Research Article

The Effects of Cytokines in Adipose Stem Cell-Conditioned Medium on the Migration and Proliferation of Skin Fibroblasts In Vitro

Jiajia Zhao, Li Hu, Jiarong Liu, Niya Gong, and Lili Chen

Department of Stomatology, Union Hospital, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan 430022, China

Correspondence should be addressed to Lili Chen; chenlili@whuh.com

Received 26 July 2013; Revised 24 October 2013; Accepted 11 November 2013

Academic Editor: Sanga Gehmert

Copyright © 2013 Jiajia Zhao et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Although adipose stem cell-conditioned medium (ASC-CM) has demonstrated the effect of promoting the cutaneous wound healing, the mechanism for this response on the effector cells (e.g., dermal fibroblasts) during the process remains to be determined. In this study, we aim to investigate the types and contents of cytokines in ASC-CM and the effects of some kinds of common cytokines in ASC-CM, such as EGF, PDGF-AA, VEGF, and bFGF, on dermal fibroblasts proliferation and migration in wound healing process. Results showed that these four cytokines had high concentrations in ASC-CM. The migration of skin fibroblasts could be significantly stimulated by VEGF, bFGF, and PDGF-AA, and the proliferation could be significantly stimulated by bFGF and EGF in ASC-CM. Additionally, ASC-CM had more obvious promoting effect on fibroblasts proliferation and migration than single cytokine. These observations suggested that ASC-CM played an important role in the cutaneous injury partly by the synergistic actions of several cytokines in promoting dermal fibroblasts proliferation and migration, and ASC-CM was more adaptive than each single cytokine to be applied in promoting the wound healing.

1. Introduction

During the last decade, adipose-derived stem cells (ASCs) have been gaining increasing attention in tissue repair therapeutic application since they were first isolated from adipose tissues in 2001 [1–3]. ASCs are a population of multipotent mesenchymal cells, with similar characteristics to bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells (BM-MSCs), which are classical cell source for tissue regeneration. Furthermore, compared with BM-MSCs, ASCs have been shown to be immunoprivileged and appear to be more genetically stable in long-term culture [4–6].

Numerous studies have indicated that ASCs may contribute to tissue injury repair or regeneration. In recent years, the mechanisms of ASCs promoting tissue wound healing caused huge attention, and the paracrine mechanism might be the most effective way for ASCs to promote wound healing; that is, they exert their effect by secreting cytokines and growth factors acting on neighboring cells to repair damaged tissues [7–9]. ASC-conditioned medium (ASC-CM) contained a great many biologically active factors secreted by ASCs, and it has the distinct advantage of being applicable via local or intravenous injection. More importantly, the contents of major cytokines in the ASC-CM can be precisely quantitated. Thus, ASC-CM has its good application prospects.

Fibroblasts, one of the dominant components of dermal structure, serve as critically important function all through the whole skin wound healing process. In the early stage of wound healing, they migrate to the traumatized region to promote the regeneration of blood vessels and granulation tissue formation via secreting some angiogenesis factors. And in the advanced trauma repair, a large number of fibroblasts mature into myofibroblasts, which are conducive to promoting wound closure [10, 11]. Therefore, the migration and proliferation of fibroblasts are the key links in wound healing process, and the elucidation of the mechanism behind the effects of ASC-CM on fibroblasts migration and
proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR-γ) staining for lipid droplets, and the osteogenic lineage was detected by Oil-Red-O staining. FACS was used to isolate fibroblasts. Cells were cultured until reaching 80% confluence. These monolayers were then scored with a sterile pipette tip to leave a plus shape scratch of approximately 0.4-0.5 mm in width. Culture medium was then changed with DMEM/F12 containing ASC-CM. According to our preliminary studies on fibroblasts proliferation, another experiment group was designed: the culture medium in the lower chamber was changed with DMEM/F12 not containing ASC-CM. According to our preliminary studies results [13], we chose to evaluate fibroblasts migration at 24 h (the migration of fibroblasts was most active at this time point after being stimulated by 50% ASC-CM). The migrated fibroblasts were digested by trypsin-EDTA and counted under microscopy. After that, to compare the effects of ASC-CM and each cytokine, another experiment group was designed: the culture medium in the lower chamber was changed with DMEM/F12 with EGF, PDGF-AA, VEGF, or bFGF (at their optimal concentration). The above result of proliferation would contribute to the optimization of the clinical application of ASC-CM to wound healing.

However, it is so far unknown whether there is a correlation between the ASC-CM concentration and the efficacy of ASC-CM in promoting the migration and proliferation of skin fibroblasts. Since there are very few reports on the main functional factors in ASC-CM and their action mechanism, a thorough investigation of these issues, which is the focus of this study, will contribute to a better understanding of the ASC paracrine mechanism and ultimately lead to an improved use of ASC-CM in wound healing.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Isolation, Culture, and Identification of Primary Human Skin Fibroblasts. Skin fibroblasts were isolated and cultured as previously described [12]. Briefly, human foreskins were obtained aseptically from donors (16–30 years old) undergoing circumcision after obtaining their written informed consent. All the procedures were approved by the Ethics Committee of Wuhan Union Hospital. The samples were washed several times with 75% alcohol and sterile PBS (Hyclone, Thermo Scientific, USA) containing 1% antibiotic (100 U/mL penicillin/streptomycin) and were treated with 4 mg/mL dispase II (Gibco, USA) overnight at 4°C to separate epidermis and dermis [12]. The dermis was then cut into small pieces and digested with 0.1% collagenase type I (Gibco, USA) for 4 hours at 37°C to isolate fibroblasts. Cells were cultured at 37°C in 5.0% CO₂ and medium was changed every 2-3 days. P3 cells were used for immunofluorescence staining of vimentin and cytokeratin 15 (Santa Cruz, USA).

