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- 4 Endogenous lysophosphatidic acid participates in
- 5 vascularization and decidualization at the maternal-
- 6 fetal interface in the rat
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- 10 Abstract
- 11 Lysophosphatidic acid (LPA) influences several female reproductive functions through
- 12 G protein-coupled receptors. LPA contributes to embryo implantation via
- 13 lysophosphatidic type 3 receptor (LPA3). In this study, we investigated the participation
- of endogenous LPA signaling through LPA3 in vascularization and decidualization, two
- crucial events at the maternal-fetal interface. Pregnant rats were treated with
- diacylglycerol pyrophosphate (DGPP), a highly selective antagonist of LPA3, in day 5
- of gestation. DGPP treatment produced aberrant embryo spacing and increased
- 18 embryo resorption. Also, LPA3 antagonist decreased the cross sectional length of the
- 19 uterine and arcuate arteries and induced histological anomalies in the decidua and
- 20 placentas. Marked hemorrhagic processes, infiltration of immune cells and tissue
- 21 disorganization were observed in the decidual and placental tissues from resorpted
- sites. The mRNA expression of interleukin 10 (II-10), vascular endothelial growth factor
- 23 (Vegf-a) and vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 1 (Vegf-r1), three
- 24 vascularization markers, was reduced in resorpted sites from day 8. Our results show
- 25 that the disruption of endogenous LPA signaling by blocking LPA3 modified the
- 26 development of uterine vessels with consequences in the formation of the decidua and
- 27 placenta and in the growth of the embryos.
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Endogenous lysophosphatidic acid participates in vascularization and decidualization

34	at the maternal-fetal interfase in the rat.
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54	Running Title: LPA in decidual and vascular remodeling.
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56	Abstract.

Lysophosphatidic acid (LPA) influences several female reproductive functions through G protein-coupled receptors. LPA contributes to embryo implantation via lysophosphatidic type 3 receptor (LPA3). In this study, we investigated the participation of endogenous LPA signaling through LPA3 in vascularization and decidualization, two crucial events at the maternal-fetal interfase. Pregnant rats were treated with diacylglycerol pyrophosphate (DGPP), a highly selective antagonist of LPA3, in day 5 of gestation. DGPP treatment provoked aberrant embryo spacing and increased embryo resorption. Also, LPA3 antagonist decreased the cross sectional length of the uterine and arcuate arteries and induced histological anomalies in the decidua and placentas. Marked hemorrhagic processes, infiltration of immune cells and tissue disorganization were observed in the decidual and placental tissues from resorpted sites. The mRNA expression of interleukin 10 (*II-10*), vascular endothelial growth factor (Vegf-a) and vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 1 (Vegf-r1), three vascularization markers, was reduced in resorpted sites from day 8. Our results show that the disruption of endogenous LPA signaling by blocking LPA3 modified the development of uterine vessels with consequences in the formation of the decidua and placenta and in the growth of the embryos.

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Introduction.

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The implantation of the blastocyst into the uterus initiates a series of events like decidualization and vascular remodeling, fundamental for placentation and pregnancy success. The coordination of vascular processes at the maternal-fetal interfase ensures an adequate blood flow in response to the increasing metabolic demands of the embryo (Torry et al. 2007, Shimizu et al. 2012). Blood vessels development is crucial during inflammation under pathological conditions like septic shock (de la Torre et al. 2013), and in the physiological step of implantation (Demir et al. 2010). This process involves the action of several growth factors, cytokines and chemokines (Blois et al. 2011). Decidualization implies proliferation and differentiation of endometrial stromal fibroblasts into decidual cells. The decidua is a transient tissue that sustains embryo development, regulates maternal immune response and controls trophoblast invasion into the uterus (Dey et al. 2004, Fonseca et al. 2012). LPA is a small and bioactive phospholipid that has a range of influences mediated by G protein-coupled receptors in female reproduction (Tokumura et al. 2000, Kunikata et al. 1999, Kobayashi et al. 1994). Through LPA-induced chemokine production, human first-trimester trophoblast cells regulate angiogenesis and innate immune system in early pregnancy (Chen et al. 2010). LPA3-deficient female mice showed implantation failure phenotypes including delayed implantation and crowded implantation sites (Ye et al. 2005). Also, human pregnancy is associated with elevated production of LPA in serum and it is postulated its placental origin (Tokumura et al. 2002). Moreover, patients displaying recurrent implantation failure express reduced levels of LPA3 in the endometrium (Achache et al. 2010). Previously, we observed that LPA via LPA3 augments the production of prostaglandins and nitric oxide,

mediators of vascular and decidual responses, in an ex vivo model of implantation in the rat (Sordelli et al. 2012, Beltrame et al. 2013). These evidences suggest that LPA signaling participates in the development of the fetal-maternal interfase at implantation and LPA3 is postulated as a new checkpoint during implantation. Thus, the aim of the present study was to investigate the participation of LPA3 in implantation events such as the formation of the uterine blood vessels and the decidua.

Materials and Methods.

Drugs and chemicals.

