

Activation of Invariant Natural Killer T Cells Further Ameliorates Post-Infarct Cardiac Remodeling in Mice With MSC Transplantation

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Abstract

Background

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of MSCs on the infiltration of iNKT cells and further observe whether the activation of iNKT cells could assist the therapeutic action of MSCs on ventricular remodeling.

Methods

Mice with MI were sacrificed at day 7, 14, 28 and hearts were excised. qRT-PCR for V α 14J α 18 (a special marker of iNKT cell for C57BL/6) was carried out. 25 μ L serum-free medium (Me) \square complete medium with 1 \times 10⁶ MSCs or without MSCs were respectively injected into myocardium in five points. After 7, 14, 28 days, qRT-PCR for V α 14J α 18 was respectively performed. Gene expressions of V α 14J α 18 in PLV with the injection of cMe alone and cMe with PGE₂, L-NMMA, indomethacin, anti-TGF at day 7 were also analyzed. Then, the experiment was performed in five groups: MI+Me, MI+MSCs, MI+MSCs+indome, MI+ α -GC and MI+MSCs+ α -GC. After 28 days, heart tissue fibrosis was accessed by Masson trichrome dyeing and apoptosis was evaluated by TUNEL staining and western blotting for caspase-3 protein.

Results

The iNKT cells infiltrating into the PLV was significantly increased at day 7 after MI (1.72-fold changes from baseline, $P < 0.05$), but almost returned to baseline level at day 14 and 28. Compared to MI+Me group (1.76 \pm 0.20-fold), iNKT cells infiltration was significantly suppressed at day 7 in MI+MSCs (1.25 \pm 0.29-fold, $P < 0.05$) and MI+cMe groups (1.19 \pm 0.25-fold, $P < 0.05$). In MI+cMe+indome and MI+cMe+PGE₂ group, the changes of iNKT cells infiltration were respectively 1.74- and 1.04-fold (vs 1.20-fold in MI+cMe group, $P < 0.05$). Combined MSCs transplantation with iNKT cells activation, myocyte apoptosis and interstitial fibrosis in PLV were both significantly attenuated.

Conclusions:

In the infarcted mouse model, MSCs suppressed the infiltration of iNKT cells by secreting PGE₂. Activating iNKT cells could assist the therapeutic effect of MSCs on ventricular remodeling, with attenuated apoptosis and interstitial fibrosis.

Background

With acute occlusion of the coronary artery, a shortage of oxygen and nutrients is present in the heart during myocardial infarction (MI), which leads to necrosis and apoptosis. Acute myocardial infarction and heart failure, which often follow, are major causes of death and disability worldwide. New therapies are required to limit myocardial infarct size, to prevent adverse left ventricular remodeling, and to reduce the onset of heart failure following MI (1). All of these factors trigger a strong inflammatory reaction, resulting in a highly inflammatory environment in the post-MI heart (2,3). The balance between

inflammatory and reparative phases is subtle and requires proper fine-tuning to prevent excessive inflammation or inadequate stimulation of repair (4). The inflammatory response to MI plays a critical role in determining MI size. A persistent proinflammatory reaction can contribute to adverse postinfarction remodeling; ultimately, excessive inflammation results in limited capacity for self-renewal and adverse remodeling, which finally leads to depressed left ventricular (LV) function (5). All of these factors make inflammation an important therapeutic target for improving outcomes following AMI.

Administration of mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) in an animal model of MI yields variable degrees of functional improvement and is a promising tool for the treatment of a range of human degenerative and inflammatory diseases. MSCs are applied as a form of regenerative medicine, mainly based on their capacity to differentiate into specific cell types and to act as bioreactors of soluble factors that promote tissue regeneration (6). In addition to these regenerative properties, the discovery that MSCs hold an immunoregulatory capacity was made over a decade ago, when it was observed that MSCs abrogated T-cell proliferation *in vitro* (7). The immune system has a critical role in the pathogenesis and progression of a number of degenerative diseases, raising the possibility that MSCs may be effective in repairing damaged organs by promoting cell formation and modulating the associated immune response. Based on this premise, the immunogenicity and immunomodulatory properties of MSCs have been thoroughly characterized to evaluate their potential clinical application (8-11). MSCs were reported to interact with several cell types of the immune system and may be an excellent means to reduce detrimental inflammatory reactions (12).

As the regulation of the inflammatory reaction appears to be inefficient after massive necrosis, the interest of current research has turned towards the induction of anti-inflammatory or regulatory subsets of immune cells to reduce apoptosis and fibrosis. Invariant natural killer T (iNKT or type 1 NKT) cells are innate-like T lymphocytes that coexpress $\alpha\beta$ T-cell receptor and NK cell markers and recognize glycolipid antigens (13). Moreover, iNKT cells have a protective role against autoimmune and neoplastic diseases, including acute liver injury (14) and rheumatic disease (15). As reported by Sobirin *et al.* (16) and Homma *et al.* (17), activation of iNKT cells by α -galactosylceramide (α -GC), a specific activator of iNKT cells (18), ameliorates myocardial ischemia/reperfusion injury and postinfarct cardiac remodeling in mice.

In 2009, Prigione *et al.* (8) demonstrated that human bone marrow MSCs abolished the proliferation and interferon (IFN)- γ production of iNKT cells *in vitro* through the release of soluble factors. While the effects of MSCs on iNKT cells appear to be ideal in an *in vitro* scenario, inflammation *in vivo* is complex, which may have unpredictable influences on MSCs, and further exploration and validation with an animal model for the interaction between MSCs and iNKT cells are required. If *in vivo* MSCs inhibit the infiltration of iNKT cells in the postinfarction heart, we wondered whether activating iNKT cells before MSC transplantation can have a synergistic effect on LV remodeling. The present study aims to demonstrate the effect of MSCs on iNKT cells *in vivo* and to investigate further the potential therapeutic value of MSC transplantation together with iNKT cell activation on LV remodeling.

