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ISQUÉMIA CEREBRAL AGUDA E MODELAÇÃO PELO SULFETO DE
HIDROGÉNEO

Maria Isabel Santos Lestro Henriques

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Maria Isabel Santos Lestro Henriques

Orientador: Professor Doutor José Manuel Morão Cabral Ferro

Co-Orientador: Professor Doutor Exupério Díez-Tejedor

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ABBREVIATIONS

- ADC: apparent diffusion coefficient (MRI)
- ADL: activities of daily living
- AMPA: α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid
- ATP: adenosine triphosphate
- CBF: cerebral blood flow
- CBS: cystathionine beta-synthase
- CBV: cerebral blood volume
- CSE: cystathionine gamma-lyase
- cm: centimeter
- CNS: central nervous system
- CO: carbon monoxide
- CO₂: carbon dioxide
- CVA: cerebrovascular accident
- °C : degree centigrade
- d: day/ days
- DAPI: 4', 6-Diamidino-2-Phenylindole
- DSC MRI: Dynamic susceptibility contrast – Magnetic Resonance Imaging
- DNA: Deoxyribonucleic acid
- DWI: Diffusion-weighted imaging (MRI)
- EU: European Union
- EPI: echo planar imaging
- Fe-Cu: Iron-Copper redox center (in cytochrome oxidase)
- FMUL: Faculdade de Medicina da Universidade de Lisboa
- G : giga
- Gd: gadolinium
- GFAP: glial fibrillary acid protein
- h: hour
- ¹H: chemical compound with one hydrogen atom
- HSP-27: heat shock protein 27
- H₂S: hydrogen sulfide
- HO₁: heme oxygenase-1

H&E: hematoxylin and eosin stain

.JPG/JPEG: Joint Photographic Experts Group

K (ATP) channel: ATP-sensitive potassium channel

LTP: long term potentiation

MCA: middle cerebral artery

MCAO: middle cerebral artery occlusion

microM: micro molar (μM)

min: minutes

ml: milliliter

MMP: matrix metalloproteinase

MRI: magnetic resonance imaging

MTT: mean transient time

mv: millivolt

n: number

NADPH: nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate

NeuN: neuronal nuclei

NIH: National Institutes of Health

NINDS: National Institute of Neurological Diseases and Stroke

NMDA: N-methyl D-aspartate

NO: nitric oxide

NOS: nitric oxide synthetase

NOX-4: NADPH oxidase 4

O₂: Oxygen

PET: positron emission tomography

pMCAO: permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion

ppm: parts per million

rADC: relative apparent diffusion coefficient

RARE: rapid acquisition with relaxation enhancement sequence

rCBF: relative CBF

ROI: region of interest

ROS: reactive oxygen species

rpm: revolutions per minute

s: second

SD: standard deviation

SEM: standard error of the mean

SOD-2: superoxide dismutase 2

SPECT: single photon emission computed tomography

rtPA: recombinant tissue plasminogen activator

T2 : T2-weighted image sequence (MRI)

TUNEL: Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase dUTP nick end labeling

US: United States

UAM: Universidad Autónoma de Madrid

6-0: size of suture material

Δ CBF: differential CBF between ipsilateral and contralateral side

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SUMMARY

SUMMARY

In the present study, we explored the effect of short-term exposure to hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) after acute ischemia in an animal model of pMCAO. We hypothesized that H₂S exposure after acute ischemic stroke modulates ischemic lesion either by an early protective effect or by promoting post-ischemic repair. To address our hypothesis we exposed rats to H₂S after pMCAO and measured functional outcome and infarct size *in vivo* and *post-mortem*. We identified underlying markers of cytoprotection and repair. Finally, we compared brain imaging with immunohistochemical data to look for early imaging features of ischemic tissue damage that may relate to functional outcome.

H₂S exposure after pMCAO improved functional outcome and decreased infarct size and the expression of cell death. H₂S may act very early in the ischemic process, since there were lower levels of acute injury-related markers at 24h without enhancement of repair-associated markers for vasculogenesis, angiogenesis or synaptogenesis at day 14. Significant benefit is likely to occur before major tissue damage develop and includes modulation of NOX-4, a major enzyme generator of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and endothelial dysfunction, as well as by vasomodulation of intralesional microcirculation, since intralesional CBF assessed by PWI MRI improved in rats exposed to H₂S. Given that H₂S limits brain damage after experimental ischemic stroke, hydrogen sulfide donors may play a role as new drugs in the context of acute ischemic stroke.

RESUMO

RESUMO

1. INTRODUÇÃO E CONTEXTO

Nas últimas décadas obtiveram-se resultados promissores com várias substâncias neuroprotectoras, em estudos pré-clínicos em modelos de isquemia cerebral. No entanto nenhuma comprovou eficácia e segurança em contexto de ensaio clínico em doentes com acidente vascular cerebral (AVC) isquémico agudo. Entre os factores que contribuíram para as dificuldades na extrapolação dos resultados, realça-se a ausência de homogeneidade nos instrumentos de medida funcional e no modo de aquisição dos exames de imagem, nomeadamente quanto à definição de penumbra. Existe evidência de que, na ausência de reperfusão, a área de penumbra isquémica se transforma de modo célere em área de necrose, aumentando assim o volume da lesão e agravando o prognóstico funcional.

A hibernação e a hipotermia grave são duas situações metabólicas extremas onde, apesar da ausência ou de diminuto fluxo sanguíneo cerebral (CBF), é possível não ocorrer isquemia cerebral nem defeito neurológico permanente. O conhecimento dos processos através dos quais estes estados de hipometabolismo protegem no contexto de oligemia e isquemia, pode contribuir para a compreensão da complexa fisiopatologia da isquemia aguda cerebral. A possibilidade de induzir um estado de hipometabolismo onde as necessidades energéticas estejam mais adequadas à oferta energética, após isquemia aguda, diminuindo o consumo de oxigénio, pode contribuir para alargar a janela de oportunidade terapêutica para trombólise.

Foi possível induzir um estado semelhante à hibernação em mamíferos que não hibernam, pela inalação de uma mistura do gás sulfeto de hidrogénio (H₂S) com atmosfera. Durante o período de inalação, observou-se significativa diminuição das suas taxas metabólicas (nomeadamente do consumo de O₂ e da eliminação de CO₂) e da sua temperatura corporal. Após 6 h, e ao serem de novo colocados a respirar atmosfera voltavam, de modo espontâneo, às suas taxas metabólicas e temperatura basais, sem interferência no seu estado de saúde a curto ou longo prazo.

Os efeitos biológicos do H₂S parecem depender, em particular, da sua capacidade de inibição da fosforilação oxidativa mitocondrial, competindo com o O₂ na ligação à enzima citocromo C oxidase, a nível da cadeia de transporte de eletrões mitocondrial. No entanto, os efeitos biológicos do H₂S dependem entre outros fatores da dose de exposição e da sua duração. Em concentrações da ordem dos microMolar, o H₂S parece ter um efeito neuroprotector no *stress* oxidativo, e modelador da morte celular, interferindo nas vias das capases e kinases. No contexto da isquémia aguda cerebral, o papel do H₂S parece relacionar-se ainda com o seu papel de sensor de oxigénio, de regulador da comunicação glial e neuronal e do controlo do tónus vascular local, e não apenas da sua capacidade em induzir hipotermia. Neste contexto, a hipotermia pode ser consequência e não causa do hipometabolismo induzido. As propriedades de sensor de O₂ permitem a monitorização do O₂ do meio, contribuindo assim para uma libertação adequada de O₂ aos tecidos, tanto em contexto de isquémia como em basal.

Os dados existentes sobre o uso de H₂S em contexto de isquémia cerebral eram escassos e discordantes, quando desenhamos este projeto. O primeiro trabalho de exposição ao H₂S após isquémia cerebral focal permanente não demonstrou benefício funcional. Os trabalhos seguintes, que incluíram animais mais idosos, modelos de reperfusão e tempos de exposição prolongados, demonstraram benefício funcional e uma diminuição do volume da lesão final após isquémia do território da artéria cerebral média (ACM). Estes resultados estão de acordo com a literatura existente relativamente a isquémia noutros órgãos como o rim ou coração onde a exposição ao H₂S ou a dadores de H₂S também melhora a função e diminui o volume final da lesão isquémica. Deste modo, o potencial benefício da exposição a H₂S ou dadores de H₂S no contexto de isquémia aguda cerebral pode ser uma área de interesse translacional.

2. HIPÓTESE

Neste estudo avaliámos a hipótese de que após isquémia aguda cerebral, o H₂S actue como protector cerebral por modular o *stress* oxidativo pós isquémico e a expressão de espécies reactivas de oxigénio, ou por promover a reparação tecidual ulterior.

Para analisar esta hipótese estudámos os efeitos da exposição ao H₂S num modelo animal de oclusão permanente da artéria cerebral média (pMCAO) em ratas Sprague-Dawley, medindo o resultado funcional, o tamanho do enfarte *in vivo* e *post-mortem*, analisando ainda marcadores de protecção celular, morte celular e reparação celular após pMCAO, e comparando os dados de imagem *in vivo* com os de imunohistoquímica.

3. MÉTODOS

Comparámos 3 grupos de ratos macho adulto Sprague-Dawley, randomizados: *Sham* (n= 14), pMCAO (n=22) e pMCAO seguido de exposição durante 24 min a atmosfera com 40ppm de H₂S em caixa acrílica fechada, 3h após a indução da isquémia (n= 23). A amostra foi sacrificada às 24h e ao 14º dia. Usamos codificação para manter a alocação ao grupo sempre cega ao observador, excepto durante o procedimento cirúrgico. Medimos o tamanho do enfarte com a sequência T₂ de ressonância magnética nuclear (MRI) e com hematoxilina/eosina (H&E). Avaliamos a funcionalidade antes dos procedimentos, às 24h e aos 14 dias com a escala de Rogers modificada e o teste de Rotarod. Avaliámos a morte celular usando a técnica TUNEL. Para o estudo de protecção e reparação celular, utilizámos marcadores da oxidase do NADPH 4 (NOX-4), de proteína ácida fibrilar glial (GFAP), de fator de crescimento endotelial vascular (VEGF), de sinaptofisina, de superóxido dismutase 2 (SOD2) e de proteína de choque térmico 27 (HSP-27). Usamos beta-actina como controlo de carga (1:400, Sigma-Aldrich™). Para a técnica de Western-Blot fizeram-se 3 réplicas experimentais de cada experiência (n= 4 animais por grupo). Uma vez que os dados não seguiam uma distribuição normal, o teste de Mann-Whitney foi usado para comparar 2 amostras e o teste de Kruskal-Wallis para comparar mais de 2 amostras do mesmo grupo ou mais de 2 grupos.

4. RESULTADOS

A temperatura corporal foi significativamente mais baixa após indução da anestesia em todos os grupos. Após exposição ao H₂S durante 24 minutos, a temperatura corporal diminuiu 1,85°C (média), começando a normalizar logo que os animais reiniciavam a respiração com atmosfera normal. Duas horas após a exposição, nenhuma alteração na temperatura corporal basal era mensurável.

Observamos um melhor resultado funcional às 24h após pMCAO nos animais expostos ao H₂S quando comparado com o grupo controle tanto com a escala modificada de Rogers como com o teste de Rotarod. Esse benefício manteve-se até ao 14º dia, data de sacrifício desse grupo. Relativamente às dimensões do enfarte, aos 14 dias tanto na sequência T2 de MRI como em *post-mortem* com H&E, os animais expostos ao H₂S apresentavam enfartes de menores dimensões comparativamente aos do grupo controle. Às 24h após pMCAO não encontramos diferenças significativas nas dimensões dos enfartes medidos com a sequência T2 MRI entre os animais tratados (expostos ao H₂S) e os controles. O grupo tratado apresentava, no entanto, nas sequências de difusão (DWI) nos mapas de Coeficiente de difusão aparente (ADC) um padrão de heterogeneidade intralesional. Esta heterogeneidade dentro da área isquêmica inclui áreas centrais e periféricas da lesão, existindo áreas centrais com coeficientes de difusão superiores a áreas periféricas da lesão. Quando avaliamos a perfusão cerebral na área de isquemia com MRI de perfusão, verificamos que a diferença entre o fluxo sanguíneo cerebral no lado contralateral e o isquêmico era menor nos animais expostos ao H₂S, que tinham assim melhor perfusão relativa na área de isquemia.

Relativamente à expressão de morte celular, os animais tratados apresentaram significativamente menor expressão de células TUNEL positivo, tanto às 24h como aos 14d. Ao 14º dia, não se verificou diferença nos níveis de expressão dos marcadores VEGF ou sinaptofisina entre tratados e controles. Os níveis de expressão de GFAP estavam diminuídos aos 14d em animais tratados. Os níveis de SOD-2 aos 14 dias estavam diminuídos relativamente ao grupo controle, mas não às 24h. Os níveis de expressão de NOX-4 eram significativamente menores em animais expostos ao H₂S,

tanto às 24h como no 14ºdia. A expressão do marcador HSP-27 foi significativamente menor em animais tratados às 24h mas não ao 14ºdia.

5. DISCUSSÃO

Os nossos resultados demonstram que a exposição a H₂S após isquemia cerebral aguda em modelo animal de pMCAO melhora o resultado funcional e diminui a dimensão do enfarte cerebral aos 14 dias. A melhoria no resultado funcional foi observada nos dois instrumentos de medida e manteve-se até ao dia de sacrifício.

A sequência T2 de MRI às 24h não demonstrou diferença significativa no tamanho do enfarte, para o que pode contribuir a presença de edema cerebral com consequente aumento de volume. No entanto aos 14 dias e na avaliação post-mortem usando a coloração H&E às 24h, os animais tratados apresentavam lesões de menor dimensão. Curiosamente, os animais expostos ao H₂S apresentavam ainda nos mapas de ADC áreas de heterogeneidade intralesional que correspondiam a coeficientes de ADC mais elevados e mais diversos, tanto em áreas centrais como periféricas da lesão isquémica. Este facto pode contribuir para explicar a discrepância entre a dimensão da lesão *in vivo* e a melhoria funcional às 24h. No entanto, o tamanho da lesão parece ser insuficiente como medida isolada de evidência de efeito protector.

Estudos de genómica demonstraram evidência da expressão de genes associados ao desenvolvimento do SNC e a factores tróficos na área central da lesão isquémica. Às 24h, os mapas de ADC do grupo tratado mostraram coeficientes de ADC heterogéneos dentro da lesão isquémica que corresponderão a áreas de diferente difusão de água e portanto de integridade tissular diversa, dentro da área de isquémia. Estas heterogeneidades podem representar o que foi previamente descrito como "*mini cores*" e "*mini penumbras*".

Quando comparamos com estudos de perfusão o CBF em ambos os hemisférios nos grupos expostos a H₂S e em controlos, verificamos menor diferença nos animais expostos ao H₂S. Para esta melhor perfusão da lesão isquémica em animais expostos

ao H₂S após pMCAO, podem contribuir mecanismos de microvasoregulação, uma característica da acção biológica do H₂S. No presente estudo, a presença de heterogeneidades dentro da lesão isquémica corresponde a um melhor prognóstico funcional, a uma menor dimensão do enfarte e a uma melhor preservação do tecido cerebral em risco de isquémia definitiva.

A hipotermia, quando não induzida por factores externos, pode ser consequência de hipometabolismo e não a causa das alterações metabólicas. A modelação pelo H₂S, no contexto de isquémia aguda cerebral, tem sido associada à indução de hipotermia especialmente em protocolos que incluem tempos de exposição prolongados ao H₂S. No presente estudo, após exposição durante apenas 24 min, observamos uma diminuição de 1.85°C que os animais recuperam em menos de 2 horas. Assim, a hipotermia parece ser um efeito fugaz do hipometabolismo induzido pelo H₂S, e outros mecanismos parecem estar envolvidos, pois o seu efeito protector se mantém pelo menos até ao 14º dia. Será ainda de realçar que, contrariamente aos protocolos prévios com tempos de exposição muito prolongados, a exposição durante 24 min foi igualmente eficaz. A pequena diminuição de temperatura observada com a exposição breve ao H₂S permitirá, em contexto translacional, antever a ausência de necessidade de internamento em unidades de cuidados intensivos, que os riscos da hipotermia moderada a grave não permitem dispensar. As limitações do presente estudo incluem o uso de apenas uma dose de H₂S, pois doses diferentes poderão ter efeitos distintos no resultado final. Devido a limitações orçamentais e à característica exploratória da investigação, não incluímos animais idosos, fêmeas ou animais com co-morbilidades associadas a doença cerebrovascular. Também, apenas avaliámos o resultado clínico funcional com testes de funções motoras. No entanto, em todos os casos a MRI permitiu excluir os animais em que por falha cirúrgica, o território da MCA não se encontrava enfartado. Os efeitos a longo prazo da exposição ao H₂S, após oclusão permanente da MCA não foram investigados, pois o estudo incluía comparação de dados imagiológicos e *post-mortem* às 24h e aos 14 dias.

6. CONCLUSÕES

No presente estudo, a exposição precoce ao H₂S após pMCAO melhora o prognóstico funcional e diminui a dimensão da lesão isquémica final. A perfusão cerebral foi superior nas lesões isquémicas dos animais expostos ao H₂S e os estudos de difusão revelaram um padrão de heterogeneidade nos coeficientes de ADC de áreas centrais e periféricas da lesão. A heterogeneidade intralesional, observada como um padrão mosqueado nos mapas de ADC em animais expostos ao H₂S, corresponde a animais com melhores resultados funcionais e menor dimensão final da lesão isquémica e com melhor preservação tecidual nos animais tratados. Assim, este padrão poderá revelar-se de interesse do ponto de vista translacional, visto que as decisões de reperfusão dependem também da imagem cerebral, onde o padrão de heterogeneidade nos mapas de ADC parece distinguir e prever um melhor prognóstico funcional tanto em ratos tratados como em ratos não tratados.

O H₂S poderá actuar muito precocemente no processo isquémico pois encontramos uma expressão diminuída de marcadores de lesão aguda às 24h, sem aumento da expressão de marcadores de reparação de vasculogénese, angiogénese ou sinaptogénese ao 14º dia. O benefício mais marcante parece ocorrer antes que o tecido se deteriore, e inclui a modelação de NOX-4, uma enzima geradora de espécies reactivas de oxigénio, e mediadora de disfunção endotelial.

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

1. CEREBROVASCULAR DISEASE

Stroke is a rapidly developing focal brain dysfunction of vascular origin lasting more than 24h, including ischemic stroke, intracerebral hemorrhage, subarachnoid hemorrhage and cerebral venous thrombosis (WHO MONICA Project Principal Investigators, 1988).

Ischemic stroke occurs after a sudden interruption of a brain artery by thrombosis or embolism and is the most common type of stroke, representing more than three quarters of all strokes (Feigin et al., 2003). Once considered a disease of the artery itself, current data support a broader view, including a model where all brain cells and structures participate in the mechanisms of both tissue damage and repair. Structures involved include glia, neurons, matrix components, and vascular cells that act together in specialized frameworks like the neurovascular unit.

In the last decades, stroke research was centered on the neuron itself, trying to achieve "neuroprotection" or avoid neuronal death. Lately, attention focused on death or recovery of all cells or groups of cells involved, as well as their matrix structure, and ischemic stroke is no more just considered a matter of neuronal death (Caplan et al., 2011; Moskowitz et al., 2010).

1.1. STROKE BURDEN

Stroke is a devastating disease and the second leading cause of death worldwide (Moskowitz et al., 2010). The burden of stroke estimated from stroke incidence and prevalence studies in Europe showed regional differences, although variations in methodology should also be taken into account when interpreting the numbers. A recent review including 44 incidence and 12 prevalence studies emphasized that in Western Europe incidence will rise from 1.1 million per year in 2000 to as much as 1.5 million per year in 2025, merely because of expected changes in demographic factors and ageing of populations (Truelsen et al., 2006). In Europe, projections consider an increase in the ratio of people aged over 65, at highest risk for acute stroke, from 20%

in 2000 of the total population to 35% in 2015. In Portugal, epidemiological data showed an estimated incidence of 187/100 000 inhabitants, being the first cause of dependency and death after the age of 65 (Correia et al., 2013, 2004).

However, stroke mortality in Europe shows significant differences between Western and Eastern European countries. While Western European countries have lower and declining stroke mortality rates, in Eastern Europe, mortality rates are not only higher but also increasing if compared using age-standardized mortality rates from death certificates (Sarti et al., 2000).

1.2. BOTTLE-NECKS IN ISCHEMIC STROKE RESEARCH

In the clinical setting, we witnessed relevant changes in the attention paid to the disease. Diagnosis and treatment sustained a remarkable advance, including new and better imaging methods and a redesigned organization of stroke care. The advent of acute stroke units and publication of guidelines for stroke management and for the prevention of major complications, alongside with the generalization of pharmacologic reperfusion with recombinant tissue plasminogen activator (rtPA) improved patient care and outcome after an acute event. Nevertheless, there are still several bottlenecks not yet resolved in both primary and secondary prevention, as well as in acute stroke care. Obstacles include the lack of a biological marker of ischemia in the acute clinical setting that would allow confirming ischemia, even when clinical signs had already faded. Additionally, there is no approved alternative for reperfusion therapy in the majority of patients with ischemic stroke that are not eligible for rtPA treatment.

In the large group of patients that do not qualify for reperfusion after acute ischemic stroke, many present with an unknown interval since onset of symptoms. However, this interval is crucial for the decision to start reperfusion therapy since it has been shown that there is a threshold after which reperfusion is futile and even potentially harmful (Ferro, 1997; Hacke et al., 2008; Hussein et al., 2010; Lees et al., 2010). Consequently, reperfusion should not be used if cell death in ischemic areas has

already occurred due to higher risk of hemorrhagic transformation. Yet, a therapeutic window might still exist in patients whose brain tissue in the infarct area is still potentially salvable in MRI image signaling (Cheng et al., 2013). Since time is a major variable of tissue integrity and potential reversibility of ischemic lesions, image markers for ischemia time that correlate with histological status are considered a highly desirable target for investigation.

Unfortunately, in the field of pharmacological neuroprotection, no drug investigated to date showed both clinical benefit and an adequate safety profile despite several new therapeutic approaches that were tested in stroke models and clinical trials during decades of both basic and clinical research (Dirnagl, 2006). Therefore, new pharmacological targets have still to be established in order to improve treatment of acute ischemic stroke and ultimately diminish individual and global burden of stroke.

2. PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF ISCHEMIC STROKE AND CELL DEATH

2.1. RISK FACTORS AND REGULATION OF CEREBRAL BLOOD FLOW

Major cerebrovascular risk factors cannot be modified like age, male sex, Afro-American or Hispanic origin (in the US population), or family history of cerebrovascular disease. Other risk factors like hypertension, diabetes, smoking habits, dyslipidemia, or cardiac embolism due to atrial fibrillation can be controlled by lifestyle modifications or medical interventions, reducing significantly the chance of ischemic stroke.

Risk factors for stroke act by damaging physiological adaptive mechanisms that guarantee an adequate brain perfusion under different circumstances. They promote a change of both structure and function of the arterial wall, including the interface with the circulating blood, through pathophysiological mechanisms like atherosclerosis with subsequent narrowing and stiffness of the arteries, arterioles, and capillaries. This process is associated with loss of regulation of local cerebral blood flow (CBF). At the microvascular level, adaptive mechanisms of the endothelium are no longer perfect, leading to an inadequate oxygen and energy supply with loss of adaptive increase in

blood flow usually evoked by neuronal activity (Arrick et al., 2007; Iadecola and Davisson, 2008). Additionally, the impairment of cerebrovascular autoregulation that keeps CBF stable during variations in systemic blood pressure, compromises the development of collateral circulation and increases the probability of ischemia (Moskowitz et al., 2010).

The presence of risk factors also promotes changes in cerebral arteries by mechanisms that include production of reactive oxygen species (ROS). Major vascular sources of ROS are superoxide-producing enzyme nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) oxidase, mitochondrial enzymes, uncoupling of nitric oxide synthetase (NOS), and xanthine oxidase. Under physiological circumstances, ROS participate in regulation of cellular metabolism. However, when ROS increase to toxic levels mainly by excessive production or insufficient neutralization by antioxidant enzymes, cell injury occurs through mechanisms that include lipid peroxidation, protein oxidation and DNA damage (Olmez and Ozyurt, 2012). Endothelial dysfunction involves increased levels of ROS and decreased levels of nitric oxide (NO). Major vascular damage due to oxidative stress is related to the inactivation of NO by free superoxide radicals, reducing the availability of NO and consequently its protective role (Pacher et al., 2007). Thus, the regulation of microvascular flow is affected by the loss of the regulatory effect of endothelial NO, leading to vasoconstriction and inadequate NO-related vascular responses (Schulz et al., 2008).

2.2 THE ISCHEMIC CASCADE

When a cerebral artery is obstructed and no adequate blood supply is provided despite response from collateral circulation and microcirculation, brain cells start a process that will end up in cell death either by apoptosis or necrosis (Kulik et al., 2008; Shuaib et al., 2011). The ischemic cascade begins with an inadequate production of energy resources, mainly adenosine triphosphate (ATP). The resulting anaerobic metabolism that develops in the ischemic lesion unbalances the normal acid-base homeostasis. ATP-dependent ion pump transport fails and causes depolarization of cell membranes, thus leading to imbalanced ion flux including enlarged calcium influx and potassium

efflux. High intracellular calcium levels trigger the release of excitatory amino acids (mainly glutamate) that stimulate calcium-permeable-N-methyl D-aspartate (NMDA) and α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid (AMPA) receptors, leading to even more calcium influx. Subsequently, cells become overexcited by excessive calcium levels triggering an activation of proteases, lipases, and reactive oxygen species (ROS). This pathophysiological process, also referred to as excitotoxicity, represents a series of events that ultimately leads to cell death during the ischemic cascade.

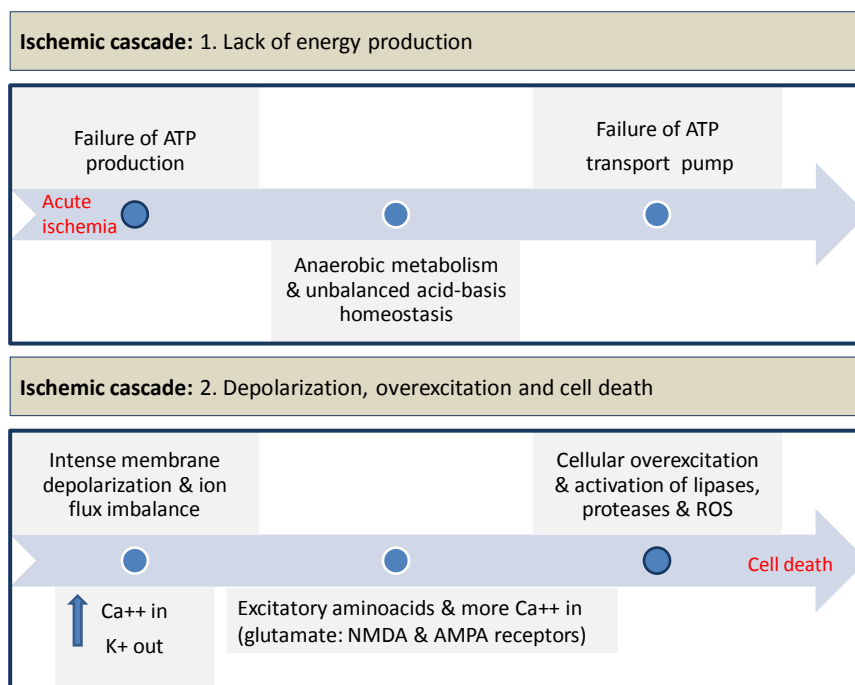


Figure 1. Ischemic cascade

When the cell membrane integrity is lost, mainly due to the intervention of phospholipases, the control of ion influx or efflux becomes impossible. As a result, mitochondrial integrity can no longer be maintained and apoptotic factors and toxins are liberated promoting cell death through mechanisms that include apoptosis and necrosis. As cells die through necrotic processes, they further liberate glutamate and

other cytotoxic products that provoke severe damage in the cells of the peri-infarct zone. Finally, vascular integrity is lost leading to the disruption of the protective blood-brain barrier. In consequence, brain edema is intensified and triggers further secondary brain injury.

Cell death is a particular aspect of cerebral ischemia, not only referring to neuronal death but also to other cell types and components of the blood-brain barrier. The twilight zone between cell death and recovery to normal homeostasis through reperfusion is the focus of current research in acute stroke.

3. ACUTE TREATMENT: NEUROPROTECTORS AND THE NEED FOR THERAPEUTIC WINDOW ENLARGEMENT

In the recent past, the development of new and better brain imaging techniques and the progress in the knowledge of stroke pathophysiology due to biomolecular research contributed to an increased interest in cerebrovascular diseases. Since the 1990's, treatment options for acute ischemic stroke include arterial reperfusion using thrombolytic agents. However, functional benefit from reperfusion could only be shown if used during a short time window after stroke (Bluhmki et al., 2009). Initial clinical studies demonstrated that vessel recanalization was effective in selected patients if intravenous thrombolysis with recombinant tissue plasminogen activator was used within 3h after onset of acute symptoms (Hacke et al., 1995; "Tissue plasminogen activator for acute ischemic stroke. The National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke rt-PA Stroke Study Group," 1995). As the reduced time window excluded the majority of stroke patients, new trials were carried out to investigate the safety and effectiveness of an enlarged time window that would permit to extend the established time frame for reperfusion treatment up to 4.5h after symptom onset in clinical protocols in Europe (Bluhmki et al., 2009). Yet, the small time window contributes to the fact that less than 15% of the patients with acute ischemic stroke are eligible for thrombolysis. In consequence, research on factors that would permit an enlargement of the time window is highly desirable and may focus on modulation of the ischemic cascade to delay apoptotic processes and cell death. In this context,

neuroprotectors can be useful in pre-hospital acute stroke medication, wake-up stroke, and patients excluded from thrombolysis including delayed arrival. Moreover, neuroprotective treatment may be beneficial in a synergic approach in addition to thrombolysis and may enlarge the therapeutic window.

3.1. TIME IS BRAIN

The concept of "time is brain", emerging from the need to start thrombolysis as early as possible after ischemic stroke, has contributed to the development of updated organizational models in acute stroke care, regarding the structure and procedures of emergency medical services. The need to understand the reasons for delay that ultimately excludes patients from access to thrombolysis has led research on pre-hospital and in-hospital therapeutic delay (Gomez et al., 1994). Despite different methodologies, overall results showed that in-hospital times from hospital door to acute image interpretation and clinical evaluation by a neurologist were too long. However, pre-hospital delay accounted for the largest contribution if considering the total interval from symptom onset to thrombolysis (Díez-Tejedor and Fuentes, 2012; Evenson et al., 2001; Hill et al., 2000).

Furthermore, studies that attempted to obtain a quantitative estimate of the pace of neural circuitry loss during ischemic stroke highlighted the urgency of acute stroke care. In untreated patients, the approximate rate of neuron loss reached up to 1.9 million neurons per minute, alongside with destruction of synapses and myelinated fibers (Saver, 2006). More recently, evaluation of the benefit of early thrombolytic treatment in the United States showed that intervention was associated with reduced mortality and better functional outcome at discharge. These findings support efforts to improve emergency management of stroke patients, but also highlight the need for a better pharmacological management of pre-hospital acute stroke care. In the context of brain ischemia, it would be desirable to find the equivalent of nitrates for acute coronary disease that delay irreversible ischemia and save many cardiac patients before reaching the hospital.

In the light of above-mentioned evidence, strategies that include public campaigns on the recognition of common stroke symptoms and reinforcement of the importance of early admission after symptom onset were widely employed in order to promote early arrival after symptom onset at hospital emergency rooms. Yet, the best strategy to maintain population awareness after media campaigns has still to be established. Isolated interventions resorting on popular mass media like TV are unlikely to guarantee extended effects on population behavior and lack a positive cost-benefit analysis (Goldstein, 2003; Silver et al., 2003; Tadros et al., 2009). However, the attitude towards the problem has shifted and health care workers and the public in general nowadays look at acute stroke as a clinical emergency, requiring specific care as promptly as possible.

Advances in the treatment of acute ischemic stroke and the advent of thrombolysis led to the development and implementation of dedicated wards and specific care for this group of patients. In so-called "stroke units", teams with special training in cerebrovascular disease began to attend acute stroke patients. This new type of organization of acute stroke care in specialized units proved to provide benefit in the short and long-term follow-up. Mortality decreased and patient functional independency improved, with a higher chance of returning to live at home, one year after the acute event ("Organised inpatient (stroke unit) care for stroke.," 2013). The improvement in functional outcome could still be observed at 5 and 10 years of follow-up, when compared to patients treated in non-dedicated wards (Alberts et al., 2005; Drummond et al., 2005; Indredavik et al., 1999; Langhorne and Dennis, 2004).

