

# Gene expression profiles for *in vitro* human stem cell differentiation into osteoblasts and osteoclasts: a systematic review

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**Background:** There have been promising results published regarding the potential of stem cells in regenerative medicine. However, the vast variety of choices of techniques and the lack of a standard approach to analyse human osteoblast and osteoclast differentiation may reduce the utility of stem cells as a tool in medical applications. Therefore, this review aims to systematically evaluate the findings based on stem cell differentiation to define a standard gene expression profile approach. **Methods:** This review was performed following the PRISMA guidelines. A systematic search of the study was conducted by retrieving articles from the electronic databases PubMed and Web of Science to identify articles focussed on gene expression and approaches for osteoblast and osteoclast differentiation. **Results:** Six articles were included in this review; there were original articles of *in vitro* human stem cell differentiation into osteoblasts and osteoclasts that involved gene expression profiling. Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) was the most used technique for gene expression to detect differentiated human osteoblasts and osteoclasts. A total of 16 genes were found to be related to differentiating osteoblast and osteoclast differentiation. **Conclusion:** Qualitative information of gene expression provided by qPCR could become a standard technique to analyse the differentiation of human stem cells into osteoblasts and osteoclasts rather than evaluating relative gene expression. *RUNX2* and *CTSK* could be applied to detect osteoblasts and osteoclasts, respectively, while *RANKL* could be applied to detect both osteoblasts and osteoclasts. This review provides future researchers with a central source of relevant information on the vast variety of gene expression approaches in analysing the differentiation of human osteoblast and osteoclast cells. In addition, these findings should

enable researchers to conduct accurately and efficiently studies involving isolated human stem cell differentiation into osteoblasts and osteoclasts.

# 1 Gene Expression Profiles For *In Vitro* Human Stem 2 Cell Differentiation into Osteoblasts and Osteoclasts: 3 A Systematic Review

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## 33 Abstract

34 **Background.** There have been promising results published regarding the potential of stem  
35 cells in regenerative medicine. However, the vast variety of choices of techniques and the  
36 lack of a standard approach to analyse human osteoblast and osteoclast differentiation may  
37 reduce the utility of stem cells as a tool in medical applications. Therefore, this review aims

38 to systematically evaluate the findings based on stem cell differentiation to define a standard  
39 gene expression profile approach.

40 **Methods.** This review was performed following the PRISMA guidelines. A systematic  
41 search of the study was conducted by retrieving articles from the electronic databases  
42 PubMed and Web of Science to identify articles focussed on gene expression and approaches  
43 for osteoblast and osteoclast differentiation.

44 **Results.** Six articles were included in this review; there were original articles of *in vitro*  
45 human stem cell differentiation into osteoblasts and osteoclasts that involved gene  
46 expression profiling. Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) was the most used  
47 technique for gene expression to detect differentiated human osteoblasts and osteoclasts. A  
48 total of 16 genes were found to be related to differentiating osteoblast and osteoclast  
49 differentiation.

50 **Conclusion.** Qualitative information of gene expression provided by qPCR could become a  
51 standard technique to analyse the differentiation of human stem cells into osteoblasts and  
52 osteoclasts rather than evaluating relative gene expression. *RUNX2* and *CTSK* could be  
53 applied to detect osteoblasts and osteoclasts, respectively, while *RANKL* could be applied to  
54 detect both osteoblasts and osteoclasts. This review provides future researchers with a central  
55 source of relevant information on the vast variety of gene expression approaches in analysing  
56 the differentiation of human osteoblast and osteoclast cells. In addition, these findings should  
57 enable researchers to conduct accurately and efficiently studies involving isolated human  
58 stem cell differentiation into osteoblasts and osteoclasts.

59 **Keywords:** Molecular analysis, Stem cell, Differentiation, Osteoblast, Osteoclast, Human.  
60

## 61 Introduction

62 Bone, one of the hardest tissues in the body, serves three important functions: it provides  
63 mechanical support, acts as a shield to internal organs and carries out metabolic processes,  
64 such as providing storage for minerals and haematopoiesis (Ansari, Ito & Hofmann 2021;  
65 Konukoğlu 2019). As bone tissues are of paramount importance to the human body, the  
66 bones must be replenished continuously to retain their strength and structural integrity. This  
67 process is known as bone remodelling, which involves two main mechanisms, namely bone  
68 matrix formation and resorption. Osteoblasts are responsible for bone formation while  
69 osteoclasts are involved in bone resorption (Konukoğlu 2019; Phan, Xu & Zheng 2004).  
70 Faulty regulation of these two mechanisms disrupts the bone remodelling cycle, making  
71 them potential targets for pharmacological interventions in disease states such as  
72 osteoporosis (Kenkre & Bassett 2018).

73 Stem cells have shown promise in tissue regeneration and have been considered for  
74 application in medicine, such as repairing defective tissues and organs, including bone  
75 tissues. Several types of mesenchymal stem cells (MSC) isolated from various organs have  
76 been suggested as a source of osteoblast progenitors, such as dental pulp tissues (Koh et al.  
77 2021; Shahrul Hisham et al. 2016) and peripheral blood (Shahrul Hisham et al. 2010, 2019).

78 MSC have anti-inflammatory, angiogenic and immunomodulatory properties, which are  
79 responsible for wound healing and regeneration. Preclinical and clinical studies have shown  
80 promising potential to treat degenerative diseases that involve osteoblasts and osteoclasts,  
81 including osteoporosis and osteogenesis imperfecta (Götherström & Walther-Jallow 2020;  
82 Pain & Wink 2022; Yahao & Xinjia 2021). The use of cell-based regenerative medicine is  
83 able to modulate bone resorption, to reduce the susceptibility of fractures and to enhance the  
84 loss of mineral density (Arjmand et al. 2020; Iaquinta et al. 2019).

