

I'm not robot!

produce up to 2,000 offspring in a year, according to *Discover Magazine*. Brown rats can have up to 22 young at once, though eight or nine is more the average. Tropical rats tend to only one to six babies at once. After a gestation period of 21 to 26 days, babies that weigh only around 6 to 8 grams (21 to .28 ounces) are born, according to the American Fancy Rat and Mouse Association. By the age of three months, the brown rat is ready to reproduce. Rats typically live around two or three years. Most house rats – 91 to 97 percent – die within their first year of life, according to the University of Michigan. Classification/taxonomyHere is the taxonomy of rats according to ITIS:Kingdom: Animalia Subkingdom: Bilateria Infrakingdom: Deuterostomia Phylum: Chordata Subphylum: VertebrataInfraphylum: Gnathostomata Superclass: Tetrapoda Class: Mammalia Subclass: Theria Infraclass: Eutheria Order: Rodentia Suborder: Myomorpha Superfamily: Muroidea Family: Muridae Subfamily: Murinae Genus: RattusSpecies include:Rattus argentiventer – Rice-field ratRattus hoffmanni – Hoffmann’s Sulawesi ratRattus lutreolus – Australian swamp ratRattus norvegicus – Norway rat, or brown ratRattus osgoodi – Osgood’s Vietnamese ratRattus rattus – House rat, or black ratRattus xanthurus – Northeastern Xanthurus rat, or Sulawesi white-tailed rat Conservation statusThe International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) lists 16 rat species on its Red List of Threatened Species. They are considered threatened with extinction due to loss of habitat and decreasing populations. Near ThreatenedRattus elaphinus (Sula Archipelago rat)Rattus feliceus (Spiny Seram Island rat)Rattus jobiensis (Yapen rat)VulnerableRattus hoogerwerfi (Hoogerwerf’s Sumatran rat)Rattus palmarum (Zeelbor’s Nicobar rat)Rattus richardsoni (Glacier rat)Rattus satarae (Sahyadris forest rat)Rattus stoicus (Andaman rat)Rattus xanthurus (Northeastern Xanthurus rat)EndangeredRattus burrus (Miller’s Nicobar rat)Rattus hainaldi (Hainald’s Flores Island rat)Rattus lugens (Mentawai Archipelago rat)Rattus montanus (Sri Lankan mountain rat)Rattus ranjiniae (Ranjin’s field rat)Rattus simalurensis (Simalur Archipelago rat)Rattus vandusei (Van Deusen’s rat) Other factsBrown and house rats have made a number of mammal, bird and reptile species extinct, especially on oceanic islands, according to *Encyclopedia Britannica*. They have also spread of diseases among humans, including bubonic plague.Rats aren’t all bad, though. Brown rats are used in laboratories for research. In fact, according to the Foundation for Biomedical Research, 95 percent of all lab animals are mice and rats.A rat’s front teeth grow 4.5 to 5.5 in (11 to 14 cm) each year, according to *Discover Magazine*.Additional resources Open Access Peer-reviewed Acetaminophen or paracetamol (APAP) overdose is a common cause of liver injury. Silymarin (SLM) is a hepatoprotective agent widely used for treating liver injury of different origin. In order to evaluate the possible beneficial effects of SLM, Balb/c mice were pretreated with SLM (100 mg/kg b.wt. per os) once daily for three days. Two hours after the last SLM dose, the mice were administered APAP (300 mg/kg b.wt. i.p.) and killed 6 (T6), 12 (T12) and 24 (T24) hours later. SLM-treated mice exhibited a significant reduction in APAP-induced liver injury, assessed according to AST and ALT release and histological examination. SLM treatment significantly reduced superoxide production, as indicated by lower GSSG content, lower HO-1 induction, alleviated nitrosative stress, decreased p-JNK activation and direct measurement of mitochondrial superoxide production in vitro. SLM did not affect the APAP-induced decrease in CYP2E1 activity and expression during the first 12 hrs. Neutrophil infiltration and enhanced expression of inflammatory markers were first detected at T12 in both groups. Inflammation progressed in the APAP group at T24 but became attenuated in SLM-treated animals. Histological examination suggests that necrosis the dominant cell death pathway in APAP intoxication, which is partially preventable by SLM pretreatment. We demonstrate that SLM significantly protects against APAP-induced liver damage through