



## SPATIOTEMPORAL AND FUNCTIONAL CHARACTERISATION OF TRANSIENT RECEPTOR POTENTIAL VANILLOID 4 (TRPV4) IN THE MURINE INTERVERTEBRAL DISC

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#### Abstract

The molecular regulators of mechano-transduction in intervertebral disc (IVD) cells are not well understood. The aim of the present study was to characterise the expression and function of the mechano-sensitive ion channel TRPV4 in the IVD. A novel transgenic reporter mouse, in which the endogenous Trpv4 locus drove the expression of LacZ, was used to localise *Trpv4* expression at specific stages of spine development [embryonic day (E) 8.5, 12.5, 17.5, postnatal day 1] and time points following skeletal maturity (2.5, 6, 9 and 12 months). The TRPV4-specific agonist GSK1016790A and antagonist GSK2193874 were used to assess the functional response of annulus fibrosus (AF) cells using epifluorescence imaging with Ca<sup>2+</sup>-sensitive Fura-2 dye and F-actin staining. The effects of TRPV4 agonism and antagonism in mechanically stimulated AF cells were quantified by gene expression analysis. Trpv4 expression was specific to the developing notochord and intervertebral mesenchyme at E12.5. At 2.5, 6 and 9 months, Trpv4 expression was detected in the nucleus pulposus, inner AF, cartilage endplate and vertebral growth plate. AF cells treated with GSK1016790A demonstrated heterogeneity in TRPV4-dependent Ca2+ responses (no response, calcium oscillation or sustained response). TRPV4-induced Ca2+ signalling was associated with Rho/ROCK-dependent actin cytoskeleton remodelling and stress-fibre formation. In AF cells, cyclic-tensile-strain-induced changes in Acan and Prg4 expression were mediated by TRPV4 channel activation. These data establish TRPV4 as an important mechanosensor regulating IVD mechano-biology.

**Keywords**: Intervertebral disc, transient receptor potential vanilloid 4, mechano-transduction, nucleus pulposus, annulus fibrosus, cyclic tensile strain.

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	List of Abbreviations	<i>Cxcl1</i> DAPI	chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole
Acan	aggrecan	DMEM/F12	Dulbecco's-modified Eagle medium/
Acta2	actin α2		Ham's F-12 medium
ADAMTS4	a disintegrin and metalloproteinase	DMSO	dimethyl sulphoxide
	with thrombospondin motifs 4	ECM	extracellular matrix
AF	annulus fibrosus	EGTA	ethylene glycol-bis(β-aminoethyl
AKT	protein kinase B		ether)-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid
BSA	bovine serum albumin	ERK1/2	extracellular-signal-regulated kinase
CaMKII	Ca <sup>2+</sup> /calmodulin-dependent protein		1/2
	kinase II	Fap	fibroblast activation protein $\alpha$
Cilp	cartilage intermediate layer protein	FBS	foetal bovine serum
Col1a1	type I collagen	FRT	flippase recognition target
Col2a1	type II collagen	Gdf10	growth differentiation factor 10
CTS	cyclic tensile strain	IAF	inner AF

IVD	intervertebral disc	0
JNK1/2	Jun N-terminal kinase1/2	ľ
HEPES	4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-	I
	piperazineethanesulphonic acid	a
Hprt	hypoxanthine quinine	1
	phosphoribosyl transferase	t
Mip1a	macrophage inflammatory protein	(
	1α	ā
MMPs	matrix metalloproteinases	(
NP	nucleus pulposus	(
р27 <sup>Кір1</sup>	cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 1B	(
Pax1	paired box 1	1
PBS	phosphate-buffered saline	5
Pgc1a	peroxisome proliferator-activated	
	receptor gamma coactivator $1\alpha$	1
PN	postanal	i
Prg4	lubricin	(
RGD	Arg-Gly-Asp	t
ROCK	Rho-associated protein kinase	1
ROI	region of interest	6
TAZ	PDZ-binding motif	t
TRPV4	transient receptor potential vanilloid	t
4		e
WT	wild type	2

YAP Yes-associated protein

#### Introduction

Low-back pain, one of the leading causes of disability worldwide (James et al., 2017), is often associated with IVD degeneration (Arnbak et al., 2016). The lack of disease-modifying treatments for IVD degeneration is associated with an incomplete understanding of the cellular pathways that contribute to disc development, function and degeneration. The IVD is a fibrocartilaginous connective tissue structure located between the vertebral bodies responsible for spine load bearing and movement. IVDs are composite structures consisting of distinct tissue types that work in concert to absorb and dissipate mechanical load throughout the spine. During axial load, the central NP, due to its high water content, experiences compressive and hydrostatic loading, creating an intradiscal pressure that deforms the outer AF, which in turn experiences multi-directional tensile strain (Adams et al., 1996; Gregory and Callaghan, 2011; Neidlinger-Wilke et al., 2014; Shirazi-Adl et al., 1984).

Similar to other musculoskeletal tissues, biomechanical factors are important contributors to the IVD microenvironment and play a role in both tissue homeostasis and initiation of disc degeneration (Gawri et al., 2014a; Iatridis et al., 2006; Setton and Chen, 2004; Videman and Nurminen, 1990). Specifically, physiological levels of mechanical load produce an anabolic response in the IVD marked by increased expression of ECM genes, such as aggrecan and collagen, and decreased expression of catabolic enzymes, such as MMPs (Chan *et al.,* 2011; Neidlinger-Wilke et al., 2005; Walsh and Lotz, 2004; Wuertz et al., 2007b; Wuertz et al., 2009). In contrast, aberrant mechanical loading (either under- or overoading) can contribute to altered ECM homeostasis hrough the initiation of tissue degeneration Gawri et al., 2014b; Iatridis et al., 2006; Videman and Nurminen, 1990). Despite numerous studies characterising the effects of mechanical stimulation on IVD tissues, information regarding the mediators of IVD mechano-transduction -i.e. how cells sense mechanical forces and convert them into biochemical signals – remains limited.

Previous reports on the mechano-sensing mechanism in AF cells have focused on the role of integrins as mechano-receptors. Expression profiling of integrin subunits in the human IVD shows tissuetype and regional variation in their expression pattern. Notably, the RGD-integrin  $\alpha 5\beta 1$  is highly expressed in human NP and IAF cells, compared to the outer AF (Nettles et al., 2004), and mediates the cellular response to mechanical loading (Gilbert et al., 2013; Kurakawa et al., 2015; Le Maitre et al., 2009). Exposure of non-degenerate human NP cells to compressive load (0.35-0.95 MPa, 1 Hz for 2 h) decreases Acan expression, which is inhibited by cell pre-treatment with an RGD peptide to block integrin ligand binding. However, this effect is not detected in NP cells derived from degenerative human IVDs (Le Maitre et al., 2009). In non-degenerate human AF cells exposed to CTS (10 % tension, 1.0 Hz for 20 min) pre-treatment with RGD peptide prevents the mechanically induced decrease in ADAMTS4 expression and increases focal adhesion kinase phosphorylation. Similar to NP cells, the RGD pretreatment fails to inhibit the mechano-response in degenerate AF cells (Gilbert et al., 2013). These findings suggest that IVD mechano-transduction pathways and effectors of mechano-response vary depending on cell type and degenerative state. To date, however, the role and expression pattern of other mechano-receptors in the IVD have not been fully elucidated.

