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The role of statins in the differentiation and function of bone cells

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Abstract

Statins are 3-Hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) reductase inhibitors blocking cholesterol biosynthesis in hepatic cells, thereby causing an increase in low-density lipoprotein (LDL) receptors resulting in enhanced uptake and clearance of atherogenic LDL-cholesterol (LDL-C) from the blood. Accordingly, statins decrease the risk of developing atherosclerosis and its acute complications, such as acute myocardial infarction and ischemic stroke. Besides the LDL-C-lowering impact, statins also have other so-called pleiotropic effects. Among them, the ability to modulate differentiation and function of bone cells and exert direct effects on osteosynthesis factors. Specifically, earlier studies have shown that statins cause in vitro and in vivo osteogenic differentiation. Statins increase the expression of many mediators involved in bone metabolism, including bone morphogenetic protein-2 (BMP-2), glucocorticoids, transforming growth factor-beta (TGF- β), alkaline phosphatase (ALP), type I collagen, and collagenase-1. As a result, they enhance bone formation and improve bone mineral density by modulating osteoblast and osteoclast differentiation. This review article summarizes the literature exploring bone-related “pleiotropic” effects of statins and suggesting an anabolic role in the bone tissue for such a drug class. Accordingly, current knowledge encourages further clinical trials to assess their therapeutic potential in the treatment of bone disorders, such as arthritis and osteoporosis.

Keywords: Statins; Osteogenesis; Bone; Osteoblast; Osteoclast

Introduction

Statins are cholesterol-reducing medications that inhibit the function of 3-Hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) reductase and inhibit the synthesis of mevalonate, which is a precursor of cholesterol (1-3). There is evidence that lipid and bone metabolisms are mutually regulated. Common mediators might impact on atherosclerotic plaque calcification, progression and the activity of bone-related disorders, such as osteoporosis and arthritis (4). In addition, lipids and their derivatives can activate osteoblasts via selective lipid receptors and catabolic enzymes for the internalization and utilization of circulating lipids. Dyslipidemia and lipid homeostasis disruption can impair osteoblast function and accelerate osteoclast activity (5, 6). Targeting lipid metabolism with a statin has been shown to improve bone density and quality in metabolic bone diseases (7).

Since their administration causes effective reduction in plasma low-density lipoprotein-cholesterol (LDL-C) concentrations, statins are widely used in the therapy of hypercholesterolemia, which is the leading risk factor for coronary artery disease (CAD) (8-15). Cholesterol is an essential building element of cell membranes and involves regulating many biological functions, including cell integrity, binding receptors to ligands, fluid endocytosis, and cell homeostasis. Besides decreasing the production of cholesterol, statins possess several LDL-independent pleiotropic actions (16-23). Such effects are, at least in part, due to the reduction of other products that originate from the mevalonic acid pathway, including farnesyl pyrophosphate (FPP) and geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate (GGPP), the precursors of isoprenoids (14, 24). Isoprenoids then modulate the effect of several cellular proteins, such as oncoproteins (ras), nuclear proteins (laminins), and small guanosine triphosphate (GTP)-binding proteins (rho, rac, rab) that are essential for cell proliferation, differentiation, and death (25-27).

Given the ubiquitous distribution of statins' pleiotropic downstream targets, these medications likely affect the function of most human cell types, including bone cells (28, 29). Bones are living tissues with architecture to endure maximum weight power. Most bones have a thick, stiff exterior layer made of compact tissue (i.e., cortex) and thin interconnecting bone trabeculas in the core-medullary part, which contains the hemopoietic bone marrow (30). Besides their mineral structure, bones consist of four distinct kinds of cells: osteoblasts forming new bone, osteocytes that are osteoblast trapped in the produced minerals, osteoclasts in charge of bone resorption and remodeling, and the last, bone

