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AVALIAÇÃO DO EFEITO DA RESTRIÇÃO CALÓRICA MATERNA GESTACIONAL SOBRE ASPECTOS REPRODUTIVOS DA PROLE E DA MÃE

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Trabalho de conclusão de curso de graduação apresentado ao Instituto de Ciências Básicas da Saúde da Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul como requisito parcial para a obtenção do título de Bacharel(a) em Biomedicina.

Orientadora: Profa. Dra. Cristiane Matté Coorientador: Vinícius Stone

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RESUMO

A restrição calórica (RC) é considerada um fator de intervenção ideal para a promoção da saúde, conhecida por aumentar a expectativa de vida, especialmente através da modulação redox. Interferências no ambiente materno são conhecidas por reprogramar a resposta metabólica da prole, tendo impacto na vida pós-natal. Entretanto, pouco se sabe sobre os efeitos da RC gestacional sobre parâmetros redox e mecanismos moleculares em ovários e testículos da prole na sua vida adulta. Nosso objetivo, neste trabalho, foi verificar os efeitos de uma RC moderada (20%) nos níveis de espécies reativas, nas defesas antioxidantes enzimáticas e não enzimáticas, nos parâmetros de dano oxidativo, na expressão molecular das enzimas SIRT1 e SIRT3, bem como avaliar os parâmetros morfológicos em ovários e testículos de ratos submetidos à RC gestacional. Ratas Wistar fêmeas adultas foram submetidas à RC moderada durante o período gestacional, recebendo suplementação de vitaminas e minerais a fim de equilibrar o consumo de micronutrientes em relação ao grupo controle, que recebeu ração *ad libitum*. Os filhotes foram eutanasiados no dia pós-natal (PND) 60, quando ovários e testículos foram removidos para posterior análise. Massa e potencial de membrana mitocondrial, níveis de superóxido mitocondrial, conteúdo de espécies reativas, conteúdo de óxido nítrico e um índice de lipoperoxidação foram analisados por citometria de fluxo; a atividade antioxidante enzimática e os conteúdos de carbonilas e sulfidrilas foram analisados espectrofotometricamente; o conteúdo de glutationa reduzida (GSH) foi analisado fluorimetricamente; o imunoconteúdo de SIRT1 e SIRT3 foi analisado por Western Blotting; as análises morfológicas foram feitas com coloração por hematoxilina-eosina; os úteros maternos foram corados com solução de NaOH 2%; e os dados obtidos foram analisados por teste t e considerados significativos quando p<0,05. O protocolo utilizado foi analisado e aprovado pela Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais (CEUA) da UFRGS, sob o nº 34056. Filhotes fêmeas demonstraram altos níveis de oxidantes e aumento do dano oxidativo a lipídeos, embora tenha ocorrido aumento da atividade da enzima superóxido-dismutase em ovários. Em filhotes machos, foi observado diminuição das defesas antioxidantes enzimáticas e não enzimáticas por diminuição da atividade da enzima glioxalase I e diminuição do conteúdo de glutationa reduzida nos testículos. O dano oxidativo a proteínas não foi afetado em nenhum dos órgãos. Ovários e testículos demonstraram aumento da expressão de SIRT3, uma desacetilase relacionada à bioenergética celular e ao metabolismo da RC. Nossos dados sugerem que, embora a RC gestacional promova melhora de parâmetros moleculares na SIRT, tal intervenção nutricional afetou negativamente o estado redox em órgãos reprodutivos de ratos jovens adultos.

Palavras-chave: ovários; testículos; estresse oxidativo; mitocôndria; desenvolvimento inicial; ambiente; nutrição; restrição calórica; gestação.

ABSTRACT

Caloric Restriction (CR) is a well-known lifespan extensor, remarkably known for its redox modulation, which contributes to diminished cellular aggression. Interferences on maternal environment are known to reprogram the offspring metabolic response, impacting its postnatal life. However, little is known about gestational CR effects on adult offspring's ovaries and testis regarding antioxidant parameters and molecular mechanisms. We aimed to assess the effects of a moderate (20%) CR on reactive species levels, enzymatic and nonenzymatic antioxidant defenses, oxidative damage parameters, molecular expression of SIRT1 and SIRT3 deacetylase enzymes and morphological parameters on ovaries and testis of adult rats which underwent gestational CR. Female Wistar rats underwent moderate CR during pregnancy, supplemented with vitamins and minerals to balance consumption to control group, that was fed ad libitum. The offspring was euthanized in postnatal day (PND) 60, and ovaries and testis were dissected for analysis. Mitochondrial mass and membrane potential, mitochondrial superoxide levels, oxidants content, nitric oxide content, and lipid peroxidation where measured by flow cytometry. Enzymatic antioxidant activity, carbonyl and sulfhydryl levels were analyzed by spectrophotometry. Reduced glutathione content was analyzed by fluorimetry. SIRT1 and SIRT3 immunocontents were analyzed by Western blotting. Morphological analyzes were made by hematoxylin and eosin staining. The mother's uterus were stained with 2% NaOH. The data was analyzed by multiple t tests and significant when p<0.05. The protocol was approved by the local Ethic's Comission under protocol n° 34056. Female pups demonstrated high levels of oxidants and increased oxidative damage to lipids, although superoxide dismutase activity was increased in ovaries. In male pups we found decreased enzymatic enzymatic and non-enzymatic defenses by diminished glyoxalase I activity and decreased glutathione content in testis. Oxidative damage to proteins was not affected in neither structure. The expression of SIRT3, a deacetylase enzyme with mechanisms related to cellular bioenergetics and to CR metabolism, was increased in both reproductive organs. Our data suggest that, although improving molecular mechanisms related to SIRT3, intrauterine CR negatively affected the redox status of reproductive organs from young adult rats.

Keywords: ovary; testis; oxidative stress; mitochondria; early development; environment; nutrition; caloric restriction; pregnancy.

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1 INTRODUÇÃO COMPREENSIVA

Infertilidade é um termo que se refere a "um problema do sistema reprodutivo caracterizado por não gravidez após 12 meses ou mais de tentativas falhas" (ZEGERS-HOCHSCHILD et al., 2009). De acordo com a Organização Mundial da Saúde (OMS), existem dois tipos de infertilidade: infertilidade primária, em que a mulher não é capaz de gestar uma criança, sendo ineficaz de conceber e/ou manter a gestação a termo; e infertilidade secundária, caracterizada por mulheres que, mesmo com gestações anteriores, não conseguem manter uma gestação a termo por uma outra vez (MASCARENHAS et al., 2012). Com relação aos índices mundiais, é difícil averiguar e definir com exatidão a taxa de infertilidade. No mesmo estudo em que se baseia a OMS (MASCARENHAS et al., 2012), é demonstrado que as taxas de infertilidade primária variam muito mundialmente, inclicando a se manter abaixo de 1% em países como Polônia e Bolívia; entre 1 e 2% em países como Canadá e Brasil e podendo chegar a mais de 3% em países como Marrocos e Ucrânia. Com relação à infertilidade secundária, os índices tendem a ser mais elevados: até 9% em países como Marrocos, Brasil e México e até 13% em países como Rússia e Polônia. Por ser um índice extremamente variado, acredita-se que fatores genéticos e ambientais devem estar associados à infertilidade.

Com relação à infertilidade feminina, muito se deve a problemas ovulatórios, que caracterizam 25% dos casos de infertilidade; obstrução e adesão de tecido às tubas uterinas caracterizam 30% dos problemas de concepção, além de patologias como síndrome do ovário policístico, que pode levar à falta de ovulação (anovulação) (BARRETT, 2006; GARDNER *et al.*, 2007). Fatores masculinos relacionados à infertilidade tendem a ser de ordem gamética, como baixa contagem espermática e anormalidades morfológicas e de motilidade do espermatozoide (BARRETT, 2006), bem como endocrinopatias, problemas genéticos, infecções, uso de anabolizantes ou idiopáticas (AZAMBUJA, 2017). De acordo com a Sociedade Americana de Medicina Reprodutiva, fatores de risco para infertilidade incluem, além de problemas genéticos, idade avançada (materna e paterna), obesidade ou anorexia, falta de exercício, consumo de drogas, doenças sexualmente transmissíveis e má-nutrição.

1.1 ESTADO REDOX

Um importante fator relacionado à fisiopatologia da infertilidade é o estresse oxidativo. Definido como o desequilíbrio entre produção de espécies reativas de oxigênio (EROs) e Espécies Reativas de Nitrogênio (ERNs) versus a proteção pelo sistema de defesa antioxidante (PERSSON *et al.*, 2014), o estresse oxidativo surge em um contexto de produção aumentada de tais espécies danosas e/ou de diminuição da capacidade antioxidante fisiológica do organismo em lidar com esses ataques oxidativos a biomoléculas. Já foi demonstrada a correlação entre estresse oxidativo e mais de 100 patologias, tanto como causa ou resultado patológico (LIN e BEAL, 2006; RANI *et al.*, 2016).

Exemplificando, cabe ressaltar que mulheres que sofrem de endometriose ou de infertilidade idiopática são mais propensas a terem níveis aumentados de EROs no fluido peritoneal (WANG et al., 1997), enquanto que no fluido folicular, que circunda as células germinativas, mulheres grávidas tendem a ter níveis elevados de EROs, sendo que esse pode ser um potencial marcador de sucesso para a fertilização in vitro (ATTARAN et al., 2000). Com relação ao homem, sabe-se que existe uma correlação negativa entre qualidade espermática de homens inférteis e geração de EROs (GOMEZ et al., 1998), sendo a mitocôndria a maior geradora de EROs em espermatozoides desses homens (PLANTE et al., 1994).

O estresse oxidativo foi primariamente caracterizado por Sies (1991) como "um distúrbio do pró-oxidante para o antioxidante em favor das espécies oxidantes levando a dano potencial", ou seja, uma produção excessiva de EROs, resultado de um desequilíbrio entre a produção e a remoção das mesmas. Corroborando, Jones (2006) redefiniu o termo, defendendo a hipótese de que o aumento do estresse oxidativo é consequência do desequilíbrio na relação glutationa reduzida/glutationa oxidada (GSH/GSSG). O termo foi atualizado por Sies, que hoje caracteriza o estresse oxidativo como um desafio oxidante excessivo que causa dano às biomoléculas, entretanto a manutenção de um nível fisiológico desse mesmo desafio oxidante (denominado "oxidative eustress") é essencial para processos vitais por meio da sinalização redox (SIEST et al., 2017).

As espécies reativas incluem os radicais livres e outras moléculas capazes de gerar espécies radicalares. Radicais livres representam espécies químicas reativas devido a um elétron sem pareamento na sua camada orbital mais externa (GUTTERIDGE e HALLIWELL, 2000). EROs de importância biológica incluem o peróxido de hidrogênio (H2O2), o ânion superóxido (O2'), o radical hidroxil ('OH) e o oxigênio singlet (1/2 O2'). Algumas ERNs,

como óxido nítrico (NO'), além de espécies reativas de ferro, cobre e enxofre, também são encontradas nesse contexto (HALLIWELL *et al.*, 1992; RILEY, 1994). A mitocôndria é responsável pela maioria das fontes endógenas de espécies reativas identificadas (JONES, 2006; MAILLOUX, 2015). Além da mitocôndria, espécies reativas também podem ser advindas da reação de Fenton, que produz radical hidroxil (reação entre peróxido de hidrogênio com ferro), complexo enzimático citocromo P450, beta-oxidação no peroxissomo e ativação de células fagocitárias (GUTTERIDGE e HALLIWELL, 1993; GILCA *et al.*, 2007; POLJSAK *et al.*, 2013). Devido à produção endógena, muitos substratos celulares são alvos dessas. Lipídeos são considerados os mais suscetíveis à oxidação; as proteínas podem ter a sua cadeia lateral e esqueleto oxidados, permitindo a interação com aminoácidos e a formação de radicais carbonila; ácidos nucleicos podem ser danificados, podendo levar a oxidação, quebra de fita ou formação de adutos no DNA (GANDHI e ABRAMOV, 2012).