the scavenger activity of SLM and the reduction of superoxide and peroxynitrite content. Neutrophil-induced damage is probably secondary to necrosis development. Citation: Papackova Z, Heczкова M, Dankova H, Sticova E, Lodererova A, Bartonova L, et al. (2018) Silymarin prevents acetaminophen-induced hepatotoxicity in mice. *PLoS ONE* 13(1): e0191353. Hiroyasu Nakano, Toho Daigaku, JAPANReceived: August 3, 2017; Accepted: January 3, 2018; Published: January 17, 2018Copyright: © 2018 Papackova et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.Data Availability: All relevant data are within the paper and its files.Funding: This study was supported by grant I7-08888S from the Czech Science Foundation (. Czech Republic to MP and by MH CZ - DRO “Institute for Clinical and Experimental Medicine - IKEM, IN 00023001” to MC (. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.Compeling interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist. Acetaminophen (N-acetyl-p-aminophen, APAP) is a safe and effective analgesic/antipyretic drug when used at therapeutic levels [1]. However, APAP overdose results in centrilobular hepatic necrosis, which can be fatal [2]. APAP toxicity is initiated by the formation of the reactive metabolite N-acetyl-p-benzoquinone imine (NAPQI). NAPQI is catalysed by cytochrome P450 CYP2E1, which is responsible for liver injury through the depletion of glutathione [3]. Once GSH is exhausted, any remaining NAPQI formed will react with alternative targets, in particular cellular proteins such as mitochondrial proteins, and induce mitochondrial oxidative stress and dysfunction [4]. Increased superoxide production is central to consecutive pathological processes. The spontaneous reaction of superoxide and nitric oxide gives rise to the generation of peroxynitrite. Knight et al. [5, 6] confirmed that peroxynitrite plays a critical role in the mechanisms of APAP-induced hepatotoxicity. Increased oxidant stress results in the activation of c-Jun N-terminal kinases (JNK) 1/2, which translocate to the mitochondria, eventually triggering the opening of the mitochondrial membrane permeability transition (MPT) pore [7] and releasing mitochondrial intermembrane proteins such as apoptosis-inducing factor (AIF). The translocation of these proteins to the nucleus causes nuclear DNA fragmentation [8]. The extensive mitochondrial dysfunction resulting in ATP depletion together with nuclear DNA damage leads to necrotic cell death [9]. Currently, APAP-induced liver injury is a popular mechanistic model for testing phytotherapeutic and other hepatoprotective interventions. The use of natural products in the prevention and treatment of liver disease has gained considerable popularity [10]. Silymarin (SLM) is a polyphenolic component isolated from the fruits and seeds of the milk thistle plant *Silybum marianum* (Asteraceae family) [11]. Silymarin extract contains approximately 65% to 80% flavonolignans (silybin A, silybin B, isosilybin A, isosilybin B, silychristin and silydianin), a small proportion of flavonoids and approximately 20% to 35% fatty acids and polyphenolic compounds, which possess a range of metabolic regulatory effects [12]. The hepatoprotective properties of silymarin in APAP intoxication have been previously described [13–16]. Nevertheless, most of these studies only concentrate on the final effect of silymarin in terms of reducing death rate and not on the detailed mechanisms of its protective effects. Furthermore, a substantial number of studies have been performed on rats, which are an unsuitable model for APAP toxicity. In humans, APAP-induced liver injury involves mitochondrial damage, oxidative stress, c-Jun terminal kinase activation and nuclear DNA fragmentation. The mode of cell death is oncotic necrosis, a similar mechanism to the one that occurs during APAP intoxication in mice. However, rats develop low or no oxidative stress and thus no injury; hepatoma cells may develop injury but through a different mechanism to the mechanisms in mice and humans [17]. In this mouse model study, we examined the effect of silymarin on critical events during the initiation and progression of APAP hepatotoxicity, particularly CYP2E1 metabolism, superoxide