

**Phenotypic and Molecular Characterization of Mice
Deficient in Protein Kinase A Regulatory Subunit
Type 1A (*Prkar1a*) and Catalytic Subunit A (*Prkaca*)**

TSANG, Kit Man

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Thesis/ Assessment Committee

Professor Siu-Kai Kong (Chair)
Professor Kwok-Pui Fung (CUHK Thesis Supervisor)
Dr. Constantine A. Stratakis (NIH Thesis Supervisor)
Professor Kwok-Nam Leung (Committee Member)

Abstract

A population of stromal cells that retains osteogenic capacity in adult bone (adult bone stromal cells or aBSCs) exists and is under intense investigation in relation to osteogenesis and relevant pathology. aBSCs may be different from their embryonic or neonatal counterparts, and are influenced by species-/age-specific and other factors. Mice heterozygous for a null allele of *prkar1a* (*Prkar1a*^{+/-}), a gene encoding for cyclic adenosine mono-phosphate (cAMP)-dependent regulatory subunit of protein kinase A (PKA), developed bone lesions that resembled fibrous dysplasia (FD) originated from cAMP-responsive osteogenic cells. *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice were crossed with mice heterozygous for catalytic subunit C α (*Prkaca*^{+/-}), the main PKA activity-mediating molecule and generated mouse model with double heterozygosity for *prkar1a* and *prkaca* (*Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-}). Unexpectedly, *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice developed a large number of osseous lesions starting at 2-3 months of age that varied from the rare chondromas in the long bones and the ubiquitous osteochondrodysplasia of tail vertebral bodies to the occasional sarcoma in older animals. Cells from these lesions were fibroblast- and FD-like, and almost always originated from an area proximal to the growth plate and adjacent to endosteal surface of the periosteum; they expanded gradually in the bone marrow space. These cells expressed osteogenic cell markers, showed higher PKA activity that was mostly type II (PKA-II) and display an alternate pattern of catalytic subunit expression, and surprisingly possessed higher cAMP levels. In addition, markers of bone synthesis and lysis were increased. Gene expression profiling not only confirmed an early (progenitor) osteoblastic nature for these cells but

also showed a signature that was indicative of mesenchymal-to-epithelial (MET) transition and increased *Wnt* signaling, particularly the *brachyury* expression. These studies show that a specific subpopulation of aBSCs can be stimulated in adult bone by PKA-II and altered $C\alpha$ activity, generating the only available germline mutant mouse model of a disorder that has similarities to human FD. Along with previous data, these studies also suggest that the effects of cAMP signaling on osteogenesis and stromal cell maintenance and proliferation in mice are age-, bone-, site- but also PKA-type and catalytic subunit-specific.

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摘要

有成骨能力的基質細胞存在於成人骨骼中，它們的功用及病變原因正是科學家們努力研究的範疇。成人骨骼基質細胞 (aBSCs) 跟胚胎或新生的幹細胞不同，它們受到物種、年齡、人體結構上的位置等等所影響。近年研究發現帶有雜合型 *Prkar1a* 轉基因老鼠 (*Prkar1a*^{+/-}) 產生骨病變。*Prkar1a* 基因編碼出蛋白激酶 A (Protein Kinase A) 的調節單位 (regulatory subunit) A，它是一磷酸環腺 (cAMP) 的主要感受器，亦是調節蛋白激酶 A 活性的主要單位。這種骨病變源於對一磷酸環腺有反應的基質細胞，而且病變組織跟骨纖維性結構不良症 (Fibrous Dysplasia) 非常相似。為了探討基質細胞在缺少 *prkar1a* 而產生骨病變的過程及機制，我們將雜合型 *Prkar1a* 轉基因老鼠與雜合型 *Prkaca* 轉基因老鼠 (*Prkaca*^{+/-}) 交配，製造出雙雜合型 *prkar1a/prkaca* 轉基因老鼠 (*Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkaca*^{+/-})。*Prkaca* 基因編碼出蛋白激酶 A 的主要催化亞單位 (catalytic subunit)。意外地，*Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkaca*^{+/-} 雙雜合型轉基因老鼠相比 *Prkar1a* 轉基因老鼠更早產生骨病變，大概開始於四個月大的成年老鼠。在 *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkaca*^{+/-} 雙雜合型轉基因老鼠身上有不同的骨病變，包括長骨的軟骨瘤 (chondromas)，尾椎骨的骨軟骨發育不良症 (osteochondrodysplasia)，以及間中在年齡較大的老鼠中所發現的惡性腫瘤 (sarcoma)。在這些骨病變中突變的細胞跟骨纖維性結構不良症中的成纖維細胞 (fibroblasts) 相似，突變的細胞通常源於近生長板

(growth plate) 的位置，隨著時間突變細胞的數量在骨髓中的空間 (bone marrow space) 增加。這些突變細胞表達骨原細胞 (osteogenic) 的標誌，並擁有較高蛋白激酶 A 第二類型 (PKA-II) 的活性和一磷酸環腺的水平，骨合成和分解的標誌基因也有所增加。基因表達分析 (gene expression profiling) 證實這些突變細胞帶有成骨細胞的特質，並表達出間質-上皮轉變 (mesenchymal-to-epithelial transition) 和 Wnt 信號通路增加 (Wnt-signaling) 的特徵。總括而言，這項研究識別出一種有成骨能力的成人基質細胞。這些基質細胞受蛋白激酶 A 第二類型的刺激而激生。另外，讓我們製造出唯一的種系突變種 (germline mutant) 老鼠模式帶有跟骨纖維性結構不良症相似的骨病變。同時，這項研究也提出一磷酸環腺信號通路 (cAMP signaling) 在成骨作用及維持基質細胞成長的效果是受到年齡、骨種、人體結構上的位置和蛋白激酶 A 類型的影響。

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Content

ABSTRACT	I
摘要.....	III
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	V
CONTENT	VII
LIST OF FIGURES.....	XI
LIST OF TABLES	XV
ABBREVIATIONS.....	XVI
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 MULTIPLE ENDOCRINE NEOPLASIA (MEN) SYNDROMES.....	2
1.2 CARNEY COMPLEX (CNC)	5
1.3 CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS OF CNC.....	6
1.3.1 <i>Skin pigmentary abnormalities</i>	6
1.3.2 <i>Myxomas</i>	6
1.3.3 <i>Endocrine tumors/overactivity</i>	6
1.3.4 <i>Psammomatous melanotic schwannoma (PMS)</i>	8
1.3.5 <i>Breast ductal adenoma (multiple)</i>	8
1.3.6 <i>Osteochondromyxoma</i>	8
1.4 IDENTIFICATION OF DISEASE GENE LINKED TO CNC	12
1.5 CYCLIC ADENOSINE MONOPHOSPHATE (CAMP)-DEPENDENT PROTEIN KINASE (PKA).....	13
1.6 MOUSE MODELS	14
1.6.1 <i>Prkar1a knockout and heterozygous mice (Prkar1a^{-/-} and Prkar1a^{+/-})</i>	14
1.6.2 <i>Prkar2a knockout and heterozygous mice (Prkar2a^{-/-} and Prkar2a^{+/-})</i>	15
1.6.3 <i>Prkar2b knockout and heterozygous mice (Prkar2b^{-/-} and Prkar2b^{+/-})</i>	15
1.6.4 <i>Prkaca knockout and heterozygous mice (Prkaca^{-/-} and Prkaca^{+/-})</i>	16
1.6.5 <i>Prkacb knockout and heterozygous mice (Prkacb^{-/-} and Prkacb^{+/-})</i>	16
1.7 SKELETOGENESIS	18
1.7.1 <i>Intra-membranous bone formation</i>	19
1.7.2 <i>Endochondral bone formation</i>	21
1.7.3 <i>Chondrogenesis</i>	23
1.7.4 <i>Osteoblastogenesis</i>	27
1.7.5 <i>Osteoclastogenesis</i>	29
1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY	31

CHAPTER TWO	33
MATERIALS AND METHODS	33
2.1 GENERATION OF <i>PRKAR1A</i> ^{+/-} <i>PRKACA</i> ^{+/-} DOUBLE HETEROZYGOUS MICE.....	34
2.2 GENERATION OF <i>PRKAR1A</i> ^{+/-} <i>PRKAR2B</i> ^{+/-} DOUBLE HETEROZYGOUS MICE.....	34
2.3 GENOTYPING ANALYSIS.....	35
2.4 LOSS OF HETEROZYGOUSITY (LOH) ANALYSIS.....	37
2.5 MOUSE NUMBERS, NECROPSIES, PHENOTYPING.....	37
2.6 X-RAY.....	37
2.7 MICROCOMPUTED TOMOGRAPHY (μ CT).....	38
2.8 RAMAN MICROSPECTROSCOPY (RMS).....	38
2.9 HAEMATOXYLIN AND EOSIN (H&E) STAINING.....	39
2.10 PRIMARY CULTURES OF MOUSE BONE TUMORS.....	39
2.11 MICROARRAY AND REAL-TIME QUANTITATIVE REAL-TIME PCR (RT-QPCR) ANALYSIS.....	40
2.12 WESTERN BLOT ANALYSIS.....	41
2.13 IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY.....	42
2.14 IMMUNOFLUORESCENCE.....	42
2.15 FLOW CYTOMETRY.....	43
2.16 SERUM MATRIX METALLOPROTEINASE 9 (MMP9) LEVEL MEASUREMENT.....	44
2.17 PKA ACTIVITY.....	44
2.18 cAMP ASSAY.....	45
2.19 PDE ACTIVITY.....	45
2.20 DEAE-CELLULOSE CHROMATOGRAPHY.....	46
2.21 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS.....	46
CHAPTER THREE	49
PHENOTYPIC CHARACTERIZATION OF MICE DEFICIENT IN PROTEIN KINASE A REGULATORY SUBUNIT TYPE 1A (<i>PRKAR1A</i>) AND CATALYTIC SUBUNIT A (<i>PRKACA</i>)	49
3.1 GENERATION OF <i>PRKAR1A</i> ^{+/-} <i>PRKACA</i> ^{+/-} DOUBLE HETEROZYGOUS MICE.....	50
3.2 PHENOTYPIC ANALYSIS OF <i>PRKAR1A</i> ^{+/-} <i>PRKACA</i> ^{+/-} DOUBLE HETEROZYGOUS MICE.....	51
3.3 EVOLUTION OF BONE LESIONS IN <i>PRKAR1A</i> ^{+/-} <i>PRKACA</i> ^{+/-} MICE.....	65
3.4 ALTERED MINERALIZATION PATTERN IN BONE LESIONS FROM CAUDAL VERTEBRA OF <i>PRKAR1A</i> ^{+/-} <i>PRKACA</i> ^{+/-} MICE.....	71
CHAPTER FOUR	75
BIOCHEMICAL CHARACTERIZATION OF BONE LESIONS FROM MICE DEFICIENT IN PROTEIN KINASE A REGULATORY SUBUNIT TYPE 1A (<i>PRKAR1A</i>) AND CATALYTIC SUBUNIT A (<i>PRKACA</i>)	75
4.1 INCREASED PROTEIN KINASE A (PKA) ACTIVITY AND CYCLIC ADENOSINE MONOPHOSPHATE (cAMP) LEVEL IN BONE LESIONS FROM <i>PRKAR1A</i> ^{+/-} <i>PRKACA</i> ^{+/-} MICE.....	76
4.2 INCREASED PHOSPHODIESTERASE (PDE) ACTIVITY AND ADENYLATE CYCLASES EXPRESSION IN BONE LESIONS FROM <i>PRKAR1A</i> ^{+/-} <i>PRKACA</i> ^{+/-} MICE.....	78

4.3 INCREASE OF PKA TYPE II (PKA-II) ISOZYME AND REGULATORY SUBUNITS (RIIA AND RIIB) IN BONE LESIONS FROM *PRKAR1A*^{+/-}*PRKACA*^{+/-} MICE81

4.4 INCREASED EXPRESSION OF PKA CATALYTIC SUBUNITS α , β 1, γ AND PRKX IN BONE LESIONS FROM *PRKAR1A*^{+/-}*PRKACA*^{+/-} MICE85

CHAPTER FIVE88

MOLECULAR CHARACTERIZATION OF BONE LESIONS FROM MICE DEFICIENT IN PROTEIN KINASE A REGULATORY SUBUNIT TYPE 1A (*PRKAR1A*) AND CATALYTIC SUBUNIT A (*PRKACA*)88

5.1 MOLECULAR CHARACTERIZATION OF CELLS FORMING THE LESIONS IN AFFECTED BONES FROM *PRKAR1A*^{+/-}*PRKACA*^{+/-} MICE89

CHAPTER SIX.....108

FURTHER CHARACTERIZATION OF MICE DEFICIENT IN PROTEIN KINASE A SIGNALING108

6.1 GENERATION OF MICE DEFICIENCY IN PROTEIN KINASE A REGULATORY SUBUNIT TYPE 1A (*PRKAR1A*) AND TYPE 2B (*PRKAR2B*) (*PRKAR1A*^{+/-}*PRKAR2B*^{+/-})109

6.2 PHENOTYPIC CHARACTERIZATION OF *PRKAR1A*^{+/-}*PRKAR2B*^{+/-} DOUBLE HETEROZYGOUS MICE111

CHAPTER SEVEN123

DISCUSSION123

7.1 R1 α AND C α HAPLOINSUFFICIENCY LEADS TO THE INCREASED FORMATION OF PKA-II ISOZYME124

7.2 ALTERNATE USE OF PKA CATALYTIC SUBUNITS β , γ AND PRKX CONTRIBUTE TO DYSREGULATED CAMP-DEPENDANT PKA SIGNALING IN *PRKAR1A*^{+/-}*PRKACA*^{+/-} MICE125

7.3 INVOLVEMENT OF RII α SUBUNIT IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF TUMORS IN CAMP-RESPONSIVE TISSUES UNDER R1 α AND RII β HAPLOINSUFFICIENCY128

7.4 INCREASED PKA-II ACTIVITY UNDER MODERATE RISE OF CAMP LEVELS LEADS TO UNABATED RECRUITMENT OF BONE STROMAL CELLS (BSCs) IN *PRKAR1A*^{+/-}*PRKACA*^{+/-} MICE132

7.5 INCREASED OSTEOCLASTIC ACTIVITY IN BONE LESIONS FROM *PRKAR1A*^{+/-}*PRKACA*^{+/-} MICE135

7.6 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN BONE LESIONS FROM *PRKAR1A*^{+/-}*PRKACA*^{+/-} AND FD136

7.7 IDENTITY OF BSCs IN *PRKAR1A*^{+/-}*PRKACA*^{+/-} MICE136

7.8 MOLECULAR SIGNATURE OF ABSCs WITH PKA DEFECTS137

7.9 INDUCTION OF WNT SIGNALING BY PKA-II LEADS TO MET138

CHAPTER EIGHT	140
CONCLUSION AND FUTURE PROSPECTS	140
8.1 CONCLUSION	141
8.2 FUTURE PROSPECTS	142
REFERENCES.....	144

List of Figures

Figure 1.1	Lentiginos in CNC patients who have intense pigmentation around the face, the eyes and vermilion border of the lips.	9
Figure 1.2	Cardiac myxoma, primary pigmented nodular adrenocortical disease (PPNAD) and large-cell calcifying Sertoli cell tumor (LCCST) from CNC patients.	10
Figure 1.3	Bone lesions in CNC patients.	11
Figure 3.1	Genomic PCR experiments were used for the genotyping of <i>prkar1a</i> and <i>prkaca</i> genes in mice.	50
Figure 3.2	Representative views of liver eosinophilic cellular alternation and hepatocellular adenoma in <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} mice.	52
Figure 3.3	Representative views of adrenal subcapsular hyperplasia.	53
Figure 3.4	Representative views of pars distalis cysts and pituitary hyperplasia.	54
Figure 3.5	Development of vertebral bone lesions of the caudal vertebrae from <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} and <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mice.	57
Figure 3.6	Tibial chondroma in a 3 month-old <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mouse.	58

Figure 3.7	Representative views of osteochondromyxoma from caudal vertebrae and chondromas from long bone and spinal column.	59
Figure 3.8	Representative views of metastatic sarcoma in <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} and <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mouse.	60
Figure 3.9	Increased serum alkaline phosphatase (ALP) in <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mice.	64
Figure 3.10	The progression of bone lesions in <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mice.	67
Figure 3.11	Lesions from <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mice were more cellular and aggressive.	69
Figure 3.12	Abnormal periosteum and bone marrow space in affected bone from <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mice.	70
Figure 3.13	Undermineralization of caudal vertebrae in both <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} and <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mice.	73
Figure 3.14	Structure and mineralization of cortical bone in adjacent affected and unaffected caudal vertebrae.	74
Figure 4.1	Increased cAMP level and cAMP-stimulated total PKA activity and absence of loss of heterozygosity (LOH) in bone lesions from <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mice.	77
Figure 4.2	Increased total PDE activity in bone lesions from <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mice	79

Figure 4.3	Increased expression of adenylate cyclase 1, 6 and 9 in <i>Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}</i> bone lesions.	80
Figure 4.4	Increased PKA-II complex and type II regulatory subunit in <i>Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}</i> mice bone tumors.	83
Figure 4.5	Up-regulation of type II regulatory subunits in bone tumors.	84
Figure 4.6	Change in the expression of catalytic subunit a, b1, b2, g and Prkx in <i>Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}</i> bone lesions.	86
Figure 4.7	Up-regulation of PKA catalytic subunits b, g and Prkx in bone tumors.	87
Figure 5.1	Expression of mouse bone stromal cell markers Cd44, Cd90 and Vcam in primary cells derived from <i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i> and <i>Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}</i> bone tumors.	91
Figure 5.2	Both mRNA and protein expression level of Runx2 were increased in bone lesions from <i>Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}</i> mice.	95
Figure 5.3	Increased osteoclastic activity in lesion from <i>Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}</i> mice.	96
Figure 5.4	Bone lesions from <i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i> and <i>Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}</i> mice had a very different gene expression pattern when compared to normal bone.	98
Figure 5.5	Expression of mesenchymal proteins in bone lesions from <i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i> and <i>Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}</i> mice.	101

Figure 5.6	Expression of mesenchymal markers and osteoblastic markers in primary cells derived from <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} and <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} bone tumors.	102
Figure 5.7	Increased expression of epithelial markers, Foxo1 and Brachyury protein in <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} bone tumors.	105
Figure 6.1	Genomic PCR experiments were used for the genotyping of <i>prkar2b</i> gene in mice.	110
Figure 6.2	Representative views of thyroid neoplasms in <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-} mice.	114
Figure 6.3	Representative views of pituitary adenoma in <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-} mice.	115
Figure 6.4	Representative views of bone lesions in <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-} mice.	116
Figure 6.5	Representative views of flat bone lesions in <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-} mice.	117
Figure 6.6	Representative views of spleen peliosis in <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-} mice.	118
Figure 6.7	Increased serum alkaline phosphatase and decreased serum glucose, cholesterol and triglyceride in <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-} mice.	122
Figure 7.1	Bone lesions in <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mouse.	131

List of Tables

Table 2.1	The PCR conditions for <i>Prkar1a</i> , <i>Prkaca</i> and <i>Prkar2b</i> genotyping	36
Table 2.2	List of antibodies used in the present study.	48
Table 3.1	Serum chemistries of 1-year old WT, <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} , <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} and <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mice.	61
Table 5.1	Up-regulation of Runx2 mRNA level in bone lesions from <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mice.	92
Table 5.2	<i>Prkar1a</i> and <i>Prkaca</i> haploinsufficiency lead to the induction of mesenchymal-to-epithelial transition.	99
Table 5.3	<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} mice bone tumors had activated Wnt-signaling pathway.	106
Table 6.1	Serum chemistries of 1-year old WT, <i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-} , <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} and <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-} mice.	119

Abbreviations

μCT	Microcomputed tomography
aBSCs	adult bone stromal cells
AC	adenylate cyclase
ACH	achondroplasia
Acp5	tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase 5
AKAP	A-kinase anchor protein
ALB	albumin
ALP	alkaline phosphatase
ALT	alanine aminotransferase
AST	aspartate aminotransferase
BAT	brown adipose tissues
BMP	bone morphogenetic protein
bp	base pair
BSCs	bone stromal cells
Ca	calcium
cAMP	cyclic adenosine mono-phosphate
CATK	cathepsin K
CHOL	cholesterol
CK	creatine kinase
CNC	Carney complex
CNCCs	cranial neural crest cells
CREB	cAMP response element-binding protein
CSF-1	colony-stimulating factor-1
DEAE	diethylaminoethyl

FD	fibrous dysplasia
FGF	fibroblast growth factor
FIAT	factor inhibiting activating transcription factor 4-mediated transcription
FMTC	familial medullary thyroid carcinoma
FOP	fibrodysplasia ossificans progressive
GDFs	growth and differentiation factors
GDNF	glial-derived neurotrophic factor
GEO	Gene Expression Omnibus
GEP	gastro-entero-pancreatic tract
GH	growth hormone
GLU	glucose
GPCR	G protein-coupled receptor
Gs _α	stimulatory G-alpha protein
H&E	Haematoxylin and Eosin
HIF	hypoxia-inducible-factor
HMG	high-mobility-group
IHC	immunohistochemistry
IHH	Indian hedgehog
LCCSCT	primarily large-cell calcifying Sertoli cell tumor
LDH	lactate dehydrogenase
LOH	loss of heterozygosity
MAPK	mitogen-activated protein kinase
MEN	multiple endocrine neoplasia
MEN1	multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1
MEN2	multiple endocrine neoplasia type 2
MET	mesenchymal-to-epithelial
MMP9	matrix metalloproteinase 9

MTC	medullary thyroid carcinoma
NF1	neurofibromatosis type I
NMD	nonsense mRNA-mediated decay
OCM	osteochondromyxoma
OPG	osteoprotegerin
OSX	osterix
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
PDE	Phosphodiesterase
PHEO	phenochromocytoma
PHOS	inorganic phosphorus
PKA	cAMP-dependent protein kinase A
PKA-I	protein kinase A type I
PKA-II	protein kinase A type II
PKI	protein kinase inhibitor
PMS	pasmomatous melanotic schwannoma
PPNAD	primary pigmented nodular adrenocortical disease
PRKAR1A	regulatory subunit α of the protein kinase A
PTH	parathyroid hormone
PTHrP	parathyroid hormone-related protein
RANKL	nuclear factor (NF)- κ B ligand
RMS	Raman microspectroscopy
RT-QPCR	real-time quantitative real-time PCR
TD	thanatophoric dysplasia
TRAP	tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase
TRIG	triglycerides
VHL	Von Hippel-Lindau disease
WT	wild type

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Multiple endocrine neoplasia (MEN) syndromes

Multiple endocrine neoplasia (MEN) syndromes are defined as disorders with the presence of benign and/or malignant hormone-producing or hormone-secreting tumors in multiple endocrine tissues, including pituitary, parathyroid, adrenals, gastro-entero-pancreatic tract (GEP) and paraganglia. MEN can present by two coincidental tumors (non-hereditary) or certain patterns of tumor types. The classic MEN syndrome includes multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1 (MEN1) and multiple endocrine neoplasia type 2 (MEN2). However, Carney complex (CNC), Von Hippel-Lindau disease (VHL) and Neurofibromatosis type I (NF1) may also be considered in the category of MEN (1, 2). All these syndromes are inherited in autosomal dominant fashion.

MEN1 is characterized by various combinations of parathyroid adenomas, anterior pituitary adenomas, endocrine tumors of gastro-entero-pancreatic tract, adrenocortical neoplasms and carcinoids. Some patients may also develop non-endocrine tumors, such as lipomas, angiofibromas, collagenomas and leiomyomas (3, 4). Inactivating germline mutations of *MEN1* genes have been identified in MEN1 patients. The *MEN1* gene consists of 10 exons and encodes a 610-amino acid protein called menin, which is a nuclear protein, participating in transcriptional regulation, DNA replication and repair and genome stability. The majority of the identified mutations lead to truncated form of menin. MEN1 tumors also have loss of heterozygosity (LOH), resulting in the absence of menin in tumors, which indicates the tumor suppressor role of *MEN1*. No phenotype-genotype correlations have been identified for MEN1 (3, 5). However,

about 20% of MEN1 patient do not harbor mutations in *MEN1* gene (6-9), indicating the possible involvement of other mutations in unidentified predisposition genes. Recently, two *MEN1* mutation-negative patients, who present MEN1-like syndrome, were found to carry a germline nonsense mutation in *CDKN1B* gene (10, 11). *CDKN1B* gene encodes the cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p27 which regulates cell cycle by inhibiting cyclin/Cdk complexes. Homozygous germline mutation in *Cdkn1b* in rat led to MENX syndrome that has phenotypic features resembled human MEN1 and MEN2 (10, 11). This MEN1-like syndrome with *CDKN1B* mutation is now designated as MEN4 (OMIM#610755).

MEN2 is characterized by the presence of medullary thyroid carcinoma (MTC). Based on the risk and presence or absence of other clinical features, MEN2 can be divided into three clinical subtypes: MEN2A, MEN2B and familial MTC (FMTC). MEN2A is a syndrome of MTC, unilateral or bilateral pheochromocytoma (PHEO), and parathyroid cells hyperplasia or adenoma, which results in hyperparathyroidism. MEN2B is defined by MTC, PHEO, multiple neuromas and intestinal and mucosal ganglioneuromatosis, but not hyperparathyroidism. MEN2B is the most aggressive variant with higher morbidity and mortality rate. FMTC patients only develop MTC. At least four affected family members develop MTC but without the presence of PHEO and hyperparathyroidism should be considered to have FMTC (3, 12, 13). All MEN2 variants are caused by germline activating mutations in the *c-RET* proto-oncogene (14, 15). *c-Ref* encodes a membrane tyrosine kinase receptor called

RET, which consists of six extracellular domains (four cadherine-like domains, a calcium-binding domain and a cysteine-rich domain), one transmembrane domain and two distinct intracellular tyrosine kinase domains. RET functions as a signal transducer that binds to growth factors of glial-derived neurotrophic factor (GDNF) family. Activation of RET induces cell growth and survival mediated by the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) signaling (3, 16). Unlike MEN1, MEN2 has a strong phenotype-genotype correlation. Missense mutations at the cysteine-rich domain are responsible for 90% of MEN2A and 80% of FMTC cases. MEN2B-associated mutations are mainly located in the intracellular tyrosine kinase receptor domains.

VHL is an inherited familial syndrome that predispose affected individual to a variety of benign or malignant neoplasms of retina, cerebellar, central nervous system, renal cells and adrenal (OMIM#193300). VHL type 1 patients do not exhibit pheochromocytoma while type 2A is associated with it. In addition to pheochromocytoma, VHL type 2B patients also have renal cell carcinoma (17). The gene responsible for VHL, *VHL*, maps at 3p26-p25. *VHL* encodes a component of protein complex that possesses ubiquitin ligase E3 activity. It is involved in ubiquitination and degradation of hypoxia-inducible-factor (HIF) and thus, oxygen-sensing pathway (18).

NF1 is characterized by the presence of neurofibroma, gliomas, learning disability, bony abnormalities and café au lait spots (OMIM#162200) (19). It is caused by mutation in neurofibromin gene (*NF1*) on chromosome 17q11.2 (20). Neurofibromin is a negative regulator of *RAS* oncogene (21).

Carney complex (CNC), which considers as part of MEN, is discussed in the next section.

1.2 Carney complex (CNC)

Carney complex (CNC) is a familial multiple endocrine neoplasia (MEN) syndrome, inherited as an autosomal dominant manner, initially described by Dr. J.A. Carney at the Mayo Clinic in 1985 as “the complex of myxomas, spotty pigmentation and endocrine overactivity” (22). Currently, the criteria used for the diagnosis of CNC mainly include: A) spotty skin pigmentation; B) cutaneous and mucosal myxoma; C) cardiac myxoma; D) primary pigmented nodular adrenocortical disease (PPNAD); E) growth hormone (GH)-producing pituitary adenoma; F) thyroid carcinoma; G) testicular neoplasia [primarily large-cell calcifying Sertoli cell tumor (LCCSCT)]; and rarely include: H) pasmomatous melanotic schwannoma (PMS); I) breast duct adenoma; J) bone tumor, osteochondromyxoma (22-31).

A diagnosis is made if the presence of two main components of the above criteria is proven by histology and/or biochemical testing or imaging; or if one of these manifestations is present and a familial pattern or inactivating mutations of the disease gene, regulatory subunit α of the protein kinase A (*PRKAR1A*), are also shown. CNC is a developmental disorder with some cases diagnosed at birth. Onset of the disease occurs commonly at a young age and the median age of diagnosis is 20 years (26).

1.3 Clinical manifestations of CNC

1.3.1 Skin pigmentary abnormalities

Skin lesions are the most common clinical manifestation of CNC. The patients get a specific type of skin freckles known as lentigines, which tend to be small, brown to black, round or irregular and typically increase in number around puberty. They are primarily located on the face, eyelids, ears and the vermilion border of the lips (Figure 1.1). Additional pigmented abnormalities include epithelioid blue nevi (large, blue to black, domed lesions), café-au-lait spots, and depigmented lesions (30, 32).

1.3.2 Myxomas

Heart and cutaneous myxomas are the clinical conditions on the basis of which most CNC patients are first diagnosed (33-35). Cardiac myxomas (Figure 1.2A) are the second most common tumor among CNC patients and are responsible for more than half of the CNC-related fatal complications (30). Unlike sporadic myxomas, they often present multicentrically in all heart chambers, without predilection for gender or age (36-38). The most typical cutaneous myxoma for CNC patients is trichofolliculoepithelioma that is usually found in external ear canal, eyelids and occasionally found in oropharynx and genital area of both sexes (37).

1.3.3 Endocrine tumors/overactivity

A) Primary pigmented nodular adrenocortical disease (PPNAD)

PPNAD (Figure 1.2B), a form of adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH)-independent Cushing syndrome, is the most frequent endocrine tumor observed in CNC, and occurs in about 25% of individuals. The disease usually involves micronodules of both adrenals. Pathological investigation reveals that adrenal glands from PPNAD patients have pigmented micronodular and some atrophy of surrounding cortex (28, 39, 40).

B) Growth hormone (GH)-producing pituitary adenoma

Somatotrophic pituitary tumors are relatively rare in CNC. Most patients have pituitary tumors associated with growth hormone oversecretion and cause acromegaly. Acromegaly is the syndrome caused by the presence of excess growth hormone (GH) in the body. CNC patients have acromegaly due to diffuse enlargement and hyperplasia of the GH-producing cells of the pituitary, or, more rarely, due to GH-producing pituitary tumors. Occasionally, CNC patients may also have hyperprolactinemia; increased prolactin levels may be due to hyperplasia of the somatotrophic cells that also produce GH (41).

C) Testicular tumors (primarily large-cell calcifying Sertoli cell tumor, LCCSCT)

About one-third of males with CNC have large-cell calcifying sertoli cell tumors (LCCSCT) (Figure 1:2C). LCCSCT is always benign with only one case reported to have been malignant. LCCSCT may be hormone-producing and cause gynecomastia in prepubertal and peripubertal boys. Other testicular tumors observed in patients with CNC include Leydig cell tumors and adrenocortical rest tumors (27, 33, 42).

D) Thyroid adenoma or carcinoma

Thyroid gland abnormalities found in CNC patients are mostly benign non-hormone-secreting follicular adenomas. Thyroid carcinomas, both papillary and follicular, may develop in patients with a long history of multiple thyroid adenomas (43).

1.3.4 Psammomatous melanotic schwannoma (PMS)

PMS is a round dark tumor that may occur anywhere in the central and peripheral nervous system of patients with CNC. In CNC patients, PMS is most frequently found in the nerves of the gastrointestinal tract (esophagus and stomach) and paraspinal sympathetic chain. Primary tumors are often inoperable due to their location and may metastasize to lung, liver and brain (25, 44, 45).

1.3.5 Breast ductal adenoma (multiple)

Breast ductal adenoma is a benign tumor of the mammary gland duct (46, 47), that is frequently seen in women with CNC but rarely in the general population.

1.3.6 Osteochondromyxoma

Osteochondromyxoma, a form of bone tumor, is the most recently described tumor associated with CNC (27). Less than 10% of CNC patients have this tumor that usually involves long bones and rarely facial bones and sinuses. Microscopically, bone tumors feature benign-appearing polymorphic cells set in a myxomatous, cartilaginous, osseous, and hyaline fibrous matrix with low to

moderate cellularity (Figure 1.3). The proportion of multiple cell types and tissue matrices varies greatly from place to place even within an individual tumor. These tumors erode bone, e.g. by infiltrating between bony trabeculae. Complete resection of the tumor is curative; while incomplete excision results in local recurrence. To-date, no tumor metastasis has been found (25, 48).

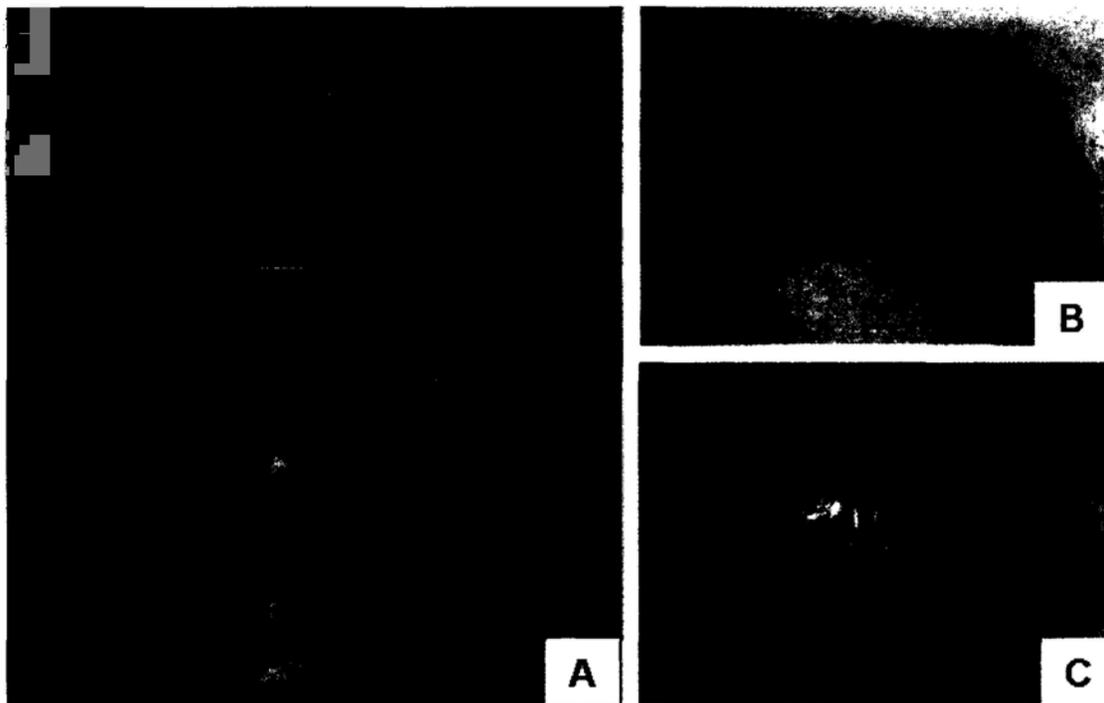


Figure 1.1 Lentigines in CNC patients who have intense pigmentation around the face (A), the eyes (B) and vermilion border of the lips (C). Pictures were taken and modified from Stergiopoulos and Stratakis, *FEBS*, 2003; Sandrini and Stratakis, *Molecular Genetics and Metabolism*, 2003.

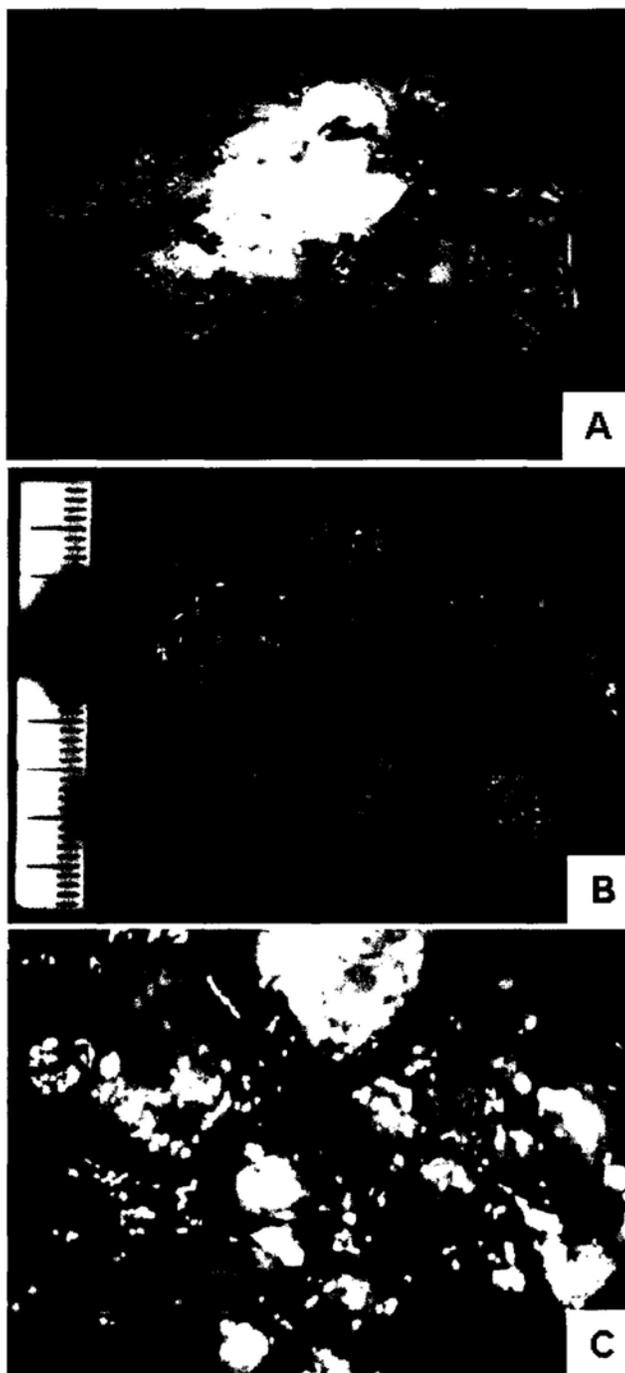


Figure 1.2 Cardiac myxoma (A), primary pigmented nodular adrenocortical disease (PPNAD) (B) and large-cell calcifying Sertoli cell tumor (LCCST) (C) from CNC patients. Pictures were taken and modified from Casey *et al.*, *Circulation*, 1998; Bertherat, *Orphanet Journal of Rare Diseases*, 2006; Stratakis, *Frontiers in Bioscience*, 2000.

