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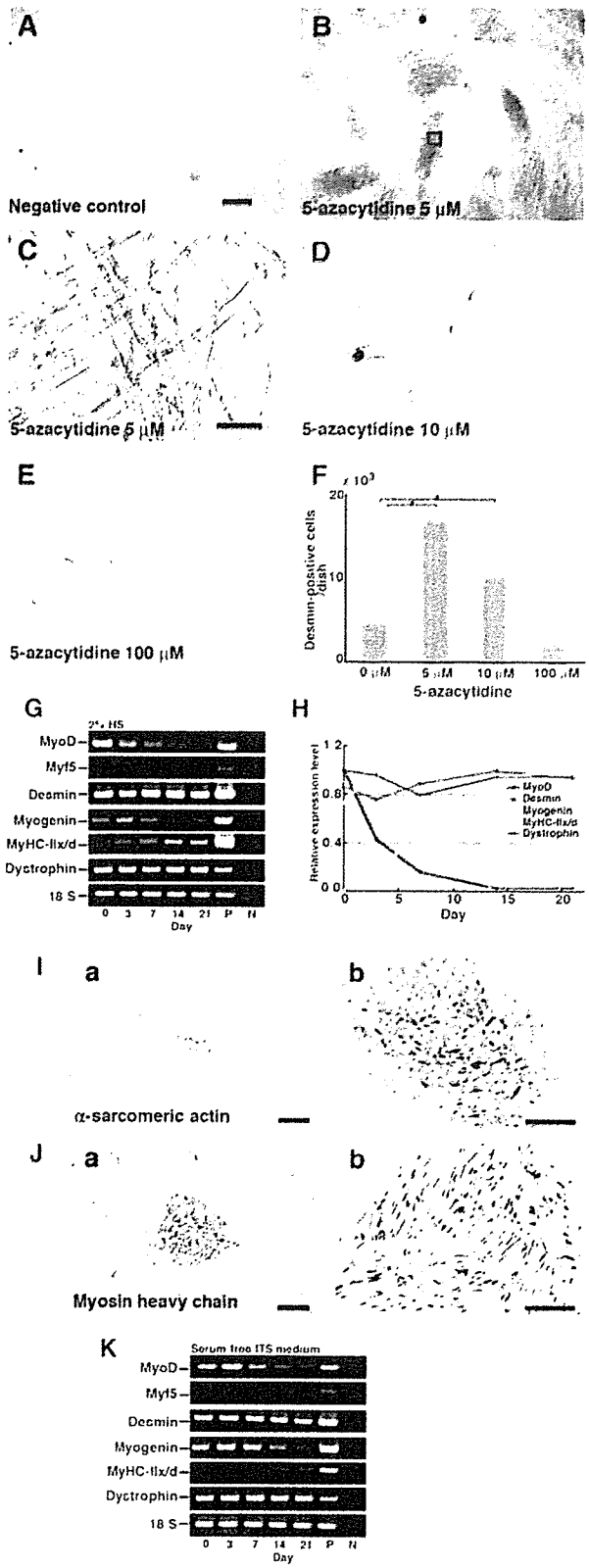

