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IFPA meeting 2015 workshop report IV: Nanomedicine applications and exosome biology, xenobiotics and endocrine disruptors and pregnancy, and lipid mediators and placental function

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1 IFPA Meeting 2015 Workshop Report IV: Nanomedicine Applications and Exosome  
2 Biology, Xenobiotics and Endocrine Disruptors and Pregnancy, and Lipid Mediators  
3 and Placental Function

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36  
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43

44 **Abstract**

45 Workshops are an important part of the IFPA annual meeting, as they allow for  
46 discussion of specialized topics. At the IFPA meeting 2015 there were twelve themed  
47 workshops, three of which are summarized in this report. These workshops were  
48 related to various aspects of placental biology but collectively covered areas of  
49 pregnancy pathologies and placental metabolism: 1) nanomedicine applications and  
50 exosome biology; 2) xenobiotics and endocrine disruptors and pregnancy; 3) lipid  
51 mediators and placental function.

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55 **1. Nanomedicine applications and exosome biology**56 **Chairs:** Carlos Salomon and Jeffrey Keelan57 **Speakers:** Carlos Salomon, Claudia Gohner, Jeffrey Keelan, Helen Jones, Linda  
58 Harris and Roger Smith.

59

## 60 1.1 Outline

61

62 During the past decade, there have been major advances in the field of extracellular  
63 vesicles (EV) research, especially in characterising the composition and functions of  
64 EVs originating from endosomal compartments called exosomes. Exosomes are a  
65 specific subtype of secreted vesicles; they are small (~30-120 nm), very stable, and  
66 are released from a wide range of cells and tissues including the human placenta. This  
67 workshop discussed the nature and content of endogenous placenta-derived  
68 nanovesicles (i.e. exosomes) and their potential prognostic and diagnostic applications  
69 in pregnancy. In addition, the workshop explored recent advances in the design and  
70 application of biosynthetic nanocarriers for targeted drug delivery in pregnancy, with  
71 a focus on placental nanovesicle targeting and uptake.

72

## 73 1.2 Summary

74

75 Dr Carlos Salomon first discussed the hypothesis that placenta-derived exosomes  
76 are a potential early biomarker for complication of pregnancies. Dr Salomon  
77 presented data on the different isolation methods to enrich subpopulations of  
78 extracellular vesicles (EVs) including exosomes. The term EVs is non-specific  
79 classification that include all membrane-bound vesicles with different sizes and  
80 origins. Interestingly, the placenta releases exosomes into the maternal circulation  
81 from as early as 6 weeks of gestation. Release is modulated by the microenvironment  
82 milieu (e.g. oxygen tension and glucose concentration) and correlates with placental  
83 weight and perfusion. The concentration of placenta-derived exosomes in maternal  
84 plasma increases progressively during gestation. At early gestation (i.e. 11-14 weeks),  
85 women who develop GDM later in gestation presented with a higher total number of  
86 exosomes and placenta-derived exosomes compared with values observed in normal  
87 pregnancies at the same stage (i.e. 11-14 weeks).

88

89 Dr Claudia Gohner presented data on the release of syncytiotrophoblast  
90 microvesicles (STBMV) and exosomes from the human placenta. These extracellular  
91 vesicles may show an immune-modulatory function in normal pregnancy and are  
92 believed to be involved in the pathophysiology of preeclampsia, where they are  
93 released in increased number and may contribute to the inflammatory state apparent  
94 throughout the disease. Normal STBMV and exosomes have been shown to guide  
95 monocyte maturation from CD14<sup>++</sup>CD16<sup>-</sup> classical monocytes to CD14<sup>++</sup>CD16<sup>+</sup>  
96 intermediate monocytes and monocyte activation (increased CD11b expression). In  
97 contrast, preeclamptic STBMV lose their ability to lead monocyte maturation and  
98 activation, which indicates an impairment of the STBMV function and may be  
99 connected to the inflammatory reaction in preeclampsia.

100

101 As an introduction to the remaining talks, Professor Jeff Keelan discussed how  
102 the nanoparticulate delivery systems offer a potential avenue for delivering  
103 therapeutics to maternal, placental and fetal tissues for the treatment of a wide range

104 of diseases and conditions in pregnancy. The placenta constitutes a primary drug  
105 target and a drug barrier, as well as a potential target of any toxicity. Prof Keelan  
106 presented a number of options for delivering drugs in pregnancy using targeted  
107 nanoparticle-mediated delivery systems and discussed their advantages, barriers to  
108 further progress, and therapeutic applications. Finally, he presented data from his own  
109 studies exploring biodistribution and placental uptake of polymer-based particles  
110 using both ex-vivo and in-vivo models.