2.2. Isolation, Characterization, and Multidifferentiation Assay of ASCs. Human subcutaneous adipose tissues were obtained from female patients (18–35 years old) undergoing lipospiration surgery after obtaining written informed consent and approval by the Ethics Committee of Wuhan Union Hospital. The procedures described by Hu et al. were utilized for this purpose [13]. Cells were cultured in specific mesenchymal stem cells culture medium (Cyagen) and P3–P7 cells were used for the present study. The surface markers CD13, CD14, CD44, CD90, CD105, and CD34 were tested by flow cytometry and analyzed by a standard Becton-Dickinson FACSaria instrument and the CellQuest Pro software (BD Biosciences). After ASCs had been diversely differentiated into multiple lines, the adipogenic lineage was detected by Oil-Red-O (Sigma) staining for lipid droplets, and the osteogenic lineage was detected by alizarin red (Sigma) staining for calcium depositions. At the same time, the expression of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR-γ) was tested by RT-PCR during the adipogenesis process and runt-related transcription factor 2 (Runx2) was tested during the osteogenesis process.

2.3. Preparation of ASC-CM and Protein Microarray Analysis. ASCs were cultured until reaching 80% confluence. The culture medium was then replaced with serum-free DMEM/F-12, and ASCs were cultured for another 48 hours. The ASCs-conditioned medium (ASC-CM) was collected, centrifuged at 1,000 rpm for 5 minutes, and filtered through 0.22 µm syringe filter. Thus, the ASC-CM contained DMEM/F-12 and any factors secreted by ASCs. ASC-CM was stored at −20°C, and 5 mL medium was used for protein array analysis with the RayBio Biotin Label-based Human Antibody Array I (Cat. No. AAH-BLM-1-2, Norcross, GA) which contains antibodies for 507 human proteins. Three ASC-CM samples (ASCs were derived from three different donors) were used to do protein microarray analysis.

2.4. Migration Assays. The effect of ASC-CM on cell migration was determined by transwell assay and scrape-wound healing assay. In transwell assay, 1 × 10⁵ fibroblasts were seeded into the upper chamber of the insert (transwell plates are 6.5 mm in diameter with 8 µm pore filters; Corning Costar, Cambridge, MA), with 300 µL of culture medium in upper chamber and 600 µL medium in lower chamber. After the cells adhered, the medium in the upper chamber was changed with serum-free DMEM/F-12. To determine the respective effects and the optimal concentrations of EGF, PDGF-AA, VEGF, and bFGF in ASC-CM, the culture medium in the lower chamber was changed with (i) 50% ASC-CM, which was the optimal ASC-CM concentration for promoting fibroblasts migration in our previous study [13], with different concentrations of cytokines (EGF, PDGF-AA, VEGF, and bFGF at 0, 1, 10, 20, 50, and 100 ng/mL, resp.), (ii) 50% ASC-CM with the neutralizing antibody of each cytokine, or (iii) serum-free DMEM/F-12 not containing ASC-CM. According to our preliminary studies results [13], we chose to evaluate fibroblasts migration at 24 h (the migration of fibroblasts was most active at this time point after being stimulated by 50% ASC-CM). The migrated fibroblasts were digested by trypsin-EDTA and counted under microscopy. After that, to compare the effects of ASC-CM and each cytokine, another experiment group was designed: the culture medium in the lower chamber was changed with DMEM/F12 with EGF, PDGF-AA, VEGF, or bFGF (at their optimal concentration). The above result of 50% ASC-CM was quoted and the assay procedure was the same as mentioned previously. All experiments were done in triplicate.

In scrape-wound healing assay, fibroblasts were seeded into 12-well plates with culture medium until they reached 80% confluence. These monolayers were then scored with a sterile pipette tip to leave a plus shape scratch of approximately 0.4-0.5 mm in width. Culture medium was then immediately removed and changed with (i) 50% ASC-CM, or (ii) 50% ASC-CM with the optimal concentration of each cytokine, or (iii) 50% ASC-CM with the neutralizing antibody of each cytokine.

2.5. Proliferation Assays. The effects of the ASC-CM cytokines on fibroblasts proliferation were determined utilizing CCK-8 assay. Briefly, 2 × 10⁴ fibroblasts were seeded into the 96-well plates for 24 h to adhere. Then the medium was changed with (i) 50% ASC-CM with different concentrations of cytokines (EGF, PDGF-AA, VEGF, and bFGF at 0, 1, 10, 20, 50, and 100 ng/mL, resp.), (ii) 50% ASC-CM with the
neutralizing antibody of each cytokine, or (iii) serum-free DMEM/F-12 not containing ASC-CM. After that, in order to compare the effects of ASC-CM and each cytokine, another experiment group was designed: the culture medium was also changed with DMEM/F12 with EGF, PDGF-AA, VEGF or bFGF (at their optimal concentration). The above result of 50% ASC-CM was quoted. We chose to evaluate the cell proliferation in its logarithmic growth phase (day 3). All experiments were performed five times.

2.6. Statistical Analysis. All values are expressed as the mean ± SD. Comparisons between the two groups were analyzed by Student t-test and among more than two groups by ANOVA and then followed by posthoc Fisher’s LSD. A P value of <0.05 was considered significant. All analyses were performed with SPSS 16.0.

3. Results

3.1. Morphologies, Flow Cytometry, and Multidifferentiation. Primary fibroblasts were spindle-shaped and distributed in a radial or swirl configuration (Figure 1(a)), and nearly all of the cultural cells were positive for vimentin (Figure 1(b)) and negative for cytokeratin 15 (Figure 1(c)). Primary ASCs demonstrated polygonal or round morphology in 24 hours, then displayed similar fibroblast-like or spindle-shaped morphology around 2 days, and were distributed in clusters. In the analysis by flow cytometry, P3-P4 ASCs were positive for the surface markers CD13, CD44, CD90, and CD105 (>90% of the population) and were negative for CD14 and CD34 (Figure 1(d)). We could observe a significant number of intracellular lipid droplets stained with Oil-Red-O when ASCs were cultured in adipogenesis medium for 21 days (Figure 1(e)) and calcium deposits were present when ASCs were cultured under osteogenic conditions for 21 days, as shown by alizarin red staining (Figure 1(f)). The relative genes expression showed a clear trend, gradually increasing during the differentiation process (Figures 1(g) and 1(h)).

