



Saroha, Vivek and Dellschaft, Neele S. and Keisler, Duane H. and Gardner, David S. and Budge, Helen and Sebert, Sylvain P. and Symonds, Michael E. (2017) Tissue cell stress response to obesity and its interaction with late gestational diet. *Reproduction, Fertility and Development* . ISSN 1448-5990

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1 **Tissue cell stress response to obesity and its interaction with late gestational diet**

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14 **Short title:** Prenatal growth and cell stress response

15 **Key terms:** adipose tissue, appetite, growth, nutrition

16 **Word count:** 4446 **Number of figures and tables:** 9

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23 **Abstract**

24 Intra-uterine growth restriction in late pregnancy can contribute to adverse long term metabolic  
25 health in the offspring. We utilised an animal (sheep) model of maternal dietary manipulation in  
26 late pregnancy, combined with exposure of the offspring to a low activity, obesogenic  
27 environment after weaning, to characterise the effects on glucose homeostasis. Dizygotic twin-  
28 pregnant sheep were either fed to 60% of requirements (nutrient restriction (R)) or fed ad libitum  
29 (~ 140% of requirements (A)) from 110 days gestation until term (~147d). After weaning (~3  
30 months of age), **their** offspring were kept in either a standard (**in order** to remain lean) or low  
31 activity, obesogenic environment. R mothers gained less weight and produced smaller offspring.  
32 As adults, obese offspring were heavier and fatter with reduced glucose tolerance, irrespective of  
33 maternal diet. Molecular markers of stress and autophagy in liver and adipose tissue were  
34 increased with obesity, with gene expression of hepatic *Grp78* and of omental *Atf6*, *Grp78* and  
35 *Edem1* only being increased in R offspring. In conclusion, the adverse effect of juvenile onset  
36 obesity on insulin responsive tissues can be amplified by previous exposure to a suboptimal  
37 nutritional environment in utero, thereby contributing to earlier onset of insulin resistance.

38 **Introduction**

39 Obesity and the associated metabolic syndrome pose an increasing burden on contemporary  
40 society. Low-grade inflammation, in conjunction with obesity, is a primary mechanism in the  
41 development of insulin resistance and cardiovascular disease (Adabimohazab *et al.* 2016). There  
42 is increasing evidence from both human and animal studies that the risk for these diseases can be  
43 enhanced by a suboptimal perinatal environment (de Rooij *et al.* 2007; Sartori *et al.* 2016). *In*  
44 *utero* development can be influenced through several factors, including placental insufficiency or  
45 maternal undernutrition, through reduced availability of oxygen, nutrients and hormones to the  
46 fetus. If maternal food intake is suboptimal in late pregnancy, coincident with maximal fetal  
47 energy requirements and absolute growth rate, intra-uterine growth restriction (IUGR) occurs  
48 leading to reduced birth weight (Mumbare *et al.* 2012), which has been linked to a range of non-  
49 communicable diseases in adults (Barker 1997).

50

51 Most organs and cells are regularly exposed to stimuli with the potential to cause cellular  
52 damage or cell death. These normally originate from within the cell, including misfolding of  
53 proteins, accumulation of metabolites including free fatty acids (FFA), energy deficit and  
54 activation of inflammatory pathways, which the cell responds to through a number of pathways  
55 (Fulda *et al.* 2010). The magnitude of cellular responses are dependent on several factors  
56 including the type and severity of insult, cell type and its adaptive capacity (Fulda *et al.* 2010).  
57 Cell stress response pathways are innate cellular mechanisms limiting or reversing the effect of  
58 metabolic challenges, and play a significant role in the physiological and pathological processes  
59 of development, ageing and disease (Schröder & Kaufman 2005). These pathways include the  
60 unfolded protein response (UPR) and autophagy, which are activated in response to both

61 nutritional deprivation and obesity (Nuñez *et al.* 2013). If those mechanisms do not sufficiently  
62 limit the effect of an insult, cell death is activated through apoptosis, autophagy or necrosis.  
63 Glucose-related protein (GRP)78 and endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress degradation enhancer  
64 molecule (EDEM) are markers for the UPR as they both bind to malformed proteins, a process  
65 enhanced through activation transcription factor (ATF)6, which reflects the amount of malformed  
66 protein within the ER (Yoshida *et al.* 2003). A second ER membrane-bound protein that  
67 responds to stress is PRKR-like ER kinase (PERK), which induces activation transcription factor  
68 (ATF)4 (B'chir *et al.* 2013), which then initiates the formation of the autophagosome if ER stress  
69 exceeds the pro-survival processing capacity of UPR. This includes the molecules autophagy-  
70 related gene 12 (ATG12) and Beclin 1 (Ohsumi 2001).

71  
72 Obesity promotes the cell stress response in a range of organs including visceral adipose tissue  
73 and liver, but whether these adaptations can be programmed *in utero* is unknown. Previous  
74 studies have focussed on fat surrounding either the kidneys or heart (Sharkey *et al.* 2009a; Ojha  
75 *et al.* 2015), but the extent to which other depots may be nutritionally programmed has not been  
76 extensively investigated. One of the largest fat depots in adult sheep is the omental depot (Arana  
77 *et al.* 2008) and has been suggested to be sensitive to nutritional programming. For example, in  
78 an ovine surgical model of IUGR (i.e. carunclectomy), phosphorylation of omental AMPK was  
79 reduced in offspring as measured 21 days after birth, consistent with increased postnatal weight  
80 gain (Lie *et al.* 2013). Whilst, a bovine nutritional model of IUGR (i.e. consumption of a low  
81 protein diet from mid-gestation), omental adipose tissue sampled from adult offspring exhibited  
82 lower gene expression of insulin-like growth factor receptor 1 and 2 (*Igf1r* and *Igf2r*) and *Igf2*  
83 whereas *Leptin* gene expression was raised (Micke *et al.* 2011), showing that the omental

84 adipose tissue is sensitive to long-term programming of adipocyte proliferation. Leptin is  
85 primarily produced in adipose tissue (Trayhurn *et al.* 1998) and stimulates hepatic oxidation of  
86 fatty acids through activation of AMPK (Minokoshi *et al.* 2001), in excess can contribute to liver  
87 disease (Zain *et al.* 2013), the extent of which will be determined both by plasma leptin  
88 concentration and the hepatic sensitivity mediated by the leptin receptor (Zain *et al.* 2013).

89

90 In the present study we hypothesised that juvenile onset obesity causes cell stress and  
91 inflammation responses in adipose tissue and liver. We hypothesised further that the effect is  
92 enhanced by *in utero* exposure to maternal nutrient restriction. We utilized a sheep model of  
93 nutritionally induced IUGR as compared to animals who were fed in excess in late pregnancy.  
94 This was followed by obesity induced by maintenance in an environment of restricted physical  
95 activity, and were compared to offspring with unrestricted activity, that remained lean. We have  
96 previously reported that adult glucose tolerance was lower in IUGR offspring as compared to  
97 offspring of mothers who were fed to requirements throughout pregnancy when exposed to an  
98 obesogenic environment after weaning (Dellschaft *et al.* 2015). In the current study we compared  
99 maternal over- and undernutrition in late pregnancy and whether offspring metabolic health was  
100 further influenced by obesity. In young adulthood, all animals were assessed for glucose  
101 tolerance, together with the metabolic and inflammatory characteristics of omental fat and liver.

## 102 **Materials and Methods**

### 103 **Animals and experimental design**

104 All animal procedures were performed in accordance with the UK Animal (Scientific Procedures)  
105 Act 1986 with approval from the Local Ethics Committee of the University of Nottingham. In  
106 brief, 19 Bluefaced Leicester cross Swaledale twin bearing sheep (*ovis aries*) were individually  
107 housed at 100 days of gestation (dGA) and, at day 110 dGA, randomly allocated to the  
108 experimental groups (for study overview, see Supplementary Figure 1). They included a  
109 calorically restricted group (R, n=9; 0.28 MJ/kg.BW<sup>0.75</sup> at 110 days gestation, increasing to 0.43  
110 MJ/kg.BW<sup>0.75</sup> at dGA 130), receiving 60% of nutritionally required feed based on their body  
111 weight, and a group fed *ad libitum* (A, n=10; equal to approximately 140% nutritionally required  
112 feed, 0.64 MJ/kg.BW<sup>0.75</sup> at 110 days gestation, increasing to 1.01 MJ/kg.BW<sup>0.75</sup> at dGA 130). All  
113 sheep were individually weighed once a week prior to feeding in order that their total food  
114 requirements could be adjusted. All pregnancies continued normally until term (~145 ± 1 days)  
115 and produced heterozygous twins. Twins were raised by their mothers who were fed to 100%  
116 requirements during lactation and weaned at 3 months of age. After weaning, half of the offspring,  
117 i.e. one twin per mother, were kept in a low activity environment until 17 months of age in order  
118 to promote obesity (O, 6 animals on 19 m<sup>2</sup>, fed *ad libitum* on straw nuts and a micronutrient  
119 supplement; RO, n=7, 2 males and 5 females; AO, n=10, 7 males, 3 females), the other half were  
120 kept in a normal physical activity environment, in order to remain lean (L, 6 animals on 1125 m<sup>2</sup>,  
121 *ad libitum* access to grass and a micronutrient supplement; RL, n=9, 5 males and 4 females; AL,  
122 n=9, 6 males and 3 females). Discrepancies between the total number (n) of mothers and offspring  
123 are due to the death of 4 offspring before the end of the study, a loss of 10% of the total population,  
124 a standard mortality rate in sheep studies (Berger 1997; Dwyer 2007).

