

Fundamentals and Principles of Biomolecules in Adipose Stem Cell Engineering

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10.1 Introduction

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Human adipose tissue is comprised of three main fat deposits – visceral white fat, subcutaneous white fat, and brown fat – each with its own unique properties. In particular, white adipose tissue is associated with energy storage and hormone production, while brown adipose tissue is mainly responsible for heat production through energy expenditure (thermogenesis) [1]. Although many informative studies have been performed on cultured adipocytes, there are still some aspects of adipocyte function that require further investigation. For instance, the regulation of adipose tissue metabolism is controlled by activation of the autonomic nervous system, delivery of a complex mixture of substrates and hormones to adipose tissue, feedback from autocrine and paracrine effectors secreted by adipocytes, and the vascularity of the adipocytes [2]. Humans are born with a specific numeric amount of adipocytes that multiply and develop until puberty, subsequently remaining constant thereafter. Irrespective of exercise and/or strict dietary modification, humans cannot reduce the number of fat cells. Nonsurgical treatment such as aerobic exercise and balanced diet will eventually decrease adipose cell mass; however, the actual number of those cells will remain constant [3]. Adipose tissue contains adipose-derived stem cells, which possess the ability to differentiate into multiple cellular lineages, a property that represents the key to regenerative medicine. By definition, stem cells are characterized by their ability to undergo multilineage differentiation and form terminally differentiated cells. Guilak et al. assessed this potential by culturing and ring cloning to select cells derived from one progenitor cell. Forty-five clones were

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39 expanded through four passages and then induced for
40 adipogenesis, osteogenesis, chondrogenesis, and neu-
41 rogenesis using lineage-specific differentiation media.
42 The authors found that 81% of adipose stem cell (ASC)
43 clones differentiated into at least one of the lineages [4].
44 An ideal stem cell, one that can potentially be used in
45 regenerative medicine, should have the following char-
46 acteristics: (a) found in large quantities, (b) easily col-
47 lected or harvested, (c) is differentiated into multiple
48 cell lineage pathways in a reproducible manner, and (d)
49 can be easily transferred to an autologous or even allo-
50 geneic host [5]. Tissue-specific stem cells originate
51 from specific organs such as: brain, gut, lung, liver,
52 bone marrow, and adipose tissue [6]. It is well known
53 that these stem cells persist in adults; however they rep-
54 resent a rare population “hidden” amongst other cell
55 populations [7]. ASC have a broad differentiation
56 potential, but their ability to develop is limited com-
57 pared to embryonic stem cells. They can be isolated
58 from either bone marrow or adipose tissue. This popu-
59 lation was initially thought to differentiate only to their
60 tissue of origin; however, it has been shown that ASC
61 have the capacity to differentiate into cells of mesoder-
62 mal, endodermal, and ectodermal origin. Furthermore,
63 they cross-lineage barriers and acquire the phenotype
64 and biochemical properties of cells that are unique to
65 other tissues [8–13]. Adipocytes develop from mesen-
66 chymal cells through a combination of transcriptional
67 and nontranscriptional events that occur throughout
68 human life. Adipocyte differentiation is a complex pro-
69 cess accompanied by simultaneous changes in cell
70 morphology, hormone sensitivity, and gene expression
71 [5]. Although, for many years, ASC have been described
72 as pre-adipocytes [14, 15], today they are appreciated
73 as multipotent cells with a chondrogenic, neurogenic,
74 and osteogenic potential [14–17]. Sedentary lifestyle
75 and limited time for exercise have contributed to irregu-
76 larities in body contour and excess adipocyte mass that
77 is often resistant to the most strenuous exercise or
78 weight loss efforts. The significant accumulation of
79 subcutaneous fat among individuals in the United States
80 and indeed world-wide in developed nations makes adi-
81 pose tissue an abundant source of ASC. Approximately
82 400,000 liposuction procedures are performed in the
83 United States each year, and these procedures yield
84 anywhere from 100 mL to >3 L of adipocyte tissue
85 [18]. Today, most of this lipoaspirate, which contains a
86 significant amount of ASC with a wide range of thera-
87 peutic potential, is discarded.

