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# **Thermoregulation via Temperature-dependent PGD2 Production in Mouse Preoptic Area**

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## **SUMMERY**

Body temperature control is essential for survival. In mammals, thermoregulation is mediated by the preoptic area of anterior hypothalamus (POA), with  $\sim$ 30% of its neurons sensitive to brain temperature change. It is still unknown whether and how these temperature-sensitive neurons are involved in thermoregulation, because for eight decades they can only be identified via electrophysiological recording. By combining single-cell RNA-seq with whole-cell patch-clamp recordings, we identified Ptgds as a genetic marker for temperature-sensitive POA neurons. We then demonstrated these neruons' role in thermoregulation via chemogenetics. Given that Ptgds encodes the enzyme that synthesizes prostaglandin  $D2$  (PGD<sub>2</sub>), we further explored its role in thermoregulation. Our study revealed that rising temperature of POA alters the activity of Ptgdsexpressing neurons so as to increase  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  production.  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  activates its receptor DP1 and excites downstream neurons in the ventral medial preoptic area (vMPO) that mediates body temperature decrease – a negative feedback loop for thermoregulation.

#### DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization and Methodology, T.A.W. and L.Y.J.; Investigation, T.A.W., C.F.T., M. Å., C. C., and M.T.F.; Software, A.D.; Resource, V.J.G.; Formal Analysis, Data Curation, and Visualization, T.A.W.; Writing - Original Draft, T.A.W. and L.Y.J.; Writing - Review & Editing, C.F.T., M. Å., C.C., M.T.F., V.J.G., A.D., M.T.M., and Y.N.J.; Supervision, Project Administration, and Funding Acquisition, M.T.M., Y.N.J. and L.Y.J.

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DATA AND SOFTWARE AVAILABILITY

The raw reads of the sequencing data is submitted to NCBI-GEO (GSE126657, "Genetic markers for temperature-sensitive neurons in mouse preoptic area").

## **Graphical Abstract**



## **eTOC Blurb**

Single-cell RNA-seq combined with whole-cell patch-clamp recording identifies  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  synthase enriched in temperature-sensitive neurons in mouse medial preoptic area, which detects brain temperature increase and mediates body temperature decrease via PGD<sub>2</sub> receptor DP1 expressed in ventral medial preoptic area.

### **INTRODUCTION**

It is essential for animals to maintain their core body temperature  $(T_c)$  at the optimal level. Hyperthermia or hypothermia will greatly decrease the physiological efficiency; severe deviations of the  $T_c$  could be life threatening (Gordon, 2012; Nakamura, 2011). In mammals, thermoregulation is mediated by the preoptic area of the anterior hypothalamus (POA), one of the very few brain regions that are "thermosensitive" (Boulant and Dean, 1986; Morrison, 2016). Besides ensuring a steady brain temperature during exercise, intake of hot or cold fluids, or upon prolonged exposure to extreme thermal conditions, brain temperature sensation is also important for adjusting the  $T_c$  over the circadian cycle or in response to pathogen-induced fever (Nakamura, 2011; Refinetti and Menaker, 1992). Remarkably, transgenic mice with slightly raised hypothalamic temperature exhibit a corresponding reduction of  $T_c$ , leading to an increased life span (Conti et al., 2006).

Local temperature change in the hypothalamus alters the firing rate of  $\sim$ 30% of neurons in medial and lateral POA, namely the temperature-sensitive neurons (Boulant and Dean, 1986; Magoun et al., 1938), and elicits thermoregulatory responses (Carlisle, 1966; Carlisle and Laudenslager, 1979; Hemingway et al., 1954). Intermingled with the temperature-sensitive neurons are temperature-insensitive neurons regulating drinking (Abbott et al., 2016), feeding (Yu et al., 2016), parental behaviors (Wu et al., 2014), and sleep (Chung et al., 2017). For eight decades, the only way to identify temperature-sensitive neurons is by

electrophysiological recording (Griffin and Boulant, 1995; Magoun et al., 1938). Identification of molecular markers for temperature-sensitive neurons will enable modern genetic-based approaches to dissect neural circuits and study the molecular mechanism underlying thermoregulation.

Central neurons known to be responsive to elevation of ambient temperature include subpopulations of neurons in the median POA (MnPO) that express leptin receptors (Yu et al., 2016), neurons in ventral MnPO and ventral medial POA (vMPO) that express BDNF and PACAP (Tan et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2017), as well as GABAergic neurons in ventral lateral POA (vLPO)(Zhao et al., 2017). These neurons, however, do not respond to brain temperature changes (Tan et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2017). One study used microarray to analyze transcripts from 8 warm-sensitive neurons in POA (Eberwine and Bartfai, 2011); however, markers of temperature-sensitive neurons could not be identified without comparison with the transcriptomes of temperature-insensitive neurons. Another study found TRPM2 to be essential for temperature sensation of POA (Song et al., 2016). While TRPM2 likely contributes to the detection of heat stress and the resulting modulation of  $T_c$  during fever, its expression is not limited to temperature-sensitive neurons (Song et al., 2016).

In light of the paucity of genetic tools that specifically target temperature-sensitive neurons, we began our study searching for molecular markers of temperature-sensitive neurons by combining RNA sequencing at the single-cell level (single-cell RNA-seq) (Poulin et al., 2016) with whole-cell patch-clamp recordings(Cadwell et al., 2016; Fuzik et al., 2016), for examination of the transcriptome of each neuron in the context of its physiological function. One marker gene of temperature-sensitive neurons identified in this study is *Ptgds*, leading us to test for its contribution to thermoregulation.

The gene *Ptgds* encodes lipocalin-type prostaglandin-D synthase (L-PGDS) that generates prostaglandin D2 (PGD<sub>2</sub>) (Smith et al., 2011). PGD<sub>2</sub> is a lipid hormone best known for its involvement in reproduction (Rossitto et al., 2015). In the brain, it serves as a neuromodulator that facilitates homeostatic regulation of a variety of physiological processes including sleep (Matsumura et al., 1994) and feeding (Ohinata et al., 2008). PGD<sub>2</sub> usually functions in a manner antagonistic to its isomer, prostaglandin  $E2$  (PGE<sub>2</sub>) (Saper et al., 2012), which participates in the neuromodulation of wakefulness (Onoe et al., 1992) and anorexia (Ohinata et al., 2006).  $PGE<sub>2</sub>$  has been well characterized as the hormone that mediates body temperature elevation (fever) in response to pathogen-induced inflammation (Lazarus et al., 2007; Ushikubi et al., 1998). Notwithstanding the hypothermia induced by exogenous PGD<sub>2</sub> injected into the cerebral ventricle of the rat (Ueno et al., 1982), whether and how endogenous  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  might be involved in thermoregulation remains an outstanding question (Romanovsky and Garami, 2010).

In this study, we identified the temperature-sensitive POA neurons as the endogenous source of PGD2 for thermoregulation; the enriched expression of L-PGDS in temperature-sensitive POA neurons can be used a molecular marker to further dissect the neural circuit of thermoregulation.

## **RESULTS**

## **Genetic and functional profiling of POA neurons via single-cell RNA-seq combined with whole-cell patch-clamp recording**

To search for molecular markers of temperature-sensitive neurons in medial and lateral POA, we performed whole-cell patch-clamp recordings in freshly prepared mouse brain slices, followed by single-cell RNA-seq of 68 neurons (Figures 1, S1, and S2). Current-clamp recordings of neurons with spontaneous action potential (SAP) firing at different temperatures (33°C, 36°C, and 39°C) identified warm-sensitive neurons (Figures 1C and 1F,  $N = 18$ , SAP frequency change per degree of temperature change (dF/dT) > +0.8 Hz/°C), cold-sensitive neurons (Figures 1D and 1G,  $N = 4$ ,  $dF/dT < -0.6$  Hz/°C), and temperatureinsensitive neurons (Figures 1E and 1H,  $N = 24$ ,  $-0.6$  Hz/°C < dF/dT < +0.8 Hz/°C), with electrophysiological properties consistent with previous reports (Boulant and Dean, 1986; Griffin and Boulant, 1995). In addition, we found two sub-types of silent neurons that did not fire SAP throughout the recording, including 12 "temperature-insensitive silent neurons" that exhibited very stable membrane potential  $(V_m)$ , input resistance  $(R_{in})$ , time constant  $(\tau)$ , and spontaneous post-synaptic potentials at low frequency regardless of the temperature changes (Figures 1I and S1), and 10 "temperature-sensitive silent neurons" that exhibited temperature-dependent and reversible changes in  $V_m$ ,  $R_{in}$ ,  $\tau$ , and noticeable high frequency spontaneous synaptic potentials during temperature rising (Figures 1J and S1).

Immediately following electrophysiological recordings, each neuron was harvested individually to generate single-cell cDNA libraries via SMART-Seq2 (Picelli et al., 2013, 2014). Detailed protocols and quality control (QC) criteria are described in STAR Methods and Supplemental Information (Figure S2). Neurons with characterized responses to temperature changes were classified by K-means clustering, based on the principal component analysis (PCA) of their gene expression profiles (Figure 1K, 4 groups, 5 replicates), and color-labeled based on temperature sensitivity (Figure 1L). Notably, in Kmeans clustering (Figure 1K), the left two clusters are mainly temperature-sensitive (colored in red and white in Figure 1L), while the right two clusters are mainly temperatureinsensitive (colored in green and black in Figure 1L). These results imply the classification of POA neurons as in Figure 1P, based upon both their transcription profiles and temperature sensitivity. Since the algorithm dictated to remove genes expressed in fewer than 10% of the libraries, it was impossible to identify potential marker genes specifically expressed in the 4 cold-sensitive neurons.

