

Efficacy and Safety of Stem Cell Therapy for Spinal Cord Injury in Adults: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis

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Abstract

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Background: Despite encouraging early results, clinical outcomes remain inconsistent across trials. This study aimed to systematically evaluate the efficacy and safety of stem cell therapy in adults with spinal cord injury (SCI).

Methods: A systematic review and meta-analysis were conducted following PRISMA 2020 guidelines. PubMed, EMBASE, and Scopus were searched until 18 October 2025. Eligible studies included adult SCI patients receiving stem cell therapy with measurable neurological outcomes. Data synthesis was performed using Review Manager 5.4 under a random-effects model, reporting pooled risk ratios (RR) with 95% confidence intervals (CIs). Risk of bias was assessed using ROBINS-I, and evidence certainty was graded via GRADE.

Result: Thirteen studies involving 470 participants (286 intervention, 184 control) were included. Stem cell therapy significantly improved neurological recovery compared with controls (RR = 2.64; 95% CI 1.70–4.10; $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 0\%$). Subgroup analyses showed consistent benefits across baseline AIS classifications (RR = 2.61; 95% CI 1.71–3.98) and cell doses (RR = 2.75; 95% CI 1.63–4.64). No major safety signals were identified. GRADE assessment rated the certainty of efficacy evidence as moderate.

Conclusions: Stem cell therapy yields significant neurological improvement in adult SCI with a favorable safety profile. The findings support its regenerative potential through neuroprotective and remyelinating mechanisms. However, larger randomized controlled trials are required to validate efficacy, optimize protocols, and assess long-term safety.

Introduction

Stem cell therapy has emerged as a promising regenerative approach for spinal cord injury (SCI), a condition that results in irreversible neurological deficits due to the

limited intrinsic repair capacity of the central nervous system.¹ The rationale for using stem cells lies in their ability to differentiate into neural lineages, secrete neurotrophic factors, and modulate the

hostile post-injury microenvironment that inhibits axonal regrowth.^{1,2} Unlike pharmacologic or surgical interventions that primarily aim to limit secondary damage, stem cells offer a biological means to restore neural circuitry, promote remyelination, and enhance functional recovery. Such potential has driven extensive experimental and clinical interest in translating stem cell-based therapies into viable treatments for SCI.³

Over the past two decades, multiple clinical trials have evaluated various stem cell types—most notably mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs), neural stem/progenitor cells (NSPCs), and induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs)—for their safety and regenerative efficacy.⁴ While some studies have reported improvements in sensory and motor scores, outcomes remain heterogeneous, with inconsistent methodologies, variable injury levels, and differing routes and timing of cell administration.^{5–7} Moreover, long-term safety concerns such as immune reactions, ectopic tissue formation, and tumorigenicity continue to limit widespread clinical application. The lack of standardized protocols and robust evidence synthesis has created uncertainty regarding the true clinical benefit of stem cell therapy in adults with SCI.⁸

The physiological complexity of SCI involves both primary mechanical insult and secondary injury mechanisms,

including ischemia, excitotoxicity, inflammation, and glial scar formation, all of which impede endogenous regeneration.⁹ Stem cell therapy aims to counteract these processes by replacing lost neurons and oligodendrocytes, secreting anti-inflammatory cytokines, and promoting neuroplasticity within spared neural networks.¹⁰ Given the growing but fragmented body of evidence, a systematic and quantitative assessment is crucial to clarify clinical outcomes and safety profiles. This study therefore aims to conduct a systematic review and meta-analysis to evaluate the efficacy and safety of stem cell therapy for spinal cord injury in adults.

Material And Methods

This systematic review included studies that assessed the efficacy and safety of stem cell therapy in adult patients aged 18 years or older with spinal cord injury (SCI), regardless of the injury's level or severity. Eligible study designs comprised randomized controlled trials (RCTs), non-randomized controlled studies, and prospective cohort studies that reported at least one measurable functional, neurological, or safety outcome. Excluded studies included case reports, animal studies, reviews, and conference abstracts lacking sufficient data.

A comprehensive literature search was performed across PubMed, EMBASE,

and Scopus from their inception until 18 October 2025. To ensure thoroughness, the reference lists of included studies and relevant reviews were manually screened to identify additional eligible publications. The search strategy employed both Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) and free-text terms associated with “spinal cord injury,” “stem cell therapy,” “transplantation,” and “regeneration,” with Boolean operators and database-specific filters applied to optimize retrieval.

