RAPID COMMUNICATION

Statin Administration Does Not Improve the Mobilization of Very Small Embryonic-Like Stem Cells (VSELs) in Contrast to Resveratrol Treatment in a Murine Model of Acute Myocardial Infarction

H. WANG1, Y.-J. YANG1, H.-Y. QIAN1, Q. ZHANG1, L.-J. GAO1, P. LI1, T.-J. WANG1, S.-D. WANG2

1State Key Laboratory of Translational Cardiovascular Medicine, Fuwai Hospital and Cardiovascular Institute, Chinese Academy of Medical Sciences and Peking Union Medical College, Beijing 100037, 2Institute of Chinese Materia Medica, China Academy of Chinese Medical Sciences, Beijing 100070, P.R. China

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Summary
We have found that short-term statin treatment plus stem cell transplantation in acutely infarcted hearts improves cardiac function because statins promote the efficacy of cellular cardiomyoplasty. Autologous Sca-1+LinCD45(CXCR+) very small embryonic-like stem cell (VSEL) mobilization in acute myocardial infarction (AMI) correlates with the preservation of cardiac function. Whether short-term atorvastatin (Ator) can enhance the mobilization or recruitment of VSELs in AMI is still unclear. We divided mice into 4 groups: 1) sham; 2) AMI; 3) AMI+resveratrol (RSV) as a positive control; and 4) AMI+Ator. There was an increase in the circulating VSEL/full population of leukocytes (FPL) ratio 48 hours after AMI, and AMI+RSV increased it further. Ator administration did not increase the VSEL/FPL ratio. The cardiac stromal cell-derived factor-1 (SDF-1) and SDF-1α levels were in agreement with the results of VSEL mobilization. One week after AMI, more Sca-1+CXCR+ cells were recruited to the myocardium of AMI+RSV mice but not AMI+Ator mice. Short-term Ator administration failed to upregulate cardiac SDF-1 and could not enhance the recruitment of VSELs early after AMI.

Key words
Very small embryonic-like stem cells • Acute myocardial infarction • Atorvastatin • Stromal cell-derived factor-1

Corresponding author
Yue-jin Yang, Centre for Coronary Heart Disease, Department of Cardiology, Fuwai Hospital and Cardiovascular Institute, Chinese Academy of Medical Sciences and Peking Union Medical College, 167 BeiLiShi Rd, Xicheng District, Beijing, 100037, P.R. China. Fax: +86 10 68351786. E-mail: yangyjfw@yahoo.com.cn

Stem cell-based therapies are promising procedures for myocardium regeneration (Singh et al. 2009) after acute myocardial infarction (AMI), and these therapies include stem cell mobilization and transplantation. The mobilized cells can participate in organ repair naturally or can be concentrated in vitro for transplantation. Although the transplantation of bone marrow-derived stem cells (BM-SCs) has been proven to be safe and effective, improvement of the left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF) is still limited. We have confirmed that one week of statin treatment in AMI improves the cardiac micro-environment created by AMI, facilitates the survival and differentiation of implanted stem cells, and increases LVEF compared with stem cell transplantation models (Yang et al. 2008). However, whether the beneficial effects of statins on the cardiac function improvement in these experiments are partially mediated by mobilizing myogenic stem cells is still unclear.

The BM-SCs released into peripheral blood after AMI consist of hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs, approximately 40% of CD34+ HSCs are CXCR4+) (Wu et al. 2009), endothelial progenitor cells (EPCs,
approximately 20% of which are CXCR4+ (Garolla et al. 2009), and very small embryonic-like stem cells (VSELs) (Wojakowski et al. 2009, Zuba-Surma et al. 2008). HSCs and EPCs are possibly progenitor cells that arise from VSELs (Bhartiya et al. 2008), which have recently been identified in mice and humans as populations of very small Sca-1LinCD45- cells (82% of which are CXCR4+) and very small CD34CD133LinCD45(CXCR4+) cells, respectively. VSELs exhibit better myocardium differentiation and beneficial effects on improving cardiac function after AMI (Dawn et al. 2008, Wojakowski et al. 2009, Wojakowski et al. 2010, Zuba-Surma et al. 2008).