#### **Identification of Ptgds as a marker for temperature-sensitive POA neurons**

To identify marker genes for temperature-sensitive neurons, we examined the expression of genes ( $N = 9949$ ) via PCA (Figures 1M and S3B). We focused on *Ptgds* as a candidate marker and used *Camk1* for comparison and contrast. The expression ratio of these two genes (at the cDNA level, quantified in log-scaled counts per million reads,  $log_2$ CPM) in different sub-populations of neurons in POA was plotted in Figure 1N. The protein products of Ptgds and Camk1 were further examined by immunostaining (Figure 1O, 3 replicates), revealing non-overlapping expressions in two separate neuronal populations. Consistent with the outcome of PCA, differential expression (DE) analysis revealed that the expression level

of Ptgds in temperature-sensitive neurons is significantly higher than that in temperature– insensitive neurons (Figure S3A and Table S1, FDR < 0.05).

To validate Ptgds as a marker gene for temperature-sensitive POA neurons, we imported the Ptgds<sup>tm1.1(cre)Gvn</sup> (PGDS-Cre) transgenic mice that express the Cre recombinase in *Ptgds*expressing cells (Kalamarides et al., 2011), and crossed them with the B6;129S6-  $Gt(ROSA)26$ Sor<sup>tm14(CAG-tdTomato)Hze</sup>/J (Ai14) mice for Cre driven tdTomato expression. Immunostaining of L-PGDS, CaMKI, and tdTomato in POA slices from PGDS-Cre/Ai14 mice revealed co-localization of tdTomato with L-PGDS but not CaMKI (Figures 2A, 2B, and S3C, 3 replicates). We further examined the temperature-sensitivity of neurons with or without PGDS-Cre driven tdTomato expression (Figures 2C and 2D), and found that the majority of neurons without tdTomato were temperature-insensitive (17 of 20 recorded neurons, tdTomato-/normal ACSF, P < 0.01, Chi-square test as compared to 36 of 68 recorded neurons from WT mice), while the majority of neurons with tdTomato expression were temperature-sensitive (17 of 20 recorded neurons, tdTomato+/normal ACSF,  $P < 0.01$ , Chi-square test as compared to 32 of 68 recorded neurons from WT mice). Furthermore, blocking glutamate- and GABA-mediated synaptic transmission with inhibitors of AMPAreceptors (DNQX, 20 μM), NMDA-receptors (AP5, 50 μM), and GABA<sub>A</sub>-receptors (SR 95531, 20 µM) resulted in the elimination of cold-sensitive neurons and temperaturesensitive silent neurons (tdTomato+/synaptic transmission blocked,  $P < 0.05$ , Chi-square test as compared to tdTomato+/normal ACSF), consistent with previous studies showing that perturbing synaptic transmission via reduction of extracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  level abolishes coldsensitive POA neurons (Kelso and Boulant, 1982).

#### **Involvement of Ptgds-expressing POA neurons in thermoregulation**

To test for the role of temperature-sensitive POA neurons in thermoregulation, we monitored  $T_c$  of the mice with implanted temperature probe while altering action potential firing of Ptgds-expressing POA neurons via engineered G-protein coupled receptors known as Designer Receptors Exclusively Activated by Designer Drugs (DREADD), hM3Dq and hM4Di (Krashes et al., 2011). Upon binding to the ligand clozapine (Gomez et al., 2017), hM3Dq enhances neuronal firing of *Ptgds*-expressing neurons in a manner that mimicked the effect of temperature elevation of brain slices with warm-sensitive neurons (Figures 3A and S4E,  $N = 10$ , P < 0.01, paired Student's T-test); in contrast, clozapine silenced *Ptgds*expressing neurons with hM4Di expression (Figures 3G and S4E,  $N = 10$ , P < 0.01, paired student's T-test) thereby simulating the response of warm-sensitive neurons to brain temperature reduction. Ptgds-expressing neurons with mCherry expression only were not responsive to clozapine treatment (Figure S4E,  $N = 10$ , P > 0.05, paired student's T-test).

Since the  $T_c$  oscillates with circadian rhythm over a period of 24 hours, we administered clozapine at different zeitgeber times (ZT) in the same mouse. Animals with hM3Dq expression in *Ptgds*-expressing POA neurons exhibited a significant reduction in  $T_c$  as compared to vehicle control, in response to clozapine IP injection at the beginning of nighttime when  $T_c$  is normally high (Figures 3B, 3C, and 3E,  $N = 8$ , P < 0.05 at 1–2 hour following IP, paired Student's T-test), but they displayed no significant alteration of  $T_c$  with clozapine IP injection in early daytime when  $T_c$  is normally low (Figures 3B, 3D, and 3F, N

 $= 8, P > 0.05$ , paired Student's T-test). In contrast, the T<sub>c</sub> of mice with hM4Di expression in Ptgds-expressing POA neurons was higher with clozapine treatment than vehicle control, for IP injection in early daytime (Figures 3H, 3I, and 3K,  $N = 7$ ,  $P < 0.01$  at 1–2 hour following IP, paired Student's T-test) but not for IP injection in early nighttime (Figures 3H, 3J, and 3L,  $N = 7$ ,  $P > 0.05$ , paired Student's T-test). Control mice with Cre-dependent mCherry expression in POA displayed no alteration of  $T_c$  following clozapine IP injection (Figure S4D,  $N = 7$ ,  $P > 0.05$ , paired Student's T-test). These results demonstrate that the *Ptgds*expressing POA neurons, which are mainly temperature-sensitive, are involved in body temperature control in accordance with circadian oscillation.

#### **Temperature-dependent PGD2 production in POA**

To explore the potential role of L-PGDS in thermoregulation, we first examined the amount of its enzymatic product,  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$ , as a function of temperature. Following incubation of the brain slice (trimmed to exclude brain regions other than POA) at a specified temperature (33 $^{\circ}$ C, 36 $^{\circ}$ C, or 39 $^{\circ}$ C), we employed liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) in the multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) mode to measure  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  and  $PGE<sub>2</sub>$ extracted from the brain slice (Figure 4A) (Farias et al., 2008).

Whereas no differences were detectable with 5 min incubation at various temperatures (Figure 4B,  $N = 6$ , P > 0.05, One-way ANOVA), a greater amount of PGD<sub>2</sub> was detected with 30 min incubation at 39°C than those at 36°C or 33°C (Figure 4C,  $N = 6$ , P < 0.01, One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test). In contrast, brain slices of the thalamus mainly composed of temperature-insensitive neurons but with L-PGDS expression level comparable to that of POA (Figure S5), displayed no difference in  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$ production at different temperatures (Figure 4D,  $N = 6$ ,  $P > 0.05$ , One-way ANOVA). Hence the temperature dependent PGD2 production in POA cannot be attributed to the temperature coefficient (Q10) of PGDS enzyme activity.

Blockade of action potential firing by TTX (1  $\mu$ M) or removal of extracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> (Ca<sup>2+</sup>free ACSF with 10 mM EGTA) during the 30 min incubation abolished the temperaturedependent PGD<sub>2</sub> production in POA slices (Figures 4E and 4F,  $N = 6$ , P  $> 0.05$ , One-way ANOVA) and caused the overall PGD<sub>2</sub> production to drop below that in the normal condition of 36°C/30-min (compared to Figure 4C,  $N = 6$ , P < 0.01, One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test), likely reflecting a  $Ca^{2+}$  dependence of PGDS enzyme activity (Irikura et al., 2009). Whereas blocking synaptic transmission eliminated the cold-sensitive and temperature-sensitive silent neurons in POA (Figure 2D), it did not eliminate temperature-dependent  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  production (Figure 4G,  $N = 6$ ,  $P < 0.01$ , One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test).

Consistent with the notion that  $PGE_2$  is produced in the periphery rather than the central nervous system (Ivanov and Romanovsky, 2004), the  $PGE<sub>2</sub>$  levels in POA were much lower than the  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  levels, and exhibited no significant variation with temperature (Figures  $4B-$ 4G, red,  $N = 6$ ,  $P > 0.05$ , One-way ANOVA).

#### **PGD2 provides protection during hyperthermia by mediating Tc decrease**

To study the physiological role of endogenous  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  in thermoregulation, we inhibited L-PGDS with AT-56 (Irikura et al., 2009). LC-MS/MS analysis confirmed that AT-56 (20  $\mu$ M, incubated in 39 $\degree$ C for 30 min) diminished newly-synthesized PGD<sub>2</sub> in POA slices (Figure 5A,  $N = 6$ , P < 0.05, Student's T-test). Having found that IP injection of AT-56 (20 mg/kg) body weight) did not alter the  $T_c$  of mice at room temperature in midday (Figures 5B and 5C, black and green,  $N = 6$ , P  $> 0.05$ , One-way ANOVA), we tested for its effect in a fever model of hyperthermia induced by intracerebroventricular (ICV) injection of  $PGE<sub>2</sub>$ (Ushikubi et al., 1998). IP injection of AT-56 caused mice to respond to ICV injection of PGE<sub>2</sub> (2 nmol in 1 µl) with a greater increase in  $T_c$  as compared to mice with IP injection of vehicle control (Figures 5B and 5C, red and blue,  $N = 6$ ,  $P < 0.01$ , One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test).

We next studied the effect of exogenously introduced  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  in thermoregulation. ICV injection of PGD<sub>2</sub> (2 nmol in 1 µl) led to hypothermia in mice (Figures 5D and 5E,  $N=6$ , P < 0.01, One-Way ANOVA with repeated measurement, followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test), consistent with previous reports in rat (Ueno et al., 1982). Simultaneous  $T_c$  recording and movement tracking revealed comparable levels of locomotor activities of mice injected with  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  or vehicle control (Figures 5F–5H, P > 0.05, One-Way ANOVA with repeated measurement, followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test), indicating that the effect of  $PGD_2$  in reducing  $T_c$  cannot be attributed to potential side effects on locomotor activities.

