Title: Rapamycin induced hyperglycemia is associated with exacerbated age-related
osteoarthritis

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Running Title: Dietary rapamycin accelerates age-related OA

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Abstract

Objective: Determine if mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) inhibition and/or AMP-acitivated protein kinase (AMPK) activation can modify primary osteoarthritis (OA).

Design: Dunkin-Hartley guinea pigs develop mild primary OA pathology by 5-months of age that progresses to moderate OA by 8-months of age. At 5-months, guinea pigs were fed either a control diet (n=8) or a diet enriched with the mTOR-inhibitor rapamycin (Rap, 14ppm, n=8), the AMPK-activator metformin (Met, 1000ppm, n=8), or the combination of rapamycin plus metformin (Rap+Met, 14+1000ppm, n=7) for 12 weeks. Knee joints were evaluated by OARSI scoring, micro-computed tomography, and immunohistochemistry. Glenohumeral articular cartilage was collected for western blotting.

Results: Dietary treatment with Rap and Rap+Met decreased body weight compared to control. Rap and Rap+Met inhibited articular cartilage mTORC1 but not mTORC2 signaling. Rap+Met, but not Rap or Met alone, stimulated AMPK. Despite lower body weight and articular cartilage mTORC1 inhibition, Rap and Rap+Met treated guinea pigs had greater OA severity in the medial tibial plateau due to articular cartilage structural damage and/or proteoglycan loss. Rap and Rap+Met increased plasma glucose compared to control. Plasma glucose concentration was positively correlated with OA pathology.

Conclusions: This is the first study to show that Rap induced increase in plasma glucose was associated with greater OA severity. Further, articular cartilage mTORC1 inhibition and bodyweight reduction by dietary Rap were insufficient to protect against primary OA during the prevailing hyperglycemia.

Key Words: Aging, mTOR, AMPK, Dunkin Hartley Guinea Pig, Degenerative Joint Disease

Introduction

Primary, age-related OA is estimated to account for as many as 90% of all knee OA cases in humans[1]. However, preclinical research commonly relies on experimental models of secondary OA. Although primary and secondary OA share similar pathological outcomes, there is a growing body of evidence to suggest they are driven by distinct mechanisms. Only 10% of differentially upregulated and 35% of differentially downregulated genes in OA vs non-OA samples are conserved between primary and secondary OA, meaning 65-90% of differentially expressed genes are unique to primary versus secondary OA[2]. Additionally, transgenic animal models have revealed that several genes are differentially involved in the progression of primary and secondary OA[3–8]. For example, deletion of *Panx3* protects against secondary OA yet dramatically worsens primary OA[3], and deletion of *JNK1/2* accelerates the development of primary OA while having no effect on secondary OA progression[8]. Together, these studies reinforce that unique mechanisms underpin these two forms of OA.

Age is one of the greatest risk factors for nearly every chronic disease, including primary OA. Two evolutionarily conserved kinases, mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) and AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), are energy sensing pathways similarly dysregulated during aging and OA[9–12]. The mTOR inhibitor rapamycin (Rap) can extend lifespan in mice and delay the onset of several age-related morbidities[11,13]. The anti-diabetic drug metformin (Met) can activate AMPK, extend lifespan in mice[14], is retrospectively associated with decreased incidence of chronic diseases[15], and is the first drug being tested to slow age-related multi-morbidity in humans[16]. While the prospect of lifespan extension is tantalizing, extending lifespan without delaying the onset or slowing the progression of the most debilitating age-associated conditions could be viewed as detrimental. Therefore, it is imperative to understand if purported lifespan-extending therapies that target the fundamental biology of aging are also capable of delaying the onset of chronic diseases, such as primary OA.

