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Review Circadian clock and bone biology

Takao Hirai*

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Department of Pharmacology, School of Dentistry, Aichi-Gakuin University, 1-100 Kusumoto-cho, Chikusa-ku, Nagoya 464-8650, Japan

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ABSTRACT

Background: Many metabolic and physiological processes display circadian oscillations that are con- Q2 Q3 trolled by the internal circadian clock system. A molecular clock system is generated by the transcriptional-translational feedback loops of clock genes. Circadian oscillators reside in peripheral tissues where they receive timing cues from the central clock in the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN). Circadian rhythms have also been identified in bone and cartilage.

Highlight: Recent findings demonstrated that bone metabolic functions of the major cell types namely osteoblasts, chondrocytes, and osteoclasts, are closely related to an intrinsic biological rhythm, named the circadian clock. Several studies have also shown that clock genes play significant roles in bone formation and resorption. Adrenergic receptor signaling in osteoblasts was previously reported to synchronize clock genes as well as genes that are important for osteoblast function such as Ptgs2 gene encoding prostaglandin G/H synthetase 2, which is a late-limiting enzyme for prostaglandin synthesis. Since the circadian clock regulates key molecules in cellular functions of osteoblasts and osteoclasts, this system may be closely involved in the cellular functions associated with bone remodeling.

Conclusion: This review focuses on the latest knowledge on the molecular mechanisms of biological clocks and their roles in bone biology, indicating the potential of this clock system in the treatment of bone disorders.

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Abbreviations: AR, adrenergic receptor; BMAL1, brain and muscle arnt-like 1; BMP, bone morphogenetic protein; CCG, clock-controlled genes; CLOCK, circadian locomotor output cycles kaput; CRY, cryptochromes; E4BP4, E4 promoter-binding protein 4; FGF, fibroblast growth factor; Ihh, indian hedgehog; NFATc1, nuclear factor of activated T cells cytoplasmic 1; Nfil3, nuclear factor IL-3; OPG, osteoprotegerin; PER, period; PPR, PTH/PTHrP receptor; PTH, parathyroid hormone; PTHrP, parathyroid hormone-related protein; RANKL, receptor activator of NF-KB ligand; ROR, retinoid acid-related orphan receptor; SCN, suprachiasmatic nucleus; TRAP, tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase * Corresponding author. Present address: Laboratory of Medicinal Resources, School of Pharmacy, Aichi Gakuin University, 1–100 Kusumoto-cho, Chikusa-ku, Nagoya 464-

8650, Japan. E-mail address: t-hirai@dpc.agu.ac.jp

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1. Introduction

Circadian rhythms are daily fluctuations over a period of approximately 24 h in physiology and behavior that have evolved in response to the Earth's rotation. The circadian clock, an evolutionarily conserved mechanism, is an essential time-keeping system that entrains the internal physiology to environmental cues. The circadian clock system comprises a hierarchal structure [1–3]. The main circadian rhythm is controlled by the central clock in the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) located in the hypothalamus, and receives light input from the retina through the retino-hypothalamic tract. The SCN is regarded as the master circadian pacemaker that controls most of the physical circadian rhythms in mammals. Peripheral clocks are self-sustaining clock mechanisms existing in peripheral tissues where they receive timing cues from the SCN.

16 The circadian autoregulatory loop is generated by a transcrip-17 tional-translational mechanism that shares the same molecular 18 components and is conserved between species. The circadian 19 clocks in the SCN of the clock center, in peripheral tissues, and 20 even in cultured cells essentially share the same mechanisms [4]. 21 Circadian rhythms are controlled by a negative feedback me-22 chanism involving clock genes. The transcription factor brain and 23 muscle arnt-like 1 (BMAL1) is an essential positive regulator of the 24 core molecular clock loop [5]. BMAL1 forms a heterodimer with 25 circadian locomotor output cycles kaput (CLOCK), which recognizes a conserved E-box (CACGTG) to elicit target gene tran-26 27 scription. In the nucleus, BMAL1/CLOCK heterodimers directly 28 activate negative regulators of the core clock circuit, the Period 29 (PER) genes (PER1, PER2, and PER3) and Cryptochromes (CRY1 and 30 CRY2), through the E-Box, a transcription factor binding site lo-31 cated in the promoter region of PER genes [5–7]. These factors then 32 inhibit the BMAL1/CLOCK-mediated gene transactivation, which, 33 coupled with temporally controlled post-translational modifica-34 tions (phosphorylation, ubiguitination, acetylation, and protea-35 some-mediated degradation), generates the daily oscillations of 36 the molecular clock [8–11]. An additional transcriptional negative 37 feedback loop involves the nuclear receptors Rev-erb α/β and re-38 tinoid acid-related orphan receptor (ROR)- α and forms a reinfor-39 cing mechanism that safeguards the robustness of the clock cir-40 cuitry [12,13]. BMAL1/CLOCK activates Rev-erbα transcription, 41 resulting in daily fluctuations in Rev-erb α expression, which in 42 turn represses Bmal1. Together with positive transcriptional reg-43 ulation by retinoid acid-related orphan receptors (ROR α , β , γ), 44 Rev-erbs/RORs generate rhythmic oscillations in Bmal1 gene 45 transcription, and occupancy of the Bmal1 promoter by either Rev $erb\alpha$ or ROR α is crucial for proper timing of the core clock ma-46 47 chinery [13].

