MD-1 Deficiency Accelerates Myocardial Inflammation and Apoptosis in Doxorubicin-Induced Cardiotoxicity by Activating the TLR4/MAPKs/Nuclear Factor kappa B (NF-κB) Signaling Pathway

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Background: Myocardial apoptosis and inflammation play important roles in doxorubicin (DOX)-caused cardiotoxicity. Our prior studies have characterized the effects of myeloid differentiation protein 1 (MD-1) in pathological cardiac remodeling and myocardial ischemia/reperfusion (I/R) injury, but its participations and potential molecular mechanisms in DOX-caused cardiotoxicity remain unknown.

Material/Methods: In the present study, MD-1 knockout mice were generated, and a single intraperitoneal injection of DOX (15 mg/kg) was performed to elicit DOX-induced cardiotoxicity. Cardiac function, histological change, mitochondrial structure, myocardial death, apoptosis, inflammation, and molecular alterations were measured systematically.

Results: The results showed that the protein and mRNA levels of MD-1 were dramatically downregulated in DOX-treated cardiomyocytes. DOX insult markedly accelerated cardiac dysfunction and injury, followed by enhancements of apoptosis and inflammation, all of which were further aggravated in MD-1 knockout mice. Mechanistically, the TLR4/MAPKs/NF-κB pathways, which were over-activated in MD-1-deficient mice, were significantly increased in DOX-damaged cardiomyocytes. Moreover, the abolishment of TLR4 or NF-κB via a specific inhibitor exerted protective effects against the adverse effects of MD-1 loss on DOX-caused cardiotoxicity.

Conclusions: Collectively, these findings suggest that MD-1 is a novel target for the treatment of DOX-induced cardiotoxicity.

MeSH Keywords: Apoptosis • Cardiotoxins • Doxorubicin • Inflammation

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Background

Doxorubicin (DOX) is an anthracycline antibiotic commonly used for the treatment of a broad scope of clinical cancers, including soft-tissue sarcomas, leukemias, and lymphomas [1,2]. Despite its effectiveness in the treatment of various cancers, its irreversible and dose-dependent inductions of life-threatening cardiotoxicity to the heart limits its clinical application and remains one of its most important problems [3]. Although a series of pathological processes, such as ROS, calcium overload, and autophagy, have been shown to trigger DOX-caused myocardial injury [4–6], emerging data have proposed important contributions of inflammation and apoptosis to DOX-caused cardiotoxicity [7]. Therefore, more interferenc-es targeting inflammation and apoptosis can elicit prospective targets and provide possible therapeutic avenues against DOX-caused cardiotoxicity.

Material and Methods

Animals

Male MD-1 knockout (MD-1-KO) mice utilized in the present experiments were obtained from the Japan RIKEN BioResource Mouse Centre (BRC) (B6.129P2-MD-1 tm1Kmiy). MD-1 deficiency was validated by Western blotting assay of the heart tissue from MD-1 knockout mice. All mice were bred in a standard environment with controlled temperature (20–25°C), humidity (40–60%), and light (12 h light/dark cycle), and were provided food and water ad libitum. The experiments and all animal care procedures outlined in our study were performed in adherence with the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals published by the US National Institutes of Health (NIH Publication, 8th Edition, 2011), and were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee from Wuhan University, People’s Republic of China.

Induction of DOX-caused cardiotoxicity and experimental grouping

DOX-caused cardiotoxicity was produced as previously described, with some modification [14]. Male mice (7 weeks of age) were subjected to DOX (15 mg/kg, single dose) by intraperitoneal (IP) injection to induce cardiotoxicity, or to sterile saline as vehicle. To measure the potential relationship between MD-1 and DOX-caused cardiotoxicity, the following experimental groups were designated: (i) the sham plus MD-1 wild-type (WT) (sham+MD-1-WT) group; (ii) the sham plus MD-1-KO (sham+MD-1-KO) group; (iii) the DOX treatment plus MD-1-WT (DOX+MD-1-WT) group; and (iv) the DOX treatment MD-1-KO (DOX+MD-1-KO) (group). To further measure the underlying molecular mechanisms of the pro-cardiotoxicity effects conferred by MD-1 deficiency, we performed an additional experiment in which TLR4-siRNA or NF-kB inhibitor was administered in the absence or presence of MD-1 loss.