3.2. Protein Microarray Analysis of ASC-CM. ASC-CM was assayed to determine the cytokines secreted by ASCs.
Microarray analysis showed that ASC-CM contained a variety of cytokines [14], and a total of 268 cytokines had a signal that exceeded that of the background by 300-fold after being normalized against the internal control (IC) (Table 1). In these cytokines secreted by ASCs, EGF (relative concentration is $396 \pm 29.5$), PDGF-AA (relative concentration is $363.5 \pm 34.5$), VEGF (relative concentration is $360.5 \pm 64.5$), and bFGF (relative concentration is $389.5 \pm 76$) had high expression in ASC-CM (Figures 2(a) and 2(b)), and according to the previous literatures, they might have significant effects on cell migration and proliferation.

3.3. Migration Assay of Fibroblasts in the Stimulation of 50% ASC-CM with Different Concentrations of Cytokines and Their Neutralizing Antibodies. To further characterize the effects of the various cytokines in ASC-CM on fibroblasts migration and to determine the most effective cytokines concentration, the responses of fibroblasts to 50% ASC-CM with different concentrations of various cytokines (EGF, PDGF-AA, VEGF and bFGF at 0, 1, 10, 20, 50, and 100 ng/mL, resp.) and their neutralizing antibodies were examined by transwell assay. Each group was compared with 50% ASC-CM group without any additional cytokines. The results shown in Figure 3 indicated that bFGF, VEGF, and PDGF-AA promoted migration of fibroblasts, and their promoting effects were significantly inhibited by neutralizing antibodies ($P < 0.05$), while EGF had no significant promoting effect on fibroblasts migration. Figure 3 also indicated that the optimal concentrations of bFGF and VEGF were both 20 ng/mL ($P < 0.01$), while that of PDGF-AA was 50 ng/mL ($P < 0.05$). Furthermore, the promoting effect of 50% ASC-CM on fibroblasts migration was more significant than that of the control group (not containing ASC-CM) and each single cytokine group, specially more significant than the effect of EGF ($P < 0.01$) (Figure 3(a)). Simultaneously, the effects on fibroblasts migration were also further confirmed by scrape-wound healing assay (Figure 5).

3.4. Proliferation Assay of Fibroblasts in the Stimulation of 50% ASC-CM with Different Concentrations of Cytokines and Their Neutralizing Antibodies. To further characterize the effects of the cytokines in ASC-CM on fibroblasts proliferation and to determine the optimal cytokine concentration, we examined the responses of fibroblasts to 50% ASC-CM with different concentrations of the cytokines (EGF, PDGF-AA, VEGF, and bFGF at 0, 1, 10, 20, 50, and 100 ng/mL, resp.) and their neutralizing antibodies. The results at day 3 were chosen to compare the effects of these cytokine at the respective concentrations, as day 3 was a time point of the logarithmic growth phase during which the cells proliferated significantly. The results shown in Figure 4 indicated that EGF and bFGF promoted fibroblasts proliferation, and their effects were significantly inhibited by neutralizing antibodies ($P < 0.05$), while PDGF-AA and VEGF had no significant promoting effect on fibroblasts proliferation. Figure 4 also indicated that the optimal concentration of EGF was 50 ng/mL ($P < 0.05$), and that of bFGF was 20 ng/mL ($P < 0.05$) (there were no significant differences among 20 ng/mL bFGF, 50 ng/mL bFGF, and 100 ng/mL bFGF groups). Furthermore, the promoting effect of 50% ASC-CM was more significant than that of the control group (not containing ASC-CM) and each single cytokine group.

4. Discussion

Dermal fibroblasts play a necessary role during the cutaneous wound healing [15, 16]. In the early stage of the wound healing, the proliferation and migration of dermal fibroblasts are activated, which are essential for wound contraction, extracellular matrix deposition, and tissue remodeling. In addition, wound repair is a complex process which depends on the interaction between the effector cells and cytokines, including EGF, PDGF-AA, VEGF, and bFGF [17]. ASCs have been demonstrated to have promoting effect on skin wound healing [18]. In our previous studies [13], we have also determined that the ASC-CM was of benefit to the migration and
Table 1: Cytokines whose internal control normalizations without background exceeded 300 folds in ASC-CM.

| Cytokine                  | Internal control |
|---------------------------|------------------|
| EDA-A2                    | 10056 ± 198      |
| IGFBP-rpl/IGFBP-7         | 6651 ± 101.5     |
| Thrombospondin (TSP)      | 4544.5 ± 67.5    |
| TIMP-1                    | 3221.5 ± 43      |
| SPARC                     | 2607 ± 51        |
| GDF3                      | 1400.5 ± 42.5    |
| NRG3                      | 6651 ± 101.5     |
| HCR/CRAM-A/B              | 1261 ± 28        |
| MSP alpha chain           | 1253.5 ± 23.5    |
| MMP-20                    | 1085 ± 12.5      |
| APRIL                     | 895.5 ± 27.5     |
| LIF R alpha               | 893.5 ± 54       |
| TGF-beta 5                | 839 ± 43.5       |
| IL-22                     | 811.5 ± 21.5     |
| FGF-11                    | 800.5 ± 19.5     |
| MMP-25/MT6-MMP            | 763.5 ± 21       |
| IL-20 R alpha             | 752 ± 13.5       |
| IL-1 F5/FIL1 delta        | 742 ± 45.5       |
| CCR2                      | 731 ± 12.5       |
| IL-17D                    | 715 ± 38         |
| CNTF                      | 704 ± 33         |
| FGFR4                     | 697 ± 100        |
| IL-1 Ra alpha             | 697 ± 34.5       |
| Internal control          | 697 ± 34.5       |
| SIGIRR                    | 671.5 ± 46.5     |
| IL-1 F9/IL-1 H1           | 655.5 ± 27.5     |
| Hepassocin                | 639 ± 46.5       |
| Lipocalin-1               | 639 ± 29         |
| Luciferase                | 635.5 ± 20.5     |
| Neurturin                 | 633 ± 32         |
| IL-20                     | 632 ± 29.5       |
| IL-29                     | 632 ± 17.5       |
| MMP-3 alpha               | 628 ± 19         |
| Angiopoietin-like 1       | 627.5 ± 39.5     |
| sFRP-3                    | 622 ± 23.5       |
| NT-3                      | 616 ± 67.5       |
| Lymphotoxin beta/TNFSF3   | 606.5 ± 34.5     |
| IL-1 F6/FIL1 epsilon      | 602 ± 55         |
| IL-17E                    | 599 ± 49         |
| MMP-10                    | 596.5 ± 37       |
| NRGI-beta 1/HRG1-beta 1   | 596 ± 20.5       |
| Glypican 3                | 595.5 ± 29       |
| IL-1 F7/FIL1 zeta         | 593 ± 23         |
| IL-19                     | 592 ± 23.5       |
| TACI/TNFRSF13B            | 590 ± 14.5       |
| IL-1 ra                   | 583.5 ± 29.5     |
| IL-17B R                  | 575 ± 35         |
| MMP-7                     | 566.5 ± 29       |
| Dkk-4                     | 560 ± 40         |
| IL-26                     | 558.5 ± 46.5     |
| M-CSF R                   | 549 ± 28.5       |

