Exosomes Derived From Mesenchymal Stem Cells Pretreated With Ischemic Rat Heart Extracts Promote Angiogenesis via the Delivery of DMBT1

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Abstract
Mesenchymal stem cell–derived exosomes (MSC-Exos) have been shown to promote angiogenesis. Treating MSCs with ischemic rat brain extracts was sufficient to augment their benefits in stroke. However, no similar analyses of ischemic heart extracts have been performed to date. We aim to determine whether MSC-Exos derived from MSCs pretreated with ischemic rat heart extract were able to promote angiogenesis and to clarify underlying mechanisms. ELISA (enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay) of heart extracts revealed a significant increase of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) at 24 h post-MI (myocardial infarction) modeling, and time-dependent decreases in hypoxia inducible factor–1α (HIF-1α). MTT and wound healing assays revealed human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) migration and proliferation increased following MSC5-Exo treatment (exosomes derived from MSC pretreated with ischemic heart extracts of 24 h post-MI) relative to MSCN-Exo treatment (exosomes derived from MSC pretreated with normal heart extracts). Proteomic analyses of MSC5-Exo and MSCN-Exo were conducted to screen for cargo proteins promoting angiogenesis. Result revealed several angiogenesis-related proteins were upregulated in MSC5-Exo, including DMBT1 (deleted in malignant brain tumors 1). When DMBT1 was silenced in MSCs, HUVECs with MSC5MBT1 RNAi-Exo treatment exhibited impaired proliferative and migratory activity and reductions of DMBT1, p-Akt, β-catenin, and VEGF. To explore how ischemic heart extracts took effects, ELISA was conducted showing a significant increase of IL-22 at 24 h post-MI modeling. P-STAT3, IL22RA1, DMBT1, and VEGF proteins were increased in MSC5 relative to MSCN, and VEGF and DMBT1 were increased in MSC5-Exos. Together, these suggest that IL-22 upregulation in ischemic heart extracts can increase DMBT1 in MSCs. Exosomes derived from those MSCs deliver DMBT1 to HUVECs, thereby enhancing their migratory and proliferative activity.

Keywords
angiogenesis, mesenchymal stem cells, exosome, DMBT1, ischemic rat heart extracts

Introduction
Over the coming decades, more than 500 million individuals are forecast to benefit from a range of angiogenesis-related therapeutic interventions for the treatment of myocardial infarction (MI)1, and cerebral ischemia2, and other ischemic diseases. Angiogenesis is a complex process between specific cells and the surrounding microenvironment. Cell-based angiogenic therapies have been implemented to treat specific ischemic diseases3,4, with mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) being applied for the treatment of acute MI5,6 and stroke7,8. Indeed, MSCs exhibit therapeutic promise as a cell-based intervention9,10 with pro-angiogenic potential11,12. Exosomes are small (diameter: 40–150 nm) extracellular vesicles that are secreted by many different cell types that have been identified as targets of interest in regenerative medicine contexts13. MSC-derived exosomes (MSC-Exos) have been shown to deliver proteins and other bioactive compounds to recipient cells, thereby enabling these vesicles to regulate target cell functionality14,15. Vascular endothelial...
cells (VECs) can take up MSC-Exos, which thereby induce angiogenic activity. In another report, ischemic brain extracts were found to induce the production of growth factors by MSCs and to enhance the protective activity of these cells in the context of stroke. However, no studies to date have assessed whether ischemic heart extracts can similarly alter MSC functionality.

Herein, we conducted an analysis of exosomes derived from normal or ischemic rat heart extract-pretreated MSCs (MSCN-Exo and MSCE-Exo, relatively) and the effects of these vesicles on VECs. In addition, protein expression profiles within MSCN-Exo and MSCE-Exo were assessed to identify potential mediators of MSC-Exo bioactivity. The overall goal of this analysis was to establish the impact of ischemic heart extracts on MSCs, and to further clarify the mechanistic basis for the potential therapeutic benefits of MSC-Exos as promoters of VEC angiogenesis.

