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**MCP-1 expression is specifically regulated during activation of skeletal repair and remodeling.**

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For Peer Review

## Abstract

Monocyte chemotactic protein-1 (MCP-1) belongs to the CC chemokine superfamily and plays a critical role in recruitment and activation of leukocytes during acute inflammation. We hypothesize that MCP-1 is also an important chemokine regulating recruitment and activation of bone cells required for skeletal repair and remodeling. We used the ulnar stress fracture (SFx) model that allows investigation of focal remodeling with a known time course and precise anatomical location. SFx were created in the right ulna of female Wistar rats using cyclic end-loading. Unloaded animals were used as a control. Rats were euthanized 4h, 1, 4, 7 and 14 days after loading (n=10/group) and RNA extracted and converted to cDNA for quantitative PCR analysis using TaqMan gene expression assays. Four hours after loading, MCP-1 gene expression was increased ~30-fold ( $P < 0.001$ ), remained elevated at 24 h (~12 fold,  $P < 0.001$ ), then declined by day 14. Relative to contralateral limb, expression of the receptors CCR1 and CCR2 increased over the 14 days, being significant by 4 days for CCR1 and 14 days for CCR2 ( $P < 0.05$ ). Other inflammatory-related chemokines (RANTES, MIP1a) were not increased at these early time-points. Using in-situ hybridization and immunohistochemistry in separate animal groups (n=5/group, control, day 1, 4 7), MCP-1 mRNA and protein was localized in periosteal osteoblasts associated with woven bone formation at the fracture exit point, but not within osteocytes adjacent to the SFx. These data support an important role for MCP-1 in the early phase of SFx repair and activated remodeling.

Keywords: bone remodeling, chemokine, monocyte chemotactic protein-1, stress fracture

## Introduction

Bone remodeling occurs throughout life and is necessary to maintain the integrity of cortical and cancellous bone. It turns over aged bone tissue, removes skeletal microdamage, reorganizes fracture callus and repairs stress fractures (SFx) [1]. This highly coordinated process ensures that skeletal integrity is maintained. Conversely, dysregulated bone remodeling impairs bone quality and is central to many diseases of bone, such as osteoporosis and Paget's disease. Basic multicellular units (BMUs) are formed during remodeling and consist of osteoclasts, osteoblasts and their precursors. Following an activation event, remodeling progresses by resorption of bone matrix followed by new bone formation until a new bone structural unit is completed. Bone marrow and bone are anatomically contiguous and form a functional unit, whereby the bone marrow niche provides sources of haematopoietic and non-haematopoietic stem cells that are precursors for bone and immune cells. Fundamental mechanisms that initiate remodeling events, like recruitment of cells to the BMU, are not well understood; but chemokines are strong contenders for regulating cell attraction to a BMU during remodeling activation.

Cells of the immune system secrete chemokines and cytokines. Chemokines, are small molecular weight proteins (8–10 kDa) that are important for host defence systems and normal tissue maintenance. They are divided into 4 subfamilies (CC, CXC, C, CX<sub>3</sub>C), based on the spacing of the first two, conserved, cysteine residues. The role of chemokines in the immune system has been extensively studied [2,3]; but knowledge of their interactions in bone cell biology remains rudimentary. Under pathological conditions, osteoblasts increase production of CCL20 (macrophage inflammatory protein 3 alpha, MIP3 $\alpha$ ) compared to those from normal tissues [4]. CCL20 also induces osteoclast differentiation by increasing the number of osteoclast progenitors and assists cell fusion via the production of matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9) [4]. It is also upregulated following stress fracture production [5]. Stromal Differentiation Factor 1 $\alpha$  (SDF-1 $\alpha$ , or CXCL12) increases osteoclast resorption, size of resorption pits and number and elevated

1  
2 expression of RANKL, Cathepsin K, MMP-9 and TRAP when cultured with peripheral blood-  
3 derived osteoclast precursors [6]. We also observed a modest increase in gene expression for SDF-  
4 1 following SFX initiation *in vivo* [1]. Similarly, macrophage inflammatory protein 1 $\alpha$  (MIP1 $\alpha$ , or  
5 CCL3) acts directly on osteoclast progenitors to enhance osteoclast formation [7,8]. Many cytokines  
6 and chemokines also regulate osteoblast [9,10] and osteoclast function [11,12]. In addition, gene  
7 array studies demonstrate that chemokine expression associated with angiogenesis, eg CXCL10 and  
8 -13, increases soon after SFX in the rat ulna [5].

19 Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1, or CCL2) is a member of the CC chemokine superfamily  
20 that plays a critical role in the recruitment and activation of leukocytes during acute inflammation  
21 [1,13]. In addition, MCP-1 is found at the site of tooth eruption, a feature consistent with a role in  
22 osteoclast biology [14]. Importantly, MCP-1 is induced by RANKL and promotes osteoclast fusion  
23 into multinuclear cells [15]. Moreover, following treatment of rats with parathyroid hormone  
24 (PTH), MCP-1 was the highest induced gene on array analysis, being induced by an order of  
25 magnitude greater than the next 3 candidate genes identified [16]. In the anabolic regime, PTH  
26 caused MCP-1 induction to increase over time until it was >200 fold after 14 days of treatment.  
27 While numerous chemokines provide regulation of both chemotaxis and osteoclast differentiation  
28 during inflammatory bone remodeling, we hypothesize that MCP-1 is specifically regulated in  
29 skeletal repair and physiological remodeling.

44 We previously observed an upregulation of cytokines such as IL-6 during early phase of SFX  
45 healing, and this peak of expression coincided with the initiation of woven bone formation,  
46 suggesting IL-6 involvement in the signaling of new bone formation. Oncostatin M, another  
47 cytokine that stimulates bone resorption [17], is also expressed by osteoblasts and acts locally to  
48 promote bone formation and resorption *in vitro* [18]. Our aim is to determine if oncostatin M is  
49 regulated coincidentally with MCP-1 *in vivo* in skeletal repair and remodeling.

