

The functional matrix hypothesis revisited. 2. The role of an osseous connected cellular network

Melvin L. Moss, DDS, PhD

New York, N.Y.

Intercellular gap junctions permit bone cells to intercellularly transmit, and subsequently process, periosteal functional matrix information, after its initial intracellular mechanotransduction. In addition, gap junctions, as electrical synapses, underlie the organization of bone tissue as a connected cellular network, and the fact that all bone adaptation processes are multicellular. The structural and operational characteristics of such biologic networks are outlined and their specific bone cell attributes described. Specifically, bone is "tuned" to the precise frequencies of skeletal muscle activity. The inclusion of the concepts and databases that are related to the intracellular and intercellular bone cell mechanisms and processes of mechanotransduction and the organization of bone as a biologic connected cellular network permit revision of the functional matrix hypothesis, which offers an explanatory chain, extending from the epigenetic event of muscle contraction hierarchically downward to the regulation of the bone cell genome. (*Am J Orthod Dentofac Orthop* 1997;112:221-6.)

The first article in this series considered the implications for the functional matrix hypothesis (FMH) of the ability of bone cells to carry out intracellular mechanosensation and transduction and intercellular communication. In this article, we will consider the implications for the FMH of the inclusion of connectionist network theory.

BONE AS AN OSSEOUS CONNECTED CELLULAR NETWORK (CCN)

All bone cells, except osteoclasts, are extensively interconnected by gap junctions⁸⁷⁻⁹¹ that form an osseous CCN.^{7,8,42} In these junctions, connexin 43 is the major protein.⁹² Each osteocyte, enclosed within its mineralized lacuna, has many ($n = \pm 80$) cytoplasmic (canalicular) processes, $\pm 15 \mu\text{m}$ long and arrayed three-dimensionally, that interconnect with similar processes of up to 12 neighboring cells. These processes lie within mineralized bone matrix channels (canaliculi). The small space between the cell process plasma membrane and the canalicular wall is filled macromolecular complexes.

Gap junctions are found where the plasma membranes of a pair of markedly overlapping canalicular

processes meet.⁹³ In compact bone, the canaliculi cross "cement lines," and they form extensive communications between osteons and interstitial regions.⁹⁴ Gap junctions also connect superficial osteocytes to periosteal and endosteal osteoblasts. All osteoblasts are similarly interconnected laterally. Vertically, gap junctions connect periosteal osteoblasts with preosteoblastic cells, and these, in turn, are similarly interconnected.⁹⁵ Effectively, each CCN is a true syncytium.^{87,91,93} Bone cells are electrically active.^{57,58,85,95-101} In a very real sense, bone tissue is "hard-wired."^{77,8,96}

In addition to permitting the intercellular transmission of ions and small molecules, gap junctions exhibit both electrical and fluorescent dye transmission.⁶³ Gap junctions are electrical synapses, in contradistinction to interneuronal, chemical synapses, and, significantly, they permit bidirectional signal traffic, e.g., biochemical, ionic.

Mechanotransductively activated bone cells, e.g., osteocytes, can initiate membrane action potentials capable of transmission through interconnecting gap junctions. The primacy of ionic signals rather than secondary messengers is suggested here, because, although bone cell transduction may also produce small biochemical molecules that can pass through gap junctions, the time-course of mechanosensory processes is believed to be too rapid for the involvement of secondary messengers.^{25,32} (See Carvalho et al.¹⁰² for an opposite view.) A CCN is operationally analogous to an "artificial neural network," in which

From the Department of Anatomy and Cell Biology, College of Physicians and Surgeons, and School of Dental and Oral Surgery, Columbia University.

Reprint requests to: Prof. Emeritus Melvin L. Moss, Department of Anatomy and Cell Biology, 630 W. 168th St., New York, NY 10032. e-mail: moss@cucers1.civil.columbia.edu

Copyright © 1997 by the American Association of Orthodontists.
0889-5406/97/\$5.00 + 0 8/1/70663

massively parallel or parallel-distributed signal processing occurs.¹⁰³⁻¹⁰⁵ It computationally processes, in a multiprocessor network mode, the intercellular *signals* created by an electrical type of mechanotransduction of periosteal functional matrix *stimuli*. Subsequently the computed network output informational signals move hierarchically "upward" to regulate the skeletal unit adaptational *responses* of the osteoblasts.