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DGPP 8:0, Luminol (Fluka), p-coumaric acid (Fluka), western blot detergents and inhibitors (Sigma Chemical Company, Buenos Aires, Argentina and Bio Rad, Tecnolab, Buenos Aires, Argentina), goat anti-rabbit horseradish peroxidase-conjugated IgG (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, Inc. SERO-IMMUNO DIAGNOSTICS, INC. Tucker, GA, USA), VEGF-A antibody (ab46154, Abcam, Cambridge, United Kingdom), xylazine and ketamine (König and Holliday Scott SA, Buenos Aires, Argentina), trizol reagent (Genbiotech, Buenos Aires, Argentina), RNAse free DNAse I, Moloney Murine Leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (MMLV-RT) and random primers (Invitrogen, Buenos Aires, Argentina), master mix for real time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) (Promega, Biodynamics, Buenos Aires, Argentina), chemiluminescence detection solutions (Romek Laboratories, Buenos Aires, Argentina). All other chemicals were analytical grade. Animals.

This study was carried out in strict accordance with the recommendations in the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals of the National Institutes of Health. The protocol was approved by the Committee on the Ethics of Animal Experiments of the University of Buenos

Aires (CICUAL, Permit Number: 2550/2010). Animals were provided by the School of Dentistry (University of Buenos Aires). Pregnant Wistar rats were obtained as previously described (Sordelli et al. 2012, Beltrame et al. 2013). Briefly, Virgin female rats were mated with fertile males of the same strain. The morning the spermatozoa were observed in the vaginal fluid was defined as day of pregnancy 1 (Dp1). Under the conditions of our animal facilities, spontaneous term labor occurs on Dp22 of gestation. In rats, blastocysts enter the uterus lumen in the afternoon of Dp4 and implantation begins in the evening of Dp5 post coitus, and is preceded by embryo spacing, uterine edema and luminal closure resulting in an intimate apposition of the blastocyst with the uterine luminal epithelium. Around this precise moment, the endometrium acquires the ability to implant the developing embryo within a specific time window, termed the "receptive phase" or "window of implantation". During this period, the endometrium undergoes pronounced structural and functional changes induced by the ovarian steroids, estrogen and progesterone, which prepare it to be receptive to invasion by the embryo. Females were anaesthetized (xylazine 6 mg/kg, ketamine 1 mg/kg) and the uterus was surgically exposed. Pregnant rats received single doses of DGPP (0.05, 0.1 or

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needle: 30G). Once injected, rats were housed in separate cages and continuously monitored until sacrifice on Dp 6, 7, 8, 15 or 21.

0.2 mg/kg) intra-uterine (i.u.), total volume: 2 µl, in the left horn (treated horn) in the

morning of Dp5, during the apposition phase, just before implantation begins. The

right horn of the uterus was injected with the same volume of vehicle (control horn).

DGPP and vehicle injections were made directly within the uterine lumen (gauge

Implantation sites from Dp 6 were determined by an intravenous injection of 0.1 ml of

Evans Blue dye solution in saline 5 minutes before killing. Blue bands around the uterine horns indicated that the implantation process had been initiated. Implantation units from Dp 8 and 15 were weighted and fixed in 4% paraphormaldehyde and stained with hematoxylin-eosin, or homogenized in Trizol for RT-PCR assays. In addition, a group of rats was monitored until delivery. Day of parturition was registered when the first pup was expulsed. Pups were weighted and activity, feeding and general well-being of the mothers and the pups were evaluated for 4 weeks. Resorption rate. Uterine horns were examined macroscopically in Dp8 and Dp15. The number of healthy and resorpted implantation units was recorded. Resorpted implantation sites were identified by their reduced size, high haemorrhage and signs of necrosis. The resorption rate was calculated as previously reported: [resorpted embryos/(resorpted + healthy embryos)] x 100 (Aisemberg et al. 2007). Macroscopic vascular analysis. Uterine horns with their irrigating vessels were exposed and photographed on Dp 8 and 15. The vessels that irrigate DGPP treated and control horns were counted. Results were expressed as the number of vessels/implantation site. Images were analyzed using the Image-Pro Plus Program (version 4.5.0.29) to determine cross sectional length of the uterine and arcuate arteries. RNA isolation and quantitative RT-PCR. Total RNA isolation, cDNA synthesis and gRT-PCR were performed as previously described (Sordeli et al. 2012, Beltrame et al. 2013, Freitag et al. 2013). Total RNA obtained under different

conditions was isolated using Tri Reagent according to the manufacturer's recommendations

