- 1 Patients' induced pluripotent stem cells to model drug induced adverse events: a role in
- 2 predicting thiopurine induced pancreatitis?
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- 4 Running title: iPSC to study drug induced pancreatitis
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29 Abstract: Induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSC) can be produced from adult cells by 30 transfecting them with a definite set of pluripotency-associated genes. Under adequate 31 growth conditions and stimulation iPSC can differentiate to almost every somatic lineage 32 in the body. Patients' derived iPSC are an innovative model to study mechanisms of adverse drug reactions in individual patients and in cell types that cannot be easily 33 34 obtained from human subjects. Proof-of concept studies with known toxicants have been 35 performed for liver, cardiovascular and central nervous system cells: neurons obtained 36 from iPSC have been used to elucidate the mechanism of chemotherapy-induced peripheral neuropathy by evaluating the effects of neurotoxic drugs such as vincristine. 37 38 However, no study has been performed yet on pancreatic tissue and drug induced pancreatitis. Thiopurines (azathioprine and mercaptopurine) are immunosuppressive 39 40 antimetabolite drugs, commonly used to treat Crohn's disease. About 5% of Crohn's disease patients treated with thiopurines develop pancreatitis, a severe idiosyncratic 41 42 adverse event; these patients have to stop thiopurine administration and may require 43 medical treatment, with significant personal and social costs. Molecular mechanism of thiopurine induced pancreatitis (TIP) is currently unknown and no fully validated 44 45 biomarker is available to assist clinicians in preventing this adverse event. Hence, in this 46 review we have reflected upon the probable research applications of exocrine pancreatic cells generated from patient specific iPS cells. Such pancreatic cells can provide excellent 47 48 insights into the molecular mechanism of TIP. In particular three hypotheses on the 49 mechanism of TIP could be explored: drug biotransformation, innate immunity and 50 adaptative immunity.

51 Key-words: induced pluripotent stem cells, adverse drug reactions, pancreatitis,
52 inflammatory bowel disease, thiopurines

55 Adverse drug reactions and drug induced pancreatitis

56 Adverse drug reactions are an important issue for patients, national health services and 57 drug companies [1]. Indeed, development of an adverse drug reaction may be life 58 threatening or cause permanent disabilities [2,3]; social costs to treat adverse drug 59 reactions are high [4], as the costs associated with failure in new drug development 60 because of severe adverse reactions [1]. Drug attrition rates have raised in past years, 61 determining increased costs for the pharmaceutical industry and patients; the reasons for 62 this comprise the paucity of *in vitro* models that properly predict clinical efficacy and 63 toxicity [5]. Among the adverse drug reactions, idiosyncratic reactions are the most severe, 64 given their dose independence, rapid onset and usually requirement for permanent drug 65 discontinuation [6].

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67 Drug induced pancreatitis is a particularly severe form of idiosyncratic adverse drug 68 reaction; the incidence of this adverse event has been estimated as 0.1-2% by earlier 69 reports [3,7-9], while present day studies describe an incidence higher than 5% [10] and 70 limited data suggests that the incidence is increasing [11]. Drugs are the third most 71 common determinant of pancreatitis after biliary stones and alcohol [12]. Pancreatitis 72 occurs as a consequence of injury of the acinar cells and/or pancreatic duct that causes 73 undue accumulation and activation of proenzymes within the pancreas. The activated pancreatic enzymes damage the cellular and tissue components of the pancreas, leading to 74 75 an inflammatory response, which augments the vascular permeability and may determine haemorrhage, edema, ischemia, and necrosis [13]. In severe pancreatitis, a systemic 76 77 inflammatory response syndrome can be triggered and patients may develop sepsis and multiple organ failure. Treatment of patients with severe pancreatitis can require extended 78

79 hospital stays associated with high health care costs: indeed about one fourth of patients 80 who develop pancreatitis will have to receive intensive care treatment [14]. A retrospective 81 study reported that patients with acute pancreatitis who required intensive care therapy 82 had an average intensive care unit stay of 9 days and an average total hospital stay of 39 days, and the average overall hospital cost was approximately 100,000\$ [15]. Recovery 83 84 after acute pancreatitis is typically complete and patients can generally return to their job and other normal activities [14,15]. However, around one out of ten pancreatitis cases 85 86 evolves to chronic pancreatitis [13].

