Mesenchymal stromal cell therapy in ischemic stroke

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Abstract: Stroke is a clinical disease with high incidence, high disability rate, and high mortality. But effective and safe therapy for stroke remains limited. Adult mesenchymal stromal cells (MSCs) perform a variety of therapeutic functions. MSC delivery improves neurological outcomes in ischemic stroke models via neurorestorative and neuroprotective effects such as angiogenic effects, promoting endogenous proliferation, and reducing apoptosis and inflammation. MSC secretome also showed powerful therapeutic effects as a cell-based therapy in animal experiments. Several clinical trials on MSC implantation via different routes have now been completed in patients with stroke. Although challenges such as immunogenicity of allo-MSCs and large-scale production strategies need to be overcome, MSCs can be considered as a promising potential therapy for ischemic stroke.

Keywords: mesenchymal stromal cell, stroke, therapy, transplantation, exosomes

Introduction

Stroke is the second leading cause of death worldwide resulting in around six million deaths every year. A stroke attack happens in over 15 million people every year and leaves five million people disabled.1 In spite of decades of research and clinical trials, therapeutic approaches remain limited. Searching for safe and effective therapies is urgently required. Mesenchymal stromal cells (MSCs) are adult progenitor cells with multipotent and self-renewing capacity that can be easily obtained from numerous sources including bone marrow, umbilical cord, adipose tissue, and dental pulp. Their self-renewal is similar to that of embryonic stem cells because of the shared expression of some pluripotency genes such as \textit{NANOG} and \textit{Sox2}.2 The International Society for Cellular Therapy has proposed four criteria to define MSCs. These are: 1) plastic adherence in standard culture conditions; 2) fibroblast-like morphology; 3) specific surface antigen expression: low expression (<2%+) of hematopoietic markers CD19, CD34, CD14, CD11b or CD45, CD79a, and HLA-DR and vascular marker CD31 as well as high expression (>95%+) of CD105, CD73, and CD90; and 4) in vitro differentiation potential to give rise to osteoblasts, adipocytes, and chondroblasts.3 MSCs are numerically the most favored cell type in stem cell therapy presently being studied in clinical trials.4 Therapeutic effects in ischemic stroke following MSC transplantation have been reported in many animal experiments and in some clinical trials. In this review, we elaborate on the therapeutic effects of transplanted MSCs in ischemic stroke models and illustrate clinical studies focusing on MSC therapy in stroke.
Cell-based therapy in preclinical ischemic stroke model

Previously, MSCs have shown promising efficacy in ischemic stroke model. Implantation of rodent or human MSCs by different means, including systemically and by intracerebral transplantation, several hours to days after cerebral ischemia has been shown to reduce infarct size and improve neurological function in rodent ischemia stroke models through its neurorestorative and neuroprotective effects. MSCs delivered systemically (intravenously or intra-articularly) can pass the blood–brain barrier (BBB), enter the brain, and localize to sites of injury, inflammation, and ischemia in spite of that most of them are stuck in the lung vasculature. Kim et al had confirmed MSCs’ brain tropism by performing whole-body imaging of radiolabeled human adipose-derived MSCs systemically given to rats with middle cerebral artery occlusion (MCAO). MSCs were trapped in the lungs for the first 2 hours after stroke onset but continued migrating over time to be found within the region of ischemic lesions. When MSCs were administered intravenously following a stroke, an increased number of MSCs labeled with BrdU was seen in the injured hemisphere than in the uninjured side. Increase in astrocytosis, vascularization, and endogenous proliferation were also reported. Adipose-derived MSC administration after transient global cerebral ischemia resulted in a significant protective effect against hippocampal neuronal death, which might be linked to the preservation of BBB integrity, prevention of endothelial damage, and a decrease in neutrophil infiltration.

Moisan et al found enhanced vascular density in the ischemic area after intravenous injection of clinical-grade human MSCs in experimental stroke and observed that this was through the release of endogenous angiogenic factors such as VEGF, angiogenin-1, and TGF-β1 enhancing the stabilization of newly formed vessels. Inflammation was also significantly suppressed by umbilical cord-derived MSC delivery as indicated by elevated levels of anti-inflammatory cytokines IL-4 and TGF-β and lower expression of IL-1β and TNF-α.

MSC transplantation at an earlier time after MCAO resulted in better functional recovery, and the preferential migration of MSCs to the cortex, as displayed in the early-transplant group, may be an explanation for this. A further reasoning for this was that the time-dependent expression of MCP-1 and stromal cell-derived factor-1 between ischemic regions induces the different migration of MSCs. Highest expression of MCP-1 one day after stroke may mediate preferential migration of MSCs to the cortex, thus leading to enhanced improvement. Delayed transplantation of MSCs also showed encouraging improvement in neurological function after stroke, and this is more critical in terms of clinical utility.