lining cells that are thought to be quiescent osteoblast participating into bone remodeling when needed. On bone surfaces, osteoblasts and osteoclasts originate from resident mesenchymal cells known as progenitor cells. *In vitro* studies indicated an anabolic effect of statins on most bone-related cell lines and cell types, including human immortalized cell lines (31-33), such as human and murine osteoblast-like cells (34, 35) and human bone marrow stromal cells (36). Interestingly, those preliminary *in vitro* effects of statins on bone cells, might be translated in a next future to the clinic. For instance, statins taken for lipid-lowering might also impact on bone metabolism, thus improving both lipid and bone disorders in human beings. Therefore, the clinical relevance of the issues presented in this review might be quite remarkable.

Some literature surveys have suggested that statins might have an anabolic effect on stem cells, including murine bone marrow mesenchymal cells (37-39), and human mesenchymal stem cells (40, 41), and murine embryonic stem cells (42) by differentiation and osteogenesis marker expression. In this article, we will review the effects of statins on bone cell differentiation and osteogenesis. We searched in the databases of MEDLINE/PubMed, OVID, EMBASE, Web of Sciences, and SCOPUS from the inception to August 5, 2020. The search strategy was to look for: (“statins” OR “statin therapy” OR “statins therapy” OR “statin” OR “HMG CoA reductase inhibitor” OR “lovastatin” OR “fluvastatin” OR “pravastatin” OR “rosuvastatin” OR “pitavastatin” OR “atorvastatin” OR “simvastatin” OR “cerivastatin” AND “bone” OR “bone cells” OR “osteoblasts” OR “osteoclasts” OR “osteocytes”). The reference lists of articles were checked for other relevant publications.

Statins stimulate bone deposition

The possible effects of statins on bone metabolism were first proven in 1999 when Mundy et al. reported a role of statins in bone formation *in vivo* (43). Specifically, the authors demonstrated that statins (i.e. simvastatin, mevastatin, and fluvastatin) were utmost effective at 5 μ M in stimulating generation of neonatal murine calvarial bone organ cultures through the expression of bone morphogenetic protein-2 (BMP-2) gene, which promotes the osteoblast differentiation (43). These results were confirmed by additional studies (44-46). Sugiyama and co-workers reported that compactin (or mevastatin) increased mRNA and protein expression of BMP-2 at 5 μ M in a human osteosarcoma (HOS) cell line. Also, compactine and simvastatin were shown to activate the BMP-2

promoter at 25 μ M, while pravastatin did not (31). Ruiz-Gaspa and co-workers revealed that different concentrations of simvastatin and atorvastatin (10^{-9} M, 10^{-8} M, 10^{-7} M, 10^{-6} M) are associated with the arrest of proliferation in human osteoblast (hOB) and MG-63 cell line cultures (47). Baek et al. showed that simvastatin decrease the proliferation of human bone marrow stromal cells (BMSCs) in a dose-dependent manner (10^{-6} M and 10^{-8} M of simvastatin) and also, 10^{-6} M of simvastatin enhanced mRNA expression of osteocalcin in an *ex vivo* culture (48). The potential effects of statins in bone formation were investigated in additional experimental models (49, 50). Thylin and co-workers revealed that injection of simvastatin in gel (2.2 mg of simvastatin per 50 μ l methylcellulose gel) could stimulate the growth of murine calvarial bone.

Some clinical observation confirmed the anabolic effects of statins on the formation of bone tissue. Chuengsamarn et al. (51) showed an increase of bone mineral density (BMD) and a decrease of bone resorption in 106 hyperlipidemia patients with osteopenia taking statins in comparison n=106 patients without statin. A representative cohort NHANES III study in two-sample Mendelian randomization confirmed the potential protective effects of statins on bone via reducing Low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) and increase in neck BMD (52, 53). Of interest, different statins and different formulations (e.g., transdermal vs. oral administration) might show different efficacy on bone metabolism (54-56).