Materials and Methods

Cell Isolation and Culture

Bone marrow MSCs were isolated from female Sprague–Dawley (SD) rats (80–100 g) as in prior reports. Briefly, cell culture media was used to flush the femurs and tibiae of these rats. Cells were then centrifuged for 5 min at 260 × g at 4°C and plated in Dulbecco’s Modified Eagle Medium/Nutrient Mixture F-12 (DMEM/F12; Hyclone, Logan, UT, USA) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Gibco, Waltham, MA, USA) and penicillin/streptomycin (HyClone) in culture dishes. Cells were cultured in a humidified 37°C 5% CO₂ incubator. After 48 h, media was changed to remove non-adherent cells. When cells were 70% to 80% confluent, they were harvested using 0.25% trypsin (Sigma, Burlington, MA, USA) and stained with antibodies specific for rat CD90-APC, CD11b/c-FITC, and CD45-PEcy7 (eBioscience). MSCs from passages 3 to 5 (P3–P5) were used for all analyses. Human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) were obtained from EK Bioscience (Shanghai, China) and cultured in Endothelial Cell Medium (ScienCell, CA, USA). P4–P5 HUVECs were used for all analyses.

Acute MI Model Establishment

All animals were obtained from the Experimental Animal Center of Central South University (Changsha, China). Animal experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Central South University. All the procedures were in compliance with the “Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals” approved by the Experimental Animal Center of Central South University. Female SD rats (200–250 g) were used for left anterior descending artery (LAD) modeling as in prior reports. Female rats were chosen as studies showed no significant differences in cardiac function and remodeling between male and female MI models. So, in terms of the MI model alone, either the female or the male may be chosen as the subject. For acute MI modeling, either female or male rats have been used as experimental animals in many previous studies.

Briefly, chloral hydrate (20 mg/kg) was used to anesthetize these rats, after which they were intubated and mechanically ventilated using a rodent ventilator (Model 683, Harvard Apparatus, MA, USA) connected to a tracheal tube. Body temperature was maintained at 37°C throughout surgery for all animals. Left-sided thoracotomy was used to expose the heart, after which the LAD was permanently ligated 1 mm for the tip of the normally positioned left auricle using a 6-0 prolene suture. Prior to the closure of the thoracic cavity, the lungs were fully inflated via applying positive end-expiratory pressure, and the musculature and skin were then closed in a layer-by-layer manner.

Ischemic Rat Heart Extract Preparation and MSC Treatment

At 1, 3, and 7 days after acute myocardial injury (AMI) modeling, a standard block was collected from rats in the ischemia and control groups, with coronal coordinates corresponding to the apex of the heart: 1–1 mm. All heart blocks were prepared on ice, with the wet weight being immediately measured. Tissue samples were then homogenized in Dulbecco’s modified eagle medium (DMEM; 150 mg/mL), and homogenates were centrifuged for 10 min at 10,000 × g at 4°C. Supernatants were then stored at −80°C for subsequent use. Prior to heart extract treatment, MSCs were washed two times with phosphate buffer saline (PBS) and cultured in complete culture media supplemented with heart extracts from control or AMI model rats at a 1:10 (extract: culture media) ratio.

MSC-Exo Isolation and Identification

Exosomes were collected from rat bone marrow MSCs. Briefly, exosome-free FBS was prepared via overnight ultracentrifugation at 100,000 × g, after which MSCs were pretreated with heart extract-containing media at 37°C for 24 h. Media was then removed and cells were washed two times with PBS, followed by the addition of exosome-depleted complete media. After a further 48 h culture period, MSC supernatants were harvested, and exosomes were isolated within 24 h. In addition, MSCs were harvested for RNA extraction. MSC-Exos were then isolated as per prior report. Briefly, supernatants were serially centrifuged for 15 min at 300 × g, 30 min at 2,000 × g, and 45 min at 10,000 × g to remove cellular debris, after which supernatants were filtered through a sterile 0.22 mm sterilized filter (Millipore, MA, USA) and then ultracentrifuged for 75 min at 100,000 × g (Thermo Fisher Scientific, NC, USA; Sorvall, SureSpinTM 630/36, fixed angle rotor). These exosomes...
were then resuspended in PBS and the ultracentrifugation step was repeated, after which the exosome-containing pellet was suspended in PBS, layered onto a 30% (w/v) sucrose cushion, and centrifuged for 75 min at 110,000 × g. Exosome pellets were then resuspended in PBS (30–50 μL) followed by storage at −80°C. MSC-Exo characterization was conducted via transmission electron microscopy (TEM; Hitachi H-7650) and qNano nanopore-based exosome detection system according to the manufacturer’s instructions (Izon, Christchurch, New Zealand). Western blotting was also used to assess MSC marker protein (CD63, TSG101) expression.

