Placenta 39 (2016) 87-93

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Placenta

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/placenta

Magnesium deficiency during pregnancy in mice impairs placental size and function $\stackrel{\star}{\times}$



^a New York University Medical Center, Department of OBGYN, 550 First Avenue, NY, NY 10016, USA

^b The Elmezzi Graduate School of Molecular Medicine, Northwell Health, 350 Community Drive, Manhasset 11030, NY, USA

^c The Feinstein Institute for Medical Research, Northwell Health, 350 Community Drive, Manhasset 11030, NY, USA

^d Department of Radiology, Northwell Health, 300 Community Drive, Manhasset 11030, NY, USA

^e Department of Molecular Medicine, Hofstra Northwell School of Medicine, Hempstead 11549, NY, USA

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 29 October 2015 Received in revised form 23 December 2015 Accepted 8 January 2016

Keywords: Placenta Fetal growth restriction oxidative stress placental transport

ABSTRACT

Objective: Maternal magnesium (Mg) deficiency has been associated with fetal growth restriction. Using a mouse model of maternal Mg deficiency-induced fetal growth restriction, we sought to investigate the effect of Mg deficiency on placental physiology and function.

Methods: In vivo: Pregnant Swiss Webster mice were fed either 100% of the recommended amount of Mg (control) or 10%Mg (Mg-deficient) (8 per group). Dams were euthanized on gestational day 17 and placentas were collected, weighed and assessed for Mg concentrations, as well as nutrient transporter mRNA expression. For nutrient transfer studies, control and Mg-deficient dams (6 per group) were injected with ¹⁴C-amino acids and ³H-glucose and trans-placental passage was determined. In vitro: BeWo placental cells were grown in media containing 10%Mg to 100%Mg and the effects of Mg status on cell proliferation, oxidative stress and nutrient uptake were measured. Data were analyzed by Student's t-tests comparing controls vs. Mg-deficient animals or cells. For multiple comparisons, data were analyzed by ANOVA followed by Dunnett's post hoc testing.

Results: In vivo: Maternal Mg deficiency decreased placental Mg content, placental and fetal weights, ratio of fetal:placental weight (P < 0.05), placental *Slc7a5* transporter mRNA expression and transplacental nutrient transport (P < 0.05). In vitro: Mg deficiency reduced BeWo nutrient uptake (P < 0.01) and cell proliferation (P < 0.01), and increased oxidative stress (P < 0.01).

Conclusion: These findings highlight the adverse effects of maternal Mg deficiency on fetal weight and placental function, including transport and proliferation and may explain the fetal growth restriction observed with moderate Mg deficiency in mice.

© 2016 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Abbreviations: (DCFH-DA), dichloro-dihydro-fluorescin diacetate; (FGR), fetal growth restriction; (Mg), magnesium; (MgD), magnesium deficiency; (MeAIB), 2-methylaminoisobutyric acid.

* Some data from this manuscript was presented at the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Society for Reproductive Investigation (SRI) on March 27, 2015.

* Corresponding author. The Feinstein Institute for Medical Research, Northwell Health, 350 Community Drive, Manhasset 11030, NY, USA. Tel.: +516 562 3403.

E-mail address: cmetz@northwell.edu (C.N. Metz). ¹ Currently at Montefiore Medical Center, Department of OBGYN and Women's Health, Division of Maternal Fetal Medicine, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Jack D. Weiler Hospital, 1825 Eastchester Road, Bronx NY 10461,USA.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.placenta.2016.01.009 0143-4004/© 2016 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. The placenta is critical for promoting normal fetal development through numerous biological functions, including substrate and nutrient transport. Placental dysfunction, believed to affect approximately one third of all pregnancies [1], is associated with numerous conditions including, fetal growth restriction (FGR) [2]. In fact, compromised placental structure and function is proposed to be a major contributor to perinatal and maternal morbidity and mortality [3]. However, all of the factors contributing to healthy placental development are not understood.

Maternal nutrition can significantly affect placental development and hence, fetal development and neonatal outcomes [4].







CrossMark

魙

Numerous dietary nutrients (e.g. protein), vitamins (e.g. vitamin D and folic acid), fatty acids (e.g. docosahexaenoic acid, DHA), and micronutrients (e.g. zinc and magnesium) have been shown to be critical for placental development and health [5,6].

Magnesium (Mg) is an essential nutrient; it is a cofactor for >300 biological reactions, as well as the synthesis of nucleic acids and protein [7]. Most importantly, Mg is required for balancing oxidative stress [8]. While there are many benefits of consuming sufficient dietary Mg, recent studies report widespread inadequate Mg intakes, particularly among females of reproductive age [9]. In light of this, we explored the effects of moderate maternal Mg deficiency in mice and found that it was accompanied by FGR [10]. The objective of this study was to investigate the effects of maternal Mg deficiency on placental size and function, specifically transplacental transport, using in vitro and *in vivo* models.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Mouse model of maternal Mg deficiency and placental nutrient transport studies