111

112 Dr Helen Jones discussed her studies focused on using nanoparticle-mediate gene  
113 therapy to enhance intrauterine growth in a rodent model. Dr. Jones pointed out that  
114 no treatment is available at the moment for fetal growth restriction (FGR) save early  
115 delivery. Dr Jones described the development of a self-polymerizing HEMA-  
116 DMAEMA co-polymers incubated with PLAC1-human IGF-1 plasmids at an N:P  
117 ratio of 5:1 form nanoparticles that achieved cell-specific gene expression and  
118 function 96 hours after treatment in single and syncytialized BeWo cells and a murine  
119 model of FGR. In pregnant mice, Texas red conjugated nanoparticles were turned  
120 over within 72 hours of systemic or placental delivery and no aberrant transgene  
121 expression seen in maternal or fetal organs. Birthweights in the FGR model were  
122 restored to control levels with nanoparticle treatment. These exciting studies  
123 constitute building blocks for development of potential treatments for FGR in  
124 humans.

125

126 Dr Linda Harris pointed out that enhancement of placental function has been  
127 shown to alleviate maternal symptoms and improve fetal growth in animal models of  
128 pregnancy complications. Candidate drugs have been identified that promote  
129 placental function; however, in many cases it is not appropriate to administer them  
130 systemically to pregnant women. Targeted delivery of therapeutics to the placenta  
131 offers two advantages: the ability to minimise detrimental side effects in maternal and  
132 fetal tissues, and to reduce the dose of therapeutic required to achieve the desired  
133 biological effect. Dr Harris's studies have led to the identification of novel placental  
134 homing peptides for placental targeting; this has enabled the creation of nanoscale  
135 therapeutics for targeted manipulation of placental function. The processes of peptide  
136 screening, nanoparticle synthesis and in vivo testing were discussed.

137

138 Professor Roger Smith presented data on targeted liposomes as a drug delivery  
139 system for the uterus. Pregnancy and child birth are dangerous stages of life for both  
140 the mother and fetus and complications may arise during the term of the pregnancy, or  
141 in relation to labor itself. In this regard, it may be necessary to administer therapeutic  
142 intervention to the uterine tissue; however, how can we administer therapeutic  
143 intervention without affecting other tissues and organs? Liposomes are artificial  
144 phospholipid nano-vesicles ranging in size from 50 – 1000 nm and the most common  
145 and well-investigated nanocarriers for targeted drug delivery. Professor Smith and  
146 colleagues have exploited the selective expression of the oxytocin receptor (OTR) in  
147 the uterus to construct liposomes targeting the myometrium using anti-OTR  
148 antibodies. In vivo, he showed that targeted liposomes successfully accumulate in  
149 tissues that express the OTR (uterus and mammary tissue). Interestingly, some brain  
150 regions also express OTR, however, the targeted liposomes were not localized to  
151 other major organs (*i.e.* heart, brain, kidney and lung) and were not detected in the  
152 neonate. The targeted liposomes were capable of delivering active drug to human

153 myometrial strips, providing proof of concept that selective drug delivery could be  
154 accomplished using this strategy.

155

156

157 1.3 Conclusions and perspective

158

159 EV subtypes from the syncytiotrophoblast (microvesicles and exosomes) are  
160 formed in different processes, and may have different immunologic functions. To  
161 meaningfully ascribe biological functions and/or diagnostic and therapeutic utility to  
162 “extracellular vesicles”, and in particular exosomes, greater specificity and vesicle  
163 characterization is required. Exosomes are a specific population of EVs, requiring  
164 standardisation of isolation methods to enrich a specific population. The functionality  
165 of syncytial EVs differs between normal pregnancy and preeclampsia (PE). For  
166 example, monocytes alter their phenotype after stimulation with PE-derived  
167 microvesicles or those from uncomplicated pregnancies. Finally, it should be  
168 recognised that the net biological effect of all microvesicles and exosomes derived  
169 from the placenta on maternal physiology needs to be studied and understood, as well  
170 as the individual contributions of all the various sub-types, in order to understand  
171 their significance with respect to dialog between the placenta and mother in normal  
172 and complicated pregnancies.

