



# Could collagen supplementation improve bodily functions?

## Physiological aspects of collagen supplementation: a narrative review

Ronny Heldt-Döpel, Nadine Berling

### Abstract

The possible beneficial effects of collagen supplementation, for example in osteoarthritis, skin aging, and certain inflammatory diseases, is currently a subject of discussion. To date, no mechanisms through which collagens mediate their effects have been clearly identified. Possible mechanisms of action have been little investigated as a whole, so the efficacy of collagen on the physiological level cannot yet be substantiated. Using an exploratory literature search and narrative review, this article aims to review physiological explanatory approaches and mechanisms of action that may be associated with collagen supplementation. Statements on the systemic bioactivity of collagen peptides, which appear to be able to cross the gastrointestinal barrier and exhibit relative stability in the bloodstream, mostly refer to modulation of endogenous collagen synthesis, immunological mechanisms, or influence on cell proliferation. These statements are largely based on in vitro or animal studies and also often have low evidence, which means that they cannot be easily extrapolated to the human body. Systematizing research approaches and conducting targeted studies to address unanswered questions would strengthen the physiological perspective and could yield scientific evidence that would enable well-founded statements to be made.

**Keywords:** collagen, supplementation, collagen peptides, osteoarthritis, skin aging, cell proliferation, collagen synthesis, availability, physiology

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### Introduction

#### Collagens

Collagens are structural proteins consisting of 662–3152 amino acids, with glycine, lysine and proline forming the largest percentage of these in quantitative terms [1]. Collagens play an important role wherever there are solid body structures, such as skin, bones, teeth, cartilage, intervertebral discs and ligaments.

The human body synthesizes collagen through endogenous collagen synthesis. The capacity for synthesis decreases with increasing age [1]. There are 28 types of collagen, all of which share a triple helix as their common structure. This structure is also known as the collagenous domain. The molecular structure also includes non-collagenous domains. These either have structural functions or are biologically active. Examples include von Willebrand factor domains, Kunitz domains, fibronectin [2], and thrombospondins [3].

Collagens occur naturally in foods such as meat and fish. They are a component of both human and animal body structures and are necessary for their construction [1]. Gelatin is purified collagen with a collagen content of up to 85%. Foods with a high gelatin content, such as aspic and gummy bears, contain between 4 and 8 g of collagen per 100 g [4]. Native collagens and collagen hydrolysates are also available in the form of nutritional supplements. Collagen hydrolysates are formed under the action of heat together with acids and alkalis to produce collagen peptides. Their water solubility is said to facilitate absorption [5]. Furthermore, adequate vitamin C supply is essential for the maintenance of normal endogenous collagen synthesis [6].

#### Health benefits of orally administered collagens

Various studies have postulated that exogenously supplied collagens may be effective when used in a variety of contexts, such as



joints subjected to strain through physical activity, osteoarthritis, sarcopenia, skin aging, and, in a few cases, diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis and fibromyalgia, although the findings have been contradictory [6–11]. As an oligopeptide, exogenously supplied collagen is subject to protein uptake mechanisms such as cleavage in the gastrointestinal tract, passage through the liver and bloodstream, and absorption into the target tissue [12]. That being the case, physiologically sound rationales that would explain the effect of the collagens in the aforementioned studies and the positive results of these studies are lacking. As yet, little research has been done on possible physiological mechanisms. In order to be physiologically active in tissues such as skin, cartilage, and bone [6–11], collagens must be systemically bioactive. In principle, this is possible provided that collagens cross the gastrointestinal barrier, are stable in the bloodstream during transport to the target tissue, and are effective in the target tissue.

## Methodology

The primary objective of this narrative review is to identify studies that investigate physiological aspects of the potential efficacy of exogenously supplied collagens.

The literature search was performed through a literature review of the MEDLINE meta-database using pubmed.gov and livivo.de. This was done using a narrative approach with a snowballing search strategy combined with selective keyword searches during the period December 2022 to February 2023. The literature was selected based on the factors listed in ♦ Table 1. The search strategy included identifying references to physiological mechanisms of action of collagens and selectively following up on the identified references with the aim of classifying them in terms of the underlying study design (*in vitro* study, animal study, human study).

