what I would say.

Either one of those studies is probably okay to do. You could measure plaques. You're saying, okay, there's a way to measure plaques. It's not invasive presumably to measure the plaque. It may be, it may not be. There may be more invasive ways. What's the gold standard? And you start to notch up. You change the characteristics of the trial in each case and each of those calculi that you need to go through are related to that.

But I would like to just encourage these kind of conversations to go forward and realize that each person coming to the table in that conversation is going to have a different reason for selecting an outcome measure.

DR. SIEGEL: I just wanted to put some of the last set of comments into a perspective in the context of clinical development from observations in many fields, which is that to the extent we're talking about first introduction into humans in early phase I trials, with some extraordinarily rare exceptions, there aren't treatments that you can measure efficacy in those trials. You need to have control groups. You need to have large numbers of patients. There may be, as I said, a rare home-run treatment in a disease of entirely predictable course where you can tell that in a small number of patients.

We're talking about the distinction between

what's measurable and what's meaningful. It's compellingly important in this sort of therapy in particular, I would think, to have a measure of something that at least you hope and have reason to anticipate may predict efficacy because as these products develop, there are so many potential variables, many of which we've heard about. Well, what happens if I give a few more cells, culture a few more passages, change the concentration of this differentiation factor, change the cell source, or whatever? Am I going to have a better product or a worse product? What happens when I up-scale to treat larger numbers of patients if I culture at a denser or a less dense -- and on down the line in many more ways than with a simple chemical molecule, many questions about variations.

The notion that each and every one of those questions can be answered by a multi-year controlled clinical trial comparing efficacy outcomes is, of course, ridiculous on its face. So, if you don't have a measure that is measurable and you have some reason to hope will predict clinical efficacy, you're going to be doing a guessing game and you're going to be down the line trying to guess what's the right way to do it in a very expensive and a very large trial and probably have a lot of trouble finding people even willing to support or participate in such a trial.

MS. SONTAG: My name is Jordana Sontag. I'm a patient advocate. My son has a leukodystrophy called Canavan's disease. He was part of a protocol at Yale University and successfully received gene therapy. He's now part of a new IND that's being reviewed currently.

When you started your presentation, you said that the general consensus or the general public trusts the oversight, and I'd like to say that is true as a parent of a patient.

But I'd also like to say that I feel that the oversight process perhaps has lost some trust in the patients and the families of patients. I feel that sometimes we're perceived as hysterical, desperate people that are willing to do anything and put anything to try and save our families. But the truth is we do want safety. We don't want to harm. I already have a fatally ill child. I don't want to do worse to him. So, I wanted to state that fact.

I also wanted to state that I feel that there needs to also be some definition in ethical lines as we move from gene therapy. Now we're going into stem cells. At what point do we as patients have the right to say we funded this research? It has been worked on for two years. We have all the safety data. At what point does safety then turn into political pressures, media frenzies, where

1 | the FDA succumbs to that and loses site of the patients?

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So, what I'd like to say is that I feel like the oversight committee should have more trust in us as patients.

DR. SALOMON: Can I ask you a question then?

We're talking about outcome parameters, measurable,

meaningful. So, in your own experience with a clinical

trial on your child -- I mean, who would know their child

better than the mother -- do you have an impression about

what would be a meaningful outcome parameter that you would

see as meaningful versus what the doctors who did the trial

on your son thought were meaningful outcome parameters?

MS. SONTAG: I'm lucky enough to have both. My son showed improvements through MRI. He regenerated new myelin, which he couldn't do without the intervention of gene therapy. So, I had the scientific proof, but then, on the other side, I have a child that is doing dramatically He vocalizes. He talks. He's not on a feeding well. He's a happy child. His quality of life is tube. drastically improved. He's gained the ability to use a communication device. I took him to a symposium and a bunch of the researchers looked at my son and said, he has Canavan's disease? If they're saying it without me even saying anything, then I know something is happening.

I'm not willing to just put snake oil in my

son. I'm funding research. We have not received any federal funding. This is all parent-run. I don't want to put my money into something that I don't believe in or that I believe won't have a benefit. I don't have that much money to spend. So, I feel that we're objective and I think that we need to gain the respect of the oversight process as objective, passionate people that are looking to move science forward for everyone's benefit.

DR. SALOMON: Thank you.

DR. CHAMPLIN: As somebody who does phase I trials in cancer patients, I think there are sort of two levels here. One is the patient's hopes for benefit, and every once in a while, a new drug does come along that actually is a major advantage and provides clear-cut, symptomatic benefit for those patients. Unfortunately, it's the minority of the time rather than the majority.

But from a drug development standpoint, one is generally treating patients usually with far advanced disease where the prognosis is very poor. In those situations, you're looking for some biologic effects that would then justify taking that trial into a better prognostic setting where, in fact, it may have more efficacy. So, you need to have some endpoints, obviously, to measure that biology to determine is the drug promising to take forward into a more definitive population.

DR. WALKER: Dr. Sugarman introduced an important concept of "the gold standard," and then we didn't discuss it particularly any further. It is critical that we have a gold standard of measurement that we think is important. It started out years ago in cancer being solely death, and that's a pretty unsatisfactory kind of gold standard but sure is a standard. It's easily measurable.

We then move into better and better ways of doing it. I think here is the place we have a tremendous problem. We do not do the research into the development of the better ways of measuring appropriate outcomes, be they biochemical, be they looking at plaques, or whatever it is. But we need to do that kind of thing. It will lead to better trials, smaller sample size, greater efficiencies.

DR. SALOMON: Let me pose a question then to continue on this. What I see happening whatever time in the future, but not the long future, is there's going to be a group of sponsors stepping up with a specific trial.

Today we have the chance to be generalists, but soon we'll be faced with a specific trial in "fill in the blank."

So, in that each disease process will have very different kinds of outcome parameters, if there were two trials considered at the same time, both of which are devastating diseases -- I don't want to compete the

diseases against each other, but one which just happens to have very well-defined outcome parameters and measures and one that maybe doesn't. The Alzheimer's disease is an interesting one already posed by this group. What do you guys think of that? Should you do both? Or should you only do the one with the better outcome parameters given that this is a new field?

DR. MACKLIS: I had a question or a few naive questions that relate to that. So, maybe I can throw my questions out on the table, and then everybody can discuss.

Dr. Sugarman repeatedly used the baseball analogy of hitting a home run. Sitting here listening, I thought that was a great way of telling me how to think about things. As scientists, one likes to think one is hitting a home run.

But Mark Noble earlier raised a point about commercial pressures that you reinforced and we just heard about patient and disease driven pressures. I wonder if there is a broader either societal or governmental or field set of ethics -- is it at odds or is it the same -- to deciding whether we might want to go for a double or a single or even a bunt.

(Laughter.)

DR. MACKLIS: And do we have just a certain number of people to go at bat, to bring the analogy maybe

four steps further than it ever should have been taken? I apologize. And do we limit that? How many studies can we do, and are we willing to go for a single or a double more broadly than just a few home run hitters?

DR. SUGARMAN: I think one of the struggles with this set of conversations is what we're talking about. I'll change the analogy slightly. If I bring my ethics hammer to bear here, the problem we're talking about are all problems related to what we call justice, fairness in allocation, and fairness in access. These are all justice problems and they've been a problem in ethical theory since Aristotle. So, it's no surprise that we're still chewing on them.

In research, what you're seeing as a reflection here I think are multiple problems. The whole regulatory scheme was built on the notion that patients were vulnerable and needed to be protected. The reasons for that were a series of scandals in the '60s and early '70s that came out of disadvantaged subjects being used without consent for research. We can go through each of those examples. So, when the National Research Act was put into place, the notion there was to protect folks and to make sure that there were even more protections on anyone who might be perceived as vulnerable in any way.

Once the regulatory approach came into play --

and we have separate regulations for prisoners and kids and pregnant women, and we have this very restrictive approach. With the onset of the AIDS epidemic and advances in cancer chemotherapeutics, we've seen a change in the calculus. It's still a problem of justice, but the claim is in protect me as someone who is vulnerable but let me have access to something that could potentially help me. There was sort of a corrective to what was an overly protective initial scheme.

So, what you've seen as a result of the lobbying efforts of folks and patients speaking loudly is a change in the regulatory structure. You've seen different pathways for drug approval processes in FDA. You've seen inclusion criteria in clinical trials to enhance generalizability in women, minorities, kids. So, this is all a reflection of the same piece.

Now, what has happened as a result of that is we're recognizing the multiple players in the field as we go from protecting folks to access and the right answer is somewhere in between. We don't know how to divvy up all the resources the right way. Sometimes those resources are the science itself for trials to move forward. Sometimes it's which patients will be in a trial. Sometimes it's which disease will be appropriate. These are all criteria on justice that we are all really just learning how to talk

about.

So, I think, yes, a bunt or whatever that would mean. The home run may be a short question. It may be that my home run is decreasing tangles, that my home run here isn't curing Alzheimer's disease or whatever the question is. But that needs to be visualized. If you share that goal with the same enthusiasm that we would have scientifically with patients and family members, this is where we are, this is the next question, this is the scientific question, and unfortunately the science isn't good enough for us to promise more, but do you want to help out? Uniformly people will help out if that's where the science really is.

I think we just need to think through those again explicitly to try to answer those. I think they're all home runs. If we could achieve any of them, we could move forward.

DR. NOBLE: I want to make one concrete proposal to this often too abstract discussion. If there is any way in a study to use imaging to determine whether or not you have had any kind of successful cell replacement, it appears to me that this has to be mandatory because we need a scientist to know whether or not we may be getting cell replacement in the absence of clinical improvement. And if we simply use outcome measures that

can be measured simply in the clinic, we don't even know whether the experiment worked because it might have failed because we didn't replace any cells at all, or it might have failed because we didn't replace enough, or it might have failed because we replaced them and it doesn't matter. So, I think that's a critical component.

The ethics questions -- I'll never forget what one of my friends with a glioblastoma told me. He said, Dr. Noble, your ethics are a luxury that I don't have time for. This is a pressure that we have for many of the patients. We know a lot of spinal cord injury patients. They're going to go and get shark embryo transplants in Mexico. If we had some means of making sure that these patients were directed into therapies that might be more beneficial that maybe are not ready for the prime time that we would want, but they're better than shuffling off to Tijuana for a shark embryo, then maybe we could use this process to learn something also.

DR. TROJANOWSKI: With respect to whether there are measures that are adequate to indicate a response to a therapy or not, I think that is a very critical question. I recall, Mark, the Motulsky Orkin report on gene therapy four or five years ago which said that too many of the clinical trials for gene therapy were not powered sufficiently, didn't have outcome measures to know whether

the experiment would or would not benefit the patient. And that's a horrible place to be, and I'm glad that they spoke out so eloquently and strongly about more basic science, more animal models before rushing to clinical trials.

Although I mentioned that Alzheimer's disease has some perplexing conundrums about what the most toxic lesion is, I think we have many potentially informative measures for a response to therapy, both biological and cognitive. So, I would argue that we should go for the clinical trials that have the potential to do something where the measures are in place.

I'm very much in favor of bunts and base hits because we in the Alzheimer's field, although I work in Parkinson's as well, would love to be faced with the dilemma of an L-dopa-like therapy that carried people for 10 or 15 years when the disease begins at age 75 to, let's say, age 85 or 90 so that they could enjoy their retirement or be cognitively intact enough to enjoy retirement years rather than being in a nursing home. So, it doesn't have to be a cure for Alzheimer's.

MS. WOLFSON: I think one thing that has to be thought of, when we talk about the ethics of new therapies, is not only the quality of life that a patient might enjoy if this was successful, but the quality of the patient's death. I think that in any informed consent procedure, the

possibility of what will happen to the person without the therapy and the effect of the therapy on a person's death I think is equally as important.

DR. SUGARMAN: I would like to underscore the points. I don't want to send the false message that I want be a Luddite about the whole thing and stop science. I'm doing science all the time, what I consider science, empirical work, and like to move forward and work in clinical trials. I am the biggest fan of moving forward on clinical trials and advancing things, and if that wasn't clear from my comments, I'm sorry about that.

But I'm a fan of moving forward not for any of this right now. When safe, when appropriate, when alternatives have been explained. And I hope that the emphasis is when it's right, I'm all over it. I sit on IRBs and DSMBs and love to see them move forward.

