1	Electron microscopy characterization of minerals formed in vitro by
2	human bone cells and vascular smooth muscle cells
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#### 23 Abstract

Soft tissue mineralization has been found to be a major component of diseases such as aortic 24 valve stenosis and rheumatic heart disease. Cardiovascular mineralization has been suggested 25 to follow mechanisms similar to those of bone formation with several cell culture models 26 been developed over the years to provide mechanistic insights. These cell models have been 27 characterized by a wide range of biochemical and molecular methods, which identified the 28 29 presence of osteogenic markers and bone-like cells. However, there is a surprisingly small number of studies where the mineral formed in these cell culture models has been 30 31 characterized by physico-chemical methods, and even fewer studies have compared this mineral to the one produced by bone cells in cultures. Here we investigated the morphology 32 and composition of the minerals formed in cell cultures of vascular smooth muscle cells and 33 bone cells. Electron microscopy and traditional cell mineralization assays were applied, 34 revealing that vascular cells are indeed able to form calcified nodules of elemental 35 composition similar to bone, however with different morphology. Comparison of 36 morphologies of the two minerals to that found in cardiovascular tissue shows that some of 37 tissue calcification resembles the calcified fibers produced by bone cells in vitro. These 38 results suggest that the characterization of the mineral is of utmost importance and its 39 morphology and chemical properties can contribute an important piece of information in the 40 comprehensive analysis of soft tissue mineralization mechanisms, both in *in vitro* cell culture 41 42 as well as in clinical samples.

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#### 44 Introduction

Healthy hard tissues, including bone and teeth, are naturally created in the body by
mineralizing cells such as osteoblasts and odontoblasts. Mineralization of soft tissues has also
been extensively described in the literature and generally, if not always, it has been attributed

to pathological processes in humans. Diseases associated with calcification of the vascular system are major contributors to patient morbidity and mortality worldwide [1]. Vascular calcification is a wide spread phenomenon, with a third of all Americans over the age of 45 developing cardiovascular calcification complications [2, 3]. Mineral formation is a hallmark of major diseases including atherosclerosis [4] and coronary heart disease [5], for both of which there is currently no definitive treatment [5, 6]. Calcific cardiovascular diseases are estimated to lead to up to 23.3 million of deaths per year worldwide in 2030 [7].

Despite its clinical importance and major scientific efforts to understand it, the 55 56 mechanisms that lead to formation of cardiovascular calcification are yet to be understood. Several studies suggest that cardiovascular calcification is an active process [8], even though 57 for many years it was thought to be the direct result of degenerative processes [9]. Works in 58 the literature that associate cardiovascular calcification formation with bone [10, 11] are 59 mainly based on the identification of proteins such as osteonectin and Runx2 in calcific 60 cardiac lesions [10, 12-16]. On the other hand, more recent research on cardiovascular 61 calcification, showed that these calcifications are formed by three distinct forms of mineral; 62 calcified particles, calcified fibers and a compact calcification [1], all of which have a 63 structure significantly different from native bone [1, 17-19]. 64

Cell cultures have been an integral part of cardiovascular research, since they provide 65 a high degree of control of cell environment and allow the induction of calcification [20]. For 66 67 example, it has been previously shown that the presence of calcium phosphate in cell cultures of mesenchymal stem cells promotes bone formation [21] and that calcification can be 68 induced in vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMC) in the presence of inorganic phosphate [20, 69 70 22-24]. Several works suggest that the capability of VSMC to produce calcification in vitro [25] is driven possibly by a transdifferention of VSMC to bone-like cells [11, 26, 27]. On the 71 other hand, recent studies demonstrated that the formation of calcification in the vascular 72

tissue or from VSMC can be related to the release of extracellular vesicles [28-30], in a 73 process different to the one observed in bone cells. In light of these seemingly conflicting 74 results, it becomes clear that cardiovascular calcification is a much more complex 75 phenomenon, possibly consisting of a mixture of osteogenic and non-osteogenic processes, 76 and that our current assays and endpoints may not necessarily be sufficient to characterize 77 78 calcifying cell cultures, as we have vet 79 to understand their underlying mechanisms.

Here, we used physico-chemical methods to characterize the morphology and chemical composition of the minerals present in calcification produced by human bone cell (HBC) and human vascular smooth muscle cell (HVSMC) cultures. We then compared the morphology and composition of the minerals generated *in vitro* to minerals found in human bone and in calcified vascular tissue. Our results show clear structural differences between HBC and HVSMC mineralization, and similarities between the mineralized fibers formed in HBC cultures to mineralised fibers found sometimes in late stage cardiovascular disease.

