

Review paper

Does the gut microbiome play a role in osteoarthritis?

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Abstract

Osteoarthritis (OA) is a joint degenerative disease of the synovial joint, leading to chronic pain and loss of functionality. Although the pathoetiology of OA is still unknown, this review approaches to link the main OA risk factors such as age, obesity and low-grade inflammation with gut microbiome. It has been identified that joint tissue remodelling due to metalloproteases, could be activated via two potential routes when changes in gut microbiota occur. First, low intestinal permeability may allow LPS to escape into circulation, where TLR4 activation leads to release of cytokines IL-6, IL-8 and MMP-1. Secondly, dendritic cells capture microbial products leading to increased ATM infiltration of adipose tissue and increased synthesis of IL-6 and TNF- α . Both pathways may lead to increased cartilage degradation in OA. Obesity may contribute to OA progression via increased MMP production by senescent cells that increased due to large loading weight. However, more research is needed to establish the proposed mechanism of interaction in OA.

Introduction

Osteoarthritis (OA) is a debilitating multifactorial joint disease, the pathoetiology of which is still unknown. The major risk factors of OA include age, obesity and mechanical stress, and a common unifying component such as low-grade inflammation has only been recently identified. An implication of gut microbiome in a variety of diseases has also sparked an interest in its effect in osteoarthrosis. The following narrative review is going to examine the evidence for potential direct and indirect links of gut microbiome contribution to osteoarthritis development through the prism of systematic low-grade inflammation present in major risk factors.

1. Osteoarthritis, pathoetiology and treatment

Osteoarthritis (OA) is multifactorial degenerative disease, resulting in diarthrodial joint's cartilage, tissue remodelling, subchondral bone alteration and synovitis (Martel-Pelletier *et al.*, 2016a). A current approximation of 250 million patients diagnosed with osteoarthritis worldwide, predicting further an exponential increase in after the age of 66 years old (Murray *et al.*, 2013; Q. Wu *et al.*, 2010). The disease burden undermines patient's daily quality of life, inflates loss in economic productivity and wages, further complicating payment for medical services (Zhao *et al.*, 2019).

Until the 18th century osteoarthritis could not be phenotypically differentiated from rheumatoid arthritis (Garrod, 1859). Now osteoarthritis is categorized into primary (or idiopathic) structural and symptomatic (trauma, injury etc), with the large prevalence of the latter in patients (Martel-Pelletier *et al.*, 2016a). The 'wear and tear' concept of OA has been revolutionized into broader 'whole joint' multifaceted disease, affecting multiple structural and systemic components (Courties *et al.*, 2015; Ishijima *et al.*, 2014). Primary OA is associated with the major risk factors of OA such as adiposity and increasing age; whereas secondary with joint injury. Other risk factors of OA incidences of OA also gender, genetics and lifestyle (*Figure 1*) (Johnson and Hunter, 2014; Perruccio *et al.*, 2017; Punzi *et al.*, 2016; Rogers *et al.*, 2015; Sellam and Berenbaum, 2013).

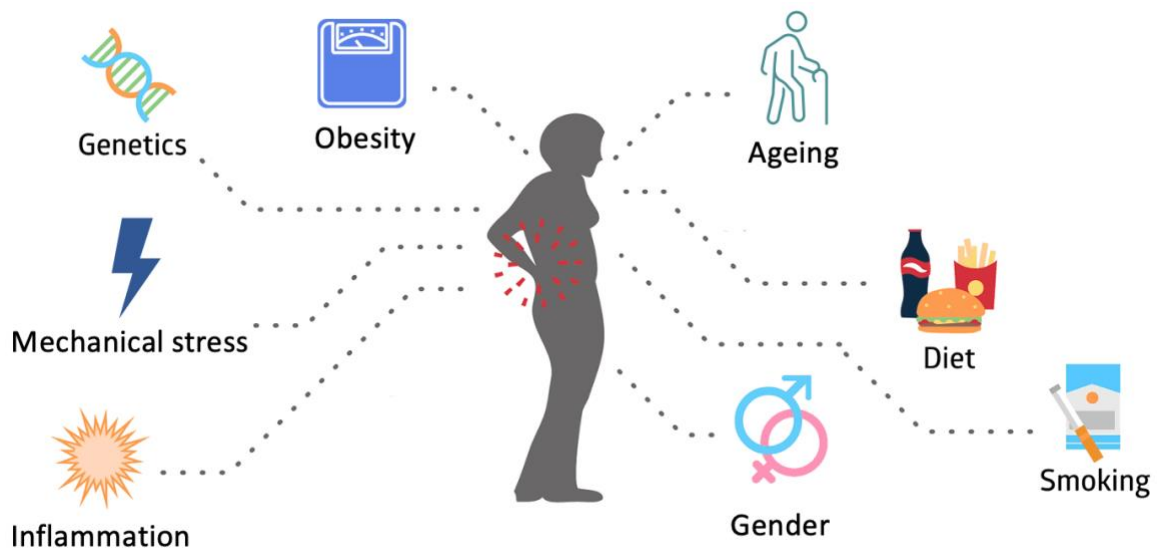


Figure 1. Schematic representation of risk factors of osteoarthritis: mechanical stress, gender, lifestyle, genetics, ageing and obesity. Adapted from: ("Degenerative Osteoarthritis," n.d.).

Synovial joints connect two adjoining bones via encapsulating and covering the bone surface by a specialized articular cartilage layer of chondrocytes. The joint structure and composition determine its optimal load-bearing and motile function (*Figure 2*). Adult chondrocytes are normally in quiescent state and maintain cartilaginous extracellular matrix (ECM)(den Hollander *et al.*, 2015; Goldring and Otero, 2011). The articular cartilage ECM consisting of collagen fibres (mainly type II), proteoglycans and non-collagenous proteins provide tensile force and resilience via entrapping water molecules within the extracellular matrix (Andriacchi and Favre, 2014; Quinn *et al.*, 2013). The synovial membrane of the articular capsule is a semipermeable layer that produces synovial fluid for lubrication and low-friction motion. As cartilage has no vasculature or neurons, the synovium plays an important role of cell nurturing, waste removal providing immunomodulating agents of innate and adaptive immune response (Goldring *et al.*, 2011; Scanzello and Goldring, 2012).

