

STATE-OF-THE-ART PAPER

10 Years of Intracoronary and Intramyocardial Bone Marrow Stem Cell Therapy of the Heart

From the Methodological Origin to Clinical Practice

Bodo-Eckehard Strauer, MD,*† Gustav Steinhoff, MD†‡

Duesseldorf and Rostock, Germany

Intracoronary and intramyocardial stem cell therapy aim at the repair of compromised myocardium thereby—as a causal treatment—preventing ventricular remodeling and improving overall performance. Since the first-in-human use of bone marrow stem cells (BMCs) after acute myocardial infarction in 2001, a large number of clinical studies have demonstrated their clinical benefit: BMC therapy can be performed with usual cardiac catheterization techniques in the conscious patient as well as also easily during cardiosurgical interventions. New York Heart Association severity degree of patients as well as physical activity improve in addition to (“on top” of) all other therapeutic regimens. Stem cell therapy also represents an ultimate approach in advanced cardiac failure. For acute myocardial infarction and chronic ischemia, long-term mortality after 1 and 5 years, respectively, is significantly reduced. A few studies also indicate beneficial effects for chronic dilated cardiomyopathy. The clinical use of autologous BMC therapy implies no ethical problems, when unmodified primary cells are used. With the use of primary BMCs, there are no major stem cell-related side effects, especially no cardiac arrhythmias and inflammation. Various mechanisms of the stem cell action in the human heart are discussed, for example, cell transdifferentiation, cell fusion, activation of intrinsic cardiac stem cells, and cytokine-mediated effects. New techniques allow point-of-care cell preparations, for example, within the cardiac intervention or operation theater, thereby providing short preparation time, facilitated logistics of cell transport, and reasonable cost effectiveness of the whole procedure. The 3 main indications are acute infarction, chronic ischemic heart failure, and dilated cardiomyopathy. Future studies are desirable to further elucidate the mechanisms of stem cell action and to extend the current use of intracoronary and/or intramyocardial stem cell therapy by larger and presumably multicenter and randomized trials. (J Am Coll Cardiol 2011;58:1095–104) © 2011 by the American College of Cardiology Foundation

Just over 10 years ago, on March 30, 2001, autologous unfractionated mononuclear bone marrow stem cells (BMCs) were used for the first time in the clinical treatment of the failing left ventricle after acute myocardial infarction in a 46-year-old patient by intracoronary application (1). On July 3, 2001, the first intramyocardial application of a purified (CD133⁺) BMC preparation was applied to a 64-year-old patient with heart failure after myocardial infarction during a coronary artery bypass graft (CABG) operation starting a phase I trial (2). These early clinical steps prompted a series of subsequent studies of acute and

chronic heart diseases, for example, in acute myocardial infarction, in chronic cardiac failure, and in dilated cardiomyopathy (DCM) (3–11). In the following overview, methodological and clinical prerequisites of cardiac cell therapy and cell preparation procedures are described, including the experience with different cell application methods; it summarizes recent results of currently available clinical studies investigating the safety, feasibility, and efficacy of this new kind of regenerative cell therapy in heart disease.

Remodeling

In acute myocardial infarction, heart muscle tissue is regionally destroyed. By the sum of CABG surgery and percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI), regular heart muscle function may not be restored or only to a minor degree, so that remodeling, which may occur in approximately 60% of the patients after myocardial infarction, is mostly not prevented (12–14). It is estimated that left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF) is improved after PCI by approximately 3% to 4% only (15). Conversely, cell therapy—as a causal treatment of myocardial hypoperfusion and cell

From the *Heinrich-Heine University of Duesseldorf, Duesseldorf, Germany; †Reference and Translation Center for Cardiac Stem Cell Therapy (RTC), Biomedical Research Center Rostock, Rostock, Germany; and the ‡Department for Cardiac Surgery, University Rostock, Rostock, Germany. The RTC, University Rostock, receives grant support from the German Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF FKZ 0312138A), the State of Mecklenburg-Pomerania (FKZ V230-630-08-TFMV-F/S-035), and the German Research Foundation (SFB Transregio 37, TP A4, B2, B5). Both authors have reported that they have no relationships relevant to the contents of this paper to disclose.

Manuscript received March 4, 2011; revised manuscript received April 6, 2011, accepted April 7, 2011.

**Abbreviations
and Acronyms**

BMC = bone marrow stem cell

CABG = coronary artery bypass graft

DCM = dilated cardiomyopathy

LVEF = left ventricular ejection fraction

PCI = percutaneous coronary intervention

PTCA = percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty

loss—has the fundamental aim to prevent remodeling by reconstitution of perfusion, thereby leading to myocardial functional recovery. That occurs preferably in addition to (“on top” of) all usual pharmacotherapeutic regimens available for symptomatic treatment of ischemic heart failure.

BMCs for Cardiac Repair

Various stem cell or progenitor cell containing populations have been introduced for cardiac repair in the last few years, although many past and ongoing

clinical trials use predominantly adult autologous BMCs (16–18). The BMCs contain several cell populations that have the capacity to proliferate, migrate, and also differentiate into various mature cell types. Among these cells are hematopoietic stem cells (19–32), mesenchymal stem cells (33–40), endothelial progenitor cells (41–43), and side population cells (44,45). In brief, human adult bone marrow contains a variety of regenerative autologous precursor/progenitor cells that enhance cardiac performance. The use of BMC in cardiovascular diseases has the advantage that bone marrow can be easily accessed, is renewable, and is an autologous source for regenerative cells. The use of purified and selective expanded cell populations may allow a more specific cardiac stem cell therapy in the future.

Preparation of autologous BMCs for cardiac therapy.

Important prerequisites for clinical cell therapy are the precise and careful preparation of the cells harvested from the adult bone marrow, the concentration of high cell numbers within the infarction, predominantly in the ischemic border zone, an enhanced migration of stem cells into the apoptotic and necrotic myocardial tissue, and the homing of the injected cells in the damaged myocardium, to avoid the recirculation loss of the injected cells to bone marrow, spleen, liver, and lungs.

For cell therapy, 80 to 250 ml adult bone marrow blood is aspirated from the iliac crest under local anesthesia. In the past, the mononuclear fraction of cells was separated from the whole bone marrow aspirate by density gradient centrifugation using osmolaric media such as ficoll or gelatineolysuccinate (3,4,46,47). However, both methods comprise open preparation procedures and need several washing steps; thus, both techniques need a good manufacturing practice process to produce a quality-controlled cell product and avoid contamination of the end product (48,49). That is especially mandatory for further processing of CD133 or CD34 purification of stem cells (2). Furthermore, both manual preparation protocols take at least 4 h. During cell preparation, viability needs to be determined several times, and finally must reach approximately 95%. Cell product

characterization by fluorescence-activated cell sorting or a cell counter is needed for individual release.

Recently, several new automatic systems were developed to gain nucleated or mononuclear cells from the whole bone marrow aspirate. The advantage of such systems is the possibility to separate the cells in a closed system. In these systems, the cell recovery is higher than with manual preparation (50), and with the same functional capabilities (51). Additionally, the preparation time is definitely shorter. The cell preparation and cell application can be done in 1 working process, which is considerably cheaper than the conventional BMC preparation procedures. Nowadays, 3 different separation strategies exist: 1) separation of the total nucleated cells from the bone marrow aspirate (50); 2) separation of the mononuclear cell fraction (51); and 3) purification selection of specified stem cells including CD34 or CD133 cells (52).