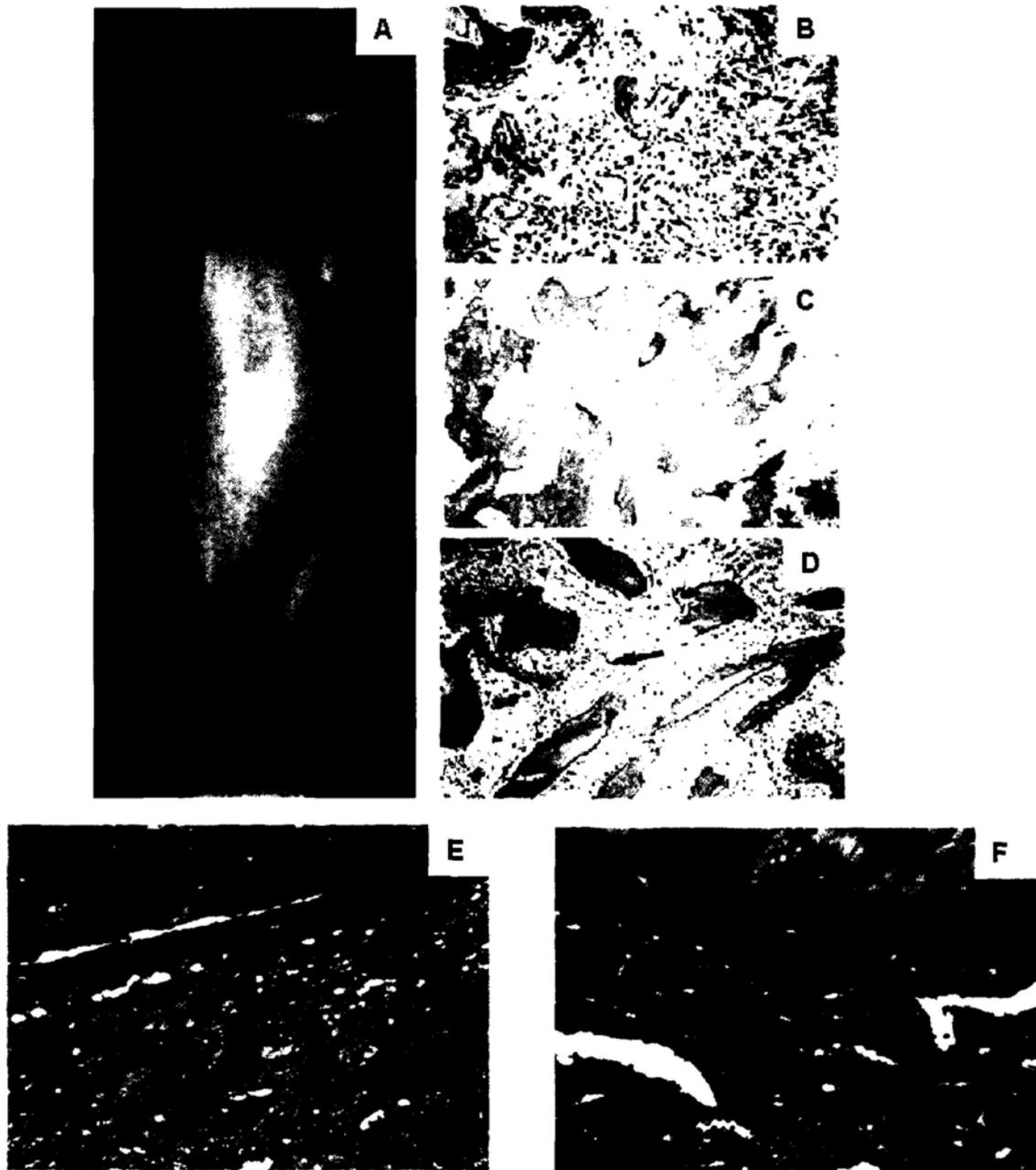


Figure 1.3 Bone lesions in CNC patients. (A) Mixed lucent and sclerotic lesions of the tibial diaphysis. (B) Moderately cellular tumor featuring eosinophilic hyaline bands (arrows). (C) Interconnected network of bone trabeculae with hypocellular tissue. (D) Moderately cellular tumor features immature cartilage (bottom half) and osteoid between bone trabeculae (arrow). (E, F) Representative hematoxylin and eosin stainings of bone lesions that were excised from two other, unrelated patients with CNC: (E) Zone of moderately cellular hyaline cartilage in a background of hypocellular vascularized myxoid tissue, characteristic of an osteochondromyxoma; (F) Two islands of hypocellular hyaline cartilage in a moderately cellular spindle cell stroma containing a few dilated blood vessels, characteristic of the cartilage component of the bone lesions seen in the context of CNC. Pictures were taken and modified from Carney *et al.*, *The American Journal of Surgical Pathology*, 2001; Tsang *et al.*, unpublished data.

1.4 Identification of disease gene linked to CNC

Linkage analysis and use of loss of heterozygosity (LOH) by microsatellite markers and allelic loss (by fluorescent in situ hybridization) allowed Dr. Stratakis' group to identify *PRKAR1A* (17q22-24) as the gene mutated in more than 50% of patients with CNC or PPNAD. Genetic linkage analysis has also identified other genetic loci harboring a gene for CNC on chromosome 2 (2p16). However, the disease gene on 2p has not been identified.

PRKAR1A encodes for type 1 alpha regulatory subunit of cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP)-dependent protein kinase (PKA), which is an important regulatory molecule in PKA signaling. This gene is composed of 11 exons and has a total length of at least 21kb. To date, 60 different *PRKAR1A* pathogenic mutations have been described (24, 49-52). Most mutations reported in the *PRKAR1A* gene of individuals with CNC are predicted to produce a truncated protein, in either a direct or indirect way. The most frequent *PRKAR1A* mutation in CNC is c.578delTG deletion, which results in frameshift in exon 4B of the gene. Exon 2 and 6 are the other two sites with frequent mutations. It is believed that the mutant mRNAs are degraded by nonsense mRNA-mediated decay (NMD) and so most mutations cause complete inactivation of *PRKAR1A* at tissue level by NMD and LOH. Because of this, it is believed that *PRKAR1A* may act as a tumor-suppressor gene in CNC as well as in sporadic adrenal and thyroid tumors.

1.5 Cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP)-dependent protein kinase (PKA)

PKA exists as a holoenzyme that consists of a homodimer (and rarely heterodimer) of regulatory subunits and two inactive catalytic subunits, each bound to one of the regulatory subunits of the dimer (53). Four main regulatory subunit isoforms [*PRKAR1A* (RI α), *PRKAR1B* (RI β), *PRKAR2A* (RII α) and *PRKAR2B* (RII β)] and four catalytic subunit isoforms [*PRKACA* (C α), *PRKACB* (C β) and *PRKACG* (C γ) and Prkx] have been identified (53, 54). The holoenzyme of two molecules of catalytic subunits with dimers of R1 α or R1 β has been identified as “PKA type I isozyme (PKA-I)” while the complex with either RII α or RII β is known as the “PKA type II isozyme (PKA-II)” (53-55). PKA-I and -II have different cellular localizations, functions, and affinity to cAMP (54, 55), but in general the mechanism of their activation is the same: ligand-induced activation of G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) leads to subsequent activation of an adenylate cyclase (AC) which produces cAMP. The sequential binding of two cAMP molecules to each regulatory subunit “activates” PKA by leading to dissociation of the tetramer and release of catalytic subunits which, in turn, phosphorylate serine-threonine residues of downstream targets (55). PKA catalytic subunits can also phosphorylate cAMP response element-binding protein (CREB) in the nucleus, resulting in activation of DNA transcription of cAMP-responsive element-containing genes (56).

1.6 Mouse models

1.6.1 *Prkar1a* knockout and heterozygous mice (*Prkar1a*^{-/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-})

As mentioned above, CNC is caused by inactivating mutations in *PRKAR1A*. To better understand the disease-causing mechanism, *Prkar1a* homozygous and heterozygous knockout mice have been developed (57, 58). Homozygous mutant mice (*Prkar1a*^{-/-}) die early in embryonic life and are severely growth retarded. *Prkar1a*^{-/-} mice show developmental defects starting from E7.5 when compared to wild type littermates. They fail to develop functional heart tubes at E8.5 and are resorbed at around E10.5. Although the *Prkar1a*^{-/-} embryos develop an apparent anterior-posterior axis, two-thirds of mesoderm cells fail to exit the streak and to move laterally and anteriorly, resulting in a reduced trunk. Moreover, *Prkar1a*^{-/-} embryos have increased basal PKA activity and the defects can be rescued by crossing *Prkar1a*^{-/-} mutants to mice carrying targeted disruption in *Prkaca* gene. These findings indicate that dysregulated PKA activity is responsible for the abnormal phenotype (58).

Due to embryonic lethality of *Prkar1a*^{-/-} mice, Dr. Stratakis' group has created a heterozygous mouse model with conventional null allele of *Prkar1a* (*Prkar1a*^{+/-}), which provides a better understanding of the effect of 50% germline *Prkar1a* reduction in adult mice (57). *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice have normal body weight and survive to adulthood. However, at around 6 – 8 months of age, they start to develop various degrees of nonpigmented schwannomas, bone tumors and thyroid neoplasms which are also observed in CNC patients (57). Haploinsufficiency of *Prkar1a* in mice also leads to upregulation of PKA activity in

male meiotic and postmeiotic germ cells, resulting in structural defects in mature sperm and, in turn, reduction in fertility (59).

1.6.2 *Prkar2a* knockout and heterozygous mice (*Prkar2a*^{-/-} and *Prkar2a*^{+/-})

The generation of *Prkar2a*^{+/-} and *Prkar2a*^{-/-} mice leads to the expected Mendelian ratio, indicating that the null mutation does not cause any embryonic lethality. Both mutants exhibit normal growth and appear healthy. In *Prkar2a*^{-/-} mice, the levels of R1 α protein are increased while C α protein is decreased in adult skeletal muscle. With reduction in C α protein, as expected, the total kinase activity is decreased. A particular study in *Prkar2a*^{-/-} skeletal muscle cells reveal that the upregulated R1 α protein is able to bind to the same A-kinase anchor protein (AKAP) associated with or near the L-type Ca²⁺ channel as to RII α protein, suggesting that R1 α is able to compensate for the function of RII α in a localized manner (60).

1.6.3 *Prkar2b* knockout and heterozygous mice (*Prkar2b*^{-/-} and *Prkar2b*^{+/-})

RII β protein is highly expressed in brown and white adipose tissue and brain. Mice lacking *Prkar2b* (*Prkar2b*^{-/-}) exhibit 50% reduction in white adipose tissue despite normal food intake. They are also resistant to diet-induced obesity. Similar to the findings from *Prkar2a*^{-/-} mice, brown adipose tissues (BAT) have compensatory increase in R1 α protein and basal PKA activity, suggesting that PKA dysregulation results from type II to type I isoform switch in BAT, rather than from dysregulation of catalytic subunits. RII β mutants are otherwise normal and fertile (61).

1.6.4 *Prkaca* knockout and heterozygous mice (*Prkaca*^{-/-} and *Prkaca*^{+/-})

It has been demonstrated that a null mutation of *Prkaca* generated in mice leads to early postnatal lethality in 70% of *Prkaca*^{-/-} mice. The remaining 30% survive to adulthood, probably due to the compensatory kinase activity derived from the *Prkacb* gene. However, the surviving *Prkaca*^{-/-} mice are growth-retarded with normal circulating growth hormone (GH) levels but reduction in GH-dependent molecules, IGF-1 and MUPs. This suggests that *Prkaca*^{-/-} mice are partially GH resistant. Loss of *Prkaca* results in 90% reduction in kinase activity in most tissues, except in brain in which expression of *Prkacb* is increased by posttranscriptional stabilization for compensation. *Prkaca*^{-/-} mice also have a reduction of both RI and RII subunits in skeletal muscle, heart and sperm. Despite a loss of more than 95% of total PKA activity in *Prkaca*^{-/-} testis, spermatogenesis remains unaffected, maintained by the remaining *Prkacb* activity. However, the mature sperm exhibit a near-total loss of forward velocity that indicates the incapability of *Prkaca*^{-/-} mice in successful fertilization (62). There is no significant difference between wild-type and *Prkaca*^{+/-} mice in total body weight or in visceral organ weights.

1.6.5 *Prkacb* knockout and heterozygous mice (*Prkacb*^{-/-} and *Prkacb*^{+/-})

Prkacb encodes three different isoforms of C β subunits, C β 1, C β 2 and C β 3. C β 1 is relatively more ubiquitously expressed; while expression of C β 2 and C β 3 is restricted to brain (63). Mice lacking all three isoforms of C β have no abnormalities with fertility and development. And *Prkacb*^{-/-} mice are shown to have normal locomotor response to novel environment that, at least in part, is

due to the functional substitution by C α . Despite a compensatory increase in C α protein, basal PKA activity is reduced by 26% in the brains of *Prkacb*^{-/-} mice. Since C β subunits are highly expressed in amygdale and hippocampus, which play an important role in learning and memory, *Prkacb*^{-/-} mice were subjected to fear conditioning studies to evaluate the effect of the absence of C β in brain. The study found that cued fear conditioning was disrupted in *Prkacb*^{-/-} mice on C57BL/6/129 background, but had no significant defect in *Prkacb*^{-/-} mice on a 98% C57BL/6 genetic background, suggesting that this phenotype was sensitive to strain-specific genetic modifiers (64).

1.7 Skeletogenesis

The vertebrate skeleton is an organ with high complexities. In general, there are four different types of bone that compose the adult human skeleton; they are: 1) long bones like humeri, radii, femurs, tibiae etc.; 2) short bones like carpal and tarsal bones; 3) flat bones including skull, mandible and ribs; and 4) irregular bones like vertebrae and sacrum. Long bones of the limbs and elements of the axial skeleton are formed by a combination of endochondral and intramembraneous ossification, whereas flat bones of the skull are formed by intramembraneous ossification only. The skeleton developmental process starts from condensation of mesenchymal cells, also known as osteochondral progenitors, that give rise to either chondrocytes to form cartilaginous templates in endochondral ossification or osteoblasts to form bone directly in intramembraneous ossification (65, 66).

1.7.1 Intra-membranous bone formation

The mesenchyme that is mostly derived from cranial neural crest cells (CNCCs) develops into mesenchymal blastemas. Blastema, a mass of undifferentiated cells with osteogenic potential, is the precursor of the bones of cranial vault (67-69). During intra-membranous ossification of bones of the craniofacial area, mesenchymal cells directly differentiate into osteoblast progenitors and then into osteoid, which produce mature osteoblasts without any cartilage formation. The osteoblasts then deposit extracellular matrix consisting mainly of type I collagen, other bone-related proteins, like osteocalcin, and proteoglycans, followed by mineralization. As the ossification proceeds, the borders of each cranial bone come closer and initiate the formation of sutures in which bone expansion happens during postnatal craniofacial growth. Under pressure from the expanding brain, sutures, the unossified bone growth site, allow the formation of new bone at the edges of the bone fronts; while the cells within the sutures remain undifferentiated. This process allows the cranial vault to increase in size to accommodate the enlarging brain, while at the same time, keeping the sutures as the bone growth sites (69).

This intra-membranous bone growth site is tightly regulated by different signaling pathways. Premature fusion of these sutures leads to craniosynostosis. Thus, it is important to elucidate the factors that are involved in regulating suture morphogenesis, suture patency and suture fusion.

In vivo mouse studies have demonstrated that, in intra-membranous ossification, upregulation of Wnt/ β -catenin signaling in mesenchymal progenitors is essential to inhibit Sox9 expression and promote *Runx2* expression, leading to mesenchyme differentiation into osteoblast lineage but not chondrocytes (70). Moreover, Bmp signaling is also an important factor in regulating suture morphogenesis and function. Previous studies have shown that *BMP-2*, *BMP-4* and *BMP-7* are expressed in osteogenic bone fronts during the early stages of suture morphogenesis. *Gdf6* (*Bmp-13*) knockout mice fail to develop coronal sutures, leading to craniosynostosis (71).

The importance of *FGFR-1*, *-2* and *-3* and transcription factors, *TWIST1* and *MSX2* in suture development is supported by the discovery of mutations in these genes that are associated with craniosynostosis syndromes in the human, such as Apert syndrome (OMIM#101200), Crouzon syndrome (OMIM#123500), Pfeiffer syndrome (OMIM#101600), Jackson-Weiss syndrome (OMIM#123150) craniosynostosis type 1 (OMIM#123100), craniosynostosis type 2 (OMIM#604757) (66, 72-75).

1.7.2 Endochondral bone formation

During endochondral bone formation, the osteochondral progenitors within the condensation centers are programmed to differentiate into chondrocytes, forming a cartilaginous template called growth plate; surrounding chondrocytes become perichondrium, a part of which give rise to periosteum, containing osteoblast precursors (76) and the other part of which remain as perichondrial cells. Chondrocytes in the center of the growth plate transform into early chondrocytes and start to proliferate. Both round and flat (more differentiated proliferative chondrocytes) proliferative chondrocytes secrete a matrix rich in collagen type II, collagen type XI and aggrecan. Signaling molecule, parathyroid hormone-related protein (PTHrP), secreted by perichondrial cells acts on these chondrocytes to keep them proliferating. Since PTHrP is only secreted by perichondrial cells and early chondrocytes near the end of bones, the chondrocytes distant from perichondrium receive a very weak PTHrP signal which makes them stop proliferating and become prehypertrophic chondrocytes. Prehypertrophic chondrocytes synthesize Indian hedgehog (IHH) proteins, which act on perichondrial cells for the synthesis of PTHrP. IHH-stimulated PTHrP expression keeps the chondrocytes in the proliferative pool and results in the delay of IHH production. The indirect ability of PTHrP to repress IHH expression establishes a negative feedback loop, which determines the length of columns of proliferative chondrocytes (77, 78). IHH is also able to accelerate the differentiation of round proliferative chondrocytes into flat chondrocytes in a PTHrP-independent pathway (79).

Prehypertrophic chondrocytes undergo further genetic changes and differentiate into post-mitotic hypertrophic chondrocytes that produce collagen type X and direct the mineralization of the surrounding matrix. Hypertrophic chondrocytes play a seminal role in bone development as they provide a scaffold for new bone formation (80). Hypertrophic chondrocytes eventually die through apoptosis. Concurrently, they trigger the invasion of blood vessels and osteoblast precursors, which are differentiated from perichondrium next to the region of prehypertrophic and hypertrophic chondrocytes under the stimulation by IHH signals, to form the primary spongiosa, the precursor of trabecular bone. While the chondrocytes continue to proliferate and lengthen the bone, the osteoblasts of primary spongiosa form trabecular bone and osteoblasts of bone collar form cortical bone. The secondary ossification center also forms after cycles of chondrocyte hypertrophy and vascular invasion.

1.7.3 Chondrogenesis

The cellular events involved in chondrogenesis, and subsequent osteogenesis/bone formation, are very complex. Thus, tight regulation by different signals should be present to generate a biomechanically strong bone structure. Besides PTHrP and IHH signaling, not surprisingly, different signaling pathways and transcription factors are also involved in regulating the proliferation, differentiation and apoptosis of chondrocytes in growth plates.

- Fibroblast growth factor (FGF) signaling

Several FGF and FGF receptor genes have been identified to be expressed during endochondral bone formation. *FGFR3* is expressed in proliferating chondrocytes; *FGFR1* is expressed in prehypertrophic/hypertrophic chondrocytes; whereas *FGFR2*, *FGF7*, *FGF8*, *FGF9*, *FGF17* and *FGF18* are expressed in perichondrium (81).

The identification of activating mutations in fibroblast growth factor receptor 3 (*FGFR3*) from patients with achondroplasia (ACH), a form of short-limbed dwarfism (82-84) and thanatophoric dysplasia (TD) (85, 86) points to the importance of FGF signaling in chondrocytes proliferation and differentiation. Mice lacking *Fgfr3* accelerate the rate of proliferation of chondrocytes, which results in overgrowth of long bones and vertebrae (87, 88). These findings provide the evidence for the negative regulation of chondrocyte proliferation by *FGFR3*. *In vivo* evidence from other studies suggested that *Fgfr3* inhibits bone growth by inhibiting chondrocyte differentiation via the mitogen-activated

protein kinase (MAPK) pathway and by inhibiting chondrocyte proliferation through activator of transcription-1 (Stat1) (89).

Knockout of *Fgf18* in mice leads to an increase in chondrocyte proliferation that closely resembles the bone phenotype of *Fgfr3*^{-/-} mice, but in a more severe way. This severe phenotype suggests that *Fgf18* may also act on *Fgfr1* to delay terminal differentiation of hypertrophic chondrocytes and on *Fgfr2* to delay osteoblast development (90, 91).

- Bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) signaling

Bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs), also called growth and differentiation factors (GDFs), are members of the TGF β family of secreted signaling molecules that can activate the corresponding receptors with serine/threonine kinase activity (80). Bmp signaling acts in both early and late stages of cartilage development. Type 1B Bmp receptor (*BMPR1B*) is expressed in mesenchymal condensation; while type 1A Bmp receptor (*BMPR1A*) is expressed throughout the growth plate with higher expression in prehypertrophic and hypertrophic chondrocytes (66). Expression of *BMP2*, -3, -4, -5 and -7 are found in the perichondrium; *BMP2* and -6 are expressed in hypertrophic chondrocytes; *BMP7* is expressed in proliferating chondrocytes (80). *In vivo* gain and loss-of-function studies of *Noggin*, a BMP antagonist, in mice suggest that BMP signaling is required for chondrogenic mesenchymal cell condensation and maintenance of chondrocyte lineage (92). Application of exogenous BMPs to *in vitro* limb-culture increases the proliferation of

chondrocytes, while addition of NOGGIN inhibits proliferation (93, 94). Conditional removal of *Bmpr1a* in chondrocytes decreases *Ihh* expression and expands hypertrophic zone due to delayed terminal hypertrophic differentiation (95). As discussed in the previous section, FGF signaling decreases chondrocyte proliferation and accelerates the terminal hypertrophic differentiation while BMP signaling acts in an opposite manner. Because of this opposing effect, these two pathways have been suggested as antagonizing each other (80, 93).

- Sox9 transcription factor

The Sox family of transcription factors, which contains the high-mobility-group (HMG) DNA-binding domain, is the master regulator of early chondrogenesis. Loss of function studies on mouse have shown that *sox9* is essential for condensation and proliferation of chondrocytes and the expression of collagen type II, collagen type XI and aggrecan, the matrix in the proliferating zone of growth plate (96-99). *Sox9* is expressed in proliferating chondrocytes but not in hypertrophic chondrocytes. Several studies have shown that *Sox9*, cooperating with the large *Sox5* isoform (*L-Sox5*) and *Sox6*, is an indispensable transcription factor for the determination of chondrocyte cell fate and proliferation by activating cartilage-specific enhancer (77, 98, 100-103).

- Runx2 transcription factor

RUNX2, also known as *CBFA1*, belongs to a family of transcription factors that share the DNA-binding domain of the *Drosophila* pair rule gene *runt*. *RUNX2* was first characterized as an important transcription factor for osteoblast differentiation from mesenchymal progenitors, which is supported by the loss of osteoblast differentiation in *Runx2* knockout (*Runx2*^{-/-}) mice (104-107). Loss of *Runx2* in mice also leads to delays in chondrocyte maturation since most bones have a decreased number of hypertrophic chondrocytes (108, 109). Additional studies revealed that *Runx2* is expressed in prehypertrophic and hypertrophic chondrocytes but not in proliferating chondrocytes. These findings support the conclusion that *Runx2* plays a role in chondrocyte hypertrophy. Moreover, *RUNX2* is expressed in perichondrial cells and inhibit the proliferation of chondrocytes indirectly by regulating *FGF18* expression (110). In chondrocytes, *RUNX2* is also involved in IHH-PTHrP pathway by controlling the expression of *IHH*. *In vivo* studies find that *Runx2*, partly involves *Runx3*, positively regulates the expression of *Ihh* in prehypertrophic chondrocytes (111). *IHH* upregulation indirectly delays chondrocyte hypertrophy through the induction of *PTHrP* production; whereas *Runx2* upregulation leads to acceleration of chondrocyte hypertrophy (112). The dual antagonistic role of *Runx2* in chondrocytes, acting individually or integrating with other signaling pathways, is present to coordinate chondrocyte proliferation and hypertrophic so as to prevent premature chondrocyte maturation.

1.7.4 Osteoblastogenesis

Osteoblasts are responsible for bone formation, matrix deposition and osteoclast differentiation in both intra-membranous and endochondral ossification. Different genetic and *in vivo* studies have demonstrated that *Runx2* is the master regulator of osteoblast differentiation. In endochondral bone formation, *RUNX2* expression is absolutely required for osteoblast differentiation in osteochondral progenitors of perichondrium and of the bone collar after mesenchymal condensation; in intra-membranous bone formation, *RUNX2* is expressed in condensed mesenchymal anlagen (113). Forced *RUNX2* expression in mesenchymal cells of non-osteoblastic lineage induces the expression of osteoblast-specific genes, like osteocalcin and type I collagen, indicating the ability of *RUNX2* to regulate the expression of osteoblast-specific genes during osteoblastogenesis (105). Transcription factors *SOX8*, *MSX2*, *DLX5* and *BAPX1* have been suggested to be the regulators of *RUNX2* expression (114-118). A second osteoblast-specific transcription factor, osterix (*OSX*), which acts both downstream of *RUNX2* or independent of *RUNX2*, is required for the transition of uncommitted to committed osteoblast progenitors (119).

After the establishment of cell fate, osteoblast progenitors mature into type I collagen and matrix producing osteoblasts. At this stage, *ATF4*, a transcription factor accumulates mainly in osteoblast partly due to lack of proteasomal degradation, is expressed that favors the synthesis of type I collagen (120, 121). *ATF4* activity in early osteoblasts is inhibited through protein-protein interaction

with *FIAT* (factor inhibiting activating transcription factor 4-mediated transcription) (122). Moreover, *ATF4* has been shown to be involved in regulating the expression of osteocalcin and a gene encoding an osteoclast differentiation factor (123).

1.7.5 Osteoclastogenesis

Osteoclast, a cell type resorbing mineralized bone matrix, belongs to monocyte/macrophage cell lineage (113, 124) and is the key participant in bone remodeling. *Pu.1*, an ETS-domain-containing transcription factor (125, 126), is the earliest known factor essential for the differentiation of macrophages into preosteoclasts (113). Receptor activator of nuclear factor (NF)- κ B ligand (RANKL) and colony-stimulating factor-1 (CSF-1), produced by bone stromal cells (BSCs) and osteoblasts, are necessary to induce expression of genes, including tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase (TRAP), cathepsin K (CATK), that lead to the differentiation of mature osteoclasts (124, 127, 128). RANKL interacts with its receptor RANK on osteoclasts and activates MAPK, PI-3K/Akt pathways and components of NF- κ B complex (127, 129). One of the downstream targets of RANKL/RANK pathway is *c-fos*, a member of AP-1 family (127). Overexpression of *c-fos* in transgenic mice leads to osteosarcoma (130). Mice lacking *c-fos* develop osteopetrosis and exhibit hematopoietic defects, leading to large number of macrophages (131). These studies indicate that *c-fos* is necessary for osteoclastogenesis by directing precursors to form osteoclasts instead of macrophages. Besides activating the differentiation of osteoclasts, *RANKL* can also activate mature osteoclasts, leading to internal structural changes which prepare the osteoclasts to resorb bone (124). The studies on RANKL-deficient mice, which develop severe osteopetrosis (132), further support the essential role of *RANKL* in the control of osteoclast differentiation and function.

A balance in bone remodeling is essential to maintain a rigid bone structure. Any excess in osteoclasts activity favors bone resorption, leading to adult skeletal diseases, like osteoporosis, rheumatoid arthritis etc. In normal circumstance, RANK signaling is negatively regulated by osteoprotegerin (OPG), a soluble “decoy receptor” secreted by osteoblasts to compete with RANK for RANKL (133). Accordingly, *Opg* knockout mice have increased osteoclast activity, leading to osteoporosis (134). Thus, OPG and RANKL are coordinated to regulate osteoclasts activity via RANK and in turn, bone resorption.

Upon initiation of bone remodeling, osteoclast cell body is polarized. Hydrogen ions exported from mature osteoclasts acidify the resorption compartment, causing the exocytosis of CATK and TRAP which digest the proteinaceous matrix. Degradated products are processed by osteoclasts and released to circulation (65, 124).

1.8 Significance of study

Previous studies have shown that *prkar1a* heterozygous mice (*Prkar1a*^{+/-}) develop various tumors, which include schwannomas, thyroid neoplasias and tail bone lesions, in a spectrum that overlaps with that observed in CNC patients (57). R1 α haploinsufficiency leads to increased total PKA activity in response to cAMP and an increased PKA-II to PKA-I ratio (135-139). Dysregulation of the catalytic subunits appears to be the most important mechanism for an increase in cAMP-responsive, total, PKA activity (140). Previous studies in mice and human cell lines have all suggested that coordinated inhibition of the catalytic subunit is the most important function of the PKA regulatory subunits (24, 141-143). Accordingly, we hypothesized that *Prkar1a*^{+/-} deficiency in the background of *prkaca* haploinsufficiency (*Prkaca*^{+/-}) would abrogate most if not all of the tumors that developed in the former, since C α is the main PKA catalytic subunit in both humans and mice (55, 135, 140, 143).

The present study reports the results of this experiment. Unlike *Prkar1a*^{+/-} animals, the *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice did not develop any thyroid tumors or schwannomas, indicating that indeed reduction of C α can abrogate the development of tumors by thyroid follicular and Schwann cells. Unexpectedly, however, the *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice not only continued to develop bone lesions but also demonstrated a significant increase in both the number and the severity of the lesions, as well as a reduction in the age of first appearance of any bone abnormality. Biochemical characterization showed an overall increase in PKA

activity and protein expression studies showed an increase in type-II regulatory subunits and alternate PKA catalytic subunits in cells derived from the lesions.

Like in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} animals (144), histological analysis of bone from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkaca*^{+/-} mice showed that lesions had similarity to tumors from humans with CNC (48) and some resemblance (but also differences) from humans and mice with (FD) (145, 146). *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse lesions always involved a particular sub-population of cells that could be identified as belonging to the osteoblastic lineage and resembled BSCs (147).

These studies showed that genetic manipulation of the PKA pathway in mice, revealed a particular population of BSCs in adult animals (adult BSCs or aBSCs) that are responsive to cAMP signaling mediated mainly by PKA-II and alternate catalytic subunits; it is noteworthy that these PKA alterations did not affect embryonic or early postnatal skeletal development. These data have implications for the understanding of bone marrow subgroups of cells and their potential pharmacological manipulation through the cAMP signaling pathway.

Chapter Two

Materials and Methods

2.1 Generation of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} double heterozygous mice

Prkar1a heterozygous mice (*Prkar1a*^{+/-}), which contain one null allele of *Prkar1a*^{Δ2}, were previously generated in our laboratory (57). *Prkaca* heterozygous mice (*Prkaca*^{+/-}), which have a neomycin resistance cassette to replace exons 6-8 of the *prkaca* gene (62), were purchased from Mutant Mouse Regional Resource Centers (MMRRC, strain name: B6; 129X1-*Prkaca*^{tm1Gsm}/Mmnc). *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkaca*^{+/-} mice were interbred to generate *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} double heterozygous mice, which were maintained on a mixed C57BL/6 129Sv/B6 hybrid background. All animal work in this study was carried out under animal protocol 06-033 (Building10A Animal Facility, NIH, Bethesda, MD).

2.2 Generation of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} double heterozygous mice

The same *Prkar1a* heterozygous mice (*Prkar1a*^{+/-}) used in *Prkaca* crosses was interbred with *Prkar2b* heterozygous mice (*Prkar2b*^{+/-}); which have a neomycin resistance cassette to insert into exons 1 of the *prkar2b* gene (61), to generate *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} double heterozygous mice. *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice were purchased from Mutant Mouse Regional Resource Centers (MMRRC, strain name: B6.129X1-*Prkar2b*^{tm1Gsm}/Mmmh). *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice were maintained on a mixed C57BL/6 129Sv/B6 hybrid background. All animal work in this study was carried out under animal protocol 06-033 (Building10A Animal Facility, NIH, Bethesda, MD).

2.3 Genotyping analysis

Initial genotyping of founders was by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) that was then used to genotype our mice containing one null allele (*Prkar1a*^{Δ2}) and those with the NEO cassette within *Prkar1a* gene: Three primers (5'-AGCTAGCTTGGCTGGACGTA-3', 5'-AAGCAGGCGAGCTATTAGTTTAT-3' and 5'-CATCCATCTCCTATCCCCTTT-3') were used for *prkar1a* genotyping: the WT allele generated a 250 base pair (bp) fragment and the null allele generated an 180 bp product.

Genotyping of *Prkaca* was done with two pairs of primers: the first pair (5'-CTGACCTTTGAGTATCTGCAC-3' and 5'-GTCCCACACAAGGTCCAAGTA-3') amplified the WT allele with a product of 250 bp; the second pair (5'-AGACTACTGCTCTATCACTGA-3' and 5'-GTGGTTTGTCCAAACTCATCAATGT-3') identified the neo-inserted allele with a product of 250 bp.

Genotyping of *Prkar2b* was also done with two pairs of primers: the first pair (5'-GCAGGATGAGCATCGAG-3' and 5'-TTCGAGAGTGAGGCGGA-3') amplified the WT allele with a product of 330 bp; the second pair (5'-AGGAGCTGGAGATGCTGCCAA-3' and 5'-GTGGTTTGTCCAAACTCATCAATGT-3') identified the neo-inserted allele with a product of 194 bp.

	Temperature	Time	Cycles
<i>Prkar1a</i> genotyping	94°C	5 minutes	1
	94°C	30 seconds	
	54°C	30 seconds	35
	72°C	1 minutes	
	72°C	5 minutes	1
	4°C	∞	
<i>Prkaca</i> WT allele genotyping	94°C	5 minutes	1
	94°C	30 seconds	
	58°C	45 seconds	35
	72°C	1 minutes	
	72°C	5 minutes	1
	4°C	∞	
<i>Prkaca</i> neo-inserted allele genotyping	94°C	5 minutes	1
	94°C	30 seconds	
	58°C	30 seconds	35
	72°C	40 seconds	
	72°C	5 minutes	1
	4°C	∞	
<i>Prkar2b</i> WT allele genotyping	94°C	3 minutes	1
	94°C	30 seconds	
	65°C (-0.5°C per cycle)	50 seconds	24
	72°C	45 seconds	
	94°C	30 seconds	
	53°C	50 seconds	24
	72°C	45 seconds	
	72°C	5 minutes	1
	4°C	∞	
<i>Prkar2b</i> neo-inserted allele genotyping	94°C	5 minutes	1
	94°C	30 seconds	
	67°C (-0.5°C per cycle)	50 seconds	16
	72°C	45 seconds	
	94°C	30 seconds	
	59°C	50 seconds	30
	72°C	45 seconds	
	72°C	5 minutes	1
	4°C	∞	

Table 2.1 The PCR conditions for *Prkar1a*, *Prkaca* and *Prkar2b* genotyping

2.4 Loss of heterozygosity (LOH) analysis

The presence of *Prkar1a* and *Prkaca* allele was detected in both peripheral and tumor DNA by PCR. *Prkar1a* allele was detected by primers 5'-ATTCCCTGGGAATTGTGAGT-3' and 5'-TAGGCTCAGAAAGTCACTGCA-3'; while *prkaca* allele was detected by primers 5'-AAACTCACACACACAGAGACAACA-3' and 5'-GCCCCAGTGTGACTAAGGAG-3'.

2.5 Mouse numbers, necropsies, phenotyping

A total of 84 *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-}, 126 *Prkar1a*^{+/-}, 114 *Prkaca*^{+/-}, and 96 control (wild-type, WT) littermate mice were handled for the purposes of this project over three years. For this experiment, complete phenotyping that included all aspects of bone development at various ages (up to 18 months of age) received 42 *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-}, 34 *Prkar1a*^{+/-}, 8 *Prkaca*^{+/-}, 23 *Prkar2b*^{+/-}, 39 *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice and 24 WT mice from the corresponding litters, as determined after genotyping.

2.6 X-ray

Radiographs of the tail were taken using the Faxitron x-ray system (Model MX-20). The X-ray tube was set at 40 seconds 30kv. Kodak, Portal Pack, PPL film

(SourceOne Healthcare Technology, San Diego, CA) and was placed at the bottom of unit and the carcass in the plastic tray was put 4 inches above the film.

2.7 Microcomputed tomography (μ CT)

μ CT analysis of caudal vertebrae at 8 μ m resolution was performed using a GE Medical Systems eXplore Locus SP μ CT scanner (GE Medical Systems, London, ON, Canada). Tissue mineral density (TMD) was calculated on a 1.52 mm thick cortical slice of the diaphysis using GE Health Care MicroView ABA 2.2 software (GE Medical Systems, London, ON, Canada).

