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All authors are responsible for submitting manuscripts in comprehensible US or UK English and ensuring scientific accuracy.

Original pictures on front cover: Luschka ducts, chronic inflammation and microhemorrhage in the gallbladder wall © Ştefan-Claudiu Mirescu

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF D1 PROTEIN SEQUENCES IN CYANOBACTERIA

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SUMMARY. The D1 protein of Photosystem II (PSII), encoded by the *psbA* genes, is an indispensable component of oxygenic photosynthesis. Due to strongly oxidative chemistry of PSII water splitting, the D1 protein is prone to constant damage and requires its replacement by a new copy every 5 h under low light conditions and every 20 minutes under intense illumination, whereas most of the other PSII subunits remain ordinarily undamaged. In cyanobacteria the D1 protein is encoded by a *psbA* gene family, ranging from 1 to 6 members. The presence of multiple *psbA* genes encoding different D1 isoforms is an indication of their importance in regulatory mechanisms responsible for maintaining a functional PSII upon changing environmental conditions in natural habitats of cyanobacteria.

Herewith, we present a comparative analysis of the protein sequences encoded by *psbA* gene family in model cyanobacteria strains with sequenced genomes, highlighting their characteristic features that give indication of their putative function.

Keywords: cyanobacteria, D1 protein, Photosystem II, photosynthesis;

Introduction

Photosynthesis is one of the most important processes responsible for the maintenance of the oxygen level in the atmosphere and the reduction of CO_2 to carbohydrates (Loll et. al., 2005). It creates organic matter out of inorganic compounds. In plants, as well as in algae and cyanobacteria, photosynthesis is initiated in Photosystem II (PSII) using light energy to drive two distinct chemical reactions - the photo-oxidation of water and the reduction of plastoquinone (Singhal *et. al.*, 1999).

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PSII is a large homo-dimeric protein-cofactor complex consisting of 20 protein subunits and more than 77 co-factors. Two proteins form the reaction center core of PSII: the D1 and D2 proteins. While higher plants have one *psbA* gene encoding the D1 protein, cyanobacteria generally display a small *psbA* gene family, consisting of 1 to 6 members, differentially expressed, according to environmental conditions (Mulo et. al., 2009). The D1 protein of PSII is an indispensable component of oxygenic photosynthesis. The aminoacid structure of the PsbA peptide gives clues about the hydrophobic nature for D1 protein with five membrane spanning helices (Dwivedi and Bhardwai, 1995). The D1 protein is photodamaged because of the strongly oxidative chemistry of the Photosystem II, requiring its replacement, whereas most of the other subunits of PSII remain undamaged. The D1 protein is the primary component damaged and replaced in all organisms that perform oxygenic photosynthesis. In normal growth conditions a D1 protein is replaced in the PSII every 5 h, and under different stress conditions the replacement occurs every 20 minutes (Mulo et al., 2009). When the D1 protein is damaged, the Photosystem II is inactivated; the dimers separate, followed by the partial disassembly of the Photosystem II. The damaged D1 protein is removed by an FtsH type protease and degraded. Subsequently a new copy of D1 protein is translated, and the new D1 protein is co-translational inserted into the membrane. The C-terminus of the D1 protein is post-translational processed. The monomers are assembled, then the functional dimers are formed and the PSII is active again (Mulo et al., 2009).

Due to the advance of sequencing techniques, new genomes of cyanobacteria are being sequenced and annotated all the time (*http://genome.microbedb.jp/cyanobase/*), so periodically new *psbA* gene sequences and of the proteins they encode become available. These sequences allow for putative functional identification of the D1 isoforms and offer clues about their role. The studies of gene expression showed that under stress conditions, cyanobacterial cells adopt different strategies to cope with the changes. One strategy involves the production of larger amount of the same D1 protein, compensating for the higher rate of damage under stress, behavior best characterized in Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803, where one type of D1 protein is encoded by two *psbA* genes (Mate *et al.*, 1998). Another strategy involves the replacement of a D1 protein isoform present in normal growth conditions with another one under stress conditions, this strategy was first described at Synechococcus sp. PCC 7942 (Sane et al., 2002). The D1 protein isoforms exchange occurs helping the cell to resist better in stress conditions and increases the adaptability to different environmental conditions (Clarke et al., 1993). A parallel strategy involves the induction of another psbA gene, considered silent for a long time (Sicora et al., 2009, Summerfield et al., 2008). It was shown that during the microaerobic conditions, a distinct D1 protein isoform is induced, the D1' isoform, hence its postulated role in adaptation of the cells to low oxygen conditions (Sicora *et al.*, 2009; Summerfield *et al.*, 2008). Recently, a new class of D1 protein termed 'D1 rogue' (D1r), present in diazotrophic cyanobacteria, was postulated by Murray (2012). Based on its structural characteristics, the protein D1 rogue impairs the PSII function during night allowing for nitrogen fixation.

In conclusion, five, functionally different, D1 protein isoforms are known to date (Mulo *et al.*, 2009):

D1m or D1major is an isoform present in PSII in normal growth conditions, and induced in most stress conditions.

D1:1 is expressed in PSII under normal growth conditions, repressed under stress conditions.

D1:2 are repressed in PSII under normal growth conditions, induced under stress conditions. The D1:1 and D1:2 proteins differ at 25 of 360 amino-acid positions, with a conserved change of Gln with Glu at position 130 (Campbell *et al.*, 1998).

D1' protein is induced in microaerobic conditions. The sequence of aminoacid shows three conserved mutations at positions 80, 158 and 286; these changes are characteristic to the D1' isoform: position 80 is a Gly to Ala mutation, at position 158 is a Phe to Leu mutation and at position 286 is a Thr to Ala mutation (Sicora *et al.*, 2009).

D1r protein is a hypothetical protein, which blocks the Photosystem II during night and has 8 characteristic amino-acids differences; the most relevant from them are at positions: 61 Asp to Glu, 170 Asp to Glu/Ser, 189 Glu to Asp/Ala/Arg, 333 Glu to Ala/Ser, 342 Asp to Thr/Leu/Val, 344 Ala to Ala/Ser (Murray, 2012).

While functional characterization is needed for proper D1 isoform identification, in this article we identify possible D1 protein isoforms inferred from the existing sequencing data available fitting them in the proposed functional classes. We also propose models for the gene family development in the studied cyanobacteria strains.

Materials and methods

All the cyanobacterial *psbA* gene sequences were obtained from CyanoBase (*http://genome.microbedb.jp/cyanobase/*) and imported in the CLC Sequence Viewer 6.9.1 software (freeware http://www.clcbio.com). Using the aminoacid sequences, we made an accurate multiple alignment of all 91 sequences, bassed on progressive alignment algorithm. The alignment was manual edited, the non-informative regions were deleted resulting a number of approximative 360 positions. This made possible the comparison of the aminoacids conserved at all D1 protein isoforms. Based on

the alignment, we summarized the amino-acid changes in tables 2, 3 and 4. The next step was the construction of phylogenetic trees by Neighbour Joining method, 1000 replicates, made with CLC Sequence Viewer 6.9.1 program. A Venn diagram, showing the grouping and distribution of the studied D1 protein isoforms was constructed.

Results and discussion

In this study we analyzed a number of 30 cyanobacterial strains with sequenced genomes, from Cyanobase and identified a total of 91 *psbA* genes which encode different isoforms of the D1 protein (Table 1). There are cases when several genes encode one D1 protein isoform and other cases when each gene encodes a different D1 protein.

As the functional data accumulated it had become evident that all D1 protein isoforms have specific changes in the peptide structure. Based on this experimental observations it has been concluded that the presence at position in the position 130 of a glutamic acid (Glu), instead of glutamine (Gln) suggests the presence of the D1:2 isoform of the D1 protein strongly induced under stress conditions (Table 2).

Usually, one cyanobacterial strain possessing the D1:2 isoform also has the D1:1 isoform of the D1 protein expressed under optimal growth conditions, so we can see that from the total of 30 cyanobacterial strains studied, 17 strains have 45 *psbA* genes which encode the D1:2 isoform of the D1 protein.

Another specific isoform of the D1 protein (D1') is induced in microaerobic conditions (Sicora *et al.*, 2009). Based on the alignment, we searched the sequenced with the three changes in the aminoacid structure characteristic cu D1' isoform (Table 3). This table, shows that out of thirty cyanobacterial strains studied, ten have the D1' isoform of the D1 protein, the isoform that is induced in microaerobic conditions and probably helps the cells adapt to low oxygen conditions.

By bioinformatic analysis of D1 aminoacid compositionMurray (2012) concluded that a possible new isoform of the D1 protein that putatively blocks the Photosystem II during night and allows for nitrogen fixation. This isoform of the D1 protein ('D1 rogue') has 6 major changes in the aminoacids structure. The presence at the position 61 of glutamic acid (Glu) instead of aspartic acid (Asp), at position 130 of a glutamic acid (Glu) or serine (Ser) instead of an aspartic acid (Asp), at position 189 of an aspartic acid (Asp) or alanine (Ala) or arginine (Arg) instead of a glutamic acid aminoacid, are only 3 changes that suggest the presence of the D1 rogue isoform. From what we can see below (Table 4), five out of thirty cyanobacterial strains analyzed have three, four or five changes in the peptide structure characteristic to the D1 rogue protein.

Table 1.

No.	Cyanobacterial strain	Number of <i>psbA</i>
		genes
1	Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803	3
2	Anabaena sp. PCC 7120	5
3	Thermosynechococcus elongatus BP-1	3
4	Gloeobacter violaceus PCC 7421	5
5	Mycrocystis aeruginosa	5
	NIES-843	
6	Prochlorococcus marinus SS120	1
7	Prochlorococcus marinus MED4	1
8	Prochlorococcus marinus MIT9313	2
9	Synechococcus sp. WH8102	4
10	Synechococcus elongatus PCC 6301	3
11	Synechococcus sp CC9311	2
12	Synechococcus sp. PCC 7002	3
13	Acarvochloris marina MBIC11017	3
14	Prochlorococcus marinus str	3
11	NATL2A	5
15	Anabaena variabilis ATCC 29413	6
16	Synechococcus sp. CC 9902	4
17	Synechococcus elongatus PCC 7942	3
18	Synechococcus sp.	3
	JA-2-3B'a(2-13)	
19	Synechococcus sp. JA-3-3Ab	4
20	Prochlorococcus marinus str.	1
	AS9601	
21	Prochlorococcus marinus str.	1
	MIT9515	
$\gamma\gamma$	Prochlorococcus marinus str	1
22	MIT9303	1
23	Prochlorococcus marinus str	2
25	NATL21A	2
24	Prochlorococcus marinus str.	1
	MIT 9301	
25	Svnechococcus sp. RCC307	4
26	Svnechococcus sp. WH7803	4
27	Prochlorococcus marinus str.	1
	MIT9215	
28	Cyanothece sp. ATCC 51142	5
29	Nostoc punctiforme ATCC 29133	4
30	Arthrospira platensis NIES-39	4
TOTAL	30	91

Cyanobacterial strains analyzed in this study and the proposed number of psbA genes within.

Table 2.

List of proteins (emphasized by bold characters below strain's name) from studied cyanobacterial strains exhibiting aminoacid changes characteristic to D1:1 and D1:2 isoforms.

D1:2		
130 Gln to Glu		
Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.	Anabaena sp.
PCC 7002	PCC 7002	PCC 7120
SynPCC7002_A1418	SynPCC7002_A0157	Alr_4592
Synechococcus elongatus	Synechococcus elongatus	Anabaena sp.
PCC 7942	PCC 7942	PCC 7120
Synpcc7942_1389	Synpcc7942_0893	Alr_3727
Synechococcus elongatus	Synechococcus elongatus	Anabaena sp.
PCC 6301	PCC 6301	PCC 7120
Syc0166_d	Syc0647_d	All_3572
Anabaena variabilis	Anabaena variabilis	Anabaena variabilis
ATCC 29413	ATCC 29413	ATCC 29413
Ava_1597	Ava_2460	Ava_3553
Nostoc punctiforme	Nostoc punctiforme	Nostoc punctiforme
ATCC 29133	ATCC 29133	ATCC 29133
Npun_F3544	Npun_R5188	Npun_R2273
Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.
WH8102	WH8102	WH8102
SYNW0983	SYNW1919	SYNW2151
Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.
CC9902	CC9902	CC9902
Syncc9902_1814	Syncc9902_2036	Syncc9902_1817
Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.
CC9311	WH 7803	WH 7803
Sync_2384	SynWH7803_0366	SynWH7803_0790
Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.
WH 7803	RCC307	RCC307
SynWH7803_2084	SynRCC307_1440	SynRCC307_2009
Synechococcus sp.	Arthrospira platensis	Arthrospira platensis
RCC307	NIES-39	NIES-39
SynRCC307_2183	NIES39_K03030	NIES39_03080
Arthrospira platensis	Thermosynechococcus	Thermosynechococcus
NIES-39	elongatus BP-1	elongatus BP-1
NIES39_R00140	Tlr1477	Tlr1844
Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.
JA-2-3B'a(2-13)	JA-2-3B'a(2-13)	JA-3-3Ab
CYB_0371	CYB_0433	CYA_1811
Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.	Arthrospira platensis
JA-3-3Ab	PCC 7002	NIES-39
CYA_1849	SynPCC7002_A2164	NIES39_004720

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF D1 PROTEIN SEQUENCES IN CYANOBACTERIA

 Table 2. continued

C_1 1 $(1 + 1)$	C_1 1 $(1 + 1)$	C_1 1 \cdot 1
Gloeobacter violaceus	Gloeobacter violaceus	Gioeobacter violaceus
PCC 7421	PCC 7421	PCC 7421
Glr0779	Glr2322	Glr2656
Gloeobacter violaceus	Gloeobacter violaceus PCC	Cyanothece sp. ATCC
PCC 7421	7421	51142
Glr1706	Gll3144	Cce_3411

Table 3.

List of proteins from studied cyanobacterial strains that exhibit aminoacid changes characteristic for the D1' isoform.

D1'			
80 Gly to Ala	158 Phe to Leu	286 Thr to Ala	
Thermosynechococcus	Thermosynechococcus	Thermosynechococcus	
elongatus BP-1	elongatus BP-1	elongatus BP-1	
Tlr1844	Tlr1844	Tlr1844	
Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.	
PCC 7002	PCC 7002	PCC 7002	
SynPCC7002 A2164	SynPCC7002 A2164	SynPCC7002 A2164	
Arthrospira platensis	Arthrospira platensis	Arthrospira platensis	
NIES-39	NIES-39	NIES-39	
NIES39 004720	NIES39 004720	NIES39 004720	
Svnechocvstis sp.	Anabaena sp.	Svnechocvstis sp.	
PCC 6803	PCC 7120	PCC 6803	
Slr1181	Alr3742	Slr1181	
Anabaena sp. PCC 7120	Anabaena variabilis	Anabaena sp.	
Alr3742	ATCC 29413	PCC 7120	
-	Ava 1583	Alr3742	
Anabaena variabilis	<i>Cvanothece</i> sp.	Anabaena variabilis	
ATCC 29413	ATCC 51142	ATCC 29413	
Ava 1583	Cce 3411	Ava 1583	
Cvanothece sp.	Svnechococcus sp.	<i>Cvanothece</i> sp.	
ATCC 51142	JA-3-3Ab	ATCC 51142	
Cce 3411	CYA 1748	Cce 3411	
Svnechococcus sp.	Svnechococcus sp.	Svnechococcus sp.	
JA-3-3Ab	JA-2-3B'a(2-13)	JA-3-3Ab	
CYA 1748	CYB 0216	CYA 1748	
Svnechococcus sp.	Anahaena variahilis	Svnechococcus sp.	
JA-2-3B'a(2-13)	ATCC 29413	JA-2-3B'a(2-13)	
CYB 0216	Ava 4121	CYB 0216	
Cvanothece sp.	Acarvochloris marina	Cvanothece sp.	
ATCC 51142	MBIC11017	ATCC 51142	
Cce 3477	AM1 0448	Cce 3477	
Anabaena variabilis		Anabaena variabilis	
ATCC 29413		ATCC 29413	
Ava 4121		Ava 4121	

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	Table 3. continued
Acaryochloris marina	Acaryochloris marina
MBIC11017	MBIC11017
AM1_0448	AM1_0448

Table 4.

List of proteins from studied cyanobacterial strains that exhibit aminoacid changes characteristic to the D1rogue isoform.

	D1r	
61 Asp to Glu	170 Asp to Asp/Glu/Ser	189 Glu-Asp/Ala/Arg
<i>Cyanothece</i> sp.	Synechococcus sp.	<i>Cyanothece</i> sp.
ATCC 51142	JA-3-3Ab	ATCC 51142
Cce 3477	CYA 1748	Cce 3477
Acaryochloris marina	Synechococcus sp.	Anabaena variabilis
MBIC11017	JA-2-3B'a(2-13)	ATCC 29413
AM1 0448	CYB 0216	Ava 4121
—	<i>Cyanothece</i> sp.	_
	ATCC 51142	
	Cce 3477	
	Acaryochloris marina	
	MBIC11017	
	AM1 0448	

D1r				
333 Glu to Ala/Ser	342 Asp to Thr/L	eu/Val	344 Ala t	to Ser
Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.		Anabaena	variabilis
JA-3-3Ab	JA-3-3Ab		ATCC 29413	
CYA_1748	CYA_1748		Ava_4121	
Synechococcus sp.	Synechococcus sp.			
JA-2-3B'a(2-13)	JA-2-3B'a(2-13)			
CYB_0216	CYB_0216			
<i>Cyanothece</i> sp.	<i>Cyanothece</i> sp.	ATCC		
ATCC 51142	51142			
Cce_3477	Cce_3477			
Anabaena variabil	s Anabaena variabilis			
ATCC 29413	ATCC 29413			
Ava_4121	Ava_4121			
Acaryochloris marin	a Acaryochloris	marina		
MBIC11017	MBIC11017			
AM1_0448	AM1_0448			

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF D1 PROTEIN SEQUENCES IN CYANOBACTERIA

Based on the analysis of the tables 2, 3 and 4, we observed the possible presence of several types of D1 protein at the same cyanobacteria strain, without a very obvious relation between them. To better highlight the number of cyanobacterial strains which contain several different isoforms of the D1 protein, we built a Venn diagram (Fig. 1). We observed that from the total of thirty cyanobacterial strains analyzed, four strains have all the three isoforms of D1 protein (D1:2, D1' and D1r).

Seventeen cyanobacterial strains contain the D1:2 isoform of D1 protein. From these seventeen genomes, nine have just the D1:2 isoform, four have both the D1:2 and D1' isoform and four of them have all the 3 isoforms discussed.

As concerns the D1' isoform, ten cyanobacteria contain this isoform of D1 protein; one strain has only the D1' isoform out of the three studied isoforms. Four strains contain the D1:2 and D1' isoform, four strains contain all the three isoforms and only one strain contains the D1' together with the D1r isoform.

The D1 rogue isoform is present in five cyanobacterial genomes, from which four genomes have all the three isoforms and one have the D1r and D1' isoforms.



Figure 1. Venn diagram summarizing the distribution of D1 protein isoforms among the cyanobacterial strains analyzed.

Based on the alignment done with the sequences imported in the CLC sequence Viewer 6.9.1 software, a phylogenetic tree including all 91 sequences was constructed by using Neighbour Joining method, (Fig. 2).



Figure 2. Phylogenetic tree of the 91 protein sequences from Cyanobase, made with Neighbour Joining method, 1000 bootstrap replicates. The scale bar represents number of insertions, deletions/time.

Analyzing the tree it becomes evident that specific isoforms are grouped together independent of the cyanobacterial strain they belong to. D1' protein from *Arthrospira platensis* NIES-39 (NIES39_O04720) is grouped with the one from *Synechococcus sp.* PCC 7002 (SYNPCC7002_A2164), *Synechocystis sp.* PCC 6803 (Slr1181), *Anabaena variabilis* ATCC 29413 (Ava_1583), *Anabaena sp.* PCC 7120 (Alr3742) and *Cyanothece sp.* ATCC 51142 (Cce_3411). There are, however, several D1 protein families grouped after the strain they belong. Examples for this case are the D1 protein family from *Gloeobacter violaceus* PCC 7421 (glr0779, gll3144, glr2322, glr2656, glr1706) or *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* BP-1 (tlr1843, tlr1477, tlr1844).

Based on our results, we can conclude that there are two possible ways in which the *psbA* genes and the D1 protein encoded by them developed.

One strategy is by horizontal transfer, when the proteins are more closely related to each other than to the other members of the gene family from the same strain, it can be observed that the D1' protein from different species that group together (Fig. 2). An explanation can be the fact that the strains sharing the same environment conditions managed to adapt by the importing a gene that will give them an evolutionary edge. The transfer can be intermediated by common phages infecting a specific community.

The second strategy is by intraspecific duplication of the genes. In this way the strains create new forms of D1 protein by duplication from the existing ones as a response to the need to adapt to changes in the environment (Sajjaphan *et al.*, 2002).

Conclusions

Herewith, we reviewed the available new information regarding the D1 protein isoforms from newly sequenced cyanobacteria genomes and we presented a possible functional distribution of these forms based upon the available knowledge. This information can trigger further functional studies leading to characterization of new D1 protein families. We also processed these data into an evolutionary tree that gives indications regarding the evolutionary strategies of the *psbA* gene family from cyanobacteria. The presented data bring, original interpretation of updated information regarding the *psbA* gene families and the encoded D1 protein isoforms available from the newly sequenced cyanobacterial genomes.

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FORWARD ELECTRON TRANSPORT MEASURED *IN SITU* IN MICROBIAL MATS FROM A HOT SPRING IN N-W ROMANIA

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SUMMARY. Cyanobacteria, green algae and higher plants have highly conserved photosynthetic machinery. Cyanobacteria have a great plasticity and can be found in different environments, from Arctic zones to hot springs; they can be part of microbial mats. The hot spring near Ciocaia, in Bihor County has a range of different temperatures, from 65.5°C at the spring well, 60.5°C at 2 meters away from the spring well and between 32-38°C in the area where microbial mats are formed. In this study we showed changes in PSII function in mats grown at the location of the hot spring, comparative with microbial mats grown in laboratory conditions. We also showed a comparative study of some basic parameters of chlorophyll fluorescence. These results are very important to understand the functionality of photosystem II in the larger context of adaptation to environmental cues.

