

Pathogenesis of Joint Destruction in Rheumatoid Arthritis

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Abstract Synovial mesenchymal cells, matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), and osteoclasts are the three major players directly responsible for the pathogenesis of rheumatoid joint destruction. First, synovial mesenchymal cells, internally driven by a transcription factor c-Fos/AP-1, not only directly invade cartilage and bone as a granulation tissue called “pannus” but also release inflammatory cytokine interleukin (IL)-1 β . IL-1 β induces MMPs and activates osteoclasts. Synovial cells can also present antigen to T cells to drive antigen-specific immune responses. Second, cartilaginous joint matrix can only be degraded after the first attack of collagen fibrils by MMPs, and importantly, most of the MMPs are under the control of c-Fos/AP-1 and IL-1 β as well. Third, differentiation of osteoclast is driven internally by NFATc1, where NFATc1 is under the control of TRAF6, c-Fos/AP-1 and osteoclastogenic signaling complex. IL-1 β has been shown to induce osteoclastogenesis directly and also indirectly via signaling through RANKL. Therefore, IL-1 β and c-Fos/AP-1 influence each other’s gene expression and activity, resulting in an orchestrated cross-talk that is crucial to

arthritic joint destruction, and thus, blockade of IL-1 β and/or c-Fos/AP-1 can be most promising as a therapeutic target, and in fact, a selective inhibition of c-Fos/AP-1 does resolve arthritic joint destruction.

Keywords Rheumatoid arthritis · Joint destruction · c-Fos · c-Fos/AP-1 · IL-1 β

Introduction

Joint destruction is largely responsible for limiting the activity of daily living of patients with rheumatoid arthritis (RA). We here focus our discussion on the mediators that directly cause joint destruction. Few reviews are available focusing on the mediators of joint destruction while extensive discussions are made on the roles of inflammatory cytokines in RA (Shiozawa and Tsumiyama 2009). The direct mediators of joint destruction are synovial mesenchymal cells, matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) and osteoclasts: synovial mesenchymal cells directly invade cartilage and bone as a granulation tissue called pannus (Shiozawa et al. 1983a); MMPs directly destroy joint matrix from the surface of cartilage (Kimura et al. 1977) since cartilaginous matrix can only be degraded after the first attack of collagen fibrils by MMP (Pap et al. 2002); osteoclasts induce peri-articular osteoporosis which is an important early manifestation characterising RA (Shimizu et al. 1985) (Fig. 1, schematic representation of the main pathways described in this review).

Synovial Mesenchymal Cell

Normal synovium is composed of one layer of the two types of synovial lining cells with mesenchymal characteristic called

