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Article in *Recent Patents on Inflammation & Allergy Drug Discovery* · December 2021

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Editorial

Cell-free therapy for inflammatory diseases: Opportunities and challenges

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Word count: 1211 | **Pages:** 7 | **References:** 27 | **Figures:** 2

Running title: Cell-free therapy for inflammatory diseases

Keywords: stem cell therapy; mesenchymal stem cells; cell-free therapy; inflammatory diseases; regenerative medicine; extracellular vesicle

Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) are widely used as a therapeutic agent for managing acute and chronic inflammatory diseases in humans and animals [1,2,3,4]. The immunomodulatory effects of MSCs help regulate inflammation, thereby promoting the repair of damaged tissues [3,4,5]. MSCs are isolated from various fetal and adult tissues like adipose tissue, bone marrow, peripheral blood, umbilical cord blood, placenta, dental pulp, endometrium, and skeletal muscle [6]. It was initially hypothesized that MSCs produce an effect in the injured tissue by differentiating into specialized cells. However, later studies confirmed that only a small proportion of the transplanted cells survive and differentiate in host tissues [5]. The majority of the therapeutic potential exhibited by MSCs is due to the paracrine effect on host cells mediated using cytokines, exosomes, growth factors, and extracellular matrix molecules [4,7]. These mediators promote the repair and regeneration of injured tissues by modulating cell differentiation, angiogenesis, and endogenous cell migration [4]. The therapeutic potential of MSCs (angiogenic, anti-inflammatory, anti-oxidant, and anti-fibrotic activity) are produced by cytokines, chemokines, trophic factors, and EVs [7,8]. However, cell-based therapy is associated with several shortcomings, including a limit on the number of cells that can be administered and their inability to reach target organs [8].

Extracellular vesicle (EV) is the common term used to define all lipid-bilayer bound cell-derived vesicles (Figure 1). The term was first defined by the International Society for Extracellular Vesicles (ISEV). Other terms used to describe EVs are exosomes, prostasomes, ectosomes, microvesicles, and matrix vesicles [9]. According to vesicle morphology (mainly size), EVs are classified into apoptotic bodies (diameters ranging from 800-5000 nm), microvesicles (50-1000 nm), and exosomes (30-150 nm) [10]. The contents of MSC-derived exosomes vary and include growth factors, cytokines, regulatory miRNAs, mRNAs, and signaling lipids [11,12,13]. The content varies depending on the tissue of origin, immediate intercellular neighbors of the MSCs, and can be altered by culturing in a specific microenvironment [11,12]. They also transport genetic materials from MSCs to host cells and are involved in intercellular communication [14]. Exosomes can be considered an attractive alternative to cell therapy due to the flexibility offered by these biological vesicles that allow modifying their cargo [15]. Depending on the therapeutic application, they can be modified to carry specific drugs, RNA, and proteins [10,15]. In addition, the surface receptors of the exosome membrane can be engineered to target specific lesions [15].

Cell-free therapy has great prospects in osteoarthritis management. The paracrine effects of MSC-derived exosomes can promote cartilage regeneration. In addition, the exosomes can also be used as a delivery vehicle for osteoarthritis treatment [16]. Exosome-based therapeutic strategies are being developed for managing acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) associated with Coronavirus disease (COVID-19). This includes using MSCs-secretome, exosomes incorporating specific mRNAs and miRNAs, and exosomes as carriers of drugs [17,18]. Some of these strategies are being evaluated in clinical trials worldwide. MSC-derived extracellular vesicles (MSC-EV) have therapeutic benefits in sepsis and could be considered an alternative to cell-based therapies [19]. MSC-derived exosomes

also possess the ability to home preferentially to inflamed tissues and suppress inflammatory responses [11,14,20].

