REVIEW ARTICLE

Mesenchymal stem/stromal cells and their exosomes as natural nano-particles for arthritis therapy; hype and hope

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ABSTRACT

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Keywords: Inflammation Rheumatoid arthritis (RA) Osteoarthritis (OA) Mesenchymal stem/ stromal cells (MSCs) Exosomes, Extracellular matrix (ECM) Cartilage In order to reduce cartilage damage and enhance tissue regeneration in a variety of musculoskeletal conditions, particularly rheumatoid arthritis (RA) and osteoarthritis (OA), mesenchymal stem/stromal cells (MSCs)-based treatments have attracted increasing attention. The effects of MSCs are primarily controlled by inhibiting inflammatory reactions and inducing immunomodulation, which is largely accomplished by the secretion of a variety of anti-inflammatory cytokines. These mediators prevent the proliferation and motility of FLS in vivo, which prevents cartilage degeneration. Furthermore, MSCs-derived nanometric exosome therapy can inhibit the activity of matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), which function as matrix-degrading enzymes, and ultimately results in decreased extracellular matrix (ECM) breakdown. MSCs-derived exosome in fact act as cell-free sources in the context of the regenerative medicine. In addition, administration of MSCs intravenously and systemically to patients with OA and RA has been shown to be safe and effective therapeutically. Here, we have focused on the ability of MSC-based approaches like using MSCs-derived exosome to favor both chondrogenic and chondroprotective influences in arthritis.

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INTRODUCTION

Arthritis as the most common orthopedic disorder is characterized by pain and inflammation in a joint. Cartilage is mainly described as a chief target tissue in both osteoarthritis (OA) as well as rheumatoid arthritis (RA), two well-known and most common sorts of arthritis (1, 2). Articular cartilage, which is positioned on the surface of musculoskeletal joints, can endure complex mechanical impetuses,

* Corresponding Author Email: *alshahrani.shadia@gmail.com a.hijazi@psau.edu.sa* including pressure and shear force (3). Given that articular cartilage has no blood vessels, it typically obtains essential nutrients through synovial fluid infiltration, hindering cartilage to restore itself upon damage (4, 5). In the absence of an appropriate therapeutic modality, cartilage damage may bring about post-traumatic OA, which is described by joint pain, deformity, and movement diseases (6). These pathological manifestations, in turn, diminish patients' quality of life. Now, microfracture technologies, autologous or allogeneic cartilage

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transplantation concomitant with autologous chondrocyte implantation are typical treatments to treat arthritis (7, 8). Such therapeutic although can partially compromise cartilage deficits, and prolonged efficacy is not provided. To circumvent this difficulty, various scientists have concentrated on the unique capabilities of mesenchymal stem/ stromal cells (MSCs) (9, 10).

The MSCs as unique types of the human multipotent adult stem cells can efficiently be procured from a myriad of human tissue, including bone marrow (BM), adipose tissue (AT), synovial membrane, umbilical cord (UC), etc (11, 12). Thanks to the great competencies of MSCs, such as self-renewal, trans-differentiation in association with immunomodulation, MSC-based therapeutic plans have become an excellent treatment for cartilage recovery as a result of their osteogenic and chondrogenic potential, harvest simplicity, and ease of cultivation in culture (13, 14). Concerning the clinical results, MSCs therapy is safe and feasible with no stern untoward events. Thereby, it has been evinced that MSCs transplantation by intraarticular route or arthroscopic implantation can considerably lessen pain and recover knee activity (15, 16). Notwithstanding, basic and clinical investigation of MSCs and MSCs-derived exosomes to treat articular cartilage lesions have also met various difficulties. Due to the MSCs' heterogeneity, the influences of cultivation circumstances in vitro, and the presence of inflammation in the joint, some injected cells show unstable cell morphology, exhibit reduced viability in vivo, and also experience inefficient chondrogenic differentiation and cartilage matrix generation (17). In fact, the small populations of transplanted MSCs will ultimately be effective, making it difficult to achieve steady and homogeneous cartilage tissue or continued therapeutic influences (18). Thus, using MSCs-derived exosomes have attracted increasing attention. They carry and exchange proteins, lipids, miRNA, or DNA between diverse cell types. These nanometric exosomes also have key roles in various biological processes, such as tumor metastasis and tissue regeneration, and have been regarded as prognostic markers for manifold diseases (19, 20, 21).

Herein, we will deliver an overview based on MSCs therapy and also their exosomes as natural nanoparticles for cartilage regeneration in common types of arthritis, and also will discuss the potent mechanism behind the MSCs- mediated cartilage recovery.

THE PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF COMMON ARTHRITIS OA

Based on its etiology, OA is categorized into two main groups: primary (idiopathic or nontraumatic) and secondary (mainly resulting from trauma or mechanical abnormalities) (22). The sternness also is graded regarding the radiographical discoveries by the Kellgren-Lawrence (KL) system suggested in the 1960s. Previously it was supposed that OA was solely a cartilage degenerative disorder, while the latest results have shown that OA has a multi-dimensional aspect, comprising various contributing factors, such as biochemical response, trauma, mechanical forces, dysregulated immunological responses as well as metabolic abnormalities (23). Since cartilage has no vasculature, making it difficult to inspire inflammation or pain by itself, it has been suggested that the pain is largely elicited from alteration in the non-cartilaginous parts of the joint, including joint capsule, subchondral bone, ligaments, synovium, and even peri-articular muscles (24). As the disorder spreads, pathological signs like bone remodeling, formation of the bone spurs (osteophyte), ligamentous laxity, weakening of periarticular muscles as well as synovial effusion can be befallen (25, 26).