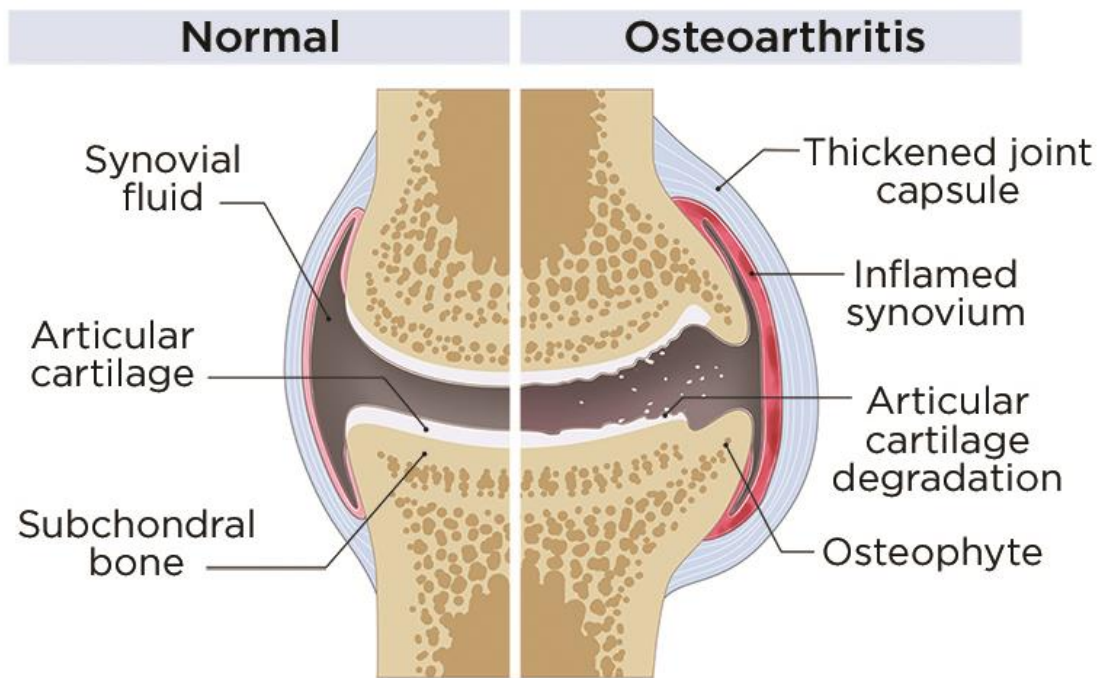


Figure 2. Schematic representation of normal synovial joint structure versus osteoarthritic joint; (Left) Healthy joint structure featuring articular cartilage, synovial fluid and subchondral bones; (Right) Pathological structure of osteoarthritic joint featuring thickening of joint capsule, inflammation of synovial fluid, articular cartilage degradation and osteophyte formation (Illustration by "Kip Carter," n.d.).

The primary manifestations of osteoarthritis include joint pain, stiffness and reduced motor function, followed by inflammation, bone and joint remodelling (Dell'Isola *et al.*, 2016). The diagnostic tools such as MRI and radiography techniques reveal other pathological changes: degradation of articular cartilage and ligaments, thickening of joint capsule, subchondral bone remodelling, osteophyte formation and synovitis (Loeser *et al.*, 2012a). The disease onset is slow but can evolve gradually or via rapid phases. Therefore, early periodic screenings are recommended for elderly individuals. Investigations into mechanisms of actions of OA are crucial for targeting disease and therefore benefit the public healthcare system.

1.1 Pathoetiology:

The pathoetiology of osteoarthritis has long been unclear. It's known to be implicated with both local and systemic immunomodulating factors in clinical manifestations (Martel-Pelletier *et al.*, 2016a). In OA pathological changes involve destruction of articular cartilage, exposure of calcified cartilage and bone, bone remodelling; tidemark duplication which is identified histologically and separates calcified region articular cartilage from non-calcified. As

a result, a new vasculature penetrates from subchondral bone contributing for development of new nerve ends formation possibly contribution for progressive pain (Imhof *et al.*, 2000).

The submolecular layered structure of chondrocytes supports cellular life cycle. The ECM of articular cartilage maintains low turnover of chondrocytes via protecting cells from other non-cartilaginous signalling molecules (Loeser, 2014; Xu *et al.*, 2014). Low-oxygen environment of chondrocytes is maintained via hypoxia-inducible factor-1- α (HIF-1 α) (Maes *et al.*, 2012). Primary cilia on the surface of chondrocytes helps to sense mechanical forces and adapt for any changes (Ruhlen and Marberry, 2014). At an early staged of OA, an increased activity of chondrocytes may be due to exposure of cell surface receptors to signals that were previously impenetrable due ECM integrity (Xu *et al.*, 2014). Activated chondrocyte exhibit alterations in tissue order and in cartilage specific gene expression via increased production of proteinases that further deplete collagen and proteoglycan network worsening cartilage erosion (Fosang and Beier, 2011). The collagen *Col2a1* and *aggrecan* genes are downregulated, meanwhile genes coding for metalloproteinases (MMPs), such as *Mmp13*, *Adamts4* and *Adamts5* are upregulated. The family of a disintegrin and metalloproteinase with thrombospondin motifs (ADMATS) include aggrecanases, collagenases and cysteine proteinases, etc (Troeberg and Nagase, 2012). Moreover, activated chondrocytes express vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF contributing to neoangiogenesis (Walsh *et al.*, 2010). A tight homeostatic balance in cartilage tissue is maintained by regulation of chondrocytes degradation and synthesis. In case of equilibrium failure, catabolism is elevated leading to irreversible tissue destruction.

The main signalling pathways that contributes for upregulation of those genes include nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κ B), mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK), and wingless-related integration site (Wnt) pathways (Goldring *et al.*, 2011). Among the signalling pathways in OA, Wnt is known to be implicated the most. In the presence of Wnt molecules, it binds to Frizzled and LRP5/6 surface co-receptors, leading to activation of downstream cascade signalling, where β -catenin is not proteosomically degraded but translocated into the nucleus for further gene activation. Wnt pathway related molecules gene expression is altered in OA. The knockout of sFRP3, an antagonist of Wnt, results in increased susceptibility of mice to knee osteoarthritis and the SNPs has been associated with higher risk in osteoarthritis (Thyssen *et al.*, 2015). Similarly, the levels of a DKK1, a competitive antagonist of Wnt, are decreased in patients with knee OA (Honsawek *et al.*, 2010). In both spontaneous and induced OA, *Wisp1* gene expression that regulate MMPs and aggrecanases in chondrocytes and macrophages is increased in mice (Blom *et al.*, 2009; Lampropoulou-Adamidou *et al.*, 2014). Activation of β -catenin in *Col2a1* or *Argc1* expressing cells enhances extreme cartilage and

bone remodelling (Wang et al., 2014, 2012). Deletion of both β -catenin and *Mmp13* has shown to decrease joint degeneration and pain (Wang et al., 2012). Thus, Wnt signalling holds a potential to be targeted pharmaceutically.

Moreover, bone mineralization and remodelling in OA, include formation of bony outgrowths localized at marginal site called osteophytes (Burr and Gallant, 2012). Osteophytes rather provide bone stability than pathological changes seen in animal models, no correlation between OA progression and osteophytes has been made (Felson et al., 2005; Pottenger et al., 1990; van der Kraan and van den Berg, 2007). An altered distribution of mechanical stress in ligament or menisci injuries may contribute to OA pathology. Chondrocytes cilia or mechanoreceptors sensing change in tensile forces adapt via multiple mechanisms, that yet poorly understood but can be considered as potential therapeutic targets (Quinn et al., 2013).

Recently, new data suggests an implication of extracellular vesicles (ACEV) in osteoarthritis. The vesicles contain biologically active molecules found in the pericellular matrix of articular cartilage and growth plate (Anderson, 1969; Miyaki and Lotz, 2018). These are able to transport regulatory elements like mRNA, microRNA, lipids, DNA and etc (Raposo and Stoorvogel, 2013). It has been identified that chondrocytes internalize ACEV derived mRNA of collagen type 2, aggrecans, transglutaminase in a healthy cartilage (Mitton et al., 2009). Extracellular vesicles may play a bigger role in communication between chondrocytes and tissue cells. These were shown to increase MMP-3 expression levels in synovial fibroblasts, meanwhile decrease expression of ACAN in particular chondrocytes (Kato et al., 2014).

