

Forum Review

Role of Redox in Fetal Development and Neonatal Diseases

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ABSTRACT

In the cell, reducing and oxidizing molecules modulate the redox state. In embryonic and fetal growth, increased oxidative stress may be detrimental, but an oxidized state can also be beneficial. This is because redox may also affect key transcription factors that can alter gene expression during development. In addition, redox may impact on placentation and amniotic membrane integrity during pregnancy. Lastly, diseases of prematurity, such as necrotizing enterocolitis, retinopathy of prematurity, and chronic lung disease, may be modulated by redox in the premature. Because antioxidant therapies have not necessarily modified the outcome of these diseases, some debate exists as to this. Nonetheless, sufficient evidence suggests a role for redox throughout embryonic, fetal, and postnatal development. This evidence will be explored here. *Antioxid. Redox Signal.* 6, 147–153.

INTRODUCTION

THE REDOX STATE is modulated by a complex interaction of reducing and oxidizing molecules that work in concert to define the cellular milieu (59). Increased oxidative stress has been implicated in many disease processes in early life. However, maintaining an oxidized state is useful in many circumstances, including fetal growth and development. The balance of oxidizing and reducing forces is key to ensuring normal fetal development and normal organogenesis. Furthermore, changes in these states occur in the transition to birth and also may be aggravated in circumstances dictated by premature birth. During fetal development, the maturation of the oocyte and the formation of the embryo require energy in the form of ATP, NADH/NADPH, and oxygen (31). Oxygen is needed to convert ADP to ATP. Oxygen consumption in the mitochondria results in the formation of reactive oxygen species, in particular the superoxide radical and the hydroxyl radical (62). In most circumstances, overproduction of these radicals is unfavorable (18, 28, 31, 78), leading to metabolic disturbances and deregulation of events in development. However, a certain amount of oxidative stress is required in key aspects of embryonic development (18, 31, 54) (Fig. 1). In this article, redox factors that influence fetal development, fetal

growth *in utero*, and postnatal tissue injury will be reviewed (Table 1).

EFFECT OF REDOX ON TRANSCRIPTION FACTOR ACTIVATION

Redox may also affect development by modifying key transcription factors that can alter gene expression in the embryo. These factors include hypoxia-inducible factor (HIF-1), nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B), activator protein-1 (AP-1), and p53. The transcription factor HIF-1 is activated in hypoxic states (9, 29). This activation results in increased transcription of various genes that could impact on vascular development such as vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) (20). NF- κ B is an important regulator of cytokine and antiapoptotic gene expression (19, 30, 44, 46). Overexpression of NF- κ B could result in decreased apoptosis and increased proinflammatory state. AP-1 is exquisitely sensitive to oxidative stress (27, 66, 79). It is found on the promoter of several antioxidant enzymes. Modulation of AP-1 could further modify cellular redox status and thus alter embryonic development. The apoptotic factor p53 is expressed in conditions of DNA damage and is in-

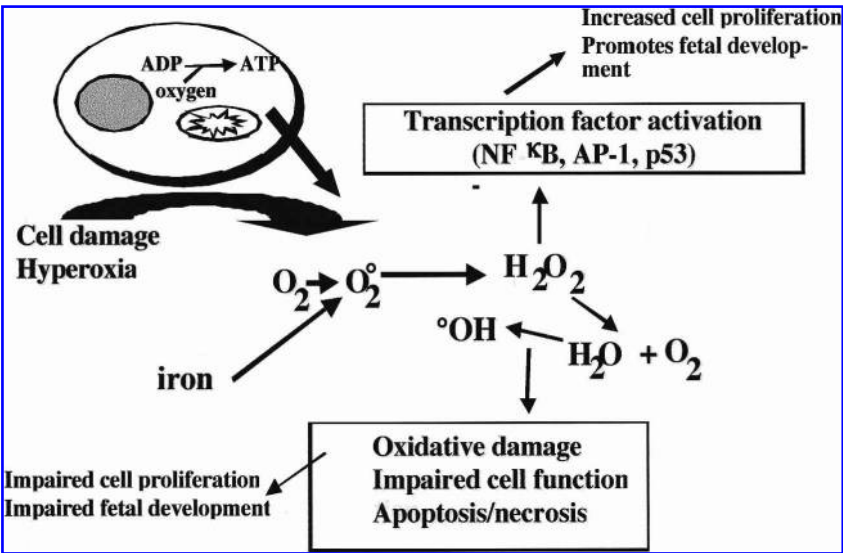


FIG. 1. Role of redox in fetal development. Cellular respiration results in the consumption of oxygen in the mitochondria. This leads to release of reactive oxygen species such as superoxide ($O_2^{\bullet -}$), hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), and the hydroxyl radical ($\bullet OH$). In situations of increased oxidative stress such as hyperoxia and in damaged cell, these reactive oxygen species can lead to the activation of various transcription factors with both positive and negative effects on the cell. These effects are further exacerbated by the presence of iron.

