



Assessment of the nitrofen model of congenital diaphragmatic hernia and of the dysregulated factors involved in pulmonary hypoplasia

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Abstract

Purpose To study pulmonary hypoplasia (PH) associated with congenital diaphragmatic hernia (CDH), investigators have been employing a fetal rat model based on nitrofen administration to dams. Herein, we aimed to: (1) investigate the validity of the model, and (2) synthesize the main biological pathways implicated in the development of PH associated with CDH.

Methods Using a defined strategy, we conducted a systematic review of the literature searching for studies reporting the incidence of CDH or factors involved in PH development. We also searched for PH factor interactions, relevance to lung development and to human PH.

Results Of 335 full-text articles, 116 reported the incidence of CDH after nitrofen exposure or dysregulated factors in the lungs of nitrofen-exposed rat fetuses. *CDH incidence*: 54% (27–85%) fetuses developed a diaphragmatic defect, whereas the whole litter had PH in varying degrees. Downregulated signaling pathways included FGF/FGFR, BMP/BMPR, Sonic Hedgehog and retinoid acid signaling pathway, resulting in a delay in early epithelial differentiation, immature distal epithelium and dysfunctional mesenchyme.

Conclusions The nitrofen model effectively reproduces PH as it disrupts pathways that are critical for lung branching morphogenesis and alveolar differentiation. The low CDH rate confirms that PH is an associated phenomenon rather than the result of mechanical compression alone.

Keywords Retinoic acid · Fibroblast · Branching morphogenesis · Alveolar differentiation · Lung development

Introduction

Congenital diaphragmatic hernia (CDH) is a severe birth defect with an incidence of 1 in 3000 live-births [1, 2]. Despite advances in prenatal diagnosis and postnatal management, the morbidity and mortality rates of babies with CDH remain high [3]. Pulmonary hypoplasia (PH), which is characterized by the abnormal and delayed lung development, has been recognized to be the main determinant of CDH outcome [4]. As a result, most research efforts have focused on the understanding of PH pathogenesis and on

the search for a PH treatment strategy that would improve lung maturation and growth [5]. To study PH associated with CDH, investigators have conducted experimental studies using a number of animal models of CDH [6]. Surgical models of CDH have been employed mainly to test promising antenatal therapies, but have not been used to study the earliest origins of CDH and PH, as the diaphragmatic defect is created late in gestation. Although several genetic models have been reported to reproduce a diaphragmatic defect as part of their phenotype, these cannot really be employed to investigate the etiology and pathophysiology of CDH and PH as these are multifactorial and not associated with a single gene mutation [7]. Moreover, genetic models do not reflect the true nature of human CDH, that only a minority of cases is associated with known genetic defects [8]. In 1981, a toxicology report established for the first time a link between the administration of a herbicide called nitrofen (2,4-dichlorophenyl-*p*-nitrophenyl ether) to a pregnant rat and the development of CDH and PH in a relatively high proportion of the offspring [9]. Since then,

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the nitrofen-induced rat model of CDH/PH has been extensively studied, modified and widely employed, because of the early development of CDH/PH and the similarities with the human condition [10, 11]. The exact mechanism underlying nitrofen-induced CDH/PH remains still unclear. It is now known that lung development requires regulation by many factors and constant epithelial–mesenchymal interactions [12]. In 1993, Suen et al. suggested the “biochemical immaturity” of lungs in the nitrofen model [13]. Since then, many pathways have been reported to be disrupted in nitrofen-induced CDH/PH and several hypotheses have been suggested over the years.

To the best of our knowledge, no study has synthesized the accumulated data on the factors contributing to the pathogenesis of CDH/PH and on the dysregulated signaling pathways leading to impaired lung maturation and growth in this model. The aim of the present study was to investigate the validity of the nitrofen-induced CDH/PH model and to integrate the current available knowledge on the main biological factors and pathways implicated in the development of CDH/PH. Lastly, we explored and reported the similarities between the nitrofen-induced CDH/PH model and the human condition.

Methods

To investigate the factors and pathways that are affected in the nitrofen-induced CDH/PH model, we conducted a systematic review of the literature that was drafted according to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analysis (PRISMA) statement [14]. Eligible studies were identified by searching scientific databases (PubMed, Medline, Cochrane Collaboration, Embase and Web of Science) involving articles published in English from the first available date in each database to August 2018. The search strategy combined the keywords: “congenital diaphragmatic hernia” and “nitrofen”. Reference lists were searched to identify relevant cross-references. Case reports, reviews and opinion articles were excluded from the review. All grey literature publications (i.e., reports, theses, conference proceedings, bibliographies, commercial documentations, and official documents not published commercially) were excluded. The full text of potentially eligible studies was retrieved and assessed for eligibility. We included all studies reporting the incidence of CDH after nitrofen exposure at embryonic day (E)9 and/or at least one dysregulated factor with a potential role in the development of PH. Dysregulation of the factor was defined as a significant downregulation or upregulation of mRNA and/or protein and/or enzyme activity quantification in the lungs of nitrofen-exposed pups with CDH compared to control pups (statistical significance defined as $p < 0.05$). Data were collected regarding the gene

or protein expression in the lungs of nitrofen-exposed pups without CDH if available. Due to the big number of articles published on experimental CDH, we deliberately excluded studies reporting models of CDH/PH other than the rat nitrofen model and studies that reported dysregulated factors and/or pathways involved in diaphragm development, as well as those on vascular remodeling and pulmonary hypertension (Table 1). Finally, we searched for PH factor interactions, relevance to human PH and to lung development.

Results

Of the 401 records screened, 116 reported either the incidence of CDH after nitrofen exposure or dysregulated factors with a potential role in PH. These articles were published between 1990 and 2018 (Fig. 1).

