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The potential of neural stem cell transplantation for the treatment of fetal alcohol spectrum disorder

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ABSTRACT

Fetal alcohol spectrum disorder (FASD) is caused by intrauterine exposure to alcohol and can cause a full range of abnormalities to brain development, as well as long-term sequelae of cognitive, sensory and motor impairments. The incidence is estimated to be as high as 2% to 5% in children born within the US, however the prevalence is even higher in low socioeconomic populations. Despite the various mechanisms thought to explain the etiology of FASD, molecular targets of ethanol toxicity during development are not completely understood. More recent findings explore the role of GABA-A and GABA-B mechanisms, as well as cell death, cell signaling and gene expression malfunctions. Stem cell based therapies have grown exponentially over the last decade, which have lead to novel clinical interventions across many disciplines. Thus, early detailed understanding of the therapeutic potential of stem cell research has provided promising applications across a wide range of illnesses. Consequently, these potential benefits may ultimately lead to a reduced incidence and severity of this highly preventable and prevalent birth defect. It is recognized that stem cell derivations provide unique difficulties and limitations of therapeutic applications. This review will outline the current knowledge, along with the benefits and challenges of stem cell therapy for FASD.

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Abbreviations: FASD, fetal alcohol spectrum disorder; FAS, fetal alcohol syndrome; pFAS, partial fetal alcohol syndrome; ARND, alcohol-related neurodevelopmental disorder; GD-7, gestational day 7; GABA, γ -amino-butyric acid; PET, position emission tomography; PV, parvalbumin; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; ROS, reactive oxygen species; NMDA, N-methyl-D-aspartate; G9a, lysine dimethyltransferase; H3K9, histone H3 lysine 9; K27, methylation of histone H3 on lysine 27; NSCs, neural stem cells; FAE, fetal alcohol effects; MSCs, mesenchymal stem cells; NPC, neural progenitor cell; hNT, human teratocarcinoma; c-Myc, Myc family of b/HLH/LZ proteins.

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63 1. Introduction

64 Intrauterine exposure to alcohol during the prenatal period is well
 65 known to cause serious long-term physiological defects to the develop-
 66 ing fetal central nervous system and a full range of disabilities termed
 67 fetal alcohol spectrum disorders (FASD). As described by Riley, FASD is
 68 collectively termed fetal alcohol syndrome (FAS), partial fetal alcohol
 69 syndrome (pFAS), and alcohol-related neurodevelopmental disorder
 70 (ARND) (Riley et al., 2011). Furthermore, it has been associated with a
 71 wide array of health conditions and an increased mortality rate as com-
 72 pared to the general population, along with substantial health care costs
 73 involved in caring for affected individuals (Burd et al., 2008; Popova
 74 et al., 2012).

75 The mechanisms underlying the teratogenic effects of alcohol have
 76 been studied extensively using in vitro and in vivo models, as well as
 77 in epidemiological research involving human subjects. A recent study
 78 has found that alcohol interferes with all stages of brain development
 79 and causes distinct, specific patterns of focal abnormalities at various
 80 gestational stages (Muralidharan et al., 2013). Of note, many of these
 81 early aberrations mediating FASD would be occurring during embryonic,
 82 not fetal, stages. Equally important is that some of the defects are
 83 likely due to disruption of neural precursors and therefore would not
 84 be occurring within the brain per se. In this regard, there are many
 85 factors that can contribute to aberrations within the developing embry-
 86 onic brain. For instance, since neurogenesis is a prenatal event, develop-
 87 mental disruptions outside of the brain may indirectly effect normal
 88 CNS development. Consequently, treatments aimed at correcting
 89 improper neurogenesis may possibly be initiated after identifying a pos-
 90 itive pregnancy test.

91 Embryonic development goes through a series of rapid growth dur-
 92 ing the first eight weeks of gestation with the formation of major organ
 93 systems. By twelve weeks of gestation, premature subdivisions of brain
 94 development are complete which is followed by a second period of ex-
 95 tensive brain growth during the last trimester of pregnancy. This period
 96 of rapid neural maturation is continued during the first two years of life.
 97 Thus, the severity of the deleterious effects of alcohol later in life has
 98 been suggested to depend upon the timing of exposure during fetal
 99 development. For example, alcohol may impact the quality of the egg
 100 and sperm prior to conception, which may lead to spontaneous abor-
 101 tion. During the first three weeks of gestation, alcohol can interfere
 102 with primary neurulation leading to neural tube defects and ultimately
 103 to abnormalities in early brain development. This was demonstrated by
 104 exposing GD-7 mice to ethanol, which corresponds to 3-week gestation
 105 in humans, and the mice later developed central nervous system (CNS)
 106 defects typical of FASD (Godin et al., 2010).