involved in triggering a cascade of proapoptotic events such as the liberation of Bcl-2, Bcl-xL, and Bax (apoptosis-related proteins derived from B-cell lymphoma) from the mitochondrial membrane (2, 65, 71). This results in release of caspases 3 and 9 and subsequent DNA fragmentation. Because p53 is a cell-cycle checkpoint protein, it leads to growth arrest. This protein is also able to induce apoptosis (65). This could also significantly alter embryonic development (10). Overall, changes in key transcription factors regulated by redox could significantly alter the embryo because a delicate redox balance must exist to allow for proper growth and development.

REDOX IN IMPLANTATION OF THE EMBRYO

In order for implantation to occur, the oocyte must migrate along the oviduct to the uterus. The oviductal oxygen level is 40% less than atmospheric level, and the uterine oxygen level is even lower; therefore, the oocyte migrates to a progressively lower oxygen gradient as it enters into the uterus

(17, 25). This reduced oxygen gradient is important for appropriate implantation. Once implantation has occurred, embryonic development can proceed.

REDOX IN EMBRYONIC GROWTH

Low oxygen tensions promote embryonic development *in vitro* (8, 32, 52). Conversely, it has been shown that increased generation of reactive oxygen species delays embryonic development (8, 15, 28). However, inclusion of antioxidants into embryonic cultures showed varied responses. For example, overexpression of copper-zinc superoxide dismutase (CuZn-SOD) impaired syncytiotrophoblast formation and resulted in lower levels of human chorionic gonadotropin, a key hormone for embryonic development (23). Furthermore, in the blastocyst, an early embryo, hydrogen peroxide causes apoptosis of the inner cell mass and results in the formation of a fluid-filled cavity, which is an important event in embryonic development (53, 55).

ROLE OF REDOX IN PLACENTATION AND PREGNANCY-INDUCED HYPERTENSION

In addition to its role in embryonic development, the redox state is also key to several processes during pregnancy. Hypoxia and consequent oxidative stress can cause an increase in epinephrine and vasoconstriction leading to decreased fetal growth (35). Furthermore, increased oxidative stress has been linked to pregnancy-induced hypertension, a condition of increased blood pressure in the later half of pregnancy, which is often associated with intrauterine fetal growth retardation

TABLE 1. EFFECTS OF REDOX IN THE FETUS AND NEONATE

Oocyte	Promotes implantation
Blastocyst	Promotes formation of fluid-filled cavity
Pregnancy	PIH, IUGR, PROM
Neonate	CLD, NEC, ROP

CLD, chronic lung disease; IUGR, intrauterine growth restriction; NEC, necrotizing enterocolitis; PIH, pregnancy-induced hypertension; PROM, premature rupture of membranes; ROP, retinopathy of prematurity.

(37, 74, 76). Conversely, decreased oxidative stress also has adverse effects. Investigators have shown that induced CuZn-SOD overexpression results in decreased placental development (24). Additionally, placentas of patients with Down's syndrome are abnormally formed (4), perhaps due to the overexpression of CuZnSOD, resulting from an extra copy of chromosome 21 (23, 24).