87 Over 500 drugs have been associated with pancreatitis in clinical case studies and adverse 88 drug reactions databases [12,16]. Pancreatitis is associated with the use of several commonly used medications such as HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors (simvastatin) [3], oral 89 90 contraceptives [17], highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) for HIV [17] and 91 especially thiopurine antimetabolites (azathioprine and mercaptopurine) [3,8,12,17,18]. 92 Drug that induce pancreatitis are classified (class I-IV) based on the number of cases 93 reported, demonstration of a consistent latency period (time from initiation of drug to development of pancreatitis), and recurrence with rechallenge [16]. Class I and II drugs 94 95 have the greatest potential for causing acute pancreatitis, representing medications in 96 which at least one case study has reported acute pancreatitis' recurrence subsequent to a rechallenge and with a consistent latency in 75% or more of the cases described [16]. 97 98 According to this classification, azathioprine and mercaptopurine belong to Class I. 99 Molecular and cellular mechanisms underpinning drug induced pancreatitis are mainly 100 unexplored [12]; however, a number of different mechanisms have been proposed 101 including immunologic reactions, direct toxic effect and accumulation of a toxic metabolite 102 [11]. Drug-induced pancreatitis has limited peculiar clinical features; therefore careful

103 drug history and a high index of suspicion are essential for making the diagnosis. The 104 interval of time necessary to develop pancreatitis depends on the medication involved: pancreatitis may indeed develop within a few weeks since the start of a drug associated 105 106 with an immunologically mediated adverse effect; on the other hand, pancreatitis due to the accumulation of harmful metabolites generally occurs after several months of drug 107 108 use. Proving the association of a pancreatitis episode with a particular medication may be 109 difficult and patients restarted on a suspected drug should be carefully followed up and the medication promptly interrupted if symptoms reappear. 110

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Thiopurines in the treatment of IBD and manifestation of adverse drug reactions aspancreatitis

114 Thiopurine antimetabolites (azathioprine and mercaptopurine) are active and useful for 115 the therapy of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), a chronic, relapsing severe inflammation 116 of the gastrointestinal tract [19,20]. The major forms of IBD are Crohn's disease and 117 ulcerative colitis [21,22]. Despite introduction in therapy of biological drugs, such as TNF-118 α inhibitors, thiopurines are still extensively employed to treat patients with active, 119 steroid-refractory and steroid dependent IBD, and have been proven to be particularly effective for maintaining remission of Crohn's disease [23]. However, these medications 120 are related to the development of adverse drug effects in up to 40% of patients [24-26]. The 121 122 most common adverse drug reaction associated with thiopurines is dose dependent bone 123 marrow suppression. However, thiopurines are among the medications most strongly associated with the development of pancreatitis as a severe idiosyncratic adverse drug 124 reaction: a review of the literature indicates that these medications are implicated in many 125 reported cases of acute pancreatitis, with several documented cases following re-exposure 126

127 [25]. Frequency of TIP has been reported to be 5% in Crohn's disease, while it is less frequent (less than 1.5%) in other conditions in which thiopurines are used as 128 immunosuppressants, such as autoimmune hepatitis or after renal or heart transplantation 129 130 [27], suggesting that molecular mechanisms involved in Crohn's disease, such as innate immunity, may also contribute to TIP pathogenesis. Indeed the major zymogen 131 132 glycoprotein 2 (MZGP2) is the primary autoantigen of pancreatic autoantibodies and anti-MZGP2 are highly specific for Crohn's disease and are also associated with disease 133 severity phenotypes [28]. Development of TIP is a severe adverse event for patients: it can 134 be life threatening, impedes the patient from continuing thiopurine therapy and forces 135 clinicians to use of other medications, which may be less active or more expensive: 136 prevention of TIP would be therefore highly useful [29].

