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Ca²⁺-Independent Phospholipase A₂β-Derived PGE₂ Contributes to Osteogenesis

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Abstract

Bone modeling can be modulated by lipid signals such as arachidonic acid (AA) and its cyclooxygenase 2 (COX2) metabolite, prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂), which are recognized mediators of optimal bone formation. Hydrolysis of AA from membrane glycerophospholipids is catalyzed by phospholipases A_2 (PLA₂s). We reported that mice deficient in the Ca²⁺- independent PLA₂beta (iPLA₂ β), encoded by *Pla2g6*, exhibit a low bone phenotype, but the cause for this remains to be identified. Here, we examined the mechanistic and molecular roles of iPLA₂β in bone formation using bone marrow stromal cells and calvarial osteoblasts from WT and iPLA₂ β -deficient mice, and the MC3T3-E1 osteoblast precursor cell line. Our data reveal that transcription of osteogenic factors (Bmp2, Alpl, and Runx2) and osteogenesis are decreased with iPLA₂ β -deficiency. These outcomes are corroborated and recapitulated in WT cells treated with a selective inhibitor of iPLA₂ β (10 μ M *S*-BEL), and rescued in iPLA₂ β -deficient cells by additions of 10 µM PGE₂. Further, under osteogenic conditions we find that PGE₂ production

DISCLOSURES

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is through iPLA₂ β activity and that this leads to induction of *Runx2* and *iPLA₂* β transcription. These findings reveal a strong link between osteogenesis and iPLA₂ β -derived lipids and raise the intriguing possibility that iPLA₂ β -derived PGE₂ participates in osteogenesis and in the regulation of Runx2 and also iPLA₂ β .

Keywords

osteogenesis; lipid-signaling; PGE₂; iPLA₂β; Runx2

1. INTRODUCTION

Adult bone is remodeled continuously and the process of bone resorption must be balanced by the process of bone formation to maintain bone mass and preserve bone structure and strength. Loss in bone mass and strength occurs with aging and these can lead to increased incidence of fractures [1-7]. The overall bone phenotype with aging is a consequence of balance between the function of bone-forming osteoblasts and bone-resorbing osteoclasts [1-3,5-8].

Among the factors that influence bone formation are lipid signals generated via activation of phospholipases A₂ (PLA₂s) [9-12]. Numerous studies suggest that the downstream lipid products (i.e. leukotrienes, hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acids, platelet activating factor) of these PLA₂s predominantly enhance bone resorption [13-19]. In addition to cytosolic (c) and secretory (s) PLA₂s, osteoblasts express a Ca²⁺-independent PLA₂beta (iPLA₂ β) enzyme that is encoded by the *Pla2g6* gene [20]. The iPLA₂ β participates in a variety of biological processes and we find that iPLA₂ β -deficiency leads to decreased osteoblast function and age-related bone loss [20]. These findings suggest that iPLA₂ β -derived lipids (iDLs) enhance bone formation.

As a member of the PLA₂ family, iPLA₂ β catalyzes the hydrolysis of the *sn*-2 substituent from glycerophospholipid substrates to yield a free fatty acid (i.e. arachidonic acid, AA) and a 2-lysophospholipid [21]. Both AA and its cyclooxygenase metabolite, prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) are recognized to increase bone mineral density [22], bone mass [23,24], and decrease bone resorption [25]. It has been suggested that PGE₂, which in the bone is produced mainly by osteoblasts [26-29], is the main mediator of AA-induced bone formation via activation of the EP₄ receptor [26,30-33]. However, the molecular mechanisms by which iDLs impact bone formation are not well understood.

To delineate the role of iPLA₂ β and iDLs on bone formation, we utilized bone marrow stromal cells (BMSCs), calvarial osteoblasts, and MC3T3-E1 osteoblast cells to assess osteogenic transcripts, proteins, mineralization, and molecular links. Here, we report the novel findings that (1) PGE₂ generated via iPLA₂ β activation is critical for osteogenesis (2) reduced osteogenesis due to iPLA₂ β -deficiency is rescued by PGE₂ supplementation, and (3) PGE₂-signaling through the EP₄ receptor induces not only Runx2, but also iPLA₂ β during osteogenesis.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Animals.

Breeders (*iPLA*₂ $\beta^{-/-}$ and *iPLA*₂ $\beta^{+/-}$ on C57BL/6J background) obtained from Dr. John Turk (Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO) were used to generate wild-type (WT) and iPLA₂ β -deficient mice at the University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB), as described [34-36]. PCR validation of genotype was performed using mRNA forward/reverse primers: ccaaacgactttggggagact/ctggatgccgaccatctcg (expected product size, 972 bp). Animal experiments were performed according to approved Institution Animal Care and Use Committee [IACUC] guidelines at UAB.

