Glucocorticoid receptor is required for foetal heart maturation

Eva A. Rog-Zielinska¹, Adrian Thomson¹, Christopher J. Kenyon¹, David G. Brownstein², Carmel M. Moran¹, Dorota Szumska¹, Zoi Michailidou¹,³, Jennifer Richardson¹, Elizabeth Owen¹, Alistair Watt³, Harris Morrison⁶, Lesley M. Forrester⁵, Shoumo Bhattacharya⁴, Megan C. Holmes¹ and Karen E. Chapman¹,

¹Centre for Cardiovascular Science, ²Mouse Pathology Core and ³MRC Centre for Inflammation Research, University of Edinburgh, Queen’s Medical Research Institute, Edinburgh EH16 4TJ, UK ⁴Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics, Oxford OX3 7BN, UK ⁵MRC Centre for Regenerative Medicine, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh EH16 4UU, UK ⁶MRC Institute of Genetics and Molecular Medicine, University of Edinburgh, Western General Hospital, Edinburgh EH4 2XU, UK

Received February 6, 2013; Revised March 27, 2013; Accepted April 12, 2013

Glucocorticoids are vital for the structural and functional maturation of foetal organs, yet excessive foetal exposure is detrimental to adult cardiovascular health. To elucidate the role of glucocorticoid signalling in late-gestation cardiovascular maturation, we have generated mice with conditional disruption of glucocorticoid receptor (GR) in cardiomyocytes and vascular smooth muscle cells using smooth muscle protein 22-driven Cre recombinase (SMGRKO mice) and compared them with mice with global deficiency in GR (GR²/²). Echocardiography shows impaired heart function in both SMGRKO and GR²/² mice at embryonic day (E)17.5, associated with generalized oedema. Cardiac ultrastructure is markedly disrupted in both SMGRKO and GR²/² mice at E17.5, with short, disorganized myofibrils and cardiomyocytes that fail to align in the compact myocardium. Failure to induce critical genes involved in contractile function, calcium handling and energy metabolism underpins this common phenotype. However, although hearts of GR²/² mice are smaller, with 22% reduced ventricular volume at E17.5, SMGRKO hearts are normally sized. Moreover, while levels of mRNA encoding atrial natriuretic peptide are reduced in E17.5 GR²/² hearts, they are normal in foetal SMGRKO hearts. These data demonstrate that structural, functional and biochemical maturation of the foetal heart is dependent on glucocorticoid signalling within cardiomyocytes and vascular smooth muscle, though some aspects of heart maturation (size, ANP expression) are independent of GR at these key sites.

INTRODUCTION

Foetal glucocorticoid levels rise dramatically in late gestation in mammals, essential for maturation in preparation for life after birth (1). In mice, adrenal glucocorticoid synthesis, negligible at embryonic day (E) 14.5, increases rapidly from E15.5 to peak at E17.5 (2). Concurrently, maternal plasma glucocorticoid levels rise, peaking at E16 – E17. Together with the late-gestation loss of the feto-placental 11β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase-2 (11β-HSD2) ‘barrier’ that inactivates maternal glucocorticoids (3), this dual-source surge in foetal glucocorticoid levels elicits structural, functional and biochemical changes in tissues and organs required for post-natal survival and adaption (1). Hence, synthetic glucocorticoids are routinely administered to mothers in preterm labour to accelerate foetal maturation, thus improving neonatal outcome (4), though premature activation of glucocorticoid-sensitive pathways may also have undesirable long-term side-effects (3).

Most glucocorticoid effects are mediated by the glucocorticoid receptor (GR), a member of the nuclear receptor superfamily of transcription factors. GR-deficient (GR⁻/⁻) mice are glucocorticoid resistant and all born die soon after birth, principally due to lung immaturity (5), though effects on liver are also critical (6).
When compared with most organs, the heart is functional relatively early in gestation and is required for foetal survival. In mice, the fundamental structural changes in heart development occur before E13.5. However, beyond E14.5, the heart continues to undergo extensive remodelling and maturation, reflected in changes in extracellular matrix composition, the expression of contractile proteins, metabolic maturation in preparation for higher postnatal energy demand and electrophysiological maturation of excitation–contraction systems. How these structural, functional, electrical and biochemical maturation changes are coordinated is largely unknown. Prenatally, glucocorticoids affect vascular responses (7,8). Direct effects on heart in vivo are unknown, although prenatal glucocorticoid treatment is reported to elicit growth-stimulatory (9,10) or inhibitory (11) effects on cardiomyocytes. Here, we show that mice globally lacking glucocorticoid signalling (GR−/− mice) have structurally and biochemically immature hearts with severely impaired function. To determine whether effects are direct within the cardiovascular system, we generated mice with conditional disruption of GR in cardiomyocytes and vascular smooth muscle cells (SMGRKO mice) using smooth muscle protein 22-driven Cre recombinase.

The cardiomyocyte phenotype of SMGRKO mice closely resembles that of GR−/− mice, suggesting that GR in cardiomyocytes is essential to elicit critical maturational effects within foetal heart in late gestation. However, differences between the cardiac phenotype of SMGRKO and GR−/− mice suggest the phenotype is not entirely autonomous in cardiomyocytes and vascular smooth muscle.

