



Universidade Federal de Pernambuco – UFPE  
Centro Acadêmico de Vitória – CAV

**Programa de Pós-Graduação em Nutrição, Atividade Física e Plasticidade Fenotípica – PPGNAFPF**

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## DISSERTAÇÃO DE MESTRADO

# **PARÂMETROS BIOQUÍMICOS E VENTILATÓRIOS DE RATOS SUBMETIDOS ÀS DIETAS HIPOPROTEICA PERINATAL E HIPERLIPÍDICA PÓS DESMAME**

**Sávio dos Santos Barbosa**

**Recife, 2017**



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**Orientadora: Profa. Dra. Alice Valença Araújo**

**Coorientador: Prof. Dr. João Henrique da Costa Silva**

Dissertação apresentada à Universidade Federal de Pernambuco, como parte das exigências do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Nutrição, Atividade Física e Plasticidade Fenotípica, área de concentração em Bases Experimentais e Clínicas da Plasticidade Fenotípica, para a obtenção do título de Mestre.

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## **SÁVIO DOS SANTOS BARBOSA**

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Dissertação apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Nutrição, Atividade Física e Plasticidade Fenotípica da Universidade Federal de Pernambuco, como requisito parcial para obtenção do título de Mestre.

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Dedico este trabalho meu pai Severino Amaro, minha mãe Maria Helena, meu irmão Saulo  
Barbosa, e meu tio Luiz de Sousa Barbosa por me ajudarem, direta ou indiretamente, a chegar  
onde estou hoje.

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“Jamais considere seu estudos como uma obrigação, mas como uma oportunidade invejável (...) Para aprender a conhecer a influência libertadora da beleza do espírito, para seu próprio prazer pessoal e para proveito da comunidade a qual seu futuro trabalho pertencer”.

**Albert Einstein**

## RESUMO

A desnutrição proteica materna e o consumo de dieta hiperlipídica são capazes de alterar, de forma isolada, parâmetros ventilatórios e bioquímicos. No entanto, a resposta bioquímica e ventilatória apresentada pelo organismo que passa por períodos de desnutrição proteica materna e consome uma dieta hiperlipídica é desconhecido. Este estudo avaliou os efeitos da associação de uma dieta hipoproteica durante gestação e lactação com uma dieta hiperlipídica após o desmame sobre os parâmetros bioquímicos e ventilatórios de ratos. Ratos Wistar machos provenientes de mães que receberam dieta hipoproteica (8% de proteínas) ou normoproteica (17%) durante gestação e lactação, receberam dieta hiperlipídica (32% de lipídeos) ou normolipídica (18%) pós-desmame. Foi feito o acompanhamento do ganho de massa e crescimento somático das proles, assim também como a ventilação pulmonar e os níveis séricos de proteínas totais, albumina, triglicerídeos, colesterol total e glicemia. Os filhotes provenientes de mães desnutridas apresentaram menor peso ao nascer (**NP**:  $7,0 \pm 0,2$  vs **HP**:  $6,5 \pm 0,1$ ,  $p=0,0225$ ,  $n=22$  e  $26$  respectivamente), que permaneceu até o fim da lactação (21º dia: **NP**:  $49,2 \pm 0,5$  vs **HP**:  $33,3 \pm 1,1$ ,  $p<0,001$ ;  $n=22$  e  $26$  respectivamente). Ainda neste momento (desmame), os mesmos animais apresentaram reduções nos níveis de proteínas totais e albumina (Proteínas totais, 21º dia: **NP**:  $5,4 \pm 0,2$  vs **HP**:  $5,0 \pm 0,1$ ,  $p<0,05$ ; Albumina, 21º dia: **NP**:  $3,6 \pm 0,2$  vs **HP**:  $2,9 \pm 0,2$ ,  $p<0,05$ ). Aos 30 e 90 dias de vida, os triglicerídeos apresentaram variações ao comparar os grupos HPNP e HPHL (**HPNP**:  $294,5 \pm 19,9$  vs **HPHL**:  $159,2 \pm 22,0$ ,  $p<0,05$ ) e NPHL e HPHL (**NPHL**:  $123,8 \pm 9,8$  vs **HPHL**:  $92,3 \pm 6,8$ ,  $p<0,05$ ) respectivamente. Foram observadas reduções da frequência respiratória no 7º e 14º dia de vida (7º dia: **NP**:  $167,8 \pm 5,9$  vs **HP**:  $114,2 \pm 1,9$ ,  $p<0,001$ ,  $n=12$ ; 14º dia: **NP**:  $144,7 \pm 6,2$  vs **HP**:  $125,4 \pm 4,0$ ,  $p=0,0322$ ,  $n=32$  e  $37$  respectivamente), e aumentos no volume corrente (VT) e na ventilação pulmonar (VE) no 21º dia de vida (VT: **NP**:  $12,2 \pm 0,8$  vs **HP**:  $15,6 \pm 0,7$ ,  $p=0,0026$ ,  $n=27$  e  $37$  respectivamente; VE: **NP**:  $1463,0 \pm 97,6$  vs **HP**:  $1818,0 \pm 84,7$ ,  $p=0,008$ ,  $n=27$  e  $37$  respectivamente). Aos 30 e 90 dias, nenhuma alteração ventilatória foi observada entre os grupos. Por fim, nossos dados confirmam que o consumo de dieta hipoproteica materna induz alterações na prole. Porém, a dieta hiperlipídica utilizada neste estudo parece não potencializar estas alterações. Pelo contrário, grande parte das alterações observadas durante a lactação desapareceu na vida adulta.

**Palavras-chave:** Desnutrição proteica materna. Plasticidade fenotípica. Dupla carga. Manipulação dietética.

## ABSTRACT

Maternal protein undernutrition and the consumption of high-fat diet are capable of change, in an isolated way, ventilatory and biochemical parameters. However, the biochemical and ventilatory response presented by the organism that undergoes periods of maternal protein undernutrition and consumption of a high-fat diet is unknown. This study evaluated the effects of the association of a low-protein diet during gestation and lactation with a post-weaning high-fat diet on the biochemical and ventilatory parameters of rats. Male Wistar rats from mothers who received a low-protein (8% protein) or normoprotein diet (17%) during gestation and lactation received a high-fat (32% of lipids) or a normal fat diet (18%) after weaning. The mass gain and somatic growth of the offspring were monitored, as well as pulmonary ventilation and serum levels of total proteins, albumin, triglycerides, total cholesterol and fasting glucose. Pups from undernourished mothers presented lower birth weight (**NP**:  $7.0 \pm 0.2$  vs **LP**:  $6.5 \pm 0.1$ ,  $p=0.0225$ ,  $n=22$  e  $26$  respectively), which remained until the end of lactation (21° day: **NP**:  $49.2 \pm 0.5$  vs **LP**:  $33.3 \pm 1.1$ ,  $p<0.001$ ;  $n=22$  e  $26$  respectively). At this moment, the same animals showed reductions in total protein and albumin levels (Total Protein, 21° day: **NP**:  $5.4 \pm 0.2$  vs **LP**:  $5.0 \pm 0.1$ ,  $p<0.05$ ; Albumin, 21° day: **NP**:  $3.6 \pm 0.2$  vs **LP**:  $2.9 \pm 0.2$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). At 30 and 90 days of age, the triglycerides presented variations between LPNP and LPHF (30 days, **LPNP**:  $294.5 \pm 19.9$  vs **LPHF**:  $159.2 \pm 22.0$   $p<0.05$ ) and NPHF and LPHF groups (90 days, **NPHF**:  $123.8 \pm 9.8$  vs **LPHF**:  $92.3 \pm 6.8$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), respectively. Reductions were observed in the respiratory frequency on the 7th and 14th day of life (7° day: **NP**:  $167.8 \pm 5.9$  vs **LP**:  $114.2 \pm 1.9$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $n=12$ ; 14° day: **NP**:  $144.7 \pm 6.2$  vs **LP**:  $125.4 \pm 4.0$ ,  $p=0.0322$ ,  $n=32$  e  $37$  respectively), and increases in the Tidal Volume (TV) and Pulmonary Ventilation (VE) in the 21st day of life (TV: **NP**:  $12.2 \pm 0.8$  vs **LP**:  $15.6 \pm 0.7$ ,  $p=0.0026$ ,  $n=27$  e  $37$  respectively; VE: **NP**:  $1463.0 \pm 97.6$  vs **LP**:  $1818.0 \pm 84.7$ ,  $p=0.008$ ,  $n=27$  e  $37$  respectively). At 30 and 90 days, no ventilatory changes were observed between the groups. Finally, our data confirm that the consumption of maternal lowprotein diet induces changes in the offspring. However, the high-fat diet used in this study does not seem to potentiate these alterations. On the other hand, most of the changes observed during lactation disappeared at adult life.

**Key-words:** Maternal protein undernutrition. Phenotypic plasticity. Dual burden. Dietary manipulation.

## **LISTA DE SÍMBOLOS E ABREVIATURAS**

**AIN** – *American Institute of Nutrition* (Instituto Americano de Nutrição)

**ANOVA** – Análise de variância

**BMI** – *Body Mass Index* (Índice de Massa Corporal)

**CAV** – Centro Acadêmico de Vitória de Santo Antão

**CETENE** – Centro de Tecnologias Estratégicas do Nordeste

**CEUA** – Comitê de Ética em Uso Animal

**DoHaD** – Origem Desenvolvimentista da Saúde e da Doença

**Epm** – Erro padrão da média

**FAO** – Organização das Nações Unidas para a Alimentação e a Agricultura

**HF** – *High-fat Diet* (Dieta hiperlipídica)

**LP** – *Low-Protein diet* (Dieta hipoproteica)

**IBGE** – Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística

**IFAD** – Fundo Internacional para o Desenvolvimento Agrícola

**IMC** – Índice de massa corporal

**LPHF** - *Low-Protein maternal diet and High-fat after weaning* (Dieta hipoproteica materna e hiperlipídica pós desmame).

**LPNP** – *Low-Protein maternal diet and Normoprotein after weaning* (Dieta hipoproteica materna e normoproteica pós desmame).

**NP** – *Normoprotein diet* (Dieta normoproteica/controle)

**NPHF** – *Normoprotein maternal diet and High-fat after weaning* (Dieta normoproteica materna e hiperlipídica pós desmame).

**NPNP** – *Normoprotein maternal diet and normoprotein after weaning* (Dieta normoproteica materna e normoproteica pós desmame).

**PAM** – Programa Alimentar Mundial

**POF** – Pesquisa de Orçamento Familiar

**RF** – *Respiratory Frequency* (Frequência Respiratória)

**SEM** – *Standard Error Mean* (Erro Padrão da Média)

**TV** – *Tidal Volume* (Volume corrente)

**UFPE** – Universidade Federal de Pernambuco

**VE** – *Pulmonary Ventilation* (Ventilação pulmonar)

**VT** – *Tidal Volume* (Volume corrente)

**WHO** – *World Health Organization* (Organização Mundial de Saúde)

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## 1 APRESENTAÇÃO

O estudo da desnutrição é importante por se tratar de um problema que afeta, ainda hoje, milhares de pessoas (GULSHAN, 2017; PATIL; DIVYARANI, 2015). Atualmente, 795 milhões de pessoas passam fome no mundo, de acordo com o relatório anual sobre a fome, publicado pela Organização das Nações Unidas para a Alimentação e a Agricultura (FAO), pelo Fundo Internacional para o Desenvolvimento Agrícola (IFAD) e pelo Programa Alimentar Mundial (PAM) (FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS, 2015). Sabe-se que a ocorrência da desnutrição materna está relacionada ao aparecimento de alterações morfológicas e funcionais em diversos órgãos de suas proles. Alterações renais incluem aumento na expressão de angiotensina II, alterações no transporte de sódio no túbulo proximal, estado avançado de fibrose e proteinúria (SENE *et al.*, 2013; VIEIRA-FILHO *et al.*, 2014); No coração, é observada redução do seu peso total, assim como uma menor área de secção transversa do perímetro e das células cardíacas (TOSCANO *et al.*, 2008); Ocorre aumento no depósito de colágeno hepático, associado ao aumento na inflamação, peroxidação lipídica e hiperinsulinemia (TARRY-ADKINS *et al.*, 2016); Aumento da rigidez passiva no músculo esquelético (TOSCANO *et al.*, 2010); Aumento no percentual de gordura (dependendo do tempo de exposição à desnutrição) (RAVELLI *et al.*, 1976); dentre outros efeitos (FALCAO-TEBAS *et al.*, 2012; DE BRITO ALVES *et al.*, 2014).

Embora possa ocorrer em qualquer fase da vida, há um momento em que a desnutrição pode acarretar danos mais sérios ao organismo. Esse momento é conhecido como período crítico do desenvolvimento e compreende a fase intrauterina e de lactação (MORGANE *et al.*, 1993). Neste período, órgãos e sistemas estão mais vulneráveis às alterações ambientais devido à grande multiplicação e diferenciação celular (DOBBING, 1964; WINICK *et al.*, 1972).

Diversas hipóteses foram criadas a fim de descrever a interação que existe entre o ambiente e o organismo nas fases críticas do desenvolvimento. Foram geradas hipóteses como o “Fenótipo Poupadour”, criada por Hales e Barker (1992), que apresenta a ideia de que o feto é capaz de sobreviver a um ambiente de restrição nutricional mediante adaptações, podendo até diminuir seu crescimento somático para tal. Uma segunda hipótese é conhecida como a “Origem Desenvolvimentista da Saúde e da Doença” (do inglês, *Developmental Origin of Health and Disease*, DoHaD) ou “Resposta adaptativa preditiva”, descrita por Gluckman *et al.*

(2005). Nesta hipótese, é postulada a ideia de uma adaptação rápida do organismo em resposta a modificações ambientais, garantindo, dessa forma, uma vantagem em um ambiente escasso, por exemplo, levando à sobrevivência do organismo. Sendo assim, se o organismo se adapta a um ambiente e este permanece semelhante ao longo da vida, o indivíduo estará preparado para sobreviver de forma vantajosa quando comparado com aqueles que não se adaptaram. No entanto, se ocorrer uma nova modificação no ambiente, de modo que ofereça características diferentes das apresentadas anteriormente (por exemplo, abundância de nutrientes), o organismo não estará preparado para este ambiente e apresentará desvantagens, que poderão levar ao surgimento de patologias.