2.2. Materials.

Reagents used in our studies were obtained from the following sources (catalog numbers): Coomassie reagents, SDS-PAGE reagents, kaleidoscope pre-stained molecular mass standards (161-0324), and Triton X-100 (161-0407) from BioRad, Hercules, CA; S-BEL (iPLA₂ β inhibitor, 10006801), *R*-BEL (iPLA₂ γ inhibitor, 10006800), CAY10502 (cPLA₂a inhibitor, 10008657), PGE₂ (14010), and PGE₂ EIA Kit (514010) from Cayman Chemicals, Ann Arbor, MI); paraformaldehyde from Electron Microscopy Sciences, Ft. Washington, PA; acetyl histone H3 antibody (06-911), normal mouse IgG (12-371), protein A beads (16-125) from EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA; Immobilon-P PVDF membrane (IPVH00010) from Millipore Corp., Bedford, MA; Runx2 antibody (D130-3) from MBL International, Wobrurn, MA); arachidonic acid (ICN 19462510) from MP Bio, Solon, OH; GAPDH (FL-335), iPLA₂β (sc-14463), tubulin (sc-166729), and 2° (sc-2004, sc-2418, sc-2302) antibodies from Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc., Santa Cruz, CA; dispase (D4693), protease inhibitor cocktail (P8340), common reagents from Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO; and alpha-MEM media (12561049), collagenase 2 (17101-015), enhanced chemiluminescence reagent (34095), fetal bovine serum premium (FBS, S11150), and common cell culture reagents from ThermoFisher, Waltham, MA; The EP₄ receptor agonist ONO-AE1-329 and EP4 receptor antagonist ONO-AE3-208 were kind gifts from ONO Pharmaceuticals, Osaka, Japan.

2.3. Mineralization Analyses.

(A) Bright field microscopy was performed with an Olympus IX81 microscope; (B) von Kossa staining was performed on fixed cells with a 5% silver nitrate solution [37], rinsed well, and exposed to UV light; and (C) alizarin red staining was performed on fixed cells with a 2% alizarin red solution [38], rinsed well, and scanned for imaging, and quantified using Image J software (National Institutes of Health).

2.4. Primary BMSC Isolation and Analyses.

6-week-old female WT and iPLA₂β-deficient mice (KO) were euthanized and femurs surgically isolated. The femurs were transferred to a sterile bio-cabinet before being flushed with alpha-MEM culture media (Con) containing 10% FBS and 1% pen/strep. The media was then centrifuged and cells resuspended in fresh culture media. Plated cells were grown to confluence in the Con media or Ost media (Con media supplemented with 100 µg/ml

ascorbic acid and 10 mM β -glycerol phosphate). In some experiments, cells were treated with the iPLA₂ β -selective inhibitor *S*-BEL. (10 μ M, 30 min treatment at each media change), EP₄ receptor agonist (10 μ M ONO-AE1-329), or EP₄ receptor antagonist (10 μ M ONO-AE3-208) and cultured for up to 28 days. The media without and with drugs was replaced every 2 days. Osteogenesis was assessed under bright field microscopy, von Kossa staining, or alizarin red staining.

2.5. Primary Calvaria Isolation and Analyses.

4-day-old female WT and iPLA₂ β -deficient mice were euthanized and calvaria surgically isolated. The calvaria were transferred to a sterile bio-cabinet before being minced and digested. Digestion media consisted of dispase and collagenase, each at 6 mg/ml. Cells were plated and grown to confluence prior to exposure to Con or Ost media for message analyses by RT-qPCR and osteogenesis assessment using alkaline phosphatase and alizarin red staining. In some experiments the cells were treated with vehicle (DMSO), AA (10 μ M), or PGE₂ (10 μ M) applied at time of differentiation. The media without and with lipids was replaced every 2 days.

2.6. PGE₂ Production During Osteogenesis.

MC3T3-E1 cells were cultured and maintained, as described [39]. At 70% confluence, the cells were treated with control or Ost media for 48 h in the absence or presence of *S*-BEL (10 μ M), *R*-BEL (10 μ M), or CAY10502 (50 nM). The media were collected and PGE₂ content was determined using an EIA kit, according to manufacturer's instructions. The cell pellets were processed for protein determination and the data are expressed as pg PGE₂/mg protein.

2.7. iPLA₂β Induction During Oesteogenesis.

MC3T3-E1 cells were treated with Ost media in the absence or presence of *S*-BEL (10 μ M) or PGE₂ (10 μ M). At 48 h, the cells were harvested, aliquoted, and analyzed by SDS-PAGE. Resolved proteins were transferred from a 10% gel onto Immobilon-PVDF membranes for immunoblotting analyses. Immunoreactive bands were visualized by ECL, as described [40].