## **PGD2 excites neurons in the ventral medial preoptic area (vMPO) by activating the PGD<sup>2</sup> receptor DP1**

To explore the underlying mechanism of  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$ -induced hypothermia, we looked for  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$ receptors in brain regions that are involved in thermoregulation. Of the two endogenous  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  receptors, DP1 is primarily associated with  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  function in the brain (Saper et al., 2012; Woodward et al., 2011). Having found that IP injection of the DP1 inhibitor, MK-0524 (4 mg/kg body weight) (Cheng et al., 2006), abolished the  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$ -induced hypothermia (Figures 5D and 5E,  $N = 6$ , P > 0.05, One-Way ANOVA with repeated measurement), we performed immunostaining and localized DP1 expression in the vMPO (Figures 6B and S6C, 3 replicates). Given that the vMPO neurons expressing BDNF and PACAP mediate  $T_c$  decrease in response to ambient temperature elevation (Tan et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2017), it is notable that the distribution of DP1 overlapped with that of BDNF in the putative soma of vMPO neurons, and with that of PACAP in putative neuronal processes along the 3rd ventricle (Figures 6B, S6C and S6E). In contrast, there was limited expression of DP1, BDNF, and PACAP in the medial and lateral POA that is located ~100 µm posterior from vMPO (Figures S6D and S6F).

These findings prompted the intriguing hypothesis that  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  released from POA induces hypothermia by activating the DP1-expressing vMPO neurons (Figure 6A and graphical abstract). To look into this possibility, we first examined the response of vMPO neurons to  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  applied at the location corresponding to the bottom of the 3<sup>rd</sup> ventricle (Figure 6C). Whereas vMPO neurons were silent or exhibited low frequency SAP at rest, these neurons

increased their firing rate following a puff application of PGD<sub>2</sub> (20  $\mu$ M, ~10 s, Figures 6D) and 6E, red,  $N = 7$ ,  $P < 0.01$ , paired Student's T-test), but not in the presence of the DP1inhibitor MK-0524 (100 nM during the entire episode of recording) (Figures 6D and 6E, blue,  $N = 7$ ,  $P > 0.05$ , paired Student's T-test).

Next, we employed optogenetics to test whether PGDS-expressing POA neurons release PGD<sub>2</sub> to modulate vMPO neuronal activity. AAV constructs of Cre-dependent ChR2 were injected into medial and lateral POA of mice expressing PGDS-Cre, followed by recording from vMPO neurons 2–3 weeks after the viral injection (Figure 6F). Laser activation (30 s) of ChR2 in axons of POA neurons expressing PGDS-Cre enhanced the neuronal firing in vMPO neurons in the presence of blockers of AMPA-receptors ( $DNQX$ ,  $20 \mu M$ ),  $NMDA$ receptors (AP5, 50  $\mu$ M), and GABA<sub>A</sub>-receptors (SR 95531, 20  $\mu$ M) (Figures 6G and 6H, N  $= 24$ ,  $P < 0.01$ , One-Way ANOVA with repeated measurement, followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test). This excitatory effect was abolished by inhibiting the  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  receptor DP1 (MK-0524, 100 nM, Figures 6G and 6H,  $N = 18$ ,  $P > 0.05$ , One-Way ANOVA with repeated measurement). No alteration of neuronal firing was detected with laser illumination of brain slices from mice injected with control AAV constructs of Cre-dependent mCherry (Figure  $S7, N = 18, P > 0.05$ , One-Way ANOVA with repeated measurement). These results reveal that PGDS-expressing neurons in POA project to vMPO and release PGD<sub>2</sub> to excite vMPO neurons.

## **The PGD2 synthase (L-PGDS) in the POA is essential for the homeostasis of thermoregulation**

To test whether *Ptgds* expression in POA is essential for homeostatic thermoregulation, we employed CRISPRi to knock down *Ptgds* specifically in the POA. Lentivirus constructs of sgRNA-Ptgds or negative control (NT, non-targeting) were injected into medial and lateral POA of mice with constitutive expression of dCas9-KRAB, and the mouse  $T_c$  was recorded with an implanted temperature probe (Figure 7A). In contrast to the viability and normal  $T_c$ (with circadian oscillation) of mice injected with the control virus, mice with Ptgds knockdown in POA could no longer hold their body temperature three weeks following viral injection, and died soon afterwards (Figures 7E–7G,  $N = 6$  in each group,  $P < 0.01$ , log-rank test). Periodogram analysis of  $T_c$  oscillation 13-17 days following viral injection revealed dampened amplitude and shortened period in mice with *Ptgds* knockdown (Figures 7H and 7I,  $N = 6$  in each group, P < 0.05, Student's T-test), while the midline  $T_c$  and phase of peak  $T_c$  remained unaltered (Figures 7J and 7K,  $N = 6$  in each group,  $P > 0.05$ , Student's T-test). Antibody staining of L-PGDS and GFP, a reporter for viral transfection and construct expression, in POA slices indicated that  $~60\%$  reduction of *Ptgds* expression in medial and lateral POA (Figures 7B–7D,  $N = 3$  in each group,  $P < 0.01$ , Student's T-test) causes lethality (Figure 7G).

By challenging virally injected mice of a separated cohort with elevated ambient temperature at 37°C (for 4 hours) 2 weeks following the lentivirus injection, we found that mice with *Ptgds* knockdown in the POA displayed a greater elevation of  $T_c$  than those with control vector injection (Figures 7L and 7M,  $N = 8$  for NT,  $N = 9$  for *Ptgds*,  $P < 0.01$ , Student's T-test). Thus, L-PGDS expressed in temperature-sensitive POA neurons plays an

important role in protecting animals from hyperthermia, and its function is crucial for maintaining body temperature and survival.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **A general platform to dissect neural circuits with transcriptome analyses of functionally characterized neurons**

This study was initiated from an unbiased single-cell RNA-seq screening of medial and lateral POA neurons following their functional analysis via patch-clamp recording. Since Kriegstein and colleagues demonstrated experimentally that low coverage single-cell RNAseq can reveal cellular heterogeneity in the brain (Pollen et al., 2014), high throughput sequencing with low coverage has been widely applied to dissect neural circuits (Poulin et al., 2016), including the POA (Moffitt et al., 2018). Whereas theoretical analysis predicts that a small number of samples (< 100) with high quality libraries could also allow a robust readout of the transcriptional program (Heimberg et al., 2016), there may have been some reluctance to apply this cutting-edge technology when the samples of interest are precious. Our study demonstrates that low-throughput sequencing of datasets with functional relevance is instrumental in making significant discovery. Future studies combining singlecell RNA-seq with functional characterizations such as patch-clamp recording, real-time imaging, circuit tracing, or optogenetic manipulation, could be a powerful strategy for mechanistic analyses of neural circuits with heterogeneous neuronal populations.

#### **A genetic marker for temperature-sensitive POA neurons**

The phenomenon of brain temperature sensation was first reported 80 years ago (Magoun et al., 1938), and validated in different species (Boulant and Dean, 1986). The hypothesis that temperature-sensitive POA neurons play a pivotal role in thermoregulation remained unverified for decades, until we identified the genetic marker, Ptgds, for temperaturesensitive POA neurons (Figures 1 and 2). In addition to allowing for manipulation of the action potential firing of the temperature-sensitive POA neurons via either chemogenetics to test how these neurons may regulate body temperature (Figure 3) or optogenetics to identify their downstream neurons in the vMPO (Figure 6), this genetic marker for temperaturesensitive neurons will greatly facilitate future research in thermoregulation.

#### **A PGD2-mediated negative-feedback loop for thermoregulation**

Although it has been known for decades that ICV injection of  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  is able to induce hypothermia in rat (Ueno et al., 1982), whether endogenous  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  plays a role in regulating T<sub>c</sub> has remained an open question. In our study, we identified the temperature-sensitive POA neurons as the endogenous source of PGD<sub>2</sub>, with its production increased in response to rising temperature of POA brain slice. We further showed that these neurons release  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$ to activate the DP1-expressing neurons in vMPO, which likely correspond to a subset of the vMPO neurons that express BDNF and PACAP and mediate  $T_c$  decrease in response to ambient temperature elevation (Tan et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2017). Our study thus uncovers a convergence of POA neurons sensitive to local hypothalamic temperature increase and neuronal pathways relaying ambient temperature increase, to activate the vMPO neurons that mediate  $T_c$  decrease, for negative feedback in the homeostasis of thermoregulation.

#### **The expression of Ptgds in POA neurons**

By conducting single-cell RNA-seq analysis, we found that *Ptgds* is highly expressed in temperature-sensitive POA neurons, although a much lower level of Ptgds transcripts was also detected in temperature-insensitive POA neurons (Figure 1N and Table S1). Importantly, immunostaining of L-PGDS and the use of the PGDS-Cre/Ai14 mouse line that labels *Ptgds*-expressing neurons with tdTomato revealed that L-PGDS is predominantly expressed in temperature-sensitive POA neurons (Figures 1O, 2A, and 2B). It is possible that the sensitivity afforded by RNA-seq is greater than that of the immunostaining. Alternatively, there could be some as yet uncharacterized mechanism that prevents Ptgds mRNA translation in temperature-insensitive POA neurons.

The temperature-sensitive POA neurons with high *Ptgds* expression levels are composed of three subtypes: warm-sensitive neurons, cold-sensitive neurons, and temperature-sensitive silent neurons (Figure 1P). It is possible to explore in future studies the genetic markers for different subtypes of temperature-sensitive POA neurons by employing single-cell RNA-seq (or qPCR) combined with more efficient electrophysiological recordings from Ptgdsexpressing POA neurons that are fluorescently labeled in PGDS-Cre/Ai14 mice. In addition, this strategy might also be employed to identify channels or receptors that contribute to temperature sensation.

#### **The function of L-PGDS in POA neurons for thermoregulation**

While the initial screen identified several candidate marker genes for either temperaturesensitive neurons or temperature-insensitive neurons (Figures S3A and S3B, and Table S1), we focused on *Ptgds* mainly for the expectation that the gene product L-PGDS is functionally involved in thermoregulation.

Our study revealed that L-PGDS is directly associated with homeostasis of thermoregulation, by producing more  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  in response to temperature elevation of the POA, thereby lowering the  $T_c$ . While L-PGDS is expressed not only in warm-sensitive neurons but also in cold-sensitive neurons and temperature-sensitive silent neurons, we hypothesize that in the scenario of hyperthermia ( $\sim 36^{\circ}$ C and above), warm-sensitive neurons contribute mostly to the temperature-dependent PGD<sub>2</sub> production and mediate body temperature decrease, for three reasons: 1) there are many more warm-sensitive neurons than cold-sensitive neurons (Figure 2D); 2) in the temperature range of  $36^{\circ}$ C –  $39^{\circ}$ C, coldsensitive neurons as well as temperature-sensitive silent neurons are mostly silent (Figure 1G), hence they are unlikely to contribute much to  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  production given its dependence on action potential firing (Figure 4E); 3) blocking synaptic transmission to mask the coldsensitive neurons and temperature-sensitive silent neurons did not eliminate the temperaturedependent PGD<sub>2</sub> production (Figures 2D and 4G).

