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Effect of localization, length and orientation of chondrocytic primary cilium on murine growth plate organization

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ABSTRACT

The research investigates the role of the immotile chondrocytic primary cilium in the growth plate. This study was motivated by (i) the recent evidence of the mechano-sensorial function of the primary cilium in kidney tubule epithelial cells and (ii) the distinct three-dimensional orientation patterns that the chondrocytic primary cilium forms in articular cartilage in the presence or the absence of loading. For our investigation, we used the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* mutant mouse, whose disorganized growth plate is due to the conditional deletion of *Smad 1* and *5* proteins that also affect the so-called Indian Hedgehog pathway, whose physical and functional topography has been shown to be partially controlled by the primary cilium. Fluorescence and confocal microscopy on stained sections visualized ciliated chondrocytes. Morphometric data regarding position, orientation and eccentricity of chondrocytes, and ciliary localization on cell membrane, length and orientation, were collected and reconstructed from images. We established that both localization and orientation of the cilium are definite, and differently so, in the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and control mice. The orientation of the primary cilium, relative to the major axis of the chondrocyte, clusters at 80° with respect to the anterior–posterior direction for the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* mice, showing loss of the additional clustering present in the control mice at 10°. We therefore hypothesized that the clustering at 10° contains information of columnar organization. To test our hypothesis, we prepared a mathematical model of relative positioning of the proliferative chondrocytic population based on ciliary orientation. Our model belongs to the category of “interactive particle system models for self-organization with birth”. The model qualitatively reproduced the experimentally observed chondrocytic arrangements in growth plate of each of the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and control mice. Our mathematically predicted cell division process will need to be observed experimentally to advance the identification of ciliary function in the growth plate.

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1. Introduction

The biological function of the immotile primary cilium, virtually one per eukaryotic cell, has been hypothesized within the last

25 years as critical for mechano-transduction and fundamental to development and physiology of essentially all organisms from paramecia to humans (Poole et al., 1985; Rydholm et al., 2008; Christensen et al., 2008; Haycraft and Serra, 2008). Ciliary localization at the membrane of growth plate chondrocytes has been found to be consistently proximal and distal on the chondrocytic membrane (Song et al., 2007). Ciliary incidence and length of articular chondrocytic primary cilium participate in the mechano-sensory mechanism (McGlashan et al., 2010), and ciliary orientation forms three-dimensional (3D) patterns in the articular cartilage in relation to presence and absence of loading (Wilsman and Farnum, 1986). The role of ciliary localization, length and orientation in the 3D biological environment of the growth plate is unknown.

Under normal conditions, the growth plate is a highly organized tissue responsible for bone growth (Hunziker, 1994). Chondrocytes form longitudinal columns divided transversely in adjacent zones

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indicative of specific stages of chondrocytic development, namely proliferative, pre-hypertrophic and hypertrophic, with cell size and shape differing among the growth plate zones (Dodds, 1930; Hunziker et al., 1987). Because alterations of the growth plate patterns due to abnormal biological processes are readily apparent through growth plate disorganization and because the primary cilium can be rendered visible by fluorescent tagging, we chose the growth plate as the appropriate environment to study the orientation of the primary cilium in animal models.

The growth plate's organized structure reflects the normal function resulting from an orchestrated interplay of signaling pathways. The *Tg737^{orpk}* mouse shows fewer and smaller cilia in the chondrocytes of the growth plate relative to a control littermate, which shows more abundant cilia with defined orientations (McGlashan et al., 2007). Ciliogenesis is impaired by the lack of the IFT protein *polaris* that normally localizes at the primary cilium and is required for Sonic hedgehog signaling (Ingham and McMahon, 2001). Further, mice homozygous for mutations of *Kif3*, a component of the kinesin-II motor protein complex required for ciliary assembly, exhibit a lack of primary cilium in growth plate chondrocytes, coupled with a disorganization of the growth plate that disrupts the normal preferential orientation of chondrocytes (Haycraft et al., 2005, 2007). However, the function of the primary cilium in chondrocytes as well as other cell types remains unclear (Poole et al., 1985; Haycraft et al., 2007; Wheatley et al., 1996; Praetorius and Spring, 2005; Olsen, 2005; Blacque et al., 2006; Esteban et al., 2006; Fliegau and Omran, 2006). We have explored the existence of patterns of localization, length and orientation of the primary cilium in growth plate chondrocytes (Fig. 1) of mice models in our quest to understand ciliary function.

Because the primary cilium is closely related to the Golgi complex and the centrosome, with which it shares the elder centriole, and because the centriole and the centrosome control cell polarity (Follit et al., 2006; Goncalves et al., 2010; Feldman et al., 2007), we have experimentally investigated the distribution of localization of axonemal projection from the chondrocyte into the extra cellular matrix (ECM), and the length and orientation of the primary cilium in 3D in relation to chondrocytic eccentricity and orientation in the growth plate of mice models. We have chosen to investigate the double knockout mouse *Smad1/5* conditional with *Col2-cre* (*Smad1^{flx/flx};Smad5^{flx/flx};Col2-Cre*, henceforth referred to as *Smad1/5^{CKO}*) (Retting et al., 2009) and its wild type (WT) control because of the *Smad1/5^{CKO}*'s disorganized growth plate (Fig. 2) and altered Hedgehog pathway, previously found to be mediated by primary cilia (Huangfu and Anderson, 2005). We have chosen the end of gestation for the animals' age because *Smad1/5^{CKO}* dies at birth.

