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AGAINST GLYOXAL -INDUCED RENAL FIBROSIS IN  
EXPERIMENTAL RATS

Author: Mohammed Jainuddin Yousuf Elangovan  
Vellaichamy



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1 **PROTECTIVE ACTIVITY OF GALLIC ACID AGAINST GLYOXAL -INDUCED**  
2 **RENAL FIBROSIS IN EXPERIMENTAL RATS**

3 Mohammed Jainuddin Yousuf and Elangovan Vellaichamy\*

4 Department of Biochemistry, University of Madras, Guindy Campus, Chennai- 600 025,  
5 Tamil Nadu, India.

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17 **\*Corresponding Author:**

18 Dr. Elangovan Vellaichamy

19 Department of Biochemistry

20 University of Madras

21 Guindy Campus, Chennai, India- 600 025

22 Tel: +91-44-22202734

23 Email: [vellaie@gmail.com](mailto:vellaie@gmail.com), [vellaie@unom.ac.in](mailto:vellaie@unom.ac.in)

24 **First Author:**

25 Mr. Mohammed Jainuddin Yousuf

26 Department of Biochemistry

27 University of Madras

28 Guindy Campus, Chennai, India - 600 025

29 Email: [jainuddin.y@gmail.com](mailto:jainuddin.y@gmail.com)

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## 1 Abstract

2 This study was designed to evaluate the protective activity of gallic acid (GA) against  
3 glyoxal (GO) an advanced glycation intermediate-induced renal fibrosis in experimental rats.  
4 Glyoxal (i.p) at a dose of 15 mg/Kg body weight/day for 4 weeks induces renal fibrosis. GA was  
5 administered orally (100 mg/Kg body weight/day) along with GO for 4 weeks. The anti-fibrotic  
6 activity of GA was analyzed by measuring the collagen synthesis and deposition in renal tissues  
7 using mRNA expression analysis and Masson trichrome staining (MTS), respectively. The  
8 nephroprotective potential of GA was assessed by quantifying the markers of kidney damage  
9 such as serum blood-urea-nitrogen (BUN), creatinine (CR) and alkaline phosphatase (AP).  
10 Moreover, basement membrane damage in renal tissues was analysed by periodic acid Schiff's  
11 (PAS) staining. GA co-treatment markedly suppressed the GO-induced elevation in mRNA  
12 expression of collagen I and III, MMP-2, MMP-9 and NOX (p<0.05, respectively) genes as  
13 compared with GO alone infused rats. In addition, GA co-treatment significantly attenuated the  
14 GO -induced elevation in serum markers such as BUN, CR and AP levels (p<0.05, respectively).  
15 Furthermore, GA co-treatment restored back the decreased renal super oxide dismutase (SOD)  
16 activity (p<0.05) thereby assuage the reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation, and maintained  
17 the normal architecture of glomerulus. The present study clearly indicates that GO -induces renal  
18 fibrosis by enhancing GO/receptor of advanced glycation end product (RAGE) induced ROS  
19 generation and GA effectively counteracted GO-induced renal fibrosis by its ROS quenching and  
20 anti-glycation activity.

## 21 Keywords

22 Glycation, Glyoxal (GO), AGE intermediate, Gallic acid (GA), renal hypertrophy, Fibrosis.

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## 2 **1. Introduction**

3 Glyoxal (GO) is a well known physiological  $\alpha$ -oxoaldehyde, and is involved in the  
4 formation of advanced glycation end products (AGE) (Lange *et al.*, 2012).  $\alpha$ -oxoaldehydes are  
5 implicated as an important causative factor of renal dysfunction (Subramaniam *et al.*, 2012;  
6 Matsumura *et al.*, 2013). Studies have shown that the  $\alpha$ -oxoaldehydes are capable of interacting  
7 with membrane proteins, nucleotides, and phospholipids (Thornalley, 2008). Besides being a  
8 natural metabolite of glucose, GO can be formed by lipid peroxidation, nucleic acid oxidation  
9 and degradation of glycated proteins (Chetyrkin *et al.*, 2011; Turk, 2010). GO is also present in  
10 foods products, beverages and widely used in industrial chemicals (Arribas-Lorenzo and  
11 Morales, 2010). The reactive carbonyl group of GO can react with amino group of proteins to  
12 form covalent adducts known as AGEs (Singh *et al.*, 2014). It has been reported that the  
13 circulatory levels of  $\alpha$ -oxoaldehydes are increased in hyperglycemic patients due to an imbalance  
14 in the intracellular glucose metabolism (Ogawa *et al.*, 2010).