The TRPV4 channel is a multi-modally activated Ca<sup>2+</sup>-permeable non-selective cation channel involved in transducing various environmental cues into specific cellular responses by generating intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients (Strotmann *et al.*, 2000; Watanabe *et* al., 2003). In mammals, TRPV4 was first reported to regulate cellular functions in response to changes in osmolarity in murine heart, liver and kidney (Liedtke et al., 2000; Liedtke and Kim, 2005; Strotmann et al., 2000). In porcine chondrocytes, chemical and mechanical activation of TRPV4 regulates the expression of type II collagen and transforming growth factor  $\beta$ 3 genes (O'Conor *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, studies using mice with global deletion of Trpv4 showed that mechanically regulated bone formation and resorption (Mizoguchi et al., 2008) as well as mechanically induced intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup>



oscillation in osteoblasts are also TRPV4-dependent (Suzuki *et al.,* 2013).

Recent studies have identified candidate signalling pathways downstream of TRPV4 activation. In murine epidermal keratinocytes, Trpv4 deletion inhibits matrix stiffness-induced nuclear translocation of YAP and transcriptional coactivator TAZ as well as phosphorylation of AKT, pathways known to regulate epithelial-mesenchymal transition (Sharma et al., 2019). TRPV4-mediated activation of AKT has also been reported to control cell proliferation in human breast cancer cells by driving cytoplasmic localisation of the cell cycle inhibitor p27<sup>kip1</sup>, leading to S phase entry (Nam et al., 2019). In murine 3T3-F442A adipocytes, TRPV4 activation induces phosphorylation of ERK1/2 as well as JNK1/2 and TRPV4-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation is necessary for TRPV4-mediated regulation of Pgc1a, *Mip1a* and *Cxcl1* expression (Ye *et al.*, 2012). In addition, pharmacological activation of TRPV4 in osteoblasts increases phosphorylation of CaMKII in a differentiation-dependent manner associated with increased expression of TRPV4 during osteoblastic differentiation (Hu et al., 2019). Collectively, these studies provide evidence for TRPV4 being an important regulator of cellular processes, mediating intracellular signalling pathways in a cell-type- and context-dependent manner.

Using a bovine *ex vivo* IVD organ culture model, Walter *et al.* (2016) showed that reduced tissue osmolarity increases TRPV4 protein expression and channel activation, which correlates with increased interleukin-1 $\beta$  and interleukin-6 gene expression in IVD cells . Furthermore, Kim *et al.* (2020) showed increased *Trpv4* expression in murine AF cells following acute exposure to CTS (6 % tension, 2.0 Hz for 30 min). However, the *in situ* expression pattern of TRPV4 and its role in transducing and regulating the IVD mechano-response is unclear.

The goal of the present study was to characterise the expression and function of TRPV4 in murine IVD. Using a novel *Trpv4* reporter mouse model, the study resolved the spatiotemporal expression profile of *Trpv4* during murine embryonic spine development and ageing. Using both pharmacological and mechanical assays, the role of TRPV4 in AF cells was studied through the *in vitro* assessment of intracellular calcium response, cytoskeletal adaptation and changes in gene expression.

#### Materials and Methods

#### Mice

All experiments were performed in accordance with the policies and guidelines of the Canadian Council on Animal Care and approved by the Animal Use Subcommittee of the University of Western Ontario (protocol 2017-154). The EUCOMM "knockoutfirst" gene trap strategy was used to generate

 $Trpv4^{tm1a(KOMP)Wtsi}$  mice. Embryonic stem cells with the *Trpv4*<sup>tm1a(KOMP)Wtsi</sup> allele from Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute (produced for the Knockout Mouse Project; MGI: 4460277) were injected into C57BL/6NCrl host blastocysts. The resultant chimaeric offspring contained the L1L2\_Bact\_P cassette inserted upstream of exon 6 in the Trpv4 locus. The cassette included 2 FRT sites flanking an IRES:LacZ trapping cassette and a floxed human  $\beta$ -actin-promoter-driven neo cassette inserted upstream, with an additional loxP site downstream of exon 6, the critical exon (Fig. 1a). *Trpv4*<sup>tm1a(KOMP)Wtsi</sup> embryos were treated with TATCre to remove the neomycin resistance cassette and exon 6, to generate the *Trpv4*<sup>tm1b(KOMP)Wtsi</sup> reporter mice, where the *Trpv4* locus drove *LacZ* expression (*Trpv4<sup>LacZ/LacZ</sup>*; Fig. 1a). Wild-type C57BL/6N mice (Charles River) were used for gene expression analysis and cell culture experiments. Mice were housed in standard cages under a 12 h light/dark cycle, with rodent chow and water available ad libitum. Mice were euthanised by CO<sub>2</sub> asphyxiation or by lethal injection of sodium pentobarbital.

For fate mapping experiments, male *Trpv4*<sup>LacZ/LacZ</sup> mice were mated with female wild-type C57BL/6N mice to generate *Trpv4*<sup>LacZ/WT</sup> mice. For timed mating, insemination was confirmed by the presence of vaginal sperm plug, which was counted as embryonic day (E) 0.5. Pregnant female mice were sacrificed at E8.5, E12.5 and E17.5 to harvest embryos. Thoracic, lumbar and caudal spines were isolated by dissection from mice 2.5, 6, 9 and 12 months old.

NP and AF tissues were isolated by microdissection from the lumbar and caudal spines of C57BL/6N mice 2.5, 6, 9 and 12 months old and immediately placed in TRIzol reagent (Life Technologies) for subsequent RNA extraction.

#### β-galactosidase staining

Embryos were fixed for 40 min (E < 10.5) or 1 h (E > 10.5) on ice in 2 % paraformaldehyde, 0.2 % glutaraldehyde, 0.02 % Igepal CA-630 in PBS. Embryos were washed in detergent rinse buffer (0.01 % sodium deoxycholate, 2 mmol/L MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.02 % Igepal CA-630) for 3 times 10 min each prior to overnight incubation at 37 °C under agitation (VWR Scientific, Sheldon Manufacturing, Orbital Shaking Incubator, model number 1575) in X-gal staining solution [1 mg/mL X-gal, 2 mmol/L MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 5 mmol/L EGTA, 0.02 % Igepal CA-630, 5 mmol/L  $K_3Fe(CN)_{6'}$  5 mmol/L  $K_4Fe(CN)_6$ ]. Then, embryos were washed 3 times in PBS (10 min each) and stored in PBS overnight to allow stain to develop. Embryos were imaged using a Leica M165FC stereomicroscope (Leica Microsystems Inc.) and the staining reaction was stopped by placing embryos in 4 % paraformaldehyde overnight at room temperature (post-fixed).

