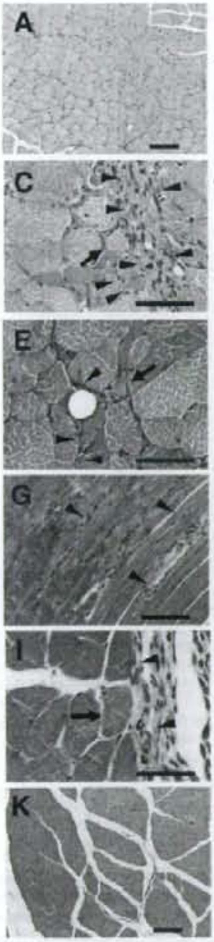

Figure 2. Implantation of endometrium-derived cells-derived cells into the muscle of NOG mice. EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (A–F) or menstrual blood–derived cells (G–J) cultured in absence of any stimuli were directly injected into the right thigh muscle of NOG mice. Immunohistochemical analysis was performed using antibody that reacts to human vimentin but not to murine vimentin. (A, C, E, G, I, and K) hematoxylin and eosin stain. (B, D, F, H, J, and L) immunohistochemistry. Note that vimentin-positive EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells with a spindle morphology (C–J, arrowheads) extensively migrated into muscular bundles at 3 wk after injection, and some of the injected cells exhibited round structure (D, F, and J, arrows). Isotype mouse IgG1 served as a negative control (L). Scale bars, 100 μm (A, B, K, and L), 50 μm (C–F, I, and J), 90 μm (G and H).

Induction of Myogenic Differentiation in Endometrial Progenitor Cells In Vitro

EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells at 2 wk (cultured in the DMEM supplemented with 20% FBS) after exposure to different concentrations (5, 10, and 100 μM) of 5-azacytidine were analyzed by immunostaining using anti-desmin antibody (Figure 3, A–E). The number of desmin-positive cells was significantly higher in experimental groups with 5 or 10 μM 5-azacytidine than in untreated control groups ($p < 0.05$) (Figure 3F). To investigate whether EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells are capable of differentiating into skeletal muscle cells in vitro, the cells were exposed to 5 μM 5-azacytidine for 24 h and then subsequently cultured in the DMEM supplemented with 2% HS or serum-free ITS for up to 21 d. Skeletal myoblastic differentiation of the cells was analyzed by evaluating expression of MyoD, Myf5, desmin, myogenin, MyHC-IIx/d, and dystrophin by RT-PCR. The MyoD, desmin, myogenin, and dystrophin genes were constitutively expressed, but MyHC-IIx/d and Myf5 genes were not. The decline of MyoD was observed in both the 2% HS (Figure 3, G and H) and the serum-free ITS (Figure 3K). The expression of MyHC-IIx/d, as determined by RT-PCR and immunocytochemistry, significantly increased with 2% HS (Figure 3G) and serum-free ITS (Figure 3K). Immunocytochemical analysis indicated that α-sarcomeric actin (Figure 3I) and MyHC (Figure 3J) were detected in the cells incubated with 2% HS for 21 d.

In Vitro Myogenic Differentiation of Menstrual Blood-derived Cells

Menstrual blood–derived cells at 3 wk (cultured in DMEM supplemented with 20% FBS) after exposure to different concentrations (5, 10, and 100 μM) of 5-azacytidine were analyzed by immunostaining using anti-desmin antibody (data not shown). The number of desmin-positive cells was significantly higher in experimental groups with 5 or 10 μM 5-azacytidine than with 100 μM 5-azacytidine; for further in vitro experiments, the menstrual blood–derived cells were exposed to 5 μM 5-azacytidine for 24 h and then subsequently cultured in DMEM supplemented with low serum (2% HS) or serum-free ITS for up to 21 d (Figure 4). Myogenic potential of human menstrual blood–derived cells was analyzed by evaluating the expression of Myf5, MyoD, desmin, myogenin, MyHC-IIx/d, and dystrophin by RT-PCR. MyoD, desmin, and dystrophin genes were constitutively expressed in menstrual blood–derived cells, but MyHC-IIx/d and Myf5 were not (Figure 4A). For cells treated with 2% HS or serum-free ITS, the mRNA level of desmin and myogenin significantly increased after 3 d, and desmin steadily increased until day 21 (Figure 4, C and D). MyHC-IIx/d started to be expressed at a low level at day 21 of induction (Figure 4C). We then analyzed desmin expression by immunocytochemistry. Menstrual blood–derived cells were exposed to 5 μM 5-azacytidine for 24 h and then subsequently cultured in DMEM supplemented with 20% FBS for up to 2 wk. Desmin was readily detected in colonies of the menstrual blood–derived cells (Figure 4B). Western blot analysis indicated that desmin, myogenin, and dystrophin were highly expressed in the cells incubated for 3 wk (Figure 4, E–G). These results suggest that menstrual blood–derived cells are, like the EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells, able to differentiate into skeletal muscle.

Regeneration of Dystrophin by Cell Implantation in the DMD Model mdx-scid Mouse

To investigate whether human EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells can generate muscle tissue in vivo, cells without any treatment or induction were implanted directly into the right thigh muscles of mdx-scid mice (Supplementary Figure 2). The left thigh muscles were injected with PBS as an internal control. After 3 wk, myotubes in the muscle tissues injected with human EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells expressed human dystrophin as a cluster (Figure 5, A, C, and D, EM-

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

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

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

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

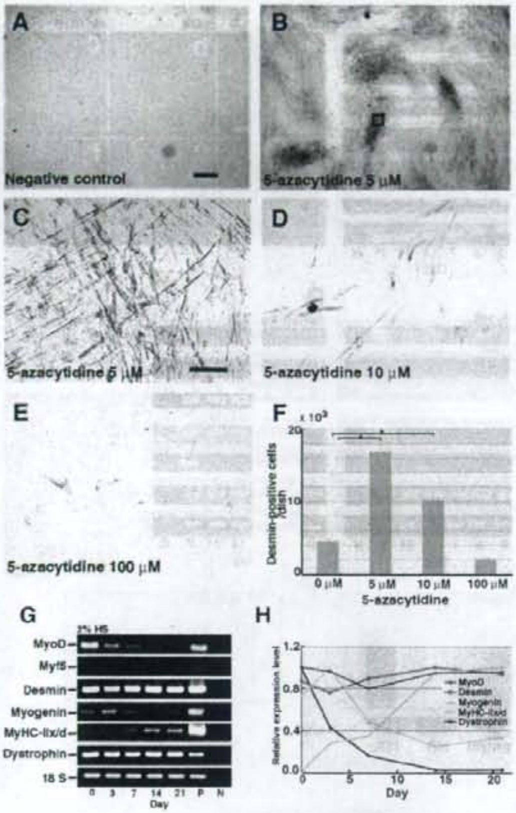

Figure 3. Expression of myogenic-specific genes during myogenic differentiation of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells. (A–E) Immunocytochemical analysis of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells using an antibody to desmin. (A) Omission of only the primary antibody to desmin serves as a negative control. (C) Higher magnification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

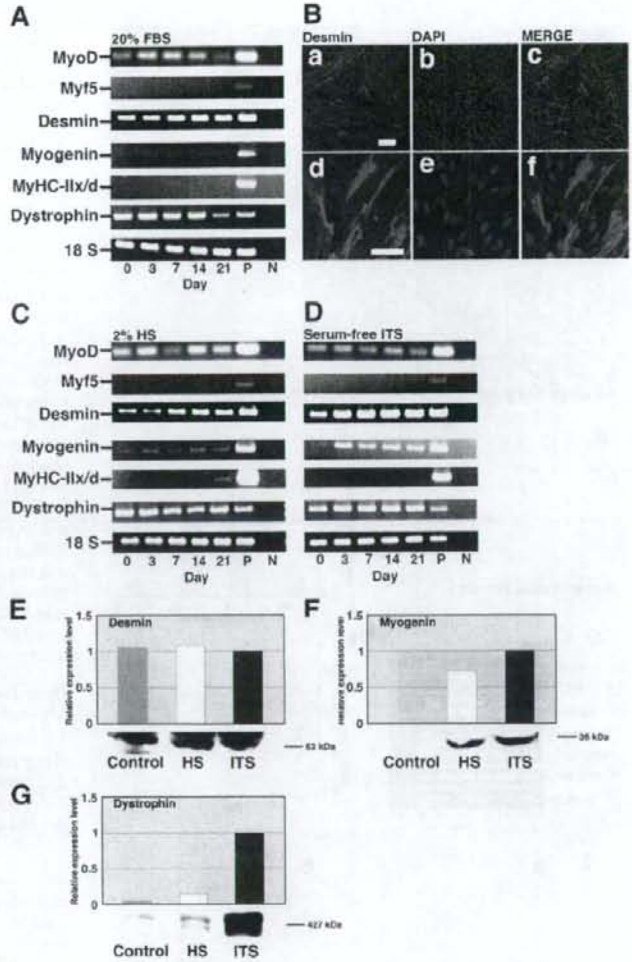

Figure 4. Expression of myogenic-specific genes in differentiated menstrual blood–derived cells. Menstrual blood–derived cells were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 20% FBS, 2% HS, or serum-free ITS medium. (A) RT-PCR analysis with PCR primers that allows amplification of the human MyoD, Myf5, desmin,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

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

DISCUSSION

Skeletal muscle has a remarkable regenerative capacity in response to an extensive injury. Resident within adult skeletal muscle is a small population of myogenic precursor cells (or satellite cells) that are capable of multiple rounds of proliferation (estimated at 80–100 doublings), which are able to reestablish a quiescent pool of myogenic progenitor cells after each discrete regenerative episode (Mauro, 1961; Schultz and McCormick, 1994; Seale and Rudnicki, 2000; Hawke and Garry, 2001). Although muscle regeneration is a highly efficient and reproducible process, it ultimately is exhausted, as observed in senescent skeletal muscle or in patients with muscular dystrophy (Gussoni *et al.*, 1997; Cossu and Mavilio, 2000). In the present study, we investigated the myogenic potential of human endometrial tissue-derived immortalized EM-E6/E7/TERT-2 cells and primary cells derived from human menstrual blood. Human menstrual blood–derived cells proliferated over at least 25 PDs (9 passages) for more than 60 d and stopped dividing before 30 PDs. This cessation of cell division is probably due to replicative senescence or shortening of telomere length. Cell life span of menstrual blood cells is relatively short when compared with human fetal cells (Imai *et al.*, 1994; Terai *et al.*, 2005), and this shorter cell life span may be attributed to shorter telomere length of adult cells (i.e., endometrial stromal cells) at the start of cell cultivation, as is the case with hematopoietic stem cells (Suda *et al.*, 1984).

