

gentamicin is a beneficial aminoglycoside antibiotic in the treatment of gram-negative bacterial infections, it may lead to renal failure in 10-20% of patients in the treatment course via increasing excretion rate in the proximal tubule (Silan et al., 2007; Ateşşahin et al., 2003). Gentamicin is a highly used aminoglycoside antibiotic whose usage has been limited due to nephrotoxicity side effect (Ali et al., 2011). Approximately 5% of gentamicin dosage remains in epithelial cells of segment 1 and 2 of proximal tubule after glomerular filtration. Higher concentrations are mainly observed in lysosomal vacuoles, Golgi body and endosome. This accumulation leads to functional and structural alterations and cytotoxicity of epithelial cells in kidney cortex, proximal and distal tubules and collecting ducts (Helal et al., 2018). Additionally, gentamicin binds to membrane phospholipids and results in phospholipidosis via inhibition of phospholipase A1, A2 and C1 (Kuhad et al., 2006). In spite of the fact that the exact mechanism of gentamicin-induced renal failure is not clearly known, several studies have purposed different pathways including synthesis of reactive oxygen species (ROS) as well as reactive nitrogen species (RNS), suppression of antioxidant defense and activation of inflammatory processes which results in decreased renal blood flow, tubular necrosis, leukocyte infiltration, cell damage, reduced glomerular filtration rate (GFR) and renal dysfunction (Yarijani et al., 2016). Several evidences suggest the role of ROS in the pathogenesis of different renal diseases. ROS may cause cell damage by lipid peroxidation and DNA as well as protein destruction (Ateşşahin et al., 2003). Conventional therapeutic methods for renal failure focus on removing the leading cause. However, these conventional methods are unable to treat the metabolic, endocrine and renal function disorders caused by cellular damage and cell loss (Pino et al., 2017). Despite using the most advanced techniques, renal transplant mortality is still high. Thus, it is vital to recognize definite causes of renal failure and develop novel therapeutic methods (Abedi et al., 2016). During the past decades, researchers eagerly tried to find new therapeutic approaches for the treatment of different kinds of renal failure. Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) therapy is a developing therapeutic method. Undifferentiated

mesenchymal stem cells have self-renewal ability and may differentiate to different mesenchymal and non-mesenchymal cell lines including bone, cartilage and adipose tissue (Tabatabaei Qomi and Sheykhasan, 2017). Although bone marrow is the most common source of MSCs, these stem cells can be extracted from both adipose tissue and umbilical cord blood, all of which demonstrated promising results in repairing renal injuries (Liu et al., 2018). Based on previous studies, MSCs recover renal failure through secretion of a variety of immunomodulators, anti-apoptotic and anti-inflammatory growth factors and cytokines (Bai et al., 2018).

Moreover, several studies have been conducted on cell therapy with extracted cells of different origins. Pengfei et al. study suggested that human umbilical cord blood mesenchymal stem cells show protective effects against gentamicin-induced renal failure through expression of IGF-1 (Liu et al., 2016). Also, Moghadasali et al. (2013) showed that MSCs repair renal tubules by cytokine secretion in gentamicin-induced nephrotoxicity. Despite previous studies, the answer to several questions, including the effectiveness of AD-MSCs, number of needed cells, optimal injection timing and the exact mechanism of gentamicin-induced nephrotoxicity is not yet clear. Thus, this study is conducted to assess the efficacy of AD-MSC transplant in gentamicin-induced renal failure.

Materials and methods

This experimental study was conducted on 40 male Wistar rats weighting 180-200g, purchased from laboratory animal center of Arak University of Medical Sciences. Current study is approved by research ethics committee of Arak University of Medical Sciences (Iran) with IR.ARAKMU.REC.1397.11 code and ethical codes of Health ministry were observed when working with laboratory animals. All animals were kept at 22-24°C temperature and 12 hours light and dark cycle with free access to standard food and water.