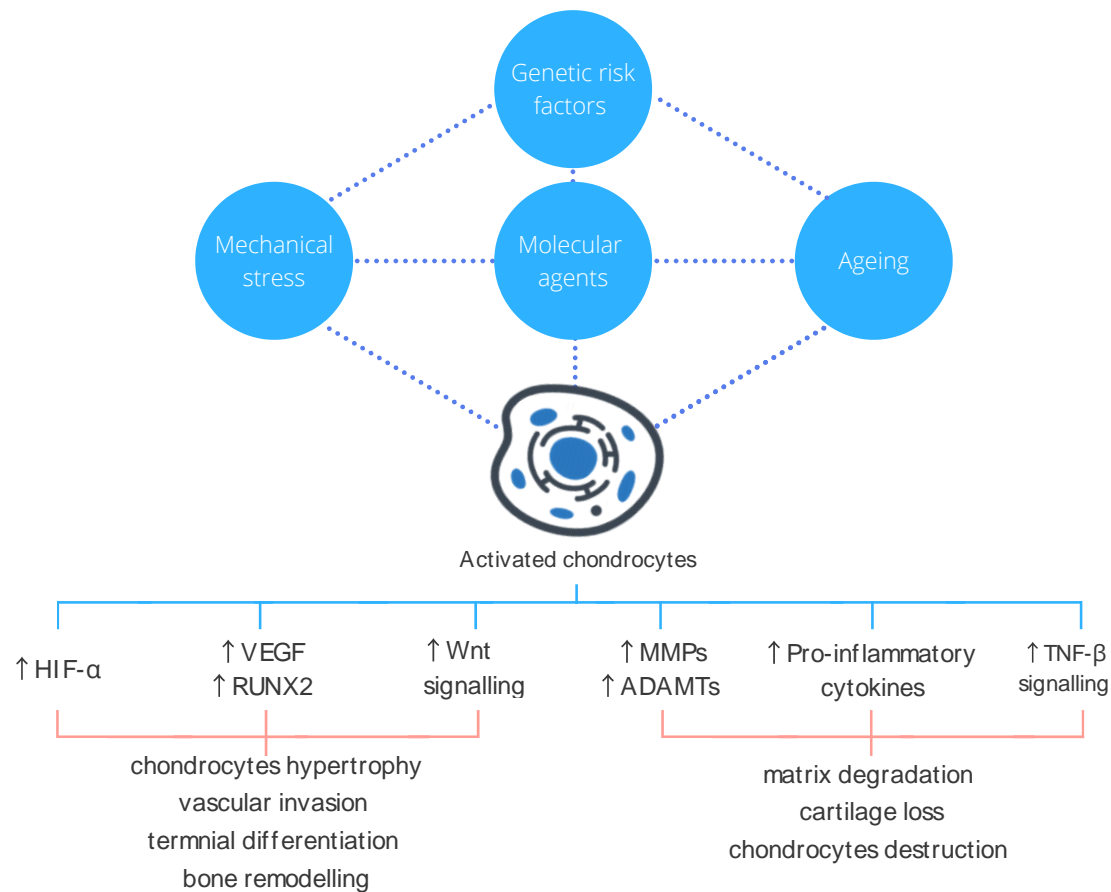


Figure 3. Schematic representation of pathways and signalling molecules upregulation by activated chondrocytes: hypoxia-induced factor-1- α (HIF-1 α), vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), Wnt signalling, metalloproteinases (MMPs), ADAMTs, pro-inflammatory cytokines and tumour-necrosis factor β (TNF- β) signalling. The resulting activation leads to chondrocytes hypertrophy, vascular invasion, terminal differentiation of chondrocytes, bone remodelling, matrix degradation, articular cartilage loss and chondrocytes destruction.

1.2 Treatment:

The current treatment of OA mostly includes analgesic or anti-rheumatic medications such as cyclosporin or hydroxychloroquine, that show no improvement but rather symptom palliation (Ghouri and Conaghan, 2019). No osteoarthritis modifying drug has been clinically approved yet (Martel-Pelletier et al., 2016a; Yu and Hunter, 2015). It's a challenge to treat OA with a plethora of risk factors still being recognised and evolving. The current hypothesis as a consequence of evolutionary urbanization in boosting osteoarthritis is due to sedentary lifestyle, high-fat diet and other chronic diseases. Therefore, modifications in lifestyle and nutrition might help with disease alleviation or prevention, as discussed further.

2. Gut microbiome in health and disease

Microbiome is a stable-dynamic equilibrium of all commensals, their genes and gene products confined within the human host environment (Hernandez *et al.*, 2016). The morphology of gut microbiota is divided into three large domains of archaea, bacteria and eukaryote. There are an estimated 100 trillion living organisms on the human GI tract. First, the microbiome develops in humans prenatally receiving commensals from mother and then altered according to factors such as mode of delivery, hygiene and age. By the age of three to five years old, a full adult-like microbiome is formed and remains stable until prolonged changes in lifestyle or diet, or an antibiotic treatment (Rodríguez *et al.*, 2015).

A 'halobiont' is a term describing the contributions of the microbiome to its host (Kundu *et al.*, 2017). The total of 3 million protein-coding genes in the microbiome acting as neuronal, immunological and endocrine 'organ' (*Figure 4*) (Clarke *et al.*, 2014; Lazar *et al.*, 2018; Voreades *et al.*, 2014, p. 20). The balance between bacterial niches and the nutritional environment are crucial for disease prevention (Quigley, 2013). The microbiome sensitivity to dietary fat, fibre and food additives has been recently established (Desai *et al.*, 2016; Devkota *et al.*, 2012; J.-Y. Li *et al.*, 2016; Sonnenburg *et al.*, 2016; Thaïss *et al.*, 2014; Wan *et al.*, 2019). Diet can largely influence microbiome due to its quick adaptation to pH and food (David *et al.*, 2014).

A healthy gut microbiome is hard to identify as many factors contribute to the 'normal' state, such as diurnal rhythms, hormonal cycle, travel, immunological profile, diet, genetics and treatment (D'Argenio and Salvatore, 2015; Koren *et al.*, 2012, p. 20; Martin-Belmonte and Perez-Moreno, 2011; Yatsunenko *et al.*, 2012). Although, the alterations of microbiome in disease states suggest its implication and these include: cancer, rheumatoid arthritis, inflammatory bowel disease and Parkinson's disease, type II diabetes, allergic asthma (*Figure 5*) (Cani *et al.*, 2007; J.-Y. Li *et al.*, 2016; Malkki, 2017; Trompette *et al.*, 2014; Włodarska *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2015). The concept of microbiome involvement in forementioned conditions is still elusive and active research is needed for its investigation.

Gut microbiome commensals may promote healthy structural, metabolic and signalling functioning. The estimated variation between 1:1 to 10:1 ratio in number of bacterial cells and host cells, suggest the scope of its relative regulatory potential (Sender *et al.*, 2016a, 2016b). The dominant phyla in the healthy gut are *Firmicutes*, *Bacteroidetes* and *Actinobacteria*, the ratio between which varies individually (*Figure 5*) (Qin *et al.*, 2010). However, the specific role that each organism plays within a habitat is difficult to identify. An association of

Faecalibacterium prausnitzii with IBD has sceptical views on some evidence (Gerasimidis *et al.*, 2014; Sokol *et al.*, 2009).

