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中畑龍俊	iPS細胞は長寿へ導く夢のタイムマシーンである（特集02 カラダを再生する画期的な細胞の誕生)	Back Up	30	8-12	2011
中畑龍俊	小児医療をめぐる最先端医学iPS細胞を用いた今後の医療.（特集 小児医療の最先端－これからの新たな展望－)	東京小児科医会報	29 (3)	26-33	2011
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Ⅳ．研究成果の刊行物・印刷物

TABLE 2 Details of response to sequential treatments where applicable ($n = 10$)

No.	Severity of disease	First treatment		Second treatment		Third treatment	
1	Severe	Amlodopine	×	Nifedipine	√	–	–
2	Moderate	Amlodopine	×	GTN	×	–	–
3	Moderate	Amlodopine	×	GTN	×	–	–
4	Severe	Nifedipine	×	Amlodopine	×	–	–
5	Severe	Nifedipine	×	Amlodopine	×	GTN	√
6	Moderate	Nifedipine	×	GTN	×	–	
7	Severe	GTN	×	Amlodopine	×	Nifedipine	√
8	Moderate	Nifedipine	×	GTN	√	–	–
9	Severe	Amlodopine	×	Nifedipine	×	GTN	×
10	Moderate	Amlodopine	√	GTN	√	–	–

×: no response/inadequate response; √: response.

Overall, GTN patches were effective in 55% of the treated patients. Efficacy was better than that of nifedipine and amlodipine (33 *vs* 25% response rate, respectively), but small numbers and retrospective analysis does not allow statistical comparison. Response was similar in primary and secondary RP. Children with severe RP had a better response to nifedipine and amlodopine than children with moderate disease. The sub-group with severe disease was more likely to be using a disease-modifying drug, which may have had an impact. However, numbers are too small for any conclusion to be drawn from this.

Application of GTN patches allows removal if adverse events occur. Together with absence of tablets, this may make treatment with GTN attractive in paediatric practice. All patients received Deponit GTN patches. Alternative brands may not have adequate skin adhesion when cut into quarters for this off-license use.

GTN patches, nifedipine and amlodipine offer symptomatic relief for patients with moderate primary/secondary RP. Further studies, including head-to-head trials, are needed to determine if one agent is superior. Meanwhile, GTN patches offer an alternative to oral calcium channel blockers for symptomatic relief of paediatric RP.

Rheumatology key message

- GTN patches are an efficacious treatment option in paediatric RP.

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A case of early-onset sarcoidosis with a six-base deletion in the *NOD2* gene

SIR, We present the first case of early-onset sarcoidosis (EOS, MIM no. 609464) with a six-base deletion in the *NOD2* gene, resulting in the replacement of one amino acid and the deletion of two additional amino acids. All previous mutations reported for EOS and Blau syndrome (BS, MIM no. 186580) were single-base substitutions that resulted in the replacement of a single amino acid [1–3].

The patient was a Japanese male born after an uncomplicated pregnancy and delivery. His family had no symptoms of skin lesions, arthritis or uveitis. At 5 years of age, he was diagnosed with bilateral severe uveitis. He became blind in both eyes during adolescence. He had swollen ankles without pain during childhood,

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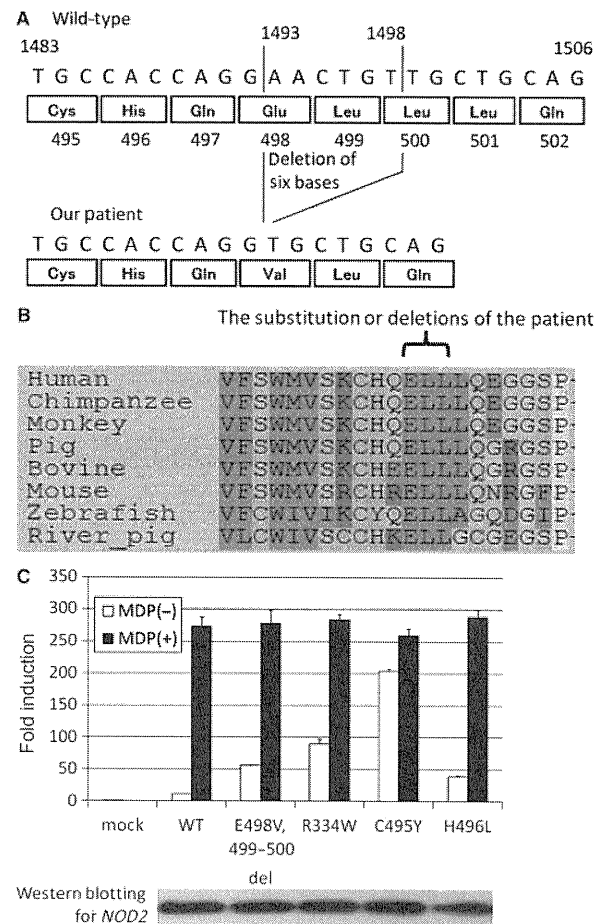
and developed arthritis in his both knees and ankles at 15 years of age. At 30 years, a skin rash had developed on his extremities after his first BCG vaccination. The skin lesions were scaly erythematous plaques with multiple lichenoid papules and some pigmentation. At the same age, camptodactyly without obvious synovial cysts of the hands was observed, and the deformity in all fingers developed by 35 years. At 41 years, he had low-grade fever for 1 year. He had no pulmonary lesions. His laboratory investigations showed normal white blood cell count, mildly elevated CRP (1.0 mg/dl) and ESR (20 mm/h). A skin biopsy from his left forearm revealed non-caseating granulomas without lymphocyte infiltration. There were no indications of infection by *Mycobacterium*.

