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Molecular mechanisms of triggering, amplifying and targeting RANK signaling in osteoclasts

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Abstract

Osteoclast differentiation depends on receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B (RANK) signaling, which can be divided into triggering, amplifying and targeting phases based on how active the master regulator nuclear factor of activated T-cells cytoplasmic 1 (NFATc1) is. The triggering phase is characterized by immediate-early RANK signaling induced by RANK ligand (RANKL) stimulation mediated by three adaptor proteins, tumor necrosis factor receptor-associated factor 6, Grb-2-associated binder-2 and phospholipase C (PLC) γ 2, leading to activation of I κ B kinase, mitogen-activated protein kinases and the transcription factors nuclear factor (NF)- κ B and activator protein-1 (AP-1). Mice lacking NF- κ B p50/p52 or the AP-1 subunit c-Fos (encoded by *Fos*) exhibit severe osteopetrosis due to a differentiation block in the osteoclast lineage. The amplification phase occurs about 24 h later in a RANKL-induced osteoclastogenic culture when Ca²⁺ oscillation starts and the transcription factor NFATc1 is abundantly produced. In addition to Ca²⁺ oscillation-dependent nuclear translocation and transcriptional auto-induction of NFATc1, a Ca²⁺ oscillation-independent, osteoblast-dependent mechanism stabilizes NFATc1 protein in dif-

ferentiating osteoclasts. Osteoclast precursors lacking PLC γ 2, inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate receptors, regulator of G-protein signaling 10, or NFATc1 show an impaired transition from the triggering to amplifying phases. The final targeting phase is mediated by activation of numerous NFATc1 target genes responsible for cell-cell fusion and regulation of bone-resorptive function. This review focuses on molecular mechanisms for each of the three phases of RANK signaling during osteoclast differentiation.

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Key words: Receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B ligand; Tumor necrosis factor receptor-associated factor 6; c-Fos; Nuclear factor of activated T-cells cytoplasmic 1; Immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation motif; Ca²⁺ oscillation

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INTRODUCTION

Osteoclasts are bone-resorbing cells derived from hematopoietic precursor cells^[1-3]. Macrophage-colony stimulating factor (M-CSF) stimulation up-regulates expression of receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B (RANK, encoded by *Tnfrsf11a*) in the osteoclast precursor cell^[4]. RANK, a type I transmembrane receptor with a C-terminal cytosolic tail, is responsible for osteoclast differentiation and

function. RANK signaling is induced by RANK ligand (RANKL, encoded by *Tnfrsf11*), which is a type II transmembrane protein (i.e., with a cytoplasmic N-terminus and an extracellular C-terminus). Mice with genetic deletion of *Tnfrsf11a* or *Tnfrsf11* lack osteoclasts and exhibit severe osteopetrosis^[5,6]. In humans, mutations in genes encoding RANK or RANKL are associated with osteoclast poor, autosomal recessive osteopetrosis^[7,8]. RANK signaling is also modified by osteoprotegerin (encoded by *Tnfrsf11b*), a soluble decoy receptor of RANK that blocks RANKL binding to RANK^[9,10].

RANK is a member of the tumor necrosis factor receptor (TNFR) superfamily consisting of 616 and 625 amino acid residues in human and mouse, respectively^[11]. RANKL is produced by osteoblasts and osteocytes^[12,13] and binds in a trimeric form to RANK, initiating signaling^[14,15]. Like other TNFR superfamily members, RANK lacks intrinsic enzymatic activity and transduces intracellular signals by recruiting adaptor proteins including TNFR-associated factors (TRAFs), activating nuclear factor (NF)- κ B and downstream mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) and Akt signaling^[16-18]. RANK exhibits one of the longest cytoplasmic tails of any TNFR superfamily protein, and this domain is responsible for the osteoclast-specific signaling pathway^[19,20].

Spatio-temporal control of signaling downstream of RANK^[21] is divided into three phases in this review (Figure 1). In the triggering phase, NF- κ B, activator protein-1 (AP-1), and MAPKs are rapidly activated within an hour of RANKL stimulation in a culture system^[22]. Then, during the amplifying phase, nuclear factor of activated T-cells cytoplasmic 1 (NFATc1, encoded by *Nfatc1*) begins to accumulate approximately 24 h after RANKL stimulation as cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels begin to oscillate^[23]. Finally, in the targeting phase, RANK signaling regulates multinucleation and bone resorptive function mainly through activation of NFATc1 target genes. Concerted action of RANK and its adaptor proteins as well as immunoreceptors and other co-stimulatory molecules drive these phases. Here we review literature relevant to the molecular mechanism of RANK signaling at each phase during osteoclast differentiation.

TRIGGERING PHASE

Once homotrimeric RANKL forms complex with its receptor RANK^[14,15], a cascade of downstream signaling is initiated. RANK recruits adaptor proteins to specific motifs in its C-terminal cytoplasmic tail, which contains three TRAF6 binding sites near the transmembrane domain, the a highly conserved domain in RANK (HCR) motif, and two binding sites for TRAF2 or TRAF5 near the C-terminus^[20] (Figure 2). These motifs have been analyzed using various mutant RANK proteins^[16,22]. Inoue and colleagues generated a CD40/RANK chimeric receptor carrying the N-terminal extracellular domain of human CD40 (*TNFRSF5*) and the cytoplasmic tail of mouse RANK (*Tnfrsf11a*), which can be specifically

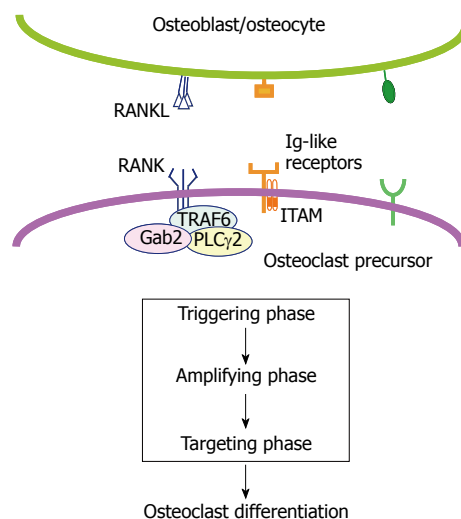


Figure 1 Three phases of receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B signaling during osteoclast differentiation. Osteoclast differentiation downstream of receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B (RANK) signaling is divided into triggering, amplifying and targeting phases, based on the nuclear factor of activated T-cells cytoplasmic 1 activation state. ITAM: Immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation motif; TRAF6: Tumor necrosis factor receptor-associated factor 6; Gab2: Grb-2-associated binder-2; PLC γ 2: Phospholipase C γ 2; RANKL: RANK ligand; Ig: Immunoglobulin.

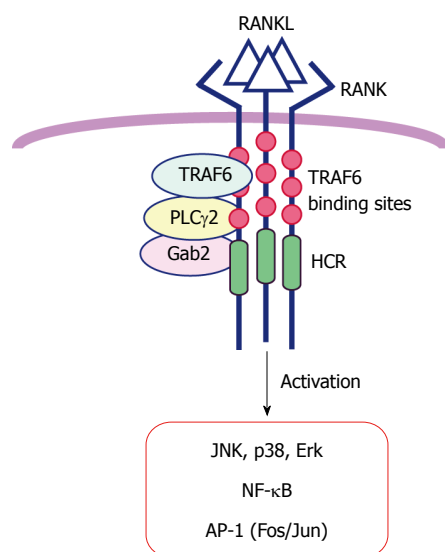


Figure 2 Triggering phase. Trimerization of receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B (RANK) by binding of RANK ligand (RANKL) immediately activates mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs), nuclear factor (NF)- κ B, and activator protein-1 (AP-1). An adaptor molecule complex including tumor necrosis factor receptor-associated factor 6 (TRAF6), Grb-2-associated binder-2 (Gab2) and phospholipase C (PLC) γ 2 on TRAF6 binding sites of RANK is essential to induce the triggering phase. HCR: Highly conserved domain in RANK; JNK: c-Jun N-terminal kinase; Erk: Extracellular signal-regulated kinase.

activated by anti-CD40 antibody and found that TRAF6 binding sites, but not the HCR, are essential for RANK signaling in the immediate-early phase^[16,22]. At least three molecules, TRAF6, Grb-2-associated binder-2 (Gab2) and phospholipase C (PLC) γ 2, function as adaptor molecules for RANK. TRAF6 is a really interesting new gene (RING) E3 ubiquitin ligase and Lys63-linked

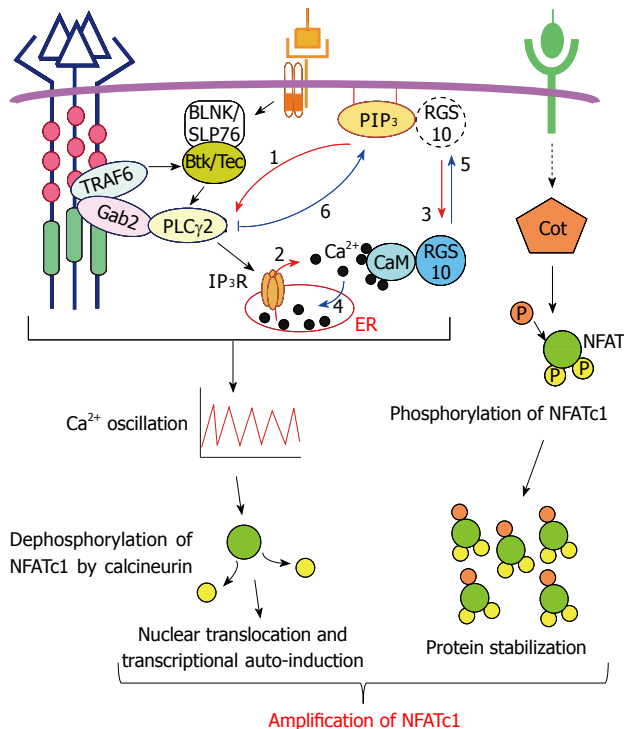


Figure 3 Amplifying phase. Both Ca^{2+} oscillation-dependent and -independent nuclear factor of activated T-cells cytoplasmic 1 (NFATc1) amplification are induced. Highly conserved domain in receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B (RANK)-mediated RANK signaling and immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation motif (ITAM) signaling lead to continuous phospholipase C (PLC) γ 2 activation. Regulator of G-protein signaling 10 (RGS10) determines the Ca^{2+} oscillation pattern through control of PLC γ 2 by competitive binding of Ca^{2+} /calmodulin and phosphatidylinositol 3, 4, 5-trisphosphate (PIP $_3$). Sustained Ca^{2+} oscillation contributes to NFATc1 amplification mediated by transcriptional auto-induction. In the Ca^{2+} oscillation-independent pathway, Cot kinase enhances NFATc1 stabilization through direct phosphorylation and contributes to its accumulation. ER: Endoplasmic reticulum; BLNK: B cell linker protein; SLP76: Src homology 2 domain-containing leukocyte protein of 76 kD; TRAF6: Tumor necrosis factor receptor-associated factor 6; Gab2: Grb-2-associated binder-2; IP $_3$ R: IP $_3$ receptor; CaM: Calmodulin; Btk: Bruton's tyrosine kinase.

auto-ubiquitination is necessary for the signal transduction to activate I κ B kinase and NF- κ B during osteoclast differentiation^[24]. Mutational analysis of PLC γ 2 revealed that catalytic activity of PLC γ 2 is dispensable at the triggering phase but necessary for the amplifying phase of RANK signaling^[25] (see below). These adaptor proteins activate diverse signaling molecules, phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase, Akt kinase, and MAPKs including c-Jun N-terminal kinase, p38, and extracellular-regulated kinase, leading to activation of the dimeric transcription factors NF- κ B and AP-1^[20,25,26]. Production of reactive oxygen species *via* a RANKL-TRAF6-Rac1-nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate oxidase-dependent pathway is also required for MAPK activation and osteoclastogenesis^[27]. In osteoclast lineage cells, NF- κ B and AP-1 are composed of two molecules among p65, RelB, p50 and p52 for NF- κ B, and c-Fos (also Fra-1, Fra-2 or FosB) and c-Jun (also JunB or JunD) for AP-1. Double knockout mice lacking both p50 and p52 and single knockout mice lacking c-Fos lack osteoclasts and exhibit

severe osteopetrosis^[28-32]. Mice overexpressing dominant negative c-Jun also develop osteopetrosis^[33]. These studies demonstrate the importance of NF- κ B and AP-1 activation by RANK signaling in osteoclast differentiation.