RESULTS

Global abolition of glucocorticoid signalling severely impairs foetal heart function and causes hydrops fetalis

To address whether glucocorticoid signalling is required for foetal heart maturation, Nrscl1Cre;Gli2flox/flox mice (12), heterozygous for a null allele of Nrscl1 (the gene encoding GR), were intercrossed. Although GR−/+ foetuses were present at the expected Mendelian ratio at E14.5, prior to the surge in foetal glucocorticoid levels [37 (28%) GR+/+, 62 (47%) GR−/+ and 34 (26%) GR−/−], they were present at half the number of GR−/+ at E17.5 [140 (33%) GR−/+; 217 (51%) GR−/-, 68 (16%) GR−/−; P < 0.0001, Pearson’s χ² test], suggesting loss or death of some GR−/− foetuses between E14.5 and E17.5.

Note that a previous study that reported normal viability of late gestation GR−/− foetuses (12) examined fewer foetuses (a total of 60) of which half were collected prior to E17.5. Histopathological examination of fixed sections of GR−/− foetuses showed they are grossly normal, but with immature lungs (consistent with previous findings) (5,13), kidneys (data not shown) and hearts.

Micro-magnetic resonance imaging and histopathological examination confirmed that heart size (measured as either total heart area or ventricular volume) is reduced in E17.5 GR−/− foetal hearts, despite correct development (Fig. 1). No differences are apparent in the configuration of the major vessels or the morphology of either the compact layer or trabeculae carneae (Fig. 1A and B). Reduced cardiomyocyte cell size in GR−/− hearts is indicated by more nuclei per field of view within comparable sections of the myocardium of GR−/− hearts (GR−/−, 73 ± 4 nuclei per 10 000 μm² versus GR+/+, 53 ± 2; P < 0.001, Student’s t-test, n = 5–7).

Addressing function, in vivo ultrasound imaging of the left ventricle across the mitral valve of GR−/− foetuses shows a marked increase in the Doppler-derived myocardial performance index (MPI; a measure of combined systolic and diastolic function that is independent of heart rate and size) (14), indicating impaired heart function (Fig. 2A). Breakdown of the MPI into its three component parts shows increased contraction and relaxation times in GR−/− as well as GR+/− foetuses compared with wild-type littermates, though ejection times do not differ (Fig. 2B). The E/A wave velocity ratio (which normally increases in late gestation as diastolic function matures) (15) is lower in GR−/− foetuses compared with GR+/+ (Fig. 2C).

Early diastolic deceleration is decreased and early diastolic deceleration time/peak E wave velocity (mitral deceleration index) increased in GR−/− foetuses (Fig. 2D and E). Heart rate does not differ (GR+/+ 244 ± 9, GR−/− 234 ± 4, GR−/- 250 ± 6, P > 0.05, ANOVA), nor does ejection fraction (Fig. 2F). These data unequivocally show impaired cardiac function, with diastolic function particularly affected, in late-gestation GR−/− foetuses (with heterozygotes intermediate).

Consistent with impaired heart function, though wet weight of E17.5 GR−/− foetuses (856 ± 19 mg) does not differ from GR+/+ littermates (854 ± 36 mg), dry weight is reduced (GR+/+ 118 ± 4 versus GR−/- 104 ± 2 mg; P < 0.01, Student’s t-test, n = 9–17), suggesting fluid accumulation. This is supported by histology of fixed GR−/− foetuses which are visibly smaller than their GR+/+ littermates (Supplementary Material, Fig. S1). Additionally, compared with GR+/+, whole-body sodium levels are increased in E17.5 GR−/- carcasses (GR+/+ 63.3 ± 1.3 versus GR−/− 70.9 ± 0.7 mmol/kg; P < 0.01, Student’s t-test, n = 9–17) with no change in potassium (GR+/+ 70.3 ± 1.3 versus GR−/− 69.0 ± 0.8 mmol/kg; n = 9–17), indicative of foetal oedema (hydrops fetalis) in E17.5 GR−/- mice. This phenotype could directly result from heart failure due to lack of glucocorticoid signalling within the heart and vasculature or could be indirect.

Deficiency in glucocorticoid signalling within cardiomyocytes and vascular smooth muscle impairs foetal heart function

To distinguish between the above possibilities, transgenic mice harbouring a Cre recombinase allele driven by the SM22 promoter (16) were used to generate SMGRKO mice, with disruption of the GR gene in cardiomyocytes and vascular smooth muscle. SM22α protein is transiently expressed in the murine heart from E8.5 and in vascular smooth muscle from E9.5 (17) and SM22-Cre efficiently drives gene deletion in the foetal heart and vasculature (18,19). Levels of GR mRNA are reduced by 65% in E17.5 SMGRKO foetal hearts compared with controls (GRATCre), with no difference in liver, lung or kidney (with adrenal) (Fig. 3A). Similarly, GR protein levels show a corresponding 65% reduction in E17.5 SMGRKO foetal hearts (Fig. 3B). Immunofluorescent and immunohistochemical labelling of GR showed that the residual GR in SMGRKO hearts is largely due to expression in cells other than cardiomyocytes and vascular smooth muscle (Fig. 3C and D). Consistent with normal GR expression outwith the
cardiovascular system, plasma corticosterone levels are normal in E17.5 SMGRKO mice (control GRfl/fl 575 ± 70 ng/ml versus SMGRKO 475 ± 52 ng/ml). SMGRKO mice are present at the expected mendelian ratio at E17.5 [62 (55%) control GRfl/fl, 51 (45%) SMGRKO] suggesting either that the loss of GR²/² foetuses may be independent of glucocorticoid signalling in the foetal cardiovascular system or that the residual 35% expression is sufficient for survival. However, cardiac function is impaired in SMGRKO foetuses, with an increase in the MPI resulting from increased isovolumetric contraction time (Fig. 3E). Isovolumetric relaxation time and E/A wave ratio are normal, suggesting normal diastolic function. Consistent with milder impairment of heart function, although oedema is still present, it is milder in SMGRKO foetuses, with an increase in the weight as compared to controls (SMGRKO, wet weight 980 ± 20 mg; dry 229 ± 6 mg; 76.0 ± 0.5% body weight as water versus control GR²/², wet weight 939 ± 30 mg, dry 246 ± 8 mg; 73.5 ± 0.9% of body weight as water. \( P < 0.05 \), Student’s t-test, \( n = 17–24 \)). Additionally, compared with controls, whole-body sodium levels are increased in E17.5 SMGRKO carcasses (control GR²/² foetuses 64.0 ± 0.9 mmol/kg; SMGRKO 67.0 ± 0.6 mmol/kg; \( P < 0.05 \), Student’s t-test, \( n = 17–24 \)), consistent with oedema in E17.5 SMGRKO foetuses. Histopathological examination revealed no difference in foetal heart size between genotypes (control GR²/² foetuses 1374.3 ± 59.5 \( \mu \)m² versus SMGRKO 1377.0 ± 81.3 \( \mu \)m², \( P = 0.05 \), Student’s t-test, \( n = 6–12 \)), suggesting smaller cell size.

