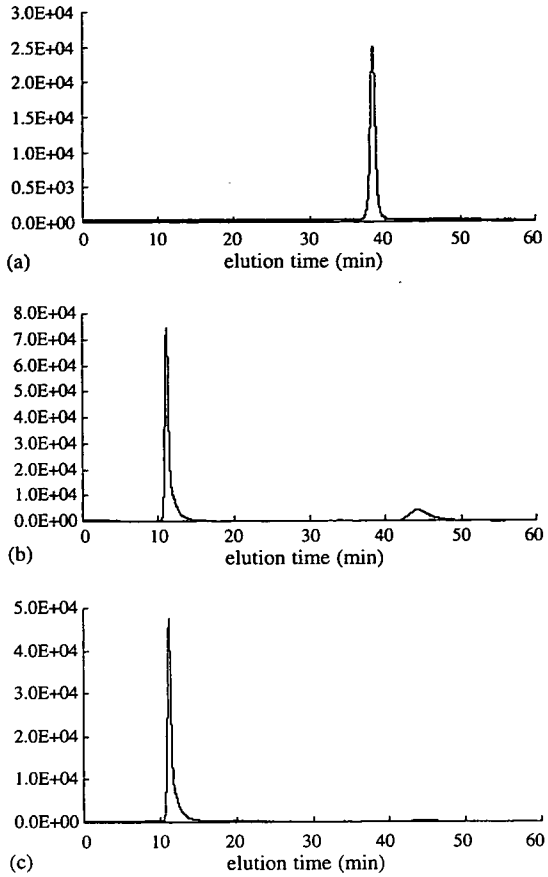

Fig. 3. GPC charts of a starting chemical, Az-8-γAB (a), AWP product after 3-h reaction (b), and after 24-h reaction (c).

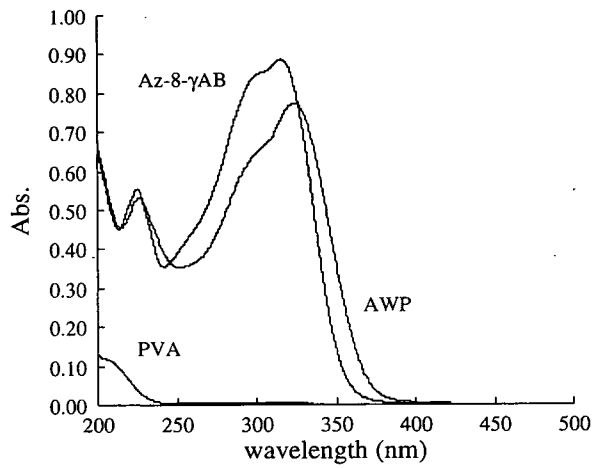

Fig. 4. UV spectra of Az-8-γAB, polyvinylalcohol, and AWP.

3.2. Polymer coating

AWP was spin-coated onto the glass plate. Fig. 5 shows the relationship between spinning velocity and the thickness of coated layer. The thickness decreased with an increase in the rotational velocity. In addition, the thickness depended on the concentration of AWP.

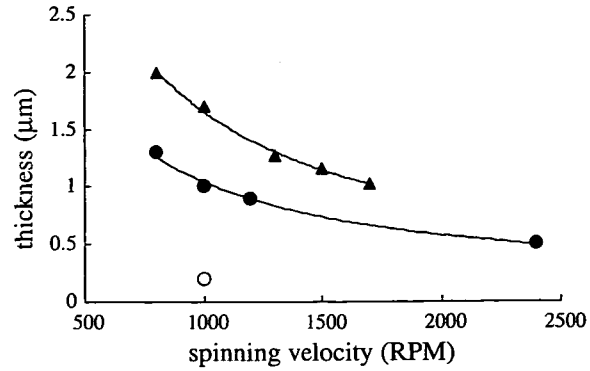

Fig. 5. Relationship between spinning velocity and thickness of formed layer. AWP concentration was 6.5 wt% (▲), 5.5 wt% (●), and 3.0 wt% (○).

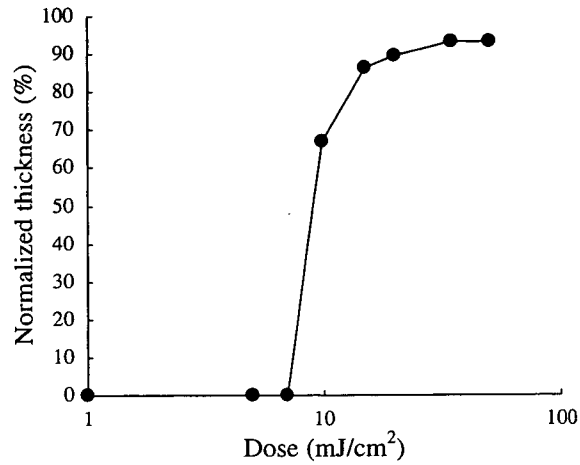

Fig. 6. Relationship between irradiation dose and amount of formed layer. The thickness was 1 μm.

Fig. 6 shows the relationship between the irradiation power and the thickness of the formed layer. The result demonstrated that AWP could be stably immobilized by the photo-irradiation.

3.3. Cell adhesion on the microarrayed surface

Fig. 7 shows the adhesion of HepG2 cells onto some protein-immobilized areas. On the glass surface, the cells adhered independently of immobilized or non-immobilized regions. However, on the AWP-coated glass surface cell adherence was dependent on the micro-arrayed proteins and the surface concentration. The background surface, which corresponded to the non-immobilized regions, did not allow adhesion of the HepG2 cell. Even after 3 d of culture, there was very little non-specific cellular adhesion. The difference between background and immobilized regions was enhanced with increased incubation time. The micro-array on the AWP-coated glass plate showed that HepG2 cells did not adhere to the BSA-spotted surface,

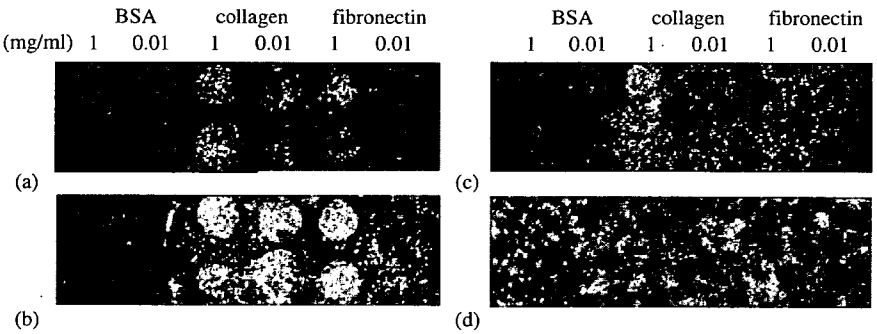

Fig. 7. Micrograph of HepG2 on bovine serum albumin (BSA), collagen, and fibronectin-spotted AWP-coated glass plate (a and b) or glass plate (c and d). The cells were incubated for 2 h (a and c) or 3 d (b and d) before washing.

Table 1
Cell adhesion on surfaces

	BSA	Collagen	Fibronectin
HepG2	—	+	+
COS-7	—	+	+ +
STO	—	+	+ +
Raw264	+	—	+

Dot array results are expressed as level of cell binding to each protein dot: (−) low, (+) moderate, and (+ +) high.

regardless of protein concentration. However, the HepG2 cells did adhere to the collagen-spotted surface, and the adherence was independent of the collagen surface concentration. HepG2 cells also adhered to the fibronectin-spotted surface, in a surface concentration dependent manner.

Table 1 shows the adhesion of COS-7, STO, and Raw264 cells on the microarrayed surface. COS-7 and STO cells adhered to the collagen- or fibronectin-immobilized regions in an immobilized amount dependent manner, but not to albumin-immobilized regions. On the other hand, Raw264 cells adhered to the albumin-immobilized regions more than the other cells and to the fibronectin-immobilized regions less than the other cells. Previously, we reported that Raw264 cells tended to adhere to various surfaces independent of the immobilized proteins because of their macrophage-like properties. Raw264 cells adhered to both albumin- and fibronectin-immobilized surfaces [27]. However, the present study demonstrated that the cells did not adhere to the collagen-immobilized surface. Protein dependence was also observed in the cells by increasing the number of arrayed proteins.

The present study demonstrated that a microarray can be conveniently and stably made by using a photo-reactive polymer and that cellular adhesion can be assayed using different concentrations of the micro-arrayed proteins. The non-adhesive polymer enhanced the difference between the background and protein-immobilized regions. Considering the potential of photo-immobilization, the photo-reactive polymer matrix will provide a universal method to prepare micro-arrays of various substances. In addition, the new non-cell adhesive non-ionic polymer, AWP, will be useful not only for microarray chips, but also in procedures requiring reduced interaction with biocomponents.

4. Conclusions

In the present study a new photo-reactive polymer, polyvinylalcohol modified with phenylazido groups, was synthesized and used as a microarray matrix. The polymer was spin-coated onto glass plates and aqueous solutions of proteins were micro-spotted and fixed by photo-irradiation. Non-specific adhesion of cells onto non-protein-spotted regions was reduced by using this polymer as a coating material, and the adhesion dependence of cells on the type of immobilized protein was clearly characterized. This type of microarray will be useful for cell-based diagnostics and for the selection of biomaterials that can regulate cell behavior.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported in part by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports, and Culture of Japan (14380406) and by the Uehara Memorial Life Science Foundation.

