE₂ was used. Controls were treated only with DMSO (% adjusted to the solvent ratio in drug solution) in E3 water. The embryos were placed in a 28.5°C incubator until phenotypic analysis. At the end of the late treatments, embryos were categorized based on the fluorescence signal as “GFP +” (visible *gc-EGFP* fluorescence signal in the trunk vasculature) or “albuminuria-like phenotype” (partial or complete loss of *gc-EGFP* fluorescence signal in the trunk vasculature).

For the *in vivo* imaging, 48 hpf and 96 hpf zebrafish larvae were anesthetized with 0.1% tricaine in E3 solution and embedded in methyl cellulose. Fluorescent images were acquired using Leica M165 stereomicroscope with a Leica DFC450 camera attached.

2.2.8 Subcellular analysis and 3D reconstruction of the glomerulus.

For the confocal microscopy imaging, the pronephros of fixed *Tg[wt1b:eGFP]* zebrafish embryos at 48 hpf or 96 hpf were used. Prior to the fixation, the anesthetized

embryos (in 0.02% tricaine (w/v)) were injected in the sinus venosus or the descending cardinal vein with 20 mg/ml BSA Alexa Fluor555 conjugate diluted in 150 mM NaCl. The injected embryos were fixed after 20 min in 4% PFA and 0.1% Triton-X 100 in PBS buffer for 2 h at RT or overnight at 4°C. Nuclei were stained using DAPI overnight at 4°C. After removal of the yolk and mounting in 0,8% low-melting point agarose, the kidneys of whole-mount fixed embryos at 48 hpf or 96 hpf were imaged using a Confocal Zeiss LSM 980 Airyscan microscope with a LD C-Apochromat 40 x NA1.1 water objective and Zen Blue v.3.2 software. Confocal z-stacks of all channels were acquired sequentially with identical parameters and similar 3D orientation for all samples. Images were analyzed using ImageJ software.

The 3D confocal images were first deconvolved using Huygens Professional 22.04 software. The 2D segmentation, an important step for the creation of the 3D glomerular surface, was performed using Imaris software (version 9.9). A 3D surface covering the total glomerular volume was created by tracing the surface outline of EGFP-positive cells for every second section of the z-stack manually, while as a next step the surface creation was achieved using the automated segmentation feature. As regards the EGFP-signal, the fluorescence derived by EGFP-positive cells inside the glomeruli was included, while the green-fluorescent signal coming from the early part of proximal tubules was excluded.

2.2.9 Cryosectioning and immunofluorescence *in situ* hybridization (RNAscope)

For the preparation of the samples for the cryo-tissue cutting, 48 hpf *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* embryos were fixed in 4% PFA in PBS overnight at 4 °C, washed with PBS for 3 x 10 min and treated overnight with 30% sucrose in PBS. The embryos were then positioned vertically and frozen in Tissue-Tek O.C.T Compound (Sakura) on dry ice. Using a cryostat I cut tissue slices of 7 µm. Slides containing the tissue slices were stored at -80 °C until further processing.

Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (RNAscope) was used to visualize single mRNA molecules expressed in individual cells in the zebrafish embryonic kidney. The assay was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions for fixed frozen tissues. The 7 µm cryo-sections were dried for 30 min at room temperature and then washed with PBS for 5 min. Next, the slides were incubated at 99°C for 15min with an antigen retrieval solution (ACD) using a steamer. The *Dr-ptger2a* and *Dr-ptger4b* probes were

used, while for the signal development TSA plus fluorophores fluorescein, Cyanine3 and Cyanine5 were applied in a dilution ratio 1:1000. The slides were mounted with ProLong Gold antifade reagent with DAPI. For the imaging, the Zeiss LSM700 confocal microscopy was used and image analysis was performed with the ImageJ/Fiji and Photoshop software.

2.2.10 Electron microscopy analysis in zebrafish and rat kidney

The ultrastructural analysis of the glomeruli was performed in 96 hpf zebrafish embryos with a modified method as recently reported⁶⁶. The embryos were embedded in Poly/Bed^R 812 (Polysciences, Eppelheim, Germany) and cut with Ultracut E ultramicrotome. Ultrathin sections (70nm) were drawn on a copper grid and counterstained with lead citrate 3% stabilized solution (ULTROSTAIN 2, Leica) for 30 min and uranyl acetate for 5 min in the Leica EM AC20 contrasting device. Images were acquired with a FEI Morgagni electron microscope and a Morada CCD camera.

The quantification of podocyte foot process width and number of slit diaphragms per μm of the GBM in both zebrafish embryos and MWF rats was performed as previously described⁶⁹. ImageJ/Fiji software was used for the measurement of the length of the GBM and the counting of the number of slit diaphragms overlying the GBM. The mean of foot process width (W_{FP}) was calculated as the total GBM length (ΣGBM) measured in one glomerulus divided by the total number of slits (ΣSlits) counted and multiplied by $\pi/4$, that serves as a correction factor for the random orientation of the foot processes sectioning, following the formula:

$$W_{FP} = \frac{\pi}{4} \cdot \frac{\Sigma\text{GBMlength}}{\Sigma\text{Slits}}$$

2.2.11 Reverse transcription and qPCR

Quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) was used to assess targeted mRNA expression analysis of selected candidates that were associated with GFB function and kidney injury in the setting of GH and albuminuria⁶⁶. First-strand cDNA synthesis was carried out on 2 μg of total RNA using the First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit following the manufacturer's protocol. Isolated glomeruli of rat strains were analyzed at week 4 and week 8⁶⁶. qPCR of each gene was performed in a 7000 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) with version 1.2.3 software or a 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR

System with version 2.0.6 software (Applied Biosystems) using the comparative quantification cycle method as reported (Fast SYBR[®] Green Master Mix or Power SYBR[®] Green PCR Master Mix; Applied Biosystems)⁶⁶.

2.2.12 Bulk RNA-seq analysis

Unbiased transcriptome analysis by RNA-seq analysis was performed in ($n=5$ /group) for all groups of MWF rats obtained at the end of study period following a modified recently reported protocol⁶⁶. The mRNA expression was further validated using qPCR and network analysis of protein-protein interactions was done using STRING software. The cDNA library was prepared using NEBNext Poly(A) mRNA magnetic isolation and sequencing was done on NextSeq 2000 system. Quality control of the RNA and library was done using TapeStation RNA and DNA ScreenTape.. Initial quality control of the demultiplexed raw data was performed using FastQC version 0.11.9. Trimmomatic version 0.39 was used for quality trimmed of raw reads utilizing a sliding window of 4 nt with a minimal average quality of 15. Adapter sequences and low-quality ends (minimal quality: 3) were removed. Reads below a minimal read length of 15 nt after trimming were dropped. The resulting reads were aligned to the Ensembl Rnor_6.0 reference genome using HISAT2⁷⁰. The aligned reads were sorted using samtools version 1.9 and gene counts were determined using HTSeq version 0.12.4 and the Ensembl annotation version 104.6. DESeq2 R package version 1.32.0 was used for differential expression analysis. Genes with absolute fold change value <1 were excluded. Genes were considered significantly differentially expressed if the adjusted P-value was <0.05 . PCA plots and heatmaps were created using pcaExplorer and gplots R packages.

2.2.13 Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) analysis of MWF rat kidney

For MRI analyses, animals ($n=14-15$ per group, each) were anaesthetized with 6 ml/kg body weight i.p. Urethan 20% in H₂O. MRI data were acquired on a 9.4 Tesla small animal MR system using a linear radiofrequency volume resonator and a 4-channel surface coil array tailored for rats. T₂ maps were acquired using a multi-slice multi-echo spin echo (MSME) protocol (TR = 500 ms, flip angle $\alpha=90$, first echo time and interecho time TE₁ = Δ TE= 6.4 ms, 13 echoes). A multi-gradient echo (MGE) protocol was used to acquire T₂* maps (TR = 50 ms, flip angle $\alpha=16$, first echo time and interecho time TE₁ = Δ TE= 2.1 ms, 10 echoes, 4 averages). MR data acquisition used an in-plane spatial

resolution of 230 x 450 μm^2 , a 1.4 mm slice thickness and respiration gating for motion compensation.

2.2.14 Statistics

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism version 6.07 or 9 or SPSS Statistics 28.0.0.0.2. The following statistical tests were used for normally distributed data: Wilcoxon test, two-tailed unpaired t test with Welch's correction, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons post-test or Bonferroni's post hoc analysis, and two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons post-test.

For not normally distributed data, the tests used were: Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post-hoc analysis and Mann-Whitney test. Data were tested for normal distribution using Shapiro-Wilk test, while the identification of outliers was performed by Grubbs' outliers test ($\alpha = 0.05$).

In all graphs error bars are presented as means \pm SD and $P < 0.05$ were considered statistically significant. Specific details of the statistical analyses performed are given in Figure legends.

3. Results

3.1 PGE₂ pathway is conserved in zebrafish.

Prostaglandins (PGs) are synthesized from AA with participation of COX and respective PGs synthase enzymes (Fig 1A). In this study, the physiological significance of PGE₂ and its metabolite 15-keto-PGE₂ in living organisms was explored by using the zebrafish model. To determine the prostaglandin levels and analyze the total prostaglandin metabolic pathway in the zebrafish embryos, I used a LC/ESI-MS/MS-based method at two time points: 48 and 120 hpf, prior to and after the GFB formation, respectively. The use of the zebrafish model was beneficial, as it allowed for examination of the effects of small molecules and metabolites in the organism. It is worth mentioning here that, the zebrafish embryo's nourishment relies on its yolk content during early stages⁷¹, making the lipidomic study of the whole embryo reliable and accurate⁷² as it was not impacted by exogenous factors like food intake.

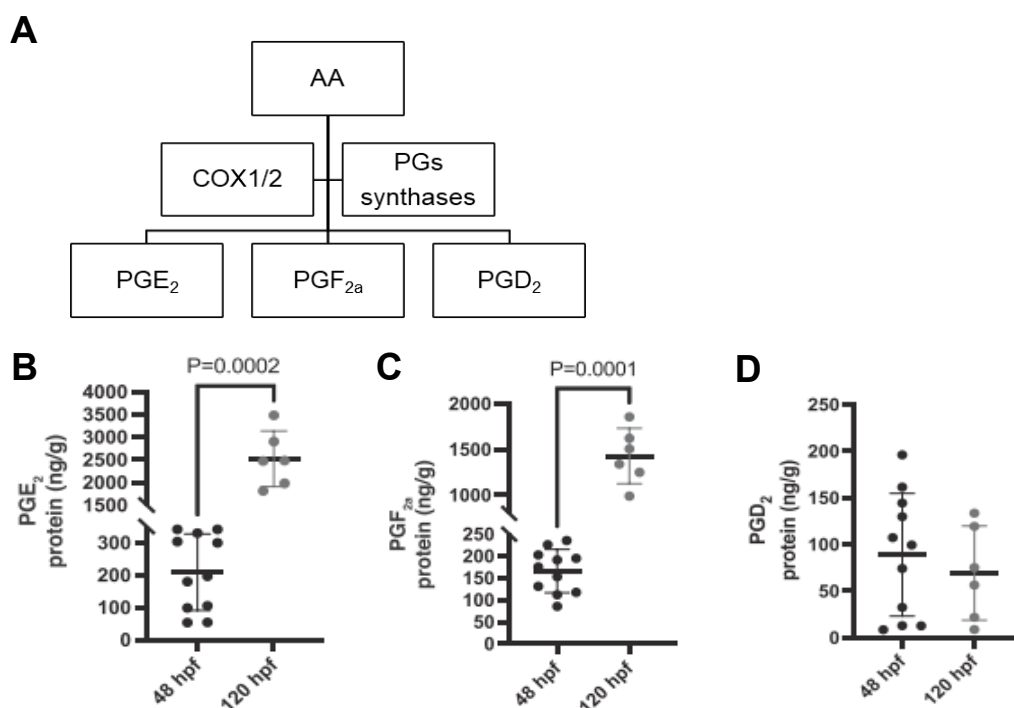


Figure 1. Lipidomic analysis of the main PGs. (A) Synthesis of the three main PGs, PGE₂, PGF_{2a} and PGD₂ from AA with the participation of cyclooxygenases and specific prostaglandin synthases. Lipidomic levels of (B) PGE₂ ($P=0.0002$), (C) PGF_{2a} ($P=0.0001$) and (D) PGD₂ at 48 hpf ($N=11$, $n=275$) and 120 hpf ($N=6$, $n=150$). Less points in some graphs indicate missing values due to non-detectable levels; n represents biologically independent samples over N independent experiments. For the statistics: two-tailed unpaired t-test with Welch's correction was performed; Values plotted as mean \pm SD and $P<0.05$ considered significant. One outlier was identified and removed among the lipidomic PGE₂ values at 48 hpf together with the respective values for the two metabolites in Figure 2A and B. Adapted from reference 64.

All main prostaglandins, namely PGE₂, PGF_{2a} and PGD₂ as well as their catabolic products were detected in the wild-type zebrafish whole embryo extracts (Fig. 1B-D, 2). PGE₂ appeared to be the most abundant prostaglandin in both 48 and 120 hpf (Fig. 1C). PGE₂ and PGF_{2a} mean levels at 120 hpf (2522.13 ng/g and 1427.59 ng/g, respectively) were approximately one order of magnitude higher than at 48 hpf (209.36 ng/g and 165.98 ng/g, respectively) (Fig. 1C, D), while PGD₂ levels remained constant (Fig. 1E). 15-keto-PGE₂ metabolite was present, but at roughly 10-fold lower levels than PGE₂, with mean levels of 16.82 ng/g and 77.37 ng/g at 48 hpf and 120 hpf, respectively (Fig. 2A). At 48 hpf, 15-keto-PGE₂ levels were higher than 15-keto-PGF_{2a} levels, but both metabolites were present at similar levels at 120 hpf (Fig. 2A, C). The downstream metabolites of 15-keto-PG, 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PG, exhibited a similar pattern. (Fig. 2B, D, E).

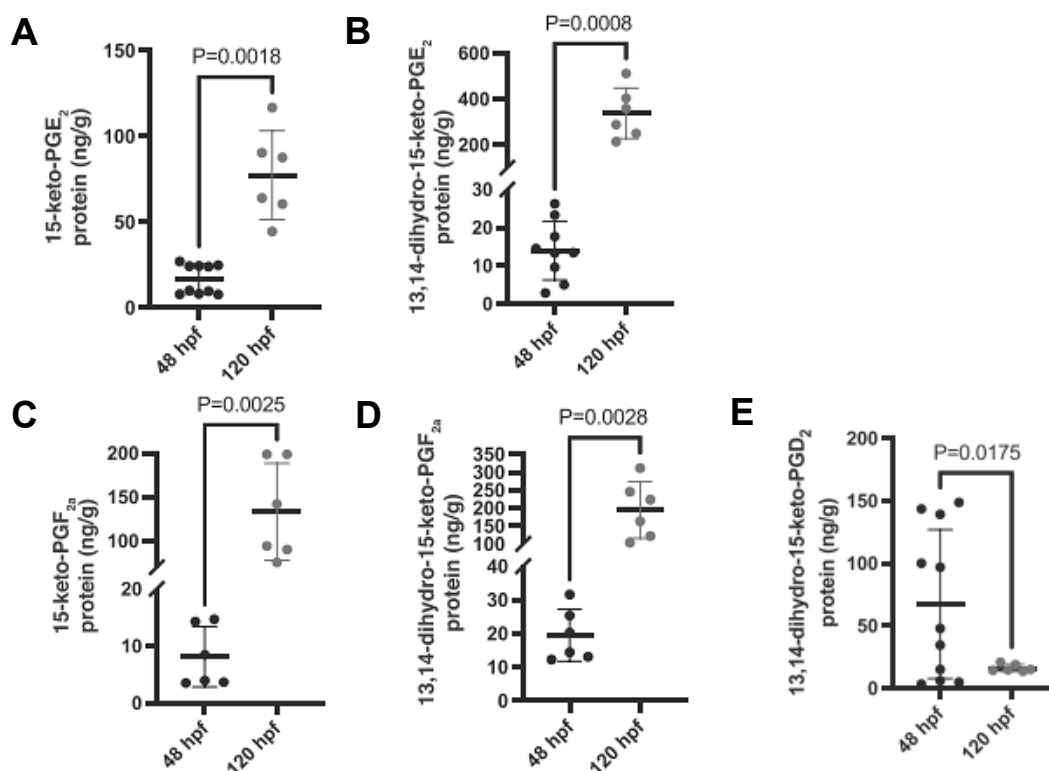


Figure 2. Lipidomic analysis of the main PGs' metabolites. (A) 15-keto-PGE₂ ($P=0.0018$), (B) 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ ($P=0.0008$), 15-keto-PGF_{2a} ($P=0.0025$), 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGF_{2a} ($P=0.0028$) and (E) 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGD₂ ($P=0.0175$) at 48 hpf ($N=11$, $n=275$) and 120 hpf ($N=6$, $n=150$). Less points in some graphs indicate missing values due to non-detectable levels; n represents biologically independent samples over N independent experiments. For the statistics: two-tailed unpaired t-test with Welch's correction was performed; Values plotted as mean \pm SD and $P<0.05$ considered significant. Adapted from reference 64.

To confirm whether the PGE₂ pathway is metabolically conserved between zebrafish and higher vertebrates including humans, I performed pharmacological inhibition of COX enzymatic activity using indomethacin, a well-characterized non-selective COX inhibitor⁷³. Indeed, COX inhibition that normally leads to reduction in PGE₂ production, profoundly reduced the PGE₂ levels (7.2 ± 1.6 ng/g, 87.8% suppression) in zebrafish embryos at 48 hpf (Fig. 3), indicating the conserved prostaglandin metabolism in zebrafish. Thus, the quantitative analysis demonstrated here, showed that like in other animal models and humans^{74–77}, PGE₂ is the predominant prostaglandin in zebrafish embryos and its metabolite, 15-keto-PGE₂, is also comparatively abundant, highlighting its potential function in organismal physiology.

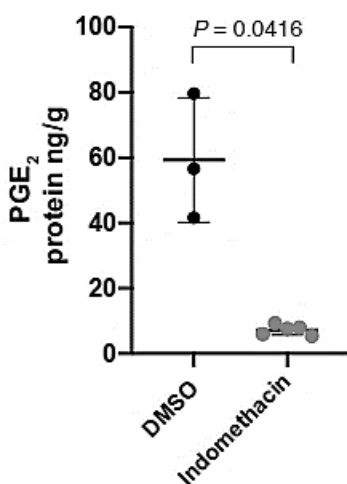


Figure 3. PGE₂ metabolism is conserved in zebrafish. Lipidomic analysis graph demonstrating significantly lower levels of PGE₂ ($P=0.0416$) after COX inhibition with 30 μ M Indomethacin ($N=5$, $n=125$); DMSO used as vehicle control ($N=3$, $n=75$). Two-tailed unpaired t-test with Welch's correction; Values plotted as mean \pm SD and $P<0.05$ considered significant. Adapted from reference 63.

3.2 EP2 and EP4 receptors are expressed in the zebrafish pronephros.

To investigate and confirm the expression of EP2 and EP4 receptors prior to the pharmacological treatments, I performed fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (RNAscope assay, see Methods section for details) to visualize single mRNA molecules expressed in individual cells at 48 hpf in the zebrafish *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* embryos labeling the glomeruli and the primary part of the pronephric tubules. Both EP2 (*ptger2a*) and EP4 (*ptger4b*) receptors are expressed in the glomerulus and tubules of the zebrafish pronephros (Fig.4). Markedly, the semi-quantitative analysis revealed a higher abundance of both receptors in the tubules (Fig.5).

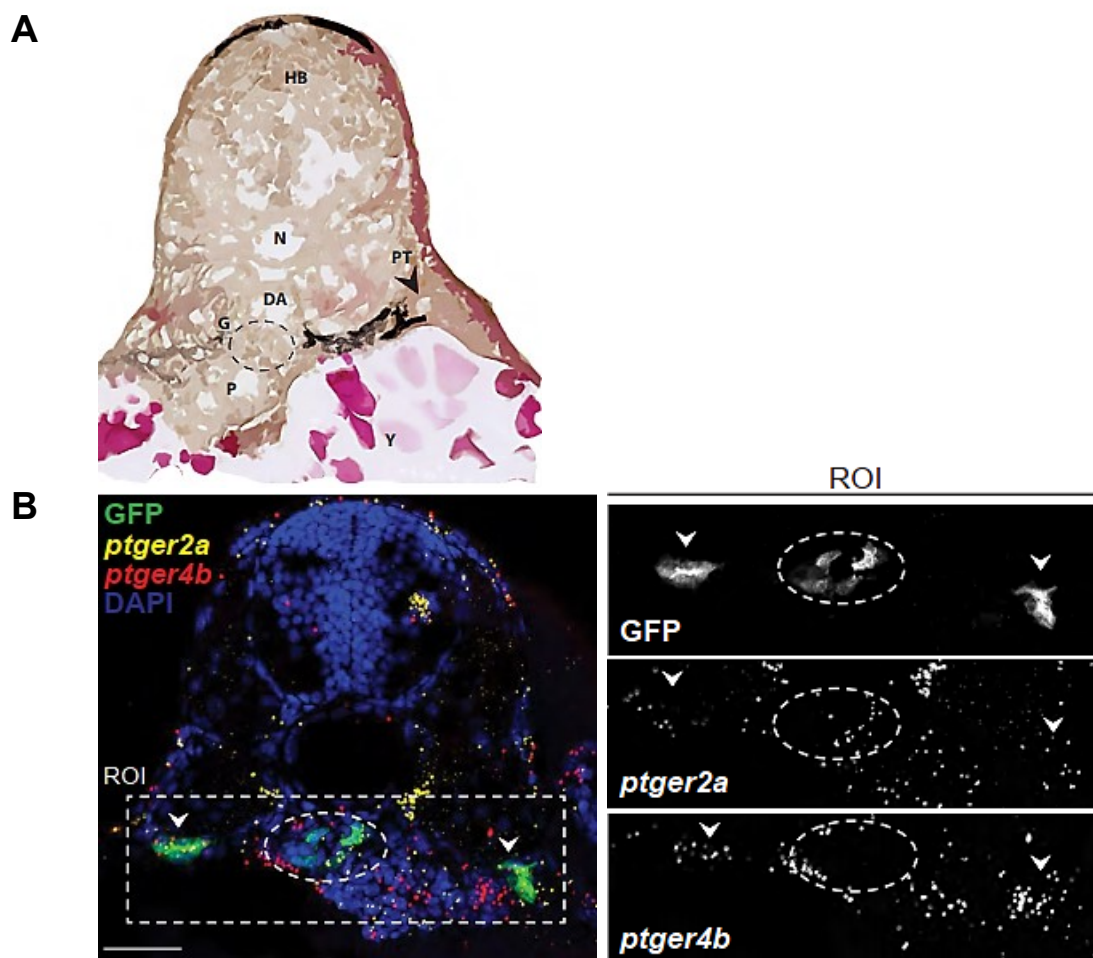


Figure 4. Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization of zebrafish embryo at 48 hpf. (A) Histological section of 48 hpf zebrafish embryo processed with “cutout” filter, demonstrates primary organs including glomerulus and kidney tubules; HB, hindbrain; N, notochord; DA, dorsal aorta; G, glomerulus, PT, pronephric tubules; P, pancreatic islet; Y, yolk. (B) RNAscope of EP2 (ptger2a) (yellow) and EP4 (ptger4b) (red) receptors in the zebrafish embryonic kidney at 48 hpf sectioned from the zebrafish transgenic line *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]*; DAPI used for nuclei staining. Scale bar = 34 μ m; dashed rectangle indicates the region of interest (ROI); dashed circles show the glomerulus and arrowheads indicate the pronephric tubules. Adapted from reference 63.

3.3 Both PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ bind EP2 and EP4 receptors *in vitro*.

[The experiments in the yeast were conducted in collaboration with the PhD student Debora Kaiser-Graf (AG Kreutz, SFB-1365)].

The activation of both EP2 and EP4 receptors by PGE₂ is widely investigated in numerous studies^{53,57,59,78–80}, however only recently its metabolite, 15-keto-PGE₂, (Fig. 6A) was shown to be able to bind both receptors *in vitro*^{48,49}. The Nano-Glo® HiBiT extracellular detection system (see Methods for details) was used, to better understand the interaction between 15-keto-PGE₂ and the EP receptors. The assay was applied in the MMY28 yeast strain⁶², in which the single GPCR was replaced upon transformation to express individually HiBiT-tagged human EP2 (hEP2) and EP4 (hEP4) receptors

(Fig. 6B). This allowed the quantification of the relative membrane expression of hEP2 and hEP4 receptors, before and after prostaglandin ligand stimulation (Fig. 6B). The transformed yeast cells were incubated with either 100nM PGE₂ or 1μM 15-keto-PGE₂ for 20min (Fig. 6B). The receptor count on the membrane was significantly increased, for both receptors, after the stimulation with both PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ as compared to the non-stimulated (absence of ligand) control condition (Fig. 6C, D).

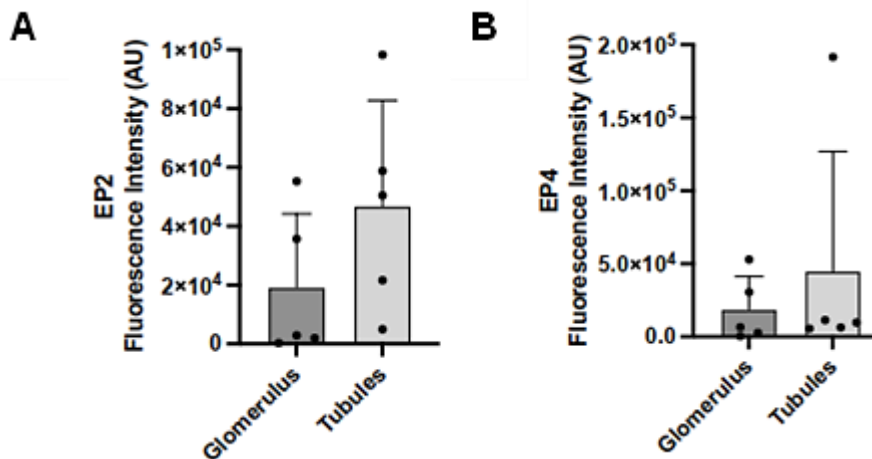


Figure 5. Semi-quantitative analysis of the fluorescence intensity. Analysis of (A) EP2 and (B) EP4 transcripts expressed in the GFP positive cells in the kidney area of *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* embryos used for the histological sections on which the RNAscope analysis was performed ($N=3$, $n=5$); Two-tailed unpaired t test with Welch's correction; values are plotted as mean \pm SD. Adapted from reference 63.

Our *in vitro* experiments indicated that apart from the well-established role of PGE₂^{53,57,59,78–80}, 15-keto-PGE₂ is also able to bind both EP2 and EP4 receptors and stabilize them on the plasma membrane, in agreement with recently published data⁴⁹.

3.4 Exogenous exposure to 15-keto-PGE₂ affects the early kidney development.

PGE₂ has been extensively reported to regulate the kidney development in zebrafish^{57,81–83}. However, the potential biological effects of its metabolite, 15-keto-PGE₂, remain unresolved. Here, I opted for investigating the potential role of 15-keto-PGE₂ in zebrafish kidney biology. The pharmacological approach used for this purpose is similar to drug screenings that have previously demonstrated prostaglandin effects in the kidney morphogenesis⁵⁷.

I used the transgenic line *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* to perform phenotypic assessment of the embryo development as well as kidney formation using brightfield and fluorescence microscopy (Fig. 7). Prior to the formation of GFB, namely from 6 hpf to 48 hpf, the embryos were exposed to the DMSO vehicle and 15-keto-PGE₂ (500 μM) (Fig. 7B). After early treatment with 15-keto-PGE₂, no profound phenotypic defects were detected

in the embryos at 48 hpf, with the exception of mild fluid accumulation (edema) observed in the yolk area, characteristic of kidney dysfunction (Fig. 7B, C). Overall, the morphology of the embryonic kidney was significantly affected and associated with the impaired glomerular development and defects in the pronephric tubular angle (Fig. 7B).

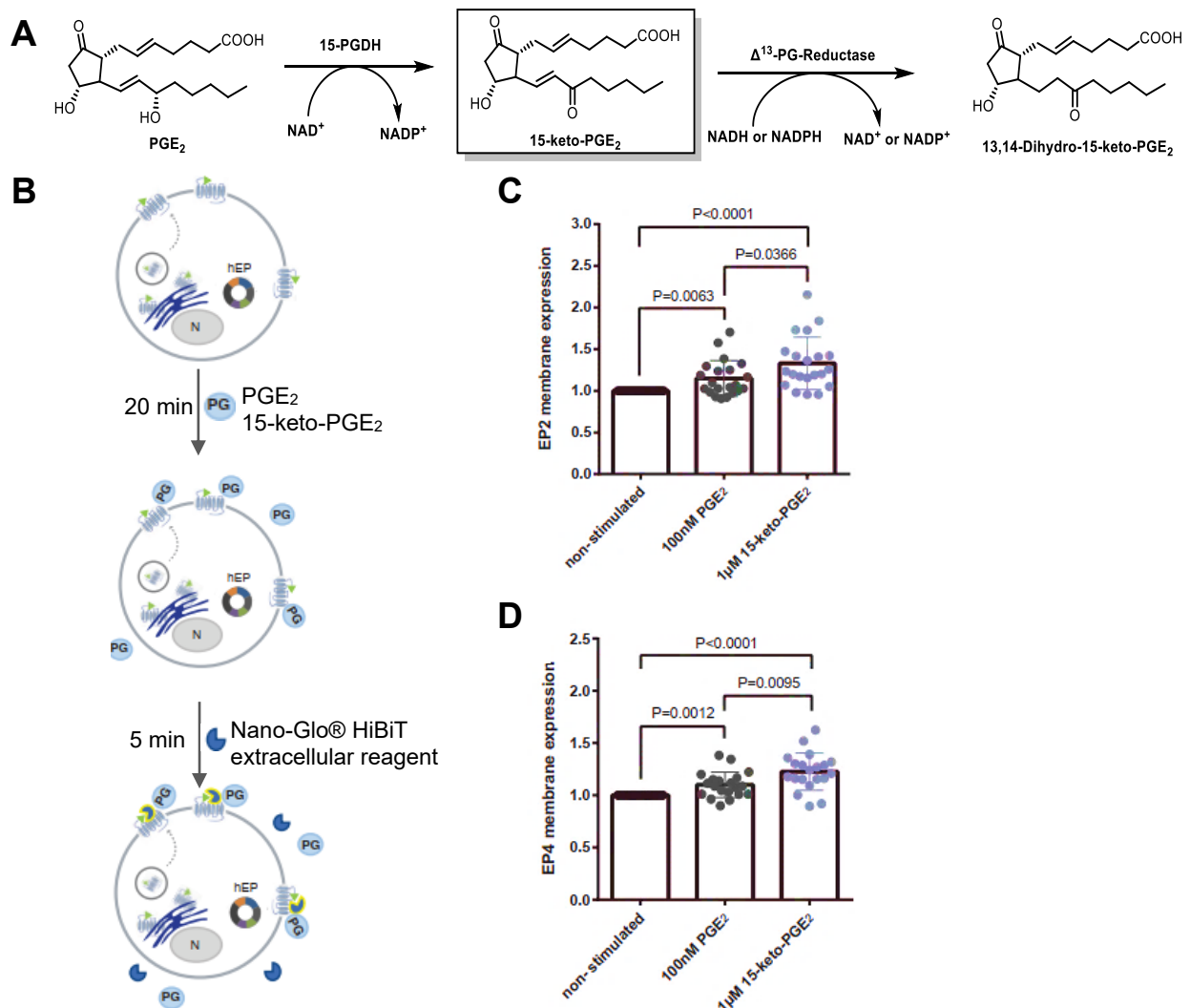


Figure 6. PGE₂ metabolic product, 15-keto-PGE₂ binds EP2 and EP4 receptors *in vitro*. (A) Inactivation pathway of PGE₂, highlighting the 15-keto-PGE₂ metabolite. (B) Schematic of Nano-Glo® HiBiT Extracellular Detection system assay for the measurement of the receptors membrane expression. First, either PGE₂, 15-keto-PGE₂, or an equal volume of medium (non-stimulated control), was used for the 20 min stimulation of the HiBiT-tagged hEP2 or hEP4 receptors on the yeast membrane to allow ligand binding. As a second step, the number of receptors on the membrane was quantified by the Nano-Glo® HiBiT extracellular reagent (containing Buffer, substrate, and LgBiT protein), resulting in generated luminescence by structural complementation of LgBiT proteins with extracellular displayed HiBiT-tags; N represents cell nucleus. Quantification graphs of the cell membrane expression of (C) HiBiT-tagged hEP2 and (D) HiBiT-tagged hEP4 receptors, after 20 min stimulation with PGE₂ (dark grey) and 15-keto-PGE₂ (light grey). Statistics were performed with the Wilcoxon test and Mann-Whitney tests. For EP2: non-stimulated vs PGE₂ P=0.0063; non-stimulated vs 15-keto-PGE₂ P<0.0001; PGE₂ vs 15-keto-PGE₂ P=0.0366. For EP4: non-stimulated vs PGE₂ P=0.0012; non-stimulated vs 15-keto-PGE₂ P<0.0001; PGE₂ vs 15-keto-PGE₂ P=0.0095. Values are plotted as mean ± SD; P < 0.05 is considered significant; one outlier was identified among EP2-transfected and two outliers among EP4-transfected yeasts (for all yeast experiments conducted on the same day). Adapted from reference 64.

3.5 PGE₂, but not 15-keto-PGE₂ causes albuminuria-like phenotype *in vivo*.

After confirming that the PGE₂ pathway is conserved in zebrafish and its catabolism yields considerably high levels of 15-keto-PGE₂, which is able to bind and stabilize both EP2 and EP4 receptors *in vitro*, I proceeded with the exogenous pharmacological treatments to test its potential physiological role *in vivo*. In order to investigate and characterize how PGE₂ and its metabolite affect GFB integrity at functional level, I used a zebrafish transgenic line *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]* that allows the evaluation of GFB defects by monitoring the excretion of gc-EGFP, thus mimicking the albuminuria-like phenotype in the developing zebrafish embryos⁶¹. The vitamin D protein tagged with green fluorescent protein (gc-EGFP) is normally present in the vasculature of healthy embryos, but upon GFB damage leaks through the glomeruli resulting in an albuminuria-like phenotype.

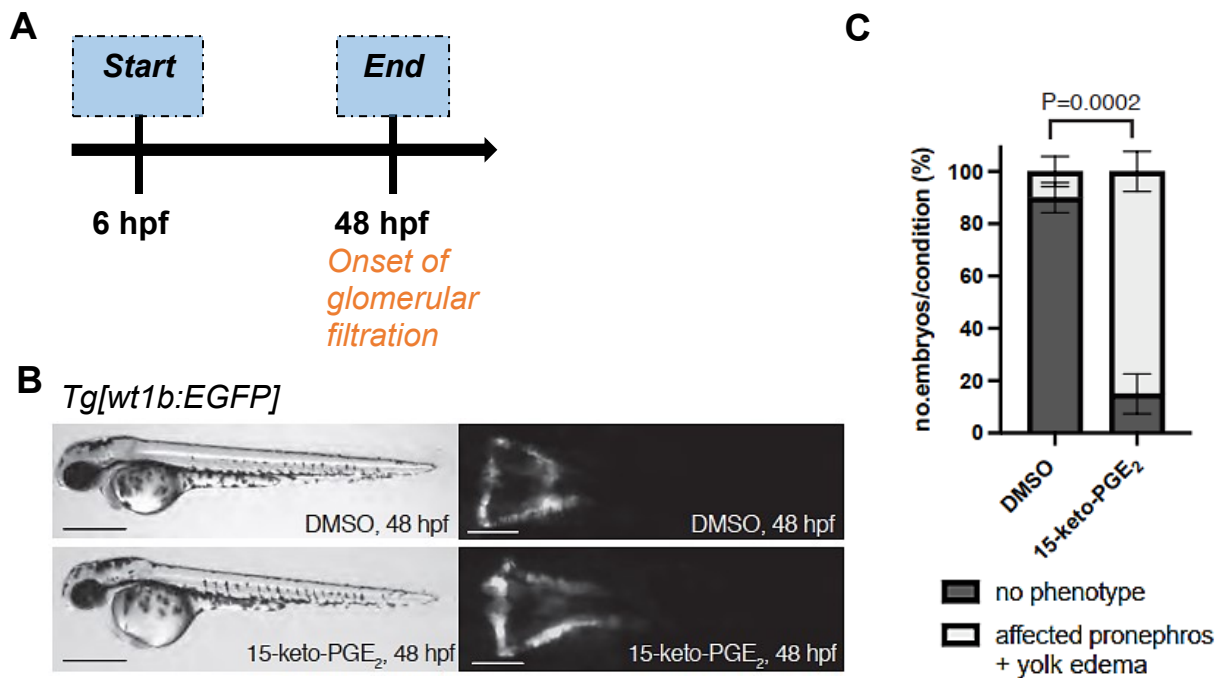


Figure 7. Early treatment with 15-keto-PGE₂ affects zebrafish embryonic kidney at 48 hpf. (A) Pharmacological early exposure to 15-keto-PGE₂, starting from 6 hpf until 48 hpf. (B) Brightfield and fluorescence microscopy images of *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* embryos at 48 hpf, after exposure to DMSO 0.88 % (upper panel) and 15-keto-PGE₂ 500 μM (lower panel). Scale bar: 500 μm for brightfield images and 200 μm for fluorescent images. (C) Phenotypic analysis ($N = 3$, $n = 30$ for each condition) of 48 hpf zebrafish embryos, grouped in two categories: “no phenotype” (pronephros morphology remains unaffected after DMSO treatment) or “affected pronephros + yolk edema” (affected pronephros after exposure to 15-keto-PGE₂); Percentage values are plotted as mean ± SD; n represents biologically independent samples over N independent experiments; Ordinary two-way ANOVA with Tukey’s multiple comparison test ($P = 0.0002$); $P < 0.05$ considered significant. Adapted from reference 64.