173

174 Placental targeting to increase selectivity and minimise risks of maternal side-  
175 effects or fetotoxicity is showing great promise. Finding a targeting strategy that is  
176 selective, efficient and allows placental uptake is key, but challenging. Estimating  
177 fetal uptake, placental transport and placental accumulation is also key with highly  
178 sensitive quantitative measures required. Adeno-viral mediated placental gene therapy  
179 could lead to over-expression of human growth factors in mouse placenta, alteration  
180 of placental vascularity and placental nutrient transport and improve fetal growth in a  
181 mouse model of Fetal Growth Restriction. Manipulation of intrinsic signalling  
182 pathways within the placenta may represent an alternative treatment strategy.  
183 Identification of placental homing peptides is critical to nanotherapeutics for targeted  
184 manipulation of placental growth. Interestingly, targeted delivery of IGF-II (Harris et  
185 al) increased placental weight but did not increase fetal weight in wild type mice.  
186 Manipulation of intrinsic placental growth signalling with nanoscale therapeutics  
187 enhancing placental growth signalling might reduce the risks associated with systemic  
188 drug administration in pregnancy. We are able to use liposomes to target the delivery  
189 of therapeutics to human uterine tissue in vitro. This targeting system is extremely  
190 flexible; encapsulated different classes of chemical compounds either block or  
191 promote contractions.

192 The attraction and benefits of targeted nanoparticle-mediated drug delivery in  
193 pregnancy are exciting and undeniable. From this workshop it is clear that significant  
194 progress has been made in achieving placental and uterine targeting and delivery of a  
195 variety of classes of drugs (DNA, small molecule drugs) for therapeutic purposes.  
196 Placental targeting using a homing peptide approach (Harris et al) is inexpensive,  
197 effective and appears to be highly selective, while the antibody-based approach  
198 (Smith et al) which is well-validated in other areas of medicine, has been successfully  
199 exploited for uterine delivery. The way has now been paved for others to begin  
200 exploring different nanoparticle construction and cargo configurations for the  
201 treatment of placental disorders in a variety of ex-vivo and in-vivo models. Different  
202 drug classes or combinations of drugs that target multiple aspects of the disease

203 process (e.g. receptor expression, intracellular signalling, transport and export) can be  
204 evaluated using the nanoparticle-based drug delivery strategies discussed in this  
205 workshop. Detailed biodistribution/pharmacokinetic studies and accurate and  
206 sensitive assessment of fetal exposure, drug accumulation and toxicity will be critical  
207 in allowing these approaches to move past the animal model stage into preclinical  
208 trials. Currently, only 0.1% of the trials listed at Clinicaltrials.gov are in  
209 nanoparticles, mainly due to the many challenges to transition nanomedical research  
210 into a commercial product. Of the multiples barriers are the FDA (Food and Drug  
211 Administration) approval process that can delay the initiation of the trial for over 2  
212 years, patient enrolment, comparison with conventional medicine, investment as well  
213 as safety concerns. Interestingly, establishment of regulatory guidelines from the  
214 FDA, which are specific for nanomedicine and nanotechnology products, has been  
215 proposed. Finally, the possibility needs to be explored that exosomes and other  
216 vesicles that are shed from the syncytiotrophoblast may act as decoy receptors for  
217 placenta-targeted nanoparticle drug delivery systems. This needs to be carried out in  
218 order to assess the potential impact of this phenomenon on nanoparticle drug dose,  
219 clearance and efficacy in the therapeutic context.

## 222 2. Xenobiotics and endocrine disruptors and pregnancy

223 **Chairs:** Padma Murthi Murray Mitchell

224 **Speakers:** Murray Mitchell, Jeffery Keelan, Cathy Vaillancourt, Richard Saffery,  
225 Vicki Clifton and Padma Murthi.

### 227 2.1 Outline

229 Endocrine disruptors are exogenous substances that alter endocrine function and  
230 consequently causes adverse health effects in an intact organism, its progeny, or  
231 subpopulations. They may do so by interfering with the production, release, transport,  
232 metabolism, binding, action, or elimination of natural hormones responsible for the  
233 maintenance of homeostasis and the regulation of developmental processes. Pregnant  
234 women are exposed to various potential endocrine disrupting chemicals through diet,  
235 medication use, occupational or environmental activities and other lifestyle factors.  
236 Epidemiological studies have associated altered pregnancy and fetal outcomes with  
237 exposure to contaminants such as heavy metals, polychlorinated biphenyls, dioxins  
238 and pesticides. The main focus of our workshop was to discuss how endocrine  
239 disruption leads to change in endocrine-regulated physiology in utero and contributes  
240 to adverse pregnancy and neonatal outcomes.