I think it's critical to bring in these other points about what the alternatives are. Just because we're not the folks with the alternatives when we are at major medical centers and the like doesn't mean that there aren't other alternatives out there that might be good for this patient or this patient's family. It may be a death. It may be going on vacation instead of spending their time in parking decks and waiting rooms. It really depends on the state of the science, and I just think we need to be up

front and forward about what we can to offer.

I think there's a lot of good to be had here and would like to see that we also focus on the outcomes of benefit as well to know that what we're doing isn't the snake oil. Is it that we put something in a part of the brain that we think is going to be functional, it's not functional, but has a therapeutic effect? We've heard this kind of conversation before. We can fool ourselves too by the state of the science of what we think we're doing. So, we need to have a little humility here about how good it is so that we can be honest and appropriate as we go forward.

DR. SALOMON: I know this is a great discussion. I just want to do Dr. Mulligan in the back, Dr. Freeman and Dr. Kurtzberg, and then we'll be done for this and we'll move on.

DR. MULLIGAN: I'd like to come to the snake oil issue. It seems that there's somewhat of an inconsistency between your principles of consent and the very low bar that I think you've represented to support going ahead for a clinical trial. So, as I was looking at your bullet points, you're saying a possible benefit is desirable but not necessary. The clinical equipoise is a sufficient metric. Risk/benefit is not really an issue in the phase I.

If you're giving consent -- let's say we all

know clinical trials that we think are not very interesting and let's say that there's one that manages to pass that very low bar, who is then appropriate to give consent to the patient? One person, for instance, might say in his consent this is a pretty bad trial, do you want to do this? Most people think this is not going to work. It's really kind of ridiculous. As opposed to the investigator who says, well, this has a chance, et cetera, et cetera.

I raise this because it forces you, I would think to have to deal with what's necessary in terms of preclinical information. As you set the bar lower and lower, then the consent I would think becomes more and more an issue about to what extent you have to get across that there's great difference in thinking about whether there's enough science to support going ahead.

DR. SUGARMAN: I think one of the emphases is that in proposing these criteria for the first in humans kind of trials, bench to bedside kind of argument, is that it's safe. Safety is the key as number one, that we have as much information as we have about safety preclinically that we know it's okay to try this or we think it's okay to try it. We're not going to know until we try it in folks. So, the bar is really high on not hurting people in the process that are willing.

The possibility of benefit is honest about

where we are with science, and that starts to become part of the consent process.

You're right. I think the consent process does play an important role here. It's arguably hard to do.

We're collaborating with some folks at Hopkins about trying to enhance consent for phase I trials in oncology. We recorded about 100 conversations with investigators talking to patient subjects about enrolling in phase I. We're trying to enhance that process not necessarily changing the recruitment rates at all. We saw no nudge. But what we see is greater satisfaction, greater understanding, and greater knowledge about what's happening in the context of this trial.

So, I do think the consent process is critical, and whether it's appropriate for the investigator to give the consent or the nay-saying research nurse, I don't know who the right person is to do that in each case. But it's something that a thorough look at the ethics of the research would say don't just outline your consent document, say this. Who's going to get consent? How are people going to be approached? What kind of materials are they going to be given? Just deliberate about what's the most balanced way to give that information that's fair.

I don't know if I evaded your question or answered it.

DR. MULLIGAN: You very effectively evaded it. (Laughter.)

DR. SAUSVILLE: I have to interject. You created sort of a polar situation by presuming that the clinical investigator is basically going to talk it up and another person, whether a research nurse or the next investigator, is going to talk it down. Again, I speak as someone who just yesterday participated in two informed consents for a phase I trial.

You've got to be able to say to the patient that, yes, as an investigator, I think this is a reasonable idea, but you also have to say to the patient that it's perfectly reasonable to consider no particular treatment and to use palliative efforts to relieve symptoms as potentially having no difference in outcome. So, maybe that's part of an equipoise.

So, I don't think you have to have this -- what I read into this -- a polarization of points of view. I think to make the consenting process totally informed, you have to open the possibility that supportive care and specifically not going on this trial is a perfectly reasonable thing.

DR. MULLIGAN: Yes. I'm attempting to really get a better definition of how much effort ought to be put into evaluating the science from the point of view of going

ahead. I guess I'm saying that it seems like reasonably the bar is set very low, but that there's a very arbitrary point of view put to the patient, almost by definition, let's say, because generally there are different points of view, and the physician that's carrying out the trial clearly believes in what they're doing and think that there is some hope. But should the consent process somehow take into account, say, the prevailing scientific view? Often there is a prevailing scientific view that something is not so hot.

DR. SAUSVILLE: I would submit that both points of view need to be offered.

DR. SALOMON: Okay, in the back.

DR. FREED: Curt Freed, University of Colorado.

With the issue of outcome and if we're talking about cell therapy, there are two issues that always have to be addressed I think. First of all is has the cell done what you think it was going to do, and second is has the patient had a response. Because we're dealing with cells, not drugs, the cell has to go in, survive, and flourish. In our neural transplants for Parkinson's that variable has been less variable than the patient outcome in which you have a whole different set of factors. What is Parkinson's disease? What is the range of actual underlying disorders that manifest itself as Parkinson's across age range and so

So, we have two distinct parameters: one, cell survival; second, patient response. Both have to be considered as two endpoints, not a single endpoint I would say. DR. SALOMON: Dr. Freeman and then Dr. Kurtzberg. DR. FREEMAN: I think there is one set of

special challenges for stem cells, in particular, when it comes to trials. Although these are pharmaceuticals, they are pharmaceuticals that are delivered surgically, which brings up a whole set of special considerations which fall outside of the realm of standard pharmaceutical trial designs.

First of all, how do you adequately control for your outcome, and what are the ethics of placebo-controlled surgical trials?

Secondly, the costs of a surgical trial are prohibitive in comparison to pharmaceutical trials which, first of all, will favor product-driven trials over, say, organ transplant, fetal tissue, or kidney transplants.

Anything that's product-driven in a surgical trial will, therefore, be favored by that.

Secondly, it influences the size of the trial and therefore limits your ability to power adequately on primary clinical endpoints which is, of course, what is

favored in a trial design and lends itself more to surrogate marker endpoints and radiologic outcomes.

Finally, from a trialism point of view, many surgeons are not adequately trained or prepared psychologically to deal with placebo-controlled trials. Then from the surgeon's point of view, surgeons generally get paid to do surgical procedures which will limit their equipoise.

(Laughter.)

DR. FREEMAN: And finally, if they do a placebo-controlled trial where you bill for the active arm by you don't for the placebo arm, of course, that's unblinding, and not many surgeons are willing to operate on people in either arm for free. So, there's a whole constraint of issues which really are specific to surgical trials that really need to be thought out carefully.

DR. SUGARMAN: I appreciate that. Also, any other comments people have along the way, I'm happy to revise and analyze and change, and throw things at me, as long as they're words. I would love your thoughts and input on this as we think forward about this together.

DR. KURTZBERG: I don't think we've really addressed the topic of resource allocations. I think there's really a societal disconnect between what we want to do as scientists and tests and what we have the

resources to look at. I think the FDA is going to be in a unique position of being able to control, in a way, how some resources might be allocated. I think that responsibility has to be discussed and that systems and committees and whatever have to be put in place so that it's done fairly.

I don't think our society realizes they need to do research in certain illnesses until somebody they know gets sick, and then it's too late. Then the resources get emotionally allocated instead of objectively allocated. I think this agency has the power, if you will, to maybe change that and put direction on how we approach some of these diseases and how we allocate the resources.

DR. SALOMON: I think that was a very good discussion. I think it's probably the first time since I've been associated with FDA advisory committees that we've had that much productive discussion on an ethics thing --

(Laughter.)

DR. SALOMON: -- which may be a statement on previous committees or previous presenters. But I mean that as a sincere form of compliment.

So, what I came away with as sort of key issues that came out of this discussion from the group is that clearly this idea of outcome measures, measurability and

meaningfulness, is really a big thing. Picking up on Dr. Kurtzberg's last comment, I think bringing it around, these are issues for the FDA -- and for the NIH I might add -- in terms of where funding priorities are put in order to address which diseases we should start with, what resource allocation is going to be done and make sure that we do address the issue that it's not done emotionally.

The second thing is clearly I think everybody is sensitive to informed consent. I didn't cut that conversation off even though it was a little more generic informed consent than neural stem cell informed consent. If people want to get back to talking about informed consent, I would ask you only to integrate some specific issues related to neural stem cell transplantation if the topic should come back up again.

Jay, given your status --

DR. SIEGEL: Thank you. I know you want to move on, but I just want to quickly say for the sake of Dr. Freeman, Sugarman, anyone else who might be interested, in 1994 and 1995, the FDA did have a two-day advisory committee discussion on issues in intraventricular therapies of neurological disorders, many of the same disorders, and many of the treatments involving placement of catheters, reservoirs, and pumps, and issues of sham surgery and issues of ethics in dementing conditions.

There was some very fruitful discussion there, and those 1 interested in the issue may want to check back on that 2 3 record. DR. SALOMON: Well, given a technical glitch, 4 5 maybe we've got a minute here. Go ahead. 6 DR. TROJANOWSKI: Could I ask for one more 7 thing to be put on the future agenda of these discussions? That is the role of media in reporting science. 8 9 I've been appalled at their reluctance to declare conflicts of interest, what their hidden agenda 10 11 might be in some of their press reports. The St. Jude's Hospital report of potential contamination of HIV fragments 12 13 in a gene therapy trial that then were retracted five days 14 later I think did enormous damage to the public's confidence in this. 15 16 Although at the University of Pennsylvania we're very sensitized to the conflicts of interest with Jim 17 18 Wilson -- I'm not part of his institute at all. 19 (Laughter.) 20 DR. TROJANOWSKI: I'm part of the institution, 21 but not the IHGT. I think there were accusations in the 22 press that were completely unethical and, for reasons that I don't understand, they were allowed to go forward. 23 24 I don't know if members of the press are here,

but I hope they do pay attention to what Dr. Sugarman said,

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and I would hope that -- this is a free country. You can say whatever you want, of course, but I think you can say things in print that have an enormously damaging effect and there's no accountability.

DR. SALOMON: I think one comment, though, that needs to be followed up on that is that, yes, the press has to be responsible and irresponsible reporting -- you gave a good example of it.

But the other side of it was, it was really a black eye. There was not just Dr. Wilson, but there were several prominent gene therapists with ridiculous conflicts of interest that could have been dealt with in a proper way. There's nothing wrong with a conflict of interest if it's up front. So, I think it's definitely a two-edged sword here.

Our next speaker -- and then we'll take a break -- is Dr. Fred Gage, Rusty Gage, giving us an overview on animal models.

DR GAGE: So, I took the charge pretty literally, and when you sent me that list of questions, I took the questions out of the text and pasted them onto slides and put my answers onto them so we could keep it fairly focused.

I wanted to start by harping again on this concept of the definition of stem cells and the fact that

there are no prospective markers for stem cells that would allow you to go in and look at a cell and say, that is a stem cell. Rather, what we have are populations of cells. At best we can say within that population we believe that there is a cell that's a stem cell.

The other point is that there really are two different definitions that we've been talking about here. One is in vitro definitions which involve saying that the cell has self-renewing properties and is multipotent. In most cases, at best what one will do is say that twice self-renewal -- you'll say that one population can be derived from a single cell, expanded, differentiated into multiple cells. In that population, again you can take one cell out of it and give rise to that same property of self-renewal and multipotentiality again. But all you've really demonstrated there is twice. You've said self-renewal twice. What we really invoke with self-renewal is perpetual self-renewal or for long periods of time.

In terms of multipotency, certainly in the nervous system, most people are satisfied with looking at three markers: some marker of glia, some marker of oligodendrocyte, and usually an early neural marker. And then they say that they have a stem cell and maybe a complete stem cell population.

The other definition related here is the in

vivo definition, and we really have no definition of an in vivo model of stem cells in the central nervous system because of the absence of ability for self-renewing properties.

So, one of the things that this gives rise to then in this little schematic is the idea that of totipotency, pluripotency, and the general multipotency. As we go forward, rather than be pessimistic about this, I'd like to be optimistic that, in fact, while we don't know very much, we have the tools presently to begin answering these questions very systematically. It's the answer to these questions which will help us progress further rather than throwing up our hands without knowledge.

