

Chondrogenic differentiation of growth factor-stimulated precursor cells in cartilage repair tissue is associated with increased HIF-1 α activity

K. Gelse M.D.^{††*}, C. Mühle Dip|Biochem§||, K. Knaup Ph.D.§, B. Swoboda M.D.†, M. Wiesener M.D., Ph.D.§, F. Hennig M.D.†, A. Olk M.D.† and H. Schneider M.D.§||

[†] Department of Trauma Surgery, University Hospital Erlangen, Germany

[‡] Division of Orthopedic Rheumatology, University of Erlangen-Nuernberg, Germany

[§] Interdisciplinary Center for Clinical Research, University Hospital Erlangen, Germany

^{||} Department of Pediatrics, Medical University of Innsbruck, Austria

Summary

Objective: To investigate the chondrogenic potential of growth factor-stimulated periosteal cells with respect to the activity of Hypoxia-inducible Factor 1 α (HIF-1 α).

Methods: Scaffold-bound autologous periosteal cells, which had been activated by Insulin-like Growth Factor 1 (IGF-1) or Bone Morphogenetic Protein 2 (BMP-2) gene transfer using both adeno-associated virus (AAV) and adenoviral (Ad) vectors, were applied to chondral lesions in the knee joints of miniature pigs. Six weeks after transplantation, the repair tissues were investigated for collagen type I and type II content as well as for HIF-1 α expression. The functional role of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K)/mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) and mitogen-activated protein kinase (MEK)/extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) signaling on BMP-2/IGF-1-induced HIF-1 α expression was assessed *in vitro* by employing specific inhibitors.

Results: Unstimulated periosteal cells formed a fibrous extracellular matrix in the superficial zone and a fibrocartilaginous matrix in deep zones of the repair tissue. This zonal difference was reflected by the absence of HIF-1 α staining in superficial areas, but moderate HIF-1 α expression in deep zones. In contrast, Ad/AAVBMP-2-stimulated periosteal cells, and to a lesser degree Ad/AAVIGF-1-infected cells, adopted a chondrocyte-like phenotype with strong intracellular HIF-1 α staining throughout all zones of the repair tissue and formed a hyaline-like matrix. *In vitro*, BMP-2 and IGF-1 supplementation increased HIF-1 α protein levels in periosteal cells, which was based on posttranscriptional mechanisms rather than *de novo* mRNA synthesis, involving predominantly the MEK/ERK pathway.

Conclusion: This pilot experimental study on a relatively small number of animals indicated that chondrogenesis by precursor cells is facilitated in deeper hypoxic zones of cartilage repair tissue and is stimulated by growth factors which enhance HIF-1 α activity.

© 2008 Osteoarthritis Research Society International. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Key words: Chondrogenesis, Cartilage repair, Hypoxia, HIF-1 α , BMP-2, IGF-1.

Introduction

Chondral lesions of the joint surface have a limited endogenous healing potential because the access of repair cells to the lesions is restricted. Therefore, therapeutic attempts focus on the targeted supply of a cell population capable of producing new cartilage tissue. A number of mesenchymal tissues have been shown to contain cells with multilineage differentiation potential including chondrogenesis^{1–5}. Cells from these donor tissues are available abundantly, can often be isolated by minimally invasive procedures without violating the articular surface, have a high proliferative capacity and retain their chondrogenic potential even in advanced age^{6,7}.

However, *in vitro* the differentiation of such precursor cells into chondrocyte-like cells hardly occurs spontaneously. Therefore, specific biochemical and biophysical stimuli including certain growth and differentiation factors,

high cell densities or low oxygen levels are used to induce chondrogenesis. Within healthy articular cartilage tissue, chondrocytes are normally exposed to a hypoxic environment with oxygen levels as low as 1% in deep layers⁸, and cell culture experiments have demonstrated that hypoxic conditions promote chondrogenesis and the synthesis of cartilage matrix components^{9,10}. A central regulator of the adaptation of cells to low oxygen levels is the transcription factor Hypoxia-inducible Factor 1 (HIF-1), which is responsible for a variety of cellular functions including anaerobic energy supply, erythropoiesis, angiogenesis, regulation of the pH and cell survival^{11–14}. Recent studies also suggested that its subunit HIF-1 α plays an important role in chondrogenesis, joint formation and stabilization of the chondrocytic phenotype^{12,15,16}.

The regulation of HIF-1 levels is complex and the activity of this transcription factor is supposed to be predominantly modulated by the rate of specific protein degradation of its subunit HIF-1 α rather than by stimulation of gene expression. Under physiological, normoxic conditions, oxygen-dependent prolyl hydroxylases (PHDs) modify two proline residues of the HIF-1 α protein, which permits its recognition by the von Hippel-Lindau protein followed by capture through an E3-ubiquitin–ligase complex and subsequent

*Address correspondence and reprint requests to: Dr Kolja Gelse, Department of Trauma Surgery, University Hospital Erlangen, Krankenhausstr. 12, 91054 Erlangen, Germany. Tel: 49-9131-8223909; Fax: 49-9131-8533300; E-mail: kolja.gelse@web.de

Received 23 January 2008; revision accepted 19 April 2008.

Table I
Primer pairs used for specific gene analysis

Table with 3 columns: Gene, Forward primer (5'-3'), and Reverse primer (5'-3'). Rows include CD13, CD34, CD45, CD90, Sca-1, c-Kit, HIF-1α, PHD2, and B2M.

TREATMENT OF PERIOSTEAL CELLS WITH RECOMBINANT BMP-2 OR IGF-1 AND INHIBITORS OF THE PI3K/mTOR AND MEK/ERK PATHWAY

Periosteal cells (second or third passage) which had been plated at a density of 5 x 10^5 cells/cm^2 were serum-starved for 12 h, followed by stimulation with recombinant human (rh) BMP-2 (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN) or rhIGF-1 (R&D Systems), respectively, at concentrations of 20 ng/ml or 100 ng/ml in serum-free medium for 24 h.