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Personalized medicine approaches to prevent adverse drug reactions and tailor therapy 139 140 The aim of personalized medicine is to provide the most appropriate cure to the right 141 patient, at the right dose and at the right time [30,31]. Application of personalized 142 medicine should streamline clinical decision-making by distinguishing in advance those patients most likely to benefit from a given treatment from those who will suffer side 143 effects and incur increased costs without gaining significant benefit [30,32,33]. A potential 144 evolution of the personalized medicine concept is that of precision medicine, indicating 145 cure strategies that comprehensively consider individual variability, now feasible thanks 146 to large-scale biologic databases (e.g., human genome sequence), powerful approaches for 147 evaluating patients (e.g., genomics, proteomics, cellular test), powerful informatics 148 systems for processing large data sets [34]. Stratification based on biomarkers can be 149 thought of as a core element of personalized/precision medicine. Pharmacogenomics, i.e. 150

the analysis of DNA and RNA variants associated with drug response, is a critically
important component of personalized medicine where significant and consolidated
progress has recently been made [35].

154 Thiopurines are pro-drugs that require bioactivation to thioguanine nucleotides (TGN),

155 through enzymes of the salvage pathway for nucleotides synthesis. Genetic

156 polymorphisms of enzymes involved in azathioprine's biotransformation influence

157 treatment efficacy and toxicity: reduced enzymatic activity of thiopurine-

158 methyltransferase (TPMT), due to inheritance of inactive variant genotypes, was

159 associated with increased risk for adverse reactions during treatment with thiopurines

160 [36]. These variants are however associated mainly to dose dependent toxicity (e.g., bone

161 marrow suppression) and not to idiosyncratic adverse drug reactions like pancreatitis

162 [37,38].

Besides genetic biomarkers, in vitro assays performed on biological samples collected from 163 patients can be useful to predict patients' response and can be applied to tailor therapy 164 intensity in order increase efficacy or decrease drug induced adverse drug reactions 165 [39,40]: sensitivity of leukemia cells to chemotherapeutic agents at diagnosis is 166 significantly associated with treatment outcome [41]. In vitro assays on patient's tissue 167 168 samples are important for drug companies during the development of new medications, in 169 order to identify compounds with an increased risk of toxicity in particular tissues and therefore with higher risk of failure at later stages of clinical trial [5]. However so far the 170 171 approach of testing *in vitro* drug sensitivity on tissue samples taken from patients can be 172 performed only for tissues that are easily collected, such as blood or bone marrow, and cannot be implemented in tissues that are not readily accessible, as the pancreas. Tissues 173

obtained from patients' iPSC could become a valuable tool for *in vitro* assay to evaluate
drug sensitivity [42-44].

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Genetic markers for thiopurine-induced pancreatitis in inflammatory bowel diseasepatients

Enzymes involved in thiopurine pharmacokinetics (e.g., TPMT) and pharmacodynamics 179 (e.g., Rac1) may influence thiopurine clinical effects and particularly the incidence of 180 adverse drug reactions. For TIP, several studies have considered a candidate gene 181 182 approach: most of these studies, as already mentioned in this paper, did not identify a 183 significant association of TPMT genetically determined activity with increased incidence 184 of TIP. A recent study performed in Brazil, however, reported an increased incidence of 185 patients with *TPMT* variants among those developing pancreatitis while on azathioprine [45]. Our group previously examined variants in TPMT and glutathione-S-transferase 186 187 (GST) as potential candidate determinants of azathioprine induced adverse events, including pancreatitis. We did not identify an increased incidence of pancreatitis among 188 patients with TPMT variants; however we could identify a trend toward an effect for GST-189 M1 deletion: patients with this genetic feature tended to have a reduced incidence of 190 191 pancreatitis during azathioprine treatment [24]. Inosine triphosphate-pyrophosphatase (ITPA) is another enzyme involved in thiopurine 192

inactivation, putatively by preventing accumulation of potentially toxic thioinosinetriphosphate metabolites, by conversion to thioinosine-monophosphate. Previous studies
have shown an increased incidence of pancreatitis among IBD patients treated with
thiopurines and with an *ITPA* genetic variant associated with reduced enzymatic activity
[46].

