PPARα agonists regulate lipid metabolism and nitric oxide production and prevent placental overgrowth in term placentas from diabetic rats

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Abstract

Maternal diabetes impairs fetoplacental metabolism and growth. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α (PPAR α) is a nuclear receptor capable of regulating lipid metabolism and inflammatory pathways. In this study, we analyzed whether placental and fetal PPAR α activation regulates lipid metabolism and nitric oxide (NO) production in term placentas from diabetic rats. Diabetes was induced by neonatal streptozotocin administration. On day 21 of pregnancy, placentas from control and diabetic rats were cultured in the presence of PPAR α agonists (clofibrate and leukotriene B₄ (LTB₄)) for further evaluation of levels, synthesis, and peroxidation of lipids as well as NO production. Besides, on days 19, 20, and 21 of gestation, fetuses were injected with LTB₄, and the placentas were explanted on day 21 of gestation for evaluation of placental weight and concentrations of placental lipids, lipoperoxides, and NO metabolites. We found that placentas from diabetic rats showed reduced PPAR α concentrations. They presented no lipid overaccumulation but reduced lipid synthesis, parameters negatively regulated by PPAR α activators. Lipid peroxidation and NO production, increased in placentas from diabetic rats, were negatively regulated by PPAR α activators. Fetal PPAR α activation in diabetic rats does not change placental lipid concentrations but reduced placental weight and NO production. In conclusion, PPAR α activators regulate lipid metabolism and NO production in term placentas from diabetic rats, an activation that regulates placental growth and can partly be exerted by the developing fetus.

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Introduction

Maternal diabetes impairs fetal and placental development, metabolism, and growth. Both type 1 and type 2 diabetes increase the risks of miscarriage and malformations (Balsells *et al.* 2009, Michael Weindling 2009). Gestational, type 1, and type 2 diabetes increase the risks of perinatal morbidity and mortality and also program increases in the risks of metabolic and cardiovascular diseases in the offspring's life (Plagemann *et al.* 2008, Melamed & Hod 2009, Reece *et al.* 2009).

A hallmark related to the programming of metabolic diseases is the overgrowth observed in both the fetuses and their placentas at term gestation (Jansson *et al.* 2006, Plagemann *et al.* 2008). Fetal overgrowth is mainly the result of an increase in metabolic substrates transferred through the placenta and of the increase of insulin produced in fetal pancreas as a response to the increased glucose concentrations (Desoye & Shafrir 1994, Jansson *et al.* 2006, Herrera & Ortega-Senovilla 2010). Indeed, together with the increased insulin-like growth factors, these changes may guide the metabolic

and proliferative changes that lead to both fetal and placental overgrowth (Hiden *et al.* 2009). In addition, in the placenta, nitric oxide (NO) can dilate placental vessels and induce angiogenesis and trophoblast proliferation (Dulak & Jozkowicz 2003, Valdes *et al.* 2009), and NO overproduction is observed in intrauterine tissues in human diabetic gestations and in experimental diabetic models (Jawerbaum & Gonzalez 2005, San Martin & Sobrevia 2006, Leach *et al.* 2009).

There are several experimental models of diabetes that show similar impairments in fetoplacental development and growth when compared to human diabetic pregnancies (Jawerbaum & White 2010). These models have been valuable to address the causes of these impairments, which are related, at least in part, to the intrauterine metabolic impairments and the consequent generation of an excess of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, which leads to a pro-inflammatory environment that exerts damage throughout development (Myatt & Cui 2004, Jawerbaum & Gonzalez 2006).

As mechanisms capable of stimulating metabolic and anti-inflammatory pathways could be beneficial to placental development in maternal diabetes, we here focus on the activity of the nuclear receptor peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α (PPAR α). This nuclear receptor is one of the three PPAR isotypes, ligandactivated transcription factors that regulate metabolic and inflammatory pathways (Bensinger & Tontonoz 2008). Through its classical pathway, PPARa heterodimerizes with its partner RXR and after ligand binding, they recruit coactivators and release corepressors leading to the expression of target genes (Hihi et al. 2002). The huge ligand pocket characteristic of PPARs accepts different ligands, such as different polyunsaturated fatty acids, which can activate the three PPAR isotypes, and the arachidonic acid derivative leukotriene B₄ (LTB₄), which is a specific ligand of the PPARα isotype (Lin et al. 1999, Hihi et al. 2002, Narala et al. 2010). Besides, clofibrate is a pharmacological PPAR α activator frequently used to treat dyslipidemias (Desvergne et al. 2004, Panadero et al. 2009).

PPAR α is highly expressed in several organs such as the liver and the heart, in which PPAR α ligands are crucial regulators of lipid catabolism (Lefebvre *et al.* 2006, Finck 2007, Rakhshandehroo *et al.* 2007). Besides, PPAR α activation prevents lipid peroxidation and regulates anti-inflammatory pathways in several tissues (Cuzzocrea *et al.* 2008, Belfort *et al.* 2010). In addition, when PPAR α is activated, NO generation is inhibited in various tissues and cell types, in part by reducing the concentrations of the inducible form of NO synthase (iNOS; Paukkeri *et al.* 2007, Cuzzocrea *et al.* 2008, Ibarra-Lara *et al.* 2010).