15 Irreversible forms of AGEs are capable of altering the structure and functions of  
16 membrane proteins as well as contractile proteins (Snow *et al.*, 2007). An increased circulatory  
17 and tissues levels of AGEs have been attributed to the secondary complication of diabetes (Peppia  
18 *et al.*, 2003). We have previously demonstrated that infusion of GO induces renal damage and  
19 modulates the redox potential in experimental rats, most likely via receptor for AGEs (RAGE)  
20 mediated pathway (Subramaniam *et al.*, 2012). *In vitro* studies have shown that, AGE-RAGE-  
21 ROS signaling contribute to the release of proinflammatory cytokines and growth factors that are  
22 implicated in the pathogenesis of diabetic complications (Liu *et al.*, 2009).

1 Recently studies have been initiated to identify molecules that are capable of suppressing  
2 AGEs formation and its secondary complication in diabetic patients (Thornalley, 2003).  
3 Aminoguanidine (AG) is a well-known synthetic inhibitor of AGEs formation, and it was  
4 reported to confer protection against AGE-mediated diabetic nephropathy (Ravelojaona *et al.*,  
5 2007). However, AG exhibits deleterious side-effects such as gastrointestinal disturbances and  
6 abnormalities in liver function besides its beneficial counteractions against AGEs (Thornalley,  
7 2003). At this juncture, natural products have generally been proven to be relatively safe for  
8 human consumption, as compared to synthetic compounds. There, has been an increasing interest  
9 in the use of natural plant compounds, as anti-glycating agents (Elosta *et al.*, 2012).

10 Experimental studies on natural polyphenols such as, naringenin and its glycosides,  
11 quercetin and epicatechin exhibit a significant anti-glycation property (Zhang *et al.*, 2014).  
12 Gallic acid (GA) (3,4,5-trihydroxybenzoic acid), a natural antioxidant, has been reported to  
13 confers free radical scavenging activity (Stanley *et al.*, 2009), anti- inflammatory (Kroes *et al.*,  
14 1992) anti-hyperglycemic properties (Bak *et al.*, 2013). Gallic acid was reported to contain three  
15 hydroxyl groups bonded to the aromatic ring in an ortho position exhibits the strongest free  
16 radical, scavenging activity (Sroka and Cisowski, 2003). The ortho substitution of hydroxyl  
17 groups to the aromatic ring is good for anti-oxidant and free radical scavenging activity of  
18 phenolic acids (Borde *et al.*, 2011). We have previously reported that GA effectively  
19 counteracted AGE-induced cell proliferation and oxidative stress in H9C2 (2-1) rat  
20 cardiomyocyte cells, (Subramaniam *et al.*, 2012). Hence, in the present study, we made an  
21 attempt to study the beneficial counter actions of GA against GO, an intermediate metabolite of  
22 AGEs induced renal fibrosis in experimental rats.

## 23 2. Materials and Methods

### 1 2.1. Animals

2 Experimental protocol pertaining the use of adult male Wistar rats weighing about 120 -  
3 150 g used in this study and has been approved by the Institutional Animal Ethics Committee.  
4 Animals were housed in plastic cages and kept at 25°C with 12:12 hour light: dark schedule. All  
5 animals were fed standard pellet diet (M/s. Hindustan Lever Ltd., Mumbai) and water *ad libitum*.

### 6 2.2. Drugs and Chemicals

7 **Glyoxal**, Bradford's reagent and GA was purchased from Sigma Aldrich (MO, USA). All  
8 the other chemicals used were of analytical grade.

### 9 2.3. Experimental Design

10 Animals are divided into four groups of 6 animals each. Group 1: Control group animals  
11 received a daily injection of saline during experimental period. Group 2: Animals received  
12 intraperitoneal injections of glyoxal (15 mg/kg BW/day) for 4 weeks (GO). Group 3: Animals  
13 receive an intraperitoneal injection of **GO (15 mg/kg BW/day) along** with oral administration of  
14 Gallic acid (100 mg/Kg BW/day) (GO+GA). Group 4: Animals received GA alone orally (100  
15 mg/Kg BW/day) during the experimental period.

### 16 2.4. Biochemical Analysis

17 After the experimental period the blood sample was collected and centrifuged at 1,500g  
18 for 10 min at 4°C. The clear supernatant was used for further serum biochemical investigations,  
19 Blood urea nitrogen (BUN) (Rahmatullah and Boyde, 1980), serum creatinine (CR) (Tietz, 1987)  
20 and serum alkaline phosphatase (AP) (Watanabe *et al.*, 1967). Kidney tissues were homogenized  
21 in Tris-HCl buffer (100 mM, pH 7.4) using Teflon homogenizer and centrifuged at 12,000g for  
22 30 min at 4°C. The supernatant obtained was used for further studies. Protein content of renal  
23 tissue extract was assessed by standard Bradford's method (Bradford, 1976). The total collagen

1 content was quantified by modified protocols of Bergman and Loxley (Bergman and Loxley,  
2 1970). Thiobarbituric acid reactive substance, an index of lipid peroxidation (LPO) was  
3 performed using protocols of Ohkawa *et al.*, (Ohkawa *et al.*, 1979). Superoxide dismutase (SOD)  
4 activity was determined using the methods of Kakkar *et al.*, (Kakkar *et al.*, 1984).