Late-gestation GR²/² and SMGRKO hearts show similar cellular abnormalities including disorganized myofibrils and cellular alignment

As the compact myocardium matures, the muscle fibres in the outermost layer progressively change direction as the spiralling architecture develops. In wild-type hearts, the outer longitudinal muscle layer of the left ventricle is clearly delineated at E17.5, with rod-shaped cardiomyocytes aligned obliquely to the longitudinal axis of the heart (Fig. 4A). In contrast, myocardial cells in the outer layer of GR²/² hearts are irregularly shaped with little evidence of alignment (Fig. 4A). Like GR²/² foetal hearts, the outermost cells in the left-ventricular compact myocardium of E17.5 SMGRKO hearts fail to align and are irregularly shaped, in contrast to the clearly delineated layer of rod-shaped cardiomyocytes in wild-type hearts. This suggests that the loss of GR signalling in the foetal cardiovascular system may have a significant impact on the development of the myocardium.
Figure 2. Severe impairment of cardiac function in E17.5 GR^{−/−} foetuses. Top: Schematic representation of a typical mitral Doppler trace. Letters indicate: a, peak E wave velocity; b (slope of b), early diastolic deceleration; c, early diastolic deceleration time; d, peak A wave velocity; e, isovolumetric contraction time; f, isovolumetric relaxation time; g, ejection time. Specific parameters were calculated as follows: E/A wave ratio = a/d; MPI = (e + f)/g; early diastolic deceleration = b, early diastolic deceleration index = c/a. (A–E) In vivo Doppler velocity waveform measurements of left-ventricular function in E17.5 foetuses showing (A) increased myocardial performance (TEI-Doppler) index and (B) increased isovolumetric contraction and relaxation times in GR^{−/−} and GR^{+/−} foetuses compared with GR^{+/+} littermates. (C) Decreased E/A wave ratio in GR^{−/−} compared with GR^{+/+} litters. (D) Early diastolic deceleration was lower and (E) deceleration time/peak E wave velocity (mitral deceleration index) higher in GR^{−/−}, indicative of diastolic dysfunction. There was no change in ejection fraction (F) between genotypes. GR^{+/+}, white bars; GR^{+/−}, hatched bars; GR^{−/−}, black bars. Data were analysed by two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni multiple comparisons post-hoc test. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01 ***P < 0.001 versus GR^{+/+}; #P < 0.05 versus GR^{−/−}, n = 6–16.
cardiomyocytes in control hearts (Fig. 4B). Transmission electron microscopy also shows similar phenotypes in GR^{−/−} and SMGRKO hearts, with well-organized myofibrils in GR^{+/+} and GR^{fl/fl} control mice, but poorly aligned and disorganized myofibrils with only a few sarcomeres and less-defined Z-discs, in GR^{−/−} and SMGRKO myocardium (Fig. 4C and D).
RNA analysis suggests late-gestation GR\(^{-/-}\) hearts are functionally immature

To explore mechanism, mRNAs encoding proteins relevant to cardiac function and maturity were measured. Levels of mRNA encoding MyHC\(_a\) (the major contractile protein in adult hearts) increase in GR\(^{+/+}\) between E14.5 and E17.5. However, while GR\(^{-/-}\) hearts show normal MyHC\(_a\) expression at E14.5, they lack the maturational increase at E17.5 (Fig. 5). MyHC\(_a\) protein levels are similarly decreased in E17.5 GR\(^{-/-}\) hearts compared with GR\(^{+/+}\) (Fig. 6). The same is true of genes encoding calcium-handling proteins (NCX1, SERCA2a, RyR2; the sodium–calcium exchanger, the cardiac sarcoplasmic reticulum calcium ATPase and the cardiac ryanodine receptor, respectively) (Fig. 5), suggesting immature excitation–contraction coupling and calcium-induced calcium release in GR\(^{-/-}\) foetal hearts. Together with reduced MyHC\(_a\), this provides a plausible mechanistic explanation for the impaired contraction/relaxation of late-gestation GR\(^{-/-}\) hearts. Similarly, GR\(^{-/-}\) hearts fail to induce expression of genes involved in energy metabolism that underpin late-gestation cardiac maturation (PGC1\(_a\), PFKFB2; peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator 1-\(a\), 6–phosphofructo-2-kinase/fructose-2,6-biphosphatase 2, respectively, and hexokinase-1) (Fig. 5). Immaturity in E17.5 GR\(^{-/-}\) foetal hearts is further supported by lack of the normal maturational increase in mRNA encoding atrial natriuretic peptide (ANP), but importantly, expression of mRNA encoding the morphogenetic transcription factors GATA-4 and BMP-10 and the developmental regulator KLF-2 is normal in GR\(^{-/-}\) foetal hearts (Fig. 5), consistent with correct development. GILZ