125

126 The numbers of twin bearing mothers entered into the study for each nutritional group were  
127 expected to produce sufficient numbers of male and female offspring for each of the postnatal  
128 intervention groups. However due to the uneven distribution of male and females born to *ad libitum*  
129 fed mothers there were fewer female offspring available than anticipated. The resulting groups  
130 permit us to draw comparisons between animals with IUGR and offspring of mothers exposed to  
131 overnutrition in late pregnancy (R vs. A) and, within those with IUGR and maternal overnutrition,  
132 to investigate the effects of post-weaning environment (RO vs. RL and AO vs. AL).

133

#### 134 **Timing of samplings and *in vivo* challenges**

135 **Maternal blood sampling:** At 130 dGA, jugular venous blood samples (5 ml) were collected from  
136 the ewes in the morning, prior to feeding. Venous blood was collected into heparinized and  
137 K<sup>+</sup>EDTA coated tubes and the plasma was immediately separated by centrifugation (2500 g x 10  
138 min at 4°C) and stored at -80°C until analysis.

139 **Offspring blood sampling:** Venous blood samples (prepared and stored under identical  
140 conditions as described above) were collected after an overnight fast ( $\geq 18$ h) at both 7 and 16  
141 months of age. Jugular catheters were inserted by percutaneous venipuncture 1-2 days before  
142 sampling.

143 **Determination of insulin sensitivity:** Glucose tolerance tests (GTT) were undertaken on all  
144 offspring at 7 and 16 months of age in which jugular vein catheters had been previously inserted  
145 and the area under the curve (AUC) calculated. Animals were fasted overnight ( $\geq 18$  h) and injected  
146 intravenously with 0.5 g/kg glucose. Glucose and insulin concentrations were measured in plasma  
147 samples before and at 10, 20, 30, 60, 90, and 120 minutes after the intravenous glucose (Gardner



148 *et al.* 2005). The homeostatic model assessment for insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) index was  
149 calculated by multiplication of glucose (mmol/L) and insulin ( $\mu\text{g/L}$ ) concentrations measured in  
150 fasted plasma (Wallace *et al.* 2004).

151 **Determination of physical activity at 15 months of age:** The level of spontaneous physical  
152 activity in adulthood in their respective environments was determined using uniaxial  
153 accelerometers (Actiwatch; Linton Instrumentation, Diss, UK).

154 **Determination of body composition at 16 months of age:** Total body fat was determined when  
155 the animal was sedated (intramuscular injection of 1.5 mg/kg ketamine with 0.1 mg/kg xylazine)  
156 and scanned in a transverse position using a Lunar DPX-L (fast-detail whole body smartscan, GE  
157 Healthcare, Little Chalfont, UK).

158 **Post mortem procedures and tissue collection:** At 17 months of age, all offspring were  
159 euthanased by electrical stunning and exsanguination after an overnight fast. The entire liver and  
160 omental, pericardial and perirenal adipose tissue were dissected, weighed, and representative  
161 subsections immediately flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. Samples were stored frozen at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  until  
162 analysis.

163

## 164 **Laboratory analysis**

### 165 **Plasma metabolites and hormones**

166 Plasma glucose was measured by colorimetric assays (Randox, Crumlin, UK). Insulin was assayed  
167 using an ovine specific ELISA assay (Mercodia, Diagenics Ltd, Milton Keynes, UK). Leptin  
168 (Delavaud *et al.* 2000) and cortisol (Dellschaft *et al.* 2015) were determined by a radio-  
169 immunoassay.

170 **Gene expression measurements**

171 Representative samples of each tissue were homogenized and RNA isolated, using the RNeasy  
172 Plus mini kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), quantified by Nanodrop (Thermo, Epsom, UK). An  
173 aliquot of 2 µg of RNA was reverse transcribed with the High Capacity RNA-to-cDNA kit  
174 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). The resulting cDNA was amplified in a real-time  
175 thermocycler (Quanta, Techne, Burlington, NJ, USA) using a SYBR green system in Taq  
176 polymerase reaction mix (ABsolute blue QPCR SYBR green, Thermo Scientific, Epsom, UK).  
177 Specificity of primers was confirmed by sequencing PCR product (Supplementary Table 1). Liver  
178 and omental adipose tissue gene expression was assessed for the following pathways: a)  
179 inflammation: toll-like receptor 4 (*Tlr4*), 11β hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase 1 (*11bhsd1*) and Fas  
180 cell surface death receptor (*Fas*); b) autophagy: *Beclin1* and *Atg12*; c) UPR: *Edem1*, *Grp78*, *Atf4*  
181 and *Atf6*; d) energy sensing: 5' AMP-activated protein kinase (*Ampk*) and mammalian target of  
182 rapamycin (*Mtor*); and *Leptin* that was only measured in fat and the leptin receptor (*Obr*),  
183 measured in liver. Large ribosomal protein (*Rpo*) and tyrosine-3 monooxygenase/ tryptophan-3  
184 monooxygenase activation protein (*Ywhaz*) showed a stable expression and the geometric means of  
185 their expression were used as a reference for the gene of interest in liver. *Rpo* and 60S ribosomal  
186 protein (*RP*) *LI9* showed a stable expression and the geometric means of their expression were  
187 used as a reference for the gene of interest in omental adipose tissue. Gene expression was  
188 calculated by using the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t}$  method (Livak & Schmittgen 2001).

189 **Liver triglyceride (TG) quantification**

190 Frozen liver (~150 mg) was homogenized in 2 ml 2:1 chloroform:methanol and agitated  
191 thoroughly for 20 minutes. Samples were filtered to remove debris, washing the filter and debris  
192 with a further 8 ml of chloroform to dissolve and collect any remaining lipids. Phases were

193 separated by adding 2 ml saline and centrifugation at 800g for 10 minutes. 2 ml of the  
194 chloroform phase were transferred and all liquid evaporated under nitrogen, then the remaining  
195 lipid re-dissolved in 100 µl tert-butanol with Triton X (60:40 v/v). TG were then determined  
196 with a colorimetric assay (Randox, as above).

### 197 **Adipose tissue immunohistochemistry**

198 Formaldehyde-fixed samples of omental adipose tissue were blocked in paraffin and sectioned to  
199 6 µm. Slides were stained for GRP78 (SPA-826, Enzo Life Sciences, Exeter, UK; 1:200) and  
200 pJNK (SC6254, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA; 1:75) with a horseradish  
201 peroxidase – 3,3-diaminobenzidine (HRP-DAB) system on the Bondmax (Leica biosystems,  
202 Milton Keynes, UK), an automated slide processor. Stained slides were imaged with Nikon  
203 Eclipse 90i microscope with CCD high-speed colour camera (Micropublisher 3.3RTV;  
204 Qimaging, Surrey, BC, Canada) under constant conditions and analysed with Volocity 6  
205 software (Improvision Ltd, Coventry, UK, see representative images in Supplemental Figure S2).  
206 Staining was digitally quantified using ImageJ software (National Institute of Mental Health,  
207 Bethesda, MD, USA) after correcting all images for background staining by selecting brown  
208 pixels only, applying an appropriate threshold to exclude false-negative staining, and measuring  
209 the area stained per cell **as well as adipocyte size**, averaged for 500 cells per sample.

### 210 **Statistical analysis**

211 Statistical analysis of the data was performed using PASW<sup>®</sup> software (v 19, IBM, Chicago, USA).  
212 Kolmogorov-Smirnoff tests were performed on every parameter analyzed to determine the  
213 Gaussian distributions of the variables. Briefly, for the factorial study design the data was first  
214 interrogated with two-way analysis of variance (2-way ANOVA). Upon identification of a  
215 significant effect or interaction on the 2-way ANOVA, a hypothesis driven simple main effects

216 analysis was then performed for comparison between groups differing in only one factor (prenatal  
217 nutrient restriction or environment of rearing). Although the 2-way ANOVA is considered a robust  
218 test for analyses of data which is not normally distributed, non-parametric testing using Kruskal-  
219 Wallis test followed by Mann-Whitney was performed for any such data for confirmation of the  
220 ANOVA findings. All data is expressed as mean and standard error of the mean. If a variable did  
221 not have parametric distribution, the finding of an effect was confirmed by using a Kruskal-Wallis  
222 test followed by a Mann-Whitney test for the groups concerned. Correlation analysis was done by  
223 Pearson's test on parametric data.

224

225 Each variable was tested for difference determined by the sex of the animals. Body weight and fat  
226 mass are known to differ, in absolute scale, between male and female sheep (Bloor *et al.* 2013)  
227 thus sex-specific Z-score transformation was used prior to analyses.

228 **Results**

229 **Mothers and offspring:** As we have previously published (Dellschaft *et al.* 2015), R mothers  
230 gained less weight than those fed *ad libitum* (Figure 1). At 130 dGA fasted R mothers had  
231 significantly higher plasma NEFA concentrations but lower insulin and glucose concentrations,  
232 whereas triglyceride and cortisol concentrations were unaltered by maternal diet (Figure 2). R  
233 offspring were smaller at birth ( $4.07 \pm 0.14$  vs.  $4.63 \pm 0.16$  kg,  $P=0.02$ ) and remained so until 24  
234 days of age. After weaning all animals were similar in weight and following exposure to reduced  
235 physical activity, plasma leptin was raised from 7 months of age, with body weight increasing by  
236 15 months of age (Table 1). As expected, obese animals had a substantially lower mean activity as  
237 measured by accelerometer than L animals at 15 months of age. Obese animals were heavier, had  
238 more relative total and visceral fat mass as measured by DEXA and, at dissection, had heavier  
239 omental, pericardial and perirenal adipose depots than L animals. Maternal nutrition did not  
240 influence any of these measures of obesity with AO offspring having higher leptin than their lean  
241 counterparts.