Methods

Animals. All experiments were performed in accordance with the ethics code for animal experimentation. Ethical approval for all work was received from the animal research committee of Zhengzhou University (Zhengzhou, China). A total of 400 male C57BL/6J mice were purchased from Beijing HFK Bioscience Co., Ltd. (Beijing, China). The specific criteria for animal euthanasia included absence of food or water intake, low or no mobility, weak or absent heartbeat and absence of respiratory movement during the ongoing study, and all animals were euthanized at the end of the study. The mice were divided into different groups by sortition randomization method to control the confounding bias. After intraperitoneal anesthesia (ketamine/midazolam 75 mg/kg and 5 mg/kg, respectively), mice were euthanized by cervical dislocation to minimize suffering. The method to confirm the death of mice included the absence of movement and heartbeat. All efforts were made to minimize suffering, including gaseous anesthesia with isoflurane (2-3%). Animals at 6-8 weeks of age (weight 20-25 g) were used for the experiments. Mice were kept in a pathogen-free environment at an invariable temperature and under a 12-h light-dark cycle. Pathogen-free chow and water sterilized using a high-pressure steam sterilizer were provided *ad libitum*.

MSC culture and expansion. MSCs isolated from the bone marrow of C57BL/6 mice were obtained from Cyagen Biosciences Inc. (Guangzhou, China). The identification of cells according to multipotency and the cell surface phenotypes was performed by the provider. The cell surface phenotypes were CD29⁺, CD44⁺, Sca-1⁺, CD117⁻ and CD31⁻, characterized by fluorescence-activated cell sorting analysis (Fig. 1). The cells had the potential for differentiation into the osteogenic and adipogenic lineages as determined by staining with Alizarin red and oil red O, respectively. This evidence verified their identity as MSCs.

The mouse MSCs were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc., Waltham, MA, USA), penicillin (100 U/ml), streptomycin (100 mg/ml) and 2 mM L-glutamine at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO₂. To obtain MSC clones, cells at 80-90% confluence were harvested and seeded into T25 flasks at 2x10⁴ cells/cm². Each clone was then picked and expanded. Cells at the 8th to 10th passages cultured in serum-free medium were used in the experiments.

Myocardial infarction and MSC transplantation. Mice were anesthetized by intraperitoneal injection of ketamine/medazolam (75 mg/kg and 5 mg/kg, respectively). With the application of a rodent ventilator, tracheal intubation was performed on the mice, a small thoracotomy was performed, and left anterior descending coronary artery (LAD) ligation was created as previously described (19), with a slight modification. A 10/0 Prolene suture was passed under the LAD at 1-1.5 mm distal to the left atrial appendage, immediately following the bifurcation of the major left coronary artery. At 1 h after surgical intervention, a total of 1x10⁶ C57BL6/J MSCs in 25 µl complete medium were injected into five different points of the peri-infarct LV region in the MI group or the LV region in the sham group (20). Five points were separately injected with 2x10⁵ MSCs in 5 µl medium. After 7, 14 and 28 days, TTC staining was performed to determine the infarct area of the LV. The remaining area of the LV was confirmed as the peri-infarct LV.

Experimental design

RT-qPCR for iNKT cells in post-MI hearts.

A total of 18 MI and 6 sham mice were created as described above. To observe time-dependent changes in iNKT cells, mice were sacrificed at 7, 14, and 28 days, and the LVs of their hearts were excised for reverse transcription-quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) analysis. As in a previous study (21), RT-qPCR for V α 14J α 18 (a specific marker of iNKT cells in C57BL/6 mice) was performed.

RT-qPCR for iNKT cells in post-MI hearts with MSC transplantation.

At 1 h after surgery, MI and sham mice were randomly assigned to one of the following groups: i) 25 μ l serum-free medium (Me) alone, ii) 25 μ l complete cell-free medium after cell culture (cMe), or iii) 25 μ l complete medium with 1×10^6 MSCs injected into the myocardium of LV, with the suspension infused within 30 sec (22). Thus, there were six groups: Sham+Me (n=6), Sham+MSCs (n=6), Sham+cMe (n=6), MI+Me (n=18), MI+MSCs (n=18) and MI+cMe (n=18). After 7, 14 or 28 days, RT-qPCR analysis was performed to observe time-dependent changes in iNKT cells in the PLV area of the MI groups compared with those in the LV area of the sham groups.

To address the effective factors of cMe on the immunoregulation of MSCs, specific antagonists were used in the MI+cMe group: 20 μ g/ml N^G-monomethyl-L-arginine (Sigma-Aldrich; Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany), an inhibitor of inducible nitric oxide (NO) synthase (iNOS), 5 μ M indomethacin (indome; ApexBio, Glendale, CA, USA) for inhibition of prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂), or 10 μ g/ml anti-transforming growth factor (TGF)- β 1 monoclonal antibody (R&D Systems Inc., Minneapolis, MN, USA), according to a previous study (8). In the fourth group, prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) was added to the MI+cMe groups. Each group included 6 mice. Subsequently, after 7 days, RT-qPCR analysis of V α 14J α 18 was performed (20).

RT-qPCR for iNKT cells, Masson staining and TUNEL staining in post-MI hearts with MSC treatment and iNKT cell activation.

Mice were randomly divided into five groups. At 1 h after MI, one group was injected with serum-free medium (Me) as a control, and another two groups randomly received an injection of 1×10^6 MSCs in 25 μ l cMe with or without indome. In the fourth and fifth groups, α -galactosylceramide (α -GC; 0.1 μ g/g body weight; Avanti Polar Lipids, Inc., Alabaster, AL, USA) was administered 30 minutes before MI specifically to activate iNKT cells while 1×10^6 MSCs with 25 μ l complete medium were also injected into the sixth group. Therefore, there were six groups: Sham+Me (n=6), MI+Me (n=15), MI+MSCs (n=18), MI+MSCs+indome (n=18), MI+ α -GC (n=18) and MI+MSCs+ α -GC (n=18). After 7 and 28 days, RT-qPCR analysis of V α 14J α 18 was performed. After 28 days, the mice were euthanized, and the hearts were obtained. Tissue fibrosis of the LV was assessed by Masson's trichrome staining, and apoptosis was evaluated by terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase deoxyuridine triphosphate nick end labeling (TUNEL) and western blotting analysis for cleaved caspase-3 protein. Fibrotic and total areas of each image were measured by computerized planimetry (Image ProPlus 5.0, Media Cybernetics, Silver Spring, MD, USA), and the percentage of the fibrotic area was calculated as follows: (Fibrotic area/total area) x100%.