198 A recent study performed a genome-wide analysis to identify genetic determinants of TIP 199 [29]. This study enrolled patients with IBD that had presented pancreatitis within 3 200 months of starting thiopurines from 168 hospitals worldwide. The genome-wide 201 association analysis considered 172 cases and 2,035 controls with IBD. By this approach, 202 the authors established a strong association of rs2647087 within the class II HLA region and development of TIP (odds ratio 2.59, 95% confidence interval 2.07–3.26, $P = 2 \times 10^{-16}$). 203 This finding was validated in an independent cohort of 78 cases and 472 controls with IBD 204 matched for drug exposure. Fine mapping of the HLA region further characterized the 205 association with the HLA-DQA1*02:01-HLA-DRB1*07:01 haplotype. This study showed 206 that after administration of a thiopurine, patients heterozygous for rs2647087 have a 9% 207 risk of developing pancreatitis, whereas the risk for homozygotes was 17%. In this study 208 with an agnostic approach, *TPMT* and *ITPA* candidate variants were not associated with 209 210 an increased incidence of pancreatitis. For GST-M1 deletion, no conclusion could be made, 211 since this kind of genetic alteration was not considered by the study.

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Induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSC) as a ground-breaking tool for personalized medicine

Somatic cells can be reprogrammed into pluripotent stem cells [47], capable of
differentiating to all cell types present in the human body [48,49,50]. These cells can
provide an *in vitro* model to explore cellular and molecular mechanisms involved in
disease pathogenesis, including adverse drug reactions, which could bring innovative
medications or be applied to predict peculiar drug responses in specific patients [42]. The
technology has a particularly strong appeal to investigate clinical issues which occur in
cell types that cannot be easily collected from patients, such as cardiomyocytes or neurons

222 [51,52]. In particular iPSC technology has been recently applied to the study of chemotherapy-induced peripheral neuropathy (CIPN), a severe adverse effect 223 characteristic of several anti-cancer agents [53]. No effective biomarker for CIPN is 224 currently available. Therefore, human neurons derived from iPSC have been used to 225 develop a human neuronal model to investigate the effect of various chemotherapeutics. 226 227 In neurons derived from human iPSC (iCell Neurons), morphological alterations were assessed following treatment with drugs associated with CIPN, paclitaxel, vincristine, 228 cisplatin, using high-content imaging of neurite outgrowth; in addition, cell viability was 229 tested using an appropriate colorimetric assay (CellTiterGlo). Upon in vitro exposure of 230 neurons derived from iPSC to these chemotherapeutic agents for 72 hours, a reproducible 231 reduction in cell median neurite process length was observed (12-14%, 6-18% and 2-4% 232 decrease respectively for paclitaxel, vincristine or cisplatin). Hydroxyurea, a drug not 233 234 associated with neuropathy, did not induce any decrease in neurite length in this *in vitro* 235 model. Vincristine treatment displayed the stronger effect on neurite outgrowth at low doses, paclitaxel showed an intermediate effect while cisplatin had a detectable effects 236 only at the highest (i.e., micromolar) doses. This model system may constitute a tool to 237 investigate the mechanisms of CIPN and to validate candidate genes involved in 238 neuropathy [54,55]. Indeed, Diouf et al. recently validated in human neurons derived from 239 240 iPSC findings emerging from a genome-wide association study to identify germline variants related to the occurrence and severity of CIPN associated with vincristine therapy 241 242 in pediatric patients with acute lymphoblastic leukemia. This analysis identified a variant 243 in the promoter of *CEP72*, a gene encoding for a centrosomal protein involved in microtubule formation, as significantly associated with vincristine-induced peripheral 244 neuropathy, and neurons derived from iPSC were successfully used to evaluate the effects 245

of *CEP72* hindered expression on vincristine sensitivity. Indeed, knocking-down *CEP72*mRNA in human neurons augmented their *in vitro* response to vincristine cytotoxic effects
[56].