242

243 **Insulin sensitivity:** At 7 months, peak plasma glucose was raised with obesity up to 60 minutes  
244 after glucose injection (Figure 3a), as was their AUC (Table 2). Basal insulin was similar  
245 between all groups but plateaued at a higher value after 60 minutes in AO animals (Figure 3a).  
246 HOMA-IR did not differ with either intervention at this age, but was higher in AO as compared  
247 to AL at 16 months of age. At this time point glucose concentrations were the same between all  
248 groups whereas insulin was higher in obese than lean groups (Figure 3b). This was reflected in  
249 the insulin AUC, which was raised with obesity (Table 2). At both time points, plasma NEFA  
250 ( $1.30 \pm 0.08$  mmol/l at 7 months;  $0.43 \pm 0.03$  mmol/l at 16 months) and TG ( $0.17 \pm 0.01$  mg/dl at

251 7 months;  $0.14 \pm 0.01$  mg/dl at 16 months) concentrations did not differ in the fasted state,  
252 showing that dyslipidaemia is not a programmed effect when comparing these pre- and postnatal  
253 interventions. Overall, glucose tolerance appeared to improve with age but was only  
254 accompanied with modified insulin sensitivity in lean but not obese animals (Figure 3).

255

256 **Liver gene expression:** Livers were heavier and had a higher lipid content in RO than in RL  
257 whereas the same effect could not be seen in A offspring (Table 3). Total liver TG was  
258 associated with liver weight in obese ( $r=0.662$ ,  $P<0.001$ ) but not in lean animals ( $r=0.364$ ,  
259  $P=0.07$ ). Expression of *Beclin1* was higher in AO than in AL but much more strongly  
260 upregulated in RO as compared to RL and AO groups. *Atf4* expression showed an interaction  
261 between maternal and post weaning environment, and was downregulated with obesity in A but  
262 upregulated in R offspring, with a significantly higher expression in AL than in RL. *Atg12*,  
263 *Edem1* and *Grp78* were upregulated with obesity, with a more pronounced difference in *Atg12*  
264 and *Grp78* in R as opposed to A offspring whereas *Atf6*, *11bhsd1*, *Obr* and *Fas* were unchanged  
265 (Table 3).

266

267 **Omental adipose tissue histology and gene expression:** Adipocytes of obese offspring were  
268 significantly larger than those of lean animals (Figure 4) and GRP78 protein doubled whereas  
269 pJNK was unchanged (Table 4). Obesity upregulated gene expression of *Leptin*, *Tlr4*, *Cd68*,  
270 *Atf4*, *Atg12* and *Beclin1* in both A and R offspring (Table 4 and Figure 5). In contrast, expression  
271 of *Atf6*, *Grp78* and *Edem1* were increased with obesity in R but not A offspring (Figure 5),  
272 whilst *11bhsd1* and *Gcr* were unchanged.

273 **Discussion**

274 We have shown that the onset of insulin resistance can be induced in early adult life following  
275 the induction of obesity after weaning by restricting physical activity. This adaptation in insulin  
276 response to a glucose challenge with age occurred in conjunction with enhanced cell stress and  
277 inflammation responses in adipose tissue and liver. Prior exposure to suboptimal maternal  
278 nutrition through late pregnancy induced IUGR but only resulted in a subtle amplification of  
279 these long-term effects as compared to maternal overnutrition in late pregnancy. This is not  
280 unexpected given the extended time span required in large mammals to observe the adverse  
281 effects of a compromised *in utero* environment (Symonds *et al.* 2016). In addition, the  
282 magnitude of response can be modified by gender (Bloor *et al.* 2013) but due to an unexpected  
283 imbalance of the number of males and females reaching adulthood we could not examine this  
284 aspect further.

285

286 **Glucose tolerance was diminished by obesity but was not altered by prenatal intervention**

287 Glucose metabolism was impaired in 7 month old offspring subjected to the obesogenic  
288 environment despite no difference in body weight, suggesting that physical inactivity resulted in  
289 morphological changes in muscles that act to improve glucose tolerance (Hollenbeck *et al.*  
290 1985). Additionally, increased plasma leptin indicates greater fat mass (Considine *et al.* 1996).  
291 By 16 months of age, although glucose tolerance improved compared to 7 months, obese  
292 offspring demonstrated raised insulin secretion, suggesting reduced sensitivity, but without any  
293 further impact of prenatal diet. Studies in humans demonstrate that the development of obesity  
294 related peripheral insulin resistance is secondary to obesity from as early as 6-12 years of age  
295 (Yoshinaga *et al.* 2006). Late gestational nutrient restriction was predicted to reduce insulin

296 resistance as shown in adult offspring of mothers exposed to the Dutch famine during late  
297 gestation (Ravelli *et al.* 1998), as we have seen previously (Dellschaft *et al.* 2015). In this earlier  
298 study we compared obese offspring subjected to either 60 or 100% of total **calculated** ME  
299 requirements in late gestation, **although this is less than the amount of food such animals would**  
300 **consume if allowed to feed *ad libitum* (Budge *et al.* 2000). In the present study, both groups had**  
301 further undergone accelerated growth in early postnatal life by only allowing one twin offspring  
302 to stay with their mother and effectively feed more before weaning. These contrasting outcomes  
303 may be indicative of a U-shaped association between early growth and glucose tolerance in later  
304 life (Rich-Edwards *et al.* 1999), i.e. both low and high birth weight are associated with reduction  
305 in glucose tolerance, therefore minimising any differences between the groups discussed here.

306

307 From the Dutch Famine cohort studies (de Rooij *et al.* 2007) we would have expected an  
308 increased risk for dyslipidaemic profiles as well as insulin resistance in animals exposed to late  
309 gestational nutrient restriction but there was no indication of this. Lipid metabolism in ruminants  
310 is very different compared to humans (Nafikov & Beitz 2007). In ruminants, the liver contributes  
311 little to fatty acid synthesis whilst adipose tissue is the primary site for this (Vernon 1980). It is  
312 plausible that ruminants are more resistant to plasma lipid abnormalities with insulin resistance  
313 because of the relatively low contribution of the liver to triglyceride production. The absence of  
314 any differences in plasma triglycerides in previously published sheep studies, despite the  
315 presence of abnormal glucose-insulin homeostasis (Gardner *et al.* 2005) supports such a  
316 proposal.

317



318 **IUGR exacerbates obesity-induced elevation of hepatic lipid content and autophagy gene**  
319 **expression**

320 Raised hepatic TG content is indicative of impaired liver function that is enhanced in adult  
321 individuals born at a low weight (Nobili *et al.* 2007; Fraser *et al.* 2008) who are more likely to  
322 exhibit non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD). This adaptation is in accord with that seen in  
323 obese offspring exposed to sub-optimal maternal nutrition between early and mid-gestation  
324 (Hyatt *et al.* 2011) without any change in birth weight. Gene markers of both autophagy (i.e. *Atf4*  
325 and *Atg12*) and ER stress (i.e. *Grp78*) were upregulated more strongly in IUGR offspring  
326 following obesity. When nutritionally manipulated offspring are subjected to an obesogenic  
327 environment comprising increased food intake and low activity, raised hepatic lipid was  
328 accompanied with enhanced gene expression of *Pparg* and *Pgc1a*, that is indicative of reduced  
329 beta-oxidation (Hyatt *et al.* 2011). Obesity enhances the expression of other markers of hepatic  
330 ER stress (Ozcan *et al.* 2004; Gregor *et al.* 2009), including *Edem1*. Activation of UPR in  
331 response to ER stress can induce autophagy through activation of *Atf4* through the *Perk* pathway  
332 (B'chir *et al.* 2013). Constitutive autophagy in hepatic cells normally promotes lipid disposal,  
333 thereby improving their metabolism, together with insulin sensitivity and cell survival (Singh *et*  
334 *al.* 2009; Yang *et al.* 2010). Plasma lipids would then be raised in conjunction with an  
335 unchanged or lower hepatic TG content but the absence of such an adaptation may be due to  
336 insufficient lipid disposal through autophagy. Raised expression of genes involved in autophagy  
337 with obesity can paradoxically be associated with impaired autophagic flux (Yang *et al.* 2010;  
338 González-Rodríguez *et al.* 2014) which then progresses to NAFLD (Amir & Czaja 2011). Such a  
339 defect in the process of autophagy would promote additional lipid deposition in the liver and

340 ultimately compromise hepatic function and exacerbate the adverse effect of insulin resistance  
341 with IUGR.

342

343 **IUGR and omental adipose tissue size, autophagy-related gene expression and the ER**  
344 **stress response to obesity**

345 The post weaning low physical environment induced a higher total and visceral adipose mass,  
346 with a three-fold heavier omental adipose depot and increased adipocyte size, suggesting  
347 hypertrophy. Inflammation of visceral fat could be the underlying reason for the higher risk of  
348 insulin resistance and metabolic syndrome risk seen with IUGR (de Rooij *et al.* 2007). However,  
349 we found that even though the omental depot had a higher gene expression of leptin and markers  
350 of infiltration by immune cells (e.g. *Cd68* and *Tlr4*) with obesity this was not influenced by  
351 IUGR. Omental fat only develops after birth in sheep (Bryden *et al.* 1972) as it is not detectable  
352 in late gestation fetus (M.E. Symonds, unpublished), which could explain its resistance to any  
353 programming effects during late pregnancy. In contrast, perirenal adipose tissue develops *in*  
354 *utero* and exposure to suboptimal maternal nutrition between mid to late gestation results in a  
355 higher inflammatory response in obese one year old offspring (Sharkey *et al.* 2009a, b).  
356 However, in the absence of larger sheep studies focusing on depot-specific differential gene  
357 expression at defined stages of development and growth a more precise explanation is unknown.  
358 Mechanisms of intrinsic cell stress response, such as autophagy, UPR and ER stress, could be  
359 more sensitive indicators of metabolic inflammation than markers of immune cells infiltrated  
360 into adipose tissue.

