Protective Effect of Captopril, Olmesartan, Melatonin and Compound 21 on Doxorubicin-Induced Nephrotoxicity in Rats

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Summary
Chronic kidney disease (CKD) represents a serious public health problem with increasing prevalence and novel approaches to renal protection are continuously under investigation. The aim of this study was to compare the effect of melatonin and angiotensin II type 2 receptor agonist compound 21 (C21) to angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitor captopril and angiotensin II type 1 receptor blocker olmesartan on animal model of doxorubicin nephrotoxicity. Six groups of 3-month-old male Wistar rats (12 per group) were treated for four weeks. The first group served as a control. The remaining groups were injected with a single dose of doxorubicin (5 mg/kg i.v.) at the same day as administration of either vehicle or captopril (100 mg/kg/day) or olmesartan (10 mg/kg/day) or melatonin (10 mg/kg/day) or C21 (0.3 mg/kg/day) was initiated. After four week treatment, the blood pressure and the level of oxidative stress were enhanced along with reduced glomerular density and increased glomerular size. Captopril, olmesartan and melatonin prevented the doxorubicin-induced increase in systolic blood pressure. All four substances significantly diminished the level of oxidative burden and prevented the reduction of glomerular density and modestly prevented the increase of glomerular size. We conclude that captopril, olmesartan, melatonin and C21 exerted a similar level of renoprotective effects in doxorubicin-induced nephrotoxicity.

Key words
Nephroprotection • Doxorubicin • Captopril • Olmesartan • Melatonin • C21 substance • Oxidative stress

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Introduction
Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is a progressive pathological condition which can result in renal failure or end-stage renal disease. CKD represents a serious public health problem and its prevalence is steadily increasing worldwide (Stenvinkel 2010).

The CKD is characterized by progressive decline in renal function due to the decrease in number of nephrons. Irrespective to the variable etiologic factors, the pathogenesis of chronic kidney disease involves persistent inflammation and necrotic or apoptotic progressive cell death. This is followed by reparatory processes associated with glomerulosclerosis, tubular atrophy, and tubulointerstitial fibrosis (Schlondorff 2008). The therapeutic effort is aimed on the prevention or reduction of proteinuria, fibrosis and the associated structural and functional alterations of the kidney in terms

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of loss of nephrons and residual nephron enlargement. Although the agents interfering with the renin-angiotensin system such as angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors (ACEI) and angiotensin AT1 receptor blockers (ARBs) represent the cornerstone of CKD treatment, their benefit is only partial and new approaches to the renal protection are continuously under investigation (Schlondorff 2008, Maione et al. 2011).

Doxorubicin-induced nephropathy is a well established and frequently used animal model of CKD (Lee and Harris 2011). The aim of this study was to investigate, whether the first non-peptide agonist of angiotensin II type 2 receptors, compound 21 (C21) (Wan et al. 2004, Steckelings et al. 2011, Paulis et al. 2012) or the pineal hormone melatonin could prevent the doxorubicin-induced renal damage. Moreover, we aimed to compare the potential protective effect of these substances with the ACEI captopril and the ARB olmesartan. C21, olmesartan, captopril and melatonin were administered at doses successfully tested in our previous experiments (Simko et al. 2010, Paulis et al. 2012).

**Methods**

**Animals and treatment**

72 male Wistar rats, three months old, were randomly divided into six groups of 12 animals each. The first group served as a control (CTRL). The remaining five groups were intravenously injected with a single dose of doxorubicin (5 mg/kg). Control animals were injected with 0.9 % NaCl in corresponding volume. Starting from the day of the doxorubicin application the oral administration of either vehicle (doxorubicin control group, DOX), or melatonin (DOX+MEL, 10 mg/kg/day), or captopril (DOX+CAP, 100 mg/kg/day), or olmesartan medoxomil (DOX+OLM, 10 mg/kg/day) or compound 21 (DOX+C21, 0.3 mg/kg/day) was initiated. All substances were given for four weeks. Melatonin and captopril were administered in tap water. Olmesartan and C21 were mixed in an emulsion and were applied via a gavage once daily. All other animals were daily gavaged with placebo to ensure same handling conditions for all animals in the experiment.

All animals were housed in a controlled environment with 12/12 light–dark rhythm at a temperature of 22-24 °C in individual cages and fed with a regular pellet diet ad libitum. The investigation conformed to the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals published by US National Institutes of Health (NIH Publication No 8523, revised 1985).

