

Nutraceutical Strategies for Preserving Cartilage in Osteoarthritis

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Abstract

The loss of cartilage associated with osteoarthritis (OA) appears to be largely attributable to a pro-catabolic effect – reflecting up-regulation of extracellular proteolytic activity – of interleukin-1 (IL-1) on chondrocytes. Cell culture studies in which chondrocytes are exposed to IL-1, as well as animal models of OA, can help to identify agents which have the potential to impede the signaling mechanisms whereby IL-1 evokes cartilage catabolism. Current evidence suggests that antioxidant strategies may be useful in this regard – notably, spirulina-derived phycocyanobilin, phase 2-inducer phytochemicals, and possibly N-acetylcysteine; this reflects an obligate role for NADPH oxidase activation in IL-1's catabolic impact. Effective activators of AMP-activated kinase such as berberine may likewise be useful, in part because of post-transcriptional down-regulation of iNOS expression. Glucosamine – arguably in higher doses than have been employed in most clinical trials – as well as vitamin D and fish oil, may also have chondroprotective potential. In light of suggestive evidence that metabolic syndrome may increase risk for OA – independent of the adverse impact of overweight on weight-bearing joints – lifestyle measures for preventing or reversing this syndrome may aid cartilage preservation. Hence, complex nutraceutical regimens and appropriate lifestyle strategies may have considerable potential for preventing early OA from progressing to a crippling condition.

Mechanisms of Cartilage Loss in Osteoarthritis

The cartilage loss associated with osteoarthritis (OA) is believed to reflect a catabolic impact of certain cytokines - most notably interleukin-1 (IL-1) – on chondrocytes; this IL-1 may stem from synovium, infiltrating leukocytes, or autocrine production.¹ IL-1 stimulates matrix degradation by boosting the transcription and synthesis of various metalloproteinases - including the collagenases MMP-1, -3, and -13 – and aggrecanases, while suppressing production of their functional antagonist tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases (TIMP-1). Activation of NF-kappaB, AP-1, JNK, and p38 MAP kinase plays a key role in these effects. IL-1 also induces oxidative stress in chondrocytes via NADPH oxidase, while increasing expression of iNOS and of Cox-2; the former two effects contribute to the catabolic impact of IL-1 on cartilage matrix, as inhibitors of NADPH oxidase or of iNOS lessen this impact.²⁻⁷ The role of Cox-2 and or prostanoids is more equivocal. In chondrocytes from mice deficient in microsomal prostaglandin E synthase activity, IL-1 is less effective for boosting MMP-3 and MMP-13 expression; this might reflect a catabolic role for prostaglandin receptor EP4. On the other hand, the prostaglandin receptor EP2 exerts an anti-catabolic impact on IL-1-treated chondrocytes, suggestive of a protective feedback mechanism (and possibly helping to explain the failure of NSAID therapy to prevent cartilage loss in OA).^{8,9} IL-1 exposure can also provoke cell death and suppress proteoglycan synthesis in chondrocytes; these effect requires joint production of superoxide and nitric oxide, and appear to be mediated by peroxynitrite.¹⁰⁻¹³

Antioxidant Strategies for Cartilage Preservation

Since induction of oxidative stress – via NOX2/NOX4-dependent NADPH oxidase activity – is a key mediator of the pro-catabolic signaling of IL-1 in chondrocytes, it is reasonable to suspect that effective antioxidant measures could be protective in this regard. There is recent evidence that free bilirubin, generated intracellularly by heme oxygenase activity, functions to inhibit various NADPH oxidase complexes; moreover, the spirulina-derived phytochemical phycocyanobilin (PhyCB), a homologue and derivative of biliverdin, can mimic this effect.¹⁴⁻¹⁸ Hence, ingestion of spirulina or of PhyCB-enriched spirulina extracts may have potential for preserving cartilage in OA. Although spirulina or PhyCB has not yet been examined in animal or cell culture models of OA, oral administration of spirulina has proven effective in rodent models of inflammatory arthritis.¹⁹⁻²¹