The clinical symptoms and pathological findings on the biopsied skin indicated that the patient suffered from EOS. It has been reported that EOS and BS have a common genetic aetiology due to mutations in the *NOD2* gene that cause constitutive Nuclear Factor (NF)-κB activation [4, 5]. Thus we analysed the *NOD2* gene from the patient to look for mutations that might correlate with the pathology of EOS. A written informed consent was obtained from the patient and his families, according to the protocol of the institutional review board of Kyoto University Hospital and in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Genomic sequencing analysis of the patient's *NOD2* gene showed the presence of a heterozygous deletion of six bases in exon 4, which resulted in c.1493_1498delAACTGT, p.E498V, 499–500del (Fig. 1A). The mutation was novel and was not identified in 100 normal controls. A genome alignment of *NOD2* among several species showed that E498, L499 and L500 are conserved from zebrafish to human (Fig. 1B). These data strongly suggested that the identified deletion of six bases in the *NOD2* gene is not a single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP), but is probably responsible for EOS in the patient.

Previous studies report that *NOD2* mutations causing EOS/BS show constitutive activation of NF-κB [6–8]. Therefore, we investigated the level of NF-κB activity associated with the new mutation identified here. First, we confirmed the level of mRNA expression of the mutated allele by subcloning analysis of *NOD2*-cDNA, which showed that the mutated allele was expressed as well as the wild type allele (data not shown). We then evaluated the ability of the *NOD2* mutant to constitutively activate NF-κB by using an *in vitro* reporter system in HEK293T cells transfected with both *NOD2* mutants and NF-κB reporter plasmids (Fig. 1C). The deletion mutant demonstrated almost five times more NF-κB activity than wild type without muramyl dipeptide (MDP) stimulation. Western blot analysis confirmed that NOD2 mutant protein expression was similar to that of wild type (Fig. 1C). Thus, like other mutations of *NOD2* identified previously, the deletion mutant identified here also showed constitutive activation of NF-κB.

The mechanism underlying EOS/BS has not been totally understood, although two pathways downstream from *NOD2* have been identified: NF-κB activation through receptor-interacting protein (RIP) like interacting caspase-like apoptosis regulatory protein kinase (RICK) and MAP kinase activation through the caspase recruitment domain 9 (CARD9) [9]. We previously tested 10 *NOD2* missense mutations that have been identified in our cohort of EOS/BS patients in Japan, and all of them demonstrated constitutive activation of NF-κB [3]. By analysing this newly identified deletion mutant, we have further confirmed the importance of constitutive activation of NF-κB by mutated *NOD2* for the pathogenesis of EOS/BS. We would like to emphasize the

Fig. 1 (**A**) Summary of the mutations identified in our patient. (**B**) NOD2 protein alignment among different species on the mutated amino acids. (**C**) NF-κB reporter assay using the *NOD2* deletion mutant. *In vitro* NF-κB reporter assays were performed as previously described [1, 3, 6, 7]. Mock vector, wild type *NOD2* (WT) and three *NOD2* variants (R334W, C495Y, H496L) derived from EOS/BS patients, were used as controls. Values represent the mean of normalized data (mock without MDP = 1) of triplicate cultures, and error bars indicate S.D. Shown is one representative result of three independent experiments. Protein expression levels of *NOD2* mutants analysed by western blotting are shown in the bottom panel.



usefulness of the NF-κB reporter assay with mutant *NOD2* for observing its role in EOS/BS, although the MAP kinase activation pathway and other possible pathways need to be evaluated to more completely understand the pathogenesis of the *NOD2* mutation in EOS/BS.