The systolic blood pressure (SBP) was weekly measured by non-invasive tail-cuff plethysmography. After four weeks, the animals were sacrificed by decapitation. The body weight (BW) and left kidney weight (KW) were measured. Samples of the left kidney were used for the morphometric and biochemical analysis.

**Glomerular morphometry**

Kidneys were removed and weighed. Renal cortex samples were routinely fixed in formaldehyde, sectioned at 5 μm thick slices and stained with hematoxylin-eosin. Morphometric evaluation was performed on Nikon-119 (Japan) light microscope connected to high-resolution CCD camera (GKB, CC8706S, Taiwan) equipped with a two-dimensional image analyzer (Impor Pro, Kvant, s.r.o., Slovakia).

To measure the glomerular tuft area (AG) 10 glomeruli per animal (120 per group) were analyzed in a blinded manner. In each glomerulus a line was manually drawn around the boundary of the glomerular tuft. The area inside the line in μm² was calculated by computerized morphometry.

The glomerular numerical density per area (N) was determined by observing 10 microscopic fields per animal (120 per group). Glomeruli were counted in a frame of 1 mm², only considering well-preserved structures and not counting any that were not completely within our pre-defined 1 mm² area (Pechanova et al. 2006).

**Markers of oxidative stress**

Markers of oxidative stress were measured in 10 % homogenates of renal cortex. Total antioxidant capacity (TAC) was measured using 2,2′-azino-bis-3-ethylbenzthiazoline-6-sulfonic acid acid (Erel 2004). Thiobarbituric acid reacting substances (TBARS) levels were measured spectrophotometrically using a high-throughput 96-well plate method (Behuliahk et al. 2009). Advanced glycation end-products (AGEs) were determined by fluorescence estimation (Munch et al. 1997). The ferric reducing ability of plasma (FRAP) was measured by automated FRAP assay (Benzie and Strain 1996).

**Hydroxyproline concentration**

The samples of left kidney were dried 24 hrs at
100 °C and then hydrolyzed in 6 mol.dm$^{-3}$ HCl. Hydroxyproline concentrations were measured spectrophotometrically at 550 nm (Reddy and Enwemeka 1996).

**Statistical analysis**

The results are expressed as mean ± S.E.M. Differences were considered significant if the p-value was less than 0.05. For statistical analysis, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the Bonferroni test were used.

**Results**

**Body weight and left kidney weight**

After four weeks of treatment, the body weight of the animals in all experimental groups was significantly lower, when compared to controls (p<0.05). There was no significant difference in the left kidney weight between the groups (Table 1).

**Systolic blood pressure**

After four weeks of treatment, SBP was (122.9±2.77 mmHg) in control rats and (156.3±5.72 mmHg) in doxorubicin group (increase by 27 %, p<0.05). Blood pressure was significantly (p<0.05) lower in the captopril (28 %), olmesartan (25 %) and melatonin (22 %) group. There was no statistically significant difference in SPB between the DOX and DOX-C21 groups (Fig. 1).

**Table 1.** Body weight, relative left kidney weight and renal hydroxyproline (Hyp) concentration after four weeks of treatment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CTRL</th>
<th>DOX</th>
<th>DOX+CAP</th>
<th>DOX+OLM</th>
<th>DOX+C21</th>
<th>DOX+MEL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BW (g)</td>
<td>363.33±8.94</td>
<td>296.67±10.9*</td>
<td>268.64±8.61*</td>
<td>292.00±13.44*</td>
<td>316.50±9.52*</td>
<td>264.50±11.14*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LKW/BW</td>
<td>2.64±0.34</td>
<td>4.45±0.28</td>
<td>4.40±0.53</td>
<td>4.15±0.35</td>
<td>3.75±0.49</td>
<td>4.44±0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyp (mg/g)</td>
<td>0.146±0.013</td>
<td>0.159±0.018</td>
<td>0.129±0.011</td>
<td>0.161±0.018</td>
<td>0.163±0.010</td>
<td>0.184±0.015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CTRL, control; BW, body weight; DOX, doxorubicin; DOX+CAP, DOX plus captopril; DOX+OLM, DOX plus olmesartan; DOX+C21, DOX plus compound C21; DOX+MEL, DOX plus melatonin; LKW, left kidney weight. * P<0.05 vs. controls

![Fig. 1.](image)
After four weeks of doxorubicin treatment the glomerular numerical density per area in renal cortex was 8.93±0.31 mm$^{-2}$ in control rats and 7.27±0.34 mm$^{-2}$ in DOX (reduction by 19 %, p<0.05). The treatment with captopril, olmesartan, melatonin and C21 completely prevented this effect of doxorubicin (p<0.05) by 41 %, 47 %, 25 % and 23 %, respectively (Fig. 2A).