1  
2 We have optimized a rat model of SFx that presents an approach to examine focal bone remodeling  
3 with a known time course and precise anatomical location [1,19]. This offers an opportunity to  
4 explore cellular signaling of bone remodeling *in vivo*, in particular the involvement of chemokines  
5 and cytokines during skeletal repair. Our specific aim is to investigate the expression of  
6 chemokines in the CC family (MCP-1, RANTES, MIP1 $\alpha$ ) and a cytokine involved in bone  
7 formation (Oncostatin-M, OSM) and their receptors (CCR1, CCR2, OSMr) during initiation and  
8 progression of remodeling that repairs the SFx in the rat ulna.  
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## 17 **Materials and methods**

### 18 **Experimental animals**

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22 A total of 98 female Wistar rat age 17-18 weeks with an average weight of 322 $\pm$ 3g were purchased  
23 from The University of Queensland Biological Resources Unit, housed in pairs and allowed *ad*  
24 *libitum* feeding and free cage activity between loading session. Experiments were approved by the  
25 Griffith University Animal Ethics Committee and followed NHMRC guidelines for the care and use  
26 of laboratory animals. For gene expression studies, a total of 5 experimental groups from 4 hours to  
27 14 days post-loading were examined (4h, Day 1, Day 4, Day 7, Day 14; n=10 per group, except n=8  
28 for 4h). An unloaded control group (ULC) provided baseline control values. For in-situ  
29 hybridization (ISH) and immunohistochemistry (IHC), separate experimental groups were used  
30 (ULC, Day 1, Day 4, Day 7) with n=5 per group.  
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### 46 **Ulna loading to create SFx**

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49 The loading regime followed our previously published protocol [1]. Briefly, the animals were  
50 anesthetized with Isoflourane and their forelimbs were positioned in a custom designed mechanical  
51 device. SFx was generated on the ulna by axial compressive cyclic loading with applied load  
52 between 17-30 N and 2 Hz cycle frequency. LabChart v7.1 (AD Instruments, Colorado Springs,  
53 USA) was used to monitor the displacement curve and the loading was manually stopped when a  
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2 10% increase in displacement value was reached. The average total number of loading cycles for  
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4 the experiment was  $10,645 \pm 447$  (mean  $\pm$  SD). A single subcutaneous injection of an opioid  
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6 analgesic (Buprenorphine, 0.05 mg/Kg) was used following each loading session. No sign of  
7  
8 behavioral changes was observed in experimental animals after loading.  
9

10  
11 ULC and contralateral left ulnae of loaded rats were used as negative controls. At each time point  
12  
13 after loading, rats were euthanized using CO<sub>2</sub> asphyxiation, and right (loaded) and left ulnae were  
14  
15 dissected, soft tissue removed (except for periosteum) and snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored  
16  
17 at -80°C until use. At euthanasia, blood was collected via cardiac puncture into a 3 mL BD  
18  
19 Vacutainer® blood collection tube (BD Biosciences, USA). The tubes were inverted several times  
20  
21 and incubated at 30 minutes at room temperature and centrifuged at 1300g for 10 minutes to allow  
22  
23 phase separation. The clear serum was collected and stored at -20°C until use.  
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### 28 29 **RNA extraction**

30  
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32 Total RNA was extracted from the bone using Trizol protocol as previously described [1]. Briefly,  
33  
34 the epiphyses were dissected and the ulnar diaphyses were ground into fine powder in liquid  
35  
36 nitrogen by using a mortar and pestle. The ground bone powder was homogenized with 1mL of  
37  
38 Trizol and spun at 12,000g for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatant was collected and mixed with 200  
39  
40  $\mu$ L of chloroform and spun at 12,000g for 15 min at 4°C to allow phase separation. The clear  
41  
42 aqueous phase was collected and the RNA was precipitated using glycogen and isopropanol  
43  
44 overnight at -20°C. RNA was extracted again using phenol chloroform to remove impurities and  
45  
46 the pellet was resuspended in 11  $\mu$ L of RNase DNase free water (Invitrogen). RNA was quantified  
47  
48 using Nanodrop1000 (ThermoScientific, USA) to determine yield and purity. RNA yield (mean  $\pm$   
49  
50 SD) for the right ulna was  $326 \pm 28$  ng/ $\mu$ L and the left ulna was  $322 \pm 28$  ng/ $\mu$ L.  
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## qRT-PCR

RNA was treated with DNase I (Promega, Australia) following the manufacturer's protocol to remove genomic DNA contamination. RNA was converted to cDNA using ImProm-II reverse transcriptase (Promega, Australia) and oligo dT primers. Taqman primers were used to detect the target genes (Table 1). Quantitative real time PCR (qPCR) was used to detect the expression of chemokines and cytokine using the BioRad CFX96 real time PCR detection system (BioRad, Australia). The PCR cycling condition was: 95°C for 10min to activate the Taq polymerase, followed by 40 cycles of annealing and extension step at 95°C for 15s and 58°C for 70s. The mRNA transcripts level for each gene was normalized and expressed relative to the average expression of HPRT and GAPDH housekeeping genes.

## Serum ELISA

The detection of MCP1 in the serum was performed using a commercially available BD OptEIA™ Rat MCP-1 ELISA set (BDBioscience, USA). The ELISA was performed following the manufacturer's protocols. Briefly, the 96 wells plate was coated with capture antibody at 4°C overnight. The plate was aspirated and washed with phosphate buffered saline (PBS)/0.05% Tween and blocked with 10% FCS/PBS at room temperature for 1h. The plate was aspirated and washed and the standards or serum (diluted 1:100) was added to their corresponding well and incubated at room temperature for 2h. The plate was aspirated and washed followed by the addition of working detector (detection Ab + Streptavidin-HRP) and incubate for 1 h at room temperature. The plate was aspirated and washed followed by the addition of 3,3',5,5'-tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) substrate solution to each well and incubated for 15 min. The reaction was stopped by addition of 2M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and the absorbance was measured at 450 nm using a plate reader.