10.2 Biomolecules and Adipose Stem Cells

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Biomolecules refer to the biological materials which
serve as the structural integrity of tissue-engineered
constructs and regulate their components. The main
components of biomolecules are the following cellular
factors: growth, differentiation, angiogenic, pro-inflam-
matory, and gene modulated. The specific factors to be
used for each tissue-engineered construct can be pro-
vided either exogenously or by local or systemic deliv-
ery. Adipose tissue is a dynamic “player” in endocrine
physiology and serves as a source of cytokine secre-
tion. In the clinical setting, it has been shown that indi-
viduals with large volumes of adipose tissue are more
likely to have increased levels of pro-inflammatory
cytokines such as interleukin (IL) 6, IL-8, and tumor
necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α). Furthermore, adipose
tissue expresses hematopoietic growth factor and
macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF),
whose expression can lead to adipose tissue volume
expansion [19].

ASC are multipotent and can potentially differenti-
ate in various pathways in response to growth factors
and environmental agents [20]. There is evidence that
ASC can promote tissue recovery through the delivery
and localized secretion of cytokines. Recent in vivo
studies support this hypothesis. Intravenous infusion
of ASC improved recovery of limb function in mice
following ischemic injury [21]. The positive effects of
ASC in ischemia are most likely secondary to their
ability to secrete angiogenic cytokines, such as hepato-
cyte growth factor (HGF) and vascular endothelial
growth factor (VEGF).

In this chapter the authors reviewed the endocrine
function and cytokine profile of ASC, and focused on
elucidating the basic principles, as well as interactions,
between adipose stem cells and cytokines, adipokines,
or biomolecules in general.

10.2.1 Angiogenic Factors

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10.2.1.1 Hepatocyte Growth Factor (HGF)

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The role of implanting ASC into ischemic cardiac
tissue as a means to increase angiogenesis is an
emerging therapeutic approach [22, 23]. Most of the