To visualise  $\beta$ -galactosidase staining in embryos > E10.5 (including PN day 1; PN1), a clearing step was performed as previously described (McCann *et al.*,



2012; Schatz *et al.*, 2005). Briefly, embryos were cleared using a series of solutions containing decreasing KOH and increasing glycerol concentrations (100 : 0, 80 : 20, 50 : 50, 20 : 80 and 0 : 100, respectively, for 3 d each) following post fixation.  $\beta$ -galactosidase staining of isolated thoracic, lumbar and caudal spinal segments was conducted as outlined above for mice > 2.5 months old. Following staining, tissues were decalcified using Shandon's TBD-2 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 5 d at room temperature under continuous agitation (VWR Analog Rocking Platform Shaker, 2 tier, 120V, model number NO10127-876).

#### Histology

For histological analysis, tissues were dehydrated in a graded series of ethanol, cleared in xylene and embedded in paraffin wax, as previously described (McCann et al., 2012). Paraffin-wax-embedded samples were sectioned sagittally at a thickness of 5 µm. Mid-sagittal sections of whole embryos and spinal regions of skeletally mature mice (thoracic, lumbar and caudal) were counterstained with Eosin Y (Sigma-Aldrich) and mounted using DAKO Faramount aqueous mounting medium (DAKO/ Agilent). Embryo sections were imaged using BioTek Cytation 5 Cell Imaging Multi-Mode Reader and BioTek Gen5 Microplate Reader and Imaging Software (BioTek, Winooski, VT, USA). Spine sections were imaged using a Leica DM1000 Microscope with Leica Application Suite Software.

#### Immunofluorescence

Heat-induced antigen retrieval was performed in sodium citrate buffer (10 mmol/L sodium citrate, 0.05 % Tween-20, pH 6.0) at 95 °C for 12 min and tissue sections were blocked for 1 h with 5 % goat serum in PBS containing 0.1 % Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich). Tissue sections were incubated with a primary antibody directed against  $\beta$ -galactosidase (1:500 in blocking solution; Abcam, ab616) in a humidified chamber overnight at 4 °C. The next day, slides were washed with PBS-0.1 % Triton X-100 and tissue sections were incubated with goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488 secondary antibody (1 : 500 in PBS; Thermo Fisher Scientific, A27034) for 1 h, washed 3 times in PBS, coverslipped using Fluoroshield Mounting Medium with DAPI (Abcam) and imaged using the BioTek Cytation 5.

#### Primary cell isolation and culture

AF tissues were isolated by microdissection from 2.5 months old C57BL/6N mice (cervical to caudal spines) using the Fluorescent Stereo Microscope Leica M165 FC. Isolated tissues were digested for 20 min at 37 °C using type II collagenase (3 mg/mL; Worthington Biochemical Corporation, Lakewood, NJ, USA) in DMEM/F12. Then, AF tissues were minced and further digested for 1 h at 37 °C. Tissue digests were filtered using a 70  $\mu$ m cell strainer and cells were pelleted by centrifugation (237 ×g for 5 min). Cells were plated at 37 °C and 5 % CO<sub>2</sub>

in a humidified atmosphere at an initial density of ~ 400,000 cells/cm<sup>2</sup> in DMEM/F12 supplemented with 10 % FBS and 1 % penicillin and streptomycin (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Medium was changed every 2 d until cells reached 80 % confluency.

All cell culture experiments were conducted using primary AF cells at passage 1. Cells were treated with the following compounds: TRPV4 antagonist GSK2193874 (Sigma-Aldrich), TRPV4 agonist GSK1016790A (Sigma-Aldrich) and pan ROCK inhibitor Y-27632 (STEMCELL Technologies, Vancouver, BC, Canada).

#### Live cell calcium imaging

Primary AF cells were passaged onto 14 mm glass bottom microwell dishes (MatTek, Fisher Scientific, NC9069930) at a density of ~ 5,000 cells/cm<sup>2</sup>, allowed to adhere for 2 h and cultured in DMEM/F12 containing 10 % FBS and 1 % penicillin/streptomycin for 24 h. On the day of the experiment, cells were incubated for 40 min at 37 °C, 5 % CO, with 2.5 µm calcium-sensitive Fura-2 (Fura-2, AM, Thermo Fisher Scientific, F1221) in culture medium. After loading, cells were rinsed once and medium was replaced with warm (37 °C) HEPES buffer containing 135 mmol/L NaCl, 5 mmol/L KCl, 1 mmol/L MgCl, 1 mmol/L CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 10 mmol/L D(+)-glucose, 20 mmol/L HEPES (buffer adjusted to 290 ± 5 mOsm/L and pH  $7.30 \pm 0.02$ ). Dishes were placed on a stage warmer (35 °C) mounted on a Nikon inverted microscope (Nikon Eclipse TE2000-U) and imaged using a Plan Fluor 40×/1.3 NA oil/water immersion objective. Cells were excited with alternating wavelengths of 345/380 nm using a DeltaRAM<sup>™</sup> X Illuminator (Horiba Photon Technology International Inc., Birmingham, NJ, USA) and the emission was acquired using a bandpass filter (510 ± 20 nm) (Kovac et al., 2008). Images were acquired every 5 s using a pco. edge 4.2 LTsCMOS camera (PCO AG, Kelheim, Germany) and EasyRatioPro 2.3 Software (Horiba Photon Technology International Inc.). For all calcium imaging experiments, the following protocol was used: 5 min incubation for baseline measurement, 10 min incubation following addition of either TRPV4 antagonist GSK2193874 (GSK219; 250 nmol/L) or vehicle control (0.1 % v/v DMSO diluted in HEPES buffer), followed by image acquisition for 20 min after addition of the TRPV4 agonist GSK1016790A (GSK 101; 100 nmol/L). Using this protocol, 420 images were acquired for each experiment. The ratiometric calcium measurements (345/380 nm ratio) were determined using a manually defined ROI corresponding to individual cells in the field of view (14-22 cells per experiment) and each experimental condition was repeated 3 times from different cell preparations established from different mice (3 biological replicates). In the vehicle + GSK101-treated group, the proportions of cells eliciting intracellular calcium response was quantified by categorising each cell (n = 67) into one of 3 groups according to changes in the 345/380 nm ratio upon TRPV4 activation: no



Gene	Forward $(5' \rightarrow 3')$	Reverse $(5' \rightarrow 3')$
Acan	CCTGCTACTTCATCGACCCC	AGATGCTGTTGACTCGAACCT
Col1a1	CTGGCGGTTCAGGTCCAAT	TCCAGGCAATCCAGGAGC
Col2a1	GCACATCTGGTTTGGAGAGACC	TAGCGGTGTTGGGAGCCA
Prg4	GGGTGGAAAATACTTCCCGTC	CAGGACAGCACTCCATGTAGT
Trpv4	TTCGTAGGGATCGTTGGTCCT	TACAGTGGGGGCATCGTCCGT

response (ratio 0.76-0.92), oscillation (ratio fluctuating above and below 1.0), sustained (ratio above 1.0).