PPARa is expressed in the placenta and in different fetal organs during the post-placentation stage (Braissant & Wahli 1998, Wang et al. 2002). Our previous studies have shown that PPARa activation regulates lipid catabolism and synthesis in placentas from diabetic rats in an early post-placentation period (day 14 of rat gestation; Martinez et al. 2008). Besides, we have recently shown that lipid accumulation and peroxidation in fetal livers from diabetic rats at term gestation can be regulated by PPAR α activators (Martinez et al. 2011). Interestingly, we have also found that fetal activation with the endogenous ligand LTB₄ can prevent fetal and fetal liver overgrowth in maternal diabetes (Martinez et al. 2011). Owing to the relevance in understanding the relationship between fetal growth and placental growth, we consider these findings as a starting point to address fetal effects on placental growth. Therefore, we here investigated the effects of the pharmacological PPARa activator clofibrate and the endogenous PPAR α activator LTB₄ on placental lipid concentrations, synthesis, and peroxidation, as well as on placental NO production in term pregnant control and diabetic rats (day 21 of pregnancy). Besides, in both control and diabetic animals, we injected fetuses with the endogenous PPAR α activator LTB₄ on days 19, 20, and 21 of pregnancy and analyzed their corresponding placentas on day 21 of gestation to address the placental lipid concentrations, lipoperoxidation, and NO production, as well as PPARa expression and the placental weight.

Materials and methods

Animals

Albino Wistar rats bred in our laboratory were fed ad libitum with commercial rat chow (Asociación cooperativa Argentina, Buenos Aires, Argentina). At 2 days of age, neonates were injected with streptozotocin (90 mg/kg, s.c., Sigma-Aldrich) diluted in citrate buffer (0.05 M, pH 4.5, Sigma-Aldrich) as described previously (Portha et al. 1979, Capobianco et al. 2008). Control animals were injected with citrate buffer alone. The diabetic state was confirmed in 2-month-old rats prior to mating. Rats were considered diabetic when they presented fasting glycemic values higher than 130 mg/dl. Glycemia was determined in blood from the tail central vein by Accu-Chek reagent strips and a glucometer obtained from Accu-Chek, Roche Diagnostics. Control and diabetic female rats were mated with control males. Pregnancy was confirmed by the presence of spermatozoa in vaginal smears and this day was considered day 1 of gestation. The guidelines for the care and use of animals approved by the local institution were followed, according to the Principles of Laboratory Animal Care (NIH publication number 85-23, revised 1985, http://grants1.nih.gov/grants/ olaw/references/phspol.htm).

Placental preparations

Animals were killed in a CO_2 chamber on day 21 of pregnancy and the uterus of each animal was transferred to a Petri dish containing Krebs Ringer bicarbonate (KRB) medium: 5 mM glucose, 145 mM Na^+ , 2·2 mM Ca^{2+} , 1·2 mM Mg^{2+} , 127 mM Cl^- , 25 mM HCO₃⁻, 1·2 mM SO₄²⁻, and 1·2 mM PO₄³⁻. Fetuses and placentas were explanted and weighed. Placentas (100 mg) were frozen at -80 °C for evaluation of protein expression of PPARa. In order to analyze the effect of PPARa on lipid concentrations, de novo lipid synthesis, lipid peroxidation, and NO production, placental explants (100 mg) were incubated for 3 h as previously (Martinez et al. 2008) in a metabolic shaker under an atmosphere of 5% CO_2 in air at 37 °C, with or without the addition of either LTB₄ (0.1 µM, Cayman Chemical Co., Ann Arbor, MI, USA) or clofibrate (20 µM, Sigma–Aldrich). Thereafter, tissues were frozen at -80 °C for further analysis of lipid concentrations, lipid peroxidation, and NO production. To analyze the de novo lipid synthesis,

placentas (100 mg) were incubated as described above, with addition of 1 μ Ci ¹⁴C-acetate (53 mCi/mmol) and then stored at -80 °C until determination of the newly formed radioactive lipids, as described below. Maternal glycemia and triglyceridemia were measured by commercial enzymatic kits from Wiener Lab (Rosario, Argentina) in serum obtained through centrifugation of blood from the aorta artery.