Immunohistochemistry assay

The expression of MD-1 in the mouse heart was evaluated by immunohistochemistry as previously described [15]. In brief, paraffin-embedded sections were incubated with a primary antibody against MD-1 (1: 600 dilution, Abcam, USA) at 4°C overnight. Positive staining (brown) was visualized by a DAB kit (Sigma). Hematoxylin was used to counterstain the cell nucleus. Average optical density (AOD =IOD/Area) was used in this study for statistical analysis.

Echocardiographic estimation and hemodynamics

Echocardiographic estimation was carried out to determine cardiac left ventricular (LV) function. The transthoracic echocardiograms were
recorded using a MyLab 30CV ultrasound system (Biosound Easote, Inc.). As described previously [16], two-dimensional (2D) images were collected along the short axes for at least 3 representative cycles. LV M-mode tracing at the mid-papillary level was measured and averaged to determine the ejection fraction (EF) and fractional shortening (FS). Moreover, invasive hemodynamic monitoring was carried out by the PowerLab system utilizing a 1.4-French Millar pressure-volume catheter as previously demonstrated.

**Histological examination**

Myocardial tissue was harvested at the end of the experiment and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde solution for 24 h. After they were embedded in paraffin, the samples were cut into 5-μm thick sections, stained with hematoxylin and eosin, and observed under an optical microscope. To evaluate the severity of myocardial injury, 5 fields were randomly selected from each group and were scored by 2 individuals, who are blinded to the experiment, according to the following criteria: 0, no damage; 1 (mild injury), appearance with interstitial edema and focal necrosis; 2 (moderate injury), appearance with cardiomyocyte swelling and necrosis; 3 (severe injury), appearance of the formation of necrotic contraction bands and inflammatory cells enrichments; 4 (highly severe injury), appearance of expanded necrosis of contraction bands, and inflammation cells infiltrate and hemorrhage [17].

**Terminal uridine nick-end labeling (TUNEL)**

The paraffin sections were stained with an in situ TUNEL detection kit (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) to visualize apoptotic cells, as previously described [18]. Hematoxylin staining was performed to identify cardiomyocyte nuclei. TUNEL-positive nuclei and total cells from at least 5 randomly selected fields per section (400× magnification) were photographed (Leica Microsystems). The apoptotic index was expressed as the ratio of apoptotic cells to total myocytes.

**Mitochondrial morphology**

Ventricular specimens were collected to detect mitochondrial structure by transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Dissected heart tissues (1–2 mm-wide blocks) were immersed in 4% glutaraldehyde overnight. After the samples were post-fixed in 1% osmium tetroxide for 1 h, the sections were dehydrated in a graded ethanol series up to 100%, and embedded in epoxy resin. Ultrathin sections (80-nm-thick) were observed with a JEM-1400 transmission electron microscope (TEM) (Jeol, Tokyo, Japan). Mitochondrial injury was blindly determined by a scoring system, as previously described [19].

**Measurements of LDH and CK-MB**

To assay necrotic enzymes released by cardiomyocytes, blood samples were collected for the biological analysis of LDH and CK-MB levels using commercial analytical kits (Beijing Kemeidongya Biotechnology, China). The results were expressed in international units per liter. The levels of pro-inflammatory mediators such as IL-6/TNF-α in cardiomyocytes were detected by commercial ELISA kits (Nanjing Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute, Nanjing, China) according the manufacturer’s instructions.

**Quantitative RT-PCR**

Quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) was carried out as previously described [20]. In brief, total RNA from cardiac tissue was extracted using Trizol reagent (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Two micrograms of mRNA were reverse-transcribed into cDNA using a cDNA synthesis kit (Fermentas). RT-PCR was manipulated using a SYBR Green/Fluorescein qPCR Master Mix kit (Fermentas) with the ABI Prism 7,500 system. The data were normalized to β-actin to indicate the relative expression levels. The sequence-specific primers that were used are as follows:

**MD-1-F:** 5’-AGTGGGGCTTGGAGATGT-3’,
**R:** 5’-GAAGAGGCTTGTCCATCG-3’.
**β-actin-F:** 5’-TCTTTCAGCTCCGTGC-3’,
**R:** 5’-TCCTTTCAGGCTATTAG-3’

