primary diseases or conditions. Blood samples were obtained after the patients and control subjects had given their written informed consent, as approved by the Keio University Institutional Review Board.

Clinical findings

The demographic and clinical features of each SLE patient were evaluated at the time of blood collection. Thirty-seven clinical and laboratory findings were recorded; these were the individual items included in the American College of Rheumatology preliminary classification criteria [5] and the SLE Disease Activity Index (SLEDAI) [7]. All SLE patients with thrombocytopenia received moderate- to high-dose oral corticosteroids (>40 mg/day; $n=26$) or methylprednisolone pulse therapy (1 g/day for 3 days; $n=6$), and eight of them simultaneously received intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIG; 0.4 g/day for 3–5 days) and/or platelet transfusion. During the course of the disease, 19 patients who required surgical or invasive procedure received IVIG without increase in the corticosteroid dosage or the initiation of immunosuppressant. A therapeutic response was defined as a platelet count $>100\times10^9$/l in association with these therapies. The efficacy of the corticosteroid treatment was assessed 3 months afterwards, when the potential influence of IVIG or platelet transfusion could be ignored; the efficacy of IVIG was assessed at 1 week.

Autoantibody analysis

Anti-double-stranded DNA antibody was measured by the Farr assay, and anti-Sm and anti-SSA antibodies were identified using an RNA immunoprecipitation assay [8]. IgG anti-cardiolipin antibodies were measured with an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit (MBL, Nagano, Japan).

Anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody-producing B cells

The anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody response was evaluated by detecting peripheral blood B cells secreting IgG anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibodies. For this, we used an enzyme-linked immunospot assay, which is a sensitive and specific method for evaluating the presence or absence of autoantibody-mediated thrombocytopenia [9]. Briefly, peripheral blood mononuclear cells (10^5/well) were cultured in pentaplicate on GPIIb/IIIa-coated 96-well microplates at 37°C for 4 h, and subsequently incubated with alkaline phosphatase-conjugated goat anti-human IgG. Finally, the anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibodies that bound to the membrane were visualized as spots by incubation with a substrate. The frequency of circulating anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody-producing B cells was calculated as the number per 10^5 peripheral blood mononuclear cells. The cut-off value was defined as 2.0 [9].

Anti-TPOR antibody

Serum anti-TPOR antibody was detected by ELISA using a recombinant protein encoding the entire extracellular domain of human TPOR as the antigen, as described before [4]. Antibody units were calculated from the optical density at 450 nm, using a standard curve obtained from serial concentrations of rabbit anti-human TPOR polyclonal antibodies (Kirin Brewery, Takasaki, Japan), and the cut-off value was defined as 18.0 units [4].

Evaluation of bone-marrow megakaryocyte density

Bone-marrow films from all the patients with thrombocytopenia were available. The proportion of megakaryocytes to the total number of nucleated cells was evaluated from Wright–Giemsa-stained bone-marrow smears. At least 1000 nucleated cells were counted for each sample. A proportion of megakaryocytes that was ≤0.2% was regarded as a decrease and one of >1.0% as an increase.

Statistical analysis

All continuous results were expressed as the mean ± S.D. Comparisons to determine statistical significance between two groups were performed using Fisher's exact test or unpaired Student's *t*-test, as appropriate.

Results

Anti-GPIIb/IIIa and anti-TPOR antibody responses in SLE patients with thrombocytopenia

Anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody-producing B cells and anti-TPOR antibody levels in SLE patients with thrombocytopenia were significantly higher than in SLE patients without thrombocytopenia or healthy controls, but were comparable to those in patients with idiopathic thrombocytopenia (Fig. 1). When all the subjects were stratified above or below the cut-off, an anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody response was detected in 28 (88%) SLE patients with thrombocytopenia, but in five (17%) without thrombocytopenia ($P<0.0001$). Anti-TPOR antibody was detected exclusively in SLE patients with thrombocytopenia and in those with idiopathic thrombocytopenia, and its frequency was significantly higher in SLE patients with thrombocytopenia than in SLE patients without it (22 *vs* 0%, $P=0.01$). The respective frequencies of anti-GPIIb/IIIa and anti-TPOR antibodies in SLE patients with thrombocytopenia were comparable to those in patients with idiopathic thrombocytopenia (86 and 10%). Finally, 29 (91%) of the SLE patients with thrombocytopenia produced either anti-GPIIb/IIIa or anti-TPOR antibody, and six of these patients produced both.

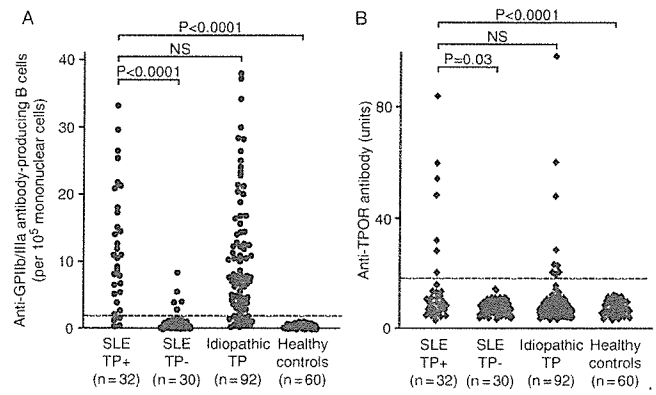

FIG. 1. Circulating anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody-producing B cells (A) and serum anti-TPOR antibody (B) in 32 SLE patients with thrombocytopenia (TP), 30 SLE patients without thrombocytopenia, 92 patients with idiopathic thrombocytopenia and 60 healthy controls. A broken line indicates a cut-off level (2.0 for anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody-producing B cells and 18.0 for anti-TPOR antibody). Levels were compared between SLE patients with thrombocytopenia and other groups using the unpaired *t*-test. NS, not significant ($P>0.05$).

Megakaryocyte density in association with autoantibody status

Examination of the bone marrow from SLE patients with thrombocytopenia revealed that eight (25%), 17 (53%) and seven (22%) patients had increased, normal and decreased bone megakaryocytes, respectively. A similar distribution was observed in the 92 patients with idiopathic thrombocytopenia; i.e. 20, 66 and 14% had increased, normal and decreased bone megakaryocytes, respectively. The status of anti-GPIIb/IIIa and anti-TPOR antibodies was compared with the bone marrow megakaryocyte density of patients with SLE and thrombocytopenia and those with idiopathic thrombocytopenia. Seven SLE patients who had anti-TPOR antibody had a significantly higher frequency of megakaryocytic hypoplasia than 25 patients who did not (86 *vs* 4%, $P<0.0001$; Table 1), and this association appeared to be independent of anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody production. In contrast, none of the SLE patients who produced anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody but not anti-TPOR antibody had megakaryocytic hypoplasia. Similarly, in patients with idiopathic thrombocytopenia, megakaryocytic hypoplasia was significantly more frequent in the nine patients with anti-TPOR antibody than in the 83 without this antibody (79 *vs* 7%, $P<0.0001$).

Clinical associations with anti-TPOR antibody

Additional clinical and laboratory findings for SLE patients with thrombocytopenia were compared based on the presence or absence of anti-TPOR antibody (Table 1). There was no significant difference in sex, age at examination, SLE-related clinical findings, lowest platelet count, autoantibody status, including anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody-producing B cells, or SLEDAI between these two groups. A poor therapeutic response to corticosteroids was more prevalent in patients with anti-TPOR antibody than in those without, most of whom had anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody alone ($P=0.0006$). Thus, the immunosuppressant use for thrombocytopenia was significantly more frequent in anti-TPOR-positive patients than in anti-TPOR-negative patients (71 *vs* 8%, $P=0.002$). Furthermore, all five anti-TPOR-positive patients who received IVIG were non-responders, while only one patient (10%) without this antibody showed a poor response to IVIG ($P=0.002$).

TABLE 1. Clinical and laboratory findings for SLE patients with thrombocytopenia who did or did not produce anti-TPOR antibody

Clinical and laboratory findings	Anti-TPOR-positive ($n=7$)	Anti-TPOR-negative ($n=25$)	P
Sex (% female)	86	88	NS
Age at examination (yr, mean ± S.D.)	44.0 ± 5.6	37.3 ± 15.0	NS
Malar rash (%)	43	36	NS
Discoid rash (%)	14	8	NS
Photosensitivity (%)	28	20	NS
Oral ulcers (%)	14	16	NS
Arthritis (%)	14	12	NS
Serositis (%)	14	8	NS
Renal disorder (%)	14	24	NS
Neurological disorder (%)	14	4	NS
Haemolytic anaemia (%)	0	4	NS
Leucopenia (%)	57	60	NS
Lowest platelet count ($\times 10^9$/l; mean ± S.D.)	20.7 ± 17.9	24.1 ± 12.1	NS
Anti-dsDNA antibody (%)	71	76	NS
Anti-Sm antibody (%)	14	4	NS
Anti-SSA antibody (%)	57	44	NS
Anti-cardiolipin antibody (%)	28	48	NS
Anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody-producing B cells ($/10^6$ mononuclear cells, mean ± S.D.)	8.4 ± 8.1	12.8 ± 8.8	NS
Megakaryocytic hypoplasia (%)	86	4	<0.0001
Poor response to corticosteroids (%)	86	12	0.0006
Poor response to IVIG (n/n,%)	5/5 (100)	1/10 (10)	0.002
SLEDAI (mean ± S.D.)	9.0 ± 5.8	7.5 ± 7.3	NS

NS, not significant ($P \geq 0.05$).
dsDNA, double-stranded DNA; IVIG, intravenous immunoglobulin; SLEDAI, SLE disease activity index.

Discussion

Our findings demonstrate that both anti-GPIIb/IIIa and anti-TPOR antibodies are associated with thrombocytopenia in SLE patients, although the tests used were not necessarily comparable: antibody-secreting peripheral blood B cells were measured to detect the anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody response while serum samples were used to detect the anti-TPOR antibody response. More than 90% of SLE patients with thrombocytopenia had at least one of these platelet-related autoantibodies, indicating that thrombocytopenia mediated by these two types of autoantibody is a dominant mechanism for SLE-associated thrombocytopenia, as for idiopathic thrombocytopenia.

Interestingly, anti-GPIIb/IIIa and anti-TPOR antibodies were associated with different phenotypes of thrombocytopenia, in terms of bone-marrow megakaryocyte density and therapeutic responses to standard treatment regimens for immune thrombocytopenia. All the SLE patients with anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody alone had normal or increased megakaryocyte density, whereas the anti-TPOR antibody was strongly associated with megakaryocytic hypoplasia. This different phenotype can be explained by the distinct biological effects of these antibodies: anti-GPIIb/IIIa antibody binds circulating platelets and facilitates Fcγ receptor-mediated clearance of opsonized platelets by reticuloendothelial phagocytes [2], whereas anti-TPOR antibody blocks TPO signalling, resulting in inhibition of megakaryogenesis in the bone marrow [4]. This different mode of action may also account for the lack of therapeutic response to IVIG of patients with anti-TPOR antibody. Since interactions between the Fc portion of the infused immunoglobulins and the Fc receptors on target cells are thought to be a primary action of IVIG [10], it is likely that IVIG has little effect on the TPO signal blockade through the variable region of the antibodies.