249 Even hepatocytes differentiated from human iPSC have been shown recently to be useful 250 to model interindividual variability in drug biotransformation. Activity of cytochrome 251 P450 (CYP) enzymes and drug effects in human hepatocytes derived from iPSC were 252 significantly associated with those of primary human hepatocytes, suggesting that 253 hepatocytes derived from iPSC retain donor-specific CYP biotrasformation activity and 254 drug sensitivity. This study also indicated that the interindividual differences, which are 255 due to variants in specific CYP genes, could also be recapitulated by primary human hepatocytes derived from iPSC [57]. Similar approaches could be applied in order to create 256 a human pancreatic model to study drug induced pancreatitis and in particular TIP. 257 258

Exocrine pancreatic cells from patients' iPSC as most appropriate cell types to model TIP

Exocrine pancreatic cells are involved in the pathogenesis of pancreatitis and represent a 261 cell type that is difficult to collect from patients or human probands. Therefore, pancreatic 262 263 exocrine cells generated from patients' iPSC are potentially a model of great interest for 264 testing susceptibility or elucidating underlying mechanisms of drug induced pancreatitis. The molecular mechanisms that regulate pancreatic acinar cell development remain 265 unknown [58]. Until now, production of pancreatic cells from human embryonic stem 266 (hES) or iPSC has focused more on the differentiation of endocrine rather than exocrine 267 268 cells [59,60]. Indeed, several iPSC lines have been recently established from patients with various types of diabetes, and these could be differentiated into insulin-secreting β cells 269

270 hinting at a potential cure for diabetes in the future [61,62]. However recent studies have consolidated the evidence that exocrine pancreatic cells can also be generated starting 271 from human embryonic stem cells using a three step approach (Figure 1): Step I, 272 273 differentiation of hES cell colonies to definitive endoderm (DE) by treatment with activin A; Step II, stimulation with all trans retinoic acid to induce differentiation to pancreatic 274 275 progenitor cells, after re-plating of the cells of Step I onto 24-well plates at high density; Step III, differentiation of pancreatic exocrine cells by exposure to fibroblast growth factor 276 7 (FGF7), glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1) and nicotinamide (NA) in combination [63]. In 277 both Step I and II, up-regulation of endodermal markers such as Sox17, Foxa2 and of gut 278 tube endoderm marker HNF1 β could be observed. The expression level of Pdx1, a 279 transcription factor necessary for pancreatic development, arises during Step II. From day 280 8 in Step III, cells immunohistochemically positive for pancreatic exocrine cell products, 281 amylase and carboxypeptidase A, are induced by FGF7, in proximity of pancreatic 282 progenitor Pdx1-positive cells. Thus, this three step culture protocol effectively determines 283 the differentiation of human stem cells to pancreatic exocrine cells [63]; these cells could be 284 tested as an *in vitro* model of drug induced pancreatitis and in particular TIP. 285

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287 Understanding the molecular mechanism of TIP using patient specific iPSC derived 288 exocrine pancreatic cells

TIP may be related to thiopurine induced direct damage to the exocrine pancreatic cells or to accumulation of a toxic metabolite (biotransformation hypothesis). Pancreatitis due to direct toxicity may manifest later than that due to an immunological mechanism; for thiopurines, pancreatitis occurs relatively early after the start of treatment, generally within 30 days [27,29], therefore the mechanism is likely immunological and may involve

the innate or the adaptative immunity. However, a direct toxicity of thiopurines or their
metabolites on patients' pancreatic cells cannot be completely excluded, particularly in
patients with IBD [64].

297

298 Biotransformation hypothesis

To test a specific sensitivity to thiopurines of exocrine pancreatic cells from patients that developed TIP, pancreatic cells derived from patients iPSC may be grown *in vitro* and exposed to thiopurines: cells sensitivity could then be measured with adequate outputs (e.g., cell proliferation by thymidine incorporation assay, cell survival by assays that measure mitochondrial activity such as 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-

304 diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay or ATP concentration). Enzymes directly or indirectly involved in oxidative stress production (e.g., glutathione-S-transferase, GST and 305 xanthine oxidase) contribute to thiopurine biotranformation and these agents may 306 307 therefore induce oxidative stress at the cellular level. Tentatively, this could represent one additional mechanism of thiopurine cytotoxicity. This seems to be proven especially for 308 309 azathioprine during its conversion to mercaptopurine. This reaction can occur 310 spontaneously [65]; however in vitro studies have shown an increased rate of conversion in the presence of the GST enzymes [66], particularly the GST-A1/2 and GST-M1 isoforms 311 312 [67]. One of the main differences between azathioprine and mercaptopurine, from the pharmacological point of view, is that azathioprine conversion to mercaptopurine may 313 deplete intracellular reduced glutathione, leading to a significant increase of reactive 314 oxygen species (ROS) [68]. This phenomenon could explain the fact that azathioprine may 315 316 induce pancreatitis at a higher rate than mercaptopurine in patients with Crohn's disease and that after TIP on azathioprine, some subjects may be safely treated with 317