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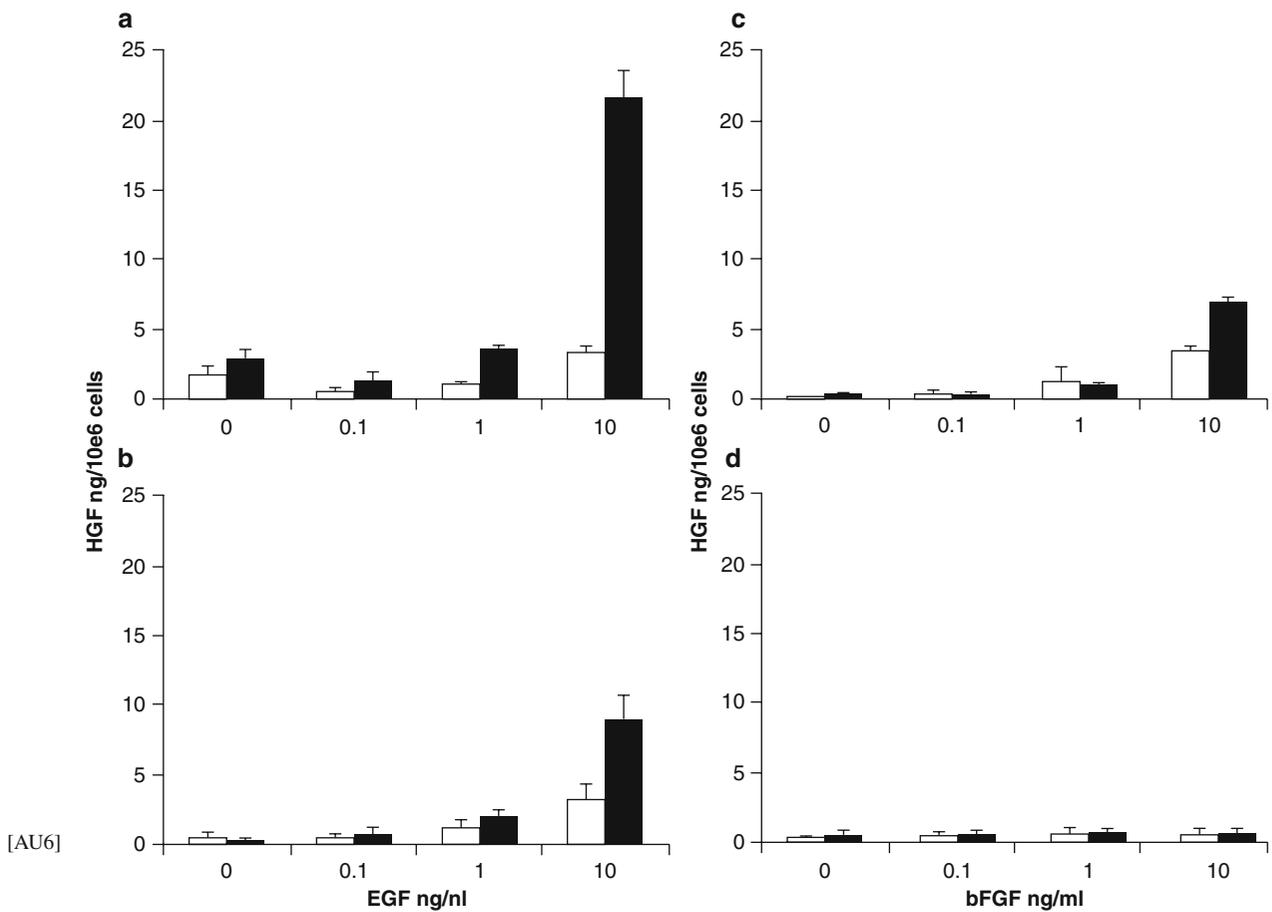


Fig. 10.1 Hepatocyte growth factor (*HGF*) secretion. The secretion of *HGF* was determined by ELISA on conditioned medium from undifferentiated (**a, c**) and adipocyte-differentiated (**b, d**) ASC following exposure to epidermal growth factor (*EGF*) (**a, b**) or basic fibroblast growth factor (*bFGF*) (**c, d**) in

the absence (*white bars*) or presence (*solid bars*) of varying concentrations of 2-sodium ascorbic acid. The values represent the mean (ng/10⁶ cells) ± S.D. of *n*=3 ASC donors (Reprinted with permission from the publisher from Kilroy et al. [19])

131 clinical studies have used bone marrow cells which
 132 are only available in limited quantities and cannot be
 133 easily isolated. There are data to support that ASC
 134 secrete *HGF*, thus representing a potential source for
 135 cells to be utilized in cardiovascular cell therapy [19,
 136 24, 25]. In vitro studies have depicted a link between
 137 ASC-derived *HGF* and physiologic or pathologic
 138 processes. In particular, secretion of *HGF* by ASC
 139 has been shown to have a positive effect on tubule
 140 formation by vascular endothelial cells. This action
 141 was found to be independent of *VEGF* [26].
 142 Unfortunately, Rahimi et al. showed that *HGF*
 143 secreted by ASC promoted the proliferation of mam-
 144 mmary tumor epithelial cells [27]. Kilroy et al. reported

145 the constitutive and inducible secretion of *HGF* by
 146 ASC in vitro. The authors showed that this property
 147 was dependent on the level of ASC differentiation. In
 148 particular, the adipocyte-differentiated ASC appear
 149 to lose their responsiveness to basic fibroblast growth
 150 factor (*b-FGF*) and failed to induce *HGF* expression.
 151 On the other hand, treatment of undifferentiated ASC
 152 with either *b-FGF* or *EGF* was associated with
 153 increased levels of *HGF* release. Finally, it appears
 154 that the addition of ascorbic acid increased the
 155 increased *HGF* secretion by a factor of twofold or
 156 greater (Fig. 10.1) [19].