RNA ISOLATION AND RT-PCR

Total RNA was isolated from the cells with the Nucleo-Spin-RNA-II-Kit (Clontech Laboratories, Mountain View, CA). RNA yields were calculated by measuring the extinction at 260 nm. The reverse transcription reaction was performed using the First Strand cDNA synthesis kit (Roche, Mannheim, Germany).

IMMUNOBLOT ANALYSIS

Periosteal cells from individual animals were plated in six-well plates at a density of 5 x 10^5 cells/cm^2 and stimulated with rhBMP-2 or rhIGF-1 as described above. Nuclear and whole cell protein extracts were obtained from cultured cells as described previously.

Nuclear extracts (50 µg/well) for the detection of HIF-1α or whole cell extracts (50 µg/well) for the detection of PHD2 and α-tubulin were separated on a 10% or 15% SDS-PAGE gel, respectively, and subsequently transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane (0.2 µm).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data from the quantification of HIF-1α-positive cells were analyzed using Student's t test. P values below 0.01 were considered to be significant.

Results

PHENOTYPE OF THE PERICHONDRIAL CELLS USED

Basic characterization of cultured miniature pig periosteal cells by RT-PCR revealed the expression of stem cell-related antigens including Sca-1, CD13 and CD90, but no expression of c-Kit, CD34 or CD45, which indicates their mesenchymal progenitor status (data not shown).

Periosteal cells infected simultaneously with AdBMP-2 and AAVBMP-2 or AdIGF-1 and AAVIGF-1 produced BMP-2 or IGF-1, respectively, at biologically relevant levels during the entire detection period in vitro. After 4 weeks of culture, 1 x 10^5 cells still secreted significant levels of BMP-2 (13.8 ± 1.7 ng/24 h) or IGF-1 (14.2 ± 5.0 ng/24 h).

HISTOLOGICAL CHARACTERIZATION OF CARTILAGE REPAIR TISSUES AND DETECTION OF INTRACELLULAR HIF-1α ACTIVITY

The chondrogenic potential of BMP-2- or IGF-1-stimulated periosteal cells was investigated in a miniature pig model with a large partial-thickness cartilage defect comprising the medial half of the articular surface of the patella.

In six miniature pigs, autologous periosteal cells were obtained 3 weeks prior to surgical treatment and first expanded ex vivo. For two animals, a chondrogenic stimulus was then provided to the cells by Ad/AAV-mediated BMP-2 gene transfer, while cells of two other animals were infected with Ad/AAVIGF-1, followed by seeding into a bioresorbable scaffold and transplantation onto fresh chondral defects.

Six weeks after transplantation the cell-based grafts had integrated well into the preexisting cartilage in all animals and had resisted joint loading. Due to the thickness of the transplanted matrix, the height of the repair tissue exceeded

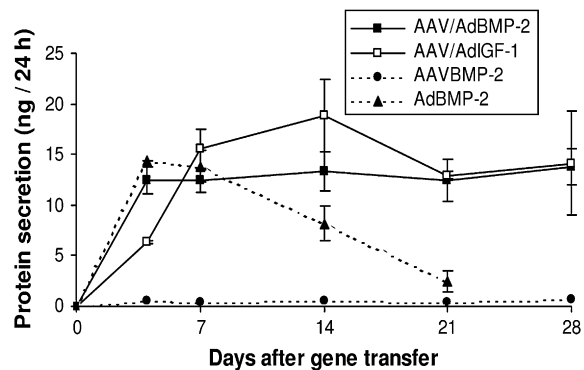


Fig. 1. Production of BMP-2 or IGF-1 by 1 x 10^5 porcine periosteal cells infected with AdBMP-2 or AdIGF-1 (100 pfu/cell) and/or AAVBMP-2 or AAVIGF-1 (1000 i.p./cell), respectively. The protein concentrations in the supernatant were determined with ELISAs. The daily protein secretion per ml medium is shown.

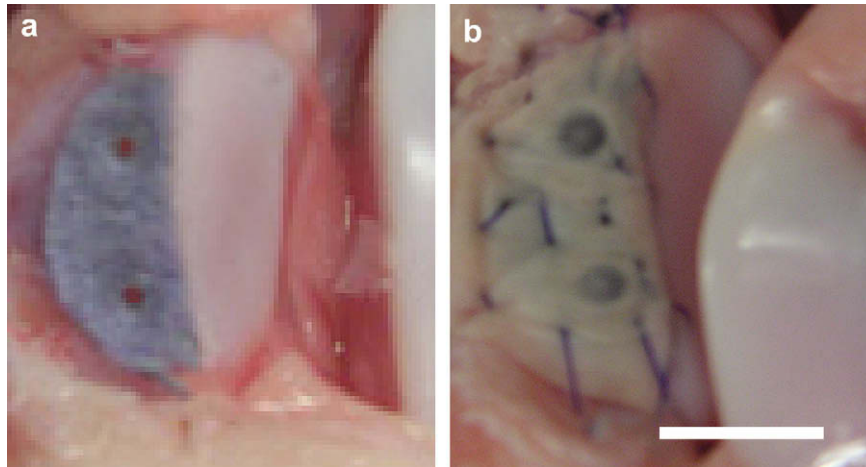


Fig. 2. Experimental model. In miniature pigs, partial-thickness chondral defects comprising the entire medial half of the articular surface of the patella were created using a custom-made planer. A cell-loaded PGA matrix was fixed with resorbable pins to the underlying bone (a). The upper part of the pin holes was milled out to allow lowering of the pin heads in plane with the surface. To create a smooth surface, an additional collagen membrane was sutured onto the PGA matrix (b). Bar = 1 cm.

that of adjacent cartilage in all six animals, and it showed some irregularities in the transitional area of the defect border [Fig. 3(a, b, f, g, k, l)]. The proteoglycan content of the newly formed tissue was assessed by toluidine blue staining. Parallel sections were additionally investigated by immunohistochemistry for type I collagen, a marker of bone and fibrous tissue, and type II collagen, a major and specific component of hyaline cartilage. Transplantation of unstimulated periosteal cells failed to generate hyaline cartilage [Figs. 3(a–e) and 4(b)]. The superficial half of the repair tissue showed virtually no proteoglycan and type II collagen staining and appeared to consist only of fibrous tissue. This notion was supported by the typical spindle-cell phenotype in the superficial and intermediate layers [Fig. 4(b)]. Deeper layers showed at best the formation of fibrocartilage, in which the cells partially adopted a round phenotype and formed a matrix with faint proteoglycan staining and partial type II collagen staining only in the deepest zone adjacent to the preexisting underlying cartilage. HIF-1 α immunostaining was absent in almost all cells of the superficial half of the tissue, whereas approximately 40% of the cells in the deep zones of the tissue showed faint HIF-1 α staining [Fig. 4(b), Table II].