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Photo-immobilization of a phospholipid polymer for surface modification

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Received 27 December 2003; accepted 30 April 2004

Available online 19 June 2004

Abstract

A photo-reactive polymer having a phospholipid polar group was prepared, and the polymer was photo-immobilized on polymeric surfaces, where its interactions with biocomponents were investigated. By using a photo-immobilization method, the polymer was used for surface modification of polyethylene and polypropylene, polymers whose surfaces were not treated in our previous development of the phosphorylcholine-derived polymer. The photo-reactive polymer was synthesized by a coupling reaction involving copolymer consisting of 2-methacryloyloxyethyl phosphorylcholine and methacrylic acid with 4-azidoaniline. When the polymer was unpattern immobilized on the surface, X-ray photo-electron spectroscopic analysis and static contact angle measurements were performed. It was shown that the surface was covered with phospholipid polar groups. Micropattern immobilization was carried out using a micropatterned photo-mask. Measurements using atomic force microscopy showed that the swelled micropatterned polymer was five times as thick as the dried one. Protein adsorption and platelet adhesion were reduced on the polymer-immobilized regions. Mammalian cells did not adhere, and formed aggregates on the immobilized regions. In conclusion, the photo-reactive phospholipid polymer was covalently immobilized on the conventional polymer surfaces and it tended to reduce interactions with proteins and cells.

Keywords: Photo-immobilization; Phospholipid polymer; Surface modification; Protein adsorption; Cell adhesion

1. Introduction

Lipid membranes are used as biomimetic systems, and are expected to become a key component of novel biomolecular materials [1–14]. In particular, lipid bilayer membranes on solid supports have been the subject of numerous publications [1–11]. The membranes prepared on various solids by optimized variations of the available deposition chemistries have been shown to accommodate a variety of proteins and enzymes in controlled orientations and in active conformations. The supported lipid bilayer is considered to mimic the native environment of membrane-associated biomolecules. These membranes are also promising surfaces for developing new biosensors and coating materials that resist non-specific interactions with proteins and cells.

The lipid head group of phosphorylcholine, a zwitterion, is a common group in the lipid molecules that form biological membranes, and is considered to play an important role as a surface material for biomedical devices by reducing interaction with proteins and cells. As a biomimetic polymer, 2-methacryloyloxyethyl phosphorylcholine (MPC)-containing polymer was synthesized by the group of Ishihara and Nakabayashi [15,16]. The polymer shows non-thrombogenicity, that is, suppression of non-specific protein adsorption, platelet adhesion, activation, and aggregation when the polymer contacted whole blood, even in the absence of anticoagulants.

Recently, some types of MPC-containing copolymers have been synthesized for coating [17] and covalent immobilization was achieved [18–20]. However, the

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0142-9612/$ - see front matter © 2004 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.
doi:10.1016/j.biomaterials.2004.04.047

covalent immobilization was limited to specialized surfaces. Therefore, in the present investigation, photo-immobilization was employed for covalent immobilization of the polymer on a broader variety of surfaces.

In addition, although many synthetic polymers have been devised to improve surface reducing interaction with proteins or cells, it is difficult to directly compare the surface properties of different polymers under precisely the same conditions. Therefore, a micropatterning method has been devised for lipids and polymers [21–23], and the method has proved useful for comparing the interaction of polymers with proteins and cells [24–26]. We modified the method of Matsuda and Sugawara [27], and have applied this method to some growth factors [28–30], sulfated hyaluronic acid [31], heparin [32], and thermo-responsive polymer [33]. In the present study, micropatterning of MPC polymer was performed, and the interactions with proteins and cells were investigated.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Synthesis of photo-reactive MPC polymer

The polymer synthesis is illustrated in Fig. 1. MPC copolymer consisting of MPC (90 mol%) and methacrylic acid (10 mol%) was obtained from NOF Co. Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan), and is referred to as PMAc. The molecular weight of PMAc, as measured by gel permeation chromatography, was 2.2×10^5. Modification of PMAc was performed as follows: 4-azidoaniline (12.44 mg) and water-soluble carbodiimide (17.47 mg) were dissolved in 2 ml of PMAc solution (5 wt%) and 98 ml of water was added to the solution. The solution was left to stand for 24 h. After the reaction, the product was dialyzed with dialysis cassette (PIERCE, Rockford, IL) until no further release of azidoaniline through the cassette was confirmed by ultraviolet (UV) absorption. The resultant solution was freeze-dried. The azidophenyl-derivatized PMAc is referred to as Az-PMAc. Elemental analysis indicated that the amount of azidophenyl group in Az-PMAc was 6%.

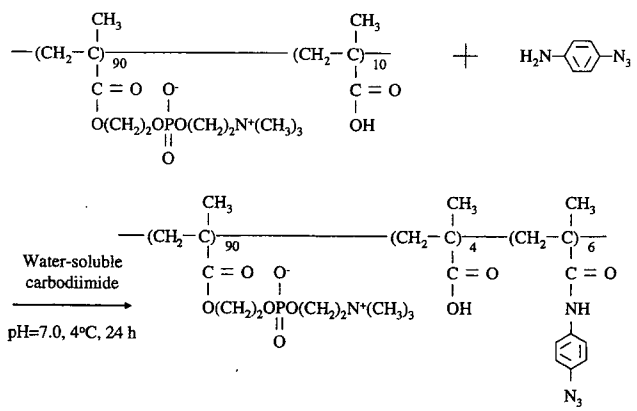

Fig. 1. Synthetic scheme for photo-reactive phosphorylcholine-containing polymer.

2.2. Micropatterning

The micropatterning method is illustrated in Fig. 2. An aqueous solution of Az-PMAc (1 wt%) was cast on polyethylene and polypropylene plates (diameter 22 mm), which were purchased from Sarstedt (Newton, NC) and from Nikkyo Technos Co. Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan), respectively, and air-dried at room temperature. Subsequently, the plate was covered with a photo-mask, which was manufactured by Toppan Printing Co. Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan) and was UV-irradiated with a UV lamp (UV Spot Light Source L5662, Hamamatsu Photonics, Hamamatsu, Japan) from a distance of 5 cm for 10 s (16 mW/cm^2). When an unpatterned surface was prepared, the photo-mask was not employed. The plate was then repeatedly washed with distilled water.

2.3. Measurement of contact angle

The unpatterned sample was placed on the holder of a CA-W Automatic Contact Angle Meter (Kyowa Interface Science Co. Ltd., Saitama, Japan) and a drop of water (0.4 μl) was put on the sample surface. The contact angle of the drop on the surface was measured at room temperature. At least 10 contact angles on different areas were measured and averaged.

2.4. Measurement by X-ray photo-electron spectroscopy (XPS)

The unpatterned sample was inserted in the holder of an XPS, AXIS-HSi (Shimadzu/Kratos, Kyoto, Japan). After evacuation, the measurement was carried out under 3×10^{-9} Torr. The X-ray source was CuK_α, the applied voltage was 12 kV, and the electric current was

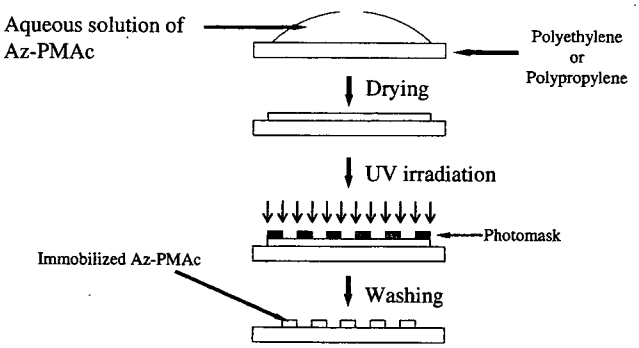

Fig. 2. Schematic illustration of micropatterning procedure.

10 mA. The take-off angle of the photo-electrons was 90°.

2.5. Measurement by atomic force microscopy (AFM)

The measurement was performed using an SPI-3800 (Seiko Instruments Inc., Chiba, Japan). The micropatterned sample was dried in vacuo for 1 day at room temperature and was set in a cell holder into which water could be injected. After observation of the dry sample, distilled water was injected into the sample cell and the same position was observed. The measurement was performed using the tapping mode with a nominal force constant of 0.09 N/m.

2.6. Interaction with proteins

Fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-labeled bovine serum albumin and FITC-labeled immunoglobulin were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). FITC-labeled fibrinogen was prepared as follows: a phosphate-buffered solution (PBS; 25 ml) containing human fibrinogen (500 μg) was added dropwise to a PBS (25 ml, pH 8.0) containing FITC (12.5 μg) and the pH of the mixture was adjusted to 9.0. The mixture was stirred at room temperature for 2 h. The resulting solution was dialyzed against double-distilled water using a Millipore dialysis tube (cut-off less than 10 000) at 4°C until the release of FITC became undetectable by fluorescence spectroscopy. Finally, the purified protein was lyophilized. All procedures were carried out in darkness.

The protein adsorption experiment was performed as follows: the sample plates were incubated in PBS containing the FITC-labeled albumin (10 mg/ml), FITC-labeled immunoglobulin (2 mg/ml), or the FITC-labeled fibrinogen (10 mg/ml) at 37°C for 10 min. After being washed with PBS, the sample was observed by fluorescence microscopy.

2.7. Interaction with platelets

Human whole blood was collected from healthy volunteers in a disposable syringe containing 3 ml of aqueous solution of 3.8 wt% sodium citrate. The citrated whole blood was immediately centrifuged for 15 min at 1200 rpm to obtain citrated platelet-rich plasma (PRP). The micropatterned sample plates were placed in contact with PRP and left for 60 min at 37°C. The PRP was removed with an aspirator, and the membrane was rinsed three times with PBS. Subsequently, 2.5 vol% glutaraldehyde in PBS was poured into each well containing the sample plates, and the samples were stored at room temperature for 2 h in order to fix the blood components on the sample plate. After it had been rinsed sufficiently with distilled water, the samples were freeze-dried. The surface of the sample plate was observed with a scanning electron microscope (SEM) after gold-sputtering treatment.