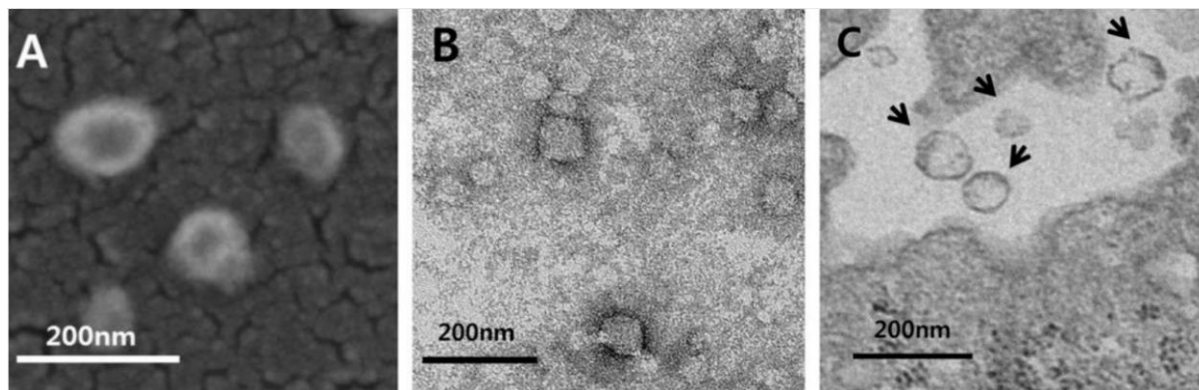


Figure 1: Mesenchymal stem cell (MSC) derived extracellular vesicles (EVs). (A) Scanning electron microscopic image of EVs isolated from the conditioned media of human umbilical cord blood-derived MSC using ultra-centrifugation. (B) Transmission electron microscope (TEM) image of EVs. (C) TEM image of EVs being secreted from an MSC membrane. Reproduced from Sung et al. [21] under Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

Burn injury induces an inflammatory reaction associated with increased TNF- α and IL-1 β levels and decreased IL-10 levels. This can be successfully reversed by administering human umbilical cord MSC-derived exosomes in rats. The higher expression of miR-181c in the exosomes played a pivotal role in reducing burn-induced inflammation by downregulating the Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) signaling pathway [22]. Similarly, umbilical cord MSC-derived exosomes-mimetic nanovesicles were successfully used to attenuate TNF- α -induced inflammation in endothelial cells. In addition, the expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines like TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-6, and IL-8 was reduced [23]. Furthermore, MSC-derived exosome miR-542-3p was found to prevent ischemia-induced glial cell inflammatory response by inhibiting the TLR4 signaling pathway. Therefore, the delivery of miR-542-3p using exosomes might help to treat cerebral ischemic injury [24]. Adipose-derived MSC-secreted exosomes were successfully used to alleviate dextran sulfate sodium-induced acute colitis in mice. MSC-derived exosome can regulate the Regulatory T cells (Tregs) population and decrease inflammatory cytokine production [25]. In addition, adipose-derived MSC-secreted exosomes possess immunomodulatory, proangiogenic, neurotrophic, and epithelization activity that can be used for managing respiratory, cardiovascular, neurodegenerative, inflammatory, and autoimmune diseases [26]. Allergic rhinitis is a type I allergic disease affecting nasal mucosa due to allergen exposure. Bone marrow MSC-derived secretome is a promising treatment for managing allergic rhinitis via the paracrine mechanism [27].

MSC-EVs have several advantages such as high stability, being suitable for long-term storage, superior safety profile, lacks self-replicating capabilities, and ectopic differentiation, lacks tumorigenicity, poorly immunogenic (even in allogeneic application), and absence of pulmonary embolism (Figure 2) [7,19]. Due to the smaller diameter of EVs, the risk of

thrombosis associated with intravenous administration is negligible compared to that posed by stem cells [8]. Although several studies are conducted to evaluate the therapeutic potential of exosomes, no unified standard is available for the standardization and characterization of different exosomes for clinical use [15]. In addition, there is no consensus regarding the markers that can be used to distinguish different categories of EVs secreted from the cells [8,19]. Cell-free therapy is still in its infancy, and therefore relevant medico-legal norms concerning their clinical use are not yet sufficiently established [8]. Further studies are required to optimize the methods for producing MSC-EVs on a large scale, evaluate their half-life and dosage for clinical applications [10,19].