Keywords: chlorophyll, cyanobacteria, fluorescence, hot spring

Introduction

Photosynthesis is the fundamental process by which cyanobacteria, algae and higher plants use water as a source of electrons in reducing CO_2 to various organic compounds, this way being responsible for maintaining the oxygen level in atmosphere, and in a larger context, sustaining life on earth (Loll *et. al.*, 2005). In organisms performing oxygenic photosynthesis, the linear electron transport (light reactions) takes place in the thylakoid membrane-embedded proteins, which are Photosystem II (PSII), Cytochrome b_6f (Cytb₆f) and Photosystem I (PSI). Photosynthesis is initiated in PSII, a dimeric protein-cofactor membrane embedded complex. By capturing the light energy, PSII produces the energy required to oxidize water to atmospheric oxygen (Singhal *et al.*, 1999). PSII is a complex that consists of more than 20 protein subunits and 77 co-factors (Loll *et. al.*, 2007). The D1 and D2 proteins are

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involved in binding the most redox active components of PSII. The factors which damage the linear electron transport equilibrium can lead to the accumulation of toxic intermediates that will cause irreversible damage to the PSII reaction center, especially to protein D1. The D1 protein of Photosystem II, encoded by the *psbA* genes, is indispensable for oxygenic photosynthesis. The aminoacid structure of the *psbA* gene predicts a hydrophobic nature for D1 protein with five membrane spanning helices (Dwivedi and Bhardwaj, 1995). Due to strongly oxidative chemistry of PSII water splitting, the D1 protein is prone to constant photodamage requiring its replacement, whereas most of the other PSII subunits remain ordinarily undamaged. When the photoinhibition occurs, the D1 protein is accessed by the FtsH proteases and degraded. Subsequently, a new copy of D1 protein is inserted in the membrane, the dimers are formed, and the functional PSII is activated again (Mulo *et al.*, 2009). In normal growth conditions a D1 protein is replaced in the PSII at every 5h, and in different stress conditions the replacement occurs in 20 minutes.

During the light reactions of photosynthesis is described the pathway of electron transport from water to NADP⁺, resulting in release of oxygen, the reduction of NADP⁺ to NADPH and the accumulation of a high concentration of hydrogen ions in the thylakoid lumen, needed for ATP production. During the light reactions, fluorescence measurement reveal functional changes in the acceptor and donor side of PS II (Fig. 1). Mn is a Manganese center, has 4 manganese atoms and splits 2 water molecules into 4 protons (4H⁺), 4 electrons (4e⁻) and 2 oxygen atoms. Tyrosine (Tyr) shuttles electrons to the reaction center of PSII, P680. P680 absorbs a photon of light energy and reaches the excited state. Whereas P680 is the primary electron donor of PSII, Pheo is a pheophytin molecule, the primary electron acceptor of PSII. After absorbing the light, P680 sends one electron to Pheo; Pheo accepts the electron, it is reduced, and transfer than the electron to Q_A . The electron transfer until Q_A is very fast, and cannot be detected. The transfer between Q_A and Q_B takes a few milliseconds, and can be detected during chlorophyll fluorescence measurement. Q_A is a plastoquinone molecule fixed into the membrane which accepts and transfers one electron at a time. Q_B is a loosely bound plastoquinone, which at 2 cycles accepts 2 electrons from Q_A , than becomes mobile and goes to the plastoquinone pool from the thylakoid membrane. In cyanobacteria, the photosynthetic system is tightly connected to the other principal metabolic paths; therefore, chlorophyll fluorescence signals can provide rapid, real-time information on both photosynthesis and the overall acclimation status of cyanobacteria (Campbell et al., 1998).

At the hot spring drilling of Ciocaia, in Bihor County, Romania, a microbial community mat was formed, adapted to high water temperatures Visually, the microbial mats formed here have different colors: green, red and white, based on the temperatures they grow at. In this article we performed for the first time PSII functional studies *in situ* on a hot spring microbial mat, using chlorophyll fluorescence measurements with a submersible measuring head attached to the double modulation

fluorometer. We were able to get indications relative to the photosynthetic function of the microbial communities in their natural environment. Based upon the specific conditions of studied cyanobacterial mat we developed a fluorescence measurement protocol that can be further used for mat measurements. We also show a comparative analysis of the forward electron transport between the measurements *in situ* of microbial communities from Ciocaia, and laboratory grown *Phormidium* strains.

Materials and methods

The measurements were performed *in situ* at Ciocaia thermal drilling. The hot spring near Ciocaia (Bihor County, Nort-Western Romania) is geographically located at E 22°02.744' and N 47°20.471'. The chemical composition of water is 812 mg/l Cl⁻, 7,283 mg/l HCO3⁻, 27.9 mg/l SO4²⁻, 7.9 mg/l NH4⁺, 3,525 mg/l Na⁺, 30 mg/l K⁺, 790 mg/l Ca²⁺, 2.6 mg/l Mg²⁺, 0.2 mg/l Fe²⁺ and 3.7 wt.% total salinity (Tenu *et al.*, 1981). The fluorescence measurements were made with an FL3500 Fluorometer (Photon Systems Instruments, Brno, CZ), using a Q_A- reoxidation protocol . The field fluorescence measurements were performed with a submersible head, designed to measure fluorescence of underwater organisms, from Photon Systems Instruments. The submersible head was powered by 220 V car adapted convertor. We optimized the protocol for on field measurements considering the specific conditions of the mat-building communities: we had to modify the intensity of measuring flashes in order to decrease the actinic effect of the measuring flashes as well as the saturation of basic fluorescence caused by the huge cell density specific to the bacterial mat (Table 1).

The double-modulation fluorometer from PSI (CZ) can measure the chlorophyll fluorescence with a resolution of 4 micro-seconds, it is adapted for liquid sample measurement, can measure many photosynthetic parameters and in combination with DCMU (3-(3, 4-dichlorophenyl)-1, 1-dimethylurea), provides information about both the donor and the acceptor side of PSII (Fig. 1).

PSII Complex



Figure 1. Functional structure of the Photosystem II.(original)

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The transfer from Q_A to Q_B represents the acceptor side of PSII, so that the fluorescence measurement in absence of DCMU will give information about the functionality of the acceptor side of PSII (Fig. 1). DCMU is an herbicide that binds to the Q_B locus; this leads to the return of the electrons to the water oxidation complex (Metz *et al.*, 1986). In presence of DCMU, any changes in the functionality of the water oxidation complex will be observed at fluorescence measurement in presence of DCMU (Fig. 1).

Below we are showing the measurement protocol used in our experiments. The Double-Modulation Fluorometer FL 3500 measures Chl-fluorescence signal with a time resolution of up to 4 μ s in the Standard FL3500/S version. Measured fluorescence emission is excited by a set of light-emitting diodes that generate short measuring flashes. The photochemistry is driven by single-turnover flashes. Chlorophyll fluorescence is detected by a PIN photodiode and digitized by a 16-bit A/D converter. PSI fluorometers can measure various chlorophyll fluorescence parameters, ratios, and quenching coefficients that provide information on the functionality of the photosynthetic apparatus. In our experiments we followed the reoxidation of Q_A after a saturating actinic flash, probed with series of measuring flashes on a logarithmic time scale from microseconds up to 100 seconds. In addition we recorded three basic fluorescence parameters: F0, Fm and Fv. A short description of these parameters is given below:

F0 represents the minimum chlorophyll fluorescence yield measured on a dark-adapted sample.

Fm represents the maximum chlorophyll fluorescence yield measured on a dark-adapted sample.

Fv represents the variable fluorescence obtained: Fv=Fm-F0.

All samples used for fluorescence measurements were dark-adapted for 6 minutes before measurement was done in absence and presence of DCMU.

Ta	ble	1.

Sample Measured	Ciocaia - Field sample	Ciocaia- laboratory sample
Measuring Flash (µs)	8	8
Measuring delay (µs)	6	6
Actinic Flash (µs)	20	20
Pre-Flash (µs)	0	0
M_Voltage	10	30
F_Voltage	100	100
A_Voltage	100	100

Fluorescence measurement protocol parameters used in field and laboratory measurements.

 $M_voltage =$ relative power of Measuring flashes, relative voltage of the Measuring LED's. The signal is proportional to the voltage in 20%-100%.

F Voltage= relative voltage of the actinic Flash or relative power of actinic flashes.

A_voltage = relative voltage of the actinic light LED's.

The laboratory *Phormidium* sp. culture from Ciocaia was grown in the BG11 medium, at 38°C and 50 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ light. The culture was mixed by bubbling air all the time.

Finally, data were processed in OriginPro 8 (OriginLab Corporation, Northhampton, MA 01060, USA) software.

Results and discussion

Recording the function of PSII, the key component of the photosynthetic electron transport chain, gives useful insight into cell metabolism and allows for understanding of molecular effect of stress factors. Use of the Flash induced Chlorophyll Fluorescence methods using modern fluorometers allow for functionally dissecting of PSII photochemistry. These measurements are usually performed under laboratory controlled conditions. We devised a measurement protocol allowing the measurement of the reoxidation of Q_A - under field conditions using a submersible measuring head.



Figure 2. Image of microbial mats formed around the Ciocaia hot spring. Depending on the temperature gradient the composition of the mat and the color change from white at highest to green at lower temperatures (the bar is 20cm long).

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The hot waters from Ciocaia thermal drilling flow directly on the ground forming a small hot spring. Close to the point of emergence a series of microbial mats are formed depending on water temperature, between 35°C and 60°C (Fig. 2). Closest to the drill and at highest temperature white color mat is present, followed by a red color mat at intermediate temperatures and a green mat at lower temperatures (Fig. 2).

A sample was collected from the green mat and photo-autothrophically grown in the laboratory at 38°C and BG-11 medium. Under light microscope the mat proved to be dominated by a *Phormidium* sp. strain (Fig. 3) (Coman, 2011). We used this strain as a control for our fluorescence measurements. Repetitions of fluorescence measurements were done in all of the above-mentioned mats.



Figure 3. Typical shape of *Phormidium* sp. containing laboratory culture. Laboratory culture isolated from the green mat from Ciocaia hot spring. Optical microscope image at 100x magnification.

Initially F0, Fm and Fv parameters were measured and calculated in all three microbial mats as well as the laboratory sample (Fig. 4). The highest F0 value was recorded in the laboratory grown sample followed by the green mat from the field. The red and white mats showed small F0 values (Fig.4, panel A). The highest Fm value was recorded at the laboratory grown sample, followed by the value from the green mat, while the values from the red and white mat are close to 0 (Fig.4, panel B). Also, the variable fluorescence parameter, Fv follows the same decrease, from the highest value at the laboratory sample, followed by the green mat from the field. The red and white microbial mats have small Fv values (Fig.4, panel C).



Figure 4. Basic fluorescence parameters F0 (panel A), Fm (panel B) and Fv (panel C) measured in all three microbial mats from Ciocaia as well as the laboratory grown sample.



Figure 5. Changes of forward electron flow in the acceptor side of photosystem II at the green mat (A), red mat (B) and white mat (C) from Ciocaia hot spring.

Using the modified measuring protocol for the field measurements, we followed the forward electron transfer within PSII. In case of the green mat from the field (Fig. 5, panel A), the fluorescence decay curve looks close to the control one showing the typical features of a Q_A^- reoxidation decay curve. Following this experimental protocol we can evaluate the acceptor side of PSII. In our case there is a distinct slowdown of Q_A to Q_B transfer, and the Fm value is close to the 1.2 value.

The red mat (Fig. 5, panel B) displays a clear charge separation at the time of the saturating flash showing the formation of Q_A^- . However, the re-oxidation of Q_A^- is massively distorted, without the typical characteristics of a fluorescence decay curve. This will be consistent with an organism that does not exhibits typical photosynthesis, possibly bacteriochlorophyll-dependent photosynthesis still relying on energy from the light.

The white mat from Ciocaia did not show any signs of response to light excitation with the measurement being consistent with bacteria that has no light absorbance capacity but is probably adapted to high temperature (Fig. 5, panel C).



Figure 6. Characteristics of donor and acceptor side functionality of the photosystem II measured in the absence (solid squares) and presece of DCMU (open circle) in the laboratory sample isolated from the green mat from Ciocaia.

The laboratory-grown *Phormidium* sample started from the green mat from Ciocaia (Fig. 6), displayed a faster electron transfer between Q_A and Q_B corresponding to a "normally" functioning acceptor side of the photosystem II. In the presence of DCMU, that blocks the Q_A to Q_B transfer and prompts the backrecombination of Q_A^- with the donor-side components of PSII in particular the water-oxidation complex the fluorescence level is maintained at high values for longer time before the recombination. The laboratory-grown sample showed a typical, unmodified DCMU curve giving indication of a standard PSII donor side in this cyanobacterium. This type of measurement could not be performed in the field samples, as we could not apply a DCMU treatment to the mat without fatally damaging the cells.

The fact that in the lab sample the fluorescence is decaying faster than the field measurement indicates the partial impairment of the electron transport that naturally occurs when the cells are exposed to sunlight. To our knowledge, this is the first measurement of forward electron transfer in a hot-spring cyanobacterial mat. This observation is very important, functionally, as most experiments are done under laboratory conditions and usually are claimed to mimic natural conditions.

Conclusions

Ciocaia hot spring is a good environmental model to study the physiology of microbial mat as it offers access to stable functional mats all year round. In our case, we performed field fluorescence measurements for the first time in three microbial mats of a hot-spring. From our experiments, we can conclude that:

- Due to the very high cell density, characteristic to a microbial mat, the optimization of the fluorescence measurement protocol was necessary in order to reduce noise and increase signal quality due to the field conditions;

- The fluorescence method we optimized, allows for the identification in the green microbial mat of members which have the capacity to use light as source of energy;

- A laboratory-grown sample isolated from the green mat was used to highlight the differences in forward electron transport between the laboratory condition and the natural conditions in the field. The first, showed a high amplitude of fluorescence characteristic to a high number of PSII active centers with a fast Q_A to Q_B electron transfer while in the field these traits were modified probably due to the effect of environmental conditions.

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CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE BRYOPHYTE FLORA OF THE "VALEA MORII" NATURE RESERVE

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SUMMARY. The paper contribute to the species inventory of the nature reserve "Valea Morii", with the first bryological approach. Despite its small area, a total of 63 bryophyte taxa (9 liverworts and 54 mosses) have been recorded on the available substrate, mainly on soil and tree bark. Phytogeographical analysis reveals the dominance of the temperate elements. Ecological requirements of the species show a great variability of microhabitats. Among all the approached ecological parameters, species requirements for temperature are the most stringent, lacking the moderately thermophilous and thermophilous species. The prevalence of microthermal species is related to the occurrence of glacial relicts, as a result of the particular cooler microclimatic conditions. The species sensitive to human impact: oligohemerobous and ahemerobous, reveal a low impact in the protected area and a favorable conservation status.

Keywords: bryophyte, indicator, inventory, nature reserve.

Introduction

Floristic studies contribute to the species inventories in nature reserves, to species distribution and biodiversity analysses, as instruments in nature conservation.

"Valea Morii" (Mill Valley) nature reserve has been founded in 1974, by Decision 9757 of Cluj Local Council, covering an area of 1 ha, extended in 1994 to 1.7 ha and included in the "Valea Căprioarelor" landscape reserve. It became a nature reserve of botanical interest (IUCN IV) according to the Law 5/2000. Nowadays, it is part of "Făgetul Clujului-Valea Morii" Nature 2000 site (ROSCI0074).

"Valea Morii" is located in the north – western part of Transylvania, 8 km south of Cluj-Napoca city, in the Transylvanian foothills. Administratively, it belongs to the Feleac commune. The elevation of the nature reserve is almost 630 m a.s.l. surrounded by 700-800 m hills that creates particular cooler microclimatic conditions. The climate is temperate continental, with an average annual temperature of 7.5°C and multiannual rainfalls of 782 mm.

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In "Valea Morii" nature reserve sarmatian sedimentary deposits are predominant, represented by sands or sandstones with "Feleacu concretions", on marly to sandy clays substrate.

The vegetation of "Valea Morii" has been studied by Pop, 1960, Pop *et al.*, 1962, Csűrös-Káptalan, 1965, Ruprecht, 1998, Ruprecht and Botta- Dukát, 1999, 1999/2000, Goia *et al.*, 2005. The forest vegetation is represented on the southern slopes by *Querco petraeae-Carpinetum* Soó *et* Pocs 1957, *Quercetum robori-petraeae* Borza 1959 phytocoenosis and on the northern ones by *Carpino-Fagetum* Paucă 1941 communities. Along the valley are patches of *Aegopodio - Alnetum glutinosae* Kárpáti *et* Jurkó 1963. In the hay meadows and pastures dominant species are *Trisetum flavescens, Festuca rubra, Agrostis capillaris* and on small stands *Nardus stricta*. According to Pop *et al.*, 1962 the nature reserve is dominated by wetland communities: *Cladietum marisci* (All. 1922) Zobrist 1935 *phragmitetosum* Pop *et al.*, 1962, *Schoenetum nigricantis* (All. 1922) W. Koch 1926, *Carici flavae-Eriophoretum latifolii* Soó 1944, *Caricetum vulpinae* Soó 1927, *Schoenoplectetum tabernaemontani* Soó 1947.

Four habitats have been identified in the protected area: 7210* - calcareous fens with *Cladium mariscus* and species of the *Caricion davallianae*, 7230 - alkaline fens, 91E0* - alluvial forests with *Alnus glutinosa* and *Fraxinus excelsior* (*Alno-Padion, Alnion incanae, Salicion albae*) and 6520 - mountain hay meadows.

A comprehensive vascular plant inventory of the nature reserve consist of 277 species, including some glacial relicts: *Cladium mariscus, Tofieldia calyculata* (the only certain population on the Romanian territory), *Schoenus nigricans, Swertia perennis* or threatened species: *Ophioglossum vulgatum, Arnica montana, Dactylorhiza incarnata, D. maculata, Epipactis palustris, Trollius europaeus, Salix rosmarinifolia* etc. (Oltean *et al.*, 1994, Habitats Directive, Bern Convention).

Our main object was to complete the species inventory of the nature reserve "Valea Morii" with bryophyte species, since such studies are lacking. Establishing the habitats that host the identified bryophyte species are essential for developing certain recommendations that also take into account the bryophytes as components of the vegetation and as best indicators of environmental conditions from the studied area.

Materials and methods

The bryofloristic studies have been carried out in the frame of protected area, in 2005. The bryophytes were analyzed in terms of phytogeographic, ecological and anthropic impact. The ecological behavior of taxa and phytocoenoses was estimated based on the ecological indices (U, T, R, L) according to Düll, 1992. The phytogeographical elements follow Düll, 1983, 1984, 1985. The tolerance of mosses to the anthropic impact was used according to Dier β en, 2001.

The taxonomy and nomenclature was updated according to Hill et al., 2006.

Results and discussion

Despite its small area, a total of 63 bryophyte taxa (9 liverworts and 54 mosses) were on the available substrate, soil and tree bark. The alluvial forest host 41 bryophyte taxa. *Brachytheciaceae, Hypnaceae* and *Amblystegiaceae* were families with the largest number of species.

Species inventory

Liverworts

Leiocolea badensis (Gottsche) Jorg. Lophocolea bidentata (L.) Dumort. Lophocolea heterophylla (L.) Dumort. Marchantia polymorpha L. Pedinophyllum interruptum (Nees) Kaal. Pellia endiviifolia (Dicks.) Dumort. Plagiochila asplenioides (L. emed. Taylor) Dumort. Plagiochila porelloides (Torr. ex Nees) Lindenb. Radula complanata (L.) Dumort.

Mosses

Abietinella abietina (Hedw.) M. Fleisch. Amblvstegium serpens (Hedw.) Schimp. Amblvstegiella subtile (Hedw.) Schimp. Atrichum undulatum (Hedw.) P. Beauv. Brachytheciastrum velutinum (Hedw.) Ignativ & Huttunen Brachythecium campestre (Müll.Hall) Schimp. Brachythecium glareosum (Bruch ex Spruce) Schimp. Brachythecium mildeanum (Schimp.) Schimp. Brachythecium rutabulum (Hedw.) Schimp. Brachythecium salebrosum (Hoffm ex F.Weber & D.Mohr) Schimp. Bryum pseudotriquetrum (Hedw.) P. Gaertn. et al. Bryum torquescens Bruch et Schimp Calliergonella cuspidata (Hedw.) Loeske Campylium stellatum (Hedw.) Lange & C.E.O. Jens. Campyllophyllum calcareum (Crundw. & Nyholm) Hedenäs Ceratodon purpureus (Hedw.) Brid. Cirriphyllum piliferum (Hedw.) Grout Climacium dendroides (Hedw.) F.Weber & D.Mohr. Ctenidium molluscum (Hedw.) Mitt.

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Didymodon ferrugineus (Schimp. ex. Besch) M.O.Hill *Encalvpta streptocarpa* Hedw. Eurhynchium angustirete (Broth.) T.J. Kop. Fissidens dubius P.Beauv. Fissidens taxifolius Hedw. Homalothecium lutescens (Hedw.) H.Rob. Homalothecium sericeum (Hedw.) Schimp. Hygramblystegium varium (Hedw.) Mönk. Hylocomiadelphus triquetrus (Hedw.) Ochyra & Stebekl. Hylocomium splendens (Hedw.) Schimp. Hypnum cupressiforme Hedw. Hypnum cupressiforme var. filiforme Hedw. (Brid.) Kindbergia praelonga (Hedw.) Ochyra *Mnium stellare* Hedw. Orthotrichum striatum Hedw. Oxyrrhynchium hians (Hedw.) Loeske Palustriella commutata (Hedw.) Ochyra Plagiomnium elatum (Bruch & Schimp.) T.J.Kop. Plagiomnium rostratum (Schrad.) T.J.Kop Plagiomnium undulatum (Hedw.) T. Kop Plagiothecium denticulatum (Hedw.) Schimp. Plagiothecium laetum Schimp. Plagiothecium latebricola Schimp. Plagiothecium succulentum (Wilson) Lindb. Pleurozium schreberi (Willd. ex Brid.) Mitt. Pohlia drummondii (Müll. Hal.) A.L.Andrews Pohlia lescuriana (Sull.) Ochi Pohlia wahlenbergii (F.Weber & D.Mohr.) A.L.Andrews Pseudoscleropodium purum (Hedw.) M.Fleisch Pylaisia polyantha (Hedw.) Schimp. Rhytidiadelphus sgarrosus (Hedw.) Warnst. Sanionia uncinata (Hedw.) Loeske Scorpidium revolvens (Sw. ex anon.) Rubers Thuidium assimile (Mitt.) A.Jaeger Thuidium recognitum (Hedw.) Lindb.

