

# 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 re-  
 54 present 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 pop-  
 59 ulation 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 therapeu-  
 87 tic potential, is discarded.

## 10.2 Biomolecules and Adipose Stem Cells

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

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

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

### 10.2.1 Angiogenic Factors

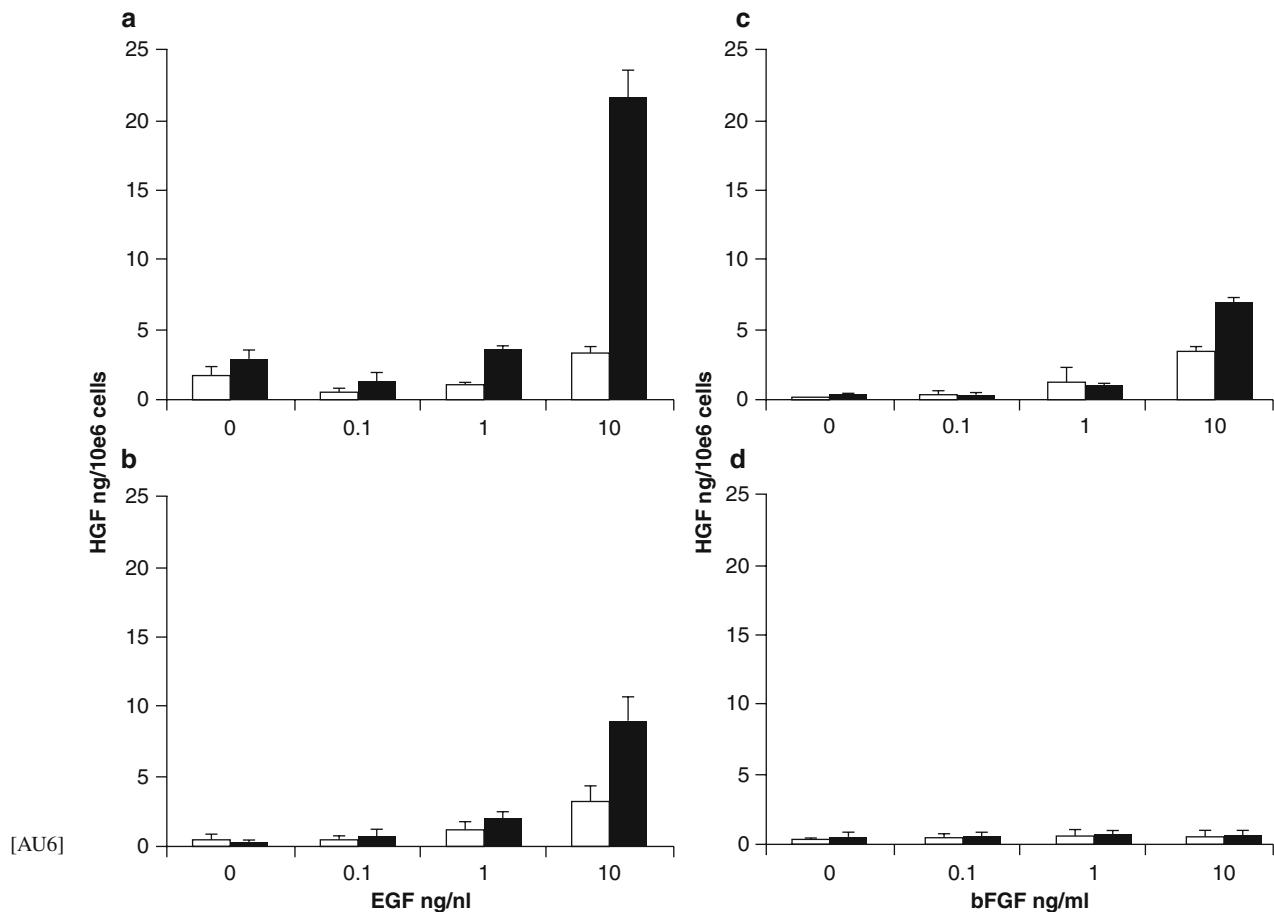
126

#### 10.2.1.1 Hepatocyte Growth Factor (HGF)

127

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

130



**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/10<sup>6</sup> cells)  $\pm$  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 mary 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