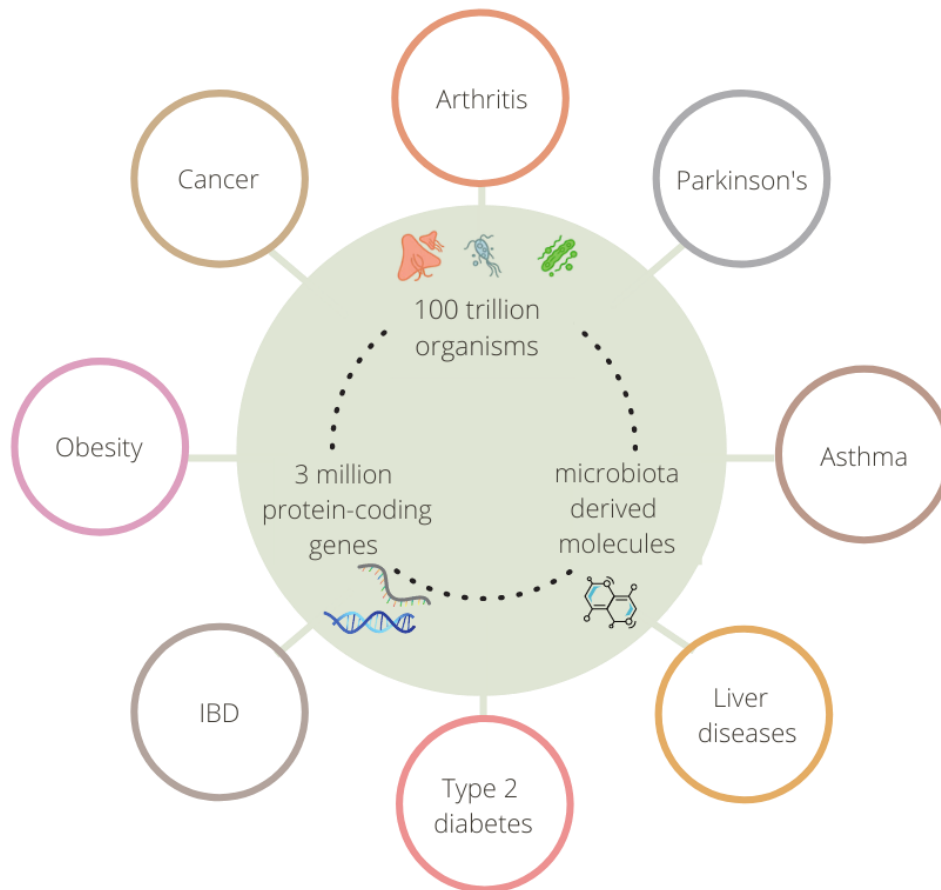


Figure 4. Schematic representation of links between various diseases and microbiome. Microbiome is estimated to compose of 100 trillion of living organisms, with a total of 3 million protein-coding genes and subsequent microbiota derived molecules. The association of gut microbiome with diseases include irritable bowel disease (IBD), type-2 diabetes, liver diseases, asthma, Parkinson's disease, arthritis, cancer and obesity.

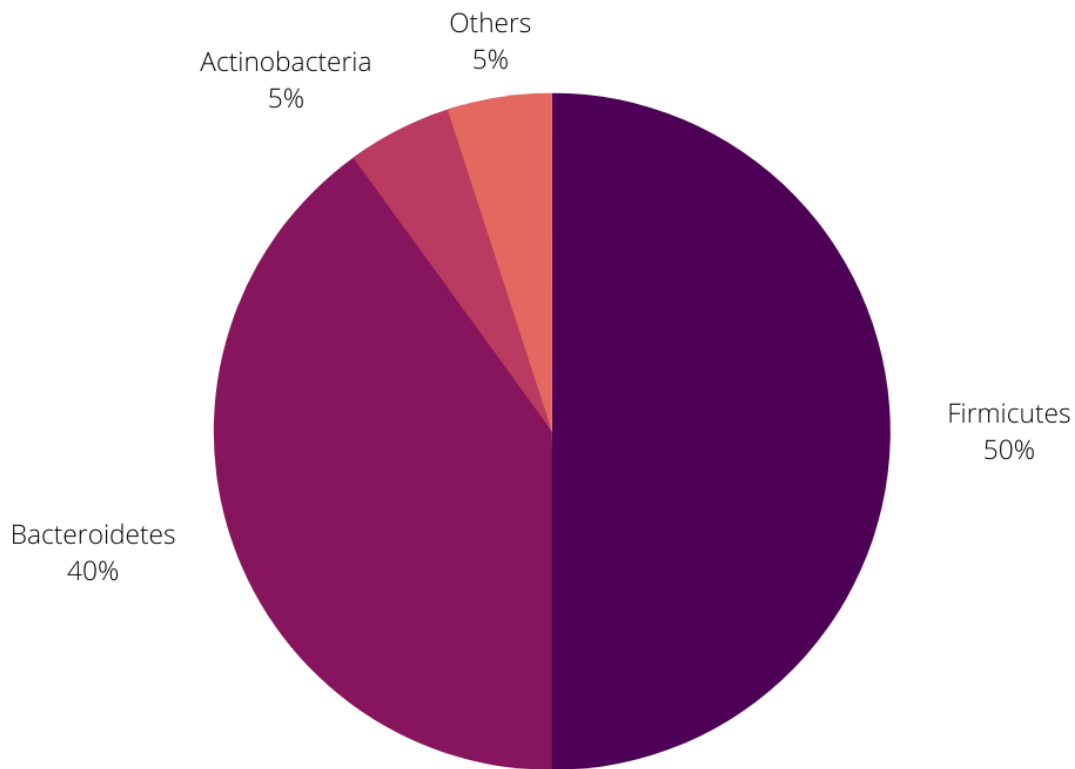


Figure 5. Schematic pie chart representing approximate percentage population of dominant phyla in normal gut microbiome. From the largest to the smallest enlisted: Firmicutes (50%), Bacteroidetes (40%), Actinobacteria (5%) and others (5%).

Importantly, that microbiome was found to modulate epithelial development and influence immunological function (Ley *et al.*, 2006; Wang and Li, 2015). First, the suggested mechanisms include: (1) contribution to nutrients and energy harvest (Gill *et al.*, 2006; Turnbaugh *et al.*, 2006); (2) alteration in parasympathetic system promoting insulin, ghrelin levels and hyperphagia due to increased acetate levels derived from dysbiosis (Perry *et al.*, 2016); (3) versatile range of biochemical pathways contributing in fermentation of undigestible carbohydrates and synthesis essential vitamins, such as biotin, cobalamin, vitamin K (Kang *et al.*, 2012; Kau *et al.*, 2011; Roberfroid *et al.*, 1995). For example, Bacteroidetes utilize dietary fibre xyloglucan, meanwhile *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* use fructo- and oligosaccharides (Goh and Klaenhammer, 2015; Larsbrink *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, short-fatty acids daily produced by commensals can be absorbed by gut epithelium cells regulating inflammatory state, glucose absorption and energy production (Cani *et al.*, 2013; Duncan *et al.*, 2009; Flint *et al.*, 2012). Second, microbiome promotes defence against foreign pathogens via secretion of anti-microbial components (Cash *et al.*, 2006). Finally, microbiota promotes

maturation of intestinal epithelium function. Germ free mice exhibit abnormal mesenteric lymph nodes, spleen, antibody production and T lymphocytes activity (T-helper and T-regulatory cells)(Bouskra *et al.*, 2008; Macpherson and Harris, 2004). Another report showed dual effect of Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes, as these could inhibit anti-inflammatory response of T helper cell (Th-17) via dendritic cells activation, suggesting a tolerogenic effect of gut microbiome on intestinal immune system, and on the other hand promoting inflammation (Magrone and Jirillo, 2013). It is thought that beneficial bacteria *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* stimulate CD4+ T lymphocyte via polysaccharide A production resulting in increased level of anti-inflammatory IL-10 (Round and Mazmanian, 2009).