#### 5 2.5. *Histological Examinations*

6 Kidney tissue was fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde solution and embedded in paraffin wax.  
7 The sections obtained from kidney tissues were stained using hematoxylin and eosin (H&E)  
8 staining (Luna, 1968), Periodic acid Schiffs (PAS) staining (Thompson 1966) and Masson's  
9 trichrome staining (Luna, 1968) to observe the histological changes.

#### 10 2.6. *PCR analysis*

11 Total cellular RNA was isolated by Trizol method based upon the method developed by  
12 Chomczynski and Sacchi (2006). To remove genomic DNA contamination, RNA samples were  
13 treated with RNase-free DNase I at 37°C for 30 minutes. The integrity of RNA was visualized by  
14 distinct 28 S and 18 S bands in 1.5% agarose gel electrophoresis. PCR was performed using  
15 GeNei M-MuLV RT-PCR kit along with the primers listed in Table 1.

#### 16 2.7. *Gel activity assays*

17 The activity of MMPs was detected using gelatin zymography (Neely *et al.*, 1997).  
18 MMPs activity was visualized as clear distinct bands against blue background and was quantified  
19 by scanning densitometry. The antioxidant gel activity of SOD was determined by recommended  
20 protocols. Tissue extracts were separated in 10% native PAGE and the gel was stained in  
21 Riboflavin-NBT solution gives clear SOD bands against the blue-purple background of the gel  
22 (Beauchamp and Fridovich, 1971).

#### 23 2.8. *Immunostaining*

1           The tissue sections were dewaxed; rehydrated using series of alcohol and were incubated  
2 for antigen retrieval in citrate buffer (pH 6.0). Following antigen retrieval process, the sections  
3 were incubated with Goat polyclonal IgG RAGE, Rabbit polyclonal IgG MMP-2, MMP-9, and  
4 Mn-SOD (1:100 each) primary antibodies diluted in 1% BSA in PBS for 2 h at room  
5 temperature. The sections were washed in PBS and incubated with its specific secondary HRP  
6 conjugated antibody at a dilution 1:250 for 1 h at room temperature. The peroxidase activity was  
7 visualized by treating the slides with DAB and was counterstained using Meyer's hematoxylin.

### 8 *2.9. Immunoblot*

9           Proteins were separated using SDS-PAGE and transferred to PVDF membrane, the  
10 membrane was processed with Goat polyclonal IgG RAGE (1:1000), Rabbit polyclonal IgG  
11 MMP-2 (1:500), MMP-9 (1:500) primary antibodies followed by HRP-conjugated antibody  
12 (1:2500) and developed using DAB solution.

### 13 *2.10. Reactive Oxygen Species*

14           Kidney tissue samples were prepared for **dichlorodihydrofluorescein** (DCF) fluorescence  
15 according to previously described method (Montoliu *et al.*, 1994). Formation of  
16 **dichlorodihydrofluorescein** (DCF) was measured using a fluorometer with excitation and  
17 emission wavelengths of 488 nm and 525 nm respectively.

### 18 *2.11. Statistical Analysis*

19           Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Software (San Diego, CA). The  
20 results are presented as means  $\pm$  SEM. Statistical differences between groups were determined  
21 by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Students t test.

## 22 **3. Results**

### 23 *3.1. Physiological parameters*



1 Table.2. depicts the KW/BW ratio, which is an indicative of hypertrophic growth was  
2 increased (36%) significantly in GO infused rats as compared with control. Whereas, animals co-  
3 treated with gallic acid exhibits protection against GO- induced hypertrophy.

### 4 3.2. *Biochemical Parameters*

5 Table.3. shows the levels of Blood Urea Nitrogen, serum creatinine and serum alkaline  
6 phosphatase in control and experimental group of animals. Animals co-treated with gallic acid  
7 showed a significant decline ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the levels of serum biochemical markers as compared  
8 with GO alone treated rats. Animals received GA alone did not show any significant changes in  
9 the serum biochemical parameters as compared with that of the control animals.

### 10 3.3. *Morphology*

11 Figure.1. depicts the renal sections from control and experimental group of animals.  
12 Degenerating glomerulus and tubular epithelial cells were seen in GO treated animals indicated  
13 by arrows (panel b) However, animals co-treated with GA (panel c) showed a protection against  
14 glomerular damage as compared with the animals treated with GO alone. No significant change  
15 was observed in the gallic acid alone treated animals (plate d).

16 Collagen content was assessed by Masson's trichrome staining was shown in Figure.1 (f)  
17 depicts the collagen deposition in the kidney tissues of GO received animals. However, animals  
18 co-treated with GA (panel g) showed decrease in the collagen content in the renal tissue as  
19 compared with GO treated animals.