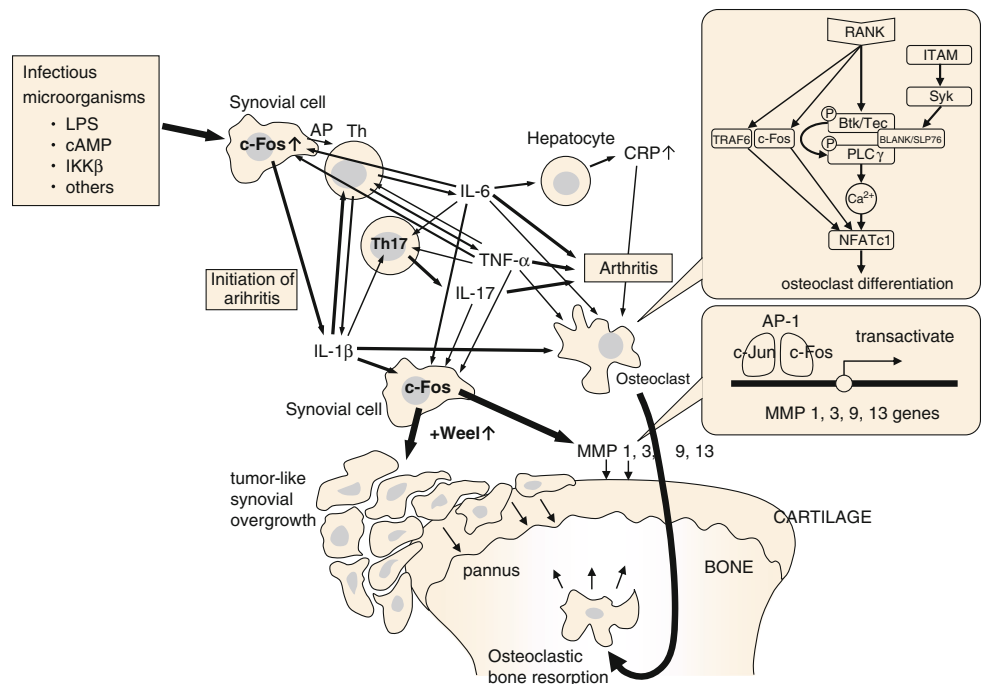
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Fig. 1 Synovial cells not only present antigen to T cells (AP) and evoke/aggravate arthritis but also destruct joints as a granulation tissue called pannus. Up-regulation of Wee 1 kinase in conjunction with c-Fos within synovial cell results in a “tumor-like” overgrowth, i.e., proliferation in face of mitosis-arrest, of rheumatoid synovium. c-Fos/AP-1 also transactivates matrix metalloproteinase (MMP) genes and thereby mediating the degradation of cartilage and bone matrices. Further, c-Fos/AP-1 is an important component of the intracellular signalling pathways mediating the effect of interleukin (IL)-1 β in osteoclasts. IL-1 β is the strongest stimulator of osteoclastic bone resorption



fibroblast-like (type B) and macrophage-like (type A) (Barland et al. 1962; Shiozawa et al. 1992; Shiozawa and Tokuhisa 1992), and a small number of sublining interstitial cells and blood vessels. Synovial fibroblast-like cells degrade cartilaginous matrix as ‘pannus’ by clinging tightly to the articular surface of cartilage and penetrating deep into cartilage and bone from the bare area between the margin of cartilage and synovial insertion by changing their shape into macrophage-like cells (Kuroki et al. 1993; Shiozawa et al. 1983a; Shiozawa et al. 1992). Importantly, it is noted that the invasive front of rheumatoid pannus is solely composed of the above described synovial mesenchymal cells, but not lymphocytes (Shiozawa et al. 1983a, 1992). Lymphocytes appear somewhat later after the establishment of small blood vessels at cartilage-pannus junction (Shiozawa et al. 1983a).

Such synovial mesenchymal cells are internally driven by up-regulated c-Fos/AP-1 in RA and release interleukin (IL)-1 β , an inflammatory cytokine that is *sine qua none* for joint destruction (Asahara et al. 1997; Kawasaki et al. 2003; Kuroki et al. 1993; Shimizu et al. 2000; Shiozawa et al. 1992; Shiozawa and Tokuhisa 1992; Trabandt et al. 1992). Up-regulated c-Fos/AP-1 causes synovial overgrowth (Kawasaki et al. 2003; Shiozawa and Tokuhisa 1992) and osteoporosis (Kuroki et al. 1992; Miyauchi et al. 1994) both typical of RA. Inhibition of c-Fos/AP-1 not only ameliorates arthritis (Shiozawa et al. 1997) but also perfectly resolves arthritic joint destruction (Aikawa et al. 2008). Recent studies show that c-Fos/AP-1 can be so easily up-regulated in response to cAMP, IKK β and bacterial lipopolysaccharide (Koga et al. 2009), which