Limited offer regarding the nature of the substrate is reflected by the predominance of terricolous species (39.68%). 50.79% are strictly adapted to one type of substrate, 28.57% can be recorded on two types of substrata, 14.25% occur on three types of substrate, 1.59% species can be found on 4 types of substrate and 4.76% haven't any substrate preference (Fig. 1).

Ecological requirements of the species show a great variability of microhabitats (Fig. 2), despite the small area of the nature reserve.

Regarding light preferences scio-heliophilous (L4, L5 – 33.53%) and heliosciophilous species (L6, L7 – 33.33%) are prevalent, since most species are sheltering in the shade of the forest or in the herbaceous layer.



Figure 1. Species distribution regarding substrate preferences



Figure 2. Ecological spectrum depending on the species preferences for light (L), temperature (T), humidity (U) and chemical reaction of the substrate (R)

The temperature requirements reveal the microthermal species prevalence (T3, T4 – 61.90%), another argument of climate peculiarities of "Valea Morii" nature reserve.

Referring to the ecological requirements for humidity most of the species are mesophilous (U5, U6, -44.44%), but well represented are also xero-mesophytes (U4 -28.57%) and meso-hygrophytes (U7 -14.29%). Even if we expected a good percentage of meso-hygrophytes or hygrophytes, this fen is located at lower elevation and relatively far from similar ones. Relatively good prevalence of xero-mesophytes is a consequence of human pressure, manifested by drainage for meadows or human settlements expansion (construction of cottages, holiday or permanent houses).

Concerning the pH of the substrate, the base rich substrate is highlighted by the predominance of weak acid-neutrophilous (R5, R6 – 33.33%), followed by weak acid-neutrophilous (R7 – 23.81%) and neutro-basiphilous species (R8 – 17.46%).



Figure 3. Phytogeographical spectrum for the bryophyte flora from "Valea Morii"

Phytogeographical analysis reveals the dominance of the temperate elements (46.03%) in accordance with the region's temperate climate (Fig. 3). Arcto-alpine (1.59%), subarctic (1.59%), boreal (6.35%), boreal-montane (7.94%), subboreal (12.70%), subboreal-montane elements (4.76%) are tipical for a cool microclimate, clues to the climate particularities of the nature reserve.

Regarding to the human impact the best represented are species with a mean tollerance - mesohemerobous (32.20%), but are well represented species sensitive to human impact: oligohemerobous (29.38%) and ahemerobous (20.90%), which reveal a low impact in the protected area (Fig. 4).



Figure 4. Distribution of bryophytes depending on their tolerance to the anthropic impact

Conclusions

The floristic inventory of "Valea Morii" consists of 63 bryophyte taxa, 9 hepatics and 54 mosses. It is a relatively small number of species compared to other small reserves (eg. Turda Gorges 136 species, Plămadă and Goia, 1993-1994; Someșul Cald Gorges 156 species, Goia and Mătase, 2001), due to low variability of the substrate types. Forest management is not considering leaving dead wood and the exposed rocks are lacking.

Even if we didn't recorded rare or relict species, bryophytes are important indicators of habitat changes. The prevalence of microthermal species is related to the occurrence of glacial relicts, as a result of the particular cooler microclimatic conditions. Among all the approached ecological parameters, species requirements for temperature are the most stringent, lacking the moderately thermophilous and thermophilous species.

The species indicator value reveals a favorable conservation status. The amount of xero-mesophilous, xerophilous, euhemerobous species, indicate an incipient degradation caused mainly by drainage and construction. This process of construction, due to the location in the vecinity of Cluj-Napoca, advances rapidly towards the midle of the valley and soon will damage the nature reserve. The upstream fens host some rare or relict species, but the nature reserve host the most important species and plant communities.

The inclusion of this protected area and the upstream marshes in the Natura 2000 site "Făgetul Clujului-Valea Morii" Nature 2000 site (ROSCI0074), is probably the most important step for "*in situ*" conservation of existing natural values.

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IN VITRO STRESS SELECTION OF MARKER FREE TRANSGENIC POTATO LINES IN ORDER TO PRODUCE POTATO RESISTANT TO BOTH PVY AND DROUGHT STRESS

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SUMMARY. Potato, an excellent staple food, is one of the main targets for genetic improvement by combinatorial biotechnology. The aim of the present study was to combine gene transfer with *in vitro* stress selection to obtain plants resistant to both PVY and drought stress. Our hypothesis is that one resistance to one type of stress might determine a state of better response to a second stress factor. Marker free, transgenic potato lines were tested for resistance to drought under *in vitro* polyethylene glycol (PEG) induced stress selection. Callus cultures have been obtained from internodes of potato cultivars: Baltica and Désirée, of control and transgenic lines, respectively. The drought stress was simulated *in vitro* for three weeks on MS-T medium with 5% PEG 6000. The regenerated plants were selected in a second round on RMB5 medium with 5%, 10% and 15% PEG. At the end of each stage, the plants were evaluated for viability, root development and the regeneration of axillary buds. Two clones of cv. Baltica putatively tolerant to drought and resistant to PVY were obtained.

Keywords: drought, PEG, potato stress selection.

Introduction

Potato (*Solanum tuberosum*) belongs to the Solanaceae family and is the third crop in the world after rice and wheat (Birch *et al.*, 2012). It spreads to all continents and is cultivated in more than 150 countries, with varied uses in food, as animal feed and also in various industries (Muthoni *et al.*, 2013). However the potato is very sensitive to diseases, pests and abiotic factors such as drought. Important losses in the annual potato production are also caused by pathogens or pests such as: Colorado potato beetle (*Leptinotarsa decemlineata*), late blight (*Phytophthora infestans*) and viruses (PVY, PVX, PRLV etc.).

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Potato virus Y (PVY) is an economically important virus, which is transmitted by aphids and infects crop species in the Solanaceae family. PVY has a high genetic variability, a significant number of strains being described so far: PVY^{O} , PVY^{C} , PVY^{Z} . PVY^N (Tribodet, et al., 2005). The recently identified strains, PVY^{NTN} (N-tubernecrosis) and PVY^{N-W} (N-Wilga), have a rapid spread causing severe yield reductions, up to 80%. Both PVY^{NTN} and PVY^{N-W} induce Potato Tuber Necrotic Ringspot Disease (PTNRD) (Blanco-Urgoiti et al., 1998; Visser et al., 2012). Knowing that sources of natural virus resistance in plant are limited, novel resistance sources using transgenesis have been developed. Some genetic transformation methods including protein and RNA-mediated approaches (Prins, 2003) or virus-induced gene silencing (Lu et al., 2003; Godge et al., 2007) were used to induce virus resistance in plants (Baulcombe, 1999). In other studies the virus resistance in susceptible plants has been induced by transferring virus-derived genes which are including viral coat protein (CP) (Reddy et al., 2010) or CP genes in an intron- hairpin construct (Yan et al., 2009). In previous experiments transgenic marker-free potato was produced using a two-step protocol. In the first step the transfer and expression of reporter gene gfp (green fluorescent protein) and marker gene *npt*II (neomycin phosphotransferase) were used to improve transformation of different cultivars of potato (Rakosy-Tican et al., 2006). In the second step A. tumefaciens C58C1 pGV2260 with the hairpin construct pRGG YCPiPCY (35SCaMV enhancer and promoter, two repeated inverted PVY-CP sequences separated by an intron and pAnos terminator) was used for transforming the best responding potato cvs. Baltica and Désirée to resist PVY (Rakosy-Tican et al., 2010). Resulting transgenic lines of two cultivars Baltica and Désirée were used in the present study for *in vitro* drought stress selection. Water deficit is a frequent stress in potato production, causing lower quality and reduced tuber yield (Steduto et al., 2012). Potato is very sensitive to water stress because of its shallow root system (Ekanavake and Midmore, 1992; Dalla Costa et al., 1997). One biotechnological method to obtain drought-resistant plants is in vitro selection under water stress conditions. To select in vitro drought resistant plants polyethylene glycol (PEG) is used as a component added to the culture media (Hassanpanah, 2010; Pino et al., 2013). The treatment with PEG 6000 applied to seven potato cultivars allowed the selection of one drought resistant cultivar (Hassanpanah, 2010). In another study the drought conditions were simulated in vitro by the addition of PEG 4000 in concentration of 0%, 4% and 8% added to MS medium (Murashige and Skoog). These authors used both Solanum tuberosum and S. commersonii transgenic lines which overexpress the gene ScCBF1 and compared them with the wild type after in vitro drought stress. Three different concentrations of PEG reduced the viability, but the transgenic plantlets were 100% viable in both species (Pino et al., 2013).

In this study *in vitro* stress selection of transgenic potatoes integrating a hairpin construct, hence putatively resistant to PVY and of their wild type counterparts was applied with the aim to combine these two resistance traits. Plant viability and

root regeneration rate indicate that two transgenic clones of cv. Baltica do resist *in vitro* drought stress. These lines are going to be further analyzed and provide an example of combining different resistance traits by biotechnological means.

Materials and methods

Selection of drought resistant plants

In this study we used two potato cultivars: Désirée and Baltica, which have been previously transformed using *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*, C58C1 pGV2260 with the hairpin construct pRGG YCPiPCY (35SCaMV enhancer and promoter, two repeated inverted PVY-CP sequences separated by an intron and pAnos terminator), to obtain transgenic potato lines resistant to PVY. Putatively transgenic lines were identified by PCR amplification of the construct, using two different designed specific primers (Rakosy-Tican *et al.*, 2007).

The wild type (wt) Désirée (http://www.europotato.org) and Baltica (Solana GmbH & Co K6, Germany), the transgenic lines of cv. Désirée coded 4D1, 6D4, 6D6 and putatively transgenic (not analyzed yet at molecular level) 1D6, 1D9 and 6D1, as well as transgenic lines of cv. Baltica 5B2, 5B8, putatively transgenic 1B4, 3B5, 4B9, 6B4, 6B8 and nontransgenic 7B3 were used in the experiments.

The selection of plants resistant to drought stress was performed in two rounds: at callus level and then on plantlets exposed to increasing concentrations of PEG. Callus was induced on internodes of cvs. Baltica and Désirée of both control and transgenic potato, cultivated on MS-T medium (MS-based medium with 16 g L^{-1} glucose, 0.5 mg L^{-1} folic acid, 0.05 mg L^{-1} biotin, 40 mg L^{-1} adenine, 0.02 mg L^{-1} GA3, 0.02 mg L^{-1} NAA, 2.0 mg L^{-1} zeatin riboside and 0.7 % (w/v) agar, at pH 5.8). The callus was cultured three weeks on MS-T medium with 5% PEG 6000. Then the callus with first regenerated shoots was transferred on MS-T medium, without PEG. Potato plants were maintained in a growth room at 21 °C with a photoperiod of 16 h (90 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹, daylight fluorescent illumination). Plants regenerated, after stress, were evaluated for viability and capability to regenerate new plants. In the second round of selection, the lines which regenerated plants from callus under stress conditions were transferred on RMB5 medium (Menczel et al., 1981) with 5%, 10% and 15% PEG, each applied for three weeks. The lines with viable plants were selected on RMB5 with 10% PEG, simulating the drought conditions for other three weeks. Finally, the lines with viable plants, after stress induced by 10% PEG, were tested, in the next step of selection, on RMB5 with 15% PEG for another three weeks. At the end of each step the tested plants were evaluated for viability and regeneration rate. The data were statistically analyzed using Microsoft Excel and R statistics software

(http://www.lsw.uniheidelberg.de/users/christlieb/teaching/UKStaSS10/R_refman.pdf).

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Results and discussion

Although plant selection efficiency on drought stress conditions was dependent on genotype, all tested genotypes successfully regenerated callus and further on, all genotypes regenerated plants under stress conditions i.e. when 5% PEG was added to the culture media.



Figure 1. Internodal segments regenerating callus in different conditions: a) an example of polar regeneration of callus on internodal explant wihout drought stress; (b) callus extending on the entire inoculum; (c) callus necrosis under drought stress simulated by 5% PEG.

The callus regenerated on MS-T medium in both transgenic and control potato lines. Callus regeneration began at the apical pole of internodal fragment (Fig. 1 a) and expanded throughout the inoculum (Fig. 1 b). A part of the regenerated calli remained viable after treatment with PEG, but others lost their viability through necrosis (Fig. 1 c) during the first three weeks of testing on RMB5 media with 5% PEG.

Differences between the percentages of viability (%) of calluses derived from transgenic, non-transgenic and control (Désirée and Baltica) potato lines is depicted in Fig. 2. All transgenic genotypes have a higher viability when compared to the control cultivars Désirée and Baltica, but there are also differences between different transgenic genotypes, some performing better than others (Fig. 2).

It is possible that infection with *Agrobacterium* was stimulating organogenesis acting as a stress signal and did also influence plant response to *in vitro* regeneration under stress conditions also in next generations of plants, which means that an epigenetic mechanism should be involved. However, this hypothesis has to be further investigated. From these calluses, plants have been regenerated, under drought stress, in different percentages compared to controls. Based on the rate of regeneration, lines tested for resistance to drought stress were divided into two groups: resistant and susceptible to stress (Fig. 3).



Figure 2. Percentage of viable calluses derived from potato lines transformed with *Agrobacterium* i.e. T1 generation maintained in *in vitro* culture, compared with the controls. Cultivars Désirée and Baltica were used as control. Values are means of percentage of viability of calli regenerated on MS-Tculture media with 5% PEG, n= 5; bars = SE.



Figure 3. The percentage of potato plant regeneration from calli on MS-T media with 5% PEG, depending on genotype and compared with control cultivar. The values are means of five replicates; bars = SE.

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Thus, lines with a regeneration rate higher than of control lines were considered resistant whereas lines with a regeneration percentage less than or equal to the controls were included in the susceptible group. Following the statistical analysis it was found, that there is a significant difference between these two groups (susceptible and resistant). After PEG induced drought stress, some regenerated shoots suffered necrosis (Fig. 4 a), formed kind of runners (Fig. 4 b) or even vitrified (Fig. 4 c). But some of the plants with integrated PVY resistance gene showed also resistance to drought stress (Fig. 5).



Figure 4. Potato plants regenerated under drought stress conditions from susceptible lines (a - 6D1, b - 1D6, c - 7B3 – exhibits vitrifying leaves).

In the second stage of stress selection, potato lines, which regenerated viable plants from callus under drought stress, were tested on three different concentration 5%, 10%, 15% of PEG 6000 added to the culture media.



Figure 5. Regenerating plants from drought stress resistant lines (a – line 5B2, b – line 5B8).

Upon selection on 5% PEG, four putative drought resistant lines were selected all belonging to Baltica cultivar (4B9, 5B2, 5B8, 6B4). These lines had higher viability as compared with the control. Also, using T test, it was observed that it is a significant difference between plant viability of the lines 5B2, 5B8, 6B4 and the control wt Baltica cultivated on RMB5 +5% PEG (p = 0.004 < 0.01, p = 0.002 < 0.01, p = 0.001 < 0.01) (Fig. 6).



Figure 6. Percentage of plant viability of transgenic and putatively-transgenic genotypes and of control wild-type potato line (Baltica) under drought stress (RMB5 + 5% PEG). There are significant differences between the percentages of plant viability of transgenic and putatively-transgenic genotypes and the control Baltica (** p < 0.01). Values are means of percentage of plant viability, n=5, bars=SE

After selection of the four potato lines on RMB5 media supplemented with 10% PEG, the control (Baltica) completely lost viability and line 4B9 had a viability much lower than the other three genotypes (5B2, 5B8, 6B4) that had a percentage of viability over 50% (Fig. 7).



Figure 7. The percentage of plant viability of transgenic and putatively-transgenic potato genotypes under drought stress (RMB5 + 10% PEG) and of control (the same lines cultivated in control conditions: RMB5 without PEG). **Significant difference: p< 0.01. Values are means of percentage of plant viability, n=5, bars=SE</p>

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Moreover, the statistical analysis showed that the difference between the plant viability of line 4B9 on RMB5 with 10% PEG and the same line on control conditions (RMB5 without PEG), is significant (p=0.002 < 0.01). At the same time, the difference between the plant viability of lines 5B2, 5B8 and 6B4 under stress conditions (RMB5 + 10% PEG) and control conditions (RMB5 without PEG), is not significant. Thus it was observed that the line 4B9 became susceptible to drought stress (Fig. 8). This aspect was also confirmed during the stress selection on media with 15% PEG, when this line lost its viability. At the same time, during the stress selection on media with 15% PEG, the lines 5B2, 5B8 and 6B4 had percentage of plant viability close to 100% (Fig. 9) and formed roots (Fig. 10) with the average length between 0.5 and 1.5 cm.

The statistical analyses showed that there is no significant difference between the plant viability of these three lines cultivated in both drought stress conditions (RMB5 +15% PEG) and control conditions (RMB5 without PEG).



Figure 8. Differences between resistant plant (A - line 5B2) and susceptible plant (B - line 4B9) during the stress selection on RMB5 medium with 10% PEG.



Figure 9. The percentage of plant viability of transgenic and putatively-transgenic potato genotypes under drought stress (RMB5 + 15% PEG) and of control (the same lines cultivated in control conditions: RMB5 without PEG). Values are means of percentage of plant viability, n=5, bars=SE.

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After the test with 15% PEG plants have small size (Fig. 11 a, 11 d) but formed roots (Fig. 11 b). These results suggest that *in vitro* stress selection is sufficient to discriminate between susceptible and drought resistant plants in terms of viability and regeneration rate. Our findings are in accordance with previous studies which showed that *in vitro* stress selection is a useful technique to select drought resistant genotypes derived from different plant species such as sunflower (Punia and Jain, 2002), *Rubus* (Orlikowska *et al.*, 2009) and potato (Gopal and Iwama, 2007). Previous PCR analysis showed that the five genotypes: 4D1, 6D4, 6D6, 5B2, and 5B8 were positive for the hairpin construct and hence putatively resistant to PVY.







Figure 11. Viable potato plants selected on RMB5 medium with 15% PEG (a, d – line 6B4; b – line 5B2; c – line 5B8).

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In the current experiments, upon applying *in vitro* drought stress selection, two transgenic potato lines 5B2 and 5B8 proved to be also resistant to drought stress determined by PEG in all the three concentrations analyzed at plantlet level (5%, 10% and 15%). In other words, these two genotypes have been induced to carry a double resistance, to biotic (PVY) and abiotic (drought) stress (Table 1).

Table 1.

Genotype	Transgenic (T) /	Resistant (R) /	
	Not Transgenic (NT)	Susceptible (S) to drought stress	
Désirée	Control	-	
1D6	ND*	S	
1D9	ND	S	
4D1	Т	S	
6D1	ND	S	
6D4	Т	S	
6D6	Т	S	
Baltica	Control	-	
1B4	ND	S	
3B5	ND	S	
4B9	ND	S	
5B2	Т	R	
5B8	Т	R	
6B4	ND	R	
6B8	ND	S	
7B3	NT	S	
*ND = Not I	Determined		

The response of genotypes undergoing transformation with *Agrobacterium* to drought stress, after all rounds of *in vitro* selections.

Conclusions

The results obtained reveal that it is possible to combine transgenesis and *in vitro* stress selection in order to induce more resistant traits in potato, in our case PVY resistance mediated by RNAi and drought resistance.

In addition, it seems that one stress factor already existing in a plant can induce a general mechanism, which prepares the faster response to an additional stress factor.

This strategy might be applied to obtain other potato cultivars or other plant species with resistance to different stress factors.

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CONSIDERATIONS REGARDING THE FOREST LANDSNAIL FAUNA OF THE CIUCAŞ MOUNTAINS

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SUMMARY. Part of the southern branch of Eastern Carpathians, the Ciucas Mountains have a substratum of Cretaceous limestones, gravel and rounded blocks of crystalline schists, gneiss, limestone, sandstone, caught in a limestone matrix. This paper analyses the land snail fauna of deciduous and mixed forests, a habitat type where the geological substrate is completed with favourable humidity conditions that allow the development of specific land snail communities. In the research area a 55 species of terrestrial gastropods were identified. Zonitoides nitidus, Mastus venerabilis, Faustina faustina, Balea fallax and Bulgarica cana prevail in the communities, being abundant in most sampling sites. Other species such as *Balea stabilis* and *Monachoides incarnatus* develop large populations and reach high values of relative abundances in spite of their low frequency. The European interest species Drobacia banatica was identified in five of the ten sampling sites. This species is in the Ciucas Mountains at the eastern limit of its distribution. One of the two species of the genus Alopia known as being present in the area was also found, represented by two subspecies, Alopia nefasta nefasta and Alopia nefasta helenae.

Keywords: biodiversity, the Ciucas Mountains, communities, limestone, snails.

Introduction

Part of the decomposition biota in most terrestrial ecosystems, land snails are also preyed upon by many vertebrates and invertebrates, having therefore a central position in many food chains.

Several studies have documented the importance of edafic factors in land snail distribution. Traditionally the pH and calcium level are considered limiting factors (Agócsy, 1967; Cameron, 1973; Radea and Mylonas, 1992). Land-snails have high calcium requirements for the production of both their eggs and their shells, hence lime-rich substrates generally support abundant and diverse land-snail communities (Kerney and Cameron, 1979; Gärdenfors, 1992; Nekola, 1999).

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Several studies have demonstrated the strong positive correlation between individual abundance, species richness and the pH of the organic litter and soil (Wäreborn, 1969, 1970; Waldén, 1981; Nekola, 1999; Nekola and Smith, 1999; Pokryszko and Cameron, 2005).

Part of the southern branch of Eastern Carpathians, the Ciucaş Mountains have a development of the relief on three levels, with Cretaceous limestones, but also with gravel and rounded blocks of crystalline schists, gneiss, limestone, sandstone etc., cemented in a limestone matrix. These geological conditions allow the development of a rich land snail fauna. Our research aims to analyze the terrestrial snail communities inhabiting deciduous and mixed forests, habitats which combine the presence of soil calcium with favourable humidity conditions.