20 Periodic Acid Schiff's staining of the kidney tissue shows the thickening of the basement  
21 membrane was evidenced by an increase in the PAS stain in the tubular basement membrane,  
22 and in the glomerulus in GO group animals (panel j). However, a decrease in the PAS stain was  
23 observed in the GO+GA group of animal (panel k) in the degenerating tubules. No significant

1 changes in the glomerulus and tubules were observed in control and GA control group animals  
2 panel (i) and (l).

### 3 *3.4. Collagen content*

4 Figure.2 (A) depicts total collagen deposition in the kidney tissues of control and  
5 experimental group of animals. An increase in the collagen accumulation in the kidney tissues of  
6 GO group animals ( $p<0.01$ ) was observed as compared with control group animals. On the other  
7 hand, a significant decrease in the total collagen content was evidenced in the kidney tissues of  
8 GO+GA group animals ( $p<0.05$ ) as compared with GO treated animals. **No significant change**  
9 **was observed in the animals treated with GA alone.**

10 Figure.2 (B) explains the mRNA expression profile of collagen I and collagen III gene in  
11 the kidney tissues of control and experimental group of animals. It was evidenced that an  
12 increase in the expression of collagen I ( $p<0.01$ ) and collagen III ( $p<0.05$ ) gene in the GO group  
13 animals was observed as compared with control group animals. Animals co-treated with GA  
14 showed a marked reduction in the expression profile of collagen I and III genes. No significant  
15 change was observed in GA alone treated animals.

### 16 *3.5. Metalloproteinase accumulation*

17 Figure.3 (A) exhibits the gelatinase activity in the kidney tissues of control and  
18 experimental group animals. MMP-2 and -9 activity was observed to be increased in the GO  
19 treated animals ( $p<0.001$  and  $p<0.01$ ). However, animals co-treated with GA showed a  
20 significant reduction in the gelatinase activity in the renal tissue as compared with GO treated  
21 animals. No significant change was observed in the animals treated with GA alone.

22 Figure.3 (B) depicts the mRNA expression profile of MMP-2 and -9 genes in the kidney  
23 tissue of control and experimental group animals. GO treated animals showed increased mRNA

1 expression of MMP-2 and -9 ( $p < 0.01$ , respectively) as compared with control animals.  
2 Conversely, animals co-treated with GA showed a significant decrease in the expression levels of  
3 the MMP-2 and -9 ( $p < 0.05$ , respectively) in the kidney tissue as compared with GO treated  
4 animals.

### 5 *3.6. NADPH oxidase and ROS levels*

6 Figure.3 (C) depicts the mRNA expression levels of NOX in the kidney tissues of the  
7 experimental group of animals. GO group animals showed an increase in the expression levels of  
8 NOX ( $p < 0.01$ ) as compared with control animals. Animals co-treated with GA exhibited a  
9 significant reversion in the levels of NOX as compared with GO treated animals.

10 Figure. 3 (D) depicts the ROS generation in control and experimental group animals. GO  
11 treated animals showed an increase in the ROS generation in the renal tissue extract ( $p < 0.001$ ) as  
12 compared with control group animals. However, GA co-treated rats showed a significant  
13 reduction in the ROS generation as compared with GO alone treated rats.

### 14 *3.7. Immunostaining*

15 **Figure.4 shows** MMP-2 and MMP-9, RAGE and Mn SOD protein expression in the renal  
16 tissue sections of control and experimental group of rats. An increased expression of MMP-2  
17 and MMP-9 in the glomerulus (panel b and f) was observed in the animals treated with GO  
18 alone. However, there was comparatively decreased in the levels of MMP-2 and MMP-9 in the  
19 glomerulus (panel c and g) of the GO+GA group animals. The photograph of glomerulus from  
20 the control and GA control group animals showed no significant changes. RAGE serves as a  
21 gateway for AGEs to induce cellular damage (Wada and Yagihashi, 2005) was found to be  
22 increased in the GO administered group of animals Figure.4 (Panel j). The expression of RAGE  
23 was reduced in the GA co-treatment group of animals (Panel k) which shows that GA may

1 possess anti-AGEs property in renal injury. No change in the glomerulus was observed in the  
2 control and GA group animals. The immune expression of antioxidant enzymes superoxide  
3 dismutase was measured using immunostaining Figure.4 shows the detection of Mn-SOD  
4 activity in experimental group animals and it was observed that there was a decrease in the  
5 expression of MnSOD levels in GO alone administered group (Panel n) as compared with control  
6 group animals (Panel m) and animals receives GO along with GA reveals decreased levels of  
7 MnSOD in the kidney tissue (Panel o) which explains that natural bioflavanoid GA might be an  
8 alternate source in delaying renal injury caused by food derived glycotoxins.