Proteomic Analysis

**Protein sample preparation.** Six biological replicate MSCs were incubated in 75 cm² culture flasks in media containing heart extracts for 24 h at 37°C, after which media was removed and cells were rinsed twice using PBS. Exosome-depleted culture media was then added to these cells, followed by culture for an additional 48 h period. MSCN-Exo samples (N1, N2, N3) and MSCE-Exo samples (E1, E2, E3) were then prepared from these replicate MSC samples, and those samples were processed via an isobaric tags for relative and absolute quantitation (iTRAQ)-based quantitative proteomic analysis performed by the BiotechPack Scientific Company (Beijing, China). Initially, samples were sonicated thrice in lysis buffer (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) on ice, after which chilled 15% trichloroacetic acid was used to precipitate proteins at −20°C for 4 h. These proteins were then dissolved again in an appropriate buffer [8 M urea, 100 mM tetraethylammonium bromide (TEAB), pH 8.0]. A 2-D Quant kit (GE Healthcare Life Science, USA) was used to measure protein concentrations. Proteins were digested by treating them for 30 min with dithiothreitol (5 mM) at 56°C for reduction, followed by alkylation for 15 min with iodoacetamide (11 mM) and dilution in TEAB (200 mM) to a urea concentration of <2 M. Trypsin was then added at a 1:100 trypsin-to-protein mass ratio for 4 h, with this same ratio also being utilized for a second overnight digestion. Roughly 100 μg protein per sample was digested using trypsin for downstream analyses.

**TMT labeling and HPLC fractionation.** Digested peptides were desalted using a Strata X C18 SPE column (Phenomenex) and vacuum-dried, after which they were resuspended in 1 M TEAB and processed using a 6-plex tandem mass tag™ (TMT) kit (Sigma). After incubation for 2 h, mixtures of peptides were pooled, desalted, and vacuum-dried. High pH reverse-phase high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) was then used for peptide fractionation with an Agilent 300 Extend C18 column (5 μm particles, 4.6 × 250 mm²). Peptide separation was achieved using a 2% to 60% acetonitrile in 10 mM ammonium bicarbonate (pH 9.0) gradient over an 80 min period, with 80 fractions being collected and combined to yield 18 fractions that were vacuum-dried.

**Quantitative Liquid Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (LC-MS) proteomic analysis.** After dissolution in 0.1% formic acid, peptides were desalted with a reversed-phase pre-column (Acclaim PepMap 100; Thermo) and separated with a reversed-phase analytical column (Acclaim PepMap RSLC; Thermo). For these analyses, the gradient elution strategy consisted of an increasing (7%–25%) concentration of solvent B (0.1% formic acid (FA) in 98% acetonitrile (ACN)) over a 24 min period, followed by 25% to 40% B in the subsequent 8 min, 40% to 80% B in the following 4 min, and holding at 80% for 4 min. A constate 350 nL/min flow rate was maintained at all times with an EASY-nLC 1000 ultra performance liquid chromatography (UPLC) system. Peptides were subjected to NSI source exposure after which tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS) was performed in a Q ExactiveTM instrument (Thermo) coupled online to the UPLC apparatus. Intact peptides in theorbitrap were detected at a 70,000 resolution. For MS/MS, peptides were selected at an normalized collision energy (NCE) of 28, with ions within the orbitrap being detected at a 17,500 resolution. During scanning, a data-dependent protocol was enacted with alternation between a single MS scan and 20 MS/MS scans for the top 20 precursor ions above the 1 × 104 threshold ion count during the MS survey scan with a dynamic exclusion of 30.0 s. For this analysis, an electrospray voltage of 2.0 kV was used. Orbitrap over-filling was prevented using automatic gain control. In total, MS/MS spectra were generated using 5 × 104 accumulated ions, with MS scans being conducted in an m/z scan range from 350 to 1,800 and a fixed first mass of 100 m/z.

**Bioinformatics analyses.** MS/MS data were processed using MaxQuant with the integrated Andromeda search engine (v.1.5.2.8). Tandem mass spectra were queried against the SWISS-PROT Human database, with Trypsin/P being specified as the cleavage enzyme and with an allowance for up to two missing cleavages. The mass error for precursor and fragment ions was set to 10 ppm and 0.02 Da, respectively. Carbamidomethyl on Cys was specified as a fixed modification, and oxidation on Met and acetylation on the protein N-terminus were specified as variable modifications. The TMT 6-plex protein quantification method was selected in Mascot, with a false discovery rate (FDR) of <1% at the protein, peptide, and propensity score matching (PSM) levels. Gene Ontology (GO) analyses were conducted to assess proteins with respect to their annotated cellular component, biological process, and molecular function annotations using the UniPort-GOA (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/GOA/), InterProScan (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/interpro/), and GO annotation databases (http://geneontology.org/). Those proteins that were differentially expressed at an absolute fold change cutoff of ≥1.5 were identified, with a two-tailed Fisher’s exact test being employed to examine the enrichment of these differentially expressed proteins against all identified proteins. A corrected P < 0.05 was the threshold of significance in these GO analyses.
**Small Interfering RNA–Mediated Gene Knockdown**