Figure 3. Expression of myogenic-specific genes during myogenic differentiation of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells. (A–F) Immunocytochemical analysis of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells using an antibody to desmin. (A) Omission of only the primary antibody to desmin serves as a negative control. (C) Higher magnification of inset in B. (F) Myogenic differentiation of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells with exposure to different concentrations (B, 5 μM; C, 5 μM; D, 10 μM, E, 100 μM) of 5-azacytidine. To estimate myogenic differentiation, the number of all the desmin-positive cells was counted for each dish (n = 3). Data were analyzed for statistical significance using ANOVA. EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells were cultured in the DMEM supplemented with 2% HS (G–J; horse serum), and serum-free ITS (K). (G and K) RT-PCR analysis with PCR primers allows amplification of the human MyoD, Myf5, desmin, myogenin, myosin heavy chain type IIx/d (MyHC-IIx/d), and dystrophin cDNA (from top to bottom). RNAs were isolated from EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells at the indicated day after treatment with 5-azacytidine. RNAs from human muscle and H_2O served as positive (P) and negative (N) controls. Only the 18S PCR primer used as a positive control reacted with the human and murine cDNA. (H) Time course of MyoD, desmin, myogenin, MyHC-IIx/d, and dystrophin expression in the cells incubated with 2% HS for up to 21 d after 5-azacytidine treatment. Relative mRNA levels were determined using Multi Gauge Ver 2.0 (Fuji Film). The signal intensities of MyoD, desmin, and dystrophin mRNA at day 0, myogenin mRNA at day 3, and MyHC-II/d mRNA at day 21 were regarded as equal to 100%. (I and J) The cells were exposed to 5 μM 5-azacytidine for 24 h and then subsequently cultured in DMEM supplemented with 2% HS for 21 d. α-Sarcomeric actin (I) and skeletal myosin heavy chain (J) was detected by immunocytochemical analysis. Scale bars, 2 mm (A and B), 300 μm (C–E), 900 μm (Ia and Ja), 425 μm (Ib and Jb).

E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells, and 5B, menstrual blood–derived cells). Quantification analysis revealed that the percentage of dystrophin-positive myofibers after implantation of menstrual blood–derived cells was high, compared with that after implantation of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (Figure 5E). Donor cells with EGFP fluorescence participated in myogenesis 3 wk after implantation (Supplementary Figure 3). EGFP-labeled EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells became positive for human dystrophin (Figure 5C). Dystrophin was not detected in the muscle of mdx-scid mice and NOG mice without cell implantation because the antibody to dystrophin used in this study is human-specific, implying that dystrophin is transcribed from dystrophin genes of human donor cells but not from reversion of dystrophied myocytes in mdx-scid mice.

To determine if dystrophin expression in the donor cells is due to transdifferentiation or fusion, immunohistochemistry with an antibody against human nuclei (Ab-HuNucl) and DAPI stain was performed. If dystrophin expression is explained by fusion, dystrophin-positive myocytes must be demonstrated to have both human and murine nuclei. We examined almost all the 7-μm-thick serial histological sections parallel to the muscular bundle (longitudinal section) of the muscular tissues by confocal microscopy and found that dystrophin-positive myocytes have nuclei derived from both human and murine cells in the longitudinal section of the myocytes (Figure 5D), implying that dystrophin expression is attributed to fusion between murine host myocytes and human donor cells, rather than myogenic differentiation of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells per se.

Detection of Human Endometrial Cell Contribution to Myotubes in an In Vitro Myogenesis Model

To simulate in vivo phenomena, human endometrial cells were cocultured in vitro with murine C2C12 myoblasts for 2 d under proliferative conditions and then switched to differentiation conditions for an additional 7 d. Figure 6A

