



# **Role of Stem Cell Therapy in Management of Hepatic Pathology**

**Essay**

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**2014**

# Acknowledgment

**First of all, I thank ALLAH, for all his blesses, and givens.**

I would like to express my profound gratitude and my great respect to **Prof.Dr. Sameh Abdel Hay Abdel Hameed**, professor of Pediatric surgery, for his kind unlimited help, guidance and valuable advice in achievement of this essay. I express my deep appreciation for encouragement throughout this work.

I would like to thank to **Prof.Dr. Tawhida Yasin Abd Elghaffar**, Professor of Pediatrics, for her endless flow of advice, appreciable guidance, and continuous support throughout this work.

Words could not express my thanks to **Dr. Khaled Mohamed El-Asmar**, Lecturer of Pediatric surgery, for his illuminating discussion, kind cooperation, helpful direction and continuous effort and endless support.

I would also like to express my deep gratitude for my lovely wife and parents for their continuous love and care.

Finally, I would like to thank everyone who helped me during this essay.

*Sherif Mamdouh, 2014*

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# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<b>3D</b>	3 dimensional
<b>ASCs</b>	Adult stem cells
<b>AT-MSC</b>	Adipose tissue derived mesenchymal stem cells
<b>BM</b>	Bone marrow
<b>BMSCs</b>	Bone marrow stem cells
<b>CCL4</b>	Carbon tetrachloride
<b>CK</b>	Cytokeratin
<b>CTP</b>	Child Turcotte Pugh
<b>EB</b>	Embryoid bodies
<b>ECs</b>	Embryonic cells
<b>EMT</b>	Epithelial mesenchymal transformation
<b>EpCAM</b>	Epithelial cell adhesion molecule
<b>ESCs</b>	Embryonic stem cells
<b>ESLV</b>	End stage liver disease
<b>FSCs</b>	Fetal stem cells
<b>FVII</b>	Factor 8
<b>G-CSF</b>	Granulocyte colony stimulating factor
<b>GFP</b>	Green fluorescence protein
<b>GVHD</b>	Graft vs. host disease
<b>hBTSCs</b>	Human billiary tree stem cells
<b>HBV</b>	Hepatitis B virus
<b>HCC</b>	Hepatocellular carcinoma
<b>HGF</b>	Hepatocyte growth factor
<b>hHBs</b>	Human hepatoblasts
<b>hHpSCs</b>	Human hepatocyte stem cells
<b>HLA</b>	Human leucocyte antigen
<b>HSCs</b>	Hematopoietic stem cells
<b>HSCT</b>	Human stem cell therapy
<b>ICM</b>	Inner cell mass
<b>IL 6</b>	Interleukin 6
<b>INR</b>	International normalized ratio

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS. con**

<b>IP</b>	Induced pluripotency
<b>iPSCs</b>	Induced pluripotent stem cells
<b>MELD</b>	Model for end stage liver disease
<b>MHC</b>	Major histocompatibility complex
<b>mRNA</b>	Messenger ribonucleic acid
<b>MSCs</b>	Mesenchymal stem cells
<b>OB</b>	Obliterative bronchiolitis
<b>OLT</b>	Orthotopic liver transplantation
<b>PCR</b>	Polymerase chain reaction
<b>PDSCs</b>	Placenta derived stem cells
<b>Ptc</b>	Patched receptor
<b>PVE</b>	Portal vein embolisation
<b>SCNT</b>	Somatic cell nuclear transfer
<b>SCs</b>	Stem cells
<b>STAT</b>	Signal transducer and activators of transcription
<b>TGF-<math>\beta</math></b>	Transforming growth factor beta
<b>TNF</b>	Tumor necrosis factor
<b>UCB</b>	Umbilical cord blood
<b>UCE</b>	Umbilical cord epithelium
<b>UC-HS</b>	Umbilical cord hematopoietic cells
<b>UC-MS</b>	Umbilical cord mesenchymal cells

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## **INTRODUCTION**

The liver has a remarkable regenerative capacity in response to acute injury. Mature hepatocytes can reenter the cell cycle and undergo several cell divisions to restore the hepatic mass. However, following chronic liver damage, the regenerative ability of hepatocytes is lost. In such conditions, the liver is unable to maintain its functional mass; this is clinically mirrored by the so-called “liver failure.” Currently, orthotopic liver transplantation (OLT) represents the most suitable therapeutic option for patients with advanced liver diseases and hepatic failure. Liver transplantation, however, has the disadvantage of requiring lifelong immunosuppression and follow-up, with 10–15% of patients dying whilst on the waiting list due to the shortage of donated organs. In 2005, only one-third of patients waiting for a liver transplant were transplanted (*UNOS; 2006*). Hence, alternative strategies for the treatment of decompensated liver diseases are needed to be developed (*Forbes; 2008*).