157 In a similar manner, Rehman et al. reported the
 158 secretion of *HGF* by human ASC in significant

159 amounts ($12,280 \pm 2,944$ pg/ 10^6 cells). In order to
160 assess potential in vivo viability and function, the
161 authors transduced ASC, with a GFP-expressing
162 adenovirus to facilitate tracking into mice limbs.
163 One week after injection, $28 \pm 2\%$ of injected
164 cells could be identified on serial sections of the
165 muscle [25].

166 10.2.1.2 Vascular Endothelial 167 Growth Factor (VEGF)

168 Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) promotes
169 neovascularization during embryonic development,
170 subsequent to tissue injury, following exercise, and
171 under ischemic conditions, in general. It is part of the
172 system that restores the oxygen supply to tissues when
173 blood circulation is inadequate. VEGF is a subfamily
174 of growth factors, specifically the platelet-derived
175 growth factor family of cystine-knot growth factors. They
176 are important signaling proteins involved in both vas-
177 culogenesis (the *de novo* formation of the embryonic
178 circulatory system) and angiogenesis (the growth of
179 blood vessels from preexisting vasculature). While
180 secretion of VEGF by bone marrow stem cells has
181 been documented [28], Rehman et al. [25] showed that
182 ASC represent a source of VEGF, as well. The authors
183 reported that over a 72-h period in basal medium with
184 5% fetal bovine serum and no additional growth fac-
185 tors under normoxic conditions, ASC secreted signifi-
186 cant amounts of VEGF ($1,203 \pm 254$ pg/ 10^6 cells).
187 Interestingly, when ASC were cultured in hypoxic
188 conditions, there was a fivefold increase in the secre-
189 tion of VEGF from $1,203 \pm 254$ to $5,980 \pm 1,066$ pg/ 10^6
190 cells ($p=0.0016$, paired *t*-test, $n=7$). The property of
191 ASC to react to a stimulus such as hypoxia shows that
192 they can adapt to the environment into which they are
193 placed (ischemic myocardium), by increasing the pro-
194 duction of VEGF in response to ischemia and thus,
195 induce neovascularization.

196 10.2.2 Hematopoietic and Pro- 197 inflammatory Factors

198 One of the most clinically relevant properties of
199 bone marrow-derived mesenchyme is the ability to
200 provide long-term hematopoietic support. ASC

201 appear to have a similar level of hematopoietic cell
202 expansion when compared with bone marrow-derived
203 stroma cells. In order to assess their ability toward
204 hematopoietic differentiation, Kilroy et al. [19] used
205 purified CD34p Linneg cells to initiate long-term
206 culture assays on ASC. After either 3 or 5 weeks, the
207 cultures were examined to assess whether clono-
208 genic myeloid cells (CFC) had been maintained.
209 Although hematopoiesis was present in the 3-week
210 cultures; by 5 weeks, less clonogenic progenitors
211 had been maintained. Those preliminary results sug-
212 gested that ASC can preserve hematopoiesis in vitro,
213 especially in the short-term period. In order to
214 directly compare the hematopoiesis potential of
215 ASC and marrow-derived cells, the authors subse-
216 quently established long-term culture assays. Their
217 results suggest that marrow-derived stroma cells
218 provided more efficient long-term support for primi-
219 tive progenitors. Although ASC were less efficient
220 than marrow cells, they still exhibited some true
221 hematopoietic ability. When the authors exposed
222 ASC to lipopolysaccharide (LPS), which is an ago-
223 nist for bone marrow stromal cell cytokine induc-
224 tion, the level of secreted IL-6 and IL-8 increased.
225 More specifically, both IL-6 and IL-8 reached maxi-
226 mal mean levels of 7,845 and 6,506 pg/mL condi-
227 tioned medium, respectively, after 24 h of LPS
228 exposure. Similarly, the hematopoietic cytokines:
229 macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF) and
230 granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor
231 (GM-CSF) reached maximal mean levels of 976 and
232 52 pg/mL, respectively, at 24 h. TNF- α however,
233 reached its peak mean level of 112 pg/mL after 8 h
234 of LPS exposure. IL-7 and the pro-inflammatory
235 cytokine IL-11 were low. They displayed a signifi-
236 cant induction by ELISA, reaching maximal mean
237 levels 24 h after LPS exposure of 3.4 and 12.7 pg/
238 mL, respectively (Fig. 10.2).