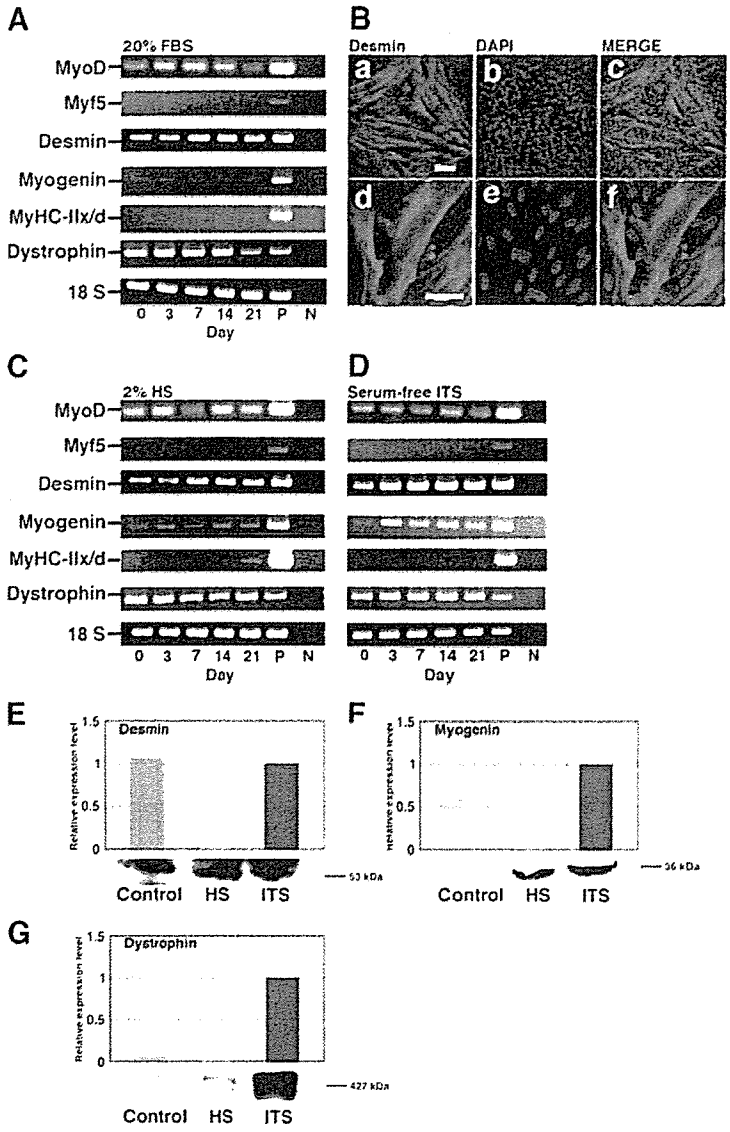

Figure 4. Expression of myogenic-specific genes in differentiated menstrual blood–derived cells. Menstrual blood–derived cells were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 20% FBS, 2% HS, or serum-free ITS medium. (A) RT-PCR analysis with PCR primers that allows amplification of the human MyoD, Myf5, desmin, myogenin, MyHC-IIx/d, and dystrophin cDNA (from top to bottom). RNAs were isolated from menstrual blood–derived cells at the indicated day after treatment with 5 μM 5-azacytidine for 24 h. RNAs from human muscle and H_2O served as positive (P) and negative (N) controls. Only the 18S PCR primer used as a positive control reacted with the human and murine cDNA. (B) Immunocytochemical analysis using an antibody to desmin (a–f) was performed on the menstrual blood-derived cells at 2 wk after exposure to 5 μM of 5-azacytidine for 24 h. The desmin-positive cells are shown at higher magnification (d–f). Merge of a and b is shown in c, and merge of d and e is shown in f. The images were obtained with a laser scanning confocal microscope. Scale bars, 200 μm (a–c) and 75 μm (d—f). (C and D) RT-PCR analysis of menstrual blood–derived cells on DMEM supplemented with 2% HS (C) or serum-free ITS medium (D) after exposure to 5 μM 5-azacytidine for 24 h. (E–G) Western blot analysis was performed on the cells cultured in myogenic medium indicated for 21 d. The blot was stained with desmin (E), myogenin (F), and dystrophin (G) antibodies followed by an HRP-conjugated secondary antibody.

provides an example of how human and mouse nuclei in the EGFP-positive myotubes were detected. Multinucleated myotubes were revealed by the presence of specific human dystrophin (Figure 6, B and C) and myosin heavy chain (Figure 6D). Dystrophin was detected in cytoplasm in culture condition (Figure 6, B and C) despite evidence of cell surface localization in vivo. Human dystrophin and human nuclei were unequivocally identified by staining with antibodies to human dystrophin and human nuclei, whereas the numerous mouse nuclei present in this field, as shown by DAPI staining, are negative (Figure 6, B and C).