So, I think one of the important questions that we have to address that has already been brought up is the relationship that exists between what we're calling stem cells and progenitor cells and whether or not there is a progressive unilinear progression of differentiation or whether or not there's a capacity for dedifferentiation or reversion back and forth between the cell types. That I think will be a very important part for talking and discussing things.

One of the ways in which we've tried to address this in our lab by calling cells stem cells -- I'm going to

give you demonstrations mostly from our lab, but also showing you the down side of what we're doing.

We take adult tissue. We isolate the tissue on various isolation procedures, and we use retroviruses which have the capacity for single integration into individual cells as a marker. We then take colonies and clone the individual cells manually. But after we have what we believe to be a clonal population derived from presumably one cell, we do Southern Blots to make sure that that single integration — it defines genetically that every cell in that culture that expanded from the retroviral integration is derived from a common cell.

You can then use another retrovirus with another marker to then test for self-renewal, but then again, at the end of the day, all you've got is being able to say that within that population there are stem cells and within that population there is some evidence that at least some of them have self-renewing properties. So, even under these very rigorous conditions, we do not have prospective markers that allow us to identify the individual cell.

However, if you can then use these procedures to isolate repeatedly, using the same procedures, cells and ask about the potentially different cells, here's an example of what you can get. So, here's the parent population and these are 6 different clones derived from

the bulk population that are then differentiated. While every one of the clones can give rise to a neuron -- a quote/unquote neuron -- an astrocyte and oligodendrocyte, the ratio that each one of the clones all derive from a single population have in differentiating down different lineages is quite variable. But I think the good news is -- one has to look for the good news in the noise -- that each of the clonal populations is multipotent.

Now, just to give you an idea of one of the things we're trying to think about in terms of these concepts of defining what is a stem cell, this is a film of an individual cell in a culture dish. So, here's a cell moving around. It's under conditions. This cell can divide. So, is that a self-renewing property or is this a committed cell?

Well, if we look carefully, you can see that first this cell rounds up and divides, and now this cell rounds up and divides. These cells then can each individually divide and differentiate. This is over a period of 2 or 3 days, and if you monitor these cells over longer periods of time, this population will grow up to be a multipotent stem cell population. But even by tracking the cells individually in the culture, without prospective markers, we can't identify which one of these cells, other than the very first cell, was in fact a stem cell.

1 So, the next question of the questions that 2 were asked was production characteristics. What are the objective, qualitative differences that distinguish stem 3 cells derived from different sources, namely, embryonic, 4 fetal, adult, and how might these distinctions impact 5 6 safety and potential efficacy? 7 Well, to date there has been no head-up 8 comparison between cells of different origin, species, or 9 age, in part because different methods have been used to 10 isolate and expand and differentiate the cells. But this I 11 think is certainly a challenge and one that should be met. 12 Examples of the differences that are existing 13 in the culture dishes today are, we've heard, EGF versus FGF. 14 15 Some people grow cells as monolayers. Others 16 grow them as spheres. 17 We don't know the difference between an 18 embryonically defined cell and an adult cell. 19 How many passages does it take to change the cell and how important is that? 20 21 We hear about cells that are immortalized. Actually rationally immortalized. They're meant to 22 23 immortalize the stem cells. What's the difference between that cell and a non-immortalized cell? 24 25 Then, of course, rat, mouse, and human. Many

of the discussions we have are interchangeably using the results that we obtain from one species and generalizing both in behavior experimental models and in the behavior of the cells.

Then again, the source of the cells.

So, the bottom line is, the answer to the question is it hasn't been done, but these are the head-up kinds of experiments that certainly could be done.

So, we assume in some sense that there's a stem cell here that's dividing down into a progenitor cell, one of the other lineages and that these are some sort of linear track.

I want to show you a recent observation by Sophia Calimari using a marker that you heard from Steve Goldman earlier. This is a population of cells all derived from a single cell in a culture dish, and they're moving around. It's very hard to tell from this who is the stem cell or who is the progenitor cell and who is undergoing cell division at any one particular time.

If we infect the same population with a marker that uses the alpha tubulin promoter driving GFP, you can see that in that culture, here's the cell with nice branches and it's a committed neural progenitor cell, as we've used these terminologies. But if we look closely, follow that cell, it rounds up and undergoes cell division.

So, here we have a situation where we're using markers to define cells as committed down a neural lineage. That same cell -- it's not fusing back together. Don't worry.

(Laughter.)

DR GAGE: That cell can actually undergo cell division and give rise to a cell at the same state of lineage, showing here that it's expressing the alpha tubulin promoter.

So, in addition to the propagation of cells in the most primitive states, it looks like at different stages along the commitment, cells can be expanded and propagated. I think this is going to be a valuable tool and a piece of information for us to consider in this process of isolating functional cells.

Similarly, will the stem cell source influence the robustness, the durability, the longevity of an intended therapeutic response following transplantation? Well, yes.

So, how do we compare, measure, and follow them? Well, these are just a list of some of the things that we need to do with our cells when we consider -- and I think that the spirit of the question was how can we begin to characterize cells in some systematic way so that ultimately we can make comparisons between the different types of cells that people are bringing forward as being a

potential cell source for a therapeutic intervention.

Certainly issues related to isolation efficiency, what
factors are used to propagate the cells. Do we need serum
for this? Most of these are fairly straightforward, but
what again it comes back to is making comparisons between
all of these variables between different cell types.

One of the methods that we've used to isolate these cells as a method of isolating the cells from the adult nervous system and enriched for certain cells has allowed us to look at cells directly isolated from the tissue in the absence of propagating them in conditions of mitogens. One of the concerns that we all have in this field is when you propagate cells for indefinite periods of time or for any period of time with mitogens as potent as EGF and FGF, are you changing the potentiality of the cells.

So, we've developed a procedure where you can take adult tissue and isolate it on a Percoll gradient. We have a pretty good idea of the density of the cells that we propagated. Then when we isolate those cells, we can ask what percentage of those cells that are freshly isolated from the brain are able to give rise to neurons in a dish. As Steve Goldman told you, the hippocampus has this potential for neurogenesis, as does the subventricular zone. Here with 0 passages and induced differentiation, we

do in fact get neurogenesis out of these cells.

But if we look at other areas of the brain, like the cortex where no neurogenesis normally occurs in the adult, or even the optic nerve, which is extended out into the rostral brain cavity, there is, we know, no neurogenesis occurring in those cells. If we exposed them for merely 3 days to FGF in vitro, we can get those cells to begin to express neuronal markers. So, here's a population of cells existing in a non-neurogenic site, when exposed to FGF, can in fact give rise to cells.

We believe that this, in fact, suggests that either there are quiescent populations of cells -- this is one interpretation -- that exists within the adult brain that can be activated by these mitogens or, alternatively, this idea of reprogramming emerges again. Do mitogens reprogram the adult or any kind of stem cell to broaden its propagated capacity?

So, here's the question again. Please describe specific markers used in the isolation, characterization of stem cell preparations.

Well, if you read through the literature, some people will say if a cell is responsive to FGF or EGF, it's a stem cell. Others will say that if it forms a sphere, a sphere-forming cell is a stem cell. These are in the published literature. The ability to passage a cell we've

read may be used. Again, I'm being a little bit tough here, but I think that the concept of using stem cells is being used in a much broader sense than original assumptions were, and I think we should return to those to some extent.

Nestin is another marker that has been used as a marker of stem cells.

Then in terms of differentiation, as I said, usually three markers are adequate.

I argue that in order for you to say that a single cell can give rise to a neuron, as several of the talks today have already documented, we need to be more rigorous in our definition of whether or not the cells are in fact neuronal. So, markers needed for functional characterization would be the ability of the cells to actually myelinate in vitro. Can they form myelin and myelinate axons? Do they form dendrites, axons, and synapses? Do they make neurotransmitters, and are they electrophysiologically active? These are all methods that are presently available. So, it's not that difficult.

Here is a stem cell derived from a single cell infected with GFP so you can mark it. This is a double labeling with synaptophysin, a marker for synapses. MAP-2 is a dendritic marker. What you can see here is that synapses are formed on the surface of these stem cells.

If you look at the action from this neuron derived from stem cells -- and this again are the synapses, and this is the dendrite from another cell, not this one -- we can say that the synapses from this cell are making synaptic contacts on the dendrite of another cell. So, merely by using antibody markers and collocalization, we can begin to get the features which give us a little more confidence that the cells are differentiating down different lineages.

Using really pretty standard electrophysiological characteristics now by taking those same cells, voltage clamping so you're looking only at current, you can see that a normal primary neuron in culture gives rise to EPSPs -- IPSPs and stem cells or cells derived from a single cell that differentiated down lineages also can give rise to similar kinds of IPSPs and EPSPs that are blocked by GABA and blocked by glutamatergic stimulation.

As has been reported before by some of the other speakers, one of the things we'd like to know is can these neurons actually spontaneously fire an action potential as a neuron. So, if you put them on a current clamp and just ask whether or not the cell has the capacity, in the absence of stimulating with potassium, but does it have the potential for generating an action

potential, you can measure these properties in the cell and gain confidence that the cells have actually differentiated or can differentiate down fully functional neurons.

Are there selected genetic or biochemical markers that accurately indicate the differentiation status of stem cell preparations or that assure the acquisition of correct functional therapeutic -- and this is a tough one. Not from certainly any in vitro monitoring that is available.

If in the standard cell preparation, all cells can give rise to a defined therapeutic cell phenotype in vitro and in vivo, then I think you're feeling a little bit more comfortable from your animal models that it might work in a patient.

If the cell implant can reverse the functional deficits reliably in an animal model, I think that's another evidence of support.

In addition, if the functional recovery observed in the animal model can be causally linked to the phenotypic differentiation of the graft itself, then I think you're close to being able to say that that cell that you're grafting is differentiating into a phenotype that's responsible for the functional outcome that you're looking at.

If you use these sorts of criteria in the

animal models, at least it begins to say that, well, we believe that it's not the cell secreting a factor or dying and it's that response that's causing the behavioral result.

Alternatively, have specific markers been identified that could relatively predict transplant failure or indicate the likelihood of untoward events to occur, such as inappropriate -- yes. I think that there are things we can look at in vitro and in vivo in animal models that are pretty bad predictors. One would be that the cell that you're looking at can't differentiate down the appropriate lineages either in vitro of in vivo. If you can't get your cell to differentiate to a large extent with some control down the appropriate lineages both in vitro and in vivo, that does not bode well for a cell.

Cannot be induced for all the cells to stop dividing. If in vitro or in vivo, there is any evidence that these cells are continuing to divide in culture, that all of your differentiation schemes -- you may have, well, just 1 or 2 cells are undergoing mitosis later on -- I think that that is a marker that we need to be absolutely aware of. Cells need to be karyotyped to make sure that there are no abnormalities, and if there are abnormalities, then this needs to be evaluated.

And cells die following differentiation in

vitro or in vivo. I don't mean just that they can differentiate appropriately, but some will survive and then as soon as they differentiate, they die.

Here's some of our own data of our passaged clones. These are all clonal lines that you saw before. After 30 passages, we karyotyped our cells, and while 7 of the 9 had basically normal karyotype, we had two abnormal cells that were out 40 or 50 passages. When we grafted this cell, it actually acted just like a normal cell, but when we grafted this cell, we got tumors. So, I think that's a beginning of at least a minimal amount of characterization that one needs to do for your cells and we should see that for every cell that is used.

So, preclinical. To what degree do particular experimental animal models mimic disease conditions in the human and to what extent are animal models predictive in terms of evaluating safety prior to initiating studies in humans?

I'd just like to be a little pedantic here and say that there are three different kinds of animal models that many of us who work in animal models think about and what you can expect out of an animal model.

There are homologous animal models, and that is a model that has common etiology to that which exists in the human. The pathology is the same and the behavioral

outcome the same. It's not even a model. It's the animal has the same disease as humans. Treating that will be a lot more informative than any other model. But most of the models that we actually look at are isomorphic models. While the pathology or the behavior may be the same, the actual cause of it, the initiating cause of it is unknown or is induced by the experimenter. Most of our models, even our transgenic animals that we're generating now that have over-expression of certain genotypes, are really not homologous to the human form of these diseases. Given that's the case, one needs to be aware of that whenever one is modeling these and looking at behavioral outcomes and anticipating moving on for a clinical application.

