They've followed this migratory pathway as you might expect.

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However, in the exact same animal, if you look at its opposite side, at the side ipsilateral to the injury, both here and here, it's very dramatically The cells are not out here. In fact, they're back over here around the subventricular zone and, as you can see over here, are starting migrate, or at least we think, they're starting to at least lean into the infarction cavity. If you actually look to see what is going on in these non-neuronogenic regions, for instance, in the cortex, in the striatum, in the hippocampus, and you double label these lacZ positive cells for the mature neuronal marker NeuN, as you can see in this double labeling, they actually seem to have shifted and move up to this non-neuronogenic area giving rise to neurons where one would not expect.

Now, obviously, this is probably not enough to cure the animal. However, it does suggest that there's a developmental mechanism of shifted and altered migration to areas of injury. Here is a lacZ positive cell, doublestained for NeuN. If you do double staining for c-fos, some of these neurons appear to at least be active in concert with the other cells, the other neurons in those particular regions.

So, this is my stem cell slide because I think that some of these plasticity is actually programmed, or at least the stem cell or what we'd like to call the stem cell is the repository of some of this plasticity. The reason I'm using this is because this way I don't have to define what my vanilla ice cream is. You can fill in your blank. I don't have to even say what they're going to give rise to. But the idea of some immature cell that's in small abundance that can be pulled out and expanded by the means that you wish to choose, by epigenetic means or genetic means, suggests that perhaps we can pull out and harness this kind of biology.

Now, one of the issues we have to figure out is how are we going to expand this cellular population. We've heard about a number of different ways, and it's an open issue. Are we going to use epigenetic growth stimulatory signals? Are we going to try to intervene right in cell cycle? Ideally we'd love some technique that either is constituitively or self-regulated in terms of propagating the cells or at least one that we can control. We've used various models that have taught us a lot about stem cell biology that take advantage of a lot of these.

One of the early models that we used was actually a clone that was propagated or augmented by a mutated Myc, which was actually constituitively self-

regulated. In other words, it simply kept the cells propagating in a dish, but in the brain was constituitively and automatically self-regulated. But it taught us a lot about stem cell biology or what we should expect.

I'll be initially talking a lot about that particular clone that seems to at least follow the operational definition of a stem cell. It has also taught us a lot about what we should be looking for if we want to start anew looking at human stem cells or human neural stem cells.

Now, what's interesting is that the biology at least of the neural stem cells seems to emulate a lot of the biology of stem cells from other organ systems. This is some collaborative work that Richard Mulligan and Lou Kunkel at our lab are doing in which we actually will take these operationally defined clones of stem-like cells and put them through a FACS sorter looking for what's called the side population, what you've heard about before. It's simply a population, actually defined over here, in which Hoechst red and blue dye are excluded. It's a very small population. It's a population to which hematopoietic cells seem to migrate to that reconstitute bone marrow. Muscle stem cells seem to migrate there.

Well, it's kind of interesting that cells that fulfill the operational definition of a stem cell -- and

you've heard a lot about that before -- actually seem to engorge that particular area and actually seem to amplify a population that even from primary brain seems to migrate there, or at least segregate there. So, it actually engorges and amplifies a population in small abundance that segregates to this particular region.

Now, a few points can be brought out here. First of all, it's interesting that this clone of mouse neural stem cells segregates to this area in exactly the same way as cells from the human nervous system that fulfill an operational definition of a stem cell also migrate to that particular area and augment it.

One can also see that if one actually buys that maybe this does recognize stem-like cells, it's certainly a small population and one will need to figure out a way to augment that, to expand it. Hematologists, obviously, depend on expanding this population in vivo. We in the nervous system are probably going to have to figure out a way to expand that ex vivo if we're envisioning transplantation paradigms.

Well, what do I mean by the operational definition of a stem cell? Well, it should be self-renewing and we can discuss what that's about.

It certainly should be multipotent in a dish and also in vivo. One way of showing that the cells are

multipotent is to take this particular population that encodes lacZ and put it into a developing mouse embryo, let the animal go to adulthood, and see that the cells at maturity have integrated throughout the neural axis, and we know will respond to the particular temporal and anatomical cues present at that particular time.

They actually go to both sides, but I'm showing this particular section where they're segregated to one side to bring out the point that except for the fact that these areas are chimeric, the cytoarchitecture seems to be identical. In other words, they seem to integrate in a fairly seamless fashion and what one sees there are the cells that you would expect based on your fundamental knowledge of neurogenesis in the developing nervous system. So, if one does a transplant to allow cells to get into the embryonic cortex, they'll give rise to pyramidal neurons. Here's a nonpyramidal neuron putting out a process onto a host pyramidal neuron.

Outside of that window of neuronogenesis, the exact same clones and the exact same region will no longer in a normal adult cortex give rise to these type of neurons, but will give rise to oligodendrocytes, for instance, or to astrocytes putting out foot processes onto blood vessels.

Now, one of the operational definitions of a

stem cell is this ability to do serial grafting. It's one that hematologists do. Well, we've tried to at least emulate that, also to show that the environment seems to mold these cells. One can do, for instance, an embryonic transplant and particularly go to the forebrain, pull out cells, pull out a section, a section like that with engrafted cells from the adult in the forebrain, can pull them out, propagate them again, and then reimplant them at another time in another region, for instance, now in the newborn cerebellum, and in fact, find that those cells that have been retrieved now will give rise to granule neurons in the internal granular layer. So, again, part of the operational definition of a stem cell to at least suggest that maybe we have a model that can teach us a little bit.