Experiment protocols and study groups

Rats in this study were divided into 4 groups (n=10), including control group: no interventions (injection, anesthesia induction, or surgery) were performed in this group; sham group: in this group rats received

intraperitoneal injection of 2ml normal saline for 7 days and received 0.5ml of normal saline from caudal vein 24 hours before the end of the course; gentamicin group: in this group rats received intraperitoneal injection of 100mg/kg gentamicin for 7 days and received 0.5ml of normal saline through caudal vein (Stojiljkovic et al., 2012) 24 hours before the end of the course; and gentamicin+AD-MSC group: which received intraperitoneal injection of 100mg/kg gentamicin for 7 days and an intravenous dose of 1×10^6 AD-MSCs 24 hours before the end of the course.

Isolation and recognition of AD-MSCs

Two rats were anesthetized by IP injection of 60mg/kg ketamine Hydrochloride (Rotex Media, Trittau, Germany) and 6mg/kg xylene hydrochloride (Alfasan, Woerden, Netherlands) and a small adipose specimen was excised for culture. Then, the adipose specimen was immediately put in tubes containing sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), 100IU/ml penicillin (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), and 100mg/ml streptomycin (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). Afterward, rats were sacrificed by intra-cardiac injection of potassium chloride. Adipose specimens were precisely cut into very tiny parts and rinsed with sterile PBS. Later, adipose particles were shaken and incubated in PBS containing 2mg/ml collagenase (Sigma-Aldrich) for 90min at 37°C (Ghorbani et al., 2014). Purified tissue was centrifuged at 2000 rpm for 5min and adipose tissue layer was extracted. Stromal vascular cells were twice rinsed with PBS and then suspended in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; Gibco Waltham, MA) which contained fetal bovine serum (FBS; Gibco), 100IU/ml penicillin and 100µg/ml streptomycin. Cells were placed in a 25 cm² flask and cultured in 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37°C. Non-adherent cells were removed by culture medium exchange and adherent cells were distributed with 3 passages.

To determine the presence of AD-MSCs, the level of biomarkers was evaluated using fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS). These cells were incubated for 20min at 4°C in a dark room with the following antibodies: (NB 100-65543PE; No-vus Biologicals) CD 90-phycoerythrin (PE)T ·CD 29-fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC, BD561796); BD-Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, CD 45-FIT (bs-4819 R; Bioss), CD34b-PE (ABIN671373) antibodies. Control

isotype antibodies were purchased from Santa Cruz biotechnology (Dallas, TX). After being rinsed with PBS, cells were suspended again in PBS contains 500µl of 2% FBS and analyzed with flow cytometry analysis. A minimum of 1×10^4 stem cells were required for the analysis of each sample (Hoseini et al., 2017).

Measurement of biochemical parameters

At the end of 10-day course of experiment, rats were anesthetized for blood sampling to measure blood urea nitrogen (BUN) and plasma creatinine. For oxidative stress assessment, malondialdehyde (MDA) was measured to determine the level of phospholipids peroxidation in renal tissue. Moreover, total tissue anti-oxidant power was assessed by ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) measurement (Azarkish et al., 2017; Moosavi et al., 2011). Because the FRAP assay is inexpensive, reagents are simple to prepare, results are highly reproducible and the procedure is straightforward and speedy, it is very useful and common test (Benzie and Strain, 1996). For this purpose, firstly FRAP solution containing 300mmol/l acetate buffer (pH=3.6), 10Mm 2,4,6-Tris(2-pyridyl)-s-triazine solution in hydrochloric acid (40mmol/l), ferric chloride solution (2mmol/l) were prepared. Iron sulfate heptahydrate (FeSO₄.7H₂O) was used as standard curve. After preparation of solution, 1.5ml of the solution was added to test tube which reached 37°C after placing tissue sample or standard. Then, its absorption was measured at 593nm wavelength. FARP level was reported in µmol/l (Mahmoudzadeh et al., 2017). To determine MDA level, kidney tissue was homogenized in PBS. Then 20% acetic acid, 0.8% thiobarbituric and 8.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate were added to test tubes containing tissue sample or standard and heated for 60min at 95°C. Then, the pink complex was extracted by N-butanol and the optical absorbance was measured at 532nm of wavelength by spectrophotometer (Jane way model). Results were reported in nmol/l (Mahmoudzadeh et al., 2017).