Fortunately, the bases of connectionist theory are sufficiently secure to permit modeling of a biologically realistic osseous CCN.¹⁰⁶⁻¹¹⁰ It consists of a number of relatively simple, densely interconnected processing elements (bone cells), with many more interconnections than cells. It is useful that bone cells form a network because individual receptors cannot code unambiguously—only a population of cells can do so.¹⁰³

In network theory, these cells are organized into "layers": an initial input, a final output, and one or more intermediate or "hidden" layers. Importantly, such networks need not be numerically complex to be operationally complex.¹¹¹ The operational processes are identical, in principle, for all bone cells in all layers. Regardless of the actual physiological stipulatory process, each cell in any layer may simultaneously receive several "weighted" inputs (stimuli). A weight is some quantitative attribute. In the initial layer, these represent the loadings. Within each cell independently, ". . . all the weighted inputs are then summed."¹¹² This sum is then compared, within the cell, against some liminal or threshold value. If this value is exceeded, an intracellular signal is generated, i.e., successful mechanotransduction occurs. This signal is then transmitted *identically* to all the "hidden" layer cells (adjacent osteocytes) to which each initial layer cell is connected by gap junctions (and there are many styles of connectivity). Next, similar processes of weighted signal summation, comparison, and transmission occur in these intermediate layers until the final layer cells (osteoblasts) are reached. The outputs of these anatomically superficial cells determines the site, rate, direction, magnitude, and duration of the specific adaptive response, i.e., deposition, resorption, and/or maintenance, of each cohort of osteoblasts.¹¹³

Information is not stored discretely in a CCN, as it is in a conventional, single CPU computer. Rather it is distributed across all or part of the network, and several types of information may be stored simultaneously. The instantaneous state of a CCN is a property of the state of all its cells and of all their connections. Accordingly, the informational repre-

sentation of CCN is redundant, assuring that the network is fault or error tolerant, i.e., one or several inoperative cells causes little or no noticeable loss in network operations,¹¹² a matter of useful clinical significance.

The CCNs show oscillation, i.e., iterative reciprocal signaling (feedback) between layers. This attribute enables them to adjustively self-organize. This behavior is related to the fact that biologic CCNs are not preprogrammed; rather they learn by unsupervised or epigenetic "training,"¹¹⁴ a process probably involving structural or conformational changes in the cytoskeleton.⁸³ The phenomena of both network "training" and "learning" are related to the suggested effects of the oscillatory nature of their strain history.¹¹⁵ Accordingly, the structurally more complex network attributes and behavior of a CCN gradually or epigenetically self-organize and emerge during operation. These network attributes are not reducible, i.e., they are neither apparent nor predictable from a prior knowledge of the attributes of individual cells.

Gap junctions, permitting bidirectional flow of information, are the cytological basis for the oscillatory behavior of a CCN. All the osteoblasts of a cohort engaged in an identical adaptation process are interconnected by open gap junctions. The presence of sharp histological discontinuities between cohorts of phenotypically different osteoblasts is related to their ability to close gap junctions at the boundaries between such cohorts, and so prevent the flow of information.^{116,117} Informational networks also can transmit inhibitory signals, a significant matter beyond present concerns.¹¹⁸

A skeletal CCN displays the following attributes: (1) Developmentally, it is an untrained self-organized, self-adapting and epigenetically regulated system. (2) Operationally, it is a stable, dynamic system that exhibits oscillatory behavior permitting feedback. It operates in a noisy, nonstationary environment, and probably uses useful and necessary inhibitory inputs. (3) Structurally, an osseous CCN is nonmodular, i.e., the variations in its organization permit discrete processing of differential signals. It is this attribute that permits the triad of histologic responses to a unitary loading event.

Certain simplifications exist in this article, as in most of the bone literature. It is assumed that bone cells are organized in only two dimensions, bone loadings occur only at discrete loci, and gradients of strain are not considered. However, biologic reality is otherwise. In a loaded three-dimensional bone volume, gradients of deformation must exist, and

each osteocyte probably senses uniquely different strain properties. Further, it is probable that each osteocyte is potentially able to transmit three different adaptational signals, in three different directions—some stimulatory and some inhibitory. However, these processes have not yet been adequately modeled. *The role of periosteal functional matrices: new insight.*

The morphogenetic primacy of periosteal functional matrices on their skeletal units is consensually accepted. As a muscular demand alters, e.g., myectomy, myotomy, neurectomy, exercise, hypertrophy, hyperplasia, atrophy, augmentation, or repositioning, the triad of active bone growth processes correspondingly adapts the form of its specifically related skeletal unit.

