

Ectopic Bone Formation by Mesenchymal Stem Cells Derived from Human Term Placenta and the Decidua

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Published: October 20, 2015 • DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0141246

Abstract

Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) are one of the most attractive cell types for cell-based bone tissue repair and derived MSCs and maternal-derived MSCs have been isolated from chorionic villi of human term placenta attached to the placenta following delivery, respectively. Chorionic-derived MSCs (CMSCs) and decidua-derived MSCs (DMSCs) generated in this study met the MSCs criteria set by International Society of Cellular Therapy. These criteria included: (i) plasticity; (ii) >90% expression of CD73, CD105, CD90, CD146, CD44 and CD166 combined with <5% expression of HLA-DR; and (iii) ability to differentiate into osteogenic, adipogenic, and chondrogenic lineages. *In vivo* implantation into SCID mice showed that both bromo-deoxyuridine (BrdU)-labelled CMSCs and DMSCs when combined with hydroxyapatite/tricalcium phosphate particles were capable of forming ectopic bone at 8-weeks post-implantation. Histological assessment showed expression of bone markers, osteopontin (OPN), osteocalcin (OCN), biglycan (BSP), and also a marker of vasculature, alpha-smooth muscle actin (α -SMA). This study provides CMSCs and DMSCs as cellular candidates with potent bone forming capacity.

Citation: Kusuma GD, Menicanin D, Gronthos S, Manuelpillai U, Abumaree MH, Pertile MD, et al. (2015) Ectopic Bone Formation by Mesenchymal Stem Cells Derived from Human Term Placenta and the Decidua. PLoS ONE doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0141246

Editor: Michiya Matsusaki, Osaka University, JAPAN

Received: May 4, 2015; **Accepted:** October 5, 2015; **Published:** October 20, 2015

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Data Availability: All relevant data are within the paper.

Funding: BK and SPB were supported by grants from King Abdullah International Medical Research Center (RC08/114) and the Royal Women's Hospital Foundation. GK was supported by Australian Postgraduate Research Scholarship and Australian Stem Cell Centre Postgraduate Scholarship. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

Introduction

Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs), which are also referred to as multipotent stromal cells, are found in many tissues and are capable of multipotent differentiation, allowing them to contribute to bone regeneration and repair since MSCs

differentiate into osteocytic lineages [1]. Moreover, MSCs are readily isolated, their numbers can be greatly cryopreserved for later use, and importantly, they display low immunogenicity, are immunomodulatory and have a unique surface marker profile. According to the International Society for Cellular Therapy (ISCT), MSCs must: (i) adhere to untreated plastic, (ii) express CD105, CD73, and CD90 but not CD34, CD14, CD19, CD11b, CD79 α or HLA-DR, and (iii) differentiate into adipogenic and chondrogenic lineages *in vitro* [2].

The human term placenta is an abundant, readily accessible and non-controversial source of MSCs. MSCs are derived from fetal derived placental tissues including the amnion, chorion and chorionic villi, and from maternal derived placental tissue following delivery i.e. the *decidua parietalis* and *decidua basalis* [3–7]. The periphery of the placenta on the maternal side that is in contact with the uterine wall (called the basal plate) comprises the chorionic side, and maternal *decidua basalis* on the other. Following delivery of the placenta, the *decidua basalis* remains on the maternal side of the placenta. Thus, careful preparation and characterization needs to be carried out to confirm the fetal origin of *decidua basalis* MSCs (DMSCs) and the fetal origins of the chorionic villous MSCs (CMSCs). As such, in a recent issue of the presence of maternal cells in human placental MSCs cultures was reviewed recently [10]. This study was to isolate and characterize CMSCs and DMSCs according to the criteria described above and to confirm the fetal and maternal origins of these cells. This characterization was an essential prerequisite to the use of CMSC *in vivo* assays.

While studies have reported osteogenesis by CMSCs and DMSCs *in vitro*, bone formation *in vivo* has not been reported. These studies are essential for evaluating the functional capacity of CMSCs and DMSCs and their potential for clinical use. Therefore, we initiated the study using a mouse model of ectopic bone formation to explore the possibility that CMSCs and DMSCs were capable of regenerating ectopic bone-like structure *in vivo*.