### 242 2.2 Summary

244 Professor Murray Mitchell reviewed the use of a method of ex vivo perfusion of  
245 the human placenta to assess transplacental transfer of substances, with emphasis on  
246 xenobiotics and endocrine disruptors. The use of this approach to determine the  
247 transfer of endocrine disruptors across the human placenta was presented. In  
248 particular, Professor Mitchell presented data on the transfer of Bisphenol A, 4-  
249 nonylphenol and genistein. Comparisons with their structural similarity to estradiol  
250 were attempted. Finally, information from data on the placental transfer of  
251 gangliosides and transthyretin was discussed.

253 Professor Jeffery Keelan discussed that bisphenol A (BPA) is a ubiquitous  
254 endocrine disrupting chemical that exerts a wide range of cellular effects, through  
255 multiple mechanisms. Professor Keelan presented data on human exposure to BPA  
256 during pregnancy and the implications for fetal development and the incidence of  
257 pregnancy complications. Professor Keelan also presented his own data on BPA  
258 levels in the amniotic cavity of pregnancy and the need for critical interpretation of  
259 these data in order to arrive at justifiable conclusions around exposure and risk.

260

261 Dr. Cathy Vaillancourt presented data on depression, which occurs in up to 25%  
262 of pregnant women, a third of which undergoes antidepressant treatment, mainly with  
263 selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs). The placenta serves as an early source  
264 of the serotonin, which is critical in embryonic and fetal developmental processes.  
265 Serotonin can also induce aromatase (CYP19) in placental cell lines. However, the  
266 effects of SSRIs on the serotonin and estrogen systems placenta have never been  
267 studied. Using both a unique co-culture of BeWo (human trophoblast-like) and  
268 H295R (human fetal-like adrenocortical) cells, a model of feto-placental  
269 steroidogenesis and a rat model, it was demonstrated that SSRIs i) induced alterations  
270 in serotonin systems in the placenta and fetal heart and ii) disrupts placental serotonin  
271 transport and estrogen biosynthesis.

272

273 Professor Vicki Clifton discussed several placental mechanisms that function in a  
274 sex specific manner and could be potentially be affected in a sex specific manner by  
275 endocrine disruption. More recently, this team has found several different isoforms of  
276 the glucocorticoid receptor in the human placenta which varies in relation to fetal sex  
277 and could result in alterations in the placental response to phathlates. The exact  
278 mechanisms mediated by the steroid receptors that result in detrimental responses to  
279 endocrine disruption in the placenta are yet to be defined.

280

281 Dr. Richard Saffery discussed the molecular mechanisms underpinning the link  
282 between in utero exposure to plastic product chemicals (PPC) and adverse offspring  
283 outcomes in humans, a linkage which remains largely unexplored. The advent of  
284 longitudinal birth cohorts, commencing in pregnancy, offers unparalleled  
285 opportunities to address this issue and builds the level of causal evidence. The  
286 Barwon Infant Study (BIS) is a longitudinal, population-derived study of 1074 infants  
287 with antenatal recruitment. A total of nineteen plastic product chemicals are being  
288 measured in 1000 maternal urine samples collected in pregnancy. Cognitive, language  
289 and motor development have been assessed in infants at two years of age with the  
290 extensively validated Bayley-III scale. Planned genome-wide studies in placenta and  
291 blood at birth and age one will provide unparalleled insights into the link between  
292 PPC exposure in utero, early life epigenetic profile, and childhood health outcomes.

293

294 Dr. Padma Murthi presented some preliminary studies on the effect of bisphenol  
295 A (BPA) on human placental growth control gene expression using choriocarcinoma  
296 derived trophoblast cell line BeWo as an in vitro model system. Cultured cells were  
297 exposed to environmentally relevant concentrations of BPA (0.1-2 µg/ml) for up to  
298 24h, after which levels of polarity genes Scribble, Disc Large Homolog1 (DLG1) and  
299 Lethal Giant Larvae (LGL1 and LGL2) mRNA, protein and activity were determined  
300 by qRT-PCR and Western immunoblotting. BPA dramatically decreased levels of  
301 Scribble and LGL protein and mRNA in a time- and concentration-dependent manner  
302 (< 2-fold). The functional role Scribble and LGL was determined using sequence



303 specific siRNAs. Both Scribble and LGL selectively inhibited trophoblast cell  
304 adhesion to matrices including laminin and fibronectin.