The embryos were exposed to either a long-acting derivative of PGE₂, dmPGE₂ (125µM), or 15-keto-PGE₂ (500µM) from 72 hpf to 96 hpf, i.e., after the complete formation of the functional GFB (Fig. 8A). Zebrafish embryos appeared normal after stimulation with PGE₂ and exhibited only lack of swim bladder formation (Figure 8B) when inspected with brightfield microscopy. However, a marked reduction of EGFP fluorescence in the trunk vasculature of *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]* embryos exposed to PGE₂ was observed when compared to the control conditions, thus mimicking an albuminuria-like phenotype and indicating the leakage of the gc-EGFP protein and a functional permeability defect of the GFB (Fig. 8B, 9A). Exogenous exposure to 15-keto-PGE₂ resulted in the defects of the body axis in the embryos at 96 hpf, the absence of the swim bladder formation, and the expansion of the liver (Fig. 8C). Interestingly, in contrast to PGE₂ treatment, no significant GFB permeability defects (albuminuria-like phenotype) were observed as the GFP signal was comparable between the control and 15-keto-PGE₂-treated embryos (Fig. 9B).

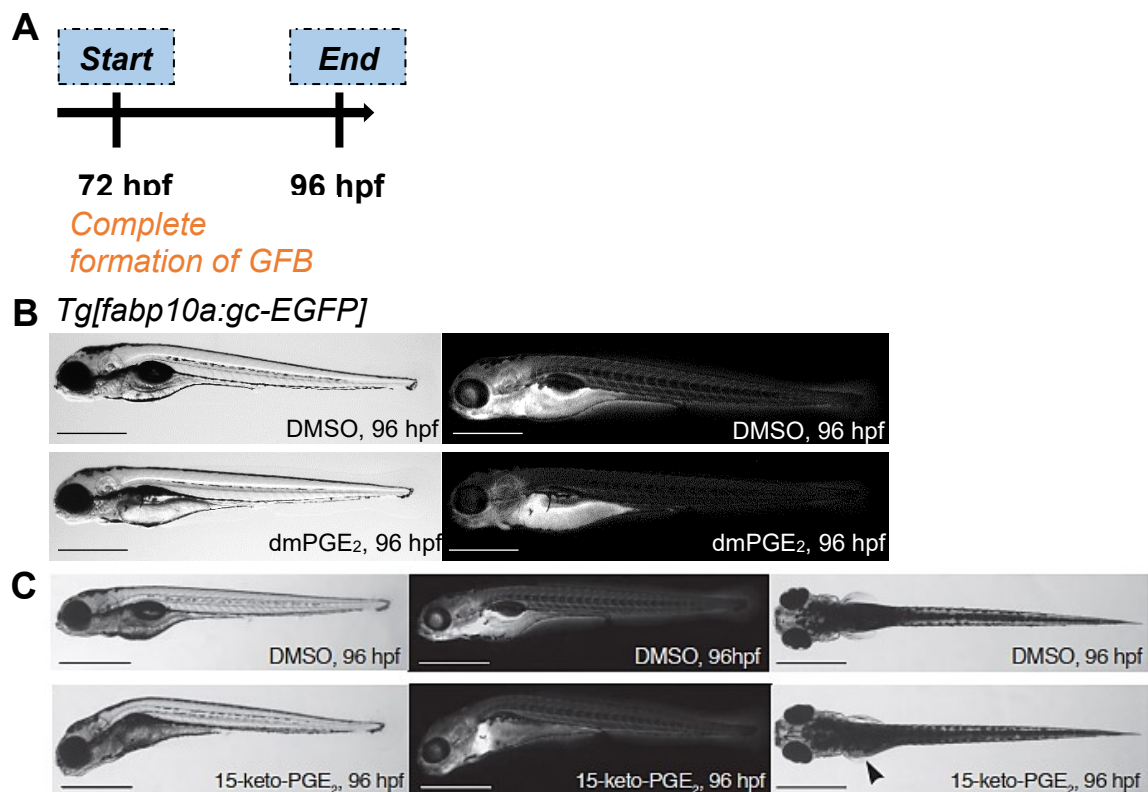


Figure 8. Late pharmacological exposure to dmPGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂. (A) Late treatment experimental design, starting from 72 hpf until 96 hpf. (B) Brightfield and fluorescence microscopy images of *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]* embryos at 96 hpf, after exposure to DMSO vehicle 0.32 % (upper panel) and dmPGE₂ 125 µM (lower panel). $N=6$, $n=120$ for each condition; Scale bar: 1 mm. (C) Brightfield and fluorescence microscopy images of *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]* embryos at 96 hpf, after exposure to DMSO vehicle 0.88 % (upper panel) and 15-keto-PGE₂ 500µM (lower panel). $N=3$, $n=60$ for each condition; arrowhead indicates liver expansion; Scale bar: 1mm. n represents biologically independent samples over N -independent experiments. Adapted from reference 64.

3.6 EP2 and EP4 antagonists rescue the albuminuria phenotype in both zebrafish and rat models.

Based on recent *in vitro* data highlighting the importance of PGE₂/EP2/EP4 signaling in human podocytes injury and glomerular hyperfiltration (GH)⁵⁹, I aimed to study the effects of the same pathway *in vivo*. Since I demonstrated that exogenous PGE₂ exposure resulted in albuminuria-like phenotype *in vivo* (see section 3.5), indicating the implication of this pathway in the albuminuria development, I was prompted to investigate the potential renoprotective role of separate or combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors, which concerted signaling has been previously reported to play a crucial role in podocytes injury⁵⁹. It has been shown that MWF rat, an established animal model of albuminuria/proteinuria and hypertension, demonstrates elevated levels of glomerular PGE₂ in young MWF at the onset of albuminuria (8 weeks of age) as compared to albuminuria resistant spontaneously hypertensive rats (SHR)⁵⁹ (Fig. 10).

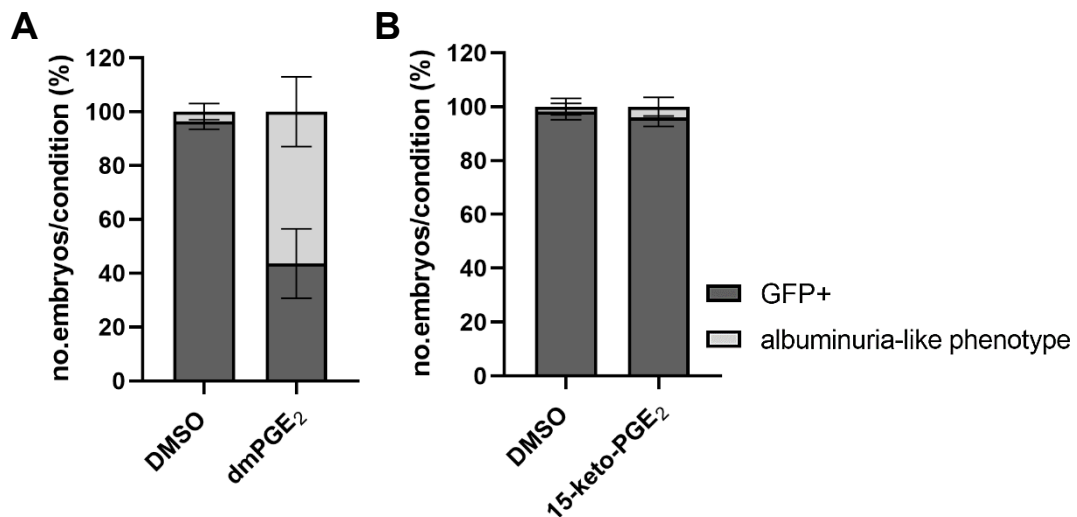


Figure 9. Exposure to PGE₂, but not 15-keto-PGE₂ causes albuminuria-like phenotype. (A) Quantitative analysis of *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]* zebrafish embryos' phenotype at 96 hpf after exposure to either dmPGE₂ (A) or 15-keto-PGE₂ (B). Significant fluorescence reduction was observed after treatment with dmPGE₂, while no profound fluorescence signal change was detected after exogenous exposure to the metabolite. Statistics performed with ordinary two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test ($P < 0.0001$ for graph A and $P = 0.8438$ for graph B). In both graphs, embryos are categorized as "GFP +" (fluorescence signal (gc-EGFP) observed in the trunk vasculature) or "albuminuria-like phenotype" (partial or complete loss of gc-EGFP fluorescence signal in the trunk vasculature); Percentage values are plotted as mean \pm SD; $P < 0.05$ considered significant. Adapted from references 63 and 64.

Here, I followed similar pharmacological approach, as described in section 3.5, for separate and combined blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors *in vivo* using the PF-04418948 and ONO-AE3-208 antagonists, respectively. Apart from the *Tg[fabp10a:gc-*

EGFP] zebrafish embryos, treated from 72 hpf to 96 hpf, MWF rats (experiments performed by Dr. rer. medic. Angela Schulz, AG Kreutz, SFB-1365) were also exposed to the same EP receptors antagonists, starting the treatment at the onset of albuminuria at 4 weeks and continue until 12 weeks. The time-course analysis of the albuminuria phenotype in urine samples collected in metabolic cages for 24h⁶⁶ was performed at 4, 8 and 12 weeks of age.

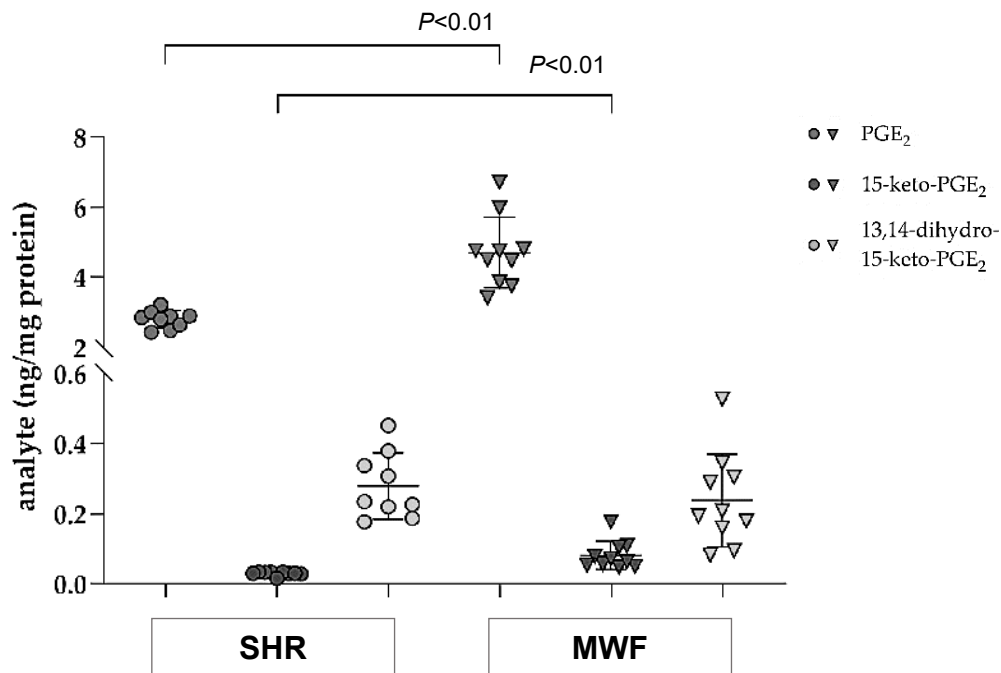


Figure 10. Lipidomic analysis on MWF rat glomeruli. Measured levels of PGE₂ (grey), 15-keto-PGE₂ (dark grey), and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ (light grey) in the glomeruli of MWF (triangles) and SHR (circles) rats at 8 weeks of age. Elevated levels of glomerular PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ in MWF compared to SHR, while for 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ no significant changes in the glomerular levels were detected between the strains. Each data point represents a single animal; values plotted as mean \pm SD per rat strain consisting of $n=9-10$ animals each; Two-tailed Student's t-test; $P < 0.01$; $P < 0.05$ considered significant. Adapted from reference 59.

In zebrafish, the albuminuria-like phenotype caused by exogenous PGE₂ exposure was significantly reversed by either separate or combined blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors, as well as by indomethacin treatment (Fig. 11A, B). In MWF rat, albuminuria was not significantly reduced by the separate EP2 or EP4 blockade. However, combined EP2 and EP4 blockade resulted in a profound and significant suppression of albuminuria compared to the control and single EP4 receptors blockade at 8 weeks, while at 12 weeks there was a significant difference compared to all groups (Fig. 11C). Importantly, the dual blockade induced no changes in either systolic blood pressure (Fig. 12A) or creatinine clearance (Fig. 12B).

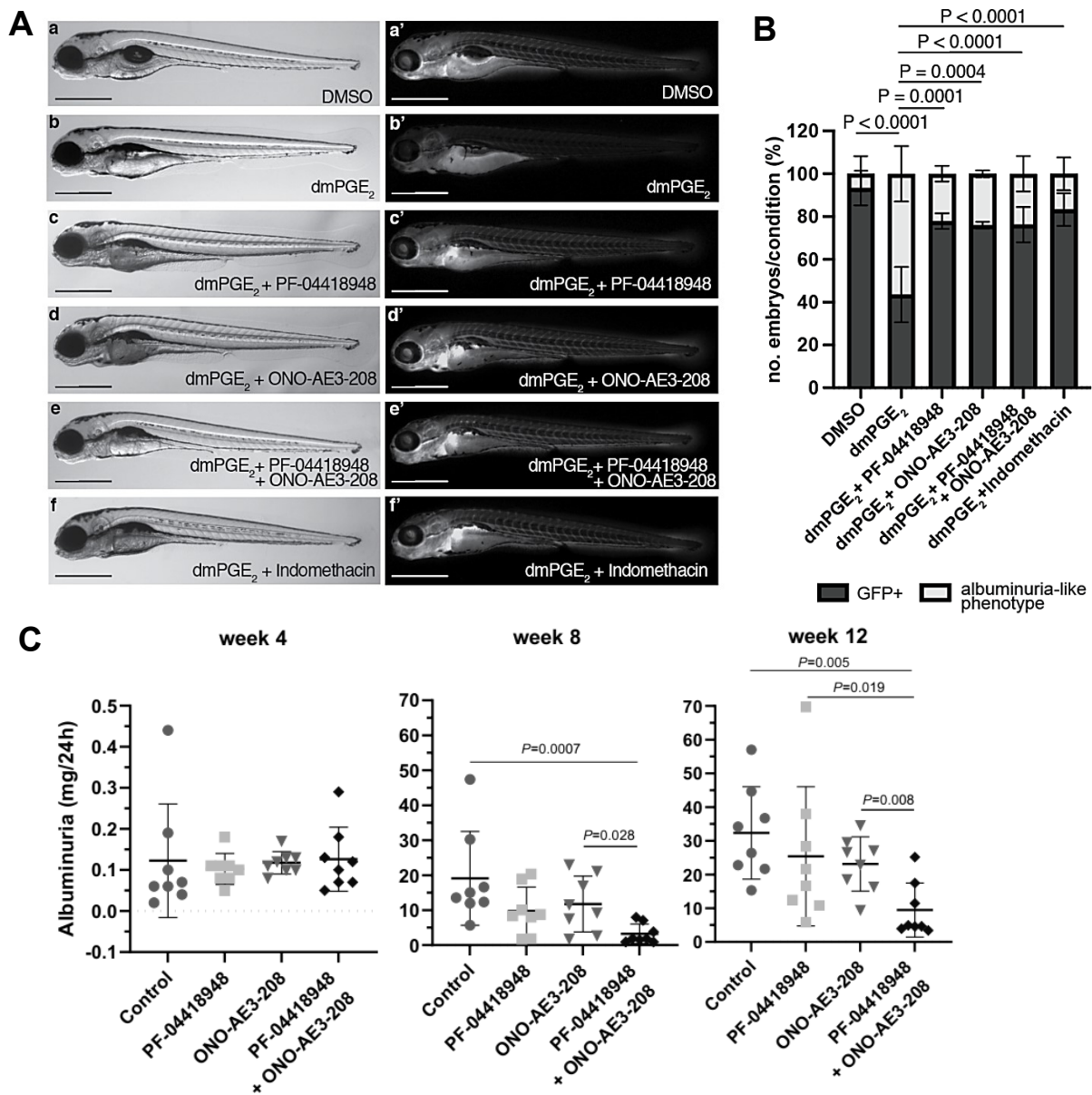


Figure 11. Combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors rescues albuminuria in both zebrafish and MWF rat.

(A) Brightfield and fluorescence microscopy images of *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]* embryos at 96 hpf, following pharmacological treatments: (a, a') DMSO (vehicle) 0,32 %, (b, b') dmPGE₂ 125 μM, (c, c') dmPGE₂ 125 μM + PF-04418948 20 μM, (d, d') dmPGE₂ 125 μM + ONO-AE3-208 20 μM, (e, e') dmPGE₂ 125 μM + PF-04418948 20 μM + ONO-AE3-208 20 μM, (f, f') dmPGE₂ 125 μM + indomethacin 30 μM; $N=6$, $n=120$ for each of the conditions except treatments c and d ($N=3$, $n=60$); Scale bar = 1mm. (B) Quantitative analysis of the phenotype observed in drug-treated *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]* embryos at 96 hpf. Embryos are categorized as "GFP +" (green fluorescence signal visible in the trunk vasculature) or "albuminuria-like phenotype" (partial or complete loss of gc-EGFP fluorescence signal in the trunk vasculature). Percentage data are plotted as mean \pm SD; n represents biologically independent samples over N independent experiments; Ordinary two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test. (C) Time-course analysis of urinary albumin excretion in male MWF rats during the onset of albuminuria between week 4 and 12. Rats per group $n=7-8$ for each condition; Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post hoc analysis, used for the statistical analysis, showed a significant correlation between treatment groups and the different time-points ($P=0.002$) regarding albuminuria levels. Albuminuria was significantly increased over time, with the dual blockade group demonstrating a significant difference compared to all other groups ($P<0.01$, respectively). Adapted from reference 63.

Overall, the *in vivo* pharmacological experiments performed in both animal models, reveal the importance of PGE₂/EP2/EP4 signaling in GH and albuminuria and highlight the renoprotective role of combined EP receptors blockade as potential therapeutic targets.

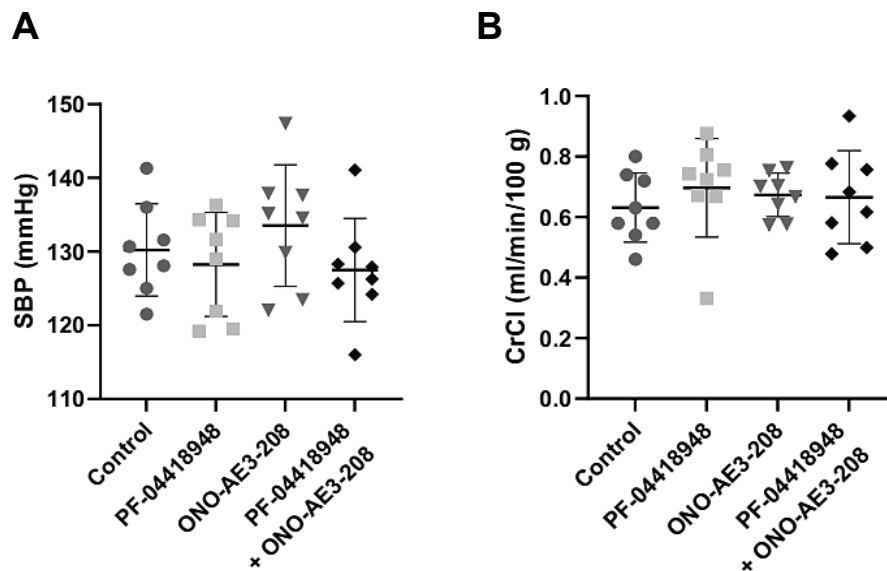


Figure 12. Time-course analysis of systolic blood pressure and creatinine clearance. (A) systolic blood pressure (SBP) and (B) creatinine clearance (CrCl) in male MWF rats at 12 weeks of age. Rats per group $n=7-8$ for each condition; One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post hoc analysis. Adapted from reference 63.

3.7 Glomerulus development and vascularization in the zebrafish pronephros.

I aimed to understand the changes in glomerular structure resulting from different pharmacological treatments (dmPGE₂, 15-keto-PGE₂, and EP receptor antagonists) using 3D high-resolution confocal microscopy imaging to resolve the cytoarchitecture of the glomerulus at a subcellular level. Previous visualization of glomerular morphology changes during kidney development in zebrafish has been limited^{84–89}. In the present thesis, I used the *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* zebrafish line to study the critical stages of glomerulus formation. The analysis followed five developmental stages (30, 48, 52, 72, 120 hpf) and in addition bovine serum albumin (BSA) marked with AlexaFluor555 was used to label the glomerular vasculature (endothelial cells-formed capillaries) as previously reported⁹⁰.

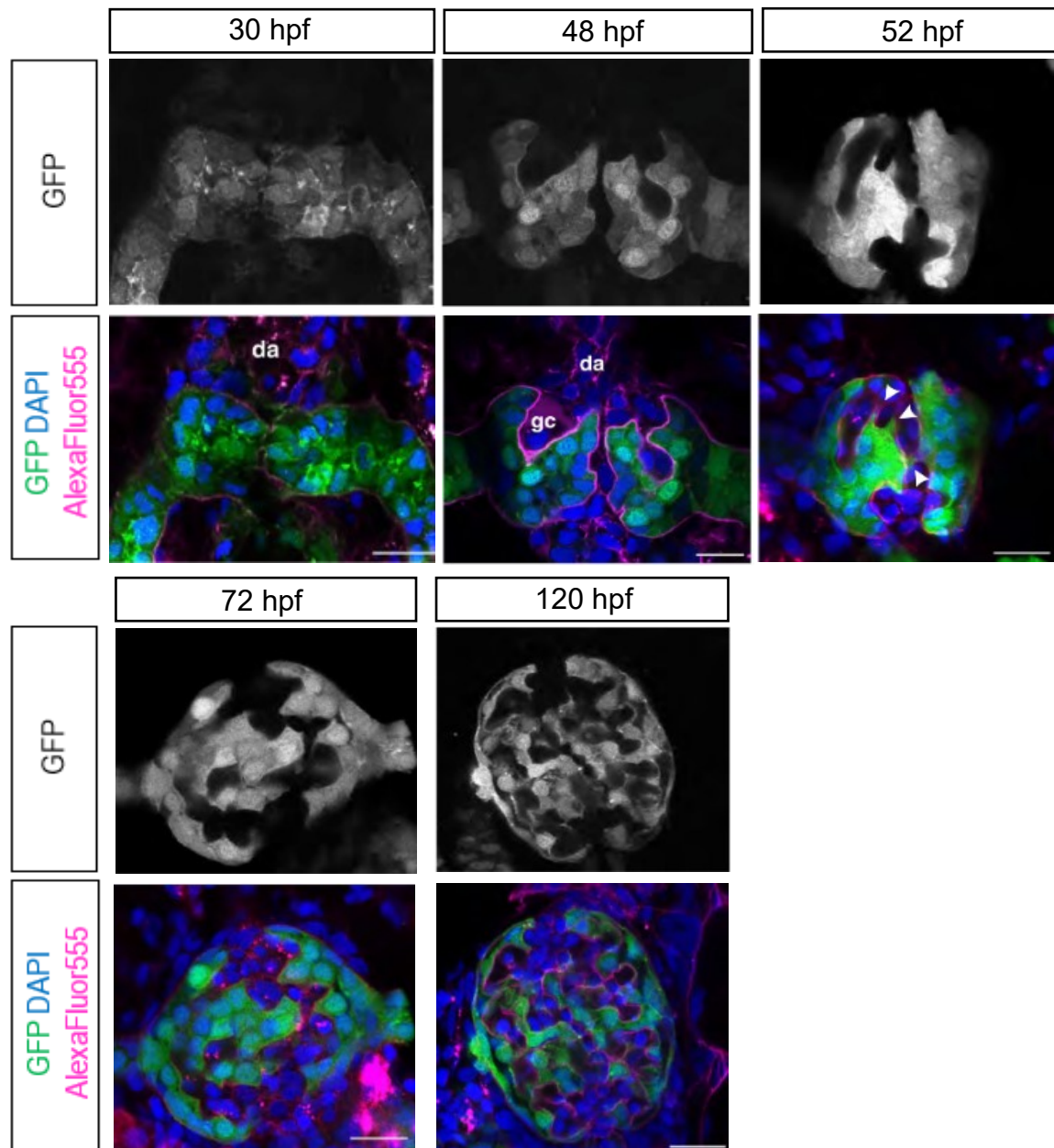


Figure 13. Morphological visualization of zebrafish embryonic glomerulus. Representative 3D high-resolution confocal microscopy images (single confocal section) of the *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* zebrafish glomeruli at five different developmental stages (30 hpf, 48 hpf, 52 hpf, 72 hpf and 120 hpf). The glomerular podocytes and parietal epithelial cells presented in grayscale (top panels) and in green (in merge, lower panels), while the glomerular endothelial cells-capillaries are shown in magenta (BSA-AlexaFluor555, in merge), and cells nuclei in blue (DAPI, in merge). Podocyte protrusions (arrowheads) start surrounding the glomerular capillaries are observed at 52 hpf. Dorsal aorta (da) and characteristic glomerular cleft (gc) are observed at the early developmental stages of the glomerulus. Scale bar = 10 μ m. Adapted from reference 64.

At 30 hpf, in nephron primordia stage (the most immature stage of the nephrons), the glomeruli appear as a non-vascularized group of cells directly abutting the dorsal aorta

at the embryo midline (Fig.13, 30 hpf). During the next developmental steps, at 48 hpf, endothelial cells slowly begin to invade and occupy the area between the nephron primordia, thus driving the invagination of the podocytes and establishing the characteristic glomerular cleft (Fig.13, 48 hpf). In the following developmental stage, at 52 hpf, the intricate intercalation of podocytes spreads around the steadily expanding glomerular capillaries (Fig.13, 52 hpf), resulting at 72 hpf in the formation of podocytes finger-like projections intertwining with forming capillaries, similar to the interlaced fingers of clasped hands (Fig.13, 72 hpf). At this stage the formation of GFB is complete in zebrafish^{11,84,91}. The complicated intercalation between endothelial cells and podocytes persists until 120 hpf (Fig.13, 120 hpf). In the end, the glomeruli and functioning filtration system are fully matured as a result of the increasing infoldings of the GBM caused by cell-cell contacts between endothelial cells and podocytes.

3.8 Kidney defects after exogenous PGE₂ stimulation - glomerular cytoarchitecture and ultrastructure analysis.

It has been shown that increased fluid flow shear stress in glomeruli results in elevated levels of PGE₂ that causes podocyte damage and potential albuminuria⁵⁹.

As described in section 3.5, I established a zebrafish disease model that mimics the pathological albuminuria state by exposing zebrafish embryos to dmPGE₂ after the complete formation of GFB, namely from 72 hpf to 96 hpf (Fig. 8B, 11A). I performed a detailed analysis of the glomerular cytoarchitecture using *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* transgenic line in combination with angiography using BSA conjugated with AlexaFluor555 to mark the endothelial cells of glomerular capillaries.

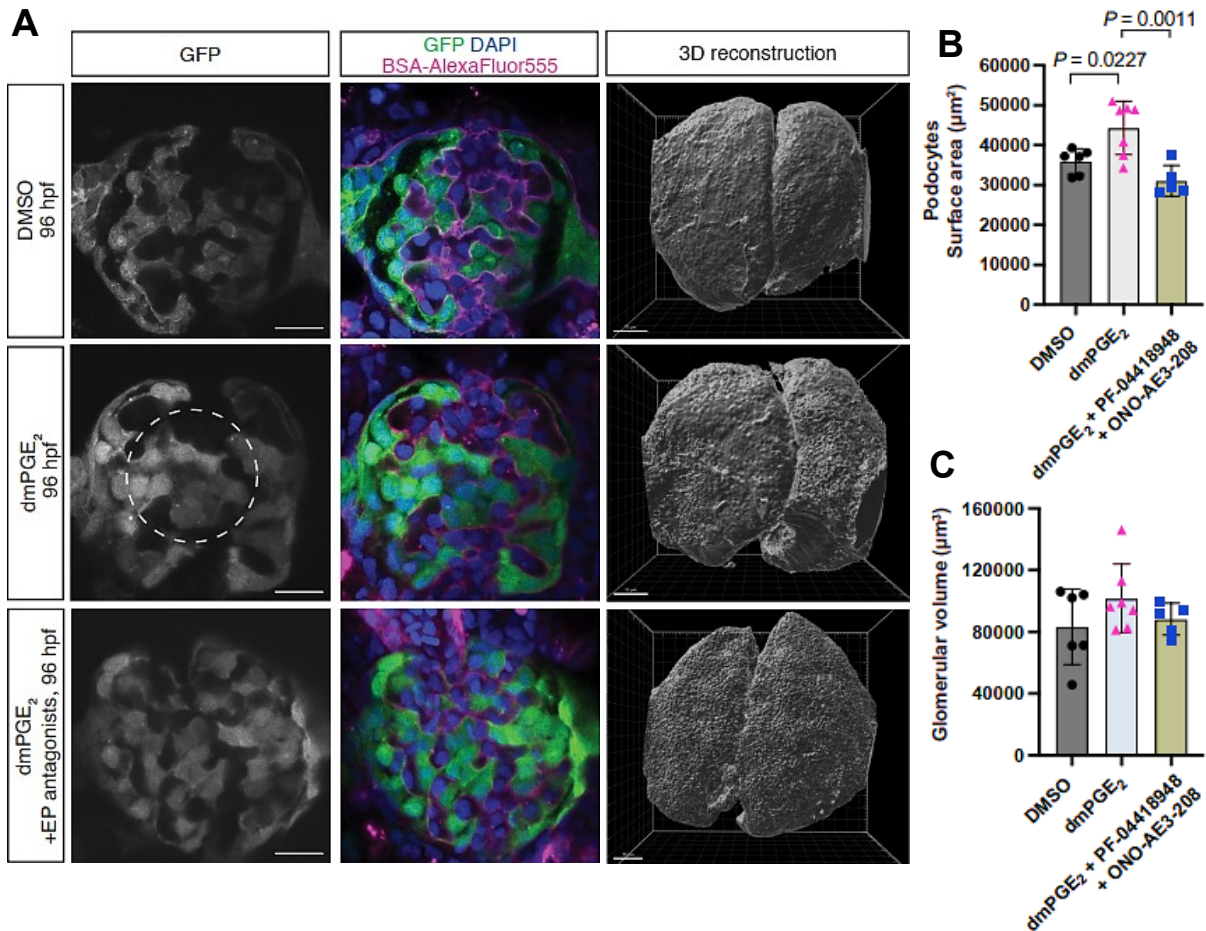


Figure 14. Exogenous PGE₂ treatment affects glomerular cytoarchitecture and the podocyte surface area. (A) High-resolution confocal microscopy analysis of the glomerulus at 96 hpf after DMSO vehicle 0.96% (top) ($N = 3, n = 6$) dmPGE₂ 125 µM (middle) ($N = 3, n = 7$), and dmPGE₂ 125 µM + PF-04418948 20 µM + ONO-AE3-208 20 µM (bottom) ($N = 3, n = 5$); Representative 2D grayscale and pseudo-colored images (left and middle panels, respectively) and 3D glomerular reconstruction (right panels) of *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* zebrafish glomeruli at 96 hpf; Scale bar = 10 µm; dashed circle indicates the podocyte intercalation defects. (B,C) Quantitative graphs of podocytes surface area and the glomerular volume of the glomeruli analyzed for the different pharmacological treatment groups; Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test was performed for both graphs; in graph B: DMSO vs dmPGE₂ ($P = 0.0227$), dmPGE₂ vs dmPGE₂ + PF-04418948 + ONO-AE3-208 ($P = 0.0011$) and DMSO vs dmPGE₂ + PF-04418948 + ONO-AE3-208 ($P = 0.2748$). No significant changes were observed in glomerular volume. Values are plotted as mean ± SD; $P < 0.05$ is considered significant. In all confocal microscopy images, the glomerular podocytes and parietal epithelial cells are shown either in greyscale or in green (EGFP); endothelial cells of glomeruli capillaries are marked in magenta (BSA-AlexaFluor555) and cells nuclei in blue (DAPI). One sample from DMSO and two samples from the combined EP2 and EP4 blockade were excluded from the analysis as the imaging resolution did not provide distinct glomerular GFP positive boundaries for proper surface outline of the glomeruli. Adapted from reference 63.

The exogenous stimulation with PGE₂ had a profound impact on the maturation of the glomeruli in zebrafish embryos at 96 hpf (Fig. 14). High-resolution confocal imaging allowed me to observe the cellular defects arising after the PGE₂ exposure, by revealing impaired podocyte intercalation around the glomerular capillaries (Fig. 14A, middle panels). Importantly, apart from the profound reduction of the albuminuria-like

phenotype described above, the glomerular morphology was also restored after combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors (Fig. 14A, bottom panels). I used 3D reconstruction and surface rendering to quantify the defects in the GFP-labeled glomeruli using segmentation techniques. Additionally, I measured glomerular volume and podocyte surface area in three different conditions: DMSO-treated, dmPGE₂-treated and dmPGE₂+EP2/EP4 blockade (Fig. 14B, C). This analysis revealed a significant increase of podocyte surface area in response to dmPGE₂ exposure (Fig. 14B), which might consequently affect GFB function. Importantly, both podocyte intercalation and surface area defects were restored after combined blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors (Fig. 14A, B), supporting the importance of the PGE₂/EP2/EP4 signaling axis for GFB integrity.

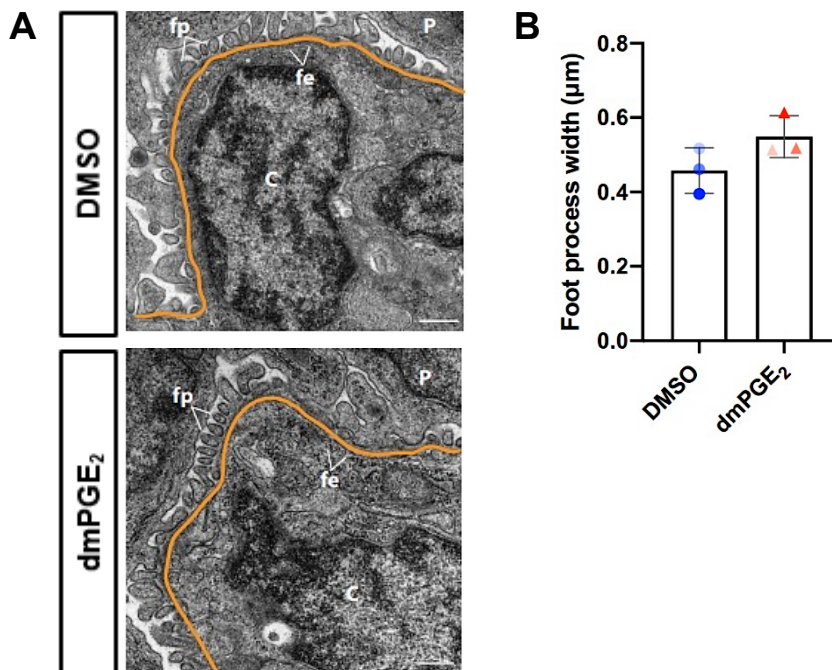


Figure 15. Ultrastructural analysis of 96 hpf zebrafish glomeruli after exposure to PGE₂. Pharmacological treatment with (A) DMSO vehicle 0.32% (top) and dmPGE₂ 125 μM (bottom); Scale bar=1μm; fe, fenestrated endothelium; fp, foot processes; C, capillaries; P, podocyte cell body. GBM is indicated with the colored line. (B) Quantitative analysis of foot process width ($n = 3$ for each condition) indicative of potential foot process effacement; Two-tailed unpaired t test with Welch's correction ($P = 0.1303$). Values are plotted as mean \pm SD; $P < 0.05$ is considered significant. Adapted from reference 63.

Ultrastructural analysis of the glomeruli was performed in both zebrafish embryos at 96 hpf and MWF rats at 12 weeks of age, using EM.

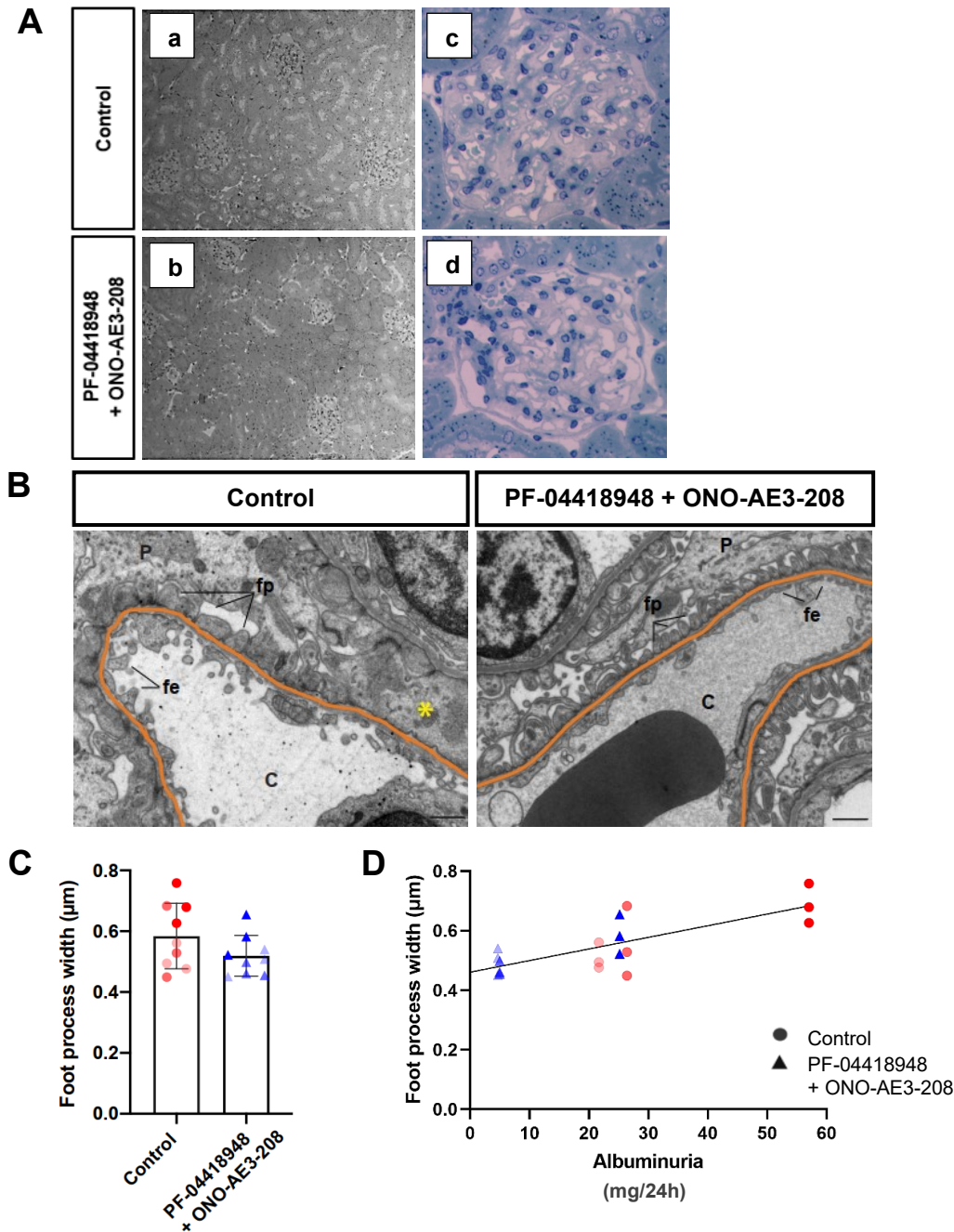


Figure 16. Ultrastructural analysis of MWF rat glomeruli after combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors. (A) Representative brightfield images of semi-thin renal sections from MWF control (top, panels a, c) and MWF+PF-04418948+ONO-AE3-208 (bottom, panels b, d) rats, show no obvious differences in glomerular morphology between the groups; original magnification x10 (panels a, b) and x200 (panels c, d). (B) Representative EM images of MWF control (left) and dual EP receptors blockade (right); Scale bar = 1 µm; fe, fenestrated endothelium; fp, foot processes; C, capillaries; P, podocyte cell body. GBM is indicated with the colored line; asterisk (*) indicates foot process effacement. (C) Quantitative analysis of foot process width ($n = 9$ glomeruli per group, obtained from 3 animals for each condition). The glomeruli derived from one animal are labeled with different shades of red for the control and blue for the antagonists-treated group. Two-tailed unpaired t test with Welch's correction ($P = 0.149$); Values are plotted as mean \pm SD; $P < 0.05$ is considered significant. (D) Spearman correlation plots show a significant correlation between albuminuria levels (mg/24h) and foot process width; correlation ($r=0.599$, $P=0.0086$); color code is the same as in graph C. Adapted from reference 63.