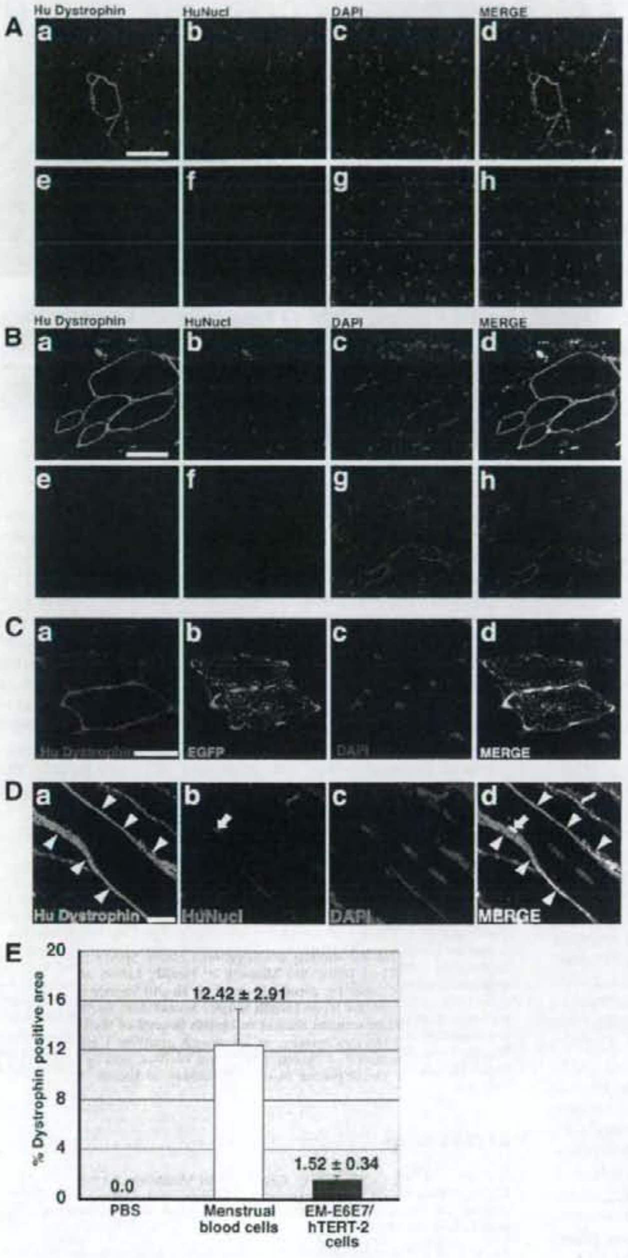

Figure 5. Conferral of dystrophin to mdx myocytes by human endometrial cells. (A and B) Immunohistochemistry analysis using an antibody against human dystrophin molecule (green), human nuclei (HuNucl, red), and DAPI staining (blue) on thigh muscle sections of mdx-scid mice after direct injection of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2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

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

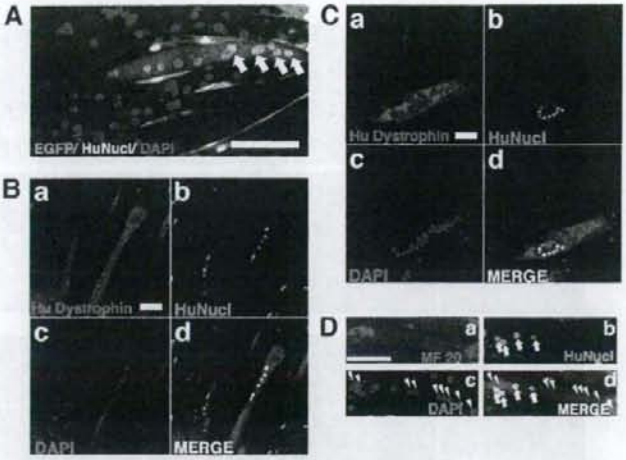

Figure 6. Detection of human endometrial cell contribution to myotubes in an in vitro myogenesis model. EGFP-labeled EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (A) or EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (B) or menstrual blood–derived cells (C and D) were cocultured with C2C12 myoblasts for 2 d under conditions that favored proliferation.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

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

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

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

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Menstrual Blood-derived Cells Confer Human Dystrophin Expression in the Murine Model of Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy via Cell Fusion and Myogenic Transdifferentiation

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Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD), the most common lethal genetic disorder in children, is an X-linked recessive muscle disease characterized by the absence of dystrophin at the sarcolemma of muscle fibers. We examined a putative endometrial progenitor obtained from endometrial tissue samples to determine whether these cells repair muscular degeneration in a murine mdx model of DMD. Implanted cells conferred human dystrophin in degenerated muscle of immunodeficient mdx mice. We then examined menstrual blood–derived cells to determine whether primarily cultured nontransformed cells also repair dystrophied muscle. In vivo transfer of menstrual blood–derived cells into dystrophic muscles of immunodeficient mdx mice restored sarcolemmal expression of dystrophin. Labeling of implanted cells with enhanced green fluorescent protein and differential staining of human and murine nuclei suggest that human dystrophin expression is due to cell fusion between host myocytes and implanted cells. In vitro analysis revealed that endometrial progenitor cells and menstrual blood–derived cells can efficiently transdifferentiate into myoblasts/myocytes, fuse to C2C12 murine myoblasts by in vitro coculturing, and start to express dystrophin after fusion. These results demonstrate that the endometrial progenitor cells and menstrual blood–derived cells can transfer dystrophin into dystrophied myocytes through cell fusion and transdifferentiation in vitro and in vivo.

INTRODUCTION

Skeletal muscle consists predominantly of syncytial fibers with peripheral, postmitotic myonuclei, and its intrinsic repair potential in adulthood relies on the persistence of a resident reserve population of undifferentiated mononuclear cells, termed "satellite cells." In mature skeletal muscle, most satellite cells are quiescent and are activated in response to environmental cues, such as injury, to mediate postnatal muscle regeneration. After division, satellite cell progeny, termed myoblasts, undergo terminal differentiation and become incorporated into muscle fibers (Bischoff, 1994). Myogenesis is regulated by a family of myogenic transcription factors including MyoD, Myf5, myogenin, and MRF4 (Sabourin and Rudnicki, 2000). During embryonic development, MyoD and Myf5 are involved in the establishment of the skeletal muscle lineage (Rudnicki *et al.*, 1993), whereas myogenin is required for terminal differentiation (Hasty *et al.*, 1993; Nabeshima *et al.*, 1993). During muscle repair, satellite cells recapitulate the expression program of the myogenic genes manifested during embryonic development.

Dystrophin is associated with a large oligomeric complex of glycoproteins that provide linkage to the extracellular membrane (Ervasti and Campbell, 1991). In Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD), the absence of dystrophin results in destabilization of the extracellular membrane-sarcolemma-cytoskeleton architecture, making muscle fibers susceptible to contraction-associated mechanical stress and degeneration. In the first phase of the disease, new muscle fibers are formed by satellite cells. After depletion of the satellite cell pool in childhood, skeletal muscles degenerate progressively and irreversibly and are replaced by fibrotic tissue (Cossu and Mavilio, 2000). Like DMD patients, the mdx mouse lacks dystrophin in skeletal muscle fibers (Hoffman *et al.*, 1987; Sicinski *et al.*, 1989). However, the mdx mouse develops only a mild dystrophic phenotype, probably because muscle regeneration by satellite cells is efficient for most of the animal's life span (Cossu and Mavilio, 2000).

Myoblasts represent the natural first choice in cellular therapeutics for skeletal muscle because of their intrinsic myogenic commitment (Grounds *et al.*, 2002). However, myoblasts recovered from muscular biopsies are poorly expandable in vitro and rapidly undergo senescence (Cossu and Mavilio, 2000). An alternative source of muscle progenitor cells is therefore desirable. Cells with a myogenic potential are present in many tissues, and these cells readily

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form skeletal muscle in culture (Gerhart *et al.*, 2001). We report here that human dystrophin expression in the mdx model of DMD is attributed to cell fusion of mdx myocytes with human menstrual blood–derived stromal cells.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Isolation of Human Endometrial Cells from Menstrual Blood

Menstrual blood samples (n = 21) were collected in DMEM with antibiotics (final concentrations: 100 U/ml penicillin/streptomycin) and 2% fetal bovine serum (FBS), and processed within 24 h. Ethical approval for tissue collection was granted by the Institutional Review Board of the National Research Institute for Child Health and Development, Japan. The centrifuged pellets containing endometrium-derived cells were resuspended in high-glucose DMEM medium (10% FBS, penicillin/streptomycin), maintained at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO_2, and allowed to attach for 48 h. Nonadherent cells were removed by changing the medium. When the culture reached subconfluence, the cells were harvested with 0.25% trypsin and 1 mM EDTA and plated to new dishes. After 2–3 passages, the attached endometrial stromal cells were devoid of blood cells. Human EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells, endometrium-derived progenitors, were obtained from surgical endometrial tissue samples and were immortalized by E6, E7, and hTERT (Kyo *et al.*, 2003). C2C12 myoblast cells were supplied by RIKEN Cell Bank (The Institute of Physical and Chemical Research, Japan).