Presently excluding the stimulation of neural afferents in muscle, tendon, and periosteum, extrinsic physical loadings tend to deform bone tissue and to invoke skeletal unit (bone) adaptation responsive processes. A classic example is the regulation of coronoid process form by the temporalis muscle.¹¹⁹ The tension in the tendon of this contracted muscle, transmitted through intertwined periosteal fibers inserted into subjacent bone, deforms the loaded skeletal unit.¹²⁰

Although some periosteal osteoblasts may be directly stimulated,¹²¹ extant data suggest osteocytic primacy in mechanosensory processes.¹²² Anatomically, bone cells are competent mechanoreceptors. Their three-dimensional array of extensive canalicular cell processes is architecturally well-suited to sense deformation of the mineralized matrix.¹²³

Although no one mechanical parameter reliably predicts all bone adaptational or remodeling responses,¹²⁴ strain probably plays the primary role¹²⁵⁻¹²⁸ and is a competent stimulus.⁵¹ The significant strain attribute may vary with specific conditions.¹²⁹ These include: (a) loading category—bone responds best to dynamic rather static loading⁵⁴; (b) frequency—osteocytes may be physiologically “tuned” to the frequencies of muscle function,¹³⁰⁻¹³² tunings being analogous to those of specialized nonosseous sensory cells,^{34,35} e.g., auditory hair cells; and (c) magnitude—relatively small microstrains ($\mu\epsilon$) (about 10^{-6} mm/mm), and strain magnitudes of $2000 \pm 1000 \mu\epsilon$, are morphogenetically competent.^{55,56,129,133}

Although it is reasonably presumed that mechanosensory processes, of both the ionic and mechanical type, involve the plasma membrane of the osteocytic soma or canalicular processes, the receptive, and subsequent transductive, processes are neither well understood nor consensually agreed on.

Skeletal muscle contraction is a typical periosteal functional matrix loading event,^{13,14,16,120,134,135} and frequency is one of its critical parameters. Although the fundamental frequency of contracting muscle is about 2 Hz, other strain-related harmonics of 15 to 40 Hz exist.

These higher-order frequencies, significantly related to bone adaptational responses, are “. . . present within the [muscle contraction] strain energy spectra regardless of animal or activity and implicate the dynamics of muscle contraction as the source of this energy band” (italics mine).^{68,132,136} Of particular significance to the FMH is the close similarity of muscle stimulus frequencies to bone tissue response frequencies.

MECHANOTRANSDUCTION: A TENTATIVE SYNTHESIS

The previously mentioned data suggest that the ability of periosteal functional matrices to regulate the adaptive responses of their skeletal units by ionic mechanotransductive processes is related to several factors. These are that (a) normal muscle function strains attached bone tissue intermittently; (b) the dynamics of skeletal muscle contraction fit rather nicely with the energetic requirements for bone cell responsiveness; (c) the range of specific strain-frequency harmonics of muscle dynamics are also those found to be morphogenetically competent (i.e., osteoregulatory); (d) normal skeletal muscle activity produces intraosseous electric fields on the order of extrinsic fields found to be similarly morphogenetic; and, (e) bone cells may be stimulated by two mechanisms—directly by strain-activated plasma membrane channels and indirectly by electrokinetic phenomena.

These factors strongly suggest a rather precise matching of significant operational characteristics between a contracting skeletal muscle stimulus and the ability of loaded bone cells to transduce this into signals capable of regulating their adaptive responses. In a phrase, bone appears to be closely “tuned” to skeletal muscle, i.e., skeletal units are tuned to their periosteal functional matrices.

When both the ionic membrane and the mechanical (molecular lever) transductive processes are conceptually and operationally combined with the data of both electric field effects and of contraction frequency energetics, they provide a logically sufficient biophysical basis of support for the hypothesis of epigenetic regulation of skeletal tissue adaptation.^{1,13,16-18,38,129,137}

In reality, it is probable that the ionic (electrical)

and mechanical (molecular lever) transductive processes in osteocytes are neither exhaustive nor mutually exclusive. While using differing intermediate membrane mechanisms or processes, they share a common final common pathway, i.e., they eventually produce signals regulatory of osteoblastic activity. Certainly in the ionic processes, and possibly in the molecular lever system mechanism, the transductive process(es) also cause a transplasma membrane ionic flow(s), creating a signal(s) capable of intercellular transmission to neighboring bone cells through gap junctions,¹²¹ and then subsequent biologic computation in an osseous CCN.

CONCLUSION

Where the original FMH version offered only verbal descriptions of periosteal matrix function and skeletal unit response, the addition to the FMH of the concepts of mechanotransduction and of computational bone biology offers an explanatory chain extending from the epigenetic event of skeletal muscle contraction, hierarchically downward, through the cellular and molecular levels to the bone cell genome, and then upward again, through histologic levels to the event of gross bone form adaptational changes. Analyzing size and shape changes by reference-frame-invariant, finite element methods produces a more comprehensive and integrated description of the totality of the processes of epigenetic regulation of bone form than previously possible.