Table 1: Continued.

| Cytokine                  | Internal control |
|---------------------------|------------------|
| Follistatin-like 1        | 547 ± 43         |
| MIP-1b                    | 542 ± 59         |
| Insulin R                 | 541 ± 34.5       |
| Endothelin                | 540 ± 19.5       |
| MIP-1a                    | 540 ± 61         |
| I-TAC/CXCL11              | 535 ± 25.5       |
| RELT/TNFRSF19L            | 529.5 ± 38.5     |
| CTGF/CCN2                 | 524 ± 34.5       |
| CCR4                      | 523.5 ± 39       |
| Endoglin/CD105            | 521 ± 61         |
| EDG-1                     | 515 ± 43         |
| Activin C                 | 510 ± 56.5       |
| MMP-11/stromelysin-3      | 509.5 ± 37       |
| CXCR2/IL-8 RB             | 503.5 ± 38.5     |
| IL-1 R9                   | 501 ± 32.5       |
| MMP-1                     | 501 ± 17.5       |
| GDF5                      | 498 ± 28         |
| BMP-8                     | 493 ± 45.5       |
| Dkk-1                     | 492 ± 21         |
| IGF-II                    | 486 ± 32         |
| TMEFFI/tomoregulin-1      | 486 ± 29.5       |
| IL-7 R alpha              | 482 ± 39.5       |
| IL-15 R alpha             | 480.5 ± 32       |
| Heregulin/NDF/GGF/neuregulin | 478 ± 54.5 | |
| CCR9                      | 477.5 ± 21       |
| BMP-5                     | 476.5 ± 93       |
| Siglec-9                  | 476.5 ± 85.5     |
| IL-4 R                    | 474 ± 39.5       |
| IL-15 R alpha             | 480.5 ± 32       |
| P-selectin                | 465.5 ± 25.5     |
| G-CSF R/CD114             | 464 ± 79.5       |
| IL-24                     | 462.5 ± 75       |
| E-Selectin                | 461.5 ± 56       |
| IL-5 R alpha              | 459 ± 25.5       |
| L-Selectin (CD62L)        | 458.5 ± 19       |
| HB-EGF                    | 458 ± 11.5       |
| Growth hormone (GH)       | 457.5 ± 26.5     |
| IL-17F                    | 456 ± 39.5       |
| PF4/CXCL4                 | 456 ± 91.5       |
| MMP-15                    | 467.5 ± 75.5     |
| P-selectin                | 465.5 ± 25.5     |
| G-CSF R/CD114             | 464 ± 79.5       |
| IL-24                     | 462.5 ± 75       |
| E-Selectin                | 461.5 ± 56       |
| IL-5 R alpha              | 459 ± 25.5       |
| L-Selectin (CD62L)        | 458.5 ± 19       |
| HB-EGF                    | 458 ± 11.5       |
| Growth hormone (GH)       | 457.5 ± 26.5     |
| IL-17F                    | 456 ± 39.5       |
| PF4/CXCL4                 | 456 ± 91.5       |
| MMP-3                     | 455 ± 62         |
| IL-17C                    | 454 ± 39         |
| Inhibin B                 | 453.5 ± 38.5     |
| Sonic hedgehog (Shh N-terminal) | 453 ± 87.5 |
| MDC                       | 452.5 ± 34.5     |
| Neurturin                 | 451 ± 61.5       |
| CCR5                      | 450.5 ± 55       |
| CXCR6                     | 450.5 ± 61       |
| IGF-1 SR                  | 449.5 ± 23.5     |
| LIGHT/TNFSF14             | 446 ± 57.5       |
| Cytokine                  | Internal control |
|--------------------------|------------------|
| HGF                      | 444 ± 34.5       |
| Eotaxin-3/CCL26          | 443.5 ± 95.5     |
| Erythropoietin           | 443.5 ± 88       |
| GDNF                     | 443.5 ± 62       |
| TNFRII/TNFRSF1B          | 439.5 ± 57       |
| Prolactin                | 438 ± 36.5       |
| Adiponectin/Acrp30       | 436 ± 45.5       |
| IL-12 p40                | 435 ± 93.5       |
| CTLA-4/CD152             | 433 ± 67.5       |
| BMPR-II                  | 431.5 ± 41.5     |
| LIF                      | 431 ± 57.5       |
| TECK/CCL25               | 430.5 ± 44.5     |
| IL-6 R                   | 429 ± 79.5       |
| IL-17B                   | 429 ± 56.5       |
| IL-12 p70                | 427 ± 48         |
| DR6/TNFRSF21             | 426 ± 65.5       |
| FGF-16                   | 425 ± 42.5       |
| IGF-BP-6                 | 424.5 ± 30.5     |
| IL-17R                   | 424 ± 92         |
| Osteoprotegerin/TNFRSF1B | 423 ± 21.5       |
| Thrombospondin-2         | 421 ± 87.5       |
| TREM-1                   | 420 ± 67         |
| Angiopoietin-like 2      | 419.5 ± 34.5     |
| S100 A8/A9               | 418 ± 67.5       |
| CXCR1/IL-8 RA            | 417 ± 54.5       |
| LFA-1 alpha              | 417 ± 73         |
| Dkk                      | 416.5 ± 48.5     |
| IL-12 R beta 1           | 416.5 ± 23       |
| MMP-13                   | 416.5 ± 37       |
| SCF                      | 414.5 ± 45.5     |
| FGF-10/KGF-2             | 413 ± 82.5       |
| NRG2                     | 412 ± 11         |
| B7-1/CD80                | 411.5 ± 32.5     |
| FGF-9                    | 410.5 ± 44       |
| mgp30                    | 408 ± 45.5       |
| TIMP-2                   | 408 ± 67.5       |
| ALCAM                    | 407.5 ± 32.5     |
| GDF9                     | 407 ± 37.5       |
| HVEM/TNFRSF14            | 407 ± 34         |
| BMP-4                    | 405.5 ± 81.5     |
| IL-1 sRI                 | 403.5 ± 23.5     |
| FGF R3                   | 403 ± 22.5       |
| AgRP                     | 402.5 ± 32.5     |
| TGF-beta 2               | 402.5 ± 92.5     |
| SCF R/CD117              | 400.5 ± 11       |
| SDF-1/CXCL12             | 400 ± 19         |
| IL-22 BP                 | 397 ± 32.5       |
| EGF                      | 396 ± 29.5       |
| VEGF-D                   | 395 ± 83.5       |
| NOV/CCN3                 | 394.5 ± 66       |
| Fas ligand               | 393.5 ± 21       |
| Activin RIA/ALK-2        | 393 ± 39.5       |

