

1 Review

2 Genetics of Osteoarthritis: Insights from GWAS to
3 Therapeutic Opportunities

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19 Abstract

20 Objective

21 Osteoarthritis is the most common joint disease and a leading cause of pain and
22 disability worldwide, affecting both weight-bearing and non-weight-bearing joints.
23 Osteoarthritis is a complex polygenic disease shaped by genetic, molecular, and
24 environmental factors.

25 Design and results

26 Large-scale genome-wide association studies, enabled by global biobanks and
27 international collaboration, have identified hundreds of risk variants implicating
28 pathways involved in skeletal development, extracellular matrix organization,
29 inflammation, metabolism, and neuronal signalling. Integration of genetic findings with
30 multi-omics data in primary tissues has resolved many non-coding risk loci to likely
31 effector genes and core biological processes, such as TGF- β , WNT, and BMP signalling.
32 Emerging approaches linking genetics with imaging phenotypes through artificial
33 intelligence have further refined disease subtypes and mechanisms.

34 Conclusions

35 Together, these advances in genetics highlight osteoarthritis as a molecularly
36 heterogeneous disease and provide a foundation for improved patient stratification and
37 therapeutic development.

38

39 Keywords

40 Osteoarthritis genetics, Genome-wide association meta-analysis, Genetic architecture,
41 Polygenic risk, Molecular QTLs, Patient stratification

42

43 Introduction

44 Osteoarthritis is the most prevalent joint disease and a leading cause of pain and
45 disability worldwide [1]. It affects both weight-bearing joints, such as the knee, hip, and
46 spine, and non-weight-bearing joints, including the hand and finger [2]. Globally, more
47 than 595 million people (7.6% of the world's population) are affected by osteoarthritis,
48 representing a 132% increase since 1990, with prevalence projected to approach one
49 billion by 2050 [3]. The disease burden is expected to rise further with increasing life
50 expectancy and obesity rates.

51 Both genetic and environmental risk factors influence susceptibility to osteoarthritis,
52 including age, female sex, obesity, and joint abnormalities [4]. The genetic contribution
53 to disease risk, or heritability, is estimated to range from 20% to 70% depending on the
54 specific joint affected [5, 6]. Despite its high prevalence and substantial impact on
55 quality of life, no disease-modifying treatments are approved, and current management
56 is limited to symptom control and surgical joint replacement.

57 At the cellular level, osteoarthritis is a whole-joint disorder involving remodelling of
58 subchondral bone [7], osteophyte formation, progressive degeneration of articular
59 cartilage, pathologic changes in ligaments and menisci, hypertrophy of the joint
60 capsule, and synovitis [8]. Additional changes can occur in periarticular muscles,
61 nerves, bursae, and the infrapatellar fat pad, which may further contribute to
62 osteoarthritis pathology and symptom manifestation [9]. The primary cells involved
63 include multiple interacting cell types such as chondrocytes, osteoblasts and
64 osteoclasts, synoviocytes, fibroblasts, and mesenchymal stromal cells [10]. This
65 cellular and tissue heterogeneity underpins the complexity of osteoarthritis
66 pathogenesis and offers an opportunity for detailed mechanistic insight into the
67 disease.

68 Importantly, drug development programs supported by human genetic evidence are
69 more than twice as likely to succeed compared with those without [11]. Thus,
70 osteoarthritis genetics not only advances mechanistic insight but also provides a
71 foundation for precision medicine and the identification of disease-modifying targets.

72 Genetic Insights into the Polygenic Architecture of Osteoarthritis

73 Osteoarthritis is a highly polygenic disorder, with genetic susceptibility arising from the
74 combined effects of numerous loci across the genome. Heritability varies by joint site,
75 sex, and ancestry, with classic twin and family studies suggesting that genetic factors
76 explain approximately 39–65% of the variation in radiographic osteoarthritis of the hand
77 and knee in women, around 60% for hip osteoarthritis, and about 70% for spinal
78 osteoarthritis in population-based studies [5]. These findings highlight a substantial
79 genetic contribution to osteoarthritis risk and provide a rationale for genome-wide

80 association studies, which aim to identify the specific loci and variants underlying this
81 polygenic architecture.

82 Genetic studies have substantially advanced our understanding of osteoarthritis
83 pathogenesis, with early candidate gene studies identifying variants in cartilage- and
84 bone-related genes, including rs143383 in GDF5 [12, 13] and rs12901499 in SMAD3
85 [14], associated with both hip and knee osteoarthritis. Subsequent genome-wide
86 association studies (GWAS) have uncovered multiple risk loci and putative effector
87 genes [15-17]. The marked acceleration in locus discovery since 2017, reflects
88 increased sample sizes (Figure 1), broader ancestral representation (Figure 2), and
89 advances in analytical methods. This trajectory illustrates the rapid expansion of the
90 osteoarthritis genetics landscape and highlights how growing dataset scale continue to
91 refine the understanding of disease susceptibility. However, it remains unclear when
92 saturation will be reached. The proportion of phenotypic variance explained, and SNP-
93 based heritability captured by current GWAS remain modest, indicating that much of
94 the genetic architecture is unresolved [17]. Evidence from other complex diseases,
95 such as type 2 diabetes, indicates that continued increases in sample size will yield
96 additional loci, with progressively smaller effect sizes [18]. A large-scale GWAS of height
97 including over 5 million individuals reported more than 12,000 associated variants and
98 suggested that common variant discovery may be approaching saturation for this highly
99 polygenic trait [19]. In contrast, for osteoarthritis, further progress is likely to depend on
100 complementary strategies combining increased scale, deeper phenotyping and whole
101 genome sequencing to more fully resolve the allelic architecture of osteoarthritis.