Materials and methods

Samples were taken from 10 sampling sites located in deciduous and mixed forests of Ciucas Mountains as presented in Fig. 1 and described below.

S 1 10 km to Săcele, 45.32592 N, 25.49398 E, altitude: 843 m.

S 2 Cheia – Văleni, 45.2488 N, 25.56673 E, 791m altitude.

S 3 Valea Stânei: 45.2520 N, 25.57590 E, 885 m altitude.

S 4 one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges: 45.2998 N, 26.0370 E, 1273 m altitude.

S 5 Muntele Roşu: 45.30110 N, 25.5690 E, 1336 m altitude.

S 6 Pârâul Berii: 45.3004 N, 25.5625 E, 1219 m altitude.

S 7 A tributary of Cheița River: 45.2853 N 25.5480 E, 1057 m altitude.

S 8 Babarunca: 45.3074 N, 25.5125 E, 952 m altitude

S 9 Dălghiu, near the forest range, 45.5366 N, 25.9049 E, 905 m altitude.

S10 Dălghiu, 45.5492 N, 25.9127 E, 932 m altitude.

The samping points were selected in forests with different microhabitat conditions considering the humidity level, the vegetation and the presence of limestones:

- sampling points with swampy areas near the river: S9,

- mixed forests: S1, S 5, S10,
- moderately humid areas: S2, S3, S7, S8,

- sampling points with limestone and limestone-cimented blocks: S 4, S 6, Samples were collected from plots of 100 m^2 , by four people for about an hour. All the living snails and freshly empty shells from vegetation, litter and decomposing wood were collected. The visual searching was quantified in effort. The same amount of time (one hour) was used to collect samples in all the sites. In order to collect the small species living in the litter, one 20 l sample of litter was sieved in every site (Cameron and Pokryszko, 2005). Standardisation of the collecting methods is necessary in order to perform an analysis of the land snail communities in terms of relative abundance. The snails or empty shells found in the samples were identified using Grossu (1981, 1983, 1987, 1993) and Kerney and Cameron (1979). The classification follows Fauna Europaea (Bank, 2011).

The frequency, and the relative abundance were calculated and used in Table 1. The relative abundance was also used to build the affinity diagram of the sampling stations (single linkage method, Euclidean distance).



Figure 1. Location of the 10 sampling sites

Results and discussion

54 species of land snails were found in the sampling sites. The systematic list is presented below.

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The systematic list of terrestrial gastropod species from deciduous and mixed forests of the Ciucaş Mountains

Carychiidae Jeffreys, 1830

Carychium tridentatum (Risso, 1826) - S1: 10 km to Săcele, S3: Valea Stânei, S4: Valea Stânei Gorges, S7: tributary of Cheița, S8: Babarunca, S9: Dălghiu.

Succineidae H. Beck, 1837

Succinea putris (Linnaeus, 1758) - S9: Dălghiu.

Cochlicopidae Pilsbry, 1900 (1879)

Cochlicopa lubrica (O.F. Müller, 1774) - S1: 10 km to Săcele, S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei tributary of Cheiţa, S8: Babarunca, S9: Dălghiu.

Orculidae Pilsbry, 1918

Sphyradium doliolum (Bruguière, 1792) : S1 10 km to Săcele.

Valloniidae Morse, 1864

Vallonia costata (O.F. Müller, 1774) : S3: Pritvale - Valea Stânei.

Acanthinula aculeata (O.F. Müller 1774): S1: 10 km to Săcele.

Enidae B.B. Woodward, 1903 (1880)

Ena montana (Draparnaud, 1801) - S4: la one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges , S5: Muntele Roşu to Pârâul Berii, S6: Pârâul Berii, S9: Dălghiu.

Merdigera obscura (O.F. Müller, 1774) - S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei.

Mastus venerabilis (L. Pfeiffer) - S1: 10 km to Săcele, S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S4: one km ustream Valea Stânei Gorges, S5: Muntele Roșu to Pârâul Berii, S6: Pârâul Berii, S8: Babarunca, S10: Dălghiu.

Clausiliidae J.E. Gray, 1855

Alopia nefasta helenae (R. Kimakowicz): S4: one km upsream Valea Stânei Gorges.

Alopia nefasta nefasta (M. Kimakowicz): S5: Muntele Roşu to Pârâul Berii.

Cochlodina (Cochlodina) laminata (Montagu, 1803) : S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen.

Cochlodina (Paracochlodina) orthostoma (Menke, 1828): S4: la one km upsream Valea Stânei Gorges, S6: Pârâul Berii.

Ruthenica filograna filograna (Rossmässler, 1836). Original data: S5: Muntele Roşu to Pârâul Berii.

Macrogastra (Pyrostoma) plicatula (Held, 1836): S1: 10 km to Săcele, S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S6: Pârâul Berii, S7: tributary of Cheița, S8: Babarunca, S10: Dălghiu.

Clausilia cruciata (Studer, 1820) - S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S4: la one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges, S5: Muntele Roșu to Pârâul Berii, S6: Pârâul Berii.

Clausilia dubia A. Schmidt, 1856 - S6: Pârâul Berii.

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Laciniaria plicata (Draparnaud, 1801) - S1: 10 km to Săcele, S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S8: Babarunca.

Balea fallax (Rossmässler, 1836): S2, Cheia; S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S4: one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges , S5: Muntele Roşu to Pârâul Berii, S6: Pârâul Berii, S7: tributary of Cheița, S8: Babarunca, S9, S10: Dălghiu.

Balea (Pseudalinda) stabilis (L. Pfeiffer, 1847) - S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei. Vestia (Vestia) turgida (Rossmässler, 1836) - S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei. Vestia (Vestia) elata (Rossmässler, 1836) - S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of

Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S13 : Babarunca, S15: Dălghiu. Bulgarica (Strigilecula) vetusta (Rossmässler, 1836) - S5: Muntele Roșu to Pârâul Berii

Bulgarica (Strigilecula) cana (Held, 1836) - S1: 10 km to Săcele, S2: Cheia – Văleni triutary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S4: one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges, S5: Muntele Roșu to Pârâul Berii, S6: Pârâul Berii, S7: tributary of Cheița, S8: Babarunca.

Punctidae Morse, 1864

Punctum (Punctum) pygmaeum (Draparnaud, 1801).

Original data: S4: one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges, S7: tributary of Cheița, S8: Babarunca.

Pristilomatidae T. Cockerell, 1891

Vitrea diaphana (S. Studer, 1820) - S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale- Valea Stânei, S4: one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges, S6: Pârâul Berii, S7: tributary of Cheita, S8: Babarunca, S9, S10: Dălghiu.

Vitrea transsylvanica (Clessin, 1877) - S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S6: Pârâul Berii, S8: Babarunca, S9, S10: Dălghiu.

Vitrea crystallina (O.F. Müller, 1774) - S7: tributary of Cheița.

Euconulidae H.B. Baker, 1928

Euconulus (Euconulus) fulvus (O.F. Müller, 1774) - S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S7: tributary of Cheița.

Gastrodontidae Tryon, 1866

*Zonitoides (Zonitoides) nitidus (*O.F. Müller, 1774) - S1: 10 km to Săcele, S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S4: one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges, S7: tributary of Cheita, S8: Babarunca, S9, S10: Dălghiu.

Oxychilidae P. Hesse, 1927 (1879)

Daudebardia transsylvanica (Draparnaud, 1805) - S1: 10 km to Săcele, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S8: Babarunca, S10: Dălghiu.

Oxychilus depressus (Sterki, 1880) - S8: Babarunca.

Oxychilus glaber (Rossmässler, 1835) - S1: 10 km to Săcele; S8-Babarunca.

Cellariopsis deubeli (Wagner, 1914) - S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S4: one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges,

S7: tributary of Cheiţa.

Aegopinella pura (Alder, 1830) - S1: 10 km to Săcele, S9: Dălghiu.

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Aegopinella minor (Stabile, 1864) - S6: Pârâului Berii, S7: tributary of Cheița.

Aegopinella epipedostoma (Fagot, 1879) - S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S4:

one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges, S6: Pârâul Berii, S7: tributary of Cheița, S10: Dălghiu.

Nesovitrea petronella (Pfeiffer, 1853) - S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S6: Pârâul Berii, S7: tributary of Cheița.

Vitrinidae Fitzinger, 1833

Semilimax semilimax (J. Férussac, 1802) - S7: tributary of Cheița, S8: Babarunca.

Oligolimax annularis (S. Studer, 1820) - S7: tributary of Cheița.

Vitrina pellucida (Clessin, 1877) - S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S5: Muntele Roșu to Pârâul Berii, S6: Pârâul Berii, S7: tributary of Cheița.

Limacidae Lamarck, 1801

Limax cinereoniger (Wolf, 1803) - S1: 10 km to Săcele, S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S6: Pârâul Berii, S8: Babarunca.

Lehmannia marginata (O.F. Müller, 1774) - S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen.

Arionidae J.E. Gray, 1840

Arion subfuscus (Draparnaud, 1805) - S4: one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges, S8: Babarunca, S9: Dălghiu.

Arion (Carinarion) circumscriptus (Johnston, 1828) – S1: 10 km to Săcele, S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S6: Pârâul Berii, S7: tributary of Cheița, S8: Babarunca, S10: Dălghiu.

Bradybaenidae Pilsbry, 1934 (1898)

Fruticicola fruticum (O.F. Müller, 1774) - S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S9: Dălghiu.

Hygromiidae Tryon, 1866

Euomphalia strigella (Draparnaud, 1801) - S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S8: Babarunca.

Monachoides incarnatus (O.F. Müller, 1774) - S4: one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges, S9, S10: Dălghiu.

Monachoides vicinus (Rossmässler, 1842) - S1: 10 km to Săcele, S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S6: Pârâul Berii, S7: tributary of Cheița, S8: Babarunca.

Helicidae Rafinesque, 1815

Arianta arbustorum arbustorum (Linnaeus, 1758) - S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S5: Muntele Roșu traseu Pârâul Berii – izvor, S6: Pârâul Berii, S7: tributary of Cheița, S8: Babarunca, S9, S10: Dălghiu.

Drobacia banatica (Rossmässler, 1838) S1: 10 km to Săcele, S2: Pritvale – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S8: Babarunca, S9, S10: Dălghiu.

Faustina (faustina) faustina (Rossmässler, 1835) - S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S4: one km upstream Valea

Stânei Gorges, S5: Muntele Roșu to Pârâul Berii, S6: Pârâul Berii, S7: tributary of Cheița, S8: Babarunca, S9, S10: Dălghiu.

Isognomostoma isognomostomos (Schröter, 1784) - S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S4:one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges, S5: Muntele Roșu to Pârâul Berii, S6: Pârâul Berii, S7: tributary of Cheița, S8: Babarunca, S9, S10: Dălghiu.

Helix (Helix) pomatia (Linnaeus, 1758) - S1: 10 km to Săcele, S2: Cheia – Văleni tributary of Teleajen, S3: Pritvale – Valea Stânei, S4: one km upstream Valea Stânei Gorges, S6: Pârâul Berii, S7: tributary of Cheița.

The number of species and specimens for each sampling station is represented in Figure 2. The presence of limestones and lime-cimented blocks in a sampling site is associated with the decrease in humidity, hence there is a reduced diversity, as it is the case of S4, S5 and S6, while an increased diversity is found in sampling points with higher humidity level. The highest diversity and also the highest number of specimens were recorded in S3 - Pritvale-Valea Stânii, S8 - Babarunca and S9 - Dălghiu. The calcareous nature of the substratum is underlined by the presence of species characteristic for open calcareous habitats like Mastus venerabilis, which is one of the most abundant species in the analyzed area (A%=10.038, Table 1), and species of Alopia genus - Alopia nefasta nefasta and Alopia nefasta helenae. Analysing the land snail communities in term of relative abundance of individual species differences in habitat conditions are evident. The tree diagramm performed on relative abundance (Fig. 3) reveal a first group of stations located in mixed forests, were the lowest diversity was recorded (S1, S5, S10). A second group includes stations with limestone and limestone-cemented blocks (S4 and S6), while the most humid station (S9) and the one with the highest diversity (S3) are independent, joining the group at a great distance.



Figure 2. The number of specimens and species identified in each sampling site.

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Table 1.

The identified species: zoogeographical elements (Hol. - Holarctic; Eur. - European; E-Sib.- Euro-Siberian; C-Eur. - Central-European; C-N Eur, – Central-North European; C-S Eur. – Central-South European; C-E Eur. – Central-East European; Balc. - Balcanic; Carp. – Carpathic; End. - endemic), their demands towards humidity (H – hygrophylous; MH mesohygrophylous; M – mesophylous; MX - mesoxerophylous), number of individuals, frequency (F%) and relative abundance (A%).

species	Zoogeo-	Humidity	no.	F%	A%
-	graphy		ind.		
Carychium tridentatum	Eur.	Н	32	70	1.765
Succinea putris	E-Sib.	Н	1	10	0.005
Cochlicopa lubrica	Hol	Н	12	60	0.661
Sphyradium doliolum	C-S Eur.	М	4	10	0.220
Vallonia costata	Hol.	MH	2	10	0.110
Acanthinula aculeata	Eur.	М	5	20	0.275
Mastus venerabilis	Balc.	MH	182	80	10.038
Ena montana	Eur.	MH	13	40	0.717
Merdigera obscura	Eur.	MH	3	10	0.165
Alopia nefasta helenae	End.	М	2	10	0.110
Alopia nefasta nefasta	End.	Μ	8	10	0.450
Cochlodina laminata	Eur.	MH	18	60	0.450
Cochlodina orthostoma	Eur.	MH	13	40	1.020
Ruthenica filograna	C. Eur.	Μ	3	10	0.165
Macrogastra plicatula	Carp.	М	41	40	2.261
Clausilia cruciata	C-N Eur.	Μ	23	10	1.875
Clausilia dubia	Eur.	MH	1	40	0.005
Laciniaria plicata	Eur.	MH	17	10	0.937
Balea fallax	Carp.	MH	74	80	4.081
Balea stabilis	Carp.	MH	215	10	11.858
Vestia elata	Carp.	М	11	40	0.606
Vestia turgida	Carp.	М	49	10	2.702
Bulgarica cana	C-N Eur.	М	66	80	3.640
Bulgarica vetusta	C-SE Eur	Μ	48	10	2.647
Punctum pygmaeum	Eur.	Μ	4	30	0.220
Vitrina pellucida	Hol.	М	8	40	0.441
Semilimax semilimax	Eur.	Н	6	30	0.330
Phenacolimax annularis	Eur	MH	1	10	0.005
Vitrea diaphana	Eur.	MH	99	80	5.460
Vitrea transsylvanica	C-E Eur.	MH	21	50	1.158
Vitrea crystallina	Eur.	MH	1	10	0.005
Euconulus fulvus	Hol.	MH	3	30	0.165
Daudebardia transsylvanica	Carp.	MH	5	40	0.275
Cellariopsis deubeli	Carp.	MH	14	40	0.772
Oxychilus glaber	Eur.	MH	18	10	0.992
Oxychilus depressus	C-S Eur.	MH	5	10	0.275

				Table	1 continued
Aegopinella pura	Eur.	М	5	20	0.275
Aegopinella minor	C-S Eur.	MX	10	20	0.551
Aegopinella epipedostoma	C Eur.	MH	40	50	2.206
Nesovitrea petronella	Eur.	М	7	30	0.386
Zonitoides nitidus	Hol.	Н	206	80	11.362
Arion circumscriptus	Eur.	MH	100	90	5.514
Arion subfuscus	Eur.	MH	4	10	0.220
Limax cinereoniger	Eur.	MH	8	10	0.441
Lehmania marginata	Eur.	Н	18	20	0.992
Bradybaena fruticum	Pal.	MH	48	30	2.647
Monachoides incarnatus	Eur.	М	127	30	7.004
Monachoides vicinus	C Eur.	М	23	60	1.268
Euomphalia strigella	Eur.	М	59	30	3.254
Arianta arbustorum	Eur.	М	14	80	0.772
Faustina faustina	C-E Eur.	М	130	90	6.40
Drobacia banatica	C-E Eur.	М	23	50	1.13
Isognomostoma	Eur.	М	59	90	2.90
isognomostomos					
Helix pomatia	Eur.	М	14	60	0.689

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In five of the ten sampling points *Drobacia banatica* was present. *Drobacia banatica* is a species of European interest which reaches here the eastern limit of its distribution. The species is present both on the northern and southern part of Ciucaş Mountains.



Figure 3. Cluster dendrogram of sampling sites based on species relative abundance (single linkage, Euclidean distance).

V. GHEOCA

Of special interest are the species of the endemic genus *Alopia* H&A. (Adams, 1855). Except for one subspecies occurring in Slovakia, the genus *Alopia* is entirely endemic to Romania. It is a strongly calciphilous genus with the center of diversity in the eastern limestone-rich area of the Southern Carpathians, where endemic species have evolved within the major mountain ranges (Soós, 1943). Most of the taxa have a limited distribution and their conservation is important both at national and European level.

This genus is present mostly on limestone rocks in open habitats. This is the reason why in our samples only a few specimens belonging to a single species with two subspecies *Alopia nefasta nefasta and Alopia nefasta helene*, previously considered *Alopia helenae helenae* (Grossu, 1981), were present. A recent molecular study of the genus *Alopia* (Fehér et al., 2013) made some changes in its taxonomy. Consequently *Alopia helenae helenae* (Grosu, 1981; Nordsieck, 2008) was found to be a subspecies of *Alopia nefasta*.

Conclusions

The forests of Ciucaş Mountains show favourable conditions both of substratum and humidity and therefore shelter a rich land snail fauna. In that area both calciphilous and hygrophilous and mesohygrophilous snails are present. Species like *Zonitoides nitidus, Mastus venerabilis, Faustina faustina, Balea fallax, Bulgarica cana,* are present in most sampling points having high values of relative abundance. Other species such as *Balea stabilis* and *Monachoides incarnatus* develop large populations and reach high values of relative abundances in spite of their reduced frequency.

For both *Drobacia banatica* and the endemic subspecies of *Alopia nefasta* it is important to describe the current distribution, in order to establish the appropriate management measures for these species' conservation.

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BEHAVIORAL REACTIONS AND STRUCTURAL ALTERATIONS OF HIPPOCAMPAL TISSUE AFTER REPETITIVE MILD TRAUMATIC BRAIN INJURY IN MICE

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SUMMARY. Mild traumatic brain injury (TBI), often identified with concussion, is not considered to be life threatening in close perspective. However, the information about its delayed neurodegenerative effects is becoming more common. Especially this relates to repeated cases of concussion in military service members and athletes. The aim of our study was to show behavioral and histological changes in a mouse model of repetitive mild traumatic brain injury (rmTBI). No macroscopic brain abnormalities such as skull fractures or intracranial bleeding were found in mice after rmTBI. To detect behavioral alterations, we carried out the "Open field" test on day 5, 10 and 30 since the first impact of five. The behavioral data revealed decrease of motor activity and increase of anxiety level when compared to controls. Immunohistochemical data provided strong evidence of astro- and microgliosis that persisted for weeks after rmTBI. Our results indicate that new mouse model of human rmTBI can be useful in development of neuroprotective approaches for treatment of rmTBI consequences.

Keywords: hippocampus, immunohistochemistry, mouse model, "Open field" behavioral test, repetitive mild traumatic brain injury.

Introduction

Symptoms of mild traumatic brain injury (mTBI) are more difficult to detect than those observed in severe traumatic brain injury due to moderate range of noticeable abnormalities like skull fractures and intracranial bleeding. According to Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), common concept of TBI indicates brain damage due to bump, blow or jolt or a penetrating injury that disrupts normal function of the brain. However, TBI represents not a single event, but a whole cascade starting with initial damage (primary injury) and continuing with secondary processes (secondary injury) that can last from minutes to months and years (Xiong *et al.*, 2013). Latter is mainly associated with cytotoxic and inflammatory processes accompanied by

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metabolic alterations of brain due to vascular failure (Werner and Engelhard, 2007; Beauchamp *et al.*, 2008; Granacher, 2008). It should be noted that mild TBI is a type of closed trauma, and its outcome is primarily determined by secondary processes, while severe forms are much more dependent on initial mechanical injury (Betrus and Kreipke, 2012).

Acute signs of a concussion can include loss of consciousness, amnesia, irritability, slowed reaction times, sleep disturbances and emotional lability (McCrory *et al.*, 2009). The critical fact is that these deficits are observed in the absence of structural brain damage when using such standard diagnostic methods as magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), computer tomography (CT) and electroencephalography (EEG) (Belanger *et al.*, 2005; Davis *et al.*, 2009). Nevertheless, there's still a danger of long-term consequences. Specifically, the results of the survey showed that retired professional football players who experienced three or more concussions were more likely to report about memory impairment and mild cognitive impairment (Guskiewicz *et al.*, 2005). Moreover, the analysis of post-mortem data indicated that it was among retired football players who had played for five or more years there were elevated rates of death due to Alzheimer's disease (AD) or amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS). However, the authors assumed that actual causes of death also might have included chronic traumatic encephalopathy – CTE (Lehman *et al.*, 2012; McKee *et al.*, 2014).

Taking into account all depicted above, modeling of mTBI and capturing its consequences at short and long time intervals after immediate impact appear to be extremely important. There are several kinds of models reproducing single and repeated mTBI. Mostly they represent variations of schemes that existed before and were used for mimicking more severe forms of trauma. On a similar principle, the model of repetitive mTBI (rmTBI) designed by Michael J. Kane et al. (Kane *et al.*, 2012) and used in our research represents a modification of Marmarou's weight-drop model (Marmarou *et al.*, 1994). The main point of its key features was to make experimental conditions of receiving a concussion closer to reality by lowering rates of mortality and cases of skull fractures and hemorrhages in animals. Since hippocampus is integral for multiple aspects of behavior and shows high sensitivity to any pathological changes of brain (Levita *et al.*, 2014; Kim *et al.*, 2014), we focused our research on this particular structure.

Materials and methods

All stages of the experiment were conducted in accordance to European Convention for the Protection of Vertebrate Animals Used for Experimental and Other Scientific Purposes (Strasbourg, 1986).