TRANSITION TO THE AMPLIFYING PHASE

The transition from triggering to amplifying phase requires induction of *Nfatc1* transcription, which allows cooperation with signaling downstream of immune receptors. NFAT was first identified in nuclear extracts of activated T-cells as a transcription factor that binds to the interleukin-2 (IL-2) promoter^[34]. NFAT regulates not only differentiation and activation of immune cells but also the development of tissues such as skeletal muscle, cardiac valve, and bone^[35]. Since the promoter of the osteoclast-specific tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase (*TRAP*) gene carries an evolutionarily conserved AP-1/NFAT binding element similar to the cooperative AP-1/NFAT binding site in the IL-2 promoter, it was hypothesized that c-Fos/AP-1 is required for NFAT function in osteoclasts^[36]. It was demonstrated that *Nfatc1* itself is a major c-Fos target gene during osteoclast differentiation^[37-39]. In cells lacking c-Fos, NF- κ B activity is unexpectedly elevated^[40], supporting the idea that *Fos* and *Nfatc1* induction is downstream of NF- κ B p50 and p52 activation in RANK signaling^[41]. It is likely that NF- κ B, c-Fos/AP-1 and NFATc2 mediate basal expression of *Nfatc1* in preparation for the amplification phase^[42].

In concert with RANK signaling, immunoglobulin-like receptors such as osteoclast-associated receptor (OSCAR) and the triggering receptor expressed in myeloid cells (TREM)-2 transduce *Nfatc1* induction signals^[43,44]. Both are associated with adaptor proteins containing the immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation motif (ITAM), such as DNAX-activation protein 12 or the Fc receptor common γ subunit^[45]. After ITAM tyrosine phosphorylation, a complex containing the tyrosine kinases Bruton's tyrosine kinase and Tec and the adaptor molecules B cell linker protein and Src homology 2 domain-containing leukocyte protein of 76 kD may facilitate cooperation between RANK and ITAM signaling (Figure 3)^[46]. This combined signaling selectively leads to PLC γ phosphorylation, suggesting that integration of RANK and ITAM signaling is required for efficient activation of PLC γ during the amplifying phase. Furthermore, following elevation of intracellular Ca^{2+} levels, prior to the beginning of Ca^{2+} oscillation, *Nfatc1* transcription is enhanced by Ca^{2+} /calmodulin-dependent kinase IV, which phosphorylates the cAMP response element-binding protein, inducing *Fos* expression^[47].

AMPLIFYING PHASE

During the amplifying phase starting approximately 24 h after RANKL stimulation in osteoclastogenic cultures,

intracellular Ca^{2+} levels oscillate, and activate the Ca^{2+} /calmodulin-dependent phosphatase calcineurin, which dephosphorylates NFATc1 and induces its nuclear translocation. On the HCR of the RANK C-terminal tail, PLC γ 2 forms a complex with the TRAF6 and Gab2 adapter proteins in a stimulation-dependent manner^[20]. An HCR deletion mutant of CD40/RANK chimeric receptor does not alter NF- κ B and MAPK activation in the triggering phase but abolishes Ca^{2+} oscillation, indicating that HCR-mediated signaling is indispensable for continuous PLC γ 2 activation.

Both HCR-dependent RANK signaling and ITAM signaling lead to long-term induction of PLC γ 2 catalytic activity. PLC γ 2 increases intracellular Ca^{2+} levels by producing inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP_3). Since Ca^{2+} oscillation during osteoclast differentiation is abolished in IP_3 receptor (IP_3R) knockout cells, Ca^{2+} release from endoplasmic reticulum (ER) *via* IP_3Rs is required to generate Ca^{2+} oscillation^[48]. The PLC γ family consists of PLC γ 1, which is widely distributed, and PLC γ 2, which is primarily limited to hematopoietic cells^[49]. PLC γ 2 null mice exhibit an osteopetrotic phenotype^[25], indicating that PLC γ 2, independent of PLC γ 1, is required for osteoclastogenesis.

Intracellular Ca^{2+} levels (approximately 100 nmol/L) are 20 000-fold lower than outside the cell (approximately 2 mmol/L)^[50]. Ca^{2+} oscillation in osteoclasts is tightly controlled by the regulator of G-protein signaling 10 (RGS10)^[51]. RGS10 is competitively bound by phosphatidylinositol 3, 4, 5-trisphosphate (PIP_3) and Ca^{2+} /calmodulin, and intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration shifts the balance between RGS10- PIP_3 and RGS10- Ca^{2+} /calmodulin complexes^[51] (Figure 3). PIP_3 is required for membrane localization and subsequent activation of PLC γ 2. As the first peak formation of Ca^{2+} oscillation, PLC γ 2 activation induces transient release of Ca^{2+} from the ER, elevating intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration (Figure 3, arrows 1 and 2). RGS10 forms a complex with the Ca^{2+} /calmodulin complex and increases levels of free PIP_3 , further activating PLC γ 2 until the intracellular Ca^{2+} level reaches its peak (Figure 3, arrow 1 and 3). Empty ER Ca^{2+} stores reload through smooth endoplasmic reticular Ca^{2+} ATPase, decreasing intracellular Ca^{2+} , increasing RGS10- PIP_3 , and reducing PLC γ 2 activity (Figure 3, arrows 4-6). A repeat of these processes may generate Ca^{2+} oscillation through oscillatory regulation of PLC γ 2 activation^[51]. RGS10 knockout mice exhibit severe osteopetrosis caused by a defect in osteoclasts *in vivo*, indicating that Ca^{2+} oscillation is a crucial mechanism underlying NFATc1 activation and amplification during osteoclast differentiation^[51].

NFATc1 is also activated by an osteoblast-induced Ca^{2+} oscillation-independent pathway. When osteoclast precursors are co-cultured with osteoblasts, osteoblasts increase NFATc1 levels in osteoclast precursors, and promote osteoclast differentiation even in the presence of the calcineurin inhibitor FK506. Furthermore, wild-type osteoblasts induce differentiation of osteoclast

precursors derived from IP_3R type 2 and type 3 double knockout mice without detectable RANKL-induced Ca^{2+} oscillation^[48]. Indeed, Cot (cancer osaka thyroid) serine/threonine kinase, also known as tumor progression locus 2, is activated by cell-cell interaction of osteoclasts with osteoblasts and promotes Ca^{2+} oscillation/calcineurin-independent osteoclastogenesis^[52]. Furthermore, Cot increases NFATc1 protein levels through phosphorylation-dependent protein stabilization thereby amplifying NFATc1 activity in the absence of Ca^{2+} oscillation. Cot likely phosphorylates residues that differ from those targeted by calcineurin-mediated dephosphorylation required for nuclear translocation. At present, the identity of osteoblast-derived molecules that activate Cot in osteoclasts is unknown, but Cot-mediated NFATc1 stabilization clearly contributes to osteoclastogenesis *in vivo*. Collectively, NFATc1 amplification is achieved by both upregulated expression and enhanced stability.

TARGETING PHASE

NFATc1 induction and amplification regulate mRNA levels of target genes driving osteoclast differentiation, fusion and function. While forced NFATc1 expression directs osteoclast differentiation, NFATc1-deficient embryonic stem cells fail to differentiate into osteoclasts following RANKL-stimulation^[23,42].

In osteoclast differentiation, the immunoglobulin-like receptor OSCAR, but not TREM-2, is an NFATc1 target gene^[53,54]. During differentiation, positive regulators of NFATc1 are enhanced while negative regulators are suppressed. The transcriptional repressor B-lymphocyte-induced maturation protein-1 (Blimp1) is induced by RANKL-stimulation and down-regulates three negative regulators: the v-maf musculoaponeurotic fibrosarcoma oncogene family, protein B; interferon regulatory factor-8; and B cell lymphoma 6. All of these proteins repress *Nfatc1* transcription^[55-58] (Figure 4). Evidence showing that Blimp1 is a direct NFATc1 target^[55] suggests that NFATc1 maintains expression of itself *via* NFATc1/Blimp1 signaling.

NFATc1 target genes encode proteins crucial for osteoclast cell-cell fusion such as a dendritic cell-specific transmembrane protein (DC-STAMP), vacuolar proton pump subunit Atp6v0d2 and the c-Src substrate Tks5 (tyrosine kinase substrate with five SH3 domains)^[59-62]. Tks5 appears to be required not only for fusion but for circumferential podosome (actin ring or sealing ring) formation. Following Tks5 knockdown in osteoclasts, multinucleation is abolished although mononuclear osteoclasts still express and amplify NFATc1 in the presence of M-CSF and RANKL^[62]. Furthermore, defects of c-Src knockout osteoclasts can be partially rescued by expression of a form of Tks5 carrying glutamate substitutions that mimic constitutive phosphorylation at c-Src phosphorylation target tyrosines^[62]. The c-Src-Tks5 axis illustrates an additional signaling pathway induced by

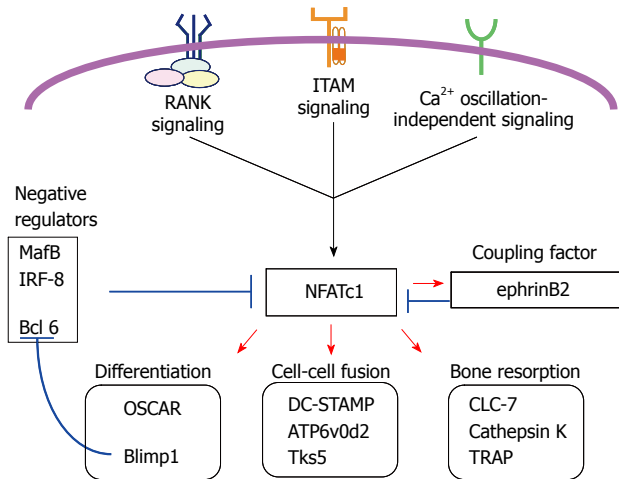


Figure 4 Targeting phase. Negative regulation of nuclear factor of activated T-cells cytoplasmic 1 (NFATc1) is indicated by blue lines and activation of its targets, shown in boxes, is indicated by red arrows. RANK: Receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B; ITAM: Immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation motif; OSCAR: Osteoclast-associated receptor; Blimp1: B-lymphocyte-induced maturation protein-1; DC-STAMP: Dendritic cell-specific transmembrane protein; TRAP: Tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase; IRF-8: Interferon regulatory factor-8; MafB: V-maf musculoaponeurotic fibrosarcoma oncogene family, protein B; Bcl6: B cell lymphoma 6; CLC: Chloride channel.

RANK signaling beyond NFATc1. In conjunction with ITAM-bearing proteins, c-Src also phosphorylates the tyrosine kinase Syk when integrin α v β 3 is activated by adhesion to bone matrix, in particular, vitronectin^[63,64]. In these c-Src-Syk signaling components, integrin β 3 and c-Src are NFATc1 target gene products^[65,66], suggesting that NFATc1 target genes include those critical for osteoclast-adhesion.

To resorb bone, osteoclasts secrete acid hydrogen chloride and various hydrolases. Several NFATc1 target genes encode proteins required for acidification and proteolysis, such as the CLC-7 chloride channel (*Clc7*)^[66], a late endosomal/lysosomal chloride channel localizing in ruffled borders, cathepsin K^[67], which degrades collagens, and TRAP^[23,39], which dephosphorylates the bone matrix phosphoproteins osteopontin and bone sialoprotein. Mice lacking *Clc7* or the V0-ATPase subunit α 3 show severe osteopetrosis reminiscent of osteoclast-rich osteopetrosis in humans^[68,69]. These mice show TRAP-positive osteoclasts with apparently normal NFATc1 amplification. Expression of the calcitonin receptor depends on NFATc1^[23,39,53,70], and calcitonin receptor signaling inhibits both osteoclast formation and function independently of transcriptional regulation by RANK signaling^[71].

Finally, NFATc1 induces transcription of ephrinB2^[72]. Eph receptors and ephrin ligands are increasingly recognized as important in bone biology^[73]. Reverse signaling into ephrinB2-expressing osteoclast lineage cells suppresses osteoclast differentiation by downregulating c-Fos and NFATc1, while forward signaling into receptor EphB4-expressing osteoblast lineage cells enhances osteoblastic differentiation and bone formation. There-

fore, ephrinB2 is considered as a coupling factor inducible by RANK signaling^[73].

In conclusion, RANK signaling appears to be a straightforward transcriptional cascade of “NF- κ B/c-Fos induces NFATc1 induces target genes”. Numerous signaling molecules including receptors, adaptors, kinases and lipases reinforce this cascade. Oscillation of intracellular Ca^{2+} levels drives the cascade, but a Ca^{2+} oscillation-independent mechanism also contributes to amplification of NFATc1 activity. RANK signaling stimulates the cell-cell fusion machinery (specifically, DC-STAMP and Tks5) and activates proteins located on or secreted from the osteoclast ruffled border (CLC-7 and cathepsin K, respectively). Numerous questions remain unanswered about RANK signaling, such as whether and how RANK signaling is connected to microRNA control^[74-77] or to long noncoding RNAs (such as competing endogenous RNAs, or ceRNAs)^[78]. Components of the RANK signaling pathway will continue to provide not only topics for investigation but novel therapeutic targets to prevent osteoporosis and other bone loss diseases.