Flow Cytometric Analysis

Flow cytometric analysis was performed as previously described (Terai *et al.*, 2005). Cells were incubated with primary antibodies or isotype-matched control antibodies, followed by additional treatment with the immunofluorescent secondary antibodies. Cells were analyzed on an EPICS ALTRA analyzer (Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA). Antibodies against human CD13, CD14, CD29, CD31, CD34, CD44, CD45, CD50, CD54, CD55, CD59, CD73, CD90, CD105, CD117 (c-kit), CD133, HLA-ABC, and HLA-DR were purchased from Beckman Coulter, Immunotech (Marseille, France), Cytotech (Hellebaek, Denmark), and BD Biosciences PharMingen (San Diego, CA).

In Vitro Lentivirus-mediated Gene (EGFP) Transfer into EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 Cells

Infection of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells with lentivirus having a CMV promoter and enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP) reporter resulted in high levels of EGFP expression in all cells. Cells were analyzed for EGFP expression by flow cytometry (Miyoshi *et al.*, 1997, 1998).

In Vitro Myogenesis

Menstrual blood–derived cells or EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells were seeded onto collagen I–coated cell culture dishes (Biocoat, BD Biosciences, Bedford, MA) at a density of 1×10^4/ml in growth medium (DMEM, supplemented with 20% FBS). Forty-eight hours after seeding onto collagen I–coated dishes, cells were treated with 5-azacytidine for 24 h. Cell cultures were then washed twice with PBS and maintained in differentiation medium (DMEM, supplemented with either 2% horse serum (HS) or 1% insulin-transferrin-selenium supplement [ITS]). The differentiation medium was changed twice a week until the experiment was terminated.

RT-PCR Analysis of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 Cells and Menstrual Blood–derived Cells

Total RNA was prepared using Isogen (Nippon Gene, Tokyo, Japan). Human skeletal muscle RNA was purchased from TOYOBO (Osaka, Japan). RT-PCR of Myf5, MyoD, desmin, myogenin, myosin heavy chain-IIx/d (MyHC-IIx/d), and dystrophin was performed with 2 μg of total RNA. RNA for RT-PCR was converted to cDNA with a first-stand cDNA synthesis kit (Amersham Pharmacia Biotechnology, Piscataway, NJ) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. The sequences of PCR primers that amplify human but not mouse genes are listed in Supplementary Table 1. PCR was performed with TaKaRa recombinant Taq (Takara Shuzo, Kyoto, Japan) for 30 cycles, with each cycle consisting of 94°C for 30 s, 62°C or 65°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 20 s, with an additional 10-min incubation at 72°C after completion of the last cycle.

Immunohistochemical and Immunocytochemical Analysis

Immunohistochemical analysis was performed as previously described (Mori *et al.*, 2005). Briefly, the sections were incubated for 1 h at room temperature with mouse mAb against vimentin (Cone V9, DakoCytomation, Fort Collins, CO). After washing in PBS, sections were incubated with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated rabbit anti-mouse immunoglobulin, diluted, and washed in cold PBS. Staining was developed by using a solution containing diaminobenzidine and 0.01% H_2O_2 in 0.05 M Tris-HCl buffer, pH 6.7. Slides were counterstained with hematoxylin. In the cases of fluorescence, frozen sections fixed with 4% PFA were used. The antibodies against human dystrophin (NCL-DYS3; Novocastra, Newcastle upon Tyne, United Kingdom) or anti-human nuclei mouse mAb (clone 235-1, Chemicon, Temecula, CA) was used as a first antibody, and goat anti-mouse IgG conjugated with Alexa Fluor 488 or goat anti-mouse IgG antibody conjugated with Alexa Fluor 546 (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR) was used as a second antibody.

Immunocytochemical analysis was performed as previously described (Mori *et al.*, 2005), with antibodies to skeletal myosin (Sigma, St. Louis, MO; product no. M 4276), MF20 (which reacts with all sarcomere myosin in striated muscles, Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, University of Iowa, IA), α-sarcomeric actin (Sigma, product no. A 7811), and desmin (Bio-Science Products, Emmenbruecke, Switzerland; no. 010031, clone: D9) in PBS containing 1% bovine serum albumin. As a methodological control, the primary antibody was omitted. In the cases of fluorescence, slides were incubated with Alexa Fluor 546–conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG antibody.

Western Blotting

Western blot analysis was performed as previously described (Mori *et al.*, 2005). Blots were incubated with primary antibodies (desmin, myogenin [Clone F5D, Santa Cruz Biotechnology], and dystrophin [NCL-DYSA, Novocastra]) for 1–2 h at room temperature. After washing three times in the blocking buffer, blots were incubated for 30 min with a horseradish peroxidase–conjugated secondary antibody (0.04 μg/ml) directed against the primary antibody. The blots were developed with enhanced chemiluminescence substrate according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Fusion Assay

EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (2500/cm^2) or EGFP-labeled EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (2500/cm^2) were cocultured with C2C12 myoblasts (2500/cm^2) for 2 d in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and then cultured for 7 additional days in DMEM with 2% HS to promote myotube formation. The cultures were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and stained with a mouse anti-human nuclei IgG1 mAb and the mouse anti-human dystrophin IgG2a mAb (or anti-myosin heavy chain IgG2b mAb MF-20). The cells were visualized with appropriate Alexa-fluor–conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG1 and IgG2a (or IgG2b) secondary antibodies (Molecular Probes). Total cell nuclei were stained with DAPI (4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole).

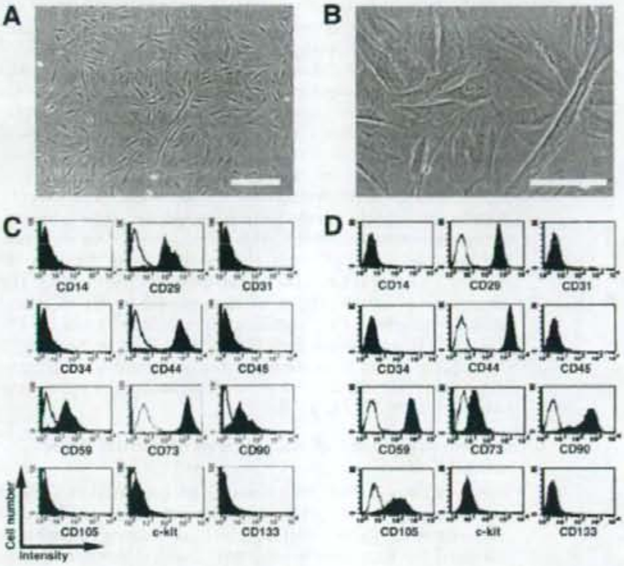
In Vivo Cell Implantation

Six- to 8-wk-old NOD/Shi-scid/IL-2 receptor −/− (NOG, CREA, Shizuoka, Japan) mice and 6- to 8-wk-old mdx-scid mice were implanted with EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells in seven independent experiments. The cells (2×10^7) were suspended in PBS in a total volume of 100 μl and were directly injected into the right thigh muscle of NOG mice or mdx-scid mice. The mice were examined 3 wk after cell implantation, and the right thigh muscle was analyzed for human vimentin and dystrophin by immunohistochemistry. The antibodies to vimentin and dystrophin (NCL-DYS3) react with human vimentin and dystrophin-equivalent protein, but not murine protein.

RESULTS

Surface Marker Expression of Endometrium-derived Cells

We investigated myogenic differentiation of primary cells without gene introduction from menstrual blood, because menstrual blood on the first day of the period is considered to include endometrial tissue. We successfully cultured a large number of primary cells from menstrual blood. Menstrual blood–derived cells showed at least two morphologically different cell groups: small spindle-like cells and large stick-like cells, regarded as being passage day (PD) 1 or 2 (Figure 1, A and B, respectively). Surface markers of the menstrual blood–derived cells were evaluated by flow cytometric analysis. Surface markers of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (Figure 1C) and menstrual blood–derived cells (Figure 1D) were evaluated by flow cytometric analysis (Figure 1E). In these experiments, the cells were cultured in the absence of any inductive stimuli. EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells were positive for CD13, CD29 (integrin β1), CD44 (Pgp-1/ly24), CD54, CD55, CD59, CD73, and CD90 (Thy-1), implying that EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells expressed mesenchymal cell–related antigens in our experimental setting. Menstrual blood–derived cells were positive for CD13, CD29, CD44, CD54, CD55, CD59, CD73, CD90, and CD105, implying that prolif-



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Surface marker	EM-E6/E7/ hTERT-2 cells	Menstrual blood cells	Surface marker	EM-E6/E7/ hTERT-2 cells	Menstrual blood cells
CD13	+	++	CD55	++	++
CD14	-	-	CD59	++	+++
CD29	++	+++	CD73	+++	+
CD31	-	-	CD90	++	+++
CD34	-	-	CD105	-	++
CD44	+++	+++	c-kit	-	-
CD45	-	-	CD133	-	-
CD50	-	-	HLA-ABC	++	++
CD54	+	++	HLA-DR	-	-

Figure 1. Surface marker expression of endometrium-derived cells. (A and B) Morphology of menstrual blood–derived cells, regarded as being PD 1 or 2. Scale bars, 200 μm (A), 100 μm (B). (C and D) Flow cytometric analysis of cell surface markers of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (C) and menstrual blood–derived cells (D). (E) Further phenotypic analysis in EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells are summarized. Peak intensity was estimated in comparison with isotype controls. +++, strongly positive (>100 times the isotype control); ++, moderately positive (<100 times but more than 10 times the isotype control); +, weakly positive (<10 times but more than twice the isotype control); −, negative (less than twice the isotype control).

erated and propagated cells express mesenchymal cell-related cell surface markers. Unlike EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells, the menstrual blood–derived adherent cells were positive for CD105. EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells expressed neither hematopoietic lineage markers, such as CD34, nor monocyte-macrophage antigens such as CD14 (a marker for macrophage and dendritic cells), or CD45 (leukocyte common antigen). The lack of expression of CD14, CD34, or CD45 suggests that EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and the menstrual blood–derived cell culture in the present study is depleted of hematopoietic cells. The cells were also negative for expression of CD31 (PECAM-1), CD50, c-kit, and CD133. The cell population was positive for HLA-ABC, but not for HLA-DR. These results demonstrate that almost all cells derived from endometrium are of mesenchymal origin or stromal origin.

