



Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul
Faculdade de Biociências
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biologia Celular e Molecular

Leonardo Pedrazza

**Efeito terapêutico de células-tronco mesenquimais no
tratamento da sepse experimental**

Porto Alegre

Janeiro, 2013

Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul
Faculdade de Biociências
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biologia Celular e Molecular

**Efeito terapêutico de células-tronco mesenquimais no
tratamento da sepse experimental**

Dissertação apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biologia Celular e Molecular da Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul como requisito parcial para a obtenção do grau de Mestre em Biologia Celular e Molecular.

LEONARDO PEDRAZZA

ORIENTADOR: Prof. Dr. Jarbas R. de Oliveira

Porto Alegre, 2013

*“A ciência nunca resolve
um problema sem criar
pelo menos outros dez”*

George Bernard Shaw

AGRADECIMENTOS

Agradeço primeiramente ao Prof. Dr. Jarbas Rodrigues de Oliveira pela oportunidade de trabalhar em seu laboratório e me auxiliar no desenvolvimento deste trabalho.

Agradeço aos meus pais e ao meu irmão pelo apoio, compreensão e amor durante esse período.

Aos meus colegas de laboratório, em especial a Fernanda Mesquita, Shanna Bitencourt, Fernanda Bordignon e ao Eduardo Caberlon pelo auxílio, paciência e companheirismo durante esta trajetória.

Aos meus queridos amigos que sempre estiveram comigo nos momentos mais críticos sempre me dando força para continuar e muita cerveja. Um salve especial ao querido grupo FBC+Xorna.

A minha amiga Stéphanie Gallo ao Lucas Rizzo e a Carolina Uribe pelo auxílio técnico.

E por fim um agradecimento muito especial as pessoas mais importantes neste trabalho que sempre estiveram comigo na bancada e sofreram junto comigo nas situações mais complicadas. Meu querido amigo e colega de laboratório Adroaldo Lunardelli e a nossa bolsista Carolina Luft. Sem vocês este trabalho não seria possível.

SUMÁRIO

Lista de Abreviaturas.....	6
Resumo.....	8
Abstract.....	9
Capítulo 1.....	10
1. Introdução.....	11
1.1. Definição.....	11
1.2. Epidemiologia.....	13
1.3. Resposta do organismo à infecção na sepse.....	14
1.4. Apoptose celular e sepse.....	16
1.5. Mitocôndria e sepse.....	18
1.6. Tratamento.....	20
1.7. Células-tronco mesenquimais (MSCs).....	22
2. Justificativa.....	26
3. Objetivo.....	27
3.1. Objetivo geral.....	27
3.2. Objetivos específicos.....	27
Capítulo 2 – artigo científico.....	28
Capítulo 3 – considerações finais.....	67
Referências bibliográficas.....	72
Anexo 1.....	80

LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS

ALT - Alanina Aminotransferase

AMs - Antimicrobianos

AST - Aspartato Aminotransferase

ATP - Adenosina Trifosfato

DCs – Células Dendríticas

FiO₂ - Fração Inspirada de Oxigênio

IFN-γ – Interferon gama

IL-1 – Interleucina 1

IL-4 – Interleucina 4

IL-6 – Interleucina 6

IL-8 – Interleucina 8

IL-10 – Interleucina 10

IL-12 – Interleucina 12

IL-13 – Interleucina 13

MCP-1 – Proteína quimiotática de monócito 1

MSCs – Células-Tronco Mesenquimais

NADP – Nicotinamida Adenina Dinucleotídeo Fosfato

PAF – Fator Ativador Plaquetário

PAM - Pressão Arterial Média

PAs - Pressão Arterial Sistólica

PaO₂ - Pressão Parcial de Oxigênio Arterial

SRIS - Síndrome da Resposta Inflamatória Sistêmica

Th2 – Células T-Helper 2

TNF- α - Fator de Necrose Tumoral Alfa

TGF- β - Fator de Crescimento Tumoral Beta

UTI - Unidade de Terapia Intensiva

RESUMO

Sepse, uma condição médica que afeta 18 milhões de pessoas por ano no mundo, é caracterizada por um estado inflamatório generalizado causado por uma infecção. A ativação generalizada de vias de coagulação e inflamação evolui para disfunção de múltiplos órgãos, o colapso do sistema circulatório (choque séptico) e morte. Apesar de décadas de pesquisas e numerosas experimentações clínicas, pouco progresso tem sido observado no desenvolvimento de novos tratamentos e as taxas de mortalidade são praticamente as mesmas nos últimos 20 a 30 anos. Como tal, a sepse continua sendo um difícil adversário para cirurgiões e seus pacientes, logo, a busca por novas alternativas terapêuticas torna-se estritamente essencial. Recentemente as células-tronco têm emergido como uma terapia promissora para uma variedade de patologias, incluindo doenças cardiovasculares, neurodegenerativas, doença vascular periférica, doença renal, e várias outras. Seus efeitos benéficos estão relacionados principalmente às suas capacidades de se conectarem a lesões e inflamações, para atenuar a resposta inflamatória e acelerar a cicatrização de tecidos e de neoangiogênese devido a estímulos nocivos. Considerando esse potencial terapêutico, o presente estudo teve por objetivo avaliar se essas células poderiam conduzir a resposta imune de volta ao equilíbrio, atenuando a fisiopatologia da sepse e dessa forma aumentando o tempo de sobrevivência em camundongos, utilizando um modelo de sepse experimental. Os resultados demonstraram que o tratamento com as células-tronco mesenquimais foi capaz de aumentar o tempo de sobrevivência dos animais em estudo. Esse efeito observado deve-se à capacidade destas células de modularem a resposta imune, proporcionando uma menor lesão tecidual e a diminuição de células apoptóticas. Essas descobertas demonstram que as células-tronco mesenquimais têm potencial terapêutico e podem funcionar futuramente como um possível tratamento para a sepse.

Palavras chave: Sepse; Células-tronco mesenquimais; Imunomodulador; Inflamação.

ABSTRACT

Sepsis, a medical condition that affects 18 million people per year worldwide, is characterized by a generalized inflammatory state caused by infection. The widespread activation of coagulation pathways and inflammation progresses to multiple organ failure, the collapse of the circulatory system (septic shock) and death. Despite decades of research and numerous clinical trials, little progress has been made in developing new treatments and mortality rates are virtually the same in the last 20 to 30 years. As such, sepsis remains a difficult opponent for surgeons and their patients, so the search for new therapeutic alternatives becomes strictly essential. Recently stem cells have emerged as a promising therapy for a variety of diseases, including cardiovascular diseases, neurodegenerative disorders, peripheral vascular disease, renal disease, and several others. Its beneficial effects are due mainly to their ability to connect to injury and inflammation, to attenuate the inflammatory response, and accelerate tissue healing and neoangiogenesis due to noxious stimuli. Considering this therapeutic potential, this study aimed to evaluate whether these cells could lead to immune response back into balance, reducing the pathophysiology of sepsis and thereby increase the survival time in mice using an experimental model of sepsis. Our results demonstrated that treatment with mesenchymal stem cells was able to increase survival time of the animals that were tested. This effect is due to the ability of these cells to modulate the immune response providing a smaller reduction in tissue injury and apoptotic cells. These findings demonstrate that mesenchymal stem cells have therapeutic potential and can function as a possible future treatment for sepsis.

Keywords: Sepsis; Mesenchymal stem cells; Immunomodulator; Inflammation.

Capítulo 1

Introdução

Justificativa

Objetivos

1. INTRODUÇÃO

1.1 Definição

A sepse é uma síndrome complexa de origem infecciosa, ocasionando uma resposta inflamatória sistêmica descontrolada do indivíduo. É caracterizada por manifestações múltiplas que podem determinar disfunção ou até mesmo a falência de um ou mais órgãos, e conseqüentemente sua morte. Seus fatores fisiopatológicos incluem, principalmente, o local da infecção, sendo os sistemas da coagulação, fibrinolítico e inflamatório os determinantes de sua evolução¹.

O termo septicemia vem sendo usado desde a Grécia antiga para descrever casos onde havia putrefação associado com doença e morte². Esta patologia foi descrita primeiramente por Tilney *et al*³ em 1973, como “falência sistêmica seqüencial”, abrangendo três pacientes que evoluíram para óbito por falência orgânica. Em 1975 Baue⁴ descreveu três pacientes como “falência orgânica sistêmica progressiva, múltipla, ou seqüencial”.

Devido a esta grande quantidade de termos sinônimos para designar a mesma condição clínica e a sua gravidade, em agosto de 1991, uma nova definição foi estabelecida pelo *American College of Chest Physicians* e a *Society of Critical Care Medicine*, determinando assim um consenso sobre as definições e os critérios para o diagnóstico da sepse⁵. Em 2001, a *International Sepsis Definitions Conference* (tabela 1), congregando um maior número de

pesquisadores e peritos de várias partes do mundo, optou por não modificar as definições vigentes e sim por ampliar a lista de sinais e sintomas da sepse⁶.

Tabela 1- Critérios para diagnóstico na sepse

Infecção documentada ou suspeita e algum dos seguintes critérios:

– Variáveis gerais

Febre (temperatura central > 38,3° C)

Hipotermia (temperatura central < 36° C)

Frequência cardíaca > 90 bpm ou > 2 DP acima do valor normal para a idade

Taquipnéia

Alteração de sensório

Edema significativo ou balanço hídrico positivo (> 20 ml/kg/24 horas)

Hiperglicemia na ausência de diabetes (glicemia > 120 mg/dl)

– Variáveis inflamatórias

Leucocitose (contagem leucócitos totais > 12.000 / mm³)

Leucopenia (contagem leucócitos totais < 4.000 / mm³)

Contagem de leucócitos totais normal com > 10% de formas imaturas

Proteína C-reativa no plasma > 2 DP acima do valor normal

Procalcitonina plasmática > 2 DP acima do valor normal

– Variáveis hemodinâmicas

Hipotensão arterial (PAs < 90 mmHg, PAM < 70 mmHg, ou

Redução da PAs > 40 mmHg em adolescentes, ou PAs / PAM < 2 DP abaixo do normal para idade)

Saturação de oxigênio venoso misto > 70% (não válido para crianças)

Índice cardíaco > 3,5 L/min (não válido para crianças)

– Variáveis de disfunção de órgãos

Hipoxemia arterial (PaO₂ / FiO₂ < 300)

Oligúria aguda (diurese < 0,5 mL/kg/h)

Creatinina > 0,5 mg/dL

Alterações de coagulação (INR > 1,5 ou TPPA > 60 s)

Íleo (ausência de ruídos hidroaéreos)

Trombocitopenia (contagem de plaquetas < 100.000 / mm³)

Hiperbilirrubinemia (Bilirrubina total > 4 mg/dL)

– Variáveis de perfusão tecidual

Hiperlactatemia (> 1 mmol/L)

Enchimento capilar reduzido ou moteamento

BPM: batidas por minuto; DP: desvio padrão; PAs: pressão arterial sistólica; PAM: pressão arterial média; PaO₂: pressão parcial de oxigênio; FiO₂: fração inspirada de oxigênio; INR: razão normalizada internacional; TPPA: tempo de tromboplastina parcial ativada.

1.2 Epidemiologia

A sepse tem representado um grave problema epidemiológico para os sistemas de saúde em todo o mundo, tanto do ponto de vista econômico como social. Atualmente a sepse acomete cerca de 18 milhões de pessoas por ano no mundo. De acordo com um estudo epidemiológico nos EUA, a incidência da sepse aumentou de 82,7 para 240,4/100 mil habitantes, bem como as mortes relacionadas a ela, ainda que a taxa de mortalidade geral entre os pacientes com sepse tenha sido reduzida nesse período⁷.

Nas últimas décadas o aumento nas taxas de incidência e de morbimortalidade relacionadas à sepse está diretamente relacionado aos avanços médicos, onde cada vez mais são tratados pacientes gravemente

doentes e internados nas Unidades de Terapia Intensiva (UTIs), evoluindo para sepse secundária, decorrente do comprometimento imunológico e/ou pelas condutas e procedimentos médicos⁸.

A incidência da sepse relatada na literatura pode variar de acordo com as características de cada região e local, sendo que nos EUA e Europa, a sepse é responsável por 2-11% das internações em UTI⁹. Análise retrospectiva de Jacobs *et al*¹⁰, em mais de 2.000 admissões de uma UTI pediátrica, identificou 42,5% de pacientes com doença infecciosa, dos quais 63% destes evoluíram para o estado de choque séptico. Proulx *et al*¹¹, avaliando 1.058 admissões em UTI pediátrica do hospital universitário canadense, identificaram 82% de síndrome da resposta inflamatória sistêmica (SRIS), sendo 23% de etiologia infecciosa (sepse), das quais 2% com choque séptico. No Brasil a incidência da mortalidade provocada pela sepse e suas conseqüências varia de 40 a 45%, conforme dados do *Brazilian Sepsis Epidemiological Study*¹².

1.3 Resposta do Organismo à Infecção na Sepse

A inflamação é uma resposta normal do hospedeiro contra agentes infecciosos. A sepse é caracterizada pela produção excessiva de mediadores inflamatórios, assim como pela expressiva ativação de células inflamatórias, resultando em uma anarquia metabólica¹³.

Quando a infecção ou bacteremia ocorre, a primeira linha de defesa do hospedeiro é realizada por células fagocitárias (macrófagos, monócitos e

granulócitos polimorfonucleares) e pela via alternativa do complemento, agindo de maneira não específica. Posteriormente, as imunoglobulinas e as células imunocompetentes iniciam a resposta imune específica^{13, 14}.

Os componentes da parede bacteriana, onde se destacam as endotoxinas (lipopolissacárideos) dos microorganismos gram-negativos (principalmente o lipídio A) e o ácido teicóico dos microorganismos gram-positivo são os principais ativadores da resposta do hospedeiro. Eles desencadeiam a cascata inflamatória através da indução da produção de citocinas pelos macrófagos e monócitos, que, quando ativados, produzem sequencialmente, Fator de Necrose Tumoral Alfa (TNF- α), Interleucina-1 (IL-1), Interleucina-6 (IL-6) e a Interleucina-8 (IL-8) que interagem com outras células e elementos celulares (polimorfonucleares, células endoteliais, fibroblastos, plaquetas e os próprios monócitos), induzindo a produção e liberação de mediadores secundários, contribuindo para uma resposta inflamatória tardia^{14, 15}.

Paralelamente à liberação das citocinas pró-inflamatórias, o organismo responde a agentes infecciosos, liberando citocinas antiinflamatórias como Interleucina 4 (IL-4), Interleucina 10 (IL-10), Interleucina 13 (IL-13), Fator de Crescimento Tecidual Beta (TGF- β), entre outras. Estes mediadores parecem tanto contrabalançar as ações dos mediadores pró-inflamatórios, através da redução da síntese e da liberação desses mediadores, quanto antagonizar seus efeitos^{16, 17}.

As células endoteliais possuem um importante papel na homeostasia, regulação do tônus vascular e fibrinólise^{18, 19} e quando ativadas diretamente

pelas endotoxinas ou pelas citocinas, adquirem função pró-coagulante e protrombótica, provocadas pela liberação de tromboplastina, inibidor do ativador do plasminogênio e do fator ativador plaquetário (PAF), além da diminuição da produção de trombosmodulina. Elas também produzem mediadores inflamatórios, tais como as Interleucinas (IL-1, IL-6 e IL-8), prostaciclina, endotelina (capaz de aumentar o tônus vascular) e o óxido nítrico^{20,21}. A destruição local do endotélio pela aderência de polimorfonucleares ativos causa aumento da permeabilidade e edema tecidual, que contribui para a ampliação da reação inflamatória¹⁹.

Alterações nas dimensões dos pequenos vasos, juntamente com alterações bioquímicas e fisiológicas sanguíneas, prejudicam a homeostasia da microcirculação durante o choque séptico, sendo esse o principal sítio de ataque, podendo, tornar-se uma área fértil para o crescimento bacteriano descontrolado¹⁸. Um importante fator precipitante é a diminuição da deformidade dos eritrócitos, que depende das propriedades viscoelásticas da membrana celular, viscosidade do citoplasma e da razão entre a área de superfície corpórea e o seu volume, podendo estar todos estes fatores alterados, devido à acidose, hipotermia e alterações na geometria da hemácia¹⁸.

