

Stem cells for the replacement of inner ear neurons and hair cells

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ABSTRACT Stem cells in the nervous system have some capacity to restore damaged tissue. Proliferation of stem cells endows them with self-renewal ability and accounts for *in vitro* formation of neurospheres, clonally derived colonies of floating cells. However, damage to the nervous system is not readily repaired, suggesting that the stem cells do not provide an easily recruited source of cells for regeneration. The vestibular and auditory organs, despite their limited ability to replace damaged cells, appear to contain cells with stem cell properties. These inner ear stem cells, identified by neurosphere formation and by their expression of markers of inner ear progenitors, can differentiate to hair cells and neurons. Differentiated cells obtained from inner ear stem cells expressed sensory neuron markers and, after co-culture with the organ of Corti, grew processes that extended to hair cells. The neurons expressed synaptic vesicle markers at points of contact with hair cells. Exogenous stem cells have also been used for hair cell and neuron replacement. Embryonic stem cells are one potential source of both hair cells and sensory neurons. Neural progenitors made from embryonic stem cells, transplanted into the inner ear of gerbils that had been de-afferented by treatment with a toxin, differentiated into cells that expressed neuronal markers and grew processes both peripherally into the organ of Corti and centrally. The regrowth of these neurons suggests that it may be possible to replace auditory neurons that have degenerated with neurons that restore auditory function by regenerating connections to hair cells.

KEY WORDS: *cell therapy, hearing, guidance, regeneration*

Endogenous stem cells provide regenerative capacity to adult tissues by their ability to continually self-renew and differentiate and these properties allow them to replace cells lost through normal turnover or after tissue damage. A number of studies have demonstrated the occurrence of stem cells in the central nervous system (Doetsch *et al.*, 1999, Gage, 2000, Kondo and Raff, 2000, Lie *et al.*, 2004, Pevny and Rao, 2003, Rietze *et al.*, 2001, Temple, 2001), and, although there is little constitutive turnover, stem cells can be recruited to replace lost neurons (Bauer *et al.*, 2003, Kempermann *et al.*, 2004, Ohori *et al.*, 2006). Neural stem cells are present in the subventricular zone of the lateral ventricles and in the dentate gyrus (Taupin and Gage, 2002, Watts *et al.*, 2005) and have also been demonstrated in the peripheral nervous system (Dromard *et al.*, 2007, Hjerling-Leffler *et al.*, 2005). Progenitors for peripheral neurons arise from the neural crest (Crane and Trainor, 2006, Greenwood *et al.*, 1999, Tomita *et al.*, 2005) and derivatives of the

neural crest that can give rise to autonomic and sensory neurons persist in adult tissues. The existence of stem cells in the peripheral and central nervous systems has been demonstrated by *in vivo* studies using genetic tracers to reveal the origin of differentiated cells and by *in vitro* criteria, such as the expression of markers of stem cells and the capacity to form neurospheres (Reynolds and Weiss, 1992). However, the capacity for regeneration by stem cells in the nervous system is limited, and, therefore, little recovery is seen after damage in the CNS. Even at sites where stem cells that undergo cell division *in vitro* have been identified, regeneration is modest (Kempermann *et al.*, 2004, Taupin and Gage, 2002).

Our aim in this review is to cover the evidence for hair cell and neuronal regeneration in the inner ear both from endogenous stem cells and by transplantation of exogenous stem cells. These are covered in two sections. In the section on endogenous stem cells, we confine our discussion to the generation

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of cells from progenitors and do not include regeneration by division of preexisting hair cells (Sage *et al.*, 2005) or by differentiation of other mature, defined cochlear cells to hair cells (Izumikawa *et al.*, 2005, White *et al.*, 2006). It is possible that these two routes to generation of hair cells – from stem cell progenitors and from other cell types – will turn out to be very similar processes when more has been learned about the identity of the progenitor cells. In the second section on cell transplantation, we look at recent evidence for cell replacement in the cochlea.