DISCUSSION

Skeletal muscle has a remarkable regenerative capacity in response to an extensive injury. Resident within adult skeletal muscle is a small population of myogenic precursor cells (or satellite cells) that are capable of multiple rounds of proliferation (estimated at 80–100 doublings), which are able to reestablish a quiescent pool of myogenic progenitor cells after each discrete regenerative episode (Mauro, 1961; Schultz and McCormick, 1994; Seale and Rudnicki, 2000; Hawke and Garry, 2001). Although muscle regeneration is a highly efficient and reproducible process, it ultimately is exhausted, as observed in senescent skeletal muscle or in patients with muscular dystrophy (Gussoni *et al.*, 1997; Cossu and Mavilio, 2000). In the present study, we investigated the myogenic potential of human endometrial tissue-derived immortalized EM-E6/E7/TERT-2 cells and primary cells derived from human menstrual blood. Human menstrual blood–derived cells proliferated over at least 25 PDs (9 passages) for more than 60 d and stopped dividing before 30 PDs. This cessation of cell division is probably due to replicative senescence or shortening of telomere length. Cell life span of menstrual blood cells is relatively short when compared with human fetal cells (Imai *et al.*, 1994; Terai *et al.*, 2005), and this shorter cell life span may be attributed to shorter telomere length of adult cells (i.e., endometrial stro-

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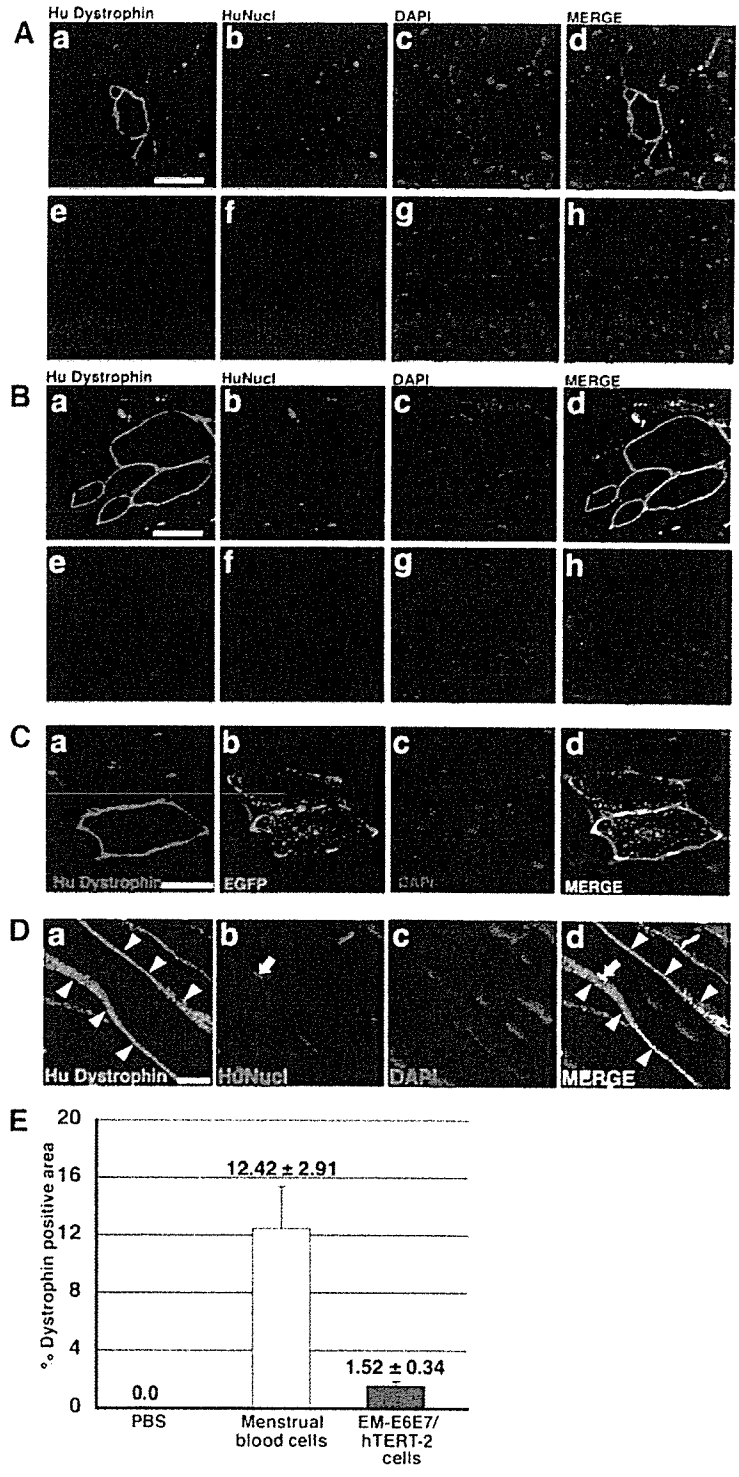