Brain region-specific knockdown of *Ptgds* via injection of the lentiviral CRISPRi construct into POA caused alteration of  $T_c$  over circadian cycle within 3 weeks of the viral injection, followed by a precipitous drop of body temperature and increasingly pronounced circadian swings, leading to death shortly thereafter (Figure 7). Removal of PGD2 signaling by either genetic or pharmacological approach does not influence the baseline  $T_c$  (Figures 5B, 5C,

and 7K), but the malfunction can be detected upon exposure to conditions that induce hyperthermia (Figures 5B, 5C, 7L and 7M). Such a sophisticated neural circuit for thermoregulation may conceivably have been selected for in evolution, and warrants further investigation.

### **Differences between vMPO neurons sensitive to ambient temperature and POA neurons sensitive to brain temperature**

Previous studies have examined neurons in MnPO, vMPO, and vLPO that respond to ambient temperature change (increase only). Increasing action potential firing of these neurons could lead to a decrease in  $T_c$  by up to  $2^{\circ}C$  within 20 min of neuronal activation via optogenetics (Tan et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2017), or within 60 min of neuronal activation via chemogenetics (Yu et al., 2016). In our study, we examined a distinct population of medial and lateral POA neurons that are sensitive to temperature change (both increase and decrease) of the preoptic area. Chemogenetic manipulation of Ptgds-expressing POA neuronal firing at certain ZT leads to a mild ( $\sim$ 1°C) and sustained (1 $\sim$ 2 h) change in T<sub>c</sub> (Figure 3). Notably, this amplitude is comparable to the amplitude of circadian oscillation of  $T_c$  in mice (Figure 7H).

The ambient temperature change usually requires immediate and robust response from the thermal effector, because the environmental condition could be harsh (sudden exposure to hot or cold environment), invoking fight-or-flight response. In contrast, the brain temperature is much more stable than the ambient temperature. The most common scenario of brain temperature change corresponds to the rhythmic oscillation over the circadian cycle  $(\sim 24 \text{ h})$ . It is a relatively slow process, and the amplitude swing is mild. So the brain temperature sensor is not prepared to, and should not be able to, induce sudden and large changes of  $T_c$ .

## **Circadian oscillation of Tc and the possible involvement of temperature-sensitive POA neurons**

This study revealed that the temperature-dependent neuronal firing and  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  production in POA is cell-autonomous, independent of synaptic transmission (Figures 2D and 4G). This finding suggests that the temperature-sensitive neurons with the signaling molecule  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$ are situated upstream in the circuit for thermoregulation: they receive modulatory rather than commanding input for body temperature control. One possible modulatory input is from the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN), the central circadian clock, in anterior hypothalamus. The circadian oscillation of  $T_c$  (Figures 3B, 3H, and 7E) has been attributed to either rhythmic synaptic input from the central circadian clock (SCN) to the thermoregulation center (POA), or hormone-like diffusible signaling from SCN to organs mediating heat loss/production that may then be modulated by the thermoregulatory system to minimize the circadian amplitude (Refinetti and Menaker, 1992). Our finding that Ptgds knockdown in POA dampened the amplitude of  $T_c$  oscillation over circadian cycle (Figure 7H) lends indirect support for the former scenario. Whereas projection from SCN to POA has been implicated in sleep modulation (Deurveilher and Semba, 2005), it will be interesting to test if this projection contributes to the circadian oscillation of  $T_c$  in future research.

## **STAR Methods**

#### **CONTACT FOR REAGENT AND RESOURCE SHARING**

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Lily Y. Jan, lily.jan@ucsf.edu.

#### **EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS**

C57BL/6N (B6) wildtype (WT) mice used in this research were originally purchased from Charles River, San Diego, CA and bred in our colony at University of California, San Francisco. Transgenic mouse line FVB.Cg-Ptgds<tm1(cre)Gvn>/GvnRbrc (PGDS-Cre, MGI:5051626)(Kalamarides et al., 2011) was imported from RIKEN BRC, Japan, and crossed with the reporter line B6;129S6-Gt(ROSA)26Sortm14(CAG-tdTomato)Hze/J (Ai14, MGI:3809524) from the Jackson Lab (Bar Harbor, ME).

The dCas9-KRAB mice were generated in the FVB background with the TARGATT™ sitespecific knock-in technology (Tasic et al., 2011) by introducing into the Hipp11 locus a construct with the CAG promotor driving expression of puromycin resistance, mCherry, and the dead Cas9 (dCas9) protein fused to the Krüppel Associated Box (KRAB) domain. The dCas9-KRAB protein lacks endonuclease activity but retains its ability to bind to single guide RNAs (sgRNAs) for specific gene targeting and silencing through heterochromatin formation induced by the KRAB domain (Greiner et al., in preparation).

All mice were maintained under a 12:12 hour L/D schedule, and allowed to receive food and water ad libitum. Male mice at the age of 2–3 months were used in all the experiments. All protocols were approved by the IACUC at University of California, San Francisco, in full compliance with NIH guidelines for humane treatment of animals.

#### **METHOD DETAILS**

**Stereotactic Injection—**The pAAV-hSyn-DIO-hM3D(Gq)-mCherry, pAAV-hSyn-DIOhM4D(Gi)-mCherry, and pAAV-hSyn-DIO-mCherry, were gifts from Bryan Roth (Addgene viral prep # 44361-AAV8, # 44362-AAV8, and # 50459-AAV8)(Krashes et al., 2011). The pAAV-EF1a-double floxed-hChR2(H134R)-mCherry-WPRE-HGHpA was a gift from Karl Deisseroth (Addgene viral prep # 20297-AAV8). PGDS-Cre mice were injected with 0.5 µl vectors at stereotactic coordinates (bilateral) of AP 0.1, ML  $\pm$ 0.3, DV 5.5, and allowed to recover for at least 1 week before the next experimental procedure.

**Brain slice preparation—**Brain slices were usually prepared 3–5 hours after light-on in the animal colony (CT 3–5). Coronal brain slices containing the preoptic area of the anterior hypothalamus (POA), the ventral medial preoptic area (vMPO), cortex, or striatum, or horizontal slices containing thalamus or hippocamus, were sectioned in chilled slicing solution (2.5 mM KCl, 0.5 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 10.0 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 1.2 mM NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 26.0 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 11.0 mM glucose, and 234.0 mM sucrose, saturated with 95% O<sub>2</sub>/5% CO<sub>2</sub>). 300µm-thick brain slices were sectioned using a vibrating blade microtome (Leica, Wetzlar, DE). Brain slices were trimmed to remove irrelevant brain regions, and allowed to recover in slicing solution at 35°C for 10 min, before transferring to a holding chamber containing

artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF,  $126.0$  mM NaCl,  $2.5$  mM KCl,  $2.5$  mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>,  $1.3$  mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 1.2 mM NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 10.0 mM glucose, 26.0 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, saturated with 95%  $O<sub>2</sub>/5\%$  CO<sub>2</sub>). Brain slices were incubated at room temperature for at least 1.5 h before electrophysiological recording or biochemistry assay.

**Electrophysiology—**Whole-cell patch electrodes, with pipette tip resistance of 6–10 MΏ, were filled with internal solution containing 122.0 mM K-gluconate, 13.0 mM KCl, 0.06 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 1.0 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.1 mM EGTA, 10.0 mM HEPES, 4.0 mM Na-ATP, and 0.4 mM Na-GTP, with pH 7.3 and osmolality 290–300 mOsm/L. For samples subjected to single-cell RNA-seq analysis, 0.1 U/µl SUPERaseIN (Thermo Fisher, South San Francisco, CA) was included. Recordings were performed using a Multiclamp 700B amplifier (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA). Signals were sampled at 10 kHz using a Digidata 1440 digitizer (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA), and stored in computer for subsequent analyses using pClamp software (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA).

The temperature in the recording chamber was controlled by an inline heater (Warner Instruments, Hamden, CT) with continuous perfusion of fresh ACSF to the recording chamber. Real-time bath temperature was recorded with a thermistor (Warner Instruments, Hamden, CT) next to the brain slice, with analog input signal processed with Digidata 1440 digitizer simultaneously as the electrophysiological recordings. Recording pipette was grounded in a separate chamber with 3 M KCl at room temperature, connected to the recording chamber by a salt bridge. Liquid junction potential was measured following the procedure in the literature (Griffin and Boulant, 1995).

Recordings were performed at CT 5–10, with each episode of recording from one neuron lasting for up to 10 min. Only one neuron was recorded and collected from a single slice. Upon break-through, the neuron was first subjected to a current-steps protocol from −100  $pA$  to +100 pA (20 pA interval) at 36 $^{\circ}$ C, so as to measure the basic membrane properties. The neuron was then recorded under current-clamp, 15 sec per sweep, with a −20 pA/20 ms current injection in each sweep, to monitor the membrane properties. In addition to the electrophysiological recordings, the location of the recorded neuron in the brain slice was captured by CCD camera, and further measured in terms of the distances to the third ventricle (x) and optic chiasm (y) as in Figure 1B.

To characterize the temperature sensitivity of a neuron, the bath temperature of the recording chamber was adjusted from  $36^{\circ}$ C to  $33^{\circ}$ C, then to  $39^{\circ}$ C, and then back to  $36^{\circ}$ C (2–3 min at each temperature). More than 96 neurons were recorded from POA slices of WT mice and harvested for single-cell RNA-seq; 60 neurons were recorded from POA slices of PGDS-Cre/Ai14 mice, including 20 neurons without tdTomato expression ( $Ptgds$ ), 20 neurons with tdTomato expression ( $Ptgds$ +), and 20 neurons labeled with tdTomato ( $Ptgds$ +) and recorded in ACSF containing DNQX (20  $\mu$ M), AP5 (50  $\mu$ M), and SR 95531 (20  $\mu$ M) (all from Tocris, Bristol, UK).

