

INVITED MEDICAL REVIEW

Osteoclasts and odontoclasts: signaling pathways to development and disease

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Osteoclasts are cells essential for physiologic remodeling of bone and also play important physiologic and pathologic roles in the dentofacial complex. Osteoclasts and odontoclasts are necessary for tooth eruption yet result in dental compromise when associated with permanent tooth internal or external resorption. The determinants that separate their physiologic and pathologic roles are not well delineated. Clinical cases of primary eruption failure and root resorption are challenging to treat. Mineralized tissue resorbing cells undergo a fairly well characterized series of differentiation stages driven by transcriptional mediators. Signal transduction via cytokines and integrin-mediated events comprise the detailed pathways operative in osteo/odontoclastic cells and may provide insights to their targeted regulation. A better understanding of the unique aspects of osteoclastogenesis and osteo/odontoclast function will facilitate effective development of new therapeutic approaches. This review presents the clinical challenges and delves into the cellular and biochemical aspects of the unique cells responsible for resorption of mineralized tissues of the craniofacial complex.

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Introduction and clinical scenarios

Tooth eruption and exfoliation are complicated processes that involve tightly programmed events coordinating functions of osteoblasts, osteoclasts, dental follicle cells, and periodontal ligament cells (Wise *et al*, 2002). During pre-emergent tooth eruption, the rate of

resorption of overlying structures is critical to direct eruption, and hence support the erupting tooth to move along the appropriate path (Proffit and Frazier-Bowers, 2009). Osteoclasts are essential for developing the eruption pathway, which is independent of the pressure from the erupting tooth (Cahill, 1969). Osteoclast precursors are recruited to the dental follicle upon the initiation of tooth eruption. The most well-studied molecules involved are colony stimulating factor 1 (CSF-1) and monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1) secreted by dental follicle cells (Wise *et al*, 1999; Grier *et al*, 1998). CSF-1 and MCP-1 attract monocytes, which differentiate and fuse to form osteoclasts. The timing for osteoclast function during eruption is critical and if osteoclast number is altered at that time, tooth eruption will be delayed or inhibited (Yoshino *et al*, 2003). Clinically there are several dental abnormality scenarios that may be related to altered osteoclast development or function.

Primary eruption failure

Primary eruption failure is a clinical condition where a tooth fails to erupt in the absence of secondary obstruction and in addition does not respond to orthodontic treatment (Proffit and Vig, 1981). It may be syndrome or non-syndrome associated and affects both primary and permanent teeth, bilaterally or unilaterally. Primary eruption failure predominantly involves posterior teeth and is familial in about 45% of cases (Ahmad *et al*, 2006). In primary eruption failure, all teeth distal to the most mesial involved tooth have defective eruption. Permanent molars with primary eruption failure tend to become ankylosed, especially if they have undergone orthodontic treatment. The mechanism of primary eruption failure is not very well understood. In humans, eruption failure can be associated with genetic disorders associated with mutant runt-related transcription factor 2 (Runx2), TNF receptor associated factor (TRAF) 6 and fibroblast growth factor receptor (FGFR)1-3 (Ahmad *et al*, 2006). Recently mutations in parathyroid hormone receptor -1 (PTH1R) have been identified in familial nonsyndromic primary

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eruption failure in a dominant transmission pattern (Decker *et al*, 2008; Frazier-Bowers *et al*, 2010). These mutations make abnormal precursor proteins that undergo premature proteolytic degradation resulting in a functionless receptor, suggesting that haploinsufficiency rather than gain-of-function of PTHr1 is an underlying mechanism of nonsyndromic primary eruption failure. Clinical management of primary eruption failure is a challenge. To improve prediction and early intervention strategies, further research is needed to elucidate the mechanism of primary eruption failure, including the role of osteoclasts.

Ankylosis

Ankylosis is a clinical condition that prevents further tooth eruption due to obliteration of the periodontal ligament and subsequent fusion of the tooth and osseous structure. The prevalence of ankylosis of primary molars has been estimated at be 3.7%, with highest incidence in children between seven and eleven years of age (Krakowiak, 1978). The mandibular first primary molar is most frequently affected versus other teeth in younger children. The frequency of ankylosis of the second primary molar increases in older children. It is thought that early ankylosis may be due to congenital reduction of bone resorption (Popoff and Marks, 1990). Animal studies in op/op mice showed ankylosis between the root dentin and proliferating bone trabeculae was a common feature, very likely subsequent to a deficiency of osteoclasts and bone remodeling (Kawata *et al*, 1999). However, the exact mechanism is not clear. A clinical case of ankylosed primary molar is shown in Figure 1.

Root resorption

The precise events initiating and controlling apical root resorption in primary teeth have been elusive (Harokopakis-Hajishengallis, 2007). The presence of the erupting permanent tooth is likely a critical contributing factor. The dental follicle, rather than the tooth itself, is

more critical in controlling the tooth eruption process (Marks and Cahill, 1984). The underlying tooth bud contributes to primary tooth root resorption either through direct pressure (Sahara, 2001), or via genetically programmed signals sent from the dental follicle independent of pressure. This is evidenced by the findings that conditioned media from dental follicles promotes osteoclastogenesis and the tightly controlled temporal expression of receptor activator for nuclear factor κ B ligand (RANKL) in the dental follicle (Kawakami *et al*, 2000; Liu *et al*, 2005).