239 Consistent with the ELISAs, the steady-state levels
240 of mRNAs for representative cytokines were elevated
241 within 4 h following LPS exposure based on RT-PCR.
242 IL-1a, IL1b, and IL-12 protein were not detected in the
243 conditioned medium from undifferentiated ASC fol-
244 lowing LPS exposure. The data produced by this study
245 indicate that ASC may have clinical value for the
246 patient population undergoing hematopoietic stem cell
247 transplantation following high-dose chemotherapy.
248 Conclusively, there is potential of co-infusing ASC
249 with hematopoietic stem cells as a means to optimize

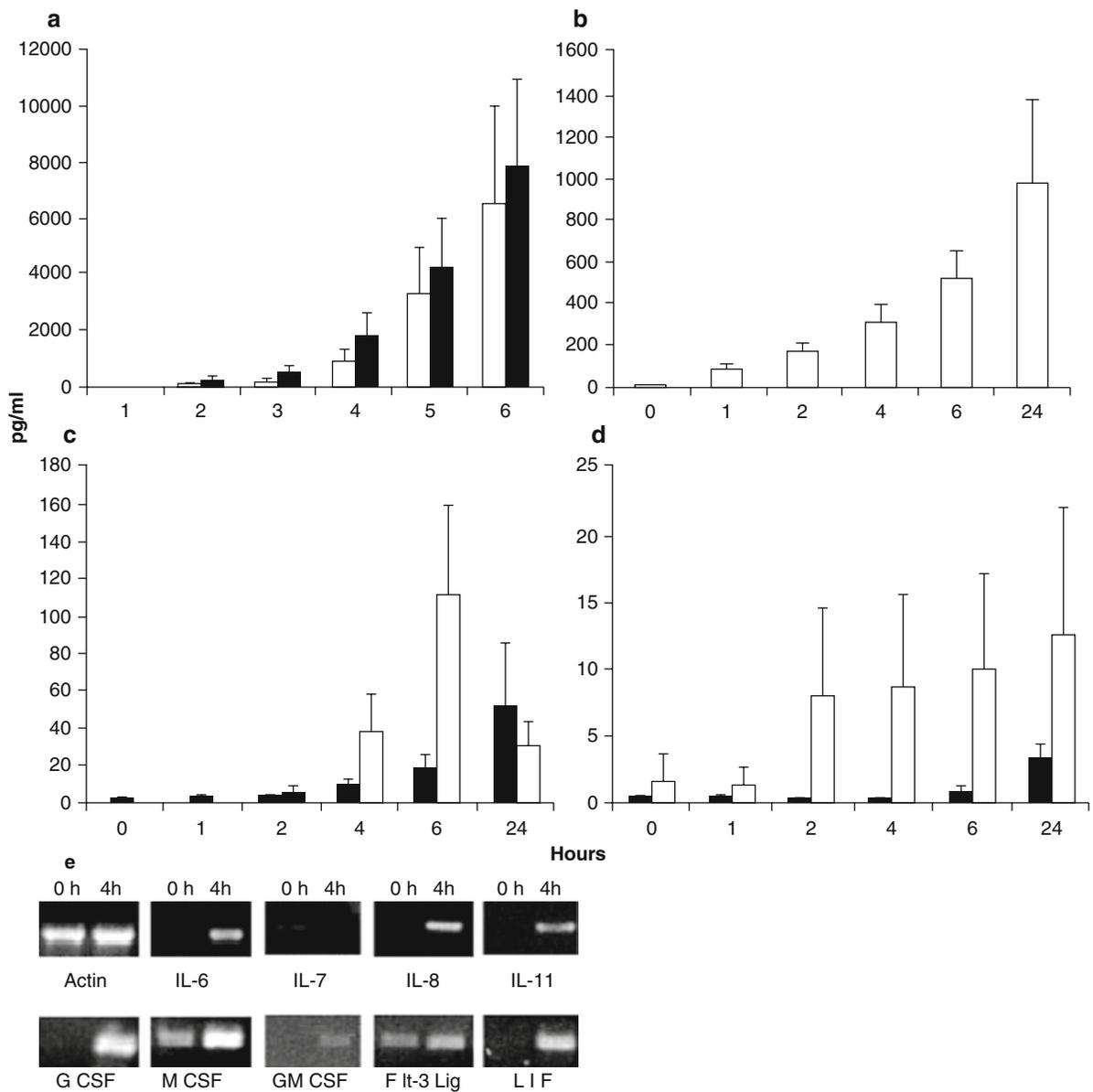


Fig. 10.2 Pro-inflammatory and hematopoietic cytokine secretion. The conditioned medium from undifferentiated ASC was assayed for secretion of selected cytokines at varying times following exposure to LPS (100 ng/mL) for periods of 0–24 h; (a) IL-6 (solid bar) and IL-8 (clear bar); (b) M-CSF; (c) GM-CSF (clear bar) and TNF (solid bar); (d) IL-7 (clear bar) and IL-11 (solid bar). The values represent the mean (pg/mL) ± S.E.M. of $n=6-8$ ASC donors. (e) The mRNA levels of selected cytokines in ASC from a representative donor were assayed by PCR analysis following exposure to LPS (100 ng/mL) for 0 or 4 h (Reprinted with permission from the publisher from Kilroy et al. [19])

t1.1 **Table 10.1** Current possible biomolecules used in adipose tissue engineering

t1.2	Types of biomolecules	Properties