Repair of lesioned peripheral nerves can also be accomplished by the regeneration of motor and sensory neuronal processes (Brushart, 1993, Mi *et al.*, 2007). Interactions with extracellular factors from glial cells as well the targets of the growing axon have been shown to have an influence on the regrowth of these processes and formation of new synapses (Fraher, 2000, Harel and Strittmatter, 2006, Hata *et al.*, 2006, Pasterkamp and Verhaagen, 2006).

Formation of inner ear cells from endogenous stem cells

The formation of spheres from individual cells dissociated from the utricular epithelium was used to demonstrate that stem cells were present in the inner ear (Li *et al.*, 2003a). The spheres were clonal (Li *et al.*, 2003a) and differentiated into cell

types corresponding to all three germ layers, endoderm, mesoderm and ectoderm (Li *et al.*, 2003a), indicating that the stem cells were pluripotent (Fig. 1). We generated spheres from cochlear sensory epithelia and spiral ganglia of mice (Oshima *et al.*, 2007). The stem cells in spheres proliferated, as required for self-renewal and they had the capacity to differentiate into neurons and hair cells (Martinez-Monedero *et al.*, 2007, Oshima *et al.*, 2007). The demonstration that inner ear progenitor cells could differentiate into hair cells and neurons *in vitro* raised the possibility that they could be induced to differentiate *in vivo* as the basis for future therapies to replace cells in the inner ear.

The sphere-forming capacity of both cochlear and vestibular organs diminished after the early postnatal period (Oshima *et al.*, 2007), consistent with the idea that the number of stem cells decreased after birth or that they lost their capacity to proliferate. In the vestibular organs, cells that retained the capacity to divide and differentiate into more specialized cells persisted longer than in the cochlea.

A postnatal loss of stem cells has been observed in adult eyes with a similar time frame as the inner ear. Retinal stem cells that give rise to retinal ganglion cells are found postnatally but diminish in number during early postnatal life in the rodent (Reh and Fischer, 2006). In contrast, others have demonstrated the presence of neural progenitor cells in the adult human auditory nerve, with the expression of nestin-positive neural progenitors that divided and expressed markers found in inner ear sensory neurons like TrkB and TrkC (Rask-Andersen *et al.*, 2005). It is possible that some stem cells are left as an animal matures, but that they proliferate less rapidly in the adult.

Despite the pluripotent differentiation potential of these cells, however, recovery doesn't occur to any significant extent after damage to hair cells or neurons in the mammalian cochlea. This is in contrast to adult vestibular organs where some cells with the capacity to divide and differentiate into hair cells are retained (Forge *et al.*, 1993, Warchol *et al.*, 1993). Regeneration of cochlear neurons is not observed after degeneration (Carnicero *et al.*, 2002, Sekiya *et al.*, 2003) and damage to neurons therefore leads to permanent deafness. Even if the cell bodies and central axons survive, loss of hearing can still result from degeneration of peripheral processes (Nadol, 1997). Primary cochlear neuronal degeneration has been described in a variety of pathologies (Starr *et al.*, 1996, Varga *et al.*, 2003) and can occur due to insults to the cochlea, such as exposure to sound pressure levels that do not cause hair cell loss (Kujawa and Liberman, 2006).

