

# The PTH- $G\alpha_s$ -Protein Kinase A Cascade Controls $\alpha$ NAC Localization To Regulate Bone Mass

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**The binding of PTH to its receptor induces  $G\alpha_s$ -dependent cyclic AMP (cAMP) accumulation to turn on effector kinases, including protein kinase A (PKA). The phenotype of mice with osteoblasts specifically deficient for  $G\alpha_s$  is mimicked by a mutation leading to cytoplasmic retention of the transcriptional coregulator  $\alpha$ NAC, suggesting that  $G\alpha_s$  and  $\alpha$ NAC form part of a common genetic pathway. We show that treatment of osteoblasts with PTH(1–34) or the PKA-selective activator *N*<sup>6</sup>-benzoyladenine cAMP (6Bnz-cAMP) leads to translocation of  $\alpha$ NAC to the nucleus.  $\alpha$ NAC was phosphorylated by PKA at serine 99 *in vitro*. Phospho-S99- $\alpha$ NAC accumulated in osteoblasts exposed to PTH(1–34) or 6Bnz-cAMP but not in treated cells expressing dominant-negative PKA. Nuclear accumulation was abrogated by an S99A mutation but enhanced by a phosphomimetic residue (S99D). Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) analysis showed that PTH(1–34) or 6Bnz-cAMP treatment leads to accumulation of  $\alpha$ NAC at the *Osteocalcin* (*Ocn*) promoter. Altered gene dosages for  $G\alpha_s$  and  $\alpha$ NAC in compound heterozygous mice result in reduced bone mass, increased numbers of osteocytes, and enhanced expression of *Sost*. Our results show that  $\alpha$ NAC is a substrate of PKA following PTH signaling. This enhances  $\alpha$ NAC translocation to the nucleus and leads to its accumulation at target promoters to regulate transcription and affect bone mass.**

Continuous secretion of PTH causes bone resorption (1). However, when administered at a low dosage and intermittently, PTH stimulates bone formation to a greater extent and earlier than it activates resorption (2–4). Intermittent PTH treatment causes pleiotropic effects that all contribute to increase osteoblast number (5).

PTH (and PTHrP) binds the G protein-coupled receptor, PTHR1 (6). Binding of the hormone to PTHR1 induces  $G\alpha_s$ -mediated activation of adenylyl cyclase that stimulates cyclic AMP (cAMP) production. A major effector pathway downstream from the accumulation of cAMP is the activation of protein kinase A (PKA), and PKA is a known transducer of PTH-induced signaling (7). While PKA-independent mechanisms involving the Epac family of guanine nucleotide exchange factors have been implicated in the signal transduction properties of cAMP (8), the contribution of these PKA-independent mechanisms in mediating cAMP-induced signaling in response to the PTH-PTHR1 interaction remains unknown (9). Other pathways are also stimulated by the liganded PTHR1 receptor, such as  $G\alpha_q$ -mediated activation of protein kinase C (PKC) (10).

Structure-function analysis of the PTH molecule has established that PTH-stimulated,  $G\alpha_s$ -dependent cAMP production is sufficient for mediating its anabolic effect, but activation of PKC is insufficient (11, 12). To gain further insight into the role of  $G\alpha_s$  in mediating signaling from G protein-coupled receptors, including PTHR1, in osteoblasts, the gene was conditionally deleted in early osteoblast lineage cells (13). Deletion of  $G\alpha_s$  in osteoblasts that express *Osterix* (*Osx-Cre*;  $G\alpha_s^{\text{fl/fl}}$  [“fl/fl” represents “flox/flox”] mice) leads to reduced bone mass and abnormal persistence of woven bone. Immature, woven bone often displays high numbers of osteocytes within the matrix (14, 15). Consequently, increased expression of the osteocytic differentiation markers *E11* and *Sost* was detected, together with reduced WNT signaling caused by

increased expression of the inhibitors of the WNT signal, *Sclerostin* (*Sost*) and *Dickkopf1* (13). Primary calvarial osteoblasts from *Osx-Cre*;  $G\alpha_s^{\text{fl/fl}}$  mice demonstrated accelerated mineralization when cultured under osteogenic conditions. Another phenotypic manifestation caused by the absence of  $G\alpha_s$  signaling in osteoblasts was reduced expression of the differentiation marker *Osteocalcin* (*Ocn*) (13).

One of the molecules affecting maximal *Ocn* expression is the transcriptional coregulator  $\alpha$ NAC (*nascent*-polypeptide-associated complex and coregulator alpha) (16, 17).  $\alpha$ NAC shuttles between the cytoplasm and the nucleus, and one of the signals that induce its nuclear accumulation is phosphorylation by integrin-linked kinase (ILK) (18) at residue Ser43 (19). Nuclear  $\alpha$ NAC potentiates *Osteocalcin* (*Ocn*) gene transcription by stabilizing the binding of a c-JUN dimer to its AP-1 binding site within the *Ocn* gene promoter (20, 21). It has further been shown that  $\alpha$ NAC can specifically bind DNA and that this DNA-binding capacity is required to potentiate AP-1-mediated *Ocn* gene expression in osteoblasts (16). To determine the physiological role of nuclear  $\alpha$ NAC, we engineered a knock-in mouse model with a serine-to-alanine mutation at position 43 (S43A). The S43A mutation resulted in a

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decrease in nuclear  $\alpha$ NAC with reduced *Ocn* promoter occupancy, leading to a significant decrease in *Ocn* gene transcription (17). The bones of the S43A mutant mice had a significantly reduced bone volume. There was a predominance of woven-type bone characterized by an increase in the number of osteocytes. Accordingly, the expression of the osteocyte differentiation markers *E11* and *Sost* was increased. Osteoblasts isolated from the calvaria of mutant  $\alpha$ NAC<sup>S43A/S43A</sup> mice mineralized their matrix faster than wild-type cells (17). Thus, inhibition of  $\alpha$ NAC nuclear translocation *in vivo* mimics most of the phenotype of mice in which  $G\alpha_s$  has been specifically deleted from osteoblasts (13). This suggests the existence of a signaling cascade linking  $G\alpha_s$  and  $\alpha$ NAC to control osteoblast function.

We report that treatment of osteoblasts with PTH or a PKA-selective cAMP analog leads to translocation of  $\alpha$ NAC to the nucleus and increased binding of the coregulator at its cognate site within the *Ocn* promoter. Purified PKA phosphorylates  $\alpha$ NAC *in vitro*, and we have identified the PKA phosphoacceptor site within  $\alpha$ NAC. Mutation of this residue affects subcellular localization of  $\alpha$ NAC and modulates  $\alpha$ NAC-mediated transcriptional activation of the *Ocn* gene promoter. Compound  $G\alpha_s$ ;  $\alpha$ NAC heterozygotes have a reduced bone mass phenotype, increased numbers of osteocytes, and enhanced expression of osteocytic differentiation markers, confirming that  $G\alpha_s$  and  $\alpha$ NAC form part of a common genetic pathway. Taken together, our results support the existence of a signaling cascade that initiates with PTH binding to its receptor, activation of  $G\alpha_s$  to stimulate cAMP accumulation, and PKA activity, thus sending  $\alpha$ NAC to the nucleus to affect target gene transcription and regulate bone mass.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Cell lines, antibodies, and reagents.** The MC3T3-E1 osteoblastic cell line (22) was cultured in minimum essential medium alpha ( $\alpha$ MEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (PAA Laboratories/GE Healthcare, Piscataway, NJ) and 1 mM L-glutamine (Life Technologies, Burlington, Ontario, Canada). UMR-106 osteosarcoma cells (23) were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) (Life Technologies) with the same supplements. PTH(1–34) (catalog no. H4835) and PTHrP(1–34) (catalog no. H6630) were purchased from Bachem (Torrance, CA), dibutyryl cAMP (D0627) and 8-(4-chlorophenylthio)-2'-O-methyladenosine cAMP (8-PCPT-cAMP; catalog no. C8988) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, and N<sup>6</sup>-benzoyladenosine cAMP (6Bnz-cAMP; catalog no. B009) was from Biolog (Bremen, Germany), while PD98059 was procured through Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA). Anti- $\alpha$ NAC antibodies have been described previously (17, 24). The affinity-purified rabbit polyclonal anti- $\alpha$ NAC-phospho-S99 antibody (pS99), raised against the peptide NH<sub>2</sub>-TGVTRVTIRK-phospho-S-KNILFVITKP-COOH, was produced by and purchased from PhosphoSolutions (Aurora, CO). The anti-c-Myc epitope antibody (9E10) was purchased from OriGene (Rockville, MD), while anti-FLAG and anti- $\alpha$ -tubulin antibodies were from Sigma-Aldrich. Secondary antibodies (Alexa Fluor 594–goat anti-chicken and Alexa Fluor 488–goat anti-mouse antibodies) were obtained from Life Technologies.

**Primary osteoblast isolation.** Primary osteoblasts were isolated as described by Bakker and Klein-Nulend (25). Briefly, calvariae of 5-day-old C57BL/6 mice were isolated after sacrifice. Soft tissue was removed and calvariae were washed in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Calvariae were incubated in 4 ml of digestion solution (0.0625% trypsin, 0.8 mg/ml collagenase type II [270 U/mg; Life Technologies], 0.025% EDTA in PBS) at 37°C for 20 min. Following digestion, the supernatant containing isolated osteoblasts was transferred, and calvariae were washed with 3 ml of  $\alpha$ MEM, which was then combined with the digestion solution together with 700  $\mu$ l of fetal bovine serum (FBS). Cells were spun, resuspended in

complete  $\alpha$ MEM, and plated in 6-well plates (fraction 1). The digestion step was repeated three more times to obtain fractions 2 to 4. Cells were kept 3 to 5 days before passaging for experiments. Only fractions 3 and 4, representing more mature osteoblast populations, were used in this study.