Figure 4. Late gestation GR\(^{-/-}\) and SMGRKO hearts show abnormal cellular architecture. (A and B) Wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) plasma membrane staining shows abnormal cardiomyocyte shape and alignment in the left-ventricular myocardium of (A) E17.5 GR\(^{-/-}\) hearts (right) compared with GR\(^{+/+}\) (left) and (B) E17.5 SMGRKO hearts (right) compared with GR\(^{+/+}\) controls (left). Images representative of \(n=4\). For (A), upper panels, WGA, middle panels, troponin T, lower panels, merged, with DAPI to stain nuclei. (C and D) Transmission electron micrographs of (C) E17.5 GR\(^{+/+}\) (left panels) and GR\(^{-/-}\) hearts (right panels) and (D) E17.5 GR\(^{-/-}\) control (left panels) and SMGRKO hearts (right panels) showing immature, disorganized myofibrils in GR\(^{-/-}\) and SMGRKO hearts. Images representative of \(n=5\).
(glucocorticoid-induced leucine zipper protein), classically glucocorticoid-regulated (20) is induced between E14.5 and E17.5 in GR$^{+/+}$ foetal hearts but not in GR$^{-/-}$ (black) foetal hearts. Other glucocorticoid-regulated genes (encoding MKP-1, FKBP5; respectively MAP kinase phosphatase-1 and FK506-binding protein-5) and the glucocorticoid metabolising enzymes, 11β-HSD1 and 11β-HSD2 (themselves glucocorticoid-regulated) (21,22) show similar lack of regulation between E14.5 and E17.5 GR$^{+/+}$; #P < 0.05, ##P < 0.01, ###P < 0.001 versus E17.5 GR$^{+/+}$; n = 7–13.
E14.5 and E17.5 in GR−/− foetal hearts (Fig. 5). Of note, there are no compensatory changes in mRNA encoding mineralocorticoid receptor (MR) in GR−/− hearts (Fig. 5), nor are there any maturational changes in MR mRNA levels in wild-type mice. Quantification of mRNA levels in E17.5 SMGRKO hearts shows qualitatively similar results to GR−/− foetal hearts for most mRNAs examined, though generally speaking, the magnitude of the effect is reduced (to a similar or slightly greater extent than GR+/- foetuses), suggesting the possibility of a gene-dosage effect of GR. Thus, levels of mRNA encoding the crucial calcium-handling proteins, SERCA2a and RyR2 are reduced in SMGRKO hearts at E17.5, as are levels of mRNA encoding hexokinase-1 and FKBPs (Fig. 7), the latter a primary glucocorticoid target (20), consistent with diminished glucocorticoid signalling in SMGRKO hearts. However, there are important differences to GR−/− foetal hearts. Whereas levels of ANP are reduced in both E17.5 GR−/− and GR+/- hearts (the latter with 50% reduction in GR expression in heart; Fig 5), levels in E17.5 SMGRKO hearts are normal, suggesting that the reduction in ANP mRNA levels in GR−/− hearts occurs independently of glucocorticoid signalling in foetal cardiomyocytes and vascular smooth muscle. Similarly, levels of mRNA encoding MHCα are not significantly reduced in E17.5 SMGRKO hearts (Fig. 7) despite a significant reduction in GR+/- as well as GR−/− foetal hearts (Fig. 5).

**DISCUSSION**

Qualitatively, key aspects of the cardiac phenotype of SMGRKO foetal mice resemble that of GR−/− mice, demonstrating dependence of late-gestation foetal heart maturation upon glucocorticoid signalling in cardiomyocytes and vascular smooth muscle. Importantly, other aspects of the phenotype are distinct (summarized in Table 1). Impairment of cardiac function is seen in both GR−/− and SMGRKO foetuses at E17.5, with increased MPI and prolonged isovolumetric contraction time, probably underpinned by the disorganized myofibrillar structure and lower expression of RyR2 seen in both GR−/− and SMGRKO foetal hearts. Interestingly, although SERCA2a expression is also significantly affected in both GR−/− and SMGRKO, relaxation is unaltered in SMGRKO mice, suggesting that under these circumstances, SERCA2a mRNA levels are not rate-limiting in foetal heart relaxation. The lower E/A wave ratio (diastolic function) in GR−/− foetuses suggests low compliance and/or increased stiffness due to deficient relaxation and/or recoil of the ventricular muscle (15) and is consistent with the longer relaxation time in these mice. In contrast, E/A wave ratio is normal in SMGRKO mice.

