



## Original Article

LPA<sub>6</sub>-RhoA signals regulate junctional complexes for polarity and morphology establishment of maturation stage ameloblasts

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## ABSTRACT

**Objectives:** Lysophosphatidic acid (LPA) is a potent bioactive phospholipid that exerts various functions upon binding to six known G protein-coupled receptors (LPA<sub>1–6</sub>); however, its role in a tooth remains unclear. This study aimed to explore the impact of the LPA/LPA receptor 6 (LPA<sub>6</sub>)/RhoA signaling axis on maturation stage ameloblasts (M-ABs), which are responsible for enamel mineralization.

**Methods:** The expression of LPA<sub>6</sub> and LPA-producing synthetic enzymes during ameloblast differentiation was explored through immunobiological analysis of mouse incisors and molars. To elucidate the role of LPA<sub>6</sub> in ameloblasts, incisors of LPA<sub>6</sub> KO mice were analyzed. *In vitro* experiments using ameloblast cell lines were performed to validate the function of LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub>-RhoA signaling in ameloblasts.

**Results:** LPA<sub>6</sub> and LPA-producing enzymes were strongly expressed in M-ABs. In LPA<sub>6</sub> knockout mice, M-ABs exhibited abnormal morphology with the loss of cell polarity, and an abnormal enamel epithelium containing cyst-like structures was formed. Moreover, the expression of E-cadherin and zonula occludens-1 (ZO-1) significantly decreased in M-ABs. *In vitro* experiments demonstrated that LPA upregulated the expression of E-cadherin, ZO-1, and filamentous actin (F-actin) at the cellular membrane, whereas LPA<sub>6</sub> knockdown decreased their expression and changed cell morphology. Furthermore, we showed that RhoA signaling mediates LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub>-induced junctional complexes.

**Conclusions:** This study demonstrated that LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub>-RhoA signaling is essential for establishing proper cell morphology and polarity, via cell–cell junction and actin cytoskeleton expression and stability, of M-ABs. These results highlight the biological significance of bioactive lipids in a tooth, providing a novel molecular regulatory mechanism of ameloblasts.

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## 1. Introduction

Lysophosphatidic acid (1- or 2-acyl-*sn*-glycerol-3-phosphate) is a bioactive phospholipid composed of one fatty acid chain and a

polar phosphate group that is present in all eukaryotic tissues and blood plasma [1]. LPA can induce numerous cell-specific and context-dependent biological effects via G protein-coupled receptors [2,3]. To date, six differentially expressed receptors for LPA have been identified, of which, LPA<sub>1</sub>, LPA<sub>2</sub>, and LPA<sub>3</sub> belong to the endothelial differentiation gene family, and LPA<sub>4</sub>, LPA<sub>5</sub>, and LPA<sub>6</sub> belong to the P2Y family, which play important roles in various (patho)physiological conditions [4,5]. The LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub> axis was previously shown to regulate the differentiation and maturation of ectodermal appendages like hair follicles [6–10]. Homozygous mutations affecting the LPA-producing synthetic enzymes,

Abbreviations: IEE, inner enamel epithelial cell; LPA, lysophosphatidic acid; LPA<sub>6</sub>, LPA receptor 6; M-AB, maturation stage ameloblast; S-AB, secretory stage ameloblast.

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phosphatidic acid-preferring phospholipase A<sub>1</sub> (PA-PLA<sub>1</sub> $\alpha$ ) and P2Y<sub>5</sub>/LPA<sub>6</sub>, have been identified to cause congenital hair disorders, as well as misalignment of hair follicle epithelial cells, especially in Henle's layer. However, the involvement of the LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub> signaling in other ectodermal appendages, such as tooth, remains unclear.

The enamel covering of the tooth crown is the most highly mineralized tissue in the vertebrate body. During enamel formation or amelogenesis, ameloblasts, which are derived from oral epithelial cells of ectodermal origin, undergo multiple differentiation events associated with morphological and junctional changes. Inner enamel epithelial cells (IEEs) differentiate into secretory stage ameloblasts (S-ABs) that produce the enamel matrix proteins amelogenin and ameloblastin. These secretory cells then transform into maturation stage ameloblasts (M-ABs) that modulate enamel mineralization by controlling pH, transporting minerals, and modulating protein decomposition and absorption (Fig. 1A–D) [11]. These columnar M-ABs exhibit high polarity with a distinct distribution of junctional proteins and actin cytoskeleton that enables them to exert cell-specific functions [12], whereas the absence of their morphology and polarity can induce enamel malformation via enamel hypomineralization [13]. Therefore, elucidating the regulatory mechanism of M-ABs is indispensable for understanding normal enamel formation, as well as the etiology and pathophysiology of enamel hypomineralization. Nonetheless, such regulatory events of M-ABs remain largely unknown.

RhoA belongs to the Rho-family of small GTPases that function as molecular switches in a wide range of cellular processes [14]. RhoA activity is transduced by its downstream effectors, such as Rho-associated coiled-coil containing protein kinase that promotes the formation of tight junctions, adherens junctions [15], and actomyosin [16]. Recently, we demonstrated that RhoA signaling regulates dental epithelial stem cells and S-ABs by modulating the distinctive distribution of the junctional complex [17,18]. Furthermore, LPA<sub>6</sub> couples with G $\alpha_{13}$  protein to activate RhoA signaling in hair follicles [10]. However, the role of RhoA signaling in M-ABs and its upstream regulator is yet to be elucidated.