Implanted Endometrium-derived Cells Induce De Novo Myogenesis in Immunodeficient NOG Mice

EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells originate from the endometrial gland and are considered as endometrial progenitor cells or bipotential cells capable of differentiating into both glandular epithelial cells and endometrial stromal cells (Kyo *et al.*, 2003). To determine whether EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells generate complete endometrial structure in vivo, like endometriosis, the cells without any treatment or induction were injected into the right thigh muscle of immunodeficient NOG mice. PBS without cells was injected into the left thigh muscles as a control. We failed to detect any endometrial structure in the cell-injected site. Immunohistochemical analysis using an antibody specific to human vimentin, an intermediate filament associated with a mesenchymal cell, revealed that the injected EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (Figure 2, A–F) or menstrual blood–derived cells (Figure 2, G–J) extensively migrated or infiltrated between muscular fibers (Figure 2, arrowheads). To investigate if the donor cells between muscular fibers occur as a result of cell migration, we performed a time-course analysis of implanted cells, as probed by human-specific antibody to vimentin (Supplementary Figure 1). Donor cells at 3 h after implantation are observed at the injection site, which is considered to be due to just injection of cells. Cells at 1–3 wk after implantation are detected between myocytes in the muscle bundle or muscular fascicle as well as in the interstitial tissue, implying that the donor cells between myotubes result from cell migration. Interestingly, some of the vimentin-positive implanted cells exhibited round-shaped structure (Figure 2, D, F, and J, arrows), suggesting that endometrium-derived cells are capable of differentiating into myoblasts/myotubes, and can contribute to skeletal muscle repair in patients suffering from genetic disorders such as DMD, similar to previous reports for marrow stromal cells (Dezawa *et al.*, 2005) and synovial membrane cells (De Bari *et al.*, 2003).

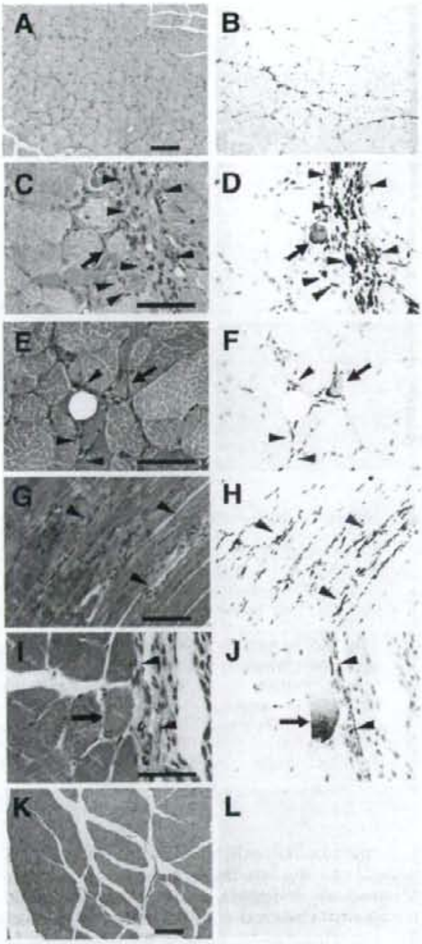

Figure 2. Implantation of endometrium-derived cells-derived cells into the muscle of NOG mice. EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (A–F) or menstrual blood–derived cells (G–J) cultured in absence of any stimuli were directly injected into the right thigh muscle of NOG mice. Immunohistochemical analysis was performed using antibody that reacts to human vimentin but not to murine vimentin. (A, C, E, G, I, and K) hematoxylin and eosin stain. (B, D, F, H, J, and L) immunohistochemistry. Note that vimentin-positive EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells with a spindle morphology (C–J, arrowheads) extensively migrated into muscular bundles at 3 wk after injection, and some of the injected cells exhibited round structure (D, F, and J, arrows). Isotype mouse IgG1 served as a negative control (L). Scale bars, 100 μm (A, B, K, and L), 50 μm (C–F, I, and J), 90 μm (G and H).

Induction of Myogenic Differentiation in Endometrial Progenitor Cells In Vitro

EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells at 2 wk (cultured in the DMEM supplemented with 20% FBS) after exposure to different concentrations (5, 10, and 100 μM) of 5-azacytidine were analyzed by immunostaining using anti-desmin antibody (Figure 3, A–E). The number of desmin-positive cells was significantly higher in experimental groups with 5 or 10 μM 5-azacytidine than in untreated control groups ($p < 0.05$) (Figure 3F). To investigate whether EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells are capable of differentiating into skeletal muscle cells in vitro, the cells were exposed to 5 μM 5-azacytidine for 24 h and then subsequently cultured in the DMEM supplemented with 2% HS or serum-free ITS for up to 21 d. Skeletal myoblastic differentiation of the cells was analyzed by evaluating expression of MyoD, Myf5, desmin, myogenin, MyHC-IIx/d, and dystrophin by RT-PCR. The MyoD, desmin, myogenin, and dystrophin genes were constitutively expressed, but MyHC-IIx/d and Myf5 genes were not. The decline of MyoD was observed in both the 2% HS (Figure 3, G and H) and the serum-free ITS (Figure 3K). The expression of MyHC-IIx/d, as determined by RT-PCR and immunocytochemistry, significantly increased with 2% HS (Figure 3G) and serum-free ITS (Figure 3K). Immunocytochemical analysis indicated that α-sarcomeric actin (Figure 3I) and MyHC (Figure 3J) were detected in the cells incubated with 2% HS for 21 d.

In Vitro Myogenic Differentiation of Menstrual Blood-derived Cells

Menstrual blood–derived cells at 3 wk (cultured in DMEM supplemented with 20% FBS) after exposure to different concentrations (5, 10, and 100 μM) of 5-azacytidine were analyzed by immunostaining using anti-desmin antibody (data not shown). The number of desmin-positive cells was significantly higher in experimental groups with 5 or 10 μM 5-azacytidine than with 100 μM 5-azacytidine; for further in vitro experiments, the menstrual blood–derived cells were exposed to 5 μM 5-azacytidine for 24 h and then subsequently cultured in DMEM supplemented with low serum (2% HS) or serum-free ITS for up to 21 d (Figure 4). Myogenic potential of human menstrual blood–derived cells was analyzed by evaluating the expression of Myf5, MyoD, desmin, myogenin, MyHC-IIx/d, and dystrophin by RT-PCR. MyoD, desmin, and dystrophin genes were constitutively expressed in menstrual blood–derived cells, but MyHC-IIx/d and Myf5 were not (Figure 4A). For cells treated with 2% HS or serum-free ITS, the mRNA level of desmin and myogenin significantly increased after 3 d, and desmin steadily increased until day 21 (Figure 4, C and D). MyHC-IIx/d started to be expressed at a low level at day 21 of induction (Figure 4C). We then analyzed desmin expression by immunocytochemistry. Menstrual blood–derived cells were exposed to 5 μM 5-azacytidine for 24 h and then subsequently cultured in DMEM supplemented with 20% FBS for up to 2 wk. Desmin was readily detected in colonies of the menstrual blood–derived cells (Figure 4B). Western blot analysis indicated that desmin, myogenin, and dystrophin were highly expressed in the cells incubated for 3 wk (Figure 4, E–G). These results suggest that menstrual blood–derived cells are, like the EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells, able to differentiate into skeletal muscle.