Secondary degeneration commonly follows sen-

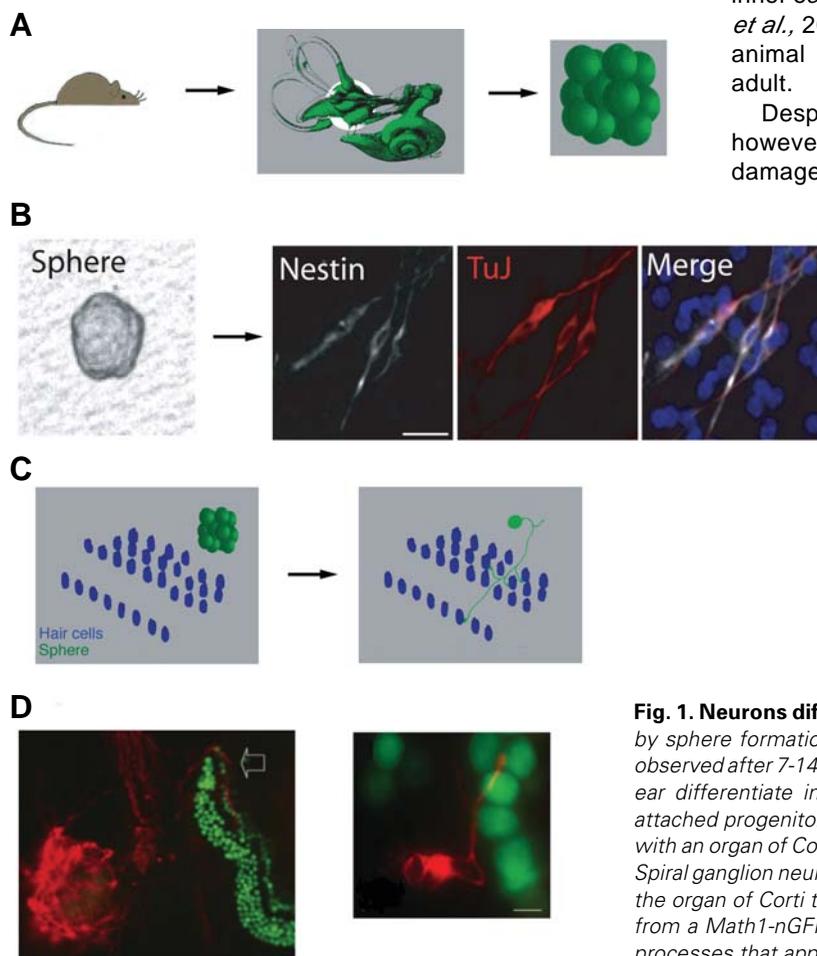


Fig. 1. Neurons differentiated from inner ear stem cells. (A) Stem cells isolated by sphere formation from the vestibular organs of a mouse. Clonal spheres are observed after 7–14 days in nonadherent culture. (B) Spheres derived from the inner ear differentiate into nestin and β -III tubulin-positive neurons upon culture as attached progenitor cells in a dish. (C) Schematic of an inner ear sphere in culture with an organ of Corti showing growth of neural processes to contact hair cells. (D) Spiral ganglion neurons (stained for β -III tubulin) placed in culture with an explant of the organ of Corti that had been denervated with β -bungarotoxin (green hair cells from a *Math1-nGFP* mouse). The neurons isolated from a newborn mouse grow processes that appear to be attracted by and form contacts with hair cells.

sory epithelial degeneration and neuronal cell death occurs due to a lack of trophic support (Fritzsche *et al.*, 1997). Disruption of function studies in mice have shown that survival of spiral ganglion neurons is dependent on a number of genes such as the neurotrophins (Ernfors *et al.*, 1995, Hossain *et al.*, 2002), components of the erbB pathway (Stankovic *et al.*, 2004) and cAMP-dependent protein kinase (Bok *et al.*, 2003). Protection of auditory neurons by a variety of interventions has been demonstrated and neurotrophins have been shown to augment neuronal survival in the ear (Miller *et al.*, 1997, Wise *et al.*, 2005).

Although the neurons do not regenerate once they are lost, spiral ganglion neurons have been shown to regrow fibers to varying extents after damage in different animal models. Several studies suggested that the endings reconnected to hair cells (Puel *et al.*, 1997, Sekiya *et al.*, 2003) and that these new connections were functional (Puel *et al.*, 1997). Experimental sectioning of the auditory nerve in mice led to extensive regrowth of fibers into the cochlea (Sugawara *et al.*, 2005). However, in humans, the extent of regrowth does not appear to be clinically significant (Nadol, 1997). Regrowth of these processes may be increased by NT-3 and BDNF, which were reported to increase peripheral connections in guinea pigs, even when administered 33 days after kanamycin treatment to damage neurons and hair cells (Wise *et al.*, 2005).

The existence of endogenous stem cells in the mammalian cochlea opens the door to new approaches to repair of a damaged cochlea by cell proliferation and differentiation. A potential new approach could be envisaged if the pluripotency of these progenitor cells could be harnessed. Stem cells or cells with stem cell-like properties might be directed toward a hair cell phenotype or a neuronal phenotype to replace degenerated neurons and hair cells and restore function to the inner ear.

