

Chapter 7

Bladder Dysfunction



Seyed Mohammad Kazem Aghamir  and Fateme Guitynavard

Abstract The studies focusing on the use of stem cells in treatment of different medical condition is growing over the time. But yet a few studies conducted to evaluate efficacy and safety of stem cell therapy in different types of bladder dysfunction. In addition, these studies are mainly focus on experimental models rather than tissue engineering and bladder regeneration. There are some defined models of bladder dysfunction in literature: bladder outlet obstruction, cryoinjured, diabetes, ischemia, and spinal cord injury models. Among the different subgroups of stem cells, adipose derived stem cells (ADSCs), skeletal muscle derived stem cells (SkMSCs) and bone marrow stem cells (BMSCs) are used more commonly in favor of bladder dysfunction treatment. These stem cells with unique characteristics and multiple mechanisms of action (migration, differentiation and their paracrine effect) are so suitable for using in different clinical approaches to treat bladder dysfunction including bladder bioengineering and bioprinting.

This chapter is aimed at providing the current status of using stem cells for bladder dysfunction treatment as well as exploring future prospects on this topic.

Keywords Bladder dysfunction · Treatment · Stem cell

7.1 Introduction

While various therapies have been developed for different types of bladder dysfunction, such as detrusor overactivity or underactivity, but little progress has been made in reduction of voiding dysfunction using stem cells. Recently, growing attractions are toward stem cell therapy in the field of bladder dysfunction and investigators are willing to document promising results in this area.

Stem cells (SCs) or Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) have ability of self-renewal and differentiation to create different lines of mature cells [1]. Because of their distinc-

S. M. K. Aghamir (✉) · F. Guitynavard
Urology Research Center, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
e-mail: mkaghamir@tums.ac.ir

tive characteristics, unique plasticity of migration, and capacity for tissue repair or regeneration, stem cells are used to perform injury repair in different injured organs. Among bladder dysfunction models, bladder outlet obstruction (BOO) is the well-defined one. The other forms of bladder dysfunction template are yet in an incomplete state. There are current clinical efforts to both prevent and cure BOO. There are studies conducted to provide better understanding of the cellular-level consequences and specific mechanisms responsible for developing BOO. Although abundant reports have demonstrated the MSCs capability to engrave different tissues like brain, heart, liver, and lung, data on bladder dysfunction repair is still scarce [2–4].

7.2 Stem Cells Sources and Their Mechanism of Action in Bladder Dysfunction Recovery

MSCs have self-renewing ability and can differentiate into a range of different cell types, such as chondrocytes, osteoblasts, and adipocytes. While all MSCs including bone marrow stem cells (BM-MSCs), skeletal muscle stem cells (SkMSCs), and adipose tissue stem cells (ADSCs) have similar properties, their availability vary very much based on therapeutic goals [5]. For instance, although SkMSCs need a long expansion with a difficult isolation procedure, it is possible to prepare ADSCs within a few hours. ADSCs are some kinds of mesenchymal cells which are found in the perivascular areas of the adipose tissue [6]. The advantage of ADSCs is that plenty of them are easily accessible in comparison to other types of stem cells. In experimental studies ADSCs showed efficacy on urological diseases [7, 8]. SkMSCs are primarily used in injury models [9, 10]. As a stem cell source for autologous transplantation, SkMSCs have several benefits because the skeletal muscle can be reached quite easy and safe and during surgery SkMSCs can easily be harvested. Cells in the CD3⁻/CD45⁻ fraction (Sk-DN cells) and CD34⁺/CD45⁻ fraction (Sk-34 cells) can reconstitute nerve-muscle units of the blood vessel synchronously after transplantation. SkMSC transplantation results in significant functional regeneration of skeletal muscle cells, vascular cells and peripheral nerve cells through cell differentiation [11, 12]. So, different human tissues can be used as the source of stem cells and selection is based on the goal of their therapeutic use.

Stem cell migration, differentiation and their paracrine effect are discussed here for better understanding of these cells mechanism of action for treating bladder dysfunction.

SCs migration into the bladder tends to be associated with improvements in histopathological and functional parameters [13]. MSCs can migrate into the damaged, ischemic or inflamed tissues. This migration is contributed to expression and secretion of specific chemokines by such tissues [14]. There is a wide range of studies on the stem cells migration into many different organs [15–18].

Differentiation is the novel mechanism for stem cell therapy, and bladder regeneration via differentiation has been recurrently shown in models of nonpathogenic bladder. Many studies conducted focusing on non-pathogenic tissue regeneration

models have documented the differentiation of stem cells into detrusor smooth muscles that can finally lead to bladder repair or even replacement [19, 20].