The stromal cell-derived factor-1 (SDF-1)/CXCR4 (the receptor of SDF-1) axis may play an essential role in the mobilization of VSELs from the BM. SDF-1 attracts VSELs in direct chemotactic studies, and the number of circulating VSELs in MI patients positively correlates with the plasma level of SDF-1 (Kucia et al. 2006, Wojakowski et al. 2009). We have found that resveratrol (RSV) enhances VSEL mobilization in the early stage of AMI via upregulating cardiac SDF-1 (Wang et al. 2011). Whether statins have similar effects as RSV is unknown. To clarify the effect of statins on VSEL mobilization in AMI, we used AMI+RSV mice as a positive control and examined the effect of atorvastatin (Ator).

The experimental design was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Chinese Academy of Medical Sciences and Peking Union Medical College. Animal care and experimental procedures were conducted in accordance with the European Guidelines on Laboratory Animal Care. Male C57BL/6 mice that were 8-10 weeks old were randomly divided into sham; AMI; AMI+RSV; AMI+Ator (Pfizer, 25 mg/kg/day in diet, one week); and AMI+Ator+RSV (Sigma, 25 mg/kg/day in drinking water, one week); and AMI+Ator (Pfizer, 25 mg/kg/day in diet, one week) groups. Because VSEL mobilization peaks at 48 hours after AMI and Sca-1+ cell recruitment in the infarcted area is obvious at one week after AMI (Zuba-Surma et al. 2008, Zhang et al. 2007), mice were sacrificed at these two time points.

After five days of drug loading, mice were anesthetized with an intraperitoneal injection of chloral hydrate (20 ml/kg), endotracheally intubated by tracheotomy, and mechanically ventilated using the Inspira-Advanced Safety Ventilator (Harvard Corp.). After exposing the heart via a left thoracotomy and removing the pericardium, the left anterior descending coronary artery (LAD, 2 mm below the tip of the left auricle) was occluded with an 8.0 Prolene suture (ETHICON, Inc.). Occlusion was confirmed by observing the LV pallor immediately after ligation or the measurement of serum creatine kinase MB isoenzyme (CK-MB) 48 hours after AMI. Serum cholesterol was evaluated together with CK-MB (Beckman Coulter automatic biochemical analyzer, n=4-5 in each group).

Flow cytometry analysis and VSEL sorting were performed as described previously (Zuba-Surma et al. 2008), with minor modifications. The full population of leukocytes (FPLs, n=6-8 in each group) in the arterial blood (500 µl) was obtained using erythrocyte lysis buffer (Becton Dickinson Pharmingen) and stained for lineage cocktail (APC), CD45 (PE), and Sca-1 (FITC) according to the manufacturer’s instructions (Miltenyi Biotec.). The cell sizes of the FPLs were determined by the AccuCount Blank particles ACBP-20-10 (2 µm) and ACBP-100-10 (10 µm) (Spherotech, Inc.) using flow cytometry (Becton Dickinson).

LVs were isolated after drawing blood and kept at −80 °C until use. Protein (n=4 in each group) was extracted from LVs through homogenization in RIPA buffer. Western blotting was performed with an anti-SDF-1 (Cell Signaling Technology) antibody. Signals were quantified with Scion Image Software and standardized to the expression of β-actin (Sigma). SDF-1α is a predominant isoform of SDF-1 (Wen et al. 2012) and was measured with a mouse ELISA kit (RayBiotech Inc.). Approximately 0.05 g of infarct (approximately 0.02 g) and peri-infarct tissues each were cut out of the LVs, washed, homogenized in ice-cold 0.9% NaCl solution, and centrifuged. The clear supernatant was kept on ice for the assay (n=8 in each group) according to the manufacturer’s instructions.

One week after AMI, frozen sections of the heart (n=3-4 in each group) were immunostained with anti-Sca-1 (1:10, Miltenyi Biotec.) and anti-CXCR4 (1:100, Abcam) antibodies. Cells that were double positive for CXCR4 and Sca-1 proteins were counted in 15 high-power fields (HPF, ×400) in the infarct and peri-infarct regions.

All values were expressed as the means ± SEMs. The statistical analysis was carried out with an ANOVA followed by Fisher’s method. A value of p<0.05 was considered significant.