361

362 Gene expression of autophagic genes *Atg12* and *Beclin1* and of energy-sensing gene *Ampk* were  
363 increased with obesity, but not influenced by IUGR. In contrast, the UPR was induced with  
364 obesity in R but not A offspring. The three genes that were promoted in this pattern, *Atf6*, *Edem1*  
365 and *Grp78*, are regulated through the same transcriptional regulators, which are the ER stress  
366 response element II (ERSE-II) and UPR element (UPRE), that are both activated by ATF6 and  
367 IRE1 (Zhang & Kaufman 2004). Induction of ER stress causes inflammation and insulin  
368 resistance (Ozcan *et al.* 2004). GRP78 protein expression was also clearly upregulated with  
369 obesity, indicating greater UPR (Cnop *et al.* 2012) and concomitant ER (Sharkey *et al.* 2009b),  
370 but it did not display the same IUGR-dependent pattern as in gene expression, suggesting post-  
371 translational regulation.

372

373 Our gene expression findings are consistent with previous studies on perirenal adipose tissue in  
374 lean one year old offspring after late pregnancy nutrient restriction, which showed an increase of  
375 UPR genes in that depot (Sharkey *et al.* 2009b). The ER may be sensitive to nutritional  
376 programming as it can use considerable amounts of energy and it has been shown *in vitro* that  
377 hypoglycaemia causes UPR (Park *et al.* 2004; Yacoub Wasef *et al.* 2006). We hypothesised that  
378 IUGR could impact on adipocyte number in a depot specific manner, which could then fill up  
379 faster with obesity, causing the ER stress response, inflammation, cell death and ultimately  
380 insulin resistance. As discussed earlier this may not be the case for omental adipose tissue that  
381 only develops after birth. However, the mesodermal pre-adipocytes which give rise to omental  
382 fat after birth could be affected by late gestational nutrient restriction as the omentum undergoes  
383 rapid growth during this period, that ultimately leads to a lower threshold for ER stress related  
384 responses.

385

386 In conclusion, IUGR can contribute to an enhanced cellular response to juvenile onset obesity  
387 but by young adulthood this does not exacerbate the onset of insulin resistance. Future studies  
388 with larger samples sizes, allowing analysis of sex effects, and older offspring could elucidate  
389 the extent to which these offspring exhibit more adverse clinically relevant symptoms.

390 **Declaration of Interest:** The authors have nothing to disclose.

391

392 **Funding**

393 This work was supported by the European Union Sixth Framework Program for Research and  
394 Technical Development of the European Community, The Early Nutrition Programming Project  
395 FOOD-CT-2005-007036, the Nutricia Research Foundation, and the Nottingham Respiratory  
396 Biomedical Research Unit. S.P.S. was also supported by a Wellcome Trust Value-in-People  
397 award.

398

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- 563

564 **Figure Titles**

565 Figure 1: Maternal weight development. Mothers were either fed ad libitum (A, closed symbols)  
566 or nutrient restricted (R, open symbols) during the intervention period, 110 days gestational age  
567 until term at 145 days gestational age. \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ .

568

569 Figure 2: Maternal plasma metabolites and hormones as measured at 130d gestation: A, insulin;  
570 B, glucose; C, non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA); D, triglycerides; E, cortisol. Mothers were  
571 either fed ad libitum (A, closed bars) or nutrient restricted (R, open bars) during the intervention  
572 period, 110 days gestational age until term at 145 days gestational age. \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ .

573

574 Figure 3: Offspring plasma glucose and insulin concentrations during a glucose tolerance test  
575 performed at 7 (A and B) and 16 months of age (C and D). Sheep were either subjected to  
576 maternal nutrient restriction (R) or maternal ad libitum feeding (A) in late pregnancy and were  
577 kept in either a normal environment (lean) or an environment restricting their physical activity  
578 (obese). \*,  $P < 0.05$  between AL and AO; #,  $P < 0.05$  between RL and RO.

579

580 Figure 4: Offspring average size of omental adipocytes at 17 months of age. Sheep were either  
581 subjected to maternal nutrient restriction (R) or maternal ad libitum feeding (A) in late pregnancy  
582 and were kept in either a normal environment (lean) or an environment restricting their physical  
583 activity (obese). \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ .

584

585 Figure 5: Expression of genes involved in ER stress and autophagic responses as measured in  
586 omental adipose tissue at 17 months of age, expressed relative to the RL group. Mothers were

587 either fed ad libitum (A, closed bars) or nutrient restricted (R, open bars) during the intervention  
588 period, 110 days gestational age until term at 145 days gestational age. After weaning offspring  
589 were either kept in a normal environment where animals remained lean or were kept in an  
590 environment which restricted their physical activity, causing animals to become obese. \*,  
591 P<0.05; \*\*, P<0.01.

592 **Table Titles**

593 Table 1: Offspring weight characteristics throughout the course of the study. Sheep were either  
594 subjected to maternal nutrient restriction (R) or maternal ad libitum feeding (A) in late pregnancy  
595 and were kept in either a normal environment (lean) or an environment restricting their physical  
596 activity (obese). Body weight was expressed after sex-specific z-score transformation or as  
597 absolute body weight. Measures of fat mass at 16 months are derived from DEXA (see  
598 **Methods**). The effects of maternal nutrition (prenatal) and of the activity level (post weaning)  
599 were determined by 2-way ANOVA #,  $P < 0.05$  for difference within the maternal group, i.e.  
600 between lean and obese offspring, as determined by simple main effects analysis.

601

602 Table 2: Glucose and insulin area under the curve (AUC) and homeostatic model assessment for  
603 insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) as determined during intravenous glucose tolerance tests at 7 and  
604 16 months of age. Sheep were either subjected to maternal nutrient restriction (R) or maternal ad  
605 libitum feeding (A) in late pregnancy and were kept in either a normal environment (lean) or an  
606 environment restricting their physical activity (obese). The effects of maternal nutrition  
607 (prenatal) and of the activity level (post weaning) were determined by 2-way ANOVA. #,  $P < 0.05$   
608 for difference within the maternal group, i.e. between lean and obese offspring, as determined by  
609 simple main effects analysis.

610

611 Table 3: Offspring hepatic weight, lipid content and gene expression at 17 months of age. Sheep  
612 were either subjected to maternal nutrient restriction (R) or maternal ad libitum feeding (A) in  
613 late pregnancy and were kept in either a normal environment (lean) or an environment restricting  
614 their physical activity (obese). The effects of maternal nutrition (prenatal) and of the activity

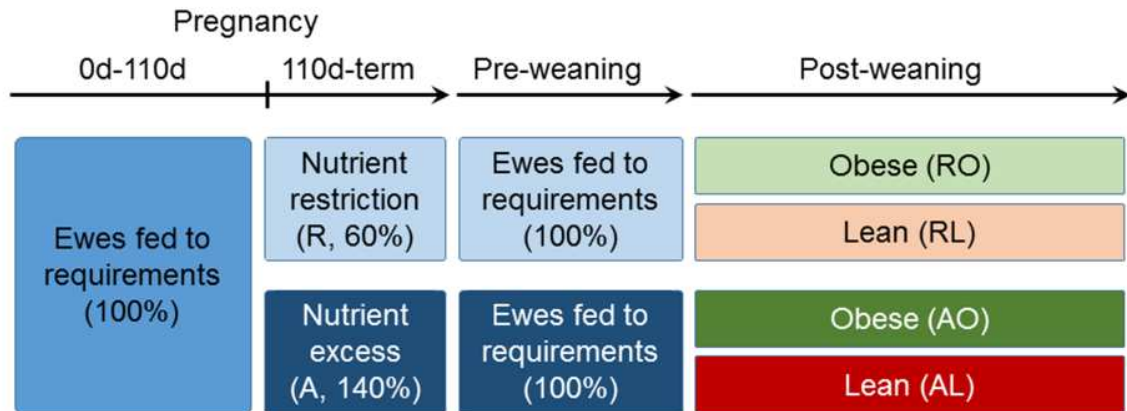
615 level (post weaning) as well as the interaction between the two factors were determined by 2-  
616 way ANOVA. #,  $P < 0.05$  for difference within the maternal group, i.e. between lean and obese  
617 offspring; \*,  $P < 0.05$  for difference within the post weaning group, i.e. between A and R  
618 offspring, both as determined by simple main effects analysis,  $P < 0.05$ . There were no significant  
619 interactions found in these variables.

620

621 Table 4: Protein (GRP78 and pJNK) and gene expression in offspring omental adipose tissue at  
622 17 months of age. Sheep were either subjected to maternal nutrient restriction (R) or maternal ad  
623 libitum feeding (A) in late pregnancy and were kept in either a normal environment (lean) or an  
624 environment restricting their physical activity (obese). The effects of maternal nutrition  
625 (prenatal) and of the activity level (post weaning) were determined by 2-way ANOVA. #,  $P < 0.05$   
626 for difference within the maternal group, i.e. between lean and obese offspring, as determined by  
627 simple main effects analysis.