Cell-based therapy has been proposed as a potential alternative to OLT. Cell therapy can be defined as the use of living cells to restore, maintain, or enhance the function of tissues and organs. Cell therapies in hepatology have numerous promising potential advantages when compared to OLT, since transplantable cells can be (1) in vitro expanded and

cryopreserved, abolishing the limit of organ shortage; (2) genetically manipulated, to correct inborn errors of metabolism; (3) cryopreserved for future use; (4) infused without major surgery; (5) obtained from the same patient, avoiding risk of rejection and need for lifelong immunosuppression (*Piscalgia et al; 2008*).

The use of isolated viable cells has emerged as an experimental therapeutic tool in the past years due to progress in cell biology and particularly in techniques for the isolation and culture of cells derived from several organs and tissues (*Jean;2002*).

It has been known for more than 30 years that hepatocytes isolated from a donor liver and infused intraportally in animal models of liver damage can be engrafted into the recipient hepatic parenchyma and express metabolic activity. These results have encouraged clinical trials using hepatocytes transplantation to treat a variety of liver diseases (*Muraca; 2011*). Since the first successful hepatocyte transplantation in a rodent model of Crigler-Najjar syndrome, many preclinical studies and clinical applications of this technique have been made to cure metabolic liver disorders and end-stage liver diseases (*Kung et Forbes; 2009*). In most instances, hepatocyte transplantation has been able to grant a clinical improvement for up to 12 months (*Sancho-Bru*

*et al*; 2009). Despite some encouraging results, the interpretation of these studies is hampered by the limited number and heterogeneity of patients, the lack of controls, the variety in terms of experimental design, outcome parameters, and follow-up duration. The evaluation of the efficacy of hepatocyte transplantation and bioartificial liver support systems is further complicated by the shortage of human hepatocytes. Moreover, primary cultured hepatocytes are hard to expand in vitro and cryopreserved cells are easily damaged during the freezing-thawing procedure.

As a consequence, alternative solutions are being examined in the hepatic cell therapy field. Among these, of particular interest is the so-called “regenerative medicine”, based on the therapeutic potential of stem cells (SCs) (*Piscalgia et al*; 2002).

A growing enthusiasm has greeted the development of stem-cell-based therapies for liver diseases. SCs are undifferentiated cells, able to give rise to diverse mature progenies and to self-renew, through the alternation of symmetrical and asymmetrical divisions. SCs exist in all multicellular organisms and play a central role in tissue genesis, regeneration, and homeostasis, by providing new elements to increase tissue mass during pre- and postnatal growth, and by replacing cell loss due to senescence or damage (*Piscalgia et al*; 2011).

Different types of SCs with hepatic differentiation potential are theoretically eligible for liver cell replacement. These include Embryonic SCs, induced pluripotent SCs, fetal hepatoblasts, annex SCs, and adult SCs, such as Hepatic Progenitor Cells, Hematopoietic SCs, and Mesenchymal SCs. Despite encouraging results in vitro, the use of hepatocyte-like cells derived from these stem/progenitor cell populations is still confined to preclinical studies, given the scarce tissue-specific functionality and, up to now, the lack of evidence of strong liver repopulation levels in animal models. Nowadays, the most promising source for SC-based therapies is represented by the intraportal or intrahepatic infusion of freshly isolated or in vitro expanded HSCs (**Mallet et Gilgenkrantz; 2005**).

The major role for stem cell therapy at the time being is as a bridge to transplantation or as a way of maintaining those patients who are not eligible for OLT. Nonetheless, critical aspects need to be further addressed, including the long-term safety, tolerability, and efficacy of these SC-based treatments, as well as their carcinogenic potential.

## **AIM OF THE WORK**

This essay aims to review the literature about the concept of stem cell based therapy and its possible application in experimental animal and clinical studies in hepatic pathology.