The qualitative analysis did not reveal any statistically significant alterations or defects in the GFB and glomerular capillaries in neither of the animal models (Fig. 15, 16B-D). Furthermore, the examination of kidney structure through light microscopy showed no alterations in response to EP2 and EP4 blockage in young MWF rats (Fig. 16A).

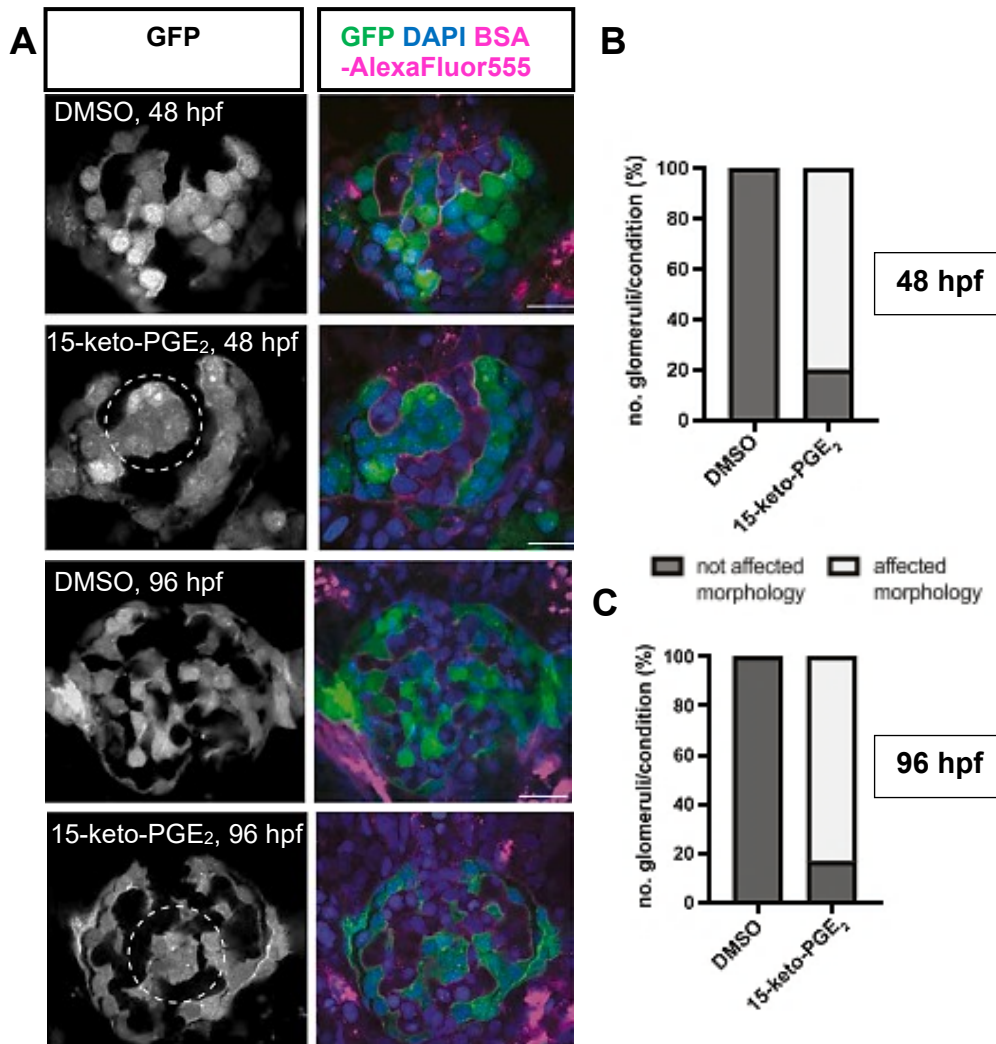


Figure 17. Glomerular morphological analysis after exposure to 15-keto-PGE₂. (A) Representative high-resolution confocal images of DMSO 0.88%- and 15-keto-PGE₂ 500 μ M- treated *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* embryos at 48 hpf (top two panels) and at 96 hpf (bottom two panels). For 48 hpf: $N=2$, $n=5$ for both conditions; For 96 hpf: $N=3$, $n=7$ for DMSO and $N=3$, $n=6$ for 15-keto-PGE₂; dotted-line circle indicates podocyte intercalation defects. (B, C) Quantification graphs showing the percentage of imaged glomeruli with affected morphology at 48 hpf and 96 hpf, respectively, after exposure to DMSO (no glomerular defect) and 15-keto-PGE₂ (4 out of 5 imaged glomeruli showed affected morphology at 48 hpf and 5 out of 6 imaged glomeruli were affected at 96 hpf). In all images, the glomerular podocytes and parietal epithelial cells are shown either in greyscale or in green (EGFP), endothelial cells of glomeruli capillaries are marked in magenta (BSA-AlexaFluor555) and cells nuclei in blue (DAPI); Scale bar=10 μ m. Adapted from reference 64.

The quantitative analysis showed that the foot process width in the dmPGE₂-treated embryos was found to be numerically increased as compared to the DMSO condition, but no profound foot process effacement was observed in the EM images (Fig. 15). The same applied for the MWF rat, for which I performed a quantitative analysis by comparing the MWF control vs MWF/EP2+EP4-treated groups. The analysis showed a numerically lower mean value of the width of podocytes foot processes in response to combined EP2/EP4 blockade as compared to untreated MWF control, in three randomly selected animals from each of the two groups (Fig. 16C). Notably, a significant positive correlation between albuminuria and foot process width ($r = 0.599$, $P = 0.0086$) was detected indicating that treatment-induced albuminuria decrease has a beneficial effect on podocyte damage (Fig. 16D). Altogether, although the ultrastructural analysis did not reveal profound foot process changes, e.g., effacement, the subcellular analysis performed in zebrafish glomeruli supports that the albuminuria-like phenotype reported here, might arise as a result of the changes in the cellular interactions between podocytes and endothelial cells in response to elevated PGE₂.

3.9 Kidney morphological defects after exogenous 15-keto-PGE₂ stimulation.

Following the same approach as for the dmPGE₂ treatment, I proceeded with the analysis of the glomerular cytoarchitecture after early (from 6 hpf to 48 hpf) and late (from 72 hpf to 96 hpf) treatment with the PGE₂ metabolite, 15-keto-PGE₂. Early exposure to the drug resulted in overall pronephric defects (see section 3.4), while the late treatment did not induce the albuminuria development (see section 3.5).

High-resolution confocal imaging used for detailed subcellular analysis, revealed impaired podocyte intercalation around the forming glomerular capillaries after 15-keto-PGE₂ exposure in both 48 hpf and 96 hpf (Fig. 17). Notably, the glomerular morphology was restored after combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors at 96 hpf (Fig. 18A). For the quantification of the glomerular defects, I performed, as in dmPGE₂ condition, a 3D reconstruction and surface rendering of the glomeruli labeled with GFP.

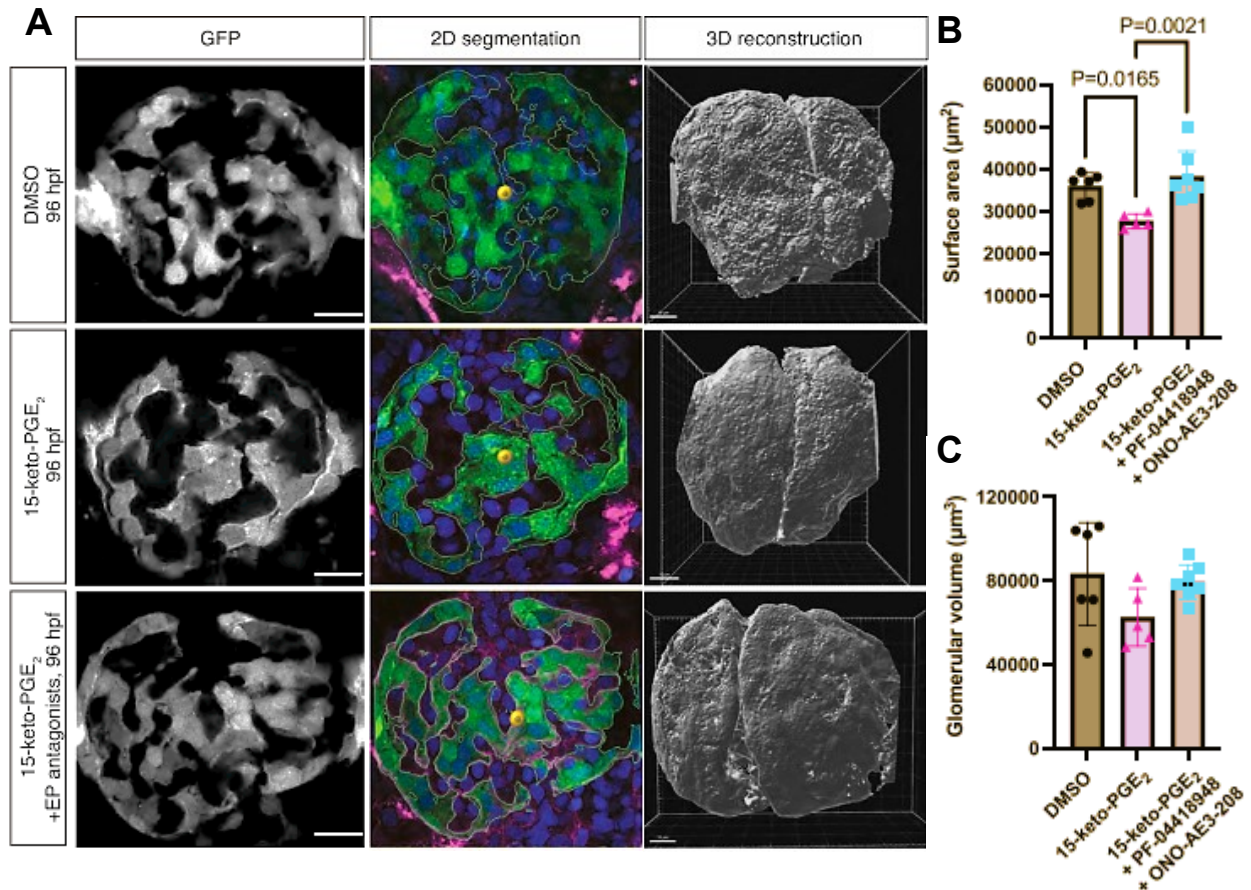


Figure 18. Exogenous 15-keto-PGE₂ treatment affects glomerular cytoarchitecture and the podocyte surface area. (A) High-resolution confocal microscopy analysis of the glomerulus at 96 hpf after DMSO vehicle 0.96% (top) ($N=3$, $n=6$) 15-keto-PGE₂ 500 µM (middle) ($N=3$, $n=5$), and 15-keto-PGE₂ 500 µM + PF-04418948 20 µM + ONO-AE3-208 20 µM (bottom) ($N=2$, $n=7$); Representative 2D grayscale and pseudo-colored images (left and middle panels, respectively) and 3D glomerular reconstruction (right panels) of *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* zebrafish glomeruli at 96 hpf; Scale bar = 10 µm. Quantitative graphs of podocytes surface area (B) and the glomerular volume (C) of the glomeruli analyzed for the different pharmacological treatment groups; Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test was performed for both graphs; in graph B: DMSO vs 15-keto-PGE₂ ($P=0.0165$), 15-keto-PGE₂ vs 15-keto-PGE₂ + PF-04418948 + ONO-AE3-208 ($P=0.0021$) and DMSO vs 15-keto-PGE₂ + PF-04418948 + ONO-AE3-208 ($P=0.6048$). No significant changes were observed in glomerular volume. Values are plotted as mean ± SD; $P < 0.05$ considered significant. In all images, the glomerular podocytes and parietal epithelial cells are shown either in greyscale or in green (EGFP), endothelial cells of glomeruli capillaries are marked in magenta (BSA-AlexaFluor555) and cells nuclei in blue (DAPI). One outlier was identified in the glomerulus surface area analysis for the DMSO and 15-keto-PGE₂ condition that were excluded from both the surface area and the glomerular volume analysis. Adapted from reference 64.

The glomerular volume and podocyte surface area were measured in three different conditions: DMSO-treated, 15-keto-PGE₂-treated and 15-keto-PGE₂+EP2/EP4 blockade (Fig. 18B, C). In contrast to dmPGE₂ treatment, the analysis revealed a significant decrease of podocyte surface area in response to 15-keto-PGE₂ exposure as compared to DMSO condition (Fig. 18B), while the glomerular volume was only numerically lower in 15-keto-PGE₂-treated group. Importantly, both podocyte intercalation and surface

area defects were restored after combined blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors *in vivo* (Fig. 18A, B).

3.10 MRI analysis did not reveal significant changes of blood oxygenation levels.

[MRI analysis was performed in collaboration with Dr. Thomas Gladysz and Prof. Thoralf Niendorf].

In parallel, a group of MWF rats, whose albuminuria levels were measured (Figure 19A, B) was used for MRI analysis⁹² to detect potential differences in renal hemodynamics and oxygenation between MWF control and MWF/EP2+EP4-treated groups.

MRI examination showed that there were no significant changes in the T2* and T2 relaxation times of the blood oxygenation level dependent signal after the EP receptor blockade (Fig. 19C), even though MWF kidneys had shorter relaxation times than historical normal Wistar rats⁹². Only a minor yet significant difference in T2* time in the outer medulla was seen. Additionally, changes in body weight, left ventricular weight (both absolute and relative to body weight), and kidney weight were also assessed. However, no significant changes were observed (Table 12).

Table 12. Rat parameters analyzed.

Parameter	Control	PF-04418948	ONO-AE3-208	PF-04418948 + ONO-AE3-208
BW (g)	328.9 ± 24.1	325.4 ± 15.3	326.5 ± 12.8	309.6 ± 15.5
LVW (g)	0.72 ± 0.07	0.68 ± 0.03	0.72 ± 0.04	0.65 ± 0.05
LVW/BW	2.21 ± 0.09	2.11 ± 0.07	2.21 ± 0.12	2.11 ± 0.13
KW (g)	2.13 ± 0.27	2.07 ± 0.20	2.08 ± 0.14	1.91 ± 0.17
KW/BW (mg/g)	6.47 ± 0.44	6.34 ± 0.39	6.37 ± 0.28	6.16 ± 0.30

BW, body weight; LVW, left ventricular weight; KW, kidney weight. Values presented as means ± SD. Rats per group ($n=6-8$, each); One-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test. Adapted from reference 63.

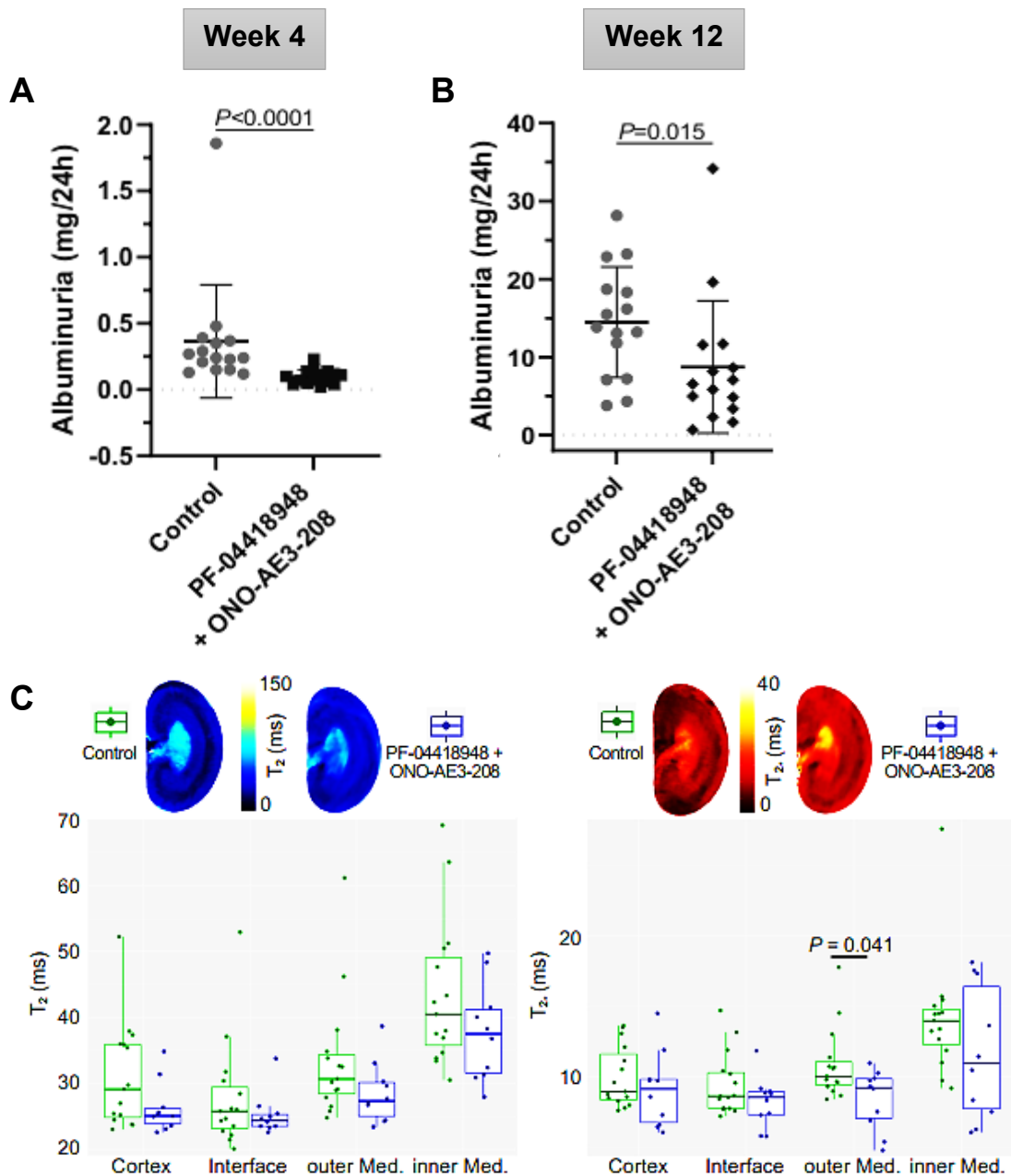


Figure 19. MRI-based assessment of renal oxygenation in the MWF rat after dual blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors. Urinary albumin excretion of MWF control ($n=15$) vs MWF/EP2+EP4 ($n=14$) rats at week 4 (A) and week 12 (B) of age; one-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test. (C) T_2 and T_2^* relaxation times of control MWF and MWF/EP2+EP4 rat kidneys in four kidney layers were compared (Cortex, cortical-medullar Interface, and outer and inner Medulla). On top are examples of T_2 and T_2^* maps for both groups; Wilcoxon test was used to compare group differences in the two measured parameters. Adapted from reference 63.

3.11 RNA-seq analysis of MWF rat kidney cortex revealed a potential role of circadian clock genes.

[Preparation of the rat kidney samples, and qPCR analysis were performed by Dr. rer. medic. Angela Schulz (AG Kreutz, SFB-1365), while RNA-seq was conducted in collaboration with Nils Koppers and Prof. Monika Stoll].

To gain deeper insight into how PGE₂ signaling inhibition mediates renoprotective effects, a transcriptome analysis of renal cortex tissue was performed on MWF control rats and MWF rats treated with EP2 and EP4, using bulk RNA-seq.

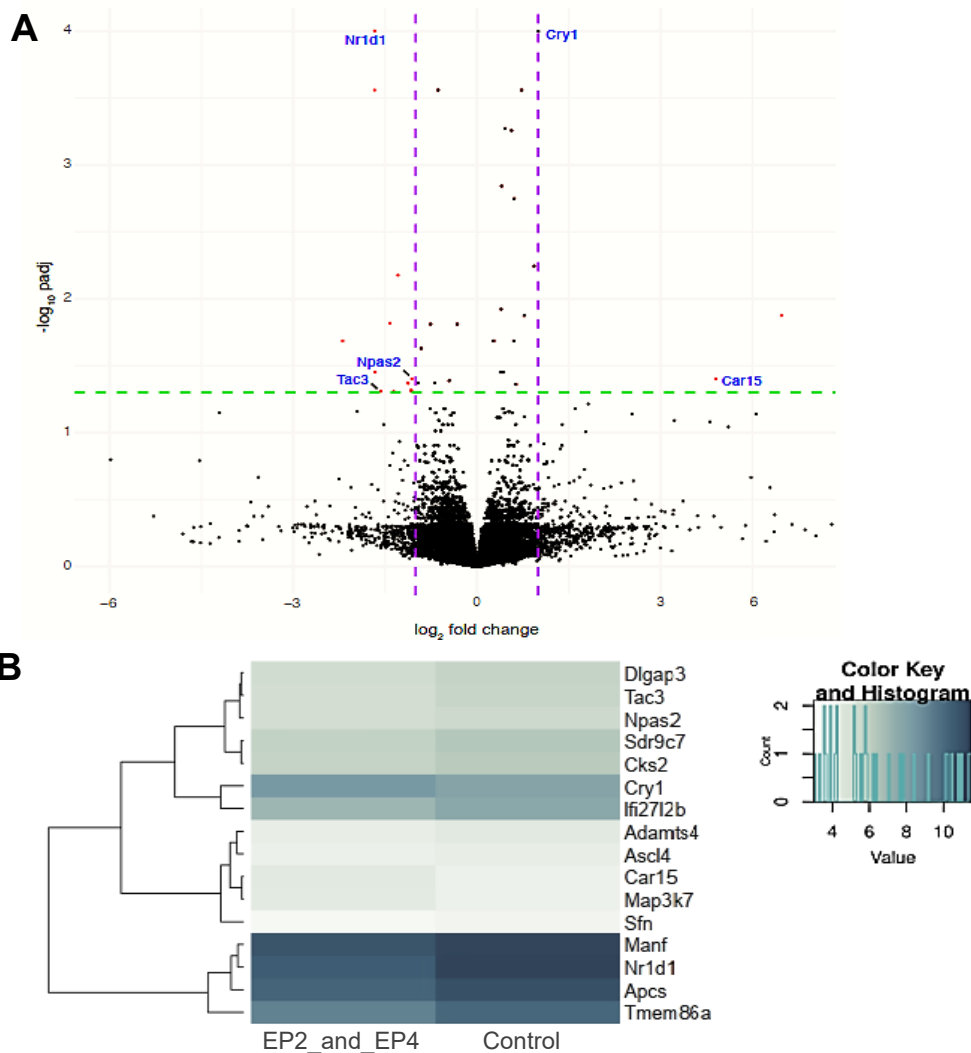


Figure 20. RNA-seq analysis of MWF rat.

(A) Volcano plot showing the comparison of the transcriptome analysis between MWF control and MWF/EP2+EP4-treated rats. The analysis showed 16 genes (in red) with differential expression (including *Cry1* with a \log_2 fold change value=0.994). Vertical dotted lines (purple) show the \log_2 fold change of < -1 and $> +1$, while horizontal dotted line (green) demonstrates the $-\log_{10}$ of the adjusted P value; $P < 0.05$ considered significant. (B) Unscaled heatmap demonstrates the expression differences between the significantly differentially expressed genes in the MWF/EP2+EP4-treated group vs the MWF control. Adapted from reference 63.

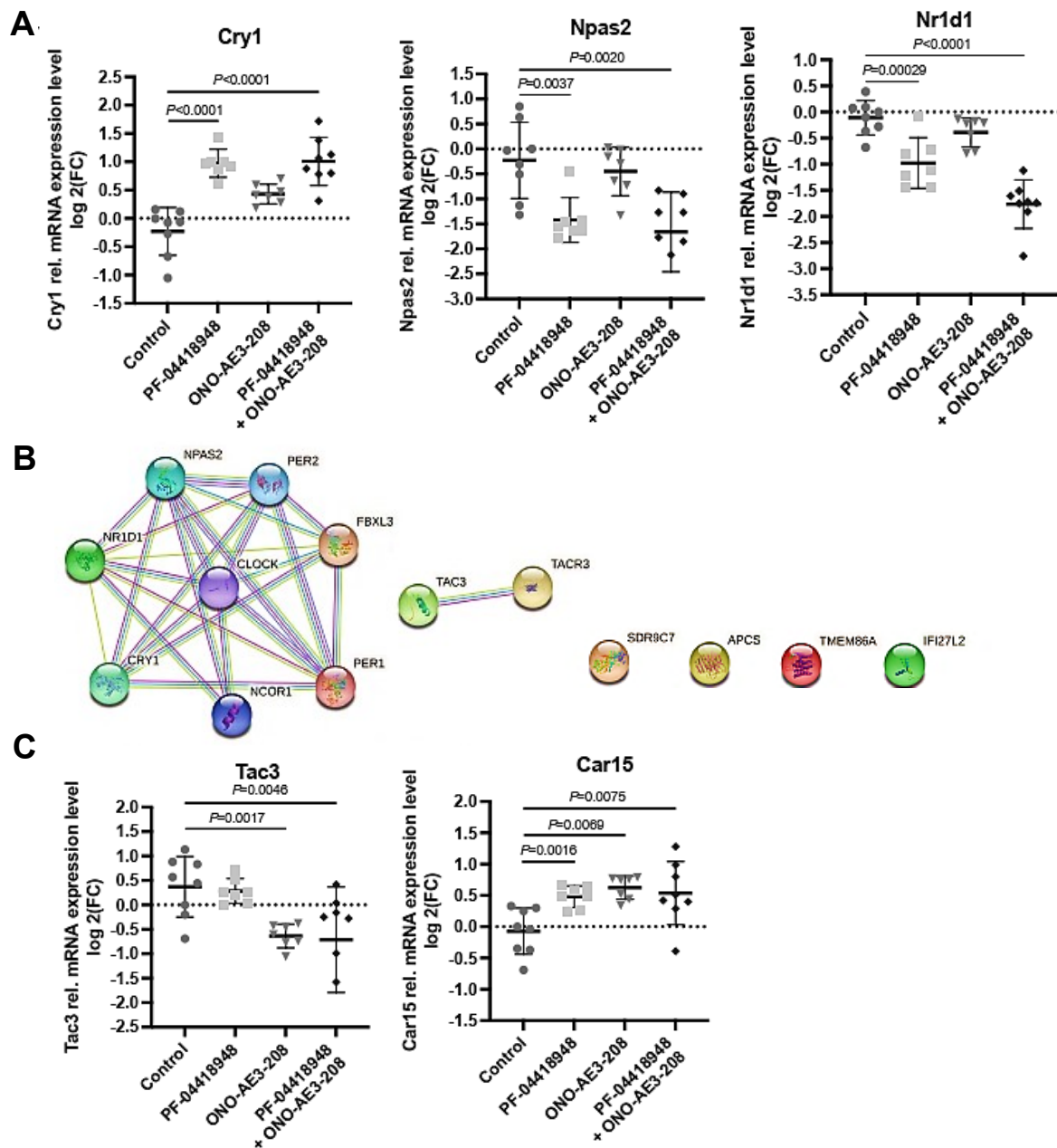


Figure 21. Network and qPCR analysis supporting the involvement of the circadian clock genes.

(A) qPCR analysis showed consistent significant differential expression for three of the main genes responsible of the circadian rhythm regulation, namely *Cry1*, *Npas2* and *Nr1d1*; Gene data were tested for normal distribution using Shapiro-Wilk test (not normally distributed) and were analyzed using Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post-hoc analysis. (B) STRING protein network obtained from the 9 significantly differentially regulated genes (RNA-seq and qPCR confirmation analysis; *Car15* is not included in the network as it was not recognized from the STRING database) derived from the comparison between the MWF control and MWF/EP2+EP4-treated group. *CLOCK*, *PER1/2*, *NCOR1*, *FBXL3* and *TAC3R* appear as STRING predicted functional partners. The network shows known interactions: curated databases (blue), experimentally determined (magenta), text mining (green) and protein homology (purple); high confidence interaction score (0.70). (C) The differential expression of *Car15* and *Tac3* identified by the transcriptome analysis was also confirmed by the qPCR analysis as demonstrated in the present graphs. Data were analyzed by one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post hoc test. The genes presented in the graphs are also annotated in the Volcano plot in Figure 18. In all graphs: rats per group ($n=6-8$, each); data are displayed as mean \pm SD; $P < 0.05$ considered significant. Adapted from reference 63.

Only a small number of significantly (adjusted $P < 0.05$) differentially regulated genes was identified by the transcriptome analysis in MWF/EP2+EP4-treated animals compared to MWF control (Fig. 20, Table 13).

Table 13. List of the 16 significantly differentially regulated genes identified from the transcriptome analysis of the MWF control vs MWF/EP2+EP4-treated rat kidney.

Symbol	Name	log2foldchange	qPCR analysis
<i>Nr1d1</i>	Nuclear receptor subfamily 1, group D, member 1	-1,659077854	+
<i>Cry1</i>	Cryptochrome circadian regulator 1	0,99431141	+
<i>Tmem86a</i>	Transmembrane protein 86A	-1,669995696	+
<i>Dlgap3</i>	DLG associated protein 3	-1,289196191	-
<i>Map3k7</i>	Mitogen activated protein kinase kinase kinase 7	4,975186668	-
<i>Apcs</i>	Amyloid P component, serum	-1,420401151	+
<i>Sfn</i>	Stratifin	-2,191777326	-
<i>Adamts4</i>	ADAM metallopeptidase with thrombospondin type 1 motif, 4	-1,661107855	-
<i>Npas2</i>	Neuronal PAS domain protein 2	-1,063183984	+
<i>Car15</i>	Carbonic anhydrase 15	3,900118665	+
<i>Manf</i>	Mesencephalic astrocyte-derived neurotrophic factor	-1,132092089	-
<i>Cks2</i>	CDC28 protein kinase regulatory subunit 2	-1,123091492	-
<i>Sdr9c7</i>	Short chain dehydrogenase/reductase family 9C, member 7	-1,070641151	+
<i>Ifi2712b</i>	Interferon, alpha-inducible protein 27 like 2B	-1,07962446	+
<i>Tac3</i>	Tachykinin precursor 3	-1,569761	+
<i>Ascl4</i>	Achaete-scute family bHLH transcription factor 4	-1,359300585	No amplification

Symbols in the “qPCR analysis” column indicate either confirmed (+) or not confirmed (-) significantly altered gene expression in MWF/EP2+EP4-treated as compared to untreated MWF control rats. Adapted from reference 63.

Among the differentially expressed genes occurred by the RNA-seq analysis, I detected three of the main regulatory genes of the circadian rhythm including *Cry1*, *Npas2*, and *Nr1d1* (Fig. 20, 21A, B) suggesting a potential clock shift as a result of the combined EP2/EP4 receptors blockade (Fig. 22). In addition, qPCR analysis was used as a second step for the validation of the clock genes together with several selected genes identified by their differential expression in RNA-seq analysis (Fig. 21A, C, Fig. 23, Table 13).

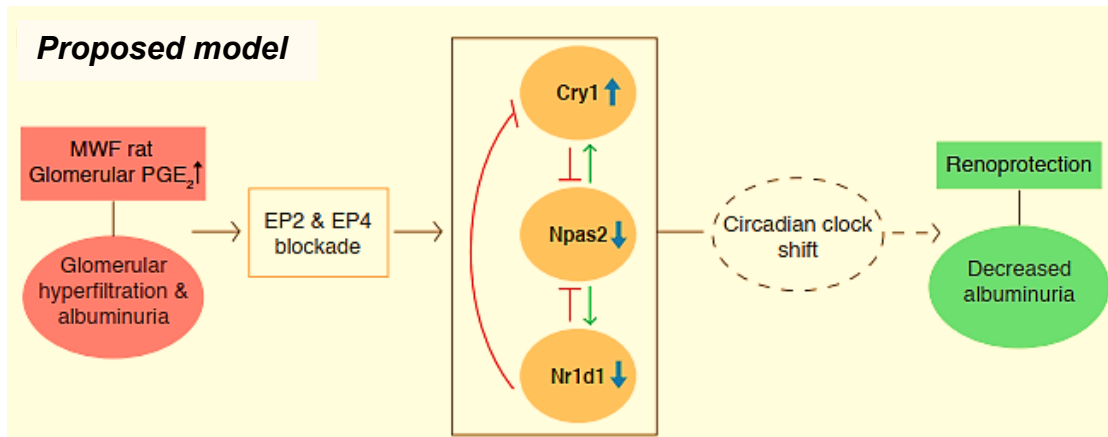


Figure 22. Proposed model arising from the transcriptome analysis. The model suggests a potential circadian clock shift observed in the MWF/EP2+EP4-treated rat compared to the MWF control, supporting the beneficial renoprotective effects of the combined EP2 and EP4 receptors blockade. The dashed ellipse shape and arrow indicate the main speculation suggested here; blue arrows show the up- or down-regulation of the circadian genes that demonstrated significantly differential expression in the transcriptome analysis, while green arrows and red inhibition arcs indicate well-known interactions among the circadian rhythm genes. Adapted from reference 63.

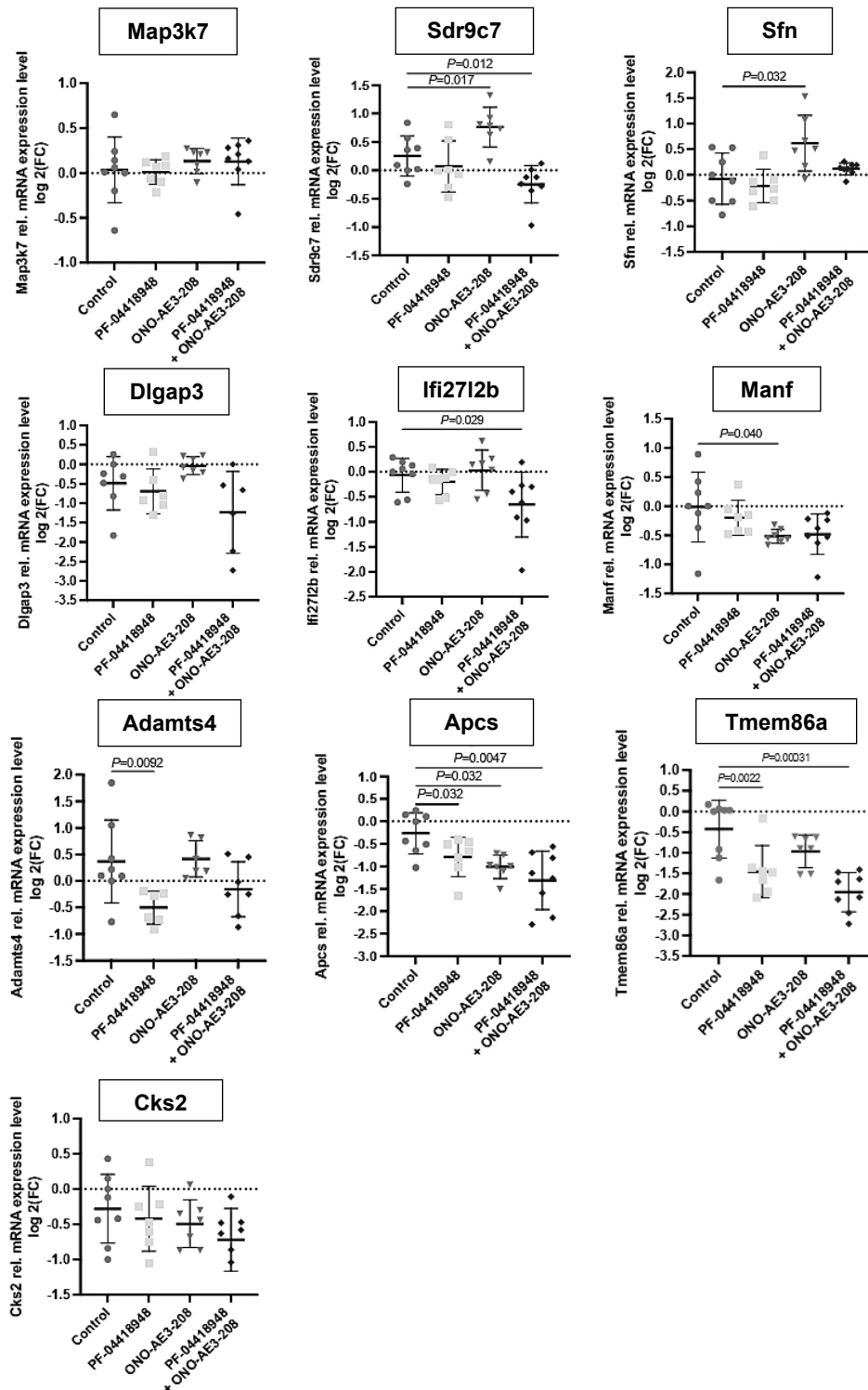


Figure 23. Confirmatory qPCR analysis for the genes identified by RNA-seq analysis in the MWF rat kidney. Relative mRNA expression levels for 10 genes from overall 16 genes identified with significant differential expression in RNA-seq analysis performed in the MWF control MWF/EP2+EP4-treated animals. Adrenoceptor beta 3 (*Adrb3*) showed very low mRNA expression in qPCR analysis, thus excluding a further quantitative analysis. *Ascl4* could not be amplified using the transcript ID ENSRNOT00000044252.3 listed in Ensembl (Ensembl Release 105, Dec 2021). Rats per group ($n=6-8$, each); data are displayed as mean \pm SD; the data were tested for normal distribution using Shapiro-Wilk test; Not normally distributed data were analyzed using Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post-hoc analysis (*Adamts4* and *Tmem86a*), while the rest of the data (normally distributed) was analyzed by one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post hoc analysis; $P<0.05$ considered significant. Adapted from reference 63.