102 In 2011, a major milestone in osteoarthritis genetics was achieved with the first large-
103 scale collaborative effort of the Arthritis Research UK Osteoarthritis Genetics
104 (arcOGEN) consortium in the United Kingdom, dedicated to uncovering genetic risk
105 factors for the disease [20]. The stage 1 arcOGEN genome-wide association study
106 included 3,177 cases and 4,894 population-based controls from the UK. Although
107 several association signals were detected, none reached genome-wide significance,
108 underscoring the need for much larger well-powered cohorts and rigorously defined
109 phenotypes to achieve robust discovery. One year later, the expanded Stage 1+2
110 analysis of 7,410 severe osteoarthritis cases and 11,009 controls identified five
111 genome-wide significant loci, which were replicated in an independent set of up to
112 7,473 cases and 42,938 controls, from studies in Iceland, Estonia, the Netherlands, and
113 the UK [21]. The strongest association was observed on chromosome 3 with rs6976,
114 which is in perfect linkage disequilibrium with rs11177 and represents a missense
115 variant in *GNL3*, the gene that encodes nucleostemin. Functional analyses
116 demonstrated increased nucleostemin expression in osteoarthritic chondrocytes,
117 providing direct biological support for a role of this locus in osteoarthritis pathogenesis.
118 Additional significant associations were found near *ASTN2* on chromosome 9, between
119 *FILIP1* and *SENP6* on chromosome 6, and at two loci on chromosome 12 close to

120 *KLHDC5–PTHLH* and *CHST11*, with all risk alleles having common frequency and
121 modest effect sizes. These findings provided new robustly replicated osteoarthritis
122 susceptibility loci and pointed to novel biological pathways potentially amenable to
123 therapeutic targeting.

124 A major boost to consortium-driven research came from the availability of large, deeply
125 phenotyped biobanks such as the UK Biobank (<https://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/>), All of Us
126 (<https://allofus.nih.gov/>), deCODE (<https://www.decode.com/>), FinnGen
127 (<https://www.finnngen.fi/en>) and the Million Veteran Program (MVP;
128 <https://www.mvp.va.gov/pwa/>), which enabled unprecedented gains in sample size,
129 broadened representation of under-studied ancestries and phenotypes, and provided
130 access to whole-genome sequencing data. Early large-scale efforts focused primarily
131 on individuals of European ancestry, capitalizing on these resources to refine
132 osteoarthritis phenotyping and expand discovery. Zengini and colleagues conducted
133 five genome-wide association analyses across multiple joint sites using the initial UK
134 Biobank release, showing that the larger self-reported dataset offered superior power
135 relative to hospital diagnoses, with high specificity offsetting reduced sensitivity [22].
136 Around the same time, Styrkarsdottir and collaborators combined Icelandic deCODE
137 data with the UK Biobank to meta-analyse hip and knee osteoarthritis, identifying
138 missense variants in *SMO*, *IL11*, and *COL11A1*, with the first two driven by rare or low-
139 frequency alleles, together with 13 additional new loci [23]. Building further on UK
140 Biobank data together with arcOGEN, Tachmazidou *et al.* reported 52 previously
141 unreported osteoarthritis loci and, for the first time, applied a systematic approach
142 integrating multiple lines of functional evidence to prioritize effector genes, including
143 potential therapeutic targets such as *TGFB1*, *FGF18*, *CTSK*, and *IL11* [24].

144 Building on these advances from biobank-driven studies, the formation of the Genetics
145 of Osteoarthritis (GO) consortium (<https://www.genetics-osteoarthritis.com>), enabled
146 broader collaboration and data sharing, greatly expanding sample sizes and
147 culminating in meta-analyses of 11 osteoarthritis phenotypes across both weight-
148 bearing (knee, hip, spine) and non-weight-bearing (hand, finger) joints [15]. Although
149 this GWAS meta-analysis included cohorts from around the world, the vast majority of
150 individuals had European ancestry, with a small fraction (~2.8%) of East Asian ancestry.
151 The study identified 100 independently associated risk variants, 52 of which had not
152 been reported before. Of these, 60 showed associations across multiple joint sites,
153 including rs3771501 (*TGFA*), rs3993110 (*TEAD1/DKK3*), rs72979233 (*CHRD2*), and
154 rs7967762 (*PFKM/WNT10B*) (Figures 2B and 2D), likely reflecting shared underlying
155 mechanisms in osteoarthritis pathology. Functional evidence linked these loci to TGF-
156 β /BMP and Wnt/ β -catenin signalling pathways, whose interaction is implicated in
157 osteoarthritis pathogenesis [25], highlighting these pathways as promising candidates
158 for therapeutic targeting. The remaining 40 variants were specific to weight-bearing
159 joints and 4 were specific to non-weight-bearing joints, demonstrating joint-specific