In this study, using rodent tooth as the experimental model, we explored the molecular mechanism underlying LPA-mediated ameloblast regulation. LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub>-RhoA signaling was found to be a modulator of cell morphology and polarity, via cell–cell junction and actin cytoskeleton expression and stability, of M-ABs. This novel regulatory mechanism of M-ABs provides a better understanding of enamel mineralization and further elucidates the pathogenesis of enamel hypomineralization.

## 2. Materials & methods

### 2.1. Animals and preparation of tissues

LPA<sub>6</sub> knockout (KO) mice with a mixed 129/Sv and C57BL/6 and their littermate control wild type (WT) mice were obtained from Deltagen (San Carlos, CA, USA). ddY mice (Japan SLC, Shizuoka, Japan) were used as the WT. For histological analysis, the mice were euthanized with CO<sub>2</sub> inhalation or cervical dislocation. The jaws were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and decalcified using Osteosoft (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). For hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining and immunostaining, paraffin-embedded thin tissue sections (thickness, 6–7  $\mu$ m) were used. All experiments were performed independently at least three times ( $n = 3$ ) in triplicate where possible and when applicable.

### 2.2. Cell culture

Ameloblast cell lines HAT7 and mHAT9d were established from rat and mouse incisors, respectively, and cultured as described

previously [19]. For analyzing the effect of LPA, cells were serum-starved for 18 h or transfected with LPA<sub>6</sub> small interference (si) RNA prior to the administration of LPA (Abcam, Cambridge, UK). Cells were treated with Y-27632 (Wako, Tokyo, Japan) and latrunculin A (LAT-A, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

### 2.3. Immunohistochemistry, immunofluorescence, and elemental mapping by electron probe micro-analysis (EPMA)

Immunohistochemical and immunofluorescent staining were performed as described previously [17]. The antibodies used in this study are listed in Table S1. To detect filamentous actin (F-actin), cells were stained using Alexa Fluor 488- or 546-conjugated phalloidin (A12379, A22283; Thermo Fisher Scientific). Images were obtained using a fluorescence microscope (BX51, IX71; Olympus BZ-X800 Tokyo, Japan), laser-scanning confocal microscope (C1si; Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) or imaging cytometer (Cytell Cell Imaging System, GE Healthcare, Chicago, IL, USA). Image analyses were performed using ImageJ (<https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/>) or the software provided with the microscope. Appropriate positive and negative controls were run during each experiment. Elemental mapping of Ca, P, and Mg was performed by EPMA (EPMA-1610; Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) [20].

### 2.4. Small interfering RNA (siRNA)

siRNA transfection was performed as described previously [17]. Two sets of 25-mer duplex siRNA targeting genes and control siRNA were obtained from Thermo Fisher Scientific. All siRNA duplexes (10 nmol/L) were transfected into cells using Lipofectamine RNAi-MAX (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 48 h according to the manufacturer's protocol.

### 2.5. Quantitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR)

Total RNA was extracted using RNeasy mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Reverse transcription of total RNA was performed using PrimeScript RT reagent kit (Takara Bio, Kusatsu, Japan). Quantitative analysis of gene expression was performed by qRT-PCR using SYBR1 Premix Ex Taq (Takara Bio) and oligonucleotide primers specific for the target sequences (Table S2) on a Thermal Cycler Dice (Takara Bio) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Target gene levels were normalized against those of *Gapdh* using the comparative 2<sup>− $\Delta\Delta$ Ct</sup> method. Experiments were run in triplicate.