REFERENCES

- Moss ML. The functional matrix. In: Kraus B, Reidel R, editors. *Vistas in orthodontics*. Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger, 1962:85-98.
- Moss ML. Twenty years of functional cranial analysis. *Am J Orthod* 1972;61:479-85.
- Moss ML. Genetics, epigenetics and causation. *Am J Orthod* 1981;80:366-75.
- Herring S. Epigenetic and functional influences on skull growth. In: Hanken J, Hall BK, editors. *The skull 1*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1993:153-206.
- Moss ML. Integration of the functional matrix hypothesis and the finite element method: a new paradigm for the analysis of craniofacial growth. *Le Journal de l'Edgewise* 1987;15:7-54.
- Moss ML. Finite element comparison of murine mandibular form differences. *J Craniofac Genet Devel Biol* 1988;8:3-20.
- Moss ML. Bone as a connected cellular network: modeling and testing. *Ann Biomed Eng* 1991;117-9.
- Moss ML. Alternate mechanisms of bone remodeling: their representation in a connected cellular network model. *Ann Biomed Engineer* 1991;19:636.
- Moss ML. Advances in finite element modeling of cephalic growth: the integration of macroelement and boundary element methods with the functional matrix hypothesis. *J Jpn Orthod Soc* 1994;53:357-66.
- Moss ML, Cowin SC. Mechanotransduction in bone. In: Lanza R, Langer R, Chick W, editors. *Textbook of tissue engineering*. New York: Springer Verlag, 1995 (in press).
- Moss ML. Growth of the calvaria in the rat: the determination of osseous morphology. *Am J Anat* 1954;94:333-62.
- Moss ML. A functional analysis of human mandibular growth. *Am J Prosthet Dent* 1960;10:1149-60.
- Moss ML. The primacy of functional matrices in orofacial growth. *Trans Br Soc Stud Orthod Dent Pract* 1968;19:65-73.
- Moss ML. Differential roles of the periosteal and capsular functional matrices in orofacial growth. *Trans Eur Orthod Soc* 1969;45:193-206.
- Moss ML, Rankow R. The role of the functional matrix in mandibular growth. *Angle Orthod* 1968;38:95-103.
- Moss ML, Salentijn L. The primary role of the functional matrices in facial growth. *Am J Orthod* 1969;55:566-77.
- Moss ML, Salentijn L. The capsular matrix. *Am J Orthod* 1969;56:474-90.
- Moss ML, Young R. A functional approach to craniology. *Am J Phys Anthropol* 1960;18:281-92.
- Skalak R, Dasgupta G, Moss ML, Otten E, Dullemeijer P, Vilmann H. A conceptual framework for the analytical description of growth. *J Theor Biol* 1982;94:555-77.
- Skalak R, Dasgupta G, Moss ML, Patel H, Sen K, Moss-Salentijn L. The application of the finite element method to the analysis of craniofacial growth and form. *Am J Orthod* 1985;87:453-72.
- Moss ML, Moss-Salentijn L, Skalak R. Finite element modeling of craniofacial growth and development. In: Graber L, editor. *Orthodontics: stepping stones to the future*. St Louis: CV Mosby 1986:143-68.
- McAlarney M, Dasgupta G, Moss ML, Moss-Salentijn L. Anatomical macroelements in the study of craniofacial rat growth. *J Craniofac Genet Dev Biol* 1992;12:3-12.
- Pattee HH. *Hierarchy theory: the challenge of complex systems*. New York: G.Baziller, 1973.
- Goldsmith P. Plant stems: a possible model system for the transduction of mechanical information in bone modeling. *Bone* 1994;15:249-50.
- French AS. Mechanotransduction. *Ann Rev Physiol* 1992;54:135-52.
- Kernan M, Cowan D, Zuker C. Genetic dissection of mechanoreception-defective mutations in *Drosophila*. *Neuron* 1994;12:1195-206.