There are obviously certain models that have a greater relationship or closer to the homologous sort of thing. Having said that and being critical of isomorphic models, there are a lot of correlation models that are actually quite good. There are a lot of in vitro models. If you're modeling for one element of the human disease, then in some cases in vitro models are okay if the only thing you're looking for is to reverse that one thing. So, being aware of the model that's being used.

This is my list of all the diseases. When I looked through the literature to see what people have begun modeling for and spoken about in terms of cell therapy --

this isn't something I would even think about -- there's an amazing number of diseases that people are attributing to as potential models for cell therapy at present. They don't always say that they're going to be using stem cells, but it's striking.

So, then they asked me, so what are the relative strengths and weaknesses of any animal models described in your presentation? I'll talk about a few things.

Most of the models we deal with are isomorphic. They're not real homologous models. The timing of implant is almost never taken into consideration relative to the disease. The size of the target is minuscule relative to the clinical problem. The number of cells that we're grafting have nothing to do anywhere near the cell number that we're going to be using in human. Even when we go on to primates, the scale-up is quite big.

We work to reduce variability. That's why we use animal models. It allows us to make extrapolations a little bit better.

Unfortunately, little attention is given to in vivo measures to monitor the survival function.

This relates to what Mark just said, which is we need to get working on and perhaps demanding the development of imaging techniques to monitor these cells if

we're going to go forward in an aggressive way.

So, in the modeling, a few slides showing grafting or transplantation of cells. This just relates to the idea that niche is important. If we take a clonal population of cells and graft them into the hippocampus, what you'll see is the same cells, depending upon where they end up in the granule cell layer, will differentiate into different cell types. So, if you get them just in the innergranular zone, you can get cells that differentiate into neurons, that are calbindin positive, they receive synapses, and by all criteria are indistinguishable from the other granule cells.

If, however, you damage the granule cells and you elicit a glial response, then those same cells would differentiate into astrocytes. Tens of microns away or, say, 100 microns away, the exact same cells are going to respond differently depending upon the cues that are present in the local environment. So, it's not just the cell type. It is the microenvironment.

I'm not going to talk about Parkinson's disease, but I hope that some of the people in the audience who have a lot of experience will and relate the successes that have been used with fetal tissue, where there's defined populations of cells, albeit not enough cells, and their hopes for stem cells or progenitor cells to be an

expanded population and the reality of what really is expected out of a stem cell. I feel confident in saying at present no propagated cell, CNS propagated cell, CNS-derived propagated cell, that can be even closely considered to be a stem cell gives anywhere near the functional effects that one sees with fetal tissue even in any of the most simple experimental models. At this point, fetal tissue is the benchmark for both the experimental model in Parkinson's disease, as well as the clinical model, and the stem cell work is not even close.

A quasi-homologous model might be -- I think eye disease has a lot of opportunities here because there are a lot of animal models with genetic disorders where there are selected gene mutations and retinal degenerations associated with this. I wanted to show some pictures of some grafts that Mike Young has done with our cells and injecting in the Royal College of Surgeons rat which is a rat that has degeneration of the retina.

If you infect the cells with GFP so they're fluorescent and you select a cell that stays on once it's grafted -- and this is really a selection process rather than knowing what we're doing in terms of where the virus inserts. We can get cells that stay on after differentiation, months afterwards.

So, here's the degenerating eye and these green

cells will target to the outer region. They can send processes into the synaptic region. So, this is the neuron in the middle layer, projecting processes into these synaptic regions. If we look closely at that, we can see that in some cases synapses are being formed in the processes, and they line up in an appropriate way.

These are being examined for functional characteristics, but these are cells derived from the adult hippocampus that, when grafted into a degenerating eye, appear to target to these areas. They don't take on the full, let's say, phenotypic characteristics of the same eye cells in their present state, and we don't know if that's a function of the fact that they're from the hippocampus or whether or not the adult brain or damaged brain doesn't have all the cues necessary to drive the cells down further.

This is just an observation that is consistent with the idea that the cells are responding appropriately to the damaged cues. In addition to seeing some of the cells fall into the ganglion cell area, we actually see axons coming out of the ganglia and into the optic nerve that are GFP positive, and you have growth counts that tip as they lead into the optic nerve head.

So, while the cells may have the will to differentiate and the degenerating target may provide some

of the clues, the whole process of neural regeneration and recapitulation of normal circuitry down to a functional neuron is going to require an orchestration of things that are not just induced in vitro, but also requiring the host as well.

A few cautionary notes about the in vivo effects. So, when modeling diseases like epilepsy, which is thought of as a target for cell therapy, if you pulse a normal animal with bromodeoxyuridine, these are the dividing cells that normally exist. If you give an animal pilocarpine, as an experimental animal of epilepsy, you get a massive proliferation of these progenitor cells. Many of these cells migrate out into the granule cell layer and form ectopic, inappropriate granule cells. So, anytime when thinking about transplanting cells into an epileptic host, one has to think about the fact that already in that damaged tissue the local circuits are recruiting these cells into aberrant locations. This is a slide from Jack Parent and Dan Lowenstein in their earlier work.

I put this in recently because I wanted to say what are some successes and what are some models that one could at least think about in terms of cell therapy and the rationales behind it. The successes we'll hear about in the next couple of speakers.

We'd like to keep in mind defined populations

of cells and defined phenotypes. Here I'm not talking so much about the cell itself as the fact that the cells can be delivery vehicles for factors. This for me is a real lesson that any cell that we put in there in and of itself may not be acting for its intrinsic property as a cell, but may be a vehicle for delivery. What's important then is to understand the nature of those signals that are being secreted.

So, in the human and all mammals, there's a cholinergic system in the basal forebrain projecting into the hippocampus in the septal area, and we know that there are many trophins that are effective, but uniquely nerve growth factor will support the survival of these cholinergic neurons in aging animals and in damage situations. It's a potent rescue factor but it also has a lot of side effects that have been revealed as this molecule would supposedly move forward into some sort of clinical application because of its diffuse effects throughout the system.

But one of the lessons we learned was that if you take an aged animal and stained for markers which identify what the cells are, these cholinergic neurons, we concluded originally that there was a loss of cells in these regions. When grafted cells that over-express nerve growth factor into these target areas, we ended up getting

more cholinergic neurons in this region.

Now, one can conclude from that that if you were putting in progenitor cells, that in fact some of the grafted cells are differentiating into new cholinergic neurons. In fact, that's not what's happening here. We're up-regulating the expression of phenotypic markers on the surface of the cells that were basically blank before, and this could easily be interpreted as some sort of cellular replacement when, in fact, it's just genetic up-regulation of what's going on.

The other point that we face is this difference of size. So, this is rat brain and this is a monkey brain. Depending upon the monkey brain, the human brain is going to be at least four times, if not more, and parametologists in the audience will discuss this with us. But this difference of size is not one that I think is easily scaleable, especially when we're talking about cell therapy and cell replacement.

One of the things that we've done with Mark
Tuszynski is to look in the primate and see how many cells
do you really have to do to mimic the effects that you see
in a rat in a monkey. I think that those are the kinds of
questions in the stem cell field which would be important.

The difficult thing, though, in cells like this where they form an aggregate or in fetal tissue where they

form an aggregate and you can use various tracers like MRI or PET scanning to identify the graft, this is going to be significantly more difficult with progenitor cells and stem cells because unlike these cells, they migrate very, very far, and most of the human imaging techniques are not sensitive enough to really identify where those cells are going. So, this I think is once again a real challenge for us.

So, embedded in this also, as I restate this, is that we really have to consider this issue of immunology, if we're harvesting our cells from autologous tissues. Whereas we can take some cells from the animals themselves and transplant them back, I believe it will be a more difficult situation to take and perhaps an ethical issue we could talk about of harvesting biopsy material from humans and then growing those cells and retransplanting those cells and the efficacy of doing something like that.

Getting to the last of these questions, to what extent do animal models facilitate the evaluation of cellular differentiation and integration following transplantation of stem cells?

Well, I come back to the point that rarely, if ever, are we really grafting stem cells. In the central nervous system, these have not been the studies. Most of

the cells that have gone in are progenitor cells. They're not self-renewing. It's not known if the cells that do survive -- in fact, migrate -- are in fact stem cells of the population that go through, and many would argue that it really is a committed cell that's actually the one that's surviving and migrating.

An important question is how many species -- I think this is one of the questions that is related here to animal models -- and are monkey trials essential for moving forward in stem cell applications?

There are mouse models in some cases that could thought to be more homologous to the human disease than the monkey, obviously, in terms of transgenic animals, but the monkey provides many of the size issues that one would like to have addressed for some of these trials. So, nevertheless, animal models are absolutely essential.

And tracking. So, describe techniques currently available.

Well, fluorodopa is being used. Olle Lindvall came out with a very nice D-2 receptor occupancy, PET imaging study with fetal tissue grafts giving some functional index of the graft in Parkinson's patients. I think we can begin to look. There are studies now being looked at for BrdU PET to see whether or not there are dividing cells that exist within the grafts or in the brain

normally, and then for some of these other grafts, if they don't migrate too much, one can begin to look at MRI.

Highlight significant hurdles that need to be overcome.

We need markers. We need markers for the transplant of cells. We need markers that don't down-regulate when they differentiate, that are easy to assay in sections, and better, can be monitored in vivo and can be monitored in humans to follow the cells in vivo. Develop some human markers that can be put inside these stem cells so that you can monitor where they are and where they go in vivo.

You asked if there are any behavioral markers in animal models. There is a ton of them. You can measure every behavioral response that you want in an animal model to look at safety and efficacy, but I think what's missing in many cases are the appropriate controls. For cell grafting, I think this is really important, especially in stem cells. What is the control that you're using as a control for your stem cell to say that your cell is doing something different than damage or any other cell that would be used. I think this issue of control and animal control is a very important one.

Define the extent to which animal model testing is useful for evaluating the impact of local environment on

phenotypic expression.

Well, to the extent that one can make a homologous model of a human condition with the same pathology, then I think that's one of the considerations. To the extent that you have an isomorphic model that mimics the local pathology of the human disease, then I think you're beginning to address these issues of microenvironment. But if your models have no relationship to the anatomical microenvironment that's going on in the human pathology, then you really can't make any prediction of the fate of the cells in the human condition. So, animal models, for stem cells in particular, should take into consideration trying to mimic either isomorphically or homologously the pathological changes.

To the extent that human cells behave the same in animal models as they do in human disease, it's obviously the gold standard. This is what you want to do.

I'm done. I just want to remind, as did Steve, that there is neurogenesis and cell proliferation going on in the adult nervous system. There's lots of it, and it's not just that there's neurogenesis going on in these regions of the hippocampus and the subventricular zone, there are cells dividing in the cortex, there are cells dividing in the spinal cord. They're not necessarily giving rise to neurons, but they are dividing.

it, but I'll just go through it. This is a list of the recent studies that have shown either factors or environmental stimulation that can affect the endogenous rate of self-proliferation within adult animals. So, EGF, FGF, estrogen, serotonin, glutamate, enriched environment, exercise, learning, stress, glucocorticoids, adrenalectomy, stroke, epilepsy, and aging all have shown to have effects on the endogenous proliferation of certainly the hippocampal neurogenesis, but many cells throughout the brain. So, in any consideration of grafting cells, we need to consider the fact that the environment can actually influence the fate of our cells once they are grafted into the host.

Thank you.

(Applause.)

DR. SALOMON: Well, it's getting to that part of the afternoon where probably a break would be in order. There was also a lot of stuff put on the table by Dr. Gage here that I think is worthy of some discussion. The good news is that the next three talks are also on animal models. So, can we maybe have specific comments to things that Dr. Gage brought up, and then we'll take a break.

DR. DINSMORE: Dr. Gage, you pointed out that there's no one marker for any one type of these cells.

There does not need to be one type of marker. I think anytime you put in a population of cells, you just have to know repeatedly from time to time that you're putting in the same population of cells. Therefore, your marker is for whatever characterizes a population, but I don't know of a single stem cell that doesn't have some marker that says you're putting in a population of liver-like cells or you're putting in a population of a certain type of neuronal cell that responds to EGF or responds to bFGF. There's always somewhat of characterizing those, and I think the key factor is that you can do it repeatedly and have a repeatable population which you can use. The only way you can develop a therapy is if you have something you can reproduce.