3.2. NEUROPROTECTION VS. BRAIN PROTECTION

Since the majority of patients do not meet criteria for thrombolysis, neuroprotective strategies are needed to prevent definitive ischemia and cell death after stroke. However, and despite a huge amount of research, none of the more than 1000 neuroprotective drugs proposed in the setting of acute stroke that were promising in pre-clinical research proved to have clinical benefit (Ferro and Dávalos, 2006; Radermacher et al., 2012). Reasons for translation failure of experimental data into

clinical context include pleomorphic ischemic pathophysiology, double-sword effect of drugs and confounding immunobiochemical markers in different times after ischemia. Furthermore, publication bias leads under-reported negative results and inadequate replication of primary results. Other quality issues in basic research include outdated estimations of sample size, lack of randomization, failure in validation of scales, lack of control for relevant physiological parameters, and missing representation of female and older animals as well as models that include animals with common associated risk factors for stroke. Thus, most experimental models fail to express the multifaceted features of stroke patients and suffer from methodological issues. Additionally, as stroke does not comprise just a single mechanism, focusing on a unique pharmacological target is probably inadequate (Dirnagl, 2006). Furthermore, acute stroke involves all brain cells and structures. Consequently, strategies must not only target the protection of neuronal cells ("neuroprotection") but also other cells and structures (Endres and Dirnagl, 2002; Fukuda and del Zoppo, 2003; Gutiérrez et al., 2013; Liang et al., 2004; Mergenthaler et al., 2004; Traystman, 2003).

In response to the failure to tackle the step from bench to bedside, researchers tried to establish criteria and guidelines for quality control in preclinical stroke research (Lapchak et al., 2013; Saver et al., 2009). Some topics were already dealt with in the Stroke Therapy Academic Industry Roundtable (STAIR) that tried to understand the lack of success of translational research in stroke and edited recommendations for standards in preclinical neuroprotective and restorative drug development ("Recommendations for standards regarding preclinical neuroprotective and restorative drug development," 1999), as well as for clinical trials evaluating acute stroke therapies ("Recommendations for clinical trial evaluation of acute stroke therapies," 2001).

An additional critical issue is the interpretation of experimental data given that many stroke targets and markers can be biphasic and act differently in the ischemic sequence of events (Caplan et al., 2011).

Nonetheless, complete understanding of cell death after brain ischemia is missing so far, with consequences concerning new acute treatment strategies. Research on

protection of all brain cells (and not only the neuron "neuroprotection") after focal brain ischemia is needed, in order to develop new therapeutic targets. The ideal protector would include the possibility of being given blindly after symptom onset, in order to avoid brain tissue deterioration and ultimately cell death. Additionally, it would be safe enough not to harm patients that eventually suffer from other types of stroke.

On the other hand, besides rushing after symptoms onset, another possibility could include the reduction of metabolic needs in order to improve the balance between energy needs and production inside the ischemic tissue. In nature, this equilibrium is sometimes obtained in conditions like extreme external cold or hibernation, where despite lack of total or severely reduced cerebral blood flow, reversibility to normal homeostasis is possible without permanent ischemic damage.

4. PENUMBRA AND CORE

4.1. THE PENUMBRA CONCEPT

After acute stroke, the ischemic injury shows areas with a different potential for recovery, depending mainly on residual perfusion threshold, collateral circulation and capacity of microcirculation response. The classical description of penumbra after focal brain ischemia in primates (Astrup et al., 1981) includes the demonstration through measurements of electrical activity that inside the ischemic injury subsist regions that are dysfunctional but not yet dead. Neurons would not fire action potentials but could still sustain their resting membrane potentials (-70 mV), and, provided that blood flow was improved, these areas recovered with restoration of action potentials. However, if ischemia was prolonged, neurons died after anoxic depolarization, as described before (Astrup et al., 1977).

Consequently, the destiny of cells and matrix after acute stroke depends on the area where they are located inside the ischemic region: the region with a lower degree of hypoperfusion where no reversibility could be expected, the so called "ischemic core",

or the remaining hypoperfusion region, not to be recruited directly into ischemic tissue, the "penumbra", where potentially salvageable tissue depends on the access to reperfusion (Baron, 2001). As such, the penumbra represents the part of ischemic brain tissue that is damaged but not yet dead and whose recovery ability decreases over time.

From the perspective of therapeutic rescue of ischemic tissue, the "ischemic core" represents an area beyond possible rescue, electrically silent and irreversibly damaged, with energy and ion homeostasis failure. From the hemodynamic point of view, the ischemic core is perfused below the threshold of brain tissue survival (5-8 ml/100g/min in the first hours after ischemic onset) (Baron, 1999). Penumbra can also be defined as hypoperfused tissue at risk of infarction that contributes to clinical deficit and whose early reperfusion permits a better functional outcome (Lo, 2008; Moustafa and Baron, 2008).

Research on penumbra focused initial into ischemic regulation of electrophysiology, cerebral blood flow, and metabolism. Lately, on molecular mechanisms mediating cell death in the penumbral spot and imaging tools that allow to differentiate brain tissue compromise after acute ischemia (Lo, 2008). The possibility to "visualize" the penumbra both in MRI and in PET studies is considered of high translational interest since it permits individualized information regarding the existence and size of penumbra regions in each patient and the evaluation of the potential interest of reperfusion, avoiding futile reperfusion in cases where the brain tissue is irreversibly damaged.

Interestingly, the progression from injury to infarct in the penumbra metabolism may not be linear. Some penumbra areas that seem to be dying can also be, at the same time, starting endogenous repair and remodeling. Since the observation that some "dreadful" mediators linked with cell death pathways are upregulated in the acute phase of stroke and may actually promote repair, many mediators started to be seen as having a "double-edged sword" behavior, modulating both injury and repair. Furthermore, some molecular targets are thought of as having a biphasic role, mediating injury during acute phase, but contributing to remodeling and repair in the

recovery phase. Examples of this "double behavior" include NMDA antagonists or extracellular proteases of matrix metalloproteinase (MMP) that were promising in experimental research but of no proven clinical benefit after clinical trials. This double behavior, dependent on the interval after the onset of the acute event, contributed to the comprehension of how and why some neuroprotective drugs failed in the clinical context (Caplan et al., 2011).

Future research on penumbra should focus on further clarifying not only how but when and where normal brain tissue switches to a deleterious sequence of events and then back from damage to repair (Lo, 2008).

4.2. ISCHEMIA IS ABOUT CELL DEATH

All brain cell types and structures are potentially involved in the pathophysiology of ischemic stroke, and ischemia is about death of different cell types at different time points in different regions of the ischemic lesion. Lesion progression to cell death include other factors than lack of blood supply, such as inflammation. However, defining correctly the moment of irreversible cell death can be difficult and depends on the techniques employed (Zille et al., 2012).

Mechanisms involved in cell death after a sudden lack of arterial blood flow, include necrosis with disintegration of the cell membrane and release of cell content, and apoptosis with nuclear dissolution and chromatin condensation without loss of membrane integrity. Other mechanisms include autophagic cell death and phagoptosis being one cell devoured by another (Ferrer and Planas, 2003; Linnik et al., 1993; Puyal et al., 2013). Nevertheless, and although major interest exist in distinguish different types of cell death, so far no methodology can accurately distinguish between apoptosis and necrosis. Methodological problems may lead to misuse of terms or ambiguous concepts regarding cell death in stroke literature (Ferrer and Planas, 2003; Galluzzi et al., 2012).

Before neuroimaging and modern molecular biology, visualization of cell death was only possible in histological *postmortem* samples where morphological characteristics were associated with cell death. In the beginning of the 20th Century, many histological descriptions of different types of necrosis like "selective neuronal necrosis" or "incomplete necrosis" were described; later, necrotic cell death included also swelling of the organelles and disruption of the cell membrane. Only in the early seventies, Kerr and collaborators described apoptosis, characterized by cells that show nuclear fragmentation with chromatin condensation without cell membrane rupture (Kerr et al., 1972). Years later, the morphological aspects of apoptosis after cerebral ischemia were confirmed by electron microscopy (Li et al., 1995). Finally, molecular and biochemical markers of cell death were identified and assigned to either apoptosis or necrosis. However, the distinction is not yet as accurately as expected, despite current guidelines on definitions and nomenclature for cell death (Galluzzi et al., 2012; Zille et al., 2012).

Both histological and biomolecular markers identify cell death at a definite time point but not always coincidently. Additionally, *in vivo* imaging shows regions of interest (ROI) that will progress either to cell death or back towards normal tissue homeostasis. While it would be desirable that acute imaging tools in the context of acute brain focal ischemia would match perfectly with immunohistochemical data and relate ultimately to visualization of cell death, current descriptions of brain lesions in acute stroke imaging still represent only a surrogate for diagnosis of tissue fate.

Imaging techniques used in acute stroke include magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and nuclear imaging techniques like positron emission tomography (PET) and single photon emission computed tomography (SPECT) (Zille et al., 2012). MRI uses very strong magnetic fields and radio waves inducing different states of excitation in the nuclei or protons of hydrogen atoms. Resulting images represent specific pathological changes in tissue water content. In the acute ischemic setting, the ability of calculating infarct volume has been used as a correlate of cell death, namely using T2-weighted image sequence and diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI).

DWI is a sequence very sensitive to Brownian water motion. Regions of restricted diffusion appear very intense and present a very low diffusion coefficient. In the setting of acute ischemia, the hyperintensity signal in DWI is attributed to disintegration of ion homeostasis and intracellular accumulation of water associated with cytotoxic edema (Fisher et al., 1992). Furthermore, the sequence of apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC) allows obtaining a quantitative measure of the level of water restriction. This quantification permits comparisons in permanent models of focal ischemia of imaging and biomolecular pathophysiological events in acute ischemia. So far, DWI can still be considered the best imaging method to diagnose acute cerebral ischemia, although it represents an indirect measure of damage without resolution at the cellular level.

MRI can also measure cerebral brain flow (CBF), cerebral blood volume (CBV) and mean transient time (MTT), using perfusion weighted imaging MRI (PWI). The "mismatch" between areas of blood perfusion and water diffusion in the ischemic territory represents the *gold standard* in brain image of the classical concept of "penumbra", a region at risk of definitive infarct but still potentially salvable, in opposition to "core" that has been described as one where tissue is irremediably lost. Limitations of the mismatch concept include the lack of penumbra threshold within the oligoemia region, the overestimation of the final infarct volume and the possible reversibility of PWI images if blood flow is restored. As such, initial PWI may not fully predict the final core (Kidwell et al., 2000).

Biomolecular correlates of penumbra include preserved ATP synthesis, synthesis of heat-shock proteins, general decrease of protein synthesis, and the capacity to elicit an unfolded protein response (Sharp et al., 2000).

The switch from "penumbra" to "core" follows an injury progression if reperfusion is not reestablished. PET studies suggested that injury progression occurs in three different stages. Initial acute ischemic injury begins within minutes after stroke onset, with a CBF below the threshold needed for energy metabolism; then it is followed by a subacute phase where "core" expands into "penumbra". Oxygen extraction fraction is still maintained despite decreased CBF and O₂ metabolism. Finally, a delayed injury

phase lasts from days to weeks. However, about half of the “penumbra” area expands to “core” within the first 3 hours, and after 6 – 8 hours, almost all ischemic area will appear as core if perfusion is not restored, both in animal models and in humans (del Zoppo et al., 2011; Heiss, 2000; Ramos-Cabrera et al., 2011).

4.3. "MICRO CORES AND MICRO PENUMBRAS"

An advance in the concept of penumbra that better expresses the variability within the ischemic injury is the theory of multiple *micro penumbras* and *micro cores* inside the ischemic territory (del Zoppo et al., 2011). Contrary to the original conception of penumbra as a concentric model of flow-related changes in evoked potentials within the ischemic injury around a core of permanent injury (Astrup et al., 1977), new data suggest that the central "core" is not dead since it can express genes that do not relate to the ischemic cascade (Ramos-Cejudo et al., 2012). Consequently, “core” may develop heterogeneously and only with time will coalesce into a homogeneous area when not reperfused in due time (and if electrical silence will not recover).

An important factor that influences differences in ischemic tissue fate consists in the variability in response of local microcirculation. Although it is generally accepted that the regulation of microvasculature plays an important role in acute ischemia, its role is not yet completely understood. In brain arteries, the blood conductance is operated by the macrocirculation, whereas the regulation of blood flow depends more on the microcirculation, including pial and penetrating arterioles, capillaries, and venules. During ischemia and after changes in endothelial cells and the breakdown of the BBB, capillaries and venules maximally dilate until no further response is obtained, and represent, in ischemic conditions, a major component of vascular resistance. Previous studies suggest a dynamic response of the microvasculature to acute focal ischemia suggestive of the presence of multiple cores. These changes support the concept that microvascular integrity is modified in a heterogeneous but consistent pattern (Tagaya et al., 2001). In consequence, a temporal relationship seems to exist between brain tissue integrity, regional CBF and electrical failure that define regions of reversible or permanent injury after acute brain ischemia (Kulik et al., 2008).

5. ISCHEMIC TOLERANCE: HYPOTHERMIA AND HIBERNATION

5.1 LACK OF CEREBRAL BLOOD FLOW WITHOUT PERMANENT NEUROLOGICAL DEFICIT

In nature, there are exceptions to the rule that lack of cerebral blood flow during a prolonged period inexorably leads to ischemia and irreversible brain damage. Examples include cardiac arrest from extreme cold (Dobson and Burgess, 1996) and hibernation (Rouble et al., 2013) where, despite very severe brain oligoemia or no cerebral blood flow at all, survival without permanent neurological deficit is possible (Dave et al., 2012; Schwartz et al., 2013; Storey and Storey, 2010). The prevention of severe brain damage in these cases, characterized by a markedly reduced cerebral blood flow during long periods, may serve as a model that can contribute to our understanding of new pharmacological targets in acute ischemic stroke treatment and to preserve brain tissue before reperfusion is achieved.

5.1.1. HYPOTHERMIA

Extreme cold is a condition where despite severe cerebral hypoperfusion or no perfusion at all, irreversible neurological damage can be avoided. Patients rescued from cardiac arrest in iced mountains or induced cold cardioplegia in the context of cardiac surgery illustrate that brain (and other tissues) can be preserved despite lack of blood flow. Consequently, there is a rationale for the induction of hypothermia in acute stroke, since it may reduce deterioration if induced early enough after the onset of symptoms and maintained for an adequate period.

Two levels of externally induced decrease in body temperature are considered of therapeutic significance for translational studies: mild hypothermia (33°C – 35°C) and moderate hypothermia (30°C – 33°C). Mild hypothermia is safer, technically easier to perform (Buchan and Pulsinelli, 1990) and can be achieved in humans without sedation or mechanical ventilation. However, the neuroprotective effect varies with temperature and the time from symptom onset to hypothermia induction. A maximal

efficacy was observed with moderate cooling, maintained during a prolonged period (12h to 48h) (Corbett et al., 2000). Nonetheless, even a small decrease of basal body temperature of around 2°C or less has a protective effect and its histological and behavioral evidence could be shown. However, external hypothermia was only effective if applied 5 min after hypoperfusion begun and not when it was delayed more than 30 min (Busto et al., 1989). Therefore, the extent of decrease in body temperature, the time from stroke onset, and the duration of hypothermia exposure contribute to outcome.

In animal models of acute ischemia, induced hypothermia showed benefit by reducing infarct size and ameliorating functional outcome (Campos et al., 2012). A meta-analysis of experimental data, including more than 100 experiments, confirmed that induced hypothermia after focal brain ischemia diminished infarct size and improved functional outcome. Yet, a very wide array of temperatures, duration of exposure and intervals between stroke onset and the initiation of hypothermia was tested, making it difficult to conclude for the most adequate subset of conditions. Overall, the hypothermia effect was more pronounced with lower temperatures, although still present in mild hypothermia as long as temperature was decreased below 35°C (van der Worp et al., 2007). In the translational context, the induction of lower temperatures requires intensive care support, not universally available for the treatment of a highly prevalent disease like ischemic stroke.

The mechanisms by which hypothermia may protect brain tissue from ischemia are not yet entirely understood. In regard to mild hypothermia, protection was not only associated with the induced metabolic changes and reduction in metabolic needs, but also with inhibition of presumably protective biological processes, such as detoxification and repair, and the final balance between protective and non-protective mechanisms is difficult to establish. Nevertheless, some mechanisms are already acknowledged for their contribution to hypothermia brain protection. These include the decline of cerebral metabolic rate creating a more favorable balance between oxygen demand and supply, which represents a critical issue in acute ischemia. Furthermore, hypothermia promotes the decrease in arteriole permeability with development of less cerebral edema and a reduced brain-blood-barrier disruption with

less formation of free radicals and excitatory neurotransmitters (including glutamate), as well as a milder inflammatory response with reduced release of pro-inflammatory cytokines and leukocyte adhesion (Sinclair and Andrews, 2010). Thus, hypothermia induces changes in the CBF regulation, cell membrane stability, energetic metabolism and intracellular signaling, as well as modulation of excitotoxicity and acid-base balance, with interference in apoptotic mechanisms (Schaller and Graf, 2003).

In the clinical context, physical or pharmacological induction of hypothermia after acute stroke can trigger complications like bradycardia, shivering, and an increase in pneumonia occurrence, with controversial benefit in death rate. A Cochrane meta-analysis showed no evidence supporting the routine use of reducing temperature after acute ischemic stroke (Den Hertog et al., 2009). However, recent clinical trials showed benefit reducing unfavorable functional outcome at 3 months (Piironen et al., 2014). A large multicenter randomized phase III trial is under way to further clarify this issue (van der Worp et al., 2014).

5.1.2. DORMANCY AND HIBERNATION

Hibernation is a molecular, physiological, and behavioral adaptation of some mammalian species in periods of unpredictable or shortage of food availability. During states of dormancy and hibernation, mammals are able to survive with metabolic rates as low as 2% of their usual needs, without irreversible brain lesions. During these periods, animals need to carry out adaptive transformations, including mechanisms of metabolic suppression by actively decreasing body temperature and depressing immune functions, but also increased oxidative resistance (Drew et al., 2007; Zhou et al., 2001).

CNS regulation of hibernation is poorly understood but comprises a "circannually regulated hibernating protein complex". This protein complex allows metabolic flexibility regulated via neuronal pathways. Central sites for regulation include the hippocampus, hypothalamus, and nuclei of the autonomic nervous system. Wide-ranging sympathetic activation is suppressed and parasympathetic inhibition of

metabolic pathways promoted. The decreased demands in CNS metabolism cause a decrease in body temperature that assists further cooling by temperature-dependent mechanism. The mechanisms of metabolic suppression in hibernation include a reversible reduction in cellular needs for oxygen and other nutrients, better fitting the metabolic demand with the supply (Drew et al., 2007). Knowledge about the mechanisms used by hibernating animals to decrease metabolic demand may have translation potential for stroke therapy (Drew et al., 2007; Storey and Storey, 2010).

5.2 NITRIC OXIDE, CARBON MONOXIDE, AND HYDROGEN SULFIDE

Nitric oxide (NO) and carbon monoxide (CO) are signaling gaseous molecules of the central nervous and cardiovascular system with cytoprotective properties in the context of brain and heart ischemia (Elrod et al., 2006). Lately, particular attention has been paid to the potential biological significance of hydrogen sulfide (H₂S), initially known for its toxic environmental properties (Abe and Kimura, 1996; Beauchamp et al., 1984). These 3 labile biological mediators (NO, CO e H₂S) have common characteristics like being able to cross cell membranes without the need of membrane transporters, thus having easy and prompt access to intracellular pathways.

Interestingly, Blackstone and coworkers induced a condition similar to hibernation in mammals that normally do not hibernate by H₂S inhalation in their study published in 2005. They called this condition the “suspended animation-like state”. Mice exposed to a H₂S enriched atmosphere showed a significant decrease in their metabolic rates (measured through O₂ consumption and CO₂ elimination) and body temperature. After 6 hours of exposure to H₂S, animals started to breathe normal atmosphere and returned spontaneously to normal metabolic rates and body temperature, with no changes in health condition in short and long-term follow-up (Blackstone et al., 2005).

Hydrogen sulfide is a gas that results from bacterial breakdown of organic matter in anaerobic conditions. Small amounts are produced in the human body and used as signaling molecule. H₂S is present in the central nervous system at relatively concentrations (50 to 160 microM) in comparison to other organs which suggests that

it may have a localized physiological function (Abe and Kimura, 1996; Kimura and Kimura, 2004). Nevertheless, controversy still exists about measuring methods (Olson et al., 2014). H₂S is a vasodilator of the cerebral arterioles via activation of K(ATP) channels (Leffler et al., 2011), but its biological functions extend far beyond its direct effects on vasotonus.

H₂S is synthesized in mammals in different organs through two major L-cysteine metabolic pathways that depend on pyridoxal-5'-phosphate enzymes: cystathionine beta-synthase (CBS) and cystathionine gamma-lyase (CSE). L-cysteine can originate from food sources (like yogurt, oat flakes, and eggs), or be synthesized from L-methionine through the transsulfuration pathway, with homocysteine acting as intermediary in the process. The biological effects of exposure to H₂S seem to depend largely on its capacity to inhibit mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation. H₂S is a potent inhibitor of brain cytochrome oxidase activity and suppresses metabolism since it is an inhibitor of cellular oxidative phosphorylation (Wallace and Starkov, 2000). Consequently, metabolic suppression precedes the decrease in body temperature that is observed after H₂S inhalation (Blackstone et al., 2005). This characteristically differentiates H₂S from other methods to induce hypothermia where the decrease in temperature precedes the hypometabolic effect.

Regarding temperature regulation in hibernation, the decrease in CNS activation and metabolic demand facilitates the drop in body temperature. Cooling can then boost further metabolic suppression by down-regulating temperature-dependent mechanisms including neuronal activity (Drew et al., 2007). Thus, the biologic effect of H₂S can be compared to the mechanisms described in the torpor phases of hibernation where reduced metabolism also seems to be accomplished by synergistic effects of both passive (temperature-dependent) and active (temperature-independent) mechanisms that provide a decrease in oxygen demand.

H₂S is endogenously produced in different organs including the brain (Mani et al., 2013) and regulates oxygen consumption by competing with O₂ in binding to cytochrome C oxidase at the mitochondrial electron transport chain (Wagner et al., 2009). A suggested mechanism for the regulation of H₂S refers to the observation that

the concentration of biologically active H₂S is regulated by the simple balance between constitutive H₂S production and its oxidation by the mitochondria (Olson, 2013; Olson et al., 2014). The potential of H₂S as a pharmacological tool in acute brain ischemia may also relate to its role as an oxygen sensor (Olson et al., 2013) and its properties concerning the regulation of neuronal and glial communication (Mikami et al., 2011) and of local vasotone (Leffler et al., 2011). Being an oxygen sensor H₂S may contribute to monitoring environmental oxygen and ensuring adequate delivery to tissues.

However, the biological effects of H₂S are still controversial and depend, among other factors, on the dosage and duration of the exposure. At micromolecular concentrations, H₂S appears to have a neuroprotective role, not only by interference with oxidative stress and cell death pathways but by modulation of the activity of the N-metil-d-aspartate (NMDA) receptors in physiological concentrations (Kimura and Kimura, 2004). Furthermore, induction and upregulation of cytoprotective and anti-inflammatory genes, including heme oxygenase-1 (HO₁) which allows the production of CO with renowned cytoprotective and anti-inflammatory properties, was attributed to H₂S (Nagai et al., 2004). Thus, exogenous administration of H₂S may also be cytoprotective in the context of acute experimental ischemia.

5.3. PREVIOUS WORKS WITH H₂S AFTER EXPERIMENTAL STROKE

Since the publication of an article in Science in 2005, showing that the inhalation of a mixture of atmosphere and H₂S induced a dramatic reduction in oxygen consumption to less than 15% of normal metabolic rates without irreversible neurological deficits (Blackstone et al., 2005), the potential benefit of H₂S in the context of acute ischemia started to be investigated.

Despite multiple potentially protective mechanisms of H₂S, data regarding the benefit of H₂S in the context of acute ischemic stroke were few and conflicting when we designed the present research project. A first report on H₂S in acute ischemic stroke in a rodent model showed no benefit in functional outcome (Qu et al., 2006). Later, other studies including older rats or permanent and reperfusion models and prolonged

exposure to H₂S, demonstrated a clear benefit, both in functional outcome and in lesion size (Florian et al., 2008; Gheibi et al., 2014; Joseph et al., 2012). These results were in concordance with the data from experimental ischemic models of other organs like the heart and the kidney where similar benefits were observed using H₂S gas or liquid vials with H₂S donors (Bannenberg and Vieira, 2009; Hosgood and Nicholson, 2010; Simon et al., 2008; Sodha et al., 2009). Consequently, a rationale for the potential translational interest of H₂S or H₂S donors in the context of acute stroke was established.

Nevertheless, the controversy about the cytoprotective role of H₂S in the context of acute ischemia persists and neurotoxic effects have been described in rodents. These discrepancies in the action of H₂S have been observed within the same specie (Qu et al., 2006) , between distinct species (mouse and piglets) (Li et al., 2008), and between distinct organs (heart and brain) (Hayashida et al., 2008). The reasons for this discrepancy in existing data include the fact that H₂S protective effects are dose-dependent, probably even at micro doses (ppM), as suggested by studies in myocardial ischemia (Johansen et al., 2006). Furthermore, results of H₂S administration also depend on exposure time for the purpose of hypometabolic effects, particularly in mammals with large body size.

The induction of hypometabolic conditions after the onset of acute cerebral ischemia by reducing metabolic needs and diminishing the difference between energy production and demand may theoretically contribute to prevention of ischemic injury, enlarging the time window until spontaneous reperfusion occurs or therapeutic reperfusion is available. If confirmed in experimental and clinical setting, the induction of hypometabolism may represent an option to increase the therapeutic window and a chance for thrombolysis in patients that are currently excluded from reperfusion therapy.

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AIMS AND SCOPE OF INVESTIGATION

AIMS AND SCOPE OF INVESTIGATION

We studied the hypothesis that exposure to hydrogen sulfide after acute cerebral ischemia has a protective effect regarding brain damage and functional outcome in an animal model of focal cerebral ischemia, addressing in particular the following questions:

1. Does current literature support further research concerning the role of oxidative phosphorylation inhibitors in the context of acute stroke treatment?
2. Does exposure to H₂S after acute ischemic stroke diminish infarct size and enhance recovery?
3. Does the effect of H₂S relate to brain protection or repair mechanisms, involving either modulation of post-ischemic oxidative stress and the expression of reactive oxygen species or promotion of post-ischemic repair?
4. Is it possible to use in vivo brain imaging to predict outcome in experimental stroke?

We analyzed the effects of H₂S exposure in a permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion (pMCAO) model in rodents and measured functional outcome and infarct size in vivo and post-mortem. Furthermore, we investigated mechanisms of cytoprotection and repair and compared data from in vivo brain imaging with post-mortem immunohistochemical evidence.

Our research shall contribute to the understanding of the potential role of H₂S in the context of acute ischemic stroke and clarify underlying processes involved in presumed ischemic tissue preservation. In the future, we shall expect a major translational benefit if the hypothetic potential of H₂S donors in acute brain ischemia is confirmed.

***1. ACUTE BRAIN ISCHEMIA, HYPOTHERMIA
AND HIBERNATION: THE ROLE OF OXIDATIVE
PHOSPHORYLATION INHIBITORS***

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1. ACUTE BRAIN ISCHEMIA, HYPOTHERMIA AND HIBERNATION: THE ROLE OF OXIDATIVE PHOSPHORYLATION INHIBITORS

INTRODUCTION

Current treatment of acute ischemic cerebrovascular accidents (CVA) includes arterial reperfusion using rt-PA (recombinant tissue-plasminogen activator) and treatment at CVA Units. During the last decades, numerous neuroprotective substances have been promising in pre-clinical studies, both in terms of ischemic volume and functional outcome. Regrettably, none has demonstrated unequivocal clinical benefit.

Reasons for the difficulties of extrapolation to humans include the need for very quick administration of drugs which presents difficulties within a clinical context, the disparity of measurement instruments including functional scales (Richard Green et al., 2003), or the differences in the acquisition of imaging techniques during the acute stage and the definition of penumbra (Fisher et al., 2007; Weinstein et al., 2004).

There is evidence that, if untreated, the penumbra area bordering the ischemic lesion will soon become part of the infarct zone (core), increasing the volume of the initial lesion and worsening functional prognosis.

The rationale for the recommendation to treat stroke as an emergency is that early reperfusion is associated with functional improvement by preventing irreversible brain damage. Unfortunately, the therapeutic window between symptoms onset and useful reperfusion is short, and measures that permit the widening of the therapeutically window may allow to include an important number of patients that arrive too late to benefit from brain reperfusion therapies. Procedures aiming to slow down or interrupt the metabolic processes involved in the so-called "ischemic cascade" have potential of extending the time available to perform arterial reperfusion.

HYPOTHERMIA

Inducing a drop in body temperature may reduce deterioration following the acute ischemic lesion if induced early enough after the beginning of ischemic symptoms and if the duration is also appropriate. The use of moderate external hypothermia in the context of the acute stage of stroke is currently under research in Phase II clinical trials.

In animal models of acute ischemia, induced hypothermia has proved benefit, both in terms of reducing infarct size and improving functional outcome.

There are two different levels of decrease in body temperature that have therapeutic interest for translational studies: mild hypothermia (33°C – 35°C) and moderate hypothermia (30°C - 33°C). Mild hypothermia is safer and technically easier to perform (Buchan and Pulsinelli, 1990). In humans, it is possible to reach the desired temperature without the need of sedation or mechanical ventilation which is an advantage for translation into clinical context. Nonetheless, the neuroprotective effect is different for different temperatures and for different intervals between ischemia and hypothermia induction; it was noted that maximum efficacy occurs when cooling is moderate ($\leq 31^{\circ}\text{C}$) and exposition is long (12 to 48h) (Corbett et al., 2000).

However, even small reductions of basal body temperature of around 2°C or less seem to have a neuroprotective effect with histological and behavioural evidence (Busto et al., 1989).

The mechanisms by which hypothermia is neuroprotective are not entirely understood. With regard to mild hypothermia, neuroprotection was exclusively associated with the induced metabolic changes (the drop in temperature reduces metabolic needs). However, protective biological processes, such as detoxification and repair, would also be inhibited, which makes the final balance difficult to establish. Currently, there seems to be evidence that the pathophysiology of hypothermia includes also changes in cerebral blood flow, cell membrane stability, energetic and calcium metabolism, intracellular signalling, excitotoxicity mechanisms, acid-base balance, formation of free radicals, and in apoptotic mechanisms (Schaller and Graf, 2003). Therefore, hypothermia is considered a tissue protector due to the fact that it

boosts resistance to deleterious effects including interfering with glucose metabolism diverging it from the glycolysis pathway to the pentose phosphate pathway which is potentially a neuroprotective pathway and reducing the levels of tissular lactate and intracellular acidosis. It frees excitatory amino acids, the formation of free radicals, the mitochondrial release of cytochrome C and kinase C, the activation of microglia, and improves the behaviour of the hematoencephalic barrier by reducing its deterioration and rupture. Hypothermia induces also the inhibition of at least one cell death pathway, covering several lesion mechanisms and contributing to the preservation of both cell function and structure, thus improving tissue preservation (Minard and Grant, 1982).

NITRIC OXIDE, CARBON MONOXIDE AND HYDROGEN SULFIDE

Nitric Oxide (NO) and Carbon Monoxide (CO) are signalling gaseous molecules of the central nervous and cardiovascular system, which have proved cytoprotective benefits in the context of brain and heart ischemia (Elrod et al., 2006). Lately, particular attention has been paid to the potential biological significance of hydrogen sulphide (H₂S) (Abe and Kimura, 1996), first known for its environmental toxic properties (Beauchamp et al., 1984). These three gaseous labile biological mediators (NO, CO e H₂S) are able to cross cell membranes without the need of specific transporters, what facilitates their quick interference in the regulation of intracellular mechanisms.

H₂S is synthesized in mammals in several tissues through two main metabolic pathways of the L-Cysteine, that depend on pyridoxal-5'-phosphate enzymes: cystathionine beta-synthase (CBS) and cystathionine gamma-lyase (CSE). L-Cysteine can originate from food sources or be synthesized from L-Methionine through a transsulfuration pathway, homocysteine acting as the intermediary in the process.

The biological effects of exposure to H₂S seem to depend, in particular, on its capacity to inhibit mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation and hypothermia induction. Nonetheless, they are controversial and depend, among other factors, on the dosage and duration of the exposure. In micro molecular concentrations, hydrogen sulphide

appears to have a neuronal protective role in oxidative stress (Kimura and Kimura, 2004), with modulation of the intracellular caspase and kinase pathways, influencing the activity of the N-metil-d-aspartate (NMDA) receptors in physiological concentrations and modifying the induction of long term potentiation (LTP) (Nagai et al., 2004). It can also induces an upregulation of cytoprotective and anti-inflammatory genes, including Heme oxygenase-1 (HO₁), which promotes the production of CO, that has cytoprotective and anti-inflammatory behaviour.