Although differentiation is an important mechanism, it seems rational to assume the effects of paracrine cytokines and growth factors released by transplanted MSCs or adjacent cells. That is called “paracrine effect”. SCs secretory factors are shown to induce therapeutic effects by regulating local and systemic immune responses and promoting regeneration of local tissue, as well as recruiting host cells. MSCs replace damaged cells, by secreting growth factor via their paracrine effect [21]. BM-MSCs or ADSCs may secrete multiple growth factors, such as insulin-like growth factor (IGF), hepatic growth factor (HGF) and endothelial vascular growth factor (VEGF) [22]. They play an important role in an antifibrosis pathway in the damaged tissue, which indicates that the reduction of fibrosis is rather contributed to paracrine processes than cell incorporation [15, 23, 24]. HGF as a strong mitogen of hepatocytes has an important role in tissue regeneration [21, 25]. Besides antifibrotic functions, BM-MSCs or ADSCs can also secrete free radical scavengers and antioxidants into ischemic tissues [26].

These three interesting characteristics of stem cells make them capable for using in treatment of various pathologic conditions and that’s why stem cell therapy attracts attentions for treating bladder dysfunction.

7.3 Stem Cell Therapy and Pathogenic Models of Bladder Dysfunction

Kim et al. in a comprehensive review explain different models of bladder dysfunction such as bladder outlet model, bladder ischemia model, diabetes model, etc. [27]. The BOO model is the only well-described model of bladder dysfunction and the other pathological models are yet in a challenging condition.

7.3.1 Bladder Outlet Model

Bladder outlet obstruction (BOO) as a result of collagen accumulation is a common condition involving elderly males. Deposition of collagen in the bladder is seen in various pathological processes and ultimately ends in bladder fibrosis and makes the bladder flaccid. The bladder fibrosis impairs function of detrusor smooth muscles and bladder compliance [28]. Bladder dysfunction was observed when the bladder outlet was obstructed [29].

Lee et al. stated that in a rat BOO model, transplantation of human MSCs marked with nanoparticles (superparamagnetic iron oxide) into the bladder, prevented fibrosis and improved bladder dysfunction [16]. Growth factors also have an important role in bladder wall remodeling following an outlet obstruction [30]. This finding

that human MSCs over-expressing HGF inhibit collagen deposition and improved cystometric parameters in rat BOO, was also reported by Song et al. [17].

Fibrosis and hypertrophy are believed to cause vessel compression that lead to reduction of bladder blood flow. So, as a result, severe tissue ischemia can be a possible explanation of bladder dysfunction [31, 32].

Differentiation of MSCs into the detrusor smooth muscles is not only make them suitable to treat detrusor overactivity but also make them useful in underactive detrusors. Nishijima et al. [33] showed that transplanted BMCs would cause an improvement in detrusor muscles contractility after differentiation into smooth muscle-like cells in an underactive BOO bladder.

7.3.2 Bladder Ischemia Model

Using bilateral ligation of the iliac artery [34] or hyperlipidemia [35], The ischemia prototype for the bladder is found. Several research [36] have shown that ischemia can lead to major structural and functional changes in the bladder. The bladder dysfunction mechanism caused by ischemia is complex, and ischemic denervation may be involved. This makes the M-cholinergic receptors hypersensitive to acetylcholine [37] which results in bladder overactivity. Since the ischemia is a high probable process in the elderly, ischemia rat model can be a proper model for investigating detrusor changes caused by aging [34]. Huang et al. [35] indicated that bladder instillation or intravenous administration of ADSCs can improve both tissue and urodynamics parameters in rats with overactive bladder.

7.3.3 Diabetes Model

Diabetic bladder dysfunction (DBD) usually causes gradual and progressive impairment in both storage and voiding phase. In early phase, DBD causes detrusor overactivity. Over the time, detrusor muscle will be decompensated, resulting in an underactive or atonic bladder.

In rats treated with ADSCs, Zhang et al. [38] reported voiding function improvement compared to saline rats treated with phosphate buffer. The DBD trend in their experimental model was hypocontractile bladders. Although some ADSCs have been transformed into detrusor smooth muscles, their paracrine antiapoptotic effects can not be ignored in this process. These data will offer an opportunity for clinical use of stem cell therapy for difficult-treating underactive bladder conditions.

7.3.4 *Spinal Cord Injured Model*

spinal cord injury (SCI) causes so many lower urinary tract problems such as recurrent infections, impaired bladder compliance and voiding dysfunction [39]. In a study, it was shown that spinal cord injured rats had a higher thickness of bladder wall and a higher collagen to smooth muscle ratio [40].