To perform the in vivo studies, we proceeded as described previously (Martinez et al. 2011). Fetuses from pregnant animals received either a 50 µl s.c. injection of LTB₄ (340 mg/kg dissolved in vehicle) or vehicle alone (17 μ mol ethanol/kg, dissolved in saline solution) on days 19, 20, and 21 of pregnancy. For this purpose, the pregnant animals were anesthetized in a CO_2 chamber and a slight anesthesia maintained with ether vapors. An abdominal incision allowed the exposure of the wall of the left uterine horn, through which the fetuses were injected. The entire surgery lasted 15 min and was repeated for three consecutive days. In each animal, fetuses in the left uterine horn were numbered according to their distance to the ovary. Of the fetuses, two were injected with LTB₄ solution for the three consecutive days, whereas two other fetuses were injected with vehicle for the three consecutive days. After the injection, the abdominal incision was sutured. Fetuses from eight control and eight diabetic animals were subjected to this surgery procedure. After 3 h of the last injection (day 21 of pregnancy), animals were killed in a CO₂ chamber. The uterus of each animal was transferred to a Petri dish containing KRB medium. Fetuses and placentas were explanted and weighed. Placentas (100 mg) were stored at -80 °C for further analysis of lipid concentrations, lipid peroxidation, and NO production or preserved in RNA-later stabilization solution (Ambion) for the evaluation of the gene expression of iNOS and PPARa. Fetal blood was obtained from decapitation, collected in heparinized syringes, and the plasma preserved at -80 °C for further evaluation of triglyceridemia and glycemia levels by using commercial kits obtained from Wiener Lab.

PPARα concentrations

PPARα protein expression was evaluated by western blot as described previously (Martinez *et al.* 2008). Placentas were homogenized in 300 µl ice-cold lysis buffer (pH 7·4, 20 mM Tris–HCl, 150 mM NaCl, and 1% Triton X-100) containing 1% protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma–Aldrich), incubated on ice for 2 h, and centrifuged at 9600 g for 10 min at 4 °C. Protein concentrations were determined by the Bradford method. An equivalent volume of 100 µg of protein lysates was separated by electrophoresis in 12% SDS-PAGE. Proteins were then transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes, which were blocked with 2% BSA for 24 h and then incubated overnight at 4 °C with a polyclonal rabbit IgG antibody either against PPARa (1:200; Cayman Chemical Co.) or against *a*-actin (Sigma-Aldrich). After washing with Tris buffer saline and Tween 0.05%, the blots were treated with HRPconjugated secondary antibody (1:10000) obtained from Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, Inc. (West Grove, PA, USA) for 1h and washed several times. The specific signals were visualized using the ECL Western Blotting Analysis System from G. E. Healthcare (Buckinghamshire, UK) enhanced chemiluminescence system. This kit uses Lumigen TMA-6, which is a substrate for the chemiluminescent detection of peroxidase conjugates on membranes. Reaction of the substrate with a HRP label generates sustained luminescence of high intensity. The identity of PPARa was established by the use of molecular weight standards (Invitrogen), which allow the identification of the band revealed at the expected size of 50 kDa, which was absent in the negative control experiments performed in the absence of primary antibody and present in the liver homogenates used as a positive control. Actin reactivity was detected with a phosphatase alkaline-conjugated secondary antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA). The relative intensity of protein signals was quantified by densitometric analysis using the ImageJ Software (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA). Results are expressed as PPARa protein/actin protein ratio.

Lipid level analysis

Placental lipid concentrations were evaluated by thin layer chromatography (TLC) as described previously (Capobianco et al. 2008). Placentas were homogenized in PBS. Liver lipids were extracted by three rounds of organic extraction in methanol:chloroform (2:1) and the solvent evaporated under a N₂ stream. Lipids were developed by TLC in thin silica gel 60 plates (Merck) using hexane:ether:acetic acid (80:20:2) as the developing solvent mixture. Lipid species were stained with iodine. Triglycerides, cholesterol, cholesteryl esters, and phospholipids were identified and quantified by comparison with known amounts of pure lipid standards obtained from Nu-Chek-Prep (Elysian, MN, USA), on the same plate. The plates were scanned and analyzed by densitometry using the ImageJ software. Results are expressed as $\mu g/mg$ protein.

Evaluation of the de novo lipid synthesis

Placental lipid synthesis from ¹⁴C-acetate was evaluated as described previously (Capobianco *et al.* 2008). Briefly following the incubations performed in the presence of $^{14}\text{C}\text{-acetate}$ (53 mCi/mmol) either with or without the addition of LTB_4 (0·1 μM) or clofibrate (20 μM), lipids were separated by TLC as described above. The radioactive spots were identified with a STORM scanner (G. E. Healthcare). Thereafter, the radioactive spots corresponding to the different $^{14}\text{C}\text{-labeled}$ lipid species were scrapped into vials and counted in a liquid scintillation counter. Results are expressed as dpm/µg protein.

Lipid peroxidation evaluation

Lipid peroxidation was estimated by measuring the concentrations of thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS), as described previously (Kurtz et al. 2010), a method widely used to assess peroxidation of fatty acids (Ohkawa et al. 1979). Approximately 100 mg of tissue was homogenized in 100 mM Tris-HCl buffer, pH 7.6. The homogenate was added to trichloroacetic acid (40%) and centrifuged at 1.8 gfor 10 min. The supernatant was added with an equal volume of thiobarbituric acid (46 mM), and the solution was heated at 95 °C for 15 min. Then, the samples were cooled and quantified spectrophotometrically at 530 nm. Malondialdehyde (Sigma–Aldrich) subjected to the same conditions as the tissue homogenates was used as a standard. TBARS are expressed as nmol/mg protein.

