

Tissue-engineered Human Living Skin Substitutes: Development and Clinical Application

Kwang Hoon Lee

Abstract

The skin acts as a barrier to exogenous substances, pathogens, and trauma. Skin defects caused by burns, venous ulcer, diabetic ulcer, or acute injury occasionally induce life-threatening situations. Tissue engineering provides an alternative for autologous or allogeneic tissue transplantation, which is required because of donor site limitations and the risks of transmitting infection. Currently, skin substitutes are made of only extracellular matrix, mainly cells, or combination of cells and matrices. New biotechnological approaches have led to the development of the skin equivalent, the closest match yet to native human skin in terms of histological and functional properties. This review article focuses upon the development of the *in vitro* and *in vivo* epidermis and dermis and their clinical applications.

Key Words: Tissue engineering, skin, skin substitutes

INTRODUCTION

The skin is composed of three layers; epidermis, dermis, and subcutaneous fat. The epidermis is directly contiguous with the environment, is formed by keratinocytes, and acts as a barrier to exogenous substances, chemicals, the loss of moisture, and pathogens. Melanocytes and Langerhans cells also reside in the epidermis. At the junction between the epidermis and dermis is the basement membrane, which anchors the epidermis to the dermis. The dermis consists primarily of connective tissues that protect against trauma, and its major structural component is collagen. There are at least 9 types of connective tissue collagen that have been detected in human skin. Type I collagen, which accounts for 80% of the total collagen, is present throughout the dermis. The main cellular constituents are fibroblasts, which synthesize collagen.

Skin defects caused by burns, venous ulcer, diabetic ulcer, or acute injury induce water, electrolytes, and

protein loss from the wound site and may allow bacteria to invade. Some of these processes can be prevented if the wound is covered or the lost skin is replaced by a dressing or skin substitute. Skin grafts have been used for both acute and chronic large and slow healing wounds.¹ Autologous skin grafts, which involves harvesting skin from one area and transplanting it to another area on the same person, and allogeneic skin grafts, which are harvested from one person and transplanted onto a genetically non-identical person,² are the methods currently used to replace defective skin. Autologous skin grafts are effective, but they are often limited by the availability of donor tissue. Allogeneic grafts are subject to rejection, as antigens present in the donor tissue may elicit an immune reaction in the recipient, and are further limited by pathogens found in the donor tissue.³ Many temporary or permanent skin substitutes that are readily available, have been developed to be nonimmunologic and to mimic the characteristics of normal human skin. The ideal skin substitute would interrupt water and electrolyte loss and infection, but relieve pain and enhance wound healing.

The phrase "tissue engineering" was adopted by the Washington National Science Foundation bioengineering panel meeting in 1987.⁴ It refers to the application of the principles and methods of engineering and the life sciences toward the development of biological substitutes to restore, maintain, or im-

Received November 17, 2000
Department of Dermatology and Cutaneous Biology Research Institute, Yonsei University College of Medicine, Seoul, Korea.
Reprint address: request to Dr. K. H. Lee, Department of Dermatology and Cutaneous Biology Research Institute, Yonsei University College of Medicine, C.P.O. Box 8044, Seoul 120-752, Korea. Tel: 82-2-361-5720, Fax: 82-2-393-9157, E-mail: kwanglee@yumc.yonsei.ac.kr

prove function.

OVERVIEW OF BIOENGINEERED SKIN SUBSTITUTES

The use of living cells together with natural or synthetic extracellular components is essential for tissue engineering. Currently, skin substitutes are made of only extracellular matrix, mainly cells, or a combination of cells and matrices (Table 1).⁵ The development of tissue engineered skin products has been triggered by advances in research, which have focused on cell culture and the cryopreservation of living cells. A fundamental advance was made when it was discovered how to grow human keratinocytes in culture.⁶ The development of the techniques of culturing keratinocytes is wholly attributable to the efficient production and reproducible yield of cells from very small pieces of donor skin. Cell banks can be developed, and when needed cells can be thawed and propagated exponentially in culture.