We have identified the first deletion mutation in the *NOD2* gene responsible for EOS/BS, and the mutant showed constitutive activation of NF-κB, which is one of the key features that lead to the pathogenesis of EOS/BS.

Rheumatology key message

- A six-base deletion in *NOD2* gene causes EOS.

Acknowledgement

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Comment on: Hepatotoxicity rates do not differ in patients with rheumatoid arthritis and psoriasis treated with methotrexate

Sir, We read with interest the recent article by Amital *et al*. [1] that compared hepatotoxicity rates in PsA and RA patients treated with MTX based on the evaluation of standard liver function tests. The authors conclude that the incidence of hepatotoxicity does not differ between the two disease groups after adjusting for the cumulative dose of MTX.

Several studies in MTX-treated psoriasis patients have reported that isolated abnormalities of liver enzymes (i.e. alkaline phosphatase, aspartate aminotransferase and alanine aminotransferase) were poor predictors of the severity of liver histopathology. The authors state that the combined sensitivity of aspartate aminotransferase, alanine aminotransferase and bilirubin for detecting an abnormal liver biopsy has been rated at 0.86 based on a previous study [2]. This figure implies that 14% of those with normal liver function tests will have undetected hepatic disease. Larger studies have suggested that 30–50% of the psoriasis patients on MTX have normal standard liver function test results despite histology showing fibrosis and cirrhosis [3]. The lack of correlation between liver enzymes and hepatic fibrosis and cirrhosis has been the major factor leading to the recommendation that liver biopsies be done to monitor potential hepatotoxicity. In this study, the liver function tests were performed with varying frequency which could allow abnormal liver function tests to be missed. The authors acknowledge that the rates of other hepatotoxic agents such as alcohol use and the occurrence of other hepatic comorbidities were not known. We believe that these are significant confounding variables, which make the interpretation of the results of this study difficult. The British Association of Dermatologists recommends serial monitoring

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Journal of Cellular Physiology

Neutrophil Differentiation From Human-Induced Pluripotent Stem Cells

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Induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells are of potential value not only for regenerative medicine, but also for disease investigation. The present study describes the development of a neutrophil differentiation system from human iPS cells (hiPSCs) and the analysis of neutrophil function and differentiation. The culture system used consisted of the transfer of hiPSCs onto OP9 cells and their culture with vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF). After 10 days, TRA 1-85^{+}CD34^{+}VEGF receptor-2 (VEGFR-2)^{high} cells were sorted and co-cultured with OP9 cells in the presence of hematopoietic cytokines for 30 days. Floating cells were collected and subjected to morphological and functional analysis. These hiPSC-derived neutrophils were similar to peripheral blood mature neutrophils in morphology, contained functional neutrophil specific granules, and were equipped with the basic functions such as phagocytosis, superoxide production, and chemotaxis. In the process of differentiation, myeloid cells appeared sequentially from immature myeloblasts to mature segmented neutrophils. Expression patterns of surface antigen, transcription factors, and granule proteins during differentiation were also similar to those of granulopoiesis in normal bone marrow. In conclusion, differentiation of mature neutrophils from hiPSCs was successfully induced in a similar process to normal granulopoiesis using an OP9 co-culture system. This system may be applied to elucidate the pathogenesis of various hematological diseases that affect neutrophils.

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Neutrophils and/or myeloid differentiation are most commonly affected in various hematological diseases including inherited bone marrow failure syndromes and neutrophil function disorders. Responsible genes have been identified in most of these syndromes or diseases, but the association between the gene mutation and the specific phenotype is not always clear. Moreover, often patients who present with a specific syndrome lack mutations in the known genes (Alter, 2007). Understanding the pathophysiology of these syndromes has been challenging despite the information provided by recent molecular findings, and in many of these syndromes, experimental models have not yet been generated.

Murine models of human congenital and acquired diseases are invaluable for disease investigation, but they provide a limited representation of human pathophysiology because they often do not faithfully mimic human diseases. The differences between murine and human physiologies make human cell culture an essential complement to research with animal models of disease.

Induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells are reprogrammed somatic cells with embryonic stem (ES) cell-like characteristics generated by the introduction of combinations of specific transcription factors (Takahashi and Yamanaka, 2006; Meissner et al., 2007; Okita et al., 2007; Takahashi et al., 2007; Yu et al., 2007; Park et al., 2008b). Given the robustness of the approach, direct reprogramming promises to be a facile source of patient-derived cell lines. Such lines would be immediately valuable not only for regenerative medicine, but for disease investigation and drug screening as well.

The pluripotency and self-renewal potential of ES cells contributes to their value in various fields of science (Evans and Kaufman, 1981). Previous studies using normal or gene-manipulated ES cells have helped elucidate the process of normal embryogenesis and the genetic mechanisms of certain diseases (Lensch and Daley, 2006; Tulpule et al., 2010). Use of human embryos, however, faces ethical controversies that hinder the applications of human ES cells (hESCs). In addition, it is difficult to generate patient- or disease-specific ES cells, which are required for their effective application. The use of iPS cells would avoid the controversies surrounding human embryonic stem cell research.

Patient-specific iPS cells can be used for the generation of disease-corrected, patient-specific cells for cell therapy applications. Disease-specific pluripotent cells capable of differentiation into the various tissues affected in each condition can also provide new insights into disease pathophysiology by permitting analysis in a human system, under controlled conditions in vitro. Recent studies reported the generation of disease-specific iPS cell lines from patients with a variety of diseases (Park et al., 2008a; Raya et al., 2009; Agarwal et al., 2010). Therefore, disease-specific iPS cells are expected to be good models for the investigation of different diseases, and

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effective neutrophil differentiation systems are required to investigate the pathogenesis of various hematological conditions that affect neutrophils using human iPS cells (hiPSCs).

Recent reports describe in vitro culture systems for neutrophil differentiation from hESCs (Choi et al., 2009; Saeki et al., 2009; Yokoyama et al., 2009); however, neutrophil differentiation from hiPSCs has not yet been reported in detail. One of these studies demonstrated that myeloid differentiation could be induced from hiPSCs using the same methodology employed for their differentiation from hESCs (Choi et al., 2009), but the differentiation process and the functions of hiPSC-derived neutrophils were not shown in detail. A system for erythroid differentiation from primate ES and murine iPS cells by co-culture with OP9 stromal cells was developed in previous studies (Umeda et al., 2004; Umeda et al., 2006; Shinoda et al., 2007; Niwa et al., 2009). In the present study, a neutrophil differentiation system from hiPSCs was established by modifying the erythroid differentiation system, and the functions of the hiPSC-derived neutrophils and their differentiation process were analyzed in detail. This system may contribute to the elucidation of the pathogenesis of various blood diseases and the development of novel therapeutic approaches.

Materials and Methods

Maintenance of cells

The human iPS cell lines 201B6, 253G1 and 253G4 were a kind gift from Dr. Yamanaka (Kyoto University, Kyoto), and were generated from human dermal fibroblasts by retrovirus-mediated transfection of four (201B6) or three (253G1 and 253G4) transcription factors (Oct3/4, Sox2, and Klf4, with or without c-Myc) (Takahashi et al., 2007; Nakagawa et al., 2008). The human iPS cell lines and the human ES cell line KhES3-EGFPneo (KhES-3G) were maintained on mitomycin-C (Kyowa Hakko Kirin, Tokyo, Japan) -treated mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) in DMEM/F12 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) supplemented with 20% Knockout™ Serum Replacement (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA), 5 ng/ml basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF; R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN), 1% non-essential amino acids solution (Invitrogen), 5 mM sodium hydroxide solution, 100 μM 2-mercaptethanol, and 2 mM L-glutamine. The culture medium was replaced daily with fresh medium. Colonies were passaged onto new MEFs every 3 or 4 days. The human ES cell line was used in conformity with The Guidelines for Derivation and Utilization of Human Embryonic Stem Cells of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology, Japan. OP9 stromal cells, which were a kind gift from Dr. Kodama (Osaka University, Osaka), were maintained in α-MEM (Invitrogen) supplemented with 20% fetal calf serum (FCS; Biological Industries, Bet Haemek, Israel).

Antibodies

The antibodies used for flow cytometric analysis included fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-conjugated anti-human TRA 1-85 (R&D Systems), CD45 (Becton-Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ) antibodies, phycoerythrin (PE)-conjugated anti-human CD11b, CD34 (Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA), CD13, CD16, CD33 (Becton-Dickinson) antibodies, and allophycocyanin (APC)-conjugated anti-human vascular endothelial growth factor receptor-2 (VEGFR-2) (eBioscience, San Diego, CA) antibody. The primary antibodies used for immunocytochemical analysis included goat anti-human lactoferrin (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA) and rabbit anti-human MMP9 (Abcam, Cambridge, UK). Biotinylated horse anti-goat or anti-rabbit antibodies (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA) were used as secondary antibodies.