318 mercaptopurine [69,70]. Therefore azathioprine in some patients, particularly in those with Crohn's disease, may induce pancreatitis with a drug specific mechanism, different from 319 mercaptopurine, leading to ROS production. Therefore, in vitro studies on thiopurine 320 321 induce pancreatitis in Crohn's disease should consider to mimic even these processes. The higher rate of TIP described in some studies for Crohn's disease patients may also be 322 related to a defect at the level of autophagy, present in many patients with Crohn's disease 323 [71], that could not allow a proper protection from oxidative stress induced by 324 azathioprine [72]. 325

326

327 Innate immunity hypothesis

328 Crohn's disease is related to abnormalities in innate immunity, which involves monocyte activation [22]. TIP incidence is higher when thiopurines are used in Crohn's disease than 329 330 in other conditions (e.g., autoimmune hepatitis) [27], even if not all reports are consistent 331 on this in the literature [73]. As mentioned previously in this review, the higher frequency of TIP when thiopurines are used to treat Crohn's disease may be suggestive that 332 333 molecular mechanisms involved in Crohn's disease pathogenesis, such as innate 334 immunity, may contribute also to development of TIP. To test this hypothesis, patients' monocyte activation in the presence of pancreatic cells treated or not with thiopurines or 335 336 their metabolites could be evaluated, and compared to stimuli for innate immunity such as lipopolysaccharide (LPS). A similar approach has been applied to investigate whether 337 338 oxidatively modified, autologous red blood cells (RBCs) modulate monocyte cytokine responses in humans [74]. Oxidatively modified RBCs (OX-RBC) or vehicle-treated RBCs 339 (VT-RBC) were exposed to monocytes, also in combination with innate immunity 340 activating agents, such as LPS. OX-RBC alone augmented cellular complexity, evaluated 341

by flow cytometry, of CD14-monocytes but did not induce cytokine production. LPS alone
induced cytokine production with no effect on cell complexity. The combined treatment
(OX-RBC-LPS), induced both an increase in monocytes complexity and in their production
of TNF-alpha. Therefore, the interaction between oxidatively damaged autologous
erythrocytes and monocytes is important for innate responses in human cells. Similar
pathogenetic processes may be at the base of TIP development during azathioprine
treatment, especially in patients with Crohn's disease.

349

350 Adaptive immunity hypothesis

Drug hypersensitivity reaction are known to occur through mechanisms involving 351 352 adaptive immunity, in particular through antibodies directed against red blood cells or platelets, for drug induced anemia or thrombocytopenia [75]. Activation of patients' 353 lymphocytes by co-culture with pancreatic cells, even obtained by differentiation from 354 355 patients' iPSC, may shed light on the relevance of adaptive immunity for TIP pathogenesis. Lymphocytes' activation may be measured by *in vitro* assays, such as 356 357 thymidine incorporation [76]. These experiments would be particularly informative if 358 performed on purified lymphocytes subpopulations, including T lymphocytes (CD3+) alone, T lymphocytes (CD3+) with B lymphocytes (CD19+) or T lymphocytes (CD3+) with 359 360 monocytes (CD14+), to evaluate the relevance of antigen presenting cells' presence for TIP development and the contribution of specific adaptive immunity functional cells [77,78]. 361 362

363 **Caveats of exocrine pancreatic cells derived from patients' iPSC as a model for TIP** 364 One aspect to consider when using iPSC-derived cells as functional models for 365 pharmacological studies is the very low efficiency of the reprogramming processes and

that *in vitro* redifferentiated cells may be heterogeneous, expressing for example in part fetal markers, even at low level [79]. Recent insights on the molecular mechanism of reprogramming, obtained by genome-wide characterization of transcriptomic, epigenomic and proteomic data describing the cellular routes leading fibroblast to induced pluripotency. These results will likely lead to improved efficiency in reprogramming, providing human models derived from induced pluripotent cells more quickly and with reduced costs [80,81].