mTOR exists as complex I (mTORC1) and complex II (mTORC2). mTORC1 regulates cellular

proliferation, protein synthesis, senescence, and survival while mTORC2 functions downstream

of insulin signaling on substrates such as Akt[11]. In articular cartilage, mTORC1 activity increases

with age and is sufficient to induce OA in young male mice[9]. Acute or intermittent Rap selectively

inhibits mTORC1 while chronic Rap administration for durations greater than 14 days also inhibits

mTORC2 activity[17], although this has not yet been tested in articular tissues. Cartilage-specific

deletion of mTOR and systemic or intra-articular injections of Rap and the mTORC1/2 inhibitor

Torin 1 lower secondary OA in young-male mice and rabbits[18–21]. While these findings support

mTOR-based therapeutics for OA, the completed studies were exclusively in injury-induced

models of OA and have not been investigated in primary, age-related OA.

Decreased AMPK activity disrupts chondrocyte homeostasis and contributes to more severe

OA pathology in male mice[10,22]. Met and other AMPK-activators have chondroprotective effects

against inflammatory-induced protease expression *in vitro*[22,23] and protect against injury-induced

OA in young male mice and rhesus monkeys[24]. Retrospectively, Met treatment in obese patients

is associated with a lower rate of medial tibiofemoral cartilage volume loss and risk of total knee

replacement[25]. However, metformin and AMPK activation have not been prospectively

investigated in primary OA.

The Dunkin-Hartley guinea pig is a well-characterized outbred model of primary OA. The

progression of OA in guinea pigs is related to bodyweight[26] and shares a similar age-related and

spatial progression to humans[27]. Mild OA pathology develops by 5 months in guinea pigs that

progresses to moderate OA by 8-9 months of age[27–29]. Therefore, at 5 months of age we treated

guinea pigs with lifespan-extending doses of Rap, Met, or a combination of Rap+Met for 12 weeks

to slow the progression from mild to moderate OA. This study is the first to evaluate if lifespan

extending treatments that slow the biological rate of aging can modify primary OA, the most

prevalent form of OA observed in older adults.

Methods

Animal Use

All tissues were collected at the University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Data collection and analysis were completed at University of Wisconsin-Madison. Male Dunkin-Hartley guinea pigs (Charles River) were singly housed in clear plastic, flat bottomed cages (Thoren, Model #6) with bedding. 12-hour light/dark cycles were used beginning at 0600. Guinea pigs acclimated for 2-3 weeks and were provided standard chow diet (Evigo 2040) fortified with vitamin C (1050 ppm) and Vitamin D (1.5 IU/kg) and water ad libitum until 5 months of age. Guinea pigs were then randomized to continue the standard diet (n=8), or receive diets enriched with encapsulated rapamycin (14 ppm, n=8), metformin (1000 ppm, n=8), or the combination of encapsulated rapamycin+metformin (14 ppm, 1000 ppm, n=8) for 12 weeks. Guinea pigs were randomized to match bodyweight between groups prior to beginning treatment. Diets were enriched with microencapsulated rapamycin (Rapamycin holdings) and/or metformin (AK Scientific, I506) at concentrations previously shown to extend lifespan in mice[13,14,30]. Food consumption was recorded on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday between 8 and 9 AM, and body weight was recorded before feeding on Monday. Guinea pigs treated with Rap, Met or Rap+Met diet had ad libitum access to food. Dietary Rap treatment has been shown to significantly reduce bodyweight in mice[31,32]. Therefore, we matched food consumption in the control group to the Rap diets to minimize the influence of food intake on dependent variables. One guinea pig in the Rap+Met group was euthanized early due to a wound on the gums which led to suppressed appetite and infection. Tissues from this animal were not collected for analysis. It could not be determined if this was due to a laceration or an oral ulcer, which is a known side effect of mTOR inhibitors[33].