2.8 Raman microspectroscopy (RMS)

Longitudinal, radial cryo-sections (15 μ m) of affected and unaffected caudal vertebrae from 6 months old *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mouse were hydrated in sub-saturating CsCl, 10mM HEPES, pH7.4, placed between quartz slides and examined in a confocal Raman microscope (Senterra, Bruker Optics Inc.). Bright-field and polarized transmission images were collected with a 10X/0.3NA objective. Raman spectra were collected from 2x2 μ m spots at extracellular matrix with 10-15 cm^{-1} resolution using a 40X/0.95NA objective, 50 μ m pinhole, and 532 nm / 9 mW depolarized excitation laser. The mineral/matrix ratio was evaluated from the ratio of spectral peaks of $\nu_1\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ stretching vibration of mineral phosphate (922-983 cm^{-1}) and CH stretching vibrations in organic

molecules ($2820\text{-}3020\text{ cm}^{-1}$) after subtracting baseline, water, and quartz contributions.

2.9 Haematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) staining

Bone tissues were removed from mice and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 48 hours then transferred to 8% formic acid solution (Decalcifier I, Surgipath Medical Industries, Inc., Richmond, IL) for 24-48 hours. After that, they were rinsed in tap water for 10 minutes and processed through a series of alcohol and xylene and embedded in paraffin. 5 μm bone sections were cut from paraffin-embedded blocks. The slides were subjected to deparaffinization, followed by washing with distilled water. The slides were stained with hematoxylin and eosin.

2.10 Primary cultures of mouse bone tumors

Tumors or vertebral bones were removed from mice and minced into small fragments. These fragments were incubated with collagenase A (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) at 37°C for 15 minutes. The digested fragments were then centrifuged at 360xg for 5 minutes and washed twice with PBS. The pelleted cells and fragments were cultured in a 25cm² flask with DMEM supplemented with 20% fetal bovine serum (Hyclone, Logan, UT) and 1x antibiotic-antimycotic (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Medium was refreshed at 3 day intervals. After 10 days, primary tumors cells attached to the flask were harvested and plated in

75cm² flask. The primary cells were then used for protein extraction and FACS study.

2.11 Microarray and real-time quantitative real-time PCR (RT-QPCR) analysis

mRNA was isolated from normal caudal vertebrae of WT, *Prkaca*^{+/-} mice and caudal vertebrae lesions of *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice by Trizol extraction (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). The quality of total RNA samples was assessed using an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA). Microarray experiments were performed as described (148). Briefly, 0.5µg of total RNA from each sample was amplified and transcribed to cDNA, which was then used to generate single strand biotin-labeled cRNA. A total of 0.85µg of cRNA was hybridized to Illumina MouseRef-8 v2.0 Expression BeadChips (Illumina, San Diego, CA). The hybridized biotinylated cRNA was detected with streptavidin-Cy3 and quantitated using Illumina's Bead-Station 500GX Genetic Analysis System scanner. Array data was analyzed as previously described (149). The raw and normalized array data have been deposited in National Center for Biotechnology Information's Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) and are accessible through GEO Series accession number GSE20984. For RT-QPCR analysis, total mRNA (750ng) was reverse-transcribed using High Capacity RNA-to-cDNA Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). RT-QPCR was performed using Applied Biosystems 7500 real-time PCR system. *Runx2* mRNA expression

level was detected by using Power SYBR® Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) and primers 5'-AGCGGACGAGGCAAGAGTTT-3' and 5'-TGGGTTCTGAGGCGGGACA-3'. Adenylate cyclases mRNA expression levels were detected using Taqman Gene Expression Assay (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA): *Adcy1* (Mm01187829_m1), *Adcy6* (Mm00475772_m1), *Adcy9* (Mm00507743_m1). Gene expression data on Wnt and osteogenesis pathway were performed using Wnt-signaling pathway PCR array (SABiosciences, Frederick, MD) and osteogenesis pathway PCR array (SABiosciences, Frederick, MD). The relative expression of each transcript against WT tail tissue was calculated using *Gapdh* (Taqman Rodent *Gapdh* control, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) as standard and $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method (150).

2.12 Western blot analysis

Tissue lysates were extracted by homogenization in T-PER tissue protein extraction reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL), containing protease inhibitor cocktail I (EMD Biosciences, La Jolla, CA) with subsequent centrifugation at 10,000rpm for 10 minutes at 4°C. Protein concentration was determined by BCA protein assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL). Twenty micrograms of protein diluted in deionized water were mixed with NuPAGE® 4X LDS sample buffer (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA), and then boiled for 10 min at 70°C, and run on NuPAGE®Novex® Bis-tris gel (Invitrogen, Carlsbad,

CA). Protein was transferred onto a 0.45- μ m nitrocellulose membrane. The membrane was blocked with TBS containing 5% nonfat dried milk and 1% Tween 20. Proteins were detected with primary antibodies against the target proteins (Table 2) and horseradish peroxidase–conjugated secondary antibodies against rabbit IgG (1:4000) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL). All antibodies were diluted in 1% nonfat dried milk in TBS-Tween 20. Bands were detected by enhanced chemiluminescence reagent (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA).

2.13 Immunohistochemistry

All immunohistochemistry was performed at Histoserve, Inc. (Germantown, MD). Briefly, 5 μ m bone sections were cut from paraffin-embedded blocks. The slides were subjected to deparaffinization, followed by washing with distilled water. The slides were then pretreated at 85°C for 20 minutes with subsequent hydrogen peroxidase and bovine serum albumin blocking. Our target proteins were detected with corresponding primary and secondary antibody (Table 2) from which the signal was developed by binding with horseradish peroxidase–conjugated streptavidin.

2.14 Immunofluorescence

Immunofluorescence was performed after dewaxing, rehydration and permeabilization; in control sections, rabbit IgG was used instead of primary

antibody. The bone sections were detected using anti-Runx2 antibody at 1:100 dilution and Alexa488-tagged anti-rabbit secondary antibody (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA), and the section was then mounted with hard set mounting media (Vector Lab, Burlingame, CA). Images were collected using a Leica SP2 Confocal microscope and Leica LSC acquiring software (Leica Microsystems Inc, Deerfield, IL).

2.15 Flow cytometry

Primary cells from bone tumors (1×10^5) were collected from cultures and fixed using BD Cytofix/Cytoperm™ Fixation/Permeabilization Solution Kit (BD biosciences, San Jose, CA). The fixed cells were then washed with wash buffer. After that, primary antibody (Suppl. Table 4) was used for staining at 4°C for 30 minutes. The cells were washed again and stained with FITC-tag secondary antibody (1:250) at 4°C for 30 minutes. The stained cells were ready for flow cytometry analysis. The cells were stained with vimentine, foxo1, c-fos, c-kit, runx2, collagen 1. MC3T3 (ATCC CRL-2593), which is a preosteoblast cell line, was used as control cell. For staining with cd44, cd45, cd90 and vcam, the cells were collected and washed with staining buffer (phosphate-buffered saline supplemented with 2% normal mouse serum; Gemini Bioproducts, West Sacramento, CA). After that, the cells were stained with APC, PE or FITC-tagged primary antibodies (Table 2). The cells were washed again and then were ready for analysis. Data were acquired on an LSRII flow cytometer (BD Biosciences)

equipped with 355, 407, 488, 532, and 638 nm laser lines using DIVA 6.1.2 software (BD Biosciences), and analyzed with FlowJo version 8.7.3 (Tree Star, Ashland, OR) (151).

2.16 Serum Matrix Metalloproteinase 9 (Mmp9) level measurement

Mouse Mmp9 concentration in serum was measured by using Quantikine Mouse MMP-9 (total) Immunoassay kit (R&D system, Minneapolis, MN). The assay was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, diluted serum samples were incubated in Mmp9 pre-coated microplate for 2 hours at room temperature. The samples were then removed and each well was washed four times with the wash buffer provided. After washing, an enzyme-linked polyclonal antibody specific for mouse Mmp9 was added and incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature. A substrate solution was then added for color development. Optical density at 450nm of each well was measured.

2.17 PKA activity

PKA enzymatic activity was measured by a method described previously (152). The assays were carried out in a total volume of 50 μ L for 15 minutes at 37°C in the reaction mixture containing 50 mmol/L Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 5 mmol/L DTT, 10 mmol/L MgCl₂, 60 μ mol/L Kemptide (a phosphate acceptor peptide; Leu-Arg-Arg-Ala-Ser-Leu-Gly), 20 μ mol/L [γ -³²P]ATP (25 Ci/mmol), with or without 5 μ mol/L

cAMP and 10 μ L of the tissue extracts. After incubation, the reaction mixtures were spotted onto 0.23-mm phosphocellulose discs and washed three times in 0.5% phosphoric acid. Filters were air dried and counted by liquid scintillation counter. Total kinase activity represented enzymatic activity after stimulation with cAMP. Statistical analysis of comparisons between groups was undertaken using a two-sample t-test; differences were considered significant at $P < 0.05$.

2.18 cAMP assay

Levels of cAMP were determined by ^3H Biotrak Assay System (Amersham Biosciences, Piscataway, NJ). All procedures were carried out according to the manufacturer's instructions. The presented values represent the average of three independent experiments.

2.19 PDE activity

Phosphodiesterase activity was assayed with [H^3]-cAMP by the method described previously (153) with modifications. Incubation mixture (total volume 200 μ l) contained 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 10 mM MgCl_2 , 0.1 mM cAMP (2.5 mCi/mmol). Incubations were performed at 37°C for 30 minutes. Reactions were stopped by cooling rapidly down to 5°C, with subsequent addition of 100 μ L of 0.17 M ZnSO_4 and 100 μ L of 0.15 M $\text{Ba}(\text{OH})_2$. In this procedure, precipitation of adenosine, inosine, hypoxanthine and inorganic phosphate was achieved by 97%

and cAMP did not precipitate. Precipitate was removed by centrifugation (6,000xg, 5 min) and 100 mL of supernatant, which contained cAMP, was placed in scintillation liquid and counted.

2.20 DEAE-cellulose chromatography

This experiment was performed as described (154). Briefly, primary cells derived from either normal tissues or lesions were homogenized in 5mL of lysis buffer (10 mM Tris/HCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM dithiothreitol and protease inhibitor cocktail I (EMD Biosciences, La Jolla, CA)) and then kept on ice for 10 minutes. The lysates were centrifuged at 10,000g for 10 minutes. Protein concentration of the supernatants was determined by measuring the absorbance at 280nm. A total of 2.5 mg of protein from each sample was loaded on the pre-equilibrated DEAE column with 10 mM Tris/HCl, pH7.1, containing 1 mM EDTA and 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride. The column was developed with 0 to 350mM NaCl gradient at a flow rate of 15 mL/hr. 2-ml fractions were collected on ice and assayed for protein kinase activity as described above.

2.21 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis on bone tumor frequency was performed using a log rank test. A two-sample t-test was done for the rest of the experiments. Experiments were

done at least in triplicate and a mean was calculated and presented. A $P < 0.05$ was considered significant.

Antibody	Company	Dilution
Acp5	Abnova (H00000054-D01P)	1:100 (IHC)
Adcy1	Abcam (ab69597)	1:1000 (WB)
Adcy6	Abcam (ab14781)	1:1000 (WB)
Adcy9	Abcam (ab14783)	1:1000 (WB)
Brachyury	Abcam (ab20680)	5 μ g/ml (IHC)
Cathepsin K	Abcam (ab19027)	1:100 (IHC)
Cd44/APC	eBioscience (17-0441)	1:200 (Flow cytometry)
Cd45/PE	Miltenyi (130-091-610)	1:200 (Flow cytometry)
Cd90/FITC	Abcam (ab25672)	1:200 (Flow cytometry)
c-fos	Santa Cruz (sc-253)	1:100 (IHC); 1 μ g (Flow cytometry)
c-kit	Abcam (ab5506)	1 μ g (Flow cytometry)
Collagen 1	Abcam (ab34710)	1 μ g (Flow cytometry)
Cytokeratin 18	Abcam (ab32118)	1:100 (IHC)
C α	Santa Cruz (sc-903)	1:2500 (WB); 1:100 (IHC)
C β	Santa Cruz (sc-904)	1:1000 (WB); 1:100 (IHC)
C γ	Santa Cruz (sc-905)	1:1000 (WB); 1:100 (IHC)
E-cadherin	Abcam (ab53033)	1/250 (IHC)
Foxo1	Abcam (ab39670)	1:100 (IHC); 1 μ g (Flow cytometry)
Gapdh	Abcam (ab9485)	1:10000 (WB)
Mmp2	Santa Cruz (sc-10736)	1:1000 (WB)
Mmp9	Santa Cruz (sc-10737)	1:1000 (WB)
N-cadherin	Abcam (ab12221)	10 μ g/ml (IHC)
Osteocalcin	Santa Cruz (sc-30045)	1:100 (IHC)
Pde4d	Abcam (ab14613)	1:1000 (WB)
Pde7a	FabGennix (PD7A-100P)	1:1000 (WB)
Pde11a	Abcam (ab14624)	1:1000 (WB)
p-Ril	Epitomics (1151-1)	1:1000 (WB)
Prkx	Gift from Dr. Robert M. Kotin (NHLBI, NIH, Bethesda, MD)	1:1000 (WB); 1:100 (IHC)
Rl α	Abcam (ab38936)	1:1000 (WB); 1:100 (IHC)
Rll α	Santa Cruz (sc-909)	1:2500 (WB); 1:100 (IHC)
Rll β	Santa Cruz (sc-25424)	1:1000 (WB); 1:100 (IHC)
Runx2	Santa Cruz (sc-10758)	1:1000 (WB) 1 μ g (Flow cytometry)
Vcam-1/Alexa 647	eBioscience (51-1061)	1:200 (Flow cytometry)
Vimentin	Abcam (ab45939)	1:700 (IHC); 1 μ g (Flow cytometry)

Table 2.2 List of antibodies used in the present study.

Chapter Three

Phenotypic Characterization of Mice Deficient in Protein Kinase A Regulatory Subunit Type 1A (*prkar1a*) and Catalytic Subunit A (*prkaca*)

3.1 Generation of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} double heterozygous mice

All mice were bred into a mixed C57BL/6x129Sv/B6 hybrid background, because the C57BL/6 background favored the reproduction and survival of *Prkaca*^{+/-} mice (62). Genomic DNA extracted from tail tips were used for genotyping that helped to confirm the generation of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} double heterozygous mice. Genotypings were performed by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using the conditions described in the Materials and Methods chapter. The products of PCR were analyzed in 1% DNA agarose gel (Figure 3.1).

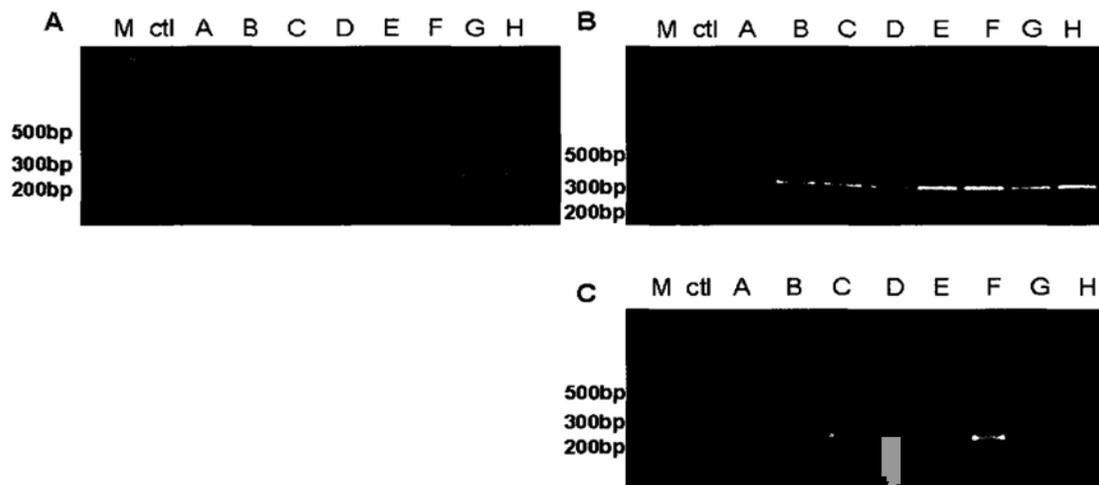


Figure 3.1 Genomic PCR experiments were used for the genotyping of *prkar1a* and *prkaca* genes in mice. (A) Genotyping of *prkar1a*, (B) Genotyping of *prkaca* WT allele and (C) Genotyping of *prkaca* KO allele in animal A-H using the primers described in Material and Methods. Taken together, Animal A had the genotype *prkar1a*^{+/+}*prkaca*^{+/+}; Animal B had the genotype *prkar1a*^{+/+}*prkaca*^{+/+}; Animal C had the genotype *prkar1a*^{+/-}*prkaca*^{+/-}; Animal D had the genotype *prkar1a*^{+/+}*prkaca*^{+/+}; Animal E had the genotype *prkar1a*^{+/-}*prkaca*^{+/+}; Animal F had the genotype *prkar1a*^{+/-}*prkaca*^{+/-}; Animal G had the genotype *prkar1a*^{+/+}*prkaca*^{+/+}; Animal H had the genotype *prkar1a*^{+/+}*prkaca*^{+/-}. M, 100bp ladder; ctl, negative control.

3.2 Phenotypic analysis of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} double heterozygous mice

After the confirmation of genotypes, 34 *Prkar1a*^{+/-}, 8 *Prkaca*^{+/-} and 42 *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice at various ages (up to 18 months of age) were subjected to complete phenotyping. 24 control (wild-type, WT) mice were used from the same litter and were matched for age.

None of the *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice showed schwannomas or thyroid tumors that were found, as previously reported (57), in the *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice. In the population of mice from the present study, *Prkar1a*^{+/-} (32.4%) also had eosinophilic cellular alteration (Figure 3.2A, B) in the liver; and two 18 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice developed hepatocellular adenoma (Figure 3.2C, D) that were not found in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice.

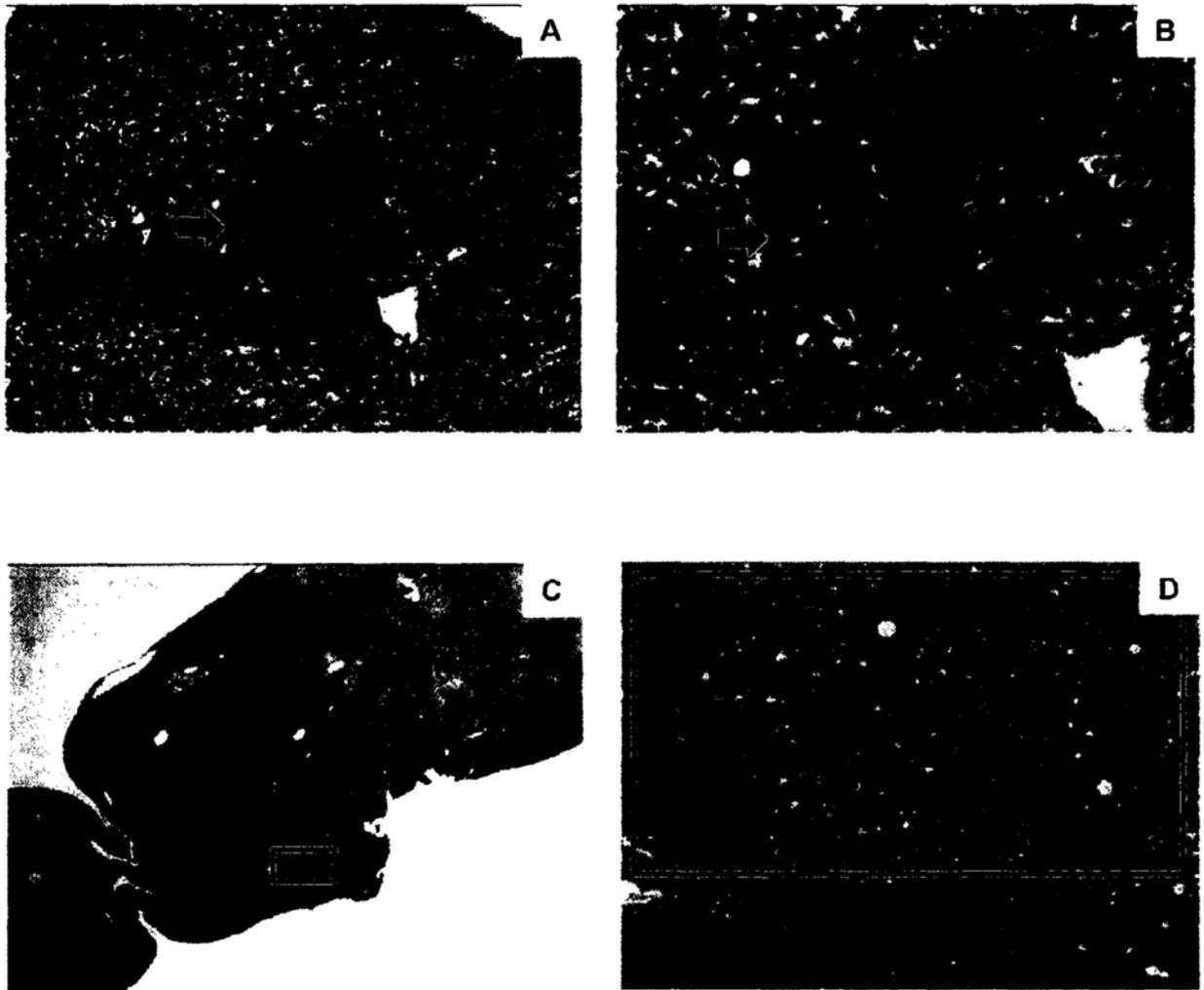


Figure 3.2 Representative views of liver eosinophilic cellular alteration and hepatocellular adenoma in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice. (A,B) Haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of sections of liver from 14-month old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mouse. Black arrow denote the presence of eosinophilic focus. (A) Original magnification, 20x. (B) Original magnification, 40x. (C,D) H&E staining of sections of liver from 18-month old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mouse. (C) Area under square was looked under high magnification and showed in panel D. (Original magnification, 2x). (D) Square indicates the presence of hepatocellular adenoma. (Original magnification, 20x).

Twenty out of 42 *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice (47.6%) and 15 out of 34 *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice (44.1%) developed subcapsular hyperplasia (Figure 3.3) in adrenal when compared to 7 out of 24 (29.1%) WT mice. This phenotype associated with WT mice was age-related incidental finding. This indicates that *prkar1a* haploinsufficiency is sufficient to increase the frequency of adrenal hyperplasia in mice.

Prkar1a^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice developed *pars distalis* cysts (Figure 3.4A, B) in pituitary (14.3%) that were only found in three *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice (8.8%). One of the *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice at 12 months of age also developed *pars intermedia* hyperplasia (Figure 3.4C, D) in pituitary, indicating that, instead of obrogating the development of tumors, reduction of *Cα* induces the development of pituitary hyperplasia.

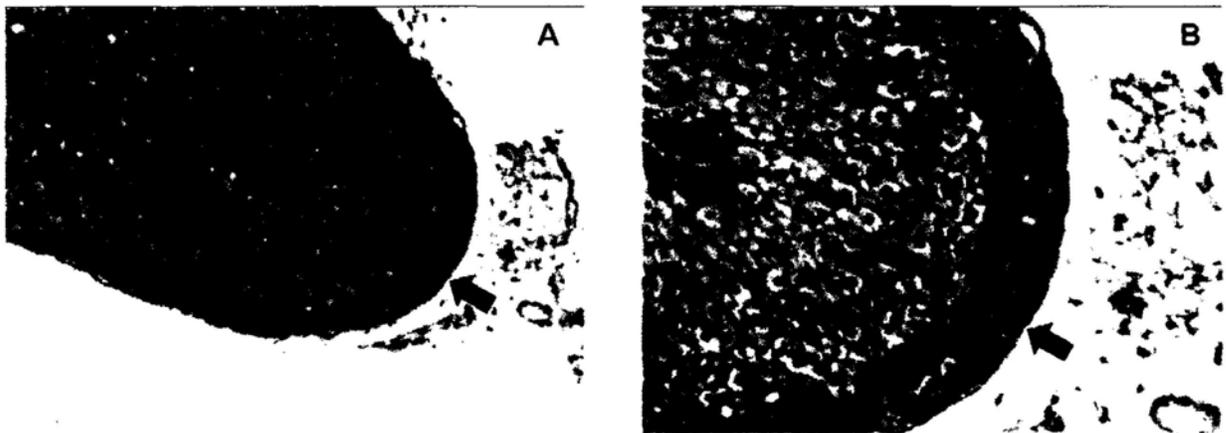


Figure 3.3 Representative views of adrenal subcapsular hyperplasia. (A,B) H&E staining of the sections of adrenal from 9-month old *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse. Black arrows denote the presence of subcapsular hyperplasia. (A) Original magnification 20x. (B) Original magnification 40x.

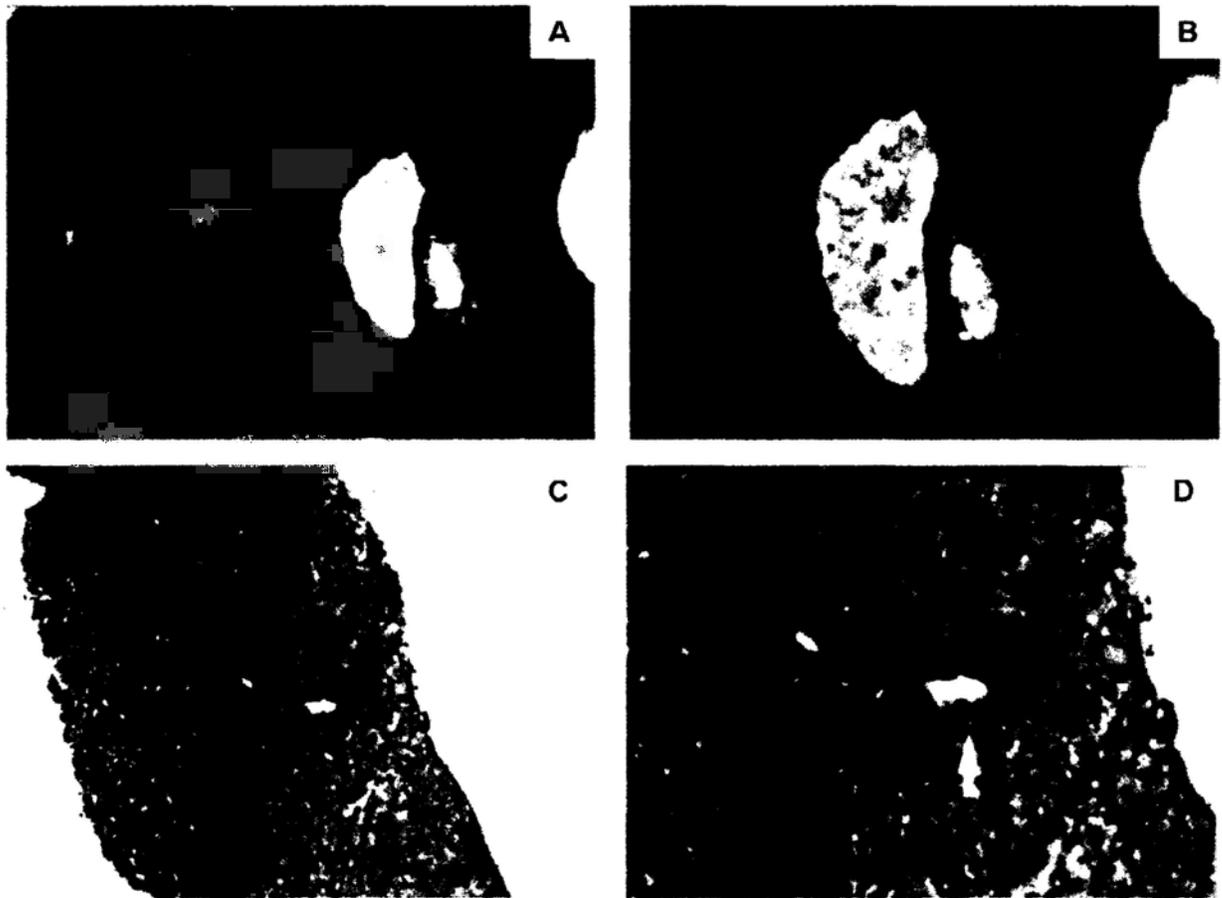


Figure 3.4 Representative views of pars distalis cysts and pituitary hyperplasia. (A, B) H&E staining of the section of pituitary from 9-month old *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mouse, showing a typical pars distalis cysts. (A) Original magnification 40x. (B) Original magnification 60x. (C, D) H&E staining of the section of pituitary from 12-month old *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mouse, showing a typical pituitary hyperplasia. (C) Original magnification 20x. (D) Original magnification 40x.

Previous data showed that about 50% of *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice in the 129Sv/B6 background developed osteomyxomas in the caudal vertebrae (tail bone) by 8 months of age, a number that increased to 100% by one year (57, 144). This number was apparently lower in the mixed C57BL/6x129Sv/B6 background for the *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice (Figure 3.5A), indicating that the intensity of this phenotype varies with the genetic background. Multiple bone lesions (osteomyxomas) were also observed in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice and they first appeared at 4-5 months of age. Ninety percent of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice exhibited these lesions by 6 months, and 100% by 9 months. Radiographs of the tails showed radiolucent masses that suggested that non-ossified lesions were growing into normal bone (Figure 3.5B). *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice not only developed these lesions earlier but also showed an increased number of lesions when compared to the age-matched *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice (Figure 3.5A).

Interestingly, *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice also developed other types of bone lesions that were less frequently found in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice. First, a single, male 3 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse developed a tibial chondroma (Figure 3.6), a tumor analogous to what is seen in CNC patients (48); more than 26 *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice have been phenotyped at the ages of 2-3 months and there were never any tumors or any other bony lesions at this age. Second, four out of 30 *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice (13%) (vs 1 out of 34 *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice) developed osteochondromyxoma (OCM) (Figure 3.7A, B), a tumor that was histologically similar to the bony lesions that have been reported in association with CNC (48). Third, cartilaginous hyperplasia, chondromas and osteochondrodysplasia were

observed in marrow cavities of about 1/3 of the long bones (femur, tibia) (Figure 3.7C, D) and in most of the vertebral bodies (up to 23% of the spinal column) (Figure 3.7E, F) of the *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice (vs 2 out of 34 *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice).

Three metastatic chondrosarcomas developed in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice that were 6 and 16 month-old, and one *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse that was 14 month-old; in all cases the most likely primary sites were hind-limb masses, and metastases were renal and lung, respectively (Figure 3.8).

Like in the previous studies from Dr. Stratakis' laboratory (57, 144), we did not observe any gender differences in the incidence of bone lesions. Blood cell counts and biochemical values (i.e. total and ionized calcium, phosphate, and others) were within normal range, with the exception of elevated alkaline phosphatase (ALP) level in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice (Table 3.1 and Figure 3.9).

These data suggested that the reduction of *prkar1a* under *prkaca* haploinsufficiency background can obrogate the development of tumors from thyroid follicles and Schwann cells; unexpectedly, however, *prkar1a* and *prkaca* haploinsufficiency has prominent effects on adult bone development, although not on prenatal skeleton development. The following studies aimed at identifying the origin and type of abnormal cells contributing to the growth of bone tumors.

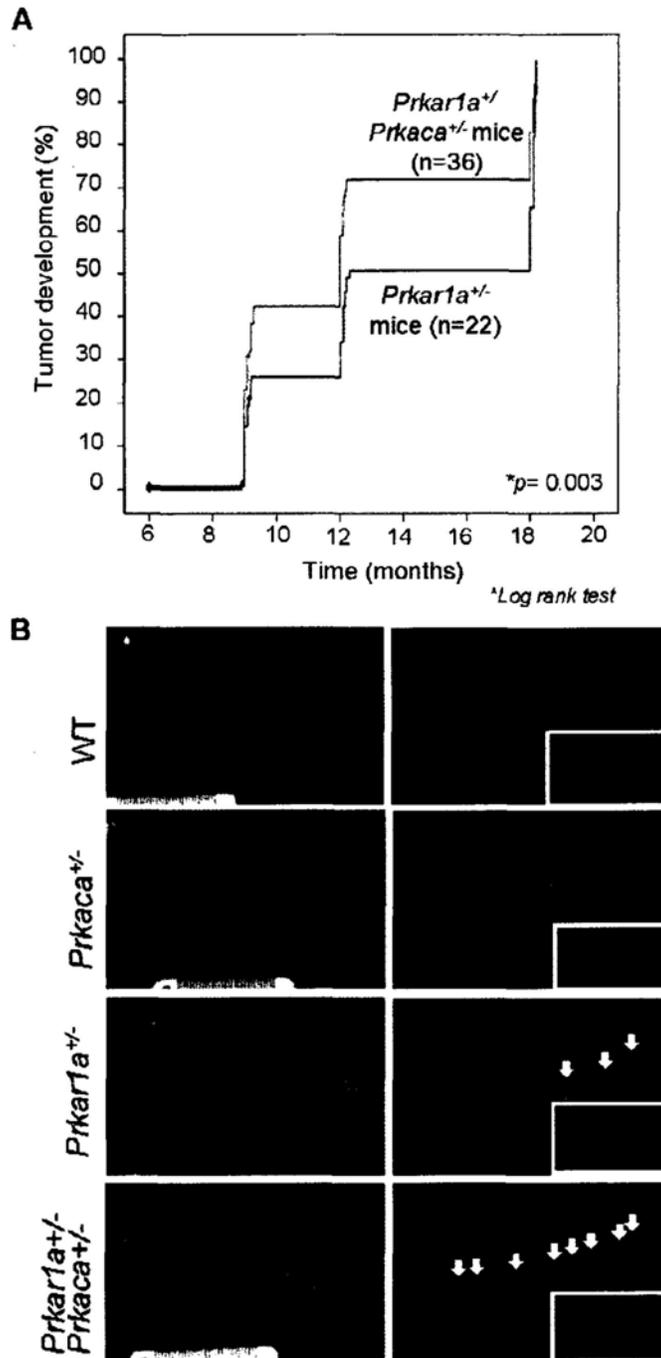


Figure 3.5 Development of vertebral bone lesions of the caudal vertebrae from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. (A) Kaplan Meier curve shows the number of tail masses found in various ages of *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. (B) Left panel, comparison of tails from WT, *Prkaca*^{+/-}, *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice at 12 month-old. Right panel, X-ray radiographs of caudal vertebrae of WT, *Prkaca*^{+/-}, *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice at 12 month-old. White arrows point to the lesions.

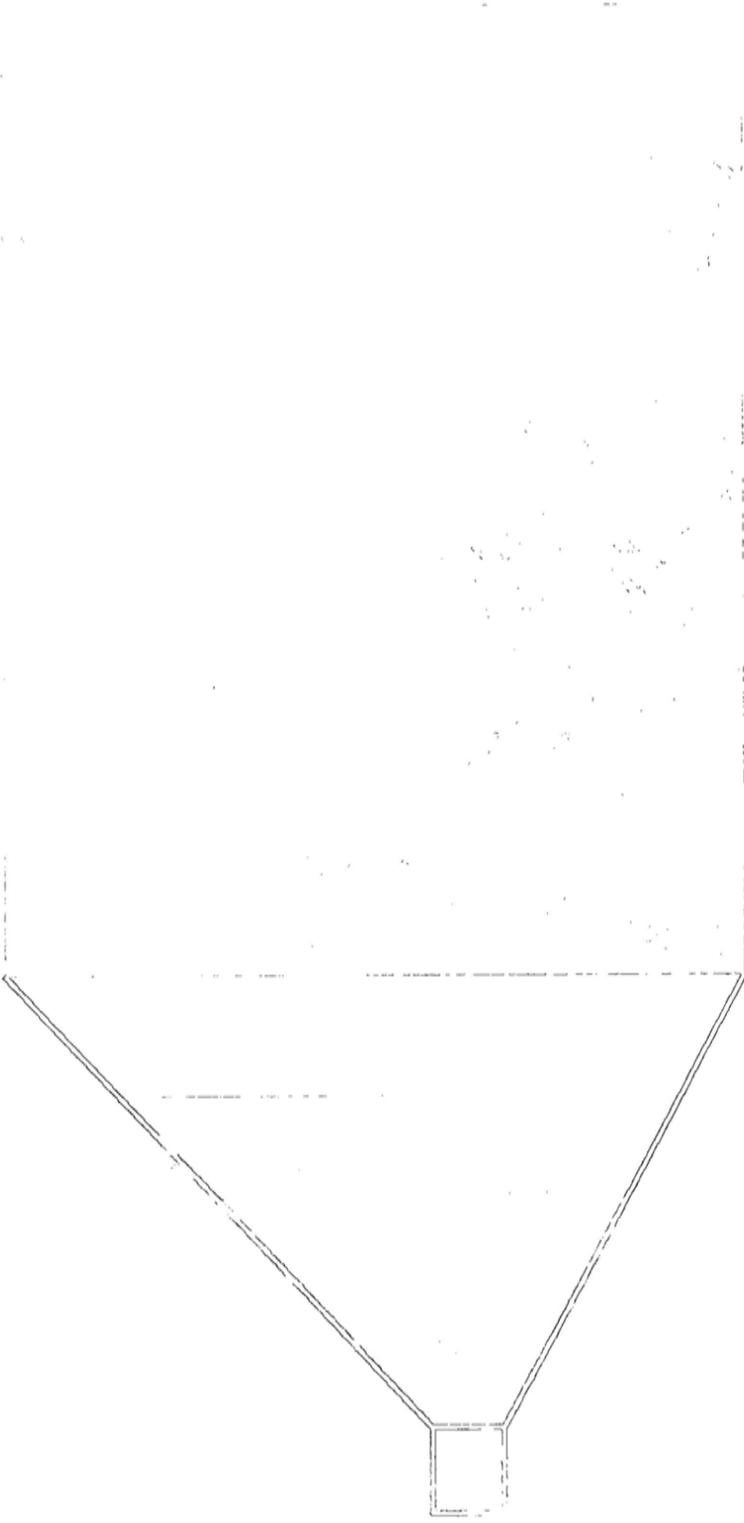


Figure 3.6 Tibial chondroma in a 3 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/+}*Prkaca*^{+/+} mouse. H&E staining of longitudinal sections of tibia. Left panel, original magnification 2x. Right panel, original magnification 20x.