As an initial step, the search terms *collagen*; *collagen supplementation*; *oral collagen supplementation*; *collagen mechanism*; *collagen skin mechanism*; *collagen joint mechanism*; *collagen metabolism* were used and the search results were limited to meta-analyses, reviews, and systematic reviews. Next, the search continued on a selective basis, checking the respective bibliographies and associated articles (“similar articles”, “cited by”) using a snowballing strategy.

| Glossary                     |   |
|------------------------------|---|
| <b>Domain</b>                | Smallest structure in a protein with stable folding   |
| <b>Endocytosis</b>           | Uptake of substances foreign to the cell into the cell  |
| <b>Fibronectin</b>           | Glycoprotein frequently found in the extracellular matrix; functions as an adhesion protein   |
| <b>First pass effect</b>     | Biochemical transformation of molecules during transit through the liver. This breaks down molecules and/or biochemically alters them, which can lead to changes in efficacy. |
| <b>Hydrolysate</b>           | Product of hydrolysis. Molecules are cleaved and hydrolyzed by the addition of hydrogen atoms.  |
| <b>Kunitz domain</b>         | Stable proteins that inhibit proteases such as trypsin  |
| <b>Precursor</b>             | A chemical that is transformed into another (that comes before another)   |
| <b>Tight junctions</b>       | Part of the intestinal barrier: cell contacts that attach epithelial cells to each other.   |
| <b>Thrombospondin</b>        | Multifunctional protein family; involved in processes such as immune reactions, cell adhesion or apoptosis  |
| <b>Passive diffusion</b>     | Movement of substances across a cell membrane in which no energy is required  |
| <b>Von Willebrand factor</b> | Glycoprotein that protects coagulation factor VIII from proteolysis and initiates platelet adhesion   |

## Results

### Intestinal stability and crossing the gastrointestinal (GI) barrier

Owing to their structure, collagens are subject to the mechanisms of protein digestion [12], which mainly involve the uptake of singular amino acids, dipeptides and tripeptides from the intestinal lumen. There are also intestinal transporters capable of transporting oligopeptides containing up to eight amino acids through the intestinal lumen. These include the transporters PEPT1, PEPT2, PHT1 and PHT2 [13]. According to current understanding, PEPT1 and PEPT2 are substrate-specific, but can transport dipeptides and tripeptides irrespective of the amino acid sequence [14]. The PHT1 and PHT2 transporters also transport mainly dipeptides and tripeptides, despite being occasionally associated with the uptake of longer-chain oligopeptides [15]. A mixed-method study has already demonstrated that the collagen peptides Gly-Pro-Hyp and Pro-Hyp exhibit stability in rat digestive secretions and can penetrate a monolayer intact *in vitro* [16]. Studies on intestinal barrier permeability are often performed *in vitro* using the Caco2 cell line, which simulates an epithelial layer by forming a monolayer [16–18]. Using HIEC-6 cells to simulate an epithelial layer achieves comparable results [19]. Other underlying mechanisms discussed as possible explanations for the uptake of oligopeptides from the intestinal lumen, in addition to the above-mentioned transporters, include passage through tight junctions, passive diffusion, endocytosis, or possibly other, as yet unknown, transport systems [17].



| Category                  | Inclusion criteria  | Exclusion criteria   |
|---------------------------|---|--|
| Publication period        | 2005 to 2023  | Published before the year 2005   |
| Language                  | English   | Other languages  |
| Database                  | MEDLINE   | Others   |
| Study design              | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– In vitro studies</li> <li>– Animal models</li> <li>– Meta-analyses and reviews</li> <li>– Intervention studies involving physiology-based measurements and/or determination of physiological markers.</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Observational studies</li> <li>– Case studies</li> <li>– Intervention studies not involving physiological measurements</li> </ul> |
| Extraction of the results | References to and/or investigation of physiological mechanisms mediated via collagen supplementation.   | Efficacy results achieved as a result of collagen supplementation without a physiological basis  |

**Table 1:** Search criteria for the literature search

### Stability after crossing the GI barrier and in the blood

Peptides that have crossed the gastrointestinal barrier are generally subject to breakdown by vascular peptidases and soluble plasma peptidases, as well as the first pass effect in the liver [8]. It is known that most exogenous peptides exhibit low stability and rapid clearance in plasma [20]. Collagen-associated peptides appear to be more stable with regard to plasma clearance and can be detected in venous blood after oral intake [21–27]. In this context, there is evidence that peptides containing hydroxyproline may exhibit increased stability in human blood [26–28]. Here, hydroxyproline occurs predominantly in combination with proline, but also alanine (Ala-hyp, Pro-hyp, Gly-Pro-hyp) [25]. The first pass effect in the liver is generally less well studied in the context of collagen peptides. Only one study followed this approach. In vitro, a quantitative increase was detected for some dipeptides after passing through a gastrointestinal model simulated by a Transwell system with a connected first pass effect. With the same experimental setup, tripeptides showed no change, so the study concluded that there was a selective increase in the number of some collagen-associated dipeptides after the first pass effect [19].