The molecular mechanisms guiding the anabolic effects of statins on bone tissue will be critically reviewed in the following paragraphs, focusing on the different bone cells. Yet, statins may also indirectly modulate bone deposition through their immunomodulatory effects (24, 57). Indeed, systemic inflammation was previously reported to cause bone loss by inhibiting new bone formation as well as facilitating bone reabsorption (58). The effects of statins on systemic inflammation and immune cells are beyond the scope of the current review and have been previously summarized by eminent articles to which the readers are referred (59, 60).

Statins play roles in osteoblast differentiation and activity

Osteoblasts play a pivotal role in the formation and maintenance of skeletal architecture and are accountable for the deposition of the bone matrix and osteoclast inhibition (61). Osteoblasts originate from bone-marrow stromal cells (BMSCs) or mesenchymal stem cells, or osteoprogenitor cells (62).

Their differentiation is prompted by several mediators, including bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs), transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β), and glucocorticoids (63). *In vitro*, BMSCs create distinctive cell colonies with fibroblast morphology known as colony-fibroblast units (CFU-Fs) (64). Different bone anabolic agents increase the number of CFU-Fs in *ex vivo* cultures (65, 66), of interest, simvastatin can stimulate CFU-F formation and osteoblastic differentiation (36). Therefore, statins are thought to prompt the mobilization of osteoprogenitor cells from bone marrow and increase their differentiation into bone-depositing cells.

Accordingly, simvastatin-treated embryonal stem cells showed increased osteogenic gene expression, including *Runx2*, *OSX*, and *OCN* (67). *Runx2* molecular pathway has been shown to directly stimulate the transcription of other osteoblast-related genes (68, 69). After simvastatin supplementation, *Runx2* activation enhances the protein levels of osteocalcin (OCN), osteopontin (OPN), and collagen Type I (68, 69). Again indicating an active role for simvastatin to facilitate embryonic stem cell osteogenic differentiation. As a further mechanism, simvastatin is thought to stimulate the canonical Wnt signaling pathway during the osteogenic differentiation of embryonic stem cells (67). Extracellular Wnt receptors -among the most important regulators of bone biology (70) - induce canonical Wnt/ β -catenin signaling to respond to chemical and mechanical stimulation (71-73). Previous studies proved that simvastatin considerably enhances Wnt signaling-related genes during the osteogenic differentiation of BMSCs (74, 75). Also, simvastatin could recover the impaired Wnt/ β -catenin signaling caused by the Effect of elevated glucose in mesangial cells and prevent their apoptosis (76). these findings suggest that simvastatin can activate the Wnt/ β -catenin signaling pathway, thereby modulating several cell functions, including osteogenic differentiation (77).

Osteoblasts and adipocytes within the bone marrow are derived from common mesenchymal precursors. Pro-adipogenic substances, like rosiglitazone, a peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR)- α ligand, facilitate mesenchymal cell differentiation adipocytes despite osteoblasts (78). In this context, recent *in vitro* data have shown that simvastatin and lovastatin can inhibit adipogenic differentiation, facilitating the mesenchymal transition towards osteoblasts (79, 80). This effect is likely mediated by reduced PPAR- α expression and increased *Runx2/Cbfa1* activation (81). Also, as previously mentioned, statins stimulate the expression of BMP-2 in murine embryonic stem cells (42) and mouse bone marrow stromal cells (79), supporting the hypothesis that the BMP-2/*Runx2* axis