2.8. Cell culture

RAW264 (originating from leukemic mouse monocytes) cells were purchased from Riken Cell Bank (Tsukuba, Japan) and were cultured in minimum essential medium (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1% non-essential amino acids (Invitrogen Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA). The recovered cells were washed with the culture medium and suspended in each medium containing no serum (3×10^5 cells per 60 mm-diameter culture dish). The cell suspension was added to the sample plate, which was sterilized with 70% ethanol. The cells were incubated at 37°C under 5% v/v of CO_2 and were observed by a phase-contrast microscope equipped with a video camera.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Synthesis of photo-reactive MPC polymer

The UV and fluorescence spectra of Az-PMAc are shown in Fig. 3. In the UV spectrum of the photo-reactive polymer, an absorption at 269 nm, which is assignable to the azidophenyl group, was observed.

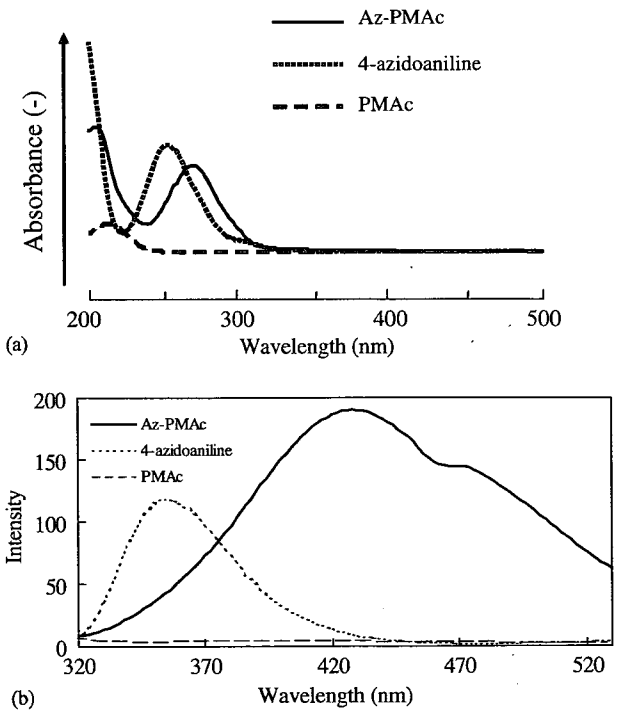

Fig. 3. UV (a) and fluorescence (b) spectra of azidoaniline, PMAc, and Az-PMAc.

Fig. 3a indicates that the absorption was slightly red shifted from the corresponding absorption of 4-azidoaniline, and Fig. 3b shows that the fluorescence was red shifted. These shifts may be due to electron delocalization of the azidophenyl group caused by amide bond formation. In previous studies, the peaks of photo-reactive hyaluronic acid and photo-reactive heparin were also red shifted from 4-azidoaniline [35,37].

3.2. Photo-immobilization

The Az-PMAc was coated on the plates and the coated surface was UV-irradiated with a photo-mask (Fig. 4). The surface pattern was the same as that of the photo-mask. The micropatterned surface was observed by phase-contrast microscopy (Fig. 4b) and by fluorescence microscopy (Fig. 4c). It is known that azido groups are decomposed by UV irradiation, and nitrene groups, which are highly reactive radical groups, are produced. The cast Az-PMAc formed molecular networks as a result of the produced radical groups. In addition, a micropatterned surface was formed both on polyethylene (Fig. 4c) and polypropylene (Fig. 4d) plates. The present result demonstrates that photo-immobilization is useful for covalent immobilization of MPC on various materials.

Previously, Prucker et al. [34] reported photo-chemical attachment of polymer films to solid surfaces via benzophenone derivatives. In their case, the amount of immobilized polymer on the surface reached saturation after about 10–20 min, when the light intensity was 100 mW/cm^2. In the present study, 10 s were enough for preparation of micropatterned immobilization, although the intensity was 16 mW/cm^2. Although the strength of binding of immobilized polymer to the surface has not been investigated, it was demonstrated that 10 s was enough for washing out of non-bound polymers.

The unpatterned PMAc surface on the polyethylene plate was made by UV-irradiation without a photo-mask. XPS measurement of the unpatterned surface demonstrated that the surface was covered with phospholipid polar groups (Fig. 5). In addition to the XPS spectrum of the previously reported MPC polymer coating surface [35,36], a new peak that was ascribed to the amide bond formed by reaction between PMAc and azidoaniline was found at 398 eV.

The water contact angle was measured on the unpatterned surface (Fig. 6). The contact angle on the

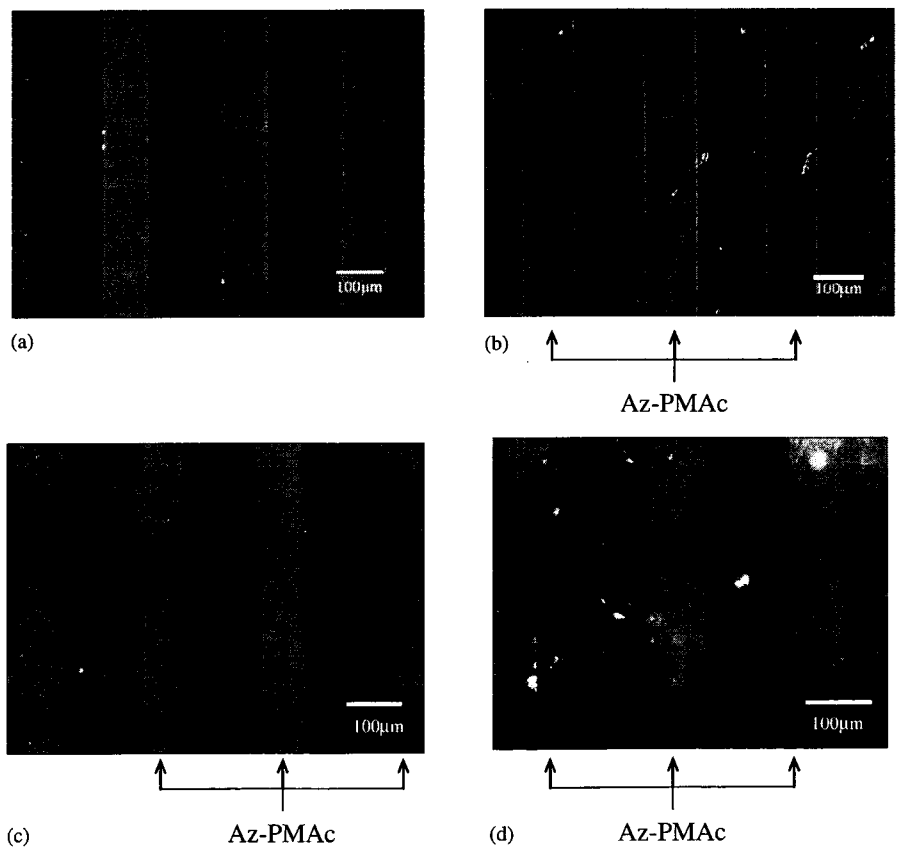

Fig. 4. Phase-contrast micrographs of photo-mask (a); and micropatterned surface of the polyethylene plate (b); fluorescence micrographs of micropatterned surface of the polyethylene plate (c); and of the polypropylene plate (d).

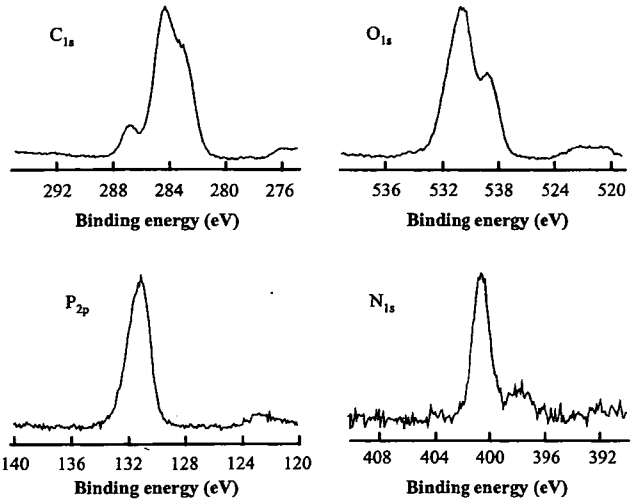

Fig. 5. XPS spectra of the Az-PMAc immobilized polyethylene surface.

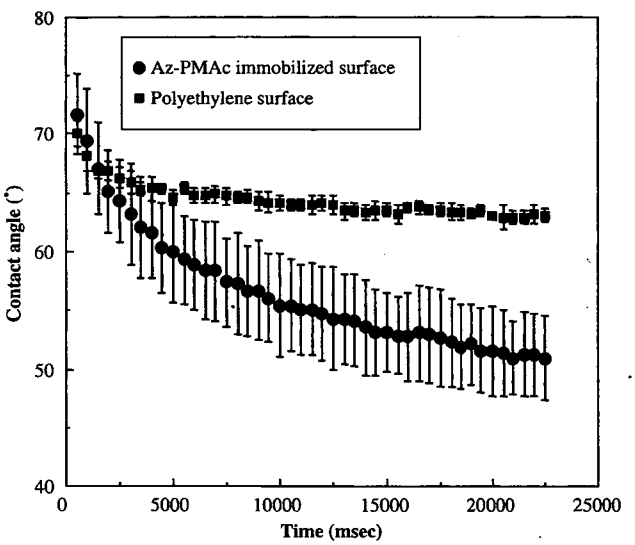

Fig. 6. Time course of static contact angle of water on the Az-PMAc-immobilized and non-immobilized polyethylene surface.

PMAc-immobilized surface rapidly decreased with time, although that on the polyethylene surface did not. It was demonstrated that a hydrophilic surface was formed by immobilization of the PMAc.