Em 2007, Jonathan Wells publicou um artigo em que defende que o baixo peso ao nascer e a trajetória de crescimento são os principais fatores de risco para o desenvolvimento de doenças metabólicas. Wells fala sobre o *catch up* de crescimento, referindo-se ao crescimento acelerado que animais desnutridos, nascidos com baixo peso, podem apresentar. Este crescimento acelerado vem acompanhado de um aumento considerável no percentual de gordura que, por sua vez, resulta em uma elevada carga metabólica ao organismo, resultando em maiores riscos de desenvolver doenças crônicas na vida adulta. Em 2011, Wells propôs um modelo conceitual, entre desnutrição materna e risco de doenças para os filhos, que corrobora com a hipótese mencionada anteriormente. A relação entre “capacidade metabólica” *versus* “carga metabólica” forma a base do seu modelo conceitual. Capacidade metabólica refere-se à diversidade de estruturas e funções dos órgãos e sistemas que são adquiridos no período crítico de desenvolvimento para a formação do organismo e que o ajudam a se adaptar da melhor forma possível a insultos ambientais. Carga metabólica, por outro lado, refere-se à carga imposta ao organismo e sua condição fisiológica, exigindo que este mantenha a homeostase. A ideia é que fatores ambientais, como a nutrição materna, podem reduzir a capacidade metabólica, causando desequilíbrio na relação entre a capacidade metabólica e carga metabólica, favorecendo o surgimento de doenças (WELLS, 2011). Confirmado essa hipótese, alguns autores (CLAYBOMBE *et al.*, 2016; RIZZI *et al.*, 2017) observaram que animais desnutridos apresentam maior ganho de gordura corporal e maiores danos renais ao consumirem uma dieta hiperlipídica na vida adulta quando comparados aos animais controle que consumiram a mesma dieta. Além disso, animais desnutridos apresentam maior risco de desenvolver lesões mais severas após sofrerem danos vasculares (MENENDEZ-CASTRO *et al.*, 2012).

Por fim, mas não menos importante, a hipótese da Plasticidade Fenotípica, descrita em detalhes por Hanson *et al.* (2011), é definida como a capacidade que o organismo possui de produzir diferentes fenótipos em resposta a diferentes condições ambientais. Em animais, o ambiente no qual eles se desenvolvem induz alterações fenotípicas através de mecanismos genéticos, fisiológicos (especialmente endócrinos) e epigenéticos. Esta hipótese apresenta grande foco neste último componente, descrevendo alguns processos adaptativos que ocorrem no DNA (como metilação e acetilação) e que essas modificações podem ser transmitidas entre as gerações. As estratégias adaptativas adotadas pelo organismo frente a um ambiente desafiador trazem consigo alguns custos. Por exemplo, as funções reprodutivas são priorizadas à custa da prevenção do envelhecimento em muitas espécies, incluindo nos humanos (HANSON *et al.*, 2011).

Apesar da diminuição progressiva que vem sendo vista nos casos de desnutrição, sua prevalência continua elevada (GULSHAN, 2017; PATIL, 2015). No Brasil, a partir de 2015, a prevalência de desnutrição passou a ser considerada como muito baixa, acometendo menos de 5% da população (FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS, 2015). Contudo, tendo em vista que a população brasileira atual é de aproximadamente 200,4 milhões de pessoas, 5% desse valor corresponde a 10,02 milhões. A população de Pernambuco, atualmente, corresponde a 9,4 milhões (IBGE, 2017). Ou seja, uma população maior do que a do estado de Pernambuco passa fome. São números ainda alarmantes.

Além da desnutrição, a obesidade é outro fenômeno que acomete muitas pessoas atualmente. Em 2014, no mundo, mais de 600 milhões de adultos e cerca de 41 milhões de crianças abaixo de cinco anos apresentavam esta condição (WHO, 2016). O aumento nos casos de obesidade se deve, em grande parte, à modificação no padrão alimentar da população. Esta mudança é conhecida como transição nutricional (BATISTA FILHO; BATISTA, 2010). A transição nutricional passou a ser vista no Brasil no início da década de 70, quando os casos de desnutrição passaram a reduzir progressivamente e, associado a isto, houve aumentos nos níveis de sobrepeso e obesidade (BATISTA FILHO; RISSIN, 2003). Entre 1975 e 1996, a prevalência de sobrepeso e obesidade triplicou no Nordeste e duplicou no Sudeste (BATISTA FILHO; RISSIN, 2003). Essa prevalência se assemelha à apresentada mundialmente, pois se estima que desde 1980, os casos de obesidade mais que duplicaram (WHO, 2016). As alterações na alimentação incluem aumento no consumo de alimentos processados e/ou ricos

em açucares e gordura, associados à redução no consumo de frutas e verduras, entre outros fatores.

A alimentação rica em gordura é comprovadamente um dos fatores responsáveis pelo desenvolvimento de obesidade, tanto em animais experimentais quanto em humanos (FEOLI *et al.*, 2003; BRAY *et al.*, 2004). Isto ocorre porque algumas funções metabólicas podem ser alteradas de acordo com o tipo de gordura ingerida, levando a modificações na massa e na composição corporal (GAIVA *et al.*, 2003). Além da obesidade, a ingestão de gorduras favorece o desenvolvimento de outras patologias relacionadas a ela, como hipertensão arterial, hiperlipidemias e doenças cardiovasculares (DOBRIAN *et al.*, 2001; FEOLI *et al.*, 2003).

Tendo em vista esse quadro, surge um fato curioso e preocupante: a ocorrência simultânea de desnutrição e obesidade. Sendo considerado um desafio único e complexo para a saúde pública, a ocorrência simultânea de desnutrição e obesidade é conhecida como “dupla carga” ou “*Dual Burden*” (TZIOUMIS *et al.*, 2016). Desde o ano 2000, poucas comparações explícitas sobre a tendência global da nutrição em crianças têm sido publicadas. Entretanto, um grande estudo recente (TZIOUMIS *et al.*, 2016) descreveu de forma direta, pela primeira vez, as tendências da dupla carga, nacional e individual, de desnutrição em crianças menores de cinco anos e estratificadas por idade ( $<2$  anos e  $\geq 2$  anos), em trinta e seis países de baixa e média renda. Os resultados desse estudo sugerem que a desnutrição, de forma geral, está diminuindo em crianças menores de cinco anos (com variações para os diferentes tipos de desnutrição) e, ao lado desse comportamento, estão ocorrendo aumentos no excesso de peso e obesidade. Consequentemente, a dupla carga está se tornando uma realidade em um número crescente de países, particularmente nos de renda média. Além disso, uma informação também preocupante diz respeito à situação das crianças abaixo de dois anos de idade (período considerado crítico para o desenvolvimento físico e cognitivo): a desnutrição continua aumentando nessa população, em um terço dos países avaliados. Além disso, a taxa de sobre peso/obesidade aumenta mais nessas crianças, quando comparadas as que têm idade igual ou superior a dois anos.

Sabe-se que deficiências nutricionais durante a gestação e lactação são consideradas como fatores de risco para o surgimento de doenças cardiovasculares (BARKER; OSMOND, 1986). Esses fatores estão relacionados ao baixo peso ao nascer e à desnutrição materna (MU *et al.*, 2012; OMS, 2012). O consumo de dietas ricas em gordura, assim como a desnutrição proteica materna, pode levar ao desenvolvimento de doenças e aumento nos fatores de risco

cardiovascular, tais como obesidade, resistência à insulina e doenças cardiovasculares (FEOLI *et al.*, 2003; BRAY *et al.*, 2004, COSTA *et al.*, 2011). Os sistemas cardiovascular e respiratório funcionam de forma interligada, operando coordenadamente durante processos como de ventilação pulmonar e perfusão tecidual, por exemplo, (HAYANO *et al.*, 1996; GIARDINO *et al.*, 2003; BEN-TAL *et al.*, 2012). Além disso, pesquisadores identificaram que neurônios responsáveis por gerar a atividade respiratória também são responsáveis por modular a despolarização de neurônios simpáticos (COSTA-SILVA *et al.*, 2010; ZOCCAL; MACHADO, 2011). Dessa forma, alterações respiratórias podem nos dar um indicativo do comportamento da atividade simpática e, consequentemente, do risco de desenvolver hipertensão arterial. Além disto, já foram observadas alterações no sistema quimiorreceptor, um dos principais sistemas de controle respiratório, em ratos submetidos a insultos nutricionais (DE BRITO ALVES *et al.*, 2014; DE BRITO ALVES *et al.*, 2015).

Recentemente, foram publicadas evidências que identificaram algumas alterações geradas no organismo que passa por períodos de desnutrição proteica materna e consome uma dieta hiperlipídica após o desmame (modelo experimental que simula a dupla carga) (CLAYCOMBE *et al.*, 2016; RIZZI *et al.*, 2017). Foram avaliados parâmetros como composição corporal, morfologia renal e pressão arterial. Claycombe e colaboradores observaram que animais que consumiram dieta hiperlipídica, provenientes de mães que consumiram dieta hipoproteica durante o período perinatal apresentaram uma redução no adipócito bege, no tecido adiposo subcutâneo, via redução no Fator de Crescimento de Fibroblastos 21 (FGF21) e aumento na expressão da histona metiltransferase G9a (inibidor da transcrição do FGF21). Os autores propuseram que esta resposta pode explicar, ao menos em parte, o mecanismo pelo qual a desnutrição proteica pode tornar a prole mais propensa ao desenvolvimento da obesidade, uma vez exposta a ambientes com dietas ricas em gordura. Rizzi e colaboradores, por outro lado, observaram diversas alterações, desde aumento do colesterol total e LDL, aumento da pressão arterial e comprometimento da integridade e função renal.

Apesar de todas estas respostas terem sido estudadas em modelos de desnutrição proteica associados ao consumo de dieta hiperlipídica, evidências relacionadas a alterações no perfil ventilatório, por exemplo, ainda não existem, abrindo um campo abrangente para novos estudos. Além disso, também não se sabe se as alterações vistas nos estudos citados anteriormente permanecem quando se observam diferentes tipos de dieta hiperlipídica.

## 2 OBJETIVOS

### 2.1 GERAL

Avaliar os efeitos da associação de dieta hipoproteica durante a gestação e a lactação e dieta hiperlipídica após o desmame em ratos.

### 2.2 ESPECÍFICOS

Avaliar, em ratos machos (1 a 90 dias vida) que consumiram uma dieta hiperlipídica após o desmame e cujas mães foram submetidas à restrição proteica durante gestação e lactação:

1. Ganho de massa corporal;
2. Consumo alimentar e hídrico;
3. Crescimento somático;
4. Parâmetros bioquímicos;
5. Ventilação pulmonar;
6. Composição corporal.

### **3 HIPÓTESE**

A dieta hiperlipídica após o desmame potencializa os danos causados pela dieta hipoproteica materna.

## 4 MATERIAL E MÉTODOS

Os protocolos experimentais foram aprovados pelo Comitê de Ética em Uso Animal (CEUA, Protocolo Nº 23076.044287/2015-96.) da Universidade Federal de Pernambuco, Brasil.

### 4.1 ANIMAIS

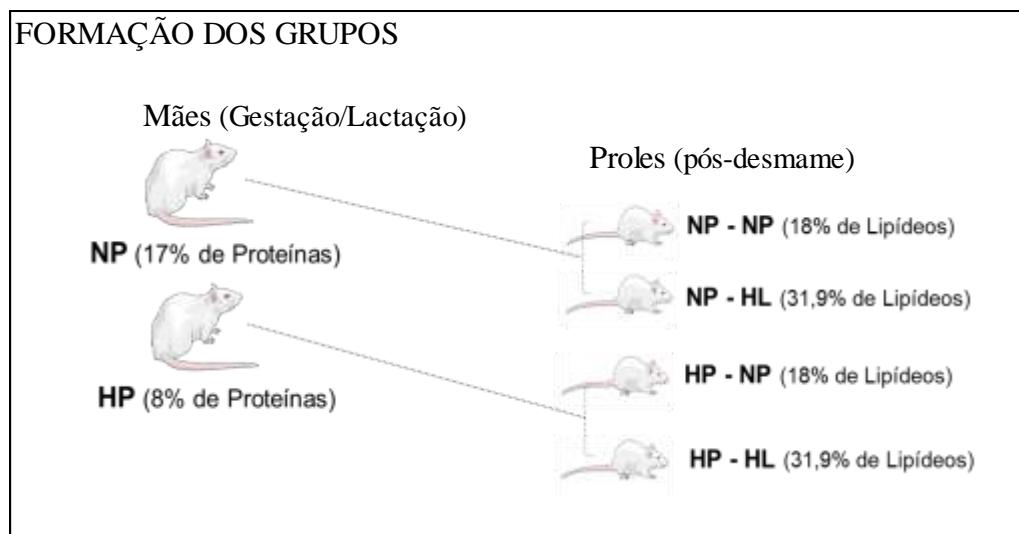
Foram utilizados ratos da linhagem Wistar (fêmeas e machos) fornecidos pelo Biotério do Centro Acadêmico de Vitória de Santo Antão (CAV), Universidade Federal de Pernambuco, Brasil. Os animais foram mantidos em uma sala com a temperatura controlada ( $22 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ ), com ciclo claro-escuro (escuro: 18h00min - 06h00min) e ração (52% de carboidratos, 21% de proteínas e 4% de lipídeos – Labina, Purina Agribands) e água *ad libitum*. Inicialmente, os ratos foram colocados juntos para acasalamento (um macho para três fêmeas), sendo utilizadas ratas primíparas que tinham entre 90 a 110 dias de vida. A confirmação da prenhez foi feita a partir da constatação de espermatozoides no esfregaço vaginal, sendo considerado esse o primeiro dia de gestação. A partir daí, as ratas prenhas receberam dieta normoproteica ou hipoproteica, como segue explicado adiante. Após o nascimento, a prole foi reduzida para oito filhotes por ninhada, sendo priorizada a permanência dos machos (quando necessário, a prole era completada com fêmeas).

### 4.2 DIETAS

Após a identificação da prenhez, as ratas foram transferidas de forma aleatória para gaiolas individuais e passaram a receber uma dieta normoproteica [17% de proteína, (grupo NP)] ou hipoproteica [8% de proteína, (grupo HP)], permanecendo assim até o final da lactação. O número total de filhotes e o sexo dos mesmos foram determinados 24h após o nascimento. A prole foi reduzida para oito filhotes por ninhada, sendo priorizada a permanência dos machos e quando necessário, era completada com fêmeas. Os filhotes machos de cada prole foram submetidos à dieta controle ([22º dia de vida] grupos NP-NP e HP-NP) ou à dieta hiperlipídica logo após o desmame ([22º dia de vida] grupos NP-HL e HP-HL) e permaneceram nessa dieta até os 90 dias de vida, quando foram realizadas as últimas avaliações. Sendo assim, formaram-se um total de quatro grupos, designados de acordo com a manipulação nutricional da mãe e dos filhotes (**FIGURA 1**).