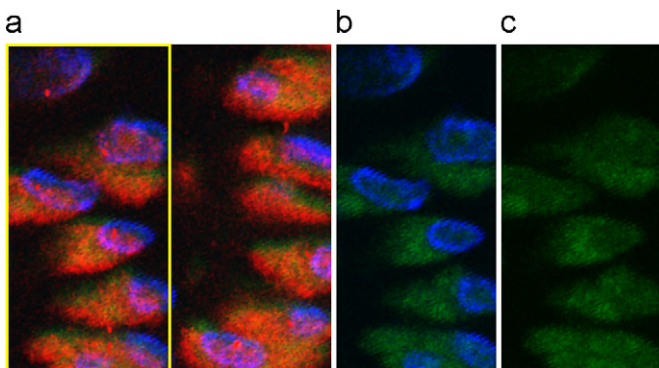


Fig. 1. The primary cilium of proliferative chondrocytes of wild type mouse at the end of gestation by confocal microscopy: (a) the chondrocytic cilia are visible by monoclonal anti-acetylated- α -tubulin (in red). For the yellow portion of (a), we show in (b) the chondrocytic nucleus stained with DAPI (blue) and in (b, c) the endogenous fluorescence is used to visualize the background (darker green).

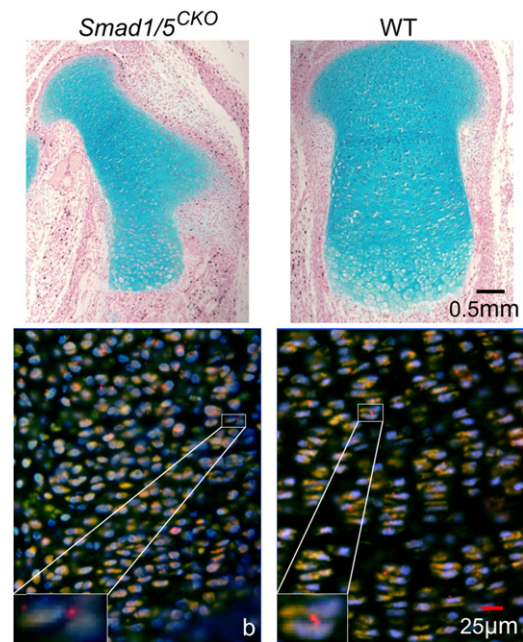


Fig. 2. Proximal femur's growth plate of double knockout mouse *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and WT littermate: (a) Alcian blue-stained sections show lack of chondrocytic columnar arrangements in *Smad1/5^{CKO}*, present in WT mouse. Ectopic cartilage is present in the enlarged perichondrium of the mutant (see also Fig. 4 of Retting et al., 2009). (b) Fluorescent microscopy images show primary cilia (red) and nuclei (blue) of chondrocytes that appear lighter than the surrounding ECM.

Mathematical models of growth plate have focused on (1) elongation of bone that the growth plate causes under the hypothesis that elongation occurs as a mechano-sensory response with the epiphyseal cartilage reacting to the local magnitude of stresses (Kummer and Lohscheidt, 1985) and (2) specific models of the process of cell division internal to mother and daughter cells (McKenney and Nickel, 1997; Novak and Tyson, 1993). Mathematical models of cell cycle have also viewed populations of cells as communicating through networks (Sible and Tyson, 2007). In order to (i) understand the correlation between the various cellular and ciliary parameters observed experimentally under normal and genetically altered conditions; and (ii) explore the possibility of the existence of a mechanism of cell division that involves the 3D orientation of the cilium, we have prepared a computer simulation of a proliferative cell population based on our experimental observation. Further, dynamic mathematical models are developed to describe bone's biological processes (Ayati et al., 2010).

The novelty of our mathematical model of cell division is the inclusion of the orientation of the primary cilium in 3D in the cell population signaling that determines the position of the daughter cell with respect to the mother cell. Our mathematical model applies to both *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and WT control. Cellular eccentricity and ciliary localization of projection, length and orientation, are the input variables. The output is the arrangement of the ciliated chondrocytes.

2. Methods

2.1. Experimental methods

The *Smad1/5^{CKO}* mutant mouse was obtained as described by Feldman et al. (2007). Briefly, *Smad1* (Huang et al., 2002) and *Smad5* (Umans et al., 2003) floxed mice were crossed with *Col2-Cre* mice (Ovchinnikov et al., 2000) to generate *Smad1flox*/

fx;Col2-Cre and *Smad5fx/fx;Col2-Cre* mice (referred to as *Smad1^{CKO}* and *Smad5^{CKO}*, respectively; CKO, cartilage-specific knockout). *Smad1fx/+;Smad5fx/+;Col2-Cre* mice were intercrossed to generate *Smad1fx/fx;Smad5fx/fx* mice (*Smad1/5^{CKO}*).

Immunocytochemistry, fluorescence microscopy and confocal microscopy were combined to visualize ciliated chondrocytes in the growth plate of mice *ex vivo*. Embryos were harvested at 16.5 days of gestation (E16.5) from *Smad1/5^{CKO}* mice and their WT control littermates. Mice were fixed overnight in formalin, then decalcified in formic acid overnight, and embedded in paraffin. Hind limbs were isolated from six male *Smad1/5^{CKO}* mutants and from six male WT mice. 7 and 30 μm thick longitudinal sections were boiled for 15 min in citrate buffer (Ivkovic et al., 2003). Sections were blocked with 5% goat serum for 1 h and incubated overnight at 4 °C with monoclonal anti-acetylated tubulin (Sigma) as the primary antibody. Sections were incubated with AlexaFluor-555-conjugated secondary antibody (Invitrogen) for 1 hour at room temperature and counterstained with DAPI (Vectashield).