**Immunofluorescence.** Cells ( $2.0 \times 10^5$ ) were plated on gelatin-coated coverslips in 6-well plates and grown for 24 h prior to overnight starvation in serum-free medium. The cells were then treated with hormones, analogs, or inhibitors in serum-free medium for 4 to 6 h at 37°C. Following treatment, the cells were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 30 min at room temperature, followed by permeabilization with 1% Triton X-100 in Tris-buffered saline (TBS) for 10 min. Samples were then washed twice with 0.1% Tween 20 in TBS (TBS-Tween) and blocked using 3% skim milk and 1% horse serum in TBS-Tween for 60 min at room temperature. This was followed by 2 washes with TBS-Tween and immunodetection with chicken anti- $\alpha$ NAC (1:500) or anti-FLAG (1:500) antibodies in TBS, for 60 min at room temperature. Secondary antibodies (Alexa Fluor 594–goat anti-chicken antibodies at 1:500 or Alexa Fluor 488–goat anti-mouse antibodies at 1:200) were diluted in TBS and added for 30 min at room temperature, followed by 3 washes in TBS-Tween. Slides were mounted with Vectashield mounting medium containing DAPI (4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole) (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA). For subcellular localization studies, cells were scored as “nuclear” or “cytoplasmic” based on the localization of the  $\alpha$ NAC protein in 100 stably infected cells from different microscopic fields, and the results were expressed as percentage of nuclear  $\alpha$ NAC localization. Immunofluorescence images were obtained using a Leica DMR fluorescence microscope (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany) connected to a digital DP70 camera (Olympus, Center Valley, PA).

**Vector cloning, recombinant  $\alpha$ NAC production, and *in vitro* kinase assay.** The pSI- $\alpha$ NAC-FLAG vector for mammalian expression and pTYB<sub>2</sub>- $\alpha$ NAC vector for bacterial expression have been described previously (19). Expression vectors for the S99A and S99D  $\alpha$ NAC proteins were obtained by mutating the serine TCT codon to GCT or GAC codons, respectively, within pSI- $\alpha$ NAC-FLAG. Recombinant  $\alpha$ NAC (r $\alpha$ NAC) was expressed and purified as previously described (19) and quantified using Coomassie brilliant blue staining of SDS-PAGE gels with graded amounts of bovine serum albumin (BSA) as a standard. *In vitro* kinase assays were performed using recombinant PKA catalytic subunit (Millipore, Billerica, MA) diluted at 16 ng/ $\mu$ l in dilution buffer (20 mM MOPS [morpholinepropanesulfonic acid], pH 7.0, 1 mM EDTA, 0.01% Brij-35, 5% glycerol, 0.1% 2-mercaptoethanol, 1 mg/ml BSA). Reaction mixtures included 200 ng (2  $\mu$ l) of r $\alpha$ NAC or recombinant CREB protein as a positive control (Novus Biologicals, Oakville, Ontario, Canada), 40 ng (2.5  $\mu$ l) of diluted PKA, 10  $\mu$ l of ATP (250  $\mu$ M ATP, 25 mM Mg acetate, 5  $\mu$ Ci [ $\gamma$ -<sup>32</sup>P]ATP at 3,000 Ci/mmol; PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA), 5.5  $\mu$ l of water, and 5  $\mu$ l of 5 $\times$  reaction buffer (40 mM MOPS, pH 7.0, 1 mM EDTA) in a final volume of 25  $\mu$ l. Reactions were performed at 30°C for 20 min and stopped by adding 5  $\mu$ l of 6 $\times$  Laemmli buffer and heating at 85°C for 5 min. Total samples were resolved by SDS-PAGE on a 12.5% acrylamide gel. Gels were dried, and protein phosphorylation was revealed by autoradiography on X-ray films. Some kinase assays were performed without radioactive ATP and revealed by immunoblotting with anti-pS99 (1:50) and anti- $\alpha$ NAC (1:250) antibodies.

**Infection with lentiviral vectors.** The wild-type and mutant  $\alpha$ NAC cDNAs were subcloned from the pSI backbone into the pLVX-internal ribosome entry site (IRES)-Puro lentiviral expression vector (Clontech Laboratories, Mountain View, CA) using the EcoRI and NotI restriction sites in both vectors. The c-Myc epitope-tagged PKA-dominant-negative (PKAdn) (cAMP-unresponsive mutant of R1 $\alpha$  regulatory subunit) expression vector pcDNA3.1-PKAdn was provided by N. O. Dulin (University of Chicago, Chicago, IL) (26). An NheI-BamHI restriction fragment encompassing the PKAdn cDNA and the c-Myc tag was subcloned into pLVX-IRES-Puro between the SpeI and BamHI restriction sites of the pLVX vector. Lentivirus production and cell infection were performed as previously described (27).

**IP and IB.** MC3T3-E1, UMR-106, or primary osteoblast cells were plated at  $1 \times 10^6$  cells in 10-cm-diameter plates. Cells were grown for 24 h, starved overnight in serum-free medium, and treated with the indicated doses of PTH(1–34) or 100  $\mu$ M PKA-specific cAMP analog *N*<sup>6</sup>-benzoyladenine cAMP (6Bnz-cAMP). For immunoblotting (IB), whole-cell extracts were prepared by washing cells twice with cold PBS and scraping in 400  $\mu$ l of radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA) buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl, 1% [vol/vol] NP-40, 0.5% [wt/vol] deoxycholate, 0.1% [wt/vol] SDS, 5 mM EDTA, 2.5 mM sodium pyrophosphate, 1 mM  $\beta$ -glycerophosphate, 1 mM sodium orthovanadate, and 1  $\mu$ g/ml leupeptin, 1  $\mu$ g/ml aprotinin, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride protease inhibitors). For immunoprecipitation (IP), the cells were collected in IP buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5], 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 1% Triton X-100, 2.5 mM sodium pyrophosphate, 1 mM  $\beta$ -glycerophosphate, 1 mM sodium orthovanadate, with protease inhibitors). Extracts were centrifuged at  $13,000 \times g$  for 10 min at 4°C to pellet debris, and the protein concentration was determined using Bradford assay reagent (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA).

For straight immunoblotting, an equal volume of 2 $\times$  Laemmli loading buffer was added to 50  $\mu$ g of cell extract. For FLAG-IP, 1 to 2 mg of cell extract was incubated with 20  $\mu$ l of EZview Red anti-FLAG affinity gel (Sigma-Aldrich) for 16 h on a rotating wheel at 4°C in a final volume of 800  $\mu$ l. The immunocomplexes were washed 4 $\times$  with 800  $\mu$ l of cold IP buffer and resuspended in 40  $\mu$ l of 2 $\times$  Laemmli loading buffer. Cell extract proteins and immunoprecipitated proteins were denatured for 5 min at 100°C, resolved by SDS-PAGE on 12.5% acrylamide gels, transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes, and immunodetected with anti-pS99 (1:50), anti- $\alpha$ NAC (1:250), anti-Myc epitope (1:5,000), or anti- $\alpha$ -tubulin (1:10,000) antibodies followed by incubation with appropriate secondary antibody. Blots were developed using the ECL enhanced chemiluminescence Western blotting detection reagent according to the manufacturer's instructions (GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences, Baie d'Urfé, Quebec, Canada).

**ChIP.** Untransfected cells or cells expressing mutant S99A  $\alpha$ NAC or PKAdn were fixed for 10 min at room temperature by adding a concentrated formaldehyde solution directly to the culture media to a final concentration of 1%. The cross-linking reaction was stopped by adding 0.125 M glycine for 5 min at room temperature. Fixed cells were washed twice, scraped in cold PBS, and then centrifuged for 5 min at  $500 \times g$ . To isolate the nuclei, cells were successively resuspended and centrifuged in nucleus-chromatin preparation (NCP) buffer 1 (HEPES, 10 mM pH 6.5; EDTA, 10 mM; EGTA, 0.5 mM; Triton X-100, 0.25% [vol/vol]) and NCP buffer 2 (HEPES, 10 mM, pH 6.5; EDTA, 1 mM; EGTA, 0.5 mM; NaCl, 200 mM). The nuclear pellet was lysed by resuspension in 800  $\mu$ l of cold RIPA buffer. One hundred micrograms of total nuclear extract was set aside as an input control. The lysate was sonicated with 10 pulses of 10 s using an Ultrasonic dismembrator model 500 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). Lysates were cleaned of debris by centrifugation at  $13,000 \times g$  for 10 min, and the protein concentration was determined using Bradford protein assays. When chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) was performed against endogenous  $\alpha$ NAC, 1 to 2 mg of cross-linked proteins was pre-cleared with protein G-streptavidin-agarose beads (GE Healthcare Biosciences) and salmon sperm DNA prior to immunoprecipitation. Following pre-clearing, anti- $\alpha$ NAC antibody (1:50) was added, and samples were incubated for 16 h at 4°C on a rotating wheel. Protein-DNA complexes were recovered by incubation with 50  $\mu$ l of protein G-streptavidin-agarose beads for 1 h at 4°C on a rotating wheel. When ChIP was performed against FLAG-tagged  $\alpha$ NAC, the sonicated, cross-linked proteins were directly incubated with 20  $\mu$ l of EZview Red anti-FLAG affinity gel (Sigma-Aldrich) for 16 h at 4°C. Protein-DNA-bead complexes were successively washed four times with RIPA buffer, four times with lithium chloride buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 500 mM LiCl, 1% [vol/vol] NP-40, 1% [wt/vol] deoxycholate), and one time with 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0). Washed complexes were eluted from beads by heating in 150  $\mu$ l of 1% SDS, and cross-links were reversed by heating the samples for 4 to 5 h

at 65°C. DNA was purified by phenol-chloroform extraction and precipitated using ethanol and glycogen as a carrier. Chromatin from input and ChIP samples was resuspended in Tris-EDTA (TE) and analyzed by real-time PCR. Target *Ocn* promoter was amplified using SYBR green PCR master mix (Life Technologies) with species-specific primers.

