Lithium and Copper Induce the Osteogenesis-Angiogenesis Coupling of Bone Marrow Mesenchymal Stem Cells via Crosstalk between Canonical Wnt and HIF-1α Signaling Pathways

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The combination of osteogenesis and angiogenesis dual-delivery trace element-carrying bioactive scaffolds and stem cells is a promising method for bone regeneration and repair. Canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathways are vital for BMSCs’ osteogenic differentiation and secretion of osteogenic factors, respectively. Simultaneously, lithium (Li) and copper (Cu) can activate the canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathway, respectively. Moreover, emerging evidence has shown that the canonical Wnt and HIF signaling pathways are related to coupling osteogenesis and angiogenesis. However, it is still unclear whether the lithium- and copper-doped bioactive scaffold can induce the coupling of the osteogenesis and angiogenesis in BMSCs and the underlying mechanism. So, we fabricated a lithium- (Li⁺) and copper- (Cu²⁺) doped organic/inorganic (Li₂.₅-Cu₁.₀-HA/Col) scaffold to evaluate the coupling osteogenesis and angiogenesis effects of lithium and copper on BMSCs and further explore its mechanism. We investigated that the sustained release of lithium and copper from the Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col scaffold could couple the osteogenesis- and angiogenesis-related factor secretion in BMSCs seeding on it. Moreover, our results showed that 500 μM Li⁺ could activate the canonical Wnt signaling pathway and rescue the XAV-939 inhibition on it. In addition, we demonstrated that the 25 μM Cu²⁺ was similar to 1% oxygen environment in terms of the effectiveness of activating the HIF-1α signaling pathway. More importantly, the combination stimuli of Li⁺ and Cu²⁺ could couple the osteogenesis and angiogenesis process and further upregulate the osteogenesis- and angiogenesis-related gene expression via crosstalk between the canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathway. In conclusion, this study revealed that lithium and copper could crosstalk between the canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathways to couple the osteogenesis and angiogenesis in BMSCs when they are sustainably released from the Li-Cu-HA/Col scaffold.
1. Introduction

More than 1.6 million people receive bone grafts because of tumor resection, pathological deformation, congenital deformation, sports injury, and infection treatment each year in the USA [1]. Critical-sized bone defect repair remains a real challenge in the field of orthopedics [1, 2]. Currently, stem cell-based tissue engineering reconstruction of bone defect is a feasible and continuously developing strategy to restore structure and function [3]. Bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells (BMSCs), a seed of bone regeneration, can differentiate into osteoblasts and secrete angiogenic factors to promote bone regeneration [4–6]. Thus, the BMSCs have potential to couple the osteogenesis and angiogenesis processes. Simultaneously, the trace elements were considered bone seekers due to their stable release kinetics, preferable stability in a biological environment, and low cost [7]. It had been demonstrated that many trace elements could promote osteogenesis or angiogenesis in bone regeneration [7]. Consequently, trace element release from the bioactive scaffold to couple the osteogenesis and angiogenesis of BMSCs are becoming a promising therapeutic strategy in bone tissue regeneration.

The osteogenesis of BMSCs involving many molecular signaling pathways and the canonical Wnt signaling pathway has been shown to be one of them. The Wnt signaling plays an important role in bone development, homeostasis, osteoblast differentiation, and bone formation [8]. Lithium can activate the canonical Wnt signaling pathway by inhibiting the activity of GSK3β, thereby inhibiting the phosphorylation and degradation of β-catenin [9]. Accumulated β-catenin is transported to the nucleus and initiates transcription of the osteogenesis gene (Wnt target genes) by binding to T cell factor/lymphoid enhancer-binding factor (TCF/LEF) transcription reporters [10]. In recent years, several studies indicated that the activation of the canonical Wnt signaling pathway could promote the migration and proliferation of bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells, adipose-derived stem cells and the osteogenic differentiation-related gene (Runt-related transcription factor 2, osterix, etc.) expression [11, 12]. Additionally, lithium-based scaffolds could stimulate bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells’ osteogenesis and enhance bone regeneration via activation of the canonical Wnt signaling pathway [13, 14]. Therefore, lithium can be used as a promising bioactive trace element to promote the osteogenesis process.

The process of angiogenesis in a physiological and pathophysiological manner is highly related to the activation of the HIF-1α signaling pathway [15, 16]. Increasing evidence has been demonstrated that the expression of hypoxia-inducible factor 1α (HIF-1α) in mesenchymal stem cells enhances the VEGF expression and secretion to promote blood vessel formation [17]. Copper, an essential trace element in the human body, can inhibit the prolyl hydroxylation of HIF-1α by prolyl hydroxylases (PHDs) to stabilize HIF-1α expression [18]. Simultaneously, copper acts as a physiological inhibitor for FIH-1 (hydroxylase or factor inhibiting HIF-1α) [18]. The FIH had been demonstrated to inhibit the HIF-1α’s interaction with the cofactors SRC-1, CBP, and p300 and then downgrade the expression of the HIF-1α target gene (VEGF, Glut1, etc.) [18]. In addition, copper-based scaffolds could upregulate the angiogenic factor levels and enhance the bone defect healing via activation of the HIF-1α signaling pathway [19]. Thus, copper is promising as an inducer of tissue engineering vascularized bone.