The surface was observed by AFM, as shown in Fig. 7. In the dried state, the thickness was about 800 nm. However, the PMAc layer rapidly swelled in water to a thickness of about 4000 nm. The hydrogel state of PMAc was formed after soaking for 10 min in water. Fig. 8 shows the force curves of the micropatterned surface. On the surface of bare polyethylene (2, 4, 6, 8, 10), the force abruptly increased with decreasing distance between the cantilever and the surface. On the other hand, on the Az-PMAc-immobilized region (1, 3,

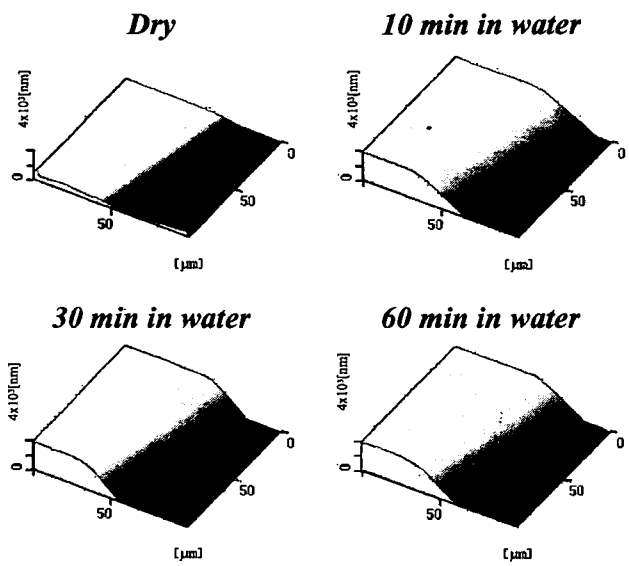

Fig. 7. AFM images of the Az-PMAc-micropatterned surface. The dried sample was measured and then incubated in water for different periods.

5, 7, 9) the force did not increase so abruptly with the decrease of distance. These results demonstrated that the Az-PMAc surface was so soft that force was not significantly produced on the surface.

3.3. Interaction with biological components

The sample plate was immersed in the protein solutions, and the protein-adsorbed sample was observed by fluorescence microscopy (Fig. 9). Albumin, immunoglobulin, and fibrinogen predominantly adsorbed onto the non-immobilized surface. The fluorescence intensity of adsorbed proteins is significantly higher than that of Az-PMAc alone. Previously, we reported that an MPC-adsorbed surface inhibited adsorption of proteins [37,38]. The present study confirmed the previous reports.

Human blood platelet adhesion onto the micropatterned surface was observed by SEM. The number of platelets on the PMAc-immobilized regions $(0.34 \pm 0.02) \times 10^3$ cell/μm^2 was significantly less than that on the non-immobilized regions $(1.13 \pm 0.12) \times 10^3$ cell/μm^2. The non-adhesiveness of MPC polymer has been reported previously [38]. The present study critically demonstrated this property.

The time course of behavior of RAW264 on the micropatterned surface is shown in Fig. 10. When the cells were added to the surface, they randomly distributed independent of the immobilized material. However, after 5 min, they began to aggregate on the Az-PMAc-immobilized surface; the cellular aggregates increased in size with time and eventually floated. On the

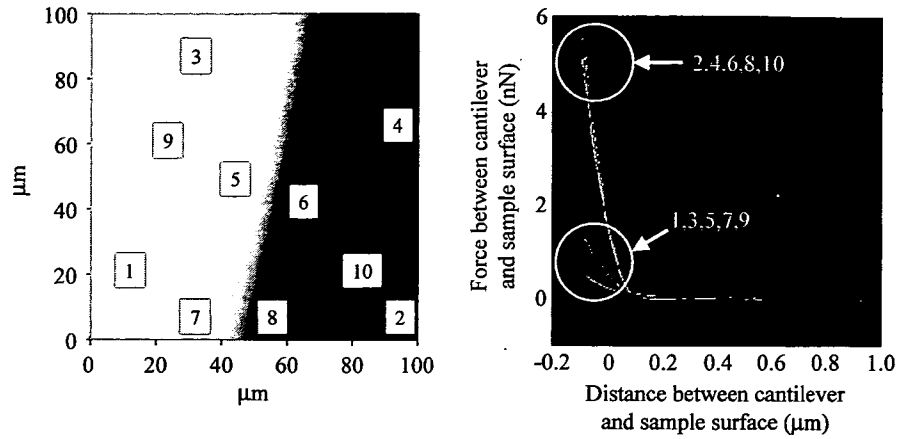

Fig. 8. Contact points of the cantilever with surfaces and the force curve between the cantilever and surfaces. The numbers represent the contact points of the cantilever. Points 1, 3, 5, 7, and 9 were on the Az-PMAc-immobilized surface and points 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 on the bare polyethylene surface.

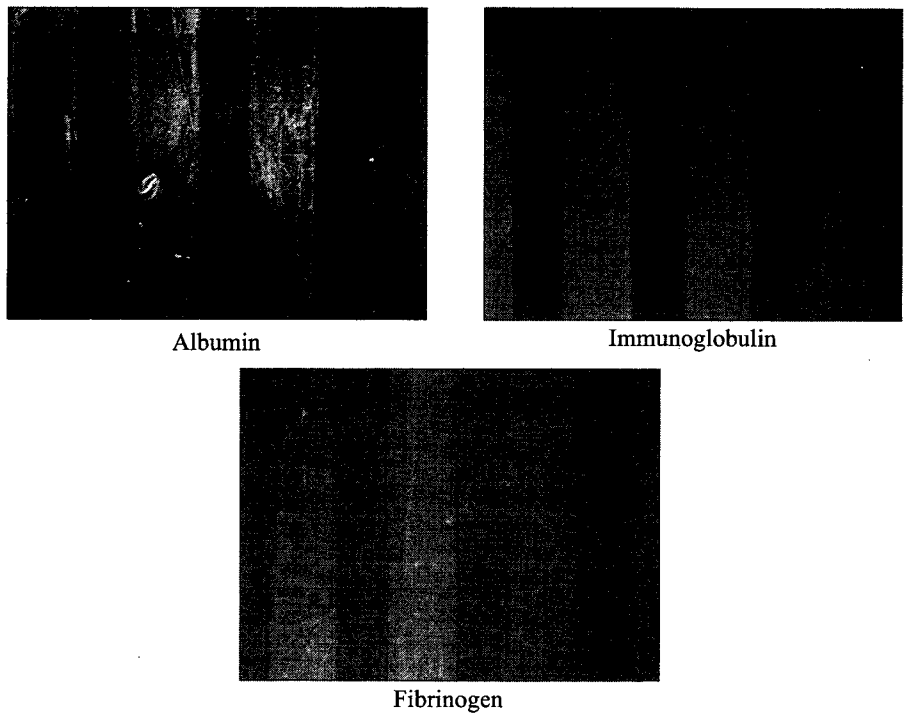

Fig. 9. Fluorescence micrographs of proteins (albumin, immunoglobulin, and fibrinogen) adsorbed onto the Az-PMAc-micropatterned polyethylene surface. The wavelengths of excitation and emission were 470 ± 20 and 525 ± 25 nm, respectively.

non-immobilized region the cells adhered and spread on the surface. The floated aggregates on the Az-PMAc-immobilized region were completely removed by mild shaking. It is known that RAW264 shows macrophage-like properties and tends to adhere to various materials [39]. It was demonstrated that PMAc inhibited the adhesion of even very adhesive cells.

The present study demonstrated photo-immobilization of a phospholipid polymer and visualized the interactions with biocomponents such as proteins, platelets, and cells. The photo-immobilization technique is useful for surface modification and the phospholipid polymer significantly reduced the interactions with proteins and cells.

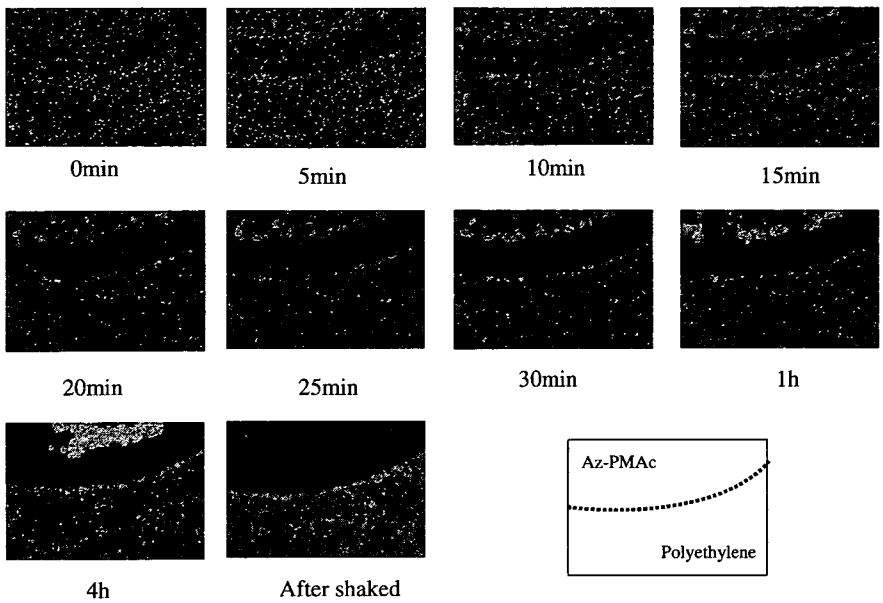

Fig. 10. Time course of behavior of RAW264 cells on Az-PMAc-immobilized and non-immobilized region (polyethylene surface), as observed by phase-contrast microscopy with a video camera.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported in part by a grant from the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (14380406). The authors thank Mr. Akihiko Watanabe for his support with the AFM measurement.

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Topics / Review

なんでも固定化バイオチップ
これまでのプロオテオーム研究は本当だったの?!

タンパク質をはじめとする生体高分子をランダムな配向で
固定化できる光架橋技術。これにより，さまざまな
生体高分子の高感度な相互作用解析が可能になった。
世界初の臨床診断マイクロチップ・システムとして期待される。

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マイクロアレイ技術とは?