Animals

Subjects were 56 8 to 12 weeks old males of wild-type mouse (24 - 40 g). Animals were housed in cages on a 12-hour light–dark cycle, with free access to food and water. In the experiment, animals were divided into following groups: 1) not anesthetized, not injured; 2) anesthetized, not injured; 3) anesthetized, injured. Before injury mice were lightly anesthetized with diethyl ether. The positive effect of anesthesia was determined by absence of reaction to toe pinch.

Model of repetitive mild traumatic brain injury

We induced rmTBI by using a model proposed by Michael J. Kane et al. (Kane *et al.*, 2012). Its design represents a modification of classical Marmarou's weight-drop model (Marmarou *et al.*, 1994) which reproduced single diffuse TBI from mild to severe. Both in original scheme and in modified, the skull of a mouse is exposed to an impact with a weight guided by a vertical tube. The tube is pre-fixed to a stationary object like wall or rack. In both schemes, the severity of injury depends on the height from which the load falls and the weight of the latter. Respectively, in our study the 95 g weight fell from the 1 m height. Lightly anesthetized animal were not fixed in the apparatus, and after the weight fell, they fell too (through a piece of aluminium foil pre-attached on top of the H-shaped box), landing on a damper support. We avoided rebounding of the weight and, consequently, additional blows to the skull by using a nylon fishing line that stopped the load from falling after the impact due to its length. According to Kane's model, neither scalp incision nor attachment of helmet to the mouse skull were done. Mice were subjected to 5 head impacts (1/day for 5 successive days).

Recovery of righting reflex

After each of five impacts mice (n=29) were immediately placed on their backs on a flat surface, and time required for taking a normal position was fixed. Thus, we evaluated time required for neurological restoration. Measures of injured mice then were compared to controls (anesthetized, not injured, n=20).

Behavioral assessment

To investigate the behavioral effects of rmTBI, mice were tested in the Open field test before (control, n=16) and after the series of impacts (n=27) on day 5 (n=10), day 10 (n=9) and day 30 (n=8) since the first injury. In addition, we divided control animals into two groups, one of which was anesthetized without delivering the impact (n=8) in order to compare it with the group of animals tested shortly after the last injury (day 5). Presumably, animals from the group of day 5 could still be under the influence of anesthesia. Another control group (n=8) wasn't exposed to ether inhalations.

Animals were tested for changes in motor activity, rest duration, grooming activity and anxiety level. Each mouse was kept on a platform for 30 minutes. The area of the "field" was 60 cm x 60 cm and consisted of 16 equal squares. Motor activity was defined by counting lines (sides of the squares) crossed within respective period of time, rest duration was defined by fixing the time spent in corner zones of the platform, grooming activity was defined by number of acts of grooming and anxiety level was defined by number of acts of defecation.

Edema

Both controls (n=8) and injured mice (n=8) were sacrificed to detect possible signs of edema formation. The presence of edema was evaluated by comparing water content between controls and mouse brains after 4 hours since the last impact of five. We used the method which was previously described (Kawai et al., 2001), but slightly modified. Mice were decapitated, and brains were rapidly removed from the skull. Whole fresh brain was weighed on aluminum foil, dried for 90 hours at 73°C in an oven and reweighed. Percentage water content of each brain was calculated according to the formula: (wet weight) – dry weight)/(wet weight) × 100.

Immunohistochemical staining and image processing

Immunohistochemical analysis was carried out as previously described (Pivneva *et al.*, 2005). Controls (n=6) and mice of day 5 (n=5), 10 (n=5) and 30 (n=8) were anesthetized by injecting an overdose of calipsol and transcardially perfused with 0.1 M phosphate buffer (PB) followed by 4% paraformaldehyde in 0,1 M PB. After perfusion, extracted brains were immersed in the same fixative and postfixed overnight at 4°C. Frontal brain sections (50 µm) were prepared using a Leica VT1000 A vibratome (Wetzlar, Germany). The sections were left overnight at 4°C for incubation with primary antibodies diluted in the solution (0.1 M PB, 1% bovine serum albumin, 0,3% Triton X-100). To visualize astrocytes and microglial cells, we used rabbit polyclonal antibodies anti-GFAP (1:1500, Dako, Denmark) and rabbit polyclonal antibodies anti-Iba-1 (1:1000, Wako, Japan). On the next day, brain sections were treated with secondary anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 594-conjugated antibodies (1:1000, Invitrogen, USA). Stained sections then were mounted to glass slides using fluorescent mounting medium Immu-Mount (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, USA) and examined with a FluoView FV1000 confocal microscope (Olympus Inc., Japan).

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed in StatSoft Statistica 6.0. The two-tailed Student's t-test was used to assess the significance of differences between samples (p < 0.05 was considered to indicate statistical significance). All data are shown as mean \pm SEM.

Results and discussion

No cases of skull fractures, intracranial bleeding or seizures were registered. Preliminary data also showed no signs of general edema (Fig. 1).

To confirm the alterations of neurological state immediately after trauma, we compared time intervals necessary for righting reflex restoration in anesthetized controls and in injured mice after each impact (Fig. 2). Thus, we observed that receiving of an injury leaded to delay in full recovery of consciousness.

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Figure 1. Edema measuring on day 5 since the first impact. Ocurrence of edema was defined by comparison of water content in control (n=8) and damaged (n=8) mouse brains.



Figure 2. Recovery of righting reflex after each inhalational anesthezia (control animals, n=20) or after each impact (injured animals, n=28) on five successive days. Results are the mean ± SEM.

Behavioral data indicated neurological deficits as well (Fig. 3). We observed decreasing of motor activity on day 5 and its gradual restoration by day 30 (Fig. 3 A). However, the level of control wasn't reached. Statistically significant difference was shown for groups of non-anesthetized control animals and injured animals tested at day 5 (p < 0.01). Since there was a decrease in motor activity of animals exposed to trauma, the time spent in corner zones increased (Fig. 3 B). Statistically significant difference was shown for groups of non-anesthetized control animals and injured animals tested at day 5 (p < 0.01).



Figure 3. Results of behavioral test "Open field" in control (C1 – non-anesthetized, n=8, C2 – anesthetized, n=8), on day 5 (D5 – anesthetized, n=10), day 10 (D10, n=9) and day 30 (D30, n=8) since the first impact. * and ** - p<0.05 and p<0.01 in comparison with non-anesthetized control (t-test). Day 5 was compared to anesthetized control. Graph (D) shows statistically significant difference between anesthetized control and day 5. Rest of indicators represents the result of comparison with non-anesthetized control. Results are the mean ± SEM.</p>

The observations of grooming activity showed that the number of grooming acts decreased when compared to non-anesthetized control, but remained the same when compared to the group of anesthetized control animals (Fig. 3 C). By day 10 it increased when compared to anesthetized control and day 5. By day 30 it became comparable to non-anesthetized control. Statistically significant difference was shown

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between both control groups (p<0.05) and between non-anesthetized control and day 5 (p<0.05). The changes of the number of acts of defecation (Fig. 3 D) were analogous to those of grooming activity. Statistically significant difference was shown between both control groups (p<0.01) and between anesthetized control and day 5 (p<0.05).

Quantitive immunohistochemical analysis revealed that astro- and microglisosis in CA1-zone of hippocampus persisted for weeks (Fig. 4).



Figure 4. Changes in number of astrocytes and microglial cells of hippocampal CA1-zone after delivering brain injury in control, on day 5, day 10 and day 30 since the first impact.
A – microphotographs of hippocampal CA1-zone. Bar=100 µm. The number of cells were counted in 0.1 mm². B – Comparative cell counts (astrocytes – white, microglial cells - black) in control and after delivering brain injury. *, ** and *** – p<0.05, p<0.01 and p<0.001 in comparison with control (t-test). Results are the mean ± SEM.

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Specifically, the amount of astrocytes on day 5 since the first impact (Fig. 4 B) was significantly higher than in controls. Remaining roughly the same on day 10, the number of astrocytes increased by day 30. Statistically significant difference was shown between controls and each of injured groups: day 5 (p<0.05), day 10 (p<0.01) and day 30 (p<0.001). The tendency was similar for dynamics in microglia activation. In numbers of microglial cells, statistically significant difference was shown for all the groups related to rmTBI: day 5 (p<0.05), day 10 (p<0.01) and day 30 (p<0.01). Noteworthy, the activation of astro- and microglia was combined with restoration of behavioral performance.

Conclusions

In a novel model of rmTBI, no cases of skull fractures, intracranial bleeding or seizures were registered. "Open field" behavioral testing revealed two tendencies related to decrease of motor activity by day 5 and its gradual recovery by day 30, as well as increase of anxiety level by day 5 and day 10 and its return to control measures. Astro- and microgliosis took place on day 5, day 10 and day 30, which indicates the presence of secondary injury even after a long time interval. This allows us to use the model in further research of rmTBI features and selection of potential treatments.

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EFFECTS OF ARTHROSPIRA (SPIRULINA) ON HEMATOPOIESIS IN RATS

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SUMMARY. The objective of our study was to test the hematopoietic effects of an autohtonous strain of Arthrospira (Spirulina) added to the food of white rats. To investigate these effects we compared the reponse of anemiated and healthy rats to Spirulina feeding. The animals were divided into 3 groups which were fed bread and milk for the first week. The control group (C) received Spirulina powder (3% of the food) for two additional weeks. In the other two groups, during the first week, 25% of the blood was extracted 3 times, in days 1, 2 and 4, in order to induce anemia, while in days 3 and 5, small blood samplings were taken to establish the degree of the induced anemia. One of these two groups, denoted An (anemiated) received only bread and milk for the next two weeks, while the other one, denoted An-Sp, was also anemiated but received Spirulina powder. A blood sampling was also performed at the end of the 3rd week. The state of the animals was evaluated by measuring the blood content of 3 parameters: percent reticulocytes, red blood cell (RBC) count and hematocrit value. The percent reticulocytes and RBC count kept relatively constant for the C group, while hematocrit slightly increased. In the An group, the number of reticulocytes was highest at the second sampling (after anemia induction) and slightly decreased afterwards, while in the An-Sp group the number of reticulocytes at the second sampling was moderately lower than in the An group (but significantly higher than in the control) and decreased even more at the final sampling. As expected, the RBC count had a different evolution, increasing in a highly significant way in the An-Sp group, while in the An group it only approached the level of the control, a fact which can be explained by the hematostimulating effect of Spirulina in the An-Sp group. Due to the compensating changes between reticulocytes and RBCs, the hematocrit had only slight variations during the experiment. It is concluded that Spirulina had a hematostimulating effect not only in group An-Sp but also in group C.

Keywords: antianemic effect, hematocrit, red blood cells, reticulocytes, Spirulina.

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Introduction

Arthrospira (Spirulina) is a blue-green cyanobacterium which contains a complex of vitamins (A, B, D, E, K), minerals (calcium, potassium, sodium, posphorus, magnesium, iron, iodine), amino acids, fatty acids, pigments (phycocyanin, allophycocyanin, chlorophyll and carotenoids), all necessary to an equilibrated diet (see, for example, Belay *et al.*, 1996; Sánchez *et al.*, 2003; Becker, 2004; Spolaore *et al.*, 2006). It represents the richest natural source of easily digestible proteins that contain all the essential amino acids (Guil-Guerrero *et al.*, 2004)

Previous studies have also reported that *Arthrospira (Spirulina)* can reduce the severity of anemia, inducing an increase of hematologic parameters (Kostic *et al.*, 1993; Zikic *et al.*, 1997; Simsek *et al.*, 2009). Apparently, its content of phycocyanin stimulates hematopoiesis and mimics the effect of endogenous erythropoietin (Epo). The role of Epo consists in stimulating the proliferation, growth and differentiation of erythroid precursors, with the consequent increase of the erythrocyte count, the endogenous Epo being normally inversely proportional with the erythrocyte volume.

The objective of the present study was to test the hematopoietic effects of the locally isolated wild strain of *Arthrospira (Spirulina)* added as biomass to the food of white rats. More exactly, we investigated the stimulating effects of this cyanobacterium on both anemiated and normal/healthy rats.

Material and Methods

In our experimental variant, white rats of about 200 g each were monitored for 3 weeks. They were divided into 3 groups: group C (control), which was fed for the first week only bread and milk, to which *Spirulina* powder (3% of the food) was added for the last two weeks; group An (anemiated), which consumed all the time only bread and milk; group An-Sp, also anemiated, but treated with *Spirulina* for the last two weeks, similar to the C group. The anemia in groups An and An-Sp was induced through 3 blood takings in days 1, 2 and 4. In days 3 and 5, small blood samplings were performed to check for the level of the induced anemia. A final sampling (at the end of the 3^{rd} week) was also performed for all groups. For each intervention, the animals were slightly anesthsized with ethyl ether. The blood was taken from the orbital plexus. For inducing anemia, 25% of the blood volume was extracted each time (the blood volume was estimated to 6 ml for each 100 g body weight, according to Chiricuță *et al.*, 1992). For blood samplings, only 0.5 ml were taken each time.

The state of the animals was evaluated by measuring the blood content of 3 parameters: percent of reticulocytes, red blood cell (RBC) count and hematocrit value, using standard clinical procedures.

Results and discussion

At the first/initial blood sampling, the 3 groups displayed very similar/close results, while in the subsequent samplings the results differed statistically significant in a manner suggestive for an antianemic effect of *Spirulina*. The evolution of the 3 parameters monitored, along with the appropriate statistical data for the 3 groups are presented in Table 1 (group C), Table 2 (group An) and Table 3 (group An-Sp). Suggestive bar illustrations of the measured parameters are also presented comparatively in Fig. 1 (reticulocytes), Fig. 2 (RBCs), and Fig.3 (hematocrit).

As can be seen from Table 1, at the final sampling (performed after *Spirulina* administration), the count of both reticulocytes and RBCs increased in a highly significant way, in comparison with either of the previous samplings. The hematocrit also increased significantly.

Table 1.

Evolution of the blood and statistical parameters in group C				
Blood parameter (unit of measure)	Statistical parameter	Sampling before <i>Spirulina</i> administration (S ₂)	Final sampling (S ₃)	
	x ±ES	0.59±0.02	1.08±0.06	
Reticulocytes	n	6	5	
(/100	$\pm D\%(S_2)$	0	+83.05	
erythrocytes)	p _{3/2}		< 0.001 ***	
	x ±ES	9.34±1.69	12.69±2.29	
RBCs	n	6	5	
$(x10^{6}/mm^{3})$	±D%(S2)	0	+35.86	
	p _{3/2}		< 0.001 ***	
	x ±ES	43.27±0.98	48.26±1.55	
Hematocrit	n	6	5	
(%)	$\pm D\%(S_2)$	0	+11.53	
	p _{3/2}		< 0.05 *	

Explanations: $\bar{x}\pm ES$ – mean \pm standard error of mean; n – number of animals tested; $\pm D\%(S_2)$ – percent difference between final sampling and the sampling before *Spirulina* administration; $p_{3/2}$ – value of **p** for the above defined difference.

The evolution of the blood parameters in the An group, along with the appropriate statistical parameters are presented in Table 2. As can be seen from this table, at the second sampling (after anemia was produced), a highly significant decrease in RBC count was recorded in the An group, as compared to the initial sampling, while at the final sampling this decrease was smaller, but still statistically
significant. However, as compared to the second sampling, there was a very significant increase in RBC count at the final sampling. This increase is most likely due to the induction of Epo synthesis and its effect on erythropoiesis, as a reaction of the organism to anemia. As regards the reticulocytes, there is a highly significant increase of their number at both final and second sampling, although the increase is somewhat smaller at the final sampling. This can be attributed to the conversion in time of some reticulocytes into adult erythrocytes, as indicated by the increase of RBC count at the last sampling, as mentioned above. Significant increases can also be observed for hematocrit. All these results demonstrate the natural capacity of hematologic recovery for the animals tested.

Table 2.

Evolution of blood and statistical parameters in group An				
Blood parameter	Statistical parameter	Initial sampling (S ₁)	Sampling before <i>Spirulina</i> administration (S ₂)	Final sampling (S3)
	x ±ES	0.64±0.03	3.67±0.46	3.03±0.36
	n	7	7	7
Reticulocytes	$\pm D\%(S_1)$	0	+473.43	+373.43
(/100	p _{2/1}		< 0.001 ***	
erythrocytes)	p _{3/1}			< 0.001 ***
	$\pm D\%(S_2)$	-82.56	0	- 17.43
	p _{3/2}			NS
	x±ES	11.4±0.54	8.30±0.15	10.07±0.24
	n	7	7	7
	$\pm D\%(S_1)$	0	-27.19	-11.66
RBCs	p _{2/1}		< 0.001 ***	
$(x10^{6}/mm^{3})$	p _{3/1}			< 0.05 *
	$\pm D\%(S_2)$	+37.35	0	+21.32
	p _{3/2}			< 0.001 ***
	x ±ES	38.18±3.05	40.26±1.32	44.54±2.11
	n	7	7	7
	$\pm D\%(S_1)$	0	+5.44	+16.78
Hematocrit	p _{2/1}		NS	
(%)	p _{3/1}			< 0.05 *
	$\pm D\%(S_2)$	-5.16	0	0
	p _{3/2}			

Explanations: $\pm D\%(S_1)$ – corresponding difference between S_2 or S_3 and $S_1 p_{2/1}$ – value of p for the difference between the second sampling (performed before the administration of *Spirulina*) and the initial one; $p_{3/1}$ – value of p for the difference between the final and the initial sampling; $p_{3/2}$ – value of p for the difference between the final and the second sampling. The rest of the notations are identical to those in Table 1.

For the An-Sp group, the results are presented in Table 3, below. As can be seen, all three blood parameters tested show increased values at the final sampling, as compared to the initial one. The same statement is valid if comparison is made with the second sampling, with one notable exception: the reticulocytes. Their count is higher after the induction of anemia (before *Spirulina* addition) than at the final sampling. This can be explained by the fact that phycocyanin has an Epo-like effect, stimulating the hematopoiesis, i.e. the conversion of reticulocytes into RBCs. Indeed, the RBC count is much larger in the An-Sp group than in the An group and even higher than in the control (C) group. Since the control group also received *Spirulina*, the difference should be ascribed to the combined effect of the endogenous Epo (induced by anemia) and the Epo-like effect exerted by *Spirulina*. The value of the other blood parameters is also in line with this conclusion. For example, the hematocrit is significantly increased at the final sampling.

Ta	bl	le	3	

Blood parameter	Statistical parameter	Initial sampling (S ₁)	Sampling before <i>Spirulina</i> administration (S ₂)	Final sampling (S ₃)
	⊼±ES	0.58±0.04	3.03±0.20	1.53±0.08
	n	7	7	6
	$\pm D\%(S_1)$	0	+422.41	+163.79
Reticulocytes	$p_{2/1}$		< 0.001 ***	
(/100	p _{3/1}			< 0.001 ***
erythrocytes)	$\pm D\%(S_2)$	-80.85	0	-49.50
	p _{3/2}			< 0.001 ***
	π±ES	10.85±0.60	6.97±1.29	13.19±2.39
	n	7	6	6
	$\pm D\%(S_1)$	0	-35.76	+21.56
RBCs	p _{2/1}		< 0.01 **	
$(x10^{6}/mm^{3})$	p _{3/1}			< 0.001 ***
	$\pm D\%(S_2)$	+55.66	0	+89.23
	p _{3/2}			< 0.001 ***
	π±ES	46.39±1.16	41.93±1.14	46.60±1.57
	n	7	6	6
Hematocrit	$\pm D\%(S_1)$		-9.61	+0.45
(%)	p _{2/1}		< 0.01 **	
	p _{3/1}			NS
	$\pm D\%(S_2)$	+10.63		+11.13
	p _{3/2}			< 0.05 *

Evolution of blood and statistical parameters in group An-Sp

The same expalanations are valid as for Tables 1 and 2, but it should be remembered that this group was both anemiated and given *Spirulina*.

In order to have a general image of our results, a synthetic comparison across the 3 groups at all 3 samplings is also illustrated by bar diagrams in Figs.1-3, separately for each of the 3 blood parameters tested.

Fig. 1 illustrates and compares the reticulocyte count of the 3 groups at the moments of the 3 samplings. As can be seen, there are highly significant increases (***) in both An and An-Sp group as compared to the control, at the second and third (final) sampling, whereas a very significant decrease (+++) can be observed at the final sampling for the An-Sp group as compared to the An group. The significance of these observations has been already discussed.



Figure 1. A comparative illustration of the evolution of the reticulocyte count in the 3 rat groups. ° - denotes the significance of the differences between the sampling before *Spirulina* administration and the initial sampling; * - denotes the significance of the differences between the final sampling and the initial sampling while the symbol + is used to show significant differences between the final sampling and the one before *Spirulina* administration.

In Fig. 2 we illustrate the evolution of RBC count in the 3 rat groups. As can be seen, the differences that exist between the groups at each sampling do not appear statistically significant, although there are differences among the 3 moments of sampling as already discussed when we presented Tables 1-3.

Hematocrit values of the 3 groups are presented comparatively in Fig. 3. As already discussed, due to different compensating effects, the hematocrit has a rather slight variation which is either not significant or hardly significant. Occasionally, the hemoglobin concentration was also measured and its values seem to be more relevant than the hematocrit. As expected, the hemoglobin concentration parallels the increase of the RBC count (not shown here).



Figure 2. The evolution of the RBC count in the 3 rat groups



Figure 3. Hematocrit values in the 3 groups of rats at the 3 moments of sampling

Conclusions

The hematostimulating effect of our strain of *Arthrospira (Spirulina)* was observed even in group C (control), in the absence of anemia.

In the rats of the An (anemiated) group, after 14 days since the induction of anemia, the measured parameters (% reticulocytes, RBC count, and hematocrit) partially recovered, as a result of erythropoiesis intensification under the action of the induced endogenous Epo.

The animals in the An-Sp group were more efficient in restoring the affected parameters, as compared to the An group, because the normal reaction of the organism to anemia was supplemented by the effect of phycocyanin contained by the cyanobacterium *Spirulina*.