### Efficacy in the target tissue

#### *Stimulation of endogenous collagen synthesis*

In a randomized controlled intervention study in eight healthy men, an increase in a marker of endogenous collagen production, procollagen type I N-terminal propeptide (P1NP), was found with supplementation of gelatin and vitamin C in conjunction with physical activity [29]. The authors of this study also refer to other studies that came to similar conclusions [10, 11]. It was therefore suggested that an in-

crease in endogenous collagen synthesis could be a possible effect of collagen supplementation. This effect could not be confirmed in another randomized crossover intervention study that also investigated increase in P1NP [30]. A direct comparison of the two studies reveals methodological variability. Intake of up to 15 g of gelatin and 48 mg of vitamin C in an isocaloric adapted solution in 400 mL of tap water combined with six minutes of rope skipping in  $n = 8$  participants [29] are facing to 18 g of hydrolyzed type I collagen, 80 mg of vitamin C, 10  $\mu\text{g}$  of vitamin D in 200 mL of water combined with an exercise session consisting of successive jumping and resting phases, which were designated as “high impact exercise” ( $n = 14$ ) [30]. The first study does not specify exclusion criteria for subjects [29]. In contrast, the second study mentioned defines regular participation in high-impact exercise or adherence to special diets as exclusion criteria [30]. In a study without an exercise component conducted in postmenopausal women with osteopenia, other markers of bone metabolism were used (osteocalcin and carboxyl-terminal collagen crosslink) but there was no change [31]. In addition, some authors completely reject the hypothesis that supplementation can increase endogenous collagen synthesis [6].

#### *Immunological effects*

The main function of regulatory T cells (T-reg) is to reduce and regulate the activity of the immune system [32]. In experiments conducted in vitro, oral collagen peptides are used to stimulate them [33]. Oral tolerance mechanisms can be used as an explanatory model here. Within the framework of these mechanisms, oral intake of an antigen can ultimately lead to a reduction in immunological reactions in the body [32, 33]. Does supply of exogenous collagens induce oral tolerance? In this context, it was shown in a mouse model that intake of hyp-oligopeptides led to a shift in immunological parameters, which resulted in reduced allergic reactions through an increase in T-reg, among other effects [34]. T-reg also mediates the differentiation of macrophages into M2 macrophages and this differentiation is associated with reduced immune responses and the promotion of tissue regeneration processes [6, 35]. Furthermore, collagen peptides have also been shown to modulate various immune parameters, such as IL-1 $\beta$ , TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-10 in a mouse model [36].



### Cell proliferation

In an *in vitro* study, the uptake of Pro-Hyp dipeptide was demonstrated in mouse-derived tendon cells, where it promoted tendon cell differentiation and maturation [37]. The authors speculated that the uptake of the peptides into the tendon cells was independent of PEPT1. Defining the uptake pathway in detail was outside of the scope of this paper. The distribution of absorbed Pro-Hyp was 75.5% in the cytosol, 16.4% in the membrane, 5.8% in the cytoskeleton, and 2.3% in the nucleus. Here, one possible mechanism for promoting cell proliferation is mediation via the FOXG1 gene. Knockdown of FOXG1 prevented the cell proliferation-promoting effect of Pro-Hyp in osteogenic cells in a cell study [38]. FOXG1 was therefore a limiting factor of cell proliferation in this experimental setup. FOXG1 has also been associated with cell survival, for instance in senescent hair cells in the inner ear [39], and with fibroblast growth *in vitro* [40]. Collagens stimulating other growth factors, such as VEGF and IGF-1, has also been reported *in vitro* and in mouse models [41]. Furthermore, collagen-mediated reduction of matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), which are able to degrade collagenous structures, is discussed in the context of skin aging [42] as well as stimulation of hyaluronan synthase 2 (HAS2) [43]. HAS2 stimulates the formation of hyaluronic acid *in vitro*. This promotes the hydrogenation of the extracellular matrix, which in turn may have an indirect positive influence on cell proliferation [43].