As defesas antioxidantes são diversas, incluindo formas endógenas (enzimáticas e não enzimáticas) e formas exógenas (provenientes da dieta). O conceito de antioxidante biológico se refere a "qualquer composto que, quando presente em baixas concentrações, comparado a um substrato oxidável, é capaz de atrasar ou prevenir a oxidação do substrato" (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007; GODIC et al., 2014; PISOSCHI e POP, 2015). O sistema antioxidante não enzimático contém fontes endógenas e exógenas. De fontes endógenas, ressalta-se a glutationa reduzida (GSH), sintetizada no citoplasma celular (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007), sendo considerada o principal tampão redox da célula (AOYAMA e NAKAKI, 2013; AOYAMA e NAKAKI, 2015) em virtude da sua interação com defesas antioxidantes enzimáticas e da reação direta com EROs e ERNs (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007). Após sua oxidação e utilização, a GSH oxidada é reciclada por ação enzimática, utilizando NADPH em uma reação catalisada pela glutationa redutase (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007). De fontes exógenas, ressaltam-se as vitaminas do complexo B, substratos essenciais para a síntese de coenzimas do ciclo do ácido cítrico e da cadeia transportadora de elétrons mitocondrial, em que sua deficiência é relacionada ao aumento de estresse oxidativo (DEPEINT et al., 2006). A vitamina E compreende um grupo de lipídeos naturais (tocoferóis e tocotrienois) que, graças a sua característica lipossolúvel, é amplamente distribuída no organismo e capaz de inibir a peroxidação lipídica (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007), agindo diretamente sobre espécies reativas (MACHLIN e BENDICH, 1987), podendo ser regenerada pela GSH ou pela vitamina C após a oxidação (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007). A vitamina C reage com superóxido e com outras espécies reativas (HALLIWELL, 1999; MAY, 2000). No entanto, essa vitamina se torna próoxidante após sua redução, podendo catalisar a geração de hidroxil, uma ERO (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007).

Enzimaticamente, existem apenas antioxidantes endógenos. A enzima superóxido dismutase (SOD) (EC 1.15.1.1) tem três isoformas celulares: MnSOD, dependente de manganês e encontrada na mitocôndria; CuZnSOD, dependente de cobre e de zinco e encontrada no citoplasma, nos lisossomos, nos peroxissomos, no núcleo e extracelularmente; e EcSOD, também dependente de cobre e de zinco. As três isoformas desempenham a mesma função de dismutação do O2•-, formando O2 e H2O2 (MCCORD e FRIDOVICH, 1969; HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007). Entretanto, a exposição prolongada ao H2O2 pode levar à inibição da forma citosólica sem afetar sua forma mitocondrial (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007). Com relação ao H2O2, mesmo pouco danoso, esse pode atravessar membranas e interagir com lipídeos, levando a formação do radical hidroxil (OH•) (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007; BRINKMANN e BRIXIUS, 2013). A principal enzima responsável pela sua detoxificação é a catalase (CAT) (EC 1.11.1.6), encontrada nos peroxissomos, dependente de ferro e que utiliza H2O2 como substrato, produzindo água e moléculas de O2 (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007; SIES, 2014). Além da CAT, a enzima glutationa peroxidase (GPx) (EC 1.11.1.9) também realiza a eliminação de H2O2, além de ter o potencial de reagir com hidroperóxidos orgânicos e com peroxinitrito (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007; BRIGELIUS-FLOHÉ e MAIORINO, 2013). A GPx existe em oito isoformas, distribuídas entre frações citosólicas, mitocondriais, extracelulares e plasmáticas (MATÉS et al., 1999; BELA et al., 2015), sendo o principal mecanismo de remoção de H2O2 no citosol e na mitocôndria. Entretanto, a enzima necessita de duas moléculas de GSH reduzida para a catálise enzimática de redução de H2O2 em água (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007), em que essa se torna glutationa oxidada (GSSG), sendo reciclada enzimaticamente pela enzima glutationa redutase. A GSH também atua na via glicolítica e de lipídeos e proteínas, catalisando o tóxico metilglioxal em um subproduto menos danoso. O metilglioxal é reduzido em hemiacetal pela GSH (ALLAMAN et al., 2015). Entretanto, hemiacetal ainda é uma forma danosa. A fim de eliminá-lo, esse subproduto é catalisado pela enzima Glioxalase I (GLO I), que o reduz em S-d-lactoilglutationa, sendo finalmente liberado em forma de ácido lático (ALLAMAN et al., 2015).

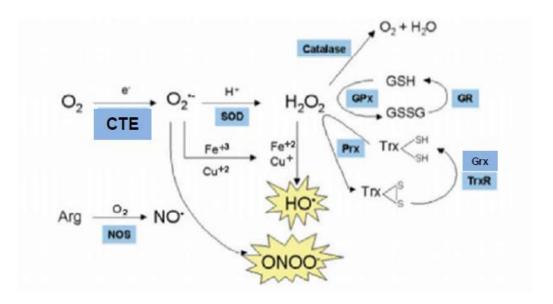


Figura 1. Esquema das reações e respectivas enzimas envolvidas na produção de espécies reativas de oxigênio e nitrogênio. NOS: óxido-nítrico-sintase; SOD: superóxido dismutase; GPx: glutationa peroxidase; Prx: peroxirredoxinas; GR: glutationa redutase; Grx: glutarredoxina; Trx: tiorredoxina; GSH: glutationa reduzida; GSSG: glutationa oxidada.

1.2 ESTRESSE OXIDATIVO E PROGRAMAÇÃO METABÓLICA

O termo programação metabólica compreende uma situação em que um insulto ou estímulo durante o desenvolvimento intrauterino leva a mudanças fisiológicas em órgãos e tecidos, que podem perdurar por longo prazo (LUCAS, 1991). Com base nessa observação, foi desenvolvida uma hipótese para explicar como a má-nutrição durante o desenvolvimento fetal leva a adaptações fisiológicas e metabólicas para a sobrevivência caso a condição de desnutrição se mantenha na vida pós-natal (HALES e BARKER, 1992), o que inclui preservar o desenvolvimento de órgãos vitais, como, por exemplo, o cérebro, em detrimento de outros tecidos e órgãos. Nesse âmbito, recentemente expandiu-se tal termo para Origens Desenvolvimentistas da Saúde e da Doença (DOHaD; do inglês, "Developmental Origins of Health and Disease"), que fornece a base patofisiológica que explica a influência ambiental que ocorre durante o desenvolvimento inicial e que pode influenciar o risco de doenças crônicas não transmissíveis na vida adulta (HEINDEL *et al.*, 2016).

Com relação ao estado de estresse oxidativo, sabe-se que o embrião se desenvolve

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¹ Adaptado de Lívea Fujita Barbosa, Marisa H.G. de Medeiros e Ohara Augusto. Quim. Nova, Vol. 29, No. 6, 1352-1360, 2006.

com um baixo nível de oxigênio (THOMPSON e AL-HASAN, 2012), tendo baixa capacidade antioxidante e, portanto, sendo altamente sensível ao dano oxidativo a biomoléculas (HITCHLER e DOMANN, 2007; DENNERY, 2010). A placenta permite troca de oxigênio entre mãe e feto e, portanto, leva ao aumento da geração intracelular de EROs (BURTON, 2009), o que promove a diferenciação celular pela indução da transcrição de diversos genes importantes para a mesma e pela proliferação celular (CASTAGNE *et al.*, 1999; SCHAFER e BUETTNER, 2001; BURTON, 2009). Considerando defesas antioxidantes, estudos demonstram que a suplementação materna com micronutrientes, durante o período de desenvolvimento intrauterino, induz o aumento de óxido nítrico e a diminuição dos níveis de ânion superóxido nos filhotes (THAKOR *et al.*, 2010).

Sendo o estresse oxidativo um fator de risco para infertilidade, é importante adotar estratégias nutricionais que diminuam o estresse oxidativo sem promoção de risco para a saúde. Ao se considerar o estado nutricional e o estresse oxidativo, cabe ressaltar sua influência durante a gestação. Segundo a hipótese de Barker, a gestação é um período crítico do desenvolvimento. A má nutrição pré-natal e após o nascimento leva à programação do desenvolvimento de fatores de risco (BARKER, 1992; GODFREY e BARKER, 2001), ou seja, em que o estresse gerado durante o período de desenvolvimento intrauterino pode levar a adaptações, que repercutem na vida pós-natal.

1.3 RESTRIÇÃO CALÓRICA

Na sociedade ocidental, a maior parte da população vive em um regime sedentário, com alimentação de baixa qualidade, ingerida em grandes quantidades (USDA, 2010; DIGITAL, 2017). Quando associados, superalimentação e estilo de vida sedentário, podem levar a diferentes complicações, como infarto do miocárdio, obesidade, problemas hormonais e até mesmo morte precoce (EYRE *et al.*, 2004).

Com relação à extensão da expectativa de vida e à dieta, existem muitos estudos que demonstram um efeito benéfico quando há diminuição da ingestão diária sem promover mánutrição, uma intervenção denominada RC (COLMAN *et al.*, 2014; LEE e LONGO, 2016). A RC é conhecida como o padrão ouro com relação ao aumento da expectativa de vida, desde leveduras até primatas (DANG, 2014). Segundo Sinclair (2005), o efeito da RC em modular o tempo de vida provém de uma resposta em longo prazo ao estresse, que leva a adaptação do organismo e, portanto, aumenta as chances desse sobreviver a adversidades. Já foi

demonstrado o potencial da RC na modulação da homeostase redox e em defesas antioxidantes (DUBEY *et al.*, 1996; LASS *et al.*, 1998), especialmente se comparado às dietas *ad libitum* (SOHAL e FORSTER, 2014).

Desde 1917, (LOEB e NORTHROP, 1917; OSBORNE et al., 1917), bem como demonstrado em 1935 (MCCAY et al., 1935), existe e é aceita a ideia de que a quantidade de alimentos ingeridos pode afetar o envelhecimento. Com o advento de técnicas mais modernas e de estudos mais aprofundados, pode-se perceber que o envelhecimento tem grande relação com prejuízos à mitocôndria, levando ao estresse oxidativo por aumento de EROs/ERNs e pela diminuição das defesas antioxidantes (MERRY, 2002; CHISTIAKOV et al., 2014). Além de efeitos mitocondriais, López-Lluch e Navas (2016) afirmam que uma diminuição da ingestão de alimentos leva ao desequilíbrio metabólico, em que diferentes mecanismos regulatórios interagem para que haja retorno ao equilíbrio. Dentre esses, cabe ressaltar a família das Sirtuínas (SIRT). Sendo um conjunto de enzimas desacetiladoras dependentes de NAD+, as SIRT são controladas pelo balanço celular de NAD+/NADH (YANG et al., 2007; HOUTKOOPER et al., 2010). Tais enzimas são extremamente conservadas entre os organismos (IMAI et al., 2000; MICHAN e SINCLAIR, 2007) e, dentre as 7 isoformas presente em mamíferos, as isoformas 1 (SIRT1) e 3 (SIRT3) são as de maior interesse em um contexto de estratégia nutricional. As SIRT1 e 3 têm localizações subcelulares diferentes e extremamente estudadas. A SIRT1 depende do tipo celular, do estresse sofrido e de interações moleculares, sendo que já se observou interação com proteínas citosólicas e nucleares, podendo estar presente nestes dois compartimentos celulares (COHEN et al., 2004; MICHISHITA et al., 2005; TANNO et al., 2007). Com relação a SIRT3, essa foi a primeira a ser localizada na matriz mitocondrial (SCHWER et al., 2002). Ambas enzimas têm papeis essenciais em relação à percepção do estado redox celular (YANG et al., 2007; HE et al., 2010), podendo levar a efeitos positivos quando em situação de estresse oxidativo, como expressão de genes relacionados à bioenergética celular (ZHONG e MOSTOSLAVSKY, 2011).

Considerando estratégias nutricionais, a expressão de tais isoformas tende a promover os mesmos efeitos da RC em diferentes tecidos (BORDONE *et al.*, 2007; PALACIOS et al., 2009). Em relação à SIRT1, estudos em roedores demonstram que há aumento da expressão dessa em tecidos com altos índices metabólicos, como cérebro e rins, por exemplo (COHEN, *et al.*, 2004), bem como há diminuição de colesterol sérico, adiposidade e insulinemia (BORDONE *et al.*, 2007; BANKS *et al.*, 2008). De maneira oposta, estudos utilizando camundongos com deficiência para o gene da SIRT1 demonstraram um menor tempo de vida,

algo contrário ao que ocorre durante a RC, podendo, desta forma, demonstrar os efeitos similares entre essa enzima e a intervenção nutricional (CHEN et al., 2005; LI et al., 2008; NOGUEIRAS et al., 2012). Em relação à SIRT3, sabe-se que está aumentada na RC (PALACIOS et al., 2009; SUNDARESAN et al., 2009), Provou-se também que a ingestão calórica está inversamente relacionada com a ativação da SIRT3 quando, em estudos com roedores obesos, observou-se uma diminuição de sua expressão (SHI et al., 2005; NOGUEIRAS et al., 2012).