Another major question is -- and this is unanswered I think satisfactorily in our field. This experiment that I'm mentioning is not going to answer it either, but are these cells in any way functioning or are they simply there anatomically or is there any hope that they can start integrating into the circuitry. Well, we really don't know because the experiments haven't really been done well.

But one way of starting to get to that is to go to systems that -- at least this is one particular system I find very appealing, and that's a collaborative study that

we've done with Bill Schwartz at U Mass who is a circadian rhythm biologist who focuses on this particular area, the suprachiasmatic nucleus. Now, this is very appealing to us because these are cells, circadian rhythm cells, that need to respond to stimuli administered many way stations away, light to the retina, for example. Yet, the cells here need to work in a concerted effort back here in the suprachiasmatic nucleus of the hypothalamus.

Well, we know that these donor clone of neural stem cells can integrate into that region if you do a transplant at the right time embryonically. These are these Xgal positive cells intermixed there.

Now, Bill Field uses c-fos to talk about -it's somewhat nonspecific, but it talked about appropriate
activations of the cells in response to a particular
stimuli. So, this particular area is stained for c-fos, so
it will be a brown nucleus. And then in an engrafted
animal -- and you can see the cells integrated in there.
Now the lights are turned on, so to speak, and there's an
up-regulation of c-fos activity. You can see a burst of
c-fos activity. And then a subpopulation of the donor
cells over there. It's a subpopulation that also expresses
vasopressin and a lot of the other appropriate cytochemical
markers. A subpopulation of those cells also starts
expressing c-fos appropriately and in the right percentage

as the host cells.

If you don't buy the light microscopic view, this is confocal looking for c-fos among the host cells and then double staining for beta-gal and c-fos activity.

Again, the population of the donor cells in response to light, many synaptic connections away, will up-regulate c-fos in the appropriate percentage.

So, what does this say? Well, who knows what it says?

What is says, however, is that at least we have a model that can teach us a little bit about what stem cell biology would be if we buy certain operational definitions.

What it also says is, in going through this, that whatever we're going to call them, there are cells that we can pull out, that we can propagate that can go into a brain, at least in a transplantation paradigm, might emulate proper developmental mechanisms, but you can grow them in a dish, put them back, and maybe have them become appropriate neural cells. Certainly they can bring in foreign genes with them that, even as was brought up before, might be nothing more than glorified pumps, but this is a kind of pump that may be useful. They can bring in these genes and they can do this in not only a local fashion, but in a widespread manner. That's actually important, at least for a lot of the diseases that I as a

pediatrician deal with.

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They may also -- and this is a big "may" -- be able to repopulate. So, just the idea of their being able to express therapeutic things throughout the brain we first tested, as was mentioned before, just by looking at a mouse mutant model of one of the lysosomal storage diseases. We did this in collaboration with John Wolf down at Penn. This particular mouse mutant was injected with these cells into the ventricles, allowing them access to the subventricular zone. The cells distributed themselves all throughout the brain. So, there was extensive migration of these cells, which is exactly what a model like this needs. It needs the distribution of a missing gene all throughout the brain because it's missing. This distribution of cells corresponded to the distribution of therapeutic enzymes all throughout the brain, almost like a bone marrow transplant to the brain. Normally this mutant would have 0 levels, and that resulted in the elimination of this lysosomal storage, as you can see, in an untransplanted control animal in the cortex, but there the lysosomal storage in the host neurons and glia was virtually eliminated.

Well, this kind of paradigm of taking advantage of this migration can be applied to a lot of diseases where you need to replace not only genes throughout the brain, but maybe even replace cells. So, some of the mouse

mutants that require that are the white matter mutants that need dysfunctional oligodendrocytes replaced. So, for instance, we're looking at a lot of these mutants that are white matter degeneration mutants just to test that.

So, we've looked at the twitcher mouse, which is a model of the leukodystrophies, the shiverer mouse, which is a model of myelin basic protein degeneration. In those models we get that same distribution of cells.

In a twitcher model, for example, they will differentiate into oligodendrocytes that start myelinating host axons, and under EM you can appreciate this a little bit better. Here's a donor-derived oligodendrocyte surrounded by 30 to 50 myelinated host axons. The kind of myelin that one sees is actually fairly respectable. As you can see over here, it has an appropriate thickness and compaction. The Xgal precipitate indicates that it's donor-derived.

In the shiverer mouse, this kind of distribution of cells can even result in a decrement in some of the symptomatic shiver.

So, taking advantage of this migratory potential can be used for certain diseases that need this perhaps. So, one can use this perhaps to distribute cells and enzymes.

But there's another component to migration that

I think is actually very appealing and very intriguing.

That's the idea that maybe these cells can migrate to areas of pathology, somewhat the way the initial experiments I mentioned illustrated that maybe the brain tries to also shift stereotypical migratory patterns to deposit cells where it at least perceives maybe they're needed. Whether it does it sufficiently is another argument, but can we ride this crest?

What I wanted to do was just very briefly talk about three different examples that somewhat demand alterations in migration of these cells. That would be infarcts. I'll get back to exactly the model with which I started, which is a very dramatic acute injury of multiple cell types, of selective cell death. What I'm going to look at is motor neuron degeneration where just that cell dies but the other cells are pretty much intact, and then tumor, which is a slow, indolent kind of pathology, which in and of itself is also a very migratory pathology.

So, just to remind you, this is the kind of injury that we're going to impose, and we're going to impose it on normal animals that simply have these reporter cells intermixed throughout and see what the cells do.

Krucken Park in the lab has taken animals like that and put them directly into the infarcted area or put them into the opposite side. Some of you have seen these data before.

But what I want to bring out is this migratory component. So, the injury is imposed over there. Cells are placed over here. It doesn't really matter whether they're implanted first and then the injury is imposed or whether you impose the injury and then you do the transplantation of these reporter cells. The phenomenon is the same. In an intact animal, the cells are pretty much restricted to this particular side of the brain.