- Hamilil OP, McBride DW Jr. Mechanoreceptive membrane channels. *Am Scientist* 1995;83:30-7.
- Hackney CM, Furness DN. Mechanotransduction in vertebrate hair cells: structure and function of the stereociliary bundle. *Am J Physiol* 1995;268:C1-13.
- Fraser DJ, Macdonald AG. Crab hydrostatic pressure sensors. *Nature* 1994;371:383-4.
- Olsson S, Hanson BS. Action potential-like activity found in fungal mycelia is sensitive to stimulation. *Naturwissch* 1995;82:30-1.
- Cui C, Smith DO, Adler J. Characterization of mechanosensitive channels in *Escherichia coli* cytoplasmic cell membrane by whole-cell patch clamp recording. *J Membr Biol* 1995;144:31-42.
- Wildron DC, Thain JF, Minchin P, Gubb I, Reilly A, Skipper Y, et al. Electrical signaling and systematic proteinase inhibitor induction in the wounded plant. *Nature* 1992;360:62-5.
- Mayer EA. Signal transduction and intercellular communication. In: Walsh JH, Dockray GJ, editors. *Gut peptides: biochemistry and physiology*. New York: Raven Press, 1994:33-73.
- Martin J. Coding and processing of sensory information. In: Kandel ER, Schwartz JH, Jessel TM, editors. *Principles of neural science*. 3rd. ed. New York: Elsevier, 1991:329-40.
- Martin J, Jessel TM. Modality coding in the somatic sensory system. In: Kandel ER, Schwartz JH, Jessel TM, editors. 3rd. ed. New York: Elsevier, 1991:341-52.
- Wang N, Butler JP, Ingber DE. Mechanotransduction across the cell surface and through the cytoskeleton. *Science* 1993;260:1124-7.
- Claassen DE, Spooner BS. Impact of altered gravity on aspects of cell biology. *Int Rev Cytol* 1994;156:301-72.
- van der Meulen MCH, Carter DR. Developmental mechanics determine long bone allometry. *J Theor Biol* 1995;172:323-7.
- Martin TJ, Ng KW. Mechanisms by which cells of the osteoblastic lineage control osteoclast formation and activity. *J Cell Biochem* 1994;56:357-66.
- Hill PA, Reynolds JJ, Meickle MC. Osteoblasts mediate insulin-like growth factor-I and -II stimulation of osteoclast formation and function. *Endocrinol* 1995;136:124-31.
- Moss-Salentijn L. The human tactile system. In: Nicholls HR, editor. *Advanced tactile sensing for robotics*. Chapter 4. Singapore: World Scientific Publishing, 1994.
- Cowin SC, Moss-Salentijn L, Moss ML. Candidates for the mechanosensory system in bone. *J Biomed Engineer* 1991;113:191-7.
- van der Laarse A, Ravelstoft JH, Neiveide PJ. Voltage, calcium and stretch activated ionic channels and intracellular calcium in bone cells. *J Bone Miner Res* 1992;7:S377-87.
- Guggino SE, LaJeunesse D, Wagner JA, Snyder SH. Bone remodeling signaled by a dihydropyridine- and phenylalkylaminesensitive calcium channel. *Proc Nat Acad Sci* 1989;86:2957-60.
- Duncan R, Misler S. Voltage-activated and stretch activated Ba^{2+} conducting channels in an osteoblast-like cell line (URM 106). *Fed Eur Biochem Soc* 1989;251:17-21.
- Keynes RD. The kinetics of voltage-gated ion channels. *Q Rev Biophys* 1994;27:339-44.
- Stockbridge LL, French AS. Stretch-activated cation channels in human fibroblasts. *J Biophys* 1988;54:187-90.
- Sachs F. Biophysics of mechanoreception. *Membrane Biochem* 1986;6:173-95.
- Sachs F. Mechanical transduction in biological systems. *CRC Rev Biomed Engineer* 1988;16:141-69.
- Sackin H. Mechanosensitive channels. *Ann Rev Physiol* 1995;57:333-53.
- Harter LV, Hruska KA, Duncan RL. Human osteoblast-like cells respond to