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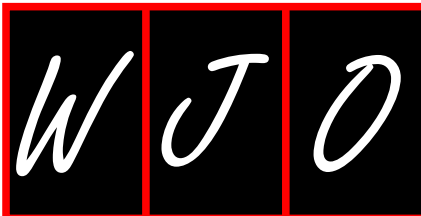
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New roles of osteoblasts involved in osteoclast differentiation

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Abstract

Bone-resorbing osteoclasts are formed from a monocyte/macrophage lineage under the strict control of bone-forming osteoblasts. So far, macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF), receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B ligand (RANKL), and osteoprotegerin (OPG) produced by osteoblasts play major roles in the regulation of osteoclast differentiation. Recent studies have shown that osteoblasts regulate osteoclastogenesis through several mechanisms independent of M-CSF, RANKL, and OPG production. Identification of osteoclast-committed precursors *in vivo* demonstrated that osteoblasts are involved in the distribution of osteoclast precursors in bone. Interleukin 34 (IL-34), a novel ligand for c-Fms, plays a pivotal role in maintaining the splenic reservoir of osteoclast-committed precursors in M-CSF deficient mice. IL-34 is also able to act as a substitute for osteoblast-producing M-CSF in osteoclastogenesis. Wnt5a, produced by osteoblasts, enhances osteoclast differentiation by upregulating RANK expression through activation of the non-canonical Wnt pathway. Semaphorin 3A produced by osteoblasts inhibits RANKL-induced osteoclast differentiation through the suppression of immunoreceptor

tyrosine-based activation motif signals. Thus, recent findings show that osteoclast differentiation is tightly regulated by osteoblasts through several different mechanisms. These newly identified molecules are expected to be promising targets of therapeutic agents in bone-related diseases.

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Key words: Osteoclast; Osteoblast; Receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B ligand; Wnt5a; Semaphorin 3A; Interleukin 34

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INTRODUCTION

Bone is continuously destroyed and reformed in vertebrates to maintain bone volume and calcium homeostasis. Osteoblasts and osteoclasts are specialized cells responsible for bone formation and bone resorption, respectively. Osteoblasts produce bone matrix proteins and take charge of mineralization of the tissue. Osteoclasts are multinucleated cells responsible for bone resorption. It has been well established that osteoclasts are formed from monocyte/macrophage lineage precursors under the strict regulation of osteoblasts, osteocytes, and bone marrow stromal cells (referred to as "osteoblasts" in this review).

Osteoblasts express two cytokines essential for osteoclast differentiation, macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF) and receptor activator of nuclear factor-

κ B ligand (RANKL)^[1,2] (Figure 1). Experiments using an osteopetrotic *op/op* mouse model have established that the osteoblast product M-CSF is crucial for osteoclast differentiation^[3]. The *M-CSF* gene in *op/op* mice cannot code functionally active M-CSF protein^[4]. Administration of recombinant M-CSF to *op/op* mice restores impaired bone resorption^[5]. RANKL is a member of the tumor necrosis factor (TNF) family (TNF superfamily member 11)^[6,7]. The expression of RANKL by osteoblasts is inducible. Osteoblasts express RANKL as a membrane-associated form in response to stimuli of bone resorption-stimulating factors such as $1\alpha,25$ -dihydroxyvitamin D₃ [$1\alpha,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$], parathyroid hormone, prostaglandin E₂, and interleukin (IL)-11^[2]. Osteoclast precursors express c-Fms (M-CSF receptor) and RANK (RANKL receptor) and differentiate into osteoclasts in the presence of M-CSF and RANKL. RANKL stimulation strongly induced the expression of nuclear factor of activated T-cells, cytoplasmic 1 (NFATc1), a pivotal transcription factor for osteoclast development, in osteoclast precursors^[8]. Osteoblasts also produce osteoprotegerin (OPG, TNFRSF11B), a soluble decoy receptor for RANKL^[9,10]. OPG inhibits osteoclastogenesis by blocking the RANKL-RANK interaction^[1,2]. Both RANKL-deficient mice^[11] and RANK-deficient mice^[12] develop severe osteopetrosis with no osteoclasts in bone. In contrast, OPG-deficient mice^[13,14] exhibit severe trabecular and cortical bone porosity with enhanced osteoclastic bone resorption.

Discovery of the RANKL-RANK signal in osteoclastogenesis has clarified the cause of some bone diseases in humans. Loss-of-function mutations in the *OPG* gene cause Juvenile Paget's disease and idiopathic hyperphosphatasia^[15-17]. Gain-of-function mutations in the *RANK* gene induce familial expansile osteolysis, familial Paget's disease of bone, and expansile skeletal hyperphosphatasia^[18]. Osteopetrosis due to few osteoclasts is caused by loss-of-function mutations in the *RANK* gene^[19] and *RANKL* gene^[20]. The phenotypes of these bone diseases in humans support the concept that RANKL expressed by osteoblasts stimulates osteoclast differentiation of precursors through the receptor RANK. Thus, the RANKL-RANK axis is the central pathway for osteoclastogenesis. Recent *in vivo* studies have also shown that osteoblasts regulate osteoclastogenesis through several mechanisms independent of M-CSF, RANKL and OPG production.

In this review article, we focus on the new roles of osteoblasts in osteoclast differentiation. First, osteoblasts are involved in the distribution of osteoclast precursors in bone. Second, osteoblast-producing M-CSF can be replaced by IL-34 in osteoclastogenesis. Third, osteoblasts produce Wnt5a, which enhances osteoclast differentiation through the upregulation of RANK expression. Lastly, osteoblast-producing semaphorins regulate osteoclast formation in the presence of RANKL signaling. Overall, these findings remind us of the importance of osteoblasts in osteoclast development.

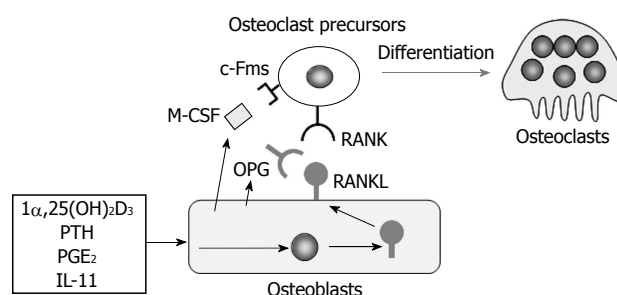


Figure 1 Regulation of osteoclast differentiation by osteoblasts through macrophage colony-stimulating factor, receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B ligand, and osteoprotegerin production. Osteoblasts express two cytokines essential for osteoclast differentiation, macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF) and receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B ligand (RANKL). Osteoblasts constitutively express M-CSF. On the other hand, osteoblasts express RANKL as a membrane-associated form in response to bone resorption-stimulating factors such as $1\alpha,25$ -dihydroxyvitamin D₃ [$1\alpha,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$], parathyroid hormone (PTH), prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂), and interleukin 11 (IL-11). Osteoclast precursors express c-Fms (M-CSF receptor) and RANK (RANKL receptor) and differentiate into osteoclasts in the presence of M-CSF and RANKL. Osteoblasts also produce osteoprotegerin (OPG), which inhibits osteoclastogenesis by blocking the RANKL-RANK interaction.

CHARACTERISTICS OF OSTEOCLAST PRECURSORS *IN VIVO*

Recent attempts to identify osteoclast precursors *in vivo* established a new role of osteoblasts in osteoclast differentiation. Mizoguchi *et al.*^[21] showed that cells expressing both RANK and c-Fms detected near osteoblasts in bone directly differentiated into osteoclasts without cell cycle progression (Figure 2). To clarify the relationship between differentiation and proliferation of osteoclast precursors, BrdU and M-CSF were simultaneously administered to *op/op* mice. M-CSF administration induced many osteoclasts in bone in *op/op* mice. Most of the nuclei of osteoclasts induced by M-CSF were BrdU negative. Similarly, when BrdU and RANKL were administered to RANKL-deficient mice, osteoclasts were also induced in bone. Most nuclei of RANKL-induced osteoclasts were BrdU negative. These results suggest that both M-CSF and RANKL induce the differentiation of osteoclast precursors into osteoclasts without cell cycle progression. In these experiments, M-CSF and RANKL were intraperitoneally injected into *op/op* mice and RANKL-deficient mice, respectively. Nevertheless, osteoclasts were observed only on the surface of calcified bone, not in the surrounding soft tissues. These results also suggest that neither RANKL nor M-CSF expressed by osteoblasts is involved in the determination of the correct site for osteoclast formation. Using immunohistochemistry, RANK and c-Fms double-positive cells as osteoclast precursors were detected along the bone surface in RANKL-deficient mice. RANK and c-Fms double-positive cells were always observed near osteoblasts, did not express Ki67, a marker of cell proliferation, and possessed a relatively long life span. Therefore, RANK and c-Fms double-positive cells were named "cell

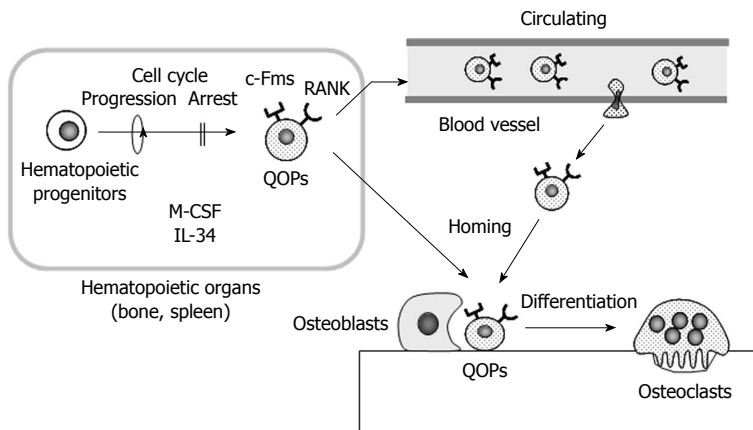


Figure 2 *In vivo* dynamics of osteoclast precursors. Cells expressing both receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B (RANK) and c-Fms are cell cycle-arrested quiescent osteoclast precursors (QOPs) *in vivo*. QOPs are detected in hematopoietic organs such as the spleen and bone. macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF) and/or interleukin 34 (IL-34) appear to be involved in the differentiation of hematopoietic progenitor cells into QOPs. Some QOPs circulate to find bone. Osteoblasts play a role in the homing of QOPs to bone. QOPs in bone differentiate into osteoclasts without cell cycle progression in response to M-CSF/IL-34 and RANK ligand.

cycle-arrested quiescent osteoclast progenitors (QOPs)" (Figure 2). QOPs were also isolated from bone marrow and peripheral blood^[22]. Bone marrow-derived QOPs failed to express macrophage-associated markers such as F4/80 and CD11b. Bone marrow-derived QOPs showed no phagocytic activity and did not proliferate in response to M-CSF. They differentiated into osteoclasts, but not into dendritic cells. Therefore, it has been concluded that QOPs are committed osteoclast precursors^[22].

ROLE OF IL-34 IN OSTEOCLASTOGENESIS

Recently, Lin *et al.*^[23] discovered IL-34 as a new ligand for c-Fms. The amino acid sequence of IL-34 was quite different from that of M-CSF, but IL-34 promoted macrophage colony formation similar to M-CSF. Chihara *et al.*^[24] reported that M-CSF and IL-34 used different signaling to induce the expression of several chemokines and suggested that they differentially regulated macrophage function. However, IL-34 as well as M-CSF, in combination with RANKL, induced osteoclast formation in mouse and human cell culture systems^[25]. IL-34 was specifically expressed in splenic tissues, predominantly in the red pulp region. Recently, Nakamichi *et al.*^[26] showed that RANK and c-Fms double-positive QOPs did not exist in bone, but existed in the spleen of op/op mice (Figure 2). IL-34 was highly expressed in vascular endothelial cells in the spleen. Vascular endothelial cells in bone also expressed IL-34, but its expression level was much lower than that in the spleen, suggesting a role of IL-34 in the splenic maintenance of QOPs. Indeed, removal of the spleen (splenectomy) completely blocked M-CSF-induced osteoclast formation in op/op mice. Osteoclasts appeared in aged op/op mice with up-regulation of IL-34 expression in the spleen and bone. Splenectomy also blocked the age-associated appearance of osteoclasts^[26]. These results suggest that IL-34 plays a pivotal role in maintaining the splenic reservoir of QOPs, which are transferred to bone in response to M-CSF administration in op/op mice (Figure 2). Recently, sphingosine-1-phosphate, a lipid mediator regulating immune cell trafficking, was shown to regulate the migration of osteoclast precursors^[22,27]. Osteoblasts appear to help homing of QOPs to bone. Thus, osteoblasts

determine the distribution of QOPs, which decide the correct sites of osteoclast formation.

WNT5A-RECEPTOR TYROSINE KINASE-LIKE ORPHAN RECEPTOR 2 SIGNALING AND OSTEOCLASTOGENESIS

Immunohistochemical analysis revealed that RANK expression in osteoclast precursors was much stronger than that in bone marrow and the spleen^[21,28]. Recently, Maeda *et al.*^[29] reported that Wnt5a produced by osteoblasts promoted RANK expression in osteoclast precursors (Figure 3).