Interestingly, there are inextricable and extensive connections between canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathways. Kaidi and colleagues revealed that β-catenin could be used as a cotranscription factor to bind with HIF-1α and promote the expression of HIF-1α signaling pathway downstream genes [20]. While the role of HIF-1α in the Wnt signaling pathway is still controversial. In neurogenesis and bipolar disorder, Valvezan and Klein had reported that the HIF-1α promotes Wnt target gene expression in stem cells [21]. However, in colon cancer, hypoxia-activated HIF-1α inhibits β-catenin-T cell factor-4 (TCF-4) complex formation and transcriptional activity in hypoxia [20], while whether the canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathway activated by lithium and copper can couple and enhance the osteogenesis-angiogenesis in the BMSCs is still unclear.

In this study, we fabricated a lithium- (Li+) and copper- (Cu++) doped organic/inorganic (Li-Cu-HA/Col) scaffold to explore their effects on coupling osteogenesis-angiogenesis. And then, we screened the optimal concentration of lithium and copper to evaluate their ability as an agonist of canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathways. Finally, we investigated the osteogenesis-angiogenesis coupling ability in BMSCs under the costimulation of optimal lithium and copper concentration and explore the underlying mechanism.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Isolation and Characterization of BMSCs. The BMSCs were isolated from 6- to 8-week old Balc/c mice. Femurs and tibias from mice were dissected, and the bone marrow was flushed with Dulbecco’s Modified Eagle’s Medium (DMEM; HyClone, USA). Bone marrow-derived cells were filtered through a 70 μm cell strainer (BD Falcon, USA) and collected by centrifugation at 250 g for 10 min. Resuspend the cells with 2 ml Ammonium-Chloride-Potassium Lysis Buffer (Beyotime, China), and add 6 ml DMEM to stop the reaction after 5 minutes. Then, centrifuge at 250 g for 5 minutes to obtain BMSCs, and the cells were cultured in DMEM, supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Invitrogen-Gibco, USA) and 1% (v/v) antibiotic/antimycotic (Invitrogen-Gibco, USA). When cells grew to 80% confluence, 0.25% trypsin (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) was used to passage the cells.

BMSCs were seeded into 6-well plates and cultured in the complete medium. According to the manufacturer’s instructions, osteogenic and adipogenic induction was stimulated by using commercial kits (Cyagen, China). Osteogenesis effects were detected by Alizarin Red staining (ARS; Sigma-Aldrich, USA) after 3-week induction, and the Oil Red O was used for adipogenic detection after 3-week induction. Chondrogenic differentiation was induced using the micromass culture technique. BMSCs were collected and washed three times with chondrogenic induction medium (Cyagen, China) under centrifugation at 350 g for 5 min. The pellet was cultured in 0.5 ml chondrogenic induction medium in the
15 ml tube. After 2 days, the pellet was suspended by slightly knocking the bottom of the tube. The medium was replaced every two days, and the pellet was cultured for 28 days. Chondrogenesis effects were detected by Alcian blue staining.

2.2. Alizarin Red, Oil Red O, and Alcian Blue Staining. For Alizarin Red staining of cultured cells, BMSCs were washed with 1× Phosphate-Buffered Saline (PBS) and fixed with 10% formalin for 20 min. Then, cells were washed in tap water three times before staining with Alizarin Red solution (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) for 15 min. Finally, cells were rewarshed with tap water three times and viewed under an inverted microscope (Nikon Eclipse TS100, USA).

For Oil Red O staining of cultured cells, BMSCs were washed with 1× PBS and fixed with 10% formalin for 20 min. Then, cells were washed in tap water three times before staining with Oil Red O solution (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) for 15 min. The excess stain was removed by washing with 70% ethanol three times. Finally, cells were rewarshed with diluted water three times and viewed under an inverted microscope (Nikon Eclipse TS100, USA).

For Alcian blue staining, tissues generated from the pellet cultures were fixed in 10% formalin for 2 h and then washed twice with 1× PBS before the addition of 0.1% stock solutions of Alcian blue. After 30 min incubation at room temperature, the dye solution was removed and the constructs were washed with distilled water. Moreover, the staining results were recorded under an inverted microscope (Nikon Eclipse TS100, USA).

2.3. Fabrication of Lithium- and Copper-Doped Hydroxyapatite/Col Scaffold (Li-Cu-nHA/Col). We firstly synthesized lithium- and copper-doped hydroxyapatite (Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA) powder through a microwave-assisted hydrothermal method [22]. The Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA powder was prepared as follows: Ca(NO3)2·4H2O and NH4H2PO4 (Aldrich Chemical, USA) were dissolved in deionized water separately to form 0.1 M and 0.06 M solution. And then, add LiNO3 and Cu(NO3)2 solid with designed Li/(Li+Cu+Ca) molar ratios of 0.025 and 0.01, separately, to form the mix solution. Subsequently, the pH of the mix solution and NH4H2PO4 solution was buffered close to 12 by NH3·H2O, and then, pour the adjusted NH4H2PO4 solution into Ca(NO3)2·4H2O solution slowly. Then, the above solution was transferred into an autoclave (60 ml) and heated in a microwave oven (MDS-6, Sineo, China) for 120 min at 130°C. After cooling, the products were collected by centrifugation, washed three times with deionized water, and then dried at 60°C.

The obtained products were labeled as Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA. The porous ceramic structures of the Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA powder were produced and designed using the H2O2 foaming method [23]. Approximately 100 g of Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA powder, 7.5 ml of cellulose, 25 ml of H2O2, 7.5 ml of polyvinyl alcohol (PVA), and 60 ml of deionized water were mixed to form a ceramic slurry. This slurry was heated for 2 min in a microwave to generate gas and then molded to obtain the porous ceramic scaffold. Afterward, the scaffold was dried at 80°C for 12 h, following sintering at a heating rate of 5°C·min⁻¹ for 6 h until 1200°C, and then, the ceramics in the furnace were cooled until room temperature. All the samples were cut into Φ10 mm × 10 mm cylinders, and the Archimedes principle method was used to test the sintered Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA scaffolds’ porosity.

And then, we used the vacuum infusion method, described by Zhou et al., to establish the Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col scaffold according to the “brick-and-mortar” reinforcement theory [23]. We were dispersing the type I collagen (Sigma Chemical, USA) into 1.5 simulated body fluid (SBF) solution at a 10 g·ml⁻¹ concentration to 20 g·ml⁻¹, and it was adjusted using 5% w·v⁻¹ acetic acid to a pH ranging from 4.0 to 6.5. After that, the scaffold was fully immersed into the type I collagen solution and sealed in a high-pressure vessel. And then, the vacuum infusion with a pressure of 10 Pa was used to fill the collage I solution in the porous Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA scaffolds, which sustained for 2 h to allow the full saturation of the ceramic materials. Ultrasonic vibration and a repeated process were conducted for vacuum infusion. Finally, the Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col scaffold was lyophilized at -20°C and sterilized by γ-rays (60Co) at a dose of 25 kGy for 1 h for use.

2.4. Characterization of the Li-Cu-HA/Col Scaffold. The chemical compositions of the scaffolds were analyzed by Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR; PerkinElmer Spectrum One B, USA) with scanning from 4000 cm⁻¹ to 500 cm⁻¹. The uniaxial compression testing was conducted to investigate the mechanical properties of HA, Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA, and Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col scaffolds using a universal mechanical testing machine (Shimadzu-Series AGS-IX, Japan). Briefly, Φ10 mm × 10 mm scaffolds were fixed on the testing plate. And then, we used the load displacement measurements to obtain the stress-strain curve via a 10 kN load cell at a crosshead speed of 0.5 mm·min⁻¹. After that, we got the maximum compressive strength (maximum load) through the stress-strain curve. In addition, the scaffolds’ microstructural characterization was observed using scanning electron microscopy (Electron Co., Japan).

The porosity of Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA and Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col scaffolds was determined by using the Archimedes principle method. We measure three kinds of weights (w1, w2, and w3) under different conditions. w1 is the mass of the dried sample (30 min vacuum treatment), w2 is the mass of the saturated sample weighed in the air, and w3 is the apparent mass of the saturated sample weighed in liquid. And then, we use Equation (1) to calculate the porosity.

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\text{Porosity} = \frac{w_2 - w_1}{w_3 - w_2} \times 100\%.
\]

The solution-mediated degradation properties of scaffolds were tested in the simulated body fluid (SBF). HA/Col and Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col scaffolds (n = 3, per concentration) were placed in clean vial bottles and completely immersed in 5 ml of SBF. Then, the bottles were sealed and put into a 37°C water bathing constant temperature vibrator, and the SBF was refreshed every 3 days. The
scaffolds were taken out at designated time intervals of 2, 4, 7, 10, 14, 17, 21, 28, and 30 days. An obsolete release medium was gathered for measuring ionized lithium/copper/phosphate concentrations.

2.5. Live-Dead Cell Staining and MTS Assay of BMSCs Cocultured with the Scaffold. Before BMSC seeding, all the scaffolds were soaked in culture medium for 24h at 37°C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO₂. P3 BMSCs were seeded dropwise on the scaffolds after removing the culture medium. Subsequently, the seed-seeded scaffolds were kept at 37°C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO₂ for 2h to allow cells to attach to the scaffolds. Finally, the cell-seeded scaffolds were cultured in the culture medium.

The cell proliferation rate of BMSCs on the scaffold was measured using CellTiter 96® AQ™ueous One Solution Cell Proliferation Assay kit (Promega, USA) on day 1, 3, 5, and 7 time points. The BMSC coculture scaffolds were washed twice with PBS and incubated with 200 μl MTS solution plus 800 μl culture medium for 3 h in a humidified incubator. After that, the absorbance of the culture medium was read using Synergy™ Mx Monochromator-Based Multi-Mode Microplate Reader (BioTek Instruments, Inc., USA) at 490 nm.

After coculture of the scaffold with P3 BMSCs for 3 days, a Live-Dead Cell Staining Kit (calcine-AM/PI double staining kit, Taiwan, China) was used for detecting the dead cells. The BMSC coculture scaffolds were washed twice with PBS and stained with Live-Dye (a green fluorescent dye for live cells, Ex/Em = 488/518 nm) and propidium iodide (PI, a red fluorescent dye, Ex/Em = 488/615 nm). After incubation for 15 min at 37°C, live and dead cells were visualized by fluorescence microscopy (Leica TCS SPS, Leica, Germany).

2.6. ELISA for Cytokine Detection. Take the sample culture medium into a centrifuge tube and centrifuge at 3000 rpm for 10 minutes at 4°C. Collect the upper layer of medium and freeze it at -80°C for use. The alkaline phosphatase (ALP), osteocalcin (OCN), and VEGF protein concentration in the culture medium were detected using an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay kit (Raolai Biotech, China). The test was performed on five samples per treatment, according to the manufacturer’s protocol.

2.7. Cell Proliferation by MTS Assay and Cell Count. BMSCs at P3 were cultured under different interventions for 1, 3, 5, and 7 days. And then, CellTiter 96® AQ™ueous One Solution (MTS, Promega Corporation, USA) was added to each well in a 1:10 dilution in the culture medium. After incubation for 4h at 37°C and 5% CO₂ in the humidified atmosphere, absorbance was measured in a microplate reader at 490 nm (Molecular Devices, USA). Simultaneously, the BMSC number was counted by using Cellometer Mini Automated Cell Counter (Nexcelom Bioscience, USA) on day 7.

2.8. Reverse Transcription Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-qPCR) and Western Blot (WB) Analysis. Total RNA was subsequently extracted using the RNeasy Mini Kit following the manufacturer’s instructions (Qiagen, USA) and reverse-transcribed into cDNAs using SuperScript IV Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Fisher, USA). RT-qPCR was performed in an ABI StepOnePlus™ instrument (Applied Biosystems, USA) using the SYBR® Premix Ex Taq™ (Takara, Japan). Each RT-qPCR analysis was performed using six independent biological samples. Relative mRNA expression levels were calculated using the 2ΔΔCt method, with glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) used as a housekeeping control. The primers used for the RT-qPCR are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

For western blotting, BMSCs were harvested with radioimmunoprecipitation assay lysis buffer (Sigma, USA) supplemented with protease inhibitor cocktail (1:100, Sigma, USA). Protein concentrations were determined using a protein assay kit (Thermo Fisher, USA) according to the manufacturer’s instruction. The Invitrogen NuPage® Novex® Gel System was used for protein separation in 4–12% Bis-Tris Protein Gels at 200 V for 50 min. Proteins were then transferred to a Polyvinyllidene Fluoride (PVDF) membrane by using iBlot™ Transfer Stack. Membranes were blocked in 5% nonfat milk in the TBST (a mixture of tris-buffered saline (TBS, Thermo Fisher, USA) and 0.1% polysorbate 20 (Tween, Thermo Fisher, USA)) for 1 h, followed by incubation with a primary antibody (diluted in 1% nonfat milk in 0.1% TBST) overnight at 4°C. After washing, membranes were incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (Abcam, USA) for 1.5 h at room temperature, washed with 0.1% TBST, and imaged with the ChemiDoc™ Touch Imaging System (Bio-Rad, USA). Antibody information is provided in Supplementary Table 2.

2.9. Chromatin Immunoprecipitation (ChIP). The chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay was performed as described previously [24]. Briefly, the cells were incubated in 1% formaldehyde for 10 min at 37°C for protein crosslinking to DNA. Following this, cells were collected and lysed in sodium dodecyl sulfate lysis buffer, and 200-1000 bp DNA fragments were obtained by using a Branson Sonifier 450 (PA, USA) under the following condition: six times for periods of 15 s each. After centrifuging, the supernatant containing chromatin was diluted 100-fold, and an aliquot (2% volume) was used to indicate the input DNA amount in each sample. The remaining chromatin extract was incubated with anti-β-catenin, anti-HIF-1α, and anti-IgG (negative control) using salmon sperm DNA/protein A agarose beads overnight at 4°C with gentle rotation. Crosslinking was reversed for 4h at 65°C and was followed by proteinase K digestion. DNA was purified by a standard phenol/chloroform method, reverse transcripted, and subjected to real-time PCR. Primer sequences are available in Supplementary Table 2.

2.10. Immunofluorescence (IF) Staining. For IF analysis of cultured cells, BMSCs were fixed with 10% formalin for 15 minutes. Permeabilize cells with 0.1%. And then, they were blocked in PBS with 5% bovine serum albumin for 30 minutes at room temperature. Immunostaining was performed using the primary antibody against β-catenin and VEGF and the secondary antibody against rabbit or mouse IgG. Nuclei were counterstained with 4’,6-diamidino-2-
2.11. Statistical Analysis. The GraphPad Prism 7.0 software (San Diego, CA) was used for the statistical analyses. Data are presented as the mean ± standard error (SE). One-way ANOVA was used for the comparison between multigroups’ results, followed by the comparison between each two groups using the Tukey analysis. * indicates a P value < 0.05, ** indicates a P value < 0.01, and *** indicates a P value < 0.001.

3. Results

3.1. Identification of BMSCs. To characterize cells isolated by the adherence method, we detected the osteogenesis, adipogenesis, and chondrogenesis potential and surface markers of mouse bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells (BMSCs). The Alizarin Red, Oil Red O, and Alcian blue staining results revealed that the BMSCs had osteogenesis, adipogenesis, and chondrogenesis differentiation potential (Figures 1(a)–1(c)). The cells positively express CD29, CD44, and CD90, while they have negative expression of CD11b, CD34, and CD45.

Figure 1: Multiline differentiation and surface markers of BMSCs. (a) Osteogenic differentiation. The Alizarin Red staining result showed that the BMSCs formed a massive red calcium nodule after three weeks of osteogenesis induction. (b) Adipogenesis differentiation. After three weeks of adipogenesis induction, many red lipid droplets can be seen in the cells. (c) Chondrogenesis differentiation. The Alcian blue staining of chondrogenic pellets confirmed the accumulation of extracellular matrix proteins in the chondrogenic pellet. (d–i) The cells positively express CD29, CD44, and CD90, while they have negative expression of CD11b, CD34, and CD45.
negative for CD11b, CD34, and CD45, which is consistent with the characteristics of stem cells (Figures 1(d)–1(j)).

3.2. Li-Cu-HA/Col Scaffold Has an Excellent Physicochemical Property. We successfully used the microwave-assisted hydrothermal method to fabricate the Li-Cu-HA/Col scaffold. The FTIR results showed that the ceramic powder (HA, Li 2.5-HA, Cu 1.0-HA, and Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA) had absorption peaks of hydroxyapatite, and the Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col powders also presented the absorption peaks of collagen (Figure 2(a)). After that, we established the Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA and Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col scaffolds by the foaming and vacuum infusion method and found that the porosity of Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA (75.5 ± 8.5%) was significantly higher than that of the Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col (52.4 ± 6.8%) scaffold, which reflected the higher compaction of Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col. Simultaneously, Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col was also superior in mechanical strength to the Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA and HA scaffolds (Figure 2(b)). At the microstructure level, the Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA ceramic’s pore size was 200 μm to 400 μm (Figures 2(c) (1)), and the vacuum infusion process forces Collagen I to fill the ceramics’ porous matrix (Figure 2(c) (2), (3), and (4)). In the scaffold degradation experiment, the Li+, Cu2+, and phosphate ions were slowly released from the Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col scaffold. Due to the adsorption of collagen on the surface of the ceramic scaffold, the release rate of trace element and phosphate ions was relatively slow in the early phase. And then, the release rate gradually increased and reached a stable rate after 7 days (Figure 2(d)), while, compared to the HA/Col scaffold, the phosphate ions released from the Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col scaffolds were significantly reduced.

3.3. Li-Cu-HA/Col Scaffold Can Promote the Process of Osteogenesis and Angiogenesis. Based on the excellent physical and chemical properties of Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col, we further explored the biocompatibility and osteogenic and angiogenic properties of the scaffold. As expected, the Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col scaffold promotes the proliferation of BMSCs and benefits the vitality of BMSCs (Figures 3(a) and 3(b)). Moreover, the ability of BMSCs to secrete osteogenic- (ALP, OCN) and angiogenic- (VEGF) related factors were significantly enhanced when cocultured with the Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col scaffold in vitro (Figure 3(c)).

3.4. Lithium (500 μM) Can Rescue the Inhibited Wnt Signaling Pathway. To gain insights into the role of lithium in the canonical Wnt signaling pathway, we examined the proliferation of BMSCs under the stimulation of lithium and further explored whether the optimal lithium concentration can effectively rescue the inhibited Wnt signaling pathway. Low concentration of Li+ (125 μM-1 mM) was proven to be beneficial to BMSCs’ proliferation, and 500 μM was the optimal stimulation concentration, which was confirmed by the MTS assay (Figure 4(a)) and cell counts (Figure 4(b)). Importantly, 500 μM Li+ can activate the canonical Wnt signaling pathway in BMSCs. RT-qPCR and western blot analysis revealed that the β-catenin and osterix expression was increased and p-GSK3β was drastically declined in the BMSCs under the stimulation of 500 μM lithium (Figures 4(c) and 4(d), bar 1 versus bar 2). Notably, lithium (500 μM) can rescue the inhibitory effect of 10 μM XAV-939 on the canonical Wnt signaling pathway in BMSCs. On the 500 μM lithium and 10 μM XAV-939 costimulation group, the expression of β-catenin, osterix, and p-GSK3β was similar to that of the Wnt signaling pathway-activated group (Figures 4(c) and 4(d), bar 2 versus bar 3). Compared with the 10 μM XAV-939 stimulation group, the expression of β-catenin and osterix was drastically elevated in the combination group in BMSCs. At the same time, the p-GSK3β was significantly decreased (Figures 4(c) and 4(d), bar 3 versus bar 4). Moreover, we got similar results in immunofluorescence staining of β-catenin in BMSCs under the different stimulations (Figure 4(e)).

3.5. 25 μM Copper Is an Appropriate Concentration to Activate the HIF-1α Signaling Pathway. To determine copper’s role in the HIF-1α signal pathway, we examined VEGF expression under the stimulation of copper in BMSCs. Further, we explored the efficacy of copper on the activation of the HIF-1α signal pathway. A low copper ion concentration (5 μM-100 μM) can promote the VEGF expression, and 25 μM copper ions have the same efficacy with 1% oxygen microenvironment on stimulating the secretion of VEGF (Figure 5(a)). In addition, under copper stimulation, the expression of HIF-1α and VEGF was significantly revealed than that of the control group (Figures 5(b) and 5(c), bar 1 versus bar 2), and their expression levels were equivalent to 1% hypoxic environment (Figures 5(b) and 5(c), bar 2 versus bar 3). Moreover, we got similar results in immunofluorescence staining of VEGF in BMSCs under the different stimulations (Figure 5(d)).

3.6. Lithium and Copper Costimulation Can Promote Osteogenesis and Angiogenesis via Crosstalk between the Canonical Wnt and HIF-1α Signaling Pathways. A previous study had revealed that the canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathways had inextricable and extensive connections [20, 21], although we found that 500 μM Li+ and 25 μM Cu2+ could effectively activate the canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathway in BMSCs, respectively. However, whether the lithium and copper could couple and enhance the osteogenesis and angiogenesis and the underlying mechanism are still unknown. So, we used the 500 μM Li+ and 25 μM Cu2+ to costimulate the BMSCs and found that the number of calcium nodules and VEGF-positive expression cells are significantly increased compared with those in 500 μM Li+ or 25 μM Cu2+ stimulation (Figure 6(a)). Simultaneously, the RT-qPCR and western blot had demonstrated that the osteogenesis- (ALP, osterix) and angiogenesis- (VEGF) related factors were significantly increased in the coculture group (Figures 6(b) and 6(c)). All these suggested that the osteogenesis and angiogenesis ability of BMSCs in the costimulation group was enhanced. Furthermore, Kaidi et al. reported that β-catenin could combine with HIF-1α to promote the VEGF and Glut 1 expression [20]. And Wan et al. have reported that HIF-1α could bind to the promoter region of osterix and promote osteoblast differentiation in MSCs [25]. So, we used the ChIP analysis which demonstrated that the osterix gene promoter
region has obvious HIF-1α enrichment under the costimulation group and 25 μM Cu²⁺ in the BMSCs (Figure 6(d), bar 3 versus bar 2, bar 1). Simultaneously, there was β-catenin enriched in VEGF's promoter region in the costimulation group and 500 μM Li⁺ in the BMSCs (Figure 6(e)). Accordingly, the costimulation of lithium and copper could crosstalk between the canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathways in the BMSCs and enhance the coupling of osteogenesis and angiogenesis.

4. Discussion

More and more evidence showed that trace elements (lithium, magnesium, zinc, copper, etc.) released from the bioactive scaffold can promote osteogenesis or angiogenesis in bone regeneration [7, 13, 26]. Increasing evidence revealed that the dual-delivery scaffold could couple osteogenesis and angiogenesis to promote bone regeneration [27, 28]. We have recently discovered that lithium and copper
sustainably released from the hydroxyapatite/collagen scaffold (Li 2.5-Cu 1.0-HA/Col) could promote the expression of osteogenesis- and angiogenesis-related factors when cocultured with BMSCs. This revealed that lithium and copper could couple the osteogenesis and angiogenesis of BMSCs. Therefore, clarifying the mechanism of lithium and copper in coupling osteogenesis and angiogenesis in BMSCs will provide a new strategy for bone defect repair. In this study, we further identified that the 500 μM lithium and 25 μM copper could effectively activate the canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathway. In addition, we demonstrated that cross-talk between the canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathways could couple and enhance the osteogenesis and angiogenesis in BMSCs under the costimulation of lithium and copper.

The normal bone repair involves multiple overlapping processes such as inflammation, osteogenesis, and vascularization et al. The coupling of osteogenesis and angiogenesis is an indispensable part of bone regeneration and repair. More and more studies have shown that the dual-delivery scaffold coupling osteogenesis and angiogenesis is a feasible method for bone regeneration [27, 28]. In our study, we fabricated the Li-Cu-HA/Col scaffold using a microwave-assisted hydrothermal combined with, foaming, and vacuum infusion method [22, 23]. With the deposition of type I collagen on the Li-Cu-HA scaffold’s surface, the scaffolds’ compressive stretch has reached the trabecular bone requirement (3.65 MPa), and the porosity that had been demonstrated can promote bone ingrowth [29]. Simultaneously, the Li-Cu-HA/Col scaffold had good biocompatibility and could encourage the proliferation of BMSCs. More importantly, the lithium and copper could sustain the release from the scaffold and promote osteogenesis and angiogenesis when cocultured with BMSCs. Previously, some scholars have doped two or more trace elements into the scaffold and proved that it could couple osteogenesis and angiogenesis and enhance bone repair. Bose and colleagues designed a magnesium- and silicon-doped 3D printed tricalcium phosphate scaffold in which magnesium and silicon were used to promote angiogenesis and osteogenesis, respectively. And they investigated that the scaffold could promote the expression of ALP, OCN, and VEGF to enhance the bone defect healing [27]. Weng et al. had been doping strontium and copper into the scaffold to play the role of osteogenesis. And they demonstrated that the scaffold could couple the process of osteogenesis and angiogenesis to promote bone formation [28]. Thus, we believe that a lithium- and copper-doped scaffold with osteogenesis-angiogenesis coupling is promising as a new method for the treatment of bone defects.

Lithium has been used as a medicine to treat psychiatric patients for more than half a century, and it can activate the canonical Wnt signaling pathway to promote the MSC proliferation, migration, osteogenesis, etc. [30–32]. According to previous studies, low-concentration lithium was often
Figure 4: Lithium (500 μM) can rescue the inhibited canonical Wnt signaling pathway. (a) MTT assay of BMSC proliferation under the stimulation of different lithium ion concentrations. The OD values of BMSCs were recorded on days 1, 3, 5, and 7 after stimulation. * means $P < 0.05$. (b) Cell count of BMSCs under the stimulation of different lithium ion concentrations for 7 days. Data are representative of six independent experiments, and * means $P < 0.05$. (c, d) The expression of the Wnt signaling pathway-related gene ($\beta$-catenin, osterix, and p-GSK-3β) was measured by RT-qPCR and western blot in the BMSCs under the 500 μM Li$,+_{10}$ μM XAV-939, and 500 μM Li$+_{10}$ μM XAV-939 stimulation for 7 days. The results are depicted as the mean ± SEM. *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$. (e) The immunofluorescence staining of $\beta$-catenin in BMSCs under different stimulations for 7 days.
used to stimulate mesenchymal stem cell proliferation and osteogenic differentiation [31–33], while accumulation or high-concentration of lithium could inhibit the osteogenesis [34–36]. Tang et al. had investigated that lithium chloride (200 mg·kg⁻¹) gavage-fed to the rat for 2 weeks could promote the bone formation in the area of periapical bone lesions, while continuous lithium chloride treatment for 4 weeks impaired periapical bone healing [36]. Consistent with these findings, we investigated that BMSCs underwent proliferation and osteogenesis differentiation in low-concentration stimulation of lithium. In addition, we further revealed that 500 μM lithium rescued the inhibition effect of 10 μM
IF staining

**Figure 6:** Continued.
XAV-939 on the canonical Wnt signaling pathway and osteogenesis differentiation in BMSCs. XAV-939 has been widely proven to be an inhibitor of the Wnt signaling pathway [37]. Recently, emerging evidence had revealed that XAV-939 could suppress the osteogenesis process via inhibiting the canonical Wnt signaling pathway [37, 38]. Yang and colleagues had reported that XAV-939 could inhibit the osteoprotegerin expression in preosteoblast cells and wnt3a (canonical Wnt agonist) could restore the expression pathway [39]. Therefore, lithium could effectively activate the Wnt signal pathway at a concentration of 500 μM.

Copper is well known to be an essential trace element needed by the human body. A significant amount of information has been gained from understanding its role in angiogenic processes associated with tumor development [40]. In BMSCs, it had been demonstrated that copper can upregulate the HIF-1α signaling pathway to enhance the VEGF secretion and blood vessel formation [41, 42]. In our study, we investigated that the low-concentration copper could enhance the secretion of VEGF in the BMSCs. Moreover, we found that the 25 μM copper has the similar effect with 1% oxygen condition on the activation of the HIF-1α signaling pathway. One percentage of oxygen microenvironment is a lower oxygen tension than the physioxic state of most tissue and organs [43, 44]. And the HIF-1α would sustain expression and promote the VEGF expression in cells under the 1% oxygen stimulation [45, 46]. Simultaneously, Highet et al. reported that HIF-1α was mainly in the cytoplasm under 5% hypoxia condition and transferred to the nucleus when stimulated under 1% hypoxia condition [47]. The ectopic nuclear HIF-1 can upregulate its target genes. Thus, we believed that 25 μM copper is an appropriate concentration to activate the HIF-1α signaling pathway in BMSCs.

It is common knowledge that there are extensive connections and communications between intracellular signals. Previous studies had shown that the expression of proteins such as c-Myc and AKT downstream of the Wnt signaling pathway could upregulate the expression of HIF-1α and promote angiogenesis [48], while the activation of the HIF-1α signaling pathway can promote the differentiation of stem cells to the direction of osteogenesis and promote the expression of osteogenesis-related genes by combining with transcription promoters such as HRE in the gene promoter region [49, 50]. Moreover, increasing evidence revealed that β-catenin has a direct-acting effect on the HIF-1α target gene. Kaidi et al. reported that there is an overlap between β-catenin- and HIF-1α-regulated genes. As cotranscription factors, β-catenin and HIF-1α can bind to the promoter region of angiogenesis-related factors to promote the expression of VEGF, Glut 1, etc. [20]. In addition, Clifford et al. used the gene reporter constructs which identified that VEGF contains two T cell factor- (TCF-) binding sites, and β-catenin could bind to the TCF to upregulate the VEGF expression [51]. Consistent with these findings, our result demonstrated that, under the costimulation of lithium (500uM) and copper (25μM), the β-catenin could combine in the promoter region of VEGF to enhance its expression in BMSCs. In addition, the osteogenesis of BMSCs was also enhanced under costimulation. And we investigated that the osterix promoter was enriched with osteoprotegerin in preosteoblast cells and wnt3a (canonical Wnt agonist) could restore the expression pathway [39]. Therefore, lithium could effectively activate the Wnt signal pathway at a concentration of 500 μM.
the osterix has two consensus hypoxia-responsive elements (HRE-binding motifs) in the proximal promoter using in situ hybridization technology, and the HIF-1α could activate the osterix expression [25]. Hence, we believe that the β-catenin and HIF-1α could activate the VEGF (HIF-1α target gene) and osterix (Wnt target gene) to crosstalk the canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathway and then enhance the coupling of osteogenesis and angiogenesis under the costimulation of lithium and copper in BMSCs. However, the mechanism we reported may be just one of the crosstalks between canonical Wnt and HIF-1α and HIF-1β signaling pathways in BMSCs. And more researches are needed to explore the interaction between the canonical Wnt, HIF-1α, and other signaling pathways in coupling osteogenesis and angiogenesis.

5. Conclusions

Our study identified that lithium and copper ions’ release from the HA/Col scaffold could couple the osteogenesis and angiogenesis in vitro and the Li-Cu-HA/Col scaffold had good mechanical properties and biocompatibility. In addition, we found that the optimal concentration of lithium and copper could effectively activate the canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathway, respectively. Finally, we indicated that lithium- and copper-mediated osteogenesis and angiogenesis coupling was enhanced through the crosstalk between canonical Wnt and HIF-1α signaling pathways. The results of our study highlight that collaboration of lithium- and copper-doped porous organic-inorganic scaffolds with BMSCs is a possible strategy for the treatment of bone defect.

Data Availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

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Supplementary Materials

Supplementary 1. Table S1: primers for RT-qPCR and ChIP.
Supplementary 2. Table S2: western blot, flow cytometry, immunofluorescence, and ChIP antibodies used in this study.

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