Odontoclasts and resorption

Odontoclasts are thought to differentiate from circulating progenitor cells (Sahara *et al*, 1996). Such progenitor cells reside in the dental pulp and periodontal ligament, sharing similar characteristics with osteoclasts such as the expression of cathepsin K, cathepsin D, tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase (TRAP), matrix metalloproteinases (MMP)-9, H⁺-ATPase, membrane type 1 (MT1)-MMP expression and the formation of a clear zone and ruffled border (Gotz *et al*, 2000; Linsuw-anont-Santiwong *et al*, 2006). In physiological primary tooth resorption, mature odontoclast formation only occurs after attachment to the resorption surface (Sahara *et al*, 1992). Given that the extracellular matrix protein distribution pattern is different in primary teeth versus permanent teeth, osteoclast/odontoclast activation may be extracellular matrix dependent (Lee *et al*, 2004). In the case of over-retention of primary teeth, decreased odontoclast activity is observed (Bimstein *et al*, 2000).

Cells from periodontal ligament, dental follicle, cementum, and dental pulp are all important in odontoclast/osteoclastogenesis and root resorption. All origins of osteoclastogenic cells involve the orchestration of essential molecules in the osteoprotegerin (OPG)/RANKL/RANK system. RANKL is expressed in periodontal ligament (PDL) cells from actively resorbing primary teeth, but not non-resorbing teeth or permanent teeth



Figure 1. Ankylosis of primary teeth. An 18-year-old male presenting with retained and ankylosed primary molars. Note the posterior open bite and resorption of roots of primary molars even in the absence of permanent premolars (kindly provided Dr. Scott Conley)

(Fukushima *et al*, 2003; Hasegawa *et al*, 2002). RANKL is also expressed in pulp fibroblasts, odontoblasts, cementoblasts, and ameloblasts (Lossdorfer *et al*, 2002; Rani and MacDougall, 2000; Berry *et al*, 2006). Similarly, RANKL and CSF-1 are significantly more highly expressed in primary dental pulps than in pulpal tissues of permanent teeth, supporting the preferential resorption of primary teeth (Yildirim *et al*, 2008). PDL cells from patients having *RUNX2* mutations resulting in the genetic condition of cleidocranial dysostosis are defective in their support of osteoclastogenesis *in vitro*, and may partially account for the delayed tooth eruption in those patients (Lossdorfer *et al*, 2009). Both PDL and dental pulp spontaneously induce the differentiation of osteoclasts *in vitro* without osteotropic factors (Uchiyama *et al*, 2009). In addition, PDL cells can also mediate systemic regulation of osteoclastogenesis. For example, parathyroid hormone (PTH) increases RANKL expression in PDLs and induces Notch signaling through Jagged 1 expression in PDLs to promote osteo/odontoclastogenesis (Nakao *et al*, 2009; Nohutcu *et al*, 1993).

In conditions of periapical periodontitis, osteoclasts and a variety of inflammatory cytokines are present at the lesion site. The number of osteoclasts present correlates with gene expression for MMP-2, MMP-9 (Corotti *et al*, 2009), *c-fos* (Yang and Peng, 2008), and RANKL (Zhang and Peng, 2005) along with activation of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK) (Zhang *et al*, 2008). In contrast, osteoclast number is negatively associated with interleukin-17 (IL-17) expression (Xiong *et al*, 2009).

External root resorption is a relatively common and adverse complication of orthodontic treatment (Yamaguchi, 2009). About 80% of orthodontic patients will have mild root resorption at the end of treatment (Harris *et al*, 2001), 30% will have greater than 3 mm resorption, and 5% will have more than 5 mm resorption (Killiany, 1999). Risk factors for root resorption include patient gender, severity of malocclusion, apical displacement, treatment mechanics and duration, as well as genetic disposition (Segal *et al*, 2004; Harris *et al*, 2001; Lopatiene and Dumbravaite, 2008). Root resorption is a complex, sterile inflammatory process that involves mechanical force, tooth and bone tissue, cells of the surrounding matrix, and certain known biologic messengers (Brezniak and Wasserstein, 2002). The process involves two pathways (Hartsfield, 2009; Hartsfield *et al*, 2004). The first involves activation of odontoclastic cells through the ATP/P2XR7/IL-1 β inflammation modulation pathway. Local damage of tissue may result in ATP release, which can activate the receptor P2XR7 on macrophages or other cell types leading to further release of cytokines including IL-1 β . Such cytokines can recruit more monocytes and macrophages to eliminate apoptotic cells and prevent further necrosis. Both P2XR7 and IL-1 β knockout mice have significantly greater root resorption than wild type controls when undergoing experimental orthodontic treatments (Viecilli *et al*, 2009; Hartsfield, 2009). Similarly, patients with IL-1 β polymorphisms also are more

susceptible to external resorption associated with orthodontic treatment (Al-Qawasmi *et al*, 2003).

The second pathway involves the RANK/RANKL/OPG osteoclast program. Not surprisingly, excessive osteoclast activity induced by the inflammatory process will exacerbate root resorption. On the other hand, orthodontically induced root resorption may be associated with defective alveolar resorption and/or turnover along with tooth movement or force application, resulting in prolonged stress and strain (Hartsfield *et al*, 2004). Therefore, any risk factors that interfere with osteoclast function may actually contribute to more root resorption. Increased local OPG can inhibit orthodontic tooth movement and bone modeling (Dunn *et al*, 2007; Kanzaki *et al*, 2001). Recently, an association of a single nucleotide polymorphism of the OPG gene with root resorption in orthodontic treated patients was reported (Hartsfield, 2009). Targeting osteoclast activation can modulate root resorption. Such inhibition was observed in osteopontin (OPN) deficient mice (Chung *et al*, 2008) and when the $\alpha v \beta 3$ integrin receptor was inhibited by echistatin, an RGD containing peptide in a rat model (Talic *et al*, 2006; Dolce *et al*, 2003). Further research needs to be done to elucidate how osteoclast activation can be modulated during orthodontic treatment to prevent root resorption. Several clinical scenarios of root resorption are illustrated in Figure 2.