The orthotopic bone formation assay is commonly used to study osteogenesis *in vivo*. Compared to the orthotopic bone forming assay has unique advantages since there is no requirement for bone cytokine stimulation or interaction with endogenous bone-forming cells [11]. In addition, a variety of ectopic locations can be used for implantation including subcutaneous and intramuscular sites and the kidney capsule [11]. Subcutaneous implantation is the most commonly used experimental model of ectopic bone formation. Mouse models are preferable and most widely used due to their small size, the folds that can accommodate large implants, and the availability of immunodeficient mice that will accept implants. Another important consideration is the lack of naturally occurring bone-forming stem cells within the intradermal space, therefore newly-formed bone can be confidently attributed to the exogenous stem cells. The most pertinent consideration with subcutaneous implantation is the lack of robust bone growth which may be due to poor blood flow. However, bone formation can be stimulated by incorporating hydroxyapatite and tricalcium phosphate (HA/TCP) together with the implant. HA/TCPs are currently used as bone graft substitutes, are biocompatible and form bonds between bone and ceramic implants. The second and principal aim of this study was to evaluate *in vivo* bone formation capacity of CMSCs and DMSCs on subcutaneous implantation together with HA/TCP.

Materials and Methods

Tissue collection

Placental samples were collected from healthy women with normal pregnancies following elective Caesarean delivery at term ($n = 6$). The placental tissue had no obvious signs of calcification, infarcts or meconium staining. The women were not smokers or had a twin or triplet pregnancy, drug dependency, intrauterine infection, prolonged gestation, membranes or placental abruption. Informed written consent was obtained from all participants before delivery. The study was approved by the Royal Women's Hospital Human Research Ethics Committee.

Isolation of CMSCs

CMSCs were isolated using the explant method as described previously [7] with the following modifications. Tissue was made through the fetal membranes near the umbilical cord insertion site and 1 g of chorionic villous tissue was removed approximately 1–2 cm below the chorionic plate. Pieces of chorionic tissue with typical villous morphology were cut with a 25 gauge needle under a dissecting microscope to remove non-villous tissue. Cleaned villi were finely diced and digested with trypsin for 40 min at 37°C. The trypsin was inactivated with FBS and tissues were washed in PBS. The digest was seeded in Amniomax C100 complete medium (Life Technologies) in 25 cm² tissue culture flasks maintained at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ incubator. After 7 days, villous tissues were removed from the flask and the adherent cells arising from the explant were grown until at least 80% confluent before expanding to reach P5.

Isolation of DMSCs

We have previously reported the isolation of DMSCs from the *decidua basalis* adhering onto the maternal site. About eight grams of placental tissue was dissected from the basal plate, washed four times in PBS, finely digested with trypsin (0.25%; Life Technologies, CA, USA) and DNase 1 (50 µg/mL; Worthington, NJ, USA) at 4°C overnight. FBS (FBS; Thermo Scientific, MA, USA) was added to inactivate the trypsin and the digest was centrifuged at 200g. Pelleted tissue was digested in type 1 collagenase (10 mg/mL; Worthington) and DNase 1 (50 µg/mL, Worthington) at 37°C and strained through a 100 µm stainless steel sieve. The filtrate was layered over Histopaque (Sigma-Aldrich) and separated by density gradient centrifugation at 400g for 30 min. Mononuclear cell layers containing the DMSCs were centrifuged at 200g for 5 min. DMSCs were maintained in α-MEM medium (Sigma-Aldrich) with 10% FBS, penicillin (100 U/mL and 100 mg/mL, respectively; Life Technologies) and 2 mM L-glutamine (Sigma-Aldrich). P0 DMSCs were harvested after reaching 80% confluence and cells were expanded up to P5.