We employed a Leica TCS-SP scanning confocal microscope (Heidelberg, Germany) at UCLA's Imaging Core Facility. To observe the 30 μm thick sections we used a 20 \times Planapochromat lens together with an argon ion gas laser set at Alexa 488 nm to capture the endogenous green fluorescence of the background (Kim and Suh, 2007), a 561 nm diode pumped solid state laser to excite the red fluorochromes of tagged cilia, and a Spectra-Physics Millennia X 532 nm diode pump laser and a Tsunami picosecond titanium sapphire laser to produce the pulsed infrared beam required for excitation of DAPI-tagged nuclei. The 2photon DAPI was set at 770 nm and exciting around 385 nm. Because the plane of focus had a thickness of 2.53 μm at 20 \times , we scanned every 1.26 μm , which equals half the amplitude of the Gaussian curve (Pawley, 1995), to capture the tissue continuously without gaps or overlapping. Light detected by photomultipliers was converted to pseudo-color for good visualization: background as dark green, primary cilia red and nuclei as light blue (Fig. 1). Cilia appear as rods or dots projecting from the membrane of the chondrocyte contrasted by the darker background. Images were collected through the thickness of the specimens in terms of so-called z-stacks.

Data were collected on each deconvoluted image from the proliferative zone of the WT and from the region of the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* growth plate corresponding to the proliferative zone of the WT following published methods (Ascenzi et al., 2007; Donnelly et al., 2010). This choice was due to the impossibility to discern specific zones within the disorganized growth plate of *Smad1/5^{CKO}*. Briefly, the 250 μm \times 250 μm tiff images of each of the z-stacks were analyzed at 120 \times magnification. Each of the tiff images was imported into XaraX1 software. Consistently through the stack, an xy reference system was chosen on the plane of each image, with the x-axis along the medial–lateral direction and the y-axis along the axis of the bone. Further, the specimen thickness paralleled the z-axis pointing towards the posterior aspect. Each image was analyzed from top to bottom and from left to right. The cells that appeared with their cilium were numbered by their first appearance as the z-stack was examined from top to bottom. On each image, an ellipse was adapted to each optical section of each visible cell and the major and minor axes of each ellipse marked. A segment was then overlapped to each visible fluorescent detail that was interpreted as a cilium. The first and last scan numbers on which the cell appeared with or without its cilium were recorded. On each image on which the cell appeared with its cilium, the x and y coordinates of the ellipse center were recorded, and the major axis length, the major axis angle and the minor axis length were measured. The area of each ellipse was computed from the axes' lengths. Length and angle with respect to the x-axis

of the segments drawn on cilia were measured. The x and y coordinates of the initial and final points of segment were recorded. To assess orientation of major cell axis and of primary cilium in 3D, we used the azimuth angle θ (or longitude) in the xy-plane measured from the x-axis and the zenith angle φ (or co-latitude, angle out of the xy-plane) measured from the positive z-axis.

We then used the *ciliary $\theta\varphi$ -algorithm* (Ascenzi et al., 2007) to conduct the 3D reconstruction in terms of the best-to-fit ellipsoid of each cell from the ellipses that fit the cell profiles on each image on which the cell appears. The 3D reconstruction of a given cilium was obtained by connecting the centroids of the first and last segments on the z-stack that were overlapped to each appearance of the cilium on the stack. The length of the cilium in 3D was measured as the distance of the centroids of the first and last segments. For each ciliated chondrocyte, we computed: cellular longitudinal position, cellular angles θ_{ce} and φ_{ce} of the major axis of the ellipsoid that simulate the cell with respect to the xyz system, cellular eccentricity as $1-(b/a)^2$ where a and b are the maximum and minimum dimensions, respectively, along perpendicular directions, the angles θ_{ci} and φ_{ci} that the cilium forms with respect to the xyz system, and the angles $\theta_{ci,ce}$ and $\varphi_{ci,ce}$ that the cilium forms with respect to the major axis of the cell. For each image obtained from fluorescence microscopy on the 7 μm thick sections, data were collected following the method applied on a single image of the confocal z-stack.

During imaging of the growth plates for collection of z-stacks, proximal–distal orientation of the bone's position *in vivo* was maintained, based on the characteristic morphological differences of the epiphyseal and the metaphyseal bone. We did not differentiate between medial and lateral, and between anterior and posterior, aspects because of lack of morphological differences. Consequently, (i) the range of values for each of θ_{ci} and θ_{ce} with respect to the bone's reference reduces from 0–360° to 0–180°; (ii) the range of values of the angle φ_{ci} reduces from 0–180° to 0–90°, and $\theta_{ci,ce}$ ranges between 0° and 360° and $\varphi_{ci,ce}$ reduces to 0–90°.

2.2. Statistical methods for experimental data analysis

We analyzed the data expressed as mean \pm standard deviation or as percentage per animal and per animal group, either *Smad1/5^{CKO}* or WT. We used one-way ANOVA to compare normally distributed data or data whose normality could be achieved by usual transformations. Significant difference was set for p -value < 0.05 before considering the Bonferroni adjustment for multiple comparisons. We used the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test to evaluate significant differences of distributions of theta cell between WT and *Smad1/5^{CKO}* (Lehmann and Romano, 2005). We used non-parametric Chi squared analysis for data whose normality could not be achieved by transformations, i.e., axonemal length and the azimuth $\varphi_{ci,ce}$. Because significant differences were not found among animals of the same group, data were presented by group, *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and WT.

