Maternal Nutrition and Fetal Programming of the Immune system: Epidemiological and Experimental Evidences

Maternal nutrition will not only affects pregnancy outcomes (such as birth weight) but will also affect the state of the fetus in their adult life in terms of diseases occurrence and also immune system development. Inadequate nutrition particularly will have a negative impact on the proliferation of the various cell populations responsible for the immune functions as well as the accumulation of high concentrations of inflammatory components. Maternal nutrition affects immunity 'programming' during the period of pre-natal and post-natal life. Over the last decade, epidemiological and experimental studies have helped to expedite more understanding of immunity 'programming.' External exposures such as smoking, alcohol and drugs during fetal life have also shown to have an impact on immunity 'programming.' In this review, the relationship between fetal programming and the immune system, such as effects on the various immune-cellular components through some evidence from epidemiological and experimental models will be discussed.

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Keywords: Maternal nutrition, fetal programming, immune system, thymus

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17 **1. INTRODUCTION**

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19 Programming is the term used to represent the effect of the condition in the womb to the 20 development imprint of the fetus in the adult life [1, 2]. Major programming outcome is the 21 greatest during the particular critical period of development of the organs [3]. The theory of 22 'fetal programming' in relation to the outcome of the adult diseases was first described by Dr 23 David Barker [4]. During pregnancy, the condition of the maternal nutrition, will not only 24 affect pregnancy outcomes (such as birth weight) but will also affect the state of the fetus in 25 their adult life in terms of diseases occurrence and also immune system development [2]. Fetal programming has been linked to the incidence of various adult diseases such as 26 27 hypertension, obesity, cardiovascular diseases and diabetes [2, 5]. In this review, the 28 relationship between fetal programming and the immune system, such as effects on the 29 various immune-cellular components through some evidence from epidemiological and 30 experimental models will be discussed.

The mechanism of how programming occurs is still not entirely understood. Over the last decades, however, several underlying theories have been identified. One of the main theories of fetal programming showed that it was due to epigenetic alteration such as DNA methylation by certain nutrients, which consequently affects gene expression and phenotype [6-12]. DNA methylation affects cell proliferation, thus has an impact on the development of body organs and its functions [8, 9]. This will, in turn, cause some developmental changes or adaptations. As a result, long term effects on the immune system will be seen as a result of this growth alteration. Interest on epigenetic nutritional programming effect has led to the study of various types of nutrients to determine their effect on gene expression and subsequently fetal outcome. For instance, in one of an earlier study, reported that amino acids played a very important role in the modulation of the initiation phase of mRNA translation, therefore affecting protein synthesis and tissues growth [13]. Another study has also identified that glucose intake affects the transcription of enzyme fatty synthase which is responsible for converting glucose to fatty acids [14].

In the intrauterine, fetal normally develops in a low oxygen environment and has low 45 antioxidants capacity to eliminates Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) [15]. Oxidative stress, 46 47 which is the accumulation of ROS was also believed to be one of the underlying theory 48 behind fetal programming [15, 16]. Oxidative stress in the intrauterine environment can 49 occur as a consequence from prenatal hypoxia (high oxygen exposures due to smoking), 50 undernourishment or overnutrition and exposures to metabolites such as glucocorticoid [15]. High levels of ROS have been associated with an increased incidence of hypertension in 51 52 adult life which was first reported in rat studies [17]. Free radical species in the intrauterine 53 environment may subsequently disrupt the endothelial cell lining of the blood vessels as well 54 as other organs such as the heart, therefore, contributing to heart diseases [18, 19].

55 Tissues proliferation and organs development take place at different rates and stages during 56 fetal life [10]. Therefore, one of the main challenges in understanding the theory of fetal 57 programming of the immune system is to identify the critical period of development by which any insults during that period will lead to permanent changes or effect. The 'programming' of 58 59 the immune system was believed to occur particularly during early gestation periods and 60 during the post-natal life [10]. The main reason for this claim was that, during the early and late gestation period, demands for nutrients for various organs growth, including the thymus 61 62 are significantly important [20].