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However, a different story is witnessed when there's damage done to this particular side. Now, one sees that cells implanted over here will migrate across commissures or the corpus callosum, throughout the hemisphere, and move from their area of initial engraftment to home in, so to speak, into this infarcted or to this very damaged area. The kind of cells that you would see there at higher power are what have the kind of profile that we recognize as being somewhat suggestive of a migratory cell with the leading process moving in the area of movement and then a cell, for instance, here on the corpus callosum, moving over here. When it actually does get to the area of infarction, these cells under this EM will be migrating right into this very necrotic area as if there is a trophic response there.

Interestingly, if the cells are placed directly into that area, they never move back in the opposite

direction. They always stay right there, which also suggests what one might want to ask. But what happens when the cells are directly placed in there?

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Well, they seem to engraft very robustly into this very infarcted area. The interesting thing would be, well, what happens to these cells? They change their migration. Do they change their differentiation? Now, this is a time -- and if we look at the cortex -- neurons should not be born anymore. Oligodendrocytes, maybe a low level of oligodendroglial genesis, but yet, these are the two cell types that take the biggest hit in this kind of injury. Under EM, when we ask this question, we see something that electromicroscopists would like to say is a fortuitous EM section, one can see two donor-derived oligodendrocytes sitting next to a big, large donor-derived pyramidal neuron. And the apical dendrite of this pyramidal neuron shown at higher power here -- here you can see the Xgal precipitate in there -- is receiving synaptic input from the host.

If one does immunocytochemistry not only to confirm this but to help with quantification, this top panel is anti-beta-gal antibody to recognize these donor reporter cells. This is anti-cell type markers to clarify what they are. This is under the merged image. One, in fact, does see new neurons there, new oligodendrocytes, new

neurons as much as a millimeter away on the side of the injury.

If one does the mathematics -- and I'm putting this up more to make a qualitative point than a quantitative point -- on the intact side, as you might expect, one sees no neurons at all, low level of oligodendrocytes. But now there seems to be a shift, and now there seems to be new neuronogenesis in that particular area. So, that as a developmental biologist is an interesting observation, and it suggests that maybe some of what we saw with the endogenous progenitors can be augmented with these exogenous progenitors or cells.

Now, you can look at this and say, well, 5 percent. What's the big deal there? Well, 5 percent of this large amount of cells may translate into tens of thousands of neurons, and we really don't know how much it takes to reconstruct circuitry.

However, the fact that you get this robust lacZ expression suggests that perhaps one could actually engineer these cells to over-express a trophic factor.

Maybe if they're already expressing a trophic factor, perhaps they can over-express it and then respond to it.

In collaboration with Isack Fisher, these cells have been actually engineered to over-express NT-3. It was first established that the cells actually have a TRK C

receptor that appropriately becomes phosphorylated, that then signals to a MAP kinase intracellular signaling, suggesting that the cells should be able to respond in an autocrine or paracrine fashion to this NT-3. In fact, they do give rise to many neurons.

Then one can do the exact same transplant, get the exact same kind of engraftment, find that these now engineered cells, these beta-gal positive cells, continue now to express NT-3 in vivo. If one looks to see what the cells become, a beta-gal positive cell double-stained for MAP-2.

But the purpose of this slide is mostly to bring out the point that red fluorescence and green fluorescence, when superimposed will give you yellow or orange fluorescence because on the next slide, looking at the penumbra of the infarction where beta-gal is recognized in red, NeuN. The mature neuronal marker is recognized in green. Certainly one can see plain green cells and plain red cells, but now you see a fair number of orange and yellow cells, recognizing new neurons added to this penumbra as a result of this manipulation. In the MAP, one can now see over 80 percent neurons in this penumbral area.

But it also suggests that maybe if we understand some of the trophic factors we can use this perhaps to push cells down lineages that they're already

pursuing but that are desirable to us. Also, it's an interesting example of doing gene therapy and cell replacement with the same cells simultaneously. The neurons that one sees are exactly what you would expect, donor-derived neurons that are cholinergic. One sees glutamatergic and GABAergic.

So, this is a very dramatic kind of infarction, acute injury of many different cell types.

What about a selective loss of a particular kind of neurons? This particular model is a well-known model in the ALS field in which if one first takes a newborn mouse, ligates its sciatic nerve, and then by the time the animal reaches maturity, these motor neurons have degenerated by apoptotic mechanisms.

Now, again, John Flax and Chou Xan Lo and Ted Tang in the lab have done a number of different kinds of manipulations here, but I want to show you one that brings out this idea of migration towards areas of injury.

They would take the cells and put it not in the area where the ventral motor neurons have degenerated, but actually up here in the dorsal horn. This is immediately after transplant, just to show that they've hit their target. In an intact spinal cord, the cells certainly distribute themselves and engraft but pretty much restricted to the dorsal part of the cord in a normal

I animal.

However, in a mature animal in which the motor neurons have been made to degenerate, particularly if you go towards the point of active degeneration of these cells, now something very different they've observed. That is that the cells implanted up here have now migrated from the dorsal part of the cord down to the ventral part of the cord. They've done it at multiple levels throughout the cord of this particular animal. So, there not only is migration in this dorsal to ventral axis, but because these are semi-serial sections of the cord of one animal, they've done it also for about a millimeter in this rostral/caudal dimension which is the extent of motor neuron degeneration here.

If you look at the kinds of cells that are there at higher power, the kind of cells that you see are these large Xgal positive cells that certainly have the morphology reminiscent of a motor neuron, similar to one of the residual host motor neurons.