There are isoforms of superoxide dismutase (SOD) in the placenta, and these may serve to regulate the reactivity and bioavailability of nitric oxide (51). Because the blood flow in the placenta is devoid of autonomic regulation, it relies on paracrine and autocrine factors (1). Blood flow to the placenta is essential in providing adequate nutrition and oxygen to the developing fetus. In conditions where there is abnormal vascularization to the placenta, growth retardation, and/or preeclampsia, a condition that is associated with pregnancy-induced hypertension occurs with ensuing deleterious consequences (1, 41). A study by Myatt *et al.* (48) looked at normotensive pregnant patients and compared them with patients with preeclamptic and intrauterine growth retardation (IUGR) as to the distribution of SOD isoforms in the villous vasculature. In both groups, the distribution of manganese SOD (MnSOD) was observed mostly in the villous vasculature, suggesting that SOD plays a significant role in regulating blood flow to the fetus. Despite a lack of difference in MnSOD between normal and preeclamptic and IUGR pregnancies in this study (48), several other investigators have noted increased lipid peroxidation in pregnancy-induced hypertension (40, 75, 81). In one study, four indices of lipid peroxidation in the serum were measured in patients with pregnancy-induced hypertension or IUGR toward the later third of pregnancy. These patients were then treated with vitamin C to prevent oxidative damage. This resulted in improved fetal growth and decreases in markers of oxidative stress over the course of a 10-day treatment. However, the response was mixed in that some parameters of lipid peroxidation, namely lipid hydroperoxides, increased initially after treatment with vitamin C (38).

ROLE OF REDOX IN PREMATURE RUPTURE OF MEMBRANES (PROM)

Another effect of redox in the fetus is damage to fetal membranes. Reactive oxygen species can alter collagen, and this can lead to PROM and potentially to premature birth. The mechanism by which this can occur is twofold. It may be that reactive oxygen species result in increased expression of genes that cause the degradation of collagen within the membranes, such as matrix metalloproteinase (MMP) (73, 80). In fact, this may be the mechanism by which infection contributes to PROM by causing up-regulation of such genes and decreased expression of MMP inhibitors, such as tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase (TIMP) (45). Furthermore, polymorphisms in the MMP-9 promoter are associated with increased incidence of PROM (16), demonstrating the importance of this molecule in membrane integrity. Another mechanism by which reactive oxygen species can mediate PROM is through increased superoxide ion causing increased calcium and arachidonic acid release, leading to increased lipid peroxidation and cellular

damage (47, 50). Overall, oxidative stress modifies placental function and subsequent fetal well-being.

ROLE OF REDOX IN DISEASES OF PREMATUREITY

A popular theory is that many of the common diseases of prematurity could result from increased reactive oxygen species and decreased antioxidant defenses (63). At birth, all newborns transition from a relatively hypoxic to a relatively hyperoxic environment (22). In many other circumstances, the oxidative burden of the premature or sick infant is enhanced. Premature newborns are relatively deficient in antioxidant enzymes and factors due to lack of placental transfer of antioxidant enzymes until the third trimester of pregnancy (21). Also, inadequate nutrition and increased exposure to oxygen radicals via intravenous lipids (33, 43, 49) may contribute to oxidative tissue injury. Furthermore, exposure to a relatively higher oxygen concentration to alleviate respiratory distress (21, 39, 63) or multiple blood transfusions resulting in the liberation of iron-derived radicals (11, 34, 77) may promote the development of oxygen radical-mediated diseases such as chronic lung disease (CLD), retinopathy of prematurity (ROP), and necrotizing enterocolitis (NEC).

ROP is characterized by excessive neovascularization of the retina. It is commonly found in premature infants, especially in the most immature (67). VEGF is up-regulated due to increased activation of HIF-1 (67) with repeated episodes of desaturation (58) or activation of other oxidant responsive transcription factors with increased exposure to high concentrations of oxygen (36). This results in the proliferation of tortuous vessels and traction on the retina with the potential for detachment.

NEC is the final common pathway for bowel injury in the immature gut. It occurs in 10% of premature infants. Inflammation and infection, increased solute load of formula (5), and/or and ischemia (7) lead to submucosal injury, extravasation of air in the intramural space, and potential bowel perforation. Oxygen radicals can alter inflammation in the gut and can lead to activation of platelet activating factor (5), which results in increased coagulation and subsequent microthrombus formation in small vessels.

Despite documentation of increased oxygen radicals in animal models and infants with diseases such as ROP or NEC, it has been difficult to correlate the severity of illness with antioxidant capacity (60) or the amount of oxygen radicals produced (5, 14). Interestingly, in a few studies, providing increased antioxidant defenses did not necessarily alleviate disease processes, suggesting more complex etiologies (67, 68).

In the remaining discussion, oxidative stress in the neonatal lung is discussed. There, also, the role of oxidative stress is debatable.