63 The fetus entirely depends on the mother's nutrition supply for growth [12, 21]. Maternal 64 nutrition has 'programming' effect on the development of the immune system in adult life [22, 65 23]. The hypothesis of maternal nutrition on epigenetic alteration leading to the development 66 of various organs such as thymus and its implication to some adult diseases [24]. The 67 production of methyl groups occurred with the help of various nutrients such as Vitamin B6, folate, selenium and histories (the activation of suppression of gene expression) [24, 25]. In 68 69 addition, the availability of methyl groups for methylation processes on various locus 70 positions leads to alteration of the gene expression for cell proliferation, differentiation and 71 many other vital processes. Maternal nutrition affects the size and composition of the fetus at 72 birth which in turn reflects the condition of their health in the future [25].

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2.1 Evidences from epidemiological and experimental studies

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76 Majority of the experimental studies on fetal programming involves the use of animal models 77 such as rats or sheep. Animal studies provide useful background information on the 78 biochemical processes as well as the consequences of nutrition on fetal programming. 79 Furthermore, experimental evidence of fetal programming in humans is a very challenging 80 task. This is because it is ethically unacceptable to manipulate the diet of pregnant women 81 for a purpose of experimental studies. Despite the study limitation, however, there was a lot 82 of evidence from epidemiological evidence to summarize the effect of maternal nutrition 83 during pre-natal and post-natal on fetal programming of the immune cellular components. 84 One important point that needs to be well understood is that the programming effect is not 85 entirely produced by a single known nutrient. Programming effect is produced as a result of 86 a combination of various types of macronutrients and micronutrients supplied from the 87 mother to the fetus. The effect of these nutrients on the development of various components

of the immune system such as lymphoid organs particularly thymus will also be discussedhere.

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91 Inadequate nutrition particularly will have a negative impact on the proliferation of the various 92 cell populations responsible for the immune functions as well as the accumulation of high 93 concentrations of inflammatory components [15, 16, 20]. In the context of immune function, 94 the organ which plays a very important role is the thymus (which is responsible for 95 maturation of the T cells and others). The thymus is important for releasing T-cells which 96 circulates in the body to monitor the presence of harmful antigens [10, 20]. Therefore, the 97 proper development in the thymus during fetal life is important in order to achieve good 98 immune system integrity.

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100 The outcome of prenatal exposures to undernutrition was observed in infants who were born 101 during Dutch Famine from 1944 to 1945 in the Netherlands [26, 27]. In the follow-up, it was 102 found that babies who were exposed to maternal undernutrition during early, mid or late 103 gestation of the pregnancy produced different programming outcomes. This is because 104 based on the observations, a different type of diseases was developed in their adult life. For 105 example, higher incidences of heart diseases and obesity cases for those that have been 106 exposed to famine in earlier gestation periods compared those not exposed to the famine 107 periods [26]. The exposure of famine during the mid-gestation was found to be highly 108 associated with the incidence of respiratory problems [26]. Therefore, this earlier evidence 109 has shown that various period of maternal undernutrition during pregnancy is critical to the 110 development of different types of organs in the growing fetus.

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112 In another epidemiological study, the effect of maternal nutrition during the hungry and 113 harvest period was investigated in Gambian infants study [28]. In this study, the thymus size 114 of the infants was compared between the hungry and harvest periods. It was found that 115 babies born during the hungry period had smaller sized thymus compared to those born 116 during the harvest season. Those born during the hungry season were also found to be 117 more likely to develop infections and have higher mortality. Therefore, this particular study showed that the 'programming' period of the immune system may occur during early post-118 119 natal life. However, there are many other confounding factors need to be considered, such 120 as breast milk quality because it will also affect the immune system development against infections in an infant during early post-natal life [29]. Therefore, maternal undernutrition at 121 122 any stages of pregnancy has a very large impact on the programming of the immune system. It has been shown that fetal development is highly responsive particularly to the 123 124 period of undernourishment as observed in the fetal exposure study during the Dutch 125 Famine [26, 27].

126 However, there are some drawbacks from the epidemiological studies as it may vary in 127 terms of the type of participants (race, ethnicity, regions), type of nutrients exposure and 128 exposures time which may affect the study outcome. Despite the growing evidence, the 129 debate on the relationship between nutrition and immune system development is still 130 ongoing. The evidence of fetal programming from the epidemiological studies can be 131 supported scientifically via experimental studies. Generally, most of the epidemiological 132 evidence showed that the most sensitive period to undernutrition is during post-natal life. 133 However, in experimental studies, it was shown that maternal undernutrition not only 134 sensitive during post-natal life but also during pre-natal life.

