

***OPTIMIZATION OF DELIVERY STRATEGIES FOR
CARDIAC CELL THERAPY IN ISCHEMIC HEART DISEASE***

Tycho I.G. van der Spoel

Optimization of delivery strategies for cardiac cell therapy in
ischemic heart disease

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ISBN: 978-90-820062-0-9

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***OPTIMIZATION OF DELIVERY STRATEGIES FOR CARDIAC
CELL THERAPY IN ISCHEMIC HEART DISEASE***

***OPTIMALISATIE VAN TRANSPLANTATIE STRATEGIEËN
VOOR CARDIALE CEL THERAPIE IN ISCHEMISCHE
HARTZIEKTEN***

(met een samenvatting in het Nederlands)

PROEFSCHRIFT

ter verkrijging van de graad van doctor aan de Universiteit Utrecht op gezag van de rector magnificus, prof. dr. G.J. van der Zwaan, ingevolge het besluit van het college voor promoties in het openbaar te verdedigen op dinsdag 18 december 2012 des middags te 4.15 uur

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Financial support by the Dutch Heart Foundation for the publication of this thesis is gratefully acknowledged. The research described in this thesis was supported by a grant of the Dutch Heart Foundation (DHF- 2010T025).

This research is part of the Project P1.04 SMARTCARE of the research program of the BioMedical Materials institute, co-funded by the Dutch Ministry of Economic Affairs, Agriculture and Innovation.

Additional support for publication of this thesis was granted by:

Samsung Medison, Volcano Corporation, Stichting Cardiovasculaire Biologie, Guerbet Nederland BV, Chipsoft, Boehringer Ingelheim BV, Biosense Webster Inc, Servier Nederland Farma B.V. en MSD.

VOOR MIJN OUDERS

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Introduction

INTRODUCTION

Acute myocardial infarction (MI) is one of the most important causes of heart failure and mortality in the western world.¹ MI is characterized by reduced myocardial perfusion and loss of cardiomyocytes. A typical human infarct involves the loss of approximately one billion cardiomyocytes.² Standard therapies are medication and percutaneous coronary intervention in the acute setting aiming at symptom relief and restoration of coronary flow. However, if blood flow is not immediately restored continuous loss of cardiomyocytes occurs. Neighbouring healthy cardiomyocytes cannot compensate for this ongoing process leading to chronic ischemic cardiomyopathy and clinical signs of heart failure. Unlike other organs (e.g. liver), the heart itself has unfortunately no to limited capacity to regenerate damaged myocardium. Patients with chronic ischemic heart failure can be treated via pharmacological or non-pharmacological modalities. Life style changes (e.g. weight loss, salt restriction) are recommended as a first step followed by treatment with various drugs to prevent left ventricular remodelling including angiotensin converting inhibitors, beta blockers, aldosterone antagonist and diuretics.³ If clinical symptoms of heart failure are still present, revascularization procedures, resynchronization therapy, valvular and ventricular surgery should be considered.³ Cardiac transplantation is an accepted treatment option for end-stage heart failure. However, due to donor shortage this is not a realistic treatment option; in 2011 only 40 heart transplantations were performed in the Netherlands. Despite optimal medical, reperfusion and device therapy many patients still remain symptomatic which leads to a clear restriction of their daily life. Cardiac cell therapy has been proposed as an alternative treatment option for chronic myocardial dysfunction. This transplantation therapy aims to replace dysfunctional cardiomyocytes or promote endogenous cardiac repair. This chapter provides an introduction from clinical perspective in the basic principles and first results of cardiac cell therapy.

Cardiac cell therapy

During the last decade several cell sources have been investigated for their potential effect on cardiac regeneration or neovascularisation. They can be divided into two groups: embryonic and adult stem cells. Embryonic stem cells have the advantage that they can divide indefinitely and are able to differentiate into all cell types and tissues of the body. This is also one of the disadvantages because this can lead to uncontrolled tumour formation (e.g. teratoma), next to relevant ethical issues.⁴ In contrast to embryonic stem cells, adult stem cells are more predisposed for one type of tissue. Several adult cell types have been isolated and classically originate from bone marrow, peripheral blood or specific tissue (including cardiac tissue).⁵ Figure 1 provides a schematic overview of adult cell sources for cardiac repair. In this thesis, we will focus on the most studied adult stem cells with in mind the clinical horizon and their proposed effects in pre-clinical animal models (Figure 2).

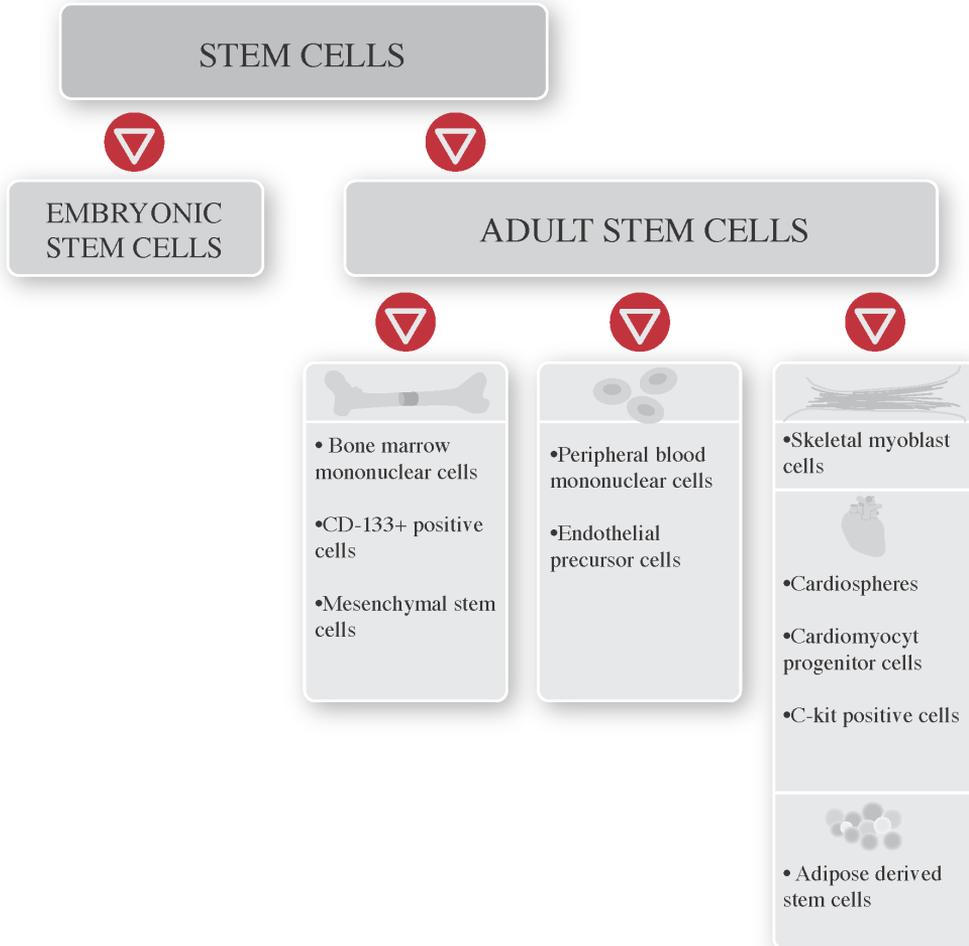


Figure 1. Different sources of stem cells for cardiac cell therapy.

In 2006, criteria were formulated by the International Society for Stem Cell Therapy to standardize and characterize human MSC isolation procedures.¹³ The following criteria were formulated to characterize a MSC: adherence to plastic under culture conditions; expression of surface markers CD105, CD73, CD90 and a lack in expression of CD45, CD34, CD14 or CD11b, CD79 or CD19 and HLA-DR; *in vitro* differentiation into adipogenic, osteogenic or chondrogenic lineages. However, these criteria may not uniformly apply to other species due to the lack of comparison studies. A recent publication of our group demonstrated that pig MSC have comparable phenotyping, multi-lineage differentiation potential, immunomodulatory capacity, and functional improvement with human MSC indicating that data on porcine MSC therapy from experimental studies can be extrapolated

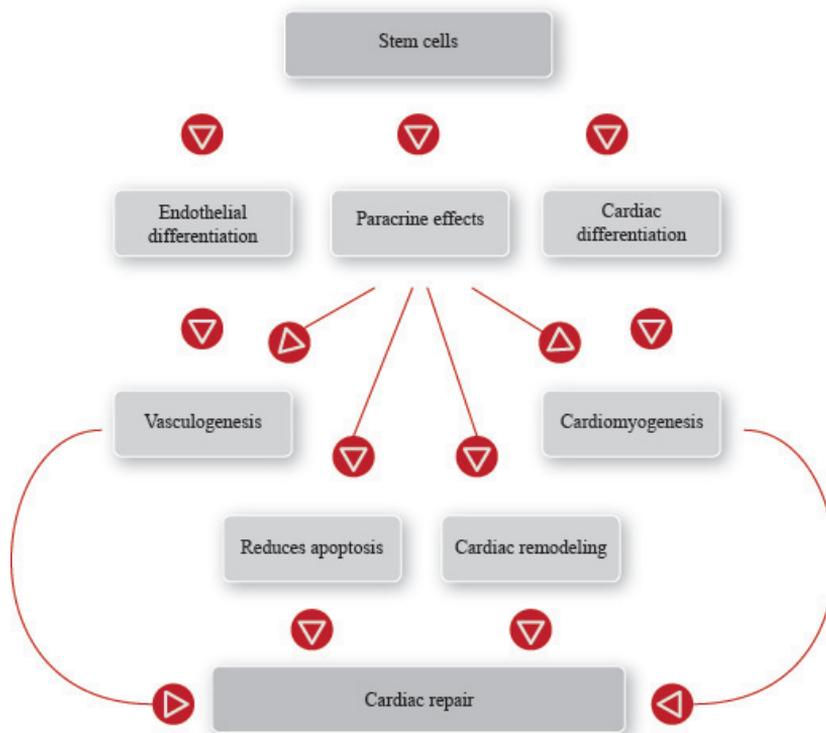


Figure 2. Working mechanisms of stem cells.

Bone marrow-derived stem cells

For patients, bone marrow is the main source to extract stem cells for cardiac cell therapy.⁶ After density gradient centrifugation of the bone marrow mononuclear cell (BMMNC) fraction, hematopoietic, endothelial and mesenchymal stem cells (MSC) can be extracted based on their cell surface markers. Hematopoietic stem cells can be identified, among others, by a marker protein called CD-133 and were the first cells to be reported that were suggested to differentiate into cardiomyocytes when injected in infarcted mice⁷ although this could not be reproduced by others.⁸ A subgroup of hematopoietic stem cells are endothelial progenitor cells which can differentiate into endothelial cells *in vitro* and *in vivo* but not into cardiomyocytes *in vivo*.^{9,10} It has been postulated that endothelial progenitor cells stimulate neovascularisation, leading to a reduction in collagen formation and decreased apoptosis of cardiomyocytes in the infarcted borderzone.¹¹ Nevertheless, ischemic cardiomyopathy was associated with low number of endothelial progenitor cells and impaired migratory capacity¹² which could influence functional outcome after cell therapy.

to the clinical arena.¹⁴ Early animal studies suggested that MSC can differentiate into functional cardiomyocytes¹⁵ but current consensus is that this does not occur *in vivo*.¹⁶ Their action can be explained by the secretion of paracrine factors that influence vessel formation, cardiac regeneration, prevent cardiomyocyte cell death and alter extracellular matrix.¹⁷ Furthermore, MSC express moderate levels of human leukocyte antigens combined with their immunomodulatory effect on innate and adaptive immune cells makes them an attractive cell type for allogenic delivery after acute MI.¹⁸ In 2009, Hare et al injected for the first time allogenic MSC in patients after acute MI and demonstrated that it was safe since no difference in adverse events rates between MSC treated and placebo treated patients were observed.¹⁹

Cardiac stem cells

Several types of adult cardiac stem cells (CSC) have been found in the heart.²⁰ Many of these cells have been identified based on different cell surface markers, including the expression of stem cell antigen (Sca-1), the tyrosine kinase receptor c-kit, the expression of the transcription factor Isl-1 or their ability to efflux Hoechst or Rhodamine dyes through ATP-binding transporters.²¹⁻²⁸

Our group reported the isolation of a human progenitor cell based on Sca-1.²⁹ Transplantation of these cells into the MI mouse model prevented cardiac remodelling and maintained ejection fraction (EF) compared to vehicle treatment through generation of new cardiac tissue e.g. human cardiomyocytes and small vessel formation.³⁰ In 2007, Bearzi et al. isolated and expanded c-kit⁺ CSC from the human patient heart and injected into the infarcted myocardium of immunodeficient mice.³¹ These cells generated a chimeric heart, which contains human myocardium composed of myocytes, coronary resistance arterioles, and capillaries. Isl-1 as well as side population cells could be expanded *in vitro*, but did not differentiate spontaneously towards the cardiac lineage unless co-cultured with cardiomyocytes.³² ³³ *In vivo* injection of human cardiosphere-derived cells into infarcted mouse hearts resulted in superior improvement of cardiac function, highest cell engraftment and myogenic differentiation rates, and the least-abnormal heart morphology three weeks after treatment compared with bone marrow derived cells.³⁴

Several possible mechanisms may account for the observed beneficial effects of CSC after transplantation into injured myocardium. First, CSC can differentiate into the three cell lines that are necessary for cardiac regeneration: mature cardiomyocytes, smooth muscle cells and endothelial cells. Secondly, paracrine secretion of survival and angiogenic factors may also contribute to reported improvement of cardiac function and comparable with MSC.^{30, 35, 36} Moreover, these factors could also act as survival factors working directly on constituting cells of the myocardium or perhaps mobilizing resident CSC involved in repair mechanisms. Till now, endomyocardial biopsies or atrial samples are necessary to obtain CSC which could lead to complications as bleeding, arrhythmias or tamponade in patients.

In summary, CSC can be identified through various surface markers. Some of the isolated CSC populations were shown to differentiate only *in vitro* but some did differentiate *in vivo* into mature cardiomyocytes as well. Whether the *in vivo* differentiation is efficient enough to be interpreted as true myocardial differentiation and if this can be used for complete or partial regeneration remains to be established.

Clinical trials with stem cells for ischemic heart disease

Since 2001 clinical trials were initiated to investigate the safety and efficacy of cardiac cell therapy in patients. Till now, about 29 randomized studies were conducted in patients with acute MI and 12 studies in patients with chronic ischemic cardiomyopathy, all with mixed results (Table 1). Most studies used unfractionated BMMNC and injected cells via intracoronary infusion. Small phase I-II clinical trials demonstrated a positive effect of 6-9% in EF due to a reduction in left ventricle (LV) volumes and improved myocardial perfusion at short-term follow-up.³⁷⁻³⁹

These results were confirmed by the REPAIR-AMI trial.⁴⁰ Later, Janssens et al. observed a positive but non-significant effect on EF⁴¹. Although promising, results from the ASTAMI (n=97), HEBE (n=200) and REGENT (n=200) trial showed no or even a negative effect on EF.^{42 43 44} Nevertheless, three published meta-analysis showed that cell therapy overall was safe and led to an improvement of 3% on LV EF.^{6, 45, 46} Interestingly, a recent published meta-analysis including 50 studies, enrolling a total of 2625 patients, reported that the effect on EF persists over long-term and led to a significant reduction in all cause mortality compared to placebo treated patients.⁴⁷ However, these trials were not designed to assess mortality as primary outcome. A new starting trial, supported by FP7 European grant, called the BMMNC on all cause mortality in acute MI study (BAMI trial), will address this issue.⁴⁸ This randomized and multicenter trial will enrol 3000 patients with reduced EF $\leq 45\%$ after successful reperfusion for acute MI. Autologous BMMNC will be infused via intracoronary delivery and results will be compared to a placebo group receiving standard medical care.

In 2004, Chen et al. performed intracoronary infusions of MSC in 69 patients after acute MI and showed a significant improvement in LV function.⁴⁹ However, more randomized studies confirming these results are warranted.

Recently, two types of CSC have been used in patients namely cardiosphere-derived cells and c-kit+ CSC.^{50, 51} Initial results were encouraging but safety issues are still present because of the small trial size and absence of long-term results.

Challenges in cardiac cell therapy

Since 1980 cardiac cell therapy started to evolve via *in vitro* and animal studies⁵² which led to the initiation of clinical trials.^{39, 47} It is debatable whether we had enough basic knowledge to treat patients on the start of these studies. Fact is that since a decade about 2600 patients were included in clinical stem cell trials to

| Author | Year | Number of patients | Delivery method | Follow-up (months) | Cell type | Time to transplantation | Imaging modality | Change in LVEF stem cells vs. control |
|---------------------------|------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Acute MI | | | | | | | | |
| Cao ⁶⁰ | 2009 | 86 | IC | 48 | BMMNC | 7d | Echo | 3.6 |
| Chen ⁴⁹ | 2004 | 69 | IC | 6 | MSC | 18d | LV | 12.0 |
| Colombo ⁶¹ | 2011 | 10 | IC | 12 | CD-133 ⁺ | 10-14d | angiography Echo | 3.8 |
| Ge ⁶² | 2006 | 20 | IC | 6 | BMMNC | 1d | Echo | 6.7 |
| Grajek ⁶³ | 2010 | 45 | IC | 12 | BMMNC | 5-6d | Echo | 3.1 |
| Herbots ⁶⁴ | 2009 | 67 | IC | 4 | BMMNC | <1d | Echo | -1.5 |
| Hirsch ⁴² | 2011 | 200 | IC | 4 | BMMNC/ PBMNC | 3-8d | MRI | -0.2/0.2 |
| Huikuri ⁶⁵ | 2008 | 80 | IC | 6 | BMMNC | 2-6d | Echo | 5.4 |
| Janssens ⁴¹ | 2006 | 67 | IC | 4 | BMMNC | 1-2d | MRI | 1.2 |
| Kang ⁶⁶ | 2006 | 50 | IC | 6 | PBCS | 7d | MRI | 5.2 |
| Liptec ⁶⁷ | 2009 | 36 | IC | 6 | BMMNC | 3-10d | SPECT | -0.8 |
| Lunde ⁴⁴ | 2006 | 100 | IC | 6 | BMMNC | 6d | SPECT | 1.1 |
| Marban ⁵¹ | 2012 | 31 | IC | 6 | CDC | 14-28d | MRI | 0 |
| Meluzin ⁶⁸ | 2006 | 66 | IC | 3 | BMMNC | 7d | SPECT | 1.0 |
| Meyer ³⁸ | 2006 | 60 | IC | 6 | BMC | 5d | MRI | 2.0 |
| Nogueira ⁶⁹ | 2009 | 20 | IC | 6 | BMMNC | 5.5d | Echo | 2.8 |
| Penicka ⁷⁰ | 2007 | 27 | IC | 4 | BMMNC | 4-11d | Echo | -5.1 |
| Piepoli ⁷¹ | 2010 | 38 | IC | 12 | BMMNC | 4-7d | SPECT | 6.0 |
| Plewka ⁷² | 2010 | 56 | IC | 6 | BMMNC | 7d | Echo | 4.0 |
| Quyuyumi ⁷³ | 2011 | 31 | IC | 6 | CD34 ⁺ | 8d | MRI | 1.5 |
| Ruan ⁷⁴ | 2005 | 20 | IC | 6 | BMC | 1d | Echo | 9.2 |
| Schachinger ⁴⁰ | 2006 | 187 | IC | 4 | BMMNC | 4d | LV | 2.5 |

| Author | Year | Number of patients | Delivery method | Follow-up (months) | Cell type | Time to transplantation | Imaging modality | Change in LVEF stem cells vs. control |
|------------------------------|------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|-----------|-------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Schachinger ⁴⁰ | 2006 | 187 | IC | 4 | BMMNC | 4d | LV | 2.5 |
| Silva ⁷⁵ | 2009 | 30 | IC | 6 | BMMNC | 5.5d | angiography RNV | 5.0 |
| Suarez de Lezo ⁷⁶ | 2007 | 20 | IC | 3 | BMMNC | 7d | LV | 15.0 |
| Tendera ⁴³ | 2009 | 200 | IC | 6 | BMC | 7d | angiography MRI | 3.0 |
| Traverse ⁷⁷ | 2010 | 40 | IC | 6 | BMMNC | 3-10d | MRI | -3.2 |
| Traverse ⁷⁸ | 2011 | 87 | IC | 6 | BMC | 14-21d | MRI | -3.1 |
| Turan ⁷⁹ | 2011 | 62 | IC | 12 | BMC | 7d | LV | 10.0 |
| Wohrle ⁸⁰ | 2010 | 42 | IC | 6 | BMMNC | 6d | angiography MRI | -3.9 |
| Chronic MI | | | | | | | | |
| Ang ⁸¹ | 2008 | 25 | IM or IC | 6 | BMMNC | >6 wk | MRI | 1.5 |
| Assmus ⁸² | 2006 | 92 | IC | 3 | BMMNC | 2470d | LV | 4.1 |
| Bolli ⁵⁰ | 2011 | 23 | IC | 4 | CSC | 113d | angiography Echo/MRI | 8.1 |
| Ehbs ⁸³ | 2005 | 26 | IC | 3 | CPC | 10d | MRI | 7.2 |
| Hendrikx ⁸⁴ | 2006 | 20 | IM | 4 | BMMNC | 217d | MRI | 2.5 |
| Kang ⁶⁶ | 2006 | 32 | IC | 6 | PBCS | 517d | MRI | -0.2 |
| Perin ⁸⁵ | 2012 | 193 | IM | 6 | BMMNC | | SPECT | 2.7 |
| Pokushalov ⁸⁶ | 2010 | 109 | IM | 12 | BMMNC | 9-8y | Echo | 6.1 |
| Ramshorst ⁸⁷ | 2009 | 50 | IM | 3 | BMMNC | 6m | MRI | 4.0 |
| Tse ⁸⁸ | 2007 | 28 | IM | 6 | BMMNC | NA | MRI | 4.1 |
| Yao ⁸⁹ | 2008 | 47 | IC | 6 | BMMNC | repeated | MRI | 0.8 |
| Zhao ⁹⁰ | 2008 | 36 | IM | 6 | BMMNC | NA | Echo | 9.4 |

Legend: BMC bone marrow cells; BMMNC bone marrow mononuclear cells; CDC cardiosphere-derived cells; CPC circulating progenitor cells; CSC ckit positive cardiac stem cells; Echo echocardiography; PBCS peripheral blood mononuclear cells; IC intracoronary; IM intramyocardial; LVEF left ventricular ejection fraction (change in LVEF compared to control); MI myocardial infarction; MRI magnetic resonance imaging; NA not applicable; SPECT single photon emission computed tomography; RNV radionuclide ventriculography.

receive either stem cells or placebo treatment into the myocardium. These clinical studies have learned us a lot about the possibilities and impossibilities of cell therapy. However, they also pointed out that there are still some unresolved issues regarding cardiac cell therapy as also outlined by the ESC task force on stem cells and repair of the heart⁵³:

- What is the best cell type for cardiac cell therapy?
- What is the optimal time-point to inject stem cells into the heart?
- What is the underlying mechanisms leading to the observed beneficial effect?
- What is the optimal delivery strategy?

Addressing these issues may further improve the clinical benefit of cell therapy, which is the major goal of this thesis.

Outline of this thesis

Irrespective of the chosen regenerative strategy, it is essential to deliver sufficient number of cells or amount of compounds to the infarcted myocardium to become effective which is important since low survival and retention of therapeutic cells after transplantation have been reported.^{54, 55} This thesis focuses on optimization of cardiac cell delivery in chronic dysfunctional myocardium by thorough analysis of current literature, clinically available transplantation techniques and state-of-the-art imaging modalities. **Chapter 2** provides an overview of the various cell tracking and non-surgical cell delivery techniques, which are highly important in view of experimental and clinical studies. Pre-clinical studies are essential to address safety and efficacy of new experimental therapies before advancing to the clinical arena, but a major unanswered question is if large animal models can accurately predict human clinical cell transplantation outcome? **In Chapter 3**, a meta-analysis of available pre-clinical studies for stem cell therapy in ischemic heart disease was performed to generate new insights for future human and pre-clinical trials. Based on the results of **Chapter 2 and 3**, we concluded that there was no consensus on the most optimal delivery strategy in chronic ischemic cardiomyopathy. To address this issue, a randomized study with blinded endpoint analysis was performed in a large animal model thereby comparing surgical, intracoronary, and transendocardial cell delivery. The results are presented in **Chapter 4**. Bone marrow cells have been well studied in both clinical and experimental studies as described earlier. However, no consensus exists regarding the optimal cell type. In addition, a decline of the positive effect of injected bone marrow cells over time has been reported⁵⁶, possibly due to low cell survival rates in the ischemic environment. To overcome this problem, we performed a direct comparison on functional endpoints between MSC and BMMNC

including long-term effects and a strategy of repeated cell injections (**Chapter 5**). Ejection fraction and parameters of regional function (e.g. strain) are closely related to prognosis in patients after acute MI.^{57, 58} However, in cardiac cell transplantation studies, EF was mainly used as a parameter to assess the effect of cell therapy, thereby not able to detect changes in regional function.⁵⁹ These changes can be observed by deformation imaging using echocardiography to assess strain. However, this technique is hampered by confounding factors, low spatial and temporal resolution. In **Chapter 6**, a novel echocardiographic technique was tested in a large animal model of ischemia and reperfusion injury, using layer specific radiofrequency myocardial deformation measurements. This technique may be helpful to unravel the underlying mechanism of cell therapy and further optimize current delivery techniques. **Chapter 7** concludes this thesis providing a general discussion and summary together with their future implications and recommendations.

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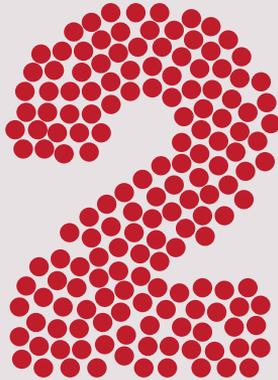
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NON-SURGICAL STEM CELL DELIVERY STRATEGIES AND IN VIVO CELL TRACKING TO INJURED MYOCARDIUM.

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ABSTRACT

Heart failure is a major economic and public health problem. Despite the recent advances in drug therapy and coronary revascularization, the lost cardiomyocytes due to necrosis and apoptosis are not replaced by new myocardial tissue. Cell therapy is an interesting therapeutic option as it potentially improves contractility and restores regional ventricular function. Early clinical data demonstrated that cell transplantation, mainly delivered through non-surgical methods, is safe and feasible. However, several important issues need to be elucidated. This includes, next to determining the best cell type, the optimal delivery strategy, the biodistribution and the survival of implanted stem cells after transplantation. In this view, pre-clinical animal experiments are indispensable. Reporter genes, magnetic or radioactive labeling of stem cells have been developed to observe the fate and the distribution of transplanted cells using non-invasive imaging techniques. Several studies have demonstrated that these direct and non-direct labeling techniques may become an important tool in cell therapy. Integration of cell delivery and cell tracking will probably be a key for the success of cell therapy in patients. This review will provide a comprehensive overview on the various cell tracking and non-surgical cell delivery techniques, which are highly important in view of experimental and clinical studies.

INTRODUCTION

Coronary heart disease is a major public and economic health problem leading to more than 7 million deaths world wide each year.^{1, 2} Optimal pharmacologic treatment and coronary reperfusion therapy have led to improved survival of patients with coronary artery disease. Clearly, current therapies can not replace dysfunctional or lost cardiomyocytes which finally lead to heart failure. A structural solution may be provided by cell therapy which has emerged as a potential new therapeutic strategy. Cell therapy is considered in the setting of acute myocardial infarction (MI) and chronic ischemic heart failure. The ultimate goals of cell therapy are myocardial regeneration and revascularization, thereby re-establishing synchronous contractility and bioelectrical conductivity to achieve overall clinical improvement of cardiac function without severe adverse effects. Transplantation strategies include percutaneous, surgical and systemic delivery of various types of stem cells.³⁻⁷ To monitor the efficiency of implanted stem cells, most small animal studies use post mortem histology as a gold standard.^{8, 9} For *in vivo* detection of cell retention, sophisticated imaging techniques are necessary. Additionally, non-invasive imaging is preferred to determine the effect of cell therapy on cardiac function (e.g. volume, mass and pressure). Nowadays it is possible to track and quantify transplanted stem cells by direct and non-direct labeling techniques using (1) nuclear imaging (positron emission tomography (PET) or single photon emission computer tomography (SPECT)) and (2) magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). Various clinically approved radiomarkers are suggested to be useful in cardiac cellular therapies like ¹⁸F-fluorodeoxyglucose (¹⁸F-FDG) for PET scan, indium ¹¹¹ (In ¹¹¹) for SPECT and superparamagnetic iron oxide (SPIO) for MRI.¹⁰⁻¹²

It is important to further optimize delivery strategies in view of ongoing (pre-) clinical studies for regenerative therapy. To this end, state-of-the-art cell tracking is highly necessary. This review will provide a robust update of available *in vivo* cell tracking strategies and non-surgical delivery techniques that will guide experimental set up of pre-clinical stem cell research.

Part 1: *in vivo* cell tracking strategies

In the following section the contrast agents and detectors that have been proposed for non-invasive cell tracking will be discussed. Thereafter, we will review the advantages and disadvantages of each imaging strategy and suggest future directions for research. Figure 1 and Table 1 will provide an overview of all available direct and non-direct labeling techniques.

MRI

For MRI, Gadolinium- and iron-based contrast agents can be used for direct labeling of stem cells. Gadolinium is bio-incompatible, cytotoxic in unchelated form and has a low relaxivity; therefore it is an unattractive agent for stem cell imaging. However,

novel Gadolinium-based particles are being investigated for this purpose, albeit not yet in the heart.¹³

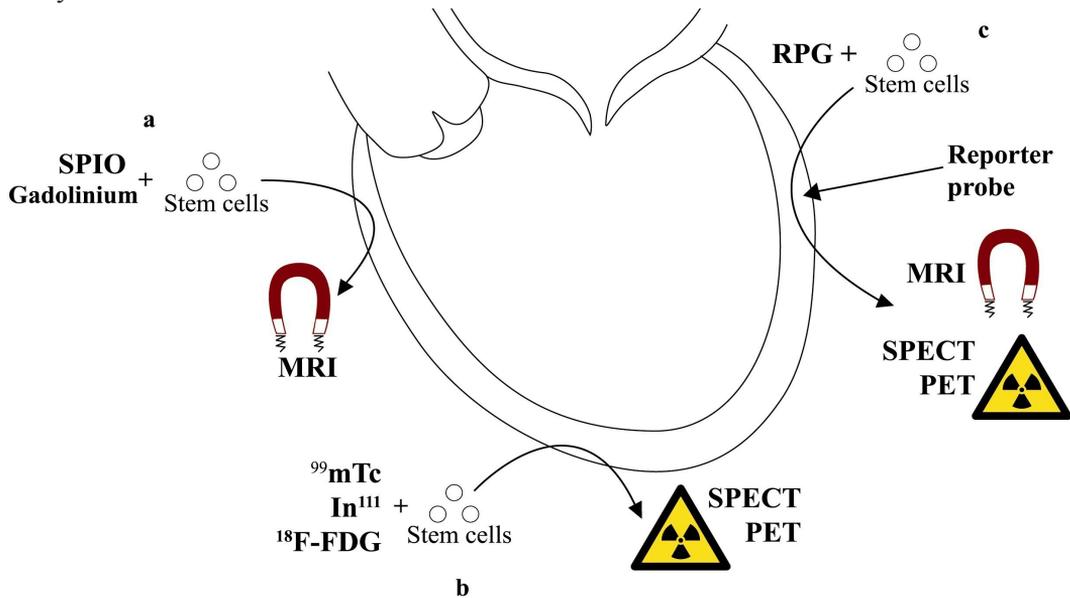


Figure 1. Different methods for non-invasive cell tracking.

(a) MRI= magnetic resonance imaging; SPIO= super paramagnetic iron oxide; (b) SPECT= single photon emission computer tomography; indium 111= In 111; ⁹⁹Tc= ⁹⁹Technetium; PET= positron emission tomography; ¹⁸F-FDG = ¹⁸F-fluorodeoxyglucose; (c) RPG=reporter gene.

| Method | Label | Advantages | Disadvantages |
|----------------------------|-------------------------|---|---|
| Direct labeling | | | |
| MRI | • Gadolinium | • Simple method | • Bio-incompatible, • Cytotoxic in unchelated form • Low relaxivity |
| | • SPIO | • Biocompatible • Cell friendly • High resolution • Stem cell imaging and anatomical function can be assessed simultaneously | • Long incubation time for labeling • Dilution of the contrast • Signal may not reflect living cells • Not suitable for patients with intracardiac defibrillator or pacemaker |
| SPECT | • In ¹¹¹ | • High sensitivity • Stem cell imaging and perfusion can be assessed simultaneously | • Radiation exposure to patients and neighbouring cells • Low cellular retention • Possible effect of radioactivity on transplanted cells • Signal may not reflect living cells. • Signal loss due to radioactive decay |
| | • ⁹⁹ Tc | | |
| PET | • ¹⁸ F-FDG | • High spatial resolution • No cytotoxicity • Stem cell imaging and myocardial vitality can be assessed simultaneously | • Radiation exposure to patients • Signal may not reflect living cells. • Signal loss due to radioactive decay |
| Non-direct labeling | | | |
| RPG | • Reporter genes/probes | • Detection of viable cells • Observation of cell differentiation | • Cellular dysfunction or death • Immunogenicity of gene products • Potential risk of uncontrolled growth and malignancy • Costs |

Table 1. Methods of direct and non-direct stem cell tracking.