2.3. Mathematical modeling

We programmed MATLAB (Mathworks) to carry out our simulation, which belongs to the category “interacting particle system for self-organization with birth” (Liggett, 1985). We modeled each 2D profile of ciliated chondrocytes on the medial–lateral–longitudinal plane with an ellipse. The positioning of the ellipses was produced by an algorithm that simulated the result of cell division in the region defined as the proliferative zone of WT and corresponding region of the *Smad1/5^{CKO}*. This is

a 3D algorithm because it depends on 3D experimental data. We show the results in 2-D. We assumed that

- the primary cilium is required for growth plate organization (Song et al., 2007);
- all proliferative cells within a growth plate divide at approximately the same rate (Wilsman et al., 1996);
- cells divide along a plane perpendicular to the axis of the mitotic spindle, which is directed transversely to the long axis of the bone (Dodds, 1930). After division, the daughter cell moves (“rotates”) with respect to the mother cell to acquire the stacked orientation in the normal animal (Song et al., 2007; Hunziker, 1994). Therefore, normal mother–daughter cell alignment (i.e., the orientation of the line that passes through the centers of mother and daughter cells) on the medial–lateral–longitudinal plane is modeled perpendicular to orientation of the cell on the medial–lateral–longitudinal plane;
- a daughter cell inherits mother’s orientation on the medial–lateral–longitudinal plane (Feldman et al., 2007);
- mother–daughter cell pairs tend to align in columns along the longitudinal axis of the bone with normal cell signaling (Ascenzi et al., 2007);
- rotation of daughter cell after division with respect to the mother cell depends on population cell-to-cell signaling (Christensen et al., 2008; Ahrens et al., 2009);
- cell population signaling for positioning of daughter cell depends on (i) the primary cilium angle $\varphi_{ci,ce}$; and (ii) the distance between signaling cell and daughter cell, with the closer cells exerting the stronger signals, but all cells of the population participating in the signaling (Li and Dudley, 2009; Satir and Christensen, 2008; Buxboim, 2010) and
- resistance of ECM to cell movement dominates inertia of cell to move (Amini et al., 2010).

At the beginning of the process, the ellipses modeling the chondrocytes from the resting zone were distributed randomly (or spatially uniformly distributed (Daley and Vere-Jones, 2003)), not in columns, but rather in a square domain with local coordinates that vary between 0 and 1. The experimentally collected data were also normalized to such domain. Each dividing cell whose location was indicated by the vector \mathbf{v} received a signal with strength s_j from the j th cell whose location is provided by the position vector \mathbf{v}_j :

$$s_j = \kappa \frac{\tanh(\eta(45 - \varphi_{ci,ce_j})) + 1}{\|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v}_j\|^2} \quad (1)$$

which corresponded to strong signal for $\varphi_{ci,ce_j} = 10^\circ$ and weak signal for $\varphi_{ci,ce_j} = 80^\circ$. The non negative values of κ and η were meant to be determined to match the experimental data. The total signal received by each dividing cell equaled the sum of the signals defined by Eq. (1), emitted by each cell of the population, $s = \sum_j s_j$. The polar angle determining both the mother and daughter cell orientation, θ_{ce} , is stochastically determined by

$$\theta_{ce} = \begin{cases} u \tanh(s(u-90)) + u, & u \in [0, 90] \\ (u-180) \tanh(s(90-u)) + u, & u \in (90, 180) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where u uniformly ranges from 0° to 180° . The orientation of the line that connected the centers of the mother and daughter cells equalled was modeled perpendicular to cellular orientation, $\theta_{md} = \theta_{ce} - 90$ within the medial–lateral–longitudinal plane. Thus, mother–daughter cell pairs tended to align in columns for high signal. Cellular motion is modeled using Newton’s second law that describes the balance of cellular repulsive forces at short distances and resistance of the ECM to cell motion with the inertia

term neglected because we assumed that resistance of ECM to cell motion dominates inertia, set to zero:

$$\xi \mathbf{v}_i + \nabla_i U_i = 0 \quad (3)$$

where ξ denotes the resistance coefficient of the ECM to cell movement, ∇_i denotes the gradient vector (defined in terms of partial derivatives) with respect to the location of the i th cell; and $U_i = \sum_j f(d_{ij})$ where $f(d_{ij}) = e^{-d_{ij}}$ for $d_{ij} < r$ and $f(d_{ij}) = 0$ for $d_{ij} \geq r$ denotes a truncated Morse potential, usually used in interacting particle models to prevent particle collision at small distances. The parameter r represented the minimum distance among cells and was meant to be determined by the experimental data. In order to update the positions of the cells after each cell division, Eq. (3) was solved to provide an equilibrium state of stable cell interaction before another cell division occurred.

3. Results

We have investigated localization, axonemal length and orientation in 3D of the chondrocytic primary cilium in the disorganized growth plate of *Smad1/5^{CKO}* mouse in comparison to the WT control. The purpose was to detect morphological differences that could point to the biological role of primary cilium in the growth plate. Because the distinction among the morphological zones is lost in the growth plate of the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* (Feldman et al., 2007), the comparison between *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and WT littermates was carried out on the epiphyseal side of the growth plate that corresponds to the proliferative zone of the WT.

3.1. Experimental results

In general, some of the growth plate chondrocytes of the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* maintain the characteristic localization, length and orientation in 3D of the chondrocytic primary cilium of the WT control, while the remaining chondrocytes show definite different characteristics.

Localization of projection of ciliary axoneme on the chondrocytic membrane (Fig. 3) was investigated in relation to chondrocytic size and shape. The chondrocytic profiles of the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* mouse were smaller than in the WT mouse (34.9 ± 13.5 vs. $38.8 \pm 13.6 \mu\text{m}^2$, $n = 149$, $p < 0.01$) and more numerous, as indicated by the larger area fraction (0.23 vs. 0.14, $p < 0.01$) (Fig. 2). The chondrocytic shape was assessed in terms of “roundness” measured by eccentricity. Because a more pronounced roundness is measured by a value of eccentricity closer to zero, the significantly lower values of chondrocytic eccentricity for the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* in comparison to the WT (0.56 ± 0.20 vs. 0.70 ± 0.15 for eccentricity, $p < 0.01$) indicated rounder shape in the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* than in the control. The chondrocytes of *Smad1/5^{CKO}* showed a variable orientation (measured by angle θ_{ce}) with respect to the medial–lateral direction that differed significantly ($p = 0.01$) from the WT mouse, whose chondrocytic major axis essentially parallels the medial–lateral direction orientation with θ_{ce} clustering at 0° and 180° (Fig. 4).