4. Discussion

4.1 Brief summary of the results

In the present thesis, I investigated the role of prostaglandin E₂ catabolic pathway and specifically of the first metabolite synthesized during PGE₂ inactivation, 15-keto-PGE₂, highlighting the implications of both molecules in renal pathophysiology. In parallel, the potential renoprotective effect of the combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors was examined and evaluated *in vivo*, by performing concerted experiments in zebrafish and MWF rat models. In summary, I showed that exogenous exposure of zebrafish embryos to both PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ exerted significant defects on glomerular cytoarchitecture *in vivo*, mainly affecting podocyte intercalation and surface area and therefore GFB integrity at different stages of renal development, namely at 48 hpf and 96 hpf. Furthermore, I performed for the first time, a detailed 3D high-resolution glomerular morphological analysis of the zebrafish embryonic kidney, revealing that the development of the GFB occurs in distinct stages which are dependent on complex cell-cell interactions between endothelial and podocyte cells.

Importantly, both main hypotheses investigated in the framework of the present thesis were confirmed. First, my experiments revealed for the first time the bioactive role of 15-keto-PGE₂ *in vivo* in the kidney and supported its importance in glomerular and podocyte biology. In addition, the experiments performed in both zebrafish and MWF rats confirmed the second hypothesis, as they revealed a significant suppression of albuminuria phenotype after the dual EP2 and EP4 receptors blockade *in vivo*, thus supporting their renoprotective role. Moreover, bulk transcriptome analysis executed in kidney samples of the MWF rat suggested a potential shift of the renal circadian rhythm in response to the pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors.

4.2 Interpretation of the results

PGE₂ pathway has been extensively studied for its role in kidney physiology and disease, with the majority of the studies focusing on the PGE₂ synthesis, highlighting the renal COX/PGE₂ implications^{59,93–96}. However, the importance of PGE₂ degradation and its catabolic products, 15-keto-PGE₂ and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂, in the physiology and/or pathophysiology of the kidney has not been previously investigated. Intriguingly, numerous studies have been conducted to determine the renal implications of 15-hydroprostaglandin dehydrogenase (15-PGDH), the enzyme that catalyzes the

initial step of PGE₂ inactivation and produces 15-keto-PGE₂. 15-PGDH activity has been observed in the kidney of various animal, including the cortex of rabbit kidneys^{97,98}, maternal rat kidney, fetal rat and lamb kidneys⁹⁹. Inhibiting 15-PGDH protects mice from acute kidney injury (AKI)^{100,101}, and acute liposaccharide (LPS)-induced renal injury¹⁰². The present thesis provides evidence for the role of 15-keto-PGE₂ in binding EP2 and EP4 receptor and potentially modulating their signaling. Furthermore, I demonstrated a novel biologically active role of 15-keto-PGE₂ in glomerular morphology and podocyte biology. These results are in agreement with the reported elevated levels of 15-keto-PGE₂ in the isolated glomeruli of the MWF rat⁵⁹ and a recently published study supporting 15-keto-PGE₂ bioactive signaling via these receptors *in vitro*⁴⁹, further supporting a potential role of this metabolite in kidney pathological states.

Given PGE₂ complex significance in the kidney⁹³, I first investigated whether this molecule can in fact induce albuminuria *in vivo* in a non-diabetic model. Therefore, I established a zebrafish model that mimics the pathological state of albuminuria *in vivo*. In addition, the combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors significantly reverted the PGE₂-induced albuminuria phenotype in both zebrafish and MWF rat, a model which demonstrates increased GH with endogenous elevated levels of glomerular PGE₂⁵⁹. These results are compatible with the reported renoprotective effects of EP4 inhibition in diabetes¹⁰³ and in 5/6 nephrectomy renal mass ablation^{104,105}, as well as with recent *in vitro* data showing a synergistic inhibitory effect on COX2/PGE₂ upregulation by dual EP2 and EP4 blockade in response to fluid flow shear stress in human podocytes⁵⁹.

4.3 Embedding the results into the current state of research.

The primary PGE₂ catabolic product, 15-keto-PGE₂ was, until recently, considered to be biologically inactive^{45,47}. In recent years, its potential bioactive role has attracted increased research focus^{50,52,106–108}, while its effects have been reported to be principally mediated through the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR-γ)^{50,52,106}. 15-keto-PGE₂ various functions through PPAR-γ activation, have been reported in fungal pathogenesis⁵⁰, in Kupffer cells¹⁰⁶, in macrophages in mice with experimental sepsis¹⁰⁷, as well as in different types of cancer, such as in the upregulation of p21 promoter activity in hepatocellular carcinoma⁵² and in the suppression of breast cancer¹⁰⁸. The experiments I performed provide a novel role of

15-keto-PGE₂ in renal physiology and enhance the existing knowledge regarding 15-keto-PGE₂ EP2/EP4-mediated implications in glomerular cytoarchitecture and podocyte biology.

As recently demonstrated by employing dual endothelin receptor blockade hypertension treatment¹⁰⁹, simultaneous blockade of G-protein-coupled receptors offers an intriguing therapeutic alternative. In agreement with the latter, the results presented in my thesis reveal a novel renoprotective effect of the combined blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors *in vivo*, in the setting of GH and albuminuria under non-diabetic conditions. In partial agreement, a role of EP2 but not EP4 inhibition has been recently supported as a novel opportunity to delay the progression of hyperfiltration-associated CKD¹¹⁰. Interestingly and in agreement with the data of the present thesis, a highly specific dual EP2 and EP4 antagonist, namely TPST-1495, has been developed and is currently tested in a phase 1 study in patients with solid tumors¹¹¹, demonstrating a more efficient suspension of tumor proliferation and stimulation of anti-cancer immunity, compared to separate EP2/EP4 receptors blockade or even concerted inhibition of all four EP receptors¹¹¹.

4.4 Suggestions for practice and/or future research

In the framework of the present thesis, I showed that 15-keto-PGE₂ exerts an important role on physiological glomerular development and impairs podocyte intercalation around glomerular capillaries, a defect that was reverted by combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors. However, essential questions arise and warrant further investigation: (a) how exactly 15-keto-PGE₂ modulates EP receptors signalling? (b) Does this process involve full receptor activation or (c) does 15-keto-PGE₂ act in dominant negative manner? In the same context, based on the bioactive effects of 15-keto-PGE₂ in glomerular morphology, more studies are required to explore the potential -secondary to PGE₂ effects- role of 15-keto-PGE₂ in renal hemodynamics and glomerular vascularization, as well as in glomerular hypertension. In addition, the impaired podocyte intercalation occurring after exogenous exposure to 15-keto-PGE₂, raises the issue of the potential contribution of this metabolite in the fine-tuning of the complex interactions between podocytes and endothelial cells and therefore proper GFB maturation, as well as its implication in potential alterations of podocyte-endothelial cell interactions under pathological conditions. Furthermore, the opposite effect that 15-keto-PGE₂ causes to the podocyte surface area, compared to PGE₂, suggests a

potential altered downstream signaling process of the metabolite, however, this needs to be further investigated.

The renoprotective role of the combined EP2 and EP4 receptors blockade was studied here under non-diabetic conditions. Thus, it would be important to investigate, whether the positive effects of dual EP2 and EP4 blocking could be replicated in analogous GH-based experimental settings in diabetes. Moreover, it is yet to be elucidated, how receptor modulation in podocytes and the kidney, as well as downstream signaling and mechanisms, contribute to the positive effects of combined EP2 and EP4 blockade. Lastly, the circadian rhythm shift hypothesis emerged from the transcriptome analysis of the MWF rat kidney underlines the importance of focusing on the circadian clock genes regulation in different cell types of the kidney, including podocytes. The establishment and utilization of transgenic zebrafish or rat lines targeting cell-specific circadian genes in the kidney would improve the current state of knowledge.

5. Conclusions

In the present thesis, I investigated the role of PGE₂/15-keto-PGE₂/EP2/EP4 axis in the glomerular cytoarchitecture, podocyte biology and GFB integrity, as well as in the setting of glomerular hyperfiltration and albuminuria *in vivo*. I showed that both PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ affect the glomerular development and podocyte intercalation around the glomerular capillaries and therefore the podocyte surface area in the zebrafish embryonic kidney. I have shown here that both PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ bind EP2 and EP4 receptors *in vitro*, and importantly, the combined pharmacological blockade of these receptors reversed the glomerular morphological defects resulted from the exogenous prostaglandin exposure.

I have established a zebrafish model that mimics *in vivo* the pathological state of albuminuria. Concerted experiments in both zebrafish and MWF rat models demonstrated significant suppression of albuminuria phenotype under non-diabetic conditions by combined EP2 and EP4 receptors blockade, highlighting a novel renoprotective role *in vivo* and supporting the dual blockade of EP receptors as an important therapeutic target. The combined EP receptors blockade caused only marginal changes in the transcriptome analysis of the MWF rat kidney, however, aroused an interesting hypothesis suggesting a shift of the circadian clock after the pharmacological blockade, indicating the potential involvement of the circadian rhythm genes in the albuminuria suppression.

The work presented here, boosts and extends the current state of knowledge, regarding the biologically active role of 15-keto-PGE₂ in renal biology and supports a novel renoprotective effect of combined EP receptors blockade in kidney pathophysiology. In addition, raises new issues paving the way for future research in this area.

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Statutory Declaration

“I, Aikaterini Kourpa, by personally signing this document in lieu of an oath, hereby affirm that I prepared the submitted dissertation on the topic **“Investigating the role of PGE₂/15-keto-PGE₂/EP2/EP4 axis in kidney biology and disease” / “Untersuchung der Rolle der PGE₂/15-keto-PGE₂/EP2/EP4-Achse in der Nierenbiologie und bei Nierenerkrankungen”**, independently and without the support of third parties, and that I used no other sources and aids than those stated.

All parts which are based on the publications or presentations of other authors, either in letter or in spirit, are specified as such in accordance with the citing guidelines. The sections on methodology (in particular regarding practical work, laboratory regulations, statistical processing) and results (in particular regarding figures, charts and tables) are exclusively my responsibility.

Furthermore, I declare that I have correctly marked all of the data, the analyses, and the conclusions generated from data obtained in collaboration with other persons, and that I have correctly marked my own contribution and the contributions of other persons (cf. declaration of contribution). I have correctly marked all texts or parts of texts that were generated in collaboration with other persons.

My contributions to any publications to this dissertation correspond to those stated in the below joint declaration made together with the supervisor. All publications created within the scope of the dissertation comply with the guidelines of the ICMJE (International Committee of Medical Journal Editors; <http://www.icmje.org>) on authorship. In addition, I declare that I shall comply with the regulations of Charité – Universitätsmedizin Berlin on ensuring good scientific practice.

I declare that I have not yet submitted this dissertation in identical or similar form to another Faculty.

The significance of this statutory declaration and the consequences of a false statutory declaration under criminal law (Sections 156, 161 of the German Criminal Code) are known to me.”

Date

Signature

Declaration of my own contribution to the publications

I, Aikaterini Kourpa, contributed the following to the below listed publications:

Publication 1:

Kourpa, Aikaterini; Kaiser-Graf, Debora; Sporbert, Anje; Philippe, Aurélie; Catar, Rusan; Rothe, Michael; Mangelsen, Eva; Schulz, Angela; Bolbrinker, Juliane; Kreutz, Reinhold; Panáková, Daniela**. **15-keto-Prostaglandin E₂ exhibits bioactive role by modulating glomerular cytoarchitecture through EP2/EP4 receptors.** *Life Sciences* 2022; 310:121114. doi: 10.1016/j.lfs.2022.121114.

**correspondence

Contribution: I performed all the experiments and data analysis in the zebrafish model (transgenic lines *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* and *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]*:

- Zebrafish breeding and husbandry.
- Drug treatments (15-keto-PGE₂, EP2 and EP4 antagonist, DMSO) in early (48 hpf) and late developmental (96 hpf) embryonic stages.
- Injection of anesthetized embryos with BSA-AlexaFluor555 conjugate.
- Preparation of samples for lipidomic analysis.
- I established the confocal microscopy imaging parameters of the zebrafish kidney in collaboration with Dr. Anje Sporbert (Max-Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine, ALM facility) and prepared the samples for final imaging.
- Brightfield, fluorescence and confocal microscopy imaging.
- Phenotypic assessment and quantification.
- I performed the imaging analysis (ImageJ/Fiji, Huygens) and 3D glomerular reconstruction (Imaris). I established the process in collaboration with Dr. Anje Sporbert (Max-Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine, ALM facility).

I created all the figures included in the publication. I performed the statistical analysis and generated the graphs of Figures 2, 3, 6 and supplemental Figure 1 of the original publication. I wrote the original draft and revised version of the manuscript; and addressed reviewers' questions during the revision process.

Figure 1 panels b, c, d were created by Debora Kaiser-Graf (co-author), who performed the experiments in the yeast model.

Publication 2:

Kourpa, Aikaterini*; Schulz, Angela*; Mangelsen, Eva; Kaiser-Graf, Debora; Koppers, Nils; Stoll, Monika; Rothe, Michael; Bader, Michael; Purfürst, Bettina; Kunz, Severine;

Gladytz, Thomas; Niendorf, Thoralf; Bachmann, Sebastian; Mutig, Kerim; Bolbrinker, Juliane; Panáková, Daniela; Kreutz, Reinhold**. **Studies in Zebrafish and Rat Models Support Dual Blockade of EP2 and EP4 (Prostaglandin E₂ Receptors Type 2 and 4) for Renoprotection in Glomerular Hyperfiltration and Albuminuria.** *Hypertension* 2023;80:771-782. doi:10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.122.20392.

*Authors contributed equally

**correspondence

Contribution: I performed all the experiments and data analysis in the zebrafish model (transgenic lines *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* and *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]*):

- Zebrafish breeding and husbandry.
- Drug treatments (dmPGE₂, EP2 and EP4 antagonist, DMSO) at late developmental (96 hpf) embryonic stages.
- Injection of anesthetized embryos with BSA-AlexaFluor555 conjugate.
- Preparation of samples for lipidomic analysis.
- Preparation of samples for confocal microscopy.
- Brightfield, fluorescence and confocal microscopy imaging.
- Phenotypic assessment and quantification.
- Mounting of embryos and cryo-sectioning and performing the immunofluorescence *in situ* hybridization (RNAscope).
- Imaging analysis (ImageJ/Fiji, Huygens) and 3D glomerular reconstruction (Imaris).
- Cutting of semi-thin sections of zebrafish embryos at 96 hpf for electron microscopy. I established the methodology for EM imaging of zebrafish embryonic kidney in collaboration with Dr. Bettina Purfürst and Dr. Severine Kunz (Max-Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine, EM facility, Berlin Germany)

I performed the quantification of podocyte foot process width and number of slit diaphragms per μm of the GBM in both zebrafish embryos and MWF rats. The electron microscopy imaging of the MWF rats glomeruli was performed in collaboration with Prof. Sebastian Bachmann (Institute of Vegetative Anatomy, Charité–Universitätsmedizin Berlin)

Furthermore, I performed the full STRING protein network analysis of the differentially regulated genes and introduced the circadian clock shift hypothesis presented in Figure 6.

I performed the statistical analysis and generated the graphs of Figures 2 and 4 and supplemental Figure 1 and 7 of the original publication. In addition, I created the final versions of all the figures (main and supplement), the graphical abstract and supplemental Table 2.

I participated in the writing of the original draft of the manuscript, the revised version of the manuscript, and addressed reviewers' questions during the revision process.

Breeding and experimentation on the rats as well as qPCR analysis and rat sample preparation were performed by Dr.rer.med. Angela Schulz (Institute of Clinical Pharmacology and Toxicology, Charité–Universitätsmedizin Berlin). RNA-sequencing was performed in collaboration with Nils Koppers and Prof. Monika Stoll (Genetic Epidemiology, Institute for Human Genetics, Westfälische Wilhelms University, Münster, Germany). MRI analysis on the MWF rats was performed in collaboration with Dr. Thomas Gladysz and Prof. Thoralf Niendorf (Max-Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine, Berlin, Germany).

Publication 3:

Mangelsen, Eva.; Rothe, Michael.; Schulz, Angela.; Kourpa, Aikaterini.; Panáková, Daniela.; Kreutz, Reinhold.; Bolbrinker, Juliane**. **Concerted EP2 and EP4 Receptor Signaling Stimulates Autocrine Prostaglandin E2 Activation in Human Podocytes.** *Cells* 2020, 9:1256. doi: 10.3390/cells9051256.

**correspondence

Contribution: My contribution to this publication was the theoretical investigation and the literature review of the effect of COX2/PGE₂ pathway on podocytes injury. I contributed to the experimental design, and the discussion and interpretation of the experimental results.

Signature, date and stamp of first supervising university professor / lecturer

Signature of doctoral candidate

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7	INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF ANTIMICROBIAL AGENTS	21,098	15.441	0.02309
8	Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica B	9,420	14.903	0.00922
9	Journal of Pharmaceutical Analysis	3,869	14.026	0.00404
10	PHARMACOLOGY & THERAPEUTICS	23,869	13.400	0.01921
11	MEDICINAL RESEARCH REVIEWS	7,973	12.388	0.00665
12	JOURNAL OF CONTROLLED RELEASE	67,680	11.467	0.03824
13	DRUGS	18,328	11.431	0.01713
14	European Heart Journal-Cardiovascular Pharmacotherapy	1,529	11.177	0.00282
15	PHARMACOLOGICAL RESEARCH	26,468	10.334	0.02692
16	ANTIVIRAL RESEARCH	17,486	10.103	0.01806
17	ALIMENTARY PHARMACOLOGY & THERAPEUTICS	27,559	9.524	0.03078
18	BRITISH JOURNAL OF PHARMACOLOGY	46,366	9.473	0.02492
19	Asian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences	3,744	9.273	0.00288
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30	CNS Neuroscience & Therapeutics	6,186	7.035	0.00600
31	International Journal of Nanomedicine	39,405	7.033	0.02657
32	DRUG METABOLISM REVIEWS	3,548	6.984	0.00162
33	CLINICAL PHARMACOLOGY & THERAPEUTICS	21,749	6.903	0.01987
34	DRUG DELIVERY	10,117	6.819	0.00867
35	EXPERT OPINION ON THERAPEUTIC TARGETS	6,787	6.797	0.00562
36	LIFE SCIENCES	42,960	6.780	0.03208
37	EXPERT OPINION ON THERAPEUTIC PATENTS	4,626	6.714	0.00389
38	PHYTOMEDICINE	18,290	6.656	0.00959
39	Pharmaceutics	19,762	6.525	0.01881
40	INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF PHARMACEUTICS	67,742	6.510	0.03053
41	EXPERT OPINION ON INVESTIGATIONAL DRUGS	6,588	6.498	0.00566
42	CNS DRUGS	6,627	6.497	0.00642
43	PHYTOTHERAPY RESEARCH	22,172	6.388	0.00999
44	PHARMACOTHERAPY	8,339	6.251	0.00772

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1.Kourpa, Aikaterini; Kaiser-Graf, Debora; Sporbert, Anje; Philippe, Aurélie; Catar, Rusan; Rothe, Michael; Mangelsen, Eva; Schulz, Angela; Bolbrinker, Juliane; Kreutz, Reinhold; Panáková, Daniela. **15-keto-Prostaglandin E₂ exhibits bioactive role by modulating glomerular cytoarchitecture through EP2/EP4 receptors.** *Life Sciences* 2022;310:121114. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lfs.2022.121114>.

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15-keto-Prostaglandin E₂ exhibits bioactive role by modulating glomerular cytoarchitecture through EP2/EP4 receptors

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ABSTRACT

Aims: Prostaglandins are important signaling lipids with prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) known to be the most abundant prostaglandin across tissues. In kidney, PGE₂ plays an important role in the regulation of kidney homeostasis through its EP receptor signaling. Catabolism of PGE₂ yields the metabolic products that are widely considered biologically inactive. Although recent *in vitro* evidence suggested the ability of 15-keto-PGE₂ (a downstream metabolite of PGE₂) to activate EP receptors, the question whether 15-keto-PGE₂ exhibits physiological roles remains unresolved.

Materials and methods: Pharmacological treatment was performed in transgenic zebrafish embryos using 500 μM 15-keto-PGE₂ and 20 μM EP receptors antagonists' solutions during zebrafish embryonic development. After the exposure period, the embryos were fixed for confocal microscopy imaging and glomerular morphology analysis. **Key findings:** Here, we show that 15-keto-PGE₂ can bind and stabilize EP2 and EP4 receptors on the plasma membrane in the yeast model. Using lipidomic analysis, we demonstrate both PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ are present at considerable levels in zebrafish embryos. Our high-resolution image analysis reveals the exogenous treatment with 15-keto-PGE₂ perturbs glomerular vascularization during zebrafish development. Specifically, we show that the increased levels of 15-keto-PGE₂ cause intercalation defects between podocytes and endothelial cells of glomerular capillaries effectively reducing the surface area of glomerular filtration barrier. Importantly, 15-keto-PGE₂-dependent defects can be fully reversed by combined blockade of the EP2 and EP4 receptors.

Significance: Altogether, our results reveal 15-keto-PGE₂ to be a biologically active metabolite that modulates the EP receptor signaling *in vivo*, thus playing a potential role in kidney biology.

1. Introduction

The human kidney consists of about a million of nephrons that comprise the basic structural and functional unit of the kidney [1–3]. Each nephron contains a glomerulus, the main blood filtration apparatus, a system of proximal and distal tubules, the loop of Henle, as well as the collecting duct, which are responsible for the nutrients, water and ions reabsorption, the maintenance of the normal fluid flow, and the

concentration and excretion of the urine [1,3,4]. The glomerulus contains various specialized cells responsible for forming the capillaries network and the glomerular filtration barrier (GFB), the principal blood filtration system. The GFB consists of podocytes, the glomerular basement membrane (GBM) and the fenestrated endothelium [5,6]. In physiological conditions the GFB demonstrates relative impermeability to proteins with molecular weight above 70 kDa and other macromolecules, therefore prevents the excretion of blood cells and large proteins

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into the urine [7]. Upon damage of the GFB, its permeability to the molecules of increasing size is affected resulting in the presence of molecules like albumin or larger in the urine, a pathological condition known as albuminuria [7,8].

Despite the distinct differences between fish and mammals in the formation and/or function of kidney arising most notably from the diverse living environment i.e. terrestrial versus aquatic, the human nephron shares a similar segmentation pattern with the zebrafish embryonic kidney (pronephros) [9] thus rendering the latter as an important model for studying kidney development and physiology as well as various forms of renal diseases [10–13]. The developing zebrafish pronephros consists of two nephrons with bilateral glomeruli, kidney tubules and a collecting duct [11,14]. In zebrafish, the onset of glomerular filtration takes place at 48 hours post fertilization (hpf), while the glomerular capillarization and the formation of the GFB is completed by 72 hpf [9,14,15].

Prostaglandins (PG) including PGE₂, PGF_{2α} and PGD₂, are important active lipid mediators synthesized from arachidonic acid (AA) with the participation of cyclooxygenases 1 and 2 (COX1, COX2) and specialized prostaglandin synthases [16,17]. They have been found in almost every tissue in humans as well as other vertebrates. Several reports highlight

their crucial role in both physiological and pathological conditions including inflammatory response, cancer, homeostasis regulation, hematopoiesis, and kidney physiology [18–25]. Among them, prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) is the most abundant prostaglandin in various organs including the kidney, where the role of PGE₂ has been extensively studied in the past years [17,25,26]. PGE₂ contributes to the normal renal physiology as well as pathogenic mechanisms underlying the initiation and progression of chronic kidney disease (CKD) [17,27].

PGE₂ acts through its four G-protein-coupled prostaglandin receptors (EP): EP1, EP2, EP3 and EP4 [28,29]. Recently, we showed that combined EP2 and EP4 signaling is important for autocrine PGE₂ activation in human podocytes [30]. Thus, these receptors could be important targets for the development of therapeutic strategies against multiple renal complications ascribed to prostaglandin signaling [17,25–27,31]. The catabolism of PGE₂ involves two steps [32] (Fig. 1a). The first and also rate-limiting step is catalyzed by 15-prostaglandin dehydrogenase (15-PGDH) and results in the synthesis of 15-keto-PGE₂ [32]. The enzyme that catalyzes the second step of the complete PGE₂ inactivation is prostaglandin reductase (PTGR or Δ^{13} -PG-Reductase) and yields 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ [32,33]. Until recently, these catabolic products, 15-keto-PGE₂ and 13,14-dihydro-15-

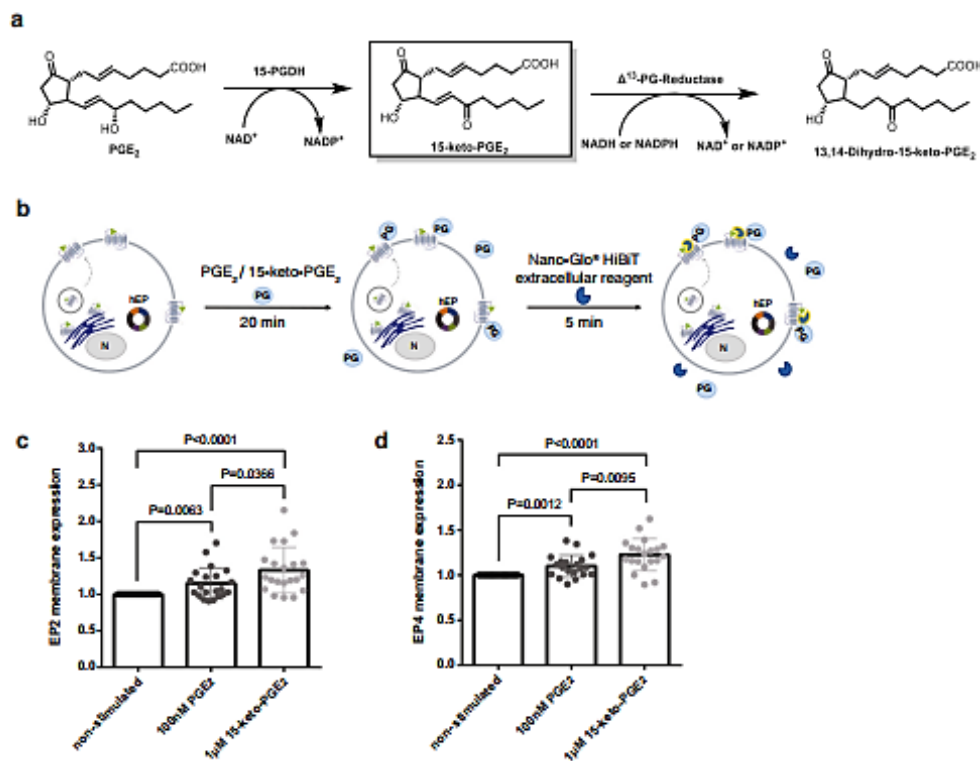


Fig. 1. 15-keto-PGE₂ binds EP receptors *in vitro*. (a) PGE₂ degradation pathway highlighting the first synthesized metabolic product, 15-keto-PGE₂. (b) Schematic of the experimental assay to measure receptor membrane expression using the Nano-Glo® HIBIT Extracellular Detection System. The HIBIT-tagged receptor is synthesized, processed and released from the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and transported by secretory vesicles to the cell membrane. Yeast expressing HIBIT-tagged hEP2 or HIBIT-tagged hEP4 receptors on the membrane were stimulated with either 100 nM PGE₂, 1 μ M 15-keto-PGE₂ or equal volume of medium for non-stimulated controls for 20 min to allow ligand binding. Adding of Nano-Glo® HIBIT Extracellular Reagent (containing Buffer, substrate and LgBIT protein) generated luminescence by structural complementation of LgBIT proteins with extra-cellular displayed HIBIT-tags, and thus allowing quantification of the number of receptors in the membrane; N represents cell nucleus. Quantification graphs of the (c) HIBIT-tagged hEP2 and (d) HIBIT-tagged hEP4 receptors cell membrane expression after 20 min stimulation with PGE₂ (dark grey) and 15-keto-PGE₂ (light grey). Wilcoxon test and Mann-Whitney tests were performed. Values are plotted as mean \pm SD; $P < 0.05$ considered significant.

keto-PGE₂, were widely considered as biologically inactive [32,34]. Latest *in vitro* studies have, however, suggested that 15-keto-PGE₂ can activate the production of cAMP via EP receptors [35], and may act as a partial agonist of EP2, taking over the signaling roles of PGE₂ [36]. In addition, new evidence indicates 15-keto-PGE₂ is able to stimulate peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR-γ) in various models [37–39]. Importantly, the physiological importance of the PGE₂ metabolites, and specifically, 15-keto-PGE₂ in the kidney biology and its potential to activate EP receptors *in vivo* remains unresolved.

Here, we use the yeast model expressing human EP2 (hEP2) and EP4 (hEP4) receptors and the developing zebrafish kidney to examine the signaling potential of 15-keto-PGE₂. We investigate whether 15-keto-PGE₂ is capable of stimulating the EP receptors *in vivo* and further elucidate the potential role of prostaglandin catabolic pathway in kidney biology with the focus on GFB formation and function.

2. Results

2.1. 15-keto-PGE₂ binds EP2 and EP4 receptors *in vitro*

Although recent *in vitro* studies demonstrated 15-keto-PGE₂, the metabolic product synthesized during the PGE₂ inactivation (Fig. 1a), is able to stimulate G-protein-coupled EP receptors [35,36], its prospective signaling role is not fully resolved. To better understand the interaction between 15-keto-PGE₂ and the EP receptors, we used the NanoGlo® HiBiT extracellular detection system (see Material and methods for details) applied in the yeast model, in which the single GPCR of the yeast (MMY28 strain) [40] was replaced upon transformation to express individually HiBiT-tagged human EP2 (hEP2) and EP4 (hEP4) receptors (Fig. 1b). This system allowed us to quantify the relative membrane expression of hEP2 and hEP4 receptors before and after prostaglandin

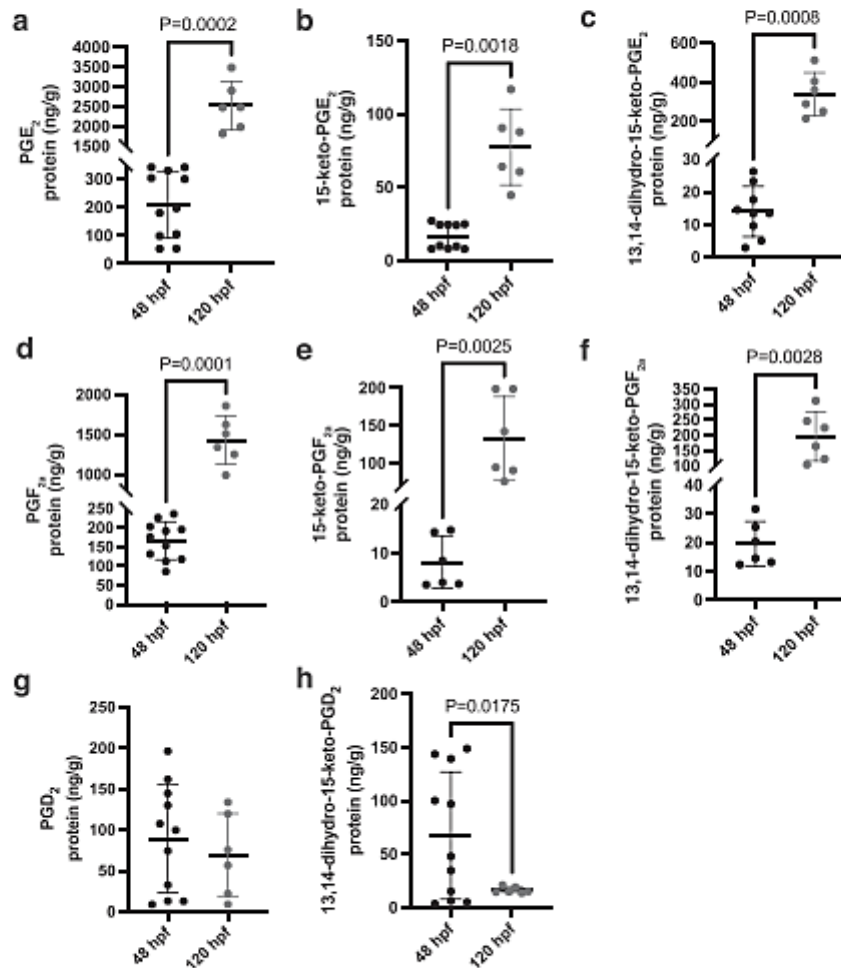


Fig. 2. Prostaglandin lipidomic profiles of developing zebrafish embryos. (a–h) Lipidomic analysis of whole zebrafish embryos at two different developmental stages (48 hpf and 120 hpf) showing the levels of the main prostaglandins and their metabolites: (a) PGE₂ ($P = 0.0002$), (b) 15-keto-PGE₂ ($P = 0.0018$), (c) 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ ($P = 0.0008$), (d) PGF_{2α} ($P = 0.0001$), (e) 15-keto-PGF_{2α} ($P = 0.0025$), (f) 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGF_{2α} ($P = 0.0028$), (g) PGD₂ ($P = 0.5006$) and (h) 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGD₂ ($P = 0.0175$). For 48 hpf $N = 11$, $n = 275$ (less points in some of the graphs indicate missing values due to non-detectable levels). For 120 hpf: $N = 6$, $n = 150$. For all graphs, two-tailed unpaired *t*-test with Welch's correction was performed. Values are plotted as mean ± SD; $P < 0.05$ considered significant.

ligand stimulation (Fig. 1b). We incubated the transformed yeast cells with 100 nM PGE₂ or 1 μM 15-keto-PGE₂ for 20 min (Fig. 1c, d). For both hEP2 and hEP4, receptor count on the membrane was significantly increased after the stimulation with PGE₂ as well as with 15-keto-PGE₂ as compared to non-stimulated (absence of ligand) control condition (Fig. 1c, d). These observations suggest that apart from the well-established role of PGE₂ in activation of both EP2 and EP4 receptors [28,30,41–44], 15-keto-PGE₂ has also a potential of binding both EP2 and EP4 receptors and is able to stabilize their membrane localization.

In summary, our *in vitro* experiments indicate 15-keto-PGE₂ is able to bind both EP2 and EP4 receptors in agreement with other data [36]. Although 15-keto-PGE₂ has been shown to activate the production of cAMP via EP receptors [35], its downstream steps of receptor activation and signaling require further biochemical investigations. Whether 15-keto-PGE₂ has the bioactive potential to modulate the EP signaling *in vivo* needs to be elucidated.

2.2. PGE₂ is the most abundant prostaglandin during zebrafish embryonic development

To investigate the physiological role of 15-keto-PGE₂ *in vivo*, we used the zebrafish model having several advantageous attributes when it comes to testing the biological effects of small molecules and metabolites. First, we set out to determine what were the levels of 15-keto-PGE₂ in developing zebrafish embryos using the whole embryo lipidomic analysis. It is important to note that throughout the first developmental stages, i.e. until around 120 hpf, zebrafish embryo's nutrition depends on the yolk content [45]. Due to this dependency, metabolites and nutrients are not affected by exogenous factors like food intake, rendering the whole embryo lipidomic analysis reliable and fairly accurate [46].

We used the non-targeted metabolomic method based on liquid chromatography electrospray ionization tandem mass spectrometry (LC/ESI-MS/MS) to analyze the total prostaglandin metabolic pathway in the zebrafish embryos at two time points: 48 and 120 hpf, prior to and after the GFB formation, respectively (Fig. 2a–h). We determined the presence of all main prostaglandins, namely PGE₂, PGF_{2α} and PGD₂ as well as their catabolic products in the wild-type zebrafish whole embryo extracts (Fig. 2a–h). PGE₂ appeared to be the most abundant prostaglandin in both developmental stages (Fig. 2a). Markedly, the mean levels of PGE₂ and PGF_{2α} at 120 hpf (2522.13 ng/g and 1427.59 ng/g, respectively) were approximately by one order of magnitude higher

compared to 48 hpf (209.36 ng/g and 165.98 ng/g, respectively) (Fig. 2a, d), while the levels of PGD₂ remained constant (Fig. 2g). Compared to PGE₂, its metabolite 15-keto-PGE₂ was also present but at approximately 10-fold lower levels than PGE₂, with the mean levels of 16.82 ng/g and 77.37 ng/g at 48 hpf and 120 hpf, respectively (Fig. 2b). 15-keto-PGE₂ showed higher levels compared to 15-keto-PGF_{2α} metabolite at 48 hpf, while both metabolites were present at similar levels at 120 hpf (Fig. 2b, e). The downstream metabolites of 15-keto-PG, i.e. 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PG followed similar pattern (Fig. 2c, f, h).