**Western blotting analysis**

For the Western blotting assay, frozen heart tissues were lysed as previously described [21,22]. After the loading concentration was normalized at 50 μg per well, the proteins were separated by 8–12% SDS-PAGE and then transferred onto PVDF membranes (Merck Millipore). Next, the membranes were blocked by 5% skim milk powder dissolved in Tris-buffered saline containing 0.1% Tween-20, washed 3 times, and probed with corresponding primary antibodies including MD-1 (1: 800, Santa Cruz, USA), TLR4 (1: 600, Santa Cruz, USA), p-P38MAPK (1: 500, Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA), p-ERK1/2 (1: 700, Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA), p-JNK (1: 1000, Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA), p-NF-κB (1: 500, Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA), p-PLA2 (1: 600, Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA), p-P38MAPK (1: 600, Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA), p-ERK1/2 (1: 900, Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA), p-JNK (1: 600, Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA), p-NF-κB (1: 800, Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA), and NF-κB (1: 800, Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA) at the recommended dilution overnight at 4°C. After incubation with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies for 60 min, the protein bands were visualized with enhanced chemiluminescence reagent. GAPDH was used as a loading control for whole cellular protein.
Statistical analysis

The numerical data were represented as the mean±SEM. Statistical p value between 2 groups was calculated using the t test. Comparisons of more than 2 groups were assessed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and a post hoc Tukey’s test. Statistical significance was assigned at p values less than 0.05.
ANIMAL STUDY

LVFS, and dp/dt max were reduced, and the dp/dt min was in or without DOX. After DOX treatment, we found that the LVEF, were carried out in MD-1-KO and MD-1-WT mice treated with For the evaluation of cardiac function, echo assay, which was enhanced in the hearts of DOX-treated MD-1-KO mice (Figure 1E). Common serum markers of cardiac injury), which was further en blotting confirmed that MD-1 was silenced in MD-1-KO mice, which showed low expression of MD-1 protein, compared to in the DOX-caused cardiotoxicity. MD-1 silencing accelerated DOX-caused cardiotoxicity. (A, B) The levels of MD-1 protein (detected by Western blot assay) (A, upper panels are representative blots; the lower bar graphs shows quantitative results) and mRNA (detected by qRT-PCR) (B) in mouse hearts after administration of DOX or after a sham operation (n=6, * P<0.05 vs. sham). (C) Immunohistochemistry assay and quantitative data illustrated the protein expression of MD-1 after DOX administration or sham operation (n=4). (D) Representative Western blots of MD-1 protein in heart tissue from MD-1-KO and MD-1-WT mice (n=6). (E) Myocardium death was estimated by serum LDH/CK-MB concentrations with or without DOX treatment (n=6). * p<0.05 vs. MD-1-KO/sham; * p<0.05 vs. MD-1-WT/DOX. (F) Echocardiographic results of the left ventricle (LV) ejection fraction (EF) and fractional shortening (FS) indicating cardiac function after MD-1 loss in response to DOX treatment or sham operation (n=6). Hemodynamic parameters (dp/dt max and dp/dt min) after MD-1 deficiency in response to DOX or sham operation (n=6). * p<0.05 vs. MD-1-KO/sham; * p<0.05 vs. MD-1-WT/DOX. (G, H) Representative mitochondrial morphologies, as detected by TEM exhibiting divergent status of the swollen mitochondria, disrupted mitochondrial cristae, and disorganized myofibrils in mice either subjected to DOX injury or not (n=4). Scale bar=5 μm

Figure 1. MD-1 silencing accelerated DOX-caused cardiotoxicity. (A, B) The levels of MD-1 protein (detected by Western blot assay) (A, upper panels are representative blots; the lower bar graphs shows quantitative results) and mRNA (detected by qRT-PCR) (B) in mouse hearts after administration of DOX or after a sham operation (n=6, * P<0.05 vs. sham). (C) Immunohistochemistry assay and quantitative data illustrated the protein expression of MD-1 after DOX administration or sham operation (n=4). (D) Representative Western blots of MD-1 protein in heart tissue from MD-1-KO and MD-1-WT mice (n=6). (E) Myocardium death was estimated by serum LDH/CK-MB concentrations with or without DOX treatment (n=6). * p<0.05 vs. MD-1-KO/sham; * p<0.05 vs. MD-1-WT/DOX. (F) Echocardiographic results of the left ventricle (LV) ejection fraction (EF) and fractional shortening (FS) indicating cardiac function after MD-1 loss in response to DOX treatment or sham operation (n=6). Hemodynamic parameters (dp/dt max and dp/dt min) after MD-1 deficiency in response to DOX or sham operation (n=6). * p<0.05 vs. MD-1-KO/sham; * p<0.05 vs. MD-1-WT/DOX. (G, H) Representative mitochondrial morphologies, as detected by TEM exhibiting divergent status of the swollen mitochondria, disrupted mitochondrial cristae, and disorganized myofibrils in mice either subjected to DOX injury or not (n=4). Scale bar=5 μm