### 2.6. Statistical analyses

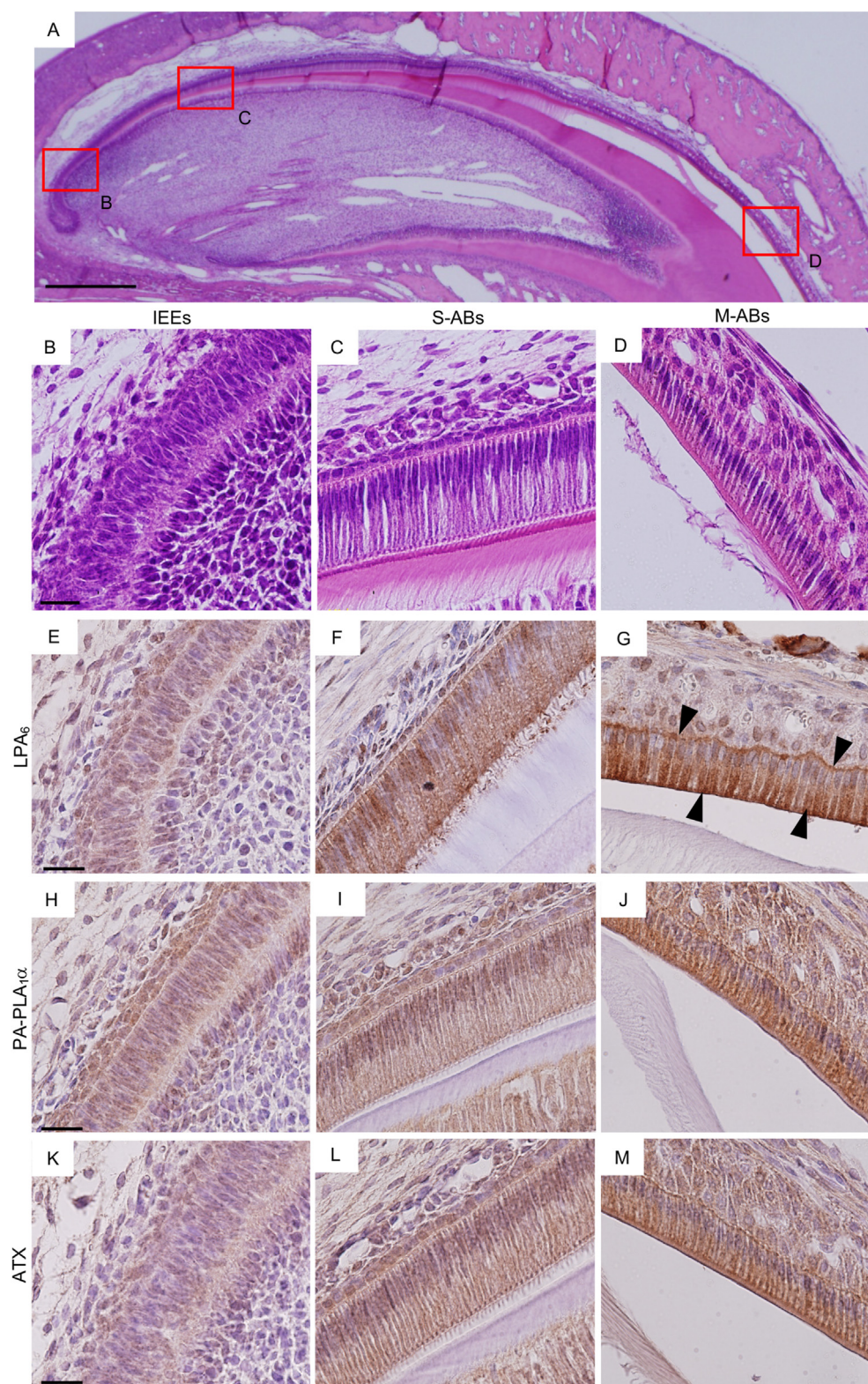
All data are reported as mean  $\pm$  SEM. Differences were considered statistically significant if  $p < 0.05$  using unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test. \* and \*\* denote  $p < 0.05$  and  $p < 0.01$ , respectively.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. LPA<sub>6</sub> and LPA-producing enzymes are distinctly expressed in maturation stage ameloblasts

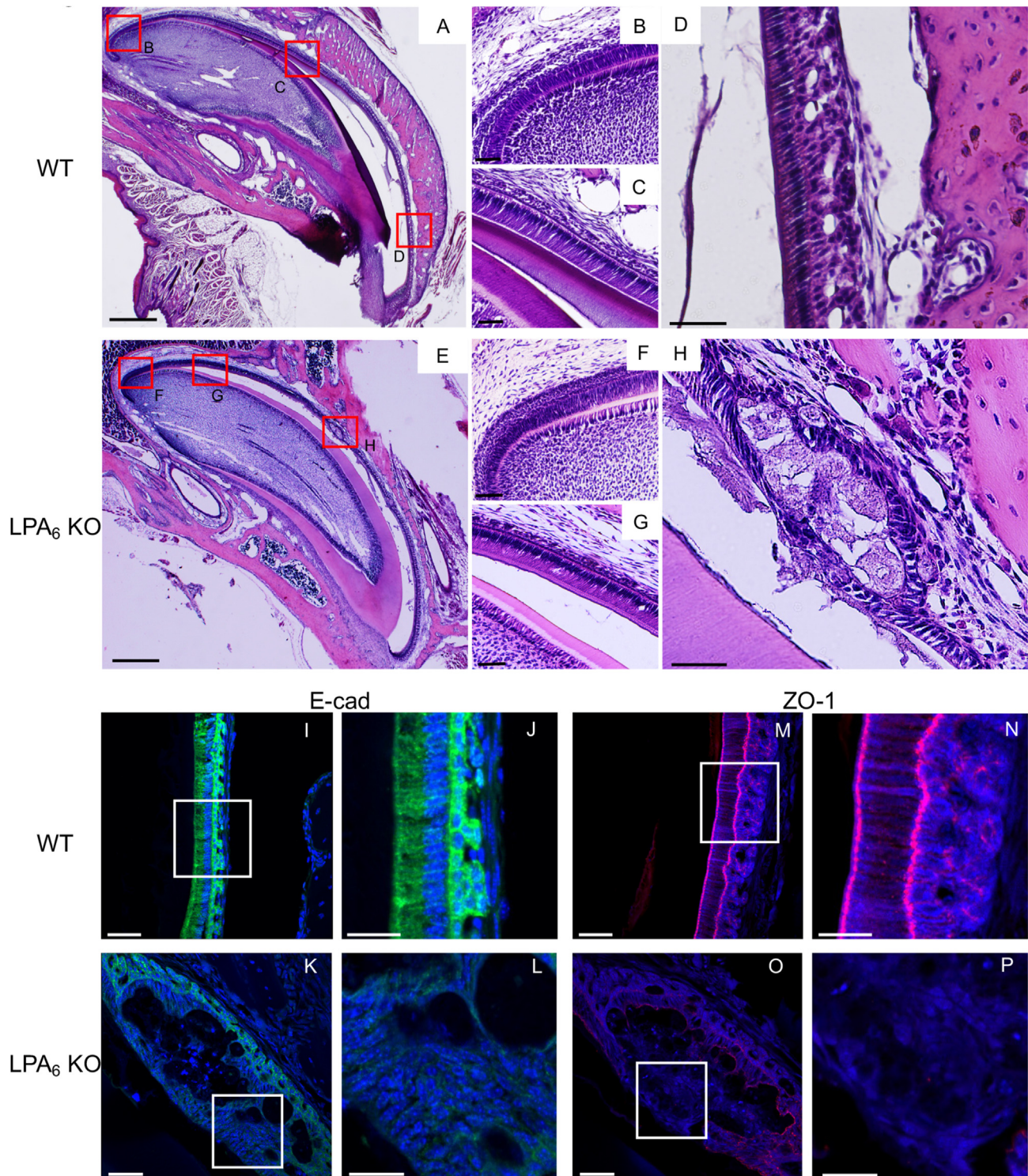
Firstly, the expression of LPA<sub>6</sub> during ameloblast differentiation was determined through immunobiological analysis of mouse incisors and molars. On postnatal day 40 (P40), modest expression of LPA<sub>6</sub> was observed in the IEEs of upper incisors (Fig. 1E). In S-ABs, LPA<sub>6</sub> was uniformly expressed throughout the cytoplasm (Fig. 1F), whilst in M-ABs, high expression was observed at the basal and proximal ends in addition to the cytoplasm (Fig. 1G). In P1 molars, LPA<sub>6</sub> expression was observed in the S-AB cytoplasm, with modest