Phase 2 inducer phytochemicals, which promote expression of a range of antioxidant enzymes and boost glutathione synthesis,²² might also be expected to counter the oxidative stress signaling required for IL-1's catabolic activity. Indeed, phase 2 inducers such as sulforaphane, epigallocatechin-3-gallate, chlorogenic acid, and diallyl sulfide have been reported to impede metalloproteinase induction or cell death in IL-1-stimulated chondrocytes.²³⁻²⁹ Moreover, regular consumption of phase-2-inducing allium vegetables (garlic, onions) has been linked to decreased risk for OA of the hip in a cross-sectional epidemiological study.³⁰ The phase 2-inducible enzyme heme oxygenase-1 – as noted, a source of antioxidant bilirubin – may mediate some of these benefits; when induced with cobalt protoporphyrin IX in chondrocytes, this enzyme exerts both anabolic and anti-catabolic effects.³¹ Surprisingly, N-acetylcysteine (NAC), which promotes glutathione synthesis, failed to modify the catabolic impact of IL-1 on chondrocytes in one study (albeit it did have this effect on IL-1-stimulated synoviocytes).³² Yet other researchers reported that NAC protected chondrocytes from NO-induced apoptosis (an effect abrogated by an inhibitor of glutathione synthesis), and, when administered by intra-articular injection, diminished cartilage loss and chondrocyte apoptosis in a rat model of OA.³³

With respect to the suspected key role of peroxynitrite in OA pathogenesis, it is interesting to note that reduced intracellular metabolites of folic acid (e.g. 5-methyltetrahydrofolate) have potent scavenging activity for peroxynitrite-derived antioxidants.³⁴ For this reason, in cells which concentrate folic acid against a gradient – such as vascular endothelial cells – high-dose folate can exert outstanding antioxidant activity.^{35,36} It would be therefore be interesting to determine whether folic acid could ameliorate the peroxynitrite-driven effects of IL-1 exposure on cultured chondrocytes.

AMPK Activators

AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) is expressed by chondrocytes, but a recent study shows that this expression is decreased in the articular chondrocytes of patients with knee OA.³⁷ In vitro, IL-1 exposure lessens AMPK activity in chondrocytes, and knock-down of AMPK in chondrocytes exacerbates the pro-catabolic impact of IL-1; conversely, activation of AMPK in chondrocytes antagonizes IL-1's catabolic activity.³⁷ The utility of metformin in diabetes reflects its ability to activate AMPK; unfortunately, metformin has not yet been studied in animal models or OA, nor has the impact of metformin on the progression of OA in diabetics been examined. However, the herb-derived agent berberine, long used to treat diabetes in China, is now known to activate AMPK in a manner comparable to metformin,³⁸⁻⁴⁰ and recent studies suggest that it may have potential in the management of OA. In rat chondrocytes, berberine antagonized the impact of IL-1 on expression of MMP-1, MMP-3, MMP-13, and TIMP-1, and also

inhibited IL-1's impact on NO production.^{41, 42} When OA was induced in rats by intra-articular injection of IL-1, concurrent injection of berberine exerted chondroprotective activity.⁴¹ These considerations suggest that berberine and quite likely metformin may have some potential for aiding cartilage preservation in OA.

The molecular basis of AMPK's anti-catabolic impact on IL-1-stimulated chondrocytes remains unclear, but it is interesting to note that AMPK activity has suppressed iNOS induction in other types of cells exposed to endotoxin or pro-inflammatory cytokines.⁴³⁻⁴⁷ This may reflect AMPK's ability to force nuclear sequestration of HuR, a protein which stabilizes iNOS mRNA.⁴⁸⁻⁵¹ It is reasonable to suspect that berberine and PhyCB could provide important complementary benefit in OA by suppressing excessive production of both NO and superoxide – thereby impeding IL-1 signal transduction while lessening peroxynitrite generation.¹²