Wnt binds to two distinct receptor complexes: a complex of Frizzled and low density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 5/6 (LRP5/6) and another complex of Frizzled and receptor tyrosine kinase-like orphan receptors (Rors)^[30]. The binding of Wnts to these Wnt receptors activates two classes of signaling pathways: a β -catenin-dependent (canonical) pathway and β -catenin-independent (non-canonical) pathway. The importance of the canonical pathway in bone metabolism has been emphasized by the identification of a link between bone mass and mutations in the *LRP5* gene. Loss-of-function mutations in *LRP5* reduced the number of osteoblasts and caused osteoporosis^[31]. Glass *et al.*^[32] developed mice expressing a stabilized form of β -catenin in osteoblasts (β -catenin mutant mice) and reported that β -catenin mutant mice developed severe osteopetrosis due to the up-regulation of OPG expression. Thus, Wnt/ β -catenin signaling is crucial in osteoblastogenesis and osteoclastogenesis. However, the role of the non-canonical Wnt pathway in bone resorption remains largely unknown.

Maeda *et al.*^[29] showed that Wnt5a-receptor tyrosine kinase-like orphan receptor 2 (Ror2) signaling between osteoblasts and osteoclast precursors enhanced osteoclastogenesis. Ror2-deficient mice exhibited impaired osteoclastogenesis. A deficiency in Wnt5a, a ligand of Ror2, caused a similar defect in mice. Osteoblasts expressed Wnt5a, while osteoclast precursors expressed Ror2, a co-receptor of Wnt5a. Wnt5a enhanced RANK expression in osteoclast precursors through co-receptor Ror2 signaling. RANK promoter-driven luciferase activi-

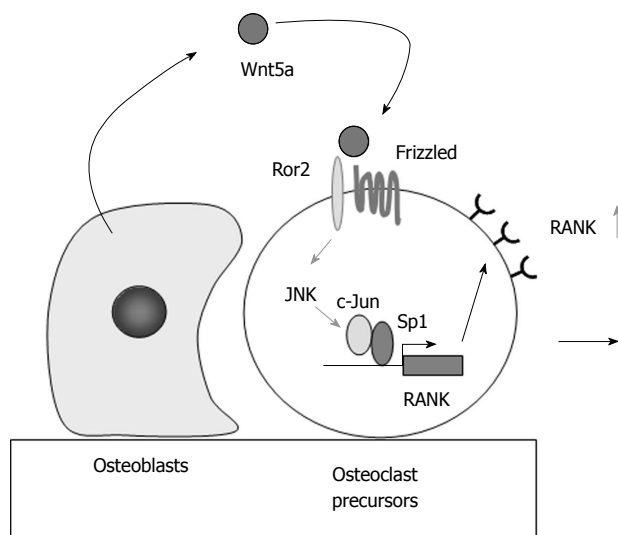


Figure 3 Role of Wnt5a-receptor tyrosine kinase-like orphan receptor 2 signaling in osteoclast precursors. Receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B (RANK) expression in osteoclast precursors is much stronger than that in bone marrow and the spleen. Osteoblasts express Wnt5a, while osteoclast precursors express receptor tyrosine kinase-like orphan receptor 2 (Ror2), a co-receptor of Wnt5a. Wnt5a produced by osteoblasts enhances RANK expression in osteoclast precursors through Ror2. Wnt5a up-regulates RANK expression through the recruitment of c-Jun to Sp1 sites of the RANK promoter. The up-regulation of RANK expression in osteoclast precursors increases their sensitivity to RANK ligand. JNK: c-Jun N-terminal kinase.

ty was upregulated by Wnt5a-Ror2 signaling *via* the c-Jun N-terminal kinase pathway (Figure 3). Wnt5a-induced recruitment of c-Jun to Sp1 sites up-regulated RANK expression in osteoclast precursors^[29].

As described above, QOPs detected on bone surfaces strongly express RANK. Wnt5a secreted by osteoblasts appears to be involved in the up-regulation of RANK expression in QOPs through Ror2. The up-regulation of RANK by Wnt5a-Ror2 signals in osteoclast precursors must lower the threshold for RANKL-induced osteoclastogenesis. Atkins *et al.*^[33] reported that human peripheral blood monocytes expressing high surface levels of RANK were capable of responding rapidly to RANKL stimulation. Under physiological conditions, the up-regulation of RANK expression in osteoclast precursors must be an important requirement for RANKL-induced osteoclastogenesis.

IMMUNORECEPTOR TYROSINE-BASED ACTIVATION MOTIF SIGNALS AND SEMAPHORIN 3A

Koga *et al.*^[34] showed for the first time that osteoclastogenesis induced by RANKL also requires co-stimulatory receptor signaling through adaptors containing immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation motifs (ITAMs), such as Fc receptor common γ (Fc γ) and DNAX-activating protein of 12 kDa (DAP12). RANK and ITAM signaling cooperated to induce NFATc1, the master transcription factor for osteoclastogenesis. Fc γ and

DAP12 are adaptor molecules that associate with immunoglobulin-like receptors such as osteoclast-associated receptor (OSCAR) and triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells 2 (TREM-2). OSCAR uses Fc γ , while TREM-2 associates with DAP12. Koga *et al.*^[34] showed that deficiencies in both Fc γ and DAP12 caused osteopetrotic phenotypes in mice. Because this pathway is crucial for the robust induction of NFATc1 that leads to osteoclastogenesis, these signals are called co-stimulatory signals for RANK in osteoclastogenesis. Recently, Barrow *et al.*^[35] reported that OSCAR bound to a specific motif of collagen and stimulated osteoclastogenesis. These series of experiments have established a new research area called "osteimmunology"^[36].

Recently, Hayashi *et al.*^[37] reported that semaphorin 3A (Sema3A) produced by osteoblasts suppressed osteoclast differentiation (Figure 4). Sema3A, a secreted axon guidance molecule, is highly expressed by osteoblasts. Neuropilin-1 (Nrp1), the receptor of Sema3A, is expressed by osteoclast precursors. Nrp1 usually forms a receptor complex with Plexin-A1 in bone marrow macrophages of osteoclast precursors. Using Plexin-A1-deficient mice, Takegahara *et al.*^[38] previously showed that Plexin-A1 interacted with TREM-2 and DAP12 to form the receptor complex for Sema6D, a transmembrane semaphorin. Sema6D stimulated osteoclast differentiation through the receptor complex Plexin-A1/TREM-2/DAP12 in osteoclast precursors through ITAM signaling (Figure 4). These findings suggest that the Sema3A-Nrp1 axis inhibits osteoclast differentiation by sequestering Plexin-A1 from TREM-2 so as to suppress ITAM signaling. RANK-mediated signals rapidly down-regulated Nrp1 expression in osteoclast precursors. In the absence of Nrp1, Plexin-A1 easily forms the receptor complex for Sema6D or Sema6C. Thus, Sema3A produced by osteoblasts inhibits osteoclast differentiation (Figure 4). Hayashi *et al.*^[37] also showed that Sema3A and Nrp1 binding stimulated osteoblast differentiation through the canonical Wnt/ β -catenin pathway. Administration of Sema3A to mice increased bone volume and expedited bone regeneration through the suppression of bone resorption and enhancement of bone formation^[37]. These results suggest that Sema3A is a new therapeutic agent in bone and joint diseases.

THERAPEUTIC TARGETS IN THE OSTEOBLAST-OSTEOCLAST INTERACTION

Secreted OPG acts as a decoy receptor of RANKL to compete with RANK on the surface of osteoclast lineage cells. OPG is expressed in osteoblasts and inhibits both osteoclast formation and function. Therefore, biological agents such as an antibody against RANKL have been developed and successfully suppress bone loss. Denosumab, an anti-RANKL antibody, has achieved the most success in the treatment of osteoporosis, tumor-related bone disorders, and arthritis^[39-41].

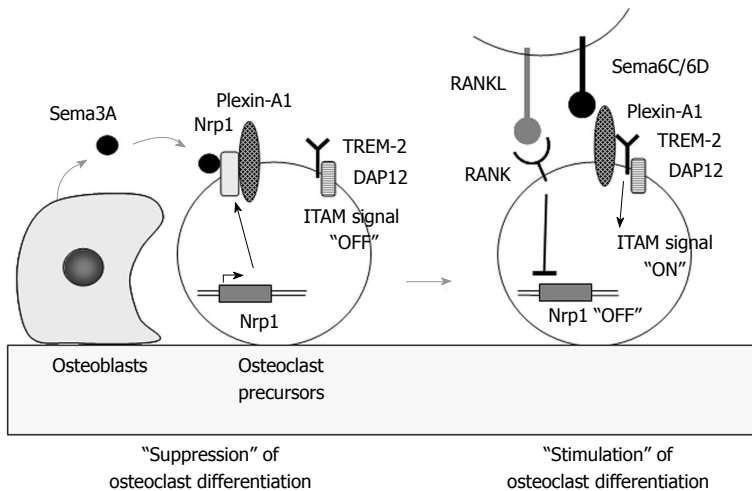


Figure 4 Role of semaphorin 3A in osteoclast differentiation. Semaphorin 3A (Sema3A) produced by osteoblasts usually binds to the receptor complex of Nrp1 and Plexin-A1 in osteoclast precursors. Sema3A inhibits differentiation of osteoclast precursors into osteoclasts through the suppression of immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation motifs (ITAM) signaling. Receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B ligand (RANKL) stimulation rapidly suppresses Nrp1 expression in osteoclast precursors. Plexin-A1 then makes a complex with triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells 2 (TREM-2) and DNAX-activating protein of 12 kDa (DAP12). Sema6D or 6C, transmembrane semaphorins, binds to the receptor complex and stimulates ITAM signals in osteoclast precursors to enhance RANK signaling.

Expression levels of Wnt5a and frizzled 5 are higher in the synovial tissue of rheumatoid arthritis (RA) patients than in those of osteoarthritis^[42]. Wnt5a stimulated the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-6 and IL-8 in synoviocytes. Treatment of RA patient-derived synoviocytes with antibodies against frizzled 5, one of the receptors for Wnt5a, diminished the production of RANKL^[43]. These findings suggest that Wnt5a promotes pro-inflammatory cytokine production and enhances bone resorption through the production of RANKL in the pathogenesis of RA. In addition, Ror2, another receptor for Wnt5a, is expressed in osteoclast progenitors and co-stimulated non-canonical Wnt signaling^[29]. Wnt5a enhanced osteoclast formation in mouse bone marrow macrophage cultures. Administration of glutathione-S-transferase-fused soluble Ror2 restored bone destruction caused by collagen-induced arthritis in mice^[29]. These results suggest that Wnt5a is involved in bone destruction in chronic inflammatory diseases. Molecules involved in non-canonical Wnt signaling may be therapeutic targets for the treatment of patients suffering from RA and periodontitis.

The finding of Sema3A has invented a new concept that osteoblasts themselves express a bifunctional factor that induces osteoblastogenesis and inhibits osteoclastogenesis. Sema3A may inhibit bone loss without affecting the coupling system between osteoblasts and osteoclasts. Takayanagi and his colleagues^[37] have demonstrated that administration of recombinant Sema3A increases bone volume and expedites bone regeneration in osteoporotic mice established by ovariectomy. Thus, Sema3A is a promising anabolic factor possessing an inhibitory activity on bone resorption.

In conclusion, the discovery of the RANKL-RANK interaction opened a new area in bone biology focusing on the molecular mechanisms of osteoclast development and function. This series of experiments concerning the RANKL-RANK interaction have established the concept that osteoblasts, through the expression of RANKL and M-CSF, tightly regulate the development of osteoclasts. Recent *in vivo* studies also indicate other aspects of osteoblasts in the regulation of osteoclasto-

genesis. Osteoblasts are involved in the decision of the place for osteoclast formation through taking care of osteoclast precursors. Osteoblasts produce some ligands for immunoglobulin-like receptors to induce ITAM-mediated co-stimulatory signals. Osteoblasts also produce Wnt5a, which stimulates RANK expression in osteoclast precursors through co-receptor Ror2 signaling. The up-regulation of RANK by Wnt5a-Ror2 signals in osteoclast precursors must enhance the sensitivity of QOPs to RANKL. Osteoblasts also produce Sema3A, which inhibits ITAM signals in osteoclast precursors. These findings provide a new concept that osteoblasts play several roles as an omnipotent conductor in osteoclastogenesis. In conformity with the new concept, we must come back to the osteoblast, which may be a promising target for therapeutic agents in the regulation of bone resorption in the near future.

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Management of postoperative spinal infections

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instrumentation. A multidisciplinary approach to SSIs is important. It is useful to involve an infectious disease specialist and use minimum serial bactericidal titers to enhance the effectiveness of antibiotic therapy. A plastic surgeon should also be involved in those cases of severe infection that require repeat debridement and delayed closure.