MRI= magnetic resonance imaging; SPIO= super paramagnetic iron oxide; SPECT= single photon emission computer tomography; In111= indium111; ⁹⁹Tc= ⁹⁹technetium; PET= positron emission tomography; ¹⁸F-FDG=¹⁸F-fluorodeoxyglucose; RPG=reporter gene.

In 1996, SPIO's (30-200 nm) were approved as iron-based contrast agents for clinical use by the US Food and Drug Administration (Feridex, Guerbet, France). SPIO's are composed of an iron oxide core that is coated with a polymer shell to prevent aggregation. The polymer may contain dextran, polyethylene glycol or starch. The iron is biocompatible and can be recycled by cells using regular biochemical pathways. Labeling of targeted cells is accomplished by endocytosis. In addition, efficiency can be improved by using peptides/antibodies¹⁴, magnetodendrimers¹⁵ or transfection agents.¹⁶ Labeled cells appeared to be hypo intense in T2*- and T2- weighted images. Numerous studies have shown that mesenchymal stem cells (MSC) can be labeled without affecting *in vitro* cell viability, proliferation and differentiation into adipogenic and osteogenic lineages by iron contrast agents.^{10, 16, 17} Recently, pre-clinical studies were able to detect a minimum of about 10⁵ pig MSC using different sized iron particles with a conventional cardiac MRI.^{10, 12} Figure 3 shows an example of cell tracking by cardiac MRI using SPIO labeled MSC from our own laboratory. Detection of stem cells mainly depends on (1) magnetic field strength, (2) number of cells injected, (3) labeling efficiency and (4) cell size.

A practical drawback of iron-based contrast agents is that labeling is not permanent and self-replicable. Dilution of the contrast due to cellular fragmentation, fusion, division and migration also limits the use for follow-up after cell delivery. Also, variation in labeling efficiency among different cell types is present. For instance, SPIO-registered MR signals are still detectable in embryonic stem cells¹⁸ 5 weeks after transplantation and 4-16 weeks for skeletal myoblasts¹⁹ and MSC in murine models²⁰, respectively. Very little is known about the long-term survival after cell delivery in both pre-clinical models and humans. Furthermore, iron particles may still remain *in situ* and can be taken up by phagocytotic cells (e.g. cardiac macrophages) after cellular death²¹. Thus, MRI signal is still present leading to overestimation of the outcome of cellular survival ('false positive' results). Another potential drawback is negative image contrast artifacts due to air or hemorrhage after cell injection. Finally, patients with an intracardiac defibrillator or pacemaker are no candidates for MRI.

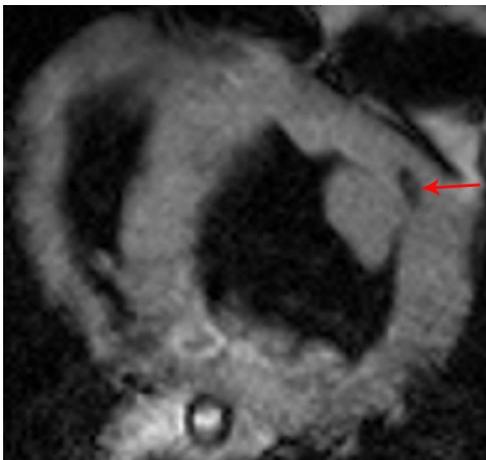


Figure 3. T2* image of SPIO labeled MSC (red arrow) after transepical injection in healthy myocardium.

MRI has become an appropriate imaging modality for stem cell tracking and therapeutic efficacy, without ionic radiation, high spatial resolution and detailed anatomical function. Nevertheless, at present this method is only useful for establishing initial retention of cells as it provides little evidence for long-term viability or functionality of transplanted cells. None of the MRI contrast agents have been used in the clinical field to monitor cellular survival. More information about long-term cell tracking and effects on cell behavior (e.g. differentiation and proliferation) in large animal studies is mandatory before applying this technique to clinical stem cell trials.

SPECT

Several radioisotopes are available for stem cell tracking in the heart, Technetium (^{99}Tc) ($T_{1/2}$ 6 hours) and In^{111} ($T_{1/2}$ 2.6 days). Labeling is based on established clinical protocols for white blood cells and performed by chelating agents that carry the radionuclides into the cell. Radioactivity is measured by a Gamma camera composing a 3D image.

In vitro studies have shown that cell integrity of both human and canine MSC, and endothelial progenitor cells (EPC) were unaffected after In^{111} labeling with 0, 14-30 Bequerel per cell.²²⁻²⁴ However, radiation induced cell damage was found after labeling hematopoietic progenitor cells (HPC) with In^{111} .^{25,26} In addition, low cellular retention after labeling was observed in all cell types.²⁶⁻²⁸ Penicka et al. observed high retention of ^{99}Tc inside bone marrow mononuclear cells (BM-MNC) and no altered proliferation pattern after labeling²⁹. Cell viability of MSC was also not influenced by ^{99}Tc .³⁰ The effect on cell differentiation was not determined in these studies. The use of SPECT is accompanied by a low detection threshold of about 10^4 cells²⁴ and therefore it is an attractive tool to determine *in vivo* biodistribution.

Both isotopes have been studied in various large animal models to determine cellular homing after surgical, intramyocardial (IM) and intravenous (IV) delivery.^{12, 27, 31, 32} It was shown that a low number of cells accumulate in the heart after injection. However, when injecting cells into healthy myocardium 1/3 of the total radioactivity was still located in the heart.³³ Figure 4 shows a typical example of cellular retention of radioactive labeled stem cells after surgical injection in one of our experiments. Zhou and colleagues showed that it is possible to simultaneously assess stem cell imaging and perfusion in a rat model using dual isotope SPECT by combining both In^{111} (for cell imaging) and ^{99}Tc (for perfusion study).³⁴ This interesting finding should be confirmed in a pre-clinical model.

In humans, SPECT was employed to study the kinetics of ^{99}Tc or In^{111} labeled progenitor cells after intracoronary (IC) delivery in a small number of patients with ischemic heart disease. In general, low retention rates of progenitor cells (<10%) to the infarcted myocardium were found 1-2 hours after injection.^{29, 35, 36} Signal loss due to reduction in activity also limits the use of radioisotopes for long-term follow-up.

SPECT is an attractive approach to determine delivery efficiency. In table 3, all studies on cell delivery efficiency are summarized per strategy. Animal studies have shown that SPECT imaging is a promising tool to visualize *in vivo* migration patterns and to assess functional effects of transplanted stem cells. However, the negative effect of radioisotopes on cell behavior (e.g. radiation induced cell damage, possible reduced differentiation rates) can not be neglected in view of clinical use.

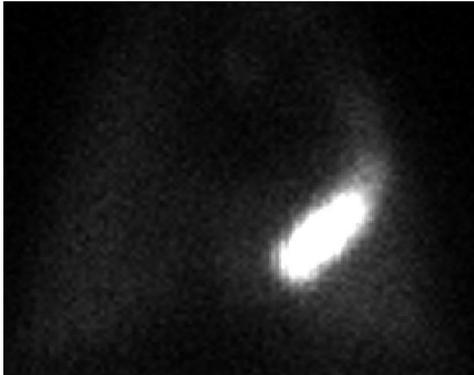


Figure 4. SPECT image of indium ¹¹¹ labeled MSC in the heart after surgical injection in the left ventricle wall in a healthy porcine model.

PET

Positron emission tomography is a well known method to determine myocardial viability and perfusion by injecting ¹⁸F-FDG. It is possible to label stem cells with ¹⁸F-FDG to monitor homing and biodistribution (see table 3). No cytotoxicity, or impaired stem cell differentiation were documented after ¹⁸F-FDG labeling. This could be due to the radioactive properties of ¹⁸F-FDG, that emits a long range beta particle and thereby prevents radiation injury inside the cell. Although PET imaging offers high spatial resolution, the short half lifetime remains an obstacle for long-term cell tracking.

In a porcine MI model, dynamic cell tracking of percutaneous implemented ¹⁸F-FDG labeled circulating progenitors cells was demonstrated: only 8-18 % of myocardial activity was retained one hour after IC delivery.³⁷ Similar results were obtained when autologous BM-MNC's were infused to the heart.³⁸ In addition, ¹⁸F-FDG was used to label and determine myocardial homing and biodistribution of BM-MNC after IC and IV delivery in post-acute MI patients. Low amount of BM-MNC activity was detected in the infarcted myocardium after injection (less than 3%).¹¹ Both studies demonstrate the importance of metabolic myocardial imaging to determine cellular survival and a potential effect on scar tissue. However, larger (pre) clinical randomized studies on this topic are required to establish early and late biodistribution after cell delivery. Furthermore, a metabolic isotope with a longer half lifetime is necessary for chronic cell tracking.

Reporter Genes

To solve limitations in traditional cardiovascular imaging (i.e. false positive findings after cell death and cell toxicity), reporter genes (RPG) may be an attractive alternative. In short, a genetically engineered gene (the RPG) is incorporated into the genome of a cell prior to transplantation. The gene product should only be expressed by engrafted and still viable cells. Next, cells can be visualized after IV injection of an imaging tracer that targets the gene product. By its presence, the survival of the graft is certain because expression of the RPG and activity of the gene product depends on the viability of transplanted cells. Enzyme, transport and receptor based gene products are available for molecular imaging.

This strategy is particular well suited to overcome dilution effects which ensure long-term serial imaging of living transplanted stem cells. Also, repetitive imaging is possible and does not depend on decay of the radioisotope. Potential disadvantages include (1) costs, (2) cellular dysfunction or death, (3) immunogenicity of gene products, (4) potential risk of uncontrolled growth and malignancy; these aspects preclude clinical application in patients at this time. Several RPG's (transferrin receptor (TR), herpes simplex virus type 1 thymidine kinase (HSV1) and human sodium/iodide symporter) have been developed for non-invasive imaging in living animals.³⁹⁻⁴¹ The transferrin receptor has been proposed as a RPG for MRI.⁴² High expression of TR on the cell membrane leads to increased iron uptake that is detectable by MRI and does not depend on intracellular iron concentration. Moreover, detection may be improved by covalent binding with iron nanoparticles⁴². However, accumulation of iron may lead to high levels of intracellular iron and diminished cellular function. Furthermore, not much is known about efficacy and safety of TR in large animal models and humans.

Herpes simplex virus type 1 thymidine kinase is being used for nuclear imaging⁴⁰. Radioisotopes analogous to thymidine and guanosine are used as tracers. After metabolizing, the substrate is trapped intracellularly. Free radioactivity is detectable by PET or SPECT. In 2003, feasibility was tested to monitor survival of cardiomyoblasts after IM delivery using HSV1 thymidine kinase RPG. It was shown that optical imaging was more sensitive for detecting cardiomyoblasts (5×10^5) than PET (3×10^6).^{40, 43} Furthermore, HSV1 thymidine kinase can be transduced in human MSC and visualized in a clinical relevant swine model with healthy myocardium.⁴⁴ In 2008, Gyöngyösi and colleagues demonstrated the feasibility of PET and optical imaging of the stable expressed of the trifusion gene protein (luciferase) for *in vivo* non-invasive tracking of IM injected MSC in a relevant animal model with survival up to 10 days after injection.⁴⁵ Data on HSV1 thymidine kinase and long-term follow-up are currently no available.

Human sodium/iodide symporter controls the membrane conductance of sodium and iodine. It is mainly expressed in the thyroid gland, and it is absent in cardiac cells.⁴⁶ Therefore, isotopes for both PET and gamma camera can be used to image

cells that express this gene. More detailed information about the effect of sodium influx on cardiomyocytes is required before entering the clinical field.

So far, the available data is limited to reveal the role of RPG in cellular tracking. Up till now, just one study attempted to initiate RPG imaging in an ischemic large animal model. Before human administration, a safe and stable RPG with no effect on cell behavior has to be developed. In parallel, optimal detection signal and more efficient delivery routes have to be established. Nevertheless, in our view RPG is a promising concept for reliable cell tracking with respect to pre-clinical studies that address optimal cell delivery strategies and chronic long-term follow-up.

Comparison of imaging techniques

At present, various direct and non-direct labeling strategies have been investigated for in vivo cell tracking. No technique has emerged as the most optimal tracking method. Fate and biodistribution after IV delivery by colabeling allogenic MSC with In¹¹¹ and SPIO was observed. Migration of low amount of cells to the heart could be detected by SPECT, but not by MRI.¹² A combined approach using SPECT and cardiac MRI was used to determine function and precise visualization of In¹¹¹ labeled stem cells in an ischemic rat model.⁴⁷ Simultaneous detection of stem cells and imaging of both perfusion deficit and myocardial function of the ischemic area was done by signal coregistration. Bioluminescence firefly luciferase RPG was more accurate compared to SPIO for long-term cell survival using optical and magnetic imaging.⁴⁸

In patients, imaging is mainly performed to determine the effect of cell therapy on myocardial function and perfusion. To the best of our knowledge, no direct clinical comparison between imaging techniques has been performed to observe homing and distribution of transplanted human stem cells.

In summary, nuclear imaging is more sensitive than MRI for short-term cell tracking. For high spatial resolution and evaluation of cardiac function MRI is more appropriate. In case of long-term follow-up, iron particles and RPG can play an important role. In our view, a multimodality approach using both magnetic and nuclear radioagents in combination with RPG would provide a solution to current limitations in cell tracking in the near future.

Part 2: Non-surgical methods of cell delivery

The main objective of various cell delivery methods is to inject sufficient number of cells into the myocardium and to keep maximum retention of cells within the area of interest. A summary of the different cell delivery routes in clinical and pre-clinical setting will be provided (Figure 2 and Table 2) and also directions for future research are discussed.

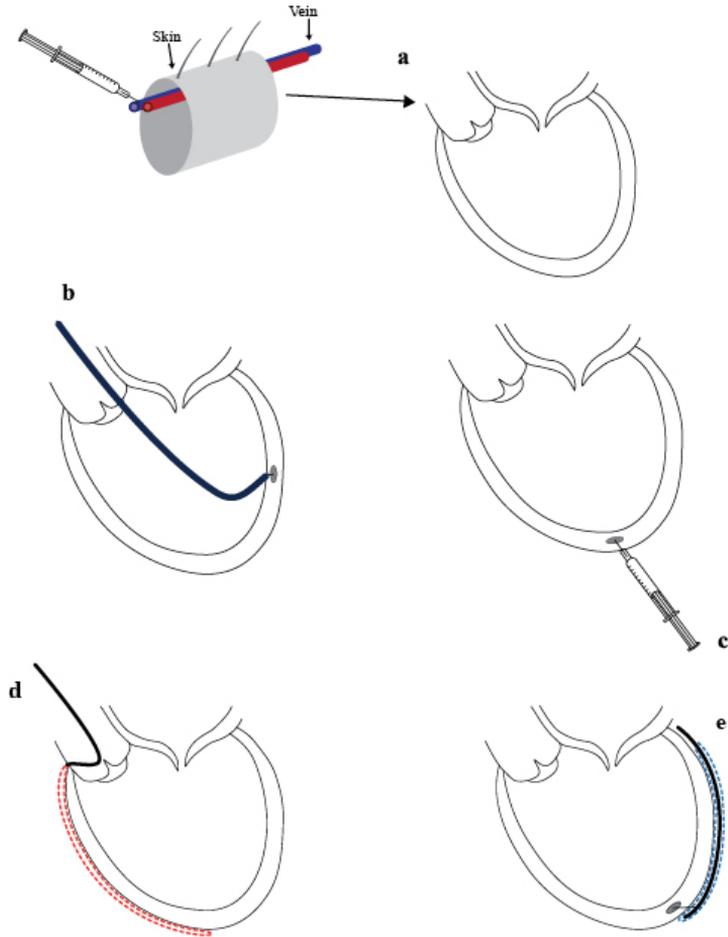


Figure 2. Schematic overview of the different delivery techniques to the injured myocardium.
Legend: (a) Intravenous infusion (b) Trans-endocardial delivery (c) Surgical delivery (d) Intracoronary infusion (e) Retrograde coronary transvenous injection

| Method | Advantages | Disadvantages |
|---|--|---|
| Intracoronary delivery | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct infusion infarct related or contralateral coronary artery • Well known technique by cardiologists | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In-stent restenosis • No access to occluded coronary artery • Embolisation of microvessels, leading to (micro) infarction • Intima dissection • Vascular access complications • Systemic delivery to non-cardiac tissues |
| Catheterized peripheral vein delivery | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-invasive and easy method • Allows intermittent cell infusion | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Microembolism • Low cellular migration and differentiation • Low delivery efficiency |
| Trans-endocardial injection | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cell delivery in occluded areas • Implementation of high cell concentration in the ischemic region • Assess non-viable myocardium before transplantation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires training; lengthen time of procedure • Expensive method • Risk of myocardial perforation • Arrhythmias • Vascular access complications |
| Retrograde coronary transvenous injection | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low costs • May enter thinned myocardium due its co-axial injection technique | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May cause irreversible damage to venous wall • Perforation of the vein • Only access to the anterior wall along the vein • Technical difficult procedure • Vascular access complications |

Table 2. Advantages and disadvantages of stem cell delivery methods.

Intracoronary delivery

During routine cardiac catheterization, IC delivery is performed through the central lumen of an over-wire balloon catheter that is advanced into the coronary artery of interest. By using transient balloon inflations, the duration of cell delivery is maximized, leading to migration of the delivered cells to the infarct related area. A major advantage of IC delivery is direct infusion into the target area using infarct related or a contralateral artery.

Based on animal and patient studies Strauer et al. looked for a non-surgical method for autologous cell therapy.^{7,49} In 2002, IC infusion of autologous BM-MNC appeared to be promising method for cell delivery in ten patients with acute MI.⁵⁰ Since then, a number of clinical trials have been conducted.⁵¹⁻⁶⁰ These studies showed that IC infusion was a safe delivery strategy and associated with a modest increase in myocardial function in patients with ischemic heart disease. Nevertheless, 5-year follow-up data of cell therapy demonstrated no significant improvement in left ventricle ejection fraction (EF) compared to placebo.^{61, 62} In 31 clinical studies performed sofar, 22 used IC infusion as delivery strategy in approximately 1200 patients, despite unresolved issues regarding this transplantation technique.⁶³

Important drawbacks of IC delivery are known, including the impossibility to access to the area of interest in patients with chronic occlusion. Other potential disadvantages of IC delivery of cells include intimal dissection^{64, 65}, embolization of these cells from the site of injection to the microvasculature in the heart leading to micro infarctions⁶⁶ or abdominal region⁶⁷ and in-stent restenosis due to transient

balloon inflation.⁶⁸ Finally, imprecise localization and systemic delivery to non-cardiac tissues are limitations of IC therapy.⁶⁹ This can be explained by inadequate cellular migration into the myocardium during the first transit of coronary reperfusion causing a considerable loss of cells to the systemic circulation. A large portion of these cells are found in non-cardiac tissues, like lungs and liver.^{69, 70} It has been shown that approximately 2% of the infused non-enriched BM-MNC home to the target area of cardiac injury in humans¹¹. However, a higher retention (14-39%) in the infarcted myocardium was observed when using enriched BM-MNC.¹¹ This effect may be caused by differences in injected cell numbers. Notably, most clinical trials used non-enriched BM-MNC.

Many cell types have been used to treat MI using IC delivery in the (semi) acute setting. Although initial results were positive, low delivery efficiency remains an obstacle for clinical application. In general, this technique can not be used in chronic ischemic heart failure patients with occluded arteries. In addition, most studies related to IC infusion are small and lack of long-term follow-up data. In the future, research should focus on larger, blinded, randomized trials in MI patients with long-term follow-up to investigate the immediate and sustained effect of IC delivery.

Catheterized peripheral vein delivery

Cell delivery can be achieved by direct IV infusion of cells into a catheterized peripheral vein. Although it is an easy and safe method for cell delivery^{3, 4}, non-cardiac uptake of stem cells after systemic delivery remains a major obstacle for clinical application.^{27, 70, 71} Moreover, several studies have shown that no (0% of injected) cells retained in the heart (see Table 3). Additionally, the occurrence of microembolism in non-cardiac organs due to cellular entrapment of cell types with large diameter (e.g. skelet myoblasts or MSC) is an important drawback.

In our view, this technique is currently obsolete for clinical cardiac stem cell therapy. In case of future specific cardiac targeting of stem cells for optimal homing and engraftment, this technique can possibly re-enter the research arena.

Intramyocardial delivery

Nowadays, percutaneous injection of cells for cardiac repair directly into the injured myocardium is possible. Two delivery techniques are available for percutaneous IM injections: trans-endocardial injection (TE) and retrograde coronary transvenous (RCV) injection.

Trans-endocardial injection

Five different IM injection catheters are available for clinical use: Steerjet (MicroHeart)⁷², Stiletto (Boston Scientific SciMed, Natick, MA)^{10, 73}, Bioheart Myocath (Santa Rosa, CA), the Helix needle catheter (being developed) (BioCardia, CA) and Biosense Webster Myostar (Diamond Bar, CA).⁵ All above stated devices

are developed for cell and gene based therapies. In general, IM injection of cells requires extensive fluoroscopic guidance to navigate within the ventricle, which is an important drawback for both patient and operator. To overcome this issue, the Myostar catheter is incorporated into a three dimensional electromechanical mapping system (NOGA). The target area can be determined by identifying viable, hibernating and infarcted myocardium, without the need of fluoroscopic guidance. Therapeutic cells can be injected in the region of interest, that is defined as a 'mismatch' area, i.e. presence of electrical activity in absence of mechanical movement. The use of the NOGA system was generally proven to be safe and feasible in animal studies and clinical trials for cellular^{5, 74} and gene^{75, 76} therapy. Perin et al. evaluated the safety and effect of TE delivered autologous BM-MNC in patients with severe heart failure. They observed an improved regional and global myocardial function compared to controls, without safety issues.⁵ These encouraging results initiated a number of new trials.⁷⁷⁻⁸⁰

Other possible advantages of this technique include: cell delivery in occluded areas and implementation of high cell concentration in the myocardial region of interest. Potential drawbacks of IM delivery are the risk of myocardial perforation due to injection⁸¹. Furthermore, handling of the NOGA system requires technical training, is time consuming and expensive due to the use of a separate mapping and injection catheter. Another major drawback of TE injection is that direct cell injection may alter the gap junction orientation leading to ventricular arrhythmias.⁸² Also, the ischemic environment and needle puncture may lead to a release of inflammatory stimuli which could be a trigger for arrhythmias.⁸³ Cellular retention ranges from 3-54% after TE injection. This wide variety is due to differences in animal model, TE catheter, cell type, imaging method and study design (see Table 3).

Over the past years, TE has rapidly evolved from an experimental technique towards a promising IM delivery technique. In the coming years research should focus on determining the most efficient TE catheter and long-term effects of this strategy.

| Setting / Study design | n | Cell type | Label | Labeling efficiency (%) | Cell viability(%) | Imaging method | Cell injection to detection (time) | Delivery efficiency to the heart (%) | |
|---|--------------------------|-----------|------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|----------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------|
| Intracoronary delivery | | | | | | | | | |
| Hofmann et al. ¹¹ | AMI / Observational | 3 | BM-MNC | ¹⁸ F-FDG | >99 | 92-96 | PET | 55-75 min | 1.3-2.6 |
| Hou et al. ³¹ | AMI / Randomized | 5 | PBMNC | In ¹¹¹ | 66 | N/A | PET | 60 min | 1.6 |
| Freyman et al. ⁷⁰ | AMI / Randomized | 6 | MSC | Iridium particles | N/A | >70 | Histology | 14 days | 6 |
| Doyle et al. ³⁷ | AMI / Observational | 3 | CPC | ¹⁸ F-FDG | >90 | >98 | PET | 60 min | 8.7 |
| Blocket et al. ⁹⁹ | AMI / Observational | 6 | HPC | ¹⁸ F-FDG | 6 | N/A | PET | 60 min | 5.5 |
| Kang et al. ¹⁰⁰ | AMI / Observational | 17 | PBCS | ¹⁸ F-FDG | 72 | N/A | PET | 120 min | 1.5 |
| Schachinger et al. ³⁶ | AMI, OMI / Observational | 17 | CPC | In ¹¹¹ | 10 | 90 | Gamma camera | 60 min | 6.9 |
| Caveliers et al. ³⁵ | OMI / Observational | 2 | PBCS | In ¹¹¹ | 51 | 88 | SPECT | 60 min | 6.9-8 |
| Qian et al. ³⁸ | AMI / Observational | 7 | BM-MNC | ¹⁸ F-FDG | 91 | 97 | PET | 60 min | 6.8 |
| Penicka et al. ²⁹ | AMI, OMI / Observational | 10 | BM-MNC | ⁹⁹ Tc | 90 | 94-99 | SPECT | 120 min | 1-5 |
| Intravenous delivery | | | | | | | | | |
| Hofmann et al. ¹¹ | AMI / Observational | 3 | BM-MNC | ¹⁸ F-FDG | >99 | 92-96 | PET | 50-60 min | 0 |
| Kang et al. ¹⁰⁰ | AMI / Observational | 3 | PBCS | ¹⁸ F-FDG | 72 | N/A | PET | 120 min | 0 |
| Freyman et al. ⁷⁰ | AMI / Randomized | 6 | MSC | Iridium particles | N/A | >70 | Histology | 14 days | 0 |
| Chin et al. ²⁷ | AMI / Observational | 2 | MSC | In ¹¹¹ | 86 | >95 | SPECT | <24 hours | 0 |
| Kupatt et al. ³² | AMI / Observational | 3 | EPC | ⁹⁹ Tc | 45-80 | >80 | SPECT | 60 min | 0.5 |
| Retrograde coronary transvenous delivery | | | | | | | | | |
| Hou et al. ³¹ | AMI / Randomized | 5 | PBMNC | In ¹¹¹ | 66 | N/A | PET | 60 min | 3.2 |
| Kupatt et al. ³² | AMI / Observational | 3 | EPC | ⁹⁹ Tc | 45-80 | >80 | SPECT | 60 min | 2.7 |
| Surgical delivery | | | | | | | | | |
| Mitchell et al. ¹⁰¹ | AMI / Observational | 6 | EPC | In ¹¹¹ | N/A | N/A | SPECT | 40 min | 57 |
| Hou et al. ³¹ | AMI / Randomized | 6 | PBMNC | In ¹¹¹ | 66 | N/A | PET | 60 min | 11 |
| Trans-endocardial delivery | | | | | | | | | |
| Dib et al. ¹⁰² | AMI / Observational | 1 | Skelet myoblasts | Iridium particles | N/A | N/A | Histology | 120 min | 4 |
| Lyngbaek et al. ³³ | Healthy/ Observational | 6 | MSC | In ¹¹¹ | N/A | 96 | Gamma camera | 30 min | 35 |
| Mitchell et al. ¹⁰³ | AMI / Observational | 7 | EPC | In ¹¹¹ | N/A | N/A | SPECT | 40 min | 54 |
| Freyman et al. ⁷⁰ | AMI / Randomized | 6 | MSC | Iridium particles | N/A | >70 | Histology | 14 days | 3 |

Table 3. Comparison of delivery efficiency of unselected stem cells to the heart observed in patient and large animal studies. AMI= acute myocardial infarction; OMI=old myocardial infarction; N= number of animals or patients;SPECT= single positron emission computer tomography; In¹¹¹= indium¹¹¹; ⁹⁹Tc= ⁹⁹technetium; PET= positron emission tomography; ¹⁸F-FDG=¹⁸F-fluorodeoxyglucose; PBSC= peripheral blood stem cells; MSC= mesenchymal stem cell; BM-MNC= bone marrow mononuclear cell; HPC= hematopoietic stem cell; PBMNC= peripheral blood mononuclear cell; CPC= circulating progenitor cell; EPC= endothelial progenitor cell; N/A= not available.

Retrograde coronary transvenous injection

During a routine transvenous catheterization procedure a roadmap coronary venogram will be performed to gain access to all areas of the heart. Of note: no left-sided catheterization procedure is necessary for this technique. A composite catheter (TransAccess, Menlo Park, California) with a nitinol needle will be inserted into the venous wall under intravascular ultrasound, followed by microinfusion of stem cells by an IntraLume (Trans Vascular Inc.) catheter that will penetrate the myocardium under fluoroscopic guidance.⁸⁴ Thompson and colleagues were the first to demonstrate the safety and feasibility of RCV delivery in a non-infarcted swine model.⁸⁴ In addition, retrograde infusion of bone marrow cells induced angiogenesis and improved cardiac function in ischemic pigs compared to controls.⁸⁵ It was shown that RCV is a safe and feasible method for myoblast transplantation in patients 3 months after MI.⁸⁶ The authors also suggested that the RCV catheter rotates better which may improve target accuracy compared to TE injection. Furthermore, RCV is advantageous in cost, time performance thereby preventing cell loss and may enter thinned myocardium (<5mm) due its co-axial injection technique.^{84, 85} However, possible irreversible damage to the venous wall may occur during the injection procedure⁸⁷ and it is technical difficult to implement cells in the coronary venous system. With this technique only access to the anterior wall can be achieved, and only along the veins anatomy. Incorrect position of the needle may cause perforation of the venous wall leading to a pericardial hemorrhage. A small number of studies⁸⁴⁻⁸⁷ have been conducted, but it is still early to draw a conclusion regarding the efficacy of RCV.

Other delivery methods

Cell transplantation into the coronary venous system and the pericardial space has been tested in pre-clinical models and may have promising clinical applications in the future. Local intrapericardial delivery can be achieved by transatrial or subxyphoid access.^{88, 89} Both techniques were well tolerated without apparent complications. However, to our knowledge no studies have investigated cell injections to the injured heart. Moreover, clinical experience with this technique is limited. Only one study has been conducted so far.⁹⁰

Coronary sinus venous infusion is performed by advancing a single or double balloon catheter via the coronary sinus into the area of interest.^{31, 91} Before cell infusion, a detailed anatomical map will be obtained by a coronary sinus venogram. During the procedure infusion pressure should be monitored closely to prevent disruption of the venocappillary system.⁹² Studies have shown that it is feasible to access most myocardial segments through the cardiac venous system.⁹³ Therefore, this technique may be an alternative for patients with a coronary arterial occlusion. Compared to IC delivery brief periods of venous balloon occlusion are unlikely to cause clinical complaints or myocardial ischemia due to the existence of venous

anastomoses.⁹³ The limitations of this approach are similar to RCV injections.

It was demonstrated that coronary venous infusion does not produce hemodynamical changes in a porcine model of myocardial injury. The authors concluded that this strategy was effective because autologous unfractionated bone marrow cells were observed in the myocardium and enhanced angiogenesis.⁹⁴ Later, the same research group conducted a prospective study in 14 patients with chronic stable angina. Autologous cell infusion was safe and tolerable. Significant improvement in myocardial perfusion and EF were observed during follow-up. Coronary angiography showed more collateral vessels in 9/14 patients.⁹⁵ However, these results do not prove efficacy assessed by a randomized trial.

Comparison of delivery techniques

Hou and colleagues assessed cell distribution of human mononuclear cells after surgical, IC and coronary venous delivery in an ischemic swine model. Only 11%, 2.6% and 3.2% were retained in the heart after surgical, IC and venous delivery, respectively.³¹ Although surgical delivery appeared to be the most efficient technique, there was a huge variation in efficiency. The group of Freyman compared allogenic MSC engraftment after IV, IC and IM (Stiletto) delivery in a porcine MI model.⁷⁰ They found that IC delivery was associated with significant higher engraftment rates after 14 days compared to IM and IV. However, decreased coronary bloodflow and greater myocardial injury were observed after IC delivery. This could be due to high cell numbers injected. Perin and colleagues demonstrated that IM injection (using NOGA technology) of autologous MSC significantly improved left ventricle EF and reduced myocardial ischemia in a canine model. Conversely, no change in the IC group was observed.⁹⁶ Another study compared IM and RCV delivery of microspheres and found no significant difference in myocardial retention between these techniques. The authors also suggested that IM injection is superior to RCV in the infarct region, but that RCV is preferred for treatment of the peri-infarct region were to be treated based on differences in target areas of the devices.⁹⁷ Recently, it was demonstrated that RCV injection of BM-MNC is better than IC delivery in view of cell retention and tissue penetration in an acute MI model. However, the study is limited by a very small sample size (n=2 per group).⁹⁸

In summary, several large animal studies showed conflicting results in the efficacy of different transplantation strategies. Notably, the optimal transplantation technique also depends on type of model (acute MI vs chronic heart failure). To provide a definite answer to the most optimal delivery strategy, we believe that a randomized trial in a clinically relevant animal model (porcine) is necessary, using state-of-the-art cell tracking techniques, including determination of biodistribution after the various delivery strategies.