H₂S is present in the central nervous system in relatively high concentration levels (50 to 160 microM), by comparison with other organs, which suggest it may have a localized physiological function (Abe and Kimura, 1996) .

OXIDATIVE PHOSPHORYLATION INHIBITORS AND HYBERNATION

During states of dormancy such as hibernation, mammals are able to survive with metabolism rates as low as 2% of their usual needs, without suffering irreversible brain lesions, despite very low CBF. During these periods, animals need to carry out adaptive transformations at brain level. These adaptations include not only mechanisms of metabolic suppression, but also of increased oxidative defence, in addition to lowering body temperature and immune functions (Drew et al., 2007). Knowledge on the regulation mechanisms and reversible adaptative induction in case of extreme hypometabolic conditions can contribute to a better understanding of some crucial aspects of ischemic lesion, namely how brain cells can sustain homeostasis despite very low CBF. .

Remarkably, it was exactly with H₂S that it was possible, in 2005, to induce a condition similar to hibernation in mammals that normally do not hibernate. This condition was called "*suspended animation-like state*" (Blackstone et al., 2005). After inhalation of an H₂S enriched atmosphere mixture, mice had a significant drop in body temperature and in metabolic rates (measured through O₂ consumption and CO₂ elimination). After 6 hours of exposure, rats returned to breathe normal atmosphere, with quick and spontaneous recovery of their normal metabolic rates and body temperature, without

changes in their health condition in the short or medium follow-up. Therefore, the potential role of H₂S, as a neuroprotective agent and hypometabolic inductor was enhanced. Mechanisms involved included H₂S tamponading effect in oxygen consumption, changes the intracellular redox environment, and prevention of further imbalance between energy sources and needs (Blackstone and Roth, 2007). The proposed mechanism, that may regulated the consumption of cell O₂ by H₂S, appears to be centred on inhibiting cytochrome C oxidase, which, at the level of the brain, reduces oxygen consumption and inhibits the recapture of the L-glutamate, an excitatory neurotransmitter.

Concerning the cytoprotective role of hypothermia, its potential benefit has been demonstrated in animal models of acute brain ischemia, not just for outcomes regarding infarct size, but also at functional recovery.

Regarding the cytoprotective role of H₂S, controversy persists, with some studies showing neurotoxic effects. These discrepancies in the action of H₂S have been observed within the same species (Qu et al., 2006), between distinct species (small mouse and piglets) (Li et al., 2008) and between distinct organs (brain ischemia and cardiac ischemia) (Hayashida et al., 2008). The explanation for these differences concerning the expression of hypometabolic effects may relate to dose and exposition time differences (Johansen et al., 2006), and body mass effect, especially for ischemic models using larger mammals.,

Severe hypothermia and hibernation are two extreme metabolic conditions where, despite the presence of much reduced metabolic rates, it is possible to recover without irreversible cerebral lesion.

The possibility of inducing hypometabolic states following acute cerebral ischemia by lowering body temperature as well as oxygen consumption and other metabolic needs, may help increase the window of therapeutic opportunity of thrombolysis, thus helping to make it accessible to an increased number of patients with ischemic CVA.

CONCLUSION

Severe hypothermia and hibernation are two extreme metabolic conditions where, despite the presence of severely reduced metabolic rates, it is possible to recover without irreversible cerebral lesion. The possibility of inducing hypometabolic states following acute cerebral ischemia by lowering body temperature as well as oxygen consumption may help increase the window of therapeutic opportunity of thrombolysis, thus contributing to making it accessible to a larger number of patients with ischemic stroke.

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***2. EXPOSURE TO HYDROGEN SULFIDE DIMINISHES
INFARCT SIZE AND ENHANCES RECOVERY:
EXPERIMENTAL DATA IN A pMCAO MODEL IN RODENTS***

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2. EXPOSURE TO HYDROGEN SULFIDE DIMINISHES INFARCT SIZE AND ENHANCES RECOVERY: EXPERIMENTAL DATA IN A pMCAO MODEL IN RODENTS

INTRODUCTION

There are exceptions in nature to the rule that lack of cerebral blood flow during a prolonged period of time inexorably leads to ischemia and irreversible brain damage. Two examples are cardiac arrest from extreme cold (Dobson and Burgess, 1996) and hibernation (Rouble et al., 2013) where, despite very low or no cerebral blood flow at all, survival is possible without permanent neurological damage (Schwartz et al., 2013; Storey and Storey, 2010). These examples show that severe brain damage may be prevented even in the absence of cerebral blood flow during long periods. This observation may contribute to new strategies in acute stroke therapy.

The induction of a “hibernation-like” state in mice using the inorganic gas hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) suggested its potential in the context of acute ischemia (Szabó, 2007), promoting a dramatic reduction in oxygen consumption to less than 15% of normal metabolic rates, without subsequent irreversible neurological deficits (Blackstone et al., 2005).

H_2S regulates oxygen consumption by competing with O_2 in binding to cytochrome C oxidase at the mitochondrial electron transport chain level, inhibiting the electron transport chain by binding stronger than O_2 to the Fe-Cu center in cytochrome C oxidase. H_2S is also involved in neuronal and glial communication (Mikami et al., 2011) and local vasotone regulation.

Despite of these potential beneficial effects, data about the benefit of H_2S in the context of acute ischemic stroke was modest and conflicting when we designed this study. First reports showed no functional benefit (Qu et al., 2006), whereas others demonstrated improvement in functional outcome and lesion size (Joseph et al., 2012). Data from experimental models in the context of acute ischemia in other organs like heart and kidney showed clear benefits of H_2S exposure (both with the gas itself or with liquid vials with H_2S donors) (Hosgood and Nicholson, 2010; Snijder et al., 2013).

We here hypothesized that inducing a reversible hypometabolic state after acute cerebral ischemia through exposure to H₂S could limit acute ischemic brain damage.

In the present section, we investigated the effects of short-term H₂S exposure after permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion (pMCAO) by analyzing the functional outcome and infarct size.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

All experiments were designed to minimize animal suffering in compliance with the ARRIVE criteria and our medical school's Ethical Committee for the Care and Use of Animals in Research (EU directives 86/609/CEE and 2003/65/CE). Regarding all procedures, researchers were blinded to group allocation after randomization. Male 8 - 12 weeks old Sprague-Dawley rats (250 to 320g) (Charles River©, Spain) were randomly assigned to three groups: sham (craniotomy, n=13), control (craniotomy + pMCAO, n=23) and treated (craniotomy + pMCAO + exposure to 40 ppm H₂S, n=28). Rats were anesthetized with the halogenated general inhalation anesthetic drug Sevoflurane {[fluoromethyl 2, 2, 2,-trifluoro-1-(trifluoromethyl) ethyl ether] [1, 1, 1, 3, 3, 3-hexafluoro-2-(fluoromethoxy) propane]}. Its median alveolar concentration (the concentration at which half of the subjects do not move in response to a skin incision) is 2.5 (+/-0.3) volumen %. We performed pMCAO after a small craniotomy above the rhinal fissure over the branch of the right middle cerebral artery (MCA), exposing MCA and permanently ligated with a 9-0 silk suture before its bifurcation, in order to enhance reproducibility. After MCAO, both common carotid arteries were temporarily occluded for 60 min with a lace of a 6-0 silk suture. Scar size and location were equal for all groups, animal cages had no information about group allocation, and codes were used in *post mortem* samples, in order to maintain blinded data collection and analysis. Body temperature and glycemia were measured throughout procedures. Rats were sacrificed at 24h and 14d after surgery.

Gas mixtures

Treated animals were exposed to H₂S, 3 hours after acute ischemia and breathed a mixture of atmosphere with hydrogen sulfide [Gasin medical bottles, 40 ppm H₂S in nitrogen (N₂: 99, 9%)] during 24 min inside a Plexiglas® chamber (9.5 x 20 x 10 cm = Volume 1,900 cm³). Pressure output of hydrogen sulfide was 1 bar/30s. Control and sham animals breathed normal atmosphere in the same temperature and humidity conditions.

When this study was designed, no data was available regarding time and dosage of H₂S exposure and its efficacy in pMCAO. Thus, we established an effective dose by exposing healthy rats to progressive doses of H₂S. Our variables were H₂S concentration (40 and 80 ppm), time of exposure (from 1 to 90 min), and output pressure (1 or 2 bar). We used rectal temperature before and after exposure as an indirect measure of change into lower metabolism. Finally, we established an exposure time of 24 minutes under a concentration of 40ppm with an output pressure of 1 bar/30s as standard dosage.

Ischemic lesion size

Lesion size was evaluated *in vivo* at 24h and 14d with T2-weighted sequence MRI and *post mortem* by hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) stains, as previously described (Gutiérrez-Fernández et al., 2011).

Magnetic Resonance Imaging

The extension of ischemic lesions was analyzed *in vivo* at 24h (group sacrificed at 24h) and twice, at 24h and 14d (group sacrificed at 14d), using T2-weighted images. The observer was blinded to allocation of animals in all cases. After contrast adjustment, the contours of the hemispheres were traced manually on each slice. Data analysis was performed using Image J software from NIH Image, slice-by-slice contouring at lesion

site and in the contralateral hemisphere in the same location. Only lesions larger than 2mm x 2mm x 2mm were analyzed to minimize partial volume effects. We used a region of interest (ROI) to measure infarct size. To correct for brain edema effect, lesion size was determined by an indirect method: (infarct area) = (area of the intact contralateral hemisphere) – (area of the intact ipsilateral hemisphere). Lesion size was expressed as percentage of total size of the ipsilateral hemisphere. Exclusion criteria were no measurable lesion on MRI except for the sham group. These animals were sacrificed and excluded from the sample (n=3). We therefore used T₂ MRI at 24h as confirmation tool for successful ischemic lesion induction.

MRI images were acquired on a 7 Tesla/16 cm Bruker Avance III system (Bruker Medical GmbH, Ettlingen, Germany) at the MR Imaging Facility (SIERMAC, <http://www.siermac.es>) from the Institute for Biomedical Research “Alberto Sols” CSIC/UAM, Madrid, Spain. The magnet was equipped with a ¹H selective birdcage resonator for rat head (38mm) and a gradient coil insert (90 mm, maximum intensity 36 G/cm). Anesthesia was induced in a plexiglass chamber with 2%-3% isoflurane mixed with oxygen and maintained during the experiment through a nose mask. The physiological state of the rats was monitored during MRI acquisitions with a Biotrig physiological monitor (Bruker) depicting on-line the respiratory rate.

Axial T₂-weighted spin echo images were obtained using a rapid acquisition with relaxation enhancement (RARE) sequence in axial and coronal orientations using the following parameters: Number of echo images 2 (TE: 29.54ms and 88.61ms), TR = 3000 ms, RARE factor = 4, Av = 3, FOV = 3.5 cm, acquisition matrix = 256 × 256 corresponding to an in-plane resolution of 136 × 136 μm², slice thickness = 1.00 mm without gap.

Diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance images (DWI) were obtained in three orthogonal orientations as defined by the read, phase and slice encoding gradients using a multishot spin-echo echo planar imaging (EPI) sequence. Acquisition conditions were; diffusion gradient duration 2 spin-echo echo planar imaging (EPI) sequence. TR: 3000ms; TE: 50ms, FOV: 3.8cm; axial slices (1.5mm thickness) and three b values: 100,

400 and 1000 s/mm²; acquisition matrix = 128 × 128 corresponding to an in-plane resolution of 296 × 296 μm².

Dynamic susceptibility contrast – Magnetic Resonance Imaging (DSC MRI) was performed using a bolus injection of paramagnetic contrast agent (Gd-DTPA; Magnevist, Bayer Schering Pharma AG, Leverkusen, Germany; 0.3mmol/Kg i.v.). Dynamic changes in signal intensity were used to calculate CBF (cerebral blood flow), CBV (cerebral blood volume, the fraction of tissue volume occupied by blood) and MTT (mean transit time: $MTT=CBF/CBV$, the time it takes for blood to pass through the vasculature within the tissue of interest). Dynamic T2* Weighted images were acquired using a spin-echo single shot echo planar imaging (EPI) sequence with the following scan parameters: TR/TE of 250/7ms; Flip angle: 30°; Number of repetitions: 150; slice thickness and interslice gap: 1.5mm and 0.1mm; number of slices: 6; FOV: 3.8cm and matrix size: 86x8. After an initial baseline period of 10s, a rapid bolus injection of Gd-DTPA was administered intravenously in the tail vein.

ADC, CBF, CBV and MTT pixel by pixel maps were generated with a homemade software application (MatLab[®], 2007a). ADC value was computed for each voxel using the exponential model according to the expression: $S_b = S_0 e^{-b*ADC}$, where S_b is signal intensity with the different b weightings and S_0 the signal intensity for b=0. Perfusion parameters were calculated based on the premise that ΔR^* is proportional to the contrast agent concentration according to the curve equation: $\Delta R^* = -K \cdot \ln [S(t) / S_0]$, where $S(t)$ is the signal intensity at time t, S_0 baseline signal intensity and, K a constant. The transit curve was then fitted to a gamma variant function.

The mean and standard deviation of ADC of the central and peripheral lesion area were determined, and the same measurement performed in the same anatomic location as the lesion but in the normal contralateral hemisphere. These three regions of interests (ROIs) are easy to identify on color coded ADC maps and drawn manually over the maps. The ROIs were applied on all affected ADC slices from each rat with a maximum number of five slices. The mean ADC values of central and peripheral lesion areas were divided by the value in the contralateral normal hemisphere and expressed as a relative ADC (rADC).

Perfusion weighted MR imaging was performed using bolus tracking and resulting data used to generate CBF, CBV and MTT maps. In these maps, only two ROIs were investigated: ischemic lesion and contralateral normal hemisphere, because of the smaller matrix size (86*86) than in ADC maps, hindering the selection of central and peripheral lesion areas. The mean CBF values of the ischemic region were divided by the value of the contralateral normal hemisphere used as reference region and expressed as relative CBF (rCBF).

Functional evaluation scales

Functional evaluation was performed using Rotarod and Rogers tests by a blinded observer at baseline, 24h and at 14d after surgery. The latency to fall from a rotator cylinder (accelerating at 4-40 rpm) was measured and recorded. Motor function by Rogers test was scored: 0, no deficit; 1, failure to extend contralateral forepaw fully; 2, decreased grip of the contralateral forelimb while tail gently pulled; 3, spontaneous movement in all directions, contralateral circling only if pulled by the tail; 4, circling or walking to the right; 5, walks only when stimulated; 6, unresponsive to stimulation; and 7, dead (Gutiérrez-Fernández et al., 2011).

Statistical analysis

Quantitative data is shown as mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM) and presented as box and whiskers plots. As data followed a non-normal distribution, the Mann–Whitney test was used to compare two samples and the Kruskal–Wallis test to compare more than two samples in the same group or more than two groups (SPSS 16 for Windows®). Values of $p < 0.05$ were considered significant at a 95% confidence level.

RESULTS

Functional outcome after exposure to hydrogen sulfide

We measured functional outcome before procedure, at 24h and 14d. At baseline, Rogers Modified Scale was zero for all animals and the latency to fall in the Rotarod test was >120 seconds. The sham-operated group showed no functional deficit. A better functional outcome was observed at 24h in animals exposed to H₂S compared to control group regarding Rogers Modified Scale (1.73 ± 0.23 , vs. 3.29 ± 0.18 , $p=0.001$) and Rotarod test (65 ± 5.97 , vs. 37 ± 7.14 , $p=0.03$). At 14d, the functional benefit observed in treated animals was sustained in both tests: Rogers Modified Scale (1.18 ± 0.17 vs. 1.82 ± 0.20 , $p=0.03$), and Rotarod (55.25 ± 5.17 vs. 31.5 ± 7.79 , $p=0.04$) (Figure 2.1A).

Infarct size after exposure to hydrogen sulfide

At 24 hours after pMCAO, lesion size measured by T₂-weighted MRI did not differ significantly between treated and control groups (9.69 ± 1.67 vs. 15.45 ± 1.06 , $p=0.054$). However, H&E stains showed a reduced infarct size in the treated group (6.69 ± 1.38 vs. 23.20 ± 3.05 , $p=0.008$). At day 14, both T₂-weighted MRI and H&E showed smaller infarct size in treated compared to control rats (6.13 ± 0.62 vs. 11.56 ± 0.4 , $p=0.0004$, and 4.94 ± 0.92 vs. 11.63 ± 1.99 , $p=0.002$). Sham operated rats showed no cerebral lesion and the maximum lesion size was observed in the control group (Figure 2.1B).

MRI heterogeneities in ischemic territory after exposure to hydrogen sulfide

In treated rats, we observed heterogeneities inside the ischemic lesions on MRI ADC maps at 24h (Figure 2.2, upper right image and graph). These heterogeneities were observed inside the ischemic area, including central and peripheral areas, presenting central areas with a higher diffusion coefficient than peripheral ones. In animals treated with H₂S, the relative ADC (rADC) coefficients were similar in central and

peripheral areas (Figure 2.2, lower left images and graph). Finally, using perfusion MRI, the differential CBF (Δ CBF) between the lesion side and contralateral hemisphere was lower in treated rats (Figure 2.2, lower right image and graph).

Physiological parameters

Glycemia was assessed immediately after starting the procedure and during surgery and was similar in all groups. Body temperature was significantly lower after induction of anesthesia in all groups ($p < 0.05$). After an exposure time to H₂S of 24 minutes, body temperature decreased by 1.85 °C (mean) but quickly recovered after animals started to inhale normal atmosphere; no difference in body temperature was observed at 2 hours after exposure (Figure 2.3).

DISCUSSION

We report on the role of short-term exposure to H₂S in acute ischemic brain damage. Our results show that exposure to hydrogen sulfide after pMCAO improves functional outcome and decreases infarct size. DWI MRI ADC maps revealed intralesional heterogeneity compared to controls and PWI MRI showed higher intralesional cerebral blood flow. Significant benefit is likely to occur before major tissue damage develops.

H₂S exposure improved functional outcome after pMCAO

A main goal of acute stroke treatment is the improvement of functional outcome. In the present study, a better functional outcome in animals exposed to H₂S was observed at 24h and 14 days. A similar benefit in functional outcome has been reported in studies that used H₂S in the context of ischemia reperfusion (Lin et al., 2012), in global brain ischemia (Yin et al., 2013), and in cardiac and kidney ischemia (Shibuya et al., 2013; Szabó et al., 2011). In our model, functional benefit from H₂S

exposure was not limited to short term, but sustained until day 14. This observation is supported by our *in vivo* imaging data that showed improved brain tissue preservation and smaller lesion size.

H₂S exposure decreased lesion size after pMCAO

Concerning infarct size, a previous publication using a H₂S donor (NaHS) in an ischemic electrocauterization model did not show reduction in lesion size (Qu et al., 2006). However, others reported smaller infarcts using longer H₂S exposure times, higher doses (Joseph et al., 2012) or reversible MCAO models (Lin et al., 2012). Our data showed that lower dose and shorter exposure (40 ppm, during 24 min) were able to decrease infarct size after pMCAO.

Despite of finding smaller infarcts at day 14, differences between infarct sizes assessed by T2-weighted MRI at 24h were not significant, possibly due to acute post ischemic brain edema that increases brain volume. However, H&E staining at 24h showed significant reduction in lesion size in treated rats. This discrepancy may be related to the process of H&E staining that includes tissue exsiccation steps. Interestingly, MRI ADC maps at 24h in treated rats revealed heterogeneity, with spotty areas inside ischemic lesion with higher ADC coefficients, both in central and peripheral areas that may reflect partial brain tissue preservation within the ischemic area. This may contribute to better understand the discrepancy between *in vivo* lesion size and better functional outcome at 24h. Nevertheless, infarct size as single outcome measure seems to be insufficient to serve as evidence for protection, and demonstration of ischemic size should not be interpreted independently from other endpoints (Balkaya et al., 2013).

H₂S exposure induces heterogeneities within the ischemic lesion in brain MRI

Previous studies from our group showed that gene expression exists inside the ischemic lesion, including CNS development and trophic factors within the lesion core, until at least 24h after pMCAO, suggesting the presence of surviving areas within the ischemic core (Ramos-Cejudo et al., 2012). At 24h, ADC maps showed heterogeneities in the central part of the ischemic lesion, revealing different rates of water diffusion and underlying brain tissue integrity. These heterogeneities may represent previously described "mini-cores and mini-penumbras" (del Zoppo et al., 2011). Finally, when we compared CBF in both hemispheres in treated and control groups, less difference between CBF in affected and non-affected hemispheres was observed in treated rats. This suggests that better perfusion may be achieved by mechanisms that include microvasoregulation, a known property of H₂S (Zhao et al., 2001). In our study, heterogeneity in ADC maps corresponded to better functional outcome as well as smaller lesions and better ischemic tissue preservation in treated rats. Consequently, in a translational context where acute imaging is crucial for acute therapeutic decisions, prognostic relevance of ADC heterogeneities may be assumed and merits further research.

H₂S exposure during 24 min is effective with minor interference with body temperature

Hypothermia, when not induced from external sources, is a result of hypometabolism and not the cause of metabolic changes. H₂S modulation in the context of acute stroke has been associated with induction of hypothermia, especially in protocols that included prolonged exposure times (Joseph et al., 2012). In our study, after an exposure time of 24 minutes, a mean decrease of 1.85°C in body temperature was observed. Body temperature fully recovered in less than 120 min (Figure 2.3). Consequently, hypothermia appears to be a side effect of hypometabolism induced by H₂S and other mechanisms must be involved since the effects of H₂S administration were observed until day 14. In the present study, a shorter exposure time than

previously reported was effective and the reduced effect on body temperature represents an important finding in a translational context since minor changes in body temperature will not require patient management in intensive care units.

Study limitations

We designed this study to fulfill the most recent recommendations for research in translational stroke. Animals were randomized and all procedures except surgery were performed in a blinded manner to avoid observational bias regarding functional outcome, MRI image evaluation, and in-bench procedures, by using codes not known to observers. Detailed data is shown to facilitate reproducibility.

Unfortunately, dosage of H₂S in the present study was the same in all animals and different dosages might produce distinct effects on outcome. Due to a limited budget and the preliminary nature of our study, we were not able to include female or older animals or animals with co-morbidities in this study. In the setting of an experimental study using rodents, clinical outcome was only assessed by evaluation of motor skills. However, we used MRI at 24h as a confirmation tool of successful pMCAO. As such, no bias in results can be attributable to surgical failure. The long-term results of H₂S exposure were not investigated, as study design included comparison of *in vivo* and *post mortem* data in the acute setting at 24h and after 14d only.

CONCLUSIONS

In our pMCAO model of ischemic stroke, early exposure to hydrogen sulfide after focal brain ischemia improved functional outcome and decreased infarct size. Regarding brain imaging, perfusion MRI in rats exposed to H₂S revealed improved cerebral blood flow, while diffusion MRI showed spots of heterogeneity inside ischemic lesions in ADC maps, including central regions. Heterogeneity in ADC maps corresponded to better functional outcome as well as smaller lesions and better ischemic tissue preservation

in treated rats. Consequently, in a translational context where acute imaging is crucial for acute therapeutic decisions, prognostic relevance of ADC heterogeneities may be assumed and merits further research (please refer to *Section 4*).

FIGURES

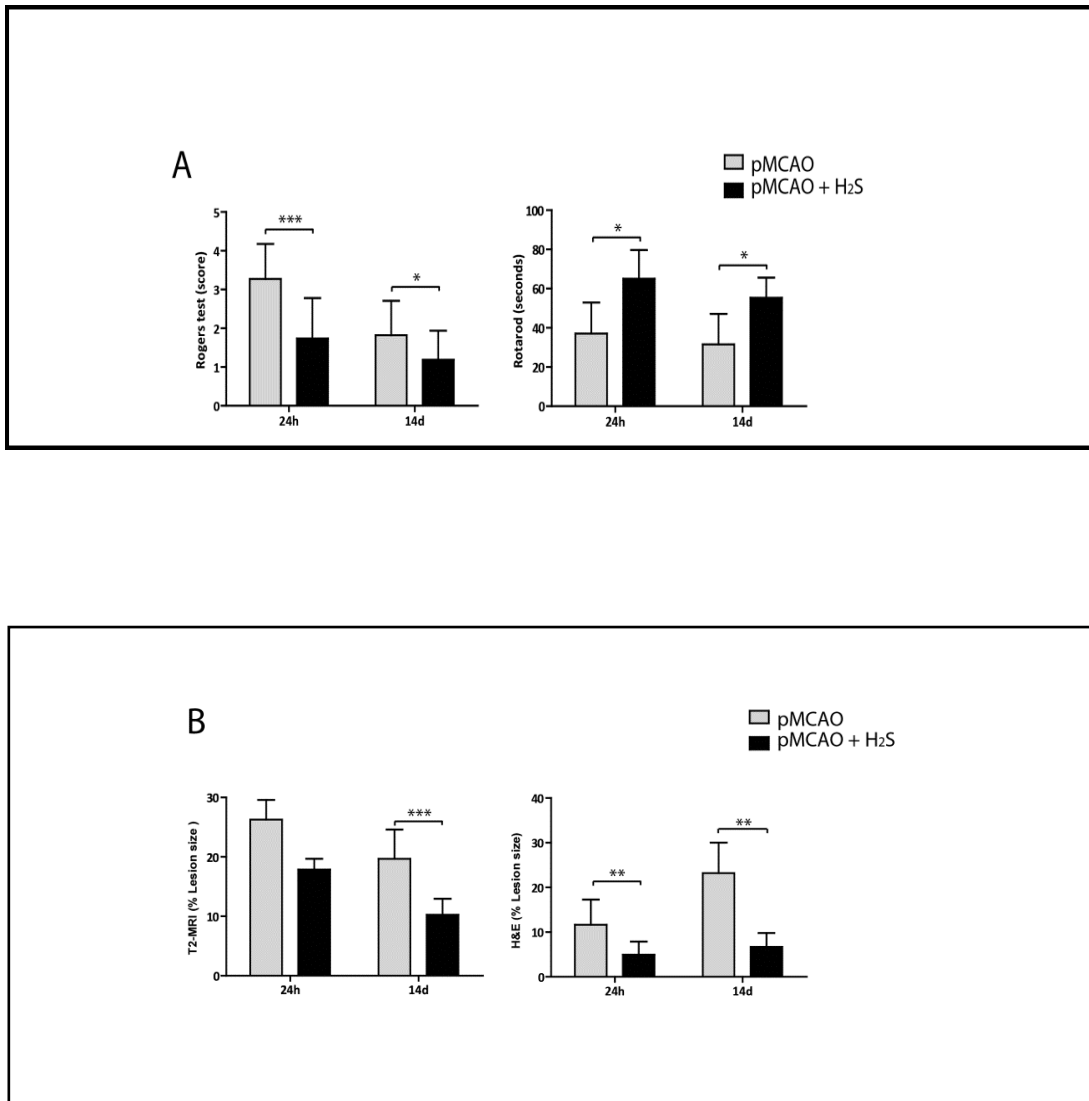


Figure 2.1. RATS EXPOSED TO H₂S SHOW BETTER FUNCTIONAL OUTCOME AND SMALLER LESION SIZE. **A.** Rats exposed to H₂S (black bars) had significantly lower score in Rogers scale (left graph)) at 24h (***P*<0.001) and at 14d (**P*<0.05) and more latency to fall from Rotarod (right graph) at 24h (**P*<0.05) and at 14d (**P*<0.05). **B.** At 14d rats exposed to H₂S (black bars) had significantly smaller ischemic lesion size, both in MRI (T2 weighted sequence) (left graph) (***P*<0.001) and H&E stain (right graph) (***P*<0.01). At 24h, MRI showed a lower but non-significant difference in lesion size (left graph), whereas H&E showed a significantly smaller ischemic lesion after H₂S exposure (***P*<0.01)(right graph).

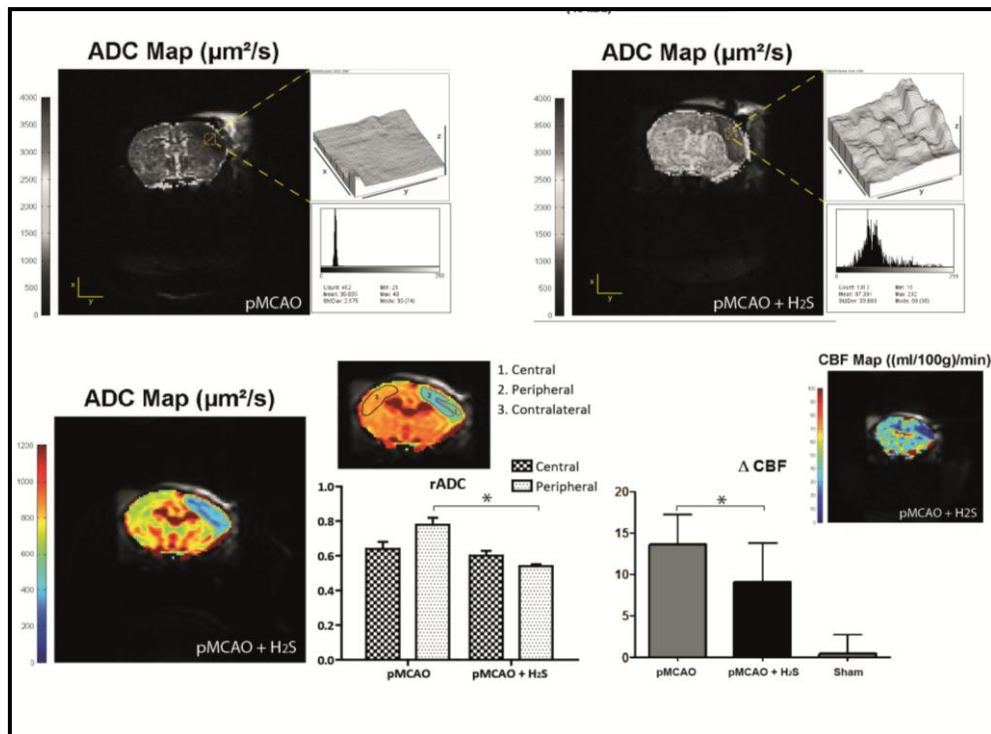


Figure 2.2. RATS EXPOSED TO H₂S SHOW BETTER INTRALESIONAL CBF AT 24H. Upper and lower left: Diffusion-weighted imaging MRI (ADC maps). Rats exposed to H₂S showed heterogeneities in ADC maps (upper right) whereas control rats showed homogeneous ischemic lesions (upper left). ADC maps in rats exposed to H₂S showed islands of ADC diffusion coefficient in central lesion area, similar to ADC observed in peripheral areas (lower left big image). For quantification, three manually designed Region of Interest (ROIs) were considered on ADC maps: ROI 1, ischemic central lesion area; ROI 2, peripheral lesion area; ROI 3, contralateral hemisphere (lower left small image). Animals exposed to H₂S showed similar differential ADC coefficients (rADC) in central and peripheral lesion areas. In controls, rADC was lower in central lesion area (lower left graph). **Lower right:** Perfusion-weighted imaging MRI (CBF). CBF showed improved intralesional perfusion in rats exposed to H₂S (lower right image), being the difference between intralesional and contralateral hemisphere CBF (Δ CBF) significantly smaller in comparison to controls ($*P < 0.05$) (lower right graph).