Osteoclast biology

Osteoclastogenesis

Osteoclasts originate from hematopoietic precursor cells and undergo a multistep differentiation scheme that occurs nearly exclusively in the bone marrow microenvironment. Mononuclear osteoclast precursors have been estimated to comprise 1–4% of circulating monocytic cells (Fujikawa *et al*, 1996). Myeloid precursors go through a well-characterized series of differentiation stages to develop into active bone resorbing osteoclasts (Soltanoff *et al*, 2009). The transcription factor PU.1 is present in early monocytic cells followed by Mitf, AP-1 and NFATc1 transcriptional mediators.

The two essential factors that most positively impact osteoclast differentiation are RANKL and macrophage colony stimulating factor (M-CSF) (Boyle *et al*, 2003). M-CSF is a secreted cytokine that directs hematopoietic progenitor cells along the macrophage and osteoclast lineage by binding to its receptor c-fms (CD115). M-CSF is produced by monocytes, endothelial cells, and granulocytes where its production is stimulated by IL-1, platelet derived growth factor (PDGF), interferon gamma (IFN γ) and GM-CSF (Ross and Teitelbaum, 2005). M-CSF facilitates osteoclast differentiation by promoting cell survival and proliferation of osteoclast precursors, inducing RANK on hematopoietic cells so they can respond to RANKL, and regulating cytoskeletal changes associated with bone resorption (Negishi-Koga and Takayanagi, 2009).

RANKL is a type II transmembrane glycoprotein consisting of a membrane-anchoring domain, a connecting stalk and a receptor-binding ectodomain (Kong

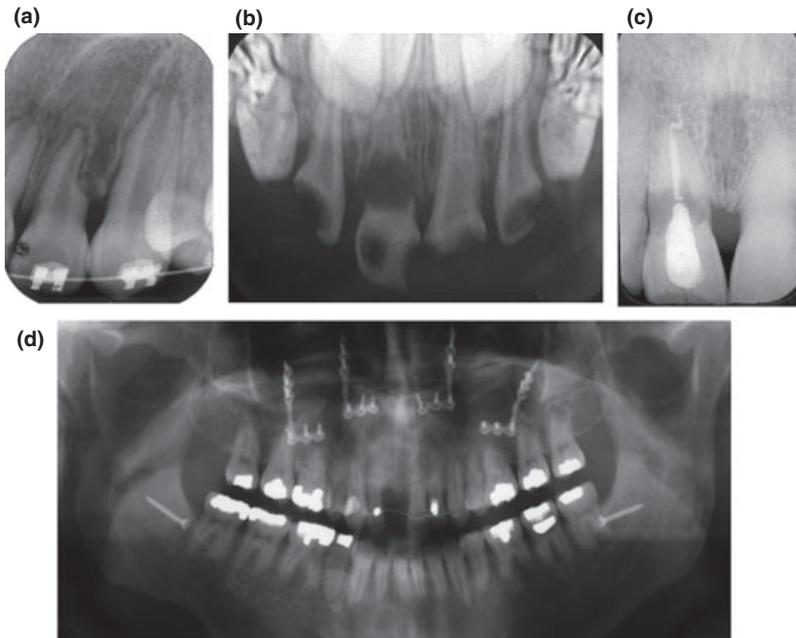


Figure 2. Root resorption. (a) Localized external root resorption secondary to transient mesially erupting canine in a 12-year-old female. (b) Internal resorption in primary incisor #E secondary to extensive caries in a 4-year-old female. (c) External resorption. 77-year-old female with central incisor previously endodontically treated (50 years earlier). Tooth was asymptomatic and had no signs of caries. (d) Generalized external root resorption secondary to comprehensive orthodontic treatment in a 35-year-old male (kindly provided by Dr. Sunil Kapila)

et al, 1999a; Lam *et al*, 2001). Although constructed as a membrane-anchored protein it can be released from the cell surface through proteolytic cleavage by metalloprotease disintegrin TNF- α convertase (TACE). RANKL is expressed largely by osteoblastic, stromal, dendritic cells and activated lymphocytes (Yasuda *et al*, 1998; Josien *et al*, 1999; Teng *et al*, 2000). The receptor for RANKL is RANK, which is found on the surface of hematopoietic cells. The binding of RANKL to RANK is an essential step in the promotion of osteoclast differentiation and bone resorption. Activation of RANKL initiates multiple signal pathways in osteoclast precursors. RANKL mutant mice lack tooth eruption and also have defects in lymph node development (Kong *et al*, 1999b). Most agents that stimulate osteoclastogenesis do so via increases in RANKL in stromal or lymphocytic cells. Examples include IL-1, IL-6, prostaglandin E2, and parathyroid hormone (McCauley *et al*, 1991; Hofbauer *et al*, 1999; Kanematsu *et al*, 2000; Lee and Lorenzo, 1999; O'Brien *et al*, 1999).

There are numerous endogenous and exogenous osteoclast inhibitors (McCauley and Nohutcu, 2002). Calcitonin is a 32 amino acid protein produced by the C cells of the thyroid gland. Osteoclasts have the G-protein linked calcitonin receptor and respond rapidly and profoundly by flattening and withdrawing from the mineralized surface (Chambers and Magnus, 1982). Osteoprotegerin (OPG) is a soluble decoy receptor for RANKL (Lacey *et al*, 1998; Kostenuik and Shalhoub, 2001). OPG inhibits RANKL mediated osteoclastogenesis.