There is an ongoing debate about the contribution of inflammation in OA. It is of paramount importance to elucidate whether inflammatory response instigates the OA variations or the inflammation is itself secondary to the OA variation (27). The chronic inflammation comprising the innate immune system is frequently observed in OA. Synovitis, as a hallmark of OA, refers to the infiltration of inflammatory cells into the synovium and is detected in early phase of OA (28). However, it is more common in more developed steps and has tight correlation with OA severity. Notably, the synovial fluid in OA mainly includes several inflammatory molecules like plasma C-reactive protein (CRP), cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2), prostaglandin-2 (PGE2), inflammatory cytokines, growth factors (e.g., TGF β), nitric oxide (NO), and complement ingredient. Such mediators in association with matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) and other hydrolytic enzymes lead to the deterioration of proteoglycan and collagen construction and thereby eases cartilage breakdown (29, 30, 31, 32). Damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs)

released upon ECM degeneration enables a further cascade of inflammatory reactions, potentiating cartilage destruction. In vivo results have provided clear evidence conferring that macrophages largely contribute to the osteophytes' progress, an indicator of the OA severity. Decreased expression of some growth factors like IGF-1, PDGF, FGF, and also TGF- β in the affected joint also results in more sustained destructive effects of OA (23).

RA

The RA, a systemic inflammatory disorder, is mainly described by synovitis along with joint damages. While the RA etiology is unidentified, the potential impacts of the genetic factors are apparent. Of course, genetics is not adequate to explicate the causing of the immune deregulated response (33). The RA hallmark is inflammation predominantly in synovium; with obvious hyperplastic synovial membrane. The existence of autoantibodies known as rheumatoid factors (RF) and anti-citrullinated peptide antibodies (ACPA) is a common feature of RA (34). An increased frequency of T follicular helper (Tfh) cells related with autoantibodies in RA patients indicates a possible contribution of Tfh cells in RA pathogenesis. Pathological analysis has proven both types of synoviocytes as well inflammatory cells like dendritic cells (DCs), macrophages, B- and T-lymphocytes and plasma cells in affected tissue in OA (35). Although such cells signify the immunological features of RA, most of the RA-associated lesions result from their products, such as cytokines and other mediators. Meanwhile, an improved level of the inflammatory cytokines mainly underlies the prolongation of synovial inflammation (36). Besides, neutrophils' recruitment to the joint is induced by IL-8 and leukotriene B4 and leads to up-regulation of complement activation (37). Pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-1 and TNF-a, target chondrocytes and synovial fibroblasts, and provoke them to secrete proteolytic enzymes (38, 39). Proteolytic enzymes motivate the dissolution of the cartilage matrix, and thereby inspire narrowing of joint spaces.

MSCS ROLE IN AMELIORATION COMMON ORTHOPEDIC DISEASES

Chondrogenic differentiation

Even though endogenous MSCs induce tissue repair, their capacity is inadequate to entirely restore damaged cartilage. It has recently been verified that

transplanted MSCs can migrate to the damage zone and then partially differentiate into target cells and substitute injured tissue. Accordingly, exogenous MSC transplantation recently is considered a rapidly evolving therapeutic plan with desired capability for migration, proliferation, and eventually for cartilage regeneration (40). Also, chondrogenic differentiation of MSCs in vitro and transplantation of differentiated chondrocyte alone or association with engineered scaffold is another suggested approach (41). Pellet culture is the most extensively used culture systems for chondrogenesis (42). Pellets including about 2-5 $\times 10^5$ cells are provided for chondrogenic differentiation of MSCs by a basal medium comprising dexamethasone, ascorbate, insulin, transferrin, and selenous acid (43, 44). Moreover, the classic growth factor used for chondrogenesis is TGF-B. Importantly, TGF- β can significantly trigger chondrogenesis and enable the accumulation of proteoglycan and collagen type II once exploited as solitary factors (45). Also, bone morphogenic protein-2 (BMP2) for BM-MSCs (46) and BMP6 for AT-MSCs (47) act as chondrogenesis-inducer factors. BMP2, BMP4, BMP6, and IGF1 typically are described as inducers of chondrogenesis when applied together or in association with TGF- β (48). Apart from soluble mediators, environmental factors like mechanical stimulation (49) and hypoxia (50) have also can modify MSCs' chondrogenesis in vitro. Also, there is some evidence indicating that ex vivo ultrasound could induce chondrogenesis of MSCs in vivo post-administration (51). Importantly, Aung et al. also found that co-culture with primary OA chondrocytes stimulates the chondrogenic differentiation of human MSCs without the presence of growth factors (52). Owing to their finding that primary OA chondrocytesderived conditioned medium has no similar effect on MSCs, it seems that cell-to-cell contacts played pivotal roles in this regard (52). Besides, another study demonstrated that MSC chondrogenesis was suppressed by OA synovium conditioned medium because of the soluble mediators released by synovial M1 macrophages (53). Various reports have shown that BM-MSCs could shape a cartilagelike tissue in vitro upon exposure with cocktails of such factors. The established tissue can express various biomolecules typical of hyaline cartilagelike type II collagen and aggrecan (54). However, collagen content is mainly lower than 50% compared to native healthy adult cartilage, with

undesirable effects for tensile strength and loadcarrying capabilities (54).