In summary, measurement of anti-GPIIb/IIIa anti-TPOR antibody responses is useful in distinguishing between subsets of patients with SLE and thrombocytopenia and predicting their therapeutic response.

Rheumatology

Key messages

- Anti-GPIIb/IIIa and anti-TPOR antibodies are major contributory factors to SLE-associated thrombocytopenia.
- Anti-TPOR antibody is associated with megakaryocytic hypoplasia and poor therapeutic responses to corticosteroids and intravenous immunoglobulin.

Acknowledgements

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Potential benefit of statins for vascular disease in systemic sclerosis

Masataka Kuwana

Purpose of review

Microvascular abnormality is a dominant feature of systemic sclerosis. There is increasing evidence that statins, developed as lipid-lowering drugs, yield profound benefits beyond their lipid-lowering effects. These 'pleiotropic' effects suggest that statins may be beneficial for treating SSc vasculopathy. This review focuses on the action of statins on endothelial functions and their potential use in treating SSc.

Recent findings

The initial event in the pathogenesis of vascular involvement in SSc has been thought to be endothelial injury, but recent studies have led to another theory — that insufficient vascular repair due to defective vasculogenesis contributes to this process. Statins inhibit cholesterol synthesis, but they also suppress the synthesis of other lipid intermediates, resulting in protection of the endothelium through improvements in endothelial function, mobilization of endothelial precursors, suppression of the inflammatory response, and inhibition of fibrosis. Only a few studies evaluating the clinical benefits of statins have been conducted in SSc patients to date, but one open-label study showed that statins might be effective in improving vascular symptoms.

Summary

Statins display numerous effects that may be of potential benefit in preventing endothelial dysfunction in SSc patients. Further clinical trials of statins in SSc patients are warranted.

Keywords

endothelial cells, pleiotropic effect, vasculogenesis

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Abbreviations

CEP	circulating endothelial precursor
eNOS	endothelial nitric oxide synthase
FPP	farnesyl pyrophosphate
GGPP	geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate
LDL	low-density lipoprotein
NO	nitric oxide
PI3K	phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase
SSc	systemic sclerosis
VEGF	vascular endothelial growth factor

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Introduction

Microvascular abnormality is the most common finding in patients with systemic sclerosis (SSc), or scleroderma, and causes reduced blood flow and tissue ischemia, which lead to Raynaud's phenomenon, digital ulcers, and gangrene. The pathogenesis of SSc vasculopathy is not fully understood, but several lines of evidence have indicated that it is induced by enhanced vascular injury [1] and insufficient vascular repair machinery due to defective vasculogenesis [2]. To date, there has been minimal success in treating the vascular manifestations of SSc using nonselective vasodilators [3].

The 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase inhibitors, or statins, were developed as lipid-lowering drugs, and they have been shown in numerous clinical trials to promote the primary and secondary prevention of cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in patients with hypercholesterolemia [4]. The clinical benefit was initially believed to be solely attributable to its low-density lipoprotein (LDL)-lowering effect. There is increasing evidence, however, that statins yield profound benefits beyond their lipid-lowering action [5]. These so-called 'pleiotropic' effects of statins, revealed in experimental and clinical studies, suggest that statins may be beneficial for treating other forms of vascular dysfunction, such as those seen in SSc. This review discusses the potential utility of statins as a treatment for SSc vasculopathy.

Pathogenesis of systemic sclerosis vasculopathy

SSc vasculopathy mainly involves small arteries (50–500 μm diameter) and capillaries, and causes reduced blood flow and tissue ischemia. The final balance between vasodilation and vasoconstriction in the vascular

endothelium is determined by specific interactions between soluble or cell surface signaling molecules. These vasomotor controls are impaired in patients with SSc, and the balance favors vasoconstriction [6]. This functional dysregulation is primarily caused by morphologic changes of the vasculature. In early SSc, perivascular mononuclear infiltrates can be found in conjunction with the edematous concentric proliferation of the intima. In patients with more advanced disease, the most striking findings are reduced capillary density and the obliteration of vessels due to intimal fibrosis. In this regard, Konttinen *et al.* [7] reported that SSc skin shows the rare vascular expression of $\alpha_V\beta_3^+$ integrin, which is preferentially expressed by newly formed blood vessels.

Despite the relative lack of new blood vessel formation, there is accumulating evidence that enhanced proangiogenic signaling occurs in SSc-affected tissues. The expression of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), a key mediator of angiogenesis, and its receptors VEGFR1 and VEGFR2 is dramatically upregulated in skin specimens of SSc patients at different disease stages [8,9]. Ann Davies *et al.* [10] also showed unregulated VEGF expression in SSc skin, but failed to confirm the increased expression of VEGFR2. VEGF is one of the major proteins whose expression is upregulated after hypoxic exposure, and its overexpression in SSc patients can be explained by tissue ischemia. Moreover, elevated levels of circulating VEGF and other proangiogenic factors, including basic fibroblast growth factor and hepatocyte growth factor, are reported in SSc patients [2,11]. In SSc patients, therefore, blood vessel formation appears insufficient to replace damaged vessels, despite the presence of enhanced hypoxia-mediated proangiogenic signals. In this regard, Giusti *et al.* [12•] recently reported that a reduction in tissue kallikreins, which are powerful modulators of angiogenesis, may be relevant to the reduced angiogenesis in SSc patients. The mechanisms that induce characteristic structural changes of the vessel wall seen in SSc patients involve two different processes, as described below.

Enhanced vascular injury

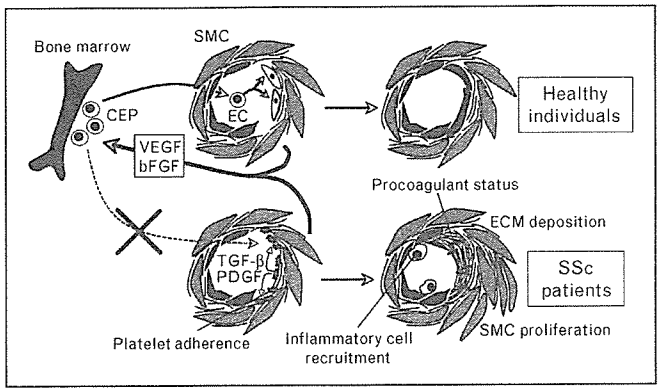
The proposed mechanisms for enhanced vascular injury include ischemia-reperfusion reaction, the inflammatory-immune process, and an imbalance between coagulation and fibrinolysis. The enhanced expression of adhesion molecules in SSc vessels is widely documented and is presumed to result in inflammatory cell trafficking in the vessel wall and surrounding tissue. Stummvoll *et al.* [13] found that SSc patients had an increased proportion of circulating $CD4^+$ T cells that showed enhanced expression of CD11a, CD49d, CD29, and CD44, and engaged in transendothelial migration. T cells with these phenotypic features were frequently detected in the perivascular areas in the early stage of SSc. Worda *et al.* [14] described the direct induction of endothelial apoptosis by antiendothelial antibodies in a chicken model of SSc (UCD-200), although the identity of the target antigens recognized by these antibodies remains unclear. A recent analysis by Satoh *et al.* [15] indicated that neither the endothelium-specific surface receptors bone morphogenetic protein receptor-II or activin receptor-like kinase 1 were the target antigens recognized by the autoantibodies.

Defective vasculogenesis

Recent studies have provided increasing evidence that the formation of new blood vessels in postnatal life does not result solely from the sprouting of preexisting vessels ('angiogenesis'), but also involves the recruitment of bone marrow-derived progenitors or precursors for endothelial cells ('vasculogenesis') [16]. These circulating endothelial precursors (CEPs) have properties similar to those of embryonic angioblasts, which are defined as cells with the capacity to circulate, proliferate, and differentiate into mature endothelial cells [17]. CEPs can be identified by a characteristic surface phenotype positive for CD34, CD133, and VEGFR 2 [18]. In healthy adults, however, circulating CEPs are very rare, representing approximately one out of every 10^6 leukocytes [2,18]. Postnatal vasculogenesis mainly contributes to vascular healing in response to vascular injury or ischemia, through the rapid endothelialization of denuded vessels and collateral vessel formation [19–21]. In this process, CEPs home to the site of injury and work in concert with the existing endothelial cells [22].

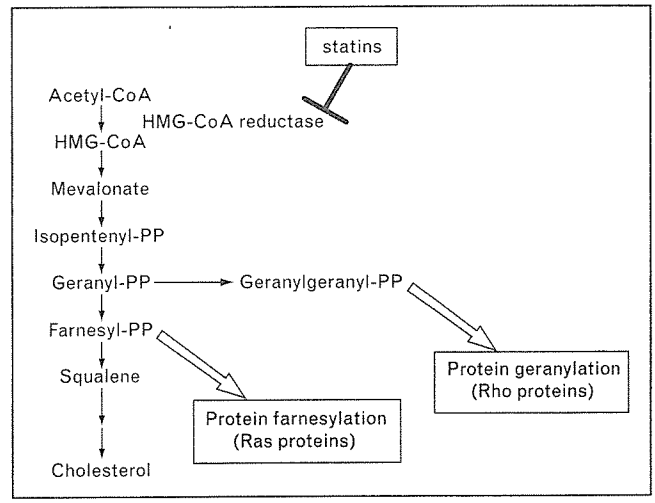
We recently developed assay systems to evaluate the absolute number of CEPs and their maturation potential, and used these systems to examine the quantity and function of CEPs in SSc patients [2]. The number of CEPs in SSc patients was markedly reduced, and their maturation potential was impaired, compared with CEPs in healthy controls. These findings led us to propose a new theory, that insufficient vascular repair machinery through defective vasculogenesis contributes to the vascular involvement seen in SSc patients. Upon vascular injury, many growth factors — such as VEGF, basic fibroblast growth factor, transforming growth factor-β, and platelet-derived growth factor — are produced by the damaged vessels and adherent activated platelets to promote vascularization [21,23]. This tissue response may be accelerated and prolonged in SSc patients, and the sustained production of these growth factors could induce the proliferation of fibroblasts and smooth muscle cells in the intima and the excessive deposition of the extracellular matrix. This process might be enhanced by inflammation and the activation of coagulation systems, which are secondarily induced by endothelial dysfunction (Fig. 1). The mechanism underlying the reduced CEPs in SSc patients is currently unknown, but the

Figure 1 The role of circulating endothelial precursors (CEPs) in vascular repair in healthy individuals, and the defect in CEP-mediated vascular repair in systemic sclerosis (SSc) vasculopathy



bFGF, basic fibroblast growth factor; EC, endothelial cells; ECM, extracellular matrix; PDGF, platelet-derived growth factor; SMC, smooth muscle cells; TGF-β, transforming growth factor-β; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor.

Figure 2 The statin-sensitive mevalonate pathway



CoA, coenzyme A; HMG, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl; PP, pyrophosphate.

upregulated angiogenic signals in SSc-affected tissues strongly suggest that CEPs and their stem cells in the bone marrow do not respond adequately to these angiogenic stimuli. Alternatively, it is possible that continuous endothelial injury leads to the eventual depletion of CEPs, as suggested in patients with multiple risk factors for atherosclerosis [24].