Structural immaturity is likely to underlie the functional immaturity. Remarkably, the structural and ultrastructural abnormalities of GR−/− mice are reproduced in SMGRKO mice. In both models, GR deficiency results in the failure of cardiomyocytes to align within the compact myocardium, possibly reflecting an inability to develop the normal spiralling architecture of the compact myocardium that is associated with maturing systolic and diastolic function (23). Increased myofibril content of myocardial fibres underpins the normal maturational changes in cardiac function (15) but myofibrils are short and disorganized in both GR−/− and SMGRKO foetal hearts. Plausibly, reduced levels of MyHCα in GR−/− foetal hearts could contribute to the impaired ultrastructure and function at E17.5; adult mice with ~70% normal MyHCα levels show impaired cardiac contraction and relaxation (24). Moreover, the inferred decrease in MyHCα/β ratio in GR−/− foetal hearts (MyHCβ mRNA staining. No staining is observed in E9.0 embryos (data not shown). X-gal staining is apparent at E10.5, restricted to the embryonic heart and the third brachial pouch (Fig. 8A). At E11.5, optical projection tomography (OPT) microscopy showed most of the X-gal staining to be in the myocardium and the major blood vessels of the whole embryo (Supplementary Material, Video). At E14.5 and later time points, staining appears throughout the myocardium and is widespread in other tissues (Fig. 8A and data not shown). Corticosterone levels in the heart are below the limit of detection at E14.5 and earlier times but rise dramatically at E15.5, peaking at E16.5 (Fig. 8B). Consistent with this, GR-immunoreactivity is present in troponin T+ cardiomyocytes by E10.5 but is restricted to the cytoplasm prior to E14.5 (Fig. 8C). However, at E15.5 and E16.5, GR staining becomes intense in nuclei (Fig. 8C). Thus, widespread activation of GR driven by ligand availability in cardiomyocytes, commences at E15.5, further supporting the hypothesis that the cardiac phenotype of GR−/− foetuses results from lack of glucocorticoid signalling within the heart and vasculature.

GR is expressed in foetal heart from mid-gestation, but glucocorticoid levels in heart are negligible before late gestation

The similarities in heart phenotype between late-gestation GR−/− and SMGRKO foetuses suggest direct glucocorticoid signalling in cardiomyocytes. To address the presence and timing of receptor expression and ligand availability in heart, both were examined. Nρ3c1geoESK92MRC1GU mice contain a β-geo cassette (encoding β-galactosidase) at the GR gene locus, allowing for visualization of GR expression by X-gal staining. No staining is observed in E9.0 embryos (data not shown). X-gal staining is apparent at E10.5, restricted to the embryonic heart and the third brachial pouch (Fig. 8A). At E11.5, optical projection tomography (OPT) microscopy showed most of the X-gal staining to be in the myocardium and the major blood vessels of the whole embryo (Supplementary Material, Video). At E14.5 and later time points, staining appears throughout the myocardium and is widespread in other tissues (Fig. 8A and data not shown). Corticosterone levels in the heart are below the limit of detection at E14.5 and earlier times but rise dramatically at E15.5, peaking at E16.5 (Fig. 8B). Consistent with this, GR-immunoreactivity is present in troponin T+ cardiomyocytes by E10.5 but is restricted to the cytoplasm prior to E14.5 (Fig. 8C). However, at E15.5 and E16.5, GR staining becomes intense in nuclei (Fig. 8C). Thus, widespread activation of GR driven by ligand availability in cardiomyocytes, commences at E15.5, further supporting the hypothesis that the cardiac phenotype of GR−/− foetuses results from lack of glucocorticoid signalling within the heart and vasculature.
levels were unchanged) is consistent with decreased cardiac function as MyHcα/β ratio correlates directly with overall cardiac performance in adult animals (25) and in patients with cardiomyopathy and heart failure (26). However, the reduction in MyHcα mRNA levels in SMGRKO hearts was not statistically significant although GR+/− mice (with 50% reduction in GR) show a significant reduction in cardiac MyHcα equal to that seen in GR−/− foetuses. Therefore the alterations in MyHcα expression are unlikely to account for the ultrastructural differences conserved between SMGRKO and GR−/−. Perhaps extrinsic actions of glucocorticoid signalling, for example via other hormonal systems (such as thyroid hormone signalling), are important in the aspects of cardiomyocyte maturation, including the increase in cardiac MyHcα content in late gestation.

The excess fluid that accumulates in GR−/− foetuses is of extracellular origin (indicated by the imbalance in sodium and potassium ratio) highlighting an important role for glucocorticoids in regulating fluid movement between the vascular and interstitial spaces. This must reflect, at least in large part, GR actions in cardiomyocytes and/or vascular smooth muscle, as SMGRKO foetuses also show foetal oedema, although to a lesser extent. Clinically, cardiogenic hydrops presents with inadequate diastolic ventricular filling (27), as seen in GR−/− foetuses, though not in SMGRKO. Impaired contractility of GR−/− and SMGRKO hearts might contribute to congestive heart failure. Although detailed histopathological analysis did not reveal any obvious abnormalities in the vessel structure of E17.5 GR−/− foetuses (unpublished data), vascular integrity could be compromised with GR-deficiency, leading to oedema. However, the more severe oedema in GR−/− foetuses suggests a greater involvement than just cardiomyocytes and vascular smooth muscle and might reflect placental and/or renal actions of GR. Whether the electrolyte imbalance is partly a reflection of the latter is currently unclear. GR-mediated glucocorticoid effects on renal electrolyte homeostasis have been reported (28–30). Moreover, proximal tubule development is severely impaired in E17.5 GR−/− foetuses (unpublished data), and the resulting renal deficit could plausibly affect fluid homeostasis, despite the limited reliance on the foetal kidney for blood filtration.