MSCs immunomodulatory and anti-inflammatory competencies

Thanks to their substantial immunoregulatory capacities, MSCs can dampen dysregulated immunological responses throughout tissue recovery and deliver a proper milieu for cartilage repair and regeneration (Fig. 1) (55). As described, the presence of the various immune cells in association with high levels of pro-inflammatory mediators in the synovium of arthritis patients confers the significance of immunomodulation to treat such disorders (56, 57). MSCs universally regulate immunological response by negative regulation of (M1M\u03c6), TH1, TH17, DCs, B cells as well as NK cells activation and maturation while promoting TH2 and anti-inflammatory macrophages (M2M ϕ) and T regulatory (Treg) cells proliferation through the generation of soluble biomolecules or cell-to-cell contact (58, 59). MSCs inhibit the activation of M1M ϕ mainly

by the secretion of IL-10 and suppression of the infiltration of antigen-presenting cells (APCs) (60). The expression of intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1) and vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1) is crucial for MSCs to induce immunomodulatory impact on T cells by potentiating the interfaces between MSCs and T cells (60).

A large number of reports have evidenced that MSC-derived secretome largely mediates the paracrine influences of MSCs. The antiinflammatory impacts of MSCs largely depend on a myriad of soluble mediators, including TGF- β 1, PGE2, hepatocyte growth factor (HGF), indoleamine-pyrrole 2, 3-dioxygenase (IDO), NO, COX-2 and IL-10 (58, 59, 61). In damaged tissue, IFN- γ , TNF- α , IL-1 α or IL-1 β provoke MSCs to generate COX-2, PGE2, and IDO and thus elicit anti-inflammatory effect (58). PGE2 inhibits T-cell growth (62) while IDO impairs immune cells proliferation and function through facilitating tryptophan breakdown (63). MSCs-produced NO also could alleviate immune cell growth through



Fig. 1. MSCs-mediated immunomodulation in cartilage disease therapy.

suppression of the STAT5 phosphorylation (64). The NO and NO-derived reactive nitrogen species also can interrelate with several enzymes, ion channels, and also receptors in immune cells, eventually impairing their activation (65).

The MSCs sources (66) and also target tissue (67) can affect the MSCs-mediated impacts on immune cells activity. In this light, the potential of AT-MSCs is more evident than BM-MSCs on the inhibiting the growth of peripheral PBMC and also monocytes differentiation to DCs (68). Also, chorionic plate-derived MSCs (CP-MSCs) are capable of secreting IL-2, IL-4, IL-13, and GM-CSF cytokines at higher levels compared to BM-MSCs and AT-MSCs (69). Besides, BM-MSCs have superiority over placenta-derived MSCs (PD-MSCs) in terms of the suppressing T cell activation, based on Fazekasova et al.'s reports (70). Taken together, there is worldwide consensus about the immunoregulatory impacts of MSCs. Nonetheless, more comprehensive investigations are essential to clarify the in depth biological mechanisms corresponding these influences.

PRECLINICAL STUDIES IN MSCS BASED APPROACHES RA

MSCs based therapies

During last decades, the therapeutic capacity of MSC is being investigated in RA (Table 1). In vitro, BM-MSCs could down-regulate secretion of the inflammatory cytokines, TNF-a, IL-17, IL-6, IL-2, IFN-y, and IL-9, by T cells isolated from patients suffering from RA (71). In contrast, BM-MSCs could promote the expression of IL-10 and TGF-β by both CD4+ as well as CD8+ T cells, thereby stimulation of the remarkable inhibitory impacts against RA patients-derived T cells. Importantly, BM-MSC-elicited immunoregulation could target naive, effector, and memory T cells (71). Also, MSCs could avert the differentiation of Tfh cell in RA patients largely by secreting IDO (72). Studies in collagen-induced arthritis (CIA) mice model of RA exhibited that MSCs transplantation inhibited arthritis development by the hindrance of both the Tfh cells number as well as action in vivo, thus indirectly affecting both proliferation and differentiation of B cells (72). Meanwhile, ERstressed MSC showed more prominent inhibitory effects on Tfh cells isolated from RA patients by promoting PGE2 binding with responding receptors on Tfh cells, known as EP1-4 (73).