48 Circadian rhythms have also been identified in bone and carti-49 lage [14–16]. A previous study reported circadian rhythms in the 50 articular cartilage and growth plates in mouse *ex vivo* bone cultures 51 [17]. Osteoblasts have been shown to express clock genes associated 52 with the circadian signaling pathway. Bone mineralization in de-53 veloping bone tissue has been demonstrated to be linked to circa-54 dian oscillator mechanisms using non-invasive Raman microscopy 55 to track mineral accumulation in ex vivo neonatal murine calvarial 56 organ cultures [18]. Osteoclast resorptive activity also exhibits cir-57 cadian rhythmicity and is controlled by various endocrine hor-58 mones and cytokines [19-22]. The clock system has recently been 59 identified as one of the major mechanisms controlling cellular 60 functions. Circadian clock gene oscillations also participate actively 61 in the functions of various cells. Previous studies demonstrated that 62 clock genes play significant roles in bone formation and resorption, 63 suggesting the potential of these genes as novel therapeutic targets 64 for skeletal diseases. This review summarizes recent knowledge on 65 clock and clock-controlled genes in the bone that have been shown to critically affect bone metabolism. 66

2. Circadian rhythms in endochondral bone formation

Recent studies identified an autonomous circadian clock in cartilage [17,23], and demonstrated that clock genes play significant roles in chondrocytes. Chondrocyte BMAL1 is required for the normal daily functions and integrity of adult articular cartilage [24]. Furthermore, a BMAL1 deficiency resulted in an accelerated aging phenotype, and has been suggested to play a role in the development of age-associated diseases such as osteoarthritis [24].

Endochondral ossification is an essential process of skeletal development in the fetal and neonatal periods [25]. During skeletal development, mesenchymal progenitor cells undergo a multistage differentiation process in which they proliferate and differentiate into bone- and cartilage-forming cells. Signaling molecules play important roles in the regulation of chondrocyte development [25]. Fibroblast growth factor (FGF) signaling [26,27], 82 bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) signaling [28], and Indian 83 hedgehog (Ihh) signaling [29-31] participate in regulating chon-84 drocyte proliferation and differentiation. Parathyroid hormone 85 (PTH)-related protein (PTHrP), regulated by Ihh and acting through 86 the PTH/PTHrP receptor (PPR), is crucial for normal bone growth in 87 88 the fetus and for subsequent bone growth in postnatal life [25,32]. PTHrP regulates the length of the columnar region by allowing 89 continued proliferation of columnar chondrocytes and suppressing 90 their terminal differentiation into post-mitotic hypertrophic 91 chondrocytes [33]. On the other hand, previous studies using 92 conditional knockout of BMAL1 showed that endochondral ossi-93 fication is regulated by particular clock genes expressed in chon-94 drocytes [34]. Takarada et al. demonstrated that the clock gene 95 Per1 negatively regulated chondrocyte differentiation by sup-96 pressing the functional E-box in the *Ihh* promoter [34]. Adminis-97 tration of PTH induced phase shifts in oscillations in the circadian 98 99 clock in the growth plate and articular cartilage of a bone organ culture system. It also reset the circadian clock of chondrocytes 100 generated during the process of bone fracture healing [35]. Hinoi 101 et al. suggested that PTH induced the expression of Per1 and Per2 102 through the PPR in organ-cultured fetal metatarsals [36]. There-103 fore, the actions of PTHrP may mediate some of the circadian clock 104 gene expression in chondrocytes. Collectively, these findings pro-105 vide in vivo and in vitro evidence for the importance of the mo-106 lecular clock in endochondral bone formation. 107

3. The circadian clock is involved in the regulation of bone metabolism

The central clock SCN is considered to orchestrate the circadian 113 clock in peripheral tissues through neuronal and/or neuronal 114 hormonal signals [37–40]. Although peripheral circadian oscilla-115 tors have been implicated in the physiological functions of various 116 tissues, the extent of their influence currently remains unknown 117 [41,42]. Previous studies have characterized circadian clock gene 118 oscillations in bone cells [22,43], and indicated that neuronal and/ 119 or hormonal signals stimulated oscillations in the circadian clock 120 121 genes in osteoblasts and osteoclasts (Fig. 1). Clock genes, including *Per1*, *Per2*, and *Per3*, were found to be significantly upregulated by 122 β -adrenergic receptor (AR) signaling in human osteoblasts [44]. 123 The circadian expression of Fgf23, which is an important regulator 124 of phosphate and vitamin D metabolism, in the skeleton was as-125 sessed by food intake and was found to be involved in the systemic 126 activation of sympathetic tone [45]. In addition, AR signaling 127 regulates the Ptgs2 gene encoding prostaglandin G/H synthetase 2, 128 which is a late-limiting enzyme for prostaglandin synthesis, by 129 130 driving clock genes in osteoblasts (Fig. 2) [46]. The BMAL/CLOCK complex transcribes a number of downstream targets, termed as 131 132 clock-controlled genes (CCGs) that encode other transcription

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