Therapeutic effect of induced pluripotent stem cell-derived extracellular vesicles in an in vitro and in vivo osteoarthritis model

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ABSTRACT

Background/Objective: Osteoarthritis (OA) is a multifactorial joint disease associated with the deterioration of chondrocytes and inflammation. Treatment of OA is only aimed at reducing pain and improving joint function. Recently, extracellular vesicles (EVs) secreted from stem cells have emerged as a cell regenerative tool in several degenerative diseases, including OA. We hypothesised that induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC)-derived EVs would be beneficial for regenerating chondrocytes and OA therapy. Therefore, we aimed to investigate iPSC-EVs' effects on chondrocyte behaviour in an interleukin 1 beta (IL-1β)-induced in vitro OA model and anterior cruciate ligament transection (ACLT)-induced in vivo OA model of rabbit articular cartilage.

Methods: The iPSC-EVs were isolated by sequential ultracentrifugation from a 48-h-incubated conditional medium of iPSC. The isolated iPSC-EVs were characterised by transmission electron microscopy, western blot analyses, and dynamic light scatter. The effects of iPSC-EVs on the viability of human primary chondrocytes and cell senescence were analysed. Premature senescence of cells was induced by long-term incubation with low doses of hydrogen peroxide. To investigate the therapeutic effect of iPSC-EVs on OA chondrocytes in vitro, IL-1β was used to induce chondrocyte damage. Inflammatory macrophages were activated from THP-1 monocytes to observe the impact of iPSC-EV on macrophage polarisation. The phenotypes of the macrophages exposed to iPSC-EVs were evaluated by ELISA and western blot analyses. The primary chondrocytes were co-cultured with different phenotypes of macrophages to observe the expression of collagen II and catabolic enzymes in chondrocytes. iPSC-EVs were injected intraarticularly into the rabbit with an ACLT-induced OA model. The progression of lesions was assessed through macroscopic and histopathological studies.

Results: We showed that iPSC-EVs significantly stimulated the proliferation of primary human chondrocytes and suppressed cell senescence by regulating the expression of p21 and collagen II. iPSC-EVs reduced matrix degragation enzymes and IL-6 expression and attenuated IL-1β-mediated cell death of chondrocytes. Furthermore, iPSC-EVs modulated macrophage polarisation, resulting in the rescue of damaged chondrocytes in an inflammatory microenvironment. In the rabbit ACLT model, the OA-like lesions, including inflammation, subchondral bone protrusion, and articular cartilage destruction, were ameliorated by iPSC-EV. A histopathological study consistently revealed that iPSC-EVs attenuated ACLT-mediated alteration of MMP13 and ADAMTS5 and collagen II expression.

Conclusion: iPSC-EVs protected chondrocytes by enhancing cell proliferation, suppressing premature senescence, and maintaining homeostasis of collagen II synthesis and matrix degradation enzymes such as matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) and ADAMTS5. iPSC-EVs also reduced cell death in IL-1β-mediated chondrocyte cell damage. In the rabbit ACLT-induced OA model, iPSC-EV injection reduced cartilage destruction, as indicated by
1. Introduction

Osteoarthritis (OA) is one of the most common age-related arthritides and can affect multiple synovial joints. The knee is the most common site of OA, accounting for 16% of the global prevalence [1]. OA is caused by multifactorial aetiologies such as age, obesity, genetics, gender/hormone status, and trauma [2]. OA is a complex process involving the entire joint apparatus, characterised by degeneration or fissure formation in the cartilage, matrix fibrillation, synovial inflammation, osteocyte formation, and subchondral bone sclerosis [3,4]. The pathogenesis of OA is related to the altered proliferation, apoptosis, and behaviour of chondrocytes, including aberrant production of cartilage-degrading enzymes and hypertrophy markers. As a result, the extracellular matrix (ECM) surrounding the chondrocytes is usually damaged. Low-grade inflammation is present in OA, including the release of cytokines such as interleukin 1 beta (IL-1β), IL-6, interferon-gamma (IFN-γ), and tumour necrosis factor-alpha (TNFα) from inflammatory synovial tissues [5]. These cytokines and other mediators stimulate abnormalities in chondrocytes, such as anabolic-catabolic homeostasis imbalance, excessive catabolic enzyme expression, senescence, and apoptosis, leading to degeneration of the ECM.

Current OA treatment is directed toward supportive therapy to reduce pain, improve joint mobility, and limit disease progression [6]. The primary strategy of OA management is based on drugs and regenerative medicine, such as cell transplantation [7]. Several drugs have been used to target the catabolic-anabolic pathway of chondrocytes or inflammatory processes. Stem cells are used to regenerate defective cells. Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) derived from bone marrow [8] and adipose tissue [9] were grafted in patients with OA with promising results in pain management and functional recovery. Recently, accumulating evidence has demonstrated that the therapeutic potential of cell transplantation is mediated by the paracrine effect of the secreteme, a mixture of soluble factors and extracellular vesicles (EVs) secreted from transplanted cells [10].