Additional Options: Glucosamine, Vitamin D, Fish Oil

Oral administration of glucosamine has provided symptomatic relief and slowed loss of knee cartilage in some though not all clinical studies.⁵²⁻⁵⁵ Glucosamine has shown clear chondroprotective activity in animal models of OA.⁵⁶⁻⁶¹ The inconsistent results of clinical studies with this agent may reflect that fact that the dose of glucosamine standardly used in these studies (1.5 g daily) fails to achieve the plasma levels of glucosamine observed in successful animal trials; hence, future clinical studies should evaluate higher intakes.⁶² In chondrocytes stimulated with IL-1, glucosamine has been shown to suppress induced expression of the collagenase MMPs, while blocking activation of NF-kappaB and p38 MAP kinase.⁶³⁻⁷⁰ Conceivably, glucosamine's impact in this regard reflects O-GlcNAc modification of IL-1 signaling intermediates, as this is the mechanism whereby glucosamine antagonizes the pro-inflammatory effect TNF-alpha on endothelial cells.⁷¹ Moreover, in TNF-alpha-treated vascular smooth muscle cells incubated with glucosamine, O-GlcNAc modification of the p65 subunit of NF-kappaB blocks an activating phosphorylation on Ser536 required for optimal transcriptional activity.⁷²

In several studies, good vitamin D status has been associated with reduced risk for progression in OA of the knee; it is presumed that this reflects a favorable effect of vitamin D on the interaction of cartilage and subchondral bone.^{73, 74} On the other hand, vitamin D status does not appear to influence the prevalence of knee OA – albeit one study found that knee OA was less common in people under 55 whose vitamin D status was good.⁷⁵

Dietary fish oil has been found to confer dose-dependent symptomatic benefit in dogs with OA.^{76, 77} In contrast, there is little evidence to-date that fish oil supplementation is useful in humans with OA. Perhaps this reflects the fact that the anti-inflammatory impact of omega-3 fats requires a substantial increase in tissue omega-3/omega-6 ratio, which may be hard to achieve in humans with high omega-6 intakes. In IL-1 exposed chondrocytes, EPA has shown anti-catabolic effects, whereas DHA is less effective in this regard.^{78, 79} Likely, EPA opposes the production of certain arachidonate-derived prostanoids with pro-catabolic activity.

A Role for Metabolic Syndrome in OA Pathogenesis

Cross-sectional studies report that metabolic syndrome is more common in patients with OA.^{80, 81} And patients with metabolic syndrome are more prone to OA of the hand than those without it – suggesting

that OA is not merely a consequence of overweight in metabolic syndrome, but rather may reflect the systemic inflammation associated with this syndrome.⁸² Perhaps metabolic syndrome plays a role in triggering the cytokine production that drives OA. In Seventh Day Adventists, frequent consumption of meat (rich in saturated fats that are key mediators of metabolic syndrome^{83, 84}) has been linked to increased prevalence of degenerative arthritis, even when body weight is taken into consideration in multivariate analysis.⁸⁵ Hence, dietary and lifestyle measures which help to prevent or reverse metabolic syndrome – with the exception of *high-impact* aerobic exercise! – might have some utility for preventing or ameliorating the course of OA (in addition to the inherent benefit of appropriate weight loss for prevention of OA in weight-bearing joints).

Summary

In conclusion, optimal nutraceutical and lifestyle strategies may have considerable scope for preventing cartilage loss in OA. Nutraceuticals of potential benefit in this regard include spirulina-derived PhyCB, phase 2-inducing phytochemicals, NAC, berberine, glucosamine, vitamin D, and fish oil. Whereas the impact of any one of these agents in isolation might be expected to be modest, combination regimens may prove to have greater utility; indeed, such regimens could be tested in chondrocyte cell cultures or in animal models of OA. Moreover, the agents under consideration here are likely to work in a number of ways to promote general health, and hence are recommendable even if their impact on OA proves modest.^{18, 86-88} In this regard, metformin - which functions in a manner almost identical to berberine - has been linked to decreased cancer risk and lower overall mortality in diabetics (relative to other diabetes treatments), and may have potential as an “anti-aging” calorie restriction mimetic.⁸⁹⁻⁹³ And, rather surprisingly, recent epidemiology has linked glucosamine use to decreased overall mortality and decreased risk for lung and colorectal cancer (possibly reflecting a broader anti-inflammatory role for this compound).⁹⁴⁻⁹⁶

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