They stain for NeuN, indicating that these donor-derived cells immunocytochemically are becoming neurons. Here's a donor-derived NeuN positive cell sitting next to a residual host NeuN positive neuron.

Here's a MAP-2 positive cell double-stained for beta-gal sending its process out of the plane of focus.

So, it looks as if they're moving there and becoming neurons, but it looks as if they may also be trying to become spinal motor neurons. If one does an in situ hybridization against ARIA, a neuregulin, called acetylcholine receptor inducing activity necessary for characterizing or determining that a cell is a spinal motor neuron, if you do an in situ on this section and engraft an axotomized section like that, you can see hybridization in this particular axotomized engrafted animal and a distribution that looks very similar to that of the engrafted cells and pretty respectable compared to the animal's own intact control, very different than an axotomized untransplanted animal. The cells that seem to be hybridizing to the ARIA probe are these big beta-gal positive cells heavily overlaid by silver grains ARIA hybridization at a level much higher than background.

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Interestingly, the beta-gal positive cells, which have stayed as small cells up in the dorsal horn, don't hybridize better than background. And these kind of cells express ChAT. They express ILa-2, suggesting that the cells have migrated there and are now trying to become perhaps motor neurons or at least responding to signals that may recapitulate some developmental signals.

It was mentioned that perhaps some of the efficacy of the cells is not only going to be whether they

can replace cells or not.

These are the exact same cells -- actually this is a spinal cord slice done in collaboration with Jeff Rothstein. The cells actually are placed out here of the spinal cord slice and one can see that the neurofilament fibers of the motor neurons are actually homing in right on some factor, almost looking as if they're making a ventral root, seeming to be expressed by this particular factor.

I want to end with one last model and that's tumors, which is an indolent kind of slow growth that requires migration. This is done by Karen Abuti in the lab. She implanted cells directly into the adult cortex. Now, one of the problems of treating brain tumors is the fact that they migrate and they insinuate into normal tissue. Karen wondered what would happen if she first took the cells and implanted them directly into the tumor.

Here the tumor is seen in red. Here the tumor is expressed to express green fluorescent protein so that it will fluoresce green. The red are neural stem cells implanted in there for lac2. They're Xgal blue here.

The cells were implanted directly into the tumor and within 48 hours they migrate out to the very interface between tumor and normal tissue and come to a halt right there except, as you can see over here at higher power, where a tumor cell is infiltrating normal tissue.

There a neural stem cell seems to perhaps jump on top of it and move in direct juxtaposition to the cell, continuing to express its lacz gene.

This is simply to show immunocytochemically that the exact same thing is happening, the cell migrating out, even in very virulent tumors, as there is rapid migration of tumor cells into the tissue, being followed by neural stem cells.

Now, how robust is this migratory capacity?

One would not necessarily want to treat tumors in this particular fashion, but Karen established the tumor over here but implanted the neural stem cells over here, and then after about a week followed to see what those cells were doing. She could see, looking at the corpus callosum, that there were again cells moving from this area of implantation -- this cell shown at higher power here, this cell shown at higher power here -- classic migratory profile moving towards the tumor cell. Then when she actually looked at the tumor, she could see that it was filled with blue cells. The only source had to be from this particular implantation of neural stem cells over there.

Now, this is the last point that I want to bring out. This allows me to transition to whether this biology is preserved in human neural stem cells. This is a

human neural stem cell grown in growth factors that has been pulled out of a human fetus. It's now an established clone that seems to emulate many of the qualities of mouse neural stem cells.

Well, Karen took a cell like that and did the exact same paradigm that I described before. Here's the edge of a tumor over here. Here's actually the edge of a human glioblastoma. You can see it's filled with brown nuclei. These are human neural stem cells recognized by a human-specific nuclear antibody, and it's completely engorging the tumor cell. The interesting thing is that the cells were implanted over here on the opposite side and they migrated into there.

The other interesting aspect is that this particular clone of human neural stem cells is engineered now to over-express a gene that would allow us to test bioactivity. It's now been engineered to express the gene cytosine deaminase, which most of you know is a gene which has been used in prodrug paradigms against brain tumors. If one exposes this benign drug, 5-FC, to cytosine deaminase, it converts it to the oncolytic drug 5-FU which then will kill tumor cells.

The neural stem cells over-expressing this particular gene now, first in a dish, are exposed to 5-FU to see whether this gene is bioactive. Here they're

intermixed with tumor cells. One now overlays with 5-FC and the cells were now converted to the oncolytic gene product 5-FU and eliminates most of the tumor cells, as quantitated over here.

If one now takes this and does the exact same paradigm, taking the cells and putting it into the established tumor, and then does exactly the same thing, gives the animal 5-FU triggering the action, one can see in this image analysis of camera lucida, here is the tumor, our profiles of the tumor for image analysis, untreated, large, big like that. If one now triggers this reaction mediated by these human neural stem cells, one can see a dramatic decrement in the size of the tumor, suggesting that the gene is bioactive, quantitated at an 80 percent decrement in the size of the tumor, suggesting in fact that one does have a bioactive gene delivered by this particular migratory cell.

I'm going to skip this except simply to say that we see same type of phenomenon in motor neuron degeneration, also in stroke.

And then simply to end with this last bit to say can this biology be translated to models that are closer to the human condition. This is some work that Curt Freed in our lab did in which we would take these human neural stem cells and now see whether at least their

biology will be recognized by a brain that's closer to that of a human.