Tissue Collection

Two animals were sacrificed daily between 7 and 10 AM for 4 weeks. Food and water were removed from the cages 2-4 hours before euthanasia. Animals were anesthetized in a chamber containing 5% isoflurane gas in oxygen and maintained using a face mask with 1.5-3% isoflurane. Blood was collected by cardiac venipuncture followed by excision of the heart. The right hind limb was removed at the coxofemoral joint, fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin (NBF) for 48 hours, and transferred to 70% ethanol until processed for histology. The soleus muscle was collected from the left hind limb, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80C for further analysis. Because testicular atrophy has been observed following Rap treatment[34], the left testicle was preserved in 10% NBF and weighed.

Analysis of Experimental Diets and Blood

Samples of diets enriched with Rap, Met or the combination of Rap+Met, and aliquots of whole blood (n=4 per group) were sent to the Bioanalytical Pharmacology Core at the San Antonio Nathan Shock Center to confirm drug concentrations in the diet and in circulation. Analysis was performed using tandem HPLC-MS as described previously[13,35,36]. Frozen aliquots of plasma were thawed to measure glucose and lactate concentrations using the YSI Biochemistry Analyzer (YSI 2900).

Micro Computed Tomography (μCT)

Right hind limbs from half of each treatment group (n=4 per group) were scanned using a Rigaku CT Lab GX130 at 120 uA and 110 kV for 14 minutes, achieving a pixel size of 49um. Scans were first processed in Amira 6.7 (ThermoFisher) where epicondylar width was measured

and a series of dilation, erosion, filling, and image subtraction functions were used to isolate

trabecular and cortical bone as described previously[37]. Scans were then resliced 4 times along

axes perpendicular to medial and lateral tibial and femoral articular surfaces and binarized using

identical thresholds. NIH ImageJ software and BoneJ plugin were used to quantify thickness,

spacing, and volume fraction measurements. Cortical thickness was measured by placing

polygonal ROIs in resliced scans to encompass the articular surfaces in each joint compartment.

Trabecular thickness, spacing, and bone volume fraction were measured by placing transverse

ROIs (2.4x2.4x1mm) in the trabecular bone of each joint compartment.

<u>Histology</u>

Knee joints were decalcified in a 5% EDTA, changed every 2-3 days for 6 weeks. Joints

were then cut in a coronal plane along the medial collateral ligament, paraffin embedded and

sectioned at 5um increments for Toluidine Blue staining and immunohistochemistry (IHC). Slides

were scanned using the Hamamatsu NanoZoomer Digital Pathology System, providing 460nm

resolution. Scan focus points were set manually along the articular cartilage. Imaged slides were

then scored by two blinded reviewers for OA severity following OARSI Modified Mankin

guidelines[29]. One guinea pig each from the Rap and Met groups were unable to be analyzed due

to off-axis transection before embedding, and one control animal was a statistical outlier as

detected by Grubb's test. Therefore, N=7 per group were used for histopathological analysis.

<u>Immunohistochemistry (IHC) and Western Blotting</u>

Phosphorylation of ribosomal protein S6 (RPS6), a downstream target of mTORC1, is

commonly used as a readout for mTORC1 activity. Therefore, IHC was performed using a primary

antibody against P-RPS6 Ser235/236 (4858, Cell Signaling) and visualized by 3,3'-

diaminobenzadine (DAB) to assess mTORC1 signaling. Staining in the medial tibia was quantified

as signal intensity and percentage of cells staining positive.

Western blot analysis was performed on 10ug of protein from glenohumeral cartilage

lysate for P-RPS6 Ser235/236, RPS6, P-Akt Ser473, Akt, P-AMPK Thr172, AMPK, LC3B,

ADAMTS5, and MMP-13. More detailed methods on IHC, western blotting, and antibodies are

available in supplementary materials.