2.8. RNA Isolation and RT-qPCR.

Total RNA was isolated, as described [20], and 1 μ g of total RNA was reverse-transcribed and analyzed by RT-qPCR using primers sets, based on known mouse sequences (Table 1). The RT-qPCR assays evaluating changes in mRNA levels were performed using validated Taqman primer sets specific for known mouse sequences. Reactions for each sample were performed in triplicate using a PCR protocol (95 °C activation for 10 min followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 1 min) in an ABI StepOnePlus Detection System (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA. *Hprt* was used as the housekeeping control. The Ct values generated by StepOnePlus software (Applied Biosystems) were used to calculate 2^{---CT} and determine fold change relative to wild type or control conditions.

2.9. Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) Analyses.

The ChIPs were performed, as described [41]. Cells were grown as described above and nuclei from cross-linked cells were resuspended in Tris/EDTA. The soluble chromatin was adjusted in RIPA buffer and pre-cleared with salmon sperm blocked protein A beads. Immunoprecipitation was performed with 5 µg of antibodies directed against Runx2, Ac-H3, or IgG, as described [42]. Immune complexes were absorbed with protein A beads blocked with salmon sperm DNA. After pre-clearing and before immunoprecipitation, equal amounts of sonicated DNA (10% volume of each sample) were reserved for qPCR (input) analysis. *Pla2g6* and *Runx2* promoters were probed with specific primers against the immunoprecipitated DNA by qPCR using primers sets based on known mouse sequences (Table 2). Several primer sets per each promoter were designed and evaluated, and those that produced a single band with a sufficient melting temperature ($60 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$) were used for the studies described within the manuscript. The qPCR assays evaluating protein-chromatin interactions by ChIP were analyzed using SYBRGreen. Reactions for each sample were performed in triplicate using an ABI StepOnePlus Detection System and a PCR protocol comprising an initial 10 min incubation at 95 °C followed by 40 cycles of 15s at 95 °C and 1 min at 60-65 °C. The raw data were analyzed using StepOnePlus software and Ct values for each gene in each sample were determined. These studies were repeated three times.

2.10. Drug Concentrations used in this Study.

The chosen concentrations of *S*-BEL. *R*-BEL, and CAY10502 were based on our earlier studies [43,44], and of EP4 ligands and AA on studies in other systems [45-47]. In regards to PGE₂, earlier reports used up to 1 μ M [48,49] and in this study 10 μ M PGE₂ was used to readily identify outcomes.

2.11. Statistical Analyses.

Data are presented as means \pm standard errors of the means [SEMs]. Statistical significance between two groups was determined using the Student's t-test, values of p < 0.05 were considered significant. Statistical significances between more than two groups were determined using ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test. Values of qa < 0.05 were considered significant.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Recapitulation of iPLA₂β-deficient osteogenesis phenotype in WT BMSCs.

Here, we assessed whether iDLs contribute to bone formation. After confirming the genotype of WT and iPLA₂ β -deficient (KO) mice, as described [20], BMSCs were prepared from WT and KO mice and PCR analyses used to assess iPLA₂ β expression. Such analyses yielded an expected product size of 972 bp in WT but not in the KO (Fig. 1A), confirming iPLA₂ β -deficiency in the KO group. Over 28-days, WT BMSCs exhibited significant mineralization upon exposure to osteogenic media (Ost), as viewed under bright field microscopy (Fig. 1B). In contrast, there was no visual evidence of mineralization in the KO group. To determine whether this defect in osteogenesis was associated with an iPLA₂ β -deficiency, BMSCs from WT were cultured in the absence or presence of *S*-BEL,

a selective inhibitor of iPLA₂ β [50], and bone nodule formation was assessed by von Kossa staining. In the absence of *S*-BEL, there was nodule formation in the WT group (Fig. 1C, **top left panel**). However, with the addition of *S*-BEL, nodule formation was noticeably diminished in the WT group and resembled the low mineralization phenotype of the KO group (in the absence or presence of *S*-BEL, Fig. 1C, **bottom panels**). These findings were taken as evidence for iPLA₂ β participation in bone formation, with potential involvement of iDLs.