EVs are complex membrane-bound transporter organelles secreted by cells into the extracellular environment, mediating communication between cells. Recent studies have revealed that EVs isolated from stem cells have therapeutic effects on OA. EVs produced by embryonic stem cell-derived mesenchymal stem cells (ESC-MSCs) alleviate IL-1β-mediated cell damage of chondrocytes by inducing collagen II synthesis and reducing ADAMTS5 expression. Furthermore, intra-articular injection of ESC-MSC EVs has ameliorated cartilage degeneration and matrix degradation in the destabilised tissue damage-induced OA in mice [11]. EVs derived from human bone marrow stem cells (hBMSCs) promote cell proliferation and inhibit apoptosis in human OA chondrocytes and IL-1ß-mediated OA chondrocytes [12]. Induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSCs) can be derived from various sources, including peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) [13], and although culture of iPSCs is more complex, previous reports have demonstrated that iPSCs produce 16-fold more EVs than MSCs [14]. In addition, EVs derived from human iPSC (iPSC-EVs) can restore collagen I expression and reduce fibroblast expression of matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs)-1/-3, catabolic enzymes related to ECM degradation and OA pathogenesis. However, little is known about iPSC-EVs’ effect in chondrocytes and OA models.

This study aimed to investigate the effect of iPSC-EVs on chondrocyte behaviour in an IL-1ß-induced in vitro OA model and anterior cruciate ligament transection (ACL-T)-induced in vivo rabbit articular cartilage OA model. We hypothesised that iPSC-EVs play a role in the macrophage microenvironment involved in inflammation.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. hiPSC lines and maintenance

The hiPSCs were provided by Dr Lu, Bioresource Collection and Research Center (BCRC), Food Industry Research and Development Institute, Hsinchu, Taiwan. Characterisation and validation results are on the BCRC website: https://catalog.bcrf.firdi.org.tw/. Briefly, hiPSC lines were generated from human PBMCs using the CytoTune iPS 2.0 Sendai Reprogramming Kit protocol (Invitrogen) and were used according to the Policy Instructions of the Ethics of Human Embryo and Embryonic Stem Cell Research guidelines in Taiwan. The hiPSCs were maintained in StemFlex medium (Gibco) on Matrigel-coated dishes following the manufacturer’s instructions.

2.2. iPSC-EV isolation and characterisation

The iPSC-EVs were isolated by sequential ultracentrifugation. Briefly, the iPSCs were cultured in a serum-free medium (6 mL/6 cm² dish) for 48 h. The iPSC conditional medium was then transferred into 50-mL centrifuge tubes and centrifuged at 300 g for 70 min to pellet the EV. The supernatant was then transferred to a new tube and centrifuged at 2,000 g for 30 min, then transferred and centrifuged at 10,000 g for 30 min. The supernatant was then transferred to an ultracentrifuge tube and centrifuged at 100,000 g for 70 min to pellet the EV. The supernatant was discarded, and the EV pellet was washed in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and centrifuged at 100,000 g for 70 min. All centrifugation steps were performed at 4 °C. The isolated EVs were resuspended in PBS for characterisation and subsequent treatment. A lysis buffer was added directly to the EV pellet for western blot analysis of the EV surface markers. The concentration of the EVs was measured using a bicinchoninic acid (BCA) assay (Pierce BCA protein assay, Invitrogen). EV samples were immediately used, or stored at −20 °C or −80 °C for two weeks or longer, respectively. Isolated iPSC-EV morphology was characterised using a transmission electron microscope (TEM; Hitachi HT7700 (100 kV)). Nanovesicle size distribution was analysed using dynamic light scattering (DLS). MA-tek Material Analysis Technology Inc performed TEM and DLS analyses.

2.3. 1,1'-dioctadecyl-3,3',3'-Tetramethylindocarbocyanine Perchlorate labelling

Isolated iPSC-EVs were labelled with 1,1’-Dioctadecyl-3,3',3'-Tetramethylindocarbocyanine Perchlorate (DiI). Briefly, DiI was dissolved, filtered, and added to EV samples to a final concentration of 6 μM. Labelled EV samples were then gently shaken at room temperature for 1 h.

2.4. Primary chondrocyte culture

Articular cartilage was collected from the femoral condyle of patients (n = 6) under sterile conditions after obtaining written consent from each patient, approved by the IRB committee of E-da Hospital, Taiwan (IRB number: EMRP-108-008). Patient age ranged from 21 to 78 years. The harvested cartilage surface was smooth, slippery, and white, without fissures or erosions. The surgically collected tissue was transferred into a 50 mL centrifuge tube containing sterile PBS at 4 °C. The cartilage was transferred to a Petri dish containing DMEM/F12 (Invitrogen) culture medium with 1% penicillin-streptomycin and then cut using a sterile...
surgical blade. The divided cartilage was then transferred to a T25 flask containing 1 mg/mL of Pronase (Roche) in DMEM/F12 with 1% penicillin-streptomycin and incubated at 37 °C with 5% CO2 for 30 min. After discarding the enzyme solution and washing in PBS +1% penicillin-streptomycin, the tissue was digested overnight in 1 mg/mL collagenase (Invitrogen) at 37 °C with 5% CO2. The cell suspension was then transferred to a 50 mL centrifuge tube and centrifuged at 300 × g for 5 min. The supernatant was decanted, and the cell pellet was washed in PBS and centrifuged at 300 × g for 5 min. The supernatant was discarded. The cell pellet was re-suspended in a conventional medium containing DMEM/ F12 + 1% penicillin-streptomycin and 10% foetal bovine serum (FBS) and seeded in a flask to expand in two-dimensional culture (passage 0).