The transplantation of Ad/AAVIGF-1-stimulated cells also failed to produce homogeneous hyaline repair tissue. Similar to the tissue formed by unstimulated cells, a fibrous superficial zone lacking type II collagen could be distinguished from fibrocartilaginous deeper zones. Only the latter were characterized by weak to moderate pericellular accumulation of proteoglycans and by a type II collagen-positive matrix [Fig. 3(f–j)]. Compared with the transplantation of unstimulated cells, there was an increase in cellularity both in the superficial and the deep zones, however, the morphological features of Ad/AAV-stimulated cells still differed from those of typical chondrocytes [Fig. 4(c)].

In contrast, repair tissue formed by Ad/AAVBMP-2-stimulated cells showed an intense staining for type II collagen throughout all layers with strong toluidine blue staining indicating a proteoglycan-rich matrix [Fig. 3(k–o)]. Most cells had adopted a chondrocyte-like round phenotype, but did not show the typical columnar distribution as observed in healthy articular cartilage. Occasionally, remnants of the PGA matrix were still detectable in the dense

matrix. Interestingly, Ad/AAVBMP-2-stimulated cells were characterized by strong HIF-1 α expression throughout the thickness of the cartilaginous repair tissue, and even in the superficial zone intracellular HIF-1 α staining was clearly detectable in more than half of the cells [Fig. 4(d), Table II].

Articular cartilage from healthy, untreated joints served as an internal control. Here, the arrangement of the cells was zone-specific with a horizontal pattern in the most superficial layer and a perpendicular pattern in deep zones. Almost all chondrocytes in the deep zones displayed strong intracellular HIF-1 α immunostaining with a continuous decrease toward the surface [Fig. 4(a), Table II].

In all samples analyzed, the underlying bone showed strong type I collagen staining and served as additional internal staining control. Type II collagen was always clearly detectable in intact hyaline cartilage and calcified cartilage.

INDUCTION OF HIF-1 α EXPRESSION BY RECOMBINANT BMP-2 AND IGF-1 IS BASED ON POSTTRANSCRIPTIONAL MECHANISMS MEDIATED PREDOMINANTLY BY MEK/ERK SIGNALING

To investigate the mechanisms leading to elevated HIF-1 α levels *in vivo*, periosteal cells were cultured in monolayers and exposed to rhBMP-2 or rhIGF-1 at concentrations of 20 or 100 ng/ml for 24 h. Under 21% oxygen, even the lower dose of rhBMP-2 (20 ng/ml) resulted in a distinct increase of intranuclear HIF-1 α levels [Fig. 5(a)]. Stimulation with rhIGF-1 also yielded elevated HIF-1 α levels. This effect was dose-dependent, and a distinct increase was only apparent at higher concentrations of IGF-1 (100 ng/ml). Thus, BMP-2 was more potent in this respect. *In vivo*, however, cells modified by Ad/AAV-mediated gene transfer may provide growth factor levels in the range of up to 10 ng/ml for at least 4 weeks (Fig. 1), but may not provide the high concentration (100 ng/ml) used in the stimulation experiments *in vitro*. As a positive control, periosteal cells cultured under 1% oxygen showed high intranuclear HIF-1 α levels [Fig. 5(a)].

The next step was to investigate the mechanisms by which growth factors such as BMP-2 and IGF-1 lead to increased HIF-1 α levels. The transcription factor HIF-1 α is strongly regulated by the rate of specific protein degradation, and an important step in this rapid process is the