Characterization of the differentiation capacity of inner ear stem cells revealed that proliferating cells that were positive for BrdU staining expressed neural stem cell markers, *Musashi* and *nestin* and embryonic stem cell markers (Ivanova *et al.*, 2006), *Sox2*, *Tbx3* and *Tcl1* (Martinez-Monedero *et al.*, 2007). These cells could be obtained from cochlear and vestibular organs and gave rise to hair cells, based on marker identification and on electrophysiology that demonstrated the current-voltage relationships of an E16 utricular hair cell (Oshima *et al.*, 2007). The presence of inner ear cells that could give rise to hair cells has been demonstrated from neonatal mouse and rat cochlea (Doetzlhofer *et al.*, 2004, Malgrange *et al.*, 2002, White *et al.*, 2006, Yerukhimovich *et al.*, 2007, Zhai *et al.*, 2005) and supporting cells can act as progenitors of hair cells *in vitro* during this early postnatal period (Doetzlhofer *et al.*, 2004, Malgrange *et al.*, 2002, White *et al.*, 2006). Inner ear hair cells produced from a cochlear cell line showed a response to mechanical vibrations (Liu *et al.*, 2006).

These progenitors had the capacity to give rise to a broad array of neuronal types. Thus, the stem cells could be converted to dopamine neurons, cholinergic neurons and serotonergic neurons (Martinez-Monedero *et al.*, 2007). However, the largest number of inner ear stem cell-derived neurons were glutamatergic and had glutamate receptors. These neurons expressed markers of sensory neurons, both immature (*Brn3a*, *Ngn1* and *NeuroD*) and mature (*TrkB*, *TrkC* and

peripherin) and markers of developing auditory neurons like *GATA3*. They also expressed genes associated with the embryonic inner ear like *Pax2* and *Islet1*. Differentiation of these cells as functional neurons was further confirmed by electrophysiological activity (Martinez-Monedero *et al.*, 2007).

Immortalized cochlear cell lines have also been shown to differentiate to cells with many of the characteristics of auditory neurons (Nicholl *et al.*, 2005). These cells may recapitulate the early developmental steps in spiral ganglion formation and can be expanded indefinitely, making them potentially useful for cell transplantation experiments in the inner ear.

The neurons derived by differentiation of inner ear stem cells grew processes that contacted hair cells in an explant of the organ of Corti that had been denervated by β -bungarotoxin (Martinez-Monedero *et al.*, 2007). This was similar to what had been observed previously in this *in vitro* model system using newborn spiral ganglion neurons (Martinez-Monedero *et al.*, 2006) (Fig. 1). Neurons had not been previously shown to regenerate synapses with hair cells, but we found that neurons from spiral ganglia of newborn mice contacted hair cells and expressed synapsin and SV2 at the sites of contact. The formation of new afferent connections is the key step in regeneration of a sensory organ and these new contacts suggested that primary afferent neurons might reform these connections. The new neurons appeared to have some properties of presynaptic neurons during synaptogenesis: the expression of synaptic markers was localized to the neuronal side at the actual contact with the hair cell (Martinez-Monedero *et al.*, 2006). The processes of spiral ganglion neurons that extend to hair cells during development stain for synapsin and synaptophysin (Scarfone *et al.*, 1991) and it is possible that the identity of this peripheral process as a dendrite is only acquired after it forms a connection to the hair cell. Neurite outgrowth has been shown to occur before the identity of axons and dendrites is specified. A single process can then take on an axonal identity and express axonal markers (Jiang *et al.*, 2005, Schwamborn and Puschel, 2004). After making the first contact, hair cell signaling may provide the key to further development of the neuron. The influence of the synaptic contact on further differentiation of the neuron as well as the electrophysiology of the synapses formed by these new processes remain to be studied.

The formation of connections requires that neurons be able to find their targets. The pathfinding ability of the neurons may depend on the recognition of guidance signals by growing axons so that the neural process can respond to cues from hair cells, or these cues could be from glial and other nonneuronal cells that prevent growth to incorrect targets by expression of repulsive guidance cues (Dickson, 2002). Since targeted growth is observed in this system, the importance of a guidance molecule can be determined by the effect of gain or loss-of-function of the candidate gene.