The MSCs derived from RA patients usually

demonstrate the impaired capability to obstruct Th17 cell polarization (74). Further, the interaction of MSCs or fibroblast-like synoviocytes (FLS) isolated from patients with RA with T cells could promote Th17 cells' growth and activation by caspase 1 activation (74). Molecular studies revealed that deubiquitinating enzyme A20, a master regulator of arthritis, was reduced in RA patients' BM-MSCs and consequently led to the IL-6 secretion at higher levels, and thereby impaired balance of Th17/Treg (10). A20 typically attenuates inflammasome-induced arthritis by suppression of macrophage necroptosis and also down-regulated NF-kB pathways (75), thereby the influences of A20 on pro-inflammatory IL-6 generation is a potent target for MSCs transfer in RA adoptive therapy (10). However, human UC-MSCs suppressed the proliferation and induced apoptosis in Th17 cells in CIA mice. In addition, the intervention reduced transcription factors RORyt expression (largely expressed in Th17), improved the expression levels of Foxp3, and amplified the numbers of Tregs in the spleen (76). Also, UC-MSCs therapy reduced IL-17 and enhanced TGF-β expression in the serum. These events, in turn, enabled hindrance of RA progression, and also attenuated synovial hyperplasia in RA rats (76). Also, hUCB-MSCs could affect the polarization of macrophage and also modify the activation process of inflammasome for attenuating RA severity. Meanwhile, Shin et al (2016) found that hUCB-MSCs strikingly diminished the RA severity in CIA mice mainly through targeting macrophage action (77). In vitro, they found that hUCB-MSCs increased M2/M1 phenotype ratio by secretion of COX-2 and TNF-stimulated gene/protein 6 (TSG-6). Consistently, hUCB-MSCs suppressed the stimulation of nucleotide-binding domain and leucine-rich repeat pyrin 3 (NLRP3) inflammasome through a paracrine loop of IL-1 β signaling (77). The NLRP3 inflammasome is shown to involve in the IL-1 β and IL-18 maturation as well as release. It engages pro-caspase-1 by adapter molecule apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a caspase recruitment domain (ASC) to establish NLRP3 inflammasome following activation (78). Importantly, the fact that inhibition of NLRP3 results in down-regulation of the generation of TNF and IL-6 in RA joints has conferred the critical role of NLRP3 in RA pathogenesis (78).

Given the eminent role of NF- κ B in the expression of inflammatory response genes and

Model	Source	Results	Reference
Mice	BM	Reserve of inflammation by the hindrance of Th17 activation	(138)
Rat	BM	Down-regulation of RANKL expression, and IL-22 levels, supporting amelioration of bone destruction	(139)
Rat	UC	Suppression of T lymphocytes growth, downregulation of RORγt expression, inhibition of Th17 activation, and improving Treg cell population	(140)
Mice	BM	Attenuation of articular tissue inflammation as well as cartilage destruction by targeting IL-9 expression	(141)
Mice	Synovial	Inhibition of FLS proliferation and migration by down-regulation of MMP14 and VEGF	(90)
Mice	BM	Down-regulation of COMP, TIMP1, MMP1, IL-1R, TNF-α, MCP-1 levels following combination therapy with IL-4	(142)
Mice	BM	Attenuation of TNF-α levels by MSC-conditioned medium	(143)
Mice	BM	Regeneration of cartilage tissue	(144)
Mice	UC	Cartilage protection by inhibition of the Th17 cell activation	(145)
Mice	BM	Inhibition of the NG-ĸB activation, and thus suppressing inflammation	(146)
Mice	UC	Attenuation of disease progress by inhibition of the Tfh cells activation by secretion of the IDO	(147)
Mice	Gingival	Stimulation of T-cell apoptosis via the FasL/Fas pathway	(148)
Mice	AT	Suppression of RANKL-mediated osteoclastogenesis	(149)
Mice	ESC-MSC	Inhibition of inflammation by IDO secretion	(150)

Table 1. Animal studies based on MSCs based therapies for RA treatment

also adjustment of the cell cycle (79, 80), other studies have focused on MSCs' potent effects on NF-KB signaling pathways. Yan and colleagues (2016) found that BM-MSC transplantation could down-regulate the NF-kB axis and attenuate microRNA-548e (miR-548e) levels of CIA mice joints. Molecular analysis revealed that miR-548e acts as an inducer of NF-kB expression due to their competencies to down-regulate IkB expression (81). Besides, TGF- β secreted from BM-MSCs down-regulate miR-548e activity and consequently inhibited the NF-KB signaling axis. Accordingly, MSCs therapy could inhibit NF-κB-mediated inflammatory response in RA (81). In contrast to miR-548e, miR-146a, which is found at measurable levels in MSCs, inhibits FLS proliferation as well as inflammatory responses through the downregulation of the TLR4/NF-kB axis (82).

Recently, scientists have concentrated on finding novel methods or molecules to potentiate the favored effects of the MSCs therapy in RA (9, 83, 84). For instance, combination therapy with MSC and IL-4 could ameliorate the symptoms of synovitis in CIA mice by down-regulation of TNF- α , MCP-1, COMP, TIMP1, MMP-1, and IL-IR expression in vivo (83). As well, pre-treatment of MSCs with caffeine potentiated MSCs-mediated immunoregulation in RA rats as a result of down-regulation of IFN- γ , IL-6, and IL-1 β and