1.4 RESTRIÇÃO CALÓRICA, SIRTUÍNAS E REPRODUÇÃO

Estudos demonstram que, em modelos animais, níveis moderados de RC na idade adulta podem garantir a função reprodutiva feminina até idades avançadas (SELESNIEMI *et al.*, 2008), inibindo o desenvolvimento folicular ovariano e, portanto, diminuir a perda de folículos (LIU *et al.*, 2015), Em relação à função reprodutiva masculina, poucos dados demonstram o papel da RC nesse processo.

Com relação aos ovários, existem alguns estudos sobre a relação entre esse tecido e a RC. Bernal e colaboradores (2010) estudaram o efeito de uma restrição alimentar (RA) de 50% aporte de micronutrientes (também considerada uma (KOWALTOWSKI, 2011). Foi o primeiro artigo a estudar o efeito da RA severa durante o período pré e pós-natal (durante amamentação) em roedores, bem como a função em alguns parâmetros oxidativos. Tal estudo demonstrou diminuição de folículos ovarianos, correspondente a diferentes insultos nutricionais durante a gestação. Por exemplo, animais cujas mães foram submetidas à RC durante o período gestacional ou durante o período de lactação tinham apenas diminuição de folículos antrais, enquanto filhotes cujas mães foram submetidas à RC durante a gestação e a lactação tinham diminuição de folículos primordiais, secundários e antrais. Com relação ao estresse oxidativo, o mesmo estudo verificou que, nas fêmeas filhotes de mães submetidas à RC durante a gestação e durante a gestação aliada a lactação, houve aumento do conteúdo de carbonilas, indicando dano oxidativo a proteínas.

Entretanto, os dados relacionados à RA e ao ovário são contraditórios. Um estudo feito por Li e colaboradores (2015) demonstrou que a RA de 55% promoveu a reserva de folículos ovarianos primordiais e não a depleção, como demonstrado por Bernal. Entretanto, cabe ressaltar que o estudo conduzido por Li e colaboradores demonstrou o efeito da RA no animal submetido a mesma e não na prole, como é o caso de Bernal. Tais efeitos visualizados por Li

e colaboradores devem-se à modulação da sinalização da rapamicina. Essa é um alvo comum da SIRT1, em que a inibição da ativação da rapamicina também demonstrou aumento da reserva folicular em um estudo conduzido por Liu e colaboradores (2015). Um estudo entre múltiplas gerações, conduzido por Harrath e colaboradores (2017), demonstrou que a RC materna pode ter efeitos na primeira e na segunda geração de sua prole, em que se levanta a hipótese de que tal insulto durante o desenvolvimento leva a um fenótipo melhorado para enfrentar a escassez de alimentos.

Com relação ao estresse oxidativo, sabe-se que EROs tem papel crucial durante a gravidez e o parto natural (FAINARU *et al.*, 2002; MYATT e CUI, 2004). Entretanto, tem-se pouca evidência do efeito dessas espécies reativas sobre parâmetros ovarianos, como maturação folicular, ovulação, entre outros (ISHIKAWA, 1993; SUZUKI *et al.*, 1999). Além disso, ainda não se sabe exatamente qual o papel do estresse oxidativo sobre o ovário e sobre o útero, em que esse pode estar relacionado a patologias como pré-eclâmpsia e abortos, por exemplo (ŁAGÓD *et al.*, 2001; TRANQUILLI *et al.*, 2004). Em relação à RC gestacional e ao estresse oxidativo, não existem resultados disponíveis na literatura, até o momento, sobre o efeito dessa intervenção sobre o estado oxidativo dos ovários, bem como há poucas evidências sobre moduladores do metabolismo, como é o caso das enzimas SIRT1 e SIRT3.

Não existem muitos estudos disponíveis ao se falar sobre reprodução masculina em um contexto de RC. Dos dados disponíveis considerando RC, tende-se a avaliar o efeito da RA severa (50%) em um contexto de restrição de crescimento intrauterino (DAI *et al.*, 2012). Com relação à RC e ao estresse oxidativo, não foi encontrada literatura disponível que dispusesse de um panorama geral sobre o estado oxidativo testicular dos animais. Com relação aos moduladores do metabolismo, um estudo conduzido por Coussens e colaboradores (2008) menciona que a deficiência do gene para SIRT1 é responsável pela diminuição da espermatogênese e da função celular germinativa. Corroborando, um estudo posterior desenvolvido por Bell e colaboradores (2014) menciona a necessidade do gene para SIRT1 para diferenciação das células germinativas masculinas. Da mesma forma que nos ovários, quando se correlaciona RC durante gestação, estresse oxidativo e parâmetros testiculares, a literatura é completamente inexistente. Considerando fatores de modulação metabólica, há poucos estudos, e os mesmos focam na expressão de SIRT1 e em sua atividade, enquanto que a SIRT3 não aparece muito na literatura a partir do ponto de vista reprodutivo.

2 JUSTIFICATIVA

Diante do aumento da infertilidade na atualidade, cabe estudar estratégias que visem aumentar o potencial reprodutor e a vida útil dos órgãos reprodutivos femininos e masculinos. É visível o potencial efeito da RC como estratégia nutricional no prolongamento de vida útil de diferentes órgãos. Além disso, são poucos os estudos que demonstram qual o efeito de uma RC gestacional nos órgãos da prole, sendo escassos os estudos que avaliam órgãos reprodutivos e parâmetros de estresse oxidativo. Assim, ressalta-se a necessidade de estudar o possível papel de tal intervenção nutricional durante a gestação, tentando compreender os efeitos que uma intervenção nutricional durante o desenvolvimento pode ter sobre os parâmetros metabólicos e reprodutivos da prole.

3 OBJETIVOS

3.1 OBJETIVO GERAL

Investigar os efeitos da RC materna moderada (20%) durante a gestação sobre o imunoconteúdo de sirtuínas, parâmetros bioquímicos e morfológicos em ovários e em testículos da prole em idade reprodutiva, bem como avaliar as implantações embrionárias no útero materno.

3.2 OBJETIVOS ESPECÍFICOS

São objetivos do trabalho: avaliar possíveis alterações do estado redox nos ovários e nos testículos da prole adulta de ratas submetidas à restrição calórica moderada durante a gestação através de:

- a) avaliação do imunoconteúdo de SIRT1 e SIRT3 por meio de Western blotting;
- b) avaliação dos níveis de espécies reativas, como o superóxido mitocondrial, o óxido nítrico e a oxidação da diclorofluoresceína utilizando citometria de fluxo;
- c) avaliação da massa e do potencial de membrana mitocondrial por citometria de fluxo;

- d) avaliação da atividade das enzimas antioxidantes SOD, CAT, GPx e GLO1;
- e) avaliação do conteúdo GSH;
- f) avaliação morfológica tecidual em lâmina histopatológica corada com hematoxilina-eosina (HE).

Também foi realizada a avaliação, após o período gestacional, do número de implantações uterinas fetais nas ratas mães por coloração uterina, a fim de verificar o índice de viabilidade fetal.

4 ARTIGO CIENTÍFICO

DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMMING: INTRAUTERINE CALORIC RESTRICTION PROMOTES UPREGULATION OF MITOCHONDRIAL SIRTUIN WITH MILD IMPACT ON OXIDATIVE PARAMETERS IN OFFSPRING'S OVARY AND TESTIS

Running Title: Molecular and antioxidant effect of Gestational CR

Summary-sentence: Intrauterine caloric restriction has low impact on ovaries and testis antioxidant defense function and oxidative stress status of young adult pups, even though SIRT3 expression was increased.

Key-Words: ovary; testis; oxidative stress; mitochondria; early development; environment; nutrition; caloric restriction; pregnancy.

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ABSTRACT

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Interferences on maternal environment are known to reprogram the offspring metabolic response, impacting its postnatal life, in accord to Developmental Origins of Health and Disease (DOHaD) concept. Caloric Restriction is a well-known lifespan extensor, remarkably known for its redox modulation which contributes to diminished cellular aggression. However, little is known about caloric restriction effects on offspring's ovaries and testis regarding antioxidant parameters and molecular mechanisms of action. We aimed to assess the effects of a moderate (20%) caloric restriction on redox status parameters, molecular expression of SIRT1/3 deacetylase enzymes and histopathological markers in ovaries and testis of adult rats which underwent gestational caloric restriction. Female pups demonstrated high levels of oxidants and some oxidative damage, although superoxide dismutase activity was increased. Male pups displayed little effects, although gestational caloric restriction decreased enzymatic antioxidant defenses, evidenced by diminished glyoxalase I activity and reduced glutathione content. Ovaries and testis presented increased SIRT3 expression, a deacetylase enzyme with mechanisms related to cellular bioenergetics. Histopathological evaluation did not show any difference in the offspring's ovaries and testis. In concern to ovaries, different data suggest that diminished antioxidant metabolism can lead to premature failure. Unfortunately, there is few evidence available in the literature assessing testis redox profile. Our article is the first assessing the redox network in both organs, suggesting that, although improving molecular mechanisms, intrauterine caloric restriction has a negative impact on antioxidant network and redox status on reproductive organs of young adult rats.

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INTRODUCTION

Metabolic programming during intrauterine development could impact the offspring's health in a long-term way. Over recent years, the field of Developmental Origins of Health and Disease (DOHaD) became a growing issue. Studies on DOHaD are focused in the effects and importance of nutritional interventions during early development, such as modulation in the intrauterine environment, modulating the susceptibility of non-communicable diseases later on life [1]. Maternal environment can influence on early embryo and fetal development, modulating offspring's life health and even conferring resistance to diseases [2].

In the occidental society, most of the population live in a sedentary regimen, with low quality and high volume of food ingestion [3, 4]. When associated, hyperalimentation and sedentary lifestyle lead to different complications, like myocardial infarction, obesity, hormonal issues and even earlier death [5]. In such context, there is an rising set of studies demonstrating the benefic role of caloric restriction (CR) on health, leading to increased health and life span [6, 7]. CR consists in diminishing the daily calorie intake, without promoting malnutrition [8, 9]. It is known as a gold-standard intervention to extend lifespan in different organisms, from yeast to primates [10]. One of such benefits is the redox modulation

promoted by CR [11] which contributes to diminished cellular aggression, maintaining

cellular efficiency for a longer period in life, leading to tissue longevity [12, 13].

Regarding redox modulation and lifespan extension, oxidative stress is a major cause of the aging process. The free radical theory of aging postulates that aging is a result of accumulated deleterious effects caused by free radicals and the organism's ability to manage oxidant induced cellular damage have an important role in determining lifespan [14]. Oxidative stress is caused by an unbalance between oxidants production and antioxidant defenses, and influences different biochemical processes, cellular stability and viability [15]. The oxidants, formed mainly by the mitochondrial electron transport system (METS), play a crucial role in cell signaling, like immune regulation processes [16]. Although oxidants in low levels are physiological and not harmful, high concentrations may not be removed properly by the enzymatic and non-enzymatic defense systems, leading to damage to cellular components, such as lipids, proteins or DNA [14]. The antioxidant defense system is composed by complementary enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants, which act by scavenging reactive species [15].

There is a concern about reproduction and its lifespan [17, 18]. Throughout life, women and men have different reproductive lifespans. While both start in puberty, women have timed reproductive life while men's is conserved until elder ages. For women, the reproductive tissue is under different influences that can lead to reproductive problems, even in earlier ages [19, 20]. Healthy physiological processes are mandatory for correct ovarian function [21]. Nevertheless, a healthy and intact ovarian follicle reserve features functions that prevents metabolic disturbances, like osteoporosis [22, 23]. The follicle reserve tends to diminish if the organism faces potentially harmful situations, like oxidative stress [24]. For ovarian tissue, a theory links aging and oxidative stress, suggesting an ability to modulate fertility during aging [25], influencing reproductive lifespan and even menopause [26]. Other authors suggest that higher oxidant concentrations lead to follicular atresia and aging,

diminished endocrine function and follicular dysfunction, which can contribute to genetic problems if fertilization occurs [27]. Regarding pregnancy, redox homeostasis and oxidative stress had been associated to disturbances like pre-eclampsia and bortion [28]. In concern to men, the reproductive capacity does not suffer an age-related decline. Chirurgical procedures, e.g. vasectomy or hormonal and idiopathic infertility issues are able to affect reproductive capacity [29]. Nonetheless, oxidative stress can also affect men in a similar way that in women, by attacking germ cells [30].