MSCs (P3–P4) were incubated for 24 h in 100 mm dishes containing heart extracts. On the day of transfection when cells were 60% to 70% confluent, they were washed two times with PBS, after which fresh media was added and cells were transfected with 50 nM of a small interfering RNA (siRNA) specific for rat deleted in malignant brain tumors 1 (DMBT1) (si-DMBT1) or a corresponding negative control (si-NC) using Lipofectamine 2000 (Life Technologies) based on provided directions. After transfection, MSCs were incubated for 24 h under standard culture conditions, after which MSC-Exos were isolated. Green fluorescent protein (GFP) transfection was conducted in parallel to quantify transfection efficiency. DMBT1 primer sequences were as follows:

For: 5′-CCTCAAAGGCGGTGTCTCAA-3′
Rev: 5′-TGAAGCATCTTGACGCTACA-3′.

**MSC-Exo Internalization Assay**

MSC-Exos were labeled with Dil (1 µg/mL; Invitrogen) based on provided directions. After labeling, unbound Dil was removed by washing MSC-Exos with PBS and centrifuging them for 2 h at 100,000 × g. Labeled MSC-Exos (10 µg/mL) were then added to HUVEC culture medium for 6 h, after which these cells were rinsed two times with PBS, fixed for 15 min with 4% paraformaldehyde, washed with PBS, and nuclei were stained for 15 min with 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; 0.5 µg/mL; Invitrogen). Cells were then imaged via fluorescence microscope (Olympus).

**In Vitro Angiogenesis Assays**

To examine the impact of MSC-Exos on HUVEC angiogenic activity, cells were treated with MSCN-Exos or with MSCC-Exos (100 µg/mL). To examine the role of DMBT1 within MSC-Exos as a regulator of HUVEC activity, cells were treated with MSCN-Exos (100 µg/mL) exosomes from MSCs pretreated with normal heart extracts (100 µg/mL). To examine the impact of MSC-Exos on HUVEC angiogenic activity, cells were treated with MSCN-Exos or with MSCC-Exos for 24 h, after which 20 µL of MTT solution (1 mg/mL) was added per well, followed by an additional 4 h incubation at 37°C. Media was then aspirated from each well and replaced with 150 µL dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO; Sigma-Aldrich) to dissolve formazan crystals. Viable cells were then counted with a microplate reader by measuring absorbance (OD) at 570 nm, with the proliferation rate (%) being calculated as follows: OD experimental group − OD control group / OD control group × 100%.

**Wound Healing Assay**

HUVECs (2 × 105/well) were plated in triplicate in a 12-well plate until adherent, at which time, a 200 µL micropipette tip was used to generate a scratch wound in the monolayer surface. Wells were washed two times with PBS and then treated with appropriate exosomes (100 µg/mL) or an equivalent volume of PBS. Mitomycin-C (5 µg/mL; Sigma) was included throughout the duration of this assay to prevent cellular proliferation from contributing to wound closure. HUVECs were imaged at 0 and 12 h post-wounding, with the rate of wound closure being calculated based on the wound area at different time points as follows: Migration area (%) = (A0h – A12h) / A0h × 100%, where A0h and A12h correspond to the wound area at the 0 h and 12 h time points, respectively.

**Cell Cycle Analyses**

HUVECs were plated overnight in 10 cm dishes (2 × 106/dish) at 37°C, after which media was exchanged for fresh media containing exosomes (100 µg/mL) from appropriate treatment groups. HUVECs were then incubated for an additional 24 h, after which cells were collected, rinsed twice, and suspended in 2 mL of PBS supplemented with 0.1% bovine serum albumin (BSA). Cells were then fixed for 1 h using chilled 70% ethanol at 4°C, after which they were rinsed two times using PBS and stained for 3 h in 2 mL of propidium iodide (PI)/RNase staining solution (Cell Signaling Technology) at 4°C while protected from light. After staining, HUVECs were assayed with a BD FACSCalibur™ flow cytometer (BD Bioscience). Cell cycle distributions were calculated based on a comparison of cell counts with the PI fluorescent signal at the phycoerythrin absorbance (PE-A) peak.

**Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays**

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) analyses of hypoxia inducible factor–1α (HIF-1α), vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), and IL-22 in ischemic heart tissue extracts were performed as per provided directions (Elabscience Biotechnology Co., China). Individual extracts were separated into triplicate samples (three 200 µL samples/plate). Absorbance in individual wells was assessed using a microplate reader (450–620 nm), with media being analyzed to assess background signal levels. Linear standard curves were generated by plotting log-transformed absorbance values against concentration values, with regression analyses being used to generate best-fit lines.
Western Blotting

Standard protocols were utilized for Western blotting, using SurePAGE™ precast gel (M00653, Bis-Tris, 4–12%, 12 wells) and StartingBlock™ blocking solution (#37538, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Incubation time was for 15 min at 4°C. The following primary antibodies were used for this study: anti-CD63 (1:300; Santa Cruz), anti-TSG101 (1:1,000; ProteinTech), anti-DMBT1 (1:5,000; Abcam), anti-VEGF (1:500; R&D system), anti-STAT3 (1:1,000; Cell Signaling Technology), anti-p-STAT3 (1:1,000; Cell Signaling Technology), anti-IL22RA1 (1:500;Santa Cruz), anti-p-Akt (1:500; Cell Signaling Technology), anti-β-catenin (1:1,000; Abcam), and anti-GAPDH (1:5,000; Cell Signaling Technology). Secondary antibodies used in the present study (1:5,000) were from Cell Signaling Technology. The Immobilon ECL Ultra Western HRP Substrate (Millipore) was used to develop these blots, and a ChemiDoc MP Imaging System (Bio-Rad) was used for imaging thereof.

Statistical Analysis

Data are means ± standard deviation (SD) and were compared via one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA s) using GraphPad Prism. \( P < 0.05 \) was the significance threshold. Bonferroni was used for post hoc test.

Results

MSC, MSC-Exo, and Heart Extract Characterization

Between 8 and 10 days after initial plating, rat bone marrow MSC colonies with spindle-like cell morphological characteristics were observed (Fig. 1A). These MSCs exhibited negative CD11b/c and CD45 surface staining together with strong positivity for the MSC marker protein CD90 as measured via flow cytometry (Fig. 1B), consistent with prior reports. Harvested MSC-Exos were then assessed via characteristics were observed (Fig. 1A). These MSCs exhibited MSC colonies with spindle-like cell morphological characteristics. Between 8 and 10 days after initial plating, rat bone marrow MSC-Exos were then assessed via flow cytometry (Fig. 1B), consistent with prior strong positivity for the MSC marker protein CD90 as measured via flow cytometry (Fig. 1B), consistent with prior reports.

Exosomes Derived From Ischemic Extract-Pretreated MSCs (MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos) Promote HUVEC Migration and Proliferation

To examine the impact of MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos treatment on the function of HUVECs, we first assessed the ability of these vesicles to be internalized by these recipient cells. When MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos were labeled with the red fluorescent Dil dye, they were found to be detectable in the perinuclear compartment within HUVECs within 6 h following treatment (Fig. 2A). Following co-culture with MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos for 24 h, HUVECs exhibited significantly enhanced proliferation (Fig. 2B) and migratory activity in a wound healing assay (Fig. 2C, D) relative to MSC\(^{N}\)-Exo treatment. As such, MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos may strongly promote HUVEC angiogenic activity.

Proteomic Analysis of MSC\(^{N}\)-Exos and MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos

To examine the bioactive macromolecules that may contribute to the ability of MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos to promote HUVEC angiogenic activity, we conducted iTRAQ-based proteomic analyses examining protein expression profiles within both MSC\(^{N}\)-Exos and MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos. Proteins that were differentially expressed were then identified using the following criteria: absolute fold change ≥ 1.5 and \( P < 0.05 \). In total, 2,907 proteins were differentially expressed when comparing MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos and MSC\(^{N}\)-Exos, of which 441 and 2,466 were upregulated and downregulated, respectively, in MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos relative to MSC\(^{N}\)-Exos (Fig. 3B). Biological processes associated with these proteins were then identified, revealing MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos to be enriched for proteins associated with the regulation of angiogenesis-related processes, including the regulation of epithelial cell proliferation, migration, and differentiation; tube morphogenesis; extracellular matrix assembly; regulation of vasculature development; and positive regulation of cytokine production (Fig. 3A). Ratios of different angiogenesis-related proteins were also compared between MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos and MSC\(^{N}\)-Exos (Fig. 3C). DMBT1, which is known to tightly regulate angiogenesis, was enriched in MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos relative to MSC\(^{N}\)-Exos (E / N = 118.3 ± 10.14). Similarly, the key angiogenic cytokine vascular endothelial growth factor A (VEGF-A) was also enriched in MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos relative to MSC\(^{N}\)-Exos (E/N = 13.27 ± 3.94). Consistently, Western blotting confirmed that DMBT1 and VEGF levels were elevated in MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos (Fig. 3D).