## Discussion

The present narrative review summarized insights into possible mechanisms of action of exogenous collagen peptides. Collagen peptides crossing the GI barrier is studied *in vitro* using the monolayer Caco-2 [17, 18] or, more rarely, the cell line HIEC [19]. This means that such research cannot be extrapolated to the human body for the time being [44]. However, *in vivo* detection of intact collagen peptides in the bloodstream supports the assumption that collagen peptides can cross the GI barrier [21–27]. Looking at the timing aspect, in the studies reviewed, it is noticeable that collagen peptides peak in the bloodstream after about 1–2 hours, suggesting a certain level of resistance to the first pass effect and enzymatic degradation. However, there has been very little research on the influence of the first pass effect on collagen peptides in general. Interestingly, one study suggested that intracellular uptake of collagen peptides occurs independently of PEPT1 [37]. This raises the question of what the uptake mechanisms of collagen peptides may be. It is certainly possible to envisage that supplemented collagen peptides may be systemically available based on the studies reviewed here. If availability were assessed as high or low, or if quantitative measurements were made (e.g., excretion rates in relation to intake and plasma levels), this could lead to an improvement in the scientific evidence. In any case, it is not possible to conclude that supplemented collagen is systemically bioactive because availability in the body does not automatically imply efficacy.

Potential specific effects that have been identified include promotion of endogenous collagen synthesis, immunological modula-

tion, and promotion of cell proliferation. All three of these modes of action suggest that collagen supplementation might have positive effects. However, a more in-depth examination of the evidence reveals numerous unanswered questions and significant research gaps. Every so often, studies postulate that collagen supplementation may promote enteric collagen synthesis, for example, by altering a marker of collagen formation in bone (P1NP) [29]. However, how changes in this marker of collagen synthesis should be evaluated is a subject of debate. For example, it is known that in bone, mechanical stress alone can also lead to osteogenic effects [45]. There are also associations between inflammatory markers, such as C-reactive protein (CRP) and P1NP [46], so inflammatory processes seem to have an impact on P1NP. CRP can also be affected by physical activity [47]. Consequently, great care is necessary to take into account the integration of physical activity in study designs in order to be able to isolate the effects of collagen supplementation. A systematic literature search found little evidence ( $n = 4$ ) to support the effect of collagen supplementation on endogenous collagen synthesis [48]. Therefore, it remains questionable whether supplementation actually promotes endogenous collagen synthesis.

Oral tolerance is a process of endogenous immune regulation [32, 49] and is sometimes suggested to be present in the context of *in vitro* or animal models of collagen peptides [6, 33]. In this context, collagen peptide mediated enhancement of T-reg plays a key role in the discussion. It is difficult to extrapolate these immunologically associated mechanisms, identified in a small number of *in vitro* or animal experiments, to the human body, which in turn makes it difficult to assess the significance of immunological approaches. It would be desirable to have meaningful human studies on this, but such studies are likely to be costly to run. The first step would be to perform quantitative measurements that link a collagen dose to traceable plasma levels. A similar conclusion can be drawn for the promotion of cell proliferation based on the studies identified here. Various approaches exist, but they are based on cell studies or animal studies and are therefore difficult to assess. In 2011, the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) also concluded in its assessment of the health claim application for a collagen-containing nutritional supplement that there was no causal association between the intake of



collagen hydrolysate and the maintenance of joints. Therefore, no health claims referring to the ingredient collagen are permitted to be made for the numerous collagen-containing nutritional supplements on the market [50].

## Conclusion

From a physiological point of view, there is little systematic evidence for collagen supplementation, and it is not possible to establish positive efficacy due to the methodological heterogeneity of the available studies. The fact that certain studies have suggested that some collagen peptides are available in the body is not a sufficient basis for recommending supplementation, as no evidence for systemic efficacy can be derived from this. The many physiological explanations are yet to be systematized and evaluated in terms of their relevance.

## Limitations

The exploratory approach underlying this research is not very systematized. The qualitative evaluation of the underlying literature is also limited to analysis of whether the study is an *in vitro*, animal or human study. It is not possible to draw evidence-based conclusions regarding the efficacy or effects of collagen supplementation based on the present study.

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### Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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