Most of these automatic separation systems separate different cell populations. Therefore, the clinical specialist has to decide which system fits best for the chosen application and cardiovascular setting. Furthermore, a consensus has to be reached to establish a standard protocol for characterization and testing of transplantation products in cardiovascular setting and a standard quality of the final cell product.

Cell delivery to the heart. One of the most important and crucial methodologic questions refers to the optimum mechanism of cell delivery to the heart (53,54). When given intravenously, only a very small fraction of infused cells can reach the infarct region; assuming normal coronary blood flow of 80 ml/min/100 g intravenous weight, a quantity of 160 ml per left ventricle (assuming a regular ventricular mass of 200 g) will flow per minute. This corresponds to approximately 3% of cardiac output (assuming a cardiac output of 5,000 ml/min) (55,56). Thus, intravenous application would require many circulation passages to enable infused cells to come into contact with the infarct-related artery. Throughout this long circulation and recirculation time, homing of cells to other organs could considerably reduce the number of cells dedicated to cell repair in the area of interest, namely, in the infarcted zone. Therefore, homing of stem cells to cardiac ischemic tissue from the circulation, as shown by Ma et al. (57), has to be considered a physiological process with restricted efficiency (58–63). Clinical evaluation of homing to infarcted myocardium with 18-fluorodeoxyglucose labeling of unselected BMC has revealed a cardiac retention of 1.3% to 2.6% after intracoronary application (58). The current principles of clinically employed cell delivery methods are depicted in Figure 1 (64).

Intracoronary application. Supplying the entire heart muscle compartment by intracoronary cell administration obviously seems to be advantageous for tissue repair of infarcted heart muscle after interventional reopening of the occluded coronary artery. Cells are able to flow through the infarcted and peri-infarct tissue during the immediate first passage of the post-ischemic region. Accordingly, by this intracoronary procedure the infarct tissue and the peri-

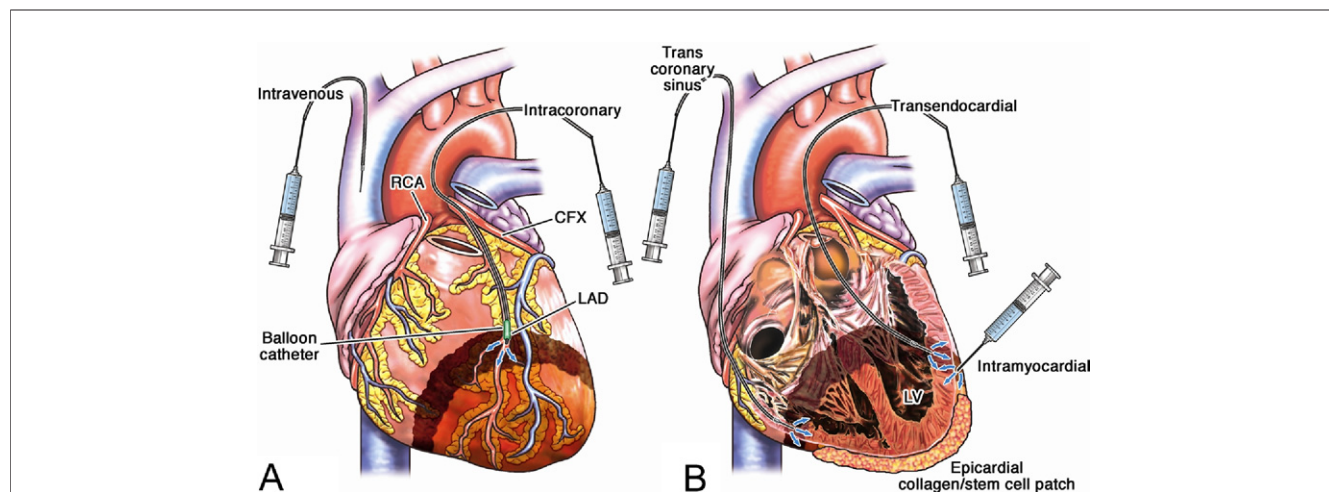


Figure 1 Various Transplantation Methods in Heart Disease

(A) Intracoronary and (B) intramyocardial transplantation methods in heart disease. Depicted are clinically used methods for vascular and myocardial cell delivery in cardiac intervention and cardiac surgery. CFX = circumflex artery; LAD = left anterior descending artery; LV = left ventricle; RCA = right coronary artery.

infarct zone can be enriched depending on the arterial circulation access of the tissue compartments.

A selective intracoronary delivery route, therefore, has been developed clinically (1) that minimizes the cell loss due to extraction toward organs of secondary interest by this first-pass-like effect. To facilitate transendothelial passage and migration into the infarct zone, cells are infused by pressure injection directly into the perinecrotic tissue accompanied by ischemic pre-conditioning. This is accomplished by a balloon catheter-induced ischemia, which is placed within the infarct-related artery. After exact positioning at the site of the former infarct vessel occlusion, percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty (PTCA) is performed. During this time of vessel occlusion, cells are infused intracoronarily through the balloon catheter, using 4 fractional high-pressure infusions of 5 ml cell suspension, each of which contains 6 to 10 million mononuclear cells. The PTCA thoroughly prevents backflow of cells and at the same time produces a stop flow beyond the site of balloon inflation to facilitate migration of cells into the infarcted zone. Thus, prolonged contact time for cellular migration is allowed, and cells are not washed away immediately under these conditions. This migration process is probably only present in injured and ischemic tissue (59). The induction of stem cell specific adhesion molecules in the late phase after ischemia-reperfusion injury seems to be the crucial step for stem cell homing and is relevant for the timing of stem cell therapy (59).

Endocardial intramyocardial application. A second interventional delivery route for cardiac stem cell transplantation is the transendocardial catheter injection (58), preferably using the NOGA injection catheter (Biosense Webster Ltd., Diamond Bar, California), which is placed across the aortic valve into the target area (65,66). This interven-

tional approach offers intramyocardial cell delivery similar to the surgical approach with being less invasive at the same time. The first clinical studies were able to prove safety and feasibility of the transendocardial route in the setting of chronic ischemic heart disease (65) as well as for intractable angina (66). However, orientation by electromechanical mapping is technically demanding, and cell loss into the ventricle, wrong injection sites, ventricular arrhythmias, and cardiac tamponade can occur.

Epicardial intramyocardial application. Surgical (epicardial) stem cell application is performed into well-exposed ischemic areas, allowing for multiple injections within and principally around the infarct area with a thin needle. First clinical studies performed stem cell injection in combination with CABG (2). Once the graft-coronary artery anastomosis is completed, the ischemic area is visualized, and the cells are injected into the border zone of the infarcted area (2,9,67).

This method has been applied successfully also during off-pump coronary artery bypass grafting as well as a stand-alone minimally invasive procedure in which cell injection is performed without cardiac arrest. As with the transendocardial cell delivery, intramyocardial stem cell injection during surgery seems to overcome the problem linked to insufficient vascularization, migration, and homing of transplanted stem cells more likely than to the attempts to influence stem cell migration process in the vasculature and results in a high stem cell persistence in heart muscle (67). Recent reports about surgical stand-alone stem cell therapy are of great interest (60,68,69). Therein, patients improved in myocardial perfusion and clinical symptoms as a result of stem cell injection only through lateral minithoracotomy. Besides distinguishing between stem cell and revascularization effects on cardiac function, this approach

could help to further minimize perioperative risks in the context of surgical stem cell therapy.