2.5. Western blot

To harvest the total protein, lysis buffer containing Pierce™ RIPA buffer (Invitrogen) with 1x protease inhibitor (Halt™ Protease and Phosphatase Inhibitor cocktail, Invitrogen) was applied to the cells or EV pellet. The sample was vortexed and centrifuged at 13,000 × g for 10 min. The supernatant containing the protein was transferred into a new tube. The protein concentration was measured at 450 nm using a microplate reader (BioTek 800 TS, Agilent). Fifteen micrograms of each protein sample were loaded onto each well of the SDS-PAGE. After electrophoresis, the proteins were loaded onto each well of the SDS-PAGE. After electrophoresis, the proteins were transferred onto a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane. The PVDF membrane was blocked in 5% skim milk in Tris-buffered saline (TBS) for 1 h at room temperature, followed by incubation with primary antibodies at 4 °C overnight. The membrane was washed three times with TBS and incubated with the primary antibodies at 1:1000 for 1 h at room temperature with gentle shaking. Subsequently, immunoreaction was detected using an enhanced chemiluminescence reagent according to the manufacturer’s instructions (Millipore). The primary antibodies used in this study were as follows: from GenTex, Inc. at 1:1000, CD9 (GTX66709), CD81 (GTX31381), TSG101 (GTX70255), p21 (GTX629543), MMP13 (GTX100665), ADAMTS5 (GTX100332), iNOS (GTX60599), and TNF-α (GTX110520), at 1:1500, IL-6 (GTX110527), and at 1:3000, beta-actin (GTX109639); from System Biosciences, Inc. at 1:1000, CD63 (E0XAB-C63A-1); and from Abcam at 1:1000, Collagen II (ab185430) and CD206 (ab125028).

2.6. Cell proliferation assay

Primary chondrocytes in passages 2–5 (10^5 cells/mL) were inoculated into 96-well plates and cultured in the conventional medium described above. iPSC-EV was added to the treatment group at a concentration of 10 μg/mL medium (with 1% FBS). An equal volume of PBS was added to the control group. The cells were incubated for three days and counted for proliferation analysis using the Cell Counting Kit-8 (CCK-8, Dojindo). Absorbance was measured at 450 nm using a microplate reader (BioTek 800 TS, Agilent).

2.7. H2O2-induced senescence and senescence-associated β-galactosidase cell staining (SA-β-gal staining)

Primary chondrocytes in passages 2–3 (10^5 cells/mL) were seeded into 6 cm² culture dishes and cultured in DMEM/F12 medium (supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% penicillin-streptomycin). Primary chondrocytes in passages 2–3 (10^5 cells/mL) were seeded into 6 cm² culture dishes and cultured in DMEM/F12 medium (supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% penicillin-streptomycin). From day 3, H2O2 was applied to the cells at a final concentration of 10 μM for four consecutive days. On day 7, the cells were sub-passaged, and the protocol was repeated for two more cycles. Next, the control cells were cultured and sub-passaged along with senescent chondrocytes without H2O2 treatment. To begin the last cycle, control and H2O2-treated cells were sub-passaged into 6 cm² dishes for western blot analysis or 48-well plates for SA-β-galactosidase staining. In this cycle, control and H2O2-treated cells were divided into two groups (iPSC-EV- or iPSC-EV+). On day 7 of the last passage (day 22 of the experiment), the medium was changed to a 1% FBS medium with or without 10 μg/mL iPSC-EV, and the cells were incubated for three days. The cells were harvested and put in a lysis buffer for protein isolation and western blot analysis. SA-β-galactosidase staining was performed using the SA-β-galactosidase staining kit (#9680, Cell Signalling Technology) following the manufacturer’s instructions. Briefly, in a 48-well plate, the medium was discarded, and the cells were rinsed once in PBS. The cells were then fixed in a fixative reagent for 10 min. After three washes in PBS, the cells were incubated overnight in the β-galactosidase staining solution at 37 °C without CO2. The cells were observed using a microscope (Olympus CKX53).

2.8. IL-1β stimulation of OA chondrocytes and iPSC-EV treatment

Chondrocytes in passages 2–5 (10^5 cells/mL) were plated in 6 cm² culture dishes and maintained in the culture medium described above. When the cells reached 80% confluence, the medium was replaced with fresh medium (1% FBS) containing recombinant human IL-1β protein (ab9617, Abcam) at 10 ng/mL to induce OA chondrocytes or at 20 ng/mL to induce cell death (for live-dead cell imaging). iPSC-EV was applied along with IL-1β treatment at a final concentration of 10 μg/mL [15,16], and the cells were incubated for 24 h.

2.9. Live-dead cell analysis

After 24 h of treatment with 20 ng/mL IL-1β with or without iPSC-EV, the medium was discarded. The cells were rinsed in PBS once before incubation in 5x Live and Dead Dye (ab115347, Abcam) for 10 min at room temperature with gentle shaking. The number of live and dead cells was determined using a fluorescent microscope (Olympus CKX53). The number of red fluorescent cells (dead) was quantified as a percentage of the total population.

2.10. ELISA

The macrophage-conditioned media (CM) were collected and centrifuged at 300 × g for 5 min to quantify the level of cytokines secreted by macrophages. The supernatant was collected in a new tube and used for ELISA. Human IL-1β ELISA kit (ab46052, Abcam), Human TNF-α ELISA kit (KHC3011, Invitrogen), and Human IL-6 ELISA kit (KHC0061) were used in this study, following manufacturers’ instructions.

2.11. Macrophage polarisation

THP-1 monocytes (passage 20–23) were cultured in RPMI 1640 (A1049101, Gibco) supplemented with 1% penicillin-streptomycin and 5% FBS. To activate the THP-1 monocytes to naïve macrophages (M0), 50 ng/mL of phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) (P8193, Sigma–Aldrich) was added to the cells (10^6 cell/mL) and incubated for 24 h. The cells were then refreshed and cultured for 24 h before polarisation to pro-inflammatory macrophages (M1). For polarisation, the cells were incubated in a medium containing 20 ng/mL IFN-γ and 500 ng/mL lipopolysaccharide (LPS) for 24 h. Then cells were collected for protein extraction and western blot analysis. To harvest macrophage-CM for the treatment of chondrocytes, the medium was refreshed and incubated for one more day before harvesting.