Fluorescence in situ hybridisation (FISH)

FISH was used to determine whether the DMSCs were maternal and the CMSCs fetal in origin as described previously [14]. Briefly, term placentae delivered from pregnancies carrying male babies (n = 3) were used to prepare DMSCs. Cells were lifted with TrypLE Express, washed in Hank's buffered saline solution (HBSS; Life Technologies) and plated on poly-L-lysine coated glass slides (Thermo Scientific). After fixing in 3:1 methanol to acetic acid solution at room temperature, cells were hybridized with labelled chromosome X (Spectrum Green) and chromosome Y (Spectrum Orange) probes (Life Technologies, USA). Approximately 200 cells per slide were examined.

Flow cytometry

To determine whether expanded cells expressed positive and negative markers characteristic of MSCs, cells were analyzed by flow cytometry for CD73, CD105, CD90, CD146, CD44 and CD166 and the absence of CD45, CD19 and HLA-DR with each of the primary antibodies or equivalent concentrations of matched isotype controls (Table 1) as described previously [14]. Cells were then washed in HBSS containing 2% FBS and centrifuged at 1000 rpm for 5 min. Cell pellets were resuspended in 100 µL of HBSS with 2% FBS and 1 µg/mL DAPI (Sigma-Aldrich). The cells were analyzed on a LSRII flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, CA, USA) using BD FACSDiva software (BD Biosciences, CA, USA).

Antibody*	Conjugate	Clone	Volume / 100µl	Manufacturer
CD45	APC-Cy7	2D1	1µl	BD Biosciences
CD73	PE	AC2	1µl	BD Biosciences
CD105	APC	5N6	0.5µl	eBioscience
CD90	PE	5E10	0.25µl	BD Biosciences
CD146	PE	P1H12	1µl	BD Biosciences
CD44	PE	G44-28	1µl	BD Biosciences
CD166	PE	3A5	1µl	BD Biosciences
HLA-DR	APC	G46-6	1µl	BD Biosciences
CD19	APC-Cy7	5D2G1	0.25µl	BD Biosciences
IgG1 isotype control	PE	MOPC-21	1µl	BD Biosciences
IgG2a isotype control	APC	G155-178	1µl	BD Biosciences
IgG1 isotype control	APC-Cy7	MOPC-21	0.25µl	BD Biosciences

* anti-human antibodies raised in mice.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0141246.t001

Table 1. Antibodies used for characterizing CMSCs and DMSCs by flow cytometry.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0141246.t001

In vitro differentiation into mesenchymal lineages

Differentiation of DMSCs and CMSCs into adipogenic, osteogenic, and chondrogenic lineages was assessed. Differentiation was carried out with bullet kits as described [5, 6, 13]. Adipogenic and osteogenic differentiation was carried out in Mesencult basal medium together with the respective differentiation supplements according to manufacturer's instructions (Stem Cell Technologies, BC, Canada). Chondrogenic differentiation was carried in DMEM/F12 medium (Life Technologies) and chondrogenic supplements (both from R&D Systems, MN, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were stained with Oil Red O solution, Alizarin Red solution and Safranin O (Sigma-Aldrich) to visualize adipogenic, osteogenic and chondrogenesis respectively.

In vivo ectopic bone formation assay

CMSCs and DMSCs (n = 3 each) were expanded to reach approximately 1x10⁷ cells per sample (P2-P3). Cells were mixed with 40 mg hydroxyapatite/tricalcium phosphate (HA/TCP) ceramic particles (Ceracore, USA) and then subcutaneously transplanted into the dorsal surface of eight-week-old SCID mice (National Institute of Health, bg-nu-xid; Harlan Sprague-Dawley, IN, USA) as described previously [14, 15]. Each mouse received two implants. All procedures were performed in accordance with guidelines of an approved small-animal protocol (South Australia Health Ethics Committee #139/09). After 8 weeks, the implants were removed, fixed in 10% formalin overnight at 4°C.

for 2 weeks in 0.5 M EDTA, prior to paraffin embedding. For histological analysis, 5 μm sections of the implant stained with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Expression of the specific osteogenesis markers osteocalcin (OCN), osteonectin (ON), biglycan (BGN), and bone sialoprotein (BSP), were analyzed by immunohistochemistry using previously [16]. The implanted cells were labelled with BrdU at 24 and 48 hrs prior to implantation to evaluate the local transplanted cells. Immunohistochemical staining using an anti-BrdU antibody was carried out as previously