To validate the effect of Designer Receptors Exclusively Activated by Designer Drugs (DREADD) on neuronal firing of Ptgds-expressing POA neurons, PGDS-Cre mouse brains with Cre-dependent hM3Dq, hM4Di, or mCherry expressing in POA (method described in

"Stereotactic injection" section) were sectioned for recording. Neurons with vector expression were labeled with mCherry. Identical recording protocol was used as above, except that the bath temperature was maintained at 36°C throughout the recording. After recording of the baseline firing for 1–2 mins, the neurons were challenged with clozapine (1 µM, 1 min, Tocris, Bristol, UK) followed by immediate wash-out with normal ACSF. The recording usually lasted for 6 min. 10 neurons each were recorded from PGDS-Cre/hM3Dq, hM4Di, or mCherry slices.

To evaluate the response of vMPO neurons to PGD<sub>2</sub>, we used B6 WT mice to generate vMPO brain slices. Identical recording protocol and analysis method were used as above, except that 1) the treatment of  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  (20  $\mu$ M, < 10 s, Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI) was delivered to the bottom of  $3<sup>rd</sup>$  ventricle, where the DP1 receptors were clustered; 2) recording was performed in bath of ACSF containing DNQX (20 µM), AP5 (50 µM), SR 95531 (20 µM), and MK-0524 (100 nM, Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI) or its vehicle (0.1% DMSO). 7 neurons were recorded each in bath containing MK-0524 or vehicle.

To demonstrate the projection from PGDS-expressing POA neurons to vMPO, we injected AAV vectors expressing Cre-dependent ChR2 or mCherry into medial and lateral POA of PGDS-Cre mice (method described in "Stereotactic injection" section). Three weeks later, vMPO slices were sectioned for recording. Identical recording protocols and analysis methods were used as above, except that 1) blue excitation laser (30 s) was applied to illuminate the entire optical field under 60x water objective; 2) recording was performed in bath of ACSF containing DNQX (20  $\mu$ M), AP5 (50  $\mu$ M), SR 95531 (20  $\mu$ M), and MK-0524 (100 nM, Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI) or vehicle control (0.1% DMSO). Forty-two neurons were recorded from mice with ChR2 vector injection (24 with MK-0524 in bath and 18 with vehicle in bath); 18 neurons were recorded from control mice with mCherry vector injection.

**Single-cell RNA-seq—**After recording, the cellular component of each neuron was captured into the electrode pipet by delivering a gentle negative pressure, and then transferred into a PCR tube containing reaction buffer for reverse transcription (RT) by breaking the glass tip and delivering a gentle positive pressure. The cDNA library was prepared immediately; or the samples were frozen in liquid  $N_2$  for later processing (see also Figures S2H–S2O for details). An established protocol of SMART-Seq2 was adapted (Picelli et al., 2013, 2014), with minor modification to incorporate the internal solution for wholecell patch-clamp (key reagents include SUPERaseIn and RNaseOUT from Thermo Fisher, South San Francisco, CA; ProtoScript II, DTT, and MgCl<sub>2</sub> from NEB, Ipswich, MA; betaine from MilliporeSigma, Burlington, MA; KAPA HiFi HotStart ReadyMix from Roche, Basel, Switzerland; template switch oligo from Exiqon/Qiagen, Hilden, Germany; oligo dT and PCR primers from IDT, San Jose, CA). The cDNA libraries were purified with AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter, Indianapolis, IN), and their mass concentrations were measured with Qubit (Thermo Fisher, South San Francisco, CA). Bioanalyzer high sensitive DNA chip (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA) was also applied to check the distribution of fragments in each individual library. Libraries of low concentration of cDNA or with distorted curve on Bioanalyzer were discarded. 96 cDNA libraries were processed in preparation for sequencing. Tagmentation was performed following the standard protocol of Illumina

Nextera XT kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA). Sequencing libraries were purified with AMPure XP beads and their final concentrations were measured with Qubit; the 96 libraries were pooled with equal molar amount; and the pooled library was size-selected by BluePippin (Sage, Beverly, MA) for fragments of 300–500 bp. The sequencing of cDNAs was performed with Illumina HiSeq 4000, SE50.

**Immunostaining—**Mice subjected for immunostaining were perfused with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, 137.0 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 10.0 mM Na2HPO4, 1.8 mM KH2PO4, pH 7.4) through the left ventricle. After post-fix in  $4\%$  PFA for overnight, the brain was sectioned into  $40 \mu m$  slices in PBS with a vibrating blade microtome (Leica, Wetzlar, DE). After washing in Tris-buffered saline (TBS, 50 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.4) for 3 times, heat induced epitope retrieval was performed by incubating the slices in 10 mM Na-citrate with 0.05% Tween 20, pH 6.0, at 80°C, for 30 min. Upon cooling down, the brain slices were washed 3 times in TBS with 0.3% Triton 100 (TBS-T). The brain slices were first blocked in the blocking buffer (TBS with 0.3% Triton 100, 10% normal donkey serum, and 2% bovine serum albumin) at room temperature for 2 hours, and then incubated with primary antibodies against L-PGDS (mouse anti  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$ synthase (F-7), 1:200, Santa Cruz, Dallas, TX, Cat #sc-390717, RRID:AB\_2800545), CaMKI (guinea pig anti CaMKI, 1:500, Synaptic Systems, Goettingen, Germany, Cat #211 005, RRID:AB\_2070109), tdTomato (rat anti tdTomato, 1:500, Kerafast, Boston, MA, Cat # EST203, RRID:AB\_2732803), mCherry (rabbit anti mCherry, 1:1000 or 1:5000, Abcam, Cambridge, UK, Cat #ab167453, RRID:AB\_2571870), DP1 (rabbit anti DP1, 1:200, Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI, Cat #101640, RRID:AB\_10078133), BDNF (sheep anti BDNF, 1:100, MilliporeSigma, Burlington, MA, Cat #AB1513P, RID:AB\_2064329), PACAP (mouse anti PACAP, 1:500, Santa Cruz, Dallas, TX, Cat #sc-166180, RRID:AB\_2289234), and/or GFP (chicken anti GFP, 1:2000, Aves Labs, Davis, CA, Cat # GFP-1020, RRID:AB\_10000240) at 4°C overnight. After washing in TBS-T for 3 times, brain slices were incubated with secondary antibodies of donkey anti mouse IgG conjugated with Alexa 488 (1:1000, Thermo Fisher, South San Francisco, CA), donkey anti rat IgG conjugated with RRX (1:1000, Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA), donkey anti guinea pig IgG conjugated with ALEXA 647 (1:1000, Thermo Fisher, South San Francisco, CA), donkey anti sheep IgG conjugated with Alexa 488 (1:1000, Thermo Fisher, South San Francisco, CA), donkey anti rabbit IgG conjugated with RRX (1:1000, Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA), donkey anti mouse IgG conjugated with Alexa 647 (1:1000, Thermo Fisher, South San Francisco, CA), and/or donkey anti chicken IgY conjugated with Alexa 488 (1:1000, Thermo Fisher, South San Francisco, CA), plus DAPI (1:5000, MilliporeSigma, Burlington, MA). After washing in TBS for 3 times, the brain slices were mounted onto glass slides and coated with Fluoroshield (MilliporeSigma, Burlington, MA). The specimen was imaged with confocal microscope (Leica SP5, Wetzlar, DE) after drying.

**Chemogenetics—**After recovery from virus injection, a temperature probe (G2 E-Mitter, Starr Life Sciences, Oakmont, PA) was implanted into the mouse' abdominal cavity. After recovery for another week, the mouse was single-housed in a thermal-controlled incubator (Power Scientific, Warminster, PA) with normal lighting schedule and ambient temperature

of 22°C for at least overnight to habituate to the environment; food and water were served ad libitum. The cage sat on an ER4000 Energizer/Receiver (Starr Life Sciences, Oakmont, PA), which powers the E-Mitter and receives the measurement data. The body temperature  $(T_c)$ and locomotor activity of the mouse were recorded with VitalView (Starr Life Sciences, Oakmont, PA) with one sampling per min. On the experimental day, at CT 0.5 or CT 11.5, the mouse was anesthetized with isoflurane, and Intraperitoneal (IP) injected with vehicle (sterile saline), or clozapine  $(10 \mu g/kg$  body weight)(Gomez et al., 2017). 2 days later at the same time, another injection of reagent different from that used for the 1<sup>st</sup> injection was delivered with the same procedure. In total, the mouse body temperature was recorded for at least 8 days. When finished, the mouse brains were sectioned for validation of vector expression, and/or electrophysiological recordings.

**LC-MS/MS—**The brain slices of PGDS-Cre mice were prepared as described above. After a recovery period of 90 min at room temperature, brains slices of POA or thalamus were transferred into a heating chamber (Warner Instrument, Hamden, CT) with constant perfusion of ACSF. The treatments of TTX (1  $\mu$ M, Tocris, Bristol, UK), Ca<sup>2+</sup>-free ACSF (0 mM Ca<sup>2+</sup> ACSF with 10 mM EGTA), synaptic transmission blockers of DNQX (20  $\mu$ M), AP5 (50 µM), and SR 95531 (20 µM), AT-56 (20 µM, Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI) (Irikura et al., 2009) or its vehicle (5% DMSO and 5% 2-Hydroxypropyl-β-cyclodextrin in sterile saline) were delivered during this period, if applicable. After 20 min washing (and treatment) at 30°C, the perfusion was stopped, and the bath temperature in the chamber was maintained at 33°C, 36°C, or 39°C for 5 or 30 min. The incubation of the brain slices was performed at CT 6–8. The brain slices were harvested, flash-frozen in liquid  $N_2$ , and stored in −80°C for further processing.

