**ORIGINAL RESEARCH**



# **FOXO3 Regulates Sevofurane‑Induced Neural Stem Cell Diferentiation in Fetal Rats**

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## **Abstract**

With the increase in fetal surgeries, the efect of maternal anesthesia on progeny has attracted much attention. Our previous studies have demonstrated that 3.5% sevofurane maternal exposure resulted in over-activated autophagy and cognitive impairment in the ofspring. The autophagy activation resulted in increased apoptosis and decreased proliferation. However, the efects of sevofurane on neural stem cell (NSC) diferentiation is unclear. There is evidence that autophagy might participate in anesthesia-induced NSC diferentiation. Firstly, we examined the efects of sevofurane on NSC diferentiation and explored possible mechanisms. Then, we investigated whether autophagy was related to diferentiation. On gestational day 14 (G14), rats were exposed to 2% or 3.5% sevoflurane for 2 h, then markers of neurons and astrocytes, and the FOXO3 expression was measured in fetal brains 48 h later. The diferentiation of NSCs was detected after autophagy inhibition by 3-MA. Changes in NSC diferentiation, autophagy level, and FOXO3 were examined after administration of lithium chloride. After 3.5% sevofurane exposure, the expressions of β-Tubulin III, NeuN, SYP, GFAP and FOXO3 increased. Autophagy inhibition alleviates improper NSC diferentiation. Lithium chloride attenuated FOXO3 and autophagy activation, ameliorated NSC diferentiation and the decline of Nestin expression. Our results demonstrated that maternal exposure to 3.5% sevofurane for 2 h during the mid-trimester induced NSC diferentiation in the fetal brain through the activation of FOXO3. Autophagy inhibitor or lithium chloride reversed the improper diferentiation of NSCs.

**Keywords** Sevofurane · Neurogenesis · Diferentiation · Autophagy

# **Introduction**

In recent years, the developmental neurotoxicity of anesthetics has become a global issue concerned by the medical profession and the public, a large number of animal experiments

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and clinical studies have shown that general anesthetics have harmful effects on the immature nervous system (Woodward et al. [2019](#page-9-0)). With the progress of fetal diagnostic technology and the intrauterine surgery, it is urgent to ensure the safety of maternal and fetal anesthesia in the mid-trimester. As the mid-trimester is a crucial period for nervous system development, the influence of anesthetic exposure on the offspring's brain development has attracted increasing attention.

Neurogenesis, defned as the generation and survival of nerve cells from NSCs, is a fundamental event during embryonic brain development and vital to forming an integrated and normal nervous system. Since neurogenesis mainly occurs in the mid-trimester (Palanisamy [2012](#page-9-1)), the fetal brain is vulnerable and easily afected during this period. Our previous study revealed that 3.5% sevofurane exposure at embryonic day 14 (E14), equivalent of the human mid-trimester, led to adverse consequences, such as NSC decline and subsequent neurobehavioral dysfunction in offspring (Wang et al. [2018\)](#page-9-2).

NSCs have drawn great attention due to their pluripotency in the generation of nerve lineages in the central nervous system (CNS): neurons, astrocytes, and oligodendrocytes (Renault et al. [2009](#page-9-3)). The capacity of stem cell self-renewal is indispensable for the lifetime maintenance of the stem cell pool and neurogenesis. Fetal neurodevelopment is a rigorously regulated process whereby diferentiation of regions leads to an integrated CNS. Therefore, tight regulation of diferentiation during development remains a critical issue. So far, the effects of the anesthetics on NSC differentiation and its mechanisms are still poorly understood.