最近のライフサイエンスの研究には，材料の微細加工技術やナノテクノロジーが応用されつつあり，それによって新しい展開もみせはじめている。とくにDNAマイクロアレイ（DNAチップ）の技術は，バイオテクノロジーと微細加工技術が融合することで大きく進展した分野である。図1のように，その集積度は急速に増加し技術的な進展をみせる一方，さまざまな疾病の診断など臨床分野での利用が本格的に検討されはじめている。

遺伝子解析などのゲノミクスに用いられるDNAマイクロアレイ以外にも，プロテオミクス，グライコミクス，セロミクス，メタボロミクスと，バイオチップは解析の対象範囲を広げつつあり，マイクロアレイによって得られた情報を処理するバイオインフォマティクスの発展とともに，その重要度を増してきている。

DNAマイクロアレイ以外ですでに市販・利用されているバイオチップとしては，研究支援用の抗体マイクロアレイやタンパク質マイクロアレイなどがあるが，多様なタンパク質，糖，糖タンパク質，低分子化合物などを基板上に固定化したタイプのバイオチップについては，まだ開発途上にある[(1)]。

実は，タンパク質などの生体高分子をチップ上に固定化するには，DNAに比べてより困難がともなう。DNAは多様な遺伝情報を担っているものの，化学構造としてはほとんど類似した4つの塩基により構成されており，DNA鎖はほぼ均質な高分子と考えてよい。また，末端修飾も容易で，多種類のDNAを同一の方法で固定化することが原理的に可能である。

これに対してタンパク質は，構成するアミノ酸が化学的に多様であり，官能基の種類，数，存在場所も異なるため，それぞれが化学的に異なった性質をもつ。このため，同一の方法で一つの基板上に固定化するのは非常に困難である。

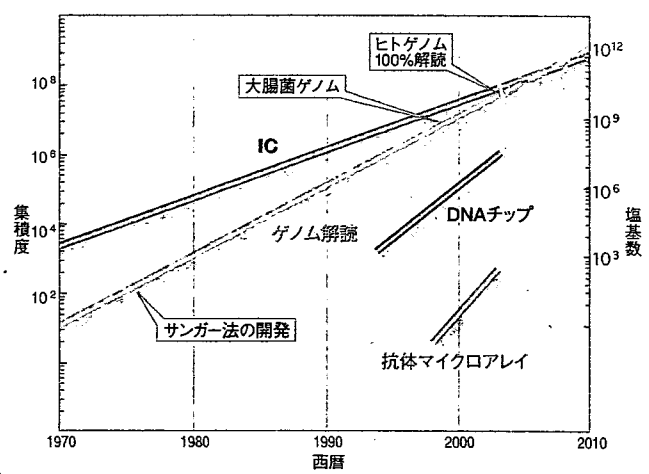


図1
コンピュータICとマイクロアレイチップの集積度の比較と遺伝子解析の向上

光固定化法

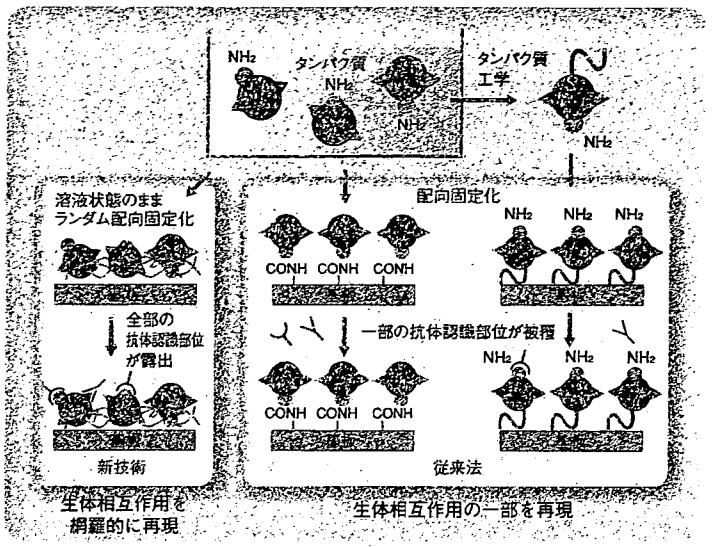
そこで筆者らは，この問題点を解決するために，タンパク質の光固定化法を考案した[(2)]。この方法は，三

つの特徴をもつ。

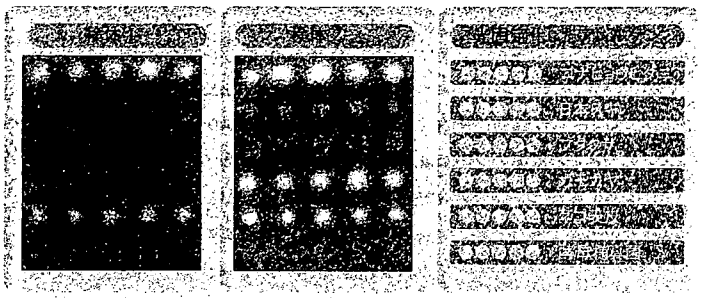
(1) ラジカル反応で架橋させるため，有機分子であれば"なんでも"固定化できる。

(2) 基板上への固定化に用いるマトリックスの成分を，生体膜成分やそれに近い性質の高分子にしたことで，非特異的な相互作用を弱めている。これにより高S/N比（signal to noise ration）の相互作用解析が可能になった。

(3) ランダムな配向性で固定化できる(図2)。これによって，従来の固定化法と比べ，生体分子のさまざまな部位をチップ上に提示することができるので，相互作用を網羅的に調べることができる。



光固定化法を用いたチップによる相互作用解析
光固定化法では，従来の化学固定化法や，組み換えタンパク質を用いた方法と異なり，生体分子のランダム配向固定化が可能。



アレルゲン・マイクロアレイによるアレルギー関連抗体IgEの化学発光法による検出

この技術が広く応用されるようになると，従来の固定化技術を用いた生体分子相互作用解析は，はたして真の解析になっていたのか問題となるだろう。

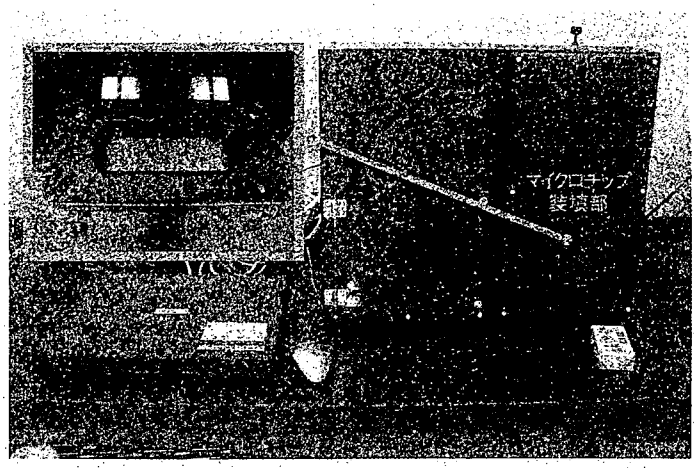
光固定化マイクロアレイの展開

光固定化法は，さまざまな有機分子の固定化に有効である。図3に，アレルギー診断用にアレルゲンを固定化した例を示す。血液中のポリクローナルな免疫グロブリンIgEは，同じタンパク質のさまざまな部位を認識するが，ランダム配向で固定化できる光固定化法は，そういったポリクローナルな抗体を検出するのに非常に有効な方法と考えられる。

現在，図4に示すような全自動測定装置が完成している。この装置では，チップおよび，測定したい溶液（血液）の入った試験管を装着するだけで，自動的に測定データを得ることができる。

光固定化法を表面プラズモン共鳴（SPR）用や水晶振動マイクロバランス（QCM）用チップに応用する試みを現在おこなっている。このような技術をもとに，1年以内に理研ベンチャーとしての起業を予定している。

さまざまな分子や細胞に応用可能な光固定化法は，今後，マイクロアレイチップのスタンダードとして大きく発展するものと期待している。



光固定化を利用したバイオチップの全自動測定装置

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幹細胞の体外増幅

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In vitro expansion of stem cells

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The safe and rapid expansion of human stem cells is very important for realization of regenerative medicine. So far, various types of cell culture have been developed, and this technology has led to dramatic progress in life science through the use of sera or feeder cells derived from animals. However, to avoid contamination with pathogens, animal-derived materials should not be used in the culture medium when human stem cells are cultured for medical therapy. Therefore, development of completely artificial cell culture systems that do not require animal-derived materials is needed. First to increase the number of hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) in cord blood, we cultured HSCs with native or immobilized human stromal cells that had been immortalized by gene transfection. In addition, biosignal molecules, including cytokines and membrane proteins, were immobilized for the HSC culture. Secondly it was found that human placenta feeder layers can support undifferentiated growth of primate embryonic stem cells.