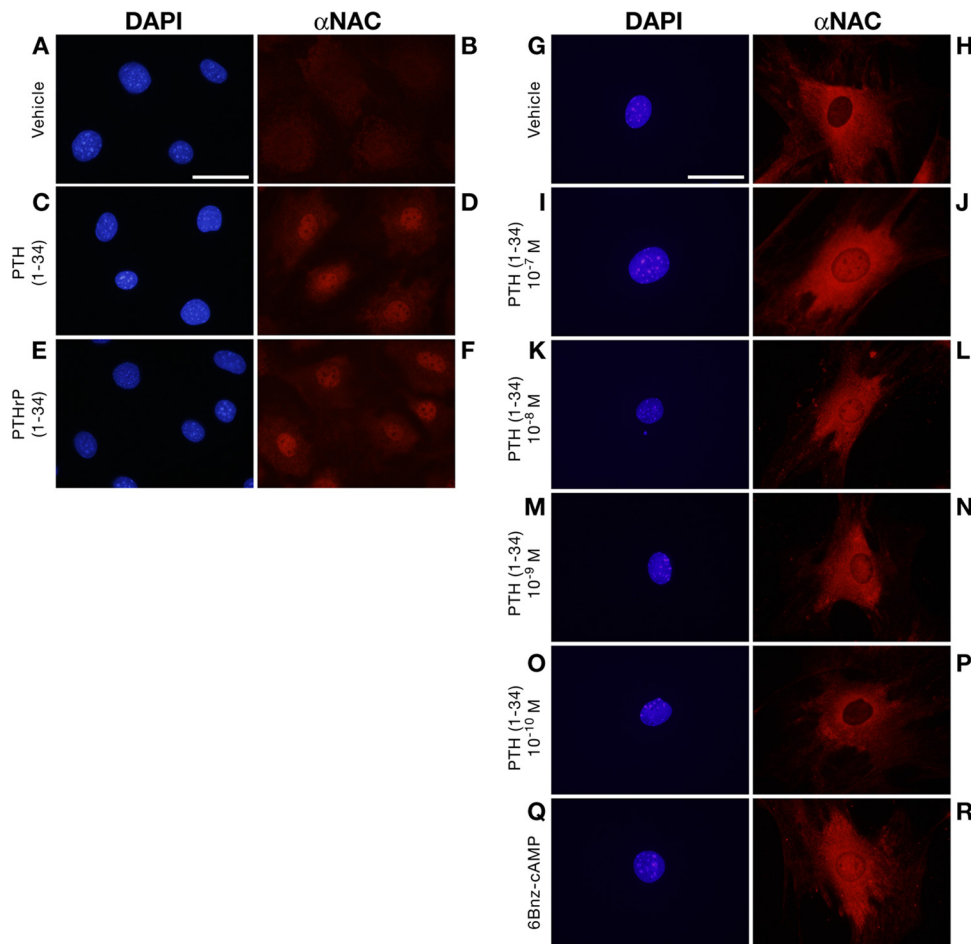
**Reporter gene transient-transfection assay.** UMR-106 cells were transfected with the p1316-luc *Ocn* proximal promoter reporter plasmid (28) and expression vectors for c-JUN in combination with wild-type  $\alpha$ NAC or S99A or S99D mutant  $\alpha$ NAC as previously described (19). Transfections were conducted in triplicate, and values are reported as mean fold induction  $\pm$  standard error of the mean (SEM), with luciferase levels measured in cells transfected with the empty expression vectors arbitrarily ascribed a value of 1.

**Generation of compound  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}$ ;  $\alpha$ NAC<sup>+/-</sup> heterozygous mice.** All animal procedures were reviewed and approved by the McGill Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and followed the guidelines of the Canadian Council on Animal Care. Mice were kept in an environmentally controlled barrier animal facility with a 12-h light/12-h dark cycle and were fed mouse chow and water *ad libitum*.  $G\alpha_s^{fl/fl}$  (29), *Osx1*-GFP::Cre (30), and conventionally targeted  $\alpha$ NAC mutant (31) mice have been described previously. To produce *Osx1*-GFP::Cre;  $G\alpha_s^{+/-}$ ;  $\alpha$ NAC<sup>+/-</sup> compound heterozygous mice (abbreviated  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}$ ;  $\alpha$ NAC<sup>+/-</sup>), mice heterozygous for the targeted  $\alpha$ NAC allele ( $\alpha$ NAC<sup>+/-</sup>) were first crossed with hemizygous *Osx1*-GFP::Cre mice to obtain *Osx*-Cre;  $\alpha$ NAC<sup>+/-</sup> mice. These mice were then crossed with  $G\alpha_s^{fl/fl}$  mice to obtain all study genotypes in equivalent proportions:  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}$ ;  $\alpha$ NAC<sup>+/+</sup>,  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}$ ;  $\alpha$ NAC<sup>+/+</sup>,  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}$ ;  $\alpha$ NAC<sup>+/-</sup>, and  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}$ ;  $\alpha$ NAC<sup>+/-</sup>.

**Tissue preparation,  $\mu$ CT, and histomorphometry.** Eight-week-old male mice were injected with 25  $\mu$ g of calcein 7 and 2 days prior to sacrifice. Femurs, tibiae, and L4 vertebrae were dissected and immediately fixed in 4% PFA for 24 h at 4°C. Bones were transferred to 70% ethanol and kept at 4°C until analysis. Micro-computed tomography ( $\mu$ CT) was performed using a SkyScan 1172 high-resolution  $\mu$ CT scanner connected to a Hamamatsu 10-megapixel camera. Images were captured at 65 kV, 153  $\mu$ A, using a detection pixel of 4.84  $\mu$ m and a 0.5-mm aluminum filter. Integration time was set at 590 ms, and 3 images were captured every 0.45° through 180° rotation. Reconstruction was performed using SkyScan Recon software and analyzed using SkyScan CT Analysis software. Femoral trabecular parameters were measured on 250 slides (1.21 mm) of trabecular bone starting above the distal growth plate. Vertebral trabecular parameters were measured on 350 slides (1.72 mm) of trabecular bone between the two growth plates. Cortical femur parameters were measured on 75 slides (0.72 mm) at midshaft. For histological staining and dynamic histomorphometry, fixed femurs and tibiae were embedded in 4.5% methyl methacrylate. Five-micrometer-thick cross-sectional sections at the femoral midshaft and tibial longitudinal sections were collected using a Rotary microtome model RM2255 (Leica Microsystems). Sections were colored by Goldner staining; images were taken with a Leica DMR fluorescence microscope connected to a QImaging camera, and analysis used the BioquantOsteo software (BioQuant, Nashville, TN).

**Blood biochemistry.** Blood from 8-week-old male mice was taken at sacrifice by cardiac puncture. Serum was isolated using a serum separator tube (BD Microtainer tubes; BD, Franklin Lakes, NJ) following the manufacturer's instructions and stored at  $-80^\circ\text{C}$ . The C-terminal telopeptide  $\alpha$ 1 chain of type I collagen (CTX) was detected using the RatLaps enzyme immunoassay (EIA) (Immunodiagnostic Systems, Scottsdale, AZ) following the manufacturer's instructions. Circulating carboxyglutamate (Gla)-osteocalcin and uncarboxylated glutamate (Glu)-osteocalcin were detected using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kits purchased from TaKaRa (catalog no. MK127 and MK129, respectively; Clontech Laboratories). Circulating fibroblast growth factor 23 (FGF23) levels were detected using an ELISA purchased from Kainos Laboratories (Tokyo, Japan). Quantification of calcium levels in serum was performed using Pointe Scientific calcium liquid reagents (catalog no. C7503-120; Thermo Fisher Scientific).





**FIG 1** PTH and PTHrP induce nuclear translocation of  $\alpha$ NAC. Shown are DAPI nuclear staining and immunofluorescence detection of endogenous  $\alpha$ NAC in MC3T3-E1 cells (A to F) or primary cultures of osteoblasts (G to R). Cells were treated for 4 h with vehicle (A, B, G, and H),  $10^{-7}$  M PTH(1–34) (C, D, I, and J), or increasing doses of PTH(1–34) ranging from  $10^{-10}$  M to  $10^{-8}$  M (K to P). MC3T3-E1 cultures were also treated with  $10^{-7}$  M PTHrP(1–34) (E and F), while primary osteoblasts were exposed to the PKA-specific analog  $N^6$ -benzoyladenine cAMP (6Bnz-cAMP) (Q and R). Images were obtained at 1,000 $\times$ . Scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m.

**RT-qPCR.** For reverse transcription-quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR), calvariae from 8-week-old male mice were collected in RNAlater (Life Technologies) and stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  until further processed. Calvariae were homogenized in 1 ml of TRIzol (Life technologies) using a Polytron PT-MR 300 (Kinematica AG, Littau, Switzerland), and RNA was extracted following the manufacturer's instructions. Using the high-capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit (Life Technologies), 1  $\mu$ g of RNA was reverse transcribed into cDNA following the manufacturer's instructions. Gene expression monitoring was performed on 5% of the cDNA reaction mixture using TaqMan Universal PCR master mix (Life Technologies) with *Sost*, *RankL*, or *Opg* TaqMan assays. The  $\beta$ 2-microglobulin gene (*B2m*) was used as the endogenous reference gene, and reactions were carried out in a 7500 real-time PCR system (Life Technologies Applied Biosystems). Data were analyzed using the SDS software from Applied Biosystems (Life technologies). Three or more samples per genotype were assayed in triplicate.