As dietas normoproteica (controle), hipoproteica e hiperlipídica foram feitas no Laboratório de Nutrição Experimental – Departamento de Nutrição, Universidade Federal de Pernambuco de acordo com o American Institute of Nutrition – (AIN-93) (REEVES *et al.*, 1993) e a Survey Familiar Budget (IBGE/Brasil, SFB 2002/2003), como descrito previamente (CARVALHO *et al.*, 2013). A dieta controle (%kcal) contém 19% de proteínas, 16% de lipídeos (17,32% de ácidos graxos saturados, 29,93% monoinsaturados e 52,79% poliinsaturados) e 65% de carboidratos, desse modo, fornecendo 3,6kcals/g. Por sua vez, a dieta hiperlipídica (%kcal) contém 21% de proteínas, 32% de lipídeos (29,59% de ácidos graxos saturados, 34,77% monoinsaturados e 35,6% poliinsaturados) e 47% de carboidratos, desse modo, fornecendo 4,2kcals/g, como descrito previamente (FERRO CAVALCANTE *et al.*, 2013). A dieta hipoproteica contém 9% de proteínas e quando comparada a normoproteica, fornece o mesmo percentual de kcal (**TABELAS 1 e 2**).

**FIGURA 1. Formação dos grupos.** O desmame ocorreu aos 21 dias de vida. **NP:** Grupo que recebeu uma dieta controle; **HP:** Grupo que recebeu uma dieta hipoproteica; **HL:** Grupo que recebeu uma dieta hiperlipídica; Nas proles, a primeira sigla (e.g. NP ou HP) representa o grupo ao qual as mães pertenciam.



Fonte: Barbosa, Sávio, 2017.

Nota: Figura elaborada pelo autor.

**Tabela 1 - Composição das dietas.** Adaptado de Cavalcante et. al. 2013.

Ingredientes	Dietas			Nutrientes	Dietas		
	Nomoproteica g/100	Hipoproteica g/100	hiperlipídica g/100		Nomoproteica g/100	Hipoproteica g/100	hiperlipídica g/100
Amido de Milho	52,9	63,54	15,0	Proteína	17,5	9,4	22,8
Farinha de Trigo	-	-	12,0	Proteína Animal	17,0	7,0	16,0
Biscoito de Amido de Milho	-	-	5,0	Proteína Vegetal	0,3	0,3	4,8
Farinha de Soja	-	-	6,0	Lipídeos	6,5	10,8	15,7
Goma	-	-	0,5	Carboidratos	59,7	71,1	52,3
Banha	-	-	5,3	Fibra (Celulose)	5,0	5,0	5,0
Margarina (65% de lipídeos)	-	-	4,0	Mix Mineral	3,5	3,5	3,5
Creme de Leite (20% de lipídeos)	-	-	4,0	Mix Vitamínico	1,0	1,0	1,0
Proteína - Caseína (85%)	20,0	9,41	20,0	Metionina	0,3	0,3	0,25
Sacarose	10,0	10,0	18,0	Bitartarato de Colina	0,25	0,25	0,25
Óleo de Soja	7,0	7,0	4,0	BHT	0,0014	0,0014	0,014
Fibra (Celulose)	5,0	5,0	2,0	<b>Composição de acordo com a energia total (%)</b>			
Mix Mineral	3,5	3,5	2,5	Proteínas	19,1	9,0	20,7
Mix Vitamínico	1,0	1,0	0,7	Lipídeos	15,9	23,1	31,9
Metionina	0,3	0,3	0,25	Carboidratos	65,0	67,9	47,4
Bitartarato de Colina	0,25	0,25	0,25				
BHT	0,0014	0,0014	0,014				
Cloreto de Sódio (NaCl)	-	-	0,3				
Glutamato Monossódico (12,3% de Na)	-	-	0,2				
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0				
Total de energia (Kcal)	3,6	3,6	4,2				

**Fonte:** A dieta hiperlipídica foi adaptada da Pesquisa de Orçamento Familiar (POF) 2002/2003; A dieta normoproteica seguiu as recomendações de Reeves *et al.* (1993). A composição centesimal foi analisada no laboratório de Bromatologia/UFPE.

**Tabela 2 - Composição de ácidos graxos das dietas (% do total de ácidos graxos).**

<b>Ácidos graxos</b>	<b>Dieta hiperlipídica</b>	<b>Dieta normoproteica</b>
<b>% Gordura saturada</b>	<b>29,59</b>	<b>17,32</b>
Ácido mirístico (C14:0)	1,09	
Ácido palmítico (C16:0)	19,1	
Ácido esteárico (C18:0)	9,4	
<b>% Gordura monosaturada</b>	<b>34,77</b>	<b>29,93</b>
Ácido oleico (C18:1)	34,77	
<b>% Gordura Poliinsaturada</b>	<b>35,64</b>	<b>52,79</b>
Ácido linoleico (C18:2)	30,53	
Ácido linolênico (C18:3)	5,11	

**Fonte:** As análises foram realizadas análises no Centro de Tecnologias Estratégicas do Nordeste - CETENE, Pernambuco, Brasil. Pesquisadores responsáveis pela análise: Araújo, KS., Barbosa, MO. E Espinosa Vidal, E.

#### 4.3 AVALIAÇÃO DA INGESTÃO ALIMENTAR E HÍDRICA DAS MÃES E PROLES

As ingestões, alimentar e hídrica, foram medidas ao longo da gestação e lactação (consumo materno) e após desmame (consumo da prole). Obteve-se, como resultado da ingestão de ração, o consumo absoluto (calculado a partir da diferença entre a dieta ofertada e o que restou após 24h) em kcal (determinado pela multiplicação da quantidade de dieta ingerida pelas calorias contidas em cada 100g de dieta) e o consumo de cada macronutriente (definido pela proporção de carboidratos, lipídeos e proteínas contidos na porção de dieta consumida).

A ingestão hídrica foi calculada a partir da diferença entre a quantidade de água ofertada e o que restou após 24 horas.

#### 4.4 AVALIAÇÃO DA MASSA CORPORAL DAS MÃES E DA PROLE E DO CRESCIMENTO SOMÁTICO DA PROLE

A massa corporal das mães foi avaliada diariamente após a identificação da prenhez e permaneceu até o fim da lactação. A massa corporal dos filhotes foi avaliada diariamente após o nascimento e permaneceu até o fim da lactação. Após esse período o registro de peso passou a ser realizado semanalmente e permaneceu até o fim do estudo

(90 dias de vida). Ambas as análises foram realizadas utilizando uma balança apropriada (modelo AS-1000; Marte) com precisão de 0,1g. Os comprimentos naso-anal e caudal e a circunferência abdominal dos filhotes foram avaliados semanalmente, a partir das primeiras 24h de vida, por meio de contenção delicada do animal. O dorso e a cauda do animal eram pressionados contra a superfície de um quadro branco, enquanto o dedo indicador era mantido sobre a cabeça do animal. Em seguida realizaram-se marcas no quadro coincidentes com o focinho, a base e a ponta da cauda do animal. A partir de então, procedeu-se a medida utilizando uma fita métrica com precisão de 0,1cm.

#### **4.5 ANÁLISES BIOQUÍMICAS**

Aos 21, 30 e 90 dias de vida, os animais de todos os grupos passaram por jejum de 12 horas (19h00min – 07h00min), mantidos em suas respectivas gaiolas, contendo água *ad libitum* e, em seguida, foram coletadas amostras de sangue através da punção do plexo retro-orbital utilizando um capilar de vidro não heparinizado. Após coagulação, o sangue foi centrifugado a 3500 RPM por 10 minutos para obtenção do soro, o qual foi transferido para um tubo Eppendorf e armazenado a -20°C até a realização das análises bioquímicas por meio dos respectivos kits de reagentes e padrão (Labtest Diagnóstica SA, MG, Brasil) por espectrofotometria. Foram feitas as quantificações de proteínas totais, albumina, glicemia de jejum, triglicerídeos e colesterol total.

#### **4.6 DETERMINAÇÃO DO PESO DOS ÓRGÃOS E ADIPOSIDADE CORPORAL**

Aos 90 dias de vida, os animais foram mortos por decapitação e foram retirados e pesados os seguintes órgãos: coração, baço, fígado, rins (direito e esquerdo), pulmão e tecido adiposo. A gordura corporal total foi medida pela soma das gorduras subcutânea, epididimal, retroperitoneal e visceral. O índice de adiposidade foi calculado conforme a seguinte fórmula:

$$\text{Índice de adiposidade} = (\text{gordura corporal total}/\text{massa corporal}) \times 100$$

(MEDEI *et al.*, 2010)

#### **4.7 MEDIDAS DE VENTILAÇÃO PULMONAR**

As medidas de ventilação foram obtidas por pleismografia de corpo inteiro, em um sistema fechado (MALAN, 1973) e foram realizadas no 1°, 7°, 14°, 21°, 30° e 90° dias de vida. Antes do início, os animais foram adaptados à câmara de registro (câmara

de acrílico com volume de 216 ml para animais no 1º e 7º dias de vida, 729 ml para 14º e 21º e 5L para o 30º e 90º) por um período variável de tempo ( $\approx 30$  min), a qual era ventilada com ar ambiente no período de aclimatação. Durante a realização de cada medida de ventilação, o fluxo de ar foi interrompido e a câmara do animal permaneceu totalmente vedada por curtos períodos de tempo ( $\approx 2$  min). As oscilações causadas pela ventilação do animal foram captadas por um dispositivo conectado à câmara que contém um transdutor diferencial de pressão e um amplificador de sinais (ML141 SPIROMETER, POWERLAB, ADINSTRUMENTS). O sinal foi então enviado para o sistema de aquisição e análise dos dados (LABCHARTTM PRO, POWERLAB, ADINSTRUMENTS). A calibração do volume foi obtida durante cada experimento, injetando-se um volume conhecido de ar (0,1 ml de para animais no 1º e 7º dias de vida e 1 ml para as demais idades) dentro da câmara do animal com o uso de uma seringa graduada. Três variáveis respiratórias foram medidas, a frequência respiratória (FR), o volume corrente (VT) e a ventilação pulmonar (VE).

#### 4.8 ANÁLISE DOS DADOS

Os resultados foram expressos como média  $\pm$  epm (erro padrão da média). A análise de normalidade da amostra foi realizada por meio do teste de Shapiro-Wilk. As comparações entre os grupos, durante a gestação e lactação, assim também como os ganhos de massa, crescimento somático e ventilação dos filhotes (durante a lactação) foram realizadas por meio do teste t de *Student* não pareado ou o teste de *Mann-Whitney* (de acordo com a normalidade apresentada pelos dados). Para comparações dos dados de bioquímica, ventilação (após o desmame) e composição corporal, foram utilizados os testes ANOVA *One-Way*, seguido, quando necessário, do pós-teste de *Bonferroni* ou o teste de *Kruskal-Wallis*, seguido, quando necessário, do pós-teste de *Dunn* (de acordo com a normalidade apresentada pelos dados). Os dados foram analisados através do programa estatístico GraphPad Prism (GRAPHPAD SOFTWARE CORPORATION, versão 5.0, 2007) e R (versão 3.3.2). O nível de significância foi considerado quando  $p \leq 0,05$ .

## 5 RESULTADOS

5.1 ARTIGO 1 – Artigo em processo de elaboração para ser submetido ao British Journal of Nutrition.

**Fator de Impacto:** 3.311.

**Qualis:** A2

**Effects of the consumption of a high-fat diet on biochemical and ventilatory parameters in a perinatal protein undernutrition model.**

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## Abstract

Maternal protein undernutrition and the consumption of high-fat diet may change ventilatory and biochemical parameters. This study evaluated the effects of the association of a low-protein diet during gestation and lactation with a post-weaning high-fat diet on the biochemical and ventilatory parameters of rats. Male Wistar rats from mothers who received a low-protein or normoprotein diet during gestation and lactation received a high-fat (32% of lipids) or a normal fat diet after weaning. The mass gain and somatic growth of the offspring were monitored, as well as pulmonary ventilation and blood analysis. Puppies from undernourished mothers presented lower birth weight, which remained until the end of lactation. At this time, the same animals showed reductions in total protein and albumin levels. At 30 and 90 days of age, the triglycerides presented variations between LPNF and LPHF and NPHF and LPHF groups. Reductions were observed in the FR on the 7th and 14th day of life, and increases in the VT and VE in the 21st day of life. At 30 and 90 days, no ventilatory changes were observed. Finally, our data confirm that the consumption of maternal lowprotein diet induces changes in the offspring. However, the high-fat diet used in this study does not seem to potentiate these changes. Otherwise, most of the changes observed during lactation disappeared.

## Introduction

The study of undernutrition is important because it is a problem that still affects thousands of people worldwide (1, 2). It is known that the occurrence of maternal undernutrition is related to the appearance of injuries in several organs of their offspring, such as kidney (3, 4), liver (5), adipose tissue (6), among others (7, 8).

Although undernutrition may occur at any stage of life, there is a time when undernutrition can lead to more serious damage to the body. This time is known as the critical period of development and includes the intrauterine and lactation phases (9).

In addition to undernutrition, obesity is another phenomenon that affects an increasing number of people worldwide. In 2014, it was estimated that more than 600 million adults and about 41 million children under five years old had this condition in the world (10). The increase in obesity cases is largely due to changes in the population's eating pattern. This change is known as nutritional transition (11). The nutritional transition started to be seen in Brazil in the early 1970s, when cases of undernutrition progressively reduced and, associated with this, there were increases in the levels of overweight and obesity (12).

Currently, the simultaneous occurrence of undernutrition and obesity, known as Dual Burden (13), is a unique and complex challenge for public health. Since 2000, few explicit comparisons of the global child nutrition trend have been published. However, a large recent study (13) has described, for the first time, trends in the dual national and individual burden in children under five years in thirty-six low- and middle-income countries. Actually, dual burden is becoming a reality in a growing number of countries, particularly middle-income countries.