Biochemical effects of statins

Statins inhibit the rate-limiting step of cholesterol synthesis by preventing 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A from being reduced to mevalonate via 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase (Fig. 2). Mevalonate is a necessary substrate not only for cholesterol synthesis, but also for the synthesis of several other biologically important lipid intermediates. Two such intermediates are farnesyl pyrophosphate (FPP) and geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate (GGPP) [25,26]. These molecules serve as lipid attachments that are required for the proper localization and activation of a variety of proteins, such as monomeric GTPases, by regulating their post-translational modification (prenylation). GTPases are active when they are modified post-translationally by the attachment of hydrophilic FPP or GGPP. GTPases are intracellular regulators that play essential roles in numerous cellular processes, including gene expression, actin cytoskeleton regulation, membrane trafficking, proliferation, apoptosis, and migration [27]. Two major GTPases include the Rho and Ras family proteins, which regulate many cellular pathways, such as those involving mitogen-activated protein kinase, c-Jun N-terminal kinase, extracellular signal-regulated kinase, phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase (PI3K), and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor. The statin-mediated inhibition of Rho and Ras prenylation leads to the accumulation of their inactive form in the cytoplasm, which probably explains in part the pleiotropic effects of statins. It should be noted that there are substantial differences in the pleiotropic effects elicited by different statins.

Potential actions of statins on the endothelium

The vascular endothelium represents the key regulatory component of the vascular wall, and endothelial dysfunction represents the earliest manifestation of various vascular diseases, including SSc and atherosclerosis. Evidence has recently been accumulated that statins may specifically exert their beneficial effects by protecting the endothelium and improving its functional activity.

Lipid-lowering effects

The crucial role of oxidized LDL in the development of atherosclerosis is well documented, but oxidized LDL itself potently stimulates the apoptosis of endothelial cells [28,29] and the production of VEGF, which plays a role in the progression of intimal proliferation in endothelial cells [30]. A reduction in circulating LDL levels by statins therefore directly suppresses events that potentially promote endothelial damage and dysfunction.

Improvement of endothelial function

Nitric oxide (NO) exerts protective effects on endothelial cells and prevents their activation. Many studies have shown that endothelial dysfunction is associated with a reduction of endothelium-derived NO bioavailability,

which consequently modulates vascular reactivity and blood flow in the peripheral arteries. In SSc patients, the expression of NO and endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) is lower in dermal microvascular endothelial cells than in those from control subjects [31] — although Andersen *et al.* [32] reported the elevation of NO synthesis in SSc patients. On the other hand, gene polymorphism of the eNOS gene (Glu298Asp) is strongly associated with SSc [33], suggesting a crucial role for NO in its pathogenesis — although another group failed to confirm this putative association [34]. Statins have been shown to induce eNOS expression by prolonging its mRNA stability [35]. The incubation of statin-treated endothelial cells with either mevalonate or GGPP, but not FPP, reverses this effect, indicating the involvement of one or more Rho proteins [36,37]. In addition, statin-induced activation of the PI3K/Akt signaling pathway leads to the phosphorylation of eNOS at serine 1177 and the subsequent enhancement of eNOS enzymatic activity [38,39]. Statins also interfere with the generation of reactive oxygen species by endothelial cells. At least two independent mechanisms appear responsible for this effect: the reduction of myeloperoxidase-derived and NO-derived oxidants [40], and inhibition of their expression and activation by the reduced nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphatase oxidase activity [41].

Mobilization and differentiation of circulating endothelial precursors

Kureishi *et al.* [42] reported that simvastatin promotes new blood formation in the ischemic limbs of normocholesterolemic rabbits, similar to VEGF treatment. The in-vitro experiments demonstrated that statins potently augment the generation of endothelial precursors from mononuclear cells and $CD34^+$ hematopoietic stem cells isolated from peripheral blood [43,44]. In addition, recent reports demonstrated that statin treatment induces CEP mobilization and accelerates endothelial repair at sites of arterial injury in animal models [45,46]. In patients with stable coronary arterial disease, statins increase the number of CEPs [47]. The mobilization of CEPs is therefore one of the mechanisms responsible for neovascularization, but the detailed events responsible for this effect are presently unclear. In this regard, Aicher *et al.* [48] reported that the impaired neovascularization seen in mice lacking eNOS is due to a defect in CEP mobilization, suggesting the involvement of eNOS in the mobilization of CEPs. Walter *et al.* [45] found that CEPs mobilized in response to statin therapy exhibit enhanced adhesion as well as the modulated expression of $\alpha_5\beta_1$ and $\alpha_V\beta_5$ integrins. This finding suggests that statins modulate the adhesiveness of CEPs to support their homing to sites of vascular injury. Moreover, statins were shown to inhibit the senescence of CEPs by regulating various cell-cycle proteins [49]. The protein kinase Akt has been shown to play a central role in the statin-induced neovascularization. Kureishi *et al.* [42] reported that simvastatin rapidly activates Akt signaling in endothelial cells and enhances vascularization *in vivo*. Urbich *et al.* [50] demonstrated that the statin-mediated Akt activation and phosphorylation of eNOS are reversed by PI3K inhibitors. Interestingly, statins and VEGF share a common signaling pathway that involves activation of the PI3K/Akt cascade. Recent studies indicate that the statin-mediated activation of Akt results from the inhibition of mevalonate formation [43,44], but further studies are required to fully elucidate the underlying mechanisms.

Controversy exists regarding the potential proangiogenic and antiangiogenic effects of statins that have been reported in the literature [50,51]. It appears that statins are proangiogenic at low doses *in vitro* and *in vivo* — doses corresponding to the physiologic levels achieved in clinical practice — whereas antiangiogenic effects are seen at high-dose or toxic levels, which are not reached by oral administration in a clinical setting.

Suppression of the inflammatory response

Statins have been shown to have beneficial effects in human inflammatory diseases, such as multiple sclerosis [52] and rheumatoid arthritis [53]. These clinical observations suggest that statins might have anti-inflammatory or immunoregulatory effects. Research over the past several years has elucidated a number of mechanisms by which statins may exert these effects [54], but this review focuses on the mechanisms involving the endothelium. Statins have been reported to inhibit interactions between leukocytes and endothelial cells that necessarily precede leukocyte entry into tissues from the vasculature [55,56]. The mechanism by which statins regulate leukocyte–endothelial adhesion involves their direct binding to a novel regulatory site, termed the L-site, on lymphocyte function-associated antigen 1 [57]. Statins induce allosteric changes in lymphocyte function-associated antigen 1 that prevent its binding to intracellular adhesion molecule-1. This effect is both cholesterol and isoprenoid independent. Statins have also been shown to downregulate the expression of chemokines and their receptors on endothelial cells and leukocytes, including monocyte chemotactic protein-1, macrophage inflammatory protein-1α and macrophage inflammatory protein-1β, interleukin-8, CCR1, and CCR2 [58]. These molecules are reported to be upregulated in endothelial cells and leukocytes from SSc patients [59,60].

Statins also reduce the production of inflammatory cytokines, such as interleukin-6 and interleukin-1β, by cultured human umbilical vein endothelial cells [61]. Statins inhibit the activation of nuclear factor-κB in endothelial cells undergoing inflammatory stimuli, suggesting that this

transcriptional regulator of inflammatory genes may be an important statin target [62]. The downregulation of Rho-related protein activation is one probable mechanism for this effect [63]. Statins also activate the anti-inflammatory transcription factor peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor, which interferes with the transcriptional activity of nuclear factor-κB [64,65].

Inhibition of fibrosis

Statins are reported to suppress fibroblast activation *in vitro* and *in vivo*. In a rat model of renal nephropathy, lovastatin was shown to downregulate the expression of transforming growth factor-β in mesangial cells [66]. In addition, statins cause a potent reduction in connective tissue growth factor levels in cultured fibroblasts derived from various tissues, and this effect appears to be mediated by a decrease in the prenylation of RhoA [67–69]. Rosenbloom *et al.* [70] reported that a specific inhibitor of geranylgeranyl transferase inhibited the gene expression of both type I and type III collagens. Simvastatin suppressed type I collagen production in the same line, and this effect was completely reversed by mevalonate and GGPP, but not by FPP [71••].

The potential of statins for treating systemic sclerosis vascular disease

The beneficial effect of statins against various types of vascular diseases led several investigators to propose them as a potential treatment for SSc vasculopathy [72–74], although only a few studies have evaluated the clinical effect of statins in SSc patients. We recently conducted an open-label, prospective study to evaluate whether statins can improve vascular symptoms and increase CEPs in SSc patients [75••]. Thirteen SSc patients received 10 mg/day atorvastatin for 12 weeks, and were followed for the subsequent 4 weeks. Raynaud's phenomenon improved during the atorvastatin treatment, with significant reductions in the Raynaud condition score and the patients' assessment by visual analog scale rating. The limitation of this study was the self-reported assessments of Raynaud's phenomenon in the setting of an open-label study, although the measures used have been shown to be reliable in SSc patients [76]. Regarding the underlying mechanisms, we focused on the mobilization and functional improvement of CEPs. Atorvastatin treatment resulted in a 1.7-fold to 8.0-fold increase in the CEP number from baseline, and the number returned to baseline after the cessation of atorvastatin. Circulating levels of the angiogenic factors VEGF and basic fibroblast growth factor, which are upregulated to compensate for the defect in the CEPs' ability to respond adequately to angiogenic stimuli, were significantly reduced during the atorvastatin treatment. In addition, the circulating levels of soluble vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 and E-selectin, which reflect the status of endothelial activation and injury, decreased during the treatment. The beneficial effects observed during the atorvastatin treatment could be explained by the recruitment of CEPs into the periphery and by the possible repair of injured endothelium. It is also possible, however, that the observed clinical changes were mediated through other effects of statins, such as an improvement in endothelial function and suppression of inflammation.

Despite their increase, the number of CEPs during atorvastatin treatment did not reach the level seen in healthy individuals. In addition, the statin failed to improve the impaired maturation potential of the CEPs. These observations indicate that although atorvastatin is capable of improving CEP dysfunction in SSc patients, its effect is limited. Since our study used a regular dosage (10 mg daily) of atorvastatin, it would be interesting to examine whether a better clinical benefit could be obtained using a higher dosage (i.e. 80 mg daily [77]) or other statins. In addition, because statins may enhance the vascular repair process and are thought to protect against the progression of vascular abnormality, it would be better to start them at an early disease phase and apply them over the long term.

Conclusion

Novel therapeutic agents are needed for treating SSc that can modify the course of vasculopathy by preventing morphologic changes and functional abnormalities of the vasculature and by promoting vascular remodeling. Statins display a remarkable array of important biologic effects on vascular functions besides their well-known lipid-lowering effect; these pleiotropic effects suggest statins might have a beneficial effect on SSc vasculopathy. Moreover, statins are readily available and have been demonstrated to be relatively safe. Taken together, recent research suggests that statins are promising drugs for targeting the vascular disorders seen in SSc patients.

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Additional references related to this topic can also be found in the Current World Literature section in this issue (p. 654).