85 Osteoblasts and osteoclasts are the main cells that exist in the organic phase of bone tissue  
86 (Iaquinta et al. 2019). Osteoblasts differentiate from MSC that have been induced by  
87 regulatory factors such as bone morphogenic proteins (BMP). Osteoblasts produce bone  
88 matrix proteins wherein type 1 collagen (COL1A) is the most abundant extracellular protein  
89 of bone and is responsible for tissue mineralisation. Therefore, human osteoblast  
90 differentiation is observed through the expression of various kinds of bone-related  
91 extracellular matrix proteins, such as COL1A, osteocalcin (OCN), osteopontin (OPN) and  
92 bone sialoprotein (BSP). In addition, an increase in the alkaline phosphatase (ALP) activity  
93 profile is believed to be the major contributor to its characteristics (Intan Zarina et al. 2010;  
94 Katagiri & Takahashi 2002).

95 Osteoclasts are formed via the fusion of monocyte lineage cells, activating bone-resorbing  
96 osteoclast cells. A myriad of factors such as cytokines, signalling molecules and transcription  
97 factors aid osteoclast differentiation. Macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF) and  
98 receptor activator of nuclear factor- $\kappa$ B ligand (RANKL), which are produced by osteoblasts,  
99 are crucial to activate osteoclast differentiation. The survival of osteoclasts is maintained  
100 through the binding of RANKL to the nuclear factor  $\kappa$ B receptor, which induces the  
101 formation of multinuclear osteoclasts (Kang et al. 2014).

102 Osteoblasts and osteoclasts communicate with each other through cell-cell interactions,  
103 cytokines or the cell-bone matrix. This communication occurs at various stages of  
104 differentiation, including the early and proliferative stages. Moreover, osteoblasts affect  
105 osteoclast differentiation through several pathways, such as the osteoprotegerin  
106 (OPG)/RANKL/receptor activator of nuclear factor  $\kappa$ B (RANK) pathway. Osteoclasts are  
107 also involved in the formation of bones by osteoblasts, where osteoclasts resorb the bone  
108 matrix (Chen et al. 2018).

109 Osteoblast and osteoclast differentiation can be observed using various gene expression  
110 profiling approaches. Gene expression profiling is the study of the gene expression pattern  
111 at the transcript level. Genes that contain biological information about the organisms are  
112 transcribed into RNA and then translated into proteins (Brown 2012). Hence, the analysis of  
113 gene expression can be directly correlated to the end products of the genes. These analyses  
114 enable researchers to understand the process, development and behaviour of cells, and the  
115 interactions among cells.

116 There have been many publications on how gene expression approaches can help to analyse  
117 human stem cells differentiation into osteoblasts and osteoclasts. However, there are a wide

118 variety of molecular techniques and there is currently no established standard method to  
119 analyse the differentiation of human osteoblasts and osteoclasts. Hence, this systematic  
120 review aims to collect and evaluate the findings of studies that have examined osteoblast and  
121 osteoclast differentiation. This information should help to develop a standard technique with  
122 suitable markers to investigate osteoblast and osteoclast differentiation. Moreover, it should  
123 provide researchers with a central source of information to perform more efficient and  
124 accurate experiments.

125

## 126 **Materials and Methods**

127 This systematic review was performed by following the Preferred Reporting Items for  
128 Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines (Page et al. 2021). The  
129 PICOS question was established as follows: amongst the many methodologies and genes  
130 available, which are the most suitable techniques and genes for standard analysis of human  
131 stem cell differentiation into osteoblasts and osteoclasts? Two independent observers  
132 (K.W.L. and A.N.J.) performed the searches and evaluated the articles to determine their  
133 eligibility. Three other authors (S.H.Z.A., R.M.A.W. and I.Z.Z.A.) helped resolve any  
134 discrepancies from the stated methods.

135

### 136 **Data Search**

137 The studies included in this systematic review were retrieved from the PubMed and Web of  
138 Science databases. Independent keywords and their combinations were applied to the search  
139 engines of these databases. A detailed customised search strategy was established for each  
140 electronic database (*Table 1*). The title, abstract, authors' names and affiliations, journal  
141 name and year of publication were exported to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. K.W.L. and  
142 A.N.J. then independently screened the titles and abstracts to assess each article's eligibility  
143 for inclusion. During this phase, disagreements between the two observers were discussed  
144 and resolved by consensus. If no agreement could be reached, a third observer (S.H.Z.A.)  
145 was involved.

146

### 147 **Selection Criteria**

148 Only original articles that were published in the English language between 2016 and 2022  
149 were included; review articles and duplicate articles were excluded. *In vitro* studies involving  
150 the potential of only human stem cells to differentiate into osteoblasts and osteoclasts were  
151 included; studies using any cell lines or primary cultures from animals were excluded. *In*  
152 *vivo* studies were not included. Studies that had combinations of both animal and human  
153 cultures were included, but only the section on human cell cultures was considered.

### 154 **Data Extraction and Screening Process**

155 Screening involved the following process. First, review articles and articles published in a  
156 language other than English were removed. Next, studies performed without utilising human  
157 stem cells and that did not match the parameters of osteoblastic and osteoclastic

158 differentiation were removed. Techniques involved in screening profiles were also excluded  
159 in this review. All the remaining articles were screened for their eligibility. Data were  
160 extracted from each included article by following the PRISMA guidelines (Page et al. 2021).  
161 The data extracted included: study characteristics (first author, year of publication, language  
162 and study design), organism and cell lines and the methods used to analyse gene expression  
163 profiles.