1.4 Apoptose Celular e Sepses

Um dos avanços mais importantes na investigação da sepsis foi definir a importância da apoptose na disfunção imune característica dos pacientes

sépticos. O papel chave da apoptose em pacientes com sepse foi demonstrado pela primeira vez em um estudo em que os pacientes em unidades de terapia intensiva que morreram de sepse foram comparados com os pacientes em unidades de terapia intensiva que morreram de etiologias não-sépticas. Autópsias de pacientes com sepse que foram realizadas dentro de 30-90 minutos após a morte do paciente (evitando assim alterações celulares devido a autólise) revelou extensa apoptose de linfócitos e células epiteliais gastrointestinais²². Esses achados foram semelhantes aos estudos com animais que mostram morte celular generalizada de linfócitos e de células epiteliais gastrointestinais na sepse²³⁻²⁶.

Há dois mecanismos principais pelos quais a apoptose contribui para imunoparalisia na sepse. O primeiro mecanismo é através da eliminação de células efetoras cruciais. A diminuição profunda no número de células T e B prejudica a resposta imunitária adaptativa. A perda de células do sistema imunitário adaptativo também diminui a resposta imune inata por causa da importância da correlação entre os sistemas de imunidade inata e adaptativa^{27,28}. A apoptose induz a diminuição no número de células dendríticas (DCs), que são os apresentadores de antígenos celulares mais potentes relacionados tanto a resposta imune inata e adaptativa. O segundo mecanismo através do qual a apoptose contribui para disfunção imune é através da indução da anergia e de células T helper 2 (Th2) em respostas a células imunes sobreviventes²⁹⁻³¹. Um trabalho recente demonstrou que captação de células apoptóticas por macrófagos e DCs estimula a tolerância imunológica por induzir a liberação de citocinas anti-inflamatórias, incluindo IL-10 e fator transformador de crescimento (TGF- β), e suprimir a liberação de

citocinas pró-inflamatória. Esta ligação potencial entre a liberação de IL-10 por células em apoptose e supressão imunológica na sepse é ressaltado por estudos que mostram que a concentração circulante de IL-10 é preditivo de um desfecho fatal em pacientes com sepse³².

Para determinar se as células apoptóticas podem diminuir a resposta imune em sepse, um estudo realizado por Hotckins e colaboradores examinou o efeito da transferência de células apoptóticas ou necróticas na produção de linfócitos T helper 1 e T helper 2 e de citocinas na sobrevivência em um modelo de sepse em camundongos. A transferência adotiva de células apoptóticas aumentou muito a mortalidade, enquanto que os esplenócitos transferidos em necrose melhorou marcadamente a sobrevivência. Os efeitos contrastantes que as células apoptóticas e necróticas exercem sobre a sobrevivência foram distintos por possuírem efeitos opostos sobre o interferon- γ (IFN- γ), induzindo diminuição ou aumento da produção, respectivamente³³. Estas descobertas indicam que o tipo de morte celular afeta a sobrevivência em um modelo de sepse experimental clinicamente relevante e identifica um novo mecanismo para a imunossupressão, que é uma característica da sepse em humanos.

1.5 Mitocôndria e Sepse

A disfunção de um órgão é basicamente uma disfunção celular. A principal função de uma célula é manter ativos todos os processos metabólicos necessários para funcionamento regular das células e tecidos³⁴.

Durante a última década, vários estudos têm demonstrado que existe uma grave disfunção mitocondrial durante a sepse, e que isso poderia estar relacionado ao desenvolvimento de falências orgânicas e um pior prognóstico³⁵. De fato, diversos estudos têm demonstrado a presença de disfunção mitocondrial em os órgãos vitais como o fígado e pulmões. A patogênese da disfunção mitocondrial acredita-se ser multifatorial, com os mecanismos propostos por apresentar déficit de substratos, danos enzimáticos e de membrana, entre outros^{36,37}.

O aparecimento de disfunção mitocondrial pode ocorrer na presença de níveis adequados de oxigenação dos tecidos, isto é, na ausência de hipóxia tissular, indicando um mecanismo independente ao hemodinâmico e ou da microcirculação na gênese da morte celular³⁷. Por esta razão, acredita-se que a disfunção orgânica da sepse esta associada à falência do metabolismo celular associado com a mitocôndria. Vários mecanismos têm sido propostos para explicar como poderia ser mediado esse fenômeno³⁸, entre eles podemos citar:

- A inibição da piruvato desidrogenase provocando um aumento da atividade de proteínas quinases através de estímulos de citocinas pró-inflamatórias como TNF- α e IL-6, prejudicando o processo de fosforilação oxidativa e consequentemente levando um acúmulo de lactato no ambiente³⁸.

- Aumento dos níveis de iNOS (óxido nítrico sintase-induzível). Durante a sepse existe um aumento da expressão de iNOS conseqüente também há uma maior produção de óxido nítrico (NO). O NO é capaz de reagir com o ânion superóxido (O_2^-) para formar o composto peroxinitrito ($ONOO^-$), altamente

reativo capaz de danificar as membranas lipídicas (peroxidação lipídica) produzir fragmentação e mutação do DNA e danos proteínicos³⁹.

- Alteração da Poli (ADP-ribose) polimerase (PARP-1). A PARP-1 é um enzima que normalmente está localizado no núcleo da célula, e é responsável pela reparação de alterações no DNA. Espécies reativas de oxigênio (radicais livres) e particularmente ONOO⁻ são capazes de ativar a PARP-1 devido ao seu efeito de fragmentação sobre o DNA. A Ativação da Poli (ADP-ribose) polimerase (PARP-1) leva ao consumo maciço de NAD, com uma queda significativa no nível celular e diminuição da taxa de glicólise, transporte de elétrons e formação de ATP. Este fenômeno pode resultar em disfunção das células ou morte celular³⁸.

- A morfologia celular e conteúdo mitocondrial também são afetados durante a sepse. A alteração na morfologia mitocondrial tem sido correlacionada com grau de disfunção celular. Da mesma forma, a diminuição do conteúdo das mitocôndrias durante a sepse parece não estar relacionado com um aumento da apoptose celular, mas como um aumento lisosomal⁴⁰.

1.6 Tratamento

A resposta inflamatória sistêmica da sepse pode se restringir a um fenômeno auto-limitado ou pode progredir para quadros de maior gravidade, como sepse grave, choque séptico e disfunção ou falência de um ou mais órgãos. Apesar da grande quantidade de investigações e de relatos sobre

sepsis e síndromes correlatas nos últimos anos, o controle definitivo do foco infeccioso é imperativo no tratamento, sendo a primeira prioridade. Contudo, além das medidas de suporte de vida, quando indicadas, outras medidas devem ser tomadas de acordo com a gravidade de apresentação da respectiva síndrome⁴¹.

Os antimicrobianos (AMs) são os agentes mais específicos e acessíveis para o tratamento do paciente com infecção, embora representem uma abordagem somente parcial do problema. Nas últimas quatro décadas, os estudos sobre o efeito do uso de AMs nas infecções graves por germes gram-positivos ou gram-negativos têm demonstrado uma considerável redução da morbidade e da mortalidade. Os AMs podem ser mais úteis no tratamento de estágios clínicos precoces da sepsis ou bacteremia, antes que a produção seqüencial dos mediadores da inflamação do hospedeiro determine estágios mais adiantados na cascata inflamatória, com eventuais danos teciduais graves⁴². Entretanto, alguns autores sustentam a idéia de que os AMs podem exacerbar a resposta inflamatória devido à lise dos microrganismos, com liberação de material de sua parede celular e conseqüente produção de mediadores inflamatórios endógenos⁴³.

Atualmente, vem sendo testadas estratégias para modular a excessiva geração ou ação de mediadores na sepsis. A intervenção em qualquer passo da seqüência dos eventos fisiopatológicos que caracterizam a resposta inflamatória sistêmica da sepsis, no sentido de modificar (modular) essa reação do hospedeiro, parece ser a estratégia terapêutica com maiores perspectivas de mudar os resultados na terapia da sepsis. Infelizmente, o uso clínico de terapias bloqueadoras de mediadores específicos tem falhado em reduzir a

mortalidade geral associada à sepse. Contudo, a interrupção da seqüência, na patogênese, em múltiplos pontos, é a melhor chance na redução da alta mortalidade atual desta patologia⁴¹.

1.7 Células-Tronco Mesenquimais (MSCs)

As células-tronco mesenquimais foram identificadas primeiramente por Friedenstein e Petrakova (1966), que isolaram estas células progenitoras a partir da medula de ratos e observaram serem estas células capazes de se diferenciarem em linhagem de tecido conectivo, incluindo osso, tecido adiposo, cartilagem e músculo⁴⁴.

Nos últimos anos, foi descoberto que as células-tronco mesenquimais são potentes moduladoras da resposta imune. Estas células apresentam um elevado grau de quimiotaxia, baseado em citocinas pró-inflamatórias, localizando tecidos inflamados e neoplásicos^{45,46,47}. Acredita-se que a capacidade proliferativa e pluripotente destas células seja independente do tecido de origem, desde que cultivadas em condições adequadas^{48,49}. Morfologicamente, estas células apresentam-se fusiformes, assemelhando-se a fibroblastos.

O tecido adiposo representa uma fonte abundante e acessível de células-tronco adultas que podem se transformar em diversas linhagens celulares. As células derivadas do tecido adiposo possuem grande similaridade

com células mesenquimais encontradas na medula óssea, e seu processo de coleta é menos invasivo⁵⁰.

Em situações clínicas agudas, como a sepse, poderia ser impossível a obtenção de células-tronco autólogas em número suficiente para ter um efeito terapêutico. Entretanto, essas células parecem ter uma vantagem única em termos de transplantadas, de tal forma, que as evidências sugerem que as MSCs podem ser "imunoprivilegiadas" na medida em que estas células, mesmo alogeneticamente ou xenogênicas quando são transplantados, podem ter uma habilidade inata para evitar a detecção pelo sistema imune do destinatário. Isto levanta a possibilidade para transplante não autólogos de MSCs como uma estratégia terapêutica. Embora mais pesquisas sobre o seu uso no tratamento em diferentes patologias sejam necessárias, é possível que MSC alogênicas pudessem ser mantidas em "bancos de células" e utilizadas terapêuticamente quando indicadas, eliminando assim a necessidade de obter células autólogas e expandi-las na fase aguda^{51,52,53}.

As células-tronco são potentes fontes de citocinas antiinflamatórias como fator de crescimento tecidual- β (TGF- β), IL-10 e IL-13. Além disso, atenuam a inflamação, causando uma diminuição de citocinas pró-inflamatórias como TNF- α , IL-1, IL-6^{54,55,56}.

Acredita-se que a sua propriedade antiinflamatória e citoprotetora aumenta para um grau ainda maior quando as células-tronco são expostas a ambientes nocivos semelhantes aos encontrados durante a sepse. Estas características das células-tronco podem ser úteis no seu uso como agentes terapêuticos da sepse. Em um modelo de lesão pulmonar induzida por LPS,

níveis reduzidos de citocinas pró-inflamatórias após o transplante de células-tronco foram associados com menor formação de edema pulmonar, redução da permeabilidade do epitélio alveolar, e um tempo de sobrevivência maior. Estes benefícios são reforçados através de fatores citoprotetores e proangiogênicos secretados pelas células-tronco como VEGF (fator de crescimento vascular endotelial), fator de crescimento de hepatócitos (HGF), fator de crescimento semelhante à insulina (IGF-1), e fator de crescimento fibroblástico (FGF)^{57,58}.

A capacidade das células-tronco de reduzirem a apoptose celular pode conferir ainda uma outra fonte de benefício para o seu uso na sepse. As células-tronco têm demonstrado aumento da regulação de expressão de proteínas anti-apoptóticas, tais como a Bcl-2 e a diminuição da expressão de proteínas pró-apoptóticas, tais como caspases⁵⁹.

Em uma série de experimentos nocauteando ou inibindo diferentes citocinas, Németh et al.⁴⁵ mostraram que o efeito protetor das células-tronco mesenquimais foram dependentes da citocina anti-inflamatória IL 10, a qual, não foi produzida diretamente pelas MSCs injetadas, mas pelos macrófagos. Além disso, experimentos "*in vitro*" em co-culturas com os macrófagos e MSCs sugeriram que a prostaglandina E2 (produzida pela ciclooxigenase-2 das MSCs após a ativação do receptor Toll-like 4 por lipopolissacarídeo bacteriano) foi responsável pela "reprogramação" dos macrófagos. Este efeito foi reforçado pelo envolvimento do receptor do fator de necrose tumoral (TNF- α) nas MSCs⁴⁵.

Além disso, as células-tronco mesenquimais provenientes do tecido adiposo possuem as 5 características necessárias para a utilização em algum tipo de tratamento medicinal⁵¹:

- Podem ser encontradas em quantidades abundantes (milhões a bilhões de células);
- Podem ser obtidas com um procedimento pouco invasivo;
- Podem ser diferenciadas por múltiplas linhagens celulares de uma maneira regulável e reprodutível;
- Podem ser seguras e eficazes se transplantadas para um hospedeiro autólogo ou alogênico;
- Podem ser produzidas em conformidade com as orientações de boas práticas laboratoriais.

2. JUSTIFICATIVA

Nos últimos 10 anos, progressos em biologia celular e molecular mostraram que a agressão bacteriana ou de seus subprodutos (endotoxinas e exotoxinas), não são os únicos responsáveis pela deterioração clínica dos pacientes em choque séptico. A resposta do hospedeiro desempenha papel importante nos diferentes tipos de agressões, quer infecciosa ou não.

A identificação de mediadores e dos mecanismos envolvidos na produção das alterações fisiológicas, metabólicas e celulares é de grande interesse, pois estão envolvidos na perda da capacidade de homeostasia celular do organismo.

A maioria dos pesquisadores concorda que melhores taxas de sobrevivência em pacientes com sepse grave só poderão ser atingidas com terapias adicionais às terapias antimicrobianas convencionais. Quanto mais se conhece a complexidade e a interdependência dos mecanismos fisiopatológicos da sepse, mais se buscam estratégias terapêuticas com base em substâncias que modulem ou interrompam os efeitos dos mediadores endógenos e exógenos da sepse.

Portanto, devido ao potencial imunomodulador, a vantagem de serem encontradas em grandes quantidades e sua administração no paciente ser pouco invasiva, as células-tronco mesenquimais tornam-se hábeis a serem uma possível alternativa de tratamento para a sepse, podendo levar a interrupção da sequência, na patogênese, e a redução da alta mortalidade desta patologia.

3. OBJETIVOS

3.1 Objetivo Geral

Avaliar o efeito terapêutico e imunomodulador de células-tronco mesenquimais no tratamento da sepse.

3.2 Objetivos Específicos

3.2.1 Avaliar a sobrevida dos animais sépticos tratados com células-tronco mesenquimais;

3.2.2 Determinar o comportamento de marcadores bioquímicos nos animais sépticos tratados com células-tronco;

3.2.3 Realizar análise dos mediadores inflamatórios (TNF- α , IL-12 p70, IFN- γ , IL-6 e MCP-1) e antiinflamatórios (IL-10, TGF- β 1) nos animais sépticos tratados com células-tronco;

3.2.4 Avaliar a disfunção mitocondrial nos animais sépticos tratados com células-tronco;

3.2.5 Avaliar a apoptose celular em esplenócitos nos animais sépticos tratados com células-tronco.

Capítulo 2

Mesenchymal stem cells derived from adipose tissue increases survival time by decreasing apoptosis in splenocytes in experimental model of sepsis

Artigo científico submetido ao periódico científico *Critical Care Medicine*.

Fator de Impacto: 6.330

Submissions Being Processed for Author **Adroaldo Lunardelli, M.D.**

Page: 1 of 1 (1 total submissions)

Display 10 results per page.