Our published study has shown that sevofurane activated autophagy of NSCs via PTEN/Akt/mTOR pathway, and inhibition of autophagy alleviated the NSC apoptosis and proliferation decline (Li et al. [2017\)](#page-9-4). Besides, autophagy has been reported to participate in stem cell remodeling, diferentiation, and self-renewal (Zhao et al. [2010;](#page-9-5) Vazquez et al. [2012\)](#page-9-6). Autophagy is a particularly important process that maintains the stemness of NSCs (Pan et al. [2013\)](#page-9-7). Another study of our team found that lithium chloride improved the performance of ofspring in Morris Water Maze (MWM) and alleviated NSC proliferation inhibition (Wang et al. [2018\)](#page-9-2). Besides, it has been reported that lithium chloride can regulate the autophagy level. Therefore, lithium chloride was used as another intervention in this study.

Forkhead box class O (FOXO) transcription factors play important roles in various cellular responses, including differentiation, survival, cell cycle arrest, and stress regulation (Salih and Brunet [2008](#page-9-8)). FOXO3, a subtype of FoxO transcription factors in mammals, is located downstream of the Akt/mTOR pathway, and highly expressed in the brain (Mao et al. [2007\)](#page-9-9). It was reported that FOXO3 is crucial in maintaining NSC diferentiation, and participates in the autophagy process (Renault et al. [2009;](#page-9-3) Wang et al. [2013](#page-9-10); Audesse et al. [2019\)](#page-8-0).

To understand the efect of sevofurane on NSC diferentiation and the role of FOXO3 in the sevofurane neurotoxicity during the mid-trimester, we used the embryonic day 14 (E14) rat model, and the concentration and duration of anesthesia were maintained. We hypothesize that 3.5% sevoflurane activates FOXO3, which is responsible for the improper diferentiation and the decreased NSC pools.

# **Methods and Materials**

## **Animals**

Animal experiments were conducted at the experimental research center and approved by Animal Care and Use Committee of Shengjing Hospital (NO.2019PS141K) in compliance with laboratory animal care and use guidelines.

Rat feeding and vaginal smear procedures were detailed as described previously (Li et al. [2017\)](#page-9-4). In brief, rats were raised at  $22 \pm 1$  °C with 12 h light/dark cycle, and the pellet diet and water were freely obtained. Every three female rats with 1 male rat were put in the cage at 17:00. The next day, if sperm is observed in the vaginal smear, the female rats were regarded to be pregnant. The day was recorded as gestation 0 day (G0) for female rats and embryonic 0 day (E0) for fetuses.

## **Sevofurane Exposure**

The sevoflurane exposure procedure was consistent with the previous description (Li et al. [2017\)](#page-9-4). In brief, rats were maintained in the aeration chamber with 30% oxygen at 2 L/ min fow rate for 2 h. The remaining rats in 2% sevofurane (2%SEV) group and 3.5% sevofurane (3.5%SEV) group were inhaled with 2% and 3.5% sevofurane, respectively. The fetal brain tissues were taken 48 h after gas exposure through the cesarean section.

### **Drug Premedication**

Rats in 3.5% sevoflurane plus lithium chloride  $(3.5\%SEV + LiCl)$  group were injected with lithium chloride (2 mmol/kg) intraperitoneally. Lithium chloride was initially conducted at 0.5 h before anesthesia. Based on our previous study, the dosage of lithium chloride was selected. Treatment in  $3.5\%$  sevoflurane plus  $3-MA$  ( $3.5\%$ SEV +  $3-MA$ ) group was consistent with the previous study (Li et al. [2017](#page-9-4)). Other rats were treated with vehicle solution in the same volume.

#### **PCR**

Total RNA was isolated from fetal brains with Trizol, extracted using chloroform and isopropanol, and measured by spectrophotometer. Then RNA reverse transcription was conducted using the Takara kit. RT-PCR was performed on the 7500 FAST Real-Time PCR System (Thermo, United States). The FOXO3 primer was listed as follow: 5′- ACG GCTCACTTTGTCCCA -3′ (forward), 5′- CTCTTGCCA GTCCCTTCG -3′ (reverse). Results were analyzed by the  $-\Delta\Delta Ct$  method.