DR GAGE: Yes, I think the more completely you can characterize the cells the better, and I don't think you'd really argue that if you had a marker that could identify the cell that was the therapeutic cell, that you'd want to know what that marker is, and you'd be more satisfied with an identified cell than a population that contains perhaps the cell that you want. That's where we'd like to go. It's one thing to say where we'd like to go and where we are. I agree where we are is we work with what we have.

DR. BECK: Tony Beck, Tissue Engineering

Sciences.

One of the overriding themes all morning has been the fact that we have stem cells which are hard to define, but clearly you want to have a starting population that is consistent. The other theme seems to be that the final residency of the cells often dictates their final disposition.

Now, there's a technology that hasn't really been addressed, and I address it to Dr. Gage and the panel in general. The field of genomics has created a tremendous potential for defining the state of the stem cells you're starting with, and your slide on the karyotypic variation on those clonally expanded cells shows that certainly genomics or genetics plays a part.

Is it possible that some application of the EST, the expressed sequence tags, which really define the genes that are being expressed in those cells at that moment -- is that something that potentially could be applied to this quality control for stem cells?

DR GAGE: Yes, I think absolutely. I think it's a very, very good point. Ihor Lemischka has begun, as many other people have, to define the genetic profiles or the genetic fingerprint of cells that are defined either through FACS sorting -- I think that that's the starting point. You have to have some reference point from which to

make other comparisons. So, I don't think that we all have to pick one cell. I think that everybody should begin to genetically profile each of their cell types, bank that information from which we can begin to make comparisons. So, I think that I couldn't agree with you more. I think that's a terrific idea and certainly one that I hope the NIH picks up and does in some sort of formal way.

DR. DINSMORE: One has to be very careful about that. This whole talk about stem cells -- we do get down to semantics of what a stem cell is, and we have to get down to talking about a symmetric division versus an asymmetric division. In any population of stem cells, you have some cells that are potentially undergoing symmetric divisions and others that are undergoing asymmetric divisions. It's hard to characterize a population like that as being uniform, and in many ways a true stem cell population is not going to be uniform because there may be some that are dividing symmetrically and others that are dividing asymmetrically.

DR GAGE: Sure, I agree entirely. But I think that the technology is prepared to match that challenge at present, and by using strategies like laser capture where you can identify individual cells, you will begin to bank this information. I don't think it really matters what cell you begin with, but we definitely need to begin to

identify them.

I think what you're saying is an important point, and that is, are you going to do this in a population of cells, are you going to do it in somehow characterized cells maybe that are FACS sorted to be in a certain stage of the cell cycle or based on some marker on their surface? In any case, the more discretely you can define the starting population, I think the more informative that technology will be.

DR. SALOMON: I just wanted to make a point before we keep going. If you're coming from the audience, can you make sure that you identify yourself when you step to the mike, because it's very hard for our transcriptionist to do that.

DR. RAO: Rusty, through your talk, you emphasized the fact that human cells may be different from mouse and from rat, and you also talked about isomorphic and autologous sort of transplants. Do you think that there's some point that can be made about which would be a better model based on the fact -- what should we be using? Would rat into rat be a better model in your mind than human into rat in that sense, given the differences?

DR GAGE: I think you've hit on a very important point, and I think probably some of the biological questions that are being asked are going to be

better asked in mouse/mouse, mouse/rat, but as it moves forward to a clinical application where we're really asking whether or not the cell that you think you've characterized is going to be of clinical use, I can't see how you can avoid using the exact material that you think is going to be going into the human. And it better be prepared exactly the same way that it was and expanded in the same number of expansions and characterized in exactly the same way.

That doesn't mean that there isn't a significant amount of information to be gained by using mouse for understanding the biology. As you can see, we know there's lots to learn there.

DR. TROJANOWSKI: Rusty, the adult stem cell work is enormously exciting, and I think it's clear that our concepts were wrong about neurogenesis. But is there any evidence -- I don't think there's any published, but do you know of any evidence of functional benefit from adult progenitor cell differentiation into neurons or glia or what have you? And if not, could one perhaps think of ways to ramp up that neurogenesis so that one wouldn't have to transplant but could exploit the patient's own stem cells as replacement therapy? Is that inconceivable? I guess nothing is inconceivable, but is that a plausible strategy?

DR GAGE: Well, I think several of the other speakers have already talked about it. Jeff Macklis has a

nice paper that just came out in Nature a week or ago or something like that evidencing the fact that there's some level of recruitment under selective damage situations where the populations of endogenous cells can target in some reasonable way.

I think there is a big theoretical question out there. The brain has this capacity for generating new neurons. Does this have some sort of functional consequence to it that's beneficial or negative? All the evidence so far is correlative. There's no causal link, but there's certainly disease models where aberrant type growth has been seen from these endogenous cells just like in, one could say, more therapeutic minded approaches, one gets an elevation or a function of function which is correlated with the increase in neurogenesis.

But having said that, I think that this is an area that's important, probably a little bit outside of the goals of this meeting. On the other hand, we had to sort of consider that, that these are cells that are going to be activated or influenced by whatever procedure that we are imposing on them from the outside. They are a responsive population.

DR. TROJANOWSKI: I was struck by the injection that was not saline but the other thing that really seemed to ramp up proliferation and could one exploit that in a

positive way rather than having it be a confound --1 2 DR GAGE: That would be the objective. But we think of this whole process as a continuum. There's 3 4 proliferation. There's migration. There's differentiation. There's function. What that sort of 5 6 demonstrates is that there are stimuli that can potentiate 7 stimulation, but having the entire sequence for functional differentiation I think is not here. 8 DR. SALOMON: Well, then with that, we'll take 9 a 10-minute break. 10 (Recess.) 11 The next speaker this afternoon 12 DR. SALOMON: 13 is Dr. John Trojanowski from the University of Pennsylvania, from the university and from the Center for 14 Neurodegenerative Disease Research and not from the Genetic 15 Therapy Institute. He's going to talk about animal models 16 17 for evaluating cell therapy of neurodegenerative diseases. DR. TROJANOWSKI: I realize that some of my 18 slides are small, but I'll be able to read off some of the 19 20 things that don't project to the back of the room. 21 The first slide has something up here that says 2.2 "fatal protein attractions underlying neurodegenerative diseases," and it was my attempt in a cinematic way or an 23 allusion to a film to capture what's wrong in many 24

neurodegenerative diseases. I'm going to focus on

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Alzheimer's disease. The list of diseases here in abbreviations are some of the very common ones. We know of Alzheimer's, Down's syndrome, Parkinson's disease; less common ones, the dementia with Lewy bodies, multiple system atrophy, Pick's disease, ALS.

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All of these diseases have very different clinical phenotypes, very different pathological phenotypes, but they share one intriguing commonality that struck us and has stimulated our efforts to understand how the lesions form. And that is, they're characterized by intracellular or extracellular protein aggregates. These proteins don't start off in life doing bad things or they're not designed to be toxic, but because of a mutation, let us say, in PS1 or PS2 or APP, they give rise to toxic proteins, the A-beta peptide, tau aggregates, synuclein aggregates. But they have a very intriguing symmetry and that is the wild type protein in the sporadic disease also shows the same predisposition, perhaps influenced by genetic risk factors, environmental factors, to also convert from a soluble protein that performs a normal beneficial function to a toxic, insoluble, and often filamentous derivative that then accumulates as lesions in one of the places that I just mentioned.

So, that offers the hope that if we can find anti-fibrillogenic drugs, that we can take drugs that

convert bad conformations into normal conformations or that are filamentous aggregate-busting or plaque-busting or tangle-busting, we may be able to translate an advance in a boutique disease like MSA or dementia with Lewy bodies to a very common disease like Alzheimer's disease. In other words, you may be able to exploit that drug to bust not only Lewy bodies but plaques, tangles, and other bad accumulations of proteins.

So, I'll just start with Alzheimer's disease as the prototype of these diseases and the prototype, of course, of all late onset, adult onset neurodegenerative diseases. These statistics are quite ominous and worrisome. 4 million Alzheimer's patients today. By 2050, there may be 14 million. So, this is something that will not only cause a lot of anguish and pain among families, but it threatens to break the bank as well because of the high cost of caring for patients for a very long time with Alzheimer's disease.

So, the defining lesions of Alzheimer's disease

-- there's are lots of way to become demented and there are
many different neurodegenerative diseases that cause
dementia. Alzheimer's is about 60 percent of dementias
over age 65, and the defining lesions are the
neurofibrillary tangle and the amyloid plaque. The tangle
is inside neurons, the plaque is outside neurons. The one

inside is formed by twisted filaments largely. They are the tau filaments. The ones outside are the amyloid fibrils formed from short peptides called the beta amyloid peptide.

It's not known how they're related in sporadic disease mutations. Of course, NF AD kindreds will produce plaques and tangles, but in most diseases, sporadic so far as we know -- and this is just a schematic from the work of Steve Arnold, who is at Penn, showing the distribution of plaques and tangles. They pretty much collocalize but they're not always in the same place, and there's been no meaningful way to connect plaques as causative of tangles or vice versa as yet, except in the genetic diseases.

There are areas of the brain that are spared, however, motor cortex, sensory cortex, occipital cortex, offering the hope that if at least a few neurons are smart enough to escape this pathology, if we figured out how they got to be that smart, in molecular terms or genetic terms, we would be able to perhaps develop a therapy to help spare neurons, that otherwise would be affected, the fate of dying because of plaque and tangle accumulations.

So, these pathways are two parallel pathways so far. This is the hypothetical scheme of how tangles are bad for you and how plaques are bad for you. I'm going to focus on the tangle pathology just as it seems more

intractable at this moment. I mentioned the report yesterday in the Washington Post extending the findings of Dale Schenk a year ago showing that you can somehow take a formed plaque and clear it by an A-beta peptide vaccine. That was in July of last year.

In December at Penn, we began a clinical trial.

I'm the Director of the Alzheimer's Center at Penn. I

didn't personally. I'm not taking A-beta myself --

DR. TROJANOWSKI: -- although it looks really exciting and might want to consider it just to be sure.

But it is in clinical trial and it looks as though there are no deleterious consequences at all.

(Laughter.)

So, I think we'll rapidly have in patients confirmation, or the opposite thereof, of the amyloid hypothesis. For the patient advocates in the group, we'll also know right away whether we have a therapy that may in fact be beneficial.

I have said that if you clear all the plaques, you're going to be left with another disease that is referred to as a "tauopathy", Pick's disease, CBD, because I don't know that this therapy directed at amyloid will necessarily clear tangles. Those are inside cells. They're formed from the protein called tau, which is a microtubule associated protein. I'll say a little bit more

about what its functions are, but one of the important things it does is bind to microtubules and stabilizes them in the polymerized state. These are the guide wires, the train tracks upon which traffic moves from cell body to processes and back again. If those ties fall off or there are too few of them, it's plausible -- and in fact we've shown it does happen -- the microtubules depolymerize, transport fails, and that severely compromises neuronal survival. That's a loss of function when you pull off tau and sequester it in tangles.

The tangles also, which are shown here in red, and dystrophic neurites also in red in these little processes could have a -- the formation of the tangles could represent a toxic gain in function. You'd have plugs of stuff occluding conduits that should be open for traffic flowing both directions. By whatever mechanism, the ultimate consequence of these toxic gains of functions and losses of normal functions would be the death of a neuron and release of tau into the CSF, which is now one of the markers that can be used to follow responses to therapy potentially.

So, just without getting too technical, tau is a microtubule associated protein, one of many that binds to microtubules, and has some function related to the stability of microtubules, in this case keeping

microtubules polymerized, and again microtubules are essential for axonal transport.

It's a phosphoprotein and phosphorylation negatively regulates tau binding. The more phosphorylated tau is the less it binds. That's one of the things that goes wrong in Alzheimer's disease.

All of us have as adults 6 tau isoforms that come from a single gene that's alternatively spliced. This is the biochemical profile. They have these either 3 or 4 microtubule binding repeats in the amino terminus of unknown function, and it's by this alternative splicing that one gets then what we call 4R2N all the way down to 3R0N. As you will see, there may be some reason to believe that the ratio of 4R to 3R tau is somehow important.

So, what is a tangle then? A tangle was one of the two signature lesions that Alois Alzheimer discovered and associated with the disease that bears his name.

These are tangles that you see here. He used a Gallyas or Bill Shofsky or some of the silver stain. These are anti-tau antibodies. This is an anti-tau antibody labeling of tangles.