Action	Manuscript Number	Title	Initial Date Submitted	Status Date
View Submission Send E-mail		Mesenchymal stem cells derived from adipose tissue increases survival time by decreasing apoptosis in splenocytes in experimental model of sepsis	Jan 21 2013 1:36:00:897PM	Jan 21 2013 1:36:01:043PM

Page: 1 of 1 (1 total submissions)

Display 10 results per page.

<< Author Main Menu

Critical Care Medicine

Mesenchymal stem cells derived from adipose tissue increases survival time by decreasing apoptosis in splenocytes in experimental model of sepsis --Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:	
Full Title:	Mesenchymal stem cells derived from adipose tissue increases survival time by decreasing apoptosis in splenocytes in experimental model of sepsis
Article Type:	Laboratory Investigation
Keywords:	sepsis; mesenchymal stem cells; inflammation; Escherichia coli; apoptosis
Corresponding Author:	Adroaldo Lunardelli, M.D. Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul BRAZIL
Corresponding Author Secondary Information:	
Corresponding Author's Institution:	Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul
Corresponding Author's Secondary Institution:	
First Author:	Leonardo Pedrazza, Msc
First Author Secondary Information:	
Order of Authors:	Leonardo Pedrazza, Msc Adroaldo Lunardelli, M.D. Carolina Luft Carolina Urbe Fernanda Cristina de Mesquita, Msc Shanna Bitencout, Dr Fernanda Bortignon Nunes, Dr Jarbas Rodrigues de Oliveira, Dr
Order of Authors Secondary Information:	
Manuscript Region of Origin:	BRAZIL
Abstract:	Objective: The aim of this research was to test the ability of mesenchymal stem cells derived from adipose tissue derived from adipose tissue, which has immunomodulatory effects, to inhibit the septic process in an experimental model of mice. Design: Prospective, controlled animal trial. Setting: Research laboratory. Subjects: Fed male C57BL/6 mice. Interventions: Three experimental groups were formed for the test: control group, untreated septic group and septic group, treated with MSCs (1 x 10 ⁶ cells/animal). Measurements and Main Results: In the control group, there were no deaths; in the untreated septic group, the mortality rate was 100% within 26 hours; in the septic group treated with MSCs, the mortality rate reached 40% within 26 hrs. The group treated with MSCs was able to reduce the markers of tissue damage of the liver and pancreas. The treated group received a reduction in inflammatory markers in comparison with the untreated group septic. Furthermore, the group treated with stem cells was able to inhibit the increase of apoptosis in splenocytes observed in septic untreated group. Conclusion: MSCs reduced the mortality rate provoked by experimental sepsis, ameliorated immune response and decreased the apoptotic death.
Suggested Reviewers:	

Mesenchymal stem cells derived from adipose tissue increase survival time by decreasing apoptosis in splenocytes in experimental model of sepsis

Leonardo Pedrazza, Adroaldo Lunardelli, Carolina Luft, Carolina Uribe, Fernanda Cristina de Mesquita, Shanna Bitencourt, Fernanda Bordignon Nunes, Jarbas Rodrigues de Oliveira*

Laboratório de Pesquisa em Biofísica Celular e Inflamação, Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul, PUCRS, Porto Alegre-RS, Brazil

* To whom correspondence should be addressed at: Laboratório de Pesquisa em Biofísica Celular e Inflamação, Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul (PUCRS), Avenida Ipiranga 6681, prédio 12, bloco C, sala 221, CEP 90619-900, Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil. E-mail: jarbas@pucrs.br

Abstract

Objective: The aim of this research was to test the ability of mesenchymal stem cells derived from adipose tissue, which has immunomodulatory effects, to inhibit the septic process in an experimental model of mice.

Design: Prospective, controlled animal trial.

Setting: *Research laboratory.*

Subjects: *Fed male C57BL/6 mice.*

Interventions: Three experimental groups were formed for the test: control group, untreated septic group and septic group, treated with MSCs (1×10^6 cells/animal).

Measurements and Main Results: In the control group, there were no deaths; in the untreated septic group, the mortality rate was 100% within 26 hours; in the septic group treated with MSCs, the mortality rate reached 40% within 26 hrs. The group treated with MSCs was able to reduce the markers of tissue damage of the liver and pancreas. The treated group received a reduction in inflammatory markers in comparison with the untreated group septic. Furthermore, the group treated with stem cells was able to inhibit the increase of apoptosis in splenocytes observed in septic untreated group.

Conclusion: MSCs reduced the mortality rate provoked by experimental sepsis, ameliorated immune response and decreased the apoptotic death.

KEY WORDS: sepsis; mesenchymal stem cells; inflammation; *Escherichia coli*; apoptosis

Introduction

Severe sepsis is currently a major cause of death in critically ill patients, with 750,000 new cases every year, and more than 200,000 fatalities (1). With the increased use rate of invasive surgical procedures and immunosuppression, the incidence is likely to increase in the next few years. Furthermore, sepsis incurs a staggering \$16.7 billion cost in the US health economy (1,2).

Septic syndromes (sepsis, severe sepsis and septic shock, ranked by increased severity) are defined by the association of a systemic inflammatory response with an infection. The initial phase of the disease is dominated by an exacerbated inflammatory response (also called 'cytokine storm') responsible for successive organ failures and ultimately refractory hypotension leading to shock (3,4). Apoptosis is a key pathophysiological process in sepsis and leads to a striking loss of lymphocytes and dendritic cells. It also induces the decrease of immune effector cells and, combined with the immunosuppressive effect of apoptotic cells, contributes to the profound immunoparalysis that is a major cause of morbidity and mortality in this disorder (5,6). Even with appropriate antibiotic and resuscitative therapies, sepsis carries a 30% mortality rate and is significantly morbidity associated with organ failure. Thus, new therapeutic strategies are needed to improve the outcome of septic patients (7).

Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) are multi-potent progenitor cells that can be cultured from adult tissue and fatal tissues. They can regenerate different kind of cell lines such as tendon, cartilage, bone and adipose cells. In the last 10 years, it has been discovered that MSCs are potent modulators of immune responses (8-11). The protective role of MSCs have been also tested in early clinical trials in cardiac disease, inflammatory bowel disease, stroke and several others clinical disorders (12-16). More importantly, there is new evidence that MSCs have a beneficial effect in preclinical models of polymicrobial sepsis. In these studies, it was demonstrated that injection of MSCs into septic mice reduced the septic inflammatory response and mortality by decreasing proinflammatory cytokine expression while increasing anti-inflammatory IL-10 (17,18). However these studies do not address the response

of MSCs on cellular apoptosis that is correlated with immune dysfunction during sepsis. Consequently, the purpose of this study was to investigate the role of murine MSCs obtained from adipose tissue as a possible protector against the effects of the septic process in mouse model. We conducted a survival curve comparing animals MSCs injected with a control septic. Furthermore, we study the mechanisms involved in this protective effect as the levels of tecidual injury markers, levels cytokines pro and anti-inflammatory in addition to evaluation of apoptosis of splenocytes.

Materials and methods

Animals

The Male C57BL/6 mice (8-12 weeks old) were kept on shelves with ventilated cages that provide 60 air cycles per hour, a relative humidity ranging between 55–65%, a 12 hours light–dark cycle, a temperature of $22\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$ with free access to food and water. The animals were maintained in accordance with the Guiding Principles in the Care and Use of Animals by the Council of the American Physiological Society. The experimental protocol was approved by the Ethics Research Committee of Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul (protocol number 11/00252).

Cell Culture

Murine MSCs were isolated and expanded as previously described (19,20). Prior to the collection of the adipose tissue, mice were killed by cervical dislocation. Adipose tissue was obtained from the epididymal adipose tissue, cut into small pieces, collagenase-digested, filtered and then cultured using Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) (Invitrogen, USA) without ribonucleosides or deoxyribonucleosides containing 2 mM L-glutamine and 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Invitrogen, USA), with 1% penicillin-streptomycin. Cells were passaged every 3-4 days by trypsinization when they reached 70-80% confluency and were used for the experiments between passages 3-4. Between each passage, viability was measured with trypan blue exclusion. MSCs were cultured in a humidified incubator at 5% CO_2 and 37°C under sterile conditions. Before each experiment, cells were trypsinized, counted, washed twice with PBS and resuspended in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) (Gibco, USA).

Experimental Sepsis Induction and Treatment

The animals were weighed and then anesthetized with a mixture of ketamine (80 mg/kg) and xylazine (20 mg/kg) intraperitoneally (i.p.). The abdomen of each animal was shaved and cleansed with povidine-iodine solution. A 1 cm midline abdominal incision was made to expose the linea alba, which was lightly incised. The peritoneum was opened by using blunt dissection. All procedures were performed using sterile surgical instruments.

Sepsis was induced by introducing in the peritoneal cavity a sterile gelatin capsule size "1" containing another sterile capsule size "2" with the *Escherichia coli* (3 μ L, ATCC 25922) suspension and a non-sterile fecal content (20mg). *E. coli* was stored in autoclaved skimmed milk on glass beads at 70°C. Each week, a bead was inoculated onto trypticase soy agar and incubated overnight at 37°C. The culture was passed daily for use the next day. Each day, a representative colony was transferred into 10 mL of nutrient broth and incubated at 37°C with shaking for 2 hours, until the optical density at 650 nm was between 0.280 and 0.300. The culture was diluted in pyrogen-free phosphate-buffered saline to yield 4 x 10⁸ colony forming units/mL.

The animals were then divided into three groups as follows: (i) sham (operated with introduction of empty capsule and was administered 200 μ L of PBS by retro-orbital injection), (ii) sepsis (sepsis-induced and was administered 200 μ L of PBS by retro-orbital injection), (iii) sepsis + MSCs (sepsis-induced and treated with MSCs 1 x 10⁶/200 μ L of PBS by retro-orbital injection at the time of induction). Blood samples were collected through cardiac puncture 12 hours after the sepsis induction.

Survival Curve

A survival curve in different experimental groups was performed. After seven days, animals that were still alive were anesthetized with and i.p. solution of ketamine (100 mg/Kg) and xylazine (50 mg/Kg) and decapitated.

Body Temperature

Body temperature was performed in animals by a rectal thermometer 12 hours after sepsis induction.

Biochemical Analysis

Biochemical analysis were performed from whole blood samples collected (12 hours after sepsis induction) in tubes without anticoagulant, centrifuged (1,000 x g for 5 minutes) after the clot retraction and the serum frozen at -70°C until analysis. Serum levels of aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), phosphate, glucose and amylase were evaluated using standard commercial kits (Labtest Diagnóstica, Brazil) in a semi-automated spectrophotometer (Spectronic/Genesis 8).

TGF- β 1 Quantification

TGF- β 1 concentration was measured in serum samples collected from mice 12hours after sepsis induction, using commercially available ELISA kit (R&D Systems, USA). The kit contained a specific monoclonal antibody immobilized on a 96-well microtiter plate that bound TGF- β 1 in the aliquot and a second enzyme-conjugated specific polyclonal antibody. Following several washings in order to remove unbound substances and antibodies, a substrate solution was added to the wells. Color development was stopped by sulfuric acid, and optical density was determined at 540nm with the correction wavelength set at 570nm in an ELISA plate reader. Results were calculated according to a standard curve concentration and multiplied for the dilution factor. TGF- β 1 levels were expressed as picograms per milliliter.

Cytokines Quantification

To determine cytokine levels, serum samples was collected from mice 12 hours after sepsis induction. Multiple soluble cytokines interleucine 6 (IL-6),

interleucine 12 (IL-12 p70), interferon gamma (IFN- γ), tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α), interleucine 10 (IL-10) and monocyte chemoattractant protein 1 (MCP-1) were simultaneously measured by flow cytometry using the Cytometric Bead Array (CBA) Mouse Inflammation Kit (BD Biosciences, USA). Acquisition was performed with a FACSCanto II flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, USA). Quantitative results were generated using FCAP Array v1.0.1 software (Soft Flow Inc., Pecs, Hungary). The detection limit was 20 to 5 000 pg/mL.

Splenocytes Isolation

Single-cell suspensions of the removed spleens were prepared by passing the tissue through a 100 μ m pore size mesh Cellstrainer (Falcon, BD Biosciences, Germany). The suspension was cleared from erythrocytes by treatment with Gey's solution for 5 minutes, washed twice with PBS and re-suspended in ISCOVE's medium (PAA Laboratories GmbH, Germany) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal calf serum (FCS), 100 U/mL penicillin and 100 μ g/mL streptomycin (Invitrogen, USA). After counting splenocytes from individual mice, cells of each group were pooled by taking equal cell numbers from individual mice and adjusted to a concentration of 10^7 cells/mL (21).

Apoptosis Quantification

Apoptosis was assessed using the FITC Annexin V Apoptosis Detection Kit I (BD Bioscience, USA). Briefly, twelve hours after sepsis induction, spleens were removed and the splenocytes isolated (21). Cells were washed twice with PBS and resuspended in binding buffer before addition of annexin V-FITC and propidium iodide (PI). Cells were vortexed and incubated for 15 minutes in the dark at room temperature. A total of 10,000 events were acquired for each assayed sample. All data were acquired with a FACSCanto II flow cytometer (BD Biosciences). Data were analyzed using the FlowJo 7.2.5 software (Tree Star Inc., USA). Results are displayed as scatter dots allowing discrimination

between viable cells, apoptotic cells with an intact membrane and cells undergoing secondary necrosis.

Analysis of Mitochondrial Membrane Potential ($\Delta\Psi_m$)

Breakdown of $\Delta\Psi_m$ was determined by FACS analysis using the MitoScreen Kit (BD Biosciences, Germany). JC-1 (5,5,6,6-tetra-chloro-1,1,3,3-tetraethylbenzimidazol-carbocyanine iodide) dye, which is selectively incorporated into mitochondria, is a sensitive and reliable method to detect changes of the mitochondrial membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi_m$). Twelve hours after induction sepsis, spleens were removed and the splenocytes isolated (21). Cells were stained with 0.5 mL JC-1 solution for 15 minutes at 37°C. Stained splenocytes were washed twice in JC-1 MitoScreen wash buffer. A total of 10,000 events were acquired for each assayed sample. All data were obtained immediately after staining on a FACSCanto II flow cytometer with CellQuest PRO v4.0.2 software (BD Biosciences, Germany). Results are displayed as scatter dots allowing discrimination between polarized and depolarized cells.

Statistical Analysis

All data are expressed as mean \pm SEM. The statistical analysis were made by analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the Bonferroni post hoc. Survival data is presented as Kaplan Meier curves and the statistical significance was assessed by Mantel-Cox test. A level of $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant in all analysis. Statistical analyses were performed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, EUA) 18.0.

Results

MSCs treatment improves survival and organ injury function in experimental model of sepsis

Mice treated with MSCs had a significantly improved survival rate compared to the untreated group. The survival rate at 26 hours was nearly 54.5% in the sepsis + MSCs group, while in the sepsis group survival was 0% ($p < 0.001$) (**Figure 1**). Mice from both sepsis and sepsis + MSCs groups showed a decrease in their mean body temperature after twelve hours of septic induction. MSCs administration did not attenuate the decline in temperature compared to sham group ($p < 0.05$) (**Figure 2**).

Because the lethality of sepsis is associated with organ failure, we evaluated if treatment with MSCs was able to reduce tissue damage. The concentrations of liver enzymes (aspartate aminotransferase and alanine aminotransferase) were measured in serum. The septic induction showed an increase of AST and ALT in both groups, sepsis group and sepsis + MSCs group, when compared to sham group, however ALT levels in the sepsis + MSCs group was reduced when compared to the sepsis group ($p < 0.05$). This demonstrates that there was a reduction of liver damage (**Figure 3A, 3B**).

We also measured concentration of the serum amylase, which demonstrates the possible pancreatic damage. The sepsis group showed a significant increase compared with the sham group, but the sepsis + MSCs group did not have a significant increase compared with the sham group ($p < 0.05$). Once again, demonstrating the ability to prevent tissue damage exerted by MSCs (**Figure 4**).

During sepsis, there is the occurrence of an increase in insulin resistance generating hyperglycemia, which causes a decrease in energy intake. Therefore, we evaluated the glucose concentration 12 hours after induction of septic in all groups. When compared with the sham group, both groups, sepsis and sepsis + MSCs, showed a significant increase ($p < 0.05$). Demonstrating that

treatment with MSCs was not effective in preventing the increase of glycaemia **(Figure 5)**.