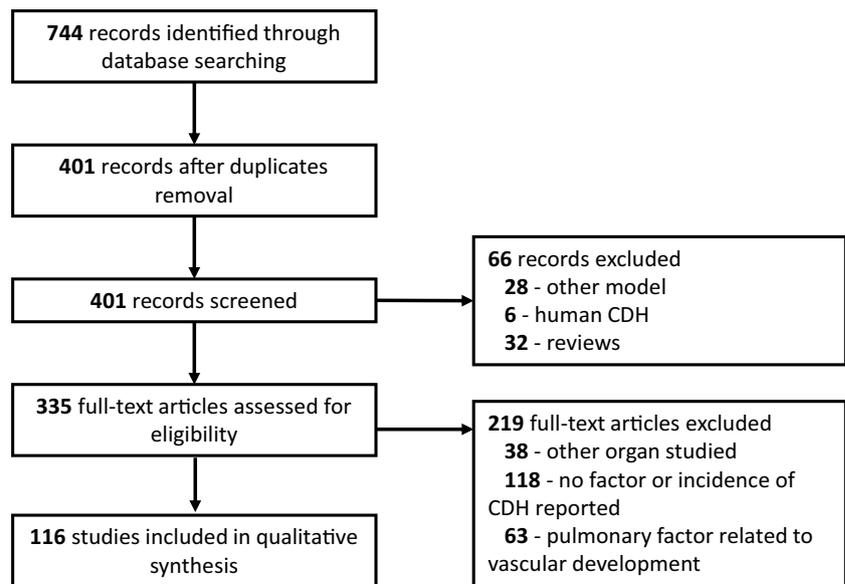
Validity of the model

In 1990, Kluth et al. showed that most diaphragmatic hernias occurred after administration of 100 mg of nitrofen to pregnant rats on E9 (42%) and E11 (59%) [10]. Left-sided hernias only occurred upon administration at E9, whereas right-sided hernias developed after exposure on E10 or later [10]. For these reasons, it was commonly accepted that nitrofen should be administered at E9 when establishing the model of CDH to reproduce the human condition. Since this study, 28 articles have reported the incidence of CDH after nitrofen exposure at E9 (Table 2). Overall, administration of 100 mg of nitrofen to pregnant rats on E9 resulted in CDH in 54% (27–85%) fetuses [15–42]. Conversely, nitrofen reproduces PH in the totality of fetuses in varying degrees, though this is

Table 1 Inclusion and exclusion criteria for the systematic review

Publication	
Language	English
Date	Until August 2018
Subject	Rat
Study type	Experimental
Excluded study types	Reviews, opinion articles, letters Case reports Grey literature
Keywords	Congenital diaphragmatic hernia Nitrofen
Exclusion criteria	Studies reporting on: Dysregulated factors involved in diaphragm or other organ development Dysregulated factors involved in vascular remodeling/pulmonary hypertension Incidence of CDH after exposure at E10 or later

Fig. 1 Diagram of workflow in the systematic review according to PRISMA statement



difficult to quantify. Nitrofen-exposed pups have a decreased lung to body weight ratio macroscopically and fewer alveoli microscopically compared to controls [11]. At birth, PH is more severe in nitrofen-exposed pups with CDH which have fatal respiratory distress than in those without CDH which may behave as control pups [11].

Dysregulated factors and pathways involved in lung development (Fig. 2; Table 3)

Fibroblast growth factors (FGF)

Together with heparan-sulfate proteoglycans, FGF and FGF receptors (FGFRs) form a complex signaling network between the epithelium and mesenchyme that is essential for the initiation of the embryonic lung bud formation, branching morphogenesis and cell proliferation and differentiation. In the pseudo-glandular and canalicular stages, epithelial FGF-9 and mesenchymal FGF-18 have been reported as decreased in the lungs of nitrofen-exposed fetuses with and without CDH, compared to control, suggesting an early disruption of this pathway, before the occurrence of the hernia [47–49]. In the saccular stage, all five main FGFs that are important for lung development have been reported as decreased in the nitrofen model [43, 45, 47–49]. In the same way, several regulators of this signaling pathway have decreased expression in canalicular and saccular stages [52–54]. Heparan sulfate, an essential component of the extracellular matrix (ECM), required for FGFR activation, has a decreased expression and modified structure and function in the pseudoglandular stage [55]. Contradictory results have been reported regarding the receptors of this signaling

pathway. Although unchanged at E18, FGFR-2 and FGFR-3 have been reported as increased in saccular stages in lungs of nitrofen-exposed pups, regardless of the presence of a hernia, compared to control pups [51]. This could be part of a regulatory loop, due to the deficit of FGF ligands, occurring as early as the pseudo-glandular stage. A decrease in FGFR-2 and 3 has also been found in micro-array analysis, but was not confirmed after RT-PCR [50]. Finally, FGF-FGFR signaling is transduced through mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK) and phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K)/Akt, which have both been shown to have a reduced activity in this CDH model [56, 57]. Decrease in FGF-18 signaling between mesenchymal cells can result in decreased production of lysyl oxidase (Lox); an extra-cellular enzyme that catalyzes the cross-linking of ECM proteins is necessary for the structural and functional integrity of the connective tissue and can influence the transcriptome of lung fibroblasts [87]. This enzyme is mainly produced by interstitial fibroblasts after stimulation by FGF-18, and its expression has been shown to be decreased in lungs and diaphragms of nitrofen-exposed CDH fetuses from E15 to E18 [58, 88]. In human CDH, FGF-18 is the only factor involved in this pathway that has been studied and was reported as decreased in lung tissue at autopsy [49]. FGF10 and FGF7 are decreased at amniocentesis of CDH pregnancies compared with normal [44].

Bone morphogenetic proteins (BMP)

These growth factors belong to the transforming growth factor (TGF)- β family and play a critical role in airway branching morphogenesis, alveolar and vascular formation, and epithelial differentiation. Ligands BMP-4, BMP-7 and the

Table 2 Incidence of CDH after maternal exposure to nitrofen

References	Incidence (%)	Number of pups with CDH/number of pups studied
Tovar et al. [19]	59	24/41
Alfonso et al. [16]	58	26/45
Alles et al. [20]	27	33/122
North et al. [21]	63	42/67
Alfonso et al. [22]	46	18/39
Allan and Greer [23]	52	95/181
Xia et al. [24]	63	57/90
Migliazza et al. [25]	62	80/130
Migliazza et al. [26]	63	57/90
Hoydu et al. [27]	48	76/159
Migliazza et al. [28]	53	76/143
Utsuki et al. [18]	43	44/103
Yu et al. [29]	69	22/32
Yu et al. [30]	41	16/39
Correia-Pinto et al. [31]	64	157/246
Rodriguez-Matas et al. [32]	68	53/78
Gonzalez-Reyes et al. [33]	74	70/94
Martinez et al. [34]	72	47/65
Chapin et al. [15]	31	85/274
Baptista et al. [35]	50	77/153
Oshiro et al. [36]	85	77/91
Folkesson et al. [37]	48	46/96
Montedonico et al. [38]	62	40/65
Lin et al. [17]	53	68/128
Baird et al. [39]	58	64/110
Sakai et al. [40]	50	13/26
Tsuda et al. [41]	48	44/92
Zhu et al. [42]	63	32/51
Total (N=28)	54	1539/2850

receptor BMPR-2 are downregulated in the CDH nitrofen model from pseudoglandular to saccular stages [59–61]. Downstream factors and markers of the BMPR signaling pathway activity are mostly reported as downregulated, whereas BMP antagonist, Gremlin-1, is upregulated [60, 62, 63]. Interestingly, T-box transcription factors 2, 4 and 6, mediators of BMP-Smad signaling, are essential for FGF-10 and Wnt2 expression in the mesenchyme and are decreased in the CDH nitrofen model from E15 to E21 [64].