| Cytokine                  | Internal control |
|--------------------------|------------------|
| BMPRI-IA/ALK-3           | 393 ± 33.5       |
| CCR6                     | 393 ± 29.5       |
| IL-21 R                  | 392.5 ± 21.5     |
| M-CSF                    | 391.5 ± 54       |
| LRP-6                    | 391 ± 34         |
| FGF Basic                | 389.5 ± 76       |
| CD40/TNFRSF5             | 388.5 ± 21.5     |
| MIF                      | 388.5 ± 43       |
| GDF11                    | 386 ± 36         |
| D6                       | 385 ± 29         |
| IL-23 R                  | 384 ± 18.5       |
| CRIM1                    | 383.5 ± 63.5     |
| FLRG                     | 383.5 ± 44       |
| GFR alpha-4              | 383 ± 39         |
| IL-10 R alpha            | 383 ± 23         |
| Leptin R                 | 382.5 ± 49.5     |
| IL-18 BPa                | 380 ± 49.5       |
| IL-13 R alpha 1          | 379 ± 33         |
| uPA                      | 378.5 ± 17.5     |
| CD40 ligand/TNFSF5/CD154 | 378 ± 21         |
| IL-1 R6/II-1 Rrp2        | 378 ± 32         |
| TIMP-4                   | 377.5 ± 19       |
| CLC                      | 377 ± 18.5       |
| MCP-3                    | 375.5 ± 23       |
| RANTES                   | 375 ± 57         |
| I-309                    | 374 ± 46         |
| TRAIL/TNFSF10            | 374 ± 33         |
| MMP-8                    | 371.5 ± 11.5     |
| NT-4                     | 371 ± 29.5       |
| GDF-15                   | 370 ± 21         |
| CD27/TNFRSF7             | 369.5 ± 39.5     |
| CXCL14/BRAK              | 368.5 ± 87       |
| Follistatin              | 368.5 ± 34       |
| CXCR5/BLR-1              | 367 ± 32.5       |
| FGF-4                    | 367 ± 29         |
| MSP beta-chain           | 366.5 ± 39.5     |
| RANK/TNFRSF11A           | 366.5 ± 82       |
| Siglec-5/CD170           | 366 ± 71         |
| Ubiquitin+1              | 365.5 ± 34.5     |
| PDGF-AA                  | 363.5 ± 31.5     |
| DAN                      | 363 ± 32         |
| Tie-2                    | 362.5 ± 45       |
| Angiopoietin-like factor | 361.5 ± 23       |
| CCR7                     | 361.5 ± 49.5     |
| VEGF                     | 360.5 ± 64.5     |
| IL-18 R beta/AcPL        | 359 ± 17         |
| MMP-2                    | 359 ± 29.5       |
| Tie-1                    | 359 ± 11         |
| BDNF                     | 358.5 ± 32       |
| HCC-4/CCL16              | 357 ± 37.5       |
| Thrombopoietin (TPO)     | 357 ± 45.5       |
| Thrombospondin-1         | 355.5 ± 67.5     |
Table 1: Continued.