Sex steroids and their exogenous pharmacologic counterparts SERMS (selective estrogen receptor modulators) and SARMS (selective androgen receptor modulators) act indirectly to inhibit osteoclast activity (Evans and Turner, 1995; Lindsay and Cosman, 1997). They reduce monocytic and marrow stromal cell production of the pro-osteoclastic cytokines such as

IL-1, TNF α , IL-6, GM-CSF and M-CSF, increase the osteoblast derived pro-apoptotic factor TGF β , and alter the RANKL/OPG ratio to reduce osteoclastogenesis (Hughes *et al*, 1996; Riggs, 2000).

Bisphosphonates are a class of pharmacologic anti-resorptive drugs that are a mainstay of osteoporosis therapeutics (Russell and Rogers, 1999). The basis of these compounds are two phosphate groups flanking a central carbon atom. Various compounds with this structure have been brought forward for *in vivo* evaluation and use. Those with nitrogen containing side chains are the most potent antiresorptives. Bisphosphonates inhibit osteoclastic bone resorption via their ability to restrict osteoclast protein prenylation with resulting apoptosis. Bisphosphonates have been found to delay tooth eruption in animal models and children treated for osteogenesis imperfecta (Grier and Wise, 1998; Kamoun-Goldrat *et al*, 2008). Recent interest has centered on bisphosphonates and their association with the unique condition, osteonecrosis of the jaw (ONJ) (Khosla *et al*, 2007). ONJ appears to correlate with dose and potency of the anti-resorptive actions of the bisphosphonates (Palaska *et al*, 2009).

Interferon gamma (IFN γ) is a T-cell derived cytokine with potent *in vitro* and *in vivo* osteoclast inhibitor actions (McCauley *et al*, 1989; Takayanagi *et al*, 2000). IFN γ signals through the STAT1 pathway with inhibition of the osteoclast mediator TRAF6 (Stark *et al*, 1998). IFN β is also a strong inhibitor of osteoclast differentiation via the inhibition of RANKL signaling and downstream expression of the AP-1 transcription factor *c-fos* (Takayanagi *et al*, 2002). Macrophage migration inhibitory factor (MIF) is a macrophage and T-cell derived cytokine expressed early during inflammation. It has notable osteoclast inhibitory actions *in vitro* yet the entirety of its actions are not yet clarified *in vivo* (Jacquin *et al*, 2009).

The ephrin receptor family is the largest family of protein tyrosine kinase receptors and was originally described in the neural system (Bruckner and Klein, 1998). Ephrins comprise a family of bidirectional signaling molecules of the A and B class. Their ability to signal in a forward or reverse manner requires cell-to-cell contact. Recently there is evidence that ephrins play critical roles in bone and specifically in the signaling between osteoblasts and osteoclasts (Zhao *et al.*, 2006). Osteoclasts express ephrin B2 and osteoblasts express the ephrinB4 receptor. Reverse signaling of ephrin B4 receptor from osteoblasts through ephrin B2 in osteoclasts results in an inhibition of osteoclast differentiation via an inhibition of NFATc1 and *c-fos* (Zhao *et al.*, 2006). Interestingly, mutations in ephrin B1 in humans have been found to be responsible for a craniofacial abnormality called craniofrontonasal syndrome that includes hypertelorism, a nasal groove, craniosynostosis, and cleft lip and palate (Twigg *et al.*, 2004). Ephrin B1 is downregulated in response to the PTH and may function to regulate signaling of the PTH1R (Berry *et al.*, 2008).

Human conditions of altered osteoclast function: osteopetroses

Osteoclasts are essential for normal physiologic bone remodeling. Compromise in their function results in the pathologic condition of osteopetrosis (Tolar *et al.*, 2004; Blair and Zaidi, 2006; Everts *et al.*, 2009). Osteopetrosis is also called ‘marble bone disease’ due to the exaggerated bone density. The osteopetroses can be generally segregated into two clinical forms; the autosomal dominant, adult (benign) type (ADO) and the autosomal recessive, infantile (malignant) form (ARO) that is profoundly more severe, however, there are other forms that are associated with other organ systems (Villa *et al.*, 2009). Numerous genes have been identified for their association with compromised osteoclast function (see Figure 3 and Table 1). Four genes are most widely linked to human osteopetroses (Figure 3). Generally speaking the severity of the osteoclast compromise is directly related to the severity of the phenotypic presentation of the condition.

Carbonic anhydrase (CAII) is an enzyme responsible for catalyzing the reaction of water and carbon dioxide to bicarbonate and hydrogen ion. The hydrogen ions are then transported to the ruffled border membrane to the V-type proton ATPase pump that exports hydrogen ions to the extracellular space resulting in the lowered pH, which is essential for mineral dissolution (Whyte, 1993). Mutations in CAII were among the first found to be associated with osteopetrosis (Sly *et al.*, 1983). The gene encoding the proton pump is TCIRG1 (T-cell, immune regulator 1), which has been associated with osteopetrotic mutations in humans (Frattini *et al.*, 2000).