indicates that c-Fos/AP-1 and IL-1 β both can be quickly activated upon encounter with invasive antigen. c-Fos/AP-1 and IL-1 β influence each other’s gene expression and activity, resulting in an orchestrated cross-talk that is crucial to arthritic joint destruction (Dayer 2003; Hess et al. 2001; Joosten 2010; Karin et al. 1997; Scott and Kingsley 2006; Sirum-Connolly and Brinckerhoff 1991; Sun et al. 2002; Whitmarsh et al. 1995). Both c-Fos/AP-1 and IL-1 β are indeed indispensable for arthritic joint destruction (Aikawa et al. 2008; Asahara et al. 1997; Dayer 2003; Horai et al. 2000; Joosten et al. 1999; Kawasaki et al. 2003; Kobayashi et al. 2000; Kuroki et al. 1992; Miyauchi et al. 1994; Probert et al. 1995; Redlich et al. 2002; Shimizu et al. 2000; Shiozawa et al. 1997; Teitelbaum 2004; Trabandt et al. 1992; van den Berg 2002). Invasiveness of rheumatoid synovial mesenchymal cells is far stronger than those of osteoarthritis (Tolboom et al. 2005).

Synovial mesenchymal cells are important not only for arthritic joint destruction but also for the induction of arthritis. Studies have shown that synovial mesenchymal cells can present antigen to T cells (Athanasou et al. 1988; Klareskog et al. 1982; Poulter et al. 1982; Shimizu et al. 1988; Shiozawa et al. 1983b; Tran et al. 2007); the cells behave just as follicular dendritic cells of lymph node and drive B cells to mature into antibody secreting cells (Lindhout et al. 1999; Shimizu et al. 1988; Tiku et al. 1985). Because most intravenously injected antigens reach and pass through the joint space and thus have access to the synovial cells (Schumacher 1973), abnormalities in the recognition of antigens reaching synovium may modify the sequelae of arthritis significantly.

The overgrowth of rheumatoid synovial cells has long been regarded as “tumor-like”: the synovial cell with “transforming” appearance containing abundant cytoplasm, large pale nuclei and prominent nucleoli with karyotypic alteration are typical of affected rheumatoid joints and are seen in the experimental animal models of arthritis (Fassbender 1984; Shiozawa et al. 1983a, 1992). This tumor-like overgrowth of rheumatoid synovium comes from up-regulated Wee1 kinase that inhibits mitotic cell division by phosphorylating cdc2 (Kawasaki et al. 2003). Wee1 is transactivated directly by up-regulated c-Fos/AP-1 in RA (Kawasaki et al. 2001, 2003). Up-regulated c-Fos/AP-1 and subsequent increase of Wee1 lead to arrested mitotic cell division in face of heightened cell proliferation, which is the characteristic “tumor-like” overgrowth of rheumatoid synovia (Fassbender 1975). The findings together would highlight the importance of synovial mesenchymal cell and its internal driving force c-Fos/AP-1 and of the inflammatory cytokine IL-1 β released from synovial mesenchymal cells.

MMP

How to stop the degradation of bone and cartilage, i.e., to control MMP, has long been the central issue in the research of RA, because collagenous matrix can only be degraded after the first attack of collagen fibrils by MMP (Burrage et al. 2006; Milner et al. 2008). Regulated degradation of extra-cellular matrix by the balance between matrix-degrading MMPs and their physiologic inhibitor TIMPs (tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases) is essentially important in life not only in the joints but also even the integrity of central nervous system (Beggs and Salter 2008; Chakraborti et al. 2003; Yan and Boyd 2007). TIMP inhibits MMP by binding non-covalently to its enzymatically active site with 1:1 stoichiometry (Murphy and Willenbrock 1995). Its conserved tertiary structure predicts that any subtypes of TIMP can inhibit most of MMPs (Will et al. 1996), however, MMPs are active in rheumatoid joints because the amount of MMP exceeds approximately $\times 44$ that of TIMPs in RA (Okada 2000; Yoshihara et al. 2000).