## Cytoskeleton staining

Primary AF cells were seeded at a density of 48,000 cells/cm<sup>2</sup> onto a standard 35 mm dish and cultured for 2 d. Following expansion, AF cells were treated for 30 min with GSK 101 (10 nmol/L or 100 nmol/L) in culture medium to activate TRPV4. AF cells treated for 30 min with vehicle (0.1 % DMSO v/v diluted in culture medium) served as a control. Following acute TRPV4 activation, cells were fixed with 4 % paraformaldehyde for 10 min, permeabilised with 0.1 % Triton X-100 for 10 min at room temperature and blocked with BSA (in PBS) for 30 min. Alexa Fluor 488 Phalloidin (Life Technologies) was used to detect F-actin, according to manufacturer's protocol, and Hoeschst stain (Thermo Fisher) was used to visualise the nuclei. Images were acquired using a Leica DMI6000 inverted microscope and Leica Application Suite Software. For each of the 3 biological replicates, 3 non-overlapping ROIs were imaged for each treatment group.

To determine the role of ROCK signalling, AF cells were pre-treated with the pan ROCK inhibitor Y-27632 (10  $\mu$ m; STEMCELL Technologies) or vehicle (equal volume of sterile water) in culture medium for 24 h prior to 30 min incubation with 100 nmol/L GSK 101. Following acute exposure to TRPV4 agonist, cells were processed, stained for F-actin and imaged as described above.

## Mechanical stimulation

The MechanoCulture B1 device (CellScale Biomaterials Testing, Waterloo, ON, Canada) was used to deliver bi-axial multi-directional CTS to AF cell cultures, as previously described (Kim et al., 2020). Primary AF cells were seeded at a density of 48,000 cells/cm<sup>2</sup> onto FBS-coated silicone membranes and cultured for 2 d in culture medium. AF cells were exposed to 10 % CTS, at a sinusoidal frequency of 1.0 Hz for 30 min in the presence or absence of the TRPV4 antagonist GSK219 (250 nmol/L). To measure the direct effects of TRPV4 channel activation on AF cell gene expression, AF cells were treated with 100 nmol/L GSK101 for 30 min in the absence of CTS. AF cells cultured on FBS-coated silicone membranes treated with vehicle (0.1 % DMSO) in static culture served as timematched unloaded vehicle controls. After 30 min of treatment (CTS, CTS+GSK219 or GSK101 only), cells were incubated for an additional 6 h before harvesting for total RNA extraction. To limit the exposure of cells to the pharmacological TRPV4 modulators, following 30 min treatment, cells were rinsed, medium was replaced and cells were incubated for an additional 6 h before harvest.

## RNA extraction and gene expression analysis

Total RNA was extracted from NP and AF tissues harvested at 2.5, 6, 9 and 12 months (n = 3) as well as CTS-treated AF cells (n = 3) using Trizol reagent (Life Technologies), according to the manufacturer's protocol. RNA was quantified using a NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). cDNA was synthesised from 150 ng of RNA using the Bio-Rad iScript cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad). Gene expression was determined by SYBR-based real-time PCR using the Bio-Rad CFX384 thermocycler. PCR reactions were run in triplicate using 470 nmol/L forward and reverse primers (Table 1) and 2× SsoFast EvaGreen Supermix (Bio-Rad). The PCR program consisted of the following: initial 2 min enzyme activation at 95 °C; 10 s denaturation at 95 °C, 30 s annealing/elongation at 60 °C, for a total of 40 cycles. Trpv4 transcript levels in NP and AF tissues were quantified relative to a 6-point standard curve made from pooled cDNA generated from wild-type murine heart, brain, kidney and IVDs. For CTS experiments, gene expression was quantified using the  $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method, normalised to Hprt expression and expressed relative to time-matched unloaded controls.

## Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 8. qPCR analyses of IVD gene expression over time or in mechanically stimulated AF cells were assessed using two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test. qPCR analyses comparing GSK101-treated AF cells and vehicle control were assessed by two-tailed, unpaired *t*-test. p < 0.05 was considered statistically significant. For timed mating experiments, 3-5 embryos derived from 2 different litters were used at each time point. For ageing studies, 3-4 mice for each time points were used. In parallel, AF and NP tissues isolated from 3 wild type mice were used for characterising Trpv4 expression over time. All in vitro experiments had 3 independent cell preparations derived from different animals (3 biological replicates).





**Fig. 1. Generation of** *Trpv4*<sup>tm1b</sup> **reporter mouse and schematic overview of experimental workflow.** (a) EUCOMM "knock-out first" gene trap strategy used to generate the *Trpv4* reporter mouse. The L1L2\_Bact\_P cassette was inserted upstream of the critical exon (exon 6) in the *Trpv4* locus. The cassette included FRT site, *lacZ* sequence and a loxP site. The first loxP site was followed by a neomycin-resistance gene, a second FRT site and a second loxP site. A third loxP site was inserted downstream of the targeted exon 6. The resulting construct had exon 6 of *Trpv4* flanked by loxP sites (tm1a). The tm1a mice were Cre-excised to remove the neomycin-resistance cassette and exon 6, to generate reporter mice (tm1b), where the *Trpv4* locus drove the expression of the *LacZ* gene (*Trpv4*<sup>LacZ/LacZ</sup>). (b) Calcium traces of AF cells isolated from 2.5 month old WT and *Trpv4*<sup>LacZ/LacZ</sup> mice treated with the TRPV4 agonist GSK101 (100 nmol/L). After incubation with Fura-2, AF cells were imaged during 5 min of calibration, 10 min following administration of vehicle (0.1 % v/v DMSO) and then 20 min following administration of GKS101 (100 nmol/L). Calcium response induced by GSK101, indicative of TRPV4 activation, was detected in WT AF cells, but was absent in *Trpv4*<sup>LacZ/LacZ</sup> AF cells (*n* = 3 per genotype). (c) *Trpv4*<sup>LacZ/WT</sup> embryos at E8.5, E12.5, E17.5 and PN1 were harvested for fate mapping experiments. Mice 2.5, 6, 9, 12 months old were used to characterise *Trpv4* expression in the murine IVD over time.





**Fig. 2.** Localisation of *Trpv4*-expressing cells during mouse spinal development. (a) Representative images of *Trpv4*<sup>LacZ/WT</sup> mice at E8.5, E12.5, E17.5 and PN1. Embryos were cleared and X-gal stain was used to detect β-galactosidase activity. *Trpv4* expression, indicated by blue β-galactosidase staining (arrows), was not detected in embryos at E8.5, but was detected in the developing limb buds, structure of medulla oblongata and notochord at E12.5. At E17.5 and PN1, the cartilage primordium of mandible, limbs, ribs and spine were positive for β-galactosidase. (b) Midsagittal section of *Trpv4*<sup>LacZ/WT</sup> embryos at E12.5 either counterstained with eosin or assessed by immunofluorescence using β-galactosidase antibody (1 : 500). β-galactosidase activity was patchy in the notochord (NC) as well as the intervertebral mesenchyme (IM), but not at the pre-vertebrae (PV) region of the developing spine. (c,d) β-galactosidase was detected in primitive AF, NP and pre-vertebrae (PV) at both E17.5 and PN1 using both staining methods. Scale bar: 1 mm, *n* = 3-5 embryos/time point derived from at least 2 different litters.