## Supplementary Information

Figure S1: Overview of the groups included in this study.



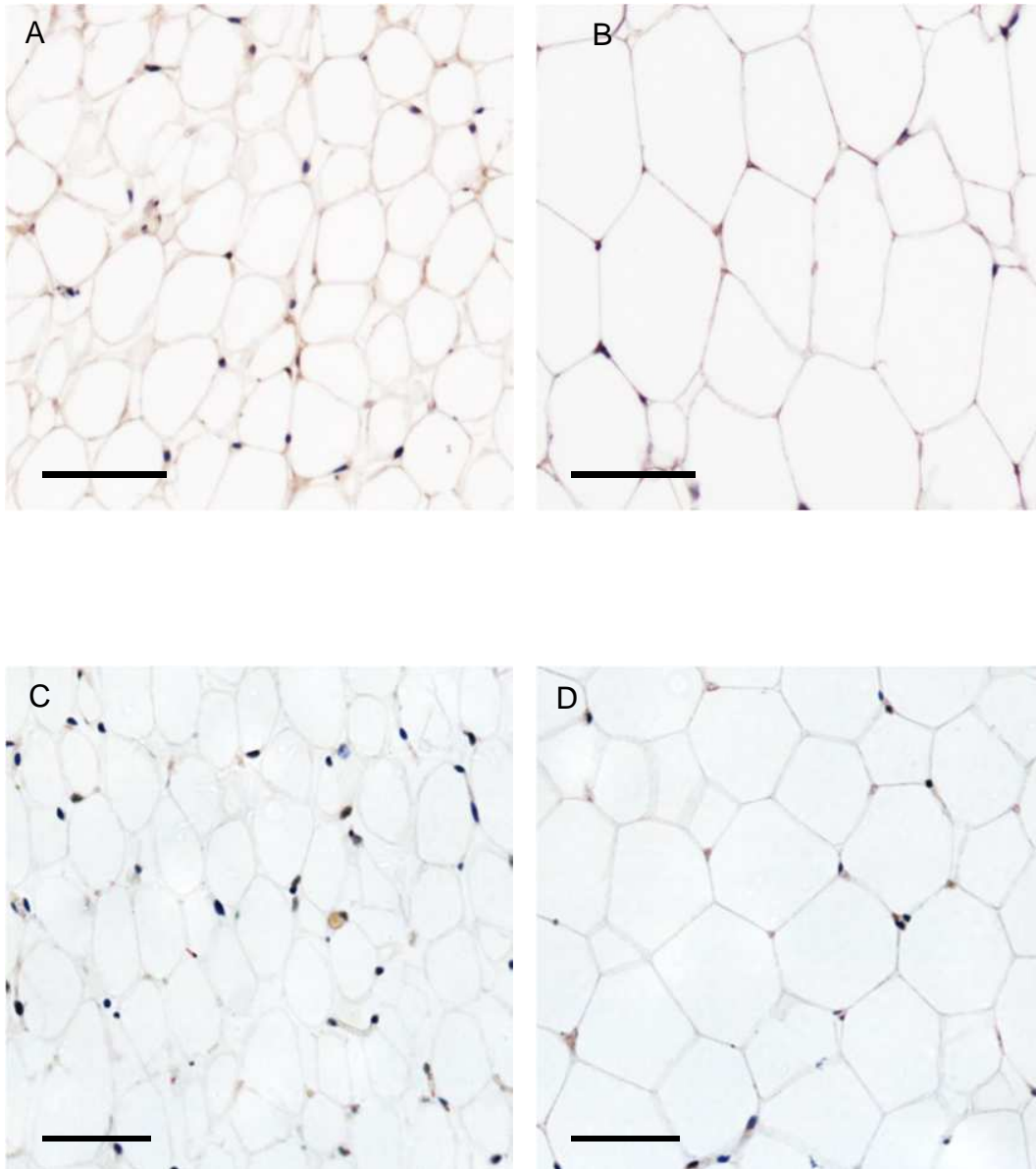
**Table S1: Primer forward and reverse sequences and product length.**

Pathway	Gene	Accession number	Sequence	Product size (kb)
Inflammation	<i>Tlr4</i>	NM_001135930.1	TGCTGGCTGCAAAAAGTATG	148
			CCCTGTAGTGAAGGCAGAGC	
	<i>Il1bhsd1</i>	NM_001009395	AGCATTGTGGTCGTCTCCT	127
			CCTTGGTCGCCTCATATTCC	
	<i>Fas</i>	NM_001123003	CGGGATCTGGGTCACTTGTC	165
			AACAGGTGCTCACGATATAGGC	
Autophagy	<i>Beclin1</i>	NM_001033627	CCAGGAGGAAGAGGCTAACT	116
			AAGCTGTTGGCACTTTCTGT	
	<i>Atg12</i>	NM_001076982	CATTCTGCTAAAGGCTGTAGGA	127
			GTTCTGAAGCCACAAGTTTAAGG	
Unfolded protein response	<i>Edem1</i>	NM_001103092	GTCTGGAAAAGTACACAAAAGTCA	123
			AGCAGATACAGGTATTTACAGGTC	
	<i>Grp78</i>	NM_001075148	TGAAACTGTGGGAGGTGTCA	170
			TCGAAAGTTCCCAGAAGGTG	
	<i>Atf4</i>	NM_001142518	AGATGACCTGGAAACCATGC	189
			AGGGGAAGAGGTTGCAAGA	



	<i>Atf6</i>	AY942654.1	AACCAGTCCTTGCTGTTGCT CTTCTTCTTGCGGGACTGAC	223
<b>Energy sensing</b>	<i>Ampk</i>	NM_001112816	GCTGGATTTTGAATGGAAGG CAGCACCTCATCATCAATGC	157
	<i>Mtor</i>	NM_001145455	GCCTTCCGACCTTCTGCCTTC CCGCTGTCCGTTCTTCTCC	97
<b>Leptin</b>	<i>Leptin</i>	NM_173928.2	GGGTCACTGGTTTGGACTTCA ACTGGCGAGGCTCTGTTGGTA	97
	<i>Obr</i>	NM_001009763	TGAAACCACTGCCTCCATCC TCCACTTAAACCATAGCGAATCTG	131
<b>Reference</b>	<i>Rpo</i>	NM_001012682.1	CAACCCTGAAGTGCTTGACAT AGGCAGATGGATCAGCCA	226
	<i>Ywhaz</i>	NM_174814.2	TGTAGGAGCCCGTAGGTCATCT TTCTCTGTATTCTCGAGCCATCT	100
	<i>Rpl19</i>	Xm_012141899	CAACTCCCGCCAGCAGAT CCGGGAATGGACAGTCACA	75

**Figure S2:** Representative images demonstrating distribution of staining for GRP78 (A, B) and pJNK (C, D) in adipose tissue from lean (A, C) and obese (B, D) animals at 17 months of age (brown DAB staining in perinuclear areas). Bars represent 50  $\mu$ m.



**Table 1**

Variable	Maternal Nutrition	Post weaning		Effect Prenatal	Effect Post weaning	Interaction
		Lean	Obese	<i>P</i> value	<i>P</i> value	<i>P</i> value
Body weight 3 months (z-score)	A	0.66±0.43	-0.03±0.23	NS	NS	0.045
	R	-0.73±0.28*	0.01±0.31			
Body weight 7 months (z-score)	A	0.05±0.42	-0.11±0.28	NS	NS	NS
	R	-0.10±0.36	0.27±0.38			
Plasma leptin 7 months (ng/ml)	A	1.18±0.12	1.98±0.19#	NS	<0.01	NS
	R	1.55±0.26	1.98±0.15			
Body weight 9 months (z-score)	A	0.28±0.44	-0.01±0.22	NS	NS	NS
	R	-0.07±0.31	-0.26±0.41			
<b>15 months</b>						
Body weight (z-score)	A	-0.67±0.20	0.68±0.16#	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	-0.97±0.12	0.98±0.29#			
Mean activity (counts)	A	471±67	150± 13#	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	536±69	74±33#			
<b>16 months</b>						
Body weight (kg)	A	59.6±3.2	75.6±4.5#	NS	<0.001	NS

	R	52.7±1.3	70.1±5.7#			
Body weight (z-score)	A	-0.59±0.19	0.68±0.16#	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	-1.00±0.14	0.98±0.29#			
Total fat mass (kg)	A	4.4±0.6	10.3±1.1#	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	3.9±0.5	9.9±0.7#			
Relative fat mass (%)	A	7.3±0.7	13.6±1.2#	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	7.5±0.9	14.4±1.0#			
Visceral fat mass (%)	A	14.8±0.7	26.1±1.3#	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	13.4±1.2	28.1±1.8#			
Total lean mass (kg)	A	55.2±2.8	65.3±4.0#	NS	<0.01	NS
	R	48.7±1.3	60.1±5.4			
Plasma leptin (ng/ml)	A	2.6±0.3	4.5±0.4#	NS	<0.01	NS
	R	3.1±0.2	3.8±0.5			
<b>17 months</b>						
Body weight (kg)	A	56.9±3.3	74.7±3.9#	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	51.3±1.7	69.6±5.0#			
Body weight (z-score)	A	-0.67±0.20	0.72±0.13#	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	-0.97±0.12	0.90±0.33#			
Omental fat mass (kg)	A	313±65	1526±163#	NS	<0.001	NS