production, oxidative and nitrosative stress, inflammation and apoptotic and necrotic cell death. Male BALB/c mice were kept in a temperature-controlled room under a 12:12 hour light-dark cycle. The animals had free access to drinking water and were fed a standard chow diet. All experiments were performed in agreement with the Animal Protection Law of the Czech Republic 311/1997, which is in compliance with the Principles of Laboratory Animal Care (NIH Guide to the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, 8th edition, 2013) and were approved by the ethical committee of the institute for Clinical and Experimental Medicine. Fifty-six mice were randomly divided into 7 groups (n = 8): (1) vehicle control, (2) APAP 6 hours, (3) APAP 6 hours + SLM, (4) APAP 12 hours, (5) APAP 12 hours + SLM, (6) APAP 24 hours, (7) APAP 24 hours + SLM. The effect of SLM on CYP2E1 activity or expression and GSH/GSSG content was tested in separate group designated as SLM. Micronized silymarin was purchased from Favea s.r.o., Koprivnice, CR. The suspension of the silymarin and 25% xanthan gum in the appropriate dose was administered per os by intragastric gavage. Mice were pretreated with four doses (1 dose per day) of silymarin (100 mg/kg). The last dose was applied two hours prior to APAP administration. On the fourth day after fasting for 8 hours, mice were treated with APAP (300 mg/kg). APAP (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO USA) was dissolved in 0.6 ml of warm (37°C) sterile phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and injected intraperitoneally. Animals were killed 6 (T6), 12 (T12) and 24 (T24) hours after APAP administration, after which serum and liver tissue were collected. Plasma levels of alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and aspartate aminotransferase (AST) were measured using a commercially available kit (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Liver pieces were fixed in formalin and embedded in paraffin. Samples were then sectioned and stained with haematoxylin-eosin to further evaluate liver damage. Nitrotyrosine staining was performed according to Knight [5]. For detection of antigen three step visualization system was used: primary anti-nitrotyrosine antibody (MyBioSource, Inc., San Diego, CA, MBS 2001557, dilution 1:2000), biotinylated goat anti rabbit IgG (H+L), Vectastain Elite ABC Reagent (Vector Laboratories, Inc., Burlingame, CA, USA) and DakoLiquid DAB+ Substrate Chromogen System (Dako, Glostrup, Denmark). The total cytochrome P450 concentration in liver homogenate and microsomes was determined spectrophotometrically using a method described by Guengerich et al. [18]. Cytochrome P450 concentration was calculated using a carbon monoxide difference spectrum between 450 and 490 nm for dithionite-reduced samples. CYP2E1 enzyme activity was determined using a method based on chlorzoxazone 6-hydroxylation [19]. In brief, 1 ml of the reaction mixture (100 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.4, NADPH generating system, 2.5 mM chlorzoxazone) was incubated with liver homogenate or liver microsomes (160 pmol P450) for 20 min. The reaction was terminated by adding 50 µl of 42.5% phosphoric acid and 2 ml of a mixture of propan-2-ol/chloroform 15/85 (w/w). The mixture was centrifuged at 1000 g for 10 min, sediment was dried under nitrogen and the residue was dissolved in 200 µl of a mobile phase (0.5% acetic acid in 75% acetonitrile). 50 µl of the solution was injected into the Shimadzu HPLC system (LC Prominence, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) at a constant flow rate of 1 ml/min and with UV detection at 287 nm. Liver mitochondria were prepared by differential centrifugation as described by Bustamante et al. [19] with some modifications. Liver tissue was homogenised at 0°C using a teflon-glass homogeniser as a 10% homogenate in a medium containing 220 mM mannitol, 70 mM sucrose and 1 mM HEPES, pH 7.2 (MSH medium). Crude impurities were removed by centrifugation at 800 g for 10 min and the remaining supernatant was centrifuged for 10 min at 8 000 g. The pelleted mitochondria were resuspended in the MSH medium, washed twice under 10-min centrifugation at 8 000 g and finally resuspended