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

#### 10.2.1.2 Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF)

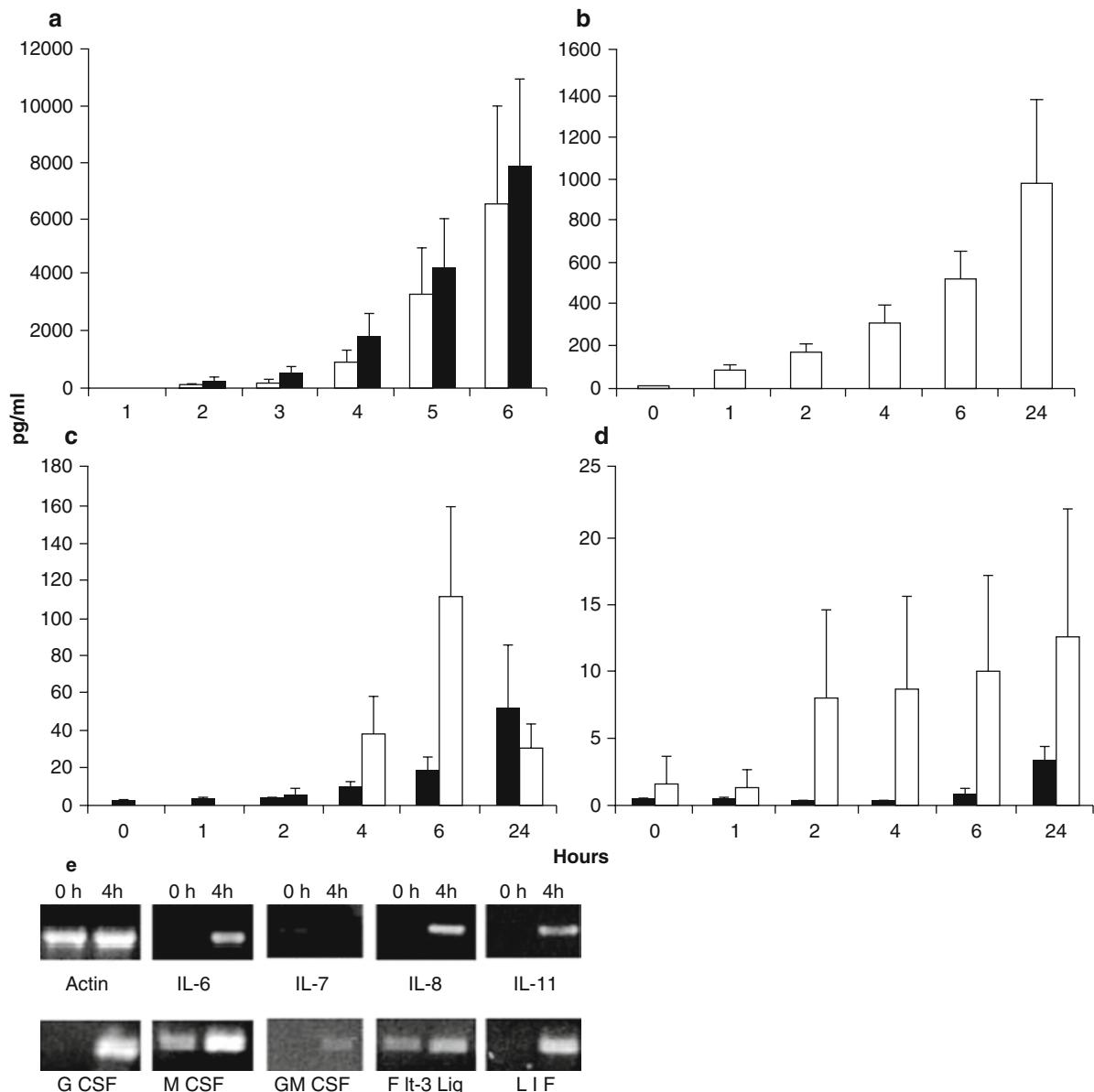
Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) promotes neovascularization during embryonic development, subsequent to tissue injury, following exercise, and under ischemic conditions, in general. It is part of the system that restores the oxygen supply to tissues when blood circulation is inadequate. VEGF is a subfamily of growth factors, specifically the platelet-derived growth factor family of cystine-knot growth factors. They are important signaling proteins involved in both vasculogenesis (the *de novo* formation of the embryonic circulatory system) and angiogenesis (the growth of blood vessels from preexisting vasculature). While secretion of VEGF by bone marrow stem cells has been documented [28], Rehman et al. [25] showed that ASC represent a source of VEGF, as well. The authors reported that over a 72-h period in basal medium with 5% fetal bovine serum and no additional growth factors under normoxic conditions, ASC secreted significant amounts of VEGF ( $1,203 \pm 254$  pg/ $10^6$  cells). Interestingly, when ASC were cultured in hypoxic conditions, there was a fivefold increase in the secretion of VEGF from  $1,203 \pm 254$  to  $5,980 \pm 1,066$  pg/ $10^6$  cells ( $p=0.0016$ , paired *t*-test,  $n=7$ ). The property of ASC to react to a stimulus such as hypoxia shows that they can adapt to the environment into which they are placed (ischemic myocardium), by increasing the production of VEGF in response to ischemia and thus, induce neovascularization.