Chloride channel 7 (CLCN7) is one of many chloride channels with specialized cellular membrane function. Chloride channel 7 is critical for facilitating acidification of lysosomes and the resorption lacuna in osteoclasts. After attaching to the osseous matrix, osteoclasts undergo polarization, form the ruffled membrane via the fusion

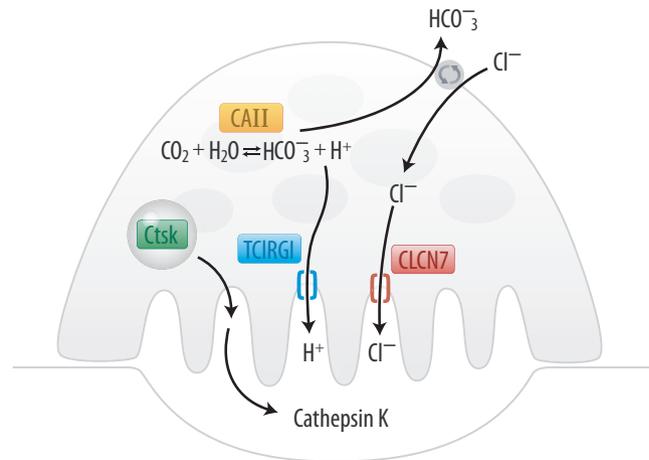


Figure 3. Four genes widely linked to human osteopetroses and their site of action in the osteoclast. Carbonic anhydrase II (CAII) is the enzyme that catalyzes the reaction of water and carbon dioxide to liberate bicarbonate and the hydrogen ions that are exported to the extracellular space to facilitate lowered pH. T-cell, immune regulator 1 (TCIRG1) encodes for a component of the proton pump. Cathepsin K (Ctsk) is a cysteine protease responsible for the degradation of collagen and matrix proteins. Chloride channel 7 (CLCN7) is critical for facilitating electroneutrality of the acidification of lysosomes and the resorption lacuna in osteoclasts

of acidic intracellular vesicles, and acidify the extracellular matrix zone. The ruffled membrane contains Cl⁻ channels that ensure electroneutrality of the acidification (Henriksen *et al.*, 2009). Mutations in CLCN7 have been linked to osteopetrosis and account for approximately 50% of the known cases (Kornak *et al.*, 2001; Cleiren *et al.*, 2001). Associated with the chloride channel 7, mutations in osteopetrosis associated transmembrane protein 1 (OSTM1) are reported in human autosomal recessive osteopetrosis (Chalhoub *et al.*, 2003).

Cathepsin K (Ctsk) is a cysteine protease highly expressed in osteoclasts and responsible for the degradation of collagen and matrix proteins (Inaoka *et al.*, 1995). Mutations in Ctsk are associated with an osteopetrotic condition known as pycnodystosis (Gelb *et al.*, 1996). Cathepsin K is under investigation as a potential target for metabolic bone disease (Henriksen *et al.*, 2007).

Other mutations that have been noted, but are less well characterized relative to numbers of cases, include mutations in RANKL (TNFSF11) and RANK (TNFSF11A) (Sobacchi *et al.*, 2007; Guerrini *et al.*, 2008). Pleckstrin homology domain containing family M (with RUN domain) member 1 (PLEKHM1) encodes a protein implicated in late osteoclast vesicular trafficking and is associated with the immediate form of osteopetrosis (Van Wesenbeeck *et al.*, 2007). A more recent uncommon genetic mutation associated with osteopetrosis involves kindlin 3, which has a close relationship to integrin function (Plow *et al.*, 2009). A few other potential gene mutations have been discussed and cases remain with unidentified mutations (Segovia-Silvestre *et al.*, 2009).

Interestingly, a high proportion of patients with osteopetrosis present with osteomyelitis in association

Table 1 Osteopetroses

<i>Gene defect</i>	<i>Function</i>	<i>Inheritance</i>	<i>Characteristics</i>
CLCN7	Chloride channel (acts as a chloride conductor allowing vacuolar proton-ATPase to acidify the subcellular resorptive area)	Autosomal Dominant	'Bone within a bone' appearance, high fracture rate, osteomyelitis, visual loss, clinical phenotype worsens over time
TCIRG1 (ATP6i, OC116)	Proton pump (Vacuolar proton-ATPase)	Autosomal Recessive	Severe osteopetrosis during infancy; diffuse sclerosis of spine and long bones; visual impairment, bone marrow failure
CLCN7	Chloride channel	Autosomal Recessive	Increased bone density but less severe than TCIRG1 mutations
CAII	Carbonic anhydrase (catalyzes the production of carbonic acid and proton for acidification of the subcellular space)	Autosomal Recessive	Renal tubular acidosis, increased frequency of fractures, short stature, cranial-nerve compression; no hematologic deficiency
OSTM1	Type I transmembrane protein which localizes to intracellular vesicles	Autosomal Recessive	Severe brain abnormalities, epilepsy
NEMO	NF- κ B essential modulator	Autosomal Recessive	Osteopetrosis with anhidrotic ectodermal dysplasia and immunodeficiency
PLEKHM1	Vesicular transport, colocalizes with Rab7 to late endosomal/lysosomal vesicles	Autosomal Recessive	Not as severe as TCIRG1; very rare form
RANKL	Osteoclastogenesis	Autosomal Recessive	Not well described

with dental infections, suggesting that osteoclasts are critical for normal healing in the oral cavity. Several reports have compared this presentation to that of bisphosphonate associated osteonecrosis of the jaw (Leite *et al*, 2006; Vance, 2007).

Murine models of osteoclast functional defects

Gene targeted murine models have been extremely valuable in mapping molecular mechanisms of osteoclast-associated genes relevant for physiological and pathologic bone remodeling. Several murine models demonstrate defective craniofacial development and/or tooth eruption abnormalities (Table 2). Genes important for osteoclastogenesis and function can be categorized based on their roles as receptors or decoy receptors (IL-1R, OPG, vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)-R1), signaling molecules (c-Src, TRAF6), growth factors (M-CSF) and transcriptional factors (c-fos, RUNX2). The genetic change may affect osteoclasts directly or indirectly through osteoblast function or other mechanisms.

Osteoclast activation/signaling pathways

The morphologic hallmarks of osteoclast activation are the presence of a ruffled membrane and formation of the actin ring. Cytoskeletal rearrangements lead to the formation of an isolated microenvironment between the osteoclast and the bone surface to achieve a localized acidic compartment. It is not exactly clear how mature osteoclasts initiate bone resorption, or what intracellular changes are involved in this activation, however, there have been numerous advances in this area over the past ten years. Bone matrix and growth factors are known to play important roles in this process through receptor and ligand binding.