164

### 165 **Risk of Bias Assessment**

166 The quality of methodology of the included studies was evaluated by K.W.L. following the  
167 ‘Modified CONSORT checklist of items for reporting *in vitro* studies’, with slight  
168 modifications to fit the study. The main domains are listed as follows: 1) structured summary  
169 in abstract, 2) specific objectives or hypothesis, 3) study population, 4) further description  
170 of interventions, 5) primary and secondary outcomes, 6) results, 7) limitations, 8) sources of  
171 funding and 9) availability of protocol. Any domains that were related to clinical trials or  
172 cell lines and primary cultures from animal samples were excluded, while the domains  
173 involving human stem cells were included. Disagreements between reviewers were resolved  
174 after discussion. Each criterion was marked as follows: present (+), absent (-), unclear (?),  
175 not stated (/) or not applicable (NA).

176

## 177 **Results**

### 178 **Data Extraction Results**

179 Searches with keywords in the electronic databases related to stem cell osteogenic  
180 differentiation (*Table 1*) produced a total of 52 articles, 17 results from PubMed and 35  
181 results from Web of Science. Every potential article was assessed independently based on  
182 the inclusion and exclusion criteria. After removing five duplicates between the two  
183 databases, 47 articles remained. A review article was also excluded. In addition, a single  
184 article in Japanese and a single article in German were excluded, followed by 12 articles not  
185 relevant to human stem cells and 26 articles that did not match the parameters of interest.  
186 Hence, there are six articles published between 2016 and 2022 eligible for qualitative  
187 synthesis. *Fig. 1* shows the flowchart of the article selection process.

188

### 189 **Study Design**

190 Of the six included studies, four focussed on the differentiation of osteoblasts, and another  
191 two focussed on the differentiation of both osteoblasts and osteoclasts. However, no studies  
192 focussed specifically on the differentiation of osteoclasts. All six studies were based on *in*  
193 *vitro* studies. The cultured cells included CD34+ peripheral blood stem cells (HSC) (Srikanth  
194 et al. 2016), and human mesenchymal stem cells (hMSC) (Bradamante et al. 2018; Höner et  
195 al. 2018; Xie et al. 2021; Xu et al. 2018). One study included multiple cultured cells, namely  
196 hMSC and human blood peripheral mononuclear cells (hBPMC) (Höner et al. 2018). The  
197 results from the risk of bias assessment are shown in *Table 2*. The included studies presented

198 an abstract with a brief rationale and clear objective or hypotheses and introduction. The  
199 studies also provided information on the populations and results. Three studies did not state  
200 the limitations while four studies did not provide information regarding funding.

201

## 202 **Gene Expression Profiles of Osteoblasts and Osteoclasts**

203 The methods used to analyse osteoblast and osteoclast differentiation included gene expression  
204 evaluated with quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) (Hashimoto et al. 2018; Höner  
205 et al. 2018; Srikanth et al. 2016; Xie et al. 2021; Xu et al. 2018) or microRNA sequencing  
206 (miRNA-seq) analysis (Bradamante et al. 2018). CD34+ HSC express runt-related transcription  
207 factor 2 (*RUNX2*), osterix (*OSX*), *RANKL* and osteonectin (*SPARC*) during osteoblast  
208 differentiation. Meanwhile, when using human bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells  
209 (hBMSC), *miR-142-5p* is the only gene expressed during osteoblast differentiation. hMSC, the  
210 most commonly used cells in studies included in this systematic review, express *COL1A*, *BSP*,  
211 *OPN*, *OCN*, *miR-139-5p*, *ALP*, *OPG*, *miR-940*, four and a half LIM domains 2 (*FHL2*) and  
212 *RUNX2* during osteoblast differentiation. hMSCs were also used for osteoclast differentiation;  
213 they express cathepsin K (*CTSK*), *NOTCH1*, *HES1* and *HEY1*.

214 Irrespective of the cell types and methodologies, there are certain gene expression profiles for  
215 osteoblast and osteoclast differentiation. These genes are specifically expressed during either  
216 osteoblast or osteoclast differentiation, except *RANKL*, which is expressed during both.  
217 *RUNX2*, *OSX*, *SPARC*, *miR-142-5p*, *COL1A*, *BSP*, *OPN*, *miR-139-5p*, *ALP*, *OPG*, *miR-940* and  
218 *FHL2* are only expressed during osteoblast differentiation. *CTSK*, *NOTCH1*, *HES1* and *HEY1*  
219 are expressed specifically during osteoclast differentiation. *Table 3* presents the gene expression  
220 levels, techniques and the type of stem cells applied to investigate osteoblast and osteoclast  
221 differentiation, while *Table 4* includes the gene markers used in the included studies. Based on  
222 *Table 4*, *RUNX2* is the most commonly expressed gene during osteoblast differentiation, while  
223 *CTSK* is the most commonly expressed gene during osteoclast differentiation.

224 Upregulation of *RUNX2*, *OSX*, *RANKL*, *SPARC*, *BSP*, *COL1A*, *OPN*, *OPG*, *miR-940*, *ALP*,  
225 and/or *FHL2* indicates osteoblast differentiation. *OPG* is highly expressed during osteoblast  
226 differentiation and halts osteoclast differentiation. *CTSK* is highly upregulated during osteoclast  
227 differentiation. Increased expression of Notch signalling pathway genes, including *NOTCH1*,  
228 *HEY1* and *HES1*, ultimately suppress osteoblast differentiation.