simultaneously up-regulation of IDO, TGF-β, and IL-10 expression (84). Pretreated-MSCs also exhibited superiority over naïve MSCs therapy in terms of the amelioration of RA severity. Also, they cause a profound reduction in serum levels of CRP, NO, Myeloperoxidase (MPO), and TNF-a, while enhancing IL-10 levels (84). Yamagata et al. (2019) also found that poly-lactic-co-glycolic acid (PLGA) and soluble IL-6R (sIL-6R) improved articular cartilage repairing with high efficacy (85). They, firstly, pre-treated BM-MSCs with sIL-6R to enhance their chondrogenic differentiation. Thereafter, pre-treated BM-MSCs were seeded on a PLGA sheet to improve their localization. The higher level of aggrecan along with symptoms of knee joint recovery was detected in antigeninduced arthritis (AIA) rats following implantation of PLGA containing BM-MSCs than direct use of BM-MSCs and thereby offering a promising approach to recovery of articular cartilage in RA patients (85). PLGA also could stimulate MSC differentiation into bone and cartilage (86). Also, the encapsulation of IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-RA) gene-modified MSCs in alginate-poly-L-lysine (APA) microcapsules with the aim to the prolonged delivery of IL-RA has been led to favorable outcomes (87). In vivo, the intervention led to the persistent delivery of IL-1RA up to 4 weeks posyimplantation, and also reduced RA severity (87).

Also, MSCs exposure with extremely-low frequency pulsed electromagnetic field (PEMF) improves their anti-inflammatory action, augment their differentiation to chondrocytes and osteocytes, and finally intensify collagen deposition, making them a more appropriate option for RA therapy (9).

MSCs secretome

Several reports and clinical results have evidenced the appreciated effects of MSCs in arthritis, whereas MSCs are capable of undergoing abnormal differentiation and thereby the creation of tumor. Also, aging phenomena fences partially application. Therefore, the medical MSCs application of MSCs secretome, such as extracellular vesicles (EVs), has attracted growing attention (88). Extracellular vesicles (EVs), including exosomes and microvesicles, are more efficient, less toxic, and steadier than the parental MSCs. As well, they divers types of nucleic acids (e.g., miRNAs), proteins, and lipids from MSCs cells to target cells, resulting eventually in the prohibiting chronic inflammatory and immune reactions (89).

Recent reports have indicated that desired events upon transplantation of MSCs-exosomes mainly rely on miRNA transportation by such EVs. The MSC-derived miR-150-5p exosomes was shown to restore joint damage in RA (90). In vitro, the miR-150-5p containing exosomes diminished migration and invasion in RA patient-derived derived FLS. In vivo, exosome therapy diminished hind paw thickness, ameliorated joint destruction by down-regulation of synoviocyte hyperplasia and angiogenesis in CIA mice. The favored effects were most probably caused by down-regulation of MMP-14 and VEGF by MSC-derived miR-150-5p exosomes, leading to suppressed angiogenesis and joint damage (90). Besides, in another study, MSCs were genetically modified to overexpress miR-146, a well-known immune response regulator (91). Exosomes derived from miR-146a-transduced MSC strongly enhanced FOX-P3, TGFB, and IL-10 gene expression in a rodent model of RA. Results implied that the modification of MSC-derived exosomes by anti-inflammatory miRNA could augment Treg cell frequency and also improve anti-inflammatory cytokines levels, providing a suitable milieu for damaged tissue recovery (91). Moreover, miR-320a enriched exosomes could target activation and migration of RA-FLSs by down-regulation of CXC chemokine ligand 9 (CXCL9). Indeed, miR-320a enriched exosome robustly inhibited RA-

FLS in vitro and also decreased arthritis and bone destruction in vivo (92). Thanks to the important role of CXCL9 in RA pathology; higher serum levels of CXCL9 are related to more severe RA, theses consequences signify that manipulation of MSCs can be an innovative potential therapeutic option to treat RA by enhancing miR-320a contents in MSCs-exosomes (92). In addition to miRNAs, Yu et al. (2021) exhibited that MSC-exosome could contribute to the intercellular transport of long non-coding RNA heart and neural crest derivatives expressed 2-antisense RNA 1 (HAND2-AS1) and thereby inhibited RA-FLSs proliferation, motility as well as inflammation by inactivation of NF-ĸB pathway (93). MSCs could also reduce RA progress by the transferring of IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1Ra), and thereby restraining of IL-1 induced inflammatory response (94). IL-1Ra as a member of the IL-1 family can typically make interactions with IL-1 receptors without exerting any intracellular signaling. Thereby, IL-1Ra enriched vesicles could be a rational option for inflammatory disease therapy (95).

PRECLINICAL STUDIES IN MSCS BASED APPROACHES OA

MSCs based therapies

Various reports have evaluated the effects of MSCs therapy in OA preclinical models (Table 2). Fernandez-Pernas and coworkers showed that intravenous and also intra-articular transplantation of human synovial-MSCs into OA monkeys could be safe and effective (96). Likewise, intra-articular transplantation of infrapatellar fat pad derived-MSCs led to a lower grade of cartilage damages, osteophyte establishment, and subchondral sclerosis in OA rabbits (97). The BM-MSCs therapy also in OA rat model significantly enhanced collagen II expressions, promoted cartilage repair, and finally impaired OA development 3-4 weeks post-transplantation (98). MSCs universally exhibit favored influences on OA by provoking the generation of ECM, enhancing chondrocyte proliferation also suppression of inflammatory reaction (99). Another study in a monosodium iodoacetate-induced temporomandibular joint (TMJ) rabbit model of OA displayed that UC-MSCs administration supported regenerative outcome and stimulated immunomodulatory influences by up-regulation of growth factors expression, ECM synthesis, improving anti-inflammatory cytokines levels, and finally via attenuation of