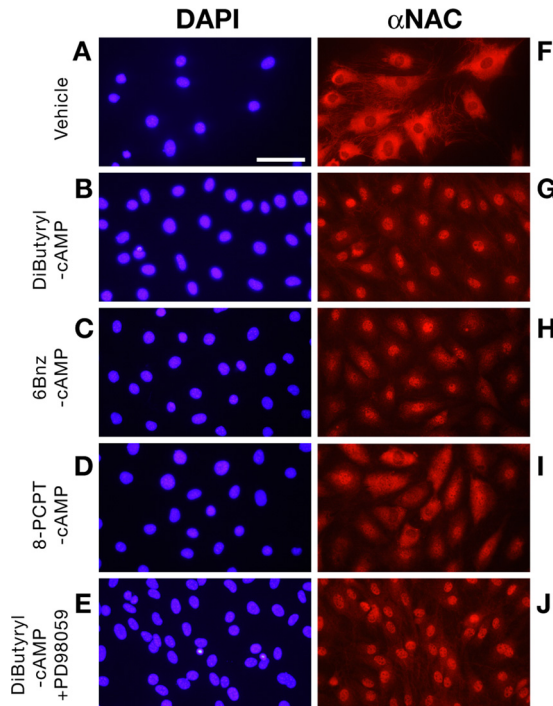
**Statistical analysis.** Statistical analysis was performed with analysis of variance with *post hoc* tests. A probability value (*P* value) lower than 0.05 was accepted as significant.

## RESULTS

**PTH-induced  $\alpha$ NAC nuclear translocation is mediated by cAMP activation of PKA.** Mice with a knock-in mutation pre-

venting  $\alpha$ NAC from translocating to the nucleus (17) show striking phenotype similarity to mice with osteoblast-specific inactivation of  $G\alpha_s$  (13). This suggests that  $G\alpha_s$  activation can lead to nuclear accumulation of  $\alpha$ NAC. We looked at the effect of PTH, which activates  $G\alpha_s$ , on the subcellular localization of  $\alpha$ NAC. The  $\alpha$ NAC protein is detected in the cytosol of osteoblasts under steady-state conditions (Fig. 1A, B, G, and H and 2A and F). Upon treatment of MC3T3-E1 osteoblastic cells with  $10^{-7}$  M PTH(1–34), the protein relocated to the nucleus (Fig. 1C and D). A similar nuclear translocation was observed when the cells were treated with PTHrP(1–34) (Fig. 1E and F), which also binds PTHR1 (32). PTH also dose dependently induced nuclear accumulation of  $\alpha$ NAC in cultured primary osteoblasts. Nuclear translocation was readily observed in primary osteoblasts following treatment with  $10^{-9}$  M PTH(1–34), and the effect was maintained over 2 orders of magnitude for doses (Fig. 1G to P).

To examine the signal transduction pathway involved, we used cell-permeable cAMP analogs and pathway inhibitors. The subcellular localization of  $\alpha$ NAC was again assessed by immunofluorescence, and nuclei were identified by DAPI staining (Fig. 2A to E). We first stimulated MC3T3-E1 cells with dibutyryl-cAMP, a



**FIG 2**  $\alpha$ NAC nuclear translocation involves cAMP-PKA signaling. Shown are DAPI nuclear staining (A to E) and immunofluorescence detection of endogenous  $\alpha$ NAC (F to J) in MC3T3-E1 cells treated for 4 h with vehicle (A and F), dibutyl-yl-cAMP (B and G), the PKA-specific analog *N*<sup>6</sup>-benzoyladenosine cAMP (6Bnz-cAMP) (C and H), the Epac-specific analog 8-(4-chlorophenylthio)-2'-*O*-methyladenosine cAMP (8-PCPT-cAMP) (D and I), or dibutyl-yl-cAMP with PD98059 (E and J). Magnification,  $\times 400$ ; scale bar, 100  $\mu$ m.

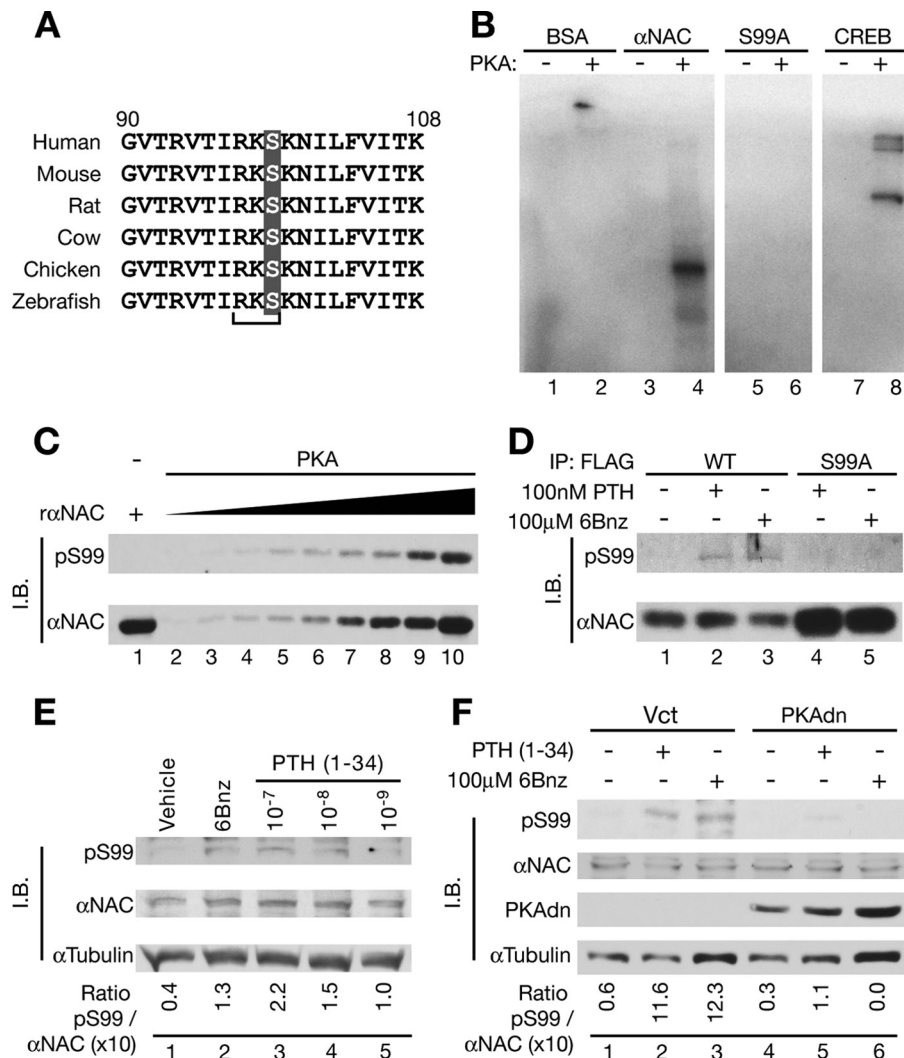
non-pathway-specific analog. Treatment with dibutyl-yl-cAMP led to nuclear accumulation of  $\alpha$ NAC (compare Fig. 2F and G), confirming that accumulation of cAMP triggers  $\alpha$ NAC nuclear translocation. Stimulation with pathway-specific cAMP analogs further defined the mechanisms in play.  $\alpha$ NAC relocated to the nucleus of cells treated with the PKA-specific analog *N*<sup>6</sup>-benzoyladenosine cAMP (6Bnz-cAMP) (Fig. 1Q and R and 2C and H), while it remained cytosolic in cells exposed to the Epac pathway-specific analog 8-(4-chlorophenylthio)-2'-*O*-methyladenosine cAMP (8-PCPT-cAMP) (Fig. 2D and I). To further rule out the involvement of the Epac pathway, which involves several downstream effectors, including MEK1 (33), we treated cells with dibutyl-yl-cAMP (pathway nonspecific) and PD98059, a specific MEK1 inhibitor. The inhibitor did not prevent  $\alpha$ NAC nuclear translocation (Fig. 2J). Taken together, these results suggest that PKA is the predominant effector kinase acting downstream from cAMP production to affect  $\alpha$ NAC subcellular localization.

**PKA phosphorylates  $\alpha$ NAC at S99.** *In silico* analysis of the  $\alpha$ NAC protein sequence reveals a potential PKA phosphoacceptor site conserved across species, residue serine 99 (S99) (Fig. 3A). To ascertain that  $\alpha$ NAC is a PKA substrate, we performed *in vitro* kinase assays with recombinant PKA and purified proteins (Fig. 3B). Bovine serum albumin (BSA) and cAMP response element binding protein (CREB) were used in the assay as negative and positive controls, respectively (lanes 1 and 2 and 7 and 8). Wild-type  $\alpha$ NAC was phosphorylated by PKA (Fig. 3B, compare lanes 3 and 4). Replacement of serine 99 by an alanine residue (S99A) prevented PKA-mediated  $\alpha$ NAC phosphorylation (lane 6).

We custom ordered an affinity-purified polyclonal antibody that recognizes the  $\alpha$ NAC protein phosphorylated at amino acid S99 (anti-pS99) and validated its specificity using the *in vitro* kinase assay. Immunoblotting revealed that the anti-pS99 antibody exhibits high sensitivity and specificity. It dose dependently detected recombinant  $\alpha$ NAC protein incubated with PKA (Fig. 3C, lanes 2 to 10), while it could not detect the highest concentration of  $\alpha$ NAC not exposed to the kinase (lane 1). The previously described anti- $\alpha$ NAC antibody (24) recognized both unphosphorylated and phosphorylated forms of the protein indiscriminately (Fig. 3C, lower panel).