The main goals of urinary tract care in spinal cord injured patients is to reduce the episodes of urinary infections, maintain function of kidneys, and enhance patients' quality of life. In an animal model study, neural stem cell transplantation into the damaged spinal cord caused an improvement in behavior of the bladder [41].

The functional recovery of the bladder after SCI is limited because new neurons or glial cells are not generated after maturation of central nervous system.

Nonetheless, recent studies have shown that transplanted neural progenitor cells make it easier to restore bladder function by regenerating the damaged tissues [41–44]. Stem cells are directly inserted with a needle into the affected lesion in most of these trials. In an study it was shown that intravenously administered BMSCs resided in L3-4 which cause bladder function improvement in rats following spinal cord injury [45]. So, both intravesical and intravascular administration of the stem cells can be used in treating bladder dysfunction in spinal cord injured patients. Although, more strong studies are required to assess the safety, efficacy and durability of stem cell therapy and studies to make comparison between different rout of stem cell administration.

7.3.5 *Cryo-Injured Model*

In cyro-injured model, bladder hypertrophy exists but with an inappropriate collagene to smooth muscle ratio just like what happens in BOO models [46]. The main result of stem cell transplantation into cryo-injured model is to decrease surviving smooth muscle cells' size and differentiation of stem cells into the smooth muscle cells. This compensatory smooth muscle cells hypertrophy play a key role in remodeling of the injured bladder.

Huard et al. [47] showed that injected muscle-derived cells (MDCs) could nest in the bladder and enhance the bladder contractility in the cryo-injured model.

Sakuma et al. [48] have shown that fat cells that were dedifferentiated could differentiate into smooth muscle cell lines and contribute to bladder smooth muscle regeneration.

Thus, interestingly not only stem cells but also dedifferentiated cells can be used for treatment of bladder dysfunction.

7.3.6 *Other Bladder Dysfunction Models*

Based on Nitta et al. [9], transplantation of multipotent stem cells originating from the skeletal muscle in the bladder branch of pelvic plexus (BBBP) causes a drastically higher bladder functional improvement in injured model. Kwon et al. [10] achieved similar results in rats with unilateral transected pelvic plexus.

7.4 **Regeneration of the Bladder**

As far as bladder tissue engineering is concerned, there are few revolutionary studies which have shown that stem cells or BMSCs derived from embryoid bodies seeded on small intestinal submucosa (SIS) promote regeneration in partially cystectomized model [49–51]. Recently, many other types of stem cells which are seeded on bladder acellular matrix (BAM) demonstrate potential for bladder regeneration like hair stem cells and ADSCs [52, 53]. In studies on the use of synthetic scaffolds instead of using BAM and SIS results showed that BMSCs seeded on thin film of 1,8-octanediol-co-citrate can lead to bladder regeneration [54]. In addition, Tian et al. demonstrated the potential for bladder engineering of BMSCs with myogenic differentiation which are seeded on polylactic acid scaffolds [9, 55]. Similarly, polylactic glycolic acid seeded with human ADSCs with myogenically differentiation preserved both bladder compliance and capacity when transplanted into partially cystectomized rats [19]. In comparison to use of differentiated cells, bladder tissue engineering by the use of MSCs could produce better results. MSCs can differentiate into SMC after migration to the bladder's grafts and [56] such cells will replace the grafts rapidly with a good neural function and also low fibrosis formation [48].

During the past two decades researchers have eagerly waited to see the regenerated bladders full success, while over the last 80 years the intestine was effectively used to replace the bladder. So, one of the organs that can be a target of stem cell researches is the human bladder. Nonetheless, these studies are very limited; there are no systematic reports of dysfunction of the bladder. Only trials focusing on the urethral sphincter and neobladder could be found in literature. Urologists need a suitable replacement for traditional conduits and neobladders due to their adhesion problems, mucus development, emptying difficulties, and metabolic conditions and transformations into malignancies. Autotransplantation was used in innovative work to build artificially engineered bladder tissues [57]. Both urothelial and detrusor smooth muscle cells retrieved by bladder biopsy and cultured for 7 weeks and transplanted into a bladder-shaped biodegradable scaffold mainly consists of polyglycolic acid and collagen.

Many other approaches for reconstructing the bladder [58–60] were investigated in attempt to find safe and usable bowel replacement material and to prevent the complications. Nonetheless, only modest success is yet achieved. Although both

robotic and open route is available for radical cystectomy, open surgery is usually performed in most patients with urinary diversion. Costs of this method vary in different countries. Involvement of an intestinal segment is responsible for the main proportion of the costs.