Sonic Hedgehog (Shh)

Throughout lung organogenesis, Shh protein is strongly expressed in the epithelium at the tips of the primary and secondary lung buds and developing bronchi, with a peak in expression during the pseudoglandular stage, suggesting a polarizing role in branching morphogenesis [89]. Shh signaling also contributes to the mesenchymal thinning of late pseudoglandular and early canalicular stages, by inhibiting fibroblast proliferation through the activation of kinesin family-7 (Kif-7) and Forkhead box-1 (FoxF1) [89]. Shh is known to interact with many other pathways: it induces BMP4 in early lung development, restricts FGF-10 expression to the distal tips of lung buds, and induces FoxF1 expression in sub-epithelial lung mesenchyme [89, 90]. In return, Shh is upregulated by FGF-9 and downregulated by the non-canonical Wnt-5 [89]. In the nitrofen model, the expression of Shh in the epithelium and FoxF1 and Kif7 in the mesenchyme is decreased from the early pseudo-glandular stage until the alveolar stage, correlating with low BMP-4 expression levels [65–67]. Shh downregulation results in branching arrest, fibroblast proliferation, thickened mesenchyme, and alveolar immaturity. In human CDH, the normal pseudoglandular peak in Shh expression is delayed to late canalicular/saccular

Fig. 2 Main dysregulated pathways in the nitrofen model involved in lung development (Lung bud)

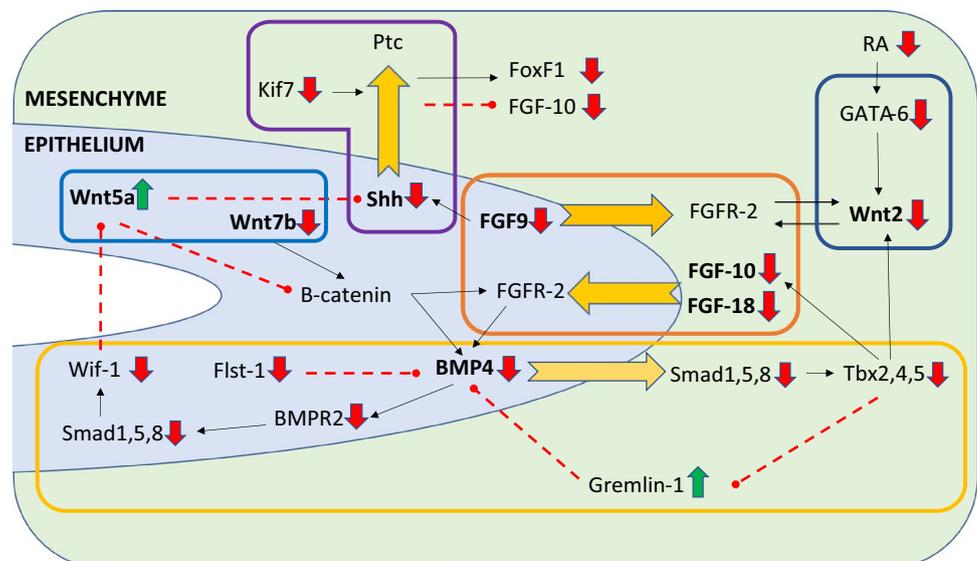


Table 3 Main dysregulated factors and signaling pathways involved in lung development

Factor	Change in CDH model	Location	Role	Human CDH
FGF signaling				
FGF-10	Decreased E21 (CDH vs nitrofen without CDH and controls) [43]	Mesenchyme	Controls of branching morphogenesis Epithelial cell proliferation and differentiation Induces SP-C, downregulates BMP4	Decreased in amniotic fluid [44]
FGF-2 (= basic FGF)	Decreased E21 [45]	Mesenchyme and epithelium	Branching morphogenesis Epithelial differentiation Vasculogenesis	
FGF-7 (= keratocyte growth factor)	Decreased E21 [43]	Mesenchyme	Branching morphogenesis Pulmonary septation Epithelial proliferation and differentiation	Decreased in amniotic fluid [44] Unchanged in lung [46]
FGF-9	Decreased E15 → E18 [47]	Airway epithelium and mesothelium (E15)	Branching morphogenesis Subpleural mesenchymal cell proliferation	
FGF-18	Decreased E18 → E21 [48] Decreased E21 [49]	Mesenchymal cells surrounding branching airways	Pulmonary septation Alveolar maturation Lung fibroblast proliferation	Decreased in lung [49]
FGFR1	Decreased E21 [50] Unchanged E18 and E21 [51]		FGF receptor	
FGFR2	Increased E21 [51] No change E18 [51] Decreased E21 [50]	Distal airway epithelium and mesenchyme	FGF receptor	
FGFR3	Increased E21 [51] No change E18 [51] Decreased E21 [50]	Distal airway epithelium and mesenchyme	FGF receptor	
c-cbl	Decreased E18–E21 [52]	Alveolar epithelium	Regulator of FGFR	
Sprouty-2	Decreased E18–E21 [53, 54]	Distal airway epithelium	Regulator of FGFR	
Sprouty-4	Decreased E18 [54]	Distal airway epithelium	Regulator of FGFR	
SPRED-1 and 2	Decreased E18 [54]	Mesenchymal cells surrounding newly formed airways	Regulator of FGFR	
Heparan sulfate	Decreased E15.5–17.5 + modified structure [55]	Extracellular matrix	Required for FGFR signaling	
ERK-1 and ERK-2 (= MAPK 1 and 2)	Decreased E19.5 [56]		Transduces mitogen and differentiation signals	
PI3K	Decreased E21 [57]	Epithelium and mesenchyme	Downstream of FGF regulates AKT activity	
AKT	Decreased E18 [57]	Mesenchyme	Mediates epithelial cell proliferation, differentiation and survival signal	
Lox	Decreased E15–18 [58]	ECM, produced by mesenchymal cells	Controls cross-linking of ECM proteins Downstream of FGF-18	
BMP signaling				
BMP-4	Decreased E15–21 [59, 60]	Epithelium	Downstream of Wnt Branching, epithelial differentiation	
BMP-7	Decreased E17, no change E21 [60]			

Table 3 (continued)