might be essential in statin-driven osteoblast differentiation. Furthermore, simvastatin improved protein production in human bone cells through different mechanisms. FPP and GGPP are intermediate metabolites of the mevalonate pathway. FPP can be used to synthesize squalene, but it can also bind to small G-proteins or be transformed into GGPP by GGPP synthase that is used for protein geranylgeranylation (82). By inhibiting HMG-CoA reductase statins reduce intracellular FPP and GGPP availability. Indeed, Weivoda et al. found that during statin-induced differentiation of the osteoblasts, both FPP and GGPP are decreased during statin-induced osteoblast differentiation (83). Accordingly, exogenous induction of FPP by zaragozic acid was shown to suppress osteoblast differentiation (83). Similarly, also GGPP was reported to act as a negative modulator of osteogenesis (84). Ohnaka et al. showed that pitavastatin incubation increases the expression level of primary human osteoblast cells, an effect that was reversed by mevalonate or GGPP addition (85). Similarly, simvastatin can increase osteoblastogenesis by inducing the expression of BMP-2, alkaline phosphatase (ALP), OCN, and vascular endothelium growth factor (VEGF). At the same time, the addition of GGPP into the media prevented simvastatin-induced osteogenic differentiation (35). BMP-2, a low molecular weight glycoprotein, is a member of the TGF- β superfamily, which triggers bone formation and fracture repair by regulating mesenchymal condensation (86-88). As previously mentioned, statins are potent inducers of BMP-2 mainly through the Ras/ PI3K/ Akt pathway (35, 36). Lastly, statins preserve osteoblasts from apoptosis by activating the TGF β /Smad3 pathway (89) (Figure 1).

Statins and osteoclasts

Osteoclasts have been considered for many years as bone re-absorbing cells. Recent studies have shed light on many other functions for those cells, including modulation of osteoblast activity, facilitating role on bone matrix mineralization, and releasing hematopoietic stem cells from the bone marrow into the blood (90). They are multinucleated giant cells originating from the fusion of different monocytes under the influence of specific cytokines, including macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF) and receptor activator of NF- κ B ligand (RANKL) (91, 92). RANKL is essential for osteoclastogenesis and is expressed, in the bone tissue, by osteoblasts, osteocytes, and stromal cells (93-95). The binding of RANKL triggers osteoclasts formation and activation to its receptor (RANK) on the membrane of

osteoclast progenitor cells (96-98). Furthermore, RANKL was shown to inhibit osteoclast apoptosis (99). RANK is a type I integral protein that belongs to the TNFR family and is related to tumor necrosis factor receptor-associated factor (TRAF)1, TRAF2, TRAF3, TRAF5, and TRAF6. It signals through the activation of different transcription factors typically associated with inflammation, such as NF- κ B and (c-Jun N-terminal kinase) JNK (100). The pro-osteoclastogenesis RANKL/RANK system is found in osteoprotegerin (OPG) its main physiological inhibitor. OPG works as a decoy receptor for RANKL to reduce osteoclast differentiation, thereby blunting bone reabsorption (101).

Statins regulate osteoclastogenesis by directly acting on OPG/RANKL/RANK signaling pathway. When treated with different statins, murine bone cell cultures increase OPG and RANKL by performing at the transcriptional level (102). Furthermore, statins could prevent RANKL-induced osteoclasts differentiation of the murine monocyte/macrophage RAW 264.7 cell line (103). Specifically, simvastatin could inhibit the activation of NF- κ B by RANKL through blocking the phosphorylation and degradation of I κ B α (inhibitory κ B α), which is essential for the activation of NF- κ B (104, 105). As important mediators of NF- κ B and JNK activities, reactive oxygen species (ROS) are thought to be deeply involved in osteoclastogenesis, thereby positively influencing catabolism of bone tissue (106). RANK activation by RANKL stimulates the production of intracellular ROS during the osteoclastogenesis (107). Of interest, simvastatin significantly reduced ROS formation during RANKL-mediated differentiation of RAW 264.7 cells (105), suggesting another mechanism for statin inhibition of osteoclast activity (Figure 2).

Cytokines and other circulating mediators play a significant regulatory role in normal and pathologic bone remodeling by osteoclasts and OCPs (108). Estrogens are known to inhibit osteoclastogenesis by reducing levels of RANKL. Of interest, statins can induce the expression of estrogen receptor α (ER α), thereby facilitating the bone protective estrogen signaling [109]. Indeed that statins can improve fracture healing animal menopause experimental models [110], a finding which is confirmed in patients by clinical studies [111].