2.12. MMP array

The CMs of the different macrophages (M0, M0 + iPSC-EV, M1, and M1 + iPSC-EV) were collected and centrifuged at 300 × g for 5 min to remove cell debris. These collected CMs were then applied to the chondrocytes at 50% concentration (1:1 chondrocyte medium with 5% FBS: macrophage-CM). Chondrocytes were incubated in the media for 24 h. The control group was cultured in a 100% conventional chondrocyte medium. The medium was replaced with fresh serum-free medium and
each group was cultured for an additional 24 h. The CMs of the chondrocytes (five groups) were harvested for MMP array analysis. A human MMP antibody array membrane (ab134004, Abcam) was used, following the manufacturer’s instructions. Chondrocyte cell samples were harvested for total protein isolation and western blot analysis.
2.13. Macrophage-chondrocyte co-culture and immunocytochemistry

THP-1 cells (passage 20–24), at a concentration of 10^6 cells/mL, were inoculated into the upper inserts of 24-well Transwell plates. Macrophage activation and polarisation were performed as described previously. After polarisation, the upper inserts were transferred to the wells where chondrocytes (passages 2–3) were cultured (10^5 cells/mL) in complete medium with 10% FBS. Macrophages and chondrocytes were co-cultured for 24 h. The upper inserts were then removed. The cells were rinsed before fixing in 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 min and then washed three times. Non-specific binding was blocked using a blocking and permeabilizing solution (2% BSA + 5% FBS + 0.01% Triton-X in PBS). The cells were incubated with primary antibodies against MMP13 (1:250) and collagen II (1:500) overnight at 4 °C. The primary antibody mixtures were removed, and the cells were washed three times with a washing solution (1% BSA in PBS). The secondary antibody mixture (Alexa Fluor® 488 [AB150081, Abcam] 1:700 + Alexa Fluor® 594 [AB150116, Abcam] 1:700 in washing solution) was applied to the cells and incubated at room temperature for 1 h (in the dark), with gentle shaking. The nuclei were counterstained with a mounting medium containing DAPI (ab104139, Abcam). The fluorescence signal was observed and imaged using a fluorescence microscope (Olympus CKX53). Fluorescence intensity from fluorescence images was quantified in the ImageJ program. The correct total cell fluorescence (CTCF) was calculated as follows:

\[ \text{CTCF} = \text{integrated density} - (\text{area of selected cell} \times \text{mean fluorescence of background}) \]

2.14. In vivo OA model in rabbits

Nine healthy female New Zealand white rabbits weighing approximately 4000 g each were randomly divided into three experimental groups (n = 3 per group). The first and second groups (ACLT and ACLT + iPSC-EV) were subjected to ACLT at their right knee joints to induce knee OA. The left knee of each rabbit was considered a control. The rabbits were anaesthetised using isoflurane inhalation. A vertical midline incision was made on the skin over the right distal patella using a sterile tissue-fine scissors. A sterile tunnel was created in the skin, approximately 4000 g each were randomly divided into three experimental groups. An equal volume of PBS was injected into the right knee joint of the rabbits. The animals were monitored daily. At the third week post-operation, 100 μg iPSC-EV was injected intra-articularly to the right knee joint of the ACLT + iPSC-EV and sham groups. An equal volume of PBS was injected into the right knee joint of each rabbit in the ACLT group. The iPSC-EV injection was repeated once every week for three weeks. At six weeks post-operation, all rabbits were euthanised. The knee joints were opened to observe the gross lesion before sample collection for tissue preparation. The knee joints were preserved in 10% buffered formalin solution and decalcified in 10% ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid. The tissues were embedded in paraffin blocks and sliced to a thickness of 6 μm.

2.15. HE, toluidine blue, and Safranin-O staining

The sections were deparaffinized by incubation in an oven at 60 °C for 1 h and then in xylene twice for 10 min each. The slides were rehydrated in the following reagents: 100% ethanol twice for 5 min each, 95% ethanol for 5 min, 75% ethanol for 5 min, 50% ethanol for 5 min, and rinsed using tap water. The sections were stained with HE, toluidine, and safranin-O, as described previously [17].

2.16. Immunohistochemistry (IHC)

After deparaffinization and rehydration, the sections were incubated in 1 mg/mL pronase (ROC-10165921001, Roche®) for 30 min at 37 °C. After washing twice in PBST (PBS + 0.05% Tween-20), 5 mg/mL hyaluronidase (H3506, Sigma-Aldrich®) was applied to the sections and incubated for 30 min at 37 °C. IHC staining was performed using the mouse and rabbit-specific HRP/DAB (ABC) Detection IHC kit (ab64264, Abcam), following the manufacturer's instructions. Primary antibodies used for IHC were as follows: from GeneTex, Inc. at 1:200, MMP13 (GTX110520); and from Abcam at 1:250, Collagen II (ab185430). Details for the experiment are as follows: from GeneTex, Inc. at 1:200, MMP13 (GTX110520); and from Abcam at 1:250, Collagen II (ab185430).