| Cytokine                       | Internal control |
|--------------------------------|------------------|
| IGFBP-3                        | 355 ± 78.5       |
| Vasorin                        | 355 ± 27.5       |
| Tarc                           | 354.5 ± 98.5     |
| IL-2 R beta/CD122              | 353 ± 46         |
| Lymphotactin/XCL1              | 353 ± 66         |
| Angiopoietin-1                 | 352.5 ± 45       |
| IGFBP-1                        | 352.5 ± 18.5     |
| Pentraxin 3/TSG-14             | 352 ± 21         |
| GREMLIN                        | 347 ± 43         |
| GITR/TNFRF18                   | 345.5 ± 43.5     |
| CCR3                           | 343 ± 55.5       |
| Angiopoietin-4                 | 342.5 ± 36.5     |
| DcR3/TNFRSF6B                  | 342.5 ± 11.5     |
| CCR8                           | 341 ± 23.5       |
| TGF-beta RI                    | 341.5 ± 19.5     |
| Activin B                      | 340.5 ± 22.5     |
| CCL28/VIC                      | 338.5 ± 61       |
| ErbB4                          | 338.5 ± 17.5     |
| IFN-gamma R1                   | 335.5 ± 65       |
| IL-3 R alpha                   | 337 ± 32         |
| CCL14/HCC-1/HCC-3              | 335.5 ± 18       |
| TNF RI/TNFRSF1A                | 335 ± 11.5       |
| Amphiroygenulin (AR)           | 333.5 ± 29       |
| WIF-1                          | 333.5 ± 32       |
| Decorin                        | 333.00           |
| IL-1 beta                      | 333 ± 22         |
| TRAIL R4/TNFRSF10D             | 332.5 ± 45.5     |
| TIMP-3                         | 330 ± 64         |
| FGF-13B                        | 328 ± 45.5       |
| Cardiotrophin-1/CT-1           | 326.5 ± 33       |
| FGF-6                          | 326 ± 19.5       |
| TGF-beta RIII                  | 326 ± 21         |
| FGF-7/KGF                      | 325 ± 38.5       |
| EG-VEGF/PKI                    | 324.5 ± 18       |
| IL-2 R alpha                   | 324.5 ± 32.5     |
| GFR alpha-3                    | 323.5 ± 44       |
| RAGE                           | 323.5 ± 45       |
| DR3/TNFRSF25                   | 323 ± 38         |
| Orexin B                       | 322.5 ± 23       |
| Leptin (OB)                    | 321.5 ± 21       |
| TGF-beta 3                     | 320.5 ± 15.5     |
| IFN-beta                       | 320 ± 32.5       |
| IGFBP-2                        | 316.5 ± 38.5     |
| IL-10 R beta                   | 314 ± 45         |
| PDGF-BB                        | 312.5 ± 25.5     |
| MMP-9                          | 311 ± 21         |
| Cryptic                        | 310.5 ± 13.5     |
| TRAIL R1/DR4/TNFRSF10A         | 310 ± 26.5       |
| Axl                            | 309.5 ± 16       |
| CXCR3                          | 309.5 ± 34.5     |
| GCP-2/CXCL6                    | 309.5 ± 67       |
| TNF-beta                       | 309 ± 21         |
| FGF-BP                         | 308 ± 34         |

Table 1: Continued.

| Cytokine                       | Internal control |
|--------------------------------|------------------|
| PD-EGGF                        | 307 ± 26.5       |
| sFRP-4                         | 306 ± 17         |
| uPAR                           | 305 ± 23.5       |
| Eotaxin/CCL1I                   | 303 ± 21         |
| GRO                            | 303 ± 13.5       |
| MIG                            | 301.5 ± 23       |
| PARC/CCL18                      | 300 ± 25.5       |

Proliferation of fibroblasts, keratinocytes, and endothelial cells, and these phenomena implicated the effectiveness of paracrine mechanism of ASCs. However, there are no definite answers to the questions. (1) What kinds of cytokines are there in the ASC-CM? (2) Which cytokine in ASC-CM plays more important role in the migration and proliferation of the dermal fibroblasts? (3) Is the effect of ASC-CM on the wound healing better than of a single cytokine?

To answer the questions above, in the present study, ASC-CM protein microarray analysis was performed to determine the concentrations of EGF, PDGF-AA, VEGF, and bFGF, which were demonstrated with significant promoting effect on the migration and proliferation of functional cells in wound healing [19–22]. They all had a signal that exceeded 300-fold. The result suggested that the four kinds of cytokines may play important roles in the wound healing by the paracrine mechanism of ASCs.

Among the four kinds of cytokines above, EGF family may be the best-characterized growth factors in wound healing. A growing body of studies has demonstrated that EGF can accelerate reepithelialization by increasing the proliferation and cell migration of keratinocytes in acute wounds [23–27]. V. Frelrd et al. [20] demonstrated the effect of EGF on fibroblasts proliferation, and our results confirmed the former result. In our study, EGF promoted the proliferation of fibroblasts. Along with the increase of EGF concentration, its promotional effect became progressively more powerful, and the plateau level of EGF appeared at concentration of 50 ng/mL, while this effect was significantly (P < 0.05) inhibited by its neutralizing antibody. However, there is limited understanding about the effect of EGF on migration. In the study, the detection result of migration was a little complicated when fibroblasts were stimulated by EGF. The migration of fibroblasts was (P < 0.01) promoted by EGF at a low concentration (1 ng/mL), but with the increase of concentration, the migrated cells number began to reduce, reaching the bottom at the concentration of 20 ng/mL, and then gradually picked up at the higher concentrations (>20 ng/mL), increasing most significantly at the concentration of 100 ng/mL (P < 0.05). A possible reason for this phenomenon is that EGF is a cytokine related to cell mitosis and exerts a significant effect on fibroblasts proliferation. Therefore, its effect on proliferation might obscure the effect on migration when it was at the higher concentrations of EGF (≥20 ng/mL).

A lot of evidence demonstrated the effect of bFGF, PDGF-AA, and VEGF on promoting the proliferation and migration...
The effects of different concentrations of EGF on fibroblasts migration

The effects of different concentrations of PDGF-AA on fibroblasts migration

The effects of different concentrations of VEGF on fibroblasts migration

The effects of different concentrations of bFGF on fibroblasts migration

Figure 3: The effects of different concentrations or the neutralizing antibodies of cytokines in the 50% ASC-CM or DMEM on skin fibroblasts migration utilizing transwell assay. Migration was observed to be inhibited by EGF at 20 ng/mL, while being obviously promoted at 100 ng/mL (a). Fibroblasts migration was significantly promoted by PDGF-AA at 50 ng/mL (the optimal concentration) and 100 ng/mL, and the promoting effect was obviously inhibited when neutralizing antibody of PDGF-AA was added (b). VEGF was observed to make contribution to fibroblasts migration, and the optimal concentration was 20 ng/mL ($P < 0.01$), while this contribution was restrained by its neutralizing antibody ($P < 0.05$) (c). The bFGF at 20 ng/mL (the optimal concentration), 50 ng/mL, and 100 ng/mL obviously promoted fibroblast migration ($P < 0.05$), and its neutralizing antibody obviously inhibited fibroblast migration ($P < 0.05$) (d). In addition, compared with the control group (not containing ASC-CM) and each single cytokine group, specially the EGF, 50% ASC-CM significantly promoted the fibroblasts migration. ($P < 0.05$); ($P < 0.01$); NA: neutralizing antibody group. Each group was compared with 50% ASC-CM without any additional cytokines.