305

306

307 2.3 Conclusions

308 Evidence suggests that BPA can disrupt estrogen-sensitive developmental processes,  
309 although several studies indicate that environmental exposure at typical levels does  
310 not have effects on reproduction or development. In this workshop findings  
311 suggesting that disturbances in serotonin signalling may be responsible for the  
312 pregnancy complications associated with SSRIs treatment was discussed.  
313 Interestingly, sex difference in cortisol-regulated pathways of the placenta has been  
314 observed. Preliminary data link elevated maternal phthalates with poorer  
315 neurodevelopmental outcomes at age two, and to measureable differences in the cord  
316 blood epigenetic profile. BPA severely disrupts human placental polarity gene  
317 expression in vitro, which suggests that exposure to BPA may contribute to altered  
318 placental function and consequent pregnancy complications.

319

320

### 321 3. Lipid Mediators and Placental Function

322 **Chairs:** Denise Hemmings and Christiane Albrecht

323 **Speakers:** Christiane Albrecht, Isabella Caniggia, Denise Hemmings, Alicia  
324 Jawerbaum, Ed Johnstone, Rohan Lewis, Theresa Powell, Christian Wadsack.

325

#### 326 3.1 Outline

327

328 Despite progress over the past few years in understanding the role of lipids in  
329 placental function and implications of lipid dysfunction in poor pregnancy outcomes,  
330 many questions remain. The format of this workshop was highly interactive,  
331 providing the attendees an opportunity to join one of two small group discussions  
332 (two topics per group) led by experts in the field. The workshop began with Dr.  
333 Albrecht and Dr. Hemmings highlighting outstanding questions in each topic area that  
334 were raised by the facilitators.

335

336

#### 337 3.2 Summary

338

339 There is a lack of understanding as to how much signalling occurs by the high  
340 levels of fatty acids and lipids in maternal blood to regulate placental function and  
341 how much lipid is utilized by the placenta itself compared to the amount transported  
342 to the fetus. What is the gatekeeper that determines how much and what lipid species,  
343 for example, goes to the fetus for brain development versus how much is converted to  
344 cholesterol for use by the placenta? Is the storage pool versus the amount transferred  
345 determined by compartmentalization? New data suggests fatty acid signalling occurs  
346 through Toll-like receptor (TLR) or G protein-coupled receptors (GPR) receptors on  
347 the trophoblast that impacts function, development and growth of the placenta.  
348 Additional data is needed to understand whether lipid levels reflect the mother's diet  
349 or the release later in pregnancy of certain fatty acids and lipids stored in maternal  
350 adipose tissue in response to signals from the placenta. Can the syncytiotrophoblast  
351 determine what lipids are needed by the fetus and only transport those and utilize less  
352 critical fatty acids for oxidation? It is well established that lipids are required for fetal

353 brain development and fat deposition in the fetus with brown fat essential for  
354 thermoregulation of the newborn. However, no other primates are born with fat  
355 deposits. The possibility was raised during the IFPA meeting (by Professor Roger  
356 Smith) that fat is stored in the fetus for utilization in brain development after birth in  
357 the event that the lipids from lactation are not optimal.

358

359 Dr. Christian Wadsack discussed possible maternal to fetal lipid uptake routes  
360 through the placenta, e.g. the selective uptake of cholesteryl-ester derived from  
361 maternal derived high-density lipoprotein (HDL) or uptake of the complete HDL that  
362 carries lipids like sphingosine 1-phosphate (S1P). Alternatively, S1P can signal  
363 through S1P receptors on the trophoblast to generate responses. Dr. Wadsack and Dr.  
364 Lewis are using stable isotope labelled fatty acids to study uptake, metabolism and  
365 transfer in perfused placentas as a basis for computational modelling. It is unknown  
366 whether the uptake of fatty acids are concentration dependent but from the total  
367 amount of fatty acids associated with albumin and infused in a placental perfusion  
368 system, 5-12% appear to cross to the fetal side suggesting large amounts of lipid are  
369 taken up and stored or utilized by the placenta itself. There is evidence both for and  
370 against preferential transport of docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) by the placenta. Dr.  
371 Wadsack's work suggests that the more unsaturated fatty acids remain in the placenta  
372 longer. Dr. Powell and Professor Roger Smith indicated that DHA transfer was slower  
373 in placentas from pregnant women with high BMIs.