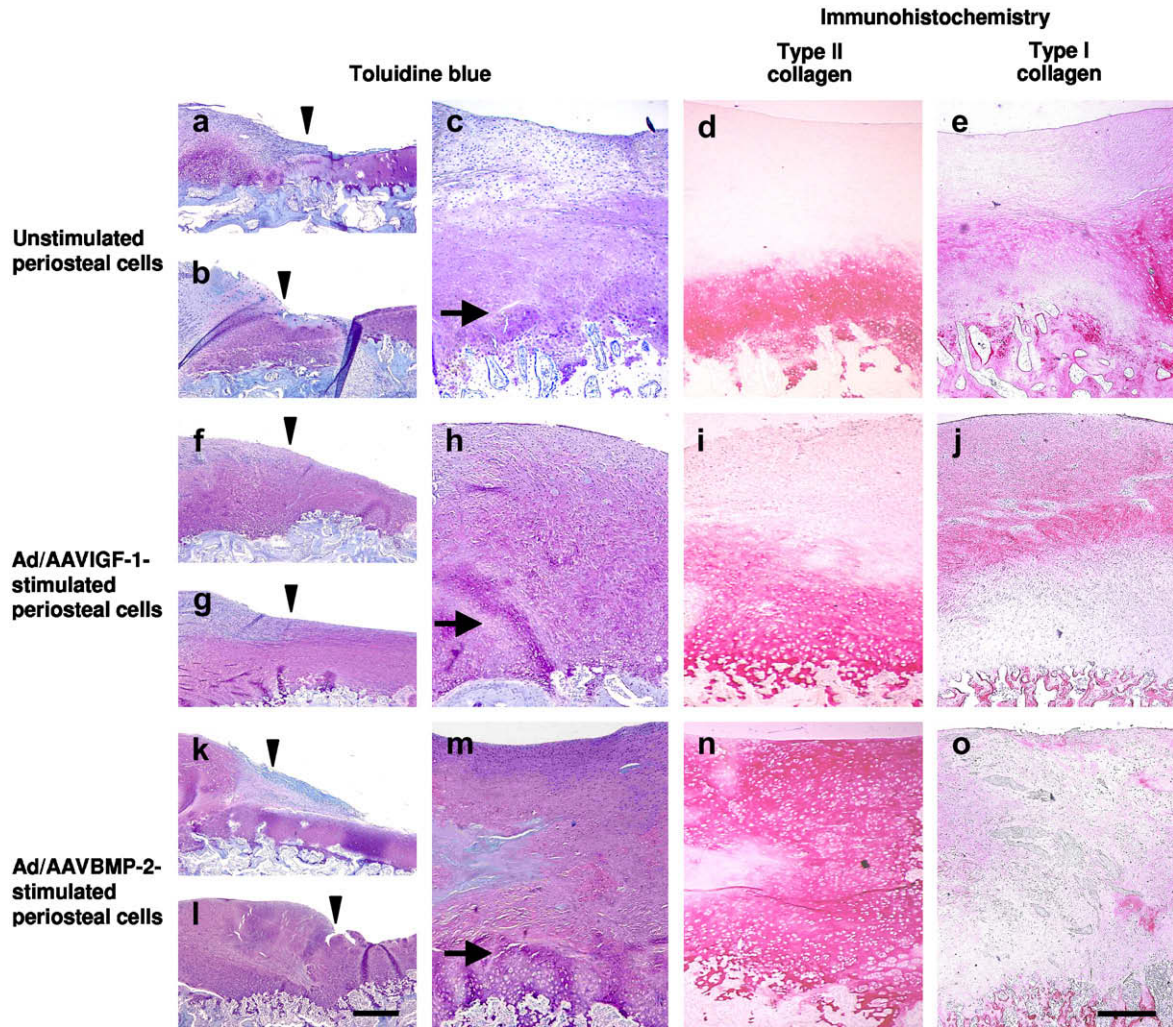


Fig. 3. Periosteal cell-based resurfacing of large cartilage lesions in miniature pigs. The cartilage defects were treated by implantation of a PGA matrix loaded with autologous periosteal cells. The resulting repair tissues were examined 6 weeks after cell transplantation by toluidine blue staining (a–c, f–h, k–m). In all six animals, the thickness of the repair tissue exceeded that of adjacent cartilage and showed some irregularities in the transitional area of the defect border (arrowheads in a, b, f, g, k, l). The repair tissue merged well with the underlying cartilage of the chondral lesions (arrows in c, h, m). Representative parallel sections were additionally evaluated by immunohistochemistry for type I and type II collagens. The underlying bone showed strong type I collagen staining (c, f, i) and served as internal control. Type II collagen was always clearly detectable in intact hyaline articular cartilage and calcified cartilage (b, e, h). Unstimulated cells formed fibrous repair tissue in superficial and middle zones which were positive for type I collagen (c), but negative for type II collagen (b). Only the deepest zone consisted of fibrocartilaginous tissue partially positive for type II collagen (b). Transplantation of Ad/AAVIGF-1-stimulated cells resulted in a fibrous superficial zone with strong staining for type I collagen (d, f), that could be distinguished from fibrocartilaginous deeper zones with moderate pericellular accumulation of proteoglycans and a type II collagen-positive matrix (d, e). In contrast, the repair tissue produced by Ad/AAVBMP-2-infected cells showed strong proteoglycan and type II collagen staining throughout all layers (g, h, i). Bar = 200 μ m in c–e, h–j, m–o; Bar = 400 μ m in a, b, f, g, k, l.

hydroxylation of HIF-1 α at certain proline residues which is predominantly catalyzed by the oxygen-dependent hydroxylase PHD2. Neither rhBMP-2 nor rhIGF-1 had detectable influence on the intracellular level of PHD2 protein [Fig. 5(a)] or the expression of the PHD2 gene [Fig. 5(b)]. Cultivation under 1% oxygen had no effect on PHD2 protein or mRNA levels either [Fig. 5(a) and (b)]. Expression of HIF-1 α was neither influenced by stimulation with IGF-1 or BMP-2 nor by hypoxia [Fig. 5(b)].

To investigate further the functional relationship between the growth factors and HIF-1 α , we exposed IGF-1- and BMP-2-stimulated cells to inhibitors of the PI3K/mTOR or the MEK/ERK pathway. Application of Wortmannin or Rapamycin, inhibiting PI3K or mTOR, respectively, only

moderately decreased the HIF-1 α levels following BMP-2 and IGF-1 stimulation. However, treatment with the MEK inhibitor UO126 nearly completely abolished HIF-1 α induction by either growth factor [Fig. 5(c)], indicating that this induction is based on posttranscriptional mechanisms mediated predominantly by MEK/ERK signaling.

Discussion

Biopsies of cartilage repair tissues resulting from microfracturing or autologous chondrocyte implantation often reveal zone-specific cellular differentiation patterns which are characterized by a superficial fibrous layer and areas