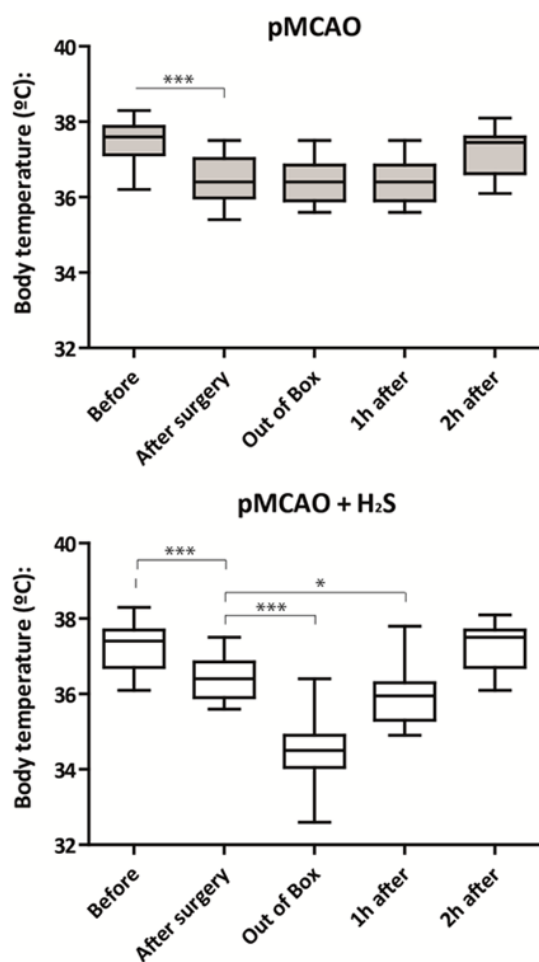


Figure 2.3. BODY TEMPERATURE DURING EXPERIMENTS IN RATS EXPOSED TO H₂S (LOWER GRAPH) AND CONTROLS (UPPER GRAPH). No difference in body temperature 2h after exposure to hydrogen sulfide was observed. AXIS LEGEND: **Before**: rectal temperature in awake rats before starting surgery; **After surgery**: rectal temperature after surgery, before entering the box with atmosphere enriched with 40 ppm H₂S (please see Methods for exposure to H₂S conditions). **Out of Box**: Rectal temperature after getting out of the box, 24 minutes later. **1h after** and **2h after**: rectal temperature one and two hours after exposure to H₂S. All rats showed significant

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***3. HYDROGEN SULPHIDE PROTECTION AFTER ACUTE
ISCHEMIC STROKE INCLUDES REACTIVE OXYGEN SPECIES
MODULATION WITH DECREASED EXPRESSION OF NOX-4***

Part of this chapter will be published in the following article

Isabel Henriques,, María Gutiérrez-Fernández, Berta Rodríguez-Frutos, Jaime Ramos-Cejudo, Laura Otero-Ortega, Teresa Navarro Hernanz, Sebastián Cerdán, José Ferro, Exuperio Díez-Tejedor. Short-term hydrogen sulfide exposure after stroke is protective to the brain by lowering oxidative stress. *(under review)*

and was presented as an oral communication at the 22nd European Stroke Conference, 2013

Henriques I, Gutiérrez-Fernández M, Rodríguez-Frutos B, Ramos J, Ferro J, Díez-Tejedor E. Hydrogen sulphide reduces infarct size and enhances recovery in a rat model: protection mechanism includes NOX-4 downregulation. *Cerebrovasc Dis* 2013; 33 (suppl 3): 79

3. HYDROGEN SULPHIDE PROTECTION AFTER ACUTE ISCHEMIC STROKE INCLUDES REACTIVE OXYGEN SPECIES (ROS) MODULATION WITH DECREASED EXPRESSION OF NOX-4

INTRODUCTION

H₂S is endogenously produced in different organs including the brain (Mani et al., 2013) and regulates oxygen consumption by competing with O₂ in binding to cytochrome C oxidase at the mitochondrial electron transport chain (Szabó, 2007). H₂S is also involved in neuronal and glial communication (Mikami et al., 2011) and in local vasotone regulation (Leffler et al., 2011). Being a gas, it can diffuse and cross membranes, allowing quick interaction with intracellular mechanisms. Its role as an oxygen sensor further enhances its potential as a pharmacological tool in ischemic stroke (Olson et al., 2013). Yet, data about the potential benefit of H₂S in the context of acute ischemic stroke is scarce and conflicting.

We hypothesized that inducing a reversible hypometabolic state after acute cerebral ischemia through exposure of H₂S after pMCAO, could limit acute ischemic brain damage. We showed that short-term exposure to H₂S after pMCAO improves functional outcome and decreases infarct size. Interestingly, DWI MRI ADC maps revealed a different intralesional pattern compared to controls and PWI MRI showed higher intralesional cerebral blood flow. To better understand if, and when, H₂S can be protective in the context of acute ischemic stroke, it is needed to dissect the mechanisms by which H₂S modulates brain ischemia.

In the current study, we investigated the effects of short-term H₂S exposure after permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion (pMCAO) by analyzing markers of cytoprotection and repair. We completed the study with *in vivo* brain imaging (MRI) and compared it to *post-mortem* immunohistochemical analysis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

All experiments were designed to minimize animal suffering in compliance with the ARRIVE criteria and our medical school's Ethical Committee for the Care and Use of Animals in Research (EU directives 86/609/CEE and 2003/65/CE). Regarding all procedures, researchers were blinded to group allocation after randomization. Male 8 - 12 weeks old Sprague-Dawley rats (250 to 320g) (Charles River[®], Spain) were randomly assigned to three groups: sham (craniotomy, n=13), control (craniotomy + pMCAO, n=23) and treated (craniotomy + pMCAO + exposure to 40 ppm H₂S, n=28). Rats were anesthetized with the halogenated general inhalation anesthetic drug Sevoflurane {[fluoromethyl 2, 2, 2,-trifluoro-1-(trifluoromethyl) ethyl ether] [1, 1, 1, 3, 3, 3-hexafluoro-2-(fluoromethoxy) propane]}. Its median alveolar concentration (the concentration at which half of the subjects do not move in response to a skin incision) is 2.5 (+/-0.3) volumen %. We performed pMCAO after a small craniotomy above the rhinal fissure over the branch of the right middle cerebral artery (MCA), exposing MCA and permanently ligated with a 9-0 silk suture before its bifurcation, in order to enhance reproducibility. After MCAO, both common carotid arteries are temporarily occluded for 60 min with a lace of a 6-0 silk suture. Scar size and location were equal for all groups, animal cages had no information about group allocation, and codes were used in *post mortem* samples, in order to maintain blinded data collection and analysis. Body temperature and glycemia were measured throughout procedures. Rats were sacrificed at 24h and 14d after surgery.

Gas mixtures

Treated animals were exposed to H₂S 3 hours after acute ischemia and breathed a mixture of atmosphere with hydrogen sulfide [Gasin medical bottles, 40 ppm H₂S in nitrogen (N₂: 99, 9%)] during 24 min inside a closed box (9.5 x 20 x 10 cm = Volume 1,900 cm³). Pressure output of hydrogen sulfide was 1 bar/30s. Control and sham animals breathed normal atmosphere in the same temperature and humidity conditions. When this study was designed, no data was available regarding time and

dosage of H₂S exposure and its efficacy in pMCAO. Thus, we established an effective dose by exposing healthy rats to progressive doses of H₂S. Our variables were H₂S concentration (40 and 80 ppm), time of exposure (from 1 to 90 min), and output pressure (1 to 2 bar). We used rectal temperature before and after exposure as an indirect measure of change into hypometabolism and established an exposure time of 24 minutes under a concentration of 40ppm with an output pressure of 1 bar/30s as standard dosage.

Ischemic lesion size

Lesion size was evaluated *in vivo* at 24h and 14d *using* T2-weighted sequence MRI and *post mortem* by hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) stains, as previously described (Gutiérrez-Fernández et al., 2011).

Magnetic Resonance Imaging

The extension of ischemic lesions was analyzed non-invasively after 24h (group sacrificed at 24h) and twice, after 24h and 14d (group sacrificed at 14d), using T2-weighted images. The observer was blinded to allocation of animals in all cases. After contrast adjustment, the contours of the hemispheres were traced manually on each slice. Data analysis was performed using Image J software from NIH Image, slice-by-slice contouring at lesion site and in the contralateral hemisphere in the same location. Only lesions larger than 2mm x 2mm x 2mm were analyzed to minimize partial volume effects. We used JPG[®] region of interest (ROI) to measure infarct size. To correct for brain edema effect, lesion size was determined by an indirect method: (infarct area) = (area of the intact contralateral hemisphere) – (area of the intact ipsilateral hemisphere). Lesion size was expressed as percentage of total size of the ipsilateral hemisphere. Exclusion criteria were no measurable lesion on MRI except for the sham group, and animals were sacrificed and excluded from the sample (n=3). We therefore

used T2-weighted MRI at 24h as confirmation tool for successful ischemic lesion induction.

MRI images were acquired on a 7 Tesla/16 cm Bruker Avance III system (Bruker Medical GmbH, Ettlingen, Germany) at the MR Imaging Facility (SIERMAC, <http://www.siermac.es>) from the Institute for Biomedical Research "Alberto Sols" CSIC/UAM, Madrid, Spain. The magnet was equipped with a ^1H selective birdcage resonator for rat head (38mm) and a gradient coil insert (90 mm, maximum intensity 36 G/cm). Anesthesia was induced in a plexiglass chamber with 2%-3% isoflurane mixed with oxygen and maintained during the experiment through a nose mask. The physiological state of the rats was monitored during MRI acquisitions with a Biotrig physiological monitor (Bruker) depicting on-line the respiratory rate.

Axial T2-weighted spin echo images were obtained using a rapid acquisition with relaxation enhancement (RARE) sequence in axial and coronal orientations using the following parameters: Number of echo images 2 (TE: 29.54ms and 88.61ms), TR = 3000 ms, RARE factor = 4, Av = 3, FOV = 3.5 cm, acquisition matrix = 256 × 256 corresponding to an in-plane resolution of 136 × 136 μm^2 , slice thickness = 1.00 mm without gap.

Diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance images (DWI) were obtained in three orthogonal orientations as defined by the read, phase and slice encoding gradients using a multishot spin-echo echo planar imaging (EPI) sequence. Acquisition conditions were; diffusion gradient duration Δ : 3ms; diffusion gradient separation Δ : 18ms; TR: 3000ms; TE: 50ms, FOV: 3.8cm; axial slices (1.5mm thickness) and 3 b values: 100, 400 and 1000 s/mm^2 ; acquisition matrix = 128 × 128 corresponding to an in-plane resolution of 296 × 296 μm^2 .

Dynamic susceptibility contrast – Magnetic Resonance Imaging (DSC MRI) was performed using a bolus injection of paramagnetic contrast agent (Gd-DTPA; Magnevist, Bayer Schering Pharma AG, Leverkusen, Germany; 0.3mmol/Kg i.v.). Dynamic changes in signal intensity were used to calculate CBF (cerebral blood flow), CBV (cerebral blood volume, the fraction of tissue volume occupied by blood) and MTT

(mean transit time: $MTT = CBF/CBV$, the time it takes for blood to pass through the vasculature within the tissue of interest). Dynamic T2-weighted images were acquired using a spin-echo single shot echo planar imaging (EPI) sequence with the following scan parameters: TR/TE of 250/7ms; Flip angle: 30°; Number of repetitions: 150; slice thickness and interslice gap: 1.5mm and 0.1mm; number of slices: 6; FOV: 3.8cm and matrix size: 86x8. After an initial baseline period of 10s, a rapid bolus injection of Gd-DTPA was administered intravenously in the tail vein.

ADC, CBF, CBV and MTT pixel by pixel maps were generated with a homemade software application (MatLab®, 2007a). ADC value was computed for each voxel using the exponential model according to the expression: $S_b = S_0 e^{-b \cdot ADC}$, where S_b is signal intensity with the different b weightings and S_0 the signal intensity for $b=0$. Perfusion parameters were calculated based on the premise that ΔR^* is proportional to the contrast agent concentration according to the curve equation: $\Delta R^* = -K \cdot \ln [S(t) / S_0(t)]$, where $S(t)$ is the signal intensity at time t, S_0 baseline signal intensity and, K a constant. The transit curve was then fitted to a gamma variant function.

The mean and standard deviation of ADC of the central and peripheral lesion area were determined, and the same measurement performed in the same anatomic location as the lesion but in the normal contralateral hemisphere. These three regions of interests (ROIs) are easy to identify on color coded ADC maps and drawn manually over the maps. The ROIs were applied on all affected ADC slices from each rat with a maximum number of five slices. The mean ADC values of central and peripheral lesion areas were divided by the value of the contralateral normal hemisphere and expressed as a relative ADC (rADC).

Perfusion-weighted MR imaging was performed using bolus tracking and resulting data used to generate CBF, CBV and MTT maps. In these maps only two ROIs were investigated: ischemic lesion and contralateral normal hemisphere, because of the smaller matrix size (86*86) than in ADC maps, hindering the selection of central and peripheral lesion areas. The mean CBF values of the ischemic region were divided by the value of the contralateral normal hemisphere used as reference region and expressed as relative CBF (rCBF).

Cell death

Cell death was assessed by TUNEL staining (biotin-dUTP nick end-labeling mediated by terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase; TdT-FragEL DNA Fragmentation Detection Kit, Oncogene Research Products) following manufacturer's instructions. The number of positive cells was counted using a 40× objective and image analysis software (Image-Pro Plus 4.1[®], Media Cybernetics) in the ischemic lesion. Blind access to group code was done in all microscopic observations and all samples were independently counted by at least two of the authors.

Immunohistochemistry, immunofluorescence and western blot

We used markers for NADPH oxidase 4 (NOX-4), neuronal nuclei (NeuN), astrocytes [glial fibrillary acid protein (GFAP)], vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), synaptophysin, superoxide dismutase 2 (SOD-2) and heat shock protein 27 (HSP-27). B-actine loading (1:400, Sigma-Aldrich) was used as control.

NOX-4

Pro-oxidant enzyme, NADPH oxidase 4 (NOX-4) primary polyclonal antibody anti-Nox-4 (1:1000, Abnova) was incubated for 1 hour at room temperature.

Immunofluorescence

Serial coronal sections were cut at 10µm in a cryostat (Leica CM1950) and studied by immunofluorescence neuronal markers. Markers for neuronal nuclei (NeuN) (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:100, Millipore), astrocytes [glial fibrillary acid protein (GFAP) (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:400, Chemicon)], vascular growth [vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) marker (polyclonal antibody diluted 1:500, Millipore)], synaptogenesis [synaptophysin (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:200, Sigma

- Aldrich)], Superoxide dismutase 2 (SOD-2) (polyclonal antibody diluted 1:150, Abcam®), and Heat shock protein 27 (HSP-27) (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:200, Abcam®), followed by goat anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 488 and anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 594 (1: 750, Molecular Probes, Invitrogen) were used.

Sections were mounted with a H-1200 VectaShield® mounting medium for fluorescence with DAPI (ATOM). Samples were examined using a spectral confocal microscope Leica TCS SPE (Leica Microsystems®, Heidelberg, Germany) and the confocal images were analyzed using Leica software LAS AF, version 2.0.1, build 2043. The images were acquired at maximum confocal projection.

Western Blot

Animals (n=4 per group) were decapitated and the proteins of the peri-infarct tissue and their concentrations were determined using a BCA protein assay kit (Pierce). Western-Blot for β -actin (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:400, Sigma Aldrich), NADPH oxidase 4 (NOX-4)(polyclonal antibody 1:2000, Abnova), SOD-2 (polyclonal antibody diluted 1:5000, Abcam), HSP27 (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:1000, Abcam), GFAP (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:500, Chemicon), VEGF (polyclonal antibody diluted 1:500, Millipore) and synaptophysin (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:400, Sigma) were measured in all groups. To reduce differences between animals, at least three Western blots were performed for each animal. In addition, at least three repeated samples were always included in every set of experimental samples as internal standards.

Statistical analysis

Quantitative data are shown as mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM) and presented as box and whiskers plots. As data followed a non-normal distribution, the Mann–Whitney test was used to compare two samples and the Kruskal–Wallis test to

compare more than two samples of the same group or more than 2 groups (SPSS 16 for Windows®). Values of $p < 0.05$ were considered significant at a 95% confidence level.

RESULTS

Cell death after exposure to hydrogen sulfide

Treated rats showed significantly less TUNEL positive cells, both at 24h (367.5 ± 78.03 vs. 901.25 ± 217.45 $p=0.047$) and 14d (42.7 ± 7.76 vs. 53.71 ± 6.75 $p=0.04$) (Figure 3.1A, Figure 3.2A) in comparison to controls. No sham operated rats showed TUNEL positive cells.

Exposure to hydrogen sulfide does not increase brain repair but enhances markers associated with brain protection

At day 14, the group treated with H_2S showed no increase in expression of VEGF (0.75 ± 0.22 vs. 0.79 ± 0.18 $p=0.88$) or synaptophysin (1.40 ± 0.39 vs. 1.29 ± 0.30 $p=0.50$) compared to control group (Figure 3.2B). GFAP showed significantly lower levels at day 14 in treated animals compared to control (0.36 ± 0.16 vs. 0.77 ± 0.43 , $p=0.027$) (Figure 3.2B and C). The levels of SOD2 at day 14 were lower than in the control group (0.66 ± 0.06 vs. 1.07 ± 0.14 , $p=0.05$) (Figure 3.2C), but not at 24h (0.788 ± 0.13 vs. 0.90 ± 0.3 $p=0.11$) (Figure 3.1B). The levels of NOX-4 were lower in treated rats compared to the control group at 24h (0.50 ± 0.12 vs. 1.11 ± 0.28 $p=0.03$) (Figure 3.1A) and day 14 (0.47 ± 0.21 vs. 1.40 ± 0.46 $p=0.049$) (Figure 3.2A). HSP-27 levels were lower at 24h in treated rats compared to control animals (0.41 ± 0.12 vs. 0.81 ± 0.11 $p=0.49$) but not at day 14 (0.84 ± 0.51 vs. 1.056 ± 0.55 $p=0.24$) (Figure 3.1B and Figure 3.2B).

Physiological parameters

Glycemia was assessed immediately after starting the procedure and during surgery and was similar in all groups. Body temperature was significantly lower after induction of anesthesia in all groups ($p < 0.05$). After an exposure time to H₂S of 24 minutes, body temperature decreased by 1.85 °C (mean) but quickly recovered after animals started to breathe normal atmosphere; no difference in body temperature was observed at 2 hours after exposure (Figure 3.3).

DISCUSSION

We report on the role of short-term exposure to H₂S in acute ischemic brain damage. Our previous results have shown that exposure to hydrogen sulfide after pMCAO improves functional outcome and decreases infarct size and cell death. Now, we conclude for that H₂S may act very early in the ischemic process, since there were lower levels of acute injury-related markers at 24h without enhancement of repair-associated markers for vasculogenesis, angiogenesis or synaptogenesis at day 14. Significant benefit is likely to occur then before major tissue damage develops, including modulation of NOX-4, a major generator of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and mediator of endothelial dysfunction.

H₂S exposure during 24 min is effective with minor interference with body temperature

Hypothermia, when not induced from external sources, is a result of hypometabolism and not the cause of metabolic changes. H₂S modulation in the context of acute stroke has been associated with induction of hypothermia, especially in protocols that included prolonged exposure times (Joseph et al., 2012). In our study, after an exposure time of 24 minutes, a mean decrease of 1.85°C in body temperature was observed. Body temperature fully recovered in less than 120 min (Figure 3.3).

Consequently, hypothermia appears to be a side effect of hypometabolism induced by H₂S and other mechanisms must be involved since hypothermia during 2 hours may not explain all the effects of H₂S administration observed at least until day 14. In the present study, a shorter exposure time than previously reported was effective and the reduced effect on body temperature represents an important finding in a translational context since minor changes (less than 2° Celsius) in body temperature will not require stroke patient management in intensive care units.

H₂S exposure protects brain tissue and does not enhance repair markers after pMCAO

Previous *in vitro* studies have shown that the use of D-cysteine (a biosynthetic pathway for H₂S production) was associated with attenuation of ischemia-reperfusion injury in the kidney (Shibuya et al., 2013). Also in a murine primary cortical neuron preparation ischemic neuronal death was prevented using a H₂S-releasing NMDA receptor antagonist (Marutani et al., 2012). Additionally, rats pre-treated with diallyl sulfide showed a significant decrease in TUNEL positive cell count (Lin et al., 2012). Our study confirmed that markers for cell death depict significantly less expression in treated animals.

HSP27 is a stress-related protein known to be differentially expressed after stroke (Stetler et al., 2012). Genomic studies have already highlighted that several chaperones including HSP27 were upregulated at 24h, both in the core and peri-infarct areas (Ramos-Cejudo et al., 2012). Others reported that neuronal expression of another HSP (HSP 70) was associated with ischemic penumbra and core, using a reporter mice model (de la Rosa et al., 2013). Also a study with reperfusion in cardiac ischemia showed that HSP27 expression was lower in H₂S-treated pigs (Osipov et al., 2009). In the present study, we observed less expression of HSP27 at 24h after pMCAO in rats exposed to H₂S, associated with markers of tissue preservation, reflecting an additional indication of a possible protective role for H₂S.

It is known that oxidative stress causes tissue damage in the context of acute brain ischemia with ROS expressed above physiological levels (Kleinschnitz et al., 2010; Moskowitz et al., 2010). ROS downregulation after exposure to H₂S was reported in ischemia-reperfusion models, after hemorrhagic shock (Ganster et al., 2010), and during lung transplantation (George et al., 2012). NOX-4 is a major source of oxidative stress in ischemic stroke (Kleinschnitz et al., 2010). In our study, NOX-4 levels were lower at 24h and day 14 in treated rats. Thus, the protective effect of H₂S after acute brain ischemia is maintained in time and may modulate early ROS expression. Interestingly, also less expression of SOD2 was observed at day 14, which could be related to reduced ROS production during the acute phase of ischemic stroke.

Finally, GFAP levels were lower in rats exposed to H₂S, suggesting that early protection may be related to preservation of tissue structure and less glial scar, since we did not find increased levels of repair-associated markers implicated in synaptogenesis, vasculogenesis or angiogenesis at day 14.

CONCLUSIONS

In our pMCAO model of ischemic stroke, early exposure to hydrogen sulfide after focal brain ischemia decreased cell death expression through processes that involve modulation of NOX-4, a major enzyme generator of reactive oxygen species. H₂S probably acts very early after administration, since lower levels of acute injury-related markers were present at 24h, without increase of repair-associated markers for vasculogenesis, angiogenesis or synaptogenesis at day 14. Significant benefit is likely to occur before major tissue damage has taken place. Since H₂S donors exist already for other clinical purposes, clinical trials in a translational context deserve further consideration.

FIGURES

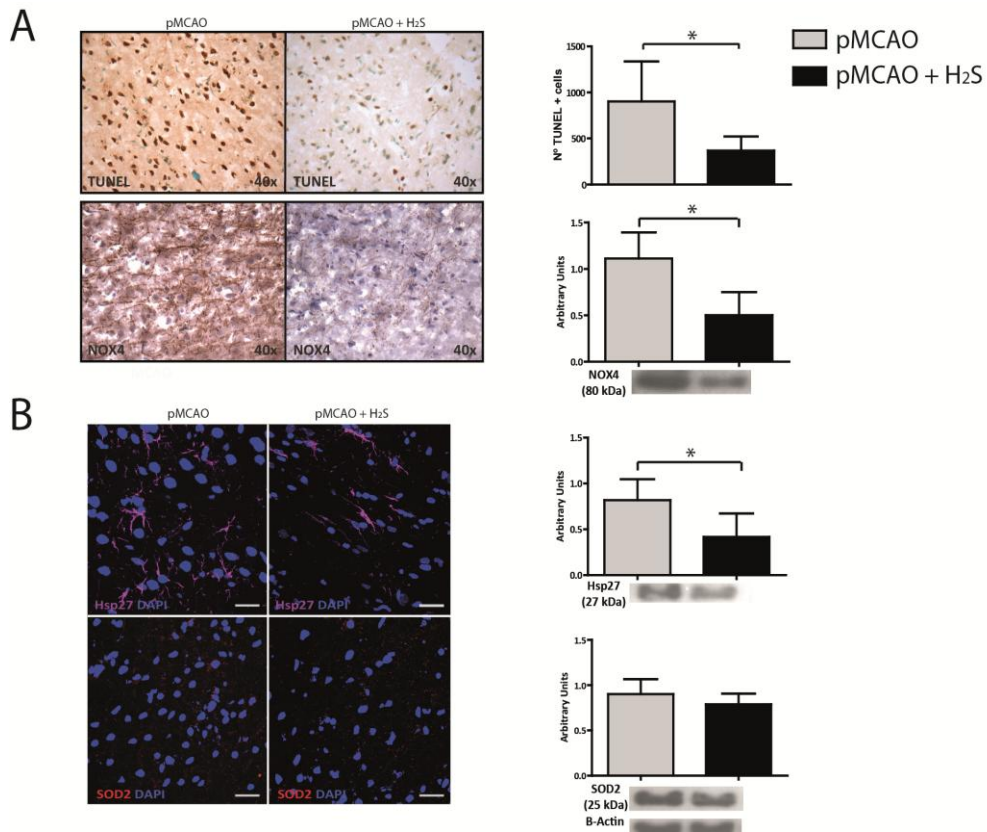
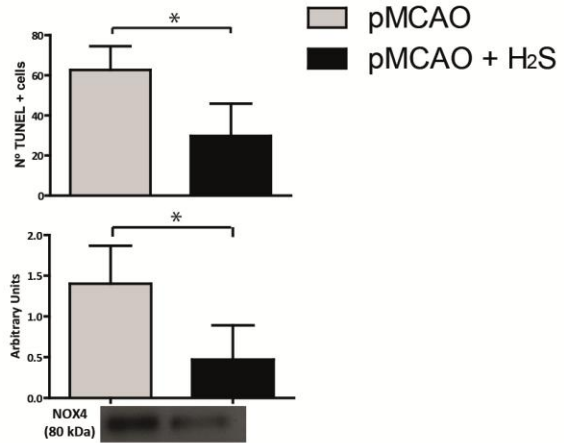
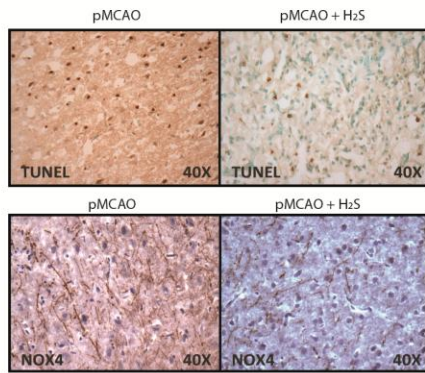


Figure 3.1. RATS EXPOSED TO H₂S AFTER pMCAO SHOW LOWER EXPRESSION OF CELL DEATH, NOX-4 AND HSP27 AT 24H. A. Decreased expression of cell death (* $P < 0.05$) and of NOX-4 in rats exposed to H₂S. **B.** Decreased expression of heat shock protein 27 (HSP 27) in treated rats (* $P < 0.05$). No differences in superoxide dismutase-2 (SOD-2) expression levels.

A



B

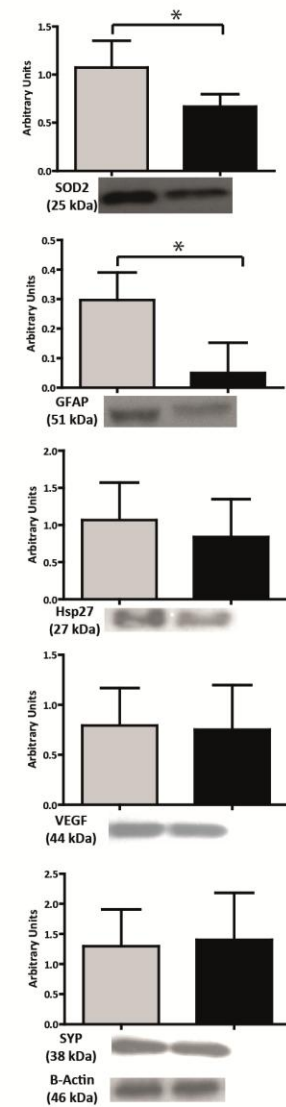
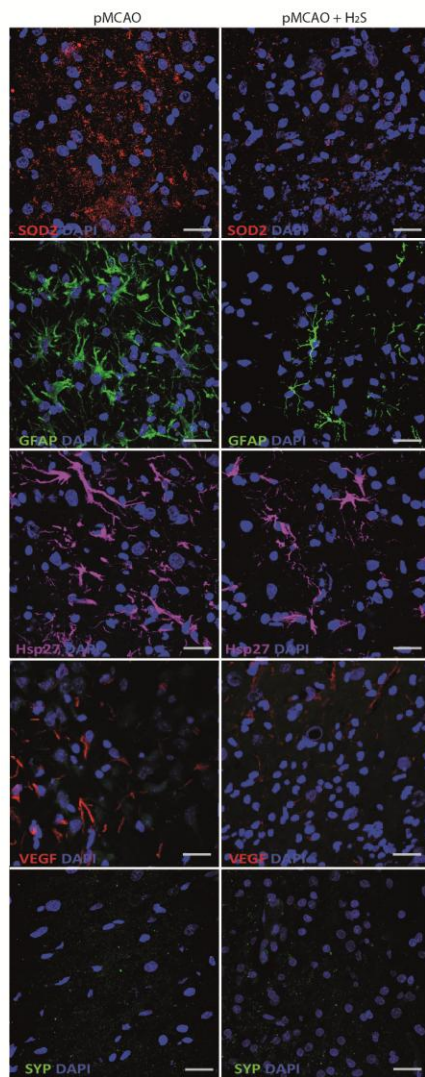


Figure 3.2. DECREASED EXPRESSION OF CELL DEATH AND ROS GENERATING ENZYME NOX-4 AT 14D IN RATS EXPOSED TO H₂S **A.** At 14d, cell death (**P*<0.05) and NOX-4 expression levels (**P*<0.05) were significantly lower in rats exposed to H₂S **B.** Significant lower levels of NOX-4 (**P*<0.05), SOD2 (**P*<0.05) and GFAP (**P*<0.05) were present at day14 in rats exposed to H₂S. No significant differences were observed in HSP27, VEGF or synaptophysin expression levels detected at day 14.

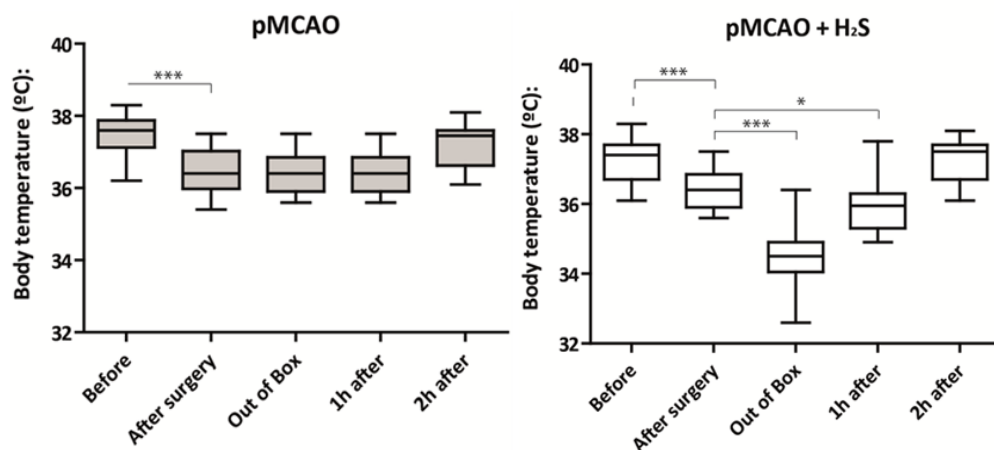


Figure 3.3. BODY TEMPERATURE DURING EXPERIMENTS IN RATS EXPOSED TO H₂S (RIGHT GRAPH) AND CONTROLS (LEFT GRAPH). No difference in body temperature 2h after exposure to hydrogen sulfide was observed. GRAPH LEGEND: **Before:** rectal temperature in awake rats before starting surgery; **After surgery:** rectal temperature after surgery, before entering the box with atmosphere enriched with 40 ppm H₂S (please see Methods for exposure to H₂S conditions). **Out of Box:** Rectal temperature after getting out of the box, 24 minutes later. **1h after** and **2h after:** rectal temperature one and two hours after exposure to H₂S. All rats showed significant differences before and after surgery (***p*<0.0001). Rats exposed to H₂S showed a significant decrease in body temperature after surgery (***p*<0.0001) until one hour (**p*<0.05). No difference in rectal temperature was observed 2h after exposure.

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***4. INTRALESIONAL PATTERN OF MRI ADC MAPS PREDICT
OUTCOME IN EXPERIMENTAL STROKE***

Part of this chapter will be published in the following article:

Henriques I, Gutiérrez-Fernández M, Rodríguez-Frutos B, Ramos J, Otero-Ortega L, Teresa Navarro Hernanz, Sebastián Cerdán, Ferro J , Díez-Tejedor E. Intralesional pattern of MRI ADC maps predict outcome in experimental stroke. (under review)

And was presented as an oral communication at the 23rd European Stroke Conference, Nice, France, 2014

Isabel Henriques, María Gutiérrez-Fernández, Berta Rodríguez-Frutos, Jaime Ramos-Cejudo, Laura Otero-Ortega, Teresa Navarro Hernanz, Sebastián Cerdán, José Ferro, Exuperio Díez-Tejedor. ADC heterogeneities within acute ischemic lesion predicted better functional outcome. *Cerebrovasc Dis* 2014; 34 (suppl 1): 51

4. INTRALESIONAL PATTERN OF MRI ADC MAPS PREDICT OUTCOME IN EXPERIMENTAL STROKE

INTRODUCTION

After acute ischemia, viable tissue at risk of infarction can be detected by perfusion weighted imaging/diffusion weighted imaging (PWI/DWI) mismatch but the time needed to process PWI limits its use in the acute clinical setting. However, acute ischemic stroke can produce different types of intralesional patterns in DWI (Rivers et al., 2006). In ADC maps, those patterns can be either homogeneous or patchy and heterogeneous. Since DWI is highly sensitive to tissue damage, we hypothesized that these two patterns in ADC maps represent ischemic areas with a different potential for recovery after acute ischemia and consequently predict functional outcome after acute ischemia.