Results

MD-1 silencing accelerated DOX-caused cardiotoxicity

To determine whether MD-1 is involved in DOX-caused cardio toxicity, we first measured MD-1 expression in the hearts of DOX-treated mice. We observed that the expression of MD-1 at the protein (Figure 1A) and mRNA (Figure 1B) levels was progressively downregulated in the hearts of mice that underwent DOX treatment compared with sham mice. Accordingly, immunohistochemistry further illustrated lower expression of MD-1 after DOX administration compared to the sham operation (Figure 1C). This evidence suggests the possible role of MD-1 in DOX-caused cardiotoxicity.

To examine the potential functions of MD-1 during DOX-caused cardiotoxicity, MD-1-KO mice were generated, and subsequently subjected to the DOX procedure or sham operation. Western blotting confirmed that MD-1 was silenced in MD-1-KO mice, which showed low expression of MD-1 protein, compared to wild-type (MD-1-WT) mice (Figure 1D). Importantly, DOX treatment markedly increased the release of LDH and CK-MB (as common serum markers of cardiac injury), which was further enhanced in the hearts of DOX-treated MD-1-KO mice (Figure 1E).

For the evaluation of cardiac function, echo assay, which was used to evaluate the LVEF/LVFS (Figure 1F), and hemodynamic measurements, including dp/dt max and dp/dt min (Figure 1F), were carried out in MD-1-KO and MD-1-WT mice treated with or without DOX. After DOX treatment, we found that the LVEF, LVFS, and dp/dt max were reduced, and the dp/dt min was increased, especially in MD-1-KO mice. Furthermore, MD-1 loss in the DOX-treated myocardium aggravated mitochondrial swelling, formation of vacuoles, and the rupture of mitochondrial cristae, as detected by electron microscopy, compared to that in the DOX + MD-1-WT group (Figure 1G, 1H). These data indicate that DOX treatment significantly increased myocardial damage, which was much more serious in the hearts of MD-1-KO mice.

MD-1 silencing worsened myocardial apoptosis and inflammation in DOX-caused cardiotoxicity

We also examined the effects of MD-1 deficiency on myocardial apoptosis and inflammation after DOX administration. As expected, TUNEL-positive cells were more pronounced in the DOX group than in the sham group. Similarly, the apoptotic rate was dramatically higher in MD-1-KO mice in comparison with MD-1-WT mice (Figure 2A, 2B). The morphological alteration of cardiomyocytes was also observed using H&E staining (Figure 2C, 2D). In the sham group, myocardial fibers were intact and arranged regularly, cardiomyocytes were integral, and cell structures were clear with no necrosis or inflammatory cell infiltration. However, in the DOX group, myocardial fibers were partially ruptured and disorganized, and interstitial edema was observed. All of these effects were further worsened in MD-1-KO mice after DOX treatment. We found higher serum levels of pro-inflammatory IL-6 and TNF-α in the DOX group in comparison with the sham group, and the levels were much higher in the hearts of MD-1-KO mice treated with DOX (Figure 2E). No significant differences in these parameters were found between sham-operated MD-1-KO and MD-1-WT mice. Therefore, the loss of MD-1 induces greater
susceptibility of mouse hearts to DOX-caused cardiotoxicity, which is closely associated with the enhancement of myocardial inflammation and apoptosis.

**MD-1 silencing activated the TLR4/MAPKs/NF-κB pathways in DOX-caused cardiotoxicity**

The above results suggest that MD-1 deficiency accelerates DOX-induced dysfunction, inflammation, apoptosis, and cardiotoxicity; however, the potential molecular mechanisms remain unknown. To address this issue, we evaluated the TLR4-mediated MAPKs/NF-κB signaling pathway, which is recognized as a common target of MD-1. As shown in Figure 3A and 3B, Western blotting measurements demonstrated that DOX treatment caused a dramatic elevation in the protein expression of TLR4, p-P38MAPK, p-JNK, p-ERK1/2, and p-P65/NF-κB, which were markedly increased in MD-1-KO mice in comparison with MD-1-WT mice after DOX treatment. Moreover, there were no significant differences in the levels of t-P38MAPK, t-JNK, t-ERK1/2, or t-P65/NF-κB among the 4 groups.