Factor	Change in CDH model	Location	Role	Human CDH
BMPR-2	Decreased E17–21 [60, 61]	Epithelial and vascular cells	BMP receptor	
Gremlin-1	Increased E17, no change E21 [60]	Epithelial and vascular cells	BMP antagonist	
Fstl1	Decreased E18–21 [62]	Distal alveolar epithelium	Regulator of alveolar formation and maturation	
Smad1/5/8	Decreased E17–E21 [60, 63]	Epithelium, surrounding mesenchyme	Downstream factor of BMPR-2	
Id1	Decreased E17–21 [60]		Marker of BMP activity	
Wif1	Decrease E18–21 [63]	Epithelium	Downstream of Smad1	
T-box 2, 4, 5	Decreased E15–21 [64]	Mesenchyme around branching airways	Downstream of Smad Mediates production of branching signals Essential for FGF-10 and Wnt2 expression in mesenchyme	
Shh signaling				
Sonic HedgeHog	Decreased E12–22 [65]	Epithelium	Branching morphogenesis Inhibits lung fibroblast proliferation	Delayed peak [65]
Kif7	Decreased E15–E18 [66]	Mesenchyme	Controls proliferation of mesenchymal cells. Necessary for Shh signaling to mesenchyme	
FoxF1	Decreased E21 [67]	Mesenchyme	Controls fibroblast proliferation Promotes VEGF	
Wnt signaling				
Wnt7b	Decreased E15, unchanged E17–E21 [59]	Epithelium		
Wnt2	Decreased E15, unchanged from E17 to E21 [59]	Mesenchyme		
Wnt5a	Increased E18–21 [68]	Epithelium and mesenchyme		
GATA-6	Decreased E13–18 [59, 69]	Mesenchyme	Branching morphogenesis Activates transcription of Wnt	
RSP				
Retinol	Increased E21 in plasma, decreased E21 in lung [70]		Converted to retinal then to retinoic acid	Decreased [71, 72]
RBP	Decreased E21 [73]	Whole lung	Plasmatic retinol transport	Decreased in plasma [71]
TTR	Decreased E21 [73]	Whole lung	Retinol transport	
CRBP-1	Increased E21 [70]	Whole lung	Intracellular retinol transport	CRBP2 extinct in human CDH [74]
RAR α	Increased E17–21 [70, 75]	Epithelial and mesenchymal cells		
RAR β , RXR α	Increased E21 [70]	Epithelial and mesenchymal cells		
RAR γ	Increased E17 [75]	Epithelial and mesenchymal cells		
RALDH3	Increased E21 [70]		Oxidizes retinal to RA	
RALDH2	Unchanged [70, 74, 76]		Oxidizes retinal to RA	Increased in CDH lungs [74]

Table 3 (continued)

Factor	Change in CDH model	Location	Role	Human CDH
LRAT	Decreased E17–21 [74, 76]		Esterifies retinol to RE for storage	Absent from all newborn lungs [74]
CYP26b1	Decreased E17–21 [74, 76]		Degrades excess RA, stimulated by RA	Absent from CDH lungs [74]
LPL	Increased E21 [77]		Hydrolyzes maternal RE to retinol	
COUP-TFII	Increased E15 [78]	Mesenchyme	Represses RSP by sequestering RXR Modulates GATA 4–6	
Midkine	Decreased E15, unchanged E18–21 [79]	Mesenchyme ++ Alveolar epithelium (AT2)	RA-responsive Upregulated by TTF1 Mesenchymal thinning	
LGL-1 (crisp1d2)	Decreased E21 [80]	Fibroblasts	Role in branching morphogenesis and alveolarization Downstream of RSP	
LRP-1	Increased E21 [77]		Receptor allowing lungs to take in RE	
IGF signaling				
IGF-1	Decreased E21 [81]	Bronchiolar epithelium		Increased in lungs of newborns and stillborns [82]
IGF-2	Decreased E21 [73, 81]	Epithelium		
IGF-1R	Decreased E21 [83]	Proximal alveolar epithelium++, mesenchyme	Epithelial proliferation and differentiation	
IGF-2R	Decreased E21 [83]	Proximal alveolar epithelium++, mesenchyme	Alveolar maturation internalizes and transports IGF-2	
Insulin-R	Decreased E21 [84]	Proximal alveolar epithelium, mesenchyme	Regulates uptake of glucose by AT2 cells for surfactant	
IGFBP-3	Decreased E21 [85]	Proximal airway epithelium, mesenchyme	Stimulates RSP by activating RXR- α	
IGFBP-4	Increased E18–21 [86]	Mesenchyme	Inhibits IGF	
IGFBP-5	Decreased E18 [85]	Proximal airway epithelium, mesenchyme	Stimulates RSP by activating RXR- α	

stage and seems responsible of the thickened mesenchyme and sub-pleural alveolar immaturity [65].

Wnt signaling

FGF, BMP and Shh signaling can all three be regulated by a key player in lung development, Wnt signaling. Based on their distinct signal transductions, Wnt signaling can be categorized into two groups: canonical and non-canonical Wnt. Canonical Wnt, with ligands such as Wnt-7b and Wnt-2, regulates early branching morphogenesis and proximal–distal patterning. Epithelial Wnt-7b and mesenchymal Wnt-2 have decreased expression in the lung during the pseudoglandular stage in the CDH nitrofen model [59]. Decreased Wnt signaling in the epithelium results in the downregulation of its two target genes, BMP4 and FGFR-2. The decrease in Wnt ligands could be due to the downregulation of GATA-6

reported as early as E13 [59, 69]. GATA-6 is a transcription factor known to activate the Wnt-7b promoter in the lung epithelium [91]. Non-canonical Wnt factors, such as Wnt-5a, control lung distal morphogenesis, by promoting epithelial cell differentiation and alveolar septation, and inhibiting Shh signaling. In the CDH model, Wnt5a is increased in the alveolar epithelium from E18 to E21 [68]. This increase could be due to downregulation of Wnt inhibitor factor 1 (Wif1), caused by decreased BMP-4/Smad1 signaling [63].

Retinoic acid signaling pathway (RSP)

GATA-6 is a retinoic acid (RA) responsive gene product and its decrease from E13 to E18 results in a delay in branching morphogenesis and epithelial differentiation, possibly due to an RA deficit [92]. RSP disruption is considered to have a central role in the pathogenesis of CDH/PH nitrofen