### 9 *3.8. Immunoblotting*

10 Figure.5 depicts the protein expression of MMP-2, MMP-9 and RAGE inn control and  
11 experimental group animals. An increase in the levels of MMP-2 ( $p<0.01$ ), MMP-9 ( $p<0.05$ ) and  
12 RAGE ( $p<0.01$ ) was observed in the renal tissues of GO treated animals, on the other hand  
13 animals receives GA along with GO showed a significant reversion of the MMP-2, MMP-9 and  
14 RAGE in the kidney tissues of experimental group animals. Animals receive GA alone showed  
15 no significant change as compared with the control group.

### 16 *3.9. Antioxidant status*

17 The results from the oxidative stress markers and the levels of antioxidant enzymes in the  
18 kidney tissue of experimental animals are represented in Figure.6. GO received animals induced  
19 an imbalance in the redox status, with increased levels of **thiobarbituric acid reactive substances**  
20 (TBARS) ( $p<0.01$ ) and declining activities of SOD ( $p<0.01$ ) was found as compared to the  
21 control animals; whereas, animals received GA express a reversion in the LPO and SOD levels  
22 as compared with the GO group. Figure.6 (C) shows the detection of Mn-SOD gel activity in  
23 renal tissue homogenate of the experimental animals. SOD activity was significantly decreased

1 in GO infused animal kidney tissue ( $p < 0.01$ ). However, animals receive GO along with GA has a  
2 remarkable increase in the levels of SOD as compared with that of the GO group ( $p < 0.05$ ).

#### 3 **4. Discussion**

4 The results of the present study demonstrated that GO an intermediate metabolite of  
5 AGEs induces renal fibrosis and that the natural antioxidant GA effectively attenuated the GO-  
6 induced renal fibrosis probably by attenuating the GO-induced ROS generation in the kidney  
7 tissues of experimental rats.

8 The kidneys are the vital organs of circulatory system that are responsible for maintaining  
9 the electrolyte balance in the blood and removing the toxic materials from the blood. In the  
10 present study, glyoxal treated animals showed a loss of body weight (Table. 2) and renal  
11 hypertrophy (36%). AGEs and its intermediate glyoxal are considered as uremic toxins. These  
12 reactive molecules reported to accumulate in the tubular epithelial cells and mesangium of the  
13 kidneys, and induce glomerular damage (Sebekova *et al.*, 2001; Greven *et al.*, 2005;  
14 Nematbakhsh *et al.*, 2012). It has been shown previously that, morphological changes in the  
15 kidney may reflect the renal hypertrophy and chronic progressive nephropathy (Greaves, 2000).  
16 Hence, the observed loss of body weight and increase in the kidney weight/body weight ratio in  
17 the glyoxal treated rats was probably due to glyoxal-induced renal injury.

18 Serum creatinine, and to a lesser extent blood urea, detects renal dysfunction in many  
19 circumstances (Baek *et al.*, 1975). Creatinine is found to be a reliable marker in renal injury. The  
20 kidneys maintain the levels of creatinine by clearing it out from the body and elevation in the  
21 levels of serum creatinine shows malfunction of kidneys. Similarly urea is also a metabolic  
22 byproduct which can build up in the plasma during renal insult. The BUN-to-creatinine ratio  
23 generally provides more information about kidney function (Lip *et al.*, 2013). In the present

1 study, GO-induced animals showed elevated levels of serum creatinine and BUN (Table. 2)  
2 ( $p<0.05$ ). In contrast, animals received GA along with GO showed significantly decreased  
3 ( $p<0.05$ ) levels of serum renal markers as compared to the GO treated animals. In addition,  
4 Alkaline phosphatase (ALP) was also elevated in the GO treated animals while GA treatment  
5 reverted back the elevated levels to near normal. ALP is a hydrolyze enzyme that  
6 dephosphorylates various molecules, most effectively operating in an alkaline environment.  
7 Pathologic conditions are most commonly associated with elevations in ALP (Eknoyan *et al.*,  
8 2003). In the present study, the elevated levels of ALP might be due to the poor detoxification of  
9 glyoxal leads to liver discomfort and thereby results in the elevation in the ALP. Combined  
10 together, these results clearly indicated the nephroprotective role of GA against the GO induced  
11 changes in kidney.