In the foetus, cardiac ANP responds to volume stimuli and regulates blood pressure and salt/water balance. Reduced levels of cardiac ANP mRNA in foetal GR−/−, but not SMGRKO, suggest that volume and blood pressure regulation in foetal SMGRKO mice is normal. Indeed, whereas GR+/− mice are hypertensive (12), blood pressure is normal in adult SMGRKO mice, which survive to adulthood (though females are under-represented at weaning) and which have a grossly normal phenotype in terms of appearance, body weight and behaviour, though cardiac hypertrophy is apparent at 12 weeks of age (R.V. Richardson, E. R.-Z., K.E.C., unpublished data). The detailed cardiac phenotype of adult SMGRKO mice will be published separately. Importantly, normal cardiac ANP levels also suggest normal placental vascular supply (31) in SMGRKO, but perhaps not in GR−/− foetuses with their reduced cardiac ANP expression. Lack of ANP reduces foetal survival (32) suggesting that the reduced survival of GR−/− foetal mice may be attributable to reduced ANP, with normal levels of ANP and normal survival observed in SMGRKO foetal mice. Thus, this aspect of the phenotype appears independent of GR in cardiomyocytes and vascular smooth muscle. The locus of the effect will be important to determine, but candidates include a role
for GR in determination of placental blood flow and in renal function.

Heterozygous GR\(^{+/2}\) mice showed an intermediate cardiac phenotype (Table 1). This predicts consequences for adult cardiovascular health in addition to the hypertension we previously described (12). A recent report of human GR haplo-insufficiency showed a strong association with hypertension similar to GR\(^{+/2}\) mice (33), but other cardiovascular parameters were not examined. However, large population studies have linked a common haplotype of the GR gene associated with relative glucocorticoid resistance to increased risk of heart disease (34,35). The same GR polymorphism associates with systolic blood pressure and heart growth in early childhood (36) suggesting disease risk may be “programmed” by prenatal glucocorticoid resistance. Moreover, in a family with an inactivating allele of the NR3C1 gene encoding GR, premature coronary heart disease was associated with inheritance of the mutant NR3C1 allele (37), suggesting association of heart disease with glucocorticoid resistance.

Although expressed in mouse heart from E10.5, GR is not activated until after E14.5, increasing to peak levels in little more than 24 h. This suggests that the heart may be exquisitely sensitive to perturbations in the normal developmental increase in glucocorticoids, with potential alterations in cardiac structure.

Figure 8. GR is expressed in the foetal heart from E10.5 yet corticosterone is only detectable from E15.5. (A) X-gal staining of whole-mount (left) or frozen sections of heart (right) of GR\(^{+/−}\) foetuses demonstrates GR expression in heart at E10.5 (arrow, left), becoming widespread through the myocardium at E15.5. (B) Corticosterone content in C57BL/6J foetal heart increases after E14.5. Data analysed by one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test. \(**P < 0.001\) versus E14.5, \(\#P < 0.05\) versus E15.5, \(n = 6–16\). (C) Immunofluorescent co-staining of GR (red) with troponin T (green) in cardiomyocytes of GR\(^{++}\) hearts from E10.5 shows negligible levels of GR within nuclei (DAPI) at or before E14.5 (merged images). Negative controls (E10.5 sections, omitting primary antibody) for immunofluorescent co-staining of GR with troponin T are shown as insets. Images representative of \(n = 6\).
and function resulting from precocious or excessive glucocorticoid signalling. This is likely to be of clinical relevance. Synthetic glucocorticoids are routinely administered antenatally when preterm labour is threatened, well before the surge in endogenous foetal glucocorticoids that occurs close to term. GR is expressed in mid-gestation human heart (38). Thus, exogenous glucocorticoids may induce precocious cardiac maturation and a consequent inflexible phenotype.

Finally, our studies have other important clinical implications. GR<sup>−/−</sup> mice exhibit *hydrops fetalis*, a condition typified by widespread oedema in the foetus. Importantly, in SMGRKO the oedematous phenotype was also present, although of lower magnitude. In humans, *hydrops fetalis* is associated with a high mortality rate and occurs as the end-stage of a variety of disorders, particularly of cardiovascular origin. Glucocorticoids are an effective treatment in some cases (39) though it is unclear why. While we cannot directly attribute the oedema in GR-deficient mice to their cardiac defects, it nevertheless suggests that insufficient foetal glucocorticoid signalling could be a cause of *hydrops fetalis* in humans. This hypothesis deserves further investigation. Our data also have implications for the treatment of preterm infants. Serum cortisol levels are lower in these infants (40) who are at greater risk of sudden infant death syndrome than term babies. Heart immaturity may contribute to poor infant outcomes. Whether neonatal glucocorticoid treatment is beneficial in reducing later risk of sudden infant death syndrome merits investigation.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Animals

GR<sup>+/-</sup> mice, heterozygous for a null mutation in the *Nr3c1* gene encoding GR (*Nr3c1<sup>proESK92MRCHGU</sup> mice), have been previously described (12). GR<sup>+/−</sup> mice, congenic on the C57BL/6J background (>12 generations) were intercrossed to give GR<sup>+/−</sup>, GR<sup>−/−</sup> and GR<sup>−/−</sup> foetal littermates. SMGRKO mice were generated by crossing SM22-Cre transgenic mice (16) with GR<sup>fl/fl</sup> mice (41) (obtained as frozen GR<sup>fl/fl</sup>embryos from the European Mouse Mutant Archive; reference number 02124) and maintained by breeding GR<sup>fl/fl</sup> mice with SM22a-Cre<sup>−/−</sup> GR<sup>fl/fl</sup> mice.