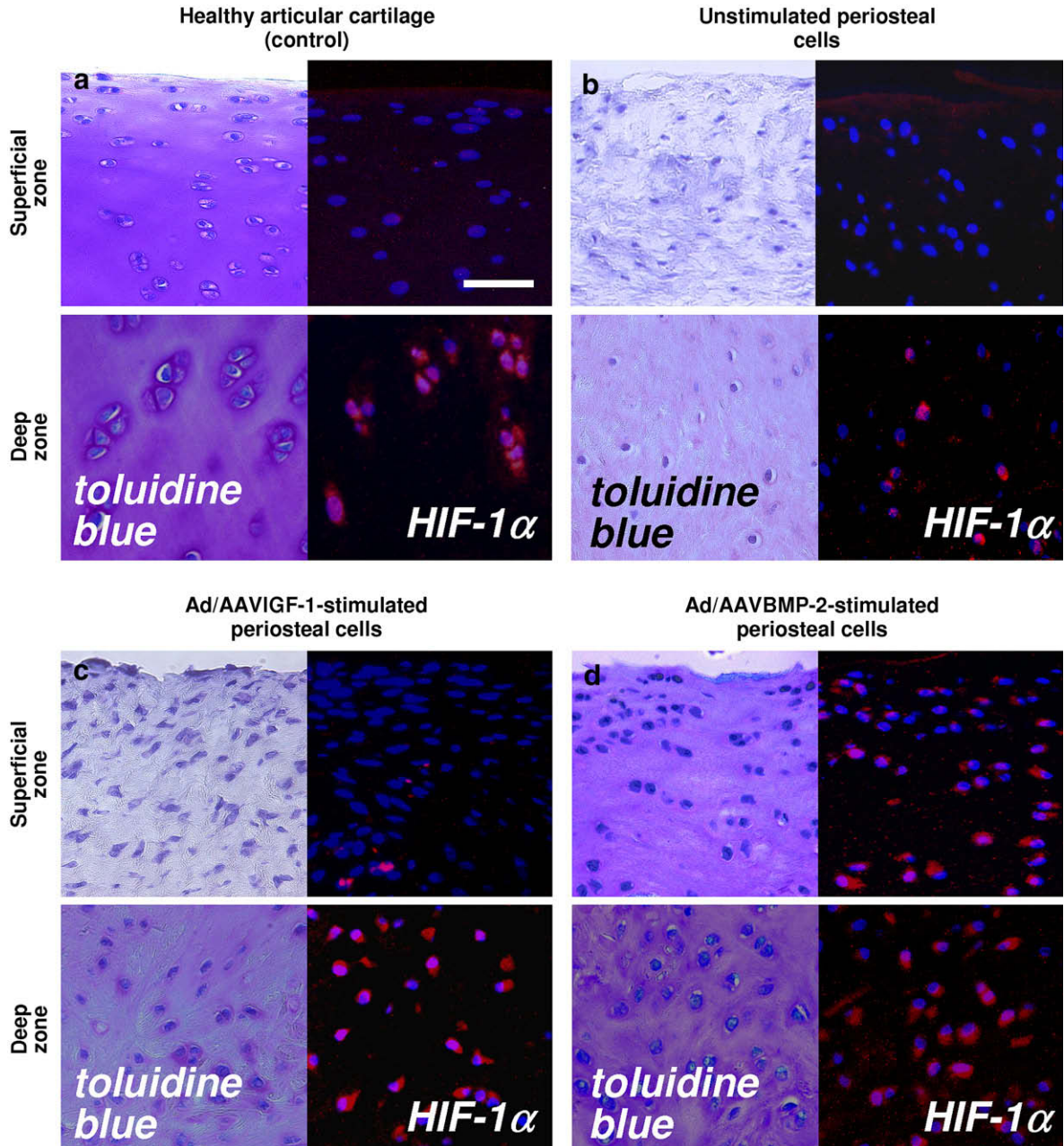


Fig. 4. Zonal differences in cellular morphology and HIF-1 α immunostaining (red). Healthy cartilage is characterized by a homogeneous proteoglycan-rich matrix and strong intracellular HIF-1 α levels particularly in the deep zones (a). Unstimulated periosteal cells adopted predominantly a spindle-cell like phenotype with no HIF-1 α staining in the superficial zone and partial staining in the deepest layer (b). Tissue generated by Ad/AAVIGF-1-stimulated cells was characterized by high cellularity. Only the cells in the deep zones which were surrounded by a proteoglycan-rich pericellular matrix showed HIF-1 α staining, while the superficial fibroblast-like cells were negative (c). Ad/AAVBMP-2-stimulated cells adopted a round chondrocyte-like phenotype throughout all layers with mostly strong HIF-1 α signals (d). Bar = 50 μ m.

of hyaline-like cartilage in deeper zones^{22,23}. Our own data have confirmed this tendency. The oxygen distribution pattern may help to explain this phenomenon, since particularly the deepest zones are assumed to be exposed to more hypoxic conditions, provided that the subchondral bone plate remains intact or has been reconstituted. Numerous *in vitro*-studies have shown that low partial pressures of oxygen are involved in promoting the chondrogenic differentiation process^{9,10,12,24}. A recent study on full-thickness cartilage defects in miniature pigs also demonstrated the

beneficial effect of a functional barrier toward the vascularized bone marrow by using an anti-angiogenic substance²⁵.

One of the most important factors associated with low oxygen tensions is the transcription factor HIF-1. Although HIF-1 is known to have multiple functions in many tissues, its role in the avascular cartilage and in embryonal mesenchymal condensations is of great importance. HIF-1 was shown to transactivate Sox9, a key factor for the expression of numerous cartilage-specific genes, in mesenchymal cells¹². A recent study demonstrated direct binding of the

Table II
*Percentage of HIF-1 α -positive cells in the superficial half and the deep half of the respective repair tissues and healthy articular cartilage. Three independent superficial and deep areas per specimen were investigated. *P < 0.05, ***P < 0.001 (versus unstimulated repair tissue)*

Tissue	Zone	% of HIF-1 α -positive cells
Healthy articular cartilage	Superficial	4.9 (\pm 3.9)
	Deep	92.8* (\pm 6.0)
Unstimulated repair tissue	Superficial	0.8 (\pm 0.3)
	Deep	42.0 (\pm 7.5)
Ad/AAVIGF-1-stimulated repair tissue	Superficial	3.1* (\pm 1.2)
	Deep	55.9 (\pm 9.0)
Ad/AAVBMP-2-stimulated repair tissue	Superficial	53.2*** (\pm 8.2)
	Deep	74.5* (\pm 9.0)

HIF-1 subunit HIF-1 α to the Sox9 promoter region²⁶. Furthermore, targeted deletion of HIF-1 α in stromal or prechondrogenic cells specifically compromised chondrogenesis while osteogenesis and adipogenesis were not affected^{16,26}.

Our study is the first to show *in vivo* that the expression of HIF-1 α correlates with the quality of a cartilage repair tissue. Furthermore, we could demonstrate that the beneficial effects of BMP-2 on inducing chondrogenesis in the repair tissue were associated with increased HIF-1 α expression.