The localization of projection of the primary cilium into the ECM is consistent with the chondrocytic orientation for both *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and WT. Ciliary projection occurred proximally or distally for chondrocytes with normal medial–lateral polarity for 92% of chondrocytes of *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and 98% of chondrocytes of WT (Fig. 4). Ciliary projection occurred medially or laterally in 88% of the chondrocytes of the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* when the major axis of the chondrocyte showed an orientation that differs from the medial–lateral polarity (88% vs. 98% for WT, $p < 0.01$). The location of ciliary emergence of the primary cilium from the cell membrane correlates with chondrocytic “roundness”,

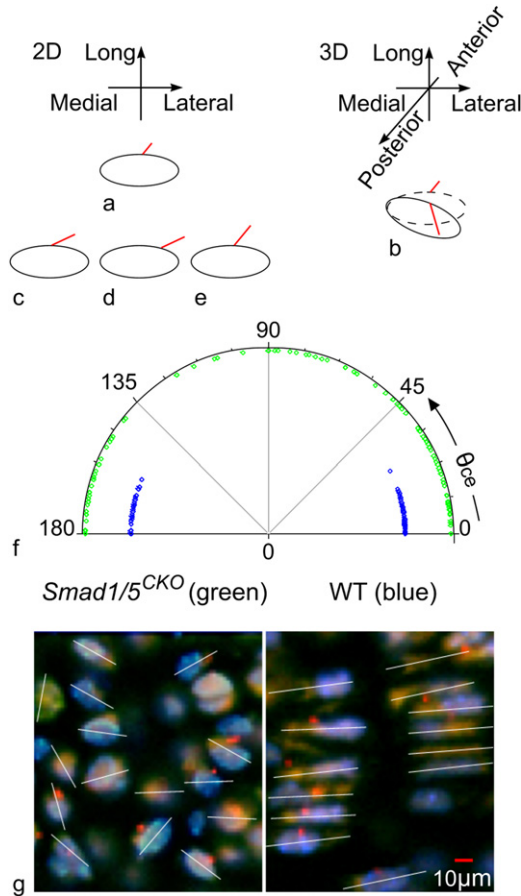


Fig. 3. Localization, length and orientation of primary cilium and orientation of chondrocytes with respect to the medial-lateral axis. We offer examples (diagrams not to scale) of ciliated cells to clarify distinct concepts and appearances in 2D and 3D. The cilium appears shorter in (a) 2D than in (b) 3D. Such length may or may not be the same as the cilia in (c–e) that we visualize in 2D only. In 2D, cilia (c) and (d) show same orientation and different localization on the membrane; while (c) and (e) show same localization and different orientation. (f) The *Smad1/5^{CKO}* mutants show a wide range of values (green), indicating that the major axis of the chondrocyte can form any angle (between 0° and 180°) with the medio-lateral direction. In comparison, the major axis of proliferative chondrocytes of the WT mice (blue) cluster at values 0° and 180°, indicating that for normal animals, the major axis of the chondrocyte in the proliferative zone is somewhat parallel to the medial-lateral direction. (g) The white lines through the cells denote cellular orientation in the medial-lateral-longitudinal plane.

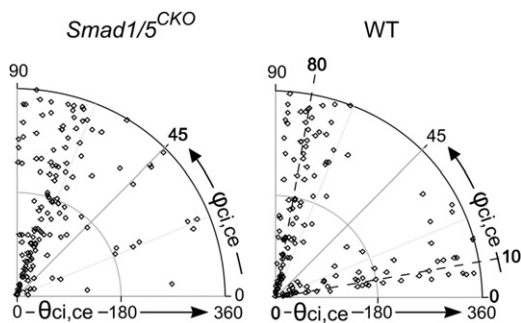


Fig. 4. Definite patterns of ciliary orientation in 3D. The distribution of values for the azimuth angle of the primary cilium (see circumferential $\varphi_{ci,ce}$) with respect to its chondrocyte differs between the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and WT mice. One of the values of clustering ($\varphi_{ci,ce}=10^\circ$) for WT is lost for the *Smad1/5^{CKO}*. We hypothesize that the clustering at 10° controls columnar arrangement in the WT, lost in the *Smad1/5^{CKO}*. The other angle $\theta_{ci,ce}$ that together with $\varphi_{ci,ce}$ defines the orientation of the primary cilium assumes random values (dots span radially the whole 0–360° range) for both *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and WT.

Table 1
The length of the ciliary axoneme measured in 3D.

Length in μm	<i>Smad1/5^{CKO}</i>	WT
<i>n</i>	48	36
min	1.1	1.1
max	5.2	5.1
mean	2.8	3.1
stdev	1.1	1.5
median	2.6	2.6

$p > 0.46$

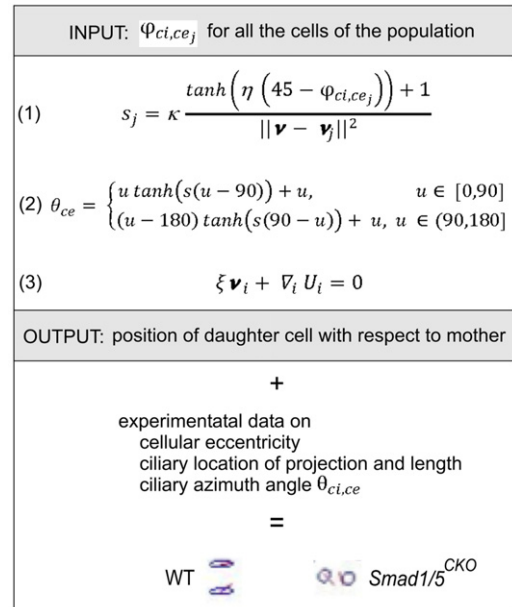


Fig. 5. Mathematical modeling on the basis of experimental data. This diagram illustrates the input and output variables of the equations that define the simulation of cell organization after cell division, and the experimental data used for ciliated chondrocyte representation.

measured by eccentricity. Indeed, medial or lateral location correlates to the "rounder" or less eccentric chondrocytes of the *Smad1/5^{CKO}*; while proximal or distal location correlated to "flatter" or more eccentric proliferative chondrocytes. Hence, ciliary location controls cell shape or responds to it in the growth plate.

