

Developing a Beta Cell Vaccine in the Pancreatic Beta Cell Restoring Therapy for Treating Type First Diabetes

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Abstract

Gene transfer and biotechnology can develop new beta cells in the human body. Regenerative mechanisms under physiological and pathological conditions, factors involved in stimulation of regeneration, and potential pharmaceutical drugs are discussed. Replication is mediated by mitogenic signaling pathways and upstream activators. These mechanisms also involve upstream activators of mitogenic signaling pathways, including nutrients (glucose, calcium), epidermal and platelet-derived GFs (Glp1, Gip), and hormones (leptin, estrogen, prolactin, and progesterone).

Keywords: Beta Cell, Pancreases, Type First Diabetes, Gene transfer, Biotechnology.

1. Introduction

The exocrine pancreas is composed of acinar and ductal cells that secrete digestive enzymes. The endocrine pancreas is composed of five different hormone-secreting cell types that include glucagon-secreting α cells, insulin-producing β cells, somatostatin-releasing δ cells, ghrelin-releasing ϵ cells, and pancreatic polypeptide (PP)-secreting cells. These cells aggregate to form the islets of Langerhans, which are intermingled with the intra-islet microvascular network and play an essential role in regulation of blood glucose levels by directly secreting insulin and glucagon into the bloodstream[1,2]. Recently, numerous strategies and technologies for producing human insulin-secreting cells have emerged, including in vivo stimulation of existing β cell

replication, reprogramming of other pancreatic cells to differentiate into β cells, in vitro differentiation of induced pluripotential stem (iPS) cells into new β cells, and generation of human islets from genetically engineered pigs [3,4]. For example, strategies for enhancing replication of residual β cells have been successful in rodent but not in humans. As such, it is critical to determine the causes for limited success of clinical trials, and to determine possible strategies for improving cell therapy for T1D. In this review, we summarize advanced strategies and approaches for endogenous β cell regeneration, discuss regenerative mechanisms under physiological and pathological conditions, focus on various factors involved in stimulation of regeneration, and discuss promising potential pharmaceutical drugs.

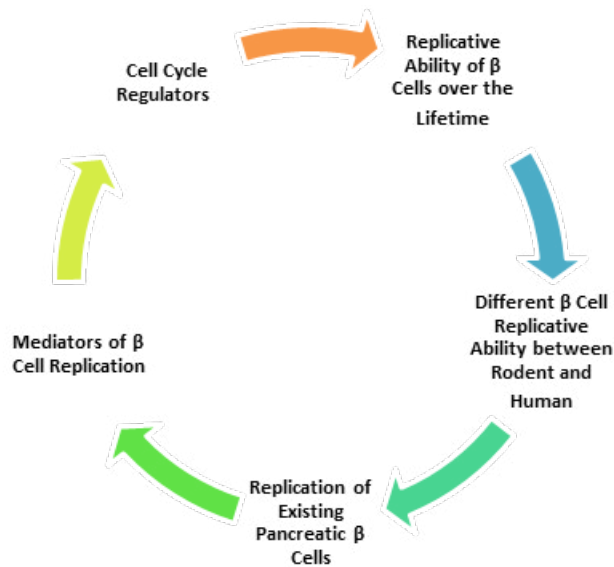


Figure 1: Beta Cell Regeneration Therapy

1.1 Replication of Existing Pancreatic β Cells

Pancreatic β cells replicate readily in the fetal and neonatal stages. However, this ability to replicate rapidly declines after these stages. Furthermore, this ability to replicate is different in rodents and humans. Proliferation of β cells is precisely controlled by cell cycle regulators and circulating soluble factors. Studies have shown that many mutagenic agents could stimulate β cell replication in young rodents, but not in humans. However, using high-throughput chemical screening, a series of inhibitors of DYRK1A-NFAT, GSK3, and NF- κ B signaling pathways were shown to increase human pancreatic β cell replication, suggesting that these inhibitors have unique potential for treatment of diabetes.