DMBT1 Mediates the Pro-Angiogenic Effects of MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos

To better clarify the functional importance of DMBT1 as a mediator of the pro-angiogenic activity of MSC\(^{E}\)-Exos when used to treat HUVECs, we employed an siRNA approach to
knock down DMBT1 expression in MSCs pretreated with 24 h ischemic heart extracts (MSC\textsuperscript{5}). Exosomes were then collected from these MSCs (two kinds of MSC\textsuperscript{5}-Exo: MSC\textsuperscript{con}-Exo and MSC\textsuperscript{DMBT1 RNAi}-Exo, relatively), with DMBT1 knockdown efficiency being confirmed via Western blotting (Fig. 4A). Western blotting was also used to measure DMBT1 levels in HUVECs in different treatment groups (Fig. 4C). These analyses indicated that DMBT1 levels were higher in the MSC\textsuperscript{con}-Exo group relative to the MSC\textsuperscript{DMBT1 RNAi}-Exo group. As prior studies have demonstrated that PI3K-Akt/
GSK3β/β-catenin/VEGF signaling serves as a downstream DMBT1 target, additionally assessed p-Akt, β-catenin, and VEGF levels in HUVECs and found all three to be increased in MSClox-Exo-treated cells as compared with cells in the MSCDMBT1 RNAi-Exo group (Fig. 4C). Both MTT assays (Fig. 4B) and fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) analyses of cell cycle progression (Fig. 4D) indicated that MSCEx-Exos were less readily able to promote HUVEC proliferation following DMBT1 knockdown. Similarly, the ability of MSCEx-Exos to promote HUVEC migration was inhibited upon DMBT1 knockdown in wound healing assay (Fig. 4E, F). Together, these results suggest that DMBT1 may be an important mediator of the pro-angiogenic activity of MSCEx-Exos in HUVECs.

IL-22 Enrichment in Ischemic Heart Extracts Promotes VEGF and DMBT1 Upregulation in MSCs Via the IL22RA1/STAT3 Signaling Pathway

Given the key functional role of DMBT1 in the context of MSCEx-Exo-mediated angiogenesis, we additionally sought to determine the mechanisms whereby it is upregulated in MSCEx-Exos in response to 24 h ischemic heart extract treatment. In prior reports, the IL22RA1/STAT3 pathway was shown to function upstream of DMBT1 in the context of angiogenesis. An ELISA was therefore used to assess IL-22 levels in ischemic heart tissue extracts, revealing a significant increase in the levels of this cytokine in these extracts at 24 h post-MI modeling relative to other experimental...
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groups (Fig. 5A). Western blotting analyses were then performed to assess IL22RA1/STAT3/DMBT1 signaling pathway protein levels given that this pathway functions downstream of IL-22. MSCs treated to heart extracts collected at 24 h post-MI modeling (MSCE) exhibited significant increases in p-STAT3, IL22RA1, and DMBT1 protein levels relative to those observed in MSCs treated with normal heart extracts (MSC N) (Fig. 5B). Moreover, VEGF and DMBT1 levels were elevated in exosomes from the two MSC groups above (Fig. 5D). To assess the relationship between HIF-1α in heart extracts and VEGF expression in MSCs, we also assessed HIF-1α and VEGF protein levels in MSCN and MSCE via Western blotting, in addition to assessing levels of β-catenin given that it is activated by HIF-1α and can induce the production of VEGF30,37,38. Levels of HIF-1α, VEGF, and β-catenin were all elevated in MSCE relative to MSCN (Fig. 5C).

Discussion

The process of angiogenesis is integral to the process of tissue repair following ischemic injury, and many therapeutic strategies have thus sought to induce angiogenic activity as a means of treating these injuries. Active approaches to inducing neovascularization in ischemic tissues have been implemented in the context of wound healing, ischemic retinopathy, and MI39–41, but further work is needed to optimize these therapies. Cell-free exosome-based therapies have been identified as promising tools for the induction of angiogenesis in tissue engineering contexts as they offer advantages including a

**Figure 3.** Proteomic assessment of MSCN-Exos and MSCE-Exos. Proteins that were differentially expressed (absolute fold change ≥ 1.5 and P < 0.05) in MSCC-Exos relative to MSCN-Exos were subjected to gene ontology term enrichment analyses. (A) Angiogenesis-related biological processes are shown. n = 3 per group. (B) The number of proteins with expression change, comparing between indicated treatment groups. (C) The ratio of angiogenesis-related protein levels in MSCC-Exos as compared with levels in MSCN-Exos (n = 3/group). (D) DMBT1, VEGF, and CD63 protein levels in MSCC-Exos and MSCN-Exos as assessed via Western blotting (n = 3/group). DMBT1, deleted in malignant brain tumors 1; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor.
lack of tumorigenicity, the ability to avoid immune rejection, the ability to easily reach ischemic sites, a lack of ability to obstruct the vasculature, and no requirement for stem cell isolation or culture.