3.2. Rescue of iPLA₂β-deficient bone mineralization phenotype by PGE₂.

In view of the evidence supporting a role for PGE_2 in bone formation and our reports that iPLA₂β activation leads to hydrolysis of AA and generation of PGE₂ [51,52], we examined the link between PGE₂ and bone mineralization. BMSCs isolated from WT and KO were cultured, as above, in Ost media in the absence or presence of S-BEL. After 4 days, PGE₂ concentration in the media was determined by EIA. In comparison with pre-osteogenic induction, PGE₂ levels in the WT group rose nearly 3-fold during osteogenic induction and such increases were inhibited by S-BEL. In contrast, increases in PGE2 accumulations were not evident in the KO and were not significantly affected by S-BEL treatment (Fig. 2A). In view of these findings, we assessed the impact of PGE_2 on mineralization in the iPLA₂β-deficient group. Supplementation of the Ost media with PGE₂ (Fig. 2B) promoted mineralization, as viewed under bright field microscopy, in comparison with the lack of mineralization in the absence of PGE₂ addition. Consistent with this, alizarin red staining, a reflection of calcium deposition, in the KO was reduced, relative to WT, and is increased upon supplementation of the media with PGE₂ (Fig. 2C&2E). Quantitation of alizarin red staining revealed a progressive increase in mineralization in the KO over a 28-day period with PGE₂ supplementation, that was mimicked by addition of ONO-AE1-329, an EP₄ receptor agonist. Moreover, the staining was significantly reduced by co-incubation with ONO-AE3-208, an EP4 receptor antagonist (Fig. 2D). In parallel experiments, we find that under osteogenic conditions alizarin staining increased similarly in WT BMSCs without or with PGE₂. However, EP₄ receptor antagonism reduced the staining in the WT BMSCs to a level evident in vehicle-treated KO BMSCs under osteogenic conditions (Fig. 2E). These findings suggest a role for PGE₂ in facilitating osteogenesis through EP₄ receptor signaling.

3.3. iDLs promote expression of osteogenic factors.

We next utilized primary calvarial osteoblasts to gain insight into the osteogenic pathway impacted by iDLs by assessing selected osteogenic factors: BMP2, a TGF β superfamily member that is important in skeletogenesis and essential for fracture repair, is induced in differentiating osteoblasts and is a hallmark of osteogenesis [53], alkaline phosphatase generates inorganic phosphate that is a requisite for mineralization [53], and Runt-related transcription factor 2 (Runx2) is a master osteogenic transcriptional factor [54]. For these analyses, calvarial osteoblasts from WT and KO mice were prepared and cultured in the absence or presence of *S*-BEL, AA, or PGE₂.

As in the BMSCs, calvarial $iPLA_{2\beta}$ mRNA was evident in WT, but nearly undetectable in KO, as determined by RT-qPCR analyses (Fig. 3A). All three osteogenic factors were reduced in the KO group (Figs. 3B-D, *left panels*), relative to the WT group,

and such decreases were recapitulated in the WT upon treatment with *S*-BEL. However, supplementation of media provided to KO with AA or PGE_2 promoted significant recoveries in all three osteogenic factors (Figs. 3B-D, **right panels**), relative to un-supplemented media. These findings are consistent with a role for iDLs in modulating bone formation.

3.4. Time course of $iPLA_2\beta$ and Runx2 induction in calvarial osteoblasts.

To further address the impact of iDLs on promoting bone mineralization, we focused on Runx2, the master regulator of osteogenesis. Initial examination of temporal induction of *iPLA*₂ β and *Runx2* revealed a significant rise in both in the WT by 24 h, which was followed by a decline by 36 h (Figs. 4A&B), this effect persisted up to 72 h (data not shown). In the KO group, *iPLA*₂ β was not detectable or induced and *Runx2* remained unchanged and similar to basal expression over 36 h.

Consistent with these findings, both alkaline phosphatase, reflecting induction of osteogenesis (Fig. 5A, **left panels**), and alizarin red staining, reflecting successful osteogenesis (Fig. 5B, **left panels**), were reduced in the KO, relative to WT, group. Supplementation of media with AA (**middle panels**)> or PGE₂ (**right panels**) resulted in modest increases in alkaline phosphatase in both groups. While alizarin red staining was also only modestly increased in the WT with the supplementations, staining in the KO in the presence of AA or PGE₂ was greater, relative to the vehicle-treated group. Because of recognized limitations in correlating alkaline phosphatase staining with mineralization, alizarin staining was quantified. Such analyses revealed significant increases in mineralization in the KO group, relative to un-supplemented KO group (Fig. 5C), with PGE₂ promoting a near complete recovery. Collectively, these findings strengthen the possibility that PGE₂ derived through iPLA₂β-mediated hydrolysis of AA is a key contributor to bone formation.

3.5. Transcriptional regulation of Runx2 and iPLA₂β.

To further assess a potential link between iPLA₂ β and Runx2 during osteoblast differentiation, we performed ChIP assays utilizing primers designed to examine *Runx2* promoters. As expected, analysis of the *Runx2* promoter, known to bind Runx2 protein, revealed association of Runx2 at the *Runx2* promoter (Fig. 6A). These observations correlated with increased detection of Ac-H3, which correlates with transcriptional activation at the *Runx2* gene. IgG control failed to significantly immunoprecipitate *Runx2* promoter.