For measurement of heart corticosterone levels and RNA extraction, mice were time-mated between 1800–2200. The morning of the day the vaginal plug was found was designated E0.5. At specific time points, foetuses were collected. Genotyping was carried out on foetal tissue by PCR using *lacZ* primers for the *Nr3c1<sup>pESK92MRCHGU</sup>* allele (5′-GAGTTGCGTGACTACCTACGG-3′ and 5′-GTACCAACGGGATGTTCTCG-3′) and wild-type GR primers as described (12). In preliminary studies, the gender of foetuses was determined. Because no differences were observed between males and females (data not shown), data were pooled. SMGRKO mice were genotyped using primers for Cre recombinase (5′-GATCGCTGCCAATCTCTGACCA-3′ and 5′-GAGTTGCGTGACTACCTACGG-3′) and wild-type GR primers as described (12).

For RNA extractions, western blotting and measurement of corticosterone content, foetal hearts were dissected and rapidly frozen on dry ice. For histopathology, foetuses were fixed in neutral buffered formalin, paraffin-embedded, sectioned (7 µm) and stained with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E). For other analyses, foetuses were processed as described in what follows. All animal experimentation was carried out in strict accord with accepted standards of humane animal care under the auspices of the Animal (Scientific Procedures) Act UK 1986 after prior approval by the University of Edinburgh Animal Ethical Review Committee.

#### Measurement of heart area

Total heart area was measured in H&E stained serial coronal sections of foetal heart using an MCID Basic 7.0 (InterFocus Imaging Ltd; Cambridge, UK) image analysis system, with the operator blind to genotype.
High-resolution ultrasound analysis

Analysis was performed in vivo on E17.5 foetuses using a Vevo 770 ultrasound biomicroscope (Visualsonics; Toronto, Canada). Pregnant mice were anaesthetized using isoflurane gas (initially 100% medical oxygen, then maintained at 1–2% isoflurane). Mice were laid supine with all legs taped to electrocardiogram electrodes to monitor the heart rate (around 450–550 bpm) and respiration of the pregnant dam. Body temperature was monitored using a rectal thermometer and was maintained at 36°C–38°C using a controlled heated table and infrared heat lamp. Abdominal hair was removed using a commercially available epilating cream and pre-warmed ultrasound gel (Aquasonic 100; Parker Laboratories, Orange, NJ, USA) was applied. The 30 MHz RMV 707B (real-time microvisualization) transducer was used, giving a focal length of 12.7 mm and a depth field view of 20 mm. The uterus was not exteriorized and 2–3 foetuses/dam were imaged transcutaneously over 20–30 min. Hearts were visualized in B-mode (standard pulse wave Doppler) (14,42,43). Transmitral Doppler traces were obtained between foetuses. No angle correction was made. Following imaging, the pregnant dam was euthanized in situ, scanned foetuses excised following identification by corroboration of position and to perform volume measurements. Ventricular volume and to perform volume measurements. Ventricular volume was corrected for spine-sternum distance, which did not differ between genotypes.

High-throughput high-resolution micro-magnetic resonance imaging

MRI was carried out as described (44). E17.5 foetuses were immersion-fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) containing 2 mM dimeglumine gadopentetate (Gd-DTPA, Magnevist, Bayer Healthcare Pharmaceuticals, Wayne, NJ, USA) at 4°C. The heads were removed and the rest of the foetus was embedded in 1% agarose containing 2 mM Gd-DTPA in 28 mm multi-embryo imaging glass tubes. Foetuses underwent μMRI scanning at a resolution of 25.4 × 25.4 × 24.4 μm per voxel. The volume data sets were visualized with the software package Amira 4.0 (Mercury Systems) and analysed using virtual re-sectioning. In selected foetuses, the heart, larger blood vessels and the trachea were manually reconstructed using the field function of the software. Surface rendered 3D models were generated for presentation and to perform volume measurements. Ventricular volume was corrected for spine-sternum distance, which did not differ between genotypes.

Electron microscopy

Hearts were dissected from E17.5 foetuses and fixed in 3% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate, pH 7.3, post-fixed in 1% osmium tetroxide in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate, then dehydrated and embedded in araldite resin. Ultrathin (60 nm) sections were cut and stained in uranyl acetate and lead citrate then viewed in a Phillips CM120 Transmission electron microscope (FEI UK Ltd, Cambridge, UK).

Western blotting

Myosin heavy chain α (MyHCα) levels were measured by western blot using 1:200 dilution mouse anti-cardiac myosin heavy chain primary antibody (Abcam, Cambridge, UK) with fluorophore-conjugated secondary antibodies (Alexa Fluor, Invitrogen, Paisley, UK). Protein levels were measured relative to β-tubulin levels using an Odyssey infrared imaging system (Licor Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA).

Immunohistochemistry

Sections were dewaxed, hydrated, boiled in 0.1 M citric acid buffer and blocked using standard protocols before overnight incubation with anti-troponin T antibody (Abcam, Cambridge, UK), M20 rabbit polyclonal anti-GR antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA) or FITC-wheat germ agglutinin (FITC-WGA, Invitrogen) according to manufacturer’s protocols. Fluorophore-conjugated secondary antibodies (Alexa Fluor, Invitrogen;) or biotinylated secondary antibody with Vectastain Elite ABC reagent (Vector Labs, Peterborough, UK) were used to detect immunostaining.