Statistical Analysis

A two-way repeated measures ANOVA (time x treatment) was performed to determine

differences in food consumption and body weight. Upon a significant interaction, a Holm-Sidak

multiple comparisons test was used. A two-tailed unpaired t-test was used to confirm age-related

differences between 5- and 8-month-old guinea pigs. Because we were interested determining if

treatments impacted the trajectory of OA pathogenesis compared to aged controls, differences in

all other variables besides plasma glucose were made using one-way ANOVA comparing

treatment groups to 8-month controls with a Holm-Sidak multiple comparison test. Because there

is evidence that Met can rescue the hyperglycemic effects of Rap[32], comparisons were made

between all groups for plasma glucose. Pearson's R was used to determine correlation between

variables. P-values <0.05 were considered statistically significant. Data are presented as scatter

plots with mean or mean ± 95% confidence interval.

Results

Influence of rapamycin and/or metformin on guinea pig physical and metabolic characteristics

201   Figure 1A shows the average daily food consumption per week of standard diet or diet enriched with Rap, Met, or Rap+Met. The average daily intakes of Rap and Met based on dietary concentration are reported in Table 1. Compared to control, there was decreased food consumption in guinea pigs receiving Rap+Met during week 2 (p=0.04). There were no significant differences between treatments.

    Despite largely matching food intake, there was a significant effect for time (p=0.049), treatment (p=0.004), and an interaction between time and treatment (P<0.0001) on bodyweight. Rap (p=0.03) and Rap+Met-treated guinea pigs (p=0.02) were smaller than control starting at week 6 and week 3, respectively, until the end of the study (Figure 1B). At sacrifice, Rap and Rap+Met-treated guinea pigs were 15% and 22% smaller than control. There were no differences in body weight between DH guinea pigs treated with Met versus control.

    Treatment with Rap (p<0.0001) and Rap+Met (p=0.008) increased plasma glucose by 64% and 39%, respectively, and the addition of Met to Rap non-significantly decreased plasma glucose compared to Rap alone (p=0.07; Figure 1C). Lactate concentration was elevated by 66% in Rap+Met-treated guinea pigs, only (P=0.05; Figure 1D). Testicle weight in guinea pigs receiving Rap (p=0.01) and Rap+Met (p<0.0002) were 27% and 44% lower than control, respectively, suggesting gonadal atrophy (Figure 1E). Treatment with Met alone exerted no apparent effects on blood glucose (P=0.66), lactate (P=0.38), or testicular weight (P=0.38) compared to control. We analyzed blood for the circulating Rap and Met concentrations ~3-hours after food had been removed from the cage (Table 2). This timing aligns with a measurement of peak circulating Rap and Met. We saw that experimental diets were sufficient to increase Rap and Met concentrations

in the blood, and that Rap and Met values were not different when providing diets individually or

in combination. There was no Rap or Met detected in circulation in control animals.

Rapamycin and rapamycin+metformin treatment exacerbated the age-related progression of OA

There was an increase in OA score from 5 to 8 months (P=0.03; Figure S1A) which is

consistent with the age-related progression of mild to moderate OA in guinea pigs. Surprisingly,

Rap and Rap+Met treatment resulted in a ~2-fold increase in total OA score in the medial tibial

plateau compared to age-matched control (P=0.048 for both Rap and Rap+Met; Figure 2B). This

was driven by increased scores for articular cartilage structure (p=0.03 for Rap only; Figure 2C)

and a trend for proteoglycan loss (P=0.07 for Rap, P=0.05 for Rap+Met; Figure 2D). Met alone

did not significantly affect OA score (p=0.21).

OA pathology was correlated to plasma glucose

Since Rap and Rap+Met treated guinea pigs displayed increased plasma glucose,

testicular atrophy, and worsened OA pathology, we evaluated the relationship between plasma

glucose, testicle weight, and OARSI score across all guinea pigs. Plasma glucose was

significantly correlated to both total OARSI score (R=0.38; p=0.048; Figure 3A) and proteoglycan

loss (R=0.47; p=0.01; Figure 3B). There was no significant correlation between testicle weight

and OA score (R=0.12; p=0.31; data not shown).