After AMI, CK-MB increased (sham: 306.00±30.13 IU/l; AMI: 766.60±116.97; AMI+RSV: 664.20±84.73; AMI+Ator: 579.00±52.54, Fig. 1A), but the cholesterol levels showed no difference (sham:
2.22±0.17 mmol/l; AMI: 2.19±0.06; AMI+RSV: 2.47±0.23; AMI+Ator: 2.09±0.15). FPLs were counted during flow cytometry analysis. The number of leukocytes increased after AMI, although not significantly (Fig. 1B). To avoid the influence of transient leukocytosis, the VSEL/FPL ratio was analyzed, and it was increased approximately 4 (3.89±0.53) times in the AMI group and nearly 7 (7.35±0.84) times in the AMI+RSV group. However, AMI+Ator (VSEL/FPL: 4.07±0.65) did not mobilize more VSELs (Fig. 1C, D). Compared with sham mice, the cardiac SDF-1 expression in AMI mice increased. AMI+RSV mice had the highest cardiac SDF-1, and AMI+Ator mice failed to show increased levels (Fig. 2A, B). The levels of SDF-1α in infarct and peri-infarct tissues of each group (sham: 187.43±5.32 pg SDF-1α/mg tissue; AMI: 249.83±16.13; AMI+RSV: 318.39±15.24; AMI+Ator: 251.66±27.85, Fig. 2C) were consistent with the results of western blotting. Compared with AMI mice (0.53±0.19/HPF), Sca-1+CXCR4+ cells in the myocardium of AMI+RSV mice (1.47±0.32) but not AMI+Ator (0.40±0.19) mice were increased (Fig. 2D).

VSELs mobilize to peripheral blood after AMI as a self-repair approach, and the number of circulating VSELs correlates positively with LVEF (Wojakowski et al. 2009). For various reasons, SDF-1 expression is increased in cardiac tissue soon after myocardial infarction and sustained for 5-7 days following AMI (Wang et al. 2006, Wen et al. 2012). Consistently, VSEL mobilization reaches a peak at 48 hours and returns to
control levels at 7 days after AMI (Kucia et al. 2004, Zuba-Surma et al. 2008). Statins can mobilize EPCs under different conditions, including normal conditions, acute vascular injuries, cardiac ischemia, obesity and chronic heart failure. Moreover, short-term statin loading is sufficient to increase EPC mobilization (Hibbert et al. 2011, Hong et al. 2010, Shao et al. 2008, Thum et al. 2006, Tousoulis et al. 2011, Westerweel et al. 2008). Although statins can influence the mobilization of SCs, a recent report on VSEL mobilization did not perform a subgroup analysis of whether statins were taken (Wojakowski et al. 2009). These results motivated us to determine whether one week of statin treatment mobilized VSELs at the same time as it improved cardiac micro-environments created by AMI (Yang et al. 2008). Unfortunately, in the current study, we found that short-term Ator failed to enhance the mobilization of VSELs early after AMI (5 mg/kg/day Ator to AMI mice showed similar result).

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Consistent with the previous report (Hsu et al. 2010), we found that SIRT1 expression in infarcted LV was decreased (Wang et al. 2011). p53 acts upstream of SDF-1. SIRT1 inhibition activates p53 and thus hinders the upregulation of SDF-1 (Addadi et al. 2010, Wang et al. 2011 and 2012, Olive et al. 2008) after AMI. Through SIRT1 activation, RSV increases SDF-1 and the mobilization of VSELs. However, short-term Ator administration in AMI did not improve the expression or secretion of SDF-1 in the infarcted heart.

VSELs are usually quiescent in the adult BM. A hypomethylation of paternally methylated imprints and a hypermethylation of maternally methylated ones are observed at some crucial developmentally genes in isolated BM VSELs. This modification leads to the upregulation of growth-repressive genes and the repression of growth-promoting genes (Shin et al. 2009). Therefore, the rapid expansion of VSELs is still difficult.
In contrast, the expansion of EPCs is much easier. Many studies suggest that statins promote the proliferation/differentiation and inhibit the death of EPCs (Shao et al. 2008, Thum et al. 2006). A step-forward multivariate linear regression analysis found that EPC number was inversely related to plasma SDF-1α (Xiao et al. 2007). More interestingly, a study in pulmonary artery injury showed that statins downregulated SDF-1 (Satoh et al. 2009). All of these results support that the mechanism of EPC mobilization is potentially different from VSEL mobilization.

The result of the current study is in accordance with our previous report that one week of Ator treatment (0.25 mg/kg/day without stem cell transplantation in swine) had little effect on cardiac regeneration (Yang et al. 2008). However, the beneficial activities of statins on chronic systolic cardiac insufficiency (Zhang et al. 2011) are undoubted. The pleiotropic effects of statins, such as the protection of endothelial function, antioxidant effect, anti-inflammatory reaction and the prevention of apoptosis, are important for cardiac function recovery.

**Conflict of Interest**

There is no conflict of interest.

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**References**