1.2 Replicative Ability of β Cells Over the Lifetime

During embryonic development, insulin-positive β cells appear at approximately embryonic day 13.5 in mice or during weeks 8–9 in humans. During the fetal period, β cells are mainly generated by differentiation of endocrine progenitor cells [5]. During the late gestational and neonatal stages, β cells are generated by replication of existing β cells [6,7]. The rate of β cell replication reduces after weaning, and the renewal capacity of β cells becomes limited during adulthood or late adolescence. Nevertheless, β cell mass, which is determined on the basis of cell numbers and individual cell volumes, correlates in a linear fashion with body weight throughout the lifespan of an organism [5,8]. For example, in rats, the number and size of β cells expands with body weight during the first few months of life. The rate of β cell replication then progressively declines, to 1% in young rats (1 month of age), and <0.2% in adults (3–7 months) [8]. In aging rats (15–20 months), β cell mass primarily increases through increased cell size [9]. In healthy rodents, individual β cells have long lifespans, and replication of mature β cells is limited during adulthood [5,10]. Under some physiological or pathological conditions, rates of β

cell proliferation are elevated. For example, β cells proliferate adaptively in response to pregnancy or obesity via self-replication [11,14]. Moreover, in young rodents, β cell proliferation can be induced by increased metabolic demands or β cell deficiency resulting from tissue injury [8,15].

1.3 Different β Cell Replicative Ability between Rodent and Human

Human and rodent islets have distinct structural and molecular characteristics [16]. Replicative ability of human and rodent β cells have common and different features. For example, β cell mass increases during the earlier stages of life and declines with aging in both species. Adaptive β cell proliferation during pregnancy and obesity occurs extensively in rodents, but is limited in humans [17]. Pregnancy-associated insulin resistance induces amplified insulin production to maintain glucose homeostasis. In rodents, elevated insulin production is accompanied by increased β cell numbers mediated by lactotrophic hormones [13,14,18]. Humans also exhibit a compensatory increase in insulin secretion. New β cells originate from other pancreatic cell lineages and existing β -cells. Moreover, β cell proliferation mediated by lactotrophic hormones or other mitogenic stimuli is limited in humans [19]. In addition, obesity-induced insulin resistance is associated with dramatic expansion of β cell mass in several rodent models, but not in human islets [20]. Various mutagenic agents, hormones, and growth factors (GFs) such as Glp-1, Gip-1, exendin-4, prolactin, Hgf, and Igf-1 stimulate β cell proliferation in rodents but not in humans [21–27].

1.4 Mediators of β Cell Replication

• Cell Cycle Regulators

β cell replication is mediated by multiple mitogenic signaling pathways such as Irs–Pi3k–Akt, Gsk3, mTor, ChREBP/cMyc,

Ras/Raf/Erk, and Nfats. These mechanisms also involve upstream activators of mitogenic signaling pathways, including nutrients (glucose, calcium), epidermal and platelet-derived GFs (Glp1, Gip), and hormones (leptin, estrogen, prolactin, and progesterone). Mitogenic signals stimulate quiescent β cells to re-enter the cell cycle by regulating the expression of downstream cell cycle regulators such as cyclins, cyclin-dependent kinases (Cdks), cell-cycle inhibitors, and E2F factors [28-33]. For example, exendin-4 and glucagon-like peptide 1 (Glp-1) exert mitogenic effects on β cell proliferation by activating cell cycle activators (cyclin A and Cdk1) and proliferation-activating transcription factors (TFs) through the cAMP-dependent calcineurin/Nfat pathway [24,25,34-37]. Menin is an endocrine tumor suppressor that suppresses β cell proliferation by epigenetically promoting the expression of the cell-cycle inhibitors p27 and p18 or by inhibiting K-Ras signaling [38-40]. Moreover, Ezh2 mediates increased trimethylation of p16INK4a and p19Arf by H3K27, which epigenetically represses Ink4a/Arf production and contributes to proliferation of pancreatic β cells [40-41].

2. Method and Material

We conducted this review by observing the different types of reviews, as well as conducting and evaluating literature review papers.

3. Conclusion

In our review, we concluded that The endocrine pancreas is composed of five different hormone-secreting cell types that include glucagon-secreting α cells, insulin-producing β cells, somatostatin-releasing δ cells, ghrelin-releasing ϵ cells, and pancreatic polypeptide (PP)-secreting cells. Recently, numerous strategies and technologies for producing human insulin-secreting cells have emerged, including in vivo stimulation of existing β cell replication, reprogramming of other pancreatic cells to differentiate into β cells, in vitro differentiation of induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells into new β cells, and generation of human islets from genetically engineered pigs.

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Authors' Contribution

The first author developed the proposal, and then collected and analyzed the data under supervision of respective advisers. The rest of authors undertook the literature search and review, and gave constructive comments and guidance to work with the main author with respect to the research objective.

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