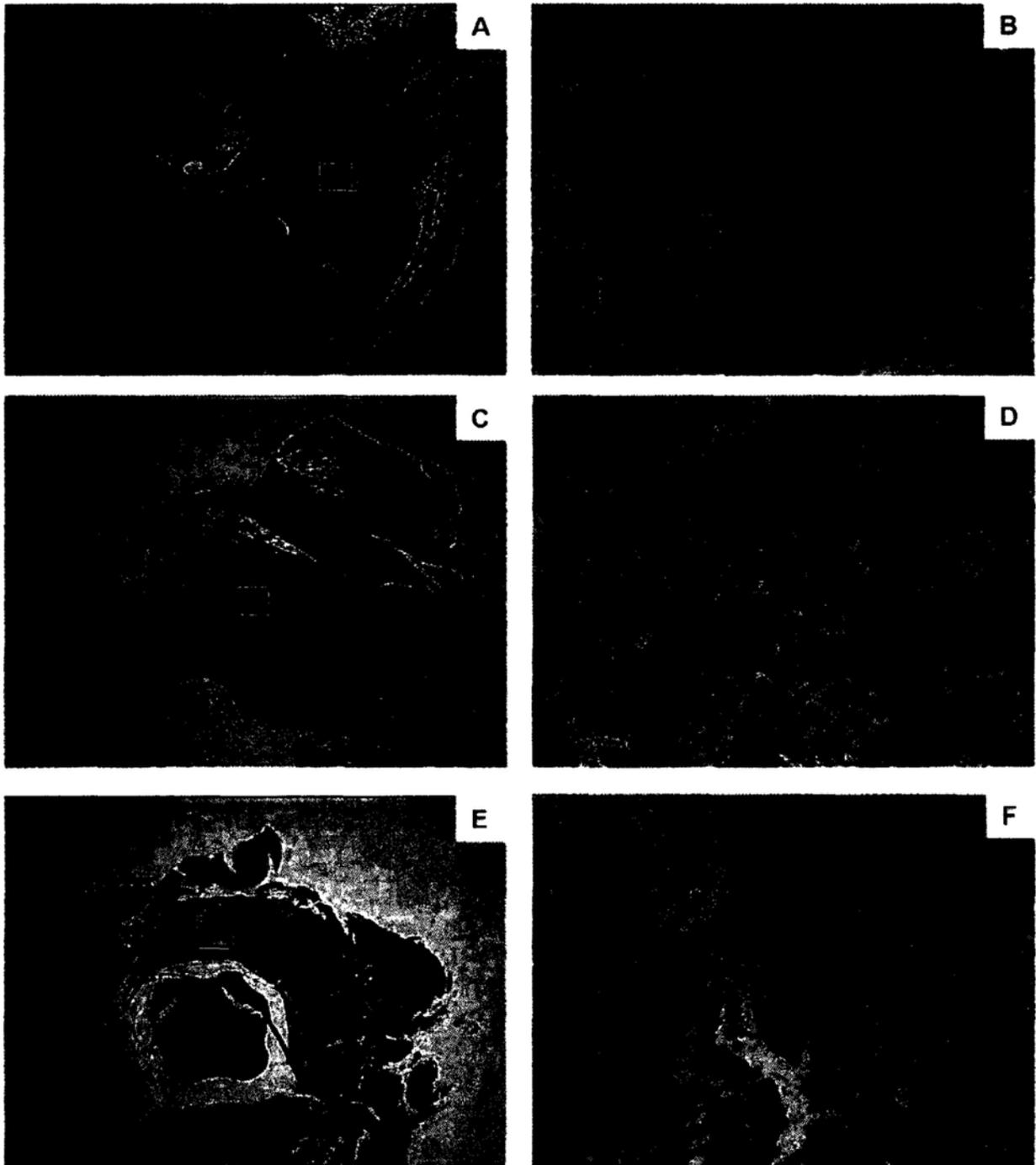


Figure 3.7 Representative views of osteochondromyxoma from caudal vertebrae and chondromas from long bone and spinal column. (A, B) H&E staining of longitudinal sections of caudal vertebrae from an 18 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse, showing a typical osteochondromyxoma in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse. (C, D) H&E staining of longitudinal sections of femur from an 18 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse, showing a typical chondroma. (E, F) H&E staining of longitudinal sections of vertebral bone from an 18 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse, showing a typical chondroma. (A, C, E) Original magnification, 2x. Areas under squares were looked under high magnification and showed in panel B, D and F respectively. (B, D, F) Original magnification, 20x.

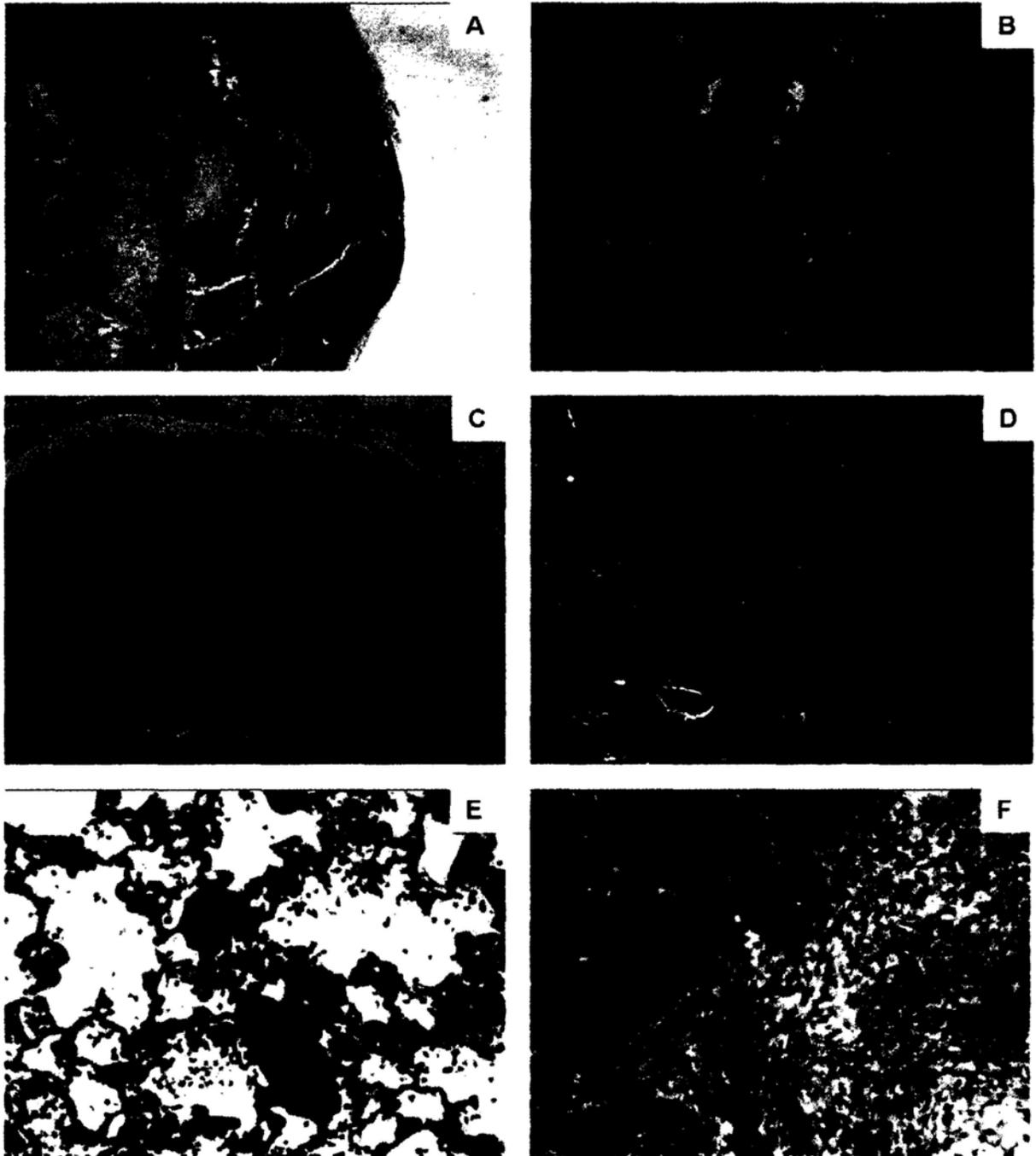


Figure 3.8 Representative views of metastatic sarcoma in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse. (A, B) H&E staining of the section of forelimb from a 6 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mouse, showing a chondrosarcoma. (A) Original magnification 2x. (B) Original magnification 40x. (C, D) H&E staining of the section of caudal vertebra from a 14 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse, showing a sarcoma. (C) Original magnification 10x. (D) Original magnification 20x. (E) H&E staining of the section of lung from a 6 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mouse, showing the metastasis to lung. Original magnification 40x. (F) H&E staining of the section of kidney from a 14 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse, showing the metastasis to kidney. Original magnification 40x.

Genotype	Sex	GLU* mg/dL	CHOL* mg/dL	TRIG* mg/dL	ALB* g/dL	Ca* mg/dL	PHOS* mg/dL	ALP* U/L	ALT* U/L	AST* U/L	LDH* U/L	CK* U/L	Creatinine mg/dL
WT	M	229	99	74	3	10.2	7	58	32	113	260	-	-
WT	M	269	91	65	2.8	9.2	7.3	72	81	290	752	-	-
WT	M	240	89	57	2.6	10.1	7.3	72	42	74	353	219	0.2
WT	M	190	41	69	2.8	8.8	0.6	10	11	56	16	21	0.2
WT	F	229	64	46	2.8	9.5	7.2	90	29	52	124	51	0.2
WT	F	219	80	59	2.9	10.6	5.4	115	28	157	229	-	-
WT	F	236	93	132	3	13.5	5.7	82	51	76	346	226	0.3
<i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-}	M	282	108	91	2.7	10.4	6.9	52	45	56	160	-	-
<i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-}	M	197	103	102	2.7	10.7	0	72	49	74	447	-	-
<i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-}	M	249	100	104	2.8	8.6	5.7	99	67	168	450	736	0.3
<i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-}	F	298	75	130	2.9	9.2	7.1	53	39	61	155	59	0.4
<i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-}	F	188	77	118	2.9	12.6	5.7	134	45	198	395	-	-
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	M	217	94	67	3	10.4	0.1	93	69	93	254	-	-
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	M	173	68	56	2.4	9.2	6.5	41	30	142	291	762	0.3
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	243	89	61	1.7	-	6.4	77	-	-	-	77	0.2
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	263	57	52	2.7	11.1	6.6	111	35	145	365	673	0.4
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	200	85	73	3	10.5	6	68	49	69	305	142	0.3
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	222	87	68	3	10	0	120	30	79	228	-	-
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	221	66	67	2.6	10.8	6.4	71	24	93	498	283	0.3
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	M	243	127	84	3.1	11.7	7.1	139	65	95	253	-	-
<i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-}													
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	M	214	88	46	2.7	10.5	7.5	95	47	212	638	-	-
<i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-}													
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	M	256	107	99	3	9.2	5.3	111	66	62	217	108	0.2
<i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-}													
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	M	251	110	62	3	9.2	6.1	195	49	85	204	251	0.4
<i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-}													
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	M	253	87	75	2.6	9.9	6.8	147	37	117	591	397	0.3
<i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-}													

Genotype	Sex	GLU* mg/dL	CHOL* mg/dL	TRIG* mg/dL	ALB* g/dL	Ca* mg/dL	PHOS* mg/dL	ALP* U/L	ALT* U/L	AST* U/L	LDH* U/L	CK* U/L	Creatinine mg/dL
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	M	230	120	48	2.8	9.1	8.1	138	52	171	451	676	0.3
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	217	67	79	2.7	8.4	5.8	109	38	66	241	114	0.3
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	239	95	120	2.9	8.8	6	69	49	67	148	64	0.4
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	283	56	48	2.8	8.5	6.3	85	34	61	181	95	0.3
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	187	63	45	3	11.3	6.7	210	36	162	478	598	0.4
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	228	80	89	2.7	9	5.3	196	40	58	226	65	0.4
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	214	98	126	2.9	10.3	6.6	179	34	77	349	212	0.4
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	230	65	46	2.7	10.8	5.5	225	28	71	467	196	0.3
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	211	58	48	2.6	9.1	7	125	31	56	223	121	0.2
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	259	53	67	2.6	9.7	5.7	124	31	135	332	508	0.3
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	280	80	66	2.8	11.6	7.8	85	34	75	193	-	-
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	253	71	90	2.9	9.7	4.9	128	37	115	313	-	-
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	221	103	110	3	11.7	5.2	76	43	97	429	-	-
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	206	92	52	2.8	11.5	6.3	87	36	105	371	-	-
<i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i>													
<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>	F	168	78	58	2.9	11.3	0	148	33	54	192	-	-

Genotype	Sex	GLU*	CHOL	TRIG*	ALB*	Ca*	PHOS	ALP*	ALT*	AST*	LDH*	CK*	Creatinine
		mg/dL	mg/dL	mg/dL	g/dL	mg/d	mg/d	U/L	U/L	U/L	U/L	U/L	mg/dL
<i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-}													
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	263	85	99	2.9	10.6	0	156	38	69	404	-	-
<i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-}													
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	166	75	67	2.9	11	0.1	152	36	126	337	-	-
<i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-}													
p-value		0.98	0.59	0.85	0.86	0.80	0.75	0.001	0.81	0.41	0.66	0.26	0.024

*GLU, glucose; CHOL, cholesterol; TRIG, triglycerides; ALB, albumin; Ca, calcium; PHOS, inorganic phosphorus; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; LDH, lactate dehydrogenase; CK, creatine kinase. # p-value was calculated with Student T-test. p-value was comparing WT and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice and less than 0.05 were considered significant which are shown in Figure 3.9.

Table 3.1 Serum chemistries of 1-year old WT, *Prkaca*^{+/-}, *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice.

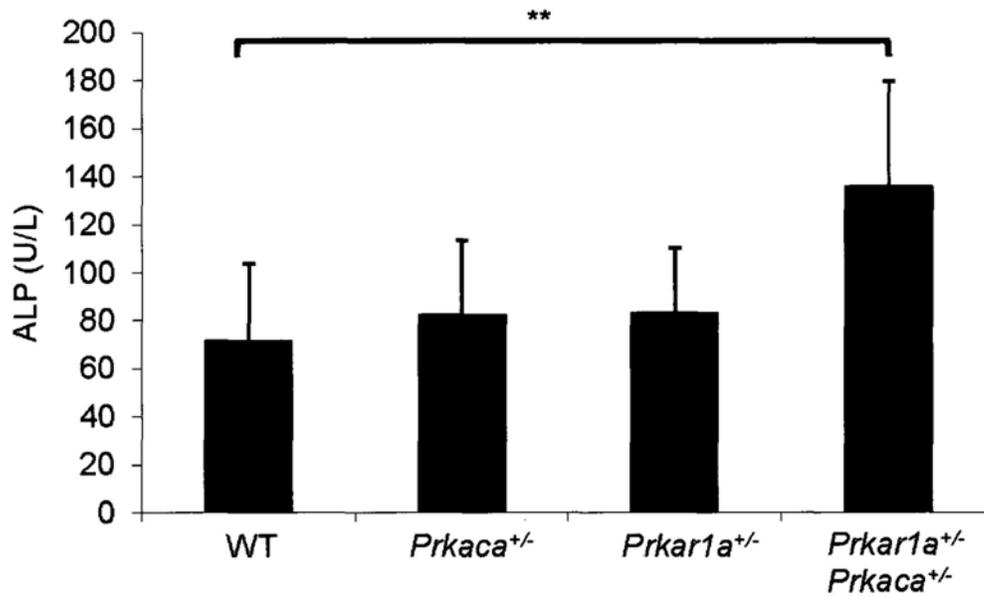


Figure 3.9 Increased serum alkaline phosphatase (ALP) in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. Average of serum ALP level in WT, *Prkaca*^{+/-}, *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. **P<0.01. Error bars represent means \pm SD.

3.3 Evolution of bone lesions in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice

By studying the histology of the bone lesions from different ages of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice (Figure 3.10A, B), we observed that the lesions always started from the same location in the diaphyseal region: immediately under the growth plate, from the endosteal surface of the proximal periosteum and nearby trabecular bone (Figure 3.10C, D). In younger *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice (starting at 4-5 months of age), osteoblast-like cells lined along the trabecular bone and then gradually, with advancing age, filled the bone marrow with loosely arranged collagenous connective tissue and fibroblastoid cells (Figure 3.10D, E). Progression included an increase in active fibroblasts arranged in a uniform array parallel to the axis of the vertebrae. Abundant amounts of loosely arranged collagenous connective tissue continued to fill the marrow spaces (Figure 3.10E, F). As the marrow spaces were being filled, some of the trabeculae were being digested by activated osteoclasts (Figure 3.10G). During this stage, formation (osteoblasts), as well as destruction (osteoclasts) of bone was observed with multiple “cement” lines (Figure 3.10H). As the extracellular matrix increased, the marrow spaces became wider. At this point (usually after 6 months of age) swelling of the affected vertebrae was visible macroscopically compared to adjacent unaffected vertebrae (Figure 3.10I). As the collagenous matrix expanded, ground substances accumulated in several lesions giving them a myxomatous appearance (Figure 3.10J). As the new bone formation continued, it effaced the cartilaginous growth plate and eventually coalesced with adjacent masses encasing the joint space (Figure 3.10K). As the lesions continued to

expand, islands of hyaline cartilage started to form, usually in the center of a population of fibroblasts; in time, hyaline cartilage could fill up the marrow where previously only cells or collagenous matrix was (Figure 3.10L).

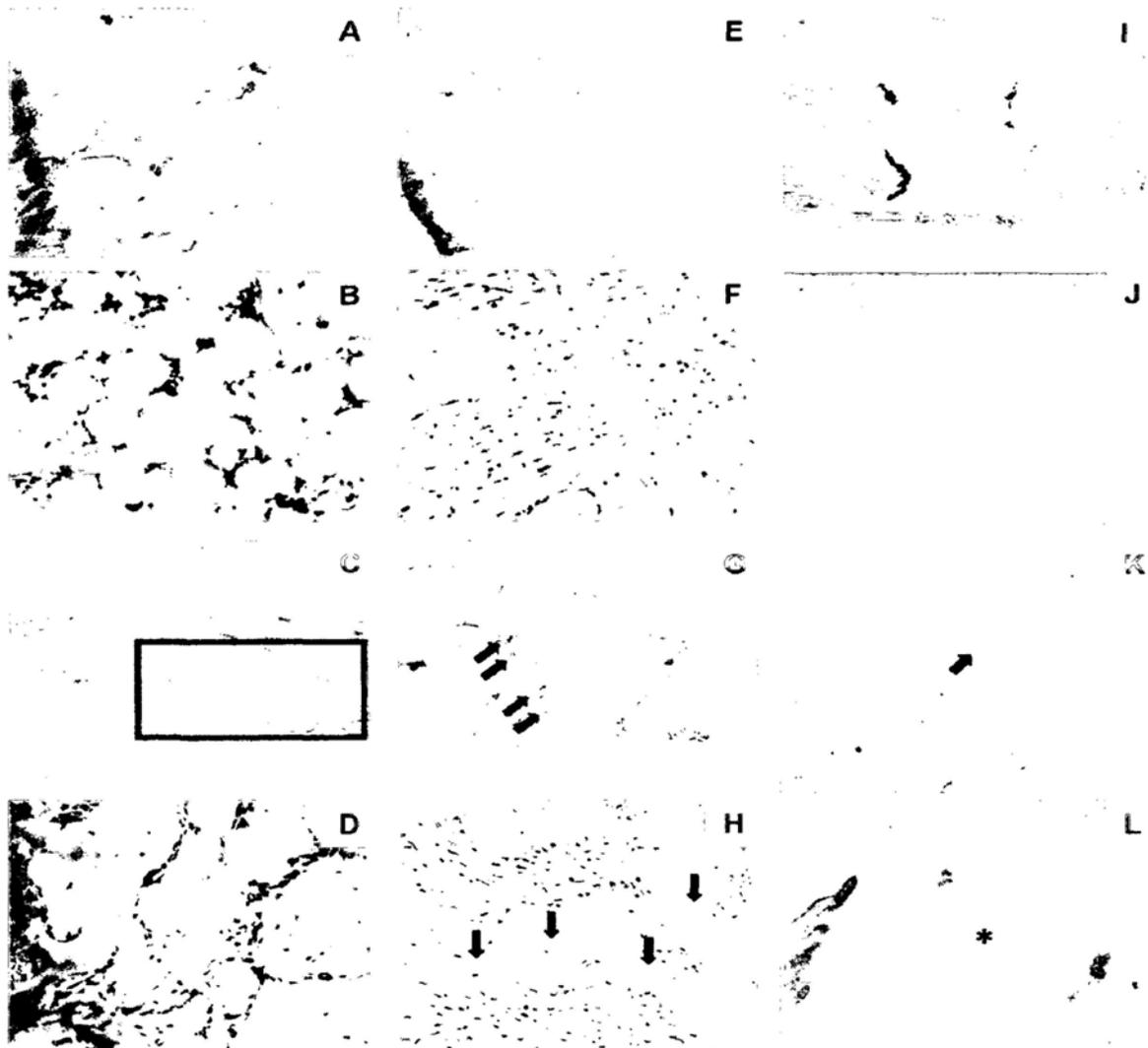


Figure 3.10 The progression of bone lesions in *Prkar1a*^{-/-}*Prkaca*^{-/-} mice. H&E staining of caudal vertebrae from *Prkar1a*^{-/-}*Prkaca*^{-/-} mice. (A, B) Unaffected vertebra. (A) Original magnification, 20x. (B) Original magnification, 40x. (C, D) Start of the development of a lesion in diaphyseal region under the growth plate. (C) square indicates the start of the lesion (original magnification, 20x). (D) Start of the accumulation of fibroblastoid cells inside the bone marrow cavity (original magnification, 20x). (E, F) Continuous accumulation of active fibroblasts. (E) Original magnification, 10x. (F) Original magnification, 40x. (G) Black arrows denote the presence of osteoclasts within the abnormal fibroblasts (original magnification, 20x). (H) Black arrows denote the presence of cement lines. (original magnification, 20x). (I) The tumor was macroscopically visible usually after 6 months of age (original magnification, 2x). (J) Accumulation of ground substances inside the collagenous matrix. (original magnification, 20x). (K) Black arrow denotes the destroyed cartilaginous growth plate and joint space (original magnification, 2x). (L) Asterisk denotes the presence of cartilage island within the active fibroblasts (original magnification, 20x).

Although the bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice were similar, there were also differences beyond the timing (earlier) and the number (increased): Upper spine vertebrae, tibia and femurs were more frequently involved in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. The lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice were also hyper-cellular and contained more, albeit irregular, cartilage or bone islands (Figure 3.11A). Successive vertebrae were affected in the *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice, whereas this was unusual in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice; engorgement of the affected vertebrae was macroscopically visible by 6-12 months in most of the caudal vertebrae of all *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice (Figure 3.10I and Figure 3.11B). In all cases, as the main lesions grew larger, new lesions were starting from collections of the same fibroblastoid cells within the bone marrow space that was now gradually encircled by the newly formed bone (Figure 3.12A).

Moreover, the periosteum of affected bones was also abnormal. First, occasionally, active proliferating cells from lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice (but not from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} animals) invaded and crossed the periosteum into the extraosseous space (Figure 3.12B, C). Second, *Sharpey* fibers, characteristic of FD lesions (155), were present at various sites along the affected periosteum (Figure 3.12D). An increased number of apoptotic bodies within the rapidly proliferating cells was evident (Figure 3.12E), and osteocytes were mostly abnormal within the newly formed osteoid (arrows in Figure 3.12C, D, E).

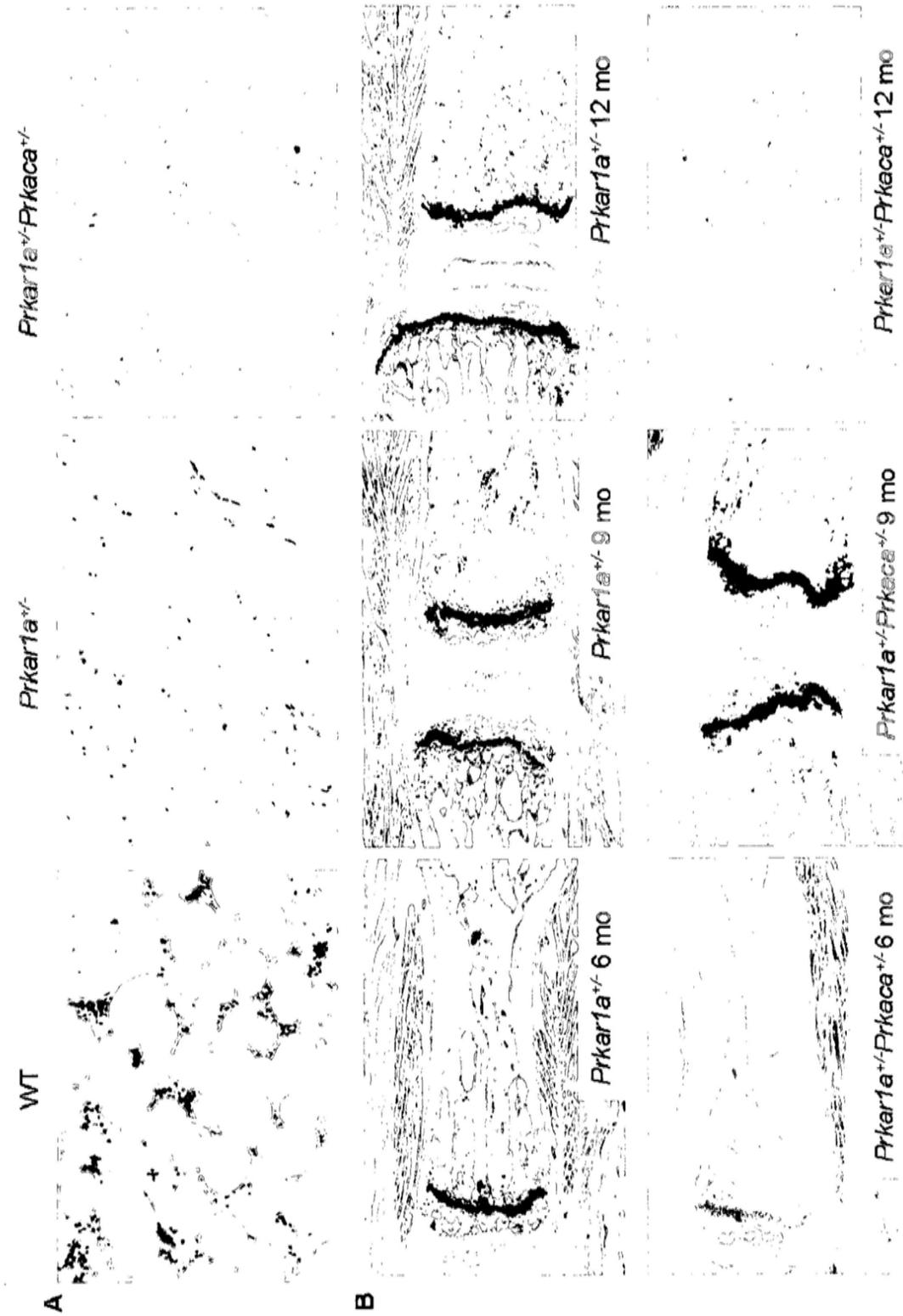


Figure 3.11 Lesions from *Prkar1a*^{-/-}*Prkaca*^{-/-} mice were more cellular and aggressive. (A) Representative images of H&E staining of caudal vertebrae from WT, *Prkar1a*^{-/-} and *Prkar1a*^{-/-}*Prkaca*^{-/-} mice at 9 month-old (original magnification, 40x). (B) Representative images of H&E staining of caudal vertebrae from *Prkar1a*^{-/-} and *Prkar1a*^{-/-}*Prkaca*^{-/-} mice at various ages (6, 9 and 12 month-old) which show the increase of aggressiveness in *Prkar1a*^{-/-}*Prkaca*^{-/-} mice (original magnification, 2.5x).

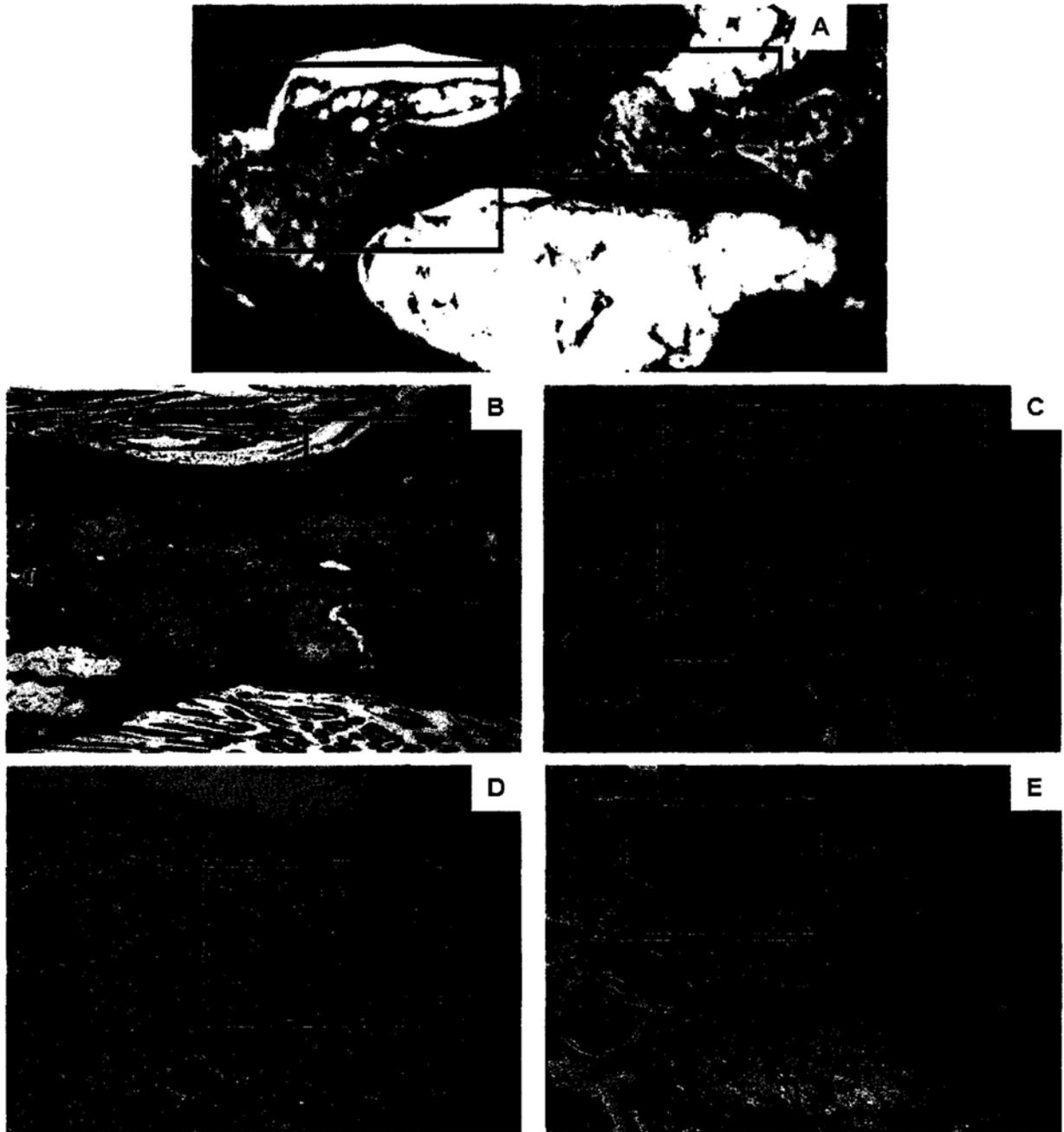


Figure 3.12 Abnormal periosteum and bone marrow space in affected bone from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. H&E staining of caudal vertebrae of 9 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. (A) Squares show the start of two new lesions in different locations of the bone marrow space (original magnification, 20x). (B) Arrows denote the abnormal periosteum; square shows the invasion of lesions into extraosseous space (original magnification, 5x). (C) Arrows denote the abnormal osteocytes; the square covers the region with invasion of cells from lesions into extraosseous space (original magnification, 20x). (D) Arrows denote the abnormal osteocytes; square indicates the presence of *Sharpey* fibers (original magnification, 20x). (E) Arrows denote the abnormal osteocytes; note the increased number of apoptotic bodies within the active proliferating cells (indicated within the square) (original magnification, 20x).

3.4 Altered mineralization pattern in bone lesions from caudal vertebra of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice

Micro-computed tomography (μ CT) and Raman microspectroscopy (RMS) were used to reveal the mineralization pattern within the bone lesions. μ CT is a nondestructive imaging technique that produces high resolution three-dimensional images of bone structure by collecting the projections of X-rays and applying tomographic principles (156). RMS allows acquisition of spatially resolved spectra, with micron scale resolution. And characteristic spectra can be obtained for the mineral and protein components of bone tissues (157).

μ CT analysis of caudal vertebrae (Figure 3.13) revealed that the overall bone mineralization density of caudal vertebrae from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice were significantly lower when compared to WT: thus, despite active proliferation and new bone formation there was an overall undermineralization in both *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} that was further pronounced in the latter (Figure 3.13B). While the single heterozygote, *Prkaca*^{+/-} mice showed an overall gain in bone formation that was derived primarily from cortical bone; trabecular bone in *Prkaca*^{+/-} mice tended to be decreased (Figure 3.13).

In 6 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} animals, bright-field and polarization transmission microscopy and RMS showed that the unaffected bones had the expected lamellar/fine-fibered bone (well-oriented osteocyte lacunae, uniform birefringence pattern, and uniform matrix mineralization) at the midline, and

woven bone (disoriented lacunae, patchy birefringence pattern, and non-uniform mineralization) at other sites (Figure 3.14A, C). In contrast, in affected bones, these normal patterns were replaced by mineralized material that had intermediate organization and mineralization heterogeneity closer to woven than to lamellar bone in all cortical regions; the normally sharp mineralization boundary between periosteum and cortical regions was now replaced by a gradual increase of mineralization from the periosteal to the endosteal surface (Figure 3.14B), indicating a lag between bone matrix formation and mineralization and abnormal coordination of these processes with bone resorption.

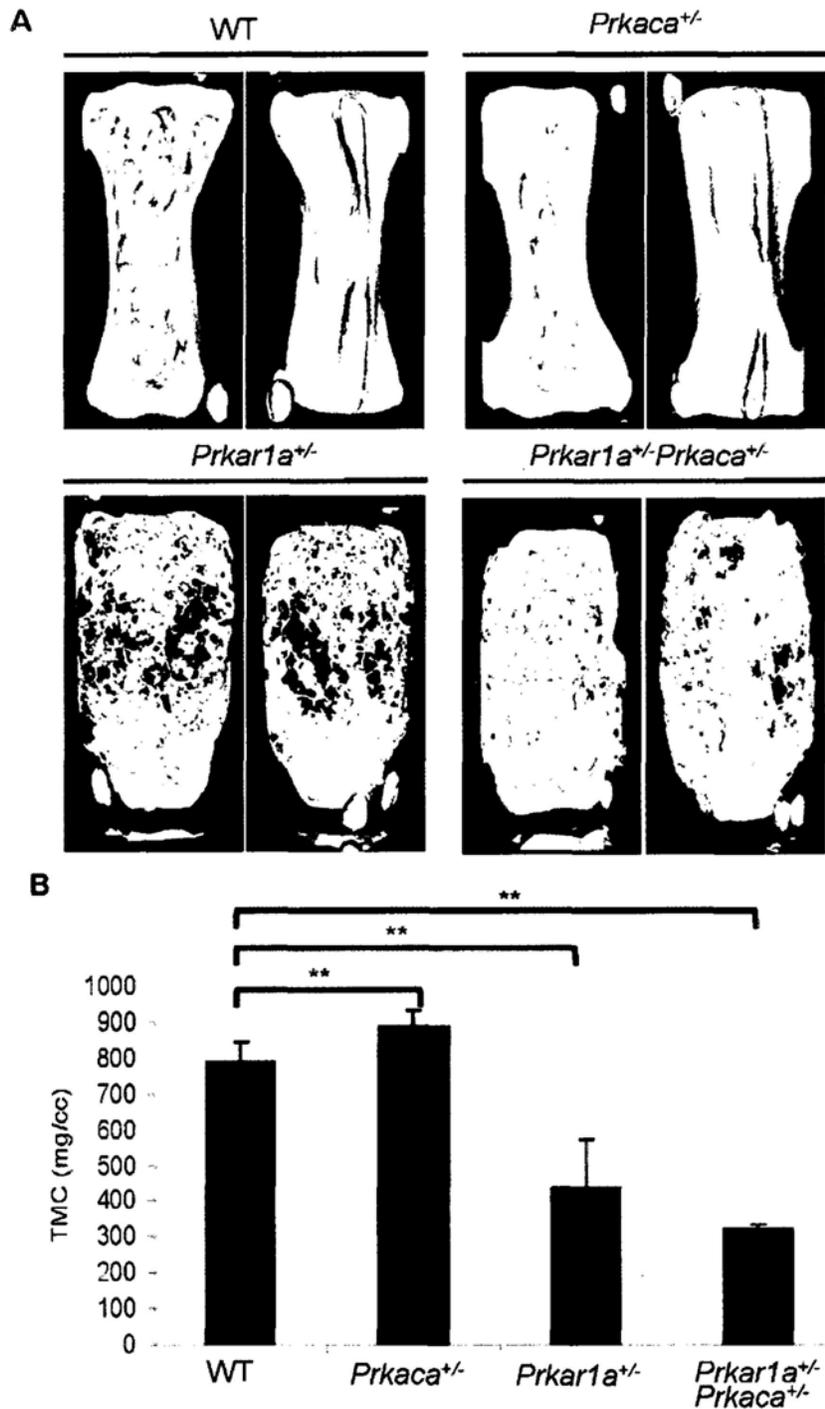


Figure 3.13 Undermineralization of caudal vertebrae in both *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. (A) μ CT images of caudal vertebrae from WT, *Prkaca*^{+/-}, *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice at the age of 12 months. (B) Average of tissue mineral content (TMC) measurement of caudal vertebrae from WT, *Prkaca*^{+/-}, *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice at 12 month-old. n=3, ***P*<0.01. Error bars represent means \pm SD.