Differentiation of iPS cells

Methods used for the initial differentiation of iPS cells and cell sorting were based on earlier reports (Umeda et al., 2004, 2006). Briefly, trypsin-treated undifferentiated iPS cells were transferred onto OP9 cells and cultured with 20 ng/ml vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) (R&D Systems). After 10 days, the induced cells were harvested with cell dissociation buffer (Invitrogen), and sorted TRA 1-85^{+}CD34^{+}VEGFR-2^{high} cells were transferred onto fresh OP9 cells in six-well plates at a concentration of 3×10^3 cells per well. Sorted cells were cultured in α-MEM (Invitrogen) containing 10% FCS (Sigma, St Louis, MO), 50 μM 2-mercaptoethanol, 20 ng/ml interleukin (IL)-3, 100 ng/ml stem cell factor (SCF) (R&D Systems), and 10 ng/ml thrombopoietin (TPO) for 20 days. On day 20 after cell sorting, cytokines were changed into 20 ng/ml IL-3 and 10 ng/ml granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (G-CSF). IL-3, TPO and G-CSF were kindly provided by Kyowa Hakko Kirin.

Flow cytometric analysis and cell sorting

Cells were trypsinized and stained with antibodies. Dead cells were excluded by 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) staining. Samples were analyzed using an LSR flow cytometer and Cell Quest software (Becton Dickinson). Cell sorting was performed using a FACSVantage SE flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson).

Cytostaining

Floating cells were centrifuged onto glass slides using a Shandon Cytospin® 4 Cytocentrifuge (Thermo, Pittsburgh, PA), and analyzed by microscopy after May–Giemsa, myeloperoxidase (MPO), or alkaline-phosphatase staining. Sequential morphological analysis was performed as follows: all adherent cells including OP9 cells were trypsinized, harvested, and incubated in a new tissue-culture dish (Becton-Dickinson) for 1 h to eliminate adherent OP9 cells (Suwabe et al., 1998). Floating cells were then collected, centrifuged onto glass slides, and analyzed by microscopy after May–Giemsa staining. For immunocytochemical analysis, cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA), immersed in citrate buffer, and autoclaved for 5 min at 121°C for antigen retrieval (Toda et al., 1999). The slides were then incubated with primary antibodies followed by application of the streptavidinbiotin complex immunoperoxidase technique with diaminobenzidine as chromogen, and nuclei were counterstained with hematoxylin.

Electron microscopy

Cells were fixed in 2% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (PB) for at least 2 h, and then postfixed in 1% osmium tetroxide in 0.1 M PB for 1.5 h. After fixation, samples were dehydrated in a graded ethanol series, cleared with propylene oxide, and embedded in Epon. Thin sections of cured samples were stained with uranyl acetate and Reynolds lead citrate. The sections were inspected using a transmission electron microscope, H7650 (Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan).

Chemotaxis assay

Chemotactic ability was determined using a modified Boyden chamber method (Boyden, 1962; Harvath et al., 1980). Briefly, 500 μl of the reaction medium (Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS) containing 2.5% FCS) with or without 10 nM formyl-Met-Leu-Phe (fMLP; Sigma-Aldrich) was placed into each well of a 24-well plate, and the cell culture insert (3.0-μm pores; Becton Dickinson) was gently placed into each well to divide the well into upper and lower sections. Floating cells were suspended in the reaction medium at 7.0×10^4/ml, and a 500-μl cell suspension was added to the upper well, allowing the cells to migrate from the upper to the lower side of the membrane for 4 h at 37°C. After incubation, cells in the lower chamber were collected and counted using an LSR flow cytometer. Cells were counted by flow cytometry as follows:

equivalent amounts of counting beads were added to each sample and counted until the bead count reached 10,000.

MPO activity assay

The EnzChek Myeloperoxidase (MPO) Activity Assay Kit (Molecular Probes, Leiden, The Netherlands) was used for rapid and sensitive determination of MPO chlorination activity in cell lysates. The procedure was performed following the manufacturer's instructions. Cell lysate samples were prepared from 1×10^4 floating cells by freeze-thaw cycles. Fluorescence was measured with a fluorescence microplate reader (Wallac 1420 ARVO sx; PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA) using fluorescence excitation and emission at 485 and 530 nm, respectively. The background fluorescence measured for each zero-MPO control reaction was subtracted from each fluorescence measurement before plotting.