In the present study, we evaluated the correlation between different patterns in MRI ADC maps, functional outcome, and immunohistochemical markers of tissue damage to further confirm that different patterns relate to a distinct potential for brain tissue recovery despite the same infarct size and interval after permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion (pMCAO).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Ethical committee, animal rights

All procedures were carried out at our Cerebrovascular and Neuroscience Research Laboratory at La Paz University Hospital, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Spain, and at the Animal Imaging Department (SIERMAC®, Consejo Superior de Investigación Científica), Madrid, Spain. All experiments were performed in compliance with the Ethical Committee for the Care and Use of Animals in Research rules following the International Guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (Royal Decree (R.D.)1201/2005 and European Directive 2010/ 63/UE). The experiments were

designed to use the smallest number of animals possible and to minimize their suffering in accordance with the ethical standards of the Helsinki Declaration of 1975. We included post-surgery analgesia for all groups until sacrifice at 24h. All operated rats (sham and pMCAO) had a cranial suture of the same dimension and on the same side (right craniotomy), and we used group allocation codes in order to keep observation blinded to group allocation while collecting functional data and performing molecular and histological procedures.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Surgical model of pMCAO

Rats were anesthetized using halogenated general inhalation anesthesia with Sevoflurane® {[fluoromethyl 2, 2, 2,-trifluoro-1-(trifluoromethyl) ethyl ether] [1, 1, 1, 3, 3, 3-hexafluoro-2-(fluoromethoxy) propane]}. We performed pMCAO after a small craniotomy above the rhinal fissure over the branch of the right middle cerebral artery (MCA). We exposed the homolateral MCA and permanently ligated it with a 9-0 silk suture immediately before its bifurcation, in order to enhance reproducibility including similar lesion size. After MCAO, both common carotid arteries were temporarily occluded during 60 min with a lace of a 6-0 silk suture.

Subject selection criteria & data collection tools

Animals

Adult male Sprague-Dawley rats, 10 to 12 weeks old, with an average body weight of 250 to 320 g (Charles River® S.L., Barcelona, Spain) were housed with free access to standard rat chow and water. Room temperature was maintained at $21\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$, with a relative humidity of $45\pm 15\%$ and a light/dark cycle of 12/12 h (7:00h to 19:00h/19:00h to 7:00h). Rats were randomly assigned to the following groups: sham surgery (craniotomy) and permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion (pMCAO). At 24h, T2-

weighted MRI was performed in order to confirm complete MCAO infarct and evaluate infarct size in animals submitted to pMCAO. Rats submitted to pMCAO were then further divided into 2 groups according to the result of the DWI MRI ADC maps: group 1 if heterogeneities were present inside the ischemic lesion at least in more than 2/3 of the lesion in ADC maps (subgroup "heterogeneous"), and group 2 if DWI showed a homogenous lesion in ADC maps (subgroup "homogeneous"). The number of rats submitted to surgery was progressively increased until a minimum of 12 animals was reached in both groups.

Functional evaluation scales

Functional evaluation scales were performed before procedures at baseline and at 24h. All rats were evaluated using a variant of the Rogers' scale and the Rotarod performance test™ (accelerating course of 4- 40 rpm). We used previously validated functional scales to minimize observational bias in semi-quantitative scales by maintaining blindness to allocation group in all observations. We performed similar size cranial and neck scars for all groups and used cage codes regarding group allocation.

Ischemic lesion size measurements

Lesion size was measured at 24h, *in vivo* by T2-weighted magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and *post-mortem* by hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) stain after processing of tissue samples. We used Image J® software to analyze and measure the Regions of Interest (ROI), employing an 8-bit grayscale or indexed color, 16-bit unsigned integers, 32-bit floating-points and RGB color.

Measurement of ischemic size by hematoxylin & eosin (H&E) staining

Post-mortem lesion size was estimated by H&E stain of brain sections at 24h. Brains were sectioned at the optic chiasm and at the infundibular stalk. A digitalized image was obtained from these slices (Epson® Perfection 1260 scanner) to automatically measure the ischemic area (Image Pro plus 4.0, Media Cybernetics, USA), as previously described (Gutiérrez-Fernández et al., 2011).

Magnetic resonance imaging

We used T2 sequence diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI) including apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC) maps and tractography, as well as perfusion-weighted imaging (PWI) with determination of cerebral blood flow (CBF), cerebral blood volume (CBV), and mean transit time (MTT).

The extension of the ischemic lesions was analyzed at 24h using T2-weighted images. After contrast adjustment, the contours of the hemispheres were traced manually on each slice. Analysis of the data was performed using Image J® software from NIH Image, slice- by-slice lesion contouring of the lesion and the contralateral hemisphere in the same location as the lesion. Only lesions larger than 2mm x 2mm x 2mm were analyzed to minimize partial volume effects. We used JPG Region of Interest (ROI) to measure infarct size. To correct for the brain edema effect, lesion size was determined by an indirect method: infarct area = area of the intact contralateral hemisphere – area of the intact ipsilateral hemisphere (Swanson et al., 1990; van der Worp et al., 2001). Lesion size was expressed as a percentage of the ipsilateral hemisphere. Exclusion criteria was no lesion on the 24h MRI except for the sham group. When complete MCAO was not confirmed on T2-weighted MRI at 24h, animals were sacrificed and excluded from the sample (n=3). We therefore used MRI at 24h as a confirmation tool of successful ischemic lesion induction.

The MRI images were acquired on a 7 Tesla Bruker Pharmascan system (Bruker Medical GmbH, Ettlingen, Germany) in the local High Field Magnetic Resonance

Spectroscopy and Imaging Facility (SIERMAC[®]) of the Institute of Biomedical Research “Alberto Sols” CSIC/UAM, Madrid, Spain. The system is equipped with a ¹H selective birdcage resonator of 38mm and a 90mm Bruker gradient coil insert (maximum intensity 36 G/cm). Rats were anesthetized with 2% - 3% Isoflurane[®] mixed with oxygen and anesthesia was maintained during the experiment employing a mask. The physiological state of the rats was monitored using a Biotrig physiological monitor (Bruker) that controlled the respiratory rate.

T2-weighted spin echo images were generated using rapid acquisition with relaxation enhancement (RARE) sequence in axial and coronal orientations and the following parameters: Number of echo images 2 (TE: 29.54ms and 88.61ms), TR = 3000 ms, RARE factor = 4, Av = 3, FOV = 3.5 cm, acquisition matrix = 256 × 256, corresponding to an in-plane resolution of 136 × 136 μm², slice thickness = 1.00 mm, without gap.

Diffusion-weighted (DW) magnetic resonance images were obtained with three different directions defined by the read, phase and slice encoding gradients using a multishot spin-echo echo planar imaging (EPI) sequence. Acquisition conditions were diffusion gradient duration: 3ms; diffusion gradient separation: 18ms; TR: 3000ms; TE: 50ms, FOV: 3.8cm; axial slices (1.5mm thickness) and 3 b values: 100, 400 and 1000 s/mm²; acquisition matrix = 128 × 128.

Tractography

Diffusion tensor imaging and fiber tractography were constructed from DTI datasets acquired with 30 noncollinear directions for diffusion weighted gradient scheme. At 24h after pMCAO, data were acquired with a spin echo single shot echo planar imaging (EPI) pulse sequence. The receiver bandwidth was 300KHz; b factor of 1000 sec/mm²; repetition time 8s; echo time: 35ms; 18 contiguous slices with a slice thickness of 1.5mm; field of view of 3.5 cm x 3.5cm; 128x128 image matrix and a total acquisition time was 56 min.

We employed DSC (Dynamic susceptibility contrast) MRI with a bolus injection of paramagnetic contrast agent (Gd-DTPA; Magnevist, Bayer Schering Pharma AG, Leverkusen, Germany; 0.3mmol/Kg i.v.). Changes in signal intensity for dynamic data were used to calculate CBF (cerebral blood flow), CBV (cerebral blood volume: as fraction of tissue volume occupied by blood) and MTT (mean transit time; $MTT=CBF/CBV$, as time that it takes for blood to pass through the vasculature within the tissue of interest). Dynamic T2-weighted images were acquired using a spin-echo single shot echo planar imaging (EPI) pulse sequence with the following scan parameters: TR/TE of 250/7ms; flip angle: 30°; number of repetitions: 150; slice thickness and interslice gap: 1.5mm and 0.1mm; number of slices: 6; FOV: 3.8cm and matrix size: 86x86. After an initial baseline period of 10s, a rapid bolus of Gd-DTPA was administered intravenously.

ADC, CBF, CBV, and MTT maps were generated with a homemade software application (MatLab, R2007a), and tractography with MedINRIA software (MedINRIA Ver. 2.0.1, available free at <http://www-sop.inria.fr/asclepios/software/MedINRIA/>).

ADC value was computed for each voxel using the exponential model according to the expression: $S_b = S_0 e^{-b \cdot ADC}$, S_b : signal intensity versus the b factor and S_0 : signal intensity versus $b=0$. Perfusion parameters were calculated based on the premise that ΔR^* is proportional to the contrast agent concentration according to the curve equation: $\Delta R^* = -K \ln [S(t) / S_0(t)]$, where S is de intensity signal at time, S_0 baseline intensity signal and K a constant. The curve was fitted to a gamma variant function.

ADC values of the central and peripheral lesion area of acute DWI were measured and the mean and standard error of the mean (SEM) calculated. The same measurement was done in the normal contralateral hemisphere in the same anatomic location as the lesion. The three regions of interests (ROI) are easy to identify on color ADC maps and were drawn manually on maps. The ROI were applied at all affected ADC slices in each rat with a maximum number of five slices. The mean ADC values of central and peripheral lesion areas were divided by the value in the contralateral normal hemisphere and expressed as a relative ADC (rADC) of the region.

As described above, MRI PWI was performed using bolus tracking and resulting data were used to obtain CBF, CBV and MTT maps. Here, we only used two ROI: ischemic lesion and the contralateral normal hemisphere, as the matrix size (86*x86) was smaller than in ADC maps, making it impossible to select the central and peripheral lesion areas. The mean CBF value of the ischemic region was divided by the value from the contralateral normal hemisphere as reference region and expressed as relative CBF (rCBF).

We calculated PWI/DWI mismatch by the standard volumetric model (mismatch = %PWI-%DWI volume) since co-registrations of PWI and DWI are not possible.

Immunohistochemistry

Cell death

Cell death was detected by TUNEL staining (biotin-dUTP nick end-labeling mediated by terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase; TdT-FragEL DNA Fragmentation Detection Kit, Oncogene Research Products) following the methodology indicated by the manufacturer. Blind access to group code was employed in all microscopic observations and all samples were independently counted by at least two of the authors.

NOX-4

Pro-oxidant enzyme, NADPH oxidase 4 (NOX-4) primary polyclonal antibody anti-Nox-4 (1:1000, Abnova, Heidelberg, Germany) was incubated for one hour at room temperature. The slides were then incubated with a secondary antibody (donkey anti-rabbit antibody diluted 1:50) conjugated with horseradish peroxidase (Chemicon International, Temecula, CA, USA) and incubated with 3',3'-diaminobenzidine (Invitrogen).

Immunofluorescence

Serial coronal sections were cut at 10µm in a cryostat (Leica CM1950) and studied by immunofluorescence neural markers. Markers for neuronal nuclei (NeuN) (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:100, Millipore), astrocytes [glial fibrillary acid protein (GFAP) (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:400, Chemicon)], vascular growth [vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) marker (polyclonal antibody diluted 1:500, Millipore)], synaptogenesis [synaptophysin (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:200, Sigma - Aldrich)], Superoxide dismutase 2 (SOD-2) (polyclonal antibody diluted 1:150, Abcam®), and Heat shock protein 27 (HSP-27) (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:200, Abcam®), followed by goat anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 488 and anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 594 (1: 750, Molecular Probes, Invitrogen) were used.

All sections were mounted with H-1200 VectaShield mounting medium for fluorescence with DAPI (ATOM). Samples were examined using a spectral confocal microscope Leica TCS SPE (Leica Microsystems, Heidelberg, Germany) and the confocal images were analyzed using Leica software LAS AF, version 2.0.1 build 2043. The images were acquired at confocal maximum projection.

Western Blot

Brain proteins levels were measured in the infarct zone of animals (n=4 per group) and its concentration was determined using a BCA protein assay kit (Pierce). Western-Blot for NADPH oxidase 4 (NOX-4)(polyclonal antibody 1:2000, Abnova), SOD-2 (polyclonal antibody diluted 1:5000, Abcam), HSP27 (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:1000, Abcam), GFAP (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:500, Millipore), VEGF (polyclonal antibody diluted 1:500, Millipore) and synaptophysin (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:400, Sigma) were measured in all groups. The units were normalized based on B-actin levels (1:400, Sigma-Aldrich). To reduce methodological bias, at least three Western blots were performed for each animal.

Statistical analysis

Functional evaluation scores, lesion size, cell death, and protein levels are described as mean and standard error of the mean (SEM) and presented as box and whisker plots. Since data followed a non-normal distribution in the Shapiro-Wilk test, we selected non-parametric tests for data comparison between groups. The Mann–Whitney test was used to compare two samples and the Kruskal–Wallis test was employed to compare more than two samples in the same group or the same variable in more than two groups. Values of $p < 0.05$ were considered significant at a 95% confidence level. We used SPSS 16 for Windows for statistical analysis.

RESULTS

Physiological parameters

Glycemia was assessed immediately after starting the procedure and during surgery and was similar in all groups. Rectal temperature was significantly lower after induction of anesthesia in all groups ($p < 0.05$) and maintained at $37 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$. Mean PaCO_2 and PaO_2 were not significantly different before and after surgical proceedings.

Same lesion size and time after pMCAO: homogeneous *versus* heterogeneous ADC infarct pattern

At 24 hours after pMCAO, lesion size measured by T2-weighted MRI did not differ between groups (heterogeneous vs. homogeneous: 28.99 ± 2.27 vs. 29.55 ± 2.72 , $p = 0.418$). Sham animals showed no ischemic lesion (Figure 4.1B).

Better functional outcome in heterogeneous ADC pattern

Functional assessment was performed before the procedure and at 24h. At baseline, Rogers Modified Scale was zero for all animals and the latency to fall in the Rotarod test was >120 seconds. Sham-operated animals did not show any functional deficit at 24h. A better functional outcome was observed at 24h in animals with a heterogeneous ADC pattern when compared to animals with a homogeneous pattern regarding the latency to fall in the Rotarod test (118.37 ± 31.43 vs. 51.25 ± 30.87 , $p=0.032$). No significant differences were observed in the Rogers test (3.43 ± 0.48 vs. 3.57 ± 0.41 , $p=0.158$) (Figure 4.1C).

Less cell death after pMCAO in heterogeneous ADC pattern

Animals with a heterogeneous ADC pattern expressed significantly less TUNEL positive cells at 24h, in comparison to animals a homogeneous ADC pattern (56.25 ± 13.75 vs. 170.5 ± 61.0 , $p=0.014$) (Figure 4.2A). Sham operated rats did not show TUNEL positive cells.

Brain protection associated markers: homogeneous *versus* heterogeneous ADC pattern

NOX-4 showed significantly lower expression levels in animals with heterogeneous intralesional ADC pattern when compared to homogeneous pattern (2.1 ± 0.367 vs. 4.693 ± 1.31 , $p=0.0063$) (Figure 4.2B above and Figure 4.2C). The levels of SOD2 at 24h were significantly higher in animals with a heterogeneous intralesional ADC type when compared to animals with a homogeneous pattern (4.84 ± 1.049 vs. 2.906 ± 0.368 , $p=0.0039$) (Figure 4.2B middle and Figure 4.2C). At 24h, the group with a heterogeneous intralesional ADC pattern showed a decreased expression of GFAP when compared to animals with a homogeneous pattern; however, the difference was not significant (2.52 ± 0.53 vs. 4.04 ± 0.71 , $p=0.068$) (Figure 4.2B below and Figure 4.2C).

DWI: Apparent diffusion coefficients and tractographies - homogeneous *versus* heterogeneous ADC pattern infarct

Mean relative apparent diffusion coefficients differed between the two different ADC patterns. Animals with a heterogeneous pattern showed the higher values and a wider variation (844.87 ± 155.402 vs. 537.33 ± 61.15 , $p= 0.0013$). Furthermore, the lowest coefficient was observed in a homogeneous lesion and the highest value in a heterogeneous one. Additionally, the SEM of apparent diffusion coefficients was much larger in heterogeneous lesions (155.4 vs. 61.15) (Figure 4.3 A). DWI tractographies showed a more consistent preservation in the fiber reconstruction model of ischemic areas in the heterogeneous lesion type (Figure 4.3 B). We observed no heterogeneous patterns below an ADC of $600\mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ that in the present sample may be considered a cut-off value for irretrievably lost brain tissue.

Higher intralesional cerebral blood flow in heterogeneous ADC pattern

CBF inside ischemic lesions differed between the two patterns. Animals with a heterogeneous pattern showed the higher values for CBF if compared to animals with homogeneous ADC patterns (79.66 ± 32.2 vs. 55.43 ± 16.0 , $p= 0.0026$). The lowest value was observed in a homogeneous lesion ($14 \text{ ml}/100\text{g}/\text{min}$) and the highest in a heterogeneous lesion ($218 \text{ ml}/100\text{g}/\text{min}$) (examples are shown in Figure 4.3 C).

Larger PWI/DWI mismatch in heterogeneous ADC pattern

We calculated PWI/DWI mismatch by the standard volumetric model (mismatch = %PWI - %DWI volume), measured in each slice that showed the lesion. Then, we selected the slice that has the largest lesion size. The observed mismatch was higher in the heterogeneous type of pattern when compared to animals with homogeneous lesions (7.72 ± 1.94 vs. 2.35 ± 1.45 , $p=0.007$) (examples are shown in in Figure 4.3 D)

DISCUSSION

In the present study we used a rodent model of pMCAO and identified distinct intralesional patterns in MRI ADC maps that predicted a different functional outcome in lesions of similar size and the same time after ischemic induction. Intralesional heterogeneity was related to less expression of cell death and markers of brain tissue protection. Animals with heterogeneous patterns in ADC maps showed also a higher potential for recovery after acute ischemic infarction when compared to animals with the homogeneous type. When assessing PWI/DWI mismatch, homogeneous lesions showed a smaller mismatch, allegedly related to a lower probability of recovery of ischemic penumbra and a higher probability of progression to definitive infarct. (Kakuda et al., 2008; Ogata et al., 2011; Sobesky, 2012).

In the clinical setting, it is known that acute lesions with the same interval after stroke onset and occurring in the same arterial territory do not always show a similar tissue fate in subacute imaging neither the same potential for functional recovery (Koyama et al., 2014; Malik et al., 2014). Reasons for this discrepancy include differences in vascular risk factors, age, preconditioning, and variability in collateral circulation and microcirculation response.

Since futile reperfusion should be avoided in order to minimize the risks of reperfusion when they may outweigh the potential benefit, the topic of acute image patterns that might differentiate brain tissue fate after acute stroke is a subject of intense debate, moreover with the advent of more resources for reperfusion. The introduction of mismatch measurement as inclusion criteria for reperfusion in clinical trials included significant differences in the definition of mismatch and a somewhat arbitrary volumetric difference of 20% between PWI and DWI. Nevertheless, no validation was performed that would support this threshold as a tool for stratifying patients or take into account that mismatch could serve as a surrogate measure of penumbra (Barber, 2013; Sobesky, 2012).

Mismatch between the lesion volume in DWI (attributed to ischemic and irreversibly tissue dead) and PWI (decaying but not yet irreversibly lost) has been used to define

penumbra (where CBF is reduced and the tissue is at risk of infarction), but the time needed to process PWI limits its use in the clinical context. In the present study, we were able to show that interpretation of distinct intralesional MRI DWI ADC patterns in lesions of the same size might offer useful pre-treatment information without the need of using contrast and losing valuable time while processing PWI (Mishra et al., 2010; Neumann-Haefelin et al., 1999).

In the present study, we observed that animals with heterogeneous intralesional ADC patterns showed higher CBF with larger variations inside the ischemic lesion that will reduce the risk for definite infarction. This observation is further supported by the better functional outcome in animals with a heterogeneous ADC pattern. Additionally, tractographies showed a better preservation in the heterogeneous type. In the clinical setting, tractography has also been used to show structural integrity of the corticospinal tract and was related to recovery of motor impairment (Borich et al., 2012; Park et al., 2013).

In our experimental setting, it was possible to control for the variables lesion size and interval after ischemic induction, since the same experimental protocol was used in all animals and T2-weighted MRI confirmed lesion size and involved territory. No differences between heterogeneous and homogeneous groups were observed concerning infarct size. However, we were able to observe significant differences in intralesional apparent diffusion coefficients in ischemic lesions of the same size and arterial territory. It is known that DWI sequences better reflect anatomical structure of tissues (del Zoppo et al., 2011). Moreover, MRI is a bridge between basic science and clinical assessment by representing a high resolution anatomical delineation of disease at an ionic and molecular level (Barber, 2013). As the heterogeneous type showed higher diffusion coefficients that represent a surrogate measure of better anatomical tissue preservation, an increased possibility of avoiding definite infarction and reversion to well perfused brain tissue can be assumed. Our findings support an improved preservation of the intralesional region when ADC maps show a heterogeneous pattern in lesions of MCA territory.

It would be desirable to identify an ADC threshold that distinguishes heterogeneous from homogeneous ADC maps. In our study, no heterogeneous samples were observed below 600 $\mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ ADC. If confirmed in the clinical context, this observation may prove useful in identifying patients with irreversible ischemia, without indication for thrombolysis.

Animals with a heterogeneous pattern showed a better functional outcome measured by the latency to fall in Rotarod test. Also in the clinical setting, functional outcome after complete MCA occlusion is far from uniform. Several clinical studies demonstrated the variability of clinical recovery in patients with lesions of the same size and location (Honarmand et al., 2014; Lima et al., 2014). Several explanations for this diversity in functional outcome have been brought forward and include individual variability in collateral circulation, pre-conditioning, and microcirculation response after ischemic insult (Malik et al., 2014; Thompson et al., 2013). However, to our knowledge, the relation between heterogeneous patterns in ADC maps and functional outcome in the clinical setting has not yet been fully addressed.

As outlined above, DWI is the MRI sequence that more consistently reflects ionic and molecular tissue changes since the effect in the Brownian movement of water molecules is changed in the presence of abnormal anatomical features (Tsang et al., 2011). Genomic studies demonstrated yet that there is gene expression associated with trophic factors and CNS development within the lesion core at 24h after pMCAO, suggesting the existence of surviving areas inside the ischemic core (Ramos-Cejudo et al., 2012). These findings support the argument that the central region of the ischemic territory is not inexorably dead or irreversibly damaged. In the present study, we could show differences in the expression of cell death related to different patterns in ADC maps with significantly less expression in the group with a heterogeneous pattern. Consequently, present imaging data emphasize previous findings of genetic expression inside the central areas of the infarct, and, the relation between ADC patterns and tissue preservation requires further exploration.

Oxidative stress causes tissue damage after acute brain ischemia with overexpression of ROS above physiological levels (Kleinschnitz et al., 2010; Moskowitz et al., 2010). In

the present study, we analyzed the expression of major ROS producing enzyme NOX-4 in both groups of ADC patterns and observed significantly reduced expression of NOX-4 in animals with a heterogeneous pattern in ADC maps. At 24h, we also found a higher expression of SOD2, a major scavenger of mitochondrial superoxide, in the group with a heterogeneous ADC pattern. SOD2 is synthesized after brain infarction and tissue levels were related to lesion size (Murakami et al., 1998). We also observed a smaller expression of GFAP in the group with a heterogeneous pattern, albeit not significant. After a brain lesion, astrocytes occupy the space that becomes empty after phagocytosis has taken place, in order to fill up the empty space and maintain tissue structure. Reactive gliosis is part of the healing process but massive gliosis is related with worse outcome (Suma et al., 2008). Consequently, the reduced expression of GFAP in animals with the heterogeneous pattern is possibly related to a reduced ischemic injury.

Reperfusion of tissue that is no longer able to recover from oligemia to normoperfusion exposes stroke patients to risks and may worsen prognosis instead of contributing to improved functional outcome (Barlinn et al., 2014; Yoo et al., 2014). The penumbra concept includes the premise that acute stroke treatment can avoid that part of the ischemic region progresses into infarction. The mismatch lesion volume has been used as a surrogate marker of ischemic penumbra and is defined as the PWI map that exceeds the isotopic DWI lesion. In clinical practice, PWI/DWI mismatch has been employed to evaluate tissue that may recover from acute ischemia in order to avoid futile reperfusion (Barlinn et al., 2014; Foley et al., 2010). Previous clinical studies based on MRI mismatch profiles assessed its usefulness in predicting the clinical response to early reperfusion after rt-PA administration in humans (Albers et al., 2006). Unfortunately, overall benefit of mismatch as inclusion criteria for reperfusion failed to prove its clinical relevance (Kakuda et al., 2008; Nagakane et al., 2011).

Although our study did not address early reperfusion, we observed a pre-treatment DWI MRI pattern that distinguishes between improved and impaired functional outcome. We found increased PWI/DWI mismatch in ischemic MCA lesions with a

heterogeneous pattern in ADC maps indicating a higher potential for reversibility in these animals. On the other hand, in animals with a homogeneous pattern, CBF was not only below the functional threshold but became as low as 6-15 ml/100g/min. Despite the variability that may exist in CBF thresholds in different brain locations, gray or white matter, or different age groups, levels as low as 6-15ml/100g/ min correspond to thresholds of biochemical biomarkers of protein synthesis inhibition, preference for aerobic glycolysis, neurotransmitter release, impaired energy metabolism and terminal depolarization with potassium influx. We also observed coherence in our data concerning functional outcome and biochemical markers (with less expression of cell death and less expression of ROS markers) favoring the group with a heterogeneous pattern in ADC maps. Possibly, homogeneous ADC pattern indicate irreversible brain damage where reperfusion might be futile or even dangerous. However, research in the clinical setting is necessary to confirm our experimental data and validate the usefulness of intralesional ADC patterns to predict outcome and identify patients that may benefit from reperfusion. Nonetheless, the results of the present study represent a promising starting point and may indicate a new tool in pre-treatment decisions in the acute stroke setting.

Study limitations and potential bias

As shown by our experimental data in a pMCAO model of ischemic stroke, the heterogeneity in the coefficients of apparent diffusion inside the ischemic lesion represents areas with a different potential for recovery. Nevertheless, there is significant variability in ADC values depending on the coil systems, imagers, or field strengths used for MR imaging that may have to be taken into account when analyzing data from different MRI equipments. We used relative ADC values because they are more suitable for evaluating diffusion abnormalities than absolute ADC values. Moreover, their use in the experimental setting facilitates translational application.

We used a model of permanent MCAO with high reproducibility as confirmed by equal lesion size in both the heterogeneous and homogeneous group. However, our experimental model did not include vascular risk factors, older age or female sex.

Most importantly, we controlled for time after stroke onset and lesion size, but variability in preconditioning or individual variability in collateral circulation or intracranial pressure variations that may interfere with microcirculation are difficult to assess in an experimental model and may have impact on results.

CONCLUSIONS

Intralesional patterns of MRI ADC maps in an experimental model of ischemic stroke can be classified in heterogeneous and homogeneous patterns. Animals with the same infarct size and interval after ischemia but a heterogeneous intralesional ADC pattern showed a better functional outcome, a higher expression of markers of brain protection, and less expression of cell death. Animals with a homogeneous pattern showed a smaller PWI/DWI mismatch with lower probability of recovery from ischemic penumbra and an increased progression to definitive infarction. Applied to the clinical setting, early identification of tissue at increased risk of irreversible infarction through DWI ADC map patterns may assist in acute therapeutic decisions.

FIGURES

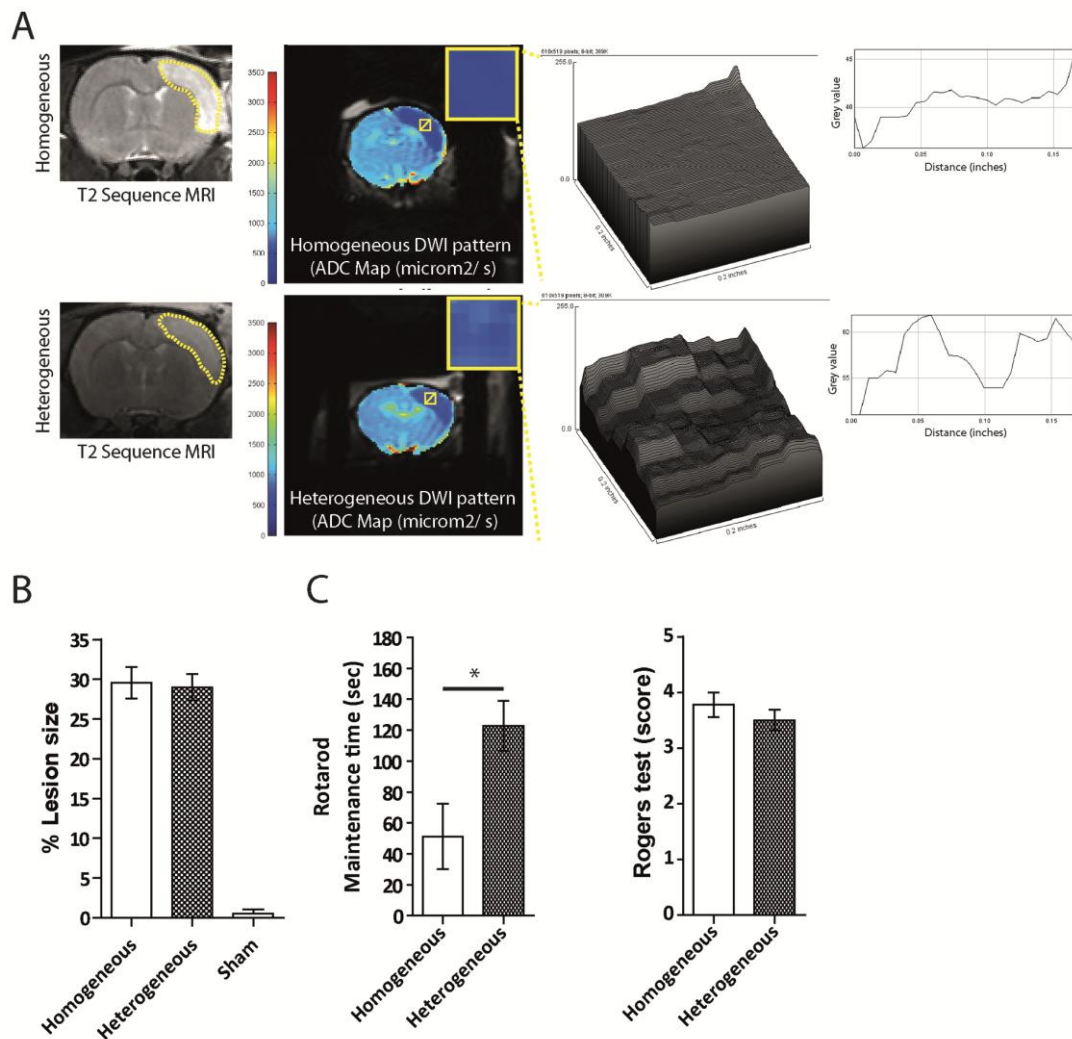


Figure 4.1. LESION SIZE AND FUNCTIONAL OUTCOME OF TWO DIFFERENT INTRALESIONAL PATTERNS OF MRI ADC MAPS: HOMOGENEOUS AND HETEROGENEOUS. A. T2 sequence MRI and DWI ADC maps of intralesional homogenous (upper images and graphs) and heterogeneous patterns (lower images and graphs). Heterogeneous and homogenous showed the same infarct size (left images), but heterogeneous pattern showed an increased range of ADC coefficients (lower graphs)

B. Lesion size: homogeneous pMCAO, heterogeneous pMCAO and sham groups. For the same interval after stroke induction, lesion size was the same in rats with pMCAO and different ADC patterns.

C. Functional outcome in homogeneous and heterogeneous ADC patterns: Maintenance time (sec) in Rotarod test is significantly superior in heterogeneous ADC patterns (left graph). No difference observed with Rotarod test (right graph).