In our experiments *in vitro* using periosteal cells, HIF-1 α protein levels could also be increased by stimulation with IGF-1, which confirms the data from previous studies on other cell types including retinal pigment epithelial cells and colon cancer cells^{27,28}. The minor effects of IGF-1 on HIF-1 α levels in the repair tissue of our *in vivo*-model may be explained by a dose-dependence that was also observed *in vitro*. Thus, the IGF-1 quantities provided by gene transfer and subsequent cell transplantation *in vivo* did presumably not reach the levels that were shown to be required *in vitro*. Consequently, IGF-1 may have a lower potency on increasing intracellular HIF-1 α levels compared with BMP-2.

Another aim of this study was to investigate the mechanisms by which growth- or differentiation factors such as IGF-1 or BMP-2 may lead to an increase of HIF-1 α expression. In principal, increased protein levels can be achieved *via* enhanced gene expression or translation or by stabilization of mRNA or protein by inhibition of their degradation. In our experiments, neither BMP-2 nor IGF-1 had a direct influence on HIF-1 α gene expression. This confirms recent observations made on other cell types, in which IGF-1 had no effect on HIF-1 α mRNA synthesis either^{27,28}.

Probably the most important pathway regulating HIF-1 is the modulation of degradation of its HIF α subunits, which is predominantly mediated by the oxygen-dependent PHD2. However, in our experiments *in vitro*, neither IGF-1 nor

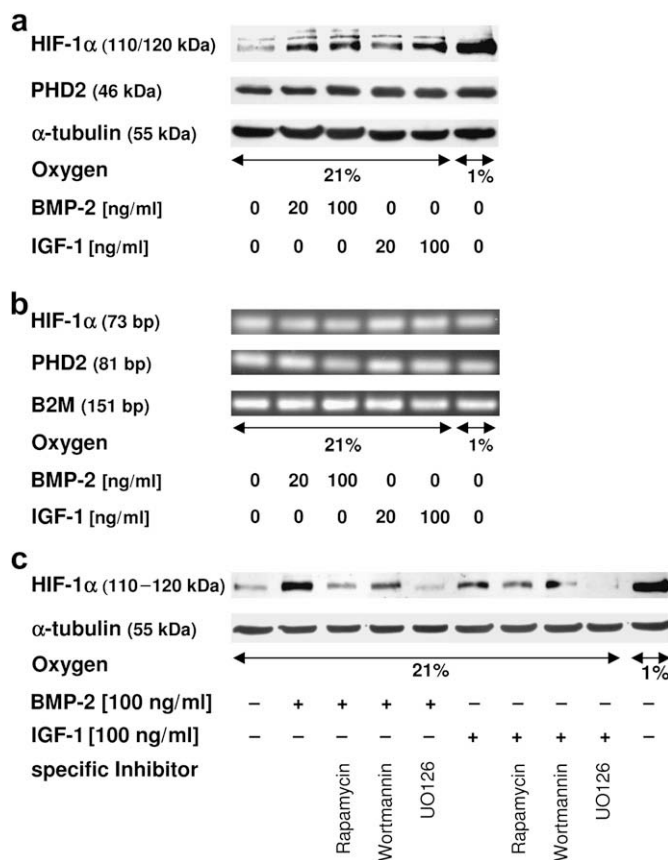


Fig. 5. (a) Induction of HIF-1 α by administration of BMP-2 or IGF-1 or cell cultivation under hypoxia. Periosteal cells were stimulated with increasing concentrations of BMP-2 or IGF-1. Nuclear protein extracts were analyzed for HIF-1 α protein, and whole cell lysates were collected for PHD2 protein detection by Western blotting. Blots were stripped and re-probed for α -tubulin. (b) BMP-2, IGF-1 and hypoxia have no effect on the expression of HIF-1 α and PHD2. Total RNA extracts from stimulated cells were investigated by RT-PCR for HIF-1 α and PHD2 gene expression. Detection of B2M expression served as an internal control. (c) HIF-1 α induction by BMP-2 or IGF-1 administration was moderately decreased by Wortmannin (PI3K inhibitor) and Rapamycin (mTOR inhibitor), but nearly completely abolished by UO126 (MEK inhibitor). All blots and gels are representative results of three independent experiments.

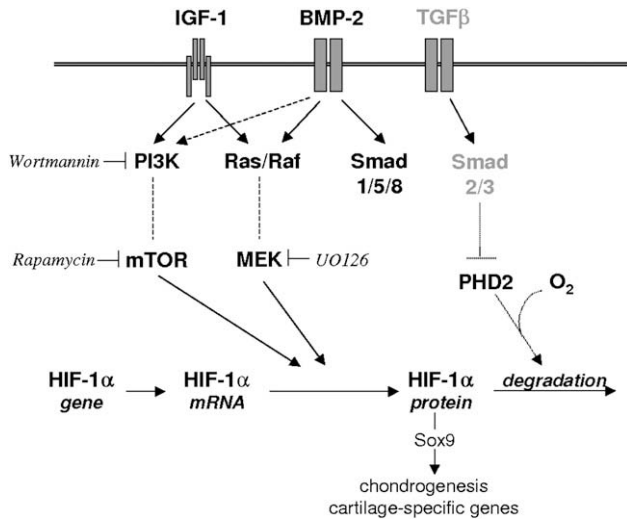


Fig. 6. Proposed functional relationship between different chondrogenic growth- or differentiation factors and HIF-1 α , which was recently shown to transactivate Sox9, a key transcription factor for a number of cartilage-specific genes. BMP-2 signaling does not only involve the Smad1/5/8 cascade, but similar to IGF-1 also the PI3K/mTOR and the MEK/ERK pathway. Particularly UO126, a MEK inhibitor, nearly completely abolished HIF-1 α induction by BMP-2 or IGF-1. Inhibition of PI3K by Wortmannin and inhibition of mTOR by Rapamycin affected the HIF-1 α levels only moderately. Neither IGF-1 nor BMP-2 had any effect on the HIF-1 α or PHD2 gene expression. This stands in contrast to the effects of TGF β which was shown to inhibit PHD2 gene expression *via* Smad2/3.