DHR assay

Neutrophil production of reactive oxygen species was detected by flow cytometry using dihydrorhodamine123 (DHR) as described previously (Vowells et al., 1995). Briefly, 3.5×10^4 floating cells were suspended in 100 μl of the reaction buffer (HBSS containing 0.1% FCS and 5 mM glucose) per tube, and two tubes were prepared for each sample. Catalase (Sigma-Aldrich) at a final concentration of 1000 U/ml and DHR at a final concentration of 1.0×10^5 nM were added and incubated for 5 min in a 37°C shaking water bath. After incubation, phorbol myristate acetate (PMA; Sigma-Aldrich) at a final concentration of 400 ng/ml was added to one of the two tubes and tubes were returned to the water bath for an additional 15 min. Following incubation, rhodamine fluorescence from the oxidized DHR was detected using an LSR flow cytometer.

Phagocytosis and detection of reactive oxygen species

Phagocytosis and neutrophil production of reactive oxygen species was detected by chemiluminescent microspheres (luminol-binding carboxyl hydrophilic microspheres; TORAY, Tokyo, Japan) as described previously (Uchida et al., 1985). Briefly, 2×10^4 floating cells were suspended in 50 μl of the reaction buffer (HBSS containing 20 mM N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-N′-2-ethanesulfonic acid (HEPES)) per tube. To activate the system, 5 μl of chemiluminescent microspheres was added, and light emission was recorded continuously. During the measurement, samples were kept at 37°C. To inhibit the phagocytosis, 1.75 μg of cytochalasin B (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to the sample. Chemiluminescence from the microspheres was detected using a luminometer (TD-20/20; Turner Designs, Sunnyvale, CA).

RNA extraction and RT-PCR analysis

RNA samples were prepared using silica gel membrane-based spin-columns (RNeasy Mini-Kit™, Qiagen, Valencia, CA) and subjected to reverse transcription (RT) with the Ominscript-RT Kit™ (Qiagen). All procedures were performed following the manufacturer's instructions. For reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR), yields were adjusted by dilution to produce equal amounts of the human glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) amplicon. The complementary DNA (cDNA) templates were initially denatured at 94°C for 5 min, followed by 30–40 amplification reactions consisting of 94°C for 15–30 sec (denaturing), 55–63°C for 15–30 sec (annealing), and 72°C for 30–60 sec (extension), with a final extension at 72°C for 7 min. The oligonucleotide primers were as follows: NANOG, 5′-CAG CCC TGA TTC TTC CAC CAG TCC C-3′ and 5′-TGG AAG GTT CCC AGT CGG GTT CAC C-3′ (Takahashi et al., 2007); human GAPDH, 5′-CAC CAG GGC TGC TTT TAA CTC TG-3′ and 5′-ATG GTT CAC ACC CAT GAC GAA C-3′ (Umeda et al., 2006); PU.1, 5′-CTG CAT TGG CCC CCA CCG AG-3′ and 5′-AGG TCT TCT GAT GGC TGA GGG GG-3′; C/EBPα, 5′-TAA CCT TGT GCC TTG GAA ATG CAA AC-3′ and 5′- ATG TTT CCA CCC CTT TCT AAG GAC A-3′ (Duan and Horwitz, 2003); C/EBPε, 5′- AGT CTG GGG AAG AGC AGC TTC-3′ and 5′- ACA GTG TGC CAC TTG GTA CTG-3′ (Mori et al., 2009); MPO, 5′-TGA GGA CGG CTT CTC TCT TC-3′ and 5′-CCC GGT AAG TGA TGA TCT GG-3′; Lactoferrin, 5′-AGC TGG CAG ACT TTG CGC T-3′ and 5′-TTC AGA TTA GTA ATG CCT GCG ACA TAC-3′ (Kholodnyuk et al., 2006); Gelatinase (MMP-9), 5′-GCC TCC AAC CAC CAC CAC AC-3′ and 5′-GCC CAG CCC ACC TCC ACT C-3′ (Sugimoto et al., 2001); mouse GAPDH, 5′-ACG GCC GCA TCT TCT TGT GCA-3′ and 5′-CAC CCT TCA AGT GGG CCC CG-3′. PCR amplification reaction cycles were performed in the linear range for each primer by carrying out primer titrations. The number of reaction cycles per sample were: NANOG, 35 cycles; human GAPDH, 30 cycles; PU.1, 40 cycles; C/EBPα, 40 cycles; C/EBPε, 40 cycles; MPO, 35 cycles; Lactoferrin, 35 cycles; Gelatinase (MMP-9), 40 cycles; mouse GAPDH, 30 cycles.