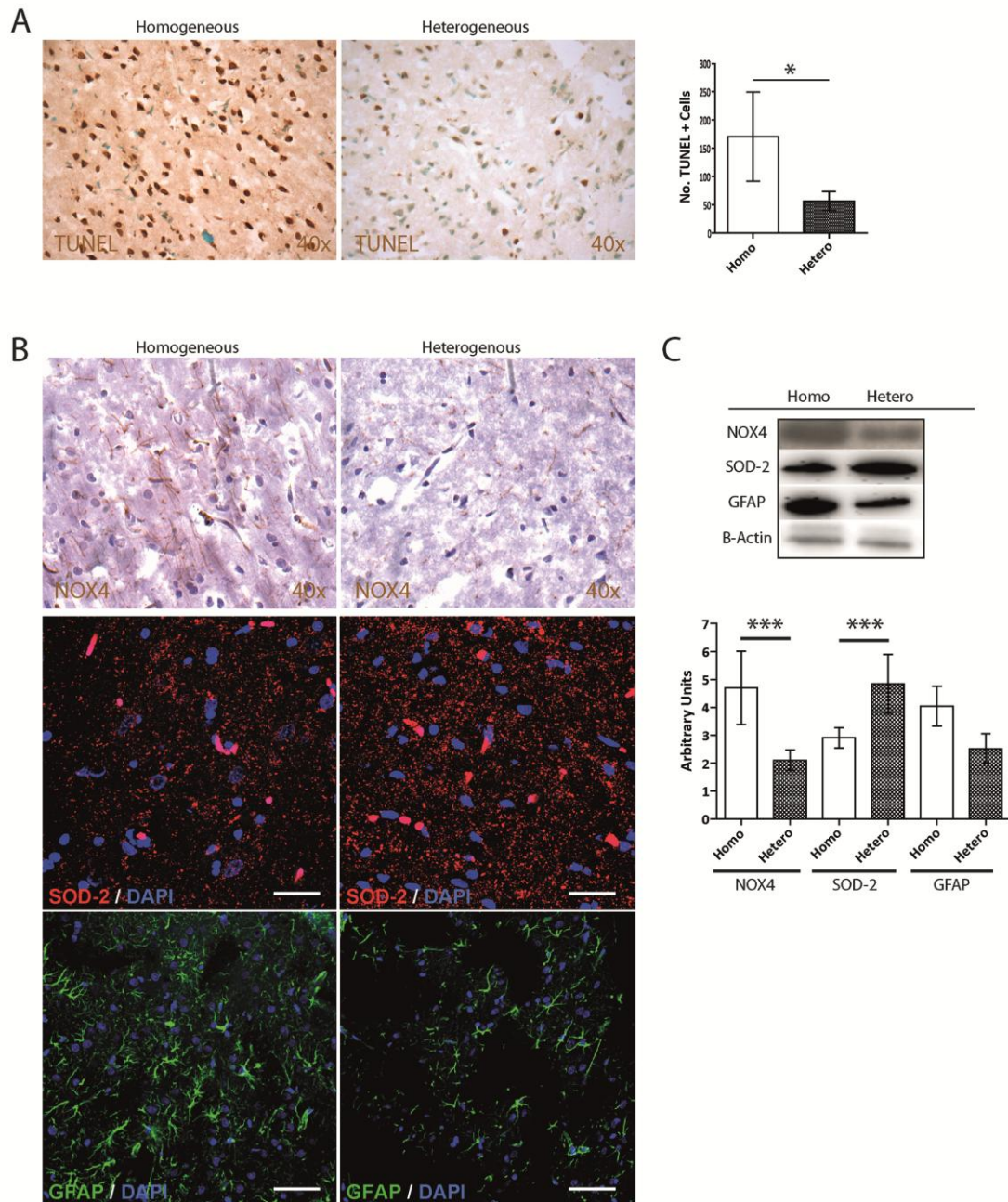


Figure 4.2. EXPRESSION OF CELL DEATH AND IMMUNOHISTOCHEMICAL MARKERS AT 24H AFTER PMCAO IN TWO DIFFERENT INTRALESIONAL ADC PATTERNS: HOMOGENEOUS AND HETEROGENEOUS.

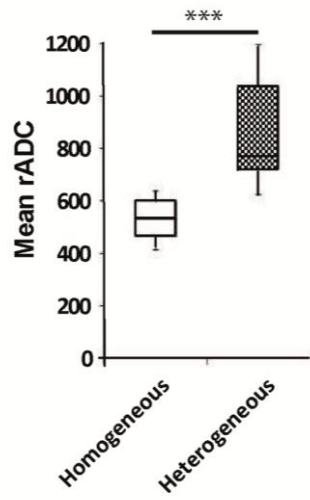
A. Expression of cell death by TUNEL: less expression in heterogeneous ADC pattern (right image and graph).

B. Immunohistochemical markers and W/B: Upper images: less expression of NOX-4 in heterogeneous pattern (right image). Middle images: less expression of SOD-2 in

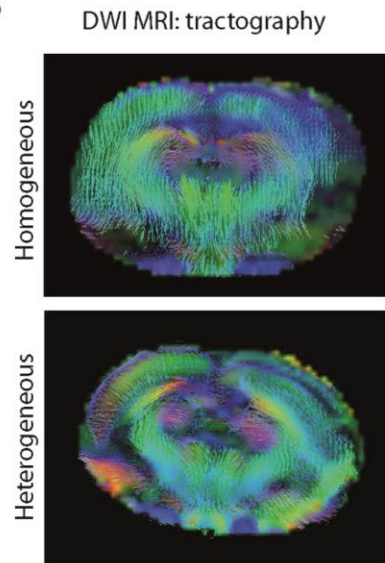
homogeneous type (left image and white bar in Figure 2 C). Lower images: less expression of GFAP in heterogeneous patterns (right image, grey bar in Figure 2 C).

C. Western-Blot of NOX-4, SOD-2 and GFAP 24h after pMCAO. Upper: W/B of NOX-4, SOD-2 and GFAP (image). Lower: W/B of NOX-4, SOD-2 and GFAP (graph).

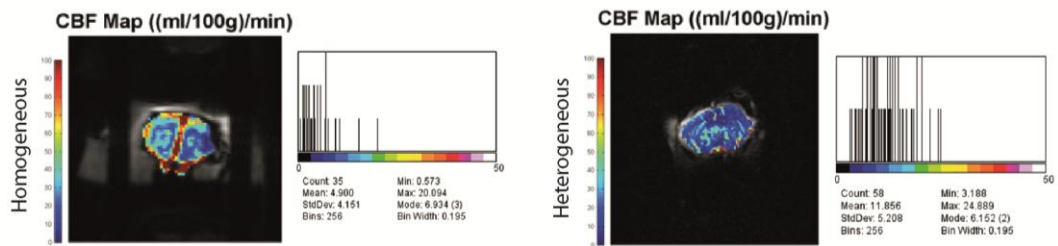
A



B



C



D

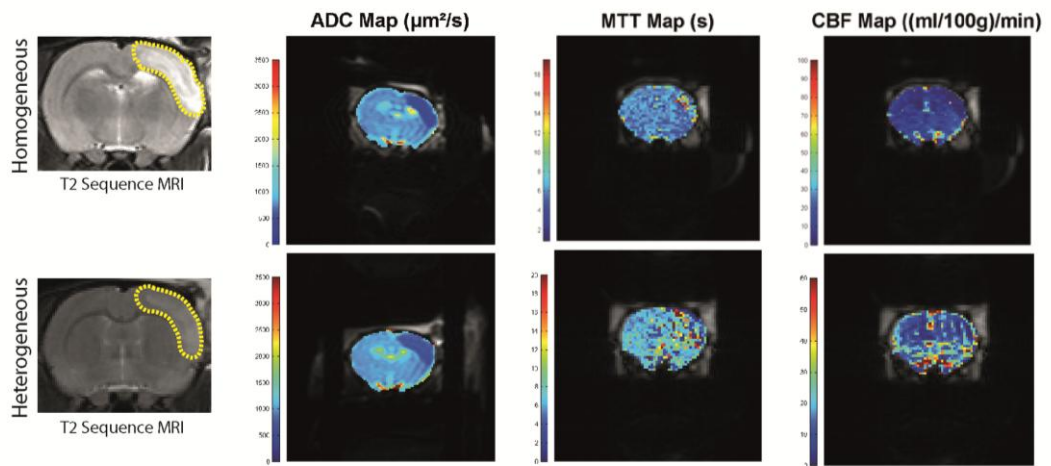


Figure 4.3. DWI AND PWI MRI OF HOMOGENEOUS AND HETEROGENEOUS PATTERN.

A. Mean relative apparent diffusion coefficients of homogeneous and heterogeneous patterns. Heterogeneous patterns show significantly increased mean ADC values (left graph) and clustering of rADC in two different patterns (Box and whisker plots of mean rADC, right graph).

B. Tractography. Homogeneous pattern of intralesional ADC maps (upper image) showing more fiber disruption in MCA territory than heterogeneous pattern (lower image).

C. Perfusion MRI after pMCAO: Homogeneous and heterogeneous patterns. Homogeneous pattern showed less intralesional CBF (left image and graph) than heterogeneous pattern (right image and graph).

D. PWI/DWI mismatch. Homogeneous ADC patterns (upper images) show less mismatch area when compared to heterogeneous type (lower images).

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DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION

Summary

In the present study, we explored the effect of short-term exposure to H₂S after acute ischemia in an animal model of pMCAO. We hypothesized that hydrogen sulfide exposure after acute ischemic stroke modulates ischemic lesion either by an early protective effect or by promoting post-ischemic repair. To address our hypothesis we exposed rats to H₂S after pMCAO and measured functional outcome and infarct size *in vivo* and *post-mortem*. We identified underlying markers of cytoprotection and repair. Finally, we compared brain imaging with immunohistochemical data to look for premature imaging features of ischemic tissue damage that may relate to functional outcome.

H₂S exposure after pMCAO improved functional outcome and decreased infarct size and cell death. H₂S may act very early in the ischemic process, since there were lower levels of acute injury-related markers at 24h without enhancement of repair-associated markers for vasculogenesis, angiogenesis or synaptogenesis at day 14. Significant benefit is likely to occur before major tissue damage ensues and includes modulation of NOX-4, a major generator of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and endothelial dysfunction, as well as vasomodulation of intralesional microcirculation since intralesional CBF assessed by PWI MRI improved in rats exposed to H₂S. Since H₂S limits brain damage after ischemic stroke, hydrogen sulfide donors may play a role as new drugs in the context of acute ischemic stroke.

A main goal in acute stroke treatment is reestablishing previous functional status or, if not possible, improve functional outcome. Therefore, endpoints in clinical and experimental stroke must provide prove of functional benefit. In the present study, we observed a better functional outcome in animals exposed to H₂S, both at 24h and day 14. This observation was in agreement with immunohistochemical data and *in vivo* imaging that showed improved intralesional tissue preservation and smaller lesion size in rats exposed to H₂S.

One of the reasons for failure in proving clinical benefit in previous research regarding neuroprotectors in the setting of acute ischemia is linked to the exclusive focus on neuron protection. We still nominate brain protection as neuroprotection but recent focus of translational stroke research centers on the complexity of interactions in the neurovascular unit and the relevance of collateral circulation and regulation of microcirculation broadening the multiplicity of mechanisms involved in regaining homeostasis after acute ischemia (Kulik et al., 2008; Terasaki et al., 2013). Also several previously identified potential neuroprotectors only interfere with isolated paths of the complex ischemic pathophysiology and do not achieve clinical efficacy (Ferro and Dávalos, 2006; Moskowitz et al., 2010). H₂S possesses several mechanisms of action that intervene in the ischemic cascade. The role of H₂S in the regulation of microvascular tone is well established. It also acts as a sensor of oxygen in normal and ischemic brain environment and interferes directly with mitochondrial energy mechanism and ROS production. It influences the cascades of apoptosis and necrosis through pleiotropic mechanisms at different time points and pathways of the ischemic cascade (Fu et al., 2012; Luo et al., 2013; Majid et al., 2013; Olson, 2013). This diversity of mechanisms contributes to the higher potential of H₂S as a candidate with substantial efficacy in improving outcome after experimental and clinical stroke.

Another advantage of H₂S derives from being a gas and thus be able to interfere with intracellular mechanism without the need of active membrane transportation (Bannenberg and Vieira, 2009). Moreover, in the labile cellular energetic balance, quick adjustment between energy production and needs may contribute to very early protection before major tissue damage occurs (Szabó, 2007; Szabó et al., 2011).

In experimental research, the use of *in vivo* imaging to measure infarct size has the advantage of repetitive measurements over time whereas histological techniques only can be carried out once in each animal. However, immunohistochemical techniques are more precise in identifying distinctive parameters of cell death. Consequently, brain imaging in acute stroke benefits from being correlated with histological markers and parameters for cell death (Zille et al., 2012).

Since ischemia ultimately provokes cell death, the reduction of infarct size and a diminished cell death burden after a potential therapeutic intervention possibly indicates protection (Ferrer and Planas, 2003). In the present study, the group exposed to H₂S showed significantly less TUNEL-positive cells in the peri-infarct zone after pMCAO, indicative of less cell death, both at 24h and at day 14. As such, our results suggest strongly that H₂S modulates cell death after acute ischemic injury. This finding is additionally supported by a diminished infarct size at day 14 in our *post mortem* data.

The possibility of measuring *in vivo* the area of cell death defined as area of definitive necrosis was also approached. MRI DWI ADC maps, by measuring coefficients of attenuation, reflect preserved or destroyed tissue anatomy and may be used as a surrogate of maintenance of tissue structure *in vivo* (Rojas et al., 2006; Rosso et al., 2009; Zille et al., 2012). We found a better anatomical preservation of ischemic tissue in MRI DWI ADC maps in rats exposed to H₂S and an improved functional outcome was observed in functional motor scale and score. It is known from clinical studies that patient selection according to acute MRI profiles can differentiate subgroups of patients that benefit from early reperfusion from those that do not or those for whom reperfusion therapy can even be harmful (so called *futile* reperfusion) (Farr and Wegener, 2010). We measured perfusion through MRI PWI inside the ischemic lesion and found that CBF was higher in the treated group revealing improved tissue perfusion. Higher intralesional CBF was related to both better functional outcome and smaller infarct size in the treated group.

We further observed a pattern of intralesional ADC that consistently discriminated between better and worse functional outcome (heterogeneous *versus* homogeneous), probably by differentiating ischemic tissue fate and its potential for rescue. Since images were obtained by DWI permitting faster image acquisition and processing if compared to PWI, our results regarding ADC patterns represent a translational potential for acute stroke treatment in the clinical context through timely identification of patients with potential for tissue recovery. Observed heterogeneities in ADC coefficients inside the ischemic territory possibly represent previously

described areas of "mini-cores and mini-penumbras", a concept that refers to a central zone of hypoperfused territory at risk of infarction that shows a variable pattern of penumbra evolution with a heterogeneity in molecular and microvascular response (del Zoppo et al., 2011). Characteristic ADC patterns with heterogeneous and homogeneous lesions in ADC maps may consequently represent areas with a different potential for recovery, independently of its localization in the center or in the periphery of the ischemic lesion.

We compared further ADC hetero- and homogeneities with mismatch extension and found a correlation between larger mismatch size and presence of heterogeneous patterns in ADC map as suggested in previous studies (Mishra et al., 2010; Ogata et al., 2011; Sobesky, 2012).

The presence of a heterogeneous coefficient in ADC maps in the treated group related to better outcome highlights the possibility that these heterogeneities could be used as a surrogate imaging marker for outcome in the acute pretreatment stroke setting. This image marker of favorable outcome may prove beneficial in clinical decision making since homogeneous low acute diffusion coefficients inside ischemic lesion showed to be predictive for adverse progression from ischemia to necrosis, a situation where thrombolysis is futile and potentially harmful (Hussein et al., 2010; Oppenheim et al., 2001).

The hypothermic effect of H₂S was described and associated with its beneficial effects in the context of stroke, especially in protocols that included prolonged exposure times (Joseph et al., 2012). Nevertheless, hypothermia, when not externally induced, can be a consequence of decreased metabolism and not its cause (Szabó, 2007). H₂S is known to hold temperature-independent properties including arteriolar vasodilatation by activation of ATP-sensitive K⁺ channels of the smooth muscle cell membrane. Furthermore, H₂S is also able to contribute to the neutralization of excitotoxicity mediated by glutamate through increasing of glutathione in neurons by inducing astrocytes to incorporate more glutamate from the extracellular space (Leffler et al., 2011). Notwithstanding, vasodilatation is exactly the opposite of what we would expect if H₂S action would be exclusively related to hypothermia observed after

exposure (since external hypothermia induces vasoconstriction) (Faridar et al., 2011). Furthermore, H₂S also protects neurons from secondary neuronal injury by its antioxidant, anti-inflammatory and anti-apoptotic properties (Majid et al., 2013; Szabó et al., 2011).

Despite all benefit and advances that thrombolysis added to the therapy of acute ischemic stroke, it is also known that recovery from ischemia is not only a matter of reestablishing blood flow inside the occluded artery. The contribution of collateral circulation and microcirculation are key determinants of final tissue irrigation and ultimate tissue fate of reestablished homeostasis or definite infarct (Kulik et al., 2008; Shuaib et al., 2011). H₂S does not only interfere with tonus regulation of microcirculation via K⁺-ATPase but is also an oxygen sensor both in the ischemic and the healthy brain (Fu et al., 2012; Olson et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2001). As such, H₂S can potentially be used alone or in association with thrombolytic therapy.

In the present study, we observed less expression of ROS associated enzyme NOX-4 and less cell death together with a better intraregional perfusion and CBF in rats exposed to H₂S. Therefore, our results suggest that the beneficial effect observed after short-term exposure to H₂S might not be explained by the concomitant brief and mild hypothermia but more appropriately by other temperature-independent mechanisms. In our view, the induction of mild hypothermia lasting less than two hours after initial exposure, with a mean decrease in body temperature of merely 1.85°C may represent an insufficient explanation for the observed benefit in the treated group. Our interpretation is underscored by the fact that we found effects of H₂S action like less expression of cell death and acute markers of necrosis including ROS production enzymes as soon as 24h and as late as day 14. Consequently, hypothermia may be rather the consequence of H₂S action than its cause. Furthermore, a decrease in body temperature of less than 2°C as observed in the present experimental study would not require management inside highly selective and hardly available intensive care units beds, if our findings could be reproduced in clinical research and human stroke patients.

Previous studies of H₂S in the context of acute stroke used very long exposure times which represents a largely inconvenient aspect if it comes to acute stroke management in patients (Joseph et al., 2012). On the contrary, we observed in the present study that a much shorter exposure time was effective in reducing infarct size and enhancing recovery.

For many years, pretreatment predictors of good outcome have been looked for since they may be useful in clinical decision making together with current NIHSS and time elapsed since symptom onset. DWI MRI with ADC maps represents a technique that is able to differentiate tissue preservation or destruction *in vivo* by identifying distinctive apparent diffusion coefficients in the ischemic zone that depend on preservation of anatomical structure. We studied the hypothesis that different ADC patterns inside lesions in the same location, of the same size and with the same chronological evolution will reflect different fates regarding tissue ischemia and recovery. Our results showed that, although much less common in non-treated group, heterogeneities in ADC maps could still differentiate between more and less favorable outcome after experimental induction of acute ischemia. In summary, the presence of heterogeneities inside an ischemic lesion observed in MRI ADC maps predicts a better functional outcome in a pMCAO model of acute ischemic stroke.

Study limitations

We designed this study to fulfill the most recent recommendations for research in translational stroke.

Because of its high reproducibility, we chose a model of permanent focal brain ischemia including craniotomy and permanent artery ligation combined with temporary common carotid artery occlusion during one hour. As all rodent models for acute ischemic stroke manifest failures regarding volume of infarct area, besides other pitfalls (Gerriets et al., 2004), we minimized bias by using MRI as confirmation tool of complete ischemic induction in the MCA territory and absence of hemorrhagic

transformation. We considered this confirmation crucial since we intended to compare lesion size between treated animals and controls.

We randomized animals to groups and all procedures except surgery were performed in a blinded manner by using codes not known to observers to avoid bias regarding functional outcome, MRI image evaluation, and all other bench procedures. We gave detailed data on procedures to facilitate reproducibility. However, as the time window for administration of H₂S was limited to 3h after induction of ischemic stroke, no conclusions regarding effects outside this interval can be drawn. Exposure dosage of H₂S in the present study was the same for all animals and different dosages might produce distinct effects regarding outcome. Due to a limitation of study design and budget and due to the preliminary nature of our study, we were not able to include female and older animals or animals with co-morbidities in this study.

In the setting of an experimental study using rodents, we only can assess clinical outcome by evaluation of motor skills, not permitting evaluation concerning other signs and symptoms of ischemic stroke. As we used MRI at 24h as a confirmation tool of successful pMCAO, no bias can be attributable to surgical failure. We do not report long-term results of H₂S exposure as study design included comparison of *in vivo* and *post mortem* data in the acute setting at 24h and after day 14.

Implications and future research

Regarding future research, we already proposed a prospective observational clinical study to test if ADC heterogeneities inside the ischemic lesion in pre-treatment MRI represent a candidate for an imagiological pre-treatment marker of a favorable prognosis in acute stroke. After confirmation of the reproducibility of our data, we further propose a clinical trial with H₂S donors that are already available in clinical medicine for other purposes like memantine or diclofenac. Primary outcome measure should include poststroke functional dependency and death.

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CONCLUSION

CONCLUSION

In our pMCAO model of ischemic stroke, early exposure to hydrogen sulfide after focal brain ischemia improved functional outcome and decreased infarct size and cell death through processes that involve modulation of NOX-4, a major enzyme generator of reactive oxygen species. Regarding brain imaging, perfusion MRI in rats exposed to H₂S revealed improved cerebral blood flow, while diffusion MRI showed spots of heterogeneity inside ischemic lesions in ADC maps, including central regions. H₂S probably acts very early after administration, since lower levels of acute injury-related markers were present at 24h, without increase of repair-associated markers for vasculogenesis, angiogenesis or synaptogenesis at day 14. Significant benefit is likely to occur before major tissue damage has taken place. Since H₂S donors exist already for other clinical purposes, clinical trials in a translational context deserve consideration.

Intralesional Patterns of MRI ADC Maps Predict Outcome in Experimental Stroke

Isabel Lestro Henriques^{a-c} María Gutiérrez-Fernández^a Berta Rodríguez-Frutos^a
Jaime Ramos-Cejudo^a Laura Otero-Ortega^a Teresa Navarro Hernanz^d
Sebastián Cerdán^d José M. Ferro^e Exuperio Díez-Tejedor^a

^aDepartment of Neurology and Stroke Centre, Neuroscience and Cerebrovascular Research Laboratory, La Paz University Hospital, Neuroscience Area of IdiPAZ (Health Research Institute), Autónoma University of Madrid, Madrid, Spain; ^bFaculty of Medicine, University of Lisbon, and ^cChampalimaud Neuroscience Programme, Champalimaud Center for the Unknown, INDP2007, Lisbon, Portugal; ^dLaboratory for Imaging and Spectroscopy by Magnetic Resonance LISMAR, Institute of Biomedical Research Alberto Sols, CSIC-UAM, Madrid, Spain; ^eDepartment of Neurosciences, Hospital de Santa Maria, University of Lisbon, Lisbon, Portugal

Key Words

Magnetic resonance imaging · MRI · ADC maps · Ischemic stroke · Stroke model · Functional outcome · Intralesional heterogeneity

Abstract

Background: After acute ischemia, the tissue that is at risk of infarction can be detected by perfusion-weighted imaging/diffusion-weighted imaging (PWI/DWI) mismatch but the time that is needed to process PWI limits its use. As DWI is highly sensitive to acute ischemic tissue damage, we hypothesized that different ADC patterns represent areas with a different potential for recovery. **Methods:** In a model of permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion (pMCAO), Sprague-Dawley rats were randomly distributed to sham surgery and pMCAO. We further separated the pMCAO group according to intralesional ADC pattern (homogeneous or heterogeneous). At 24 h after ischemia induction, we analyzed lesion size, functional outcome, cell death expression, and brain protection markers including ROS enzyme NOX-4. MRI included DWI (ADC maps), DTI (tractography), and PWI (CBF, CBV and MTT). **Results:** The lesion size was similar in pMCAO rats. Animals with a heterogeneous

pattern in ADC maps showed better functional outcome in Rotarod test ($p = 0.032$), less expression of cell death ($p = 0.014$) and NOX-4 ($p = 0.0063$), higher intralesional CBF ($p = 0.0026$) and larger PWI/DWI mismatch ($p = 0.007$). **Conclusions:** In a rodent model for ischemic stroke, intralesional heterogeneity in ADC maps was related to better functional outcome in lesions of similar size and interval after pMCAO. DWI ADC maps may assist in the early identification of ischemic tissue with an increased potential for recovery as higher expression of acute protection markers, lower expression of cell death, increased PWI/DWI mismatch, and higher intralesional CBF were present in animals with a heterogeneous ADC pattern.

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Introduction

After acute ischemia, the viable tissue that is at risk of infarction can be detected by perfusion-weighted imaging/diffusion-weighted imaging (PWI/DWI) mismatch but

I.L.H. and M.G.-F. contributed equally to this work.

the time that is needed to process PWI limits its use in the acute clinical setting. However, acute ischemic stroke can produce different types of intralesional patterns in DWI [1]. In ADC maps, those patterns can be either homogeneous or patchy and heterogeneous. Since DWI is highly sensitive to tissue damage, we hypothesized that these two patterns in ADC maps represent ischemic areas with a different potential for recovery after acute ischemia and consequently predict functional outcome after acute ischemia.

In this study, we evaluated the correlation between different intralesional patterns in MRI ADC maps, functional outcome, and immunohistochemical markers of tissue damage to further confirm that different patterns are associated to brain tissue preservation despite the same infarct size and interval after permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion (pMCAO).

Material and Methods

Ethical Committee, Animal Rights

Procedures were carried out at the Cerebrovascular and Neuroscience Research Laboratory at La Paz University Hospital, and at the Animal Imaging Department (SIERMAC[®]), Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Spain. Experiments were performed in compliance with the Ethical Committee for the Care and Use of Animals in Research rules following the International Guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (Royal Decree (RD)1201/2005 and European Directive 2010/63/UE). The experiments were designed to use the smallest number of animals possible and to minimize their suffering in accordance with the ethical standards of the Helsinki Declaration of 1975. We included post-surgery analgesia for all groups. All rats (sham and pMCAO) had a right cranial suture of the same dimension. Group allocation codes were used to keep observation blinded to group allocation while collecting functional data and performing molecular and histological procedures.

Subject Selection Criteria and Data Collection Tools

Adult male Sprague-Dawley rats, 10 to 12 weeks old, with an average body weight of 250 to 320 g (Charles River[®] S.L., Barcelona, Spain), were housed with free access to standard rat chow and water. Room temperature was maintained at $21 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$, with a relative humidity of $45 \pm 15\%$ and a light/dark cycle of 12/12 h (7:00–19:00 h/19:00–7:00 h). Rats were randomly assigned to the following groups: sham surgery (craniotomy) and permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion (pMCAO). After 24 h, T2-weighted MRI was performed in order to confirm complete MCAO and equal infarct size in animals submitted to pMCAO. Rats submitted to pMCAO were then further divided into 2 groups according to the result of the DWI MRI ADC maps: group 1 if heterogeneities were present inside the ischemic lesion in more than 2/3 of the ADC maps (subgroup 'heterogeneous'), and group 2 if DWI showed a homogenous lesion in ADC maps (subgroup 'homogeneous'). The number of rats submitted to surgery was progressively increased until a minimum of 12 animals was reached in

both groups. Three rats were excluded from the study because of incomplete ischemia in the MCA territory.

We defined ADC patterns according to qualitative visual criteria: heterogeneous pattern if more than 2/3 of the ischemic area was heterogeneous (patchy) and homogeneous pattern for the remaining. Later on, in order to confirm this point, we designed a quantitative method based on a histogram analysis categorization. Briefly, we delineated the lesion zone on each slice of ADC maps. Then, we adjusted the levels from 0 to $3,000 \mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ (standard values of ADC maps from rat brain). All images visually considered homogeneous showed differences in ADC values (between minimum to maximum) below $300 \mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$. All heterogeneous images showed differences above $300 \mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$. This value was determined as cut-off for this study using the pMCAO experimental model. Quantitative assessment using the apparent diffusion coefficient showed that there were no heterogeneous patterns with an ADC value below 630.

Experimental Procedures

A surgical model of pMCAO was used as previously described elsewhere [2] and physiological parameters were recorded throughout the procedure (online suppl. material; for all online suppl. material, see www.karger.com/doi/10.1159/000381727).

Functional Evaluation Scales

Functional evaluation scales were performed before procedures at baseline and at 24 h. All rats were evaluated using a variant of the Rogers scale and the Rotarod performance testTM (accelerating course of 4–40 rpm) as previously described [3].

Magnetic Resonance Imaging

The extension of the ischemic lesions was analyzed using T2-weighted MRI. We used diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI) including apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC) maps and tractography, as well as perfusion-weighted imaging (PWI) with determination of cerebral blood flow (CBF), cerebral blood volume (CBV), and mean transit time (MTT). Relative ADC values were calculated in comparison with the corresponding contralateral region (online suppl. material).

Statistical Analysis

Functional evaluation scores, lesion size, cell death, and protein levels are described as the mean and standard error of the mean (SEM) and presented as box and whisker plots. Data were analyzed using the Student's t-test or the non-parametric Mann-Whitney test if data followed a non-normal distribution in the Shapiro-Wilk test. Values of $p < 0.05$ were considered significant at a 95% confidence level.

Results

Physiological Parameters

Glycemia was assessed immediately after starting the procedure and during surgery and it was found to have similar values in all groups. Rectal temperature was significantly lower after induction of anesthesia in all groups ($p < 0.05$) and maintained at $37 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$. Mean PaCO₂ and PaO₂ were not significantly different before and after surgical proceedings.

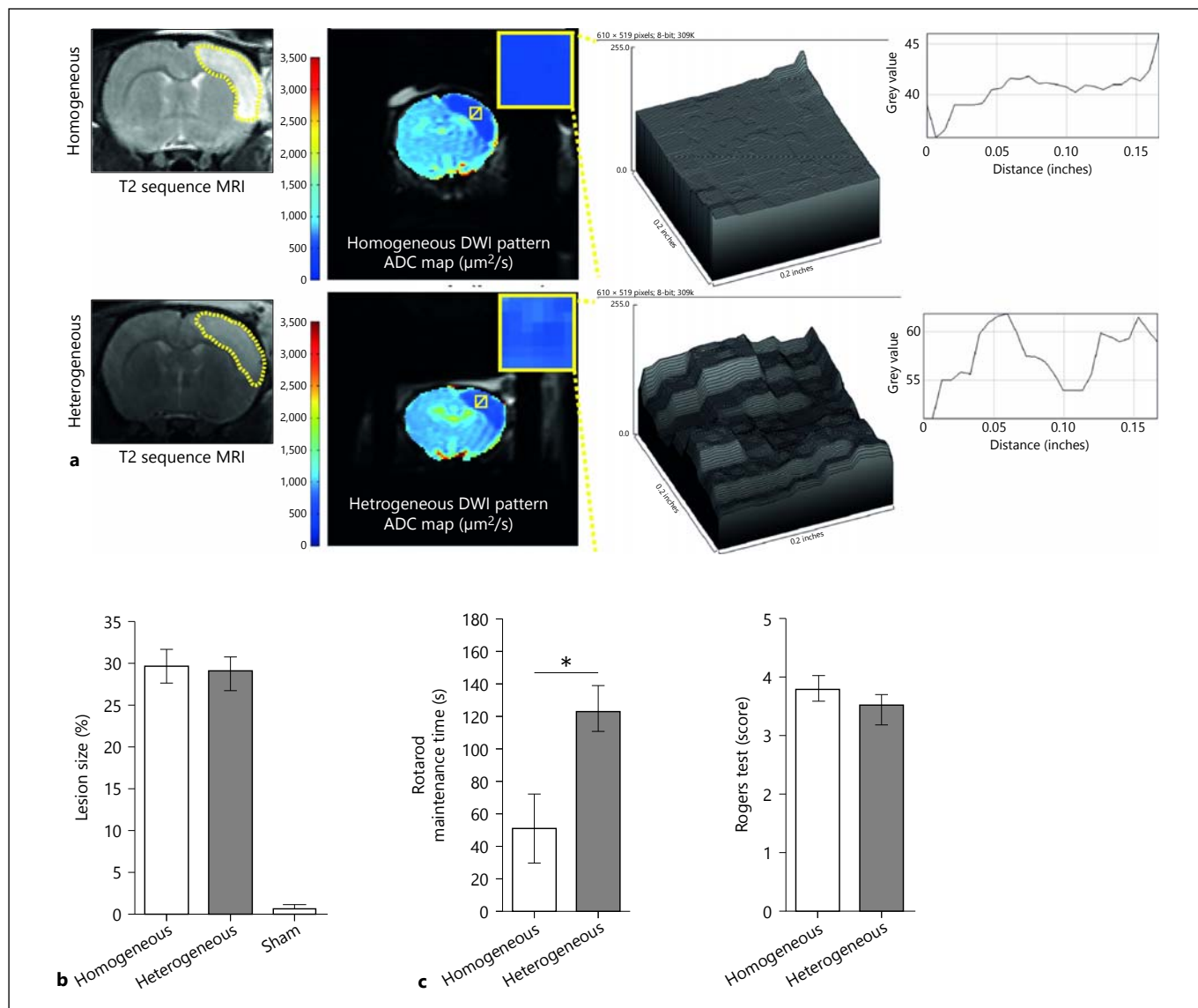


Fig. 1. Lesion size and functional outcome in two different intralésional patterns of MRI ADC maps after permanent MCA occlusion. **a** T2 sequence MRI and DWI ADC maps of intralésional homogeneous (upper images and graphs) and heterogeneous patterns (lower images and graphs). Heterogeneous and homogeneous showed the same infarct size (left images), but heterogeneous pattern showed an increased range of ADC coefficients

(right). **b** Lesion size: homogeneous pMCAO, heterogeneous pMCAO and sham groups. For the same interval after stroke induction, lesion size was the same in rats with pMCAO and different ADC patterns. **c** Functional outcome in homogeneous and heterogeneous ADC patterns: maintenance time (s) in Rotarod test is significantly superior in heterogeneous ADC patterns (left graph). No difference observed with Rogers test (right graph).