## Riboprobe synthesis

cDNA plasmid templates were generated using PCR to amplify MCP-1 sequences from rat bone cDNA using specific primers (Forward 5'- CAGGTCTCTGTCACGCTTCT -3', Reverse 5'-

1  
2 AGTATTCATGGAAGGGAATAG-3'). The PCR products were gel extracted and purified using  
3  
4 commercial kits (Promega, Australia) and ligated into the multiple cloning sites (MCS) of pGEM-T  
5  
6 Easy vector (Promega, Australia). The plasmid vector sequence was confirmed by DNA  
7  
8 sequencing (DNA Sequencing Facility, Griffith University). Sense and antisense RNA probes were  
9  
10 synthesized using T7 and SP6 DNA-dependent RNA polymerase promoters that are adjacent on  
11  
12 each end of the MCS of the plasmid. After linearization of the template DNA using Sac I and Sac II  
13  
14 restriction enzymes (New England Biolabs, USA), riboprobe synthesis reaction consists of  
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16 (digoxigenin-)DIG-UTP (Roche, Australia), reaction buffers, placental RNase inhibitor and the  
17  
18 appropriate RNA polymerase (Roche, Australia). The labeling conditions followed manufacturer's  
19  
20 instructions. The labeled probe was treated with DNase I and purified using ethanol precipitation.  
21  
22 The RNA probe integrity was characterized by gel electrophoresis and concentration quantified by  
23  
24 Nanodrop spectrometer (Thermo, Australia). The RNA probe was stored at -80°C until use.  
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### 29 ***In situ* hybridization**

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32 Paraffin sections were de-waxed through three changes of xylene and descending concentration of  
33  
34 ethanol. After de-waxing, the tissue was first treated with 0.2M HCL for 20 minutes to eliminate  
35  
36 endogenous alkaline phosphatase activity followed by digestion with 5 µg/mL of **proteinase K** (in  
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38 100mM Tris-HCL pH8.0, 50mM EDTA) for 30 minutes at 37°C. **Proteinase K** activity was  
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40 stopped by soaking sections in 2 mg/mL glycine made up in PBS for 5 minutes and washed with  
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42 two changes of PBS. The section was then refixed in 4% PFA made up in PBS for 15 minutes at  
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44 room temperature, rinsed in several changes of PBS and diethylpyrocarbonate (DEPC)-treated  
45  
46 water. Sections were equilibrated in hybridization buffer (50% formamide, 5 x SSC, 2% block  
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48 reagent, 0.02% SDS, 0.1% N-lauroylsarcosine) for 1 hour at 42°C in a humidified chamber and  
49  
50 incubated with 1 ng/µL of respective RNA probe at 42°C overnight. Sections were sequentially  
51  
52 washed with descending concentrations of standard saline citrate (2×, 1×, 0.1×) for 15 minutes each  
53  
54 (two changes) and rinsed briefly with 100mM Tris pH 7.5, 150mM NaCl. Sections were incubated  
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56 with the same buffer, but containing 1% blocking reagent for 30 minutes, in a humidified chamber  
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1  
2 at room temperature; followed by 1 hour room temperature incubation with 1:500 dilution of anti-  
3 digoxigenin-alkaline phosphatase (DIG-AP) antibody (made up in Buffer 2). The sections were  
4 washed with two changes of buffer 1 for 15 minutes each and equilibrated in buffer 3 (100mM Tris-  
5 HCL, 100mM NaCl, 50mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, pH9.5) for three minutes. For color development, sections  
6 were incubated with 250 µL of color substrate solution (consists of 45 µL 75mg/mL NBT solution  
7 + 35µL 50mg/mL x-phosphate made up in 10 mL solution 3, filter sterilize) at room temperature.  
8 Color development was monitored every hour and the reaction stopped by incubating the sections  
9 with buffer 4 (10mM Tris-HCL, 1mM EDTA, pH8.0). Stained sections were mounted in 0.2%  
10 propyl gallate in PBS/50% glycerol. Controls included the sense probe or omission of probes and  
11 anti-DIG-AP antibody sections.  
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### 28 **Immunohistochemistry**

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30 Anti-rat MCP-1 primary antibody and its respective isotype control were purchased commercially  
31 (Abcam, Massachusetts, USA). Sections were deparaffinised using xylene and rehydrated through  
32 descending concentration of ethanol. Antigen retrieval was performed using microwave heating in  
33 10 mM EDTA buffer, and the sections were washed with Tris-buffered saline (TBS) for 5 min  
34 following antigen retrieval. The elimination of non-specific protein binding was performed by  
35 incubating the sections with 10% fetal calf serum (made up in TBS) for 1 h at room temperature.  
36 Specimens were then incubated at 4°C overnight with the primary antibody diluted to 5 µg/mL  
37 made up in TBS. Normal rabbit IgG (5 µg/mL, Santa Cruz, USA), was used as respective isotype  
38 controls. The following day, the sections were washed with TBS for 5 min followed by the  
39 elimination of endogenous peroxidase activity by blocking with 3% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 30 min at room  
40 temperature. The sections were washed with TBS and incubated with 2 µg/mL of goat anti rabbit  
41 biotinylated IgG secondary antibodies (made up in TBS) for 30 min at room temperature followed  
42 by 5 min wash with TBS. Sections were incubated with streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase  
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2 complex (Dakocytomation, Australia) diluted 1:300 in TBS for 30 min followed by 5 min washes  
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4 with TBS. The streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase activity was detected by incubating the sections  
5  
6 with liquid diaminobenzidine chromogen (Dakocytomation, Australia) for a predetermined time,  
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8 followed by washing for 5 min in deionized water. Sections were counterstained with Mayer's  
9  
10 haematoxylin for 1 min followed by rinsing in running tap water for 5 min. The sections were then  
11  
12 dehydrated overnight and mounted in Cytoseal permanent mounting media (ProSciTech, Australia).  
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14

### 15 16 **Microscopy**

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18 Sections were examined using bright field optics on an Olympus BX60 microscope. Classification  
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20 of cells was based on morphology and all the immunostained slides were counterstained with  
21  
22 hematoxylin to allow visual identification of the cells. Sections for ISH were not counterstained.  
23  
24  
25 Sections were examined from each time point from Day 1, 4 and 7, but cell-based morphometry  
26  
27 was not quantified because woven bone confounded the surface observations, and osteocytes did  
28  
29 not express the MCP-1 protein or mRNA.  
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### 32 33 **Statistical analysis**