12 Diabetic nephropathy (DN) is characterized by enlargement of the glomerulus and  
13 tubules (Thomas *et al.*, 2005). Previous studies have shown that, AGEs were found to be  
14 deposited in tubular epithelial cells and in the glomerular mesangium of kidneys (Vlassara *et al.*,  
15 1994). It has been suggested that AGEs and its intermediates such as GO have the ability to  
16 cause cytotoxicity (Sliman *et al.*, 2010), altered cell morphology, (Thomas *et al.*, 2005, Shangari  
17 and O'Brien, 2004) and finally loss of cellular architecture in kidney tissues (Subramaniam *et*  
18 *al.*, 2012). The renal tissue sections from the glyoxal treated animals showed an increase in  
19 glomerular damage and basement membrane thickening. It explains the reason for the renal  
20 impairment in these rats. An increase in the accumulation of polysaccharides in the glomerulus  
21 which are indicated by arrows (Figure. 1) eventually affects the filtration capabilities of  
22 glomerulus as evidenced by an increased in PAS staining (Horobin and Kiernan, 2002). The  
23 gallic acid co-treated animals have shown a decreased PAS staining in the basement membrane,

1 and thereby minimize the severity of basement damage as compared with glyoxal received  
2 animals.

3 Matrix metalloproteinase (MMPs) are the family of endopeptidases involved in the  
4 collagen degradation. It has been shown that degraded products of MMPs are the catalyst for  
5 collagen synthesis (Parthasarathy *et al.*, 2013; Löffek *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, an increase in the  
6 expression of MMPs activity ultimately leads to fibrosis; whereas suppression of MMPs activity  
7 is eventually results in decreased accumulation of ECM proteins in tissues (Li *et al.*, 2000).  
8 Studies have shown that engagement of AGE-RAGE induces ROS generation, thereby  
9 accelerates matrix metalloproteinase activity in experimental animals (Cau *et al.*, 2011). In the  
10 present study, an increased MMP-2 and MMP-9 expression was observed in GO received  
11 animals suggested that GO-RAGE-mediated ROS generation might induce MMP-2 and -9  
12 activation. Conversely, a significant decrease in the expression of MMP-2 and -9 ( $p < 0.05$ ) was  
13 observed in GO+GA treated group of animals. Thus, GA being a potential antioxidant might  
14 have scavenged the ROS thereby minimizing the production and accumulation of collagen in the  
15 GO treated renal tissues.

16 Receptor for advanced glycation end products (RAGE) serves as the surface receptor for  
17 the AGEs, and it is responsible for the downstream signaling of various pathological events.  
18 (D'Agati and Schmidt, 2010). It was reported that blockade or down-regulation of RAGE  
19 downstream signaling could be a therapeutic target for various diseases (Yamagishi and  
20 Takeuchi, 2004). Studies have showed that RAGE was minimally expressed during normal  
21 physiological conditions (Soro-Paavonen *et al.*, 2008). Studies have shown that interactions of  
22 AGE/RAGE stimulate ROS generation, which could promote RAGE expression, which warns to  
23 a vicious cycle between RAGE-downstream signaling pathways (Soro-Paavonen *et al.*, 2008).

1 Result of the present study has shown that GO treated animals exhibited an increased expression  
2 of RAGE. However, animals co-treated with GA showed decreased expression of RAGE,  
3 suggesting that GA counteracts GO, and thereby minimizing the GO-induced RAGE activation  
4 and further downstream signaling thus exhibited that it may act as a natural anti-glycation agent.

5 A subunit of NADPH oxidase (NOX) plays a key role in production of superoxide ( $O^{2-}$ )  
6 by transferring electrons across the membrane from NAD(P)H to molecular oxygen (Bedard and  
7 Krause, 2007). Activation of NOX results in mitochondrial dysfunction and impaired antioxidant  
8 status and ultimately leads to oxidative stress (Cai, 2006). Studies have suggested that the  
9 activation of RAGE induces NADPH oxidase and cellular ROS production in endothelial cells  
10 (Wautier *et al.*, 2001). Our studies support the hypothesis that AGE-RAGE interaction, play a key  
11 role in amplifying NOX and induces ROS generation in the renal tissue (Nishikawa *et al.*, 2000;  
12 Subramaniam *et al.*, 2013). Interactions of GO and RAGE stimulate the NADPH oxidase and  
13 cytosolic production of ROS within the renal tissues and this is inhibited by the natural anti-  
14 oxidant GA. Furthermore, our own recent study demonstrated the effectiveness of GA as an anti-  
15 glycating agent for AGE mediated macro vascular complications (Subramaniam *et al.*, 2012). In  
16 the present study, natural dietary flavonoid GA attenuates the expression of NOX in the kidney  
17 tissues by demonstrating its capability in GO/RAGE mediated NOX activation during micro  
18 vascular complications (Figure.3).