Effects of rapamycin and/or metformin on mTOR, AMPK, and protease expression

To evaluate mTORC1 signaling in articular cartilage, we measured the phosphorylation of

ribosomal protein S6 (P-RPS6) at Ser235/236 using IHC and western blotting. P-RPS6 was

decreased by 95% and 91% in the medial tibial articular cartilage of Rap and Rap+Met treated

guinea pigs as assessed by percentage of P-RPS6-positive cells (p=0.01 for both; Figure 4B).

mTORC1 inhibition was further supported by an 81% lower ratio of phosphorylated to total RPS6

in glenohumeral cartilage from Rap (p=0.003; Figure 4E). Rap+Met decreased RPS6

phosphorylation by 48% but did not reach significance (p=0.08). There were no differences

between groups in phosphorylation of the mTORC2 substrate Akt at Ser473 (Figure 4F; p=0.41).

AMPK activity was measured using western blot to assess phosphorylation of AMPK at Thr172

(P-AMPK). P-AMPK was not significantly changed by Rap alone (p=0.83; Figure 4G) but was

elevated 77% by Rap+Met (p=0.01). Met alone elevated AMPK phosphorylation by 30% but was

not significant (p=0.37). Rap, Met, or Rap+Met did not significantly change the conversion of

LC3B I to II (p=0.84 for all groups; Figure 4H) nor a disintegrin and metalloproteinase with

thrombospondin motifs 5 (ADAMTS5; Figure 4I; p=0.9 for Rap and Met, p=0.12 for Rap+Met).

Matrix metalloproteinase 13 (MMP13) was increased by Rap+Met only (p=0.02; Figure 4J).

Rapamycin and rapamycin+metformin decreased subchondral and diaphyseal bone thickness

Representative microCT images shown in Figure 5A were used to quantify the effect of

experimental diets on subchondral bone parameters. Mean subchondral cortical thickness was

significantly decreased by Rap and Rap+Met in the medial (29%, p=0.002 for Rap; 23%, P=0.007

for Rap+Met) and lateral (21%, p=0.03 for Rap; 20%, p=0.03 for Rap+Met) tibia (Figure 5B). Met

treatment alone exerted no apparent effects on any subchondral bone parameter measured. Rap

and Rap+Met decreased (p=0.02) trabecular spacing by 15% and 16%, respectively, in the lateral

tibia only (Figure S2B). Trabecular thickness, trabecular spacing in other compartments, and bone

volume fraction were not affected by any experimental diet (Figures S2A-C). Further investigation

revealed that cortical thickness at the femoral diaphysis was decreased proportionately to medial

tibial subchondral bone (Figure 5C) and was correlated to bodyweight (R=0.74, p=0.001; Figure

5D), suggesting the smaller body mass of Rap and Rap+Met treated guinea pigs was related to

decreased cortical thickness. Femoral epicondylar width (Figure 5E) was not statistically different

between groups (Rap, P=0.75; Met and Rap+Met, P=0.82), suggesting that our treatments did

not affect skeletal development.

Discussion

The purpose of this study to test if dietary Rap, Met, or Rap+Met at concentrations

previously shown to extend lifespan in mice can delay the onset of age-related OA in the outbred

Dunkin-Hartley guinea pig. Treatment with Rap and Rap+Met inhibited mTORC1 but not

mTORC2 signaling in articular cartilage. Rap+Met, but not Rap or Met alone, activated AMPK.

Surprisingly, Rap with or without Met accelerated the age-related progression of OA from 5- to 8-

months. Guinea pigs receiving Rap and Rap+Met also displayed increased plasma glucose, and

total OA score and proteoglycan loss were correlated with plasma glucose. These findings

suggest the off-target effects of dietary Rap treatment may exacerbate OA pathology. Further,

these data suggest that mTORC1 inhibition may not be sufficient to slow the progression of age-

related OA during high-glucose conditions.