Mechanisms of stem cell action in the diseased heart.

The regenerative potential of bone marrow-derived stem cells may be explained by at least any of 4 mechanisms: 1) direct cell transdifferentiation from BMCs to cardiac myocytes (19,70); 2) cytokine-induced myocyte growth (18,23) and increase of residual viable myocytes (especially in the border zone of the infarcted area); 3) stimulation of intrinsic myocardial stem cells (endogenous stem cells) (18); and 4) induction of cell fusion between transplanted BMCs and resident myocytes (71,72), which was taken as an explanation for transdifferentiation.

The influence of cytokines has been shown to restore coronary blood vessels and muscle cells after experimental infarction by angiogenesis. Bone marrow stem cells express a bounty of cytokines (e.g., vascular endothelial growth factors, insulin-like growth factor, platelet-derived growth factor), thereby stimulating residual normal myocytes for regeneration (31,71,73) and proliferation, and intrinsic myocardial stem cells (endogenous stem cells) for cell regeneration and fusion.

The importance of ischemic pre-conditioning. Stromal-derived factor-1 and its receptor CXCR4 are well established to be essential for the enhancement of hematopoietic progenitor cell recruitment and angiogenesis (60–63). The expression of stromal-derived factor-1 is up-regulated during acute ischemia and stimulates the CXCR4 receptor, which is expressed on endothelial progenitor cells and BMCs, thereby acting as a chemotactic and promigratory factor. Currently, it is not known how many cells are exactly retained in the myocardium after intracoronary infusion and migrate into the border zone. Because myocardial ischemia may be an appropriate stimulus for a stem cell to find its optimum myocardial niche, the ischemia-producing stimulus, for example, by balloon dilation during the BMC infusion (ischemic pre-conditioning), seems to be important for the cells to home into the cardiac endothelium (49,57,74). It is obvious that cells may pass through the coronary vascular bed without significantly enhanced homing to coronary endothelium when only injected into the coronary arteries without pre-conditioning interventions. With respect to obvious differences in the intracoronary delivery techniques used in various publications, the variable outcome of results and therapeutic efficiency may be due to the nonstandardized mode of BMC infusion into the coronary circulation. Precise methodological standardization seems to be relevant for both effectiveness of stem cell therapy in clinical heart disease and the comparability of multicenter stem cell studies (49,57,74).

Cell therapy in the elderly cardiac patient. With aging, there is an increase in the incidence and severity of ischemic cardiovascular diseases. Pharmacotherapeutic regimen as well as revascularization therapy, such as PTCA or CABG, are not sufficient to bring about an improvement of a widely impaired cardiac function. However, it has been suggested

that therapeutic stem cell application may offer hope for these severely ill patients (75), although some data suggest that cell therapy may have only a limited effect in the elderly, because of the physiological changes that have occurred in the aged myocardium, and by the aged (autologous) stem cells themselves.

For elderly patients who remain symptomatic despite intensive medical treatment, autologous BMCs represent a very promising attempt to repopulate lost myocardial tissue. To intensify the benefit of the autologous stem cell application in the elderly: 1) an increased extraction of bone marrow blood and cell number; 2) a pre-treatment of the bone marrow-derived mononuclear cells with specific growth factors *in vitro*; 3) the injection of a higher amount of regenerative cells; and 4) enhanced ischemia of the myocardium induced by prolonged intracoronary balloon dilation will all have to be considered for treatment improvement in the future. Therapy with BMCs is ethically justified for treatment of patients of all ages.

Clinical Results and Indications

Acute myocardial infarction. In acute myocardial infarction, a variety of studies have demonstrated longstanding (up to 3 years and more) improvement of ventricular performance after using stem cell therapy, resulting in an increase in ejection fraction by 3% to 36% (mean 11.4%) and decreased infarct size by 1% to 60% (mean 34%) (Table 1) (1,3–5,32,76). In most studies, stem cell transplantation was performed in a time frame of 8 to 14 days after infarction. Although large variability of hemodynamic data after cell therapy exists (Table 1), there is moderate, but unequivocal improvement of performance of the infarcted heart after stem cell therapy that is quantitatively more than the sum of the interventional measures (PTCA, stent) and may be achieved in addition to these therapeutic interventions and to pharmacotherapy (4,46). Thus, autologous stem cell therapy represents an innovative and effective procedure for regeneration of impaired heart muscle in the early phase after the infarct (3–5,32,46,77–88).

The reason for the large variety of stem cell effects and for minor or negative results in some studies may be stem cell-related or dependent on different methods for the heart's functional evaluation: for example, by: 1) different methodology of cell preparations associated with altered cell viability; 2) various ages of patients with age-dependent loss of cell viability; 3) nonstandardized cell delivery to the heart, especially of the intensity of ischemic pre-conditioning during cell transfer, which represents an important prerequisite for ischemia-induced cell migration; 4) various amount of delivered cells; 5) different times between the acute infarct and stem cell therapy; and 6) noncalculable access to the border zone between the infarct and unaffected tissue because of vessel occlusion or nonsufficient intracoronary cell delivery. Moreover, methods for the assessment of ventricular function and perfusion (ventriculography, echo-

Table 1 Landmark Trials of Intracoronary and Intramyocardial Stem Cell Therapy in Acute and Chronic Ischemic Heart Disease

First Author/Study (Ref. #) (Type of Study)	n	Cell Application After AMI	Application Cell Type	Number of Cells	Results	Method
Stem Cell Therapy in Acute Myocardial Infarction						
Strauer 2001 (1) (C)	1	6 days	BMC	12×10^6	EF +16% Cardiac index +30% Infarct size –36%	GBP GBP SPECT
Strauer 2002 (3) (C)	20	7–9 days	BMC	28×10^6	EF +9% Infarct size –60%	LV angiogram LV angiogram
TOPCARE-AMI (4) (C)	59	4–6 days	Circ. Prog. BMC	16×10^6 213×10^6	EF +16% ESV –25%	LV angiogram LV angiogram
Chen (97) (C)	69	18 days	MSC from bone marrow		EF +36% ESV –53% Infarct size –60%	LV angiogram LV angiogram LV angiogram
BOOST (5) (R)	60	4–6 days	BMC vs. rand. controls	$2,460 \times 10^6$	EF +13% ESV –2% Infarct size –43%	MRI MRI MRI
Janssens (6) (R)	67	<24 h	BMC vs. i.c. placebo	304×10^6	EF +7% ESV –3% Infarct size –50%	MRI MRI MRI
BALANCE (32) (R)	124	7 days	BMC vs. rand. controls	6.1×10^7	EF +4.6% ESV –3.6 ml Infarct size –8.2%	LV angiogram LV angiogram LV angiogram
TACT-PB-AMI (83) (R)	54	3 days	PBSC	5×10^9	EF +13%	LV angiogram
Cardiac Study (84) (R)	38	4 days	BMC vs. rand. controls	41.8×10^7	EF +13.1%	SPECT
REGENT (85) (R)	200	3–12 days	BMC	178×10^6	EF +3%	MRI
BONAMI (87) (R)	100	7–10 days	BMC vs. rand. controls	98×10^6	EF +3% BMC, EF +4.3% Controls, EF +3.3%	MRI SPECT SPECT
ASTAMI (89) (R)	100	6 days	BMC vs. rand. controls	87×10^6	EF +1.9% Infarct size –25%	SPECT SPECT
REPAIR-AMI (46) (R)	204	4 days	BMC vs. i.c. placebo	$>230 \times 10^6$	EF +11% ESV –1%	LV angiogram LV angiogram
Chronic Ischemic Heart Disease						
Strauer (7) (C)	36	3 months to 9 yrs	BMC	28×10^6	EF +15% Infarct size –30%	LV angiogram LV angiogram
TOPCARE-CHD (89) (R)	75	>3 months	BMC group Circ. prog. group Control group	205×10^6 22×10^6	EF +7% (BMC) ESV, infarct size –4%	LV angiogram LV angiogram LV angiogram
STAR (97) (C)	391	8.5 ± 3.2 yrs	BMC	6.6×10^7	EF +6.7% ESV –18 ml Infarct size –4.5	LV angiogram LV angiogram LV angiogram

The percent changes (+/–) refer to the percent change of parameter before and after cell therapy.