Hospital readmission rates are high after cystectomy and urinary diversion; thus, the readmission cost is important, too.

Thus, new alternative solutions are looked-for to lessen the significant economic burden of cystectomy and post urinary diversion complications. So, a great deal of the latest research focuses on bioengineering methods for the reconstruction of urinary bladder including tissue engineering, bioreactors and bioprinting.

7.4.1 Tissue Engineering

So far, tissue engineering has focused on the reconstruction of bladder tissue, and significant progress is made. A multidisciplinary approach to bioengineering is mainly based on the human body's potential of natural regeneration and involves the use of a polymers matrix or cell-seeded scaffolds to promote more regeneration [61]. Such complex technologies of regeneration are being studied to create an efficiently designed bladder.

Tissue engineering for bladder reconstruction has significant benefits. It is time-saving in the operating room, helps to prevent digestive problems and increases patient quality of life. Also, this technique is a very promising approach and develops new treatments for other pathologies of the lower urinary tract that do not essentially require a total replacement of the bladder [57]. To date, different animal models were used to ensure the effectiveness of different scaffolds for cell-seeding [62, 63]. The concept of using tissue engineering for urinary bladder regeneration actually goes back to the 1950s.

Type and characteristics of the scaffolds has a key role to support the complex chemical and mechanical bladder function during both filling and emptying. The matrix microenvironment can influences the stem cells migration, proliferation and differentiation into the regenerating cells [62].

The biomaterials used in bladder tissue engineering should have acceptable mechanical and chemical properties as well as appropriate biocompatibility [64] to provide a good support for structure of several separate layers of cells.

An ideal biomaterial should offer an adequate plane for attachment of urothelial cells at its lumen, and its visceral side should be capable of nesting the muscle cells, which are necessary to form a unidirectional muscle layers and suitable for quick vascularization and innervation [65].

Another main objectives is to prevent the regenerative bladder from rising the host immune response that leads to compromised efficiency and durability of the bladder [66].

As a result, most biomaterials and issues, including acellular tissues, natural or artificial polymers, and composites, were used as substitutes for urinary bladder tissue and matrix scaffolds.

7.4.2 Bioreactors

Bioreactors are advanced modeling biosystems capable for controlling environment by influencing factors such as pH, oxygen concentration and temperature. Simulating the normal physiological functions (both filling and emptying) by bioreactor in vitro can improve the functional results after implantation [67, 68] and can strengthen the stability of the matures tissues. Another promising approach in the field of bladder regeneration is in vivo bioreactors which are used in target scaffold before the main implantation. This preconditioning can further enhance the bioengineered tissue growth, improve tissue vascularization and inhibit fibrosis and consequently prevent contractility loss [65]. Although discovery and use of different types of bioreactors and preconditioning before stem cell implantation in aim of enhancing the outcomes are so interesting, but to date few studies have been conducted focusing on this specific field and more studies are yet required.

7.4.3 Bioprinting

Bioprinting technology is a powerful computer-controlled method for generating cell-based living functional tissues and organs [69]. It needs stem cells for seeding into a biodegradable scaffolds as primary structure and different bioreactors such as growth factors for inducing tissue formation [70]. The great clinical benefit of transplanting such tissues is that they will not raise the host immune response, an issue that cause so many complications in other types of transplantation including allograft tissue transplant.

In this technique a bio-printer first produce a three dimensional (3 D) structure which will be then use as a scaffold for stem cell seeding. Different material can be used as the scaffolds. The most known material is hydrogels. Hydrogels are both biocompatible and biodegradable. In addition, they have specific sites that help cell adhesion that is needed for further cell growth and differentiation [71].

Bioprinting techniques were tested in many kinds of tissues, but some more specific human organs like trachea, bronchi [72], blood vessels [73], and bladder [74] have achieved clinical success in this area of bioengineering, so far. Therefore, we are hopeful that bioprinting will potentially offer an actual solution for shortage of organ donors and complications related to allograft transplantation, soon in future [69].

7.5 Conclusion

Stem cell therapy for treatment of bladder dysfunction is an interesting approach which seems work through the ability of stem cells including self renewal, differentiation and also their paracrine effect. Inhibiting the bladder tissue fibrosis and restoring the detrusor muscle contractility seem to be the main stem cells' mechanisms of action in recovery of bladder dysfunction. Furthermore, this fact that stem cells potentially can differentiate into detrusor smooth muscle cells, offers new approaches for treatment of bladder dysfunction such as bladder regeneration and bladder bioprinting.