A. Hjazi et al. / Mesenchyma	l stem/stromal cells and their	exosomes as natural nano-particle
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Model	Source	Results	Reference
Rat	AT	Reduction of MMPs and CII degrading enzymes levels	(151)
Rat	Synovial	Suppression of OA progress miR-140-5p delivery	(152)
Rat	BM	Reduction of pain, improving the levels of anti-inflammatory cytokine levels, and induction of cartilage repair by TSG-6 delivery	(101)
Mouse	IPFP	Stimulation of cartilage recovery by suppression of mTOR-autophagy pathway	(111)
Monkey	Synovial membranes	MSCs efficient migration into OA joint	(96)
Mouse	NA	Reduction of pain in association with cartilage damage amelioration	(110)
Rat	Synovial	Promotion of the cartilage repair	(153)
Rabbit	BM	Stimulation of the cartilage regeneration by hyaluronan-based scaffold carrying BM-MSCs	(154)
Guinea pigs	Synovial	Stimulation of cartilage repair by hyaluronic acid hyaluronan-based scaffold carrying SMSCs	(155)
Horse	AT	No significant effect	(156)
Dogs	AT	Cartilage repair	(99)
Mouse	Synovial	Reduction of the MMPs and inflammatory cytokines levels following intraarticular injection	(157)
Rat	BM	Supporting subchondral bone and matrix homeostasis by normalizing the MMP-13 to TIMP-1 ratio	(158)
Mouse	NA	Reduction of the chondrocytes apoptosis up-regulation of GIT1 expression	(118)
Mouse	ESC-MSC	Provoking the CII synthesis and reducing the ADAMTS5	(159)
Rabbit	UC	Cartilage repair by enhancing the growth factors, ECM synthesis, and anti- inflammatory cytokines levels	(100)
Rabbit	IPFP	Inhibition of cartilage destruction, osteophyte formation, and subchondral sclerosis	(97)
Horse	NA	Improving the CII and TGF- β 1 levels concomitant with reduction of COX-2 and IL-1 β levels in joints	(160)
Sheep	BM	Improving the aggrecan and CII levels in association with attenuation of MMP-13 expression	(161)

the levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such TNF- α , IL-1 β , and IL-6 (100). Thereby, it seems that MSCs not only trigger chondrogenesis but also provoke chondroprotection processes. Consistently, up-regulation of expression of TSG-6, a well-recognized anti-inflammatory and cartilage protective molecules, following MSCs therapy delivered the proof of the concepts that MSCs induce a chondroprotective effect in vivo (101).

Due to the inductive roles of ADAMTS5 in OA progression (102), scientists have focused on finding therapeutic modalities to avert its activity. Expression and activation of ADAMTS5 with robust aggrecan-degrading activity have previously been suggested as a negative factor in OA therapy (103). The suppressive effect of the MSCs on ADMATS5 expression and action has sustained the reasonability of MSCs therapy to treat arthritis. Recently, the study of the effects of the MSCs' intra-articular administration in OA rat models showed that intervention brought about the down-regulation of ADAMTS5 expression in joint cartilage in treated animals (101). MSCs also reduced ADAMTS-5, MMP13, and iNOS expression in human chondrocytes in vitro, based on Xian et al. (2015) reports (104).

In 2018, Barrachina et al. showed that BM-MSCs primed with TNF-a and IFN-y improved collagen type II and TGF-β1 levels and conversely reduced COX-2 and IL-1ß levels in the synovium of transplanted OA animal models (105). Moreover, administration of UC-MSCs loaded with graphene oxide (GO) granular lubricant elicited therapeutic influences by stimulation of anti-inflammatory effect in OA rabbit models (106). UC-MSCs loaded with GO was more effective than UC-MSCs alone in terms of suppression of NO, IL-6, and TNF-a levels, and also improving glycosaminoglycan (GAG), and collagen-II in the articular cavity in transplanted animals (106). These changes, in turn, suppress the inflammatory environment and thus potentiate cartilage repair. In another study, photobiomodulation therapy (PBMT) augmented the bioavailability and chondroprotective effects

of AT-MSCs injected into the knees of rats with OA (107). Moreover, rats receiving PBMT plus AT-MSCs experienced down-regulated expression of the pro-inflammatory cytokine, MMPs, and also attenuated degradation of type II collagen in their cartilage compared with rats receiving AT-MSCs alone (107). Other reports also revealed that implantation of hyaluronan-based scaffold (Hyaff11) seeded with BM-MSCs could support more appreciated outcomes for OA therapy (108). A significant amelioration was achieved in terms of regenerated tissue between scaffolds carrying MSCs and scaffold or MSCs alone in vivo, As well, collagen-based scaffold carrying chondroprogenitor cells derived from human BM-MSCs enabled the formation of cartilage-like tissue with lacuna in OA animal model 4 months posttransplantation, conferring their potential as an effective treatment plan for OA (109).