160 genetic architecture. These findings are further supported by a study showing that hand
161 osteoarthritis exhibited nominal or stronger effects at loci such as *ALDH1A2* and *MGP*,
162 whereas hip and knee loci including *RUNX2*, *COL27A1*, *ASTN2*, *IL11*, and *GDF5* were
163 also associated with hand osteoarthritis, indicating partial overlap in genetic
164 mechanisms across joints [26]. To translate the 100 identified variants into mechanistic
165 insights, analysis of functional genomics data from primary osteoarthritis tissues and
166 complementary computational approaches identified 77 effector genes supported by at
167 least three lines of evidence, including four missense variants, rs2276749 in *VGLL4*,
168 rs3740129 in *CHST3*, rs143083812 in *SMO*, and rs4252548 in *IL11*. To further
169 understand their biological roles in disease processes, additional data were integrated,
170 including analyses of endophenotypes closely related to osteoarthritis, monogenic and
171 rare human disease data, phenome-wide analyses, and other functional genomics
172 datasets. These genes discovered, highlight key pathways in osteoarthritis, including
173 skeletal development, joint degeneration, adipogenesis, muscle function, neuronal
174 processes, and immune and inflammatory responses. Notable examples include
175 structural genes *COL2A1*, *FBN2*, and *CHST3*; signalling regulators *VGLL4*, *TEAD1*,
176 *WNT1*, *PTCH1*, and *WNT10B*; neuronal-associated genes *C2orf40*, *TRIOBP*, *MTMR2*, and
177 *CUX1*; muscle-related *PFKM*; and immune/inflammatory mediators *TLR4*, *NR3C1*, and
178 *TNFSF11*, representing promising candidates for mechanistic studies and therapeutic
179 development. In 2025, the GO Consortium published a landmark follow-up meta-
180 analysis that combined data from up to 489,975 individuals with osteoarthritis and
181 1,472,094 controls, of whom 12.69% were of non-European ancestry [17]. This large-
182 scale effort identified 962 independent genetic associations, including 513 that had not
183 been previously reported. Integrating single-cell multi-omics data revealed significant
184 enrichment of genetic signals in pathways related to embryonic skeletal development.
185 By incorporating 24 orthogonal lines of evidence, spanning transcriptomic, proteomic,
186 and epigenomic profiles from primary joint tissues, the study implicated approximately
187 700 effector genes. Among these, the consortium identified rare coding-variant burden
188 associations with consistently larger effect sizes than those observed for common
189 variants. The implicated genes converged on eight key biological processes, including
190 the circadian clock, glial-cell-related pathways, and several signalling pathways already
191 known to be involved in osteoarthritis pathogenesis, such as TGF β , FGF, WNT, BMP, and
192 retinoic acid signalling, as well as extracellular matrix organization. Together, these
193 findings represent a major advance in elucidating the genetic architecture of
194 osteoarthritis and provide an extensive catalogue of potential therapeutic targets.

195 In 2022, McDonald *et al.* [16] leveraged the MVP and UK Biobank to perform the largest
196 multi-ancestry genetic study of osteoarthritis to date, including 484,374 participants
197 with 14.7% of non-European ancestry. The analysis identified 27 independent risk loci,
198 10 of which were newly reported in this study. Notably, four of these newly discovered
199 loci, mapping to regions containing *EFEMP1* (chromosome 2),

200 *SCN11A/WDR48/GORASP1/TTC21A* (chromosome 3), *GML/CYP11B1/CYP11B2*
201 (chromosome 8), and *TMEM263/MTERF2/CRY1* (chromosome 12), were first detected in
202 the European-ancestry–stratified results and also replicated in the multi-ancestry meta-
203 analysis, suggesting that their effects are likely shared across populations.

204 Large biobanks and international consortia have enabled more refined investigation of
205 clinically well-defined osteoarthritis phenotypes, including end-stage disease requiring
206 joint replacement. A meta-analysis by Henkel *et al.* [27] involving more than 700,000
207 individuals of Northern European ancestry dissected genetic differences between
208 surgical and nonsurgical hip and knee osteoarthritis, identifying ten variants specific to
209 the surgical phenotype, including signals at genes implicated in autophagy (rs2447606
210 in *ATG7*) and mechanotransduction (rs202127176 in *PIEZO1*). Similarly, Kulm *et al.* [28]
211 used total hip arthroplasty as a proxy for end-stage hip osteoarthritis in a GWAS of
212 15,353 cases and 374,193 controls, uncovering five new loci associated with end-stage
213 hip osteoarthritis.

214 Compared with weight-bearing joints, the genetics of hand osteoarthritis has been less
215 extensively studied. Initial genome-wide studies identified associated variants in the
216 *ALDH1A2* gene and rare variants at 1p31 in severe hand osteoarthritis [29]. Subsequent
217 work identified an association near *MGP*, where reduced gene expression may increase
218 disease burden by diminishing inhibition of cartilage calcification [30]. Radiographic
219 analyses further identified two additional loci, including a robust chromosome 1
220 association pointing to *WNT9A* as the likely causal gene in thumb osteoarthritis,
221 highlighting the value of phenotype-stratified approaches in uncovering joint-specific
222 genetic mechanisms [26]. The most recent meta-analysis of erosive hand osteoarthritis
223 confirmed *ALDH1A2* and *MGP* as risk loci and identified two further loci related to bone
224 biology, *BMP6* and *SPP1/MEPE* [31]. Moreover, genome-wide studies of minimum joint
225 space width as a proxy for cartilage thickness [32] and of hip shape using alpha angle
226 measurements have identified multiple risk loci, highlighting growth-related
227 mechanisms in hip osteoarthritis and demonstrating a moderate genetic correlation,
228 with evidence supporting a causal relationship between altered hip morphology and
229 osteoarthritis development. In the largest DXA-image–based hip-shape genome-wide
230 association study to date [33], many novel loci were identified, including signals
231 overlapping with hip osteoarthritis and hip fracture. Mendelian-randomization analyses
232 indicated that hip shape itself may not causally drive hip osteoarthritis but does appear
233 to influence hip fracture risk, suggesting that interventions aimed at modifying hip
234 shape to prevent osteoarthritis in older adults may have limited therapeutic value.
235 These studies illustrate how richly phenotyped biobanks can capture several
236 manifestations of osteoarthritis that are rarely accessible in traditional cohorts.