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(Molecular Research Center, Genbiotech, Argentina). RNA was thawed on ice, quantified spectrophometrically at 260 and 280 nm and RNA quality assessed using gel red nucleic acid stained gels. RNA with a 260:280 ratio of 1.8 and above was further treated with RNase free DNase I to digest contaminating genomic DNA. First strand cDNA was synthesized from total RNA (3 µg) using Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (MMLV-RT) and random primers according to the manufacturer's recommendations (Invitrogen, Buenos Aires, Argentina) in the presence of ribonuclease inhibitor. The PCR conditions in all cases started with a denaturation step at 95°C for 30 seg and followed by up to 40 cycles of denaturation, annealing and primer extension (β -actin, il-10 and vegf-a: 95°C, 30 seg – 59°C, 30 seg – 72°C, 20 seg; veqf-r1: 95°C, 30 seq – 56°C, 30 seq – 72°C, 20 seq). PCR primers are detailed for β-actin (Forward 5'-CCATGTACGTAGCCATCC-3', Reverse 5'-CTCTCAGCTGTGGTGGTGAA-3'), il-10 (Forward 5'-GCCAAGCCTTGTCAGAAATGA-3', Reverse 5'-TTTCTGGGCCATGGTTCTCT-3'), vegf-a (Forward 5'-ATCATGCGGATCAAACCT-3', Reverse 5'-ATTCACATCTGCTATGCT-3'), veaf-r1 (Forward 5'-AAGACTCGGGCACCTATG-3', Reverse 5'-CGGCACCTATAGACACC-3'), 5'-ATCAATGACTGCCCCACTTC-3', 5'prolactin (Forward Reverse ATTCCAGGAGTGCACCAAAC-3') and IGFBP-1 (Forward 5'-GCGGTAGTGCCTAGAACGAG-3', Reverse 5'-TGGGATTCGATGAGGAAGTC-3'). il-10, Vegf-a and vegf-r1 mRNA levels were corrected to the levels of rat β -actin using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method. β -actin was chosen as the housekeeping gene as it did not alter its expression under our experimental control.

VEGF-A identification by western blotting.

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Tissue slices frozen at -70°C were incubated in triple detergent buffer (PBS pH =7.4 with sodium azide 0.02% w/v, SDS 0.1% w/v, nonidet P-40 1% v/v, sodium deoxycholate 0.5% v/v) in buffer inhibitors 1:100. Tissues were homogenized (Ultra Turrax, T25 basic, IKA Labortechnik), sonicated for 30 sec (Ultrasonic Cell Disrupter, Microson, Heat systems Inc.) and centrifuged for 30 min at 20000 g. Protein determination was assayed by the Bradford method (Bradford 1976) using bovine serum albumin as standard. Equal amount of proteins (100 µg/lane) were separated in 12.5% w/v SDS-PAGE (15 mA at room temperature) and subsequently transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (30 V at 4°C for 18 h). Non-specific binding sites of the membranes were blocked using dried non-fat milk 5% w/v in PBS pH =7.4. Membranes were incubated with anti VEGF-A (1:1000 in PBS) followed by a goat anti-rabbit horseradish peroxidase conjugated IgG (1:5000 in PBS pH =7.4 containing non-fat milk 5% w/v). Non-specifically bound antibody was removed by washing three times with PBS containing Tween-20 0.1% v/v. Each membrane was exposed to CL- XPosure films for 30 min and photographed. An homogenate from a xenograft induced by human breast cancer cell line MDA-MB-231 was used as positive control (Pontillo et al. 2015). Immunoreactive specificity was assessed by omitting the first antibody. Protein bands were identified by molecular weight markers. GADPH (1:400) was used as loading control. The intensity of bands was determined using the Image J software package (open source). Results were expressed as relative optic density VEGF-A/GADPH.

Hematoxylin-Eosin staining.

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Serial paraffin-embedded tissue sections from Dp 8 or 15 were processed as described (Ribeiro *et al.* 2005, Sordelli *et al.* 2012). Briefly, uteri and placentas from pregnant rats on Dp 8 and 15 of gestation were removed and fixed overnight in paraphormaldehyde 4% in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) 0.1 M (pH 7.4). The tissue sections were dehydrated with 70–100% ethyl alcohol and embedded in paraffin. The paraffin block was orientated to enable the tissues to be sectioned transversally. Sections of 5 µm were made by a microtome (Leica RM 2125, Wetzlar,

Germany) and mounted on 2% silane-coated slides. The sections were stained with hematoxylin-eosin, mounted with Permount. and observed by light microscopy (Nikon Eclipse 200, NY, USA) to determine general tissue morphology and to identify the different cell types present.

Statistical analysis.

Statistical analysis was performed using the InfoStat Program (Córdoba, Argentina). Comparisons between values of different groups were performed using one way ANOVA (analyze of variance). Significance was determined using Tukey's multiple comparison test for unequal replicates. A number of 4-6 animals were used for each treatment. All values presented in this study represent mean \pm S.E.M. Differences between means were considered significant when p \leq 0.05.

Results.

The administration of DGPP produced implantation failure and resorption.