The investigator performing the following procedure was blind to the treatment of the brain slice samples. Lipid extraction was performed according to Farias and colleagues (Farias et al., 2008) with slight modification. 100 pg of deuterated internal standards,  $d4PGD<sub>2</sub>$  and  $d4PGE_2$  (Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI), were added to each tissue sample. After homogenization and extraction, dried lipid samples were dissolved in 100 µl of 0.7 mM ammonium formate in 68% aqueous methanol. 40 µl of each sample was injected into a C18 HPLC column (Kinetex 5 µm 100 Å,  $150 \times 4.6$  mm, Phenomenex) and eluted at a flow rate of 1 ml/min with 0.8 mM ammonium acetate in 28% aqueous acetonitrile. A quadrupole linear-ion trap mass spectrometer (AB Sciex QTRAP 6500) was connected to a Shimadzu HPLC system as a detector.  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  and  $PGE<sub>2</sub>$  were separated as two non-overlapping peaks between retention time 3 to 5 min. Mass spectrometric analyses were performed in negativeion mode using multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) of the following specific  $m/z$ (precursor  $\rightarrow$  product) transitions: 351  $\rightarrow$  189 (PGD<sub>2</sub>); 351  $\rightarrow$  271 (PGE<sub>2</sub>); 355  $\rightarrow$  193  $(d4-PGD_2)$ ; 355  $\rightarrow$  275 (d4-PGE<sub>2</sub>). Remaining insoluble material from the lipid extraction was dried down and subjected to trypsin digestion (40 µg trypsin per sample in 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 37°C for 2 days). After centrifuging (16,000×g for 15 min at 4°C) to remove particulates, released peptides were quantified via the BCA protein assay (Thermo Fisher, South San Francisco, CA) and the absolute amount of protein was used to normalize lipid levels.

**Western Blot—**The brain slices of POA, thalamus, cortex, striatum, and hippocampus were prepared as described above, frozen immediately on dry ice and stored at −80 °C. Frozen tissue samples were mixed with 100 µL of lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 4 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM TCEP, and 1x Complete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche, Basel, Switzerland), pH 7.5), incubated on ice for 15 min and homogenized with a plastic pestle. After another 15 min of incubation on ice, the samples were centrifuged at  $16,000 \times g$  for 15 min at 4 °C and the supernatants were transferred to fresh tubes. Protein content of each sample was determined by Bradford assay, after which equal amounts of protein was mixed with NuPAGE LDS sample buffer (Thermo-Fisher, South San Francisco, CA) supplemented with 0.1 M DTT. 12 µg of total protein from each sample was resolved in NuPAGE 4–12% Bis-Tris protein gels with MES running buffer (Thermo Fisher, South San Francisco, CA) and transferred to Immobilon-P membranes (MilliporeSigma, Burlington, MA) using a Trans-Blot Turbo transfer system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). Membranes were blocked with 5% non-fat milk prepared in TBST (10 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, and 0.1% Tween-20, pH 7.5) and probed with mouse anti-PGD2 synthase (F-7, 1:1000 dilution, Santa Cruz, Dallas, TX) at 4 °C for overnight. Membranes were further incubated with anti-mouse IgG-HRP secondary antibody (1:28000 dilution, Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA) and developed with SuperSignal West Femto Chemiluminescent Substrate (Thermo Fisher, South San Francisco, CA). For loading control, membranes were treated with 30% hydrogen peroxide for 15 min at 37 °C to inactivate HRP activity, washed with ddH<sub>2</sub>O, reprobed with HRP-Conjugated GAPDH Antibody (1:20000 dilution, Proteintech, Rosemont, IL) and developed with Pierce ECL Western Blotting Substrate (Thermo Fisher, South San Francisco, CA). A C-DiGit blot scanner (LI-COR) was used to visualize the chemiluminescent signal and Image Studio Software (LI-COR) was used for quantification.

**ICV injection and body temperature measurement—**B6 WT mouse was implanted with a temperature probe G2 E-Mitter into the abdominal cavity and a brain guide cannula (PlasticsOne, Roanoke, VA) into the lateral ventricle (AP −0.4, ML −0.8, DV 2.4) on the same day. After recovery for at least 6 days, the mouse was single-housed in a thermalcontrolled incubator with normal lighting schedule and ambient temperature of 22°C for at least overnight to habituate to the environment; food and water were served ad libitum. The cage sat on an ER4000 Energizer/Receiver, which powers the E-Mitter and receives the measurement data. On the experimental day, at CT 4–5, the mouse was anesthetized with isoflurane to install injection cannula, and IP injected with vehicle (5% DMSO and 5% 2- Hydroxypropyl-β-cyclodextrin in sterile saline), MK-0524 (4 mg/kg body weight) (Cheng et al., 2006), or AT-56 (20 mg/kg body weight) (Irikura et al., 2009). The  $T_c$  and locomotor activity of the mouse were recorded with VitalView with one sampling per min. After a baseline recording for at least 60 min, the mouse was intracerebroventricular (ICV) injected with vehicle (10% DMSO in sterile saline),  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  (2 nmol in 1µl), or  $PGE<sub>2</sub>$  (2 nmol in 1µl, Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI). The assignment of the treatment to the animals is random, but the replicates of each treatment are the same ( $N = 6$ ). The  $T_c$  of the mouse was recorded for at least 3 hours until the injection cannula was removed. When finished, the mouse brains were sectioned to validate the correct position of cannula implantation.

**CRISPRi mediated Ptgds knockdown in POA of mouse—**To clone the sgRNAs targeting Ptgds for CRISPRi, three candidates were selected from a published sgRNA libraries to minimize potential off-target effects(Horlbeck et al., 2016). The sgRNAs were designed to target within −25 and 500 bp of the TSS and contains 19 bp followed by an NGG PAM. The sgRNAs sequences were ordered from IDT (Coralville, IA) with compatible restriction enzyme overhangs for cloning into a pSico based lentiviral sgRNA expression vector in which the sgRNA is driven by a mouse U6 promoter. The vector also expresses GFP and Hygromycin resistance from a short EF1a promoter. The sgRNA expression vector was prepared by restriction digest with AarI (Thermo Fisher, South San Francisco, CA) at 37°C overnight, followed by 1% agarose gel excision of the digested backbone via NucleoSpin columns (Macherey-Nagel, Bethlehem, PA). The annealed sgRNAs and the digested backbone were ligated with T4 (NEB, Ipswich, MA) overnight at 16°C, followed by transformation into homemade chemically competent Stellar cells. The minipreped sgRNA vectors were sequenced by Quintara Bioscience (South San Francisco, CA) to confirm correctly cloned sequence.

Lentivirus was produced by UCSF Viracore, with the procedure as: HEK293T cells were seeded at  $65,000$  cells per cm<sup>2</sup> in 10 cm dishes in 10 mL media (DMEM, 10% fetal bovine serum, 1% Sodium Pyruvate, 1% Nonessential Amino Acids) and incubated overnight at 37°C, 5% CO2. The next morning, 6 µg sgRNA plasmid, 3 µg psPAX2 (Addgene #12260), 3 µg pMD2.G (Addgene #12259) and 25 µL jetPRIME (Polyplus Transfection, Illkirch, FR) were mixed into 850µL sterile water with 1x jetPRIME buffer, vortexed and incubated for 10 min at RT and added to the cells. At 72 h post-transfection, supernatant was harvested, passed through 0.45 um filters and ultracentrifuged at 25,000 rpm for 2 h to collect the virus. The viral pellet was diluted in sterile PBS, aliquoted, and stored at −80°C. The virus was tittered on HEK293T cells with FACS (Attune™ NxT Flow Cytometer) and the titers were  $~10^8$  TU/ml.

All sgRNAs targeting *Ptgds* were validated by transduction of mouse E14 ESCs, stably expressing dCas9-KRAB. RNA was harvested 10 days after transduction and all sgRNAs candidates displayed robust knock down of *Ptgds* (data not shown). In the following in vivo knockdown experiments, the sgRNAs targeting Ptgds with the sequence TGCTCCATGAGCCCCTCAT and the non-targeting control with the sequence GCCTGGACCTAACGTCCGAG were used to prepare lentivirus for mouse brain injection.

The dCas9-KRAB mice were injected with lentivirus vector of 1.0 µl into medial and lateral POA (bilateral, stereotactic coordinates AP 0.1, ML ±0.3, DV 5.5). After one week's recovery, they were implanted with a temperature probe G2 E-Mitter into the abdominal cavity. After another recovery for 1 week, the mouse was single-housed in a thermalcontrolled incubator with normal lighting schedule and ambient temperature of 22°C; food and water were served ad libitum. The cage sat on an ER4000 Energizer/Receiver, which powers the E-Mitter and receives the measurement data. The  $T_c$  and locomotor activity of the mouse were recorded with VitalView with one sampling per min, for at least 10 days. The periodogram of the  $T_c$  oscillation was analyzed with ClockLab. The  $T_c$  of the mice in test were closely monitored; if it dropped below 25°C, the mouse was euthanized

immediately (as a humane endpoint). When finished, the mouse brains were sectioned to validate the correct position of injection, and to evaluate the gene knockdown efficiency.

When testing the mice in elevated ambient temperature, the animals were exposed to ambient temperature of 37°C for 4 hours on day 14.

#### **QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

**Electrophysiology—** To measure the temperature sensitivity of a neuron, the spontaneous action potentials (SAP) were counted at the steady state of  $33^{\circ}$ C,  $36^{\circ}$ C, and  $39^{\circ}$ C, within one sweep of 15 sec; the slope of firing frequency change in response to temperature change was calculated by linear regression of the firing frequency plotted against the test temperatures. If the neuron was silent at a certain temperature  $(SAP = 0 Hz$ , most likely  $\sim$ 33°C), or exhibited obviously seizure like firing (SAP > 20 Hz, low amplitude, most likely  $\sim$ 39 $\degree$ C), the data at the certain temperature point were removed from linear regression. The criterion(Boulant and Dean, 1986) for "warm-sensitive" neurons is SAP frequency increasing with temperature elevation at a rate  $> +0.8$  Hz/°C, while the criterion (Boulant and Dean, 1986) for "cold-sensitive" neurons is SAP frequency change < −0.6 Hz/°C; neurons with mild changes of firing frequency are defined as "temperature-insensitive"; neurons with no spontaneous action potentials are defined as "silent". For silent neurons, the resting membrane potential  $(V_m)$  was measured at 3 different test temperature, and the  $V_m$ change over temperature  $(dV_m / dT)$  were calculated by linear regression; the spontaneous post-synaptic potentials (if applicable) were counted during the period of incubation temperature increase, with temperature bin of 1°C; the event counts at each temperature window were fit to Gauss distribution, and the adjusted R-squared  $(R^2)$  was calculated. Silent neurons with  $|dV_m/dT| > 1 \text{ mV}^{\circ}\text{C}$  or  $R^2 > 0.9$  are classified as "temperaturesensitive silent neurons", while the rest of silent neurons with mild change in  $V_m$  and spontaneous post-synaptic potentials over temperature rising are classified as "temperatureinsensitive silent neurons".