Matrix-degrading MMP1 and MMP3 are synthesized in synovial lining cells, MMP2 in sublining cells, MMP9 in both lining and sublining cells, and TIMP1, 2 and 3 in synovial tissues (Ahrens et al. 1996; Hembry et al. 1995; Okada et al. 1989; Okada et al. 1990; Pap et al. 2000). MMPs are up-regulated by inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1 β or tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α (Burrage et al. 2006), and indeed, most of the collagenases named MMP1, 8 and 13, gelatinases named MMP2 and 9, stromelysins named MMP3, 10 and 11, matrilysins named MMP7 and

26, and membrane type MMPs named MMP14, 15, 16, 17, 24 and 25 (re-named as MT1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6, respectively) are all significantly increased in arthritic joints (Burrage et al. 2006). The collagenases such as MMP1 produced from synovial cells and MMP13 produced from chondrocytes are most important in RA as a rate limiting enzyme that degrades collagenous matrix (Burrage et al. 2006). MMP13 degrades aggrecan in addition to collagen. Gelatinases MMP2 and MMP9 and stromelysin MMP3 degrade non-collagen matrix components in the joints. Among membrane type MMPs, MT1-MMP is most important in RA (Okada 2000; Pap et al. 2000). Another enzymes called ADAMTSs (a disintegrin and metalloproteinase with thrombospondin motifs) mostly degrades aggrecans, and in particular, ADAMTS4 and 5 are responsible for the cleavage of aggrecan in RA (Lohmander et al. 1993; Porter et al. 2004). The ADAM family comprises ~ 23 members, and is classified according to their enzymatically active sites into ADAM metalloproteinases with transmembrane domain (ADAM1, 8, 10, 12, 13, 15, 17, 19 and 20), ADAMs with thrombospondin motifs (ADAMTS1, 2, 3, 4 and 5), and other inactive nonproteolytic homologues (Table 2 of Okada 2000). ADAM17 acts as TNF- α -converting enzyme and cleaves proTNF- α to release soluble TNF- α .

The activity of MMPs is mainly regulated at the levels of transcription of genes or enzymatic activation of latent enzymes. The transactivation of MMP gene is controlled by the transcription factors such as AP-1, PEA3, Sp-1, β -catenin/Tcf-4 and NF- κ B (Yan and Boyd 2007). The majority of MMP promoters, including MMP1, 3, 9, and 13 that are important in arthritis, contains a TATA box at approximately -30 bp and an AP-1 binding site at approximately -70 bp relative to the transcription start point (Chakraborti et al. 2003; Yan and Boyd 2007). Most of the AP-1 sites contain an upstream PEA3-binding site that is often adjacent to, and cooperative with, an AP-1 binding site. Increased transactivation of MMP genes by AP-1 or PEA3 is achieved largely through mitogen-activated protein kinases-mediated phosphorylation, but activated p38 kinases also increase the cellular amount of AP-1 protein indirectly by transactivating *c-jun* and *c-fos* genes (Chakraborti et al. 2003; Yan and Boyd 2007). Thus, c-Fos/AP-1 protein is evidently important in the regulation of MMPs (Asahara et al. 1997; Aikawa et al. 2008; Chakraborti et al. 2003; Kawasaki et al. 2003; Koga et al. 2009; Kuroki et al. 1992, 1993; Miyauchi et al. 1994; Shimizu et al. 2000; Shiozawa et al. 1992; Shiozawa and Tokuhisa 1992; Shiozawa et al. 1997; Trabandt et al. 1992).