## **Western Blot**

The fetal brains were dissected and proteins were extracted from the brain tissues. The tissues were homogenized in RIPA buffer with PMSF. After centrifugation, the supernatant was collected then determined with BCA Kit. The protein was separated by electrophoresis, then transferred to PVDF membranes (IPVH0010, Millipore, Germany). The membranes were sealed with 5% nonfat milk and subsequently incubated overnight with the following primary antibodies at 4 °C, LC3B Antibody (2775; Cell Signaling Technology, USA), Beclin-1 Antibody (3738; Cell Signaling Technology, USA), NeuN Antibody (MAB377; Millipore, Germany), GFAP Antibody (ab7260; Abcam, UK), SYP Antibody (17785-1-AP; Proteintech, USA), β-Tubulin III (ab18207; Abcam, Uk), Nestin Antibody (MAB353; Millipore, Germany), FOXO3 Antibody (YT1763; Immuno-Way, USA). Then, the membranes were rinsed and HRPconjugated second antibodies were then used to probe the membrane at RT for 2 h. Immunoreactivity was detected with SuperSignal® West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate (34080, Thermo, USA), and membrane images were generated by GE Amersham Imager 600.

### **Immunohistochemistry**

Brain tissues were post-fxed with 4% PFA, dehydrated in graded ethanol, then embedded in paraffin. The specimens were cut at a transverse plane  $(2.5 \mu m)$ , and the sections were deparaffinized and heat repaired in citrate buffer and incubated with 0.03% hydrogen peroxide and 10% fetal bovine serum. Then, sections were submerged with Nestin Antibody (MAB353; Millipore, Germany). The slides were incubated with secondary antibody, DAB, and hematoxylin. The slides were magnifed at ×400 under Nikon C1 microscope, and  $1 \sim 2$  visual fields were randomly taken on each glass. OD value was analyzed with NIS-Elements AR Analysis 4.50.00.

#### **Immunofuorescence Staining**

The other set of paraffin slides were stained with immunofluorescence. The slides were deparaffinized and transferred to citrate bufer and immersed in 10% FBS for 40 min at RT. Sections were kept in the primary antibodies overnight at 4 °C, then covered with fuorescent labeled secondary antibodies. Nuclei were stained with DAPI for 5 min. The primary antibodies used here were as follows: FOXO3 Antibody (YT1763; ImmunoWay, USA), LC3B Antibody (ab48394; Abcam, UK), and Nestin Antibody (MAB353, Millipore, Germany). Stained sections were captured with the microscope (LSM880, ZEIZZ, Germany).

## **Statistical Analysis**

The data equal variances and normality were checked with Bartlett's test and Shapiro–Wilk test. Parametric data comparisons were carried out with one-way ANOVA with Student–Newman–Keuls post hoc test, and nonparametric data comparisons were performed with Kruskal–Wallis followed by the Dunn's Multiple comparison test using GraphPad Prism 5.0 software and SPSS 20.0 software. Datasets are expressed as mean $\pm$ SD. Statistical significance was calculated when  $P < 0.05$ .