Herein, we explored the ability of ischemic heart tissue extracts to affect MSCs and to promote angiogenesis, revealing such angiogenic activity to be at least partially attributable to the exosome-mediated delivery of DMBT1 to recipient cells. Our results suggest that the high levels of IL-22 in ischemic rat heart extracts can promote DMBT1 and VEGF upregulation within MSCs via the IL22RA1/STAT3 signaling pathway. MSC-Exos can then transfer DMBT1 to HUVECs, thereby inducing their proliferative and migratory activity. Proteomic analyses further revealed...
that MSC-Exos were enriched for key angiogenesis-related, proteins, among which DMBT1 was notably enriched. Gain- and loss-of-function experiments revealed that the ability of MSC-Exos to promote angiogenesis was largely dependent on DMBT1. Mechanistically, we posit that MSC-Exos may transfer DMBT1 to VECs, thereby evoking neovascularization responses within ischemic tissues. Consistently, the pretreatment of MSCs with ischemic heart extracts was able to induce DMBT1 protein upregulation (Fig. 6).

DMBT1 is a scavenger receptor cysteine-rich (SRCR) protein superfamily member that plays important roles in cell polarity determination, differentiation, inflammation, and innate immune activation. Prior evidence suggests DMBT1 can function as a tumor suppressor,48 a regulator of epithelial differentiation,49 a Golgi cargo receptor in the

**Figure 5.** IL-22 upregulation in heart tissue extracts promotes VEGF and DMBT1 upregulation in MSCs via the IL22RA1/STAT3 signaling pathway. (A) IL-22 levels in ischemic heart tissue extracts were significantly elevated at 24 h post-MI relative to other treatment groups as measured via ELISA (n = 3/group). ***p < 0.001 versus normal heart extracts group. (B) L22RA1, STAT3, p-STAT3, and DMBT1 protein levels in MSCN and MSCE were assessed via Western blotting (n = 3/group). (C) HIF-1α, VEGF, and β-catenin protein levels were assessed via Western blotting in MSCN and MSCE (n = 3/group). (D) DMBT1, VEGF, and CD63 protein levels were assessed via Western blotting in MSCN or MSCE (n = 3/group). DMBT1, deleted in malignant brain tumors 1; MSC: mesenchymal stem cell; MI: myocardial infarction; ELISA: enzyme-linked immunosorbxent assay; HIF-1α: hypoxia inducible factor–1α; VEGF: vascular endothelial growth factor; GAPDH: glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase.
context of regulated secretion\textsuperscript{50}, a mediator of innate immunity against bacterial pathogens\textsuperscript{51}, and a mediator of intestinal mucosal integrity\textsuperscript{52}. Moreover, recent evidence suggests that DMBT1 functions as an active promoter of endothelial cell adhesion, migration, and proliferation, thereby favoring vascular repair and angiogenesis in ischemic contexts\textsuperscript{40,53}.

Exosomes are key mediators of intercellular communication, transferring bioactive proteins, mRNAs, and miRNAs to recipient cells to modulate their activity\textsuperscript{54–56}. Previous research found that there was increased IL-22 in the mouse brain after hypoxic-ischemic injury\textsuperscript{57}. Recent study suggested that IL-22 acts as a critical role in the malignant transformation of rat MSCs, which is related to the activation of IL22RA1/STAT3 pathway in the tumor microenvironment\textsuperscript{58}. The IL22RA1/STAT3 signaling pathway functions upstream of DMBT1 in angiogenic contexts\textsuperscript{33–36}. STAT3 can bind to the DMBT1 promoter region, thereby promoting tumor progression, with DMBT1 upregulated in SW403 colon carcinoma cell (CRC) cells when treated with IL-22\textsuperscript{34}. We speculate that inhibition of IL-22 could prevent the increase of DMBT1 in MSCs and MSC-derived exosomes although we did not inhibit IL-22 in ischemic heart extracts. Treating MSCs with IL-22 alone could induce MSC cell proliferation, migration, and invasion, possibly in association with IL-22RA1/STAT3 signaling\textsuperscript{58}. However, whether treating MSCs with IL-22 alone can increase MSC exosome pro-angiogenesis effects remains to be determined.