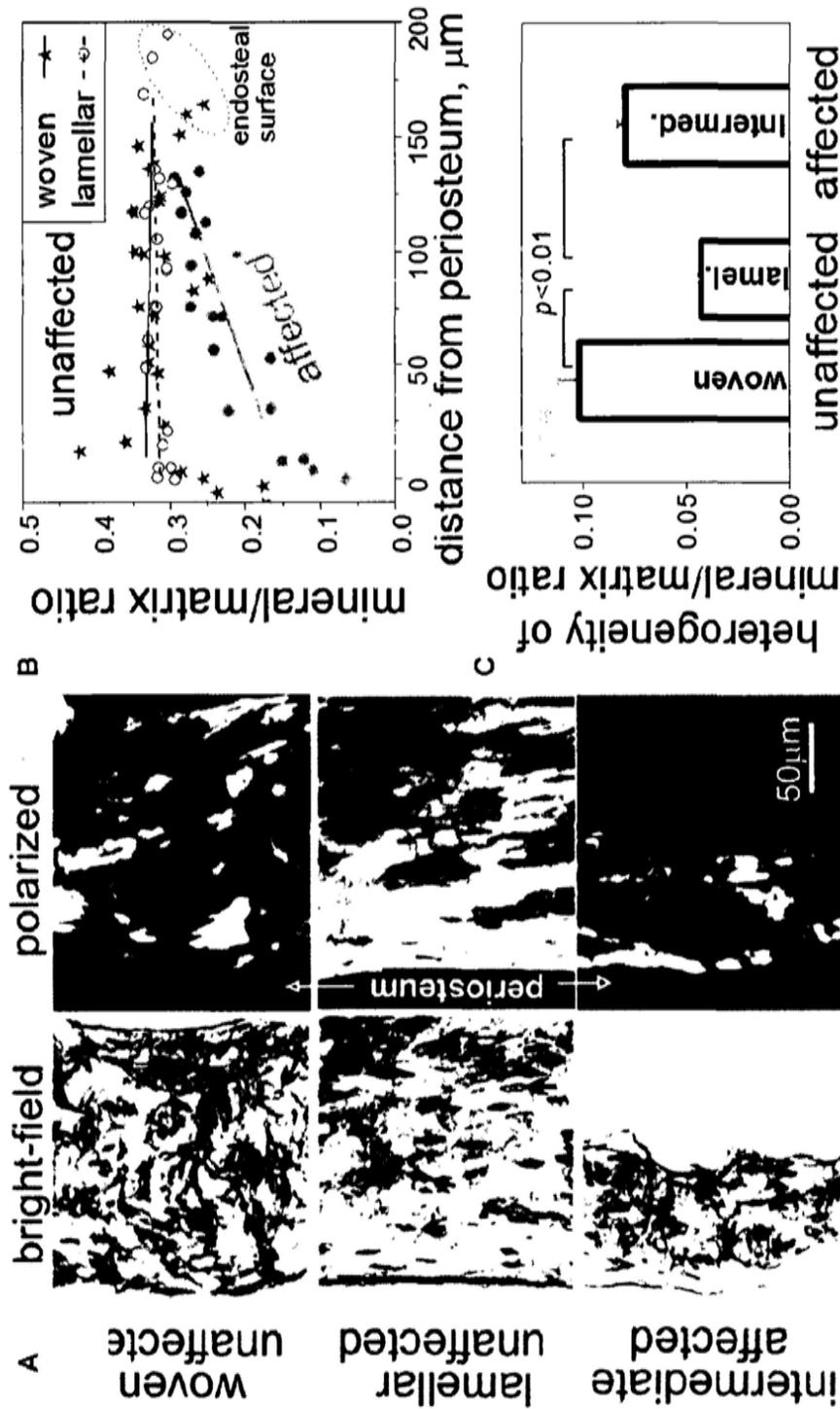


Figure 3.14 Structure and mineralization of cortical bone in adjacent affected and unaffected caudal vertebrae. (A) Lamellar or fine-fibered cortical bone was observed at the vertebra midline and woven bone closer to the ends of unaffected vertebrae. In contrast, thinner cortex with intermediate organization was observed through the whole length of affected vertebrae. Well-organized, lamellar/fine-fibered bone was indicated by well-oriented spindle-shaped osteocyte lacunae (arrows) and more uniform polarized images due to regular collagen fiber orientation. Woven bone was indicated by irregular fiber orientation. (B) Even $(-0.1 \pm 0.2 \text{ mm}^{-1} \text{ slope})$ mineral/matrix ratio across the cortical layer (the intensity ratio of mineral PO_4 to organic CH Raman peaks) is characteristic of well-mineralized, mature bone in unaffected vertebrae. Gradually increasing mineral/matrix ratio from periosteal to endosteal surface $(+0.8 \pm 0.2 (\text{st.d.}) \text{ mm}^{-1} \text{ slope}, p < 0.003)$ indicates lagging mineralization characteristic of rapidly growing, immature bone in affected vertebrae. (C) High mineralization heterogeneity (coefficient of variation for the mineral/matrix ratio) in all cortical regions of affected vertebrae is also consistent with rapid formation of immature bone.

Chapter Four

Biochemical Characterization of Bone Lesions from Mice Deficient in Protein Kinase A Regulatory Subunit Type 1A (*prkar1a*) and Catalytic Subunit A (*prkaca*)

4.1 Increased protein kinase A (PKA) activity and cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) level in bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice

Previous studies have shown that *prkar1a* haploinsufficiency leads to increased cAMP-responsive total PKA activity, which is due to dysregulation of catalytic subunits (56, 57, 135, 136, 158, 159). Accordingly, it is essential to study the PKA activity and cAMP level in bone lesions from mice with *prkar1a* and *prkaca* haploinsufficiency.

The loss of one *prkar1a* allele and one *prkaca* allele led to an increase in cAMP-stimulated kinase activity in bone tumors (*Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} tumor vs. WT tail bone, 2724.7 ±866.8 vs. 912.4 ±283.6, p-value <0.05); *Prkar1a*^{+/-} tumors had a smaller increase in kinase activity when compared to WT bone (p-value =0.079) (Figure 4.1A), consistent with previously published data (57). Like in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} tumors (57), the bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice did not show any LOH of the normal *Prkar1a* or *Prkaca* allele (Figure 4.1C).

Unexpectedly, cAMP levels were increased in bone tumors from both *Prkar1a*^{+/-} (*Prkar1a*^{+/-} tumor vs. WT normal tail, 155.0 ±18.9 vs. 119.4 ±15.8, p-value =0.06) and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice (*Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} tumor vs. WT normal tail, 177.5 ±46.3 vs. 119.4 ±15.8, p-value=0.06) (Figure 4.1B).

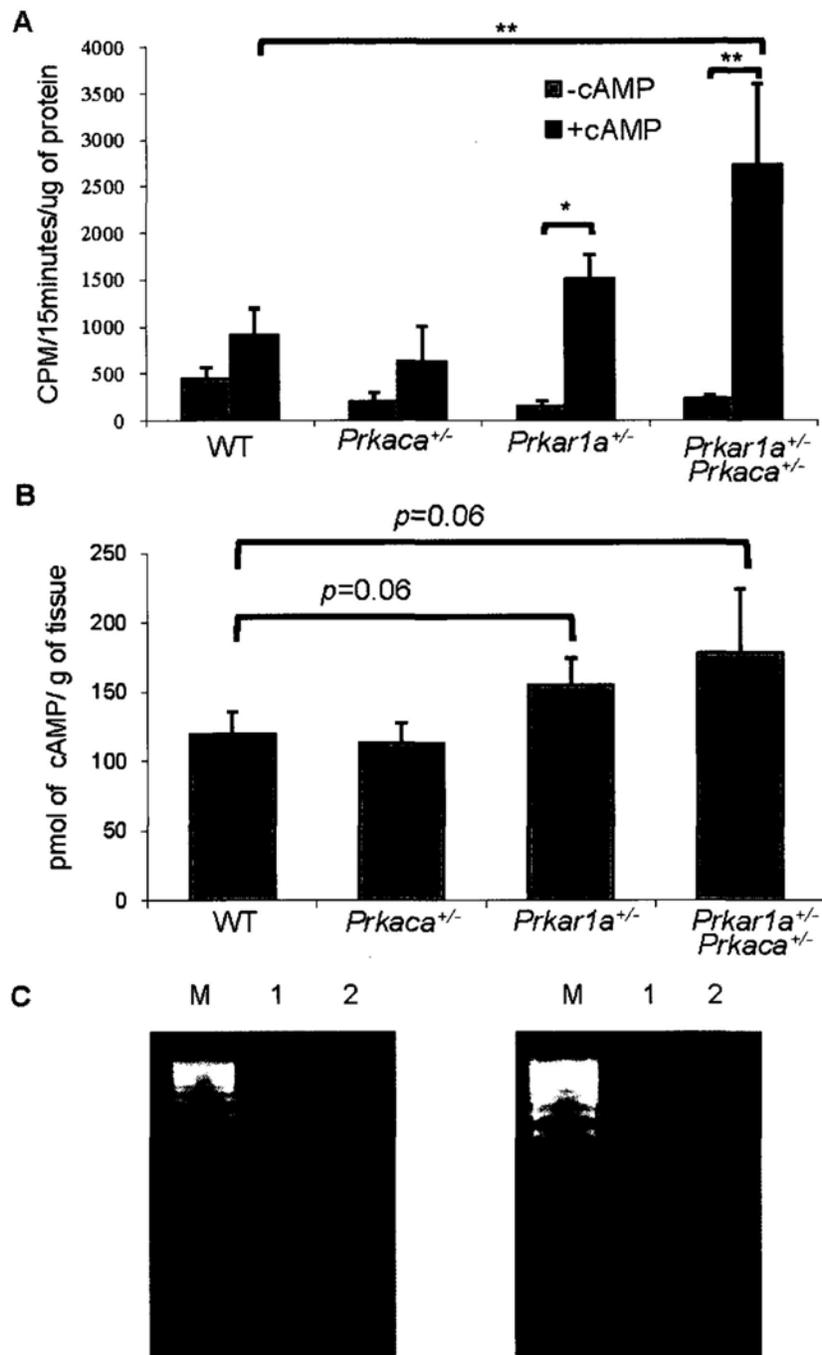


Figure 4.1 Increased cAMP level and cAMP-stimulated total PKA activity and absence of loss of heterozygosity (LOH) in bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. (A) Basal and total PKA activity (B) cAMP level in bone tissues from WT, *Prkaca*^{+/-} and bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. n=3. ** $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$. Error bars represent means \pm SD. (C) Absence of LOH in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} bone tumor. PCR experiments using the primers described in Material and Methods were performed for (left panel) *Prkar1a* gene and (right panel) for *Prkaca* gene. M, 100bp ladder; 1, peripheral DNA was used as template; 2, tumor DNA was used as template.

4.2 Increased phosphodiesterase (PDE) activity and adenylate cyclases expression in bone lesions from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice

To address whether the increase in cAMP levels was the result of a decrease in phosphodiesterase (PDE) activity, which degrades cAMP, we measured the latter. Total PDE activity in tumor protein extracts was significantly increased in both tumors from *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice (Figure 4.2A). By Western blot analysis (Figure 4.2B) and immunohistochemistry (IHC) (Figure 4.2C), we determined that cAMP-binding Pde11a and Pde4d, but not Pde7a [which has been suggested to be involved in cAMP signaling in BSCs (160)], were highly expressed in tumors. This suggested that the increase in cAMP levels did not result from a decrease in degradation by PDEs.

Instead of decreased rate in degradation, increase cAMP level may result from increased production by adenylate cyclases(AC, *Adcy*). Since there is no information on the type of AC expressed in bone, we tested all 9 trans-membrane AC enzymes and one soluble AC; *Adcy1*, *Adcy6* and *Adcy9* were found to be up-regulated at both the mRNA and protein level (Figure 4.3). With higher level of AC enzymes in the lesions, the rate of cAMP production could be enhanced when compared to normal bone tissues. Thus, the increase in cAMP levels was at least in part mediated by an increased expression of ACs.

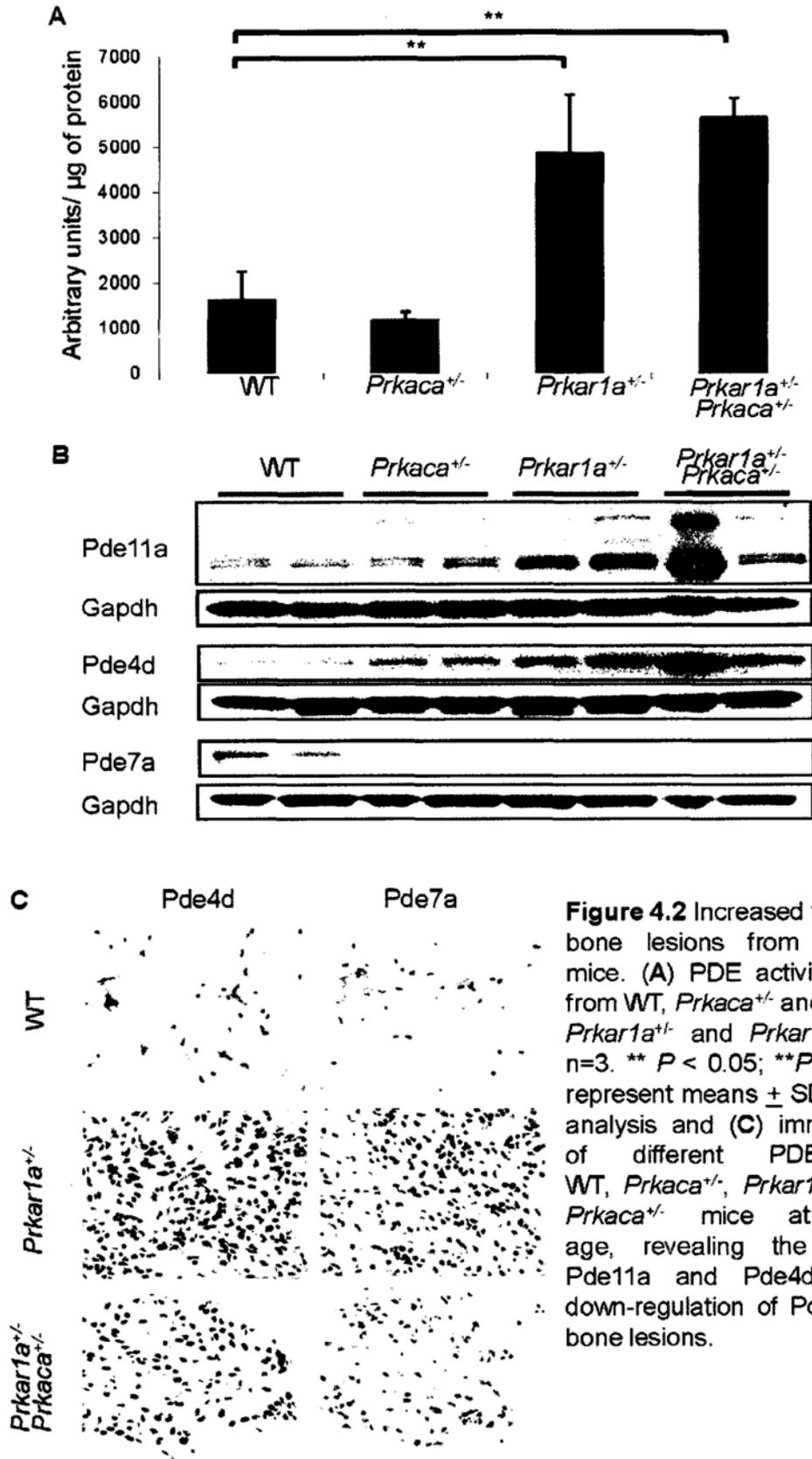


Figure 4.2 Increased total PDE activity in bone lesions from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice. (A) PDE activity in bone tissues from WT, *Prkaca^{+/-}* and bone lesions from *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice. $n=3$. ** $P < 0.05$; *** $P < 0.01$. Error bars represent means \pm SD. (B) Western blot analysis and (C) immunohistochemistry of different PDE proteins on WT, *Prkaca^{+/-}*, *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice at one year of age, revealing the up-regulation of Pde11a and Pde4d expression and down-regulation of Pde7a expression in bone lesions.

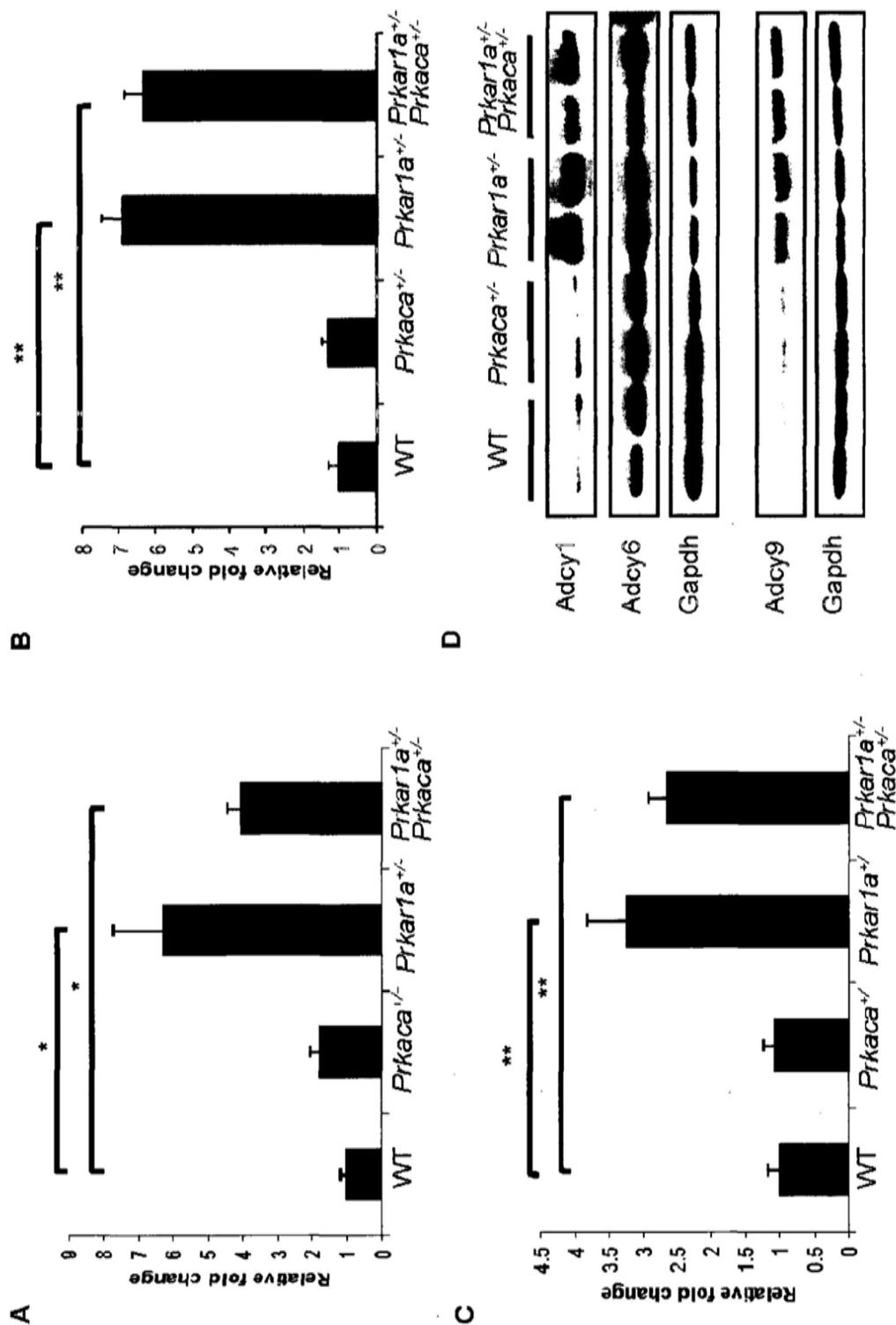


Figure 4.3 Increased expression of adenylate cyclase 1, 6 and 9 in *Prkar1a*^{-/-}*Prkaca*^{-/-} bone lesions. Quantitative analysis of mRNA expression of (A) Adcy1, (B) Adcy6, (C) Adcy9 in 12 month-old tail bone tissues from WT, *Prkaca*^{-/-} and bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{-/-} and *Prkar1a*^{-/-}*Prkaca*^{-/-} mice. n=3. **P* < 0.05; ***P* < 0.01. Error bars represent means ± SD. (D) Western blot analysis on protein expression level of Adcy1, Adcy6 and Adcy9 in tail bone tissues from 12 month-old WT, *Prkaca*^{-/-} and bone lesions from 12 month-old *Prkar1a*^{-/-} and *Prkar1a*^{-/-}*Prkaca*^{-/-} mice.

4.3 Increase of PKA type II (PKA-II) isozyme and regulatory subunits (RII α and RII β) in bone lesions from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice

It has been reported that reduction of R1 α levels, mainly due to loss of function mutation in *PRKAR1A*, leads to decrease in PKA type I (PKA-I) and an increase in PKA-II in human tissues, primary and transformed cell lines (56, 139, 161). These are also observed in mouse cells with 50% reduction of R1 α protein. This change is believed to be responsible for the increase in cAMP-responsive kinase activity. In order to investigate if higher PKA-II was also seen in bone lesions and led to increased total PKA activity, we performed diethylaminoethyl cellulose (DEAE) ion-exchange column chromatography followed by elution with a linear sodium chloride gradient on total proteins extracted from the primary cells derived from bone tumors and normal bone tissues. The fractions were then measured for PKA activity: PKA-I complex was eluted between 40mM to 80mM of NaCl while PKA-II complex was eluted between 180mM to 270mM of NaCl under these conditions (Figure 8A). There were no free forms of regulatory or catalytic subunits under these ranges of NaCl concentration. PKA-II to PKA-I ratio was calculated from averaging the intensities of 10 fractions within the peaks.

In normal bone from WT mouse, PKA-II was the main PKA holoenzyme (PKA-II to PKA-I ratio = 2.46) (Figure 4.4A, top left). In bone tissue from *Prkaca^{+/-}* mouse, the levels of PKA-II and PKA-I were similar (Figure 4.4A, top right). Loss of one *prkar1a* allele led to a PKA-II to PKA-I ratio of 1.82 vs WT bone ($p=0.02$)

(Figure 4.4A, bottom left). In the tumors from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice, both PKA-II and PKA-I kinase activities were decreased when compared to WT. However, the tumor had significantly more PKA-II complexes (PKA-II to PKA-I ratio =3.10, $p=0.057$ compared to WT; $p<0.001$ compared to *Prkar1a^{+/-}*) (Figure 4.4A, bottom right). These data indicated that there was an excess of PKA-II in the lesions from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice.

Consistent with these data, Western blot analysis showed an up-regulated expression of type II regulatory subunits in bone tumors (Figure 4.4B), also confirmed by IHC (Figure 4.5). The Western blots showed doublet bands in the *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* tumor cells (Figure 4.4B), suggesting that the presence of phosphorylated forms of type II regulatory subunits was increased. By using an antibody specific for the phosphorylated form, this was shown to be the case only for the tumors from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice (Figure 4.4B).

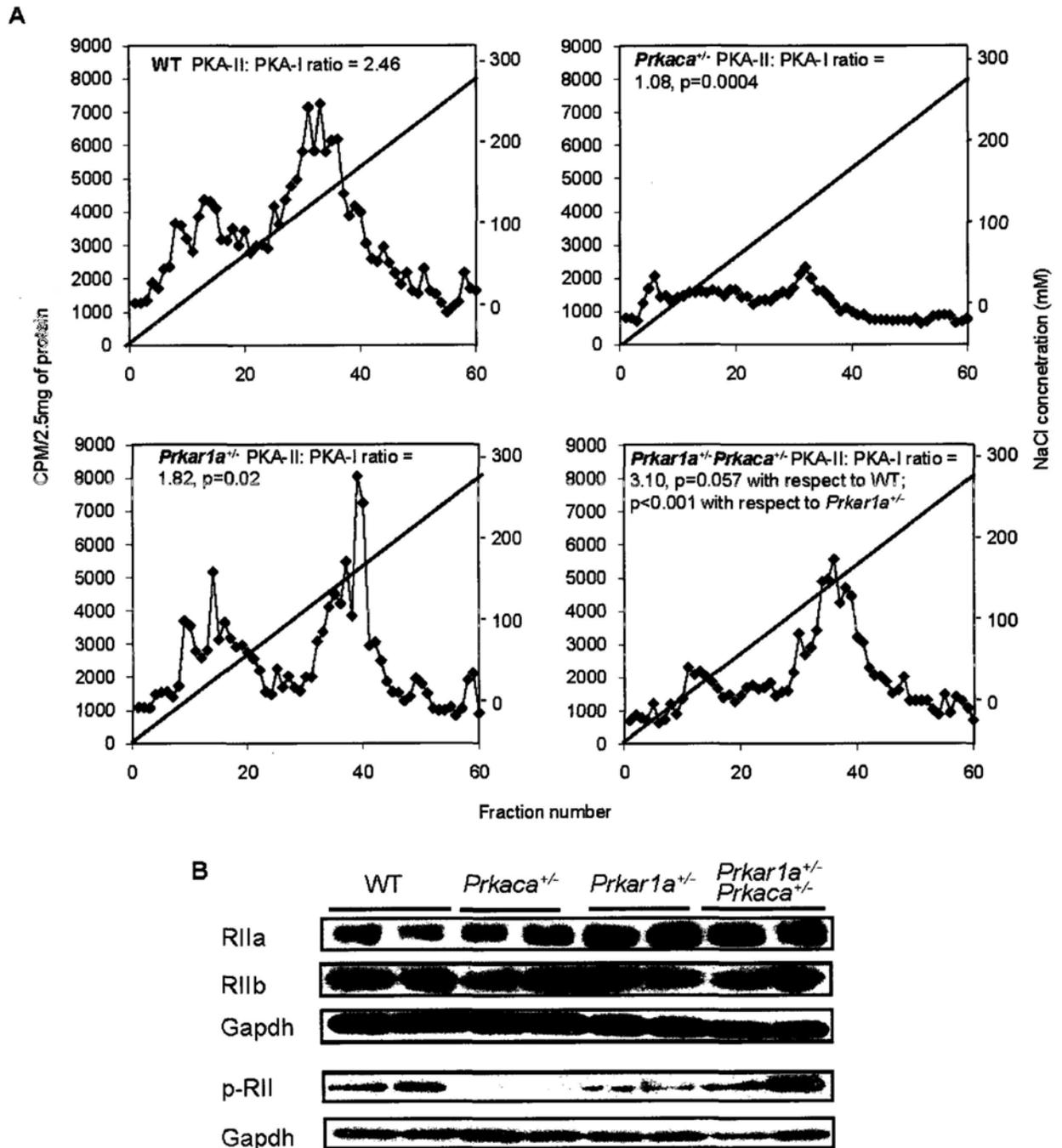


Figure 4.4 Increased PKA-II complex and type II regulatory subunit in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice bone tumors. (A) DEAE-chromatography of PKA isozymes in tail tissues of WT and *Prkaca*^{+/-} mice and tail lesions of *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. PKA-II to PKA-I ratio was calculated from averaging the intensities of 10 fractions within the peaks. Note that tail lesions of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice had the highest PKA-II to PKA-I ratio. n=3. (B) Western blot analysis on RIIα, RIIβ and phosphorylated form of RII in WT, *Prkaca*^{+/-}, *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice at one year of age, showing the up-regulation of RII subunits in bone lesion and increase in phosphorylated form of RII in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} tumors.

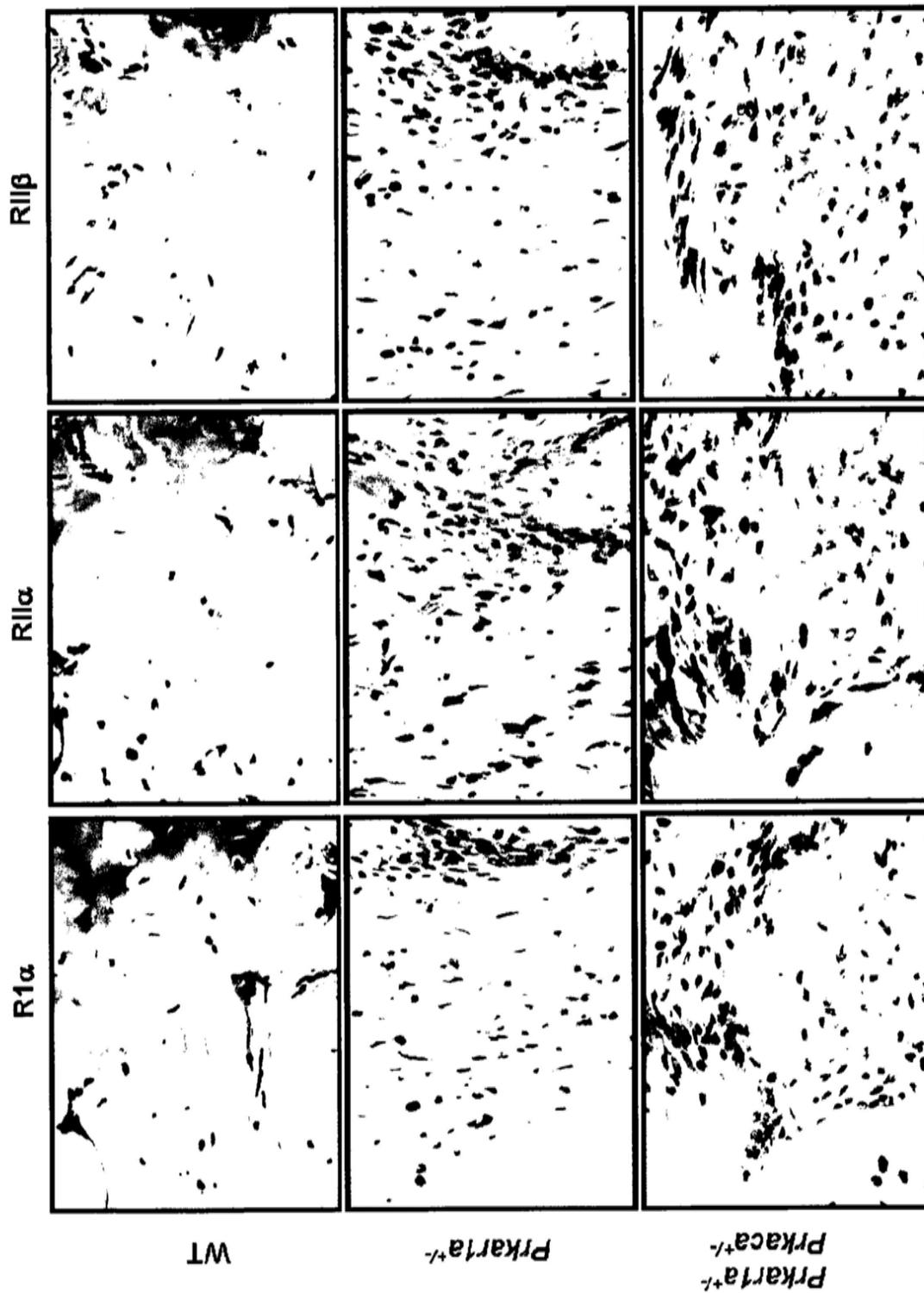


Figure 4.5 Up-regulation of type II regulatory subunits in bone tumors. Immunohistochemistry for R1 α , RII α and RII β on WT bones, *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{-/-}* bone lesions. Original magnification, 40x.

4.4 Increased expression of PKA catalytic subunits α , β 1, γ and Prkx in bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice

Previous studies in mice and human cell lines have all suggested that coordinated inhibition of the catalytic subunit is the most important function of the PKA regulatory subunits (24, 141-143). We hypothesized that 50% reduction of *prkar1a* and *prkaca* genetically in mice would lead to altered expression of different catalytic isoforms, and result in dysregulated PKA signaling.

Both bone tumors from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} showed an induction in the expression of Prkx and C β 1 and a reduction in C β 2 when compared with WT bone tissue. When tumors from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice were compared to those of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} animals, the latter had a higher expression of C β 2 (Figure 4.6). C α protein levels in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} tumors were not significantly decreased from those of the WT bone and *Prkar1a*^{+/-} tumor cells (most likely due to compensatory upregulation of the remaining *prkaca* allele, since there was no LOH, as shown in Figure 4.1C) but like Western blotting, IHC confirmed that now C β , C γ and the Prkx proteins, in addition to C α , were upregulated in the bone lesions (Figure 4.7).

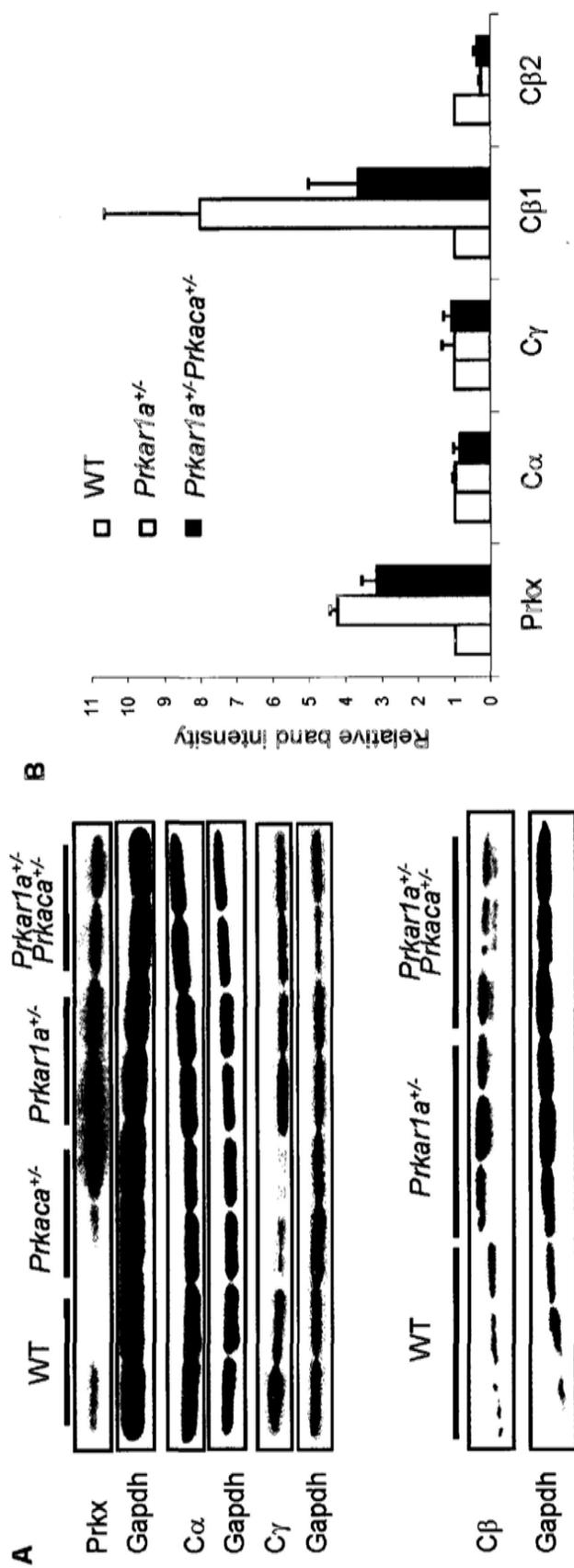


Figure 4.6 Change in the expression of catalytic subunit α , β 1, β 2, γ and Prkx in *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* bone lesions. **(A)** Western blot analysis on different PKA catalytic subunits of WT, *Prkaca^{+/-}*, *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice at one year of age. **(B)** Relative quantification of Prkx, C α , C γ , C β 1 and C β 2 protein in bone lesion against WT normal bone.