c-Fos/AP-1 controls the expression of the inflammatory cytokines and matrix-degrading MMPs, such as MMP1, 3, 9 and 13, important in arthritis via promoter AP-1 binding

motif (Angel et al. 1987; Angel and Karin 1991; Burrage et al. 2006; Schonthal et al. 1988; Gutman and Waslyk 1990; Hess et al. 2001; Karin et al. 1997; Sirum-Connolly and Brinckerhoff 1991; Sun et al. 2002; Yan and Boyd 2007). Importantly, a selective inhibitor of c-Fos/AP-1 designed and synthesized using 3D pharmacophore modeling based on the crystal structure of the AP-1-DNA complex to inhibit c-Fos/c-Jun heterodimer (Aikawa et al. 2008) inhibits most of the matrix-degrading MMPs, including MMP3, 9 and 13, in a direct fashion. This inhibitor also primarily inhibits IL-1 β . While specific inhibition of individual MMPs, such as MMP3, cannot ameliorate collagen-induced arthritis (CIA) possibly owing to compensation by another MMP (Mudgett et al. 1998), broad-spectrum MMP inhibition does successfully reduce clinical severity and perfectly inhibits arthritic joint destruction (Aikawa et al. 2008), which is consistent with the fact that cartilaginous matrix can be readily degraded if two or more MMPs act in concert (Okada 2000).

In conjunction with c-Fos/AP-1, IL-1 β is the most important inducer of a variety of MMPs including MMP1, 3, 8, 13 and 14 among inflammatory cytokines (Dayer 2003; Dayer et al. 1985; Gravallese and Goldring 2000; van de Loo and van den Berg 1990; van den Berg 2001; Schett et al. 2008). IL-1 β degrades cartilaginous matrix most strongly (Henderson and Pettipher 1989; Schett et al. 2008; van de Loo and van den Berg 1990) and vice versa, MMPs cleave IL-1 β into its active forms (Kawasaki et al. 2008). Time course studies in animal experiment show that IL-1 β , IL-6 and MMP-3 are initially increased in arthritis (Aikawa et al. 2008; Garnero et al. 2010), and IL-6, and possibly TNF- α , appears activated subsequent to IL-1 β in CIA and human synovial cells (Horai et al. 2000; Joosten et al. 1999; Thornton et al. 1999; van de Loo and van den Berg 1990; van den Berg 2002). IL-1 β is increased in sera, synovia and joints of patients with RA (Chikanza et al. 1995; Kahle et al. 1992; Koch et al. 1992), and serum levels of IL-1 β correlate with its disease severity (Eastgate et al. 1988; Rooney et al. 1990). There are additive effects on the induction of MMPs between IL-1 β and other cytokines or growth factors including TNF- α , oncostatin M, FGF and PDGF (Schett et al. 2008). Cartilage damage is fully dependent, even in TNF-triggered arthritis, on IL-1 (van de Loo and van den Berg 1990). IL-1 β is 100-fold potent than TNF- α in inducing cartilage destruction in vivo, where IL-1 β can act synergistically with TNF- α (Henderson and Pettipher 1989; van de Loo and van den Berg 1990), suggesting that IL-1 is a key link between synovitis and cartilage breakdown.

In contrast, NF- κ B indirectly controls MMP1, 3, and 13 by up-regulating the expression of inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1 β , TNF- α and IL-6 (Bondeson et al. 1999; Jimenez et al. 1999; Mengshol et al. 2001; van den Steen

et al. 2002; Vincenti et al. 1998), since functional NF- κ B binding sites are absent within the promoters of MMPs except for the promoter –600 bp of human MMP9 which renders MMP9 gene responsive to TNF- α (Chakraborti et al. 2003; Schett et al. 2008; Yan and Boyd 2007).