Osborne et al. showed that CR from 1.5 to 6 months-of-age restored fertility at elder ages and extended lifespan of female rats [31]. However, there are few studies concerning gestational CR and oxidative stress [32] and none of them regards ovarian and testis function associated to its molecular basis. In the context of evaluating CR's effect in ovaries and testis tissue, different signaling pathways are onsidered, pathways related to the Sirtuins (SIRT) family are relevant. As a family of enzymatic NAD+- dependent deacetylases, controlled by the cellular NAD+/NADH ratio [33, 34], SIRT are found in different organisms [35, 36]. Among the seven SIRT isoforms expressed in mammals, SIRT1 and SIRT3 play major roles in sensing and perceiving cellular redox state [34, 37], that can lead to benefic effects when in oxidative stress situation, like cellular bioenergetics gene expression [38]. Concerning nutritional strategies, it is reported that SIRT1 and SIRT3 overexpression tend to promote the same effects as CR nutritional intervention in different tissues [39, 40]. Regarding probably protective functions in oxidative stress situation and positive regulation when in CR [41], studies correlate those SIRT expressions to benefits for ovarian content [42]. For testicular content, however, the literature mentions two opposite situations: while SIRT1 deficiency can benefit germ cells [43], it also postulates that overexpression increase acrosome biogenesis during spermatogenesis [44].

While most animal studies evaluate CR effects on adult animals, there is sparse evidence about intrauterine CR effects in the reproductive organs of pups. Thus, the aim of this study was to assess the effects of 20% gestational CR on ovarian and testicular redox profile and SIRT-related signaling pathways, as well as reproductive organs morphology.

METHODS

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Thirty-five adult female Wistar rats (120 days-of-age, nulliparous) were mated with 18 males, in proportion of 2 females:1 male. All animals were obtained from the Central Animal House of Departamento de Bioquímica, Instituto de Ciências Básicas da Saúde, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil. Animals were maintained on a 12h-12h light/dark cycle in constant temperature of 22 ± 1 oC. The conception was diagnosed by the presence of sperm in vaginal smears in the day after mating. After, animals were housed in groups of three female rats per cage, and randomly divided into two groups: control and caloric restriction. The procedures were approved by local Ethics Comission (Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais/Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul) under the number 34056, and followed the national animal rights 11.794/2008), the National Council of regulation (Law Control on Animal Experimentation (CONCEA/Brazil) on the guidelines about euthanasia, the National Institute of Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (NIH publication No 80-23, revised in 1996) and the guidelines of the Canadian Council on Animal Care (CCAC). We attest that all the efforts were made to minimize the suffering of the animals used.

120 CHEMICALS

The chemicals were obtained from SIGMA® Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA), Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, EUA), Abcam (Cambridge, UK), Cellsignaling® (Danvers, MA, USA), and Thermo Fischer Scientific (Waltham, MA, USA).

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CALORIC RESTRICTION PROTOCOL

Pregnant Wistar rats were divided into control and CR groups. Control group received food and chow ad libitum. CR group received 20% less commercial chow than control. To ensure similar micronutrients consumption between groups, CR dams were supplemented daily with a multivitamin and mineral mix via gavage. To abolish the gavage stressor effect, control group received vehicle (sucralose 0.1% and methylparaben 0.1%). All animals were weighted daily throughout pregnancy, and the diet was adjusted accordingly to the body weight, using the control consumption as standard for CR group's chow consumption. Such protocol was carried throughout the 21 days of pregnancy.

After delivery, CR pups were cross-fostered: CR pups were housed with control dams and control pups with another control dam to abolish the CR effect during lactation. To ensure equal food offer, the litter was adjusted to 8 pups, which were kept with the dam up to weaning on postnatal day (PND) 21. At weaning, the animals were relocated in new homecages by gender, in number of 4 animals per cage until PND 60. On PND 60, female and male littermates were euthanized by decapitation and the ovaries and testis were dissected on Petri dish on ice, and the samples were stored in -80 °C for further analyses.

For flow cytometry assay, ovaries and testis were used freshly and prepared as described below.

MORPHOLOGICAL ANALYZES

Delivery Index

Uteruses of control and CR pregnant dams were dissected and immersed on 2% sodium hydroxide alkaline solution for one hour [45]. Rats which presented spermatozoids in vaginal smears and were not pregnant also had the uterus dissected to act as negative control for the uterine staining method. The post- implantation ratio was calculated based on the number of implantation sites/number of pups delivered x 100 [46].

Histopathological evaluation

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Pups'ovaries and testis were embedded in 10% buffered formalin. Tissues were paraffinized, sectioned ($5\mu m$), and stained with hematoxylin and eosin for general histomorphological evaluation.

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FLOW CYTOMETRY

The ovarian tissue samples (100 mg) were dissociated with 1.5mL of PBS pH 7.4 containing 1mg% of collagenase IV and the testis tissue sample was dissociated in 1 mL of PBS pH 7.4 containing 1mg% of collagenase IV, both filtered and incubated with probe.

Mitochondrial superoxide was measured using the probe MitoSOX® red. Nitric oxide was measured using the probe 4-amino-5-methylamino-20,70- difluorescein (DAF-FM®). Mitochondrial membrane mass and potential were analyzed by MitoTracker® Green FM and MitoTracker® Red CM-H2XRos respectively. Oxidants content was measured by dichlorofluoroscein oxidation (DCFH). Lipid oxidation was measured using the probe BODIPY 581/591® in a FACScalibur flow cytometer (BD BiosciencesVR, San Jose, CA). Sixty microliters of ovarian sample and twenty microliters of testis samples were incubated at 37 °C during 30 min in the presence of MitoSox® red in a final concentration of 1 µM and DCFH probe. Sixty microliters of ovarian sample and twenty microliters of testis samples were incubated at 37 °C during 1 hour in the presence of DAF-FM® in the final concentration of 10 µM. Sixty microliters of ovarian sample and twenty microliters of testis samples were incubated at 37 °C during 1 hour in the presence of MitoTracker® Green FM and MitoTracker® Red CM-H2XRos [46]. Sixty microliters of ovarian sample and twenty microliters of testis samples were incubated at 37 °C during 30 minutes in the presence of BODIPY 581/591. After that, 30,000 cells were evaluated per sample in the flow cytometer. Data were analyzed using the software FlowJo® (Ashland, OR).

SAMPLE PROCESSING FOR REDOX STATUS ASSAYS

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The tissue was homogenized in 10 volumes (1:10, w/v) of phosphate buffered saline (PBS) pH 7.4, added 1mM ethyleneglycoltetraacetic acid (EGTA) and 1mM phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF). Homogenates were centrifuged at $1000 \times g$ for 10 min at 4 °C, to discard nuclei and cell debris. The pellet was discarded, and the supernatant was taken to biochemical assays.

ANTIOXIDANT ANALYZES

Superoxide Dismutase

SOD enzyme (EC 1.15.1.1) activity was assayed according to Misra and Fridovich [47]. It was measured the total SOD activity by quantifying the inhibition of superoxide-dependent epinephrine autoxidation at 480 nm in a SpectraMax M5 microplate reader

205 (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). SOD activity is expressed as the amount of enzyme that inhibits the oxidation of epinephrine by 50%, which is equal to 1 unit. Data are expressed as Units/mg protein.

210 Catalase

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Catalase (CAT, EC 1.11.1.6) activity was assayed according to Aebi [48]. The decrease in the absorbance at 240 nm was measured in a reaction medium containing 20 mM H2O2, 0.1% Triton X-100 and 10 mM potassium phosphate buffer, pH 7.0, using the SpectraMax M5 microplate reader (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). The CAT unit is defined as 1 µmol of H2O2 consumed per minute. Data of specific activity are expressed as Units/mg protein.

Glutathione Peroxidase

GPx enzyme (EC 1.11.1.9) activity was assayed according to Wendel [49]. NADPH disappearance was monitored at 340 nm using the SpectraMax M5 microplate reader (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). The reaction medium contained 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer, pH 7.7, containing 1mM EDTA, 2 mM GSH, 0.15 U/mL glutathione reductase (EC 1.8.1.7), 0.4 mM azide, 0.1 mM NADPH, and 0.5 mM tert-butyl hydroperoxide as enzyme substrate. The GPx unit is defined as 1 μmol of NADPH consumed per minute and the specific activity is represented as Units/mg protein.

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Glyoxalase I

Glyoxalase I (GLO I; EC 4.4.1.5) activity was measured using GSH and methylglyoxal (MG) [50]. S-D-lactoylglutathione formation was monitored at 240 nm by SpectraMax M5 microplate reader (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). The reaction medium contained 4 mM GSH and 4 mM MG in a 60 mM potassium phosphate buffer, pH 6.6. One GLO I unit is defined as the enzymatic quantity that catalyzes formation of 1 μmol of S-D-lactoylglutathione per minute.

NON-ENZYMATIC ANTIOXIDANTS

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Reduced Glutathione Concentration

Reduced glutathione (GSH) concentration was measured according to Browne and Armstrong [51], where GSH reacts with the fluorophore o-phthalaldehyde. The proteins in supernatant were initially precipitated with meta-phosphoric acid (1:1, v:v), centrifuged at $5,000 \times g$, for 10 min, at 25 °C. Forty-two μL of supernatant was incubated with 154,2 μL 120 mM sodium phosphate buffer pH 8.0, containing 5 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) at room temperature for 15 minutes. A blank was parallelly performed. To measure fluorescence, the wavelengths were at 350 nm excitation and 420 nm emission. Calibration curve was prepared with standard GSH (0.01-1 mM) and the concentration were presented as nmol/mg protein.

BIOMOLECULE OXIDATIVE PARAMETERS

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Total Sulfhydryl Content

The assay is based on the 50 -dithiobis-(2-nitrobenzoic acid) (DTNB) reduction by sulfhydryl groups, which are oxidized (disulfide), generating a yellow derivative (TNB), that can be measured spectrophotometrically at 412 nm [52]. Briefly, 50 µL of homogenate were added to 1 mL of phosphate saline buffer (PBS pH 7.4) containing 1 mM EDTA. Subsequent addition of 30 mL of 10 mM DTNB, prepared in a 0.2 M potassium phosphate solution pH 8.0 was performed. Incubation at room temperature was performed in a dark room for 30 min. Absorbance was measured at 412 nm. The sulfhydryl content is inversely correlated to oxidative damage to proteins. Results were reported as nmol TNB/mg protein.

Carbonyl Levels

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As a marker of protein oxidative damage, protein carbonyl content was assayed based on the reaction of such proteins with dinitrophenylhydrazine (DNPH) forming a yellow

compound, measured by absorbance at 370 nm [53]. The assay consisted of 1 mg sample protein treatment with 20% trichloroacetic acid, centrifuged at $4,000 \times g$ for 5 minutes at 4 °C. Briefly, the pellet was dissolved in 0.2 M NaOH, then added 10 mM dinitrophenylhydrazine, prepared in HCl 2 M. The samples were kept in the dark during an hour, vortexed each 15 min. Then, centrifuged at $20,000 \times g$, for 5 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was discarded, and the pellet washed three times with ethanol:ethyl acetate (1:1, v/v), being centrifuged between washes at 20,000 g, for 5 min at 4 °C. The final supernatant was discarded and the pellet washed in 8 M urea pH 2.3 at 60 °C. After that, the samples were centrifuged at $20.000 \times g$ for 5 min and absorbance was measured at 370 nm. Protein carbonyl content was expressed as nmol/mg protein.

WESTERN BLOT

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Ovaries and testis from pups on PND60 were homogenized in ice-cold lysis buffer containing 4% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 2 mM EDTA, 50 mM Tris, and 1% protease inhibitor cocktail. The homogenates were denatured at 100 °C for 5 min, and then centrifuged at 10,000 × g for 30 min. After this, the supernatant containing the cytosolic fraction was collected, β-mercaptoethanol was added to a final concentration of 5%, and then, the samples were stored at -80 °C until use. Equal concentration of protein (50 µg) was loaded and immunodetected as previously described [54]. Membranes were incubated for 60min at 4°C in blocking solution (Tris-buffered saline containing 5% non-fat milk and 0.1% Tween-20, pH 7.4) prior the incubation with the primary antibody. Membranes were incubated overnight at 4 °C in blocking solution containing one of the following primary antibodies: anti-SIRT1 (1:500, Santa Cruz Technologies, catalog number #sc-15404), anti-SIRT3 (1:500, Abcam, catalog number #ab189860), and rabbit monoclonal anti-β-actin (1:2000, Cell Signaling, catalog number #4967). After washing, the membranes were incubated with secondary antibody containing peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG (1:2000, GE Healthcare Life Sciences, catalog number #NA934V) for 1 h. The chemiluminescence was detected using a digital imaging system (Image Quant LAS 4000, GE Healthcare Life Sciences) and analyzed using the Image J Software. The average optical density for the control group was designated as 100%.