Despite inhibiting mTORC1 in articular cartilage, our findings indicate that Rap, with or

without Met, worsens age-related OA in the medial tibial plateau. Further, Rap and Rap+Met

treated guinea pigs had greater OA scores even though they weighed less, which is contrary to

previous work where lower body weight was accompanied by lower OA scores in guinea pigs[26].

Although there is precedent that mTORC1 inhibition by intra-articular injection of Rap is

associated with exacerbated TMJ OA[38], our findings were opposite of our original hypothesis and

previous results using Rap in secondary models of knee OA[18,19]. The guinea pigs in the current

study received a dose of Rap that achieved similar circulating Rap concentrations shown to

extend lifespan[13,30]. Additionally, the dose of Rap in guinea pigs was similar to the dose shown to

protect against secondary OA in mice (0.7 in guinea pigs vs 1 mg/kg/day in mice)[18]. These findings

suggest that dose of Rap was not a likely factor contributing to differences between studies. In

our study, Rap treatment inhibited mTORC1 but not mTORC2 in articular cartilage. Previous work

has shown that deleting articular cartilage mTOR[21] or treating with Rap[18,19] or Torin-1[20] can

attenuate secondary OA in mice and rabbits. These non-selective genetic and pharmacological

methods likely disrupt the entire mTOR kinase and therefore could inhibit both mTORC1 and

mTORC2 signaling. However, this remains speculative since mTORC2 signaling was not

evaluated in these previous studies. Therefore, it continues to be unknown if mTORC2 inhibition

is necessary for protection against either primary or secondary OA. In support of the notion that

targeting mTORC2 modifies OA, inhibition of the mTORC2 substrate Akt protects against PTEN-

deletion-induced OA by decreasing cellular senescence and oxidative stress[39]. Further

investigation is needed to resolve the role of each mTOR complex in the initiation, progression,

and treatment of both primary and secondary OA.

While mTORC2 inhibition may be needed to preserve articular cartilage health, many

adverse side effects of Rap are mediated by off-target inhibition of mTORC2 in non-articular

tissues[17]. We showed that 12-weeks of dietary Rap and Rap+Met was accompanied by increased

plasma glucose and testicular degeneration. Met non-significantly lowered Rap-induced

hyperglycemia, however, the glucose values in Rap+Met treated guinea pigs were still greater

than control. These findings are in line with previous results that showed metformin alleviated

rapamycin induced glucose intolerance only in female mice[32]. The off-target effects of Rap in our

study are consistent with previous studies in mice and guinea pigs that show glucose intolerance,

insulin resistance, hypertriglyceridemia, immunosuppression, testicular atrophy and

cataracts[17,34,40]. In our study, OA severity in guinea pigs was correlated with plasma glucose, and

we propose that Rap-induced hyperglycemia may have contributed to worsened OA following

dietary Rap treatment. In support of this hypothesis, diabetic mice show accelerated OA after

injury and chondrocytes cultured in high glucose media display decreased expression of Collagen II and increased MMP13 and inflammatory mediators IL-6 and NFkB[41,42]. However, intermittent intraperitoneal injections of Rap lowered glucose and mitigated diabetes accelerated secondary OA[43]. Previous work suggests Rap can have divergent effects where it is beneficial in some diabetic models but causes adverse side effects in metabolically healthy models[17,44]. Collectively, these data indicate that the adverse metabolic side-effects of dietary Rap treatment are associated with a deleterious impact on primary OA pathology and could limit the utility of systemic Rap as a healthspan extending treatment in humans.

Rap has been implicated in attenuating secondary OA by increasing autophagy and decreasing protease expression[18,19]. While autophagy is a highly dynamic process, the static marker of autophagy, LC3B, is commonly used as a surrogate for autophagic flux. In our study, we saw no effect by any treatment on LC3B or ADAMTS5, while Rap+Met increased MMP13 in glenohumeral cartilage. Therefore, the inability to increase markers of autophagy and decrease proteases may be one contributing factor to why our lifespan-extending treatments did not protect and even worsened OA during aging and hyperglycemia. More work is needed to determine the molecular mechanisms responsible for the deleterious effects of Rap and Rap+Met.