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So, we've gone actually to fetal monkeys. This is a lot earlier than we've done it, but under ultrasonic guidance, taken these human neural stem cells, placed them into the ventricles of fetal monkeys -- except the animal is a lot older at this particular point -- let the animal develop, particularly the cortex. The cells are labeled by anti-BrdU, so one will see a black nucleus. The cells will migrate out from the ventricular zone, and one can see, recognizing the cells, migrating up radial glial fibers quite appropriately. Those that jump off at the lower lamina of the cortex, where neurogenesis has stopped, will then differentiate into glial cells very appropriately. Those that continue up this elevator, so to speak, and jump off at the higher lamina where neurogenesis is ongoing will now become neurons, intermixed right in the appropriate lamina with the monkey's own cortical neurons. And that these are neurons is indicated by double staining for NeuN, doubling staining with BrdU for calbindin, but will also give rise to oligodendrocytes and to astrocytes, suggesting that they're responding to the appropriate developmental cues.

Interestingly, a subpopulation that does not migrate out to the cortex will hang as a quiescent

population around the ventricle, conceivably to become this population that later on in life may be activated. So, the hope would be that human neural stem cells, because they're reflecting a biology, may be able to also recapitulate this biology in the human brain perhaps as they're doing it in non-human primate brain.

I think this is probably the touchstone of the entire meeting that I think we have to question all of our previous precepts, and that life's answers being questioned over here, but I think by the end of the two-day session, we're going to find out that all of our answers that we thought we had are certainly being questioned as we explore more of the stem cell biology.

Sorry to have gone over.

(Applause.)

DR. SALOMON: I think, just because of the time constraints here, what I'd like to do is go on to the last talk of the day, and then if there's some discussion, we can have that after both the talks. So, I invite John McDonald to come and talk about animal models of spinal cord injury.

Comments? Go ahead.

DR. DRACHMAN: Evan, you're at Children's Hospital. So is Judah Folkman. You surely must have looked at VEGF, angiopoietin, basic FGF, and so forth to

see whether that's what's leading your cells around. Did you?

DR. SNYDER: We're actually in the midst of looking at all of that. As you would imagine, we're doing a lot of chip technology.

The thing that I think is going to be clear is that I think is going to be clear is that it's not going to be one factor. It's probably going to be a cocktail of factors not only some diffusible factors, not only the factors that you mentioned, but also changes in extracellular matrix. There's probably also going to be alterations in not only attractants but also disinhibition of repellants and things of that sort.

So, yes, we're starting to look at that. We're trying to go at it, not in a fishing expedition kind of way, though you could say, well, that's what chip technology is. But those are certainly candidates.

One of the interesting things that we're seeing that's a difference between acute and chronic injury, which is where we see a lot of these phenomena going on, is alterations in various cytokine receptors, alterations in LIF receptors, various G proteins. So, some of the candidates that seem to be very important in fundamental stem cell biology also seem to be changed in these milieu where we see these alterations in migration.

DR. SALOMON: John, you're on.

DR. McDONALD: So, what I'm going to focus on today is really embryonic stem cells. What I'd like to do is go over some of the models in spinal cord injury and then use an example of a couple different models as an approach to potential clinical trials.

So, we'll go through a single example and really define what the problem is, what's doable, what's doable in regeneration, what are we modeling. Appropriate age of the models is incredibly important. What models are available? What are ES cells? It's still very early days and what to do to move forward.

so, this is the real problem with spinal cord injury. You get breaks in the bony spine, compress the soft spinal cord. The most common cause is motor vehicle accidents. And you're left with an injury oftentimes that looks like this where you get a cyst in the middle of the cord. In fact, here we're looking at a cross section of that same cord. In between the dotted line and the closed circle line is the spared tissue. So, the spinal cord is kind of built opposite of the brain, where the white matter containing the long tracks in the brain and going to the brain are on the outside. So, death typically occurs in the middle. You are always left with a small rim or donut of intact connections.

The key thing is that this is a person that has run triathelons. So, you don't need to cure the spinal cord to regain function. You just need to get minimal anatomic improvement. The estimates are that you need less than 10 percent of the functional connections in order to walk.

This is really to point out that the choices are really immense. When you look at the choices between time of treatment after the injury, what cell type do you use and what disease to choose. So, in this case we're going to choose spinal cord injury, a subchronic treatment at 9 days using ES cells at a very specific neuroprogenitor stage and focus on myelination.

So, the thing is the critical balance in moving forward with potential preclinical studies or any studies in this. I think that you'll see the studies that we look at have many of these features.

Of course, it's important that there's very few alternative treatments, making it more reasonable to use interventions such as cell transplantation. Also, the potential risks of the treatment are reduced. I think as I'll point out, transplanting oligodendrocytes really pose less of a risk than transplantation of neurons. Neurons have a much higher propensity to do abnormal things such as pain, abnormal transmission, seizures.

Doability of treatment, of course, is very important. And myelination I think fits this. That is, after an injury and even in demyelination, many of the circuits remain but are dysfunctional, and you simply need to remyelinate. That's going to be an easier task than recapitulate the circuits.

And then severity of disease. I think Evan pointed this out very well, that it's going to be much harder to fix a hole in the spinal cord than it is to replace single, individual lost cells.

Then proof of principle. What do we know in preclinical studies as far as mechanisms, anatomical and behavioral effects and the appropriateness of those animal models?

Then most importantly, we need to have measurable and interpretable endpoints for a clinical trial, both anatomical behavior and physiologic.

So, far as doability, of course, preventing the injury is much easier than regeneration. In the spinal cord in animals, there are multiple new treatments that have been designed to be given immediately after the injury that are able to prevent some of the secondary injury. Despite substantial progress in the last 10 years on regeneration, overall it's still very limited. In humans, we only have one acute medical treatment,

methylprednisolone and no regenerative treatments.