In silico analyses identified a region of interest for the *Pla2g6* promoter and determined a putative binding site for Runx2 located within 2 kb upstream of the *Pla2g6* transcriptional start site (Fig. 6C). This raised the possibility that Runx2 may drive *Pla2g6* expression. Although Runx2 immunoprecipitation exhibited low binding at the *Pla2g6* promoter that was also not influenced by osteogenic differentiation, there was increased detection of Ac-H3 at the iPLA₂ β promoter (Fig. 6B), reflecting transcriptional activation at the iPLA₂ β gene independently of Runx2. These observations correlated with increased detection of Ac-H3, reflecting transcriptional activation at the *Pla2g6* gene. IgG control failed

to significantly immunoprecipitate $iPLA_2\beta$ promoter. These data suggest that the *Runx2* promoter is induced under osteogenic conditions but Runx2, itself, does not induce *Pla2g6*.

3.6. Feedback regulation between PGE₂ and iPLA₂β.

Given the importance of PGE_2 in bone remodeling, we sought to determine the predominant PLA_2 activation that leads to PGE_2 generation during osteogenesis. As these analyses required a greater abundance of cells, the osteoblast precursor cell line, MC3T3-E1, was utilized for analyses. The cells were cultured in Ost media for two days with vehicle (DMSO) only or inhibitors of $iPLA_2\beta$ (*S*-BEL), $iPLA_2\gamma$ (*R*-BEL), or $cPLA_2\alpha$ (CAY10502) (Fig. 7A). As expected, PGE₂ production markedly increased under osteogenic conditions. Such an induction was significantly reduced by *S*-BEL, but not with *R*-BEL or CAY10502. These findings suggest that PGE₂ generated during osteogenesis is mainly derived through $iPLA_2\beta$ activation.

When iPLA₂ β protein expression during osteogenesis was examined, we found that while it was also induced, it was not significant, relative to Con. This is similar to findings in other systems, where stimuli-induced early increases in iPLA₂ β protein were noted to taper off well before outcome analyses [55-57]. However, unexpectedly, *S*-BEL also reduced iPLA₂ β and this was rescued by PGE₂ (Figs. 7B & C). These findings suggest, for the first time, regulation of iPLA₂ β by iPLA₂ β -derived PGE₂ in osteogenesis.

DISCUSSION

Adult bone is under a constant state of remodeling and the resulting mass and strength of bone are a consequence of balance between bone formation and bone resorption. While certain canonical pathways that influence the bone architecture have been described [2,3,7,8], the potential contribution of lipid signaling is not well understood.

Arachidonic acid (AA), derived via activation of PLA₂s and its cyclooxygenase metabolite, PGE₂, are recognized to induce *Runx2/cbfa1* and *osterix* [58] and have a positive impact on bone formation [22-25]. To date, however, it is not known which PLA₂ provides the lipid signals that are requisite for optimal bone phenotype. In contrast to cPLA₂a or sPLA₂s, which are associated with bone resorption [13-19], the iPLA₂ β appears to participate in bone formation [20].

In the present study, we sought to determine the underlying molecular mechanisms by which lipid signaling derived through iPLA₂ β activation promotes bone formation. Utilizing multiple models (BMSCs and calvarial osteoblasts from WT and iPLA₂ β -deficient mice and the MC3T3-E1 osteoblast cell line) with analyses (mineralization, mRNA, protein, and ChIP), we find that (a) iPLA₂ β -deficiency leads to significant reductions in osteogenesis and that this phenotype is recapitulated in WT preparations with iPLA₂ β inhibition; (b) the low bone phenotype is associated with reduced production of PGE₂ and that the osteogenic capacity of iPLA₂ β -deficient preparations is restored by supplementation of the media with PGE₂; (c) expression of *Bmp2, Alpl,* and *Runx2* is reduced with iPLA₂ β -deficienty, recapitulated in WT preparations by the iPLA₂ β inhibitor, and rescued in iPLA₂ β -deficient preparations with additions of PGE₂; (d) induction of osteogenesis promotes increases in

Runx2 and *iPLA₂β* mRNA; and (e) during osteogenesis, iPLA₂β protein expression is reduced by iPLA₂β inhibitor and rescued with addition of PGE₂.

Collectively, our findings reveal the importance of iDLs in bone formation, where activation of iPLA₂ β in osteoblasts leads to hydrolysis of AA, which is then metabolized to PGE₂ by COX-2. The PGE₂ acting via EP₄ receptor triggers signaling pathways leading to induction of osteogenesis factors. This proposed mechanism is supported by the findings that (a) the decreases in mineralization and associated osteogenic factors expression are evident in an iPLA₂ β -deficient model, (b) these outcomes are rescued by addition of AA or PGE₂, (c) osteogenesis in the KO is similarly rescued with PGE₂ or EP₄ receptor agonism, (d) EP₄ receptor antagonism reduces osteogenesis in WT to KO levels, and (e) production of PGE₂ is mitigated by inhibition of iPLA₂ β , but not of iPLA₂ γ or cPLA₂ α . Given that iPLA₂s and sPLA₂s exhibit non-specific hydrolysis of *sn*-2 substituents and cPLA₂ α is selective for arachidonic acid [59-62], our observations suggest that the predominant pool of PGE₂ that contributes to bone formation is derived through iPLA₂ β -catalyzed hydrolysis of AA from membrane glycerophospholipids.