CONCLUSION

Cell based cardiac repair showed beneficial effect on myocardial function in animal experiments. A number of clinical trials have already been conducted, although important unresolved issues concerning cell therapy are present. Interestingly, the most optimal delivery strategy still needs to be determined. Non-invasive imaging plays an essential role in determining biodistribution, survival and functional effects to the heart, that is of importance for several aspects of cell therapy (e.g. delivery strategy, cell type). Imaging parameters like contractility, perfusion, and viability of myocardium do not grant direct visualization of transplanted cells. New advancements in MRI and nuclear imaging have shown to provide reliable and highly sensitive visualization of transplanted cells, although mainly performed in animal models. The introduction of molecular cell tracking will contribute immensely to future studies of cellular mechanisms attributable to functional improvement. Until now, a small number of studies compared biodistribution between different delivery techniques in acute MI models. Unfortunately, results are still inconclusive due to differences in cell type, animal model, labeling method and delivery techniques. In view of clinical trials it is important to determine the most optimal delivery strategy in a pre-clinical MI model using state-of-the-art cell tracking for both biodistribution and long-term survival. Adequate cell tracking is essential to guide molecular approaches to enhance homing, engraftment and survival of transplanted stem cells. Therefore, additional and more focused pre-clinical studies are mandatory before designing new clinical trials.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the Netherlands Heart Foundation ‘[2003B07304 and 2010T025]’, BSIK program ”Dutch Program for Tissue Engineering”, ‘[grant 6746]’, and a Bekalis price (PD). This research also forms part of the Project P1.04 SMARTCARE of the research program of the BioMedical Materials institute, co-funded by the Dutch Ministry of Economic Affairs.

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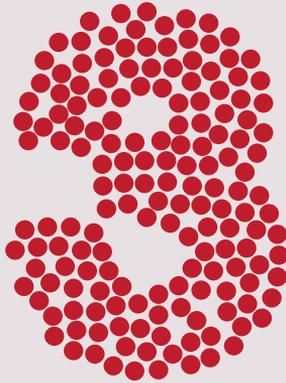
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HUMAN RELEVANCE OF PRE-CLINICAL STUDIES IN STEM CELL THERAPY; SYSTEMATIC REVIEW AND META-ANALYSIS OF LARGE ANIMAL MODELS OF ISCHEMIC HEART DISEASE.

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ABSTRACT

Background: Stem cell therapy is a treatment strategy for ischemic heart disease in patients. Meta-analysis of randomized human trials showed <5% improvement in left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF). Meta-analysis of available pre-clinical data of ischemic heart disease could provide important clues to design human clinical trials.

Methods: Random-effects meta-analysis was performed on pig, dog or sheep studies investigating the effect of cardiac stem cell therapy in ischemic cardiomyopathy (52 studies; N=888 animals). Endpoints were LVEF and death.

Results: Ischemia/reperfusion infarction was performed in 23 studies and chronic occlusion in 29 studies. Pooled analysis showed a LVEF difference of 7.5% at follow-up after cell therapy vs. control (95% confidence interval (CI), 6.2% to 8.9%; $P<0.001$). By exploratory multivariable meta-regression significant predictors of LVEF improvement were: cell type (bone marrow mononuclear cells (BM-MNC) showed less effect than other cell types, e.g. mesenchymal stem cells; $P=0.040$) and type of infarction (left anterior descending artery 8.0% vs. left circumflex artery 5.8%; $P=0.045$). Cell therapy was not associated with increased mortality ($P=0.68$). Sensitivity analysis showed trends towards more improvement with higher cell number ($\geq 10^7$), chronic occlusion models and late injections (>1 week). After follow-up of 8 weeks the effect of cell therapy decreased to 6%.

Conclusions: This meta-analysis showed that large animal models are valid to predict outcome of clinical trials. Our results showed that cell therapy is safe and led to a preserved LVEF. Future trials should focus on cell types other than BM-MNC, large infarction and strategies to obtain sustained effects overtime.

INTRODUCTION

Coronary heart disease is a major public and economic health problem leading to more than 7 million deaths world wide each year ^{1,2}. Myocardial infarction (MI) is characterized by loss of cardiomyocytes, scar formation, ventricular remodeling and it can develop into end-stage heart failure. Optimal pharmacologic treatment and coronary reperfusion therapy have led to improved survival of patients with coronary artery disease, even if current medical therapies cannot replace dysfunctional cardiomyocytes. Cell therapy has emerged as a potential therapeutic strategy. The ultimate goals of cell therapy are myocardial regeneration and revascularization, thus, re-establishing synchronous contractility and bioelectrical conductivity to achieve overall clinical improvement of cardiac function without severe adverse effects.

Many large animal studies in acute MI and ischemic cardiomyopathy have been performed, mostly with heterogeneous design and conflicting outcomes. These pre-clinical results led to the initiation of clinical trials and showed at best marginal results ³. Nevertheless, pre-clinical studies are mandatory to assess risk of a new therapy and predict safety, feasibility and efficacy. Moreover, they address unresolved issues regarding clinical cell therapy (i.e. choice of cell type, cell number, method of delivery, time of delivery and follow-up after cell transplantation), which questions have been outlined by the task force of the European Society of Cardiology on stem cell repair of the heart ⁴. Therefore, large animal models are valid and relevant for clinical practice, and have important clues regarding these yet unanswered questions. Similar to the human cardiac stem cell therapies, large number of animal studies have been performed including relative small number of animals. We hypothesize, that meta-analysis of these pre-clinical data might be helpful to design future clinical studies similarly to the meta-analysis of human cardiac stem cell trials.

We performed a systematic overview of the pertinent literature including a quantitative meta-analytical pooling of the data to assess the effects of stem cell transplantation in large animals with acute or chronic ischemic cardiomyopathy. A pre-specified sub-analysis is performed to focus on aforementioned unresolved issues.

METHODS

Eligibility criteria

Acute MI or chronic ischemic cardiomyopathy models in large animals were screened. Randomized controlled (RCT) and cohort trials investigating the effect of stem cell therapy on cardiac function as determined by left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF) were analyzed. In addition, a placebo or sham operated control group had to be included in the study. Trials that only investigated transfected or genetically engineered stem cells altering cell behavior, or studies using conditioned medium were excluded, but studies using reporter genes (solely for stem cell imaging

purposes) were included. Reviews, editorials, comments, reports from scientific sessions and discussions were excluded.

Search Strategy

A Pubmed search was performed (January 1980 to March 2010) using the following search terms: “(pig OR porcine OR swine OR canine OR dog OR sheep OR ovine) AND (stem cells OR progenitor cells OR bone marrow) AND (myocardial infarction OR heart failure OR coronary artery disease OR cardiac repair OR myocardial regeneration)”. Only English and published reports were included. The retrieved studies were carefully examined to exclude potentially duplicate or overlapping data. The complete search strategy is available on request.

Data abstraction

Two reviewers (TS and SJ) independently screened abstracts and the resulting manuscripts were approved by a third reviewer (SC). The following information was extracted from the complete manuscripts of the qualified studies: basal characteristics of the study, LVEF, end-diastolic volume (EDV), end-systolic volume (ESV) and mortality. If necessary, data were estimated from graphics or recalculated by available data: LVEF was recalculated as follows: $(EDV-ESV)/EDV * 100\%$. Accordingly, standard deviations were determined or recalculated from standard errors. Volume data were recalculated for body-weight. For final analysis we preferably used MRI data. Alternatively, data derived by echocardiography, nuclear imaging, left ventricle angiography or pressure-volume (PV) loops respectively, were used in absence of MRI data. In case of missing data, corresponding authors were contacted. Thirty-six emails were sent and 18 authors responded. Standard guidelines⁵ for quality assessment of clinical trials could not be completely applied in these pre-clinical experiments. Therefore, we used modified criteria to assess selection, performance and detection bias: randomization (yes/no), adequate allocation (y/n), adequate method of randomization (y/n), blinding of the operator (y/n) and blinding of the functional analysis (y/n).

Data analysis

Our primary outcome was difference in mean LVEF (reported in %) at follow-up between control and treated animals. Secondary endpoints were difference in EDV and ESV (reported as volume in mL) at follow-up and mortality after treatment. In case of multiple measurements over time, data measured at the longest duration of follow-up were used for analysis. A random-effect model was applied. Continuous variables were reported as weighted mean differences with 95% confidence intervals (CI) between the cell-treated animals and control groups. In case of dichotomous data, the pooled estimate of effect was presented as odds ratio (OR) with 95% CI. In case of multiple experimental groups next to one control group within one study,

the number of animals in the control group was divided equally by the number of experimental groups. Details of enrolled subgroups are provided in data supplement table 1. Unadjusted P values are reported throughout, with hypothesis testing set at the 2-tailed 0.05 level. Heterogeneity was considered significant at $P < 0.106$. Inconsistency was estimated by using the I^2 statistic; values of 25%, 50% and 75% were considered low, moderate and high inconsistency, respectively ⁷.

Based on clinical scenario a multivariate analysis was performed for: MI model (ischemia/reperfusion or chronic occlusion); location of infarct-related artery (left anterior descending artery (LAD) or left circumflex artery (LCX)); type of animal (pig, dog, sheep); cell type; number of cells injected; method of cell delivery (retrograde coronary transvenous injection, surgical, intracoronary (IC), and trans-endocardial (TE) delivery); timing of cell therapy after acute MI and follow-up after cell therapy. Furthermore, from a clinical point of view the following subgroup analyses were performed: MI model (ischemia/reperfusion or chronic occlusion); type of infarction (LAD or LCX); cell type (bone marrow mononuclear stem cells (BM-MNC) or mesenchymal stem cells (MSC)); number of cells injected ($< 10^7$, 10^7 - 10^8 , 10^8 - 10^9 , or $\geq 10^9$), timing of cell therapy after acute MI (≤ 1 day, 1-7 days, ≥ 7 days) and follow-up after cell therapy (1-4 weeks, 5-8 weeks, 9-12 weeks, > 12 weeks). A Funnel plot was drawn for LVEF to explore publication bias. A power-analysis for future studies in ischemic heart disease was performed. All analyses were performed with Review Manager version 5 (The Nordic Cochrane Center, København Denmark) and SPSS 17.0; SPSS, Chicago, IL.

RESULTS

Included study characteristics

The electronic database search identified 304 articles, among which 52 articles were eligible for review (34 RCT and 18 cohort studies; see Figure 1). In total 1251 animals were described in the included articles but 888 animals met our inclusion criteria and were analyzed. Characteristics of the enrolled studies are depicted in Table 1. Most studies used a porcine model (41 studies). In 23 studies ischemia/reperfusion was used as a MI model. Myocardial infarction was mainly induced in the left anterior descending coronary artery (38 studies), but site of ligation/constriction of the vessel (proximal, mid or distal) varied. Ten different cell types have been studied. In most cases surgical or IC delivery was performed. Timing of cell therapy after induction of MI was < 1 day (15 studies), 1-7 days (11 studies) or > 7 days (26 studies). Median and interquartile range of time to follow-up imaging was 6 weeks (4-8 weeks). Functional endpoints were assessed by MRI (18 studies), echocardiography (23 studies), nuclear imaging (5 studies), left ventricle angiography (4 studies) or PV-loop (2 studies). Volume data were reported in 25 studies and mortality in 32 studies.

| Author | N | Type of animal | Study design | Type of infarction | MI model | Cell type | Number of cells | Route of delivery | Timing of cell therapy after MI* | Follow up (weeks) |
|--|----|----------------|--------------|--------------------|----------|--------------------|--|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------|
| Bel et al. ²⁴ 2003 | 18 | Sheep | RCT | LCX | No I/R | BM-MNC | 4.2*10 ⁸ | Surgical | 21d | 8 |
| Brasselet et al. ²⁵ 2005 | 14 | Sheep | RCT | LAD | No I/R | Skeletal myoblasts | 2.4*10 ⁸ | RCV | 14d | 8 |
| Chacques et al. ²⁶ 2004 | 11 | Sheep | RCT | LAD | No I/R | Skeletal myoblasts | 7.0*10 ⁷ | Surgical | 21d | 12 |
| Chen et al. ²⁷ 2009 | 13 | Pig | RCT | LCX | No I/R | MSC | 4.0*10 ⁷ | Surgical | 42d | 4 |
| De Silva et al. ²⁸ 2008 | 11 | Pig | Cohort | LAD | I/R | BM-MNC | 1.0*10 ⁹ | IC | 4d | 6 |
| Dixon et al. ²⁹ 2009 | 46 | Sheep | RCT | LAD | No I/R | MSC | 2.5*10 ⁷ - 4.5*10 ⁸ | Surgical | 1h | 8 |
| Doyle et al. ³⁰ | 18 | Pig | Cohort | LCX | I/R | EPC | 3.0*10 ⁷ | IC | 2d | 8 |
| Gavira et al. ³¹ 2006 | 16 | Pig | Cohort | LAD | No I/R | Skeletal myoblasts | 4.0*10 ⁸ | TE/Surgical | 56d | 12 |
| Ghodsizad et al. ³² 2007 | 10 | Pig | RCT | LCX | No I/R | USSC | 1.3*10 ⁷ | Surgical | 1h | 8 |
| Ghostine et al. ³³ 2002 | 16 | Sheep | RCT | LCX | No I/R | Skeletal myoblasts | 4.2*10 ⁸ | Surgical | 14d | 17 |
| Gyöngyösi et al. ³⁴ 2008 | 11 | Pig | RCT | LAD | I/R | MSC | 7.1*10 ⁶ | TE | 16d | 1.5 |
| Hagikura et al. ³⁵ 2009 | 10 | Pig | Cohort | LAD | No I/R | MNC | 5.0*10 ⁶ | Coronary sinus venous infusion | 4h | 4 |
| Haider et al. ³⁶ 2004 | 11 | Pig | RCT | LCX | No I/R | Skeletal myoblasts | 3.0*10 ⁸ | Surgical | 21d | 6 |
| Halkos et al. ³⁷ 2008 | 33 | Pig | RCT | LAD | I/R | MSC | 3.9*10 ⁷ - 3.7*10 ⁸ | IV | 1h | 12 |
| Hamamoto et al. ³⁸ 2009 | 35 | Sheep | Cohort | LAD | No I/R | MSC | 2.3*10 ⁷ - 4.4*10 ⁸ | Surgical | 1h | 4-8 |
| Hashemi et al. ³⁹ 2008 | 31 | Pig | RCT | LAD | I/R | MSC | 2.4*10 ⁷ - 4.4*10 ⁸ | TE | 3d | 8-12 |
| He et al. ⁴⁰ 2005 | 19 | Dog | Cohort | LAD | No I/R | Skeletal myoblasts | 3.6*10 ⁸ - 5.4*10 ⁸ | Surgical/TE | 7d | 10 |
| Jiang et al. ⁴¹ 2010 | 11 | Pig | RCT | LAD | I/R | MSC | 1.0*10 ⁷ | IC | 1h | 13 |
| Johnston et al. ⁴² | 14 | Pig | RCT | LAD | I/R | CDC | 1.0*10 ⁷ | IC | 28d | 8 |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|----|-----|--------|-----|--------|----------|---------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------|----|
| Schuleri et al. ⁶² 2008 | 15 | Pig | RCT | LAD | I/R | MSC | 2.0*10 ⁸ | TE | 2d | 8 |
| Schuleri et al. ⁶³ 2009 | 12 | Pig | RCT | LAD | I/R | MSC | 2.0*10 ⁸ | Surgical | 111d | 12 |
| Sheu et al. ⁶⁴ 2009 | 18 | Pig | Cohort | LAD | No I/R | BM-MNC | 3.0*10 ⁷ | Surgical | 1h | 13 |
| Thompson et al. ⁶⁵ 2005 | 8 | Pig | Cohort | LAD | No I/R | BM-MNC | 3.0*10 ⁸ | RCV | 35d | 8 |
| Tomita et al. ⁶⁶ 2002 | 11 | Pig | RCT | LAD | No I/R | MSC† | 1.0*10 ⁸ | Surgical | 28d | 4 |
| Valina et al. ⁶⁷ 2007 | 21 | Pig | RCT | LAD | I/R | MSC/ADSC | 2.0*10 ⁶ | IC | 1h | 4 |
| Wang et al. ⁶⁸ 2009 | 12 | Pig | RCT | LAD | I/R | MSC | 5.0*10 ⁷ | Trans coronary injection | 1h | 4 |
| Yang et al. ⁶⁹ 2009 | 12 | Pig | RCT | LAD | I/R | MSC | 3.0*10 ⁷ | Surgical | 1h | 6 |
| Yang et al. ⁷⁰ 2006 | 12 | Pig | RCT | LAD | No I/R | MSC | 5.0*10 ⁶ | IC | 28d | 4 |
| Yang et al. ⁷¹ 2007 | 18 | Pig | RCT | LAD | I/R | MSC | 5.0*10 ⁶ | IC | 28d | 4 |
| Yi et al. ⁷² 2006 | 14 | Pig | RCT | LAD | No I/R | MSC | 8.0*10 ⁷ | TE | 28d | 4 |
| Yokoyama et al. ⁷³ 2006 | 21 | Pig | RCT | LAD | No I/R | BM-MNC | 3.2*10 ⁹ | Coronary sinus venous infusion | 6h or 14d | 4 |
| Zeng et al. ⁷⁴ 2007 | 14 | Pig | RCT | LAD | No I/R | MSC | 5.0*10 ⁷ | Surgical | 1h | 4 |
| Zhang et al. ⁷⁵ 2007 | 20 | Pig | Cohort | LAD | No I/R | HPC | 5.0*10 ⁷ | IC | 14d | 4 |

Table 1. Study Characteristics

ADSC= Adipose tissue derived stem cells; BM-MNC= Bone marrow mononuclear cells; CDC= Cardiosphere derived cells; EPC=Endothelial progenitor cells; ESC= Embryonic stem cells; HPC=Hematopoietic progenitor cells; IC= Intracoronary infusion; I/R= Ischemia/reperfusion; IV= Peripheral intravenous; LAD= Left anterior descending artery; LCX= Left circumflex artery; MI=Myocardial infarction; MNC= Peripheral mononuclear cells; MSC= Mesenchymal stem cells; N= number of animals (treated group and control group); NA= Not applicable; RCT=Randomized controlled trail; RCV= Retrograde coronary transvenous injection; TE= Trans-endocardial injection; USSC= Unrestricted somatic stem cells. *timing in days (d) or hours (h); †MSC cultured with 5-azacytidine

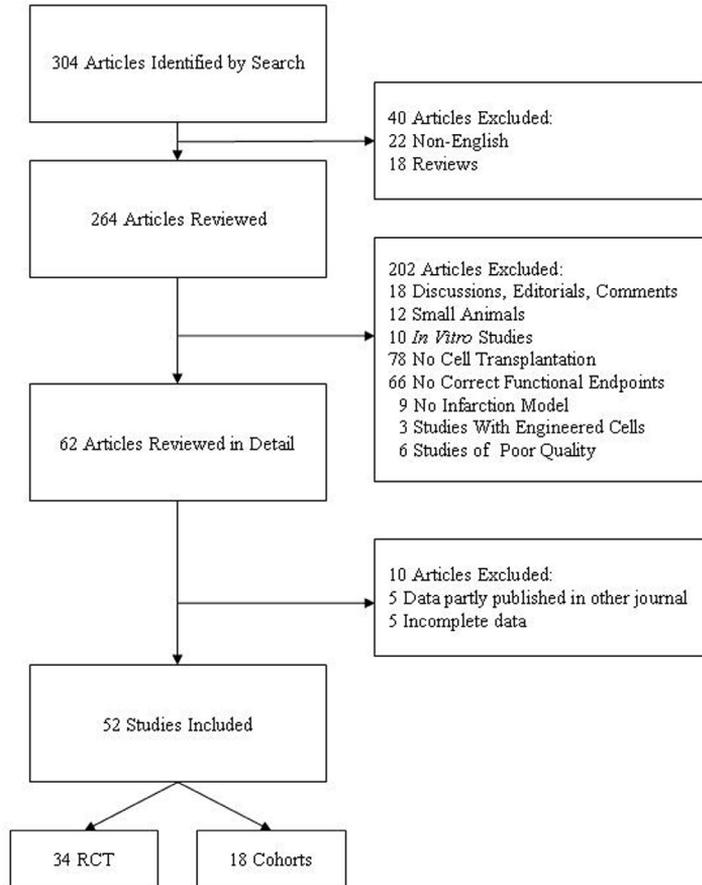


Figure 1. Flowchart of enrolled studies on cell therapy in large animals with acute myocardial infarction and chronic ischemic cardiomyopathy. RCT= Randomized controlled trial.

Quality of included studies

Data supplement table 2 shows the methodological quality of the enrolled studies. Blinded analysis of LVEF was performed in 12 RCT and 10 cohort studies. The operator was blinded in 5 studies. One article reported the method of randomization. Thirty-six studies (69%) were published in journals with an impact factor ≥ 3.0 .

Meta-analyses

Pooled analysis showed a LVEF difference of 7.5% at follow-up after cell therapy vs. control (95% CI, 6.2% to 8.9%; $P < 0.001$) with significant heterogeneity ($p < 0.01$) and inconsistency ($I^2: 77\%$; Figure 2). At follow-up, mean LVEF after cell transplantation and control was 56% and 48%, respectively. Consistently an ESV difference of -7.4 mL (95% CI, -12.9 mL to -1.8 mL; $P = 0.01$) and EDV difference of -5.3 mL (95% CI, -12.7 mL to 2.1 mL; $P = 0.16$) was found with significant

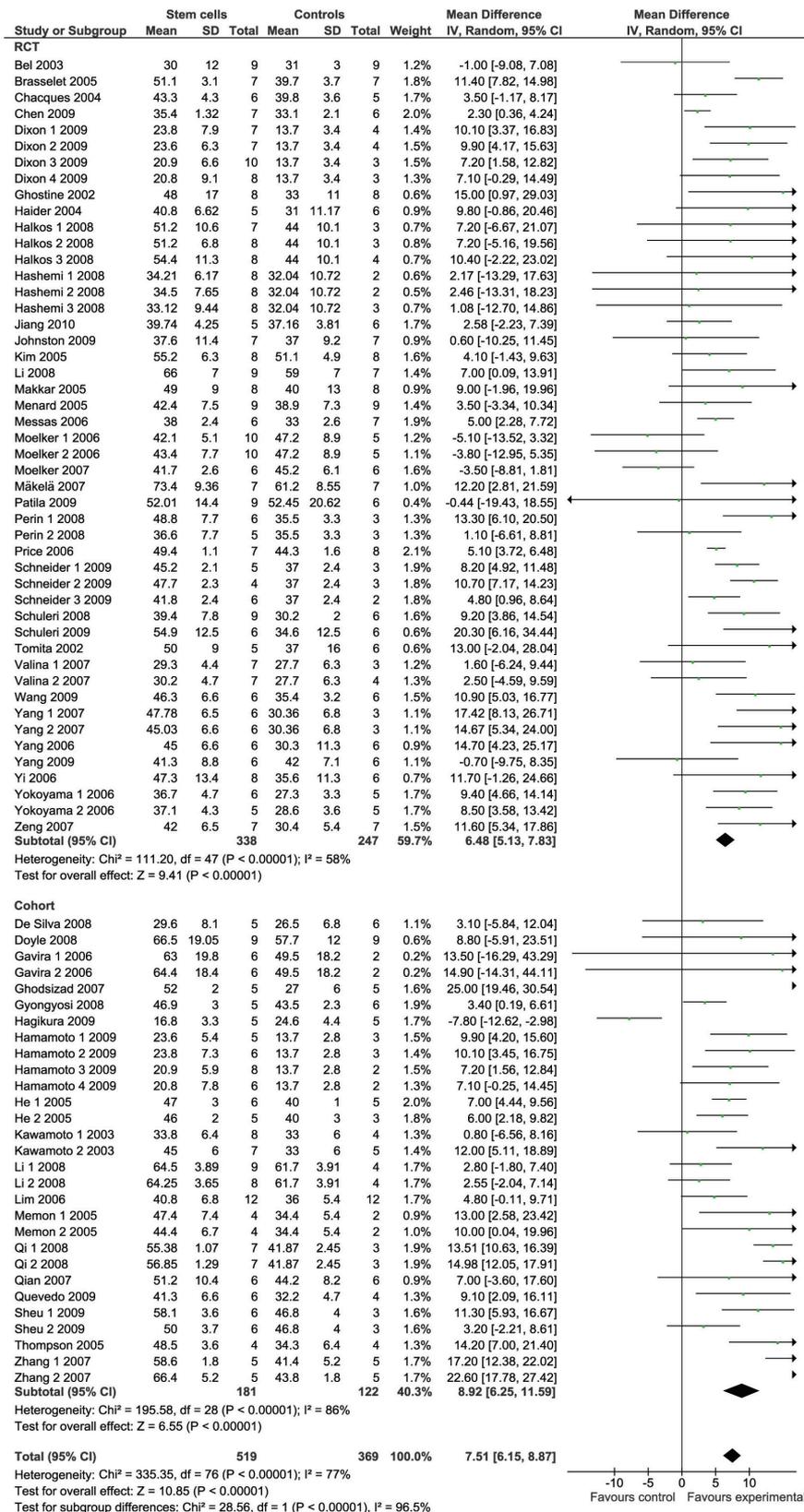
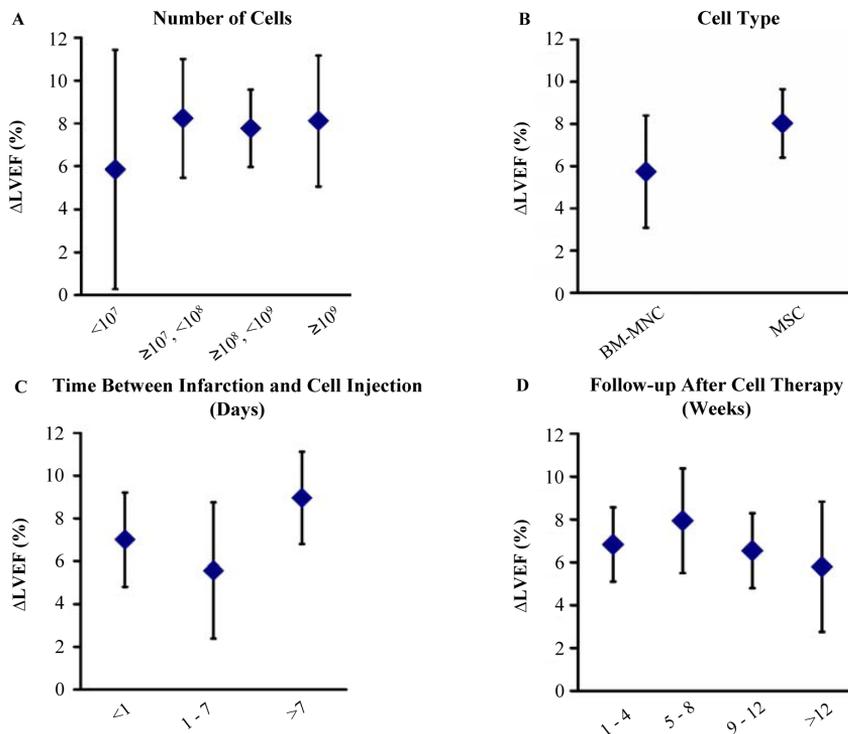


Figure 2. Forest plot showing the impact of stem cell therapy on LVEF improvement compared to controls. RCT= Randomized controlled trial; 95% CI= 95% Confidence interval; WMD= Weighted mean difference.

heterogeneity ($p < 0.001$ for both) and inconsistency ($I^2 > 90\%$ for both). Overall, no significant difference in LVEF at baseline between the control group and cell treated group was found ($P = 0.31$); however only 69 % of the studies reported these baseline data. No significant differences were found in mortality after cell transplantation: 9.5% (36/380) in cell treated group vs. 8.4 % (21/251) in the control group (OR 1.13 [0.63 to 2.02], $I^2 = 0\%$, $P = 0.68$). The majority of deaths were due to arrhythmias (data not shown).

Sensitivity-analyses

A multivariable meta-regression analysis showed that cell type ($P = 0.040$) and type of infarction ($P = 0.045$) are the only independent significant predictors of LVEF improvement. A trend was observed (Figure 3) towards more improvement of cell therapy regarding: anterior infarction with LAD as infarct-related artery, high cell number ($\geq 10^7$) and late injections (> 1 week after MI). BM-MNC showed less effect than MSC. In addition, less benefit was observed in ischemia/reperfusion MI models compared to chronic MI models. During follow-up the effect of cell therapy appeared to decline over time. No trend in LVEF improvement was observed regarding animal model ($P = 0.49$) and route of cell delivery ($P = 0.90$). The funnel plot for LVEF suggests a lack of publication bias as values were evenly distributed around the overall estimate (Figure 4).



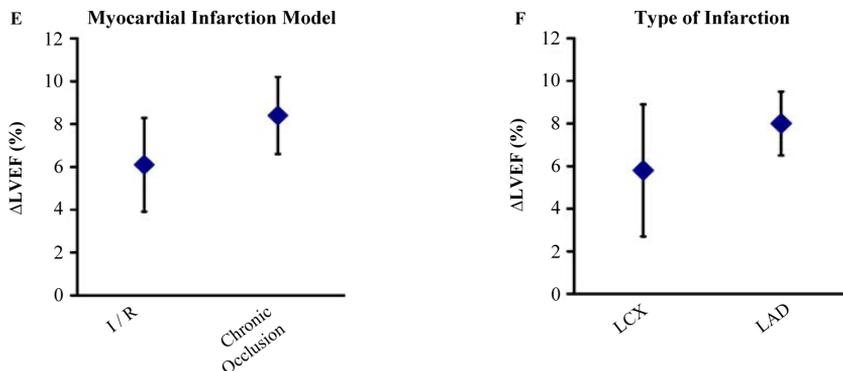


Figure 3. Sensitivity analysis by visual inspection showed a trend towards more improvement of cell therapy compared to control regarding: (A) high cell number (≥ 107) ($P=0.52$), (B) other cell types than bone marrow ($P=0.040$), (C) late injections ($>1\text{wk}$) ($P=0.68$), (E) chronic occlusion model ($P=0.70$) and (F) LAD infarction ($P=0.045$). After 8 weeks follow-up (D) the effect of cell therapy fades away ($P=0.11$). LVEF= Left ventricular ejection fraction; LAD= Left anterior descending artery; LCX= Left circumflex artery; I/R= ischemia/reperfusion; BM-MNC= Bone marrow mononuclear stem cells; MSC=Mesenchymal stem cells; P values are derived from the multivariate analysis.

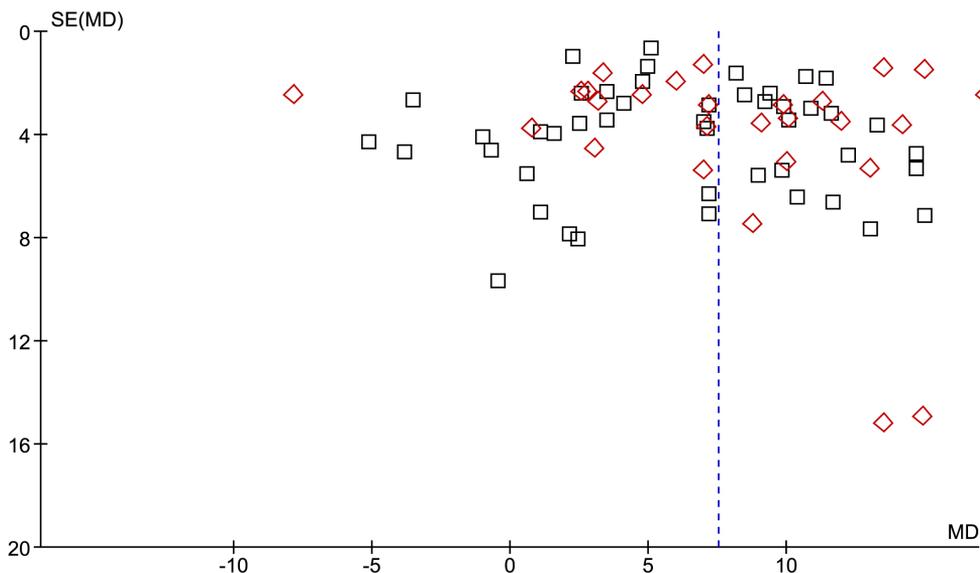


Figure 4. Funnel plot for LVEF improvement. Blue dotted line shows the overall estimated mean difference. The red diamond shaped color displays cohort studies and black squares displays RCT. No evidence for publication bias was found. SE=Standard Error; MD= Mean difference.