t1.3	Fibroblast growth factor-2 (FGF-2)	Promotes chondrogenic and inhibits osteogenic differentiation of ADSCs [29]
t1.4		
t1.5	Platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF)-AB	Proliferation potential on human adipose-derived stem cells and human dermal fibroblasts [30]
t1.6		
t1.7	Transforming growth factor (TGF)-beta1	Proliferation potential on human adipose-derived stem cells and human dermal fibroblasts [30]
t1.8		
t1.9	Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)	Improves implant biocompatibility [31]
t1.10		Promotes capillary formation in adipose stem cell containing tubular scaffolds [32]
t1.11		
t1.12	Granulocyte/macrophage colony-stimulating factor	Angiogenesis-related cytokine secreted by ADSCs [33]
t1.13	Stromal-derived factor-1alpha	Angiogenesis-related cytokine secreted by ADSCs [33]
t1.14	Hepatocyte growth factor	Angiogenesis-related cytokine secreted by ADSCs [33].

250 recovery of normal blood cell production and subse-
 251 quently restore immune function.

252 The possible biomolecules used in adipose tissue
 253 engineering are shown in Table 10.1.

254 10.3 Conclusions

255 The evolving field of producing organs from the basic
 256 life unit, a cell, can potentially provide a unique solu-
 257 tion to the aforementioned problems. The ability of
 258 ASC to secrete several biologic factors plus evidence at
 259 a basic science level lends way to ASC playing a major
 260 role in tissue engineering and organ regeneration.

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Uncorrected Proof