229

## 230 **Discussion**

### 231 **Types of Stem Cells Used in Osteoblast and Osteoclast Analysis**

232 Of the six included studies, hMSC were the most commonly used cell type (Bradamante et al.  
233 2018; Hashimoto et al. 2018; Höner et al. 2018; Srikanth et al. 2016; Xu et al. 2018). On the  
234 other hand, hMSC isolated from bone marrow, namely hBMSC (Bradamante et al. 2018; Xie  
235 et al. 2021), were the most used cell source, followed by a hMSC cell line from the human  
236 umbilical cord (Hashimoto et al. 2018), primary culture of hMSC from the femoral head (Höner  
237 et al. 2018) and primary culture of hMSC from blood peripheral monocytes (Xu et al. 2018).

238 The properties of hBMSC such as ease of isolation from bone marrow without causing an  
239 immunological problem and the ability to reach confluence in a short period make them the  
240 most popular model for *in vitro* osteogenic differentiation studies (Bhat et al. 2021;  
241 Ouryazdanpanah et al. 2018). Ansari, Ito & Hofmann (2021) showed that rapid osteogenic  
242 differentiation under biochemical and/or mechanical stimuli significantly increase gene  
243 expression specific to osteoblast differentiation. The other variant of adult stem cells in the  
244 included studies are HSC (Srikanth et al. 2016). HSC are the most thoroughly characterised  
245 tissue-specific stem cells and possess potential in regenerative medicine (Zakrzewski et al.  
246 2019). Monocytes derived from HSC, which comprise 10%-20% of peripheral blood, have been  
247 used during *in vitro* studies as osteoclast precursor cells. HSC and monocytes can be isolated  
248 and purified based on the expression of their specific surface markers such as CD34 and CD14.  
249 However, unlike MSC, the HSC isolation procedures are time-consuming and might lead to a  
250 low number of cells obtained, resulting in a larger volume of peripheral blood needed (Ansari,  
251 Ito & Hofmann 2021).

252

### 253 **Gene Expression Profiling Techniques**

254 Genes are upregulated and downregulated during cell-specific differentiation. Changes in gene  
255 expression can be detected by qPCR and miRNA-seq analysis. qPCR can detect the expression  
256 of a single gene while miRNA-seq analysis provides a profile of predefined transcripts or genes  
257 via hybridisation. Most of the studies included in this systematic review used qPCR rather than  
258 miRNA-seq to evaluate osteoblast and osteoclast differentiation because qPCR provides  
259 quantitative information about relative gene expression. In addition, miRNA-seq lacks an  
260 optimised standard protocol despite its computational infrastructure and bioinformatic analyses  
261 (Rao et al. 2019). Therefore, qPCR is the most commonly chosen technique.

262

### 263 **Markers for Both Osteoblast and Osteoclast Differentiation**

264 *RANKL* stimulates osteoclast formation and activity, which induces the expression of *RANKL*  
265 by osteoblastic stromal cells (Konukoğlu 2019; Mohammad et al. 2020). *RANKL* together with  
266 its receptor, *RANK*, is essential for bone remodelling. *RANKL* is highly expressed in osteoblasts  
267 while it is also important in osteoclastogenesis: dysregulation of *RANKL* signalling may impair  
268 bone resorption (Ono et al. 2020). Osteoblasts regulate bone resorption through *RANKL*  
269 expression (Konukoğlu 2019). *RANKL*, part of the *RANKL/RANK/OPG* signalling pathway,  
270 is secreted by osteoblasts. It then binds to its receptor (*RANK*) on osteoclasts and increases  
271 osteoclastic differentiation, resulting in bone resorption and bone loss (*Fig. 2*) (Roumeliotis et  
272 al. 2020). On the other hand, *OPG* could bind to *RANKL* to inhibit osteoclastogenesis  
273 (Mohammad et al. 2020).

274

### 275 **Gene Expression Profile of Osteoblast Differentiation**

276 The most frequently used gene markers among the included articles to detect osteoblastic  
277 differentiation are *RUNX2* (Höner et al. 2018; Srikanth et al. 2016; Xie et al. 2021; Xu et al.

278 2018) and *COL1A* (Höner et al. 2018; Xie et al. 2021; Xu et al. 2018). Early osteoblastic genes  
279 such as *RUNX2* and *OSX* showed high expression on the seventh day of culture, and enhanced  
280 expression was the key factor of osteogenesis (Xu et al. 2018; Srikanth et al. 2016). *RUNX2* is  
281 a member of the Runt-related transcription factor family. It is a master transcription factor and  
282 communicates with target gene promoters via its Runt domain. *RUNX2* facilitates bone  
283 remodelling through interaction with proteins and DNA sequences (Narayanan et al. 2019).  
284 Positive and negative regulation of *RUNX2* is crucial for bone formation (Narayanan et al.  
285 2019). *RUNX2* is initially detected in pre-osteoblasts and later upregulated in immature  
286 osteoblasts but downregulated in mature osteoblasts (*Fig. 3*). *RUNX2* is required for the  
287 determination of the osteoblast lineage during multipotent MSC differentiation into immature  
288 osteoblasts (Komori 2009). *RUNX2* encodes multiple transcripts that are derived from two  
289 promoters (P1 and P2) and alternative splicing. P1 (distal) and P2 (proximal) initiate the  
290 expression of the major *RUNX2* isoforms, type II (*RUNX2-II*) and type I (*RUNX2-I*),  
291 respectively. The structure of the promoter has been conserved in both human and murine  
292 *RUNX2* genes. *RUNX2-I* is expressed by osteoblasts at consistent levels throughout osteoblast  
293 differentiation while *RUNX2-II* expression is increased during osteoblast differentiation under  
294 the induction BMP (Schroeder, Jensen & Westendorf 2005). Therefore, *RUNX2* is the master  
295 transcription factor, and no bone is formed in the absence of *RUNX2*; making *RUNX2* the  
296 preferred standard marker for osteoblast differentiation.