I would say that what impresses me much more about the tau pathology in the Alzheimer brain is not what's in the cell bodies but out in the processes. I just want to emphasize to everyone that you could conceivably

preserve neuron viability. You could keep all these neurons alive, but if their processes are caked with tau inside of them, they're not going to be talking to each other and there will not be any functional discourse that takes place between neurons that need to do so in order for cognition and other things to take place.

So, neuron rescue is a laudable goal, but it may not do the trick in all of the diseases that I'm thinking of and that were listed on that first table.

Accumulations of filamentous aggregates and processes can be the equivalent of a dead neuron even though you can still identify it in the section.

So, these are the paired helical filaments. They're abnormal aggregates of tau proteins and they accumulate in the cell bodies and processes of neurons and sometimes glial cells. After many years of controversy, it was determined that these proteins are, indeed, formed by tau proteins, derivatized though they are by being abnormally excessively phosphorylated, and that comes with a very serious functional loss.

These proteins used to be called A68, so just forgive the old slide. It should be tau or PHF-tau.

This is dephosphorylated PHF-tau, adult tau, dephosphorylated adult tau. You don't have to know much about microtubule biology or biochemistry to realize that

the only guy that winds up on the left side in the supernatant unbound to microtubules is the hyperphosphorylated A68. And that's bad. That's not where it should be. It should pellet with the microtubules where it binds to and stabilizes the microtubule. So, this is the loss of function.

The good news is it's not an irreversible loss of function because if you can figure out a way to dephosphorylate tau, pull a few phosphates off, we don't know if you could convert it into a water soluble protein, but it will then bind to microtubules again. So, that's one potential target of therapy.

So, PHF-tau is insoluble, cell bodies, aberrantly hyperphosphorylated, and unable to bind to microtubules.

Now, I have to mention that there are other diseases -- the tauopathies that I referred to that I worry about will emerge when you remove plaques -- are Pick's disease, corticobasal degeneration, the other frontotemporal dementias, including hereditary ones, frontotemporal dementia with Parkinson's disease linked to chromosome 17.

So, in 1998 Jerry Shellaberg called me up and said, I've got a mutation. No longer will you suffer from mutation envy. And knowing that our proteins were bad

already, I was quite peeved. I said, Jerry, I didn't need your mutations to tell me that. I knew it already. But I was pleased because the rest of the world began to take these proteins seriously as players in cell degeneration.

What was already emerging when the mutations appeared was the fact that it was clear that Alzheimer tau, where most of the studies that have been done, has this abnormal banding pattern that you see here. This is a cartoon, of course. When you dephosphorylate, you can see all of the 6 isoforms that are seen in the normal brain.

Other diseases had a more peculiar banding pattern, either the two lower bands here or the three upper bands, which, when dephosphorylated, revealed that you had a preponderance of either the 3 microtubule binding repeat tau or the 4 microtubule binding repeat, suggesting perhaps that an imbalance in the ratio of these isoforms could in fact be deleterious. That is what rapidly emerged in studies of the frontotemporal dementia with Parkinsonism linked to chromosome 17 patients.

A flurry of papers in '98 demonstrated that there were intronic and exonic mutations in tau and that these caused disease. This is sort of the cartoonist tau protein. This is the segment of exon 10 and the intron following exon 10 where many of these mutations are. We and others have shown that the mutations impair tau

functions. They reduce the ability of tau to bind to microtubules, reduce the ability of tau to promote microtubules polymerization, or they alter splicing that either introduces more exon 10 or less exon 10 into the tau transcripts that encode 3R/4R tau.

All of us in this room hopefully have a 3R/4R tau ratio of 1. When it begins to deviate from that, for reasons that we don't understand completely, you get accumulations of the species in excess, and that can lead to disease, as is clearly evident in this group now.

There's about 20 mutations, about 30 families, and we don't know so far of any escapees. Disease can begin in the 20s and the 30s and it runs a very malignant course, and patients are dead in 10-15 years.

So, because of this data showing that abnormalities in tau ratios could be an underlying mechanism of disease in "tauopathy" -- this is before the mutations -- we began to generate a tau transgenic mouse that doesn't have exon 2 or 3 and doesn't have exon 10.

So, this would be the 3RON, the smallest tau isoform. I just have to tell you that, although what I've just said applies to people, rats and mice only have the 4R, the 4 microtubule binding repeat harboring tau transcripts. They don't have the 3R tau isoform.

So, we figured we would perturb their

microtubule metabolism, if you will, and their tau metabolism by introducing the smallest tau isoform. Here are the three lines, the copy abundance of the transgene shown here, driven by a prion promoter shown to be effective in previous transgenic mouse generation efforts. So, we had these three lines that have increasing amounts of transgene and increasing amounts of protein. We exploit an antibody called T14, which is human-specific here, the human recombinant tau proteins on the left. The wild type doesn't have this because it's a wild type and the antibody, of course, doesn't dissect it.

The smear is due to the variable extent of phosphorylation. It's not a crisp band like this. But you'll see later on you can dephosphorylate it and get the same.

Line 7 was the one we used. Line 27 died at 3 months. And line 7 was the one that we selected for our studies, and I'm going to focus mostly on line 7. You can see here, again with this T14 antibody, the polyclonal detects everything, but I'll just focus your attention on what is cortex, hippocampus, brainstem, cerebellum, and spinal cord. Spinal cord has about 60 percent of that amount of tau found in the other regions.

So, we've got robust expression, and anyone who is involved in transgenic mouse production efforts knows

that the 3 L's of mouse is levels, levels, levels, or higher, higher. The rapidity of disease onset and the robustness of the phenotype depends very much on the abundance of the transgene protein expression.

6-month wild type mouse. T14, nothing. 6-month transgenic mouse. You begin to see a few cortical tangles, in brainstem a few tangles, and here are higher power views of the 6-month tangles in, I guess, brainstem and cortex. Well, I shouldn't say they're tangles until I show you the filaments, but they stain for Bodian methods. So, here in spinal cord and in cortex are things that to somebody who does diagnostic neuropathology as well as basic neurobiology like myself is persuasive of being a tangle.

We now have older mice that I'm not going to discuss or present who have more cortical tangles that are Gallyas positive, Congo red, thioflavin. For those interested, I can tell why -- basically it says it looks more and more like the tangles of human beings.

Since the filamentous inclusions will be more abundant in spinal cord and the mice begin to develop those at 3 months and then developed a motor neuron disease phenotype by 6 months that progressed, we focused a lot of our attention on spinal cord.

This is a normal nerve, and you can see there's

a filamentous aggregate in this normal nerve of a wild type mouse, transgenic mouse, higher power view of these filaments. And these are labeled with antibodies to tau, as well as neurofilament and tubulin. Some tangles in Alzheimer's disease brains, progressive supernuclear palsy, Guam amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, Parkinson's dementia complex, or Guam ALS PDC, diseases that are like their western counterparts, except taus, that I would have called pathology, also have some neurofilament proteins.

I don't want to confuse you. Tau is the building block of the filaments in our mouse and in humans, but other filaments may co-precipitate. In the older mice that we have now, 18 to 24 months of age, we're not seeing that, that is, the co-aggregation of other elements.

So, I'll just say that there are other signatures of tau pathology that may also be relevant for targets of therapy and so forth that you want to pay attention of and make sure in your transgenic mice. And here they are.

There is a progressive accumulation of insoluble tau with time, and you see that not only in the brain but you see in the spinal cord. In fact, it's more abundant in the spinal cord. So, this is RAB buffer. Water soluble proteins would be present. This is a buffer that is a next level of solubilization ability, and formic

acid is really harsh and will solubilize just about everything.

So, you can see that in the spinal cord, we had the most abundant material that required formic acid extraction. And then if one thinks that phosphorylation is somehow involved in Alzheimer's disease, as we do, you would want to see that there is an accumulation of phosphates on these molecules, which is indeed the case, and that that is in the insoluble pool as well.

So, here's the ADPHF tau. The mouse tau doesn't migrate at the same level because, remember, there's only one, the lowest, the smallest, the 3RON tau isoform. But the principle is that it's winding up in the insoluble fraction, and it is detected by antibodies, for example, PHF1, that don't see normal tau, see PHF tau, and then this increasingly phosphorylated mouse tau.

This paper appeared in Neuron last year and we thought we had persuaded them for what we thought where the bar was set at that time on a phenotype due to the accumulation of tau proteins. And they insisted that we do something of a functional nature, which we did, and that is axonal transport studies. I want to draw your attention.

These are the fluorograms. Basically you inject P35 into the spinal cord motor neuron pool, and this radioactive amino acid is incorporated into all proteins

that move out by axonal transport. This is the normal wild type mouse here and this is the transgenic mouse. The delay in transport is represented by -- these are increasing millimeter distances from the spinal cord, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10 millimeters from spinal cord.

You can see the wild type mice move at a normal rate and those in the transgenic move at a slow rate.

They're still walking around and doing things. So, these are the remaining residual neurons, and there are axons that are not yet dead but are not functioning at the level they should.

We also showed -- I don't have slide for that
-- that the microtubules were depolymerized and lost while
neurofilaments and actin filaments were not.

So, let me just say that there are many genetic factors, tau mutations, APP, PS1, PS2 mutations that can produce what we call a "tauopathy." Alzheimer's disease can be called a "tauopathy." Of course, there are other lesions, but there are diseases, FTDP-17, in which the only lesion is a tangle and that is associated with whatever clinical phenotype, dementia, Parkinsonism, and neuron loss.

I haven't shown you the data, of course, but I have referred to the fact that these genetic lesions can perturb the ratio of normal tau, 3R to 4R tau, or cause a

loss of function and/or a gain of toxic function.

Hyperphosphorylation is something that may be down stream of all this but would certainly contribute to the failure to bind to microtubules.

A big unknown is environmental factors, and we have a lot to learn about that. But wouldn't it be nice if we could prevent Alzheimer's disease by determining something in the environment that was bad? And we're trying to work on that.

Tau dysfunction then, in one way or another, leads to tau aggregation and neurodegeneration. I think despite the controversies between tauists and Baptists -- and I belong to both camps. I work on both tau and A-beta, but I think there's very little reason for even the most maniacal Baptist to say that tau doesn't play a role anymore in neurodegeneration. So, we hopefully built bridges and resolved our religious wars and can get on with the real business of curing these diseases.

So, Nancy Bonini allowed me to use this slide from some of her work on Drosophila models. We like to think of mice and monkeys as being the way to go, but there's a great deal of appeal to mouse models. Nancy talks about late onset disease at day 9 or 10, and I hear some transgenic people laugh. I lust for a number like that because we have to wait for a year, 18 months. It's

not only expensive, but very nerve-racking to know whether your investment of \$50,000 or \$100,000 in a mouse line is going to be thrown into the trash because it didn't develop a phenotype or if it's going to work.

So, Nancy I think revolutionized our thinking about models of disease when she reported -- Woek, et al. reported in Cell that she could create a mouse model of Sca-3, the Machado-Joseph disease, one of the trinucleotide repeat diseases, and do this in a most unconventional way by getting protein expression, the transgenic protein to be expressed in the eye, and could follow a disease phenotype in a very straightforward, easy way just by looking at the mice. They do the sectioning and all that sort of stuff, but that is the real bottleneck, the rate-limiting stuff.

DR. SALOMON: Do you mean mice?

DR. TROJANOWSKI: These are flies. Did I say mice? Flies, Drosophila. I'm sorry. So, these are fly eyes.

So, this is the normal eye, and then at 10 or 15 days, the flies — this is the normal ataxin—3 protein with the normal length of polyglutamines. These flies have an eye that's identical to the normal eye. But flies that express the disease, ataxin—3 protein, develop a phenotype that's very, very evident even to someone unschooled in fly biology, like myself.

She went on to show that there were aggregates and she showed that hsp, heat shock protein, 70 accumulated in them. And she began very creatively thinking that maybe hsp 70 is there for a purpose. It's not just sucked into a vortex of a crashing cell but has some productive role.

Again, Woek, et al. in Nature Medicine showed that if you co-expressed the heat shock protein 70 with the expanded polyglutamine protein in the same cells of the fly eye, you could eliminate the phenotype. So, here's hsp 70 alone in the fly eye. Here is the diseased eye with the disease protein, and when you co-express both of them, you suppress the phenotype. So, the abnormal confirmations that are assumed by this expanded polyglutamine stretch are not formed or are smoothed out or reversed when you have sufficient heat shock protein on board.