REDOX IN NEONATAL LUNG DISEASE

Many (up to 70%) premature infants will develop CLD or bronchopulmonary dysplasia. This condition is thought to re-

sult from ventilator-related trauma, inflammation, and oxygen radicals (69–72). The latter two are interrelated because inflammatory cells release oxygen radicals with the oxidative burst (3). Prolonged exposure to high concentrations of oxygen can also aggravate CLD. Furthermore, reduced antioxidant defenses compound the problem. Many studies have looked at indices of oxidative stress in infants destined to develop CLD and demonstrated an association with increased lipid mediators such as eicosanoids [in particular, 15-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid (15-HETE)] (69). This was further substantiated by the correlation of increased lipid peroxidation as measured by exhaled ethane and pentane on the fourth day of life with poor outcome (CLD and/or death) in a small study of premature infants (56). Neonates exposed to higher inspired oxygen (>40%) and to mechanical ventilation had increased protein oxidation in the bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (26). Infants who developed CLD also had increased oxidation of Clara cell secretory protein (57). In sum, the role of oxidative stress is validated by the above referenced studies, which help explain why neonates exposed to high-inspired oxygen have a higher incidence of CLD. It is felt that oxidative stress results in activation of lung matrix collagenases (64), proinflammatory gene products, and vascular proteins such as VEGF, resulting in aberrant lung development and maturation. Other studies contradict the role of oxidative stress in neonatal disease. In a prospective trial of 25 premature infants, increased polyunsaturated fatty acids (precursors of lipid peroxides) in the tracheal aspirate correlated with a decreased incidence of CLD (61). This is in agreement with one theory that polyunsaturated fatty acids are scavengers of free radicals and that they protect against oxidative stress (68). Furthermore, mean levels of lung lipid peroxidation, as determined by thiobarbituric acid-reactive substances, were similar in premature and term infants as were levels of CuZnSOD and MnSOD (70), suggesting that the concept of lowered antioxidant defenses in prematures is invalid. Furthermore, in a recent study, although protein carboxyls and malondialdehyde were higher in tracheal aspirates of preterm infants weighing <1,500 g, this did not correlate to the development of CLD. It did, however, correlate to myeloperoxidase, suggesting a link with neutrophil activation (6). In all of these studies, it is important to note that tracheal aspirates may not necessarily reflect the oxidative status more distally in the airways.

To add to the confusion, antioxidant therapies to prevent CLD have been met with variable success. Interventions with antioxidant such as recombinant human SOD did not change the incidence of CLD (13, 72). Low levels of vitamin A correlated with increased CLD (12). However, in a review of trials of administration of vitamin A in preterm infants, only the smallest prematures (<1,000 g) showed a decreased incidence of CLD (67). Perhaps the lack of success of these antioxidant therapies stems from the multifactorial nature of this disease or the significant impact of inflammation on the development of CLD (71, 72). Furthermore, antiinflammatory agents can alter oxidative stress and sole use of an antioxidant may not mitigate this effect. This is suggested by decreased phospholipid peroxidation in the bronchoalveolar fluid of premature infants after administration of meter-dosed inhaled steroids for 0–12 days (82). Furthermore, preventing neutrophil influx reduced DNA damage in hyperoxia-exposed newborn rats (3).

It may be necessary to administer a cocktail of antiinflammatory and antioxidant compounds to prevent CLD. Whether this approach would adversely modify lung development in the growing premature by altering lung redox (18, 42) and subsequent gene expression remains to be determined.

CONCLUSIONS

Redox plays an important role in embryonic, fetal, and neonatal development. Many examples demonstrate that increased oxidative stress may result in abnormal development, but the literature equally demonstrates that obliterating oxidative stress is deleterious to some aspects of development. Additionally, antioxidant therapies have not yet consistently modified the outcome of diseases of oxygen radicals in prematures, suggesting a multifactorial origin. Future studies with combination therapies may be more successful.

ABBREVIATIONS

AP-1; activator protein; CLD, chronic lung disease; CuZn-SOD, copper-zinc superoxide dismutase; HIF, hypoxia-inducible factor; IUGR, intrauterine growth retardation; MMP, matrix metalloproteinase; MnSOD, manganese superoxide dismutase; NEC, necrotizing enterocolitis; NF- κ B, nuclear factor- κ B; PROM, premature rupture of membranes; ROP, retinopathy of prematurity; SOD, superoxide dismutase; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor.

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