MSCs secretome

The intra-articular administration of MSCs secretome was shown to attenuate pain and avert cartilage damages in OA murine model by various mechanisms (110). Wu et al. found that MSCsexosome reduced the severity of OA in vivo and also suppressed cell apoptosis, improved matrix generation, and decreased the catabolic factor expression in vitro (111). As well, MSCs-exosome also elevated autophagy levels in chondrocytes through down-regulation of mTOR. Further analysis showed that miR-100-5p composition in such exosomes inhibits the expression of mTOR protein by binding to mTOR 3'UTR and thereby inhibiting of mTOR signaling axis. MSCs-exosome ameliorated OA-related abnormalities through the supporting cartilage homeostasis (111). Also, MSCs derived exosomes could maintain the chondrocyte phenotype upon promotion of the collagen type II synthesis concomitant with ADAMTS5 expression, leading to alleviated cartilage destruction in vivo (112). Owing to the fact that ADAMTS5 is the main aggrecanase complicated in the pathogenesis of OA and also stimulates articular cartilage destruction and matrix degeneration, its inhibition by exosome can be reasonable and effective therapeutic modalities in OA (112). Also, WNT5A is recognized to be contributed to OA pathogenesis. In a recent report, miR-92a-3p enriched MSCs-exosome suppressed WNT5A expression in OA primary human chondrocytes (PHCs) in vitro (113). These exosomes also upregulated matrix genes expression in PHCs and also improved their proliferation in vitro, and also attenuated cartilage destruction in the OA rodent model (113). This study in association with other reports has outlined the significance of exosomal miRNAs in ameliorating OA-related abnormalities in vivo. Likewise, human BMSC-derived exosomes overexpressing miR-26a-5p alleviated cartilage breakdown in the OA rat model by downregulation of the expression of prostaglandinendoperoxide synthase-2 (PTGS2), which is highly expressed in OA patients (114). PTGS2 activation typically underlies the production of PGD2 and subsequently stimulates neutrophil recruitment into the synovium of arthritis patients (115). Thereby, targeting PTGS2 by miR-26a-5p largely could inhibit synovial fibroblasts damages and results eventually in cartilage restoration. Similarly, the anti-inflammatory and chondroprotective impacts of MSC-derived exosomal miR-9-5p on OA by down-regulation of SDC1 expression were shown by and coworkers (116). Previous studies reported that G-protein-coupled receptor kinase interacting protein-1 (GIT1)-elicited mitogenic signals in chondrocytes by transducing ERK1/2 pathway lead to chondrocyte proliferation, and thereby upregulation of its activation can reduce OA associated damages (117). Interestingly, lncRNA-KLF3-AS1 enriched human MSCs-exosome was found to trigger chondrocyte proliferation by sponging miR-206 to ease GIT1 expression, which in turn, brought about promoting chondrocyte growth and suppressing their apoptosis (118). Silencing of Y box binding protein 1 (YBX1) prevented MSCexosome-mediated KLF3-AS1 from activating the PI3K/Akt/mTOR pathway in chondrocytes. Chondrocyte autophagy and apoptosis were suppressed by MSC-exosome-mediated KLF3-AS1 through stimulating the PI3K/Akt/mTOR pathway. Our findings show that IL-1-treated chondrocyte autophagy and apoptosis are inhibited by MSCexosome-mediated KLF3-AS1 via the PI3K/Akt/ mTOR signaling pathway. KLF3-AS1 targets YBX1 to engage the PI3K/Akt/mTOR axis and slow the development of osteoarthritis (119).

Currently, Wang et al. (2018) showed that TGF- β 1 stimulation improved miR-135b expression in MSC-exosome (120). Thereafter, miR-135b decreased Sp1 expression, leading to induced chondrocyte proliferation and resultant cartilage rapier (120). MSCs pretreatment with kartogenin, an inducing factor of MSCs into

chondrocytes, also could potentiate MSCsexosome capacity to enable stronger chondral matrix formation and less degradation (121, 122). By inhibiting the WNT-beta-catenin signaling pathway, MSC-derived exosome also reduced OAinduced chondrocyte senescence and synovial fibrosis in both in vivo and in vitro models. The miR-376c-3p in MSCs-exosome was also shown to reduce OA-induced chondrocyte breakdown and synovial fibrosis, according to the in vivo tests. By targeting WNT3 or WNT9a, MiR-376c-3p in exosomes inhibited OA's induction of chondrocyte degeneration and synovial fibrosis. This provided a theoretical foundation for the clinical application of treatment (123).