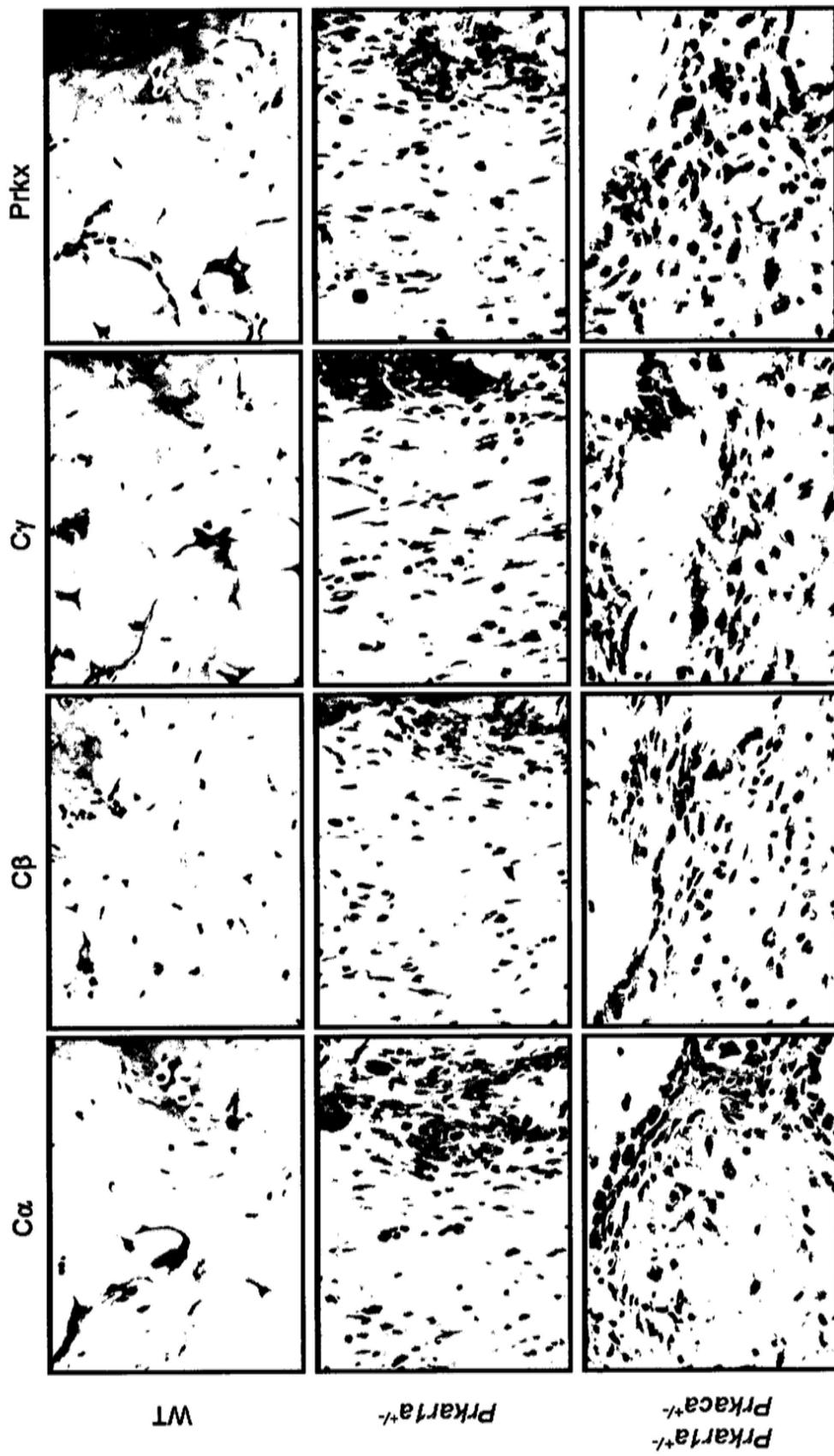


Figure 4.7 Up-regulation of PKA catalytic subunits β , γ and Prkx in bone tumors. Immunohistochemistry for C α , C β , C γ and Prkx on WT bones, *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{-/-}*Prkaca*^{-/-} bone lesions. Original magnification 40x.

Chapter Five

Molecular characterization of Bone Lesions from Mice Deficient in Protein Kinase A Regulatory Subunit Type 1A (*prkar1a*) and Catalytic Subunit A (*prkaca*)

5.1 Molecular characterization of cells forming the lesions in affected bones from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice

In order to identify the cellular origin of the cells forming the lesions, we performed flow cytometry analysis, by using different cell surface markers Cd44, Cd45, Cd90 and Vcam, on primary cells derived from *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* bone lesions. MC3T3 (ATCC CRL-2593), which is a preosteoblasts cell line, was used as control cells. Tumor cells from *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* bone lesions expressed Cd44 (97% and 94%, respectively), Cd90 (94% and 80%, respectively) and Vcam (96% and 92% respectively) but stained negative for Cd45, indicating that the identified population of cells consisted of bone stromal cells (Figure 5.1).

A previous study reported that *Prkar1a^{+/-}* mouse bone tumor cells were of the osteoblast lineage, arrested at a partially differentiated stage (57). Although these cells expressed alkaline phosphatase, they had relatively lower protein expression of Runx2, the master regulator of osteogenic commitment (105). We compared the expression of genes, which are involved in osteogenesis, between *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* bone lesions (Table 5.1) by real time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) array analysis. We found that *Runx2* was significantly upregulated in lesions from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice at both the mRNA and protein level. The actively growing fibroblasts inside the marrow cavities were strongly stained by an antibody specific for Runx2 (Figure 5.2A) and, consistently, Western blot analysis confirmed that the expression of Runx2 was induced in the bone lesions (Figure 5.2B). Real-time quantitative PCR (RT-

qPCR) analysis by gene specific primers confirmed that the tumors, too, from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice had significantly higher *Runx2* mRNA expression (Figure 5.2C).

On the other hand, the fibroblast-like cells did not show a strong signal for osteocalcin, a marker of mature osteoblasts (Figure 5.3A), and were negative for osteopontin, as in *Prkar1a^{+/-}* cells (57); the only cells in the lesions that stained for osteocalcin were those that lined the trabeculae (Figure 5.3A). Taken together, these data suggested that the fibroblastoid cells within the lesions were committed osteogenic (*Runx2*-positive) (162), unlike the case in *Prkar1a^{+/-}* lesions (57). Furthermore, cells lining newly formed bone were more mature, differentiated osteoblasts.

The presence of osteoclasts were also increased in the lesions: tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase 5 (*Acp5*) and cathepsin K were highly expressed in sections from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* bone lesions in the cells lined along the trabeculae bone as well as inside the pool of fibrotic cells; only the cells next to the trabecular bone expressed these markers in *Prkar1a^{+/-}* lesions (Figure 5.3B).

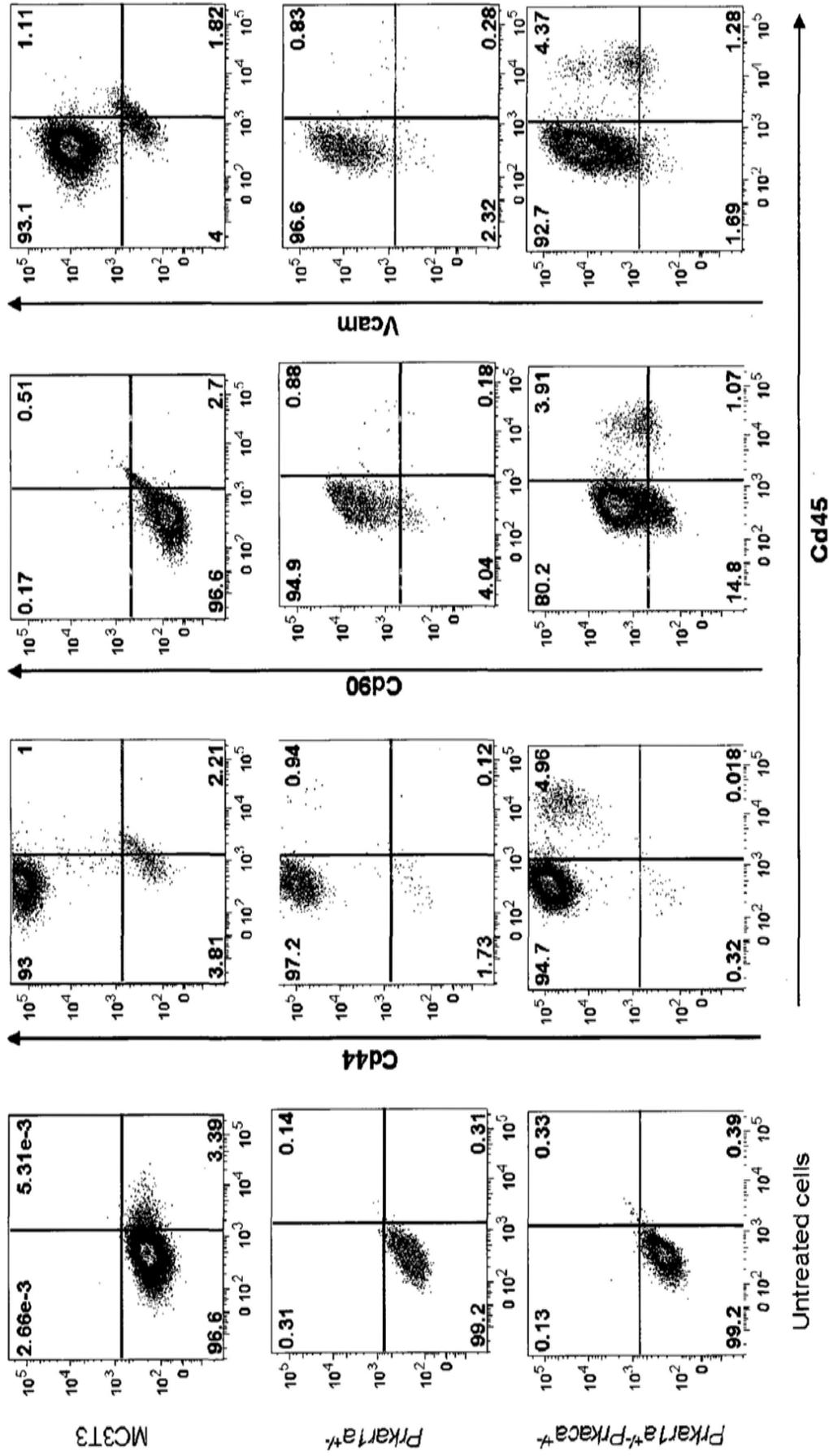


Figure 5.1 Expression of mouse bone stromal cell markers Cd44, Cd90 and Vcam in primary cells derived from *Prkara^{-/-}* and *Prkara^{-/-}Prkaca^{-/-}* bone tumors. Flow cytometry analysis for the expression of Cd44, Cd90 and Vcam on primary cells from bone tumors.

	Up- or down- regulation of bone-related genes (compared to WT mice)		
	<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i> Vs WT	<i>Prkar1a^{+/-} Prkaca^{+/-}</i> vs WT	<i>Prkar1a^{+/-} Prkaca^{+/-}</i> vs <i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>
<i>Ahsg</i>	-1.6814	2.0716	3.493421053
<i>Alpl</i>	38.6438	23.4351	0.606440142
<i>Ambn</i>	1.5943	2.6863	1.684596577
<i>Anxa5</i>	2.1378	4.2024	1.965730759
<i>Bgn</i>	5.8775	13.1653	2.239949343
<i>Bmp1</i>	6.0114	10.4425	1.737123115
<i>Bmp2</i>	3.1697	2.5051	0.790257578
<i>Bmp3</i>	4.4412	7.6739	1.727934097
<i>Bmp4</i>	-1.0901	7.2793	7.935432016
<i>Bmp5</i>	4.8903	10.7532	2.198889281
<i>Bmp6</i>	1.0698	1.2269	1.146796657
<i>Bmpr1a</i>	-14.2244	-5.5354	2.569700474
<i>Bmpr1b</i>	-2.2318	-1.0868	2.053724816
<i>Cd36</i>	-2.943	-2.3411	1.257081787
<i>Cdh11</i>	13.5304	54.9749	4.063059326
<i>Col10a1</i>	2.8002	2.4938	0.8907173
<i>Col11a1</i>	9.1183	32.7238	3.588798139
<i>Col12a1</i>	11.666	27.2258	2.333776604
<i>Col14a1</i>	2.6761	4.3454	1.623798965
<i>Col1a1</i>	30.1176	32.6852	1.08525467
<i>Col1a2</i>	10.0533	30.4457	3.02842286
<i>Col2a1</i>	-1.2299	1.0976	1.351145038
<i>Col3a1</i>	12.1881	23.1055	1.895747308
<i>Col4a1</i>	3.0836	4.3858	1.422271128
<i>Col4a2</i>	1.2254	2.6484	2.161301666
<i>Col5a1</i>	11.7748	12.756	1.083326185
<i>Col6a1</i>	3.8242	7.4388	1.945175183
<i>Col6a2</i>	10.7128	10.9711	1.024106141
<i>Col7a1</i>	5.6825	4.8888	0.860307614
<i>Comp</i>	1.4757	1.4025	0.950395817
<i>Csf2</i>	2.1264	2.3673	1.114583333
<i>Csf3</i>	1.1032	2.4318	2.201413428
<i>Ctsk</i>	18.6745	42.7603	2.289765664
<i>Dmp1</i>	9.7698	42.1648	4.31580808
<i>Egf</i>	-3.2498	-2.973	1.09336983
<i>Enam</i>	-1.6814	2.0716	3.493421053
<i>Fgf1</i>	-3.6391	-1.2209	2.980758302
<i>Fgf2</i>	-1.0151	1.4167	1.438069524
<i>Fgf3</i>	3.2021	2.1546	0.672350792
<i>Fgfr1</i>	2.3509	7.0502	2.998896758
<i>Fgfr2</i>	2.1997	8.2129	3.733689824
<i>Flt1</i>	1.3707	2.2836	1.666178356

	Up- or down- regulation of bone-related genes (compared to WT mice)		
	<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i> Vs WT	<i>Prkar1a^{+/-} Prkaca^{+/-}</i> vs WT	<i>Prkar1a^{+/-} Prkaca^{+/-}</i> vs <i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i>
<i>Fn1</i>	11.5677	10.3159	0.89178429
<i>Gdf10</i>	1.141	1.4018	1.228601253
<i>Icam1</i>	5.316	12.6752	2.384329263
<i>Igf1</i>	3.5536	15.366	4.324001461
<i>Igf1r</i>	1.2012	2.2482	1.871551763
<i>Itga2</i>	3.4133	5.5025	1.612232341
<i>Itga2b</i>	1.174	2.6708	2.274922942
<i>Itga3</i>	2.0688	2.3696	1.145439606
<i>Itgam</i>	3.042	9.6737	3.18013288
<i>Itgav</i>	6.6741	14.6135	2.1896045
<i>Itgb1</i>	1.8198	2.9077	1.597815329
<i>Mmp10</i>	5.8524	40.769	6.96816685
<i>Mmp2</i>	4.7791	15.8363	3.313677782
<i>Mmp8</i>	3.3214	16.9401	5.100874243
<i>Mmp9</i>	18.2476	35.3793	1.938848467
<i>Msx1</i>	1.1322	7.653	6.759294202
<i>Nfkb1</i>	1.4578	3.316	2.274644491
<i>Pdgfa</i>	1.9942	2.7274	1.367613519
<i>Phex</i>	5.3053	17.9047	3.374861406
<i>Runx2</i>	4.5857	15.732	3.430692157
<i>Scarb1</i>	5.3395	7.0801	1.325996914
<i>Serpinh1</i>	16.1751	11.6619	0.720982515
<i>Smad1</i>	1.5133	5.8901	3.892152403
<i>Smad2</i>	2.5232	4.3964	1.742408781
<i>Smad3</i>	2.0944	2.9064	1.387664371
<i>Smad4</i>	2.7654	3.0659	1.108664307
<i>Sost</i>	-1.096	-1.0552	1.038652517
<i>Sox9</i>	2.1327	2.9469	1.381853786
<i>Tfip11</i>	1.3685	2.6046	1.903224205
<i>Tgfb1</i>	8.4072	13.117	1.560233074
<i>Tgfb2</i>	2.6923	3.0863	1.146327628
<i>Tgfb3</i>	4.2863	4.9115	1.145861227
<i>Tgfbr1</i>	3.5797	7.6637	2.140864382
<i>Tgfbr2</i>	3.9359	6.2333	1.583700957
<i>Tgfbr3</i>	1.4141	1.7207	1.216758826
<i>Tnf</i>	3.1411	4.3409	1.381881533
<i>Tuft1</i>	1.2167	2.9977	2.463869867
<i>Twist1</i>	3.0543	10.5544	3.455592699
<i>Vcam1</i>	3.3325	13.4342	4.031261821
<i>Vdr</i>	2.6644	13.3697	5.017839474
<i>Vegfa</i>	1.8954	2.035	1.073618033
<i>Vegfb</i>	1.1847	1.5128	1.277016743

	Up- or down- regulation of bone-related genes (compared to WT mice)		
	<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} Vs WT	<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} vs WT	<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} vs <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}
<i>Gusb</i>	4.3152	9.3196	2.15970375
<i>Hprt1</i>	-1.1694	2.7253	3.187001701
<i>Hsp90ab1</i>	-1.8515	1.4163	2.622361837
<i>Gapdh</i>	1	1	1
<i>Actb</i>	6.085	7.6274	1.253474818

Table 5.1 Up-regulation of Runx2 mRNA level in bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. Data from RT-qPCR on osteogenesis pathway genes (N=84) was presented in a tabular format by comparing WT normal bone and the lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. Negative values indicate down-regulated genes. Genes highlighted in yellow indicate significant upregulation and those in red significant downregulation.

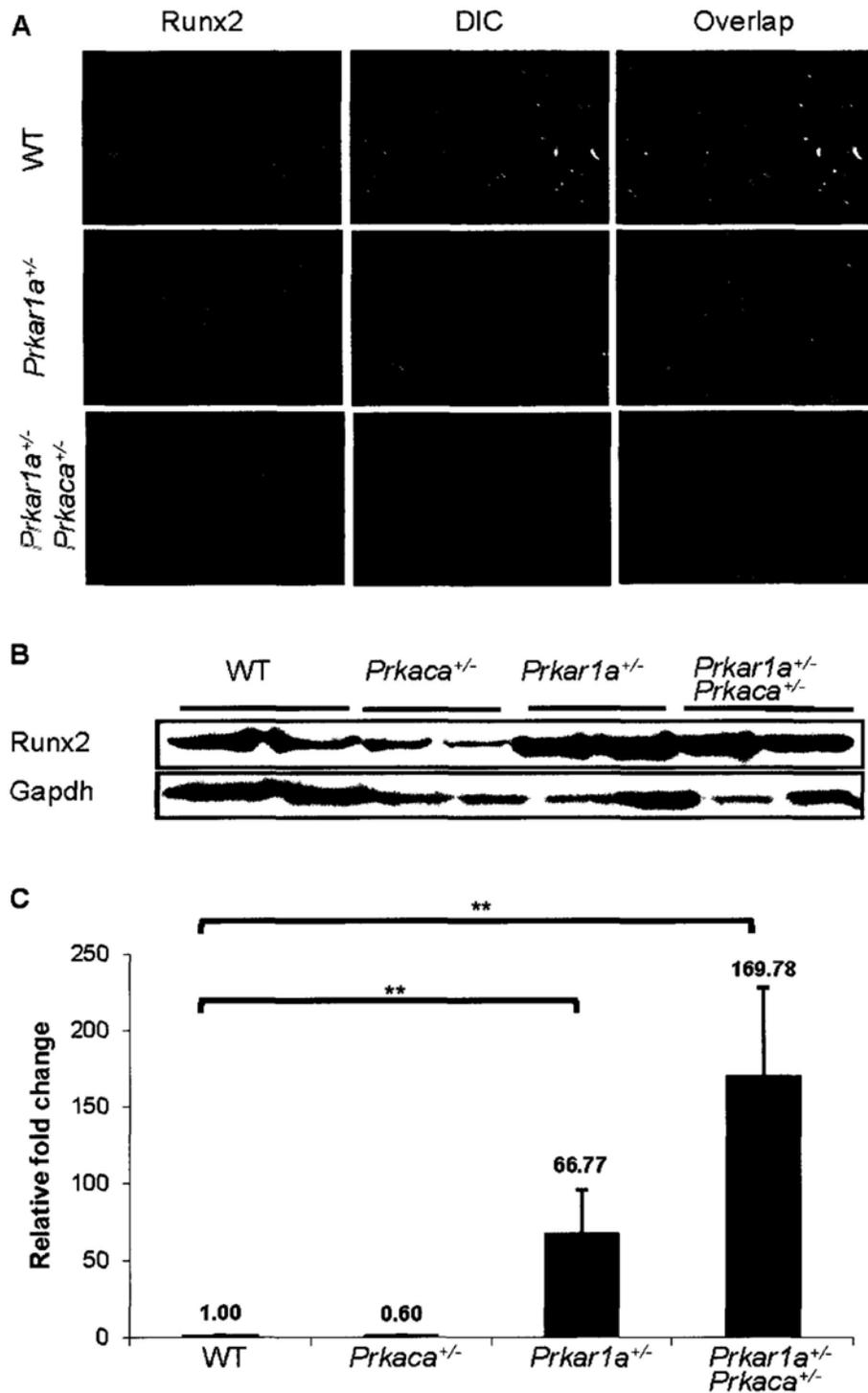


Figure 5.2 Both mRNA and protein expression level of Runx2 were increased in bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. (A) Immunofluorescence staining, (B) western blot analysis and (C) quantitative analysis on the expression level of Runx2, pre-osteoblast markers, in bone tissues from WT, *Prkaca*^{+/-} and bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. n=3, **P<0.01.

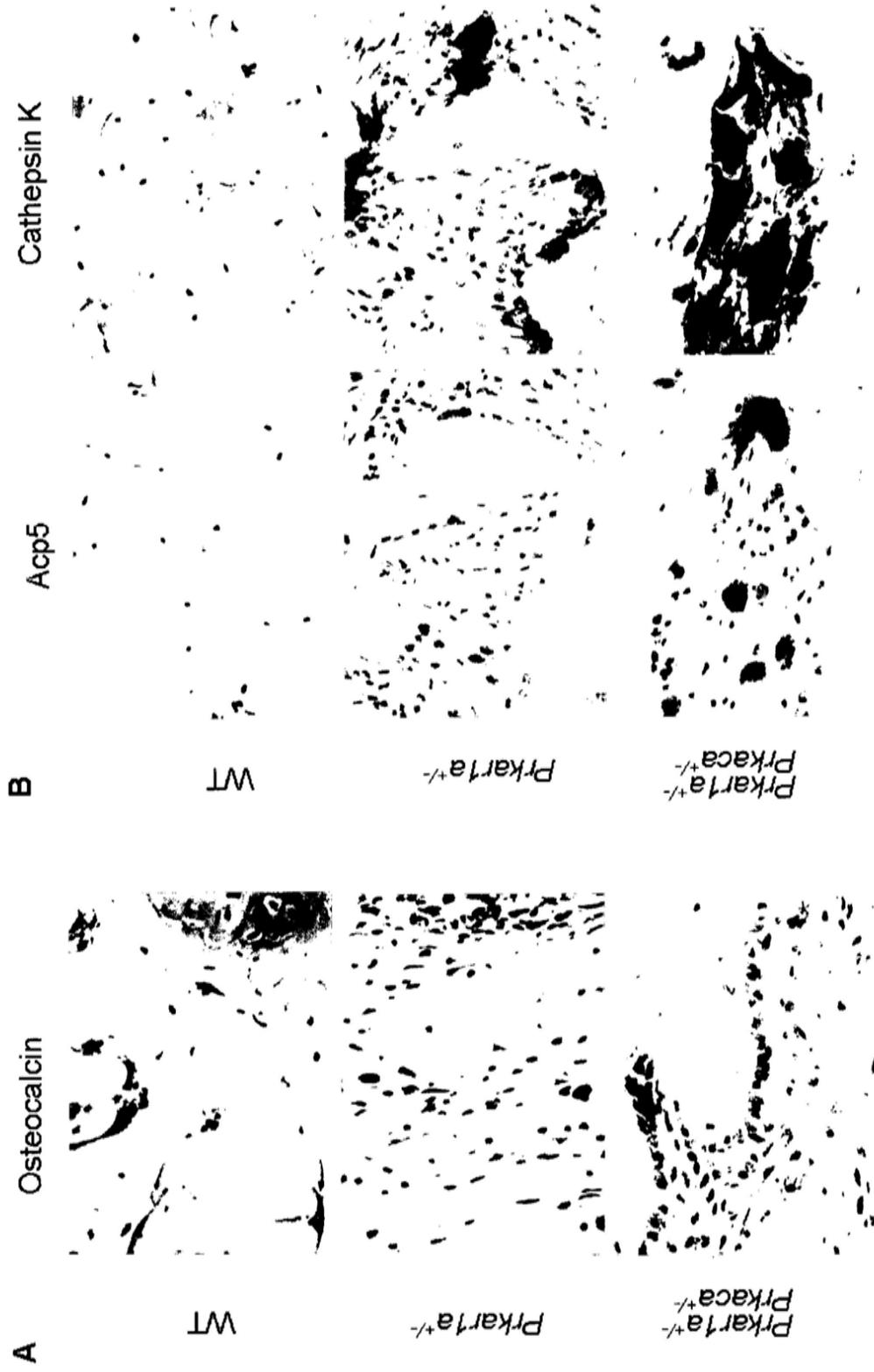


Figure 5.3 Increased osteoclastic activity in bone lesions from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice. (A) Immunohistochemistry for osteocalcin, mature osteoblasts markers, on WT bones, *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* bone lesions. (B) Immunohistochemistry for Acp5 and Cathepsin K, active osteoclast markers, on WT bones, *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* bone lesions.

To better understand the molecular mechanisms and differences leading to the formation of more aggressive bone tumors in *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice, we performed whole genome cDNA microarray study. The raw and normalized array data have been deposited in National Center for Biotechnology Information's Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) (163) and are accessible through GEO Series accession number GSE20984. Tumor tissues from *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice had similar whole genome gene expression signatures when compared against WT tail bone (Figure 5.4A). Both expressed high levels of mesenchymal markers, like *n-cadherin*, *vimentin*, *snail1*, *twist*, *mmp2*, *mmp9*, *tgfb1* and *col1a1* (Table 5.2A, see also Table 5.1); confirmed by IHC studies, mesenchymal proteins n-cadherin and vimentin were highly expressed by abnormally proliferating fibroblasts in bone lesions (Figure 5.5A). Western blot analysis also confirmed the induction of *mmp2* and *mmp9* protein expression in bone tumors (Figure 5.5B). *Mmp9* serum levels were not significantly different between WT, *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice (Figure 5.5C). We also performed flow cytometry study on the primary cultures of bone tumors. Again, this confirmed the mesenchymal nature of the cells since they expressed high level of vimentin, c-kit and *foxo1* (Figure 5.6).

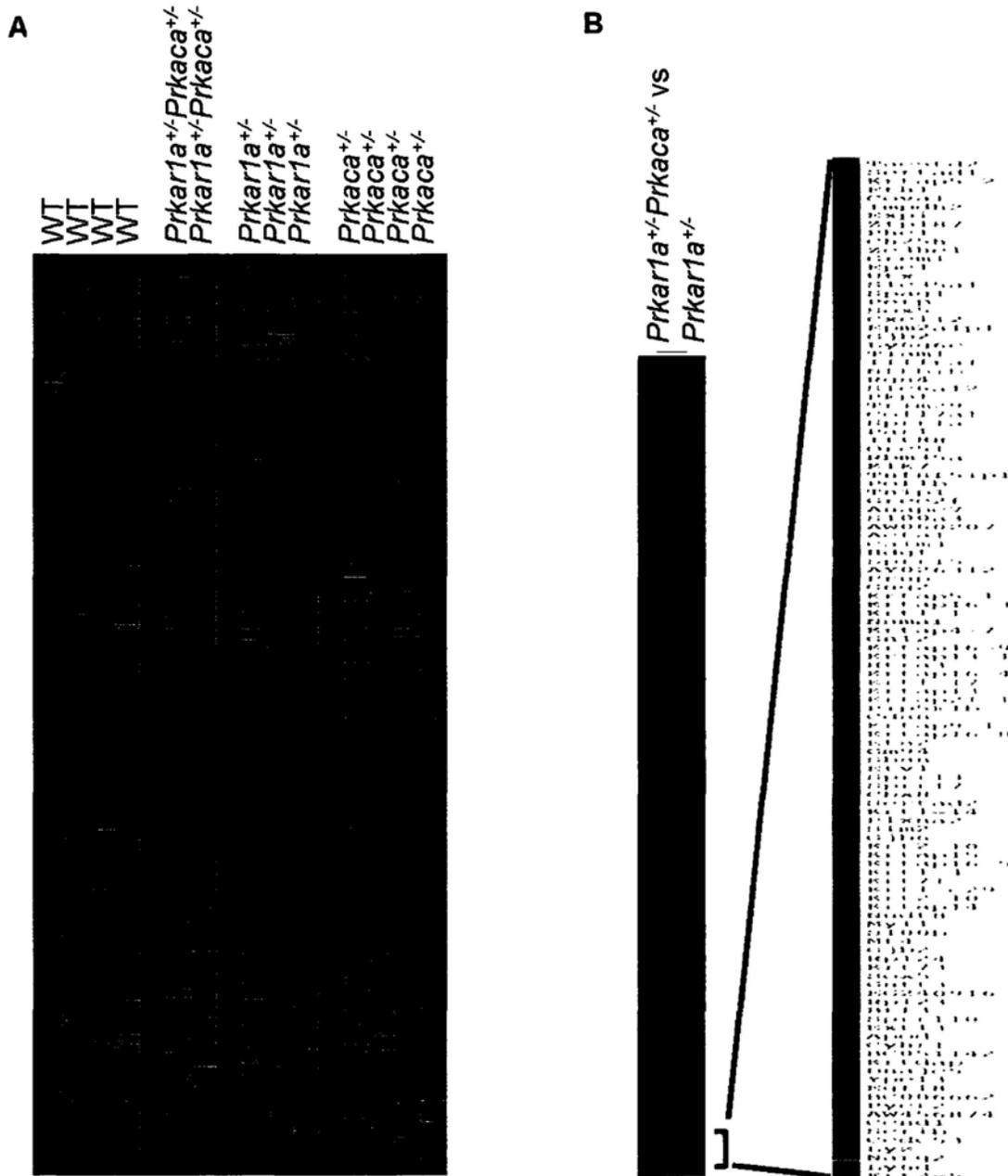


Figure 5.4 Bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice had a very different gene expression pattern when compared to normal bone. (A) Heat map visualization of gene expression data from the bone tissues of WT, *Prkaca*^{+/-} and bone lesions of *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. (B) Left, heat map visualization of gene expression data comparing *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-} bone tumors. Right, enlargement of image showing the up-regulation of a group of keratin and keratin-related genes.

A

Genes	Fold change (up-regulated)		Remarks
	<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i> vs WT	<i>Prkar1a^{+/-}</i> <i>Prkaca^{+/-}</i> vs WT	
N-cadherin (<i>Cdh2</i>)	2.8	2.0	Mesenchymal protein
Vimentin (<i>Vim</i>)	1.4	1.3	Mesenchymal protein
Snail1 (<i>Snail1</i>)	4.2	3.8	E-cadherin repressor
<i>Twist1</i>	2.1	1.9	Up-regulated by loss of E-cadherin
<i>Foxc2</i>	2.0	1.9	Up-regulates mesenchymal gene transcription
<i>Mmp-2</i>	2.9	5.2	Degradation of basement membrane
<i>Mmp-9</i>	11.0	11.5	Degradation of basement membrane

B

	Genes	Fold change (<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/-} vs <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-})
Hair shaft precursor-associated	<i>S100A3</i>	3.5
	<i>Bmp4</i>	4.3
	<i>Msx1</i>	3.6
	<i>Foxq1</i>	2.5
	<i>Foxn1</i>	2.1
Hair shaft keratins	<i>Krt31</i>	2.1
	<i>Krt34</i>	8.2
	<i>Krt86</i>	6.3
Hair shaft keratin-associated protein	<i>Krtap16-3</i>	11.0
	<i>Krtap16-4</i>	2.6
	<i>Krtap16-5</i>	5.2
	<i>Krtap16-8</i>	4.2
	<i>Krtap16-9</i>	3.5
Hair follicle	<i>Krt71</i>	4.1
Keratin specific for IRS cuticle	<i>Krt73</i>	2.1
Keratin expressed in IRS cuticle and other IRS layers	<i>Krt27</i>	4.0
	<i>Krt71</i>	3.4
Filliform tongue papilla	<i>Krt84</i>	11.5
Epidermal stratification	<i>Krt14</i>	14.0
	<i>Krt10</i>	4.8

Table 5.2 *Prkar1a* and *Prkaca* haploinsufficiency led to the induction of mesenchymal-to-epithelial transition. (A) Calculated fold changes from microarray study of different mesenchymal genes in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} tumors when compared to WT. (B) Differentially expressed genes shown in microarray study, which are involved in hair follicle and epithelial differentiation, in lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice when compared to those of *Prkar1a*^{+/-} animal.

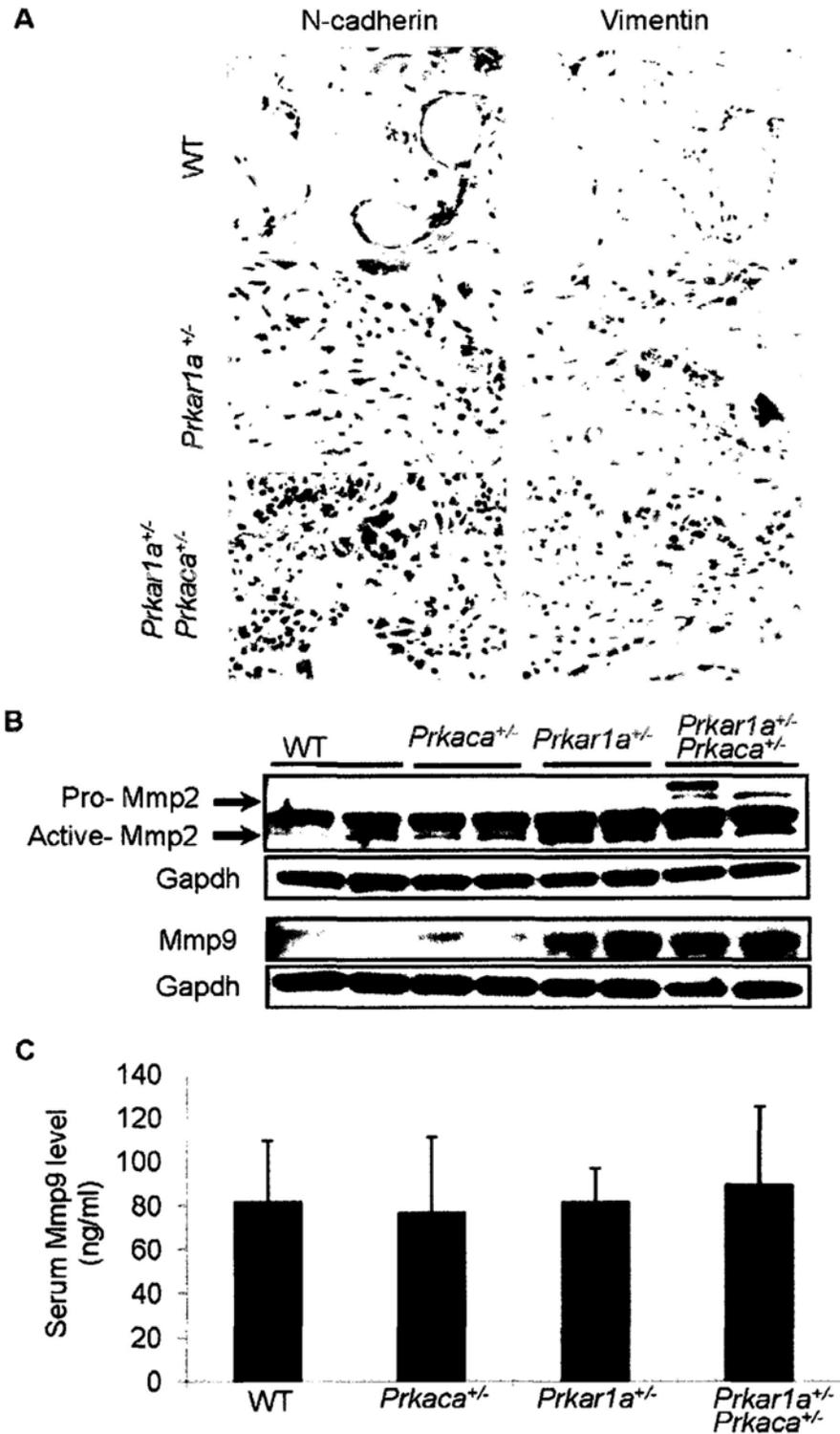


Figure 5.5 Expression of mesenchymal proteins in bone lesions from *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice. (A) Immunohistochemistry for n-cadherin and vimentin, mesenchymal proteins. (B) Western blot analysis on Mmp2 and Mmp9. (C) No difference in serum Mmp9 level among WT, *Prkaca^{+/-}*, *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice.