237 GWAS have predominantly relied on SNP arrays combined with imputation to reference
238 panels, capturing mainly common variants (minor allele frequency (MAF) >5%) and, to a

239 lesser extent, low-frequency variants (MAF >1% to ≤5%). Advances in sequencing
240 technologies, particularly whole-exome sequencing and whole-genome sequencing,
241 together with the emergence of large-scale sequencing biobanks comprising millions of
242 participants, have substantially expanded the ability to interrogate rare genetic
243 variation. Resources such as the UK Biobank, All of Us, and the Trans-Omics for
244 Precision Medicine program (<https://topmed.nhlbi.nih.gov/>), now enable
245 comprehensive detection of both common and rare variants, including structural
246 variants and non-coding regulatory variation. In osteoarthritis, rare variant studies have
247 identified high-impact alleles with large effect sizes, including a missense variant in
248 *COMP*, c.1141G>C (allelic frequency = 0.026%, odds ratio (OR) = 16.7), and a frameshift
249 mutation in *CHADL*, rs532464664, which associates through a recessive mode of
250 inheritance in the Icelandic population (homozygote frequency = 0.15%, OR = 7.71) [34].
251 Similarly, hand osteoarthritis has been linked to rare variants at 1p31, in addition to
252 common variants in *ALDH1A2*, highlighting the contribution of rare, or ancestry-specific
253 alleles to disease susceptibility [29]. Furthermore, a large meta-analysis across
254 hundreds of thousands of individuals identified six rare variant associations (MAF 0.03–
255 0.11%) with large effect sizes (OR range = 3.03–9.52), primarily driven by a large
256 extended family in Iceland [15], illustrating how rare variation can substantially
257 contribute to osteoarthritis risk and offering a plausible explanation for part of the
258 missing heritability [35].

259 From Genetic Loci to Mechanisms: Molecular Quantitative Trait Loci in 260 Osteoarthritis Tissues

261 Over 90% of osteoarthritis risk variants identified through GWAS fall outside protein-
262 coding regions [17]. Uncovering the effector genes and regulatory mechanisms they
263 perturb, requires functional genomic approaches. Recent years have seen a rapid
264 expansion of multi-omics studies that, when integrated with genetic findings, deepen
265 our understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying osteoarthritis. Reviews of
266 this growing literature highlight the power of combining genomics, transcriptomics,
267 proteomics, metabolomics, epigenomics, single-cell and spatial omics to generate a
268 comprehensive molecular map of osteoarthritic joints [36-38]. Here, we review
269 genetically-driven findings from such approaches that inform osteoarthritis risk and
270 biology.

271 The integration of genetic data with molecular profiles facilitates the discovery of
272 molecular quantitative trait loci (molQTLs), such as DNA methylation QTLs (mQTLs),
273 protein QTLs (pQTLs), and expression QTLs (eQTLs), linking genetic variants to
274 downstream molecular phenotypes. Steinberg *et al.* [39] generated tissue- and disease-
275 stage-specific cis-eQTL and cis-pQTL maps from intact and degraded cartilage and
276 synovial tissue of 115 osteoarthritis patients, identifying regulatory variants for 1,891
277 genes and prioritizing five GWAS-linked genes, *ALDH1A2*, *NPC1*, *SMAD3*, *FAM53A*, and

278 *SLC44A2* through genetic colocalization. Expanding on this work, Kreitmaier *et al.* [40]
279 generated genome-wide cis-mQTL maps, identifying tens of thousands of significant
280 mQTLs, sex-specific regulatory effects, and 19 methylation sites with putative causal
281 effects on knee osteoarthritis, including *COLGALT2*, *MFHAS1*, and *WWP2*. More
282 recently, the same group further expanded the molQTL framework by generating
283 matched genome-wide mQTL and expression quantitative trait methylation (eQTM)
284 maps across multiple primary osteoarthritis tissues, including low- and high-grade
285 cartilage and synovium, as well as synovium, infrapatellar fat pad, and blood, from 314
286 patients undergoing total knee replacement [41]. Integration of these epigenomic maps
287 with GWAS through tissue-specific colocalisation analyses identified DNA methylation
288 sites with putative causal roles in osteoarthritis and resolved genetic risk signals to 50
289 likely effector genes, highlighting novel candidates that substantially extend the
290 functional interpretation of noncoding GWAS loci. These include *CDK10*, which
291 encodes a component of the CDK10/Cyclin M kinase complex regulating actin
292 cytoskeleton organization [42]; *EXOSC6*, a subunit of the RNA exosome complex
293 involved in RNA processing, cytokine production, and cellular homeostasis, with
294 depletion linked to cell senescence [43-45]; and *GDNF*, a neurotrophic factor
295 implicated in osteoarthritis-related skeletal pain through activation and sensitization of
296 nonpeptidergic neurons via the GDNF/GFR α 1 pathway in preclinical models [46].

297 Earlier integrative genomic analyses combining GWAS with mQTL and in silico
298 functional annotation have shown that many osteoarthritis risk variants map to
299 regulatory elements influencing cartilage biology, and in silico prioritization highlighted
300 *COLGALT2*, *COL11A2*, and *WWP2* as compelling effector gene candidates through their
301 regulatory relationships with osteoarthritis associated variants [47]. Multi-tissue
302 epigenetic profiling at an osteoarthritis susceptibility locus demonstrated that
303 osteoarthritis associated genetic variation correlates with differential methylation and
304 allelic expression imbalance of the cytoskeletal gene *PLEC* across cartilage, synovium,
305 and fat pad, with more pronounced effects in joint tissues and downstream impacts on
306 pathways including Wnt signalling, immune regulation and glycosaminoglycan
307 biosynthesis [48]. More recently, locus-level functional dissection of the *COLGALT2*
308 osteoarthritis risk locus demonstrated that a single risk allele can exert opposing
309 effects on DNA methylation and gene expression across different joint tissues, revealing
310 tissue-specific pleiotropy [49]. These findings highlight the complexity of regulatory risk
311 mechanisms and caution that genetically targeted therapies may have divergent effects
312 across joint tissues.