Doxorubicin induced an increase in glomerular tuft area (7661±368 μm$^2$) in comparison with controls (6595±285 μm$^2$) by 16 %. All the applied substances only slightly prevented these changes (Fig. 2B).

**Markers of oxidative stress**

The level of TAC was 46.69±4.28 µmol/g prot in the control group. The application of doxorubicin was associated with a significantly lower TAC levels (23.14±2.9 µmol/g prot) by 50 % (p<0.05) in the renal tissue when compared to controls. All of the applied substances prevented this alteration (there was no significant difference compared to the control group) (Fig. 3A).

The concentration of AGEs was 0.071±0.006 g/g prot (Fig. 3B) and of TBARS 2.099±0.186 µmol/g prot (Fig. 3C) in the control group and doxorubicin increased it by 68 % and 97 %, respectively (p<0.05). The treatment with captopril, olmesartan, melatonin and C21 prevented the increase of AGEs and TBARS in the kidney (p<0.05). There was no statistically significant difference in FRAP levels among the individual groups (Fig. 3D).

**Hydroxyproline concentration**

There was no statistically significant difference in hydroxyproline concentration in the kidney between the individual groups (Table 1).

**Discussion**

In this experiment, 4 weeks after doxorubicin administration blood pressure and the markers of oxidative load were elevated, the number of glomeruli was reduced and the glomerular area was increased. Captopril, olmesartan and melatonin prevented blood pressure increase. All four substances – captopril, olmesartan, melatonin and C21 prevented the augmentation of the oxidative load and the reduction of glomerular density.

Doxorubicin and related anthracycline antibiotics with an antineoplastic potential including daunorubicin or epirubicin are widely used in the oncologic medicine. However, the risk of cardiotoxicity largely limits the effective use of these cytostatics (Simunek et al. 2009). Despite an abundant usage of these drugs, the pathophysiological background of their toxic effect in not completely elucidated.
In our experiment we have observed an increased blood pressure in doxorubicin-treated rats. This finding might be surprising given the fact that doxorubicin-induced cardiotoxicity is associated with structural and functional myocardial rebuilding. The development of systolic and diastolic dysfunction can be expected to present rather with a decline than an increase in blood pressure. However, in some heart failure patients a paradoxical blood pressure augmentation is observed, probably resulting from concomitant neurohumoral activation or endothelial dysfunction and the subsequent peripheral vasoconstriction (Gheorghiade and Pang 2009).

Some studies have also demonstrated elevated
plasma renin activity in doxorubicin-treated rats and suggested that vasoconstriction triggered by increased renin activity might be responsible for blood pressure increase in these animals (Rashikh et al. 2013). This hypothesis is supported by the prevention of blood pressure increase by both captopril and olmesartan in doxorubicin-treated rats in our experiment. On the other hand, increased blood pressure does not seem to be the crucial factor in the development of doxorubicin-induced nephrotoxicity as in most reports nephrotoxicity develops without blood pressure elevation (e.g. Colak et al. 2012) and in our experiment blood pressure rise prevention was not necessary for the prevention of glomerular density reduction in the C21-treated group.

The major cause of the doxorubicin toxicity has been attributed to the oxidative injury evoked by a formation of doxorubicin-iron complexes. However, also other factors including suppression of mitochondrial biogenesis seem to be involved (Jirkovsky et al. 2012). The complex pathogenesis of doxorubicin toxicity may be underlined by the fact that doxorubicin affects other organs besides the heart, such as the gastrointestinal tract, bone marrow or kidney. Doxorubicin nephropathy is characterized by podocyte injury followed by progressive sclerosis of glomeruli and tubulointerstitial fibrosis; thus it is considered to be a model of focal segmental glomerulosclerosis by some authors (Lee and Harris 2011).