We used the anti-pS99 antibody to confirm that  $\alpha$ NAC is phosphorylated in response to PTH treatment of osteoblastic cells. First, epitope-tagged wild-type or S99A-mutated  $\alpha$ NAC proteins were expressed by retroviral infection in UMR-106 cells that were then stimulated with PTH(1–34) or the PKA-selective cAMP analog, 6Bnz-cAMP. Immunoprecipitation using anti-epitope tag antibodies followed by immunodetection with the  $\alpha$ NAC antibody confirmed expression of the transfected proteins (Fig. 3D, bottom panel). Probing of the immunoprecipitates with the anti-pS99 antibody detected phosphorylated wild-type  $\alpha$ NAC specifically in treated cells (Fig. 3D, top panel, compare lane 1 with lanes 2 and 3), but no signal was present in treated cells transfected with the S99A  $\alpha$ NAC mutant (lanes 4 and 5). The anti-pS99 antibody also detected phosphorylated, endogenous wild-type  $\alpha$ NAC in cultured primary osteoblasts treated with 100  $\mu$ M 6Bnz-cAMP or PTH(1–34) from  $10^{-9}$  to  $10^{-7}$  M (Fig. 3E). To confirm that PKA is the kinase that phosphorylates  $\alpha$ NAC downstream of PTH stimulation and cAMP accumulation in osteoblasts, we blocked endogenous PKA signaling by expressing a dominant-negative form of PKA (PKAdn) (26) in stably infected UMR-106 cells. Immunoblotting of whole-cell extracts was used to detect endogenous  $\alpha$ NAC or transfected PKAdn, and even loading was monitored by probing for  $\alpha$ -tubulin (Fig. 3F, bottom panel). The epitope-tagged PKAdn protein was detected in transfected cells but not in cells selected following transfection with an empty expression vector (Fig. 3F, third panel). All cell populations expressed endogenous  $\alpha$ NAC (Fig. 3F, second panel). In vector-infected cells, stimulation with PTH(1–34) or 6Bnz-cAMP induced phosphorylation of  $\alpha$ NAC at residue S99, as detected by probing with the anti-pS99 antibody (Fig. 3F, top panel, lanes 2 and 3). As shown on the immunoblot (Fig. 3F, top panel, lanes 4 to 6) and reflected by the quantification of the pS99/ $\alpha$ NAC signal intensity ratio (Fig. 3F), the effects of PTH(1–34) and of the PKA-specific cAMP analog were dramatically decreased in cells expressing PKAdn. Taken together, these results show that  $\alpha$ NAC is a substrate of PKA following PTH signaling.

**Differential phosphorylation of  $\alpha$ NAC at S99 regulates its subcellular localization.** We compared the subcellular localization of wild-type and S99-mutated  $\alpha$ NAC proteins following hormone or analog treatment to further understand the mechanisms implicated in PTH-induced  $\alpha$ NAC nuclear translocation. Immunofluorescence detection of FLAG epitope-tagged  $\alpha$ NAC proteins expressed in UMR-106 osteoblasts exposed to vehicle or treatment (Fig. 4A to I) was used to calculate the percentage of cells with nuclear  $\alpha$ NAC localization (Fig. 4J). Wild-type  $\alpha$ NAC was predominantly cytosolic (Fig. 4A), but treatment with PTH(1–34) (Fig. 4D) or 6Bnz-cAMP (Fig. 4G) induced significant nuclear translocation (Fig. 4J). Mutation of serine 99 to a nonphosphorylatable alanine residue (S99A) blocked PTH(1–34)- and 6Bnz-



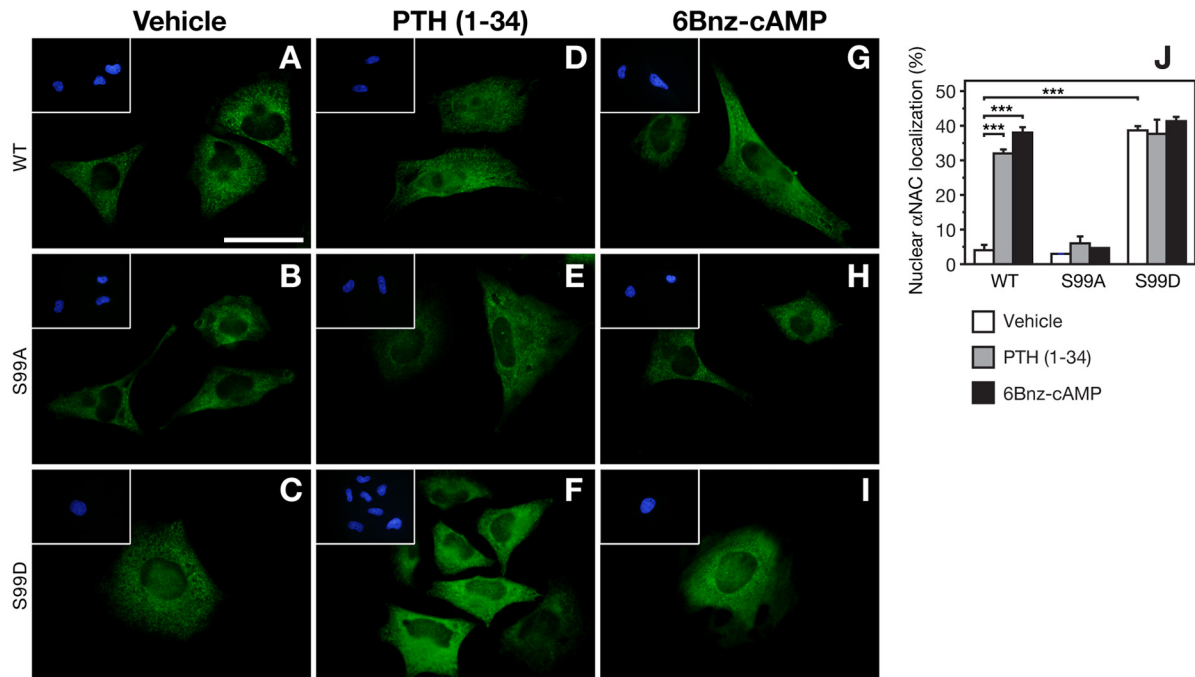
**FIG 3** PKA phosphorylates  $\alpha$ NAC on serine 99. (A) Cross-species alignment of the partial  $\alpha$ NAC protein sequence between residues 90 to 108. The PKA recognition site is bracketed, and the phosphoacceptor residue serine 99 is highlighted. (B) Autoradiography of *in vitro* PKA phosphorylation assay performed using BSA (negative control) (lanes 1 and 2), wild-type  $\alpha$ NAC (lanes 3 and 4), mutant S99  $\alpha$ NAC (S99A) (lanes 5 and 6), and recombinant CREB (positive control) (lanes 7 and 8) in the presence (+) or absence (-) of recombinant PKA. (C) Immunoblotting (I.B.) of *in vitro* PKA phosphorylation assay. Increasing amounts (lanes 2 to 10, 30, 44, 66, 100, 150, 222, 333, 500, and 1,000 ng, respectively; lane 1, 1,000 ng) of recombinant  $\alpha$ NAC were incubated with (lanes 2 to 10) or without (lane 1) recombinant PKA. Transferred samples were probed with the phospho-specific anti-pS99 antibody (pS99) or anti- $\alpha$ NAC antibody. (D) UMR-106 cells were stably infected with FLAG epitope-tagged wild-type (WT) or mutant (S99A)  $\alpha$ NAC and treated with PTH- or the PKA-specific cAMP analog *N*<sup>6</sup>-benzoyladenine cAMP (6Bnz-cAMP). Cell extracts were immunoprecipitated (I.P.) using anti-FLAG antibodies, and the immunoprecipitates were probed with the anti-pS99 antibody (pS99) or the anti- $\alpha$ NAC antibody. (E) Cultures of primary osteoblasts were treated with 100  $\mu$ M 6Bnz-cAMP or the indicated doses (molar concentrations) of PTH(1-34). Total cell extracts were immunoblotted (I.B.) with either anti-pS99 antibody (pS99), anti- $\alpha$ NAC antibody, or anti- $\alpha$ -tubulin for a loading control. Quantification of the pS99/ $\alpha$ NAC band signal intensity ratio is indicated below each track, above the track number. (F) UMR-106 cells were stably infected with an empty vector (Vct) or a myc-tagged-PKAdn expression vector and treated with vehicle (-), PTH(1-34) (100 nM), or 6Bnz-cAMP. Whole-cell extracts were separated by SDS-PAGE, transferred, and immunoblotted (I.B.) with anti-pS99, anti- $\alpha$ NAC, anti-myc epitope (PKAdn panel), or anti- $\alpha$ -tubulin for a loading control. Quantification of the pS99/ $\alpha$ NAC band signal intensity ratio is indicated below each track, above the track number.

cAMP-induced  $\alpha$ NAC nuclear translocation (Fig. 4B, E, H, and J). When serine 99 was replaced by a phosphomimetic aspartic acid residue (S99D), we observed statistically significant nuclear accumulation of  $\alpha$ NAC, which was unaffected by treatment with the hormone or the cAMP analog (Fig. 4C, F, I, and J). These data strongly suggest that PTH treatment leads to differential phosphorylation of  $\alpha$ NAC at S99 to regulate its subcellular localization.