2.17. Statistical analyses

GraphPad Prism software 8.0.1 was employed for statistical analysis. The comparison between two groups was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-test. The comparisons involving three or more experimental groups were performed using one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey multiple comparisons. The data are expressed as mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM). p < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. iPSC-EV isolation and characterisation

Once the iPSCs reached 70% confluence, the CM of iPSCs was harvested every other day for EV isolation. The average EV concentration was 0.284 μg/μL. The iPSC-derived EVs (iPSC-EVs) were morphologically characterised by TEM. TEM images showed cup-shaped nanoparticles, a typical EV characteristic (Fig. 1A). The expression of EV surface proteins, such as TSG101, CD9, CD63, and CD81, was detected by western blot analysis (Fig. 1B). DLS indicated that the average size of EV was 136.8 nm (Fig. 1C). The iPSC-EVs were labelled with DiI to observe cell uptake ability. Fig. 1D shows red fluorescence localised in the cytoplasm of chondrocytes, suggesting that DiI-labelled iPSC-EVs were internalised by the chondrocytes.

3.2. iPSC-EV enhanced proliferation rate and reduced senescence of chondrocyte

We first investigated the effect of iPSC-EVs on chondrocyte viability. Human primary chondrocytes were incubated in the culture medium supplemented with iPSC-EVs for 24 h. Fig. 2A shows that chondrocytes exposed to iPSC-EVs had a larger number of cells than the untreated control. Cell viability was evaluated using the CCK-8 method. The CCK-8
assay confirmed that cell proliferation of the chondrocytes was significantly enhanced (p < 0.05) by the iPSC-EV supplement (Fig. 2B).

The age or senescence of chondrocytes leads to an imbalance in homeostasis and loss of articular cartilage, a hallmark of OA [18]. We established an in vitro model of long-term low-dose H2O2 exposure to induce chondrocyte senescence (Fig. 2C). Long-term treatment with 10 μM of H2O2 induced cell senescence, as indicated by morphological changes and SA-β-galactosidase staining (Fig. 2D, E). Irregular-shaped cells with larger nuclei and cell bodies were mainly observed in the chondrocytes treated with H2O2. These cells were strongly positive for SA-β-galactosidase staining, indicating senescence with strong β-galactosidase activity (Fig. 2D). The percentage of positively stained cells significantly increased in the H2O2 treated group (p < 0.01) (Fig. 2E), and the number of stained cells significantly reduced in the H2O2 + iPSC-EVs group (p < 0.05) compared to the H2O2 group, indicating iPSC-EV treatment significantly alleviated H2O2-mediated senescence. We observed that the percentage of positive cells in the no-treatment group, which had a reduced number of iPSC-EVs (p = 0.8836), was low. Western blot analysis revealed that protein expression of senescence marker p21 was significantly induced by H2O2 treatment (p < 0.01), whereas iPSC-EV reduced its expression (p < 0.05) (Fig. 2F, G). Collagen II expression was also significantly reduced in senescent cells (p < 0.05). Treatment with iPSC-EV insignificantly enhanced collagen II expression in both normal and H2O2-induced senescent conditions (Fig. 2F, H). Therefore, iPSC-EVs have anti-ageing potential on H2O2-mediated cell senescence via p21 suppression.

3.3. iPSC-EV alleviated inflammation and cell death in IL-1β-induced in vitro OA model

To investigate the therapeutic effect of iPSC-EVs on OA chondrocytes in vitro, IL-1β was used to induce chondrocyte damage. 10 ng/mL of IL-1β markedly stimulated the protein expression of the metalloproteinase MMP-13 and cytokine IL-6 in chondrocytes (Fig. 3A). This effect was significantly attenuated after the administration of iPSC-EVs (p < 0.01) (Fig. 3B, C). IL-1β suppressed the expression of the aggregan ADAMTS5. However, iPSC-EV suppressed the expression of ADAMTS5 in both normal and IL-1β-treated conditions, though this was not statistically significant (Fig. 3A, D). Furthermore, the expression of collagen II by chondrocytes significantly decreased after treatment with IL-1β (p < 0.05). iPSC-EVs did not significantly enhance the expression of collagen type II in normal chondrocytes (p = 0.0912) or chondrocytes under the effect of IL-1β (p = 0.2715).

We examined the potential of iPSC-EVs in attenuating chondrocyte cell death. IL-1β (20 ng/mL) was applied to trigger chondrocyte cell death (Fig. 3F). Red fluorescence, representing dead cells, was high in intensity in the IL-1β treated group without iPSC-EVs. The quantification graph (Fig. 3G) shows that dead cells increased significantly in IL-1β treated chondrocytes (p < 0.005) and significantly reduced after iPSC-EV treatment (p < 0.01). This suggested that iPSC-EVs alleviated the IL-1β-mediated cell death of chondrocytes.

3.4. iPSC-EV modulated macrophage polarisation and inflammatory cytokine secretion

Synovial macrophages contribute to the progression of inflammation in OA. The abundance of M1 macrophages can mediate OA progression and pain [19]. Thus, targeting macrophage polarisation and activity is another option for OA treatment. Here, we explored the effect of iPSC-EVs on macrophage polarisation and cytokine secretion. PMA was applied to mediate the maturation of THP-1 monocytes to the naïve M0 state. LPS and IFN-γ induced pro-inflammatory M1 macrophage polarisation. iNOS and CD206 were used as M1 and M2 macrophages markers, respectively. LPS + IFN-γ administration skewed M0 toward M1 macrophages by significantly reducing CD206 and inducing iNOS expression (p < 0.01) (Fig. 4A–D). iPSC-EV treatment significantly enhanced CD206 expression in both naïve M0 and activated M1 macrophages (p < 0.05). iNOS expression was not significantly suppressed in M0 cells exposed to iPSC-EV (M0EV+) compared to control M0 (p = 0.4416). Only subtle changes in iNOS were detected in M1 macrophages. TNF-α, another cytokine marker of M1, was significantly reduced in M0EV compared to control M0 (p < 0.05). ELISA was used to evaluate the cytokine secretion by macrophages. We revealed that TNF-α, IL-6, and IL-1β were highly secreted by LPS + IFN-γ activated M1 macrophages. iPSC-EVs significantly depleted the secretion of M0EV-M (Fig. 4E–G). Taken together, iPSC-EVs were able to induce CD206+ macrophage polarisation and alter cytokine secretion.