Power calculation

Based on our results we performed a sample size calculation for future studies in ischemic heart disease. To obtain a power of at least 80% in a two-sided two-sample t-test with an alpha of 0.05, 11 animals needed to be included in each group to detect a significant difference of 8% in LVEF.

DISCUSSION

The current analysis comprises data of 52 published pre-clinical studies involving large animals treated with cardiac stem cells in order to investigate the effects of cell therapy for ischemic heart disease. The main findings are: (1) Cell therapy improves LVEF by 7.5% due to a significant decrease in ESV; (2) There is no increased mortality after cell treatment; (3) Cell type and type of infarction are important predictors of functional outcome; (4) Sensitivity analysis suggests that MSC, LAD infarction, chronic occlusion MI models, a higher number of cells ($\geq 10^7$) and cell injection at least one week after MI have a beneficial effect on LVEF; (5) No effect on animal type and route of delivery was found.

Safety and efficacy of cardiac stem cell therapy in pre-clinical trials

Safety of cell therapy is still an important issue⁸, regarding the no reflow after intracoronary cell injections and myocardial perforation by intramyocardial application. In spite of cell delivery-associated adverse events, human trials did not report increased mortality. Similarly, the present meta-analysis of pre-clinical trials showed no significant difference in death in animals receiving cell transplantation compared to controls, although only 32 studies (61%) addressed this issue. Although global LV function improves after cell therapy, no significant difference in EDV (-1.92 mL) was documented, indicating that cell therapy led to increase in contractility, but did not prevent ventricular remodelling. Similar result was observed in two clinical meta-analyses^{3,9}. This could be due to the relative short-term follow-up (less <4 months) of the enrolled studies in our analysis. However, it is possible that structural myocardial changes and effects on diastolic filling occur after 4 months.

Transplantation of higher number of cells ($\geq 10^7$) appears to have a more pronounced impact on improvement in LVEF. Our results are in agreement with clinical meta-analysis in that significant effect on LVEF may only be achieved when infusing doses are higher than 10^8 cells⁹. Moreover, meta-regression analysis showed that choice of cell type is an important predictor for LVEF. Subanalysis revealed a trend towards larger benefit in case of transplantation of MSC, as compared to BM-MNC. Scarce evidence is available that these cell types can regenerate new cardiomyocytes *in vivo*. This suggests the stimulation of an endogenous regenerative capacity of the heart upon cell transplantation, by release of growth factors, cytokines and other paracrine molecules by the transplanted and host cells, enhancing angiogenesis and reducing apoptosis¹⁰⁻¹².

Unfortunately, no complete data on infarct size were reported. However, our meta-regression analysis showed that type of infarction is an important significant independent predictor for clinical outcome. In detail, LAD-related anterior wall infarction showed more benefit after stem cell therapy compared to LCX infarction (LAD 8.0% vs. LCX 5.8%). Interestingly, there was no important difference in ratio of MI model for LAD and LCX infarction. Therefore, the observed effect may be caused by a greater degree of expansion after LAD infarction¹³ leading to lower LVEF and a higher risk for mortality therefore more benefit from cell therapy is expected in this patient group. Indeed, post hoc analyses of the REPAIR-AMI trial database and a clinical meta-analyses suggested that the effects of bone marrow cells were significantly higher in the subgroup with a baseline LVEF<49% who may have a tendency to develop heart failure^{14, 15}. Ischemia/reperfusion MI models were associated with less improvement in LVEF compared to chronic occlusion models (LVEF; 6.3 vs. 8.3) although there was a higher incidence of permanent ligation animal studies. No reliable insight in baseline LVEF was available between these groups. In theory, percutaneous ischemia/reperfusion models are considered most reliable for translational research as it mimics more closely the clinical practice of primary percutaneous coronary intervention. Timing of injection is important with more pronounced benefit if applied 7 days after MI. Our findings are comparable to clinical studies^{3, 16}. In the acute setting (<24 hours) cellular retention and survival is likely influenced by the local hostile microenvironment.

In large animals, the effect of cell therapy fades away 8 weeks after cell injection. This phenomenon is in accordance with initial observations in patient studies¹⁷. This finding should trigger researchers towards novel applications and strategies of stem cell therapy (e.g. slow release agents, genetic engineering of stem cells, or repetitive injections overtime).

Effect of study design on study outcome

An overall beneficial effect of cardiac stem cell therapy has been observed in this analysis. However, this effect appears to be more pronounced in cohort studies as compared to RCT (LVEF; RCT 6.5% vs. Cohorts 8.9%). It is conceivable that cohort studies are designed for practical reasons and might systematically overestimate the effect of cell therapy.

The capability of animal studies to predict human clinical outcome have been questioned by some authors^{18, 19}. However, the results from the animal RCT studies are comparable to clinical meta-analyses^{3, 20} (RCT; LVEF 6,5% vs. 4%) indicating that ischemic large animal models are relevant for translational purposes.

Recommendations for future translational stem cell research

In view of clinical practice it is mandatory that pre-clinical studies are performed according to high standards. In our opinion, the following items should be reported

in pre-clinical studies for establishing standards for translational stem cell research with in mind the clinical horizon: randomized study design; blinded functional analysis; number of animals used in the study protocol must be clear and include the measured data before treatment and at the follow-up, mortality after treatment and during follow-up.

Over the next few years, adequately powered large animal studies and clinical trials should focus on transplantation of $\geq 10^7$ stem cells, other cell types than BM-MNC and later time point of injection (>1 week after MI). To maintain the beneficial effect on LVEF over time, repeated cell injections or the use of biomaterials to enhance survival of transplanted cells should be evaluated. No difference between species was observed and we therefore recommend the use of pigs to evaluate the effect of cell therapy since many studies are available for comparison. We suggest the use of IC in the setting of acute MI and TE for chronic MI since no difference was found in our meta-analysis between these transplantation techniques.

Meta-analyses of animal studies are not common, yet they are recommended in several settings²¹ and can often guide research and clinical endeavours²². Performing pre-clinical meta-analysis may also be attractive to evaluate the effect of other therapies to design future (pre-)clinical trials.

Limitations

Limitations of meta-analysis are well known²³. In particular, in our study the diversity in animal type, incidence of permanent occlusion, delivery method, time of injection after MI, follow-up after cell therapy and number of cells may play a role in the observed outcomes in the present study. However, multivariate analysis (used as an exploratory tool) showed no differences, but should be used with caution to generate new hypothesis. Heterogeneity may be present due to the extremely sensitive end-points chosen (all continuous: LVEF, EDV and ESV). By using random-effect analysis the risk of finding erroneous estimates is minimized. Although various imaging modalities have been used to measure our endpoints. Univariate analysis showed no significant difference between these techniques ($P=0.44$). Our analysis was based on study outcomes and we did not have access to individual data. Accordingly we provided mean values. As some studies did not report all data necessary for the analysis, effort was made to contact corresponding authors to complete the database: only 5 studies were finally excluded due to incomplete data.

To date, numerous human clinical trials have already been conducted in order to assess the efficacy and safety aspects of cardiac stem cell therapy³. Obviously, differences exist between large animal models and clinical practice. Healthy young large animals differ from older patients with long standing coronary artery disease, and frequently comorbidities (e.g. diabetes, hypertension, renal failure) are present. Consequently, many patients are routinely treated with other drugs (e.g. ACE-inhibitors, beta-blockers, anti-diabetic medication), in contrast to research animals.

Furthermore, autologous stem cells extracted from young large animals are ‘fresh’ whereas cells from patients are ‘aged’. Finally, duration of follow-up is relatively short in animal studies. Despite these differences we have shown that pre-clinical data are highly relevant to predict outcome for clinical trials.

CONCLUSIONS

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first systematic review and meta-analysis in large animal models to evaluate the effect of cell therapy in ischemic heart disease. This analysis showed that large animal models are valid to predict outcome of clinical trials. Moreover, the results showed that cardiac cell therapy is safe, led to an improved LVEF and revealed important clues for designing (pre-) clinical trials.

Funding

This work was supported by the Netherlands Heart Foundation ‘[2003B07304 and 2010T025]’, BSIK program ”Dutch Program for Tissue Engineering”, ‘[grant 6746]’, and a Bekalis price (PD). This research also forms part of the Project P1.04 SMARTCARE of the research program of the BioMedical Materials institute, co-funded by the Dutch Ministry of Economic Affairs.

Conflict of Interest: none declared.

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| Author | Number of Groups | Subgroups |
|----------------------------|------------------|--|
| Dixon et al.(1) 2009 | 4 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $2.5*10^7$ • $7.5*10^7$ • $2.2*10^8$ • $4.5*10^8$ |
| Halkos et al.(2) 2008 | 3 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $3.9*10^7$ • $1.1*10^8$ • $3.7*10^8$ |
| Hamamoto et al.(3) 2009 | 4 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $2.3*10^7$ • $7.2*10^7$ • $2.1*10^8$ • $4.4*10^8$ |
| Hashemi et al.(4) 2008 | 3 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $2.4*10^7$ • $2.4*10^7$ • $4.4*10^8$ |
| He et al.(5) 2005 | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Surgical • TE |
| Kawamoto et al.(6) 2003 | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MNC • EPC |
| Li et al.(7) 2008 | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MSC • BM-MNC |
| Memon et al.(8) 2005 | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skeletal myoblasts • BM-MNC |
| Moelker et al.(9) 2006 | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bone marrow |

| | | |
|------------------------------|---|---|
| | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • BM-MNC |
| Perin et al.(10) 2008 | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IC • TE |
| Qi et al. (11)2008 | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Labeled MSC • Unlabeled MSC |
| Schneider et al.(12) 2009 | 3 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Autologous MSC • Allogeneic MSC • BM-MNC |
| Sheu et al.(13) 2009 | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Infarct- relative arterial approach • Noninfarct- relative arterial approach |
| Valina et al.(14) 2007 | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MSC • ADSC |
| Yang et al.(15) 2007 | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Infarct- relative arterial approach • Non-infarct relative arterial approach |
| Yokoyama et al.(16) 2006 | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • AMI group • OMI group |
| Zhang et al.(17) 2007 | 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rentrop score=0 • Rentrop score =1 |

Supplemental table 1. Details of the subgroups of the enrolled studies.

ADSC= Adipose tissue derived stem cells; AMI= Acute myocardial infarction; BM-MNC= Bone marrow mononuclear cells; EPC=Endothelial progenitor cells; IC= Intracoronary infusion; MNC= Peripheral mononuclear cells; MSC= Mesenchymal stem cells; TE= Trans-endocardial injection; OMI= Old myocardial infarction.

| Author | RCT | Adequate allocation | Method of randomization described | Operator blinded | Analyst blinded |
|------------------------------|-----|---------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------|-----------------|
| Bel et al.(18) 2003 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Brasselet et al.(19) 2005 | Y | N | N | N | Y |
| Chacques et al.(20) 2004 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Chen et al.(21) 2009 | Y | N | N | N | Y |
| De Silva et al.(22) 2008 | N | N | N | Y | Y |
| Dixon et al.(1) 2009 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Doyle et al.(23) 2008 | N | N | N | N | Y |
| Gavira et al.(24) 2006 | N | N | N | N | Y |
| Ghodsizad et al.(25) 2007 | Y | N | N | N | Y |
| Ghostine et al.(26) 2002 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Gyöngyösi et al.(27) 2008 | Y | N | N | N | Y |
| Hagikura et al.(28) 2009 | N | N | N | N | N |
| Haider et al.(29) 2004 | Y | N | N | N | Y |
| Halkos et al.(2) 2008 | Y | N | N | Y | Y |
| Hamamoto et al.(3) 2009 | N | N | N | N | Y |
| Hashemi et al.(4) 2008 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| He et al.(5) 2005 | N | N | N | N | Y |
| Jiang et al.(30) 2010 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Johnston et al.(31) 2009 | Y | N | N | N | N |

Chapter 3

| | | | | | |
|------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| Kawamoto et al.(6) 2003 | N | N | N | N | Y |
| Kim et al.(32)2005 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Li et al.(33) 2008 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Li et al.(7) 2008 | N | N | N | N | N |
| Lim et al.(34) 2006 | N | N | N | N | N |
| Mäkelä et al.(35) 2007 | Y | N | N | Y | Y |
| Makkar et al.(36) 2005 | Y | N | N | N | Y |
| Memon et al.(8) 2005 | N | N | N | N | N |
| Menard et al.(37) 2005 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Messas et al.(38) 2006 | Y | N | N | N | Y |
| Moelker et al.(9) 2006 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Moelker et al.(39) 2007 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Patila et al.(40) 2009 | Y | N | N | N | Y |
| Perin et al.(10) 2008 | Y | N | N | N | Y |
| Price et al.(41) 2006 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Qi et al. (11)2008 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Qian et al.(42) 2007 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Quevedo et al.(43) 2009 | N | N | N | N | N |
| Schneider et al.(12) 2009 | Y | N | N | N | Y |
| Schuleri et al.(44) 2008 | Y | N | N | N | Y |
| Schuleri et al.(45) 2009 | Y | N | N | Y | N |
| Sheu et al.(13) 2009 | N | N | N | N | Y |
| Thompson et al.(46) 2005 | N | N | N | N | Y |

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tomita et al. (47)2002 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Valina et al.(14) 2007 | Y | Y | Y | Y | Y |
| Wang et al.(48) 2009 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Yang et al.(49) 2009 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Yang et al.(50) 2006 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Yang et al.(15) 2007 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Yi et al.(51) 2006 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Yokoyama et al.(16) 2006 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Zeng et al.(52) 2007 | Y | N | N | N | N |
| Zhang et al.(17) 2007 | N | N | N | N | N |

Supplemental table 2. Methodological quality of the included studies according to the Jüni guidelines. RCT= Randomized trial; Yes=Y; No=N.

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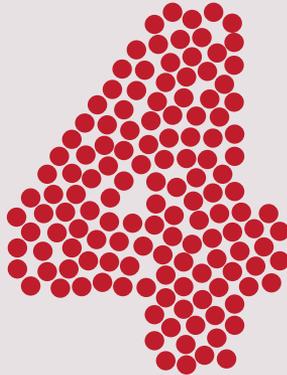
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**TRANSENDOCARDIAL CELL INJECTION IS NOT
SUPERIOR TO INTRACORONARY INFUSION IN A PORCINE
MODEL OF ISCHEMIC CARDIOMYOPATHY: A STUDY
ON DELIVERY EFFICIENCY.**

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ABSTRACT

Background: Stem cell therapy is a new strategy for chronic ischemic heart disease in patients. However, no consensus exists on the most optimal delivery strategy. This randomized study was designed to assess cell delivery efficiency of 3 clinical relevant strategies: intracoronary (IC) and transendocardial (TE) using electromechanical mapping guidance (NOGA) compared to surgical delivery in a chronic pig model of ischemia-reperfusion injury.

Methods: Twenty-four animals underwent delivery of 10^7 autologous Indium-oxine labeled bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells (MSC) 4 weeks after infarction and were randomized to 1 of 3 groups (n=8 each group): IC, TE or surgical delivery (reference group). Primary endpoint was defined as percentage (%) of injected dose per organ and assessed by *in vivo* gamma-emission counting. In addition, troponin and coronary flow were assessed before and after MSC injection.

Results: Blinded endpoint analysis showed no significant difference in efficiency after surgical ($16\pm 4\%$), IC ($11\pm 1\%$) and TE ($11\pm 3\%$) ($P=0.52$) injections. IC showed less variability in efficiency compared with TE and surgical injection. Overall, TE injection showed less distribution of MSC to visceral organs compared with other modalities. Troponin rise and intracoronary flow did not differ between the percutaneous groups.

Conclusion: This randomized study showed no significant difference in cell delivery efficiency to the myocardium in a clinically relevant ischemic large animal model between IC and TE delivery. In addition, no differences in safety profile were observed. These results are important in view of the choice of percutaneous cell delivery modality in future clinical stem cell trials.

INTRODUCTION

After myocardial infarction (MI), chronically ischemic myocardium may result in variable degrees of scar tissue. Native endogenous repair mechanisms are insufficient to prevent cardiac remodelling to occur, consequently infarct-related heart failure remains a major cause of morbidity and mortality¹. Cell therapy emerged as an innovative and attractive therapeutic approach for patients with chronic myocardial ischemia. The ultimate goal of this treatment is to support and enhance the endogenous repair mechanisms by replacing dysfunctional cardiomyocytes and inducing angiogenesis.

A modest beneficial effect was observed in clinical and pre-clinical studies^{2,3}. One of the critical issues for the limited success of stem cell based therapy for myocardial repair is an efficient method for cell delivery⁴. Currently, two percutaneous approaches (e.g. intracoronary (IC) and transendocardial (TE) delivery) have been applied for treatment with different cell populations in patients with chronic ischemia⁵⁻⁸.

It is suggested that TE injection is superior to IC in terms of efficiency and safety. This is based on personal experience and non-blinded studies^{9,10}. However, a direct randomized comparison between IC and TE using the NOGA system with blinded endpoint analysis in a chronic MI model has not been performed. Surgical injection is considered as a reference strategy, because direct visualization of the area of interest, and direct monitoring of the injection is possible. A (pre-) clinically applicable method for accurate quantification of cell retention is direct cell radiolabeling by Indium-111 oxine (¹¹¹In). This allows determination of cell transplantation efficiency, and thereby enables optimization of cell delivery. Therefore, our primary objective was to determine the most efficacious cell delivery technique in a randomized comparison between these clinically available transplantation modalities in a chronic ischemic large animal model.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

Twenty-four female Dutch Landrace pigs (± 70 kg) received humane care in compliance with the "Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals," published by the National Institutes of Health (National Institutes of Health publication 85-23, revised 1985). The study protocol was approved by the Animal Experimentation Committee of the University of Utrecht.

Anesthesia and euthanasia

Animals were anesthetized in the supine position and intubated with an endotracheal tube. The animals were mechanically ventilated with the use of a positive-pressure ventilator with a mix of oxygen and air (FiO₂ 0.5). General anesthesia/analgesia was maintained with midazolam (0.7 mg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹), sufentanyl citrate (2 µg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹) and

pancuronium bromid ($0.1 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$). Metoprolol was administered intravenously (5 mg) to reduce the mechanical stress of the heart. The day before operation 160 mg acetylic salicylic acid and a bolus of 75 mg clopidogrel was administered. During surgery, animals were anticoagulated with heparin (ACT>250s). At the end of the experiment the animals were euthanized by pentobarbital overdose.

Myocardial infarction procedure

During the entire procedure, electrocardiogram, arterial pressure and capnogram were continuously monitored. MI was created by temporary proximal ligation of the left circumflex artery (LCX) for 75 minutes as previously described¹¹. To prevent ventricular arrhythmias, 300 mg amiodarone intravenously was given.

Randomized comparison on delivery efficiency

In 24 healthy animals, MI was surgically induced after median sternotomy. Four weeks later the animals received autologous cell transplantation and were sacrificed after nuclear imaging (Figure 1). After surgery, animals were randomly assigned to 1 of 3 groups (n=8 per group): IC delivery, TE delivery or surgical delivery (reference group). The randomization scheme was stored in a sealed envelope and retrieved after induction of MI by a person not involved in the study. After recovery, the animals received daily an oral dose of 50 mg metoprolol, 400 mg amiodarone, 75 mg clopidogrel and 160 mg acetylic salicylic acid until termination to prevent thrombosis and arrhythmias. Primary blinded endpoint was defined as percentage (%) of injected dose per organ derived from whole-body images observed at 4 hours after injection. To evaluate myocardial damage of percutaneous interventions, blood samples (2.5 mL) were collected after MI, before and 6 hours after the intervention for the measurement of plasma concentration of cTnI.

Cell culture and labeling

A total of 20-25 mL bone marrow was extracted from the sternum by a heparinized syringe before creating MI. Bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells (MSC) were isolated by Ficoll density gradient centrifugation. Autologous MSC were isolated and cultured in M-199 (Lonza, Verviers, Belgium) supplemented with 10% FBS, heparin and 1% penicillin/ streptomycin. The cells were incubated at 37°C and medium was changed every 3 days. Cells were cultured in 75 cm² flask and passaged when they reached confluence till passage 5-7. MSC were frozen in 10% DMSO and 90% culture medium. MSC were characterized as previously described¹². Seven days prior to transplantation cells were thawed, plated in flasks and grown to confluency. At the day of cell delivery, before trypanization, cells were labeled with carboxyfluorescein diacetate succinimidyl ester (CFSE, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to manufactures protocol.

Subsequently, MSC (10^7) were labeled with 30 MBq ¹¹¹In at 37°C for 20 minutes.

After incubation, cells were washed three times with HANKS buffer (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) to remove unbound label. Radiolabel uptake efficiency was measured with a dose calibrator (Veenstra, Joure, the Netherlands). After labeling, cell viability was assessed via trypan-blue (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) counting. Before injection, MSC were resuspended in 2 or 10 mL PBS, depending on the delivery technique.

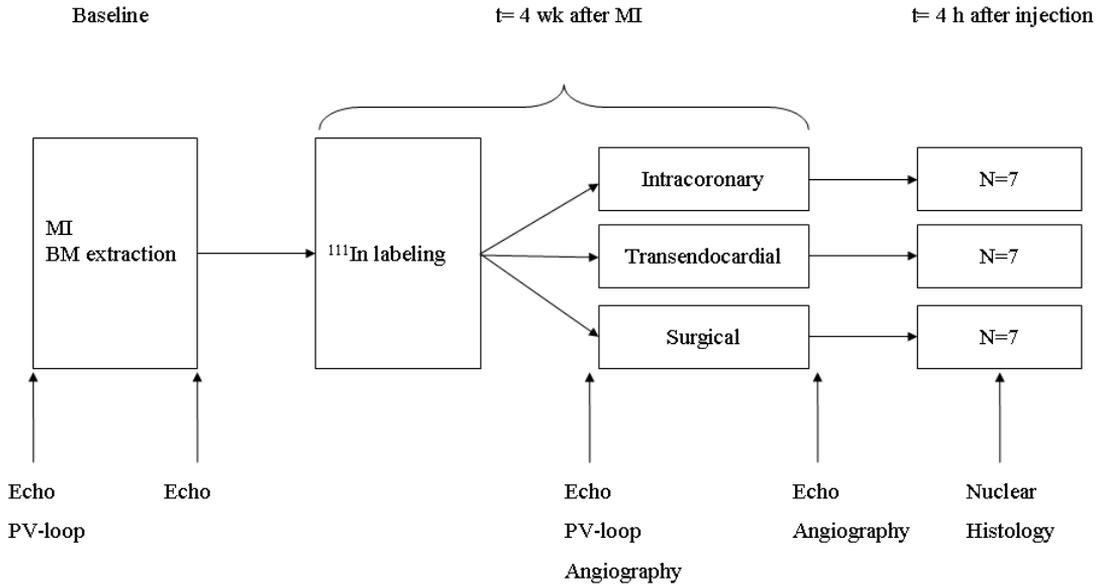


Figure 1. Study design

Intracoronary infusion was performed by stop-flow technique and transendocardial injection by using electromechanical mapping guidance (NOGA). Surgical injection was used as a reference group in this randomized study. BM= Bone marrow; MI= myocardial infarction; ¹¹¹In= Indium; PV loop=pressure-volume loop.

Intracoronary delivery

Four weeks after MI an over-the-wire balloon (Boston Scientific Corp, Natick, MA, USA) of equivalent size to the proximal LCX artery was placed. The balloon was inflated at low pressure (2 atm) at the same location and 3.3 mL of cell suspension was infused over 30 to 45 seconds. The angioplasty balloon was deflated after 3 minutes. This procedure was repeated for 3 times and a total of 10 mL (10⁷ cells) was infused. After the procedure, coronary angiography was performed to confirm vessel patency using the Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction (TIMI) score¹³. Blinded image analysis was performed by an independent observer not involved in the study protocol.

Transendocardial delivery

After placement of an 8-F sheath into the femoral artery, a 3-dimensional electromechanical map of the left ventricle (LV) was obtained using the NOGA system (Biosense Webster, Cordis, Johnson & Johnson, USA) as described previously^{14, 15}. First, an electromechanical map was obtained by retrograde passage of the catheter through the aortic valve into the cavity of the LV. Next, 10 TE injections of approximately 0.2 mL were slowly performed (30-40 seconds) using the MYOSTAR[®] injection catheter (Biosense Webster, Cordis, Johnson & Johnson, Diamond Bar, USA). Two injections were placed in the infarct zone and 8 in the border zone. Injections were only given in areas with a unipolar voltage >6mV^{14, 15}.

Surgical delivery

Lateral thoracotomy was performed and the pericardium was opened to expose the lateral surface. A 1 mL syringe with a 27 gauge needle was used to inject 10⁷ labeled cells. In total, 10 injections of 0.2 mL were performed across the lateral wall in the border and infarcted zone delimited by superficial stitches.

Imaging and analysis

The anaesthetized pigs were positioned in supine position and scanned with a dual-head gamma camera (Forte, Philips, Best, the Netherlands) within 4 hours after injection to quantify *in vivo* MSC distribution. A whole-body scan was acquired using the following imaging parameters: medium-energy general-purpose collimator and 512x1024 projection matrix. After termination, whole organs (heart; lungs; liver; spleen; kidneys; bladder including urinary catheter) and catheter systems were scanned *ex vivo* as static anterior and posterior images for 5 minutes with the following parameters: medium-energy general-purpose collimator and 256x256 projection matrix. Two energy windows were acquired at 174 keV and 247 keV. The retained activity in syringes was measured by the dose calibrator (Veenstra, Joure, the Netherlands). After correction for half-life, background and attenuation reconstruction, regions of interest were placed over the major visceral organs and whole-body, using manufacturer's software (Pegasys, Philips, Best, the Netherlands). Post-mortem segmental analysis of the LV was performed in a subset of animals by cutting the LV into 5 slices from base to apex.

Echocardiography

Chamber dimensions were obtained from transthoracic ultrasound images (5-MHz probe, IE-33, Philips, Best, the Netherlands) in short-axis view at the mid-papillary level. All echocardiographic data were analyzed using the same protocol. The LV internal diameter (LVID) was measured in longitudinal length and the internal area (LVIA) was obtained without including the papillary muscles in end-systole and end-diastole. The FAS was calculated as $((LVIA_{ED} - LVIA_{ES}) / LVIA_{ED}) \times 100$.

Echocardiographic data were collected after stabilization of the hemodynamics at baseline, MI and before MSC injection. A short echocardiogram was performed after cell injection to exclude a tamponade. Analysis was performed in a blinded fashion.

Pressure-Volume loop protocol

A 7-F conductance catheter was inserted via the left carotid artery into the LV and connected with a signal processor (Leycom CFL, CD-Leycom, Zoetermeer, the Netherlands). The catheter was placed retrogradely along the long axis of the LV. The correct position of the conductance catheter was verified by echocardiography or angiography and by inspection of the segmental conductance signals. The conductance signals were calibrated by thermodilution and hypertonic saline dilution^{16,17}. For thermodilution cardiac output measurements and hypertonic saline infusion, a 7-F Swan-Ganz catheter was placed via the right jugular vein into the right pulmonary artery. Data were collected during steady-state conditions with the respirator systems turned off. From these signals, hemodynamic indices were derived. Data analysis and calculations were performed using custom-made software (CD Leycom, Zoetermeer, the Netherlands), as previously described¹⁸. Parameters of global systolic and diastolic function were calculated during steady-state conditions. Data were collected after stabilization of the hemodynamics at baseline and before MSC injection.

Post-mortem examination

After euthanasia transverse slices of the heart were obtained. All major visceral organs were weighed. Heart samples were snap-frozen by liquid nitrogen. Before cutting sections of 7 micrometer samples were mounted in Tissue Tek OCT. To detect autologous MSC in histology sections, cells were pre-labeled with CFSE and nuclei were stained with Hoechst dye. Samples were analyzed by fluorescence microscopy.

Statistical analysis

Values derived from echocardiography, nuclear imaging and cTnI were analyzed in a blinded fashion. Statistical comparison of data between three delivery groups was done using one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc correction or in case of two groups with an independent T-test. Hemodynamics, cardiac dimensions and cTnI were compared to baseline using a paired sample T-test. Accuracy of in-vivo imaging was determined by a Pearson correlation and intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC). Data are presented as mean±SE. *P*-values <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Procedural and safety data

In total 24 animals were included in the efficiency study. Three animals were

excluded from the study due to cardiac tamponade evidenced by obduction (Surgical group; day 1 after MI), sudden death probably due to a fatal arrhythmia since signs of heart failure were absent (IC group; day 28 after MI) and mechanical dysfunction of the MYOSTAR[®] injection catheter (TE group). After TE injections, no cardiac tamponade was observed by echocardiography. After TE and IC infusion TIMI 3 flow of the LCX was established in all cases. In one animal (surgical group), pressure-volume loop measurements could not be performed due to instable catheter position. Four hours after MI induction, Troponin levels increased to $27 \pm 7 \mu\text{g/L}$. Four weeks later, a slight increase in cTnI after cell injection was observed in both TE (n=6) and IC (n=5) groups from $0.12 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{g/L}$ to $2.70 \pm 1.0 \mu\text{g/L}$ ($P=0.052$) and from $0.14 \pm 0.04 \mu\text{g/L}$ to $1.47 \pm 0.8 \mu\text{g/L}$ ($P=0.389$), respectively. However, no statistical difference between groups before and after injection was observed ($P=0.789$ and $P=0.377$), respectively. No significant differences in hemodynamic and echocardiographic parameters between the delivery groups at baseline and 4 weeks after MI were observed indicating a correct randomization during the study (Table 1). Overall labeling uptake was $61 \pm 2\%$ and cell viability was $69 \pm 3\%$ before injection. No significant differences were found in cell characteristics (e.g. label uptake, viability, number of cells, labeling time and time from injection till scan) between the 3 delivery modalities.

| Parameter | Baseline | | | 4 Weeks after MI | | | <i>P</i> value between groups | |
|-------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------------|------------------|-----------|-----------------|-------------------------------|-------------|
| | IC n=7 | TE n=7 | Surgical n=7 | IC n=7 | TE n=7 | Surgical n=6 | Baseline | Termination |
| HR (beats/min) | 53±4 | 55±3 | 52±2 | 62±3 | 63±2 | 57±4 | 0.864 | 0.456 |
| MAP (mmHg) | 100±3 | 107±4 | 100±4 | 89±7 | 99±5 | 91±6 | 0.308 | 0.455 |
| LVID _{ED} (cm) | 4.8±0.2 | 4.5±0.2 | 4.6±0.2 | 4.8±0.2 | 4.8±0.2 | 4.8±0.2 | 0.400 | 0.943 |
| LVID _{ES} (cm) | 3.3±0.1 | 3.1±0.2 | 3.5±0.1 | 3.6±0.1 | 3.7±0.2 | 3.9±0.3 | 0.144 | 0.541 |
| FAS (%) | 49±1 | 50±2 | 47±1 | 41±2 | 36±3 | 32±3 | 0.333 | 0.107 |
| PV-loop derived | | | | | | | | |
| ESP (mmHg) | 108±6 | 103±8 | 100±6 | 95±10 | 87±8 | 76±3* | 0.721 | 0.270 |
| EDP (mmHg) | 9.0±0.5 | 8.0±0.2 | 8.1±0.3 | 13±0.7* | 15±0.7* | 15±1.0* | 0.293 | 0.231 |
| dP/dt _{MAX} (mmHg/s) | 1242±34 | 1329±86 | 1293±54 | 1056±128 | 1004±87* | 843±53* | 0.610 | 0.323 |
| dP/dt _{MIN} (mmHg/s) | -1074±120 | -933±116 | -948±84 | -960±102 | -949±79 | -833±27 | 0.711 | 0.493 |
| EDV (mL) | 106±3 | 99±6 | 104±5 | 131±7* | 138±13 | 147±5* | 0.528 | 0.530 |
| ESV (mL) | 41±3 | 45±7 | 39±3 | 62±4* | 66±7* | 69±4* | 0.602 | 0.655 |
| EF (%) | 59±3 | 61±4 | 64±3 | 52±4 | 49±6 | 52±3* | 0.486 | 0.868 |

Table 1. Hemodynamics, cardiac geometry and function at baseline and 4 weeks after myocardial infarction

No difference in delivery efficiency to the heart

Whole-body γ -scan revealed a trend towards higher retention of MSC after surgical delivery (16 \pm 4%) compared with IC (11 \pm 1%) and TE (11 \pm 3%) but this difference was not statistical significant (P=0.52). Variation in delivery efficiency was less in the IC group (Figure 2). Qualitative analysis after TE delivery showed a higher local retention of cells at the mid-papillary level in the targeted area compared with widespread distribution of cells in the infarcted area after IC infusion (Figure 3).