**PTH induces  $\alpha$ NAC accumulation at the *Ocn* promoter through a PKA-dependent pathway.** Nuclear  $\alpha$ NAC binds to and

regulates transcription from the *Ocn* promoter (16, 34). Since PTH induces  $\alpha$ NAC nuclear translocation, we examined the effect of PTH or cAMP analog treatment on recruitment of wild-type or S99A  $\alpha$ NAC proteins at the *Ocn* gene. Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) against endogenous  $\alpha$ NAC following PTH(1-34) stimulation of MC3T3-E1 cells showed a significant 5-fold enrichment of the coregulator at its cognate binding site within the *Ocn* promoter compared to vehicle-treated cells (Fig. 5A). When the PKA-selective cAMP analog 6Bnz-cAMP was used to





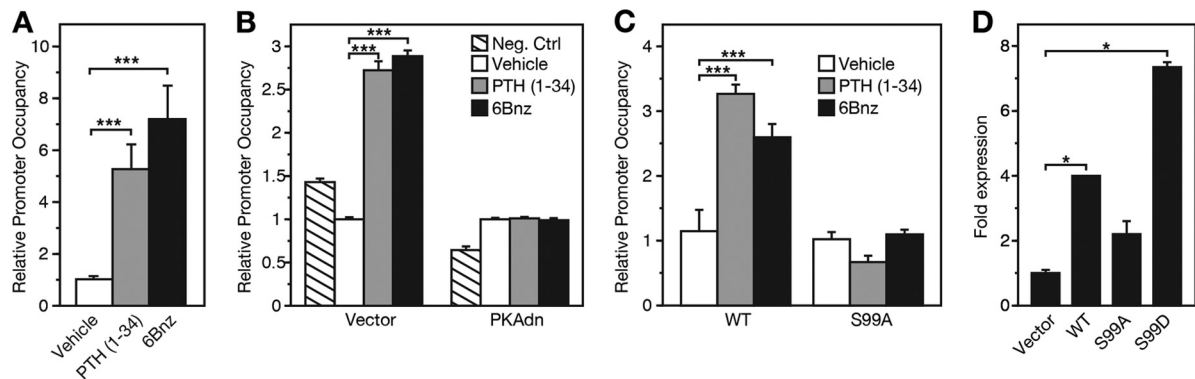
**FIG 4** Serine 99 phosphorylation acts as a signal sending  $\alpha$ NAC to the nucleus. UMR-106 cells were stably infected with FLAG epitope-tagged lentiviral expression vectors for the wild-type (WT) or S99A or S99D mutant  $\alpha$ NAC and treated with vehicle (A to C),  $10^{-7}$  M PTH(1–34) (D to F), or 100  $\mu$ M 6Bnz-cAMP (G to I) for 4 h. (A to I) Representative results from immunodetection against the FLAG epitope are shown; DAPI staining is shown in the inset. Magnification,  $\times 1,000$ ; scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m. (J) The graph depicts percentages established by counting the cells showing a positive nuclear signal after immunofluorescence against the FLAG epitope in 100 expressing cells from different microscopic fields. Data are presented as means  $\pm$  SEM. \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ .

stimulate the osteoblasts we measured a significant 6.5-fold enrichment, supporting a PKA-dependent signal transduction pathway (Fig. 5A).

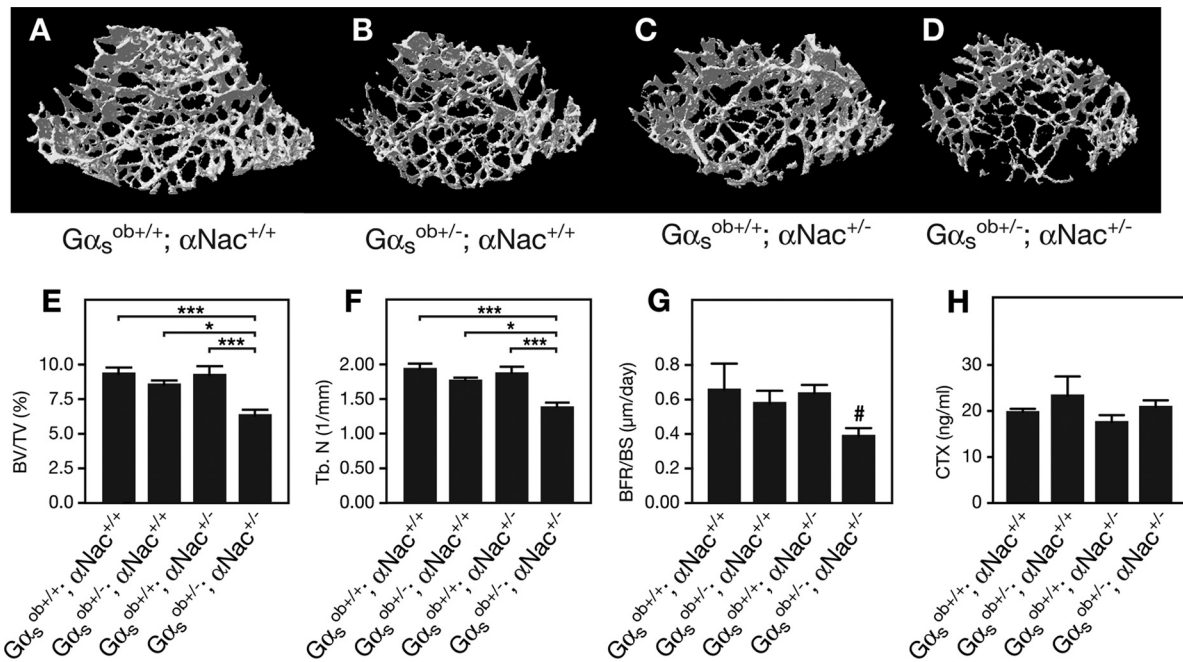
This conclusion is strengthened by results obtained in cells that stably express PKAdn. In control cells infected with the empty expression vector, PTH(1–34) or 6Bnz-cAMP treatment again caused significant enrichment of endogenous  $\alpha$ NAC at the *Ocn* promoter (Fig. 5B, “Vector” bars). The PTH- or 6Bnz-cAMP-

induced enrichment of  $\alpha$ NAC at its target site was completely inhibited in cells expressing PKAdn (Fig. 5B, “PKAdn” bars), confirming that the PTH effect is PKA mediated.

To validate the implication of differential S99 phosphorylation in this mechanism, we next performed ChIP against the epitope tag in UMR-106 cells overexpressing FLAG-tagged wild-type or S99A  $\alpha$ NAC. As previously observed with endogenous  $\alpha$ NAC, PTH(1–34) or 6Bnz-cAMP treatment led to significant enrich-



**FIG 5** PTH-mediated  $\alpha$ NAC accumulation at the *Ocn* promoter through a PKA-dependent pathway. (A to C) Quantitative chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assays in cells treated with vehicle, 100 nM PTH(1–34), or 100  $\mu$ M 6Bnz-cAMP for 30 min. (A) MC3T3-E1 cells; (B) UMR-106 cells stably infected with an empty vector or a dominant-negative form of PKA (PKAdn); (C) UMR-106 cells stably expressing FLAG-tagged wild-type (WT) or S99A mutant  $\alpha$ NAC. Quantitative ChIP assays were performed with anti- $\alpha$ NAC or anti-FLAG epitope antibody. ChIP products were amplified by SYBR green PCR using specific primers flanking the  $\alpha$ NAC binding site in the *Ocn* promoter. Relative promoter occupancy was calculated as enrichment over vehicle-treated cells, which was ascribed an arbitrary value of 1. Results are means  $\pm$  SEM of triplicate determinations. Neg. Ctrl, negative-control ChIP performed with naive IgG on cells treated for 30 min with 6Bnz-cAMP. (D) Reporter gene transient-transfection assay. UMR-106 cells were transfected with an *Ocn*-luc reporter plasmid and expression vectors for c-JUN in combination with wild-type  $\alpha$ NAC or S99A or S99D mutant  $\alpha$ NAC. Results are mean fold induction  $\pm$  SEM, with luciferase levels measured in cells transfected with the empty expression vectors arbitrarily ascribed a value of 1. \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ .



**FIG 6** Osteopenia in compound  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$  heterozygous mice. (A to D) Three-dimensional reconstruction of 25- $\mu$ m trabecular bone obtained by  $\mu$ CT from distal femur of control  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}; \alpha Nac^{+/+}$ ;  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/+}$ ;  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$ ; and compound  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$  mice. The scans were used to measure bone volume over tissue volume (BV/TV) (E) and trabecular number (Tb. N) (F) by analysis of 250  $\mu$ m of trabecular bone under the primary spongiosa of the distal femur. (G) Mice were injected with calcein, and dynamic histomorphometry analysis was performed on femoral sections. Quantification confirmed significantly lower bone formation rates (BFR) when results from all control genotypes were grouped to increase statistical power. BS, bone surface (region segmented as bone). (H) Serum levels of C-terminal telopeptide (CTX). Graphed data are presented as means  $\pm$  SEM from at least four mice per group. \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ ; #,  $P < 0.05$  versus grouped genotype controls.

ment of epitope-tagged wild-type  $\alpha$ NAC at the *Ocn* promoter (Fig. 5C). In contrast, mutation S99A completely abrogated the hormone- and analog-induced recruitment of  $\alpha$ NAC at the target promoter (Fig. 5C).

Finally, we examined the effect of mutations at residue S99 on the transcriptional coactivation function of  $\alpha$ NAC. UMR-106 cells were transfected with a reporter plasmid in which the luciferase gene is under the control of the *Ocn* proximal promoter (28) and expression vectors for c-JUN, alone or in combination with wild-type  $\alpha$ NAC or S99A or S99D mutant  $\alpha$ NAC. As previously reported (16), wild-type  $\alpha$ NAC significantly potentiated c-JUN-mediated transcription from the *Ocn* promoter (Fig. 5D). This effect was abolished when residue S99 was mutated to an alanine but was enhanced by the phosphomimetic S99D mutation (Fig. 5D). We interpret the results shown in Fig. 5 to mean that PKA-mediated phosphorylation of  $\alpha$ NAC at residue S99 leads to  $\alpha$ NAC accumulation at the *Ocn* target promoter to enhance transcription.