297 *COL1A* is a bone matrix protein that facilitates morphological changes and transformation of  
298 pre-osteoblasts into mature osteoblasts; it also serves as an early marker for osteoblasts (*Fig. 3*)  
299 (Narayanan et al. 2019). Collagen is a triple helical structure in which procollagen forms the  
300 first helical structure during collagen synthesis. Protease removes the amino and carboxyl ends  
301 of the molecule, forming tropocollagen followed by cross-linking. PYD and DYP cross-link  
302 collagen polypeptides, providing mechanical support to maintain and stabilise collagen. These  
303 cross-linkages affect the differentiation of osteoblasts. DYP is a more specific and sensitive  
304 marker as it is found specifically in bones and dentin (Konukoğlu 2019). Similarly to *RUNX2*,  
305 MSC transfected with a miRNA mimic of miR-139-5p significantly enhances *COL1A*  
306 expression (Xu et al. 2018).

307 Some osteoblastic markers such as *RANKL* and *SPARC* (Roumeliotis et al. 2020) show high  
308 expression only at the later stages of osteoblast differentiation. *SPARC* regulates extracellular  
309 matrix assembly and the formation of matrix metalloproteinases and collagen that is needed for  
310 fibronectin-induced, integrin-linked kinase activation as extracellular matrix development  
311 needs an organised fibronectin matrix (Purnachandra Nagaraju et al. 2014).

312 *FHL2* interacts with integrins and transcription factors to control osteoblast differentiation.  
313 *FHL2* overexpression leads to rapid differentiation of stem cells into osteoblasts and increases  
314 the expression of osteoblast markers. On the other hand, knocking out *FHL2* downregulates  
315 osteoblast markers (Lai et al. 2006; Xie et al. 2021).

316 *OSX* is also upregulated during osteoblast differentiation. This gene encodes an osteoblast-  
317 specific transcription factor required for osteoblast differentiation and bone formation (*Fig. 3*).

318 *OSX*, one of the early osteoblastic genes, shows high expression in the early days of  
319 differentiation (Srikanth et al. 2016). *OSX* is considered a major effector in skeletal formation.  
320 *OSX* interacts with the nuclear factor of activated T cells (NFAT), which then forms a complex  
321 that improves osteoblast-mediated bone formation via activation of the *COL1A1* promoter (Han  
322 et al. 2016).

323 *ALP* (Hashimoto et al. 2018; Höner et al. 2018) is an early marker for osteoblastic  
324 differentiation produced by osteoblasts; its elevated level is positively correlated with bone  
325 formation rate (Fig. 3). *ALP* increases the local rate of inorganic phosphate release and aids in  
326 mineralisation while reducing extracellular pyrophosphate, which is an inhibitor of mineral  
327 formation (Vimalraj 2020).

328 *OPN* and *BSP* are co-expressed in osteoblasts and osteoclasts. These genes encode proteins  
329 that promote adhesion of the cells to the bone matrix through the RGD (Arg-Glu-Asp) cell  
330 adhesion sequence. *OPN* is an acidic molecule; its central section consists of sequences that  
331 communicate and interact with seven integrins. *OPN* is a crucial factor in bone remodelling and  
332 settling osteoclasts in the bone matrix (Zhao et al. 2018). On the other hand, *BSP*, which is  
333 highly negatively charged, can isolate calcium ions while conserving polyglutamate regions  
334 with hydroxyapatite crystal nucleation potential. *BSP* allows the attachment and activation of  
335 osteoclasts through the RGD motif (Huang et al. 2005). qPCR analysis has revealed that  
336 elevated *OPN* and *BSP* expression is an osteogenic signature (Xu et al. 2018).

337 *OPG* (Iaquinta et al. 2019) is a decoy receptor for RANKL. It is secreted by osteoblasts to  
338 inhibit osteoclast differentiation: *OPG* binds to RANKL to block the interaction between  
339 RANK and RANKL (Kenkre & Bassett 2018). Kang et al. (2014) reported very low *OPG*  
340 expression during osteoclastogenesis in osteoclasts involved in alveolar bone resorption. *OPG*  
341 expression plays a role in autoregulation in the later phase of osteoclastogenesis (Kang et al.  
342 2014).

343 Several studies have shown the role of miRNAs in bone turnover, such as miR-940, which  
344 promotes *in vitro* osteoblast differentiation from hMSC (Hashimoto et al. 2018; Konukoğlu  
345 2019). However, the roles of miRNAs are very complicated, and additional studies are needed  
346 to understand them better.

347

### 348 **Gene Expression Profile of Osteoclast Differentiation**

349 The Notch signalling pathway is highly conserved; it regulates cell proliferation and  
350 differentiation, determines cell fate and is involved in cellular processes in adult tissues,  
351 including skeletal tissue development and regeneration (Luo et al. 2019). The Notch pathway  
352 regulates bone marrow mesenchymal progenitors by suppressing osteoblast differentiation and  
353 *NOTCH1* overexpression inhibits osteoblastogenesis in stromal cells. Hence, activation of  
354 Notch signalling has a negative effect on osteoblast differentiation. When exposed to an  
355 osteogenic induction medium, MSC are forced to undergo epigenetic modifications, resulting  
356 from the upregulation of *miR-139-5p*, a phenomenon that inhibits *NOTCH1* signalling activity,  
357 triggering osteoclast differentiation (Xu et al. 2018). However, *NOTCH1* deletion indirectly

358 promotes osteoclast differentiation through the enhancement of osteoblast-lineage-cell-  
359 mediated stimulation of osteoclastogenesis (Konukoğlu 2019).