model. Retinoic acid, the active form of vitamin A, is the ligand for retinoic acid receptors (RARs) and retinoid X receptors (RXRs), which act as transcription factors for many genes involved in lung development. In 1953, it was shown that CDH was present in two-thirds of the offspring of a vitamin A deficient female rat and, later, incidence in CDH after nitrofen exposure was decreased with administration of large doses of vitamin A or RA [93–95]. Since then, multiple studies have shown RSP disruption in the nitrofen model. The embryo may be particularly susceptible to perturbations of retinoid levels, as these drop markedly between E10 and E14 due to a strong increase in retinol utilization [96]. The developing lungs and diaphragm, which express retinaldehyde dehydrogenase 2 (RALDH-2) and rely on RA for proper development, would then be compromised by a deficit in RA [97]. In vitro, nitrofen inhibits RALDH2 [98]. In vivo, RALDH2 is reported as unchanged and RALDH3 as increased from E15 onwards after nitrofen exposure [76]. However, after administration to a pregnant dam, embryonic nitrofen levels peak at 48 h post-administration and then starts decreasing slowly [99]. It has been speculated that temporary RALDH2 inhibition after nitrofen administration at E9 impairs left diaphragmatic and lung development before E15, followed by an increase in RALDH2 and RAR as part of a regulatory feedback loop due to the lack of RA. Indeed, RAR and RXR are overexpressed in epithelial and mesenchymal cells of nitrofen-exposed lungs from E17 to E21, [70, 75]. Indirect arguments for RA deficit include the downregulation of enzymes that store or degrade RA in case of RA excess, such as lecithin retinol acyltransferase (LRAT) and CYP26b1, and the activation of an alternate pathway to increase the uptake of retinol ester (RE) from maternal dietary RE through the placenta [76, 77]. In nitrofen-exposed fetuses, pulmonary and plasmatic retinol levels are decreased, whereas increased levels of RE are reported [70]. RE is transported from maternal dietary RE through the placenta, suggesting the increase in enzymes and proteins that process RE, such as LRP1 and LPL, in the fetal CDH lungs [77]. In human, newborns with CDH, cord blood retinol and retinol binding protein (RBP) have been reported as decreased compared to control [71, 72]. This possibly results in the reported intracellular RA depletion, reflected by RBP-2 and CYP26b1 downregulation in CDH newborn lungs compared to control [74]. RALDH2 is also strongly increased in the lungs of human newborns with CDH [74]. It could be speculated that RALDH2 increase is promoted by a positive feedback, secondary to low RA intracellular levels, which could be caused by either initial low RA plasma levels, or by RA excessive utilization for compensatory growth in reaction to CDH/PH. Pulmonary RALDH2 expression is unchanged in the nitrofen model, but is increased in the surgical rabbit model and in human CDH [74]. This suggests that pulmonary RALDH2 increase in human is at least

in part due to the mechanical compression of the lung by the contents of the hernia [74]. Midkine, a growth factor involved in mesenchymal–epithelial interactions, is a retinoic acid responsive gene product that is involved in mesenchymal thinning during the pseudoglandular stage and later in the alveologenesis [100, 101]. In the CDH nitrofen model, Midkine expression is downregulated in the pseudoglandular stage, mainly in the mesenchyme [79].

Insulin-like growth factors (IGFs)

The IGF family, which closely interacts with RSP, is essential for proximal and distal airway epithelial differentiation [102, 103]. IGF-binding protein 4 (IGFBP-4), known to inhibit IGF, is reported as increased from E18 to E21 in the mesenchyme of lungs of nitrofen-exposed pups with or without CDH compared to controls [86]. The expression of the ligands IGF-1 and IGF-2, as well as the different receptors and regulators of this pathway, is reported as decreased in nitrofen-exposed lungs during the saccular stage [73, 81, 83, 84]. Epidermal growth factor (EGF) increases IGFBP-4 production by fetal lung fibroblast [104]. Interestingly, the lungs of human babies with CDH have higher levels of IGF-1 [82].

Dysregulated factors involved in early differentiation of airway epithelium (Fig. 3; Table 4)

Pulmonary neuro-endocrine cells (PNECs) are the earliest differentiated airway epithelial cells, arising from multipotent epithelial progenitors, expressing Sox2, at E14–15. Mash1 is a transcription factor that directs epithelial progenitors towards neuroendocrine differentiation, whereas Dll1 is a Notch ligand secreted by Mash1⁺ cells that inhibits neuroendocrine differentiation, thus promoting differentiation towards club cells [105]. Mash1 and Dll1 downregulation between E15.5 and 17.5 suggests a delay in the normal epithelial neuro-endocrine cell commitment [105]. After E17.5, the lungs of fetuses with CDH have increased levels of both Mash1 and Dll1 that at E21 reach normal levels for Mash1 and levels higher than control for Dll1 [105]. This suggests that CDH stimulates neuro-endocrine differentiation and compensatory growth.

Moreover, the expression of Hes1, a factor that influences undifferentiated epithelium into a non-endocrine fate, is increased at E15.5 in nitrofen-exposed lungs [105]. In parallel, there seems to be a delay in airway epithelial non-neuroendocrine differentiation, as suggested by the decreased expression of CC10, a club cell marker, at 17.5 and 19.5 compared to controls [105]. CC10 levels increase back to normal at E21 in lungs of fetuses that develop CDH, whereas they remain lower in the lungs of those who did not develop CDH [105].

Fig. 3 Dysregulated factors involved in early differentiation of airway epithelium

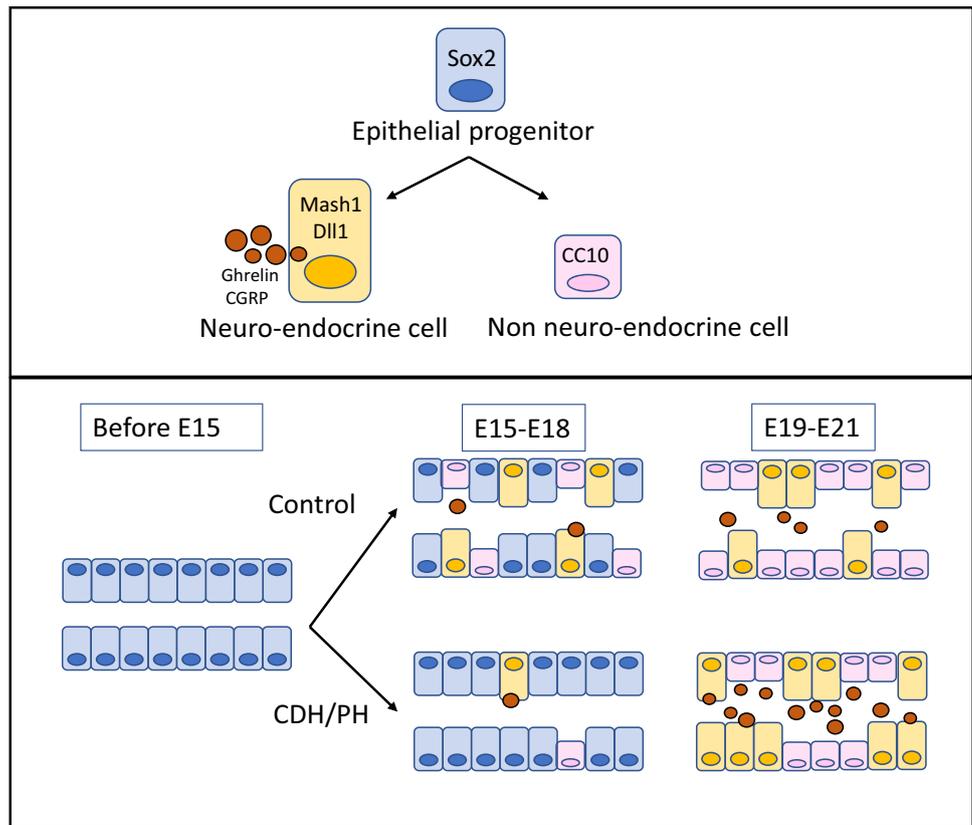


Table 4 Dysregulated factors involved in early differentiation of airway epithelium