For recordings with treatments of clozapine or PGD2, the SAP frequencies were calculated from 1 sweep (15 s) before the treatment and 1 sweep afterwards. For recordings with optogenetics stimulation, the SAP frequencies were calculated from 1 sweep (15 s) before, 1 sweep during, and 1 sweep after the laser illumination.

**Bioinformatics—**Quality control for sequencing was assessed using FastQC; raw reads were trimmed with R-package scythe for adapter contamination, and with sickle for low quality reads. Reads were aligned to the mouse reference genome sequence mm10 with STAR, using UCSC annotation from iGenomes. Raw read counts were generated by STAR. Gene expression values were normalized based on library size as counts per million reads (CPM).

Differential expression (DE) analysis was conducted using the Bioconductor package edgeR. The model of Negative Binomial Distribution was employed; normalization was conducted using the TMM method; estimation and testing were conducted using the quasilikelihood method. The DE analysis includes 78 libraries with known temperature-sensitivity based

upon electrophysiology; they were classified into 5 categories, as described in main text, Figure S3A, and Table S1.

A MATLAB toolbox SCell was used to analyze the single-cell transcriptomes (Diaz et al., 2016). Simpsons Diversity Index was applied to evaluate the complexity of each library, through which 84 libraries passed the criteria and 12 libraries were filtered out. Furthermore, the index of dispersion (IOD) of each individual gene (log-transformed CPM values) in the 84 libraries was calculated; genes of the bottom 25%, which exhibit less variance in different libraries (low IOD value), were excluded from the following PCA analysis. In addition, genes expressed in fewer than 10% of the libraries were also excluded. The remaining 12912 genes from 84 libraries were subjected to PCA. These 84 cDNA libraries correspond to the transcriptomes of 68 neurons that experienced patch-clamp recording for ~10 min ("fresh" in Figure S2) and 16 neurons that were harvested immediately after membrane breakthrough via the patch clamp electrode without recording ("pick" in Figure S2). The PCA of the 84 libraries (Figure S2O) demonstrates that the patch-clamp recording and temperature variations over the course of 10 min did not alter the gene expression pattern of the neurons in POA. Further PCA of the 68 libraries with designated temperature-sensitivity of the neurons and the cluster analysis (K-means) was also performed with SCell, as described in the main text.

**Immunostaining—**In experiments staining L-PGDS and CaMKI in POA of WT mice (Figure 1O), a total of 264 cells, based upon nucleus staining with DAPI, were collected from 3 independent replicates. The percentage of cells with 1) L-PGDS staining only, 2) CaMKI staining only, 3) both L-PGDS and CaMKI stainings, or 4) neither of the two staining, over the total cell numbers was calculated to quantify the expression of the two target proteins.

In experiments staining tdTomato, L-PGDS, and CaMKI in POA of PGDS-Cre/Ai14 mice (Figures 2A, 2B, and S3C), a total of 459 cells, based upon nucleus staining with DAPI, were collected from 3 independent replicates. The cells were first classified into 2 categories, with or without tdTomato staining. Then the percentage of cells with 1) L-PGDS staining only, 2) CaMKI staining only, 3) both L-PGDS and CaMKI staining, or 4) neither of the two staining, in each of 2 categories was calculated separately, to quantify the overlap expression of tdTomato with L-PGDS or CaMKI.

In experiments staining mCherry, L-PGDS, and CaMKI in POA of PGDS-Cre/AAVmCherry mice (Figure S4B and S4C), identical quantification method was used as above with a total of 416 cells collected from 3 independent replicates.

In experiments staining DP1, BDNF, and PACAP in vMPO and POA of WT mice (Figures 6B and S6C–S6F), a total of 432 vMPO cells and 542 of POA cells, were collected from 3 independent replicates (each pair of vMPO and POA slices was harvested from the same mouse, 3 mice in total). The percentage of cells with BDNF staining over total cell numbers (based upon nucleus staining with DAPI) was calculated in vMPO and POA; the percentage of cells with both DP1 and BDNF staining over the number of cells with BDNF staining was calculated in vMPO and POA. Cells with DP1 only but not BDNF staining were not

detected in the 3 replicates. The staining of DP1 and PACAP in putative dendrite along the 3<sup>rd</sup> ventricle is not quantified, because of the difficulty in delineating the neuronal processes away from their cell bodies.

In experiments staining GFP and L-PGDS in POA of dCas9-KRAB mice with sgRNA injection (Figures 7B–7D), a total of 451 cells were collected from *Ptgds*-sgRNA group and a total of 456 cells were collected control-sgRNA group (3 independent replicates in each group). The percentage of GFP-positive cells was used to quantify the transfection rate (marked with GFP), while the percentage L-PGDS-positive cells was used to quantify the gene knockdown efficiency.

**LC-MS/MS—**Peak areas from each analyte and their corresponding deuterated spiked-in standards were obtained from Analyst software (AB Sciex) to calculate the amount of lipid hormones in each sample, which was further normalized to the total protein level in each sample.

**Body temperature measurement—In** chemogenetics (Figures 3), the T<sub>c</sub> was compared between clozapine treatment and its vehicle 2 hours before till 6 hours after IP injection. In ICV injection (Figure 5), the baseline  $T_c$  was determined from the average of recording for 30 min before the ICV injection, and the change in body temperature  $(-T_c)$  following the ICV over the course of 2 hours was calculated and compared in different groups. In CRISPRi-mediated knockdown experiment with elevated ambient temperature increase (Figures 7L and 7M), the baseline  $T_c$  was determined from the average of recording for 60 min before the temperature manipulation, and  $T_c$  following the ambient temperature increase over the course of 4 hours was calculated and compared between sgRNA of NT vs. Ptgds.

**Statistics—Sample sizes were chosen on the basis of similar experiments in the field, and** Power Analysis (online calculator) with preliminary results; 7–10 replicates for electrophysiology; 3 replicates for immunostaining; 6 replicates for biochemistry assay, and 6–8 replicates for measurement in live animals. Statistical significance was assayed by Student's t-test, Chi square, log rank, or One-way ANOVA with GraphPad Prism. \*, P < 0.05; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ . Variance was examined by an F-test. Data are represented as mean  $\pm$ s.e.m.

#### **Supplementary Material**

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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## **Highlights**

- PGD<sub>2</sub> Synthase is a marker for temperature-sensitive neurons in preoptic area (POA).
- POA neurons that express  $PGD_2$  Synthase are involved in thermoregulation.
- Rising POA temperature increases neuronal firing to promote PGD<sub>2</sub> production.
- PGD<sub>2</sub> activates DP1 receptor in ventral medial POA neurons that mediate hypothermia.



# **Figure 1. Genetic and functional profiling of neurons in mouse preoptic area (POA).**

**(A)** Schematic illustration of the approach combining single-cell RNA-seq with whole-cell patch-clamp recording in POA slice; see also Figure S6B.

**(B)** Spatial distribution of analyzed neurons ( $N = 68$ ) in POA, with color codes as in (P); x, horizontal distance to 3<sup>rd</sup> ventricle; y, vertical distance to optic chiasm.

**(C-E)** Sample current-clamp recordings of warm-sensitive neurons (**C**), cold-sensitive neurons (**D**), and temperature-insensitive neurons (**E**) at 33°C (top), 36°C (middle), and 39°C (bottom), with a −20 pA, 20 ms current pulse in each sweep to monitor membrane properties; action potentials truncated in display.

**(F-H)** The spontaneous action potentials (SAP) frequency at three different temperatures; **(F)** 18 warm-sensitive neurons,  $dF/dT > +0.8$  Hz/°C; **(G)** 4 cold-sensitive neurons,  $dF/dT <$ −0.6 Hz/°C; **(H)** 24 temperature-insensitive neurons, −0.6 Hz/°C < dF/dT < 0.8 Hz/°C.

 $(I, J)$  Sample current-clamp recordings of temperature-insensitive silent neurons  $(I, N = 12)$ and temperature-sensitive silent neurons  $(J, N = 10)$ ; see also Figures S1.

**(K, L)** Principal component analysis (PCA) of the transcriptomes of 68 POA neurons, with K-means clustering (**K**, 4 groups, 5 replicates), or color labeling as in **(P)** to reflect their temperature sensitivity (**L**).

**(M)** Gene loadings from the PCA shown in **(K, L)**, with Ptgds and Camk1 highlighted in magenta and cyan, respectively; see also Figure S3B.

**(N)** Expression ratio of Ptgds over Camk1 in each neuron, quantified in log-scaled counts per million reads (Log<sub>2</sub>CPM) from single-cell RNA-seq; short line, value of each individual neuron; long line, median value of each group.

**(O)** Antibody staining of L-PGDS (magenta, encoded by Ptgds) and CaMKI (cyan, encoded by *Camk1*) in mouse brain slices of POA (3 replicates, 264 cells); scale bar, 10 µm; blue, cells with both L-PGDS and CaMKI staining; grey, cells with neither L-PGDS nor CaMKI staining.

**(P)** Classification of POA neurons based on their gene expression and temperature sensitivity. See also Figure S2.



#### **Figure 2.** *Ptgds* **is a genetic marker for temperature-sensitive POA neurons.**

**(A)** Antibody staining of L-PGDS (magenta), tdTomato (yellow, labeling Ptgds-expressing cells), and CaMKI (cyan) in POA slices of PGDS-Cre/Ai14 mice (3 replicates); scale bar, 15 µm.