at a concentration of 20–30 mg protein/ml. Mitochondrial proteins were determined using the BCA method (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Submitochondrial particles (SMP) were prepared according to Ide et al. [20]. Briefly, isolated mitochondria were sonicated and pelleted by centrifugation at 48 000 g for 10 min. The resultant pellet was washed three times in MSH buffer in order to get rid of matrix components and then stored at -80°C. ROS production in SMPs in vitro was measured using a DCFDA (Cell Biolabs, San Diego, CA, USA) probe, as described previously [21]. Briefly, the assay was performed with approximately 0.2 mg of mitochondrial protein per ml in MAS buffer (70 mM sucrose, 220 mM mannitol, 10 mM KH2PO4, 5 mM MgCl2, 2 mM HEPES, 1 M EGTA, pH = 7.2). The measurement was performed either in basal MAS buffer only or in a medium supplemented with either 10 mM NADH +/- 10 µM antimycin or 10 mM succinate +/- 10 µM antimycin. The final concentration of DCFDA was 10 µM and the excitation/emission wavelength was 485/528 nm. The fluorescence signal rose linearly from 0 until the 45th minute of the assay. The data presented were obtained 45 min after the start of the assay. All experiments were repeated in the absence of mitochondria, while background fluorescence changes were subtracted. The obtained values were normalised per mg of protein and expressed as a percentage of fluorescence under basal conditions (without substrates). Thiobarbituric acid-reactive substance (TBARS) content was determined using the ELISA TBARS determination kit (Extron, Woburn, MA, USA). Levels of reduced (GSH) and oxidised glutathione (GSSG) were assayed with the Glutathione in Whole Blood–HPLC detection kit (Chromsystems, Gräfelfing, Germany). Liver homogenate (20% wt/vol) was prepared using the Ultra-Turrax homogeniser (IKE, Worke, Staufen, Germany) in a homogenisation buffer (10 mM TRIS, 250 mM sucrose, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMSF, 10 ug/ml leupeptin, 10 ug/ml aprotinin). Protein concentration was determined using the BCA method (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Proteins were separated under denaturing conditions using SDS-PAGE and electroblotted to PVDF membranes. Phosphorylation of JNK was assessed by immunodetection using a specific antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA). The total expression of JNK was determined on the same membrane after stripping and reblotting using a specific antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA). Bands were visualised by ELC and quantified using the FUJI LAS-3000 imager (FUJI FILM, Tokyo, Japan). Other proteins were quantified using specific antibodies: RIP-3 (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA) and CYP2E1 (Abcam, Cambridge, UK). These membranes were exposed to medical X-Ray films and scanned using CanoScan Toolbox software, ver. 5.0. Medical X-ray films were analysed using ElfoMan software, ver. 2.6 (Semecky Inc., Prague, Czech Republic). Liver samples were dissected and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen. Total RNA was extracted using the Qiagen Mini RNeasy isolation kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). A DNAase step was included to avoid possible DNA contamination. A standard amount of total RNA (1600 ng) was used to synthesise first-strand cDNA with the High Capacity RNA-to-cDNA Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). The RT-PCR amplification mixture (25ul) contained 1 ul template cDNA, Syber Green master mix buffer (QuantiTect, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and 400nM (10 pmol/reaction) sense and antisense primer. The reaction was run on the ViiA 7 Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Results were analysed using SDS software, ver. 2.3 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). The expression of genes of interest was normalised to the housekeeper gene (B2M) and calculated using the ΔΔCt method. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed using the Kruskal-Wallis test with multiple comparisons (n = 7–8). Differences were considered statistically significant at the level of p

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