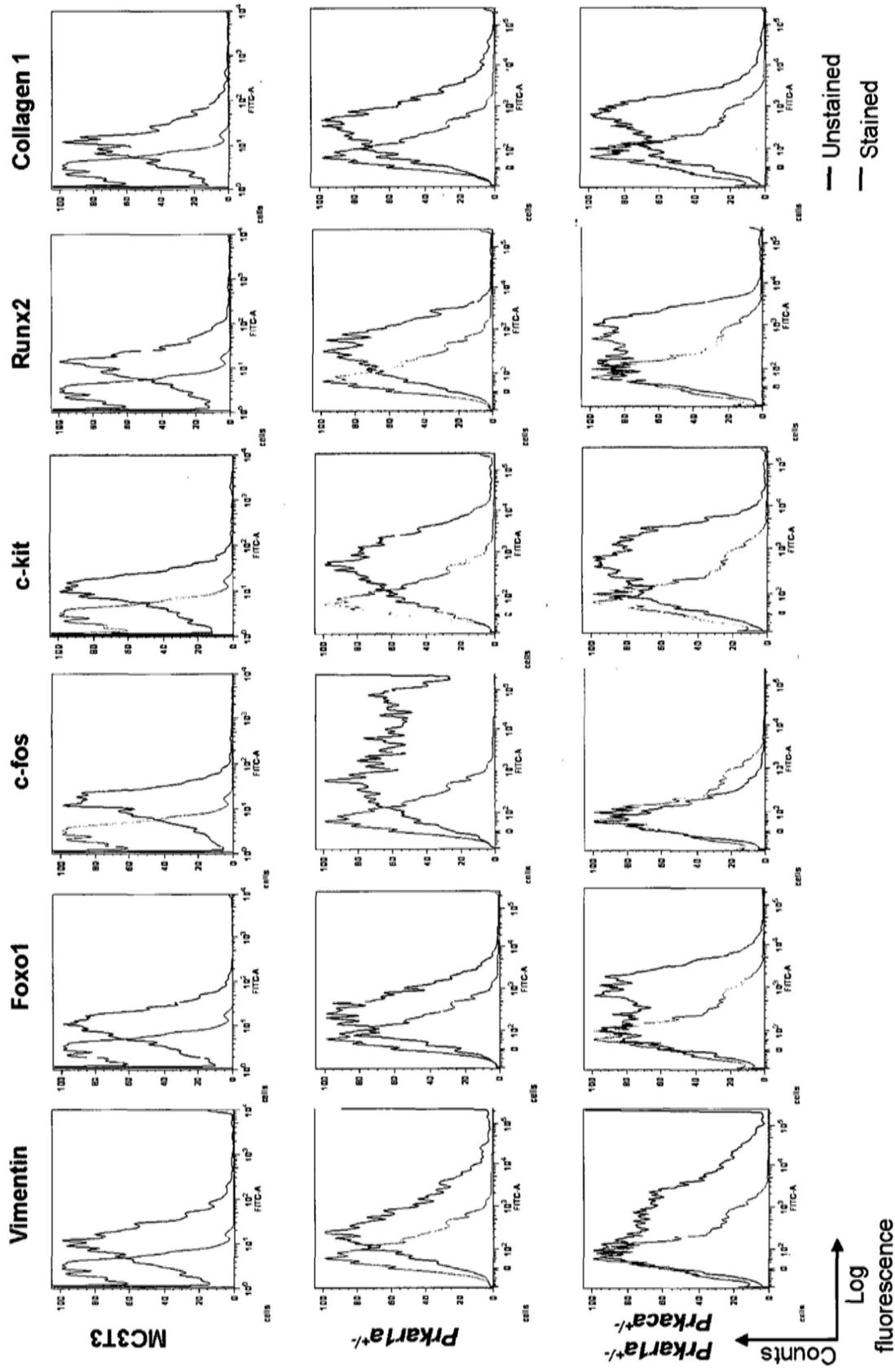


Figure 5.6 Expression of mesenchymal markers and osteoblastic markers in primary cells derived from *Prkar1a*^{-/-} and *Prkaca*^{-/-} bone tumors. Flow cytometry analysis for the expression of mesenchymal markers vimentin, foxo1, c-fos, c-kit and osteogenic markers runx2 and collagen 1 in bone tumor cells from mice studied in the present investigation.

We then compared *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} bone tumors using a hierarchical clustering algorithm (164) (Suppl. Figure 11B). We identified 258 significantly up-regulated genes in bone tumors from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice; they included 20 genes associated with hair and epithelial differentiation, such as keratin and keratin-related genes, *S100A3*, *Bmp4*, *Msx1*, *Foxq1*, and *Foxn1* (Table 5.2B, Figure 5.4B). IHC staining for epithelial markers, E-cadherin and cytokeratin 18 (Figure 5.7A), also revealed that, whereas most of the fibroblast-like cells were mesenchymal, islands of cells within the *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} lesions expressed epithelial markers. Several other genes were increased in the *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} tumors including *cFos* and *Foxo1*; IHC confirmed these data (Figure 5.7B). *c-fos* upregulation were not shown in flow cytometry analysis that may result from the cellular changes under *in vitro* conditions during primary tumor cells development. It may also due to the suitability of the antibody for flow cytometry analysis. However what appeared to be the most upregulated molecular pathway in these lesions was that of the *Wnt* signaling. We then performed RT-qPCR array analysis of *Wnt* signaling pathway genes (N=84) that showed that the lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice had increased expression of *brachyury* (the *T* gene), *Wnt3*, *Wnt3a*, *Wnt7a*, *Wnt8a*, and *Wnt8b* (Table 5.3). In accordance, the lesions also showed down-regulation of *Wnt* signaling pathway inhibitors, such as the *Dkk1*. *Brachyury* was also confirmed, by IHC, to be increased in lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice (Figure 5.7B). These data suggested that *prkar1a* haploinsufficiency was able to induce the active proliferation of bone stromal cells, which are of osteogenic lineage, within the

marrow cavity; while *prkar1a* haploinsufficiency under *prkaca^{+/-}* background was able to induce islands of mesenchymal-to-epithelial transition (MET) within the abnormal stromal cells population.

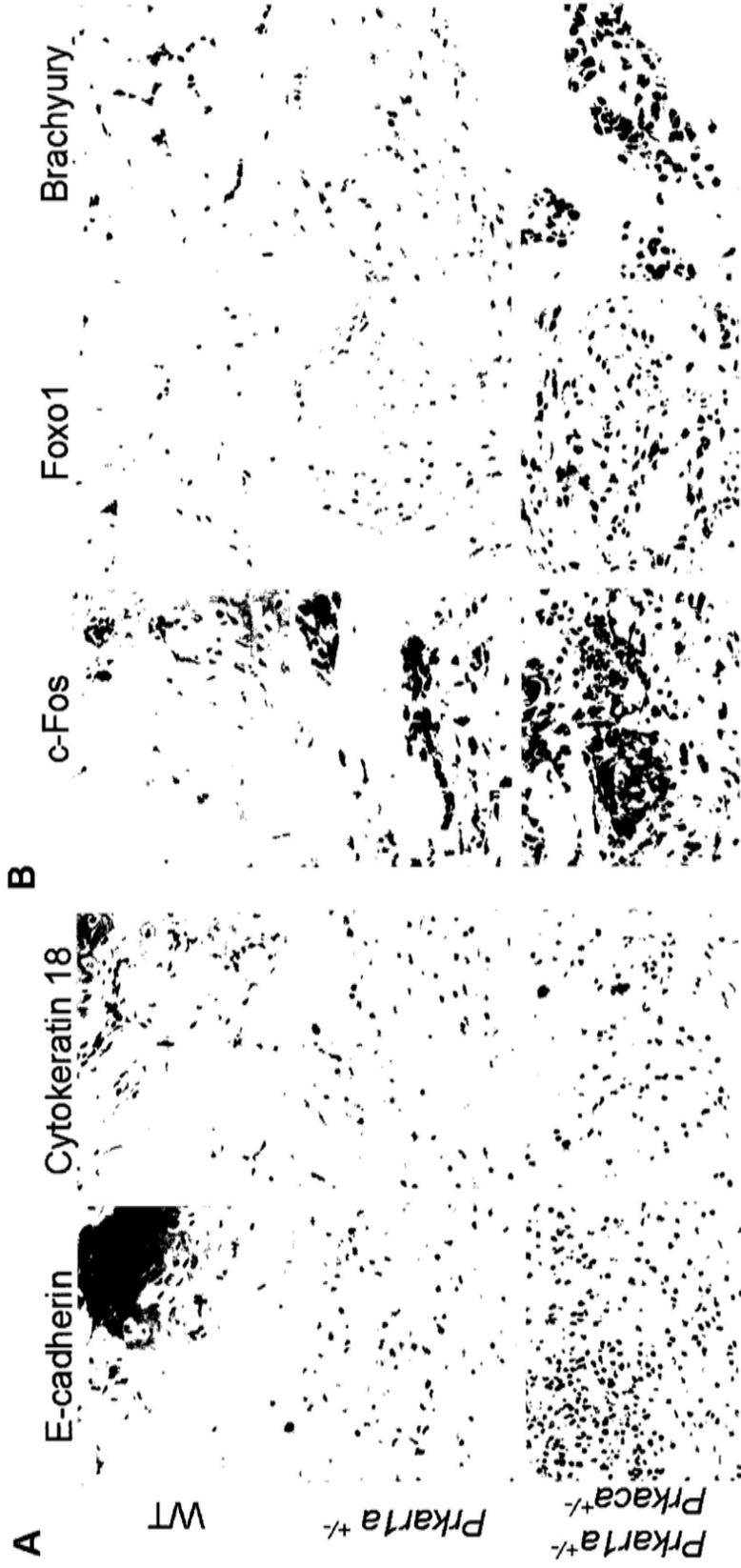


Figure 5.7 Increased expression of epithelial markers, Foxo1 and Brachyury protein in *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* bone tumors. (A) Immunohistochemistry for e-cadherin and cytokeratin 18, epithelial proteins, confirming the mesenchymal-to-epithelial gene signature in lesions from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice. (B) Immunohistochemistry for c-fos, foxo1 and brachyury on WT bones, *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* bone lesions.

Further characterization of mice deficient in protein kinase A signaling

Gene symbol	Gene	Up/Down Regulation
		<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/+} <i>Prkaca</i> ^{+/+} vs <i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}
<i>Aes</i>	Amino-terminal enhancer of split	1.3503
<i>Apc</i>	Adenomatosis polyposis coli	1.5175
<i>Axin1</i>	Axin 1	-1.0293
<i>Bcl9</i>	B-cell CLL/lymphoma 9	1.2016
<i>Btrc</i>	Beta-transducin repeat containing protein	1.1381
<i>Cttnbip1</i>	Catenin beta interacting protein 1	1.3395
<i>Ccnd1</i>	Cyclin D1	1.4158
<i>Ccnd2</i>	Cyclin D2	1.7231
<i>Ccnd3</i>	Cyclin D3	-1.0461
<i>Csnk1a1</i>	Casein kinase 1, alpha 1	1.3883
<i>Csnk1d</i>	Casein kinase 1, delta	1.4241
<i>Csnk2a1</i>	Casein kinase 2, alpha 1 polypeptide	1.3629
<i>Ctbp1</i>	C-terminal binding protein 1	1.2128
<i>Ctbp2</i>	C-terminal binding protein 2	1.4373
<i>Cttnb1</i>	Catenin (cadherin associated protein), beta 1	1.2585
<i>Daam1</i>	Dishevelled associated activator of morphogenesis 1	1.3964
<i>Dixdc1</i>	DIX domain containing 1	1.0485
<i>Dkk1</i>	Dickkopf homolog 1 (<i>Xenopus laevis</i>)	-1.7033
<i>Dvl1</i>	Dishevelled, dsh homolog 1 (<i>Drosophila</i>)	2.783
<i>Dvl2</i>	Dishevelled 2, dsh homolog (<i>Drosophila</i>)	1.1019
<i>Ep300</i>	E1A binding protein p300	1.2368
<i>Fbxw11</i>	F-box and WD-40 domain protein 11	1.4306
<i>Fbxw2</i>	F-box and WD-40 domain protein 2	1.3119
<i>Fbxw4</i>	F-box and WD-40 domain protein 4	1.7112
<i>Fgf4</i>	Fibroblast growth factor 4	1.9207
<i>Fosl1</i>	Fos-like antigen 1	-1.3119
<i>Foxn1</i>	Forkhead box N1	2.0825
<i>Frat1</i>	Frequently rearranged in advanced T-cell lymphomas	-1.2283
<i>Frzb</i>	Frizzled-related protein	1.1083
<i>Fshb</i>	Follicle stimulating hormone beta	1.9656
<i>Fzd1</i>	Frizzled homolog 1 (<i>Drosophila</i>)	1.5476
<i>Fzd2</i>	Frizzled homolog 2 (<i>Drosophila</i>)	1.7532
<i>Fzd3</i>	Frizzled homolog 3 (<i>Drosophila</i>)	1.3149
<i>Fzd4</i>	Frizzled homolog 4 (<i>Drosophila</i>)	-1.0994
<i>Fzd5</i>	Frizzled homolog 5 (<i>Drosophila</i>)	1.514
<i>Fzd6</i>	Frizzled homolog 6 (<i>Drosophila</i>)	1.1329
<i>Fzd7</i>	Frizzled homolog 7 (<i>Drosophila</i>)	-1.2716
<i>Fzd8</i>	Frizzled homolog 8 (<i>Drosophila</i>)	-1.7371
<i>Gsk3b</i>	Glycogen synthase kinase 3 beta	1.3851
<i>Jun</i>	Jun oncogene	1.1225
<i>Kremen1</i>	Kringle containing transmembrane protein 1	1.2834
<i>Lef1</i>	Lymphoid enhancer binding factor 1	1.0305
<i>Lrp5</i>	Low density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 5	1.3441
<i>Lrp6</i>	Low density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 6	1.3272
<i>Myc</i>	Myelocytomatosis oncogene	-1.1474
<i>Nkd1</i>	Naked cuticle 1 homolog (<i>Drosophila</i>)	-1.0163
<i>Nlk</i>	Nemo like kinase	1.1989

<i>Pitx2</i>	Paired-like homeodomain transcription factor 2	-1.0867
<i>Porcn</i>	Porcupine homolog (Drosophila)	1.021
<i>Ppp2ca</i>	Protein phosphatase 2 (formerly 2A), catalytic subunit, alpha isoform	1.3195
<i>Ppp2r1a</i>	Protein phosphatase 2 (formerly 2A), regulatory subunit A (PR 65), alpha isoform	1.0994
<i>Ppp2r5d</i>	Protein phosphatase 2, regulatory subunit B (B56), delta isoform	-1.3104
<i>Pygo1</i>	Pygopus 1	1.4557
<i>Rhou</i>	Ras homolog gene family, member U	1.0755
<i>Senp2</i>	SUMO/sentrin specific peptidase 2	1.4658
<i>Sfrp1</i>	Secreted frizzled-related protein 1	1.7271
<i>Sfrp2</i>	Secreted frizzled-related protein 2	1.5674
<i>Sfrp4</i>	Secreted frizzled-related protein 4	1.2938
<i>Slc9a3r1</i>	Solute carrier family 9 (sodium/hydrogen exchanger), member 3 regulator 1	-1.1019
<i>Sox17</i>	SRY-box containing gene 17	3.2378
<i>T</i>	Brachyury	3.1638
<i>Tcf3</i>	Transcription factor 3	1.0437
<i>Tcf7</i>	Transcription factor 7, T-cell specific	1.6358
<i>Tle1</i>	Transducin-like enhancer of split 1, homolog of Drosophila E(spl)	1.0046
<i>Tle2</i>	Transducin-like enhancer of split 2, homolog of Drosophila E(spl)	1.2894
<i>Wif1</i>	Wnt inhibitory factor 1	1.4241
<i>Wisp1</i>	WNT1 inducible signaling pathway protein 1	1.834
<i>Wnt1</i>	Wingless-related MMTV integration site 1	1.1594
<i>Wnt10a</i>	Wingless related MMTV integration site 10a	2.4852
<i>Wnt11</i>	Wingless-related MMTV integration site 11	1.3195
<i>Wnt16</i>	Wingless-related MMTV integration site 16	1.4931
<i>Wnt2</i>	Wingless-related MMTV integration site 2	-1.374
<i>Wnt2b</i>	Wingless related MMTV integration site 2b	1.8553
<i>Wnt3</i>	Wingless-related MMTV integration site 3	1.7391
<i>Wnt3a</i>	Wingless-related MMTV integration site 3A	1.6208
<i>Wnt4</i>	Wingless-related MMTV integration site 4	1.1199
<i>Wnt5a</i>	Wingless-related MMTV integration site 5A	-1.3272
<i>Wnt5b</i>	Wingless-related MMTV integration site 5B	1.8383
<i>Wnt6</i>	Wingless-related MMTV integration site 6	1.2411
<i>Wnt7a</i>	Wingless-related MMTV integration site 7A	1.7391
<i>Wnt7b</i>	Wingless-related MMTV integration site 7B	1.5801
<i>Wnt8a</i>	Wingless-related MMTV integration site 8A	1.7391
<i>Wnt8b</i>	Wingless related MMTV integration site 8b	2.6057
<i>Wnt9a</i>	Wingless-type MMTV integration site 9A	-1.0705

Table 5.3 *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice bone tumors had activated Wnt-signaling pathway. The table presents the data on 84 molecules involved in Wnt-signaling pathway in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice tumors in comparison to those of *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice. Negative values indicate down-regulated genes. Gene highlighted in yellow indicates significant upregulation.

Chapter Six

Further Characterization of Mice Deficient in Protein Kinase A Signaling

6.1 Generation of mice deficiency in protein kinase A regulatory subunit type 1A (*prkar1a*) and type 2B (*prkar2b*) (*Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-})

Consistent with previous studies, the present study demonstrated that loss of *prkar1a* led to upregulation of type II regulatory subunits. It is believed that increased PKA-II and/or type II regulatory subunits are responsible for increased cAMP-responsive total PKA activity. In accordance, we hypothesized that introduction of *prkar1a* haploinsufficiency in the background of *prkar2b*^{+/-} would abrogate some of the tumor formation, probably through the reduction in formation of PKA-II holoenzyme. Again, double heterozygous mice were generated by breeding *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice with *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice and bred into a mixed C57BL/6x129Sv/B6 hybrid background. Genomic DNAs from tail tips were used to confirm the genotypes, using the conditions described in Materials and Methods (Figure 6.1)

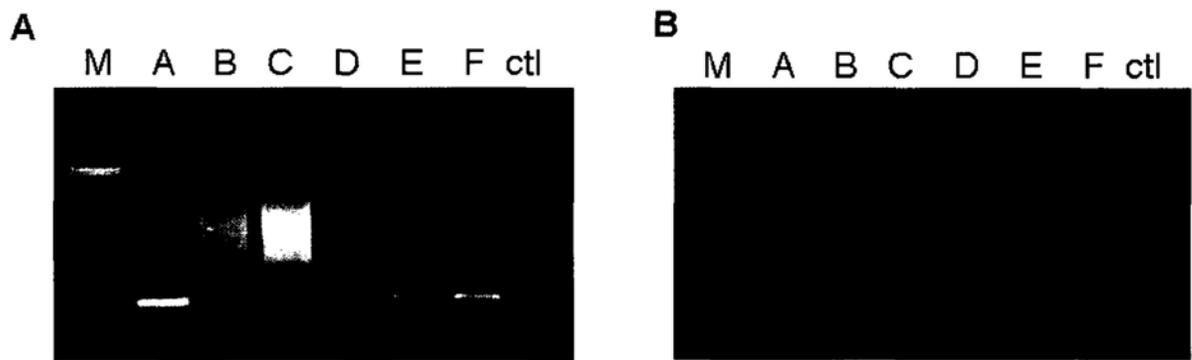


Figure 6.1 Genomic PCR experiments were used for the genotyping of *prkar2b* gene in mice. (A) Genotyping of *prkar2b* WT allele and (B) genotyping of *prkar2b* KO allele in animal A-F using the primers described in Materials and Methods. Taken together, Animal A had the genotype *Prkar2b*^{+/+}; Animal B had the genotype *Prkar2b*^{+/-}; Animal C had the genotype *Prkar2b*^{+/+}; Animal D had the genotype *Prkar2b*^{+/-}; Animal E had the genotype *Prkar2b*^{+/+}; Animal F had the genotype *Prkar2b*^{+/-}. M, 100bp ladder; ctl, negative control.

6.2 Phenotypic characterization of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} double heterozygous mice

Since the *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice were bred from the same cohort of mice as *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice and the breeding were performed in parallel, we used the same 24 WT and 34 *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice to compare against 23 *Prkar2b*^{+/-} and 39 *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice.

Several phenotypes were observed in both *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice. First, *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice also developed thyroid tumors; these varied from 4 cases (10.3% vs 14.7% in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice) of follicular adenoma and 5 cases (12.8% vs 2.9% in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice) of follicular papillary adenoma to 3 cases (7.7% vs 5.9% in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice) of follicular papillary cystadenoma (Figure 6.2); Second, 17 out of 39 *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice (43.6% vs 32.4% in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice) also had eosinophilic cellular alteration in the liver; Third, 14 of them (35.9% vs 44.1% in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice) developed adrenal subcapsular hyperplasia.

Although we observed only one case of a pituitary cyst in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice (2.6% vs 8.8% in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice), one 18 months old *Prkar2b*^{+/-} and one 18 months old *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mouse developed adenoma in pars intermedia of pituitary (Figure 6.3) that were not found in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice.

Seven out of 39 *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice (17.9%) developed osteomyxoma (Figure 6.4A, B) in caudal vertebrae that was less frequent than in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. However, 50% of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice developed fibro-osseous lesions (Figure 6.4C, D), which were considered

being an early stage of osteomyxoma; and 10% of them had active osteoblastic activity in trabecular, endosteal and periosteum of the caudal vertebrae. Moreover, one 14 month-old and one 18 month-old *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkar2b^{+/-}* mice developed osteochondromyxoma (Figure 6.4E, F). In contrast to *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice, we did not observed any cartilaginous hyperplasia and osteochondrodysplasia in marrow cavities of the long bones (femur, tibia), instead only fibro-osseous to osteomyxoma lesions were observed in long bone of *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkar2b^{+/-}* mice. We also saw four cases of chondroma in spinal column and fibro-osseous lesions in phalanx, tarsal bone and metacarpal bone as well as one osteomyxoma in phalanx.

Haploinsufficiency of *prkar1a* under *prkar2b^{+/-}* background also lead to development of tumors in the craniofacial and skull bones. The lesions varied from osteoblastic proliferation of median median nasal septal bone and maxilla bone (Figure 6.5A, B, C, D) to chondroma in palatine bone (Figure 6.5E). One *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkar2b^{+/-}* mouse developed myxosarcoma of skull (Figure 6.5F).

Another significant observation was that 17 out of 39 *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkar2b^{+/-}* mice (43.6% vs 11.8% in *Prkar1a^{+/-}* mice) developed peliotic lesions in spleen (Figure 6.6); while none of the *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice showed this type of lesion.

Similarly, we did not observe any gender differences in the incidence of bone lesions. Blood cell counts and biochemical values (i.e. total and ionized calcium, phosphate, and others) were within normal range, although elevated

Further characterization of mice deficient in protein kinase A signaling
alkaline phosphatase level and decreased glucose, cholesterol and triglyceride level were observed in *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkar2b^{+/-}* mice (Table 6.1 and Figure 6.7).

These data suggested that the reduction of *prkar1a* under *prkar2b* haploinsufficiency background can not obrogate the development of tumors from thyroid follicles, pituitary and bone cells. *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkar2b^{+/-}* mice developed the same spectrum of tumors as in *Prkar1a^{+/-}* mice in similar frequency and time of onset, indicating that RII β may not be the primary subunit leading to tumorigenesis under *Prkar1a* haploinsufficiency background.

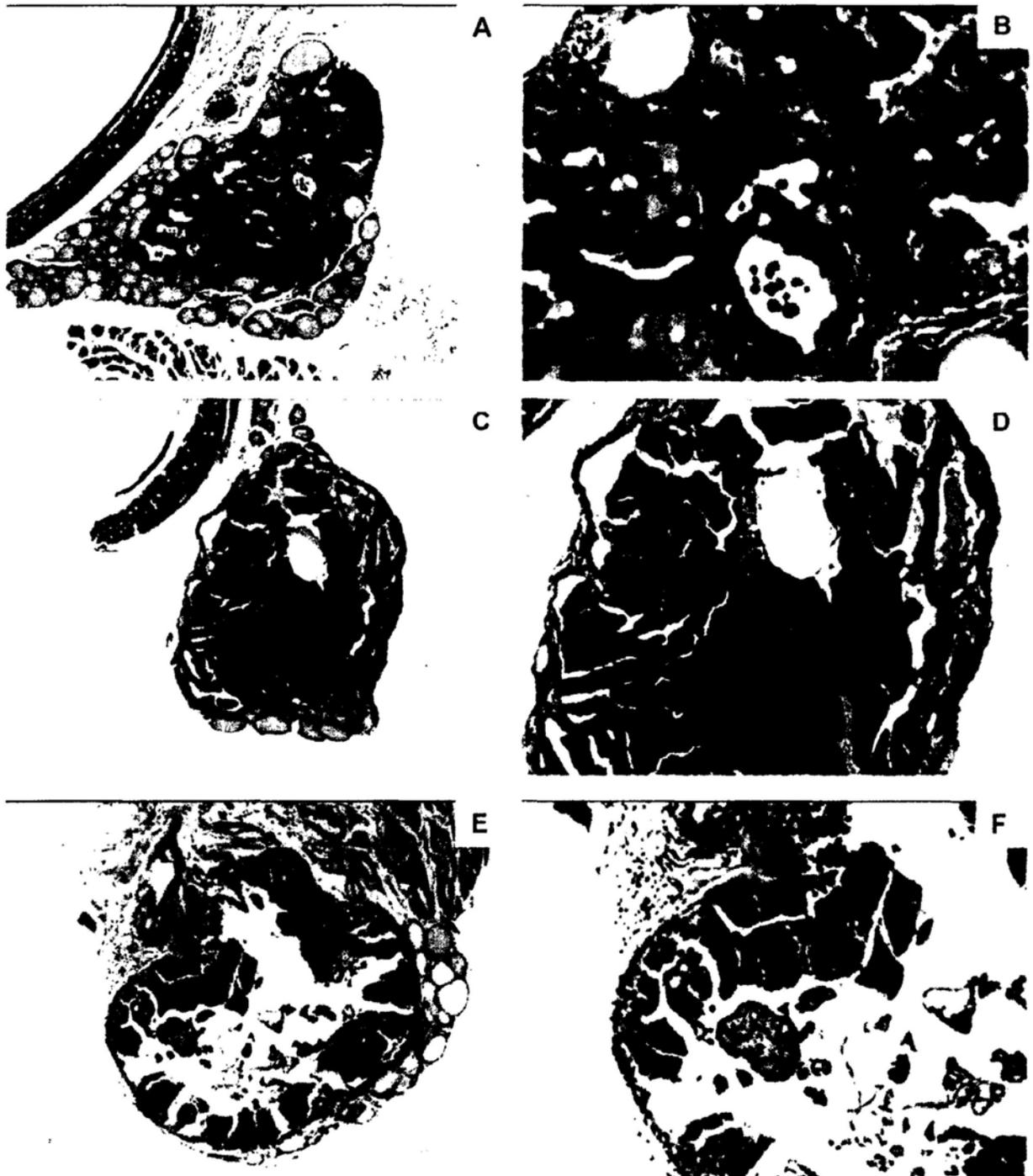


Figure 6.2 Representative views of thyroid neoplasms in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice. (A-F) Haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of section of thyroid from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice. (A, B) Thyroid follicular adenoma from a 15 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mouse. (A) Original magnification, 10x. (B) Original magnification, 40x. (C, D) Thyroid follicular papillary adenoma from a 12 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mouse. (C) Original magnification, 10x. (D) Original magnification, 20x. (E, F) Thyroid follicular papillary cystadenoma from a 14 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mouse. (E) Original magnification, 10x. (F) Original magnification, 20x.



Figure 6.3 Representative views of pituitary adenoma in *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkar2b^{+/-}* mice. (A,B) Haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of section of pituitary from a 17 month-old *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkar2b^{+/-}* mouse. (A) Original magnification, 10x. (B) Original magnification, 20x.

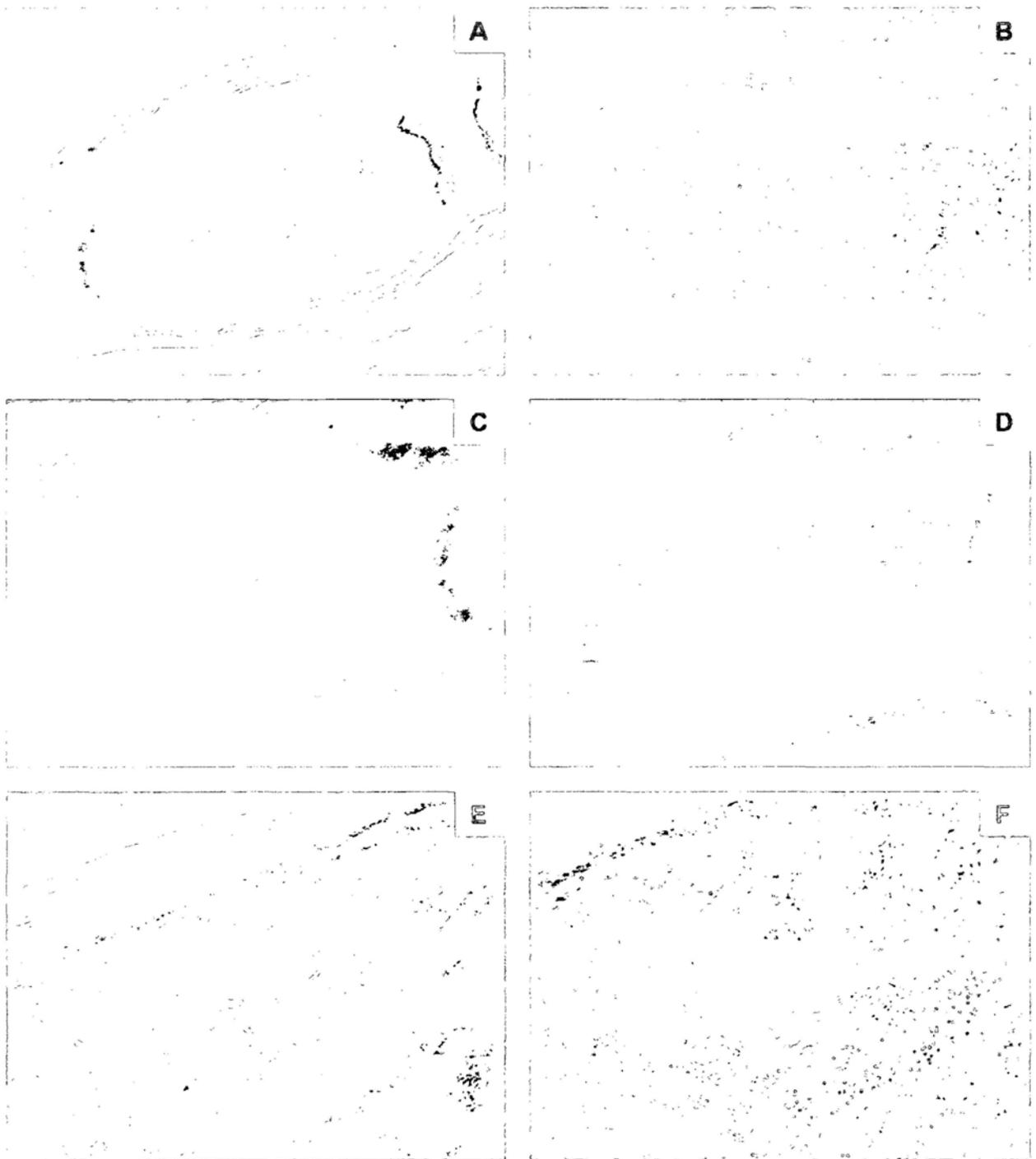


Figure 6.4 Representative views of bone lesions in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice. (A-F) Haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of longitudinal sections of caudal bones from a 14 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mouse. (A, B) Osteomyxoma. (A) Original magnification, 2x. (B) Original magnification, 20x. (C, D) Fibro-osseous lesion. (C) Original magnification, 10x. (D) Original magnification, 20x. (E, F) Osteochondromyxoma. (E) Original magnification, 10x. (F) Original magnification, 20x.

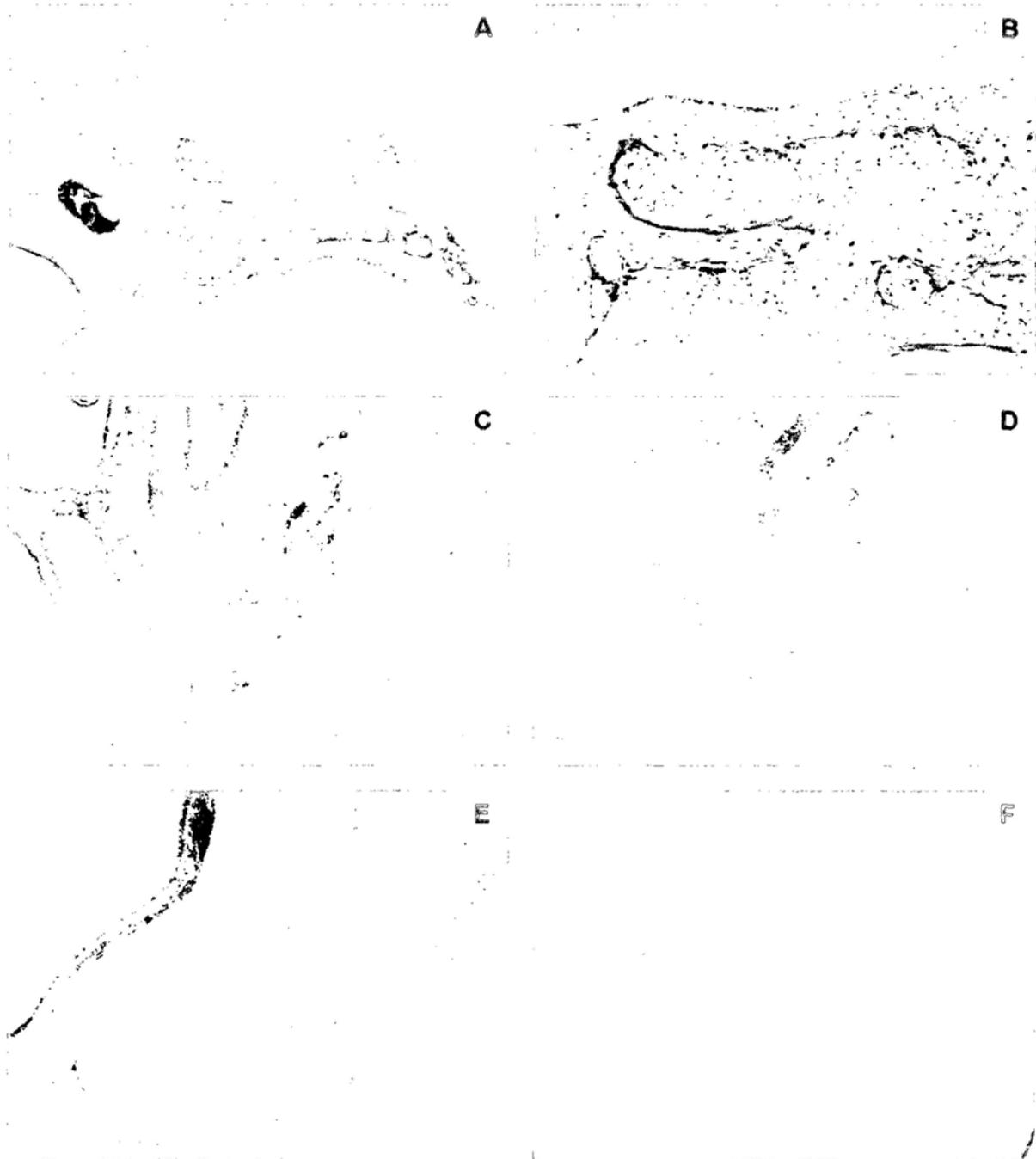


Figure 6.5 Representative views of flat bone lesions in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice. (A-F) Haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of sections of skull bones from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice. (A, B) Fibro-osseous to osteomyxoma lesions in petrosal bone of a 17 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mouse. (A) Original magnification, 10x. (B) Original magnification, 40x. (C, D) Osteoblastic proliferation in maxilla bone of a 18 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mouse. (C) Original magnification, 10x. (D) Original magnification, 20x. (E) Chondroma in the palatine bone of a 12 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mouse (original magnification, 2x). (F) Myxosarcoma in skull of a 18 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mouse (original magnification, 2x.)

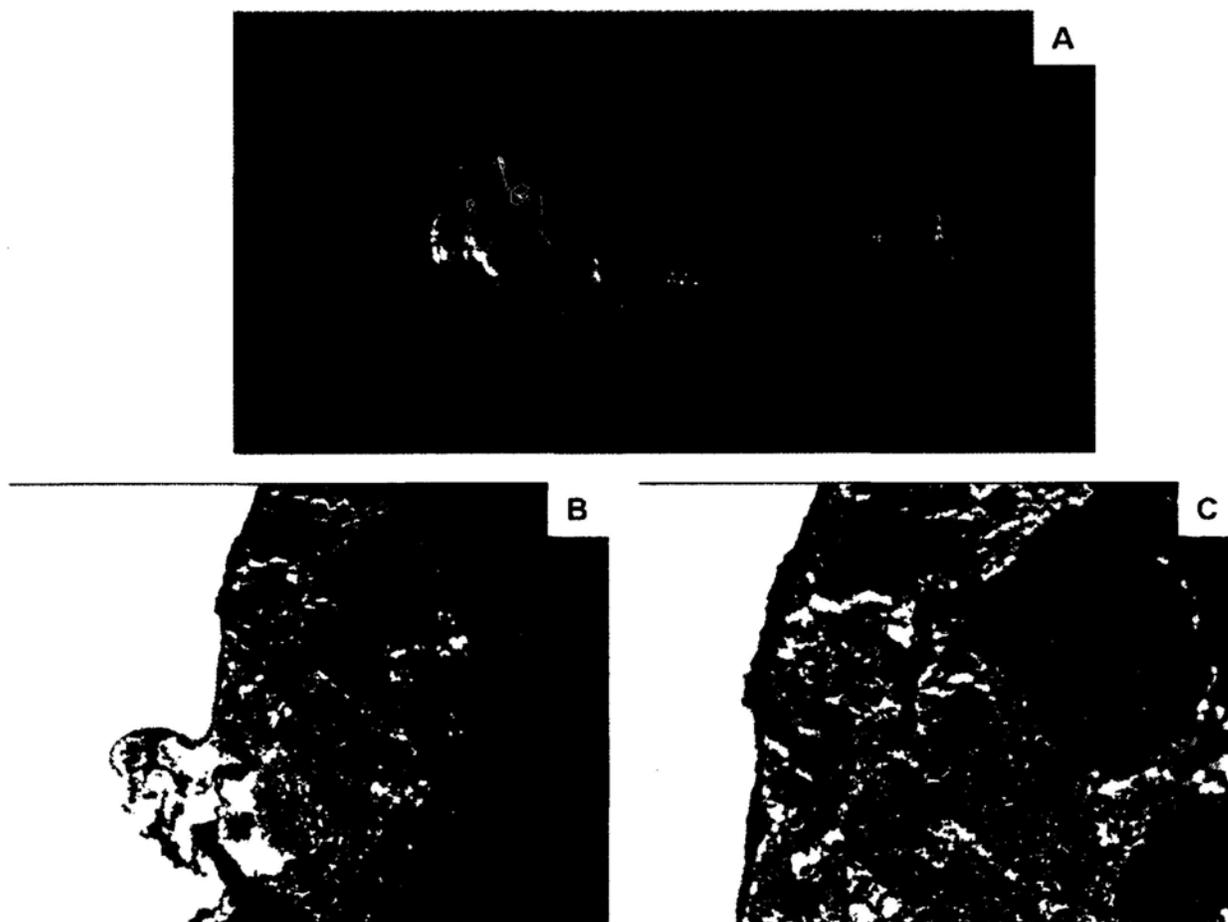


Figure 6.6 Representative views of spleen peliosis in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice. (A) Gross picture of the spleen from a 12 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mouse. (B, C) Haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of section spleen from a 12 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkar2b*^{+/-} mouse. (B) Original magnification, 10x. (C) Original magnification, 20x.