## Results

## Loss of TRPV4 function in *Trpv4*<sup>LacZ/LacZ</sup> mice

The EUCOMM gene trap strategy used to generate *Trpv4*<sup>tm1b(KOMP)Wtsi</sup> reporter mice involved targeting the endogenous *Trpv4* locus with a *LacZ* reporter (Fig. 1a). To validate this mouse model, the calcium response was examined in primary AF cells from mice homozygous for the transgene insertion (Trpv4<sup>LacZ/</sup> LacZ) treated with the TRPV4 agonist GSK101. Acute stimulation of AF cells with GSK101 (100 nmol/L) elicited a rise in intracellular calcium in WT AF cells, but not in *Trpv4<sup>LacZ/LacZ</sup>* AF cells, confirming the absence of functional TRPV4 channel in the homozygous reporter mouse (Fig. 1b). Previous studies reported that mice with global knockout of *Trpv4* show accelerated osteoarthritis and increased bone mass due to impaired osteoclast activity (Clark et al., 2010; Masuyama et al., 2008). To avoid detrimental effects due to complete loss of TRPV4 function, all subsequent studies were conducted using *Trpv4*<sup>LacZ/WT</sup> reporter mice.

# Trpv4 was expressed in the notochord and primitive $\rm AF$

Using heterozygous reporter mice (Trpv4<sup>LacZ/</sup> WT), Trpv4 expression was localised during IVD development. At E8.5, no  $\beta$ -galactosidase staining was detected in embryos, suggesting that *Trpv4* is not expressed at early stages of notochord formation and elongation (Fig. 2a; E8.5). At E12.5,  $\beta$ -galactosidase expression indicative of *Trpv*4 expression, was detected in the developing limb buds, regions of alar plate of myelencephalon, primitive axial skeleton and notochord (Fig. 2a; E12.5). To better resolve  $\beta$ -galactosidase expression within the developing spine, stained embryos were sectioned for histological analysis. Consistent with the whole mount examination, patchy  $\beta$ -galactosidase staining was detected in the notochord at E12.5. In addition to the notochord, immunofluorescence staining for  $\beta$ -galactosidase demonstrated expression in regions of intervertebral mesenchyme, highlighting the metameric patterning between the developing IVD and prevertebral structure (Fig. 2b). At E17.5 and PN1, the cartilage primordium of mandible, limbs, ribs and spine showed  $\beta$ -galactosidase expression indicative of *Trpv4* expression (Fig. 2a). At both E17.5 and PN1,  $\beta$ -galactosidase expression was detected in cells of NP and AF as well as the developing bone (Fig. 2c,d).

# *Trpv4* expression in the IVD differed based on anatomical region, tissue type and age

In skeletally mature mice, Trpv4 expression was examined in midsagittal sections from the thoracic, lumbar and caudal spine. At 2.5 months,  $\beta$ -galactosidase expression, indicative of Trpv4expression, was detected in the lumbar spine in NP and IAF cells, using both  $\beta$ -galactosidase colourimetric detection and immunofluorescence staining (Fig. 3**a**,**b**). No staining was detected in the outer AF. In keeping with previous reports, staining was detected also in chondrocytes throughout the vertebral growth plates (Mangos *et al.*, 2007; Muramatsu *et al.*, 2007; Phan *et al.*, 2009). Interestingly,  $\beta$ -galactosidase staining was more intense in the tail IVDs when compared to thoracic and lumbar ones. In addition,  $\beta$ -galactosidase staining decreased with age. At 6 months, less  $\beta$ -galactosidase staining was further reduced at 9 months and by 12 months few cells were positive for  $\beta$ -galactosidase staining (Fig. 3**b**).

To further quantify age-related changes in *Trpv4* expression, gene expression analysis was performed using NP and AF tissues isolated from lumbar and caudal IVDs of wild-type mice. Although no significant difference in *Trpv4* expression was detected with age in the lumbar IVDs, a significant decrease in *Trpv4* expression was detected with age in both the NP and AF of the caudal IVDs. In the lumbar IVDs, *Trpv4* expression was more robust in the AF when compared to the NP, with significant differences detected in tissues isolated at 6 months (Fig. 3c).

## TRPV4 was functionally active in AF cells

To correlate *Trpv4* expression to functional channel activation, changes in intracellular calcium were measured in primary AF cells isolated from wild-type mice 2.5 months old. Treatment of AF cells with the TRPV4 agonist GSK1016790A (GSK101; 100 nmol/L) elicited an increase in intracellular calcium (Fig. 4a), confirming functional receptor expression. The GSK101-induced calcium response in AF cells was inhibited when cells were pre-treated with TRPV4 antagonist GSK2193874 (GSK219; 250 nmol/L; Fig. 4b). Interestingly, AF cells treated with GSK101 demonstrated heterogeneity in TRPV4-dependent calcium responses, with cells showing either sustained, oscillatory or no calcium responses (Fig. 4c). To quantify the proportion of cells exhibiting each of the distinct calcium responses, fluorescence was assessed in ROIs corresponding to individual cells and thresholds were set to represent each calcium response: no response (340/380 ratio: 0.76-0.92), oscillation (340/380 ratio: fluctuating above and below 1.0), sustained (340/380 ratio: above 1.0). When all cells were assessed over 3 biological replicates (n = 67), 27 % showed no response, 54 % showed an oscillation response and 19 % showed a sustained response to TRPV4 agonism (Fig. 4d).

## TRPV4 activation was associated with cytoskeletal remodelling in AF cells

TRPV4-mediated calcium signalling regulates cytoskeletal rearrangement in other cell types, including chondrocytes and trabecular meshwork cells (Ryskamp *et al.*, 2016; Trompeter *et al.*, 2020). Moreover, in many cell types, including chondrocyte and cancer cells, ROCK signalling regulates



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**Fig. 3. Characterisation of** *Trpv4* **expression in the IVD over time.** Midsagittal histological sections of different spinal regions (thoracic, lumbar or tail) from *Trpv4*<sup>LacZ/WT</sup> mice 2.5, *6*, 9 and 12 months old. (**a**) Representative images of immunofluorescence-based detection of β-galactosidase in lumbar IVDs of 2.5 months old *Trpv4*<sup>LacZ/WT</sup> mice. NP and IAF cells were positive for β-galactosidase, indicative of *Trpv4* expression (white arrows). (**b**) Representative midsagittal sections of IVDs of thoracic, lumbar or tail regions isolated from the *Trpv4*<sup>LacZ/WT</sup> reporter mice 2.5, *6*, 9 and 12 months old. X-gal stain was used to detect β-galactosidase activity, indicative of *Trpv4* expression. β-galactosidase staining was detected in NP and IAF (black arrows). Hypertrophic chondrocytes of the vertebral growth plate served as an internal positive control for each spine segments. Scale bar: 100 µm, *n* = 3-4 mice/timepoint. (**c**) SYBR-based real-time qPCR quantifying the expression of *Trpv4* expression were detected in lumbar IVDs, except at 6 months when *Trpv4* expression was increased in the AF, compared to the NP. A significant decrease in *Trpv4* expression was detected with advancing age in both NP and AF tissues of tail IVDs. Data were analysed using two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons. \* *p* < 0.05; \*\* *p* < 0.01; \*\*\* *p* < 0.001; \*\*\*\* *p* < 0.0001. Data presented in mean ± SD. *n* = 3.