**Blockage of TLR4 or NF-κB rescued the adverse effect of MD-1 silencing on DOX-caused cardiotoxicity**

In the subsequent investigations, we further verified whether the adverse effects of MD-1 silencing on DOX-caused cardiotoxicity was dependent on the TLR4/MAPKs/NF-κB signaling pathways. TLR4-siRNA and BAY11-7082 (an NF-κB inhibitor) were added to confirm the above results. According to the echo determination, MD-1 silencing significantly worsened myocardial dysfunction, and this effect was blocked in the presence of TLR4-siRNA (Figure 4A, 4B) or BAY11-7082 (Figure 4E, 4F). Similar results were observed for apoptosis and inflammation under the conditions of MD-1 silencing and MD-1-WT mice after DOX treatment.
TLR4-siRNA (Figure 4C, 4D) or BAY11-7082 (Figure 4G, 4H) administration after DOX treatment. These data suggest that the adverse effects of MD-1 silencing on DOX-caused cardiotoxicity are largely dependent on repression of the TLR4/MAPKs/NF-κB signaling pathways.

**Discussion**

Apoptosis- and inflammation-elicited myocardial death serves as a critical factor in DOX-caused cardiotoxicity [18,23,24], which not only elicits acute impairment, but also enables later cardiac remodeling [25]. In terms of the modulation of various pathological processes such as myocardial I/R injury and high-fat-diet-caused cardiac remodeling by MD-1 [8,26], we speculated that MD-1 is a decisive mediator in the pathogenesis of DOX-triggered cardiotoxicity. In the present study, by utilizing loss-of-function approaches, we identified MD-1 as a negative regulator of myocardial damage, cardiac malfunction, mitochondrial structure, histological alteration, inflammation, and apoptosis after DOX treatment. These mechanisms underlie the overactivation of the TLR4/MAPKs/NF-κB pathways and are thereby directly involved in the cell-fate outcomes after exposure to DOX. Thus, MD-1 has emerged as a potent therapeutic candidate for the prevention of DOX-caused cardiac damage.

DOX is commonly used for cancer treatment [27], but its clinical use is limited by cumulative dose-dependent cardiotoxicity and irreversible cardiomyocyte death [28], cardiac remodeling, and heart failure [25,29]. The therapeutic methods for minimizing the destructive consequences of DOX-led myocardial damage are currently limited. Emerging evidence has demonstrated that the vigorous stimulation of apoptotic cascades induces critical mechanisms that aggravate myocardial loss in DOX-treated hearts [30]. Among these mechanisms, the stimulation of the Bax/Bcl-2 ratio results in the formation of mitochondrial pores, in addition to aggravating cytochrome c release and irreversible apoptotic cascades [31,32]. Moreover, inflammation has been proposed to aggravate myocardial injury in response to DOX cardiotoxicity [7]. Consistently, the data

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Figure 3. MD-1 silencing repressed the TLR4/MAPKs/NF-κB pathways in DOX-caused cardiotoxicity. Representative Western blots (A) and quantitative results (B) showing the protein expression of TLR4, p-ERK1/2, p-JNK1/2, p-p38, t-ERK1/2, t-JNK1/2, t-p38, and t-p65 undergoing sham or DOX (n=6). * p<0.05 vs. MD-1-KO/sham; # p<0.05 vs. MD-1-WT/DOX.

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Figure 4. Blockage of TLR4 or NF-κB rescued the adverse effect of MD-1 silencing on DOX-caused cardiotoxicity. Cardiac function, including LVEF (A) and LVFS (B), was analyzed by echo assay in MD-1-WT and MD-1-KO mice with or without TLR4-siRNA transfection after DOX treatment (n=5). (C) Cell apoptosis, as detected by TUNEL staining (n=5). (D) IL-6 and TNF-α contents as detected by ELISA assay (n=5). (E, F) Cardiac function, including LVEF and LVFS, as analyzed by echo assay, in MD-1-WT and MD-1-KO mice treated with or without an NF-κB inhibitor (BAY11-7082) under DOX treatment (n=5). (G) Cell apoptosis as detected by TUNEL staining (n=5). (H) IL-6 and TNF-α contents as detected by ELISA assay (n=5). * P<0.05; # P<0.05.
N.S. – no statistical significance.
presented here reveal that DOX treatment leads to disturbed myocardial structure and function, in addition to elevating inflammation and apoptosis. Importantly, MD-1 silencing further exacerbates these abnormalities. Interventions that target MD-1 may represent novel methods and provide strategies for the prevention of DOX-caused cardiotoxicity.