Our data provide the quantitative analysis of the prostaglandin pathway during zebrafish development. We showed PGE₂ is the main prostaglandin present in the zebrafish embryos consistent with other animal models and humans [47–50]. Its metabolite, 15-keto-PGE₂ is also relatively highly abundant underscoring its potential role in organismal physiology.

2.3. 15-keto-PGE₂ exposure results in kidney morphological changes

Since PGE₂ has been reported to regulate the kidney development in zebrafish [44,51–53], we opted for investigating the potential biological role of 15-keto-PGE₂ in the kidney formation in this model. We followed a pharmacological approach similar to drug screenings that have previously established prostaglandin effects in the kidney morphogenesis [44]. Embryos were exposed to the DMSO vehicle and 15-keto-PGE₂ (500 μM) prior to the formation of GFB, from 6 hpf to 48 hpf (Fig. 3a).

We used the transgenic line *Tg(wt1b:eGFP)*, in which the parietal epithelium and podocytes of the glomeruli are labeled with GFP fluorescence, to perform phenotypic assessment of the embryo development as well as kidney formation by the combination of brightfield and fluorescence microscopy (Fig. 3b). Apart from the mild fluid accumulation (edema) observed in the yolk area at 48 hpf, no other major phenotypic defects were detected in the embryos after early treatment with 15-keto-PGE₂ (Fig. 3b). Importantly, cardiac development and function including blood circulation did not show any impairment, suggesting no major changes in the overall hemodynamics. However, the pronephros morphology was significantly affected and associated with the impaired glomerular development and defects in the pronephric tubules angle (Fig. 3b, c).

The observed defects in the kidney morphogenesis after 15-keto-PGE₂ exposure suggest, this metabolite may play a potential role in kidney biology. Of note, other organs including liver may be affected as

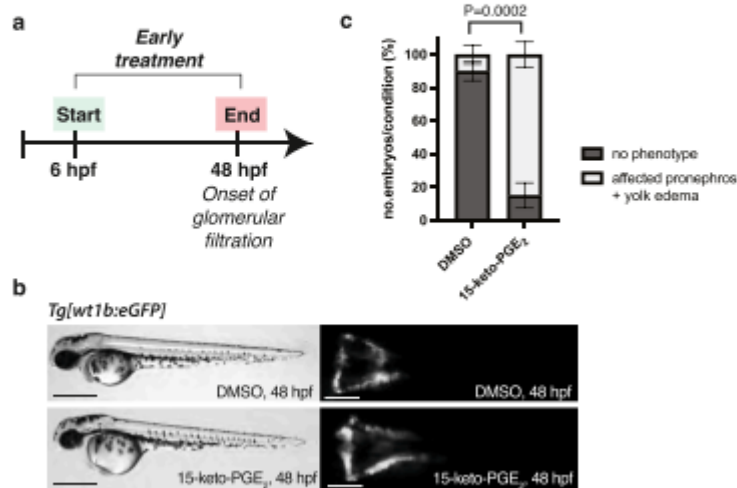


Fig. 3. Zebrafish pronephros is affected after early treatment with 15-keto-PGE₂. (a) Experimental design of the early pharmacological treatment, starting from 6 hpf until 48 hpf. (b) Brightfield and fluorescence microscopy images of *Tg(wt1b:eGFP)* embryos at 48 hpf, following pharmacological treatments with DMSO vehicle 0.88 % (upper panel) and 15-keto-PGE₂ 500 μM (lower panel). Scale bar: 500 μm for brightfield images and 200 μm for fluorescent images. (c) Phenotypic quantitative analysis of zebrafish embryos at 48 hpf. Embryos are categorized as “no phenotype” (pronephros morphology remains unaffected after DMSO treatment) or “affected pronephros + yolk edema” (kidney phenotype observed after exposure to 15-keto-PGE₂); $N = 3$, $n = 30$ for both conditions; Percentage values are plotted as mean \pm SD; n represents biologically independent samples over N independent experiments; Ordinary two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test ($P = 0.0002$); $P < 0.05$ considered significant.

well, but were not focus of this study.

2.4. Development and vascularization of glomerulus in the zebrafish embryonic kidney

To better understand the morphological changes in the glomerulus after the 15-keto-PGE₂ exposure, we decided to resolve the glomerular cytoarchitecture at the subcellular resolution using 3D confocal laser scanning microscopy. Glomerular morphology alters to a great extent during early kidney development, but its detailed visualization in the developing zebrafish is sparse [14,54–58]. We therefore first analyzed the critical steps in glomerular formation in *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* in more detail (Fig. 4). In addition to the labeled podocytes and parietal epithelial cells in these transgenics, we performed the angiography using bovine serum albumin (BSA) conjugated with AlexaFluor555 to mark the endothelial cells of glomerular capillaries as previously described [59]. We visualized glomeruli development and its vascularization throughout five different stages; at 30, 48, 52, 72, 120 hpf. At 30 hpf, in nephron primordia stage (the most immature stage of the nephrons) the glomeruli appear as an unvascularized group of cells directly abutting the dorsal aorta in the midline of the embryo (Fig. 4, 30 hpf). At 48 hpf, endothelial cells start invading the space between the bilateral nephron primordia, forcing the invagination of the podocytes resulting in the formation of the glomerular cleft (Fig. 4, 48 hpf). A few hours later, at 52 hpf, the progressive invasion of endothelial cells drives the elaborated intercalation of podocytes around the continuously growing glomerular capillaries (Fig. 4, 52 hpf). At 72 hpf, the podocytes form finger-like projections interwoven with forming capillaries (Fig. 4, 72 hpf), resembling interlaced fingers of clasped hands. At this stage the formation of GFB is complete in zebrafish [14]. Between 72 and 120 hpf, the process of the complex infoldings between the endothelial cells and podocytes continues (Fig. 4, 120 hpf). Ultimately, the progressive infoldings of the GBM driven by cell-cell interactions between endothelial cells and podocytes lead to the complete maturation of the glomeruli along with the functional filtration apparatus.

Our detailed morphological analysis suggests the formation and the maturation of the GFB follow distinct steps that depend on the intricate cell-cell interaction between podocytes and endothelial cells throughout the entire process.

2.5. 15-keto-PGE₂ perturbs the proper GFB formation and maturation in zebrafish

The increased fluid flow shear stress in the glomeruli that arises for instance after unilateral nephrectomy [60], may result in elevated levels of PGE₂ linked to the podocyte damage and potential albuminuria [61,62]. Interestingly, the increased levels of PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ were also measured in a well-established Munich Wistar Frömter (MWF) rat model of CKD with glomerular hyperfiltration and albuminuria [30], but whether 15-keto-PGE₂ may contribute to the renal pathological phenotype is unresolved. Our results showing that the early treatment with 15-keto-PGE₂ led to possible alterations in glomerular structure (Fig. 3), prompted us to analyze the potential defects in glomerular cytoarchitecture using high-resolution confocal microscopy at the subcellular level (Fig. 5). The early treatment with 15-keto-PGE₂ caused defects in the invasion of endothelial cells as well as podocyte intercalation resulting in the absence of the proper glomerular cleft formation at 48 hpf (Fig. 5a, b). We were then curious whether any changes in glomerular cytoarchitecture could occur after the late treatment with 15-keto-PGE₂ from 72 hpf to 96 hpf, i.e. after the formation of GFB (Supplementary Fig. S1a, Fig. 5c, d). First, the late 15-keto-PGE₂ treatment resulted in the defects of the body axis, the absence of the swim bladder formation, and the expansion of the liver in the embryos at 96 hpf (Supplementary Fig. S1a, b). In the glomerulus, the late exposure to the 15-keto-PGE₂ metabolite had a profound impact on its maturation causing similar effects as after the early treatment; the podocyte

intercalation around the glomerular capillaries was markedly impaired with the characteristic clustering of podocytes in the embryo midline (Fig. 5c, d).

Could these cellular defects result in the impairment of the GFB function? To that end, we used a GFP-tagged albumin surrogate (gc-EGFP) expressed in the transgenic line *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]* and circulating in the blood plasma [63]. This model has been widely used to evaluate the GFB integrity and function in zebrafish, since in the case of the GFB damage, the albumin surrogate leaks through the GFB, resulting in the loss of GFP fluorescence in the vasculature [53,63]. We did not observe any significant GFB permeability defects at 96 hpf as the GFP signal was comparable between the control and 15-keto-PGE₂-treated embryos (Supplementary Fig. S1b, c).

Our results demonstrate that 15-keto-PGE₂ can profoundly affect the interaction between podocytes and endothelial cells throughout the glomeruli formation, at the initial stage of glomerular cleft formation as well as during complex infoldings of the GBM, and suggest 15-keto-PGE₂ may have a potential active role in the fine-tuning of the GFB physiology. The fact that late treatment with 15-keto-PGE₂ did not affect GFB permeability may be due to several aspects including relatively short exposure time.

2.6. Glomerular surface area is significantly decreased after exogenous 15-keto-PGE₂ stimulation

To better understand how the impaired podocyte intercalation around the glomerular capillaries after 15-keto-PGE₂ treatment may affect GFB, we proceeded with further morphological analysis of the glomerulus. Using the Imaris software, we obtained the 3D glomerular reconstruction and surface creation by segmentation of the glomeruli labeled with GFP in *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* transgenics at 96 hpf to quantify the glomerular volume and surface area in the DMSO-treated control and 15-keto-PGE₂-treated embryos (Fig. 6a–c). Glomerular volume showed a numerical decrease in the 15-keto-PGE₂-treated embryos as compared to DMSO controls (Fig. 6b). Importantly, the surface area covered by podocytes was significantly decreased after exposure to the 15-keto-PGE₂ metabolite (Fig. 6c).

The intercalation defects between podocytes and endothelial cells after 15-keto-PGE₂ exposure led to the reduction of GFB surface area that might ultimately affect the GFB function.

2.7. 15-keto-PGE₂-induced defects are mediated through EP2/EP4 receptors

We were wondering whether the 15-keto-PGE₂ treatment induced the observed morphological defects through EP receptor activation. Since our *in vitro* data indicated that 15-keto-PGE₂ binds both EP2 and EP4 receptors, we deployed EP antagonists, PF-04418948 and ONO-AE3-208, blocking EP2 and EP4, respectively. We simultaneously treated zebrafish embryos with 15-keto-PGE₂ and EP2 and EP4 antagonists to test whether blocking the receptors will dampen or block 15-keto-PGE₂-induced effects (Fig. 6a–c). Remarkably, the simultaneous pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors in 15-keto-PGE₂-treated embryos abolished the podocyte clustering and the complexity of the GBM infoldings was restored (Fig. 6a). The quantification of the glomerular volume as well as surface area revealed complete restoration of the 15-keto-PGE₂-induced effects when compared to the vehicle controls (Fig. 6b, c).

In summary, our data provide evidence for 15-keto-PGE₂ modulating EP2 and EP4 receptors signaling *in vivo*.

3. Discussion

The prostaglandin E₂ pathway plays a crucial role in various physiological and pathological conditions and has been extensively reported for its involvement in renal diseases [17,25–27,64,65]. However, the

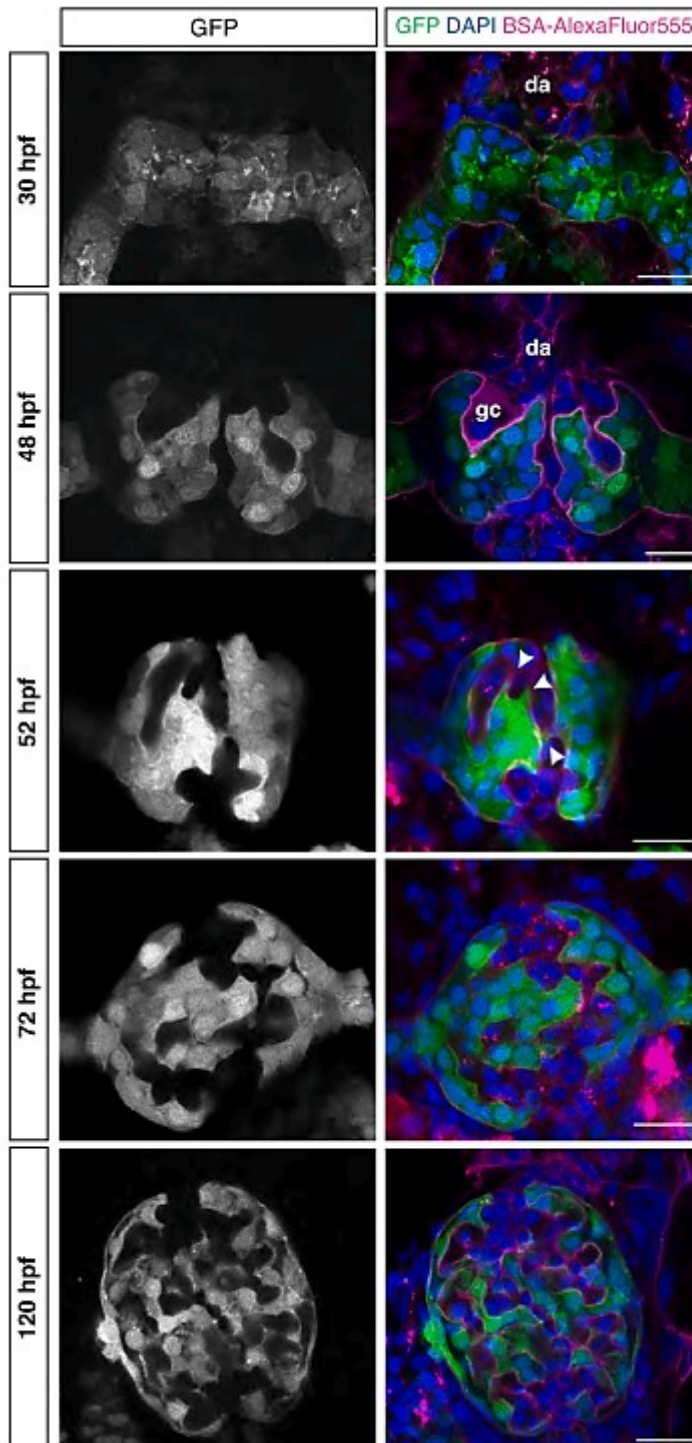


Fig. 4. Glomerular morphogenesis occurs in distinct steps. Zebrafish glomerular developmental stages. Representative high-resolution confocal microscopy images (single confocal section) of the *Tg[wt1b:eGFP]* developing zebrafish embryonic kidney at different developmental stages, 30 hpf (nephron primordia), 48 hpf, 52 hpf, 72 hpf and 120 hpf in an order from top to bottom. The podocytes and parietal epithelial cells in the glomeruli in grey (left), in green (in merge, right), endothelial cells of glomeruli capillaries in magenta (BSA-AlexaFluor555, in merge), cells nuclei in blue (DAPI, in merge). At 52 hpf, podocyte protrusions (arrowheads) start surrounding the capillaries to form the mature GFB. Dorsal aorta (da) and glomerular cleft (gc) are observed at the early developmental stages of the glomerulus. Scale bar = 10 μ m. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

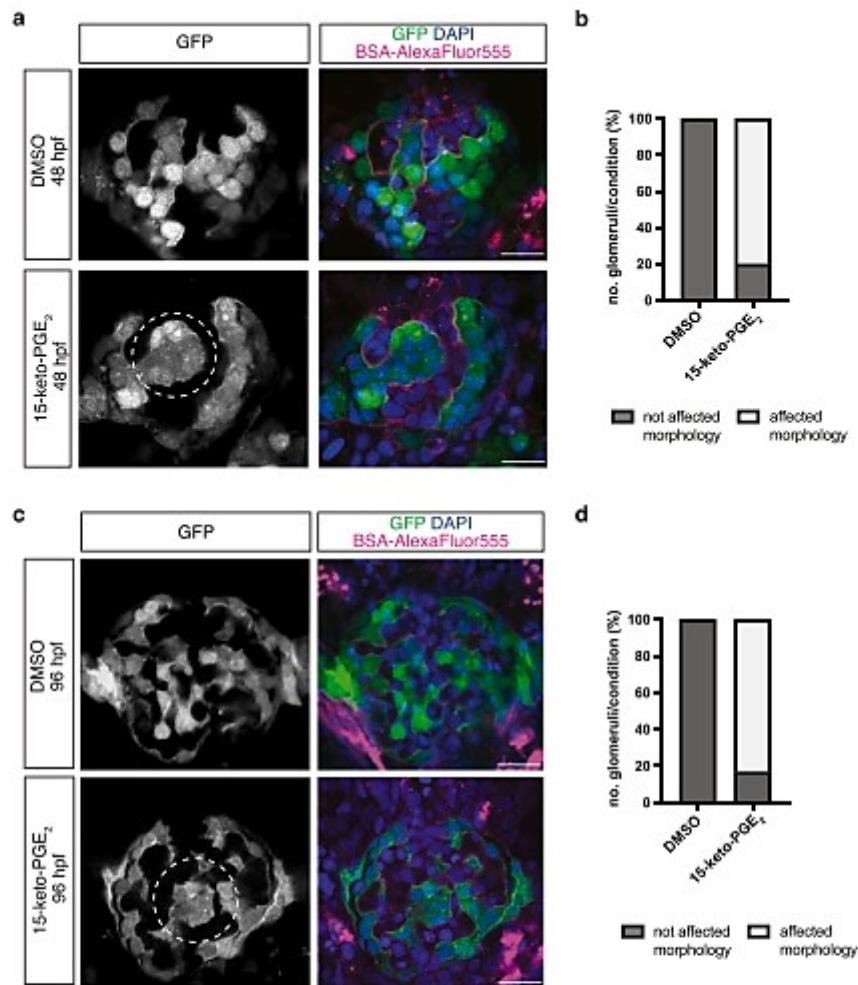


Fig. 5. 15-keto-PGE₂ exposure affects podocyte intercalation process during glomerular vascularization. (a) Representative confocal microscopy images of *Tgfw1b:eGFP* zebrafish glomeruli at 48 hpf after DMSO vehicle 0.88 % and 15-keto-PGE₂ 500 μ M treatment; $N = 2$, $n = 5$ for both conditions; dotted-line circle indicates podocyte consolidation and failure of normal elaboration around the continuously forming glomerular capillaries. (b) Quantification graph showing the percentage of imaged glomeruli with affected morphology at 48 hpf after exposure to DMSO (not affected morphology) and 15-keto-PGE₂ (4 out of 5 imaged glomeruli showed affected morphology). (c) Representative confocal microscopy images of *Tgfw1b:eGFP* zebrafish glomeruli at 96 hpf after DMSO vehicle 0.88 % and 15-keto-PGE₂ 500 μ M treatment; $N = 3$, $n = 7$ for DMSO and $N = 3$, $n = 6$ for 15-keto-PGE₂; dotted-line circle indicates impaired podocyte intercalation around the formed capillaries. (d) Quantification graph showing the percentage of imaged glomeruli with affected morphology at 96 hpf after exposure to DMSO (not affected morphology) and 15-keto-PGE₂ (5 out of 6 imaged glomeruli showed affected morphology). In all images, grey scale images show the podocytes and parietal epithelial cells in the glomeruli; in the merge podocytes and parietal epithelial cells are represented in green (eGFP), endothelial cells of glomeruli capillaries are marked in magenta (BSA-AlexaFluor555) and cells nuclei in blue (DAPI); Scale bar = 10 μ m. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

metabolic products of PGE₂ degradation, 15-keto-PGE₂ and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂, have been mainly considered biologically inactive [32,34]. Here, we show that 15-keto-PGE₂ affects the glomerular morphology of the developing zebrafish embryonic kidney through EP2/EP4 receptors. To our best knowledge, our study determines previously unrecognized *in vivo* effects of 15-keto-PGE₂ in kidney biology and outlines its possible modulatory effects on EP2/EP4 signaling.

In recent years, the potential bioactive role of 15-keto-PGE₂ has attracted increased research focus [37–39,66,67]. The 15-keto-PGE₂

effects have been mainly investigated in the context of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR- γ) signaling [37–39]. Through PPAR- γ activation, 15-keto-PGE₂ inhibits the production of lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced inflammatory cytokines in Kupffer cells [38], while in a zebrafish model of cryptococcosis, 15-keto-PGE₂ promotes fungal pathogenesis [37]. Another study demonstrated 15-keto-PGE₂ role in the activation of Nrf2/ARE (nuclear erythroid 2-related factor 2/antioxidant response element) pathway in macrophages in mice with experimental sepsis [66]. In addition, 15-keto-PGE₂

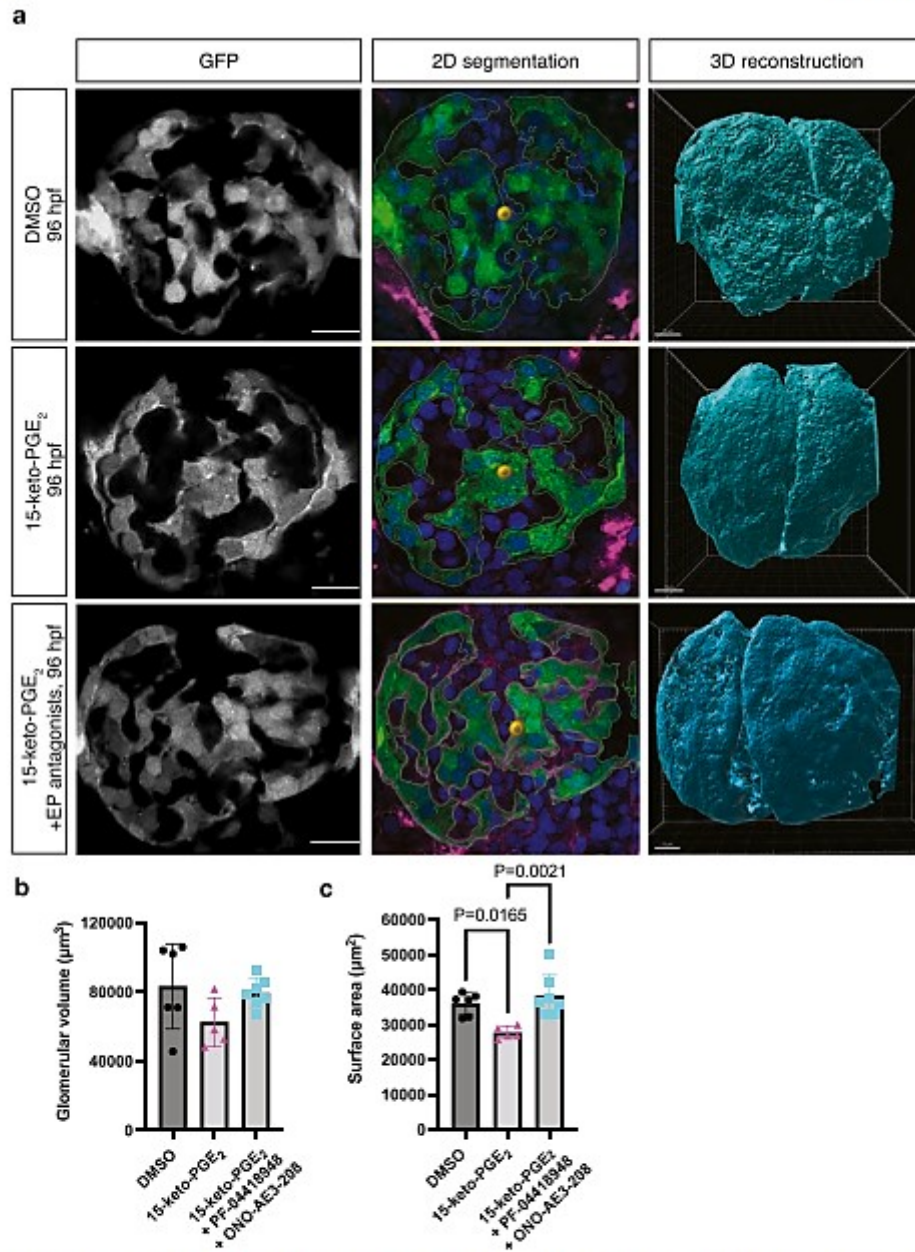


Fig. 6. Combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors reverses the effect of 15-keto-PGE₂ exposure. (a) Representative images of 2D surface segmentation and 3D glomerular reconstruction performed with Imlaris software using the confocal microscopy images of *Tg(wt1b:eGFP)* zebrafish glomeruli at 96 hpf after pharmacological treatment with DMSO vehicle 0.96 % (top) ($N = 3, n = 6$), 15-keto-PGE₂ 500 µM (middle) ($N = 3, n = 5$), and 15-keto-PGE₂ 500 µM + PF-04418948 (EP2 receptor antagonist) 20 µM + ONO-AE3-208 (EP4 receptor antagonist) 20 µM (bottom) ($N = 2, n = 7$); n represents biologically independent samples over N independent experiments; Scale bar = 10 µm. (b-c) Quantitative graphs of the glomerular volume and surface area in the glomeruli analyzed for the different pharmacological treatment groups; Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test was performed for both graphs; in graph (b): DMSO vs 15-keto-PGE₂ ($P = 0.1362$), 15-keto-PGE₂ vs 15-keto-PGE₂ + PF-04418948 + ONO-AE3-208 ($P = 0.2331$), and DMSO vs 15-keto-PGE₂ + PF-04418948 + ONO-AE3-208 ($P = 0.9074$); in graph (c): DMSO vs 15-keto-PGE₂ ($P = 0.0165$), 15-keto-PGE₂ vs 15-keto-PGE₂ + PF-04418948 + ONO-AE3-208 ($P = 0.0021$), and DMSO vs 15-keto-PGE₂ + PF-04418948 + ONO-AE3-208 ($P = 0.6048$); Values are plotted as mean ± SD; $P < 0.05$ considered significant.

has been also associated with different types of cancer, as it reportedly increases p21 promoter activity in hepatocellular carcinoma cells through PPAR- γ activation [39] and inhibits STAT3 signaling thus suppressing breast cancer progression in MCF10A-*ras* cells [67].

The importance of 15-keto-PGE₂ in the physiology and/or pathophysiology of the kidney has not been previously investigated. Nevertheless, the role of 15-hydroprostaglandin dehydrogenase (15-PGDH), the enzyme that catalyzes the first step of PGE₂ inactivation and synthesizes 15-keto-PGE₂, has been widely studied for its implication in kidney diseases. 15-PGDH inhibition prevents contrast-induced acute kidney injury [68], ischemic acute kidney injury (AKI) [69] and acute liposaccharide (LPS)-induced renal injury in mice [70]. In addition, 15-PGDH activity has been reported in rabbit kidney cortex [71,72] as well as in maternal rat kidney and fetal rat and lamb kidney [73]. All this evidence suggests that 15-keto-PGE₂ might have a potentially detrimental role in kidney biology.

In the present study, we show that 15-keto-PGE₂ stimulation *in vivo* affects glomerular morphology characterized by the podocyte intercalation defects around the glomerular capillaries in zebrafish embryos. The exogenous treatment with the metabolite does not considerably affect the glomerular volume, but results in the significant decrease of the glomerular surface area highlighting the impaired podocyte intercalation and reduced area of the glomerular filtration barrier. Combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors leads to complete reversal of the podocyte intercalation defects caused by 15-keto-PGE₂ exposure. This provides evidence for the role of 15-keto-PGE₂ in modulating EP2 and EP4 receptor signaling and is in agreement with a previous study supporting 15-keto-PGE₂ bioactive signaling *via* these receptors *in vitro* [36].

Our findings suggest a novel physiological role of 15-keto-PGE₂ in the proper GFB and glomerular surface area formation. Moreover, a potential role of this metabolite, in addition to PGE₂, in renal hemodynamics maintenance and blood pressure regulation should be taken into consideration. Given that we have recently shown 15-keto-PGE₂ levels are elevated in the isolated glomeruli of a well-established rat model of CKD with glomerular hyperfiltration and albuminuria [30], the question whether 15-keto-PGE₂ has potential pathophysiological effects in the context of renal biology should be addressed in the future studies. In addition, 15-keto-PGE₂ may affect renal vasculature that could be associated with glomerular hypertension and affect the proper podocyte intercalation, as observed here. Notwithstanding, the latter may outline the possible contribution of 15-keto-PGE₂ in the fine-tuning of the complex interactions between podocytes and endothelial cells that underlie glomerular vascularization and formation of functional and mature GFB.

PGE₂, described as a potent vasodilator in renal vasculature [74], has been widely studied in the regulation of renal hemodynamics, arterial blood pressure and renal blood flow [75–77]. In this context, EP2 and EP3 were highlighted to exert a crucial role in the PGE₂-induced renal hemodynamic responses and vascular functions [78,79]. To the best of our knowledge, implication of 15-keto-PGE₂ in renal hemodynamics is not yet known. Although, we cannot exclude of the potential regulatory effects of 15-keto-PGE₂ on renal hemodynamics, the fact that we do not observe any cardiac defects (the heart formation as well as function are not altered) suggests that overall hemodynamics seems to be unaffected. Second, we observe the defects in podocyte-endothelial interactions already early at the onset of glomerular filtration, i.e. before the fully functional glomerular filtration occur, pointing more towards the direct cell-cell interaction deregulation rather than through the hemodynamics alterations. However, to clarify this, further investigation including renal blood flow measurements to assess a potential vasoconstrictor or vasodilator effect of 15-keto-PGE₂, is required.

Altogether, our findings reveal 15-keto-PGE₂ metabolite may modulate EP2 and EP4-dependent signaling during glomerular morphogenesis. Whether this involves full receptor activation or whether 15-keto-PGE₂ acts in dominant negative manner or whether its

effects are indirect needs to be further elucidated. Whether in pathological conditions elevated levels of 15-keto-PGE₂ might change podocyte-endothelial cell interactions warrant further studies.

4. Methods

4.1. Zebrafish husbandry

Zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) were bred, raised, and maintained in accordance with the FELASA guidelines [80], the guidelines of the Max-Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine in the Helmholtz association and the local authority for animal protection (Landesamt für Gesundheit und Soziales, Berlin, Germany). The 'Principles of Laboratory Animal Care' (NIH publication no. 86-23, revised 1985) as well as the current version of German Law on the Protection of Animals and EU directive 2010/63/EU on the protection of animals were followed. Zebrafish transgenic lines used in this study included *Tg(wt1b:eGFP)^{kl}* [81] and *Tg(fabp:gc-EGFP)^{ml1000}* [63]. Embryos were kept in E3 embryo medium (5 mM NaCl, 0.17 mM KCl, 0.33 mM CaCl₂, 0.33 mM MgSO₄, pH 7.4) under standard laboratory conditions at 28.5°C in all the experiments.

4.2. Generation of HiBiT-tagged hEP2/hEP4 receptor constructs

To generate hEP2-/hEP4-HiBiT constructs with a HiBiT-tag, the full-length human Prostaglandin E Receptor 2 (hEP2) and human Prostaglandin E Receptor 4 (hEP4) cDNAs were cloned into the pBiT3.1-N [CMV/HiBiT/Blast] vector (Promega) including a short linker attached to the N-terminal receptor sequences. Briefly, template cDNA was prepared from conditionally immortalized human podocytes [82]. Cloning primers were designed spanning either the start codon (forward-primers) or stop codon (reverse-primers) of the hEP2/hEP4 receptor sequences and having 5' end extensions complementary to the linearized pBiT3.1-N [CMV/HiBiT/Blast] vector containing a restriction site. Primer sequences are listed in Table 1. Full-length hEP2 and hEP4 cDNA sequences were amplified using CloneAmp HiFi PCR Premix (TaKaRa Bio Inc.) and the designed cloning primers.

Restriction digestion of the pBiT3.1-N [CMV/HiBiT/Blast] vector was performed using CutSmart™ Buffer (New England Biolabs) and EcoRI and XbaI restriction enzymes (New England Biolabs). The PCR products were integrated into the vector using the 5X In-Fusion® HD Enzyme Premix (TaKaRa Bio Inc.) and the resulting plasmid was transformed into One Shot™ TOP10 chemically competent *E. coli* (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The plasmid sequences were verified by Sanger sequencing (LGC genomics).

For transformation into yeast, the hEP2-/hEP4-HiBiT constructs were cloned into the p426GPD yeast plasmid (GlaxoSmithKline) [40] using cloning primers listed in Table 1. The forward primer with a 5' overhang complementary to the yeast plasmid, spanning a *Bam*HI restriction site and the HiBiT-tag start codon was designed. The reverse primers with a 5' overhang spanning a restriction site close to the stop codon of the hEP2/hEP4 sequence as well as the respective stop codon were designed. Purified pBiT3.1-N [CMV/HiBiT/Blast] vector (Promega) with integrated hEP2/hEP4 sequence was used as a template for PCR amplification using CloneAmp HiFi PCR Premix (TaKaRa Bio Inc.). Linearized plasmids and PCR products were purified and integrated into the p426GPD, ligation of the plasmid was conducted with the 5X In-Fusion® HD Enzyme Premix (TaKaRa Bio Inc.), the plasmids were transformed into One Shot™ TOP10 chemically competent *E. coli* (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The plasmid sequences were verified by Sanger sequencing (LGC genomics).

4.3. Yeast transformation

P426GPD plasmids carrying either hEP2-HiBiT or hEP4-HiBiT construct were transformed into *S. cerevisiae* (MMY yeast model, GlaxoSmithKline) using lithium acetate (LiAc)/single-stranded DNA

Table 1
Primer sequences.

Construct name	Forward Primer (5'-3')	Reverse Primer (5'-3')
hEP2-HiBIT	CGAGCGGTGGGAATTGGATGGGCAATGCCCTCCAATGAC	AAGCTTGAACCTAGATCAAAGGTGAGCGCTGTTACTGGC
hEP4-HiBIT	CGAGCGGTGGGAATTCCATGTCCACTCCCGGGGTC	AAGCTTGAACCTAGATTATATACATTTTCTGATAAGGTCAGTGTTCAC
hEP2-HiBIT-p426GDP	TAGAACTAGTGGATCCATGGTGGAGGGCTGGGGG	GCTTGATATCGAATTCCTCAAAGGTGAGCGCTGTTACTGGC
hEP4-HiBIT-p426GDP	TAGAACTAGTGGATCCATGGTGGAGGGCTGGGGG	GCTTGATATCGAATTCCTATATACATTTTCTGATAAGTTC

(ssDNA)/polyethylene glycol (PEG) method as previously described [40]. Briefly, 100 mL of yeast extract peptone dextrose (YPD) medium was inoculated with 1.5 mL yeast pre-culture and incubated for 2 h shaking at 30°. Yeast cultures were centrifuged at 600g for 2 min, washed with water, centrifuged at 600g for 1 min and the yeast pellets were suspended in 1 mL LiAcTE. For transformation, 5 µL of ssDNA (10 mg/mL, Sigma-Aldrich), 1 µg plasmids and for mock-transformed controls the corresponding volume of Midiprep Tris buffer solution (Macherey-Nagel), 50 µL yeast solution and 300 µL LiAc PEG TE were mixed by pipetting. After incubation at room temperature for 10 min and heat shock at 42 °C for 20 min, yeast solutions were plated on WHAUL plates supplemented with histidine (WHAUL-His).

4.4. Yeast strain and yeast culture

The used MMY28 yeast strain [40] has the following genotype: *W303-1A fus1::FUS1-HIS3 FUS1-lacZ::LEU2 far1Δ::ura3Δ gpa1Δ::ADE2Δ sst2Δ::ura3Δ MMY9 ste2Δ::G418^R TRP1::Gpa1/Gm(s)*. Prior to transformation, yeasts stored on glycerol beads at -80 °C were thawed and plated on YPD plates for 2 days at 30 °C before liquid pre-cultures were incubated in YPD medium shaking overnight at 30 °C. Transformed yeasts grew on WHAUL-His plates for three days. Three clones were picked and transferred on new WHAUL-His plates and incubated overnight at 30 °C. On the next day, prior to the experiments, clones were pre-cultured in WHAUL-His medium overnight shaking at 30 °C in flat 96-well plates (TPP).

4.5. Receptor expression on the yeast cell surface

The expressions of hEP2 receptor and hEP4 receptor on the yeast membrane were investigated with the NanoGlo® Extracellular Detection System (Promega Corporation). The system's principle is based on the expression of a HiBiT-tagged protein/receptor, which upon the incubation with the NanoGlo® Extracellular reagent produces a luminescence signal that reflects the number of receptors on the plasma membrane. If the added ligand of interest is able to bind the HiBiT-tagged receptor, it triggers a modification in the receptor's expression on the plasma membrane, which is manifested by a change in the luminescence signal.

Yeast pre-cultures were diluted 1:5 in WHAUL-medium and 5 µL of yeast dilution were incubated with 100 µL WHAUL-medium supplemented with BU Salts for 20 h. Following 20 h incubation, yeasts were stimulated for 20 min with 100 nM PGE₂, 1 µM 15-keto-PGE₂ or medium only for untreated control. Nine transformed colonies as well as one mock-transformed colony that served as a negative control were investigated at a time. Then, yeasts were treated with the Nano-Glo® Extracellular Detection System according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, yeast solutions after stimulation were transferred to white 96-well plates (Corning Inc.). Thereby, one stimulated yeast solution was split into 2 wells after mixing. Equal volume of the reagent (consisting of NanoGlo® Extracellular Detection Buffer, NanoGlo® HiBiT Extracellular Substrate diluted 1:50 and LgBiT Protein diluted 1:100) was added to the yeast solutions. After 5 min shaking at 300 rpm for 5 min, luminescence was determined with the FLUOstar Omega microplate reader (BMG Labtech) and results were obtained using the Optima software and MARS data analysis software (BMG Labtech). Yeasts with luminescence lower than values of the medium control and the negative (mock-

transformed) yeast control were excluded from the analysis, as the transformation was considered unsuccessful.

4.6. Lipidomic analysis of the whole zebrafish embryos

The lipidomic analysis was performed by liquid chromatography electrospray ionization tandem mass spectrometry (LC/ESI-MS/MS) following the protocol we reported recently [30]. The zebrafish embryos at two different developmental stages, 48 hpf and 120 hpf, were frozen using liquid nitrogen and analyzed using an Agilent 1290 HPLC system with binary pump, multisampler and column thermostat with a Zorbax Eclipse plus C-18, 2.1 × 150 mm, 1.8 µm column using a solvent system of aqueous acetic acid (0.05 %) and acetonitrile. A gradient starting with 5 % organic phase was used, which was increased within 0.5 min to 32 %, 16 min to 36.5 %, 20 min to 38 %, 28 min to 98 % and held there for 5 min, was used for the elution. The flow rate was set at 0.3 mL/min and the injection volume was 20 µL. The HPLC was coupled with an Agilent 6495 Triplequad mass spectrometer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) with electrospray ionization source. Source parameters: Drying gas: 115 °C/16 L/min, Sheath gas: 390 °C/12 L/min, Capillary voltage: 4300 V, Nozzle voltage: 1950 V, and Nebulizer pressure: 35 psi.