**(B)** ~85% neurons expressing tdTomato (yellow) have L-PGDS immunoreactivity (magenta); ~74% neurons without tdTomato expression (grey) have CaMKI immunoreactivity (cyan) (3 replicates, 459 cells); see also Figure S3C.

**(C)** Temperature sensitivity of POA neurons with (right) or without (left) Ptgds-expression marked with tdTomato; red and blue lines mark the criteria for warm-sensitive  $(dF/dT > +0.8$  $Hz$ <sup>o</sup>°C) and cold-sensitive (dF/dT < -0.6 Hz<sup>o</sup>°C) neurons, respectively; silent neurons were excluded from this plot.

**(D)** Temperature sensitivity of POA neurons from WT (WT/normal ACSF,  $N = 68$ ) or PGDS-Cre/Ai14 mice, including neurons without Ptgds expression (tdTomato-/normal ACSF,  $N = 20$ ; P < 0.01, Chi-square test, compared to WT), neurons with tdTomato marking *Ptgds* expression (tdTomato+/normal ACSF,  $N = 20$ ; P < 0.01, Chi-square test, compared to WT), and PGDS-Cre/Ai14 mice with *Ptgds* expressing neurons recorded in the presence of synaptic transmission blockers (tdTomato+/synaptic transmission blocked, 20 µM DNQX, 50  $\mu$ M AP5, and 20  $\mu$ M SR 95531,  $N = 20$ ; P < 0.01, Chi-square test, compared to tdTomato +/normal ACSF); color code as in Figure 1P.



**Figure 3.** *Ptgds***-expressing POA neurons are involved in body temperature control. (A, G)** Sample current-clamp recordings of POA neurons expressing Ptgds-driven Cre and hM3Dq (**A**, red) or hM4Di (**G**, blue) (both labeled by mCherry) subjected to clozapine treatment (1 µ M, 1 min); action potentials truncated in display; see also Figure S4E. **(B, H)** Sample core body temperature  $(T_c)$  recording (via an implanted probe) for  $> 8$  days, from mice with hM3Dq **(B)** or hM4Di **(H)** in Ptgds-expressing POA neurons, with intraperitoneal (IP) injections of clozapine (10 µg/kg body weight) or vehicle, in early dayor night-time.

 $(C, D, I, J)$  Sample mouse  $T_c$  recording for 8 hours, with intraperitoneal (IP) injections of clozapine (red) or vehicle (black).

**(E, F, K, L)** Mouse  $T_c$  at 0–3 hours following IP. ( $N = 8$  (hM3Dq) or 7 (hM4Di), \*\*, P < 0.01, \*, P < 0.05, paired Student's T-test). See also Figure S4.



**Figure 4. Prostaglandin D2 (PGD2) production in POA is temperature-dependent. (A)** Schematic illustration of the approach using freshly prepared brain slices to analyze PGD<sub>2</sub> and PGE<sub>2</sub> production in vitro.

**(B-G)** PGD<sub>2</sub> (black) and PGE<sub>2</sub> (red) levels (normalized to total protein level) in brain slices of POA **(B, C, E, F, G)** or thalamus (**D**, with comparable amounts of protein input as POA samples), incubated at 33°C, 36°C, or 39°C, for 5 min **(B)** or 30 min **(C-G)**, in normal ACSF (**B-D**) or with treatments of TTX (1  $\mu$ M, E), Ca<sup>2+</sup> free ACSF (0 mM Ca<sup>2+</sup>, 10 mM EGTA,  $\bf{F}$ ), or synaptic transmission blockers (20  $\mu$ M DNQX, 50  $\mu$  M AP5, and 20  $\mu$ M SR 95531, G);  $N = 6$  in each condition;  $P < 0.01$  in C,  $P < 0.05$  in G, One-Way ANOVA; \*\*, P  $< 0.01$ ; \*,  $P < 0.05$ , Tukey's multiple comparisons test; P $< 0.01$ , One-Way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test when comparing samples incubated in 36°C in  $\mathbf{B}, \mathbf{E}, \mathbf{F}$  with  $\mathbf{C}$ ; mean  $\pm$  s.e.m.

See also Figure S5.



**Figure 5. PGD2 protects mouse from hyperthermia by mediating Tc decrease.** (A) PGD<sub>2</sub> (black) and PGE<sub>2</sub> (red) levels in POA slices incubated at  $39^{\circ}$ C for 30 min with L-PGDS inhibitor, AT-56 (20  $\mu$ M), or vehicle (N = 6, \*, P < 0.05, Student's T-test); mean  $\pm$ s.e.m.

**(B, C)** IP injection of AT-56 (20 mg/kg body weight) induces higher body temperature increase ( $\tau_c$ ) in response to intracerebroventricular (ICV) injection of PGE<sub>2</sub> (2 nmol in 1µl); black, IP vehicle and ICV vehicle; red, IP vehicle and ICV PGE<sub>2</sub>; green, IP AT-56 and ICV vehicle; blue, IP AT-56 and ICV  $PGE_2$ ;  $N = 6$  in each condition,  $P < 0.01$ , One-Way ANOVA,  $**$ ,  $P < 0.01$ , Tukey's multiple comparison test; mean  $\pm$  s.e.m.

**(D, E)** ICV injection of  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  (2 nmol in 1 µl) into mouse lateral ventricle induces hypothermia, which can be abolished by prior IP injection of  $DP1 (PGD<sub>2</sub> receptor) blocker$ MK-0524 (4 mg/kg body weight); black, IP vehicle and ICV vehicle (same data set as in **B, C**); red, IP vehicle and ICV PGD<sub>2</sub>; green, IP MK-0524 and ICV vehicle; blue, IP MK-0524

and ICV PGD<sub>2</sub>;  $N = 6$  in each condition; \*\*, P < 0.01, \*, P < 0.05, One-Way ANOVA with repeated measurement, followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test; mean ± s.e.m. **(F)** Simultaneous recordings of  $T_c$  (D) and the locomotor activity (F) of mice, with ICV injection of PGD<sub>2</sub> (red) or vehicle (black), 3 hours following ICV set-up.

**(G, H)** The cumulative locomotor activity of mice in the 3 one-hour windows; \*, P < 0.05, One-Way ANOVA with repeated measurement, followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test.



**Figure 6. PGD2 excites neurons in the ventral medial preoptic area (vMPO) by activating the PGD2 receptor DP1.**

**(A)** PGDS-expressing neurons in medial and lateral POA and DP1-expressing neurons in vMPO are in adjacent yet distinct brain regions; see also Figures S6A and S6B. **(B)** The PGD<sub>2</sub> receptor DP1 (magenta) is expressed in vMPO neurons, co-localized with neural peptides BDNF (yellow) in putative soma and PACAP (cyan) in putative processes along the 3rd ventricle (3 replicates); scale bar, 50 µm; see also Figures S6C–S6F. **(C-E)** Schematic illustration **(C)**, sample traces **(D)**, and summary **(E)** of current-clamp recordings from vMPO neurons in response to  $PGD<sub>2</sub>$  treatment (20  $\mu$ M, ~10 s), in the presence of vehicle (red) or DP1 blocker MK-0524 (blue, 100 nM) ( $N = 7$  in each condition; \*\*, P < 0.01, paired Student's T-test); action potentials truncated in display.

**(F-H)** Schematic illustration **(F)**, sample traces **(G)** and summary **(H)** of current-clamp recordings from vMPO neurons in response to laser stimulation  $(\sim 30 \text{ s})$ , in the presence of vehicle (red,  $N = 24$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ , One-Way ANOVA with repeated measurement, followed

by Sidak's multiple comparisons test) or DP1 blocker MK-0524 (blue, 100 nM,  $N = 18$ ; P > 0.05, One-Way ANOVA with repeated measurement); action potentials truncated in display. Recordings were carried out in the presence of 20  $\mu$ M DNQX, 50  $\mu$ M AP5, and 20  $\mu$ M SR 95531; See also Figure S7.



 $T_c$  = midline + amplitude x sin (2 $\pi$  x phase / period)

**Figure 7. L-PGDS in POA temperature-sensitive neurons is crucial for thermoregulation and survival of animals.**

**(A)** Schematic illustration of CRISPRi-mediated Ptgds knockdown in mouse POA.

**(B)** Antibody staining of GFP (cyan, marker for lentivirus transfection) and L-PGDS (magenta) in POA slices of dCas9-KRAB mice with sgRNA either non-targeting (NT) or targeting  $Ptgds$  (3 replicates in each condition); scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m.

**(C, D)** Percentage of cells that are transfected with lentivirus (C, labeled with GFP) and percentage of cells that express L-PGDS (D) in medial and lateral POA of dCas9-KRAB mice with sgRNA of NT or *Ptgds*;  $N = 3$  in each conditions, \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ , Student's T-test);  $mean \pm s.e.m.$ 

 $(E, F)$  Sample mouse  $T_c$  recording following viral injection  $(E)$ , with Chi-square periodogram of  $T_c$  oscillation in day 13-17 (F; dashed line, confidential interval of 0.001); black, sgRNA-NT; red, sgRNA-Ptgds.

**(G)** Survival rate of mice with viral injection of sgRNA-NT (black) or sgRNA-Ptgds (red);  $N = 6$  in each condition;  $P < 0.01$ , log-rank test.

**(H-K)** Amplitude **(H)**, period **(I)**, peak phase **(J)**, and midline **(K)** of  $T_c$  oscillation of mice with viral injection of sgRNA-NT (black) or sgRNA-Ptgds (red), based on the periodogram of T<sub>c</sub> recording in day 13–17;  $N = 6$  in each condition; \*, P < 0.05, Student's T-test; mean  $\pm$ s.e.m.

 $(L, M)$  Sample traces  $(L)$  and summary  $(M)$  of  $T_c$  recordings of mice upon exposure to elevated ambient temperature (37°C, 4 hours) 2 weeks following lentivirus injection; black, sgRNA-NT,  $N = 9$ ; red, sgRNA-Ptgds,  $N = 8$ ; blue, ambient temperature; \*\*, P < 0.01, Student's T-test.