- mechanical strain with increased bone matrix protein production independent of hormonal regulation. *Endocrinol* 1995;136:528-35.
52. Harrigan TP, Hamilton JJ. An analytical and numerical study of the stability of bone remodeling theories: dependence on microstructural stimulus. *J Biomech* 1992;25:477-88.
53. Lanyon LE. Functional strain as a determinant for bone remodeling. *Calcif Tiss Int* 1984;36:S56-S61.
54. Lanyon LE, Rubin CT. Static vs dynamic loads as an influence on bone remodeling. *J Biomech* 1984;17:897-905.
55. Rubin LE, Lanyon LE. Limb mechanisms as a function of speed and gait: a study of functional strains in the radius and tibia of horse and dog. *J Exp Zool* 1982;101:187-211.
56. Rubin LE, Lanyon LE. Regulation of bone formation by applied loads. *J Bone Jt Surg* 1984;66A:397-402.
57. McLeod KJ. Microelectric measurement of low frequency electric fields effects in cells and tissues. *Bioelectromagnetics* 1992;1(suppl):161-78.
58. Chesnoy-Marchais D, Fritsch J. Voltage-gated sodium and calcium currents in rat osteoblasts. *J Physiol* 1988;398:291-311.
59. Massass R, Bingmann D, Korenstein R, Tetsch P. Membrane potential of rat calvaria bone cells: dependence on temperature. *J Cell Physiol* 1990;144:1-11.
60. Jan LY, Jan YN. Tracing the roots of ion channels. *Cell* 1992;69:715-8.
61. Ravestloot JH, van Houten RJ, Ypey DL, Nijweide PJ. High-conductance anion channels in embryonic chick osteogenic cells. *J Bone Miner Res* 1991;6:355-63.
62. Ferrier J, Crygorczyk C, Grygorczyk R, Kesthely A, Langan E, Xia SL. Ba²⁺-induced action potentials in osteoblastic cells. *J Membrane Biol* 1991;123:255-9.
63. Schirmacher K, Brummer F, Dusing R, Bingmann D. Dye and electric coupling between osteoblasts-like cells in culture. *Calcif Tissue Int* 1993;53:53-60.
64. Weinbaum S, Cowin S, Zeng Y. A model for the excitation of osteocytes by mechanical loading-induced bone fluid shear stresses. *J Biomech* 1994;27:339-60.
65. Gross D, Williams WS. Streaming potential and the electromechanical response of physiologically moist bone. *J Biomech* 1982;15:277-95.
66. Pollack SR, Salzstein R, Pienkowski D. Streaming potentials in fluid filled bone. *Ferroelectrics* 1984;60:297-309.
67. Turner CH, Forwood MR, Otter MW. Mechanotransduction in bone: do bone cells act as sensors of fluid flow? *FASEB J* 1994;8:375-8.
68. McLeod KJ, Rubin CT. Frequency specific modulation of bone adaptation by induced electric fields. *J Theor Biol* 1990;145:385-96.
69. Brighton CT, Okerehe E, Pollack S, Clark CC. In vitro bone-cell response to a capacitatively coupled electrical field: role of field strength, pulse pattern and duty cycle. *Clin Orthop Rel Res* 1992;285:255-62.
70. McLeod KJ, Donahue HJ, Levin PE, Fontaine M-A, Rubin CT. Electric fields modulate bone cell function in a density-dependent manner. *J Bone Miner Res* 1993;8:977-84.
71. Halliday NL, Tomasek JJ. Mechanical properties of the extracellular matrix influence fibronectin fibril assembly in vitro. *Exp Cell Res* 1995;217:109-17.
72. Clark EA, Brugge JS. Integrins and signal transduction pathways: the road taken. *Science* 1995;268:233-9.
73. Watanabe H, Miake K, Sasaki J. Immunohistochemical study of the cytoskeleton of osteoblasts in the rat calvaria. *Acta Anat* 1993;147:14-23.
74. Hughes DE, Salter DM, Dedhar S, Simpson R. Integrin expression in human bone. *J Bone Miner Res* 1993;8:527-33.
75. Richardson A, Parsons JT. Signal transduction through integrins: a central role for focal adhesion. *Bioessays* 1995;17:229-36.
76. Shapiro F, Cahill C, Malatantis G, Nayak RC. Transmission electron microscopic demonstration of vimentin in rat osteoblast and osteocytic cell bodies and processes using the immunoblot technique. *Anat Rec* 1995;241:39-48.
77. Green PB. Connecting gene and hormone action to form, pattern and organogenesis: biophysical transductions. *J Exp Botany* 1994;45:1775-88(Special Issue).
78. Jones DB, Bingmann D. How do osteoblasts respond to mechanical stimulation? *Cells Mater* 1991;1:329-40.
79. Machwate M, Jullienne A, Moukhtar M, Marie PJ. Temporal variation of c-fos proto-oncogene expression during osteoblast differentiation and osteogenesis in developing rat bone. *J Cell Biochem* 1995;57:62-70.
80. Petrov AG, Usherwood PN. Mechanosensitivity of cell membranes: ion channels, lipid matrix and cytoskeleton. *Eur Biophys J* 1994;23:1-19.
81. Yanagishita M. Function of proteoglycans in the extracellular matrix. *Acta Path Jpn* 1993;43:283-93.
82. Utito V-J. Extracellular matrix molecules and their receptors: an overview with special emphasis on periodontal tissues. *Crit Rev Oral Biol Med* 1991;2:323-54.
83. Dayhoff JE, Hameroff SR, Lahoz-Beltra R, Swenberg CE. Intracellular mechanisms in neuronal learning: adaptive models. *Int J Conf Neural Networks* 1992:173-8.
84. Ingber DE. The riddle of morphogenesis: a question of solution chemistry or molecular cell engineering. *Cell* 1993;75:1249-52.
85. Haskin C, Cameron I. Physiological levels of hydrostatic pressure alter morphology and organization of cytoskeletal and adhesion proteins in MG-63 osteosarcoma cells. *Biochem Cell Biol* 1993;71:27-35.
86. Sadoshima J, Takahashi T, Jahn L, Izumo S. Roles of mechano-sensitive ion channels, cytoskeleton and contractile activity in stretch-induced immediate-early gene expression and hypertrophy of cardiac myocytes. *Proc Nat Acad Sci USA* 1992;89:9905-9.