Statistics

Statistical analyses were conducted using the Student's *t*-test. Statistical significance was defined as $P < 0.05$.

Results

Neutrophil differentiation from hiPSCs in co-culture with OP9 stromal cells

A culture system for the induction of erythroid cell differentiation from primate ES and murine iPS cells by co-culture with OP9 stromal cells (Umeda et al., 2004; Umeda et al., 2006; Shinoda et al., 2007; Niwa et al., 2009) was established, and this system was applied for neutrophil differentiation from hiPSCs. Prior data in primate ES cells suggested that the VEGFR-2^{high} fraction of differentiated cells contained hemangioblasts and VEGFR-2^{high}CD34^+ cells had more hematopoietic potential (Umeda et al., 2006). Therefore, the expression of VEGFR-2 and CD34 was examined using three human iPS cell lines (201B6, 253G1, 253G4) and one ES cell line (KhES-3G). After 10 days of co-culture with OP9 in the presence of 20 ng/ml VEGF, VEGFR-2^{high}CD34^+ cells appeared from all hiPSC lines in a similar manner to the ES cell line (Fig. 1A). Among these three human iPS cell lines, the highest percentage of VEGFR-2^{high}CD34^+ cells was detected in 253G4 (Fig. 1B), and the data on this cell line is therefore presented below.

The VEGFR-2^{high}CD34^+ cell fraction was sorted (Fig. 1C) and 1.1×10^4 (range; $0.6–2.2 \times 10^4$ in 14 independent cultures) VEGFR-2^{high}CD34^+ cells were grown in one 10-cm dish containing hiPSCs. They were then transferred onto fresh OP9 cells and cultured in the presence of hematopoietic cytokines. Around 10 days after cell sorting (day10 + 10), small, round cell colonies appeared (Fig. 1D), and these colonies gradually grew in both size and number (Fig. 1E). At the same time, floating cells also appeared, and the average number of floating cells from 1×10^4 sorted VEGFR-2^{high}CD34^+ cells at 30 days after cell sorting (day10 + 30) was 4.1×10^4 (range; $0.2–9.9 \times 10^4$ in 11 independent cultures).

May–Giemsa staining of the floating cells on day 10 + 30 revealed that 38.0 ± 1.6% of the cells were stab and segmented neutrophils (Fig. 1F), which were positive for MPO (Fig. 1G) and neutrophil alkaline-phosphatase (Fig. 1H). The rest were mainly immature myeloid cells and a small number of macrophages, and cells of other lineages, such as erythroid or lymphoid cells, were not observed. The frequency of MPO- and neutrophil alkaline-phosphatase-positive cells is shown in Table 1. The results were consistent with the morphological features revealed by May–Giemsa staining.

Surface marker analysis revealed that these floating cells were positive for CD45 and CD11b, and partially positive for CD13, CD33, and CD16 (Fig. 1I). The expression pattern of these surface markers was similar to that of neutrophils or immature myeloid cells in healthy bone marrow (van Lochem et al., 2004), although the CD16 expression level was lower.