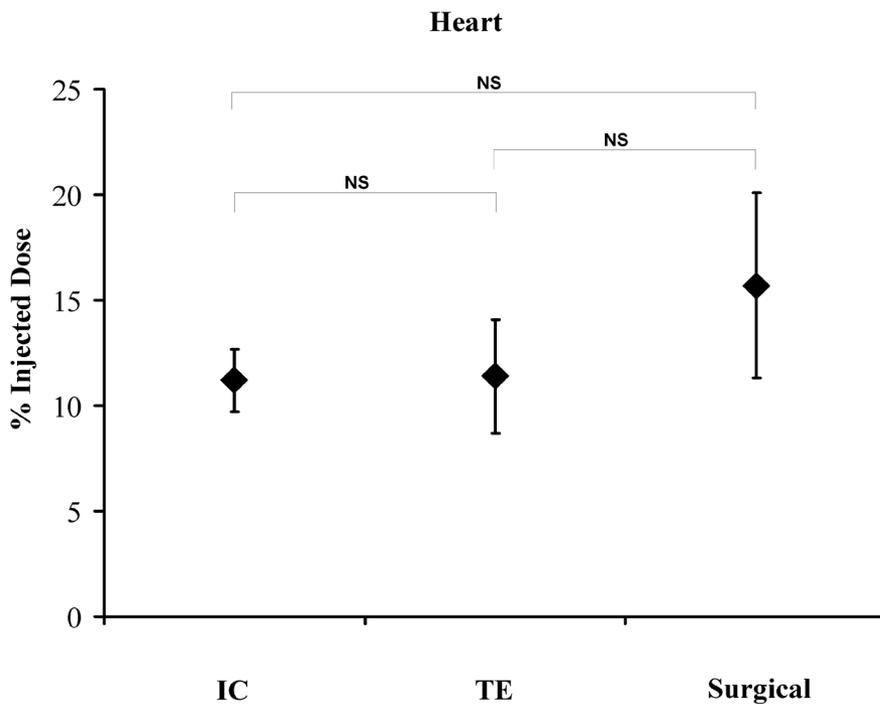


Figure 2. Myocardial retention of autologous MSC at 4 hours after IC, TE and surgical delivery. No difference in myocardial retention between delivery techniques was detected (n=7/group; P=0.52). Variation in efficiency was higher after TE and surgical transplantation (reference group) compared with IC infusion. IC=intracoronary; NS=not significant; TE=transendocardial.

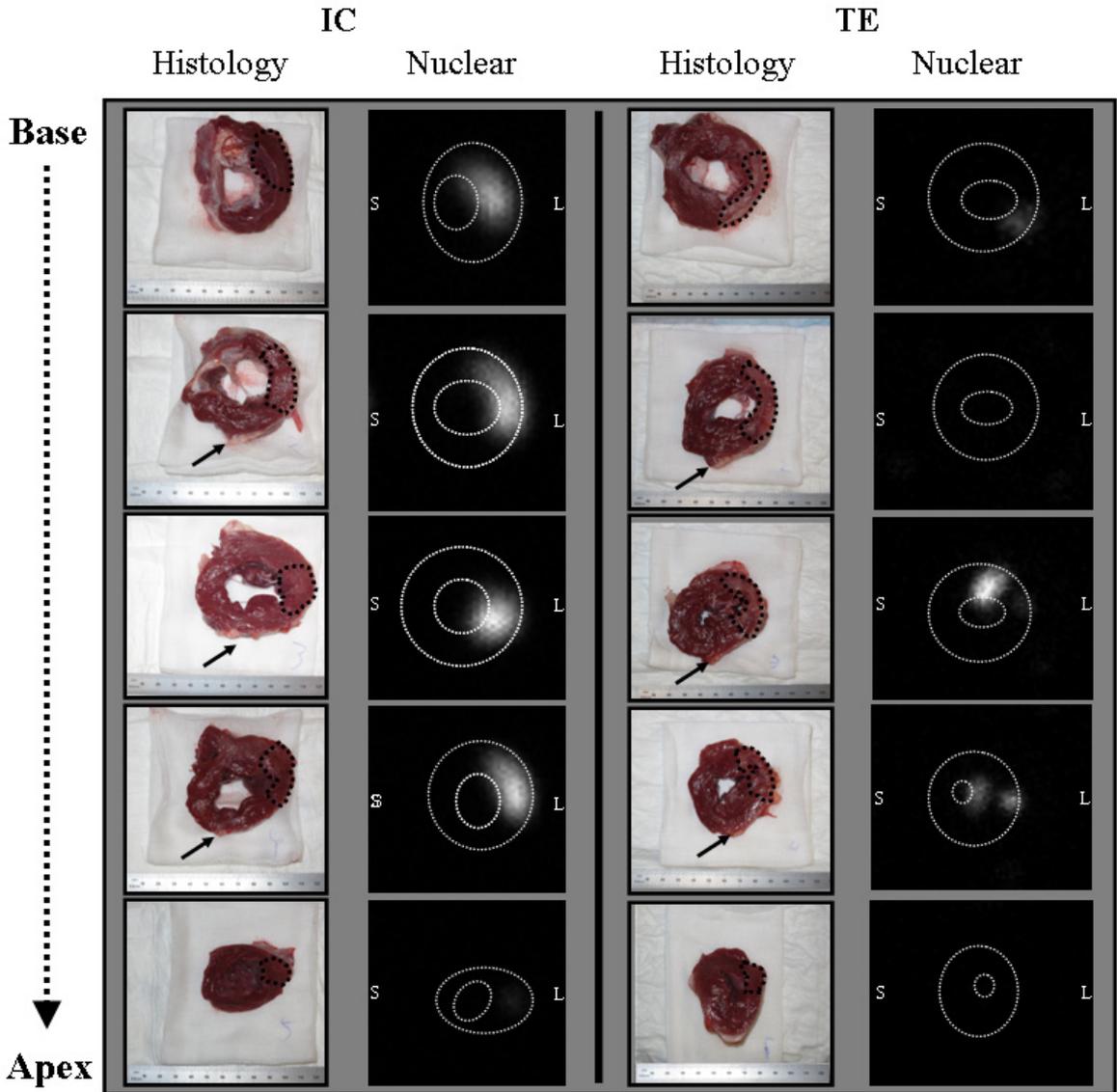


Figure 3. Segmental analysis of the LV after percutaneous delivery.

To visualize cell retention in the LV, the heart was cut into 5 slices from apex to base (histological images). Static anterior images were obtained from all slices within 4 hours after cell delivery. Note that after TE delivery cells were mainly retained in the midlateral wall whereas IC infusion showed a more scattered distribution of MSC in the posterolateral wall. Representative histological and nuclear images were derived from the same animals for both groups.

Black arrow=left anterior descending artery; IC=intracoronary; L=lateral wall; TE=transendocardial; White dotted lines=endocardial and epicardial border; S=septal wall; Black dotted line= area of interest;

Variation in biodistribution of injected MSC between delivery modalities

High accumulation of ¹¹¹In labeled cells in the lungs occurred in all injection groups (Figure 4). However, TE administration led to significant less retention of cells in the pulmonary tract compared with surgical delivery ($P<0.05$). No trend in the lungs was seen for IC ($P=0.52$). Low numbers of MSC were detected in the kidneys, liver and spleen. Significantly more labeled cells were distributed to the kidneys after TE injection compared with the other techniques (TE vs. IC $P<0.05$; TE vs. surgical $P<0.001$). A minimal amount of labeled MSC was located in the musculoskeletal system and none in the brain. For each delivery modality about 45% of radioactive cells accumulated in non-target organs.

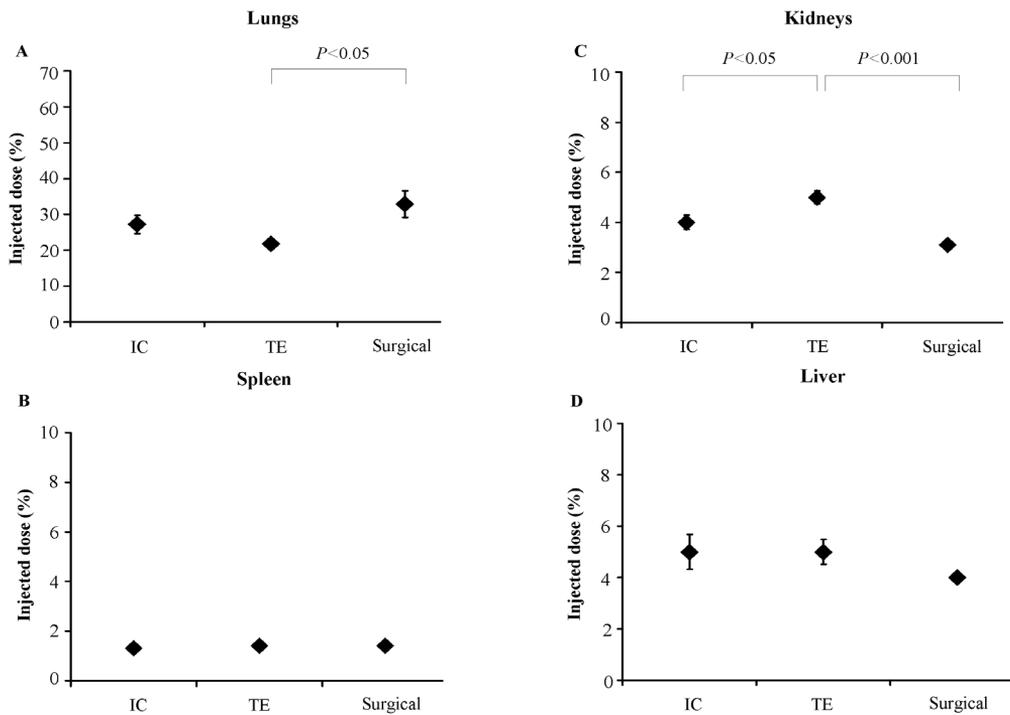


Figure 4. Biodistribution of ¹¹¹In labeled MSC to non-target organs. Distribution of ¹¹¹In labeled MSC in various organs after IC, TE and surgical (reference) injection (n=7/group). IC= intracoronary; TE=transendocardial.

Accuracy of in-vivo imaging

Figure 5 displays a high correlation between whole-body radiation data and *ex vivo* measurements ($R^2=0.827$). These data support the translational potential of whole-body γ -scan to guide cell therapy approaches from pre-clinical to clinical applications. To describe how strongly measurements resemble each other within the same group a reliability analysis was performed. The intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) was above 0.79 in all cases, underlying a strong reliability within groups.

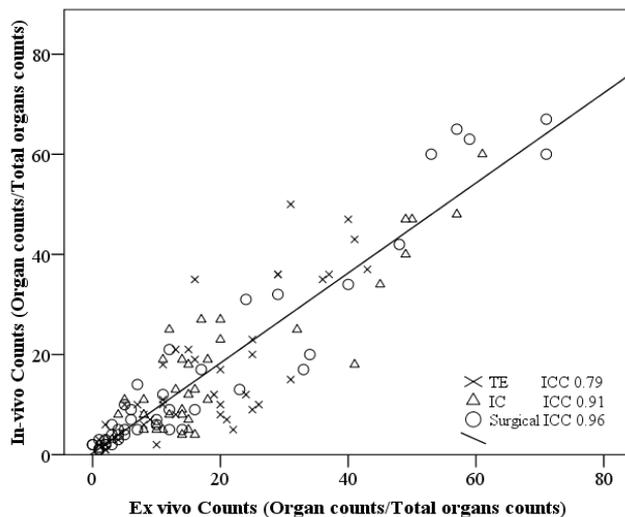


Figure 5. Correlation between *in vivo* and *ex vivo* gamma emission counts from major organs. Correlation between *in vivo* and *ex vivo* gamma emission counts from heart, lungs, liver, spleen and bladder including urine catheter. The R^2 and the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) demonstrate a high agreement between quantitative whole-body imaging and post-mortem images.

Histological analysis

Fluorescent microscopy confirmed the presence of CFSE labeled MSC in the heart, direct after IC, TE and surgical injection (Figure 6). Clusters of cells were present within the infarcted area and border zone in the histological samples of TE and surgical injected animals, whereas after IC infusion MSC were observed scattered throughout the targeted myocardium. Control samples taken from the remote area showed no CFSE labeled MSC (data not shown).

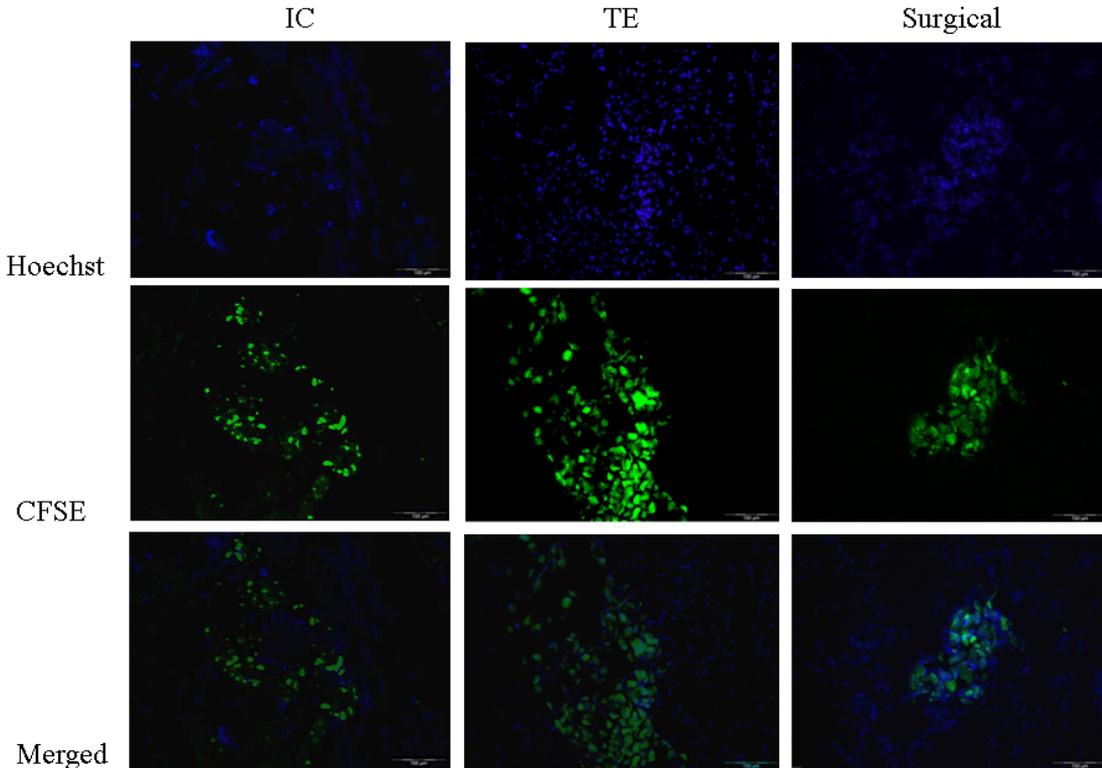


Figure 6. Fluorescopic images of labeled MSC in the heart. Representative histological sections were stained with Hoechst for nuclei (blue). The green color indicates presence of CFSE labeled MSC after IC, TE or surgical delivery. Sections were derived from the same animals as shown in figure 3. Samples taken from remote area showed no CFSE labeled MSC (data not shown). Scale bar 100 μ meter, 200x magnification.

DISCUSSION

In this study, for the first time a randomized comparison with blinded end-point analysis between IC and TE using the NOGA system was performed and related to surgical injection (reference group). We used a stable chronic ischemic porcine model and used state-of-the-art nuclear cell tracking to determine the most optimal stem cell delivery strategy in terms of delivery efficiency. The main novel findings are: (1) TE injection was not superior to IC in delivery efficiency; (2) Both techniques were safe, with no significant difference in myocardial damage and no mortality after cell injection.

We observed a slightly higher efficiency (11%) in chronic ischemic myocardium at 4 hours after percutaneous cell delivery which is in contrast to previous studies^{10, 19-21}, that reported lower retention of transplanted cells (<10%) in acute porcine MI

models. The discrepancy between our observations and previous observations can be explained by the differences in study design, MI model, cell type, and delivery method. We performed an adequately powered randomized study for one time-point (4 hours after injection) with blinded end-point analysis and standard medical care comparable with the clinical treatment of patients with chronic ischemic cardiomyopathy. MSC retention was assessed in a chronic ischemia model (i.e. 4 weeks after MI) whereas others performed cell delivery within 7 days after acute MI. In addition, we used autologous MSC in contrast to allogeneic or human MSC thereby preventing an immunological response or ectopic tissue formation²²⁻²⁴. Until now, no study determined MSC retention via nuclear imaging in a chronic MI model using the NOGA electronic mapping system which allows accurate injection by identifying the area of MI and border-zone without fluoroscopic guidance²⁵. Previous studies on this topic used the Stiletto catheter (Boston Scientific Corporation, Natick, MA, USA) or performed surgical injection^{10, 19}.

It was anticipated by others that TE would yield better results than IC. Surprisingly, we could not observe a significant difference in efficiency between percutaneous delivery groups. Moreover, IC infusion clearly demonstrated less variation in efficiency compared to TE. A possible explanation for this finding could be that TE is relatively hampered by (1) the occurrence of premature ventricular arrhythmias as a result of the myocardial injection, or (2) the presence of the posterolateral papillary muscle leading to less stable catheter and needle position during TE delivery. IC is an easy method and relatively operator independent. Our segmental analysis by *ex vivo* γ -scan revealed site specific retention of MSC after TE in the ischemic area compared with uniform distribution of cells after IC. These observations were also found in large acute MI models²¹ but until now not confirmed in a chronic model. Our findings are also in line with a recent published rodent study showing superiority of IC in terms of uniformity of cell distribution but additionally also more myocyte regeneration and amount of viable tissue in the area at risk²⁶.

Common mentioned safety issues of cell delivery include (1) arrhythmias²⁷ and death, (2) no reflow¹⁹ and myocardial damage due to cell plugging²⁸, (3) cardiac tamponade²⁹ and (4) cell distribution to non-target organs. We did not observe decreased coronary flow after IC or TE delivery during coronary angiogram. This may be due to the anti-coagulation protocol and lower injected cell number compared to other studies^{19, 30}. This study evaluated the effect of 10^7 MSC and no dose-finding was performed. Regarding myocardial damage, we observed an increase in cTnI (<10%) after percutaneous delivery. Echocardiographic images obtained after TE showed no signs of myocardial perforation. In agreement with other groups^{10, 19} we noted a substantial redistribution of delivered MSC for all three techniques to non-targeted organs (about 45%). Cells were mainly retained in the lungs and to a lesser extent in the left-sided circulation indicating that most cells left the target area via the myocardial venous or lymphatic system. The possibility that less homing signals are

present in chronic damaged myocardium and could lead to the higher redistribution remains to be elucidated. Although no acute adverse effects (e.g. respiratory failure) were observed due to extra-cardiac distribution, long-term side-effects cannot be ruled out yet, since the follow-up was 4 hours.

Recommendations for future stem cell studies

Based on our results (e.g. delivery efficiency and safety data) and others³ the choice of delivery method could depend on medical indication and practical aspects, since TE and IC yield similar results.

Since MSC were injected through an open coronary artery, we suggest the use of IC for patients with a patent coronary artery and TE for occluded arteries when using similar amount of cells. This is important in view of (large scaled) clinical trials. Since the majority of the delivered cells were retained in non-target organs, organ toxicity should be evaluated in future (pre-) clinical studies.

In our study, low efficiency (11%) to the heart was found using percutaneous delivery techniques. This finding should trigger researchers to develop new catheters or strategies (e.g. microtissues, image fusion or molecular approaches) to improve targeted cell retention.

Limitations

The design of our study did not include a functional evaluation of the different cell distribution, as the goal was to determine the most optimal delivery strategy by evaluating short term MSC retention. In a pre-clinical meta-analysis (52 studies; 900 animals) we have previously shown that improvements in ejection fraction (EF) after cell therapy were observed³. Interestingly, no differences in EF between IC, TE and surgical injection could be noticed. In addition, multivariate analysis showed that the method of delivery was a non-significant predictor of EF improvement³.

To date, numerous human and pre-clinical trials have already been conducted in order to assess the efficacy and safety aspects of cardiac stem cell therapy. Obviously, differences exist between large animal models and clinical practice. Healthy young large animals differ from older patients with long standing coronary artery disease, and frequently co-morbidities (e.g. diabetes, hypertension, renal failure) are frequently present. Despite these differences, a recent published pre-clinical meta-analysis showed that large animal models are valid to predict the outcome of clinical trials³.

Relatively low cell viability after ¹¹¹In labeling was observed, however no difference between groups was found. Moreover, the overall viability was comparable to other groups (69% vs.74%)³¹.

CONCLUSIONS

This randomized study showed no significant difference in delivery efficiency to the myocardium in a clinically relevant ischemic large animal model. Moreover, no differences in safety profile were observed. These results suggest that, the choice of delivery modality could depend on medical indication and practical aspects (costs, side effects on non-target organs and operator experience), since TE and IC yield similar results.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Netherlands Heart Foundation ‘[2003B07304 and 2010T025]’, BSIK program ”Dutch Program for Tissue Engineering”, ‘[grant 6746]’, and a Bekalis price (PD). This research is part of the Project P1.04 SMARTCARE of the research program of the BioMedical Materials institute, co-funded by the Dutch Ministry of Economic Affairs, Agriculture and Innovation. The final contribution of the Netherlands Heart Foundation is gratefully acknowledged.

We gratefully acknowledge Cees Verlaan, Merel Schurink, Marlijn Jansen, Maringa Emons, Ben van Middelaar and Joyce Visser for excellent technical assistance and animal care. In addition, the authors acknowledge the technical assistance provided by Fred van het Schip and Sridevi Jaksani. The authors would also like to thank John Bemelmans and Sieneke Heeres for their skilled technical assistance with the MSC labeling with ¹¹¹In and with the pig *in vivo* and *ex vivo* scintigraphy studies. We thank P. Agostoni MD, PhD (interventional cardiologist) for grading the coronary angiographies.

Conflict of interest statement

None

REFERENCES

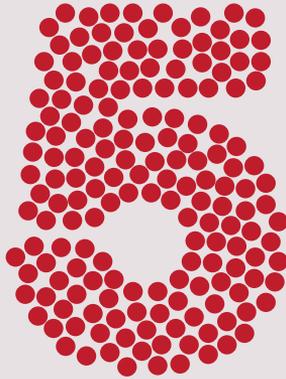
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Chapter 4

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**AUTOLOGOUS MESENCHYMAL STEM CELLS SHOW MORE
BENEFIT ON SYSTOLIC FUNCTION COMPARED TO BONE
MARROW MONONUCLEAR CELLS IN A PORCINE MODEL OF
CHRONIC MYOCARDIAL INFARCTION.**

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ABSTRACT

Background: Cell therapy is a promising strategy to treat patients after myocardial infarction (MI). Although several cell sources have been explored, no consensus exists regarding the optimal cell type. Here, we (1) compare transendocardial injection (TE) of bone marrow-derived mononuclear cells (BMMNC) with mesenchymal stem cells (MSC) to improve systolic function, and (2) assess the effect of repetitive injections in a porcine model of chronic MI.

Methods: Nineteen animals underwent TE cell delivery using electromechanical mapping guidance at 4 and 8 weeks after MI. Animals received 10^7 autologous BMMNC or MSC, and were allocated to 3 groups: (1) placebo+placebo, (2) MSC+placebo, or (3) BMMNC+MSC delivery. Cardiac function was assessed by echocardiography and p§ressure-volume loops. Myocardial biopsies were processed for collagen content and capillary density.

Results: Ejection fraction (EF) was significantly improved after MSC injection from baseline to 4 weeks post-injection and not by BMMNC injection (Group 2 $11.9\pm 3\%$ vs. Group 3 $-1.6\pm 6\%$; $P=0.028$). The positive effect of MSC on EF improvement was sustained 8 weeks post-injection (Group 2 $17.8\pm 3\%$ vs. Group 1 $-9.1\pm 3\%$; $P<0.01$). No difference was observed in EF changes ($P=0.28$) between the single MSC and repetitive cell injected groups. Moreover, no difference in vessel density was observed ($P=0.51$) supporting our observations.

Conclusions: This study showed that autologous MSC rather than BMMNC injection improves systolic function in ischemic cardiomyopathy, moreover this positive effect is sustained during long-term follow-up. No additional value of repetitive injections was noted. These results are important in view of the choice of cell type in designing novel clinical stem cell trials.

INTRODUCTION

Ischemic heart failure remains a major cause of morbidity and mortality¹. Stem cell therapy emerged as an innovative and attractive therapeutic approach for patients with chronic myocardial ischemia. The ultimate goal of this treatment is to support and enhance the endogenous repair mechanisms by replacing dysfunctional cardiomyocytes and inducing angiogenesis.

In clinical and pre-clinical studies, a modest improvement in left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF) was observed using a single injection of bone marrow (BM) cells after myocardial infarction (MI)^{2,3}. Our recent pre-clinical meta-analysis showed that the choice of cell type is an important significant predictor of improvement in LVEF³ suggesting a trend towards more pronounced effects of mesenchymal stem cells (MSC). Furthermore, our observations indicated that initial effects fade away over time. Based on this observation we suggested that a strategy using repetitive cell injections may be worthwhile. Till now, bone marrow mononuclear cells (BMMNC) and MSC have been well studied in patients with ischemic heart disease⁴. However, functional differences between MSC and BMMNC exist as was suggested by our group³. A direct comparison on functional endpoints between these cell types has not been performed so far.

Percutaneous transendocardial (TE) delivery, guided by electromechanical mapping (NOGA), was shown to be safe in patients with chronic ischemic cardiomyopathy⁵ and has the advantage to detect hibernating myocardium which is the area that will probably profit most from cell delivery⁶.

Our objective was to determine the most potent regenerative strategy using autologous BM cell types, i.e. BMMNC and MSC, in a large animal model of ischemia/reperfusion injury. Two aims were defined: (1) comparison of the short-term effects between BMMNC and MSC; (2) determining the long-term effects, including a strategy of repetitive injections.

METHODS

Animals

Nineteen female Dutch Landrace pigs received humane-like care in compliance with the “*Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals*,” published by the National Institutes of Health (National Institutes of Health publication 85-23, revised 1985). The study protocol was approved by the Animal Experimentation Committee of the University of Utrecht.

Study design

Animals were allocated to 1 of 3 groups: (Group 1) placebo + placebo, (Group 2) MSC + placebo or (Group 3) BMMNC + MSC. Four weeks after MI animals received injection of autologous 10⁷ BMMNC, 10⁷ MSC or PBS (placebo) (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Eight weeks after MI the second TE injection

of 10^7 MSC or PBS was performed. Twelve weeks after the initial MI, the animals were euthanized. For aim 1, cardiac function was assessed by pressure-volume (PV) loops at 8 weeks (before the second injection), and for aim 2 at 12 weeks including histology (sacrifice). The study design is shown in Figure 1.

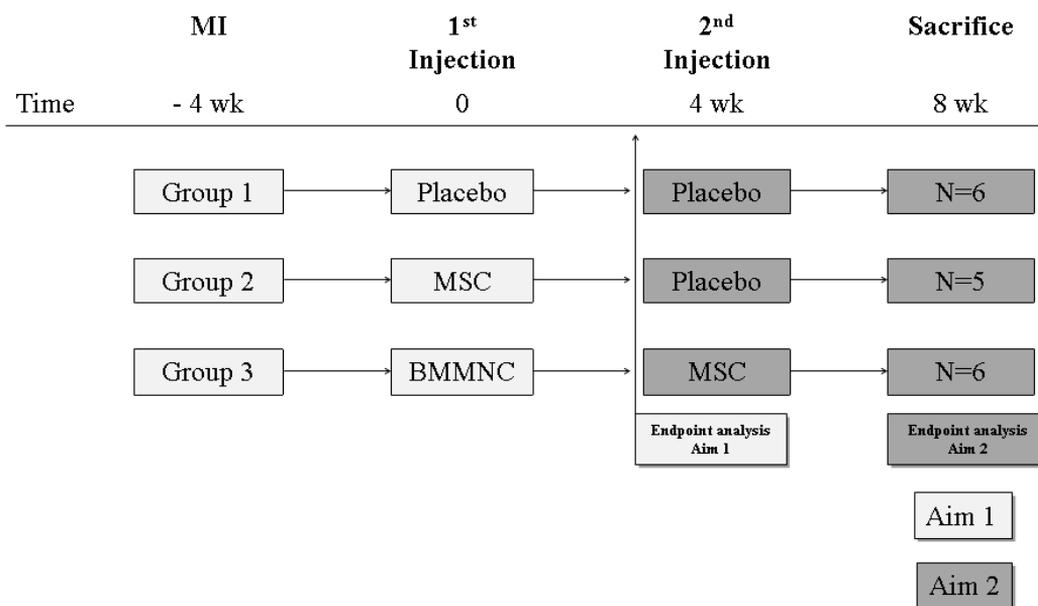


Figure 1. Study design.

BMMNC=bone marrow mononuclear cells; Echo=echocardiography; MI=myocardial infarction; MSC=mesechymal stem cells; PV-loop=pressure-volume loop.

Premedication and anesthesia

After an overnight fast, animals were sedated with an intramuscular injection of ketamin (10 mg/kg), midazolam (0.5 mg/kg) and atropin (0.04 mg/kg). Next, thiopental (4 mg/kg) was administered intravenously before intubation. Animals were intubated with an endotracheal tube and anesthetized in the supine position. The animals were mechanically ventilated with the use of a positive-pressure ventilator with a mix of oxygen and air (FiO₂ 0.5). General anesthesia/analgesia was maintained with midazolam (0.5 mg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹, Roche, Woerden, the Netherlands), sufentanyl citrate (2 µg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹, Janssen-Cilag, Tilburg, the Netherlands) and pancuronium bromid (0.1 mg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹, Organon, Oss, the Netherlands). Metoprolol (Centrafarm, Etten-Leur, the Netherlands) was administered intravenously (5 mg) to reduce the mechanical irritation of the heart. During surgery, animals were anticoagulated with heparin (ACT>250s). At the end of the experiment the animals were euthanized by pentobarbital overdose.

Myocardial ischemia/reperfusion model

During the entire procedure, electrocardiogram, arterial pressure and capnogram were continuously monitored. Prior to MI, all animals received an oral dose of amiodarone (400 mg/day; starting 10 days prior to MI) and clopidogrel (75 mg/day; starting 3 days prior to MI, Sanofi Aventis, Gouda, the Netherlands)⁷. A bolus of 500 mg acetylic salicylic acid (Centrafarm, Etten-Leur, the Netherlands) was given the day before the occlusion. MI was created by a percutaneous balloon of equivalent size to the proximal left circumflex artery (LCX). The balloon was inflated for 75 minutes at 5-8 atm⁸. Complete occlusion of the LCX was confirmed by angiography. To prevent ventricular arrhythmias, 300 mg amiodarone (Centrafarm, Etten-Leur, the Netherlands) intravenously was given. External defibrillation (150-200 Joules) was used when ventricular fibrillation occurred. After the procedure, coronary angiography was performed to confirm vessel patency. After recovery, the animals received daily an oral dose of 50 mg metoprolol, 400 mg amiodarone, 75 mg clopidogrel, and 160 mg acetylic salicylic acid until termination to prevent thrombosis and arrhythmias⁷.

MSC culture and labeling

Bone marrow was aspirated (35-40 mL) from the sternum by a heparinized syringe. BMMNC were isolated by ficoll density gradient centrifugation and frozen in 10% DMSO and 90% culture medium. MSC were isolated and characterized as previously described.⁹ Autologous MSC were cultured at 37°C in Alpha MEM (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA), supplemented with 10% FBS, heparin and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. Cells were cultured, replacing medium every three days and used between passage 5-7. Before injection cells were resuspended in 2 mL PBS and viability was assessed via trypan-blue (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) counting.

Transendocardial delivery

To enable TE injection, an 8-F sheath was placed in a carotid artery. Next, a mapping catheter (Biosense Webster, Cordis, Johnson & Johnson, USA) was placed retrogradely through the aortic valve into the left ventricle (LV). First, a 3-dimensional electromechanical map of the LV was obtained using the NOGA system (Biosense Webster, Cordis, Johnson & Johnson, USA), as described before^{10, 11}. Hereafter, 10 injections of 0.2 mL were slowly placed using the MYOSTAR[®] injection catheter (Biosense Webster, Cordis, Johnson & Johnson, Diamond Bar, USA). Two injections were placed in the infarct zone and 8 in the border zone. Four weeks after the first injection, this procedure was repeated and the second injections were given at the same location. Injections were only given in areas with a unipolar voltage greater than 6mV^{10, 11}.