BMC = bone marrow stem cell; C = controlled study; Circ. prog. = circulating progenitor cells; EF = ejection fraction; ESV = end-systolic volume; GBP = gated blood pool; i.c. = intracoronary; LV = left ventricular; M = meta-analysis; MRI = magnetic resonance imaging; MSC = mesenchymal stem cells; PBSC = peripheral blood stem cell(s); R = randomized study; rand. = randomized; SPECT = single-positron emission computed tomography.

cardiography, magnetic resonance imaging, single-positron emission computed tomography) are often not comparably used. This variability of methods probably may lead to nonuniform and nonstandardized cell availability to the damaged area of interest and may impede the comparability of data of various trials. Therefore, exact and comparable methodology of cell preparation, of cell delivery, and of the clinical patient selection and procedures are necessary.

Chronic infarction/ischemic heart disease. To date, several clinical studies have revealed beneficial stem cell effects in subacute and chronic ischemic heart failure (Table 1).

Surgical studies have also been designed for this setting (Table 2) (90–92). Combined with CABG, the improvement of cardiac function by the use of BMCs has been described as an increase in LVEF of approximately 10% (2,67,93,94). Studies combining stem cell transplantation with off-pump coronary surgery report similar results (95), implicating that cardiac arrest is not mandatory for safe and efficient stem cell implantation. However, these results will always be difficult to interpret conclusively without consideration of revascularization effects. Therefore, recent reports about “stand-alone stem cell treatment” for patients with

Table 2 Landmark Trials of Epicardial Intramyocardial Stem Cell Therapy in Ischemic Heart Disease

First Author/Study (Ref. #) (Type of Study)	n	Cell Application After AMI	Application Cell Type	Number of Cells	Results	Method	
Stem Cell Therapy in Ischemic Heart Disease							
Stamm (9) (R)	40	Median 9 weeks	CD133+ BMC vs. CABG alone	5.8×10^6	EF +9.7 ± 8.8% (BMC) EDV -11.1 ± 38.6 (BMC)	Echocardiography	
Patel (95) (C)	20	n.a.	CD34+ BMC vs. CABG alone	22×10^6	EF +16.7 ± 3.2% (BMC) EDV -22.0 ± 27.6 (BMC)	Echocardiography	
Hendrikkx (108) (R)	20	31.0 ± 23.2 weeks	BMC-MN vs. CABG alone	$60.25 \pm 31.35 \times 10^6$	EF + 6.1 ± 8.6% (BMC-MN)	MRI	
Ahmadi (93) (C)	27	10.5 ± 0.2 weeks	CD133+ BMC vs. CABG alone	$1.89 \pm 0.03 \times 10^6$	EF +3.7 ± 6.3% (BMC)	Echocardiography	
Meta-Analyses of Stem Cell Therapy in Acute Myocardial Infarction							
Hristov (90) (M)	241	~ 7 days	BMC	2.617×10^6	EF +4%	LVA	p = 0.04
Lipinski (8) (M)	698	~5 days	BMC, pred.	531×10^6	EF +3% Infarct size -6% ESV -7 ml EDV -5 ml	LVA, SPECT, MRI LVA, SPECT, MRI LVA, SPECT, MRI LVA, SPECT, MRI	p < 0.001 p < 0.001 p = 0.002 NS
Abdel-Latif (91) (M)	999	~10 days	BMC, pred.	80×10^6	EF +4% Infarct size -7% ESV -6 ml EDV -3 ml	LVA, SPECT, MRI LVA, SPECT, MRI LVA, SPECT, MRI LVA, SPECT, MRI	p < 0.001 p = 0.003 p = 0.006 NS
Burt (92) (M)	1,002		BMC, pred.	n.a.	EF +2% to +5%	Echocardiography, MRI	NS

CABG = coronary artery bypass graft surgery; EDV = end-diastolic volume; LVA = left ventricular angiography; MN = mononuclear; n.a. = not available; NS = not significant; pred. = predominantly; other abbreviations as in Table 1.

ischemic heart failure are very interesting (69). A recent study reported not only a gain in cardiac function but also a clear improvement in quality of life for patients with chronic ischemic heart disease and refractory angina treated after stand-alone bone marrow stem cell injection through lateral minithoracotomy (69).

Interventional studies using intracoronary or endocardial stem cell application have also been performed in the setting of chronic ischemic heart failure. These studies report an improvement of LVEF to a similar extent as in surgical trials. Furthermore, a significant decrease in infarction size and an improved overall myocardial oxygen uptake have been described (6,96). The largest study, STAR (acute and long-term effects of intracoronary Stem cell Transplantation in 191 patients with chronic heart failure) heart study, included 391 patients with chronic heart failure (New York Heart Association functional class 3.22 and 3.06, respectively; LVEF ≤35%) (97). Within the wide range of 3 months to 5 years after intracoronary BMC therapy, there was significant improvement in hemodynamics (e.g., LVEF, cardiac index), exercise capacity, oxygen uptake, and left ventricular contractility. Importantly, there was a significant decrease in the long-term mortality of treated patients in comparison to the control group (Fig. 2) (97). Thus, intracoronary BMC therapy improves ventricular performance, quality of life, and survival in patients with chronic heart failure.

Dilated cardiomyopathy. In the last years, few data have been reported on stem cell therapy for dilated cardiomyop-

athy (DCM) (96,98). This first-in-human study of autologous bone marrow cells in DCM, ABCD (Autologous Bone marrow Cell trial in Dilated cardiomyopathy), investigated 44 patients, and the Düsseldorf ABCD trial investigated 20 patients (96,98). In both studies, none of the patients had coronary disease (excluded by angiography) or myocarditis (excluded by endomyocardial biopsy). In both trials, cell transplantation was performed by the intracoronary administration route in either coronary artery.

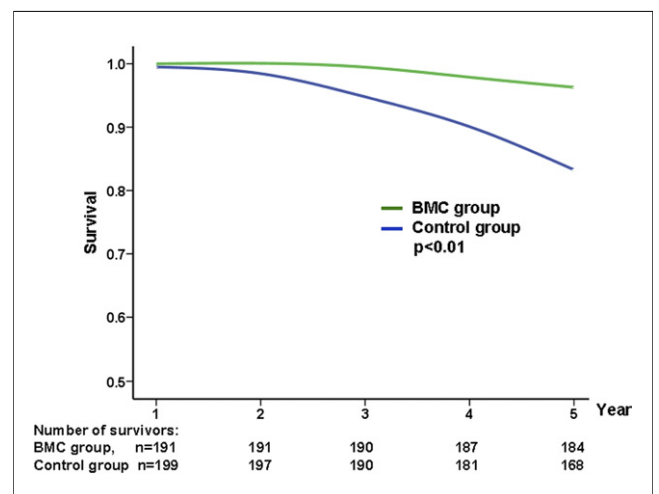


Figure 2 Effect of BMC Therapy on Survival

Effect of bone marrow cell (BMC) therapy (green line) on survival of patients with chronic ischemic cardiomyopathy (97). Blue line indicates control group.