1．はじめに

病気で機能障害や機能不全に陥った生体組織・臓器の治療のために近代的な人工臓器や臓器移植が発展してきた。しかし，人工臓器にはまだ不備が多く，臓器移植ではドナーの不足が深刻である。そのような中，80年代後半から，ハイブリッド人工臓器（培養皮膚）の考えを発展させた「ティッシュエンジニアリング」という考えが生まれた。これは，生分解性マトリックスを足場にして体内で組織再生を行わせようとするものであった。そして，90年代後半になると，クローン技術の発明と，ヒトES細胞の樹立という二つの大きな進展により「再生医療」という，幹細胞を積極的に

【キーワード】
造血幹細胞，ES細胞，ニッチェ，体外増幅，バイオリアクター

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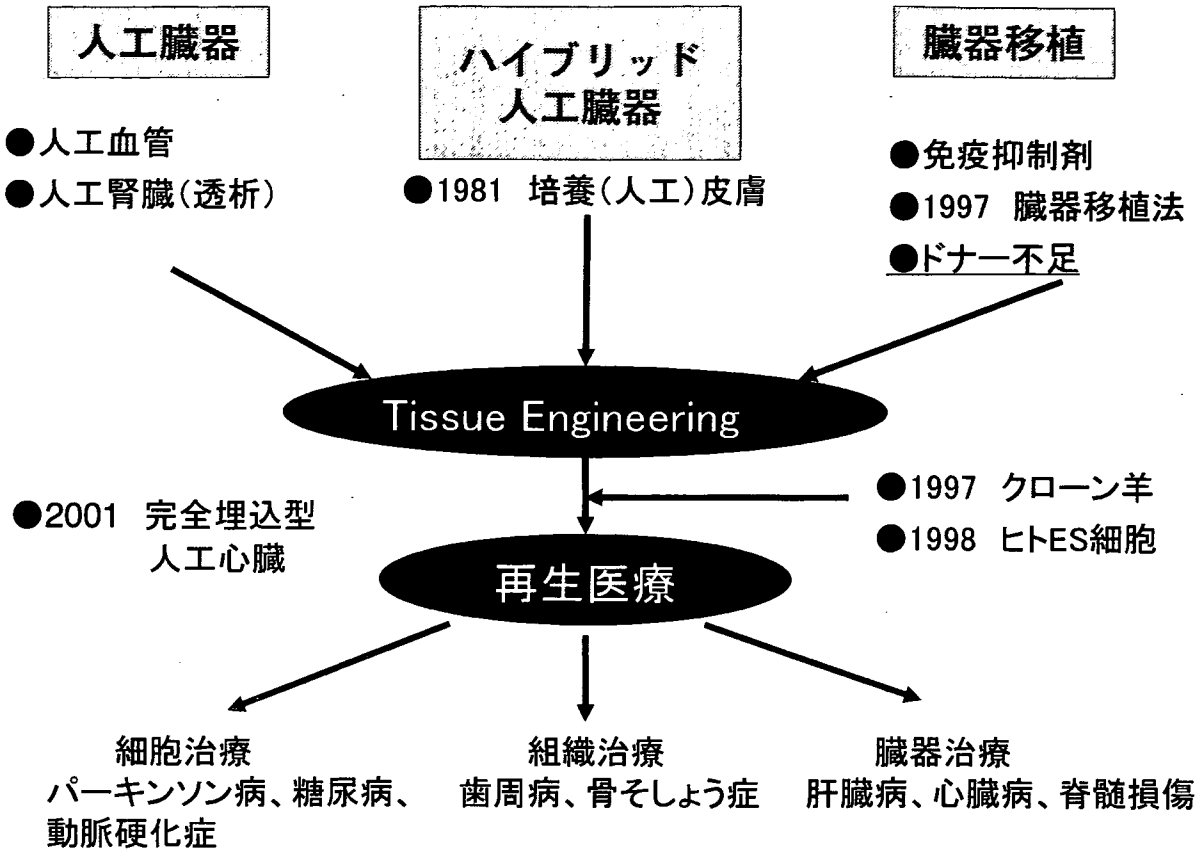

図1　再生医療研究への流れ

利用して，生体機能の再生をはかる医療が考えられるようになった（図1）。

2．再生医療のための幹細胞

このような再生医療の可能性が大きく進展してきた背景には，ヒト体内にも多くの幹細胞が存在することが明らかになってきたことによる。幹細胞とは，様々な細胞へ分化できる能力をもったまま未分化状態で自己複製できる細胞で，胚性幹（ES）細胞と体性幹細胞に分類される。前者は，ヒトES細胞が世界各国で樹立されてきてはいるものの，まだ倫理的な問題や多くの技術的な問題があり，その医療への応用実現には多くの年月が必要と思われるが，後者については着実に定着し始めている。

体性幹細胞の医療への応用には，自家移植と同種（他家）移植がある。自家移植では，従来形成外科や整形外科の医療機関内で皮膚や骨の異所への移植は古くから行われており，皮膚，軟骨，角膜などは，体外増幅が産業化されたり，あるいは，されようとしてきている。

さらに，自家細胞を，本来とは異なる臓器に移植することも盛んに研究されるようになってきている。特に，骨髄中の間葉系幹細胞が様々な細胞に分化しうることが示されてから，様々な臓器の再生に用いられるようになってきた。2003年には，閉塞性動脈硬化症やバージャー病など虚血下肢治療のために患者自身の骨髄細胞を用いる方法が初めて一部保険が適用できる「高度先進医療」として認可を受けた。現在，骨髄細胞を歯周病治療，心疾患，脳疾患（脳梗塞），脊髄損傷などへ治療応用する研究は盛んに行われている。

しかし，骨髄細胞は採取に患者自身の負担が高いために他の細胞ソースを用いることも研究され

幹細胞の対外増幅

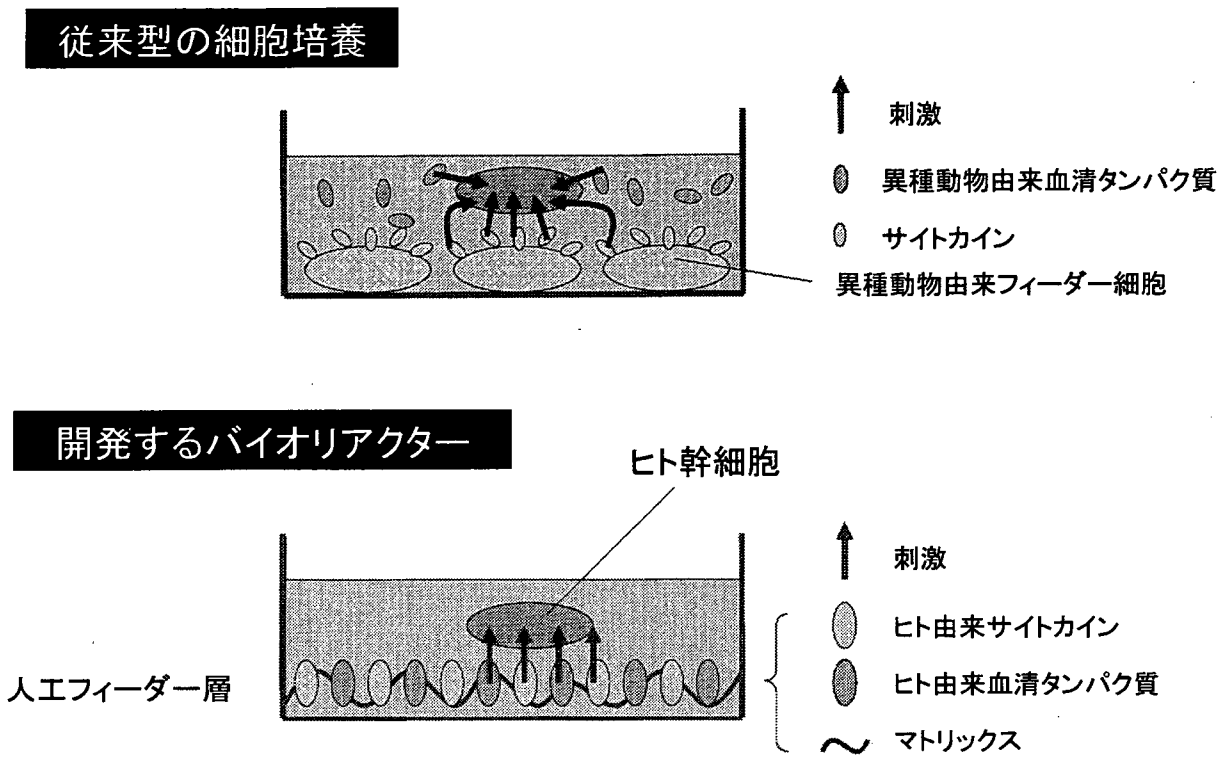

図2　開発目標となる幹細胞体外増幅用のナース細胞を模倣した人工基材。

ている。血液からの幹細胞で急性心筋梗塞患者の治療を行った例や，患者自身の口の粘膜の細胞を使って目の角膜を再生する臨床試験の成功が報じられている。また最近，成人の鼻粘膜細胞を用いた脊髄損傷治療や，患者の太ももから筋肉の一部を用いた疾患治療が計画されている。脂肪吸引でとった脂肪組織中の幹細胞も細胞ソースとしては有用で，臨床応用が試みられている。

一方，同種（他家）移植では，ドナーからの直接の臓器移植に加えて，冷凍保存した臍帯血を用いた治療もかなり行われるようになってきている。現在，日本には全国に11の公的なバンクがあり，日本の人口1億2千万人に必要となる数2万種が満たされたため，研究用への提供も理化学研究所を介して行われるようになってきている。

3．幹細胞の体外増幅

このように再生医療は着実に臨床の場で応用されるようになっているが，幹細胞を用いた医療をより広く実現してゆくための一つの大きな課題は，非常に僅かしかない幹細胞を如何に増幅するかということである。幹細胞の培養には通常フィーダー細胞あるいはナース細胞と呼ばれる細胞を共存させて行う必要がある。従来研究レベルでは，ヒト幹細胞といえども，動物から採取した血清や異種動物由来の細胞を培養液に共存させて行われてきた。異種動物由来の血清や細胞の使用は，これまでしばしば指摘され問題になってきたように様々な病原体による感染を招く恐れがある。そこで，これら異種動物由来の生体成分を混在させない完全な人工幹細胞培養系を確立する必要がある。我々は，まずは，異種動物由来のナース細胞を，ヒト由来細胞に置き換えること，さらには，これら細胞の機能を代替できるような人工的な細胞模倣