Osteogenic effects of statins on osteocytes and other bone cells

Osteocytes derive from osteoblasts (112). When compared with osteoblasts and osteoclasts with a shorter life span and are only found on the bone's surface, osteocytes are most abundant and found

within the bone's mineral component. Osteocytes effectively secrete both bone formation stimulating growth factors and sclerostin, which suppresses bone formation (81, 113-115). Osteocytes have several roles, including mineralization control, phosphate and calcium homeostasis, regulation of bone metabolism and vascularization, bone fractures healing via insulin-growth factor (IGF)-1, and modulation myelopoiesis/hematopoiesis via sclerostin and G-CSF (116-119). Among the different molecules involved in osteoclastogenesis, many are known to be regulated by statins in various ways, including matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), dentin matrix protein 1 (DMP-1), and Klotho (120-122). Yet, our knowledge of the Effect of statins on osteoblast differentiation toward osteocytes remains poor. Tai IC et al. have shown that the RhoA / ROCK mechanism is involved in the osteogenic differentiation of cultured mBMSCs in response to statin. They further demonstrated that this effect was not mediated by prenylation, which is inhibited by simvastatin. Also, simvastatin improved actin cytoskeleton, focal adhesion formation, and cell tension (123).

Conclusions and future perspectives

Statins have a significant effect on bone cell differentiation. Many mediators of osteogenesis, including BMP-2, glucocorticoids, TGF- β , ALP, type I collagen, and MMP-1, are directly influenced by statins. Statins modulate the differentiation of bone cells *via* several cellular pathways such as protein isoprenylation, Wnt/ β -catenin, and OPG/RANKL/RANK, eventually impacting on the action of different transcription factors including NF- κ β , JNK, and ER α . Several *in vitro* studies have been performed to clarify the potential influence of statins on bone cell differentiation. Despite the reliable experimental data linking statins with bone deposition, clinical evidence still need further confirmation as it mostly comes from observational studies and post-hoc analysis of RCTs. Therefore, further specific and well-designed RCTs are required to evaluate statins' role in the treatment of bone diseases.

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Figure legend

Figure 1. The effects of statins in osteoblastogenesis. Statins block HMG-CoA reductase in the mevalonate pathway and inhibit the production of mevalonate required for the synthesis of cholesterol and isoprenoids like FPP and GGPP. Decreasing cholesterol can increase bone formation. Reducing FPP and GGPP metabolites by decreasing Farnesylated proteins, Geranylgeranylated proteins, and Small G-proteins causes the stimulation of BMP-2, Runx2, VEGF, PI3 Kinase/AKT eventually leading to osteoblast differentiation and bone formation. Also, statins inhibit the apoptosis of osteoblasts by enhancing TGF- β /Smad pathway. BMP2, bone morphogenetic protein 2; Runx2, runt-related transcription factor 2; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; OCN, osteocalcin; BSP, bone sialoprotein; Col-I, collagen type- I; MMP, matrix metalloproteinases; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor.

Figure 2. The OPG/RANKL/RANK signaling pathway is regulated by statins. The binding of RANKL to RANK activates the cascade signaling pathways (TRAF6, ROS, JNK, NFK- β , NFACT1) that lead to bone resorption. Statins such as simvastatin can inhibit ROS generation, and NFK- β that block the bone resorption. Statins can upregulate OPG expression by binding to RANKL and avoiding it from contact to RANK, which protects the bone from bone resorption. Also, statins can decrease the osteoclastogenesis through suppressing the RANKL expression in an ER-dependent mechanism. Therefore statins may inhibit osteoclastogenesis by regulating OPG/RANKL/RANK signaling pathway. ER, Estrogen receptor; OPG, Osteoprotegerin; RANK, Receptor activator of nuclear factor-kappa B; RANKL, Receptor activator of nuclear factor-kappa B ligand; ROS, Reactive oxygen species; NFATc1, Nuclear factor of activated T-Cells.