**Osteopenia and increased osteocyte numbers in  $G\alpha_s$ ;  $\alpha$ NAC compound heterozygotes.** We altered gene dosage for  $G\alpha_s$  and  $\alpha$ NAC to find evidence that they form part of a common genetic pathway. To produce *Osx1-GFP::Cre; Gαs<sup>+/fl</sup>; αNAC<sup>+/-</sup>* (abbreviated “ $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$ ”) compound heterozygous mice in which one allele of  $G\alpha_s$  is specifically inactivated in *Osx*-expressing osteoblasts and one allele of  $\alpha$ NAC is inactivated in all tissues, *Osx-Cre; αNac<sup>+/-</sup>* mice were crossed with  $G\alpha_s^{fl/fl}$  mice. This allowed us to obtain all study genotypes in equivalent proportion:  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}; \alpha Nac^{+/+}$ ,  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/+}$ ,  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$ , and  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$ . There were no gross phenotypic manifestations for any of the genotypes studied (data not shown).

Mice heterozygous for either  $G\alpha_s$  ( $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/+}$ ) or  $\alpha$ NAC ( $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$ ) alone exhibited no differences in femoral bone volume or trabecular number compared to wild-type ( $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}; \alpha Nac^{+/+}$ ) littermates (Fig. 6A, B, C, E, and F). The combined loss of one  $G\alpha_s$  allele and one  $\alpha$ NAC allele in bone cells caused a significant decrease in bone volume accompanied by a reduction in trabecular number in compound  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$  mice compared to all control genotypes (Fig. 6D to F). The compound gene dosage effect was restricted to trabecular parameters of the appendicular skeleton as we did not measure significant changes in cortical bone or in vertebrae (Table 1). Osteoblast activity was compared between genotypes using dynamic histomorphometry. Bone formation rates were unchanged and homogeneous between all control genotypes ( $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}; \alpha Nac^{+/+}$ ,  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/+}$ , and  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$ ) (Fig. 6G). When results from these animals were grouped to increase statistical power, we calculated a significant reduction in bone formation rates in compound  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$  mice (Fig. 6G). These results suggest that differences in osteoblast activity explain the reduced bone volume between compound heterozygotes and wild-type mice. This is further supported by the absence of impact of gene dosage alterations on serum parameters of bone resorption (type I collagen degradation products [CTX]) (Fig. 6H). Moreover, compound heterozygosity did not affect the *Rankl/Opg* mRNA ratio ( $1.08 \pm 0.05$ ,  $1.06 \pm 0.03$ ,  $1.00 \pm 0.02$ , and  $0.97 \pm 0.02$  for  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}; \alpha Nac^{+/+}$ ,  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/+}$ ,  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$ , and  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$  mice, respectively;  $P = 0.108$ ).

Blood analysis revealed no difference in the levels of steady-state calcium or FGF23 (Table 2). Relative levels of circulating carboxyglutamate (Gla)-osteocalcin and uncarboxylated gluta-



TABLE 1 Cortical and vertebral bone parameters<sup>a</sup>

Mouse phenotype	Cortical bone					Vertebrae	
	Cortical bone area/total area (%)	Avg cortical thickness (mm)	Periosteal perimeter (mm)	Endocortical perimeter (mm)	Total area (mm <sup>2</sup> )	BV/TV ratio (%)	Trabecular no. (1/mm)
Gα <sub>s</sub> <sup>ob+/+</sup> ; αNAC <sup>+/+</sup>	38.54 ± 0.93	0.156 ± 0.006	5.37 ± 0.15	4.22 ± 0.13	1.95 ± 0.11	16.11 ± 0.55	4.10 ± 0.12
Gα <sub>s</sub> <sup>ob+/-</sup> ; αNAC <sup>+/+</sup>	34.27 ± 0.82	0.132 ± 0.006	5.07 ± 0.17	4.12 ± 0.17	1.77 ± 0.13	13.85 ± 1.21	3.69 ± 0.17
Gα <sub>s</sub> <sup>ob+/+</sup> ; αNAC <sup>+/-</sup>	38.62 ± 1.08	0.155 ± 0.006	5.27 ± 0.11	4.14 ± 0.08	1.89 ± 0.08	15.50 ± 0.75	3.83 ± 0.08
Gα <sub>s</sub> <sup>ob+/-</sup> ; αNAC <sup>+/-</sup>	35.03 ± 0.61	0.127 ± 0.003	4.76 ± 0.11	3.81 ± 0.10	1.56 ± 0.07	14.93 ± 0.46	3.73 ± 0.10

<sup>a</sup> The parameters shown are based on the definition and description guidelines from reference 57. Cortical bone area = cortical vol/(no. of slices × slice thickness). Total area represents the total cross-sectional area inside the periosteal envelope. The BV/TV ratio (i.e., bone volume fraction) represents the ratio of the segmented bone volume to the total volume of the region of interest. The trabecular number represents the average number of trabeculae per unit length.

mate (Glu)-osteocalcin were also unchanged in compound heterozygotes compared to wild-type littermates (Table 2). Taken together, the blood biochemistry results show that changes in Gα<sub>s</sub> and αNAC gene dosage do not cause endocrine dysfunction.

One shared phenotypic manifestation between αNAC<sup>S43A/S43A</sup> and *Osx-CRE*; Gα<sub>s</sub><sup>fl/fl</sup> mutant mice is an increased number of osteocytes measured in cortical bone (13, 17). We thus counted the osteocytes present in cortical bone at the femoral midshaft following alteration in gene dosage for Gα<sub>s</sub> and αNAC (Fig. 7A to D). We measured a significant increase in the number of osteocytes per mm<sup>2</sup> in compound Gα<sub>s</sub><sup>ob+/-</sup>; αNac<sup>+/-</sup> heterozygous mice compared to all control genotypes (Fig. 7E). This was accompanied by significantly augmented expression of the osteocyte marker gene *Sost* (Fig. 7F). These results confirm the genetic link between Gα<sub>s</sub> and αNAC.

## DISCUSSION

We have previously shown using knock-in gene targeting that mutation of the integrin-linked kinase phosphoacceptor site within αNAC (residue serine 43) affects its nuclear translocation and impacts bone development (17). The S43A mutation only partially decreased αNAC nuclear accumulation (17), suggesting that other pathways and mechanisms could direct the transcriptional coregulator to the nucleus. Based on the phenotypic similarities between the αNAC<sup>S43A/S43A</sup> knock-in mice and mice with osteoblast-specific inactivation of Gα<sub>s</sub> (13, 17), we hypothesized that αNAC could act as an effector downstream of Gα<sub>s</sub> activation. Here we present results that support a PTH-Gα<sub>s</sub>-PKA-αNAC signal transduction pathway leading to phosphorylation-mediated nuclear translocation of αNAC to regulate target gene expression. The physiological relevance of this pathway is supported by the phenotypic manifestation observed in compound Gα<sub>s</sub><sup>ob+/-</sup>; αNAC<sup>+/-</sup> heterozygotes, which suggests that nuclear αNAC could be involved in mediating the anabolic action of PTH on bone.

PKA is known to phosphorylate proteins containing a dibasic motif, R-R/K-X-S/T (35–37). More rarely, the kinase was shown to phosphorylate nonclassical monobasic motifs, such as R-X-X-S/T and R-X-S/T, which are weaker phosphoacceptor sites (37). The αNAC protein sequence does not harbor a classical dibasic motif, but several observations confirm that the atypical -R-K-S- site within the αNAC sequence is functional. Mutation of residue serine 99 blocked PKA-mediated αNAC phosphorylation, PTH-induced αNAC nuclear translocation, and recruitment to the *Ocn* promoter. Expression of a dominant-negative PKA moiety prevented phosphorylation at S99 and *Ocn* promoter occupancy following PTH- or PKA-specific cAMP analog treatment. It appears that phosphorylation at S99 results in rapid shuttling of αNAC to the nucleus since we detected increased recruitment of αNAC at the *Ocn* promoter within 30 min following PTH stimulation of osteoblasts. Our results suggest that S99 phosphorylation not only serves as a signal to send αNAC to the nucleus but also acts as a switch to activate it, at least at the *Ocn* target promoter. Expression of a phosphomimetic mutant of αNAC (S99D) mimicked the effect of PTH on both αNAC nuclear localization and regulation of *Ocn* gene expression.