The observation that the impact of PGE₂ supplementation was in general more profound than with AA is likely due to multiple factors: AA can be metabolized by multiple enzymes [63], incorporated into phospholipids, or be a substrate for elongases [64]. Thus, not all added AA is likely to be converted to PGE₂. It has been reported that the predominant receptor activated by PGE₂ in calvarial osteoblastic cell cultures is the EP₄ receptor [48]. While the mechanism by which PGE₂ induces Runx2 was not examined here, a recent report suggests that PGE₂ signaling via _{EP4} receptor can promote gene transcription [65]. Taken together with the observations of EP₄ receptor localization also in the nuclear envelope [66] and the presence of COX and PGE₂ in the nuclear membrane [67], we posit that iPLA₂β-derived PGE₂, through EP₄ receptor signaling, leads to Runx2 induction.

Among our observations, an unexpected finding was that selective inhibition of iPLA₂ β decreased iPLA₂ β protein expression. Moreover, addition of PGE₂ rescued this outcome. These findings reveal, a previously unrecognized, feedback regulation of iPLA₂ β by lipid products derived from iPLA₂ β activation. In a recent study, we reported that expression of *Ptgs2*, which encodes COX-2, is reduced in iPLA₂ β -KO macrophages [68]. We speculate that inhibition of iPLA₂ β , in addition to providing less AA as a substrate for eicosanoid generation via COX-2, also mitigates COX-2 expression in osteoblast cells with the consequent decrease in PGE₂ production leading to mitigation of iPLA₂ β expression. Further studies are needed to delineate specific feedback mechanisms by which iDLs can impact iPLA₂ β expression.

In summary (Fig. 8), our findings provide a scheme for $iPLA_2\beta$ participation in bone formation. Our results indicate that $iPLA_2\beta$ activation plays important roles in the dynamic process of bone formation and maintenance. Under osteogenesis stimuli, $iPLA_2\beta$ induction leads to accumulation of AA and generation of PGE₂, leading to induction of Runx2 and $iPLA_2\beta$. These observations suggest that modulation of the $iPLA_2\beta$ -Runx2 axis could be an avenue to improve bone health in diseased states associated with compromised bone formation.

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Abbreviations:

18S	18S ribosomal RNA
Ac-H3	acetylated histone H3
AA	arachidonic acid
Alpl	alkaline phosphatase
BMSCs	bone marrow stromal cells
Bmp2	bone morphogenetic protein 2
ChIP	chromatin immunoprecipitation
COX	cyclooxygenase
cPLA ₂ a	cytosolic phospholipase A_2a
DMSO	dimethyl sulfoxide
EIA	enzyme immunoassay
GAPDH	glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase
Hprt	hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase
IgG	immunoglobulin G
iDLs	$iPLA_2\beta$ -derived lipids
iPLA ₂ β	group VIA phospholipase A ₂ beta
$iPLA_2\gamma$	group VIB phospholipase A2gamma
КО	knockout
12-LO	12-lipoxygenase
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
PGE ₂	prostaglandin E ₂
PLA ₂	phospholipase A_2

R-BEL	<i>R</i> -enantiomer of bromoenol lactone
RT-qPCR	real time quantitative PCR
Runx2	Runt-related transcription factor 2
S-BEL	S-enantiomer of bromoenol lactone
WT	wild type

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Highlights

• $iPLA_2\beta$ -derived PGE₂ is important for optimal bone formation

- $iPLA_2\beta$ -derived PGE₂ induces osteogenic factors
- Select inhibitors of iPLA₂β and EP4 receptor mitigate induction of osteogenic factors and osteogenesis
- Roles for $iPLA_2\beta$ -derived PGE₂ include induction of Runx2 and also $iPLA_2\beta$
- First demonstration of $iPLA_2\beta$ regulation by downstream products of its activation



C. Industrial of PLA-4 in W.I. Manual PLA-4 Deficient Placements



Fig. 1. In vitro mineralization of WT and iPLA₂β-deficient BMSCs.