Recently, evidence that identified some changes in the organism that undergoes periods of maternal protein undernutrition and consume a high-fat diet after weaning (experimental model that simulates the dual burden) has been published (14, 15). Body composition, renal morphology and function and blood pressure were evaluated. Although all of these responses have been studied in models of protein undernutrition associated with the consumption of a high-fat diet, there are no studies showing evidences related to other changes, such as in the ventilatory profile, opening, thus, a

large field for new studies. In addition, it is also unknown whether such changes are observed for different types of high-fat diets.

## **Material and Methods**

### **Ethical approval**

The experimental protocols were approved by the Animal Ethics Committee (CEUA, Protocol No. 23076.044287 / 2015-96) of the Federal University of Pernambuco, Brazil.

## **Animals**

Wistar rats were used, provided from the Academic Center of Vitoria de Santo Antao, Federal University of Pernambuco, Brazil (CAV-UFPE). The animals were maintained at a room with controlled temperature ( $22 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ ), light-dark cycle (dark: 18:00 - 06:00 hours) and diet (52% carbohydrates, 21% protein and 4% lipids - Labina, Purina Agribands) and water *ad libitum*. Initially, the rats were placed together for mating (one male for three females) and confirmation of pregnancy was made by the presence of spermatozoa in the vaginal smear, which was considered the first day of gestation.

## **Diets**

After the identification of the gestation, the rats were transferred to individual cages, where they started receiving a normoprotein diet [17% protein] or a low protein diet [8% protein] that remained until the end of lactation. The total number of puppies and their sex were determined 24 hours after birth. The offspring were reduced to eight puppies per litter, with the males being prioritized and, when necessary, the offspring was completed with females. The male puppies of each offspring were submitted to the control (NP-NF and LP-NF groups) or high-fat diet (NP-HF and LP-HF groups) immediately after weaning (22nd day of life) and remained on the respective diet until 90 days of life, when the last evaluations were performed. Thus, a total of four groups, designated according to the nutritional manipulation of the mother and the offspring, were formed: NP-NF, LP-NF, NP-HF, LP-HF.

The normoprotein (control), low protein and high-fat diets were made in the Experimental Nutrition Laboratory - Department of Nutrition, Federal University of Pernambuco, according to the American Institute of Nutrition - (AIN-93) (16) and Family budget survey (IBGE / Brazil, SFB 2002/2003), as previously described (17). The control diet (% kcal) contains 19% protein, 16% lipid (17.32% saturated fatty acids, 29.93% monounsaturated and 52.79% polyunsaturated) and 65% carbohydrates, thus providing 3.6 Kcals/g. The low protein diet contains 9% protein and when compared to the normoprotein, provides the same percentage of kcal. On the other hand, the high-fat diet (% kcal) contains 21% proteins, 32% lipids (29.59% saturated fatty acids, 34.77% monounsaturated fatty acids and 35.6% polyunsaturated fatty acids) and 47% carbohydrates, thus providing 4.2kcal/g, as previously described (18). (**TABLE 1 and 2**).

### **Evaluation of food and water intake of mothers and offspring**

Food and water intake were measured during gestation and lactation (maternal consumption) and after weaning (offspring consumption). It was obtained, as a result of food intake, the absolute consumption (calculated from the difference between the offered diet and what remained after 24 hours) in kcal (determined by multiplying the amount of diet ingested by the calories contained in each 100g of diet) and the consumption of each macronutrient (defined by the proportion of carbohydrates, lipids and proteins contained in the portion of diet consumed). (**TABLE 3**).

The water intake was calculated from the difference between the offered amount of water and what was left after 24 hours.

### **Evaluation of body mass of mothers and offspring and somatic growth of offspring**

The mothers' body mass was evaluated daily after determination of the pregnancy and remained until the end of lactation. Body mass of the puppies was evaluated daily after birth and remained until the end of lactation. After this period, weight registration was performed weekly and remained until the end of the study (90 days of life). Both analyses were performed using an appropriate scale (model AS-1000;

Marte) with precision of 0.1g. The naso-anal and caudal lengths and abdominal circumference of the puppies were collected weekly, from the first 24 hours of life, by soft containment of the animal. The animal's back and tail were pressed against the surface of a white board while the index finger was held on the animal's head. Then, marks were made on the frame coinciding with the muzzle, base and tip of the animal's tail. Thereafter, the measurement was performed using a 0.1 cm precision tape measure.

### **Biochemical analyzes**

At 21, 30 and 90 days of age, animals of all groups were fasted for 12 hours (19h00min - 07h00min), kept in their respective cages, containing water *ad libitum* and, then, blood samples were collected by retro-orbital plexus puncture using non-heparinized glass capillary. After coagulation, the blood was centrifuged at 3500 RPM for 10 minutes to obtain the serum, which was transferred to an eppendorf tube and stored at -20 ° C until the biochemical analyzes were carried out using the respective reagent and standard kits (Labtest Diagnóstica SA, MG, Brazil) by spectrophotometry. Quantifications of total proteins, albumin, fasting blood glucose, triglycerides and total cholesterol were made.

### **Determination of organ weights and body adiposity**

At 90 days of age, the animals were killed by decapitation and the following organs were removed and weighed: heart, spleen, liver, kidneys (right and left), lung and adipose tissue. Total body fat was measured by the sum of subcutaneous, epididymal, retroperitoneal and visceral fats. The adiposity index was calculated according to the following formula:

$$\text{Adiposity index} = (\text{total body fat} / \text{body mass}) \times 100$$

(19)

### **Measures of pulmonary ventilation**

Ventilation measurements were obtained by whole-body plethysmography in a closed system (20) and were performed at the 1st, 7th, 14th, 21st, 30th and 90th days of life. Before the beginning, the animals were adapted to the recording chamber (acrylic chamber with volume of 216 ml for animals in the 1st and 7th day of life, 729 ml for 14th and 21st and 5L for 30th and 90th) for a variable period of time ( $\approx$ 30 min), which was ventilated with ambient air during the acclimatization period. During each ventilation measurement, airflow was interrupted and the chamber of the animal remained fully sealed for short periods of time ( $\approx$  2 min). The oscillations caused by the ventilation of the animal were captured by a device connected to the chamber containing a pressure differential transducer and a signal amplifier (ML141 spirometer, PowerLab, ADInstruments). The signal was then sent to the data acquisition and analysis system (LabChartTM Pro, PowerLab, ADInstruments). The calibration of the volume was obtained during each experiment, injecting a known volume of air (0.1 mL for animals in the 1st and 7th days of life and 1 mL for the other ages) into the chamber of the animal with the use of Syringe. Three respiratory variables were measured: respiratory frequency (RF), tidal volume (VT) and pulmonary ventilation (VE).

## Data analysis

The results were expressed as mean  $\pm$  SEM (mean standard error). Normality analysis of the sample was performed using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Comparison between groups, during gestation and lactation, as well as mass, somatic growth and ventilation of the puppies (during lactation) were performed using the unpaired Student t-test or the Mann-Whitney test (according to the normality presented by the data). For comparisons of the biochemical and ventilation data (after weaning) and organs weight, One-Way ANOVA were used, followed, when necessary, by the Bonferroni posttest or the Kruskal-Wallis test, followed, when necessary, by Dunn's posttest (according to the normality presented by the data). Data were analyzed by the statistical program GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software Corporation, version 5.0, 2007) and R (version 3.3.2). The level of significance was considered when  $p \leq 0.05$ .

## Results

During the gestation period, the mothers exhibited an increase in body mass in both groups in a similar way (**Figure 2A**). There were also no changes in food or water consumption between the groups (**Figure 3A and B**). During the last week of lactation, undernourished mothers lost weight (**NP**:  $254.0 \pm 9.35$  g vs. **LP**:  $231.3 \pm 5.71$  g,  $p=0.0381$ ,  $n=6$ , **Figure 2B**). This weight loss occurred in association with lower food intake in the last two weeks of the same period (2nd week: **NP**:  $40.59 \pm 1.59$  vs. **LP**:  $29.9 \pm 3.22$ ,  $p=0.0138$ ,  $n=6$ ; 3rd week: **NP**:  $46.9 \pm 4.15$  vs. **LP**:  $34.68 \pm 1.67$ ,  $p=0.0211$ ,  $n=6$ , **Figure 3C**). There was no change in the water consumption (**Figure 3D**).

The offspring of undernourished mothers had lower body mass 24 hours after birth when compared to control animals (**NP**:  $6.95 \pm 0.17$  vs. **LP**:  $6.47 \pm 0.12$ ,  $p=0.0225$ ,  $n=22$  and 26 respectively, **Figure 4**). Body mass remained lower throughout the lactation period (7th day: **NP**:  $15.96 \pm 0.38$  vs. **LP**:  $14.04 \pm 0.29$ ,  $p<0.001$ ; 14th day: **NP**:  $30.54 \pm 0.76$  vs. **LP**:  $23.27 \pm 0.54$ ,  $p<0.001$ ; 21st day: **NP**:  $49.2 \pm 0.52$  vs. **LP**:  $33.29 \pm 1.06$ ,  $p<0.001$ ;  $n=22$  and 26 respectively, **Figure 4**). Similar to the changes observed in body mass, the naso-anal length was shorter 24 hours after birth and remained so until the end of lactation, except on the seventh day of life (1st day: **NP**:  $5.18 \pm 0.07$  vs. **LP**:  $5.06 \pm 0.058$ ,  $p=0.0435$ ,  $n=19$  and 27 respectively; 14th day: **NP**:  $8.93 \pm 0.1$  vs. **LP**:  $8.48 \pm 0.12$ ,  $p=0.0084$ ,  $n=22$  and 24 respectively; 21st day: **NP**:  $11.08 \pm 0.22$  vs. **LP**:  $10.4 \pm 0.1$ ,  $p=0.0361$ ,  $n=22$  and 12 respectively, **Table 3**). The caudal length was lower in the undernourished animals only in the fourteenth day of life (**NP**:  $5.41 \pm 0.18$  vs. **LP**:  $4.92 \pm 0.07$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $n=21$  and 27 respectively, **Table 3**) and an abdominal circumference was lower throughout a lactation, except for the first day of life (7th day: **NP**:  $6.13 \pm 0.08$  vs. **LP**:  $5.77 \pm 0.12$ ,  $p=0.0019$ ,  $n=22$  and 24 respectively; 14th day: **NP**:  $7.94 \pm 0.19$  vs. **LP**:  $6.95 \pm 0.19$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $n=21$  and 27 respectively, **Table 3**).

At the end of lactation, the offspring from the two groups (control and undernourished) were divided into normo-fat or high-fat diet, thus forming four groups (NPNF, NPHF, LPNF and LPHF). At this moment (on the 21st day of life), animals from NPHF and NPNF groups did not present differences in body mass when compared to each other (**NPHF**:  $49.64 \pm 0.73$  vs. **NPNF**:  $48.71 \pm 0.82$ ,  $p>0.05$ ,  $n=10$  and 12 respectively, **Figure 5**); The same occurred between LPNF and LPHF groups (**LPNF**:  $32.58 \pm 1.67$  vs. **LPHF**:  $34.01 \pm 1.26$ ,  $p>0.05$ ,  $n=14$  and 12 respectively, **Figure 5**).

However, the groups of undernourished mothers presented lower values of body mass when compared to the animals of control mothers (**NPNF**:  $48.71 \pm 0.82$  vs. **LPNF**:  $32.58 \pm 1.67$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $n=12$  and  $14$  respectively; and **NPHF**:  $49.64 \pm 0.73$  vs. **LPHF**:  $34.01 \pm 1.26$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $n=10$  and  $12$  respectively, **Figure 5**). Maternal protein undernutrition led to reductions in the body mass of offspring since birth. Even after consumption of control diet by the offspring of undernourished animals, the body mass remained lower until the 70th day of life, except for the 56th and 63rd days (28th day: **NPNF**:  $83.43 \pm 1.56$  vs. **LPNF**:  $61.88 \pm 2.46$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=12$  and  $14$  respectively; 35th day: **NPNF**:  $129.5 \pm 3.01$  vs. **LPNF**:  $104.5 \pm 2.64$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=12$  and  $14$  respectively; 42nd day: **NPNF**:  $175.8 \pm 4.62$  vs. **LPNF**:  $145.6 \pm 3.55$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=10$  and  $14$  respectively, 49th day: **NPNF**:  $215.4 \pm 2.97$  vs. **LPNF**:  $184.3 \pm 4.15$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=12$  and  $14$  respectively, 56th day: **NPNF**:  $259.9 \pm 5.56$  vs. **LPNF**:  $235.3 \pm 7.43$ ,  $p = 0.153$ ,  $n=12$  and  $10$  respectively, 63rd day: **NPNF**:  $290.3 \pm 7.91$  vs. **LPNF**:  $262.6 \pm 9.62$ ,  $p = 0.084$ ,  $n=10$  and  $11$  respectively, 70th day: **NPNF**:  $313.9 \pm 8.29$  vs. **LPNF**:  $268.2 \pm 5.88$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=10$  and  $12$  respectively, **Figure 5**). When the offspring began to consume high-fat diet, the difference in body mass between them remained until the 35th day of life (35th day: **NPHF**:  $130.1 \pm 3.0$  vs. **LPHF**:  $109.2 \pm 4.09$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $n=10$  and  $12$  respectively, **Figure 5**). At 90 days of age, there were no differences in body mass among the groups (**NPNF**:  $363.7 \pm 11.2$ ; **NPHF**:  $350.7 \pm 15.41$ ; **LPNF**:  $320.0 \pm 5.76$ ; **LPHF**:  $323.9 \pm 20.21$ ,  $p = 0.0388$ ,  $n=7, 8, 14$  and  $9$  respectively, **Figure 5**).