19 Interaction of AGE/RAGE mediated oxidative stress alters the antioxidant status of the  
20 renal system in diabetic nephropathy (Rosca *et al.*, 2005), and this would alter the activity of  
21 enzymatic defense mechanisms, ultimately contributing to excess cellular ROS accumulation  
22 (Kalim *et al.*, 2010). Studies have shown that decrease in the activity of super oxide dismutase  
23 (SOD) leads to the accumulation of ROS generation and thereby leads to the amplification of



1 lipid peroxidation (LPO) (Kakkar *et al.*, 1995). Previous studies by Huang *et al.*, showed that  
2 flavanoids has the ability to suppress AGEs mediated oxidative stress via RAGE (Huang *et al.*,  
3 2006). Recent studies showed that increased collagen synthesis and MMPs activity are related to  
4 SOD status and ROS formation (Giftson *et al.*, 2010). In the present study we observed that more  
5 toxic role of GO in the induction of oxidative species with depletion of antioxidant enzyme  
6 (Figure. 6) and increase in the ROS levels (Figure 3). Animals exhibited a significant ( $p<0.01$ )  
7 increase in the level of lipid peroxides (LPO) with declining activities ( $p<0.01$ ) of antioxidant  
8 enzymes such as superoxide dismutase (Mn-SOD). On the other hand, animals co-treated with  
9 GA reduces the LPO activity probably due to its metal chelating properties (Mirjana Andjelkovic  
10 *et al.*, 2006) and thereby restoring the levels of SOD to near normal levels might be due to the  
11 action of GA on superoxide, hydroxyl and alkoxy radical coupled to attenuate the oxidative  
12 stress which eventually reduces cellular damage (Mitic *et al.*, 2010). The experimental evidence  
13 suggests that AGEs formed from GO and methylglyoxal contribute to collagen cross linking. In  
14 addition, AGE/RAGE downstream signaling stimulates ROS and negatively regulates the  
15 antioxidant status, which collectively induced the collagen synthesis and MMP mediated ECM  
16 rearrangement and subsequently fibrosis. However, GA co-treatment along with GO inhibited  
17 these changes and improved the GO-induced fibrotic complications in experimental Wistar rats.

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## 22 **Figure Legends**

### 23 **Figure 1**

1 Kidney sections from the control and experimental group animals were stained with H &  
2 E; Masson trichrome and Periodic Schiff's stain (n=6/group). H&E stain (a-d). Panel a: normal  
3 control; Panel b: GO infused rats; Panel c: GO+GA treated rats; Panel d: GA control animals.  
4 Masson's trichrome to visualize collagen deposition (e-h). Panel e: normal control; Panel f: GO  
5 infused rats shows increase blue staining reflects interstitial fibrosis, panel g: gallic acid treated  
6 renal sections GO+GA shows mild increase in the blue stain in the tubules. Panel h: GA control  
7 rats. PAS staining (i-l) visualize basement membrane damage. Panel i: normal control; Panel j:  
8 GO alone infused rats; Panel k: GO+GA group animals; Panel l: GA control animals, renal  
9 sections were shown at 40X magnification. **Scale bar- 50 $\mu$ m.**

## 10 **Figure 2**

11 (A) Shows the total collagen content in the kidney tissue of experimental animals. Increased  
12 in the collagen content in GO group animals compared with the control group and there was a  
13 significant decrease in the collagen levels of GO+GA group animals as compared with the GO  
14 group. No significant change was observed in the GA group compared with the control group  
15 animals. (B and C) represents an increased mRNA expression of Collagen I and Collagen III in  
16 GO group animals and there was a significant decrease in the mRNA expression levels of  
17 GO+GA group animals. GAPDH was used as internal control. Results were expressed as  
18 Mean $\pm$ SEM (n=6/group). Significance is indicated as \*P<0.05; \*\*P<0.01 and NS- Non  
19 significant.

## 20 **Figure.3**

21 Zymogram analysis of MMP-2 and -9 activity showing activity of MMP-2 and MMP-9 in the  
22 tissue extracts. Gels were stained with 0.25 % Coomassie brilliant blue and destained until the  
23 clear lytic bands were visible. Results were expressed as Mean $\pm$ SEM (n=6/group). Significance

1 is indicated as \*P<0.05; \*\*P<0.01; \*\*\*P<0.01 and NS- Non significant. (B) mRNA expression  
2 of MMP-2 and -9 in control and experimental group animals. GAPDH was used as internal  
3 control. Results were expressed as Mean±SEM (n=6/group). Significance is indicated as  
4 \*P<0.05; \*\*P<0.01 and NS- Non significant. (C) mRNA expression levels of NOX-4 in control  
5 and experimental group animals. GAPDH was used as internal control. Results were expressed  
6 as Mean±SEM (n=6/group). Significance is indicated as \*P<0.05; \*\*P<0.01 and NS- Non  
7 significant. (D) The figure shows the spectrofluorimetric analysis of ROS generation in control,  
8 GO, GO+GA and GA treated tissue extract. Results were expressed as Mean±SEM (n=6/group).  
9 Significance is indicated as \*P<0.05; \*\*\*P<0.001 and NS- Non significant.