313 The combination of genetic colocalization between mQTLs and osteoarthritis with eQTL
314 data from Steinberg *et al.* [39] enabled the identification of seven prioritized genes.
315 Complementing these findings, the same group profiled DNA methylation in
316 infrapatellar fat pad tissue from 70 osteoarthritis patients and integrated these data with
317 matched genotypes to construct a genome-wide cis-mQTL map, identifying 37 putative

318 causal methylation sites colocalizing with knee osteoarthritis GWAS signals and
319 implicating both established (e.g., *WWP2*, *COL27A1*, *ALDH1A2*) and novel (*USP8*, *TSKU*,
320 *FER1L4*) osteoarthritis effector genes [50]. More recently, integrated analysis of
321 response eQTLs, chromatin accessibility, and three-dimensional chromatin structure in
322 human osteoarthritis chondrocytes revealed how regulatory genetic variation
323 influences gene expression and disease risk mechanisms by linking osteoarthritis
324 associated variants to their target genes through 3D genomic architecture [51].

325 Together, these studies demonstrate that osteoarthritis is driven by interconnected
326 genetic, epigenetic, transcriptional, and metabolic networks acting across multiple cell
327 types and spatial niches within the joint. By simultaneously capturing molecular depth,
328 cellular heterogeneity, and regulatory architecture, integrative multi-omics approaches
329 provide a powerful framework for refining disease subtypes, identifying robust
330 biomarkers, and uncovering therapeutic targets, thereby accelerating progress toward
331 precision medicine in osteoarthritis.

332 Translational Implications in Osteoarthritis

333 Patient Stratification

334 Osteoarthritis is a highly heterogeneous disease, and patient stratification is
335 increasingly recognized as critical for both clinical management and clinical trial design
336 [52, 53]. Reviews and consensus frameworks now distinguish phenotypes (clinical
337 presentation), endotypes (dominant molecular mechanisms), and theratypes
338 (treatment-responsive subgroups), emphasizing that matching therapies to
339 mechanistic endotypes is critical for improving clinical trial success [52]. The
340 osteoarthritis literature most consistently describes several phenotypic categories
341 including metabolic syndrome, inflammatory, bone and/or cartilage, and mechanical
342 overload or injury phenotypes [54]. Additional proposed phenotypes include minimal
343 joint disease [55], hormonal or menopause-related [56], ageing-related [57], chronic
344 pain-dominant [58] and muscle-/obesity-/depression-/psychological distress
345 associated phenotypes [54, 55].

346 High-throughput omics studies have demonstrated the potential to define biologically
347 meaningful endotypes [36, 37]. However, stratification based on genetics alone is
348 unlikely to capture the full complexity of osteoarthritis, due to the modest effect sizes of
349 most risk alleles, the predominantly non-coding nature of GWAS signals, and strong
350 tissue-specific and environmental influences. Consequently, a genetics-only
351 stratification framework may miss critical molecular and clinical heterogeneity
352 necessary for personalized therapeutic strategies.

353 Nevertheless, genetic information can contribute to patient stratification in several
354 important ways. In clinical trial design, the pervasive carriage of osteoarthritis risk
355 alleles across patients for multiple biological pathways, including retinoic acid, TGFB,

356 BMP, Wnt, FGF, ECM assembly, circadian rhythm, and glial cell-related pathways, offers
357 an opportunity to enrich trial cohorts for individuals most likely to progress or respond
358 to pathway-targeted interventions [17]. For mechanistic stratification, variants in genes
359 associated with cartilage degradation (e.g. *GDF5*, *COL2A1*, *CHST3*), bone remodelling
360 (e.g. *TGFB1*, *WNT1*, *FBN2*), matrix composition (e.g. *COL2A1*, *ACAN*, *HSPG2*), or pain
361 pathways (*APOE*, *NR3C1*, *ESR1*) can define biologically meaningful endotypes, enabling
362 therapies to be targeted toward the dominant underlying disease mechanisms [15, 17].

363 Recent advances in artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning, have enabled the
364 extraction of quantitative imaging-derived phenotypes from medical images, providing a
365 powerful complement to traditional case/control definitions for genetic studies. For
366 example, Flynn *et al.* [59] trained deep learning models on knee DXA scans to classify
367 osteoarthritis cases and measure joint space width, a quantitative trait reflecting
368 disease severity, which substantially increased the number of genome-wide significant
369 loci discovered compared with binary phenotypes. Similarly, Faber *et al.* [60] derived
370 continuous structural osteoarthritis imaging phenotypes from UK Biobank imaging data
371 using machine learning and then performed genome-wide association analyses on
372 these traits. Their findings demonstrate that these imaging-derived phenotypes exhibit
373 distinct genetic architectures, providing evidence for genetically defined endotypes
374 within osteoarthritis. Together, these studies illustrate how AI- and machine learning
375 driven imaging phenotyping can refine osteoarthritis genetic studies, uncovering loci
376 and pathways not captured by conventional clinical definitions.

377 Genetics informed endotypes refine patient stratification and, when combined with
378 polygenic approaches, enhance prediction of risk and mechanistic subtypes in
379 osteoarthritis.