Factor	Change in CDH	Location	Role, properties	Human
Mash1 (= Ascl1)	Decreased 15.5–17.5, then increased E21 [105]	Airway epithelium	Neuro-endocrine cell (PNEC) differentiation	
Dll1	Decreased E15.5, then increase E19.5 [105]	Airway epithelium	NE cell Notch ligand	
Hes1	Increased 15.5 [105]	Airway epithelium	Neurogenic gene repressor-non NE cell	
CC10	Decreased E17.5–19.5, back to normal levels E21 [105]	Airway epithelium	Club cell marker	
Calcitonin growth-related peptide (GGRP) ⁺ cells	Increased E22 [106–108]	Bronchiolar epithelium	Peptide secreted by PNEC Epithelial and endothelial cell proliferation vasodilation	
Protein Gene Product (PGP) ⁺ cells	Increased E21 [109]	Airway epithelium	Marker of PNEC	
Ghrelin	Increased E17.5–E21.5 [75, 110]	Epithelium	Increases expression of RAR α /y	Increased in lung [110]

PNECs secrete peptides, such as calcitonin gene-related protein (CGRP), ghrelin, and bombesin. Between E18 and P7, CGRP stimulates proliferation of endothelial and epithelial cells and plays a role in controlling bronchoconstriction and vasodilation. In nitrofen CDH fetuses, whereas decreased CGRP levels are noticed at E18, there is evidence for an increased number of CGRP secreting PNECs in the airway epithelium at E22 compared to lungs of control and

nitrofen-exposed without CDH fetuses [106, 107, 109]. Interestingly, the number of CGRP⁺ cells/mm³ is significantly higher in ipsilateral CDH lungs vs contralateral lungs and control lungs at E22 [108]. This suggests that nitrofen-exposed hypoplastic lungs experience an initial delay followed by a rapid increase in the differentiation of CGRP-secreting PNECs, possibly stimulated by the mechanical compression of the lung by the herniated organs.

Ghrelin plays a role in stimulating branching morphogenesis by increasing the expression of retinoic acid receptors (RAR) RAR α and RAR γ ex vivo [75, 110]. Higher levels of ghrelin are reported in the lungs of all nitrofen-exposed pups (with or without CDH) from E17 to E19, compared to controls, whereas at E21 only lungs of CDH pups have higher expression of ghrelin compared to controls [110]. In lung explants from nitrofen-exposed fetuses (E13.5), administering a ghrelin antagonist decreases the expression of RAR- α/γ , but administering ghrelin does not change the expression of these receptors, suggesting that receptors are already overexpressed, correlating with other studies reporting on the overexpression of RARs in CDH lungs [70, 75]. This suggests that the RA deficit stimulates RAR overexpression through ghrelin, whereas CDH further stimulates PNEC differentiation, with an increased ghrelin and CGRP production. Higher ghrelin expression has been reported in lungs of fetuses with CDH, especially during pseudoglandular and canalicular stages [110].

Lungs of human neonates with CDH showed a significant increase in bombesin expression compared with the lungs from controls or from neonates with PH without CDH [111, 112]. These findings suggest a hyperplasia of PNEC in human CDH lungs, possibly as a compensatory mechanism due to the compression of the lung by the hernia contents.

Dysregulated factors involved in late differentiation of airway epithelium (Fig. 4; Table 5)

Alveolar type 1 (AT1) cells

During the canalicular stage, alveolar type 2 (AT2) cells differentiate from distal epithelial cells and start secreting surfactant or differentiate into flat, non-secreting AT1 cells. Several markers of AT1 cells, such as Aquaporin-5, podoplanin and ICAM-1, have been reported as decreased during the saccular stages in the lungs of nitrofen-exposed CDH pups compared to nitrofen-exposed pups without CDH and control pups, suggesting that compression of the lungs by the hernia contents impairs differentiation from AT2 to AT1 cells [113–115]. In the nitrofen model, the levels of thyroid hormone and its receptors TR α 1 and TR β 1, that are essential to AT1 maturation, are decreased in pups with CDH compared to control and nitrofen-exposed pups without CDH [116, 117]. This suggests that the mechanical compression of the lung by the hernia contents impairs AT1 maturation, in part through TR downregulation. Moreover, nitrofen-exposed lungs have lower levels of other factors essential to AT1 maturation and regulated by thyroid hormone receptors, such as the transcription factor Krüppel Like Factor 2 (Klf2) and connexin 43, a gap junction protein located between alveolar epithelial cells, which are both essential to differentiation from AT2 to AT1 [118, 119]. The decreased expression of ion and water channels in nitrofen-exposed

Fig. 4 Dysregulated factors involved in alveolar maturation

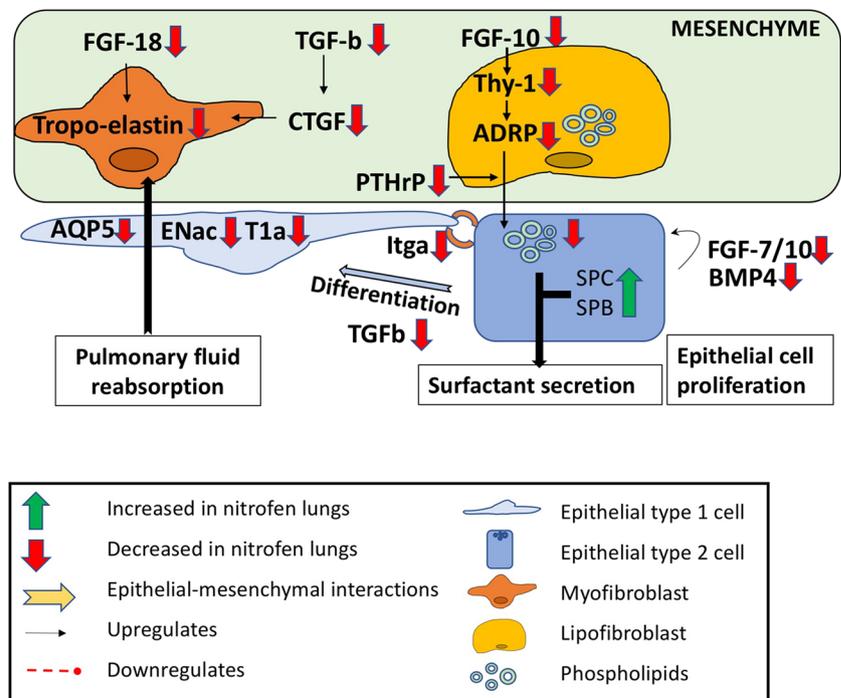


Table 5 Dysregulated factors involved in late differentiation of airway epithelium