NO production analysis

NO production was evaluated by the determination of the concentration of its stable metabolites nitrates/ nitrites, as described previously (Higa *et al.* 2010), by using a commercial assay kit (Cayman Chemical Co.). For that, placental tissues were homogenized in 1ml Tris–HCl buffer pH 7·6 and an aliquot was separated for protein determination. Nitrates in the supernatant were reduced to nitrites using nitrate reductase, and total nitrites were measured by the Griess method (Green *et al.* 1982). Optical densities were measured at 540 nm in a microliter plate using NaNO₃ and NaNO₂ as standard. Results are expressed as nmol/mg of protein.

Assessment of *iNOS* and *PPAR* α mRNA

iNOS and PPAR α expression was evaluated by RT-PCR, as described previously (Kurtz *et al.* 2010). Placental RNA was extracted with Tri reagent (Genbiotech, Buenos Aires, Argentina) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. cDNA was synthesized incubating 1 µg extracted placental RNA with 20 µl reverse transcription buffer containing 7.5 mM random primer hexamers (Promega), 0.5 mM each of all four dNTPs (Invitrogen) and 200 U MMLV reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) at 25 °C for 10 min, then at 37 °C for 50 min, and then at 70 °C for 15 min. cDNA (2 μ l) was used to perform the amplification in a 25 μ l reaction buffer containing dNTPs (0·2 mM), magnesium chloride solution (2 mM), 1·25 U Taq polymerase (GoTaq Flexi Polymerase, Promega), and 0·45 μ M of each specific primer.

Primers for iNOS were forward: 5⁷-TGGTGAAG-GGTGTCGTGAAA-3' and reverse: 5'-CTCACTGG-GACTGCACAGAA-3', whose amplification product is a 128 bp fragment (Nowicki et al. 2003). Primers for PPARα were forward: 5'-TCACACAATGCAATCCGTTT-3' and reverse: 5'-GGCCTTGACCTTGTTCATGT-3', whose amplification product is a 177 bp fragment (Yeon et al. 2004). The primers for the ribosomal protein L30, used as an internal control, were forward: 5'-CCATCTTGGCGTCTGATCTT-3' and reverse: 5'-GG-CGAGGATAACCAATTTC-3', designed to obtain a 201 bp fragment, using Primer 3 Software (http://frodo.wi. mit.edu/primer3). The initial step in the reaction was 95 °C for 5 min, followed by 28 cycles for L30, 34 cycles for iNOS, and 36 cycles for PPARa. Each cycle consisted of denaturation at 95 °C for 15 s, primer annealing at 58 °C for 30 s, and extension at 72 °C for 15 s. The resulting products $(10 \,\mu l)$ were separated on a 2% agarose gel and stained with ethidium bromide. The density of the bands was quantified by image analysis with ImageJ Software and normalized to L30.

Statistical analysis

Data are presented as the mean \pm s.E.M. Groups were compared using Student's *t*-test or one-way ANOVA in conjunction with Tukey's test where appropriate. Differences between groups were considered significant when *P* value <0.05.

Results

$\mbox{PPAR}\alpha$ in term placentas from control and diabetic rats

Diabetic animals at term gestation showed increased glycemia (control: 101 ± 9 ; diabetic: 282 ± 31 mg/dl, P<0.001) and triglyceridemia (control: 199 ± 15 ; diabetic: 554 ± 61 mg/dl, P<0.001). Together with these metabolic changes, there was an increase in placental weight in the diabetic group (control: 561 ± 11 mg; diabetic: 670 ± 18 mg, P<0.001). As a putative regulator of metabolic pathways in term placentas, we measured the protein expression of PPAR α in placentas from control and diabetic rats on day 21 of gestation. We found that PPAR α concentrations in placentas from diabetic animals were reduced (P<0.05) when compared with those from healthy rats (Fig. 1).



Figure 1 Protein expression of PPAR α is reduced in term placentas from diabetic rats. Antibodies used were rabbit anti-PPAR α and rabbit anti-actin. (A) Representative western blots exhibiting PPAR α protein expression in placentas from control and diabetic rats. (B) Densitometric analysis of PPAR α concentrations, normalized against actin, used as an internal control. Values are mean \pm s.E.M. for placentas obtained from eight rats on day 21 of gestation. Student's *t*-test was performed. **P*<0.05 denotes differences between diabetic versus control groups.

Lipid concentrations and *de novo* synthesis in term placentas from control and diabetic rats: effect of PPAR α activation

The placentas from diabetic rats on day 21 of gestation showed no changes in the concentrations of triglycerides, cholesteryl esters, phospholipids, and cholesterol when compared with controls (Fig. 2). To analyze the effects of PPARa agonists on placental lipid concentrations, three placentas from control (n=8) and three from diabetic (n=8) rats were explanted on day 21 of gestation and cultured for 3 h in the presence or absence of the PPAR α agonists LTB₄ (0·1 μ M) or clofibrate (20 μ M), and placental lipid concentrations were then evaluated. We found that LTB4 did not modify the concentrations of the evaluated lipids in placentas from both control and diabetic rats, while clofibrate reduced triglycerides (P < 0.01) and cholesterol (P < 0.05) concentrations in control placentas, and reduced the concentrations of cholesteryl esters (P < 0.05) and phospholipids (P < 0.05) in placentas from diabetic rats (Fig. 2).