87. Bennett MVL, Goodenough DA. Gap junctions: electronic coupling and intercellular communication. *Neurosci Res Prog Bull* 1978;16:373-485.
88. Schirmacher K, Schmitz I, Winterhager E, Traub O, Brummer F, Jones D, et al. Characterization of gap junctions between osteoblast-like cells in culture. *Calcif Tiss Int* 1992;51:285-90.
89. Jones SJ, Gray C, Sakamaki H, Arora M, Boyde A, Gourdie R, et al. The incidence and size of gap junctions between bone cells in rat calvaria. *Anat Embryol* 1993;187:343-52.
90. Gourdie R, Green C. The incidence and size of gap junctions between bone cells in rat calvaria. *Anat Embryol* 1993;187:343-52.
91. Civitelli R. Cell-cell communication in bone. *Calcif Tiss Int* 1995;56:S29-31.
92. Minkoff R, Rundus VR, Parker SB, Hertzberg EL, Laing JG, Beyer E. Gap junction proteins exhibit early and specific expression during intramembranous bone formation in the developing chick mandible. *Anat Embryol* 1994;190:231-41.
93. Rodan G. Introduction to bone biology. *Bone* 1992;13:S3-6.
94. Curtis TA, Ashrafi SH, Weber DF. Canalicular communication in the cortices of human long bones. *Anat Rec* 1985;212:336-44.
95. Doty S. Cell-to-cell communication in bone tissue. In: Davidovitch Z, editor. The biological mechanism of tooth eruption and root resorption. Birmingham: EBSO Media, 1989:61-9.
96. Nowak R. Cells that fire together, wire together. *J NIH Res* 1992;4:60-4.
97. Bingmann D, Tetsch D and Fritsch J. Membraneigenschaften von Zellen aus Knochenexplantaten. *Z Zahnartzl Implantol* 1989;4:277-81.
98. Bingmann D, Tetsch D, Fritsch J. Membrane properties of bone cells derived from calvaria of newborn rats (tissue culture). *Pfugers Arch* 1989;S412:R14.
99. Edelman A, Fritsch J, Balsan S. Short-term effects of PTH on cultured rat osteoblasts: changes in membrane potential. *Am J Physiol* 1986;251:C483-90.
100. Ferrier J, Ward-Kesthely AW, Homble F, Ross S. Further analysis of spontaneous membrane potential activity and hyperpolarization response to parathyroid hormone in osteoblast-like cells. *J Cell Physiol* 1987;130:433-51.
101. Hohman EL, Elde RP, Rysavy JA, Einzig S, Gebhard RL. Innervation of periosteum and bone by sympathetic vasoconstrictive intestine peptide-containing fibers. *Science* 1986;232:868-71.
102. Carvalho RS, Scott JE, Suga DM, Yen EH. Stimulation of signal transduction pathways in osteoblasts by mechanical strain potentiated by parathyroid hormone. *J Bone Miner Res* 1994;9:999-1011.
103. Edin BB, Trullson M. Neural network analysis of the information content in population responses from human periodontal receptors. *SPIE* 1992;1710:257-6.
104. Denning PJ. Neural networks. *Am Sci* 1992;80:426-9.
105. Martino RL, Johnson CA, Suh EB, Trus BL, Yap TK. Parallel computing in biomedical research. *Science* 1994;265:905-8.
106. Dayhoff J. Neural network architecture. New York: van Nostrand Reinhold, 1990.
107. Zornitzer SF, Davis J, Lau C. An introduction to neural and electronic networks. San Diego: Academic Press, 1990.
108. Grossberg S. Neural networks and artificial intelligence. Cambridge: MIT Press, 1988.
109. Hinton GE, Anderson JA. Parallel models of associative memory. Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1989.
110. McClelland JL, Rumelhart DE. Parallel distributed processing. In: Psychological and biological models. 2 ver. Cambridge: MIT Press, 1987.
111. Kupfermann I. Neural networks: they do not have to be complex to be complex. *Behav Brain Sci* 1992;15:767-8.
112. Wasserman PD. Neural computation. In: Theory and practice. New York: Nostrand Reinhold, 1989.
113. Parfitt AM. Osteonal and hemi-osteonal remodeling: the spatial and temporal framework for signal traffic in adult human bone. *J Cell Biochem* 1994;55:273-86.
114. Fritzsche B. Growing cell structures: a self-organizing network for unsupervised and supervised learning. *Neural Networks* 1994;7:1441-60.
115. Carter DR. The regulation of skeletal biology by mechanical stress histories. In: Skalak R, Fox CF, editors. Tissue engineering. New York: Alan Liss, 1988:173-9.
116. Kam E, Hodgins MB. Communication compartments in hair follicles and their implication in differentiative control. *Development* 1992;114:389-93.
117. Kodoma R, Eguchi G. The loss of gap junctional cell-to-cell communication is coupled with dedifferentiation of retinal pigmented epithelial cells in the course of transdifferentiation into the lens. *Int J Dev Biol* 1994;38:357-64.
118. Marrotti G, Ferretti M, Muglia MA, Palumbo C, Palazzini S. A quantitative evaluation of osteoblast-osteocyte relationships on growing endosteal surface of rabbit tibiae. *Bone* 1992;13:363-8.
119. Horowitz SL, Shapiro HH. Modifications of mandibular architecture following removal of temporalis muscle in the rat. *J Dent Res* 1951;30:276-80.
120. Moss ML, Moss-Salentijn L. The muscle-bone interface: an analysis of a morphological boundary. Monograph 8, Craniofacial Series. Ann Arbor: Center for Human Growth and Development, University of Michigan:39-72.
121. Harrigan TP, Hamilton JJ. Bone strain sensation via transmembrane potential changes in surface osteoblasts: loading rate and microstructural implications. *J Biomech* 1993;26:183-200.