**Fig. 1.** LPA<sub>6</sub>, PA-PLA<sub>1</sub>α and ATX expression in mouse incisors. (A) Low magnification image of H&E-stained sections of P40 mouse maxillary incisors. The boxed areas in A are magnified in B–D. (B) Inner enamel epithelium cells. (C) Secretory stage ameloblasts. (D) Maturation stage ameloblasts. LPA<sub>6</sub> (E–G), PA-PLA<sub>1</sub>α (H–J), and ATX (K–M) immunostaining of P40 mouse maxillary incisors. Scale bars: 500 μm (A); 20 μm (B–M).



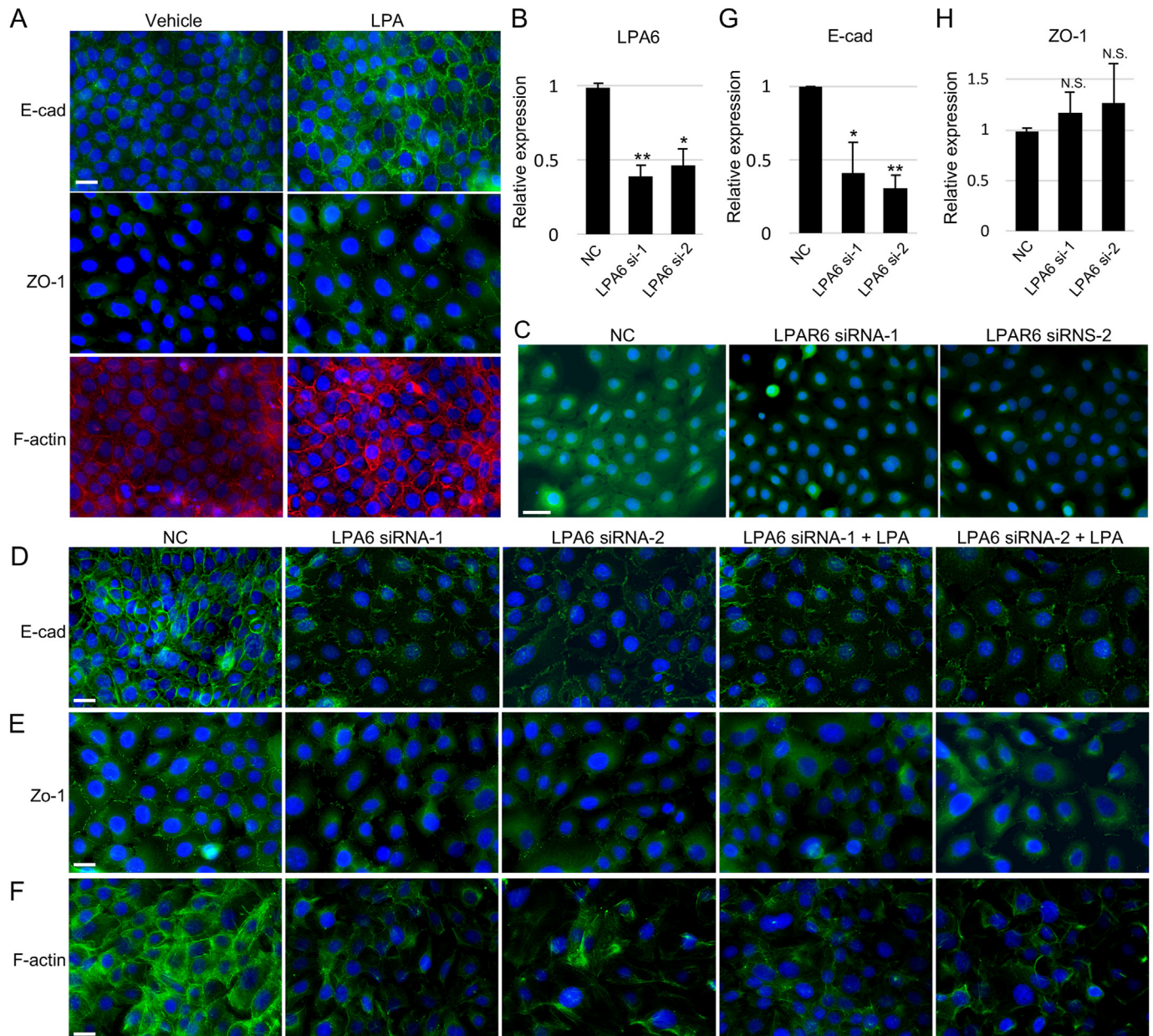


**Fig. 2.** Histological analysis of *LPA<sub>6</sub>* knockout mice. H&E staining of P40 WT (A–D) and *LPA<sub>6</sub>* KO (E–H) mouse maxillary incisors. The boxed areas in A and E are magnified in B–D and F–H, respectively. (I–L) E-cadherin staining of maturation stage ameloblasts in WT and *LPA<sub>6</sub>* KO mice. The boxed areas in I and K are magnified in J and L, respectively. (M–P) ZO-1 staining of maturation stage ameloblasts in WT and *LPA<sub>6</sub>* KO mouse maxillary incisors. The boxed areas in M and O are magnified in N and P, respectively. The nucleus is stained with DAPI (blue). Scale bars: 500  $\mu$ m (A, E); 20  $\mu$ m (B–D, F–H); 50  $\mu$ m (I, K, M, O); 25  $\mu$ m (J, L, N, P).

expression in IEEs of the cervical loop (Fig. S1A–D). In P9 molars, distinct expression of *LPA<sub>6</sub>* was observed at the basal and proximal end of M-ABs (Fig. S1E–G), whilst no detectable expression of *LPA<sub>6</sub>* was observed in the Hertwig epithelial sheath (Fig. S1E,H,

arrowheads). Furthermore, the expression of LPA-producing synthetic enzymes, PA-PLA $\alpha$ —a secreted membrane-associated protein concentrated on the plasma membrane [21]—and autotaxin (ATX)—a secreted glycoprotein that acts as lysophospholipase D,





**Fig. 3. The role of LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub> signaling in junctional proteins and actin cytoskeleton.** (A) Immunostaining of E-cad and ZO-1, and Phalloidin staining (F-actin) in serum-starved HAT7 cells stimulated with vehicle (left) or LPA (20  $\mu$ M, 24h) (right). (B) Expression of LPA<sub>6</sub> mRNA in HAT7 cells transfected with non-specific control siRNA (NC) or LPA<sub>6</sub>-specific siRNA;  $n = 4$ . (C) Immunofluorescence of LPA<sub>6</sub> in HAT7 cells transfected with non-specific control siRNA (NC) or LPA<sub>6</sub>-specific siRNA. Immunofluorescence of E-cad (D) and ZO-1 (E), and Phalloidin staining (F-actin) (F) in HAT7 cells transfected with NC siRNA, LPA<sub>6</sub>-specific siRNA, and LPA<sub>6</sub>-specific siRNA coupled with LPA treatment (20  $\mu$ M, 24h). Expression of E-cad (G) and ZO-1 (H) mRNA in HAT7 cells transfected with non-specific control siRNA (NC) or LPA<sub>6</sub>-specific siRNA;  $n = 4$ . Data are represented as their mean  $\pm$  SEM. \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , N.S.: not significant (unpaired two-tailed Student's  $t$ -test). Scale bars, 20  $\mu$ m (A, C–F).