360 Osteoclast Associated Ig-Like Receptor (*OSCAR*), *RANK*, *NFATC* and *CTSK* are  
361 predominantly expressed by active osteoclasts (Konukoğlu 2019; Srikanth et al. 2016). *CTSK*  
362 expression is regulated by the RANKL/RANK signalling pathway, which is one of the  
363 important pathways for osteoclastogenesis. Activation of this signalling pathway in osteoclast  
364 precursors enhances the pro-osteoclastogenesis transcriptional factor *NFATC1*, which allows  
365 the initiation of *CTSK* transcription to occur (*Fig. 2*) (Dai et al. 2020).

366

## 367 **Conclusion**

368 In studies published from 2016 to 2022, qPCR has been the most used technique and it is  
369 suggested as a standard approach to assess stem cell differentiation into osteoblasts and  
370 osteoclasts because it provides qualitative information on gene expression profiles. *RANKL* has  
371 been widely used as an osteogenic marker, *CTSK* is an osteoclast marker and *RUNX2* is an  
372 osteoblast marker. This review provides useful insights on gene expression profiles for future  
373 researchers evaluating human stem cell differentiation into osteoblasts and/or osteoclasts.  
374 Identification of these gene markers should increase the efficiency of future osteogenic  
375 research, a phenomenon that should ultimately promote better therapies and medications.

376

## 377 **List of Abbreviations**

378	<i>ALP</i>	Alkaline phosphatase
379	BMP	Bone morphogenic proteins
380	BSP	Bone sialoprotein
381	<i>CTSK</i>	Cathepsin K
382	<i>COL1A</i>	Type 1 collagen
383	ECM	Extracellular matrix
384	<i>FHL2</i>	Four and half LIM domains 2
385	hBPMC	Human blood peripheral mononuclear cells
386	hBMSC	Human bone marrow MSC
387	hMSC	Human mesenchymal stem cells
388	HSC	Hematopoietic stem cells
389	M-CSF	Macrophage colony-stimulating factor
390	MMPs	Matrix metalloproteinases
391	MSC	Mesenchymal stem cell
392	NFAT	Nuclear factor of activated T
393	NGS	Next Generation Sequencing
394	<i>OPG</i>	Osteoprotegerin
395	<i>OPN</i>	Osteopontin

396	PRISMA	Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses
397	qPCR	Quantitative polymerase chain reaction
398	<i>RANKL</i>	Nuclear factor- $\kappa$ B ligand
399	RNA	Ribonucleic acid
400	SPARC	Osteonectin

401

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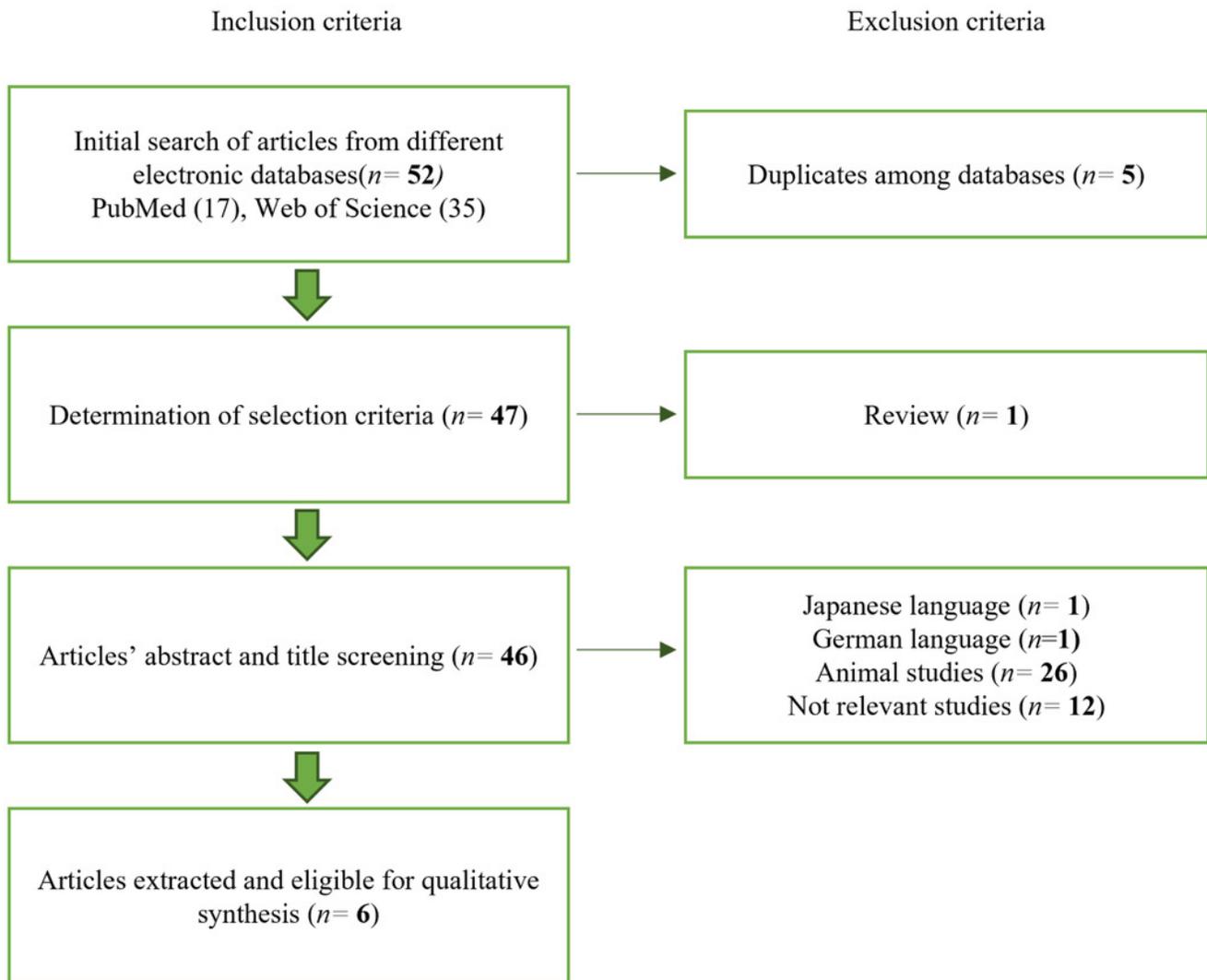
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# Figure 1