It is commonly reported that MD-1, also called Ly86, is involved in multiple pathological processes and cellular events, especially the activation of inflammation through the formation of complexes with RP105 [33]. For instance, Chen et al. showed that MD-1 loss exacerbates dextran sodium sulfate-elicited colitis [34]. The important roles of RP105/MD-1 in the regulation of HF-caused insulin resistance and inflammation were also demonstrated in a previous study [33]. In addition, our recent studies demonstrated that MD-1 deficiency enhances inflammatory atrial remodeling and cardiac hypertrophy under a high-fat diet [10]. Consistent with the above data, our present study for the first time demonstrates the precise effects of MD-1 silencing on DOX-caused cardiotoxicity and inflammation, and further strengthens our understanding of the regulatory effects of MD-1 on inflammation. Of note, although the effect of MD-1 on inflammation was confirmed, its roles in myocardial apoptosis remain unclear. Interestingly, accumulating data have validated that RP105 can exert protective effects against I/R-induced endothelial malfunction and cardiac death, the mechanisms of which are mainly dependent on a reduction of inflammation and apoptosis. As expected, our present study verified that DOX-elicited myocardial apoptosis is dramatically increased after MD-1 deficiency, thereby showing a novel role for MD-1 in the regulation of apoptosis, in spite of the inflammation-inhibitory contribution.

To clarify the molecular mechanisms by which MD-1 causes adverse effects on DOX-induced cardiac injury, the TLR-mediated signaling pathways were explored. It is well known that MD-1 acts as a crucial mediator in triggering intercellular cascade factor through functional and structural communications with RP105 [33]. In this way, MD-1 has been widely verified to repress TLR4-mediated signaling pathways, especially TLR4/MAPKs/NF-κB cascades, and thereby participate in multiple pathophysiological processes. MAPKs signaling pathways primarily include 3 important kinases – ERK1/2, JNK1/2, and p38 – the phosphorylation of which are capable of initiating inflammation and apoptosis by stimulating the downstream transcription factor NF-κB under various stress stimuli. Recently, the MD-1-elicited changes of TLR4-mediated MAPKs/NF-κB pathways were confirmed in a series of investigations [11,35]. For instance, our prior studies demonstrated that MD-1 loss led to the activation of the TLR4-ERK1/2-NF-κB pathways, but that it was abolished by MD-1 overexpression in pressure overload-caused cardiac remodeling [11]. However, MD-1 has no significant influences on the phosphorylation of p38 or JNK1/2 [11]. On the contrary, another study showed that the free fatty acid (FFA)-caused elevation of p-ERK, p-JNK, p-p38, and p65/NF-κB was significantly facilitated in MD-1-deficient mice [36]; however, these alterations were absent in hearts overexpressing MD-1 [36]. Moreover, our recent experiments verified that MD-1 deficiency aggravates MIRI and atrial remodeling induced by a high-fat diet (HFD) [26], and the underlying molecular mechanisms are associated with repression of the TLR4/NF-κB signaling pathway. The above data therefore suggest that regulation by MD-1 occurs in a TLR4-dependent manner. Consistent with previous research, we herein report for the first time that over-activation of the TLR4/MAPKs/NF-κB pathway via MD-1 deficiency is an important molecular mechanism for aggravating DOX-caused cardiotoxicity. Further studies are still needed to verify whether other molecular mechanisms are involved in the MD-1-mediated effects on DOX-caused myocardial damage.

Conclusions

In summary, our study demonstrates that MD-1 is an intrinsic negative mediator of DOX-caused cardiotoxicity via interference with inflammation and apoptosis. The MD-1-mediated alteration of the TLR4/MAPKs/NF-κB pathway provides appealing targets and raises hope for the treatment of DOX-caused cardiotoxicity. However, further studies are needed to highlight the possible molecules, especially miRNAs and lncRNAs, that directly target MD-1, which might offer new insights into and innovate therapeutic strategies for DOX-caused cardiotoxicity.

Data availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

Conflict of interest

None.
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