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Abstract

Postoperative surgical site infection (SSI) is a common complication after posterior lumbar spine surgery. This review details an approach to the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of SSIs. Factors contributing to the development of a SSI can be split into three categories: (1) microbiological factors; (2) factors related to the patient and their spinal pathology; and (3) factors relating to the surgical procedure. SSI is most commonly caused by *Staphylococcus aureus*. The virulence of the organism causing the SSI can affect its presentation. SSI can be prevented by careful adherence to aseptic technique, prophylactic antibiotics, avoiding myonecrosis by frequently releasing retractors and preoperatively optimizing modifiable patient factors. Increasing pain is commonly the only symptom of a SSI and can lead to a delay in diagnosis. C-reactive protein and magnetic resonance imaging can help establish the diagnosis. Treatment requires acquiring intra-operative cultures to guide future antibiotic therapy and surgical debridement of all necrotic tissue. A SSI can usually be adequately treated without removing spinal

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INTRODUCTION

Postoperative surgical site infection (SSI) in the lumbar spine is a relatively frequent complication of invasive spine procedures. The management of a SSI can be costly due to its potentially devastating consequences, including lost productivity during prolonged treatment and recovery, increased morbidity, the need for subsequent reoperation and even death. With the rise in prevalence of antibiotic-resistant organisms such as methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), the prevention and treatment of SSIs has become even more difficult, particularly in those patients with spinal instrumentation.

This review describes the factors that contribute to the development of a SSI and strategies for their prevention, the range of presentations of SSIs, and the challenges that arise during diagnosis and treatment.

PATHOGENESIS AND PREVENTION

Although multifactorial, the various risk factors that contribute to the development of a SSI can be broadly divided into three categories: (1) microbiological; (2) patient/host; and (3) procedure-related. Understanding the contribution of these risk factors to SSIs enhances measures aimed at the prevention of this common yet dreadful complication.

Microbiological factors

The most common organism causing a SSI is *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*), although other reported causative organisms include *Staphylococcus epidermidis* (*S. epidermidis*), *Enterococcus faecalis*, *Pseudomonas* spp., *Enterobacter cloacae*, and *Proteus mirabilis*^[1,2]. Trauma patients are more likely to present with infections due to gram-negative bacteria, which may result from hematogenous spread in the setting of urosepsis, frequently in patients with neurological injury related to their trauma^[3]. Recently, a consecutive series of 3218 patients undergoing posterior lumbar-instrumented arthrodesis was reviewed by Koutsoumbelis *et al*^[4]. In this series, 34% of SSIs demonstrated positive cultures for MRSA, indicating an increasing prevalence of this organism.

When addressing microbiological factors that contribute to SSIs, it is important to emphasize that meticulous adherence to aseptic technique is the key component of SSI prevention^[5]. One intervention that the bulk of available evidence has suggested may decrease the rate of SSI after spinal surgery is the use of prophylactic antibiotics^[6]. Antibiotic prophylaxis has brought the incidence of SSI following lumbar discectomy down to < 1%^[1,7-12]. In fact, one report by Transfeldt *et al*^[13] showed a decrease in the SSI rate from 7% to 3.6% following elective spinal arthrodesis with the use of routine antibiotic prophylaxis. When choosing an antibiotic, one with good efficacy against common strains of *S. aureus* and *S. epidermidis* should be used due to the higher frequency of infection with these bacteria. A first-generation cephalosporin such as cefazolin is popular, as it also quickly reaches peak serum concentrations and has a more benign side effect profile than other antibiotics. If a patient is at high risk for colonization with MRSA, we recommend combining vancomycin with cefazolin, as vancomycin alone has relatively low efficacy against non-methicillin resistant strains of *Staphylococcus* spp. Yet for those patients with allergies to penicillin or cephalosporins, vancomycin alone can be used. Risk factors for colonization with MRSA include antibiotic use within 3 mo before admission, hospitalization during the past 12 mo, diagnosis of skin or soft-tissue infection at admission, and human immunodeficiency virus infection^[14,15]. Bacterial antibiotic resistance continues to be an evolving

problem and these recommendations may need to be modified based on regional bacterial susceptibilities or if common pathogens in SSIs develop widespread resistance to these antibiotics in the future.

Patient/host factors

Several patient-related risk factors have been reported for SSIs including: diabetes mellitus, obesity, alcohol abuse, smoking, advanced age, corticosteroid use, malnutrition and hospitalization greater than one week^[16-40]. Koutsoumbelis *et al*^[4] also identified coronary artery disease, osteoporosis and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease as independent risk factors for SSIs. Although the exact mechanism by which these factors increase the likelihood of a SSI is not definitively known, it is clear that an inability of the host to heal the surgical wound and mount an inflammatory response sufficient to eradicate the infectious organisms leads to their growth. Obese patients have a large layer of adipose tissue with poor vascular perfusion that may become necrotic following wound closure, creating a nidus for infection^[2,16,20,24,41,42]. Smoking and diabetes both predispose patients to infection through microvascular damage and subsequent induction of tissue ischemia^[23,24,41-43]. Advancing age increases the likelihood of the presence of other comorbidities and is associated with immunosenescence, a phenomenon by which the immune response gradually wanes and becomes ineffective.

The pathology that patients present with also influences susceptibility to infection. Patients with traumatic spine injury, especially those with a concomitant neurological injury, have infection rates of up to 10%^[2-4,16-40,43-47]. Such patients may have additional injuries to the viscera or appendicular skeleton and usually have a greater degree of soft-tissue injury than patients undergoing elective surgery, which contributes to tissue hypoxia. Trauma patients are in a catabolic state and are more likely to have protein-calorie malnutrition. Prolonged stays in intensive care units lead to increased exposure to antibiotic resistant bacteria, which may increase the severity of a SSI and make treatment more difficult. Those factors that cause trauma patients to have a higher risk of developing SSIs also apply to patients with spinal neoplasms. In addition, these patients may also undergo systemic chemotherapy or radiation to the surgical site, leading to immunosuppression and delayed healing, and consequently increasing their susceptibility to infection.

Modifiable risk factors should be mitigated preoperatively to minimize the risk of postoperative infection. A nutrition consult should be obtained in patients after significant polytrauma, with catabolic processes due to neoplasm, or otherwise at significant risk for malnutrition. Blood sugar should be closely controlled in diabetic patients.

Procedure-related factors

The length and complexity of the index surgical procedure has a significant impact on the incidence of SSIs.

Although the risk of a SSI is < 1% for lumbar discectomy, the risk is higher following spinal arthrodesis, particularly with posterior instrumentation. This is likely due to increased dead space, longer duration of surgery and the potential for adherence of biofilm to metal implants. Following elective thoracic or lumbar spinal arthrodesis, reported rates of SSI from individual surgeons or institutions ranges from 1.9% to 4.4% in the last ten years^[41,42,48-50]. The most recent National Nosocomial Infections Surveillance report in 2004 cited the infection rate following spinal arthrodesis as 2.1%^[51]. The risk of SSI is less common after anterior spinal arthrodesis and is not greater for a combined anterior/posterior arthrodesis than for a posterior arthrodesis alone^[44], except for when it is a staged procedure done under separate anesthesia^[48]. Devices such as an operating microscope or headlamp and loupe magnification can create a source of bacterial shedding onto the surgical field, although increased contamination from these devices has not been shown to directly increase infection risk^[8,9,52-54]. There is also some limited evidence that minimally invasive surgery may decrease the risk of a SSI. A recent systematic review of single cohort studies comparing minimally invasive transforaminal interbody fusion (TLIF) to open TLIF showed a significant decrease in SSI rates from 4% to 0.6%^[55-57]. In addition, it has recently been shown that the risk of returning to the operating room (OR) to treat a SSI increases along with the surgical invasiveness index of the primary spine surgery^[58].

The study by Koutsoumbelis *et al*^[4] reported an overall incidence of SSIs of 2.6%. Their study identified four procedure related risk factors: (1) longer duration of surgery; (2) intra-operative blood loss/need for transfusion; (3) incidental durotomy; and (4) greater than ten people in the OR, specifically cautioning against extraneous nurses. Previous studies have also identified increased operative time, multilevel surgery, revision surgery, and an increased number of people in the OR as important predisposing factors for a SSI^[1,2,16,41,42,45,46,48,49]. However, this is the first time incidental durotomy has been identified as a risk factor for SSI^[47]. It is unclear how and to what extent incidental durotomy and an increased number of people in the OR increase the likelihood of a SSI. Both may increase the risk of contamination of the surgical field directly, or be indicative of a longer and/or more complex surgical procedure.

Modifications to procedural technique can assist in the prevention of a SSI. It is important to frequently release retractors to prevent myonecrosis, avoid excessive use of electrocautery during subperiosteal dissection of muscle, and debride necrotic appearing muscle at the conclusion of the case. This will prevent the retention of devitalized necrotic tissue, which is a potential nidus for infection. Although the use of this technique in the lumbar spine has not yet been investigated, the addition of vancomycin powder to posterior cervical incisions prior to closure has been shown to decrease SSIs^[59,60]. At our institution, patients undergoing multi-level decom-

pression and/or posterior spinal arthrodesis routinely receive antibiotic irrigation and closed suction drains postoperatively. Existing investigations have not shown that these interventions provide a significant benefit, although they have been underpowered to detect a change in infection rate, a rare event^[61-63]. Evidence for the use of vertical laminar flow systems to decrease the risk of SSI in the OR is limited^[64].

Recently, Dipaola *et al*^[65] created a predictive model to stratify patients with spinal SSIs into those needing single vs multiple irrigation and debridements. To develop the model, risk factors from all three categories (microbiological, patient/host and procedure related), were analyzed. It was found that positive MRSA cultures and concomitant infections at sites other than the spine or bacteremia were strong predictors of the need for multiple irrigation and debridements. In addition, diabetes, location of surgery in the posterior lumbar spine, presence of instrumentation and the use of bone graft material other than autogenous bone graft were also more likely to result in multiple irrigation and debridements. In the future, this predictive model may help stratify patients with SSIs, enabling surgeons to adapt their index surgery and SSI treatment strategies accordingly.

CLINICAL PRESENTATION AND DIAGNOSIS

The diagnosis of a SSI requires the synthesis of all available data, as there is no one pathognomonic sign or symptom to indicate its presence. The most common symptom of a SSI in the early postoperative period is increasing pain at the surgical site. Signs on exam include tenderness to palpation, peri-incisional erythema, induration and drainage. A particular concern is a patient with constitutional symptoms such as fever and chills, and in the case of a severe infection: hypotension, lethargy and confusion from sepsis. Such an infection is an absolute indication for emergent irrigation and debridement, but presents rarely. In the setting of a revision surgery, latent infection from organisms such as *Propionibacterium acnes* must always be considered and routine cultures sent, as the presentation may be limited to vague complaints of pain with evidence of hardware loosening or pseudoarthrosis.

Imaging

Except in the setting of latent infections or discitis, plain radiographs of the spine are not particularly useful to diagnose an early SSI. Patients with latent infections may have lucency around instrumentation, while those with discitis may show loss of disk height and end plate erosion. Along those lines, computed tomography (CT) can be used in these patients to assess bony destruction and implant loosening three-dimensionally. Bone scan is not useful in these patients, as it will commonly show increased uptake due to the reactive bone at the surgical

site post-operatively^[66]. Gadolinium enhanced magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is the best radiologic modality to use when a SSI is suspected. Progressive marrow signal changes, rim enhancing fluid collections, ascending or descending epidural collections and bony destruction are all indicative of infection on MRI.

When interpreting MRI results, confounding factors such as time from index procedure should be taken into account, as tissue edema from a non-infectious cause can be confused with an infectious process. Infection typically occurs between three days and three months postoperatively and takes several days to become established. In the immediate post-operative period (< 6 wk), it has been shown that diffuse, spotty, linear intervertebral disk enhancement, with two thin bands paralleling the endplates, as well as annular enhancement at the surgical curette site are common findings and do not indicate that an infection is developing. Type 1 changes of adjacent endplates, such as decreased signal intensity on T1 imaging and edema of the vertebral marrow adjacent to the disc, are also common post-operatively. Vertebral osteomyelitis is typically recognized by endplate changes similar to these Type 1 changes, and is described as a diffuse, irregular area of non-anatomic high signal intensity in the disc. Contrast is valuable in differentiating between the two entities, as osteomyelitis shows circumferential enhancement of the disc, while the postoperative state will only produce subtle linear areas of enhancement^[67,68].

Laboratory tests

Measurement of acute phase reactants is very useful when diagnosing an infection. C-reactive protein (CRP) has been shown to be more sensitive than erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) for detecting a SSI, as CRP levels only stay elevated for two weeks postoperatively before decreasing, while it may take up to six weeks for ESR levels to normalize. For this reason, time since index surgery is important when interpreting levels of acute phase reactants. Persistent elevation of CRP is an early indicator of an infection. In addition, preoperative measurement of CRP levels in high-risk patients with associated medical co-morbidities that may confound a postoperative CRP measurement can be useful as a baseline for detection of early infection postoperatively^[69]. White blood cell count, although routinely obtained, is an unreliable indicator of a SSI. It may remain normal despite a SSI or may be normally elevated in the post-operative period. When attempting to identify the causative organism in a SSI, intra-operative tissue cultures are the gold standard. Superficial cultures, from either the skin or drainage, are not reliable due to the likelihood of contamination by skin flora. Alternatively, some authors have proposed wound aspiration as a method for detecting early infections^[70].

The timing of a SSI can be classified as early, late or latent, and location is either limited to the disc, or superficial or deep to the fascia.