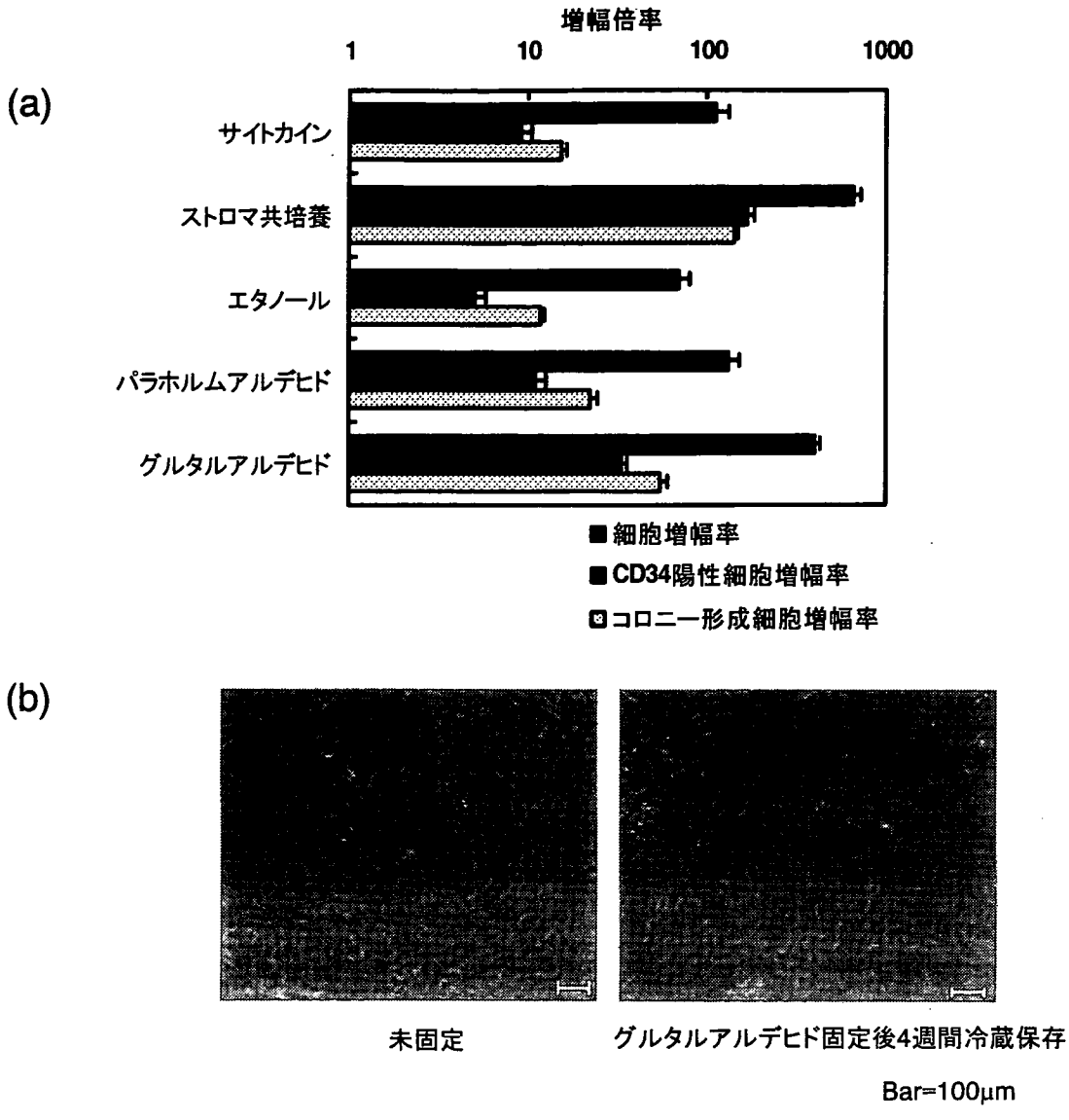

図3

(a)サイトカイン(トロンボポエチン，幹細胞成長因子(SCF)，Flt 3リガンド)添加，不死化ヒトストローマ細胞上，各種固定化剤で固定化したストローマ細胞上での臍帯血造血幹細胞の培養（2 週間)。(b) グルタルアルデヒド固定化前後のヒトストローマ細胞の位相差顕微鏡像。

基材の開発を行うことを目標として研究を行っている（図2)。[1-3)]

4．ヒト臍帯血造血幹細胞の体外増幅

再生医療の最も進んだ分野は，骨髄移植である。ドナーから骨髄細胞を採取し，患者体内へ導入すると，造血幹細胞が生着し血球が生み出されるようになる。造血幹細胞の入手先は，骨髄，末梢血から，臍帯血へと進展してきた。臍帯血は，これまで廃棄されていたものを使用できる上に，ドナーに負担がなく，組織適合性が寛容で，冷凍保存も可能である。しかし一般に採取可能な臍帯血からは充分量の造血幹細胞が得られず，成人の治療には困難が伴う場合がある。そこで，最近は2種類の臍帯血を混ぜて行うような治療も試行されるようになってきている。

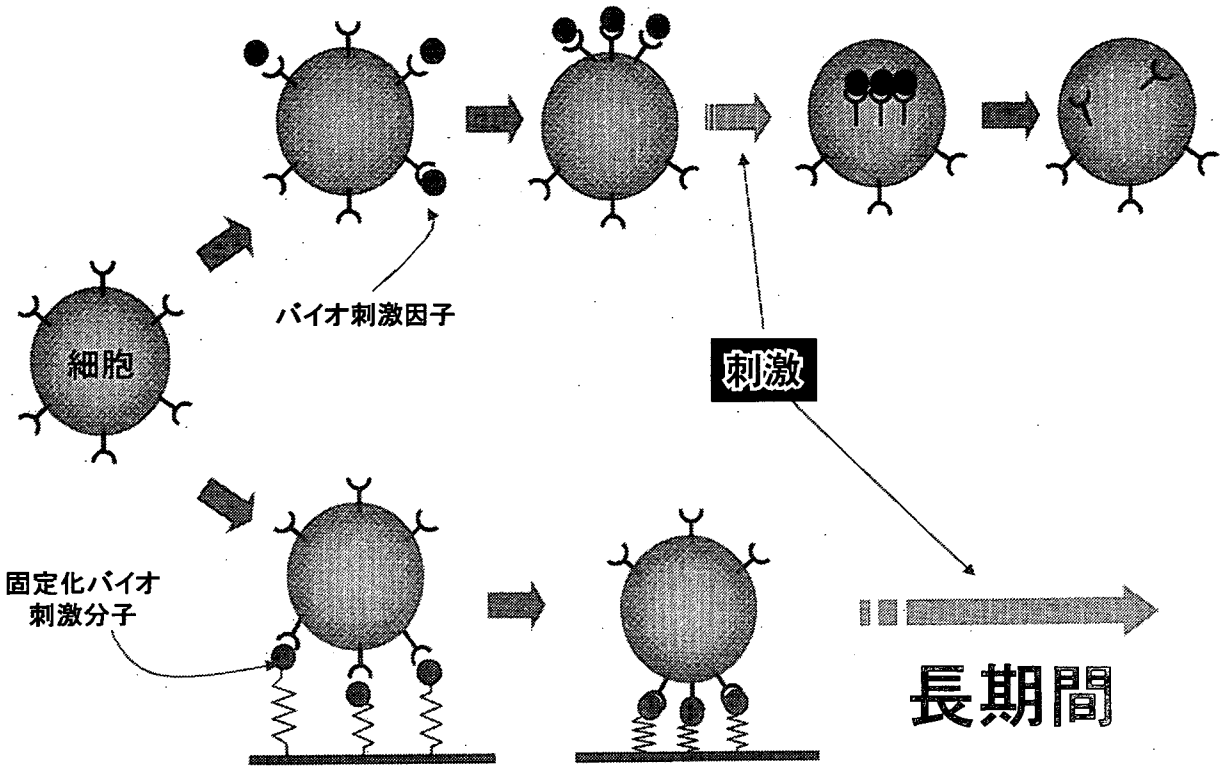

図４　固定化した成長因子による細胞機能制御機構

溶解状態のバイオシグナル分子は，受容体と相互作用して錯体を形成すると，膜上で集合し，やがて細胞内に取り込まれ，分解されるが，固定化したバイオシグナル分子は内在化を受けずに長期間刺激を伝達し続ける。