Vitamins are essential nutrients that are not host-produced but obtained from the outside sources. Conversely, vitamins exert effect on lowering the population of *Bacteroidetes* and boosting *Lactobacillus*, contributing to overall ratio of *Firmicutes* to *Bacteroidetes* (Conti *et al.*, 2015; Sakaguchi *et al.*, 2011). Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), a systemic autoimmune disease symptoms were alleviated by retinoic acid and vitamin A supplementations possible via decreased abundance of *Lachnospiraceae* and increased *Lactobacilli* 14/01/2022 04:29:00. The latter also appeared to boost IL-10 and T-regulatory cells that have anti-inflammatory properties in SLE patients and it's lower abundance is associated with chronic inflammation (Khailova *et al.*, 2013). Other substances, such as omega-3 fatty acid boosts *Lactobacilli* abundance, on the contrary a gluten-free diet alleviates fatigue and myalgias in gluten-sensitive patients with undifferentiated connective tissue disease (Caesar *et al.*, 2015; Conti *et al.*, 2015). Thus suggestion, possible therapeutic implication of diet in reducing inflammation via altering gut microbiome composition.

3. Links between major risk factors of osteoarthritis and gut microbiome

Obesity, increasing age and inflammation are major risk factors of osteoarthritis. Both obesity and age have strong correlation with OA, where the approximate risk ratio of being overweight and acquiring OA is 1.9 (Yusuf 2010; Liying Jiang 2016). However, the exact mechanism of OA initiation and progression is still unclear. Recently obesity was observed to affect not only load-bearing joints suggesting a systemic component of the disease (Reyes *et al.*, 2016). A new coined term of increasing inflammation with age called inflammaging, also supports a notion of low-grade inflammation being a unifying component in osteoarthritis. The gut microbiome alterations are also present in aforementioned states, thus it's important to

examine its potential role in implication in age, obesity and low-grade inflammation in causing OA (*Figure 6*). The limitations of studies in this field lack systematic approaches and balanced views, more techniques like preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses (PRISMA) are needed.

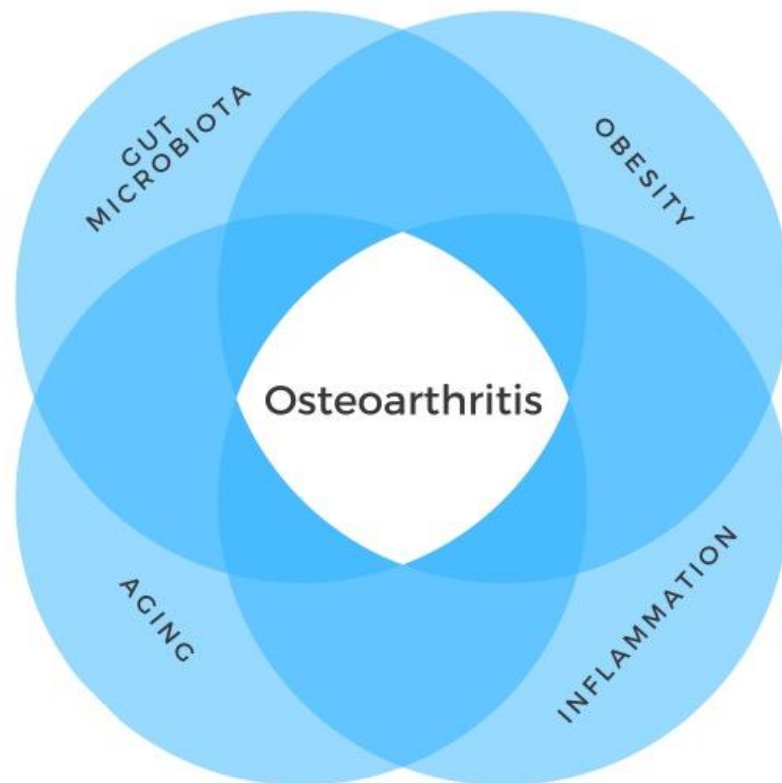


Figure 6. Schematic representation of a potential cause of osteoarthritis as an overlap between gut microbiota and three main risk factors such as inflammation, obesity and aging.

3.1 Obesity:

Obesity is a worldwide pandemic supposedly caused by reduced overall physical activity and the Western diet (Ogden *et al.*, 2010). Around 66% of osteoarthritis patients are obese or type 2 diabetic (Shi *et al.*, 2006). Interestingly, a systematic review correlates high BMI with osteoarthritis in both non-weight bearing and weight-bearing joints (Yusuf *et al.*, 2010). Germfree mice have developed lower scores of articular cartilage structure degradation than specific pathogen-free mice (Ulici *et al.*, 2018). Thus, suggesting some microbiome-derived systemic players might be involved, even if OA is considered a non-systemic disease.

Gut microbiome alteration has been considered as one of the triggers in adipose tissue associated low-grade systemic inflammation (Winer *et al.*, 2016). Adipokines are pro-inflammatory cytokines released from adipose tissue, the levels of adipokine in vivo has been associated with cartilage degradation and higher frequency of knee replacement in symptomatic OA (Martel-Pelletier *et al.*, 2016b, p. 2015; Stannus *et al.*, 2015).

Liposaccharide (LPS) is a surface-bound endotoxin of Gram-positive bacteria, implicated in a variety of diseases. Obesity can alter gut permeability and immunological profile of intestinal epithelium via gut microbiome alterations (Brun *et al.*, 2007; Cani *et al.*, 2009; Luck *et al.*, 2015). Thus, allowing bacterial LPS to escape into the bloodstream. Indeed, osteoarthritic knee severity is associated with increased levels of serum LPS in patients (Huang *et al.*, 2016). Gram-negative bacterial secrete outer membrane vesicles that can also contain LPS or short-chain fatty acids affecting immune system and permeability accordingly (Brown *et al.*, 2015; Thaïss *et al.*, 2016).

LPS is recognised by toll-like receptors (TLR) via adaptor protein fetuin A, further activating downstream signalling resulting in chemokines secretion (Pal *et al.*, 2012; Shi *et al.*, 2006). The *in vitro* stimulation of dorsal root ganglion cells expressing TLR-4 by LPS showed calcium influx and production of monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1), meanwhile knockout of TLR-4 blocked these responses (Miller *et al.*, 2015). However, a knockout of TLR4 in mice has shown no structural changes in osteoarthritis progression, suggesting that the mechanism of LPS and TLR4 is still unclear (Nasi *et al.*, 2014). Adipose tissue also releases pro-inflammatory markers that promote reactive oxygen species formation and other inflammatory mediators, leading to changes in metabolism and levels of micro-RNAs that regulate NF-κB family (Calçada *et al.*, 2014; Olivieri *et al.*, 2013; Vitale *et al.*, 2013). Thus, suggesting possible activation on chondrocytes and possibly other immune cell via NF-κB pathways in obese patients. Indeed, joint infiltration by macrophages in a rat model of OA with diet-induced-obesity (DIO) correlated with body fat percentage rather than body mass (Collins *et al.*, 2013).