380 Polygenic Risk Scores (PRS)

381 PRS derived from genome-wide association studies have emerged as promising tools
382 for predicting disease susceptibility and related health outcomes [61, 62]. However,
383 despite the appeal of genetic risk prediction, these promises have not yet translated
384 into routine clinical practice. PRS calculation has become increasingly popular, but for
385 many complex traits, including osteoarthritis, predictive performance has generally
386 been modest [63]. One explanation is that genetic factors account for only a limited
387 proportion of osteoarthritis risk, while current PRS largely capture common variants
388 identified through genome-wide association studies and fail to encompass the full
389 spectrum of genetic contributions, such as rare variants [64]. In addition, the predictive
390 performance of PRS is constrained by the phenotypic definitions used in the underlying
391 GWAS. The vast majority of large-scale osteoarthritis GWAS have relied on prevalent
392 disease and, in some cases, on imperfect proxies of disease progression, such as total
393 joint replacement. As a result, PRS derived from these studies may reflect a mixture of
394 susceptibility and progression signals, potentially limiting their ability to accurately

395 predict incident disease. Future improvements in PRS performance will likely depend
396 on the development of GWAS based on well-characterised incident and progressive
397 osteoarthritis phenotypes, although such studies are challenging due to the need for
398 longitudinal data and large sample sizes.

399 Early conceptual frameworks of osteoarthritis emphasized its multifactorial and
400 systems-level nature [15, 65-67]. Although recent large-scale analyses have
401 demonstrated PRS constructed from hundreds of osteoarthritis risk loci, their predictive
402 accuracy remains limited [17]. In independent datasets, no osteoarthritis phenotype
403 achieved an area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) above 80%,
404 with the best performance observed for hip osteoarthritis (AUC 58.6%), improving to
405 66% when body mass index was included in the model. Similar findings have been
406 reported in other recent studies, where the authors suggested that a healthier lifestyle is
407 consistently associated with a lower risk of osteoarthritis, regardless of genetic risks
408 [68]. Persistent challenges, including suboptimal precision, limited transferability
409 across ancestrally diverse populations and low familiarity with PRS among patients and
410 healthcare providers, must be addressed before widespread clinical adoption [69].
411 Importantly, integrating PRS with complementary modalities such as proteomics,
412 metabolomics, imaging and longitudinal electronic health record data may
413 substantially enhance osteoarthritis risk prediction, inform screening strategies and
414 enable earlier interventions to reduce disease burden.

415 From Genetic Insights to Therapeutics: Novel Targets and Repurposed 416 Drugs

417 Genetic and functional genomics studies have substantially expanded the repertoire of
418 candidate drug targets for osteoarthritis. Large-scale genome-wide association studies,
419 integrated with expression, protein, and epigenetic quantitative trait loci, have linked
420 non-coding risk variants to effector genes involved in key biological pathways such as
421 TGF- β , WNT, FGF signalling, extracellular matrix organization, and inflammatory
422 regulation [17, 52]. Importantly, many genetically supported targets encode proteins
423 that are pharmacologically tractable, providing a rational foundation for therapeutic
424 development. These findings help prioritize targets with higher likelihood of clinical
425 success and lower risk of late-stage trial failure.

426 Drug repurposing offers an efficient strategy to accelerate therapeutic translation in
427 osteoarthritis by leveraging existing drugs with established safety profiles. Integrative
428 genomic and network-based analyses have identified multiple approved drugs whose
429 targets overlap with osteoarthritis risk genes or disease-relevant pathways, including
430 agents used for metabolic, cardiovascular, and inflammatory conditions [17, 52, 70].
431 Although observational and preclinical evidence supports potential benefits for some of
432 these compounds, rigorous randomized clinical trials are required to establish

433 disease-modifying effects. Genetically informed repurposing strategies provide a
434 systematic approach to prioritizing candidates with higher probabilities of success.

435 Several disease-modifying and symptom-modifying therapies are currently being
436 evaluated in osteoarthritis clinical trials, targeting pathways implicated by genetic and
437 molecular studies. These include growth factor-based approaches (e.g., FGF18
438 analogs), anti-inflammatory agents, inhibitors of cartilage catabolism, and compounds
439 targeting subchondral bone remodelling. A structured overview of these agents,
440 including their molecular targets, trial phase, and clinical outcomes, highlights how
441 translational genomics is increasingly informing therapeutic pipelines and guiding
442 rational trial design. Looking forward, a key challenge is how to intersect genetic
443 discoveries with clinical research to accelerate benefits for patients. In osteoarthritis,
444 enriching clinical trials with individuals who are more likely to progress with or without
445 the intervention, may increase the ability to detect treatment effects with smaller
446 sample sizes and reduce heterogeneity. In this context, polygenic risk scores may help
447 identify individuals at higher risk of progression for trial recruitment, while proteomic
448 and other molecular measures could define disease subtypes most likely to respond to
449 specific interventions. Such approaches support a vision of clinical trials recruiting with
450 omics in mind, enabling more targeted and efficient evaluation of emerging therapies.

451 Conclusions and Future Directions

452 Over the past decade, advances in human genetics and functional genomics have
453 fundamentally reshaped the understanding of osteoarthritis, transforming it from a
454 largely mechanically driven disorder into a complex, polygenic disease underpinned by
455 diverse molecular pathways. Large-scale genome-wide association studies, enabled by
456 global biobanks and international consortia, have uncovered hundreds of risk loci
457 spanning developmental, metabolic, inflammatory, neuronal, and circadian processes.
458 These discoveries have clarified that osteoarthritis susceptibility reflects the cumulative
459 effects of many common variants of modest effect, complemented by rarer variants
460 with substantially larger impact, operating across multiple joint tissues and disease
461 stages.

462 A major driver of recent progress in human genetic studies of osteoarthritis has been
463 the dramatic increase in sample sizes and phenotypic resolution. The transition from
464 underpowered candidate gene studies to biobank-scale analyses has markedly
465 improved statistical power, enabling robust locus discovery, cross-joint comparisons,
466 and systematic prioritization of effector genes. Importantly, recent efforts have begun to
467 address the historical bias toward European ancestry populations. Increasing inclusion
468 of individuals from diverse ancestries not only improves generalizability and equity but
469 also enhances fine-mapping resolution and facilitates the discovery of ancestry-
470 specific and low-frequency variants. Expanding diversity in both genetic and functional

471 genomic datasets will be essential for avoiding biased biological inference and ensuring
472 that future therapeutic insights benefit global populations.