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One of the significant findings was evidence that maternal nutrition affects the size of the thymus, which is one of the important components of the immune system. The size of the thymus is associated with the strength of the immune system function. The fundamental evidence is that as we get older, the thymic activity tends to decline which is subsequent to a reduction in the immune system competence to fight diseases or infections [30]. A study 141 attempted to demonstrate the effect on the immune system of male rats exposed to 142 inadequate and adequate maternal nutrition during their fetal life in response to endotoxin 143 during weaning. The outcome of the study showed that a pup, which has been exposed to 144 low maternal nutrition has poor immune response towards endotoxin. This study showed 145 that maternal undernutrition leads to reduced integrity of the immune system. More specific 146 studies were carried out using various types of nutrients. In the following section, various 147 types of nutrients with its impact on certain components of the immune system will be 148 discussed.

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150 2.1.1 Protein-energy malnutrition

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152 One of the most studied nutrients in this area of fetal programming is the protein-energy 153 malnutrition. Protein malnutrition was shown to have detrimental effects on the thymus 154 development. A study has shown that protein-energy malnutrition exposure to pregnant rats 155 led to massive decrease to the thymus and spleen level proliferation in the offspring 156 compared to rats with adequate protein diet [31]. A study has also shown that human patients with protein-energy malnutrition were also found to be more vulnerable to parasites 157 158 infection in the stomach [32]. These studies showed that protein nourishment from the 159 mother produced a programming effect on thymus development. Similarly, in a sheep study 160 has shown that protein malnutrition reduced the ability of the sheep to fight against 161 nematode infection compared to those exposed with adequate protein [33]. In human, 162 protein-energy malnutrition has been associated with increased risks of various diseases in 163 children such as marasmus or Kwashiorkor which is one of the major health problems in 164 many developing countries [34].

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Therefore, based on the studies described above, there is a very strong link between protein-energy malnutrition and the integrity of the immune system. Adequate protein nourishment is required to ensure the ideal environment for the thymus to develop during fetal life in order to survive better after birth. It was also believed that protein helps to increase the proliferation of goblet lymphocytes of the mucosal which plays a very important role in elimination harmful agents such as bacteria or viruses that can cause diseases [35].

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173 2.1.2 Micronutrients: Selenium

174 Apart from the major macronutrients such as proteins, micronutrients such as selenium also 175 play a very important role in the programming effect of the immune system components. 176 Poor intake of selenium by the female rats that breastfed disrupt the proliferation of natural 177 killer cells and cytotoxic T-cells in the offspring [36]. Selenium has an antioxidant capacity to 178 eliminate ROS in the body [37]. Therefore, adequate intake of selenium may, in turn, 179 produce a preferable programming effect by preventing the action of ROS. Furthermore, as 180 mentioned earlier, free radicals may complicate development during neonatal life [16]. 181 Inadequate supply of selenium to the offspring from the mother's breast milk leads to 182 increased chances of getting infections. This particular study was another example to show 183 that programming of the immune system not only occurs during gestation periods but also 184 takes place during post-natal life of the infant. In the earlier study, selenium may help to 185 reduce the level of ROS, but this does not affect the survival of those babies with lungs 186 oxidative complications (Barlow et al., 2006). However, the latest study in mice has shown 187 that selenium does have protective effects against free radicals in the lungs and liver, as a 188 result of oxidative stress exposures such as smoking [38]. Therefore, the role of selenium in 189 relation to the immune system programming is still not fully understood and calls for more 190 studies in this field.

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192 **2.1.3 Alcohol exposure**

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194 There are also growing interested in the study of alcohol exposure to fetal development in 195 the uterus [39, 40]. In the US, up to 3% of the babies born shown impact from alcohol 196 exposures during fetal life [41]. Studies in fetal sheep have shown that prenatal exposures 197 during the second trimester have led to a major detrimental effect on the brain development 198 of the fetus [42, 43]. It is reported that children commonly have poor brain functions as a 199 result of the alcohol exposure (Taylor et al, 2006). The affected children were found to have 200 very low scores in their IQ test due to impaired cognitive performance. Due to the affected 201 brain functions, the immune system will be affected as well because these two systems 202 worked closely together. Therefore, disturbances to the brain functions due to alcohol 203 exposures will, in turn, affect the integrity of the immune system as well (due to the 204 hypothalamic-pituitary axis relationship).