In order to determine optimal treatment conditions we tested three doses of DGPP. Pregnant rats on Dp 5 were injected with 0.05, 0.1 or 0.2 mg/kg DGPP i.u. and sacrificed on Dp 15. While the administration of 0.05 mg/kg DGPP did not exert any effect, the treatment with 0.1 and 0.2 mg/kg DGPP significantly increased the resorption rate (Table 1). In all subsequent experiments rats received 0.1 mg/kg DGPP on Dp 5, as this was the lowest tested dose that produced resorption. Females on Dp 6 did not show differences between the control and the treated horn (Figure 1A). Signs of resorption and aberrant embryo spacing after DGPP administration appeared on Dp 7 (Figure 1B) and were clearly denoted on Dp 8 (Figure 1C). The control horn had well-developed implantation sites that left even spaces between them (Figure 1C). The DGPP treated horn presented embryos with signs of resorption and non-resorpted embryos showing a normal

appearance (Figure 1C). Bleeding areas suggested the beginning of embryonic resorption (Figure 1D). Also, some implantation sites were unevenly distributed and showed embryo crowding (Figure 1E). On Dp 15, the control horn exhibited fetuses with morphology according to their gestational age (Figure 1F). The DGPP horn presented both resorpted and non-resorpted sites (Figure 1F). In adittion, fetuses' crowding in different uterine segments was observed (Figure 1F). Control embryos presented normal placentas and fetal membranes were intact containing clear amniotic fluid inside them (Figure 1G). While, non-resorpted embryos continued growing and were similar to control embryos (Figure 1H), resorpted fetuses showed high hemorrhage, signs of necrosis and reduced size (Figure 1H and 1I). The number of implantation sites in DGPP and control horns was similar and almost 100% of the rats responded to DGPP (Table 2). The fetal resorption rate increased to approximately 54% in Dp8 and the difference was statistically not significant compared to Dp 15 (Table 2). On Dp 8 control, non-resorpted and resorpted implantation units did not differ in their weights (Table 3). On Dp 15 the weight of the uterus and the placenta did not show differences between control and non-resorpted implantation sites, and as expected it was decreased in the resorptions (Table 3). The effect of DGPP on the resorption rate was also seen late in Dp 21, prior to the onset of labor (Figure 2A). DGPP did not have any effect on the onset of parturition as rats gave birth normally on Dp 22. The mothers fed their pups in the same way as did non-treated rats (rats that did not receive vehicle and DGPP). There were no differences that could denote variations between the pups delivered from the DGPP or the vehicle horns and the offspring was quite regular (Figure 2B). Also, the offspring from treated females showed a similar appearance to that from untreated rats (Figure 2B). The growth rate of the pups born of treated mothers did not differ

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from pups born of non-treated females (Figure 2C). In all cases, the body weight of the pups 256 257 significantly increased among weeks (Figure 2C). DGPP treatment induced alterations in vascularization and decidualization. 258 DGPP decreased the cross sectional length of the uterine and arcuate arteries on Dp 8 (Figure 259 260 3A, 3B and 3C). Similar results were observed on Dp 15 (Figure 3D, 3E and 3F). The number of 261 vessels irrigating each implantation site was not affected by DGPP (Table 4). 262 When we analyzed the expression of vascularization markers, we observed that on Dp 8, II-10 263 decreased in resorpted sites (Figure 4A), while Vegf-a (Figure 4B) and Vegf-r1 (Figure 4C) 264 decreased in non-resorpted and resorpted sites. On Dp 15, these markers increased in the 265 placentas obtained from resorpted units (Figure 4D, 4E and 4F). In the uterus, the expression of 266 II-10 (Figure 4G), Vegf-a (Figure 4H) and Vegf-r1 (Figure 4I) did not differ between control, nonresorpted and resorpted implantation sites. VEGF-A protein did not differ in any of the tested 267 conditions (Figure 5A, 5B and 5C). 268 Next, we evaluated whether DGPP treatment affected decidualization. While control implantation 269 sites (Figure 6A) and non-resorpted sites (Figure 6B) presented a highly conserved architecture, 270 271 resorpted units lost part of its normal tissue organization (Figure 6C). Controls showed the 272 characteristic zones of the normal pregnant uterus on Dp 8: the longitudinal and circular muscle layers (Figure 6D), the endometrial glands and vessels (Figure 6E), the primary decidual zone 273 274 (Figure 6F) and the anti-mesometrial decidua (Figure 6G). Non-resorpted sites did not differ with the control. In the resorptions, the longitudinal and circular muscle layers remained conserved 275 (Figure 6C). Although the stromal cells located around the uterine lumen resembled decidual 276

cells (Figure 6H), the primary decidual zone and the anti-mesometrial decidua were not

distinguishable (Figure 6C). Most of the uterine lumen became filled with blood and neutrophils