Methods of western blotting and TUNEL

Western blot analysis. Total protein was extracted from LV samples using IP lysis buffer after pulverizing in liquid nitrogen. The concentration of the protein was quantitatively measured by a BCA protein kit (Pierce, USA). The protein was mixed with loading buffer and boiled at 100°C for 10 min to denature it. Total protein (20 µg) was separated by 12% SDS-PAGE and transferred to 0.45 µm polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes. After blocking with 5% nonfat-dried milk at room temperature for 1 h, membranes were incubated with primary antibodies [anti-cleaved caspase-3 antibody (Cat. No. ab49822; Abcam; USA) and anti-GAPDH antibody (Cat. ab181602 Abcam; USA)] overnight at 4°C and then incubated with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies at room temperature for 1 h. The blots were developed with ECL reagent (Millipore, Germany). GAPDH was used for normalization. The sum density of each protein band was measured by ImageJ software.

TUNEL. The mouse heart LV samples were dehydrated by standard graded alcohol solutions and embedded in paraffin as described previously (PMID: 31419728). LV samples in paraffin were sectioned longitudinally into 5 µm thin sections. After three washes with PBS (pH = 7.4), the sections were incubated with proteinase K for 30 min at 37°C. After treatment with cell permeable fluid (Servicebio, G1204), the sections were assayed using an *in situ* death detection kit (Roche, 11684817910) according to the manufacturer's instructions. All of the sections were counterstained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI). Finally, the numbers of total cells and TUNEL-positive cells were counted in at least three noncontinuous fields of each specimen using an inverted fluorescence microscope (Zeiss, Germany). The percentage of positive cells (positive cells/total cells ×100) was determined as the apoptotic rate (%). Cell counting was performed by a pathologist blinded to the experimental conditions.

Statistical analysis. Data analysis was performed using SPSS software 18.0 for Windows (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Values are expressed as the mean ± standard deviation. Each experiment was performed at least three times independently. Analysis of variance and ANOVA were performed for multiple and two-group comparisons. $P < 0.05$ was considered to indicate a significant difference.

Results

Elevation of iNKT cell receptors in post-MI hearts.

The quantification of iNKT cells was verified by gene expression of cell surface receptor-Vα14Jα18 (Fig. 2). Similar to those in a previous study (16), the results indicated that the infiltration of iNKT cells into the peri-infarct LV (PLV) significantly increased at 7 days after MI (1.72-fold change vs. sham group; $P < 0.05$) but almost returned to baseline levels at 14 and 28 days after MI. A persistent elevation of Vα14Jα18 gene expression was observed in the infarct LV (ILV) at 7, 14 and 28 days after MI (1.79-, 1.77- and 1.72-fold change vs. sham group, respectively; $P < 0.05$).

Suppressive effect of MSCs on iNKT cells in the post-MI heart.

As presented in Fig. 3a, the values are all presented as the ratio of the Sham + Me group. RT-qPCR demonstrated that the gene expression of Vα14Jα18 was significantly suppressed at day 7 in the MI + MSCs (1.25 ± 0.29) and MI + cMe groups (1.19 ± 0.25) compared with the MI + Me group (1.76 ± 0.20 ; $P < 0.05$). However, the gene expression of Vα14Jα18 at day 7 in the MI + MSCs and MI + cMe groups was still higher than that in the corresponding sham groups (1.25 vs. 1.00; 1.19 vs. 1.01; $P > 0.05$), while the difference between the two treated groups was not significant. In addition, there was no significant difference between the MI + Me, MI + MSCs and MI + cMe groups at days 14 and 28.

Although the mechanisms of immunoregulation of MSCs are unknown, direct cell-to-cell contact and/or soluble factors, such as TGF-β1, NO and PGE₂, may mediate the effect. The results may indicate that soluble factors in complete medium after MSCs are cultured may have a major role in immunoregulation. The effect of the administration of antagonists and neutralizing antibodies of certain soluble factors on the gene expression of Vα14Jα18 was measured, and the results are shown in Fig. 3b. The specific inhibition of iNOS and TGF-β1 had no significant influence on the infiltration of iNKT cells, while a significant effect was observed with indome, a specific antagonist of PGE₂. As presented in Fig. 3b, in the MI + cMe + indome group, the quantified expression of Vα14Jα18 was 0.54-fold higher than that in the MI + cMe group (1.74- vs. 1.20-fold change; $P < 0.05$). To verify further the effect of PGE₂, 25 μl complete medium with added PGE₂ was injected into post-MI mice. The results indicated that the gene expression of Vα14Jα18 was obviously suppressed, with a significant difference compared with the MI + cMe + indome group (1.04- vs. 1.74-fold change; $P < 0.05$).

Synergistic effect of iNKT cells and MSC transplantation on ventricular remodeling

In mice treated with soluble factors and MSCs, quantification of Vα14Jα18 was performed at days 7 and 28 after MI, with values expressed as the fold-change of the Sham + Me group (Fig. 4). As indome is an antagonist of PGE₂, counteracting the effect of PGE₂, a significant difference between the MI + MSCs and MI + MSCs + indome groups was observed after 7 days (1.74- vs. 1.19-fold; $P < 0.05$) but not at 28 days. In the MI + α-GC and MI + MSCs + α-GC groups, the gene expression of Vα14Jα18 was significantly elevated in the PLV at day 7; however, it remained significantly increased at day 28 (6.7- vs. 2.6-fold in the MI + MSCs + α-GC group, 7.1- vs 2.7-fold in the MI + α-GC group), which was in accordance with the result of previous study (16), the gene expression of Vα14Jα18 in the MI + MSCs + α-GC group tended to be less than in the MI + α-GC group, but with no significant difference.