The study selection process involved independent screening of titles and abstracts by all reviewers, followed by full-text assessments to confirm eligibility. Any disagreements were resolved through discussion and consensus, ensuring methodological consistency. This process adhered to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) 2020 guidelines.¹¹ Data extraction was conducted independently by two reviewers using a standardized form, which captured key study characteristics such as authorship, publication year, design, sample size, participant demographics, stem cell type and source, route and timing of administration, follow-up duration, and outcome measures.

Primary outcomes of interest included functional and neurological improvements, commonly evaluated through the American Spinal Injury Association (ASIA) Impairment Scale (AIS) or equivalent

motor and sensory scores. Secondary outcomes encompassed adverse events, complication rates, and mortality. Additional data regarding intervention characteristics, such as cell type, dosage, delivery method, and study funding sources were also systematically recorded.

The risk of bias in each study was evaluated using the ROBINS-I (Risk of Bias in Non-Randomized Studies of Interventions) tool across seven domains. Independent assessments by all reviewers were reconciled through discussion to ensure reliability. For effect measures, all outcomes were treated as dichotomous data and expressed as Risk Ratios (RRs) with corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CIs), facilitating standardized comparisons across studies.

Data synthesis was performed through meta-analysis using Review Manager (RevMan) version 5.4. A random-effects model (DerSimonian–Laird method) with the Mantel–Haenszel approach was applied for dichotomous outcomes, while the Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML) method was used for continuous data. Statistical heterogeneity was quantified using the I^2 statistic, and significance was set at $p < 0.05$. Forest plots were generated to illustrate pooled effect estimates, and funnel plots were used to assess publication bias. Sensitivity analyses tested the robustness of results.

Publication bias was visually examined via funnel plots and statistically assessed using Egger's regression test for outcomes with at least ten studies. Finally, the overall quality and certainty of evidence were appraised using the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development, and Evaluation (GRADE) framework. Evidence was categorized as high, moderate, low, or very low depending on risk of bias, inconsistency, indirectness, imprecision, and potential publication bias.

Result

Work should be reported in SI units. Undue repetition in text and tables should be avoided. Comment on validity and significance of results is appropriate but broader discussion of their implication is restricted to the next section. Subheadings that aid clarity of presentation within this and the previous section are encouraged.

The purpose of the Results is to state your findings and make interpretations and/or opinions, explain the implications of your findings, and make suggestions for future research. The main function is to answer the questions posed in the introduction, explain how the results support the answers and, how the answers fit in with existing knowledge on the topic. The Discussion is considered the heart of the paper and usually requires several writing attempts.

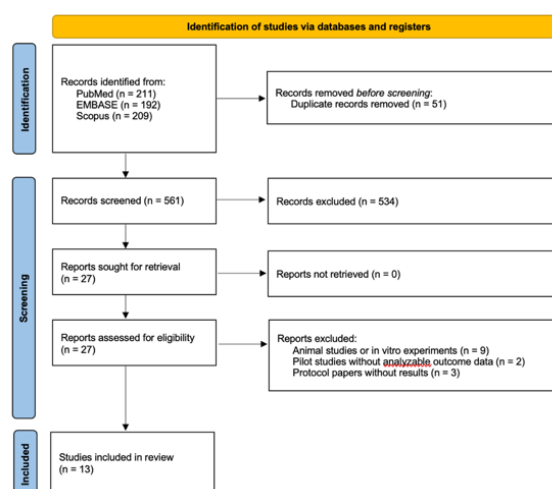


Figure 1. PRISMA diagram of the study selection process

A total of 612 records were initially identified from the databases, including PubMed (n = 211), EMBASE (n = 192), and Scopus (n = 209). After the removal of 51 duplicate records, 561 unique studies were screened by title and abstract. Of these, 534 records were excluded for not meeting the eligibility criteria. Twenty-seven full-text articles were assessed for eligibility, and none were excluded due to retrieval issues. Following full-text review, nine studies were excluded for being animal or in vitro experiments, two were excluded as pilot studies without analyzable outcome data, and three were protocol papers without results. Ultimately, 13 studies met the inclusion criteria and were included in the final systematic review and meta-analysis (Figure 1).^{5,7,12–22}

The risk of bias assessment using the ROBINS-I tool demonstrated that most included studies exhibited a low risk of

bias across the seven evaluated domains, particularly regarding confounding factors and participant selection (Figure 2). A few studies presented moderate risk primarily due to missing data, classification of interventions, or incomplete outcome reporting.