#### 10 **Figure.4**

11 Immunostaining analysis of kidney sections from the control and experimental group  
12 animals (n=6/group). Panel (a-d) shows MMP-2, Panel (e-h) shows MMP-9, Panel (i-l) shows  
13 RAGE, Panel (m-p) shows SOD expressions in the kidney sections of control and experimental  
14 group of rats respectively. An increased MMP-2 and -9 expression is evidenced in (panel b and f,  
15 respectively) in GO treated rat renal sections. An increased RAGE and decreased SOD  
16 expression is evidenced in (panel j and n, respectively) in GO treated rat renal sections. GA  
17 treatment neutralizes GO induced MMPs (panel c and g, respectively) RAGE (panel k) and SOD  
18 (panel n) expressions in the renal tissue sections. Kidney tissue sections were observed at 40X  
19 Magnification.

#### 20 **Figure.5**

21 Immunoblotting analysis of MMP-2, MMP-9 and RAGE.  $\beta$ -actin was used as internal  
22 control. Where, Lane C-control; Lane GO – Glyoxal (GO) alone infused rats; Lane GO+GA -  
23 Gallic acid (GA) along with GO group animals; Lane GA - GA control animals. Results were

1 expressed as Mean±SEM (n=6/group). Significance is indicated as \*P<0.05; \*\*P<0.01 and NS-  
2 Non significant.

### 3 **Figure.6**

4 (A) indicates the released Malondialdehyde-an indicator of LPO is expressed as nmoles/mg  
5 protein. (B) Activity is expressed as 50% inhibition of epinephrine auto-oxidation for SOD. (C)  
6 Native polyacrylamide gel activity assay for SOD activity in kidney tissue extract of  
7 experimental group animals. Where, Lane C-control; Lane GO – Glyoxal (GO) alone infused  
8 rats; Lane GO+GA - Gallic acid (GA) along with GO group animals; Lane GA - GA control  
9 animals. Results were expressed as Mean±SEM (n=6/group). Significance is indicated as  
10 \*P<0.05; \*\*P<0.01 and NS- Non significant.

### 11 **Figure.7**

12 Schematic outline of possible mechanism of glyoxal induced renal fibrosis and the  
13 protective mechanism of gallic acid.

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17 **Table.1:** RT-PCR oligonucleotide gene-specific primers

Gene	Primer sequences	Size (bp)	An. Tm (°C)
Collagen-I	Sense 5'-TGCTGCTTG CAG TAACGTCG-3' Antisense 5'-TCAACACCATCTCTGCCTCG-3'	136	60.8
Collagen III	Sense 5'- AAAGGTGAACTGGTGAACGTGGC-3'	578	61.3

	Antisense 5'- TCCATCTTGCAGCCTTGGTTAGGA- 3'		
MMP-2	Sense 5'- CTATTC TGTCAGCACTTTGG- 3' Antisense 5'-CAGACTTTGGTTCTCCAACCTT-3'	309	53
MMP-9	Sense 5'- AGTTTGGTGTGCGCGGAGCAC-3' Antisense 5'- TACATGAGCGCTTCCGGCAC-3'	754	57
NOX	Sense 5'- GGACCCCGATCCCAACTACGC-3' Antisense 5'- GCGCTTCCGAGAACGCTGGT-3'	298	59
GAPDH	Sense 5'-TCCACCACCCTGTTGCTGTAGC-3' Antisense 5'-TGGAAAGCTGTGGCGTGATG-3'	401	58

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**Table.2:** Effects of glyoxal, an AGE intermediate on body weight, kidney weight and KW/BW ratio in control and experimental group of rats.

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Parameters	Control	GO	GO+GA	
Body Weight (gm)	135±5.8	110±7.1 <sup>a*</sup>	125±5.31 <sup>b*</sup>	13
Kidney Weight (gm)	0.7±0.01	0.9±0.02 <sup>a*</sup>	0.79±0.03 <sup>b*</sup>	0.
KW/BW ratio	0.52±0.02	0.81±0.02 <sup>a*</sup>	0.63±0.01 <sup>b*</sup>	0.4

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Values in the table are expressed as mean±SEM, n=6; \*p<0.05 a-GO Vs Control; b-GO+GA Vs GO; No significant NS-Control Vs GA

**Table.3:** Effects of glyoxal, an AGE intermediate on serum BUN, Creatinine, albumin and alkaline phosphatase in control and experimental group of rats.

Parameters	Control	GO	GO+GA	GA
BUN (mg/dL)	14±0.2	20±1.4 <sup>a*</sup>	16±0.8 <sup>b*</sup>	13±0.2 <sup>NS</sup>
Creatinine (mg/dL)	0.15±0.01	0.25±0.02 <sup>a*</sup>	0.2±0.02 <sup>b*</sup>	0.13±0.01 <sup>NS</sup>

Alkaline phosphatase (U/L)	187±9.8	239±21.1 <sup>a*</sup>	197±11.9 <sup>b*</sup>	185±8.2 <sup>NS</sup>
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