Treatment with Rap and Rap+Met also decreased subchondral cortical bone thickness in multiple joint compartments and the femoral diaphysis. As bone growth in guinea pigs ceases by 4 months[45], and epicondylar width was not different between groups, the differences in bone thickness were likely not the result of disrupted development. Intra-articular injection of Rap into the TMJ caused subchondral bone loss by inhibiting pre-osteoblast proliferation[38], and Rap treatment also decreased osteoblast differentiation and bone matrix synthesis[46], which supports the idea that Rap acted directly on the bone to decrease thickness. However, we also found that subchondral thickness was highly correlated to bodyweight. This is in line with Wolff's law and agrees with previous findings where bodyweight restriction decreased cortical bone thickness in

the femoral diaphysis while largely maintaining trabecular bone parameters[47]. Therefore, both

local and systemic effects of Rap likely contributed to reduced cortical bone thickness.

Met treatment resulted in a modest increase in AMPK activity in articular cartilage, which

only reached significance when combined with Rap. Met alone had no effect on OA score, and

the addition of Met was unable to completely rescue the detrimental effects of Rap-induced

hyperglycemia. This is in contrast to previous studies that showed Met protected against

secondary OA in mice and rhesus monkeys[24] and attenuated hyperglycemia-induced OA in

mice[48]. One major difference between studies, besides species, is metformin dose. After

correcting for species differences in fractional bioavailability following oral consumption of Met[49,50],

the doses used by Li et al. (2020; 100, 200 mg/kg/day), which elicited protection against

secondary OA, are more comparable to a clinically effective dose of Met in humans. Therefore,

the 40±2 and 45±6 mg/kg/day of Met consumed by our guinea pigs receiving Met and Rap+Met

is ~5-fold lower than a clinically relevant dose in rodents and humans. In agreement, Met whole-

blood concentration (277 ng/mL) 2-3-hours after removing food from the cage was 5-7-fold lower

than observed in healthy and diabetic humans following a normal therapeutic dose[50]. More work

is needed to determine if there are dose-dependent effects of Met on OA.

Although we provide new insight into the role of mTOR during primary OA progression,

we recognize some limitations of our study. While the guinea pig is an excellent model of primary

OA, it is not a widespread model for biomedical research and molecular probes are seldom

designed for reactivity with guinea pig tissue. Due to reactivity issues with IHC in guinea pig

cartilage (Figure S3), several of our analyses were restricted to western blot on cartilage from the

glenohumeral joint. Although guinea pigs also develop mild glenohumeral OA[27], this is not the site

at which we measured OA pathology. Our study could not conclusively determine if the

deleterious effects of Rap stemmed from its direct effects on the joint or off-target effects on other

tissues. However, our data suggest hyperglycemia induced by off-target actions of Rap was

associated with worsened age-related OA. Future work is needed to determine the role of articular

cartilage mTORC1 and/or mTORC2 in primary and secondary OA. Finally, while the Dunkin-

Hartley guinea pig more closely recapitulates both OA pathology and the genetic diversity in

humans, the outbred background lends itself to a high degree of variability that may have limited

our ability to detect more subtle differences in variables measured.

Conclusion

In summary, we have shown that a lifespan-extending dose of Rap and Rap+Met inhibited

mTORC1 but not mTORC2 in articular cartilage and accelerated the progression of age-related

OA. Rap- and Rap+Met-induced hyperglycemia was accompanied with worsened OA. Met alone

exerted no significant effect on OA pathology, which may be due to insufficient dose. These

findings raise concerns regarding the efficacy of dietary Rap as a life- and healthspan-extending

agent in humans and highlight need for further research regarding the individual and combined

role of mTORC1 and mTORC2 signaling in both primary and secondary OA.