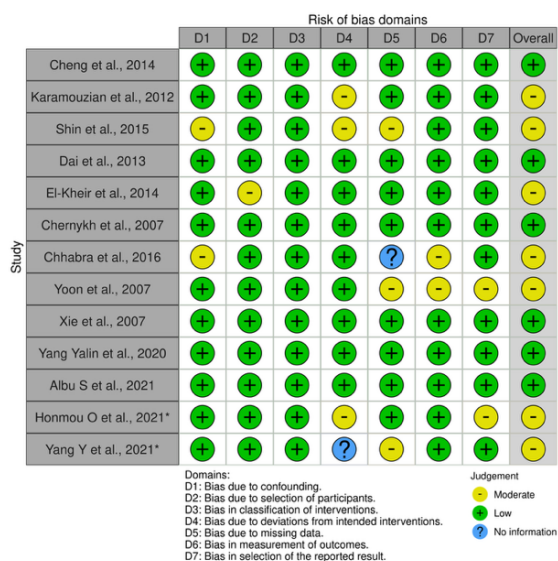


Figure 2. Risk of bias of eligible studies using ROBINS-I

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of included studies.

Study (Author, Year)	Country	Participants (SCT / Control)	Mean or Range of Age (yrs)	Injury Level (SCT / Control)	Preinjury Grade (AIS)	Stem Cell Source	Cell Quantity	Delivery Technique
Cheng et al., 2014	China	10 / 14	35.25	Thoracolumbar / –	AIS A	Umbilical cord MSCs	4×10 ⁷	Local lesion injection
Karamouzian et al., 2012	Iran	11 / 20	33.4	Thoracic / Thoracic	AIS A	Bone marrow MSCs	7×10 ⁵ – 1.2×10 ⁶	Lumbar puncture
Shin et al., 2015	Korea	19 / 15	37.2	Cervical / Cervical	AIS A–B	Human neural stem/progenitor cells	10 ⁸	Direct lesion injection
Dai et al., 2013	China	20 / 20	34.9	Cervical / Cervical	AIS A	Bone marrow MSCs	2×10 ⁷	Lesion site injection
El-Kheir et al., 2014	Egypt	50 / 20	16–45	10 cervical & 40 thoracic / 7 cervical & 13 thoracic	AIS A or B	Bone marrow MSCs	2×10 ⁶ per kg	Lumbar puncture
Chernykh et al., 2007	Russia	18 / 18	32.4	Cervical, thoracic, lumbar (varied)	AIS A	Bone marrow mononuclear cells	NR	Injection into cystic cavity & IV
Chhabra et al., 2016	India	14 / 7	24.9	Thoracic / Thoracic	AIS A	Bone marrow MSCs	7×10 ⁸ – 10 ⁹	Lumbar puncture or lesion injection
Yoon et al., 2007	Korea	35 / 13	41.3	23 cervical, 12 thoracic / 7 cervical, 6 thoracic	AIS A	Bone marrow MSCs	1.98×10 ⁸	Injection into lesion
Xie et al., 2007	China	11 / 13	18–49 (SCT), 21–53 (Ctrl)	Cervical, thoracic, lumbar / similar	AIS A–D	Bone marrow MSCs	2–5×10 ⁹	Lumbar puncture
Yang Yalin et al., 2020	China	34 / 34	27–43	44 Cervical/24 Thoracic	AIS A–D	Autologous bone marrow		Intrathecal
Albu S et al., 2021	Spain	10 / 10	25–47	Thoracic	AIS A–D	Allogeneic umbilical cord cells		Intrathecal
Honmou O et al., 2021*	Japan	13 / –	21–66	Cervical	AIS A–D	Autologous bone marrow		Intravenous
Yang Y et al., 2021*	China	41 / –	18–65	24 Cervical/ 7 Thoracic/10 Dorsal-lumbar	AIS A–D	Allogeneic umbilical cord cells		Intrathecal

*Single arm clinical trial

Table 2. GRADE summary of findings.