Regeneration of Dystrophin by Cell Implantation in the DMD Model mdx-scid Mouse

To investigate whether human EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells can generate muscle tissue in vivo, cells without any treatment or induction were implanted directly into the right thigh muscles of mdx-scid mice (Supplementary Figure 2). The left thigh muscles were injected with PBS as an internal control. After 3 wk, myotubes in the muscle tissues injected with human EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells and menstrual blood–derived cells expressed human dystrophin as a cluster (Figure 5, A, C, and D, EM-

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

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

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

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

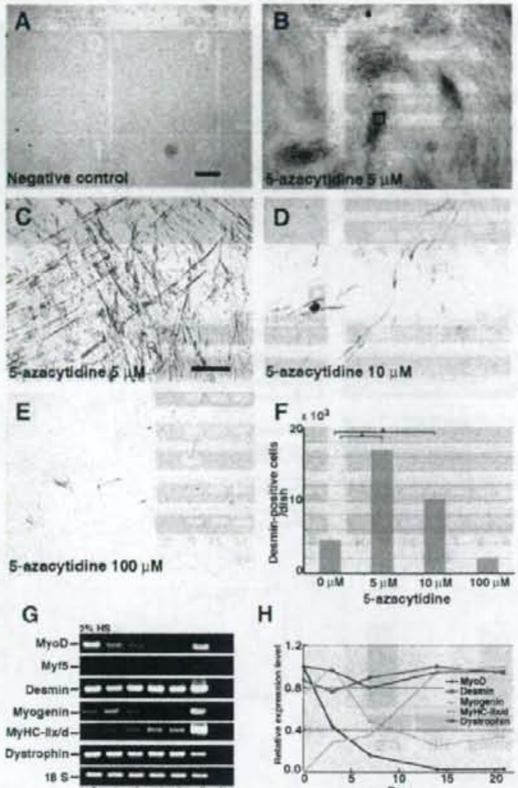

Figure 3. Expression of myogenic-specific genes during myogenic differentiation of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells. (A–E) Immunocytochemical analysis of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells using an antibody to desmin. (A) Omission of only the primary antibody to desmin serves as a negative control. (C) Higher magnification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

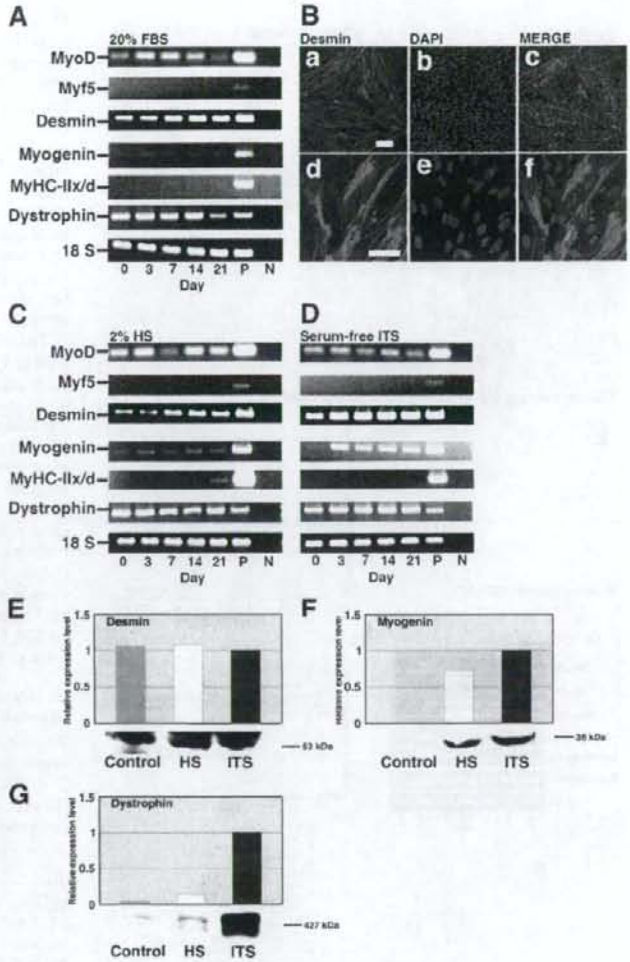

Figure 4. Expression of myogenic-specific genes in differentiated menstrual blood–derived cells. Menstrual blood–derived cells were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 20% FBS, 2% HS, or serum-free ITS medium. (A) RT-PCR analysis with PCR primers that allows amplification of the human MyoD, Myf5, desmin,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

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

DISCUSSION

Skeletal muscle has a remarkable regenerative capacity in response to an extensive injury. Resident within adult skeletal muscle is a small population of myogenic precursor cells (or satellite cells) that are capable of multiple rounds of proliferation (estimated at 80–100 doublings), which are able to reestablish a quiescent pool of myogenic progenitor cells after each discrete regenerative episode (Mauro, 1961; Schultz and McCormick, 1994; Seale and Rudnicki, 2000; Hawke and Garry, 2001). Although muscle regeneration is a highly efficient and reproducible process, it ultimately is exhausted, as observed in senescent skeletal muscle or in patients with muscular dystrophy (Gussoni *et al.*, 1997; Cossu and Mavilio, 2000). In the present study, we investigated the myogenic potential of human endometrial tissue-derived immortalized EM-E6/E7/TERT-2 cells and primary cells derived from human menstrual blood. Human menstrual blood–derived cells proliferated over at least 25 PDs (9 passages) for more than 60 d and stopped dividing before 30 PDs. This cessation of cell division is probably due to replicative senescence or shortening of telomere length. Cell life span of menstrual blood cells is relatively short when compared with human fetal cells (Imai *et al.*, 1994; Terai *et al.*, 2005), and this shorter cell life span may be attributed to shorter telomere length of adult cells (i.e., endometrial stromal cells) at the start of cell cultivation, as is the case with hematopoietic stem cells (Suda *et al.*, 1984).

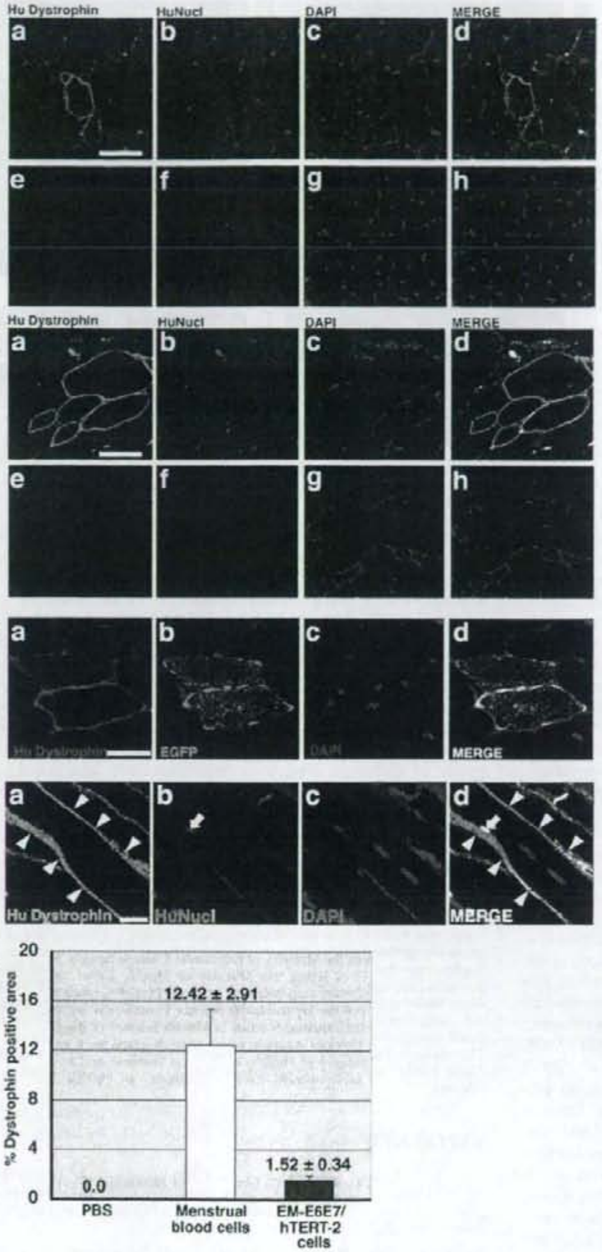

Figure 5. Conferral of dystrophin to mdx myocytes by human endometrial cells. (A and B) Immunohistochemistry analysis using an antibody against human dystrophin molecule (green), human nuclei (HuNucl, red), and DAPI staining (blue) on thigh muscle sections of mdx-scid mice after direct injection of EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2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

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

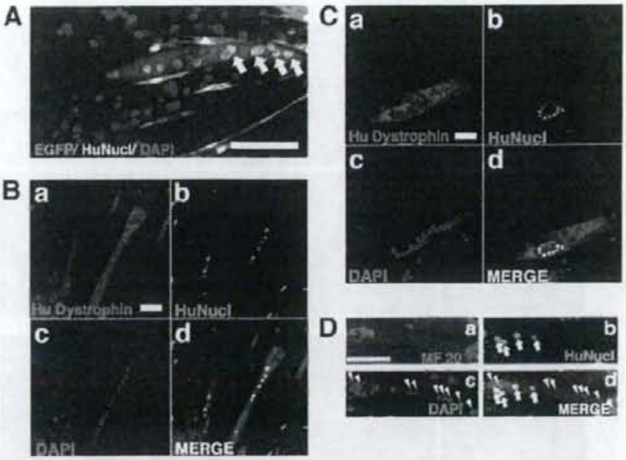

Figure 6. Detection of human endometrial cell contribution to myotubes in an in vitro myogenesis model. EGFP-labeled EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (A) or EM-E6/E7/hTERT-2 cells (B) or menstrual blood–derived cells (C and D) were cocultured with C2C12 myoblasts for 2 d under conditions that favored proliferation.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

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

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

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

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The Significant Cardiomyogenic Potential of Human Umbilical Cord Blood-Derived Mesenchymal Stem Cells In Vitro

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Key Words. Physiology • Transplantation • Action potentials • Cells • Heart failure

ABSTRACT

We tested the cardiomyogenic potential of the human umbilical cord blood-derived mesenchymal stem cells (UCBMSCs). Both the number and function of stem cells may be depressed in senile patients with severe coronary risk factors. Therefore, stem cells obtained from such patients may not function well. For this reason, UCBMSCs are potentially a new cell source for stem cell-based therapy, since such cells can be obtained from younger populations and are being routinely utilized for clinical patients. The human UCBMSCs (5×10^3 per cm^2) were cocultured with fetal murine cardiomyocytes ([CM] 1×10^5 per cm^2). On day 5 of cocultivation, approximately half of the green fluorescent protein (GFP)-labeled UCBMSCs contracted rhythmically and synchronously, suggesting the presence of electrical communication between the UCBMSCs. The fractional shortening of the contracted UCBMSCs was 6.5% ± 0.7% (*n* = 20). The UCBMSC-derived cardiomyocytes stained positive for cardiac troponin-I (clear striation +) and connexin 43 (diffuse dot-like staining at the margin of the cell) by the immunocytochemical method. Cardiac troponin-I positive cardiomyocytes accounted for 45% ± 3% of GFP-labeled UCBMSCs. The cardiomyocyte-specific long action potential duration (186 ± 12 milliseconds) was recorded with a glass microelectrode from the GFP-labeled UCBMSCs. CM were observed in UCBMSCs, which were cocultivated in the same dish with mouse cardiomyocytes separated by a collagen membrane. Cell fusion, therefore, was not a major cause of CM in the UCBMSCs. Approximately half of the human UCBMSCs were successfully transdifferentiated into cardiomyocytes in vitro. UCBMSCs can be a promising cellular source for cardiac stem cell-based therapy. STEM CELLS *2007;25:2017–2024*

Disclosure of potential conflicts of interest is found at the end of this article.