When the *de novo* lipid synthesis was evaluated in the placentas on day 21 of gestation, we found that the *de novo* synthesis of triglycerides (P < 0.001) and phospholipids (P < 0.01; Fig. 3) was reduced and that there were no changes in the *de novo* synthesis of cholesterol and cholesteryl esters in the placentas from diabetic animals when compared with controls. To analyze the effects of PPAR α agonists on placental *de novo* lipid synthesis, three placentas from control (n=8) and three from diabetic (n=8) rats were explanted on day 21 of gestation and cultured for 3 h in the presence of ¹⁴C-acetate as a tracer either with or without addition of LTB₄ (0·1 μ M) or clofibrate (20 μ M), and concentrations of radioactive lipids in the placentas were then analyzed. We found that neither clofibrate nor LTB₄ modified the *de novo* synthesis of the evaluated lipids in the placentas from control rats (Fig. 3). Differently, in the placentas from diabetic animals, the endogenous ligand LTB₄ reduced the *de novo* synthesis of phospholipids (*P*<0·001) and cholesterol (*P*<0·05), whereas the pharmacological ligand clofibrate reduced the *de novo* synthesis of triglycerides (*P*<0·05), phospholipids (*P*<0·05), and cholesterol (*P*<0·05; Fig. 3).

Lipid peroxidation and NO production in placentas from control and diabetic rats at term gestation: effect of PPAR α activation

The placentas from diabetic rats on day 21 of gestation showed increased lipid peroxidation, as indicated by an increase in the concentrations of TBARS (P < 0.01, Fig. 4A), as well as increased NO production, as indicated by an increase in its stable metabolites nitrates/nitrites (P < 0.05, Fig. 4B). To analyze the effects of PPAR α agonists on placental lipid peroxidation and NO production, three placentas from



Figure 2 PPAR α activators regulate lipid concentrations in term placentas from diabetic rats. Effects of the PPAR α agonists LTB₄ (0·1 μ M) and clofibrate (20 μ M) on lipid concentrations in placentas obtained from control and diabetic rats on day 21 of gestation. (A) Triglycerides, (B) cholesteryl esters, (C) phospholipids, and (D) cholesterol. Values are mean ± s.e.M. for placentas obtained from eight rats on day 21 of gestation. ANOVA followed by Tukey's test was performed. *P < 0.05 and **P < 0.01 denote differences between treated control group versus non-treated diabetic group versus non-treated diabetic group.

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Figure 3 PPAR α activators regulate the *de novo* lipid synthesis in term placentas from diabetic rats. Effects of the PPAR α agonists LTB₄ (0·1 μ M) and clofibrate (20 μ M) on the *de novo* lipid synthesis in term placentas obtained from control and diabetic rats. (A) Triglycerides, (B) cholesteryl esters, (C) phospholipids, and (D) cholesterol. Values are mean \pm s.e.m. for placentas obtained from eight rats on day 21 of gestation. ANOVA followed by Tukey's test was performed. **P<0·01 and ***P<0·001 denote differences between non-treated diabetic group versus non-treated control group. *P<0·05 and ***P<0·001 denote differences between treated diabetic group versus non-treated diabetic group.

control (n=8) and three from diabetic (n=8) rats were explanted on day 21 of gestation and cultured for 3 h in the presence or absence of the PPAR α agonists LTB₄ $(0.1 \,\mu\text{M})$ or clofibrate $(20 \,\mu\text{M})$, and placental lipid peroxidation and NO production were then analyzed. We found that neither clofibrate nor LTB₄ modified TBARS concentrations in placentas from control rats. Differently, both LTB₄ (P < 0.05) and clofibrate (P < 0.01) were able to reduce the concentrations of TBARS in term placentas from diabetic animals (Fig. 4A). Moreover, the NO stable metabolites nitrates/nitrites were negatively regulated by both clofibrate and LTB₄ in the placentas from both control (P < 0.05) and diabetic (P < 0.01) rats, with the PPAR α agonists in the diabetic group being capable of reducing NO production to control values (Fig. 4B).

Lipid concentrations in placentas from control and diabetic rats at term gestation: effect of fetal LTB₄ administration

Considering that we previously found profound effects of *in vivo* fetal PPARα activation on fetal liver lipid concentrations and fetal growth (Martinez *et al.* 2011),

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we tested the hypothesis that fetal PPARa activation could influence placental lipid concentrations, NO production, and placental growth. For this purpose, fetuses from control and diabetic rats were injected with either LTB₄ (0.1μ M) or vehicle through the uterine wall on days 19, 20, and 21 of gestation. On day 21 of gestation, fetal blood was obtained to measure fetal glycemia, triglyceridemia, and cholesterolemia, and the placental weight and placental lipid concentrations were analyzed. Fetal glycemia (P < 0.001), triglyceridemia (P < 0.05), and cholesterolemia (P < 0.05) were increased in the vehicle-injected fetuses from diabetic animals, when compared with the vehicle-injected control group (Fig. 5). Fetal administration of the natural PPAR α agonist LTB₄ in late gestation did not change fetal glycemia, triglyceridemia, and cholesterolemia in both control and diabetic animals when compared with their respective vehicle-injected groups (Fig. 5). In control animals, the fetal administration of