	R	224±56	1655±151#			
Pericardial fat mass (kg)	A	66±10	101±9#	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	59±16	116±14#			
Perirenal fat mass (kg)	A	279±43	1003±119#	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	252±37	1014±104#			

**Table 2**

Variable	Maternal Nutrition	Post weaning		Effect Prenatal	Effect Post weaning	Interaction
		Lean	Obese	<i>P</i> value	<i>P</i> value	<i>P</i> value
<b>7 months</b>						
AUC glucose (mmol/l)	A	1370±67	1593±61#	NS	<0.01	NS
	R	1377±64	1549±44#			
AUC insulin (µg/l)	A	49.2±7.0	51.6±6.2	NS	NS	NS
	R	43.1±5.2	56.8±7.9			
HOMA-IR	A	5.57±0.2	5.54±0.6	NS	NS	NS
	R	6.89±1.8	6.07±0.4			
<b>16 months</b>						
AUC glucose (mmol/l)	A	1047±57	1031±38	NS	NS	NS
	R	1074±44	1136±74			
AUC insulin (µg/l)	A	31.7±14.8	67.7±9.1#	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	15.7±3.9	49.8±14.5#			
HOMA-IR	A	2.8±0.1	4.3±0.4#	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	3.0±0.1	3.6±0.3			

**Table 3**

Variable	Maternal Nutrition	Post weaning		Effect Prenatal	Effect Post weaning	Interaction
		Lean	Obese	<i>P</i> value	<i>P</i> value	<i>P</i> value
Liver weight (g)	A	649±26	716±34	NS	<0.01	NS
	R	600±23 <sup>b</sup>	755±59 <sup>a</sup>			
Relative liver weight (g per kg body weight)	A	11.6±0.6 <sup>a</sup>	9.6±0.2 <sup>b</sup>	NS	<0.01	NS
	R	11.7±0.4	10.9±0.4 <sup>*</sup>			
Liver triglyceride (mg/g)	A	32.2±6.6	37.0±6.1	NS	0.04	NS
	R	28.6±3.78 <sup>b</sup>	48.3±7.8 <sup>a</sup>			
Total liver triglyceride content (g)	A	21.2±0.44 <sup>b</sup>	27.0±0.55 <sup>a</sup>	NS	0.02	NS
	R	17.0±0.26 <sup>b</sup>	37.8±0.85 <sup>a</sup>			
Beclin1 mRNA (arbitrary units)	A	0.98±0.05 <sup>b</sup>	1.15±0.07 <sup>a</sup>	0.034	0.002	0.042
	R	1.00±0.07 <sup>b</sup>	1.67±0.24 <sup>a*</sup>			
ATF4 mRNA (arbitrary units)	A	1.31±0.06	1.12±0.05	NS	NS	0.01
	R	1.00±0.03 <sup>*</sup>	1.22±0.13			
ATG12 mRNA (arbitrary units)	A	0.89±0.05 <sup>b</sup>	1.13±0.06 <sup>a</sup>	NS	0.005	NS
	R	1.00±0.10 <sup>b</sup>	1.40±0.14 <sup>a</sup>			
	A	1.03±0.01	1.06±0.18	NS	0.02	NS

EDEM1 mRNA (arbitrary units)	R	1.00±0.03	1.08±0.04			
GRP78 mRNA (arbitrary units)	A	1.16±0.08	1.27±0.09	NS	0.04	NS
	R	1.00±0.09 <sup>b</sup>	1.40±0.19 <sup>a</sup>			
ATF6 mRNA (arbitrary units)	A	1.13±0.10	1.06±0.05	NS	NS	NS
	R	1.00±0.04	0.92±0.15			

Table 3: Offspring hepatic weight, lipid content and gene expression at 17 months of age. Sheep were either subjected to maternal nutrient restriction (R) or maternal ad libitum feeding (A) in late pregnancy and were kept in either a normal environment (lean) or an environment restricting their physical activity (obese). The effects of maternal nutrition (prenatal) and of the activity level (post weaning) as well as the interaction between the two factors were determined by 2-way ANOVA. Differing superscripts indicate a difference within the maternal group, i.e. between lean and obese, and asterisk indicates a difference within the post weaning group, i.e. between A and R offspring, both as determined by simple main effects analysis,  $P < 0.05$ . There were no significant interactions found in these variables.



**Table 4**

Variable	Maternal Nutrition	Post Weaning		Effect Prenatal	Effect Post Weaning	Interaction
		Lean	Obese	<i>P</i> value	<i>P</i> value	<i>P</i> value
GRP 78 ( $\mu\text{m}^2/\text{cell}$ )	A	35.9 $\pm$ 21.6	79.8 $\pm$ 24.2	NS	0.02	NS
	R	30.4 $\pm$ 11.0	70.9 $\pm$ 21.8			
pJNK ( $\mu\text{m}^2/\text{cell}$ )	A	29.6 $\pm$ 12.7	53.1 $\pm$ 6.3	NS	NS	NS
	R	55.5 $\pm$ 17.5	44.2 $\pm$ 12.7			
Leptin mRNA (arbitrary units)	A	1.46 $\pm$ 0.33 <sup>b</sup>	7.89 $\pm$ 2.20 <sup>a</sup>	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	1.00 $\pm$ 0.19 <sup>b</sup>	8.02 $\pm$ 1.99 <sup>a</sup>			
TLR4 mRNA (arbitrary units)	A	1.08 $\pm$ 0.57	1.44 $\pm$ 0.21	NS	0.01	NS
	R	1.00 $\pm$ 0.12 <sup>b</sup>	1.33 $\pm$ 0.13 <sup>a</sup>			
CD68 mRNA (arbitrary units)	A	1.54 $\pm$ 0.27 <sup>b</sup>	5.46 $\pm$ 1.5 <sup>a</sup>	NS	<0.001	NS
	R	1.00 $\pm$ 0.11 <sup>b</sup>	4.79 $\pm$ 2.41 <sup>a</sup>			

Table 4: Protein (GRP78 and pJNK) and gene expression (leptin and TLR4) in offspring omental adipose tissue.

Sheep were either subjected to maternal nutrient restriction (R) or maternal ad libitum feeding (A) in late pregnancy and were kept in either a normal environment (lean) or an environment restricting their physical activity (obese).

The effects of maternal nutrition (prenatal) and of the activity level (post weaning) were determined by 2-way

ANOVA and differing superscripts indicate a difference within the maternal group, as determined by simple main effects analysis. There were no significant interactions found in these variables.

**Figure 1**

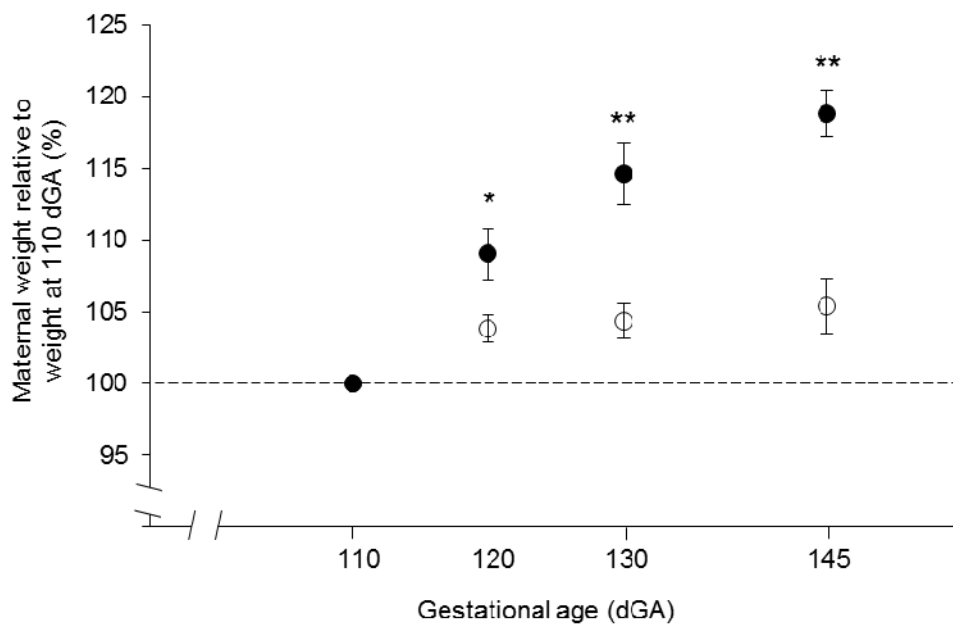
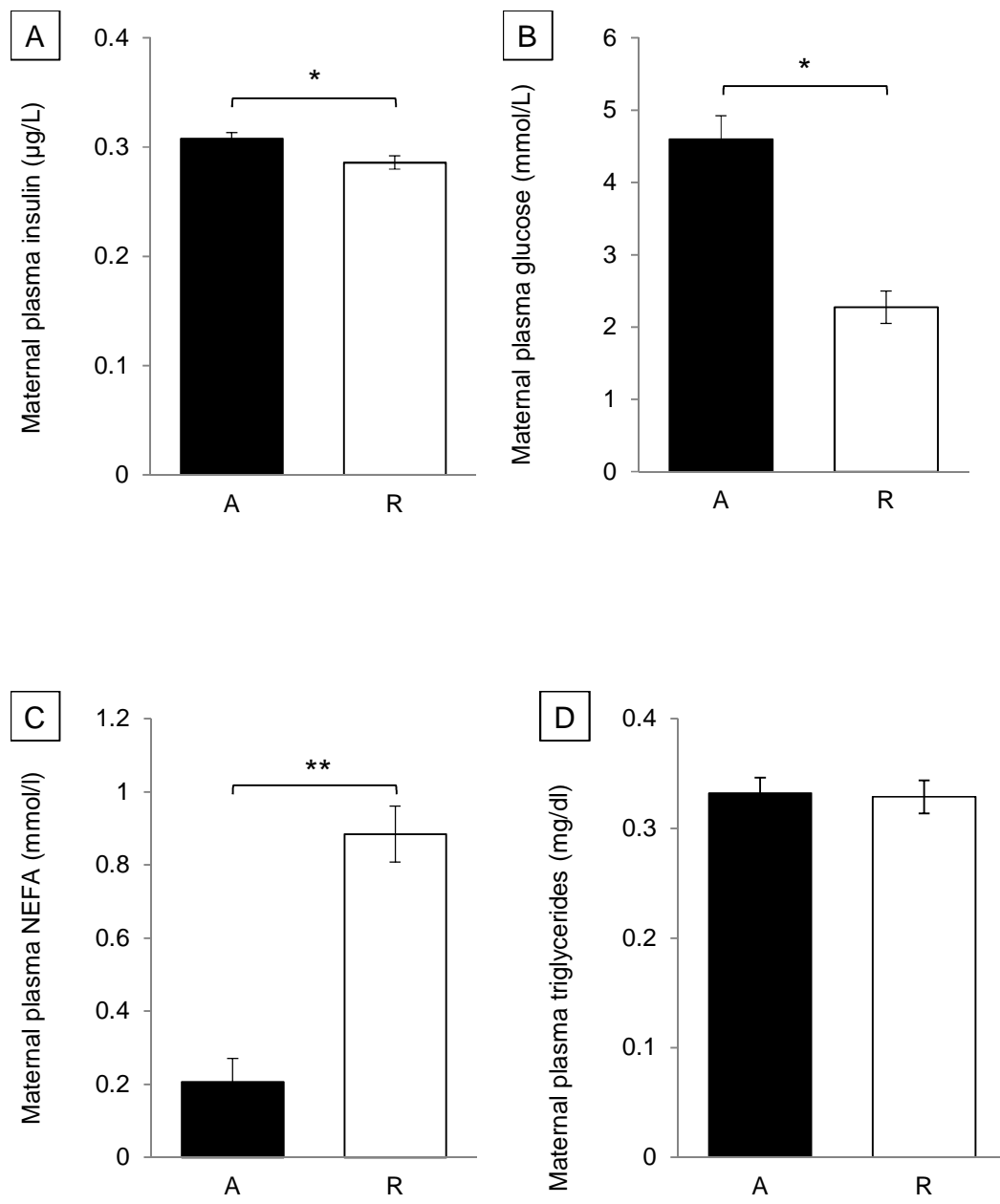