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35 Differences among groups in gene expression were analyzed using one-way ANOVA with post hoc  
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37 analysis of between group differences using Fisher's protected least significant difference test  
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39 (SPSS 17.0; SPSS Inc., USA). Significance was determined at  $P < 0.05$ . Fold differences between  
40  
41 the loaded (right) and the opposite unloaded (left) ulnae were determined for each time point and  
42  
43 paired t-tests were performed to determine the significant differences. For all tests, significance  
44  
45 level was determined at  $P < 0.05$  or greater.  
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### 49 50 **Results**

#### 51 52 **Gene expression in unloaded ulna**

53  
54 To determine basal expression of our target genes in bone, mRNA expression was examined in ulna  
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56 from unloaded animals (Figure 1). The expression of each gene varied quite markedly in the tissue,  
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1  
2 with MIP1 $\alpha$ , OSM and OSMr expressed at the lowest level. There were no significant differences  
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4 between MCP-1 mRNA expression with RANTES, CCR1 and CCR2 ( $P>0.05$ ). However, the  
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6 mRNA level of MCP-1 was 164 times higher than MIP1 $\alpha$  ( $P<0.001$ ), 36 times that of OSM  
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8 ( $P<0.001$ ) and about 9-fold higher than OSMr ( $P<0.01$ ). Nonetheless, the target genes under  
9  
10 investigation were expressed in bone tissue.  
11

### 12 13 14 **Gene expression in SFx ulna**

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16 Following loading, MCP-1 was the only chemokine that significantly increased its gene expression  
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18 compared to the ULC (Table 2, Figure 2). At 4 hours, MCP-1 gene expression was ~30-fold higher  
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20 ( $P<0.001$ ) than ULC; and this had declined to 12-fold by Day 1 [day 1 or 24 hours] ( $P<0.001$ ). By  
21  
22 D4, MCP-1 expression dropped to 3-fold increase with the expression maintained at this level until  
23  
24 D14. For the 2 weeks post-loading, MCP-1 expression remained elevated when compared to ULC  
25  
26 (Figure 2A). Both the chemokine receptors CCR1 and CCR2 showed a marginal increase, with  
27  
28 mRNA expression of CCR1 peaking by Day 4 (2.4 fold,  $P<0.05$ ) and CCR2 by Day 14 (4 fold,  
29  
30  $P<0.05$ ) compared to ULC. CCR2 also showed significant increases at each time-point when  
31  
32 compared to the contralateral ulna (Table 2).  
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36  
37 Compared to ULC, MIP1 $\alpha$ , RANTES, OSM and OSMr showed no significant increase in  
38  
39 expression. But, when compared to unloaded contralateral limbs (Table 2), OSMr showed a small  
40  
41 2.3 fold induction ( $P<0.0002$ ). At Day 4, RANTES showed a small 1.7-fold increase ( $P<0.01$ ); and,  
42  
43 at Day 7, MIP1 $\alpha$  increased by 4.2-fold ( $P<0.002$ ).  
44

### 45 46 **MCP-1 serum level**

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48 To determine if the observed MCP-1 mRNA peak is tissue specific, or has significant effect on the  
49  
50 systemic level of MCP-1 in the rat, serum MCP-1 protein were measured by ELISA. Similar to the  
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52 gene expression data, the serum protein level of MCP-1 peaked by day 1 (1.5 fold,  $P<0.001$ ) and  
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54 dropped to basal level by day 4.  
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## In-situ hybridization and immunohistochemistry

Based on the gene expression study, MCP-1 was examined using ISH and IHC analysis. MCP-1 localization in rat ulna was performed to determine which cell types express this chemokine around the Sfx region. Day 7 post-loading was chosen for Fig 3 (ISH) because woven bone formation reaches its maximum by that time, and coincides with the appearance of BMUs at this site. For IHC (Fig 4), images from days 1, 4 and 7 are included to demonstrate protein expression in bone cells at these time-points. Moderate staining of MCP-1 mRNA was localized in periosteal osteoblasts from Day 1 and osteoblasts within the woven bone at Day 7. Osteocytes adjacent to, or distant from, the Sfx were negative for MCP-1. Cells within the bone marrow cavity also showed mRNA expression for MCP-1 (Fig 3). Immunohistochemical localization of MCP-1 protein showed similar pattern of expression as its mRNA (Fig 4). MCP-1 protein was predominately localized in periosteal osteoblasts (Fig 4A), osteoblasts in the woven bone (Fig 4B and C) and some of the bone marrow cells (Fig 4F). Other cell types that showed positive staining for MCP-1 protein are stromal cells at the periosteal surface and chondrocytes at the growth plate (data not shown).

## Discussion

The role of chemokines in immune regulation has been extensively studied, but less so their regulation of activated bone remodeling. Under baseline physiological conditions, gene expression for the chemokines MCP-1, RANTES, MIP1 $\alpha$ , and their receptors were detected in bone with varying degrees of expression. Following initiation of Sfx, MCP-1 was specifically regulated, compared to the other chemokines examined, with increased gene expression during the early stage of remodeling activation (Figure 2, Table 2). This was further confirmed by the elevation of serum MCP-1 concentration 24 hours after loading. The chemokine receptor, CCR1 also increased relative to the unloaded control from day 4 to 14, and CCR2 at day 14. When compared to the contralateral ulna, both chemokine receptors, CCR1 and 2, showed increased gene expression from day 4 and 4 hours, respectively. Other candidate chemokines typically associated with inflammatory mediators