INTRODUCTION

Autologous stem cells are believed to be a potential cellular source for stem cell-based therapy, since they have the ability to proliferate and differentiate into cardiomyocytes [1–4]. Many types of cells, such as embryonic stem cells [5, 6], myoblasts [7, 8], bone marrow hematopoietic cells [9, 10], and mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) [11–13], have been transplanted to restore damaged heart function in animal models. Autologous mononuclear cells [14–17] and myoblasts [18] have been injected into ischemic hearts clinically to improve impaired cardiac function. Despite the dramatic improvement of cardiac function by the stem-cell-based therapy in the animal model [10, 19], only modest effects were observed in the clinical study [14–17, 20]. One of the reasons for this may have been the extremely low rate of cardiomyogenesis of the stem cells in vitro and in vivo [2, 13, 21]. Therefore, the improvement of cardiac function may have been due to grafted stem cell-induced neovascularization [13, 22] and/or the paracrine effect [23]. Another reason may have been the ages and disease histories of the patients. Recent papers have shown that the number and function of the circulating stem cells were depressed in older patients and in patients with diabetes mellitus [24, 25], suggesting that stem cells obtained from patients with coronary risk factors may not function well. This suggests limits to the utilization of autologous stem cells for the ischemic cardiomyopathy patient. On the other hand, in order to do allogenic stem cell transplantation, human leukocyte antigen (HLA)-type matching is very important for the stable survival of grafts. Therefore, the sample, which can be noninvasively collected from many volunteers, is a desirable source of stem cells due to the ease of establishing cell banks that can store all HLA-types.

Recently, umbilical cord blood (UCB) banking for transplantation of hematopoietic stem cells has become popular [26]. If we can utilize UCB for heart failure patients, we can utilize this UCB stem cell bank network system immediately. UCB-derived stem cells may be superior to marrow-derived stem cells because they are obtained from infants. UCB contains circulating stem/progenitor cells, and the cells contained in UCB are

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known to be quite distinct from those contained in bone marrow and adult peripheral blood [27]. UCB transplantation has been reported to improve cardiac function [28–30]. That study, however, used a fraction of hematopoietic lineage and failed to show any clear evidence for cardiomyogenesis in vivo. In the present study, we focus on the mesenchymal lineage of UCB.

Isolation, characterization, and differentiation of clonally expanded umbilical cord blood-derived mesenchymal stem cells (UCBMSCs) have been reported [31, 32]. UCBMSCs have been found to have multipotency, and the immunophenotype of the clonally expanded cells is consistent with that reported for bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells [33, 34]. Kim et al. [35] showed modest but significant functional recovery of impaired cardiac function by transplantation of human unrestricted somatic stem cells obtained from umbilical cord blood that expressed mesenchymal cell surface markers [34]; therefore, mesenchymal lineage of the cells obtained from UCB may have potential therapeutic advantage in cardiac stem cell therapy. However, in vitro [33] and in vivo [34, 35], cardiomyogenic transdifferentiation ability have not yet been extensively studied. In the present study, we find that UCBMSCs have a strong potential for cardiomyogenic transdifferentiation.

Materials and Methods

Isolation and Cell Culture of UCBMSCs

The detailed isolation method has been described previously [33]. A few colonies were found in the culture dish bottom 1 month after the collected cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). One colony was trypsinized using a colony cylinder and then used for the experiment. We designated the monoclonal cell line as UCBMSC. The cells were prepared for infection with recombinant retroviruses expressing the human telomerase reverse transcriptase (TERT), as described previously [2, 33]. Stably transduced cells with an expanded life span were designated UCBMSC-TERT. The cells were cultured for further experiments under the approval of the Ethics Committee of our institute.

Preparation of Murine Fetal Cardiomyocytes

Fetal cardiomyocytes were obtained from the hearts of day 17 mouse fetuses [2]. Hearts were minced with scissors and washed with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and the minced hearts were incubated in PBS with 0.05% trypsin and 0.25 mM EDTA (ethylenediamine-*N,N,N′,N′*-tetraacetic acid) (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, http://www.invitrogen.com) for 10 minutes at 37°C. After DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS was added, the cardiomyocytes were centrifuged at 1,000 rpm for 5 minutes. The pellet was then resuspended in 10 ml of DMEM with 10% FBS and incubated on glass dishes for 1 hour to separate the cardiomyocytes from fibroblasts. The floating cardiomyocytes were collected and replated at 1×10^5 per cm^2.

Coculture System of UCBMSCs/UCBMSCs-TERT and Murine Fetal Cardiomyocytes

We employed a coculture system with fetal cardiomyocytes to induce cardiac transdifferentiation, since in vitro simulation of the heart by the environment has been shown to be an efficient means of inducing the transdifferentiation of human marrow-derived MSC [2]. Cryopreserved UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT were used for the experiment. After thawing, the cells were cultured for at least two passages to stabilize the condition of the cell before the cardiomyogenic induction. UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT were labeled with enhanced green fluorescent protein (GFP) by recombinant adenovirus transfection as described previously [2]. These cells were then exposed to 3 μM 5-azacytidine (5-azaC; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, http://www.sigmaaldrich.com) for 24 hours to induce cell transdifferentiation or were left untreated. Then, 5×10^3 per cm^2 of the cells were plated on the murine cardiomyocyte. The images were stored using a digital video system. The cell contraction was analyzed using a homemade image edge detection program made using Igor Pro 4 (WaveMetrics Inc., Portland, OR, http://www.wavemetrics.com). We administered 10 μM caffeine, 10 μM verapamil, or 1 μM thapsigargin to observe contraction of differentiated UCBMSCs.

Immunocytochemistry

A laser confocal microscope (FV1000; Olympus, Tokyo, http://www.olympus-global.com) was used for immunocytochemical analysis. The UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT were stained with mouse monoclonal anti-human cardiac troponin-I antibody (number 4T21 Lot 98/10-T21-C2; HyTest, Turku, Finland, http://www.hytest.fi) diluted 1:300, monoclonal anti-α actinin antibody (Sigma) diluted 1:300, or anti-connexin 43 antibody (Sigma) diluted 1:300. Nuclei were stained with 4′-6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (Wako Chemical, Osaka, Japan, http://www.wako-chem.co.jp/english) at 1:300. tetramethylrhodamine iso-thiocyanate (TRITC)-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (Sigma), TRITC-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (Sigma), and Cy5-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (Chemicon, Temecula, CA, http://www.chemicon.com) were used as secondary antibodies.

Calculation of Induction Rate

After 1 week, UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT cultivated with or without murine fetal cardiomyocytes were detached from the dish by 0.1% trypsin and 0.25 mM EDTA for 5 minutes. The mass of cells obtained was then dissociated by 0.5% collagenase type-II (Worthington Biochemical, Lakewood, NJ, http://www.worthington-biochem.com) and 10 mM 2,3-butanedione monoxime (Sigma)-containing culture medium for 20–60 minutes. The isolated cells were seeded on poly-L-lysine coated dishes and stained. A confocal laser microscope was used to examine the cells. The cardiomyogenic induction rate was calculated as the fraction of human cardiac troponin-I-positive cells in the GFP-positive cells. The rate was calculated as the average from more than 10 separate experiments.

Examination of Chromosomes of UCBMSCs and Murine Cell Chimeras

Chromosomes from UCBMSCs cocultivated with murine cardiomyocyte for 1 week were stained by using a human chromosome-specific probe and a mouse chromosome-specific probe (Chromosome Science Labo, Hokkaido, Japan) and spectral karyotyping with fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) chromosome painting technique (Spectral Imaging, Vista, CA, http://www.spectral-imaging.com), according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Coculture of UCBMSCs-TERT and Murine Fetal Cardiomyocytes Separated by a Collagen Membrane

UCBMSCs-TERT and murine fetal cardiomyocytes were cocultured separately within the same dish. The murine fetal cardiomyocytes were seeded on top of a floating collagen film (CM-6; Koken, Tokyo, http://www.kokenmpc.co.jp/english), and the UCBMSCs-TERT were seeded on the bottom of the film. These two types of cells were, therefore, separated by a high-density atelocollagen film with a thickness of 30–40 μm, as shown in Figure 5E, that is permeable only for small molecules, less than 5,000 molecular weight (MW). After 1 week of cocultivation, the cells were analyzed immunocytochemically.

RNA Extraction and Reverse Transcriptase-Polymerase Chain Reaction

Total RNA was extracted from the UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT with RNeasy (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany, http://www1.qiagen.com). Human cardiac RNA was purchased (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA, http://www.clontech.com). RNA for reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) was converted to cDNA with a first-strand cDNA synthesis kit (GE Healthcare, Bucking-

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hamshire, U.K., http://www.gehealthcare.com) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. RT-PCR was performed by using primers for the following genes: Csx/Nkx-2.5, GATA4; cardiac hormones: human atrial natriuretic peptide (hANP), human brain natriuretic peptide (hBNP); cardiac structural proteins: cardiac troponin-I, cardiac troponin T, myosin heavy chain (MHC), myosin light chain-2a (MLC2a), cardiac-actin; ion channel: hyperpolarization-activated cyclic nucleotide-gated potassium channel 2 (HCN2); and 18s rRNA (18s rRNA was used as an internal control). PCR primers were prepared such that they would amplify the human but not the mouse genes [2] (supplemental online Table 1).