Posterior spinal infections

Superficial extrafascial SSIs, such as cellulitis or subcutaneous abscesses, are usually managed with IV antibiotics and/or surgical incision and drainage, which can often be performed at the bedside. Subfascial wound infections rarely respond to antibiotic treatment alone and require surgical debridement and removal of all necrotic tissue with closure over drains. Epidural abscesses can be managed medically when small. However, surgical drainage is typically required for large collections, small collections that progress despite antibiotic therapy, and decompression of the dural sac in the event of a neurological deficit. Paraspinal epidural abscesses, such as a psoas abscess, may respond to medical treatment when small. However, CT-guided aspiration and drainage is often required for large collections^[32]. A SSI in an immunocompromised host or with a particularly virulent organism may require multiple irrigation and debridements.

Patients with a SSI and spinal instrumentation present similarly to those without instrumentation, but pose unique challenges. The use of MRI in patients with instrumentation requires specialized protocols for suppression of metal artifact, such as the metal artifact reduction sequence described by Chang *et al*^[71], without which the MRI is of limited value^[72,73]. Thorough surgical debridement of all necrotic tissue and irrigation with large amounts of normal saline is crucial^[74]. Loose bone graft material should be removed if unincorporated, as dead bone will only serve as a nidus for continued infection. Loose pedicle screws and other non-essential spinal instrumentation should be removed, but essential instrumentation should be maintained if possible to avoid the creation of instability or the loss of deformity correction. Interbody and posterior segmental instrumentation can usually be left in place early on, as several authors have reported high success rates using this hardware-preservation strategy in the management of early SSIs^[1,4,75-78]. Patients with a late infection and solid fusion can have their instrumentation removed during surgical debridement to help clear the infection^[79]. Unfortunately, these patients are at an increased risk of developing a pseudoarthrosis and must be monitored with serial imaging studies^[80].

As multiple debridements are often necessary when treating a SSI, involving a plastic surgeon early on can facilitate optimal wound management^[81,82]. The debridement of soft tissue required to treat a SSI may result in a significant soft tissue defect. Such defects may be definitively closed with a muscle flap, or heal by secondary intention using a vacuum-dressing. We recommend that patients who require multiple surgical debridements have antibiotic impregnated polymethylmethacrylate (PMMA) beads placed into the wound during early debridements, permitting high local antibiotic concentrations despite

TREATMENT OF SSI

The timing and location of the infection dictates treat-

poor tissue vascularity. PMMA beads have been shown to decrease the development of infection after wound contamination, and have been documented to decrease both acute infection rates and osteomyelitis after compound limb fractures^[83-85].

Postprocedure discitis

With a reported incidence ranging from 0.2% to 2.75%, postprocedure discitis is an infrequent complication of spine surgery^[86-89]. A vague complaint of low back pain is commonly the only indication that a patient may be suffering from postprocedure discitis, which can lead to a delay in diagnosis. Especially concerning are those patients with a history of increasing low back pain following surgery. For these patients, bracing can be used for comfort. Image guided percutaneous aspiration of the disc to identify the causative organism and guide antibiotic treatment is very effective^[90]. Most of these cases can be treated with six weeks of IV antibiotics, usually resulting in spontaneous fusion of the disk space^[91-93].

Surgery is indicated in those patients whose infection has progressed on MRI despite appropriate antibiotic therapy, with deformity due to progressive destruction of the vertebral bodies, or with severe pain or neurological deficits due to progression of the infection into the spinal canal. For early postoperative discitis with minimal involvement of the vertebral bodies, percutaneous transforaminal endoscopic debridement is an effective and minimally invasive option that has been shown to bring immediate pain reduction and good clinical results^[94]. Otherwise, anterior only or posterior only approaches for debridement and fusion may be sufficient, depending on the location of the infection and the extent of debridement and resulting instability^[95-97]. Many surgeons prefer to use autologous bone graft as an interbody spacer to minimize the risk of recurrent infection. If performed, harvesting of the bone graft should be performed prior to opening the spinal wound to minimize the risk of graft donor site SSI. When performing a surgical discectomy, as much of the disk as possible should be removed to prevent recurrent infection, as the adult intervertebral disk is avascular.

Postoperative antibiotic therapy

Infectious disease specialists are routinely involved in the selection and monitoring of antibiotic therapy at our institution. For implanted spinal instrumentation, the protocol our institution uses is based on previous experience with SSIs following total joint replacement^[98-100]. Intravenous antibiotics are chosen based on the type of causative organism and its sensitivity profile. Dosage is monitored by the trough serum bactericidal titer (SBT), which indicates the amount of bactericidal activity in the patient's serum at the trough level between antibiotic doses. The trough SBT should be maintained at a minimum of 1:2^[101]. This ensures that at a trough level, there is at least twice the minimum concentration of antibiotic in the serum that is required for bactericidal activity. Us-

ing the SBT to monitor antibiotic therapy improves its efficacy, even in cases with resistant organisms. Antibiotics are continued for six weeks postoperatively, although recent recommendations advise eight weeks of total IV antibiotic therapy for patients with resistant organisms such as MRSA^[102]. Patients are subsequently maintained on oral suppressive antibiotics. The patient's health status, success in achieving spinal fusion and causative organism influence the choice between lifetime oral antibiotic suppression to prevent recurrent infection and removal of instrumentation.

CONCLUSION

SSI is a common but challenging complication, particularly after instrumented spinal arthrodesis. Using meticulous aseptic technique, intra-operative irrigation, prophylactic antibiotics and optimizing patient factors preoperatively are key to preventing a SSI. In patients who still develop an infection despite efforts at prevention, timely diagnosis and treatment is critical. Instrumentation can be retained while still successfully clearing an early infection, although following fusion, instrumentation can be removed if lifetime oral antibiotic suppression is either not indicated or undesirable. Involving a plastic surgeon early on in the process is useful for closure of complex soft tissue defects.

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Energy metabolism and the skeleton: Reciprocal interplay

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resorption parameters. Finally, amylin (AMY) acts as a hormone that alters physiological responses related to feeding, and plays a role as a growth factor in bone. *In vitro* AMY stimulates the proliferation of osteoblasts, and osteoclast differentiation. Here we summarize the evidence that links energy expenditure and bone remodelling, with particular regard to humans.

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Key words: Leptin; Osteocalcin; Serotonin; Amylin; Bone mass; Energy metabolism

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Abstract

The relation between bone remodelling and energy expenditure is an intriguing, and yet unexplained, challenge of the past ten years. In fact, it was only in the last few years that the skeleton was found to function, not only in its obvious roles of body support and protection, but also as an important part of the endocrine system. In particular, bone produces different hormones, like osteocalcin (OC), which influences energy expenditure in humans. The undercarboxylated form of OC has a reduced affinity for hydroxyapatite; hence it enters the systemic circulation more easily and exerts its metabolic functions for the proliferation of pancreatic β -cells, insulin secretion, sensitivity, and glucose tolerance. Leptin, a hormone synthesized by adipocytes, also has an effect on both bone remodelling and energy expenditure; in fact it inhibits appetite through hypothalamic influence and, in bone, stimulates osteoblastic differentiation and inhibits apoptosis. Leptin and serotonin exert opposite influences on bone mass accrual, but several features suggest that they might operate in the same pathway through a sympathetic tone. Serotonin, in fact, acts *via* two opposite pathways in controlling bone remodelling: central and peripheral. Serotonin product by the gastrointestinal tract (95%) augments bone formation by osteoblast, whereas brain-derived serotonin influences low bone mineral density and its decrease leads to an increase in bone

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INTRODUCTION

Every part of the human body communicates and cooperates with each other in a specific way, and with unique functions, and bone is not an exception. The skeleton was considered for a long time just a "stone" with movement function, a reserve of minerals, and the home of the hematopoietic system; only in recent years has the idea that it is in deep contact with other systems, such as the immune and cardiovascular systems, been developed^[1,2]. More recently, the skeleton's ability to regulate energy expenditure has been described, and bone is now also considered as an endocrine organ.

An important feature of hormonal regulation is that there are some cells, controlled by a feedback loop, that produce hormones; these hormones send specific signals to other cells and are responsible for several functions in the human organism. Bone is a target for different hormones that regulate both bone metabolism and re-

modeling through a central control. The fact that energy metabolism affects bone mass accrual by acting through a neuronal relay on one cell type, the osteoblasts, raised the testable hypothesis that, in turn, the osteoblasts might secrete one or more hormones affecting energy metabolism^[3].

The skeleton, in particular, secretes two hormones: fibroblast growth factor 23 and osteocalcin (OC); OC is an osteoblast-specific protein that influences pancreatic β -cell proliferation, insulin expression, secretion, sensitivity, and energy expenditure^[4]. Mice knock-out for OC, created by Ducy *et al*^[5], appear mildly hyperglycaemic and have slightly increased visceral fat; the opposite phenotype null for the *Esp* gene, which encodes a tyrosine phosphatase that hampers glucose metabolism by inhibiting OC functions, instead displays improved glucose tolerance. An even more intimate relationship between skeleton and energy metabolism was demonstrated by recent genetic experiments that found that leptin, an adipocyte-derived hormone, inhibits insulin secretion by decreasing the production of undercarboxylated osteocalcin, and is also involved in osteoblast differentiation^[6]. Moreover, serotonin, which is produced by neurons of the brainstem and by the enterochromaffin cells of the duodenum, controls bone remodeling^[7]. The relationship between energy expenditure and bone is still controversial; studies on humans are few, and the majority of data have been derived by animal models.

This review aims to summarize the evidence linking energy metabolism and skeleton, with particular attention to humans.

CENTRAL CONTROL OF BONE MASS: LEPTIN

Data in animals

Leptin, the protein product of the obese gene (*Ob* or *Lep*), is a hormone synthesized by adipocytes that signals available energy reserves to the brain, and thereby influences development, growth, metabolism, and reproduction. In mammals, leptin functions as a signal for fat reserves: circulating leptin fluctuates in proportion to fat mass, and acts on the hypothalamus to suppress food intake^[8].

When adipose tissue is abundant, leptin levels rise as a result energy expenditure and sympathetic activity increases. In comparison, when adipocyte mass decreases, energy expenditure, temperature, and reproductive function are down-regulated. As proof of this fact, *Ob*-/ *Ob*-mice are obese, hypogonadal, and diabetic^[9]. *Ob* genes were recently isolated from several fish and two amphibian species. While vertebrate leptins largely differ in their primary amino acid sequences, they have similar tertiary structures and potencies when tested *in vitro* on heterologous leptin receptors (LepRs)^[8,10-12]. Leptin acts through a leptin receptor that is a member of the type I cytokine receptor family^[13]. There are different isoforms of this

receptor that are produced by alternative splicing of the transcript from the LepR gene, defined as: LepRa, LepRb, LepRc, LepRd and LepRf; these isoforms have in common an extracellular domain of 800 amino acids and a transmembrane domain of 34 amino acids, although the intracellular domain is variable and characteristic for each of the isoforms; in particular, LepRb seems to be suitable for all leptin actions^[13-15]. In fact, in mammals, LepRb is highly expressed in the hypothalamus and at lower levels in several other tissues, including the liver, kidney, lung, stomach, pancreatic cells, and immune cells^[16-20]. Leptin's role in energy balance/body weight control is mediated by LepRb expressed in the brain^[21,22]. Leptin binds to LepRs in the plasma membrane of this specific cell, activating several intracellular signaling pathways^[23].

Vertebrate LepRs signals *via* the Janus kinase (Jak) and signal transducer, and is the activator of the transcription (STAT) pathway. Three tyrosine residues located within the LepR cytoplasmic domain are phosphorylated by Jak2, and are constitutively associated with mouse LepRb at membrane-proximal residues located within the cytoplasmic domain and are required for the activation of SH2-containing tyrosine phosphatase-2, STAT5, and STAT3 signaling^[8]. These tyrosines are conserved from fish to mammals, demonstrating their critical role in signaling by LepR.

Leptin can also be considered as a growth factor, with the ability to directly enhance the development of hemopoietic precursor cells, myoblast-like cells, and lung cells. Moreover, Kume *et al*^[2] observed that leptin has angiogenic effects on vascular musculoskeletal endothelial cells. This could be critical during fetal development; in fact, leptin and its receptor are produced by the human placenta^[1,24]. Both leptin and its receptors were found in murine cartilage and bone, especially in chondrocytes near the vascular system. This observation may explain the angiogenic properties of leptin^[2]. In addition, leptin increases both the proliferation and differentiation of the chondrocyte population of skeletal growth centers in organ cultures through the insulin-like growth factors (IGF) and the regulation of receptor IGF expression^[25,26].

Dixit *et al*^[27] showed that leptin is a potent stimulator of growth hormone secretion, both at the central pituitary level and at the peripheral level, from lymphocytes. Experimentally, leptin has a positive effect on bone mass when infused intravenously, but a negative one after intracerebroventricular administration^[28,29]. These opposite effects of leptin were brilliantly demonstrated by Thomas^[30] using a parabiosis experiment. Further experiments demonstrated that leptin inhibits appetite through the arcuate nucleus, and bone mass through the ventromedial hypothalamus nucleus. These experiments indicate that hypothalamic integrity is required in bone regulation^[29,31]. Different studies, using a human stromal cell line, demonstrated that cells of osteoblastic lineage are targets for leptin action, as they actively expressed both forms of leptin receptors^[32-35].