Results

Isolation and expansion of CMSCs and DMSCs

CMSCs were isolated using the explant method [5, 7]. CMSCs migrated from the explants approximately 7 cm and expanded CMSCs exhibited the characteristic fibroblast-like morphology of MSCs (Fig 1Ai). DMSCs *decidua basalis* attached to chorionic villi of term placentae adhered onto tissue culture flasks within 24 h of previous findings [18–20], P0 DMSCs were initially heterogeneous and became more homogeneous following the fibroblastic morphology characteristic of MSCs (Fig 2Ai). Given that CMSCs and DMSCs were morphologically similar after passaging, it was crucial that CMSCs and DMSCs used in these experiments were well-characterized by surface markers expression, origin, and differentiation potential.

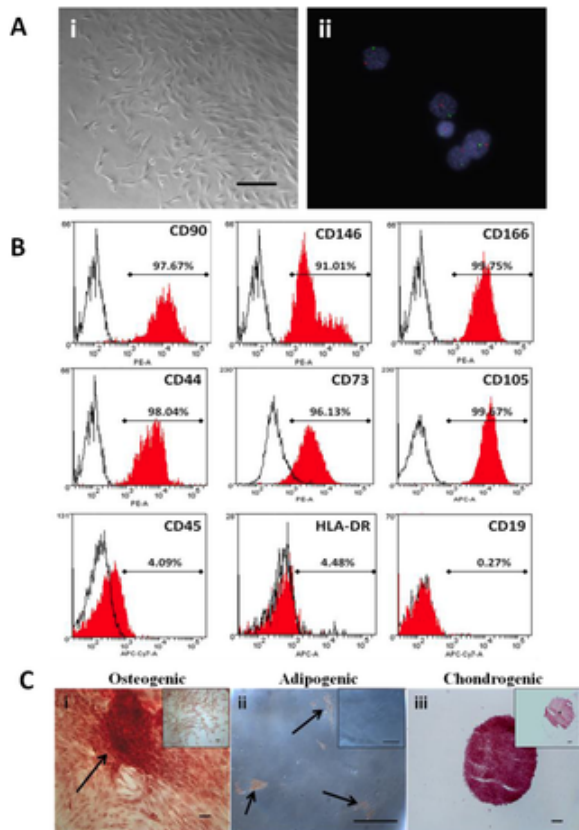


Fig 1. CMSC phenotypic characterization.

A. (i) Bright field microscopy image of CMSCs at P0. Magnification is 100X and scalebar is 100 μm . (ii) Cl placenta of male newborns were analyzed using interphase FISH on MSC nuclei. CMSCs showed one centromere (Spectrum Green) and one chromosome Y (Spectrum Orange) signals. Cell nuclei were stained blue with DAPI. Magnification is 630X. B. Primary CMSCs cell surface markers expression. Histograms of representative primary CMSCs showing expression of CD90, CD146, CD166, CD44, CD73, CD105, CD45, HLA-DR, and CD19. The red histogram shows phycoerythrin dye, APC: allophycocyanin dye, APC-Cy7: allophycocyanin-Cy7 dye. C. Representative photographs showing CMSCs differentiation into mesenchymal lineages. (i) Osteogenic differentiation, Alizarin Red staining after 5 weeks growth in osteogenic induction medium. Arrows show calcium depositions. (ii) Adipogenic differentiation, Oil Red O staining in cells after 14 days growth in adipogenic induction medium. Arrows show fat droplets. (iii) Chondrogenic differentiation, Alcian Blue staining in cells after 4 weeks growth in chondrogenic induction medium. Arrows show cartilage matrix.

differentiation, Safranin O staining for proteoglycans depositions in cells after 21 days growth in chondrog medium. Inset shows control uninduced CMSCs. Scalebar is 100 μ m.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0141246.g001