## **Results**

## **3.5% Sevofurane Anesthesia Induced FOXO3 Activation in Fetal NSCs**

Our published study has reported that 3.5% sevofurane maternal exposure led to autophagy activation in fetal NSCs, whereas the 2% sevofurane group and the control group did not show diference. Then we examined the expression of FOXO3 48 h after the exposure to sevofurane (Fig. [1](#page-3-0)). Our PCR results revealed 3.5% sevofurane increased FOXO3 expression, and 2% sevofurane did not (Fig. [1](#page-3-0)a, 3.5%SEV vs. CON: 2.07±0.72 vs. 1.01±0.14, *P*<0.05; 3.5%SEV vs. 2%SEV: 2.07 ± 0.72 vs. 1.07 ± 0.19, *P* < 0.05). Protein expression detected by Western Blot was also used to strengthen these results, and elevation in FOXO3 level was shown in the 3.5%SEV group (Fig. [1](#page-3-0)b and c, 3.5%SEV vs. CON:  $2.71 \pm 1.09$  vs.  $1.00 \pm 0.08$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ;  $3.5\%$ SEV vs. 2%SEV: 2.71±1.09 vs. 1.16±0.52, *P*<0.05). To prove the sevofurane-induced FOXO3 activation, we performed immunofuorescence. In the slides of the 3.5%SEV group, FOXO3 is expressed in the nucleus, whereas in the CON group and 2%SEV group red light was labeled in cytoplasm (Fig. [1](#page-3-0)d). To sum up, these results suggest that 3.5% sevofurane maternal exposure activated FOXO3 expression in the fetal brains.

# **3.5% Sevofurane Anesthesia Induced NSC Diferentiation**

We have reported that 3.5% sevoflurane exposure resulted in NSC decline in fetus. To determine whether sevofurane afects NSC diferentiation potential, NeuN, GFAP, β-Tubulin III and SYP were detected with Western Blot (Fig. [2\)](#page-3-1). Our results revealed that in the 3.5%SEV group expression of NeuN, SYP, and GFAP were higher than the CON and 2%SEV group (Fig. [2,](#page-3-1) 3.5%SEV vs. CON: NeuN: 2.37±0.65 vs. 1.02±0.20, *P*<0.01; SYP:  $2.49 \pm 1.22$  vs.  $1.00 \pm 0.21$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ; GFAP:  $3.95 \pm 1.11$ vs. 1.00 ± 0.24, *P* < 0.05; 3.5%SEV vs. 2%SEV: NeuN:  $2.37 \pm 0.65$  vs.  $1.22 \pm 0.39$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ; SYP:  $2.49 \pm 1.22$  vs.  $0.95 \pm 0.38$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ; GFAP:  $3.95 \pm 1.11$  vs.  $1.15 \pm 0.52$ , *P* < 0.05); the 2%SEV and CON groups showed no difference; Expression of β-Tubulin III in the 3.5%SEV group was elevated compared with the CON group, however, although the expression was higher in the 3.5% group than in the 2% group, the diference was not statistically significant (Fig. [2,](#page-3-1) 3.5%SEV vs. CON:  $3.32 \pm 1.02$  vs.

<span id="page-3-0"></span>

 $\mathsf{A}$ 

group, # *P*<0.05 versus the 2%SEV group. **d** Immunofuorescence detection of FOXO3 (red) and DAPI (blue), scale  $bar=50 \mu m$ 

<span id="page-3-1"></span>**Fig. 2** Sevofurane caused NSCs to diferentiate into neurons and astrocytes. **a** and **b** Quantitation of diferentiation marker expressions by Western blot.  $n=5$ , \**P*<0.05, \*\**P*<0.01 versus the CON group, #  $#P$ <0.01 versus the 2%SEV group

CON 2%SEV 3.5%SEV β-Tubulin III  $\Box$  CON  $\blacksquare$  2% SEV **GAPDH** 3.5% SEV  $6·$ ٦ Relative expression **NeuN** 4 **GAPDH**  $\overline{\mathbf{c}}$ **SYP GAPDH O LIBRARY**  $\mathbf{a}$ Neut-**SHR** GFRE **GFAP GAPDH** 

B



 $1.00 \pm 0.23$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ;  $3.5\%$ SEV vs.  $2\%$ SEV:  $3.32 \pm 1.02$ vs.  $1.35 \pm 0.36$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ). These results indicated that 3.5% sevofurane efectively promoted NSC diferentiation.