There's a lot more that we need to know about what goes wrong inside tangle-bearing neurons as well as how plaques kill neurons. I will suggest that one way to go -- it was mentioned that one could use gene expression profiling methods. This is work that Steve Ginsburg did recently in our laboratory before going to Baylor.

These are normal neurons in the normal brain of an elderly individual, and these are neurons, some of which contain tangles in the brain of an Alzheimer's patient.

Steve harvested single cells, labeled with an antibody so

he knew what it was he was taking out of the brain. And he wanted pure populations of neurons because, remember, the thing that one always has to appreciate about many of these neurodegenerative diseases is selective vulnerability. Not every neuron is affected, and certainly many other types of cells in the brain, glial cells are not affected.

So, if you just homogenize these two areas and look for differences in gene expression, you probably see lots of differences, but you wouldn't know whether you should attribute them to dying neurons or something else going on in glial cells. Remember, if you do a Western Blot, the most elevated protein you'll see in a very severely diseased Alzheimer's brain is glial fibrillary acidic protein because there's a lot of gliosis and astrocytes that proliferate it. So, you've got to do this in a focused, intelligent way, and it's very appealing to be able to have single cells.

So, then Steve was able to pool these cells, the tangle-bearing neurons and the non-tangle-bearing neurons. This was done in collaboration with Jim Eberwine and Virginia Lee, Scott Hemby at Penn, and it just came out in Annals of Neurology, if you're interested in the details.

But basically Jim Eberwine's aRNA amplification method allows one to amplify a million-fold. Here are some

controls that were done to show linearity of amplification. We took two approaches. One is the "gee whiz, what can we see that's different approach" and then what we called the "candidate gene approach" where we knew there were proteins already implicated in Alzheimer's disease and where there was even some data to indicate that their message levels changed. We interrogated what we call custom arrays with the amplified transcripts that are labeled in the second round of amplification.

Here are the GDA arrays, and I forgot whether red is normal and green is tangle. Yellow indicates where both levels are equivalent, but if you have more of one transcript, it will be red. If it's down, it will be green. Then you can plot and do statistics and group proteins together by their function, phosphotases, kinases, actin binding proteins, cell cycle proteins, cytoskeletal proteins, and look for those that deviate up or down. This may be away to identify other candidate proteins for targeting for cell therapy or some other form of therapy.

Obviously, this is the beginning of an approach to dissecting out the molecular mechanisms of neurodegenerative disease, but potentially a very powerful one. I'll just say that the one that we followed out in the most detail was cathepsin D, which Randy Nixon and collaborators had shown was up-regulated to lysosomal

protein, and we showed that, indeed, it was one of the most highly elevated transcripts in our array study relative to controls, and when we did in situ hybridization immunohistochemistry, we showed, as Randy had -- it was very pleasing to not have to struggle with data that went the other way. I saw Randy recently and said, thanks for making our job easier because we were able to show what he had already shown so nicely earlier, that lysosomal proteases, in particular cathepsin D, are up-regulated.

This is the second-to-the-last slide. I'll come back and emphasize once again that the approaches one can use to correct a disease that may be a boutique condition, such as MSA or Hallervorden-Spatz or neurodegeneration with brain iron type 1, could possibly be exploited in other situations. What could cell therapy do in these kinds of situations?

Well, one thing would be to make a heat shock-like protein that could be secreted and taken up. So, if you were able, as Evan is able to do, to inject cells into the brain and get them to go everywhere you want them to be or everywhere you can get them to be, they obviously — if you had more heat shock protein around, I don't think it would make good protein fold bad, but it could make the bad-folding proteins fold right. That would be one strategy.

Another alternative, and far less clear-cut to me at this point, would be to have the neurons go to the damaged area and perhaps rewire, if they were interneurons. That's really a great leap of faith and beyond my imagination to work out in my own mind in detail. But maybe they will function as these human neurons do in stroke trials right now where they seem to reinvigorate cells in the penumbra of a stroke cavity so that they function better. I'm really just speculating about possibilities, for which there is at this time very little data.

So, I think that one could get a base hit in one of these diseases that could be a base hit over and over and over again in other diseases and have potential to cure all of these diseases that are caused by fatal attractions of brain proteins.

I'll just close by saying that these studies were done with my wife and colleague, Virginia Lee. We've been working together on this tau and Alzheimer's disease problem for many years and have a wonderful group of collaborators in our Center for Neurodegenerative Disease Research that extends to many departments at Penn, psychiatrists, neurologists. It takes the whole university and many universities, I think, to marshal the talents to make advances in this area, and there are many colleagues

who are at other universities, upon whose expertise we've drawn. Of course, we couldn't do any of this without support from the National Institute of Aging and NINDS and the Alzheimer's Association.

Thank you very much.

(Applause.)

DR. SALOMON: So, I think one of the things that we need to do in these next couple talks is to take advantage of the fact now that these specific models here -- this is Alzheimer's. This is a model for Alzheimer's as well as -- I think you made very eloquently -- a number of different degenerative diseases.

So, in the comments that I'd like to get from the expert panel, can we talk about then how this kind of a model now could be integrated into preclinical studies for a clinical trial in Alzheimer's, the pros, the cons, what kind of things you would want to see measured, et cetera? We'll pick up on this more specifically again tomorrow, but just in the short time we're going to allot to conversation right now, I'd like to start in that direction.

DR. TROJANOWSKI: I would just add that at the meeting there were crosses of the APP, the presentle, and what have you. It sounds like a word salad I know, but you can get all of these mice that make the different pathologies to cross breed and get plaques and tangles.

So, that's going to be there very shortly if it's not here 1 2 already. DR. NOBLE: It seems a fundamental distinction 3 that needs to be made is that these kinds of diseases with 4 5 the tremendous diffuse damage throughout the nervous system are very different than the focal problems of spinal cord 6 So, a different order of problem, different 7 biology entirely. 8 DR. TROJANOWSKI: I was told to make it as 9 tough on you guys as I could. 10 DR. NOBLE: You did a good job. 11 (Laughter.) 12 DR. NOBLE: So, one question that comes to my 13 14 mind is the extent to which one can delineate between being a cell therapy problem in the contemporary world and a gene 15 16 therapy problem and whether one is simply using cells as an enzymatic delivery system. So, for example, in the work 17 that Evan and his colleagues have done in relation to 18

DR. TROJANOWSKI: I think we needn't think in a compartmentalized way, of course. You might want to try several different options, and one could even conceive in the same patient of more than one option. One would want to start off, of course, in a very focused and meticulous

storage disorders. So, I'm wondering what your thoughts

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way looking at one at a time, but maybe you could replace cells in hippocampus. If, as Brad Hyman argues, that is the switch that does or does not enable memories to go -- remember, in Alzheimer's patients the short-term memory is okay. It's the long-term memory. They can't sock new memories away. So, maybe you could repopulate the hippocampus and maybe local connections. That's a very small circuit. The hippocampus is as big as my thumb. Is it going to be that hard to restore circuits? It seems like an immense task to me even though the hippocampus is small. But that would be one way to go, and then you could also do something more diffuse.

DR. NOBLE: Let's follow that along. I'm trying to figure out how to get to a clinical trial. What is the preclinical experiment that you would want to conduct? If you showed that putting neuron-restricted precursor cells or neural stem cells into the hippocampus of these animals now led to a restoration of cell number or a decrease in apoptosis or some parameter like this, is that the point at which you would argue one should go forward?

DR. TROJANOWSKI: If you're a purist, you would say, well, it's not quite the model of Alzheimer's disease I want because there aren't enough tangles up north, in the brain. They're most abundant in spinal cord. But from a

proof of concept point of view, it's much easier to follow motor dysfunction than cognitive dysfunction. I don't know if you corrected a cognitive dysfunction in mouse, whether you're immediately assume that that's going to make a difference in people.

But from a proof of concept point of view, you could inject cells into the anterior horn and see if they would keep those that are alive functioning better. If you could transfer from those cells a compound like a heat shock protein to eliminate, bust up, a tangle-busting drug, that might be efficacious. I don't know if you would get elongation of processes to the muscle from the transplant. No one has done that kind of thing, the equivalent of cutting a nerve -- actually the nerves aren't cut, so you'd have a better chance probably, but I don't know if the rewiring would be meaningful. So, those would be the kinds of the things that I would think of as trial-like concepts.

DR GAGE: You mentioned clinical applications in stroke too. I think that you've been involved initially in these studies with the N-Tera-2 cells. I wonder if you could update us on that and the rationale behind utilization of these because this is really the first real application of human whatever cells in a --

DR. TROJANOWSKI: I'm a founding scientist of Layton BioScience, but I'm a full-time Penn faculty. I'm

not involved daily in discussions of how the trial goes on. I'm certainly glad in retrospect, considering Jim Wilson's problems, that I was not closer to the clinical trial than Pittsburgh, which is where it takes place.

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But the underlying rationale was not that we were rewiring the brain, because it was clear from the animal studies that we weren't. It seemed as though the cells that went into the perimeter or the vicinity of the ischemic damage survived and survived very well and somehow made those remaining neurons function better because we clearly were not reinvigorating. We didn't do bromodeoxyuridine to see if more proliferated. I guess that would be an option now that we didn't think of 4 years ago.

So, I think what the N-Tera-2 cells may be doing, the neurons may be doing, in people is having some sort of trophic effect on their neighbors. That is completely unvalidated and unverified. It's a subject of intense research at Layton, but not in my lab. I don't do those studies in my lab. That is, so far, I think all that we can say about what we know might be going on. But it's not a rewiring.

DR. DRACHMAN: John, if tau is your target -- and certainly that was what Alzheimer described originally, not really plaques -- we've got to believe that tau is a

very specific problem. Yet, we know that one of the most nonspecific etiologies that you may think of produces huge amounts of tangles, namely dementia pugilistica. A good knock on the head certainly is a far cry from a very specific biochemical abnormality.

What are you thoughts about that and whether this is secondary, primary, or what?

DR. TROJANOWSKI: I think that this argument is rendered moot by the mutations. I don't know that there's any way that one could argue -- at least in FTDP-17 that the cause -- we have prima facie evidence that the cause is a mutation in the tau gene. It tracks with the tau gene. If you have the mutation, you get the disease. I don't know unless there's another mutation someplace else that no one has seen -- and that happens perversely to track with disease.

So, tau abnormalities absolutely cause disease, and it causes disease that -- the Jerry Shellaberg B337M family was first thought to be schizophrenic, then Alzheimer's disease, and then a "tauopathy." So, these are diseases that can look very much like Alzheimer's disease. I think the only difference is where the pathology falls, and we don't have a good understanding of that.

Dementia pugilistica is very interesting. We are working ourselves very intently on head trauma in

transgenic mice to see if we can dissect out what's going on. Is it inflammatory? It is up-regulation of a kinase, down-regulation of a phosphatase? What is going on here? Because most Alzheimer's disease is sporadic. Many people sustain head trauma. I fell off a horse when I was 16. So, I've had the head trauma history, as probably many people in this room have, of some sort of a fall, hit on the head, or what have you. If we could figure out what that's all about, perhaps we would put people on anti-inflammatories after they've had their head trauma or recommend that everyone wear bicycle helmets. And we do that already, but may soccer helmets and football helmets and all the other things, particularly if they have the E-4/E-4 genotype.

Tangles are not nonspecific. You can do a lot of things experimentally and fail, as many of us have for many years, to produce tangles in an animal. It's a long list but it's a limited list of diseases that are caused by or have prominent tangle pathology. So, it's not like gliosis in response to injury. I just want to emphasize that. It's real specific and linked to bad stuff.

DR. MACKLIS: I have two questions that will tie into this morning's discussion about the characteristics and appropriateness of animal models and then the characteristics and appropriateness of source

cells.

The first one would be, in the tau transgenic that you mentioned, or the mutant, there's anterior horn cell loss, as I understand. To use Rusty's slide, homology versus isotypic, is that a model for us for AD or for part of ALS, for example?

Then the second part would be we've heard a lot this morning and discussed whether neural stem cells or precursors or progenitors effect their potential recovery by trophin or growth factor secretion rather than by connectivity. If that's the case, are we actually looking at them in all of these slide talks by the wrong axes? Do we really care if they turn into oligos, astrocytes, or neurons, or do we really want them to stay round cells that pump a lot of factor X, Y, and Z and maybe migrate to wherever they go? I think we may want to ask those questions in our models ahead of time so that we can answer them in our preclinical studies.