Although leptin plays a critical role in starvation-induced T-cell-mediated immunosuppression, little is known about its role in B-cell homeostasis under starvation conditions. A Japanese study shows the alteration of B-cell development in the bone marrow of fasted mice, characterized by a decrease in pro-B, pre-B, and immature B cells, and an increase in mature B cells. Interestingly, an intracerebroventricular leptin injection was sufficient to prevent the alteration of B-cell development in fasted mice^[36].

Data in humans

In humans there are some reports linking leptin with bone mass, even if studies in humans are biased by confounding factors. Some data obtained using animal models were confirmed by human studies, and it is generally accepted that body weight is a major determinant of bone density; in fact, obesity is generally accompanied by increased bone strength and obese persons have stronger bones and lose bone tissue at a slower pace^[37]. Serum leptin levels positively correlate with the mass of adipose tissue, and show a weak correlation with bone density in humans^[38]. Clinical studies on animals and humans show that leptin access to the hypothalamic centre, which has a negative effect on appetite and bone mass, is limited by the blood brain barrier^[37-39]. This access implies a saturable transport system involving the LepRa receptors (with a shorter intracellular domain than that of its effective receptor LepRb)^[39]. Renal failure increases the leptin serum level above the concentration which may lead to saturation of leptin transport to the brain^[38]. In fact, Ghazali *et al.*^[38] showed, in an hemodialysis population, that only when the serum leptin levels are above this threshold is there a sparing effect in bone.

Stimulated by animal studies that describe the relationship between a lack of leptin in mice and low sympathetic tone, the pathway of leptin's indirect control of bone mass has also been investigated in humans^[40]. Visitsunthorn *et al.*^[41] observed that human reflex sympathetic dystrophy is characterized by a rapid onset of osteoporosis in the affected region, with labile vasomotor activity, trophic skin changes, pain, and swelling, because of deregulated sympathetic tone. In some cases, β -blockers resolve reflex sympathetic dystrophy-associated symptoms and osteopenia. Outside the context of reflex sympathetic dystrophy, people receiving β -blockers experience 24%-32% reductions in the risk of fractures, as shown in several large studies^[42-45]. Schlienger *et al.*^[46] suggest that use of β -blockers is associated with a reduced risk of fractures, taken alone or in combination with thiazide diuretics. Thomas^[30] observed that, in human cell cultures, leptin induced activation of the mitogen-activated protein kinase cascade could be critical, because it stimulated both osteoblastic differentiation from bone marrow precursors and phosphorylation of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ , which has been shown to inhibit adipogenesis^[47,48]. In addition, leptin could

enhance osteoblastic activity by inhibiting apoptosis, stimulating mineralization, and inhibiting support of osteoclastogenesis, as shown in primary human osteoblast cultures^[49]. Through direct positive effects on osteoblast differentiation, leptin might modulate bone remodelling. It has also recently been shown in human stromal cells that leptin inhibits the expression of the receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B-ligand, the major downstream cytokine controlling osteoclastogenesis^[50].

Leptin serum levels have different effects in different human demographics. In premenopausal women, a higher proportion of fat and a higher leptin concentration are negatively associated with bone mass^[51]. Interestingly, in postmenopausal women, leptin levels were significantly lower in women with vertebral fractures than those without, and an increase in fat mass negatively predicts fracture presence^[52]. A recent study showed that obese children have altered bone turnover^[53]. Conversely, Farooqi *et al.*^[54] reported in three obese children congenitally deficient in leptin, that whole-body bone mineral content (BMC) and bone mineral density (BMD) were normal for their age and gender, despite very high weight and advanced bone ossification. After leptin therapy administered for up to four years, BMC, BMD, and skeletal maturation increased normally, although weight and fat mass dramatically decreased, suggesting counteracting and beneficial effects of leptin therapy on the skeleton^[54]. Although these different studies converge to support the role of leptin as a regulator of bone metabolism, understanding the complexity of its multiple pathways to the skeleton requires further investigation.

SEROTONIN AND ITS TWO IDENTITIES

Production and secretion

Serotonin plays a major role in controlling bone remodelling *via* two distinctly opposite pathways; in fact, it is synthesized by two different genes and plays an antagonist function on bone mass^[55]. The major site (95%) of serotonin production is the gastrointestinal tract by the tryptophan hydroxylase (*Tph1*) gene^[56]. The importance of gut-derived serotonin was identified recently, thanks to studies on the lipoprotein receptor-related proteins 5 (Lrp5) receptor, a member of the low density lipoprotein receptor family; the signal mediated by Lrp5 in an unknown cell type increase bone formation by osteoblasts^[57]. Brain-derived serotonin produced by the *Tph2* gene also influences bone mass, and the severe low bone mass observed in the absence of Tph2 results from an effect on both bone resorption and formation, mediated by an increased sympathetic tone. In the brain, synthesis of serotonin by neurons which express the leptin receptor is negatively controlled by leptin through its effects on Tph2 expression^[58]. Patients taking synthetic serotonin reuptake inhibitors chronically (a class of drugs increasing extracellular serotonin concentration throughout the body) have reduced bone mass^[59].

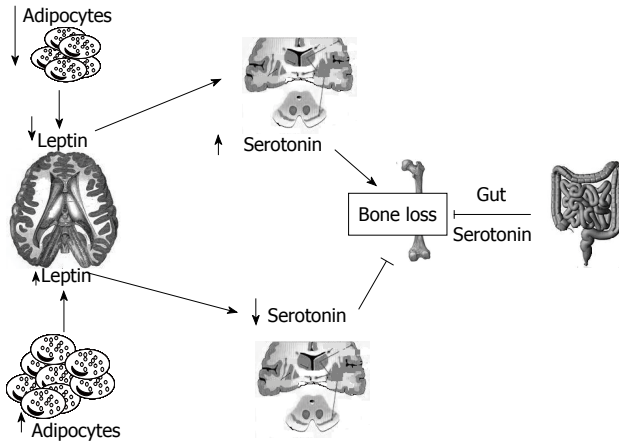


Figure 1 Schematic representation of the relationship between fat tissue, brain, gut, and bone mediated by leptin and serotonin.

Energy expenditure and serotonin

The signalling of serotonin to bone is attributed to different receptors: Htr1b signalling decreased bone formation, in contrast with Htr2c which inhibits the synthesis of epinephrine and has a decreased sympathetic tone; thus, this results in increased formation and decreased bone resorption^[55]. The decrease in bone formation and the increase in bone reabsorption in Tph2-/- mice mirrors the phenotype of 2 adrenergic receptor knocked-out mice. This feature suggested that the bone phenotype of the mice lacking serotonin in the brain could be secondary to an increase in the sympathetic signal in osteoblasts^[60].

Serotonin absence in the brain resulted in a phenotype with severe low bone mass, affecting axial and appendicular skeleton, while bone length and width were unaffected^[7]. This was secondary to a decrease in bone formation parameters (osteoblast numbers and bone formation rate) and to an increase in bone resorption parameters (osteoclast surface and circulating levels of deoxypyridinoline, a degradation product of type I collagen and a biomarker of bone resorption)^[61]. Even if leptin and serotonin exert opposite influences on bone mass accrual, several features suggested that they might operate in the same pathway: for instance serotonin, like leptin, regulates bone mass through their action on sympathetic tone and requires ventromedial hypothalamic neuron integrity to achieve its functions^[7]. This fact raised the prospect that axonal projections emanating from Tph2- expressing neurons reach arcuate nuclei to regulate these functions^[7]. Analysis verified that neurons of the arcuate nuclei were target by serotonergic innervation emanating from the brainstem, an observation confirmed in Tph2+/- mice by retrograde labelling of the projections reaching the serotonergic neurons of the brainstem^[7]. Experimental evidence supports the notion that the appetite phenotype of the Tph 2-/- mice was caused, at least in part, by an increase in melanocortin signaling mediated through the Htr1a and Htr2b receptors, and involves melanocortin signaling^[7]. Several reasons led us to ask whether the appetite and energy expenditure phenotypes of the Ob-/- mice

were serotonin dependent: the first is that the conjunction of a decrease in appetite and an increase in energy expenditure is the mirror image of what is seen in mice lacking leptin signaling, the second is that leptin inhibition of serotonin synthesis in the brainstem is the mechanism used by this hormone to inhibit bone mass accrual, and the third is that no molecular mechanism has been identified so far to explain the common control of bone mass and energy metabolism^[7]. Figure 1 summarizes the relationships between leptin and serotonin.

Lrp5 and bone formation

One of the most studied regulators of bone remodelling is low-density lipoprotein (LDL)-Lrp5, which a loss of function mutation causes osteoporosis pseudoganglioma (OPPG), a rare disease characterized by decreased bone formation and blindness^[62], while activating mutations causing high bone mass syndrome^[57]. Lrp5 can enhance Wnt (the vertebrate homolog of Wingless in *Drosophila*) and canonical signaling in cultured cells. The blindness observed in OPPG patients and Lrp5-/- mice is caused by the deregulation of Wnt canonical signaling during eye development^[63]. Binding of Wnt to Frizzled (Fz) receptors, expressed by osteoblasts, causes intracellular β -catenin stabilization. In cooperation with lymphoid enhancer factor/T cell factor transcription factors, β -catenin activates transcription of osteoprotegerin (OPG), a cytokine secreted by osteoblasts that decreases bone resorption.

Inactivation of Lrp5 and activation of β -catenin, the molecular node of Wnt signalling, affects different transcriptomes in osteoblasts^[63]. Lastly, inactivation of Lrp5 in osteoblast progenitors does not influence bone homeostasis, whereas inactivation of canonical Wnt signaling does^[64]. Taken together, these observations suggest that Lrp5 and canonical Wnt signaling use different mechanisms to regulate osteoblast functions. It is assumed that Lrp5 is a coreceptor for Wnt proteins^[65]; as a result, OPPG and high bone mass syndrome are viewed as Wnt-related diseases^[66]. Some observations, however, change this view. Firstly, there is no overt skeletal defect in Lrp5-/- embryos; secondly, a function gain mutation in Lrp5 does not cause bone tumors as the activation of Wnt signaling does in other organs^[67]; and lastly, osteoblast-specific loss and a function gain mutation in β -catenin, the molecular node of canonical Wnt signaling, does not affect either bone formation or the expression of genes deregulated upon Lrp5 inactivation. Analyses of a microarray experiment comparing bones from Lrp5-/- and wild type littermate mice provided the completely unexpected clue that the gene most highly overexpressed in Lrp5 deficient bone was Tph1, for which expression in the gut is increased in the absence of Lrp5, as are serum serotonin levels in Lrp5 deficient patients or mice^[68].

The only genes whose expression was decreased in Lrp-/- mice bones were the regulators of cell proliferation *CicD1*, *D2* and *E1*^[69]. Lrp5-/- osteoblasts proliferated as well as wild-type cell *ex vivo*, and the discrepancy between the *in vivo* and *ex vivo* proliferation abilities of the

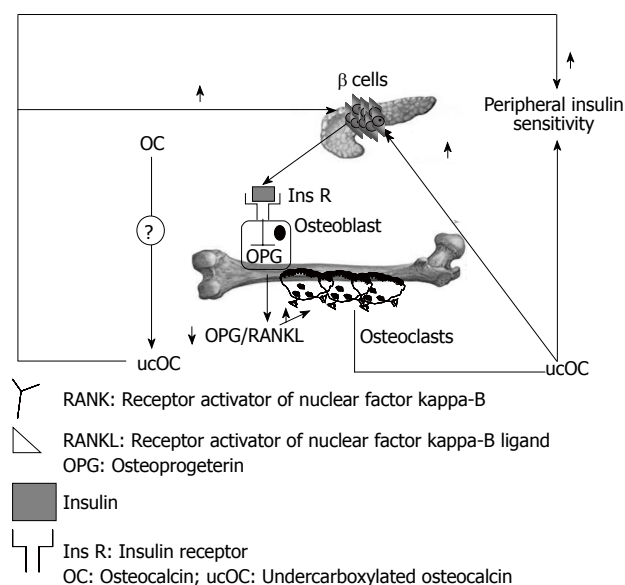


Figure 2 Schematic representation of the interaction between bone and glucose tolerance mediated by insulin and undercarboxylated osteocalcin.

Lrp5^{-/-}-osteoblasts indicated that Lrp5 loss of function mutations affected osteoblast proliferation through extracellular signals that can not originate from osteoblasts; in other words Lrp-5 related bone diseases may not originate from bones^[69].

HOW BONE CONTROLS ENERGETIC METABOLISM: OC

OC is a 5 kDa protein produced by the skeleton and is the most prevalent non-collagenous protein in bone^[70]. It has several features as a hormone, but moreover it represents one of the most important links between bone tissue and energy metabolism. OC is one of the very few osteoblasts-specific proteins, and it is subject to post-translational carboxylation on three or four glutamic residues, depending on the species.