Ciliary length and orientation did not correlate to each other. Indeed, the ciliary length does not differ significantly between the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* mouse and its control in terms of means (2.8 ± 1.1 vs. $3.1 \pm 1.5 \mu\text{m}$, $p > 0.46$) and ranges (Table 1). These data indicated that ciliary length and cell shape are independent from each other. On the contrary, the ciliary orientation in 3D with respect to the major axis of the chondrocyte was described by a zenith angle $\varphi_{ci,ce}$ that clusters along either the anterior or the posterior direction at approximately 80° for the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* mouse and differently ($p < 0.01$) for the WT control with a dual clustering along either (i) anterior-posterior direction (approximately 10°) or (ii) direction of growth (approximately 80°) (Fig. 5). The ciliary azimuth angle $\theta_{ci,ce}$ was randomly distributed for both *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and WT mice.

3.2. Mathematical results

Because we found that the 3D orientation of the primary cilium in the growth plate of the WT mouse clusters at two specific angles, $\varphi_{ci,ce}=10^\circ$ and $\varphi_{ci,ce}=80^\circ$ with respect to the

anterior–posterior direction (z), while in the disorganized growth plate of the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* mouse, it clustered only at $\varphi_{ci,ce}=80^\circ$ (Fig. 5), we hypothesize that $\varphi_{ci,ce}=10^\circ$ contains the information for columnar organization.

Our mathematical simulations of organization in the growth plate were obtained by the combination of (i) the cell division model described by Eqs. (1)–(3) that uses the experimentally observed distribution of ciliary angle, and that apply to both the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and WT mouse and (ii) the experimentally observed distributions of cell eccentricity and orientation, and ciliary location of emergence and length (Fig. 6). The simulations of cell organization used, for both the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and WT mice the values $\kappa=0.01$, $\eta=10$ and $r=0.06$ (Fig. 7). We started the simulations with 80 cells for the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and 60 cells for the WT. We compared the simulated distributions of cell centers with the experimentally observed distributions of cell centers for each of the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and WT mice (Fig. 8). Cellular distributions of *Smad1/5^{CKO}* observed and simulated were disorganized, due to the lack of signaling in the simulation of the *Smad1/5^{CKO}*. Cellular distributions of WT observed and simulated were characterized by longitudinal clustering of cells due to inter-cellular signaling in the simulation. We then investigated the alignment of the nearest neighboring cells of any given cell from both empirical and simulated cell distributions. In particular, we plotted the distribution of the cell-to-cell angle relative to the longitudinal direction (Fig. 9a) between nearest neighbor cells. A delta distribution centered at $\theta_{nn}=0^\circ$ (i.e., the angle $\theta_{nn}=0^\circ$ has probability 1) corresponds to complete longitudinal alignment; whereas, a delta distribution at $\theta_{nn}=90^\circ$ (i.e., the angle $\theta_{nn}=90^\circ$ has probability 1) corresponds to medial–lateral alignment. A uniform distribution corresponds to complete disorder in cellular alignment (Fig. 9b). The *Smad1/5^{CKO}* cells displayed approximately uniform alignment of nearest neighbors showing lack of preferential longitudinal orientation. Instead, the WT cells were strongly aligned in the longitudinal direction (Fig. 9c and d).

4. Discussion

Our study probes the function of the primary cilium in the chondrocytic organization required for normal function in the growth plate. To such end, we investigated the three conceptually different characteristics that describe the primary cilium at the

micro-structural level: localization of projection from the chondrocytic membrane, axonemal length, and orientation in 3D (Fig. 3). Our combination of new experimental data and novel mathematical dynamic model indicates that ciliary orientation can direct a global positioning system of chondrocytes in the growth plate.

The Indian Hedgehog pathway, whose physical and functional topography has been previously shown to be partially controlled by the primary cilium (Koyama et al., 2007), was disrupted in the growth plate of the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* mouse at E16.5 stage of development. Both localization of projection and zenith angle of ciliary axoneme with respect to the chondrocytic orientation are specified differently as between the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and the WT mouse. Because (1) specificity of both localization and orientation of axoneme are required for function of flagella and motile cilia (Mitchell et al., 2007), (2) the location of axonemal projection has previously been indicated as linked to cellular orientation, plane of cell division and direction of cell migration (Haycraft and Serra, 2008; Amini et al., 2010) and (3) a specific orientation of the ciliary axoneme is linked to the direction of cellular division (Goldstein et al., 2006; Park et al., 2006; Jonassen

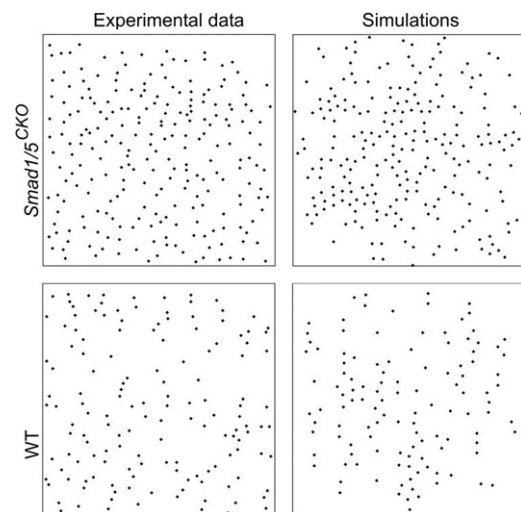


Fig. 7. Distribution patterns of cell centers. Both the distributions obtained from the experimental data and from the results of the cell division simulation show a difference in center distribution between *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and WT: isotropy vs. longitudinal anisotropy.