Flow Cytometric Analysis

Cells were detached and stained for 30 minutes at 4°C with primary antibodies and immunofluorescent secondary antibodies. After washing, the cells were analyzed using a FACScan (BD Biosciences, San Diego, http://www.bdbiosciences.com), and the data were analyzed with the CellQuest software (BD Sciences). Antibodies (anti-human CD13, CD14, CD24, CD29, CD31, CD34, CD44, CD45, CD54, CD55, CD59, CDw90, CD105, CD117, CD133, CD140a, CD157, CD164, CD166, Flk-1, SSEA-1, SSEA-3, and SSEA-4) were purchased from Beckman Coulter (Fullerton, CA, http://www.beckmancoulter.com), Immunotech (Luminy, France, http://www.beckmancoulter.com/products/pr_immunology.asp), Cytotech (Hellebaek, Denmark, http://www.cytotech.dk), Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc. (Santa Cruz, CA, http://www.scbt.com), RDI (Concord, MA http://www.researchd.com), and Pharmingen Pharmaceutical Co. (San Diego).

Electrophysiological Experiment

Action potentials (APs) from the spontaneously beating GFP-positive UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT were recorded by use of standard microelectrodes, as described previously [2]. After the APs of the targeted cells were recorded, the dye (Alexa 568) was injected by electrophoresis (-5 nA for 10–20 seconds) to confirm the recorded APs obtained from GFP-positive cells. The extent of dye transfer was monitored under a fluorescent microscope.

RESULTS

Cardiomyogenic Transdifferentiation of UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT

On day 3 after starting the cocultivation, a few GFP-positive UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT started to contract ($n = 68$). On day 7, the beating of the murine cardiomyocytes stopped, whereas approximately half of the GFP-positive UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT beat strongly in a synchronized manner.

Immunocytochemistry revealed that a significant number of UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT expressing GFP were stained positive by the anti-human cardiac troponin-I antibody (Fig. 1A–1E, supplemental online Fig. 1A–1H). A clear striation pattern of cardiac troponin-I staining of UCBMSCs can be observed in higher magnification view (Fig. 1). Interestingly, troponin-I staining and GFP were observed alternately in a striated manner, suggesting that the troponin-I was expressed in the GFP-positive cells (Fig. 1 E). Clear striations were observed with red fluorescence of α-actinin in the differentiated UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT (Fig. 2B, 2H). Arrays of cardiomyocytes can be frequently observed (Fig. 2H). Connexin 43 staining (Fig. 2C, 2I) showed a clear and diffuse pattern around the margin of each GFP-positive cardiomyocyte, suggesting that these human transdifferentiated cardiomyocytes have tight electrical coupling with each other.

We also calculated the percentage of the human cardiac troponin-I-positive cells to determine the cardiomyogenic transdifferentiation rate of UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT. Since there was no essential difference between the UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT, calculated data from both cell types are averaged and shown in Figure 3. Although UCBMSCs without cocultivation did not show any troponin-I expression (Fig. 3H, 3K), 45% ± 3% of UCBMSCs became positive for human cardiac troponin-I antibody as a result of the cocultivation (Fig.

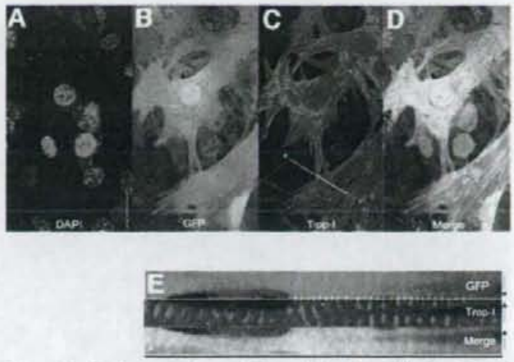

Figure 1. Cardiomyogenic transdifferentiation of umbilical cord blood mesenchymal stem cells. Laser confocal microscopic view of immunocytochemistry of differentiated umbilical cord blood mesenchymal stem cells with anti-cardiac troponin-I antibody. Superimposed images (Merge) of **(A–C)** are shown in **(D)**. Significant numbers of differentiated GFP-positive umbilical cord blood-derived mesenchymal stem cells (green) had troponin-I (red) in their cytoplasm (yellow as a result of "merging" **[D]**). Nuclei are stained with DAPI (**[A]**, blue). Clear troponin-I (red) staining with striation pattern can be observed. GFP (**[B]**, green) and Trop-I (**[C]**, red) along the white line in **(C)** are magnified in panel **(E)**. Interestingly, troponin-I staining and GFP were observed alternately in a striated manner, suggesting the troponin-I expressed in the GFP-positive cells. Scale bars in the figure denote 20 μm. Abbreviations: DAPI, 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole; GFP, green fluorescent protein; Trop-I, troponin-I.

Figure 2. Immunocytochemical analysis of umbilical cord blood mesenchymal stem cell stained with anti-sarcomeric α-actinin and connexin 43. Laser confocal microscopic view of immunocytochemistry of differentiated umbilical cord blood mesenchymal stem cells and cells transduced with human TERT gene to prolong their life span (UCBMSCs-TERT) with anti-sarcomeric α-actinin (**[B, H]**; α-actinin, red) and connexin 43 (**[C, I]**; Cx43, cyan) antibody. Superimposed images (Merge) of **(A–C)** and **(G–I)** are shown in **(D)** and **(J)**, respectively. Clear striation pattern of α-actinin and diffuse Cx43 dot-like staining around the margin of the UCBMSCs were observed. These cells are GFP-positive UCBMSCs (**[E, K]**; GFP, green. Merged images of **[D, E]** and **[J, K]** are **[F]** and **[L]**, respectively). Nuclei are stained with DAPI (**[A, G]**, blue). It is noted that arrays of the UCBMSC-derived cardiomyocytes are sometimes observed **(J)**. Scale bars in the figure denote 50 μm. Abbreviations: DAPI, 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole; GFP, green fluorescent protein; UCBMSCs, umbilical cord blood mesenchymal stem cells; UCBMSCs-TERT, umbilical cord blood mesenchymal stem cells-telomerase reverse transcriptase.

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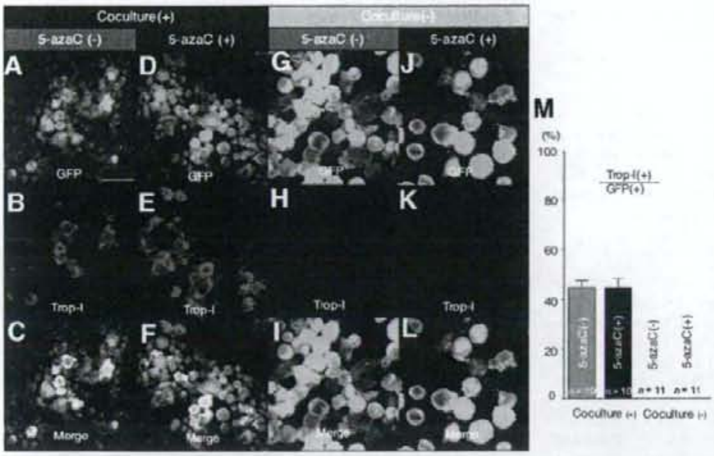

Figure 3. Calculation of cardiomyogenic transdifferentiation ratio of umbilical cord blood mesenchymal stem cells (UCBMSCs). **(A–L):** Representative laser confocal image of cardiac troponin-I (**[B, E, H, K]**; Trop-I, red) staining to calculate cardiomyogenic transdifferentiation rate of UCBMSCs. Upper bar denotes the culture conditions for each panel presented bellow. (Coculture; cocultivation with fetal murine cardiomyocyte. 5-azaC; pretreatment with 5-azacytidine.) Approximately half of the isolated GFP-positive UCBMSCs (**[A, D]**; GFP, green) stained positive for Trop-I **(B, E)** as a result of coculture. A superimposed image of **(A)** + **(B)** and **(D)** + **(E)** are shown in **(C)** and **(F)**, respectively. On the other hand, UCBMSCs **(G, J)** do not show any Trop-I staining **(H, K)**. Scale bars in the figure denote 50 μm. The cardiomyogenic transdifferentiation rate of UCBMSCs was defined as the percentage of Trop-I-positive cells in the GFP-positive cells. Measured data were averaged and are shown **(M)**. Error bars denote SEM (n = 20). Abbreviations: 5-azaC, 5-azacytidine; GFP, green fluorescent protein; Trop-I, troponin-I.

3B, 3E). It is noted that cardiomyogenic transdifferentiation could be observed in the cocultivated UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT without any 5-azaC pretreatment.

Cell Fusion-Independent Cardiomyogenic Transdifferentiation

Cell fusion has been shown to be quite a rare phenomenon [4, 36]; however, it may contribute to the generation of cardiomyocytes in our system. Nuclear fusion between the cocultivated UCBMSCs-TERT and fetal murine cardiomyocytes was observed in only approximately 0.09% (2/2165) of the cocultivated cells by FISH analysis (Fig. 4A–4D). In the differentiated cardiomyocyte, there is no cell having double nuclei in the isolated GFP-positive UCBMSCs. Furthermore, in cocultures of UCBMSCs-TERT with fetal murine cardiomyocytes separated by a collagen membrane (Fig. 4E), we observed beating GFP-positive cells and human cardiac troponin-I expression (Fig. 4F–4L) (n = 8). Because these two cell types were not attached directly to each other, it was concluded that the cardiomyogenesis in the present study was mainly caused by the transdifferentiation of the UCBMSCs.