## **Lithium Chloride Attenuated FOXO3 Activation after 3.5% Sevofurane Anesthesia**

To demonstrate whether lithium chloride could reduce FOXO3 activation, lithium chloride pretreatment was conducted. The results showed that FOXO3 expression was decreased in the 3.5%SEV +LiCl group compared to the 3.5%SEV group (Fig. [3a](#page-4-0), 3.5%SEV +LiCl vs. 3.5%SEV:  $1.17 \pm 0.25$  vs.  $1.73 \pm 0.48$  $1.73 \pm 0.48$  $1.73 \pm 0.48$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ; Fig. 3b and c,  $3.5\%$ SEV + LiCl vs.  $3.5\%$ SEV:  $1.03 \pm 0.33$  vs.  $2.76 \pm 1.06$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ). In slides of the 3.5%SEV group, FOXO3 is expressed mainly in the nucleus, whereas FOXO3 fuorescence in the 3.5%SEV+LiCl group was partly in the nucleus and partly in the cytoplasm, and red light labeling in the CON group and  $CON + LiCl$  group was in the cytoplasm (Fig. [3](#page-4-0)d). These results showed that lithium chloride reduced 3.5% sevofurane-induced FOXO3 activation.

# **Lithium Chloride Ameliorated 3.5% Sevofurane Anesthesia Activated Autophagy in Fetal NSCs**

The following experiments investigated the effects of lithium chloride on NSCs autophagy. We evaluated changes in the expressions of LC3B and Beclin-1. Both of the autophagy markers expression in the  $3.5\%$ SEV + LiCl group were reduced versus the 3.5%SEV group (Fig. [4a](#page-5-0) and b,  $3.5\%$ SEV + LiCl vs.  $3.5\%$ SEV: LC3BII:  $0.82 \pm 0.31$  vs.  $1.65 \pm 0.18$ , *P*<0.01; Beclin-1:  $0.67 \pm 0.12$  vs.  $2.04 \pm 0.72$ , *P* < 0.001). Following the Western blots, we monitored immunofluorescence of LC3B and Nestin, a characteristic NSC marker. In the sections of the 3.5%SEV group, LC3B presenting punctate dot formation, while in the 3.5%SEV+LiCl group, LC3B showed difused green light. In a word, lithium chloride ameliorated autophagy in NSCs after 3.5% sevofurane exposure (Fig. [4c](#page-5-0)).

## **Lithium Chloride Prevented 3.5% Sevofurane Induced NSC Diferentiation in Fetal Rats**

To prove that diferentiation was regulated by FOXO3, the following experiments investigated the effects of lithium chloride on NSC diferentiation, assessing expressions of β-Tubulin III, NeuN, SYP, and GFAP. All expressions of the proteins



<span id="page-4-0"></span>**Fig. 3** Lithium chloride pretreatment inhibited FOXO3 activation induced by sevofurane. **a** Quantitation of FOXO3 mRNA by RT-PCR. **b** and **c** Quantitation of FOXO3 protein expression by Western

blot.  $n = 5$ ,  $*P < 0.05$ ,  $*P < 0.01$  versus the CON group,  $*P < 0.05$ versus the 3.5%SEV group. **d** Immunofuorescence detection of FOXO3 (red) and DAPI (blue), scale  $bar = 50 \mu m$ 



<span id="page-5-0"></span>**Fig. 4** Lithium chloride pretreatment alleviated sevofurane-induced autophagy activation in the NSCs. **a** and **b** Quantitation of autophagy marker expressions by Western blot.  $n=5$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$  versus the

CON group,  $^{**}P < 0.01$ ,  $^{***}P < 0.001$  versus the 3.5%SEV group. **c** Immunofuorescence detection of autophagy marker, LC3B (green), and NSC marker, Nestin (red), scale  $bar = 50 \mu m$ 