Hypophosphatemia has long been reported to be associated with sepsis and has been correlated with sepsis severity. We realized the dosage of serum phosphate in all groups; however, we did not find significant difference between the tested groups when compared with the sham group **(Figure 6)**.

Effect of MSCs on serum cytokine concentrations

Recent evidence suggests that MSCs may also exhibit immunosuppressive or immunomodulatory properties. Therefore, we studied multiple inflammatory cytokines (TNF- α , IL-12 p70, IFN- γ , IL-6 and MCP-1) and anti-inflammatory cytokines (IL-10 and TGF- β 1). All cytokines were analyzed in serum after 12hours after induction septic and injection of MSCs.

When we measured concentration of TNF- α we observed an increase in the sepsis group compared with the sham group ($p < 0.05$). In contrast, the sepsis + MSCs group did not show a significant increase compared with the sham group **(Figure 7A)**. IL-12, which is known to trigger other cytokines, have not had its bioactive form (p70) altered in sepsis and sepsis + MSCs groups, compared with the sham group **(Figure 7B)**. Consequently we had no significant alterations in the concentration of IFN- γ **(Figure 7C)**. However, IL-6 and MCP-1 concentrations had a significant increase in sepsis group compared to the sham group and the sepsis + MSCs group ($p < 0.05$) **(Figure 7D, 7E)**.

We measured the concentration of IL-10 and observed a significant increase in the sepsis + MSCs group, when compared with the sepsis group and the sham group ($p < 0.05$) **(Figure 7F)**. On the other hand, when we realized the dosage of another important player in the anti-inflammatory profile of MSCs, TGF- β 1, we found no significant difference between the sepsis + MSCs group and the sham group, but a significant increase in the sepsis group compared to the sham group ($p < 0.05$). The MSCs treatment prevents the increase of TGF- β 1 **(Figure 8)**.

MSCs prevents the increase of apoptosis in splenocytes during sepsis

During sepsis, there is extensive apoptotic death of lymphocytes and gastrointestinal epithelial cells. The increased apoptotic death of lymphocytes is likely to be an important cause of the profound immunosuppression that is a hallmark of patients with sepsis. The potential importance of apoptosis in the pathogenesis of sepsis is also illustrated by results from animal models that demonstrate that blocking lymphocyte apoptosis by using caspase inhibitors improves survival in sepsis. The potential effect of MSCs on apoptosis was analyzed in splenocytes (isolates of the three experimental groups after 12 hours after starting the experiment) by two different methods, one detecting apoptotic cells by measuring the translocation of phosphatidylserine to the outer cell membrane surface and a second measuring the impact on mitochondrial transmembrane potential ($\Delta\Psi_m$).

Flow cytometric analysis of the Annexin V labeling assay detected an increase of apoptotic cells in the sepsis group compared with the sham group ($p < 0.05$). The treatment with MSCs (sepsis + MSCs group) inhibited significantly the increase of apoptosis ($p < 0.05$ vs. sepsis group) (**Figure 9**).

To assess effects of treatment with MSCs on mitochondrial injury, we analyzed the $\Delta\Psi_m$ in splenocytes. Changes of $\Delta\Psi_m$ were determined by JC-1 staining of different experimental groups. The treatment did not provoke significant alteration of $\Delta\Psi_m$ between groups (**Figure 10**).

Discussion

The results (**Figure 1**) showed that whereas the mortality rate of the untreated septic group reached 100% in 26 hours, the septic animals treated with MSCs was only 54.5%. These data show that, by some mechanism, the mesenchymal stem cells affected the septic process, reducing the mortality rate of the animals. Therefore, we evaluated several mechanisms in order to elucidate how the mesenchymal stem cells may be acting during septic improving the survival time of the animals.

After 12 hours of the start of the experiment we realized the collection of material for biochemical and immunological analysis, but first we measured the body temperature of the animals under study. Hypothermia was found in both, the sepsis group and in the sepsis + MSCs group. These data are in contrast to data found in the study by Krasnodembskaya et al. (18), where stem cells that were able to prevent hypothermia. In this study Krasnodembskaya used stem cells derived from bone marrow of humans as a treatment for peritoneal sepsis model in mice using *P. aeruginosa*. These differences in study design may have been critical to find a different result in our experiment.

In the study developed by Nemeth et al. (17), it was demonstrated that stem cells derived from bone marrow have the capacity to reduce tissue injury in a model of sepsis (cecal ligation and puncture). Furthermore, studies performed by Poll et al. (16) demonstrated that MSCs therapy has profound inhibitory effects on hepatocellular death and enhances of liver regeneration programs, and that it ultimately improves survival in rats undergoing D-galactosamine–induced fulminant hepatic failure (FHF). Corroborating these results, we observe that in our experiment that stem cells derived from adipose tissue also had a positive response in preventing tissue injury through analysis of serological markers of liver injury (ALT and AST) and pancreas (amylase). These results have effective participation in the increased survival in animals treated with stem cells.

An important marker of severity of sepsis is hyperglycemia. Several studies in animals and septic patients are joining efforts to show that glycemic control can be effective as an adjuvant during the treatment of sepsis. Certain neuroendocrine and inflammatory mediators such as interleukin-1 (IL-1), interleukin-6 and tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) are involved in this hyperglycemia process (22-24). This profile of blood glucose increase was observed in the sepsis group and also the group treated with mesenchymal stem cells, demonstrating that MSCs had no influence on energy intake during the septic process.

The therapeutic benefit of MSCs transplantation has been observed in acute tissue injuries of the lung, heart, kidney and liver. In these disease contexts, MSCs have been observed to migrate to injured sites after systemic administration. Tissue-specific engraftment is referred to as homing, and this aspect of MSCs therapy in disease may be essential for their medicinal effects (25). The homing ability of MSCs has been demonstrated in the settings of wound healing, and tissue regeneration (7,26). It is likely that increased inflammatory chemokine concentration at the site of inflammation is a major factor causing MSCs to preferentially migrate to these sites. Chemokines are released after tissue damage, and MSCs express the receptors for several chemokines (7,27,28).

Hypophosphatemia has long been reported to be associated with sepsis and gram-negative infections. Hypophosphatemia develops in the early stages of sepsis and is correlated with the severity of the patient's clinical condition (29-31). We investigated the possibility of this reduction in serum phosphate during the septic process, however we did not observe any reduction in the septic group and no change in the group treated with mesenchymal stem cells for this parameter. Probably, this effect was not found because our experimental test is very severe, therefore, after 12 hours (time of sample collection) the animals are already in a state of late sepsis, and hypophosphatemia is found only in the early stages of sepsis.

Multiple studies have demonstrated that MSCs possess potent immunosuppressive effects by inhibiting the activity of both innate and adaptive

immune cells. This immunosuppression has been shown to be mediated by cell-contact-dependent and independent mechanisms through the release of soluble factors. The list of candidate mediators released or induced by MSCs includes TGF- β , prostaglandin E2 (PGE2), IL-10 among others (15,32). In this study we investigated the immunomodulatory capacity of stem cells in response to this imbalance inflammation during sepsis.

When we observe the profile of the inflammatory cytokines evaluated between groups of study, the group sepsis + MSCs had a significant reduction in the concentration of TNF- α , IL-6 and MCP-1 when compared with sepsis group. Several studies demonstrate the effective participation of these cytokines in inflammatory response during sepsis (14,33,34). TNF- α has several functions in the human immunopathology, since it produces inflammation, cell proliferation and differentiation, tumorigenesis, viral replication and inducing cell death by apoptosis through activation of caspase 8 - known as the extrinsic apoptosis pathway in sepsis (3). In clinical models of sepsis, the administration of TNF- α cause hypotension, activation of the coagulation cascade and organ dysfunction, confirming its role as a mediator in acute phase (35,36).

The role of IL-6 in sepsis resolution is uncertain, although most evidence points show more rapid declines in serum IL-6 being associated with sepsis resolution and improved outcome (37). In the cecal ligation/perforation (CLP) sepsis model, mice genetically deficient in MCP-1 showed lower IL-10 production in peritoneal macrophages and increased mortality (38). High serum levels of MCP-1 have been demonstrated in animal models of sepsis or *systemic inflammatory response syndrome* (SIRS), as well as in sepsis patients (39-41). In a recent study profiling a large number of cytokines in the plasma of patients with severe sepsis, MCP-1 levels showed the best correlation with organ dysfunction and mortality (42). MCP-1 is primarily a chemo attractant for monocytes, memory T lymphocytes, and natural killer cells, with some recent studies also pointing to a potential role in attracting neutrophils (43).

Nemeth et al. (17) found that bone-marrow-derived MSCs, activated by LPS or TNF- α , secreted PGE2, which reprogrammed alveolar macrophages to secrete IL-10. The beneficial effect of MSCs on mortality and improved organ

function following sepsis (CLP) was eliminated by macrophage depletion or pretreatment with antibodies to IL-10 or the IL-10 receptor, suggesting an essential role for IL-10. We performed the dosage of IL-10 in all the experimental groups and significant found increase of IL-10 in the septic group treated with stem cells corroborates with previous studies demonstrating the role of this anti-inflammatory cytokine is very important in increasing survival of the animals also in our model. Nemeth et al and Gonzalez et al. (17,44) previously demonstrated in septic mice treated with MSCs that increased IL-10 is one of the factors responsible for the reduced mortality and reduction of the inflammatory response.

Interestingly when we evaluated the concentration of TGF- β 1, another important anti-inflammatory mediator during sepsis. We found an increase in the sepsis group when compared to the sham group and a significant decrease concentrations in the sepsis + MSCs group when compared to the sepsis group. We believe this has occurred because our experimental model is very serious and material collection was performed after 12 hours of the start of the experiment. Therefore, these animals may be in a phase of transition from the first stage of sepsis where we have a hyper-inflammatory response and the second phase where we have an anti-inflammatory immune response that disables most immune functions by altering cytokine production, reduction of lymphocyte proliferation and increasing apoptosis (45).

Based in ours results, we decided to evaluate the effect of the MSCs in cellular apoptosis. We performed the dissection of the spleens of mice and isolated splenocytes to check if had more apoptotic cells in the septic group in contrast to the septic group treated with MSCs. We used two sets of flow cytometry, which one evaluates apoptosis through changes in mitochondrial membrane potential and the other by marking phosphatidylserine in the cell membrane.

Apoptosis is a major cause of death in lymphocytes and gastrointestinal epithelial cells in patients with sepsis and trauma. Immunohistochemical studies of spleens from patients dying of sepsis demonstrated focal regions in which 25–50% of cells were positive for markers of apoptosis (46). A study of

circulating white blood cells from patients with sepsis showed that 15–20% of circulating T and B cells were undergoing apoptosis (47). Studies by Hotchkiss et al. showed that adoptive transfer of splenocytes apoptotic worsen survival using CLP as experimental model of sepsis (48).

Stem cells possess anti-apoptotic mechanisms such as upregulating DNA-repair, down-regulating mitochondrial death pathways, increasing antioxidant activity, and altering anti- and pro-apoptotic protein expression. These mechanisms would be especially important in sepsis, where mitochondrial damage, oxidative stress, and apoptosis have clearly been implicated in pathology (7). Mei et al. (13) revealed the capacity of MSCs to prevent apoptotic cell death in the lung and kidneys of mice after cecal ligation and puncture (CLP).

After completion of the analysis it was possible to observe in the sepsis group a significant increase in the number of apoptotic cells compared with the group treated with stem cells. In contrast, the kit for checking the mitochondrial potential was an increase in the number of apoptotic cells however was not statistically significant. These findings corroborate several previous studies and show that MSCs are able to prevent this increase gives apoptosis during sepsis "delaying" the start of immunosuppression thereby helping to increase the survival time of the animals.

Conclusions

In conclusion, the treatment with mesenchymal stem cells derived from adipose tissue was able to increase the survival time of septic-induced animals. Our data showed that MSCs act modulating the immune system, inhibiting cell apoptosis and, consequently, inhibiting tissue damage during sepsis. These results corroborate other studies published showing the great potential that these cells have for treating sepsis, but more efforts are needed so that we can better understand routes by which these cells operate so that in future we can think of using them in medical clinic.

Aknowlodgements

This work was supported by CAPES (Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior). The authors thank Msc Stéphanie Gallo and Lucas Bortolotto Rizzo for their technical support. The authors also thank Dr. Eduardo Pedrazza for his assistance.

Legends

Figure 1 – Kaplan-Meier survival curve showed the mice sepsis-induced treated with MSCs had a significantly improved survival rate compared to the mice untreated ($p < 0.001$). $n = 15$ for each group.

Figure 2 – Body temperature in different experimental groups. $n = 22$ for each group. * $p < 0.05$ vs. sham group.

Figure 3 – Serum AST (A) and ALT (B) concentrations in different experimental groups. $n = 7$ for each group. * $p < 0.05$ vs. sham group. \$ $p < 0.05$ vs. sepsis group.

Figure 4 – Serum amylase concentration in different experimental groups. * $p < 0.05$ vs. sham group. $n = 6$ for each group. \$ $p < 0.05$ vs. sepsis group.

Figure 5 – Serum glucose concentration in different experimental groups. $n = 6$ for each group. * $p < 0.05$ vs. sham group.

Figure 6 – Serum phosphate concentration in different experimental groups. $n = 10$ for each group.

Figure 7 – Serum TNF- α (A), IL-12 (B), IFN- γ (C), IL-6 (D), MCP-1 (E) and IL-10 (F) concentration in different experimental groups. $n = 15$ for each group. * $p < 0.05$ vs. sham group. \$ $p < 0.05$ vs. sepsis group.

Figure 8 – Serum TGF- β 1 concentration in different experimental groups. n = 10 for each group. * p<0.05 vs. sham group. \$ p<0.05 vs. sepsis group.

Figure 9 – Apoptotic cells was assessed using the FITC Annexin V (A) in different experimental groups. n = 10 for each group. * p<0.05 vs. sham group. \$ p<0.05 vs. sepsis group. Thereunder, flow cytometric scatter plot of FITC-annexin V/PI stained sham group cells (B), sepsis group cells (C) and MSCs-treated group (D). Representative experiment for each group.

Figure 10 – Mitochondrial apoptotic cells was assessed using the FACS analysis (A) in different experimental groups. n = 11 for each group. Thereunder, flow cytometric scatter plot of the MSCs impact on $\Delta\Psi_m$: sham group (B), sepsis group (C) or MSCs-treated group (D). Representative experiment for each group.