4.7. Pharmacological treatment, glomerular morphology and functional assessment of the GFB

For the phenotypic assessment of the zebrafish embryonic kidney and the evaluation of GFB integrity the transgenic lines *Tg[wt1b:eGFP]* and *Tg[fahp10a:gc-eGFP]* were used, respectively. For the drug treatment, the E3 medium was completely drawn off the embryos and the solution of DMSO (% adjusted to the solvent ratio in drug solution) (276855, Sigma Aldrich), and 500 µM 15-keto-PGE₂ (Cay14720-1, Cayman) in E3 water were added. For the combined blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors, a solution of 20 µM EP2 receptor antagonist (PF04418948, Sigma Aldrich) and 20 µM EP4 receptor antagonist (ONO-AE3-208, Sigma Aldrich) in E3 water with 500 µM 15-keto-PGE₂ was used. The drugs were applied to the zebrafish embryos between 6 hpf and 48 hpf for the early treatment and between 72 hpf and 96 hpf for the late treatment. The embryos were placed in a 28.5 °C incubator until phenotypic analysis. For the *in vivo* imaging, 48 hpf and 96 hpf zebrafish embryos were anesthetized with 0.02 % tricaine (w/v) in E3 solution and embedded in methyl cellulose. Fluorescent and brightfield images were acquired using Leica M165 stereomicroscope with a Leica DFC450 camera attached.

4.8. Confocal microscopy of zebrafish embryonic kidney and 3D reconstruction of the glomerulus

For the confocal imaging, *Tg[wt1b:eGFP]* zebrafish embryos were used at the time points indicated in the figure legend. Prior to the fixation, the anesthetized embryos (in 0.02 % tricaine (w/v)) were injected in the sinus venosus or the descending cardinal vein with 20 mg/mL BSA Alexa Fluor555 conjugate (A34786, ThermoFisher Scientific) diluted in 150 mM NaCl. The injected embryos were fixed after 20 min in 4 % PFA (43369, Alfa Aesar) and 0.1 % Triton-X 100 in PBS buffer (D8357, Sigma Aldrich) for 2 h at RT or overnight at 4 °C. Nuclei were stained using 4',6-Diamidin-2-phenylindol (DAPI, Sigma Aldrich, stock solution 1 mg/mL diluted 1:2000 in PBS) overnight at 4 °C. After removal of the

yolk and mounting in 0,8 % low-melting agarose, the kidneys of whole-mount fixed embryos were imaged using a Confocal Zeiss LSM 980 Airyscan microscope with a LD C-Apochromat 40 x NA1.1 water objective and Zen Blue v.3.2 software. Confocal z-stacks of all channels were sequentially acquired with identical parameters and similar 3D orientation for all samples. Images were analyzed using ImageJ software.

The 3D confocal images were first deconvolved using Huygens Professional 22.04 software. The 2D segmentation for the 3D glomerular surface creation, was performed using Imaris version 9.9 software (Bitplane AG, Zurich, Switzerland). A 3D surface covering the total glomerular volume was created by manually tracing the surface outline of EGFP-positive cells for every second section of the z-stack and in a second step the automated segmentation for the surface creation was used. The fluorescence signal derived by EGFP-positive cells inside the glomeruli was included, while EGFP signal coming from the neck and the early part of proximal convoluted tubule was excluded.

4.9. Statistical analysis

Statistics were performed using GraphPad Prism version 6.07 or 9. Following statistical tests were used: Fig. 1c,d, Wilcoxon test and Mann-Whitney tests were conducted as indicated (*, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; ****, $P < 0.0001$); Fig. 2, two-tailed unpaired t-test with Welch's correction; Fig. 3c, two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons; Fig. 6b, c, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons post-test. Identification of outliers was performed by Grubbs' outliers test ($\alpha = 0.05$). Excluded values: Fig. 1b, c: one outlier was identified among EP2-transfected and two outliers among EP4-transfected yeasts (for all yeast experiments conducted at the same day); Fig. 2: one outlier was identified and removed among the lipidomic PGE₂ values at 48 hpf together with the respective values for the two metabolites; Fig. 6b, c: one outlier was identified in the glomerular surface area measurements each for the DMSO and 15-keto-PGE₂ condition that were excluded both from the surface area and also the glomerular volume analysis. In all graphs error bars are presented as means \pm SD and $P < 0.05$ were considered statistically significant.

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CRedit authorship contribution statement

Conceptualization, A.K., J.B., R.K. and D.P.; Methodology and experimentation, A.K., D.K.G., A.P., R.C., A.S., E.M., A.Sch.; Data analysis, A.K., D.K.G., M.R.; Visualization, A.K., D.K.G. and D.P.; Writing – Original Draft, A.K. and D.P. with input from all authors; Revised manuscript, A.K. and D.P.; Funding Acquisition, R.K. and D.P.; Supervision, A.P., R.C., J.B., R.K. and D.P.

Declarations

All methods were carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations.

The study was carried out in compliance with the ARRIVE guidelines.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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1	CIRCULATION	202,844	39.918	0.20870
2	CIRCULATION RESEARCH	72,814	23.213	0.06601
3	JOURNAL OF THROMBOSIS AND HAEMOSTASIS	30,498	16.036	0.03997
4	ANGIOGENESIS	5,111	10.658	0.00420
5	ARTERIOSCLEROSIS THROMBOSIS AND VASCULAR BIOLOGY	41,650	10.514	0.02858
6	THROMBOSIS RESEARCH	17,586	10.407	0.02314
7	STROKE	86,009	10.170	0.07454
8	HYPERTENSION	47,098	9.897	0.04442
9	Journal of Stroke	2,036	8.632	0.00391
10	International Journal of Stroke	7,698	6.948	0.01415
11	ATHEROSCLEROSIS	29,505	6.847	0.02366
12	THROMBOSIS AND HAEMOSTASIS	19,483	6.681	0.01818
13	EUROPEAN JOURNAL OF VASCULAR AND ENDOVASCULAR SURGERY	12,991	6.427	0.01300
14	SEMINARS IN THROMBOSIS AND HEMOSTASIS	5,619	6.398	0.00559
15	Current Atherosclerosis Reports	3,893	5.967	0.00420
16	Research and Practice in Thrombosis and Haemostasis	2,075	5.953	0.00791
17	European Stroke Journal	1,210	5.894	0.00411
18	HYPERTENSION RESEARCH	7,687	5.528	0.00642
19	Thrombosis Journal	1,305	5.509	0.00195

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Hypertension

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Studies in Zebrafish and Rat Models Support Dual Blockade of EP2 and EP4 (Prostaglandin E₂ Receptors Type 2 and 4) for Renoprotection in Glomerular Hyperfiltration and Albuminuria

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BACKGROUND: Glomerular hyperfiltration (GH) is an important mechanism in the development of albuminuria in hypertension. Upregulation of COX2 (cyclooxygenase 2) and prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) was linked to podocyte damage in GH. We explored the potential renoprotective effects of either separate or combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 (PGE₂ receptor type 2) and EP4 (PGE₂ receptor type 4) in GH.

METHODS: We conducted in vivo studies in a transgenic zebrafish model (*Tg(fabp10a:gc-EGFP)*) suitable for analysis of glomerular filtration barrier function and a genetic rat model with GH, albuminuria, and upregulation of PGE₂. Similar pharmacological interventions and primary outcome analysis on albuminuria phenotype development were conducted in both model systems.

RESULTS: Stimulation of zebrafish embryos with PGE₂ induced an albuminuria-like phenotype, thus mimicking the suggested PGE₂ effects on glomerular filtration barrier dysfunction. Both separate and combined blockade of EP2 and EP4 reduced albuminuria phenotypes in zebrafish and rat models. A significant correlation between albuminuria and podocyte damage in electron microscopy imaging was identified in the rat model. Dual blockade of both receptors showed a pronounced synergistic suppression of albuminuria. Importantly, this occurred without changes in arterial blood pressure, glomerular filtration rate, or tissue oxygenation in magnetic resonance imaging, while RNA sequencing analysis implicated a potential role of circadian clock genes.

CONCLUSIONS: Our findings confirm a role of PGE₂ in the development of albuminuria in GH and support the renoprotective potential of combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors. These data support further translational research to explore this therapeutic option and a possible role of circadian clock genes. (*Hypertension.* 2023;80:771-782. DOI: 10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.122.20392.) • **Supplement Material.**

Key Words: albuminuria ■ hypertension ■ prostaglandin E₂ ■ rats ■ zebrafish

Albuminuria is a hallmark of early kidney damage in diabetes- and hypertension-mediated organ damage.¹⁻⁴ Recent observational data in a large health care utilization cohort indicated that changes

in albuminuria are strongly associated with the risk of developing end-stage kidney disease and death supporting the prognostic relevance of albuminuria.⁵ The factors leading to albuminuria are multifactorial, but

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NOVELTY AND RELEVANCE

What Is New?

Complementary *in vivo* studies were conducted in zebrafish and rat models using the same pharmacological interventions to test their renoprotective potential in glomerular hyperfiltration.

What Is Relevant?

A role of both EP2 (prostaglandin E₂ receptor type 2) and EP4 (prostaglandin E₂ receptor type 4) receptors

mediating prostaglandin E₂-induced glomerular injury in glomerular hyperfiltration was identified.

Clinical/Pathophysiological Implications?

The current study supports further translational research to explore the mechanisms and potential of combined EP2 and EP4 blockade in kidney injury with albuminuria due to glomerular hyperfiltration.

Nonstandard Abbreviations and Acronyms

COX2	cyclooxygenase 2
EP2	PGE ₂ receptor type 2
EP4	PGE ₂ receptor type 4
GFB	glomerular filtration barrier
GH	glomerular hyperfiltration
MWF	Munich Wistar Frömter
MWF-EP2/EP4^{inh}	Munich Wistar Frömter rat treated with combined EP2 and EP4 receptor antagonists
PGE₂	prostaglandin E ₂
SGLT-2	sodium-glucose cotransporter-2
SHR	spontaneously hypertensive rat

intrarenal hemodynamic changes resulting in glomerular hyperfiltration (GH) play, among other factors, an important mechanistic role in the development of albuminuria in hypertension and diabetes.^{2,3,6} Prostaglandins play important and complex roles in renal physiology and disease processes, while their most abundant form prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) has been particularly implicated in renal pathophysiology in hypertension and diabetes.⁷ In the setting of GH, podocytes are exposed to increased fluid flow shear stress in Bowman space that contributes to podocyte damage and albuminuria development.^{8,9} Previous studies indicated that COX2 (cyclooxygenase 2) and PGE₂ activation are involved in the resulting podocyte damage in response to GH,¹⁰ while PGE₂ is known to increase glomerular permeability for proteins.⁷ Our recent *in vitro* study in human podocytes indicated an activation of the autocrine/paracrine COX2/PGE₂ pathway resulting in podocyte injury in GH by using fluid flow shear stress exposure.¹¹ This was mediated by concerted signaling via both EP2 (PGE₂ receptor type 2) and EP4 (PGE₂ receptor type 4). We, therefore, set out to study the renoprotective effect of separate and combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors

in vivo by using complementary animal experiments in zebrafish and rat models.

METHODS

Data supporting the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Animals

This study involved zebrafish and rat models (Supplemental Methods). A synopsis of the overall study design is presented in Figure 1. Transgenic zebrafish embryos of *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]*¹⁶ and *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]*¹⁵ were used to evaluate the functional role of glomerular filtration barrier (GFB) integrity and albuminuria phenotype *in vivo* and the glomerular morphology, respectively (Supplemental Methods). We used males of the MWF (Munich Wistar Frömter) rat with an inherited nephron deficit as a model of GH and albuminuria.^{12,13}

Workflow in Zebrafish Models

We assessed the abundance of metabolites in the cyclooxygenase COX-PGE₂-EP2/EP4 pathway in zebrafish embryos at 48 hours post fertilization. Lipidomic analysis was performed by a liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC/ESI-MS/MS) method to quantify PGE₂ levels in embryo lysates¹¹ after COX inhibition by using the COX inhibitor indomethacin.¹⁴ The expression of EP2 and EP4 receptors was evaluated by fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (Advanced Cell Diagnostics, RNAscope Multiplex Fluorescent V2) of the corresponding *ptger2a* and *ptger4b* genes, respectively, in *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]*¹⁵ Zebrafish embryos provide a suitable model for the study of GFB development and function.^{13,16} To model the increased PGE₂ signaling in zebrafish, embryos were exposed to 16,16-dimethyl PGE₂ after the complete formation of GFB, that is, from 72 to 96 hours post fertilization¹³ (Figure 1A). To probe the PGE₂ signaling, embryos were treated with the selective EP2 and EP4 antagonists PFO4418948^{17,18} and ONO-AE3-208^{19,20} or the COX inhibitor indomethacin.²¹ High-resolution confocal and electron microscopy imaging was performed as reported recently¹³ to analyze glomeruli and GFB (Supplemental Methods).

Workflow in the MWF Rat

Lipidomic analysis using the liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry protocol to quantify PGE₂ levels in glomerular

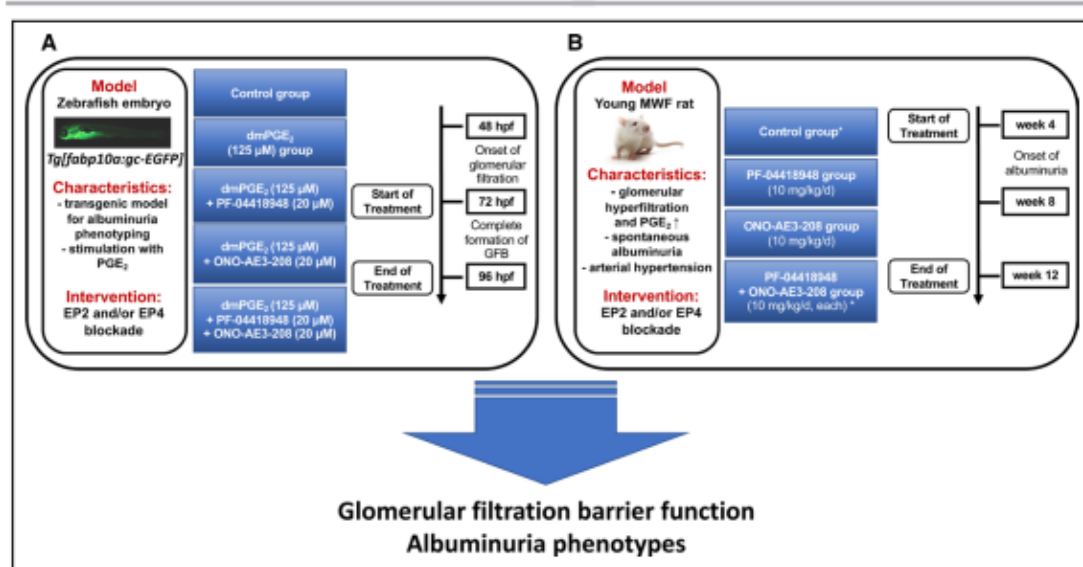


Figure 1. Overall design of in vivo studies in zebrafish and rat models.

To test the potential renoprotective effect on albuminuria phenotypes of either separate or combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 (prostaglandin E_2 [PGE_2] receptor type 2) and EP4 (PGE_2 receptor type 4) in glomerular hyperfiltration (GH), we used 2 complementary animal systems. **A**, Zebrafish embryos of *Tg(fabp10a:gc-EGFP)* were used to evaluate the glomerular filtration barrier (GFB) integrity and albuminuria phenotype in vivo in response to exogenous stimulation with PGE_2 (Supplemental Methods). **B**, MWF (Munich Wistar Frömler) rat model with an inherited nephron deficit, which results in GH, spontaneous development of progressive albuminuria, and mild arterial hypertension,¹² was used. Importantly, MWF animals demonstrate increased endogenous PGE_2 concentrations in isolated glomerular tissue.¹¹ We performed pharmacological intervention studies in both animal systems of the separate or combined blockade of EP2 and EP4 using PF-04418948 (EP2 antagonist)^{13,18} and ONO-AE3-208 (EP4 antagonist)^{19,20} vs control (untreated) animals. Zebrafish embryos were treated between 72 and 96 hours post fertilization (hpf) and assessed at 96 hpf (**A**). Young male MWF rats were studied between week 4 and week 12 of age (**B**). In zebrafish experiments, we conducted N=6 experiments with n=120 embryos for all groups except for the separate EP receptor blockade groups, where N=3 and n=60. In rat studies, n=7 to 8 animals were studied in each group. In MWF rats, we performed additional analysis using magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) analysis of tissue oxygenation. In this study, only the groups marked with asterisk (n=14–15), that is, untreated control MWF and MWF rats treated with combined EP2 and EP4 receptor antagonists, were analyzed following the same protocol, while phenotyping focused only on albuminuria and MRI mapping.

tissue¹¹ demonstrated a significant elevation of PGE_2 levels in isolated glomeruli in young MWF rats at the onset of albuminuria (8 weeks of age) as compared with albuminuria-resistant SHR (spontaneously hypertensive rats; Figure 1B; Figure S6).¹¹ We, therefore, tested the effects of either separate or combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 (by PF-04418948) and EP4 receptors (by ONO-AE3-208) in MWF rats (as in zebrafish experiments; Figure 1B). Transcriptome analysis⁴⁷ was performed in cortex tissue of kidneys obtained at the end of the study period (Figure 1B). Electron microscopy imaging analysis of GFB in the rat was also performed as reported recently¹³ (Supplemental Methods). Magnetic resonance imaging analysis²² in an additional set of MWF animals was performed to analyze renal hemodynamics and oxygenation. Here, untreated MWF control rats and MWF rats treated with combined EP2 and EP4 receptor blockade (MWF-EP2/EP4^{ab}) were analyzed. Treatment period was the same as shown in Figure 1B.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using the GraphPad Prism 9 software (GraphPad Software, CA) or SPSS Statistics 28.0.0.2. Data are presented as mean \pm SD if not otherwise specified, and $P < 0.05$ was considered as statistically

significant. Data are normally distributed unless otherwise specified. Specific details of the analyses are given in the figures and in Supplemental Methods.

RESULTS

Zebrafish Experiments

COX-PGE₂-EP2/EP4 Axis in Zebrafish Embryos

Lipidomic analysis detected PGE_2 levels (59.3 ± 19.1 ng/g) in zebrafish embryos at 48 hours post fertilization, which were profoundly suppressed (7.2 ± 1.6 ng/g, 87.8% suppression) by indomethacin treatment (Figure S1A). Furthermore, EP2 (*ptger2a*) and EP4 (*ptger4b*) receptors are expressed in the glomerulus and tubules of the zebrafish embryonic kidney, however, with a higher abundance in the tubules (Figure S1C through S1E).

Effects of PGE₂ Stimulation on Albuminuria Phenotype and GFB

After confirming the presence of the COX-PGE₂-EP2/EP4 axis in zebrafish embryos, we used the zebrafish transgenics

Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP] to assess the effect of exogenous PGE₂ on GFB. Zebrafish embryos appeared normal after stimulation with PGE₂ and exhibited only lack of swim bladder formation (Figure 2A). However, exposure to PGE₂ resulted in a marked decrease in the fluorescence in the trunk vasculature of *Tg[fabp10a:gc-EGFP]* embryos, thus mimicking an albuminuria-like phenotype (Figure 2A and 2B). The latter could be significantly reversed by either separate or combined blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors, as well as by indomethacin treatment (Figure 2A and 2B). The effect of combined treatment with both EP2 and EP4 blockers was comparable to either of the separate treatments. In electron microscopy analysis, no apparent changes of the GFB ultrastructure upon short-term 16,16-dimethyl PGE₂ stimulation were observed (Figure 2C and 2D), although the quantification of podocytes' foot processes width⁴⁶ was numerically higher as compared with controls in response to 16,16-dimethyl PGE₂ (Figure 2D). To further explore the impact of 16,16-dimethyl PGE₂ stimulation on GFB dysfunction, we analyzed the glomerular cytoarchitecture. This analysis in PGE₂-treated *Tg[wt1b:EGFP]* embryos at 96 hours post fertilization revealed cell intercalation defects between podocytes and endothelial cells of glomerular capillaries. The quantification of these defects showed a significant increase in podocyte surface area. Remarkably, these defects were restored after combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 and EP4 receptors, supporting the importance of the PGE₂-EP2-EP4 signaling axis for GFB integrity (Figure S7).

Rat Experiments

Effect of EP2 and EP4 Receptor Blockade on Albuminuria

Young MWF control rats develop, in agreement with previous studies,¹² a significant increase in albuminuria between weeks 4 and 8 ($P < 0.001$; Figure 3A), followed by a further increase until week 12. Accordingly, no group differences were detected at 4 weeks of age. Albuminuria was not significantly lowered by either separate EP2 or EP4 blockade as compared with control. In contrast, combined EP2 and EP4 blockade (MWF-EP2/EP4^{sh}) resulted in a profound and significant suppression of albuminuria at 8 and 12 (−71%) weeks compared with untreated animals (Figure 3A).

Effect of EP2 and EP4 Receptor Blockade on Other In Vivo Phenotypes

Pharmacological treatment with either separate or combined EP2 and EP4 blockade induced no changes in systolic blood pressure (Figure 3B) and creatinine clearance (Figure 3C). Magnetic resonance imaging analysis indicated that the significant reduction in albuminuria by combined EP2 and EP4 receptor blockade (Figure S4A) was not associated with significant differences of the blood oxygenation level-dependent relaxation times T₂*

and T₂ (Figure S4B) as determined by magnetic resonance imaging mapping between the MWF control and MWF-EP2/EP4^{sh} groups. Similarly, no significant group differences for body weight, absolute and relative (in relation to body weight) left ventricular weights, and kidney weights were observed (Table S1).

Analysis of kidney morphology by light microscopy revealed no appreciable tissue injury, particularly in glomeruli, as expected in relatively young MWF animals at 12 weeks of age and no changes in response to the EP2 and EP4 blockade (Figure S2). Accordingly, the targeted expression analysis of selected molecular kidney injury markers in the setting of GH and albuminuria revealed no significant differences between groups, except for *Nphs2* (podocin) showing reduced mRNA expression in response to combined EP2 and EP4 blockade compared with controls (Figure S3).

Electron microscopy imaging of GFB in untreated MWF as compared with MWF-EP2/EP4^{sh} showed no appreciable differences in qualitative analysis (Figure 4A). Quantitative analysis of foot process width of podocytes⁴⁶ revealed a numerically lower mean value in response to combined EP2/EP4 blockade in 3 randomly selected animals from each of the MWF control and MWF-EP2/EP4^{sh} groups (Figure 4B); of note, 1 of the 3 treated animals exhibited still elevated albuminuria levels and a foot process width corresponding to untreated animals (Figure 4C). Nevertheless, a significant overall positive correlation between albuminuria and foot process width of podocytes ($r = 0.599$; $P = 0.0086$) was detected suggesting thus in turn a beneficial effect on podocyte damage by treatment-induced albuminuria reduction (Figure 4C).

RNA Sequencing Analysis of Transcriptome Response to EP2 and EP4 Receptor Blockade

To determine the potential molecular signature through which the inhibition of PGE₂ signaling mediates the nephroprotective effects, we performed transcriptomic analysis in kidney cortex tissue of untreated MWF control and MWF-EP2/EP4^{sh} rats using bulk RNA sequencing. The RNA sequencing analysis identified only a small number of significantly (adjusted $P < 0.05$) upregulated and downregulated genes in MWF-EP2/EP4^{sh} animals when compared with MWF control (Figure 5; Table S2). Among the differentially expressed genes, we found key genes regulating circadian rhythm including *Cry1*, *Npas2*, and *Nr1d1* (Figures 5 and 6). Selected genes identified by their differential expression in RNA sequencing analysis were validated in secondary analysis using quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction⁴⁸ (Figure 5C; Figure S5; Tables S2 and S3).

DISCUSSION

A recent study demonstrated increased urinary excretion of podocyte-specific proteins coupled with a decreased

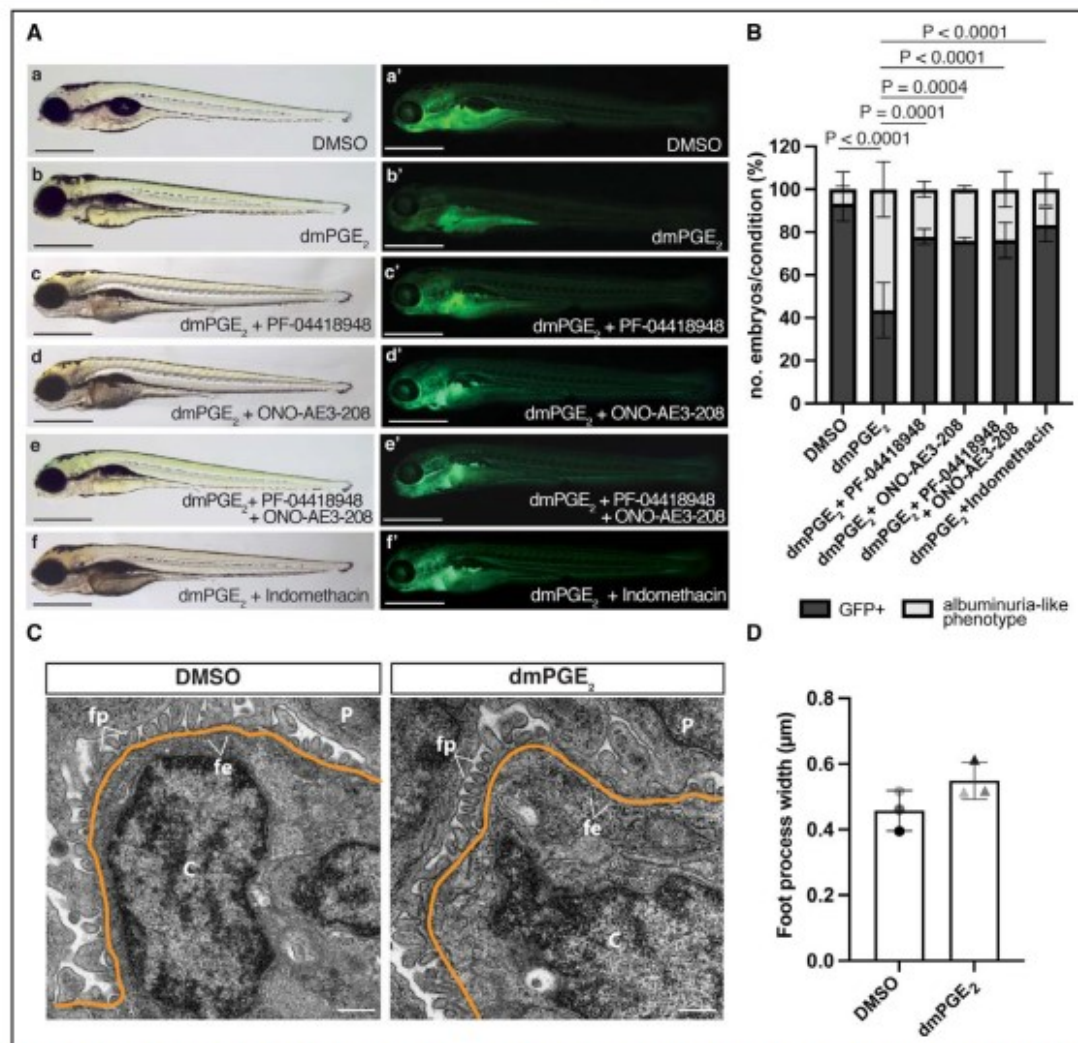


Figure 2. Effects of prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) stimulation and separate and combined EP2 (PGE₂ receptor type 2) and EP4 (PGE₂ receptor type 4) blockade on albuminuria phenotype and glomerular ultrastructure in zebrafish model.

A, Bright-field and fluorescence microscopy images of *Tg(fabp10a:gc-EGFP)* embryos at 96 hours post fertilization (hpf), following pharmacological treatments: (**Aa** and **Aa'**) dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO; vehicle) 0.32%, (**Ab** and **Ab'**) 16,16-dimethyl PGE₂ (dmPGE₂) 125 µM, (**Ac** and **Ac'**) dmPGE₂ 125 µM+PF-04418948 20 µM, (**Ad** and **Ad'**) dmPGE₂ 125 µM+ONO-AE3-208 20 µM, (**Ae** and **Ae'**) dmPGE₂ 125 µM+PF-04418948 20 µM+ONO-AE3-208 20 µM, (**Af** and **Af'**) dmPGE₂ 125 µM+indomethacin 30 µM; N=6, n=120 for all conditions except treatments c and d (N=3; n=60); scale bar, 1 mm. **B**, Phenotypic quantitative analysis of zebrafish embryos at 96 hpf. Embryos are categorized as GFP+ (green fluorescent protein +; visible vitamin D binding protein tagged with enhanced green fluorescent protein fluorescence signal in the trunk vasculature) or albuminuria-like phenotype (partial or complete loss of gc-EGFP fluorescence signal in the trunk vasculature). Percentage values are plotted as mean±SD; n represents biologically independent samples over N independent experiments; ordinary two-way ANOVA with Tukey multiple comparison test. **C**, Representative electron microscopy images of glomerular filtration barrier in the DMSO- (**left**) and dmPGE₂-treated (**right**) zebrafish embryos at 96 hpf; scale bar, 1 µm. Glomerular basement membrane is indicated with the colored line. **D**, Quantitative analysis of foot process width (n=3 for each condition); two-tailed unpaired *t* test with Welch correction (*F*=0.1303). Values are plotted as mean±SD; *P*<0.05 considered significant. C indicates capillary; fe, fenestrated endothelium; fp, foot processes; and P, podocyte cell body.

mRNA expression profile of podocyte-specific genes in patients with hypertension.² This finding supports a role of podocyte dysfunction leading to detachment of podocytes in patients with hypertension and albuminuria.

However, the mechanisms leading to podocyte damage and albuminuria are not well understood. Nevertheless, an increase of fluid flow shear stress upon podocytes represents among other downstream events a functional

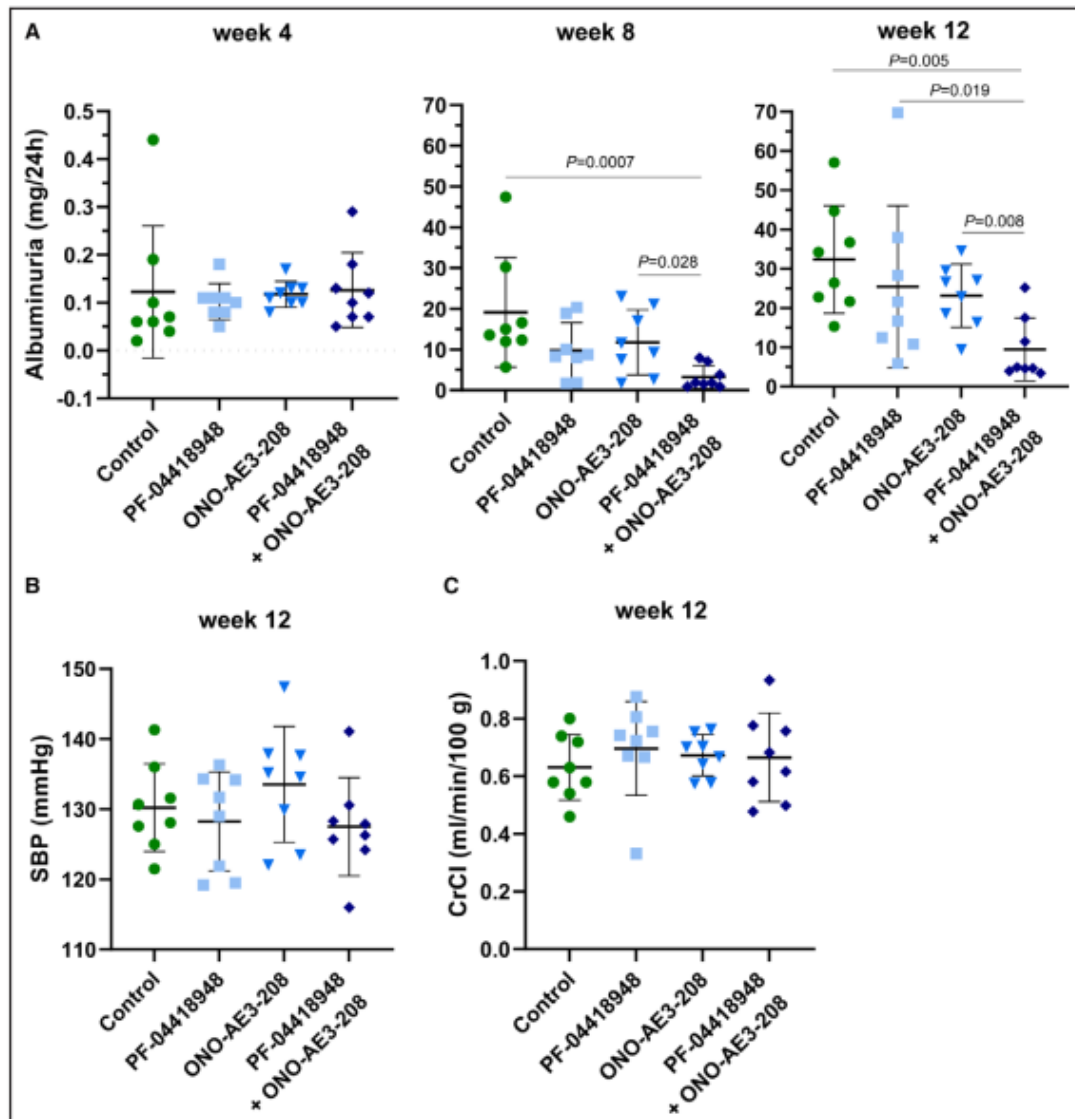


Figure 3. Effects of separate and combined EP2 (prostaglandin E2 [PGE₂] receptor type 2) and EP4 (PGE₂ receptor type 4) blockade on albuminuria development, systolic blood pressure (SBP), and creatinine clearance (CrCl) in the Munich Wistar Frömter (MWF) rat.

A. Time-course analysis of urinary albumin excretion in male MWF rats during the onset of albuminuria between weeks 4 and 12. **B.** SBP. **C.** CrCl. Rats were treated with either separate or combined EP2 (PF-04418948) and EP4 (ONO-AE3-208) antagonists. Rats per group, $n=7$ to 8, each; values are plotted as mean \pm SD. Data were analyzed by two-way ANOVA for albuminuria or one-way ANOVA for SBP and CrCl followed by Bonferroni post hoc analysis. In overall two-way ANOVA analysis, a significant interaction between treatment groups and time course ($P=0.002$) was observed for albuminuria with a significant increase of albuminuria over time and a significant difference between MWF rats treated with combined EP2 and EP4 receptor antagonists (MWF-EP2/EP4^{ab}) compared with all other groups ($P<0.01$, respectively). At 8 weeks, albuminuria was significantly lower in MWF-EP2/EP4^{ab} compared with control and EP4, whereas at 12 weeks, albuminuria was significantly lower compared with all groups.

consequence regardless of the causes of GH. Our previous findings in human podocytes in cell culture implying both EP2 and EP4 signaling in activation of COX2/

PGE₂ in response to fluid flow shear stress¹¹ prompted us to further investigate the role of EP2 and EP4 in this setting in vivo.

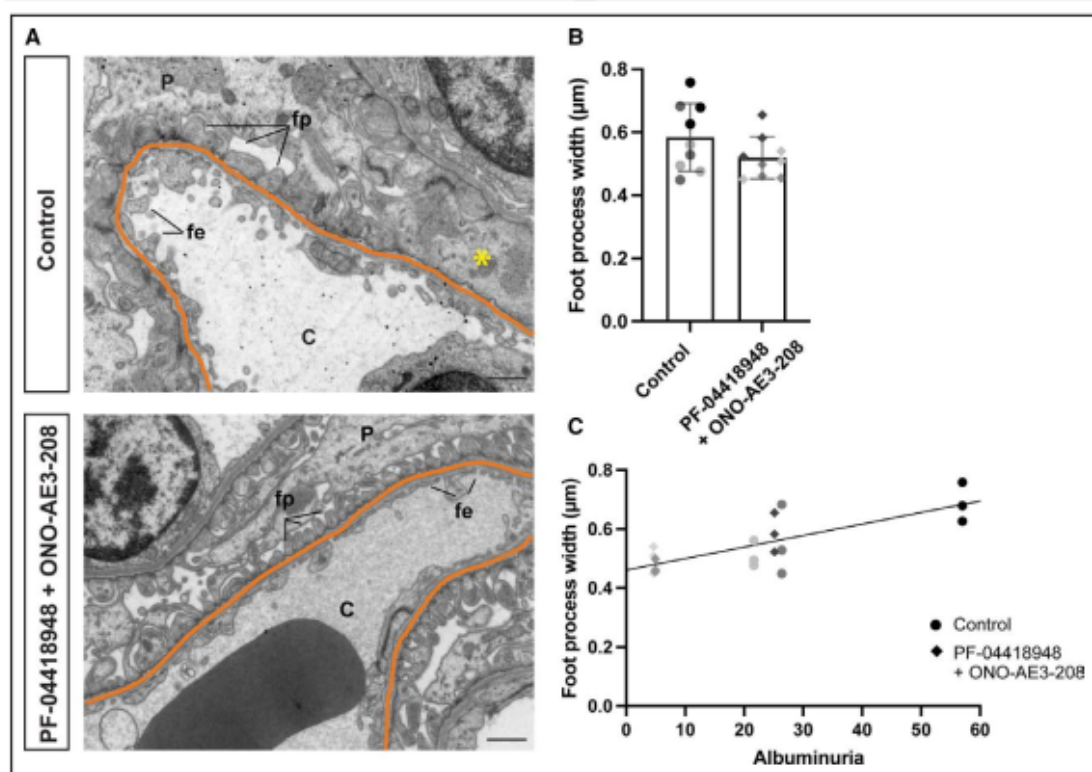


Figure 4. Glomerular ultrastructural analysis after combined inhibition of EP2 (prostaglandin E2 [PGE₂] receptor type 2) and EP4 (PGE₂ receptor type 4) receptors in the Munich Wistar Frömter (MWF) rat.