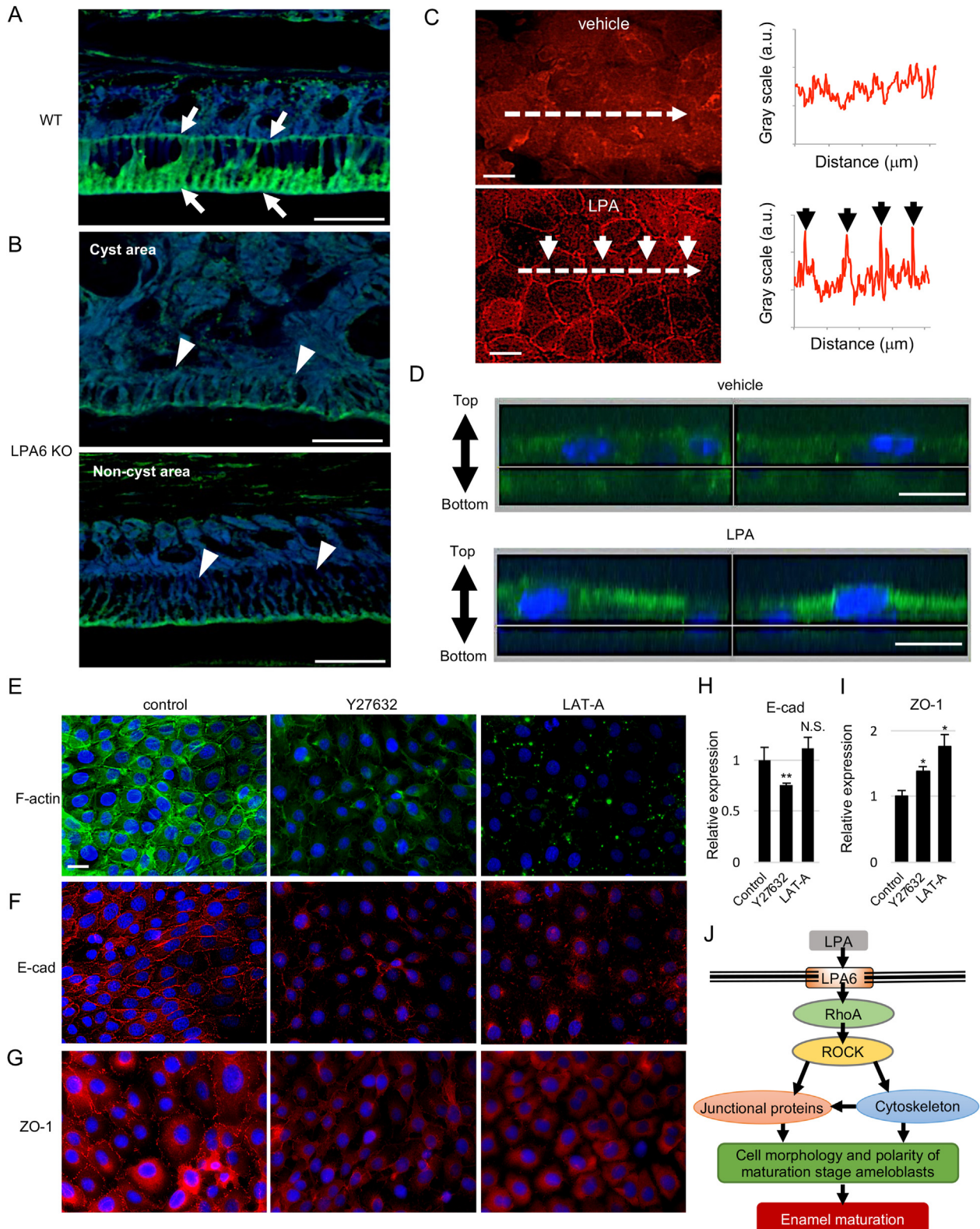
converting lysophosphatidylcholine into LPA [22]—was increased during ameloblast differentiation from IEEs to M-ABs in mouse incisors (Fig. 1H–M). Similar observation was reported during ameloblast differentiation in mouse molars (Fig. S2). Notably, PA-PLA<sub>1</sub> $\alpha$  and ATX were strongly expressed in M-ABs (Fig. 2J,N).

### 3.2. Ameloblasts in LPA<sub>6</sub> knockout mice loose cell polarity and cell–cell adhesion

To further elucidate the role of LPA<sub>6</sub> during ameloblast differentiation, incisors of LPA<sub>6</sub> KO mice were analyzed. No obvious

differences in the appearance and concentration of minerals (calcium, phosphorus, and magnesium) in EPMA analysis were reported in the incisor enamel and dentin compared to WT (data not shown). However, histological examination revealed abnormal morphology of M-ABs with the loss of cell polarity and cyst-like structures in part of the epithelium. The M-ABs and the papillary layer were indistinguishable, while IEE and S-ABs exhibited a normal appearance (Fig. 2A–H). Subsequently, the effect of LPA<sub>6</sub> deletion on cell–cell adhesion was analyzed due to its role in establishing cell polarity. In WT mice, E-cadherin (E-cad) was strongly expressed in M-ABs and the papillary layer (Fig. 2I and J),





**Fig. 4. RhoA mediated LPA<sub>6</sub>-induced cell–cell adhesion and actin cytoskeleton.** Immunostaining of active RhoA in maturation stage ameloblasts of WT (A) and LPA<sub>6</sub> KO mouse maxillary incisors (B, top; cyst forming area, bottom; non-cyst forming area). (C) Active RhoA staining of serum-starved mHAT9d cells treated with vehicle or LPA (20  $\mu$ M). Line scan graphs show the active RhoA intensity along the white dotted line. (D) XZ image of active RhoA immunostained (green) mHAT9d cells treated with vehicle (top) and LPA (bottom). Phalloidin staining (F-actin) (E) and immunostaining for E-cad (F) and ZO-1 (G) of HAT7 cells after treatment with Y27632 (50  $\mu$ M) or LAT-A (1  $\mu$ M) for 24 h. Expression of E-cad (H) and ZO-1 (I) mRNA in HAT7 cells treated with Y27632 and LAT-A;  $n = 4$ . (J) Schematic of LPA<sub>6</sub> signaling mechanism involved in establishing cell polarity and morphology of M-ABs. Data are represented as their mean  $\pm$  SEM. \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , N.S.: not significant (unpaired two-tailed Student's  $t$ -test). Scale bars, 30  $\mu$ m (A, B); 20  $\mu$ m (E–G); 10  $\mu$ m (C, D).