Regarding measures of somatic growth after weaning, the naso-anal length and caudal length of the LPNF group were lower at 28th day of life and remained until the 63rd and 70th, respectively (**NAL**, 28th day: **NPNF**:  $13.99 \pm 0.16$  vs. **LPNF**:  $12.63 \pm 0.37$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=12$  and  $6$  respectively, 35th day: **NPNF**:  $16.78 \pm 0.18$  vs. **LPNF**:  $14.27 \pm 0.27$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=8$  and  $9$  respectively; 42nd day: **NPNF**:  $18.99 \pm 0.33$  vs. **LPNF**:  $17.18 \pm 0.29$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=8$  and  $7$  respectively, 49° day: **NPNF**:  $20.51 \pm 0.13$  vs. **LPNF**:  $19.06 \pm 0.14$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=7$  and  $12$  respectively ; 56th day: **NPNF**:  $21.87 \pm 0.37$  vs. **LPNF**:  $19.86 \pm 0.23$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=9$  and  $14$  respectively; 63rd day: **NPNF**:  $22.41 \pm 0.28$  vs. **LPNF**:  $21.17 \pm 0.17$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=12$  and  $14$  respectively; **CL**, 28th day: **NPNF**:  $9.99 \pm 0.21$  vs. **LPNF**:  $8.25 \pm 0.2$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=12$  and  $6$  respectively, 35th day: **NPNF**:  $12.54 \pm 0.28$  vs. **LPNF**:  $11.03 \pm 0.34$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=8$  and  $9$  respectively; 42nd day: **NPNF**:  $14.89 \pm 0.24$  vs. **LPNF**:  $13.25 \pm 0.3$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=8$  and  $9$  respectively; 49th day: **NPNF**:  $16.84 \pm 0.22$  vs. **LPNF**:  $15.47 \pm 0.15$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=7$  and  $12$  respectively; 56th day: **NPNF**:  $17.86 \pm 0.21$  vs. **LPNF**:  $16.58 \pm 0.25$ ,

$p<0.01$ ,  $n=9$  and 14 respectively; 63rd day: **NPNF**:  $18.3\pm0.22$  vs. **LPNF**:  $17.38\pm0.15$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $n=12$  and 14 respectively, 70 th day: **NPNF**:  $18.71\pm0.25$  vs. **LPNF**:  $17.8\pm0.21$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $n=12$  and 14 respectively, **Table 4**) when compared to the NPNF group. Regarding LPHF group, the NPHF group had a greater caudal length from 28th to 70th day, except for the 35th day (28th day: **NPHF**:  $10.77\pm0.26$  vs. **LPHF**:  $8.51\pm0.11$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $n=10$  and 7 respectively; 35th day: **NPHF**:  $12.7\pm0.26$  vs. **LPHF**:  $11.17\pm0.32$ ,  $p>0.05$ ,  $n=5$  and 3 respectively; 42nd day: **NPHF**:  $14.91\pm0.19$  vs. **LPHF**:  $13.55\pm0.17$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $n=8$  and 9 respectively; 56th day: **NPHF**:  $17.79\pm0.24$  vs. **LPHF**:  $16.5\pm0.2$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $n=7$  and 12 respectively; 63th day: **NPHF**:  $18.12\pm0.17$  vs. **LPHF**:  $17.24\pm0.16$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $n=10$  and 12 respectively; 70th day: **NPHF**:  $18.55\pm0.23$  vs. **LPHF**:  $17.7\pm0.15$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $n=10$  and 12 respectively, **Table 4**). Regarding abdominal circumference, it was observed a statistically significant difference only in the 28th day of life, between the NPHF and LPHF groups (**NPHF**:  $11.54\pm0.38$  vs. **LPHF**:  $9.9\pm0.19$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $n=10$  and 7 respectively, **Table 4**).

The food intake after weaning did not differ between groups at any of the evaluated moments. Similar to the food intake, there were also no differences in water consumption, except for the first week after weaning, being higher in the LPNF group when compared to the LPHF group (**LPNF**:  $23.44\pm3.01$  vs. **LPHF**:  $12.67\pm0.32$ ,  $p<0.05$ ,  $n=6$  and 5 respectively, **Figure 6**). For the analysis, both consumptions (food and water) were organized on a weekly basis.

At the end of lactation, considering the final formation of the groups (NPNF, NPHF, LPNF and LPHF), the animals of the groups from undernourished mothers had lower levels of albumin when compared to NPNF. The LPHF group had lower level of total proteins when compared to NPHF group. There was no difference in the levels of triglycerides, cholesterol and fasting blood glucose. After consumption of a high-fat diet or control for nine days (from 21 to 30 days of life) the differences observed in relation to albumin and total proteins disappeared. There were also no differences among groups for cholesterol and fasting blood glucose. The triglyceride, on the other hand, was higher in the LPNF group when compared to the animals that consumed the high-fat diet, independent of the maternal diet. After 69 days of consumption of high-fat or control diet (from 21 to 90 days of life), the absence of difference in levels of albumin, total proteins, cholesterol and fasting blood glucose, seen at 30 days of life, remained.

However, triglycerides reduced in the LPHF group when compared to the NPNF and NPHF groups (**Table 5**).

Taking into account the respiratory parameters evaluated during the lactation period, the animals from undernourished mothers had a reduction in the RF in the 7th and 14th days of life when compared to the control group (7th day: **NP**:  $167.8 \pm 5.91$  vs. **LP**:  $114.2 \pm 1.85$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $n=12$ ; 14th day: **NP**:  $144.7 \pm 6.16$  vs. **LP**:  $125.4 \pm 3.95$ ,  $p = 0.0322$ ,  $n=32$  and 37 respectively, **Figure 7A**). On the 21st day of life, the TV and VE of the undernourished animals were higher (**NP**:  $12.21 \pm 0.77$  vs. **LP**:  $15.57 \pm 0.72$ ,  $p = 0.0026$ ,  $n=27$  and 37 respectively for TV; **NP**:  $1463 \pm 97.63$  vs. **LP**:  $1818 \pm 84.69$ ,  $p = 0.0080$ ,  $n=27$  and 37 respectively for VE, **Figure 7B and C**). When comparing the respiratory parameters, in the 21th day of life, considering the final formation of four groups (NPNF, NPHF, LPNF, LPHF), it was observed that the LPNF group presented higher TV when compared to the NPNF group (**NPNF**:  $11.49 \pm 0.87$  vs. **LPNF**:  $15.76 \pm 1.08$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $n=13$  and 20 respectively, **Figure 8B**). After the consumption of a high-fat or control diet for nine days (from 21 to 30 days of life), the LPNF group presented higher TV and VE when compared to the NPHF group (**NPHF**:  $8.99 \pm 0.61$  vs. **LPNF**:  $12.04 \pm 0.71$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $n=15$  and 20 respectively for TV; **NPHF**:  $992.5 \pm 75.06$  vs. **LPNF**:  $1462 \pm 112.8$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $n=15$  and 20 respectively for VE, **Figure 9B and C**). After 69 days of consumption of high-fat or control diet (from 21 to 90 days of life), a similar behavior was observed between all variables analyzed when compared between the groups (**Figure 10**).

The last experiment performed in the study was the collection and weighing of organs. There was no statistically significant difference for most tissues, except for the weight of the kidneys that was higher in the undernourished animals that consumed a high-fat diet when compared to the undernourished animals that consumed a control diet (**LPHF**:  $0.37 \pm 0.02$  vs. **LPNF**:  $0.31 \pm 0.01$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $n=11$  and 12 respectively for right kidney; **LPHF**:  $0.35 \pm 0.02$  vs. **LPNF**:  $0.28 \pm 0.03$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $n=11$  and 12 respectively for Left kidney **Table 6**).

## Discussion

Our study is the first to show the influence of the high-fat diet on the respiratory system in a nutritional transition model. We describe the maternal parameters during gestation and lactation and the responses of the puppies from the first day of life to the ninetieth.

During the gestation period, although the mothers consumed different diets, the consumption of food and water, as well as the mass gain, were not different. This response was also observed by other authors (21, 22) and may be related to the fact that diets are isocaloric. Considering that the amount of energy ingested (in kcal) was similar between the groups, a similar mass gain also seems to be an expected response. The size of the offspring was not a variable that influences the mass gain among the mothers, since the number puppies born did not differ between groups (data not shown).

We observed that the offspring of rats submitted to perinatal protein undernutrition presented low birth weight (24 hours after birth) when compared to the control group and remained so throughout the lactation period. The low protein diet during gestation is used as an experimental model of intrauterine growth restriction (23) and consequently leads to low birth weight, as seen in several studies (8, 22, 23). In addition, body weight is known to be a direct indication of nutritional status. Thus, the low weight presented by the rats confirms the effectiveness of the diet used in our study to induce undernutrition in the offspring. Finally, taking into account that birth weight is inversely proportional to the late risk of developing hypertension (24) and that this is the main risk factor for cardiovascular diseases (25), the fact that the animals in our study presented low birth weight suggests an increased cardiovascular risk when compared to control animals.

The behavior of somatic growth presented in our study reflects the change generated by maternal protein undernutrition that led to low weight and, consequently, to reductions in growth parameters. This result is in accordance with a previous study that used the same model of maternal protein undernutrition (8).

The lower renal weight presented by undernourished rats is a response that has been previously observed in a model of protein undernutrition (26). Undernourished animals that consumed the high-fat diet regained this deficit, since they presented a

greater renal weight when compared to the LPNF group, maintaining, though, values similar to the other groups. Due to the fact that some studies that used a low-protein diet (3, 26) or high-fat diet (27, 28) showed detrimental alterations in the kidneys, a more detailed evaluation in this organ in the undernourished animals that consumed a high-fat diet is necessary for a better understanding of how the combination of these environmental insults can induce renal impairment, since, as far as we are concerned, there is just one study that shows these changes (14).

At the end of lactation, undernourished animals had a reduction in total protein and albumin values. Castro and Mialich (29) have also found this response and stated that serum proteins may reflect the level of appropriate protein intake. In fact, some authors (30, 31) showed that the consumption of a low protein diet during lactation is enough to reduce the synthesis and secretion of  $\alpha$ -lactalbumin by the mammary glands, leading to a decrease in protein concentrations in breast milk. In the present study, at 30 days of age, these changes were no more observed. Corroborating with what was stated by Castro and Mialich (29), undernourished animals, in our study, once fed a diet containing appropriate levels of protein (for at least nine days), presented normalized total protein and albumin values.

At 30 days, the animals of the LPNF group presented increased triglyceride when compared to the LPHF and NPNF groups. Zhu et al. (32) has identified an increase in the level of hepatic triglyceride in undernourished animals in response to maternal protein undernutrition during gestation. The gene expression of hepatic lipoprotein lipase was also increased, which may explain an increase in triglycerides, since it promotes an increase in the phosphorylation of pyrilipins in adipose tissue, leading to a greater release of triglycerides into the bloodstream. At 90 days of life, there was a reduction of the serum triglyceride in the LPHF group when compared to the NPHF group. The composition of the high-fat diet is a primordial factor for the observation of biochemical alterations. Most lipids ingested in the diet are found in the form of triglycerides (triacylglycerols), which are compounds formed by the junction of one molecule of glycerol and three molecules of fatty acids. Fatty acids can vary according to the number of saturations (saturated, monounsaturated or polyunsaturated) and the length of the carbonic chain (short, medium and long) (LEHNINGER & NELSON, 2013). Most of the fatty acids that made up the high-fat diet used in this study were polyunsaturated fatty acids, followed by monounsaturated fatty acids and finally

saturated fatty acids. Regarding the effects of these components on serum triglyceride, a meta-analysis that gathered 14 controlled studies observed a discrete reducing effect of polyunsaturated fatty acids on triglyceride (33). In addition, monounsaturated fatty acids also have favorable effects on the levels of triglycerides and HDL cholesterol (34).

Although the diet used in this study was high-fat, its proportion of fatty acids does not appear to adversely affect serum triglyceride values, nor even cholesterol, after 69 days of consumption. The fact that LPHF animals present a reduction in triglyceride suggests a possible interaction between maternal undernutrition and consumption of the high-fat diet that needs to be better investigated.

During the lactation period, the animals from undernourished mothers had a lower respiratory frequency on the 7th and 14th days of life, and increases in the TV and VE on the 21st day, when compared to the control animals. In the rat, the critical period for the development of the respiratory system occurs from the fetal phase until about the 15th day of life, when sudden neurochemical, metabolic, ventilatory and electrophysiological changes occur (35-37). The reduction of RF, observed in our study, suggests that maternal protein undernutrition during the gestation and lactation period could influence the respiratory system control in these animals (Analysis of the maturation of the respiratory system should be done from best understanding). de Brito Alves, Nogueira (8) observed alteration in the respiratory system of animals submitted to maternal protein undernutrition. Changes in respiratory rate modulation should receive some attention, as they may contribute to the development of hypertension (38-40).

At 90 days of life, no changes were observed in ventilatory parameters. Leptin is a protein hormone produced by adipose tissue in proportion to the degree of body fat (41). It is the most widely studied adipocyte-derived factor and has effects on respiratory control modulation (42, 43), playing an important role in the mechanisms of chemoreflex control of ventilation (43). Taking into account that the animals did not present changes in the fat percentage, it is probable that the alterations triggered by the excessive production of leptin did not occur. However, due to the expectation of ventilatory changes at 90 days of life, we believe that these responses need to be better investigated.

The findings of the present study provide evidence that maternal diet during gestation and lactation can cause changes in the early life of the offspring that corroborate with the literature. On the other hand, the high-fat diet consumed by offspring apparently did not affect the analyzed parameters. Instead, some changes observed during lactation have disappeared. Some of the observed data need further analysis before any conclusions can be drawn.