473 Rare variant studies represent another critical frontier in osteoarthritis genetics. While
474 common variants explain a substantial proportion of population-level risk, rare coding
475 variants often exhibit much larger effect sizes and can directly implicate causal genes
476 and pathways. The identification of high-impact alleles in genes such as *COMP*, *CHADL*
477 and *IL11* underscores the value of whole-exome and whole-genome sequencing
478 approaches for uncovering biologically actionable mechanisms. As sequencing
479 resources continue to scale, integrating rare variant burden analyses with common
480 variant GWAS will be essential to more fully resolve the genetic architecture of
481 osteoarthritis and address components of missing heritability.

482 Beyond single-trait analyses, cross-phenotype and cross-disease GWAS (C-GWAS)
483 approaches offer powerful opportunities to dissect shared genetic architecture across
484 related traits, such as joint shape, cartilage thickness, pain sensitivity, metabolic traits,
485 and inflammatory phenotypes. These methods can reveal pleiotropic loci, clarify causal
486 relationships through Mendelian randomization, and identify pathways that contribute
487 to multiple disease manifestations. In osteoarthritis, such integrative approaches are
488 particularly valuable given the disease's strong overlap with skeletal development,
489 obesity, pain processing, and ageing-related pathways.

490 Crucially, genetic discoveries alone are insufficient without functional interpretation.
491 The integration of GWAS with molecular quantitative trait loci, single-cell and spatial
492 omics, chromatin conformation data, and AI-derived imaging phenotypes has begun to
493 bridge the gap from association to mechanism. These multi-layered approaches are
494 converging on a core set of biological processes, including TGF- β , WNT, FGF, BMP,
495 extracellular matrix organization, and neuronal signalling, that operate across tissues
496 and disease stages. This convergence strengthens confidence in these pathways as key
497 biological drivers of osteoarthritis and highlights them as priority targets for therapeutic
498 development.

499 Looking ahead, the future of osteoarthritis genetics lies in the deep integration of
500 diverse datasets across scales, populations, and modalities. Combining large,
501 ancestrally diverse cohorts with rich longitudinal phenotyping, multi-omics profiling,
502 imaging-derived traits, and clinical outcomes will enable more precise disease
503 subtyping and mechanistic stratification. Such efforts will be essential for translating
504 genetic insights into clinically meaningful advances, including improved risk prediction,
505 patient stratification, and the rational prioritization of disease-modifying therapies. As
506 genetics continues to inform both biological understanding and therapeutic strategy, it
507 is poised to play a central role in accelerating progress toward precision medicine in
508 osteoarthritis.

509

510 **Author contributions**

511 All authors contributed to the preparation and critical revision of the manuscript and
512 approved the final version for submission.

513

514 **Conflict of interest**

515 The authors declare no conflicts of interest related to this manuscript.

516

517 **Acknowledgements**

518 This work has received support from the Innovative Health Initiative Joint Undertaking
519 (IHI JU) under Grant Agreement No. 101219324. We are grateful to Iris Fischer for helpful
520 contributions.

521

522 **Role of the funding source**

523 The funder had no involvement in the in the study design, interpretation of data, writing
524 of the manuscript, and decision to publish.