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were observed along the lumen border (Figure 6H). The stroma located near the muscle layers presented cells and uterine vessels highly disorganized that seemed to be broken (Figure 61). Some endometrial vessels had extravasated neutrophils near the sites of tissue injury (Figure 61). The expression of prolactin (Figure 7A) and IGFBP-1 (Figure 7B), two markers of decidualization, did not change between control, non-resorpted and resorpted implantation sites. Histological studies of the uteri from Dp 15 showed no morphological differences between control (Figure 8A), non-resorpted (Figure 8B) and resorpted (Figure 8C) implantation sites. The endometrial epithelium and the circular and longitudinal muscle layers were present. Control (Figure 8D) and non-resorpted (Figure 8E) placentas presented the typical histological structure with the basal zone, the labyrinth and the basal decidua. The resorpted placentas showed a completely disorganized architecture and the basal decidua, the basal zone and the labyrinth were not distinguishable (Figure 8F). In the control, the labyrinth showed trophoblast cells, fetal erythrocytes and maternal sinusoids filled with maternal blood (Figure 8G). In the basal zone we observed spongiotrophoblasts and glycogen cells (Figure 8H). Also, the giant cells appeared adjacent to the basal decidua (Figure 8I). In the non-resorpted placentas, although most of the tissue appeared as the control, some red blood cells and leukocytes were denoted in the basal decidua (Figure 8J). In the resorpted placentas we observed high tissue disorganization, extensive vacuolation and cellular degeneration (Figure 8K). Trophoblasts appeared disrupted with red blood cells in between them (Figure 8L). Also, we observed zones with extensive fibrin deposition and high neutrophils infiltration (Figure 8M).

Discussion.

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Here we observed that endogenous LPA regulates vascularization and decidualization at the maternal-fetal interfase in the rat. The pharmacological blockade of LPA3 causes vascular and

302 decidual damage that affects placental and embryo development. Most of the studies on LPA 303 reflect its importance as a signaling molecule during migration, proliferation, differentiation and cell survival (Ishii et al. 2004, Ye et al. 2005, Kano et al. 2008, Skoura and Hla 2009), which are 304 essential functions during vascularization and decidualization at the implantation sites. 305 306 As accumulating evidences suggest that LPA3 is the LPA receptor subtype with major 307 participation during embryo implantation (Wei et al. 2009, Achache et al. 2010, Ye et al. 2005), we decided to block LPA3 by injecting DGPP, an LPA3 antagonist. It has been published that the 308 309 expression of LPA3 is decreased in the endometrium of women with endometriosis (Wei et al. 310 2009) and with multiple implantation failures (Achache et al. 2010). The phenotype described for 311 LPA3-/- females is not observed in mice lacking LPA1 or LPA2 (Ye et al. 2005). Deletion of LPA3 312 disrupts fine local balance of progesterone and estrogen signaling in mouse uterus during 313 implantation (Diao et al. 2015). Moreover, only LPA3 is found exclusively expressed in the epithelial endometrium of mice (Ye et al. 2011) and rat (Sordelli et al. 2012) just before 314 implantation begins. Based on binding and functional data described in the data sheet and on a 315 316 previous work from our laboratory (Sordelli et al. 2012, Beltrame et al. 2013), DGPP at the 317 selected doses used here is a highly potent and selective antagonist for LPA3. Thus, taking these data into account we hypothesize that the effects described here elicited by endogenous 318 319 LPA are mediated by LPA3. 320 We postulate that the attachment phase during the implantation process does not depend 321 exclusively on LPA in the rat since attachment of the blastocyst to the luminal epithelium is 322 normal after DGPP administration. However, LPA3 blockade produces significant post-323 implantation defects (embryo crowding and fetal resorption) that are irreversible and stable throughout pregnancy, denoting that LPA3 might be involved in the development of the embryo 324

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positioning/crowding of embryos (Ye et al. 2005). These observations are in accordance with the fact that LPA3 is involved in the generation of the contractions that allow the accurate location of the embryos along the uterine horn (Hama et al. 2007, Ye et al. 2005). The proper coordination of several vascular processes at the maternal-fetal interfase ensures an adequate blood flow in response to the increasing metabolic demands of the embryo (Torry et al. 2007). Our results demonstrate that endogenous LPA via LPA3 regulates the diameter of the main vessels that irrigate the uterus suggesting that a decline in the supply of nutrients and oxygen to the developing embryos might occur after DGPP administration, and therefore some of the embryos survive (non-resorpted) while others are resorpted. Early in gestation, the attachment reaction coincides with increased stromal vascular permeability. Rat implantation sites show significant increase in localized vessel permeability and vessel density. It has been demonstrated that LPA could induce Vegf-c mRNA expression in human umbilical vein endothelial cells and subsequent endothelial cell tube formation (Lin et al. 2008). Further, LPAinduced IL-8 of human first-trimester trophoblast cells functionally enhances multistep processes of angiogenesis including permeability, migration, proliferation, and capillary tube formation of endothelial cells (Chen et al. 2010). The enhancement effects are dependent on LPA1 and LPA3 activation (Lin et al. 2008, Chen et al. 2010). All together, these results suggest that LPA may play a role in angiogenesis of endometrium and placenta. In fact, spatiotemporal and reciprocal interactions between the trophoblast and the endothelium are required for normal angiogenesis during early gestation. Thus, abnormal LPA signaling at the initiation of implantation may result in aberrant regulation of endothelial adaptations, trophoblast functions and angiogenesis. Disruption of these pathways collectively could lead to placental abruption, fetal demise and pregnancy