Echocardiography

A transthoracic echocardiogram (5-MHz probe, IE-33, Philips, Best, the Netherlands) was performed directly after MI, eight weeks after MI and at sacrifice as described before⁷. Short axis images were obtained at the papillary level, and three consecutive cardiac cycles were acquired. Wall thickness (WT) of the posterolateral wall was assessed in end-systole and end-diastole. The internal area (LVIA) was obtained without including the papillary muscles in end-systole and end-diastole. The fractional area shortening was calculated as $((LVIA_{ed}-LVIA_{es})/LVIA_{ed}) \times 100$.

Pressure-Volume loop protocol

Pressure-volume loops were obtained using a 7-F conductance catheter that was inserted via a carotid artery and placed along the long axis of the LV. The catheter was connected with a signal processor (Leycom CFL, CD-Leycom, Zoetermeer, the Netherlands). The correct position of the conductance catheter was verified by angiography and by inspection of the segmental conductance signals. The conductance signals were calibrated by thermodilution and hypertonic saline dilution via a 7-F Swan-Ganz catheter that was placed into the right or left pulmonary artery^{12, 13}. Data were collected during steady-state conditions with the respirator systems turned off at end-expiration. From these signals, hemodynamic indices were derived. Data analysis and calculations were performed using custom-made software (CD Leycom, Zoetermeer, the Netherlands), as previously described¹⁴. Parameters of global systolic and diastolic function were calculated during steady-state conditions at 4, 8, and 12 weeks after MI. Cardiac output (CO) measured by Swan-Ganz was corrected by multiplying each measurement with 0.62. This number was based on the following equation (CO Swan-Ganz at sacrifice /CO transonic aorta flow probe at sacrifice). The isovolumic relaxation time constant (Tau) was calculated by phase-plot analysis. The end-systolic pressure volume relationship was measured by its slope end-systolic elastance (Ees). Diastolic stiffness (Eed) was determined as the linear slope of the end-diastolic pressure volume relationship. Both were calculated by single beat analysis as described earlier¹⁵.

Histology

After euthanasia, the LV was weighed and tissue samples from the infarct and remote region of the heart were obtained. Samples were fixed in 4% formalin at room temperature or snapfrozen. Before cutting 5 micrometer sections, samples were embedded in paraffin for collagen analysis. For quantification of collagen content, picrosirius red staining and detection with circularly polarized light and digital image microscopy was used¹⁶. Three random images of the infarcted area were obtained. After conversion into grey value images, the average number of grey values was expressed as a grey value/mm². Snapfrozen samples were cut at 7 micrometer and stained with Lectin (Sigma Aldrich) to quantify capillary density. Nuclei were

stained with Hematoxylin and Eosin. Three random images were obtained at 10x magnification.

Statistical analysis

Values derived from echocardiography were analyzed in a blinded fashion. For statistical analysis, we used a linear mixed-effects model to account for repeated measurements on each animal. Statistical comparison of data between groups was done using an one-way ANOVA with a post-hoc Tukey test. Data are presented as mean±SE. All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 18.1.1 and P-values <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Procedural data

In total 19 animals underwent the MI procedure. One animal died due to severe heart failure evidenced by autopsy (Group 1; day 71 after MI), and one animal had to be terminated for reaching a human defined endpoint due to an abscess at the right foot not related to the study (Group 2). MSC viability (Group 2 92±4% vs. Group 3 93±1%; $P=0.10$) and number of MSC (Group 2 $1.0\pm 0.1\cdot 10^7$ vs. Group 3 $0.9\pm 0.2\cdot 10^7$; $P=0.10$) did not differ between the cell treated groups. BMMNC viability was 92±4% and the injected number $1.7\pm 0.2\cdot 10^7$. No cardiac tamponade was observed after any cell or placebo injection.

Aim 1: Comparison between MSC and BMMNC on cardiac function

Four weeks after MI (baseline), no difference in LVEF between groups was observed ($P=0.30$; Table 1). When comparing LVEF differences between baseline and 4 weeks after injection (Figure 2), placebo treated animals showed a reduction in LVEF whereas in MSC treated animals LVEF was significantly improved (Group 2 11.9±3% vs. Group 1 -7.8±8%; $P=0.002$). Animals treated with MSC showed a tendency for having a decrease in Δ ESV (Group 2 -6.0±7mL vs. Group 1 10±10mL; $P=0.10$). Surprisingly, no significant difference in Δ LVEF between BMMNC and placebo treatment was observed (Group 3 -1.6±6% vs. Group 1 -7.8±8%; $P=0.748$). This also means that MSC injection led to a significant increase in Δ LVEF compared to BMMNC injection (Group 2 11.9±3% vs. Group 3 -1.6±6%; $P=0.028$) but also significantly improved Δ CO (Group 2 0.7±0.3 L/min vs. Group 3 -0.4±0.4 L/min; $P=0.037$) and thereby reflects an increased systolic cardiac performance. With respect to global diastolic function, no significant difference in Δ end-diastolic volume between groups could be observed (Group 1 -0.2±4mL, Group 2 7.7±13mL, Group 3 -14±8mL; all $P>0.1$). In addition, dp/dt_{MIN} , Tau, end-diastolic pressure (EDP), and pressure halftime (PHT) were similar in the different treatment groups (Table 1). However, passive diastolic function was improved in the BMMNC group compared to the other groups, indicated by Δ Eed (Group 1 0.08±0.05 mmHg/mL,

Group 2 0.12 ± 0.08 mmHg/mL, Group 3 -0.08 ± 0.05 mmHg/mL; BMMNC vs. placebo $P=0.04$, MSC vs. BMMNC $P=0.004$, MSC vs. placebo $P=0.349$).

Directly after MI, echocardiographic recordings showed that end-systolic WT was similar between groups (Group 1: 1.25 ± 0.2 cm, Group 2: 1.38 ± 0.1 cm, Group 3: 1.01 ± 0.2 cm; $P=0.78$). Also no difference in end-diastolic WT was observed (Group 1 1.21 ± 0.3 cm, Group 2 1.18 ± 0.3 cm, Group 3 1.01 ± 0.2 cm; $P=0.48$). Four weeks after treatment no significant effect on Δ End-diastolic WT (Group 1 0.03 ± 0.06 cm, Group 2 0.01 ± 0.03 cm, Group 3 0.10 ± 0.05 cm) and Δ End-systolic WT (Group 1 0.28 ± 0.07 cm, Group 2 0.06 ± 0.06 cm, Group 3 0.16 ± 0.09 cm) was found.

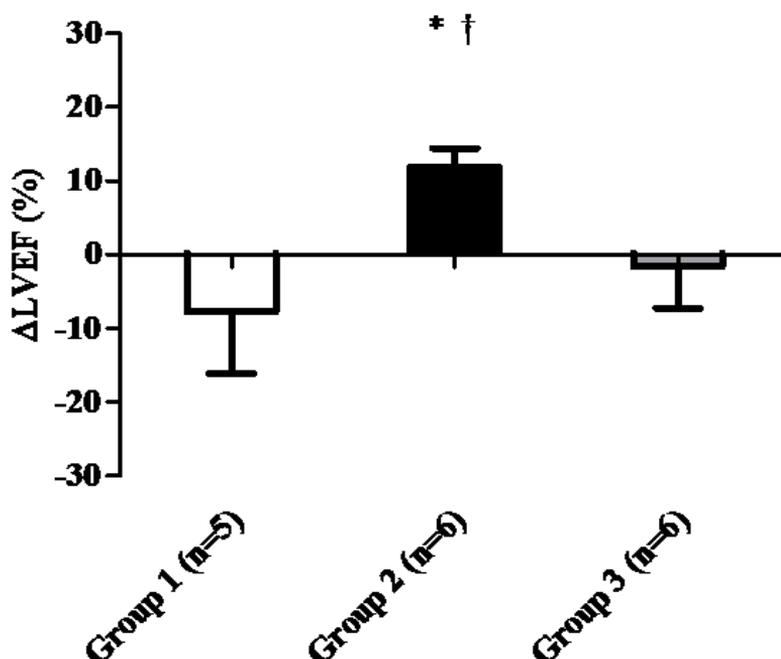


Figure 2. MSC injection improves systolic function compared to BMMNC.

Percentage of change in LVEF between baseline and 4 weeks after injection in each treatment group. * $P<0.01$ compared to placebo. † $P=0.028$ compared to BMMNC. LVEF= Left ventricular ejection fraction.

| Hemodynamics | Baseline | | | 2e Injection | | | Sacrifice | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|-----------|-----------|--------------------|------------------------|-----------|---------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| | (4 weeks after MI) | | | (8 weeks after MI) | | | (12 weeks after MI) | | |
| Parameter | Group 1 | Group 2 | Group 3 | Group 1 | Group 2 | Group 3 | Group 1 | Group 2 | Group 3 |
| General | | | | | | | | | |
| Weight (kg) | 73±3 | 71±2 | 73±1 | 80±3 | 76±2 | 76±1 | 83±3 | 82±3 | 82±1 |
| LV weight (g) | | | | | | | 168±7 | 159±5 | 175±9 |
| FAS (%) | | | | 50±5 | 55±3 | 47±2 | 50±2 | 51±2 | 43±3 |
| HR (beats/min) | 52±2 | 59±4 | 52±6 | 63±8 | 56±1 | 57±7 | 51±7 | 55±1 | 53±4 |
| CO (L/min) | 3.5±0.3 | 2.8±0.2 | 3.0±0.4 | 3.2±0.2 | 3.5±0.3 [§] | 2.7±0.2 | 2.8±0.5 | 3.5±0.3 | 3.1±0.1 |
| Systole | | | | | | | | | |
| ESV (mL) | 41±3 | 37±4 | 49±7 | 50±12 | 31±8 | 44±7 | 51±11 | 23±5 [#] | 30±6* |
| ESP (mmHg) | 96±7 | 87±11 | 100±5 | 86±7 | 90±8 | 85±4 | 91±7 | 81±5 | 74±4* |
| EF (%) | 62±2 | 57±2 | 55±5 | 54±7 | 69±3 ^{#§} | 54±5 | 52±3 | 74±3 [#] | 69±4* |
| dP/dt _{max} (mmHg/s) | 1586±131 | 1390±208 | 1374±46 | 1372±152 | 1351±134 | 1096±64 | 1460±102 | 1402±40 [§] | 1033±71* |
| Ees (mmHg/ml) | 3.9±0.5 | 4.2±0.6 | 3.7±0.1 | 3.7±0.7 | 3.7±0.4 | 3.2±0.2 | 4.1±0.9 | 3.7±0.5 | 2.5±0.3* |
| Diastole | | | | | | | | | |
| EDV (mL) | 107±8 | 85±5 | 109±6 | 106±13 | 92±13 | 95±9 | 106±16 | 86±9 | 91±10 |
| EDP (mmHg) | 16±1 | 13±1 | 16±1 | 14±2 | 16±1 | 13±2 | 15±1 | 14±2 | 11±1* [§] |
| dP/dt _{MIN} (mmHg/s) | -1428±131 | -1345±165 | -1393±91 | -1350±224 | -1447±119 | -1275±99 | -1239±224 | -1328±99 | -1148±93 |
| PHT (ms) | 34±2 | 31±2 | 39±3 | 36±7 | 31±1 | 34±3 | 44±7 | 28±1 [#] | 31±1* |
| Tau (ms) | 58±4 | 52±4 | 67±6 | 62±14 | 51±2 | 57±5 | 72±16 | 48±2 | 49±2* |
| Eed (mmHg/mL) | 0.38±0.04 | 0.42±0.02 | 0.37±0.06 | 0.46±0.8* | 0.54±0.06 [§] | 0.29±0.02 | 0.30±0.04 | 0.38±0.07 | 0.24±0.03 |

Table 1. Hemodynamics derived from pressure-volume loops at baseline, before the second injection and at sacrifice.

CO indicates cardiac output; HR, heart rate; EDP, end-diastolic pressure; ESP, end-systolic pressure; dP/dt_{MAX}, maximal rate of LV pressure increase; -dP/dt_{MIN}, maximal rate of LV pressure decrease; EDV, end-diastolic volume; Eed, myocardial stiffness; Ees, End-systolic elastance; ESV, end-systolic volume; EF, ejection fraction; FAS, fractional area shortening; LV, left ventricle; PHT, pressure halftime; Tau, isovolumic relaxation time constant. Data are presented as mean±SE. #BMMNC vs. placebo P<0.05, §MASC vs. BMMNC P<0.01, §MASC vs. BMMNC P<0.05.

Aim 2: Long-term effects on cardiac function

Having established the effect at four weeks after injection, we investigated the long-term effect of MSC compared to placebo, reflected by the change between baseline and 8 weeks after injection. Hemodynamic data are summarized in Table 1. PV-loop analyses revealed that global LV function was significantly improved as evidenced by an increase in Δ LVEF (Figure 3), reduction in Δ ESV (Group 1 0.6 ± 13 mL vs. Group 2 -14 ± 9 mL; $P=0.009$) and a tendency for increased Δ CO (Group 1 -0.7 ± 0.4 L/min vs. Group 2 0.7 ± 0.2 L/min; $P=0.08$) compared to control animals. Active relaxation indexed by Δ Tau ($P=0.07$) and Δ PHT (Group 1 10 ± 15 ms vs. Group 2 -2 ± 3 ms; $P=0.012$) was improved after MSC injection.

No significant differences in Δ end-diastolic WT (Group 1 -0.45 ± 0.2 cm vs. Group 2 -0.48 ± 0.1 ; $P=0.74$) and Δ end-systolic WT (Group 1 -0.18 ± 0.2 cm vs. Group 2 -0.26 ± 0.1 cm; $P=0.70$) were observed.

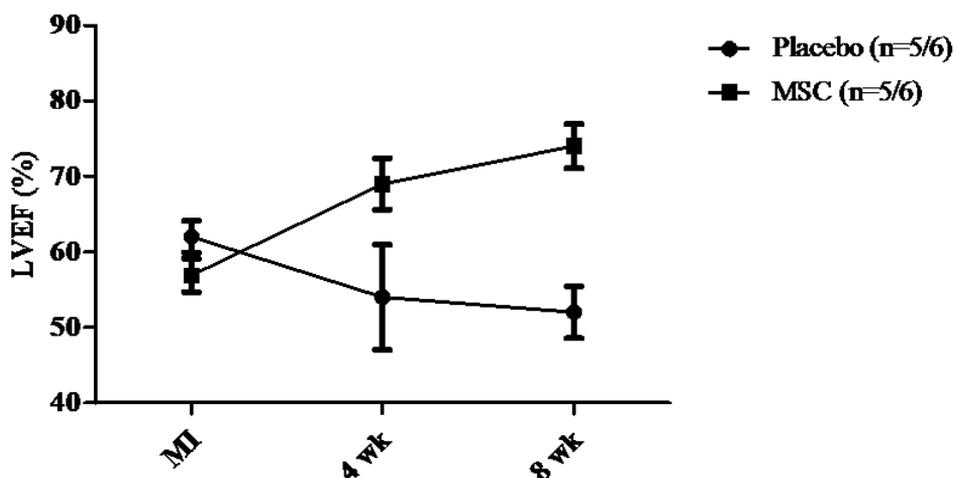


Figure 3. Improvement in LVEF is maintained during long-term follow-up after MSC injection. LVEF at baseline, 4 weeks and 8 weeks after placebo and MSC treatment. MI=myocardial infarction, LVEF= Left ventricular ejection fraction, MSC=mesenchymal stem cells.

Effect of repeated cell injection on LV performance

Next, we studied whether a second injection of MSC could rescue the damaged myocardium. When comparing Δ LVEF between baseline and at sacrifice (Figure 4), placebo treated animals showed a reduction in Δ LVEF, whereas in cell treated animals Δ EF was significantly improved (Group 2 $18 \pm 3\%$, Group 3 $13 \pm 4\%$ vs. Group 1 $-9 \pm 3\%$; all $P < 0.01$) caused by a significant reduction in Δ ESV (Group 2 -14 ± 4 mL, Group 3 -20 ± 4 mL vs. Group 1 11 ± 10 mL; all $P < 0.01$). However, no difference in Δ EF or Δ ESV between single MSC injection and repeated cell delivery could be observed ($P=0.28$ and $P=0.79$). Contractility measured by Δ dp/dtMAX

was significantly increased after single MSC injection, compared to BMMNC and MSC injection (Group 2 105 ± 193 mmHg, Group 3 -340 ± 63 mL; $P=0.003$). In fact, the second MSC injection on top of the first BMMNC injection (without significant difference compared to placebo) once more revealed the magnitude of effect on systolic function by MSC.

Overall, both cell groups showed an improvement in diastolic active relaxation parameters compared to placebo treated animals. This was reflected by a shortened $\Delta\tau$ and decreased ΔPHT . Myocardial stiffness (E_{ed}) was unaffected by cell therapy. No statistical difference in active and passive diastolic function between the cell treated groups could be observed, except for EDP.

No significant difference in echocardiographic parameters ($\Delta\text{end-systolic posterolateral WT}$ and $\Delta\text{End-diastolic WT}$) between single cell injection and repeated cell injection was observed.

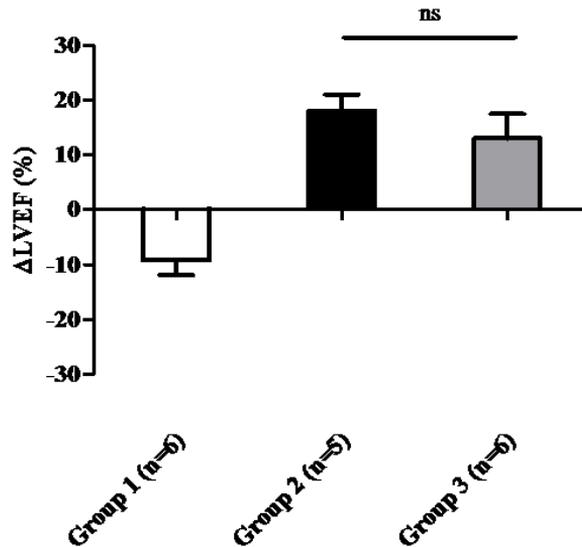


Figure 4. No beneficial effect of repeated cell delivery on LVEF 12 weeks post-MI. No significant effect on ΔLVEF (baseline and 8 weeks after injection) between single and repeated cell injection was observed. LVEF= Left ventricular ejection fraction.

Collagen and capillary density

No significant difference in collagen density between groups was observed (Group 1 37 ± 4 , Group 2 42 ± 2 , Group 3 40 ± 5 ; $P=0.56$). As shown in Figure 5, microvessel number was low in the control animals and increased upon MSC (Group 2) and repeated cell injection (Group 3). However, no significant difference between cell treated groups was observed.

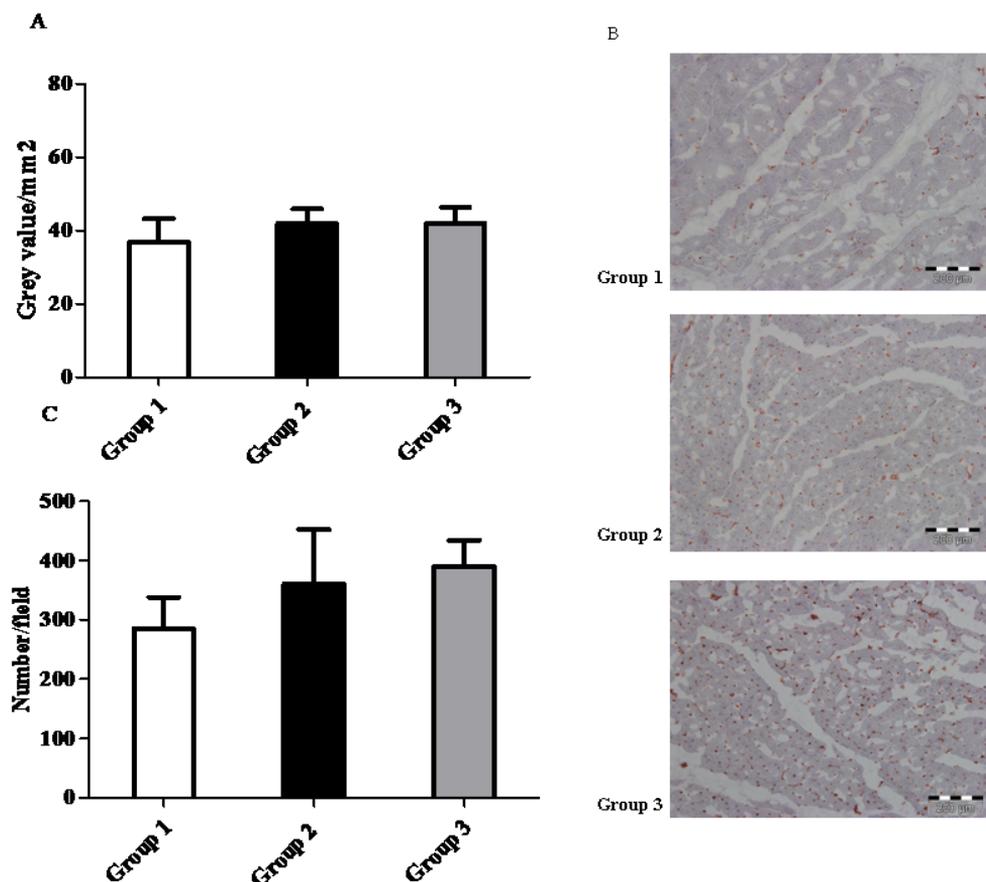


Figure 5. Similar microcirculatory remodeling after cell delivery 12 weeks post-MI.

5A. No difference in collagen density was observed. 5B. Representative images of Lectin staining at sacrifice. 5C. Microvascular formation (diameter 10-1000 μ m) determined by Lectin staining at sacrifice. n= 5 for group 1, n=5 for group 2, n=6 for group 3.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we performed a comparison between MSC and BMMNC via TE cell delivery in a porcine model of chronic ischemic heart disease. The main novel findings of our study are: 1) MSC are superior to BMMNC in improving systolic function; 2) The beneficial effect of MSC on LVEF was maintained during long-term follow-up; 3) Repeated cell injection does not further improve systolic function. However, MSC on top of BMMNC led to normalization of LV function, supporting the notion that MSC rather than BMMNC improve systolic function.

MSC treatment improves systolic function in contrast to BMMNC

We performed a head-to-head comparison of treatment with autologous BMMNC

and MSC, and demonstrated a beneficial effect for MSC on systolic function (EF $11.9\pm 3\%$), whereas no positive effect of BMMNC on LVEF was found compared to placebo (EF $-1.6\pm 6\%$, and $-7.8\pm 8\%$, respectively). This observation is in line with the results of our large pre-clinical meta-analysis showing more benefit of MSC in ischemic heart disease compared to BMMNC³. On the contrary, Li et al did not find significant differences between MSC and BMMNC. However, they infused more BMMNC than MSC (BMMNC $4.7\pm 1.7\times 10^7$ vs. MSC $6.2\pm 1.6\times 10^5$)¹⁷. It is known that the number of cells is related to the magnitude of effect^{3, 4}. It is important to stress that in our study we used similar numbers of both MSC and BMMNC (1×10^7). Our results may appear to be in contrast with data from previous clinical studies that did show modest but significant improvements of EF after treatment with BMMNC (approximately 3-5%)¹⁸⁻²⁰. However, such studies were mainly performed in the setting of *acute* MI, and these effects were predominantly found in subgroups of large infarctions (baseline EF < 48%)¹⁸. In fact, several trials with BMMNC in *chronic* patients did not show improvement of LV systolic function^{5, 21}. On the contrary, in a comparable patient cohort it was demonstrated that indeed MSC were able to improve cardiac function²². At present, a clinical study is initiated to directly compare these cells (TAC-HFT trial), and our pre-clinical results provide a robust rationale for such trial²³.

Long-term effects of MSC

The beneficial effects of MSC were consistent over time, since no difference was found between 4 and 8 weeks after cell injection (12% vs. 18%; n.s.). It has been suggested that initial effects of cell therapy fades away over time^{3, 24}, although recent clinical data supports the notion of long-term effects²⁵. Here, we conclude that in our model MSC treatment resulted in a stable and sustained effect on systolic function.

Repeated cell injection does not further improve cardiac function

Repetitive cell injections over time did not further improve systolic function compared to single MSC injection. This is at least in part due to the absent effect of BMMNC; this was surprising and not anticipated upon. Several studies investigated in particular the effect of repetitive cell transplantations²⁶. Our observations are in line with a clinical trial investigating the effect of repeated BMMNC injections in patients with chronic heart failure showing no additional benefit of repeated BMMNC treatment on LVEF²⁷. However, Yao et al. demonstrated that repeated BMMNC injection in patients with large acute MI resulted in a significant improvement in Δ LVEF compared to single cell injection²⁸. This effect may be explained by the low baseline LVEF values (20-39%) which were higher in our study. Our results are inline with a recent observation²⁹, in which skeletal myoblasts were sequential injected in a chronic infarcted porcine myocardium. Although a different cell type was used repeated cell injections showed no additional improvement in LVEF

(repeated 15.1% vs. single 11.1%).

Histological effects of MSC injection

In an attempt to explain the observed effects on systolic function, histological analysis was performed after sacrifice (8 weeks after first injection). First, no difference in collagen density between cell groups was found, indicating that cell therapy did not have effects on scar reduction⁶.

Second, measurement of capillary density showed a non-significant increased number of microvessels after MSC injection compared to placebo treatment (360 vs. 285). This is in line with the observed hemodynamic findings, and suggests a prominent role for enhanced microvasculature to explain the increased left ventricular function. This confirms previous observations^{6,30}.

Finally, some MSC were observed in the infarcted tissue by fluorescent microscopy (data not shown), but it is unlikely that the observed effect was caused by differentiation of MSC into cardiac lineages as suggested by others³¹. However, MSC may lead to pro-longed secretion of paracrine factors activating capillary angiogenesis.

Study limitations

Our ischemia/reperfusion model resulted in a limited decrease in EF (appr. 50% 4 weeks after MI), but not severe heart failure. This is related to the chosen model (temporary occlusion of LCX for 75 minutes), and maybe due to the fact that animals were treated with similar medication protocols (e.g. beta blockers, which may be cardioprotective) compared to the patients suffering from MI. Nevertheless, significant effects on LVEF were observed.

The porcine model is considered the best possible model to resemble the clinical situation, although major differences exist (e.g. risk factors, comorbidity, follow-up duration), which prevent direct extrapolation to patient management. Nevertheless, our group demonstrated that large animal models can accurately predict human clinical outcome and these models are frequently used for translational purposes³.

Nowadays, cardiac MRI is considered the gold standard to measure LVEF and volumes. However, due to practical reasons we performed echocardiographic and pressure-volume loop analysis. These techniques are still considered reliable, reproducible and a valid measure of LV function, and are therefore most often used in pre-clinical research models.

CONCLUSIONS

We clearly demonstrated that MSC are more potent in terms of improvement of LVEF than BMMNC in a chronic model for ischemic heart disease. Moreover, these effects are sustained over time. Our data do not support strategies using repetitive injections, although using different combinations of cells may be of value in more severe heart failure. These data should encourage researchers and clinicians to focus future studies on other cell types than BMMNC.

Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge Cees Verlaan, Merel Schurink, Marlijn Jansen, Maringa Emons and Joyce Visser for excellent technical assistance and animal care. In addition, the authors acknowledge the technical assistance provided by Esther van Eeuwijk and Sridevi Jaksani.

Sources of funding

This work was supported by the Netherlands Heart Foundation ‘[2003B07304 and 2010T025]’, BSIK program ”Dutch Program for Tissue Engineering”, ‘[grant 6746]’, and a Bekalis price (PD). This research is part of the Project P1.04 SMARTCARE of the research program of the BioMedical Materials institute, co-funded by the Dutch Ministry of Economic Affairs.

Disclosures: none

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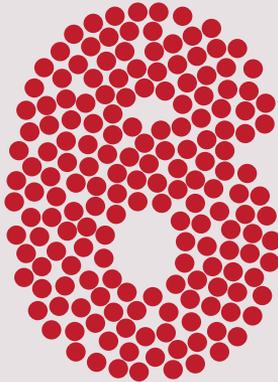
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**LAYER SPECIFIC RADIO FREQUENCY ULTRASOUND BASED
STRAIN ANALYSIS IN A PORCINE MODEL OF ISCHEMIC
CARDIOMYOPATHY VALIDATED BY A
GEOMETRICAL MODEL.**

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: Since the sub- endocardium is more vulnerable to increased wall stress, ischemia, and interstitial fibrosis, we hypothesized that layer specific strain might be a sensitive marker of changes in regional left ventricular (LV) performance. Radiofrequency (RF) ultrasound based analysis could provide superior deformation assessment compared to clinically available speckle based deformation imaging techniques. In this study, we investigate the ability of RF based myocardial deformation measurements to distinguish healthy from damaged myocardium in a porcine model of chronic myocardial infarction (MI).

Methods: In twenty-one pigs RF data was acquired epicardially in healthy regions, and in five pigs with a chronic MI. RF data was acquired epicardially in infarcted regions. Radial and longitudinal strains were estimated in the sub- endocardial, midwall, and sub- epicardial layers. Collagen content was quantified in healthy and infarcted regions of five pigs. We used an analytical geometrical model of the LV as a reference of normal radial deformation values in different myocardial layers when assuming tissue incompressibility.

Results: Mean \pm se values of the peak radial strain estimates of the sub- endocardial, midwall, and sub- epicardial layers of the healthy and infarcted tissue were: 82.7 ± 5.2 % and 39.9 ± 10.8 % ($p=0.002$), 63.6 ± 3.3 % and 38.8 ± 7.7 % ($p=0.004$), and 34.3 ± 3.0 % and 35.1 ± 5.2 % ($p=0.9$), respectively. The difference between the sub- endocardium and the sub- epicardium was decreased 12 weeks after MI. The analytically determined normal strain values in the sub- endocardial, midwall, and sub- epicardial layers respectively were: 80.5 %, 50.6 %, and 34.9 %.

Conclusion: The estimated strain values are in the same order of magnitude as the analytically determined strain values, indicating that the estimated values are realistic, and show that endocardial radial strain in healthy tissue can be as high as 80%. Since strain assessment by RF ultrasound analysis shows most affected strain values in the sub- endocardium and midwall layers which are most sensitive for ischemia, and interstitial fibrosis, we believe that this technique can be used to quantify subtle changes in the myocardium, and sub-clinical changes in local LV performance.

INTRODUCTION

To assess early local pathological changes in the myocardium during e.g. arrhythmogenic cardiomyopathy, stable angina pectoris, or assess changes in the myocardium that are induced by cardiac regenerative therapies aiming at local enhancement of vasculogenesis, cardiomyogenesis, or matrix enhanced myocardium stabilization, the use of regional function assessment has been proposed^{1, 2}. Besides providing information about the local pathological changes in the myocardium, this can help to identify dominant therapeutic mechanisms³. Unfortunately confounding factors affect deformation imaging⁴. In combination with limited spatial and temporal resolution of clinically available measurement techniques this prevented a widespread application of deformation imaging to assess subtle changes in the myocardium. However, when confounding factors are controlled, and higher spatial and temporal resolutions can be achieved, deformation imaging techniques can become available to assess local layer specific changes in the myocardium. Since local cardiac tissue deformation reflects the mechanical response of the myocardium to changes of contractility and stiffness, and both the before mentioned pathologies and therapy alter these tissue properties, it is most likely that deformation is altered accordingly. Moreover, the sub-endocardium is more vulnerable to increased wall stress, ischemia, and interstitial fibrosis. Since local extracellular matrix deposition enhances tissue stiffening and impairs deformation, we hypothesized that layer specific strain might be a sensitive marker of sub-clinical changes in regional LV performance. In this study, we investigate the ability of radiofrequency (RF) based myocardial deformation measurements to distinguish healthy from chronically infarcted myocardium in a porcine model of chronic myocardial infarction (MI). Local tissue deformation and local collagen content were quantified in different layers of the healthy and infarcted myocardium. Thereby local radial (thickening) and lateral (shortening) deformation indices that can be used to assess subtle pathological changes are derived. An analytical geometrical model of the left ventricle based on dimensions derived from the experiments served as a reference of normal radial deformation values that can be expected in the different myocardial layers when assuming tissue incompressibility⁵.