Animal experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the Feinstein Institute (#2010-018) and complied with the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. After a one week acclimatization period, outbred Swiss Webster female mice (9-14 weeks old, Taconic Farms, Germantown, NY) were mated with normal males. On gestational day 6 (GD6), pregnant dams were randomly assigned to either normal (control, containing 100% of the recommended amount, 500 mg/kg Mg) or the Mg-deficient (MgD, containing 10%Mg, 50 mg/kg Mg) diets, as previously described [10]. This model of moderate Mg deficiency was chosen because it leads to FGR and reduces maternal serum Mg by 40–45% [10]. Dams continued their respective diets ad libitum throughout pregnancy. On GD17 (9am-12pm), control and Mg-deficient dams (8 per group) were euthanized by CO₂ asphyxiation followed by exsanguination (via cardiac puncture) and placentas were collected and weighed. Nutrient transport assays: In separate experiments, control and Mg-deficient GD18 dams (6 per group) were weighed and anesthetized using ketamine (90-100 mg/kg)/xylazine (10-12.5 mg/kg) and injected retroorbitally with ³H-methyl-glucose (³H-glucose) and ¹⁴C-2methylaminoisobutyric acid (¹⁴C-MeAIB) (Perkin Elmer, Waltham, MA), as previously described [11]. Radioactivity was counted by β scintillation counting (Tri-Carb 1900, Perkin Elmer/Packard, Waltham, MA) in Bioscint (National Diagnostics). The maternal-to-fetal unidirectional clearance (K_{mf} ; $\mu l \bullet min^{-1} \bullet g^{-1}$) for each tracer was determined using the following formula: $K_{mf} = N_x / AUC_{0-x} X W$, where N_x is the counts to the fetus taken at time x when the dam was euthanized (dpm), AUC_{0-x} is the area under the maternal isotope concentration curve from time 0 to the time of dam euthanasia (dpm \bullet min \bullet µl⁻¹) and W is the wet weight of the placenta (grams, g), as previously described [11].

2.2. Determination of placental Mg concentrations

Total placental Mg analyses were performed at the Biomarker Mass Spectrometry Facility of University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill using inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). Briefly, placentas were digested in 70% nitric acid, as previously described [12] and diluted for measurements by ICP-MS, which were performed using blanks and internal standards [13].

2.3. Evaluation of placental oxidative stress and gene expression for markers of anti-oxidant activity and nutrient transport

Placental oxidative stress was determined by western blotting. Briefly, placentas (100 mg per sample) were homogenized in lysis buffer (Tris buffered saline pH 7.4 containing 150 mM NaCl, 0.25% Triton X-100 and protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail) using 0.9–2.0 mm stainless steel beads and the Bullet Blender. Lysates (40µg/lane) were separated by SDS-PAGE electrophoresis and western blotted using anti-4-HNE (4-hydroxy-2-nonenal) (Abcam, Cambridge, MA) and anti-GAPDH antibodies (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA). Blots were revealed using the Odyssey infrared imaging system (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE), as previously described [12]. Collectively, the ratio of the band densities of the 4HNE-modified proteins-to-the corresponding GAPDH band density was assessed for each placenta using ImageJ software (NIH); the mean ratio±SD for controls and Mg-deficient placentas are shown.

For gene expression studies, placental RNA was isolated using the RNeasy Plus Universal Mini kit with DNase treatment. qRT-PCR was performed in triplicate using RNA (with 260:280 and 260:230 ratios \geq 1.8.) using specific primers (Table 1), as previously described [10,12]. Relative changes in gene expression were calculated as relative mRNA expression using *Hprt1* and *Gapdh* housekeeping genes and the comparative Ct ($\Delta\Delta$ Ct) method [14].

2.4. BeWo cell proliferation in vitro

BeWo choriocarcinoma (placental) cells (ATCC, Manassas, VA) were plated in 96-well plates (1×10^4 /well) in F12K media (containing 1.6 mM MgSO₄ [100%]) with 10%FBS, penicillinstreptomycin and glutamine (PSQ)). Four hours later, the media was replaced with minimum essential media (MEM) containing 10%FBS, Ca (2.7 g/dL), non-essential amino acids, PSQ and 10%–100% of the recommended amount of Mg (100%Mg = 1.6 mM, as MgSO₄) (n = 6 per condition) for 3 days. Cell number was

Table 1						
qPCR primers	used	to	assess	gene	express	ion.

Gene	Forward Sequence Reverse Sequence	GenBank Accession # ^a	Probe#
Gapdh	5-gccaaaagggtcatcatctc-3 5-cacacccatcacaaacatgg-3	NM_001289726.1	29
Glut1	5-gaccctgcacctcattgg-3 5-gatgctcagataggacatccaag-3	NM_011400.3	99
Glut3	5- tttggtgctggagagaggtta-3 5-tgactcacaggccaccagta-3	NM_011401.4	88
Gpx3	5-gtgaacggggagaaagagc-3 5-tgagcccaggagttctgc-3	NM_008161.3	51
Hprt1	5-tcctcctcagaccgctttt-3 5-cctggttcatcatcgctaatc-3	NM_013556.2	95
Slc7a5	5-cgaacctggcctatttcact-3 5-ccaagtggtagttagttcccgaag-3	NM_011404.3	5
Slc27a4	5-ggcagtgagatggcctca-3 5-cagagcagagagaggctgagtg-3	NM_011989.4	3
Slc38a1	5-cttcagccataaaatccctcat-3 5-catcgacgtaccaggctgagcg	NM_134086.4	88
Slc38a2	5-caatgagatccgtgcaaaag-3 5-tecttccaatcatcaccact-3	NM_175121.3	2
Slc38a4	5-tgcatggtgtttttcgtcag-3	NM_027052.3	13
Sod3	5-ctcttgggagagcctgaca-3 5-gccagtagcaagccgtagaa-3	NM_011435.3	102

Forward and reverse primers for mouse genes with GenBank Accession numbers and Roche Universal Probe numbers used for assessing mRNA expression in mouse placentas by qPCR.

^a National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) EntrezGene (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gene).

Download English Version:

https://daneshyari.com/en/article/2788425

Download Persian Version:

https://daneshyari.com/article/2788425

Daneshyari.com