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## Review

The stem cell secretome and its role in brain repair<sup>☆</sup>

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## ABSTRACT

Compelling evidence exists that non-haematopoietic stem cells, including mesenchymal (MSCs) and neural/progenitor stem cells (NPCs), exert a substantial beneficial and therapeutic effect after transplantation in experimental central nervous system (CNS) disease models through the secretion of immune modulatory or neurotrophic paracrine factors.

This *paracrine hypothesis* has inspired an alternative outlook on the use of stem cells in regenerative neurology. In this paradigm, significant repair of the injured brain may be achieved by injecting the biologics secreted by stem cells (*secretome*), rather than implanting stem cells themselves for direct cell replacement. The *stem cell secretome* (SCS) includes cytokines, chemokines and growth factors, and has gained increasing attention in recent years because of its multiple implications for the repair, restoration or regeneration of injured tissues.

Thanks to recent improvements in SCS profiling and manipulation, investigators are now inspired to harness the SCS as a novel alternative therapeutic option that might ensure more efficient outcomes than current stem cell-based therapies for CNS repair.

This review discusses the most recent identification of MSC- and NPC-secreted factors, including those that are trafficked within extracellular membrane vesicles (EVs), and reflects on their potential effects on brain repair. It also examines some of the most convincing advances in molecular profiling that have enabled mapping of the SCS.

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## Q2 1. Introduction

Recent advances in stem cell biology hold great promise in the development of non-haematopoietic stem cell-based therapeutics

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for the treatment of diseases of the central nervous system (CNS), including animal models of multiple sclerosis (MS) [1–3], Alzheimer's disease (AD) [4], spinal cord injury (SCI) [5] and stroke [6]. Growing evidence suggests that the effects orchestrated by stem cell transplants might not only be associated with the generation of new graft-derived neurons and glial cells [7,8] and that the context in which these cells are injected critically determines some of the outcomes. Thus, cell replacement is not the sole way for transplanted stem cells to foster tissue repair *in vivo* [9]. It is in fact becoming increasingly accepted that stem cells secrete a vast array of proteins – including growth factors, cytokines, chemokines, metabolites and bioactive lipids – that regulate their biology in an autocrine or paracrine manner, while orchestrating multiple interactions with the surrounding microenvironment (*therapeutic plasticity*) [9–11]. This new concept of *stem cell therapeutic plasticity* describes the various therapeutic actions of transplanted stem cells

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111 *in vivo* and their capacity to adapt fate and functions to specific  
112 microenvironments [12,13].

113 Among a number of promising stem cell sources, mesenchymal  
114 stromal/stem cells (MSCs; also known as *multipotent stromal cells*)  
115 and neural stem/precursor cells (NPCs) are being extensively  
116 investigated for their capacity to signal to the host upon trans-  
117 plantation in experimental CNS diseases. Following transplants of  
118 both MSCs and NPCs, sustained graft-to-host exchanges of signals  
119 has led to trophic effects on endogenous brain cells and beneficial  
120 modulatory actions on innate and adaptive immune responses that  
121 have ultimately promoted the healing of the injured CNS [2,14,15]. A  
122 number of key regulatory pathways have been identified as being  
123 shared between MSCs and NPCs, thus suggesting the existence of a  
124 stem cell-like *signalling signature* that is likely to be common to  
125 other stem/precursor cell types as well [16].

126 Both targeted/untargeted proteomics and metabolomics are  
127 now being extensively applied to identify novel factors of potential  
128 therapeutic relevance in the *stem cell secretome* (SCS). Moreover, the  
129 use of gene expression approaches or culture preconditioning of  
130 modified stem cells capable of actively releasing discrete levels of a  
131 pro-regenerative secreted factor merits consideration and will be  
132 an area of intensive investigation in the near future. Finally, the  
133 development of local vs systemic stem cell-free therapeutics that  
134 use extracellular membrane vesicles (EVs), instead of whole  
135 parental stem cells, is emerging as an exciting new concept in  
136 regenerative medicine [17].

137 Here, we have reviewed the current knowledge of the SCS from  
138 MSCs and NPCs, and examined its potential in brain repair. We have  
139 also discussed the on-going main investigative directions aimed at  
140 both improving cellular (secretory) activities and characterizing the  
141 SCS and its regulation in greater detail.

### 142 1.1. The stem cell secretome and its role in brain repair

#### 143 1.1.1. Mesenchymal stem cells

144 MSCs are self-renewing, clonal precursors of non-haema-  
145 topoietic tissues that were first identified in the bone marrow  
146 (BM-MSCs) [18]. Nevertheless, intensive research efforts have  
147 suggested alternative tissue sources that include the adipose tissue  
148 (ASCs [19]); the dental pulp [20], the placenta [21], the umbilical  
149 cord blood (HUCPVCs [22]); the Wharton Jelly (WJSCs [23]); ol-  
150 factory mucosa [24], deciduous teeth [25], lung and spleen [26],  
151 and even the brain [27]. MSCs can be expanded *in vitro* for some  
152 time while retaining the potential to differentiate into mesen-  
153 chymal cell types closely related to the germ layer of origin, such as  
154 adipocytes, chondrocytes and osteoblasts [28]. The transplantation  
155 of MSCs has emerged as promise for the repair or restoration of  
156 several tissues, including the CNS [29]. That MSC transplants  
157 possess potential for the treatment of CNS diseases has become  
158 clear following the observation of clinical and histological recovery  
159 shown in laboratory animals with CNS disease models after the  
160 systemic injection of MSCs [30]. However, the mechanisms driving  
161 the therapeutic impact of MSC transplants remain unclear. Among a  
162 few candidate hypotheses, two main perspectives receiving atten-  
163 tion relate to the tissue trophic and immune modulatory effects  
164 that transplanted MSCs exert on the host [31,32].