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Figure 1

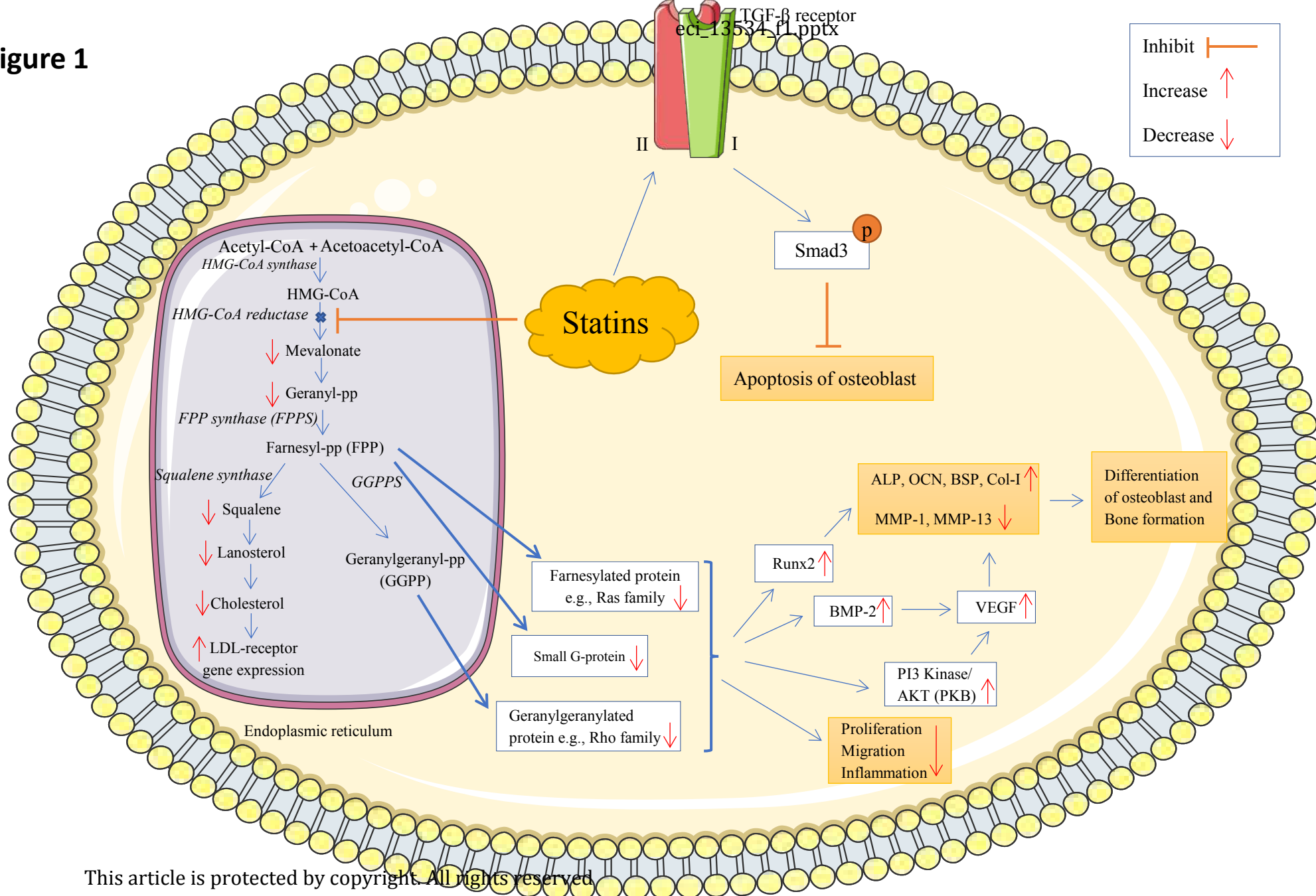


Figure 2