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Endothelial Differentiation Potential of Human Monocyte-Derived Multipotential Cells

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Key Words. Endothelial differentiation • Endothelial cells • Monocyte • Vascularization

ABSTRACT

We previously reported a unique $CD14^+CD45^+CD34^+$ type I collagen$^+$ cell fraction derived from human circulating $CD14^+$ monocytes, named monocyte-derived multipotential cells (MOMCs). This primitive cell population contains progenitors capable of differentiating along the mesenchymal and neuronal lineages. Here, we investigated whether MOMCs can also differentiate along the endothelial lineage. MOMCs treated with angiogenic growth factors for 7 days changed morphologically and adopted a caudate appearance with rod-shaped microtubulated structures resembling Weibel-Palade bodies. Almost every cell expressed CD31, CD144, vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) type 1 and 2 receptors, Tie-2, von Willebrand factor (vWF), endothelial nitric-oxide synthase, and CD146, but CD14/CD45 expression was markedly downregulated. Under these culture conditions, the MOMCs continued to proliferate for up to 7 days. Functional characteristics, including vWF release upon histamine stimulation and upregulated expression of VEGF and VEGF type 1 receptor in response to hypoxia, were indistinguishable between the MOMC-derived endothelial-like cells and cultured mature endothelial cells. The MOMCs responded to angiogenic stimuli and promoted the formation of mature endothelial cell tubules in Matrigel cultures. Finally, in xenogenic transplantation studies using a severe combined immunodeficient mouse model, syngeneic colon carcinoma cells were injected subcutaneously with or without human MOMCs. Cotransplantation of the MOMCs promoted the formation of blood vessels, and more than 40% of the tumor vessel sections incorporated human endothelial cells derived from MOMCs. These findings indicate that human MOMCs can proliferate and differentiate along the endothelial lineage in a specific permissive environment and thus represent an autologous transplantable cell source for therapeutic neovasculogenesis. STEM CELLS *2006;24: 2733–2743*

INTRODUCTION

Circulating cells derived from bone marrow have been reported to promote the repair of ischemic damage in organs, possibly by inducing and modulating vasculogenesis in ischemic areas or by stimulating the re-endothelialization of injured blood vessels [1, 2]. Several studies have highlighted the contribution to neovasculogenesis in adults of circulating endothelial cell progenitors, which are characterized by the expression of CD34 and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) type 2 receptor (VEGFR2) [3, 4]. Recently, Harraz et al. reported that $CD14^+$ monocytes also have the potential to be incorporated into the endothelium of blood vessels in mouse ischemic limbs and to transdifferentiate into endothelial cells [5]. In addition, recent studies have shown that human $CD14^+$ monocytes coexpress endothelial lineage markers and form cord-like structures in vitro in response to a combination of angiogenic factors [6, 7]. On the other hand, several lines of evidence indicate that endothelial progenitor cells (EPCs) obtained by culturing peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) in media favoring endothelial differentiation, which were originally reported as circulating angioblasts [3], are composed predominantly of endothelial-like cells (ELCs) derived from circulating monocytes [8, 9]. These findings indicate a potential developmental relationship between monocytes and endothelial cells and suggest that the monocyte population may be recruited for vasculogenesis and may represent an endothelial precursor population.

Recently, we identified a human cell population termed monocyte-derived multipotential cells (MOMCs; previously termed monocyte-derived mesenchymal progenitors) that has a unique phenotype that is positive for CD14, CD45, CD34, and

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type I collagen [10]. This cell population contains progenitors that can differentiate into several distinct mesenchymal cell types, including bone, cartilage, fat, and skeletal and cardiac muscle cells, as well as neurons [10–12]. MOMCs are generated in vitro by culturing circulating $CD14^+$ monocytes on fibronectin in the presence of soluble factors derived from circulating $CD14^-$ cells. MOMCs express several endothelial markers, including CD144/vascular endothelial (VE)-cadherin and VEGF type 1 receptor (VEGFR1), and have the ability to take up acetylated low-density lipoproteins (AcLDLs). In this study, the endothelial differentiation potential of human MOMCs was examined, and the capacity to induce in vitro and in vivo vascularization was compared between MOMCs and ELCs generated from circulating $CD14^+$ monocytes in the EPC induction culture.

Materials and Methods

Preparation of MOMCs

Human MOMCs were generated from the peripheral blood of healthy adult individuals, as described previously [10]. Briefly, PBMCs were resuspended in low-glucose Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, http://www.sigmaaldrich.com), 2 mM L-glutamine, 50 U/ml penicillin, and 50 μg/ml streptomycin, spread at a density of 2×10^6 cells per milliliter on plastic plates that had been previously treated with 10 μg/ml human fibronectin (Sigma-Aldrich), incubated overnight at 4°C, and cultured without any additional growth factors at 37°C with 5% CO_2 in a humidified atmosphere. The medium containing floating cells was exchanged with fresh medium every 3 days. After 7–10 days of culture, the adherent cells were collected as MOMCs and used in the following experiments. All blood samples were obtained after the subjects gave their written informed consent, as approved by the Institutional Review Board.

In some experiments, circulating $CD14^+$ monocytes were separated from PBMCs using an anti-CD14 monoclonal antibody (mAb) coupled to magnetic beads (CD14 MicroBeads; Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany, http://www.miltenyibiotec.com) followed by magnetic cell sorting (MACS) column separation according to the manufacturer's protocol. A fraction enriched in $CD14^+$ cells was also prepared from cultured MOMCs using anti-CD14 mAb-coupled magnetic beads. Flow cytometric analysis revealed that these sorted fractions contained >99% $CD14^+$ cells. MOMCs were generated from the freshly isolated $CD14^+$ monocytes by culturing them alone on fibronectin-coated plates in $CD14^-$ cell-conditioned medium, which was prepared by culturing $CD14^-$ cells on fibronectin-coated plates overnight [10]. PBMCs depleted of $CD34^+$ cells were also prepared, using anti-CD34 mAb-coupled MACS beads, and used in the culture for MOMC differentiation.

Other Cell Types

Macrophages were prepared by culturing adherent PBMCs on plastic plates in Medium 199 (Sigma-Aldrich) supplemented with 20% FBS and 4 ng/ml macrophage-colony stimulating factor (R&D Systems Inc., Minneapolis, http://www.rndsystems.com) for 7 days. Human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) and human pulmonary artery endothelial cells (HPAECs) were purchased from Cambrex (Baltimore, http://www.cambrex.com). Primary cultures of human fibroblasts were established from the skin biopsy of a healthy volunteer and maintained in low-glucose DMEM with 10% FBS.

Endothelial Induction Culture

The endothelial induction culture was carried out using the same medium as for the generation of EPCs [8, 9]. Specifically, MOMCs or freshly isolated $CD14^+$ monocytes (40%–50% confluent) were cultured on fibronectin-coated plastic plates or chamber slides for up to 14 days in endothelial cell basal medium-2 (EBM-2) (Clonetics) supplemented with EBM-2 MV SingleQuots containing 5% FBS, VEGF, basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF), epidermal growth factor, insulin-like growth factor-1, heparin, and ascorbic acid. The medium was exchanged with fresh medium every 3–4 days.

Transmission Electron Microscopy

MOMCs grown in endothelial differentiation or control cultures were immediately fixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde, postfixed in 2% osmium tetroxide, dehydrated in a series of graded ethanol solutions and propylene oxide, and embedded in epoxy resin. The cells were then thin-sectioned with a diamond knife. Sections in the range of gray to silver were collected on 150-mesh grids, stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate, and examined under a JEOL-1200 EXII electron microscope (Jeol, Tokyo, http://www.jeol.com).

Flow Cytometric Analysis

Fluorescence cell staining was performed as described previously [10]. The cells were stained with a combination of the following mouse mAbs, which were either unconjugated or conjugated to fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC), phycoerythrin (PE), or PC5: anti-CD14, anti-CD34, anti-CD40, anti-CD45, anti-CD80, anti-CD105, anti-CD106, anti-CD117/c-kit (Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA, http://www.beckmancoulter.com), anti-CD34, anti-CD133 (Miltenyi Biotec), anti-CD54, anti-CD86 (Ancell, Bayport, MN, http://www.ancell.com), anti-CD31, anti-VEGFR1, anti-VEGFR2, anti-human leukocyte antigen (HLA)-DR (Sigma-Aldrich), anti-CD144, anti-CD146/H1P12, or anti-type I collagen (Chemicon, Temecula, CA, http://www.chemicon.com). When unconjugated mAbs were used, goat anti-mouse IgG $F(ab')_2$ conjugated to FITC or PE (Beckman Coulter) was used as a secondary antibody. For intracellular type I collagen staining, the cells were permeabilized and fixed using the IntraPrep permeabilization reagent (Beckman Coulter). Negative controls were cells incubated with an isotype-matched mouse mAb to an irrelevant antigen. The cells were analyzed on a FACSCalibur flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, San Diego, http://www.bdbiosciences.com) using CellQuest software.

Immunohistochemistry on Cultured Cells

The diaminobenzidine (DAB) staining of cultured cells was performed as described [10]. The primary antibodies used were rabbit polyclonal anti-Tie-2 antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc., Santa Cruz, CA, http://www.scbt.com) or one of the following mouse mAbs: anti-CD45, anti-vimentin (Dako, Carpinteria, CA, http://www.dako.com), anti-CD34 (Ancell),

anti-CD105 (Beckman Coulter), anti-type I collagen, anti-CD144, anti-CD146, anti-human nuclei (Chemicon), anti-VEGFR1, anti-VEGFR2 (Sigma-Aldrich), anti-von Willebrand factor (anti-vWF), and anti-endothelial nitric-oxide synthase (anti-eNOS) (BD Biosciences). Negative controls were cells incubated with normal rabbit IgG or isotype-matched mouse mAb to an irrelevant antigen, instead of the primary antibody. Biotin-labeled anti-mouse or rabbit IgG antibodies combined with a streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase complex (Nichirei, Tokyo, http://www.nichirei.co.jp/english) were used for DAB staining. Nuclei were counterstained with hematoxylin. To enumerate the proportion of cells staining positive for a given marker, at least 300 cells per culture were evaluated.

Uptake of AcLDL

Cultured adherent cells were labeled with 1,1′-dioctadecyl-3,3,3′,3′-tetramethylindocarbocyanine-labeled AcLDL (Dil-AcLDL) (2.5 μg/ml) (Molecular Probes Inc., Eugene, OR, http://probes.invitrogen.com) for 1 hour at 37°C, and AcLDL uptake was evaluated by flow cytometry and by fluorescence microscopy (IX71; Olympus, Tokyo, http://www.olympus-global.com).

Analysis of mRNA Expression

The expression of mRNA was examined using reverse transcription (RT) combined with polymerase chain reaction (PCR) as described [10]. Total RNA was extracted from HUVECs, monocyte-derived ELCs, and mouse colon carcinoma cell line CT-26, and human MOMCs that had or had not been induced to differentiate for 3, 5, 7, or 14 days, using the RNeasy kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). First-strand cDNA synthesized from the total RNA was subjected to PCR amplification using a panel of specific primers (supplemental online Table 1) [6, 10]. The PCR products were resolved by electrophoresis on 2% agarose gels and visualized by ethidium bromide staining.