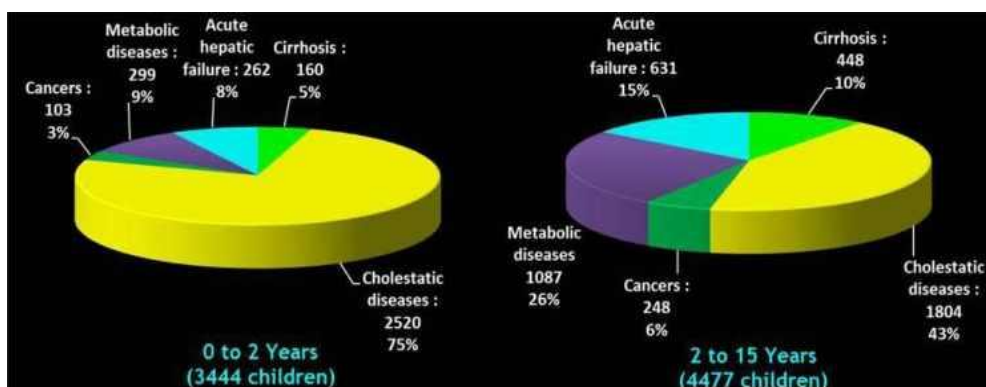
## **LIVER CIRRHOSIS AND LIVER REGENERATION**

### **1.1 LIVER CIRRHOSIS**

Cirrhosis is the final stage attained by various chronic liver diseases after years or decades of slow progression. There are, however, ways to prevent cirrhosis, because the diseases that most commonly lead to it progress slowly, and measures are available to prevent and treat them. Moreover, most cases of hepato- cellular carcinoma (HCC) arise in a cirrhotic liver, so cirrhosis prevention is, in fact, also HCC prevention. The risk of developing HCC depends on the underlying disease: It is low, for example, when the underlying disease is autoimmune hepatitis (2.9% in 10 years), and high when the underlying disease is chronic hepatitis B with a viral burden greater than  $10^7$  copies/mL (19.8% in 13 years). Aside from chronic viral hepatitis, fatty liver disease due to any of the very common underlying disorders (obesity, diabetes, alcohol abuse) commonly progresses to cirrhosis and thus merits both specialized medical treatment and close follow-up by the primary-care physician. (*Chen et al., 2011*).

### **1.1.1 The etiology of cirrhosis**

Cirrhosis can arise in consequence of an exogenous/toxic, infectious, toxic/allergic, immune-pathological/autoimmune, or vascular process or an inborn error of metabolism. The commonest causes of cirrhosis are alcoholic and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and viral hepatitis (B or C). Among these causes, the most common of all in Egypt is viral hepatitis. As for the pediatric age group, the following figure summarizes the most common causes according to European Liver Transplant Registry (1968-2010).



**Figure 1:** Primary indication for liver transplantation in pediatric age group according TR (*Noush D et al ., 2013*)

### **1.1.2 The diagnosis of liver cirrhosis**

Cirrhosis is histologically characterized by fibrous septa between the portal fields; it comes in micro- and macro-nodular forms. The condition is diagnosed by its characteristic

findings on clinical examination, laboratory tests, and ancillary studies.

The typical findings in cirrhosis include • cutaneous signs of liver disease, • a firm liver on palpation, and • certain risk constellations such as:

1. metabolic syndrome
2. Heavy alcohol consumption – exposure to hepatotoxic substances – use of hepatotoxic medications. (*Schuppan and Afdhal, 2008*)

The early signs of cirrhosis in B-ultrasonography include inhomogeneity of the hepatic tissue, irregularity of the hepatic surface, or enlargement of the caudate lobe. Portal hypertension leads to splenomegaly.

In advanced liver disease approaching the stage of cirrhosis, thrombocytopenia is seen, along with impaired hepatic biosynthesis (as shown by, e.g., low concentration of albumin and cholinesterase and an elevation of the international normalized ratio [INR]) and impairment of the detoxifying function of the liver (as shown by, e.g., elevated bilirubin concentration). The transaminase concentrations are generally in the normal range or only mildly elevated. There is no well-defined threshold value of any laboratory test that can be used to determine when screening for cirrhosis should be performed.