Neuronal replacement will become increasingly important if attempts to regenerate hair cells are successful. Extensions from spiral ganglion neurons have been reported to re-form connections with hair cells that were generated from supporting cells after overexpression of *Math1* using an adenovirus (Kawamoto *et al.*, 2003), suggesting that neural processes may be attracted by the new cells. Excitation of hair cells that had been generated from an otocyst-derived cell line *in vitro* caused

a response in cocultured neurons, indicating regrowth of functional connections to hair cells (Liu *et al.*, 2006).

Regeneration of auditory neurons and hair cells from exogenous stem cells

Attempts to make both auditory neurons and hair cells from mouse ES cells have been reported. Hair cells were obtained from mouse ES cells by addition of EGF, bFGF and IGF-1 (Li *et al.*, 2003b). These cells expressed markers of developing and mature hair cells, *Math1*, *Brn3c* and *myosin VIIa* and had stereociliary bundles that labeled for *espin* and *F-actin*. Sensory neurons or neurons with characteristics of auditory neurons have also been produced from ES cells (Coleman *et al.*, 2007, Corrales *et al.*, 2006). Human ES cells could be converted to progenitors that had the same markers as embryonic precursors of sensory neurons in the neural crest and sensory placodes, and these cells could be differentiated to neurons that had many of the characteristic markers of sensory neurons (Shi *et al.*, 2007).

Hair cells have also been generated by application of growth factors to mesenchymal stem cells from bone marrow, followed by co-culture with the otocyst from chick (Jeon *et al.*, 2007). Expression of *Math1* in the progenitor cells obtained from mesenchymal stem cells resulted in their conversion to hair cells (Jeon *et al.*, 2007). In addition, recent reports have used other adult stem cells as a source of hair cells. Expression of hair cell markers was reported after co-culture of olfactory progenitors with supernatants from cochlear cultures (Doyle *et al.*, 2007).

Bone marrow stem cells have been used to generate neurons with many of the characteristics of auditory afferent neurons (Kondo *et al.*, 2005). The neurons expressed transcription factors of sensory neurons, *GATA3* and *Sox10*, as well as AMPA receptors after treatment with retinoic acid and sonic hedgehog. The sensory neuron marker, *Brn3a*, was detected only after the neurons were cultured with a conditioned medium from E10 hindbrain/somite/otocyst, and these neurons extended processes in the direction of hair cells.

Exogenous stem cells have been used in attempts to replace degenerated auditory nerve. We found that progenitor cells derived from exogenous stem cells were effective in replacing the spiral ganglion neurons in an animal model of primary neuronal degeneration (Fig. 2) and that these neurons grew fibers into the organ of Corti where they appeared to contact hair cells (Corrales *et al.*, 2006). The cell bodies of the engrafted neurons were within the track normally occupied by spiral ganglion axons and extended their processes both centrally and peripherally. The peripheral fibers grew in an apical direction in the nerve trunk and in fasciculating bundles of neurites that left the cochlear axis in a radial direction to Rosenthal's canal and through the osseous spiral lamina into the organ of Corti. The fibers thus grew peripherally from an ectopic location (the cochlear nerve trunk) to the site of the original cell bodies and from there to the hair cells and central fibers grew into the brainstem (Shi *et al.*, 2007). Whether these neurons could restore function was not established.

Neurites from dorsal root ganglion cells transplanted into rats did not grow toward sensory cells (Hu *et al.*, 2005a) and no