There was a significant increase in New York Heart Association functional classification. Ejection fraction improved by 5.4% to 8%. Physical ability (functional capacity) rose from 25 to 75 W. Furthermore, reduction of arrhythmias was documented. Both trials found reduction in end-systolic volumes and no change in end-diastolic volumes. These first results show that transplantation of autologous bone marrow cells as well as the intracoronary approach represent a potential effective therapeutic procedure for DCM.

Indications for cell therapy. The therapeutic extract resulting from the 16 largest controlled and randomized studies ($n = 1,598$) (Table 1) shows for acute myocardial infarction and for chronic ischemic heart failure an improvement of LVEF by a mean 11.3%. Considering the 4 meta-analyses involving 2,940 patients, the increase in ejection fraction (mean 4%) is much lower, but still significant. This hemodynamic pattern is compatible with the symptomatic improvement (New York Heart Association functional class, exercise tolerance) and with reduced mortality in treated patients (Fig. 2).

The best tested indications for BMC therapy are a previous myocardial infarction with large infarct area, aneurysm, and depressed ejection fraction, as well as heart failure due to chronic ischemic heart disease (99). The age of the infarct seems to be less relevant for the regenerative potency of BMCs, because this therapy for old infarcts (>8 years) is almost equally effective as it is for recent infarcts (8 to 14 days). This regenerative phenomenon is probably related to a persistence of the border zone, which is also present in chronic infarcts. Positive results that have also been reported for DCM with severely depressed ejection fraction encourage further studies in advanced heart failure due to heart muscle diseases.

Taking all this into account, it may be concluded that cell transplantation within the first 5 days after acute infarction is not possible for logistical reasons of the critically ill patient and is not advisable because of the inflammatory process (100–102). Although the ideal time point for transplantation remains to be defined, it is most likely between days 7 and 14 after the onset of myocardial infarction.

Clinical Safety

The procedure of intracoronary autologous bone marrow cell transplantation in patients with acute myocardial infarction, chronic coronary artery disease, and nonischemic DCM is effective and safe. No increase of malignant diseases or inadequate progression of coronary artery diseases has been documented (91). To assess any inflammatory response and myocardial reaction after intracoronary autologous stem cell transplantation, white blood cell count, serum levels of C-reactive protein and of creatine phosphokinase are measured before, during, and after treatment, and these data collected revealed no evidence of inflammation.

Neither procedural or cell-induced complications nor any other type of side effects have occurred so far.

Ongoing Clinical Trials

Several trials running currently are trying to answer the questions mentioned in the preceding text. Regarding the effect of intracoronary bone marrow progenitor cell infusion in the setting of acute myocardial infarction, placebo-controlled Phase II/III trials like REGEN-AMI (Bone Marrow Derived Adult Stem Cells for Acute Anterior Myocardial Infarction) are of interest. In the field of surgical cell therapy, the recently launched PERFECT (intramyocardial transplantation of bone marrow stem cells For improvement of post-infarct myocardial regeneration in addition to CABG surgery) study is the first placebo-controlled, double-blinded, multicenter Phase III trial investigating the effects of intramyocardial BMC injection combined with CABG surgery. Although representing Phase I and II levels, PROMETHEUS (Prospective Randomized Study of Mesenchymal Stem Cell Therapy in Patients Undergoing Cardiac Surgery) is highly interesting because it represents the first-in-human study analyzing the safety and efficacy of intramyocardial injection of mesenchymal stem cells during CABG in patients scheduled for coronary surgery due to ischemic heart disease, as an alternative cell population to the hematopoietic progenitor cell populations mainly used in clinical trials for cardiac regeneration so far. In this respect, the combination treatment of purified endothelial progenitor cells and mesenchymal stem cells has been addressed successfully in a Phase I trial with intramyocardial injection (103). There are several more interesting trials currently recruiting patients, and results from all of these are needed for a valid evaluation of the gain in cardiac function related to stem cell therapy.

Dose-dependent contribution for cardiac recovery. Iwasaki et al. (104) found dose-dependent augmentation of cardiomyogenesis and vasculogenesis after transplantation of human CD34⁺ cells into rat infarcted myocardium. Enhanced capillary density, inhibition of left ventricular fibrosis, and increased recovery of the left ventricular function was associated with higher numbers of transplanted CD34⁺ cells. These findings suggest that use of higher doses of CD34⁺ cells may be more potent for therapeutic application to the damaged myocardium than a lower dose. In their study, they also found that there was no beneficial effect of CD34⁺ cells in their low-dose group (1×10^3 cells/kg) (104). Recently, clinical data also showed the dose-dependency influence of CD34⁺ cells on left ventricular function and perfusion (105).

Ethical considerations. The use of human autologous BMCs containing (progenitor) stem cells for cardiac regenerative therapies can be clinically justified and is ethically unquestionable as long as unmodified primary cells are used. No major side effects have been reported so far, especially

with regard to tumor formation. Moreover, in contrast to differentiation of embryonic stem cells to contractile heart cells, there is no arrhythmogenic potential of BMCs, and immunosuppressive therapy is unnecessary. Thus, the therapeutic advantage clearly prevails, and clinical use has already been realized.

Perspectives

Future studies should aim at defining the optimum technique of cell preparation, discovering the best cell type and amount for myocardial regeneration, analyzing their homing characteristics to the cardiac endothelium and to extra-cardiac organs, improving cell delivery techniques, and trying to establish indications for cell therapy in various heart diseases (62). Joint and cooperative studies between pre-clinical and clinical research are essential. The mechanisms of stem cell-related cardiac repair need to be further investigated and alternative modes of action such as paracrine activity and immunomodulation should be considered. Furthermore, attempts to create dynamic “multi-lineage” cardiac regeneration by combining cell therapy with tissue-engineered scaffolds or cardiac resynchronization therapy (106–108) should be further supported because they offer a realistic perspective to come to an integrated regenerative approach.

As with each new therapy, new questions arise parallel to its clinical use: the following methodologic and therapeutic questions would be worth to be analyzed in the future: 1) to define the optimum technique of cell preparation; 2) to standardize cell separation procedures; 3) to evaluate the quality of the cell end product; 4) to discover the best cell type for myocardial regeneration; 5) to analyze cell homing characteristics to the cardiac niche; 6) to characterize the mode of action of stem cells for cardiac regeneration; 7) to improve cell delivery techniques; and 8) to label stem cells for determining stem cell fate. Interest should be focused on adult stem cell projects that have already proven significant clinical efficacy, but without having any ethical concerns.

Reprint requests and correspondence: Dr. Gustav Steinhoff, Reference and Translation Center for Cardiac Stem Cell Therapy, Biomedical Research Center Rostock, Department for Cardiac Surgery, University Rostock, Schillingallee 68, Rostock D-18057, Germany. E-mail: gustav.steinhoff@med.uni-rostock.de or straue@med.uni-duesseldorf.de.