As presented in Fig. 5A, MI-associated apoptosis was significantly attenuated in the MI + MSCs group compared with that in the MI + Me group, and this effect was enhanced in the MI + α-GC and MI + MSCs + α-GC groups. There was no significant difference between the percentage of TUNEL-positive cardiomyocytes in the MI + MSC and MI + MSCs + indome groups, while a significant difference was found between the MI + α-GC and MI + MSCs + α-GC groups. The quantitative results for total TUNEL-positive cells in different regions of all groups were [the MI + MSCs + α-GC group ($21.09 \pm 5.23\%$) vs. the MI + α-GC group ($31.02 \pm 2.21\%$), $P < 0.05$; vs. the MI + MSCs + indome group ($34.14 \pm 5.87\%$), $P < 0.05$; vs.

the MI + MSC group ($31.26 \pm 5.3\%$), $P < 0.05$; vs. the MI + Me group ($44.47 \pm 6.09\%$), $P < 0.05$; the MI + MSCs + indome group ($34.14 \pm 5.87\%$) vs. the MI + MSC group ($31.26 \pm 5.3\%$), $P > 0.05$ Fig. 5a].

To investigate the underlying molecular mechanisms of the antiapoptotic effects of α -GC injection, the protein expression of caspase-3 in PLV heart tissue was analyzed by western blot analysis. The results indicated that the proapoptotic cleaved protein, caspase-3, was significantly attenuated in the MI + MSC group compared with the MI + Me group. Compared with the MI + MSC group, the level of caspase-3 was not significantly different in the MI + MSCs + indome and MI + α -GC groups, while it was significantly decreased in the MI + MSCs + α -GC group (Fig. 5b).

To observe the effect of MSCs on cardiac fibrosis, the fibrotic areas in the PLV and ILV sections were quantified. The PLV and ILV sections of MSC-treated hearts exhibited less fibrosis than those of Me-treated hearts ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 5c; Table 1). The MI + MSCs + indome group did not exhibit a significant difference in fibrotic area compared with the MI + MSC group, while compared with the MI + MSC and MI + α -GC groups, α -GC + MSCs significantly attenuated fibrosis ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 5c; Table 1).

Table 1
collagen volume fraction in 5 groups of mice()

	MI + Me (n = 4)	MI + MSCs (n = 5)	MI + MSCs +indome (n = 6)	MI + α -GC (n = 6)	MI + MSCs + α -GC (n = 6)
Infarct areas %	$87.04 \pm 1.37^\dagger$	$70.04 \pm 1.34^{*\dagger}$	$68.02 \pm 1.51^{*\dagger}$	$59.65 \pm 1.97^{*\dagger}$	$51.68 \pm 1.33^*$
Peri-infarct areas,%	$20.70 \pm 1.43^\dagger$	$16.60 \pm 1.39^{*\dagger}$	$15.53 \pm 1.47^{*\dagger}$	$13.23 \pm 1.15^{*\dagger}$	$10.22 \pm 0.79^*$
* $P < 0.05$ versus MI + Me; $^\dagger P < 0.05$ versus MI + MSCs + α -GC					

Discussion

The results of the present study demonstrated that MSC transplantation suppressed the infiltration of iNKT cells in the peri-infarct areas of C57BL/6 mice and that PGE₂ secreted by MSCs was involved. Previous studies have demonstrated the protective effect of iNKT cells on the postinfarct heart (16–17). In the present study, activation of iNKT cells by α -GC before MSC transplantation further ameliorated ILV and PLV remodeling after MI in mice, accompanied by decreases in interstitial fibrosis and apoptosis. The present study provided direct evidence for the suppressive effects of MSCs on iNKT cells *in vivo* and that iNKT cell activation further improved the efficacy of MSCs in the treatment of post-MI hearts.

MI causes sterile inflammation, which is characterized by the recruitment and activation of immune cells of the innate and adaptive immune systems. The tasks of these inflammatory cells, including neutrophils,

macrophages and lymphocytes, involve clearance of dead tissues, the reparative response and adverse remodeling (23–27). However, excessive chronic inflammation in the peri-infarct heart may cause further cell apoptosis and myocardial fibrosis, finally leading to impairment of cardiac function (28). The results of the present study are consistent with those of a previous study (16) in terms of iNKT cells (Va14Ja18) infiltrating into the heart after MI. Previous studies have demonstrated that anti-inflammatory therapy attenuates LV dilation and contractile dysfunction, which are associated with a decrease in white blood cell infiltration (29, 30). Chronic inflammation in the post-MI heart, particularly in peri-infarct areas, has a crucial role in cardiac remodeling and failure after MI, while the precise role of inflammatory cells and chemokines in this process remains to be fully elucidated. Furthermore, iNKT cells rapidly mediate various functions by producing a mixture of T helper type 1 (TH1) and TH2 cell cytokines and a vast array of chemokines (13). Thus, iNKT cells may function as a bridge between the innate and adaptive immune systems and orchestrate tissue inflammation. Sobirin *et al.* (16) first demonstrated the increased infiltration of iNKT cells in post-MI hearts. A similar result was obtained in the present study.

Emerging evidence suggests that progenitor cells have immunomodulatory properties and specifically suppress the proliferation or activation of T cells (31). MSCs are considered to be one of the most promising progenitor cell types for therapeutic applications. In addition, MSCs have an immunoregulatory capacity and elicit immunosuppressive effects in various settings. These cells have immense plasticity coupled with their ability to modulate the activity of immune cells (12). Previous studies have indicated that *in vitro*-expanded MSCs exert broad-spectrum immunoregulatory functions on innate immune cells, including dendritic cells, NK cells and adaptive immune cells (10, 31). Prigione *et al.* (8) previously demonstrated that MSCs expanded from human bone marrow abolished the *in vitro* proliferation of resting peripheral blood Va24⁺Vβ11⁺ cells through the release of PGE₂. The present study demonstrated that MSCs had a suppressive effect on iNKT cells in postinfarct mouse hearts by releasing PGE₂, with a reduction in iNKT cell infiltration in peri-infarct areas, which may be unbeneficial or even harmful. While previous studies (32–34) concluded that certain other molecules released by MSCs might be involved in the modulation of T cells, the results of the present study indicated that iNOS and TGF-β1 did not have any role in this modulation.