BMP-2 interfered with the gene expression or protein level of PHD2. Thus the effects of IGF-1 and BMP-2 are unlikely to be mediated by an influence on the stability of the HIF-1 α protein either. As far as IGF-1 is concerned, these observations have already been confirmed in studies on other cell types. Those studies suggested that IGF-1 increases HIF-1 α protein levels through a posttranscriptional mechanism involving the PI3K/mTOR and the MEK/ERK pathways without modulating HIF-1 α transcription but by stimulation of its translation^{27,28,29}. We could confirm this effect also for periosteal cells. The increase of HIF-1 α levels subsequent to an IGF-1 stimulus is mediated predominantly *via* the MEK/ERK pathway and to a lesser extent *via* the PI3K/mTOR pathway.

To date, no data on interactive mechanisms between BMP-2 and increased HIF-1 α levels have been published. In fact, it has been shown that the functionally related transforming growth factor- β (TGF β) stabilizes HIF-1 α protein by inhibiting the expression of PHD2 and thus inhibiting HIF-1 α degradation *via* a cascade involving Smad2/3 signaling³⁰. However, in our experiments, BMP-2 had no influence on the expression of PHD2 or PHD3 (K. Gelse, unpublished data). This may be based on the fact that, in contrast to TGF β signaling, BMP-2 involves the Smad1/5/8 cascade rather than the Smad2/3 cascade³¹, which may explain the different effects of TGF β and BMP-2 on PHD2 expression.

There is good evidence that, intracellularly, BMP signals are not only transduced by the Smad pathway but also by the PI3K/mTOR and mitogen-activated protein (MAP)-kinase cascades^{32,33}. In this study, the inhibitor of MEK by UO126 almost completely abolished HIF-1 α induction following BMP-2 stimulation, indicating that the MEK/ERK pathway plays an important role in increasing the levels of

HIF-1 α . The inhibition of PI3K and mTOR by Wortmannin or Rapamycin, respectively, had only a moderate effect. Future studies will have to investigate the role of the Smad1/5/8 signaling in this respect.

As the conclusions of this study are weakened by the relatively small number of animals, further work on larger groups of animals is required, including the additional use of other cell types such as committed chondrocytes. Nevertheless, the data of this pilot experimental work contribute new aspects to the knowledge about pro-chondrogenic signaling pathways as summarized in Fig. 6, supporting the conclusion that growth factors of different families may use common as well as distinct pathways to exert their stimulatory effects on chondrogenesis.

In many experimental studies, chondroinductive differentiation factors such as BMPs have been shown to stimulate efficiently the formation of hyaline-like repair tissue. However, the clinical use of such factors may be limited by tremendous costs arising from the administration of recombinant proteins, and gene transfer approaches may be hindered because of safety concerns. Therefore, the association of HIF-1 α with chondrogenic pathways may be particularly interesting. Although, the interactions between hypoxia, HIF-1 α and chondrogenic pathways will have to be explored in detail in future, our findings may encourage the establishment of new cartilage repair strategies that incorporate the potential beneficial role of low oxygen and/or elevated HIF-1 α levels as a therapeutic tool for cartilage repair.

Conflict of interest

All authors disclose any financial and personal relationships with other people or organizations that could inappropriately influence (bias) this work, including employment, consultancies, stock ownership, honoraria, paid expert testimony, patent applications/registrations, and grants or other funding.

Acknowledgements

We thank E. Koppmann, M. Geßlein and H. Rohrmüller for excellent technical assistance, Dr Philippe Moullier (Genethon, Nantes, France) for providing the plasmid pRepCap, Dr Richard Samulski (University of North Carolina, USA) for the plasmid pXX6-80, and Geistlich Biomaterials (Wolhusen, Switzerland) for the Chondroguide membranes. Supported by the Interdisciplinary Center of Clinical Research (IZKF) at the University Hospital Erlangen (grants C1 and C7) and the German Research Foundation (grant GE 1975/1-2).

Supplementary data

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.joca.2008.04.006.

References

1. Winter A, Breit S, Parsch D, Benz K, Steck E, Hauner H, *et al.* Cartilage-like gene expression in differentiated human stem cell spheroids: a comparison of bone marrow-derived and adipose tissue-derived stromal cells. *Arthritis Rheum* 2003;48:418–29.
2. Park J, Gelse K, Frank S, von der Mark K, Aigner T, Schneider H. Transgene-activated mesenchymal cells for articular cartilage repair: a comparison of primary bone marrow-, perichondrium/periosteum- and fat-derived cells. *J Gene Med* 2006;8:112–25.