whilst ZO-1 expression was restricted to the distal and proximal ends of M-ABs (Fig. 2M,N). In contrast, E-cadherin and ZO-1 expression remarkably decreased in M-ABs of LPA<sub>6</sub> KO mice (Fig. 2K,L,O,P).

### 3.3. LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub> signaling contributes to cell–cell adhesion and actin cytoskeleton of ameloblasts *in vitro*

To validate the function of LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub> signaling in ameloblasts, we performed *in vitro* experiments using ameloblast cell lines. Firstly, we validated the effect of LPA on cell–cell adhesion and actin cytoskeleton. Administration of LPA up-regulated E-cad, ZO-1, and F-actin expression at the cellular membrane of both HAT7 cells and mHAT9d cells (Fig. 3A, Fig. S3). Additionally, on transfecting HAT7 with two different siRNAs specific for LPA<sub>6</sub>, its expression was significantly reduced at both the mRNA and protein levels (Fig. 3B and C). Immunostaining demonstrated that E-cad and ZO-1 were expressed at the cellular membrane of WT cells, whereas their expression was fragmented and decreased in LPA<sub>6</sub> knocked down (KD) cells (Fig. 3D and E). F-actin expression was also remarkably reduced at the cellular membrane, generating cortical tension and thereby, influencing cell shape (Fig. 3F). Furthermore, the administration of LPA failed to recover E-cad, ZO-1, and F-actin expression in LPA<sub>6</sub> KD cells (Fig. 3D–F). qRT-PCR analysis indicated that knocking down LPA<sub>6</sub> decreased *E-cad* mRNA expression (Fig. 3G), but not ZO-1 (Fig. 3H).

### 3.4. LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub> signaling activates RhoA

We previously demonstrated that RhoA signaling regulated cell–cell adhesion and cytoskeleton in ameloblasts [17,23]. Therefore, we hypothesized that RhoA mediated the regulation of cell–cell adhesion and cell polarity of M-ABs via LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub> signaling. First, we compared the RhoA activation status in M-ABs between WT and LPA<sub>6</sub> KO mice. In LPA<sub>6</sub> KO mice, the expression of active RhoA (GTP-binding form) remarkably decreased, especially at the proximal end of M-ABs (Fig. 4B, arrow heads), compared to WT (Fig. 4A, arrows). Next, we examined whether RhoA activation was induced by LPA *in vitro*. Immunofluorescent data indicated that LPA administration increased active RhoA expression at the cellular cortex of mHAT9d cells (Fig. 4C). Three-dimensional images also revealed that active RhoA expression was induced at the side of M-ABs facing the culture media containing LPA (Fig. 4D). Finally, we analyzed Rho signaling and its downstream processes, actin polymerization, and E-cad and ZO-1 expression in HAT7 cells. First, we examined the effects of Rho signal inhibitor (Y27632) and actin polymerization inhibitor (LAT-A) on E-cad and ZO-1 at the protein level by immunofluorescent staining. Phalloidin staining revealed that LAT-A markedly reduced F-actin expression, and Y27632 decreased the expression of cortical F-actin, resulting in a loss of cell–cell adhesion (Fig. 4E). Correspondingly, these inhibitors significantly decreased the cortical expression of E-cad and ZO-1 (Fig. 4F and G). qRT-PCR analysis revealed that *E-cad* mRNA was significantly decreased by Y27632, but not by LAT-A (Fig. 4H). In contrast, ZO-1 mRNA expression was modestly increased by Y27632 and LAT-A (Fig. 4I).

## 4. Discussion

We demonstrated that both LPA<sub>6</sub> and LPA producing enzymes including PA-PLA<sub>1</sub> $\alpha$  and ATX are more expressed in M-ABs than in other ameloblast-lineage cells, suggesting that LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub> signaling is distinctly functional in M-ABs, and PA-PLA<sub>1</sub> $\alpha$  and ATX-induced LPA acts on LPA<sub>6</sub> in an autocrine/paracrine manner. Consistent with our results, previous studies have demonstrated that PA-

PLA<sub>1</sub> $\alpha$  induced LPA<sub>6</sub>-mediated signaling in hair follicles in an autocrine/paracrine manner [10]. Additionally, since M-ABs are in contact with papillary layers containing rich blood vessels on the proximal side, this is likely to enable an abundant supply of ATX and LPA from the blood to the proximal end of M-ABs. Indeed, our present study showed that LPA<sub>6</sub> was strongly expressed at proximal end of M-ABs, and in LPA<sub>6</sub> KO mice, active RhoA expression was prominently reduced in the proximal side of M-ABs. Further, active RhoA was induced on the side facing the culture media containing LPA *in vitro*; thus, suggesting that LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub> signal at proximal side predominantly contributes to the regulation of M-ABs.