Integrins and receptor tyrosine kinases

Integrins, a group of heterodimeric receptors composed of alpha and beta subunits, are important for cell and

extracellular matrix interactions. Integrin mediated signaling events regulate cellular functions including proliferation, development, differentiation, cell adhesion, migration, apoptosis and cancer metastasis. Limited studies of integrin expression on osteoclasts show that α v, α 2, β 1 and β 3 units are expressed in osteoclasts from human bone tissue and osteoclastomas (Nesbitt *et al*, 1993; Clover *et al*, 1992). The α v β 3 integrin is the most abundantly expressed and highly studied integrin in osteoclasts. This integrin recognizes the RGD (Arg-Gly-Asp) motif, which is present in osteopontin, vitronectin, and bone sialoprotein. The role of α v β 3 integrins in osteoclast function was illustrated by β 3 integrin knockout mice (McHugh *et al*, 2000). The osteoclast number is increased in β 3 deficient mice but they are dysfunctional, hence these mice manifest osteosclerosis as they age. Additional *in vitro* experiments expressing a mutant β 3 unit in osteoclasts also demonstrate the β 3 integrin is essential for formation of the actin ring and ruffled membrane, suggesting α v β 3 is indispensable for cytoskeletal rearrangement and osteoclast activation (Feng *et al*, 2001). The β 3 integrin Leu33pro polymorphism that enhances the outside-in signaling of β 3 integrin is associated with increased hip fracture, suggesting that activated integrin may contribute to increased osteoclast activity (Honda *et al*, 1995; Vijayan *et al*, 2000; Tofteng *et al*, 2007). Beyond its role in mature osteoclasts, the β 3 integrin can also regulate osteoclast-like activity in myeloma cells (Tucci *et al*, 2009).

Integrins can be regulated through outside-in and inside-out signaling. Most studies on β 3 integrin in osteoclasts have focused on outside-in signaling, looking at downstream signaling events and cell cytoskeletal change upon α v β 3 activation. Faccio *et al*'s work on two different α v β 3 integrin conformations provided the first evidence that the β 3 integrin can also undergo inside-out regulation from resting to an active conformation upon M-CSF stimulation in osteoclasts (Faccio *et al*, 2002). Further studies need to be done on how

Table 2 Mouse models of altered osteoclast function

Name	Mutation or genetic manipulation	Bone phenotype	OC activity change	Dental phenotype	References
PTHrP	Col II-PTHrP transgenic, PTHrP-null homozygous animals	Cranial chondrodys trophy	Normal osteoclast differentiation, possible functional defect	Tooth eruption failure	Philbrick <i>et al</i> (1998)
c-fos	c-fos null homozygous	Growth-retardation, osteopetrosis, deficiencies in bone remodeling	Impaired osteoclast development and differentiation	Tooth eruption failure	Wang <i>et al</i> (1992)
IL-IR	IL1-R ^{-/-} IL1-ra transgenic	Skeletal growth impairment and low bone mass Low bone mass, high trabecular bone turnover	Increased osteoclast number Increased osteoclast number and bone formation rate	Tooth eruption delayed	Huang and Wise (2000), Bajayo <i>et al</i> (2005)
RUNX2/CBFA1	Mutation of one allele	Femoral remodeling is normal	Decreased osteoclast number in eruption pathway	Supernumerary teeth, impaction and delayed tooth eruption	Komori <i>et al</i> (1997), Yoda <i>et al</i> (2004)
c-Src	Homozygous	Deficient bone remodeling, osteopetrosis	Defective osteoclast activation and function	Tooth eruption failure	Soriano <i>et al</i> (1991), Lowe <i>et al</i> (1993), Tiffée <i>et al</i> (1999)
op/op	M-CSF ^{-/-}	Excessive bone accumulation, restriction of bone remodeling	Defective osteoclast formation, abnormal cytoplasmic distribution of the lysosomal enzyme acid phosphatase	Tooth eruption failure, malformed tooth germ	Marks and Lane (1976), Ida-Yonemochi <i>et al</i> (2002), Tiffée <i>et al</i> (1999)
Membrane-type 1 matrix metalloproteinase (MT1-MMP)	MT1-MMP ^{-/-}	Dwarfism, osteopenia, and craniofacial abnormalities	Increased osteoclast number and activity, compensating for impaired soft tissue remodeling	Defective eruption and short root length	Beertsen <i>et al</i> (2002), Holmbeck <i>et al</i> (1999)
TRAF6	TRAF6 ^{-/-}	Failure in bone modeling Osteopetrosis	Comparable numbers of osteoclasts, lack of contact with bone surfaces, defective function	Tooth eruption failure	Lomaga <i>et al</i> (1999)
OPGL (RANKL) MMP2	OPGL ^{-/-} MMP2 ^{-/-}	Severe osteopetrosis Decreased bone mineralization, joint erosion Defective bone remodeling	Absence of osteoclasts Decreased osteoclast number	Tooth eruption failure Early and persistent craniofacial defects	Kong <i>et al</i> (1999c) Mosig <i>et al</i> (2007)
Msx2	Msx2 ^{-/-} transgenic	Generalized osteopetrosis in young animals	Defective osteoclast differentiation, decreased osteoclast number	Amelogenesis imperfecta, dentinogenesis imperfecta and periodontal osteopetrosis	Aioub <i>et al</i> (2007)
VEGF-R1 VEGF-R1/op	FIt1 ^{TK-/-} op/opFIt1 ^{TK-/-}	Mild reduction of trabecular bone Severe bone marrow cavity occlusion, myelofibrosis	Mild reduction of osteoclasts Decreased osteoclast number	Not described 'Toothless'	Niida <i>et al</i> (2005) Niida <i>et al</i> (2005)

$\alpha v \beta 3$ itself is regulated to provide new insights on modulation of osteoclast activation.