Same Lesion Size and Time after pMCAO: Homogeneous versus Heterogeneous ADC Infarct Pattern

At 24 h after pMCAO, the lesion size measured by T2-weighted MRI did not differ between groups (heterogeneous vs. homogeneous: 28.99 ± 2.27 vs. 29.55 ± 2.72 , $p = 0.418$). Sham animals showed no ischemic lesion (fig. 1a, b).

Better Functional Outcome in Heterogeneous ADC Pattern

Functional assessment was performed before the procedure and at 24 h. At baseline, Rogers modified scale was zero for all animals and the latency to fall in the Rotarod test was >120 s. Sham-operated animals did not show any functional deficit at 24 h. A better functional outcome was

observed at 24 h in animals with a heterogeneous ADC pattern when compared to animals with a homogeneous pattern regarding the latency to fall in the Rotarod test (110.37 ± 31.43 vs. 51.25 ± 30.87 , $p = 0.032$). No significant differences were observed in the Rogers test (3.43 ± 0.48 vs. 3.57 ± 0.41 , $p = 0.158$) (fig. 1c).

Less Cell Death Expression after pMCAO in Heterogeneous ADC Pattern

Animals with a heterogeneous ADC pattern expressed significantly less TUNEL positive cells at 24 h, when compared to animals showing homogeneous ADC pattern (56.25 ± 13.75 vs. 170.5 ± 61.0 , $p = 0.014$) (fig. 2a). Sham-operated rats did not show TUNEL positive cells.

Brain Protection Associated Markers: Homogeneous versus Heterogeneous ADC Pattern

NOX-4 showed a significantly lower expression in animals with a heterogeneous intralesional ADC pattern when compared to homogeneous pattern (2.1 ± 0.367 vs. 4.693 ± 1.31 , $p = 0.0063$) (fig. 2b, c). The levels of SOD2 at 24 h were significantly higher in animals with a heterogeneous intralesional ADC type when compared to animals with a homogeneous pattern (4.84 ± 1.049 vs. 2.906 ± 0.368 , $p = 0.0039$) (fig. 2b middle, c). At 24 h, the group with a heterogeneous intralesional ADC pattern showed a decreased expression of GFAP when compared to animals with a homogeneous pattern; however, the difference was not significant (2.52 ± 0.53 vs. 4.04 ± 0.71 , $p = 0.068$) (fig. 2b below, c).

Apparent Diffusion Coefficients and Tractographies: Homogeneous versus Heterogeneous ADC Pattern

Apparent diffusion coefficients differed significantly between the two ADC patterns and animals with a heterogeneous pattern showed higher values (844.87 ± 155.402 vs. 537.33 ± 61.15 , $p = 0.0013$). Furthermore, the lowest coefficient was observed in a homogeneous lesion and the highest value in a heterogeneous lesion. No heterogeneous lesion type was observed below 630. Additionally, the SEM of apparent diffusion coefficients was much larger in heterogeneous lesions (155.4 vs. 61.15) (fig. 3a). DWI tractographies showed also a more consistent preservation in the fiber reconstruction model of ischemic areas in the heterogeneous lesion type (fig. 3b).

Higher Intralesional Cerebral Blood Flow in Heterogeneous ADC Pattern

CBF inside ischemic lesions differed between the two patterns. Animals with a heterogeneous pattern showed

the higher values for CBF if compared to animals with homogeneous ADC patterns (79.66 ± 32.2 vs. 55.43 ± 16.0 , $p = 0.0026$). The lowest value was observed in a homogeneous lesion (14 ml/100 g/min) and the highest in a heterogeneous lesion (218 ml/100 g/min) (fig. 3c).

Larger PWI/DWI Mismatch in Heterogeneous ADC Pattern

We calculated the PWI/DWI mismatch using the standard volumetric model (mismatch = %PWI – %DWI volume) measured in each slice that showed the lesion and selected the slice that had the largest lesion size. The observed mismatch was higher in the heterogeneous pattern when compared to animals with homogeneous lesions (7.72 ± 1.94 vs. 2.35 ± 1.45 , $p = 0.007$) (fig. 3d).

Discussion

We used a rodent model of pMCAO and identified distinct intralesional patterns in MRI ADC maps that were associated with different functional outcome in lesions of similar size and the same ischemic duration. Animals with heterogeneous patterns in ADC maps showed a better outcome after acute ischemic infarction when compared to animals with the homogeneous type. Intralesional heterogeneity was also related to less expression of cell death and markers of brain tissue protection. When assessing PWI/DWI mismatch, heterogeneous lesions showed a larger mismatch, purportedly related to a higher probability of recovery of ischemic penumbra and without progression to definitive infarction [4–6].

Clinical studies demonstrated inconsistency regarding prognosis in patients with lesions of the same size, arterial territory and time after symptoms onset including complete MCA occlusion [7–9]. Several explanations for this diversity in functional outcome have been brought forward and include individual variability in collateral circulation, preconditioning, and microcirculation response after ischemic insult [10, 11]. However, the relation between heterogeneous patterns in ADC maps and functional outcome has not yet been addressed in the clinical setting. In our experimental model, rats with the same lesion size, territory, and time after ischemic induction, showed also that kind of diversity, with the heterogeneous pattern of ADC maps presenting a better functional outcome. Consequently, patterns of ADC maps indicated different functional prognoses. As MRI DWI sequences better reflect anatomical tissue structure [12], they can be considered a bridge between basic science and

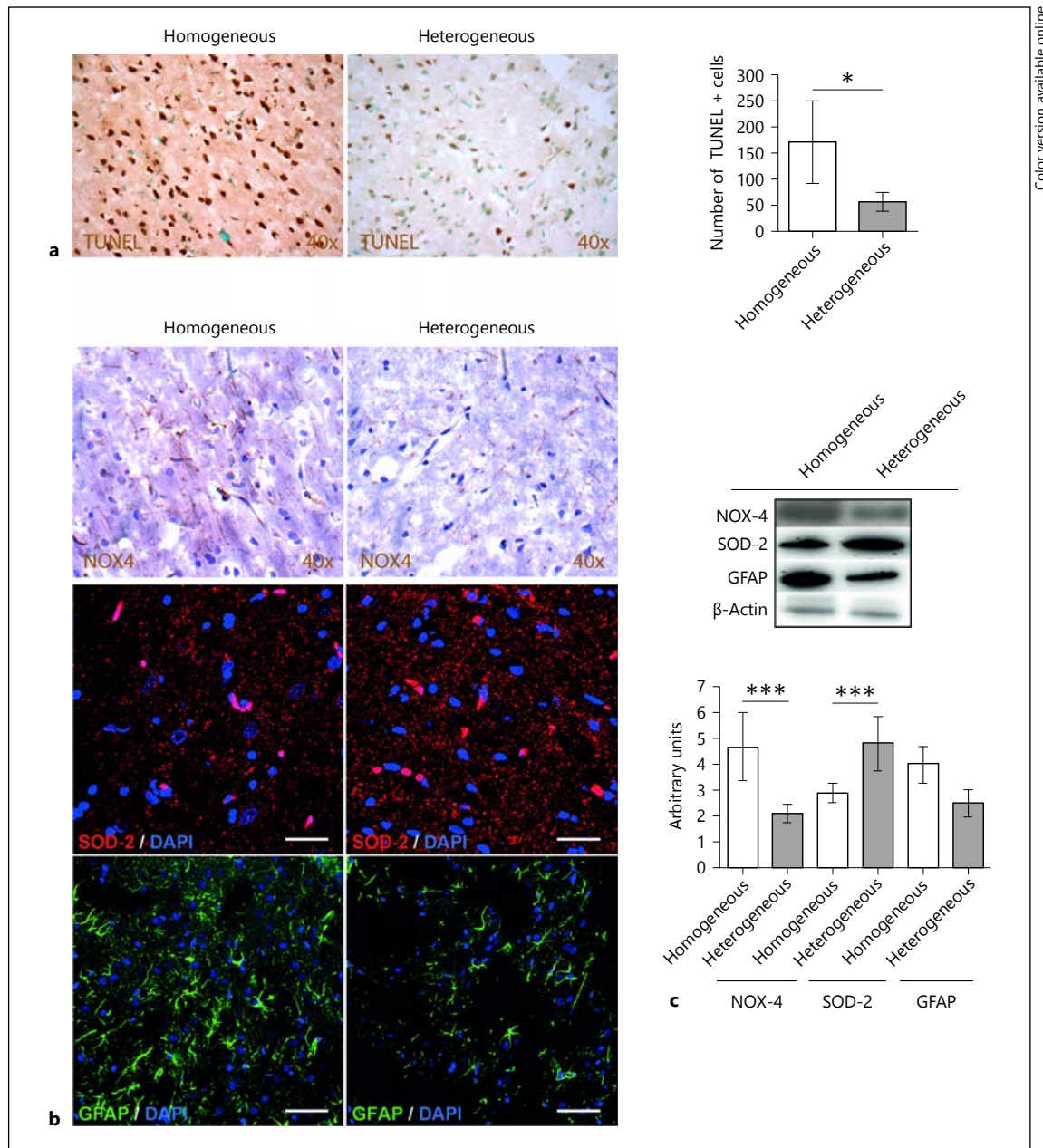


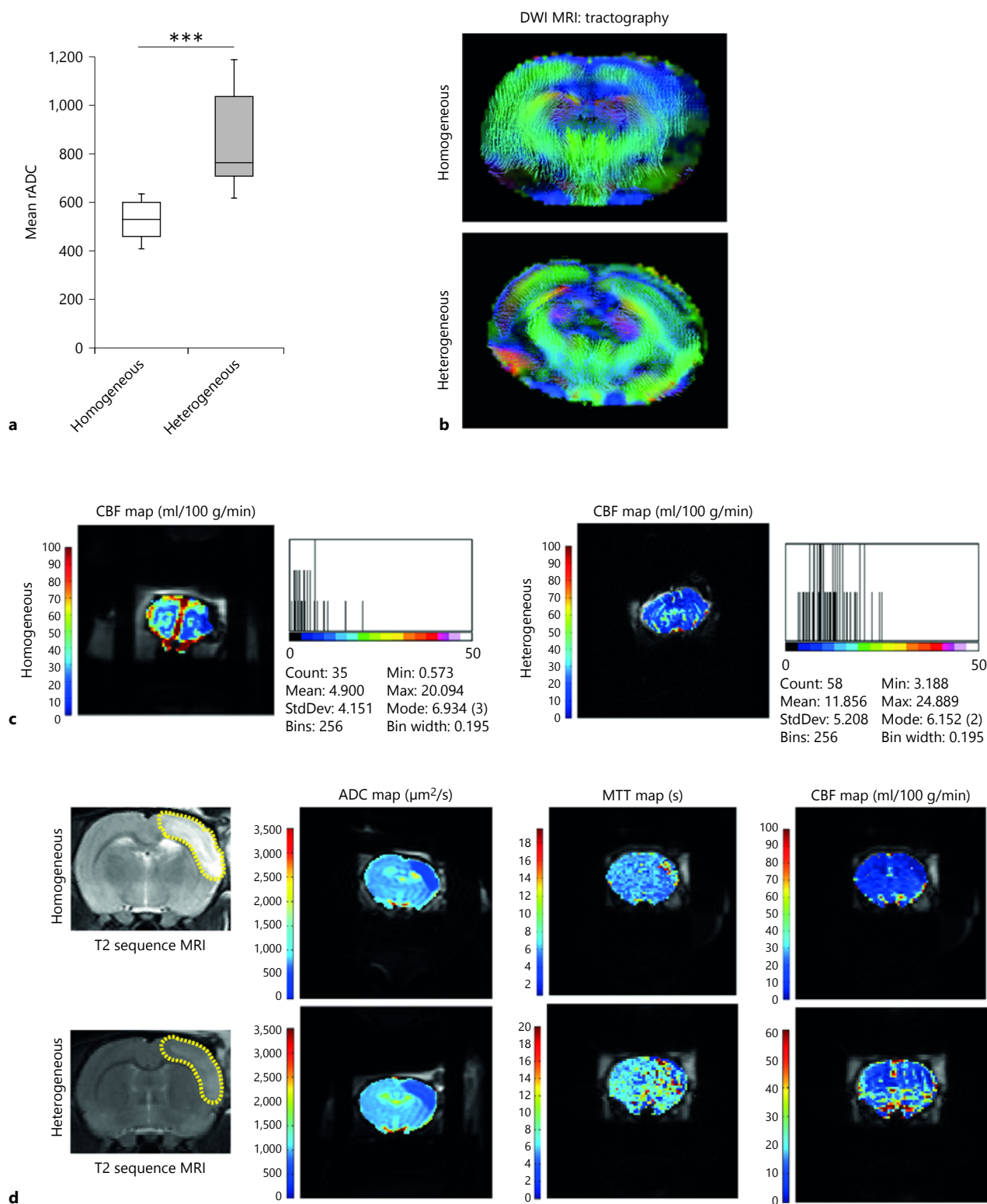
Fig. 2. Cell death and immunohistochemical markers at 24 h after pMCAO in two different intralesional patterns of MRI ADC maps. **a** Cell death evaluation by TUNEL: less cell death was observed in heterogeneous ADC pattern. **b** Immunohistochemical of NOX-4, SOD-2 and GFAP markers at 24 h after pMCAO. Less expression of NOX-4 was observed in the animals showing heterogeneous

pattern (upper images). Less expression of SOD-2 was observed in animals showing homogeneous pattern (middle images). Lower levels of GFAP were observed in animals with heterogeneous patterns (lower images). **c** Western blot quantification of NOX-4, SOD-2 and GFAP markers at 24 h after pMCAO.

Fig. 3. DWI and PWI MRI of homogeneous and heterogeneous ADC map patterns. **a** Mean relative apparent diffusion coefficients of homogeneous and heterogeneous lesion type: clustering of rADC values in two different patterns, with no heterogeneous lesion type below 630. Heterogeneous lesions showed significantly increased mean rADC values. **b** Tractography. Homogeneous pattern of intralesional ADC maps (upper image) showing more fiber

disruption in MCA territory than heterogeneous pattern (lower image). **c** Perfusion MRI after pMCAO: Homogeneous and heterogeneous patterns. Homogeneous pattern showed less intralesional CBF (left image and graph) than heterogeneous pattern (right image and graph). **d** PWI/DWI mismatch. Homogeneous ADC patterns (upper images) showed less mismatch area when compared to heterogeneous type (lower images).

(For figure see next page.)



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clinical assessment through high resolution anatomical delineation of disease at an ionic and molecular level [13]. As our findings support improved preservation of the intralesional region when ADC maps show a heterogeneous pattern in lesions of MCA territory and higher diffusion coefficients that represent a surrogate measure of better anatomical tissue preservation, a reduced risk of definite infarction can be assumed.

The introduction of mismatch measurement as inclusion criteria for reperfusion in clinical trials included significant differences in the definition of mismatch and a rather arbitrary volumetric difference of 20% between PWI and DWI that still lacks validation as a threshold for stratifying patients or as a surrogate measure of penumbra [5, 13]. PWI also requires contrast administration and time-consuming processing, losing valuable time before reperfusion [14, 15]. In this study, we were able to show that the interpretation of distinct intralesional MRI DWI ADC patterns in lesions of the same size might offer similar pretreatment information.

We also observed that animals with heterogeneous intralesional ADC patterns showed higher CBF with larger variations inside the ischemic lesion, along with enhanced functional outcome. Additionally, tractographies showed better fiber preservation in the heterogeneous type. In the clinical setting, tractography has also been used to show structural integrity of the corticospinal tract and was related to recovery [16, 17].

As outlined earlier, DWI is the MRI sequence that more consistently reflects ionic and molecular tissue changes since the effect in the Brownian movement of water molecules is changed in the presence of abnormal anatomical features [18]. In previous studies, our group described gene expression associated with trophic factors and CNS development within the lesion core at 24 h after pMCAO, suggesting the existence of surviving areas inside the ischemic core [19]. Our findings support the argument that the central region of the ischemic territory is not inexorably dead or irreversibly damaged. In this study, we could show differences in the expression of cell death related to different patterns in ADC maps with significantly less expression in the group with a heterogeneous pattern. The present data further emphasize our previous findings and show additionally a relation between ADC patterns and tissue preservation that requires further exploration.

Oxidative stress causes tissue damage after acute brain ischemia with overexpression of ROS above physiological levels [20, 21]. We analyzed the expression of major ROS producing enzyme NOX-4 in both groups of ADC pat-

terns and observed significantly reduced expression of NOX-4 in the heterogeneous pattern. We also found a higher expression of SOD2, a major scavenger of mitochondrial superoxide, in the group with a heterogeneous ADC pattern. SOD2 is synthesized after brain infarction and tissue levels are generally related to lesion size. However, since we compare lesions with equal size, higher expression of SOD2, together with less expression of ROS producing enzyme NOX-4, is indicative of less use of SOD2 for neutralization of mitochondrial superoxide [22] and, consequently, less oxidative stress and definite brain lesion in the heterogeneous type. Additionally, we observed a smaller expression of GFAP in the group with a heterogeneous pattern, albeit not significant. Since after an acute brain lesion, astrocytes occupy the empty space left by phagocytosis in order to maintain tissue structure, reactive gliosis is part of the healing process being massive gliosis related to worse outcome [23]. Consequently, the reduced expression of GFAP in animals with the heterogeneous pattern may indicate a reduced ischemic injury.

Although not addressing early reperfusion directly, we observed a DWI MRI pattern that distinguishes functional outcome. We observed increased PWI/DWI mismatch in ischemic MCA lesions with a heterogeneous pattern indicating a higher potential for reversibility in these animals. On the other hand, in animals with a homogeneous pattern, CBF was reduced and eventually it reached a value as low as 6–15 ml/100 g/min. Despite the variability in CBF thresholds in different brain locations or age groups, levels as low as 6–15 ml/100 g/min correspond to thresholds of biochemical biomarkers of protein synthesis inhibition, preference for aerobic glycolysis, neurotransmitter release, impaired energy metabolism and terminal depolarization with potassium influx. We also observed coherence in our data concerning functional outcome and biochemical markers (with less expression of cell death and less expression of ROS markers) favoring the group with a heterogeneous pattern. Possibly, the homogeneous ADC pattern indicates irreversible brain damage where reperfusion might be futile or even dangerous. However, research in the clinical setting is necessary to confirm our experimental data and validate the usefulness of intralesional ADC patterns to predict outcome and identify patients that may benefit from reperfusion.

Finally, it would be desirable to identify a quantitative threshold that easily distinguishes heterogeneous from homogeneous patterns and consequently subjects with a high potential for recovery from subjects with an increased risk for irreversible infarction. In our study, no heterogeneous samples were observed below 630 and

only a single homogeneous sample showed an ADC value above this threshold (643). If confirmed in the clinical context, the determination of a similar threshold may prove useful in identifying patients with irreversible ischemia without indication for thrombolysis. In this context, the results of this study represent a promising tool in pre-treatment decisions in the acute stroke setting.

Study Limitations and Potential Bias

As shown by our experimental data in a pMCAO model of ischemic stroke, the heterogeneity in the coefficients of apparent diffusion inside the ischemic lesion represents areas with a different potential for recovery. Nevertheless, there is significant variability in ADC values depending on MRI apparatus, coil systems, imagers, or employed field strengths that should be taken into account when analyzing data from different MRI equipment. We used relative ADC values because they are more suitable for evaluating diffusion abnormalities than absolute values.

We used a model of permanent MCAO with high reproducibility confirmed by equal lesion size in both the heterogeneous and homogeneous groups and interval after stroke onset was controlled for. However, our experimental model did not include vascular risk factors, older age, or the female gender. Also, variability in preconditioning, individual variability in collateral circulation, or intracranial pressure variations that may interfere with microcirculation are difficult to assess in an experimental model and may have impact on results.

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Conclusions

Intralesional patterns of MRI ADC maps in an experimental model of ischemic stroke can be categorized in heterogeneous and homogeneous patterns. Animals with the same infarct size and interval after ischemia but a heterogeneous intralesional ADC pattern showed better functional outcome, higher expression of brain protection markers, and less expression of cell death. Animals with a homogeneous pattern showed a smaller PWI/DWI mismatch, indicating a reduced potential for recovery from ischemic penumbra and an increased risk for progression to definitive infarction. Applied to the clinical setting, early identification of tissue fate after ischemic stroke through DWI ADC map patterns may assist in acute therapeutic decisions.

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Disclosure Statement

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Cerebrovascular Diseases

Protective effect of hydrogen sulfide exposure after experimental ischemic stroke: smaller infarct size, better functional outcome, and reduced oxidative stress

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Complete List of Authors:	<p>Henriques, Isabel; La Paz University Hospital, Neuroscience Area of IdiPAZ (Health Research Institute), Autónoma University of Madrid, Department of Neurology and Stroke Centre, Neuroscience and Cerebrovascular Research Laboratory; University of Lisbon, Faculty of Medicine</p> <p>Gutiérrez-Fernández, María; La Paz University Hospital, Neuroscience Area of IdiPAZ (Health Research Institute), Autónoma University of Madrid, Department of Neurology and Stroke Centre, Neuroscience and Cerebrovascular Research Laboratory</p> <p>Rodríguez-Frutos, Berta; La Paz University Hospital, Neuroscience Area of IdiPAZ (Health Research Institute), Autónoma University of Madrid, Department of Neurology and Stroke Centre, Neuroscience and Cerebrovascular Research Laboratory</p> <p>Ramos-Cejudo, Jaime; La Paz University Hospital, Neuroscience Area of IdiPAZ (Health Research Institute), Autónoma University of Madrid, Department of Neurology and Stroke Centre, Neuroscience and Cerebrovascular Research Laboratory</p> <p>Otero-Ortega, Laura; La Paz University Hospital, Neuroscience Area of IdiPAZ (Health Research Institute), Autónoma University of Madrid, Department of Neurology and Stroke Centre, Neuroscience and Cerebrovascular Research Laboratory</p> <p>Navarro Hernanz, Teresa; Institute of Biomedical Research Alberto Sols, CSIC-UAM, Laboratory for Imaging and Spectroscopy by Magnetic Resonance LISMAR</p> <p>Cerdán, Sebastián; Institute of Biomedical Research Alberto Sols, CSIC-UAM, Laboratory for Imaging and Spectroscopy by Magnetic Resonance LISMAR</p> <p>Ferro, Jose M.; Hospital Santa Maria, Servicio de Neurología</p> <p>Díez-Tejedor, Exuperio; La Paz University Hospital, Neuroscience Area of IdiPAZ (Health Research Institute), Autónoma University of Madrid, Department of Neurology and Stroke Centre, Neuroscience and Cerebrovascular Research Laboratory</p>
Keywords:	MRI, experimental stroke, animal models, oxidative stress

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Protective effect of hydrogen sulfide exposure after experimental ischemic stroke: smaller infarct size, better functional outcome, and reduced oxidative stress

10 Isabel Henriques, MD^{1, 2, 3}, María Gutiérrez-Fernández¹ PhD, Berta Rodríguez-Frutos¹
11 PhD, Jaime Ramos-Cejudo¹ MSc, Laura Otero-Ortega¹ PhD, Teresa Navarro Hernanz⁴
12 PhD, Sebastián Cerdán⁴ PhD, José Ferro⁵ MD, PhD & Exuperio Díez-Tejedor¹ MD, PhD
13
14
15

16 ¹*Department of Neurology and Stroke Centre, Neuroscience and Cerebrovascular Research Laboratory,*
17 *La Paz University Hospital, Neuroscience Area of IdiPAZ (Health Research Institute), Autónoma*
18 *University of Madrid, Paseo de la Castellana 261, 28046 Madrid, Spain*
19
20
21

22 ²*Faculty of Medicine, University of Lisbon, Av. Professor Egas Moniz, 1649-028 Lisbon, Portugal and*
23 *Serviço de Neurologia, Centro Hospitalar de Lisboa Zona Central, Avenida Santo António dos Capuchos,*
24 *1169-050 Lisboa, Portugal*
25
26

27 ³*International Neuroscience Doctoral Programme, Champalimaud Neuroscience Programme,*
28 *Champalimaud Center for the Unknown, Avenida Brasília, 1400-038 Lisbon, Portugal*
29
30

31 ⁴*Laboratory for Imaging and Spectroscopy by Magnetic Resonance LISMAR, Institute of Biomedical*
32 *Research Alberto Sols, CSIC-UAM, Calle Arturo Duperier 4, 28029 Madrid, Spain*
33
34
35

36 ⁵*Department of Neurosciences, Hospital de Santa Maria, University of Lisbon, Av. Professor Egas Moniz,*
37 *1649-035 Lisbon, Portugal*
38
39
40
41

Corresponding authors

42 Isabel Lestro Henriques, MD, FESO

ilh.igc@gmail.com

43 *Serviço de Neurologia, Centro Hospitalar de Lisboa Zona Central, Avenida Santo António dos Capuchos,*
44 *1169-050 Lisboa, Portugal*
45
46
47

48 Prof. Exuperio Díez-Tejedor, MD, PhD, FAHA, FESO

exuperio.diez@salud.madrid.org

49 *Department of Neurology and Stroke Centre, La Paz University Hospital, Paseo de la Castellana 261,*
50 *28046 Madrid, Spain*
51
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55 **Keywords:** Hydrogen sulfide; H₂S; MRI; NOX-4; stroke; oxidative stress; ROS.
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ABSTRACT

Background: Hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) induces hypometabolism through mechanisms that include a dramatic reduction in oxygen consumption, local vasoregulation, and inhibition of cell death. Prolonged exposure to H₂S after experimental ischemic stroke modulates injury through induction of severe hypothermia but the mechanisms and effects of reduced exposure times remain to be further characterized.

Methods: In the present study, we used Sprague-Dawley rats in a model of permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion (pMCAO) and compared functional outcome, *in vivo* and *post-mortem* lesion size, diffusion and perfusion Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI), cell death, brain protection and repair-associated markers after short-term exposure to H₂S.

Results: We observed an improved functional outcome (24h and 14d, P<0.05), diminished infarct size (14d, P<0.01) and cell death (24h and 14d, P<0.05) in animals exposed to H₂S. Perfusion MRI revealed higher intralesional cerebral blood flow (P<0.05) while diffusion MRI showed intralesional heterogeneity compared to controls (P<0.05). In treated animals, expression of NOX-4 was lower at 24h and 14d, HSP-27 was lower at 24h, and SOD-2 and GFAP were lower at 14d (P<0.05).

Conclusions: Observed improvements in functional outcome, infarct size and cell death included processes involving modulation of reactive oxygen species and reduction of acute injury-related markers, without enhancement of repair-associated markers for vasculogenesis, angiogenesis, and synaptogenesis. Thus, H₂S possibly acts before the onset of irreversible ischemia and limits brain damage after stroke. In the future, H₂S donors may play a role in the context of acute stroke management in humans.

INTRODUCTION

There are exceptions in nature to the rule that lack of cerebral blood flow during a prolonged period inexorably leads to ischemia and irreversible brain damage. Two examples are cardiac arrest from extreme cold and hibernation. In both cases, survival is possible without permanent neurological damage despite of very little or no cerebral blood flow at all [1,2]. These examples show that severe brain damage may be prevented even in the absence of cerebral blood flow during long periods. The induction of a “hibernation-like” state in mice using the inorganic gas hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) suggested its potential in the context of acute ischemia [3,4].

H₂S is endogenously produced in different organs including the brain [5] and regulates oxygen consumption by competing with O₂ in binding to cytochrome C oxidase at the mitochondrial electron transport chain [3]. Data about the potential benefit of H₂S in the context of acute ischemic stroke is modest and conflicting. First reports showed no functional benefit [6], others demonstrated improvement in functional outcome and lesion size [7]. Data from ischemic heart and kidney experimental models showed protection after acute ischemia [8,9].

We hypothesized that inducing a reversible hypometabolic state after acute cerebral ischemia through administration of H₂S could limit acute ischemic brain damage. We investigated the effects of short-term H₂S exposure after permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion (pMCAO) by analyzing the functional outcome, infarct size, and markers of cytoprotection or repair. We completed the study with *in vivo* brain imaging

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3 by Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) as compared to *post-mortem*
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5 immunohistochemical data.
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10 11 12 **MATERIALS AND METHODS** 13

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16 Experiments were designed to minimize animal suffering in compliance with the
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18 ARRIVE criteria and our medical school's Ethical Committee for the Care and Use of
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20 Animals in Research (EU directives 86/609/CEE and 2003/65/CE). Researchers were
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22 blinded to group allocation after randomization. Male 8 - 12 week old Sprague-Dawley
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24 rats (250 to 320g) (Charles River[®], Spain) were randomly assigned to 3 groups: sham
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26 (craniotomy, n=13), control (craniotomy + pMCAO, n=23) and treated (craniotomy +
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28 pMCAO + exposure to 40 ppm H₂S, n=28). Rats were anesthetized with Sevoflurane
29
30 (CAM 2.5±0.3 volume %). We performed a small craniotomy above the rhinal fissure
31
32 over the branch of the right middle cerebral artery (MCA), exposing MCA and
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34 permanently ligated it with a 9-0 silk suture before its bifurcation. Then, both common
35
36 carotid arteries were temporarily occluded for 60min with a 6-0 silk suture lace as
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38 previously described [10,11]. Scar size and location were equal for all groups, animal
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40 cages had no information about group allocation, and codes were used in *post mortem*
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42 samples, in order to maintain blinded data collection and analysis. Body temperature
43
44 and glycemia were measured throughout procedures. Rats were sacrificed at 24h and
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51 14d after surgery.
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Gas mixtures

Treated animals were exposed during 24 min to H₂S, 3 hours after acute ischemia, breathing a mixture of atmosphere with H₂S [Gasin medical bottles, 40 ppm H₂S in nitrogen (N₂: 99.9%)] inside a closed box (9.5 x 20 x 10 cm = Volume 1,900 cm³). Control and sham animals breathed normal atmosphere in the same temperature and humidity conditions. We used rectal temperature before and after exposure as an indirect measure of induction of hypometabolism.

Ischemic lesion size

Lesion size was evaluated *in vivo* at 24h and 14d using T2-weighted sequence MRI and *post mortem* hematoxylin/eosin (H&E) stains, as previously described [10,11].

Magnetic Resonance Imaging

The extension of ischemic lesions was analyzed non-invasively after 24h (group sacrificed at 24h) and twice, after 24h and 14d (group sacrificed at 14d), using T2-weighted images. Observers were blinded to allocation groups. After contrast adjustment, the contours of the hemispheres were traced manually on each slice. Data analysis was performed using Image J software from NIH Image, slice-by-slice contouring at lesion site and in the contralateral hemisphere in the same location. Only lesions larger than 2mm x 2mm x 2mm were analyzed to minimize partial volume effects. We used JPG[®] region of interest (ROI) to measure infarct size. To correct for brain edema effect, lesion size was determined by an indirect method: infarct area = area of the intact contralateral hemisphere – area of the intact ipsilateral hemisphere.