So, if you really look at level of difficulty

-- this is my personal view of this as far as regeneration

strategies. I think if you look at some of the easiest

things, cell birth, such as glial cell birth, in many cases

we want to limit this, in the case of astrocytosis.

Remyelination and birth of oligodendrocytes are just

remyelination of surviving oligodendrocytes. Axonal

sprouting is doable, particularly in the local fashion.

Cellular expression of molecules through gene expression is

becoming very doable. Neuronal cell birth, as Rusty

pointed out, is becoming something that we're just at the

beginning of getting handles on.

The most difficult things, of course, are axonal sprouting, particularly over long distances, with appropriate reconnectivity.

So, in spinal cord injury, just to put things in perspective, here are the different events. Trauma. Of course, you want to reduce any compression that's occurring immediately, then limit the secondary injury, limit secondary complications, and that's the main focus of rehabilitation, and then of course, interact with mobility and environment, which again is ergonomics of rehabilitation. Then what we want to focus on today is just replacing lost cells, myelin and axonal connections.

So, the first important question is what should we be modeling in spinal cord injury. There are just a zillion different choices. It really depends on what condition you want to model because there are many different causes of spinal cord injury. The most common is trauma which is mixed from vehicular accidents, violence, falls, sports. But then there's a myriad number of medical causes including demyelinating disorders, orthopedic tumors, infectious degenerative disorders. So, we have to decide on which one of those we want to treat, some of which potentially are going to be easier than others. But in most cases, most of those disorders are a one-time hit and it's not a recurrent event.

Now, this is just a schematic that I put together today just to really look at the age appropriateness of models. I think Evan pointed this out incredibly well, that if you transplant progenitor cells earlier in development, they really migrate a much greater distance and probably have a better chance of survival as opposed to the same transplantation in the adult. Then as Evan also showed, injury also supports additional length of migration. So, it's very important to assess the appropriate age for the model that you want to look at.

Then most importantly, it's a constantly changing problem. For example, if you want to look at

spinal cord trauma, it's a very different problem if you want to have an intervention that's to be instituted immediately after the injury blocking, say, for example, necrosis, or one a little bit later blocking, for example, programmed cell death, or a regenerative type event. Even the regenerative events are going to be dramatically different depending on the timing, whether it's 1 week, 2, weeks, 2 months. So, the problem you're facing is constantly changing.

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So, what models are out there right now that people are focusing on? I think it's useful to divide them up into these mixed cell death models where you get death of everything, basically infarcts, neuronal, glial, and axonal injury, and then more selective cell loss.

So, the weight drop contusion model is probably one of the best held models for traumatic spinal cord injury. You recapitulate the syrinx that occurs in the middle of the spinal cord and many of the aspects of the physiology as well.

Compression injury is a bit of an older type model, but it's still being use.

Ischemic injury, replicating what happens with triple A surgeries.

And then transections, both partial, complete, and suction methods.

A lot of these have come out mainly because these are very difficult models to care for the animals.

But then the more selective cell loss injury models, such as just focal myelin loss, like Evan pointed out with the myelin mutants, chemical demyelination, which you heard about earlier today, and then focal neuronal loss, including neuronal mutants and neurotoxins. These can be subdivided into axon sparing and non-axon sparing. That really changes the model and what you want to accomplish.

So, what is a stem cell or an embryonic stem cell? Well, basically it's the earliest form of stem cell capable of making, in theory, every subsequent stem cell. It's self-renewing. It's truly pluripotent. In most cases for new ES cells, we proved this by producing teratomas in SCID mice with cells from all three germ layers.

Probably one of the most important aspects of an ES cell is you have the best proof of principle that it's genetically normal. That is, you can produce a chimeric animal, which you really can't do with almost any other stem cell.

It's highly genetically manipulable. Of course, this is one of the reasons for the transgenic error that's occurred, and this is going to have a lot of advantages. I think in the long run embryonic stem cells

are going to have most of its input as a tool rather than as a therapy, although a therapy will be important as well.

And they have the same advantages as other stem cells.

So, from the public's standpoint, I think these types of videos are very useful. What is an ES cell?
Well, basically you just take an egg and a sperm and do in vitro fertilization is one of the most common ways it is done. It can also be done in an animal and then flush the fallopian tubes. But if you let that grow to a blastocyst stage -- and at this stage, it's still pre-implantation.
If it were in the animal, it would be in the fallopian tube before it got to the uterus.

If you split that in half, it's the inner cell mass that you're interested in. If you take out these cells, these are embryonic stem cells. More typically it's done through immunodissection.

This is very easy to take these cells and culture them really indefinitely. So, it really provides an unlimited source of cells. You begin the week with 1 of these, you end the week with 256 flasks. So, already in the last couple of years, there has been over 50 knock-ins and knock-outs in ES cells that are frozen cell lines that you can just obtain from other people around the world.

So, let's move on to transplantation. So, we

use a differentiation protocol worked out by David Gottlieb at Washington University called the 4 minus/4 plus stage embryoid body where you take the ES cells and you grow them floating in a dish so they don't stick for the first 4 days, and then expose them in the last 4 days to retinoic acid. Retinoic acid has been shown to be a very strong stimulus to push them down and commit them to a neuroglial lineage.

So, what is one of these 4 minus/4 plus EBs?
Well, if you cut these in half, you can see that there are
very few differentiated cells. The majority are nestin
positive or neural-restricted precursors.

If you take these and culture them at that point, you can show that you can make, of course, neurons, type 1 astrocytes, type 2 astrocytes, and oligodendrocytes. Really now, applying just basic tissue culture methodologies, you can obtain almost every type of culture. This is a very typical mixed neuronal/astrocyte culture where you see ganglia of neuronal cell bodies with axons over astrocytes.