References

1. Masters J, Kane C, Yamamoto H, Ahmed A. Prostate cancer stem cell therapy: hype or hope? *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis.* 2008;11(4):316.
2. Sakaida I, Terai S, Yamamoto N, Aoyama K, Ishikawa T, Nishina H, et al. Transplantation of bone marrow cells reduces CCl₄-induced liver fibrosis in mice. *Hepatology.* 2004;40(6):1304–11.
3. Li J, Zhang N, Wang J. Improved anti-apoptotic and anti-remodeling potency of bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells by anoxic pre-conditioning in diabetic cardiomyopathy. *J Endocrinol Investig.* 2008;31(2):103–10.
4. Zhao D-C, Lei J-X, Chen R, Yu W-H, Zhang X-M, Li S-N, et al. Bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells protect against experimental liver fibrosis in rats. *World J Gastroenterol: WJG.* 2005;11(22):3431.
5. Jiang Y, Jahagirdar BN, Reinhardt RL, Schwartz RE, Keene CD, Ortiz-Gonzalez XR, et al. Pluripotency of mesenchymal stem cells derived from adult marrow. *Nature.* 2002;418(6893):41.
6. Zuk PA, Zhu M, Mizuno H, Huang J, Futrell JW, Katz AJ, et al. Multilineage cells from human adipose tissue: implications for cell-based therapies. *Tissue Eng.* 2001;7(2):211–28.
7. Albersen M, Fandel TM, Lin G, Wang G, Banie L, Lin CS, et al. Injections of adipose tissue-derived stem cells and stem cell lysate improve recovery of erectile function in a rat model of cavernous nerve injury. *J Sex Med.* 2010;7(10):3331–40.
8. Huang YC, Ning H, Shindel AW, Fandel TM, Lin G, Harraz AM, et al. The effect of intracavernous injection of adipose tissue-derived stem cells on hyperlipidemia-associated erectile dysfunction in a rat model. *J Sex Med.* 2010;7(4pt1):1391–400.
9. Nitta M, Tamaki T, Tono K, Okada Y, Masuda M, Akatsuka A, et al. Reconstitution of experimental neurogenic bladder dysfunction using skeletal muscle-derived multipotent stem cells. *Transplantation.* 2010;89(9):1043–9.
10. Kwon D, Minnery B, Kim Y, Kim JH, De Miguel F, Yoshimura N, et al. Neurologic recovery and improved detrusor contractility using muscle-derived cells in rat model of unilateral pelvic nerve transection. *Urology.* 2005;65(6):1249–53.
11. Tamaki T, Uchiyama Y, Okada Y, Ishikawa T, Sato M, Akatsuka A, et al. Functional recovery of damaged skeletal muscle through synchronized vasculogenesis, myogenesis, and neurogenesis by muscle-derived stem cells. *Circulation.* 2005;112(18):2857–66.
12. Tamaki T, Okada Y, Uchiyama Y, Tono K, Masuda M, Wada M, et al. Synchronized reconstitution of muscle fibers, peripheral nerves and blood vessels by murine skeletal muscle-derived CD34–/45– cells. *Histochem Cell Biol.* 2007;128(4):349–60.
13. Ortiz LA, Gambelli F, McBride C, Gaupp D, Baddoo M, Kaminski N, et al. Mesenchymal stem cell engraftment in lung is enhanced in response to bleomycin exposure and ameliorates its fibrotic effects. *Proc Natl Acad Sci.* 2003;100(14):8407–11.