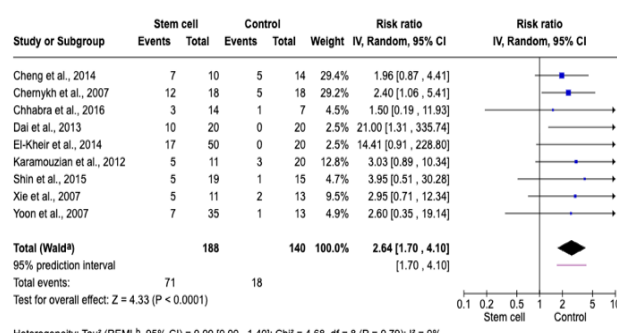
Outcome (follow-up)	Participants (studies)	Study design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Overall certainty (GRADE)	Relative effect	Absolute effect (per 100 pts)*
AIS grade improvement (overall) (longest available)	532 (13)	Mostly non-randomized comparative studies	Not serious†	Not serious (I ² =0%)	Not serious (adults with SCI)	Not serious (95% CI excludes no effect)	MODERATE ⊕⊕⊕○	RR 2.64 (95% CI 1.70–4.10) (Figure 3)	+21 more/100 improved (from +9 to +40 more) — assuming a 13/100 control risk from Figure 3
AIS grade improvement by baseline AIS (A vs B/C)	532 (13)	Mostly non-randomized	Not serious†	Not serious (I ² =0% within subgroups)	Not serious	Not serious	MODERATE ⊕⊕⊕○	RR 2.61 (1.71–3.98) (Figure 4)	From a 13/100 control risk: +21 more/100 (from +9 to +38 more)
AIS grade improvement by cell dose (10 ⁶ , 10 ⁷ , 10 ⁸ cells)	492 (11)	Mostly non-randomized	Not serious†	Not serious (I ² =0%; no subgroup diffs)	Not serious	Not serious	MODERATE ⊕⊕⊕○	RR 2.75 (1.63–4.64) (Figure 5)	From a 13/100 control risk: +23 more/100 (from +8 to +47 more)

A total of 286 participants received stem cell therapy (SCT) and 184 participants served as controls across the 13 included studies. The studies were conducted in Asia (China, Korea, Japan, India), Europe (Spain), Russia, and Egypt, reflecting a diverse geographic representation. The mean or range of participant ages varied between 16 and 66 years, indicating that most studies focused on adult populations with both acute and chronic spinal cord injuries. The majority of participants had cervical or thoracic injuries, with baseline preinjury AIS grades ranging from A to D, although most were complete injuries (AIS A).

The predominant stem cell sources were bone marrow-derived MSCs (used in 8 studies), followed by umbilical cord-derived MSCs (2 studies), allogeneic umbilical cord cells (2 studies), and neural stem/progenitor cells (1 study). The delivery methods varied across studies: lumbar puncture/intrathecal injection was the most common route (7 studies), while others used direct lesion site injections, intravenous infusion, or combined approaches (e.g., intralesional and intravenous). Reported cell quantities ranged widely from 7×10^5 to 5×10^9 cells, with some studies expressing dosage relative to body weight (e.g., 2×10^6 cells/kg).

Meta-analysis

The overall pooled meta-analysis demonstrated a statistically significant improvement in AIS grading following stem cell therapy compared with control treatment (RR = 2.64, 95% CI: 1.70–4.10, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 0\%$) (Figure 3). Subgroup analysis according to baseline AIS classification also showed a significant overall effect (RR = 2.61, 95% CI: 1.71–3.98, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 0\%$) across both AIS A and AIS B/C groups (Figure 4). When stratified by administered cell quantity, the pooled estimate remained significant (RR = 2.75, 95% CI: 1.63–4.64, $p = 0.0002$; $I^2 = 0\%$) (Figure 5). Across all analyses, no significant heterogeneity was observed ($\tau^2 = 0.00$; $\chi^2 = 4.68$, $df = 8$, $p = 0.79$ for the main model), and the funnel plots demonstrated symmetry, indicating a low likelihood of publication bias.



Footnotes

^aCI calculated by Wald-type method.

^bTau² calculated by Restricted Maximum-Likelihood method.