cytoskeletal remodelling in both physiological and pathological states (Amano *et al.*, 2010; Bhadriraju *et al.*, 2007; Woods *et al.*, 2007). AF cells showed increased stress-fibre formation compared to untreated controls following acute treatment with increasing concentrations of the TRPV4 agonist GSK101 (Fig. 5a). Moreover, pre-treatment of AF cells with the ROCK inhibitor Y-27632 inhibited GSK101induced stress-fibre formation (Fig. 5b).

# TRPV4 activation mediated the response of AF cells to cyclic tensile loading

The role of TRPV4 activation in mediating the response of AF cells to mechanical load was assessed.

Cells were exposed to 10 % CTS at 1.0 Hz for 30 min in the presence or absence of the TRPV4 antagonist, GSK219. Cells were harvested 6 h post CTS and gene expression analysis was performed to quantify the expression of *Acan*, *Col1a1*, *Col2a1* and *Prg4*. The expression of *Col1a1* and *Col2a1* by AF cells was not affected by CTS (Fig. 6). Interestingly, AF cells exposed to CTS in the presence of GSK219 showed significantly reduced *Col1a1* expression when compared to unloaded control and CTS-only group. In keeping with previous findings (Kim *et al.*, 2020), CTS significantly increased *Acan* (1.5 ± 0.1-fold) and *Prg4* (1.7 ± 0.2) expression compared to unloaded vehicle control, both inhibited by the presence of



**Fig. 4. TRPV4 activity in primary AF cells**. (a) Representative calcium signalling traces in AF cells isolated from 2.5 months old WT mice in response to the TRPV4 agonist GSK101 (100 nmol/L), confirming the expression and functionality of TRPV4. Following incubation with Fura-2, AF cells were imaged for 5 min of calibration, 10 min following administration of vehicle (0.1 % v/v DMSO) and 20 min following administration of GKS101 (100 nmol/L). Graph represents the average calcium response of all cells in the field of view from 3 biological replicates (n = 67). (b) The calcium response induced by GSK101 was inhibited by pre-treatment of AF cells with the TRPV4 antagonist GSK219 (250 nmol/L). (c) Representative images of fluorescence signals at distinct stages of treatment. TRPV4 activation by GSK101 yielded one of three calcium responses in AF cells: sustained, oscillation and no response. (d) Stacked histogram showing the proportions of AF cells showing the distinct calcium responses following TRPV4 activation. Cells were categorised based on their response to the TRPV4 agonist as defined by their specific fluorescence ratio: 27 % of cells showed no response (340/380 ratio 0.76-0.92), 54 % of cells showed oscillation (340/380 ratio fluctuating above and below 1.0) and 19 % of cells showed a sustained response (340/380 ratio above 1.0). Scale bar: 100 µm; n = 67 cells assessed from a total of 3 independent cell preparations.



GSK219 during mechanical stimulation (Fig. 6). These findings suggested that TRPV4 is an important sensor of CTS in AF cells.

To measure the direct effects of TRPV4 activation on AF cell gene expression, cells were exposed to the TRPV4 agonist GSK101 using a protocol designed to mimic that used for CTS. AF cells were treated with GSK101 for 30 min in static culture, rinsed and incubated with fresh medium for further 6 h prior to harvest. In keeping with the effects of CTS, treatment of AF cells with GSK101 induced a significant increase in *Acan* (1.8  $\pm$  0.3-fold) and *Prg4* (2.1  $\pm$  0.1-fold) expression when compared to vehicle control (Fig. 7). TRPV4 agonism did not alter *Col1a1* or *Col2a1* expression.

#### Discussion

The IVD represents a mechanically dynamic environment, in which cells receive mechanical cues from their surrounding microenvironment and transduce this information into intracellular biochemical signals that regulate cellular processes. Although there is growing evidence for the effects of different types of mechanical stimulation on IVD biology, information on mechano-receptors that sense and transduce the mechanical signals remains limited. The present study used a novel transgenic reporter mouse model to characterise the spatiotemporal pattern of TRPV4 expression in the murine IVD during development and in skeletally mature IVD tissues. The study demonstrated that TRPV4 activation in AF cells elicited intracellular calcium response and regulated cytoskeleton remodelling. Using a mechanically dynamic bioreactor system and pharmacological modulation of TRPV4 activation, TRPV4-dependent response of AF cells to CTS was shown to alter ECM gene expression and cytoskeletal rearrangement. These data establish TRPV4 as an important mechano-sensor regulating IVD mechanobiology.

These findings in mice were consistent with previous studies describing Trpv4 expression during zebrafish embryogenesis (Mangos et al., 2007). In zebrafish, Trpv4 is first detected during notochord elongation and subsequently in other chondrogenic tissues in later developmental stages. Similarly, in the present reporter mouse model, Trpv4 expression was detected in the notochord as well as the condensed segments of intervertebral mesenchyme, highlighting the metameric patterning of the spine at E12.5. Anatomically, the notochord is a continuous rod-like structure that creates the primitive axis of the embryo. Functionally, the notochord provides both mechanical and morphogenic signals to the developing embryo. During development, elongation of the notochord is thought to happen through two complementary mechanisms: i) convergent extension guided along the tension generated by the expanding amniotic cavity along the anterior/posterior axis (Imuta et al., 2014; Koyama and Fujimori, 2020; Wallingford et al., 2002); ii) vacuole expansion within notochord cells distributed along the embryonic axis by the rigid



**Fig. 5. Effect of TRPV4 activation on cytoskeleton remodelling in AF cells.** (a) AF cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of GSK101 for 30 min, fixed and stained with Alexa 488 Phalloidin to visualise the actin cytoskeleton. Increased stress-fibre formation (white arrows) was detected with increasing concentrations of GSK101, suggesting the cytoskeletal network of the AF cells was changing following acute activation of TRPV4. (b) GSK101-induced stress-fibre formation was inhibited when cells were pre-treated with Y-27632 (ROCK inhibitor). Scale bar: 50 µm; n = 3 independent cell preparations derived from 3 different 2.5 months old mice.