REFERENCES

1. Strauer BE, Brehm M, Zeus T, et al. Intracoronary human autologous stem cell transplantation for myocardial regeneration following myocardial infarction. *Dtsch Med Wschr* 2001;126:932–8.
2. Stamm C, Westphal B, Kleine HD, et al. Autologous bone-marrow stem-cell transplantation for myocardial regeneration. *Lancet* 2003; 361:45–6.
3. Strauer BE, Brehm M, Zeus T, et al. Repair of infarcted myocardium by autologous intracoronary mononuclear bone marrow cell transplantation in humans. *Circulation* 2002;106:1913–8.
4. Assmus B, Schächinger V, Teupe C, et al. Transplantation of progenitor cells and regeneration enhancement in acute myocardial infarction (TOPCARE-AMI). *Circulation* 2002;106:3009–17.
5. Wollert KC, Meyer GP, Lotz J, et al. Intracoronary autologous bone-marrow cell transfer after myocardial infarction: the BOOST randomised controlled clinical trial. *Lancet* 2004;64:141–8.
6. Janssens S, Dubois C, Bogaert J, et al. Autologous bone marrow-derived stem cell transfer in patients with ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction: double-blind, randomised controlled clinical trial. *Lancet* 2006;367:113–21.
7. Strauer BE, Brehm M, Zeus T, et al. Regeneration of human infarcted heart muscle by intracoronary autologous bone marrow cell transplantation in chronic coronary artery disease: the IACT study. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2005;46:1651–8.
8. Lipinski MJ, Giuseppe GL, Biondi-Zoccai GG, et al. Impact of intracoronary cell therapy on left ventricular function in the setting of myocardial infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2007;50:1761–7.
9. Stamm C, Kleine HD, Choi YH, et al. Intramyocardial delivery of CD133+ bone marrow cells and coronary artery bypass grafting for chronic ischemic heart disease. Safety and efficacy studies. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 2007;133:717–25.
10. Turan RG, Zeus T, Brehm M, et al. Factors influencing spontaneous mobilisation of CD34+ and CD133+ progenitor cells after myocardial infarction. *Eur J Clin Invest* 2007;37:842–51.
11. Bartunek J, Sherman W, Vanderheyden M, Fernandez-Aviles F, Wijns W, Terzic A. Delivery of biologics in cardiovascular regenerative medicine. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2009;85:548–52.
12. Pfeffer M, Braunwald E. Ventricular remodeling after myocardial infarction. Experimental observations and clinical implications. *Circulation* 1990;81:1161–72.
13. Pfeffer M. Left ventricular remodeling after acute myocardial infarction. *Annu Rev Med* 1995;46:455–66.
14. Konstam MA, Kramer DG, Patel AR, Maron MS, Udelson JE. Left ventricular remodeling in heart failure current concepts in clinical significance and assessment. *J Am Coll Cardiol Img* 2011;4:98–108.
15. Abbate A, Biondi-Zoccai GG, Appleton DL, et al. Survival and cardiac remodeling benefits in patients undergoing late percutaneous coronary intervention of the infarct-related artery: evidence from a meta-analysis of randomized controlled clinical trials. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2008;21:956–64.
16. Anversa P, Torella D, Kajstura J, Nadal-Ginard, Leri A. Myocardial regeneration. *Eur Heart J* 2002;23 Suppl G:67–71.
17. Bartunek J, Vanderheyden M, Vanderkerckhove D, et al. Intracoronary injection of CD133+ enriched bone marrow progenitor cells promotes cardiac recovery after recent myocardial infarction: feasibility and safety. *Circulation* 2005;112:178–83.
18. Anversa P, Leri A, Kajstura J. Cardiac regeneration. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2006;47:1769–76.
19. Orlic D, Kajstura J, Chimenti S, et al. Bone marrow cells regenerate infarcted myocardium. *Nature* 2001;410:701–5.
20. Orlic D, Kajstura J, Chimenti S, et al. Mobilized bone marrow cells repair the infarcted heart, improving function and survival. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2001;98:10344–9.
21. Leri A, Kajstura J, Anversa P. Myocyte proliferation and ventricular remodeling. *J Card Fail* 2002;8 Suppl:518–25.
22. Urbanek K, Quaini F, Tasca G, et al. Intense myocyte formation from cardiac stem cells in human cardiac hypertrophy. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2003;100:10440–55.
23. Nadal-Ginard B, Kajstura J, Leri, Anversa P. Myocyte death, growth and regeneration in cardiac hypertrophy and failure. *Circ Res* 2003;92:139–50.
24. Rota M, Kajstura J, Hosada T, et al. Bone marrow cells adopt the cardiomyogenic fate in vivo. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2007;104: 17783–8.
25. Murry CE, Soonpaa MH, Reinecke H, et al. Hematopoietic stem cells do not transdifferentiate into cardiac myocytes in myocardial infarcts. *Nature* 2004;428:664–8.
26. Balsam LB, Wagers AJ, Christensen JL, Kofidis T, Weissman IL, Robbins RC. Hematopoietic stem cells adopt mature hematopoietic fates in ischemic myocardium. *Nature* 2004;428:668–73.
27. Berry MF, Engler AJ, Woo YJ, et al. Mesenchymal stem cell injection after myocardial infarction improves myocardial compliance. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 2006;290:H2196–203.