Since the pioneering work in which autologous keratinocyte sheets were used to treat burns,⁷ improved methods have been established for the production of epidermal cell sheets *in vitro*.⁸⁻¹¹ A disadvantage of cultured keratinocytes had always

been that they are very fragile. Keratinocyte sheets are difficult to handle, a more structural dermal component was necessary to increase the handling properties of cultured cells. These were produced by the introduction of floating¹²⁻¹⁵ and anchored dermal substitutes,¹⁶⁻¹⁸ using collagen hydrated gels or lattices. The first floating skin equivalent was produced in 1981,¹² by adding multilayered epidermis to the dermal equivalent. However, its severe contraction restricted its use for wound coverage *in vivo*.¹⁹ Living fibroblasts contract a floating collagen gel matrix, *in vitro*, the extent of which depends on the number of cells, the collagen concentration and the contractile properties of the cell population seeded in the gel.^{13-16,18} Such surface contraction of floating dermal substitutes produced by hydrated collagen gels can be prevented using anchorage methods *in vitro*.¹⁶⁻²⁴

CHARACTERISTICS OF TISSUE-ENGINEERED SKIN PRODUCTS AND THEIR CLINICAL APPLICATION

Tissue-engineered skin substitutes can be broadly categorized into epidermal components alone, mainly dermal components, or composite grafts (Table 2).²⁵

Table 1. Tissue-Engineered Skin Substitutes

Product name	Company	Materials	
		Epidermis	Dermis
Epicel ³²	Genzyme tissue repair	Living cultured autologous keratinocytes	None
Alloderm ^{44,45}	Life cell	None	Salt processed, human cadaveric skin with acellular dermis
Integra ^{46,47}	Integra life sciences	Silastic membrane	Bovine tendon collagen and shark glycosaminoglycan
Dermagraft-TC ⁴⁹	Advanced tissue sciences	Silicone polymer	Nylon-mesh with non-viable cultured foreskin-derived dermal fibroblasts and their products
Dermagraft ⁴⁸	Advanced tissue sciences	None	Living human neonatal foreskin-derived dermal fibroblasts on a bioabsorbable polyglactin mesh without silastic layer
Apligraf ⁵⁰	Organogenesis	Living human neonatal foreskin-derived keratinocytes	Living human neonatal foreskin-derived dermal fibroblasts and bovine tendon-derived collagen plus the fibroblast-produced matrix and growth factors

Table 2. Advantages and Disadvantages of Tissue-Engineered Skin Substitutes

Product name	Type	Advantages	Disadvantages
Epicel ³²	Epidermal Autograft	Coverage of large areas; permanent wound coverage; minimal risk of disease transmission	2–3 wks intervals for cultivation; fragile, difficult to handle
Alloderm ^{44,45}	Dermal Allograft	Immediate wound coverage; no immunological reaction	Allograft supply, preservation; virus screening; two steps procedure
Integra ^{46,47}	Dermal Replacement	Immediate wound coverage; allow ultra-thin split-thickness skin autografts	Complete wound excision; two steps procedure; susceptible to infection
Dermagraft ⁴⁸	Dermal Replacement	Immediate availability	Multiple applications
Apligraf ⁵⁰⁻⁵⁴	Composite graft	Immediate availability; single step (no requirement for subsequent skin grafting); easy handling	Limited viability

Cultured epidermal grafts

In 1975, Rheinwald and Green²⁶ described a method of *in vitro* cultivation and expansion of human keratinocytes. This method has been used clinically to cover burns and other acute and chronic wounds.²⁷⁻³¹

One product, Epicel, developed by the Genzyme Tissue Repair Corporation, has been commercially available since 1988.³² This product relies on a small skin biopsy sample to generate a large area of cultured epidermis. It also provides permanent wound coverage, with acceptable cosmetic results and minimal risk of disease transmission. However, it takes a 2–3 weeks to cultivate practical quantities of epidermis after the initial biopsy.