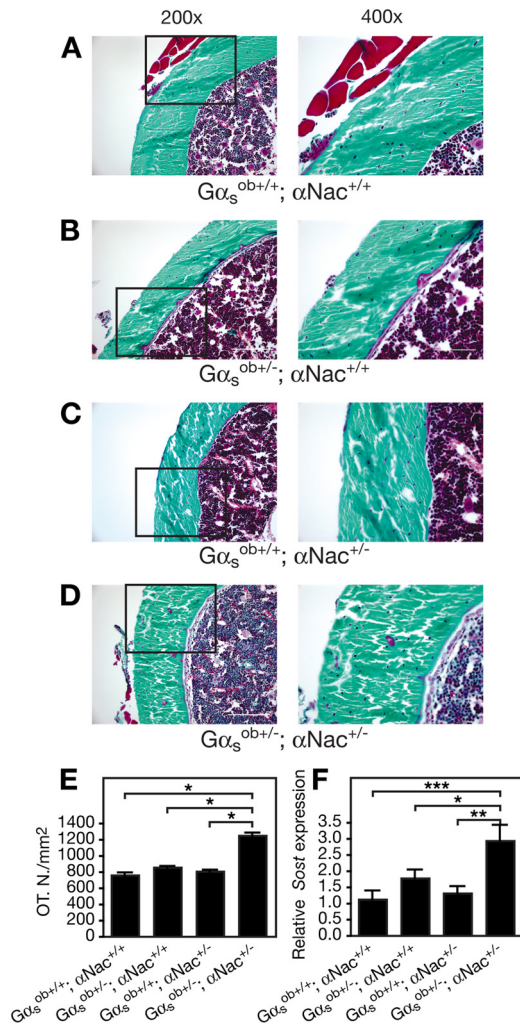
As previously mentioned, parallel mechanisms, such as phosphorylation by integrin-linked kinase, exist to regulate the subcellular localization of αNAC (17, 19). While both signals may work cooperatively to maximize αNAC nuclear entry, it is also possible that cells have developed separate pathways for αNAC nuclear translocation in response to hormonal stimulus or integrin-mediated adhesion cues. Further experiments will be required to elucidate this point.

The molecular and cellular mechanisms responsible for the bone-forming effect of intermittent PTH treatment are not fully understood. Among the characterized responses to PTH, the cAMP response element binding protein, CREB, was shown to be phosphorylated (38). CREB then stimulates the transcription of members of genes coding for the AP-1 family of basic domain-

TABLE 2 Blood biochemistry results

Mouse phenotype	Concn in blood of <sup>a</sup> :			
	Gla-OCN (ng/ml)	Glu-OCN (ng/ml)	FGF23 (pg/ml)	Calcium (mmol/liter)
Gα <sub>s</sub> <sup>ob+/+</sup> ; αNAC <sup>+/+</sup>	235.1 ± 27.1	4.33 ± 0.27	89.39 ± 15.08	2.27 ± 0.04
Gα <sub>s</sub> <sup>ob+/-</sup> ; αNAC <sup>+/+</sup>	149.9 ± 21.5	4.37 ± 0.50	111.10 ± 12.50	2.40 ± 0.14
Gα <sub>s</sub> <sup>ob+/+</sup> ; αNAC <sup>+/-</sup>	144.1 ± 18.2	4.12 ± 0.51	81.18 ± 3.62	2.11 ± 0.16
Gα <sub>s</sub> <sup>ob+/-</sup> ; αNAC <sup>+/-</sup>	142.2 ± 30.6	4.16 ± 0.42	100.90 ± 9.34	2.30 ± 0.16

<sup>a</sup> Gla-OCN, carboxyglutamate-osteocalcin; Glu-OCN, uncarboxylated glutamate-osteocalcin.



**FIG 7** Increased numbers of osteocytes in compound  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$  heterozygous mice. (A to D) Goldner's staining of femoral cross sections at midshaft from control  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}; \alpha Nac^{+/+}$ ,  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/+}$ ,  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$  and compound  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$  mice. Right, higher-magnification (400) views of the boxed area on the left (200). (E) Osteocyte number (OT.N.) per surface area in femoral cortex. Data are presented as means  $\pm$  SEM from at least three mice per group. (F) Quantitative reverse-transcription PCR of *Sost* gene expression using mRNA isolated from mouse calvaria at 8 weeks of age. The *B2m* gene was used as a housekeeping reference. Data are expressed relative to levels measured in wild-type ( $G\alpha_s^{ob+/+}; \alpha Nac^{+/+}$ ) littermates and presented as the means  $\pm$  SEM of at least three mice per group. \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ .

leucine zipper transcription factors, *c-Fos* and *c-Jun* (38–40). While the importance of AP-1 proteins in mediating the anabolic PTH response remains to be determined, it is noteworthy that  $\alpha$ NAC interacts with the N-terminal activation domain of c-JUN to regulate transcription (16, 20, 21, 41). Interaction with c-JUN involves residues 89 to 129 within  $\alpha$ NAC (41), a region containing 5  $\beta$ -sheets (42). Residue S99 is located at the extremity of the second  $\beta$ -sheet structure that plays a physical role for  $\alpha$ NAC heterodimerization with  $\beta$ NAC (42). It is tempting to speculate that phosphorylation of serine 99 displaces  $\beta$ NAC and allows nuclear translocation of the  $\alpha$  subunit. PTH stimulation led to  $\alpha$ Nac enrichment at the *Ocn* promoter, and a phosphomimetic residue substitution at position 99 enhanced the coactivation potential of

$\alpha$ NAC. It is thus possible that phosphorylated S99 helps to stabilize the complex formed by  $\alpha$ NAC and c-JUN on specific target gene promoters.

A mechanism associated with the deletion of  $G\alpha_s$  in early osteoblasts involved diminished WNT signaling caused by increased expression of the inhibitors of the WNT pathway, *Sost* and *Dickkopf1* (13). The expression of the osteocyte differentiation marker *Sost* was also elevated in compound  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$  heterozygotes. Osteocytes, the most abundant cell type in bone, result from osteoblast maturation. Like osteoblasts, they express PTH1R and can answer to PTH stimulation through a PKA-dependent pathway (43–45). One of the main effects of PTH on osteocytes is the suppression of *Sost* expression through an MEF2-dependent mechanism (46). It has also been shown that osteocyte-specific deletion of PTH1R leads to a reduction in trabecular bone mass (47, 48). As previously mentioned, osteopenia, increased number of osteocytes, and increased expression of *Sost* are common features observed in  $\alpha Nac^{S43A/S43A}$ , *Osx*-CRE;  $G\alpha_s^{fl/fl}$ , and  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$  mice. This supports the notion that nuclear  $\alpha$ NAC is important to regulate osteoblast maturation into osteocytes but also raises the possibility that  $\alpha$ NAC is involved in PTH signaling in osteocytes. The compound mouse model that we generated does not allow discrimination between the function of  $\alpha$ NAC in osteoblasts or osteocytes since the  $\alpha$ NAC disruption is systemic and the  $G\alpha_s^{fl/fl}$  allele recombination was under the control of the CRE recombinase coupled to the *Osx* promoter, expressed in both osteoblasts and osteocytes (30). Nevertheless, the hypothesis of a potential role for  $\alpha$ NAC in osteocytes is supported by our preliminary observation that stimulation of the MLOY4 osteocyte cell line (49) with PTH(1–34) induces  $\alpha$ NAC nuclear translocation (M. Pellicelli and R. St-Arnaud, unpublished observation).

More recently, increased trabecular bone mass and reduced *Sost* expression were reported in mice specifically expressing a constitutively active form of PKA (CA-PKA) in late osteoblasts and in osteocytes (50). A similar phenotype has been observed in transgenic mice expressing a constitutively active form of PTH1R (CA-PTH1R) in osteocytes (51, 52). However, there exists some discrepancy between the reported phenotypes. In addition to the increase in bone trabecular volume and reduced *Sost* expression, CA-PTH1R mice presented an increased cortical thickness and an increase in bone turnover (51, 52). These differences support the idea that PTH effects are mediated using other pathways in addition to PKA-dependent signaling. We did not detect changes in cortical bone thickness in compound  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$  heterozygous mice, and their bone mass phenotype was limited to trabecular bone. This observation supports the notion that  $\alpha$ NAC is part of a PKA-dependent pathway in osteocytes to regulate trabecular bone volume.

Compound  $G\alpha_s^{ob+/-}; \alpha Nac^{+/-}$  heterozygotes also sported increased numbers of cortical osteocytes, with associated elevated *Sost* expression. The *Sost* increase could be the result of the augmented osteocyte number in the mutant mice. However, the increase in osteocyte density appears too modest to explain the change in mRNA levels. Our preferred interpretation is that  $\alpha$ NAC is an effector of PKA signaling in osteocytes to suppress *Sost* expression. We have shown that  $\alpha$ NAC differentially interacts with transcriptional corepressors to control gene expression in cell- and promoter-specific contexts (34), and our most recent results indicate that this interaction is phosphorylation dependent (53). This suggests an appealing mechanism through which PKA-

modified, phospho-S99- $\alpha$ NAC would recruit transcriptional corepressors to inhibit *Sost* transcription in osteocytes. The cell- and promoter-specific context of this model is highlighted by the increased transcription from the *Ocn* promoter that we measured in transient-transfection assays using the S99D phosphomimetic mutant in osteoblasts (Fig. 5D). We will test the physiological relevance of this proposed mechanism using site-directed mutagenesis of  $\alpha$ NAC at S99 in knock-in mouse models.

*Ocn* remains the best-characterized transcriptional target of  $\alpha$ NAC to date (16), although *in vitro* studies and mutant mouse models have hinted at other relevant promoters (17, 34, 54). The regulatory pathway characterized in this study broadens the set of putative targets regulated by  $\alpha$ NAC. Genes that are regulated by both PTH and c-JUN, the transcriptional partner of  $\alpha$ NAC, are appealing potential candidates. These include *Mmp13* and *c-Jun* itself (39, 55, 56) in addition to *Ocn*. Additional experiments using ChIP-Seq analysis of PTH-treated osteoblasts or osteocytes, or cells expressing epitope-tagged S99D  $\alpha$ NAC, have been initiated to further our knowledge of  $\alpha$ NAC-dependent transcriptional control.

The anabolic activity of PTH on bone is a complex response involving many pathways. However, many studies have confirmed the major contribution of the  $G\alpha_s$ -cAMP-PKA signaling cascade in this response. Our results identifying  $\alpha$ NAC as a new direct effector of PTH- $G\alpha_s$ -cAMP-PKA signaling affecting bone mass suggest that  $\alpha$ NAC is needed for the anabolic action of PTH on bone.

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