28. Kinnaird T, Stabile E, Burnett MS, et al. Marrow-derived stromal cell express genes encoding a broad spectrum of arteriogenic cytokines and promote in vitro and in vivo arteriogenesis through paracrine mechanisms. *Circ Res* 2004;94:678–85.
29. Rehmann J, Li J, Orschell CM, March KL. Peripheral blood “endothelial progenitor cells” are derived from monocyte/macrophages and secrete angiogenic growth factors. *Circulation* 2003;107:1164–9.
30. Grunewald M, Avraham I, Dor Y, et al. VEGF-induced adult neovascularization: recruitment, retention, and role of accessory cells. *Cell* 2006;124:175–89.
31. Bittner RE, Schofer C, Weipoltshammer K, et al. Recruitment of bone marrow derived cells by skeletal and cardiac muscle in adult dystrophic mdx mice. *Anat Embryol (Berlin)* 1999;199:391–6.
32. Yousef M, Schannwell CM, Köstering M, Zeus T, Brehm M, Strauer BE. The BALANCE study. Clinical benefit and long-term outcome after intracoronary autologous bone marrow cell transplantation in patients with acute myocardial infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2009;53:2262–9.
33. Pittenger MF, McKay AM, Beck SC, et al. Multilineage potential of adult human mesenchymal stem cells. *Science* 1999;284:143–7.
34. Pittenger MF, Martin DJ. Mesenchymal stem cells and their potential as cardiac therapeutics. *Circ Res* 2004;95:9–20.
35. Tomita S, Li RK, Weisel RD, et al. Autologous transplantation of bone marrow cells improve damaged heart function. *Circulation* 1999;100:II247–56.
36. Armiñán A, Gandía C, García-Verdugo JM, et al. Mesenchymal stem cells provide better results than hematopoietic precursors for the treatment of myocardial infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2010;55:2244–53.
37. Makino S, Fukuda K, Miyoshi S, et al. Cardiomyocytes can be generated from marrow stromal cells in vitro. *J Clin Invest* 1999;103:697–705.
38. Shake JG, Gruber PJ, Baumgartner WA, et al. Mesenchymal stem cell implantation in a swine myocardial infarct model: engraftment and functional effects. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2002;73:1919–25.
39. Toma C, Pittenger MF, Cahill KS, Byrne BJ, Kessler PD. Human mesenchymal stem cells differentiate to a cardiomyocyte phenotype in the adult murine heart. *Circulation* 2002;105:93–8.
40. Dai W, Hale St, Martin BJ, et al. Allogenic mesenchymal stem cell transplantation in postinfarcted rat myocardium: short- and long-term effects. *Circulation* 2005;112:214–23.
41. Asahara T, Masuda H, Takahashi T, et al. Bone marrow origin of endothelial progenitor cells responsible for postnatal vasculogenesis in physiological and pathological neovascularisation. *Circ Res* 1999;85:221–8.
42. Condorelli G, Borelo U, Angelis L, et al. Cardiomyocytes induce endothelial cells to transdifferentiate into cardiac muscle: implications for myocardium regeneration. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2001;98:10733–8.
43. Hill J, Zalos G, Halcox JP, et al. Circulating endothelial progenitor cells, vascular function and cardiovascular risk factors. *N Engl J Med* 2003;348:593–600.
44. Jackson K A, Majka SM, Wang H, et al. Regeneration of ischemic cardiac muscle and vascular endothelium by adult stem cells. *J Clin Invest* 2001;107:1395–402.
45. Pfister O, Mouquet F, Jain M, et al. CD31– but not CD 31+ cardiac side population cells exhibit functional cardiomyogenic differentiation. *Circ Res* 2005;97:52–61.
46. Schächinger V, Erbs S, Elsässer A, et al., for the REPAIR-AMI Investigators. Improved clinical outcome after intracoronary administration of bone-marrow-derived progenitor cells in acute myocardial infarction: final 1-year results of the REPAIR-AMI trial. *Eur Heart J* 2006;27:2775–83.
47. Lunde K, Solheim S, Aakhus S, et al. Intracoronary injection of mononuclear bone marrow cells in acute myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med* 2006;355:1199–209.
48. Seeger FH, Tonn T, Krzossok N, Zeiher AM, Dimmeler S. Cell isolation procedures matter. A comparison of different isolation protocols of bone marrow mononuclear cells used for cell therapy in patients with acute myocardial infarction. *Eur Heart J* 2007;28:766–72.
49. Griesel C, Heuft HG, Herrmann D, et al. Good manufacturing practice-compliant validation and preparation of BM cells for the therapy of acute myocardial infarction. *Cytotherapy* 2007;9:35–43.
50. Hermann PC, Huber SL, Herrler T, et al. Concentration of bone marrow total nucleated cells by a point-of-care device provides a high yield and preserves their functional activity. *Cell Transplant* 2008;16:1059–69.
51. Aktas M, Radke TF, Strauer BE, Wernet P, Kogler G. Separation of adult bone marrow mononuclear cells using the automated closed separation system Sepax. *Cytotherapy* 2008;10:203–11.
52. Furlani D, Ugurlucan M, Ong L, et al. Is the intravascular administration of mesenchymal stem cells safe? Mesenchymal stem cells and intravital microscopy. *Microvasc Res* 2009;77:370–6.
53. Li RK, Mickle DA, Weisel RD, Zhang J, Mohabeer MK. In vivo survival and function of transplanted rat cardiomyocytes. *Circ Res* 1999;78:283–8.
54. Li RK, Jia ZQ, Weisel RD, et al. Cardiomyocyte transplantation improves heart function. *Ann Thorac Surg* 1996;62:654–60, discussion 660–1.
55. Gregg DE, Fisher LC. Blood supply to the heart. In: Dill DB, Fenn WO, Hamilton WF. *Handbook of Physiology*. Washington, DC: American Physiology Society, 1963;2:1517–84.
56. Strauer BE. Myocardial oxygen consumption in chronic heart disease: role of wall stress, hypertrophy and coronary reserve. *Am J Cardiol* 1979;4:730–40.
57. Ma N, Stamm C, Kaminski A, et al. Human cord blood cells induce angiogenesis following myocardial infarction in NOD/scid mice. *Cardiovasc Res* 2005;66:45–54.
58. Hofmann M, Wollert KC, Meyer GP, et al. Monitoring of bone marrow cell homing into the infarcted human myocardium. *Circulation* 2005;111:2198–202.
59. Szilvassy SJ, Bass MJ, Van Zant G, Grimes B. Organ-selective homing defines engraftment kinetics of murine hematopoietic stem cells and is compromised by ex vivo expansion. *Blood* 1999;93:1557–66.
60. Kamota T, Tao-Sheng L, Morikage N, et al. Ischemic preconditioning enhances the mobilisation and recruitment of bone marrow stem cells to protect against ischemic/reperfusion injury in the late phase (abstr). *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2009;53:1812–22.
61. Elmadbouh I, Haider HK, Jiang S, Idris NM, Lu G, Ashraf M. Ex vivo delivered stromal cell-derived factor 1alpha promotes stem cell homing and induces angiomyogenesis in the infarcted myocardium. *J Mol Cell Cardiol* 2007;42:792–803.
62. Cerardini DJ, Kulkarni AR, Callaghan MJ, et al. Progenitor cell trafficking is regulated by hypoxic gradients through HIF-1 induction of SDF-1. *Nature Med* 2004;10:858–64.
63. Sussman M. Cardiovascular biology: heart and bones. *Nature* 2001;410:640–1.
64. Strauer BE, Kornowski R. Stem cell therapy in perspective. *Circulation* 2003;107:929–34.
65. Perin EC, Dohmann HF, Borojevic R, et al. Transendocardial, autologous bone marrow cell transplantation for severe, chronic ischemic heart failure. *Circulation* 2003;107:2294–302.
66. Losordo DW, Schatz RA, White CJ, et al. Intramyocardial transplantation of autologous CD34+ stem cells for intractable angina: a phase I/IIa double-blind, randomized controlled trial. *Circulation* 2007;115:3165–72.
67. Kaminski A, Steinhoff G. Current status of intramyocardial bone marrow stem cell transplantation. *Semin Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 2008;20:119–25.
68. Klein HM, Ghodsizad A, Marktanner R, et al. Intramyocardial transplantation of CD 133+ stem cells improved cardiac function without bypass surgery. *Heart Surg Forum* 2007;10:E66–9.
69. Pompilio G, Steinhoff G, Liebold A, et al. Direct minimally invasive intramyocardial injection of bone-marrow derived AC133+ stem cells in patients with refractory angina. Preliminary results. *Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 2008;56:71–6.
70. Oh H, Bradfute SB, Gallardo TD, et al. Cardiac progenitor cells from adult myocardium: homing, differentiation, and fusion after infarction. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2003;100:12313–8.
71. Alvares-Dolado M, Pardal R, Garcia-Verdugo JM, et al. Fusion of bone marrow-derived cells with Purkinje neurons, cardiomyocytes and hepatocytes. *Nature* 2003;425:968–73.