METHODS

Porcine myocardial infarction model

Twenty-one female Daland Landrace pigs (weighing 69 ± 4 kg) received care in accordance with the *Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Pigs* prepared by the Institute of Laboratory Animal Resources. Experiments were approved by the Animal Experimentation Committee of the Utrecht University, the Netherlands. Closed-chest MI was created by a percutaneous balloon of equivalent size to the proximal left circumflex artery (LCX). Prior to MI all animals received an oral dose

of amiodarone (400 mg/day; start 10 days prior to MI) and clopidogrel (75 mg/day; start 3 days prior to MI, Sanofi Aventis, Gouda, the Netherlands). A bolus of 500 mg acetylic salicylic acid (Centrafarm, Etten-Leur, the Netherlands) was given the day before the occlusion. The balloon was inflated for 75 minutes at 5-8 atm⁶. Complete occlusion of the LCX was confirmed by angiography. To prevent ventricular arrhythmias, 300 mg amiodarone (Centrafarm, Etten-Leur, the Netherlands) was given intravenously. External defibrillation (150-200 Joules) was used if ventricular fibrillation occurred. After the procedure, coronary angiography was performed to confirm vessel patency. After recovery, the animals received daily an oral dose of 50 mg metoprolol, 400 mg amiodarone, 75 mg clopidogrel, and 160 mg acetylic salicylic acid until termination to prevent thrombosis and arrhythmias.

Experimental protocol

Twelve weeks after MI a thoracotomy was performed for epicardial measurements of ultrasound RF data in long-axis cross sections from the LV lateral and anterior wall as depicted in figure 1. Data recorded from the LCX territory of the lateral wall are hereafter referred to as infarcted, and since the left anterior descending coronary artery (LAD) is untreated, data recorded from the anterior wall are referred to as healthy. Locations where data were recorded were marked by two epicardial stitches. To avoid errors in deformation estimation caused by motion of the heart in a direction perpendicular to the ultrasound imaging plane (out of plane motion), the apex was loosely fixed by using a Starfish Cardiac Positioner (Medtronic Inc., Minneapolis, MN, USA), and the ultrasound probe was manually moved with the tissue. After data acquisition hearts were excised and tissue samples marked by the two stitches were taken for collagen quantification.

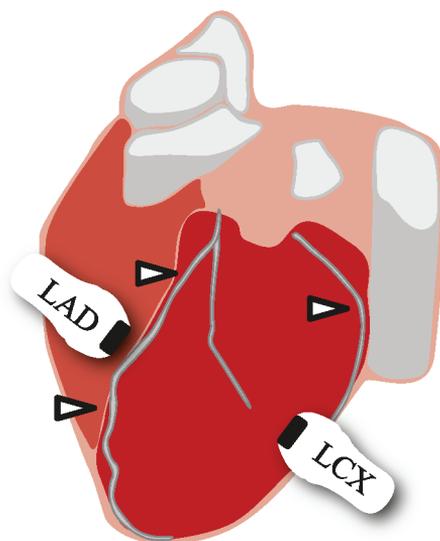


Figure 1. Measurement positions at the left ventricular lateral (LCX) and anterior wall (LAD).

Functional parameters

End diastolic and end systolic volumes, and ejection fraction (EF) were measured at baseline and after four weeks by pressure-volume loops using a conductance catheter.

RF echocardiographic data acquisition and deformation estimation

RF data were acquired with a Medison Accuvix V10 ultrasound scanner with a radiofrequency data interface in combination with a 3.8 centimeter wide linear array probe (L5-13) with a center frequency of 8.7 MHz. The RF data were digitized at a sampling rate of 61.6 MHz. To determine the layer specific deformation (strain) first the motion of small tissue regions (0.6 mm x 1mm) was tracked over one cardiac cycle starting in the ultrasound image frame that revealed minimum wall thickness (end diastole). To estimate the tissue motion (displacement) from one ultrasound frame to the next an iterative search algorithm was used^{7, 8}. Both the motion in the direction of the ultrasound beam (radial tissue direction) as well as perpendicular to the ultrasound beam (longitudinal tissue direction) was determined. In each of five iterations RF data for a certain tissue region in one ultrasound frame were shifted over the RF data within a larger tissue region (search region) in the next ultrasound frame and the 2D cross-correlation value was calculated. The 2D shift that resulted in the highest cross-correlation value (best match) was a value for the occurred 2D motion for that part of the tissue. The accuracy of the motion estimates was increased in each iteration. In the first four iterations this was achieved by halving the window sizes of both the initial window and the search window. In the final iteration the motion estimates were improved by sub sample aligning of the RF data of the initial window and search window^{7, 9}. The motion estimates of preceding iterations were used as a starting point for the search in each new iteration. In the first iteration the cross-correlations were calculated using the envelope of the RF data to get a robust initial motion estimate. After each iteration motion estimates were median filtered to remove outliers. The window size of the median filter was 9×9 motion estimate values. The iterative procedure resulted in motion estimates for tissue segments of 0.125 mm x 0.200 mm. To derive the radial and longitudinal strains a 2D least-squares strain estimator (LSQSE) was applied to the radial and longitudinal motion field, respectively^{10, 11}. Strain values were averaged in three myocardial layers of equal thickness: sub- endocardial, midwall, and sub- epicardial. Local radial and lateral peak strain values were used to quantify local cardiac biomechanics.

Analytical strain

We assumed that myocardial tissue is composed of incompressible spongy solid material filled with incompressible intracoronary blood as defined by Huyghe et al.⁵ Then tissue deformations in the three orthogonal directions of the cardiac coordinate system are related. We used an analytical elaboration of this relation to calculate

the expected values of the strains in the different layers of the myocardium. From two truncated ellipsoids, we constructed an LV shape with dimensions similar to the average values measured from the five animals used during the experiments (figure 3). End diastolic inner diameter (D_{edi}) = 4.5 cm, end diastolic outer diameter (D_{edo}) = 6.5 cm, and end diastolic length (l_{ed}) = 7.5 cm. A longitudinal shortening (ϵ_l) of -0.22 (12) was applied, and an epicardial diameter change ($\lambda_{c,epi}$) of 0.95 (13). The longitudinal (λ_l) and circumferential (λ_c) stretch ratios can be calculated from the length and the volume of the truncated ellipsoidal geometry.

[1]

$$V = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \pi \cdot (D/2)^2 \cdot l$$

[2]

$$\lambda_l = \frac{l_{end\ systole}}{l_{end\ diastole}}$$

[3]

$$\lambda_c = \left(\frac{V_{end\ diastole} \cdot l_{end\ systole}}{V_{end\ systole} \cdot l_{end\ diastole}} \right)^{-1/2}$$

In which l is the length of the ventricle, D is the diameter of interest (endocardial, midwall, or epicardial), and V is the volume inside the diameter of interest. These parameters are derived at end diastole and end systole. The assumption of incompressibility of the myocardium imposes the relations between the three orthogonal stretch ratios λ_l , λ_c , and λ_r (radial) to be

$$[4] \quad \lambda_r = \frac{1}{\lambda_l \cdot \lambda_c}$$

Now λ_r can be calculated for different layers in the myocardium by altering the diameter D and length l . The diameters and lengths used for the calculation V of in different myocardial layers are listed in table 1.

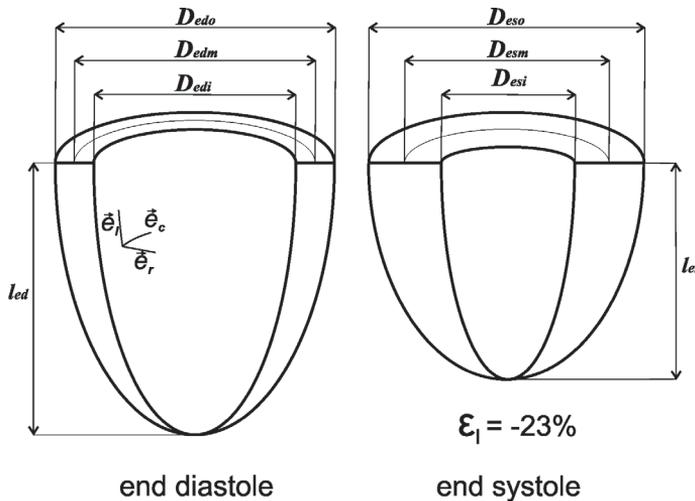


Figure 3. Geometrical model with the essential parameters for the analytical determination of layer specific radial strain values.

| | end diastolic | end systolic |
|--------------------|---|---|
| <i>Epicardium</i> | | |
| length | l_{ed} | $l_{es} = l_{ed} + l_{ed} \cdot \varepsilon_l$ |
| diameter | D_{edo} | $D_{eso} = D_{edo} - D_{edo} \cdot \lambda_{c,spi}$ |
| myocardial volume | $V_w = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \pi \cdot l_{ed} \cdot \left(\left(\frac{D_{edo}}{2} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{D_{edi}}{2} \right)^2 \right)$ | |
| <i>Endocardium</i> | | |
| length | l_{ed} | $l_{es} = l_{ed} + l_{ed} \cdot \varepsilon_l$ |
| cavity volume | | $V_{esi} = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \pi \cdot \left(\frac{D_{eso}}{2} \right)^2 \cdot l_{es} - V_w$ |
| diameter | D_{edi} | $D_{esi} = 2 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{3 \cdot V_{esi}}{\pi \cdot l_{es}}}$ |
| <i>Midwall</i> | | |
| length | l_{ed} | $l_{es} = l_{ed} + l_{ed} \cdot \varepsilon_l$ |
| wall thickness | $WT_{ed} = \frac{(D)_{edo} - D_{edi}}{2}$ | $WT_{es} = \frac{(D)_{eso} - D_{esi}}{2}$ |
| diameter | $D_{edm} = D_{edo} - WT_{ed}$ | $D_{esm} = D_{eso} - WT_{es}$ |

Table 1. Parameters used for layer specific strain calculation

Histology

After euthanasia tissue samples of the exact areas that were used for RF data acquisition were taken from the infarcted and remote regions of the heart of five pigs. Samples were fixed in 4% formalin, and embedded in paraffin. Sections of 5 micrometers were cut, and collagen content was quantified by picrosirius red staining with circularly polarized light and digital image microscopy as described before¹⁴. Multiple images of the infarcted and healthy tissue were obtained at 1.25x magnification, and merged together to reconstruct the exact tissue area that was used for RF data acquisition (figure 2). After conversion into grey value images the image intensity was quantified in the endocardial, midwall, and epicardial layers, and collagen content was expressed as a fraction of the area using Image J (version 1.44p). Gaps in the tissue, induced by the cutting of the 3 x 1 cm samples, and the intraluminal areas of blood vessels were excluded from the analysis.

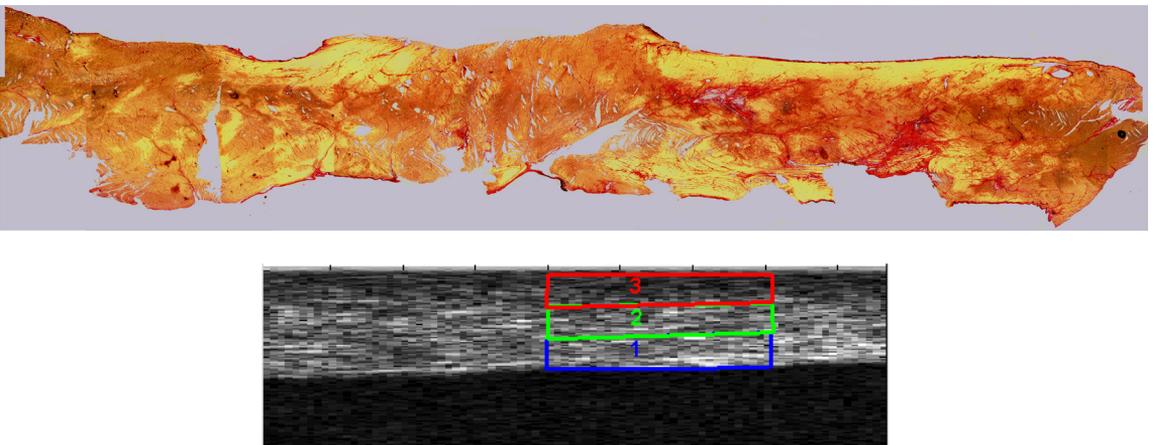


Figure 2. Histological section of infarcted region with corresponding ultrasound image. Regions where deformation was assessed are depicted by the rectangles: sub-endocardium (blue), midwall (green), sub-epicardium (red).

Statistics

Data are presented as mean \pm se. An independent sample t-test was used to compare parameters measured from healthy and infarcted tissue for each layer. P values < 0.05 were considered significant. Pearson linear correlations were calculated to determine the coherence between area collagen and echocardiographic strain measurements.

RESULTS

Myocardial infarction reduced the ejection fraction of the pigs from $62 \pm 2 \%$ at baseline to $52 \pm 3 \%$ after twelve weeks. End systolic volume increased from 41 ± 3 mL at baseline to 51 ± 11 mL after 12 weeks, and end diastolic volume did not change 107 ± 8 mL vs. 106 ± 16 mL. Mean heart rate during measurements was 51 ± 7 beats per minute.

RF based strain estimation

Typical strain curves measured from healthy and infarcted tissue are shown in figure 4. Both in healthy and infarcted tissue a gradient exists between the endocardial, midwall, and epicardial strain.

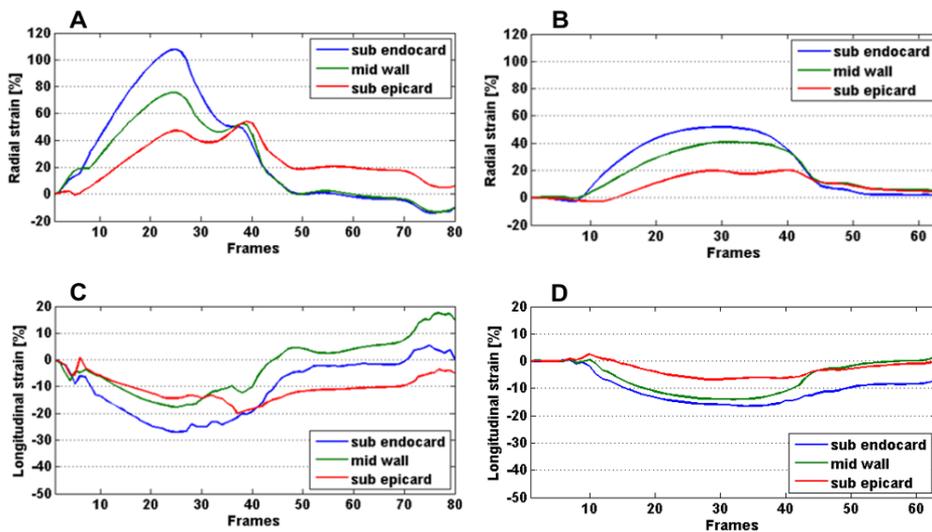


Figure 4. Radial and longitudinal strain curves of healthy (A+C) and infarcted (B+D) tissue.

In the depicted strain curves obtained from the healthy tissue postsystolic thickening and shortening can be observed at frame 35 approximately. This phenomenon was not observed in all samples. The nonzero strain estimates at end diastole imply drift of the tracking algorithm. This is most pronounced in the longitudinal strain. Mean RF based strain values of all 5 pigs are shown in figure 5 and table 2. Mean peak radial strain values of the healthy sub- endocardial, midwall, and sub- epicardial layers of all pigs are $82.7 \pm 5.2 \%$, $63.6 \pm 3.3 \%$, and $34.3 \pm 3 \%$, respectively. The transmural difference between the sub- endocardium and the sub- epicardium is $48.4 \pm 4.8 \%$. In the infarcted wall the mean peak strain values are: $39.9 \pm 10.8 \%$, $38.8 \pm 7.7 \%$, and $35.1 \pm 5.2 \%$. The difference between the endocardium and the epicardium is $4.8 \pm 11.8 \%$. The mean peak radial strain values in the sub- endocardial and mid wall regions are significantly lower, and the gradient between the endocardium and the epicardium is decreased 12 weeks after myocardial infarction. Mean peak longitudinal strain values of the healthy layers are: $-31.9 \pm 3.8 \%$, $-26.9 \pm 3.7 \%$, and $-17.1 \pm 2.1 \%$, with a transmural difference of $14.8 \pm 2.9\%$. A smaller transmural gradient can be observed in comparison to the gradient of the peak radial strain values. In infarcted regions the mean peak longitudinal strain values are: $-22.7 \pm 3.5 \%$, $-20.4 \pm 6.4 \%$, and $-9.5 \pm 2.6 \%$ with a gradient of $13.2 \pm 4.4\%$. Both, the mean peak longitudinal strain values and the transmural gradient are diminished 12 weeks after myocardial infarction.

| | Peak radial strain | | | | Peak longitudinal strain | | |
|---------------|--------------------|------------------|-------|-------|--------------------------|-------------------|------|
| | Infarct (n=5) | Remote (n=21) | p | Model | Infarct (n=5) | Remote (n=21) | p |
| Sub- endocard | $40 \pm 10.8\%$ | $82.7 \pm 5.2\%$ | 0.002 | 80.5% | $-22.7 \pm 3.5\%$ | $-31.9 \pm 3.8\%$ | 0.27 |
| Midwall | $38.8 \pm 7.73\%$ | $63.6 \pm 3.3\%$ | 0.004 | 50.6% | $-20.4 \pm 6.4\%$ | $-26.9 \pm 3.7\%$ | 0.44 |
| Sub- epicard | $35.1 \pm 5.24\%$ | $34.3 \pm 3\%$ | 0.9 | 34.9% | $-9.5 \pm 2.6\%$ | $-17.1 \pm 2.1\%$ | 0.12 |
| Difference | $4.8 \pm 11.8\%$ | $48.4 \pm 4.8\%$ | 0.001 | 45.6% | $13.2 \pm 4.4\%$ | $14.8 \pm 2.9\%$ | 0.8 |

Table 2. Radial and longitudinal strain in sub- endocardial, midwall, and sub- epicardial layers and the gradient between the sub- endocardial and sub- epicardial layers.

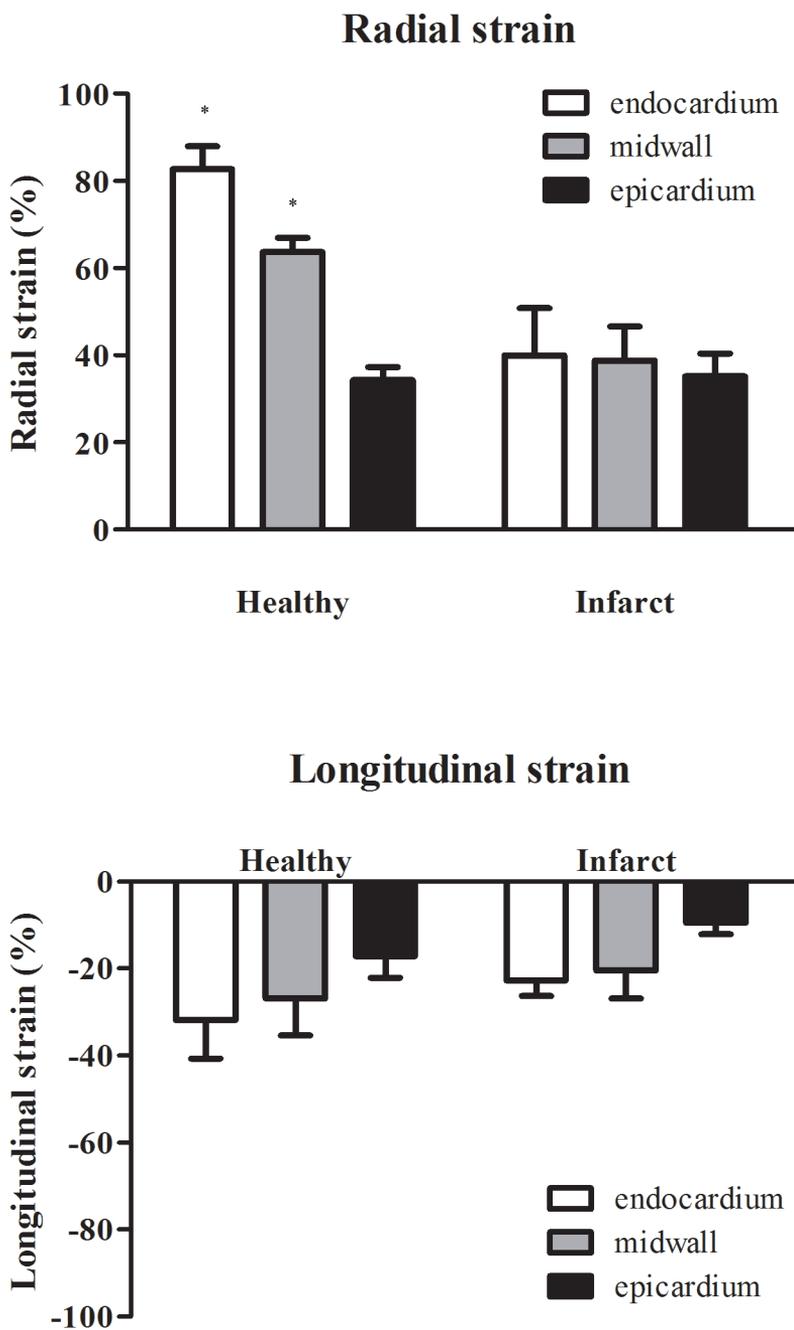


Figure 5. Peak radial and longitudinal strain values. Data is presented as mean \pm se. * $P < 0.01$.

Analytical Solution

The analytically determined strain values in the endocardial, midwall, and epicardial layers respectively are 80.5 %, 50.6 %, and 34.9 %. These are in the same order of magnitude as the estimated strain values, indicating that our assumptions are correct, and showing that endocardial radial strain in healthy tissue can be as high as 80%. In figure 5 the radial strain values that result from the analytical solution are projected alongside the measured radial strain values of healthy tissue.

Histology

A difference was found between the mean percentage of collagen in the endocardial, midwall, and epicardial layers of the healthy and infarcted tissue by picosirius red staining. Collagen content was 3.36 ± 1.7 %, 1.34 ± 0.6 %, and 1.84 ± 0.46 % in the endocardial, midwall, and epicardial layers of the healthy myocardium respectively, and 8.8 ± 3.4 %, 6.5 ± 3.1 %, and 4.8 ± 1 %, in the same layers in the infarcted myocardium. These values are depicted in figure 7. As expected higher strain values were found in areas with a low collagen content, and lower strain values were found in regions with higher collagen content, but correlations between collagen content and the strain values were poor (figure 8). The R^2 values of the correlation between collagen content and strain in the infarcted and healthy tissue are 0.045 and 0.227 respectively, for radial strain and 0.112, and 0.219, respectively for longitudinal strain.

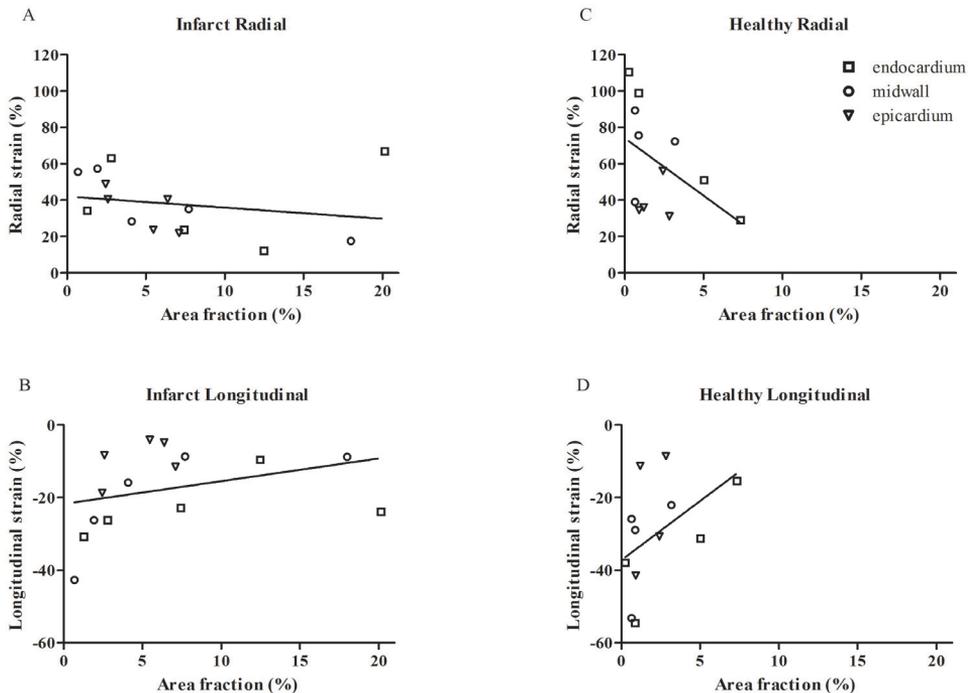


Figure 8: Correlation between the percentage of the area staining positive for collagen, and radial and lateral strain. Radial strain in the infarcted tissue (A), longitudinal strain in the infarcted tissue (B), radial strain in the healthy tissue (C), and longitudinal strain in the healthy area (D). The results of the endocardial, midwall, and epicardial layers are shown by individual markers.

DISCUSSION

In this study both measurements and geometric modeling show that (1) a transmural gradient exists in the radial and longitudinal strain, that (2) radial strain in the endocardium can range up to 80%, and that (3) the transmural gradient diminishes after MI. To our best knowledge this was demonstrated for the first time by the use of RF ultrasound analysis. The high frequency of the RF ultrasound signal, and the detailed tracking and strain calculation algorithm allows strain estimation in different myocardial layers with sub- millimeter resolution. The lower spatial and temporal resolution of clinically available speckle tracking and MRI tagging techniques, or the difficulties to optimally align the ultrasound beam for tissue Doppler imaging hampers accurate quantification of radial strain in different layers of the myocardium. The peak radial strain values in the three transmural layers that were found with this analysis are in correspondence with the condition of conservation of volume as validated by the geometrical model. Moreover, the mean values of the radial and longitudinal strain over the entire wall respectively are $60.2 \pm 2.8\%$ and $-25.3 \pm 2.9\%$. These values correspond to the values measured by clinically available techniques that are available in literature¹².

RF based strain estimation

As can be observed in figure 4, the longitudinal strain curves contained most noise, and show nonzero values at end diastole, suggesting residual stretch or shortening in these layers. This is caused by the lack of phase information available for tissue tracking in this direction. We chose not to apply drift compensation to compensate for this, since drift was minimal in the RF datasets used for this study.

Peak strain values

Strain estimation is done in sub- endocardial, midwall, and sub- epicardial layers. These three layers could be identified clearly, and are large enough to estimate a representative value of the area. Although strain curves were different between animals, peak strain values and differences between layers were consistent as is shown in figure 5. In detail, mean peak radial strain values from the sub-endocardium and midwall were significantly different between healthy and infarcted tissue which led to a significant decreased gradient between the endocardium and the epicardium 12 weeks after myocardial infarction. In general, the longitudinal shortening is caused by shortening of the longitudinally oriented myofibers, whereas the circumferential shortening is caused by shortening of circumferentially oriented fibers. As a diffusion tensor imaging study by Geerts et al.¹⁵ has shown, the myofibers in the myocardial wall are predominantly oriented longitudinally in the sub- endo-, and sub- epicardium, and predominantly circumferential in the midwall. Radial strain is related to longitudinal and circumferential strain through tissue incompressibility and therefore quantifies tissue thickening caused by contracting

myofibers in perpendicular directions in, and in the vicinity of the measured region. After MI, the peak radial strain is most decreased in the midwall and sub- endocardial layers. It is known that extracellular matrix deposition enhances tissue stiffening and impairs deformation, and consequently radial thickening¹⁶. This can be caused by tissue perfusion being most severely impaired in the sub-endocardium, which directly reduces the radial strain in the endocardial layer, or by the decreased strain in the midwall and sub- epicardial layers causing a decreased radial motion in these layers, and thereby decrease the radial strain in the endocardial layer due to the incompressibility of the tissue. The fact that the longitudinal strain is impaired in all three layers, but this reduction is most pronounced in the sub- epicardium is in line with this latter hypothesis, but is more likely to be caused by the least accurate motion assessment in this direction, or by the epicardial ultrasound probe placement on the infarcted area. Taking into consideration all before mentioned mechanisms it must be concluded that decreased radial strain in the sub- endocardium is most likely caused by sub- endocardial collagen deposition. Since there is no data available of the circumferential strain in the different layers, and the orientation of collagen does not add additional information in non transmural infarcts, we cannot further unravel the relation between collagen deposition, collagen orientation, and strain in different directions in the different layers of the myocardium.

RF based and analytical strains

A high correspondence was found between the RF based peak radial strain values and the theoretically expected radial strain values as assessed by modeling. The truncated ellipsoidal geometrical model was based on the mean dimensions of the five animals used during the experiments, a longitudinal strain of -22%, an epicardial diameter change of -5%, and tissue incompressibility. Since the longitudinal strain corresponds to literature, and results in a normal mean circumferential strain value of -16% (data not shown), it is assumed that the resulting radial strain values are also correct. The assumption of 100% tissue incompressibility might, however, be an over simplification since this neglects the squeezing of blood from the tissue during systole¹⁷. The -5% epicardial diameter change was based on echocardiographic findings by Emilsson et al.¹³

RF based strain and histology

Highest collagen content is found in the endocardial layers (figure 7). Most likely this reflects the most tissue damage caused by the biggest perfusion deficiency in the sub- endocardial layer. The relatively low collagen content in the infarcted tissue in comparison to other studies using a ligation technique¹⁸ indicates the appearance of both transmural and non-transmural infarcts and thereby variance between the pigs in our population caused by the ischemia reperfusion technique. The absence of uniform transmural infarcts makes it impossible to elaborate further on the relation between

local wall strain and local collagen deposition and orientation. The correlation between the layer specific percentage of collagen and the radial and longitudinal peak strain values (figure 8) shows that a lower collagen content relates to higher deformation, and therefore indicates an inversely proportional relation between local adverse remodeling and strain. Regions with high collagen content and high strain estimates, however, show that this relation is not irrefutable (figure 8). This is most likely caused by normal strain values in small areas of non-transmural infarcts which often occurred in the porcine MI model. The collagen content of the tissue sample is than severely increased, while the measured deformation is normal. This is most likely caused by tethering of adjacent tissue.

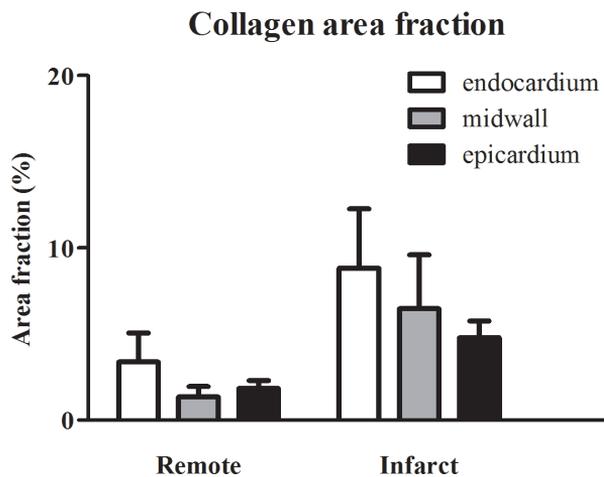


Figure 7. Percentage of endocardial, midwall, and epicardial areas that were stained by picrosirius red

Limitations

A limitation of the experimental setup of this study is the myocardial ischemia-reperfusion model that results in an inhomogeneous population in terms of infarct size, and transmural, and thereby prevents comparison between subjects. Furthermore, positioning the ultrasound probe on the epicardium might have influenced the measurements. However, the resulting strain values are normal and very consistent, we minimized manipulation of the heart by positioning of the probe on the epicardial surface, and we applied the Starfish Cardiac Positioner to loosely fixate apical motion so that radial and longitudinal deformation was not impaired. Therefore, we believe that epicardial probe positioning has not influenced the results to a large extent. In this study, we have only assessed peak radial and longitudinal strain values since these are easy assessable and represent local cardiac function.

Comparison between different areas of the myocardium (LAD, LCX) being treated differently (healthy, infarct) might not be appropriate since both areas might respond differently to MI. It is therefore important to note that this study is primarily intended to evaluate the use of RF ultrasound in assessing sub-clinical alterations in local tissue. Besides local contractility, peak strain values can also be influenced by confounding factors: preload, afterload, and tethering by adjacent tissue. Since the resulting strain profiles are very consistent we believe that these factors have not influenced the results severely.