ECM of the notochordal sheath restricting bilateral cell volume expansion (Adams and Koehu, 1990; Ellis et al., 2013b; Jurand, 1974; Koehl et al., 2000; Paavola et al., 1980). TRPV4 has been shown to regulate cell volume during cellular osmoregulation (Becker et al., 2005; Liedtke and Friedman, 2003) and respond to both compressive and tensile load in multiple cell types (Du et al., 2020; Mochizuki et al., 2009; O'Conor et al., 2014; Pairet et al., 2018; Thodeti et al., 2009a). Importantly, TRPV4 expression is detected in the notochord of zebrafish at the time of vacuole inflation (Ellis et al., 2013a; Mangos et al., 2007). As such, Trpv4 expression in the notochord may mediate notochord development as a mechano-receptor and osmosensor, transducing the directionality of mechanical signals and regulating notochord cell volume expansion, respectively. Furthermore, intracellular calcium signalling regulates embryogenesis in other animal models. Previous studies investigating calcium signalling in the developing zebrafish showed large intracellular calcium transients in the trunk region during early and late segmentation (Tsuruwaka et al., 2017). Additionally, intracellular calcium signals regulate cell proliferation, migration and shape during zebrafish embryogenesis (Blaser et al., 2006; Bonneau *et al.*, 2011; Reinhard *et al.*, 1995; Sahu *et al.*, 2017; Webb and Miller, 2000). *Trpv4* expression detected in the condensed mesenchymal segments at E12.5 in the mouse suggested that TRPV4-mediated calcium signalling may contribute to the regulation of cell proliferation and migration required for metameric patterning along the longitudinal axis.

In skeletally mature mice, Trpv4 expression was detected in NP and IAF cells, with differential expression detected based on anatomical region and age. The differences in Trpv4 expression in spinal regions may result from differences in mechanical load experienced in these tissues. Kim et al. (2020) showed that Trpv4 expression is upregulated in AF cells following mechanical stimulation. Accordingly, increased Trpv4 expression detected in lumbar and tail IVDs, compared to thoracic IVDs, may be due to more mechanical load experienced at these sites. Furthermore, during development, notochord segmentation and mesenchymal condensation initiated at E13.5 progresses in the rostral-to-caudal direction (Jurand, 1974). As such, it is tempting to speculate that as a result of the temporal differences in IVD formation across the spine, caudal IVDs may be somewhat less mature when compared to



**Fig. 6. TRPV4-dependent gene expression in mechanically stimulated AF cells.** AF cells were subjected to 10 % CTS at 1.0 Hz for 30 min in the presence or absence of TRPV4-specific antagonist, GSK219. 6 h post CTS, cells were harvested for gene expression analysis to quantify the expression of candidate ECM genes. CTS induced an upregulation of *Acan* and *Prg4* expression, which was blocked by treatment with the TRPV4 antagonist GSK219. Relative gene expression was calculated using the  $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method, normalised to the housekeeping gene *Hprt* and expressed relative to time-matched unloaded vehicle control. Data presented as mean ± SEM; *n* = 3 cell preparations. Data were analysed using two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons. \* *p* < 0.05; \*\* *p* < 0.01; \*\*\* *p* < 0.001.



those in the lumbar or thoracic regions and, thus, show more robust expression of Trpv4 at time points associated with skeletal maturity. Moreover, the present study demonstrated decreased Trpv4 expression with increasing age. Tissue osmolarity and pH within the IVD decrease as aggrecan and other glycosaminoglycans are degraded with age or degeneration. Walter *et al.* (2016), investigating the role of TRPV4 in human IVDs, reported that culture of IVD explants in hypotonic conditions, thereby increasing the osmotic pressure, leads to increased TRPV4 protein expression. Notably, this study used a mechanically dynamic organ culture system delivering cyclic compression to IVD explants (0.0-0.8 MPa at 0.1 Hz for 8 h; 0.2 MPa for 16 h), which may also influence TRPV4 expression. In keeping with these studies, the decrease observed in Trpv4 expression with increasing age may be due to ageassociated changes in tissue osmolarity. The findings suggest cell type, anatomical region and age as factors that regulate *Trpv4* expression in the murine IVD.

The present study showed that pharmacological activation of TRPV4 elicited one of three calcium responses in AF cells: sustained, oscillation or no response. This finding may relate to the heterogeneity of the primary cell culture system used, which contained cells of both inner and outer AF from IVDs of all anatomical regions. The cells that did not respond to TRPV4 agonism may be outer AF cells, in which *Trpv4* expression was not detected. Results were consistent with previous findings

reporting sustained intracellular calcium response in AF and NP tissues upon direct activation of TRPV4 ion channel (Walter et al., 2016). Interestingly, intracellular calcium oscillation was observed in the present study. Calcium oscillation following TRPV4 activation drives matrix production in chondrocytes and regulates cell matrix adhesion and alignment in mesenchymal stem cells (Gilchrist et al., 2019; O'Conor et al., 2014). The presence of both sustained and oscillatory calcium response in the cell culture system may be due to agonist concentration and differences in receptor density on cell subpopulations. Previous studies of receptor activation in glial cells concluded that low agonist concentration elicits calcium oscillation, while high concentration leads to sustained responses (Kawano et al., 2002; Verkhratsky et al., 1998). In mesenchymal stem cells, TRPV4 activation with low agonist (GSK101) concentration (1 or 10 nmol/L) leads to short oscillatory calcium transients, while high agonist concentration (100 nmol/L) induces sustained calcium response (Gilchrist et al., 2019). Furthermore, studies investigating the relationship between intracellular calcium and receptor density showed that changes in receptor density influence intracellular calcium response following receptor activation (Dickson et al., 2013; Ochsenbein et al., 1999). Given the differences between cells of the inner and outer AF in terms of ECM components, cell shape and mechanical environment (Fearing et al., 2018), it is possible that differential expression of TRPV4 in these cells may



**Fig. 7. TRPV4-mediated changes in AF cell gene expression.** Primary AF cells were treated with the TRPV4 agonist GSK101 (100 nmol/L) for 30 min and, after 6 h, cells were harvested for gene expression analysis to quantify the expression of candidate ECM genes. Treatment of AF cells with the TRPV4 agonist induced an upregulation in *Acan* and *Prg4* expression. Relative gene expression was calculated using the  $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method, normalised to the housekeeping gene *Hprt* and expressed relative to time-matched vehicle control. Data presented as mean ± SEM; *n* = 3 cell preparations. Data were analysed using unpaired *t*-tests. \* *p* < 0.05; \*\* *p* < 0.01.



account for the different cellular responses detected. Similarly, differences in TRPV4 expression in AF cells based on the anatomical location from which the IVDs were isolated may contribute to cell heterogeneity in the described model and influence the cellular responses detected.