Figure 4 PPAR α activators regulate lipid peroxidation and NO production in term placentas from diabetic rats. Effect of the PPAR α agonists LTB₄ (0·1 μ M) and clofibrate (20 μ M) on (A) lipid peroxidation and (B) NO production in term placentas from control and diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm s.e.M. for placentas obtained from eight rats on day 21 of gestation. ANOVA followed by Tukey's test was performed. **P*<0·05 and ***P*<0·01 denote differences between non-treated diabetic group versus non-treated control group. [†]*P*<0·05 and ⁺⁺*P*<0·01 denote differences between treated control group versus non-treated diabetic group versus non-treated diabetic group.



Figure 5 Fetal PPAR α activation reduces fetal and placental weight and does not modify serum lipid profile in diabetic rats on day 21 of gestation. Fetuses from control and diabetic rats were injected with LTB₄ (0·1 μ M) or vehicle on days 19, 20, and 21 of pregnancy. Fetal glycemia (A), triglyceridemia (B), and cholesterolemia (C), as well as fetal weight (D) and placental weight (E), were evaluated on day 21 of pregnancy. Values are mean ± s.E.M.; n=8 rats per group. ANOVA followed by Tukey's test was performed. *P<0·05, *P<0·01, and ***P<0·01 denote differences between vehicle-treated diabetic versus vehicle-treated diabetic group. LTB₄-treated diabetic group.

LTB₄ in late gestation did not change fetal or placental weight. Differently, in diabetic animals, a reduction in both fetal growth and placental growth was found when LTB₄ was injected in the fetuses compared with those injected with vehicle (P < 0.05, Fig. 5). On the other hand, no changes in the concentrations of the lipid species analyzed were found in the placentas corresponding to LTB₄-injected fetuses from control and diabetic rats when compared with their respective vehicle-injected controls (Fig. 6).

Lipid peroxidation and NO production in placentas from control and diabetic rats at term gestation: effect of fetal LTB₄ administration

In order to analyze whether fetal PPARα activation regulates lipid peroxidation and NO production in rat

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term placentas, fetuses from control and diabetic rats were injected with either LTB_4 (0·1 μ M) or vehicle (controls) through the uterine wall on days 19, 20, and 21 of gestation. On day 21 of gestation, the placentas were explanted and TBARS and nitrates/nitrites concentrations were analyzed as respective indexes of lipid peroxidation and NO production. In addition, expression of the inducible isoform of iNOS was analyzed in the placentas corresponding to LTB_{4^-} and vehicle-injected fetuses.

When we studied lipid peroxidation, there were no changes in this parameter in the placentas corresponding to LTB₄-injected fetuses when compared with those corresponding to vehicle-injected fetuses in both control and diabetic rats (Fig. 7A). When we analyzed NO production, we found that in both control and diabetic groups, nitrates/nitrites concentrations were reduced in the placentas corresponding to LTB₄injected fetuses when compared with their respective vehicle-injected groups (P < 0.05, Fig. 7B). Interestingly, in the vehicle-injected diabetic group, which showed an increase in NO stable metabolites nitrates/ nitrites in the placenta when compared with the vehicle-injected control group, there was also an increase in the placental expression of iNOS (P < 0.05, Fig. 7C). Moreover, in the diabetic group,



Figure 6 Fetal PPAR α activation does not modify lipid concentrations in the placenta. Fetuses from control and diabetic rats were injected with LTB₄ (0·1 μ M) or vehicle on days 19, 20, and 21 of pregnancy and their corresponding placentas analyzed on day 21 of pregnancy. Concentrations of (A) triglycerides, (B) cholesteryl esters, (C) phospholipids, and (D) cholesterol were evaluated in term placentas obtained from control and diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm s.E.M. for placentas obtained from eight rats on day 21 of pregnancy. ANOVA followed by Tukey's test was performed.

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Figure 7 Fetal PPARa activation does not modify lipid peroxidation but negatively regulates NO production and iNOS expression in the placenta from diabetic rats. Fetuses from control and diabetic rats were injected with LTB₄ (0·1 µM) or vehicle on days 19, 20, and 21 of pregnancy and their corresponding placentas analyzed on day 21 of pregnancy. Concentrations of (A) TBARS, an index of lipid peroxidation, (B) nitrates/nitrites, stable NO metabolites, and (C) iNOS expression were evaluated in term placentas obtained from control and diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm s.e.m. for placentas obtained from eight rats on day 21 of gestation. ANOVA followed by Tukey's test was performed. *P<0.05 and **P<0.01 denote differences between vehicletreated diabetic group versus vehicle-treated control group. $^{\dagger}P < 0.05$ denotes differences between LTB₄-treated control group versus vehicle-treated control group. $^{\#}P < 0.05$ denotes differences between LTB₄-treated diabetic group versus vehicletreated diabetic group.

together with the reduction of nitrate/nitrite concentrations to control values, the expression of iNOS was also reduced in the placentas corresponding to LTB₄-injected fetuses when compared with the placentas corresponding to the vehicle-injected fetuses (P < 0.05, Fig. 7C).