Bone marrow stromal cells (BMSCs) from WT and iPLA₂ β -deficient (KO) mice were harvested for analyses. *A*, <u>Genotyping</u>. Validation of iPLA₂ β -deficient genotype via PCR. *B*, <u>Mineralization</u>. WT and KO BMSCs were exposed to Con or Ost (100 µg/ml ascorbic acid and 10 mM β -glycerol phosphate) media for 28 days and mineralization was assessed under bright field microscopy (4X magnification). *C*, <u>Bone nodule formation</u>. WT and KO BMSCs were cultured with Ost media for 28 days without and with *S*-BEL (10 µM) and bone nodule formation was assessed by von Kossa staining (20X magnification).



Fig. 2. Rescue of $iPLA_2\beta$ -deficient bone mineralization phenotype with PGE₂ supplementation. A, PGE₂production. BMSCs were harvested from WT and KO mice and cultured in Con or Ost media in the absence or presence of S-BEL (10 μ M). At 4 days, media accumulations in PGE₂ were determined by EIA. Data are the means \pm SEMs (4-5 independent measurements). (aSignificantly different from WT Con, p < 0.01; bsignificantly different from WT Ost, p < 0.005; ^csignificantly different from WT Ost, p <0.01.) B, Osteogenesis in the absence or presence of PGE₂. BMSCs harvested from iPLA₂ β -deficient mice were cultured in Ost media without or with PGE2 (10 µM) supplementation and visualized under bright field microscopy (4X magnification). C, Mineralization in the absence or presence of PGE2. BMSCs harvested from WT and KO mice were cultured in Ost media in the absence or presence of PGE₂ (10 µM). Representative images of alizarin staining are shown (4X magnification). D, Mineralization quantification. BMSCs harvested from WT and KO mice were cultured in media supplemented with PGE₂ (10 µM), ONO-AE1-329 $(EP_4 \text{ receptor agonist}, 10 \,\mu\text{M})$, or ONO-AE3-208 $(EP_4 \text{ receptor antagonist}, 10 \,\mu\text{M})$ at each media change. Alizarin staining was quantified by ImageJ analysis. Data are the means \pm SEMs (3 independent measurements). (^aEP₄ antagonist group significantly different from EP₄ agonist group, p <0.05.). E, EP₄ receptor antagonism in WT recapitulates osteogenesis

<u>in KO</u>. BMSCs from WT and KO mice were cultured in Con or Ost media, furthermore WT were also treated in Ost media in the absence or presence of PGE₂ or ONO-AE3-208, as in *D*. In the absence of these additions, vehicle was included in the culture media. Alizarin staining at 20 days (peak time) was quantified. (^aSignificantly different from WT Con, p < 0.05; ^bsignificantly different from WT Ost, p < 0.05.)





Fig. 3. Impact of iPLA₂β-derived lipids on osteogenic factors in calvarial osteoblasts. Calvarial osteoblasts were prepared from 4-day old female WT and KO mice. *A*, <u>Genotype verification</u>. The cells were processed for *iPLA₂β* mRNA analyses by RT-qPCR. *B-D*, <u>Osteogenic factors</u>. The cells were cultured for 7 days in Ost media in the presence of vehicle only or with *S*-BEL (10 µM), AA (10 µM), or PGE₂ (10 µM) at each media change. The cells were then processed for RT-qPCR analyses for *Bmp2*(*B*), *Alpl*(*C*), and *Runx2* (*D*). *Hprt* was used as housekeeping control. Data are the means ± SEMs (3 independent measurements). *D* (*right panel*) represents fold-changes in each genotype relative to own Con (undifferentiated media). All other panels represent fold-changes relative to WT Ost. (*A*, #KO group significantly different from age-matched WT group, p < 0.05. *B* (*left panel*), ^asignificantly different from WT, p < 0.001; ^bsignificantly different from WT, p < 0.001; ^bsignificantly different from WT, p < 0.001. *C* (*right panel*), ^asignificantly different from WT, p < 0.001; ^bsignificantly different from WT, p < 0.001. *C* (*right panel*), ^asignificantly different from WT, p < 0.001; ^bsignificantly different from WT, p < 0.001. *C* (*right panel*), ^asignificantly different from WT, p < 0.001; ^bsignificantly different from WT, p < 0.001.

KO+AA, p < 0.05. *D* (*left panel*), ^asignificantly different from WT, p < 0.001; *D* (*right panel*), ^asignificantly different from corresponding vehicle, p < 0.05.)



Fig. 4. Time course of $iPLA_2\beta$ and Runx2 induction in calvarial osteoblasts.