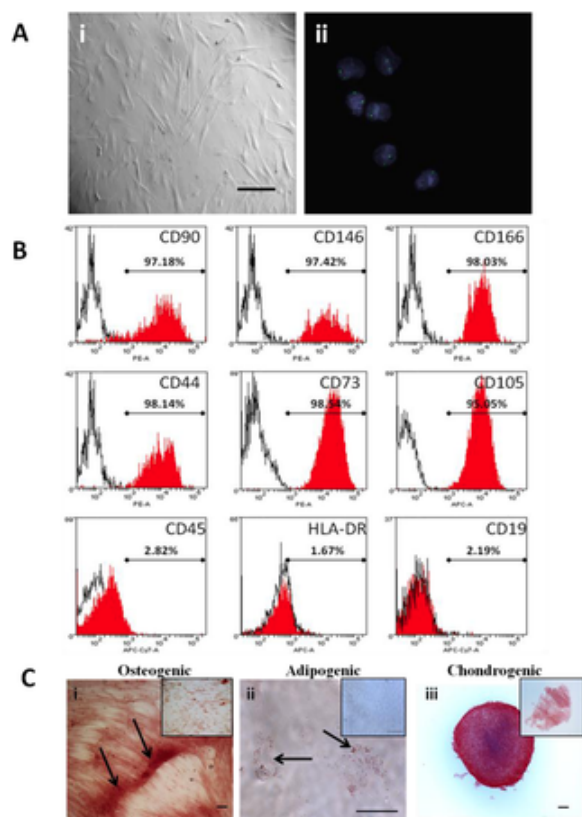


Fig 2. DMSC phenotypic characterization.

A. (i) Bright field microscopy image of DMSCs at P0. Magnification is 100X and scalebar is 100 μ m. (ii) D1 placenta of male newborns were analyzed using interphase FISH on MSC nuclei. DMSCs showed two X (Spectrum Green) signals. Cell nuclei were stained blue with DAPI. Magnification is 630X. B. Primary DM markers expression. Histograms of representative primary DMSC at P3 depicting the expression of CD90, CD44, CD73, CD105, CD45, HLA-DR, and CD19. The red histogram shows the MSC marker antibody staining; white histogram shows the corresponding isotype control antibody staining. PE: phycoerythrin dye, APC: dye, APC-Cy7: allophycocyanin-Cy7 dye. C. Representative photomicrographs showing DMSCs different mesenchymal lineages. (i) Osteogenic differentiation, Alizarin Red staining in cells after 5 weeks growth in induction medium. Arrows show calcium depositions. (ii) Adipogenic differentiation, Oil Red O staining in cells after 5 weeks growth in adipogenic induction medium. Arrows show fat droplets. (iii) Chondrogenic differentiation, Safranin O staining for proteoglycans depositions in cells after 21 days growth in chondrogenic induction medium. Inset shows control uninduced CMSCs. Scalebar is 100 μ m.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0141246.g002

Phenotypic characterization of CMSCs and DMSCs

CMSCs and DMSCs at P3-P5 were analyzed by flow cytometry for cell surface markers present on expanded cells. More than 90% of CMSCs (Fig 1B) and DMSCs (Fig 2B) expressed the MSC markers CD90, CD146, CD166, CD44 while <5% were CD45, CD19 and HLA-DR positive. These findings were consistent with the expression profile of MSCs. Cells beyond P5 were not analyzed since studies have reported that MSCs undergo cell death or senescence [4, 21–23].

Given the risk of cross contamination between fetal and maternal cells, firstly we analyzed CMSCs and DMSCs

that pure cell populations had been isolated. CMSCs and DMSCs were isolated from placentae of women de and approximately 200 cells of each type were analyzed for signals in interphase nuclei using X/Y chromosc showed the XY phenotype (Spectrum Green and Orange labelled chromosomes, respectively) and were the Evaluation of 200 interphase nuclei revealed that CMSCs used in this study had 94% XY (6% XYY), 100% (0.5% XYY). Two Spectrum Green labelled X chromosomes were visible in DMSCs and therefore DMSCs : Evaluation of 200 interphase nuclei showed that DMSCs used in this study had 100% XX, 92.5% XX (7.5% : (1% XXXX). Cases of tetraploidy were always XYY from fetal CMSCs and XXXX from maternal DMSCs pr is a common artefact of cell culturing and does not preclude the use of cell preparations for further analysis [