Herein, we found IL-22 levels to be elevated in ischemic rat heart tissue extracts at 24 h post-MI, and Western blotting further supported the activation of the IL22RA1/STAT3/DMBT1 signaling pathway within MSCs following treatment with these IL-22-enriched extracts. STAT3 can influence HIF-1α stability, thereby enhancing the expression of the angiogenic growth factor VEGF\textsuperscript{59,60}, with such VEGF expression being potentially mediated by β-catenin\textsuperscript{30,38,61}. Under hypoxic condition, HIF-1α becomes stabilized, then translocates from the cytoplasm to nucleus, and heterodimerizes with HIF-1β\textsuperscript{62}. HIF-1α in heart extracts probably mostly originated from the cytoplasm. Accordingly, with damaged cytoplasm in ischemic heart, HIF-1α was likely reduced in extracts of ischemic hearts compared with extracts of normal hearts. Consistent with these reports, we found HIF-1α, β-catenin, and VEGF protein levels to all be elevated in MSCs following heart extract pretreatment, suggesting that this HIF-1α/β-catenin/VEGF pathway was activated in this context.

Through proteomic analyses and Western blotting, we found DMBT1 to be expressed at very high levels in MSC-Exos following pretreatment with IL-22-enriched heart extracts. The knockdown of DMBT1 in parental MSCs markedly suppressed the ability of MSC-Exos to promote
HUVEC angiogenesis. DMBT1 reportedly activates the PI3K-Akt/GSK3β/β-catenin/VEGF signaling pathway. Functionally, we found that HUVECs were able to take up MSC-Exos, thereby promoting their proliferative and migratory activity. Moreover, Western blotting revealed that DMBT1-enriched MSC-Exos were able to induce the upregulation of p-Akt (an indicator of PI3K activation), β-catenin (a key component of the GSK3β/β-catenin pathway), and VEGF within HUVECs, while DMBT1 knockdown reversed these changes. As such, these data indicate that DMBT1 may be an important mediator of the MSC-Exos-induced angiogenic regulation of endothelial cells.

As far as we know, there is no study directly comparing the effects of ischemic heart tissue extracts and ischemic brain tissue extracts on angiogenesis of MSC-derived exosomes. However, there are many similarities in the pathophysiological mechanisms between ischemic brain disease and ischemic myocardial disease, primarily acting through angiogenic signaling pathways, such as VEGF, von Willebrand factor (VWF), and platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF). Ischemic brain tissue extracts and ischemic heart tissue extracts may promote similar mechanisms for inducing MSC-derived exosomes, which have the ability to induce angiogenesis. Future studies are needed to explore these speculative mechanisms that overlap between ischemic brain and ischemic heart.

It is important to note that DMBT1 knockdown did not fully ablate the effects of MSC-Exos on angiogenic activity, suggesting that this process may also be regulated by other proteins or bioactive molecules. Consistently, or proteomic data revealed MSC-Exos to be enriched for a variety of angiogenic factors including VEGF-A and ANGPTL4. The transfer of several of these functional biomolecules, rather than DMBT1 alone, thus likely accounts for the observed neovascularization response. However, further research will be essential to determine how MSC-Exos are taken up by HUVECs and how these other factors influence recipient endothelial cell responses.

MSC and its exosome transplantation have been recently investigated as a promising therapy in treating AMI. MSC and stem cell therapy in general may encounter graft-versus-donor rejection and other immune-related issues, suggesting that a cell-free approach may circumvent these logistical and safety concerns. Our study demonstrates that the ischemic heart extracts increased the DMBT1 level in MSCs, and MSCs regulated pro-angiogenesis at least partly by transfer of DMBT1 to HUVECs via the release of exosomes. This study provides the first demonstration that ischemic heart extracts may serve as a safer and cell-free strategy that can boost the innate function of MSCs in future clinical practice.

**Ethical Approval**

No human subjects were involved in this study. All animals were obtained from the Experimental Animal Center of Central South University (Changsha, China). Animal experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Central South University. All the procedures were in compliance with the “Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals” approved by the Experimental Animal Center of Central South University.

**Statement of Human and Animal Rights**

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**Statement of Informed Consent**

This study did not involve human subjects thus there is no need for informed consent form.

**Declaration of Conflicting Interests**

The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

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