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Ingredients	Diets			Nutrients	Diets		
	Nomoprotein g/100	Low protein g/100	high-fat g/100		Nomoprotein g/100	Low Protein g/100	high-fat g/100
Corn starch	52.9	63.54	15.0	Protein	17.5	9.4	22.8
Wheat flour	-	-	12.0	Animal Protein	17.0	7.0	16.0
Biscuits Cornstarch	-	-	5.0	Vegetable Protein	0.3	0.3	4.8
Soy Flour	-	-	6.0	Lipid	6.5	10.8	15.7
Gum	-	-	0.5	Carbohydrate	59.7	71.1	52.3
Lard	-	-	5.3	Fiber (Cellulose)	5.0	5.0	5.0
Margarine (65 % lipid)	-	-	4.0	Mineral Mix	3.5	3.5	3.5
Cream milk (20 % lipid)	-	-	4.0	Vitamin Mix	1.0	1.0	1.0
Casein protein (85 %)	20.0	9.41	20.0	DL-Methionine	0.3	0.3	0.3
Sucrose	10.0	10.0	18.0	Choline Bitartrate	0.25	0.25	0.25
Soybean oil	7.0	7.0	4.0	BHT	0.0014	0.0014	0.014
Fiber (cellulose)	5.0	5.0	2.0	<b>Composition according to total energy (%)</b>			
Mineral mix	3.5	3.5	2.5	Protein	19.1	9.0	20.7
Vitamin Mix	1.0	1.0	0.7	Lipid	15.9	23.1	31.9
DL-Methionine	0.3	0.3	0.25	Carbohydrate	65.0	67.9	47.4
Choline bitartrate	0.25	0.25	0.25				
BHT	0.0014	0.0014	0.014				
Sodium Chloride (NaCl)	-	-	0.3				
Monosodium Glutamate (12.3% de Na)	-	-	0.2				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0				
Total energy (Kcal/g)	3.6	3.6	4.2				

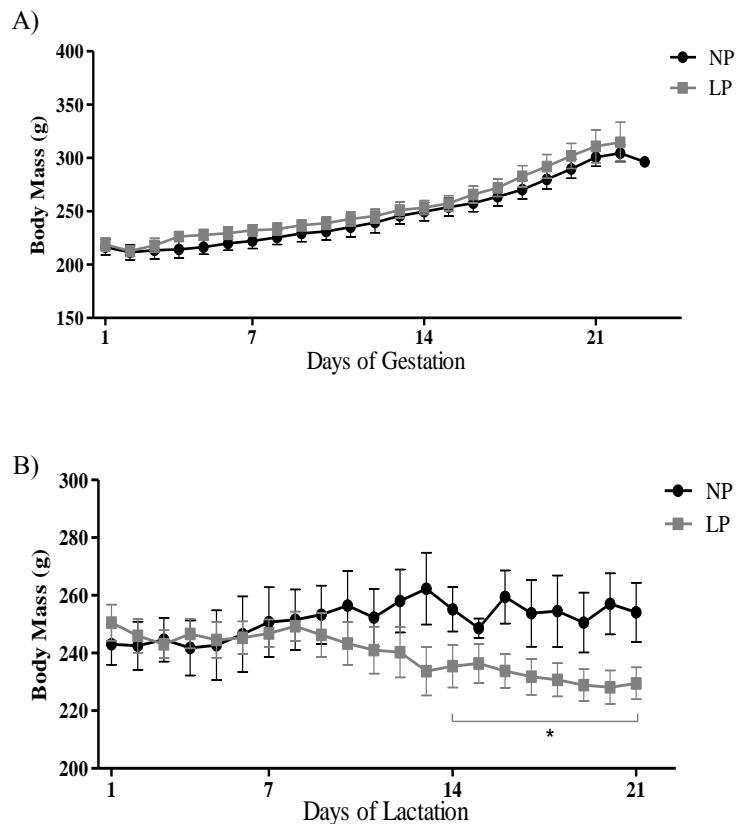
**TABLE 1. Composition of diets.** Adapted from Cavalcante et. al., 2013. **Source:** The high-fat diet was adapted from the 2002/2003 Family Budget Survey (POF); The normoprotein diet followed the recommendations of Reeves, Nielsen and Fahey Jr, 1993. The centesimal composition was analyzed in the Laboratory of Bromatology / UFPE.

<b>Fatty acids</b>	<b>High-fat Diet</b>	<b>Normoprotein Diet</b>
<b>% Saturated fat</b>	<b>29.59</b>	<b>17.32</b>
Myristic acid (C14:0)	1.09	
Palmitic acid (C16:0)	19.1	
Stearic acid (C18:0)	9.4	
<b>% Monounsaturated fat</b>	<b>34.77</b>	<b>29.93</b>
Oleic acid (C18:1)	34.77	
<b>% Polyunsaturated fat</b>	<b>35.64</b>	<b>52.79</b>
Linoleic acid (C18:2)	30.53	
Linolenic acid (C18:3)	5.11	

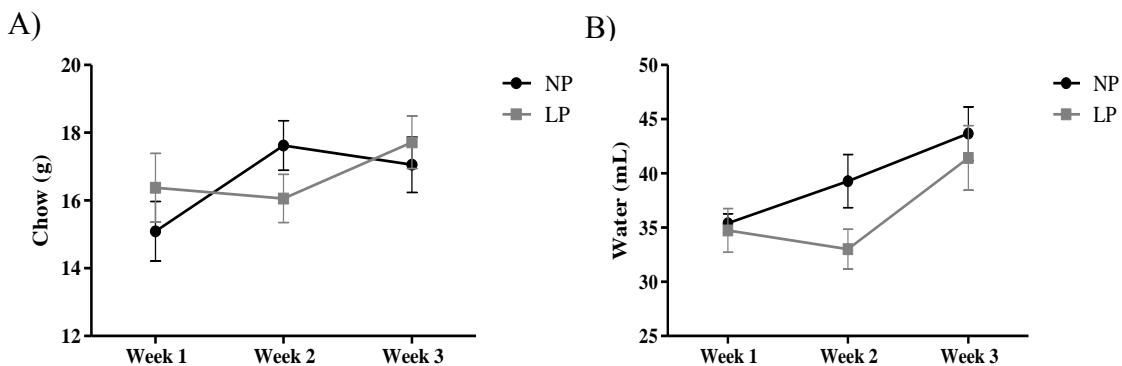
**TABLE 2. Composition of dietary fatty acids (% of total fatty acids).** Source: The analyses were made in the Center for Strategic Technologies of Northeast – CETENE, Pernambuco, Brazil. Researchers responsible for the analysis: Araújo, KS., Barbosa, MO. and Espinosa Vidal, E.

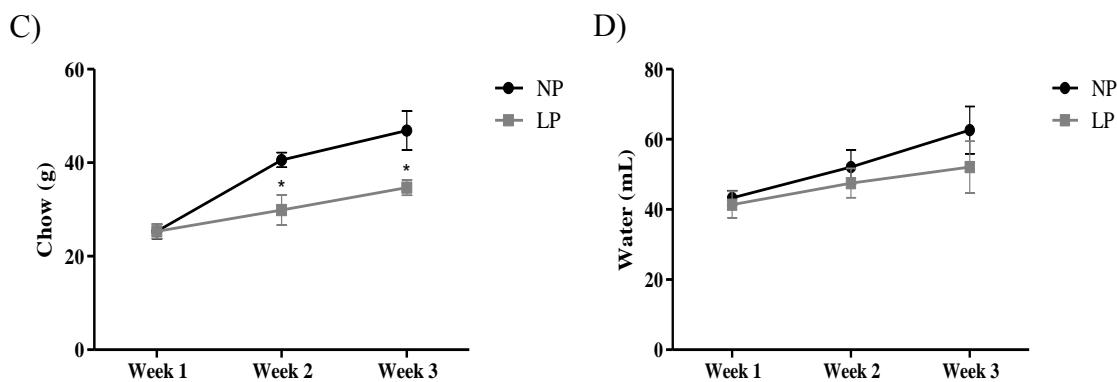
<b>Total consumption of each macronutrient (g)</b>				
<b>Mothers</b>				
	<b>Gestation</b>		<b>Lactation</b>	
	<b>NP</b>	<b>LP</b>	<b>NP</b>	<b>LP</b>
<b>Total consumed</b>	348.4	351.1	789.5	629.3
<b>Protein</b>	60.0	80.0	138.2	143.5
<b>Carbohydrate</b>	208.0	183.6	471.3	329.1
<b>Fat</b>	22.6	55.1	51.3	98.8
<b>Offspring</b>				
	<b>NPNF</b>	<b>NPHF</b>	<b>LPNF</b>	<b>LPHF</b>
<b>Total consumed</b>	1197.6	1111.8	1092.4	991.6
<b>Protein</b>	209.6	253.5	191.2	226.1
<b>Carbohydrate</b>	715.0	581.5	652.2	518.6
<b>Fat</b>	77.8	174.6	71.0	155.7

**TABLE 3. Total consumption of each macronutrient.** The calculation was made from the sum of all diet consumed during gestation and lactation (mothers' consumption); and from the 22nd day of life (after weaning) until the end of the study (offspring's consumption). The total diet consumed represents the sum of the macro and micronutrients plus the fibers (the composition of the diets is described in table 1).

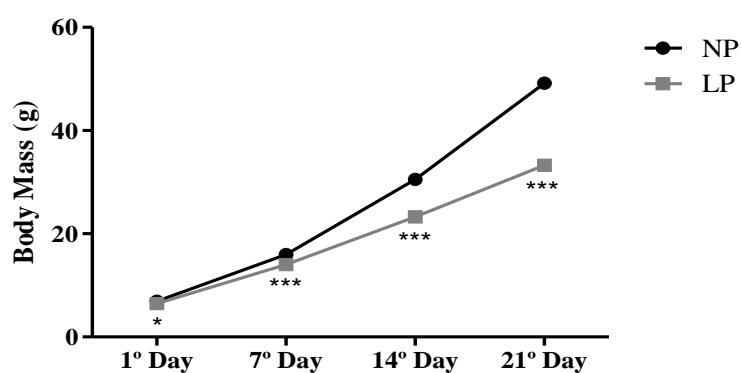


**FIGURE 2. Evolution of body mass during the gestation (A) and lactation (B) period.** Values represent mean  $\pm$  EPM of the body mass of mothers that received normoprotein (NP, 17% protein, n = 6) or low protein diet (LP, 8% protein, n = 6) during gestation and lactation. \*Statistical difference when compared to the NP group (control). Unpaired Student's t-test (during gestation) and Mann-Whitney test (during lactation) were used to evaluate the differences between groups ( $p < 0.05$ ).



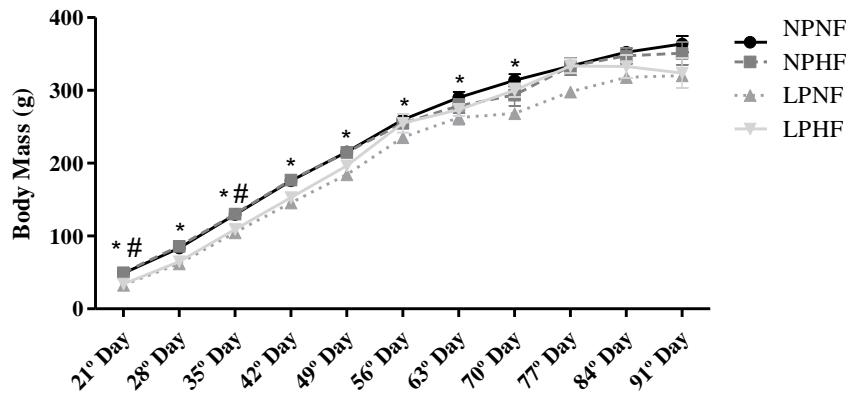


**FIGURE 3. Food and water consumption during gestation (A and B, respectively) and lactation period (C and D, respectively).** Values represent mean  $\pm$  EPM of diet and water ingested by mothers that received normoprotein (NP, 17% protein,  $n = 6$ ) or low protein diet (LP, 8% protein,  $n = 6$ ) during gestation and lactation. \*Statistical difference when compared to the NP group (control). Unpaired Student's t-test (during the second and third week of gestation and all lactation, for chow ingestion, and during the first week of gestation and all lactation for water ingestion) and Mann-Whitney test (during the first week of gestation for chow ingestion and during the second and third week of gestation for water ingestion) were used to evaluate the differences between groups ( $p < 0.05$ ).



**FIGURE 4. Evolution of the body mass of the puppies during the lactation period.** Values referring to the mean of the body mass obtained by the puppies from mothers that received a normoprotein (NP, 17% protein,  $n = 22$ ) or low protein diet (LP, 8% protein,  $n = 26$ ) during gestation and lactation. \*Statistical difference when compared to the NP group (control)  $p < 0.05$ . \*\*\*Statistical difference when compared to the NP group (control)  $p < 0.001$ .

group (control),  $p < 0.01$ . Mann-Whitney test were used to evaluate the differences between groups ( $p < 0.05$ ).



**FIGURE 5. Evolution of the body mass of the puppies after weaning.** Values referring to the mean of body mass obtained by the puppies that consumed a normoprotein diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet (NP-NF, 17% protein) or low protein diet (LP-NF, 8% protein) during the perinatal period; or by in the puppies that consumed a high-fat diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet (NP-HF) or low protein diet (LP-HF) during the perinatal period. \*Statistical difference when compared to the NP group (control). \*Statistical difference between NPNF and LPNF. #Statistical difference between NPHF and LPHF. Kruskal-Wallis was used to compare the difference between groups and was followed, when necessary, by the Dunn posttest ( $p < 0.05$ ).

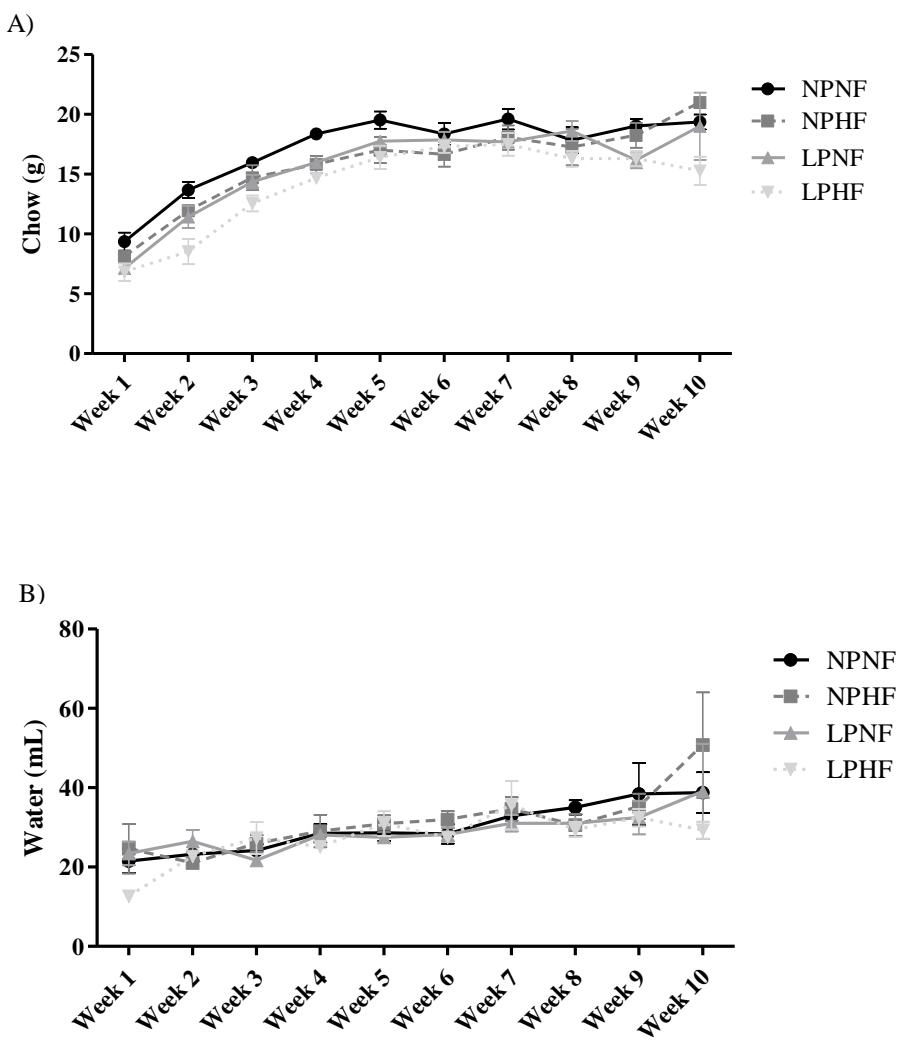
OBSERVED DAY	LACTATION							
	NAL		CL		AC			
	NP	LP	NP	LP	NP	LP		
1°	5.18±0.07	5.06±0.06*	1.72±0.03	1.69±0.03	4.67±0.1	4.63±0.06		
7°	7.17±0.06	7.07±0.05	3.32±0.06	3.25±0.05	6.13±0.08	5.77±0.12*		
14°	8.93±0.1	8.48±0.12*	5.41±0.18	4.92±0.07*	7.94±0.19	6.95±0.18*		
21°	11.08±0.22	10.4±0.1*	7.14±0.22	6.95±0.18	8.77±0.18	8.18±0.13*		

**TABLE 4. Measurements of naso-anal length (NAL), caudal length (CL) and abdominal circumference (AC) during lactation.** Somatic growth measurements were

performed 24 hours after birth and each week after, in the puppies from mothers that consumed a normoprotein (NP, 17% protein, n =22) or low protein diet (LP, 8% protein, n =26) during gestation and lactation. \*Statistical difference when compared to the NP group (control). Mann-Whitney test was used to compare the difference between groups (p <0.05).