The role of collagen integrin $\alpha 2 \beta 1$ in osteoclast adhesion and function is controversial. Beta1 integrin may also be involved in binding to other matrix proteins such as bone sialoprotein (Horton *et al*, 1995). Early studies showed this integrin together with its matrix collagen were only minimally involved in osteoclast binding to bone (Ross *et al*, 1993). However, more recent studies support the importance of this integrin. The $\alpha 2 \beta 1$ integrin binding to collagen is RGD dependent, and this integrin is also localized in the ruffled border of resorbing osteoclasts (Helfrich *et al*, 1996). Antibodies or anti-sense oligos against $\alpha 2 \beta 1$ can inhibit osteoclast binding to collagen as well as osteoclast resorptive function (Helfrich *et al*, 1996; Townsend *et al*, 1999).

Other than integrins, receptor tyrosine kinases also contribute to mature osteoclast activation. Cytokine or growth factor binding triggers tyrosine kinase activity and subsequent cellular responses. Receptor kinases are composed of an extracellular domain, tyrosine kinase domain, transmembrane domain and one or more regulatory domains. Based on their structure, receptor tyrosine kinases are categorized into two groups: receptors with cysteine-rich regions in the extracellular domain and an uninterrupted kinase domain, and receptors with immunoglobulin-like variable and constant regions having a regulatory region insertion into the kinase domain (Yarden and Ullrich, 1988). Several receptor tyrosine kinase activating cytokines such as M-CSF, hepatocyte growth factor (HGF) and fibroblast growth factor (FGF) not only contribute to osteoclastogenesis but can also activate mature osteoclasts. The receptor tyrosine kinase receptor for M-CSF is c-fms. Addition of M-CSF and RANKL to differentiated osteoclasts induces integrin $\alpha v \beta 3$ redistribution and conformation change, which modulate osteoclast survival, migration and chemotaxis. Data from human primary osteoclasts support that M-CSF/c-fms interaction can also increase osteoclastic bone resorption (Faccio *et al*, 2002), while other data from murine osteoclast cultures showed decreased bone resorption, probably due to M-CSF's differential regulation on osteoclast apoptosis and resorbing activity (Fuller *et al*, 1993).

Hepatocyte growth factor (HGF), binding to its receptor tyrosine kinase c-met, also promotes osteoclastogenesis and osteoclast activation. Although this is directed more to osteoclast precursors (Sato *et al*, 1995; Fuller *et al*, 1995), it also affects osteoclast migration, integrin activation and the PI3 kinase pathway (Faccio *et al*, 2002).

Among the four fibroblast growth factor receptors (FGFR1-4) only FGFR-1 is expressed in osteoclasts, while others are expressed in osteoblasts. FGF-2 stimulates mature osteoclasts through direct FGFR1 activation involving the P42/44 MAP kinase pathway at low concentrations. When added in high concentration, FGF2 stimulates osteoblasts, which in turn produce COX-2 and promote bone resorption indirectly (Kawaguchi *et al*, 2000).

Ron/Stk RTK and its ligand macrophage-stimulating protein (MSP) directly promote osteoclast resorptive activity through alterations in cytoplasmic contraction, ruffled border formation, redistribution of Src and pit formation rather than via actions on osteoclastogenesis (Fuller *et al*, 1993; Kurihara *et al*, 1996). Similarly, Tyro 3 and its ligand Gas6 or protein S can also directly activate osteoclasts through the ERK (Kawaguchi *et al*, 2004) MAPK p42/44 pathway and lead to pit formation (Katagiri *et al*, 2001). Among the receptor tyrosine kinases, Tyro 3 is unique because it is expressed only in mature osteoclasts and rarely in hematopoietic stem cells or osteoclast progenitor cells, indicating its action relative to mature osteoclast activation rather than osteoclastogenesis (Nakamura *et al*, 1998b). Other receptor tyrosine kinase-associated genes like Tie, c-kit, INS-R and Axl are also expressed in mature osteoclasts but their roles in osteoclast activation need further investigation (Nakamura *et al*, 1998c).

In general, receptor tyrosine kinase activity is important in growth factor or cytokine regulation of osteoclast activation. Strategies for inhibition or promotion of these kinase activities may provide new insights in the regulation of osteoclast function.

Signaling pathways

Downstream signaling pathways in osteoclasts have been highlighted through the study of osteoclast function and activation in a series of signaling molecule-deficient mice. The function of each molecule has been demonstrated through the characterization of osteoclast function and/or the skeletal phenotype in gene-targeted murine models. The best-studied of these pathways are the $\alpha v \beta 3$ integrin outside-in pathway and the c-Fms pathway (Figure 4). There are a lot of similarities in downstream pathways of these two receptors. Indeed, after c-Fms phosphorylation, this receptor can be recruited to and associate with the $\alpha v \beta 3$ integrin. Upon M-CSF stimulation, these two receptors co-localize in the podosomal actin ring but not in the sealing zone (Elsegood *et al*, 2006). In addition, M-CSF can also turn on inside-out signaling to activate the $\alpha v \beta 3$ integrin (Faccio *et al*, 2002). This indicates that the $\alpha v \beta 3$ integrin and growth factor receptors coordinately regulate osteoclast adhesion, migration and membrane activities (Elsegood *et al*, 2006).