1  
2 (RANTES, MIP1 $\alpha$ ), and the cytokine OSM showed no consistent increase during 14 days following  
3  
4 SFx.  
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6  
7 Combined with the significant increase in MCP-1 expression associated with PTH treatment in rats  
8  
9 [16], these data point to an important role for MCP-1 in the activation phase of SFx healing and  
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11 bone remodeling. In the anabolic protocol, MCP-1 exhibited the greatest increase in gene  
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13 expression on array analysis following PTH treatment [16]. Several other lines of evidence  
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15 demonstrate involvement of the CC chemokine subfamily (MCP-1, RANTES, MIP1 $\alpha$ ) in  
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17 pathological bone conditions such as multiple myeloma [7], rheumatoid arthritis and osteoarthritis  
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19 [20,21]. Increased activity of osteoclasts is a common phenotype of these bone conditions that lead  
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21 to osteolysis. Unlike these immune associated bone conditions, PTH treatment and SFx are not  
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23 associated with an inflammatory cascade. However, they do share common signaling pathways,  
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25 such as those sharing the gp-130 co-receptor sub unit, such as IL-6 and IL-11 that regulate RANK-  
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27 L/OPG signaling [1,22], and signaling via PGE<sub>2</sub> stimulation of cAMP [23,24].  
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33 Both woven bone formation and bone remodeling require angiogenesis to support the bone cell  
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35 activity. The increase in angiogenic chemokines observed following SFx [5] is highly consistent  
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37 with the increase in MCP1 observed here, because both chemokines attract the cells required to  
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39 support the tissue repair and remodeling. Localization of MCP-1 was observed in periosteal  
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41 osteoblasts at the SFx site (Fig. 3), supporting a hypothesis that osteoblastic expression of MCP-1 is  
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43 involved in osteoclast recruitment and differentiation at the stage of osteoclastogenesis. That  
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45 process is initiated simultaneously with the increase in woven bone formation that stabilizes the exit  
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47 point of the SFx. It is difficult to separate the signaling events regulating these biological processes.  
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49 Nonetheless, the activation of the periosteum, and the increase in bone formation activity, provides  
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51 a rich source of osteoblastic cells capable of signaling via MCP1 expression. Collectively, our data  
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53 implicate MCP-1 as an important molecule for signaling the activation phase of remodeling. A  
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55 limitation of this conclusion is that we have not specifically tested the effect of MCP1 inhibition.  
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1  
2 Osteoblastic cells are critical partners in recruitment of osteoclast progenitors from the circulation  
3 to remodeling sites, and several chemokines regulate this process. For example, SDF1 (CXCL12),  
4 CCL9 (MIP-1 $\gamma$ ) and CCL1 play a role in osteoclast attraction, fusion and/or bone resorption ([25-  
5 27]). Our group previously reported that MCP-1 also promotes human osteoclast fusion [15,28]. In  
6 those experiments, cells treated with MCP-1, but without RANKL, formed TRAP<sup>+</sup> multinuclear  
7 cells that closely resembled osteoclasts, but were unable to resorb bone [15]. GM-CSF overrides the  
8 osteoclast differentiation pathway, leading to dendritic cells even in the presence of RANKL. In that  
9 process, GM-CSF suppressed the RANKL-mediated induction of MCP-1. However, adding back  
10 MCP-1 resulted in the reversal of GM-CSF repression of osteoclast differentiation, suggesting that  
11 MCP-1 has a number of different potent effects on osteoclast differentiation [15].  
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25 We demonstrated that Sfx heals by direct remodeling, by which BMUs migrate along the Sfx line  
26 to repair the damage [1]. In this model, increases in gene and protein expression of target  
27 molecules can be unequivocally related to the remodeling event initiated by Sfx. This is because rat  
28 cortical bone does not undergo secondary remodeling under normal conditions, and changes in  
29 molecular events can be precisely linked to osteoclastogenesis and origination of a BMU. Unlike  
30 other chemokines we have investigated (Table 2; [1]), MCP-1 was significantly increased within 4  
31 hours of the activation phase of remodeling, suggesting a key role in the recruitment of precursor  
32 cells to the site of remodeling, and bone formation.  
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43 In the anabolic application of ulnar loading, in which Sfx was not generated, microarray analysis  
44 identified a group of chemokines, including MCP-1, that were upregulated within 4 hours of  
45 loading [29]. These were down-regulated later in the time course of adaptation when matrix  
46 formation was initiated. Although, the Sfx protocol engenders a remodeling response, it also  
47 initiates early woven bone formation at the fracture exit point to stabilize the Sfx [1]. In our model,  
48 both chemokine receptors CCR1 and CCR2 were moderately increased up to day 14 after the  
49 initiation of Sfx; whereas Mantila et al., (2010) supported a down regulation of these genes during  
50 the matrix formation phase of adaptation (up to 5 weeks after loading). The discrepancy between  
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2 these data likely relates to the activation of remodeling in the SFx model, and the fact that loading  
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4 of the right ulna exerts a systemic effect on the left contralateral unloaded ulna [in the SFx protocol](#)  
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6 [1,30]. Mantila et al (2010) used only contralateral controls making interpretation of data difficult,  
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8 but reinforcing the importance of ULC as we have done.  
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11 We localized MCP-1 mRNA and protein in osteoblasts within the woven bone and stromal cells  
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13 adjacent to the SFx site. From our experience with this model, osteoclasts are observed one week  
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15 after SFx, with the appearance of BMU migrating along the SFx line by 2 weeks. Localization of  
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17 MCP-1 at a site destined for remodeling is consistent with our hypothesis that chemokines are  
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19 activated to recruit osteoclasts and their precursor cells to the site of remodeling. We also know  
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21 that inflammatory cells are absent at the SFx site [1], supporting our observations that osteoblasts  
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23 are the main cell type to synthesize MCP-1 protein during skeletal repair.  
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27 We have found OSM and OSMr to be expressed at a low level in unloaded rat ulnae when  
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29 compared to house keeping genes (Figure 1A). Following SFx initiation, there was no significant  
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31 increase in the mRNA expression of OSM and its receptor. Conversely, Mantila et al., (2010)  
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33 showed an upregulation at 4h after adaptive mechanical loading. OSM induces osteoblast  
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35 proliferation and collagen synthesis [31], and promotes bone formation [18] *in vitro*. During  
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37 differentiation of primary murine osteoblasts, or Kusa4b10 cells, expression of OSM and its  
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39 receptor increases as osteoblastic cells mature from day 7 to 14. The [principal](#) “adaptive” response  
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41 to ulnar loading is new lamellar bone formation, in contradistinction to the SFx model in which  
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43 woven bone formation and bone remodeling occur. OSM, therefore, appears to be more concerned  
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45 with regulation of bone matrix formation, than early signaling of the BMU progenitors.  
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49 In conclusion, we identified that [the chemokine MCP-1 is specifically regulated during](#) the early  
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51 phase of remodeling following SFx initiation. MCP-1 mRNA and protein were localized in  
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53 osteoblasts adjacent to the SFx. Because MCP-1 is secreted by osteoblasts, and its receptor CCR2  
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55 can be found in osteoclasts [28], it is a strong candidate as an important signaling molecule  
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57 attracting osteoclasts and its precursors to the site of bone remodeling.  
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## Acknowledgments