Article selection process.

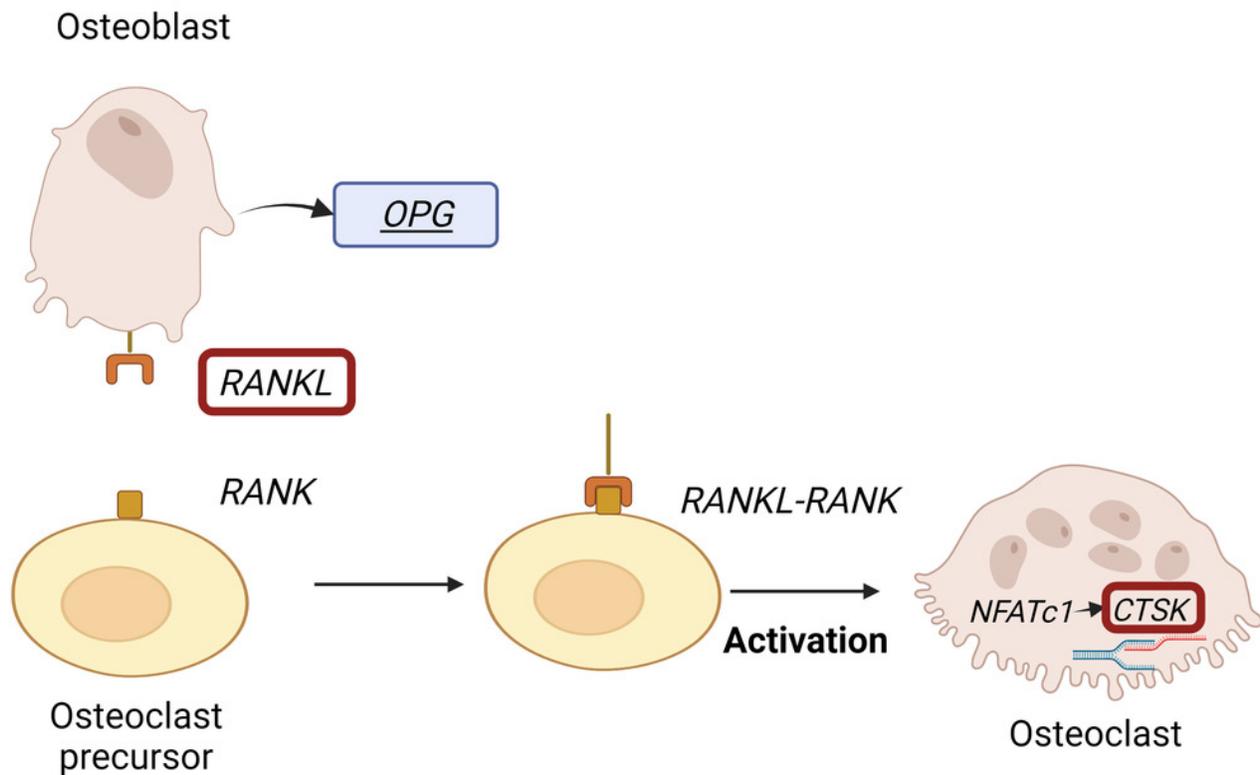
Article selection process is performed following the exclusion and inclusion criteria.



## Figure 2

RANKL/RANK interaction and CTSK expression.

Binding of RANKL, which is secreted by osteoblasts to its receptor, RANK embedded on osteoclasts results in bone resorption and bone loss. RANKL-RANK signalling pathway regulates the expression of CTSK through activation of NFATc1. Created with BioRender.com.