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3 Lesion size was expressed as percentage of total ipsilateral hemisphere. Exclusion
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5 criteria were no measurable lesion on MRI, except for the sham group (n=3). T₂-
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7 weighted MRI at 24h was used as confirmation tool for successful ischemic lesion
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9 induction.
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13 Diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI) was obtained with 3 different directions defined by
14
15 read, phase, and slice encoding gradients, using a multishot spin-echo echo planar
16
17 imaging (EPI) sequence. We used the following acquisition conditions: diffusion gradient
18
19 duration: 3ms, diffusion gradient separation: 18ms, TR: 3000ms, TE: 35ms, FOV:
20
21 3.5cm, section thickness of 1.5mm with a 0.1mm gap, 5 axial slices, 3 b values with b
22
23 as measure of diffusion weighting (100, 400 and 1000 s/mm²), acquisition matrix = 128
24
25 × 128 corresponding to an in-plane resolution of 273 × 273 μm². The apparent diffusion
26
27 coefficient (ADC) was computed for each voxel using the exponential model according
28
29 to the expression: $S_b = S_0 e^{-b \cdot \text{ADC}}$, being S_b the signal intensity versus the b factor and S_0
30
31 the signal intensity versus b=0.
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39 MRI images were acquired on a 7 Tesla/16 cm Bruker Avance III system (Bruker
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41 Medical GmbH, Ettlingen, Germany) at the MR Imaging Facility (SIERMAC, CSIC/UAM,
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43 Madrid). Anesthesia was induced with isoflurane. Rats were monitored during MRI with
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45 a Biotrig physiological monitor (Bruker) depicting on-line the respiratory rate.
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49 Hematoxylin/eosin stains

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52 Lesion size was estimated with H&E staining which reveals an ischemic area as a well-
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54 defined pale region. Lesion size was expressed as the percentage of brain tissue
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56 affected by ischemia in the right hemisphere as evaluated on 10-μm-thick sections.
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3 Brains were sectioned at the optic chiasm and at the infundibular stalk. The resultant
4 brain block from between these two cuts was placed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 24 h
5 and 30% saccharose PBS buffer for 3 days. Optimal cutting temperature (OCT)
6 embedded samples were coronally sectioned in 10- μ m-thick slices. A digitized image
7 was made of these slices (Epson Perfection 1260 scanner, Suwa, Nagano, Japan) and
8 used to automatically measure the ischemic area (Image Pro plus 4.0, Media
9 Cybernetics, Rockville, MD, USA) [11].
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20 21 **Functional evaluation scales**

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24 Functional evaluation was performed using Rotarod and Rogers modified test, by a
25 blinded observer at baseline, 24h and at 14d after surgery. The latency to fall from a
26 rotator cylinder (accelerating at 4-40 rpm) was recorded. Motor function by Rogers test
27 was scored: 0, no deficit; 1, failure to extend contralateral forepaw fully; 2, decreased
28 grip of the contralateral forelimb while tail gently pulled; 3, spontaneous movement in all
29 directions, contralateral circling only if pulled by the tail; 4, circling or walking to the right;
30 5, walks only when stimulated; 6, unresponsive to stimulation; and 7, dead [10].
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42 **Cell death**

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45 Cell death was assessed by TUNEL staining (biotin-dUTP nick end-labeling mediated
46 by terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase; TdT-FragEL DNA Fragmentation Detection
47 Kit, Oncogene Research Products) following manufacturer's instructions. The number of
48 positive cells was counted using a 40 \times objective and image analysis software (Image-
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3 Pro Plus 4.1[®], Media Cybernetics). We maintained blind access to group allocation and
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5 samples were independently counted by two of the authors.
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8 9 **Immunohistochemistry, immunofluorescence and western blot**

10 11 **Immunohistochemistry**

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16 NOX-4: Pro-oxidant enzyme, NADPH oxidase 4 (NOX-4) primary polyclonal antibody
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18 anti-Nox-4 (1:1000, Abnova, Heidelberg, Germany) was incubated for one hour at room
19
20 temperature. The slides were then incubated with a secondary antibody (donkey anti-
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22 rabbit antibody diluted 1:50) conjugated with horseradish peroxidase (Chemicon
23
24 International, Temecula, CA, USA) and incubated with 3',3'-diaminobenzidine
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26 (Invitrogen).
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31 32 **Immunofluorescence**

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35 Serial coronal sections were cut at 10µm in a cryostat (Leica CM1950) and studied by
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37 immunofluorescence neural markers. Markers for neuronal nuclei (NeuN) (monoclonal
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39 antibody diluted 1:100, Millipore), astrocytes [glial fibrillary acid protein (GFAP)
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41 (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:400, Chemicon)], vascular growth [vascular endothelial
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43 growth factor (VEGF) marker (polyclonal antibody diluted 1:500, Millipore)],
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45 synaptogenesis [synaptophysin (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:200, Sigma - Aldrich)],
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47 superoxide dismutase 2 (SOD-2) (polyclonal antibody diluted 1:150, Abcam[®]), and heat
48
49 shock protein 27 (HSP-27) (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:200, Abcam[®]), followed by
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51 goat anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 488 and anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 594 (1: 750, Molecular
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53 Probes, Invitrogen) were used.
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3 All sections were mounted with H-1200 VectaShield mounting medium for fluorescence
4 with DAPI (ATOM). Samples were examined using a spectral confocal microscope
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6 Leica TCS SPE (Leica Microsystems, Heidelberg, Germany) and the confocal images
7
8 were analyzed using Leica software LAS AF, version 2.0.1 build 2043. The images were
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10 acquired at confocal maximum projection.
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16 **Western Blot**

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19 Brain proteins levels were measured in the infarct zone of animals (n=4 per group) and
20 its concentration was determined using a BCA protein assay kit (Pierce). Western-Blot
21 for NADPH oxidase 4 (NOX-4) (polyclonal antibody 1:2000, Abnova), SOD-2 (polyclonal
22 antibody diluted 1:5000, Abcam), HSP27 (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:1000, Abcam),
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24 GFAP (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:500, Millipore), VEGF (polyclonal antibody diluted
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26 1:500, Millipore) and synaptophysin (monoclonal antibody diluted 1:400, Sigma) were
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28 measured in all groups. The units were normalized based on B-actin levels (1:400,
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30 Sigma-Aldrich). To reduce methodological bias, at least three Western blots were
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32 performed for each animal.
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42 **Statistical analysis**

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45 Quantitative data is shown as mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM) presented as
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47 box and whiskers plot. As data followed a non-normal distribution in the Shapiro-Wilk
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49 test, the Mann–Whitney test was used to compare two samples and the Kruskal–Wallis
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51 test to compare more than two samples (SPSS 16 for Windows®). Values of $p < 0.05$
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53 were considered significant at a 95% confidence level. Power analysis showed that with
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55 non-parametric testing randomization of at least 18 animals to each group (exposed or
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3 control) would yield an effect size d of 1.0 with a power of 0.80 (beta-value 0.20) and an
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5 alpha-value of 0.05. We used G*Power (Version 3.1.9.2) for power analysis
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8 calculations.
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10 11 12 **RESULTS**

13 14 15 **Functional outcome after exposure to hydrogen sulfide**

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17 We measured functional outcome before procedure, at 24h and 14d. At baseline,
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19 Rogers Modified Scale was zero for all animals and the latency to fall in the Rotarod test
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21 was >120 seconds. The sham-operated group showed no functional deficit at 24h or
22
23 14d. A better functional outcome was observed at 24h in animals exposed to H_2S
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25 compared to control group regarding Rogers Modified Scale (1.73 ± 0.23 vs. $3.29 \pm$
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27 0.18 , $P=0.001$) and Rotarod test (65 ± 5.97 , vs. 37 ± 7.14 , $P=0.03$). At 14d, the
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29 functional benefit observed in treated animals was sustained in both tests: Rogers
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31 Modified Scale (1.18 ± 0.17 vs. 1.82 ± 0.20 , $P=0.03$), and Rotarod (55.25 ± 5.17 vs.
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33 31.5 ± 7.79 , $P=0.04$) (Figure 1A).
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43 44 45 **Infarct size after exposure to hydrogen sulfide**

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47 At 24 hours after pMCAO, lesion size measured by T_2 -weighted MRI did not differ
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49 significantly between treated and control groups (9.69 ± 1.67 vs. 15.45 ± 1.06 , $P=0.054$).
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51 However, H&E stains showed a reduced infarct size in the treated group (6.69 ± 1.38 vs.
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53 23.20 ± 3.05 , $P=0.008$). At day 14, T_2 -weighted MRI and H&E showed smaller infarct size
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55 in treated compared to control rats (6.13 ± 0.62 vs. 11.56 ± 0.4 , $P=0.0004$ and 4.94 ± 0.92
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3 vs. 11.63 ± 1.99 , $P=0.002$, respectively). Sham operated rats showed no cerebral lesion.
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6 The largest lesion was observed in the control group (Figure 1B).
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9 **MRI heterogeneities in ischemic territory after exposure to hydrogen sulfide**

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12 In treated rats (rats exposed to H_2S), we observed heterogeneities inside the ischemic
13 MCA territory on MRI ADC maps at 24h (Figure 2D upper right image and graph).
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15 These heterogeneities were observed inside the ischemic territory, including central and
16
17 peripheral areas, presenting some central areas a higher diffusion coefficient than
18
19 peripheral ones. In animals treated with H_2S , the relative ADC (rADC) coefficients were
20
21 similar in central and peripheral areas (Figure 2D lower left images and graph). Finally,
22
23 using perfusion MRI, the differential CBF between the lesion side and contralateral
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25 hemisphere was lower in treated rats ($P<0.05$) (Figure 2D, lower right image and right
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27 graph).
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35 **Cell death after exposure to hydrogen sulfide**

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38 Treated rats showed significantly less TUNEL positive cells, both at 24h (367.5 ± 78.03
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40 vs. 901.25 ± 217.45 $P=0.047$) and 14d (42.7 ± 7.76 vs. 53.71 ± 6.75 $P=0.04$) (Figure
41
42 2A, Figure 3A) in comparison to controls. No sham operated rats showed TUNEL
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44 positive cells.
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Exposure to hydrogen sulfide does not increase brain repair but enhances markers associated with brain protection

At day 14, the group treated with H₂S showed no increase in expression of VEGF (0.75 ± 0.22 vs. 0.79 ± 0.18 $P=0.88$) or synaptophysin (1.40 ± 0.39 vs. 1.29 ± 0.30 $p=0.50$) compared to control group (Figure 3B and C). GFAP showed significantly lower levels at day 14 in treated animals compared to control (0.36 ± 0.16 vs. 0.77 ± 0.43 , $P=0.027$). The levels of SOD2 at day 14 were lower than in the control group (0.66 ± 0.06 vs. 1.07 ± 0.14 , $P=0.05$) (Figure 3B and C), but not at 24h (0.788 ± 0.13 vs. 0.90 ± 0.3 $P=0.11$) (Figure 2B and C). The levels of NOX-4 were lower in treated rats compared to the control group at 24h (0.50 ± 0.12 vs. 1.11 ± 0.28 $P=0.03$) (Figure 2A and C) and day 14 (0.47 ± 0.21 vs. 1.40 ± 0.46 $P=0.049$) (Figure 3A and C). HSP-27 levels were lower at 24h in treated rats compared to control animals (0.41 ± 0.12 vs. 0.81 ± 0.11 $P=0.49$) but not at day 14 (0.84 ± 0.51 vs. 1.056 ± 0.55 $P=0.24$) (Figure 2B and C, Figure 3B and C).

Physiological parameters

Glycemia was assessed immediately after starting the surgical procedure and during surgery in all animals and was similar in all groups. Body temperature was significantly lower after induction of anesthesia in all groups ($P<0.001$). After an exposure time to H₂S of 24 minutes, body temperature decreased by 1.85 °C (mean) but quickly recovered after animals started to breathe normal atmosphere again; no difference in body temperature was observed at 2 hours after exposure (Figure 4).

DISCUSSION

We report on the role of short-term exposure to H₂S in acute ischemic brain damage. Our results show that exposure to hydrogen sulfide after pMCAO improves functional outcome and decreases infarct size and cell death. The longitudinal study suggests that H₂S may act very early in the ischemic process, since there were lower levels of acute injury-related markers at 24h without enhancement of repair-associated markers for vasculogenesis, angiogenesis or synaptogenesis at day 14. Significant benefit is likely to occur before major tissue damage develops, including modulation of NOX-4, a major generator of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and mediator of endothelial dysfunction.

A main goal of acute stroke treatment is the improvement of functional outcome. In the present study, a better functional outcome in animals exposed to H₂S was observed at 24h and day 14. A similar benefit in functional outcome has been reported in studies that used H₂S in an ischemia-reperfusion model [12] and global brain [13], cardiac or kidney ischemia [14,15]. In our model, functional benefit from H₂S exposure was not limited to short term but sustained until day 14. Immunohistochemical and *in vivo* imaging data support this observation showing improved brain tissue preservation and smaller lesion size.

Previous data using a H₂S donor (NaHS) in an ischemic electrocauterization model did not show reduction in lesion size after NaHS [6]. Later, smaller infarct sizes were reported using longer H₂S exposure times, higher doses [7] or reversible MCAO models [12]. Our data show that lower dose and shorter exposure (40 ppm, during 24 min) are able to decrease infarct size after pMCAO. Despite of smaller infarcts at day 14 both *in*

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3 *vivo* and *post mortem*, at 24h differences between infarct sizes assessed by T2-
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5 weighted MRI were not significant, possibly due to acute post ischemic brain edema
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7 that increases lesion volume. However, H&E staining at 24h showed smaller lesion size
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9 in treated rats.
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13 Interestingly, MRI ADC maps at 24h in treated rats revealed heterogeneity, with spotty
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15 areas inside ischemic lesion and higher ADC coefficients, both in central and peripheral
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17 areas. We previously described gene expression associated with CNS development
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19 and trophic factors within lesion core at 24h after pMCAO, suggesting the presence of
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21 surviving areas within the ischemic core [16]. These heterogeneities, revealing different
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23 rates of water diffusion and underlying brain tissue integrity, may represent previously
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25 described "mini-cores and mini-penumbbras" [17]. As heterogeneity in ADC maps
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27 corresponded to better functional outcome as well as smaller lesions and better
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29 ischemic tissue preservation in treated rats, prognostic relevance of ADC
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31 heterogeneities may deserve further research in a translational context.
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39 Hypothermia, when not induced from external sources, is the result of hypometabolism
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41 and not the cause of metabolic changes. H₂S modulation in the context of acute stroke
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43 has been associated with induction of hypothermia, especially in protocols that included
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45 prolonged exposure times [7]. In our study, after an exposure time of 24 minutes, a
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47 mean decrease of 1.85°C in body temperature was observed. Body temperature fully
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49 recovered in less than 120 min (Figure 4). Consequently, hypothermia appears to be a
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51 limited side effect of hypometabolism induced by H₂S and other mechanisms must be
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53 involved since the effects of H₂S administration were observed until day 14. In the
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3 present study, a shorter exposure time than previously reported was effective with a
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5 minor effect on body temperature. This observation represents an important finding in a
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7 translational context since minor changes in body temperature will not require patient
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9 management in high-dependency or intensive care units.
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13 Previous *in vitro* studies have shown that the use of D-cysteine (a biosynthetic pathway
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15 for H₂S production) was associated with attenuation of ischemia-reperfusion injury in the
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17 kidney [15]. Also in a murine primary cortical neuron preparation ischemic neuronal
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19 death was prevented using a H₂S-releasing NMDA receptor antagonist [18].
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21 Additionally, rats pre-treated with diallyl sulfide showed a significant decrease in TUNEL
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23 positive cell count [12]. Our study confirmed that markers for cell death depict
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25 significantly less expression in treated animals.
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32 HSP27 is a stress-related protein known to be differentially expressed after stroke. We
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34 previously showed in a genomic study that several chaperones including HSP27 were
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36 upregulated at 24h, both in the core and peri-infarct areas [16]. Others reported that
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38 neuronal expression of another HSP (HSP70) was associated with ischemic penumbra
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40 and core, using a reporter mice model [19]. Interestingly, a study with reperfusion in
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42 cardiac ischemia showed that HSP27 expression was lower in H₂S-treated pigs [20]. In
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44 the present study, we observed less expression of HSP27 at 24h after pMCAO in rats
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46 exposed to H₂S, associated with tissue preservation, reflecting an additional indication
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48 of a possible protective role for H₂S.
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54 It is known that oxidative stress causes tissue damage in the context of acute brain
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56 ischemia with ROS expressed above physiological levels [21,22]. ROS downregulation
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3 after exposure to H₂S was reported in ischemia-reperfusion models, after hemorrhagic
4 shock [23], and during lung transplantation [24]. NOX-4 is a major source of oxidative
5 stress in ischemic stroke [21]. In our study, NOX-4 levels were lower at 24h and day 14
6 in treated rats. Thus, H₂S may modulate early ROS expression. GFAP levels were
7 lower in rats exposed to H₂S, suggesting that early protection may be related to
8 preservation of tissue structure and less glial scar, since we did not find increased levels
9 of repair-associated markers implicated in synaptogenesis, vasculogenesis or
10 angiogenesis at day 14.
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23 *Study limitations*

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27 We designed this study to fulfill the recommendations for research in translational
28 stroke. Animals were randomized and all procedures except surgery were performed in
29 a blinded manner to avoid observational bias regarding functional outcome, MRI image
30 evaluation, and in-bench procedures, by using codes not known to observers. Detailed
31 data is shown to facilitate reproducibility.
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40 Dosage of H₂S in the present study was the same in all animals and different dosages
41 might produce distinct effects on outcome. Due to budget limitations and the preliminary
42 nature of our study, we did not include female or older animals or animals with co-
43 morbidities in this study. In the setting of an experimental study using rodents, clinical
44 outcome was limited to assessment of motor skills. We used MRI at 24h as a
45 confirmation tool for successful pMCAO to avoid bias in results that could be attributable
46 to surgical failure. No conclusions regarding long-term results of H₂S exposure should
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3 be drawn as the study design focused on comparison of *in vivo* and *post mortem* data in
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5 the acute setting at 24h and after 14d.
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10 **CONCLUSIONS**

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14 In our pMCAO model of ischemic stroke, early exposure to hydrogen sulfide after focal
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16 brain ischemia improved functional outcome and decreased infarct size and cell death
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18 through processes that involve modulation of NOX-4, a major enzyme generator of
19
20 reactive oxygen species. Regarding brain imaging, perfusion MRI in rats exposed to
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22 H₂S revealed improved cerebral blood flow, while diffusion MRI showed spots of
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24 heterogeneity inside ischemic lesions in ADC maps, including central regions. H₂S
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26 probably acts very early after administration, since lower levels of acute injury-related
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28 markers were present at 24h, without enhancement of repair-associated markers for
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30 vasculogenesis, angiogenesis or synaptogenesis at day 14. Significant benefit is likely
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32 to occur before major tissue damage has taken place. In the future, H₂S donors may
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34 play a role in the context of acute stroke management in humans.
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10 **DISCLOSURE**

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14 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
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3 **Figure 1.** Rats exposed to H₂S after stroke show better functional outcome and smaller
4 lesion size. **A. Functional outcome.** Rats exposed to H₂S had significantly lower score
5 in Rogers scale (left) at 24h (**P<0.001) and at 14d (*P<0.05) (left graph) and more
6 latency to fall from the Rotarod at 24h (*P<0.05) and at 14d (*P<0.05) (right graph). **B.**
7 **Infarct size.** At 14d, rats exposed to H₂S had significantly smaller ischemic lesion size,
8 both in MRI (T2 weighted sequence) (left graph) (**P<0.001) and H&E stain (right
9 graph) (**P<0.01). At 24h, MRI showed a lower but non-significant difference in lesion
10 size, whereas H&E showed a significantly smaller ischemic lesion after H₂S exposure
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26 **Figure 2. Rats sacrificed at 24h.** At 24h rats exposed to H₂S after stroke show lower
27 expression of cell death and ROS producing enzyme NOX-4 with higher intralesional
28 perfusion. **A.** Rats exposed to H₂S show lower levels of cell death (*P<0.05) and NOX-4
29 (*P<0.05). **B.** Rats exposed to H₂S show lower levels of heat shock protein 27 (HSP 27)
30 (*P<0.05) and no differences in superoxide dismutase-2 (SOD-2) levels. **C.** Western-
31 blot of NOX-4, HSP27 and SOD2 at 24h. **D. MRI with DWI and PWI.** Rats exposed to
32 H₂S showed intralesional heterogeneities in ADC maps (right upper image and graph)
33 whereas control rats showed homogeneous ischemic lesions (left upper image and
34 graph). ADC maps in rats exposed to H₂S showed islands of ADC diffusion coefficient in
35 central lesion area, similar to ADC observed in peripheral areas (left lower images and
36 graph). For quantification, three manually designed Regions of Interest (ROIs) were
37 considered on ADC maps: ROI 1, ischemic central lesion area; ROI 2, peripheral lesion
38 area; ROI 3, contralateral hemisphere. Animals exposed to H₂S showed similar
39 differential ADC coefficients (rADC) in central and peripheral lesion areas and
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3 intralesional CBF was improved. The difference between intralesional and contralateral
4 hemisphere CBF (Δ CBF) was significantly smaller in comparison to controls (* $P < 0.05$)
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6 (right lower image and graph).
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11 **Figure 3. Rats sacrificed at 14d.** At day 14, rats exposed to H_2S expressed less cell
12 death and ROS producing enzyme NOX-4, without detectable enhancement of repair
13 mechanisms including angiogenesis, vasculogenesis or synaptogenesis. **A.** Cell death
14 (* $P < 0.05$) and NOX-4 levels (* $P < 0.05$) were significantly lower in rats exposed to H_2S . **B.**
15 Significant lower levels of SOD2 (* $P < 0.05$) and GFAP (* $P < 0.05$) in rats exposed to H_2S
16 with no differences in HSP27, VEGF or synaptophysin. **C.** Western-blot of NOX4,
17 SOD2, GFAP, HSP27, VEGF and synaptophysin.
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29 **Figure 4. Body temperature.** Rats exposed to H_2S (lower graph) and controls (upper
30 graph). No difference in body temperature was observed 2h after exposure to hydrogen
31 sulfide. Axis legend: Body temperature. Before: rectal temperature in rats before starting
32 surgery; After surgery: rectal temperature after surgery, before entering the box with
33 atmosphere or enriched with 40 ppm H_2S ; Out of Box: Rectal temperature after getting
34 out of the box, 24 minutes later; 1h after and 2h after: rectal temperature one and two
35 hours after exposure to H_2S . All rats showed significant differences in rectal
36 temperature before and after surgery (** $P < 0.001$). Rats exposed to H_2S showed a
37 significant decrease in body temperature after exposition (** $P < 0.001$) until one hour
38 (* $P < 0.05$). No difference in rectal temperature was observed 2h after exposure.
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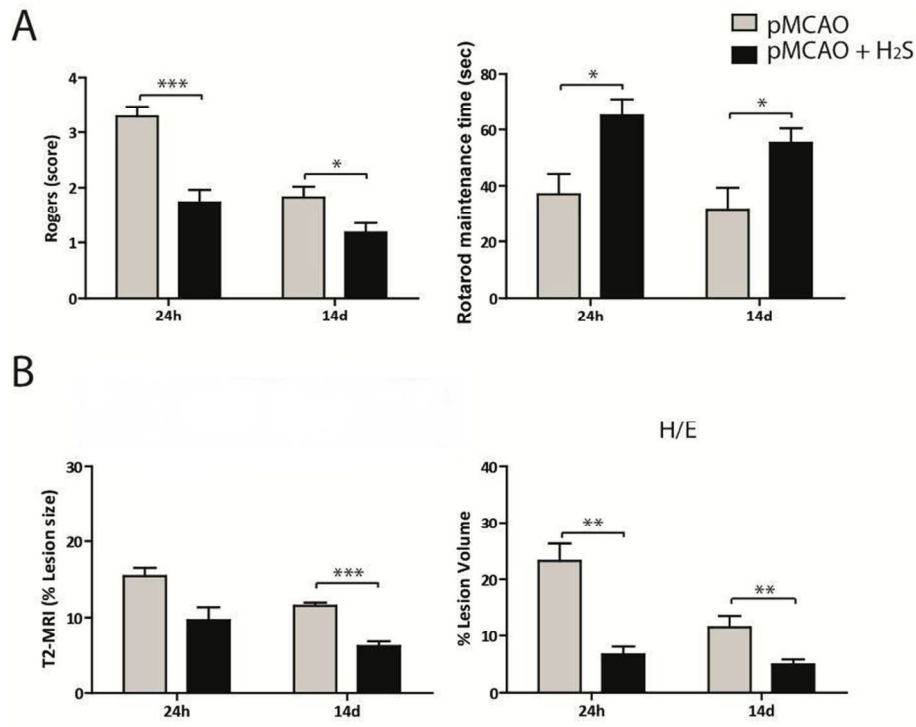


Figure 1
361x264mm (72 x 72 DPI)

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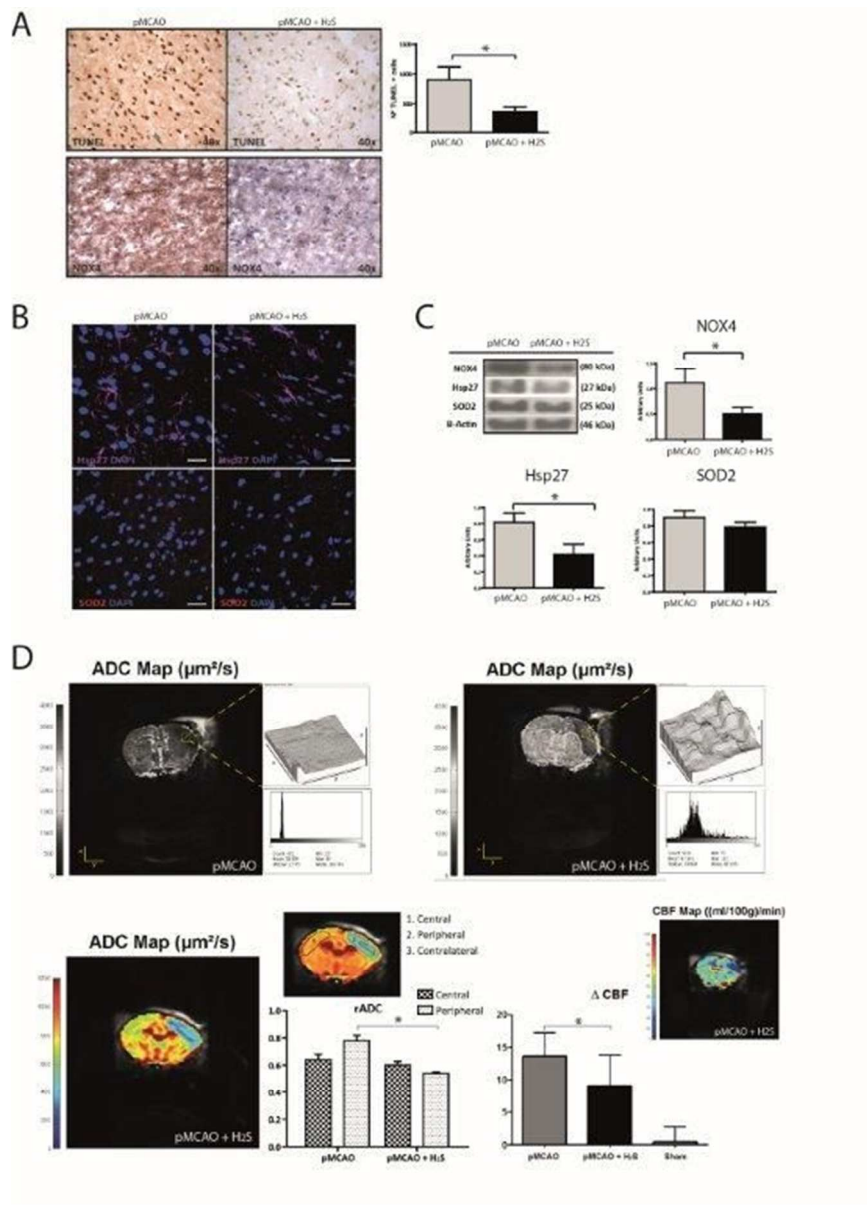


Figure 2
97x135mm (144 x 144 DPI)

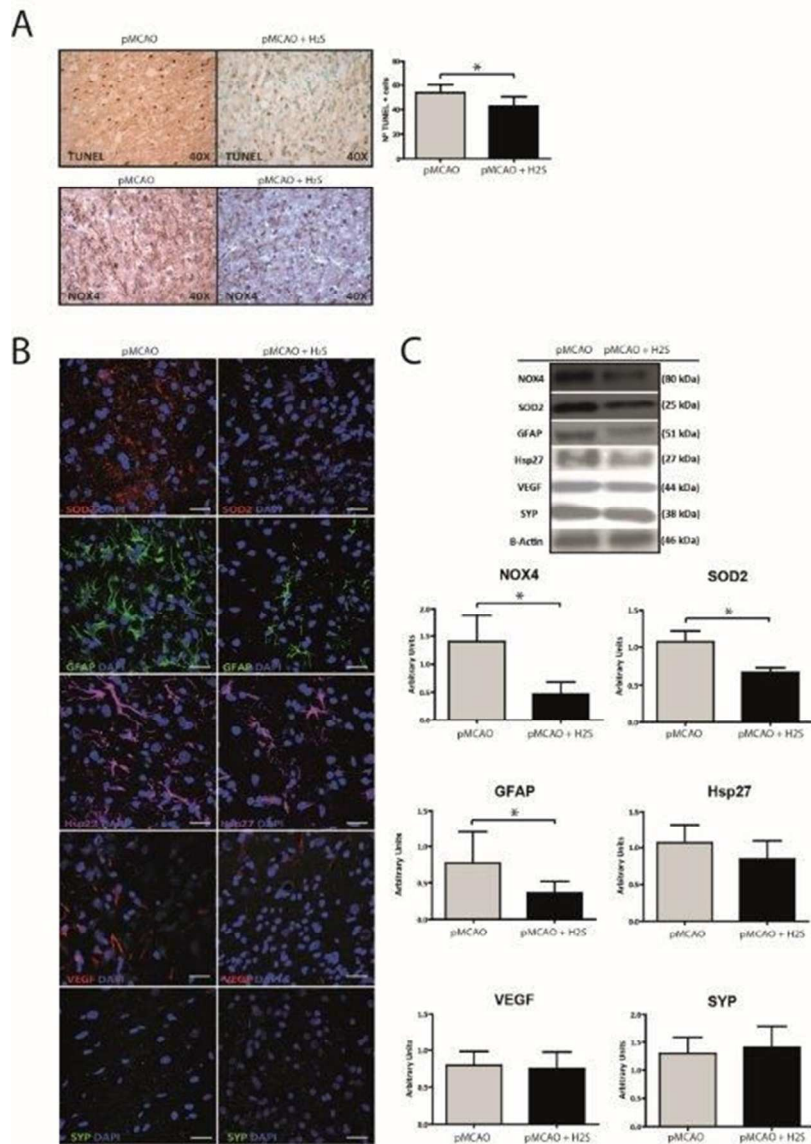


Figure 3
115x135mm (144 x 144 DPI)

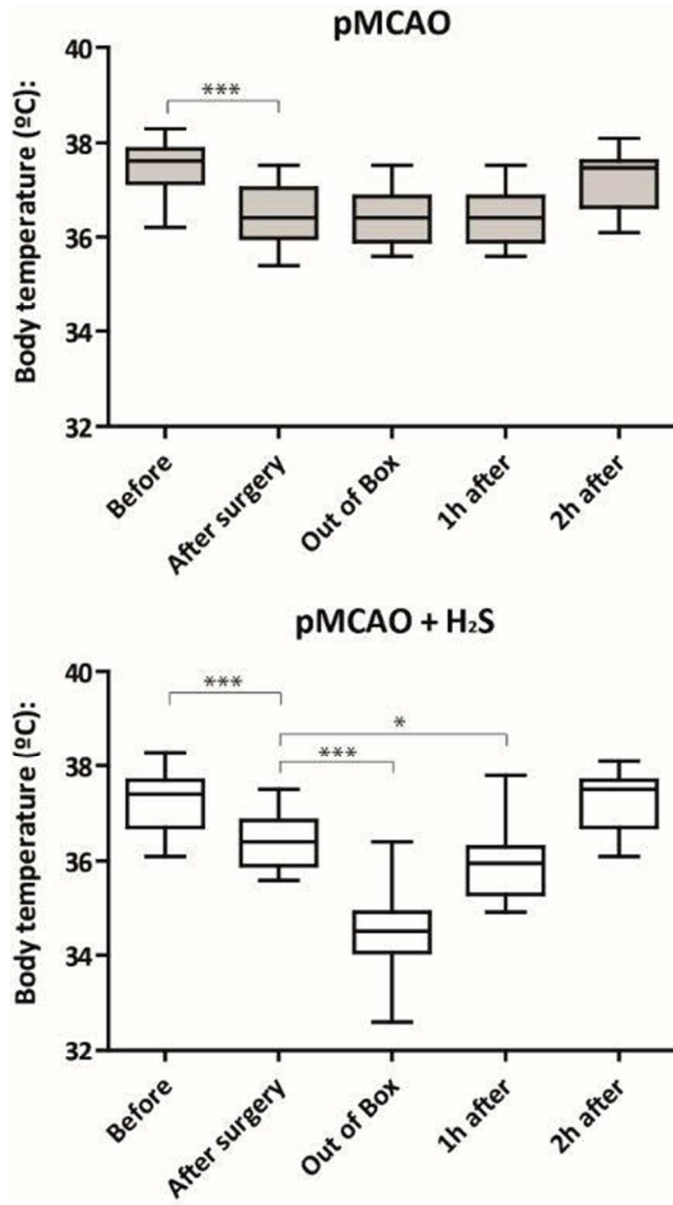


Figure 4
75x135mm (144 x 144 DPI)