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## FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Relative mRNA expression of each target gene in unloaded rat ulnae at baseline. The fold difference of MCP-1, relative to RANTES (0.49), CCR1 (0.95) and CCR2 (1.16) were not significant; but MCP-1 was expressed at significantly higher fold levels than MIP1 $\alpha$  (164.2;  $P < 0.001$ ), OSM (34.5;  $P < 0.001$ ) and OSMr (8.8,  $P < 0.01$ ). Transcript level is relative to housekeeping genes HPRT and GAPDH.

Figure 2. Gene expression of chemokine MCP-1, and the receptors CCR1, CCR2; and serum protein level of MCP-1 after initiation of SFx. (A) Relative to the ULC, an early increase in MCP-1 gene expression occurred 4 h post loading, and declined markedly by day 4; but remained significantly greater than the contralateral ulna to D14. Both CCR1 (B) and CCR2 (C) gene expression marginally increased over the time course compared to the ULC. CCR1 was significantly greater than ULC at Day 7, and increased to day 14. Relative to ULC, CCR2 peaked at D14 after loading (C), but was significantly greater in loaded ulnae relative to the contralateral side from 4 h. Serum protein levels of MCP-1 followed a similar trend for its gene expression, peaking by Day 1 and decreased to basal levels by D4 (D) after SFx initiation. Transcript level is relative to housekeeping genes HPRT and GAPDH. Left ulnae were used as contralateral controls. ULC = unloaded control. \*\*\*= $P < 0.001$ , \*\* =  $P < 0.01$ , \*= $P < 0.05$  compared to ULC; { show pairwise differences between left and right ulnae,  $P < 0.05$ .

Figure 3. Localization of MCP-1 mRNA by ISH in bone tissue adjacent to the SFx exit point 7 days after mechanical loading. MCP-1 mRNA can be localized in osteoblastic cells in woven bone at the fracture exit point (A, small arrows), and bone marrow cells (D), but was not localized in osteocytes at any time point (C). Sense probe is negative for non-specific staining (B). Scale bar = 50 $\mu$ M. WoB = woven bone, Thick arrow = original periosteal margin. Ot=osteocytes

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4 Figure 4. Localization of MCP-1 protein by IHC in bone tissue adjacent to the SFx exit point 1, 4  
5 and 7 days after mechanical loading. MCP-1 protein is localized in osteoblastic cells in the  
6 periosteum (Ps) 1 day following loading (A, small arrow); and in the woven bone at the fracture exit  
7 point at 4 (B) and 7 days after loading (C). Osteocytes adjacent to, and distant from, the SFx were  
8 negative for MCP1 staining (E); but bone marrow cells were positive (F). Isotype controls (D) were  
9 negative for non-specific staining. The images counterstained with hematoxylin. Scale bar =  
10 50µM. WoB= woven bone, Thick arrow = original periosteal margin. Ot=osteocytes  
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Table 1: Taqman primers used for the detection of target genes in the experiment

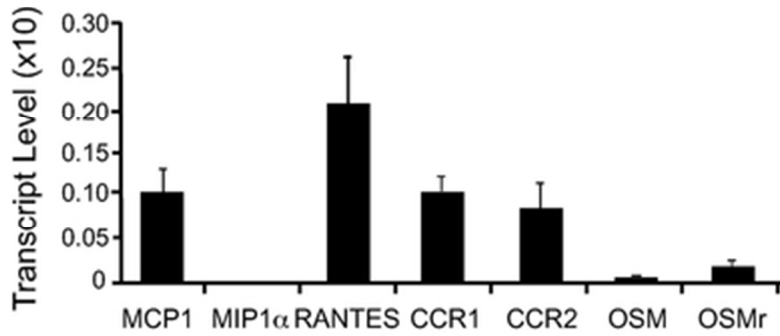
Gene	Applied Biosystems Assay ID	Amplicon size (bp)
HPRT	Rn01527840_m1	64
GAPDH	Rn01775763_g1	174
MCP-1	Rn00580555_m1	95
MIP1a	Rn00564660_m1	76
RANTES	Rn00579590_m1	80
CCR1	Rn00571950_s1	96
CCR2	Rn01637698_s1	103
OSM	Rn01752533_g1	81
OSMr	Rn01402599_m1	85

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Table 2: Summary of fold changes in gene expression of target genes between loaded limbs and unloaded control (ULC) limbs, and loaded limbs and their contralateral control limb. NS = non significant

Time	Gene	Fold differences to ULC	P-value	Fold differences to contralateral limb	P-value
<b>4h</b>	MCP1	30.4	P<0.0001	33.4	P<0.03
	MIP1a	1.3	NS	0.8	NS
	RANTES	1.6	NS	0.7	NS
	CCR1	1.3	NS	1.5	NS
	CCR2	2.7	NS	2.6	P<0.02
	OSM	0.5	NS	0.7	NS
	OSMr	2.6	P<0.05	2.3	P<0.01
<b>D1</b>	MCP1	11.8	P<0.0001	13.2	P<0.0001
	MIP1a	1.3	NS	1.2	NS
	RANTES	0.9	NS	1.1	NS
	CCR1	2.1	NS	1.5	NS
	CCR2	2.6	NS	2.6	P<0.04
	OSM	1.0	NS	1.3	NS
	OSMr	2.2	NS	1.2	NS
<b>D4</b>	MCP1	2.8	NS	2.0	P<0.02
	MIP1a	1.5	NS	2.0	NS