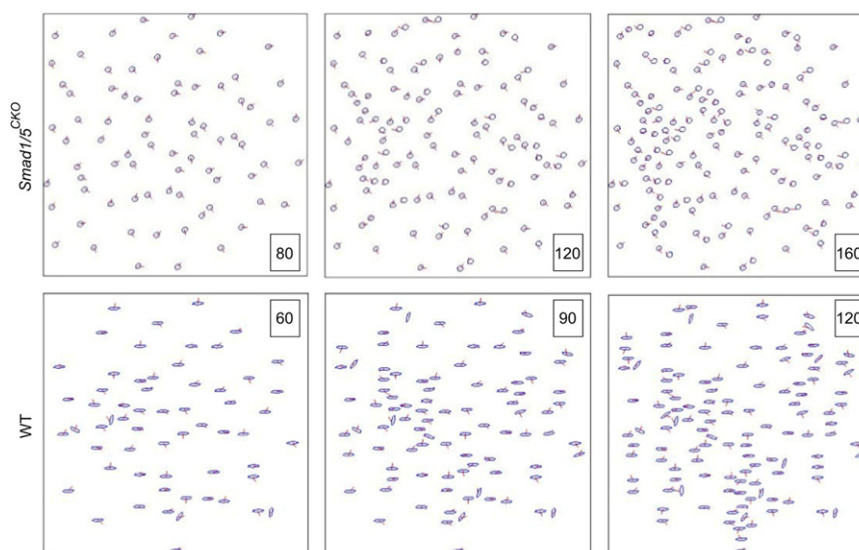


Fig. 6. Dynamic simulations of cell positioning after division. We show three steps of the dynamic simulation, when cell division produces a total of 80, 120, 160 cell models for *Smad1/5^{CKO}* and 60, 90 and 120 cell models for WT. The experimental data were used to represent cell eccentricity, ciliary length and azimuth angle $\theta_{ci,ce}$.

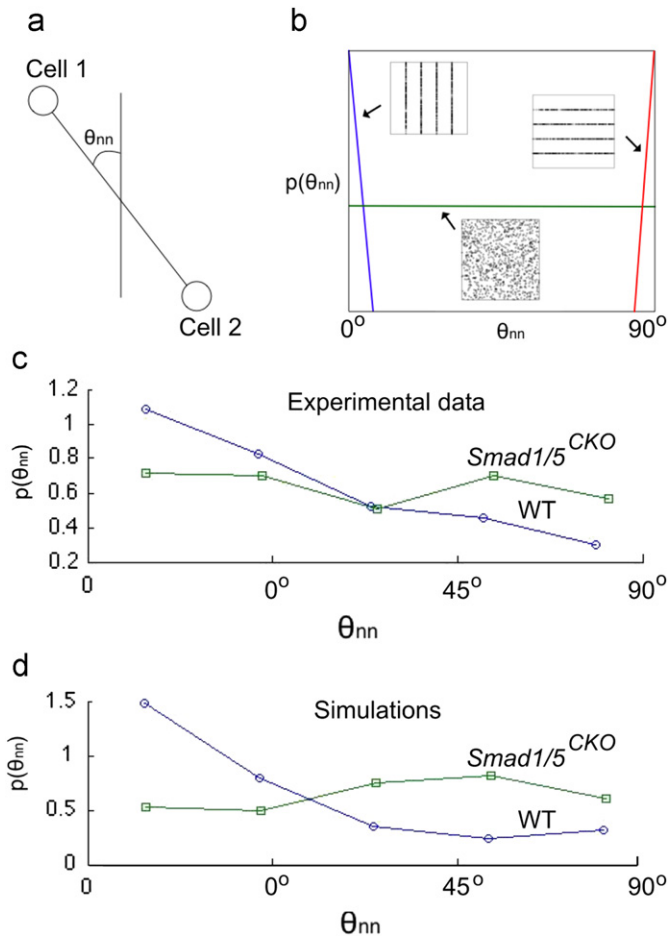


Fig. 8. Measure of anisotropy of chondrocytic distributions: (a) We measured the angle θ_{nn} between nearest neighbor cells relative to the longitudinal direction. (b) A delta distribution at $\theta_{nn}=0^\circ$ corresponds to complete longitudinal alignment, whereas at $\theta_{nn}=90^\circ$ corresponds to medial–lateral alignment. A uniform distribution corresponds to complete disorder in cellular alignment. (c) The $Smad1/5^{CKO}$ cells displayed approximately uniform alignment of nearest neighbors, showing lack of preferential longitudinal orientation. Instead, (d) the WT cells were strongly aligned in the longitudinal direction.