Cell Proliferation Study

Proliferating MOMCs were detected by bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU) incorporation as described previously [12]. Briefly, MOMCs were cultured in the presence of 10 μM BrdU (Sigma-Aldrich) for 2 hours before staining. After cell fixation and DNA denaturation, the cells were incubated with a rat anti-BrdU mAb (Abcam, Cambridge, U.K., http://www.abcam.com) and a mouse mAb to human nuclei or eNOS followed by incubation with AlexaFluor 488 mouse-specific IgG and AlexaFluor 568 rat-specific IgG (Molecular Probes). Cells were observed under a confocal laser fluorescence microscope (LSM5 PASCAL; Carl Zeiss, Göttingen, Germany, http://www.zeiss.com). To enumerate the proliferating human MOMCs, the number of BrdU-positive nuclei in the total number of nuclei was calculated. Apoptotic cells were also detected by incubating unfixed cells with propidium iodide (Sigma-Aldrich).

Histamine-Mediated Release of vWF

MOMCs after endothelial differentiation treatment and HUVECs were incubated with 10 μM histamine (Sigma-Aldrich) in FBS-free low-glucose DMEM for 25 minutes. Untreated and treated cells were fixed with 10% formalin and stained with a mouse anti-vWF mAb (BD Biosciences) followed by incubation with AlexaFluor 568 mouse-specific IgG (Molecular Probes) and then with FITC-conjugated mouse anti-human nuclear mAb (Chemicon).

Changes in Gene Expression Profiles in Response to Hypoxia

MOMCs after endothelial differentiation treatment and HPAECs were incubated at 37°C in 21% or 1% oxygen for 24 hours [13]. The cells were then harvested and subjected to mRNA expression analyses using RT-PCR and the TaqMan quantitative PCR system (Applied BioSystems, Foster City, CA, http://www.appliedbiosystems.com). A combination of primers and a probe specific for VEGFR1 were designed as follows: forward primer, 5′-AACACAAGATGGCAAATCAGGAT-3′; reverse primer, 5′-GGCGCCACCGCTTAAGA-3′; and probe, 5′-(FAM)-AGGTGAAAAGATCAAGAAACGTGTGAAAAC-TCC-(TAMRA)-3′, whereas those for VEGF, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), and β-actin were purchased from Applied BioSystems. Expression levels were calculated from a standard curve generated by plotting the amount of PCR product against the serial amount of input normoxic HPAEC cDNA and were expressed relative to the level of the same gene under normally oxygenated conditions.

In Vitro Vascular Tube Formation

The formation of endothelial tubular structures was studied in vitro in Matrigel cultures. Briefly, MOMCs, MOMC-derived ELCs, monocyte-derived ELCs, or cultured dermal fibroblasts (10^4 or 10^5) in EBM-2 were seeded onto 24-well plates coated with Matrigel (BD Biosciences) with or without a suboptimal number of HUVECs (10^3), which was insufficient to form typical tube structures. HUVECs (10^4) cultured with HUVECs (10^3) were used as a positive control. The cells were cultured at 37°C for 24 hours and observed with an IX71 inverted microscope. The total tube length was calculated from 10 randomly selected low-power fields for each experiment. In some experiments, MOMCs (10^4) were labeled with the green fluorescent cell linker PKH67 (Sigma-Aldrich) or Dil-AcLDL before being added to the Matrigel culture with unlabeled HUVECs (10^3). Dil-AcLDL-labeled MOMCs cultured in Matrigel for 1 or 3 days were collected using a Cell Recovery Solution (BD Biosciences), cytospun, and stained with mouse anti-eNOS or anti-CD45 mAb, followed by incubation with AlexaFluor 488 mouse-specific IgG and DAPI.

Mouse Model for In Vivo Tumor Neovascularization

All procedures were performed on severe combined immunodeficient (SCID) mice obtained from Charles River Japan (Yokohama, Japan, http://www.crj.co.jp), which were kept in specific pathogen-free conditions according to the Keio University Animal Care and Use Committee guidelines. Syngeneic murine colon carcinoma CT-26 cells (2.5×10^5) were transplanted subcutaneously into the back of SCID mice, with or without MOMCs, MOMC-derived ELCs (10^4 or 10^5), monocyte-derived ELCs, monocytes, or macrophages (10^5). Subcutaneous tumor sizes were measured by external caliper, and tumor volume was calculated with the following formula: volume = $0.5 \times$ longest diameter $\times$ (shortest diameter)^2. Subcutaneous tumors were removed 10 days after the transplantation, and then formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded specimens were

sectioned and stained with hematoxylin and eosin. The number of erythrocyte-bearing blood vessels was counted in 10 independent fields, and the results were expressed as the number per 1 mm^3. Frozen sections (10-μm thick) of the tumor were subjected to immunohistochemistry, in which the slides were incubated with a rat mAb to mouse-specific CD31 (BD Biosciences) or a rabbit polyclonal antibody to human-specific CD31 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) in combination with a mouse mAb to human-specific CD31, HLA class I (Sigma-Aldrich), or vWF (BD Biosciences), followed by incubation with AlexaFluor 488 mouse-specific IgG and AlexaFluor 568 rat- or rabbit-specific IgG (Molecular Probes). Nuclei were counterstained with TO-PRO3 (Molecular Probes). These slides were examined with a confocal laser fluorescence microscope. The proportion of blood vessels containing human CD31-expressing endothelial cells in at least 100 blood vessel sections was calculated. Moreover, we calculated the proportion of cells expressing human CD31 in at least 100 HLA class I-positive cells.

Statistical Analysis

All continuous variables were expressed as the mean ± SD. Comparisons between two groups were tested for statistical significance using the Mann-Whitney test.

Results

Endothelial Differentiation of MOMCs

Human MOMCs took on a spindle shape in culture (Fig. 1A) and consisted of a single phenotypic population positive for CD14, CD45, CD34, and type I collagen by flow cytometric analysis (>96% homogeneous), as reported previously [10]. To investigate whether MOMCs could differentiate along the endothelial lineage, the MOMCs were replated on new fibronectin-coated plates and subjected to endothelial induction culture with EBM-2. During 7 days of culture, the morphology of the MOMCs changed from spindle-shaped to caudate or round with eccentric nuclei and extended cytoplasm (Fig. 1B). The proportion of spindle-shaped cells decreased with time, and nearly all the adherent cells had the caudate morphology on day 7. Electron microscopic analysis of MOMCs cultured under the endothelial induction conditions for 7 days revealed many cytoplasmic granules containing an electron-dense material. These rod-shaped microtubulated structures resembled Weibel-Palade bodies [14] and were detected in all the cells subjected to the endothelial induction treatment (Fig. 1C).

MOMCs cultured in EBM-2 for 7 days were then examined by immunohistochemistry for the expression of endothelial markers. As shown in Figure 1D, MOMC-derived ELCs expressed CD34, CD144, CD105, VEGFR1, VEGFR2, vWF, eNOS, CD146, and Tie-2, typical of endothelial cells. This set of endothelial markers was detected in nearly all the adherent cells, but the intensity of staining for vWF, eNOS, and CD146 was variable. The mRNA expression over time of selected endothelial markers and hematopoietic/monocytic markers in MOMCs undergoing endothelial induction treatment was further examined by RT-PCR (Fig. 1E). The mRNA expression of VEGFR1, VEGFR2, CD144, Tie-2, and vWF was upregulated during the first 7 days of culture and then plateaued, but the expression of VEGFR2 was downregulated on day 14. The expression of CD45 and CD14 was markedly downregulated

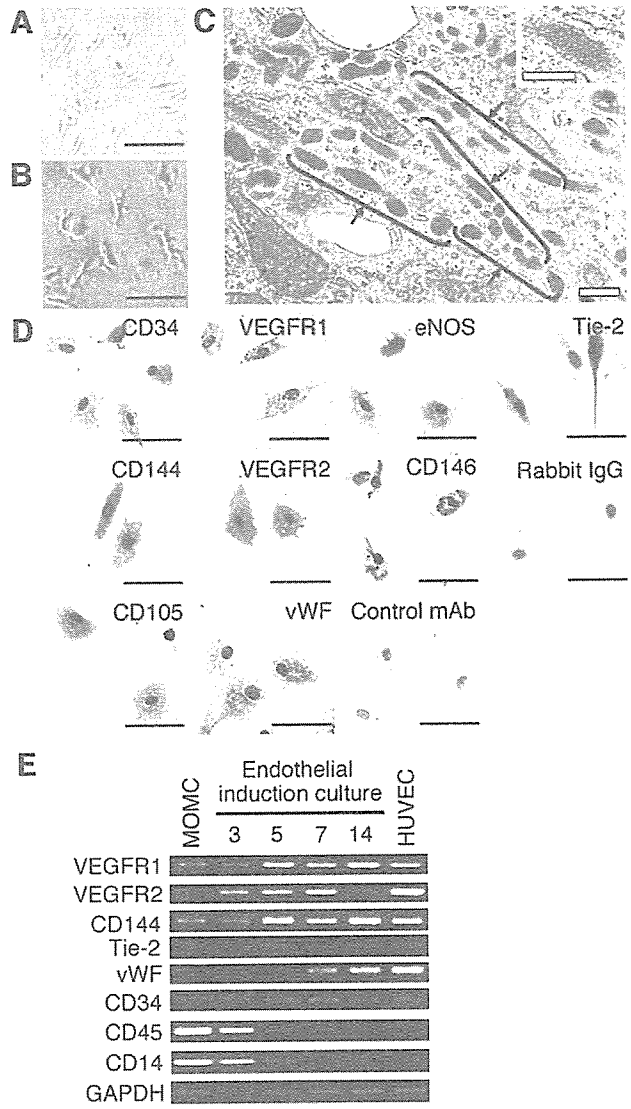

Figure 1. Morphology and protein and mRNA expression profiles of MOMC-derived endothelial-like cells. **(A, B):** Phase-contrast images of MOMCs before **(A)** and after **(B)** endothelial induction for 7 days. Scale bars = 100 μm. **(C):** A transmission electron microscopic image of MOMC-derived endothelial-like cells. Scale bar = 1 μm. Many cytoplasmic granules containing electron-dense material were observed (arrows). Inset shows an electron-dense rod-shaped inclusion at higher magnification; scale bar = 0.5 μm. Results shown are representative of 50 cells prepared in three independent experiments. **(D):** Immunohistochemical analysis of MOMCs undergoing endothelial induction for 7 days. Cells were stained with a mouse mAb or polyclonal antibody to the endothelial marker, as indicated. Controls were incubated with an isotype-matched mouse mAb to an irrelevant antigen (control mAb) or normal rabbit IgG (rabbit IgG). Nuclei were counterstained with hematoxylin. Scale bars = 50 μm. Results shown are representative of at least five independent experiments. **(E):** Reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction analysis for mRNA expression of VEGFR1, VEGFR2, CD144, Tie-2, vWF, CD34, CD45, CD14, and GAPDH in untreated MOMCs; MOMCs with endothelial induction for 3, 5, 7, and 14 days; and HUVECs. Abbreviations: eNOS, endothelial nitric-oxide synthase; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; HUVEC, human umbilical vein endothelial cell; mAb, monoclonal antibody; MOMC, monocyte-derived multipotential cell; VEGFR, vascular endothelial growth factor receptor; vWF, von Willebrand factor.