One of the earliest cellular adaptations to mechanical stimulation is the formation of stress fibres (Hayakawa et al., 2001; Yavropoulou and Yovos, 2016; Ziegler et al., 2012). TRPV4-mediated calcium signalling regulates cytoskeletal rearrangement in several cell types, including chondrocytes and trabecular meshwork cells (Ryskamp et al., 2016; Trompeter et al., 2020). In primary AF cells, pharmacological activation of TRPV4 increased stressfibre formation, which was blocked by Rho/ROCK inhibition. In many cell types, including chondrocyte and cancer cells, Rho/ROCK signalling regulates cytoskeletal remodelling in both physiological and pathological states (Amano et al., 2010; Bhadriraju et al., 2007; Woods et al., 2007). The crosstalk between TRPV4 and ROCK has been studied in endothelial cells. In normal endothelial cells, TRPV4 senses mechanical force and induces RhoA/ROCK activation necessary for migration, stiffening and contraction (Liu et al., 2018). However, in a pathological state, Rho/ ROCK activation and cell stiffening cause decreased TRPV4 expression and pharmacological activation of TRPV4 supresses Rho/ROCK-mediated signalling (Xiao et al., 2016), suggesting that Rho/ROCK can act both as an effector and target of TRPV4. Similarly, the present study findings suggested the involvement of both TRPV4 and Rho/ROCK signalling in cytoskeleton remodelling and AF cell mechanotransduction. Moreover, in bovine endothelial cells, mechanical activation of TRPV4 induces phosphatidyl inositol-3-kinase/protein kinase B activation, which in turn, activates  $\beta$ 1 integrin, leading to cytoskeletal rearrangement (Thodeti et al., 2009b). Interestingly, in human endothelial cells, shear-stress-induced  $\alpha 5\beta 1$ integrin activation is necessary for the trafficking of TRPV4 channels to the cell membrane (Baratchi et al., 2017). Based on these findings, future studies should investigate the involvement of TRPV4-integrin-Rho/ ROCK crosstalk in AF mechano-transduction.

In other musculoskeletal cell types, intracellular calcium signalling is believed to be one of the earliest mechano-response events (Godin *et al.*, 2007; Han *et al.*, 2012; Morrell *et al.*, 2018; Raizman *et al.*, 2010). In chondrocytes, TRPV4 mediates the mechano-response, including gene expression and proteoglycan synthesis (O'Conor *et al.*, 2014). Using a previously characterised culture system, the role of TRPV4 was assessed in the response of AF cells to cyclic tensile loading. TRPV4 activation was both necessary and sufficient for induction of *Acan* and *Prg4* expression in response to CTS. Given the regional variance in type I and type II collagen expression in AF tissues (Bruehlmann *et al.*, 2002; Iu *et al.*, 2014) and the findings of *Trpv4* expression

in the IAF, the involvement of TRPV4-mediated signalling in regulating Col1a1 and Col2a1 was assessed. Although TRPV4 activation did not alter Col1a1 or Col2a1 expression, treatment of AF cells with the TRPV4 antagonist significantly reduced Col1a1 expression in the presence of CTS, suggesting a potential interplay between TRPV4-mediated signals and type I collagen regulation. It is important to acknowledge that the present study findings were limited to the characterisation of the response of AF cells to acute TRPV4 activation and future studies would be required to assess the effects of gain or loss of function of TRPV4 in regulating ECM gene expression in the IVD. Previous studies investigating the effects of both extracellular osmolarity and mechanical stimulation showed that in human AF cells, Col1a1 expression decreases with increasing osmolarity, while Acan and Col2a1 expression increases (Wuertz et al., 2007a). These studies showed also that mechanical stimulation to AF cells inhibits osmotically induced changes in Col1a1, Col2a1 and Acan expression, with the exception of increased Acan expression in a hypertonic environment (Wuertz et al., 2007a). Given that TRPV4 is a well-established osmosensor, future studies should investigate the role of TRPV4 in regulating mechano-response of AF cells in varying osmotic conditions.

#### Conclusions

The study findings showed that *Trpv4* was first expressed in primitive IVD structures during development and persisted in cells of the mature NP and IAF. Specifically, in AF cells, TRPV4 activation was shown to be a key mechanism of mechanical signal transduction. In addition to previous evidence for TRPV4 being an osmosensor in the IVD, data highlighted TRPV4 as a mechano-receptor regulating cytoskeletal architecture and ECM gene expression. These findings highlighted the role of ion channel receptors in modulating cellular function through intracellular calcium transients. Understanding the mechanism of mechano-reception and mechanotransduction in IVD cells will help delineate cell-type specific mediators of mechano-response that regulate IVD health and degeneration.

#### Acknowledgements

M.K.M.K. was supported in part by the CONNECT! NSERC CREATE Training Program. This work was supported by the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada and the Bone and Joint Institute at the University of Western Ontario. C.A.S. was supported by a Career Development Award from the Arthritis Society and Early Researcher Award from the Ontario Ministry of Research and Innovation.



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#### **Discussion with Reviewer**

**Reviewer**: You have a different culture for the mechanical stimulation as compared to the rest of *in vitro* work (silicone *vs.* tissue culture plastic). How much would you think this impacts cellular behaviour and ability to compare different experiments when using CTS and agonists?

**Authors**: The reviewer is correct in highlighting that the effects of culture substrate on cell phenotype were not directly assessed in the present study. However, in a recent publication characterising the CTS culture system, Kim *et al.* (2020) demonstrated that AF cells cultured on tissue culture plastic and silicone membranes for CTS show similar expression of AF and fibroblast-associated markers (*i.e. Col1a1, Gdf10, Pax1, Cilp, Acta2, Fap*). As such, we are confident that differences in the culture platform do not overtly alter cell phenotype. However, differences in substrate stiffness can modulate the cellular mechanoresponse and as such the findings from these distinct experiments were presented separately. Also, the cells used represented a heterogeneous mixture of inner and outer AF cells, due to the limitations of working with small murine IVD tissues. Based on the differential expression of *Trpv4* in inner and outer AF tissues, the effects of mechanical activation and pharmacological modulators of TRPV4 may be diluted in this mixed population as compared to using a homogeneous population of cells with robust expression of *Trpv4*.

The model systems used have important limitations and, as such, ongoing studies are focussing on the use of *in vivo* models to circumvent some of these limitations.

**Reviewer:** How would you explain *Trpv4* expression being predominantly in the tail tip? What would you think does that mean for human?

Authors: During development, notochord elongation occurs in caudo-cranial direction, whereas mesenchymal condensation and notochord segmentation occur in cranio-caudal direction. The condensed mesenchyme and segmenting notochord later form the AF and NP, respectively. Hence, the IVD tissue formation, development and maturation also differ temporally across the spine (craniocaudally). As such, it is tempting to speculate that coccygeal IVDs found at the tail tip are slightly less mature than IVD tissues found in the lumbar and thoracic regions. Along with differences in mechanical environment, this temporal difference in tissue patterning, development and maturation may explain differential expression of Trpv4 in specific spine regions.

The implications of studies using mouse models to human physiology is an important question. It is difficult to translate the findings of *Trpv4* expression profile in caudal IVDs to understand or make speculations on human disc biology. The study focused on outlining when and where *Trpv4* was expressed in the murine IVD during development. Building upon these findings, future studies will use knockout mouse models to further investigate the role of TRPV4 in the context of ageing and injury. Of course, findings from the present study will require validation in human tissues to understand implications for human IVD health.

**Editor's note**: The Guest Editor responsible for this paper was Zhen Li.