Histologic examination method

For assessment of kidney histopathologic damages, hematoxylin-eosin stained sections were prepared and kidney cortex, external and internal medulla were separately examined using light microscopy. Histopathologic damages were graded in terms of bowman capsule enlargement, cellular necrosis,

vascular congestion and formation of protein casts in tubular lumens. Rats with highest bowmen capsule enlargement in comparison with sham group were considered as 100% and the bowman capsule enlargement of other rats were determined by comparison. It is noteworthy that in each section the bowman capsule of ten large glomeruli were measured with scaled eyepiece lens and the averaged values was considered as the size of bowman capsule of the rat. Other alterations such as cellular necrosis, vascular congestion and formation of intratubular protein casts were calculated as the percentage of the involved area. Cells whose nucleus and cytoplasm were separated with a definite border from the epithelium and shed to the tubules were considered as the necrotic cells. Then, these percentages were graded as follows: no damage, 0; 1-20% damage, 1; 21-40%, 2; 41-60% damage, 3; 61-80% damage, 4; and 81-100% damage, 5. Lastly, scale of all histopathologic damages was calculated by summing up all damage grades which was used for data analysis (Najafi et al., 2015).

Statistical analysis

SPSS version 18 was used for statistical data analysis. One-way ANOVA and Duncan post hoc tests were used to determine significance. Exact *P*-value was calculated by LSD test. Non-parametric data were analyzed using Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Witney tests. Data were reported as mean±SEM and *P*<0.05 was considered as significant.

Results

Renal hemodynamic parameters including creatinine and BUN significantly increased after gentamicin injection for 7 consecutive days in comparison with sham group (*P*<0.001). AD-MSC treatment significantly reduced BUN compared with gentamicin group (*P*<0.01), yet a significant difference in comparison with sham group was observed (*P*<0.001). Although, AD-MSC treatment reduced plasma creatinine level in comparison with gentamicin group, the difference was not significant, while a significant difference was observed when compared to sham group (Table 1).

Table 1: Effect of AD-MSC administration on gentamicin induced changes in creatinine and BUN in different groups.

Parameter	Control	Sham	GM+NS	GM +AD-MSC
Plasma creatinine, (mg/dl)	0.52 ± 0.014	0.56 ± 0.02	1.31 ± 0.11 ***	1.2 ± 0.05 ***
Blood Urea Nitrogen (mg/dl)	23.6 ± 1.65	25.4 ± 0.071	53.9 ± 3.04 ***	42.5 ± 3.28 ††***

*** *P*<0.001 in comparison with the sham group.
†† *P*<0.01 in comparison with the GM+NS group.

Table 2: Effect of AD-MSC administration on gentamicin induced histologic damages in different groups.

Histopathologic damages		Study groups			
		Control	sham	GM+NS	GM +AD-MSC
Cortex	Bowman capsule enlargement	0	0	0.15	0.11
	Proximal tubal damage	0	0	2.64	2.14
	Henle Ascending thick limb damage	0	0	2.16	1.11
External Medulla	Pars Recta damage	0	0	2.38	2
	Henle Ascending thick limb damage	0	0	2.83	1.98
	Vascular congestion	0	0	1.07	0.78
	Tubular protein cast	0	0	2.31	2.26
Internal Medulla	Vascular congestion	0	0	0.98	0.53
	Tubular protein cast	0	0	2.76	2.12
Total histopathologic damage degree		0	0	17.28 ***	13.03 ***†