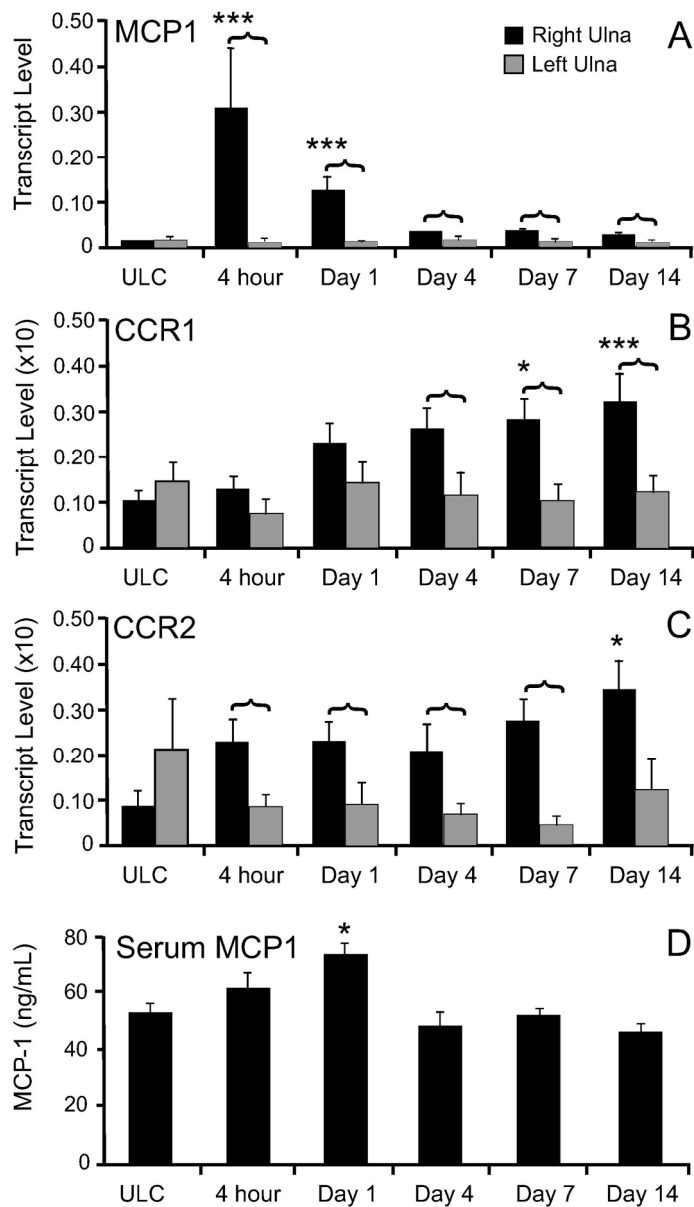
	RANTES	0.8	NS	1.7	NS
	CCR1	2.4	NS	1.7	P<0.03
	CCR2	2.2	NS	3.3	P<0.02
	OSM	0.8	NS	0.7	NS
	OSMr	1.9	NS	0.8	NS
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<b>D7</b>	MCP1	2.5	NS	2.2	P<0.003
	MIP1a	2.2	NS	4.2	P<0.01
	RANTES	1.1	NS	2.5	P<0.03
	CCR1	2.7	P<0.05	2.2	P<0.005
	CCR2	3.2	NS	7.2	P<0.004
	OSM	1.5	NS	1.3	NS
	OSMr	2.3	NS	0.7	NS
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<b>D14</b>	MCP1	2.1	NS	2.1	P<0.03
	MIP1a	1.3	NS	1.1	NS
	RANTES	2.2	NS	2.0	NS
	CCR1	3.0	P<0.001	2.2	NS
	CCR2	4.2	P<0.05	2.5	NS
	OSM	1.6	NS	1.6	NS
	OSMr	1.8	NS	0.7	NS



Relative mRNA expression of each target gene in unloaded rat ulnae at baseline. The fold difference of MCP-1, relative to RANTES (0.49), CCR1 (0.95) and CCR2 (1.16) were not significant; but MCP-1 was expressed at significantly higher fold levels than MIP1 $\alpha$  (164.2;  $P < 0.001$ ), OSM (34.5;  $P < 0.001$ ) and OSMr (8.8,  $P < 0.01$ ). Transcript level is relative to housekeeping genes HPRT and GAPDH  
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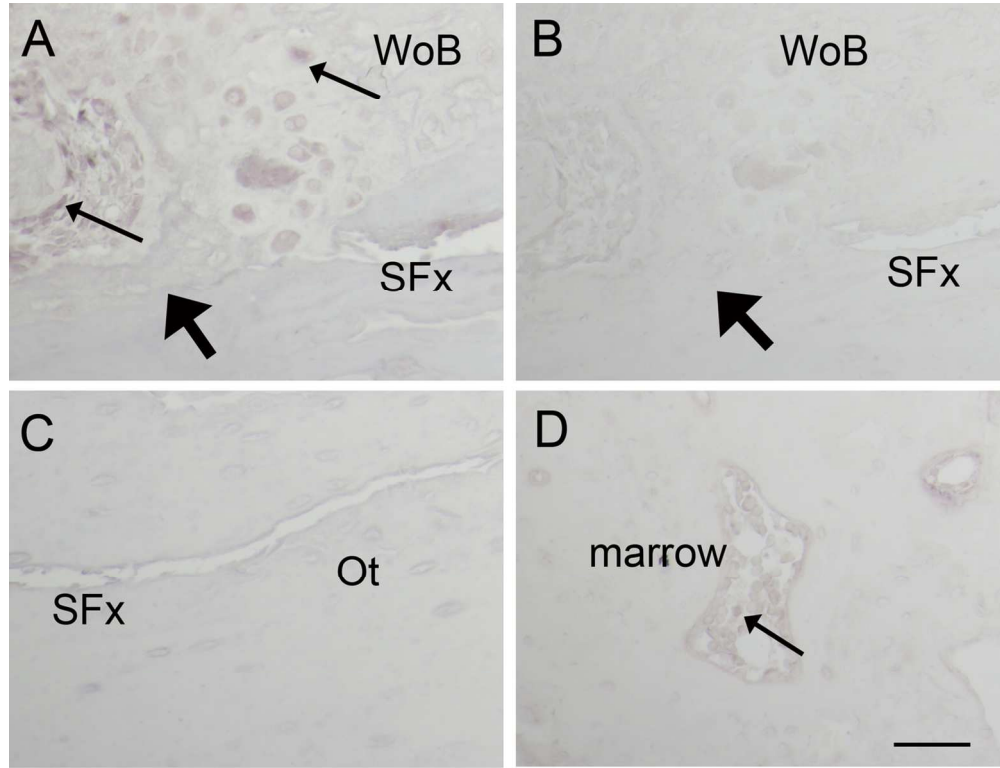
Gene expression of chemokine MCP-1, and the receptors CCR1, CCR2; and serum protein level of MCP-1 after initiation of SFX. (A) Relative to the ULC, an early increase in MCP-1 gene expression occurred 4 h post loading, and declined markedly by day 4; but remained significantly greater than the contralateral ulna to D14. Both CCR1 (B) and CCR2 (C) gene expression marginally increased over the time course compared to the ULC. CCR1 was significantly greater than ULC at Day 7, and increased to day 14. Relative to ULC, CCR2 peaked at D14 after loading (C), but was significantly greater in loaded ulnae relative to the contralateral side from 4 h. Serum protein levels of MCP-1 followed a similar trend for its gene expression, peaking by Day 1 and decreased to basal levels by D4 (D) after SFX initiation. Transcript level is relative to housekeeping genes HPRT and GAPDH. Left ulnae were used as contralateral controls. ULC = unloaded control. \*\*\*=P<0.001, \*\* = P < 0.01, \* = P<0.05 compared to ULC; { show pairwise differences between left and right ulnae, P < 0.05.