Differentiation of expanded CMSCs and DMSCs into osteogenic, adipogenic and chondrogenic lineages was further verify their *in vitro* MSC properties. Alizarin Red stained calcium deposits indicative of bone formatio maintained in osteogenic induction medium (Fig 1Ci). Oil Red O stained lipid droplets were observed aroun stimulated in adipogenic differentiation medium (Fig 1Cii). CMSCs aggregated into a three-dimensional sphe approximately 24 h stimulation in chondrogenic differentiation medium. Safranin O staining in sections taken of the cell pellet after 3 weeks stimulation showed the presence of proteoglycans, which are normally secret matrix by cartilage cells (Fig 1Ciii). Control CMSCs cultures maintained in the appropriate basal medium did differentiation into these lineages (Fig 1Ci–1Ciii insets). DMSCs also differentiated into the osteogenic, adipic chondrogenic mesenchymal lineages (Fig 2Ci, 2Cii and 2Ciii respectively) [13].

***In vivo* ectopic bone formation assay**

CMSCs and DMSCs (n = 3 per group) were assayed for their capacity to develop bone-like tissue following e into SCID mice with HA/TCP particles as a vehicle. All implants showed new bone formation throughout the 3E and 3F show representative sections of CMSC and DMSC implants, respectively stained with H&E. The l performed with bright pink H&E staining is indicative of mineralized tissue [17]. New bone was formed (area HA/TCP (indicated by dashed lines) and directly interfaces the ceramic surface. The new bone contains oste within the matrix indicating that bone formation was active and progressive. Further histological examination formation was surrounded by the presence of adipocytes (honeycomb-like structures), fibrous tissue, and sn Anti-BrdU staining demonstrated the presence of implanted cells associated with areas of mineral formation fibrous tissue formation (Fig 3C, 3D, 3G and 3H). The transplanted CMSCs and DMSCs exhibited the capac and fibrous tissues *in vivo*.

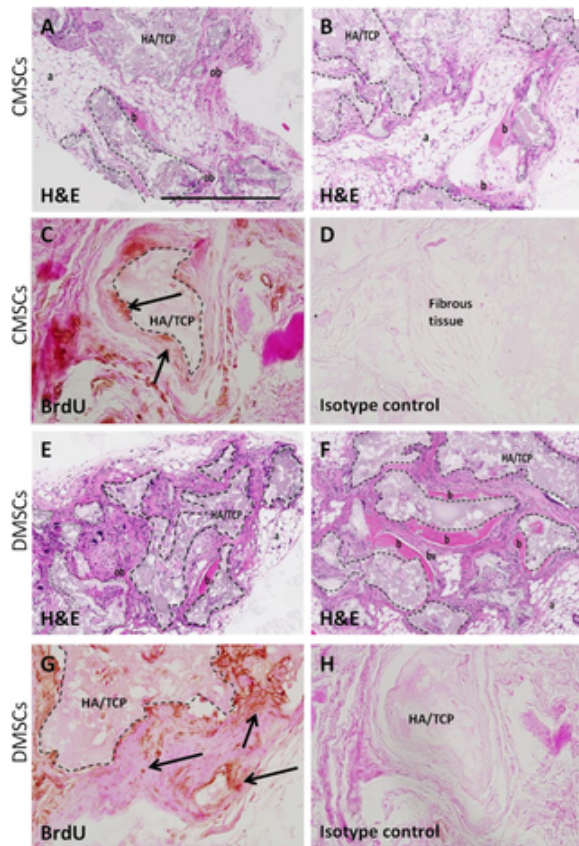


Fig 3. Histology of CMSCs and DMSCs transplants.