Cultured allogeneic keratinocyte grafts were developed to avoid this 2–3 week delay. However, cultured epidermal allografts serve only as a temporary wound covering that is eventually replaced by the host's epidermis.³³⁻³⁸ Both keratinocyte autografts and allografts are thin, fragile and lack a dermal component. Several authors have also suggested that dermal elements play an important role in the wound healing process.³⁹⁻⁴³

Dermal replacements

Cadaver allograft skin has been used for many years, primarily in patients with full-thickness burns, as a temporary wound coverage. Replacement of the antigenic epithelium with a split-thickness skin graft has been limited for reasons of availability and safety.³² Alloderm, developed by the Life Cell Corporation, is made of salt processed human cadaveric

skin to form an acellular dermal matrix and an intact basement membrane complex without an epidermis.^{25,44} Alloderm is decellularized, freeze-dried and biochemically stabilized, and has been used successfully alone and in combination with cultured autografts for the treatment of burn wounds and dermal defects.⁴⁵

A composite graft, Integra, developed by the Integra Life Science Corporation, is composed of a bilaminated membrane consisting of a silastic outer covering bonded to a collagen based dermal analog (bovine tendon collagen and shark glycosaminoglycan).^{46,47} The dermal component is designed to be slowly biodegradable and a split thickness autograft is applied to the wound surface after the silicone layer is removed. This composite graft was used in a multicenter study in burn patients and received FDA approval, but its use is limited to practitioners that have undergone a company sponsored training program.

Another product, Dermagraft, developed by Advanced Tissue Sciences Inc., uses a mesh of bioabsorbable polyglactin (Vicryl) as a platform on which dermal fibroblasts from neonatal foreskin are grown in a sterile bag with circulating nutrients. These fibroblasts multiply and secrete collagen, fibronectin, glycosaminoglycans, and growth factors over the course of 14 to 17 days, thereby producing a dermis-like matrix.⁴⁸ Dermagraft-TC (Dermagraft-Transitional Covering) is composed of an outer silicone polymer "epidermal layer" and a "dermis", which is synthesized from human neonatal fibroblasts cultured

on polyglactin mesh.⁴⁹ Dermagraft-TC has been used as temporary wound coverage for excised burn wounds⁴⁹ and has been approved by the FDA. The product is also eventually removed and replaced with autologous skin grafts. A modification of this graft, Dermagraft, which does not have a silastic layer, is a living dermal equivalent, contain allogeneic neonatal fibroblasts on a bioabsorbable polyglactin mesh that disappears after 3 to 4 weeks. Dermagraft fibroblasts remain viable and the absence of a silastic layer allows a single step procedure.

Composite grafts

Apligraf (Grafts skin, Living Skin Equivalent: LSE), developed by Organogenesis, is the only bilayered skin equivalent approved by the FDA.⁵⁰ Apligraf is composed of living cells. Keratinocytes and dermal fibroblasts are derived from neonatal foreskin and propagated in culture. Cultured cells are extensively screened for pathogens and tumors.⁵¹ The initial step involves mixing fibroblasts with purified bovine type I collagen and heating in order to trap the fibroblasts as a loose matrix.^{44,52} Within this organizational collagen, new collagen and matrix protein are produced, which are placed in a mold to limit lateral contraction. After 2 weeks, the mixture forms a dense fibrous network. A suspension of keratinocytes is added to the surface of the collagen fibroblast layer and these are allowed to proliferate. After several days of growth whilst submerged in a tissue culture medium, the surface of the skin equivalent is exposed to air (the air-liquid interface), to promote keratinocyte differentiation, and the formation of a stratum corneum, in the presence of an increased calcium concentration in the culture medium and the absence of epidermal growth factor. Apligraf, despite containing allogeneic proteins and cells, has as yet not led to an adverse host response. In part, this may be because the tissue-engineered products do not contain antigen presenting cells, such as, Langerhans cells and endothelial cells.

Apligraf can be thought of as a "smart tissue". It has been shown to have the ability to produce a number of cytokines and growth factors, and it acts very much like human skin. It is hypothesized that the cells of these tissue-engineered skins can serve the environment into which they are placed, and take "corrective action" by producing the appropriate soluble factors including, interleukin 1 (IL-1), IL-3,

IL-6, IL-8, transforming growth factors α and β , and basic fibroblast growth factors.⁵