Clinical implications of RF ultrasound

In the present study, we have shown in a representative large animal model, that RF ultrasound based strain analysis can detect radial strain differences between sub- endocardial, midwall, and sub- epicardial layers. This non invasive local cardiac function assessment can be used to detect subtle changes in regional wall function. Besides detection of local changes of cardiac mechanics in patients treated with cardiac regenerative therapy, this assessment might also be of interest for e.g: dobutamine stress testing in patients with stable angina pectoris, selection of patients with any cardiomyopathy including arrhythmogenic right ventricular dysplasia/ cardiomyopathy. This study was performed in open chest animals with a linear array probe with a high frequency, and consequently an excellent ultrasound penetration, and field of view. Unfortunately, this is not feasible for a transthoracic approach. Moreover, no phase information is available in the RF data for longitudinal strain estimation which makes lateral strain estimates less accurate. To overcome this problem angular compounding ultrasound can be used⁸. This approach makes use of the possibility of deriving motion in any desired direction by projecting along the beam motion estimates from acquisitions in which the ultrasound beam is transmitted at multiple angles. Since motion is estimated more accurately in the beam direction, the longitudinal motion estimated by angular compounding can also be more accurate. Further studies are therefore necessary. Ideally future studies are done in a fully equipped animal to be able to optimally correct for confounding factors, using a 3D probe to overcome epicardial imaging, and assess deformation in all three directions of the cardiac coordinate system simultaneously.

CONCLUSION

Layer specific peak radial and longitudinal strain differences can be assessed by RF strain estimation and shows a clear difference between healthy and infarcted tissue. This novel technique provides a valuable way to assess the effects of subtle local pathological changes and locally oriented therapies.

Sources of funding

This work was supported by the Netherlands Heart Foundation ‘[2003B07304 and 2010T025]’, BSIK program ”Dutch Program for Tissue Engineering”, ‘[grant 6746]’, and a Bekalis price (PD). This research is part of the Project P1.04 SMARTCARE of the research program of the BioMedical Materials institute, co-funded by the Dutch Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Nederlandse Hartstichting.

Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge Cees Verlaan, Merel Schurink, Marlijn Jansen, Maringa Emons and Joyce Visser for excellent technical assistance and animal care.

Conflict of Interest: none declared.

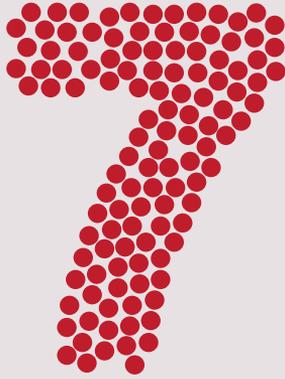
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DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION

Ischemic heart disease is still a major cause of mortality and morbidity in the Western world¹, despite the recent improvements in medical and reperfusion strategies, which urges the need for new therapeutic strategies. Small and large animal studies have demonstrated that cardiac cell therapy can improve cardiac function and limits infarct size after MI. Till now, approximately 2600 patients have been treated with bone marrow cells following acute MI or chronic ischemic cardiomyopathy with conflicting results. Although these results (limited but significant effect on left ventricular ejection fraction(LVEF)) do not match the expectations, they are in line with earlier observation of established treatments.² It is essential to advance our understanding of the underlying mechanisms following cell therapy that stimulated the observed effects and thereby to refine therapeutic approaches. Moreover, more technical challenges are first to overcome, including low survival and cell retention rates, since these are persistent obstacles after cell delivery.

In this thesis, we have investigated the optimization of delivery strategies for cardiac cell therapy via pre-clinical experimental studies to further enhance cardiac repair in patients with ischemic heart disease. Three approaches were explored namely:

- detailed analysis of current literature
- clinical available delivery techniques
- application of state-of the-art nuclear imaging and a novel echocardiographic technique

In this chapter, the major findings, conclusions, and future directions will be discussed.

MAJOR FINDINGS OF THIS THESIS

In **Chapter 2**, a review is presented about non-invasive imaging and percutaneous delivery methods used for cardiac repair. First, the advantages and disadvantages of *in vivo* cell tracking were discussed. Next, a summary of various cell delivery techniques was provided including an overview of delivery efficiencies to the heart as observed in patients and large animal studies. Efficiency results are still inconclusive due to differences in study design, cell type, animal model, labelling method and delivery techniques. Understanding the biodistribution and subsequent fate of stem cells after delivery is critical to determine the optimal transplantation technique in view of clinical trials. To observe biodistribution nuclear imaging is preferred although it should be realized that cells are a live and productive. Cardiac MRI, however, is more suitable to evaluate cardiac function and to trace stem cells during long-term follow-up. We therefore, postulated that a randomized experimental study

investigating percutaneous delivery efficiency using nuclear imaging to assess short-term biodistribution was necessary which we conducted in **Chapter 4**.

In **Chapter 3** results were presented of a systematic review and meta-analysis performed on large animals to evaluate the effect of cell therapy in ischemic heart disease. From 52 studies, including 888 animals, efficacy and mortality data were extracted. At longest follow-up, LVEF improved by 7.5% compared to placebo treated animals. No difference in mortality between groups was observed. Cell type (mesenchymal stem cells (MSC) showed more effect than bone marrow mononuclear cells (BMMNC)) was a significant predictor of functional outcome. To confirm these results a comparison was performed in **Chapter 5**. Also, type of infarction was a significant predictor of LVEF. A trend was seen for high cell number (higher than 10^7), late injections (later than one week), and chronic MI models. Less benefit of cell therapy was seen during long-term follow-up. Strategies to get sustained effect were explored in **Chapter 5**. No differences in functional improvement between delivery techniques including: retrograde coronary transvenous injection, intracoronary infusion, transendocardial injection and surgical injection was observed. Interestingly, it was suggested that transendocardial delivery was superior to intracoronary infusion in efficiency.³ This was investigated in **Chapter 4** comparing these strategies.

In summary, our analysis confirmed that cell therapy was safe and improved LVEF as was observed in a clinical setting. Moreover, this study provided the indication that indeed large animal models can accurately predict human clinical outcome upon cell transplantation therapy.

In **Chapter 4**, a comparison between transendocardial, intracoronary and surgical cell delivery was performed using Indium-oxine labeled MSC to observe short-term cell biodistribution at four hours after transplantation. The results of this study demonstrated no differences in safety profile between percutaneous delivery techniques. Interestingly, delivery efficiency was similar between groups (11-16%). For each technique, about 45% of radioactive cells accumulated in non-target organs especially the lungs. Intracoronary infusion showed lower variation compared to transendocardial injection. This implicates that intracoronary cell infusion is a more robust and less operator experience dependent technique. After termination, myocardial biopsies were taken and we confirmed the presence of MSC in the myocardium although the location of cells differed among percutaneous techniques (local vs. widespread distribution). In conclusion, no significant differences in delivery efficiency to the heart or in myocardial damage were observed between transendocardial injection and intracoronary infusion was observed.

In **Chapter 5**, a comparison between MSC and BMMNC was performed in a post MI model to evaluate short and long-term efficacy including a repeated strategy.

Myocardial function was assessed at different time-points by pressure-volume loops and echocardiography. Regarding safety and procedural data no difference between groups was observed. Results showed that the differences in LVEF (follow-up minus baseline) after MSC injection was significantly enhanced compared to bone marrow treatment (11.9% vs. -1.6%) and this effect was maintained during follow-up. No additional benefit on LVEF of repeated cell injections compared to single cell injection was observed (13% vs. 18%). Thus, injection of MSC was more effective compared to BMMNC treatment and the positive effect was sustained during follow-up.

The aim of **Chapter 6** was to provide more functional insight on top-off prognostic relevant LVEF in local wall changes caused by MI as a first step using a novel echocardiographic deformation technique. In pigs, radiofrequency (RF) ultrasound epicardial images were acquired twelve weeks after MI in normal and infarcted regions. Radial and longitudinal strains were estimated at three levels namely; endocardium, midwall and epicardium. Strains were compared to histology and results were validated by an analytical model. Overall, peak strain values were significantly lower in the infarcted tissue compared to healthy tissue (endocardium 38.8% vs. 72.7%; $P=0.002$, midwall 34.8% vs. 40.0%; $P=0.004$) except for the subepicardium (35.1% vs. 38.8%; $P=0.9$). In conclusion, layer specific peak radial and longitudinal strain differences can be assessed by RF strain estimation and shows a clear difference between healthy and infarcted tissue. We believe that this technique can be used to assess and detect subtle changes in the myocardium which may guide us to the underlying mechanisms of cell therapy.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

In this thesis, we addressed several unresolved issues regarding cardiac cell therapy as also outlined by the ESC Task Force.⁴ The main conclusions of this thesis are:

- Large animal studies are valid to predict human clinical outcome (**Chapter 3**).
- Cardiac cell therapy is safe and leads to a preserved systolic function (**Chapter 3**).
- Transendocardial cell injection was not superior to intracoronary cell infusion in delivery efficiency (**Chapter 4**).
- Intracoronary and transendocardial delivery are safe delivery methods. (**Chapter 4**).

- MSC are superior compared to BMMNC in terms of functional outcome (**Chapter 3** and **Chapter 5**).
- MSC treatment is safe and resulted in a stable and sustained effect on systolic function. (**Chapter 5**).
- No additional value of repeated cell injection including BMMNC on cardiac function. (**Chapter 5**).
- Radiofrequency ultrasound is a novel and promising technique to assess and quantify local changes in the myocardium (**Chapter 6**).

FUTURE DIRECTIONS FOR CARDIAC CELL THERAPY

This thesis evaluated three strategies to optimize stem cell delivery methods for ischemic heart disease: systematic analysis of current literature, clinically available transplantation methods and state-of-the-art imaging techniques.

What can we learn from large animals?

By thorough analysis of pre-clinical data (**Chapter 3**), we demonstrated that cell therapy improves cardiac function and that pre-clinical data can be extrapolated to humans. Moreover, we generated new clues for future clinical stem cell trials. Based on our in-depth meta-analysis, several recommendations can be formulated. First, other stem cells than bone marrow mononuclear cells should be explored. Given the results from **Chapter 5** and the encouraging results from the SCIPIO and CADUCEUS trials^{5,6} future research should focus on MSC and cardiac stem cells. Secondly, before designing novel pre-clinical trials researchers should take into account that the type of vessel to create an acute MI, chronic MI or heart failure influences functional outcome. Moreover, the site of ligation/constriction of the vessel should be similar in all animals which was not always the case due to anatomical variations. Third, cells should not be administered between 2-7 days after MI because it was associated with lower functional outcome possibly due to inflammatory phase subdued one week after MI.⁷ Fourth, to maintain a beneficial effect of cell therapy over time novel strategies should be explored. To overcome this problem several potential materials (hydrogels and scaffolds) have been developed and tested in experimental models.⁸⁻¹⁰ However, before taking these approaches to the clinic, delivery efficiency should be tested and compared to current methods of delivery to prove additional value. Finally, we believe that although animal model was a non-significant predictor of functional outcome the use of pigs for functional studies is preferred since a large amount of data is available for comparison.

An interesting observation is that most of the studies included in our meta-analysis were published before 2006 indicating that some of our recommendations could have

been made years ago. We therefore, recommend that before designing new clinical and pre-clinical stem cell studies careful exploration of available experimental data is necessary. To help researchers in this process a novel database was created together with the CAMARADES group.⁵ In 2011, we joined the CAMARADES group which is an international collaboration between cardiologists and neurologists. Our goal is to improve the design, conduct, analysis and reporting of animal studies thereby improving translational potential of these studies to the clinical field.⁵ Moreover, performing pre-clinical meta-analysis can also be very helpful in evaluating the effect of other therapies e.g. medication (beta-blockers or immunosuppression). In our opinion, pre-clinical studies should be executed according to high quality standards. The following items should be included in a guideline for pre-clinical research to improve extrapolation of animal studies directly to man: 1) randomized study design, 2) blinded functional analysis, 3) sample size during the study and 4) mortality.

Stem cell delivery strategies: what's next?

Since no difference in functional outcome (**Chapter 3**) and delivery efficiency (**Chapter 4**) was observed we recommend that the choice of delivery method could depend on medical indication and practical aspects (e.g. operator experience and coronary anatomy). For instance, in patients with occluded coronary arteries we suggest the use of transendocardial injection and patients with a patent coronary artery intracoronary infusion. Overall, efficiency to the heart was low which paves the way for development of new catheters (side holes¹¹, helical needle¹² or double lumen) or strategies (image fusion) to improve targeted cell retention. In our studies, we used the NOGA system to guide transendocardial cell injection but this technique can not detect non-transmural scars and infarct grey zones, fusion with cardiac MRI may provide important additional information to facilitate cell injections.¹³ In **Chapter 3** and **Chapter 5**, we demonstrated that MSC treatment improves systolic function compared to BMMNC treatment. However, these results need to be confirmed in a randomized controlled clinical trial. Repeated cell injection did not further improve cardiac function compared to single cell injection. This may be caused by a less potent cell type that was injected and higher baseline LVEF of our animals. It is therefore not excluded that this strategy could work in animals with a LVEF<45% using a more potent cell type e.g. cardiac stem cells or MSC. In our study, MI was created by temporary occlusion of the circumflex artery for 75 minutes. Four weeks after MI, we observed a moderate decrease in LVEF in all animals possibly due to the standard medication regime (e.g. beta-blockers) that was prescribed to the animals.¹⁴ Future studies should explore the protective effect of beta-blockers during ischemia-reperfusion injury.

Novel techniques to assess cardiac function

In **Chapter 6**, we have demonstrated that radiofrequency ultrasound based strain analysis can be used to detect local changes in endocardium, midwall and epicardium deformation between healthy and infarcted tissue. This technique could be useful in patients with stable angina pectoris to observe ischemia, patients screened for arrhythmogenic right ventricular dysplasia/cardiomyopathy and in patients treated with stem cells. Novel studies should confirm this hypothesis. However, before advancing to the clinical arena this technique should be incorporated in a 3D probe to overcome epicardial imaging, and assess deformation in all three directions of the cardiac coordinate system simultaneously. More techniques are available and currently explored in large animal studies.¹⁵

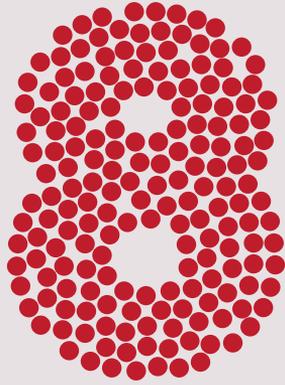
In conclusion, this thesis provides some answers to the unresolved issue as outlined by the ESC Task Force⁴ thereby advancing cardiac cell therapy to the next level. Nevertheless, much more research is necessary since there is still room for improvement of the magnitude of effect of cardiac cell therapy.

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SUMMARY IN DUTCH - SAMENVATTING IN HET NEDERLANDS

SAMENVATTING

Het acute hartinfarct is een van de belangrijkste oorzaken van hartfalen en sterfte in de Westerse wereld. De behandeling van zogenaamd chronisch ischemisch hartfalen is voornamelijk symptomatisch van aard (revascularisatie middels dotteren en medicatie). Een mogelijk structurele oplossing is het versterken van de hartspier door het doen ontstaan van nieuwe hartspiercellen en vaten met behulp van stamcel-implantatie. Proefdierstudies hebben aangetoond dat cardiale celtherapie de pompfunctie van het hart kan verbeteren na een hartinfarct. Inmiddels zijn nu ook al ongeveer 2600 patiënten na een acuut hartinfarct of met chronisch ischemisch hartfalen behandeld met stamcellen.

De initiële resultaten laten een beperkt, maar wel significant gunstig effect op de pompfunctie van het hart zien. Dit blijft helaas achter bij de hoog gespannen verwachtingen, maar komt wel overeen met eerdere observaties van de op dit moment meest gangbare behandelingen (o.a medicatie). De uitdaging voor onderzoek in dit veld ligt in het verder verbeteren van de resultaten van celtherapie

Het is daarvoor van belang om meer te weten te komen over het onderliggende mechanisme van cardiale celtherapie dat zorg draagt voor het gunstige effect op de knijpkracht van het hart zodat we onze therapeutische mogelijkheden kunnen verbeteren.

Alvorens hieraan te kunnen beginnen moeten eerst technische problemen worden verholpen, zoals de geringe overleving en lage cel retentie na transplantatie. Dit proefschrift richt zich op het optimaliseren van transplantatie strategieën voor cardiale cel therapie in ischemische hartziekten. De beschreven onderzoeken bevatten drie pijlers:

- Gedetailleerde analyse van de huidige literatuur
- Evaluatie van klinisch toepasbare en beschikbare transplantatie technieken
- Efficiëntie en functionele analyse middels beeldvormende technieken (o.a. nucleair en echocardiografie)

In **hoofdstuk 1** worden vanuit een klinisch perspectief de belangrijkste basis principes en de eerste resultaten van stamceltherapie beschreven. Aansluitend wordt in **hoofdstuk 2** een overzicht gegeven van alle grote proefdier- en patiëntenstudies die cel retentie middels beeldvormend onderzoek hadden bepaald. Momenteel worden bij patiënten met chronisch hartfalen 2 niet-operatieve technieken gebruikt: (1) het inspuiten van stamcellen via de kransslagaders, of (2) direct in de hartspier. Om retentie direct na injectie in het lichaam te bepalen werd in de meeste gevallen nucleaire beeldvorming gebruikt. Belangrijk is wel dat de stamcellen na binding met een radioactief label in leven moeten blijven en productief moeten zijn. Cardiale magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is een techniek waarbij gebruik gemaakt wordt

van magneetvelden zodat niet alleen de pompfunctie van het hart maar ook overleving van stamcellen op de lange termijn kan worden beoordeeld. Helaas kan niet gekeken worden naar het gehele lichaam in één oogopslag.

In **hoofdstuk 3** worden de resultaten gepresenteerd van een systematische review en meta-analyse naar de effecten van celtherapie in grote proefdiermodellen (varkens, honden, schapen) van ischemische hartziekten. In totaal werden 52 studies (888 dieren) geanalyseerd waarbij werd gekeken naar sterfte en toename in pompfunctie na celtherapie. Stamceltherapie leidde tot een verbetering van 7.5% in pompfunctie t.o.v placebo behandeling. Er werd geen verschil in sterfte geobserveerd. Zowel cel type als type infarct zijn belangrijke voorspellers voor verbetering in pompfunctie. Zo lieten mesenchymale stamcellen (MSC) een groter effect zien dan beenmerg mononucleaire cellen (BMMNC). Om deze resultaten te bevestigen werd een vergelijkende studie tussen deze 2 celtypen opgezet (**hoofdstuk 5**). Er werden geen verschillen in knijpkracht van het hart gezien tussen de verschillende transplantatie technieken. Echter, in de literatuur werd gesuggereerd dat katheter geleide directe injectie van stamcellen in het hart leidt tot een hogere cel retentie in het hart t.o.v injectie van stamcellen via de kransslagaders. Dit werd in een gerandomiseerde studie onderzocht in **hoofdstuk 4**. Onze meta-analyse toonde aan dat stamceltherapie veilig was en leidde tot een significante verbetering in pompfunctie van het hart. Bovendien toonden we aan dat grote proefdieren (o.a. varkens) de uitkomst van patiëntenstudies kunnen voorspellen.

In **hoofdstuk 4** werd een vergelijking gemaakt tussen 2 niet-operatieve katheter technieken. Deze studie werd in varkens uitgevoerd omdat er grote overeenkomsten zijn tussen het varkens hart met dat van de mens. Een hartinfarct werd kunstmatig opgewekt. Daarna (4 weken) werd onderzocht of de ingebrachte cellen in het geïnfarceerde deel van het hart zijn blijven zitten of dat ze zich hebben verplaatst naar andere organen ('retentie'). Het kunnen volgen en visualiseren van getransplanteerde stamcellen is van uitermate belang om de meest efficiënte katheter injectietechniek te kunnen bepalen voor klinische toepassingen van stamceltherapie. Onze studie heeft aangetoond dat er geen verschil is in celretentie tussen de twee technieken in vergelijking tot de gouden standaard (open hart chirurgie).

In **hoofdstuk 5** van dit proefschrift werd een vergelijking gemaakt tussen MSC en BMMNC op korte en lange termijn na chronische ischemie, dus vier weken na de kortdurende afsluiting van de kransslagader. De hartfunctie werd beoordeeld op verschillende tijdstippen met echocardiografie en invasieve druk en volume metingen. Injectie van MSC was effectiever in het verbeteren van de pompfunctie in vergelijking tot BMMNC behandeling en dit positieve effect hield aan tijdens follow-up (8 weken na behandeling).

Klassiek kijken we bij stamcel onderzoek voornamelijk naar de verbetering in 'ejectiefractie' van het linkerventrikel, ofwel de knijpkracht van het hart. Het doel van **hoofdstuk 6** was om juist meer inzicht te verkrijgen in regionale wandbewegingen na een hartinfarct zodat we beter de locatie kunnen vinden waar de stamcellen terecht moeten komen en daarmee het effect van onze therapie kunnen vergroten.

Ten tweede kunnen we het onderliggende mechanisme beoordelen wat deze knijpkracht verbetering geeft. Radiofrequente echobeelden werden direct op het hart gemaakt van een gezond en een infarct gebied. Er werden lengte en dwarsdoorsnede opnames gemaakt van de verschillende lagen in het hartspierweefsel; van het binnenste, midden en buitenste gedeelte van de hartspier. De resultaten werden vergeleken met hartbiopsies (gouden standaard) en gevalideerd door een computer model. Onze studie heeft aangetoond dat deze nieuwe techniek inderdaad een duidelijk verschil kan maken tussen gezond en infarct weefsel. Deze techniek kan dus pathologische veranderingen in de wand van het hart detecteren en het effect van lokaal toegepaste therapieën observeren. **In hoofdstuk 7** worden niet alleen de belangrijkste bevindingen en conclusies besproken maar ook de gevolgen hiervan voor toekomstig onderzoek.

Tot slot, dit proefschrift biedt een aantal antwoorden op onopgeloste kwesties met name op het gebied van transplantatie technieken. Het is ook in lijn met de aanbevelingen van de Europese Task Force op het gebied van stamceltherapie. Daarnaast geeft het richting voor verder onderzoek. Echt, er is veel meer onderzoek nodig aangezien er nog veel ruimte is voor verbetering ten aanzien van het positieve effect van stamceltherapie.

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Dankwoord

Dit proefschrift is het resultaat van bijna 4 jaar onderzoek. Zonder de hulp, inzet en steun van vele was het niet mogelijk om dit proefschrift te voltooien.

Prof. dr. P.A.F.M. Doevendans, beste **Pieter**, na het doen van mijn keuzeonderzoek was ik op zoek naar een nieuwe uitdaging. Onderzoek doen in het buitenland leek me wel wat. San Diego is dat niet wat voor jou! Het was een fantastische tijd. Toen ik daar onderzoek aan het doen was en jij op bezoek kwam bij mijn supervisors vroeg je ‘is dat mode die gaten in je broek’. Ik waardeer je eerlijkheid en wil je bedanken voor het in mij gestelde vertrouwen, de vrijheid om mijzelf te ontwikkelen en de steun die ik heb mogen ervaren tijdens het aanvragen van de dr. E. Dekker beurs. Ik hoop dat we nog veel zullen samenwerken in de toekomst.

Prof. dr. E. van Belle, dear **Eric**, thank you for the pleasant collaboration and critical revision of my manuscripts. I really enjoyed the discussions on data interpretation.

Dr. S.A.J. Chamuleau, beste **Steven**, de afgelopen vier jaar heb ik je leren kennen als een betrokken, bevlogen en geduldig wetenschapper die mij heeft geleerd om goed wetenschappelijk onderzoek op te zetten en uit te voeren. Je hebt mij leren focussen (een begrip dat ik nooit meer vergeet) en kritisch resultaten te beoordelen. Samen hebben we de eerste proefdieren geopereerd. Je enthousiasme werkte zeer aanstekelijk en de vrijheid die ik van jou kreeg waardeer ik enorm. Je betrokkenheid voor mijn werkzaamheden ging zelfs zover dat je vanuit het ziekenhuis waar je lag opgenomen, opbelde met de vraag of ik nog hulp nodig had met een patiëntpresentatie. Verder wil ik je bedanken voor de gastvrijheid en het warme welkom van Carolien en de kinderen. Sinterklaas en Zwarte Piet spelen in maison Chamuleau deed ik graag. Daarnaast hebben we veel plezier gehad en goede gesprekken gevoerd tijdens congressen (New Orleans, Stockholm) en symposia (Madrid). Ik ben vereerd je eerste promovendus te zijn en hoop in de toekomst onze samenwerking en vriendschap te kunnen voortzetten. O ja, die tenniswedstrijd wanneer zouden we die gaan spelen? Volgende week maandag misschien?

Dr. J.P.G. Sluiter, beste **Joost**, ik kan me nog goed herinneren dat ik als PhD student je kamer binnenkwam en vroeg of het mogelijk was om 20 miljoen cellen te genereren. De vraag stellen is hem beantwoorden. Jij leerde me alles over de basale mechanismen van stamcellen maar ook het maken van een blot, doen van kleuringen en kweken van cellen. Ik waardeer je flexibiliteit, geduld en laagdrempeligheid tot overleg. Snel en grondig nakijken van mijn manuscripten of proeven was nooit een probleem. Ik ben dankbaar voor de ruimte en mogelijkheden die je mij hebt geboden binnen het stamcellab. Graag blijf ik contact houden en met je samenwerken in de toekomst.

Dankwoord

Dr. M.J.M. Cramer, beste **Maarten-Jan**, mijn eerste ervaring met het doen van wetenschappelijk onderzoek heb ik bij jou opgedaan. Je enorme enthousiasme en persoonlijke betrokkenheid heb ik zeer gewaardeerd.

Dr. P.F. Gründeman, beste **Paul**, mijn eerste kennismaking met het GDL en wetenschappelijke output zijn bij u begonnen. Uw enorme wetenschappelijke kennis en neus voor innovatie maakte u tot een interessante gesprekspartner.

Prof. dr. G. Pasterkamp, beste **Gerard**, dank voor de mogelijkheden om mijn onderzoek te mogen uitvoeren in uw laboratorium.

Dr. I. E. Hoefer, beste **Imo**, peentjes zweten was het wanneer ik weer een DEC aanvraag naar je moest sturen. Niets ontging je kritische blik. Jij leerde mij om een goed wetenschappelijk onderbouwd maar ook werkbaar protocol te schrijven. Dank hiervoor.

Dr. P. Agostoni, beste **Pierfrancesco**, dank voor je hulp bij het maken van onze meta-analyse en de voorbereidingen van onze NOGA procedures.

De leden van de leescommissie, **Prof. dr. P.R. Luijten, Prof. dr. M.C. Verhaar, Prof. dr. J. Piek en Prof. dr. D.P. de Kleijn** wil ik graag bedanken voor het beoordelen van mijn proefschrift.

Het doen van proefdieronderzoek wordt begeleid door een fantastisch team van biotechnici. Beste **Cees, Maringa, Joyce, Marlijn, Ben, Merel en Evelyn**, ontzettend bedankt voor jullie hulp bij mijn experimenten. Avonden waren we op stap met mijn proefdieren voor nucleaire of MRI scans. Jullie flexibiliteit, humor en energie zijn ongekend. Veel dank voor het meedenken en de komische momenten die we hebben gehad.

Beste GDL collega's, beste **Hester, Jannie, Jannico, Nico en Romy**, dank voor jullie hulp bij mijn experimenten. De verzorging en administratie van de grote proefdieren werd gedaan door Anja, Helma, Wendy, Tamara en Jeroen waarvoor dank.

De stralingsdeskundigen van het UMCU (**Kitty, Marlies en Michel**) en de UU (**Cees Vos**) ben ik zeer dankbaar voor hun hulp en kritische beoordeling van mijn protocollen.

Dr. F. Nijsen, dr. F. van 't Schip en dr. H.W. de Jong, beste **Frank, Fred en Hugo**, jullie keken raar op toen ik bij jullie aanklopte om een retentiestudie op te zetten maar tegelijkertijd vonden jullie het een enorme uitdaging. Een gedegen en doortastende

aanpak met daarbij een tomeloze inzet heeft geleid tot een goed lopend labeling- en scan protocol, waardoor het project succesvol werd afgerond. Veel dank hiervoor.

Beste **John, Sieneke en Nikki**, avonden zijn wij bezig geweest met het scannen van dieren en het labelen van stamcellen. Jullie enthousiasme en doorzettingsvermogen kent geen grenzen, zelfs niet onder winterse omstandigheden. John, ontzettend bedankt voor je hulp ondanks het verlies van een dierbare. Sieneke, veel succes met je carrière in het noorden. Nikki, we gaan nog een keer naar de FC samen, echt waar.

Beste **Krijn**, het voorbereidende werk voor de nucleaire studie heb ik grotendeels met jou samen gedaan. Daarnaast heb je mij wegwijs gemaakt binnen het lab waarvoor mijndank. **Alain**, dank voor de gezellige tijd en leermomenten (een visarend heeft toch een witte kop?) tijdens onze USA roadtrip. **Marish**, dank voor je input tijdens de workmeetings maar ook voor je hulp in de kliniek. Inmiddels de trotse vader van een zoon, fantastisch om wederom met je samen te werken. **Dries**, thanks for your contribution in the labeling experiments. **Zhiyong**, you are an asset to our team with your microRNA knowledge. **Paul, Roberto, Esther en Corina**, dank voor jullie hulp bij mijn experimenten en jullie input tijdens de werkbesprekingen. Oud collega's **Sridevi en Willy** dank voor jullie hulp bij de SMARTCARE en RIPASSA studie. Nieuwe collega's **Frederieke, Vera en Janine** veel succes met jullie promotieonderzoek.

Het secretariaat cardiologie (**Sylvia, Tamara en Jantine**) en experimentele cardiologie (**Ineke en Marjolein**) dank voor de secretariële ondersteuning.

(Oud) collega's van de experimentele cardiologie en chirurgie: **Daphne, René, Fatih, Ellen, Sanne, Pleunie, Dave, Guus, Geert, Vincent, Marten, Joyce**, dank voor de gezellige borrels, congressen, symposia en steun tijdens de ESC Challenge. Beste **Loes en Arjan**, dank voor jullie hulp bij het bestellen van wires en materialen die ik nodig had voor mijn nucleaire studie.

Mijn collega arts-onderzoekers van de cardiologie: **Manon, Judith, Jetske, Mieke, Willemien, Ing Han, Geert, Irene, Marieke, Margot, Sjoukje, Roos, Sofieke, Anouar en Gijs** wil ik bedanken voor de gezellige borrels, goede feestjes, etentjes en natuurlijk de mooie ski trip.

Mijn studenten **Sanne en Verena**, ik ben zeer dankbaar voor het harde werk dat jullie hebben gedaan. Ik heb veel van jullie geleerd en ben blij dat jullie voor het onderzoek hebben gekozen. Tot in de kliniek! Beste **René**, na een periode als TG student bij ons te hebben gewerkt ben je nu bezig met je eigen onderzoek. Veel succes!

Dankwoord

Veel dank gaat uit naar mijn kamergenoten in de Bunker (het kloppende hart van de cardiologie in het UMCU), **Frebus en Stefan**. Beste **Frebus**, we zijn tegelijkertijd gestart met ons promotieonderzoek. Onze samenwerking resulteerde in een aantal mooie projecten. Ik heb veel van je geleerd (o.a. lindy Hop) en met je gelachen. Ik waardeer je humor en collegialiteit, en ben blij dat je mijn paranimf wilt zijn.

Beste **Stefan**, jij bent iemand met een brede interesse, van schaatsen en gitaar spelen tot bestuur en wetenschap. Als student leerde ik je kennen en in korte tijd heb je een enorme ontwikkeling doorgemaakt. Ik ben trots op het feit dat je nu je eigen weg hebt gekozen door o.a. onderzoek te doen in Liverpool. Veel succes met de afronding van je proefschrift.

Beste **Michiel**, we kennen elkaar al van jongs af aan en komen uit dezelfde regio. Een gemeenschappelijke passie voor auto's en goede humor zorgden ervoor dat wij het direct goed met elkaar konden vinden. Bedankt voor je steun en interesse in mijn werkzaamheden. Fantastisch dat jij op deze belangrijke dag mijn paranimf wilt zijn.

Lieve **Céleste**, jij bent de enige die mijn boekje van begin tot eind heeft gelezen. De kaft is prachtig geworden. Met je humor, enorme creativiteit en positieve uitstraling weet je de reclame wereld te veroveren. Ik ben trots op alles wat je hebt bereikt. Beste **Benjamin**, jij bent de ondernemer in het gezin. Fantastisch dat je van een klein bedrijfje in Amsterdam een snel groeiende onderneming hebt weten te maken. Ik waardeer je doorzettingsvermogen en die Porsche komt er vanzelf wel.

Lieve **Pap en Mam**, jullie liefde, vertrouwen en onvoorwaardelijk steun in mij zijn niet in woorden uit te drukken. Ik ben dankbaar voor alles wat jullie voor me hebben gedaan.

Lieve **Patricia**, ik ben blij dat wij elkaar hebben leren kennen. Jij bent mijn steun en toeverlaat maar ook mijn tegenwicht. Ik kijk uit naar onze toekomst samen.

Curriculum Vitae

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OPTIMIZATION OF DELIVERY
STRATEGIES FOR CARDIAC

CELL

TRANSPLANT

IN ISCHEMIC HEART DISEASE