Osteoclast

Osteoclastic bone resorption is characteristically seen very early in the disease at the peri-articular areas of the bone of patients with RA (Shimizu et al. 1985; Shiozawa and Kuroki 1994), and can be a very early sign of RA clinically. Molecular studies show that differentiation of osteoclast is facilitated in four ways (Takayanagi 2007; Theill et al. 2002; Walsh et al. 2006). First, RANKL (receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B ligand) binding to RANK activates TRAF6 (TNF receptor-associated factor 6) to stimulate NFATc1 (nuclear factor of activated T cells c1) to differentiate Osteoclasts. Second, RANKL activates c-Fos/AP-1 to stimulate NFATc1 to promote osteoclast differentiation. Third, RANKL phosphorylates Btk/Tek kinase which subsequently phosphorylates PLC γ . Fourth, membrane ITAM (immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation motif) phosphorylation recruits Syk, leading to the activation of adaptor proteins including BLNK/SLP76, which functions as a scaffold that recruit both Btk/Tec and PLC γ to form osteoclastogenic signaling complex thereby increasing cellular calcium (Shinohara et al. 2008; Takayanagi 2007). This complex is crucial for efficient activation of calcium signaling required for the induction and activation of NFATc1, the key transcription factor for osteoclast differentiation (Koga et al. 2004).

Osteoclastic bone resorption takes place at osteoclast-matrix junction under acidic and hypercalcemic condition (Delaisse and Vaes 1992; Okada 2000). Because of collagenolytic activity with a broad pH optimum and selective expression in osteoclasts, a cysteine proteinase cathepsin K plays a key role in bone resorption. However, cathepsin K may not be the sole agent responsible for bone resorption and MMP9 could also be involved in this process. MMP9 is strongly expressed in the osteoclasts of rheumatoid patients, and has telopeptidase activity against soluble and insoluble type I collagen, and strong gelatinolytic activity. ProMMP9 is activated by acid exposure followed by neutralization, and once activated it is proteolytically active under acidic and hypercalcemic condition. Disruption of cathepsin K signaling results in defective TLR9 signaling in dendritic cells in response to unmethylated CpG DNA, which in turn leads to attenuated induction of T helper 17 cells, indicating an important role of cathepsin K in immune response to antigen (Asagiri et al. 2008; Okada et al. 1995).

While TNF- α inhibits bone formation via Dickkopf-1 and could also contribute to osteoclastic bone resorption via RANKL pathway (Ray et al. 2005; Reunanan et al. 2002; Walsh et al. 2006; Yan and Boyd 2007), TNF- α cannot differentiate osteoclasts directly and helps M-CSF- or RANKL-induced osteoclastogenesis (van de Loo and van den Berg 1990). Instead, IL-1 β facilitates osteoclast formation and significantly enhance RANKL-induced osteoclastogenesis (Jiang et al. 2000; Shiozawa and Kuroki 1994; Zwerina et al. 2007). A total lack of chronic erosive arthritis is noted in IL-1 β -deficient mice (Gravallese and Goldring 2000), and even the arthritic joint destruction of TNF- α transgenic mice can be totally inhibited by anti-IL-1 receptor antibody in face of still increased serum TNF- α (Probert et al. 1995). Arthritis in IL-1ra-deficient mice is indeed highly progressive (Horai et al. 2000). Synovial mesenchymal cells, internally driven by up-regulated c-Fos/AP-1, release this IL-1 β (Aikawa et al. 2008; Shiozawa et al. 1992; Shiozawa and Tokuhisa 1992). Arthritic joint destruction can be perfectly resolved by the use of a specific small-molecule inhibitor of c-Fos/AP-1 designed and synthesized using 3D pharmacophore modeling based on the crystal structure of the AP-1-DNA complex (Aikawa et al. 2008).

Conclusion

A controversy exists regarding the importance of mesenchymal synovial cell and/or lymphocyte in the pathogenesis of RA. It is clear that synovial mesenchymal cells are responsible for joint destruction, while T cell-centered immunity is also important with regards to the response against triggering antigen. However, synovial mesenchymal cells, internally driven by a transcription factor c-Fos/AP-1, have been shown to be important not only for the degradation of cartilage and bone but also for antigen-specific immune response and cytokine release, in particular IL-1 β . Synovial mesenchymal cells act in the initiation phase and the final stage of arthritis, i.e., arthritic joint destruction, and the mediators operated in the joints such as c-Fos/AP-1 and IL-1 β drive osteoclast and act in concert with osteoclasts to facilitate joint destruction.

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