374

375 Dr. Theresa Powell raised the question of whether high triglycerides are toxic to  
376 the placenta leading to inflammation in light of some unpublished work showing that  
377 some obese women have high triglycerides but small rather than the expected large  
378 babies. The group then discussed the presence, function and regulation of lipid  
379 droplets in trophoblasts, particularly in light of work presented by Professor Yoel  
380 Sadovsky showing that sequestration of lipids by the trophoblasts can protect against  
381 lipotoxicity. PPAR gamma may act as a master regulator where the placenta packages  
382 excess lipids into intracellular storage droplets. Excess accumulation of lipids in  
383 droplets is typically detrimental and human placentas have been observed to contain  
384 lipid droplets. Dr. Powell suggested that lipid droplets are only observed under  
385 abnormal conditions such as diabetes and that DHA supplementation can alter these  
386 levels. Although Dr. Alicia Jawerbaum did not specifically investigate lipid droplets  
387 in a diabetic rat model, she found that PUFA-enriched diets increased placental lipid  
388 content but reduced lipids in fetal circulation and fetal liver. Sequestration in the  
389 placenta is a potential mechanism. It will be important to determine the role of  
390 accumulated lipids in the lipid droplets.

391

392 Both Dr. Powell and Dr. Jawerbaum raised the concept of transgenerational  
393 programming of lipid dysfunction in obesity and maternal high fat diets. The role of  
394 PPARs and the potential benefits of PUFA intake during pregnancy were discussed.  
395 Lipid droplets were observed in an obese mouse model where fat was deposited in  
396 inappropriate organs and the offspring were born with fatty liver disease. Placental  
397 desaturase activities are decreased in diabetes, but were not normalized if the obese  
398 mothers were put on high PUFA diets. Further work is needed to understand the  
399 putative benefits of these diets in preventing programming effects.

400

401 Discussions of models to study lipid transport centred on the positives and  
402 negatives of using cell lines such as SGHPL4 and Swan 71 (Dr. Ed Johnstone) or

403 BeWo (Dr. Isabella Caniggia) compared to polarized primary cytotrophoblasts (Dr.  
404 Christiane Albrecht), placental explants (Dr. Kent Thornburg and Dr. Isabella  
405 Caniggia) or whole lobule perfusion models (Dr. Albrecht, Dr. Lewis and Dr.  
406 Wadsack). The use of fluorescent dyes, which are transported and metabolized, to  
407 examine lipid droplets compared to the use of stable isotopes was discussed. The  
408 validity of very rapid transport of “BODIPY” lipid probes observed using the  
409 perfusion system was discussed with a suggestion that the lipophilic nature of the  
410 label itself could explain the rapid transfer. The panel discussed the secondary  
411 placental lobes of the non-human primates and the normal physiology of bilobed  
412 placentas and how these affect lipid transport. The question of whether lipid transport  
413 across species was the same arose with no conclusive answer. A high fat diet in  
414 macaques leads to a higher stillbirth rate that could indicate a negative impact on  
415 transporter uptake and activity. Dr. Caniggia discussed autophagy to raise the  
416 question of improving models to examine lipid metabolism and transport by using  
417 mass spectrometry to identify and localize lipids that could then be related to protein  
418 receptors and/or effectors. Lipid signalling and implantation appears to be an area of  
419 research that is understudied. Ceramide polarizes cells in general and could therefore  
420 impact lipid transport across the placenta (Dr. Caniggia); however, little appears to be  
421 known about the transport of circulating ceramide.

422

### 423 3.3 Conclusions

424

425 The group discussions focused on the importance of lipid metabolism for  
426 placental function, the tools we have for assessment and the impact of pregnancy  
427 complications on both placental usage and transport of lipids to the fetus, e.g. during  
428 obesity and diabetes. Identification of outstanding research questions on the role of  
429 lipids in placental function and fetal outcomes was a valuable outcome of this  
430 workshop. It is hoped that researchers in this field and those who are new will begin  
431 to focus on these important questions. We have ignored the lipid status of the mother  
432 for too long – it is time to make this a priority.

433

434

### 435 **Conflict of interest statement**

436

None of the authors has any conflict of interest to declare.