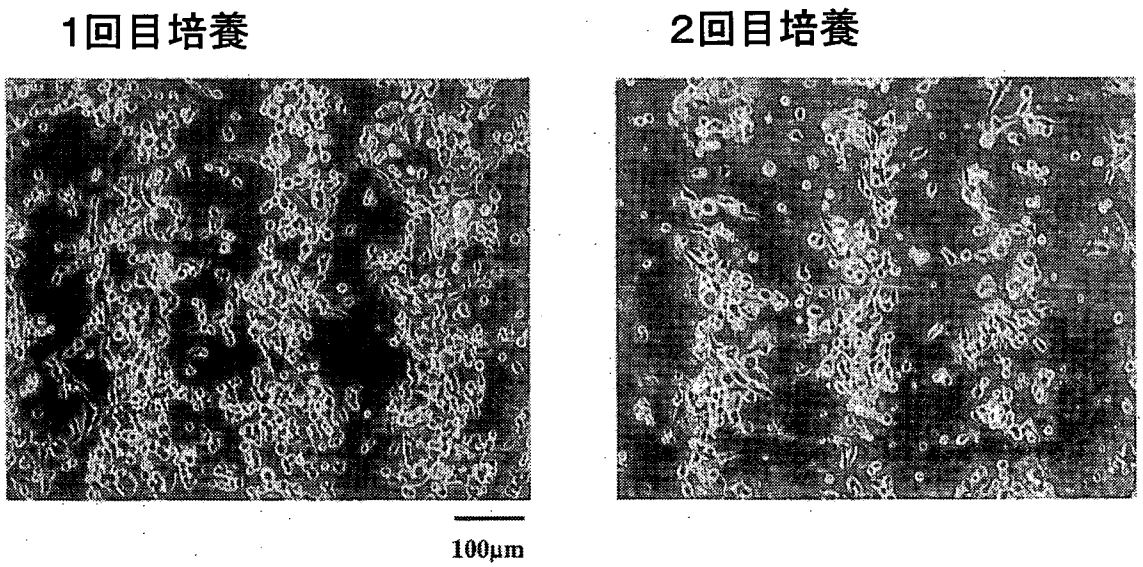

図５　エリスロポエチン固定化基板上でのエリスロポエチン依存性ヒト白血病由来細胞の培養

１回培養に用いた固定化エリスロポエチンを２回目の培養に用いることも可能であった。

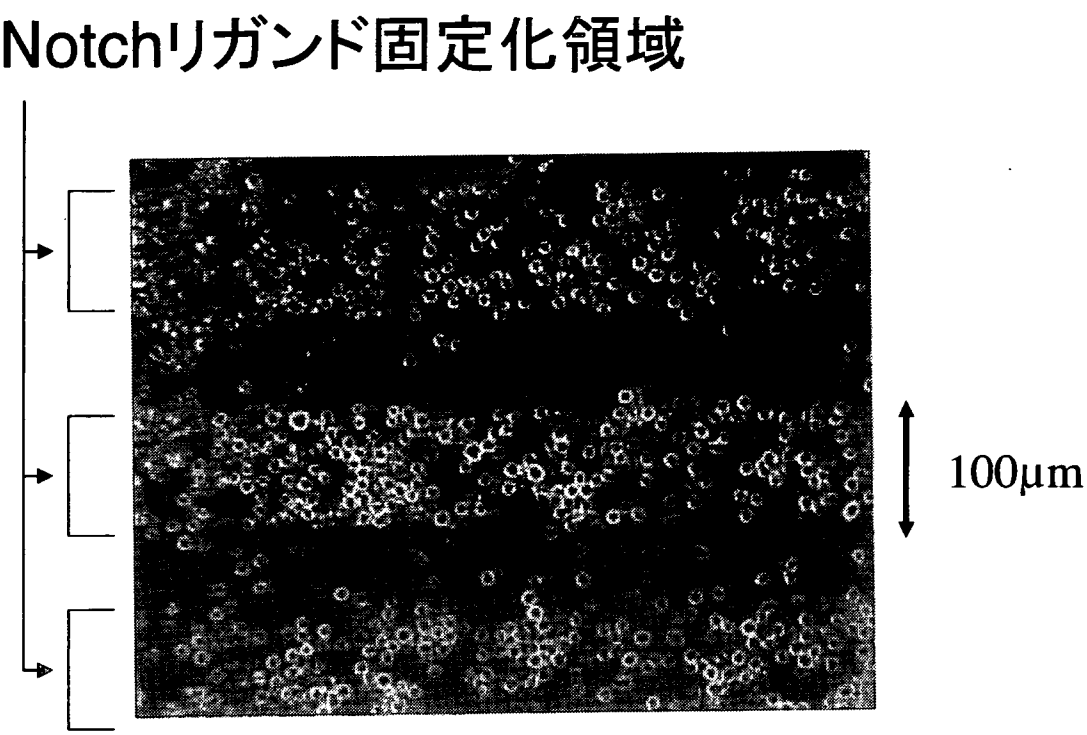

図6　Notch リガンド固定化基材上でのヒト白血病由来細胞 TMD 7 の培養

Notch リガンドは旭化成の坂野誠治博士から，TMD 7 細胞は東京医科歯科大学の東田修二博士から各々分与を受けた。

一方で，造血幹細胞を体外増幅させるために，これまで多くの研究が行われてきた。第一の方法は，様々な造血サイトカインを組み合わせて添加するシステムで，数多くの研究が報告されているがまだ十分な効果は得られていない。十分な効果が得られないのは，造血幹細胞が生体内で増幅するためには，骨髄内部の環境（ニッチェ）が重要な役割を果たしているためと考えられる。そこで，第二の方法として，ナース細胞やフィーダー細胞と呼ばれる細胞と共培養することによりニッチェを調製することが行われている。これにより長期間の増幅が支持される。しかし，前述のように異種動物由来細胞を用いてきた。

そこで私たちは，まずヒトの骨髄ストローマ細胞に，ヒトテロメラーゼ逆転写酵素（human TElomerase Reverse Transcriptase, hTERT）遺伝子を導入し，その中からナース細胞として有望な細胞をクローニングする実験を行った。細胞は分裂ごとにその染色体末端のテロメア領域が短縮し，これが進むと細胞の分裂が抑制されるが，hTERT 遺伝子は分裂によるテロメア長の短縮を回復させ，恒常的に発現させると細胞の形態を損なわずに不死化することができる。これまでにいくつかのクローンを得，それらが造血幹細胞増幅支持能をもつことがわかってきた。一方で，支持能が，培地に栄養分や増殖因子を補給するフィーダー作用によるだけではなく，直接の細胞間の接触によることが大きいことを，細胞を化学的に固定化しも活性を保持することから明らかにした。[4] 図 3 には，臍帯血から分離した造血幹細胞（CD34 陽性細胞）の増幅を測定した結果を示す。サイトカインの組み合わせだけでは，細胞数とコロニー前駆細胞数は各々 100，20 倍程度の増幅だったのに対し，生きたストローマ細胞と共培養した系では各々約 650 倍，150 倍増加した。これに対し，グルタルアルデヒドで固定したストローマ

共培養系でも約400，50倍に増加し，分化能をもつ細胞を増幅させることができた。固定化剤により活性の違いはあるものの，必ずしも生きた細胞でなくても増幅支持能があり，生きたストローマ細胞には及ばないもののサイトカインを添加しただけより大きな効果があること，そして固定化することによって活性を保ったまま冷蔵できることもわかった。

第三の方法として，既知のサイトカインや，新たにストローマ細胞から増幅支持能に関与する膜タンパク質を探し出し，これらを固定化した材料の開発に取り組んでいる。これまでに，インシュリン，上皮成長因子（EGF），神経成長因子（NGF），腫瘍壊死因子（TNF）などを固定化して細胞機能を増幅したり，制御したりできることを示してきた（図4）。[2] その原理を幹細胞増幅に応用しようとするものである。図5には，モデル細胞としてヒト白血病由来細胞 UT 7-EPO を，サイトカインとしてエリスロポエチン（EPO）を選び，マイクロパターン状固定化した EPO 上で UT 7-EPO を培養した結果を示す。3日間経ると EPO が固定化されていない表面では UT7-EPO はアポトーシスを誘起され死滅したが，EPO が固定化されている領域では，増殖が観測された。[5] これは固定化 EPO が UT 7-EPO に特異的に働き，アポトーシスを抑制したものと考えられる。また，一度 UT 7-EPO を剥離し，再度新しい細胞を播種して培養しても EPO 固定化領域でのみ増幅が観測され，固定化 EPO の繰り返し利用も可能であることがわかった。

一方，膜タンパク質として知られる Notch リガンドを固定化した場合を図6に示す。Notch リガンド固定化領域でだけ依存性細胞の接着，増殖が観測された。造血幹細胞の培養に必要なサイトカインとして，トロンボポエチン，幹細胞成長因子（SCF），Flt 3 リガンドなどが，膜タンパク質としても Notch リガンド以外にもいくつかが知られるようになってきている。今後は，これら様々なサイトカインや膜タンパク質を組み合わせて，幹細胞培養用の人工ニッチェを構築してゆき

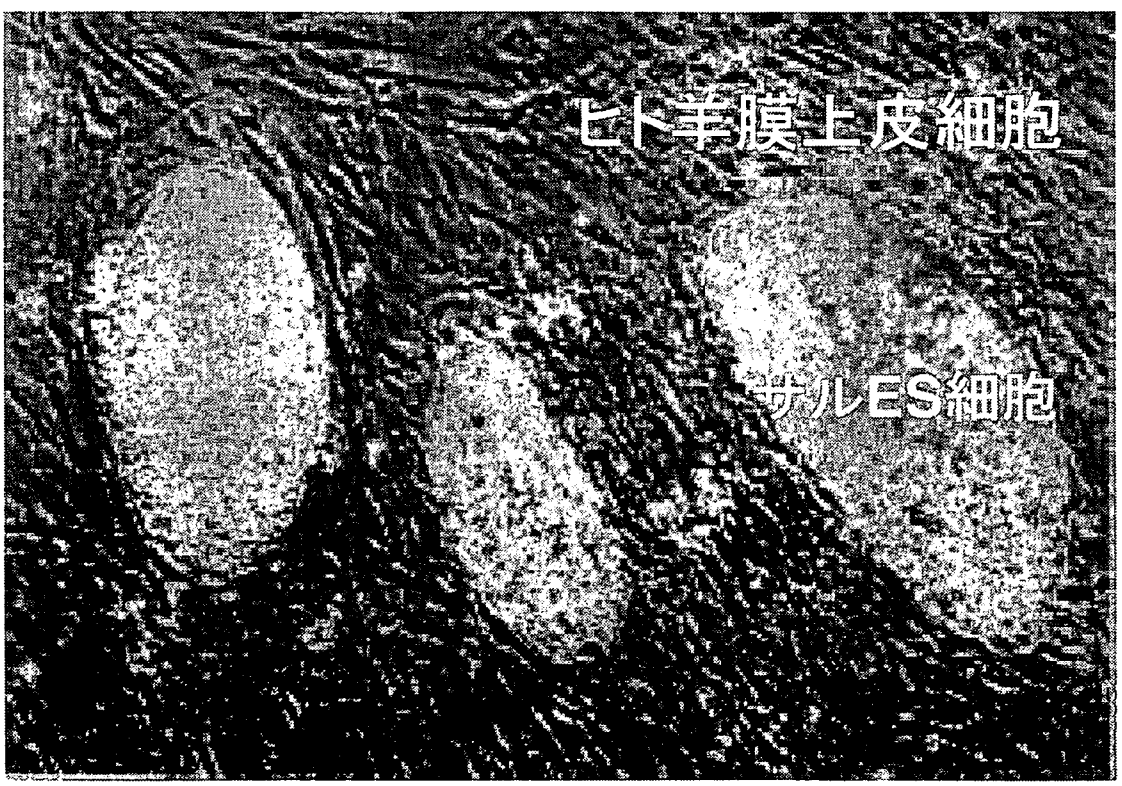

図7　ヒト羊膜上皮細胞上で培養したサル ES 細胞