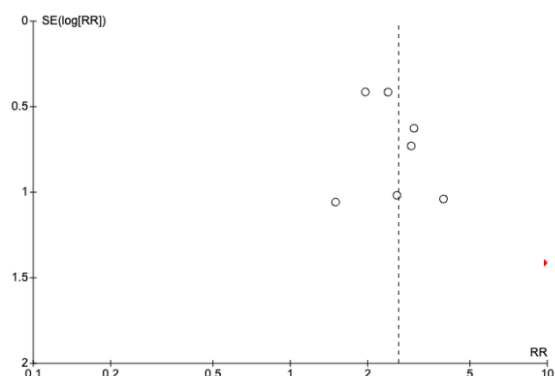


Figure 3. Pooled meta-analysis of improvement rates in AIS grading following stem cell therapy.

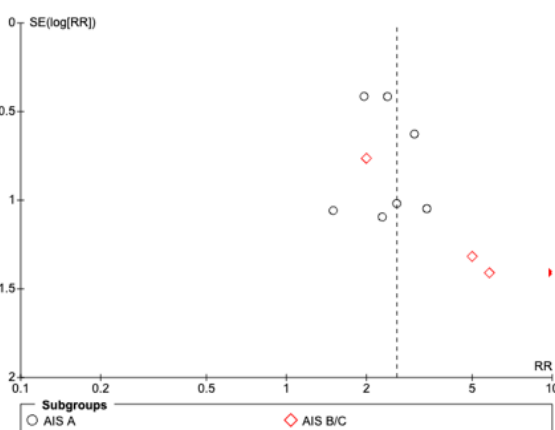
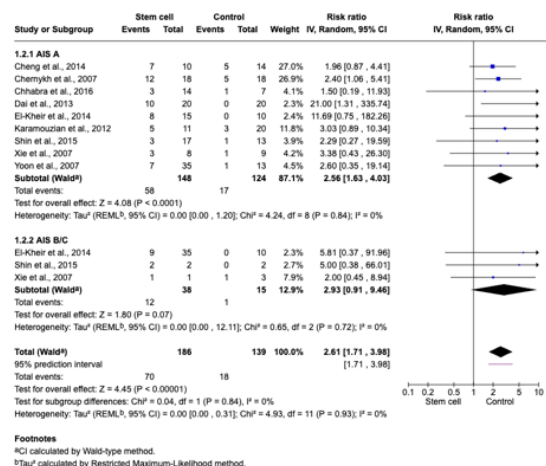
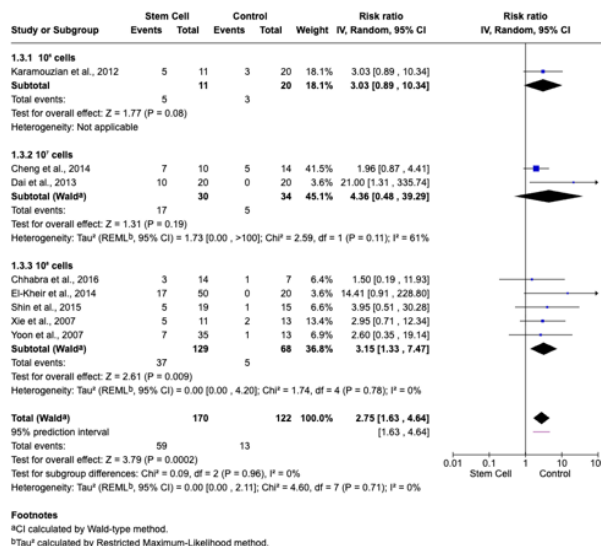


Figure 4. Subgroup meta-analysis comparing AIS grade improvement between stem cell therapy and control groups across different baseline AIS classifications.

Figure 5. Subgroup meta-analysis comparing AIS grade improvement between stem cell therapy and control groups according to varying administered cell doses.

GRADE Certainty Assessment

The GRADE assessment (table 2) indicated moderate certainty of evidence for the efficacy of stem cell therapy in improving neurological outcomes among adults with spinal cord injury. Evidence consistency and low heterogeneity supported upgrading from low to moderate certainty, despite the predominance of non-randomized studies. In contrast, the certainty of evidence for safety outcomes was rated very low because of limited

data, inconsistent reporting, and potential bias in adverse event documentation.

Discussion

The nature and findings of the study are placed in context of other relevant published data. The present meta-analysis demonstrated a significant improvement in neurological recovery among adult patients with SCI who received stem cell therapy compared with controls (RR = 2.64, 95% CI: 1.70–4.10, $p < 0.0001$). Subgroup analyses revealed consistent effects across different baseline AIS classifications (RR = 2.61) and cell dose groups (RR = 2.75), with minimal heterogeneity ($I^2 = 0\%$) across studies. These findings suggest a robust and reproducible therapeutic effect of stem cell transplantation for promoting functional improvement following SCI. The consistency of effect sizes across subgroups implies that stem cell therapy benefits may be relatively independent of baseline severity or administered cell quantity, underscoring its potential as a broadly applicable regenerative intervention.