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#### 88 Materials and Methods

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#### 90 Cell culture experiments

Human vascular smooth muscle cells (HVSMC) were acquired from ATCC®. For the
different experiments (detailed below), the cells used were kept at -80°C and were used at
passage four to eight. Cells were cultivated in vascular cell basal medium (ATCC®)
complemented with vascular smooth muscle growth kit (ATCC®).

Bone marrow samples were harvested from patients undergoing surgical hip replacement (ethical approval was obtained from the local ethics committee; EKSG 08/14). The detailed isolation procedure of the human bone cells (HBC) is described

elsewhere [31]. Human bone cells (HBC) were cultivated in a proliferation medium
consisting in α-MEM (Gibco®), 10% Fetal Calf Serum (FCS), 1% Penicillin-StreptomycinNeomycin (PSN) and 1 ng/ml basic fibroblast growth factor (FGF-2). Human dermal
fibroblast cells (HFC, primary cells, Sigma Aldrich, Buchs, Switzerland) were cultivated in
DMEM supplemented with 15% FCS and 1% PSN/L-glutamine. During the cell culture
experiments, Lactate Dehydrogenase (LDH) release was measured regularly (twice per week)
using a CytoTox 96® Non-Radioactive Cytotoxicity Assay kit (Promega).

For experiments, cells were seeded on 24, 48 and 96 well-plates and grown to confluence. Cells were treated with different media for 28 days. Medium was exchanged every third day.

The following four media compositions were used: (i)  $\alpha$ -MEM ( $\alpha$ -MEM): containing 108 109 only α-MEM (ii) Proliferation medium (*Prolif*): α-MEM, 10% FCS, 1% PSN and 1 ng/ml basic FGF-2. (iii) Differentiation medium (Diff): α-MEM, 10% FCS, 1% PSN, 10 nM 1.25 110 dihydroxy-vitamine D3 (VitD3), 50 μM ascorbic acid phosphate, 2 mM β-glycerophosphate 111 and 10 nM dexamethasone (Dex) (iv) Differentiation medium + Calcium (*DiffCa*):  $\alpha$ -MEM, 112 15% FCS, 1% PSN, 6 mM calcium chloride, 10 mM sodium pyruvate, 10µM insulin, 113  $50\mu$ g/ml ascorbic acid, 10 mM  $\beta$ -glycerophosphate and 1 $\mu$ M Dex. To exclude any influence 114 of compromised cell viability, lactate dehydrogenase content was monitored over the full 115 116 duration of the experiments and cell viability was measured by MTS assay at day 28.

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### 118 Scanning Electron microscopy (SEM)

For SEM imaging, samples were fixed in 4% (w/v) formaldehyde, dehydrated through a graded ethanol (Sigma, ACS reagent 99.5%) series (20, 30, 40, 50 70, 80, 90, 100 and 100% (v/v)) and air dried. All samples were carbon coated and silver painted. A Hitatchi S-3499N, a Carl Zeiss VP and a LEO Gemini 1525 FEGSEM were used for SEM analysis,

which involved imaging of the samples using secondary electron (SE) and backscattering
electron (BSE) modes, for density-dependent colour SEM (DDC-SEM) to be acquired [1].
Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy (EDS) analysis was also carried out using Oxford
Instruments EDS detectors, integrated into the microscopes. For the analysis, accelerating
voltages of 5 kV and 10 kV were used.

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#### 129 Alizarin Red staining

Following paraformaldehyde fixation, cells were stained with Alizarin Red S to reveal macroscopic calcifications. Alizarin Red S (2 g) was dissolved in 100 mL of distilled water and pH was adjusted to 4.2. Cells were stained with freshly prepared Alizarin Red solution for 2-3minutes.

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#### 135 Calcium Assay

After the samples were washed three times with PBS, cells were lysed in 1 M HCl for 136 3 h at 37 °C under constant agitation. Calcium concentrations in the solutions were measured 137 using a colorimetric QuantiChrom<sup>™</sup> Calcium Assay Kit (BioAssay Systems) following the 138 protocol provided by the manufacturer. In Brief, 5 µl of each lysate was transferred to a 96-139 well plate and 195 µl of working reagent (Quanti ChromTM Calcium Assay DICA-500, 140 Gentaur) were added. After 3 min of incubation, the absorbance of the obtained solution was 141 142 measured at 595 nm (Biotek Instruments Elx 800, Witec AG). All samples were analysed in triplicates and calcium concentrations were calculated by means of a calibration curve using a 143 calcium standard. 144

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#### 146 Human sample procurement and preparation

All samples were collected under the guidelines of ethical approval, which included informed consent that allowed us to anonymously analyse the tissues. Human femoral head bone samples were obtained by A. Hart from Charing Cross Hospital (London) from patients undergoing elective total hip arthroplasty procedures. Aortic valves from thirty-two patients were provided by the Oxford Heart Valve Bank at John Radcliffe Hospital (Oxford) and the Royal Brompton Hospital (London). These samples were obtained either after having been rejected for use as homografts or from patients undergoing aortic valve replacement surgery.