In the present study, the inhibitory effect of MSCs on iNKT cells was abolished by the nonselective cyclooxygenase inhibitor indomethacin, which is an inhibitor of PGE₂, while α-GC, which is well known to activate iNKT cells (35), significantly increased the infiltration of iNKT cells in the peri-infarct area. The iNKT cell-surface receptors, including T-cell receptor (TCR) and NK1.1, become downregulated following MI, which renders iNKT cells invisible by flow cytometric detection (36, 37). The downregulation of TCR remains until at least 24 h; subsequently, iNKT cells rapidly proliferate and increase to the peak level at 72 h after α-GC administration (36–40). The present study demonstrated that the proportion of iNKT cells (Va14Ja18) increased within the heart at day 7 after α-GC administration and decreased at day 28 but remained higher than that in the sham group. In a model of experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis, early immunization with α-GC protected against this disease, whereas later immunization potentiated it (41). In the present study, pretreatment with α-GC injection significantly enhanced iNKT cell infiltration,

and the most important finding was that the activation of iNKT cells (Va14Ja18) by α -GC prior to MSC transplantation further attenuated LV remodeling after MI, which further improved the efficacy of MSCs on post-MI hearts compared with MSC transplantation. In 2009, Burchfield *et al.* (42) suggested that bone marrow mononuclear cells mediated cardiac protection (decreased T lymphocyte accumulation, reactive hypertrophy and myocardial collagen deposition) after MI, partly dependent on interleukin (IL)-10. In 2011, Dayan *et al.* (43) demonstrated that the mechanism of MSC-mediated enhancement of cardiac function possibly proceeded via an IL-10-mediated switch from infiltration of proinflammatory to anti-inflammatory macrophages at the infarct site. In addition, previous studies have indicated that the therapeutic effects of α -GC against TH1-like autoimmune diseases are mediated via a shift from a TH1 pattern toward a TH2 pattern and the induction of the immunosuppressive cytokine IL-10 (44, 45). Sobirin *et al.* (16) reported that iNKT cells have a protective role against post-MI remodeling and failure, partly through the enhanced expression of IL-10. In 2016, Tsutsui found that an anti-IL-10 receptor antibody abrogated the protective effects of α -GC on MI remodeling, suggesting that NKT cells play a protective role against post-MI LV remodeling and failure through the enhanced expression of cardioprotective cytokines such as IL-10 (46). It may be speculated that the potential mechanisms of iNKT cell activation after MSC transplantation against LV remodeling are partially mediated via enhanced expression of IL-10, a decrease in apoptotic cardiomyocytes, myocardial collagen deposition and LV failure; however, further study of the precise mechanism is required.

Of note, the present study has several limitations that must be acknowledged. First, previous studies have indicated the involvement of PGE₂, TGF- β 1 and iNOS in various immunoregulatory activities of MSCs, and the present study only assessed these three factors, with the results indicating that TGF- β 1 and iNOS do not have any involvement, whereas certain other molecules may be involved in the modulation of iNKT activities. Further study regarding this finding is required. Second, it is not possible to demonstrate the location of iNKT cells in postinfarct hearts *in situ* by immunohistochemical analysis or *in situ* hybridization. Further study of the realization of *in situ* detection is required to clarify this important issue.

Conclusion

The present study suggested that MSCs inhibited iNKT cell infiltration in post-MI mouse hearts, and activating iNKT cells enhanced the cardioprotective effect of MSCs and attenuated cardiac remodeling. Therapies designed to activate iNKT cells before MSC transplantation might be beneficial to enhance the effectiveness of MSCs in the post-MI heart. This approach may become a new direction of immune treatment for infarcted hearts.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

No human studies were carried out by the authors for this article. Ethical approval for all work was received from the animal research committee of Zhengzhou University (Zhengzhou, China).

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Availability of data and materials

The data used to support the findings of this study are included within the article. If the additional data are needed, please contact the first author and corresponding authors.

Competing interests

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

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No fundings was received for this study.

Authors' contributions

WT LI: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software; Y HUANG: Data curation, Writing- Original draft preparation; CY GAO: Supervision; ZY ZHU: Visualization, Investigation; GY DAI: Software, Validation, Methodology.