Several studies in related neurological conditions support the efficacy of stem cell therapy in enhancing neural recovery, lending further weight to the current findings.^{23,24} For instance, meta-analyses in ischemic stroke and traumatic brain injury have similarly demonstrated significant improvements in functional

outcomes following MSCs administration, with effect estimates comparable to those observed in SCI populations.^{25,26} However, conflicting evidence exists; some trials in chronic SCI reported limited or transient functional recovery, likely due to the extensive gliosis and scar tissue that restrict cellular integration. These mixed outcomes across diseases and time points highlight that while stem cells possess regenerative potential, their efficacy may be modulated by injury chronicity, host immune responses, and local microenvironmental factors.

The beneficial effects of stem cell therapy can be attributed to several mechanisms. Following SCI, primary mechanical insult initiates a cascade of secondary injury processes, including ischemia, excitotoxicity, inflammation, and glial scar formation, which collectively impair axonal conduction and neuronal survival.²⁷ Transplanted stem cells—particularly MSCs and neural progenitors—can mitigate these effects by secreting neurotrophic factors such as brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) and glial cell line–derived neurotrophic factor (GDNF), promoting angiogenesis, and modulating the immune response toward a reparative phenotype.^{28–30} Moreover, some stem cells may differentiate into oligodendrocytes or neurons, contributing to remyelination and restoration of neural circuitry.²⁹ This neuroprotective and neuroregenerative

synergy underlies the physiological plausibility of the observed clinical improvements.³⁰

Despite encouraging results, several limitations and translational challenges remain. The included studies displayed variability in stem cell sources, delivery routes, and dosing protocols, which may influence therapeutic efficacy and safety. The long-term survival, differentiation, and integration of transplanted cells within the spinal cord remain uncertain, raising theoretical concerns regarding tumorigenicity and ectopic tissue formation. Furthermore, the pharmacological microenvironment of the injured spinal cord—characterized by persistent inflammation, oxidative stress, and inhibitory extracellular matrix molecules—can hinder stem cell viability and function. Future research should therefore focus on optimizing cell type selection, timing of administration, and combination therapies (e.g., growth factors or biomaterial scaffolds) to enhance cell survival, integration, and functional outcomes.

Study Limitations

Several limitations should be acknowledged when interpreting the findings of this meta-analysis. First, most included studies were non-randomized clinical trials with small sample sizes, introducing potential selection and performance biases despite overall low

risk scores under the ROBINS-I tool. Second, there was heterogeneity in study protocols, including differences in stem cell sources, doses, delivery routes, and follow-up durations, which may influence treatment outcomes and complicate direct comparison. Third, most trials lacked long-term follow-up data, limiting assessment of the durability and safety of neurological improvements. Fourth, despite the use of random-effects modeling, publication bias cannot be fully excluded, as negative or null studies are less likely to be reported. Lastly, variability in outcome assessment tools, such as differences in AIS scoring criteria or assessor blinding, may have introduced subjective bias in evaluating neurological improvement.

Conclusion

This systematic review and meta-analysis demonstrated that stem cell therapy significantly improves neurological recovery in adults with spinal cord injury, with consistent benefits observed across injury severity and cell dose subgroups. The pooled evidence supports the potential of stem cell-based interventions as an effective regenerative approach for spinal cord repair, likely mediated by neuroprotective, anti-inflammatory, and remyelinating mechanisms. However, the certainty of evidence remains moderate, primarily due to methodological limitations and heterogeneous study designs. Further large-scale, randomized controlled trials

with standardized protocols and long-term follow-up are warranted to confirm therapeutic efficacy, establish optimal treatment parameters, and ensure safety before widespread clinical adoption.

Acknowledgment

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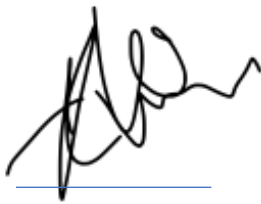
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A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'Anadya Rhadika', written over a horizontal blue line.

(Anadya Rhadika)