Figure 1: Maternal weight development. Mothers were either fed *ad libitum* (A, closed symbols) or nutrient restricted (R, open symbols) during the intervention period, 110 days gestational age until term at 145 days gestational age. \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ .

**Figure 2**



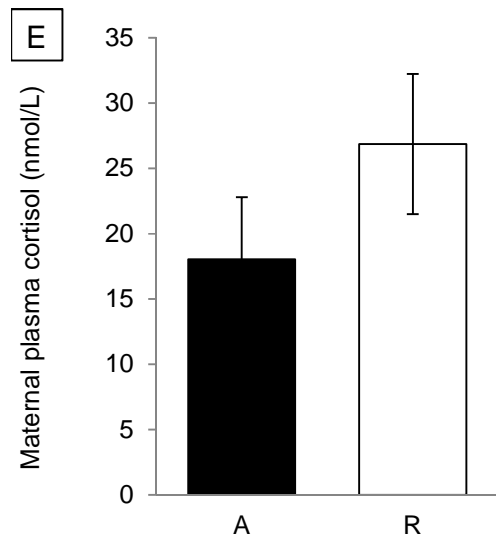
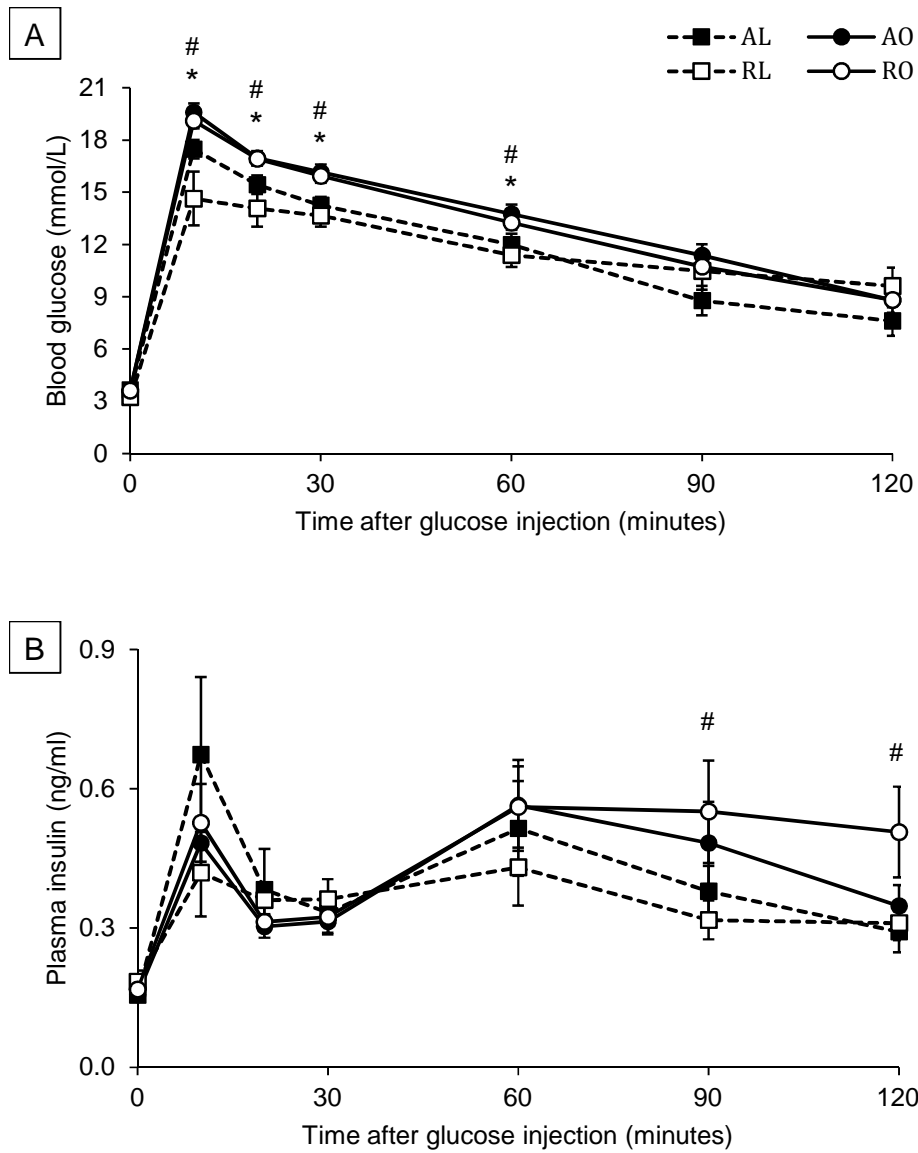


Figure 2: Maternal plasma metabolites and hormones as measured at 130d gestation: A, insulin; B, glucose; C, non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA); D, triglycerides; E, cortisol. Mothers were either fed *ad libitum* (A, closed bars) or nutrient restricted (R, open bars) during the intervention period, 110 days gestational age until term at 145 days gestational age. \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ .

**Figure 3**



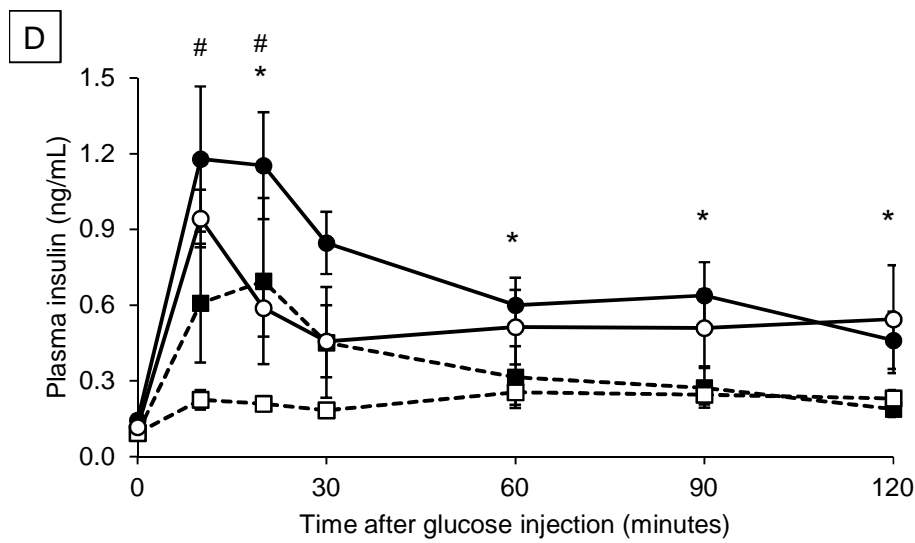
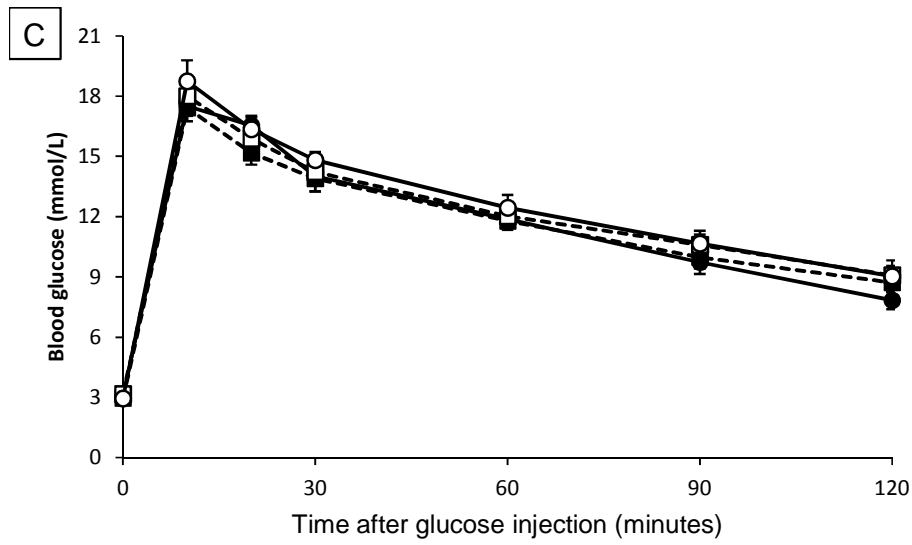