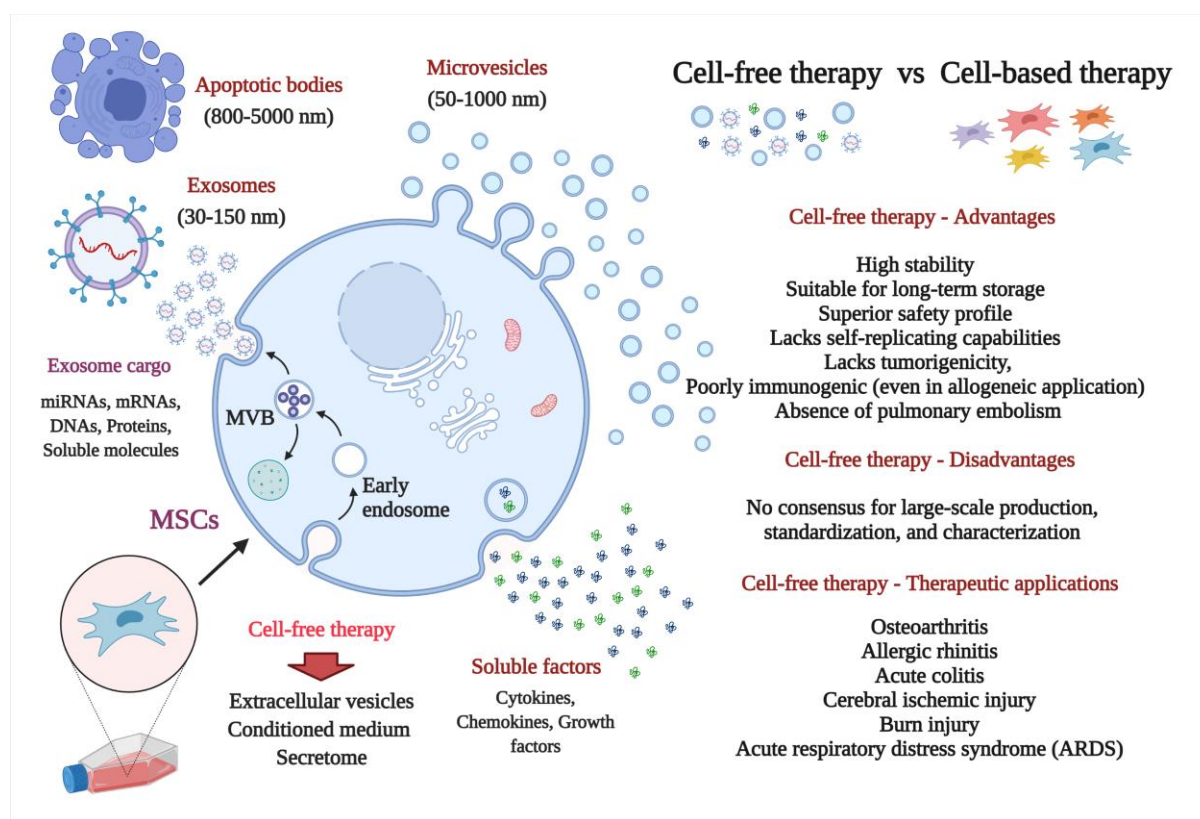


Figure 2: Illustrated the different mesenchymal stem cell (MSC) derived extracellular vesicles and the characteristics of cell-free therapy.

Cell-free therapy is the future of MSCs based therapeutics as it overcomes the major limitations of cell-based therapy, including tumor differentiation and embolization. The future of MSC-based therapeutics is expected to be dominated by MSC-EVs. They are the key messenger between MSCs and damaged tissues and operate similar to MSCs but lack the disadvantages of cell-based therapies. MSC-EVs have broad therapeutic applications in managing inflammatory diseases due to their potential for modulating the immune system and suppress inflammatory responses. However, several challenges are to be addressed concerning the standardization and characterization of different MSC-EVs products. This will ensure the successful translation of MSC-EV-based cell-free therapy in clinical practice.

Acknowledgments: None

Funding: The authors received no funding in relation to this article.

Declaration of Interest: All authors declare that there exist no commercial or financial relationships that could, in any way, lead to a potential conflict of interest.

Author contributions: KS conceptualized the manuscript; KS wrote the first draft with input from KD, KJ, AMP, and Amarpal; all authors contributed to revisions and approved the final manuscript.

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