The dose and mode of application of doxorubicin differs in variable experiments. It is to be expected that higher doses and repeated application may be associated with more prominent kidney damage. However, our aim was to estimate the dose, which induces detectable renal alterations without prominent enhancement of mortality. The 5 mg/kg i.v. dose fitted best to these demands. Analogically, many different drugs were also shown to induce chronic kidney disease in variable doses and schemes of application, such as cisplatin (6.5 mg/kg in a single i.p., dose) (Sener et al. 2000), methotrexate (7 mg/kg body weight i.p. for three days) (Abraham et al. 2010), gentamycin (100 mg/kg/day i.v.) (Lee et al. 2012) or cyclosporine (15 mg/kg of body weight per day s.c. for 14 days) (Chang et al. 2004).

Monotherapy with ACEIs or ARBs has reduced proteinuria and postponed end-stage renal disease in patients with albuminuria and cardiovascular risk factors (Maione et al. 2011). Reduction of the proliferative, profibrotic, inflammatory and oxidative burden stimulating effect of angiotensin II and aldosterone is considered to play a key role in the renoprotective effects of ACEIs and ARBs (Simko et al. 2003).

However, both, melatonin and C21 exert antioxidant, anti-inflammatory and antiproliferative properties as well. Melatonin, besides being an extremely effective antioxidant and free radical scavenger (Simko and Paulis 2007, Reiter et al. 2009a, b), improves endothelial function, reduces neurohumoral activation (Paulis and Simko 2007, Simko and Pechanova 2009, Simko et al. 2013) and helps to preserve the daily physiological rhythms (Dominguez-Rodriguez et al. 2010, Reiter et al. 2011, Simko 2012). In our experiment, melatonin attenuated blood pressure increase, prevented the augmentation of the oxidative load and the decline in glomerular numerical density. These results are in agreement with the findings of other authors reporting that in doxorubicin-induced kidney damage melatonin reduced the level of lipid peroxidation, increased the antioxidant renal capacity, reduced proteinuria and improved renal function and structure (Montilla et al. 1997, Agapito et al. 2001, Dzięgieł et al. 2002, Oz and Ilhan 2006). In the clinical conditions the protective data of melatonin in CKD are sparse. In hemodialyzed patients with end-stage renal disease the chronobiologic action of melatonin reduced sleep disturbances caused potentially by melatonin deficit (Koch et al. 2009, 2010a, b).

C21, the first non-peptide AT2 receptor agonist was reported to exert anti-inflammatory, antiproliferative and antioxidant actions (Steckelings et al. 2010, 2011, Steckelings and Unger 2012) with cardioprotective (Kaschina et al. 2008, Rompe et al. 2010), renoprotective (Steckelings et al. 2009) or neuroprotective (Namsolleck et al. 2013) implications. In line with these data, in our experiment, C21 prevented the reduction of glomerular number, reduced free radical burden, yet without any effect on increased blood pressure. Similarly to the reported cardioprotective and vasculoprotective effects (Kaschina et al. 2008, Paulis et al. 2012, Rehman et al. 2012) the renoprotective effects observed in our study seem to be blood pressure independent. Without affecting blood pressure, C21 reduced monocyte/macrophage infiltration in the kidney and T-lymphocyte infiltration in the renal cortex of spontaneously hypertensive rats (Rehman et al. 2012) and prevented early renal inflammatory changes along with reduction of TNF-α, IL-6, TGF-β1 levels and an increase in NO and cGMP levels in 2 kidney 1 clip hypertensive rats (Mattavelli et al. 2011). Therefore we suppose that the major mechanism responsible for the renoprotective effects of
C21 is the inhibition of inflammation and NF-κB (Rompe et al. 2010).

We conclude that captopril, olmesartan and melatonin prevented increase in oxidative load, loss of glomeruli and blood pressure increase in doxorubicin-induced nephrotoxicity; while, C21 showed antioxidant effects and prevented the decline in numerical glomerular density, yet without prevention of increased blood pressure. We suggest that both melatonin and C21 might offer some renoprotective effect in chronic kidney disease.

Limitations of the Work
It is very probable that the changes in the number and size of nephrons could be associated with functional alterations such as changes in plasma urea and creatinine or increased urinary albumin excretion and with histopathological alterations. However, to perform these investigations was beyond the scope and possibilities of this study.

Conflict of Interest
There is no conflict of interest.

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