<span id="page-5-1"></span>

mentioned above were decreased after lithium chloride admin-istration (Fig. [5,](#page-5-1)  $3.5%$ SEV + LiCl vs.  $3.5%$ SEV: β-Tubulin III:  $1.00 \pm 0.40$  vs.  $1.75 \pm 0.54$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ; NeuN:  $0.63 \pm 0.44$ vs. 2.02±0.38, *P*<0.001; SYP: 1.03±0.41 vs. 3.10±0.89, *P*<0.001; GFAP: 0.71±0.29 vs. 1.57±0.36, *P*<0.001). In accordance with the previous report, 3.5% sevofurane interfered with NSC content in the fetal brains as Nestin expression decreased compared with the CON group. The Nestin Western blot and immunohistochemistry results showed increased expression in the 3.5%SEV+LiCl than 3.5% SEV group (Fig. [6a](#page-6-0) and b,  $3.5\%$ SEV + LiCl vs.  $3.5\%$ SEV:  $0.75 \pm 0.28$ vs. 0.41±0.19, *P*<0.05; Fig. [6](#page-6-0)c and d, 3.5%SEV+LiCl vs.  $3.5\%$ SEV:  $0.35 \pm 0.03$  vs.  $0.32 \pm 0.01$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ).

# **3‑MA Prevented NSC Diferentiation After 3.5% Sevofurane Exposure in Fetal Rats on E14**

In order to further investigate whether sevofurane-induced autophagy activation is involved in NSC diferentiation, autophagy inhibitor (3-MA) pretreatment was conducted.



<span id="page-6-0"></span>**Fig. 6** Lithium chloride pretreatment alleviated sevofurane-induced NSC reduction. **a** and **b** Quantitation of Nestin expression by Western blot. **c** and **d** Quantitation of Nestin expression by immunohistochem-

istry.  $n = 5$ ,  $*P < 0.05$ ,  $*P < 0.01$  versus the CON group,  $*P < 0.05$ versus the  $3.5\%$ SEV group, scale bar = 50 µm

<span id="page-6-1"></span>

3-MA usage was consistent with the previous description (Li et al. [2017\)](#page-9-4). Then we evaluated the expressions of β-Tubulin III, NeuN, SYP and GFAP by Western blot. In accordance with the preceding results, all of the differentiation markers expression were increased after 3.5%

sevoflurane treatment, and reduced after 3-MA administra-tion (Fig. [7](#page-6-1), 3.5%SEV + 3-MA vs. 3.5%SEV: β-Tubulin III:  $1.01 \pm 0.39$  vs.  $1.93 \pm 0.67$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ; NeuN:  $0.73 \pm 0.44$  vs.  $1.98 \pm 0.51$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; SYP:  $1.36 \pm 0.28$  vs.  $5.21 \pm 1.22$ , *P*<0.01; GFAP: 0.82±0.46 vs. 2.02±0.58, *P*<0.01).

#### **Discussion**

The infuence of anesthetic on the developing brain has attracted more and more attention. A large number of animal experiments have found that general anesthesia drugs can afect the synaptic morphology and cognitive function of the developing brain (Jevtovic-Todorovic et al. [2003](#page-9-11); Fang et al. [2012](#page-8-1)), and clinical studies have also suggested that general anesthesia may lead to abnormal learning or behavior in children (Warner et al. [2018\)](#page-9-12). With the development of prenatal diagnosis and intrauterine treatment technology, more and more pregnant women experienced general anesthesia in the mid-trimester, which puts forward higher requirements for the validity of anesthesia and the safety of mother and fetus. As an important period of fetal neurodevelopment, whether the exposure of anesthetics in the mid-trimester interferes with the neurodevelopment of the offspring has aroused concern.

The mid-trimester is an important period of fetal nervous system development, during which neurogenesis is widely present in the brain. Neurogenesis is the biological process that neural stem/progenitor cells undergo proliferation and asymmetric division to produce functional postmitotic neurons and integrate them into the neural network (Sanes et al. [2006](#page-9-13); Perna et al. [2015\)](#page-9-14). Neurogenesis is a complex process that is fnely regulated by coordinated signaling molecules. *γ*-aminobutyric acid (GABA) and glutamate are important neurotransmitters in the brain, which are involved in regulating the NSC self-renewal and diferentiation in early nervous system development. Given that most general anesthetics act on  $GABA_A$  and NMDA receptors (Li and Yu [2014\)](#page-9-15), exposure to general anesthetics in the mid-trimester is likely to afect the NSC fate transition from proliferation to diferentiation. Our study found that sevofurane exposure in the mid-trimester reduced the number of NSCs in the offspring brain tissues and impaired long-term learning and memory ability with a concentration dependence of sevofurane.