Table 1. Protein expression profiles of MOMC-derived ELCs, various monocyte-derived cells, and HUVECs

	Circulating monocytes	MOMCs	MOMC-derived ELCs	Monocyte-derived ELCs	Macrophages	HUVECs
CD45[a,b]	++	++	+	++	++	−
CD14[a]	++	++	±	+	++	−
HLA-DR[a]	++	++	+	+	++	−
CD40[a]	+	+	+	+	++	+
CD80[a]	−	−	−	−	++	−
CD86[a]	+	+	+	+	++	−
CD54[a]	+	+	+	+	+	+
CD106[a]	−	−	+	±	−	−
CD34[a,b]	−	+	+	+	−	++
CD105/endoglin[a,b]	−	+	+	+	−	++
CD117/c-kit[a]	−	−	−	−	−	−
CD133[a]	−	−	−	−	−	−
CD31[a]	+	+	+	+	+	++
CD144/VE-cadherin[a,b]	−	+	+	+	−	+
CD146[a,b]	−	−	+	−	−	++
Flt-1/VEGFR1[a,b]	−	+	+	+	−	+
Flk-1/VEGFR2[a,b]	−	−	+	−	−	+
vWF[b]	−	−	+	±	−	++
eNOS[b]	−	−	+	+	−	++
Tie-2[b]	−	+	++	+	−	+
Type I collagen[b]	−	+	+	−	−	−
AcLDL[a,b]	+	++	++	++	++	++

Consistent results were obtained in at least five independent experiments. −, no staining; ±, weak staining, +, moderate staining; ++, strong staining.

[a]Assessed by flow cytometry.

[b]Assessed by immunohistochemistry.

Abbreviations: AcLDL, acetylated low-density lipoprotein; ELC, endothelial-like cell; eNOS, endothelial nitric-oxide synthase; HLA-DR, human leukocyte antigen-DR; HUVEC, human umbilical vein endothelial cell; MOMC, monocyte-derived multipotential cell; VE, vascular endothelial; VEGFR, vascular endothelial growth factor receptor; vWF, von Willebrand factor.

during the differentiation process, whereas CD34 expression remained constant up to day 14. Notably, the mRNA expression profile of MOMCs subjected to the endothelial induction culture for 7 days was indistinguishable from the profile of HUVECs.

These results together indicate that MOMCs can differentiate into ELCs that have morphologic and phenotypic characteristics similar to those of mature endothelial cells. This endothelial differentiation was consistently observed for MOMCs derived from 20 different healthy adult donors. In addition, a similar yield of ELCs was obtained when the same culture conditions were used for the $CD14^+$ cell-enriched MOMC fraction (>99% homogeneous), MOMCs generated from freshly isolated $CD14^+$ monocytes in $CD14^-$ cell-conditioned medium, or MOMCs generated from $CD34^+$ cell-depleted PBMCs.

Phenotypes of ELCs Derived from MOMCs and Freshly Isolated Monocytes

Several reports show that ELCs can also be generated from freshly isolated circulating $CD14^+$ monocytes by culturing them with a combination of angiogenic growth factors [5–9]. The protein expression profiles of MOMC-derived ELCs on day 7 were examined by flow cytometry and/or immunohistochemistry and compared with those of ELCs prepared by culturing freshly isolated circulating monocytes in EBM-2 for 7 days (Table 1). Representative flow cytometric analyses of the cell-surface expression of CD45, CD14, CD34, CD144, and CD146 are shown in Figure 2. Monocyte-derived ELCs displayed weak CD34 and CD144 expression and downregulated CD45 expression, as described previously [6, 7]. Comparison of the expression profiles obtained from ELCs derived from different sources showed that the MOMC-derived ELCs had a higher expression of CD34, CD144, and CD146 and a lower expression of CD45 and CD14 than the monocyte-derived ELCs. Moreover, no protein expression of VEGFR2 and vWF was apparent in the monocyte-derived ELCs under our culture and immunohistochemical conditions (Table 1).

Proliferative Capacity of MOMCs During Endothelial Differentiation

To evaluate whether MOMCs proliferate during endothelial differentiation, the number of adherent cells in the MOMC cultures with and without the endothelial induction treatment were evaluated over time (Fig. 3A). The number of MOMCs increased during culture. However, MOMC expansion in endothelial induction medium (EBM-2) was sustained up to day 7, whereas the cell expansion slowed after day 3 in cultures with regular medium (low-glucose DMEM plus 10% FBS), resulting in a statistical difference in the cell number after day 5. To confirm the difference in cell division, the proportion of dividing cells in MOMC cultures over time was evaluated by BrdU incorporation. Representative immunofluorescence images of MOMCs cultured in EBM-2 and DMEM on days 1 and 5 are shown in Figure 3B. More than 25% of the MOMCs undergoing the endothelial induction treatment incorporated BrdU on days 1 and 5, but only a small propor-

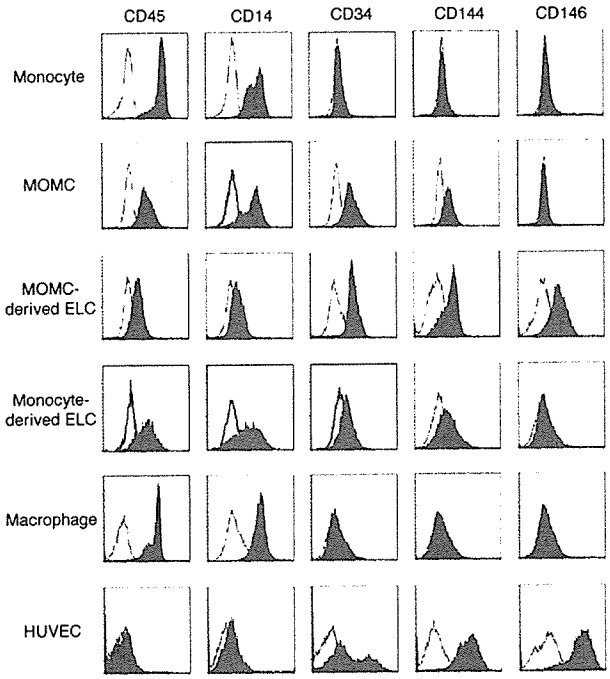

Figure 2. Flow cytometric analysis of freshly isolated circulating monocytes, undifferentiated MOMCs, MOMC-derived ELCs, monocyte-derived ELCs, macrophages, and HUVECs. MOMCs and monocytes after endothelial induction for 7 days were used as MOMC- and monocyte-derived ELCs, respectively. Cells were stained with monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) as indicated and analyzed by flow cytometry. Expression of the molecules of interest is shown as shaded histograms. Open histograms represent staining with isotype-matched control mAb. Results shown are representative of at least three independent experiments. Abbreviations: ELC, endothelial-like cell; HUVEC, human umbilical vein endothelial cell; MOMC, monocyte-derived multipotential cell.

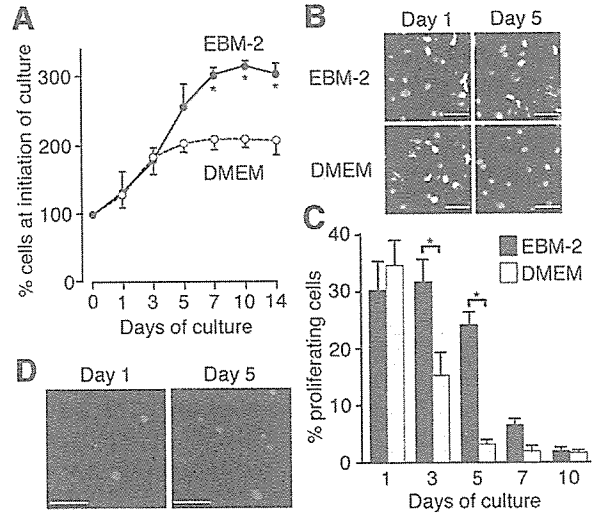

Figure 3. Proliferative capacity of MOMCs during endothelial differentiation. **(A):** The number of adherent cells in cultures of MOMCs with endothelial induction treatment (EBM-2) or without the treatment (low-glucose DMEM plus 10% fetal bovine serum [FBS]) for up to 14 days. The number of attaching cells per 1 mm^3 was counted in 10 randomly selected fields and expressed relative to the number of cells before endothelial induction. Results shown are the mean and SD from five independent donors. Asterisk indicates a statistically significant difference between the two cultures. **(B):** MOMCs were cultured for 1 or 5 days in EBM-2 or low-glucose DMEM plus 10% FBS, and bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU) incorporation during a 2-hour incubation was examined by immunohistochemistry with monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) to human nuclei (green) and BrdU (red). Yellow indicates a proliferating cell positive for both human nuclei and BrdU. Scale bars = 50 μm. **(C):** Proportion of proliferating MOMCs in culture with EBM-2 or low-glucose DMEM plus 10% FBS over time. The number of BrdU-positive nuclei divided by the total number of nuclei was calculated as the proportion of proliferating MOMCs. At least 200 cells were counted for each BrdU staining. Results are expressed as the mean and SD of four independent experiments. Asterisk indicates a statistically significant difference between the two cultures. **(D):** MOMCs were cultured for 1 or 5 days in EBM-2 and subjected to immunohistochemistry with mAbs to endothelial nitric-oxide synthase (green) and BrdU (red). Scale bars = 50 μm. Abbreviations: DMEM, Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium; EBM-2, endothelial cell basal medium-2.

tion of the MOMCs cultured in regular medium were proliferating on day 5. Semiquantitative assessment of the $BrdU^+$ proliferating cells showed that the MOMC proliferation was greater in the endothelial induction culture than in the regular culture on days 3 and 5 (Fig. 3C). The proportion of apoptotic adherent cells positive for propidium iodide staining was <3% at all time points. When MOMCs cultured in EBM-2 were examined for BrdU incorporation and eNOS expression, nearly all cells expressing eNOS failed to incorporate BrdU at day 5 (Fig. 3D), indicating that proliferating cells are predominantly undifferentiated MOMCs.

Functional Characteristics of MOMC-Derived ELCs

We next performed a series of analyses to test whether the MOMC-derived ELCs had the functional properties of endothelial cells. First, we evaluated the capacity in vitro of MOMC-derived ELCs to release vWF in response to stimulation with histamine, which is one of the unique features of endothelial cells [15]. HUVECs and MOMC-derived ELCs were incubated with or without histamine and stained with anti-vWF and anti-nuclear mAbs (Fig. 4A). Almost half of the untreated HUVECs showed vWF throughout the cytoplasm, which disappeared after histamine treatment. Similarly, the histamine treatment resulted in a loss of vWF staining in the MOMC-derived ELCs. Another characteristic of endothelial cells is that they take up AcLDL [16]. MOMC-derived ELCs rapidly incorporated Dil-AcLDL similarly to HUVECs; however, undifferentiated MOMCs and even freshly isolated monocytes were also able to take up Dil-AcLDL (Table 1).