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Molecular studies on the mRNA expression of *Il-10. Veaf-a* and *Veaf-r1*, three vascularization markers, reflect the macroscopic vascular changes observed in the resorpted sites on Dp 8. Previously, we reported that LPA augments the expression of *II-10* through the activation of LPA3 in the rat pregnant uterus (Sordelli et al. 2012), and this mechanism is also involved in the stimulation of nitric oxide and prostaglandin E2 production, which are key mediators of vascularization (Beltrame et al. 2013). Other authors have also informed that LPA promotes angiogenesis in different biological systems inducing the formation of endothelial capillaries and the secretion of different vascular cytokines (Chen et al. 2008, 2010, Hu et al. 2001, So et al. 2004, Chou et al. 2005, Lin et al. 2008, Zhou et al. 2010). However, on Dp 15, the expression of these markers is increased in the placenta obtained from resorpted sites. We speculate that in Dp 8, the process of vascularization (at the macroscopic and molecular levels) is diminished due to LPA3 antagonism. May be the placenta attempts to compensate the lack of nutrients due to a non-functional decidual vasculature, by increasing the production of those molecules directly involved in angiogenesis. This regulation may be directed by the decidual cells specifically, as in Dp15 the uterine tissue does not show any difference in the markers analyzed. Unfortunately, we were not able to detect differences in the expression of VEGF-A protein. We postulate that as real time RT-PCR technique is more sensible than western blot analyses, modulation in VEGF-A expression could not be detected at the protein level. The decidua supports embryo growth until the placenta is entirely formed (Gellersen and Brosens 2014) and secrets molecules that participate in neovascularization (Lim and Wang 2010). Consequently, failures in vascular and decidual formation seriously compromise the success of implantation and pregnancy. We hypothesized that the damage described in the uterine and

arcuate arteries affects decidualization and placentation. The expression of prolactin and IGFBP-1. which are considered biochemical markers of the decidualization process, is not modified after LPA3 blockade. Interestingly, the decidual cells as well as the placenta from resorpted sites present important alterations in their structure when compared to the control and non-resorpted embryos. Thus, we speculate that changes in the architecture of the decidua are responsible for the embryo resorptions, despite the secretion of prolactin and IGFBP-1. This data support the idea that non-resorpted embryos survive at least in part due to the maintenance of their decidual and placental structure, as these are conserved and similar to control sites. All together, these data suggest that endogenous LPA participates in the formation of the decidua by binding to LPA3. Previously, we observed that LPA augments the expression of IGFBP-1 through LPA3 in Dp 5 rat uterus (Sordelli et al. 2012). We postulate that the difference with the results reported here could be attributed to the experimental models used (in vitro vs in vivo) and/or to the pharmacodynamics of LPA and DGPP. We observed that decidual and placental damage are accompanied by cellular disorganization. hemorrhage, fibrin deposition and infiltration of neutrophils, which are typical events associated with embryo resorption (Ogando et al. 2003, Sacerdoti et al. 2015). Despite the differences observed between the control and non-resorpted sites and placentas, these embryos are able to overpass the defects triggered by DGPP administration and grow and develop normally. More studies are being carried out in order to elucidate the mechanisms by which non-resorpted embryos survive. Interestingly, the uterus seems to retain its tissue architecture and vascular function after LPA3 antagonism, as the histological characteristics and the expression of the vascular markers do not differ between control, non-resorpted and resorpted sites in Dp 15. We postulate that the loss of

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the embryos and their extra-embryonic tissues with the recovery of the maternal tissues and function is related to the preservation of the mother for future pregnancies. Other authors described similar results after Escherichia Coli infections in pregnant mice and rats (Ogando *et al.* 2003, Burdet *et al.* 2009).

The results presented here are supported by previous evidence from our laboratory in which we

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The results presented here are supported by previous evidence from our laboratory in which we described that LPA via LPA3 increases the production of nitric oxide and prostaglandin E2, two main mediators in the formation of new uterine vessels and the transformation of the decidua (Sordelli et al. 2012, Beltrame et al. 2013). Also, both cyclooxygenase-2 and inducible nitric oxide synthase mediated LPA effect on IGFBP-1 and IL-10 expression, suggesting the participation of LPA/LPA3 in the production of crucial molecules involved in decidualization and vascularization. respectively. LPA3 knockout results in reproductive problems in female mice due to difficulty in embryonic implantation (Ye et al. 2005). Cyclooxygenase 2 is down-regulated in LPA3 knockout mice, leading to a reduction of prostaglandins E2 and I2, both of which are important for implantation. As a lipid mediator, LPA is unique in that it is produced and rapidly degraded by specific routes and that its actions are evoked by six cognate G protein-coupled receptors (Fukushima et al. 2015, Aikawa et al. 2015). Activation of these G-proteins through LPA-receptor binding mediates the activity of many important ubiquitous signaling pathways thereby modulating the downstream activity of signaling molecules and effectors such as adenylyl cyclase, cAMP, intracellular Ca²⁺, mitogen-activated protein kinases, phospholipase C, Pl3K/Akt, and small GTPases as Ras, Rho and Rac (Ishii et al. 2004). Thus, LPA/LPA3 downstream signaling pathways could interact with the production of pivotal mediators, as prostaglandins and nitric oxide, that regulate implantation (Ye et al. 2008).