This is the model that we use for transplantation. It's a contusion model injury where we drop a 10 gram weight over a laminectomy site over the exposed spinal cord. They have a moderate/severe injury such that when the animal recovers over the next 2 or 3

weeks, it plateaus to the point where it's not able to bear any weight on its hind limbs. It can move its legs, but not in a coordinated fashion, and it can't place its paws. So, it's one of the most sensitive points on the BBB Scale, which is an open field assessment of hind limb function following spinal cord injury.

In this study, this is the experimental time line we used for the transplantation. We did the contusion injury and then we waited 9 days. We waited 9 days for two purposes. One, we wanted to wait till the inflammation went down, and two, we wanted to get out past the period where most cell death occurs. If you really want to look at regeneration, you should make sure you exclude potentially preventing cell death. Many regenerative studies are done with co-transplantation. Then we assessed behavior over this whole time period and then 2 and 5 weeks later looked at the histology.

In these studies -- these were very early studies -- we used multiple labels because no one label is perfect. So, the cells were genetically labeled with lacZ or GFP. We could also use species-specific antibodies. We transplanted mouse male ES cells into female rats so we could also use Y chromosome in situ hybridization. It turns out that the mouse-specific antibodies were very effective because you were able to see processes very well.

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We always did triple labeling. It's not enough just to see lacZ or GFP, but we want to see the appropriate phenotype specificity, as well as a nucleus that's appropriate for that cell type because it's very difficult. There are so many macrophages that occur after any injury that it impairs the assessment of this.

We moved on now to label these cells with paramagnetic markers so that we can follow them with MRI, and there are other cell tracking methods as well.

So, if we look 2 weeks after transplantation, this is a longitudinal cord from one of those rats. This is the formed cyst that occurs within 2 weeks. This is the middle of the transplant. We actually transplanted a million cells in 5 microliters right into the forming cyst. 2 weeks later we found that the cells would migrate up to a centimeter down. In fact, cells would be a centimeter down within 12 hours after transplantation, and they're not doing this by migrating through the tissue. This syrinx connects with the central canal, and they would walk down the central canal in both directions, and then migrate out across the radial glial.

We can quantitate this. I'm not going to go through this in detail, but basically you can demonstrate that there are all three lineages, oligodendrocytes, astrocytes, and neurons, and they have the appropriate

phenotype. NeuN doesn't stain the nucleolus. It labels the nucleus more than the cytoplasm. There's a nucleus that fits in that, and that fits in this label for M2 which is a mouse-specific antibody, larger astrocyte, larger nucleus, co-labels with M2, which is a surface label marker. There's an oligodendrocyte. APC is a cytoplasmic label, and there's the nucleus that fits in.

What we were very surprised at, because what we were hoping to do is just see cells survive and then use those cells as genetic vectors, as Evan mentioned, was that we did see a very consistent behavioral reproducible improvement in function. For those of you who have worked with the BBB Scale, you know that this is not a linear scale, and this 2-point difference is a big functional difference. 2 points down here between 6 and 4 or 6 and 8 means almost nothing. 2 points between 18 and 16 means almost nothing. But I'll show you what this does.

We've repeated this and added an additional control. We added another control where we looked at adult mouse cortical cells and transplanted them to control for a rat versus mouse immune response. Certain groups have shown that pro-inflammatory cytokines can improve some anatomical function after injury. But we saw the consistent same 2-point difference.

What I'll show you now are little video

segments that are from animals that are exactly these scores, so they're the average scores. It's not the best or the worst or one group. It's exactly the average.

You'll see it's a dramatic difference.

This is a control animal that just received the control media. You'll see he walks. He can't lift his tail. He can move his hind limbs. He doesn't bear weight and he can't place his paws.

This is the average transplant. You can see he bears weight. You can see he lifts his butt off the ground and his tail, and he can stand on his hind limbs. All the animals would do this, so this is a very average response.

What we found in that study is that the majority of the cells went on to become oligodendrocytes, over 60 percent, and less than 10 percent were neurons.

In the next phase, we looked at how well can these ES-derived oligodendrocytes myelinate in culture. This is a culture that's derived from 4 minus/4 plus EBs and were stained for 01 here which is a myelin product. This is an oligodendrocyte with its multiple branches, and it's overlaid over a phase image. The white arrows indicate axons, and here this axon continues and then becomes myelinated. Here's an axon. It then becomes myelinated. You can actually follow each branch out. So, you can see that a single oligodendrocyte will wrap

multiple axons or multiple segments of a single axon.

Now, of course, to prove that this is myelination, you can do standard transmission electron microscopy to demonstrate early wrapping.

This is an amazing amount of wrapping. This is an average amount that we saw in the culture already occurring by 9 days. So, not only did the cells have to differentiate from a neural progenitor, but they had to form both cell types and interact within 9 days. So, it's occurring more rapidly than primary derived oligodendrocytes.

We went on to assess this in a more focal model. Rather than doing a contusion injury, now we said let's just do a chemical demyelination and irradiate the animals. So, here you primarily lose astrocytes and oligodendrocytes and some axons, but you spare the majority of axons.

So, we did the demyelination and then transplanted 3 days later and then assessed anatomy 10 and 30 days later. It was a very similar transplantation paradigm, although we've transplanted half as many cells.

What this really depicts is that basically the majority of the cells that are transplanted turn into oligodendrocytes, not astrocytes, not neurons.

So, what's shown here is a panel stained with

M2, which is the anti-mouse antibody. It just really depicts the transplant site. These are three different animals. This is a control that received just vehicle medium, so it's a very good antibody. This is a small growth of a transplant, a much larger growth of the transplant. APC labels oligodendrocytes, and at this low level you don't see APC, but you see it mainly in the transplant site. But interestingly, the GFAP is almost excluded from the transplant site. It was only on the edge.