Endothelial cells are known to respond to hypoxia by upregulating several molecules associated with angiogenesis and glucose regulation, such as VEGF, VEGFR1 [13], and GAPDH [17]. HPAECs and MOMC-derived ELCs were exposed to a hypoxic or normoxic condition for 24 hours, and the mRNA expression levels of VEGF, VEGFR1, GAPDH, and β-actin were compared between these two cultures. The results obtained from HPAECs and MOMC-derived ELCs were concordant and showed an increased expression of VEGF, VEGFR1, and GAPDH upon exposure to the hypoxic condition (Fig. 4B).

In Vitro Angiogenic Properties of MOMCs

We next tested whether undifferentiated MOMCs or MOMC-derived ELCs could form tubular structures when plated on Matrigel. We also tested monocyte-derived ELCs, freshly iso-

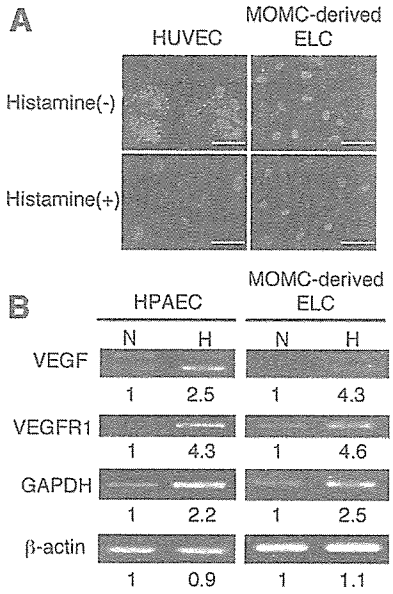

Figure 4. Functional characterization of MOMC-derived ELCs. **(A):** Histamine-mediated release of von Willebrand factor (vWF) from HUVECs and MOMC-derived ELCs. Cells were treated with or without histamine for 25 minutes and subjected to immunohistochemistry with monoclonal antibodies to vWF (red) and human nuclei (green). Representative examples of five experiments from three donors are shown. Scale bars = 50 μm. **(B):** Upregulation of mRNA for VEGF and VEGFR1 in MOMC-derived ELCs by hypoxic exposure. Cultured HPAECs and MOMC-derived ELCs were incubated in 20% O_2 (N) and 1% O_2 (H) for 24 hours, and the VEGF, VEGFR1, GAPDH, and β-actin mRNA expression was detected by reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Expression levels were determined by TaqMan quantitative PCR and divided by the level of each gene under normally oxygenated conditions. Results shown are representative of three independent experiments, and the relative expression was the mean of three experiments. Abbreviations: ELC, endothelial-like cell; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; H, hypoxia; HPAEC, human pulmonary artery endothelial cell; HUVEC, human umbilical vein endothelial cell; MOMC, monocyte-derived multipotential cell; N, normoxia; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor; VEGFR, vascular endothelial growth factor receptor.

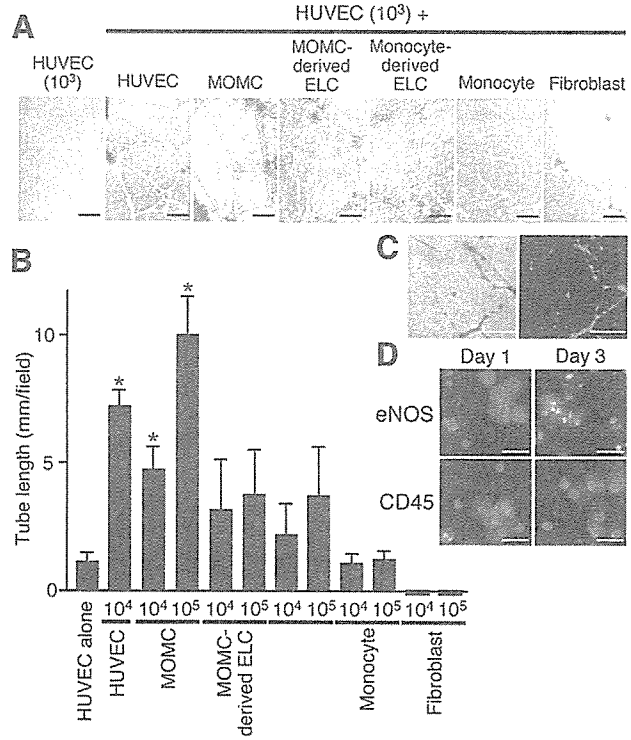

Figure 5. In vitro tubule formation promoted by various monocyte-originated cells in Matrigel culture. **(A):** HUVECs (10^3) were cultured alone or in combination with HUVECs, MOMCs, MOMC-derived ELCs, monocyte-derived ELCs, freshly isolated circulating monocytes, or cultured dermal fibroblasts (10^4) on Matrigel for 24 hours. Representative pictures of five independent experiments are shown. Scale bars = 500 μm. **(B):** Total tube length in the Matrigel cultures of HUVECs (10^3) alone and HUVECs (10^3) plus HUVECs (10^4), MOMCs, MOMC-derived ELCs, monocyte-derived ELCs, freshly isolated circulating monocytes, or cultured dermal fibroblasts (10^4 or 10^5). The combined length of the tubes was calculated from 10 randomly selected low-power fields in individual experiments, and results are expressed as the mean and SD from five independent experiments. Asterisk indicates a significantly different from HUVECs (10^3) alone. **(C):** MOMCs were previously labeled with PKH2 (10^4) and cultured on Matrigel with unlabeled HUVECs (10^3) for 24 hours. Light microscopic (top) and fluorescent (bottom) images of the same sample are shown. Scale bars = 500 μm. Results shown are representative of four independent experiments. **(D):** MOMCs were previously labeled with 1,1′-dioctadecyl-3,3,3′,3′-tetramethylindocarbocyanine-labeled acetylated low-density lipoprotein (10^4) and cultured on Matrigel with unlabeled HUVECs (10^3) for 1 or 3 days. The cells were recovered, cytospun, and examined by immunohistochemistry with monoclonal antibodies to eNOS or CD45 (green). Scale bars = 50 μm. Results shown are representative of three independent experiments. Abbreviations: ELC, endothelial-like cell; eNOS, endothelial nitric oxide synthase; HUVEC, human umbilical vein endothelial cell; MOMC, monocyte-derived multipotential cell.

lated monocytes, and cultured dermal fibroblasts. None of the monocyte-originating cells formed typical tubular structures by themselves. Therefore, a suboptimal number of HUVECs (10^3), which induce the formation of a small number of short tubular structures when cultured alone, were cocultured with the series of monocyte-derived cells and fibroblasts (10^4) (Fig. 5A). Undifferentiated MOMCs dramatically promoted the formation of tubules in the Matrigel culture with HUVECs, but only some tubules were extended in cultures of ELCs derived from MOMCs and monocytes. Freshly isolated monocytes or fibroblasts failed to enhance the formation of tubules. Compared with the culture of HUVECs (10^3) alone, semiquantitative analysis of the tube length revealed a statistically significant enhancement in the culture of undifferentiated MOMCs with HUVECs and in the positive control culture of HUVECs (10^4) (Fig. 5B). To test whether MOMCs were integrated into the tubular structures, the cells were labeled with PKH67 before the Matrigel culture with unlabeled HUVECs. PKH67-labeled MOMCs were clearly incorporated into the tubular structure (Fig. 5C). When DiI-AcLDL-labeled MOMCs were cultured with HUVECs in Matrigel, endothelial differentiation of MOMCs was accelerated based on upregulated eNOS expression and downregulated CD45 expression at day 3 (Fig. 5D).

In Vivo Vasculogenic Properties of MOMCs

To further examine the in vivo vasculogenic properties of various monocyte-derived cells, murine colon carcinoma CT-26 cells were transplanted into the back of SCID mice, alone or with human MOMCs, MOMC-derived ELCs, monocyte-de-

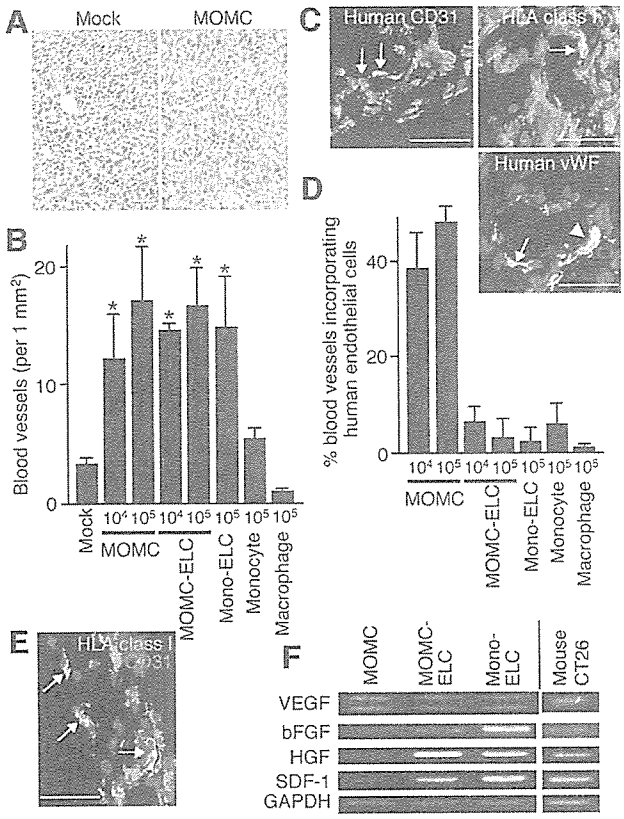

Figure 6. In vivo tumor vasculogenesis promoted by various human monocyte-derived cells in severe combined immunodeficient (SCID) mice. Murine colon carcinoma cells (CT26) were transplanted into the back of SCID mice, alone or with human MOMCs, MOMC-derived ELCs, monocyte-derived ELCs, monocytes, or macrophages, and tumor tissue sections were obtained 10 days later. **(A):** Representative tumor sections stained with hematoxylin and eosin obtained from mice receiving transplants of CT26 alone (mock) or CT26 and human MOMCs. Circles indicate blood vessels carrying erythrocytes. Scale bars = 100 μm. **(B):** Blood vessel density in tumors from mice receiving transplants of CT26 alone (mock), CT26 in combination of MOMCs, MOMC-derived ELCs (10^4 and 10^5), monocyte-derived ELCs, monocytes, and macrophages (10^5). The number of blood vessels per 1 mm^3 was calculated from 10 randomly selected fields per individual experiment, and results are expressed as the mean and SD of five independent experiments. Asterisk indicates a significant difference from mock. **(C):** Representative tumor sections from mice receiving transplants of CT26 and MOMCs, which were stained for mouse CD31 (red) and human CD31, HLA class I, or human vWF (green). Nuclei were counterstained with TO-PRO3. Arrow denotes human MOMCs that are incorporated into vascular structure and differentiated into endothelial cells, whereas arrowhead denotes human MOMCs expressing endothelial markers existing outside of the vascular lumen. Scale bars = 50 μm (human CD31) and 25 μm (HLA class I and human vWF). The results shown are representative of five experiments. **(D):** The proportion of blood vessel sections incorporating human endothelial cells in tumors from mice receiving transplants of CT26 with MOMCs, MOMC-derived ELCs (10^4 and 10^5), monocyte-derived ELCs, monocytes, and macrophages (10^5). At least 100 blood vessel sections were observed, and the proportion of vessels containing human CD31-positive endothelial cells was calculated. Results are expressed as the mean and SD of five independent experiments. **(E):** Representative tumor sections from mice receiving transplants of CT26 and MOMCs, which were stained for human CD31 (red) and HLA class I (green). Nuclei were counterstained with TO-PRO3. Yellow indicates a human cell positive for CD31. Scale bar = 50 μm. **(F):** Reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction analysis for mRNA expression of human or mouse VEGF, bFGF, HGF, SDF-1, and GAPDH in human MOMCs, human MOMC-derived ELCs, human monocyte-derived ELCs, and murine colon carcinoma cell line CT-26. Abbreviations: bFGF, basic fibroblast growth factor; ELC, endothelial-like cell; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; HGF, hepatocyte growth factor; HLA, human leukocyte antigen; MOMC, monocyte-derived multipotential cell; SDF-1, stromal cell-derived factor 1; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor; vWF, von Willebrand factor.