Apligraf is approved in the United States for the treatment of venous ulcers, and has been studied for the treatment of venous ulcers in a parallel group, multicenter, randomized, controlled trial, which compared Apligraf therapy to compression therapy.⁵⁰ Two hundred and seventy-five patients were evaluated in this study. 63% (92 of 146) of the Apligraf cases, compared with 49% (63 of 129) of the compression-treated cases were completely healed at 6 months. The median time to complete wound closure was significantly faster with Apligraf patients (61 days vs 181 days). The product was especially effective in the most refractory venous ulcers. There was no clinical or laboratory evidence of rejection or response sensitization to Apligraf application. Up to five applications of Apligraf were allowed in the trial during the first three weeks, depending on whether there was a 50% take of the previously applied graft. Now Apligraf is available commercially, one application is usually sufficient to either obtain graft take and healing or to stimulate the wound to heal.⁵³

Apligraf has also been studied for the treatment of acute wounds. In a study, a single application of Apligraf was placed onto excision sites of 15 patients that had undergone surgical excisions for skin cancer. Twelve of the 15 patients had graft take.⁵² The product proved safe and offered clinical advantages over autografting and secondary healing. In another study involving acute wounds, Apligraf was evaluated in a parallel comparison trial of donor site wounds,⁵⁴ and was compared to a polyurethane film for healing time, pain, and cosmesis.

The best skin equivalent is the closest to native human skin in histological and functional properties. Apart from their clinical applications, skin substitutes arouse a high level of interest with the pharmaceutical and cosmetic industries for the research and development of new commercial products. Tissue-engineered skin constitutes have been developed that contain melanocytes⁵⁵ and Langerhans cells.⁵⁶ Apligraf and other tissue-engineered skins have also been transfected with viruses.^{57,58} In the near future, skin substitutes containing a superabundance of selected cells or selected functions by genetic engineering will be used clinically for selected purposes.

CONCLUSION

Tissue engineering provides an alternative for autologous or allogeneic tissue transplantation, which circumvents problems associated with the limited number of sites and donors, and the risks of transmitting infection. Recently developed skin equivalents are superior to compression therapy for refractory venous ulcers, and acute wounds. These products behave in a similar way to autografts. The development of a new tissue-engineered skin, which contain cells possessing selected functions is a target made possible by genetic engineering.