3.5. iPSC-EV affected macrophage-chondrocyte interplay

We further investigated whether these altered macrophage phenotypes indirectly affected chondrocyte degradation. CMs from different phenotypes of macrophages were collected and applied to chondrocytes. We incubated the chondrocytes in 50% macrophage CM for 24 h. Protein expression was assessed by western blot analysis. Collagen II expression in chondrocytes was significantly abolished when cultured with M0 or M1 CM (p < 0.001) (Fig. 5A, B). In comparing chondrocyte + M0 CM and chondrocyte + M0EV+ CM, collagen II expression of chondrocyte + M0EV+ CM was significantly higher (p < 0.01). The macrophage CM did not increase ADAMTS5 expression in chondrocytes. However, its expression was not significantly lower in chondrocyte + M0EV+ and M1EV+ CM compared to chondrocyte + M0 and M1 CM, respectively (Fig. 5A, C). IL-6 expression was stimulated in chondrocyte + M0 CM and was alleviated in chondrocyte + M0EV+ CM (Fig. 5A, D). IL-6 expression in chondrocytes treated with CM from M1 and M1EV+ cells was extremely high. No difference was detected between the expression levels of both groups.

We co-cultured chondrocytes with macrophages of different phenotypes using Transwell assays. After 24 h of co-culture, the chondrocytes were subjected to double immunostaining for MMP13 and collagen II (Fig. 5E). MMP13 expression was not significantly enhanced in chondrocytes co-cultured with M0 or M1 (Fig. 5F). In contrast, collagen II co-cultured was significantly depleted in M0 and M1 co-cultured groups. Interestingly, their altered expression was reversed in chondrocytes co-cultured with iPSC-EV-treated M0 and M1 (M0EV+ co and M1EV+ co) (Fig. 5G). Furthermore, the CM of chondrocytes after treatment was collected to observe the secretion of MMPs using an MMP array assay (Fig. 5H). Chondrocytes co-cultured with M0EV+ secreted lower MMP3 and higher TIMP-1 levels than those exposed to M0 (Fig. 5I, J). Chondrocytes co-cultured with M1 secreted significantly higher MMP10 levels than those exposed to M1EV+. Therefore, iPSC-EVs probably indirectly ameliorate chondrocyte degradation by regulating macrophage polarisation and cytokine secretion, which interact with chondrocytes.
Figure 4. iPSC-EV regulated macrophage polarisation and cytokine secretion. A. Representative western blot image showing the expression of a M2 marker (CD206) and M1 markers (iNOS, and TNF-α) in M0, M0EV⁺, M1, and M1EV⁺. B-D. Quantification of protein abundance from western blot results (n = 3) E-G. ELISA analysis of cytokines secreted by macrophages under different conditions (n = 3) *Significant difference to control; **p < 0.01. #Significant difference between groups: #p < 0.05, ##p < 0.01).

Abbreviations: PSC-EV: induced pluripotent stem cell-derived extracellular vesicles; IFN-γ: Interferon gamma; iNOS: inducible nitric oxide synthase; TNF-α: tumour necrosis factor alpha
3.6. iPSC-EV alleviated inflammation and degradation of articular cartilage in ACLT rabbit

To validate the effect of iPSC-EVs in the in vivo OA model, we established an OA model in rabbits using the ACLT method. Three weeks after ACLT, iPSC-EVs or equal volumes of PBS were injected intraarticularly once a week. We observed the gross lesion before sample collection and demonstrated that ACLT caused severe damage to the articular cartilage, including bruising, surface protrusion, erosion, and redness, particularly to the ACLT group (Fig. 6A). Meanwhile, we found milder lesions with redness, bruising, and mild erosion in the ACLT + iPSC-EV group (Fig. 6A). The iPSC-EV group showed no signs of inflammation or damage. Histopathological analysis using HE (Fig. 6B) and toluidine blue staining (Fig. 6C) indicated that intact articular cartilage surface was found in the tissues of normal and iPSC-EV groups. Severe articular surface abrasion, erosion, fibrillation, and extended fissures were found in all tissue samples of the ACLT group (Fig. 6B, C). Milder abrasion and erosion on the cartilage surface were observed in the ACLT + iPSC-EV group. Hypercellular clusters were detected in the lesion area of the ACLT tissue and ACLT + iPSC-EV (Fig. 6B). Subchondral bone sclerosis and subchondral cysts with fibrous tissue were found in the ACLT group (Fig. 6D). Furthermore, ACLT and ACLT + iPSC-EV tissue showed reduced safranin-O staining (Fig. 6D), indicating proteoglycan loss in the cartilage. The synovial membrane of each group was evaluated from HE staining (Fig. 6E). Severe hyperplasia and hypertrophy of synoviocytes were found in the ACLT group. Mild hyperplasia of synovium was also observed in the ACLT + iPSC-EV group. The Osteoarthritis Research Society International (OARSI) score was evaluated by an experienced pathologist. The average OARSI score in the ACLT group was significantly higher than that in the ACLT + iPSC-EV group (p < 0.001) (Fig. 6E). Thus, OA-like lesions using the ACLT model and iPSC-EV treatment protected the articular cartilage from severe OA lesion progression.