CLINICAL TRIALS

Promising preclinical results have encouraged researchers to evaluate the safety and efficacy of MSCs application in the clinic. Meanwhile, a phase I open-label trial verified the safety of systemic administration of 5×10^7 - 1×10^8 cells of hUCB-MSCs during 4 weeks follow-up (124). Also, the intervention reduced serum erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR), 1β, IL-6, IL-8, and TNF-α levels more strongly in 1×10^8 cells of hUCB-MSCs, justifying their application in RA patients (124). Also, systemic transplantation of autologous BM-MSCs $(1 \times 10^6 / \text{kg})$ led to up-regulation of the FOXP3 expression in PBMCs (125). Moreover, reduced levels of IL-10 and TGF-B1 levels indicated the suppressive influences of autologous BM-MSCs on Tregs in refractory RA patients (125). On the other hand, a single systemic administration of autologous BM-MSCs reduces the Th17 percentage in 9 patients with RA (126). The intervention also reduced ESR and visual analog scale (VAS) scores with no effect on CRP and anti-CCP levels. In sum, the clinical signs were considerably ameliorated following administration of the autologous BM-MSCs to RA patients (126). Cervus and Cucumis peptides (Lugua polypeptides, LG) as a traditional Chinese medicine showed synergistic effect with UC-MSCs in RA patients. A study in 119 patients suffering from RA demonstrated that LG could induce UC-MSCs to secret higher levels of antiinflammatory molecules (127). In addition to the intravenous injection, another trial also exhibited that intra-articular knee implantation of MSCs was safe and well-tolerated (128).

OA

Like RA, clinical results have approved the feasibility, safety, modest efficacy of MSCs in knee OA. Meanwhile, Matas et al. showed that UC-MSCs (20×10^6) injection had no untoward effect while reducing pain in OA patients (129). It has been suggested that the maximum impacts of hUC-MSCs are obtained after 6 months of transplantation (130). Besides, intra-articular transplantation of autologous AT-MSCs (1×10^8) in 18 patients reduced the size of the cartilage defect and also enhanced cartilage volume with thick, hyaline-like cartilage (131). Intervention, in fact, restored function and reduced pain of the knee joint with no unwanted effects, conferring their capacity for OA therapy (131). The intra-articular administration of BM-MSCs also ameliorated OA outcomes, as evidenced by alteration in KOOS and ROM, which are typically used to assess disability and pain (132). As well, it was found that combination therapy with single intraarticular application of autologous BM- MSCs and hyaluronic acid ameliorated functional of knee OA in patients more evidently than direct implantation of BM-MSCs (133). Of course, patients receiving BM-MSCs also experienced amelioration clinically concerning the WOMAC (133). As predicted, reduction of synovial inflammation and cartilage degradation play central roles in BM-MSCmediated amelioration in the function of knee OA post-transplantation (134). As well, BM-MSCs therapy plus microfracture and medial openingwedge high tibial osteotomy (HTO) was found that exhibit better therapeutic outcomes in OA patients, as evidenced by promoting both short-term clinical and MOCART outcomes in treated patients (135). Another trial in 60 patients also indicated that injection of BM-MSCs in the subchondral bone of an OA knee has superiority over intra-articular implantation to delay total knee arthroplasty (TKA) (136, 137).

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE DIRECTION

Many investigations with various animal models of orthopedic diseases, more frequently, OA and RA, have verified the capability of MSCs to exert favored effects in vivo. These effects are most probably elicited by MSCs competence to reduce inflammatory reaction and also stimulate immunomodulation by the release of a myriad of cytokine and other molecules. In fact, the

paracrine action of MSCs is the chief mechanism, which contributes to tissue repair following MSCs implantation. Notwithstanding, the desirable influences MSCs are usually unstable partly as a result of their heterogeneity. Thereby, clarification of the heterogeneity of MSCs in detail and the capacity of various types of MSCs for cartilage recovery can ease choosing better MSCs for cartilage regeneration. The intravenous and intraarticular route is the most commonly used route for MSCs delivery in clinical trials; however, the optimal route, as well as the optimal dose of cell transplantation, is still to be defined. Moreover, the conduction of large-scale studies is urgently required to elucidate the disadvantages of MSCs therapy. For instance, recruitment of neutrophil to knee joints, as shown upon MSCs impanation, was suggested that might harm cartilage regeneration. Then, further experiments are needed to verify the long-term safety of MSCs in addition to their efficacy. Due to that only a few cells survived in the place of transplantation, finding novel approaches to promote their viability post-transplantation is of paramount importance. Also, given that the quality of the human MSC product relies on the isolation and cultivation technique, the optimum isolation and culture method must be determined. Finally, considering risk factors such as immunological response and also infections following transplantation of allogeneic MSCs is necessary.

Moreover, it has been demonstrated that an essential component of MSC-based treatment for arthritis involves trophic substances encapsulated extracellular vesicles (EVs), particularly in exosomes. Exosomes produced from various MSC sources are clearly capable of protecting various joint cell types and rescuing the arthritis phenotype by focusing on numerous biological processes linked to cartilage ECM breakdown. Despite this development, arthritis exosome treatment studies have shown contradictory results depending on the exosome payload, cell source, and clinical status. These encouraging results imply that stem cell therapy may not be necessary and that therapeutic exosomes may be a new treatment option for arthritis patients. In order to reduce arthritis symptoms and possibly repair the damage to joints caused by arthritis, the development of therapeutic exosomes that target the condition promises to get around the limitations of current arthritis medications. Sadly, earlier research was mostly

conducted in small animal models and at the preclinical stage. Exosome adoption as a cell-free biological product may be hampered in the future by the absence of extensive arthritis animal models and clinical studies. The development of smart therapeutic exosomes for osteoarthritis clinics will require the creation of inventive methods to modify drug exomes and deliver specific ones.

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