OBSERVED DAY	POST WEANING											
	NAL				CL				AC			
	NPNF	NPHF	LPNF	LPHF	NPNF	NPHF	LPNF	LPHF	NPNF	NPHF	LPNF	LPHF
21°	11.1±0.3	11.0±0.3	10.4±0.2	10.4±0.2	7.1±0.3	7.2±0.4	7.2±0.1	6.8±0.3	8.6±0.3	8.9±0.1	8.1±0.3	8.2±0.2
28°	14.0±0.2	14.0±0.2	<b>12.6±0.4<sup>A</sup></b>	13.3±0.1	10.0±0.2	10.8±0.3	<b>8.3±0.2<sup>A</sup></b>	<b>8.5±0.1<sup>B</sup></b>	10.4±0.2	11.5±0.4	9.4±0.2	<b>9.9±0.2<sup>B</sup></b>
35°	16.8±0.2	16.1±0.3	<b>14.3±0.3<sup>A</sup></b>	14.2±0.5	12.5±0.3	12.7±0.3	<b>11.0±0.3<sup>A</sup></b>	11.2±0.3	12.3±0.2	12.3±0.1	12.0±0.4	12.5±0.4
42°	19.0±0.3	18.2±0.2	<b>17.2±0.3<sup>A</sup></b>	17.7±0.1	14.9±0.2	14.9±0.2	<b>13.3±0.3<sup>A</sup></b>	<b>13.6±0.2<sup>B</sup></b>	13.8±0.1	14.4±0.3	13.5±0.3	14.3±0.5
49°	20.5±0.1	20.0±0.3	<b>19.0±0.1<sup>A</sup></b>	18.8±0.3	16.8±0.2	16.6±0.2	<b>15.4±0.2<sup>A</sup></b>	<b>15.1±0.2<sup>B</sup></b>	14.4±0.3	15.1±0.3	14.2±0.2	14.5±0.2
56°	21.9±0.4	20.9±0.3	<b>19.9±0.2<sup>A</sup></b>	20.3±0.4	17.9±0.2	17.8±0.2	<b>16.6±0.3<sup>A</sup></b>	<b>16.5±0.2<sup>B</sup></b>	15.8±0.2	15.7±0.3	15.0±0.2	15.5±0.2
63°	22.4±0.3	21.9±0.3	<b>21.2±0.2<sup>A</sup></b>	21.5±0.2	18.3±0.2	18.1±0.2	<b>17.4±0.2<sup>A</sup></b>	<b>17.2±0.2<sup>B</sup></b>	16.6±0.1	16.7±0.3	15.6±0.3	16.4±0.3
70°	22.6±0.2	22.4±0.2	21.9±0.2	22.4±0.2	18.7±0.3	18.6±0.2	<b>17.8±0.2<sup>A</sup></b>	<b>17.7±0.2<sup>B</sup></b>	17.2±0.9	16.6±0.3	16.2±0.3	16.6±0.2
77°	23.5±0.2	23.1±0.3	<b>22.2±0.3<sup>A</sup></b>	22.9±0.4	18.9±0.2	18.8±0.3	18.1±0.2	18.1±0.2	17.3±0.2	17.4±0.2	16.0±0.4	16.8±0.3
84°	23.6±0.2	23.3±0.2	22.9±0.1	23.4±0.3	19.4±0.4	18.9±0.2	18.7±0.2	18.6±0.2	16.7±0.2	16.9±0.3	17.3±0.2	16.9±0.4
91°	23.9±0.3	24.1±0.3	22.9±0.2	23.4±0.3	19.1±0.1	19.3±0.2	18.9±0.2	18.9±0.3	18.1±0.3	18.4±0.3	17.3±0.4	17.3±0.6

**TABLE 5. Measurements of naso-anal length (NAL), caudal length (CL) and abdominal circumference (AC) after weaning.** Somatic growth measurements were performed in the twenty-first day of life and each week after, until the ninety-first day of life, in the puppies that consumed a normoprotein diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet too (NP-NF, 17% protein) or low protein diet (LP-NF, 8% protein) during the perinatal period; And in the puppies that consumed a high-fat diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet (NP-HF) or low protein diet (LP-HF) during the perinatal period. **A** - Statistical difference when compared to NPNF group; **B** - Statistical difference when compared to NPHF group. Kruskal-Wallis was used to compare the difference between groups and was followed, when necessary, by the Dunn posttest (p <0.05).



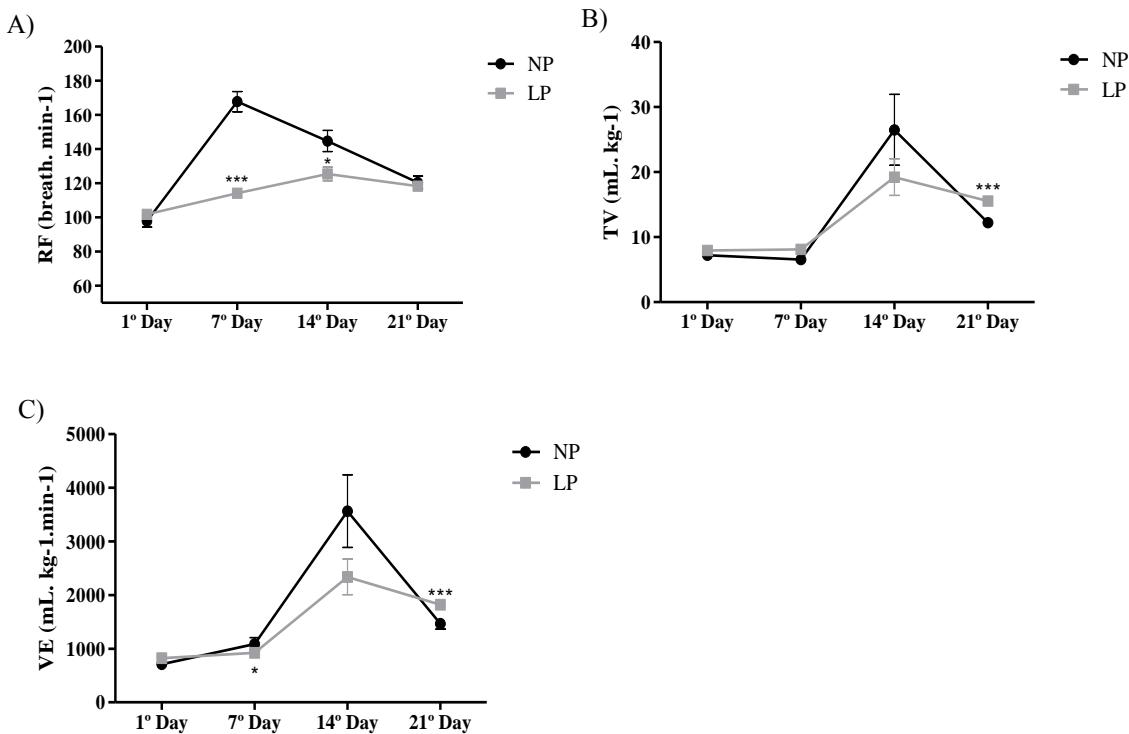
**FIGURE 6. Food (A) and water (B) consumption after weaning.** Values represent the amount of diet and water ingested by the puppies that consumed a normoprotein diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet too (NP-NF, 17% protein) or low protein diet (LP-NF, 8% protein) during the perinatal period; And in the puppies that consumed a high-fat diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet (NP-HF) or low protein diet (LP-HF) during the perinatal period. Kruskal-Wallis was used to compare the difference between groups and was followed, when necessary, by the Dunn posttest ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Analyzed	Day of Analysis	Groups			
		NPNF	NPHF	LPNF	LPHF
<b>Albumin</b>	<b>21°</b>	3,6±0,2	3,3±0,2	<b>2,9±0,2<sup>A</sup></b>	<b>2,9±0,1<sup>A</sup></b>
	<b>30°</b>	3,8±0,1	3,7±0,2	3,7±0,2	3,6±0,2
	<b>90°</b>	4,4±0,2	4,4±0,1	4,3±0,1	4,3±0,1
<b>Total Protein</b>	<b>21°</b>	5,4±0,2	5,7±0,3	5,0±0,1	<b>5,0±0,2<sup>B</sup></b>
	<b>30°</b>	5,2±0,3	5,4±0,2	5,1±0,1	4,8±0,2
	<b>90°</b>	6,2±0,2	6,1±0,1	6,2±0,3	6,5±0,5
<b>Triglycerides</b>	<b>21°</b>	137,7±13,0	141,6±14,5	128,6±12,0	111,3±9,5
	<b>30°</b>	213,2±20,1	175,5±27,0	294,5±19,9	<b>159,2±22,0<sup>C</sup></b>
	<b>90°</b>	136,0±12,5	123,8±9,8	114,3±6,1	<b>92,3±6,8<sup>B</sup></b>
<b>Cholesterol</b>	<b>21°</b>	118,6±7,5	112,0±6,8	138,9±9,4	115,8±10,1
	<b>30°</b>	99,5±8,9	102,8±7,9	89,6±8,4	109,8±9,2
	<b>90°</b>	82,4±7,3	91,5±2,9	90,6±3,8	77,6±4,7
<b>Fasting Blood Glucose</b>	<b>21°</b>	109,4±6,8	114,0±5,0	116,0±5,7	121,8±9,6
	<b>30°</b>	92,7±10,3	100,8±7,4	78,4±7,6	91,3±8,5
	<b>90°</b>	153,9±23,2	142,6±9,6	162,6±13,8	151,6±9,4
<b>GOT</b>	<b>90°</b>	113,5±13,7	98,4±7,1	74,1±14,3	59,3±18,2
<b>GPT</b>	<b>90°</b>	28,1±1,8	39,3±8,2	27,9±2,3	24,6±1,7

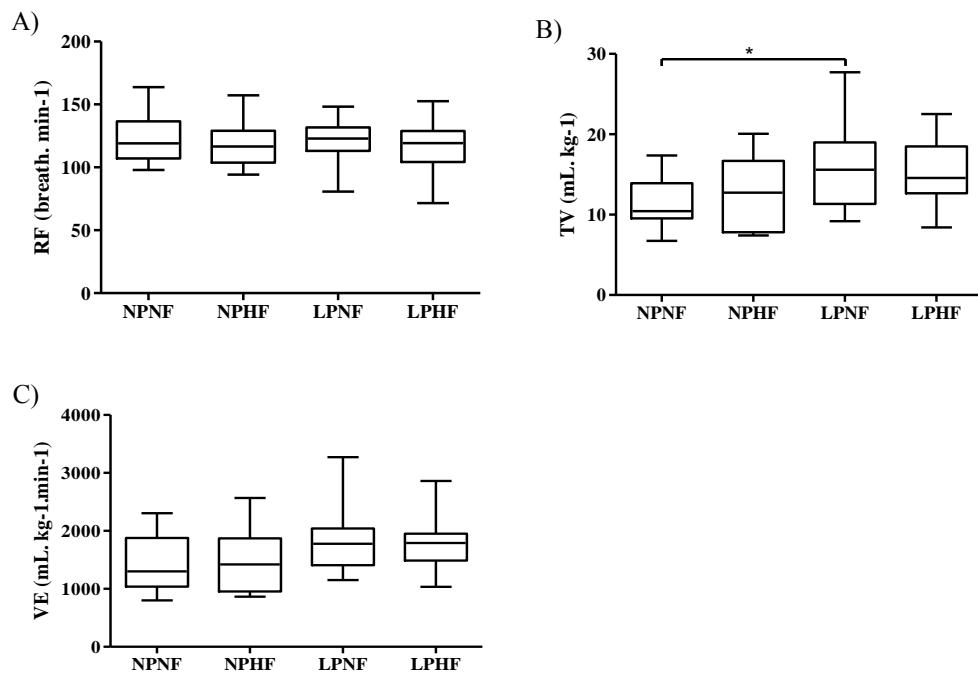
**TABLE 6. Biochemical analysis of different groups.** Blood samples were collected, after a 12 hours fasting period, in the puppies that consumed a normoprotein diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet too (NP-NF, 17% protein) or low protein diet (LP-NF, 8% protein) during the perinatal period; And in the puppies that consumed a high-fat diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet (NP-HF) or low protein diet (LP-HF) during the perinatal period. **A** - Statistical difference when compared to NPNF group; **B** - Statistical difference when compared to NPHF group; **C** - Statistical difference when compared to LPNF group. Kruskal-Wallis was used to compare the difference between groups followed, when necessary, by the Dunn's posttest ( $p<0.05$ ). **GOT** - Glutamic-Oxaloacetic Transaminase); **GPT** - Glutamic Pyruvic Transaminase;