14. Chamberlain G, Wright K, Rot A, Ashton B, Middleton J. Murine mesenchymal stem cells exhibit a restricted repertoire of functional chemokine receptors: comparison with human. *PLoS One*. 2008;3(8):e2934.
15. Aziz MA, Atta H, Mahfouz S, Fouad H, Roshdy N, Ahmed H, et al. Therapeutic potential of bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells on experimental liver fibrosis. *Clin Biochem*. 2007;40(12):893–9.
16. Lee HJ, Won JH, Doo SH, Kim JH, Song KY, Lee SJ, et al. Inhibition of collagen deposit in obstructed rat bladder outlet by transplantation of superparamagnetic iron oxide-labeled human mesenchymal stem cells as monitored by molecular magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). *Cell Transplant*. 2012;21(5):959–70.
17. Song YS, Lee HJ, Doo SH, Lee SJ, Lim I, Chang K-T, et al. Mesenchymal stem cells overexpressing hepatocyte growth factor (HGF) inhibit collagen deposit and improve bladder function in rat model of bladder outlet obstruction. *Cell Transplant*. 2012;21(8):1641–50.
18. Woo LL, Tanaka ST, Anumanthan G, Pope JC, Thomas JC, Adams MC, et al. Mesenchymal stem cell recruitment and improved bladder function after bladder outlet obstruction: preliminary data. *J Urol*. 2011;185(3):1132–8.
19. Jack GS, Zhang R, Lee M, Xu Y, Wu BM, Rodríguez LV. Urinary bladder smooth muscle engineered from adipose stem cells and a three dimensional synthetic composite. *Biomaterials*. 2009;30(19):3259–70.
20. Shukla D, Box GN, Edwards RA, Tyson DR. Bone marrow stem cells for urologic tissue engineering. *World J Urol*. 2008;26(4):341.
21. Schmidt C, Bladt F, Goedecke S, Brinkmann V, Zschiesche W, Sharpe M, et al. Scatter factor/hepatocyte growth factor is essential for liver development. *Nature*. 1995;373(6516):699.
22. Nagai A, Kim WK, Lee HJ, Jeong HS, Kim KS, Hong SH, et al. Multilineage potential of stable human mesenchymal stem cell line derived from fetal marrow. *PLoS One*. 2007;2(12):e1272.
23. Matsuda-Hashii Y, Takai K, Ohta H, Fujisaki H, Tokimasa S, Osugi Y, et al. Hepatocyte growth factor plays roles in the induction and autocrine maintenance of bone marrow stromal cell IL-11, SDF-1 α , and stem cell factor. *Exp Hematol*. 2004;32(10):955–61.
24. Kinnaird T, Stabile E, Burnett M, Shou M, Lee C, Barr S, et al. Local delivery of marrow-derived stromal cells augments collateral perfusion through paracrine mechanisms. *Circulation*. 2004;109(12):1543–9.
25. Nakamura T, Mizuno S. The discovery of hepatocyte growth factor (HGF) and its significance for cell biology, life sciences and clinical medicine. *Proc Jpn Acad Ser B*. 2010;86(6):588–610.
26. Spees JL, Olson SD, Whitney MJ, Prockop DJ. Mitochondrial transfer between cells can rescue aerobic respiration. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*. 2006;103(5):1283–8.
27. Kim JH, Lee HJ, Song YS. Treatment of bladder dysfunction using stem cell or tissue engineering technique. *Korean J Urol*. 2014;55(4):228–38.
28. Aghamir SM, Hosseini SR, Gooran S. Totally tubeless percutaneous nephrolithotomy. *J Endourol*. 2004 Sep 1;18(7):647–8.
29. Steers WD, De Groat WC. Effect of bladder outlet obstruction on micturition reflex pathways in the rat. *J Urol*. 1988;140(4):864–71.
30. Baskin LS, Sutherland RS, Thomson AA, Hayward SW, Cunha G. Growth factors and receptors in bladder development and obstruction. *Lab Invest J Techn Methods Pathol*. 1996;75(2):157–66.
31. Ghafar MA, Anastasiadis AG, Olsson LE, Chichester P, Kaplan SA, Buttyan R, et al. Hypoxia and an angiogenic response in the partially obstructed rat bladder. *Lab Invest*. 2002;82(7):903.
32. Levin RM, O'Connor LJ, Leggett RE, Whitbeck C, Chichester P. Focal hypoxia of the obstructed rabbit bladder wall correlates with intermediate decompensation. *Neurourol Urodyn*. 2003;22(2):156–63.
33. Nishijima S, Sugaya K, Miyazato M, Kadekawa K, Oshiro Y, Uchida A, et al. Restoration of bladder contraction by bone marrow transplantation in rats with underactive bladder. *Biomed Res*. 2007;28(5):275–80.