DR. TROJANOWSKI: I'd say yes to the second question. My early training in neuroscience was in neuroanatomy, and maybe I'm just hung up with the minutia of wiring diagrams, but I think it's hard to imagine restoring all the complex circuits that all of us walk around with before disease strikes. But maybe that's just limited imagination. Maybe we'll be able to do it.

Your second part of putting out whatever molecules that will help cells function better is I think a laudable goal and a direction that we should think of.

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For those of us who struggled with animals for so long in Alzheimer's disease -- and it may seem like a blink of an eye to people who are still struggling to make animal models in other diseases, and there are people who are struggling -- we just wanted a proof of concept that this pathology is bad. So, we have shown that tangles kill. Amyloid transgenic mice don't kill neurons. So, I believe that amyloid is bad, and I work on that too. it was most pleasing to have an animal accumulate tau, show a functional deficit, failure to bind microtubules, microtubule dissolution, many functional deficits actually, axonal transport, perturbation, disruption, attenuation, what have you, and that these mice got sick. They were weak. They had disease. I would love to move all those tangles up north. They're getting older now and they are getting more tangles in their cortex and hippocampus.

And I know others who are making other transgenic mice with other promoters and other constructs. It's going to happen. A year from now, we'll be talking about tangles in hippocampus that look just like Alzheimer's, believe me.

DR. MACKLIS: Just a quick follow-up on that,

though. There may be a dissociation where that same mouse may be an incredibly good and motivating model for biochemical and molecular therapies for "tauopathy." It may or may not be as good a model for repopulation or cellular repair. Do you agree with that?

DR. TROJANOWSKI: No. I think you start where you can start. These things don't have to be done in series. They can be done in parallel. I appreciate the personal insight or contribution of one of the patient advocates in the audience. I think all of us know people, have relatives, what have you, who died of an untreatable disease. I think we should do things in parallel. I think we have the resources. I think we have the intelligence. We have the people and it should be full steam ahead.

DR. KOLIATSOS: Can I make a comment here? I'm sorry.

DR. McDONALD: I just wanted to say that perhaps some of the neurodegenerative diseases like Alzheimer's that occur over decades are really a problem of turnover, more or less. That is, you're accelerating the rate of death, and with the new concept of the nervous. constantly turning over -- that is, neurons and glia are continually being replaced -- that we might do better just augmenting cell birth and survival.

DR. TROJANOWSKI: Hence my question to Rusty.

If we could up the rate of normal adult neurogenesis, might we be able to repopulate some of the hippocampal neurons that are maybe still alive but not functioning because their axons aren't talking to each other. I would agree. When I say full steam ahead, I just want to let you know that means clinical trials should be done with great oversight and contemplation, but I don't think we should fail to exploit the models at hand. That's what I'm saying.

DR. McDONALD: For example, do we know, in those animal models where the disease is present, is there reduced proliferation and survival of progenitors?

DR. TROJANOWSKI: I don't know that. We will have that answer in a year or less.

These are very important questions and I don't think we should hold back from addressing them. There's only so much I can do in my lab, but if Rusty stops in Philadelphia on the way home, I'll give him a bunch of mice to take back to San Diego. I'd love to know the answer to that question is what I'm saying, and I think it's important to the field.

DR. KOLIATSOS: I strongly feel that it is inappropriate to make any direct comparisons between neurodegenerative models and stem cell transplant approaches at this time, especially as far as molecular

specificity of lesions. I think it's not the job of this panel to go into the depths of neurodegenerative models, and it would probably be a very bad idea I would propose.

I think that this is just a very important input from John to let us know that there are powerful models out there which might be used when the time is appropriate for what we're talking about in this meeting not only in the sense of repopulating, but also in the sense of assessing some potential side effects of grafts. For example, mice which have the genetic propensity to make plaques or tangles could be very well used as biological models to see if the cells we want to put in Alzheimer's disease are going to increase plaques and tangles by some side effect mechanism. So, there is much more genetic value to the models that John described than looking at specific associations between circuitry and cells and so on and so forth.

DR. TROJANOWSKI: That's true. If A-beta is as toxic as it's reported to be, it may kill all new grafted cells on contact. In agreement with what you said about the grafted cells doing bad stuff, we thought of that and did do those kinds of studies on the N-Tera-2 cells five or six years ago. They do make APP. They're great little factories for studying amyloid precursor protein metabolism, but we showed that in over a year in nude mice,

they didn't produce plaque or tangles. So, that was something that we felt was important to look at.

DR. SALOMON: I would point out that one of the things that the FDA does want from us is some comment on what might be perceived as gold standard models for different neurologic diseases that, indeed, could be put forward as models in which preclinical studies should be focused. Or equally important would be to identify where there are no models or where there are incomplete models and that's where perhaps resource allocation from the NIH or others should be put. It's certainly not meant that anyone take apart John's model. I think I was only using it as an example of --

DR. TROJANOWSKI: Just on that point, one controversy that arose at the meeting -- there is inflammation in many neurodegenerative diseases, including Alzheimer's disease. Dale Schenk, who is from Elan and really conceived of the experiment of using A-beta as a vaccine, reported data saying that microglia were doing good things scooping up, gobbling up A-beta and eliminating it. That elicited irritated comments by the neuroimmunomodulation group who thought that all the inflammation was really bad and what you want to do is suppress that. Well, there's a lot of heat but no light here, and I think what you can do very quickly is

transplant microglia into these animals and see if they will sweep through and scavenge up. That could be a therapy.

DR. KORDOWER: John, if your clinical trial with the vaccine shows no clinical improvement and then when patients eventually come to post, you find that the vaccine did clear the beta amyloid, would that be enough data to suggest that we should go to non-beta amyloid models and abandon the beta amyloid models?

DR. TROJANOWSKI: I don't think you have to wait that long actually. I think if they declined and the A-beta levels in CSF or blood -- I don't know that I believe this completely, but Steve Younkin said plasma levels of A-beta can monitor -- you're shaking your head the way I do, but I believe that the CSF.

So, just so that everyone knows, the best markers for Alzheimer's disease compared to normal controls — it gets murky when you get into the other unusual, less common neurodegenerative diseases — is diminished A-beta levels and elevated tau levels. So, diminished A-beta is thought to be, because it's all retained in the brain for plaque formation, and tau goes up as neurons die and externalize or release their tau and it goes into the CSF. So, if you followed patients and showed that the A-beta CSF levels rise to the normal level and they're still getting

demented -- you would still want to do postmortem follow-up
of course -- but that would -
DR. KORDOWER: Would that scenario be enough to

abandon A-beta models?

DR. TROJANOWSKI: That's a provocative question. I think it's maybe not meant to be provocative. Many people tease Dale Schenk. But, no, I think animals and people still are different in many ways and you'd want to look very, very closely I think and extensively at the A-beta levels and so forth to make sure you weren't throwing something out.

DR. DRACHMAN: No way. You may remove a subdural hematoma from an elderly individual, remove the pathology and watch that person go downhill. Now, that says that you've done some primary damage. Neurons will not recover. Then you've fallen below a threshold and normal aging will then cause further dementia. So, even though I'm not a huge fan of giving beta amyloid -- I'm not sure that I believe that it will do a great deal of good -- the failure of that to reverse certain symptoms at a certain point may not be the proof that that's wrong.

DR. TROJANOWSKI: There's a large Columbian kindred with FAD mutations, APP. You know like clockwork when they're going to get demented.

There is this condition called mild cognitive

impairments. Individuals have a measurable decrement in cognition that does not equal dementia, and they convert from that state to Alzheimer's disease at a rate of 15 percent a year. So, in five years you would know.

DR. SIEGEL: Just as an aside, I would hope that the measure of whether that therapy or other therapies in that or most other diseases worked clinically would not be observation as to whether patients continued to decline, but ultimately a comparison of two randomized groups, one treated and one not in a controlled manner. And the predictability of decline in Alzheimer's and many other diseases — there's so much variability that — if what you really meant was if they continued to decline, that would be a failure —

DR. TROJANOWSKI: Relatively controlled. Sure. The clinical trial that's underway -- and I'm not involved. The vaccine is vehicle and A-beta peptide. They'll do imaging.

DR. SALOMON: So, I would summarize what I got out of this specifically with respect to the things on the table would be that even though these diseases like Alzheimer's are devastating diseases and the implications for this really path-breaking research is obvious, the complexity of these diseases, as they then translate into the practical realities of setting up an animal model where

-- you picked looking at the tau, but that doesn't change the contribution of the fibrillogenesis that's occurring extracellularly. Yet, to construct a true animal model of this, perhaps we're going to have to create them both and then cross breed the animals. All of these are really amazingly daunting scientific tasks. Just what you've accomplished is several years of work, as we both know.

So, it's just an interesting and sobering thing. We have to be very careful then in the discussions tomorrow that if we take a position like, yes, you need this animal model and you've got to demonstrate specificity—I think that was some of the concerns you were having—and we get really into that, it may sound really good. But then we've got to deal with the realities, what it really is like setting up these sort of animal models and doing studies in them.

A really interesting thing to spend the night thinking about is that there may be certain diseases that, if you feel compelled enough, based on whatever line of reasoning you're going to take from your lab, there may not be an animal model. Or you may have to construct two or three animal models and pick bits of them in order to generate a rationale rather than this simplistic concept that you're going to have an animal model -- I guess, Rusty, you called it an homologous animal model. I think

that really comes out very clear here in these discussions.

The next person who's going to speak is Evan Snyder. He's from Harvard. The migration and integration of transplanted stem cells within the recipient nervous system.

DR. SNYDER: I was asked to talk about migration of neural stem cells. I think it's very interesting that this is what I was asked to talk about because this is both probably one of the appeals of stem cells, at least neural stem cells, but also probably a nightmare for the FDA because this is exactly what they don't want is cells moving away in transplantation paradigms from their point of administration.

But to illustrate that what we who have been working in various models of stem cell-like biology -- and admittedly, we're all just working on models of this kind of biology -- have illustrated I think -- and I'm going to try to illustrate -- taps into what the brain may be doing anyway with its own endogenous supply of progenitors or precursors or stem cells, whatever we're going to choose to call it.

So, I want to start off talking about a non-transplantation paradigm, and that's illustrated over here by this well-known migratory pathway that Steve and Rusty and a number of the others have already spoken about where

throughout life, cells in the subventricular zone are born and follow this stereotypical migratory pathway from their birth out over here into the olfactory bulb where they become neurons.

Well, we've wondered what would happen to this stereotypical developmental migratory pattern if injury was imposed up here in the opposite direction. The model that we decided to us what we had been doing in the lab because it actually emulated for the brain about as close as we thought we were going to be able to come to what hematologists can come to in terms of ablating the bone marrow. Well, you can't really do that with the brain, we figured, but we can come fairly close.

If we actually take this particular model, which is actually, I should say, a model of a real pediatric disease -- it's hypoxic ischemic encephalopathy, which is a major cause of mental retardation, cerebral palsy, epilepsy in the pediatric population. As the only pediatrician I think on the panel, I feel I need to be an advocate for the pediatric group.

Anyway, the way this model works -- and it's a very devastating model -- is you take about a week-old mouse, you ligate the common carotid artery, expose the animal to hypoxia, and you blow away a huge area of the hemisphere on this particular side, leaving this side as a

pretty good, intact control.

Well, Krucken Park in the lab wondered what would happen if he took an animal like that and at the exact same time as he imposed this kind of devastating injury, he started pulsing these animals with two markers of cells that would be proliferative at the time of this injury. One way is to pulse the animals with BrdU. Another way is to inject a retroviral vector into the ventricles which would then label subventricular zone cells going through S phase at the time of the injury. The retrovirus would encode lacZ and you could follow that. So, you could follow these cells either by their BrdU immunoreactivity or by their lacZ immunoreactivity, and the results are basically the same.

Deviously, here's a parasaggital section of the animal.

These sections over here, right through here through the subventricular zone, are shown in coronal sections over here, and sections through the olfactory bulb are shown in coronal sections over here is the intact side. This side over here is the infarcted side.

If one looks at the cells that were labeled at the time of the injury on the intact side, they're actually not here in the subventricular zone. They have appropriately moved out here into the olfactory bulb.