Figure 3: Offspring plasma glucose and insulin concentrations during a glucose tolerance test performed at 7 (A and B) and 16 months of age (C and D). Sheep were either subjected to maternal nutrient restriction (R) or maternal ad libitum feeding (A) in late pregnancy and were kept in either a normal environment (lean) or an environment restricting their physical activity (obese). \*,  $P < 0.05$  between AL and AO; #,  $P < 0.05$  between RL and RO.

**Figure 4**

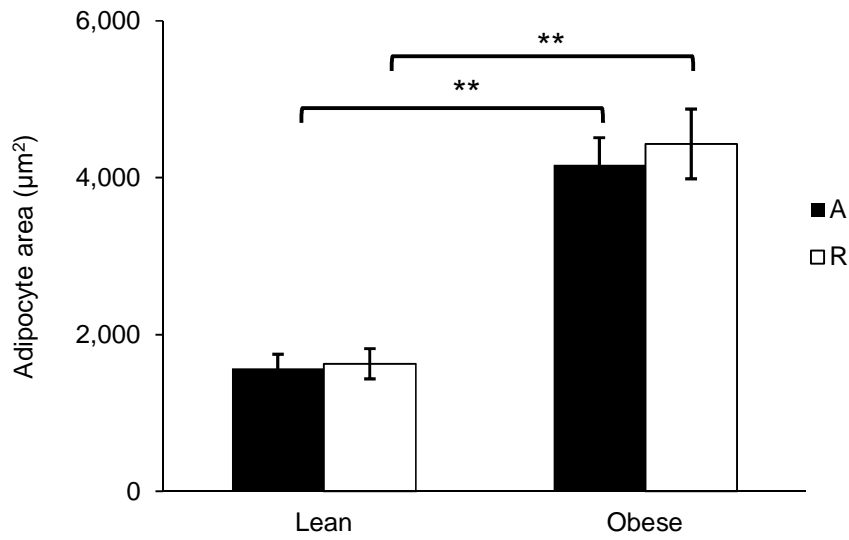
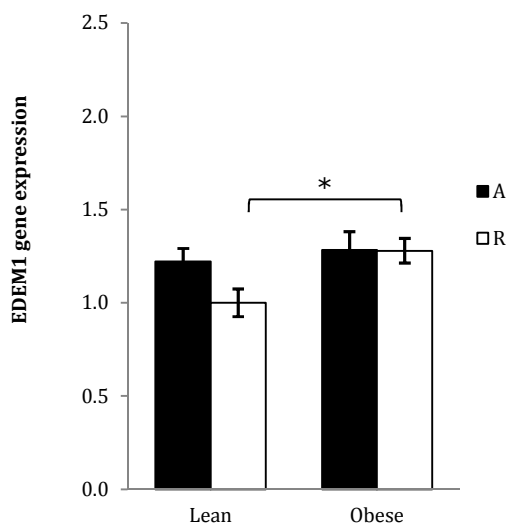
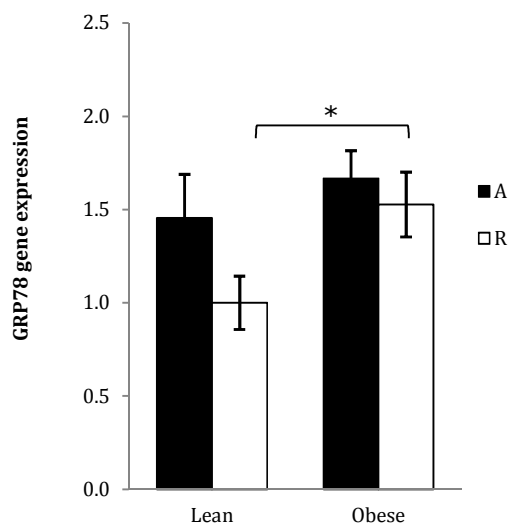
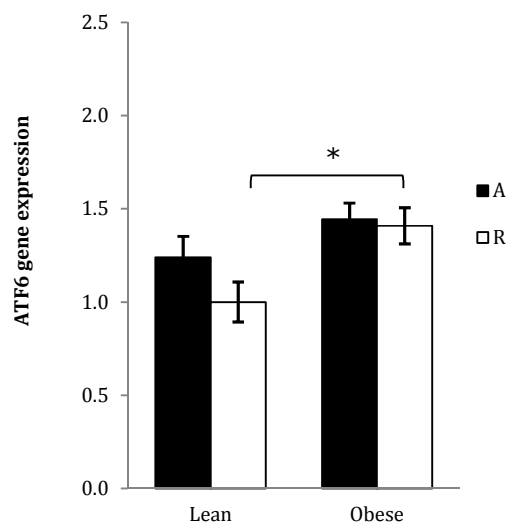
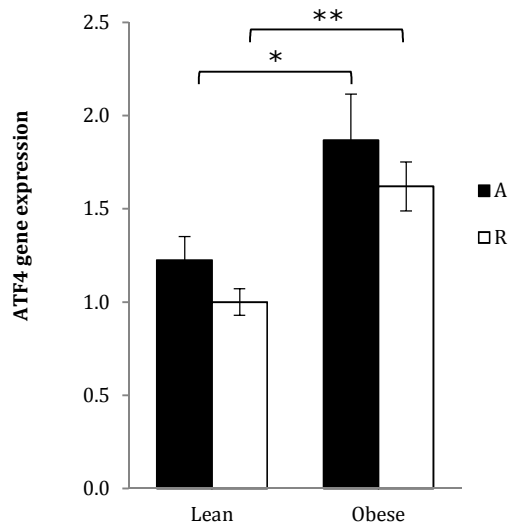


Figure 4: Offspring average size of omental adipocytes at 17 months of age. Sheep were either subjected to maternal nutrient restriction (R) or maternal ad libitum feeding (A) in late pregnancy and were kept in either a normal environment (lean) or an environment restricting their physical activity (obese). \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ .

**Figure 5**





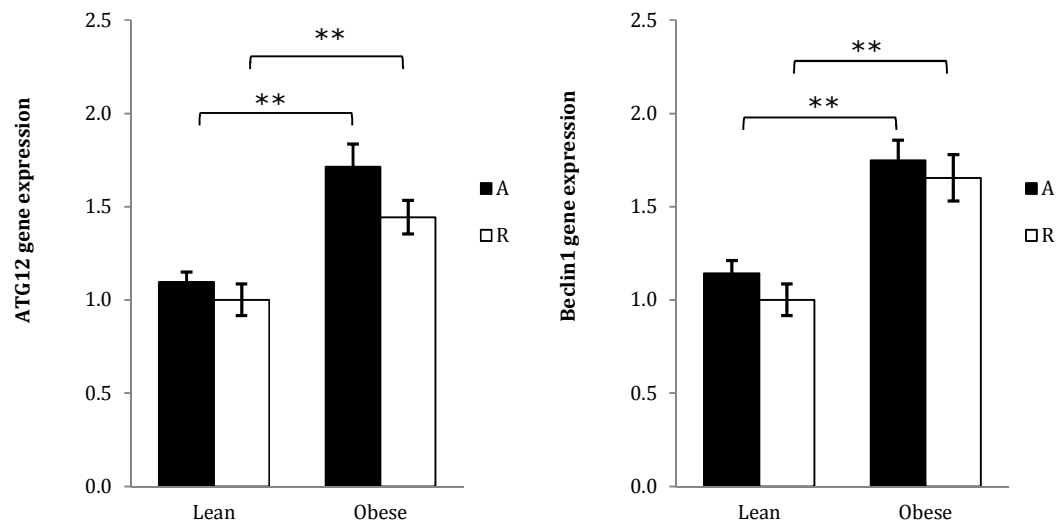


Figure 5: Expression of genes involved in ER stress and autophagic responses as measured in omental adipose tissue at 17 months of age, expressed relative to the RL group. Mothers were either fed *ad libitum* (A, closed bars) or nutrient restricted (R, open bars) during the intervention period, 110 days gestational age until term at 145 days gestational age. After weaning offspring were either kept in a normal environment where animals remained lean or were kept in an environment which restricted their physical activity, causing animals to become obese. \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ .