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Hanse, Eric A Pan, Min Liu, Wenzhu [et al.](https://escholarship.org/uc/item/640975kq#author)

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The B56 α subunit of PP2A is necessary for mesenchymal stem cell commitment to adipocyte

Eric A Hanse^{[1](https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7559-0525),†} D, Min Pan^{2,†}, Wenzhu Liu¹, Ying Yang¹, Mari B Ishak Gabra¹, Thai Q Tran¹ D, Xazmin H Lowman 1 , Bryan Ruiz 1 , Qiong A Wang 3 3 $\textcolor{blue} \bullet$ & Mei Kong $^{1, \star}$

Abstract

Adipose tissue plays a major role in maintaining organismal metabolic equilibrium. Control over the fate decision from mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) to adipocyte differentiation involves coordinated command of phosphorylation. Protein phosphatase 2A plays an important role in Wnt pathway and adipocyte development, yet how PP2A complexes actively respond to adipocyte differentiation signals and acquire specificity in the face of the promiscuous activity of its catalytic subunit remains unknown. Here, we report the PP2A phosphatase B subunit $B56\alpha$ is specifically induced during adipocyte differentiation and mediates PP2A to dephosphorylate GSK3ß, thereby blocking Wnt activity and driving adipocyte differentiation. Using an inducible B56a knock-out mouse, we further demonstrate that $B56\alpha$ is essential for gonadal adipose tissue development in vivo and required for the fate decision of adipocytes over osteoblasts. Moreover, we show B56a expression is driven by the adipocyte transcription factor PPAR_Y thereby establishing a novel link between PPAR γ signaling and Wnt blockade. Overall, our results reveal B56a is a necessary part of the machinery dictating the transition from pre-adipocyte to mature adipocyte and provide fundamental insights into how PP2A complex specifically and actively regulates unique signaling pathway in biology.

Keywords adipocyte; B56x; PP2A; PPARy; Wnt

Subject Categories Development; Metabolism; Signal Transduction DOI 10.15252/embr.202051910 | Received 15 October 2020 | Revised 13 May 2021 | Accepted 27 May 2021 | Published online 7 July 2021 EMBO Reports (2021) 22: e51910

Introduction

The PP2A phosphatase plays an important role in a variety of tissues and cells removing phosphorylation moieties from substrate proteins during signaling cascades. As such, contextual control of PP2A activity is critical to normal cellular function. Not surprisingly, PP2A dysregulation is implicated in several diseases

(Janssens & Goris, 2001; Eichhorn et al, 2009; Sangodkar et al, 2016). The PP2A holoenzyme consists of the structural scaffold A subunit, the catalytic C subunit, and the variable B subunit (Shi, 2009). The B subunit conveys specificity and directs the catalytic C subunit to its target for de-phosphorylation (reviewed in (Virshup & Shenolikar, 2009)). These fourteen B subunits are diverse in size and domain architecture. However, they are highly conserved in eukaryotes and coded by different genes scattered throughout the genome. B subunit expression is generally regulated transcriptionally and based on tissue- and context-dependent cues (Reid et al, 2013; Seshacharyulu et al, 2013). Genetic deletion of the PP2A C or other B subunits causes a variety of embryonic defects, suggesting an important role for PP2A in cellular development (reviewed in (Gotz & Schild, 2003)). Better understanding of B subunit specificity unlocks a whole new avenue of therapeutic targets with the potential to rival the success kinase inhibitors have had in the clinic.

Obesity rates are rising throughout the world (Collaboration NCDRF, 2019), and understanding the complex biology involved during the development and maintenance of adipose tissue is critical as we combat the accompanying complications arising from increased body fat mass (Kusminski et al, 2016). Prolonged overnutrition initiates the recruitment of nascent pre-adipocytes from local vasculature, which in turn expands to accommodate lipid storage demands. As pre-adipocytes differentiate into adipocytes, an orchestrated intracellular signaling cascade transduces extracellular cues into phenotypic changes via a currency of phosphorylation. Elucidating the kinase and phosphatase balance during this time is critical to understanding adipocyte development. We thus became interested in exploring B subunit expression and PP2A phosphatase activity during adipocyte development.

Here, we report the PP2A phosphatase plays a critical role in mediating the fate differentiation of adipocytes. Specifically, we show the PP2A-B subunit $B56\alpha$ is necessary for adipocyte differentiation. Using a novel mouse model, we establish $B56\alpha$ is necessary for the development of the gonadal white adipose tissue depot in vivo. We report that $B56\alpha$ is specifically induced upon adipocyte differentiation and correlates with GSK3 β de-phosphorylation and Wnt signaling blockade during adipocyte development. Finally, we

¹ Department of Molecular Biology and Biochemistry, University of California, Irvine, Irvine, CA, USA

² Department of Computational Biology, St. Jude Medical Center, Memphis, TN, USA

³ Department of Molecular Endocrinology, Diabetes and Metabolism Institute, City of Hope Medical Center, Duarte, CA, USA *Corresponding author. Tel: ⁺1 949 824 5244; E-mail: meik1@uci.edu †

[†]These authors contributed equally to this work.

show B56 α is a PPAR γ target gene, thereby establishing a mechanism for PPARc-driven Wnt blockade. Our results uncover a critical signaling axis during adipocyte differentiation connecting $PPAR\gamma$ to the control of the Wnt pathway through the relationship between PP2A and GSK3 β .

Results

The PP2A-B subunit, B56a, is required for adipocyte differentiation in vitro

The PP2A holoenzyme is directed to target substrate proteins by the specificity provided through its B subunits (Virshup & Shenolikar, 2009). The B subunits are encoded by genes across the chromosomal landscape, and their expression is context- and tissuedependent (Gotz & Schild, 2003; Seshacharyulu et al, 2013). We initiated adipocyte development in the 3T3-L1 mouse pre-adipocyte cell line and in primary mesenchymal stem cells isolated from the outer ear of mice which differentiate to adipocytes under similar culture conditions (Rim et al, 2005). We then measured a panel of known B subunit genes for mRNA expression via RT–PCR to see whether any specific B subunits played a role during adipocyte development. We looked at day 6 when insulin maintenance has been established and adipogenic factors and morphology start to emerge. Among all the B subunits tested, we found the B56 α subunit encoded by the Ppp2r5a gene was the only subunit significantly induced both transcriptionally and translationally in both 3T3-L1 and primary EMSCs, suggesting it may play a role in controlling phosphorylation during this process (Fig 1A–D). We next observed expression of the B56 α protein during a time course and found B56 α increased from day 2 until a maximal expression at day 6, which correlates with adipocyte differentiation markers (Figs 1E and F, and EV1A and B). Moreover, knock-down of B56a using shRNA significantly decreased the ability of 3T3-L1 and EMSCs to differentiate into adipocytes measured by Oil Red O, a stain for lipid storage (Fig 1G–J).

The PP2A-B subunit, B56a, is required for adipocyte differentiation in vivo

To examine whether $B56\alpha$ plays a significant role in the development of adipose tissue in vivo, we generated mice homozygous for a floxed exon 5 of the Ppp2r5a gene (Fig 2A). Primary EMSCs from these mice did not express B56a protein upon infection with a Cre recombinase expressing lentivirus, demonstrating knock-out (Fig 2B). We first attempted to cross these mice with adiposespecific Cre expressing mice Adipoq-CRE and observed no phenotypical change (Fig EV2A and B). We also crossed the $Ppp2r5a^{fl/fl}$ mice with FABP4-Cre and again observed no impact on adipose development. These data suggest the fate decision influenced by Ppp2r5a in adipocytes occurs prior to the differentiation required for expression of Adipoq and Fabp4. To better understand the adipose differentiation process influenced by $B56\alpha$, we bred $Ppp2r5a^{fl/fl}$ mice to Rosa26Cre-ERT2 mice to produce a conditional whole-body knock-out. This model allows us to control Ppp2r5a expression prior to fat pad development. Most fat pads are established in utero or immediately after birth (Berry et al, 2013). Surprisingly, and in contrast to studies where Ppp2r5a has successfully been knocked out in a whole-body system (Janghorban et al, 2017), attempts to knock out Ppp2r5a during these time frames were lethal. These data suggest Ppp2r5a may play a role that is essential for development in adipose or other tissues, at least acutely. However, the gonadal white adipose tissue fat pad (gWAT) rapidly expands after day 21 as the mouse approaches sexual maturity (Berry et al, 2013). This allowed us a window to investigate the development of an isolated adipose depot. Thus, we injected tamoxifen at 21 days of age intraperitoneally 4 times over the course of a week into WT and $Ppp2r5a^{fl/f}$ mice and allowed them to mature for an additional 4 weeks (Fig 2C). As previously reported, tamoxifen treatment alone slowed adipose tissue development ((Ye et al, 2015), Fig 2D). We found mice without $Ppp2r5a$ had a significantly smaller gWAT depot than control mice treated with tamoxifen (Fig 2D–F) and exhibited dense cellularity observed by H&E staining, particularly around the tissue edges (Fig 2G). We did not observe gross histological differences in body mass nor in tissues such as subcutaneous WAT, brown fat or liver (Fig EV2C–E). Although the gWAT tissue was smaller in $Ppp2r5a^{fl/fl}$ mice treated with tamoxifen, average cell area was not significantly different among conditions (Fig EV2F). Moreover, adipose tissue depots established earlier in development such as subcutaneous WAT were not affected by loss of Ppp2r5a consistent with the idea that this signaling pathway is particularly important during adipose development (Fig EV2G). Taken together, these data demonstrate a critical role for the Ppp2r5a gene during the initiation of adipocyte differentiation and adipose tissue.

B56 α binds to Axin1 and GSK3 β during adipocyte development

The canonical function for PP2A as a phosphatase led us to ask what potential substrate proteins interact with $B56\alpha$ during adipocyte development. To address this, we transfected a FLAG-tagged B56a construct into differentiating 3T3-L1 cells at day 6 when B56 α protein was observed to be maximally expressed (Fig 1). On day 6, we collected lysates, immunoprecipitated FLAG containing protein complexes, and identified associated peptides via mass spectrometry (Fig 3A). Along with the PP2A-A and -C subunits, we found prominent members of the β -catenin destruction complex. Specifically, proteins, $Axin1$, $GSK3\beta$, and Dvl1 were found to associate with FLAG-B56 α at day 6 (Fig 3B). We confirmed interactions with Axin1 and $GSK3\beta$ via immunoprecipitation in both 3T3-L1 and EMSCs (Fig 3C and D). We were not able to confirm Dvl1 in these complexes via immunoprecipitation, however that does not preclude its involvement in this process. Likely, Dvl1's role in the complex is associative and less likely to be direct. Interestingly, we found the interaction of $B56\alpha$ with the b-catenin destruction complex dramatically increased upon differentiation (Fig 3C and D). Next, we looked closer at the biochemistry involved with $B56\alpha$ and individual members of the b-catenin destruction complex identified in the proteomics screen. Using recombinant proteins to investigate binding in vitro, we found B56 α preferably binds to GSK3 β (Fig 3E). Next, we further defined the biochemical basis that mediates the interaction between $B56\alpha$ and $GSK3\beta$. Specifically, it has been reported that $B56\alpha$ subunit binds to a consensus short linear sequence on interacting proteins, termed the LxxI/VxE motif (Hertz et al, 2016).

Figure 1. The PP2A-B subunit B56a is necessary for adipocyte differentiation.

A mRNA levels of indicated PP2A-B subunits at day 0 (blue) and day 6 (red) after induction of adipocyte differentiation in 3T3-L1 mouse pre-adipocytes.

B Western blot of B56 α protein expression in 3T3-L1 cells at day 0 and day 6 after induction.

- C mRNA levels of indicated PP2A-B subunits at day 0 (blue) and day 6 (red) after induction of adipocyte differentiation in mouse ear mesenchymal stem cells (EMSC).
- D Western blot of B56a protein expression in EMSC at day 0 and day 6 after induction.
- E Western blot of B56a expression at days indicated after induction in 3T3-L1 cells.

F Western blot of B56a expression at days indicated after induction in EMSCs.

G Western blot of B56a expression in empty vector or Ppp2r5a lentiviral shRNA-transduced 3T3-L1 cells at day 6 after induction.

H Oil Red O staining of empty vector or Ppp2r5a shRNA-transduced 3T3-L1 cells at day 10 following adipogenesis induction.

I Western blot of B56a expression in empty vector or Ppp2r5a shRNA-transduced EMSC at day 6 after induction.

J Oil Red O staining of empty vector or Ppp2r5a shRNA-transduced EMSC at day 10 following adipogenesis induction. **P < 0.01 as measured by paired Student's t-test. Shown are representative data from experiments performed at least three times.

Source data are available online for this figure.

Interestingly, we found that $GSK3\beta$ contains a conserved LxxI/VxE motif (Fig 3F). This consensus sequence is dependent upon aspartate at position 6. Thus, we mutated E137 of $GSK3\beta$ to glutamate (E137D) to minimally disturb structural integrity and found the E137D mutant showed significantly decreased binding to B56a, whereas binding to Axin was diminished but still functional (Fig 3G), suggesting LxxI/VxE motif on $GSK3\beta$ is critical for the interaction between $GSK3\beta$ and $B56\alpha$.

Figure 2. Ppp2r5a is necessary for gonadal white adipose development in vivo.

- A Genotyping for the floxed allele of the Ppp2r5a gene taken F1 mice.
- B Primary EMSCs isolated from WT and fl/fl mice were transduced with LV-Cre lentivirus and cultured in adipogenic induction medium for indicated days. Western blots showing loss of the B56a protein.
- C Timeline and experimental strategy for gWAT development assay.
- D Representative gWAT depots from WT and Ppp2r5a fl/fl mice.
- E Western blot from gWAT tissue indicating loss of B56a expression.
- gWAT mass at 8 weeks. $**P < 0.01$ as measured by unpaired Student's t-test.
- G Hematoxylin and eosin staining for gWAT from indicated mice at 10× and 20× magnification. Scale bar equal to 20 microns.

Source data are available online for this figure.

The phosphorylation of $GSK3\beta$ is dependent upon the expression of B56a

 $GSK3\beta$ phosphorylates β -catenin initiating its destruction and repressing its transcriptional activation. Downstream of Wnt ligand engagement however, one way Wnt activity is regulated is through GSK3 β inhibition. GSK3 β is phosphorylated at serine 9 and inactivated allowing β -catenin to accumulate and drive transcription (van Noort et al, 2002). In the context of adipocyte development, sustained Wnt signaling or β -catenin activation pushes preadipocytes toward osteoblast differentiation and away from adipocytes (Kang et al, 2007; Zeve et al, 2012). Since the phosphorylation status of $GSK3\beta$ could affect relay of Wnt signaling, we monitored GSK3b phosphorylation at serine 9 throughout adipocyte

- Figure 3. B56x protein–protein interactions during adipocyte development.
A 3T3-L1 cells were transduced with FLAG-Ppp2r5a retrovirus and induced toward adipogenesis. At day 6, after adipogenesis induction, protein was col immunoprecipitation was performed. Shown is a silver stain of the precipitates.
- B List of highly enriched peptide IDs co-precipitating with FLAG-B56x as identified via mass spectrometry. Arrows indicate members of the PP2A phosphatase and ßcatenin destruction complex.
- C Immunoprecipitation and Western blot of FLAG-B56a transfected 3T3-L1 cells at day 6 after induction.
- D Immunoprecipitation and Western blot of EMSCs. Representatives of at least three independent experiments are shown.
- E GST pulldown and resulting Western blot (left) and silver stain (right).
- Schematic of GSK3 β consensus sequence and proposed mechanism of PP2A/B/C de-phosphorylation.
- G Western blot of 293T co-expression and immunoprecipitation with GSK3b point mutation E147D.

Source data are available online for this figure.

Figure 3.

development in vitro. Phosphorylation at Ser9 decreases starting at day 2 and was maintained at low levels until day 6. We found this pattern of phosphorylation is inversely correlated with $B56\alpha$ expression (Fig 4A). The phosphatase relationship with B56 α is specific to Ser9 as phosphorylation at Tyr216, a separate activation mark (Hughes et al, 1993), did not correlate with B56a protein levels. We further tested the relationship between $B56\alpha$ expression and ph-GSK3b Ser9 by modulating expression of the Ppp2r5a gene. In EMSCs treated with shRNA targeting Ppp2r5a mRNA, we found GSK3 β phosphorylation at Ser9 was sustained throughout the differentiation timeline (Fig 4B). Conversely, we decreased $GSK3\beta$ Ser9 phosphorylation in cells transfected with a plasmid directing overexpression of the Ppp2r5a gene in 3T3-L1 cells (Fig 4C). Next, we utilized the Ppp2r5a knock-out system to test the relationship between ph-GSK3ß Ser9 and B56 α in isolated EMSCs from $Ppp2r5a^{fl/fl}$ mice and WT mice. Following transfection with lentiviral-Cre, we induced adipocyte differentiation and found $GSK3\beta$ phosphorylation was sustained throughout the differentiation window in $Ppp2r5a^{fl/fl}$ compared to wild type (Fig 4D). Further, the loss of B56a completely blocked these cells from differentiating into cells capable of storing lipid (Fig 4E). These results demonstrate B56a expression has a profound effect on the phosphorylation status of GSK3 β during adipocyte development.

Loss of B56 α leads to accumulation of B-catenin and expression of osteoblast markers

The phosphorylation of $GSK3\beta$ inactivates the kinase which should, in turn, result in increased accumulation of β -catenin and activation of canonical Wnt signaling (Salic et al, 2000). In the context of preadipocyte differentiation, sustained Wnt signaling could push development toward osteoblasts. Therefore, we took a closer look at Wnt signaling in the absence of *Ppp2r5a*. We first looked at the expression of both Wnt target genes and osteoblast differentiation genes in the absence of Ppp2r5a in EMSCs and found Wnt target genes Axin2 (Yan et al, 2001) and C-myc (He et al, 1998) were significantly increased in the absence of Ppp2r5a at day 5 (Fig 5A). The osteoblast differentiation marker and Wnt target gene Runx2 also increased significantly after differentiation (Gaur et al, 2005) indicating a potential push toward osteoblast differentiation in these cells. Moreover, we found increased expression of Wnt10b, an adipogenic inhibitor protein that has also been reported to increase upon $GSK3\beta$ inhibition (Bennett et al, 2002). Our in vivo data suggest the gWAT is the primary organ affected by the loss of Ppp2r5a. To address this biology directly from the tissue, we harvested the stromal vascular fraction taken from adolescent fat pads of WT and $Ppp2r5a^{fl/fl}$ mice and induced adipocyte differentiation. We found these cells behaved similarly to EMSCs (Fig EV3A), suggesting the biological pathways found in 3T3-L1 and EMSCs are functional in gWAT. We next asked whether loss of B56 α could produce sustained Wnt signaling and inhibit adipocyte differentiation markers in vivo. In RNA isolated from gonadal WAT, we found significant increases in the Wnt and osteoblast markers Runx2, Pref1, and Wnt10b, and a coordinate decrease in the adipose differentiation markers Fabp4 and Plin1 (Fig 5B). We next used EMSCs derived from WT or $Ppp2r5a^{fl/fl}$ mice to look for activation of the Wnt pathway using the TCF/LEF reporter TOPFlash. We found that the luciferase reporter activity of Ppp2r5 $a^{f l / f l}$ EMSCs was significantly higher than in the wild type in the absence of adipogenic stimuli. These data suggest increased activation of Wnt signaling in the absence of Ppp2r5a (Fig 5C). In mice knocked out for Ppp2r5a, we observed a dramatic increase in cell density, particularly near the edges of the tissue (Fig 2G). We used immunohistochemistry to stain for the presence of β -catenin in the gWAT collected from Ppp2r5a knock-out mice and compared the staining to wild-type samples. We found evidence of increased bcatenin staining in gWAT collected from these mice, particularly in areas of dense cellularity, which tended to be focused at the edge of the tissue (Fig 5D). Mice that constitutively express β -catenin in progenitor cells produce highly cellular, osteoblast-like tissue in the adipose compartments, including the storage of calcium (Zeve et al, 2012). Using Alizarin Red staining, we investigated for evidence of calcium accumulation in gWAT collected from Ppp2r5a knock-out mice. We found significant evidence of increased calcium in the adipose tissue, particularly near the dense cellular edges where β catenin and active β -catenin staining was observed (Figs 5E and EV3B). Taken together, these data suggest loss of Ppp2r5a leads to increased b-catenin expression and an osteoblast phenotype in adipocytes and adipose tissue.

Expression of the Ppp2r5a gene is driven by PPAR γ

Ppp2r5a mRNA expression is tightly controlled and transient (Fig 1). Taken together with its importance in modulating the Wnt signaling pathway and ultimately adipogenesis, we became interested in transcriptional regulation mechanisms for the Ppp2r5a gene. Using unbiased transcription factor consensus sequence scanning (Khan et al, 2018), we found a sequence 1,500 base pairs upstream of the *Ppp2r5a* gene with a highly aligned PPAR γ response element or PPRE (Fig 6A). We found that supplementing adipogenic induction with troglitazone, a PPAR γ agonist, for 24 h caused a significant increase in Ppp2r5a mRNA expression (Fig 6B). Moreover, we looked at previous studies that had performed ChIP-Seq

▸ Figure ⁴. The phosphorylation of GSK3^Β is dependent upon the expression of B56a.

A Western blots from 3T3-L1 cells and EMSCs over time after adipocyte induction.

B Control or Ppp2r5a lentiviral shRNA-transduced EMSCs were used for adipocyte induction. Cell lysates were collected for Western blots at day 0 and day 6 after induction.

C Western blot using cell lysates from B56a-FLAG overexpression retrovirus infected 3T3-L1 cells.

E Oil Red O staining of EMSCs isolated from wild-type and Ppp2r5a fl/fl mice. Cells were transduced with LV-Cre lentivirus and cultured in adipogenic induction medium for 10 days.

Source data are available online for this figure.

D Western blots from EMSCs isolated from wild-type and Ppp2r5a fl/fl mice. Cells were transduced with LV-Cre lentivirus and cultured in adipogenic induction medium for indicated days.

Figure 4.

experiments targeting either PPAR γ or its transcriptional binding partner RXR (Haakonsson et al, 2013; Khan et al, 2018). Mapping the enriched reads to the genome revealed both PPAR_Y and RXR are enriched at the Ppp2r5a promoter surrounding the predicted consensus sequence during adipogenesis and in response to PPAR_Y agonist (Fig EV4A). To test this in our system, we designed three different probes that spanned the medial and distal regions of the Ppp2r5a promoter (Fig 6C). Using chromatin immunoprecipitation, we targeted PPAR γ and investigated the enrichment. We found PPAR γ occupied the Ppp2r5a promoter, specifically at the distal region where the consensus sequence is located (Fig 6D). Temporally, the occupation of PPAR γ at the *Ppp2r5a* promoter correlates with the expression of the B56a protein observed in Fig 1. Moreover, the timeframe of Ppp2r5a promoter occupation by PPAR γ aligns with

Figure 5.

Figure 5. Loss of B56 α leads to accumulation of β -catenin and expression of osteoblast markers.

- A mRNA expression of indicated genes from EMSCs treated with LV-Cre. **P < 0.01 as measured by one way ANOVA. Shown are representatives of three independent experiments.
- B mRNA expression of indicated genes from RNA isolated from the gWAT adipose tissue of mice at 8 weeks of age, 4 weeks after tamoxifen. **P < 0.01 as measured by unpaired Student's t-test. $n = 6$ mice each group.
- C TOPFlash reporter assay in unstimulated EMSCs $*P < 0.01$ as measured by unpaired Student's t-test.
- Immunohistochemistry using an antibody targeting β -catenin in gWAT.
- E Histology staining of gWAT using Alizarin Red to indicate calcium. Scale bar equal to 20 microns.

Source data are available online for this figure.

the occupation of another adipogenic marker Fabp4 (Fig 6E). Interestingly, occupation of the promoter begins by 24 h, suggesting Ppp2r5a is part of the immediate early response during adipogenesis. We next cloned the distal and medial segments of the Ppp2r5a promoter into luciferase expression reporter constructs. Following the induction of 3T3-L1 cells, these constructs were transfected and monitored for response to troglitazone treatment. We found the distal promoter of *Ppp2r5a* to be troglitazone responsive demonstrating B56 α expression is likely controlled by PPAR γ (Fig 6F). Sustained activation of Wnt also blocks $PPAR\gamma$ signaling (Bennett et al, 2005), and when we looked at Ppp2r5a knock-out cells, we found significantly less expression of canonical $PPAR\gamma$ target genes in response to the PPAR γ agonist troglitazone (Fig 6G). We next looked at the ability of troglitazone to induce adipogenesis in Ppp2r5a knock-out cells. Following infection with ADV-Cre-RFP, EMSCs were induced to differentiation with or without troglitazone. We found PPAR_Y activation with troglitazone could not rescue adipogenesis when Ppp2r5a was absent (Fig. EV4B–F). Taken together, these results demonstrate a relationship between $PPAR\gamma$ and adipogenesis through the expression and activity of Ppp2r5a.

PPAR γ blockade of β -catenin activity is dependent on Ppp2r5a

The inverse relationship between $PPAR\gamma$ and canonical Wnt signaling represents an important crux of adipocyte development that remains without a direct mechanistic relationship. Therefore, we asked whether PPAR γ control of β -catenin accumulation and Wnt signaling is through B56a. Primary EMSCs isolated from Rosa26 CRE ERT2 Ppp2r5 $a^{fl/fl}$ and Rosa26 CRE ERT2 Ppp2r5 $a^{wt/wt}$ were treated with 4-OHT overnight to induce Ppp2r5a knock-out and plated for induction. On day 3, upon the insulin maintenance stage of development, troglitazone or vehicle control was added along with insulin to stimulate

 $PPAR\gamma$ activation during adipogenesis. This is a well-established method to enhance adipocyte differentiation (Tafuri, 1996). We found that following 3 days of PPAR γ activation, wild-type cells repress expression of active β -catenin in the cell measured by immunofluorescence targeting the active, un-phosphorylated (Ser3/ 37/Thr41) form (Fig 7A and B). Moreover, wild-type cells inhibit the expression of Wnt target genes throughout adipogenesis (Fig 7C) and form adipocytes capable of storing lipid (Fig 7D). However, in the absence of Ppp2r5a, b-catenin activation was sustained. Importantly, $PPAR\gamma$ activation by troglitazone was not able to decrease the expression of active β -catenin (Fig 7A and B) or Wnt target gene expression including the osteoblast differentiation factor Runx2 (Fig 7C). In addition, administration of the PPAR γ agonist troglitazone was not sufficient to rescue Ppp2r5a knock-out cells from differentiating into cells capable of storing lipid (Fig 7D). Taken together, these data demonstrate PPAR γ control of the canonical Wnt signaling pathway is dependent on the expression of Ppp2r5a.

Discussion

As one of the major identified phosphatases, PP2A is expressed in a wide range of tissues and, as such, is implicated in disease and development. However, the ubiquitous nature of its expression makes it problematic to target therapeutically. Efforts to target the PP2A-A structural component or the PP2A-C catalytic subunit are likely to be stymied by widespread off-target effects in a variety of tissues. Here, we lay out a signaling axis during adipogenesis where a master transcription factor (PPAR γ) drives the expression of a B subunit of the PP2A phosphatase (B56 α) to influence the developmental fate of a cell. Moving forward, it will be interesting to connect other B subunits' selective expression and activity during critical signaling

- Figure 6. Ppp2r5a is a PPAR_Y target gene.
A Alignment of the PPAR_Y consensus sequence and the -1,481 upstream sequence of Ppp2r5a.
B. Supplied was the PPARc consensus sequence and the -1,481 upstream sequence of Ppp2r5
- B mRNA expression of the Ppp2r5a gene from EMSCs induced for 6 days and activated with troglitazone for 24 h. **P < 0.01 as measured by paired Student's t-test. Ppp2r5a ^{fl/fl} and Ppp2r5a wild type are labeled as fl/fl and WT, respectively. Shown are representatives from three independent experiments.
- C Schematic of the Ppp2r5a promoter and the medial (red, green) and distal (blue) regions probed for PPAR_Y binding.
- D Chromatin immunoprecipitation targeting PPAR_Y and probing for medial and distal promoters of Ppp2r5a. Lysates were collected from day 6 EMSCs induced for adipogenesis. **P < 0.01 as measured by one-way ANOVA. Shown are representatives from three independent experiments.
- E FABP4 promoter ChIP from EMSCs induced for adipogenesis.
- The Ppp2r5a medial and distal promoter regions were cloned into luciferase reporter constructs, and luciferase reporter was measured in 3T3-L1 cells 5 days after induction \pm troglitazone. **P < 0.01 as measured by paired Student's t-test.
- G mRNA expression of indicated genes from EMSCs transfected with LV-Cre and induced with troglitazone for 24 h. **P < 0.01 as measured by unpaired Student's ttest. Shown are representatives from three independent experiments.

Source data are available online for this figure.

Figure 6.

Figure 7.

Figure 7. PPAR γ blockade of β -catenin activity is dependent on B56 α .

- A Immunofluorescence for active-b-catenin (non-phospho Ser33/37/Thr41) in red and DAPI in blue. Expression was measured in EMSCs isolated from Rosa26 Cre WT and Rosa26 Cre Ppp2r5a fl/fl, treated with tamoxifen for 48 h, and induced toward adipogenesis. At day 3, troglitazone or vehicle was administered until day 10. Scale bar equal to 10 microns.
- B Active β -catenin mean immunofluorescence intensity normalized to nuclei (DAPI). Shown is the average of ten 10× fields. **P < 0.01 as measured by paired Student's t-test. C mRNA expression of indicated genes from EMSCs induced toward adipogenesis at day 10. *P < 0.05 and **P < 0.01 as measured by paired Student's t-test. Shown are representative samples from 3 independent experiments.
- D Percent Oil Red O⁺ cells per high-power field (10×). **P < 0.01 as measured by paired Student's t-test.

Source data are available online for this figure.

cascades. The model outlined here could be a template for other processes that depend on phosphorylation as currency.

Corroborating our findings is an older study that identified a role for B56 α in regulating Wnt signaling in Xenopus eggs (Li et al, 2001). Since then, much has been learned about this critical signaling pathway, yet the mechanism connecting the PP2A to Wnt has been elusive. The findings by Li and colleagues also implicate this mechanism in a broader tissue sense and suggest the biochemistry demonstrated in this study may apply to more tissue development and maintenance processes. Moreover, in the brain, a relationship between GSK3b, b-catenin, and the Ppp2r5d B subunit has been established (Louis et al, 2011). Our work adds significant mechanistic details to connect the PP2A phosphatase to the Wnt signaling pathway and opens the door to exploring this mechanism in other tissues and with different B subunits.

Canonical Wnt signaling is a highly conserved developmental pathway that centers around the accumulation of the transcription factor β -catenin which enters the nucleus to activate the expression of a network of genes implicated in fate differentiation, stemness, and cancer. β -catenin is destabilized in large part via glycogen synthase kinase 3β (GSK3 β) phosphorylation (Yost et al, 1996). As a critical post-translational regulator of β -catenin levels, GSK3 β has been and remains an interesting therapeutic target. $GSK3\beta$ kinase activity itself is also controlled by upstream phosphorylation, primarily at serine 9 which renders it inactive (Frame et al, 2001). The mechanisms controlling Wnt shut down during adipogenesis have been looked at exhaustively and some conflicting data have emerged suggesting GSK3 β phosphorylation may not be required for Wnt regulation (McManus et al, 2005; Taelman et al, 2010). Our data show $B56\alpha$ expression affects $GSK3\beta$ S9 phosphorylation during adipocyte development, yet whether B56a modulates Wnt signaling via de-phosphorylating and activating $GSK3\beta$ needs to be further explored. Our data suggest, at minimum, that B56a associates with β -catenin destruction complex and controls Wnt signaling.

In preliminary studies, we observed that whole-body knock-out induction either during embryogenesis or after birth resulted in gross developmental disruption and lethality, indicating Ppp2r5a plays a critical role in development. It is interesting to note other mouse models with suppressed Ppp2r5a expression either by hypomorphic expression (Janghorban et al, 2017) or by targeted disruption (Puhl et al, 2019) displayed an arrest in cellular differentiation or impact on cardiac responses to β -AR stimulation, suggesting an important role for $B56\alpha$ in physiological functions. Together, these data suggest Ppp2r5a is an essential gene and a minimal level of B56a expression is required for survival.

The PPAR γ transcription factor also facilitates a critical pathway during adipogenesis (Rosen et al, 1999). Early during the pre-

adipocyte to adipocyte transition, activation of $PPAR\gamma$ is required to drive the expression of the genes that equip the cells for lipid storage and define the mature adipocyte (Lefterova et al, 2008). Coordination of mechanisms, like those described here, between $PPAR\gamma$ and Wnt remains an interesting focus of attention in the adipose development field and beyond. The inverse relationship between PPAR γ and Wnt has been known about for some time (Liu et al, 2006; Takada et al, 2009; Lecarpentier et al, 2017; Xie et al, 2018). In addition, although much has been done to understand PPAR γ as a master adipogenic transcriptional regulator, evidence linking the biochemical relationships between PPAR γ and Wnt remain mostly unknown. Our work highlights a novel mechanism connecting the two pathways during adipocyte development. Further studies looking at this relationship in other tissues will be of significant interest as aberrant expression of the Wnt signaling pathway is central to several cancer sub-types (Zhan et al, 2017). Glitazones have been prescribed as a first-line defense to diabetes to help re-sensitize tissues to insulin and are proficient in doing so (Fujita et al, 1983). However, some of the unintended side effects like increased adiposity in the bone marrow and loss of bone density (Stumvoll & Haring, 2002; Rzonca et al, 2004) have driven therapies away from glitazones. The mechanism described here provides a range of targets for therapeutic intervention focused on rebalancing the benefits $PPAR\gamma$ agonists have on diabetic patients. Our results suggest sustained PPAR γ activity and thus B56 α expression may deny the generation of new osteoblasts, as such intervention with $B56\alpha$ may provide new avenues to stabilize bone density in patients treated with PPAR_Y agonists.

Materials and Methods

Cell culture

3T3-L1 cells were acquired from the American Type Culture Collection and maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum. For experiments, cells were plated to 70–80% confluency. To induce differentiation, at day 0 medium was replaced with adipose induction medium I (DMEM, insulin 5 μ g/ml, dexamethasone 1 μ M, IBMX 250 μ M) for 48 h. Media was then replaced with adipose induction medium II (DMEM, insulin $5 \mu g/ml$) for the remainder of the experiment. Media was replaced every 48 h.

Ear mesenchymal stem cells

Outer ear tissue was collected from 4- to 6-week-old C57/B6 mice into ice-cold PBS containing the anti-fungal Primocin. Tissue was

minced and incubated for 1 h at 37°C in Hank's balanced salt solution containing 2 mg/ml Collagenase type II (Worthington) and Primocin. Digested tissue was then passed through a 70-µM cell strainer, washed 1×, and plated in EMSC growth medium (DMEM, +10%FBS, +pen/strep). Cells were expanded through passage 5–7 times. For differentiation experiments, cells were plated at 250,000 cells/ml. To induce differentiation, at day 0 medium was replaced with adipose induction medium I (DMEM, insulin 5 µg/ ml, dexamethasone 1 µM, IBMX 250 µM) for 48 h. Media was then replaced with adipose induction medium II (DMEM, insulin 5 µg/ml) for the remainder of the experiment. Media was replaced every 48 h.

Quantitative real-time PCR

RNA was collected in TRIzol (Invitrogen) and isolated according to the manufacturer's instructions. 500 ng or 1 µg of RNA was reversetranscribed to cDNA using qScript (Quanta Bioscience). qPCRs were carried out using Perfecta SYBR Green (Quanta Bioscience) and analyzed on the Bio-Rad CFX machine (Bio-Rad). Thermal cycling was carried out as follows: 95°C for 10 s, 57.5°C for 30 s, and 65°C for 10 s, followed by a melt curve analysis to verify specificity. Data were analyzed using the delta delta Ct method. All samples were run in triplicate and normalized to an internal control. A complete list of primers can be found in Table EV1.

Western Blot

Cells were lysed in radioimmunoprecipitation assay buffer (RIPA) consisting of 150 mM NaCl, 25 mM Tris–HCl pH 7.4, NP-40 1%, sodium deoxycholate 0.5%, and SDS 0.1%. Prior to use, the cOmplete Protease/Phosphatase Inhibitor (Roche) was supplemented with RIPA. Protein lysates were chilled on ice for 10 min and centrifuged for 10 min at 4°C at 13,000 RPM. The supernatant was collected and subjected to the BCA assay to quantify protein. Protein samples were diluted in Laemmli buffer and boiled for 5 min at 95°C. 10-50 µg of protein was loaded and separated via SDS–PAGE on a 4–12% acrylamide gels for 1–2 h at 35 mA per gel. Protein was transferred to nitrocellulose at 150V for 1 h in the cold. Membranes were blocked for 1 h in 5% non-fat dry milk diluted in PBS + 0.5% Tween-20 (PBS-T). Membranes were washed 3×5 min with PBS-T. Primary antibodies were diluted in 2.5% bovine serum albumin diluted in PBS-T and incubated with membranes overnight at 4°C with rocking. Primary antibody was washed three times in PBS-T. Horseradish peroxidase-linked secondary antibody was added in 5% non-fat dry milk dissolved in PBS-T and incubated for 1hr at RT with rocking. Membranes were washed 3X in PBS-T for 10 min each. For imaging, membranes were incubated for 5 min in Western Lighting Plus ECL (PerkinElmer) reagent. Membranes were exposed to Hyperfilm (GE Healthcare). A complete list of antibodies used can be found in Table EV2.

Generation of Ppp2r5a floxed mice

Targeted iTL IC1, C57BL/6 embryonic stem cells were microinjected into BALB/C blastocysts. Resulting chimeras with a high percentage black coat color were mated to C57BL/6 FLP mice to remove the Neo cassette. Tail DNA was analyzed as described below from pups with black coat color. Primer set NDEL1 and NDEL2 was used to screen mice for the deletion of the Neo cassette. The PCR product for the wild type is 157 bp. After Neo deletion, one set of LoxP-FRT sites remain PCR was performed to detect presence of the distal LoxP site. All genotyping primers are available in Table EV1. Mice were bred to homozygosity and used for experiments and further breeding as described below.

Mouse experiments

All mouse experiments were carried out in accordance with and under the supervision of the University of California Irvine and City of Hope Beckman Research Center Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees. The Rosa26 Cre-ERT2 mouse was obtained from Jackson Laboratories and bred to the Ppp2r5a fl/fl mice until heterozygous for Rosa26 Cre-ERT2 and homozygous for Ppp2r5a floxed. Mice were genotyped via tail snip using the primers provided by Jackson Laboratories for Rosa26 Cre-ERT2 and primers we designed which probe the interface between the recombination event and the wild-type gene. At day 21, mice were sexed and weaned and injected with 100 µl of 10 mg/ml tamoxifen dissolved in corn oil intraperitoneally four times over the course of 1 week. Mice were fed standard chow ad libitum and monitored daily for food intake and overt signs of distress. Mouse experiments were conducted using a mix of male and female mice.

Constructs

To generate mouse Ppp2r5a overexpression vector, mouse cDNA was used as PCR template to amplify Ppp2r5a cDNA sequence with primers 2r5a-cF: 5' (BamH Ι) GGGATCCATGGACTACAAGGACGAC GATGACAAGTCGTCGCCGTCGCCGCCCGCAC, 2r5a-cR: 5' (Xho I) GCTCGAGTTATTTGGCACTGGTACTGCTG (bold letters are restriction sites, underlined nucleotides is Flag tag). The PCR products were cloned into pCR2.1-TOPO vector and sequenced. Then, Ppp2r5a cDNA was cloned from pCR2.1-TOPO into pLPC-NFLAG vector by BamH Ι and Xho Ι enzymatic digestion. To generate wildtype pLPC-Gsk3b-Myc vector, full-length cDNA of mouse Gsk3b was purchased from Sino Biological, Inc (MG50650-CM). The cDNA sequence and Myc tag were then amplified by PCR with primers mGSK3b-cF: 5'-ATGTCGGGGCGACCGAGAACCAC-3' and mGSK3bcR: 5'-TTACAGATCCTCTTCTGAGATGAG-3'. The PCR products were cloned into pCR2.1-TOPO vector. The pLPC-NFLAG vector was digested with restriction enzymes Kpn I and Not I to remove Flag tag. Then, the Myc-tagged Gsk3b was cut from pCR2.1-TOPO by Kpn I and Not I enzymatic digestion and ligated to pLPC vector. For E137D pLPC-Gsk3b-Myc mutant vector generation, mutagenesis primers (mGSK3b E137D F2: 5'-TCCGGACACAGTGTACAGAGT-3' and mGSK3b E137D R: 5'-AC ATAGTCCAGCACCAGGTTAAGG-3') were used to amplify the vector pCR2.1-TOPO-Gsk3b-Myc by PCR. The mutant Gsk3b-Myc was then sequenced and moved from pCR2.1-TOPO to pLPC-NFLAG vector by Kpn I and Not I enzymatic digestion similar as wild-type Gsk3b-Myc.

Transfection and transduction

To generate retro viral particles for $B56\alpha$ or $GSK3\beta$ overexpression, 293T cells in a 6-cm plate were co-transfected with 10 µg pLPC-

B56 α or pLPC-GSK3 β and 5 µg helper virus using Lipofectamine 2000. To generate lentiviral particles for shRNA knock-down, 293T cells in a 6-cm dish were co-transfected with 2.5 µg pLKO.1 empty vector or shRNA vector, 1.25 µg pMDL, 0.625 µg pCMV-VSV-G, and 0.625 µg pRSV-Rev (4:2:1:1). Viral supernatants were collected after 48 and 72 h. Cells were infected with the virus for two to four times throughout 48 h. Puromycin was added 2 days after infection to select positively infected cells. Plasmids containing TRC lentiviral shRNA of mouse Ppp2r5a (TRCN0000081185) were purchased from Dharmacon.

Immunohistochemistry

Tissue was collected in 37% formalin. Samples were processed into paraffin blocks, and slides were cut by the University of California Irvine histology core. For staining, de-paraffinization and rehydration was carried out as follows: incubations of 5 min each: xylene (three washes), 100% ethanol, 95% ethanol, and water (two washes). Slides were then boiled in Citrate Unmasking solution (Cell Signaling) and incubated for 10 min. Slides were then washed in water twice for 5 min. Slides were incubated in 3% hydrogen peroxide for 10 min and washed in water twice and then TBS-T twice. Samples were blocked in normal goat serum for 1 h at RT. Primary anti-Β-catenin antibody (Cell Signaling) was diluted 1:100 and added overnight in a humidified chamber. Slides were washed three times with TBST. SignalStain Boost Detection Reagent anti-rabbit HRP (Cell Signaling) was added to samples and incubated for 1 h at RT. Slides were washed three times with TBS-T and incubated with NovaRed HRP activation agent as per the manufacturer's instructions (Vector). Slides were dipped in water and counterstained with hematoxylin for 30 s. Slides were washed in water until clear and dehydrated with 95% ethanol, 100% ethanol, and xylene twice for 10 s each. Slides were mounted with Permount (Fisher) and examined using the Seba3 RC-3 microscope (Laxco).

Oil Red O staining

Medium was removed from cells and washed with twice in PBS. 10% formalin was added to each well and incubated for 1 h at RT. Cells were washed twice with water. 60% isopropanol was added to each well for 5 min and then removed. Oil Red O working solution was added (1 mg/ml Oil Red O in isopropanol/water) for 20 min with rotation. Staining solution was removed, and wells were washed three times with water. Hematoxylin/eosin was added for 30 s and then washed three times with water. Cells were observed using the Evos Fluor inverted microscope.

Alizarin Red staining

Sections were de-paraffinized in xylene 2×, 100% ethanol 2×, 95% ethanol, 90% ethanol, 80% ethanol, and 70% ethanol each for 5 min. Slides were next washed in water briefly. Sections were then incubated in 200 mg/ml Alizarin Red solution (Sigma) for 5 min. Slides were shaken dry and dipped in acetone repeatedly, then acetone/xylene 1:1, and then xylene. Slides were mounted with Permount (Fisher). Slides were examined using the Seba3 RC-3 microscope (Laxco).

Immunoprecipitation

200–500 µg of RIPA lysates collected as indicated above (Western blot) were diluted to 500 µl, precleared with normal protein A or protein G agarose beads, and subjected to immunoprecipitation using 1 µg of specific antibody or corresponding species IgG control overnight at 4°C with rocking. Protein A or protein G agarose was added for 1 h, and beads were washed with 1 ml RIPA buffer $3\times$ with 3,000RPM spins at 4°C in between washes. Beads were resuspended in Laemmli buffer and analyzed via Western blot.

In vitro binding assays

To examine the interaction between $B56\alpha$ and complex β -catenin/ $GSK3\beta/AXINI$, 2 µg of recombinant $GST-B56\alpha$ was mixed with equal amount of recombinant Myc-β-catenin, His-GSK3β, or Myc-AXIN1. A tube with all these four proteins was set as a control. The mixture was incubated at 37° C for 30 min in 200 µl of assay buffer (25 mM Tris [pH 8.0], 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM dithiothreitol, and 1 mg/ml). Glutathione Sepharose 4B resin was then added to the samples for GST-tag binding. The samples were washed for three times with assay buffer and examined by Western blot with indicated antibodies. GST-B56 α was purchased from Abnova (H00005525-P01), His-GSK3 β was purchased from Life Technologies (PV3365), and Myc-β-catenin and Myc-AXIN1 were purchased from OriGene (TP308349, TP308947).

Luciferase reporter assays

The TOPFlash (Tcf reporter) construct was obtained from Millipore (21–170) and transfected along with pRL renilla control (10:1) into EMSCs using Lipofectamine 2000 at day 3 after seeding. At day 5 after seeding, cells were harvested and monitored for luciferase and renilla luminescence using the Promega (E1910) dual luciferase reporter assay system. Luciferase was normalized to renilla expression. For the Ppp2r5a reporter, medial and distal regions of the Ppp2r5a promoter were cloned upstream of the luciferase cassette in the pBV-luc construct. These constructs along with an empty vector control were transfected into 3T3-L1 cells at day 3 after induction of adipogenesis. At day 5, cells were harvested and luciferase was measured according to the manufacturers' protocol from the Promega dual luciferase assay as above. Luciferase was normalized to protein concentration.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation

Cross-linking was carried out in 1% formaldehyde added to culture medium containing 1–2E6 cells for 10 min. Cells were collected in cold PBS supplemented with cOmplete Protease Inhibitors (Roche) and gently pelleted. The supernatant was removed, and the pellet was resuspended in 500 µl SDS lysis buffer supplemented with protease inhibitors. Sonication was carried out at 4°C using the sonicator at 30% and five pulses of 20 s on 30 s off on ice. Sonicates were diluted fivefold in ChIP dilution buffer (Millipore) and precleared for 30 min with 30 µl Protein A agarose/salmon sperm DNA. At this point, 1% of the lysate was collected as input. The rest of the lysate was subjected to immunoprecipitation with 1μ g of anti-PPAR γ antibody or 1 µg of anti-mouse IgG overnight at 4 $\rm ^{o}C$ with rotation. Next, 10 µl of protein A ChIP grade magnetic beads

(Cell Signaling) were added for 1 h with rotation. Immunoprecipitates were washed with low salt, high salt, lithium chloride, and TE buffers. DNA/protein complexes were eluted from the antibody/ beads in 1% SDS 0.1 M sodium bicarbonate for 15 min. To reverse the cross-links, 20 µl of 5 M NaCl was added and the samples were incubated at 65°C overnight. Samples were then treated with 10 µl 500 mM EDTA and 20 µl 1 M Tris–HCl pH 6.5 and proteinase K and incubated at 45°C for 1 h. Samples, including the input samples, were then purified through a PCR purification kit (Qiagen) and recovered in water. RT–PCR was performed on the samples using the primers found in Table EV1.

Statistical analysis

Data are shown as the mean \pm standard error of the mean. Significance between samples was calculated using Student's t-test whether paired or unpaired dependent on the experiment and noted in the figure legends. Specific P values and sample information can be found in the figure legends.

Data availability

No data were deposited in a public database.

Expanded View for this article is available [online.](https://doi.org/10.15252/embr.202051910)

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Author contributions

EAH, MP, YY, MBIG, TQT, WL, and XHL performed experiments and analyzed data. QAW evaluated experiments and analyzed data. MP performed in vitro experiments and protein binding experiments and developed the Ppp2r5a fl/fl mouse. BR contributed to manuscript preparation. EAH performed binding experiments, mouse experiments, and PPAR γ experiments and wrote the manuscript. MK supervised the study.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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