In conclusion, this study reveals that the disruption of endogenous LPA signaling by blocking LPA3 alters the development of the uterine vasculature with consequences in decidualization, the formation of the placenta and the growth of the embryos.

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- Legends.
- Figure 1. DGPP treatment produced aberrant embryo spacing and embryo resorption.
- Females on Dp 5 were injected i.u. with 0.1 mg/kg DGPP (treated horn) and with vehicle

(control horn) and were sacrificed on Dp 6, 7, 8 and 15. (A, B, C and F) Panoramic view of DGPP treated and control horns on Dp 6, 7, 8 and 15 respectively. Dp 8; detailed view of the crowded embryos unevenly distributed (D) and zones of hemorrhage denoting possible embryo resorption (E). Dp 15: uterus, placenta and fetus from a control implantation site (G), detailed view of DGPP treated horn showing non-resorpted and resorpted embryos (H), uterus and a resorpted feto-placental unit from the DGPP treated horn (I). Left horn: injected with DGPP, right horn: control. Black arrows indicate areas with signs of hemorrhage (Dp 7 and 8) and resorpted sites (Dp 15). White arrows denote the equidistant embryo spacing. Open arrows point normal embryos in the control horn and non-resorpted embryos in the DGPP horn. Asterisk indicates a spontaneous resorption in the control horn. N=4-6/group. Dp: day of pregnancy, UT: uterus, PLA: placenta, FPU: feto-placental unit. Figure 2. Effect of DGPP administration on Dp 21 pregnant rats. Females were injected i.u. with 0.1 mg/kg DGPP i.u. (treated horn) and with vehicle (control horn) on Dp 5 and were sacrificed on Dp 21. (A) Panoramic view of DGPP treated and control horns on Dp 21. Left horn: treated, right horn: control. Open arrows point healthy embryos. Black arrows indicate resorpted sites. (B) Litters born from non-treated dams and from mothers treated with DGPP and vehicle. (C) Body weight curve of pups born from non-treated dams and from mothers treated with DGPP and vehicle. The weight of the pups is expressed in mg. Each point represents the mean ± S.E.M. Different letters indicate statistical difference (p<0.05) using ANOVA test (Tukey). N=4-6/group. Dp: day of pregnancy. Figure 3. DGPP treatment reduced the cross sectional length of the uterine and arcuate arteries in pregnant rats on Dp 8 and 15. Pregnant female rats were injected i.u.

with 0.1 mg/kg DGPP (treated horn) and with vehicle (control horn) on Dp 5. Representative

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images of the main vessels irrigating the DGPP and vehicle injected horns are shown on Dp 8 (A) and Dp 15 (D). The cross sectional length of the uterine and arcuate arteries was determined on Dp 8 (B, C) and 15 (E, F). Bars represent the mean \pm S.E.M. Different letters indicate statistical difference (p<0.01) using Student T test. N= 4-6/group. Dp: day of pregnancy.

Figure 4. DGPP administration regulated the mRNA expression of vascularization markers in the implantation sites and placentas of pregnant rats on Dp 8 and 15. Females were injected i.u. with 0.1 mg/kg DGPP (treated horn) and with vehicle (control horn) on Dp 5 and were sacrificed on Dp 8 and 15. The expression of *II-10*, *Vegf-a* and *Vegf-r1* was assessed by real time RT-PCR in the implantation units from Dp 8 (A, B, C) and in the placentas (D, E, F) and uteri (G, H, I) from Dp 15. Bars represent the mean ± S.E.M. Different letters indicate statistical difference (p<0.05) using ANOVA test (Tukey). N=4-6/group. Dp: day of pregnancy, C: control, NR: non-resorpted, R: resorpted.

Figure 5. DGPP administration did not modify the expression of VEGF protein in the implantation sites and placentas of pregnant rats on Dp 8 and 15. Females were injected i.u. with 0.1 mg/kg DGPP (treated horn) and with vehicle (control horn) on Dp 5 and were sacrificed on Dp 8 and 15. The expression of VEGF-A was assessed by western blot in the implantation units from Dp 8 (A) and in the uteri (B) and placentas (C) from Dp 15. Bars represent the mean ± S.E.M. using ANOVA test (Tukey). N=4-6/group. Dp: day of pregnancy, C: control, NR: non-resorpted, R: resorpted.