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Author Contributions

Study design: AK. Data collection: DM, CE, AK, KS, MJ. Data analysis and interpretation: DM,

AK. Manuscript preparation: DM, AK. All authors approved of the final manuscript.

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The funding sources had no impact on any aspect of the study.

Conflict of Interest

The authors have no conflict of interest to disclose.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1: Characterization of animals on experimental diets. Food consumption (A) and bodyweight (B) of guinea pigs were recorded for the duration of the study (data presented as mean +/- 95% CI). Plasma glucose (C) and lactate (D) and testicle weight (E) are shown. **$P<0.01$ vs Con, ***$P<0.001$ vs Con, ****$P<0.0001$ vs Con.

Figure 2: Rapamycin and rapamycin plus metformin worsened primary OA. Representative images of histology from the medial tibia are shown for each group (A; scale bars are 0.5mm and 0.25mm in 5x and 10x images, respectively). Histological images were graded for total OARSI score (B; n=7 per group). The individual scores for articular cartilage structure (C), proteoglycan loss (D) and cellularity (E) are also shown. *$P<0.05$ vs Con.

Figure 3: OA severity correlated with hyperglycemia. Correlations of total OARSI score (A) and proteoglycan loss (B) with plasma glucose are shown. Dotted lines represent 95% CI.

Figure 4: Rapamycin and rapamycin plus metformin inhibited mTORC1 but had no effect on mTORC2 or autophagy. IHC was performed on the medial tibia for P-RPS6 (A; n=7 per group) and quantified as percent positive cells (B) and mean integrated intensity (C). Red arrowheads indicate cells staining positive for P-RPS6. Western blot was performed on glenohumeral cartilage (D) for P-RPS6 (E), P-Akt (F), P-AMPK (G), LC3B (H), ADAMTS5 (I), and MMP-13 (J). n=8 per group for Rap and Met, and n=7 per group for Con and Rap+Met. *$P<0.05$ vs Con, **$P<0.01$ vs Con.

Figure 5: Decreased subchondral bone thickness in rapamycin and rapamycin plus

metformin treated guinea pigs. Representative microCT sagittal cross sections from the medial

aspect of the joint are shown (A). Subchondral cortical thickness was measured in the medial and

lateral tibial plateaus and femoral condyles (B). Cortical thickness at the medial tibia presented

relative to cortical thickness at the femoral diaphysis (C), which indicates a proportionate

decrease at both sites. Medial tibial cortical thickness was highly correlated to bodyweight (D).

Femoral epicondylar width was found to be similar between groups (E). N=4 per group. *$P<0.05$

vs Con, **$P<0.01$ vs Con.

604   **Individual Tables and Figures**

606   **Table 1: Average consumption of rapamycin and metformin.** Using the concentration of

607   rapamycin and metformin from the diet analysis, the average doses were calculated for each

608   group. N=7-8 per group. Data are presented as mean with 95% CI (lower limit, upper limit).

	Experimental Diet		
	Rapamycin	Metformin	Rapamycin+Metformin
Rapamycin consumed (mg/kg/day)	0.72 (0.68, 0.76)	-	0.68 (0.59, 0.77)
Metformin consumed (mg/kg/day)	-	39.9 (38.7, 41.1)	44.5 (38.9, 50.1)

628 **Table 2: Concentrations of rapamycin and metformin in circulation.** Whole blood was

629 collected ~3 hours after food had been removed from the cages of guinea pigs and was analyzed

630 for rapamycin and metformin concentration by tandem HPLC/MS. N=4 per group. Data are

631 presented as mean with 95% CI (lower limit, upper limit).

	Experimental Diet		
	Rapamycin	Metformin	Rapamycin+Metformin
Circulating rapamycin (ng/mL)	72 (65, 79)	-	78 (68, 88)
Circulating metformin (ng/mL)	-	274 (248, 299)	282 (229, 334)

654   **Figure 1**

665   **Figure 2**

675   **Figure 3**

701   **Figure 4**

714 **Figure 5**

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