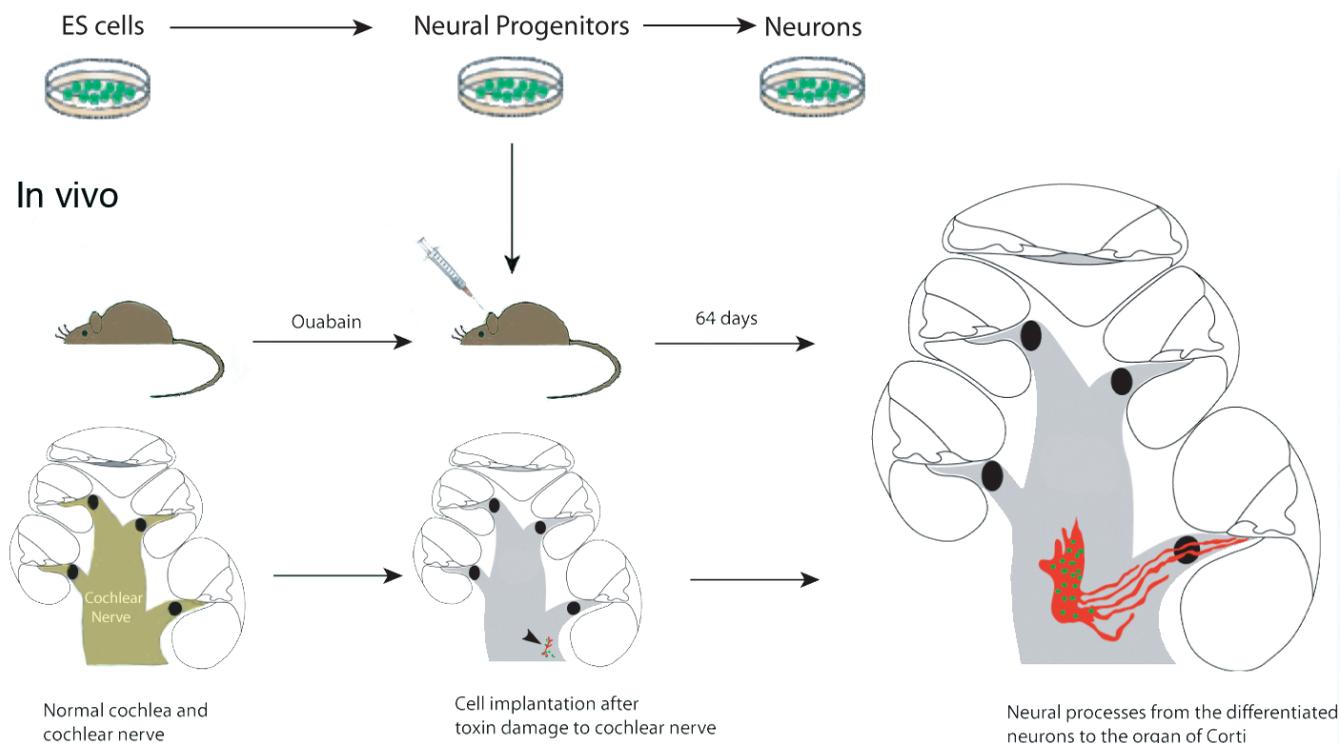


Fig. 2. Transplantation of neural progenitors derived from ES cells into the cochlea. When stem cell derived neural progenitors are injected into an ear that has had its auditory nerve removed by a toxin, the cells form a graft at the base of the cochlea and differentiate into neurons. The engrafted cells can be identified by endogenous EYFP and processes extending from these cells can be followed both apically within the modiolus of the cochlea and radially to the organ of Corti. They can be labeled for neuronal markers by immunofluorescence. The black circles indicate the location of Rosenthal's canal where the cell bodies of the afferent neurons are located in the normal animal.

evidence was presented of neurite outgrowth toward hair cells from neural stem cells transplanted into the inner ear of guinea pigs (Hu *et al.*, 2005b). However, the neurons of the host animal were not removed and the cells were placed in the scala tympani, which makes it difficult to assess whether central and peripheral processes of the spiral ganglia could be regenerated. Neural stem cells have been used for transplantation into the cochlea of a mouse that had been treated with cisplatin to remove endogenous neurons and the cells were present in the cochlea two weeks after grafting (Tamura *et al.*, 2004). ES cell-derived neural progenitors made contacts with vestibular hair cells (Kim *et al.*, 2005) and ES cell transplantation into guinea pig cochlea resulted in growth of processes, although the processes did not appear to grow toward the organ of Corti (Okano *et al.*, 2005). ES cells transplanted into the cochlear modiolus of animals with damaged spiral ganglion neurons grew fibers along the remaining neurons and to the organ of Corti (Sekiya *et al.*, 2006).