A, Representative electron microscopy images of glomerular filtration barrier in the MWF rat (control; **top**) and MWF rats treated with combined EP2 and EP4 receptor antagonists at week 12 (**bottom**). Scale bar, 1 µm. Glomerular basement membrane is indicated with the colored line. *Foot process effacement. **B**, Quantitative analysis of foot process width ($n=9$ glomeruli per group, obtained from 3 animals for each condition). The glomeruli of one animal are represented with different shades of gray in both groups; two-tailed unpaired *t* test with Welch correction ($P=0.1490$). **C**, Correlation plots reveal significant correlation between urinary albumin excretion (albuminuria) levels and foot process width; Spearman correlation ($r=0.599$; $P=0.0086$). In all graphs, values are plotted as mean±SD. $P<0.05$ considered significant. C indicates capillary; fe, fenestrated endothelium; fp, foot processes; and P, podocyte cell body.

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The activation of COX2/PGE₂ in podocytes is linked to hyperfiltration-associated increases in biomechanical forces, namely tensile stress and fluid flow shear stress in podocytes.⁹ PGE₂ signaling via EP2 was previously associated with podocyte responses to fluid flow shear stress and to kidney injury in the solitary kidney.⁸ Moreover, *in vivo* studies in rodent models supported a role of EP4 activation in kidney damage, while renoprotective effects by EP4 inhibition have been shown in diabetes²³ and after profound renal mass ablation by 5/6 nephrectomy.^{20,24} A role of EP2 inhibition but not EP4 inhibition has been recently supported in nondiabetic mice after unilateral nephrectomy.²⁵ However, it should be not dismissed that COX-derived prostaglandins including PGE₂ play an important role in maintaining renal homeostasis and may serve as physiological buffers, protecting kidney function under certain pathophysiological conditions, particularly in states associated with decreased effective arterial blood volume.^{7,26,27} Given the multifaceted role of

PGE₂ in the kidney,⁷ we, therefore, first tested whether PGE₂ can in fact induce albuminuria *in vivo* in nondiabetic models. The latter was indeed confirmed in zebrafish experiments. We confirmed a renoprotective role by inhibiting EP2 or EP4 in the zebrafish model, while combined blockade of EP2 and EP4 was similarly effective in reducing the PGE₂-induced albuminuria phenotype as either separate blockade.

In addition to other genetic, SHR models^{28,29} for the study of renal injury, the MWF rat represents a suitable nondiabetic model because of its inherited nephron deficit and increased GH phenotype with endogenous upregulation of glomerular PGE₂.¹¹ The nephroprotective effect of EP2 and EP4 blockade was also confirmed in this model; however, combined blockade was clearly superior leading to a profound suppression of albuminuria. Importantly, this occurred in the absence of significant changes in systemic arterial blood pressure and glomerular filtration rate. Moreover, although we cannot

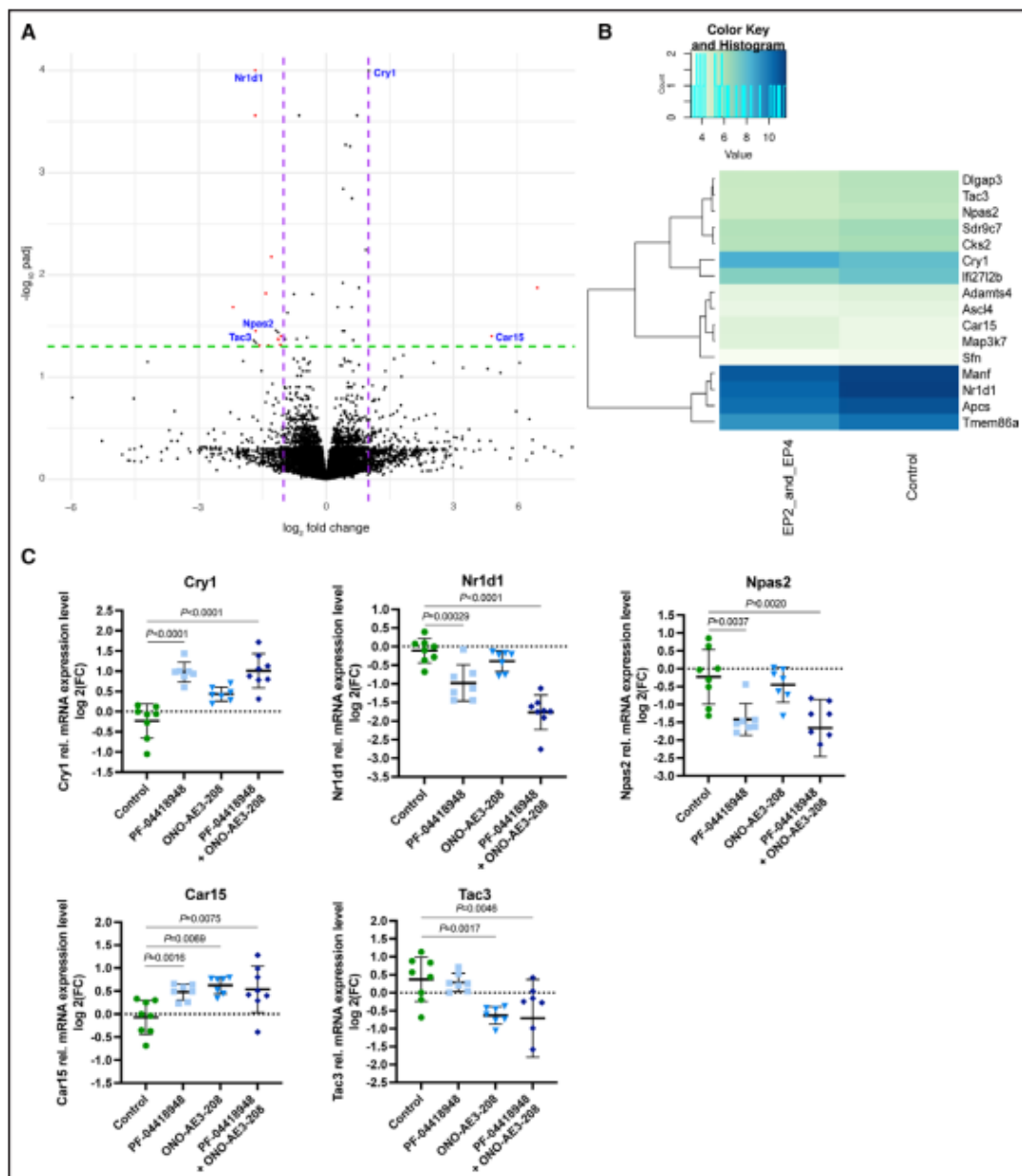


Figure 5. Transcriptome analysis in the Munich Wistar Frömter (MWF) model.

A, Volcano plot showing the comparison of the transcriptome analysis by RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) between untreated MWF control and MWF rats treated with combined EP2 and EP4 receptor antagonists (MWF-EP2/EP4^{ant}). Overall, 16 genes with differential expression (red dots including *Cry1* with a \log_2 fold change value=0.994) were identified. Vertical dotted lines (purple) demonstrate the \log_2 fold change of <-1 and $>+1$, while the horizontal dotted line (green) shows the $-\log_{10}$ of the adjusted *P* value ($P<0.05$ considered significant). **B**, Unscaled heat map shows the differences in expression between the significantly differentially regulated genes in the MWF-EP2/EP4^{ant} compared with MWF control. **C**, Separate quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) analysis showed consistent significant differential expression for 3 main genes associated with circadian rhythm regulation, namely *Cry1*, *Nr1d1*, and *Npas2*. The expression of *Car15* and *Tac3* was also significantly different as identified in the RNA-seq analysis and confirmed by qPCR; respective genes are also annotated in the Volcano plot (**A**). Rats per group ($n=6-8$, each); data are displayed as mean \pm SD; gene data were tested for normal distribution using the Shapiro-Wilk test; *Cry1*, *Npas2*, and *Nr1d1* (not normally distributed) were analyzed using the Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn post hoc analysis, while the rest of the data (normally distributed) were analyzed by one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc test.

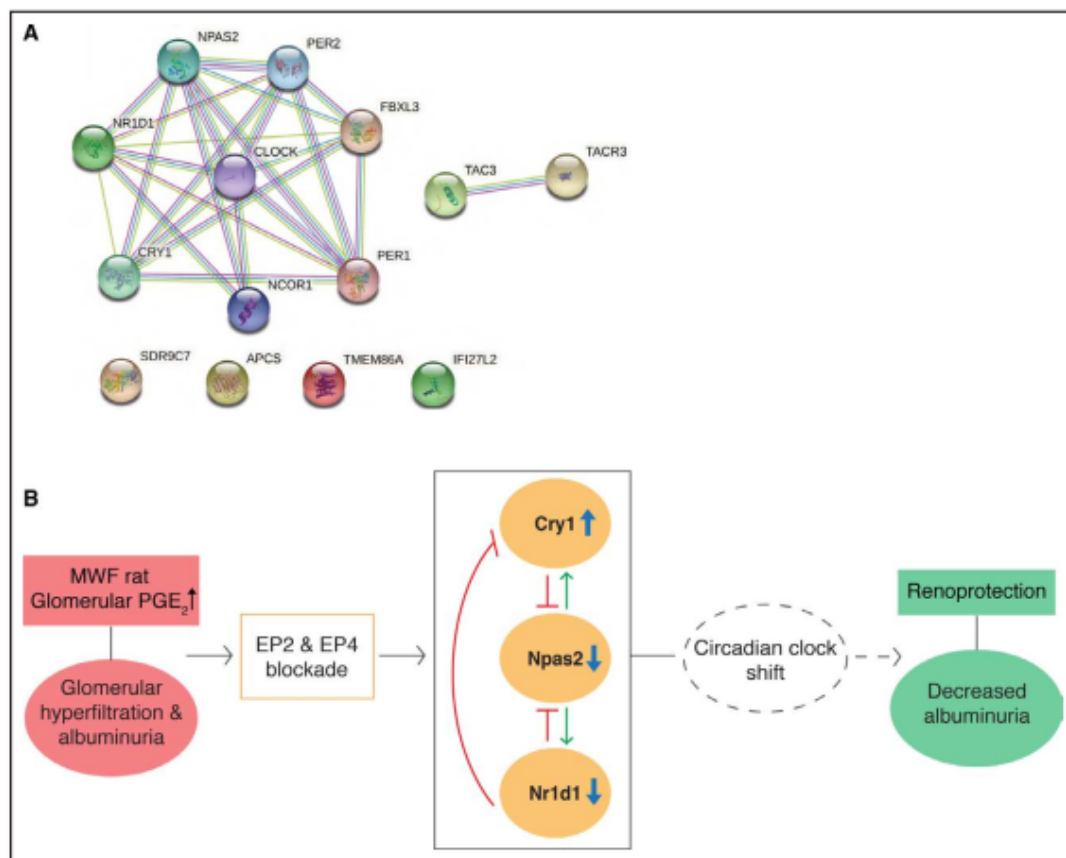


Figure 6. Network analysis supporting the involvement of circadian genes.

A, Full Search Tool for the Retrieval of Interacting Genes/Proteins protein network obtained from the 9 significantly differentially regulated genes derived from the comparison between MWF (Munich Wistar Frömter) control and MWF rats treated with combined EP2 and EP4 receptor antagonists by combining RNA sequencing and quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction confirmation analysis. *Car15* was not recognized from the STRING database; *CLOCK*, *PER1/2*, *NCOR1*, *FBXL3*, and *TAC3R* appear as predicted functional partners. The network shows known interactions: curated databases (blue), experimentally determined (magenta), text mining (green), and protein homology (purple); high confidence interaction score, 0.70. **B**, Schematic representation of the proposed model arising from the transcriptome analysis. Combined pharmacological blockade of EP2 (prostaglandin E_2 [PGE_2] receptor type 2) and EP4 (PGE_2 receptor type 4) receptors in the MWF rat causes a potential circadian clock shift supporting the renoprotective effects of the dual EP receptor blockade. The dashed ellipse shape and arrow indicate our main speculation; the upregulation or downregulation of significantly differentially regulated genes in our transcriptome analysis is shown by the blue arrows, while the green arrows and red inhibition arcs indicate well-known interactions among the circadian rhythm genes.

rule out subtle differences of intrarenal hemodynamics between untreated animals and animals treated with both EP2 and EP4 antagonists, our magnetic resonance imaging analysis of blood oxygenation did not reveal appreciable group differences ruling out major differences in intrarenal blood flow between groups. The in vivo findings in the rat model are thus in agreement with our in vitro data in human podocytes showing a synergistic (additive) inhibitory effect on $COX2/PGE_2$ upregulation by combined EP2 and EP4 blockade in response to fluid flow shear stress,¹¹ as well as our studies in zebrafish. Young adult MWF rats exhibit only mild glomerular

damage and develop significant glomerulosclerosis in older age in parallel with progressive albuminuria development.³⁰ Accordingly, no significant treatment effects by combined EP2 and EP4 blockade on glomerular histology and molecular markers of kidney damage were observed in relatively young animals studied here. In contrast, a significant correlation between podocyte foot process damage and albuminuria in electron microscopy analysis was observed in the overall analysis of treated and untreated animals indicating the potential of podocyte protection by reducing albuminuria with the EP2 and EP4 blockade. The experiments in zebrafish and

the MWF rat model were both conducted in nondiabetic conditions, and it will be, therefore, important to investigate whether the beneficial effect of dual EP2 and EP4 blockade can be replicated in corresponding experimental conditions with GH in diabetes.

In both, our recent in vitro experiments in human podocytes¹¹ and in the current in vivo study in the rat model, it was shown that dual EP2 and EP4 blockade demonstrated an additive synergistic effect, when compared with a separate blockade. This occurred against the background of reported differential regulation of both receptors³¹ including differences regarding agonist-induced internalization that applies to EP4, while EP2 appears resistant to desensitization and internalization.^{31,32} Thus, the receptor regulation in podocytes and the kidney and the mechanism contributing to the beneficial effects of combined EP2 and EP4 inhibition remains to be further elucidated. In this regard, RNA sequencing analysis of kidney cortex tissue in the rat experiments indicated that the overall transcriptome is only marginally affected by treatment with EP2 and EP4 antagonists. Thus, only a few genes were differentially expressed in response to treatment including genes related to the transcriptional-translational feedback loops of circadian clocks.^{33,34} The expression of *Cry1* (increased expression) and *Nr1d1* (decreased expression), as transcriptional repressors of the main clock regulatory components BMAL-1 (basic helix-loop-helix ARNT like 1) and CLOCK (circadian locomotor output cycles kaput), was significantly changed (Figure 5). Furthermore, the expression of the activator *Npas2* of core clock and clock-controlled genes was significantly reduced. Subsequent network analysis supported a potential involvement of circadian clock genes in the response of treatment with EP2 and EP4 antagonists.

The importance of circadian clocks for kidney function has only recently emerged.^{33,35} For instance, kidney-associated ciliopathy phenotype was reverted by the circadian clock genes in zebrafish.³⁶ Importantly, podocyte-specific *Bmal1* deletion led to a 12-hour instead of 24-hour circadian rhythm in mice, supporting the role of an intrinsic circadian clock in podocytes in the control of glomerular filtration.³⁴ Depending on the experimental setting, previous gene targeting studies in mice suggested both protective³⁷ and adverse effects³⁸ of circadian clocks on kidney damage and implicated also a protective effect mediated by controlling COX2 expression.³⁷ A link between COX2/PGE₂ and the circadian clock system has been demonstrated in experimental studies,^{39,40} while its potential relevance in the setting of GH remains unclear. The removal of *Nr1d1* (encoded by *Rev-erb-alpha*) has been linked to the induction of COX2 in endometrial cells,⁴⁰ while PGE₂ or its analog, misoprostol, have been shown to upregulate the expression of *Per* genes.^{39,41} In agreement, our transcriptomic analysis identified a potential presence of a shift in the circadian clock linked to the COX2-PGE₂-EP2/EP4 pathway in

the setting of GH and indicated that PGE₂ signaling is intricately associated with the kidney-intrinsic circadian clock, which warrants further investigation.

Currently, inhibitors of the renin-angiotensin-system, that is, angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor and angiotensin receptor blockers, represent the backbone of recommended antihypertensive therapy⁴² due to their additional protective properties including renal protection in the setting of GH by reducing intraglomerular capillary pressure. Based on recent evidence from clinical trials, additional treatment with SGLT-2 (sodium-glucose cotransporter-2) inhibitors will provide additional renoprotection in various forms of chronic kidney diseases including patients with albuminuria.⁴³ The current study supports a novel renoprotective effect by combining the EP2 and EP4 receptors in the setting of GH and albuminuria under nondiabetic conditions. Targeting dual blockade of G-protein-coupled receptors provides an interesting therapeutic option including the treatment of hypertension as recently highlighted by using dual endothelin receptor blockade.⁴⁴ In this regard, it is of interest that a highly specific dual EP2 and EP4 antagonist (ie, TPST-1495) has been developed and is currently being tested in a phase 1 study in patients with solid tumors.⁴⁵ Hence, the use of dual EP2 and EP4 blockade by TPST-1495 has been shown in preclinical studies to inhibit tumor proliferation and to stimulate anticancer immunity better than inhibiting EP2 or EP4 receptors separately or even all 4 PGE₂ receptors together.⁴⁵

PERSPECTIVES

The COX2/PGE₂ pathway has been implicated in kidney damage in the setting of GH but the role of either both or separate EP2 and EP4 receptors as potential targets for renoprotection in different pathophysiological conditions with GH and hypertension remains unclear. The current study supports further translational research to explore the mechanisms and potential of combined EP2 and EP4 blockade in kidney injury with albuminuria due to GH.

ARTICLE INFORMATION

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Disclosures

None.

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2	CELL	242,829	36.216	0.571850
3	NATURE MEDICINE	79,243	30.641	0.162840
4	CANCER CELL	36,056	23.916	0.091050
5	Cell Metabolism	34,829	22.415	0.099550
6	Cell Stem Cell	24,628	21.464	0.087030
7	CELL RESEARCH	15,131	17.848	0.038680
8	NATURE CELL BIOLOGY	40,615	17.728	0.082430
9	Science Translational Medicine	30,485	17.161	0.121980
10	TRENDS IN CELL BIOLOGY	14,380	16.588	0.034120
11	MOLECULAR CELL	62,812	14.548	0.170680
12	NATURE STRUCTURAL & MOLECULAR BIOLOGY	27,166	12.109	0.069440
13	EMBO JOURNAL	65,212	11.227	0.067930
14	Autophagy	16,161	11.059	0.032630
15	TRENDS IN MOLECULAR MEDICINE	9,946	11.028	0.018900
16	Journal of Extracellular Vesicles	3,675	11.000	0.012110
17	Annual Review of Cell and Developmental Biology	9,734	10.833	0.016750
18	AGEING RESEARCH REVIEWS	6,539	10.390	0.015890
19	CURRENT BIOLOGY	60,772	9.193	0.135820
20	DEVELOPMENTAL CELL	28,572	9.190	0.068550

Rank	Full Journal Title	Total Cites	Journal Impact Factor	Eigenfactor Score
21	Cold Spring Harbor Perspectives in Biology	15,375	9.110	0.041830
22	GENES & DEVELOPMENT	54,563	8.990	0.072340
23	JOURNAL OF CELL BIOLOGY	67,347	8.891	0.075660
24	Cell Systems	2,275	8.640	0.016280
25	PLANT CELL	52,034	8.631	0.057800
26	EMBO REPORTS	13,786	8.383	0.029850
27	CURRENT OPINION IN CELL BIOLOGY	13,417	8.233	0.025790
28	CELL DEATH AND DIFFERENTIATION	19,729	8.086	0.030290
29	Cell Reports	39,510	7.815	0.235540
30	Protein & Cell	3,243	7.575	0.009080
31	AGING CELL	8,993	7.346	0.018810
32	CURRENT OPINION IN STRUCTURAL BIOLOGY	11,066	7.052	0.024160
33	CELLULAR AND MOLECULAR LIFE SCIENCES	24,422	7.014	0.038970
34	MATRIX BIOLOGY	5,699	6.986	0.009540
35	ONCOGENE	63,249	6.634	0.074600
36	Tissue Engineering Part B-Reviews	3,550	6.512	0.004970
37	Science Signaling	11,403	6.481	0.033700
38	Cell Death & Disease	19,001	5.959	0.051780
39	Signal Transduction and Targeted Therapy	371	5.873	0.000990
40	Cells	1,412	5.656	0.003990
41	STEM CELLS	21,467	5.614	0.030220
42	Aging-US	5,185	5.515	0.012440

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Article

Concerted EP2 and EP4 Receptor Signaling Stimulates Autocrine Prostaglandin E₂ Activation in Human Podocytes

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Abstract: Glomerular hyperfiltration is an important mechanism in the development of albuminuria. During hyperfiltration, podocytes are exposed to increased fluid flow shear stress (FFSS) in Bowman's space. Elevated Prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) synthesis and upregulated cyclooxygenase 2 (Cox2) are associated with podocyte injury by FFSS. We aimed to elucidate a PGE₂ autocrine/paracrine pathway in human podocytes (hPC). We developed a modified liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC/ESI-MS/MS) protocol to quantify cellular PGE₂, 15-keto-PGE₂, and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ levels. hPC were treated with PGE₂ with or without separate or combined blockade of prostaglandin E receptors (EP), EP2, and EP4. Furthermore, the effect of FFSS on COX2, PTGER2, and PTGER4 expression in hPC was quantified. In hPC, stimulation with PGE₂ led to an EP2- and EP4-dependent increase in cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) and COX2, and induced cellular PGE₂. PTGER4 was downregulated after PGE₂ stimulation in hPC. In the corresponding LC/ESI-MS/MS in vivo analysis at the tissue level, increased PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ levels were observed in isolated glomeruli obtained from a well-established rat model with glomerular hyperfiltration, the Munich Wistar Frömter rat. COX2 and PTGER2 were upregulated by FFSS. Our data thus support an autocrine/paracrine COX2/PGE₂ pathway in hPC linked to concerted EP2 and EP4 signaling.

Keywords: podocyte; hyperfiltration; chronic kidney disease; prostaglandin E₂; COX2; EP2; EP4; G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) signaling; LC/ESI-MS/MS; MWF; SHR

1. Introduction

Podocytes are terminally differentiated epithelial cells that form the third layer of the glomerular filter with their interdigitating foot processes [1]. Their high degree of differentiation permits podocytes to accomplish their highly specialized functions. However, it limits their regenerative capacity, making them particularly vulnerable to pathological conditions such as glomerular hyperfiltration. When nephron number is reduced, compensatory changes of the remaining functional nephrons lead to adaptation of glomerular hemodynamics, resulting in increased glomerular filtration rate (GFR) in

the single nephron and concomitantly in higher ultrafiltrate flow in Bowman's space [2–4] (reviewed in [5]). This causes increased fluid flow shear stress (FFSS) and contributes to podocyte damage [3, 6]. Perturbation of the glomerular filtration barrier contributes to proteinuria, glomerulosclerosis, and alteration in GFR, and thus promotes the gradual decline in renal function as observed in chronic kidney disease (CKD) (reviewed in [7–9]).

Understanding the pathomechanisms underlying podocyte damage due to glomerular hyperfiltration might help to identify therapeutical targets to protect against maladaptive responses of podocytes, which otherwise contribute to renal damage. Previous studies support a pathophysiological role of Cox2 (Ptg2, cyclooxygenase 2) and prostaglandin E2 (PGE₂) activation for development of albuminuria by increasing the permeability of the glomerular filtration barrier (reviewed in [5]). Furthermore, upregulation of Cox2 and Ptger2 (prostaglandin E receptor 2, EP2) was shown in uninephrectomized mice and murine podocytes exposed to FFSS, i.e., in two different experimental settings to study hyperfiltration [10]. These data suggest that PGE₂ synthesis and signaling may play a role in podocyte responses to hyperfiltration.

Cox2 is long known to mediate increased synthesis of PGE₂ upon diverse stimuli (reviewed in [11,12]). Extracellularly, PGE₂ exerts its effects via four different G-protein coupled prostaglandin E receptors (EP1–4) in human and rodents (reviewed in [13]). EP1, -2 and -4 mRNA expression was reported in mouse podocytes, EP2 and -4 were also detected on protein level [14]. However, the expression of EP in human podocytes (hPC) is unclear. Both EP2 and EP4 stimulate adenylate cyclase activity leading to elevated cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) levels while EP1 increases intracellular Ca²⁺ (reviewed in [15–17]).

An autocrine/paracrine pathway between PGE₂ and Cox2 was described previously, indicating that PGE₂ leads to upregulation of Cox2 in osteocyte-like cells (murine long bone osteocyte Y4, MLO-Y4) [18]. This, in turn, increases synthesis of intracellular PGE₂, which again induces Cox2. It remains a matter of debate which EP mediates this mutual amplification: In mouse podocytes, EP4 and the p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) signaling pathway were described to be involved in PGE₂-mediated Cox2 upregulation and cAMP increase [19]. In other cell types, activation of EP2 with or without EP4-coupled cAMP/protein kinase A (PKA) pathway was shown to upregulate Cox2 following PGE₂-treatment [20–22]. EP2 signaling was shown to be the relevant mechanism in response to FFSS in mouse podocytes [14]. Indeed, the PGE₂-Cox2-EP2 axis is suggested to be the relevant target for podocyte damage induced by FFSS [10,23]. So far, the mechanisms involved have not been investigated in hPC in detail. In this study, we therefore aimed to elucidate an autocrine/paracrine PGE₂/COX2 pathway in hPC and to identify which EP contributes to this crosstalk. We determined COX2, PTGER2, and PTGER4 expression in hPC after PGE₂ stimulation and FFSS. Our results corroborate recent findings in murine models of hyperfiltration on autocrine/paracrine Cox2 and PGE₂ activation in hPC. Moreover, we find this pathway in hPC to be linked to concerted EP2 and EP4 signaling.

Importantly, distinct analysis of cellular PGE₂ and its metabolites is crucial to elucidate their pathophysiological role in podocyte damage [10,23]. However, precise measurement of intracellular prostaglandins remains challenging. Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA) are widely used but have their limitations, e.g., the lack of standardization across different kits and low specificity, selectivity, and throughput compared to liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) methods [24,25]. As a limitation, LC-MS/MS oftentimes requires large quantities of samples which are difficult to obtain in cell culture experiments [26–32]. We were able to overcome these obstacles and provide an approach to analyze prostaglandins in hPC by liquid chromatography electrospray ionization tandem mass spectrometry (LC/ESI-MS/MS). With our modified LC/ESI-MS/MS protocol, we were able to precisely quantify cellular PGE₂, 15-keto-PGE₂, and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ levels. After stimulation with PGE₂, the cellular PGE₂-content was elevated, which was completely blocked by pharmacological inhibition EP2 and EP4. In addition, we performed corresponding *in vivo* analysis at the tissue level by using the LC/ESI-MS/MS methodology and demonstrated increased PGE₂ and

15-keto-PGE₂ levels in isolated glomeruli obtained from a well-established rat model with glomerular hyperfiltration, i.e., the Munich Wistar Frömter rat (MWF).

Our findings on elevated glomerular PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ levels strengthen the hypothesis that glomerular PGE₂-induction associates with albuminuria due to podocyte damage.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Cell Culture

Conditionally immortalized hPC (kindly provided by Moin A. Saleem, University of Bristol, UK) were cultured according to the original protocol [33,34] with slight modifications. The cells proliferate at 33 °C and transform to differentiated hPC when kept at ≥37 °C exhibiting podocyte-specific markers [34]. Briefly, podocytes were grown at 33 °C and 5% CO₂ in Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI)-1640 medium (cat. no. BS.F1215, Bio&SELL, Feucht/Nürnberg, Germany) supplemented with 1% Insulin-Transferrin-Selenium 100X (cat. no. 41400-045, Gibco, Grand Island, NY, USA), 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, cat. no. F7524, Sigma, Steinheim, Germany) and 1% ZellShield® to prevent contamination (cat. no. 13-0150, Minerva Biolabs, Berlin, Germany). Medium was changed 2–3 times per week. At confluency of 70–80%, podocytes were transferred to 37–38 °C until full confluence and proliferation arrest. Subsequently, cells were kept for a minimum of 14 days at 37–38 °C to obtain full differentiation. Differentiated phenotype was confirmed by analysis of the marker synaptopodin by immunofluorescence (see Supplement Figure S1a,b). Characterization also included overall comparison of the cellular shape (“cobblestone-like” in undifferentiated state and “arborized” in differentiated hPC [33]) by light microscopy, synaptopodin mRNA expression, as well as nephrin and podocin protein detection by immunofluorescence and western blot (see Supplement Figures S1c–e and S2). Prior to experiments, cells were detached with Trypsin 0.25%/EDTA 0.02% solution (cat. no. L-2163, Biochrom, Berlin, Germany), seeded in 12-well plates at 1 × 10⁵ cells per well and kept in RPMI-1640 medium with supplements for adherence overnight. All experimental treatments were carried out in supplement-free RPMI-1640 medium at 37–38 °C with cell passages between 5 and 22.

2.2. PGE₂ Treatment and Inhibition of EP Receptors

PF-04418948 (cat. no. PZ0213, Sigma, Steinheim, Germany) served as EP2 antagonist [35,36] and ONO-AE3-208 (cat. no. 14522, Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) was chosen as EP4 antagonist [37,38]. Stock solutions of PGE₂ (cat. no. 14010, Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI, USA), PF-04418948, and ONO-AE3-208 with 10 mM were prepared in DMSO (cat. no. D2650, Sigma, Steinheim, Germany) and stored at –20 °C until further use.

Podocytes were treated with PGE₂ at 10 nM–1 μM concentrations as PGE₂-concentrations up to 1 μM are commonly used for in vitro experiments in murine podocytes [39,40]. For inhibition experiments, 1 μM or even higher concentrations of the selective EP2 and/or EP4 antagonist were used in previous studies [36,37,41–43]. In a pilot study, treatment with PGE₂ and EP2 antagonist (1 μM each) did not show inhibitory effects (Supplement Figure S4). Thus, antagonists were added concomitantly to PGE₂ 100 nM for the indicated time-points.

2.3. Determination of Intracellular cAMP Levels

Intracellular cAMP levels were measured using an ELISA kit (cat. no. ADI-901-163, Enzo Life Sciences, Farmingdale, NY, USA). Cells were lysed in 300–400 μL 0.1 M HCl containing 0.1% Triton X-100 and samples were processed according to the manufacturer’s instructions for the non-acetylated format. PGE₂ stimulated samples were diluted 1:5, and samples of PGE₂ stimulation plus co-incubation with either the EP2 or the EP4 antagonist were diluted 1:2–3 in lysis buffer. Optical density was measured at 415 nm and cAMP concentrations were normalized for protein content for each sample. Protein amount was quantified by a colorimetric kit (cat. no. 23227, Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit,

Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL, USA). Experiments for cAMP consisted of $n = 3-6$ samples per experimental group and were performed once or in duplicate as indicated.

2.4. Reverse Transcription and Quantitative Real-Time PCR

Total RNA of hPC was isolated using the RNeasy[®] Micro Kit (cat. no. 74004, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) following the manufacturer's protocol. RNA quality was controlled by a 260/280 nm absorption ratio. For cDNA synthesis, total RNA was reverse-transcribed using the First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (cat. no. K1612, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Vilnius, Lithuania).

Quantitative Real-Time PCR (qPCR) was conducted in a CFX96 Touch PCR system (Bio-Rad, München, Germany; software version 3.1.1517.0823) or in a 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Darmstadt, Germany; software version 2.0.6) using the comparative quantitative cycle method with SYBR-green (cat. no. 4,385,612 and 100029284, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Vilnius, Lithuania) as reported previously [44,45]. Expression analysis of each sample was done in three technical replicates and only samples with an intra-triplicate standard deviation (SD) < 0.2 were used for further calculation. Normalization of expression was done by the reference gene glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (*GAPDH*). $\Delta\Delta Ct$ was normalized to the untreated controls in hPC. All results were plotted as log₂ of fold change (FC) ($2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$). Primer sequences are listed in Table 1. Primers were purchased from Eurofins Genomics, Ebersberg, Germany or Tib Molbiol, Berlin, Germany and specificity of detected reverse transcriptase (RT)-PCR products was confirmed by sequencing at Eurofins Genomics, Ebersberg, Germany. *COX2*-qPCR for hPC consisted of $n = 3-8$ samples per experimental group and were performed in duplicate or triplicate as indicated.

Table 1. Primer sequences for human (h) genes of interest.

Gene	Forward Primer (5'-3')	Reverse Primer (5'-3')
<i>hGAPDH</i>	gagtcaacggattggtcgt	gatctgctctggaagatg
<i>hCOX2</i>	tgatgattgccgactccctg	tgaagctggccctcgttatg
<i>hPTGER1</i>	ttcggcctccactctcttg	cgcagtaggatgtacaccaag
<i>hPTGER2</i>	gacggaccactcattcctc	tccgacaacagaggactgaac
<i>hPTGER3</i>	tctcgcctctgataatgatg	atcttccaatggctcgtc
<i>hPTGER4</i>	ttactcattgccactcctc	agtcaaaggacatcttctgcca

2.5. LC/ESI-MS/MS for Analysis of Prostaglandins

2.5.1. Sample Preparation

After stimulation or inhibition experiments, supernatants were removed and stored at -80°C . Cells were washed twice with cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS), PBS was completely aspirated from wells, and the 12-well plates were immediately stored at -80°C until further processing. Before analysis, cells were scraped from plate and suspended in 500 μL water. A 50 μL aliquot was taken for total protein measurement following the Lowry protocol.

The cell suspensions were spiked with an internal standard consisting of 14,15-Epoxyeicosatrienoic acid-d8, 14,15-Dihydroxyeicosatrienoic acid-d11, 15-Hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid-d8, 20-Hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid-d6, Leukotriene B₄-d4, PGE₂-d4 1 ng each (Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI, USA). In addition, 500 μL methanol and 5 μL 2,6-di-tert-butyl-4-methylphenol (BHT, 10 mg/mL) were added and shaken vigorously.

The total prostaglandins were released using phospholipase A2 from honey bee *Apis Mellifera* (Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany) as described previously [46]. After pH adjustment to 6, acetic acid samples were extracted by solid phase extraction (SPE) using Bond Elute Certify II columns (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA), which were preconditioned with 3 mL methanol, followed by 3 mL of 0.1 mol/L phosphate buffer containing 5% methanol (pH 6). SPE-columns were then washed with 3 mL methanol/H₂O (40/50, v/v). For elution, 2 mL of n-hexane:ethyl acetate 25:75

with 1% acetic acid was used. The extraction was performed with an SPE Vacuum Manifold. The eluate was evaporated on a heating block at 40 °C under a stream of nitrogen to obtain a solid residue which was dissolved in 100 µL methanol/water 60:40 and transferred in an HPLC autosampler vial (HPLC, high performance liquid chromatography).

Experiments for analysis of prostaglandins in hPC consisted of $n = 3-6$ replicates per experimental group and. Experiments were performed once or in triplicate (on different cell passages and on different days) as indicated.

Rat glomeruli obtained by differential sieving of one kidney as described below were divided into 3 parts and stored at -80 °C until further analysis. One aliquot with approximately 1/3 total kidney was prepared as described for cells, but without application of phospholipase A2.

For rat plasma, 200 µL plasma were spiked with internal standard and BHT. In addition, 20 µL glycerol and 500 µL acetonitrile was added and shaken vigorously. pH was adjusted at 6 with 2 mL phosphate buffer (0.1 mol/L). The samples were centrifuged and the clear supernatant was extracted using SPE as described above.

Experiments for analysis of prostaglandins in rat glomeruli or plasma consisted of $n = 8-10$ glomerular isolated or plasma samples of $n = 8-10$ different animals per rat strain.

2.5.2. LC/ESI-MS/MS

The residues were analyzed using an Agilent 1290 HPLC system with binary pump, multisampler and column thermostat with a Zorbax Eclipse plus C-18, 2.1×150 mm, 1.8 µm column using a solvent system of aqueous acetic acid (0.05%) and acetonitrile. The elution gradient was started with 5% organic phase, which was increased within 0.5 min to 32%, 16 min to 36.5%, 20 min to 38%, 28 min to 98% and held there for 5 min. The flow rate was set at 0.3 mL/min, the injection volume was 20 µL. The HPLC was coupled with an Agilent 6495 Triplequad mass spectrometer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) with electrospray ionisation source. The source parameters were Drying gas: 115 °C/16 L/min, Sheath gas: 390 °C/12 L/min, Capillary voltage: 4300 V, Nozzle voltage: 1950 V, and Nebulizer pressure: 35 psi.

Analysis was performed with Multiple Reaction Monitoring in negative mode. For details, see Table S1. Unless stated otherwise, all solvents and chemicals were purchased from VWR International GmbH, Darmstadt, Germany.

2.6. FFSS

For FFSS, $1 \times 10^5 - 6 \times 10^5$ cells were seeded on collagen IV coated Culture Slips® (cat. no. CS-C/IV, Dunn Labortechnik GmbH, Asbach, Germany), which are glass slides coated with collagen type IV and rimmed with a 1.0 mm wide polytetrafluoroethylene border to limit cell culture growth to the portion of the slip exposed to fluid flow. FFSS experiments were performed as previously described with slight modifications [23]. The Streamer® Shear Stress Device (cat. no. STR-400, Dunn Labortechnik GmbH, Asbach, Germany) was installed in a 38 °C incubator with 5% CO₂ and prepared as follows: 400 mL of PBS followed by RPMI-1640 medium were pumped through the device for approximately 10 min each. Prior to each change of content, flow direction was reversed to empty the tubes from the previous liquid. After washing, medium was replaced by 400 mL of new medium. The system was checked for leaks and air bubbles were eliminated. After preparation of the streamer, flow direction was again reversed until the streamer was half-filled by medium. Tubes were released from the pump, the system was taken out of the incubator, Culture Slips® with hPC were inserted in the Streamer®, and the system was placed back into the incubator. All 6 slots of the Streamer® were filled to allow consistent flow. Based on previous research, we applied FFSS at 2 dynes/cm² for 2 h [23]. At the end of each experiment, flow rate was reversed and cells were released from the device. Control cells were put in the same incubator with the same medium but were not exposed to FFSS.