Figure 5. Conferral of dystrophin to mdx myocytes by human endometrial cells. (A and B) Immunohistochemistry analysis using an antibody against human dystrophin molecule (green), human nuclei (HuNucl, red), and DAPI staining (blue) on thigh muscle sections of mdx-scid mice after direct injection of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (A) or menstrual blood–derived cells (B) without any treatment or induction. (C) EGFP-labeled EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells without any treatment or induction were directly injected into the thigh muscle of mdx-scid mice. Immunohistochemistry revealed the incorporation of implanted cells into newly formed EGFP-positive myofibers, which expressed human dystrophin 3 wk after implantation. (A and B) As a methodological control, the primary antibody to dystrophin was omitted (e and f). (D) Immunohistochemistry analysis using an antibody against human dystrophin molecule (green, arrowheads), human nuclei (HuNucl, red, arrow), and DAPI staining (blue) on thigh muscle sections of mdx-scid mice after direct injection of human EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells without any treatment or induction. (A and B) Merge of a–c is shown in d, and merge of e–g is shown in h. (C and D) Merge of a–c is shown in d. Scale bars, 50 μm (A and B), 20 μm (C and D). (E) Quantitative analysis of human dystrophin-positive myotubes. Menstrual blood–derived cells or EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells without any treatment or induction were directly injected into thigh muscle of mdx-scid mice. The percentage of human dystrophin–positive-myofiber areas was calculated 3 wk after implantation of the EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells or menstrual blood–derived cells. Injection of PBS without cells into mdx-scid myofibers was used as a control.

mal cells) at the start of cell cultivation, as is the case with hematopoietic stem cells (Suda *et al.*, 1984).

Menstrual blood–derived cells had a high replicative ability similar to progenitors or stem cells that display a long-term self-renewal capacity and had a much higher growth rate in our experimental conditions than marrow-derived stromal cells (Mori *et al.*, 2005). In addition, the myogenic potential of menstrual blood–derived cells, i.e., a high frequency of desmin-positive cells after induction, is much greater than expected. The higher myogenic differentiation ratio can be explained just by alteration of cell characteristics from epithelial and mesenchymal bipotential cells or heter-