A high-fat diet (HFD), where at least 60% of calories is coming from fat, utilized for experimental purposed in order to mimic Westernized diet, An abnormal bloom of gram-negative bacteria was found in high-fat and low-fibre diet (Dabke *et al.*, 2019). The *Lactobacillus Methanobrevibacter* abundance in HFD also correlated with higher Mankin histological scores of osteoarthritic knee and increased serum LPS levels (Collins *et al.*, 2013; Griffin *et al.*, 2012). In a cohort of OA 1444 patients, a *Streptococcus* taxa-specific population was associated with lower hip and knee WOMAC scores, rather than BMI (Boer *et al.*, 2017).

The genetically obese mice exhibited endotoxemia associated with increased gut permeability (Brun *et al.*, 2007). A knockout of β -7 integrin in mice with HFD decreases insulin resistance, the functional regulator of obesity, further showing decrease in intestinal permeability, endotoxemia, adipose tissue inflammation (Luck *et al.*, 2015). Interesting that probiotics supplementation in obese mice improved tight-junction integrity and decreased circulatory LPS (Cani *et al.*, 2009). Thus, obesity-associated gut microbiome alterations may be linked to OA via microbiota contribution to changes in intestinal immune activity and permeability.

Prebiotics are substances that are utilized by microorganisms contributing to beneficial gut functioning exerting a system-wide effect (Gibson *et al.*, 2017). Oligofructose is indigestible by human intestinal tract and is fermented by commensal enzymes (Flint *et al.*, 2012). Schott *et al.*, 2018 in the study showed obesity-associated decreased ratio of Firmicutes to Bacteroidetes, differential expression of colon transcriptome with upregulation genes associated with macrophage activity, increased levels of inflammatory markers (TNF, IL-8, MIP-1B), joint hyperplasia and increased synovial macrophage infiltrations. Moreover, showing oligofructose supplementation of OA mice reversing all of the forementioned conditions via upregulating *Bifidobacterium* and downregulating *Peptococcaceae* species. Prebiotic fibre supplementation, aerobic exercise and combination of both helped to prevent knee joint damage in HFD and high-sucrose rat model (Rios *et al.*, 2019). Indigestible fibre that upregulates the population of *Bifidobacterium* that help fight off advanced glycation end products (AGE) implicated in low-grade chronic inflammation (Kellow *et al.*, 2014). However, some evidence suggests that prebiotics are able to alter intestinal cell signalling directly without modulating gut microflora (Wu *et al.*, 2017).

Although, gut thickness changes with commensal population shifts and microbiota exhibit diurnal oscillations (Thaiss *et al.*, 2014; Zarrinpar *et al.*, 2014). The gene expression of sleep cycle and hepatic clock related proteins are also altered in germ-free mice during HFD or low-fat diet, suggesting possible mechanism of regulation of natural diurnal rhythms via short-chain fatty-acids (Leone *et al.*, 2015). A new approach of microbiota modulation like faecal transplant has shown to modulate genetic predisposition to obesity (Ussar *et al.*, 2015).

Collectively, the data suggests an ability of obesity-associated gut microbiome changes to modulate immune activity of intestinal epithelium or synovial joint via increased circulatory endotoxins such as LPS; or possibly by immune marker caused by LPS activation in the gut epithelium escaping through ECM of articular cartilage and activating chondrocytes further promoting inflammation. Moreover, some studies suggesting prebiotic benefits in

maintain balanced gut microflora associated with low-grade inflammation. Therefore, deeper understanding of these mechanisms is warranted.

3.2 Inflammation:

Previously osteoarthritis was considered as a 'shear and tear' disease only, but low-grade inflammation was found to be a major contributing factor that unifies OA main risk factors and possibly the gut microbiome. Some research attempted to explain the involvement of microbiota and its immunomodulating potential, via changing anti-inflammatory and anti-oxidative amino acid profiles or via environmental factors such as smoking, that drive pathologies via microbiome shifts in genetically susceptible patients (Y. Li *et al.*, 2016; Quigley, 2013).

TNF- α , IL-17 are dominant players in regulation of osteoarthritis (Deligne *et al.*, 2015). The Th17 and osteoclastogenic RANKL, IL-17, TNF- α levels failed to rise in germ-free mice with sex steroid deficiency, compared to normal mice gut microbiota with sex steroid deficiency, resulting in no trabecular bone loss (J.-Y. Li *et al.*, 2016). An abundant population of *Streptococcus* correlated with higher OA knee WOMAC score and knee inflammation in Rotterdam study, further validating results by replication in 867 adults (Boer *et al.*, 2019). One of the OA symptoms, synovitis is characterized by T-cell and B-cell infiltration, increased proteinase activity resulting release of cartilage degradation that may act as damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs). DAMPs signalling through TLR-4 and integrins lead to further pro-inflammatory and catabolic activity (Scanzello *et al.*, 2008; Sohn *et al.*, 2012). In tissue samples of knee OA patients' synovial hypertrophy both in early and late OA exhibited high infiltration of inflammatory markers (CD4+ and CD68+), overexpression of VEGF and IL-1 β (Benito *et al.*, 2005). Another study has also revealed differential protein composition of the of knee OA patients involved in cartilage turnover, inflammatory and protease inhibition (Sohn *et al.*, 2012).

Moreover, lipopolysaccharides present in circulation are also DAMPs that activate macrophages, which both present in cartilage and adipose tissue (Blom *et al.*, 2014; Jong *et al.*, 2016; Tsuneyoshi *et al.*, 2012). The infiltration of fat cells by adipose tissue macrophages (ATM) expressing tumour necrosis factor α (TNF- α) genes results in release of proinflammatory mediators into the bloodstream. TNF increases macrophages levels in osteoarthritic HFD mice and type 2 diabetic patients (Hamada *et al.*, 2016). Thus, suggesting both local and systemic obesity-related inflammation due microbiome components and

alteration. The microbiome can be capable of modulating inflammation via crosstalk between microbiota-derived components and their relative immunoreceptors leading to systemic and local inflammation in osteoarthritis (Portune *et al.*, 2017, Lumeng *et al.*, 2007; Sellam and Berenbaum, 2013).