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EFFECTS OF ADRENALINE INDUCED STRESS AND FLUOCINOLONE-TREATMENT ON SOME ENDOCRINE GLANDS IN MALE WISTAR RATS

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SUMMARY. Synthetic glucocorticoids are widely used as antiinflammatory and antiallergic drugs. Since drugs contaning glucocorticoid are effectively absorbed, a prolonged glucocorticoid treatment leads to a surplus of endogen glucocorticoids. Long-term glucocorticoid treatments disrupt the endocrine system of the body causing hormonal and metabolic side effects. For this reason, it is necessary to specify the endocrino-metabolic effects of these drugs. Starting from the above findings and from the important physiological roles of glucocorticoids, we investigated the reactions of some endocrine glands after adrenaline-stress and fluocinolone treatment. For this purpose, it was important to compare the effects of high glucocorticoid level produced by stressors with the effects of high glucocorticoid level which occur during dermocorticoid treatment. In the present study adrenaline treatment was the source of glucocorticoid excess on the one hand, and fluocinolone on the other. In both cases, significant physiological changes were observed, the most sensitive gland in changes of glucocorticoid levels being the adrenal gland. Adrenaline stress caused atrophy of the cortical zone of adrenal gland. The fluocinolone-treatment determined hypertrophy of the cortical zone of the adrenal gland. In both cases we observed significant weight changes for the whole body and for each gland.

Keywords: adrenalin, adrenals, glucocorticoids, pancreas, thymus.

Introduction

Organisms survive by maintaining equilibrium with their environment. The stress system is critical to this homeostasis. Hormone secretion by the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenocortical (HPA) axis is modulated by multiple factors which include the circadian rhytm, various types of stressors and glucocorticoids. It is also well demonstrated that multiple stimulatory agents can independently affect the function of the HPA axis (Kis *et al.*, 2001b).

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These stimulatory agents include catecholamines, vasopressin and the corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH). Stress induced activation of HPA axis is attended by release of CRH from paraventricular nucleus (NPV) of hypothalamus, followed by adrenocorticotropine (ACTH) and glucocorticoid release (Cole and Sawchenko, 2002). Among many possible neurotransmiters released in the PVN during exposure to various stressors, noradrenaline and adrenalin are thought to be the potent stimulators of CRH neurons in PVN (Kis and Crăciun, 2003a, 2003b).

Treatment with synthetic glucocorticoids e.g. dexamethasone or dermocorticosteroids, or repeated immobilization stress, decreases the total body weight gain of animals by disturbing the HPA axis function and accelerating the catabolism of the organism (Kis *et al.*, 2001a, Gruver-Yates and Cidlowski, 2013, Noguchi, 2014).

Synthetic glucocorticoids are widely used as anti-inflammatory and antiallergic drugs. Nevertheless, their administration may cause side effects related to the normal functioning of several organs. Glucocorticoids modulate the stress response at a molecular level by altering gene expression, transcription and translation, among other pathways. Glucocorticoids also modulate growth, reproductive and thyroid axes (O'Connon *et al.*, 2000, Kis *et al.*, 2001a, Kis and Crăciun, 2006).

Excessive glucocorticoid secretion or treatment, on the other hand, has been reported to have deleterious effects on the organism: it can induce tissue injury and even cell death (Craciun *et al.*, 1997, 1998, Kis and Crăciun, 2006). Madar and co-workers (1993) have studied the effect of excessive glucocorticoid levels generated through repeated formaldehyde stress or Fluocinolon acetonid-N (FC) treatment in rats. Formaldehyde was used as an endogenous glucocorticoid inducer, while FC was an exogenous source of the hormone. Both formaldehyde- and FC-treated groups showed significant metabolic disorders.

The exact mechanism of glucocorticoid-induced cell death is unknown, but several reports indicate that glucocorticoid-mediated generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) occurs with the concomitant increase of calcium influx and morphological degeneration of the cell (Landfield and Eldridge, 1994, Viegas *et al.*, 2008).

In recent studies elsewere we have reported that short-term and long-term epicutaneous applications of halogenated glucocorticosteroids in pregnant rats induced changes in thymus oxidative status of dams and newborn animals (Kis, 2010, 2012a, 2012b).

In our experiments we followed changes in bodyweight as well as the weight of some glands, histological aspects of rat thymus and adrenals during adrenaline (ADR) and FC treatment. We used adrenalin and Fluocinolon-N ointment, as endogenous and exogenous sources of elevated glucocorticoid levels.

Materials and methods

Experiments were carried out in male Wistar rats. Animals were kept under standardized bioclimatic conditions and fed on common rat chow, with water ad libitum.

Commercial Fluocinolone-acetonid-N ointment containing 25 mg Fluocinolonacetonid-N/100 g excipient was applied topically to the skin at 2 cm2 for five consecutive days, by smearing 50 mg ointment/100 g b.w on the inguinal region, the daily dose of ointment being equal to 12.5 μ g/100 g b.w. Epinephrine-treated animals were injected subcutaneously with 42 μ l/100 g b.w. of Adrenaline solution.

Animals were divided into the following groups: K-control group-untreated animals, FC-Fluocinolone-N-treated animals and ADR- adrenaline-treated group.

After 16 hours of fasting and 24 hours following the cessation of treatments, the treated animals together with controls were sacrificed by exsanguination.

Body, pancreas, adrenals and thymus weights of male rats were measured with an accuracy of 0.00001 g immediately after excision. Data are presented as mean \pm standard error of the mean. The comparison between the three groups was performed using Student t test for unpaired data.

The thymus and adrenal gland were fixed in Bouin liquid and afterwards processed in view of being embedded in paraffin. The fragments were sectioned at the Reichart microtome with a tickness of 7 μ . The staining of glands was carried out with the method of Hurduc and co-workers (Muresan *et al.*, 1974). Histological preparations obtained were examined under an IORC4 optical microscope. Photos were taken using 10x and 20x objectives with an Olympus digital camera.

Results and discussion

The results presented in Figure 1 show that in our experiment FC treatment and ADR stress caused a progressive inhibition of total body weight gain in animals compared to the controls. Body weight loss in the ADR-treated group was lower than in the FC-treated one, indicating that ADR induces a milder stress than the direct cortisol treatment.

The fluocinolone treatment caused a significant weight loss in contrast with the control group (Fig. 2). However, significant weight loss in the FC group was observed as compared to the ADR treated animals. The relative weight of the pancreas in FC treated animals showed a slight increase. This result is in agreement with the literature, according to which short-term dexamethasone administration induces increased pancreatic rat beta-cell proliferation (Rafacho *et al.*, 2009, 2010, 2011)

In the adrenaline treated group the weight of the gland showed a significant reduction compared with the control as well as in the FC treated groups (Fig. 3). GC excess induced by different stressors causes decreased b-cell insulin production and

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insulin resistance; furthermore, it reduced effectiveness of insulin in suppressing hepatic glucose production and in increasing glucose uptake in muscle and fatty tissue (Andrews and Walker, 1999). Persons who have a diminished b-cell function or are low-insulin responders are predisposed to develop diabetes during glucocorticoid excess (Henriksen *et al.*, 1997; Wajngot *et al.*, 1992).



Figure 1. Evolution of the body weight.



* significant differences from the C-group (p < 0.004), significant differences from the ADR-group (p < 0.007)

Figure 2. Body weight (BW) on the last day of treatment.



Figure 3. Relative weight of the pancreas (PW).



Figure 4. Relative weight of the adrenal gland (AW)

The relative weight of the adrenal gland in the FC group showed a slight decrease compared with the control group (Fig. 4). In the ADR treated group we observed an increase of the gland weight compared with the control one.



These are confirmed with the results of microscopical examination (Fig. 5).

Figure 5. Histological aspects of adrenal gland (20x).: a) normal aspect, b) hypertrophy of cortical zone in ADR stressed animals, c) atrophy of cortical zone in fluocinolone-treated rats

Results of our microscopical examination confirm these changes. The adrenals of animals treated with FC are atrofiated (Fig. 5b), whereas we observed hipertrophy of the gland cortex in animals treated with ADR drenaline (Fig. 5c).

Glucocorticoid administration results in a negative feedback effect via glucocorticoid receptors in the anterior hypothalamus, which, in turn, suppresses the production of corticotrophin-releasing hormone and the release of POMC/ACTH from adenohypophysis. The prolonged suppression of adrenocorticotropine levels leads to atrophy of the adrenal cortex and secondary adrenal insufficiency (Kis and Crăciun, 2003a, 2003b).

Glucocorticoids mediate these effects via both DNA binding-dependent and DNA binding-independent mechanisms (Schaöcke *et al.*, 2002, Anacker *et al.*, 2013).

The hypertrophy of the cortex under ADR treatment suggests increases of glucocorticoids synthesis. ADR treatment as a stressor leads to glucocorticoid secretion through the induction of sympathoadrenal system, which is followed by the activation of hypothalamo - pituitary - adrenal axis (Kis and Crăciun, 2003a, 2003b). Noradrenalin microinjection in NPV causes elevation in plasma corticosteron levels (Cole, 2002, Harris *et al.*, 2001, Leibowitz, 1998).

The relative thymus weight was significantly reduced in the FC group (Fig. 6). During ADR treatment we observed a slight decrease of the thymus weight.



(p< 0.02), \blacklozenge significant differences from the ADR-group (p< 0.03)

Figure 6. Relative weight of the thymus

This result is in agreement with the literature according to which stressinduced thymic involution is characterised by reduction in thymus size caused by acute loss of cortical thymocites and reduced output of native T cells to the periphery (Crăciun *et al.*, 1997, 1998, Wang *et al.*, 1994). Microscopic studies confirm these results. FC treatment caused the atrophy of the thymus, while thymus structure in the animals treated with adrenaline did not differ from the control group (Fig. 7).



Figure 7. Histological aspects of thymus (10x): a) normal structure, b) relatively normal aspect of thymus in ADR group, c) moderately alterated in the FC group, slightly rarefied cortical zone of the thymus lobules.

Acute stress-induced thymic atrophy is a complication of many environmental stressors as well in which transient reduction in thymus function persists until the physiological stressor is removed (Gruver and Sempowsky, 2008).

Conclusions

- 1. In summary, we can conclude that glucocorticoids can lead to tissue injury even at relatively low doses.
- 2. Milder organ atrophies were observed in the thymus and pancreas of the ADR treated group.
- 3. Severe adrenal hypertrophies were observed in the ADR treated group.
- 4. More severe atrophies were observed in the thymus and adrenals of the FC-treated group.
- 5. The response to elevated glucocorticoid levels was tissue dependent, thymus and adrenals being the most susceptible to injury.

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CHRONIC ADMINISTRATION OF RED BULL AFFECTS BLOOD PARAMETERS IN RATS

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SUMMARY. Energy drinks are commercial drinks conceived in order to improve physical and intellectual performance. Short term effects of energy drinks are known and do not seem to affect the state of health, but long term effects are less known and raise serious health questions. In this work we investigated if Red Bull affects morphologic and some of the biochemical parameters of the blood.

Twenty adult Wistar rats, weighing 186.6±3.15 g were organized into two groups. The Control (C) group received a standard diet and tap water. The animals in the energy drink (ED) group were orally administrated 1.5 ml/100 g b.wt. of Red Bull daily, for 4 weeks. After 4 weeks of treatment, the rats were killed by exsanguination and blood samples were collected for morphologic and biochemical parameter analysis. A significant reduction in red blood cell count was noticed in the ED group, while the hemoglobin concentration and the hematocrit slightly increased in the experimental group, as compared to the control. The concentrations of glucose and total cholesterol increased significantly after Red Bull administration, as did the activities of serum LDH, AST and ALT. These results indicate that a long-term consumption of energy drinks can affect certain morphological and biochemical blood parameters. Furthermore, these drinks may be risk factors for the development of a metabolic disease.

Keywords: blood, caffeine, energy drinks, Red Bull

Introduction

Red Bull is a commercial energy drink conceived in order to improve physical and intellectual performance. This beverage was launched in 1987, but in 1992 it was banned in France and other countries, in Europe and South America, due to its negative effects. In 2008, the commercialization of Red Bull restarted in France, as a result of growing pressure from the European Union (Reissing *et al.*, 2009). The stimulating properties of Red Bull stem from the combined action of its

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ingredients: taurine, caffeine, carbohydrates (glucose and sucrose), B12 vitamin, glucuronolactone etc. Each ingredient, taken separately, may have protective or therapeutic effects, if taken in appropriate dose.

Caffeine, the main ingredient of the energy drink, is an ergogenic compound (Zang *et al.*, 2014). It improves physical activity (Davis and Green, 2009; Lara *et al.*, 2014) and stimulates diuresis and lipolysis, reduces intrahepatic lipid content and stimulates fatty acid β -oxidation in liver parenchimal cells (Sinha *et al.*, 2014). It also stimulates the release of calcium from the sarcoplasmic reticulum, which is indispensable for muscle contraction. Furthermore, caffeine is a nonselective competitive inhibitor of phosphodiesterase enzymes (Echeverri *et al.*, 2010) and it could be an effective therapeutic agent against Alzheimers disease (Arendash and Cao, 2010).

Taurine is involved in the regulatory processes of a broad spectrum of biological functions. Electrophysiological studies conducted on mouse brain have shown that taurine induces long-term synaptic potentiation, which is believed to underline learning and memorizing (Ito *et al.*, 2010). It is known that taurine has a cholesterol-lowering effect and decreases fat deposits. These beneficial effects are due to acceleration of cholesterol conversion into bile acids (Yamori *et al.*, 2010). It has also been demonstrated that taurine acts as an antioxidant and anti-inflammatory agent, in addition to its vasodilatory properties. In endothelial cells, taurine inhibits apoptosis, inflammation and oxidative stress (Maia *et al.*, 2014). However, the effects of chronic administration of taurine in food supplements are controversial. It has been shown that taurine either improves the capacity of learning and memory (Lu *et al.*, 2014), or it has no effect on these processes (Bichler *et al.*, 2006).

B vitamins have benefic effects on the nervous system. They are involved in the regulation of the cognitive processes and affective state (Duthie *et al.*, 2002; Mattson and Shea, 2003). Cobalamin (vitamin B12) is indispensable for DNA synthesis (Gueant *et al.*, 2013; Zhao *et al.*, 2014) and erythrocytes formation (Koury *et al.*, 2004; Zhao *et al.*, 2014). Vitamin B12 is a cofactor of methionine synthase in the synthesis of methionine, which is the precursor of the universal methyl donor Sadenosylmethionine (Gueant *et al.*, 2013). It plays a crucial role in maintaining neurological function (Zhao *et al.*, 2014). It has been proven that niacin (vitamin B3) decreases total serum cholesterol and oxidative stress (Hamound *et al.*, 2013). Niacin has been used in the treatment of dyslipidemia and cardiovascular disease for more than 50 years (Digby *et al.*, 2012). It decreases the levels of all atherogenic lipoproteins and increases the level of protective HDL.

Short term effects of the energy drinks are relatively well known and do not seem to affect the state of health, but the effects on the long term are less known and raise serious questions. There are several studies that reported moderate improvements in physical endurance and mental performance, including choice reaction time, concentration and memory after acute ingestion of energy drinks (Alford *et al.*, 2001; Seidl *et al.*, 2000; Scholey and Kennedy, 2004).

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The long term effects of energy drinks consumption are controversial. Only a few studies have shown that chronic ingestion of energy drinks are beneficial to one's health (Schrader *et al.*, 2013). Other studies mentioned that chronic administration of energy drinks did not influence physical activity (Forbes *et al.*, 2008; Candow *et al.*, 2009). Most investigations have reported adverse health effects of energy drinks due, most probably, to caffeine (Malinauskas *et al.*, 2007; Kurtz *et al.*, 2014). Central nervous system, cardiovascular, gastrointestinal and renal dysfunctions have been associated with chronic caffeine ingestion (Bichler *et al.*, 2006; Maulinaukas *et al.*, 2007; Clauson *et al.*, 2008). Excessive caffeine consumption elevates blood levels of cholesterol and homocysteine (Dworzanski *et al.*, 2011).

Animal studies have shown that chronic oral administration of energy drinks is associated with changes in blood chemistry and liver enzymes activities. For example, the concentrations of total cholesterol, triglycerides, high density lipoproteins (HDL), low density lipoproteins (LDL) and glucose increased after energy drinks consumption. The activities of transaminases increased in both rats and rabbits (Akande *et al.*, 2011; Ebuehi *et al.*, 2011; Khayyat *et al.*, 2014).

Long term studies should aim to better define maximum safe doses, the effects of chronic use and effects in at-risk population, and better document and track of adverse health effects (Seifert *et al.*, 2011). Energy drinks may exacerbate risk factors for heart disease, since studies suggest that energy drinks may serve as a gateway to other forms of drug dependence (Higgins *et al.*, 2010).

Knowledge of energy drink consumption effects on health is very important, especially given its prevalence among young people. Therefore, the aim of our study was to investigate if chronic administration of energy drinks affect morphologic and certain biochemical parameters of the blood.

Materials and methods

Chemicals. All reagents used in this study were of analytical grade and were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Chemie GmbH, Germany, Nordic Invest S.R.L., Romania and S.C. BioZyme S.R.L, Romania. The Red Bull energy drink was bought from the local market.

Animals. The animals were twenty albino male Wistar rats, weighing 186.6 ± 3.15 g, housed in the zoobase of the Department of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology, School of Biology and Geology, Babes-Bolyai University. They were kept in hygienic conditions, under 12/12 h light/dark cycle, received a standard diet (S.C. Siamond Prod. S.R.L., Cluj Napoca, Romania) and had *ad libitum* access to tap water. Rats were organized into two experimental groups. The control (C) group received a standard diet and tap water. The animals from the energy drink (ED) group were orally administered 1.5 ml/100 g b.wt. of Red Bull daily, for 4 weeks. The animals were gently handled, without causing them stress or pain, and after 4 weeks, they were killed under anesthesia by exsanguination.

Assays. Blood was collected from the jugular vein and processed for hematological and biochemical examinations. Counts of red and white blood cells were carried out using a Bürker-Türk haemocytometer. The hematocrit was determined by the microhematocrit technique and the results were expressed as volume percentage (%) of red blood cells in blood. Haemoglobin concentration was measured with Drabkin reagent (Drabkin *et al.*, 1935). Glycaemia was determined using Somogy-Nelson method (Somogy, 1945; Nelson, 1944). Serum cholesterol was assayed using ferric chloride (Zlatkins *et al.*, 1953). Aspartate aminotransferase (AST) and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) activities were assessed according to the method described by Reitman and Frankel (1957), and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) activity according to Bergmeyer and Bernt (1974).

Data analysis. The results are presented as mean \pm standard error (SE). The data were analyzed for statistical significance using unpaired Students *t* test. A value of p < 0.05 was considered significant.

Results and discussion

The aim of our study was to investigate if energy drinks affects morphologic and certain biochemical parameters of blood in rats. Blood serves as a transport medium, carrying essential nutrients to cells and removing metabolic waste products. The biochemistry of the blood plays a key role in maintaining health.

As seen in Fig. 1a, the red blood cell count decreased significantly after energy drink administration (ED 7.45 \pm 0.39 vs control 9.09 \pm 0.27; p<0.01). Perhaps energy drinks, due to a high content of carbohydrates increased osmotic pressure (Gottlieb *et al.*, 2006). On the other hand, Khayyat *et al.* (2014) mentioned that depletion of red blood cells count could be attributed to disturbed haematopoiesis, destruction of erythrocytes, reduction in the rate of their formation and/or their enhanced removal from circulation. Destruction of red blood cells reflects a failure of hepatocellular functions that could be caused by caffeinated energy drink consumption (Akande *et al.*, 2011; Khayyat *et al.*, 2014).

Interestingly, the hematocrit (ED 45.98 \pm 0.46 vs control 44.96 \pm 0.49) (Fig. 1b) and haemoglobin concentration (ED 20.76 \pm 0.63 vs control 18.83 \pm 0.65) (Fig. 1c) increased after Red Bull intake. These changes may be a result of dehydration caused by caffeine (Pennay *et al.*, 2011). Treatment with Red Bull led to a significant decrease in the total white blood cell count (ED 8.85 \pm 0.22 vs control 9.90 \pm 0.27; p<0.05) (Fig. 1d). This modification may also suggest the existence of a moderate dehydration (Nakyinsige *et al.*, 2013).

Red Bull increased significantly the plasma glucose concentration (ED 133.81 ± 6.53 vs control 115.86 ± 3.22 , p<0.05) (Fig. 2a). The same effect was seen by Ebuehi *et al.* in rabbits (2011). The increment might result from the fact that the

glucose content of Red Bull is high. Regarding that, Red Bull chronic consumption could have adverse effects, because it is showed that consumption of sweetened beverages is associated with health risk as metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes (Malik *et al.*, 2010).



Figure. 1. Erythrocyte number (p<0.01) (a), hematocrit (b), haemoglobin concentration (c) and white blood cell count (p<0.05) (d) in the two experimental groups. n=10 in each group. The results are expressed as mean \pm SE.

Energy drinks may, in fact, be a risk factor for metabolic syndrome development due to their high sugar content. In this study, we have observed that the experimental groups had a similar evolution concerning body weight: all animals gained continuous weight (Fig. 2b), but the difference between the beginning and the end of experiment was higher in ED group (ED from 143.82 to 176.35 *vs* control from 155.8 to 177.43). This finding is confirmed by Ugwuja (2014), who also attributed it to the high sugar content.

As depicted in Fig. 2c, serum total cholesterol increased slightly after the energy drink administration (ED 155.95 ± 5.33 vs control 150.06 ± 6.13). This result seems surprising since Red Bull contains taurine and niacin, two ingredients that are

commonly used for lowering lipids concentration (Yamori *et al.*, 2010; Hamound *et al.*, 2013). However, Red Bull contains caffeine which elevates the blood level of cholesterol and homocysteine (Dworzanski *et al.*, 2011).



The liver enzyme markers (LDH, ALT and AST) activities are shown in Fig. 3a, b and c. Alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and aspartate aminotransferase (AST), together with lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) are common markers of plasma membrane integrity. Their concentration in the plasma is normally low, as they are considered "liver enzymes", although they can be also found in lower concentrations in other tissues. A rise of the serum transaminases is usually considered a sign of altered plasma membrane structure, causing the "leaking "of enzymes outside the cells.