#### 10.2.2 Hematopoietic and Pro-inflammatory Factors

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

appear to have a similar level of hematopoietic cell expansion when compared with bone marrow-derived stroma cells. In order to assess their ability toward hematopoietic differentiation, Kilroy et al. [19] used purified CD34<sup>+</sup> Lin<sup>-</sup> cells to initiate long-term culture assays on ASC. After either 3 or 5 weeks, the cultures were examined to assess whether clonogenic myeloid cells (CFC) had been maintained. Although hematopoiesis was present in the 3-week cultures; by 5 weeks, less clonogenic progenitors had been maintained. Those preliminary results suggested that ASC can preserve hematopoiesis *in vitro*, especially in the short-term period. In order to directly compare the hematopoiesis potential of ASC and marrow-derived cells, the authors subsequently established long-term culture assays. Their results suggest that marrow-derived stroma cells provided more efficient long-term support for primitive progenitors. Although ASC were less efficient than marrow cells, they still exhibited some true hematopoietic ability. When the authors exposed ASC to lipopolysaccharide (LPS), which is an agonist for bone marrow stromal cell cytokine induction, the level of secreted IL-6 and IL-8 increased. More specifically, both IL-6 and IL-8 reached maximal mean levels of 7,845 and 6,506 pg/mL conditioned medium, respectively, after 24 h of LPS exposure. Similarly, the hematopoietic cytokines: macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF) and granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) reached maximal mean levels of 976 and 52 pg/mL, respectively, at 24 h. TNF- $\alpha$  however, reached its peak mean level of 112 pg/mL after 8 h of LPS exposure. IL-7 and the pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-11 were low. They displayed a significant induction by ELISA, reaching maximal mean levels 24 h after LPS exposure of 3.4 and 12.7 pg/mL, respectively (Fig. 10.2).

Consistent with the ELISAs, the steady-state levels of mRNAs for representative cytokines were elevated within 4 h following LPS exposure based on RT-PCR. IL-1 $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$ , and IL-12 protein were not detected in the conditioned medium from undifferentiated ASC following LPS exposure. The data produced by this study indicate that ASC may have clinical value for the patient population undergoing hematopoietic stem cell transplantation following high-dose chemotherapy. Conclusively, there is potential of co-infusing ASC 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)  $\pm$  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  
t1.2 **Table 10.1** Current possible biomolecules used in adipose tissue engineering

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

250 recovery of normal blood cell production and subsequently restore immune function.  
 251

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 solution  
 257 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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