3.3 Age:

Age is considered as one of the main contributors to osteoarthritis development. The incidences of osteoarthritis symptoms and radiographic images, and in particularly osteophyte formations increase with age (Shane Anderson and Loeser, 2010). Mechanisms such as oxidative stress, muscle mass loss and cartilage thinning were used to bring light onto contribution of age in OA (Musumeci *et al.*, 2015). A few hallmarks of ageing include genome instability, cellular senescence and altered intercellular communication, that can promote chronic low-grade inflammation (O'Toole and Jeffery, 2015)

Differential gene expression of joint tissue between 12-week and 12-month old mice undergoing sham surgery to mimic osteoarthritis compared to uninjured mice has revealed a significant increase in expression of age-related IL-33 and CXCL13, CCL8, and CCL5 chemokines (Loeser *et al.*, 2012b). Older adults have differential composition of microbiome compared to younger population, with the higher abundance of *Bacteroides* and *Clostridium* species in former (Claesson *et al.*, 2011; O'Toole and Jeffery, 2015). More specifically, aging reduces bacterial diversity lowering beneficial species such as *Firmicutes*, *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* and *Bifidobacterium*, meanwhile increasing less beneficial *Proteobacteria* (Odamaki *et al.*, 2016; Salazar *et al.*, 2013). Alterations in microbiome may affect bioavailability of beneficial components such as SCFAs utilized by gut epithelial cells, and less beneficial LPS. Age-associated reduction in SCFAs may promote abnormal mitochondrial function in skeletal muscle cells leading to irregular oxidation state and insulin resistance (Poggiogalle *et al.*, 2019; Saint-Georges-Chaumet and Edeas, 2016). Decline in physical activity, change in appetite or increased energy consumption due to underlying health conditions has also been associated with physiological GI alterations and commensal variation, all linked with ageing (Lorenzo-López *et al.*, 2017; Morley, 2017). Microbial products may modulate parasympathetic system controlling appetite, such as *Escherichia coli* associated with increased satiety (Fetissov, 2017; van de Wouw *et al.*, 2017). These imply that age-related malnutrition could possibly give opportunistic microbes to negatively modulate microbiome and brain-related activity further contributing to low-grade inflammation and OA.

Although no systematic study of age-microbiome-osteoarthritis axis has been conducted in human yet, combining knowledge that with age intestinal permeability may decline due higher levels of proinflammatory markers such as IL-6 and TNF- α , the smaller diversity and dominance of Bacteroidetes in older people have potential to contribute to inflammation at larger extent. In fact, age-related intestinal integrity and permeability is predisposed by the gut microbiome dysbiosis in *Drosophila* (Srikanth *et al.*, 2005). TGF- β signals via its receptors on surface on chondrocytes, associated with increased expression of MMP-13 in osteoarthritic human cartilage and loss of tissue integrity (Blaney Davidson *et al.*, 2009; van der Kraan *et al.*, 2017). Age-related TGF- β receptor function in mice contributed to chondrocyte activation and destruction (Blaney Davidson *et al.*, 2009). Although, some evidence suggested supportive properties of TGF- β in cartilage homeostasis linked with lower incidences of OA in ageing animal models TGF- β ta can also contribute to osteophytes formation and chondrocyte hypertrophy (Blaney Davidson *et al.*, 2015; van der Kraan, 2017). Therefore, suggesting a tight balancing mechanism of inflammaging in osteoarthritis progression associated with ageing.

Inflammaging is a new term that coins up both systemic and local states of pro-inflammatory mediators increasing with age. Indeed, higher systemic levels of C-reactive protein (CRP), tumour necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) and interleukin-6 (IL-6) has been associated with age and osteoarthritis of the knee (Bruunsgaard, 2002; Ershler, 1993; Livshits *et al.*, 2009; Strandberg and Tilvis, 2000). A prospective study hold over 5 years revealed that serum TNF, IL-6 and CRP sensitivity are key indicators of knee structural abnormalities and pain in older adults (Stannus *et al.*, 2013). Conversely, lower IL-6 levels measured at cross-sectional cohort of 90 years old patients correlated with absence of hip, knee and hand pain (Goekoop *et al.*, 2010). The complexity of inflammaging in potential balancing with anti-inflammatory markers has been reported in inCHIANTI study via Morrisette-Thomas *et al.*, 2014 proinflammatory mediators such as IL-6, hsCRP and macrophage inflammatory protein-1b (MIP-1b) were more abundant with age; meanwhile anti-inflammatory markers namely IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1RA), soluble glycoprotein 130, and some soluble TNF receptors were also increased. Diet and/or exercises with at least 10% of body weight loss shown to decrease IL-6 levels and OA pain in older adults, also suggesting an implication of adiposity in age-related inflammation (Beavers *et al.*, 2013; Messier *et al.*, 2013).

The senescent cells were also found to collect in OA cartilage with age (Campisi, 2011). These cells are associated with the production of cytokines, growth factors and MMPs featuring senescence-associated secretory phenotype (SASP)(Campisi, 2005; Coppé *et al.*, 2008). These local age-related pro-inflammatory and enzymatic processes may

contribute to OA development via various interleukins (IL-6, IL-8) and metalloproteinases (MMP-1, MMP-10, MMP-3) (Clutterbuck *et al.*, 2011; Freund *et al.*, 2010; Sohn *et al.*, 2012; Wang *et al.*, 2013). However, previously senescence thought to occur due joint loading or mechanical stress, rather than proliferation of chondrocytes in an adult articular cartilage (Harbo *et al.*, 2012; Rodier and Campisi, 2011; Rose *et al.*, 2012). Thus, cell senescence may occur rather via increased weight derived from obesity than age. A more sensitive assay is required to identify the degree of the limitation and whether sources are chondrocytes or SASP proteins secretions, or both.

Discussion

There are overlapping components between age, obesity, inflammation and microbiota in osteoarthritis. In order to put everything into perspective, possible routes of gut microbiome are suggested, but based on presented research, more evidence is still required (*Figure 7*). An expansion of gram-negative bacteria populations such as *Firmicutes* are seen in obese and/or older adults. This alteration in microbiota results in potentially two routes: (1) LPS escapes into circulation via increased intestinal permeability, further binding to TLR4 and via NF- κ B pathways increases production of chemokines that stimulate synthesis of IL-6, IL8 and MMP-1 in cartilage; (2a) dendritic cells take up bacterial antigens to adipose tissue resulting in increased infiltration of adipose tissues macrophage, that increases TNF- α secretion; (2b) As adipose tissue secretes pro-inflammatory markers, including mRNA that regulate NF- κ B pathways cell, these suggest a multitude synthesis of circulatory IL-6. Meanwhile, TNF- α was found to be implicated in obese to patients to stimulate chondrocytes to express MMP-1, MMP13 and ADAMTS, older OA patients have also increased circulatory TNF- α and IL-6. There is no mechanism established for inflammaging, perhaps gut microbiome fills the missing link via the second route. A large BMI in overweight patients may exert enough of a loading weight on chondrocytes to increase number of senescent cells, further leading to expression of senescent-associated secretory proteins (SASP) that include metalloproteinases MMP-1, MMP-3 and IL-8.

A *Streptococcus* abundance was identified in both SLE patients and OA mice. The SLE patients' faecal samples exhibited increased Th17 differentiation, meanwhile germ-free and sex steroid deficient murine models failed to increase Th17 and TNF- α , suggesting a possible link between *Streptococcus* and Th17 cells. Moreover, some evidence of

associations between Bifidobacterium and lower serum TNF- α and LPS, or *Lactobacillus* and increased pro-inflammatory markers, imply some role of gut microflora in OA progression.