Figures

Figure 1

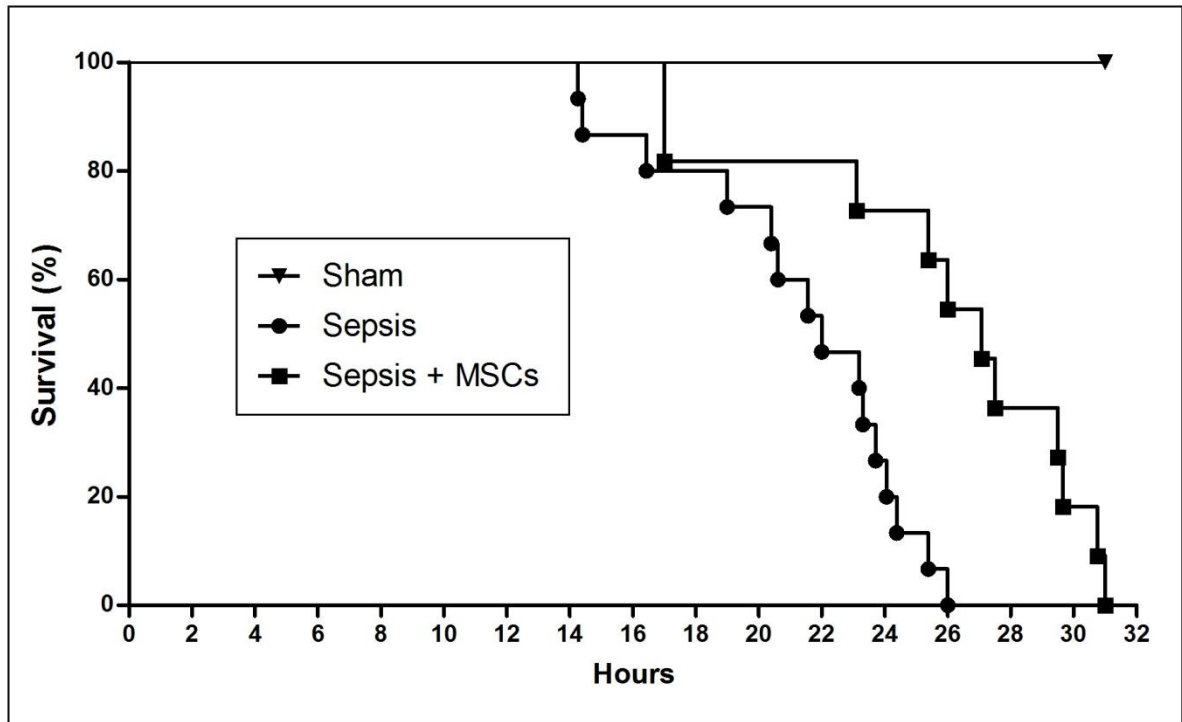


Figure 2

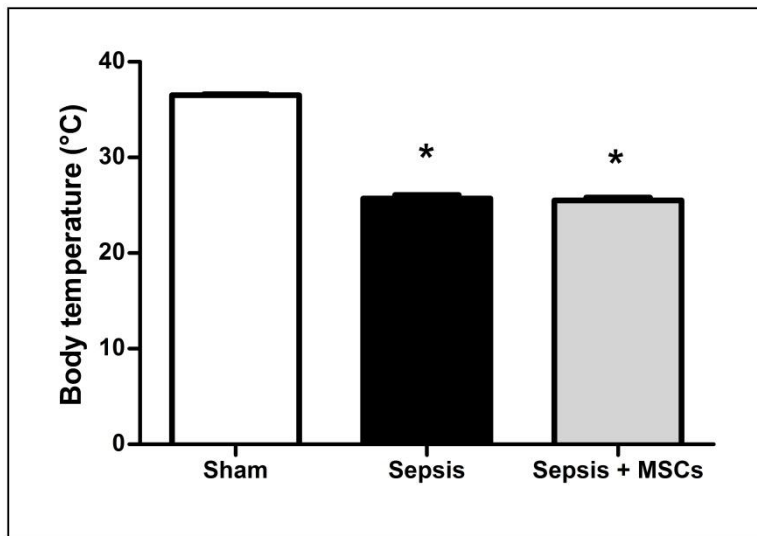


Figure 3

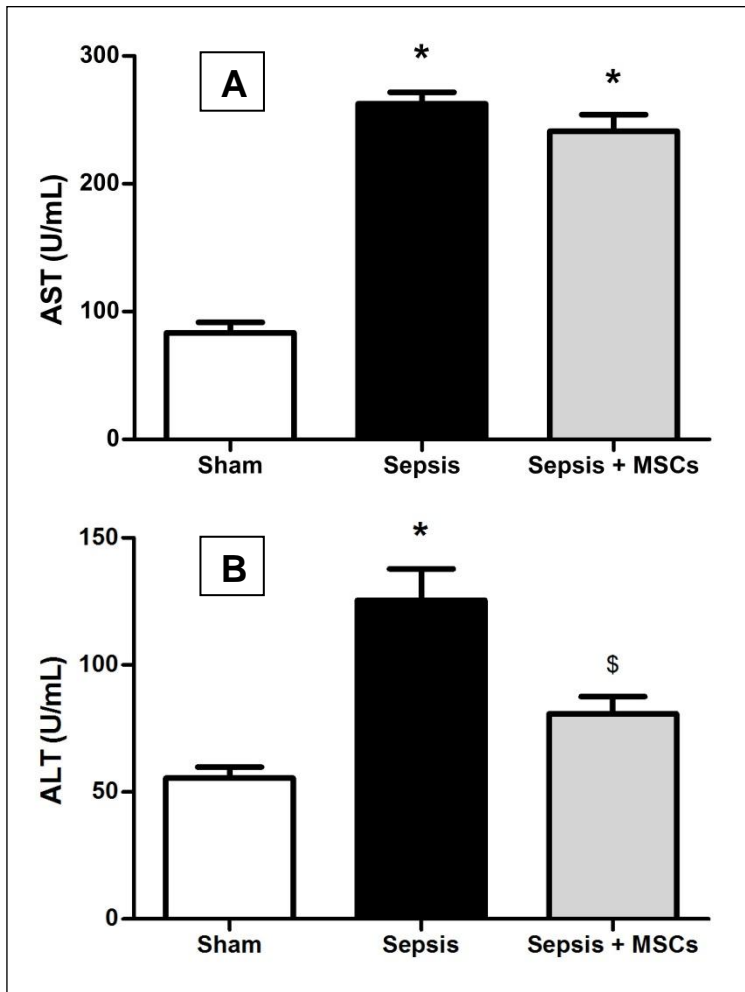


Figure 4

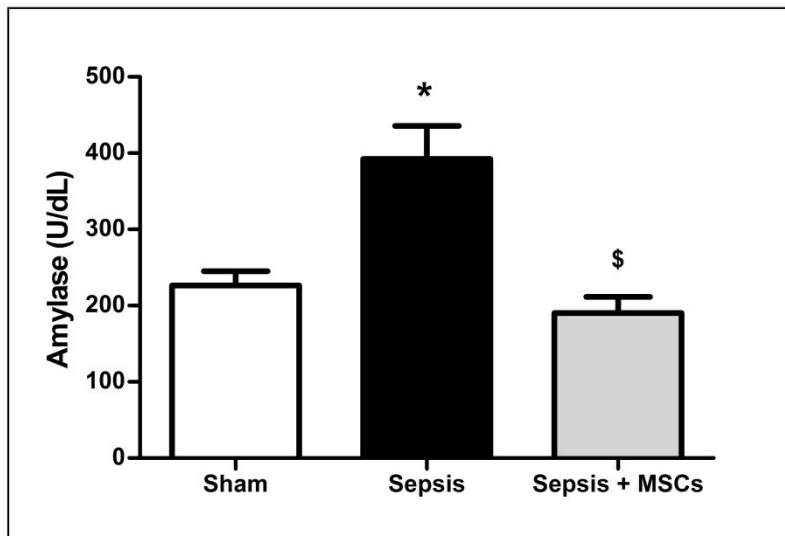


Figure 5

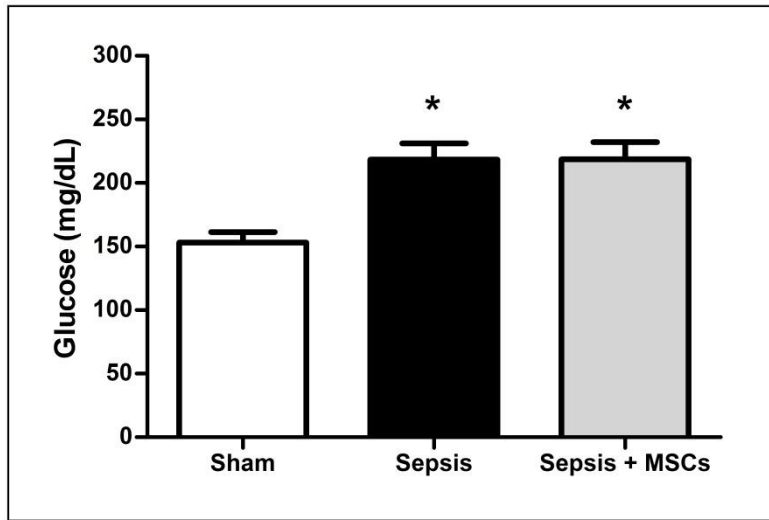


Figure 6

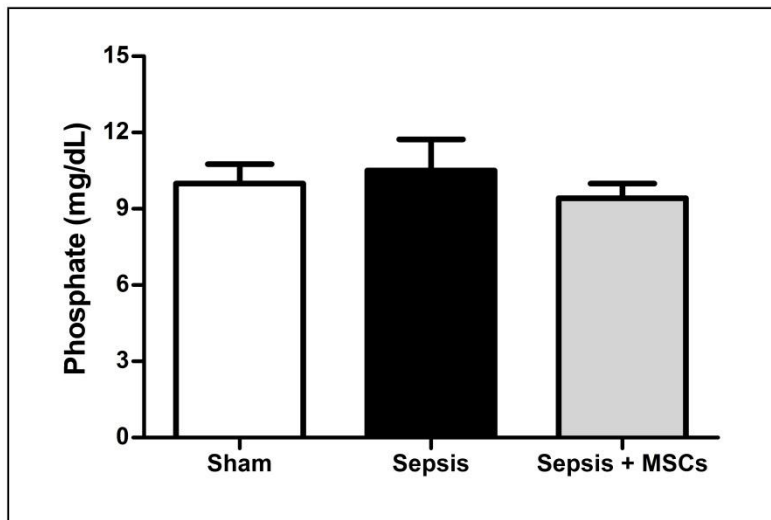


Figure 7

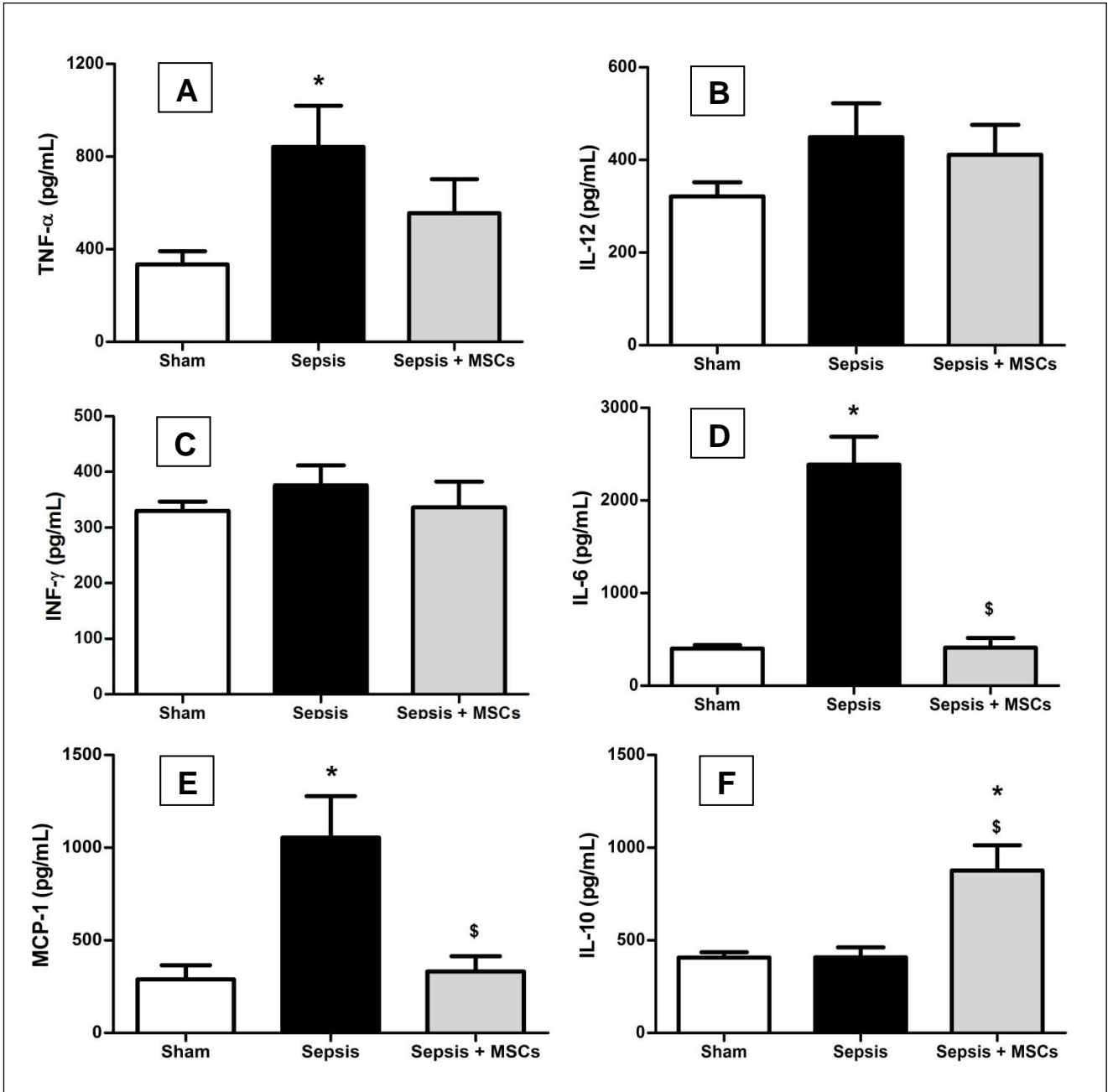


Figure 8

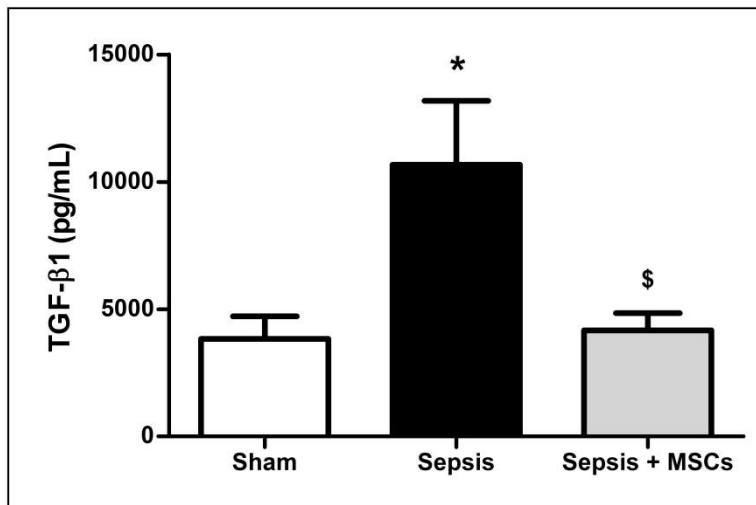


Figure 9

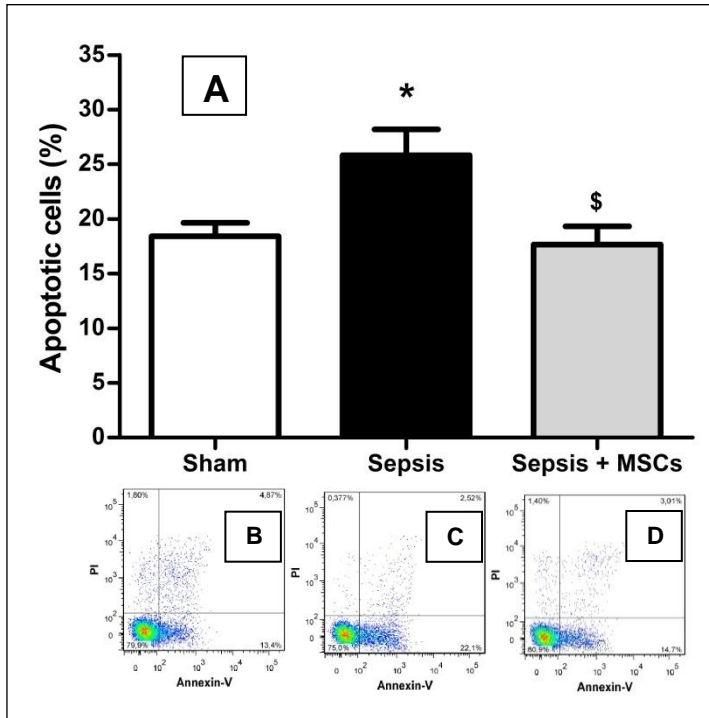
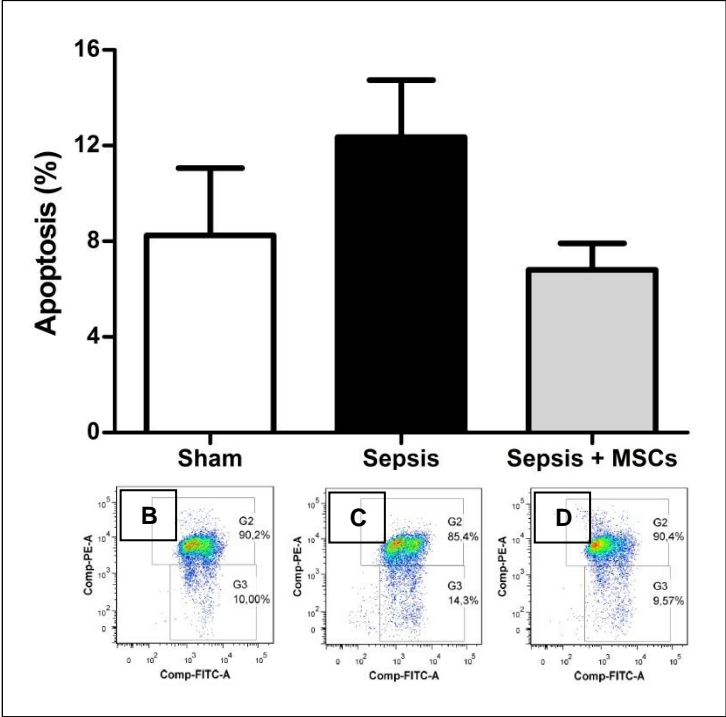