REFERENCES

1. Hauben DJ, Baruchin A, Mahler D. On the history of the free skin graft. *Ann Plast Surg* 1982;9:242-6.
2. Kirsner RS, Eaglstein WH, Kerdel FA. Split-thickness skin grafting for lower extremity ulcerations. *Dermatol Surg* 1997;23:85-91.
3. Kirsner RS, Falanga V, Eaglstein WH. The development of bioengineered skin. *Trends Biotechnol* 1998;6:246-9.
4. Nerem RM. Tissue engineering in the USA (review). *Med Biol Eng Comput* 1992;30:CE8-12.
5. Eaglstein WH, Falanga V. Tissue engineering for skin; an update. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1998;39:1007-10.
6. Rheinwald JG, Green H. Serial cultivation of strains of human epidermal keratinocytes; the formation of keratinizing colonies from single cells. *Cell* 1975;6:331-44.
7. O'Connor NE, Mulliken JB, Banks-Schlegel S, Kehinde O, Green H. Grafting of burns with cultured epithelium prepared from autologous epidermal cells. *Lancet* 1981; 10:75-8.
8. Germain L, Rouabhia M, Guignard R, Carrier L, Bouvard V, Auger FA. Improvement of human keratinocyte isolation and culture using thermolysin. *Burns* 1993;19:99-104.
9. Rouabhia M, Germain L, Auger FA. Allogenic-syngeneic cultured epithelia: A successful therapeutic option for skin regeneration. *Transplantation* 1995;59:1229-35.
10. Rouabhia M. In vitro production and transplantation of an immunologically active skin equivalents. *Lab Invest* 1996;75:305-17.
11. Stoner ML, Wood FM. Systemic factors influencing the growth of cultured epithelial autograft. *Burns* 1996;22: 197-9.
12. Bell E, Ehrlich HP, Buttle DJ, Nakatsuji T. Living tissue formed *in vitro* and accepted as skin-equivalent tissue of full thickness. *Science* 1981;211:1042-54.
13. Bell E, Sher R, Hull B, Merrill C, Rosen S, Chamson A, et al. The reconstitution of living skin. *J Invest Dermatol* 1983;81:2s-10s.
14. Germain L, Jean A, Auger FA, Garrel DR. Human wound healing fibroblasts have greater contractile properties than dermal fibroblasts. *J Surg Res* 1994;57:268-73.
15. Moulin V, Auger FA, O'Connor-McCourt M, Germain L. Fetal and postnatal sera differentially modulate human dermal fibroblast phenotypic and functional features *in vitro*. *J Cell Physiol* 1997;171:1-10.
16. Bouvard V, Germain L, Rompre P, Roy B, Auger FA. Influence of dermal equivalent maturation on a skin equivalent development. *Biochem Cell Biol* 1992;70:34-42.
17. Lin YC, Grinnell F. Decreased level of PDGF-stimulated receptor Autophosphorylation by fibroblasts in mechanically relaxed collagen matrices. *J Cell Biol* 1993;122:663-72.
18. Lopez Valle CA, Auger FA, Rompre P, Bouvard V, Germain L. Peripheral anchorage of dermal equivalents. *Br J Dermatol* 1992;127:365-71.
19. Auger FA, Rouabhia M, Goulet F, Berthod F, Moulin V, Germain L. Tissue-engineered human skin substitutes developed from collagen-populated hydrated gels: clinical and fundamental applications. *Med Biol Eng Comput* 1998;36:801-12.
20. Guidry C, Grinnell F. Heparin modulates the organization of hydrated collagen gels and inhibits gel contraction by fibroblasts. *J Cell Biol* 1987;104:1097-103.
21. Eckes B, Krieg T, Nusgens BV, Lapiere CM. *In vitro* reconstituted skin as a tool for biology, pharmacology and therapy; a review. *Wound Rep Reg* 1995;3:248-57.
22. Parenteau NL, Nolte CM, Bilbo P, Rosenberg M, Wilkins LM, Johnson EW, et al. Epidermis generated *in vitro*: practical considerations and applications. *J Cell Biochem* 1991;45:245-51.
23. Zieske JD, Mason VS, Wasson ME, Meunier SF, Nolte CJM, Fukai N, et al. Basement membrane assembly and differentiation of cultured corneal cells: importance of culture environment and endothelial cell interactions. *Exp Cell Res* 1994;214:621-33.
24. Xu W, Germain L, Goulet F, Auger FA. Permanent grafting of living skin substitutes: Surgical parameters to control for successful results. *J Burn Care Rehabil* 1996; 17:7-13.
25. Phillips TJ. New skin for old: Development in biological skin substitutes. *Arch Dermatol* 1998;134:344-9.
26. Rheinwald JG, Green H. Serial cultivation of strains of human epidermal keratinocytes: The formation of keratinizing colonies from single cells. *Cell* 1975;6:331-44.
27. Odyssey R. Multicenter experience with cultured epidermal autografts for treatment of burns. *J Burn Care Rehabil* 1992;13:174-80.
28. Phillips TJ, Gilchrist BA. Clinical applications of cultured epithelium. *Epithelial Cell Biol* 1992;1:39-46.
29. Limova M, Mauro T. Treatment of leg ulcers with cultured epithelial autografts: treatment protocol and five years experience. *Wounds* 1995;7:170-80.
30. Hefton JM, Caldwell D, Biozes DG, Balin AK, Carter DM. Grafting of skin ulcers with autologous epidermal cells. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1986;14:399-405.
31. Leigh IM, Purkis PE. Culture-grafted leg ulcers. *Clin Exp Dermatol* 1986;11:650-2.