To elucidate the effect of different concentration sevofurane on NSC diferentiation, we used the concentrations according to our previous studies. Since the minimum alveolar concentration (MAC) of sevofurane in rodents is about 2.4% (Abreu et al.  $2012$ ), and 99% of the effective concentration of sevofurane for general clinical anesthesia is 1.3MAC, that is, 3.0% sevofurane (Zhang et al. [2015](#page-9-16)). However, in order to reduce the dosage of intravenous anesthetics, prevent uterine contractions, and achieve satisfactory anesthesia depth, higher concentration is often required, even up to  $1.6 \sim 1.7$ MAC. Thus 2% and 3.5% respectively represent the general concentration and relatively high concentration. Our previous results showed that 3.5% sevofurane exposure reduced the NSC content, but 2% showed no such damage (Wang et al. [2018\)](#page-9-2).

Besides NSC decline, our previous results revealed that autophagy also participated in anesthesia-induced neurotoxicity. In our previous study, we observed the autophagy levels 2 ~ 48 h after 3.5% sevofurane exposure at E14, all of which were increased (Li et al. [2017](#page-9-4)). However, since the diferentiation process was relatively signifcant from E16, the observation time point of this study was selected at the moment of 48 h after exposure. Autophagy has been demonstrated to be highly active during diferentiation (Asanuma et al. [2003;](#page-8-3) Wang et al. [2010](#page-9-17)). Interference with the autophagy disturbs the coordination of cell proliferation, diferentiation and death necessary for the establishment of complex CNS structure (Boya et al. [2008\)](#page-8-4), which may be potential mechanisms of sevofurane-induced cognitive decline. Autophagy inhibitors or autophagy-related gene knockdown inhibited the diferentiation of NSCs, as revealed by reduced expression of neuronal and astrocyte markers (Vazquez et al. [2012](#page-9-6)).

Our previous results suggested that sevofurane-induced autophagy was mediated by the PTEN/Akt/mTOR pathway. Akt/mTOR pathway has been reported as a key negative regulatory factor of autophagy (Heras-Sandoval et al. [2014](#page-9-18)). However, there are many other downstream targets of Akt, such as FOXO3 (Dong et al. [2018;](#page-8-5) Lee et al. [2019](#page-9-19)). FOXO3 is a member of Forkhead box class O transcription factors, which participates in regulating various biological activities including cell metabolism, diferentiation, and apoptosis (Caballero-Caballero et al. [2013](#page-8-6)). Inactive FOXO3 exists in the cytoplasm and rapidly translocates into the nucleus after dephosphorylation, where it can regulate the gene transcription that involves in the cell cycle, diferentiation, and metabolism (Burgering and Kops [2002;](#page-8-7) Greer and Brunet [2005](#page-9-20)). FoxOs is expressed in all mammalian embryonic tissues, among which FOXO3 expression gradually increased in brain tissues from E10.5 day (Qian et al. [2000\)](#page-9-21), and fnally widely distributed in adult brain (Furuyama et al. [2000;](#page-9-22) Hoekman et al. [2006](#page-9-23)). Lack of FOXO activity in vivo is characterized by an increase in brain volume, and constitutive activation of FOXO3 results in a decrease in brain size in developing murine (Schmidt-Strassburger et al. [2012](#page-9-24)).