Figure 10



References

1. Angus DC, Linde-Zwirble WT, Lidicker JMA, et al: Epidemiology of severe sepsis in the United States: Analysis of incidence, outcome, and associated costs of care. *Critical Care Medicine* 2001; 29:1303-1310
2. Nguyen HB, Rivers EP, Abrahamian FM, et al: Severe sepsis and septic shock: review of the literature and emergency department management guidelines. *Annals of Emergency Medicine* 2006; 48:28-54
3. Hotchkiss RS, Nicholson DW: Apoptosis and caspases regulate death and inflammation in sepsis. *Nature* 2006; 6:813-822
4. Oberholzer A, Oberholzer C, Moldawer LL: Sepsis syndromes: understanding the role of innate and acquired immunity. *Shock* 2001; 16:83-96
5. Huttunen R, Aittoniemi J: New concepts in the pathogenesis, diagnosis and treatment of bacteremia and sepsis. *Journal of Infection* 2011; 63:407-419
6. Rimmelé T, Kellum JA: Clinical review: Blood purification for sepsis. *Critical Care* 2011; 15:205
7. Wannemuehler TJ, Manukyan MC, Brewster BD, et al: Advances in mesenchymal stem cell research in sepsis. *Journal of Surgical Research* 2011; 173:113–126
8. Gerlach H, Toussaint S: Managing septic shock. *F1000 Medicine Reports* 2010; 2:40
9. Barry FP, Murphy JM: Mesenchymal stem cells: clinical applications and biological characterization. *The International Journal of Biochemistry & Cell Biology* 2004; 36:568–584
10. Baksh D, Song L, Tuan RS: Adult mesenchymal stem cells: characterization, differentiation, and application in cell and gene therapy. *J Cell Mol Med* 2004; 8:301-316

11. Wang M, Crisostomo PR, Herring C, et al: Human progenitor cells from bone marrow or adipose tissue produce VEGF, HGF and IGF-1 in response to TNF by a p38 mitogen activated protein kinase dependent mechanism. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2006; 291:880-884
12. Weil BR, Manukyan MC, Herrmann JL, et al: Mesenchymal stem cells attenuate myocardial functional depression and reduce systemic and myocardial inflammation during endotoxemia. *Surgery* 2010; 148:444-452
13. Mei SHJ, McCarter SD, Deng Y, et al: Prevention of LPS-induced acute lung injury in mice by mesenchymal stem cells Overexpressing Angiopoietin 1. *PLoS Medicine* 2007; 4:1525-1537
14. Soleymaninejadia E, Pramanik K, Samadian E: Immunomodulatory properties of mesenchymal stem cells: cytokines and factors. *American Journal of Reproductive Immunology* 2012; 67:1-8
15. Lee JW, Gupta N, Serikov V, et al: Potential application of mesenchymal stem cells in acute lung injury. *Expert Opin Biol Ther* 2009; 9:1259–1270
16. van Poll D, Parekkadan B, Cho CH, et al: Mesenchymal stem cell-derived molecules directly modulate hepatocellular death and regeneration in vitro and in vivo. *Hepatology* 2008; 47:1634-1643
17. Németh K, Leelahavanichkul A, Yuen PST, et al: Bone marrow stromal cells attenuate sepsis via prostaglandin E2 - dependent reprogramming of host macrophages to increase their interleukin-10 production. *Nat Med* 2009; 15:42–49
18. Krasnodembskaya A, Samarani G, Song Y, et al: Human mesenchymal stem cells reduce mortality and bacteremia in gram negative sepsis in mice in part by enhancing the phagocytic activity of blood monocytes. *Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol* 2012; 302:1003-1013
19. Yanez R, Lamana ML, Garcia-Castro J, et al: Adipose tissue-derived mesenchymal stem cells have in vivo immunosuppressive properties applicable for the control of the graft-versus-host disease. *Stem Cells* 2006; 24:2582-2591

20. Zuk PA, Zhu M, Mizuno H, et al: Multilineage cells from human adipose tissue: implications for cell-based therapies. *Tissue Eng* 2001; 7:211–228
21. Schulz SM, Köhler G, Holscher C, et al: IL-17A is produced by Th17, $\gamma\delta$ T cells and other CD42 lymphocytes during infection with *Salmonella enterica* serovar Enteritidis and has a mild effect in bacterial clearance. *International Immunology* 2008; 20:1129–1138
22. Ellger B, Debaveye Y, Vanhorebeek I, et al: Survival benefits of intensive insulin therapy in critical illness: impact of maintaining normoglycemia versus glycemia-independent actions of insulin. *Diabetes* 2006; 55:1096–1105
23. Branco RG, Tasker RC, Garcia PC, et al: Glycemic control and insulin therapy in sepsis and critical illness. *J Pediatr (Rio J)* 2007; 83:128-136
24. Mizock BA: Alterations in fuel metabolism in critical illness: hyperglycaemia. *Best Practice & Research Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism* 2001; 15:533-551
25. Yagi H, Soto-Gutierrez A, Parekkadan B, et al: Mesenchymal stem cells: mechanisms of immunomodulation and homing. *Cell Transplant* 2010; 19:667–679
26. Mizuno H: Adipose-derived stem cells for tissue repair and regeneration: ten years of research and a literature review. *J Nippon Med Sch* 2009; 76:56-66
27. Askari AT, Unzek S, Popovic ZB, et al: Effect of stromal-cell-derived factor 1 on stem-cell homing and tissue regeneration in ischaemic cardiomyopathy. *Lancet* 2003; 362:697–703
28. Rojas M, Xu J, Woods CR, et al: Bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells in repair of the injured lung. *Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol* 2005; 33:145-152
29. Shor R, Halabe A, Rishver S, et al: Severe hypophosphatemia in sepsis as a mortality predictor. *Annals of Clinical & Laboratory Science* 2006; 36:67-72
30. von Landenberg P, Shoenfeld Y: New approaches in the diagnosis of sepsis. *Isr Med Assoc J* 2001; 3:439-442

31. Schwartz A, Gurman GM, Cohen G, et al: Association between hypophosphatemia and cardiac arrhythmias in the early stages of sepsis. *European Journal of Internal Medicine* 2002; 13:434-438
32. Lee JW, Fang X, Krasnodembskaya A, et al: Concise review: mesenchymal stem cells for acute lung injury: role of paracrine soluble factors. *Stem Cells* 2011; 29:913–919
33. Hoogduijn MJ, Popp F, Verbeek R, et al: The immunomodulatory properties of mesenchymal stem cells and their use for immunotherapy. *International Immunopharmacology* 2010; 10:1496-1500
34. Ren G, Zhang L, Zhao X, et al: Mesenchymal stem cell-mediated immunosuppression occurs via concerted action of chemokines and nitric oxide. *Cell Stem Cell* 2008; 2:141-150
35. Muenzer JT, Davis CG, Chang K, et al: Characterization and modulation of the immunosuppressive phase of sepsis. *Infect Immun* 2010; 78:1582-1592
36. Qiu P, Cui X, Barochia A, et al: The evolving experience with therapeutic TNF inhibition in sepsis: considering the potential influence of risk of death. *Expert Opin Investig Drugs* 2011; 20:1555-1564
37. Webb S: The role of mediators in sepsis resolution. *Advances in sepsis* 2002; 2:8-14
38. Gomes RN, Figueiredo RT, Bozza FA, et al: Increased susceptibility to septic and endotoxic shock in monocyte chemoattractant protein 1/CC chemokine ligand 2-deficient mice correlates with reduced interleukin 10 and enhanced macrophage migration inhibitory factor production. *Shock* 2006; 26:457-463
39. Matsukawa A, Hogaboam CM, Lukacs NW, et al: Endogenous monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1) protects mice in a model of acute septic peritonitis: cross-talk between MCP-1 and leukotriene B4. *The Journal of Immunology* 1999; 163:6148–6154

40. Matsukawa A, Hogaboam CM, Lukacs NW, et al: Endogenous MCP-1 influences systemic cytokine balance in a murine model of acute septic peritonitis. *Experimental and Molecular Pathology* 2000; 68:77–84
41. Bossink AWJ, Paemen L, Jansen PM, et al: Plasma levels of the chemokines monocyte chemoattractant proteins-1 and -2 are elevated in human sepsis. *Blood* 1995; 86:3841-3847
42. Bozza FA, Salluh JI, Japiassu AM, et al: Cytokine profiles as markers of disease severity in sepsis: a multiplex analysis. *Critical Care* 2007; 11:R49
43. Speyer CL, Gao H, Rancilio NJ, et al: Novel chemokine responsiveness and mobilization of neutrophils during sepsis. *The American Journal of Pathology* 2004; 165:2187-2196
44. Gonzalez-Rey E, Anderson P, González MA, et al: Human adult stem cells derived from adipose tissue protect against experimental colitis and sepsis. *Gut* 2009; 58:929–939
45. Monneret G: How to identify systemic sepsis-induced immunoparalysis. *Advances in Sepsis* 2005; 4:42-49
46. Hotchkiss RS, Tinsley KW, Swanson PE, et al: Sepsis-induced apoptosis causes progressive profound depletion of B and CD4+ T lymphocytes in humans. *J Immunol* 2001; 166:6952-6963
47. Le Tulzo Y, Pangault C, Gacouin A, et al: Early circulating lymphocyte apoptosis in human septic shock is associated with poor outcome. *Shock* 2002; 18:487-494
48. Hotchkiss RS, Chang KC, Grayson MH, et al: Adoptive transfer of apoptotic splenocytes worsens survival, whereas adoptive transfer of necrotic splenocytes improves survival in sepsis. *PNAS* 2003; 100:6724-6729

Capítulo 3

Considerações Finais

CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

A sepse, uma doença considerada como uma resposta exacerbada sistêmica à infecção, é a principal causa de morte em unidades de cuidados intensivos. Apenas nos Estados Unidos a cada ano ocorrem 750.000 novos casos sendo que 210.000 pessoas morrem anualmente devido a esta síndrome. Além disso, tem sido sugerido que este número é maior em países menos desenvolvidos tais como os da América Latina. No Brasil, relatórios epidemiológicos demonstram taxas de mortalidade que chegam a 56%⁶⁴.

Alertado nos últimos anos pela morbidade e mortalidade decorrentes da sepse, principalmente por deficiências dos atuais regimes terapêuticos, pesquisadores se voltaram à terapia baseada em células como uma nova abordagem para o tratamento da sepse. Embora inicialmente acreditava-se que o maior potencial de células-tronco residia na sua capacidade de enxertar e se diferenciar em tipos de células de órgãos lesados, elas também exibem uma gama de habilidades benéficas, incluindo migração para locais lesionados, modulação da cascata inflamatória, prevenção de apoptose celular nos tecidos, promoção da neoangiogênese, ativação de células-tronco residentes e a modulação da atividade de vários tipos celulares do sistema imunológico⁶⁵.

Considerando esse potencial terapêutico exercido pelas células-tronco, este trabalho teve como objetivo verificar a capacidade destas células de funcionarem como um possível tratamento para sepse, utilizando um modelo de sepse experimental em camundongos. Os objetivos principais foram: avaliar a capacidade do tratamento com células-tronco mesenquimais em aumentar a

sobrevida dos animais, a capacidade de diminuir a lesão tecidual, avaliar o potencial imunomodulador destas células durante a sepse e a capacidade de alterar os níveis de apoptose celular.

Para verificar o possível efeito benéfico destas células para o tratamento da sepse nós realizamos uma curva de sobrevida dividindo os animais em três grupos: controle (sham), animais sépticos (sepse) e animais sépticos tratados com células-tronco mesenquimais (sepse + MSCs). Após 16 horas de experimento evidenciamos que no grupo sepse + MSCs 60% dos animais encontravam-se vivos enquanto que no grupo sepse apenas 20% dos animais estavam com vida. Este resultado nos levou a buscar possíveis explicações para esta diminuição de mortalidade no grupo tratado com células-tronco.

Nós realizamos a dosagem de dois marcadores que se correlacionam com a severidade séptica, glicose e fosfato, entretanto não encontramos nenhuma diferença significativa quando comparados os grupo sepse e sepse + MSCs. Entretanto, quando nós realizamos a dosagem de marcadores de lesão tecidual do fígado (ALT e AST) e do pâncreas (amilase) nós observamos que o grupo sepse + MSCs teve uma diminuição destes marcadores quando comparados com o grupo sepse. Estes resultados corroboram com estudos anteriores, demonstrando o efeito protetor das células MSCs e uma das possíveis ações benéficas do tratamento durante a sepse⁴⁵.

Para verificar se as células MSCs possuíam efeito importante sobre o quadro inflamatório, nós avaliamos diversos marcadores inflamatórios e anti-inflamatórios envolvidos durante a sepse. O tratamento com as células-tronco mesenquimais foi efetivo na redução de três marcadores inflamatórios TNF- α ,

IL-6 e MCP-1. Diversos estudos demonstram papel fundamental de destas citocinas na inflamação sistêmica, na correlação de níveis elevados com piores prognósticos e no envolvimento na apoptose celular^{66,67}.

Corroborando com o potencial imunomodulador observado, os animais tratados com células-tronco (sepse + MSCs) tiveram um aumento de IL-10, descrita como fundamental nos efeitos benéficos das células-tronco mesenquimais durante o curso da sepse experimental⁴⁵. Entretanto, quando observamos a dosagem de TGF- β , citocina anti-inflamatória, nós observamos um aumento significativo no grupo sepse quando comparado com o grupo sham e uma reversão desse aumento no grupo sepse + MSCs. Nós acreditamos que, devido à severidade do modelo empregado, estes animais podem estar em uma fase de transição entre a primeira etapa de sepse, onde temos uma resposta hiper-inflamatória e a segunda fase, onde temos uma resposta imune anti-inflamatória onde ocorrem alterações das funções imunitárias através da alteração da produção de citocinas, redução da proliferação de linfócitos e aumento da apoptose.

Para avaliar se realmente poderíamos ter um aumento de células apoptóticas maior nos animais do grupo sepse, nós realizamos através de citometria de fluxo a verificação do número de esplenócitos em apoptose em todos os grupos em experimentação. Nossos achados demonstraram que o grupo sepse teve uma maior quantidade de células em apoptose quando comparados com o grupo sham e que os animais tratados com células-troncos mesenquimais (grupo sepse + MSCs) diminuíram a quantidade de células apoptóticas. Este resultado demonstra mais um efeito benéfico do tratamento com estas células e evidencia a diversidade de ação das mesmas. Estudos

anteriores realizados por Hotchkiss e colaboradores demonstraram que a injeção de esplenócitos em apoptose diminuiu o tempo de sobrevivência de camundongos em um modelo de sepse experimental o que corrobora com nossos resultados⁶⁸.