X-gal staining

X-gal (5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-beta-D-galacto-pyranoside) staining to detect β-galactosidase activity was performed as described (12) on whole embryos or dissected heart and lung, fixed in 0.2% glutaraldehyde or frozen sections post-fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde. Briefly, tissues were stained overnight at 37°C in PBS containing 2 mM MgCl₂, 0.02% NP-40, 0.01% sodium deoxycholate, 5 mM potassium ferricyanide, 5 mM potassium ferrocyanide, 1 mg/ml X-gal. Some X-gal-stained embryos were visualized by OPT microscopy (45). Briefly, embryos were mounted in 1% agarose, dehydrated in methanol, cleared in benzyl alcohol:benzyl benzoate (1:2 v/v) and imaged using a Biontions 3001 OPT scanner (Biontions, Edinburgh, UK) with brightfield to detect X-gal staining and tissue autofluorescence (excitation 425 nm/emission 475 nm) to capture the anatomy. The resulting images were reconstructed, automatically thresholded and merged to a single 3D image using NRecon software (Skyscan, Belgium) and Biontions Viewer (Biontions, Edinburgh, UK).

Desiccation and whole-body electrolyte measurement

E17.5 and E18.5 foetuses were weighed immediately after dissection, placed in an open-lid plastic container and incubated in an oven at 60°C for 5 days. Dry weight was recorded. Whole embryo sodium and potassium contents were measured by flame photometry as described (46) and corrected for body weight.

Measurement of heart corticosterone content

Steroids were extracted from C57BL/6j foetal hearts following homogenization in ice-cold 5 mM potassium phosphate buffer.
The homogenate was dripped slowly into pre-chilled ethanol (95%) containing glacial acetic acid (3% v/v), stored overnight at −80°C then sonicated (1–2 min) in a chilled container. Following centrifugation, the supernatant was evaporated to dryness under N2 at 60°C, dissolved in methanol (0.5 ml, 80% v/v), then 0.5 ml H2O added and applied to an activated C18 Sep-pak column (Waters Corporation, Milford, MA, USA). After washing with H2O and methanol (40% v/v), steroids were eluted in 2 ml methanol. The solvent was evaporated as earlier and steroids reconstituted in borate buffer (0.13 M H3BO3, 0.067 M NaOH, pH 7.4) containing 0.5% BSA, 1% methanol and 0.1% ethylene glycol. Corticosterone was measured using a competitive radioimmunoassay as previously described (12) and expressed relative to protein content.

Quantitative (q)PCR
RNA was extracted using an RNAeasy kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer’s instructions and reverse transcribed using a Superscript First Strand Synthesis kit (Invitrogen Ltd, Paisley, UK). Quantitative (q)PCR was carried out using a LightCycler 480 (Roche Diagnostics Ltd, Burgess Hill, UK) with a commercial master mix (LC 480 Probes Master) and either Taqman primer/probe sets (Ambion; Austin, TX, USA) or using the Universal Probe Library system (Roche Diagnostics Ltd, Burgess Hill, UK) (Supplementary Material, Table S1). Data were analysed using the second derivative maximum method. The ratio of the levels of the transcript of interest to the levels of TATA Binding Protein mRNA (internal control) was determined for each sample.

Statistics
All numerical data are presented as mean ± SEM. Statistical evaluation was carried out with Prism (GraphPad) and used Student’s t-test, Mann–Whitney U-test, one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test or two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni multiple comparisons post-hoc test, as appropriate.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL
Supplementary Material is available at HMG online.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
We thank Wiktoria Wyryzkowska, Isla Thomson, Emma Charlton and Nur Saffie for assistance with histology and quantification of histology, staff at the University of Edinburgh Biomedical Research Resources facility for assistance with animal care and Steve Mitchell for transmission electron microscopy. We are grateful to Jonathan Bard, Matt Kaufman, Sebastian Pieperhoff, Emma Di Rollo, Caitlin Wyrwoll, Marianne Keith and Chris Gregory for expert advice and/or assistance and thank Martin Denvir, Gillian Gray and Jonathan Seckl for their helpful comments on the manuscript.

Conflict of Interest statement. None declared.

FUNDING
This work was supported by a British Heart Foundation PhD studentship (to E.R.-Z.).

REFERENCES
Scott, N.J., Ellmers, L.J., Lainchbury, J.G., Maeda, N., Smithies, O.,
Bailey, M.A., Mullins, J.J. and Kenyon, C.J. (2009) Mineralocorticoid and
Nguyen Dinh Cat, A., Ouvrard-Pascaud, A., Tronche, F., Clemessy, M.,
Bellini, C., Hennekam, R.C., Fulcheri, E., Rutigliani, M., Morcaldi, G.,
Herron, T.J. and McDonald, K.S. (2002) Small amounts of alpha-myosin
Sai, S., Esteves, C.L., Kelly, V., Michailidou, Z., Anderson, K., Coll, A.P.,
Malhowski, A.J., Hira, H., Bashiruddin, S., Warburton, R., Goto, J., Robert,
Ablation of the
Davies, D.L. (1990) Effects of dexamethasone on body fluid and electrolyte
Davies, D.L. (1990) Effects of dexamethasone on body fluid and electrolyte