34. Chen S, Zhang H-Y, Zhang N, Li W-H, Shan H, Liu K, et al. Treatment for chronic ischaemia-induced bladder detrusor dysfunction using bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells: an experimental study. *Int J Mol Med*. 2012;29(3):416–22.
35. Huang Y-C, Shindel AW, Ning H, Lin G, Harraz AM, Wang G, et al. Adipose derived stem cells ameliorate hyperlipidemia associated detrusor overactivity in a rat model. *J Urol*. 2010;183(3):1232–40.
36. Azadzi KM. Effect of chronic ischemia on bladder structure and function. In: *Bladder disease, part A*. New York: Springer; 2003. p. 271–80.
37. Abrams P, Andersson KE. Muscarinic receptor antagonists for overactive bladder. *BJU Int*. 2007;100(5):987–1006.
38. Zhang H, Qiu X, Shindel AW, Ning H, Ferretti L, Jin X, et al. Adipose tissue-derived stem cells ameliorate diabetic bladder dysfunction in a type II diabetic rat model. *Stem Cells Dev*. 2011;21(9):1391–400.
39. Yoshiyama M, Nezu FM, Yokoyama O, de Groat WC, Chancellor MB. Changes in micturition after spinal cord injury in conscious rats. *Urology*. 1999;54(5):929–33.
40. Nagatomi J, Gloeckner DC, Chancellor MB, Degroat WC, Sacks MS. Changes in the biaxial viscoelastic response of the urinary bladder following spinal cord injury. *Ann Biomed Eng*. 2004;32(10):1409–19.
41. Mitsui T, Kakizaki H, Tanaka H, Shibata T, Matsuoka I, Koyanagi T. Immortalized neural stem cells transplanted into the injured spinal cord promote recovery of voiding function in the rat. *J Urol*. 2003;170(4):1421–5.
42. Mitsui T, Fischer I, Shumsky JS, Murray M. Transplants of fibroblasts expressing BDNF and NT-3 promote recovery of bladder and hindlimb function following spinal contusion injury in rats. *Exp Neurol*. 2005;194(2):410–31.
43. Mitsui T, Shumsky JS, Lepore AC, Murray M, Fischer I. Transplantation of neuronal and glial restricted precursors into contused spinal cord improves bladder and motor functions, decreases thermal hypersensitivity, and modifies intraspinal circuitry. *J Neurosci*. 2005;25(42):9624–36.
44. Temeltas G, Dagci T, Kurt F, Evren V, Tuglu I. Bladder function recovery in rats with traumatic spinal cord injury after transplantation of neuronal-glial restricted precursors or bone marrow stromal cells. *J Urol*. 2009;181(6):2774–9.
45. Hu Y, Liao L, Ju Y, Fu G, Zhang H, Wu H. Intravenously transplanted bone marrow stromal cells promote recovery of lower urinary tract function in rats with complete spinal cord injury. *Spinal Cord*. 2012;50(3):202.
46. De Coppi P, Callegari A, Chiavegato A, Gasparotto L, Piccoli M, Taiani J, et al. Amniotic fluid and bone marrow derived mesenchymal stem cells can be converted to smooth muscle cells in the cryo-injured rat bladder and prevent compensatory hypertrophy of surviving smooth muscle cells. *J Urol*. 2007;177(1):369–76.
47. Huard J, Yokoyama T, Pruchnic R, Qu Z, Li Y, Lee J, et al. Muscle-derived cell-mediated ex vivo gene therapy for urological dysfunction. *Gene Ther*. 2002;9(23):1617.
48. Sakuma T, Matsumoto T, Kano K, Fukuda N, Obinata D, Yamaguchi K, et al. Mature, adipocyte derived, dedifferentiated fat cells can differentiate into smooth muscle-like cells and contribute to bladder tissue regeneration. *J Urol*. 2009;182(1):355–65.
49. Chung SY, Krivorov NP, Rausei V, Thomas L, Frantzen M, Landsittel D, et al. Bladder reconstitution with bone marrow derived stem cells seeded on small intestinal submucosa improves morphological and molecular composition. *J Urol*. 2005;174(1):353–9.
50. Frimberger D, Morales N, Shamlott M, Gearhart JD, Gearhart JP, Lakshmanan Y. Human embryoid body-derived stem cells in bladder regeneration using rodent model. *Urology*. 2005;65(4):827–32.
51. Mohseni MG, Zand S, Aghamir SM. Effect of smoking on prognostic factors of transitional cell carcinoma of the bladder. *Urology J*. 2009 Jun 11;1(4):250–2.
52. Drewa T, Joachimiak R, Kaznica A, Sarafian V, Pokrywczynska M, editors. Hair stem cells for bladder regeneration in rats: preliminary results. *Transplant Proceed*. 2009;41(10):4345–51: Elsevier

53. Zhu W-D, Xu Y-M, Feng C, Fu Q, Song L-J, Cui L. Bladder reconstruction with adipose-derived stem cell-seeded bladder acellular matrix grafts improve morphology composition. *World J Urol.* 2010;28(4):493–8.
54. Sharma AK, Hota PV, Matoka DJ, Fuller NJ, Jandali D, Thaker H, et al. Urinary bladder smooth muscle regeneration utilizing bone marrow derived mesenchymal stem cell seeded elastomeric poly (1, 8-octanediol-co-citrate) based thin films. *Biomaterials.* 2010;31(24):6207–17.
55. Tian H, Bharadwaj S, Liu Y, Ma H, Ma PX, Atala A, et al. Myogenic differentiation of human bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells on a 3D nano fibrous scaffold for bladder tissue engineering. *Biomaterials.* 2010;31(5):870–7.
56. Kanematsu A, Yamamoto S, Iwai-Kanai E, Kanatani I, Imamura M, Adam RM, et al. Induction of smooth muscle cell-like phenotype in marrow-derived cells among regenerating urinary bladder smooth muscle cells. *Am J Pathol.* 2005;166(2):565–73.
57. Atala A, Bauer SB, Soker S, Yoo JJ, Retik AB. Tissue-engineered autologous bladders for patients needing cystoplasty. *Lancet.* 2006;367(9518):1241–6.
58. Caione P, Boldrini R, Salerno A, Nappo SG. Bladder augmentation using acellular collagen biomatrix: a pilot experience in exstrophic patients. *Pediatr Surg Int.* 2012;28(4):421–8.
59. Demirbilek S, Uğuralp S, Gürbüz N, Sezgin N, Kırımlioğlu H. The use of silver nitrate for chemical de-epithelialization and urothelialization of intestine in a rabbit model of augmentation cystoplasty. *Urol Res.* 2003;31(4):236–41.
60. Southgate J, Cross W, Eardley I, Thomas D, Trejdosiewicz L. Bladder reconstruction—from cells to materials. *Proc Inst Mech Eng H J Eng Med.* 2003;217(4):311–6.
61. Van Blitterswijk C, De Boer J. *Tissue engineering.* 2nd ed. Oxford: Academic; 2014. 896 p.
62. Oberpenning F, Meng J, Yoo JJ, Atala A. De novo reconstitution of a functional mammalian urinary bladder by tissue engineering. *Nat Biotechnol.* 1999;17(2):149.
63. Torkamand F, Mirjavadi SJ, Khatami F, Guitynavard F, Aghamir SM. Evaluation of several botulinum toxins-A delivering systems into the bladder in interstitial cystitis/painful bladder syndrome (IC/PBS). *American J Clin Exper Urol.* 2019;7(5):346.
64. Farhat WA, Yeager H. Does mechanical stimulation have any role in urinary bladder tissue engineering? *World J Urol.* 2008;26(4):301–5.
65. Horst M, Madduri S, Gobet R, Sulser T, Milleret V, Hall H, et al. Engineering functional bladder tissues. *J Tissue Eng Regen Med.* 2013;7(7):515–22.
66. Wiles K, Fishman JM, De Coppi P, Birchall MA. The host immune response to tissue-engineered organs: current problems and future directions. *Tissue Eng Part B Rev.* 2016;22(3):208–19.
67. Haberstroh KM, Kaefer M, DePaola N, Frommer SA, Bizios R. A novel in-vitro system for the simultaneous exposure of bladder smooth muscle cells to mechanical strain and sustained hydrostatic pressure. *J Biomech Eng.* 2002;124(2):208–13.
68. Hubschmid U, Leong-Morgenthaler P-M, Basset-Dardare A, Ruault S, Frey P. In vitro growth of human urinary tract smooth muscle cells on laminin and collagen type I-coated membranes under static and dynamic conditions. *Tissue Eng.* 2005;11(1–2):161–71.
69. Serrano-Aroca Á, Vera-Donoso CD, Moreno-Manzano V. Bioengineering approaches for bladder regeneration. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2018;19(6):1796.
70. Munaz A, Vadivelu RK, St. John J, Barton M, Kamble H, Nguyen N-T. Three-dimensional printing of biological matters. *J Sci Adv Mater Devices.* 2016;1(1):1–17.
71. Gungor-Ozkerim PS, Inci I, Zhang YS, Khademhosseini A, Dokmeci MR. Bioprinting for 3D bioprinting: an overview. *Biomater Sci.* 2018;6(5):915–46.
72. MacChiariini P, Walles T, Biancosino C, Mertsching H. First human transplantation of a bioengineered airway tissue. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 2004;128(4):638.
73. McAllister TN, Maruszewski M, Garrido SA, Wystrychowski W, Dusserre N, Marini A, et al. Effectiveness of haemodialysis access with an autologous tissue-engineered vascular graft: a multicentre cohort study. *Lancet.* 2009;373(9673):1440–6.
74. Orabi H, Bouhout S, Morissette A, Rousseau A, Chabaud S, Bolduc S. Tissue engineering of urinary bladder and urethra: advances from bench to patients. *Sci World J.* 2013;2013:154564.