32. Phillips T, Kehinde O, Green H, Gilchrist BA. Treatment of skin ulcers with cultured epidermal allografts. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1989;21:191-9.
33. De Luca M, Albanese E, Cancedda R, Viacava A, Faggioni A, Zambruno G, et al. Treatment of leg ulcers with cryopreserved allogeneic epithelium. *Arch Dermatol* 1992;128:633-8.
34. Mol MAE, Nanninga PB, van Eendenburg JP, Westerhof W, Mekkes JR, van Ginkel CJ. Grafting of venous leg ulcers: an intraindividual comparison between cultured skin equivalents and full thickness punch grafts. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1991;24:77-82.
35. Teepe RG, Koebrugge EJ, Ponc M, Vermeer BJ. Fresh versus cryopreserved allografts for the treatment of chronic skin ulcers. *Br J Dermatol* 1990;122:81-9.
36. Teepe RG, Roseeuw DI, Hermans J, Koebrugge EJ, Altena T, de Coninck A, et al. Randomized trial comparing cryopreserved cultured epidermal allografts with hydrocolloid dressings in healing chronic venous ulcers. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1993;29:982-8.
37. Phillips T, Bhawan J, Leigh IM, Baum HJ, Gilchrist BA. Cultured epidermal allografts: a study of differentiation and allograft survival. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1990;23:189-98.
38. Phillips T. Cultured epidermal allografts: a temporary or permanent solution? *Transplantation* 1991;51:937-41.
39. Odyssey R. Multicenter experience with cultured epidermal autografts for treatment of burns. *J Burn Care Rehabil* 1992;13:174-80.
40. Phillips TJ, Gilchrist BA. Clinical applications of cultured epithelium. *Epithelial Cell Biol* 1992;1:39-46.
41. Phillips TJ. Cultured skin grafts: past, present, and future. *Arch Dermatol* 1988;124:1035-8.
42. Clark RAF. Basics of cutaneous wound repair. *J Dermatol Surg Oncol* 1993;19:693-706.
43. Choucair MM, Phillips TJ. What's new in clinical research in wound healing. *Dermatol Clin* 1997;15:45-58.
44. Kirsner RS. The use of Apligraf in acute wounds. *J Dermatol* 1998;25:805-11.
45. Kolenik SA III, Leffell DJ. The use of cryopreserved human skin allografts in wound healing following Mohs surgery. *Dermatol Surg* 1995;21:615-20.
46. Jaksic T, Burke JF. The use of artificial skin for burns. *Ann Rev Med* 1987;38:107-17.
47. Burke JF, Yannas IV, Quinby WC, Bondoc CC, Jung WK. Successful use of physiologically acceptable artificial skin in the treatment of extensive burn injury. *Ann Surg* 1981;194:413-28.
48. Gentzkow GD, Iwaski SD, Hershon KS, Mengel M, Prendergast JJ, Ricotta JJ, et al. Use of Dermagraft, a cultured human dermis, to treat diabetic foot ulcers. *Diabetes Care* 1996;19:350-4.
49. Purdue GF. Dermagraft-TC pivotal safety and efficacy study. *J Burn Care Rehabil* 1996;18:S13-4.
50. Falanga V, Margolis D, Alvarez O, Auletta M, Maggiasco F, Altman M, et al. Rapid healing of venous ulcers and lack of clinical rejection with an allogeneic cultured human skin equivalent. *Arch Dermatol* 1998;134:293-300.
51. Wilkins LM, Watson SR, Prosky SJ, Meunier SF, Parenteau NL. Development of a bilayered living skin construct for clinical applications. *Biotechnol Bioeng* 1994;43:747-56.
52. Eaglstein W, Iriondo M, Laszlo K. A composite skin substitute (Graftskin) for surgical wounds. *Dermatol Surg* 1995;21:839-43.
53. Falanga V. Apligraf treatment of venous ulcers and other chronic wounds. *J Dermatol* 1998;25:812-7.
54. Muhart M, McFalls S, Kirsner R, Kerdel F, Eaglstein WH. Bioengineered skin. *Lancet* 1997;350:1142.
55. Lerner AB, Halaban R, Klaus SN, Moellmann GE. Transplantation of human melanocytes. *J Invest Dermatol* 1987;89:219-24.
56. Eming SA, Yarmush ML, Morgan JR. Enhanced function of cultured epithelium by genetic modification: cell based synthesis and delivery of growth factors. *Biotechnol Bioeng* 1996;52:15-23.
57. Badiavas E, Mehta PP, Falanga V. Retrovirally mediated gene transfer in a skin equivalent model of chronic wounds. *J Dermatol Sci* 1996;13:56-62.
58. Regnier M, Staquet MJ, Schmitt D, Schmidt R. Integration of Langerhans cells into a pigmented reconstructed human epidermis. *J Invest Dermatol* 1997;109:510-2.