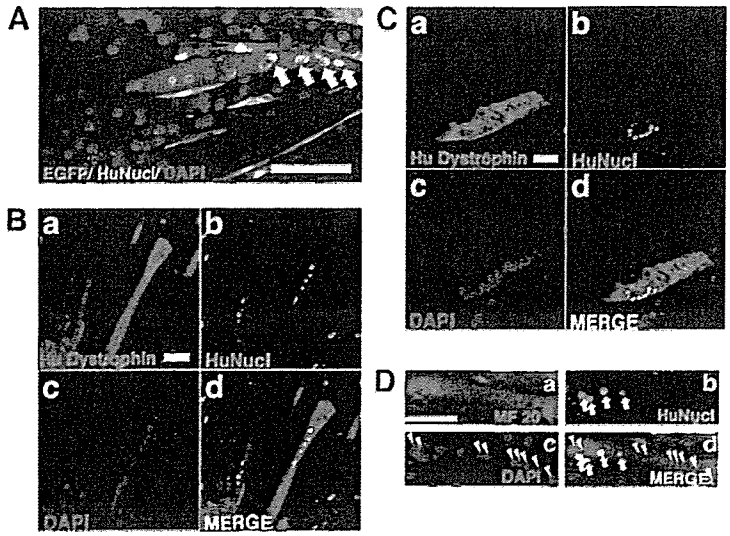

Figure 6. Detection of human endometrial cell contribution to myotubes in an in vitro and in vivo myogenesis model. EGFP-labeled EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (A) or EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (B) or menstrual blood-derived cells (C and D) were cocultured with C2C12 myoblasts for 2 d under conditions that favored proliferation. The cultures were then changed to differentiation media for 7 d to induce myogenic fusion. (A) Myotubes were revealed by EGFP (green); human nuclei were detected by antibody specific to human nuclei (HuNucl, red, arrows). (B–D) Myotubes were revealed by specific human dystrophin mAb NCL-DYS3 (B and C, red) or anti-myosin heavy chain mAb MF-20 (D, red). (D) Human nuclei were detected by antibody specific to human nuclei (HuNucl, green, arrows). Total cell nuclei in the culture were stained with DAPI (blue, arrowheads). (B–D) Merge of a–c are shown in d. The cultures were then changed to differentiation media for 7 d to induce myogenic fusion. Scale bars, 100 μm (A–D).

ogeneous populations of cells to cells with the mesenchymal phenotype in our cultivation condition, as determined by cell surface markers (Figure 1, C–E). MyoD-positive cells are present in many fetal chick organs such as brain, lung, intestine, kidney, spleen, heart, and liver (Gerhart *et al.*, 2001), and these cells can differentiate into skeletal muscle in culture. Constitutive expression of MyoD, desmin, and myogenin, all markers for skeletal myogenic differentiation in both immortalized EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells, implies either that most of these cells are myogenic progenitors or that these cells have myogenic potential. Expression of MyoD, one of the basic helix-loop-helix transcription factors that directly regulate myocyte cell specification and differentiation (Edmondson and Olson, 1993), occurs at the early stage of myogenic differentiation, whereas myogenin is expressed later, related to cell fusion and differentiation (Aurade *et al.*, 1994).

Acquisition or recovery of dystrophin expression in dystrophic muscle is attributed to two different mechanisms: 1) myogenic differentiation of implanted or transplanted cells and 2) cell fusion of implanted or transplanted cells with host muscle cells. Recovery of dystrophin-positive cells is explained by muscular differentiation of implanted marrow stromal cells and adipocytes (Dezawa *et al.*, 2005; Rodriguez *et al.*, 2005). In contrast, implantation of normal myoblasts into dystrophin-deficient muscle can create a reservoir of normal myoblasts that are capable of fusing with dystrophic muscle fibers and restoring dystrophin (Mendell *et al.*, 1995; Terada *et al.*, 2002; Wang *et al.*, 2003; Dezawa *et al.*, 2005; Rodriguez *et al.*, 2005). In this study using menstrual blood-derived cells, our findings—that the implantation of immortalized EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells improved the efficiency of muscle regeneration and dystrophin delivery to dystrophic muscle in mice—is explained by both possibilities or the latter possibility alone, because cells expressing human dystrophin had both murine and human nuclei, located in the center and periphery of dystrophic muscular fiber, respectively (Figures 5D, in vivo, and 6, A–D, in vitro).

DMD is a devastating X-linked muscle disease characterized by progressive muscle weakness attributable to a lack of dystrophin expression at the sarcolemma of muscle fibers (Mendell *et al.*, 1995; Rodriguez *et al.*, 2005), and there are no effective therapeutic approaches for muscular dystrophy at present. Human menstrual blood–derived cells are obtained by a simple, safe, and painless procedure and can be expanded efficiently in vitro. In contrast, isolation of mesenchymal stem cells/mesenchymal cells from other sources, such as bone marrow and adipose tissue, is accompanied by a painful and complicated operation. Efficient fusion systems of our immortalized human EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells with host dystrophic myocytes may contribute substantially to a major advance toward eventual cell-based therapies for muscle injury or chronic muscular disease. Finally, we would like to reemphasize that human menstrual blood–derived cells possess high self-renewal capacity, whereas biopsied myoblasts capable of differentiating into muscular cells are poorly expandable in vitro and rapidly undergo senescence (Cossu and Mavilio, 2000).