Calvarial osteoblasts prepared from WT and KO mice were cultured in Ost media for up to 36 h. At 12, 24, and 36 h the calvarial cells were processed for RT-qPCR analyses of $\underline{iPLA_2\beta}$ (*A*) and $\underline{Runx2}$ (*B*). *Hprt* was used as housekeeping control. Data are the means ± SEMs (3 independent measurements) of fold-changes relative to WT Con (undifferentiated) at 0 h (*A*) or relative to own Con at 0 h (*B*). (*A*, ^asignificantly different from 0 h and 12 h, p < 0.001; ^bsignificantly different from 24 h, p < 0.05; *B*, ^asignificantly different from 0 h, p < 0.001; ^bsignificantly different from 12 h, p < 0.025; ^csignificantly different from 36 h, p < 0.001.)



Fig. 5. Effects of AA and \mbox{PGE}_2 on mineralization in calvarial osteoblasts.

Calvarial osteoblasts of WT and iPLA₂β-deficient mice (KO) were harvested and cultured with osteogenic media with DMSO as vehicle (Veh), AA (10 μ M), or PGE₂ (10 μ M) supplementation at each media change for 7 days and stained for <u>alkaline phosphatase</u> (*A*) or <u>alizarin red</u> (*B*). *C*, <u>Quantitation of alizarin red staining</u>. Data are the means ± SEMs (3 independent measurements). (^aSignificantly different from WT Veh, p < 0.05; ^bsignificantly different from KO Veh, p < 0.05.)



Fig. 6. Association of Runx2 with the *Runx2* and *Pla2g6* promoters during osteogenesis. MC3T3-E1 cells were treated with Con or Ost media for 2 days. The ChIP analyses were performed with antibodies specific for Runx2, Ac-H3, or IgG and association with the *Runx2*(*A*) or *Pla2g6*(*B*) promoter regions analyzed by RT-qPCR. Data are representative analyses from 3-4 independent measurements. *C*, Schematic of mouse *Pla2g6* promoter and Runx2 consensus binding site. The mouse *Pla2g6* gene is located on chromosome 15 and spans the nucleotides from 79,170,428 to 79,212,295. The arrow indicates the start of transcription, which is denoted as +1. The Runx2 transcription factor bindings site is located at –961 bp relative to the transcription start site. For comparison, the consensus Runx2 binding site is shown and aligned with the Runx2 binding sites identified above.



Fig. 7. Feedback regulation between PGE_2 and $iPLA_2\beta$.

A. <u>PGE</u>₂ production. MC3T3-E1 cells were cultured with Ost media in the presence of vehicle (DMSO), *S*-BEL (10 μM), *R*-BEL (10 μM), or CAY10502 (50 nM). Both *S*-BEL and *R*-BEL were present for only 1 h. After 48 h, the media were collected for PGE₂ EIA and the cell pellet for protein determination. The plotted data are means ± SEMs of pg PGE₂/mg protein (n=3-6). (^aSignificantly different from undifferentiated Con, p < 0.001; ^bsignificantly different from undifferentiated Con, p < 0.001; ^bsignificantly different from undifferentiated and differentiated Con, p < 0.005.) *B*. <u>iPLA</u>₂β protein. The MC3T3-E1 cells were cultured with Con or Ost media in the absence or presence of *S*-BEL (10 μM) or PGE₂ (10 μM) for 48 h and processed for iPLA₂β immunoblotting analyses (GAPDH, loading control). Representative immunoblots presented (from 3 independent experiments). *C*. <u>Densitometry</u>. iPLA₂β band intensities, relative to corresponding loading control, are presented. (^aSignificantly different from Ost, p < 0.025; ^bsignificantly different from Ost, p < 0.05; ^csignificantly different from Con, p < 0.01; ^dsignificantly different from *S*-BEL, p < 0.025.)



Fig. 8. Proposed model of $iPLA_2\beta$ involvement osteogenesis.

We suggest that osteogenesis occurs via PGE_2 that is derived from $iPLA_2\beta$ activation. We further posit that $iPLA_2\beta$ -derived PGE_2 plays an important role in the regulation of not only Runx2 but, also of $iPLA_2\beta$.

Table 1.

Primers for Targets Analysed by RT-qPCR

Target	Sequence (5' to 3')	Product Size (bp)
Hprt	gcagcgtttctgagccattg	165
	taatcacgacgctgggactg	
iPLA ₂ β	tgtctctggggacaggaaa	264
	cagcactgcatcactgacct	
Runx2	atcagttcccaatggtacccg	215
	atcagttcccaatggtacccg	
Alpl	ttgtgccagagaaagagagaga	75
	gtttcagggcatttttcaaggt	
Bmp2	gggtggcgagagcttttcta	101
	ttcagagtggttgtcaatccg	

Table 2.

ChIP Primers for Targets Analysed by RT-qPCR

Target	Sequence (5' to 3')	Product Size (bp)
Pla2g6 Promoter	tacagggccacactggtcac	489
	atgggcagttcacatgatcg	
Runx2 Promoter	tgacgccatagtccctcctt	284
	ccaaccgagtcagtgagtgc	