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Figures

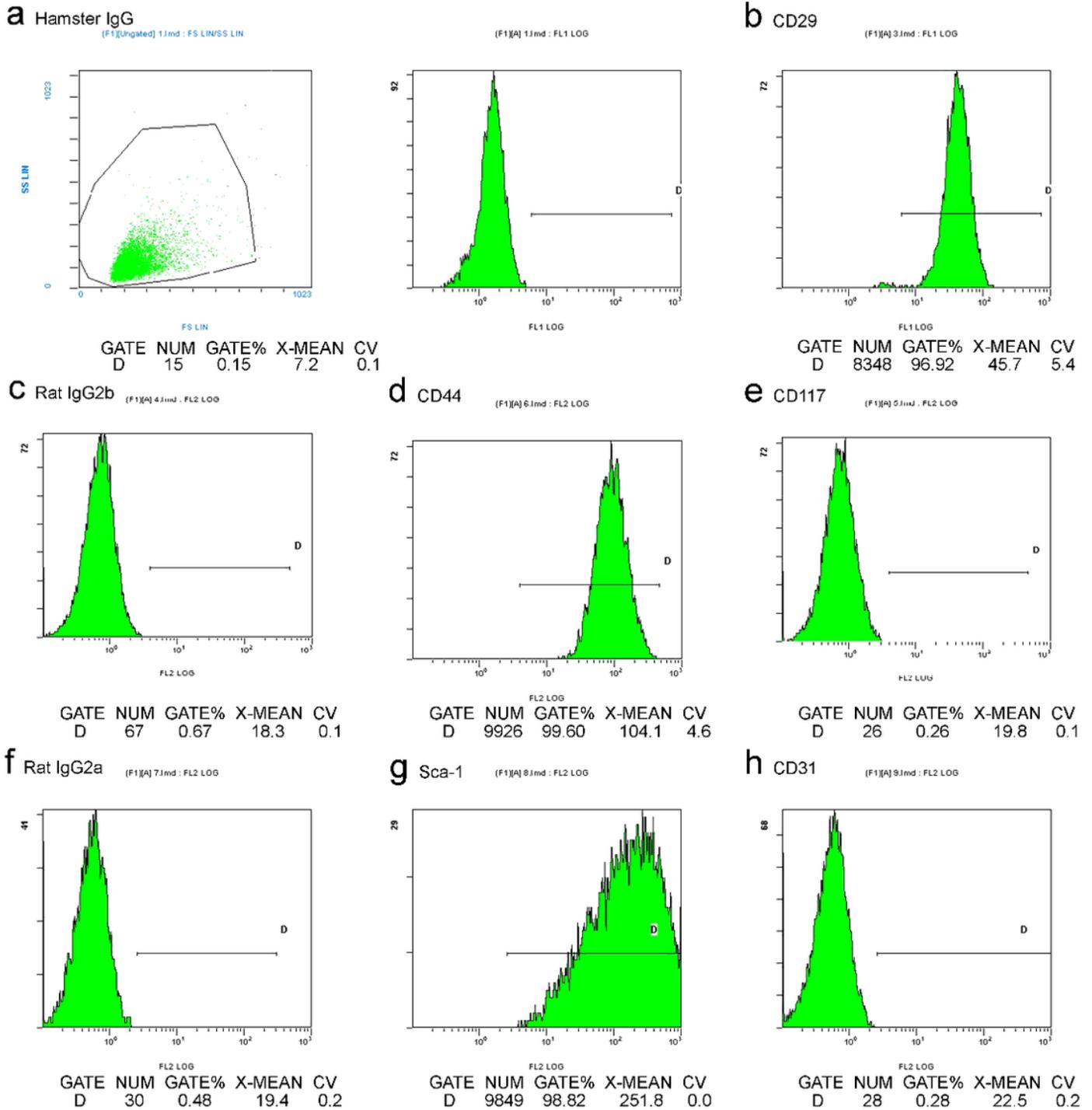


Figure 1

The cell surface phenotypes (CD29+, CD44+, Sca-1+, CD117- and CD31-) characterized by fluorescence-activated cell sorting analysis were performed.

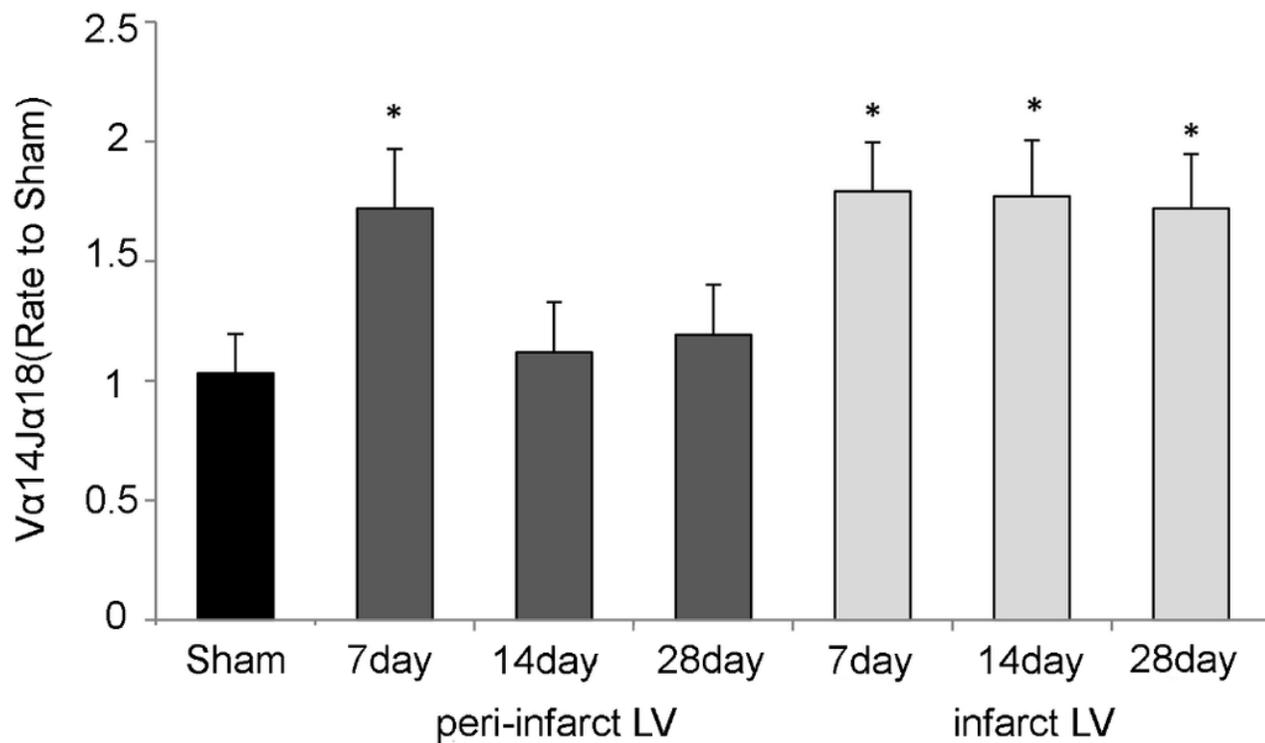


Figure 2

Gene expression of Vα14Jα18 in infarct and peri-infarct LVs after surgery. The figures are expressed as the ratio to Sham values. Data are expressed as the mean±SD. *P<0.05 vs Sham. LV: left ventricular