PPAR α expression in placentas from control and diabetic rats at term gestation: effect of fetal LTB₄ administration

In order to analyze whether fetal administration of the endogenous PPAR α agonist LTB₄ regulates the expression of PPAR α in rat term placentas, fetuses from control and diabetic rats were injected with either LTB₄ (0·1 μ M) or vehicle (controls) through the uterine wall on days 19, 20, and 21 of gestation. On day 21 of gestation, the placentas were explanted and PPAR α expression was analyzed.

A reduction in PPAR α expression was found in placentas from diabetic animals injected with vehicle

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when compared with those from control animals injected with vehicle (P < 0.05, Fig. 8). Interestingly, when we studied the effect of fetal LTB₄ administration, there were significant increases in placental PPAR α expression in the LTB₄-injected fetuses from both control and diabetic rats when compared with those corresponding to vehicle-injected fetuses in both control and diabetic groups (P < 0.01, Fig. 8).

Discussion

PPARs signaling pathways are important in placental development and function, and their altered concentrations have relevance in several gestational diseases (Giaginis et al. 2008, Wieser et al. 2008, Arck et al. 2010). In this study, we found reduced PPARa concentrations in term placentas from diabetic rats. Similarly, protein expression of PPAR α is reduced in term placentas from gestational diabetic patients (Holdsworth-Carson et al. 2010). These changes seem to be dependent on the developmental stage, as PPARa concentrations are enhanced in placentas from diabetic rats in the early post-placentation period (Martinez et al. 2008). In this regard, changes in concentrations and function of the different PPAR isoforms occur throughout pregnancies both in humans and in experimental models (Capobianco et al. 2005, Wieser et al. 2008, Holdsworth-Carson et al. 2009, Lappas & Rice 2009, Pustovrh et al. 2009). In this research, in the *in vitro* experiments performed in placentas at term gestation, we found some effects



Figure 8 Fetal LTB₄ upregulates PPAR α expression in placentas from diabetic rats. Fetuses from control and diabetic rats were injected with LTB₄ (0·1 μ M) or vehicle on days 19, 20, and 21 of pregnancy and their corresponding placentas analyzed on day 21 of pregnancy. PPAR α expression was evaluated in term placentas obtained from control and diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm s.E.M. for placentas obtained from eight rats on day 21 of gestation. ANOVA followed by Tukey's test was performed. *P<0·05 denotes differences between vehicle-treated diabetic group versus vehicle-treated control group. ⁺⁺P<0·01 denotes differences between LTB₄-treated control group versus vehicle-treated diabetic group.

related to the capacity of lipid oxidation of clofibrate, a potent PPARa pharmacological activator, but no changes in the presence of the endogenous ligand LTB₄, capable of oxidizing lipids in placentas at midgestation (Martinez et al. 2008). The capacity of lipid accretion of the placenta changes throughout gestation. Indeed, at midgestation, placentas from diabetic rats show a marked accumulation of triglycerides and cholesteryl esters (Martinez et al. 2008) whereas term placentas from the same diabetic rat model showed no lipid overaccumulation. These findings suggest that changes in lipid metabolism occur at term gestation in parallel to important changes in the concentrations of PPARa. On the other hand, although both clofibrate and LTB₄ can activate lipid metabolism through PPARa signaling pathways in several tissues including the placenta (Lefebvre et al. 2006, Finck 2007, Martinez et al. 2008), different effects can be achieved due to the high potency of clofibrate and the different conformational changes that each ligand can induce, leading to the recruitment of different co-activators and to the release of different co-repressors (Schaiff et al. 2000, Martinez et al. 2008, Panadero et al. 2009, Yoon 2009). Therefore, a limitation of the present work that needs to be addressed in further studies is the evaluation of the activation of PPARa achieved by each ligand.

Regarding the placental *de novo* lipid synthesis, we here found that PPAR α activation regulates the synthesis of triglycerides, phospholipids, and cholesterol in diabetic tissues. Indeed, although mainly a regulator of lipid catabolism, PPAR α can also regulate lipid synthesis in different tissues (Rakhshandehroo *et al.* 2007, Panadero *et al.* 2009), an effect that may be related to PPARs interaction with the liver receptor X (LXR), a main regulator of this anabolic pathway (van Straten *et al.* 2009, Hein *et al.* 2010).