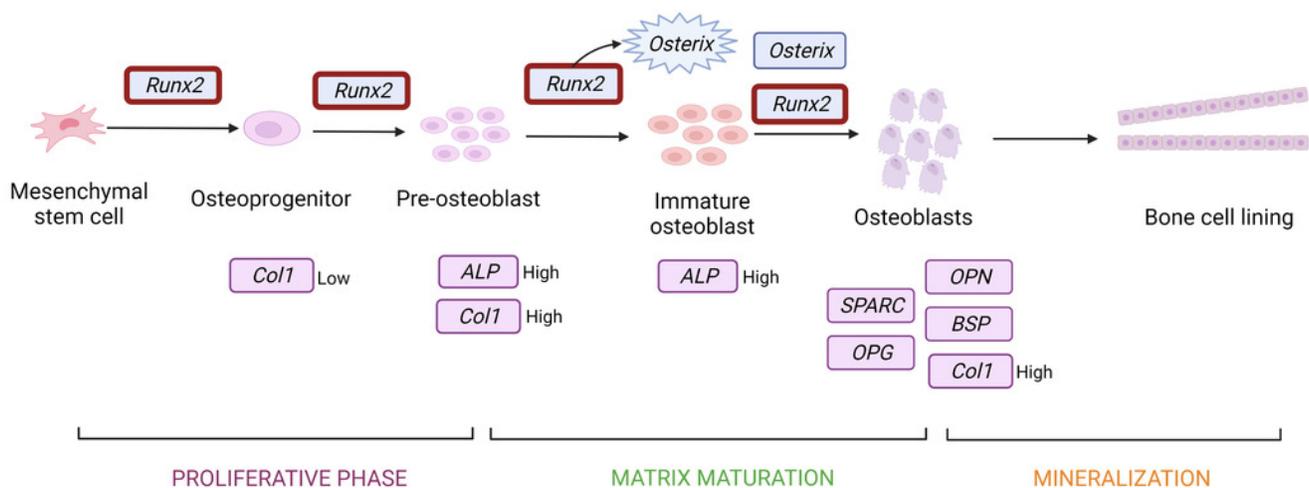


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## Figure 3

Gene expression profile of the osteoblastic cell.

*Runx2* expression is upregulated throughout from osteoprogenitor to osteoblast. However, there is a downregulation in mature osteoblast. *Runx2* activates *osterix* to produce immature osteoblast and both *Runx2* and *osterix* induce osteoblastic cells. *Col1* and *ALP* genes are expressed in osteoprogenitor to immature osteoblast under different conditions. Other genes such as *OPG*, *SPARC*, *OCN*, and *OPN* are secreted and induced mature osteoblastic cells. Created with BioRender.com.



Created with BioRender.com

**Table 1** (on next page)

The combinations of the keywords used in the search.

1 **Table 1: The combinations of the keywords used in the search.**

Database	Search strategy
PubMed	{[(((molecular analysis) AND (stem cell)) AND (differentiation)) AND (osteoblast)] AND (osteoclast)} AND (human)
Web of Science (WOS)	ALL= (molecular analysis AND stem cell AND differentiation AND osteoblast AND osteoclast AND human)

2

**Table 2** (on next page)

Risk of Bias Assessment.

1 **Table 2: Risk of Bias Assessment.**

<b>Author (year)</b>	<b>Domain</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>
Srikanth L. et al. 2016		+	+	+	+	+	+	/	/	+
Bradamante, S. et al. 2018		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	/	+
Xu, S. et al. 2018		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Höner, M. et al. 2018		+	+	+	+	+	+	/	/	+
Hashimoto, K. et al. 2018		+	+	+	+	+	+	/	/	+
Xie, Z. et al. 2021		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

2 Note: +; domain included, -; domain absent, /; domain not stated in the article, 1-9; main

3 CONSORT domain.

**Table 3** (on next page)

Gene expression profile approach.

1 **Table 3: Gene expression profile approach.**

Reference	Cell variant	Technique(s) used	Upregulation/ Highly expressed		No expression	Downregulation/ Low expression	
			Osteoblast	Osteoclast	Osteoclast	Osteoblast	Osteoclast
Srikanth L. et al. 2016	CD34 <sup>+</sup> peripheral blood stem cell (HSC)	qPCR	<i>Runx2</i> , <i>Osterix</i> , <i>RANKL</i> , <i>SPARC</i>		<i>RANK</i> , <i>OSCAR</i> , <i>NFATc</i> , <i>CTSK</i>		
Bradamante, S. et al. 2018	hBMSC	miRNA-seq analysis	miR-142-5p				
Xu, S. et al. 2018	Primary culture of hMSC from blood peripheral monocyte	qPCR	<i>BSP</i> , <i>COLA1</i> , <i>OPN</i> , <i>Runx2</i> , <i>miR-139-5p</i>				<i>Notch1</i> , <i>Hey1</i> , <i>Hes1</i>
Höner, M. et al. 2018	hMSC	qPCR	<i>Runx2</i> , <i>OPN</i> , <i>Coll</i> , <i>OPG</i> , <i>ALP</i>				
Hashimoto, K. et al. 2018	hMSC cell line from umbilical cord	qPCR	miR-940, <i>ALP</i>	<i>CTSK</i>			
Xie, Z. et al. 2021	hMSC	qPCR	<i>FHL2</i> , <i>Runx2</i> , <i>ALP</i> , <i>Colla</i>				

2

**Table 4** (on next page)

Summary of the gene markers for osteoblast and osteoclast cells.

1 **Table 4: Summary of the gene markers for osteoblast and osteoclast cells.**

Gene markers	Frequencies used	Indication
Nuclear factor kb ligand ( <i>RANKL</i> )	1	Osteoblast & osteoclast differentiation
Runt-related transcription factor 2 ( <i>Runx2</i> )	5	
Collagen type 1 ( <i>COL1a</i> )	4	Osteoblast differentiation
Alkaline phosphatase ( <i>ALP</i> )	2	
miR-142-5p	1	
Osterix	1	
Bone sialoprotein ( <i>BSP</i> )	1	
Osteopontin ( <i>OPN</i> )	1	
miR-139-5p	1	
Osteonectin ( <i>SPARC</i> )	1	
Osteoprotegerin ( <i>OPG</i> )	1	
Osteocalcin ( <i>OCN</i> )	1	
miR-940	1	Osteoclast differentiation
Four and a half LIM domains 2 ( <i>FHL2</i> gene)	1	
Cathepsin K ( <i>CTSK</i> )	2	
Notch signalling pathway ( <i>Notch1</i> , <i>Hes1</i> , <i>Hey1</i> )	1	

2

3

4