107 Furthermore, during the late stages of the first trimester, alcohol can
 108 pose the highest risk due to the rapid neural growth that happens during
 109 this phase, a critical period indeed, for possible neural malformations.
 110 For pregnancies that do go to term, characteristics of in utero alcohol-
 111 induced abnormalities may include small for gestational age appear-
 112 ance, and facial abnormalities (Sulik, 2005). In later life, prenatal
 113 alcohol-exposed individuals may manifest poor coordination, hyperac-
 114 tive behavior, learning disabilities, developmental disabilities such as
 115 speech and language delays, mental retardation or even a low IQ score
 116 (Burd et al., 2008). Moreover, people with FASD often experience

117 mental health problems as they get older, such as disrupted school ex-
 118 periences, trouble within the legal system, unemployment, and inap-
 119 propriate sexual behavior (Fast et al., 1999). Lastly, depending on the
 120 amount of intrauterine alcohol exposure, the influence of alcohol on
 121 brain development in less severely affected individuals can remain un-
 122 appreciated for several years or even decades (Riley and McGee, 2005).

123 2. Teratogenicity of alcohol

124 With what is understood about the effects of alcohol during fetal
 125 development, the next question becomes: how does alcohol act like a
 126 teratogen? The answer is complicated because alcohol can trigger cell
 127 death in a number of ways, causing different parts of the fetus to devel-
 128 op abnormally. Nevertheless, mechanisms associated with malnutrition
 129 may be due to inhibitory effects of alcohol on the uptake of glucose and
 130 vitamin B6 from the gastrointestinal tract (Fisher et al., 1981) as well as
 131 amino acid uptake across placental tissue (Michaelis and Michaelis,
 132 1994). Intrauterine exposure to alcohol constricts blood vessels and
 133 interferes with blood flow in the placenta and umbilical blood vessels,
 134 which ultimately hinders the delivery of nutrients and oxygen to the en-
 135 tire fetus (Goodlett and Horn, 2001). Consequently, the maternal–fetal
 136 endocrine systems are also thought to be disrupted by alcohol which
 137 may trigger toxic free radical formation. The formation of toxic free
 138 radicals seems to be dose-dependent, and is usually associated with
 139 chronic, binge-like alcohol consumption during the first trimester. As
 140 described by Caillard, these damaged free radicals can result in the
 141 accumulation of calcium within neurons, resulting in a surge of neuro-
 142 transmitters, which has the potential to interrupt the migration of
 143 developing nerve cells (Caillard et al., 2000).

144 Since it is well known that abnormal brain development can induce
 145 behavioral problems including cognition, attention and social function-
 146 ing, maintaining and/or repairing a damaged neural network is a key
 147 strategy for the treatment of psychiatric diseases. Generalized brain
 148 atrophy and hypoplasia of the basal ganglia and corpus callosum have
 149 been implicated in the pathophysiology of FASD (Shirasaka et al.,
 150 2011). Though the exact mechanism of cellular death in FASD remains
 151 unclear, some aspects are well understood. Alcohol enters the blood-
 152 stream and reaches the developing fetus by crossing the placenta.
 153 Because a fetus metabolizes alcohol much slower than an adult does,
 154 the blood alcohol concentration (BAL) is higher in the fetus compared
 155 to an adult. Consequently, alcohol interferes with the amount of oxygen
 156 binding to hemoglobin and leads to hypoxia, rendering the developing
 157 CNS to develop improperly. Furthermore, it also hinders the absorption
 158 of nutrients and vitamins important for preventing anemia, which has a
 159 synergistic effect with oxygen saturation.

160 Indeed, apoptosis is certainly an important mechanism of cellular
 161 death in FASD. However, other means of altered migration and cellular
 162 adhesion mechanisms in FASD are thought to involve L1. During devel-
 163 opment of the CNS, migration of neurons and axonal growth are not
 164 only regulated by cell–cell interactions, but cell–substrate interactions
 165 as well (Mattson et al., 2001). These step-wise interactions are synergis-
 166 tically regulated by cellular adhesion molecules (CAMs), which collec-
 167 tively include transporter proteins, as well as L1, a member of the IgG
 168 superfamily. L1 is a type of neural CAM that is predominantly expressed
 169 within the CNS and when it is activated, neuronal migration, cellular

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