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PROTEIN CONCENTRATION ASSAY

Protein concentration was measured by Lowry's method [55], using bovine serum albumin as standard.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data were analyzed by Student's t test using GraphPad Prism 6.0. Data were considered statistically significant when p<0.05.

RESULTS

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CR EFFECTS IN DELIVERY INDEX

Delivery index parameters were evaluated on maternal uteruses. Figure 1 shows the difference between uterus of non-pregnant and pregnant rats. Results showed that there was no statistical difference [p=0.641, t(24)=0.472] between delivery and fetus implantation sites between control and CR dams.

CR EFFECTS IN OVARIAN AND TESTIS HISTOLOGY

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Ovarian and testis histology were evaluated on PND60 male and female pups submitted to gestational CR. Results showed no cellular differences between ovaries and testis from control and CR pups (Figure 2).

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CR EFFECTS ON OVARIAN AND TESTICULAR MITOCHONDRIAL FUNCTION AND REACTIVE SPECIES CONTENT

Mitochondrial mass and membrane potential, mitochondrial superoxide levels, oxidant levels and nitric oxide content were evaluated on PND60 male and female pups submitted to

gestational CR. Results show that, in ovaries, mitochondrial mass [t(16)=0.58;p=0.564] and membrane potential [t(15)=1.42;p=0.174] were no altered, mitochondrial superoxide levels [t(12)=3.02;p=0.01] and oxidant levels [t(14)=2.14;p=0.049] were increased and nitric oxide content [t(12)=2.13;p=0.054] was no altered by gestational CR (Figure 3). In testis, mitochondrial mass [t(14)=0.29;p=0.774] and membrane potential [t(13)=2.03;p=0.062], mitochondrial superoxide levels [t(15)=0.80;p=0.431], oxidant levels [t(16)=1.60;p=0.127], and nitric oxide content [t(14)=0.07;p=0.940] were no altered by gestational CR (Figure 3).

CR EFFECTS ON OVARIAN ENZYMATIC ANTIOXIDANT DEFENSES

SOD, CAT, GLO I, and GPx ovarian activities were evaluated on PND60 female pups submitted to gestational CR (Figure 4). Results showed that gestational CR promoted increased SOD [t(11)=2.89;p=0.014] and decreased GLO I activity [t(10)=2.38;p=0.038], while CAT [t(9)=1.66;p=0.129] and GPx [t(11)=1.20;p=0.253] were not altered by gestational CR.

CR EFFECTS ON TESTIS ENZYMATIC ANTIOXIDANT DEFENSES

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SOD, CAT, GLO I, and GPx activities were evaluated on PND60 male pups submitted to gestational CR. (Figure 4). Results showed that gestational CR promoted diminished GLO I activity [t(13)=2.42; 250 p=0.030], while SOD [t(10)=1.93;p=0.082], CAT [t(11)=1.35;p=0.203], and GPx [t(11)=1.06;p=0.336] were not altered by gestational CR.

CR EFFECTS ON OVARIAN AND TESTIS NON-ENZYMATIC ANTIOXIDANT DEFENSES

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GSH content was assessed in ovaries and testis of adult females and male rats exposed to CR during pregnancy (Figure 4). While the diet showed no statistical significant effect on the GSH ovarian content [t(9)=1.93;p=0.085], it was able to reduces the non-enzymatic antioxidant defense in the rat's testis [t(10)=3.18;p=0.009].

CR EFFECTS ON OVARIAN AND TESTIS OXIDATIVE DAMAGE PARAMETERS

Carbonyl and sulfhydryl content, as well as lipid peroxidation levels were assessed as indexes of oxidative damage on PND60 male pups submitted to gestational CR. Carbonyl and sulfhydryl content showed no alteration in both structures [ovaries: carbonyl: t(18)=0.90; p=0.376; sulfhydryl: t(13)=7.03; p>0.999; testis: carbonyl: t(11)=2.081; p=0.061; sulfhydryl: t(11)=0.133; p=0.896]. On the other hand, lipid peroxidation was increased in ovaries [t(16)=2.39; p=0.029], but showed no alteration in testis [t(12)=0.83; p=0.419] (Figure 5).

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CR EFFECTS ON OVARIAN AND TESTIS SIRT1 AND SIRT3 EXPRESSION

SIRT1 and SIRT3 expression were evaluated on PND60 male and female pups submitted to gestational CR. Results showed increased SIRT3 expression in ovaries [t(10)=2.36;p=0.039] and testis [t(14)=2.22;p=0.043], while SIRT1 in ovaries [t(10)=1.27;p=0.237] and testis [t(10)=2.01;p=0.071] were not altered by gestational CR (Figure 6).

DISCUSSION

Metabolic programming comprehends the consequence of an intervention during development, leading to physiological long-term changes in organs and tissues [56]. Recently expanded to the Developmental Origins of Health and Disease (DOHaD) concept, metabolic programming demonstrates the pathophysiological base explaining the environmental influence during development leading to chronical diseases or health promotion in adulthood [1].

In this sense, gestational CR had multiple effects on ovaries and testis of adult rats. It is already known that CR can upregulate different enzymes, protecting different organs and tissues, although for ovaries, the studies focus on molecular explanations rather than on the enzymatic and non- enzymatic antioxidant defenses [24, 57]. We observed that gestational CR increased SOD activity in the ovaries of pups. The majority of the works focus on SOD activity, only demonstrating that a decrease in such enzyme activity is related to

unsuccessful in vitro fertilization [58]. Concerning superoxide related parameters, mitochondrial superoxide content was also increased in the ovaries and may be involved in SOD activation. Cooperatively, such variation might be explained by the measurement of total SOD cellular activity, rather than only mitochondrial isoform. While the increase of SOD activity is an effect of gestational CR, the up-rise in superoxide content can also be explained by the ovarian cells hormonal shift during each estrus phase, mainly by the fact that ovulation, a hormonal induced process, needs higher levels of superoxide to occur [59]. Albeit SOD activity peaks during the pro-estrus phase [60, 61] the correlation cannot be assured resultantly from the non-assessment of estrous cycle. Gestational CR promoted an increase in mitochondrial superoxide levels, without eliciting any alteration in mitochondrial biogenesis markers in pup's ovaries. Concerning mitochondrial related parameters, SIRT3, a deacetylase enzyme capable of perceive cellular redox state, leading to benefic effects due to expression of genes related to cellular bioenergetics [33], was increased in the ovaries of pups submitted to intrauterine CR. Studies mention the CR ability to modulate SIRT3 [40, 62]. In the same context, Qiu et al. [63] observed that in caloric restricted mice, SIRT3 was able to activate mitochondrial SOD (SOD2) in white adipose tissue, modulating oxidants detoxification, something that was not observed in mice fed ad libitum in the same study. In addition, while SIRT1 expression was not altered in the ovaries of pups from a gestational CR model, it is known that CR is able to modulate SIRT1 expression and possibly modulate SOD activity in adult animal models [64-66].

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Gestational CR did not elicit any effect on CAT and GPx activities, conversely, increased GLO I activity in ovaries. Since there is a sparse enzymatic antioxidant activity in ovaries, hormonal function may be playing a significant role. Among the hormonal effect on enzymatic defenses, CAT activity fluctuate throughout the estrous cycle, depending on different gonadotropic hormones concentration [67]. Along with hormonal variation, CAT activity is also modulated by SIRT1 [64]. The basal state of CAT in the ovarian content can be related to SIRT1 basal levels found in this work. Regarding non-enzymatic antioxidant defenses, the diet did not alter the GSH content. In concern to GLO I diminished activity, Lurderer et al. assessed the variation of GSH content, correlated enzymes and hormonal shift [68]. However, GSH modulation related to hormonal mechanisms are not elucidated yet. One approach to solve the question can be the future estrous cycle assessment, carefully studying animals within the same hormonal window.

Moreover, intrauterine CR increased total oxidant content, measured by DCFH oxidation, without any change in nitric oxide content in pup's ovaries. The main oxidants that

interact with DCFH are hydrogen peroxide and hydroxyl radical [69]. Regarding protein and lipid damage, gestational CR elicited lipid peroxidation without promoting changes in carbonyl or sulfhydryl contents in ovarian tissue. The increase in oxidants may be related to increased lipid peroxidation, also promoted by gestational CR, and a well-known effect of oxidative stress and a pro-aging agent [14]. The higher lipid peroxidation can form glyoxal along with monosaccharides and glycated proteins degradation [58]. In such scenario, diminished GLO I antioxidant activity and augmented oxidant levels could lead to early ovarian aging [25, 27, 28].

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In testis, CR was also able to induce SIRT3 overexpression and did not elicit any effect on oxidants content, SOD, CAT, and GPx activities or oxidative damage parameters. Moreover, SIRT1 was not altered in the testis as well. Gestational CR and the effects on testicular tissue have to be more explored in the literature, there is very few data concerning this intervention. Concerning different dietary interventions in rodents, rats submitted to protein restriction (10%) during intrauterine development present decreased SOD activity at 110 days of age [70]. In the same study, Rodríguez-González et al. showed that the pups display increased DCFH oxidation and lipid peroxidation. It is mandatory to observe that SIRT3 is a mitochondrial enzyme and, despite up-regulation by gestational CR, mitochondrial parameters, such as biogenesis, are not affected. In addition, we observed decreased GSH content and GLO I activity in the testis of young animals. However, it is stablished that lipid and protein metabolism, along with glycolysis pathway, can lead to MG formation and, thus, need for GSH and GLO I detoxification [71]. It is well described that aging decreases antioxidant defenses in several tissues [72], however, intrauterine CR was able to jeopardize antioxidant defenses even in young adult animals. It is essential to mention that although there are no signs of oxidative stress in the testis, studies report the fact that controlled and low concentrations of oxidants are important to different physiological process in the organ, such as sperm capacitation, acrosome reaction, and signaling that ensures fertilization [73]. In relation to hormonal variation, studies demonstrate that moderate CR (30%) does not impact testosterone biosynthesis gene expression or related cells maintenance in young or older Rhesus monkeys [74]. Sitzmann et al. also demonstrated minor effects of CR in testis morphology of old animals, meaning that long-term CR can affect cell's architecture, however the relation to fertility remains unclear. Another study by Gedik et al. [75] describes the impact of 30% dietary restriction for 17 months on rats' testis. In comparison to one-month old rats, the dietary restricted animals diminished glutathione reductase and GPx activities, without alterations in SOD and CAT activities. Rebrin et al. [76] demonstrated that 40% CR on adult mice impacted on oxidized glutathione (GSSG) and GSH contents only in testis of 26 months-old animals, when compared to 4 months old peers. However, when it was compared mice fed ad libitum and CR animals, the GSH:GSSG ratio was affected in 22 months-old mice testis, observed in the same study. Combined, such data demonstrate that, although CR has impacted on testis parameters, the effects are only present in elder ages, rather than on early adulthood.

Additionaly, intrauterine CR did not elicit any effect on the cell's architecture of neither tissue evaluated, as depicted by morphological analyses. Nevertheless, CR does not alter the delivery index of pregnant dams, demonstrated by no significant difference in the uterine staining of control and CR dams.