IHC was performed to evaluate the expression of degradation proteins in the cartilage chondrocytes. Collagen II, MMP13, ADAMT5S, and TNFα expression were observed in the cartilages (Fig. 7). The expression of collagen II was dramatically reduced in the superficial to deep zones of the articular cartilage of the ACLT group, particularly in the lesion area. Collagen II expression in the superficial layer in ACLT + iPSC-EV was also reduced. ADAMT5S expression was found in superficial layers of every group, including the iPSC-EV group, and was most enriched in the superficial to deep layers of the lesion area of the ACLT group. MMP13 and TNFα expression was enriched in the superficial to mid-layer of the ACLT articular cartilage. The ACLT + iPSC-EV-treated articular cartilage exhibited stronger collagen II and weaker MMP13, ADAMT5S, and TNFα than the ACLT group. Therefore, iPSC-EVs alleviated inflammation and degradation of chondrocytes by maintaining collagen II expression and suppressing MMP13, ADAMT5S, and TNFα expression during OA progression.

4. Discussion

iPSC-EVs have been previously reported for their effectiveness in cardiac repair [20] and the anti-aging of skin fibroblasts and MSCs [21]. In this study, iPSC-EVs significantly stimulated the proliferation ability of chondrocytes. Chondrocytes play an essential role in cartilage maintenance through their metabolic turnover and synthesis of ECM components [22]. Thus, chondrocyte proliferation and metabolic homeostasis and function are the major factors involved in the repair of injured cartilage.

One of the predisposing causes of OA is chondrocyte senescence. Ageing chondrocytes lose their proliferation ability, homeostasis, and functions such as ECM synthesis and its response to growth factors and cytokines [23]. Several studies have demonstrated that the incubation of chondrocytes with H2O2 promotes the senescence-like phenotype of chondrocytes [24]. This study demonstrated that long-term treatment with low-dose H2O2 triggered cell senescence. Meanwhile, iPSC-EV administration ameliorated cell senescence by reducing p21 expression and maintaining collagen II expression. Price et al. [25] demonstrated that the presence of SA-β-galactosidase-positive cells in cartilage is predominantly associated with OA lesions. Furthermore, suppressing the expression of p21, a senescence marker, accelerates cartilage tissue repair [26]. Therefore, we assume that iPSC-EVs may have the potential to slow the progression of OA and accelerate cartilage regeneration.

Similar anti-senescence effects of iPSC-EVs have been reported in senescent MSCs, including the reduction of SA-β-galactosidase enzymatic activity and expression of senescence proteins (p21, p53) [27]. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study showing that iPSC-EVs have the potential to alleviate in vitro ageing of cartilage cells. An in vivo study of the effect of iPSC-EVs on age-related OA is also required.

We created an IL-1β-induced OA model in vitro. IL-1β treatment of chondrocytes is one of the most common in vitro OA models used in several studies [12]. These studies showed that IL-1β is an independent pro-inflammatory cytokine that stimulates inflammation and apoptosis and leads to OA progression. Our results consistently revealed that IL-1β significantly induced the expression of the matrix-degrading enzyme MMP13. iPSC-EVs significantly reversed this effect. An increase in the MMPs, ADAMTS family enzymes, and other important catabolic enzymes of chondrocytes, drive ECM degradation and cartilage destruction [28]. The expression of ADAMTS5 is usually aberrant in the early stages of OA [29]. Conversely, we found that ADAMTS5 expression was decreased after IL-1β treatment, consistent with a previous gene expression profile report of IL-1β treated chondrocytes [30].

In addition to its effect on anabolic-catabolic protein expression, IL-1 activates other mediators of synthesis in chondrocytes, such as IL-6, which downregulates collagen II and aggrecan [31]. We consistently demonstrated that IL-6 cytokine expression in chondrocytes significantly increased after IL-1β treatment, whereas collagen II expression significantly decreased. iPSC-EVs alleviated these effects to protect the chondrocytes. Furthermore, iPSC-EVs significantly attenuated IL-1β-mediated chondrocyte cell death. Therefore, iPSC-EVs can protect chondrocytes from IL-1β mediated inflammation, anabolic-catabolic imbalance, and cell death by regulating the catabolic enzymes MMP13 and IL-6 and supporting collagen II production.

In patients with OA, inflammation is commonly observed in chronic and lower grades. The imbalance of pro-inflammatory M1 and anti-inflammatory M2 macrophages is associated with the initiation, progression, and severity of OA [32]. OA synovium contains many iNOS+ M1-like macrophages and a slightly lower number of CD206+ macrophages than healthy synovium [33]. Activated M1 cytokines and the M1/M2 ratio are increased in OA synovium, leading to cartilage degradation and osteocyte formation [34]. Therefore, targeting inflammatory macrophages and related pathways may mitigate the severity and progression of OA. In this study, iPSC-EVs induced the expression of the M2 surface marker CD206 and suppressed that of iNOS, an M1 marker. iPSC-EVs also significantly reduced M1 macrophage secretory cytokines.
(caption on next page)
such as IL-1β, IL-6, and TNF-α, which may lead to the degradation of ECM matrix proteins and loss of proteoglycan and collagen [31]. Inhibiting TNF-α suppresses the expression of interleukins, MMPs, VEGF, and ADAMTS4 in rats with OA [35]. Thus, iPSC-EVs could modulate inflammation and progression of OA by affecting macrophage polarisation and cytokine production, such as TNF-α and interleukins.