rived ELCs, freshly isolated circulating monocytes, or macrophages. At day 10, tumor sizes in MOMC-transplanted mice tended to be larger than those in mice transplanted with macrophages (48.6 ± 7.4 vs. 39.7 ± 7.2), but this difference did not reach statistical significance. Hematoxylin-eosin-stained tumor sections obtained 10 days after transplantation from the MOMC-transplanted mice showed many blood vessels carrying erythrocytes. In contrast, only a few vessels were seen in the tumor sections from the mock-treated mice receiving CT-26 alone (Fig. 6A). A semiquantitative assessment of the number of tumor blood vessels revealed that the tumors in mice receiving CT-26 transplanted with MOMCs, MOMC-derived ELCs, and monocyte-derived ELCs had significantly more vessels than did tumors from mice receiving CT-26 alone, whereas monocytes or macrophages failed to promote tumor vasculogenesis (Fig. 6B).

All the tumors were then stained with human-specific CD31, HLA class I, or vWF mAb, combined with an anti-mouse CD31 mAb. Tumors obtained from the mice that received transplants of undifferentiated MOMCs had blood vessels that included cells expressing human-specific CD31, HLA class I, or vWF but did not coexpress mouse CD31 (Fig. 6C). These findings indicate that human MOMC-derived endothelial cells contributed to tumor vasculogenesis in vivo by being incorporated and differentiating into the endothelium, although human cells expressing endothelial markers were occasionally detected outside of the vascular lumen (Fig. 6C, arrowhead). To better address the degree of tumor vessel integration, the proportion of vessel sections containing human $CD31^+$ cells was evaluated semiquantitatively (Fig. 6D). In tumors from mice receiving human MOMC transplants, approximately 40% of the tumor vessels incorporated human endothelial cells. In contrast, the proportion of human endothelial cells was less than 10% in the tumors from mice receiving MOMC-derived or monocyte-derived ELCs, even though these cells significantly promoted blood vessel formation. However, efficiency of endothelial differentiation in transplanted MOMCs (proportion of human $CD31^+$ cells in HLA class I-positive cells) was only 9.4% ± 5.1% (n = 8; Fig. 6E).

To evaluate the source of angiogenic factors in our tumor vasculogenesis model, mRNA expression of angiogenic factors was examined in human MOMCs, MOMC-derived ELCs, monocyte-derived ELCs, and CT-26 by RT-PCR (Fig. 6F). All of these cells expressed VEGF, bFGF, hepatocyte growth factor (HGF), and stromal cell-derived factor 1 (SDF-1), and expression of bFGF, HGF, and SDF-1 in MOMCs was upregulated after endothelial induction.

Discussion

In this study, we demonstrated that MOMCs can differentiate into endothelium of a mature phenotype with typical morpho-

logic, phenotypic, and functional characteristics. This proliferation and specific differentiation was induced in MOMCs by a combination of angiogenic growth factors. MOMCs expressed CD34 and several endothelial markers, such as CD144 and VEGFR1, even untreated, but the endothelial induction treatment resulted in their morphological change to a typical caudate appearance with structures resembling Weibel-Palade bodies, the upregulation of mature endothelial markers, and the downregulation of hematopoietic/monocytic markers. In addition, the MOMC-derived ELCs possessed in vitro functional characteristics of endothelial cells, including the release of vWF in response to the vasoactive agent histamine, the incorporation of AcLDL, and the upregulated gene expression of VEGF, VEGFR1, and GAPDH in response to hypoxia. These features were indistinguishable from those of cultured mature endothelial cells. Finally, MOMCs responded to angiogenic stimuli and promoted in vitro tubule formation in Matrigel culture and in vivo neovascularization in the setting of tumorigenesis. The MOMC's contribution of endothelial cells to vessels in the in vivo tumor model was nearly 40%, a level similar to those of other sources of endothelial progenitors [18–20], but only 10% of transplanted MOMCs differentiated into endothelial cells in vivo. It has been shown that circulating monocytes play a crucial role in neovascularization, especially in collateral vessel growth (arteriogenesis) [21, 22], and an infusion of bone marrow-derived $CD34^-CD14^+$ monocytic cells contributes to the regeneration of functional endothelium through rapid endothelialization [23]. These reports and the present study together support the idea that $CD14^+$ monocytes are not solely phagocyte precursors but also precursors for endothelium, although this fate may not be expressed during normal development in the absence of cues.

Undifferentiated MOMCs were integrated into blood vessels and differentiated into endothelium in vitro and in vivo more efficiently than did MOMC-derived ELCs and monocyte-derived ELCs, although these cell types had a similar ability to induce in vivo tumor neovascularization. The lack of integration of monocyte-derived ELCs generated in the EPC culture into a growing network of vascular endothelium is consistent with a previous study [24]. In this regard, the efficiency of neovascularization is not solely attributable to the incorporation of progenitors into newly formed vessels but is also influenced by the release of proangiogenic factors. Indeed, MOMCs, MOMC-derived ELCs, and monocyte-derived ELCs produced multiple angiogenic growth factors, and these growth factors potentially play major roles in mobilizing putative endothelial progenitors from the bone marrow and stimulating the proliferation and differentiation of residential mature endothelial cells [25]. Several cultured mature endothelial cell lines do not integrate into newly formed vessels [26, 27], and this is probably because expression levels of cell adhesion molecules and soluble factors that regulate tubular formation capacity are heterogeneous among endothelial cells [28]. Similarly, ELCs subjected to the endothelial differentiation treatment promote new blood vessel formation mainly through the secretion of proangiogenic factors. This feature is consistent with a recent study showing that bone marrow-derived hematopoietic cells are recruited to an angiogenic region in response to VEGF and contribute to vasculogenesis not being integrated as endothelial cells but existing outside of vascular lumen [29]. In contrast, undifferentiated MOMCs, which share several phenotypic features with endothelial progenitors, may contribute to neovascularization by being incorporated and differentiating into the endothelium in addition to secretion of proangiogenic factors.

During embryogenesis, the commitment of the hemangioblast, a bipotent stem cell for hematopoietic and endothelial cells, to the endothelial lineage is characterized by the sequential expression of CD144, CD31, and CD34 [30, 31]. It is reported that postnatal endothelial progenitor cells can be selected from the bone marrow and peripheral blood based on their expression of CD34, CD133, and VEGFR2 [4, 32], and these progenitors also express CD144, CD31, and Tie-2 [33]. The differentiation of these progenitor cells into mature endothelial cells is accompanied by the upregulated expression of vWF and CD146. The differentiation of circulating monocytes into the endothelial lineage via MOMCs follows the same sequence of events. Specifically, monocytes acquire the expression of CD34, CD144, and Tie-2 during their differentiation into MOMCs and are further induced to express VEGFR2 and subsequently vWF and CD146 by the endothelial induction treatment. This observation suggests that the differentiation process leading to adoption of the endothelial lineage is partly shared by monocytes and hemangioblasts, although we did not detect CD133 expression in monocytes during this differentiation process.

It is unlikely that the endothelial differentiation we observed arose from nonhematopoietic circulating precursors for endothelial cells contaminating the MOMC population. In this regard, peripheral blood contains $CD34^+CD133^+VEGFR2^+$ circulating endothelial progenitors and $CD34^+CD133^-$ mature endothelial cells shed from the vessel wall, but their frequency is extremely low (<0.01% of PBMCs) [4, 33, 34]. Moreover, the depletion of $CD34^+$ cells from PBMCs before the generation of MOMCs did not affect the yield of ELCs. Although we could not entirely exclude the possibility that cell fusion was partly responsible for the phenotypic change of human MOMCs in the in vivo tumor vascularization model, we believe that the involvement of cell fusion in our observations is unlikely, because endothelial cells expressing both mouse and human CD31 were hardly ever detected in the tumor blood vessels.

MOMCs are derived from circulating $CD14^+CD34^-$ monocytes [10], but their detailed origin is unknown. Recently, two populations of circulating cells with the capacity to differentiate into endothelial cells were reported by two investigator groups [27, 35]. MOMCs appear to correspond to early EPCs, which show $CD14^+$ spindle-shape morphology and rapid differentiation into endothelial cells. However, MOMCs have limited proliferative capacity: this characteristic might be acquired through differentiation into MOMCs without angiogenic stimulation. On the other hand, Romagnani et al. have reported that circulating $CD14^+CD34^{low}$ cells, which are not detected by a standard flow cytometry or magnetic bead-based sorting but can be detected by the highly sensitive antibody-conjugated magnetofluorescent liposomes technique, exhibit both phenotypic and functional features of pluripotent stem cells [36], suggesting that $CD14^+CD34^{low}$ cells are the origin of MOMCs.

Emerging evidence suggests that the transplantation of various distinct cell types containing potential endothelial progenitors, obtained either by isolation or ex vivo cultivation from the bone marrow or peripheral blood, augments the neovascularization of ischemic tissue [25, 37]. In initial pilot studies, the introduction of autologous cells derived from the bone marrow

or peripheral blood induced a therapeutic improvement in the blood supply to ischemic tissue [38, 39]. Presently, a variety of cell types, including unfractionated bone marrow cells, bone marrow-derived $CD133^+$ cells, circulating $CD133^+$ cells mobilized by granulocyte colony-stimulating factor, and ELCs generated in the EPC culture, have been proposed as transplantable cells for therapeutic neovasculogenesis, but it remains unclear which cell source is the best for therapeutic cell transplantation to promote organ vascularization in terms of efficacy and safety. Cell therapy using MOMCs has some advantages over the currently proposed strategies using other cell sources, since peripheral blood, without progenitor cell mobilization treatment, is a relatively obtainable and safe source of autologous cells. Theoretically, $>10^8$ MOMCs could be prepared by leukapheresis [10], although the number of MOMCs requiring effective vascular regeneration therapy is unknown. Further studies comparing the clinical potential of various endothelial progenitors to restore long-lasting organ vascularization and function are necessary.

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DISCLOSURES

The authors indicate no potential conflicts of interest.

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