Genotype	Sex	GLU* mg/dL	CHOL* mg/dL	TRIG* mg/dL	ALB* g/dL	Ca* mg/dL	PHOS* mg/dL	ALP* U/L	ALT* U/L	AST* U/L	LDH* U/L	CK* U/L	Creatinine mg/dL
WT	M	229	99	74	3	10.2	7	58	32	113	260	-	-
WT	M	269	91	65	2.8	9.2	7.3	72	81	290	752	-	-
WT	M	240	89	57	2.6	10.1	7.3	72	42	74	353	219	0.2
WT	M	190	41	69	2.8	8.8	0.6	10	11	56	16	21	0.2
WT	F	229	64	46	2.8	9.5	7.2	90	29	52	124	51	0.2
WT	F	219	80	59	2.9	10.6	5.4	115	28	157	229	-	-
WT	F	236	93	132	3	13.5	5.7	82	51	76	346	226	0.3
Prkar2b ^{-/-}	M	207	90	52	2.9	9.4	5.7	61	40	77	229	192	0.2
Prkar2b ^{-/-}	M	184	97	60	2.8	10.2	6.6	59	30	46	176	47	0.3
Prkar2b ^{-/-}	M	181	90	59	2.6	9.5	6.8	62	47	68	272	120	0.3
Prkar2b ^{-/-}	M	194	97	62	2.9	9.4	8.2	81	77	77	257	176	0.3
Prkar2b ^{-/-}	M	243	86	54	2.9	9.7	7.2	70	37	137	298	579	0.3
Prkar2b ^{-/-}	F	216	84	57	3.1	9.7	6.8	123	34	57	215	80	0.2
Prkar2b ^{-/-}	F	188	75	57	2.7	7.1	3.1	90	56	81	822	621	0
Prkar2b ^{-/-}	F	182	64	62	2.9	10.6	6.4	95	31	154	467	1096	0.3
Prkar1a ^{-/-}	M	217	94	67	3	10.4	0.1	93	69	93	254	-	-
Prkar1a ^{-/-}	M	173	68	56	2.4	9.2	6.5	41	30	142	291	762	0.3
Prkar1a ^{-/-}	F	243	89	61	1.7	-	6.4	77	-	-	-	77	0.2
Prkar1a ^{-/-}	F	263	57	52	2.7	11.1	6.6	111	35	145	365	673	0.4
Prkar1a ^{-/-}	F	200	85	73	3	10.5	6	68	49	69	305	142	0.3
Prkar1a ^{-/-}	F	222	87	68	3	10	0	120	30	79	228	-	-
Prkar1a ^{-/-}	F	221	66	67	2.6	10.8	6.4	71	24	93	498	283	0.3
Prkar1a ^{-/-}	M	171	67	38	2.8	9.4	9.3	82	25	63	304	329	0.3
Prkar2b ^{-/-}	M	183	78	51	2.9	10.7	6.2	87	20	55	390	212	0.3
Prkar1a ^{-/-}	M	122	49	40	2.3	11.4	10.6	96	52	92	364	92	0.3
Prkar2b ^{-/-}	M	174	95	50	3.1	10.2	7.1	95	33	53	258	87	0.2

Further characterization of mice deficient in protein kinase A signaling

Genotype	Sex	GLU* mg/dL	CHOL* mg/dL	TRIG* mg/dL	ALB* g/dL	Ca* mg/dL	PHOS* mg/dL	ALP* U/L	ALT* U/L	AST* U/L	LDH* U/L	CK* U/L	Creatinine mg/dL
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	M	198	62	58	3	10.9	5.1	81	29	58	309	124	0.3
<i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-}	M	160	39	30	2.3	9.6	8	124	62	127	501	327	0.3
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	M	102	37	33	2.7	9.5	7.1	164	40	220	210	87	0.3
<i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-}	F	178	70	61	2.8	10.7	6.7	93	38	81	499	180	0.3
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	223	74	50	3	10.2	6.1	70	28	78	390	495	0.3
<i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-}	F	209	79	78	3.1	9.8	4.6	131	32	63	174	104	0.1
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	179	66	59	3	8.9	8	116	88	102	416	69	0.3
<i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-}	F	155	56	65	3	9	6.5	234	28	66	226	121	0.2
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	202	62	58	3.3	9.4	7.4	192	24	49	123	59	0.3
<i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-}	F	141	52	57	2.5	10.9	7.9	80	47	152	433	495	0.3
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	232	65	53	3	9.9	5.9	167	27	118	271	457	0.3
<i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-}	F	179	47	51	2.8	10	5.5	82	27	52	201	54	0.4
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	212	76	60	2.9	10.8	6.3	71	31	71	299	194	0.3
<i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-}	F	177	54	49	3.2	10	6.9	173	30	56	235	65	0.2
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	153	64	55	2.6	8.8	6.2	78	29	104	378	392	0.1
<i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-}													

Genotype	Sex	GLU*	CHOL*	TRIG*	ALB*	Ca*	PHOS*	ALP*	ALT*	AST*	LDH*	CK*	Creatinine
		mg/dL	mg/dL	mg/dL	g/dL	mg/dL	mg/dL	U/L	U/L	U/L	U/L	U/L	mg/dL
<i>Prkar1a</i> ^{+/-}	F	224	74	60	2.9	10.4	7.9	99	27	76	736	220	0.4
<i>Prkar2b</i> ^{+/-}													
#p-value		0.001	0.03	0.017	0.87	0.578	0.128	0.03	0.675	0.228	0.6	0.34	0.239

*GLU, glucose; CHOL, cholesterol; TRIG, triglyceride; ALB, albumin; Ca, calcium; PHOS, inorganic phosphorus; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; LDH, lactate dehydrogenase; CK, creatine kinase. # p-value was calculated with Student T-test. p-value was comparing WT and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice and less than 0.05 were considered significant which are shown in Figure 6.7.

Table 6.1 Serum chemistries of 1-year old WT, *Prkar2b*^{+/-}, *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice.

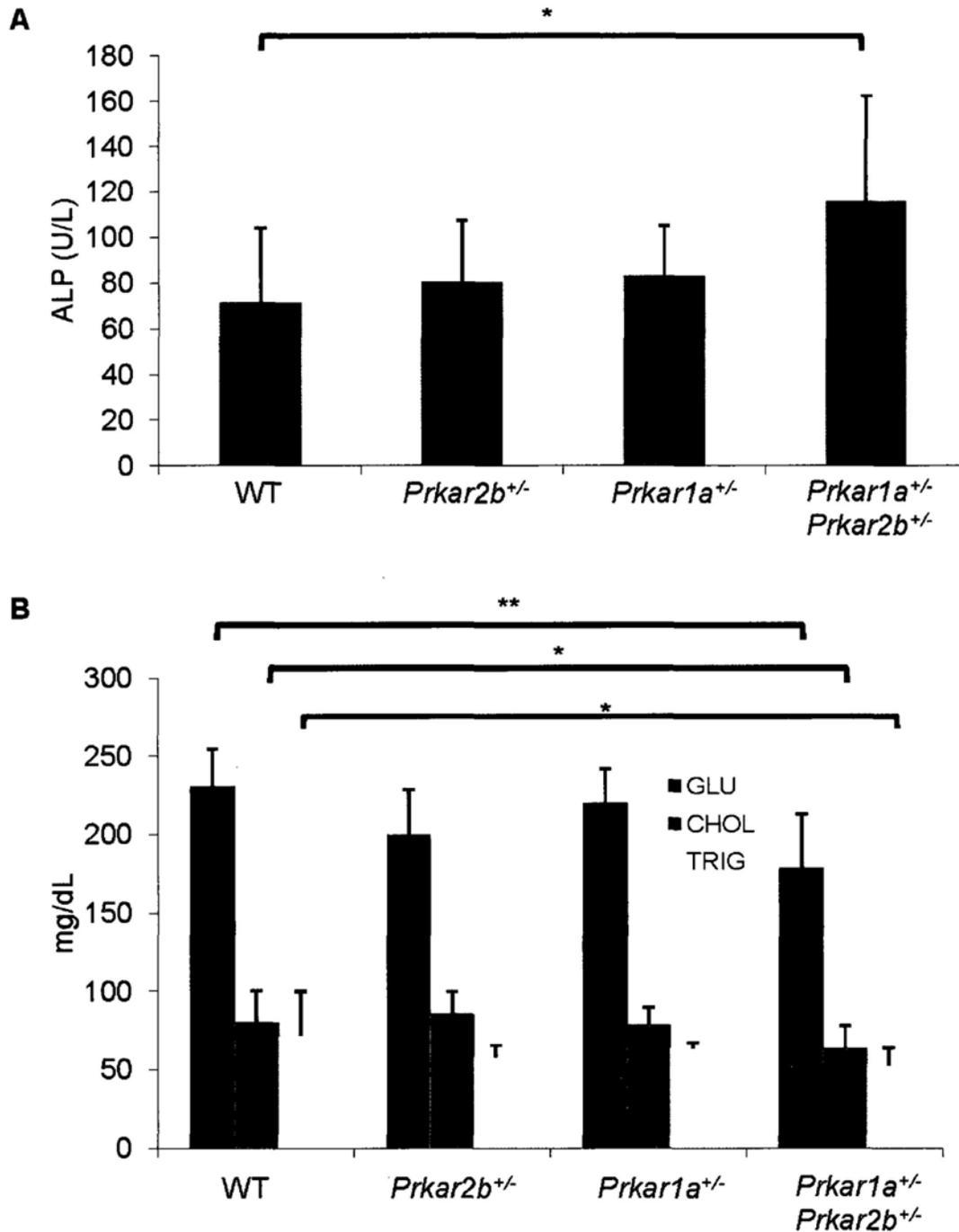


Figure 6.7 Increased serum alkaline phosphatase and decreased serum glucose, cholesterol and triglyceride in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice. **(A)** Average of serum ALP level in WT, *Prkar2b*^{+/-}, *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice. **(B)** Average of serum glucose, cholesterol and triglyceride levels in WT, *Prkar2b*^{+/-}, *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice. *P<0.05; **P<0.01. Error bars represent means \pm SD.

Chapter Seven

Discussion

The present studies showed that *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice developed extensive bone lesions, although they did not form any thyroid tumors or schwannomas that developed in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice (57), pointing to the significance of C α for the development of certain tumors in cAMP-responsive tissues. This finding was associated with an overall increase in PKA-II activity that was mediated by increased RII α and RII β and their phosphorylation (Figure 4.4), and C β , C γ and Prkx catalytic subunits (Figure 4.6). However, *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice developed not only bone lesions, but also pituitary and thyroid adenoma as well as spleen peliosis that developed in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} littermates, suggesting that 50% reduction of RII β , predicted by haploinsufficiency, do not exhibit protective effects against *Prkar1a* haploinsufficiency-induced tumor development. The present study on these two double heterozygous mouse models demonstrates that tissues are sensitive to changes in the type of PKA signaling, which is due to unbalanced type I and type II regulatory subunits.

7.1 R1 α and C α haploinsufficiency leads to the increased formation of PKA-II isozyme

Previous studies have demonstrated that R1 α competes less effectively than RII α and RII β in the formation of the holoenzyme (62, 63) and an increase in type-II regulatory subunits in mouse cells displaces R1 α from the holoenzyme (165), suggesting that PKA-I is most sensitive to changes in different PKA subunits, in particular C α protein. Thus, even a modest decrease in PKA-I leads

to an “amplification” effect on the type of PKA holoenzyme. These data explain why in tissues of both the *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice and the *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice, which have 50% reduction of R1 α predicted by *Prkar1a* haploinsufficiency, there is an increase in PKA-II. In the *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice, with C α haploinsufficiency in addition to R1 α haploinsufficiency, there is an even further decrease of PKA-I (Figure 4.4), because (i) R1 α haploinsufficiency leads to compensatory increases in protein levels of both RII α and RII β , as we and others have demonstrated elsewhere (57, 58, 135, 166); and (ii) less C α leads to less R1 α protein which is rapidly degraded when free (167, 168), unlike free RII α and RII β that are more stable (169). Studies from both *Prkaca*^{-/-} mice (62) and fruit flies with dominant negative mutations of the catalytic subunit (170) have also demonstrated that absence of C α results in elevated levels of type-II regulatory subunits. Indeed, the total amount of free C α subunit determines the type of PKA-holoenzyme in normal cells: it leads first to the formation of PKA-II and then, when C α levels exceed RII subunits levels, PKA-I forms (165, 171). Thus, in cells with lower R1 α and C α levels, PKA-II formation would be favored.

7.2 Alternate use of PKA catalytic subunits β , γ and Prkx contribute to dysregulated cAMP-dependant PKA signaling in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice

Besides the change in the type of PKA, C α haploinsufficiency in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} (compared to *Prkar1a*^{+/-}) mice led to an increase in the relative ratio of

other catalytic subunits. Since these catalytic subunits have different properties towards substrate and regulatory subunits binding as well as protein kinase inhibitor (PKI), alternate expression and use of a particular catalytic subunit would lead to an uncontrolled cAMP-dependent PKA signaling.

The $C\alpha$ gene encodes two splice variants, $C\alpha 1$ which expresses in all tissues and $C\alpha 2$ which is limited to male germ cells (172, 173), in mouse (173), human (174) and sheep (175); the $Prkaca^{-/-}$ allele affects both (62).

The gene coding for the $C\beta$ catalytic subunit encodes for three splice variants, $C\beta 1$, $C\beta 2$ and $C\beta 3$; $C\beta 1$ is ubiquitously expressed, whereas the $C\beta 2$ and $C\beta 3$ variants are specific for neural tissues (62, 63). In most tissues and under normal circumstances, $C\beta 1$ contributes less than 27% of the total PKA activity (176). However, in $Prkaca^{-/-}$ mice $C\beta 1$ can be upregulated by as much as 4-fold (62). Despite the fact that $C\alpha$ and $C\beta 1$ isoforms are 91% identical at the protein sequence (177), $C\beta 1$ has a 3.5 fold higher K_m for specific substrates and 3 fold higher IC_{50} for inhibition by protein kinase inhibitor (PKI) and for binding to $R_{II}\alpha$ than does $C\alpha$ (53, 54). These data point to the preferential formation of PKA-II holoenzyme with $C\beta 1$, but not $C\alpha$, as the catalytic subunit which is more sensitive to cAMP, less inhibited by PKI and an overall more potent cAMP-signaling mediator (64, 178). Accordingly, $Prkacb^{-/-}$ mice showed a generally lower basal kinase activity than WT mice, despite the compensatory upregulation of $C\alpha$ (64). Therefore, in $Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}$ mice, having high expression of $C\beta 1$

and RII subunits favors the formation of PKA-II with the use of C β 1 catalytic subunits over the others, and leads to increased PKA signaling.

The C α and C γ isoforms share 83% of their protein sequence (179) but, they have quite different properties: although generally C α is a more potent cAMP mediator than C γ (in terms of target promoter activity) (180), C γ is not inhibited by the endogenous PKI, has lower affinity for the regulatory subunits than C α , and phosphorylates histone better than kemptide (179, 181), pointing to the regulation of a different set of cAMP-responsive genes (180).

Finally, Prkx, the X-linked PKA catalytic subunit encoded by the mouse *Pkare* gene, has 50.2% homology with C α and even less with C β and C γ (182), but is expressed in most tissues and is a significant regulator of PKA-I (183). Prkx binds *only* to PKA-I, since *in vitro* experiments showed that 25-fold excess of RII α is needed to inhibit Prkx activity by 40% (184). It is 20-fold weaker than C α in phosphorylating kemptide (182, 184) but it phosphorylates the type-II regulatory subunits in a cAMP-independent manner (184). Phosphorylation of PKA regulatory subunits is an important regulator of overall PKA activity (185). Although both R1 α and the RII subunits are phosphorylated, the phosphorylation of R1 α has no clear biological effects (186). Phosphorylation of RII α , however, reduces its affinity for the C α and increases its association with A-kinase anchoring proteins (AKAPs) (185, 187), and has other effects on PKA-II localization and role in the cell cycle (188). Thus, in *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice, with

reduction in R1 α subunits, Prkx activity is not inhibited leading to an increase in phosphorylation of RII subunits and, finally, PKA-II activity.

In summary, haploinsufficiency of R1 α and C α favors i) the formation of PKA-II that has a higher affinity to specific A-kinase anchoring proteins (AKAPs) than PKA-I to achieve subcellular compartmentalization (189, 190) and dissociate completely upon cAMP binding (191); ii) the alternate use of other catalytic subunits, C β 1, C γ and Prkx, leading to increased and dysregulated cAMP-dependent PKA-II signaling in specific cAMP-responsive cell type and tissues., i.e. in this case, a specific population of bone cells in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice.

7.3 Involvement of RII α subunit in the development of tumors in cAMP-responsive tissues under R1 α and RII β haploinsufficiency

Our study on *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice support the hypothesis that deficiency of *prkar1a* leads to dysregulated PKA activity, which is associated with PKA-II up-regulation. Studies in mouse model with *prkar1a* haploinsufficiency (57, 136, 138) and in human *PRKAR1A*-haploinsufficient cell lines showed that this PKA-II up-regulation was associated with increased RII β expression, resulting in increased growth and cell cycle abnormalities (139, 158, 192). Accordingly, one would predict that *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice, with RII β haploinsufficiency in addition to R1 α haploinsufficiency, would have less or

delayed tumor formation (compared to *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice) due to both decreased PKA-I and PKA-II. However, this is not the case. *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice developed almost the same type of tumors as in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} mice and at similar frequency and time of onset. Here, several previous findings are worthy of discussion. Studies on *Prkar2b*^{-/-} mice showed a dramatic compensation by R1 α via protein stabilization in a holoenzyme complex with catalytic subunits, protecting the cells from dysregulated PKA activity (61, 135). Its significance lies in the idea that R1 α acts as a universal buffer against unregulated PKA activity (166). In *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice, however, due to R1 α haploinsufficiency, less R1 α proteins were present to inhibit the action of free catalytic subunits even there was no competition with RII β , leading to uncontrolled PKA activity by free catalytic subunits and thereby, tumor formation. Furthermore, loss of R1 α in *Prkar1a*^{-/-} embryo showed an up-regulation of RII α , which was responsible for the increased PKA-II activity (58); And compensation by RII α has been observed in the brain of *Prkar2b*^{-/-} mice (193), suggesting the possible role of RII α in unregulated PKA activity under RII β and R1 α haploinsufficiency. However, the mechanism of tumorigenesis in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-} mice requires further investigation.

Furthermore, preliminary data showed that 9-month old *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-}, a triple heterozygous mouse model, developed fibro-osseous lesions, sacrum osteomyxoma and spinal chondrosarcoma (Fig. 7.1), indicating that lack of *Prkar1a*, *Prkar2b* and *Prkaca* did not abrogate the bone tumor

formation. Again, this data further supports the possible role of RII α or alternate use of catalytic subunits in unregulated PKA activity and tumorigenesis.

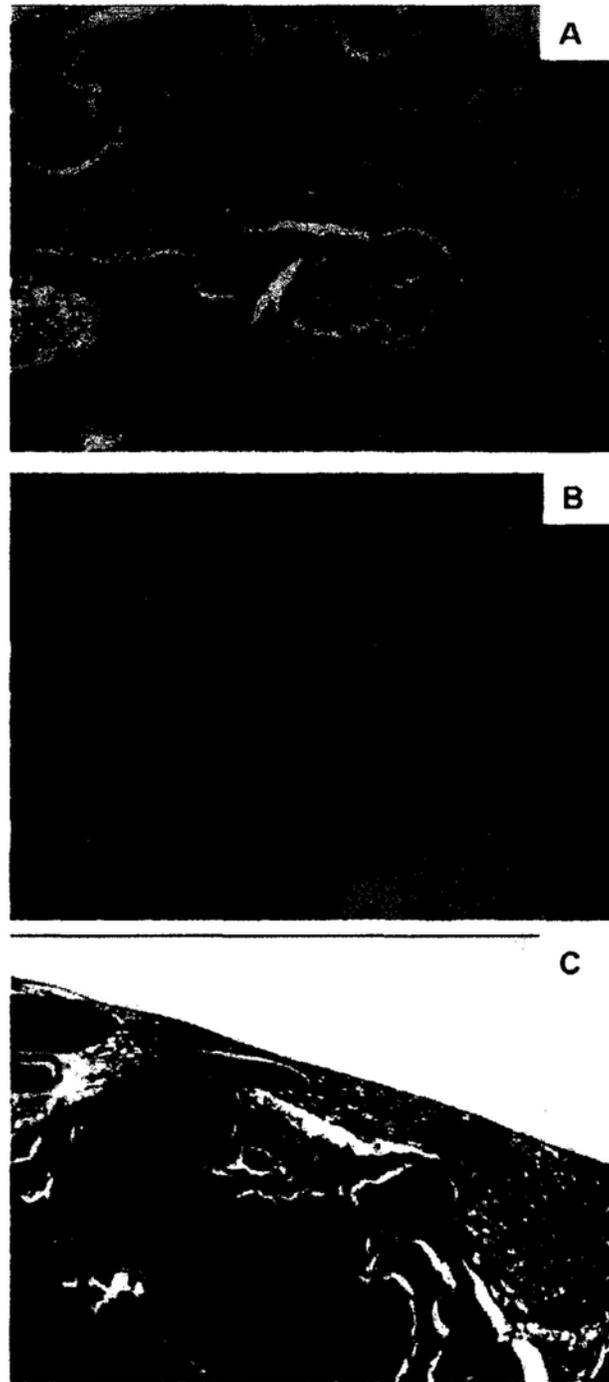


Figure 7.1 Bone lesions in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse. (A) H&E staining of the longitudinal section of caudal vertebrae from 9 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse, showing fibroosseous lesion. (original magnification 10x). (B) H&E staining of section of sarcum from 9 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse, showing osteomyxoma. (original magnification 20x). (C) H&E staining of section of vertebral body from 9 month-old *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkar2b*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mouse, showing chondrosarcoma. (original magnification 20x).

7.4 Increased PKA-II activity under moderate rise of cAMP levels leads to unabated recruitment of bone stromal cells (BSCs) in *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice

cAMP is an important second messenger for intracellular signal transduction. It has been known for years that cAMP, generated by activating adenylate cyclases (ACs) through the action of stimulatory G-alpha protein (Gs_{α}) in response to parathyroid hormone (PTH) or PTH-related protein (PTHrP), have different effects on bone development and physiology (77, 194, 195). Both PTH and PTHrP act through their G-protein coupled receptor (GPCR), the PTH/PTHrP receptor (PTHR1 coded by the *Pthr1* gene) which are expressed primarily on osteoblasts (195-198) and pre-hypertrophic chondrocytes (80). As described in the introduction, PTHrP activates and maintains the proliferating properties of chondrocytes. It also involves in PTHrP-IHH negative feedback loop to determine the precise site at which the proliferation of chondrocytes stop. In *Pthrp^{-/-}* and *Pthr1^{-/-}* mice, chondrocytes exhibited accelerated differentiation, resulting in shortened columns of proliferating chondrocytes (199, 200). PTH is secreted from the parathyroid glands in response to changes in serum calcium levels (201, 202), indirectly activating osteoclasts that results in bone resorption (195, 203).

Gs_{α} is the primary mediator of the actions of PTHR1 on chondrocytes (204, 205). Activation of Gs_{α} leads to fibrous dysplasia (FD) in human (146) and mice (145), a disease affecting bone stromal cells (BSCs) (147, 162). FD is

characterized by an expansion of osteoprogenitor cells, i.e. BSCs committing osteogenic lineage, within the marrow cavity in response to overproduction of cAMP, resulting in the development of fibrotic areas (146). The local enrichment of these osteoprogenitor cells is shown to be associated with increased expression of c-fos (206). High levels of cAMP, generated by overstimulation of ACs by the mutated Gs_{α} , results in Sharpey fiber bone and osteoblast retraction (207). It has also been suggested that formation of abnormal bone in FD is associated with the late response of mature osteoblasts to increased cAMP, resulting in abnormal patterns of osteoblast-matrix interaction (207).

These studies demonstrated that any abnormalities upstream of cAMP production results in bone abnormalities, pointing to the important role of cAMP level in bone development, in particular, the proliferation and differentiation of specific bone cells, i.e. proliferating chondrocytes in *Pthrp*^{-/-} and *Pthr1*^{-/-} mice and BSCs in FD.

The present study showed that the abnormalities of PKA subunits, a downstream effector of cAMP signaling, could also lead to bone abnormalities characterized by uncontrolled proliferation of BSCs which commits to osteogenic lineage (identities of the cells was confirmed by FASC study, Figure 5.1 and 5.6). These PKA abnormalities were enhanced in the bone of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice by modest rise of cAMP levels which were due to increased expression of ACs *Adcy1*, *Adcy6* and *Adcy9* (Figure 4.3), despite the concurrent increased expression of PDEs, such as *Pde11a* and *Pde4d* (Figure 4.2). Indeed, *in vitro* studies have shown that cAMP-specific Pdes (*Pde4* in particular) can be

phosphorylated and activated by PKA in rat thyroid follicular cells (208), mouse Leydig tumor cells (209), and cardiac myocytes (210). A recent study showed expression of PDE7A in human BSCs (160), but we could not document high levels of Pde7a expression in *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mouse bone cells (Figure 4.2). The expression of ACs and PDEs are important because they determine cAMP levels, which in turn play an important role in determining PKA responses. High cAMP levels, in *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice, not only led to increased PKA activity, but also increase significantly the transcription of all regulatory and catalytic subunits. However, R1 α and C α mRNA induction does not exceed 2- to 4-fold over baseline, whereas, in response to cAMP, RII β levels rise by 40-fold (211, 212). In short, haploinsufficiency of R1 α and C α leads to increased AC activity and by which increased cAMP level, resulting in, again, the up-regulation and preferential formation of PKA-II and its activity.

These data converge in the following hypothesis supported by our present findings and previous reports on R1 α -haploinsufficiency-related bone abnormalities in mice and humans with CNC (48, 57, 144): In bone, PKA activation, through increasing cAMP production either by PTHRP, PTHR1, Gs α (62, 77, 80, 145, 147, 204, 205, 213-215), or deficient inhibitory control of the catalytic subunit C α , leads to excess PKA-II and in turn, unabated recruitment of BSCs from the pool of bone marrow stem cells. These cells are unable to follow the regular process of maturation to hypertrophic chondrocytes or mature osteoblasts and develop a matrix that is irregular and undermineralized (Figure 3.13).

7.5 Increased osteoclastic activity in bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice

Besides activation of osteoprogenitor cells, osteoclastic function is also increased in FD which results from overexpression of IL-6 under excess stimulation by cAMP (216). It has been shown that overexpression of Runx2 and treatment with biologically active form of vitamin D₃ in cells of osteoblastic lineage has positive effect on osteoclast differentiation through the expression of receptor activator of NF-κB ligand (RANKL) (217, 218), an important factor for osteoclast differentiation (203). Other studies have also suggested a linkage between cAMP/PKA signaling and RANKL expression in osteoblasts (219) and human mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) (220). Our studies supported the role of increased PKA signaling, mainly by PKA-II, in inducing osteoclast activity via regulating osteoblast-dependent Runx2 expression and IL-6 expression, since both genes were up-regulated in bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice. cAMP and PKA also have osteoblast-independent effects on osteoclasts (220, 221), also mainly due to PKA-II (220, 222). Although some morphologically abnormal osteocytes were observed in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice, there was no abnormality in phosphate homeostasis and *Fgf23* expression, a molecule that is secreted mainly by osteocytes in bone (223, 224) and dysregulated in FD (225).

7.6 Differences between bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} and FD

Despite the similarities noted above, there are some important differences between bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} and FD. First, the defects that we saw in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice developed postnatally, starting well after 3 months and peaking between 6 and 9 months of age. In human FD, lesions are present in toddlerhood and peak in late childhood and young adulthood (145, 146). In fact, in older patients with FD, normal bone histology can be seen, apparently due to apoptosis of the mutant Gs_α-bearing BSCs (226). Second, in both humans (146) and mice (145) with FD, the disease is caused by a post-zygotic defect; all bones are chimeras of normal and abnormal Gs_α, which creates a totally different tissue microenvironment. In *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice, as well as humans with CNC, the defect is in the germline and the mutant allele is present in all cells (48, 57, 144).

7.7 Identity of BSCs in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice

PKA defects appear to affect specific areas that are characterized by high amount of metabolically active trabecular bone and residual cartilage (such as adult mouse vertebrae) or have a high natural population of pre-chondrocytes (i.e. tibia). It is of note that the earliest lesion in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice was a tibial chondroma (Figure 3.6); in humans with CNC, humerus and tibia are the most frequently affected long bones, too (48). The particular susceptibility of the

mouse tibia to cAMP signaling defects is also further supported by the development of ectopic cartilage in tibia of chondrocyte-specific knockout mouse model of *Gnas* (205).

Thus, PKA defects reveal a particular population of adult stromal cells, aBSCs that reside in specific regions of the skeleton. These are probably the same stromal cells that i) respond to intermittent PTH in mouse vertebrae, ii) found in abundance among the trabeculae of transgenic mice with constitutively active PTHR1 expression in osteoblastic cells (a model of Jansen metaphyseal chondrodysplasia) (227), and iii) accumulated in the tibiae of a similar mouse model with PTHR1 overexpression (228). These are also most likely the same cells that were recently identified in adult mice after tamoxifen-induced deletion of *Smoothened* (*Smo*) (229), the indispensable factor for *Ihh* and *Sonic hedgehog* (*Shh*) signaling (230). In that study, too, these osteogenic cells were located between trabecular bone and proximal to the growth plate (229).

7.8 Molecular signature of aBSCs with PKA defects

The identified stromal cells expressed alkaline phosphatase (*Alp1*) (Table 5.1), osteocalcin (Figure 5.3), *cFos* (Figure 5.7), as in FD (206), collagen I, matrix metalloproteinases (MMP), MMP9 and MMP10 in particular, and other known markers of bone development. However, there were some significant differences between *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} cells (Table 5.1). *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} cells were closer to chondrocytes than osteocytes in their gene signature. They

expressed less alkaline phosphatase (*Alp1*) and bone morphogenetic protein-2 (*Bmp2*), but expressed more i) Collagen 11 (*Col11a1*), the gene mutated in the chondrodysplastic (*cho*) mouse (231) and in Stickler and Marshall syndromes (232), ii) enamel, iii) fibroblast growth factor receptor 2 (*Fgfr2*), iv) *Bmp4*, and v) Smad 1. The latter molecules pointed to a gene signature of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} cells that is closer to that of cells involved in ectopic ossification in fibrodysplasia ossificans progressiva (FOP) (233): overexpression of BMP4 (234) and SMAD1 (235) is seen in human cells from this condition. Furthermore, proximal chondromas in the tibia [the long bone most affected in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice, in humans with CNC (48), and in a chondrocyte-specific knockout mouse model of *Gnas* (205)] occur in more than 90% of patients with FOP (236). It is thus conceivable that the aBSCs identified in the bone of *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} mice are as pluripotential as those progenitor cells that contribute to ectopic bone formation after activation of inflammation in FOP (237).

7.9 Induction of Wnt signaling by PKA-II leads to MET

Prkar1a^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} cells also showed, as in other settings of R1 α defects (238, 239) in humans and mice, induction of *Wnt*-signaling genes (Table 5.3), including β -catenin and *brachyury*, and had a molecular signature consistent with mesenchymal-to-epithelial transition (MET) (Table 5.2), that has also been seen in complete R1 α loss (240). The increased expression of *brachyury* (Figure 5.7) in *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} vs. *Prkar1a*^{+/-} cells (Table 5.3) is of particular importance.

Brachyury (the product of the *T* gene) regulates *Wnt*-signaling in posterior mesoderm formation in all vertebrates by inducing *wnt8* and *wnt3a* (they also increased in *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* cells, Table 5.3) (241). Increased expression of *brachyury* is seen in familial chondroma (242) , and it is a marker along with cytokeratin for skull base, extra-axial skeletal and soft tissue chordomas, distinguishing them from mixed tumors and chondrosarcomas (243, 244). Increased expression of brachyury in *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* cells may be due to the overall increased *Wnt*-signaling or it could also be a marker of the particular subpopulation of aBSCs that was identified in this study, since it can stain chondroblastomas in the metaphyseal cortex of the tibia (245).

Chapter Eight

Conclusion and Future prospects

8.1 Conclusion

In conclusion, genetic manipulation of the PKA pathway in mice revealed a particular population of aBSCs that are responsive to cAMP signaling mediated mainly by PKA-II and alternate PKA catalytic subunits. It has only been recently recognized that stromal or mesenchymal cells respond to cAMP *in vitro* (147, 162, 246); it was also shown that BSCs need proximity to cartilage for growth, proliferation and differentiation (247), and for settlement when they repopulate bone marrow (248). Our study extends these observations *in vivo*, showing where exactly aBSCs reside in the adult mouse skeleton and what makes them proliferate. The discovery of an alternate PKA activity as a factor that develops aBSCs had not been recognized earlier. These data may help in growing these cells *ex vivo* and explain some of the inconsistencies noted by investigators on cAMP signaling and growth of mesenchymal cells (221, 246, 248-250). The present data are also helpful in understanding better the process of malignant transformation that BSCs and other pluripotential cells are at risk for (251). Finally, our study provides the first mouse model of an FD-like condition caused by a germline defect.

8.2 Future prospects

Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-} mouse provides an excellent mouse model on studying the role of dysregulated PKA activity and cAMP signaling in aBSCs. However, the responsible type II regulatory (RII α or RII β) subunits and catalytic subunits in increased PKA activity as well as the stimulants in cAMP production are still unknown. Preliminary data showed that *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkar2b^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkar2b^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice also developed bone lesions. By comparing these lesions with those from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mice would provide a more comprehensive explanation on tumorigenesis, i.e. uncontrolled proliferation of aBSCs, led by dysregulated PKA signaling.

Moreover, the bone lesions from *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* mouse resembled FD, which is caused by Gs α activation, in human and mouse. It would be interesting to study the *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* animal in the background of *gnas* haploinsufficiency (*Gnas^{+/-}*). Combining the data from the present study and previous studies on FD, we would predict reduction of *gnas* would lead to decreased cAMP production and thus, abrogate most if not all of the bone lesions that developed in *Prkar1a^{+/-}* and *Prkar1a^{+/-}Prkaca^{+/-}* animals.

The present study demonstrated that activation of ACs led to the increased production of cAMP, which in turn led to increased PKA-II activity under *prkar1a* and *prkaca* haploinsufficiency. However, the mechanism remains to be investigated. We speculated that increased signaling via prostaglandin E2 receptor (EP₂) and/or leucine-rich repeat-containing G protein-coupled receptor

(Lgr5), which are G protein-coupled receptors, may activate Gs α , driving excess cAMP production. It would be necessary to measure the expression level of prostaglandin E2 (Pge2), EP₂ and Lgr5 in the bone lesions from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} animals. Moreover, both *Pge2* and *Lgr5* are linked to Wnt-signaling pathway, which was upregulated under *prkr1a* haploinsufficiency. Based on these studies, one would predict that activation of Wnt signaling in *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} animals would lead to increased expression of *Pge2* and *Lgr5*, finally generating excess cAMP and leading to increased PKA activity. In order to proof this hypothesis, we should study the effects of activation of Wnt signaling, for instance by overexpressing β -catenin, in bone stromal cell line on the expression levels of *Pge2*, EP₂ and *Lgr5* as well as basal cAMP production. In long run, it would be interesting to study the *Prkar1a*^{+/-} and *Prkar1a*^{+/-}*Prkaca*^{+/-} animals in the background of *Lgr5* haploinsufficiency (*Lgr5*^{+/-}).

This study also showed that PKA-II was activated in bone from *Prkar1a*^{+/-} *Prkaca*^{+/-} animals. To validate the effects of PKA-II on aBSCs proliferation and differentiation, *prkar2a* and *prkar2b* stable transfected bone stromal cell lines should be used for further study. Expression of different bone markers, PKA activity, cAMP level and proliferation rate should be investigated in these cell lines.

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