These in vitro models may lack intercellular communication, known to be crucial for 373 organogenesis. The generation of complex vascularized organs, such as endoderm 374 derivatives, indeed depends on coordinated signals deriving from endodermal, epithelial, 375 mesenchymal and endothelial progenitors. Therefore, specific challenges to recapitulate 376 organ development *in vitro*, such as liver and pancreas, are the induction of *in vitro* organ 377 formation by co-culturing endothelial and mesenchymal progenitors and simulation of 378 379 blood perfusion for stimulating intercellular communication. This approach has been recently applied to the development of liver-like tissue from iPSC in culture. Specific 380 human hepatic cells condensed and self-organized into 3D-iPSC-derived liver buds 381 382 (rudimentary/miniature liver), when cocultured with endothelial and mesenchymal 383 progenitors, display also gene expression patterns similar to those found in relevant embryonic and endothelial tissues (e.g., inner branched endothelium) [44]. 384

From the pharmacological point of view, it is important to note that thiopurines are prodrugs requiring conversion to thioguanine nucleotides to exert their cellular effects [65]: after oral administration azathioprine is completely converted to mercaptopurine during first pass metabolism in the liver and even mercaptopurine has a very short halflife and is transformed to thionucleotides [66]. The main effects of these medications are 390 indeed due to thionucleotides. Therefore, in Crohn's disease patients, after oral administration of thiopurines, pancreatic cells are reached through the blood stream by a 391 mix of thionucleotides, including thioguanosine, thioinosine, methylthioinosine, which 392 393 should be responsible for TIP in susceptible patients. On these bases, drug sensitivity, drug metabolism and immunological assays should be performed with azathioprine and 394 395 mercaptopurine, and even with their active metabolites. Moreover, a medium conditioned by a stabilized cell line of human hepatocytes (e.g., IHH), exposed to azathioprine or 396 mercaptopurine, could be used, as representative of a mix of thiopurines' active 397 metabolites produced by the human liver after oral administration. 398

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400 Patients' iPSC for preventing TIP

Human cells derived from iPSC have been shown to be useful as a model for drug sensitivity of tissues that are not easily accessible, such as cardiac muscle, brain and liver. In vitro cellular models based on patients' iPSC have great potential in developing agents and predicting toxicity in the field of cardiovascular medicine and neuroscience, as discussed recently in excellent reviews [82-84]. Using iPSCs to predict toxicity has been streamlined in some pharmaceutical companies [85].

TIP is a significant, potentially life-threatening, clinical issue for Crohn's disease patients treated with azathioprine or other thiopurines. Current strategies to prevent TIP consist mainly in clinically monitoring by measuring in patients' peripheral blood the concentration of amylase and lipase, especially in the first weeks of treatment: in case of increase in the concentration of circulating pancreatic enzymes, azathioprine treatment is promptly interrupted. In our hospital, amylase/lipase concentrations are evaluated weekly during the first month of thiopurine therapy, then monthly for the second and

third month and then every three months, since it is known that TIP occurs early after 414 therapy start. While practitioners accept this strategy, it poses significant risks for the 415 patient since pancreatitis is detected only after the beginning of thiopurine-induced 416 pancreatic damage and, moreover, therapy with azathioprine has to be promptly 417 interrupted during the early phases, suspending IBD treatment and increasing the risk of 418 missing the "window of opportunity" for optimal therapy, leading to disease progression 419 420 and intestinal damage. Pancreatic cells derived from patients' iPSC, as a model of human pancreas, may provide strategies to identify, before treatment, patients predisposed to TIP 421 in Crohn's disease (Figure 2). Patients at high risk could then be treated with a different 422 423 medication, preventing this severe adverse drug reaction and inefficacious patients' 424 treatment, with the associated risk of disease progression. This approach could also result in saving significant resources related to treatment failure and medical care of TIP. 425

426

427 Conclusion

In this review, we have reflected upon the future research applications of exocrine pancreatic cells generated from patient specific iPSC. Such pancreatic cells can provide excellent insights into the molecular mechanism of TIP. In particular three hypotheses on the mechanism of TIP could be considered: on a role of drug biotransformation, on innate immunity and on adaptative immunity. Hence, our proposed model system could also be extended as a paradigm to study pancreatitis induced by other medications and in other conditions.

435

436 Conflict of interest

437 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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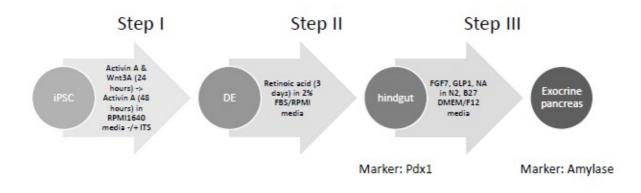


Figure 1: Summary of procedure to differentiate human iPSC to pancreatic exocrine cells 641 (modified from [63]). Exocrine pancreatic cells can be generated starting from human stem 642 643 cells using a three step approach: stem cell colonies are differentiated to definitive 644 endoderm (DE) by treatment with 100 ng/ml activin A and 25 ng/ml Wnt3A in RPMI medium supplemented with 2 mM L-glutamine, 50 U/ml penicillin and 50 µg/ml 645 streptomycin. After 24 h, the medium is switched to 100 ng/ml activin A in RPMI medium 646 supplemented with ITS (i.e., 5 µg/ml insulin, 50 µg/ml transferrin, 30nM selenium 647 chloride), 2 mM L-glutamine, 50 U/ml penicillin and 50 µg/ml streptomycin for 48 h. Step 648 II of the culture procedure results in the differentiation of pancreatic progenitor cells from 649 the DE cells. These are re-plated onto 24-well plates and treated with 1 µM all-trans 650 retinoic acid in RPMI1640 medium supplemented with 2% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 50 651 U/ml penicillin and 50 µg/ml streptomycin for 3 days. Step III of the culture procedure 652 achieved the final differentiation of cells containing pancreatic exocrine enzymes. The 653 pancreatic progenitor cells are cultured in DMEM/F12 supplemented with 15 ng/ml 654 655 fibroblast growth factor 7 (FGF7), 10 mM nicotinamide (NA), 100 ng/ml glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1) (7–36 amide), N2 supplement, B27 supplement, 50 U/ml penicillin and 656 50 µg/ml streptomycin. Cell markers: pancreatic progenitor cell marker (Pdx1), pancreatic 657 658 exocrine cell marker (amylase) 659

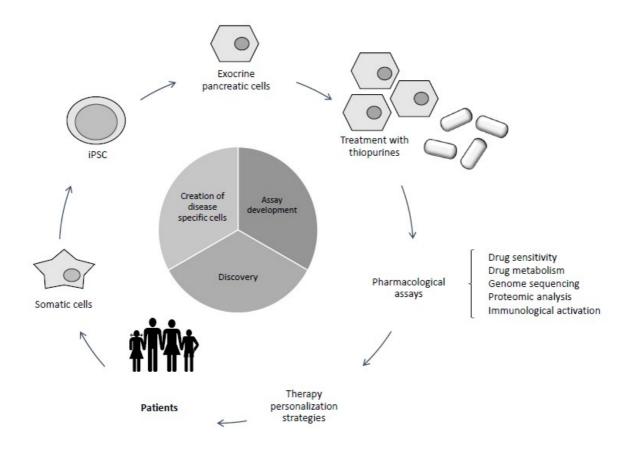


Figure 2: schematic representation of exocrine pancreatic cells derived from patients' iPSC as a model for TIP (modified from [51]): exocrine pancreatic can be differentiated from iPSC generated from lymphocytes of patients with Crohn's disease susceptible or not to TIP. In order to assess differences in thiopurine sensitivity and biotransformation, these can be treated with thiopurines and their metabolites. In order to identify immunological activation, patients' lymphocytes can be exposed to exocrine pancreatic cells obtained from patients' iPSC, with and without thiopurines.