Dynamic regulation of metabolites plays an important role in stroke. For various pathological conditions, polyamines (PAs) act as an important biochemical indicator in metabolic pathways. An investigation of PA level changes showed that putrescine, cadaverine, and spermidine in brain tissues of human bone marrow-derived MSCs treatment group were significantly reduced in comparison to controls. This study proved that MSC transplantation could ameliorate PA metabolic dysfunction in ischemic brain injuries.

Cheng et al demonstrated that human bone marrow-derived MSC treatment via tail vein injection within 30 minutes after stroke ameliorated neurological deficit, brain edema, and infarct volume via a mechanism involving increasing TGF-β level modulating peripheral immunoinflammation. Previous studies also observed that MSCs reduce the brain water content and protect BBB integrity following cerebral ischemia. Levels of AQP-4 and IL-1β were also considerably reduced. More recently, Tang et al showed that human bone marrow-derived MSCs retained their therapeutic efficacy on maintaining BBB integrity through the reduction of astrocyte apoptosis, and this appeared to be due to the attenuated inflammatory response and downregulated AQP4 expression through p38-MAPK signaling pathway.

Several studies demonstrated the potential of gene overexpression strategies to enhance MSC efficacy with genes such as BDNF, Notch-1, VEGF, and CXCR4. Recently, MSCs with genetically modified CXCR4, a surface adhesion molecule, showed enhanced migration activity and enhanced neuroprotection and angiogenesis effects in the MCAO model. Jeong et al, in an in vivo experiment, showed that treatment with MSCs overexpressing BDNF, which is secreted by brain cells and induces neuroprotection, caused an enhanced proliferation of endogenous neural stem cells and suppression of cell death. They also observed that more neuroblasts and mature neurons differentiated from newly formed cells in the subventricular zone and the surrounding ischemic area. Finally, delivery of human bone marrow-derived MSCs overexpressing BDNF and Noggin, which induces neuronal differentiation, decreased inflammation and apoptosis to a greater extent than control MSCs through the Akt/guanosine kinase-3β and TLR4/MyD88 pathways in an ischemic stroke model.
Another discovery is that hypoxia-preconditioned MSCs promoted neurological functional recovery via enhancing significantly the cell’s homing to the injured area and neuroregenerative effects. Preconditioning with TNF-α or endotoxin lipopolysaccharides will similarly attenuate the ischemic injury via an enhanced production of growth factors via the NF-κB pathway.

**Cell-free therapy in preclinical ischemic stroke model**

MSCs exert their therapeutic efficacy partially via paracrine action. MSC secretomes exhibit diverse functions such as anti-inflammatory, immunomodulatory, anti-apoptotic, and angiogenic activities. MSCs were an ideal cellular therapy source for neurological disorders because of the secretion of several neurotrophic factors such as nerve growth factor, BDNF, and glial-derived neurotrophic factor. MSC secretome contains several groups of secreted vesicles, which mainly include exosomes, microvesicles, and apoptotic bodies. MSC secretome has unparalleled advantages in clinical application as the following: 1) MSCs are less immunogenic than cells owing to lower expression of membrane-bound proteins such as major histocompatibility complex molecules; 2) MSC exosomes can be stored without the adverse effects observed were definitely related to cell treatment, and all serious treatment-emergent adverse events resolved without sequelae.

**Challenges in clinical MSCs therapy**

Although allo-MSCs have been shown to have equivalent efficacy to auto-MSCs in stroke models, recent studies have found that allo-MSCs are not fully immune privileged as previously suggested. Several in vivo studies demonstrated that they do elicit a humoral and cellular immune response. Zangi et al. found that luciferase-expressing mMSCs died by day 20 after being injected into allogeneic hosts. Moreover,
allo-MSCs seem to induce immune memory. Others reported that allo-MSCs stimulated innate immune responses such as encouraging macrophage and neutrophil infiltration to the injection site. Different groups have shown inconsistent or even opposite outcomes of allo-MSCs therapy in various experiments. To sum up, although in vivo immunogenicity of MSCs needs a comprehensive understanding and remains to be determined, there is doubt that MSCs are immune evasive rather than immune privileged. It is critical to take immunogenicity and its impact on clinical utilization into consideration and recognize it as a feature of MSCs. In any case, use of allo-MSCs in clinical trials needs reappraisal. Selection of appropriate genes to modify MSCs may be a solution.

Not only do allo-MSCs face significant challenges, but auto-MSCs also have drawbacks. An ideal procedure meeting the human clinical demands of amount, quality, and short expansion time has not been created. Optimizing a protocol to generate hMSCs or their secretome should be put on agenda.

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Reference