You can actually see at this early time point, which is 10 days after transplantation, there's actually increased nuclear density. If you were to look at these same animals 30 days later, they would achieve close to a normal nuclear density. So, cells would either die or migrate.

We can immunolabel the myelin to demonstrate that oligodendrocytes derived from ES cells myelinated. You can see the immunoprecipitant. This is 30 days after transplantation. It's a similar picture, now at a much higher power, showing the immunoprecipitant in the multi layers of myelin and yet next to axons that don't have labels.

We then went on to develop a pretty simple method for enriching for oligodendrocytes, really following

methods developed by McKay and Ian Duncan, but a little bit different.

We took the 4 minus/4 plus EBs and ground them up and then made oligospheres and grew them in a specialized, defined media so that we could highly enrich for oligodendrocytes. This procedure also enriches for neurons. So, basically if you look at this, now the majority of the cells are beyond nestin positive, and if you culture these cells in oligosphere condition media, you can get cultures that are over 92 percent oligodendrocyte pure. But there are virtually no astrocytes under these methods.

If we take those cells and then transplant, like Evan discussed with the shiverer mouse, you can see that they integrate. This is a CTO-labeled cell that lines up with the other intrafascicular oligodendrocytes. This is an animal that doesn't express any myelin basic protein. So, if you use myelin basic protein and see here's the cell body, here's the nucleus that fits in there, and you can see its processes. It's a transplanted cell.

This is a sham transplant and a controlled ES cell transplant. You would see myelination for a couple millimeters, and at high power, you can actually see individual axons with the myelin wrapping them in the intrafascicular white matter.

At a much lower power, you can see that the transplant rapidly falls off. So, we don't see nearly the migration that you see in the immature animals. You initially see a higher nuclear density and then it decreases over time, in this case, to below normal.

You can use transmission electron microscopy to demonstrate that there's over 10 layers of more highly compact myelin achieved within a month in these animals, so this has to come from an embryonic stem cell.

We've gone on now to utilize fluorescently labeled cell lines, ones that are just on a CMV promoter. This is 2 weeks after transplantation in the middle of the transplant. Then we also have ones that are labeled selectively for tau and then also for myelin basic protein so that we can track individual cell types.

The other advantage is people like Austin Smith have developed a genetic selection. So, they've linked a resistance gene to the SOX-2 so that they can select for neural restricted precursors just by adding an antibiotic. He's been giving that out. So, that's a very effective selection method to get purified cultures very rapidly and cheaply.

So, just to follow up what we started with, transplantation and myelination. I don't think this is necessarily the best thing to move forward from a clinical

standpoint, but it's a good example of something that's doable.

There are not very many alternatives for a spinal cord injury. There are very few treatment options. There are rehabilitation treatment options. There's functional electrical stimulation, but otherwise not much to offer in these people that are very debilitated and have a long life span.

The potential risks for transplantation of oligodendrocytes is much lower than neurons potentially.

The doability of treatment. Multiple laboratories have shown that they can reconstitute myelination around circuits.

The severity of the disease is important. It might not be the best thing to start off with the most severe injury. A more selective injury, transverse myelitis, where you don't see an infarct might be a good place to start.

Then proof of principle. I think that myelination is one of the areas that has some of the best anatomical behavioral correlates.

Then in humans, this is a very measurable and interpretable endpoint. Just with MRI alone, now with the higher magnets, you can follow myelination in the spinal cord. Now with the paramagnetic molecules, you can really

follow it very easily. Of course, you can't use this 1 2 quantitatively. It really lights up the spinal cord, but 3 this is a very effective way of following these cells. 4 Then, of course, you can have both positive and negative controls. You can see tracks that have been remyelinated 5 and tracks that are not myelinated, and you know exactly 6 7 the function of that track. You can use motor volt potentials and somatosensory volt potentials. So, it's a 8 9 very well-outlined anatomical system to look for 10 physiologic correlates. I'd just like to thank my collaborators at 11 Washington University and the people in my lab. 12 13 ever get out there, you can come visit us. 14 (Laughter.) 15 DR. McDONALD: Junior faculty move around a 16 But this is where we're moving now. We're really marrying the idea of having inpatient rehabilitation for 17 18 spinal cord with the basic science. The basic science for 19 spinal cord will all be on this fourth floor and all the 20 rehabilitation will be on the lower floors. 21 Anyway, thanks. 22 (Applause.) 23 DR. SALOMON: Well, we did it. Thank you very

Well, guys, it's 10 after 6:00. We're 40

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much.

minutes late, not too bad given the fact that we went into lunch 40 minutes late. So, we've stayed basically on track I think.

We did get through a lot of material. I for one feel privileged to have been allowed to hear all these excellent talks. I certainly got a lot out of it. I had a lot to get out of it.

Do we want to have any discussion at all at this point? We're going to return to this whole thing in depth tomorrow. I think the time is late. Everybody is a little bit tired. So, I'm going to make an executive decision. I hope that the last two speakers don't take it personally. But I think that clearly these last two talks and a couple that followed it all starting with Rusty with the animal stuff is really going to be front and center tomorrow as we talk about what kind of animal models are appropriate for clinical trials. I think we'll get plenty of time to discuss these.

So, again, I'd like to thank everybody for the energy and the time all the speakers took to put these talks together and for your attention.

See you tomorrow morning at 8:30.

(Whereupon, at 6:15 p.m., the committee was recessed, to reconvene at 8:30 a.m., Friday, July 14, 2000.)