In summary, we showed for the first time that gestational CR exert long-lasting effects on the offspring's ovaries and testis metabolism in early adult age by inducing adaptive changes during development. Our findings reveal that gestational CR has long-term influence on offspring metabolism, being able to modify the molecular expression of SIRT3, an enzyme known for modulating cellular bioenergetics. In addition, our findings demonstrate a first look on different redox status parameters of ovaries and testis of young adult offspring that underwent gestational CR, demonstrating that such programming effects were still evident later-on on life, suggesting a negative impact on reproduction.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

- **Figure 1**: Uterine staining for non-gravid uterus (A), birth day uterus (B) of dams. Black arrow indicates implantation site. n = 11-15.
- **Figure 2:** Effect of intrauterine caloric restriction (CR) on ovarian and testis morphology, regarding: control ovaries (A), CR ovaries (B), control testis (C), and CR testis (D). n = 10.
- **Figure 3**: Effect of intrauterine caloric restriction (CR) on ovarian and testis parameters, such as: dichlorofluorescein oxidation content (A), mitochondrial superoxide formation (B), nitric oxide (C), mitochondrial mass (D) and membrane potential (E). Results are expressed as mean \pm S.E.M. for n = 9. *p<0.05, **p<0.001 (Student's test).
- **Figure 4**: Effect of intrauterine caloric restriction (CR) on ovarian and testis enzymatic and non- enzymatic antioxidant parameters, such as: superoxide dismutase (SOD) (A), catalase (CAT) (B), glyoxalase 1 (GLO I) (C), glutathione peroxidase (GPx) (D) activities and GSH content (E). Results are expressed as mean \pm S.E.M. for n = 6-9. *p<0.05 (Student's test).
- **Figure 5**: Effect of intrauterine caloric restriction (CR) on ovarian and testis oxidative damage parameters such as: carbonyl (A) and sulfhydryl (B) content and lipid peroxidation (C). Results are expressed as mean \pm S.E.M. for n = 6-10. *p<0.05, **p<0.001 (Student's test).
- **Figure 6:** Effect of intrauterine caloric restriction (CR) on SIRT1 expression (A) and SIRT3 expression (B). Results are expressed as mean \pm S.E.M. for n = 6-8. *p<0.05, **p<0.001 (Student's test).

FIGURES

Figure 1

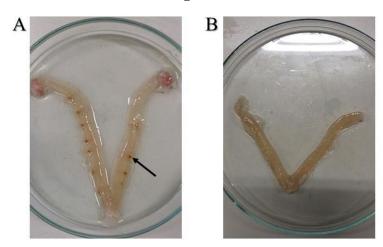


Figure 2

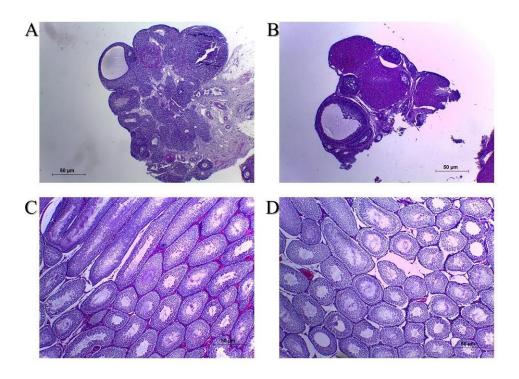


Figure 3

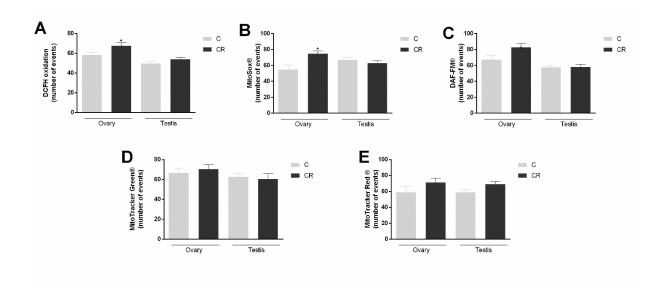


Figure 4

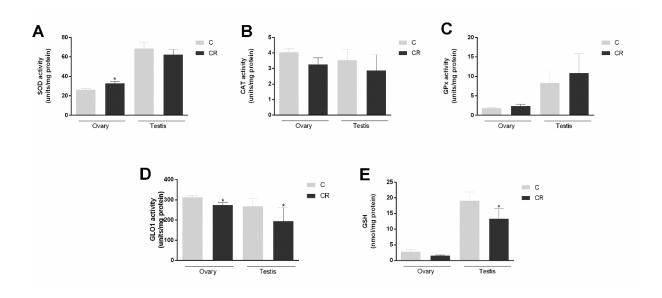


Figure 5

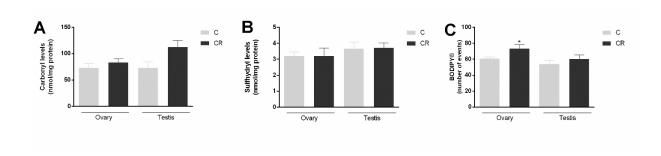
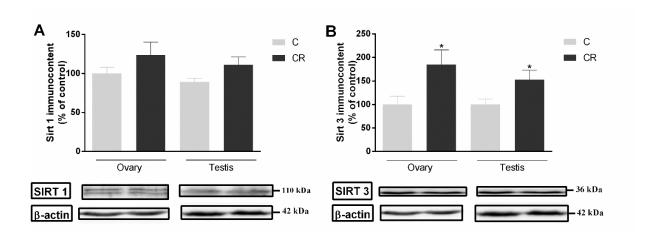


Figure 6



5 CONCLUSÕES E PERSPECTIVAS

O presente estudo demonstrou que a RC gestacional é capaz de promover alterações no estado redox e na função mitocondrial de ovários e testículos da prole aos 60 dias de vida. Embora os resultados obtidos sejam preliminares, eles realçam a importância de mais investigações nessa área de pesquisa.

De forma geral, pode-se avaliar que a RC durante o período gestacional tende a levar a diferentes modulações nos órgãos reprodutivos masculinos e femininos na idade adulta. A literatura sugere que a RC, na vida adulta, é um modelo que tende a levar a um aumento do tempo útil de muitos órgãos, por modulação benéfica do estado redox. Ao se estudar órgãos reprodutivos em um contexto de RC gestacional, demonstra-se que tal intervenção, durante o desenvolvimento, pode levar a modulações negativas. Em ovários, observamos um aumento no imunoconteúdo da SIRT3, entretanto o estado redox foi afetado de forma relevante. Enquanto que há aumento da atividade da SOD, há diminuição da atividade da GLO I. Além disso, a concentração de oxidantes é ampliada, levando ao aumento da oxidação lipídica. Em testículos, encontramos redução de parâmetros antioxidantes enzimáticos e não enzimáticos, entretanto sem modulação de espécies reativas ou dano oxidativo. Da mesma forma que nos ovários, há modulação de vias de sinalização metabólicas, graças a superexpressão de SIRT3, entretanto, nos dois órgãos, não foi possível explicar tal superexpressão pelos parâmetros estudados no presente trabalho.

Vale ressaltar que as modulações vistas deixam lacunas a serem preenchidas futuramente. O estudo de outras vias bioquímicas relacionadas a sirtuínas é essencial para um panorama mais completo da função exercida por essas nos órgãos reprodutivos femininos e masculinos. Além disso, é necessário fazer a avaliação de outras rotas bioquímicas relacionadas a enzimas antioxidantes, de modo a buscar um entendimento da atividade dos antioxidantes enzimáticos e não enzimáticos alterados nesse estudo. Além disso, cabe estudar diferentes idades da prole, desde o início da vida pós-natal, infância e idades mais avançadas da vida destes animais. De uma forma geral, mostramos que a RC gestacional afeta o metabolismo oxidativo em órgãos reprodutivos da prole, o que pode ter um impacto clínico relevante se os nossos dados puderem ser extrapolados para a condição humana.

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APÊNDICE A – PARECER DE APROVAÇÃO DA CEUA

Projeto aprovado pela Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais da Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul (CEUA/UFRGS), sob o projeto n° 34056.

Comissão De Ética No Uso De Animais aprovou o mesmo, em reunião realizada em 05/03/2018 - Sala 330 do Anexo 1 da Reitoria - Campus Centro - Porto Alegre - RS, em seus aspectos éticos e metodológicos, para a utilização de 80 ratos Wistar neonatos fêmeas, 80 ratos Wistar neonatos machos, 86 ratos Wistar fêmeas de 120 dias e 43 ratos Wistar machos de 120 dias, provenientes do CREAL, de acordo com os preceitos das Diretrizes e Normas Nacionais e Internacionais, especialmente a Lei 11.794 de 08 de novembro de 2008, o Decreto 6899 de 15 de julho de 2009, e as normas editadas pelo Conselho Nacional de Controle da Experimentação Animal (CONCEA), que disciplinam a produção, manutenção e/ou utilização de animais do filo Chordata, subfilo Vertebrata (exceto o homem) em atividade de ensino ou pesquisa.

CEUA/UFRGS

Carta de aprovação indisponível no Portal da UFRGS em 18 de junho de 2018.

APÊNDICE B – NORMAS DE PUBLICAÇÃO DA REVISTA BIOLOGY OF REPRODUCTION

<u>Initial submission</u>: For the initial submission, authors do not need to follow the BOR manuscript style and may submit all components of the manuscript for review as long as the text is double-spaced and labelled with line numbers. Please note that specific requirements for BOR submission, including style and format, must be followed for all revised manuscripts.

All manuscripts are submitted and reviewed via the journal's Editorial Manager system. New authors should create an account prior to submitting a manuscript for consideration. Questions about submitting to the journal should be sent to the editorial office at biolre.editorialoffice@oup.com.

All submissions to the journal are initially reviewed by the editors to assess appropriateness for the journal. Manuscripts viewed as potentially suitable for the journal are immediately sent for peer review, usually by two independent reviewers. However, if deemed not relevant to the purview of Biology of Reproduction or of high priority, manuscripts are returned to the author immediately without peer review; this fast rejection process means that authors are given a quick decision on papers not appropriate for the journal.

For those manuscripts subjected to peer review, a decision about suitability is made based on the review feedback and judgment of the editors. When a manuscript is promising but not acceptable in its present form, suggestions for revisions are transmitted to the author. For information on the journal's review process or a manuscript's progress, please contact the Managing Editor at biolre.editorialoffice@oup.com.

Content types

Original Research Articles: An original research article should contain no more than 8,000 words (~10 pages) in the main text (Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion) and a maximum of 6 display items (figures and tables). Where appropriate, detailed methods may be presented as supplementary materials. Supplementary materials should be presented as a single pdf file. Large datasets should be provided separately as supplemental materials.

<u>Reviews</u>: A full-length review should contain no more than 10,000 words (~12 pages) and 6 display items (figures and tables).

<u>Letters to the Editor</u>: Letters are brief and concise reports of novel findings of general interest to the field. A Letter should start with "Dear Editor,", and contains NO abstract or

other subsections. The main text should contain <1,000 words, one figure (multiple panels allowed) and up to 10 references. If necessary, methods and materials can be included in supplemental materials, which can be presented as a single pdf file.

Research Highlights: Research Highlights aim to point the BOR readership to the latest novel findings published in high-impact journals. A Research Highlight should contain no more than 1,000 words, up to 10 references and 1 display item, and must be read and approved by the corresponding author of the paper to be highlighted before submission.

<u>Interviews</u>: BOR publishes interviews with prominent investigators in the field, which are usually conducted by the BOR editorial team including Editors-in-Chief, Associate Editors and members of the Board of Reviewing Editors. An interview should contain no more than 1,000 words, up to 10 references and one portrait of the interviewee.

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Manuscripts that receive a decision of Reconsider after Major Revisions, Acceptance if Appropriately Revised, or Conditional Acceptance may be revised and submitted only once for re-review. Revised manuscripts must be received by the Editorial Office within 90 days of the date of first decision; if a revised manuscript is received after the 90-day period, it will be treated as a new manuscript or a resubmission. If authors find that an extension is necessary, they must request an extension from the Editors-in-Chief in writing. If authors decide not to submit a revision, they are asked to send a request for their submission to be withdrawn.

When a revised manuscript is submitted, the manuscript text, all figure and supplemental files, and a "marked-up" version of the original submission (a copy of the previous submission with revision changes drafted in using font attributes such as redline, strikeout, or highlight) must be uploaded. Please upload the marked-up version as a supplemental file. A point-by-point Response to Reviewers is also required for all revisions.

Submitting Issue Cover Images

If an article is accepted for publication in BOR, the editors strongly encourage authors to submit a candidate image that may be used on the cover of an upcoming issue. Accepted authors who would like to submit an image for possible use as an issue cover should email a high resolution version of the image to the production editor at biolrepro@oup.com. They

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Preparing a Manuscript for Submission

Equations. Equations must NOT be formatted using the default math editing tool in Word 2007. Instead, use the Design Science Equation Editor or MathType by clicking "Object" in the Insert ribbon and choosing either object type "Microsoft Equation 3.0" or "MathType Equation."

<u>Figure and reference citations</u>. Cite references, tables, figures, and supplemental data consecutively. Place reference numbers in square brackets, e.g., "as Smith [12] reported" or "as previously reported [3-5]." Authors will be charged for any alterations to References at proof stage.