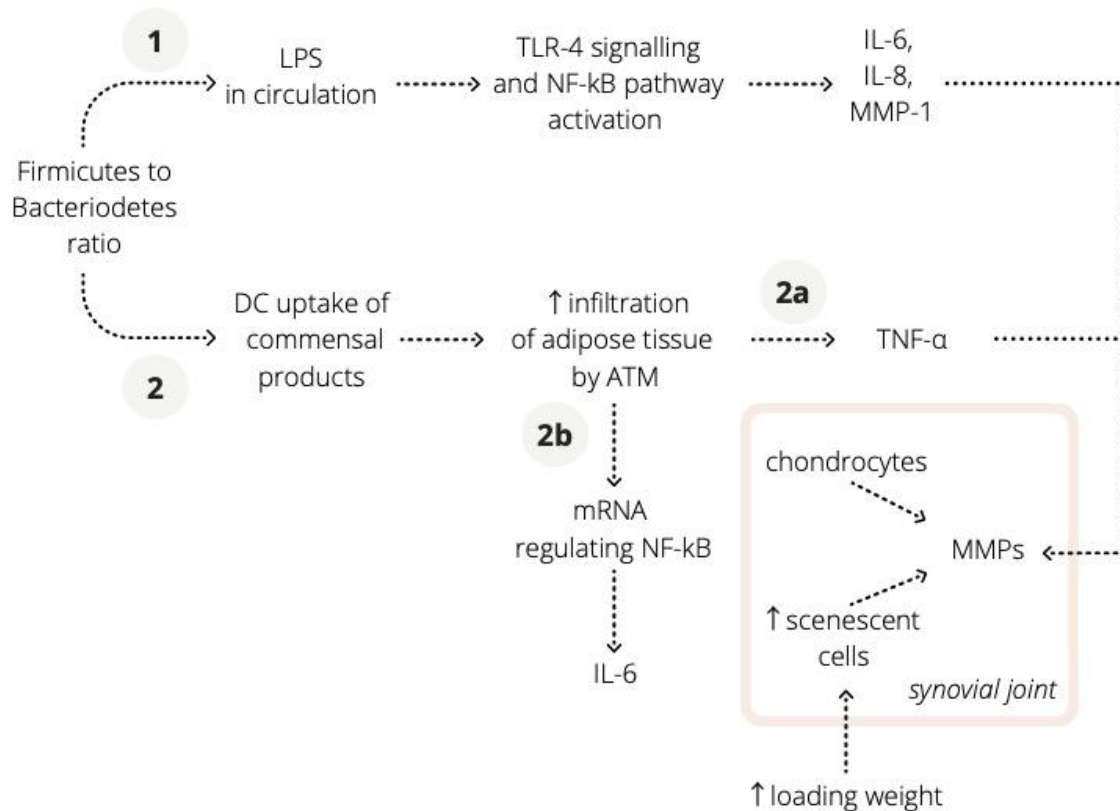


Figure 7. The microbiota alteration, namely firmicute to Bacteroidetes ratio results in two potential routes of action: (1) LPS escapes into circulation via increased intestinal permeability, further binding to TLR4 and via NF- κ B pathways increases production of chemokines that stimulate synthesis of IL-6, IL8 and MMP-1 in cartilage; (2) dendritic cells take up bacterial antigens to adipose tissue resulting in (2a) increased infiltration of adipose tissues macrophage, that increases TNF- α secretion; (2b) As adipose tissue secretes pro-inflammatory markers, including mRNA that regulate NF- κ B pathways cell, these suggest a multitude synthesis of circulatory IL-6. Meanwhile, TNF- α was found to be implicated in obese to patients to stimulate chondrocytes to express MMP-1, MMP13 and ADAMTS. Older OA patients have also increased circulatory TNF- α and IL-6. There is no mechanism established for inflammaging, so it could be that gut microbiome fills the missing link via the second route. A large BMI in overweight patients may exerts enough of a loading weight on chondrocytes to increase number of senescent cells, further leading to expression of senescent-associated secretory proteins (SASP) that include metalloproteases MMP-1, MMP-3 and IL-8.

Conclusion

Overall, gut microbiome may play role in OA factors obesity, inflammation and ageing via commonly observed agents (*Figure 8*). The general mechanism involves co-interaction between age, inflammation and obesity in osteoarthritis with gut microbiota, that first leads to changes in its composition or metabolites. Secondly, commensal products or components translocate into the circulation where immune system is activated. The bloodstream may bring either metabolites or pro-inflammatory agents into bone marrow or joint synovium, further leading to joint tissue remodelling, synovial inflammation and osteophyte formation.

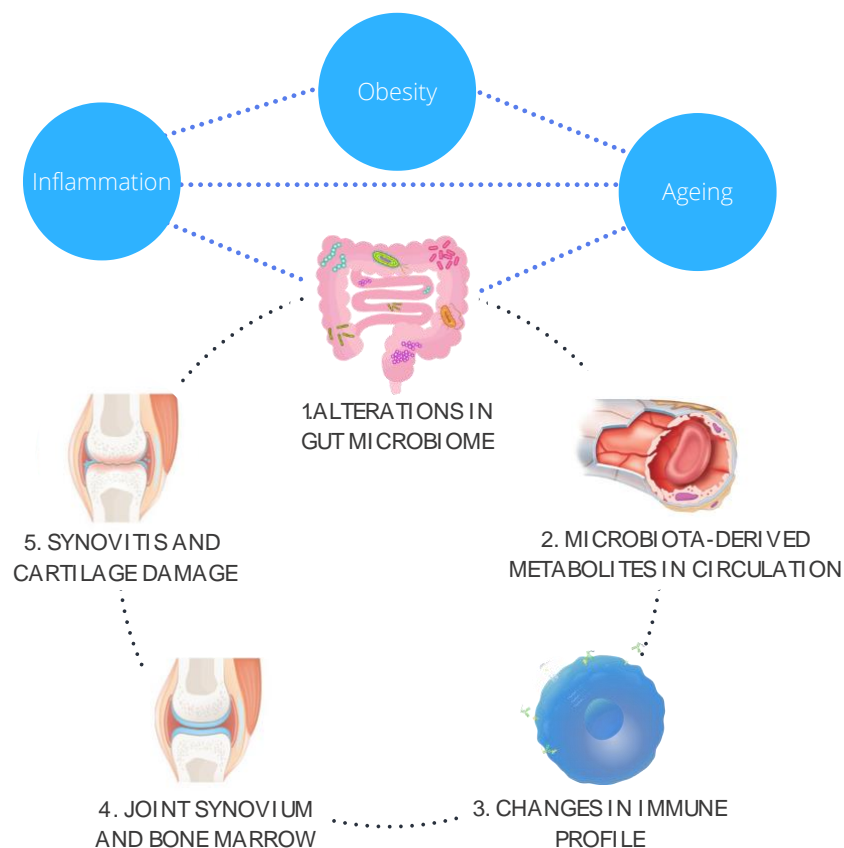


Figure 8. The schematic diagram of potential mechanism of gut microbiome role in osteoarthritis progression via implication in inflammation, obesity and/or ageing. Three major risk factors of OA (inflammation, obesity and ageing) co-influence each other and eventually alter gut microbiome, leading to changes in immunological profile, that reaches bone marrow and joint synovial fluid, thus promoting synovitis, cartilage damage and other OA pathological features.

Further research could aim to identify a patient's unique gut microbiota composition and suggest personalised treatments in chronic disease prevention or symptoms alleviation. The link between OA and microbiome requires more patient-based studies. For example, observe groups of non-overweight and overweight OA patients in order to compare their fat mass with serum TNF- α and examine whether there are other sources rather than adipose tissue macrophages that may contribute to TNF- α levels via paired t-test.

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