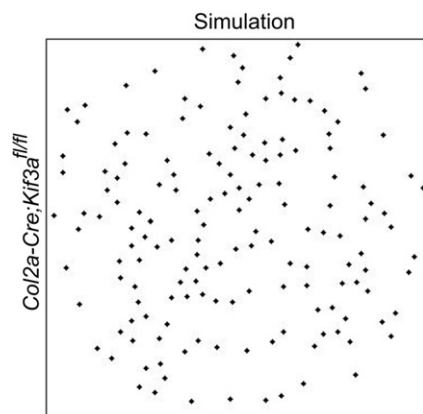


Fig. 9. Our dynamic simulation applied to the $Col2a-Cre;Kif3a^{fl/fl}$ mouse. By assuming only the few cilia present in the $Col2a-Cre;Kif3a^{fl/fl}$ mouse, our dynamic model computes a weak cell-to-cell signal that impedes the “rotation” lacking in such mouse growth plate where chondrocytes do not align in columns (compare to Fig. 7c in Song et al., 2007).

et al., 2008; Heydeck et al., 2009), we explored the hypothesis that localization and orientation of the primary cilium participate in chondrocytic division and organization in the growth plate.

Because signal transduction in kidney tubule epithelial cells is initiated by passive bending of immotile axoneme, and the growth plate is a mechanically sensing environment (Amini et al., 2010), it is possible that signal transduction in growth plate chondrocytes is initiated by passive bending due to mechano-deformation of surrounding ECM of the chondrocytic cilium that also lacks the dynein arms to initiate movement (Koyama et al., 2007; Satir and Christensen, 2008). Our results on definite ciliary localization, length and orientation are circumstantially consistent with other investigators’ prediction that the cilium functions as a mechano-sensor (Satir and Christensen, 2008). Indeed, each of localization, length and orientation affects position and exposure of cilium to the force acting on the growth plate and therefore the impact of the force on the cilium.

The localization of ciliary projection and chondrocyte shape differ and correlate to each other, for each of the $Smad1/5^{CKO}$ and the WT mouse. Ciliary projection depends on the location of the centriole and Golgi apparatus within the cell whose shape may reflect changes in inner chondrocytic organization. The axonemal length in 3D did not differ between $Smad1/5^{CKO}$ and WT mouse at E16.5. It has been previously noted that differences in length of motile cilia may reflect differences in signaling capabilities among cells (Marshall, 2002). If this is indeed the case, we can hypothesize that ciliary length and orientation control signaling mechanisms independently because (1) ciliary orientation differs significantly between $Smad1/5^{CKO}$ and WT mouse and (2) our orientation-controlled mathematical model for cell-to-cell signaling shows a qualitative difference in orientation-controlled signaling capabilities.

The orientation of the primary cilium of the daughter cell influenced by a signal from the cell population, and not just the mother cell or the neighboring cells, places the cilium at the center of the cellular network. We present the first mathematical model of cell positioning, after cell division, for the chondrocytic population that includes the ciliary orientation in cell-to-cell signaling. Characteristics of primary cilium and cell division are biologically linked. Because the engagement of the cilium with the associated centriole needs to be interrupted, i.e., deciliation must occur, for the centriole to accomplish its function during mitosis, i.e., to organize the spindle during mitosis (M phase of the cell cycle) (Rieder et al., 1979), the cilium needs to be resorbed before the M phase commences. The presence of the primary cilium in the proliferative zone implies the occurrence of ciliary formation during the G1 phase. The greater stubbiness of the long bones of the $Smad1/5^{CKO}$ relative to those of the WT control suggest a cell division that results in medial–lateral relative positioning of cells in addition to the normal stacking direction. The appraisal of cell distribution (Fig. 9) shows a lack of preferential longitudinal direction in favor of a directional isotropy in the $Smad1/5^{CKO}$ mouse that is longitudinal and medial–lateral.

The lack of the rotation of chondrocytes after cell division necessary to form longitudinal columns observed in the $Smad1/5^{CKO}$, was also observed in the case of ciliary deletion (Song et al., 2007). By assuming only the few cilia present in the $Col2a-Cre;Kif3a^{fl/fl}$ mouse, our dynamic model computes a weak cell-to-cell signal that impedes the “rotation” lacking in such mouse growth plate where chondrocytes do not align in columns (Fig. 9). We therefore hypothesize that a strong alignment of chondrocytes in columns corresponds to a stronger cell-to-cell signal that occurs when most cilia show a zenith angle $\varphi_{ci,ce}$ between 0° and 45° .

Our mathematical model was based on the hypothesis that columnar formation in the growth plate arises from cell to cell signaling. The coefficients η and κ in Eq. (1) measure the effect of the input variables: η signifies the effect of value clustering at $\varphi_{ci,ce}=10^\circ$ on the columnar organization in contrast to clustering at $\varphi_{ci,ce}=80^\circ$ (Fig. 5) and κ is the overall adjustment on the effect of both the zenith angle $\varphi_{ci,ce}$ and the distance between cells.

In Eq. (3), r is the minimum distance between centers of cells. Because the 0.06 value of r was normalized to a unit square (see Section 2), the minimum distance between cell centers measures 24 μm for a 400 μm region in the growth plate (6% of 400). Such value was more closely approximated by the *Smad1/5^{CKO}* mouse, whose chondrocytes are more closely located (Fig. 2) than the WT mouse. The ciliary zenith angle $\varphi_{ci,ce}$ was chosen as input of the simulation within the experimentally obtained distributions to provide simulations that qualitatively output the experimentally observed distribution of chondrocytes (Figs. 7 and 8). The information on cell eccentricity, ciliary localization of projection, length and azimuth angle $\theta_{ci,ce}$ were not included in Eqs. (1)–(3), but rather independently added to the simulations from the distributions of the experimental values. The cause of variation of cellular eccentricity relates to biological and mechanical factors (Amini et al., 2010) and will be the subject of future simulation.

In conclusion, the mathematical simulations of the experimental data presented here suggest experiments to verify the possible involvement of the primary cilium in cell positioning after cell division.

5. Conflict of interest statement

Dr. Ascenzi is the inventor under granted and pending published patent applications related to her bone micro-structural research, the rights to which are licensed to Micro-Generated Algorithms, LLC, a California limited liability company in which she holds an interest.

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