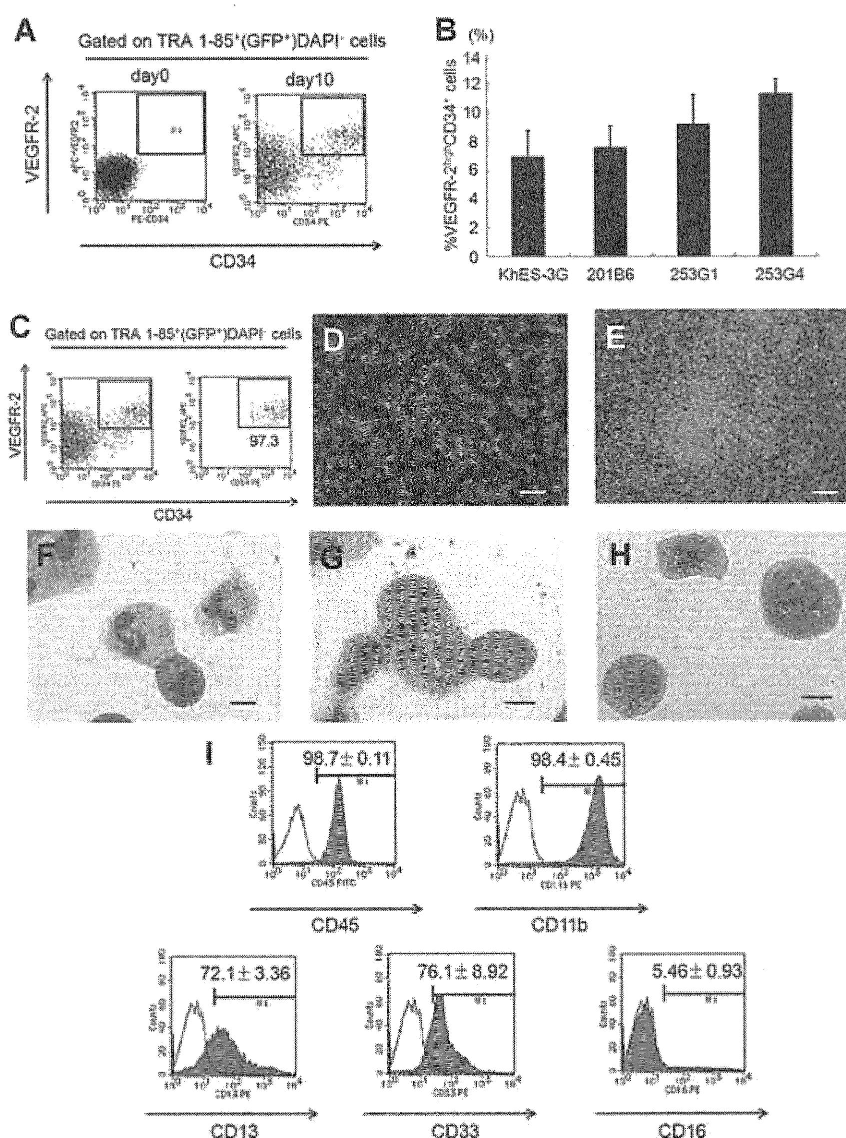

Fig. 1. Neutrophil differentiation from hiPSCs in co-culture with OP9 stromal cells. (A–B) Flow cytometric analysis of VEGFR-2 and CD34 during differentiation induction. TRA 1-85$^+$ (GFP$^+$) DAPI$^-$ cells were gated as human iPS (ES) cell-derived viable cells. Undifferentiated iPS (ES) cells and 10-day culture cells were stained with antibodies specific for VEGFR-2 and CD34. Representative results from one of three independent experiments (A) and percentages of VEGFR-2^{high}CD34$^+$ cells on day 10 (B) are shown (n = 3; bars represent SDs). (C) VEGFR-2^{high}CD34$^+$ cells were sorted on day 10. Representative dot plots and percentages of gated cells are shown. Purities of viable VEGFR-2^{high}CD34$^+$ cells were calculated at 95.5 ± 1.9% from 14 independent experiments. (D–E) Micrographs of adherent hematopoietic cell clusters generated on day 10 (D) and day 30 (E) after cell sorting. Scale bars: 200 μm. (F–H) May–Giemsa staining (F), myeloperoxidase staining (G), and neutrophil alkaline-phosphatase staining (H) of floating cells on day 10 + 30. Scale bars: 10 μm. (I) Flow cytometric analysis of floating cells on day 10 + 30 were stained with antibodies specific for CD45, CD11b, CD13, CD33, or CD16. Plots show the negative control profile (open bars) versus the specific antibody staining profiles (shaded bars). Representative results from one of three independent experiments are shown. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

TABLE 1. Frequency of staining-positive cells for neutrophil specific granules

Staining	Frequency of positive cells (%)
Myeloperoxidase	93.7 ± 1.7
Neutrophil alkaline-phosphatase	39.0 ± 2.2
Lactoferrin	79.0 ± 1.4
Gelatinase	59.0 ± 3.7

Data are shown as mean ± SD (n = 3 independent experiments).

This lower CD16 expression level was similar to that of neutrophils derived in vitro from bone marrow CD34$^+$ cells by stimulation with G-CSF (Kerst et al., 1993b) and to the effect in vivo when G-CSF is administered to healthy volunteers (Kerst et al., 1993a). These results indicated that the modified OP9 co-culture system could differentiate mature neutrophils from immature hiPSCs.

hiPSC-derived neutrophils contain neutrophil specific granules

Mature neutrophils in vivo have intracellular granules that are important for their bactericidal function. The granules can be