File format. Preferred file formats are Microsoft Word and Corel WordPerfect.

Fonts. Only standard fonts such as Helvetica or Times New Roman should be used.

<u>Genetic sequence deposits</u>. Genetic sequences must be deposited to the appropriate database; this must be documented in footnote 1 on the title page.

<u>Headers</u>. Three levels of heads may be used. Level 1 is reserved for BIOLRE section headers (e.g., Abstract, Introduction, Materials and Methods, etc.). Level 2 and 3 heads should consist of descriptive phrases.

Language. Choose U.S. English.

- In Word 2007 or 2010, click "Review" on the ribbon, then click "Language," and "Set Proofing Language." Select "English (U.S.)" and click "OK."
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- Line numbering. Manuscripts submitted without line numbering will be returned to authors for correction.
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Discussion, then go to File > Page Setup > Layout and choose "Selected text" in the "Apply to" drop-down menu. Select "Line Numbers" and check the box to add line numbering. Start numbering at 1, count by 5, and number continuously.

In WordPerfect, place the cursor at the start of the Abstract, then click "Format,"
 "Line," and "Numbering," and enable the "Turn Line Numbering On" check box.
 Line spacing. Double-space all text.

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- Do not include sequence information that can be accessed through a publicly available database, such as GenBank or EMBL.
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- Avoid unnecessary tables; do not put data in tabular form if the information can be
 presented adequately in a few sentences in the text. Very large tables should be
 submitted as Supplemental Data.

Gene and protein nomenclature. Authors must adhere to the guidelines of the relevant species nomenclature committees.

<u>Page numbering</u>. Number pages at the top right.

<u>Page setup</u>. Choose letter-size, 8-1/2" x 11" paper. Set all margins at one inch.

<u>Section order</u>. Arrange research papers in the following order (for Reviews, the Introduction through Discussion sections do not apply):

- Title page
- Abstract
- Introduction
- Materials and Methods

- Results
- Discussion
- Acknowledgment (if applicable)
- References
- Figure Legends
- Supplemental Data Legends (if applicable)
- Tables (one per page)
- Figures (one per page)

Manuscript Formatting

Failure to comply with these requirements may lead to processing delays. See recent BIOLRE papers for examples of manuscript format. Please contact the Biology of Reproduction Editorial Office with any questions: biolre.editorialoffice@oup.com.

Cover Letter

All submissions must have a cover letter. The cover letter should be submitted as a separate file, saved as "Cover Letter" and submitted through Editorial Manager as a supplemental file.

The cover letter should contain: The title of the paper and a brief statement of its main point and significance.

Information about any potential conflicts of interest, including professional or financial affiliations that might be perceived as biasing the presentation.

A statement that written permission has been obtained from any author whose work is cited as a personal communication, unpublished work, or work in press, but is not an author of the manuscript. Upon acceptance, a copy of this permission will be requested.

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If Supplemental Data are uploaded, indicate whether they are to be included in the final publication or are for the reviewers only.

Videos can be published in the online article, with a still image of the video appearing in the print version. Please submit videos in MP4 format. Any supplementary videos that you do not want to be included in the article itself can be uploaded as supplementary data. All

videos should have an accompanying legend.

References can be formatted in any readable style at submission, although authors are responsible for their accuracy.

Acknowledgements and details of funding sources should be included at the end of the text. Please refer to your funding organizations to acknowledge their support. PubMed Central links will require a specific grant number to be referenced.

Please list all author contributions upon submission of the manuscript.

Please also define non-standard abbreviations at the first occurrence and number figures and tables consecutively.

Upon revision papers should be submitted in an editable file format (i.e. not PDF) and figures should be submitted as separate, high-resolution, files.

For information on Latex files, please see: http://www.oxfordjournals.org/en/authors/latex- files.html.

Title page

<u>Title</u>. Indicate the species studied, using italics as needed. Do not use abbreviations or acronyms. Spell out Greek characters.

<u>Running title</u>. A title of 50 or fewer characters, including spaces. This will appear as the running head of your published paper.

<u>Summary sentence.</u> A one-sentence summary of the manuscript's significance (limited to 250 characters). Do not use phrases such as "this paper demonstrates..." or "we show that..." Examples of appropriate summary statements are:

The protein greatstuff (GTSF), which is produced by the developing oocyte, is essential for preimplantation embryo development beyond the two-cell stage.

Photoperiod regulation of amino acid transport in the brain influences spawning behavior of guppies. Rat Sertoli cells promote high expression of Clutz mRNA and CLUTZ protein by spermatocytes; the phenotype of a null mutation in the Clutz gene is azoospermia.

<u>Keywords</u>. Title page keywords will appear on the first page of the final publication. There is no limit on the number of keywords that may be provided.

Acceptable Keywords

Acrosome Adrenal Aging

Acrosome reaction Adrenal cortex Androgens/Androgen

Activin Adrenal medulla receptor

Aneuploidy Cryopreservation receptor

Angiogenesis Cumulus cells Estrous cycle

Anterior pituitary Cyclic adenosine Evolution

Anti-Mullerian hormone monophosphate (cAMP) Extracellular matrix

Apoptosis Cyclic guanosine Fallopian tubes

Assisted reproductive monophosphate (cGMP) Female infertility

technology Cytokines Female reproductive tract

Atresia Cytoskeleton Fertility

Behavior Decidua Fertilization

Blastocyst Developmental biology Fetal development

Breast cancer Developmental origins of Fish reproduction

Calcium health and disease Follicle

Capacitation Diapause Follicle-stimulating

Carnivore reproduction Differentiation hormone (FSH/FSH

Catecholamines DNA methylation receptor)

Cell culture Domestic animal Follicular development

Cell cycle reproduction Follicular maturation

Central nervous system Dopamine Follistatin

Cervix Early development Gamete biology
Chemotaxis Embryo Gametogenesis
Chromatin Embryo culture Gene expression
Circadian rhythm Embryonic stem cells Gene regulation

Cloning Endocrine disruptors Genetics

Comparative reproduction Endometriosis Genomic imprinting

Conceptus Endometrium Genomics

Conservation Environment Glucocorticoids/Glucocor

Contraception Environmental ticoid receptor

Corpus luteum contaminants and Gonadal function

Corticosterone toxicants Gonadal steroids

Corticotropin-releasing Epididymis Gonadotropin-releasing

hormone (CRH/CRH Epigenetics hormone (GnRH/GnRH

receptor) Equids (horses, donkeys, receptor)

Cortisol zebras) Gonadotropins

Cryobiology Estradiol/Estradiol Granulosa cells

Growth factors Ion channels Integrins Neuroendocrinology

Growth hormone/Growth Kinases Neuropeptides
hormone-releasing Kisspeptin Neurotransmitters

hormone Labor Nitric oxide

Histone Lactation Noncoding RNA
Histone modifications Leptin/Leptin receptor Nuclear transfer

Hormone Leydig cells Null mutation/knockout

Hormone action Luteinizing hormone Nutrition
Hormone receptors (LH/LH receptor) Oocyte

Humanchorionic Litter size Oocyte development

gonadotropin (hCG/hCG Luteolysis Oocyte-follicle receptor) Macrophage interactions

Human reproduction Male infertility Oocyte maturation

Hypothalamic hormones Male reproductive tract Ovary

Hypothalamus Male sexual function Ovarian cancer

Hypoxia Mammary glands Oviduct

ImmunologyMechanisms of hormoneOvine/sheepImplantationactionOvulation

Imprinted genes Meiosis Ovulatory cycle

In vitro fertilization (IVF) Meiotic arrest Ovum

In vitro maturation (IVM) Meiotic maturation Ovum pick-up/transport

Induced pluripotent stem Meiotic spindle Oxidative stress

cells (IPC cells) Melatonin Menstrual Oxytocin
Inhibin cycle Parturition

Inner cell mass Menopause Penis

Insulin Metabolism Pheromones

Insulin-like growth factor MicroRNA Phosphatases

(IGF/IGF receptors) Mitosis Phosphodiestrases

Interstitial cells Mitochondria Photoperiod

Intracytoplasmic sperm Molecular biology Pineal

injection (ICSI) Morula Pituitary/Pituitary

Intrauterine growth Müllerian ducts hormones restriction (IUGR) Myoid cells piRNA
Invertebrates Myometrium Placenta

Placental transport Seminal vesicles Theca cells

Placentation Serotonin Thyroid-stimulating

Polypeptide receptors Sertoli cells hormone (TSH/TSH

Porcine/pig Sex determination receptor)

Posterior pituitary Sex differentiation Toxicology

Preeclampsia Signal transduction Transcription

Pregnancy Somatic cell nuclear Transcriptional regulation

Preimplantation embryo transfer Transgenesis

Primates Somatostatin Transgenic/Knockout

Premature ovarian failure Sperm model

Primordial germ cells Sperm capacitation Translation

Prostaglandins Sperm DNA Transplantation

Protein kinases fragmentation Trophoectoderm

Proteomics Sperm hyperactivation Trophoblast

Progesterone/Progesteron Sperm maturation Uterine cancer

e receptor Sperm motility and Uterus
Prolactin/Prolactin transport Vagina

receptor Spermatid Vaginal epithelium

Prostate Spermatocyte Vas deferens
Puberty Spermatogenesis Vasopressin

Relaxin Spermatogonia Vertebrates, non-

Reproductive behavior Spermatogonial stem cells mammalian (fish, fowl,

Reproductive Stem cells reptiles, amphibians)

immunology Steroid hormones/Steroid Vitrification

Reprogramming hormone receptors Vitelline membrane

Retinoids Stress Stroma Wolffian duct

Rodents (rats, mice, Syncytiotrophoblast X chromosome
guinea pigs, voles) Telomeres Y chromosome

Ruminants (cows, sheep, Teratogen Zebrafish

llama, camel) Teratology Zona pellucida

Seasonal reproduction Testicular cancer Zoo species (exotic

Semen Testis species)
Seminal plasma Testosterone Zygote

Authors and affiliations. List all authors and provide the full name (including departments and/or divisions) and location (i.e., city, state, country) of each institution where work was performed. Do not use abbreviations or acronyms, and do not provide street addresses. Use superscript Arabic numerals to key the authors to the institutions.

<u>Grant support</u>. Indicate financial support (i.e., funding agency names and grant or contract numbers, if applicable) in footnote 1. Do not include funding information in the Acknowledgment section.

<u>Conference presentation (if applicable).</u> If any research in the manuscript was presented elsewhere, indicate that here (e.g., "Presented in part at the 45th Annual Meeting of the Society for the Study of Reproduction, 12-15 August 2012, State College, Pennsylvania.").

<u>Correspondence</u>. The corresponding author should be indicated in footnote 2; the footnote should give the complete contact information, including street address, for this person.

Additional footnotes. If two or more authors contributed equally to the work, or if an author's contact address has changed since the research was performed, this information should be provided in separate footnotes.

<u>Abstract</u>. In a maximum of 250 words, summarize the purpose of the work, the methods used, and the conclusions. Do not present data or cite references. Avoid abbreviations and acronyms, and spell out Greek characters.

<u>Introduction</u>. Provide a clear statement of the problem and cite the relevant literature on the subject. Do not include results or summary statements.

Materials and Methods

<u>Ethics</u>. It must be stated and documented that investigations using experimental animals or subjects were conducted in accordance with the SSR's specific guidelines and standards.

Materials

<u>Brand names</u>. Use generic names of chemicals, drugs, antibodies, reagents, enzymes, etc., when possible. Brand names should be used if the composition of that brand is critical to the methodology. If a brand name is given, the name of the manufacturer must also be provided. For example:

Dynabeads mRNA DIRECT kit (Invitrogen)

one-way ANOVA (PRISM software version 3.03; GraphPad) FSHR (1:1000 dilution; product no. ab65975; Abcam, Inc.)

<u>Composition</u>. Specify the composition of all solutions, buffers, mixtures, and culture media (including PBS) if a brand name and manufacturer are not provided.

<u>Donated materials.</u> Provide institutional affiliations of individuals or companies that donated supplies or reagents.

<u>Trademark symbols</u>. Do not use trademark or registered symbols with brand or company names.

Methods

Concisely provide readers with sufficient information to replicate the work. Unpublished work may not be cited to provide validation of methodology. Include statistical methods used for data analysis. Use references to published methods if they are identical to methods used in the current study.

Results

Present findings in appropriate detail, using the past tense. Refer to tables and figures in order, without discussion.