The task of replacing hair cells with transplanted cells has been difficult to achieve. There has been little information on integration or function of stem cells transplanted into sensory epithelia, despite some reports of cells recovered in the organ of Corti, but there have been advances in ways to obtain hair cells from stem cells that should lead to progress by improving their availability (Jeon *et al.*, 2007, Minoda *et al.*, 2004, Tateya *et al.*, 2003).

Possible approaches to future regeneration of neurons and hair cells

How can the regrowth of neurons to their targets in the cochlea and brainstem be improved? One key to regrowth may lie in overcoming inhibition imposed by factors in the extracellular space of the cochlea. In neuronal regeneration in the eye, olfactory system and spinal cord, inhibitors of axonal growth have been shown to prevent regenerating neurons from extending processes to their targets (Fraher, 2000, Pasterkamp and Verhaagen, 2006, Shirvan *et al.*, 2002). Blocking the inhibitory molecules has been partially successful in achieving regrowth of these axons. For example, an inhibitor of semaphorin 3a that overcame its repulsive effect increased axonal growth in injured spinal cord (Kaneko *et al.*, 2006), a semaphorin 3a antibody increased optic nerve regeneration (Shirvan *et al.*, 2002) and siRNAs that blocked signaling by semaphorin 3a prevented axonal growth cone collapse (Hengst *et al.*, 2006). An antibody to Nogo or a dominant-negative form of the Nogo receptor also had an effect on the regeneration of spinal cord neurons (Liebscher *et al.*, 2005) and visual system neurons (Fischer *et al.*, 2004). An antibody to RGMA led to corticospinal neuron regeneration in injured spinal cord (Hata *et al.*, 2006).

Many factors that block regrowth have a guidance function during development that prevents incorrect routing of embryonic axons. In the olfactory system, semaphorin 3a has this function and its expression in glial scars prevents axon regeneration (Pasterkamp *et al.*, 1998, Pasterkamp and Verhaagen, 2006, Schwarting *et al.*, 2004). Determination of which guidance molecules are expressed in the adult mouse inner ear would make it possible to test the effect on axonal regeneration of overcoming this inhibition.

Because endogenous stem cells of the cochlea and vestibular system can be differentiated into sensory neurons and these

neurons can make new connections to hair cells, it is possible to envisage these endogenous stem cells as precursors *in vivo* for spiral ganglion neuron replacement. The synapses formed must be further characterized by recording the activity of hair cells and neurons at newly formed synapses. If the cells can be induced to differentiate into sensory neurons as they have been *in vitro*, they could repair damaged tissue. It might be possible to manipulate these cells with drugs or gene therapy so that they become responsive to signals from degenerating cells and enter the cell cycle.

Activation of endogenous stem cells could prove to be the most promising avenue for replacement of hair cells. Several recent studies show that gene silencing or overexpression can result in hair cell formation *in vivo*. Manipulations of developmental pathways that lead to extra hair cell formation in mouse models (Chen and Segil, 1999; Izumikawa *et al.*, 2005; Sage *et al.*, 2005) suggest options for hair cell differentiation that can be studied using inner ear stem cells. Genetic manipulation and drug therapy are both possible routes to activation of selected cells leading to hair cell regeneration.

Cell transplantation appears to hold great promise but there are critical issues that must be addressed: the choice of cell type, the timing of infusion relative to the damage and the stage of differentiation of the transplanted cells at the time of infusion. The stage at which hair cell progenitors are transplanted could have a major effect on their ability to interact with the proper cells in the sensory epithelium so that they can regenerate the correct cell-cell contacts. For neuronal regrowth, placement of cells to avoid scar and allow the neurons to grow to peripheral and central targets can be a problem, particularly for cells that are placed peripherally and need to grow centrally through the Schwann-glia border (Fraher, 2000, Pasterkamp *et al.*, 1998). The neural regeneration results suggest that neurons may be able to remake connections to hair cells, and it may, therefore, be possible to restore function if neuronal regeneration is combined with therapies to replace hair cells.

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