2.7. Animals

The MWF rat served as a model for CKD with albuminuria, while the spontaneously hypertensive rat (SHR) served as a control strain. SHR rats develop hypertension early in life but are resistant to albuminuria development as reviewed in [47].

Male rats at 8 weeks of age were deployed from our MWF/Rkb (RRID:RGD_724569, laboratory code Rkb <https://www.nationalacademies.org/ilar/lab-code-database>) and SHR/Rkb (RRID:RGD_631696, laboratory code Rkb <https://www.nationalacademies.org/ilar/lab-code-database>) colonies at Charité—Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Germany. Rats were kept under standard conditions as described previously [44]. All experimental work in rat models was performed in accordance with the guidelines of the Charité—Universitätsmedizin Berlin and the local authority for animal protection (Landesamt für Gesundheit und Soziales, Berlin, Germany) for the use of laboratory animals. The registration numbers for the rat experiments are G 130/16 (approved 2 August 2016) and T 0189/02 (approved 31 August 2018). Anesthesia was achieved by ketamine-xylazine (87 and 13 mg/kg body weight, respectively). Kidneys were obtained, decapsulated, and sieved using a 125 µm steel sieve (Retsch GmbH, Haan, Germany) rinsed by PBS. The filtrate was then placed on a 71 µm steel sieve (Retsch GmbH, Haan, Germany) and washed with PBS. Glomeruli were kept on the sieve and were separated from the flow-through. Glomeruli were rinsed off the sieve with PBS, centrifuged, snap-frozen, and stored at $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ until further processing. Plasma was obtained by retrobulbar puncture or puncture of vena cava and collected in ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA)-containing vials, centrifuged at 2 min at $4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, and stored subsequently at $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.

2.8. Statistics

Statistical analysis was conducted using GraphPad Prism 8.4.0 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). Normal distribution was tested with the Shapiro–Wilk test. Normally distributed data were compared either by unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test or one-way ANOVA with Tukey's or Dunnett's multiple comparisons test as indicated. Multiple comparisons tests after one-way ANOVA were used to compare every mean to every other mean (Tukey' follow up test) or to a control mean (Dunnett's follow up test). Results not normally distributed were analyzed by Mann–Whitney test or Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons test as indicated. Significance level was set at $p < 0.05$. Statistical details for specific experiment can be found within figures and figure legends.

3. Results

3.1. PGE₂ Leads to EP2- and EP4- Dependent Increased cAMP Levels in Differentiated hPC

Stimulation of hPC with 100 nM PGE₂ led to an immediate time-dependent increase in intracellular cAMP levels detected after 1 min onward and retained at least until 40 min of PGE₂ stimulation (Figure 1). As intracellular cAMP levels remained comparably high until 20 min of PGE₂ stimulation, this incubation time was chosen for subsequent cAMP measurements.

Analysis of EP expression on hPC revealed the presence of *PTGER1*, *PTGER2*, and *PTGER4* mRNA in differentiated hPC (Figure S3), which encode for EP1, EP2, and EP4, respectively. As only EP2 and EP4 are reported to mediate an increase in intracellular cAMP (reviewed in [15–17]), we next investigated the effect of pharmacological inhibition of EP2 and EP4 signaling on PGE₂-stimulated intracellular cAMP levels in hPC. Therefore, either the selective antagonist of EP2 (PF-04418948, 1 µM) or EP4 (ONO-AE3-208, 1 µM) were co-incubated with 100 nM PGE₂ individually and in combination (Figure 2). Upon PGE₂ stimulation, antagonism of either EP2 (−92.5%) or EP4 (−63.7%) alone resulted in a marked albeit only partial decrease of intracellular cAMP levels compared to stimulated hPC without antagonists. In contrast, the PGE₂ stimulated intracellular cAMP increase was completely abrogated by combined EP2 and EP4 antagonism (Figure 2), suggesting that, in hPC, both EP2 and EP4 may mediate PGE₂-dependent signaling.

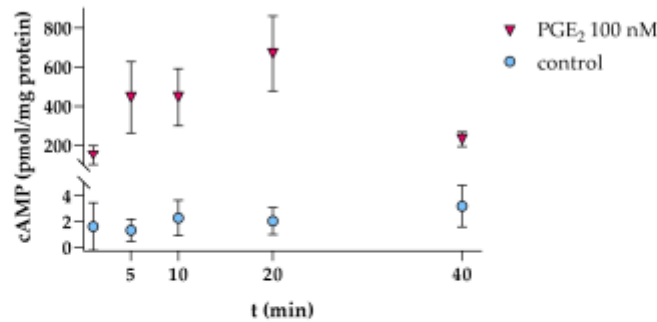


Figure 1. Intracellular cAMP levels in hPC are increased by PGE₂ stimulation (100 nM, pink triangles) in a time-dependent manner. For several controls (blue circles), cAMP levels fell below the lowest concentration of the recommended standard curve (0.78 pmol/mL) and were therefore set to zero. Each data point represents the mean ± SD of one experiment with *n* = 3–4 samples per time-point.

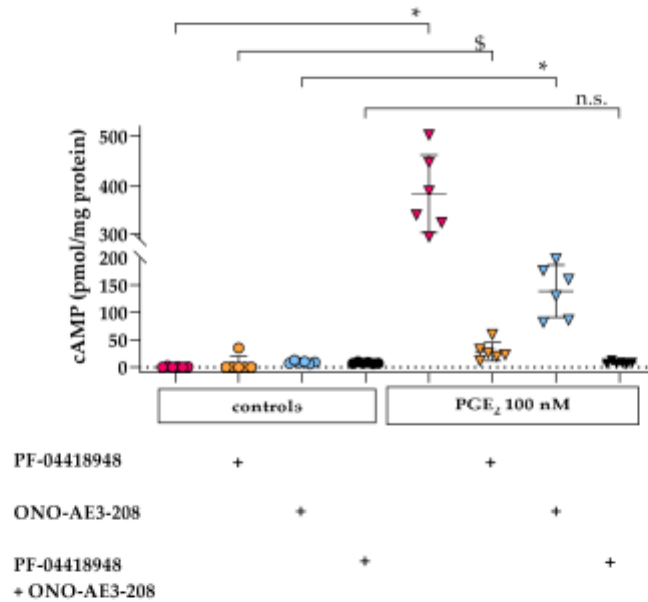


Figure 2. Intracellular cAMP is increased by PGE₂ stimulation via EP2 and EP4 in hPC. Representative cAMP levels following PGE₂ stimulation for 20 min without concomitant EP2 or EP4 antagonist (100 nM, pink triangles) compared to controls without PGE₂ (pink circles), after co-incubation with either EP2 antagonist (PF-04418948, 1 μM, orange triangles) or EP4 antagonist (ONO-AE3-208, 1 μM, blue triangles) compared to controls without PGE₂ (orange circles for EP2 antagonist, blue circles for EP4 antagonist), and co-incubation of PGE₂ with both antagonists simultaneously (1 μM each, black triangles) compared to controls without PGE₂ (black circles). Each data point represents a single sample and plotted as mean ± SD (horizontal lines) per treatment group consisting of *n* = 6 samples. For several controls, cAMP levels fell below the lowest concentration of the recommended standard curve (0.78 pmol/mL) and were therefore set to zero. Experiments were done in duplicate on different cell passages and on different dates, each consisting of *n* = 3–6 replicates per treatment, except for the separate EP4 inhibition, which was only performed once. Statistics: *, *p* < 0.01; \$, *p* < 0.05; n.s., not significant, assessed by a Mann–Whitney test. + denotes addition of the respective EP antagonists.

3.2. PGE₂ Induces COX2 Gene Expression via EP2 and EP4 Signaling in Differentiated hPC

Stimulation of hPC with PGE₂ for 2 h revealed a dose-dependent upregulation of COX2 mRNA expression (Figure 3a). In order to elucidate the role of EP2 and EP4 in PGE₂-mediated COX2 upregulation, either the selective EP2 antagonist PF-04418948 (1 μM) or the selective EP4 antagonist ONO-AE3-208 (1 μM) were co-incubated with 100 nM PGE₂ individually or in combination (Figure 3b). Upon PGE₂ stimulation, antagonism of either EP2 or EP4 alone resulted in an increase in COX2 mRNA although lower compared to PGE₂-stimulated hPC without antagonists (Figure 3b). Combined EP2 and EP4 antagonism completely inhibited PGE₂-mediated COX2 upregulation (Figure 3b), suggesting that PGE₂ signals via both EP2 and EP4 to regulate COX2 levels in a positive feedback loop.

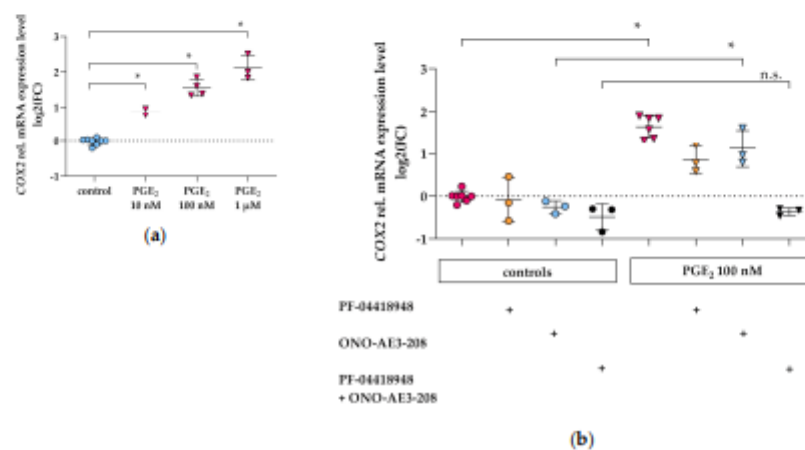


Figure 3. COX2 gene expression is increased by PGE₂ via EP2 and EP4 in hPC. qPCR results are presented as relative mRNA expression level normalized to *GAPDH* and referred to control group. (a) COX2 levels following PGE₂ stimulation (pink triangles) for 2 h were upregulated in a dose-dependent manner compared to untreated control (blue circles). Each data point represents the mean of an independent experiment (performed at least in duplicate on different cell passages and on different dates, each consisting of $n = 3-8$ replicates per treatment) and plotted as combined mean \pm SD (horizontal lines). SD was not plotted when only two independent experiments were performed. Statistics: *, $p < 0.01$, assessed by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's follow-up test; (b) COX2 levels following PGE₂ stimulation for 2 h without concomitant EP2 or EP4 antagonist (100 nM, pink triangles) compared to controls without PGE₂ (pink circles), after co-incubation with either EP2 antagonist (PF-04418948, 1 μM, orange triangles) or EP4 antagonist (ONO-AE3-208, 1 μM, blue triangles) compared to controls without PGE₂ (orange circles for EP2 antagonist, blue circles for EP4 antagonist), and co-incubation of PGE₂ with both antagonists simultaneously (1 μM each, black triangles) compared to controls without PGE₂ (black circles) obtained in three independent experiments. Each data point represents the mean of an independent experiment (performed at least in triplicate on different cell passages and on different dates, each consisting of $n = 3-6$ replicates per treatment) and plotted as combined mean \pm SD (horizontal lines). + indicates addition of the respective EP antagonists. Statistics: *, $p < 0.01$; n.s., not significant, assessed by two-tailed Student's *t*-test.

3.3. PGE₂ Reduces *PTGER2* and *PTGER4* Gene Expression Which Is Not Modified by EP2 or EP4 Antagonists in Differentiated hPC

Stimulation of hPC with rising concentrations of PGE₂ for 2 h revealed inconsistent changes of *PTGER2* mRNA expression: 10 nM and 1 μM did not significantly change *PTGER2* expression, whereas PGE₂ 100 nM slightly reduced *PTGER2* expression (Figure 4a). The weak downregulation by *PTGER2* of 100 nM PGE₂ was not abrogated by co-incubation with the selective EP4 antagonist ONO-AE3-208 (1 μM) (Figure 4b).

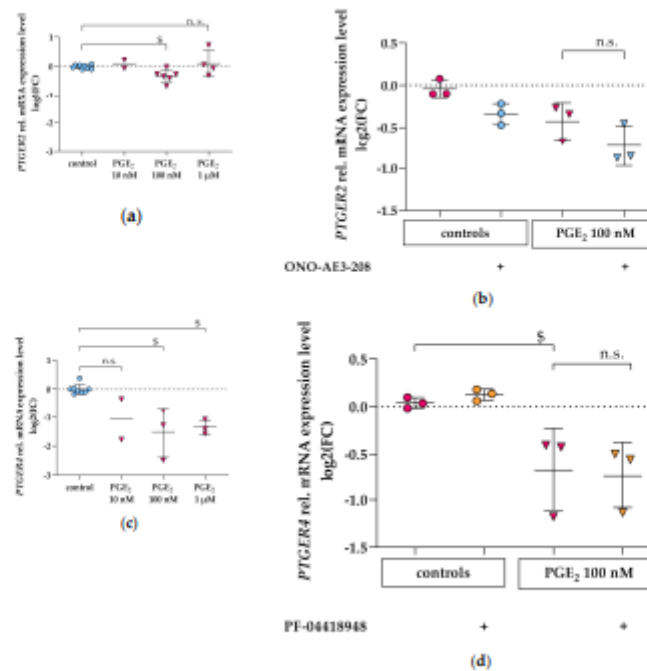


Figure 4. *PTGER2* and *PTGER4* gene expression in hPC after PGE₂ stimulation and following co-incubation with EP antagonists. qPCR results are presented as relative mRNA expression level normalized to *GAPDH* and referred to control group. (a) *PTGER2* levels following PGE₂ stimulation with 10 nM, 100 nM, and 1 μM (pink triangles) for 2 h compared to untreated control (blue circles). Each data point represents the mean of an independent experiment (performed at least in duplicate on different cell passages and on different dates, each consisting of $n = 3–8$ replicates per treatment) and plotted as combined mean \pm SD (horizontal lines). SD was not plotted when only two independent experiments were performed. Statistics: \$, $p < 0.05$, assessed by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's follow-up test; (b) *PTGER2* levels following PGE₂ stimulation for 2 h without concomitant EP4 antagonist (100 nM, pink triangles) compared to controls without PGE₂ (pink circles), and after co-incubation with EP4 antagonist (ONO-AE3-208, 1 μM, blue triangles) compared to controls without PGE₂ (blue circles) obtained in three independent experiments. Each data point represents the mean of an independent experiment (performed in triplicate on different cell passages and on different dates, each consisting of $n = 3–6$ replicates per treatment) and plotted as combined mean \pm SD (horizontal lines). + denotes addition of ONO-AE3-208. Statistics: n.s., not significant, assessed by a Mann–Whitney test; (c) *PTGER4* levels following PGE₂ stimulation with 10 nM, 100 nM, and 1 μM (pink triangles) for 2 h compared to untreated control (blue circles). Each data point represents the mean of an independent experiment (performed at least in duplicate on different cell passages and on different dates, each consisting of $n = 3–8$ replicates per treatment) and plotted as combined mean \pm SD (horizontal lines). SD was not plotted when only two independent experiments were performed. Statistics: \$, $p < 0.05$, assessed by a Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons test; (d) *PTGER4* levels following PGE₂ stimulation for 2 h without concomitant EP2 antagonist (100 nM, pink triangles) compared to controls without PGE₂ (pink circles), after co-incubation with EP2 antagonist (PF-04418948, 1 μM, orange triangles) compared to controls without PGE₂ (orange circles) obtained in three independent experiments. Each data point represents the mean of an independent experiment (performed in triplicate on different cell passages and on different dates, each consisting of $n = 5–6$ replicates per treatment) and plotted as combined mean \pm SD (horizontal lines). + denotes addition of PF-04418948. Statistics: \$, $p < 0.05$; n.s., not significant, assessed by a two-tailed Student's *t*-test.

Stimulation of hPC with PGE₂ for 2 h revealed a dose-dependent reduction of *PTGER4* mRNA expression (Figure 4c). In order to elucidate the role of EP2 in PGE₂-mediated *PTGER4* downregulation, the selective EP2 antagonist PF-04418948 (1 μM) was co-incubated with 100 nM PGE₂ (Figure 4d). The PGE₂-induced decrease in *PTGER4* mRNA was not abolished by co-incubation with the EP2 antagonist (Figure 4d).

3.4. Cellular PGE₂ and Metabolite Profile in hPC after PGE₂ Stimulation: Effects of EP2 and EP4 Blockade

To investigate whether PGE₂ stimulation and subsequent COX2 induction lead to changes in cellular levels of PGE₂ and its downstream metabolites 15-keto-PGE₂ and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ (Figure 5a), hPC were analyzed by LC/ESI-MS/MS. After stimulation with PGE₂, the cellular PGE₂-content was elevated (Figure 5b), while 15-keto-PGE₂ and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ remained at control levels. Pharmacological inhibition of EP2 and EP4 reduced cellular PGE₂ significantly (Figure 5c). Our findings point towards an autocrine PGE₂-EP2/EP4-COX2 signaling axis in hPC.

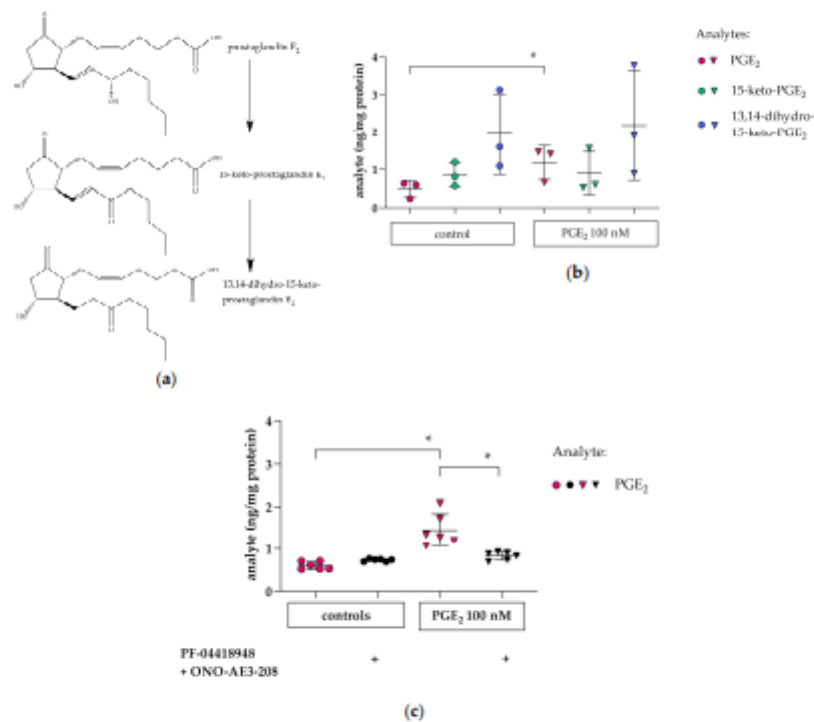


Figure 5. PGE₂ and its metabolites were measured by LC/ESI-MS/MS in hPC. (a) structure of PGE₂ and its metabolites; (b) levels of cellular PGE₂ (pink), 15-keto-PGE₂ (green), and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ (blue) were measured after PGE₂ stimulation for 2 h (100 nM, triangles) and in untreated controls (circles). PGE₂ levels were increased in PGE₂-stimulated cells (pink triangles) vs. controls (pink circles). Each datapoint represents the mean of an independent experiment (performed in triplicate on different cell passages and on different dates, each consisting of $n = 3-6$ replicates per treatment) and plotted as combined mean \pm SD (horizontal lines). Statistics: *, $p < 0.01$, assessed by a two-tailed Student's *t*-test in each experiment; (c) elevated cellular PGE₂ levels caused by PGE₂ stimulation (pink triangles) were abrogated by simultaneous co-incubation with combined EP2 and EP4 antagonism (PF-04418948 and ONO-AE3-208, respectively, 1 μM each). + indicates addition of combined EP antagonists. Each datapoint represents a single sample and plotted as mean \pm SD (horizontal lines) per treatment group consisting of $n = 6$ replicates obtained in a single experiment. Statistics: *, $p < 0.01$, assessed by a two-tailed Student's *t*-test.

3.5. Glomerular PGE₂ and Metabolite Profile in Glomeruli and Plasma in the CKD MWF Model

Analysis of PGE₂ and its subsequent metabolites 15-keto-PGE₂ and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ in glomeruli and plasma of MWF and SHR at eight weeks of age revealed an increase of glomerular PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ levels in MWF compared to SHR. No difference was observed for 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ (Figure 6a). In plasma, levels of PGE₂ and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ did not differ between MWF and SHR (Figure 6b). The metabolite 15-keto-PGE₂ in plasma was below level of detection (data not shown).

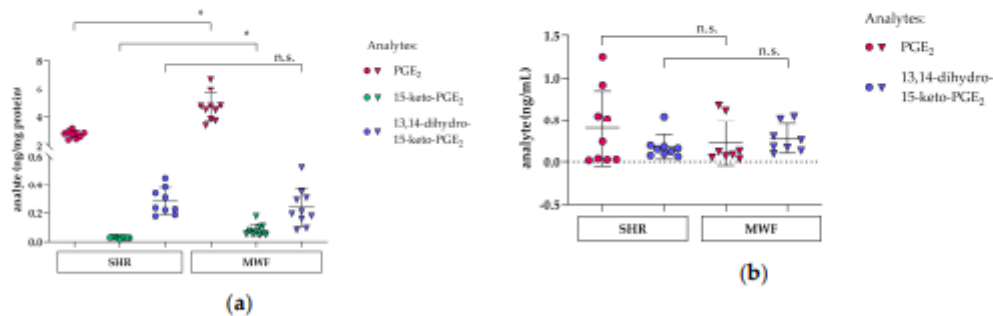


Figure 6. Levels of PGE₂ (pink), 15-keto-PGE₂ (green) and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ (blue) were measured in glomeruli of MWF (triangles) and SHR (circles) at 8 weeks of age. (a) glomerular PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ levels were increased in MWF (pink and green triangles, respectively) compared to SHR (pink and green circles, respectively), whereas glomerular 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ (blue circles and triangles) did not differ between both strains. Each data point represents a single animal and plotted as mean ± SD (horizontal lines) per rat strain consisting of $n = 9$ – 10 animals each. Statistics: *, $p < 0.01$; n.s., not significant assessed by a two-tailed Student's *t*-test; (b) levels of PGE₂ (pink) and 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ (blue) in plasma did not differ between MWF (triangles) and SHR (circles). Each data point represents a single animal and plotted as mean ± SD (horizontal lines) per rat strain consisting of $n = 8$ – 9 animals, each. Statistics: n.s., not significant assessed by the Mann–Whitney test.

3.6. FFSS Increases COX2 and PTGER2 Gene Expression in hPC

FFSS was previously shown to elevate intracellular PGE₂ levels and Cox2 in murine podocytes [10,23]. We therefore investigated COX2 mRNA expression after FFSS in hPC. FFSS led to increased COX2 mRNA expression in hPC as shown in Figure 7.

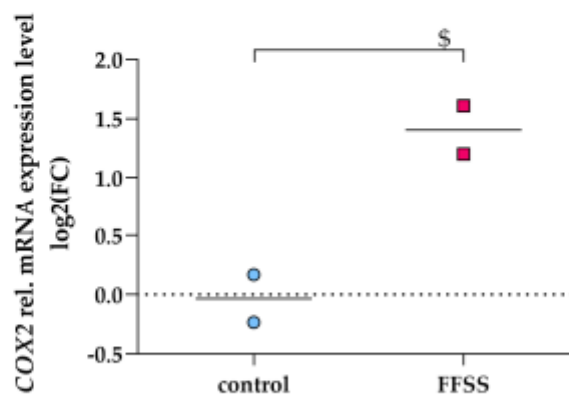


Figure 7. FFSS upregulated COX2 gene expression in hPC (pink squares). qPCR results are presented as relative mRNA expression level normalized to *GAPDH* and referred to control group (blue circles). COX2 upregulation was quantified after 2 h of FFSS with 2 dynes/cm². Statistics: \$, $p < 0.05$, assessed

by a two-tailed Student's *t*-test. Each datapoint represents the mean of an independent experiment (performed in duplicate on different cell passages and on different dates, each consisting of $n = 5-6$ replicates per treatment) and plotted as combined mean (horizontal lines).

Furthermore, EP2 protein was reported to be upregulated upon FFSS in murine podocytes [10]. In hPC, FFSS slightly upregulated *PTGER2* (Figure 8a), whereas *PTGER4* expression did not change compared to control (Figure 8b).

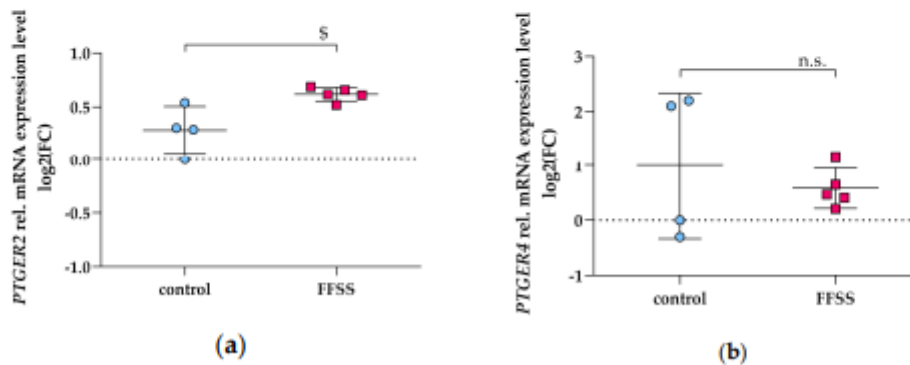


Figure 8. *PTGER2* and *PTGER4* gene expression in hPC subjected to FFSS (pink squares). qPCR results are presented as relative mRNA expression level normalized to *GAPDH* and referred to control group (blue circles). mRNA expression of *PTGER2* (a) and *PTGER4* (b) was quantified after 2 h of FFSS with 2 dynes/cm². Statistics: S, $p < 0.05$, assessed by a two-tailed Student's *t*-test. Each datapoint represents a single sample and plotted as mean \pm SD (horizontal lines) per treatment group consisting of $n = 4-5$ replicates obtained in a single experiment.

4. Discussion

Recent studies in murine models of hyperfiltration support a pathophysiological role of autocrine/paracrine COX2/PGE₂ activation on podocyte damage, thus contributing to disturbances of the glomerular filtration barrier including the development of albuminuria [10,14,23] (reviewed in [2,5]). These findings suggest that induction of COX2 associates with podocyte damage, while selective or non-selective inhibition of COX2 reduces proteinuria in animal models as well as in patients (reviewed in [48]). So far, the mechanisms involved have not been investigated in detail.

In mouse podocytes, EP1, -2 and -4 expression was reported and EP2 and -4 were also detected on protein level [14]. In this study, we corroborate these findings in hPC, which also express EP1, -2 and -4. EP4 is known as a constitutively expressed protein reflected by abundant protein levels in untreated murine podocytes compared to EP2 [10]. Our results on apparently lower *PTGER4* mRNA expression compared to *PTGER2* in hPC should be interpreted with caution as they need to be confirmed on the protein level in future investigations. Stimulation of hPC with PGE₂ led to an immediate intracellular cAMP increase starting at 1 min after PGE₂ stimulation until at least 40 min of stimulation (Figure 1). Of note, the detected intracellular cAMP levels are net levels resulting from cAMP generation by adenylate cyclase and its concomitant degradation by phosphodiesterases. Phosphodiesterase activity was only blocked at the end of the stimulation experiments by adding HCl. Previous studies in immortalized murine podocytes revealed a similar time-course of cAMP increase occurring within the first 30 min after EP2 and/or EP4 stimulation [39,49,50]. In our experimental setting in hPC, this PGE₂-stimulated intracellular cAMP increase was only completely abrogated by combined EP2 and EP4 antagonism pointing towards a comparable role of both receptors for cAMP induction in hPC (Figure 2). Multiple intracellular signaling pathways have been described for either

EP2 and EP4 (reviewed in [51]). PGE₂ stimulation of EP2 and EP4 activated the transcription factors T-cell factor (Tcf) and lymphocyte enhancer factor (Lef) signaling via PKA- and phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/protein kinase B (PI3K/Akt)-dependent phosphorylation of glycogen synthase kinase 3 (GSK3), thus promoting translocation of the transcription cofactor β -catenin into the nucleus where interaction with Tcf and Lef modulated gene expression, e.g., of COX2 [52,53]. However, participation of EP2 in PI3K/Akt signaling remains a matter of debate, as some investigators suggest that only EP4 but not EP2 are linked with PI3K/Akt [54]. Mechanotransduction in murine podocytes was previously suggested to be mediated by Akt-GSK3 β - β -catenin, extracellular-signal regulated kinases (ERK)1/2, and p38MAPK, but not cAMP-PKA signaling upon FFSS [40]. The lack of cAMP elevation upon FFSS in that study might be explained, though by the experimental design as intracellular cAMP was measured at the earliest 2 h after applying FFSS. In contrast, the cAMP-PKA pathway was shown to be involved upon PGE₂ stimulation of murine podocytes [40], which better matches our setting of PGE₂ stimulation of hPC. Moreover, the cAMP-PKA pathway has been shown in intracellular signaling upon FFSS in osteocytes [55,56].

We detected upregulation of COX2 by PGE₂ in a dose-dependent fashion with both EP2 and EP4 being involved in hPC (Figure 3). PGE₂ stimulation of EP2 and EP4 was reported to increase cAMP response element-binding protein (CREB), which was demonstrated to be PKA-dependent for EP2, whereas EP4-coupled PI3K signaling was suggested to counteract CREB formation [57–60]. Of note, transcription of COX2 can be modulated by CREB, as CRE is part of the COX2 promoter [61,62]. Therefore, subsequent PKA/CREB activation could play a role for the observed increase in COX2 expression following intracellular cAMP level elevation in hPC. To further investigate this aspect, experiments with PKA-inhibitors, e.g., H-89, will be performed as well as analysis of CREB phosphorylation status, and activation of the transcription factors Tcf and Lef. Functional analysis of COX2 protein activity might also be helpful. However, previous data in various cell types including murine podocytes already revealed that COX2 protein is indeed increased after 2 h stimulation with PGE₂ [19,58]. Taken together, our results on concerted EP2 and EP4 signaling being involved in upregulation of intracellular cAMP and COX2 levels represent a novel finding. To validate our results on the role of EP2 and EP4 on the intracellular cAMP increase and upregulation of COX2, effects of hPC stimulation with an EP2 and/or EP4 agonist without PGE₂ should be investigated in future experiments.

Accompanied by these findings, PGE₂ stimulation also increased cellular PGE₂, i.e., PGE₂, which is released from membranes and appears intracellularly (Figure 5b). This effect is abrogated by combined EP2- and EP4-antagonism (Figure 5c). Intracellularly generated PGE₂ is degraded by 15-prostaglandin dehydrogenase (HPGD) to 15-keto-PGE₂, which is then terminally inactivated, albeit with different efficiency, by prostaglandin reductase (PTGR) 1, -2 and -3 to 13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGE₂ [63,64] (reviewed in [65]). Intracellular PGE₂ was reported to exit the cell by simple diffusion or by an efflux transport mediated by prostaglandin transporter (PGT), i.e., solute carrier organic anion transporter family, member 2A1 (OATP2A1), or ATP-binding cassette, subfamily C, member 4 (MRP4) [66–68].

Elevated PGE₂ levels were previously associated with podocyte damage, suggesting that it might be a biomarker of progressive CKD [10,69]. LC-MS/MS based methods are beneficial to precisely study cellular prostaglandin metabolism with a maximum of selectivity and specificity. However, cell culture experiments are mainly restricted to small sample amounts that might hamper analysis by LC-MS/MS [26–32]. Here, we present a refined protocol for prostaglandin analysis in cells by LC/ESI/MS-MS. This might help to further elucidate cellular prostaglandin metabolism under pathophysiological conditions particularly in vitro but also in vivo. The observed increases in cellular PGE₂ content upon PGE₂ stimulation in hPC might be due to several mechanisms. One possibility is that extracellular PGE₂ enters the podocyte by simple diffusion or by uptake transport mediated by OATP2A1, which was previously reported to facilitate bidirectional transport of PGE₂ over membranes [66–68]. A second reason could be autocrine/paracrine mechanisms, i.e., extracellular PGE₂ activates EP2 and EP4 signaling, thus increasing COX2 transcription and translation. As COX2 delineates the rate-limiting step of PGE₂ synthesis (reviewed in [70]), its induction leads to higher

cellular PGE₂ levels. Our results support the latter option, as combined inhibition of EP2 and EP4 signaling diminished the increase in cellular PGE₂ levels.

In our corresponding *in vivo* study, we employed the MWF model, which represents a suitable model with glomerular hyperfiltration and thus FFSS [47]. The MWF model was previously extensively characterized (reviewed [47]). Thus, the MWF model is a non-diabetic inbred, genetic model with an inherited nephron deficit of 30–50% depending on the comparator rat strain [71,72]. Consequently, male MWF rats are characterized by increased single nephron glomerular filtration rate but with normal mean glomerular capillary pressure [72,73]. In addition, MWF rats develop mild arterial hypertension and spontaneous progressive albuminuria [47]. Thus, male MWF rats develop spontaneous albuminuria at an early age between weeks 4 and 8 after birth and subsequently progressive proteinuria and glomerulosclerosis [74]. The latter was also demonstrated in the MWF strain from our own colony and thus in the animals used in the current study [47]. Early onset albuminuria in young MWF animals occurs at six weeks of age and is preceded by glomerular hypertrophy, accompanied by focal and segmental loss of podoplanin and followed by podocyte foot process effacement at 8 weeks of age, i.e., at onset of albuminuria [75]. For these reasons, we selected animals at this age for our analysis in the current study. As a comparator strain, we use the previously characterized spontaneously hypertensive rats (SHR) that are resistant to albuminuria development [71,76]. Taken together, we showed the feasibility of the LC/ESI-MS/MS methodology to characterize the PGE₂ pathway at the glomerular tissue level by using the MWF strain. The observed increases in both PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ in isolated glomeruli of MWF support the activation of this pathway in glomerular hyperfiltration. However, these results should be viewed against the background that the cellular origin of this finding was not determined, and thus the contribution of other cell types, e.g., glomerular endothelial cells or mesangial cells remains unclear. Up to now, direct isolation of podocytes from glomeruli was reported for transgenic mice [77–80]. In the rat, there seem to be more technical difficulties as transgenic implementation of fluorescent dyes was not yet accomplished. Antibody staining for podocyte markers and subsequent analysis by FACS is possible [81], but whether isolated primary rat podocytes can be subjected to transcriptomic, proteomic, or lipidomic analysis remains to be investigated. Urinary PGE₂ was suggested as a biomarker for adaptive hyperfiltration in human solitary kidney [69]. The analysis of the urinary PGE₂ and metabolite profile in our CKD MWF model is currently not established due to experimental challenges to establish robust LS/ESI-MS/MS analysis in rat urine. In contrast, the profile in plasma did not differ significantly between MWF and SHR (Figure 6b). In plasma, dilution of prostaglandins might be a major problem as 15-keto-PGE₂ levels were below the limit of detection. Therefore, plasma levels provide rather a rough estimate, while analysis of glomeruli offers a closer insight into podocyte prostaglandin metabolism.

Besides mimicking hyperfiltration by exogenous supplementation with PGE₂, we also applied FFSS on hPC. This model aimed to imitate intensified flow of the ultrafiltrate in Bowman's space, thus causing podocyte injury. Similar to PGE₂ treatment, FFSS leads to upregulation of COX2 (Figure 7). Our data corroborate the work by Srivastava and coworkers, who suggested Akt/GSK3β-βcatenin and the MAPK pathway to be involved in mechanotransduction on mouse podocytes [10,40]. We thus aim to investigate these signaling pathways in hPC upon FFSS in our future work. We corroborate recent findings that EP2 is upregulated by FFSS while EP4 expression is not changed [10] (Figure 8).

5. Conclusions

An autocrine/paracrine pathway between COX2 and PGE₂ exists also in hPC and is mediated by both EP2 and EP4. Distinct analysis of cellular PGE₂ and its metabolites was enabled by a modified protocol using LS/ESI-MS/MS. Elevated PGE₂ and 15-keto-PGE₂ levels were detected in glomeruli of MWF, a model for CKD, thereby strengthening the hypothesis that glomerular PGE₂ accumulation is associated with albuminuria due to podocyte damage. Understanding prostaglandin signaling in hPC may contribute to identifying novel target pathways to protect against maladaptive responses to hyperfiltration in podocytes.

Supplementary Materials: The following are available online at <http://www.mdpi.com/2073-4409/9/5/1256/s1>, Figure S1: Differentiation of hPC was confirmed by immunofluorescence of synaptopodin, podocin, and nephrin, Figure S2: Characterization of differentiated and undifferentiated hPC. Figure S3: Expression of EP receptors in hPC, Figure S4: EP2 antagonist does not inhibit PGE₂ mediated COX2 upregulation when applied with the same concentration as PGE₂. Table 1: Multiple Reaction Monitoring in negative mode for LC/ESI-MS/MS

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, J.B., D.P., and R.K.; methodology, A.S., E.M., and M.R.; validation, J.B. and E.M.; formal analysis, J.B. and E.M.; investigation, E.M., A.K., and M.R.; resources, R.K.; data curation, J.B.; writing—original draft preparation, E.M.; writing—review and editing, J.B. and R.K.; visualization, E.M.; supervision, J.B., D.P., and R.K.; project administration, J.B. and R.K.; funding acquisition, D.P. and R.K. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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Curriculum Vitae

For data protection reasons, my CV will not be published in the electronic version of my work.

Publication list

Kourpa, Aikaterini*; Schulz, Angela*; Mangelsen, Eva; Kaiser-Graf, Debora; Koppers, Nils; Stoll, Monika; Rothe, Michael; Bader, Michael; Purfürst, Bettina; Kunz, Severine; Gladytz, Thomas; Niendorf, Thoralf; Bachmann, Sebastian; Mutig, Kerim; Bolbrinker, Juliane; Panáková, Daniela; Kreutz, Reinhold**. **Studies in Zebrafish and Rat Models Support Dual Blockade of EP2 and EP4 (Prostaglandin E₂ Receptors Type 2 and 4) for Renoprotection in Glomerular Hyperfiltration and Albuminuria.** *Hypertension*. 2023;80:771-782.

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