All samples were fixed using 4% (w/v) formaldehyde (Sigma, BioReagent, ≥36.0%)
solution in phosphate buffered saline (PBS; Sigma) at room temperature immediately after
collection, for at least one day.

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#### 158 **Results and Discussion**

We investigated the mineralization of HBC and HVSMC in different cell culture media. Pure  $\alpha$ -MEM ( $\alpha$ -MEM) and proliferation medium (*Prolif*) was used as base line (negative control). Mineralizing media used by representative literature studies were included in order to study *in vitro* mineralization with media containing 2 mM  $\beta$ -glycerophosphate (*Diff*) [31], and media supplemented with 6 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> and an additional 8 mM  $\beta$ glycerophosphate (*DiffCa*) [32].

Total calcium concentration was measured in the cell cultures following 28 days of culturing with media changes every third day (Fig. 1). HBC accumulate significant amounts of calcium irrespective of the mineralizing medium (*Diff* and *DiffCa*), while HVSMC only show an increase in calcium concentration when exposed to calcium-supplemented mineralization medium (*DiffCa*). Interestingly, human fibroblast cells (HFC), which were included as non-vascular cells for reference, show similar calcium accumulation to the other cell cultures when exposed to *DiffCa* for 28 days.

Fig 1. Total calcium content per well at day 28. Cultures of human bone cells (HBC),
human vascular smooth muscle cells (HVSMC) and human dermal fibroblasts (HFC), using
different media.

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Alizarin Red staining was performed, in order to visualize calcium accumulation in the cell cultures (Fig. 2). The results confirm mineral deposition in HBC cultures when exposed to *Diff* and *DiffCa*, and in HVSMC (and HFC, not shown) cultures, only when exposed to *DiffCa*.

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Fig 2. Alizarin Red stained cell cultures. Calcium-rich regions appear in red. Magnification
(40x).

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Considering that Alizarin Red results may be misleading when applied to cell cultures 184 and can stain positive even in the absence of mineral [33], we also performed high-resolution 185 186 electron microscopy with elemental analysis. As expected, no evidence of calcium phosphate deposition was found in the HBC culture when exposed to  $\alpha$ -MEM and *Prolif* medium (*Fig.* 187 3(a, b)). In agreement with the calcium assay and the Alizarin Red staining, HBC exposed to 188 Diff and DiffCa presented significant amounts of mineral deposits. Scanning electron 189 micrographs show fibre-like mineral deposits consisting of calcium phosphate (Fig. 3(c, d)) 190 in HBC incubated with *Diff* medium. Strikingly, the HBC exposed to *DiffCa* also present 191 large amounts of calcium phosphate mineral deposits (Fig. 3 (e, f)), albeit with a completely 192 different morphology to the mineral formed in the *Diff* medium. In the case of *DiffCa*, large 193 chunks of mineral were detected with no evidence of fibrous structures, suggesting a rapid 194 mineral precipitation. While nominal amount and the composition of mineral was very 195 comparable in these two cell culture systems, the morphology of the mineral deposits is 196

197 strikingly different (see *Fig.* 3(c, d) vs. (e, f)).

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Fig 3. DDC-SEM micrographs of HBC (Human Bone Cells) calcification morphology produced in different media, imaged at low and high magnifications, with correspondent EDS spectra of indicated region. The organic material is represented as green while the inorganic material as orange. (a, b) *Prolif* medium where no deposition of calcium phosphate is observed. (c, d) *Diff* medium where fibrous calcium phosphate structures are observed. (e, f) *DiffCa* medium where large deposition of calcium phosphate is observed. Scale bars =  $20 \mu m$ ,  $2 \mu m$ .