Podemos sugerir com este estudo que as células-tronco mesenquimais podem funcionar futuramente como uma possível alternativa para o tratamento da sepse. Ficou evidenciado claramente que o tratamento aumentou a sobrevivência dos animais através da modulação do sistema imune e por esta razão reduziu o dano tecidual e o número de células apoptóticas. Cabe salientar que mais estudos devem ser realizados para aprofundar o conhecimento dos mecanismos pelos quais estas células agem. Isso se torna pertinente, pois fica claro o grande potencial que estas células têm em exercerem diferentes efeitos benéficos no tratamento da sepse.

REFERÊNCIAS BIBLIOGRÁFICAS

1. Bone RC. The pathogenesis of sepsis. *Ann International Med* 1991; 115: 457-469.
2. Majano G. The ancient riddle of sepsis. *J Infec Dis* 1991; 163: 937.
3. Tilney NL, Bailey GL, Morgan AP. Sequential system failure after rupture of AAA: an unsolved problem in postoperative care. *Ann Surg* 1973; 178: 117-122.
4. Baue AE. Multiple, progressive or sequential systems failure: a syndrome of the 1970s. *Arch Surg* 1975; 110: 779-781.
5. American College of Chest Physicians/Society of Critical Care Medicine Consensus Conference: Definitions for sepsis and organ failure and guidelines for the use of innovative therapies in sepsis. *Chest* 1992; 101: 1644-1655.
6. Levy MM, Fink MP, Marshall JC, Abraham E, Angus D, Cook D, et al. SCCM/ESICM/ACCP/ATS/SIS International Sepsis Definitions Conference. *Crit Care Med* 2003; 31:1250-1256.
7. Martin GS, Mannino DM, Eaton S, Moss M. The epidemiology of sepsis in the United States from 1979 through 2000. *N Eng J Med* 2003; 348:1546-1554.
8. Leclerc F, Martinot A, Fourier C. Definitions, risk factors, and outcome of sepsis in children. In: Tibboel D, van der Voort E, editores. *Update in Intensive Care and Emergency Medicine* 25. Intensive care in Childhood. A Challenge to the Future. Berlin: Springer-Verlag 1996; 227-238.

9. Bochud PY, Calandra T. Pathogenesis of sepsis: new concepts and implications for future treatment. *BMJ* 2003; 326: 262-266.
10. Jacobs RF, Sowell MK, Moss M, Fiser DH. Septic shock in children: bacterial etiologies and temporal relationships. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 1990; 9:196-200.
11. Proulx F, Fayon M, Farrell CA, Lacroix J, Gauthier M. Epidemiology of sepsis and multiple organ dysfunction syndrome in children. *Chest* 1996; 109: 1033-1037.
12. Silva E, et al. Brazilian Sepsis Epidemiological Study. *Crit Care* 2004; 8: 251-260.
13. Bone RC. The pathogenesis of sepsis. *Ann Intern Méd* 1991; 115: 457-469.
14. European Society of Intensive Care Medicine. The problems of sepsis. *Intensive Care Med* 1994; 20: 300-304.
15. Thijs LG et al. Time course of cytokine levels in sepsis. *Intensive Care Med* 1995; 21: S258-S263.
16. Dinarello CA. Proinflammatory and anti-inflammatory cytokines as mediators in the pathogenesis of septic shock. *Chest* 1997; 112: 321-329.
17. Walley KR; Lukacs NW; Standiford TJ; Strieter RM & Kunkel SL. Balanced of inflammatory cytokines related to severity and mortality of murine sepsis. *Infect Immun* 1996; 64: 4733-4738.
18. Hinshaw LB. Sepsis / Septic shock: Participation of the microcirculation: Na abbreviated review. *Crit Care Med* 1996; 24: 1072-1078.
19. Rubanyi GM. Fatores derivados do endotélio no choque. *Clín Bras Med Intensiva* 1996; 3: 13-26.

20. Moldawer LL. Biology of proinflammatory cytokines and their antagonists. Crit Care Med 1994; 22: S3-S7.
21. Fong Y et al. The biologic characteristics of cytokines and their implication in surgical injury. Surg Gynecol Obstet 1990; 170: 363-378.
22. Hotchkiss, R. S. et al. Apoptotic cell death in patients with sepsis, shock, and multiple organ dysfunction. Crit. Care Med. 1999; 27: 1230–1251.
23. Oberholzer, C. et al. Targeted adenovirus-induced expression of IL-10 decreases thymic apoptosis and improves survival in murine sepsis. Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA 98 2001; 11503–11508.
24. Hotchkiss, R. S. et al. Apoptosis in lymphoid and parenchymal cells during sepsis: findings in normal and T- and B-cell-deficient mice. Crit. Care Med. 1997; 25: 1298–1307.
25. Oberholzer, C., Oberholzer, A., Clare-Salzler, M. & Moldawer, L. L. Apoptosis in sepsis: a new target for therapeutic exploration. FASEB J. 2001; 15: 879–892.
26. Coopersmith, C. et al. Inhibition of intestinal epithelial apoptosis and survival in a murine model of pneumonia-induced sepsis. JAMA 2002; 287: 1716–1721.
27. Lederer, J. A., Rodrick, M. L. & Mannick, J. A. The effects of injury on the adaptive immune response. Shock 1999; 11: 153–159.
28. Oberholzer, A., Oberholzer, C. & Moldawer, L. L. Sepsis syndromes: understanding the role of innate and acquired immunity. Shock 2001; 16: 83–96.

29. Voll, R. E. et al. Immunosuppressive effects of apoptotic cells. *Nature* 1997; 390: 350–351.
30. Fadok, V. A. et al. Macrophages that have ingested apoptotic cells in vitro inhibit proinflammatory cytokine production through autocrine/paracrine mechanisms involving TGF- β , PGE₂, and PAF. *J. Clin. Invest.* 1998; 101: 890–898.
31. Green, D. R. & Beere, H. M. Gone but not forgotten. *Nature* 2000; 405: 28–29.
32. Albert, M. L. Death-defying immunity: do apoptotic cells influence antigen processing and presentation? *Nature Rev. Immunol.* 2004; 4: 223–231.
33. Hotchkiss, R. S. et al. Adoptive transfer of apoptotic splenocytes worsens survival, whereas adoptive transfer of necrotic splenocytes improves survival in sepsis. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 100 2003; 6724–6729.
34. Watanabe E, Muenzer JT, Hawkins WG, Davis CG, Dixon DJ, McDunn JE, et al. Sepsis induces extensive autophagic vacuolization in hepatocytes: a clinical and laboratory-based study. *Laboratory Investigation* 2009; 89: 549–561.
35. Wagner F, Radermacher P, Georgieff M, Calzia E. Sepsis therapy: what's the best for the mitochondria?. *Critical Care* 2008; 171(12).
36. Chvojka J, Sýkora R, Karvunidis R, Raděj J, Kroužecký A, Novák I, Matějovič M. New developments in septic acute kidney injury. *Physiol Res* 2010; 59: 859-869.

37. Rudiger A, Stotz M, Singer M, (2008). Cellular processes in sepsis. Swiss Medical Weekly 2008; 138 (43-44):629-634.
38. Regueira T, Andresen M, Djafarzadeh S. Disfunción mitocondrial em sepsis, impacto y posible papel regulador del factor inducible por hipoxia (HIF-1a). Med Intensiva 2009; 33(8): 385-392.
39. Brealey D, Karyampudi S, Jacques TS, Novelli M, Stidwill R, Taylor V, et al. Mitochondrial dysfunction in along-term rodent model of sepsis and organ failure. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 2004; 286: 491-497.
40. Sursal T, Junger W, et al. Circulating Mitochondrial DAMPs Cause Inflammatory Responses to Injury. Nature 2010; 464(7285): 104–107.
41. Carvalho PRA, Trotta EA. Avanços no diagnóstico e tratamento da sepse. Jornal de Pediatria. 2003; 79(2): S195-S204.
42. Bochud PY, Glauser MP, Calandra T. Antibiotics in sepsis. Intens Care Med 2001; 27: 33-48.
43. Sáez-Llorens X, McCracken GH. Sepsis syndrome and septic shock in pediatrics: current concepts of terminology, pathophysiology, and management. J Pediatr 1993; 123: 497-508. 36
44. Friedenstein AJ, Petrakova KV, Kurolesova AI, et al: Heterotopic of bone marrow. Analysis of precursor cells for osteogenic and hematopoietic tissues. Transplantation 1968; 6: 230-247.
45. Németh K, Leelahavanichkul A, Yuen PST, Mayer B, Parmelee A, Doi K, et al. Bone marrow stromal cells attenuate sepsis via prostaglandin E2—dependent reprogramming of host macrophages to increase their interleukin-10 production. Nat Med 2009; 15(1): 42–49.

46. Rey EG, Anderson P, González MA, Rico L, Büscher D, Delgado M. Human adult stem cells derived from adipose tissue protect against experimental colitis and sepsis. *Gut* 2009; 58:929-939.
47. Tyndall A, Pistoia V. Mesenchymal stem cells combat sepsis. *Nat Med* 2009; 15(1): 18-19.
48. Abarbanell AM, Kelly ML, Meldrum DR. Stem Cells in Sepsis. *Annals of Surgery* 2009; 250(1): 19-27.
49. LL Lu, YJ Liu, SG Yang, QJ Zhao, X Wang, W Gong, et al. Isolation and characterization of human umbilical cord mesenchymal stem cells with hematopoiesis-supportive function and other potentials. *Haematologica* 2006; 91(8):1017-26.
50. Zuk PA, Zhu M, Mizuno H, Huang J, Futrell JW, Katz AJ, et al. Multilineage cells from human adipose tissue: Implications for cell-based therapies. *Tissue Eng* 2001; 7: 211-228.
51. Mizuno H. Adipose derived Stem Cells for Tissue Repair and Regeneration: Ten Years of Research and a Literature Review. *J Nippon Med Sch* 2009; 76: 56-66.
52. Niemeyer P, Vohrer J, Schmal H, et al. Survival of human mesenchymal stromal cells from bone marrow and adipose tissue after xenogenic transplantation in immunocompetent mice. *Cytotherapy*. 2008;1–12.
53. Nauta AJ, Fibbe WE. Immunomodulatory properties of mesenchymal stromal cells. *Blood*. 2007;110:3499–3506.
54. Crisostomo PR, Markel TA, Wang Y, et al. Surgically relevant aspects of stem cell paracrine effects. *Surgery*. 2008;143:577–581.

55. Wang M, Tsai BM, Crisostomo PR, et al. Pretreatment with adult progenitor cells improves recovery and decreases native myocardial proinflammatory signaling after ischemia. *Shock*. 2006;25:454–459.
56. Guo J, Lin GS, Bao CY, et al. Anti-inflammation role for mesenchymal stem cells transplantation in myocardial infarction. *Inflammation*. 2007;30:97–104.
57. Markel TA, Crisostomo PR, Wang M, et al. Activation of individual tumor necrosis factor receptors differentially affects stem cell growth factor and cytokine production. *Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol*. 2007;293:657–662.
58. Gupta N, Su X, Popov B, et al. Intrapulmonary delivery of bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells improves survival and attenuates endotoxin-induced acute lung injury in mice. *J Immunol*. 2007;179:1855–1863.
59. Xu M, Uemura R, Dai Y, et al. In vitro and in vivo effects of bone marrow stem cells on cardiac structure and function. *J Mol Cell Cardiol*. 2007;42:441–448.
60. Bier, O. *Microbiologia e Imunológica*. São Paulo: Melhoramentos. 1985. Hemocultura.
61. Baylis C, Vallance P. Measurement of nitrite and nitrate levels in plasma and urine- What does this measure tell us about the activity of endogenous nitric oxide system? *Current Opinion in Nephology & Hypertension* 1998; 7(1): 59-62.
62. Aebi H. Catalase in vitro. *Methods Enzymol* 1984; 105: 121-126.

63. Boveris A, Fraga CG, Varsavskis AL, Koch OR. Arch Biochem Biophys 1983; 227: 534-541
64. Jaimes F. A literature review of the epidemiology of sepsis in Latin America. Rev Panam Salud Pública 2005; 18 (3): 163-71.
65. Trounson A, Thakar RG, Lomax G, et al. Clinical trials for stem cell therapies. BMC Med 2011; 9: 52.
66. Wannemuehler TJ, Manukyan, MC, Brewster BD. Advances in Mesenchymal Stem Cell Research in Sepsis. Journal of Surgical Research 2012; 173: 113–126.
67. Webb S. The Role of Mediators in Sepsis Resolution. Advances in Sepsis 2002; 2(1): 8-14.
68. Hotchkiss RS, Chang KC, Grayson MH et al. Adoptive transfer of apoptotic splenocytes worsens survival, whereas adoptive transfer of necrotic splenocytes improves survival in sepsis. PNAS 2003; 100 (11): 6724–6729.

ANEXO 1

Guia para autores

Critical Care Medicine

Instructions for Authors

Critical Care Medicine is an international, peer-reviewed journal that is interested in publishing the highest quality scientific studies in the field of critical care medicine. Last year, approximately 25% of the original manuscripts submitted to the journal for publication were accepted.

MANUSCRIPT SUBMISSION

Manuscripts are submitted through Editorial Manager®, a Web-based manuscript tracking system in use by SCCM. This system allows authors to add a new manuscript or check the status of a submitted manuscript, while shortening the time needed for processing manuscripts in the Editorial Office and through peer review. To submit manuscripts for consideration, go to www.sccm.org, choose *Critical Care Medicine* under the Publications tab, then select “Submit Manuscript.” Once you reach the Editorial Manager® home page, log on to the system by creating an account or entering through your existing account.

Editorial Manager® will easily guide authors through the manuscript submission process. Required information pertaining to the manuscript includes the name, address, telephone number, and e-mail address for the first author and all contributing authors; affiliated institutions; title of the manuscript; abstract; and key words. If authors wish, they may provide optional information that includes author’s suggested reviewers and author’s nonpreferred reviewers. The Editorial Office will automatically be notified of the submission and will send an e-mail confirming the submission of the manuscript to the author(s). If notice has not been received, the manuscript has not been completely submitted. After editorial office review of the submission and verification that it is complete, a manuscript number will be assigned to each submitted manuscript, which will be used in all correspondence.

Each manuscript submission should designate one corresponding author and all contributing authors. The number of authors should be restricted to only those persons who have truly participated in the conception, design, execution, and writing of the manuscript. Authors must disclose any potential financial or ethical conflicts of interest regarding the contents of the submission. SCCM accepts no responsibility for manuscripts that are lost or destroyed through electronic or computer problems. Authors are encouraged to keep copies of submitted manuscripts, including figures. If an author does not receive confirmation of submission into Editorial Manager® within 48 hours, he or she should contact the Editorial Office at journals@sccm.org.

Copyright. Each author must complete and submit the journal’s copyright transfer agreement, which includes a section on the disclosure of potential conflicts of interest based on the recommendations of the International Committee of Medical Journal Editors, “Uniform Requirements for Manuscripts Submitted to Biomedical Journals” (www.icmje.org/update.html). The form must be completed by each author and must be

uploaded with your other manuscript documents at the time of submission. The form is readily available on the manuscript submission page <https://www.editorialmanager.com/ccmed> and must be completed and submitted electronically. Please note that authors may sign the copyright transfer agreement form electronically. For additional information about electronically signing this form, go to <http://links.lww.com/ZUAT/A106>.

Compliance With NIH and Other Research Funding Agency Accessibility Requirements. A number of research funding agencies now require or request authors to submit the post-print (the article after peer review and acceptance but not the final published article) to a repository that is accessible online by all without charge. As a service to our authors, LWW will identify to the National Library of Medicine (NLM) articles that require deposit and will transmit the post-print of an article based on research funded in whole or in part by the National Institutes of Health, Wellcome Trust, Howard Hughes Medical Institute, or other funding agencies to PubMed Central. The revised Copyright Transfer Agreement provides the mechanism.

Financial Disclosure and Conflicts of Interest. Authors must state all possible conflicts of interest in the manuscript, including financial, consultant, institutional, and other relationships that might lead to bias or a conflict of interest. If there is no conflict of interest, this should also be explicitly stated as none declared. All sources of funding should be acknowledged in the manuscript. All relevant conflicts of interest and sources of funding should be included on the title page of the manuscript with the heading "Conflicts of Interest and Source of Funding." For example: Conflicts of Interest and Source of Funding: "Author A" has received honoraria from "Company 1." "Author B" is currently receiving a grant (#12345) from "Organization Y," and is on the speaker's bureau for "Organization X" – the CME organizers for Company 1. For the remaining authors none were declared.