Vitamin K is a co-factor for the enzyme glutamate carboxylase, required for carboxylation of the Gla-containing proteins in the coagulation cascade and for carboxylation of OC^[71]. Lower dietary levels of vitamin K are associated with increased levels of undercarboxylated osteocalcin (ucOC), and vitamin K supplementation reduces ucOC^[72]. Warfarin, an anti-coagulant which action is based on inhibition of the vitamin K dependent carboxylase, also regulates mRNA expression of OC, and this fact makes interpretation of warfarin treatment studies more complex^[73]. Decarboxylation allows the molecule to tightly bind the calcium ions in hydroxyapatite^[74-76]; ucOC has a reduced avidity for hydroxyapatite, and so it enters the systemic circulation more easily^[77]. There is a feed forward regulation loop that links insulin, bone resorption, and OC. Insulin signaling in OPG expression and the decrease in the OPG/receptor activator of the nuclear factor-kappa B ligand ratio results in an increased

acidification of the resorption lacunae. The acidic pH is sufficient to activate the OC molecules stored in the bone extracellular matrix. The ucOC promotes insulin sensitivity in peripheral organs and stimulates insulin secretion by pancreatic β -cells (Figure 2).

Work by Karsenty *et al.*^[77] suggested that bone could influence glucose homeostasis by acting as an endocrine organ; this concept came from the observation that mice which were OC deficient were not only fat, but also had higher blood glucose, lower serum insulin, impaired glucose-stimulated insulin secretion, and poor glucose tolerance as compared to wild type mice. These observations remained unexplained for some years until the same investigators, in the course of experiments in which they were ablating bone-specific proteins in mice, noted the opposite phenotype in mice null for *Esp* gene^[78], which encodes an osteotesticular protein tyrosine phosphatase (OST-PTP) that hampers glucose metabolism by inhibiting OC endocrine functions.

When *Esp*^{-/-} were bred, a considerable number of deaths in newborns were observed, which resulted from severe hypoglycemia^[77]. Studies of surviving mice showed increased pancreatic cell size, β -cells number, circulating insulin levels and sensitivity, decreased body fat, and increased expression of insulin target genes in the liver and muscles^[77]. This phenotype was identical in global knock-out and osteoblast specific *Esp* knock-out mice, and opposite to OC null mice. OC^{-/-}-mice have increased visceral fat and glucose intolerance, decreased insulin levels, islet cell proliferation, and insulin content, similarly to mice over-expressing OST-PTP in osteoblasts. These findings suggest osteoblasts as a source of a humoral factor that influences energy metabolism^[77]. *In vivo*, OC can favor proliferation of pancreatic β -cells, insulin, adiponectin expression in β -cells, and adipocytes^[77]. In humans, the insulin receptor is a substrate of OST-PTP, the protein encoded by *Esp*. This raised the testable hypothesis that PTP-1B expressed in human osteoblasts could be the functional human homologue of the *Esp* gene^[77]. Elevated levels of both carboxylated and undercarboxylated forms of OC were associated with improved glucose tolerance in healthy men given an oral glucose load^[77].

In older healthy men, serum OC concentrations were inversely associated with blood markers of the dysmetabolic phenotype and measures of adiposity^[79]. There is no univocal explanation of how parathyroid hormone (PTH) influences glucose metabolism in humans and mice, but it has been observed that hyperparathyroidism could impair glucose tolerance through a different mechanism, such as an increased intracellular free calcium concentration (which decreases insulin sensitivity by decreasing insulin-dependent glucose transport)^[80,81], or decreased plasma phosphate levels (which decrease insulin sensitivity, as insulin-dependent glucose uptake is closely related to phosphate uptake)^[82], or down regulation of insulin receptors, or PTH *per se*^[83]. The administration of intermittent subcutaneous PTH (1-34 Teriparatide or 1-84) has been recently available for osteoporosis treatment^[84,85].

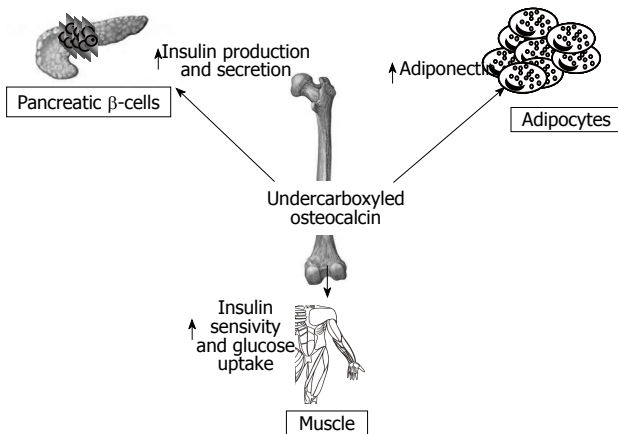


Figure 3 Schematic representation of the multiple interactions between pancreatic β -cells, adipocytes, muscle cells, and bone mediated by undercarboxylated osteocalcin.

The intermittent administration of this molecule in osteoporotic patients has an anabolic effect on the skeleton in contrast with the catabolic effect of continuous PTH excess in hyperparathyroidism. It has been previously reported that there is either an acute, sub-clinical adverse effect of PTH 1-34 on stimulated glucose levels^[86] or no effect of this hormone on glucose tolerance^[87].

It is known the ability of the treatment with intermittent PTH is to modify the secretion of OC from the osteoblasts and, at the time of writing, many studies been set to established if the secretion of ucOC is influenced by the therapy and if, consequently, therapy with PTH can interfere with the ability of the skeleton to regulate energetic metabolism. Schafer *et al*^[88] investigated whether changes in ucOC during osteoporosis treatment with PTH are associated with changes in metabolic parameters. They found that not only the median total and undercarboxylated levels increased with PTH 1-84 treatment, but also the body weight and fat mass decreased, and this change was positively correlated with a change in adiponectin. Pittas *et al*^[79] reported that in older adults, total serum OC was inversely associated with body fat, fasting glucose, and fasting insulin. In a cohort of men and postmenopausal women with type 2 diabetes mellitus, undercarboxylate osteocalcin inversely correlated with percentage trunk fat and haemoglobin A1c^[89].

AMYLIN IN THE PERIPHERY

Amylin (AMY) is a 37-amino acid peptide that belongs to the calcitonin (CT) family and has evolutionary links with insulin. It is co-secreted with insulin by pancreatic β -cells and has been considered a partner peptide in the etiology of diabetes-associated complications and related conditions^[90]. While the soluble monomeric form of AMY acts as a hormone that alters physiological responses related to feeding and acts as a growth factor, the less soluble and insoluble polymeric forms may contribute to the establishment of a pathophysiological pathway to overt

diabetes^[90]. Research into the potential effect of AMY on BMD followed the observation that a large number of diabetic people are osteopenic. *In vitro* AMY acted as a growth factor in bone for the proliferation of osteoblasts^[91], and recently it was demonstrated that it also acts in osteoclast differentiation^[92].

In foetal rat osteoblasts, intact AMY and 1-8 AMY stimulates cell proliferation, but AMY 8-37, COOH terminally deaminated AMY and reduced AMY, by acting in an antagonist manner^[93]. In osteoblasts, AMY acts through a increase of cyclic adenosine monophosphate and the activation of mitogen-activated protein kinase and protein kinase C^[93]. Data on humans are lacking in the literature; it is known that aging is associated with impairment of AMY release from pancreatic beta cells, but further studies are needed to verify this^[94]. It is also known that aging is associated with an impairment of AMY release from pancreatic β -cells^[95]. In previous studies it was demonstrated that there were significantly lower unreduced AMY plasma levels in patients with osteoporosis than in those with type II DM and healthy controls^[96].

More recently, the analyses of calcitonin-related gene-deletion mouse models have demonstrated that AMY is a factor that inhibits osteoclastogenesis and reduces the rate of osteolysis^[97-99]. CT was shown to decrease osteoclast acidification and is also able to inhibit acid phosphatase secretion^[100]. CT gene-related peptides α and β , produced by alternative splicing of the CT gene, have dual roles: prevention of bone reabsorption in hypercalcemic states and regulation of bone formation. On the other hand, there is an increase in the rate of bone formation that seems to contradict previous findings concerning the activity of osteoclasts^[90].

CONCLUSION

Here we summarize numerous studies that demonstrate a deep interaction between the skeleton, glucose, and energy metabolism (Figure 3). Many studies show that bone shares hormonal and molecular pathways with glucose and fat metabolism. The skeleton is subjected to various influences from fat tissue and glucose metabolism and is able to regulate these two systems in turn. Bone must therefore be considered as an endocrine organ with multiple functions, and not only a support for muscles. In the recent years this role has been confirmed in humans, and some studies, although controversial, demonstrate a correlation between bone endocrine function, body fat distribution and percentage, and glucose metabolism.

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February 7-11, 2012

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February 14-15, 2012

7th National Conference:
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2012 London, United Kingdom

February 16-19, 2012

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Practice
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Exhibition on Orthopedics
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Orthopaedics and Sports Medicine
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36th Annual UC Davis Fingers to
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- 3 **Tian D**, Araki H, Stahl E, Bergelson J, Kreitman M. Signature of balancing selection in Arabidopsis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2006; In press

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- 4 **Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group**. Hypertension, insulin, and proinsulin in participants with impaired glucose tolerance. *Hypertension* 2002; **40**: 679-686 [PMID: 12411462 PMID:2516377 DOI:10.1161/01.HYP.0000035706.28494.

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- 5 **Vallancien G**, Emberton M, Harving N, van Moorselaar RJ; Alf-One Study Group. Sexual dysfunction in 1, 274 European men suffering from lower urinary tract symptoms. *J Urol* 2003; **169**: 2257-2261 [PMID: 12771764 DOI:10.1097/01.ju.0000067940.76090.73]

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- 6 21st century heart solution may have a sting in the tail. *BMJ* 2002; **325**: 184 [PMID: 12142303 DOI:10.1136/bmj.325.7357.184]

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- 7 **Geraud G**, Spierings EL, Keywood C. Tolerability and safety of frovatriptan with short- and long-term use for treatment of migraine and in comparison with sumatriptan. *Headache* 2002; **42** Suppl 2: S93-99 [PMID: 12028325 DOI:10.1046/j.1526-4610.42.s2.7.x]

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- 8 **Banit DM**, Kaufer H, Hartford JM. Intraoperative frozen section analysis in revision total joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 2002; **(401)**: 230-238 [PMID: 12151900 DOI:10.1097/00003086-200208000-00026]

No volume or issue

- 9 Outreach: Bringing HIV-positive individuals into care. *HRSA Careaction* 2002; 1-6 [PMID: 12154804]

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- 10 **Sherlock S**, Dooley J. Diseases of the liver and biliary system. 9th ed. Oxford: Blackwell Sci Pub, 1993: 258-296

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- 11 **Lam SK**. Academic investigator's perspectives of medical treatment for peptic ulcer. In: Swabb EA, Azabo S. Ulcer disease: investigation and basis for therapy. New York: Marcel Dekker, 1991: 431-450

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- 12 **Breedlove GK**, Schorfheide AM. Adolescent pregnancy. 2nd ed. Wiczorek RR, editor. White Plains (NY): March of Dimes Education Services, 2001: 20-34

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- 13 **Harnden P**, Joffe JK, Jones WG, editors. Germ cell tumours V. Proceedings of the 5th Germ cell tumours Conference; 2001 Sep 13-15; Leeds, UK. New York: Springer, 2002: 30-56

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- 14 **Christensen S**, Oppacher F. An analysis of Koza's computational effort statistic for genetic programming. In: Foster JA, Lutton E, Miller J, Ryan C, Tettamanzi AG, editors. Genetic programming. EuroGP 2002: Proceedings of the 5th European Conference on Genetic Programming; 2002 Apr 3-5; Kinsdale, Ireland. Berlin: Springer, 2002: 182-191

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- 15 Morse SS. Factors in the emergence of infectious diseases. Emerg Infect Dis serial online, 1995-01-03, cited 1996-06-05; 1(1): 24 screens. Available from: URL: <http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/eid/index.htm>

Patent (list all authors)

- 16 **Pagedas AC**, inventor; Ancel Surgical R&D Inc., assignee. Flexible endoscopic grasping and cutting device and positioning tool assembly. United States patent US 20020103498. 2002 Aug 1

Statistical data

Write as mean \pm SD or mean \pm SE.

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Express *t* test as *t* (in italics), *F* test as *F* (in italics), chi square test as χ^2 (in Greek), related coefficient as *r* (in italics), degree of freedom as *v* (in Greek), sample number as *n* (in italics), and probability as *P* (in italics).

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Use SI units. For example: body mass, *m* (B) = 78 kg; blood pres-

sure, p (B) = 16.2/12.3 kPa; incubation time, t (incubation) = 96 h, blood glucose concentration, c (glucose) 6.4 ± 2.1 mmol/L; blood CEA mass concentration, p (CEA) = 8.6 24.5 μ g/L; CO₂ volume fraction, 50 mL/L CO₂, not 5% CO₂; likewise for 40 g/L formaldehyde, not 10% formalin; and mass fraction, 8 ng/g, *etc.* Arabic numerals such as 23, 243, 641 should be read 23 243 641.

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