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For HVSMC, again, no evidence of calcium phosphate mineral deposition was found 207 208 for cell cultures exposed to  $\alpha$ -MEM and *Prolif* medium (*Fig. 4 (a, b*)). In contrast to HBC, no evidence of calcium phosphate formation was found for HVSMC exposed to Diff (Fig. 4 209 (c, d)). Calcium phosphate minerals were, however, observed in HVSMC cultures exposed to 210 DiffCa (Fig. 3 (e, f)). Similar results were also observed in the HFC culture with 211 mineralization only present in the DiffCa medium (results not shown). DiffCa medium is 212 indeed saturated for hydroxyapatite [34], and thus it comes as no surprise that rapid mineral 213 precipitation could form in an unstructured manner, similarly to the precipitate formed in the 214 HBC. However the structures observed by the different cell cultures, are significantly 215 216 different thus a cell involved rather than a simple supersaturation process might be taking place (see Fig. 3 (e, f) vs. Fig. 4 (e, f)). 217

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Fig 4. DDC-SEM micrographs of HVSMC (Human Vascular Smooth Muscle Cells) calcification morphology produced in different media, imaged at low and high magnifications, with correspondent EDS spectra of indicated region. The organic

material is represented as green while the inorganic material as orange. (a, b) *Prolif* medium where no deposition of calcium phosphate is observed. (c, d) *Diff* medium where no deposition of calcium phosphate is observed. (e, f) *DiffCa* medium where calcium phosphate mineral is observed. Scale bars =  $20 \mu m$ ,  $10 \mu m$ .

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In order to compare the structure and morphology of the *in vitro* generated minerals to minerals found in clinical samples, we analysed a series of calcified human tissues. First, we imaged human bone samples by SEM. The characteristic calcified oriented and regular structure can be easily recognized on the micrographs (*Fig. 5 (a)*). On the other hand, at least three distinctly different characteristic structures, including fibers (*Fig. 5 (b)*), calcified particles (*Fig. 5 (c)*) and compact calcification (*Fig. 5 (d)*) could be identified in human cardiovascular tissues as previously described in the literature [1].

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Fig 5. DDC-SEM micrographs of the microstructure of human bone (a) and mineralised structures observed in cardiovascular tissue (b, c and d). (a) High magnification image, showing calcified collagen fibers forming bone. Scale bar = 1  $\mu$ m. DDC-SEM micrographs of the calcified structures observed in human cardiovascular tissue (b) calcific fibres, (c) calcific particles (white arrow), (d) large compact calcification (white arrow) with calcific particles (red arrow). Scale bars = 1  $\mu$ m.

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There is a notable similarity between minerals formed in the *in vitro* cultures of HBC in *Diff* media (*Fig. 2 (c, d*)) and the fibers that can be sometimes found at the later stages of calcification [1] present in the vascular tissue (*Fig. 5b and S1 Fig.*). From the similarities presented between the bone cell cultures calcific structures and the vascular structures, we could speculate that in some cases there is indeed some form of calcification present in the cardiovascular tissue which is similar to the material produced by bone cells, supporting partially the many studies that report osteogenic differentiation of vascular cells. However, no similarities are observed with the natural bone structure, suggesting that the calcified fibers could be formed by a distinct mechanism to bone mineralization. Also, no morphological similarities were found for the mineral produced by HVSMC, neither to the mineral found in bone tissue nor in cardiac tissues, suggesting that our HVSMC model does not adequately depict the *in vivo* mineralization mechanism.

Taken together, these results show that the culturing of human bone cells is indeed 254 255 able to form minerals similar to some of the structures found in vivo, and hence partially support the hypothesis that some sort of osteogenic differentiation in vascular tissue could 256 happen sporadically. On the other hand, none of the cultures were able to produce any 257 structure similar to the calcified particles that are widespread in vascular tissue [1, 17, 30] 258 and are the first calcified structure that can be detected in those tissues [1] (Fig. 5 (a)). This 259 study indicates that a major component of vascular calcification still cannot be described by 260 the cell cultures tested here, and that there is likely an unaccounted player contributing to 261 mineral deposition in the cardiovascular system. 262

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#### 264 Acknowledgement

I.K.H. and S.B. acknowledge support from the Swiss Heart Foundation and the SwissNational Science Foundation (grant no. 173077).

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### 392 Supporting Information

393	S1 Figure.	<b>BSE</b> electron	micrographs of	calcification	observed in	human cardiov	ascular
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tissue and in the HBC culture exposed to Diff media. a Low magnification of fibrous calcification observed in human cardiovascular tissue. b Low magnification of fibrous calcification produced in HBC culture exposed to Diff media. Scale bars =  $10 \mu m$ . c Higher magnification of calcification observed in human cardiovascular tissue where the calcified fibers along with collagen fibers can be observed. d Higher magnification of calcification produced in HBC culture exposed to Diff media. Scale bars =  $1 \mu m$ .

# HBC 20000-HVSMC Ca <sup>2+</sup> (ng per well HFC 15000 10000 5000 Differentiation Medium + ICa Differentiation Medium Differentiation Medium 0 Proliferation medium Proliferation medium Proliferation medium