Human and Animal Subjects. All studies of human subjects must contain a statement within the Materials and Methods section indicating approval of the study by the Institutional Review Board (or institutional review body) that subjects have signed written informed consent, or that the Institutional Review Board waived the need for informed consent. *Before* your submission can be sent out for peer review, it is necessary that you address this issue of institutional review approval. This is in accordance with the International Committee of Journal Editors uniform requirements for manuscripts submitted to biomedical journals. Please see <http://www.icmje.org> for more details. All animal studies must contain a statement within the Materials and Methods section confirming approval by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and that the care and handling of the animals were in accord with National Institutes of Health guidelines or other internationally recognized guideline for ethical animal treatment.

Statistical Review. Any study containing quantitative data and statistical inference should be reviewed by a consultant with formal statistical training and experience.

MANUSCRIPT PREPARATION

Manuscripts must conform to *Critical Care Medicine* Instructions for Authors and/or the "Uniform Requirements for Manuscripts Submitted to Biomedical Journals," which can be found on the International Committee of Medical Journal Editors Web site, www.icmje.org. Manuscripts must be double-spaced with pages numbered consecutively, beginning with the title page. Each paragraph should be indented with a tab. The text portion of each manuscript should be in Microsoft Word format, including references and figure legends. Figures can be saved in .tif or .eps format in 300 dpi or

higher. Tables should be submitted as Microsoft Word files; spreadsheets are not acceptable. Figures should be saved as separate files and uploaded after the text upload is complete. Specific guidelines for figure formatting are found on the Editorial Manager® home page. Documents submitted in .pdf format are not acceptable.

When uploading the text, tables, and figures into Editorial Manager®, there is the option of entering files for review and files for production. Files for review are viewable by the editorial staff, the editor, and the reviewers. These documents should include all text, tables, and figures, as well as any special referenced material. Files for production are only seen by the editorial staff and will not be seen by reviewers.

MANUSCRIPT CONTENT

Title Page. The title page should contain 1) the title; 2) first name, middle initial, and last name of each author; 3) highest academic degrees, fellowship designations, and institutional affiliation for each author; 4) name of the institution(s) where the work was performed; 5) the address for reprints and a statement regarding whether reprints will be ordered; and 6) financial support used for the study, including any institutional departmental funds. The authors should also provide six key words for indexing, using terms from the Medical Subject Headings list of *Index Medicus*. Structured abstracts are required for all manuscripts (except editorials, letters, and book reviews) submitted to *Critical Care Medicine*.

Editorial Manager® will prompt authors to input the above information into specific fields as they are submitting their manuscript. Authors should also upload their title page and structured abstract with the body of the manuscript. It is also important to note that if there is formatted text or Greek letters or symbols in the title or abstract, special coding is necessary and the Character Palette in Editorial Manager® will need to be used. It is not necessary to code special characters and formats in the actual manuscript.

Abstracts. Abstracts should be no more than 300 words in length and must have the following headings: Objective, Design, Setting, Patients (for Clinical Investigations) or Subjects (for Laboratory Investigations), Interventions, Measurements and Main Results, and Conclusions. Review Articles, Special Articles, and Case Reports should use these headings in the abstract: Objective, Data Sources, Study Selection, Data Extraction, Data Synthesis, and Conclusions. For details regarding the preparation of structured abstracts, refer to the *American Medical Association Manual of Style*, Tenth Edition (pp. 20–23).

Text Material. The text should be organized into the following sections: Introduction, Materials and Methods, Results, Discussion, and Conclusions followed by Acknowledgments, References, Figure Legends, and Tables. Secretarial and editorial assistance are not acknowledged. Results may be presented in the text, in the figures, or in the tables. The Discussion section should interpret the results without unnecessary repetition. References to related studies should be included in the text section. In addition, the following should be observed: The full term for which an abbreviation stands should be used at its first occurrence in the text unless it is a standard unit of measure. The abbreviation should appear in parentheses after the full term. Abbreviations should not be in the title, figure legends or table titles.

••For standard American units, do not use values that are more significant than your analysis is capable of accurately measuring (e.g., Pao₂ 84 torr [11.2 kPa], not 83.7 torr).

- Hemodynamic measurements for pressure (e.g., MAP) should appear in mm Hg and gas tension measurements (e.g., Po₂) should appear in torr with SI units in parentheses. The units of vascular resistance are dyne.sec/cm⁵.
- Please provide r² values for parametric data.

References. All references should be cited in sequential order in the text and typed on a separate sheet of paper. References should be identified in text, tables, and legends by full-size Arabic numerals on the line and in parentheses. Do not use word processing footnote, endnote, or paragraph numbering functions to make a list of references. Titles of journals should be set in italics and abbreviated according to the style used in *Index Medicus*. If journal titles are not listed in *Index Medicus* they should be spelled out. Unpublished data or personal communications should be noted parenthetically within the text but not in the References section. Inclusive page numbers (e.g., p. 1-10) should be used for all references. Listed below are samples of standard references; however, a complete listing of references can be found on the International Committee of Medical Journal Editors Web site, www.icmje.org.

Standard Journal Article: Bone RC, Fisher CJ, Cemmer TP, et al: Sepsis syndrome: A valid clinical entity. *Crit Care Med* 1989; 17:389-393

Standard Book with Authors: Civetta JM, Taylor RW, Kirby RR. Critical Care. Third Edition. Philadelphia, Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins, 1996

Standard Book with Editors: Norman IJ, Refern SJ (Eds): Mental health care for elderly people. New York, Churchill Livingstone, 1996

Standard Chapter in a Book: Phillips SJ, Whisnant JP: Hypertension and stroke. *In:* Laragh JH, Brenner BM (Eds). Hypertension: Pathophysiology, diagnosis and management. New York, Raven Press, 1995, pp 465-478

Standard Web Site/Electronic Format: Marion DW, Domeier R, Dunham CM, et al: Practice management guidelines for identifying cervical spine injuries following trauma. Available at: <http://www.east.org>. Accessed July 1, 2000

Equations. Equations should be created as normal text or as images. The use of equation editors or utilities may not convert correctly during the manuscript submission process and their use is discouraged.

Tables and Figures. The number of figures and tables should be appropriate for the length of the manuscript; do not use superfluous illustrations. Materials reproduced from another published source must be labeled "Reproduced with permission from... ." In addition, a letter granting permission to reproduce the materials from the copyright holder must be received by SCCM when the manuscript is submitted for review. If the manuscript is accepted for publication, it will not be able to be printed unless this permission letter has been submitted. Adapted figure or table materials must be labeled "Adapted with permission from... ." Letters of permission are also required for adapted materials. A sample of a permission request can be found on Editorial Manager® in the instruction section.

Tables. Do not use tabs to create tables and do not use table editors. Table building utilities will convert, providing that no special images were inserted. Do not reiterate tabular data in the text. Do not use abbreviations in table titles. Do not use all capital letters in table headings and text. Do not use center, decimal tab, and justification commands. Do not use spaces to separate columns. Use a single tab, not a space, on either side of the ± symbol. Do not underline or draw lines within tables. Footnoted information should be referenced using italicized, superscript, lower case letters (i.e., a,

b) in alphabetical order (reading from left to right). Avoid lengthy footnotes and insert descriptive narratives in the text.

Figures.

A) Creating Digital Artwork

1. Learn about the publication requirements for Digital Artwork: <http://links.lww.com/ES/A42>
2. Create, scan, and save your artwork and compare your final figure to the Digital Artwork Guideline Checklist (below).
3. Upload each figure to Editorial Manager® in conjunction with your manuscript text and tables.

B) Digital Artwork Guideline Checklist

Here are the basics to have in place before submitting your digital art:

- Artwork should be saved as .tif or .eps files.
- Artwork is created as the actual size (or slightly larger) it will appear in the journal. (To get an idea of the size images should be when they print, study a copy of the journal to which you wish to submit. Measure the artwork typically shown and scale your image to match.)
- Crop out any white or black space surrounding the image.
- Diagrams, drawings, graphs, and other line art must be vector or saved at a resolution of at least 1200 dpi.
Photographs, radiographs, and other halftone images must be saved at a resolution of at least 300 dpi.
 - Photographs and radiographs with text must be saved as postscript or at a resolution of at least 600 dpi.
 - Each figure must be saved and submitted as a separate file. Figures should not be embedded in the manuscript text file.

Remember:

- Cite figures consecutively in your manuscript.
- Number figures in the figure legend in the order in which they are discussed.
- Upload figures consecutively to the Editorial Manager® Web site and number figures consecutively in the Description box during upload.

For captions and variables within a figure, use Helvetica (or Arial) font, if possible, in upper and lower case letters. Radiographic prints must have arrows (if applicable) for clarity. Color photographs will occasionally be published in the journal if use of color is vital to making the point; authors will be charged the cost of color reproduction. Figures that do not conform to these specifications will be sent back to the corresponding author for correction.

Figure legends should contain enough information for the reader to understand the illustration without referring to the text, but should be concise and should not repeat information already stated in the text. Figure legends should be typed on a separate page. Figures must be referenced sequentially in the text. Authors must assume charges for changes made to figures after manuscripts are accepted.

Units of Measure. Authors should provide units of measurement in SI units. Authors should refer to the *American Medical Association Manual of Style*, Tenth Edition (p. 787) for details regarding SI units for laboratory data.

Manufacturer. Provide in parentheses the model number, name of manufacturer, their city, and state or country, for all equipment described in the paper.

Drug Names. Only generic drug names should be used. Trademark or brand names should not be used except in specific cases where the brand name is essential to

reproduce or interpret the study. These exceptions should be noted in accompanying correspondence. The manufacturer with the city, state, and country must be provided for any brand name drugs.

Permissions. Any submitted materials that are to be reproduced (or adapted) from copyrighted publications must be accompanied by a written letter of permission from the copyright holder. Accepted manuscripts will be delayed if necessary permissions are not on file. A sample of a permission request can be found on Editorial Manager® in the instruction section.

Supplemental Digital Content: Authors may submit supplemental digital content to enhance their article's text and to be considered for online-only posting. Supplemental digital content may include the following types of content: text documents, graphs, tables, figures, graphics, illustrations, audio, and video. Cite all supplemental digital content consecutively in the text. Citations should include the type of material submitted, should be clearly labeled as "Supplemental Digital Content," should include a sequential number, and should provide a brief description of the supplemental content. Provide a legend of supplemental digital content at the end of the text. List each legend in the order in which the material is cited in the text. The legends must be numbered to match the citations from the text. Include a title and a brief summary of the content. For audio and video files, also include the author name, videographer, participants, length (minutes), and size (MB). Authors should mask patients' eyes and remove patients' names from supplemental digital content unless they obtain written consent from the patients and submit written consent with the manuscript. Copyright and Permission forms for article content including supplemental digital content must be completed at the time of submission.

Supplemental Digital Content Size and File Type Requirements: To ensure a quality experience for those viewing supplemental digital content, it is suggested that authors submit supplemental digital files no larger than 10 MB each. Documents, graphs, and tables may be presented in any format. Figures, graphics, and illustrations should be submitted with the following file extensions: .tif, .eps, .ppt, .jpg, .pdf, .gif. Audio files should be submitted with the following file extensions: .mp3, .wma. Video files should be submitted with the following file extensions: .wmv, .mov, .qt, .mpg, .mpeg, .mp4. Video files should also be formatted with a 320 x 240 pixel minimum screen size. For more information, please review publisher requirements for submitting supplemental digital content: <http://links.lww.com/A142>

MANUSCRIPT CATEGORIES

Guidelines for the most frequent types of articles submitted to the journal are summarized below.

Original Articles. These include randomized controlled trials, intervention studies, laboratory and animal research, outcome studies, cost-effectiveness analyses, and case-control series. The objective and hypothesis of these articles should be clearly stated. Information should be included about study design and methodology, including study setting and time setting; participants, including inclusion and exclusion criteria; any interventions; main outcome measures; main study results; discussion that puts the results in the context of other published literature; and conclusions. The recommended length for original manuscript is 2000 to 4000 words (8 to 16 typed, double-spaced pages), not including references, tables, or figures.

Review Articles. These consist of critical assessment of literature and data pertaining to clinical topics. In these review articles, emphasis should be placed on cause, diagnosis,

therapy, prognosis, and prevention. Information concerning the type of study or analysis, population, intervention, and outcome should be included for all data used. The selection process used for all data should be described. Meta-analyses will be considered as review papers. The recommended length of review articles is 2000 to 3000 words (8 to 12 typed, double-spaced pages).

Brief Reports. These should be short reports of original studies or evaluations. They should contain a short, structured abstract and no more than 10 references and 1 to 2 figures or tables. Brief Reports should be no more than 1500 words (6 typed, double-spaced pages).

Case Reports. Case reports should be approximately 1000 to 2000 words (up to 8 typed, double-spaced pages). They must include a structured abstract. The number of references, tables, and figures should be appropriate for the overall length of the paper. In general, no more than 2 tables or 2 figures are necessary.

Letters to the Editor. Letters to the Editor are encouraged. Letters must specifically address a recent article published in *Critical Care Medicine* and may not report original research. They should be no more than 500 words (2 typed, double-spaced pages) with 5 references.

EDITORIAL REVIEW

All manuscripts will be reviewed by editorial board members or consultants selected by the editor-in-chief. Initial editorial reviews usually are completed within 8–10 weeks of manuscript submission. The time required for review of revised manuscripts is variable.

ACCEPTANCE

All information regarding the accepted manuscript and its publication date are confidential. No information regarding the manuscript can appear in print, on the television or radio, or in any electronic form until the day before its publication date. It cannot be released to the media until the day before the publication date.

Manuscripts accepted for publication are copyedited and returned to the author for approval. Authors are responsible for all statements published in their work, including any changes made by the copyeditor. Authors are encouraged to proofread all edited manuscripts carefully. The journal reserves the right to charge authors for excessive changes made to the text and figures at the page proof stage.

Permissions

For permission and/or rights to use content for which the copyright holder is the Society of Critical Care Medicine or LWW, please go to the journal's Web site and after clicking on the relevant article, click on the "Request Permissions" link under the "Article Tools" box that appears on the right side of the page. Alternatively, send an e-mail to customer-care@copyright.com.

For Translation Rights & Licensing queries, contact Silvia Serra, Translations Rights, Licensing & Permissions Manager, Wolters Kluwer Health (Medical Research) Ltd, 250 Waterloo Road, London SE1 8RD, UK. Phone: +44 (0) 207 981 0600. Email: silvia.serra@wolterskluwer.com.

For Special Projects and Reprints (U.S./Canada), contact Alan Moore, Director of Sales, Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Two Commerce Square, 2001 Market Street, Philadelphia, PA 19103. Phone: 215-521-8638. Email: alan.moore@wolterskluwer.com.

For Special Projects and Reprints (non-U.S./Canada), contact Silvia Serra, Translations Rights, Licensing & Permissions Manager, Wolters Kluwer Health (Medical Research) Ltd, 250 Waterloo Road, London SE1 8RD, UK. Phone: +44 (0) 207 981 0600. E-mail: silvia.serra@wolterskluwer.com.

REPRINTS

Reprints are available four weeks after the publication of the journal through the publisher. For information and prices, call (800) 341-2258 or send an email to reprints@lww.com.

CONTACT

Questions regarding the status of submitted manuscripts are best answered by logging on to the FAQ section of Editorial Manager®. The assigned manuscript number will allow authors to view the status of their manuscript. If authors need additional information regarding a manuscript, please send an e-mail to journals@sccm.org and include your manuscript number in the request, or call (847) 827-6869 Monday through Friday, from 0800 to 1700, Central Standard Time.

Correspondence can also be sent to:
Joseph E. Parrillo, MD, MCCM
Editor-in-Chief, *Critical Care Medicine*
Society of Critical Care Medicine
500 Midway Drive
Mount Prospect, IL 60056