72. Terada N, Hamazaki T, Oka M, et al. Bone marrow cells adopt the phenotype of other cells by spontaneous cell fusion. *Nature* 2002;416:542-5.
73. Beohar N, Rapp J, Pandya S, Losordo DW. Rebuilding the damaged heart. The potential of cytokines and growth factors in the treatment of ischemic heart disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2010;56:1287-97.
74. Lu G, Haider HK, Jiang S, Ashraf M. Sca-1+ stem cell survival and engraftment in the infarcted heart. Dual role for preconditioning-induced connexin-43. *Circulation* 2009;119:2587-96.
75. Brehm M, Stanske B, Strauer BE. Therapeutic potential of stem cells in elderly patients with cardiovascular diseases. *Exp Gerontol* 2008;43:1024-32.
76. Dubois C, Liu X, Claus P, et al. Differential effects of progenitor cell populations on left ventricular remodeling and myocardial neovascularization after myocardial infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2010;55:2232-43.
77. Lunde K. Bone marrow cell therapy after acute myocardial infarction. Back to bench or ready for an outcome trial. *J Cardiovasc Translat Res* 2009;2:139-41.
78. Fernandez-Aviles F, San Roman J, Garcia-Frade J, et al. Experimental and clinical regenerative capability of human bone marrow cells after myocardial infarction. *Circ Res* 2004;95:742-8.
79. Chen SL, Fang WW, Ye F, et al. Effect on left ventricular function of intracoronary transplantation of autologous bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells in patients with acute myocardial infarction. *Am J Cardiol* 2004;94:92-5.
80. Meluzin J, Janousek S, Mayer J, et al. Three-, 6-, and 12-month results of autologous transplantation of mononuclear bone marrow cells in patients with acute myocardial infarction. *Int J Cardiol* 2007;128:185-92.
81. Ge J, Li Y, Qian J, et al. Efficacy of emergent transcatheter transplantation of stem cells for treatment of acute myocardial infarction (TCT-STAMI). *Heart* 2006;92:1764-7.
82. Penicka M, Horak J, Kobyłka P, et al. Intracoronary injection of autologous bone-marrow derived mononuclear cells in patients with large anterior acute myocardial infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2007;49:2373-4.
83. Matsubara H, Murohara T, Ikeda K, et al. Angiogenic cell therapy by bone marrow—and peripheral blood—mononuclear cells for patients with ischemic limbs (TACT) and AMI (TACT-PB-AMI). *Jpn Circ J* 2007;70 Suppl 1:26.
84. Piepoli MF, Vallisa D, Arbasi M, et al. Bone marrow cell transplantation improves cardiac, autonomic, and functional indexes in acute anterior myocardial infarction patients (Cardiac Study). *Eur J Heart Fail* 2010;12:172-80.
85. Tendera M, Wojakowski W, Ruzytto W, et al. Intracoronary infusion of bone marrow-derived selected CD34+ CXCR4+ cells and non-selected mononuclear cells in patients with acute STEMI and reduced left ventricular ejection fraction: results of randomised, multicenter myocardial regeneration by intracoronary infusion of selected populations of stem cells in acute myocardial infarction (REGENT trial). *Eur Heart J* 2009;30:1313-21.
86. Mansour S, Roy DC, Bouchard V, et al. COMPARE-AMI trial. *J Cardiovasc Translat Res* 2010;3:153-9.
87. Roncalli J, Mouquet F, Piot C, et al. Intracoronary autologous mononucleated bone marrow cell infusion for acute myocardial infarction: results of the randomised multicenter BONAMI trial. *Eur Heart J* 2011;32:1748-57.
88. Sürder D, Schwitler J, Mocetti T, et al. Cell-based therapy for myocardial repair in patients with acute myocardial infarction: rationale and study design of the SWISS multicenter intracoronary stem cell study in acute myocardial infarction. *Am Heart J* 2010;160:58-64.
89. Assmus B, Honold J, Schächinger V, et al. Transcoronary transplantation of progenitor cells after myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med* 2006;355:1222-32.
90. Hristov M, Heussen N, Schober A, Weber C. Intracoronary infusion of autologous bone marrow cells on left ventricular function after acute myocardial infarction: a meta-analysis. *J Cell Mol Med* 2006;10:727-33.
91. Abdel-Latif A, Bolli R, Tleyjeh IM, et al. Adult bone marrow-derived cells for cardiac repair: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Arch Intern Med* 2007;167:989-97.
92. Burt R, Loh Y, Pearce W, et al. Clinical applications of blood-derived and marrow-derived stem cells for nonmalignant diseases. *JAMA* 2008;299:925-36.
93. Ahmadi H, Baharvand H, Ashtiani SK, et al. Safety analysis and improved cardiac function following local autologous transplantation of CD 133+ enriched bone marrow cells after myocardial infarction. *Curr Neurovasc Res* 2007;4:153-60.
94. Zhao Q, Sun Y, Xia L, Chen A, Wang Z. Randomized study of mononuclear bone marrow cell transplantation in patients with coronary surgery. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2008;86:1833-40.
95. Patel AN, Geffner L, Vina RF, et al. Surgical treatment for congestive heart failure with autologous stem cell transplantation: a prospective randomized study. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 2005;130:1631-9.
96. Seth S, Narang R, Bhargava B, et al., for the AIIMS Cardiovascular Stem Cell Study Group. Percutaneous intracoronary cellular cardiomyoblasty for non-ischemic cardiomyopathy. Clinical and histopathological results. The first-in-man ABCD (autologous bone marrow cells in dilated cardiomyopathy) trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2006;48:2350-1.
97. Strauer BE, Yousef M, Schannwell CM. The acute and long-term effects of intracoronary stem cell transplantation in 191 patients with chronic heart failure: the STAR heart study. *Eur J Heart Fail* 2010;12:721-9.
98. Schannwell CM, Köstering M, Zeus T, et al. [Humane autologe intrakoronare stammzelltransplantation zur myokardregeneration bei dilatativer cardiomyopathie (NYHA stadium II-IV)]. The Düsseldorf Autologous Bone Marrow Cells in Dilated Cardiomyopathy Trial. ABCD Trial. *J Kardiologie* 2008;15:23-30.
99. Strauer BE, Ott G, Schannwell CM, Brehm M. Bone marrow cells to improve ventricular function. *Heart* 2009;95:98-9.
100. Li RK, Mickle DA, Weisel RD, Rao V, Jia ZQ. Optimal time for cardiomyocyte transplantation to maximize myocardial function after left ventricular injury. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2001;72:1957-63.
101. Frangogiannis NG, Smith CW, Entman ML. The inflammatory response in myocardial infarction. *Cardiovasc Res* 2002;53:31-47.
102. Soeki T, Tamura Y, Shinohara H, Tanaka H, Bando K, Fukuda N. Serial changes in serum VEGF and HGF in patients with acute myocardial infarction. *Cardiology* 2000;93:169-74.
103. Lasala GP, Silva JA, Kusnick BA, Minguell JJ. Combination stem cell therapy for the treatment of medically refractory coronary ischemia: a phase I study. *Cardiovasc Revasc Med* 2011;12:29-34.
104. Iwasaki H, Kawamoto A, Ishikawa M, et al. Dose-dependent contribution of CD 34-positive cell transplantation to concurrent vasculogenesis and cardiomyogenesis for functional regenerative recovery after myocardial infarction. *Circulation* 2006;113:1311-25.
105. Quyyumi AA, Waller E, Murrow J, et al. CD 34+ cell infusion after ST elevation myocardial infarction is associated with improved perfusion and is dose dependent. *Am Heart J* 2011;161:98-105.
106. Chachques JC. Cellular cardiac regenerative therapy in which patients? *Expert Rev Cardiovasc Ther* 2009;7:911-9.
107. Shafy A, Lavergne T, Latremouille C, et al. Association of electrostimulation with cell transplantation in ischemic heart disease. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 2009;138:994-1001.
108. Hendriks M, Hensen K, Clijsters C, et al. Recovery of regional but not global contractile function by the direct intramyocardial autologous bone marrow transplantation: results from a randomized controlled clinical trial. *Circulation* 2006;114 Suppl:1101-7.

Key Words: cardiac stem cell therapy ■ intracoronary ■ intramyocardial.