Cross sections are representative of CMSCs transplants (A-B) and DMSCs transplants (E-F) after 8 weeks. Haematoxylin and Eosin (H&E). In the transplant, the HA/TCP carrier surfaces (dashed lines) are lined with mineralized matrix formation (b), areas of immature bone (ob) together with the surrounding fibrous and hematopoietic tissue vessel (bv). Representative BrdU staining for localization of implanted CMSCs (C-D) and DMSCs (G-H). Implanted cells were found lining the mineralized matrix (black arrows) and surrounding fibrous tissue. BrdU is indicative of DAB reactivity. There was no immunoreactivity present in sections stained with isotype-matched antibody. HA/TCP: hydroxyapatite/tricalcium phosphate particles. Magnification is 100X and scalebar is 500 μ m. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0141246.g003

Immunohistochemical staining with several osteogenesis markers was performed to confirm that cells with osteogenic potential were formed in the transplants. Implanted CMSCs and DMSCs lining or embedded within the mineralized substrate were stained for bone-related markers: BSP, OCN, OPN, and BGN (Fig 4A–4H). The reactivity of these markers showed that both CMSCs and DMSCs contributed to the generation of osteogenic cells. In addition, the presence of newly formed vessels was also indicated by immunostaining with α -SMA (Fig 4I and 4J). Overall, the data demonstrated the presence of bone formation with no obvious qualitative differences between CMSCs and DMSCs.

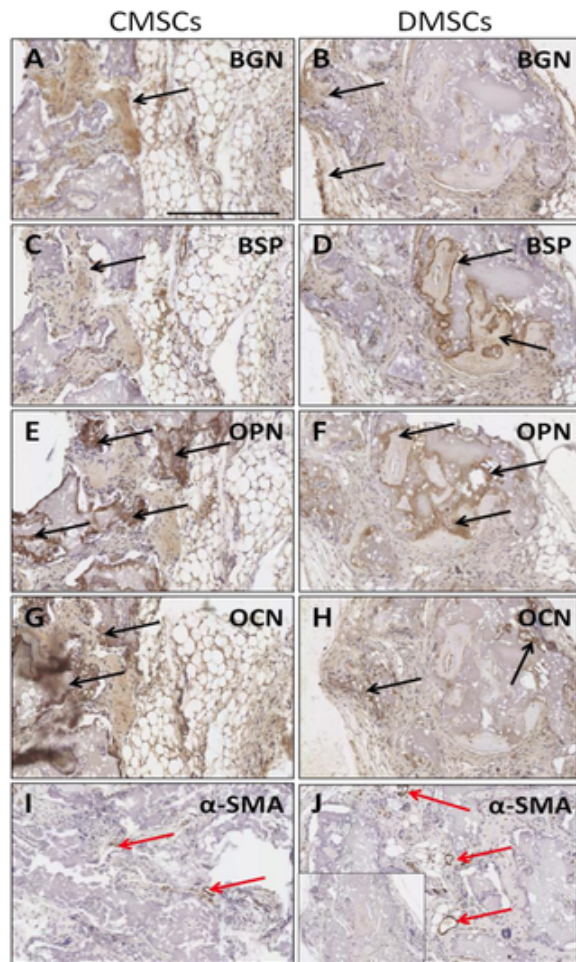


Fig 4. Immunoreactivity of osteogenesis markers after *in vivo* transplantation of primary CMSCs and DMSCs into immunodeficient mice. (A-B) BGN: biglycan expression. (C-D) BSP: bone sialoprotein expression. (E-F) OPN: osteopontin expression. (G-H) OCN: osteocalcin expression. (I-J) α -SMA: alpha-smooth muscle actin as negative control. Inset shows representative sections stained with isotype-matched antibodies. Colour detection was performed using DAB reaction. Magnification and scale bar is 300 μ m. Black arrows show bone-forming surfaces and red arrows show blood vessels. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0141246.g004

Discussion

We demonstrated the isolation and expansion of two different MSC populations obtained from human term placenta: primary CMSCs and maternal-derived DMSCs. Both CMSCs and DMSCs are shown to have typical MSC features: (a) ability to differentiate *in vitro* into adipocytes, osteocytes, and chondrocytes; and (b) expression of MSC surface markers (CD146, CD166, CD44, CD73, and CD105). FISH analysis confirmed that pure populations of fetal CMSCs and maternal-derived DMSCs could be obtained using the isolation methods employed. Thus, the CMSCs and DMSCs adhered to the criteria for placental MSCs [2, 9].