122. Aarden EM, Burger EH, Nijweide PJ. Function of osteocytes in bone. *J Cell Biochem* 1994;55:287-99.
123. Lanyon LE. Osteocytes, strain detection, bone modeling and remodeling. *Calcif Tiss Int* 1993;53:S102-6.
124. Brown TD, Pedersen DR, Gray ML, Brand RA, Rubin CT. Periosteal remodeling: a combined experimental and analytic approach. *J Biomech* 1990;23:893-905.
125. Cowin SC. Strain assessment by bone cells. In: Skalak R, Fox CF, editors. *Tissue Engineering*. New York: Alan R. Liss, 1988:181-7.
126. Cowin SC. *Bone biomechanics*. Boca Raton: CRC Press, 1989a.
127. Cowin SC. A resolution restriction for Wolff's law of trabecular architecture. *Bull Hosp Jt Dis* 1989;49:205-12.
128. Rubin LE, McLeod KJ, Bain SD. Functional strains and cortical bone adaptation: epigenetic assurance of skeletal integrity. *J Biomech* 1990;25:43-54.
129. Martin RB, Burr DB. *Structure, function and adaptation of compact bone*. New York: Raven Press, 1989.
130. McLeod KL, Rubin CT. The effect of low-frequency electrical fields on osteogenesis. *J Bone Jt Surg* 1992;74A:920-9.
131. Turner CH. Functional determinants of bone structure: beyond Wolff's law of bone transformation. Editorial. *Bone* 1992;13:403-9.
132. Rubin CT, Donahue HJ, Rubin JE, McLeod KJ. Optimization of electric field parameters for the control of bone remodeling: exploitation of an indigenous mechanism for the prevention of osteopenia. *J Bone Miner Res* 1993;8:S573-81.
133. Turner CH, Forwood MR, Rho J-Y, Yoshikawa T. Mechanical loading thresholds for lamellar and woven bone formation. *J Bone Miner Res* 1993;9:87-97.
134. Moss ML. A theoretical analysis of the functional matrix. *Acta Biotheor* 1969;18:195-202.
135. Moss ML. Functional cranial analysis of the mandibular angular cartilage in the rat. *Angle Orthod* 1969;39:209-14.
136. Rodriguez AA, Agre JC, Knudston ER, NG A. Acoustic myography compared to electromyography during isometric fatigue and recovery. *Muscle Nerve* 1993;16:188-92.
137. Moss ML. The functional matrix hypothesis and epigenetics. In: Graber TM, editor. *Physiologic principles of functional appliances*. St Louis: CV Mosby, 1985:3-4.

AVAILABILITY OF JOURNAL BACK ISSUES

As a service to our subscribers, copies of back issues of the *American Journal of Orthodontics and Dentofacial Orthopedics* for the preceding 5 years are maintained and are available for purchase from the publisher, Mosby-Year Book, Inc., at a cost of \$11.00 per issue. The following quantity discounts are available: 25% off on quantities of 12 to 23, and one third off on quantities of 24 or more. Please write to Mosby-Year Book, Inc., Subscription Services, 11830 Westline Industrial Dr., St. Louis, MO 63146-3318, or call (800)453-4351 or (314)453-4351 for information on availability of particular issues. If unavailable from the publisher, photocopies of complete issues are available from University Microfilms International, 300 N. Zeeb Rd., Ann Arbor, MI 48106 (313)761-4700.