Nucleotide sequences should be submitted to GenBank, EMBL, or DNA Data Bank of Japan, and the accession number and date of accession noted in the text. Authors are encouraged to provide a link to the deposit rather than providing the complete sequence in the text.

Genomic and proteomic data should be deposited with the NCBI gene expression and hybridization array data repository (GEO). The GEO accession number and sequence deposit information should be referenced in footnote 1 after any funding information.

Discussion

Provide a clear and concise interpretation of the results; avoid repeating the results.

Acknowledgment

Acknowledge any non-financial assistance (e.g., statistical review, technical help, editorial assistance, animal husbandry, etc.).

References

Acceptable works. Only published articles or articles accepted for publication may be used. Articles must have appeared in peer-reviewed publications or other published works that are accessible to most scientists. Articles that have been "conditionally accepted," "submitted," or are "in process" are not acceptable. If a paper has been accepted but has not been published in final form (i.e., full citation information is not yet available), please indicate that the paper is "in press."

Abstracts. An abstract may be used as a reference only if it has been published in a regular issue of a readily available and indexed journal.

<u>Internet/online references</u>. All online material must be cited completely and must include the web address and date of access by the authors. Many online sources provide a suggested citation.

<u>Unpublished data</u>. Cite personal communications and unpublished data only if necessary. In the text, provide the name(s) of the individual(s) associated with the unpublished data. For example, "(Smith and Winter, unpublished data).

Accuracy. Authors are responsible for the accuracy of all references.

Order. All references should be cited in numerical order in the text using square brackets (e.g., "as Smith [12] reported" or "as previously reported [3-5]") and should appear in that order in the References section. If a reference citation appears only in a table or figure, number that reference last. For example, if there are 50 references in the text, four in a table, and two in a figure, the in-text references would be numbered 1-50, the references in the table would be numbered 51-54, and the references in the figure would be numbered 55-56.

<u>TIP</u>: Search for "[" in your Word or PDF document to see a list of your in-text references. Use this list to ensure that your references are in numerical order.

<u>Presentation</u>. List up to 12 authors and/or editors of a publication. If there are more than 12 authors, list the only first 12 followed by "et al." Abbreviate journal names according to Serial Sources for the BIOSIS Database, Index Medicus, or PubMed's Journal Browser.Page numbers must be inclusive (e.g., 722–729, not 722–29).

<u>NOTE</u>: EndNotes users may download a .ENS file in BIOLRE style from the EndNotes web site (type "Biology of Reproduction" in the Publication Name field).

Abstract in Biology of Reproduction. Vo TTB, Jeung EB. Calbindin-D9k expression in GH3 cells is a biomarker of xenoestrogenic potential of parabens. In: Abstracts of the 43rd Annual Meeting of the Society for the Study of Reproduction, July 31-August 3, 2010, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. Biol Reprod 2010; 83(suppl): Abstract 275.

Kwon DK, Koo OJ, Park SJ, Kang JT, Park HJ, Kim SJ, Moon JH, Saadeldin IM, Jang G, Lee BC. Optimizing porcine oocytes electrical activation by adjusting pre- and post-activation mannitol exposure time. In: Supplement to Biology of Reproduction for the Forty-Fourth Annual Meeting of the Society for the Study of Reproduction, July 31-August 4, 2011, Portland, Oregon. Biol Reprod 2011; Suppl: Abstract 176.

<u>Book</u>. Sokol RR, Rohlf FJ. Biometry. New York: WH Freeman and Co; 1981:253-261.

<u>Book chapter</u>. Harrison RJ, Weir BJ. Structure of the mammalian ovary. In: Zuckerman S, Weit BJ (eds.), The Ovary, vol. 1, 2nd ed. New York: Academic Press; 1977:113-217.

<u>Database</u>. Mouse Tumor Biology Database (MTB), Mouse Genome Informatics. Bar Harbor, ME: The Jackson Laboratory; 2004. http://www.informatics.jax.org. Accessed 11 October 2012.

<u>Internet source</u>. Mammalian Reproductive Genetics [Internet]. Seattle,

WA: University of Washington. http://mrg.genetics.washington.edu. Accessed 12 January 2012.

<u>Journal article</u>, 12 or fewer authors. Demas GE, Nelson RJ. Photoperiod, ambient temperature, and food availability interact to affect reproductive and immune function in adult male deer mice (Peromyscus maniculatus). J Biol Rhythms 1998; 13:253–262.

Journal article, more than 12 authors. Okasaki Y, Okazaki Y, Furuno M, Kasukawa T, Adachi J, Bono H, Kondo S, Nikaido I, Osato N, Saito R, Suzuki H, Yamanaka I, et al. Analysis of the mouse transcriptome based on functional annotation of 60,770 full-length cDNAs. Nature 2002; 420:563-573.

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<u>Journal article, e-journal</u>. Yuen T, Wurmbach E, Pfeffer RL, Ebersole BJ, Sealfon SC. Accuracy and calibration of commercial oligonucleotide and custom cDNA microarrays. Nucleic Acids Res 2002; 30:e48.

<u>Patent</u>. Smith C, Jones K (inventors). The United States of America as represented by the Department of Health and Human Services, assignee. Adreno-medullin peptides. U.S. patent 6 320 022; 2001.

<u>Thesis or dissertation</u>. Wilson K. The effects of substance P, neurotensin and arginine vasopressin on reproductive function. London, UK: University of London; 1984. Thesis.

Terminology

<u>Abbreviations</u>. Do not use abbreviations in titles. Do spell out all abbreviations at first mention in the Abstract and in the body of the manuscript.

<u>Beginning sentences</u>. Do not begin sentences with very short abbreviations or acronyms, especially those that begin with a lower case letter. For example, hCG and cDNA should instead be "Human CG" and "Complementary DNA," respectively, when beginning a sentence.

<u>Definitions.</u> Do define all abbreviations and acronyms at first mention in the Abstract and in the body of the manuscript. Definitions are not needed for names of genes, gene products, proteins, and protein products.

<u>Eponyms</u>. Do not use the possessive form for an eponym. For example, do use Dulbecco Modified Eagle medium, not Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's medium; Hanks solution, not Hanks' solution; Student t-test, not Student's t-test; etc.

<u>Joint Commission on Biochemical Nomenclature</u>. Do not use the nomenclature for polypeptide hormones proposed by the Joint Commission on Biochemical Nomenclature. Do use follicle-stimulating hormone, not follitropin; luteinizing hormone, not lutropin; etc.

<u>Latin terms</u>. Do not italicize Latin terms such as et al., in situ, in vitro, or in vivo. Do use italics for gene symbols and genus-species designations.

Nomenclature. For all genes, the gene names should be spelled out in the first mention, and they should be abbreviated in acronym form in all following mentions. If there are any previous gene names, these names should be included in parentheses following the first mention of the gene. For example, "Granulosa cells produce vascular endothelial growth factor A (VEGFA; previously known as ________)."

The basic nomenclature guidelines for Biology of Reproduction are as follows:

a) Mouse and Rat

Websites for nomenclature rules:

- Mouse and rat: http://www.informatics.jax.org
- Rat only: http://rgd.mcw.edu
 General nomenclature rules (mouse and rat):
- Full gene names are in roman font (not italic); e.g., insulin-like growth factor 1.

• Greek symbols are not used.

Gene, mRNA, and cDNA symbols:

- Italic font, with only the first letter upper case; e.g., Igf1.
- Greek symbols are not used. Hyphens are rarely used.

Protein symbols:

- Use the same symbol as the gene.
- Roman font (not italic), with all letters upper case; e.g., IGF1.

Mutant alleles:

- Define when first mentioned; e.g., "Igf1 tm1Arge/Igf1 tm1Arge is one of several knockout alleles of Igf1."
- Italic font is used for all letters and numbers, with the allelic designation (e.g. tm1Arge) in superscript.
- After first mention, the homozygous KO can be indicated as Igf1-/-; the heterozygote can be indicated as Igf1+/-, etc.
- b) Humans, nonhuman primates, chickens, domestic species, and everything that is not a mouse, rat, fish, worm, frog, or fly

Website for nomenclature rules:

• http://www.genenames.org

General nomenclature rules:

- Full gene names are in roman font (not italic); e.g., insulin-like growth factor 1.
- Greek symbols are not used.

Gene, MRNA, and cDNA symbols:

- Italic font, with all letters upper case; e.g., IGF1.
- Greek symbols are never used.
- Hyphens are used only in very specific cases (please refer to the nomenclature guidelines).

Protein symbols:

- Use the same symbol as the gene.
- Roman font (not italic), with all letters upper case; e.g., IGF1.
- c) Fish (applies to all fish)

Website for nomenclature rules:

• https://wiki.zfin.org/display/general/ZFIN+Zebrafish+Nomenclature+Guidelines General nomenclature rules:

- Full gene names are in italic font, with all letters lower case; e.g., cyclops.
- Greek symbols are not used.

Gene symbols:

- Italic font, with all letters lower case; e.g., cyc.
- Greek symbols are not used.

Protein symbols:

- Use the same symbol as the gene.
- Roman font (not italic), with only the first letter upper case; e.g., Cyc.

<u>Units of measure</u>. Standard abbreviations for units of measure and abbreviations understood by scientists outside the field of reproductive biology may be used without definition: ml, g, IU, UV, i.v., EC, cpm, dpm, P, etc.

Figures

All illustrations that are not tables (e.g., gels, blots, charts, graphs, photographs, micrographs) are considered figures. View the submission site's Help and FAQ pages for solutions to common upload problems.

Digital Image Preparation

The following is summarized from Biology of Reproduction's Guidelines for Digital Images.

General Guidelines

- Images should be minimally processed. The final image must correctly represent the original data and conform to current standards for ethical scientific imaging.
- Original, unaltered images must be provided to the Editors if requested. If the original
 data cannot be produced, manuscript acceptance may be revoked.
- Cases of deliberate misrepresentation of data will result in revocation of acceptance and will be reported to the corresponding author's home institution or funding agency (see Due Process).
- Please also refer to the University of Arizona's guidelines for digital imaging ethics.

Microscopy

<u>Adjustments.</u> Acceptable (only if uniformly applied to the whole image and equally applied to representative controls):

- Brightness
- Contrast
- Color balance

<u>Unacceptable</u> (unless justified to reviewers and disclosed in the figure legend):

- Threshold manipulation
- Expansion or contraction of signal ranges
- Altering of high signals
- "Pseudo-coloring"
- Nonlinear adjustments, such as gamma
- Adjustments of individual color channels (if necessary on "merged" images, must be noted in figure legend)
- Antibody use. A useful discussion is presented by Saper CB, J Comp Neurol 2005;
 493:477-478.

Immunohistochemistry and immunofluorescence. Data should include:

- Appropriate, representative controls (either in the figures or in Supplemental Data)
- Information on the full characterization of antibodies used

Materials and Methods. Information in this section should include:

Equipment:

- Make and model of microscope
- Objective lens information (e.g., numerical aperture, filter sets, wavelength cutoff, bandwidth data)
- Camera systems
- Image processing software
- Resolution at which images were acquired
- Software used for image processing; include details about operations such as: o Type
 of deconvolution
- 3D reconstructions
- Surface or volume rendering
- Gamma adjustments

Gels and blots

Combined gels. Vertically sliced gels that juxtapose lanes that were not contiguous in

the experiment must have a clear separation or a black line delineating the boundary between the gels.

<u>Controls and size markers</u>. Positive and negative controls and molecular size markers should be included on each gel and/or blot in the main figure or in an expanded supplementary figure.

<u>Cropped gels and blots</u>. Cropping is permissible if it improves the clarity and conciseness of the\ presentation; however, cropped gels must retain important bands, and cropped blots should retain at least six band widths above and below the band. In such cases, the cropping must be mentioned in the figure legend, and Supplemental Data for review should include full-length gels and blots wherever possible.

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[Please see paper of Rossner and Yamada (Journal of Cell Biology, 2004, 166:11–15), which was consulted in developing these policy issues, for additional discussion and a white paper on Promoting Integrity in Scientific Journal Publications, published by The Council of Science Editors, 2006.]

References

- 1. Korch C, Spillman MA, Jackson TA, Jacobsen BM, Murphy SK, Lessey BA, Jordan VC, Bradford AP. DNA profiling analysis of endometrial and ovarian cancer cell lines reveals misidentification, redundancy and contamination. Gynecol Oncol 127:241-8.
- 2. Parson W, Kirchebner R, Muhlmann R, et al. 2005 Cancer cell line identification by short tandem repeat profiling: power and limitations. FASEB J19:434–6.

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