Recently, several OA-related studies have discussed the paracrine interactions of macrophages and chondrocytes. Chondrocytes co-cultured with LPS-activated M1 macrophages significantly increased the expression of MMPs and inflammatory cytokines such as ILs, TNF-α, and IFN-γ. Chondrocytes also induced IL-1β and VEGF-A expression in macrophages [36]. Cartilage explants cultured with IFN-γ+TNF-α-induced macrophages could upregulate ILs, MMP13 and ADAMTS5 while inhibiting aggrecan and collagen II [37]. Fahy et al. [38] showed that CM of IFN-γ or LPS-activated M1 macrophages inhibited chondrocyte differentiation by decreasing aggrecan and collagen II. Thus, regulating synovial macrophage polarisation is another important factor in OA patients. In our study, iPSC-EVs reformed the phenotype of PMA-induced M0 and LPS+IFN-γ-induced M1 macrophages. This change in the inflammatory milieu thus interplayed with the chondrocytes. Chondrocytes exposed to iPSC-EV-treated macrophages, particularly in the M0 state, exhibited milder damage than those exposed to control macrophages. This result suggests that iPSC-EVs not only directly regulate the inflammatory response of chondrocytes but might also regulate synovial inflammatory macrophages.

The MMP array showed that chondrocytes in contact with the CM of iPSC-EV-treated M0 secreted lower levels of MMP3 and MMP8 and higher TIMP-1 compared with those in the M0 CM. TIMP-1
endogenous inhibitor of MMPs and ADAMTS.Balancing MMP and TIMP is necessary for cartilage homeostasis [39]. This result emphasised that iPSC-EVs modified the macrophage microenvironment toward an anti-inflammatory mode and led the chondrocytes to milder inflammation and homeostatic loss through balancing between collagen II and catabolic enzyme MMPs. Although iPSC-EVs significantly modulated cytokine secretion by M1 macrophages, the effect of M1 and M1EV + microenvironments on chondrocytes was insignificant. The concentration of inflammatory cytokines secreted from M1 may have been harmful to the chondrocytes. Thus, chondrocytes exposed to 50% M1 and M1EV + CM were severely damaged.

Finally, we validated iPSC-EVs’ therapeutic benefit in an ACLT-mediated OA rabbit model. ACLT is one of the most common methods of inducing post-traumatic OA (PTOA), causing joint destabilisation and degeneration of articular cartilage [40]. In this study, ACLT caused PTOA in all the rabbits; the severity was ameliorated by intra-articular injection of iPSC-EVs. Consistent with the in vitro study, iPSC-EV injection reduced the inflammation and degeneration of articular cartilages. The gross lesion on the articular surface, subchondral bone and synovium of the ACLT was prominent, whereas the lesion on the articular surface of the iPSC-EV treated groups was milder. IHC also emphasised that iPSC-EV reduced cartilage degeneration by suppressing MMP13 and ADAMTS expression by the chondrocytes. Although the IL-1β did not stimulate ADAMTS expression in chondrocytes in vitro, ACLT induced MMP13, TNFα and ADAMTS expression in vivo. Our in vitro IL-1β experiment included short duration (24 h incubation) treatment, while the in vivo ACLT model had a more extended period (over one month) of stress. Therefore, the different stress and duration probably caused different expression patterns of ADAMTS5. However, we found that iPSC-EVs attenuated ADAMTS5 expression in ACLT rabbit cartilage. Wang et al. [11] showed that ESC-MSC-derived exosomes alleviated cartilage destruction and matrix degradation by increasing collagen II and decreasing ADAMTS5 in the destabilisation of the medial meniscus model of mice. Therefore, iPSC-EVs have therapeutic benefits for OA in rabbit model.

In our study, the iPSC was cultured in serum-free medium before EV harvesting to avoid contamination of external EVs. Similar to the report of Cavallo et al. [15], non EV-depleted FBS was used in target cell (THP-1 and chondrocyte) culturing. Though the control and EV-treated target cells were cultured in the same prepared media, we reduced the FBS concentration (1% or 5%, for chondrocytes and macrophages, respectively), to minimize the effect of serum EV. The reduced FBS concentration may have affected the differences from 10% FBS.

In conclusion, iPSC-EVs ameliorated OA by enhancing collagen II synthesis, suppressing matrix degradation enzymes such as MMPs and ADAMTS5, and reducing inflammation. The anti-inflammatory effect of iPSC-EVs was determined by the direct regulation of chondrocytes or the indirect regulation of macrophages. iPSC-EVs stimulated the proliferation and alleviated the senescence of chondrocytes by downregulating p21 and upregulating collagen II expression. In the rabbit ACLT-induced OA model, iPSC-EV injection reduced cartilage degeneration, as indicated by the milder destruction, upregulation of collagen II and downregulation of MMP13, ADAMTS5, and TNF-α. Overall, our results suggest that iPSC-EVs possess potential therapeutic effect for OA treatment.

Author contributions

Yu-Huan Hsueh: Project administration, Writing - original draft
Waradee Buddhakosai: Data curation, Project administration, Writing - review & editing, Phung Ngan Le: Methodology, Data curation, Yung-Yi Tu: Methodology, Data curation Hsien-Chang Huang: Methodology, Data curation Huai-En Lu: Conceptualization, Resources, Writing - review & editing Wen-Liang Chen: Conceptualization, Resources, Supervision Yuan-Kun Tu: Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing - review & editing.

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest relevant to this article.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jot.2022.10.004.

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