3. De Bari C, Dell'Accio F, Tylzanowski P, Luyten FP. Multipotent mesenchymal stem cells from adult human synovial membrane. *Arthritis Rheum* 2001;44:1928–42.
4. Gelse K, Jiang QJ, Aigner T, Ritter T, Wagner K, Poschl E, *et al.* Fibroblast-mediated delivery of growth factor complementary DNA into mouse joints induces chondrogenesis but avoids the disadvantages of direct viral gene transfer. *Arthritis Rheum* 2001;44:1943–53.
5. Adachi N, Sato K, Usas A, Fu FH, Ochi M, Han CW, *et al.* Muscle derived, cell based *ex vivo* gene therapy for treatment of full thickness articular cartilage defects. *J Rheumatol* 2002;29:1920–30.
6. De Bari C, Dell'Accio F, Luyten FP. Human periosteum-derived cells maintain phenotypic stability and chondrogenic potential throughout expansion regardless of donor age. *Arthritis Rheum* 2001;44:85–95.
7. De Bari C, Dell'Accio F, Vanlauwe J, Eyckmans J, Khan IM, Archer CW, *et al.* Mesenchymal multipotency of adult human periosteal cells demonstrated by single-cell lineage analysis. *Arthritis Rheum* 2006;54:1209–21.
8. Silver IA. Measurement of pH and ionic composition of pericellular sites. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 1975;271:261–72.
9. Hirao M, Tamai N, Tsumaki N, Yoshikawa H, Myoui A. Oxygen tension regulates chondrocyte differentiation and function during endochondral ossification. *J Biol Chem* 2006;281:31079–92.
10. Kurz B, Domm C, Jin M, Selckau R, Schunke M. Tissue engineering of articular cartilage under the influence of collagen I/III membranes and low oxygen tension. *Tissue Eng* 2004;10:1277–86.
11. Pfander D, Cramer T, Schipani E, Johnson RS. HIF-1 α controls extracellular matrix synthesis by epiphyseal chondrocytes. *J Cell Sci* 2003;116:1819–26.
12. Robins JC, Akeno N, Mukherjee A, Dalal RR, Aronow BJ, Koopman P, *et al.* Hypoxia induces chondrocyte-specific gene expression in mesenchymal cells in association with transcriptional activation of Sox9. *Bone* 2005;37:313–22.
13. Schipani E, Ryan HE, Didrickson S, Kobayashi T, Knight M, Johnson RS. Hypoxia in cartilage: HIF-1 α is essential for chondrocyte growth arrest and survival. *Genes Dev* 2001;15:2865–76.
14. Maxwell PH, Ratcliffe PJ. Oxygen sensors and angiogenesis. *Semin Cell Dev Biol* 2002;13:29–37.
15. Provot S, Zinyk D, Gunes Y, Kathri R, Le Q, Kronenberg HM, *et al.* Hif-1 α regulates differentiation of limb bud mesenchyme and joint development. *J Cell Biol* 2007;177:451–64.
16. Malladi P, Xu Y, Chiou M, Giaccia AJ, Longaker MT. Hypoxia inducible factor-1 α deficiency affects chondrogenesis of adipose-derived adult stromal cells. *Tissue Eng* 2007;13:1159–71.
17. Berra E, Benizri E, Ginouves A, Volmat V, Roux D, Pouyssegur J. HIF prolyl-hydroxylase 2 is the key oxygen sensor setting low steady-state levels of HIF-1 α in normoxia. *EMBO J* 2003;22:4082–90.
18. Xiao X, Li J, Samulski RJ. Production of high-titer recombinant adeno-associated virus vectors in the absence of helper adenovirus. *J Virol* 1998;72:2224–32.
19. Snyder RO, Xiao X, Samulski RJ. Production of recombinant adeno-associated viral vectors. In: Dracopoli N, Haines J, Krof B, Eds. *Current Protocols in Human Genetics*. New York: Wiley; 1996: 1–24.
20. Gelse K, Muhle C, Franke O, Park J, Jehle M, Durst K, *et al.* Cell-based resurfacing of large cartilage defects: long-term evaluation of grafts from autologous transgene-activated periosteal cells in a porcine model of osteoarthritis. *Arthritis Rheum* 2008;58:475–88.
21. Grimmer C, Pfander D, Swoboda B, Aigner T, Mueller L, Hennig FF, *et al.* Hypoxia-inducible factor 1 α is involved in the prostaglandin metabolism of osteoarthritic cartilage through up-regulation of microsomal prostaglandin E synthase 1 in articular chondrocytes. *Arthritis Rheum* 2007;56:4084–94.
22. Behrens P, Bitter T, Kurz B, Russlies M. Matrix-associated autologous chondrocyte transplantation/implantation (MACT/MACI) – 5-year follow-up. *Knee* 2006;13:194–202.
23. Knutsen G, Engebretsen L, Ludvigsen TC, Drogset JO, Gronqvist T, Solheim E, *et al.* Autologous chondrocyte implantation compared with microfracture in the knee. A randomized trial. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 2004;86-A:455–64.
24. Chen L, Fink T, Ebbesen P, Zachar V. Temporal transcriptome of mouse ATDC5 chondroprogenitors differentiating under hypoxic conditions. *Exp Cell Res* 2006;312:1727–44.
25. Hunziker EB, Driesang IM. Functional barrier principle for growth-factor-based articular cartilage repair. *Osteoarthritis Cartilage* 2003;11: 320–7.
26. Amarilio R, Viukov SV, Sharir A, Eshkar-Oren I, Johnson RS, Zelzer E. HIF1 α regulation of Sox9 is necessary to maintain differentiation of hypoxic prechondrogenic cells during early skeletogenesis. *Development* 2007;134:3917–28.
27. Fukuda R, Hirota K, Fan F, Jung YD, Ellis LM, Semenza GL. Insulin-like growth factor 1 induces hypoxia-inducible factor 1-mediated vascular endothelial growth factor expression, which is dependent on MAP kinase and phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase signaling in colon cancer cells. *J Biol Chem* 2002;277:38205–11.
28. Treins C, Giorgetti-Peraldi S, Murdaca J, Monthouel-Kartmann MN, Van Obberghen E. Regulation of hypoxia-inducible factor (HIF)-1 activity and expression of HIF hydroxylases in response to insulin-like growth factor I. *Mol Endocrinol* 2005;19:1304–17.
29. Catrina SB, Botusan IR, Rantanen A, Catrina AI, Pyakurel P, Savu O, *et al.* Hypoxia-inducible factor-1 α and hypoxia-inducible factor-2 α are expressed in kaposi sarcoma and modulated by insulin-like growth factor-I. *Clin Cancer Res* 2006;12:4506–14.
30. McMahon S, Charbonneau M, Grandmont S, Richard DE, Dubois CM. Transforming growth factor beta1 induces hypoxia-inducible factor-1 stabilization through selective inhibition of PHD2 expression. *J Biol Chem* 2006;281:24171–81.
31. Wan M, Cao X. BMP signaling in skeletal development. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 2005;328:651–7.
32. Langenfeld EM, Kong Y, Langenfeld J. Bone morphogenetic protein-2-induced transformation involves the activation of mammalian target of rapamycin. *Mol Cancer Res* 2005;3:679–84.
33. Zhao M, Xiao G, Berry JE, Franceschi RT, Reddi A, Somerman MJ. Bone morphogenetic protein 2 induces dental follicle cells to differentiate toward a cementoblast/osteoblast phenotype. *J Bone Miner Res* 2002;17:1441–51.