of fibroblasts [28, 29]. In our study, bFGF promoted the proliferation of fibroblasts, and with the increase of bFGF concentration, its promotional effect became progressively more powerful; the plateau level of bFGF was at 20 ng/mL (no more significant promoting effect with higher concentration). This effect was significantly ($P < 0.05$) inhibited by its neutralizing antibody. In addition, bFGF, VEGF, and PDGF-AA promoted fibroblasts migration in such a manner that, as the concentration of cytokines increased, their effect became progressively more powerful and the plateau level of bFGF was at 20 ng/mL, VEGF at 20 ng/mL, and PDGF-AA at 50 ng/mL. Once again, this effect was significantly ($P < 0.05$) inhibited by their neutralizing antibodies. These results suggested that bFGF was the main cytokine in ASC-CM promoting not only the proliferation but also the migration of fibroblasts. However, VEGF and PDGF-AA in ASC-CM only had a significant promoting effect on fibroblasts migration, with no significant effect on fibroblasts proliferation.

ASCs have demonstrated the effect of promoting the skin wound healing [18]. There is also ample evidence based on studies in vitro and in vivo to demonstrate that ASC-CM has effect of promoting skin wound healing due to the growth factors, cytokines, and chemokines [7–9]. However, there is limited understanding about whether the effect of ASC-CM...
The effects of different concentrations of EGF on fibroblasts proliferation (a), bFGF on fibroblasts proliferation (b), PDGF-AA on fibroblasts proliferation (c), and VEGF on fibroblasts proliferation (d).

Figure 4: The effects of 50% ASC-CM with different concentrations of cytokines on proliferation of skin fibroblasts. The proliferation of fibroblasts was obviously promoted by EGF at 50 and 100 ng/mL (a) and also by bFGF at 20, 50, and 100 ng/mL (b), and their promoting effects were both inhibited by their neutralizing antibodies. However, PDGF and VEGF might not significantly contribute to fibroblasts proliferation (c and d). In addition, the promoting effect of 50% ASC-CM on fibroblasts proliferation was more significant than that of the control group (not containing ASC-CM) and each single cytokine. * (P < 0.05); ** (P < 0.01); NA: neutralizing antibody group.

5. Conclusion

In summary, ASC-CM promotes the proliferation and migration of skin fibroblasts, and a variety of bioactive factors in ASC-CM work together to promote wound healing. Therefore, compared to the individual application of commercially prepared cytokines, ASC-CM has better prospects for highly positive clinical applications. However, wound healing in vivo is a much more complex biological process, so more in vivo studies are needed on the effects of these cytokines on fibroblast proliferation and migration. In addition, the effects and mechanisms of other cytokines on wound healing will be investigated in the future studies.

Authors’ Contribution

Jiajia Zhao and Li Hu contributed equally to this work as first authors.
Figure 5: The effects of EGF, VEGF, PDGF, and bFGF in 50% ASC-CM on skin fibroblasts migration utilizing scrape-wound healing assay, and the optimal concentration of cytokines (reference to the result of transwell assay) in 50% ASC-CM was chosen to further confirm its effect. Results showed that fibroblasts migration was exactly inhibited by 20 ng/mL of EGF (b, g), while it was promoted by 20 ng/mL VEGF (c, h), 50 ng/mL PDGF (d, i), and 20 ng/mL bFGF (e, j). Their effects could be restrained by their neutralizing antibody (k–n). This result was consistent with the transwell assay.

Acknowledgment

This work was supported by major project from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (nos. 3111013905 and 30970740).

References

[1] P. A. Zuk, M. Zhu, H. Mizuno et al., “Multilineage cells from human adipose tissue: implications for cell-based therapies,” Tissue Engineering, vol. 7, no. 2, pp. 211–228, 2001.
[2] B. A. Bunnell, M. Flaat, C. Gagliardi, B. Patel, and C. Ripoll, “Adipose-derived stem cells: isolation, expansion and differentiation,” Methods, vol. 45, no. 2, pp. 115–120, 2008.
[3] S. J. Hong, D. O. Traktuev, and K. L. March, “Therapeutic potential of adipose-derived stem cells in vascular growth and tissue repair,” Current Opinion in Organ Transplantation, vol. 15, no. 1, pp. 86–91, 2010.
[4] M. E. Fernyhough, G. J. Hausman, L. L. Guan, E. Okine, S. S. Moore, and M. V. Dodson, “Mature adipocytes may be a source of stem cells for tissue engineering,” Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications, vol. 368, no. 3, pp. 455–457, 2008.
[5] A. Sterodimas, J. De Faria, B. Nicaretta, and I. Pitanguy, “Tissue engineering with adipose-derived stem cells (ADSCs): current and future applications,” Journal of Plastic, Reconstructive and Aesthetic Surgery, vol. 63, no. 11, pp. 1886–1892, 2010.
[6] J. Liu, J. J. Mao, and L. Chen, “Epithelial-mesenchymal interactions as a working concept for oral mucosa regeneration,” Tissue Engineering B, vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 25–31, 2011.
[7] X. Fu, L. Fang, H. Li, X. Li, B. Cheng, and Z. Sheng, “Adipose tissue extract enhances skin wound healing,” Wound Repair and Regeneration, vol. 15, no. 4, pp. 540–548, 2007.
[8] Z. Yuan, H. Nie, S. Wang et al., “Biomaterial selection for tooth regeneration,” Tissue Engineering B, vol. 17, no. 5, pp. 373–388, 2011.
[9] W.-S. Kim, B.-S. Park, J.-H. Sung et al., “Wound healing effect of adipose-derived stem cells: a critical role of secretory factors on human dermal fibroblasts,” Journal of Dermatological Science, vol. 48, no. 1, pp. 15–24, 2007.
[10] B. M. Hantash, L. Zhao, J. A. Knowles, and H. P. Lorenz, “Adult and fetal wound healing,” Frontiers in Bioscience, vol. 13, no. 1, pp. 51–61, 2008.
[11] R. F. Diegelmann and M. C. Evans, “Wound healing: an overview of acute, fibrotic and delayed healing,” Frontiers in Bioscience, vol. 9, pp. 283–289, 2004.
[12] L. Häkkinen, L. Koivisto, and H. Larjava, “An improved method for culture of epidermal keratinocytes from newborn mouse skin,” Methods in Cell Science, vol. 23, no. 4, pp. 189–196, 2001.
[13] L. Hu, J. Zhao, J. Liu et al., “The effect of adipose stem cell-conditioned medium on vascular endothelial cells, fibroblasts and keratinocytes migration,” Experimental and Therapeutic Medicine, vol. 5, no. 3, pp. 701–706, 2013.
[14] L. Hu, J. Hu, J. Zhao et al., “Side-by-side comparison of the biological characteristics of human umbilical cord and adipose tissue-derived mesenchymal stem cells,” BioMed Research International, vol. 2013, Article ID 438243, 2013.