MSCs from different sources such as adipose tissue, bone marrow, and dental pulp have been subjected to ectopic bone formation assay [14, 15, 25, 26]. This study investigated CMSCs and DMSCs for the first time, and demonstrated that cells implanted with these cells into the subcutaneous space of immunodeficient mice could differentiate into new bone tissue. This indicates that donor MSCs have the capacity for long-term survival and could contribute to the generation of different tissue types *in vivo*. The efficacy of this *in vivo* assay was demonstrated in another study where mice were implanted with human foreskin fibroblasts and HA/TCP only controls were tested and showed only fibrous tissue. No indication of osteogenesis or haematopoiesis [26].

In this study, we set out to confirm that the implanted cells had survived and contributed to tissue formation. In principle, BrdU stain incorporates into the DNA of dividing cells and diminishes as those cells further divide. post-implantation, a proportion of MSCs may have lost their BrdU expression due to their initial proliferation, their physical location within tissue (i.e. osteocytes in lacunae), antigen retrieval and DNA denaturing protocol may have exposed the antigen for its detection by immunohistochemistry. Whilst we acknowledge the limitation of using implanted cells, this protocol has been widely used and accepted [27–29].

It is also of interest to note that development potential of BMMSCs *in vivo* was similar to CMSCs and DMSCs. Both contributed to new bone formation together with surrounding fibrous and adipocytes accumulation [14, 15, 30]. This supports other studies demonstrating placenta-derived MSCs *in vivo* osteogenesis capacity. Intrabone, but not intraperitoneal injection of placenta adherent cells into a mouse model of myeloma-associated bone loss promoted bone formation and differentiation of the host's osteoblasts [31]. Furthermore, placenta-derived MSCs grown in a silk fibroin/HA scaffold and transplanted in a rabbit radius defect model and improved bone repair as evidenced by formation of new lamellar bone and a number of osteoblasts [32]. In addition, there was evidence of angiogenesis with evidence of new blood vessel formation. The presence of newly formed vasculature is in agreement with previous studies that have reported bone formation by MSCs when implanted using the similar *in vivo* mouse model [14, 16]. Another study showed amnion-derived MSCs promoted neovascularisation in an *in vivo* mouse model [33].

Porous HA/TCP showed good tissue tolerance with no immunological or toxic reaction, and that bone tissue formed on their surfaces. This property is important for bone graft substitutes because without it, fibrous tissue can form at the interface between bone tissue and the graft, and cause loosening of the graft [12, 26]. The choice of osteoconductive scaffold (HA/TCP) combined with the appropriate choice of animal model are potentially crucial to determine *in vivo* differentiation potential of CMSCs and DMSCs. To conclude, this is the first evidence of *in vivo* differentiation potential of DMSCs and CMSCs and their transplantation in the mouse model of ectopic bone formation.

Conclusions

In this study, we have isolated human CMSCs and DMSCs and both cell types demonstrated the characteristic ability to form bone. Subcutaneous transplantation of CMSCs and DMSCs embedded in a HA/TCP biomatrix, into a mouse model of ectopic bone formation led to the formation of a bone-like structure. BrdU labelling indicated that transplanted cells were present and contributed to tissue formation. Bone-specific markers such as OPN, OCN, BGN, and BSP were present in the bone-like structure without any qualitative difference. These data suggest that human CMSCs and DMSCs have potent *in vivo* differentiation potential and may be worthwhile candidates for *in vivo* bone tissue repair.

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge the patients who consented to provide placental samples and the clinical research midwife at the Women's Hospital, Sue Duggan and Moira Stewart for tissue collection. We thank Melissa Duggan and Deborah Stewart for technical assistance.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: GDK BK. Performed the experiments: GDK DM MDP. Analyzed the data: GDK BK. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: GDK DM SG MHA BK MDP. Wrote the paper: GDK UM BK MDP.

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