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206 2.1.4 Smoking and drug exposures

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208 Several studies have attempted to identify the effect of smoking on the various immune 209 system components. In a study, post-natal rats were injected with nicotine, were found to 210 have reduced T-cells response ability towards exposure to a mutagenic compound called 211 Calvonolin A (Misra, 2006). This experiment proved that smoking will impair the proper 212 development of the immune system which affects one of the important components, the T-213 cells. Studies have shown that smoking exposures during early post-natal life, affect the 214 programming of the immune system via the impairment of the interferon 1, which makes 215 babies more susceptible to infection and allergic reactions [44]. Exposures to smoking in the 216 womb were also believed to affect the proper function of Natural Killer Cells which may lead 217 to premature birth or spontaneous abortion [45]. It was also observed that maternal smoking 218 has resulted in significantly reduced birth weights of their babies compared to non-smoking mothers [46]. Therefore, due to these observations, pregnant mothers need to abstain from 219 220 smoking not just for the health of the mother but also affects the susceptibility to infections 221 and allergic reactions of the developing fetus.

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223 Drugs are sometimes administered during pregnancy in case of certain health issues or 224 complications. Drugs may also result in adverse effects on fetal organ development such as 225 kidneys. In particular, it was stated that the use of high doses of a steroidal type of drugs 226 may lead to impairment of brain development as shown in animal studies. Thymus, as part 227 of the brain, therefore may also be affected. Due to the growing concern of drugs towards 228 fetal development, safer treatment alternative is suggested for pregnant women. There is 229 also a need to educate pregnant women on the effects of drugs during pregnancy because 230 as reported in India, only about 30% of the women are aware that drugs may have 231 detrimental effects on pregnancy

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234 3. CONCLUSIONS

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Maternal nutrition impacts the development of the immune system including other important biochemical components [31]. In particular, many studies relates to maternal undernutrition with poor thymus development [20, 28]. Thymus development is important because it affects the integrity of the immune system. Poor thymus development increases vulnerability to bacterial infection and allergic reactions development such as asthma [20, 44]. Therefore, adequate nourishment during fetal life is very crucial because, in turn, this will affect immunity against various types of viral and bacterial infection.

243 Despite the ongoing investigations, to identify the relationship between nutrition and the 244 immune system, many questions remain unanswered. Much of the reports were from 245 epidemiological studies, a lot of confounding factors needed to be considered. For example, 246 different human subjects have been exposed to different living environment and culture, 247 therefore, their eating habits will differ a lot. Another factor that affects the mother's nutrients 248 intake is also their socio-economic status, which also needed to be considered. In terms of 249 animal studies, there are a lot of similarities in the thymus and spleen development in human 250 and animals such as rats and sheep, which makes them suitable as a comparison to human 251 studies. In general, most of the animal studies focused mainly on a single nutrients effect on fetal programming of the immune system functions. In the real world, organ development 252 253 requires various types of nutrients. Such single nutrient study may be inconclusive or 254 adequate as evidence. A more effective nutrition based studies, such as a complete 255 controlled diet with adequate large samples or models may be useful to support the 256 evidence. In human epidemiological studies, combined nutrient studies might be difficult to 257 implement, but may be more feasible in animal models such as mice, rats or sheep. 258 Combination of both studies, experimental and epidemiological studies, however, so far has 259 established more understanding on the topic of fetal programming, not just the immune 260 system but also various types of adult diseases such as obesity and hypertension. A future 261 suggestion is to conduct long term epidemiologic studies by involving large sample numbers 262 with stringent records of their nutrition and medicines exposures. Another research that 263 could be done is to observe the effect of maternal overnutrition on the development of the 264 immune system. This is because overfeeding has also proven to show an impact on the 265 programming of certain diseases such as obesity. Therefore, it is possible that overnutrition 266 may also have an impact on the development of the cellular components of the immune 267 system.

Epidemiological and experimental studies have helped to develop a much better understanding on the subject of fetal programming of the immune system. Conclusively, the knowledge on fetal programming not only benefits human but also major interests in the field of agricultural sciences to ensure a healthy breed of animals. By understanding this theory further, health standards can be improved through diet and nutrition intervention at a much early stage via maternal nutrition. This is important particularly in the third world countries where medical intervention may not be easily accessible and expensive.

275 276

277 COMPETING INTERESTS

- 278
- 279 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

280 CONSENT

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282 It is not applicable

284 ETHICAL APPROVAL

285286 It is not applicable

287 288 **REFERENCES**

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