[15] P. Martin, “Wound healing—aiming for perfect skin regeneration,” Science, vol. 276, no. 5309, pp. 75–81, 1997.

[16] A. J. Singer and R. A. F. Clark, “Cutaneous wound healing,” The New England Journal of Medicine, vol. 341, no. 10, pp. 738–746, 1999.

[17] S. Barrientos, O. Stojadinovic, M. S. Golinko, H. Brem, and M. Tomic-Canic, “Growth factors and cytokines in wound healing,” Wound Repair and Regeneration, vol. 16, no. 5, pp. 585–601, 2008.

[18] W. M. Jackson, L. J. Nesti, and R. S. Tuan, “Mesenchymal stem cell therapy for attenuation of scar formation during wound healing,” Stem Cell Research & Therapy, vol. 3, no. 3, p. 20, 2012.

[19] C. Hsu and J. Chang, “Clinical implications of growth factors in flexor tendon wound healing,” Journal of Hand Surgery, vol. 29, no. 4, pp. 551–563, 2004.

[20] V. Freire, N. Andollo, J. Etexbarria et al., “In vitro effects of three blood derivataves on human corneal epithelial cells,” Investigative Ophthalmology & Visual Science, vol. 53, no. 9, pp. 5571–5578, 2012.

[21] M. M. Santoro, G. Gaudino, and P. C. Marchisio, “The MSP receptor regulates α6β4 and α3β1 integrins via 14-3-3 proteins in keratinocyte migration,” Developmental Cell, vol. 5, no. 2, pp. 257–271, 2003.

[22] A. J. Cowin, N. Kallincos, N. Hatzirodos et al., “Hepatocyte growth factor and macrophage-stimulating protein are upregulated during excisional wound repair in rats,” Cell and Tissue Research, vol. 306, no. 2, pp. 239–250, 2001.

[23] J. G. Rheinwald and H. Green, “Epidermal growth factor and the multiplication of cultured human epidermal keratinocytes,” Nature, vol. 265, no. 5593, pp. 421–424, 1977.

[24] L. J. McCawley, P. O’Brien, and L. G. Hudson, “Epidermal growth factor (EGF)- and scatter factor/hepatocyte growth factor (SF/HGF)-mediated keratinocyte migration is coincident with induction of matrix metalloproteinase (MMP)-9,” Journal of Cellular Physiology, vol. 176, no. 2, pp. 255–265, 1998.

[25] L. G. Hudson and L. J. McCawley, “Contributions of the epidermal growth factor receptor to keratinocyte motility,” Microscopy Research and Technique, vol. 43, no. 5, pp. 444–455.

[26] S. Tokumaru, S. Higashiyama, T. Endo et al., “Ectodomain shedding of epidermal growth factor receptor ligands is required for keratinocyte migration in cutaneous wound healing,” Journal of Cell Biology, vol. 151, no. 2, pp. 209–219, 2000.

[27] Y. Ando and P. J. Jensen, “Epidermal growth factor and insulin-like growth factor I enhance keratinocyte migration,” Journal of Investigative Dermatology, vol. 100, no. 5, pp. 633–639, 1993.

[28] S. Barrientos, O. Stojadinovic, M. S. Golinko, H. Brem, and M. Tomic-Canic, “Growth factors and cytokines in wound healing,” Wound Repair and Regeneration, vol. 16, no. 5, pp. 585–601, 2008.

[29] C.-H. Heldin and B. Westermark, “Mechanism of action and in vivo role of platelet-derived growth factor,” Physiological Reviews, vol. 79, no. 4, pp. 1283–1316, 1999.

[30] C. A. Staton, M. Valluru, L. Hoh, M. W. R. Reed, and N. J. Brown, “Angiopoietin-1, angiopoietin-2 and Tie-2 receptor expression in human dermal wound repair and scarring,” British Journal of Dermatology, vol. 163, no. 5, pp. 920–927, 2010.

[31] E. Kurki, J. Shi, E. Martonen et al., “Distinct effects of calorie restriction on adipose tissue cytokine and angiogenesis profiles in obese and lean mice,” Nutrition & Metabolism, vol. 9, no. 1, p. 64, 2012.

[32] R. Ramesh, A. M. Mhashilkar, F. Tanaka et al., “Melanoma differentiation-associated gene 7/interleukin (IL)-24 is a novel ligand that regulates angiogenesis via the IL-22 receptor,” Cancer Research, vol. 63, no. 16, pp. 5105–5113, 2003.

[33] T. Tsuji, M. Nakamori, M. Iwahashi et al., “An armed oncolytic herpes simplex virus expressing thrombospondin-1 has an enhanced in vivo antitumor effect against human gastric cancer,” International Journal of Cancer, vol. 132, no. 2, pp. 485–494, 2013.

[34] S. Pantalacci, A. Chaumot, G. Benoit et al., “Conserved features and evolutionary shifts of the eda signaling pathway involved in vertebrate skin appendage development,” Molecular Biology and Evolution, vol. 25, no. 5, pp. 912–928, 2008.

[35] V. A. Botchkarev and M. Y. Fessing, “Edar signaling in the control of hair follicle development,” The Journal of Investigative Dermatology, vol. 110, no. 3, pp. 247–251, 2005.