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オリゴ糖鎖合成／(株)グライコメディクス
—糖鎖プライマー法で生産した糖鎖の医療分野への応用—

中島英規

オリゴ糖鎖は糖脂質，糖タンパク質などさまざまな形態で存在し，重要な生体反応に関与している。糖鎖は構成単糖が多種であることに加え結合様式も多様であるため，さまざまなバリエーションが存在している。糖鎖は大量に入手することが困難であったため，生物学的・生理的に重要な役割を担っていると考えられながら医薬品や食品など産業分野への応用は，大量に得られる多糖を除けばほとんど例がない。これまでの糖鎖の入手方法は，生物材料からの抽出，有機合成，酵素を用いた方法などがおもに試みられてきたが，複雑な配列を有する糖鎖を効率良く得ることは熟練を要しコストや時間の面でも問題があった。

弊社が行う培養細胞を利用した糖鎖プライマー法による糖鎖の生産は，糖鎖生合成過程における糖鎖生合成中間体を模倣した人工的な構造の化合物（糖鎖プライマーと呼ぶ）を培養細胞の糖鎖生合成経路に割り込ませ，この糖鎖プライマー上に糖鎖を伸張させて入手困難であった複雑な構造をもつ糖鎖を大量に作り出す方法である。これまでに糖鎖プライマーの構造を工夫することによってさまざまな糖脂質糖鎖，または糖タンパク質O-結合型糖鎖を合成することに成功している。弊社糖鎖プライマー法では，アグリコン部分の構造を工夫することで他分子へ結合や基材への固定化などを非常に容易にすることができる。このような糖鎖プライマーを用いれば，複雑な糖鎖をもった糖鎖ポリマーもしくは糖鎖オリゴマーを作り出すのも容易である。

これまで複雑な構造をもつ疾患関連糖鎖を入手することは難しく，入手できたとしても微量で，化学的に修飾したオリゴマーなどを合成することは非常に困難であった。弊社糖鎖プライマー法で得られた糖鎖は，このような問題を解決しつつ，新たな糖鎖を基本とした予防・診断・治療薬を提案できると考えている。

NAKAJIMA, Hideki （株)グライコメディクス・主任研究員，博士(工学).

細胞シート工学による再生医療事業の創造／(株)セルシード

長谷川幸雄

バイオと工学の接点で生まれる新しい材料開発が，医療を大きく変えつつある。革新的な材料のシーズを実用化し，自分自身の細胞を用いて，機能障害に陥った組織，臓器の再生をはかる再生医療の実現が急がれている。筆者らは，新しい産学連携の強固な枠組みとしてベンチャー企業（セルシード）を立ち上げ，東京女子医科大学と連携して，インテリジェント材料を用いた細胞シート工学という新しいコンセプトと技術を基盤とした再生医療の早期実現を目指している。

温度応答性ポリマーを細胞培養器材表面にナノレベルで構築すると，温度により器材表面を親水性および疎水性に自由に可逆的に制御可能なインテリジェント表面を構築することができる。培養温度を下げると表面は親水性になるため，培養細胞が器材表面から簡単にはがれ細胞シートとして回収することができる。このシートは細胞自身がつくり出す接着因子「のり」を表面にもっており，縫合することなく移植が可能となる。

本技術を用いて，大阪大学と共同でヒト角膜輪部組織の微小切片から角膜上皮細胞の培養，上皮シートとして回収および移植が可能であることを実証した。さらに，角膜疾患の治療においては圧倒的なドナー不足であるため，患者自身の口腔粘膜より上皮細胞シートの培養，回収，自家移植も試み，成功した。現在，厚生労働省へ安全性の確認申請の準備を行い，早期に再生角膜上皮移植の治験開始を目指している。

インテリジェント材料に基づく細胞シート工学は組織の機能障害や機能不全の回復に有効であり，再生医療にきわめて有用である。今後も，バイオと工学の接点で生まれる新しい材料開発が21世紀の新しい医療において，大きな役割を果たすためにはさらに強固な産学連携が大きな鍵を握ると考えている。

HASEGAWA, Yukio （株)セルシード・代表取締役社長，博士(医学).
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