Expression of Cardiomyocyte-Specific Genes and Surface Markers of UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT

We analyzed the cocultured UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT in terms of gene expression and by immunocytochemistry and electrical recording. RT-PCR was performed with primers that hybridized with human cardiomyocyte-specific genes but not with the murine orthologues (second column from the right, Fig. 5A). Differentiated UCBMSCs-TERT expressed Csx/Nkx-2.5, GATA4, hANP, hBNP, cardiac-actin, MHC, MLC2a, cardiac troponin T, cardiac troponin-I, and HCN2. Interestingly, all of the analyzed genes except for the MHC and MLC2a were expressed in UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT before the induction, implying that UCBMSCs may have cardiomyogenic potential as a default state, like CMG cells, in which Csx/Nkx-2.5 and GATA4 are constitutively expressed before induction [3]. Sequence analysis revealed that the sequences of the cDNAs matched those of the human genes.

Surface markers of the UCBMSCs-TERT were evaluated by flow cytometric analysis. The results showed that all of the

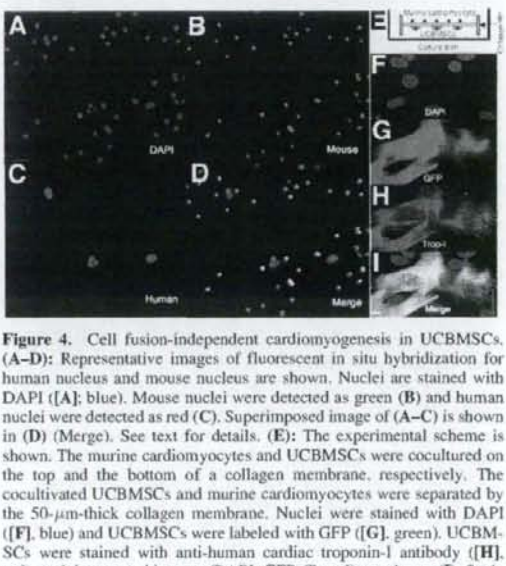

Figure 4. Cell fusion-independent cardiomyogenesis in UCBMSCs. **(A–D):** Representative images of fluorescent in situ hybridization for human nucleus and mouse nucleus are shown. Nuclei are stained with DAPI (**[A]**; blue). Mouse nuclei were detected as green **(B)** and human nuclei were detected as red **(C)**. Superimposed image of **(A–C)** is shown in **(D)** (Merge). See text for details. **(E):** The experimental scheme is shown. The murine cardiomyocytes and UCBMSCs were cocultured on the top and the bottom of a collagen membrane, respectively. The cocultivated UCBMSCs and murine cardiomyocytes were separated by the 50-μm-thick collagen membrane. Nuclei were stained with DAPI (**[F]**, blue) and UCBMSCs were labeled with GFP (**[G]**, green). UCBMSCs were stained with anti-human cardiac troponin-I antibody (**[H]**, red), and the merged images (DAPI, GFP, Trop-I) are shown **(I)**. Scale bars in the figure denote 20 μm. Abbreviations: DAPI, 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole; GFP, green fluorescent protein; Trop-I, troponin-I; UCBMSCs, umbilical cord blood mesenchymal stem cells.

UCBMSCs-TERT were positive for CD29 (integrin β1), CD44 (Pgp-1/ly-24), CD54, CD55, CD59, CDw90, CD105, CD157, CD164, CD166, and SSEA-4 and negative for CD14 (a marker for macrophage and dendritic cells), CD31 (platelet endothelial cell adhesion molecule-1), CD34, CD45 (leukocyte common antigen), CD117 (c-kit), CD133, CD140a, Flk-1, SSEA-1, and SSEA-3 (Fig. 5B). Our UCBMSCs are negative for CD34, CD45, Flk-1, and CD133, thus differing from hematopoietic stem cell and from circulating endothelial progenitor cells. It is noted that our UCBMSCs are weakly positive for SSEA4 [37], an embryonic stem cell marker. Thus, UCBMSCs may be more plastic for transdifferentiation than other somatic stem cells.

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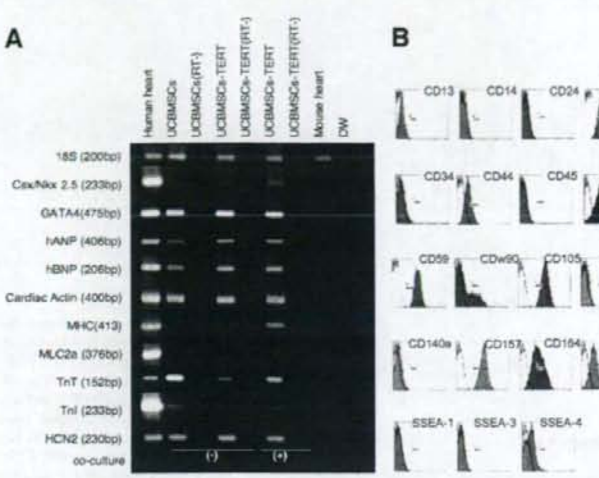

Figure 5. Expression of cardiomyocyte-specific genes in UCBMSCs and cell surface markers of UCBMSCs. **(A):** Expression of cardiomyocyte-specific genes in UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT. Reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was performed with PCR primers with specificity for human genes encoding cardiac proteins but not for the corresponding murine genes. Only the 18S PCR primer used as a positive control reacted with both the human and murine genes. Human heart and mouse heart were used as a positive control and negative control, respectively. Almost all human cardiac genes were constitutively expressed in the default state. **(B):** Flow cytometric analysis of UCBMSCs with fluorescein isothiocyanate-coupled antibodies against the human surface antigens. Abbreviations: DW, distilled water; hANP, human atrial natriuretic peptide; hBNP, human brain natriuretic peptide; HCN2, hyperpolarization-activated cyclic nucleotide-gated potassium channel 2; MHC, myosin heavy chain; MLC2a, myosin light chain-2a; RT, reverse transcriptase; TnI, cardiac troponin I; TnT, cardiac troponin T; UCBMSCs, umbilical cord blood mesenchymal stem cells; UCBMSCs-TERT, umbilical cord blood mesenchymal stem cells-telomerase reverse transcriptase.

Functional Analysis of Differentiated UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT In Vitro

APs were recorded from spontaneously beating GFP-positive UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT. Alexa 568 was injected into cells via a recording microelectrode to stain the cells and confirm that the APs were generated by GFP-positive UCBMSCs (Fig. 6A, 6C). Since the dye did not diffuse into the murine cardiomyocytes, there were no tight cell-to-cell heterologous connections, that is, gap junctions. In most experiments, Alexa 568 diffused into the GFP-positive adjacent UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT, suggesting that homologous cell-to-cell connections had been established within 1 week after the start of cocultivation. The APs obtained from UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT showed clear cardiomyocyte-specific sustained plateaus. It was, therefore, concluded that they were the APs of cardiomyocytes, not of smooth muscle, nerve cells, or skeletal muscle (Fig. 6B, 6D). The measured parameters of the recorded APs were averaged (Fig. 6E). UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT did not have a marked pacemaker potential and had the character of working cardiomyocytes or ordinary cardiomyocytes. The rhythm of almost all of the UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT had become regular at 1 week. The fractional shortening (% FS) of the UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT was analyzed (Fig. 6F–6I) using a cell edge detection program. The GFP-positive cells contracted simultaneously within the whole visual field, suggesting tight electrical communication. There was no difference of % FS between the UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT. The % FS was augmented significantly by the administration of caffeine and inhibited by the administration of verapamil or thapsigargin (Fig. 7).

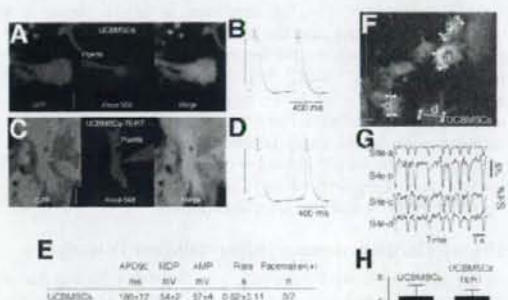

Figure 6. Functional analysis of UCBMSCs and UCBMSCs-TERT. Representative fluorescent microscopic images during action potential (AP) recording are shown **(A, C)**. Immediately after the AP recordings, alexa568 dye (red) was injected into the cell via the same recording electrode to confirm that the recorded AP was obtained from GFP-positive UCBMSCs. **(B, D):** Representative APs obtained from **(A)** and **(C)** respectively. The dotted line denotes the 0 mV level and the vertical line denotes 50 mV. **(E):** The measured AP parameters were averaged and are shown. **(F):** A representative still image from cell motion analysis is shown. The white arrowheads point to the automatically detected cell edge. The detected fractional shortening along the white line obtained from site-a, -b, -c, -d **(G)**. **(H):** The measured % FS was averaged and is shown. Abbreviations: AMP, amplitude; APD, action potential duration; % FS, fractional shortening; GFP, green fluorescent protein; MDP, maximum diastolic potential; ms, milliseconds; s, second; UCBMSCs, umbilical cord blood mesenchymal stem cells; UCBMSCs-TERT, umbilical cord blood mesenchymal stem cells-telomerase reverse transcriptase.

Discussion

Physiologically Functioning Cardiomyocytes Can Be Generated from UCBMSCs In Vitro

Compared with the cardiomyogenic differentiation efficiency of the marrow-derived MSC (0.3%) [2], a significant number of the UCBMSCs transdifferentiated into cardiomyocytes in vitro in the present study. Generated cardiomyocytes showed physiologically functioning ability, that is, cardiomyocyte-specific

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