Factor	Change in CDH model	Location	Role, properties	Human CDH
AQP-5	Decreased E21, no difference E15–E19 [113]	AT-1	Marker of AT-1 Reabsorption of water	
T1 α (podoplanin/RT1(40))	Decreased E21 [114]	AT-1	Marker of AT-1	
ICAM-1	Decreased E21 [114, 115]	AT-1	Marker of AT-1	
T3 and T4	Decreased E21 in fetal plasma, unchanged in the lung [116]	Fetal plasma	Thyroid hormones	
TR α 1	Decreased E21 [117]	Epithelium	AT-1 maturation Lung fluid absorption	
TR β 1	Decreased E21 [117]	Epithelium		
Klf2 (=Lung Klf)	Decreased E18–21 [118]	AT1	AT1 maturation Inhibits TNF α	
Connexin 43	Decreased E18–E21 [119]	Between alveolar epithelial cells	Major gap junction protein Differentiation from AT2 to AT1	
Ion and water channels	Decreased E21 [37, 50, 113, 120]	AT1	Secretion and reabsorption of lung fluid	
TTF-1	Increased E21 [40, 114] No difference [115] Decreased E21 [121–123]	AT-2 + non-ciliated bronchiolar epithelial cells	Lung morphogenesis Surfactant protein synthesis	No difference [46, 124]
Hepatocyte nuclear factor –3 β	Decreased E21 [123]	AT2		
SP-A	Decreased E21 [18, 125, 126] No change E15–22 [127, 128]			No difference [46]
SP-B	Decreased E15 [129] Increased E21 [114] Higher proportion of cells expressing SP-B, no difference <E20 [127] Decreased E21 [121–123, 126, 128, 130]	AT-2 + bronchiolar epithelial cells	Role in surfactant synthesis	Decreased mature SP-B in tracheal aspirates [131]
SP-C	Decreased E15 [129] Increased E21–22, no difference <E20 [114, 127] Decreased E21 [128] No changes [126] Decreased E21 [126] No change [128]	AT-2		No difference [46]
SP-D	Decreased E21 [18, 132]	AT2		No difference [46]
Disaturated phosphatidyl-choline (PC)	Decreased E21 [18, 132]	AT2	Lipid component of surfactant	Decreased PC synthesis in infants with CDH and ECMO [133] No difference between overall CDH and controls [131, 134]
TNF α	Increased E21 [135]	Bronchiolar and alveolar epithelium	Inhibits surfactant synthesis Stimulates fibroblast proliferation and collagen	Increased in epithelial cells [136] and in serum [137]

Table 5 (continued)

Factor	Change in CDH model	Location	Role, properties	Human CDH
EGF	Increased E21 [17]	Bronchiolar epithelium Pulmonary arteries	Epithelial cell differentiation Stimulated by TNF α	Increased in epithelium [138]

lungs impairs the reabsorption of pulmonary fluid at birth [37, 50, 113, 120].

Alveolar type 2 (AT2) cells

During the pseudoglandular stage, there is a decreased expression of surfactant protein (SP)-B and SP-C, suggesting an initial delay in differentiation of distal epithelial cells [129]. During the saccular stage, nitrofen-exposed lungs have a distal epithelium mainly populated by AT2 cuboidal cells, compared to control lungs which have many AT1 flat cells, as evidenced by the increased expression of AT2 cell markers (Surfactant protein (SP)-B, SP-C and Thyroid transcription factor (TTF)-1) in the peripheral lung tissue [40, 114, 127]. One of the causes for increased markers for AT2 cells could be an increased stimulation by tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α . Following mechanical strain, TNF α converting enzyme (TACE) can induce SP-C expression in AT2 by signaling through EGF and transforming growth factor (TGF)- α [139, 140]. TNF- α inhibits AQP-5 expression in lung epithelial cells [141]. In nitrofen-exposed lungs, higher levels of TNF α and EGF are reported in the bronchiolar epithelium and pulmonary arteries in the saccular stage [17, 135]. In CDH human neonates, a strong expression of TNF- α has been reported in pulmonary AT2 and macrophages as well as elevated serum levels of TNF α at birth [136, 137]. EGF and TGF α expression levels are upregulated in the bronchial and bronchiolar epithelium of infants with CDH compared to controls [138]. Higher rates of EGF are also found in cord blood samples from neonates with CDH at birth and in amniotic fluid just before delivery from pregnancies with CDH compared to control [142, 143]. The cause for this increase in TNF α in epithelial cells is unclear, but this might occur as a compensation to lung immaturity.

Surfactant

Several articles have reported that nitrofen-exposed lungs have decreased or unchanged levels of surfactant protein [18, 121–123, 125, 126, 128, 130]. These could seem contradictory to the reported increase in AT2 cells above mentioned. However, all these studies measured the surfactant expression in the whole lung, which does not reflect the status of the distal airways. Nitrofen-exposed lungs have lower levels and altered secretion of phosphatidylcholine (PC), the lipid component of surfactant [18, 132]. Moreover, factors involved in stimulating the maturation of surfactant lipids, such as PTHrP, ADRP, Thy-1 and retinoic acid, are decreased, whereas factors that inhibit surfactant phospholipid synthesis, such as TNF α , are increased [70, 135, 144–148].

Dysregulated factors involved in lung mesenchymal development (Fig. 4; Table 6)

Lipofibroblasts (LIFs)

In the developing lung, interstitial fibroblasts can differentiate into lipid-containing interstitial fibroblasts (LIFs) and myofibroblasts. LIFs are critical for normal alveolar development and for stimulating the de novo synthesis of surfactant phospholipids in AT2. LIFs expression is reduced in the mesenchyme of nitrofen-exposed lungs, as evidenced by the decrease of LIF-specific markers thymocyte antigen 1 (Thy-1) and adipocyte differentiation-related protein, as well LIF receptors parathyroid hormone-related receptor (PTHrP-R) and PPAR γ [144, 146, 147, 169]. PTHrP levels are decreased also in the epithelium of nitrofen-exposed lungs at E21 [147]. In these lungs, LIFs have a decreased expression of micro-RNA 200b, which is both downstream and regulates TGF β /Smad signaling [150]. Several studies reported an altered TGF β signaling in the lungs of nitrofen-exposed pups [45, 50, 151–153].