FOXO transcription factors are known as autophagy regulators (Sengupta et al. [2009](#page-9-25); van der Vos et al. [2012](#page-9-26); Filomeni et al. [2015\)](#page-8-8). FOXO3 is a transcriptional activator of autophagy-related genes in different cell types and sufficient for the induction of diferentiation in vivo (Webb and Brunet [2014\)](#page-9-27). As expected, FOXO3 is activated after 3.5% sevoflurane exposure. In addition to autophagy, FOXO3 promotes cell diferentiation, cell cycle arrest, stress resistance, and apoptosis. FOXO3 was shown to regulate the homeostasis and self-renewal of hematopoietic stem cells (Miyamoto et al. [2007](#page-9-28)) and NSCs (Paik et al. [2009](#page-9-29); Renault et al. [2009](#page-9-3)). In addition, the expression of FOXO3 has been demonstrated to be upregulated when iPS cells diferentiate into neuronal lineages (Wang et al. [2013\)](#page-9-10). The ability of NSCs isolated from foxo3a-null mice to produce diferent nerve lineages was impaired (Yalcin et al. [2010\)](#page-9-30). In conclusion, these results suggest that FOXO3 is important for diferentiation. In the current study, we found that autophagy inhibition could protect NSC from sevofurane-induced diferentiation, and we propose that neuroprotective efect might be related to FOXO3 inhibition, which regulates autophagy as a mechanism for sevofurane-induced NSC diferentiation.

Our previous study showed that lithium chloride pretreatment had a beneficial effect on NSC proliferation, and could ameliorate the decline of NSCs and impairments of learning and memory performance (Wang et al. [2018](#page-9-2)). Lithium was demonstrated to regulate autophagy negatively. For instance, lithium has been reported to reduce autophagy in neonates after hypoxic ischemia, possibly by increasing the activity of mTOR (Li et al. [2010\)](#page-9-31). More importantly, a study by Mao et al. revealed that lithium signifcantly reduced the transcription and activity level of FOXO3 (Mao et al. [2007](#page-9-9)). In the current study, results showed that lithium chloride pretreatment played the role of inhibiting FOXO3 transcription, subsequent autophagy and improper NSC diferentiation. Neuroprotective efects of lithium in sevofurane anesthesia during the mid-trimester may be mediated by mechanisms above.

#### **Strengths and Limitations**

Our study represents the robust examination of the efects of sevoflurane on the fetus in the mid-trimester. This study provided a highly extensive examination of NSC diferentiation after sevofurane exposure. The major fnding of the study is that maternal sevofurane exposure induced improper NSC diferentiation via FOXO3 with a novel fnding that autophagy is associated with it.

Our study still has a few limitations. In the previous study, we performed blood gas analysis on pregnant rats at the end of sevofurane exposure, and remarkable hypoxia or hypercarbia was not detected. Thus no physiological index monitoring was conducted. Furthermore, we did not determine the long-term and dose-dependent efects of lithium chloride on neurodevelopment. Since lithium chloride has not been widely used in clinical practice, more studies are needed to clarify the mechanism of sevofurane neurotoxicity and to fnd clinically feasible prevention and treatment methods.

# **Conclusion**

Collectively, the study demonstrated that 3.5% sevofurane anesthesia in the mid-trimester induced improper NSC differentiation via FOXO3 activation. Autophagy inhibition

with 3-MA or lithium chloride could alleviate autophagy activation, as well as suppress both the diferentiation markers and FOXO3 expression. The results above provide strong evidence to speculate that targeting autophagy might be vital to preventing sevofurane-induced neurotoxicity and developing novel treatment strategies to alleviate anesthesiarelated neurotoxicity.

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**Author Contributions** XL: study conception and design, experimental operation, data analysis, and writing-original draft. XJ: experimental operation and data collection. QG: writing-reviewing and editing. PZ: supervision and guidance.

### **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

**Conflict of interest** No author claims competing interests or relationships with other people or organizations that could inappropriately infuence this work.

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