LDH (ED 0.3153 ± 0.0164 vs control 0.2433 ± 0.0229 ; p<0,05), ALT (ED 130.01 ± 12.44 vs control 87.71 ± 5.57) and AST (ED 281.48 ± 16.46 vs control 183.16 ± 10.19 ; p<0.001) activities were elevated in the sera of the rats after Red Bull consumption. This is in agreement with the results of Ankade and Banjoko (2011), Ebuehi *et al.* (2011) and Khayyat *et al.* (2014). Moreover, Bukhar *et al.* (2012) mentioned that there is a relation between energy drink administration and the concentration of liver enzymes in normal and hyperglycemic rats.





Figure. 3. The effects of Red Bull on the activity of liver enzymatic markers. (a) LDH (p<0.05), (b) ALT and (c) AST (p<0.001). n=10 in each group. The results are presented as mean \pm SE.

Conclusions

The results of the present study indicate that energy drinks such as Red Bull can affect certain morphological and biochemical blood parameters. Furthermore, these drinks may be a risk factor for the development of metabolic diseases. Further research is needed and a raise of awareness in young people and athletes about the potential long term effects of energy drinks consumption.

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A HISTOPATHOLOGICAL STUDY OF CHOLECYSTECTOMY SPECIMENS SAMPLED FROM APRIL 2012 TO APRIL 2013 IN THE PATHOLOGY DEPARTMENT OF THE MUNICIPAL HOSPITAL, CLUJ-NAPOCA

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SUMMARY. Cholecystitis is the most common disease of the gallbladder, usually caused by calculi or, less frequent, by acute inflammations of the organ. In the vast majority of the cases, the treatment is surgical removal of the gallbladder. Cholecystectomy specimens are referred to the pathology department for microscopic confirmation of the disease and exclusion of a neoplastic disease. We analysed 167 specimens, seeking inflammation, the state of the epithelial lining and other markers used for cholecistectomy pathological reporting. We concluded that the majority of the analysed specimens were affected by chronic inflammation, with very few cases of acute involvement.

Keywords: cholecystitis, inflammation, pathological sampling.

Introduction

The gallbladder is a piriform bladder that is attached to the extrahepatic biliary system *via* the cystic duct and rests in a shallow depression located on the inferior surface of the posterior right lobe of the liver (Mills, 2007). The gallbladder functions are to store bile, concentrate bile and, when stimulated, to eject bile into the lumen of the duodenum. Its microscopic anatomy reflects all these functions (Vaughan, 2002). Its wall consists largely of a highly folded mucosa, with a simple columnar epithelium overlying a typical lamina propria; a muscularis with bundles of muscle fibers oriented in all directions to facilitate emptying the organ; an external adventitia where it is against the liver and a serosa where it is exposed (Mescher, 2010).

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Chronic cholecystitis is the most commonly encountered disease of the gallbladder; the overwhelming majority of cholecystectomies are performed for chronic cholecystitis. It is associated with cholelithiasis in more than 90% of the cases (Mills, 2010). Microscopically, the mucosa of a chronically inflammed gallbladder shows various degrees of mononuclear infiltration and fibrosis. The epithelium may be relatively normal or atrophic or show hyperplastic and metaplastic changes. The gallbladder may show fibrosis, muscle hypertrophy, encrusted stones, and nodular collections of foamy macrophages (Rosai, 2011). Sometimes, the mucosa epithelium forms diverticula which can reach the serosal surface, called Rokitansky-Aschoff sinuses (Levinson, 2008).

Acute cholecystitis is a clinically defined entity characterized by an abrupt injury of the organ. It does not necessarily imply acute inflammation of the gallbladder, in the sense that the hallmark of acute inflammation, polymorphonuclear leucocytes, is often lacking. Nevertheless, it is an acute destructive process typically associated with ischemia, congestion, edema, epithelial denudation, vascular leakage, and fibrinous changes (Mills, 2010).

Resection specimen sampling. Most cholecystectomy specimens are now done laparoscopically rather than by open surgery and submitted opened, or unopened and containing 5-10 ml of bile fluid. When received, the specimen is measured, opened (if not previously performed by the surgeon) and described. In a non-neoplastic specimen, three histology blocks are usually sufficient: the cystic margin, section from the corpus and section from the fundus of the gallbladder. Any other lesion is noted and sampled also (Westra, 2003).

Materials and methods

A total of 167 cholecystectomy specimens received between April 2012 and April 2013 were analyzed. The specimens were received in fresh state to the pathology department, opened and fixed in formalin 4% overnight. The organs were described according to the guidelines, and routine sampling was performed (sections from the cystic margin, the corpus and the fundus of the gallbladder). If the wall of the gallbladder was thickened, additional sections were performed in order to exclude a neoplastic condition. If present, cystic duct ganglia were also sampled.

The histology samples were embedded in paraffin blocks, sectioned at 3 micrometers thickness and stained with hematoxylin and eosin. The slides were analysed using a Leica DM500 microscope with white light and images were taken using a digital camera connected to the microscope. When appropriate, adjacent microscopic fields were photographed and stitched using *Hugin* free software, resulting in high resolution mosaic images of the slides.

The following issues were reported and included in the study:

- erosions of the lining epithelium;
- fibrosis;

- epithelial dysplasia;
- inflammatory infiltrate;
- hypertrophy/atrophy;
- presence of the foamy macrophages;
- vascular congestion;
- adipose infiltrate;
- hemorrhage;
- necrosis;
- presence of Rokitanski-Aschoff sinuses.

Statistical analysis and graphical output was performed using Microsoft Office Excel.

Results and discussion

Of all 167 cases of gallbladder specimens analysed, the vast majority was histologically diagnosed as chronic cholecystitis (91%), and only 9 % were diagnosed as acute or subacute cholecystitis. One case was regarded as scleroatrophic cholecystitis (the gallbladder wall was thickened over 5 mm and extended fibrosis was found microscopically) and one case presented epithelial dysplasia.

Considering the inflammatory infiltrate, 8% of the cases we examined presented lymphoid follicles with consistent germinal centers in the lamina propria of the mucosa and/or the serosa. Transmural inflammatory infiltrate was also a common finding.

A landmark of chronic cholecystitis was the presence of discontinuities of the cover epithelium (Fig. 1A, Fig. 3B).

One case presented transmural eosinophilic infiltrate (Fig. 2D), but not so abundant to be regarded as eosinophilic cholecystitis. In this particular case, the patient presented high eosinophilia, probably associated with the clinical diagnosis of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). There was no evidence of intestinal parasites regarding this patient.

A common finding was the presence of nests of foamy macrophages in the lamina propria of the mucosa (53%) and pseudopyloric metaplasia (23%), the latter predominantly in the neck of the gallbladder (Fig. 1C).

As literature shows, acute cholecystitis is not compulsory associated with acute inflammatory infiltrate (neutrophils) but, more often, it is associated with extended erosions and ulcerations of the mucosa, thickened wall, transmural hemorrhage and a loss of the histological architecture of the gallbladder wall (Fig. 1B).

Rokitansky Aschoff sinuses were present in 13% of the cases, all of which were diagnosed as chronic cholecystitis.

One case was diagnosed with multiple adenomatous nodules (Fig 2C), which do not change the diagnosis and do not have any significance for the patient's outcome.



Figure 1. A – Focal epithelial discontinuities (*ed*); B – Hemorrhage (*h*) and stasis (*st*); C – Pseudopyloric metaplasia (*m*); D – Liver tissue (*liv*) attached to the gallbladder.



Figure 2. A – Luschka ducts (*Lu*); B – Hypertrophy of the muscular layer (*m*); C – Adenomyomatosis nodule (*nod*); D – Eosinophilic infiltrate.

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Figure 3. A – Hemorrhage (h) and stasis (st); B – Extended epithelial erosions (ed).

Conclusions

Cholecystitis remains a major cause of addressability in most surgical services, especially due to cholelithiasis. However, histopathlogical examination remains of undoubtful importance, mainly because of the risk of carcinoma.

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CHALLENGES IN IMPLEMENTING HEART RATE VARIABILITY TESTING IN A FAMILY MEDICINE PRACTICE: STRENGTHS, PITFALLS AND CAVEATS

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SUMMARY. Heart rate variability (HRV) measures beat-to-beat changes in the duration of the RR intervals in the electrocardiogram (ECG). According to many studies, HRV-derived methods can contribute a certain amount of data to the screening for cardiovascular diseases, and also predict the outcome for cardiovascular patients. The study focuses on a trial of HRV measuring in a family general practitioner's office, in two different groups: healthy subjects and patients with a varied collection of organic diseases. Differences were found between the two groups, especially concerning nonlinear parameters of HRV and Poincaré diagram analysis. Although promising, screening by HRV in the general practitioner's office has many pitfalls and caveats, especially regarding technical problems and the approach of patients with multiple comorbidities.

Keywords: family medicine, heart rate variability, screening.

Introduction

The term "heart rate variability" (HRV) refers to a measure of the beat-to-beat changes in duration of the RR intervals (RRIs) in the electrocardiogram (ECG). The RRIs, or interbeat interval, is the distance between one R-spike and the next in the ECG recording (Lagos, 2008). From a pathophysiological point of view, HRV analysis is a collection of various mathematical and computational techniques that characterizes biologic time-series with respect to overall fluctuation, spectral composition, scale-free variation, and degree of irregularity or complexity (Ahmad, 2009).

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The methods for analyzing and quantifying HRV parameters are categorized as: time domain, spectral or frequency domain, and nonlinear dynamics methods (Poincaré plot derived parameters), respectively:

- 1. In time domain analysis, the intervals between adjacent R waves are measured over a period of recordings and a variety of statistical parameters can be calculated: average RR interval, standard deviation of the RR intervals, average heart rate, standard deviation of the heart rate (Thalange, 2010);
- The heart rate frequency domain analysis is used to evaluate the contribution of the autonomic nervous system to HRV; it is a sensitive and non-invasive method for evaluating the cardiovascular control system (Buccelletti, 2009);
- 3. The Poincaré plot (return map) is a scattergram, which is constructed by plotting each RR interval against the previous one. The Poincaré plot may be analyzed quantitatively by fitting an ellipse to the plotted shape (Kitlas, 2005).

Although ECG is considered the most accurate method for data acquisition used in HRV analysis (Berntson, 1997), there are studies proclaiming that periphery photoplethismography (PPG) can be used as a surrogate method for recording signals used in variability analysis (Gil, 2010; Greve, 2012; Mirescu, 2012). PPG is based on calculating the amount of infrared light that travels through peripheral capillaries (from a finger or the earlobe), thus tracing peripheral blood flow curve, which is synchronous with the heartbeats. Although more prone to moving and light artifacts, PPG is more comfortable from the patient's point of view, because it does not need the application of cutaneous electrodes, necessary in ECG recordings.

Heart rate variability has been used in different clinical settings, including diabetes (Poanta, 2010), coronary artery disease (Kleiger, 1987; Mirescu, 2012), sudden cardiac death (Dougherty, 1992) and chronic renal failure (Lerma, 2003).

Family medicine contributes to the care of patients at all levels, throughout all stages of life. Family physicians focus on each individual in his or her given situation, integrating mental and physical health, within each individual's own social context. Family medicine is not only dedicated to patients, but also to healthy individuals that need medical advice or specific documents that attest their health state. Thus, a large number of individuals visiting the family medicine office are not under observation for any disease.

A large amount of the family medicine practitioner's time should be allocated to prevention and screening. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), screening is defined as the presumptive identification of unrecognized disease or defect by the application of tests, examinations, or other procedures which can be applied rapidly (Wilson, 1968). Modern methods include screening for cervical cancer or dysplasia (cervical smear test), prostate cancer (prostate specific antigen from serum) or breast cancer (palpation and mammography). The purpose of this study is to assess the practical value of HRV in screening for cardiovascular disease in the family medicine office using a PPG device.

Materials and methods

The study investigated 50 volunteer visitors at the family doctor's office, both healthy and with various conditions (78% females, aged 19 - 70 years old). After the patient has rested for 10 minutes, the PPG measurement was started for another 10 minutes, in a seated position. The sensor was placed on the index finger of the right hand and it consisted of an infrared LED and an infrared receiver, both placed on opposite sides of the finger. The infrared receiver was connected to a computer via an Arduino board, using an analogical input pin. The Arduino board was programmed to output the interval between beats directly though its serial port. The intervals were recorded in a Microsoft Excel sheet.

The volunteers were asked not to talk during recordings, in order to avoid the influence of forced respiration on HRV. Medical data (diagnostic and medication) were collected from the patients medical records.

Calculation of the HRV parameters was performed using Kubios HRV software. Table 1 summarizes the analyzed parameters.

After the recording, ectopic beats (due to arrhythmias, atrial and/or ventricular premature contractions) were removed.

Parameter	Unit	Description	
Time domain parameters			
Average RR interval	ms	Average of the interval between two adjacent beats	
RR standard deviation	ms	Standard deviation of the intervals between adjacent beats	
Average heart rate	beats/minute	Average of heart beats	
Heart rate standard deviation	beats/minute	Standard deviation of heart beats	
Frequency domain parameters			
HF/LF	-	Ratio between high frequency spectral power and low frequency spectral power; it represents a measure of autonomic balance	
Nonlinear parameters			
SD1	ms	Standard deviation 1 of the Poincaré plot (short axis)	
SD2	ms	Standard deviation 2 of the Poincaré plot (long axis)	

HRV parameters that were analyzed in the study

Table 1.
Results and discussion

One of the major problems we initially encountered was severe artifactuation in some of the recordings. Artifacts were mainly due to patient moving or shaking. In one instance, the recording was influenced by ambiental (sun) light, which was too intense and fell directly on the recording device. In this situation, the finger with the sensor mounted on it had to be covered. Fig. 1 depicts such an artifactuated recording, which could not be used for further interpretation.



Figure 1. A strongly artifactual recording (A – the Poincaré scattergram shows very dispersed points, typical for an artifactual recording; B – a tachogram of the same subject with artifactual alterations).

One of the major pitfalls was confusing artifactual recording with a form of arrhythmia. Sometimes, the differentiation between the two requires interpretation by a cardiologist, who is familiar with the electrocardiographic aspect of arrhythmias. The method was not feasible in the patients whose hand trembled during measurement.

Mainly, tachograms containing many values that drop down to the baseline can be considered artifactual. If there are few basal values present in the trace, they can be manually removed. This operation has to be done carefully, in order not to delete any value that is correctly recorded, thus useful in variability analysis. Following this manual cleanup, the trace can be uploaded to Kubios HRV for parameter calculation.

A typical recording of a healthy patient, as reported by Kubios HRV software, is showed in Figs. 2 and 3.



Figure 2. A. Typical tachogram of beat-to-beat intervals of a healthy subject; B. Power spectral density plot of the same subject.



Figure 3. A. Typical Poincaré scattergram of a healthy subject; B. Histogram of RR intervals of the same individual.

Healthy vs. cardiac subject. According to the majority of the authors (Yukishita, 2010), increased HRV parameters are associated with a state of health of the individual, as compared to patients with cardiac diseases. This was also a finding of our study. Fig. 4A expresses a typical beat-to-beat interval plot (tachogram) of a healthy individual, while Fig. 4B represents the plot for a patient with a history of treated myocardial infarction (the plots use the same scale on both axes). The Poincaré scattergram also confirms this finding (Fig. 5).



Figure 4. A. Typical Poincaré tachogram of a healthy subject; B. Tachogram of RR intervals of the same individual.



Figure 5. A Poincaré scattergram of a healthy individual (A), compared with the Poincaré plot of a patient with a history of treated acute myocardial infarction (B). Agglomeration of points can be observed in the second graph, due to decreased HRV parameters.

The mean values and standard deviation of HRV parameters of healthy subjects are summarized in Table 2.

Parameter	Unit	Mean and standard deviation	
Time domain parameters			
Average RR interval	ms	740 ± 91	
RR standard deviation	ms	54 ± 27	
Average heart rate	beats/minute	82 ± 5	
Heart rate standard deviation	beats/minute	5 ± 2	
Frequency domain parameters			
HF/LF	-	$3 \pm 1,6$	
Nonlinear parameters			
SD1	ms	25 ± 13	
SD2	ms	72 ± 36	

Mean and stadard values of HRV parameters in healthy subjects

A case of a patient with advanced diabetic neuropathy worth special mentioning, because of the resulted Poincaré diagram (Fig. 6A). The classical (twodimensional) Poincaré diagram exhibits a four-arm distribution of points, prior unseen by the authors in other cases. Because of this particular aspect, we tried a three dimensional (3D) modelling of the points, using a Microsoft Excel plugin for 3D scattergrams. The result is showed in Fig. 6B, where one can observe that the four arms of the Poincaré plot are not located in the same plane, but in three different plans, converging to a central point. Further studies will investigate whether this 3D aspect is characteristic or pathognomonic for advanced diabetic neuropathy.



Figure 6. Two-dimensional Poincaré scattergram of a subject with advanced diabetic neuropathy (A). Three-dimensional Poincaré scattergram of the same patient (B).

Conclusions

The major outline of this pilot study is that HRV parameters are unique for each individual, and further studies will be performed to highlight patterns of connection with pathology. However, great caution must be taken in interpreting the results, because HRV parameters can be influenced by various conditions, even in healthy subjects: smoking or running prior to the measurements, anxiety or other emotions.

Further studies are needed in order to determine how HRV parameters vary in healthy subjects and how they can predict outcome or contribute to diagnostic in patients with certain pathologies. Also, in order to test the screening capacity of HRV parameter determination, double-blinded studies are needed.

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=== REVIEW ====

RNAi AS A TOOL TO OBTAIN POTATO RESISTANT TO VIRUSES

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SUMMARY. Potato is the third most important crop in the world but is very sensitive to pathogens. Viruses are pathogens which affect potato productivity causing important losses in the annual production. Consequently, potato is one of the main targets for genetic improvement by gene transfer and other biotechnological tools. RNA interference (RNAi) has recently been identified as a natural mechanism for regulation of gene expression and also as a natural antiviral defense mechanism. RNAi is a promising approach adopted to develop virus-resistant plants. The present paper gives an update of different approaches of using RNAi to obtain virus resistant potato plants.

Keywords: hairpin RNA, RNAi, potato resistant to viruses, PVY.

Introduction

Potato (*Solanum tuberosum*) the third most important crop in the world after rice and wheat (Birch *et al.*, 2012), is very sensitive to disease and pests. Viruses are one of the main pathogens of potato and represent a serious problem, not only because of effects determinate by primary infection, but also because potato crop is vegetatively propagated and this is a good way to transmit viruses through the tubers to other generations (Bushra *et al.*, 2012). The most important economically potato viruses are represented by PVY (*Potato Virus Y*), PVX (*Potato Virus X*), PVM (*Potato Virus M*) and PLRV (*Potato Leafroll Virus*).

Potato Virus Y is transmitted by aphides and has a high genetic variability, a significant number of strains being described so far: PVY^O, PVY^C, PVY^Z, PVY^N (Tribodet *et al.*, 2005). The recently identified strains, PVY^{NTN} (N-tuber-necrosis) and PVY^{N-W} (N-Wilga), induce Potato Tuber Necrotic Ringspot Disease (PTNRD)

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(Blanco-Urgoiti *et al.*, 1998; Visser *et al.*, 2012). *Potato Virus X* is a common limiter of potato productivity around the globe, producing a severe mosaic and dwarf plants (Shafique *et al.*, 2013).

It is known that plants have both passive (cell wall) and active mechanisms of defense against viruses. The active defense mechanisms are represented by hypersensitive response (HR) and extreme resistance (ER) during which the cells located near the virus infection die (Goldbach *et al.*, 2003) due to the presence of naturally produced secondary metabolites (terpenes, phenolic compounds, ethylene, salicylic acid, jasmonic acid) which are toxic (Van Etten *et al.*, 2001; Mazid *et al.*, 2011). More than that, plants have resistance genes (R genes), which are recognizing the specific avirulence genes (avr) from infecting virus (Bushra *et al.*, 2013). R proteins (guards) are related with host cellular proteins (guardees), which are targets for avirulence proteins of the pathogen. During the infections, the avirulece proteins produce modifications to the guard and alter the interaction between the guard and guardee. In this situation, the guard initiates a signaling cascade that leads to defense (Soosaar *et al.*, 2005).

In the last decades a new defense system was detected in plants, which is known as post-transcriptional gene silencing (PTGS) or RNA interference (RNAi). The term RNAi was created by Fire and Mello to describe a mechanism of gene-silencing based on dsRNA (Fire *et al.*, 1998).

RNAi is a natural defense system evolved against parasites (viruses) and mobile genetic elements or transposons. This system recognize and degrade the double-strand RNA (dsRNA) (Kryldakov *et al.*, 2011) and in plants act as a RNA virus resistance mechanism (Anandalakshmi *et al.*, 1998; Brigneti *et al.*, 1998; Joseph *et al.*, 2012; Kasschau *et al.*, 1998).

Mechanism of RNAi

RNAi is a defense pathway in which the target RNA molecules are degraded at mRNA level based on homology. In this way the translation of target RNA is prevented. In plants two different functionally RNAs: micro RNA (miRNA) and small interfering RNA (siRNA) were characterized. miRNAs are small dsRNA genome coded, which have a double stranded region and a loop region which is single stranded. miRNA is involved in regulation of gene expression (Bartel, 2004) and can induce RNA silencing if it is introduced in the cell as artificial miRNA (Duan *et al.*, 2012). siRNA i.e. small interfering RNA molecules are obtained from long dsRNA through RNAi, being involved in defense mechanisms (Lacellier *et al.*, 2004).

RNAi act in plants as a defense system which is directed against viruses (Wang *et al.*, 2012). During the viral attack, long dsRNA are obtained from viral RNAs through replication. These long dsRNA are substrates for a cytosolic endonuclease termed Dicer. Dicer recognizes dsRNA and cleaves them into duplex siRNA. The

siRNA duplex contain guide strand (complementary with target mRNA) and passenger strand. The guide strand goes into RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) and then the viral mRNA is degraded (Bushra *et al.*, 2013) (Fig. 1). RISC is made up of Dicer (endonuclease enzyme), accessory protein (ARGONAUTE), RNA binding protein (PDR) and transacting RNA-binding protein (TRBP) (Schwarz *et al.*, 2003).



Figure 1. The mechanism of RNAi: Long double-stranded RNA is cleaved by Dicer endonuclease into siRNA duplex in an ATP-dependent way. The siRNAs are uptaken by RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC), which is activated by removing the passenger strand of the siRNA duplex. The guide strand (complementary with target mRNA) help RISC to recognize the mRNA target which is degraded.

RNAi mediated resistance in plants

Multiple approaches have been attempted to initiate the process of viral gene silencing. Initially, it was realized by separately expressing sense and antisense genes of viral origin in plants. The first attempt to obtain virus resistant potato plants through RNAi technology was made with Potato virus Y (PVY), where the complete immunity to the virus was reported after both sense and antisense transcripts of the viral helper-component proteinase (HC-Pro) gene, which was simultaneously expressed (Waterhouse *et al.*, 1998).





Hairpin RNA (hp RNA)

RNA silencing has been adopted to generate virus-resistant plants through expression of virus-derived hairpin RNAs (Fig. 2). The hairpin RNA construct contains inverted repeated sequences which are separated by another sequence termed spacer. The spacer region is used to stabilize the transgene construct (Surekha *et al.*, 2013).

Because of the high sequence specificity of RNA silencing, this technology has been limited to the targeting of single viruses. To achieve simultaneous targeting of multiple viruses or plant genes a chimeric cassette was used. So it was developed a method to construct chimeric hairpin RNA rapidly and efficiently. This method splices two DNA fragments from viruses using Overlap Extension PCR (OE-PCR); then this chimeric sequence was assembled with an intron sequence to generate an intron-containing hairpin RNA construct (Yan *et al.*, 2010).

Similar approach was developed in potato plants using a hairpin RNA construct corresponding to a conserved region of the *cp* (coat protein) gene of PVY (Missiou *et al.*, 2004). Some genetic transformation methods including protein and RNA-mediated approaches (Prins, 2003) or virus-induced gene silencing (Lu *et al.*, 2003; Godge *et al.*, 2007) were also used to induce virus resistance in plants (Baulcombe 1999).

Intron hairpin RNA (ihp RNA)

The ihp RNA transgene is similar to the hairpin transgene except that the spacer region is an intron sequence because it increases the efficiency of silencing. Ihp RNAs are considered to be produced more easily and remain more stable by using a selection marker and thus provides an alternative to the use of noncoding spacers (Surekha, et al., 2013). The selection marker is a gene conferring suitable traits, especially antibiotic resistance, for artificial selection of transgenic plants. In different studies the virus resistance in susceptible plants have been induced by transferring primarily virus-derived genes which are including viral coat protein (Reddy et al., 2010) or using a construct intron-containing hairpin RNA (Yan et al., 2009). Besides these, in some experiments potato resistant to PVY were generated by using an environmentally safe construct which did not use a marker gene for antibiotic resistance to select the transgenic plants. Therefore the isopentenyl transferase gene (ipt) present on the Ti plasmid of Agrobacterium mutant strain was used as a phenotypic selection marker. A marker-free binary vector with a hairpin construct derived from the coat protein gene of PVY^{NTN} strain was then used for transformation (Bukovinszki et al., 2007). In other reports, the transgenic, markerfree potato was produced using a two-step protocol. In the first step was aimed to improve the transformation methods applied to different cultivars of potato, through the transfer and expression of reporter gene *gfp* (green fluorescent protein) and marker gene *npt*II (neomycin phosphotransferase) (Rakosy-Tican *et al.*, 2006).

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In the second step, the potato cultivars (Baltica and Désirée) which have the best response to transformation process from the first step, were transformed for PVY resistance using *A. tumefaciens* C58C1 pGV2260 with the hairpin construct pRGG YCPiPCY (35SCaMV enhancer and promoter, two repeated inverted PVY-CP sequences separated by an intron and pA nos terminator) (Fig. 3). The transgenic lines proved to integrate the hairpin construct with high efficiency. In this case maximum 50% of the regenerated plants, analyzed at molecular level by using gene specific primers, were proved to integrate the construct (Rakosy-Tican *et al.*, 2010).



Figure 3. Schematic representation of the marker free PVY CP hairpin construct used to obtain transgenic potato resistant to PVY: B_L = left border and B_R = right border of T-DNA; 35S Enhancer = enhancer of 35S CaMV; P = promoter 35S CaMV; Y-CP = coat protein gene of PVY; I = intron; pA nos = poliadenilated nopaline synthase terminator; the arrows indicate antisense sequences that form hairpin structure; Sac = restriction site for the enzyme SacI (with authors permission Rakosy-Tican *et al.*, 2010).

Conclusions

RNA interference (RNAi) is becoming an important tool for silencing the gene expression for potato crop improvement. Nevertheless, even if RNAi stability in plants is critical, the new constructs obtain by intron hairpin RNA construct provide an opportunity to develop new strategy to obtain plants resistant to viruses.

The RNAi is an interesting method which could be further exploited to analyze the function of target genes and regulation of gene expression for crop improvement.

The intron hairpin RNA can be considered an eco-friendly technology, because it eliminates even some risks related with the use of marker gene for antibiotic resistance, to select the transgenic plants. This risk refers to the possibility of the transfer of antibiotic resistance genes from plants to bacteria. But using a marker-free construct, this risk is eliminated. This strategy was also developed for a better acceptance of transgenic plants by consumers, particularly in Europe.

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=== REVIEW ====

THE MOST COMMON HUMAN AUTOSOMAL TRISOMIES

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SUMMARY. Trisomy is a chromosomal abnormality, characterized by the appearance of an extra chromosome in the genetic material. Usually, human autosomal trisomies are not compatible with live birth, but there are some exceptions of live born trisomies. The most common live born trisomies are: Down syndrome, Edwards syndrome and Patau syndrome. All of these trisomies cause growth retardation, mental retardation and several congenital abnormalities. All of them show distinctive features. Autosomal trisomies are caused especially by chromosomal nondisjunction during meiosis. Advanced maternal age is considered to be a main reason for non-disjunction disorder, but understanding the mechanisms of this effect still remains unclear. Influence of paternal age together with maternal age has a significant role in occurrence of Down syndrome.

Keywords: Down syndrome, Edwards syndrome, maternal age, Patau syndrome, trisomy.

Introduction

Trisomy is a form of an euploidy, which means that a kariotype shows the occurrence of one or more extra or missing chromosomes. This abnormality leads to genetic disorders with different effects on embryos and live birth persons. Trisomy, a numerical chromosomal aberration, means that there is one extra chromosome in the affected kariotype instead of normal two.

The most common human autosomal trisomies are those which affect the numerical alterations of chromosomes 21, 18 and 13. Among these, the chromosome trisomy 21, known as Down syndrome (DS) named for John Langdon Down, the physician who first described the condition in 1866, is the most frequent chromosome

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aberration leading to mental retardation. 3-5% of mentally retarded people have DS. Nowadays the birth prevalence is 1/900 for DS. At the time of conception, the zygote frequency with chromosome 21 trisomy is high, but 85% of these abnormal embryos die in uterus leading to spontaneous abortion or late fetal loss (Papp, 1995). But, lately there are real possibilities to decrease the frequency of trisomy born infants by prenatal screening.

The connection between maternal age and human trisomies

During the last few decades different approaches have been used to investigate oocyte chromosomes and to recognize the presence of chromosomal aberrations in human female gametes, which include cytogenetic and different staining methods. The results of these screening methods indicated distinct variability in the occurrence of chromosomal aberrations, which reflect the difficulties of this kind of studies. However, the only unambiguous factor associated with human chromosome numerical variations is the maternal age (Pellestor *et al.*, 2005). At the 16-th week of pregnancy, which is the optimal time for amniocentesis, the frequency of chromosome 21 trisomy at 36 years old women is 1/200, at 39 age is 1/100 and at 42 age is 1/50. These data significantly change according to father's age (Table 1).

Table 1.

Paternal age	Maternal age				
	35-40		41 - 46		
	trisomy 21	total chromosome	trisomy 21	total chromosome	
		aberrations		aberrations	
\leq 34	0.4	1.3	1.0	1.7	
35 - 40	0.6	1.6	1.2	2.8	
41 - 46	1.3	2.1	2.8	5.6	
≥47	2.0	2.3	4.1	6.5	

Chromosomal non-disjunction trisomy 21 and other chromosome aberrations depending on maternal and paternal age (Papp, 1995)

It has long been known that trisomies appear more frequent with increasing maternal age, but it depends not only of mother, but the father's age also (Table 1). As shown in table 1, at maternal age above 40, the cytogenetic risk is double compared with maternal age under 40, but there are the same data if father's age is above 40 (Papp, 1995; Fisch *et al.*, 2003).

Define reasons of Down syndrome formation

All people with DS have an extra chromosome 21 material. An extra whole chromosome 21 in all cells of an individual with DS is found in 92% of cases.

Beside advanced maternal age (Hassold and Chiu, 1985), altered chromosome recombination (Warren *et al.*, 1987; Sherman *et al.*, 1991) constitutes the major risk to evolve DS when the appearance of an extra chromosome 21 in the oocytes during meiosis is responsible for this genetic condition (Sherman *et al.*, 2007). Studying a population from eastern part of India, Ghosh *et al.* (2009) reported a correlation between meiosis I nondisjunction and recombination in the telomeric 5.1 Mb of chromosome 21. Otherwise, in meiosis II the same authors observed preferential pericentromeric exchanges covering the proximal 5.7 Mb region, with interaction between maternal age and the location of the crossover. Generally, defective recombination independent of maternal age is also obvious in meiosis I cases (Ghosh *et al.*, 2009).

In 3-4% of DS individuals, a Robetsonian translocation happens. It is formed when one chromosome 21 (long arm) attaches to another chromosome, which is usually chromosome 14 (long arm) and forms a new chromosome (Benke *et al.*, 1995). If we analyze the DS carrying children of young mothers, we will found that in some occurrences the cause of appearance of syndrome is not simply the trisomy 21, but other numerical chromosome aberration: number of G group chromosomes (includes chromosomes 21 and 22) are normal four, number of D group chromosomes (includes chromosomes 13, 14 and 15) are only five (one chromosome is missing), and there is one extra C group chromosome (includes chromosomes 6 - 12). It is possible only if the extra chromosome 21 has translocated to D group chromosomes. In such cases one of the parents carries a translocation, but apparently one chromosome 21 is missing. meaning that this parent has only 45 chromosomes without any kind of affection (Szemere, 2001). Another kind of translocation happens within the G group chromosomes. In such cases there are only three G chromosomes, but there are five F group chromosomes (includes chromosomes 19 and 20), so the total number of chromosomes are 46, nevertheless the child has DS. The former translocation is called D/G, the latter is called G/C translocation (Szemere, 2001). Translocations involving chromosome 22 have a lower risk because trisomy 22 has very limited potential to be viable (Scriven et al., 2001).

20% of the children from translocation carrier mother and 5-10% from translocation carrier father have the risk to evolve DS (Szemere, 2001).

Mosaic trisomy 21 is a form of DS when the individual has two populations of cells, the cells with trisomy 21, and a set of normal cell line. This form constitutes 2-4% of the persons with DS (Benke *et al.*, 1995).

Genes involved in Down syndrome development

There are several theories about which genes are required in DS development. One accepted theory affirms that only a small portion of chromosome 21, called DS Critical Region, is needed to be triplicated to get the effect of DS. The 21-st chromosome is the smallest chromosome in the human karyotype (together with chromosome 22) and contains only 200 -250 genes, but only a few of them are involved in producing the phenotype of DS. It is not clearly yet exactly which genes do

what to produce the syndrome (Leshin, 1997). It has been reported (Wiseman et al., 2009) that DYRK1A (tyrosine-(Y)-phosphorylation-regulated kinase 1A) and RCANI (regulator of calcineurin 1) genes may have a role on multiple tissues development. Overexpression of DYRK1A together with SIM2 (synaptojanin 1 and single-minded homologue 2) genes and trisomy of neuronal channel proteins, (GIRK2), may contribute to learning difficulties in individuals with DS. Trisomy of APP (amyloid precursor protein) genes has a great contribution to the high frequency of dementia in persons with DS (Granholm et al., 2000; Seo and Isacson, 2005; Salehi et al., 2006). Trisomy of Hsa21 micro-RNA has-miR-155 may have a role in reduced incidence of hypertension in individuals with DS (Sethupathy et al., 2007). HsamiR-155 is supposed to specifically target one allele of type-1 AGTR1 (angiotensin II receptor) gene, downregulate the expression of gene, which may result in reduced risk of hypertension (Wiseman et al., 2009). Leshin (1997) reported that SOD1 (superoxide dismutase) gene may cause premature aging and decreased function of the immune system, COL6A1 (collagen type VI) gene cause heart defects. ETS2 causes skeletal abnormalities. CBS (cvstathione beta synthase) disrupt metabolism and DNA repair process, CRYA may cause cataract, IFNAR affects normal function of the immune system.

Common symptoms of Down syndrome

People with DS show a wide range of symptoms, not everyone with the same symptoms, and they may have encounter different problems at different period of their life cycle.

Physical features of DS comprise: muscular hypotonia, short neck with loose skin on nape of neck, flat nasal bridge and facial profile, small head, ears and mouth, protruding tongue, upward slanting eyes, ring of iris speckles - Brushfield's spots, short broad hands, short little finger, single, deep crease across the palm, a deep grove between the first and second toes (Hassold *et al.*, 1996; O'Nuallain *et al.*, 2007). Beside these physical characteristics, the corporal development of children with DS can take longer compared to children without DS. Because of hypotonia, a child with DS may learn slower to turn over, sit, stand and walk, but these children are able to learn to participate in different physical exercise activities (Carothers *et al.*, 1999).

Intellectual development and learning capacities: frequent cognitive and behavioral problems of people with DS are poor judgment, impulsive behavior and slow learning capacity (Bull *et al.*, 2011; Ulrich *et al.*, 2011). Most of the affected children are able to develop communication skills they need, but usually it takes longer compared with other children (Martin *et al.*, 2009). Määttä *et al.* (2006) described that in a population of 129 persons with DS from Finland, females showed milder forms of intellectual disability, better cognitive abilities and more developed speech compared with males. Attention deficit was observed at children with DS. Young adults showed often depression (Määttä *et al.*, 2006). Depression and Alzheimer disease are common in people with DS (Burt *et al.*, 1992; Määttä *et al.*, 2006).

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People with DS has increased risk to develop different affections, including autism, hormones and gland problems, poor immune function (Hummer, 2010), congenital heart defects, hearing and vision difficulties (Baekgaard Laursen *et al.*, 1976; Bull *et al.*, 2011; Sumar, 2011).

Fertility: males with DS usually are sterile; women with DS have lower rates of fertility compared to unaffected women (Pradhan *et al.*, 2006).

Individuals with DS can reach adulthood and even old age regularly and are commonly living till 50-60 or 70 years.

Edwards syndrome

Edwards syndrome (ES) is a chromosome disorder caused by the presence of an extra full, mosaic, or partial chromosome 18 (Goldstein *et al.*, 1988; Embleton *et al.*, 1996; Carey *et al.*, 2010). Full copy of trisomy 18 is the most common. In 95% of cases, Edwards syndrome is represented by trisomy; mosaicism and translocations are very rare. ES is named after John Hilton Edwards, being the first who described the syndrome in 1960 (Edwards *et al.*, 1960). This is the second most common autosomal trisomy after DS, the affected babies usually dye in the first half year of life. ES prevalence is around 1/6000 live births, and 80% of affected individuals are female. Many of affected fetuses die before birth (Won *et al.*, 2005; Morris *et al.*, 2008). The occurrence of trisomy 18 increases with advanced maternal age. After a comprehensive study, Savva *et al.*, (2010) suggested that the frequency is constant until age 30, after this age increases exponentially, and becomes constant at age 45.

Symptoms of trisomy 18: prenatal growth retardation is one of the most common sign in trisomy 18 (Yamanaka *et al.*, 2006; Cho *et al.*, 2009; Sepulveda *et al.*, 2010). The low weight and height continues in postnatal period also, and most of the newborn babies have feeding difficulties and may need tube feeding (Cereda and Carey, 2012). Other major physical abnormalities are: clenched hand and overlapping fingers. Gastrointestinal malformations are frequent in patients with Edwards syndrome (Rosa *et al.*, 2013). Congenital structural heart defects are found on a large scale (Carey, 2010), but it is controversial if heart defects affects survey of the patients. Conversely, respiratory problems are one of the most frequent causes of death (Baty *et al.*, 1994; Embleton *et al.*, 1996; Kosho *et al.*, 2006; Carey, 2010). The ears are small with small lobules, the helix is unfolded, simple and sometimes attached to the scalp; intra-abdominal tumors (Wilms tumor) are frequent (Carey, 2010). Beside mentioned physical malformation, individuals with trisomy 18 also suffer from severe mental retardation (Giaccardi *et al.*, 1991; Matthews, 1999).

Reaching adulthood with trisomy 18 is very rare. A few individuals reached their young ages, but they were not able to live independently and needed constant care (Ricki, 2013).

Genes involved in Edwards syndrome development

Several markers are used to detect Edwards syndrome from maternal serum: AFP (alpha-fetoprotein) and hCG (human chorionic gonadotrophin) (Ilnicka *et al.*, 1996; Barkai *et al.*, 1993), PAPPA (pregnancy associated plasma protein-A) (de Graaf *et al.*, 1999; Shiefa *et al.*, 2013), APCDD1 (adenomatosis polyposis coli down-regulated 1) and VAPA (vesicle-associated membrane protein) (Tsui *et al.*, 2010). Gene dose effect of *CNDP2* (CNDP dipeptidase 2 metallopeptidase M20 family) gene was demonstrated in a patient with trisomy 18 (Spano *et al.*, 1990). The detection of the presence of unmethylated (U-maspin) and methylated (M-maspin) formes of *MASPIN* (Serpin peptidase inhibitor, clade B (ovalbumin), member 5; SERPINB5) gene may be useful as potential biomarkers for non-invasive detection of fetal trisomy 18 (Lee *et al.*, 2013). Edwards syndrome is also associated with *BCL10* (B-cell CLL/lymphoma 10), *MALT1* (mucosa associated lymphoid tissue lymphoma translocation gene 1) and *XDH* (xanthine dehydrogenase) genes (Nakamura *et al.*, 2007; Go *et al.*, 2011).

Patau syndrome

Patau syndrome (PS), caused by trisomy of chromosome 13, is the third most common autosomal trisomy in newborns (Rasmussen *et al.*, 2003; *Duarte et al.*, 2004) after DS and ES, and has the greatest negative impact on survival of embryos. Rarely, the extra genetic material is attached to another chromosome (Robertsonian translocation), and there can be mosaic variations also. Trisomy 13 was first identified in 1960 by Klaus Patau as a cytogenetic disorder. The risk of PS rises with increasing maternal age but not as strongly as in case of DS and ES (Parker *et al.*, 2003). Many fetuses never survive until term and are stillborn or spontaneously abort. PS frequency is around 1/20000 live births (Brewer *et al.*, 2002). Average time of survival is fewer than three days.

On fetuses who survive to gestation and born alive, many of clinical feature widely vary, but severe mental impairment is a constant feature in infants born with trisomy 13. PS syndrome is recognized at birth by the presence of structural birth deficiency and poor neurologic performance. Other characteristic features include: low birth weight, heart defects, polydactyly and overlapping of fingers over thumb, abnormal palm creases, facial clefting and abnormal genitalia (Plaiasu *et al.*, 2010; Tsukada *et al.*, 2012, Caba *et al.*, 2013; Polli *et al.*, 2014).

Genes involved in Patau syndrome development

Patau syndrome is associated with *AFP* (alpha-fetoprotein) gene (Chen, 2007; Demirhan *et al.*, 2011); *PAPPA* (pregnancy associated plasma protein-A) (Bersinger *et al.*, 1994; Shiefa *et al.*, 2013) gene, *EIF2C2* (Protein argonaute-2) gene (Chen et al.,

2004), *ZIC2* (zic family member 2) gene (Lim *et al.*, 2008), *SIX3* (SIX homeobox 3) (Sergi *et al.*, 2012), *PTER* (phosphotriesterase related) gene (Tapper *et al.*, 2002) and *ASTML* (acetylserotonin O-methyltransferase-like) gene (Li *et al.*, 2012).

Among all trisomies, DS is the most common (1/900) viable autosomal trisomy in live born infants. Chromosome 21 is the shortest chromosome, and this trisomy is tolerated probably because the number of protein-coding sequences predicted for chromosome 21 is the smallest of any human autosomes. Hence, an extra copy of chromosome 21 would change the normal function of cells less than an extra copy of any other autosome (O'Connor, 2008).

Genome, transcriptome and proteome analysis of trisomies

Gene dosage studies revealed a set of 324 genes with considerable dosage effect from 45 different experiments related to DS. A high number of genes involved in neuro-development, synapsis and neuro-degeneration were identified (Vilardell *et al.*, 2011). Donnelly and Storchova described gene dosage compensation by altering the mRNA levels in aneuploidy cells. Gene dosage changes could be counteracted by upor downregulation of gene transcription in aneuploids. Aneuploid cells dispose protein level changes, impaired protein folding and protein degradation. Pathways involved in protein degradation have a significant role in interceding the compensation of proteins from additional chromosomes and other key phenotypes of aneuploidy cells (Donnelly and Storchova, 2014).

In a transcriptome analysis study of trisomy 21 and trisomy 13, FitzPatrick suggest the function of a refined primary upregulation of genes on the trisomic chromosome, resulting in a secondary, generalized and more extreme transcriptional misregulation. The level of this misregulation defines the gravity of the phenotype in most aneuploidy (FitzPatrick *et al.*, 2002). Gene expression profiling of 317 differentially expressed genes in the brain of a mouse model for DS revealed that the overexpression of interferon receptor may lead to overstimulation of Jak-Stat signaling pathway which may contribute to the neuropathology DS brain (Ling *et al.*, 2014).

Recent studies demonstrated that aneuploidy inhibits cell proliferation, induces alterations in the transcriptome and proteome and perturbs cellular proteostasis. Aneuploidy impairs induction of the heat shock response, thus activity of the transcription factor heat shock factor 1 (HSF1) is compromised; HSF1 is a critical factor underlying the phenotypes linked to aneuploidy (Donnelly *et al.*, 2014).

Future research should explain the exact influence of an uploidy on the activity of proteostasis network, and if impaired proteostasis is the basis of reduced cell proliferation and damaged metabolism.

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