Upon $\alpha v \beta 3$ activation through adhesion to vitronectin or other ligands, or c-Fms binding to M-CSF, Src is phosphorylated at Tyr416. This activates its kinase activity and interaction with other molecules to form a signaling complex, consisted of PYK2, p130Cas and c-Cbl (Duong *et al*, 1998; Sanjay *et al*, 2001; Lakkakorpi *et al*, 1999). PYK2 has both kinase and autophosphorylation activity, but only the latter is required for association with Src (Lakkakorpi *et al*, 2003). PYK2 forms a stable association with p130 (Cas) (Crk-associated substrate), which is also phosphorylated by Src (Nakamura *et al*, 1998a) and is co-localized in the sealing zone (Lakkakorpi *et al*, 1999). Src also binds and phosphorylates c-Cbl and Cbl-b. The Cbl proteins can recruit and activate additional signaling effectors,

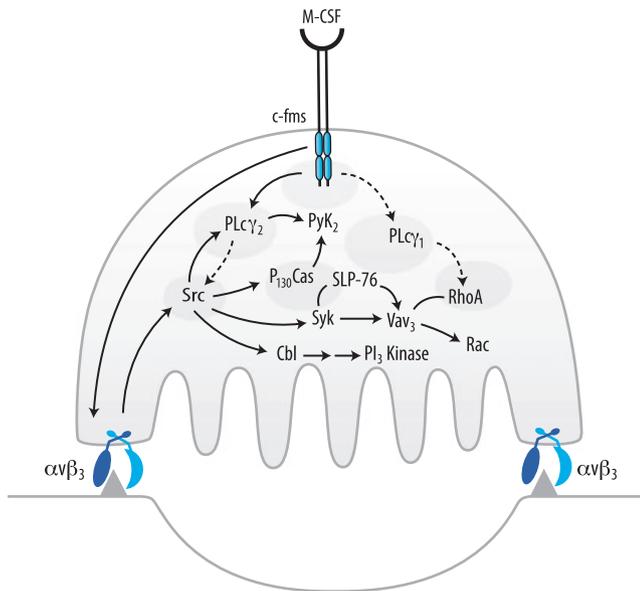


Figure 4. Model for downstream pathways of $\alpha v \beta 3$ integrin and crosstalk with M-CSF receptors in osteoclast morphology change. Ligand binding to $\alpha v \beta 3$ integrin initiates outside-in signaling involving a cascade of tyrosine phosphorylation of downstream signaling molecules. M-CSF binding to c-fms triggers inside-out signaling that leads to $\alpha v \beta 3$ activation. Activated $\alpha v \beta 3$ and c-fms work together leading to small GTPase Rac and Rho activation as well as cytoskeleton rearrangements

including phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase and dynamin (Horne *et al*, 2005). Within this signaling complex, tyrosine phosphorylation of p130Cas depends more on $\alpha v \beta 3$ integrin-mediated cell adhesion rather than M-CSF and c-fms interaction, while c-Cbl phosphorylation is predominantly activated by M-CSF and is independent of cell adhesion (Nakamura *et al*, 2003). Other than serving as adaptor proteins and active signaling molecules in osteoclasts, Cbl is also an E3 ubiquitin ligase, whose activity is confirmed in osteoclasts as to mediate Syk ubiquitination (Zou *et al*, 2009). Therefore, Cbl proteins function in two different aspects in regulating osteoclast function.

Downstream of Src, the 72-kDa nonreceptor tyrosine kinase Syk can be phosphorylated by Src and is essential for osteoclast function but not differentiation *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Zou *et al*, 2007). Syk can also trigger downstream signaling molecules and their phosphorylation including SLP-76, PLC γ 2 and Vav3. The non-phosphorylated mutant Syk (Y317) can bind to Cbl to inhibit M-CSF- and integrin-stimulated Syk ubiquitination mediated by Cbl (Zou *et al*, 2009). SLP-76 is phosphorylated in a Syk-dependent manner and is critical for integrin-mediated phosphorylation of Vav3, the osteoclast cytoskeleton-organizing guanine nucleotide exchange factor (Reeve *et al*, 2009). PLC γ 2 is also important in adhesion-induced PYK2 and Src phosphorylation. It mediates the interaction of Src with $\beta 3$ integrin and PYK2 complex (Epple *et al*, 2008). Vav3, a Rho family guanine nucleotide exchange factor, is essential for stimulated osteoclast activation and bone density *in vivo*. Vav3-deficient osteoclasts show defective actin cytoskeleton organization and resorption function

(Faccio *et al*, 2005). Vav3 can regulate Rho GTPase activation and in turn regulate osteoclast cytoskeleton and morphology.

The $\alpha v \beta 3$ integrin and c-fms have many similarities but also have differences in their signal pathways. For example, Src function is essential in integrin mediated but not in M-CSF stimulated signaling as evidenced by the findings of M-CSF stimulated osteoclast spreading and migration in Src $^{-/-}$ osteoclasts (Nakamura *et al*, 2001). In addition, Cbl phosphorylation could also be Src independent in M-CSF/c-fms signaling (Nakamura *et al*, 2003).

Conclusion

Osteoclast and odontoclast function are closely related to physiological and pathological clinical scenarios including craniofacial abnormalities, tooth eruption and root resorption. Understanding the complex mechanisms that control osteoclast/odontoclast development and activation will provide insights in early detection and management of clinical challenges. Future translational studies should be carried out to elaborate how to modulate osteoclast/odontoclast function at the molecular level, and develop therapeutic strategies to turn on or off osteoclastogenesis/odontoclastogenesis activation pathways, and hence provide therapeutics for promoting bone remodeling or inhibiting bone resorption.

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