Both the classical PPARs activation pathway and the transactivation of other nuclear transcription factors such as NF-KB have been related to PPARs antiinflammatory effects (Straus & Glass 2007, Bensinger & Tontonoz 2008). Indeed, PPARs activation both stimulates the expression of the antioxidant enzyme superoxide dismutase and catalase, and regulates glutathione metabolism in several cell types (Lin et al. 2007, Abdelmegeed et al. 2009, Ibarra-Lara et al. 2010). Activation of PPARa also regulates lipid peroxidation, a regulation evident in plasma and tissues in different pathologies and inflammatory conditions including the diabetic state (Inoue et al. 1997, Anwer et al. 2007, Belfort et al. 2010). NO production is negatively regulated by PPARa activation in different tissues, through a mechanism in part related to the reduction of iNOS concentrations (Paukkeri et al. 2007, Cuzzocrea et al. 2008, Ibarra-Lara et al. 2010). In this study, we found that PPARa activation negatively regulates lipid

peroxidation and NO production in the placenta, an effect that is particularly relevant in maternal diabetes, in which the excess of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species are clearly related to the damaging effects in placental tissues (Jawerbaum & Gonzalez 2006, Webster *et al.* 2008).

An important question addressed in this work is whether the fetus can actively regulate placental function and growth in an adverse environment such as maternal diabetes. Our experimental approach allowed the evaluation of a fetal role in regulating placental lipid metabolism, NO production, and growth. We here found that fetal administration of the endogenous PPARa ligand LTB4 does not change lipid concentrations and peroxidation in the placenta, but specifically regulates the production of placental NO, through a mechanism that seems to depend, at least in part in the diabetic animals, on a downregulation of the expression of the inducible isoform of NOS. Although further research is needed to understand the direct or indirect nature of the effect of fetal LTB₄ on the placenta, the observed responses to fetal LTB₄ in this tissue may be due to its effect on the placental endothelial cells, which have a high capacity of NO synthesis and are likely to be the placental cells most exposed to fetal signaling molecules (Giannubilo et al. 2008).

A limitation of this study was that it was not possible to address the *in vivo* effects of the pharmacological ligand clofibrate, as vehicles needed to dissolve this drug impaired development in rat fetuses at term. Nevertheless, our recent studies performed in term pregnant rats have shown potent effects of the PPAR α agonist LTB₄ on fetal liver lipid catabolism when the drug was given to the fetuses for three consecutive days, even more potent than those achieved *in vitro* by both LTB₄ and clofibrate in fetal liver tissues (Martinez *et al.* 2011).

In this work, we found that PPAR α expression was reduced in the placentas from diabetic rats when compared with controls. Moreover, fetal administration of the PPAR α ligand LTB₄ highly increased PPAR α expression in the placentas from both control and diabetic rats. This finding provides direct evidence of an LTB₄-mediated increase in the PPAR α signaling pathway. As previous studies have shown that PPAR α dietary ligands in the mother can increase PPAR α mediated pathways in the fetuses (Ringseis *et al.* 2007), this suggests that PPAR α agonists are relevant as both mother-to-fetus and fetus-to-mother signaling molecules.

Together with the changes in placental NO production, iNOS expression, and PPAR α expression, a reduction in placental growth was observed in the placentas corresponding to the LTB₄-injected fetuses in diabetic animals. This is important because of the placental overgrowth characteristic in maternal diabetes and the relationship between placental growth and function and the abnormal intrauterine programming in the fetuses (Catalano & Kirwan 2001, Gatford et al. 2010, Thornburg et al. 2010). Besides, our results suggest that the fetus has an active role in the regulation of growth in their placentas, an effect evident in a context in which the fetus is exposed to an adverse environment due to maternal diabetes. Although it is difficult to pinpoint the mechanism involved in the observed reduction of placental growth, our results suggest that it may be related to normalization of the production of NO, a pro-angiogenic and vasodilator agent (Dulak & Jozkowicz 2003, Valdes et al. 2009), and not to changes in lipid concentrations and peroxidation, parameters that do not change when PPAR α is activated in the fetuses. On the other hand, studies performed in trophoblasts and different cell types have shown that PPARs activation affects cell proliferation, differentiation, and apoptosis (Lin et al. 2007, Barak et al. 2008, Fournier et al. 2008, Parast et al. 2009, Arck et al. 2010, Benameur et al. 2010), suggesting that there may be many pathways related to placental growth that could be regulated by activating fetal PPARα that deserves further study.

In conclusion, our findings on PPAR α signaling in term placentas from diabetic rats provide evidence of its role as a regulator of lipid metabolism, lipid peroxidation, and NO production in term placentas, signaling pathways specially relevant in maternal diabetes. Besides, we here demonstrate that fetal administration of LTB₄ can modulate placental NO production, iNOS expression, and PPAR α expression, as well as placental weight, suggesting a specific role of this endogenous PPAR α activator in the fetus in the regulation of placental functions and growth.

Declaration of interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing the impartiality of the research reported.

Funding

This work was supported by grants from Agencia de Promoción Científica y Tecnológica of Argentina (PICT 2005-32268 and PICT 2006-00084).

Acknowledgements

We would like to acknowledge the valuable contribution of Dr Gernot Desoye in the design of the *in vivo* experimental approach.

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Received in final form 11 March 2011

Accepted 18 April 2011

Made available online as an Accepted Preprint 18 April 2011