*** *p*<0.001 in comparison with the sham group.
† *p*<0.05 in comparison with the GM+NS group.

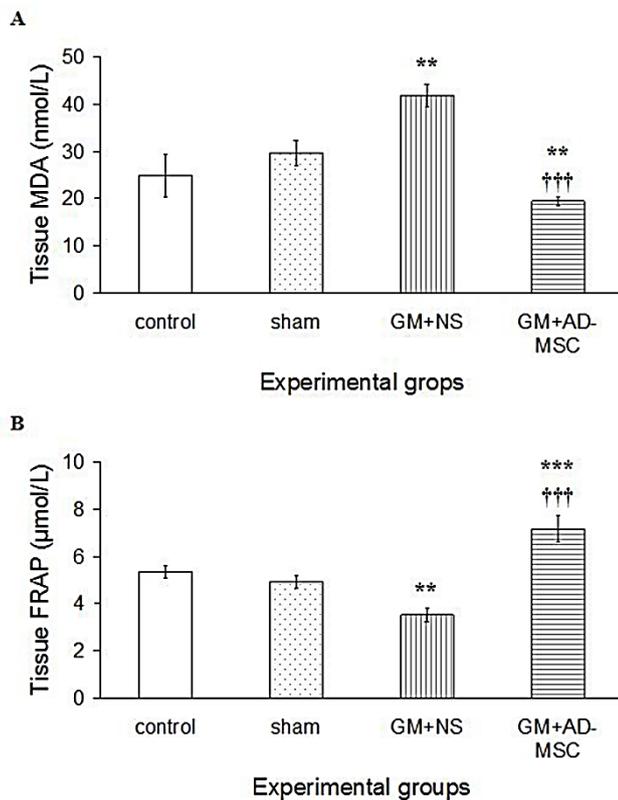


Fig.1. A) Renal tissue lipid peroxidation level (MDA) and B) total antioxidant capacity (FRAP) in different group. As it can be seen treatment by AD-MSC leads to decrease of oxidative stress (MDA) and increase of FRAP of renal tissue. ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$ in comparison with the sham group. ††† $P < 0.001$ in comparison with the gentamicin group.

Moreover, gentamicin injection resulted in significant MDA level increment and FRAP level decrement in gentamicin group in comparison with sham one ($P < 0.01$). After treatment with AD-MSC, MDA level decreased in comparison with gentamicin group ($P < 0.001$) and FRAP increased ($P < 0.001$). Yet, results showed a significant difference in MDA value ($P < 0.01$) and FRAP value ($P < 0.001$) in treated group compared with sham group (Fig. 1).

In this study, IP gentamicin injection caused damage to kidney medulla and cortex including bowman space enlargement, proximal tubule damage, thick ascending limb of Henle damage, vascular congestion and formation of intratubular casts in comparison with sham group (Fig. 2 and table 2). Generally, tissue damage grade was 17.28 in gentamicin receiving group which was significantly reduced to 13.03 following AD-MSC treatment (Table 2).

Discussion

Nephrotoxicity is among the common clinical complications of aminoglycosides. Current study evaluated the efficacy of AD-MSC treatment in gentamicin-induced nephrotoxicity. Results of present study suggested relative recovery of hemodynamic parameters, oxidative stress and histological damages in the group treated with AD-MSC in comparison with gentamicin receiving group.

Gentamicin is not metabolized in human body, yet it is excreted by glomerular filtration or reabsorbed by proximal tubule cells (Kuhad et al., 2006). Tubular damage caused by GM disturbs water and electrolyte reabsorption and increases their transportation to distal tubule stimulating tubuloglomerular feedback (TGF) which finally reduces GFR. Also, glomerular exposure to gentamicin induces contraction of mesenchymal cells and reduction of filtration coefficient (K_f) which leads to reduced GFR (Lopez-Novoa et al., 2011); consequently, plasma creatinine and BUN increases.