165 The intracerebroventricular injection of either BM- or ASC-MSCs  
166 has been shown to increase lifespan and body weight, ameliorate  
167 motor function impairments, and slow the overall deterioration of  
168 twitcher mice, as model of Krabbe's disease (KD), by inhibition of  
169 the type of inflammation associated with KD progression [33]. As  
170 such, MSC-transplanted twitcher mice showed a significant  
171 reduction in cerebral inflammation, including a significant decrease  
172 in the numbers of CNS-infiltrating macrophages, and activated  
173 microglial cells as compared to sham-treated controls [33]. Other

174 studies also confirmed the immune modulatory properties of MSCs  
175 after systemic cell injection in rodents affected by experimental  
176 autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE), as a model of MS. The sys-  
177 temic injection of both BM-MSCs and ASC-MSCs via immune reg-  
178 ulatory and neurotrophic mechanisms [34–36] lead to inhibition of  
179 autoreactive T cell responses as well as the stimulation of endog-  
180 enous oligodendrogenesis [35–38]. Key factors responsible for  
181 some of the observed therapeutic effects have been identified as  
182 stem cell-secreted hepatocyte growth factor (HGF) [39,40], as well  
183 as fibroblast growth factor (FGF)-II, brain-derived neurotrophic  
184 factor (BDNF), and platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF)-AB [34].  
185 The effects of both HGF and MSC-CM are mediated through the  
186 tyrosine kinase receptor cMet *in vivo*, and have led to enhanced  
187 myelin repair and immune modulation, while being fully inhibited  
188 by anti-cMet and anti-HGF antibodies [39,40]. Similar anti-  
189 inflammatory effects were observed after MSC transplantation in  
190 mice with experimental SCI, showing reduction of astro- and  
191 micro-gliosis and enhancement of sensorimotor functions [41].

192 On the other hand, the transplantation of BM-MSCs delivered  
193 into the lesion epicentre of rats with experimental SCI reduced the  
194 lesion volume and induced axonal regrowth. In this study, the  
195 neurite outgrowth was promoted by BM-MSC-secreted BDNF and  
196 glial cell line-derived neurotrophic factor (GDNF) [42]. WJ-MSC or  
197 ASC-MSCs are also rich in paracrine neuroprotective factors that  
198 may account for protective effects *in vivo* after transplantation. The  
199 intraslesional transplantation of human WJ-MSCs in rats with  
200 experimental complete spinal cord transection led to decreased  
201 numbers of microglia and reduced astroglial scarring, and was  
202 found associated with increased levels of neutrophil-activating  
203 protein-2 (NAP-2), neurotrophin-3 (NT-3), FGF-II, glucocorticoid-  
204 induced tumour necrosis factor receptor (GITR), and vascular  
205 endothelial growth factor receptor (VEGFR)-3 [43].

206 In a mouse model of Huntington's disease (HD), intrastrially  
207 transplanted BM-MSCs integrated in the host brain and exerted  
208 neurotrophic effects that correlate with increased levels of laminin,  
209 von Willebrand factor (VWF), stromal cell-derived factor-1 (SDF-1)  
210  $\alpha$ , and the SDF-1 receptor CXCR4, which in turn enhanced angio-  
211 genesis in the damaged striatum [44]. The intravenous (i.v.) injec-  
212 tion of BM-MSCs in 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA)-induced  
213 experimental Parkinson's disease (PD) exerted anti-apoptotic ef-  
214 fects on host dopaminergic (DA) neurons in part via secreted SDF-1  
215  $\alpha$  [45]. Rats receiving MSC transplantation showed significant  
216 behavioural recovery both in cylinder test and amphetamine-  
217 induced rotation test, compared with controls [45]. Further  
218 *in vitro* studies confirmed the relevance of MSC-secreted SDF-1  $\alpha$  in  
219 mediating some of the tissue trophic/protective effects of grafted  
220 MSCs. As such, MSC-conditioned media (MSC-CM) displayed anti-  
221 apoptotic effects on 6-OHDA-exposed PC12 cells *in vitro* and  
222 increased dopamine (DA) release from the cells. Incubation with  
223 anti-SDF-1 $\alpha$  antibodies reduced the anti-apoptotic effects of the  
224 MSC-CM and confirmed a key role for MSC-secreted SDF-1  $\alpha$  in the  
225 observed neuroprotection. Similarly, intrastrially transplanted  
226 ASC-MSCs protect against 6-OHDA-induced experimental PD in  
227 mice [46]. Histological, electrophysiological, neurochemical and  
228 gene expression studies suggested that the likely mechanisms by  
229 which ASC-MSCs cell grafts rescued the nigrostriatal function  
230 involved little direct differentiation of the stem cell graft into  
231 functional dopaminergic neurons, rather indirect modulation of the  
232 oxidative stress-induced neuroinflammatory environment via the  
233 secretion of GDNF, BDNF and nerve growth factor (NGF) at the level  
234 of the lesioned substantia nigra [46].

235 Intravenously injected human MSCs have been found to induce  
236 functional amelioration, reduce the infarct volume, and promote  
237 neuroprotection in rats with experimental middle cerebral artery  
238 occlusion (MCAo), a model of brain stroke. Increased levels of  
239

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