Tissue	Groups			
	NP-NF	NP-HF	LP-NF	LP-HF
Heart (g/100g)	0.33±0.01	0.34±0.014	0.34±0.008	0.37±0.017
Liver (g/100g)	2.96±0.103	3.11±0.111	2.93±0.097	3.33±0.155
Lung (g/100g)	0.53±0.027	0.64±0.082	0.56±0.04	0.56±0.064
Spleen (g/100g)	0.21±0.022	0.21±0.016	0.22±0.028	0.25±0.036
Right Kidney (g/100g)	0.33±0.011	0.36±0.013	0.31±0.011	<b>0.36±0.017<sup>C</sup></b>
Left Kidney (g/100g)	0.33±0.022	0.35±0.014	0.28±0.025	<b>0.35±0.014<sup>C</sup></b>
Brainstem (g/100g)	0.07±0.002	0.06±0.002	0.07±0.003	0.07±0.005
Hypothalamus (g/100g)	0.07±0.033	0.05±0.035	0.02±0.001	0.02±0.001
Soleus (g/100g)	0.04±0.003	0.05±0.009	0.04±0.002	0.04±0.002
EDL (g/100g)	0.02±0.007	0.03±0.005	0.02±0.003	0.02±0.003
Fat Percentage (%)	5.95±0.307	6.34±0.38	5.1±0.621	6.5±0.623
Fat Free Mass (%)	94.05±0.307	93.66±0.38	94.9±0.621	93.5±0.623
Visceral Adipose Tissue (g/100g)	1.98±0.233	2.16±0.265	1.94±0.391	2.77±0.531
Subcutaneous Adipose Tissue (g/100g)	1.28±0.175	1.3±0.113	0.97±0.086	1.27±0.145
Epididymal Adipose Tissue (g/100g)	0.83±0.219	0.93±0.288	0.59±0.165	0.76±0.254
Retroperitoneal Adipose Tissue (g/100g)	1.87±0.144	2.09±0.2	1.6±0.239	1.95±0.222

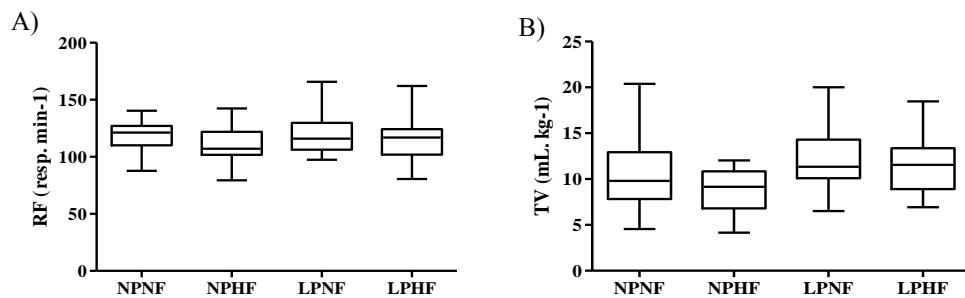
**TABLE 7. Organ weights and body adiposity.** The tissues were collected at 90 days of life in the puppies that consumed a normoprotein diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet too (NP-NF, 17% protein, n =7-13) or low protein diet (LP-NF, 8% protein, n = 6-12) during the perinatal period; And in the puppies that consumed a high-fat diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet (NP-HF, n=5-10) or low protein diet (LP-HF, n=5-11) during the perinatal period. **C** – Statistical difference when compared to LP-NF group. Kruskal-Wallis and One-Way ANOVA were used to compare the difference between groups and was followed, when necessary, by the Dunn and Bonferroni posttest, respectively (p<0.05).

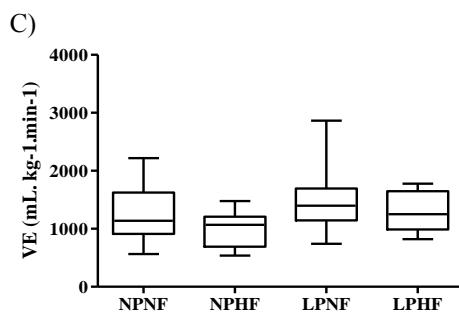


**FIGURE 7. Respiratory parameters evaluated during the lactation period.** Evaluation of A) Respiratory frequency (RF), B) Tidal Volume (TV) and C) Pulmonary Ventilation (VE) during the lactation period in rats from mothers that received a normoprotein (NP, 17% protein, n=12-32) or low protein diet (LP, 8% protein, n=12-38) during gestation and lactation. \*Statistical difference when compared to the NP group (control), p <0.05. \*\*\*Statistical difference when compared to the NP group (control), p <0.01. Unpaired Student's t-test (in the first and seventh day for RF, seventh and twenty-first of TV and twenty-first for VE) and Mann-Whitney test (in the fourteenth and twenty-first day for RF, first and fourteenth for TV and first, seventh and fourteenth day for VE) were used to evaluate the differences between groups (p <0.05).

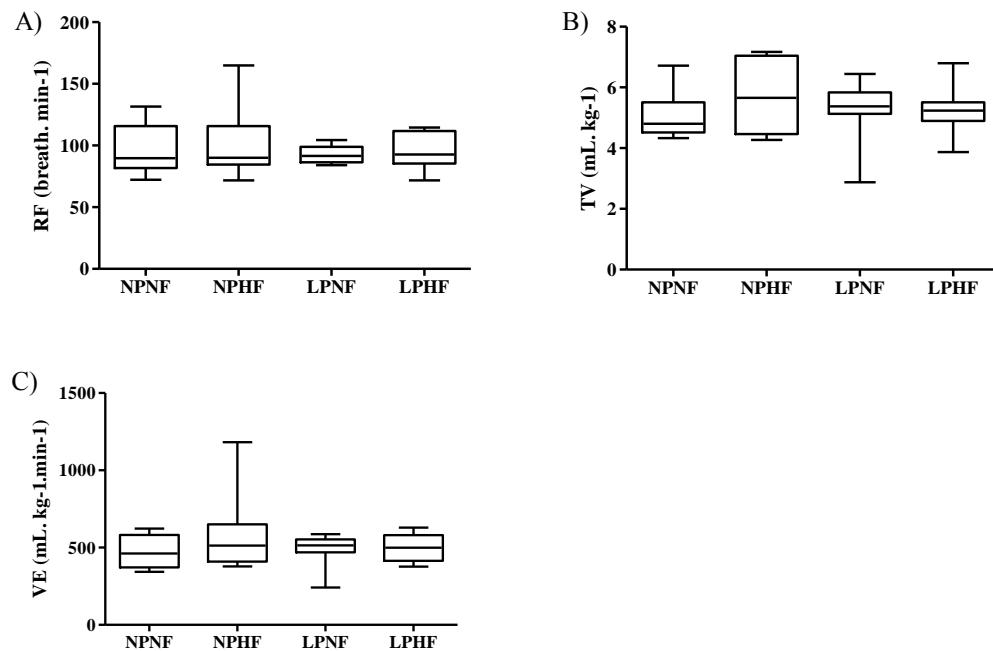


**FIGURE 8. Respiratory parameters evaluated in the 21º day of life.** Evaluation of A) Respiratory frequency (RF), B) Tidal Volume (TV) and C) Pulmonary Ventilation (VE) in the puppies who consumed a normoprotein diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet too (NP-NF, 17% protein, n = 13) or low protein diet (LP-NF, 8% protein, n = 20) during the perinatal period; And in the puppies that consumed a high-fat diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet (NP-HF, n= 14) or low protein diet (LP-HF, n= 17) during the perinatal period. One-Way ANOVA was used to compare the differences between groups and was followed, when necessary, by the Bonferroni posttest ( $p < 0.05$ ).





**FIGURE 9. Respiratory parameters evaluated in the 30º day of life.** Evaluation of A) Respiratory frequency (RF), B) Tidal Volume (TV) and C) Pulmonary Ventilation (VE) in the puppies that consumed a normoprotein diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet too (NP-NF, 17% protein, n = 16) or low protein diet (LP-NF, 8% protein, n = 20) during the perinatal period; And in the puppies that consumed a high-fat diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet (NP-HF, n= 15) or low protein diet (LP-HF, n= 18) during the perinatal period. One-Way ANOVA was used to compare the differences in RF and VE between groups followed, when necessary, by the Bonferroni posttest; Kruskal-Wallis was used to compare the difference in TV and was followed, when necessary, by the Dunn posttest ( $p < 0.05$ ).



**FIGURE 10. Respiratory parameters evaluated in the 90º day of life.** Evaluation of A) Respiratory frequency (RF), B) Tidal Volume (TV) and C) Pulmonary Ventilation (VE) in the puppies that consumed a normoprotein diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet too (NP-NF, 17% protein, n = 11) or low protein diet (LP-NF, 8% protein, n = 8) during the perinatal period; And in the puppies that consumed a high-fat diet and came from mothers that consumed normoprotein diet (NP-HF, n= 8) or low protein diet (LP-HF, n= 8) during the perinatal period. Kruskal-Wallis was used to compare the difference between groups and was followed, when necessary, by the Dunn posttest ( $p <0.05$ ).

## 6 CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

O presente estudo buscou avaliar os efeitos da associação de dieta hipoproteica durante gestação e lactação e dieta hiperlipídica após o desmame em ratos. A desnutrição proteica materna, de fato, está relacionada a diversas alterações na prole. Nossa hipótese inicial era que haveria uma associação entre as dietas levando ao desenvolvimento de danos mais severos, quando comparados aos danos vistos de forma isolada. Porém, essa resposta não foi observada. Pelo contrário, mesmo consumindo a dieta hiperlipídica, alterações observadas nos grupos desnutridos desapareceram ao longo do tempo, com exceção do triglicerídeo e peso renal. Contudo, a normalização de alguns parâmetros como, por exemplo, a massa corporal aos 90 dias de vida, não significa a ausência de risco para a saúde desses animais. Sendo assim, a continuidade da investigação do efeito da associação da desnutrição proteica materna com a dieta hiperlipídica após o desmame utilizada neste estudo se faz necessária, para que se possa ampliar o entendimento quanto ao real impacto dessa associação.

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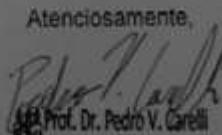
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**ANEXO A - Comprovante de aprovação do comitê de ética de estudos com animais.**

	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Centro de Biociências</b></p> <p style="text-align: center;">Av. Prof. Nelson Chaves, s/n. 50670-420 / Recife - PE - Brasil fone: (55 81) 2126 8840   2126 8351 fax: (55 81) 2126 8350 <a href="http://www.ccb.ufpe.br">www.ccb.ufpe.br</a></p> <p style="text-align: right;">Recife, 06 de abril de 2016.</p> <p>Ofício nº 17/16</p> <p>Da Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais (CEUA) da UFPE      Para: Prof.ª Alice Valença Araújo      Núcleo de Saúde Coletiva      Centro Acadêmico de Vitória      Universidade Federal de Pernambuco      Processo nº 23076.044287/2015-96</p> <p>Os membros da Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais do Centro de Biociências da Universidade Federal de Pernambuco (CEUA-UFPE) avaliaram seu projeto de pesquisa intitulado, <b>"Avaliação das alterações vasculares de ratos submetidos a dietas hipoproteíca perinatal e hipolipídica pós-natal."</b></p> <p>Concluímos que os procedimentos descritos para a utilização experimental dos animais encontram-se de acordo com as normas sugeridas pelo Colégio Brasileiro para Experimentação Animal e com as normas internacionais estabelecidas pelo National Institute of Health Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals as quais são adotadas como critérios de avaliação e julgamento pela CEUA-UFPE.</p> <p>Encontra-se de acordo com as normas vigentes no Brasil, especialmente a Lei 11.794 de 08 de outubro de 2008, que trata da questão do uso de animais para fins científicos e didáticos.</p> <p>Diante do exposto, emitimos <b>parecer favorável</b> aos protocolos experimentais a serem realizados.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-top: 10px;">         Origem do animal: Biotério do CAV/UFPE; Animais: Ratos Wistar, Idade: 90 dias; Sexo: machos e fêmeas, Peso: 290-340g; Nº total de animais: 33.     </div> <div style="text-align: right; margin-top: 20px;">         Atenciosamente,            Prof. Dr. Pedro V. Corrêa  <small>Presidente do CEB / CCB - UFPE UFPE - SIAPE 1301584</small> </div>
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**ANEXO B – Convite aos membros da banca examinadora.**



UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE PERNAMBUCO – UFPE  
CENTRO ACADÉMICO DE VITÓRIA – CAV  
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM NUTRIÇÃO, ATIVIDADE FÍSICA E PLASTICIDADE FENOTÍPICA – PPGNAFPF

Of. nº 018/2017 – PPGNAFPF/CAV/UFPE

Vitória de Santo Antão, 26 de janeiro de 2017.

Aos  
Membros da Banca Examinadora

Assunto: **Composição da Banca e Data da Defesa**

Prezados Docentes,

Informamos a Vossas Senhorias que o Colegiado do Programa de Pós-graduação em Nutrição, Atividade Física e Plasticidade Fenotípica aprovou a proposta de Banca Examinadora de Dissertação de Mestrado do aluno **Sávio dos Santos Barbosa**, com a indicação dos seguintes membros:

- |                   |  |
|-------------------|--|
| 1º Examinador:    | Camille de Moura Balarini (titular externo)  |
| 2º Examinador:    | Mariana Pinheiro Fernandes (titular interno) |
| 3º Examinador:    | José Luiz de Brito Alves (titular externo)   |
| Suplente interno: | Carol Virginia Góis Leandro                  |
| Suplente externo: | Simone do Nascimento Fraga                   |

Informamos ainda que a defesa da Dissertação, desenvolvida sob a orientação da Prof.<sup>a</sup> Alice Valença Araújo e intitulada “Parâmetros bioquímicos e ventilatórios de ratos submetidos às dietas hipoproteica perinatal e hiperlipídica pós desmame”, será realizada no dia **23 de fevereiro de 2017, às 14h**, no Auditório do Centro Acadêmico de Vitória da Universidade Federal de Pernambuco.

Atenciosamente,

**João Henrique Costa Silva**  
 Vice-Coordenador do Programa de  
 Pós-Graduação em Nutrição, Atividade  
 Física e Plasticidade Fenotípica  
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