In this study, gentamicin administration for 7 consecutive days resulted in renal failure which was demonstrated with significant increment of creatinine and BUN in comparison with sham group. Nevertheless, creatinine and BUN levels reduced after AD-MSC treatment compared to gentamicin group. Previous studies have proved that MSCs contain high levels of vasodilator factors. Thus, MSCs may have dilated renal vessels which increased GFR and thus reduced creatinine and BUN (Abedi et al., 2016). Liu et al. (2016) showed the effective role of umbilical cord blood derived mesenchymal stem cells in reducing creatinine and BUN in gentamicin-induced renal failure. They stated that stem cells may have exerted their effect in renal failure recovery by expression of IGF-1.

Oxidative stress is the other mechanism through which gentamicin induces nephrotoxicity. Gentamicin induces ROS including superoxide anion, hydrogen peroxide, hydroxyl radicals and RNS (Abdelrahman, 2018; Nasri and Rafieian-Kopaei, 2013). In addition, it is demonstrated that gentamicin induces the expression of inducible nitric oxide (NO) synthase which increases NO synthesis (Lopez-Novoa et al., 2011). Increased NO level reacts with superoxide anion which forms peroxynitrite leading to nitrosative stress and cytotoxicity (Lopez-Novoa et al., 2011).

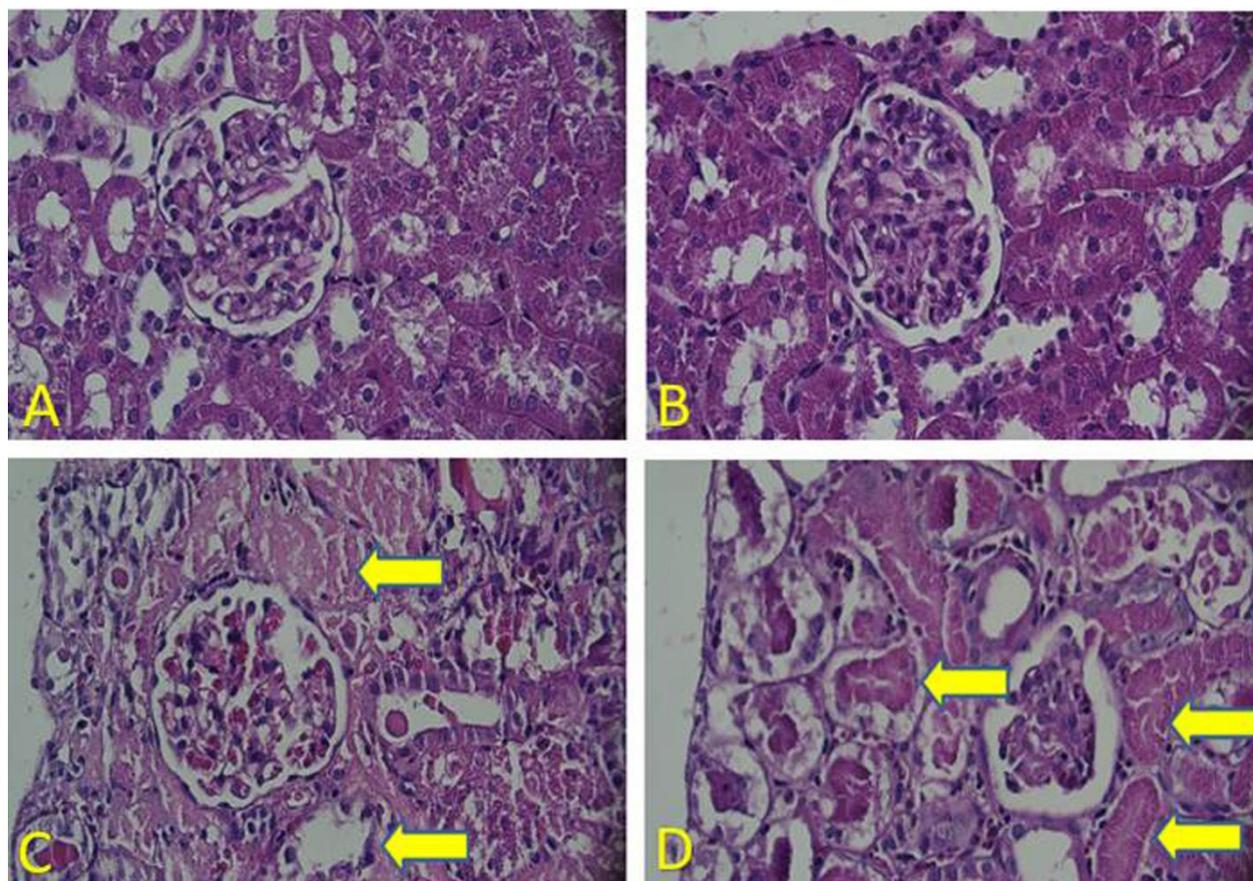


Fig.2. Representing histopathologic alterations in the kidney of rats following gentamicin administration and AD-MSC treatment. Cross-sectional view of the kidneys to indicate the Bowman's space (BS) enlargement and the necrosis of the cells (NS) in groups A) without any intervention (control), B) the normal saline received (sham), C) gentamicin and normal saline received, and D) gentamicin and adipose mesenchymal stem cells. The arrow points to formation of casts in tubules. (Haematoxylin-Eosin, 400 x magnification).

Oxidative stress leads to formation of numerous vasoconstrictor mediators which can directly affect renal function through renal vessels constriction and GFR reduction (Kuhad et al., 2006). MDA which is formed by membrane phospholipid peroxidation by reactive species is an indicator of oxidative stress. In this study, gentamicin administration significantly increased MDA in gentamicin receiving group in comparison with sham group; AD-MSCs injection reduced MDA level in treated group in comparison with gentamicin group. Mesenchymal stem cells are promising cellular resources for restorative treatments which are beneficial in the treatment of histological damages caused by oxidative stress (Benameur et al., 2015). Results of Valle-Prieto and Conget (2010) study indicated that MSCs are highly resistant to oxidative induced cell death which is attributed to low levels of ROS, continuous expression of enzymes required for oxidative stress management and high levels of glutathione