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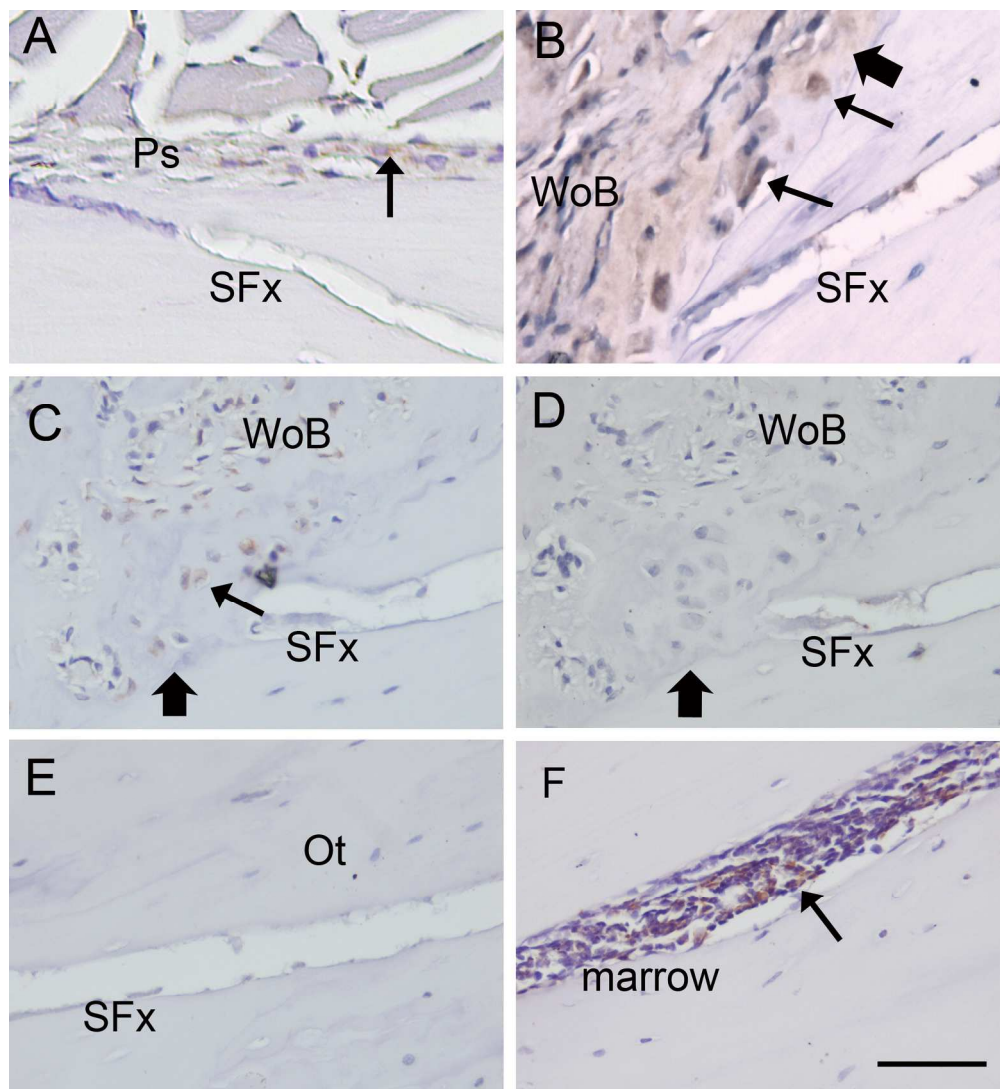
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Localization of MCP-1 mRNA by ISH in bone tissue adjacent to the SFx exit point 7 days after mechanical loading. MCP-1 mRNA can be localized in osteoblastic cells in woven bone at the fracture exit point (A, small arrows), and bone marrow cells (D), but was not localized in osteocytes at any time point (C). Sense probe is negative for non-specific staining (B). Scale bar = 50µM. WoB = woven bone, Thick arrow = original periosteal margin. Ot=osteocytes  
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Localization of MCP-1 protein by IHC in bone tissue adjacent to the SFx exit point 1, 4 and 7 days after mechanical loading. MCP-1 protein is localized in osteoblastic cells in the periosteum (Ps) 1 day following loading (A, small arrow); and in the woven bone at the fracture exit point at 4 (B) and 7 days after loading (C). Osteocytes adjacent to, and distant from, the SFx were negative for MCP1 staining (E); but bone marrow cells were positive (F). Isotype controls (D) were negative for non-specific staining. The images counterstained with hematoxylin. Scale bar = 50µM. WoB= woven bone, Thick arrow = original periosteal margin. Ot=osteocytes  
 91x99mm (600 x 600 DPI)