Figure 6. The administration of DGPP produced changes in the decidua of pregnant rats on Dp 8. Females were injected i.u. with 0.1 mg/kg DGPP (treated horn) and with vehicle (control horn) on Dp 5 and were sacrificed on Dp 8. Control (A, D, E, F, G), non-

resorpted (B) and resorpted (C, H, I, J) implantation sites were stained with hematoxylin and eosin. The upper panel has spiked in the area that is amplified. Scale bars represent 500 uM (A, B, C), 100 μM (D), 50 μM (E, H, I) and 10 μM (F, G, J). Dp: day of pregnancy, PDZ: primary decidual zone, AMD: anti-mesometrial decidua, LM: longitudinal muscle, CM: circular muscle, EV: endometrial vessel, EG: endometrial gland, UL: uterine lumen. Figure 7. DGPP administration did not modify the expression of decidualization markers in the implantation sites on Dp 8. Females were injected i.u. with 0.1 mg/kg DGPP (treated horn) and with vehicle (control horn) on Dp 5 and were sacrificed on Dp 8. The expression of prolactin (A) and IGFBP-1 (B) was assessed by real time RT-PCR in the implantation units from Dp 8. Bars represent the mean ± S.E.M. There was no statistical difference using ANOVA test (Tukey). N=4-6/group. Dp: day of pregnancy, C: control, NR: non-resorpted, R: resorpted. Figure 8. The injection of DGPP did not affect the uterine histology but produced changes in the placentas of pregnant rats on Dp 15. Animals were injected i.u. with 0.1 mg/kg DGPP (treated horn) and with vehicle (control horn) on Dp 5 and were sacrificed on Dp 15. The uteri (A to C) and placentas (G to M) from control (uterus: A, placentas: D, G, H, I), non-resorpted (uterus: B, placenta: E and J) and resorpted (uterus: C, placentas: F, K, L, M) implantation sites were stained with hematoxylin and eosin. Scale bars represent 500 µM (A to F), 50 μM (G to K) and 10 μM (L and M). Dp: day of pregnancy, E: endometrium, CM: circular muscle, LM: longitudinal muscle, L: labyrinth, BZ: basal zone, BD: basal decidua, T: trophoblasts, MS: maternal sinusoids, ME: maternal erythrocytes, FE: fetal erythrocytes, GC: giant cells, GlyC: glycogen cells, ST: spongiotrophoblasts, N: neutrophils, H: hemorrhage, FD: fibrin deposits.

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Table 1.Effect of DGPP administration on the resorption rate.

Treatment	Resorption rate
	(%)
Control (vehicle)	± 0.1a
DGPP 0.05 mg/kg	20.1 ± 4.9a
DGPP 0.1 mg/kg	64.0 ± 4.8^{b}
DGPP 0.2 mg/kg	75.8 ± 5.5^{b}

Pregnant rats were injected on Dp 5 with different doses of DGPP i.u. (treated horn) or with vehicle (control horn). Animals were sacrificed on Dp 15 and the resorption rate was calculated. Data are shown as mean \pm S.E.M. Different letters indicate statistical significance (p<0.01) using ANOVA test (Tukey). N=4-6/group.

Table 2.Effect of DGPP (0.1 mg/kg) on implantation and resorption rate.

Day of	% of animals with	Number of		Resorption ra	ite
gestation	resorptions	implantation s	ites	(%)	
		Control	DGPP	Control	DGPP
		horn	horn	horn	horn
 Dp 8	93	8 ± 2	7 ± 2	1 ± 0.1ª	53.9 ±
					4.2 ^b
Dp 15	100	6 ± 1	7 ± 2	1 ± 0.2ª	64.0 ±
					4.8 ^b

Pregnant rats were treated with 0.1 mg/kg DGPP on Dp 5 i.u. (DGPP horn) or with vehicle (control horn). Animals were sacrificed on Dp 8 and 15. Data are presented as mean \pm S.E.M. Different letters indicate significant difference between treated groups (p<0.05) using Student T test. N = 4-6/group.

Table 3.

Effect of DGPP (0.1 mg/kg) administration on the weight of the implantation units on Dp 8 and the uterus and placenta on Dp 15.

Weight (mg)

	Control	Non-resorpted	Resorpted
Implantation sites	42,7 ± 5,1	47,5 ± 5,2	50,0 ± 4,9a
Dp 8			
Uterus Dp 15	18,5 ± 1,4	21,0 ± 1,5	14,7 ± 1,5 ^b
Placenta Dp 15	21,6 ± 1,6	19,7 ± 1,5	9,9 ± 1,7 ^b

Females on Dp 5 were injected with 0.1 mg/kg DGPP i.u. (treated horn) and with vehicle i.u. (control horn) and were sacrificed on Dp 8 and 15. Tissues' weight is expressed in mg. Data are shown as mean ± S.E.M. Different letters indicate significant difference between treated groups using ANOVA test (Tukey). N=4-6/group.

Table 4.
 Effect of DGPP (0.1 mg/kg) on the number of vessels irrigating implantation sites.

	Dp 8		Dp 15	
	Control horn	DGPP	Control horn	DGPP
		horn		horn
N° of implantation sites	6 ± 1	7 ± 1	6 ± 1	7 ± 1
N° of vessels	12 ± 1	14 ± 2	12 ± 1	14 ± 2
N° of vessels/implantation	2 ± 1	2 ± 1	2 ± 1	2 ± 1
site				

Pregnant rats on Dp 5 were injected i.u. with DGPP (0.1 mg/kg, treated horn) or with vehicle (control horn). Animals were sacrificed on Dp 8 and 15. Data are represented as mean \pm S.E.M. No statistical difference was observed using Student T test. N= 4-6/group.