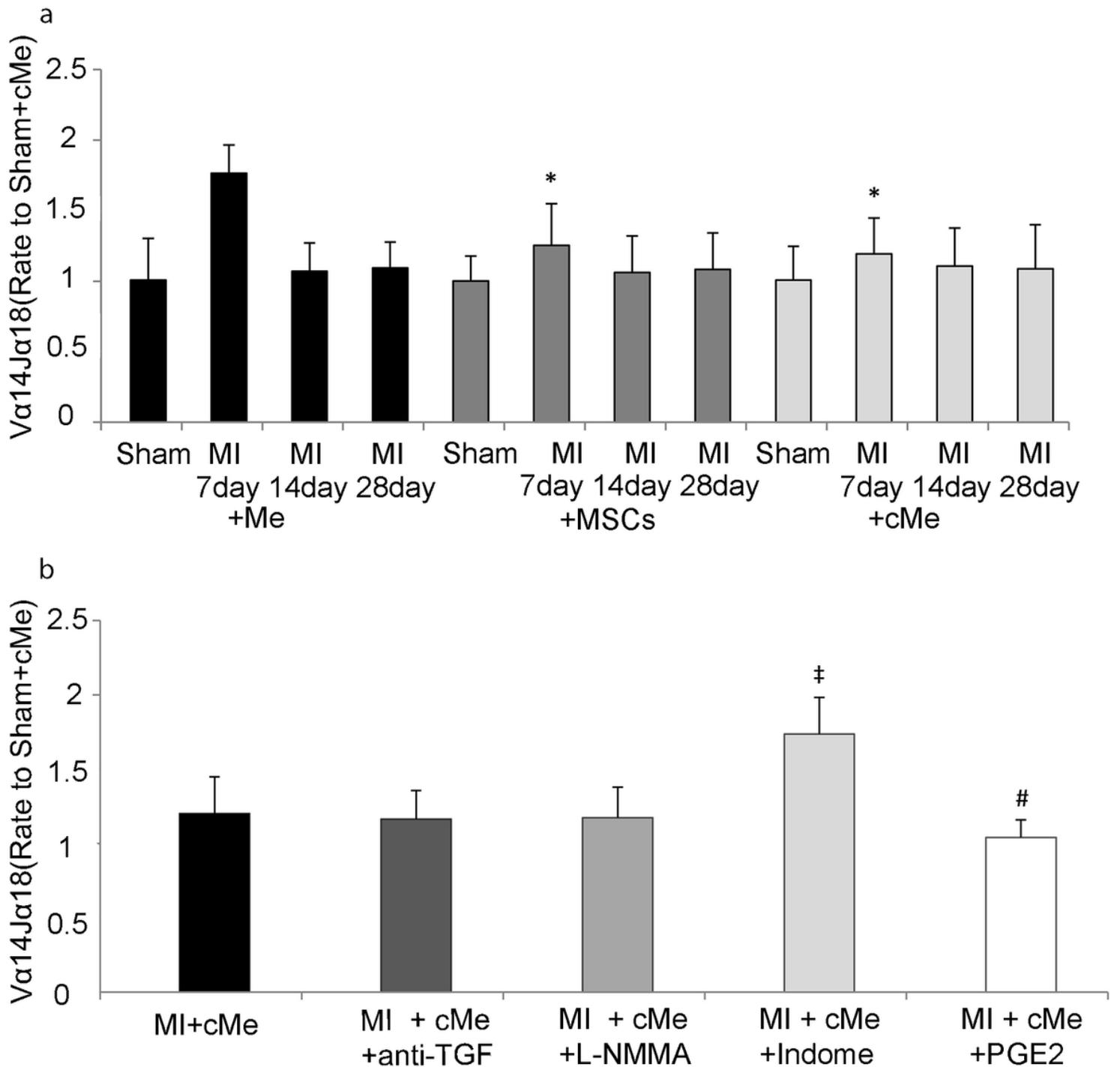


Figure 3

a. Gene expression of Vα14Jα18 in peri-infarct LV with the injection of serum-free medium, complete medium, and complete medium+MSCs after surgery at day 7, 14, and 28. b. Gene expression of Vα14Jα18 in peri-infarct LVs injected with PGE2, L-NMMA, indome and anti-TGF at day 7. The figures are expressed as the ratio to Sham+cMe values. Data are expressed as the mean±SD. Me: serum-free medium, cMe: complete medium. *P<0.05 vs MI+Me at day 7; ‡P<0.05 vs MI+cMe; #P<0.05 vs MI+cMe+Indome.