peroxidase.

Furthermore, many studies have showed that role of MSCs in maintain antioxidant balance (Wojtas et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2016). Vanella et al. (2012) showed that heme oxygenase-1 is expressed in MSCs structure which brings a strong antioxidant capacity through inhibition of superoxide anion synthesis. Also, FRAP assay is an easy technique to evaluate the total antioxidant status of biological samples (Golshan et al., 2017). Similarly, in this study, FRAP level of kidney tissue increased after AD-MSC treatment which is determined by increased FRAP level in treated group in comparison with gentamicin group.

In this study, gentamicin injection caused histologic damages such as bowman space enlargement, vascular congestion, proximal tubular damage and formation of intratubular proteinaceous casts in kidney cortex and medulla in gentamicin receiving group in comparison with sham group. In some

studies, it is observed that growth factor administration before and after renal damage leads to histological recovery in animal models which may occur due to their anti-apoptotic effects (Wise and Ricardo, 2012). Mesenchymal stem cells activate phosphatidylinositol protein kinase B pathway which phosphorylates and deactivates apoptotic factors and improve tubular epithelial cells recovery (Sanz et al., 2008). In the present study, AD-MSc treatment reduced histologic damages in the treated group compared with gentamicin group. Similarly, Abedi et al. (2016) showed the recovering role of MSCs on histologic damages in gentamicin-induced renal failure via expression of growth factors. Likewise, AD-MSCs may cause histologic damage recovery by secretion of multiple growth factors which further studies are required to fully understand their mechanism of action.

Conclusion

The results of present study showed that AD-MSCs treatment improved gentamicin-induced renal failure, oxidative stress and histologic damages in animal model. Probably, AD-MSCs are involved in renal tissue repair via paracrine pathways, which requires further studies.

Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge the Research Council of Arak University, Arak, Iran, for the financial support of this study (grant No# 3060).

Conflict of interest

There is no conflict of interest.

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