Herein, we have shown that cell morphology and polarity in M-ABs are markedly perturbed in LPA<sub>6</sub> KO mice. Additionally, analysis of LPA<sub>6</sub> KO mice and *in vitro* study using LPA<sub>6</sub> siRNA revealed that LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub> signaling modulates the expression and localization of E-cad, ZO-1, and F-actin, which are components of the cell junctional complex. These molecules are involved in maintaining epithelial cell polarity, in establishing structurally and functionally distinct apical and basal-lateral domains, and in recruiting signaling proteins for various cellular functions [24]. During enamel maturation, the establishment of cell morphology and polarity of M-ABs is essential for exerting necessary functions [12,25]. Therefore, our results strongly suggest that LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub> signaling plays a crucial role in the establishment of cell morphology and polarity by ensuring junction formation and actin organization for the proper functioning of M-ABs and thereby, enamel mineralization.

We showed that RhoA mediates LPA<sub>6</sub>-induced cell–cell junction and actin cytoskeleton, indicating that RhoA signaling plays a pivotal role in the development and functioning of M-ABs. A detailed study was performed showing that knockdown of LPA<sub>6</sub> and RhoA inhibition suppressed E-cad both at the mRNA and the protein levels. In turn, F-actin inhibition suppressed E-cad at the protein level, but not at the mRNA level. These results suggest that LPA<sub>6</sub>-RhoA signaling regulates the transcription of E-cad in a F-actin-independent manner, and stabilized E-cad protein in the cell membrane by anchoring it to F-actin as previously shown [26]. Inhibition of LPA<sub>6</sub>, RhoA, and F-actin also suppressed ZO-1 protein expression in the cellular membrane, while slightly increasing its transcription. These results suggest that LPA<sub>6</sub>-RhoA-F-actin axis stabilized the ZO-1 protein in the cell membrane. However, there may be unknown compensatory transcriptional mechanisms that counteract the loss of ZO-1 protein.

In this study, we showed the contribution of LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub>-RhoA signaling axis to M-ABs regulation. This discovery not only has significant impacts on our understanding of the regulatory mechanism underlying normal amelogenesis but also raises the possibility that failure of this signaling cascade can cause enamel abnormalities in human patients. Although homozygous mutations in the PA-PLA<sub>1</sub> $\alpha$  and LPA<sub>6</sub> genes are implicated in a congenital hair disorder, no enamel abnormalities have been reported in the patients [7,8,27]. Since the dental findings in those reports were obtained largely from macroscopic observations, it is unclear how the genetic abnormality of LPA<sub>6</sub> signaling affects the minute physical characteristics of the enamel. Thus, a detailed oral examination and tooth analysis of those patients can provide some clarification. To date, various causal genes of inherited enamel defects, such as amelogenesis imperfecta, have been identified. These genes are involved in diverse functions [13]; however, the involvement of LPA<sub>6</sub> signal-related genes with amelogenesis imperfecta has not yet been shown. Additionally, it was recently suggested that a combination of environmental factors and mutations in multiple genes cause anhidrotic ectodermal dysplasia and molar incisor hypomineralization [28,29]. Therefore, further studies to clarify whether the abnormality of LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub>-RhoA signaling-related genes causes enamel defect, either as a single contributor or by interacting with



other genes and environmental factors, will aid in developing novel diagnostic, treatment, and prevention strategies for those diseases.

## 5. Conclusion

This study demonstrated that LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub> signaling is essential for establishing proper cell morphology and polarity of M-ABs responsible for enamel mineralization. We have mechanistically demonstrated that LPA-LPA<sub>6</sub> signaling activates RhoA, which in turn promotes the expression and stability of cell junctional proteins and cortical actin cytoskeleton (Fig. 4). These results present a novel role of a bioactive lipid in teeth and attempt to elucidate the regulatory mechanism of tooth mineralization.

## Ethical approval

All animal experiments were conducted in compliance with ARRIVE guidelines. The protocol for experimentation was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (Approval no. 23–065, 26–045, 2016PhA-022) and the Institutional Recombinant DNA Experiments Safety Committee of Iwate Medical University and Tohoku University (Approval no. 329, 442, 581, 2015PhLMO-011).

## CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Akira Inaba:** literature search, figure, Methodology, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, writing. **Hidemitsu Harada:** literature search, figure, Methodology, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, critically revised manuscript. **Shojiro Ikezaki:** data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, critically revised manuscript. **Mika Kumakami-Sakano:** data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, critically revised manuscript. **Haruno Arai:** data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, critically revised manuscript. **Marii Azumane:** data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, critically revised manuscript. **Hayato Ohshima:** data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, critically revised manuscript. **Kazumasa Morikawa:** data interpretation, critically revised manuscript. **Kuniyuki Kano:** data interpretation, critically revised manuscript. **Junken Aoki:** data interpretation, critically revised manuscript. **Keishi Otsu:** literature search, figure, Methodology, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, writing.

## Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.job.2022.01.004>.

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