525

526 **Declaration of generative AI in scientific writing**

527 No generative AI was used in the writing of the manuscript.

528

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818 Figure Legends

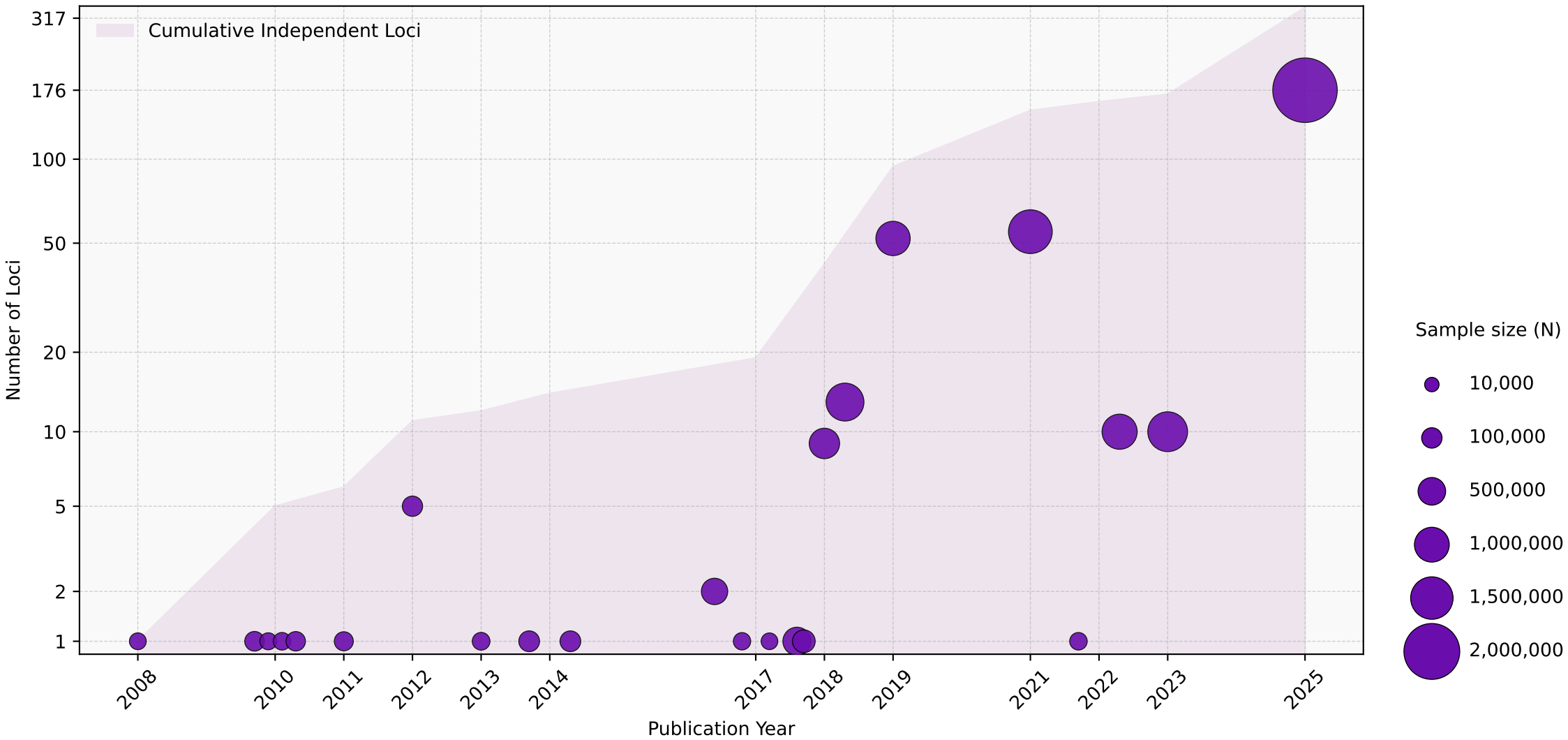
819 **Figure 1. Timeline of osteoarthritis risk loci discovery in genome-wide association**
820 **studies.** Each purple circle represents an individual study, with the y-axis showing the
821 number of newly reported genome-wide significantly associated loci across all
822 osteoarthritis phenotypes by year of publication. The light lavender shaded area
823 indicates the cumulative number of independent loci discovered over time. Years with
824 multiple studies have small horizontal offsets to avoid overlap. The size of each circle
825 reflects the proportional sample size of the corresponding study. Definitions of loci vary
826 between publications, typically encompassing a 500 kb to 1 Mb window around the
827 independent GWAS risk variant; for loci with multiple independent variants in close
828 proximity, the window can extend up to 3 Mb.

829

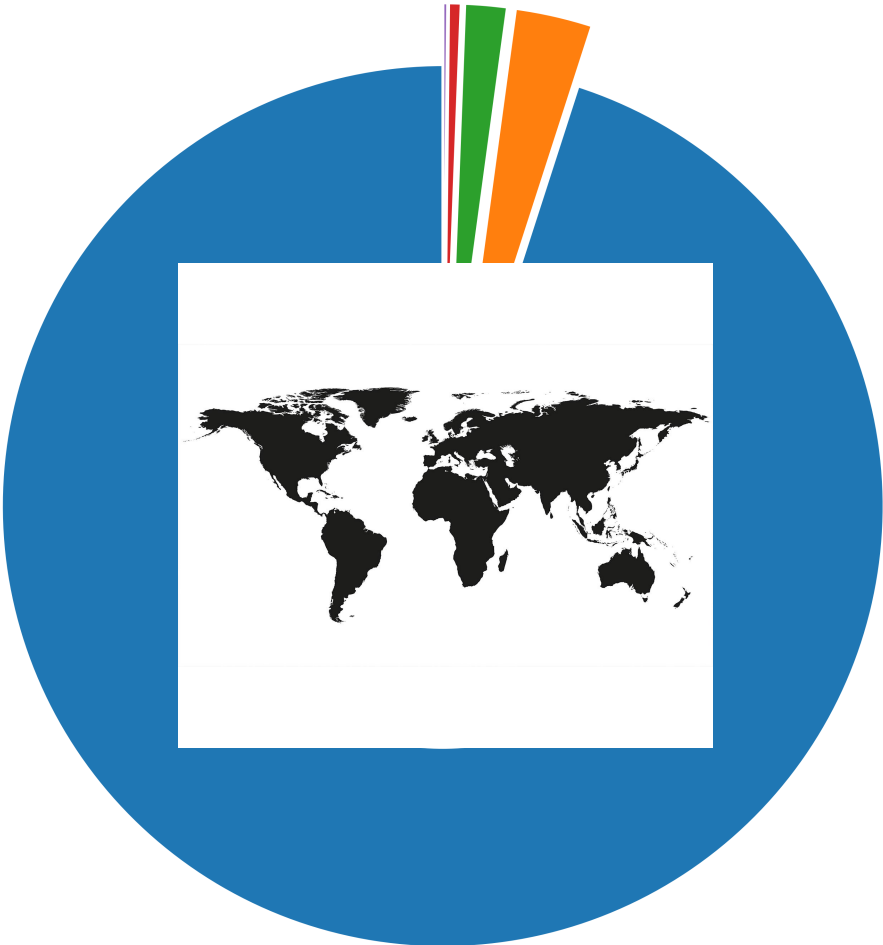
830 **Figure 2. Ancestry representation across osteoarthritis GWAS.** Donut chart showing
831 the distribution of total sample size (N) by ancestral group across osteoarthritis GWAS.
832 Percentages shown in the legend represent the proportion of the overall combined
833 sample size.

834

Osteoarthritis GWAS: Number of New Loci Discovered per Year



Distribution of Total Sample Size (N) by Ancestral Group



- European: 95.0%
- Asian: 2.8%
- African/African American: 1.5%
- Hispanic: 0.4%
- Mixed ancestry: 0.2%