Myofibroblasts

Alveolar myofibroblasts (AMF) lacking Thy-1 produce ECM components, such as elastin, α -smooth muscle actin (α -SMA), and collagen, and are essential to secondary septation [170]. The platelet-derived growth factor A (PDGF)/PDGF-receptor- α pathway is crucial for the formation of secondary alveolar septa, by stimulating myofibroblast proliferation and migration [171]. In the CDH nitrofen model, PDGFA/PDGFR α signaling is increased in the pseudoglandular stage, inducing an excessive proliferation of myofibroblast progenitors in the mesenchyme [155]. PDGFA/PDGFR α pathway upregulation activates NADPH oxidase and results in an increase of oxidative stress, which has been reported in several studies [155–159]. An associated decrease in anti-oxidant enzymes has been found in these lungs [157, 160]. Excessive stimulation of AMF is also suggested by the increased expression of collagen, α -SMA and elastin [129, 161]. Procollagen, a soluble protein precursor of collagen, is significantly increased in nitrofen-exposed lungs at E22 [161]. Shh signaling drives AMF migration towards the sites of secondary septation, whereas FGF-10 is essential for AMF maturation [170]. However, as Shh and FGF-10 signaling are defective in nitrofen-exposed lungs, AMF migration is impaired, resulting in defective secondary septation, as shown by the immature and disorganized distribution of elastin in nitrofen-exposed lungs [49, 161, 162].

In human CDH, elastin deposition is decreased at the tips of growing septa, reflecting deficient secondary septation [49]. High levels of PDGF have been reported at

amniocentesis and in cord blood of infants with CDH [142, 143].

Other mesenchymal factors

Integrin receptors link collagen to fibroblasts in the fetal lung and are essential for cell–matrix interaction and branching morphogenesis. Integrin sub-units α 3, 6 and 8 are reported as decreased in CDH nitrofen mesenchyme from pseudoglandular to saccular stage [163].

Connective tissue growth factor (CTGF) is expressed in the fetal rat lung as early as E14 and increases throughout gestation, in response to TGF- β [164]. In CDH nitrofen lungs, CTGF expression is decreased compared to controls at E21 [164, 165].

Final remarks

The nitrofen model is the most commonly studied model of CDH and has provided valuable insight into the development of PH over almost three decades. Our review shows that nitrofen induces a diaphragmatic defect in half of the litter. Nonetheless, we demonstrated that this is a good model to study PH as all fetuses in the litter develop perturbations in signaling pathways essential to lung development. Our review confirms the “dual hit hypothesis” formulated in 2000 by Keijzer et al. which suggested that PH associated with CDH results from two insults, one affecting both lungs before diaphragm closure and one affecting the ipsilateral lung after defective diaphragm development [172]. Whereas perturbations in several signaling pathways are present early in the pseudoglandular stage, before diaphragmatic closure, dysregulation of some other factors and pathways appear later and are present only in lungs of fetuses that develop CDH. Accordingly, an increase in AT2 cells is observed in all nitrofen-exposed lungs, but only lungs of fetuses with CDH experience also a decrease in AT1.

We acknowledge that the results of this review are limited by the quality of the studies reported in the literature. We have noticed that many studies excluded lungs of nitrofen-exposed pups which did not develop CDH. Moreover, some dysregulated factors have been described but their role in known lung development pathways remain unexplained. Lastly, we noticed some discrepancies between the model and the human condition for factors that have discordant levels of expression. Nonetheless, the majority of factors and pathways described in the fetal rat model are relevant to human lung development, as they are conserved across species.

Table 6 Dysregulated factors involved in lung mesenchymal development

Factor	Change in CDH model	Location	Role, properties	Human CDH
Thy-1	Decreased E21 [144]	Lipofibroblasts (LIFs)	Marker of LIFs Upregulates ADRP	
ADRP (= perilipin 2)	Decreased E18–21 [144]	LIFs	Uptake of lipids by LIFs and transport to AT2	
PPAR γ	Decreased E21 [146]	LIFs	Increases ADRP, AT2 maturation inhibits MCP-1	
MCP-1	Increased E21 [146]	Mesenchyme, epithelium	Monocyte chemo-attractant Increased by TNF α	Increased in plasma [149]
PTHrP	Decreased E21 [147]	Epithelium (AT2)	Increases AQP5 expression by AT1	
PTHrP-R	Decreased E18–E21 [147]	Lipofibroblasts (LIFs)	Increases the transfer of TG by LIFs to AT2 for production of surfactant	
miR-200b	Decreased E21 [150]	Lipofibroblasts	Decreases TGF β /Smad signaling	
TGF- β	TGF β 1 decreased E17–E21 [45, 50, 151] TGF β 1 increased E16.5– E21 (peripheral lung or bronchiolar epithelium) [152, 153] TGF β 3 decreased E21 [50]		Alveolar maturation Signals through smad2/3 Target of miR-200b Enhances miR-200 expres- sion (negative feedback loop)	TGF- β 2 in umbilical cord blood increased in neo- nates requiring ECMO [154]
ACTA-2 (smooth muscle actin)	Increased E21 [129]	Myofibroblast	Marker of myofibroblasts	
PDGF- α	Increased E18 [155]	Epithelium and mesen- chyme	Secondary septation Myofibroblast proliferation and migration	Increased in amniotic fluid [142, 143]
PDGFR- α	Increased E15 [155]	Mesenchyme	Myofibroblast progenitors	
NADPH oxidase	Increased E21 [156, 157]		Generates reactive oxygen species (ROS)	
Hydrogen peroxide	Increased E15–E18 [155]		ROS	
Oxidative damaged proteins	Increased E21 [158]			
8-Hydroxy-2'- deoxyguanosine	Increased E21 [159]		Marker of oxidative stress	
Antioxidant enzymes	Decreased E21 [157, 160]		Eliminates excess ROS	
α 1-Procollagen	Increased E21 [161]	ECM	Collagen precursor	
Tropo-elastin	Increased E21 [161] Decreased E21 [49, 162]	ECM	Elastin precursor	Decreased in lungs [49]
Integrin sub-unit α 3, 6, 8	Decreased E15–E21 [163]	Mesenchyme	Branching morphogenesis, cell-matrix interaction	
CTGF (= CCN2)	Decreased E21 [164, 165]	Mesenchyme, epithelium	Alveolar maturation, Stimulates fibroblasts and ECM Production Increased by TGF β 1	
NPAS3 (neuronal PAS domain 3)	Decreased E21.5 [166]	Mesenchyme	Branching morphogenesis, alveolarization Regulates Shh signaling	
Slit2 and 3	Increased E15 and E21 [167]	Mesenchyme, airway epithelium	Organization of mesen- chyme	
Epimorphin	Increased E16, decreased E20 [168]	Mesenchyme	Epithelial–mesenchyme interactions	
miR-33	Decreased E21 [42]		Predicted target gene: PDGFR- α	

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Informed consent Not applicable.

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