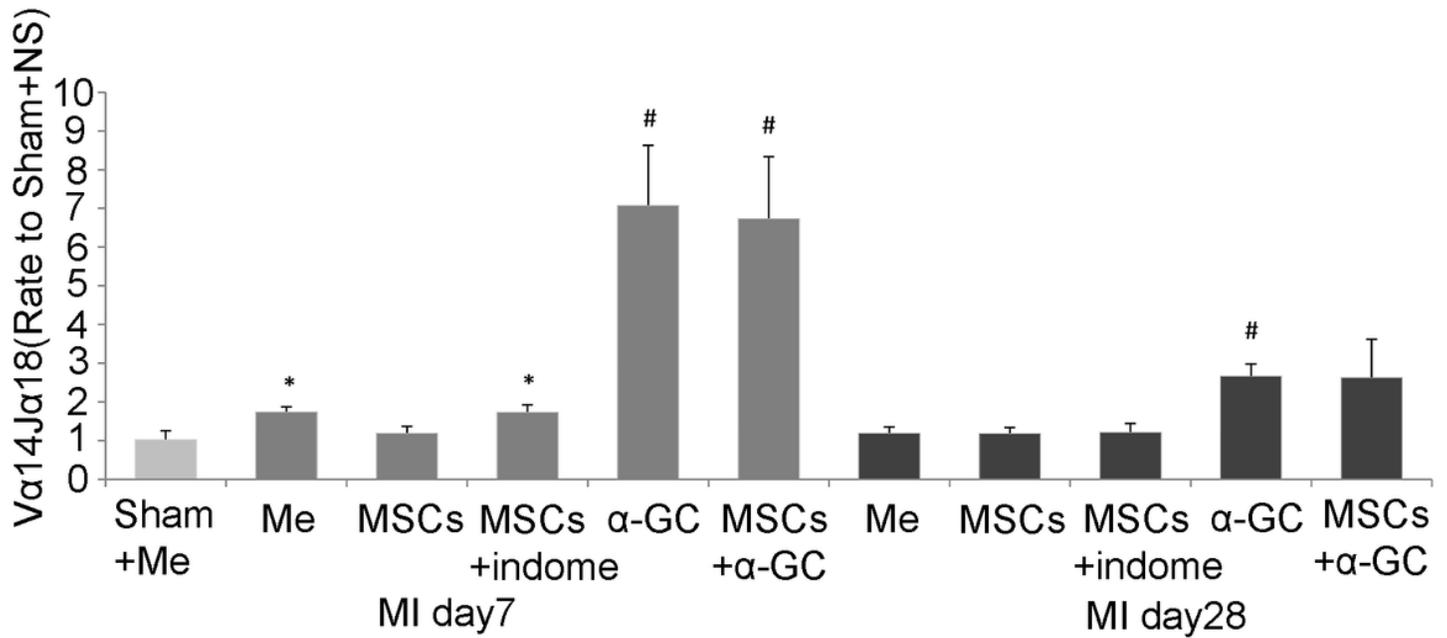


Figure 4

Gene expression of Va14Ja18 in peri-infarct LVs with the injection of Me, MSCs, and α-GC after surgery at days 7 and 28. *P<0.05 vs MI+MSCs at day 7; #P<0.05 vs MSCs. There was no significant difference between the MI+α-GC and MI+MSCs+α-GC groups at days 7 and 28.

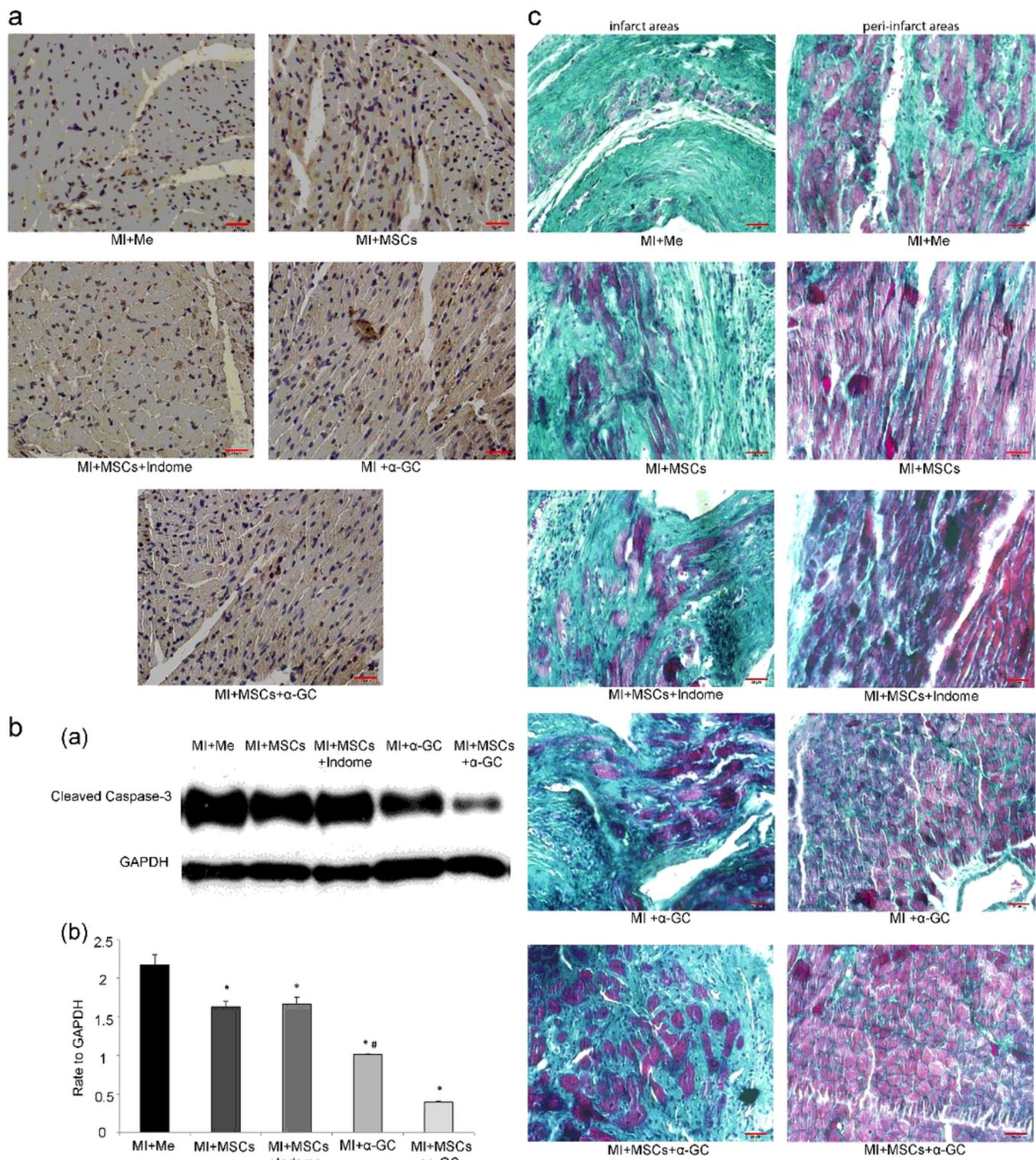


Figure 5

a. Representative photomicrographs of TUNEL staining of LV sections from MI+Me, MI+MSCs, MI+MSCs+indome, MI+α-GC and MI+MSCs+α-GC groups in the peri-infarct area. Scale bar, 20 μm. b. Representative immunoblotting analysis and histogram of gray values for Caspase-3/GAPDH. Data are expressed as the mean±SEM, *P<0.05 vs MI+Me, #P<0.05 versus MI+MSCs+α-GC. c. Representative high-power photomicrographs of LV cross sections stained with Masson trichrome from MI+Me, MI+MSCs,

MI+MSCs+indome, MI+ α -GC and MI+MSCs+ α -GC groups in infarct and peri-infarct areas. Scale bar, 20 μ m.

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