Prostacyclin Produced by the Pregnant Uterus in the Dog May Act as a Circulating Vasodepressor Substance

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ABSTRACT Uterine production of PGI₂ (prostacyclin) was quantitated in late pregnant dogs to evaluate if PGI₂ could act as a circulating vasodepressor substance in pregnancy. In five anesthetized, laparatomized dogs, the uterine venous plasma concentration of 6-keto PGF₁ɑ (the in vitro hydrolysis product of PGI₂) was 6.7±1.9 ng/ml and the arterial plasma concentration was 2.6±0.8 ng/ml. In four nonpregnant female dogs, the arterial plasma concentration of 6-keto PGF₁ɑ was consistently below 0.2 ng/ml. In eight pregnant dogs we also evaluated the ability of the pregnant uterus to inactivate PGI₂ by comparing the hypotensive response to increasing doses of PGI₂ infused into the uterine artery to the hypotensive response to increasing doses of PGI₂ infused into the inferior vena cava. In addition, the effect of PGI₂ infused into the uterine artery on uterine blood flow and intraamniotic fluid pressure was evaluated. The dose-response curves of intrauterine and intravenous PGI₂ in causing systemic hypotension were identical suggesting that the pregnant uterus does not inactivate infused PGI₂. Intrauterine PGI₂ had no consistent effect on uterine hemodynamics although it did increase intraamniotic fluid pressure significantly. These data demonstrate that the pregnant uterus has the capacity to produce large quantities of PGI₂ which is not inactivated in the uterus and therefore can appear in the arterial blood to exert a systemic vasodepressor effect.

INTRODUCTION

Despite salt and water retention and a large increase in cardiac output, pregnancy is associated with a slight decrease in mean arterial pressure (1). This decrease in arterial pressure is secondary to an even larger decrease in total peripheral vascular resistance. The mediator of the decreased peripheral vascular resistance is not known, but prostaglandins have been implicated to play a role in this effect. We have recently reported that the late pregnant uterus in the dog is capable of synthesizing large amounts of prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) which is a potent vasodepressor agent (2). Even though the uterine venous levels of PGE₂ were in the nanogram per milliliter range, the arterial PGE₂ levels were too low to detect. Because of the large capacity of the lungs to metabolize PGE₂, it is unlikely that PGE₂ could have a systemic role in controlling blood pressure from a distant organ like the pregnant uterus. However, prostacyclin (PGI₂), unlike PGE₂, travels through the lung intact making it a good candidate for a circulating depressor hormone (3).

The present study was undertaken to evaluate the capacity of PGI₂ production by the pregnant uterus in the dog and to study the ability of the pregnant uterus to inactivate PGI₂.

METHODS

(A). Eight mongrel dogs, weighing between 16–28 kg, in late pregnancy but before labor, were anesthetized using pentobarbital, 30 mg/kg, and placed on a positive pressure respirator pump. One femoral artery and one femoral vein were catheterized for blood pressure monitoring, and drug and fluid administration, respectively. Through a low abdominal incision, the pregnant uterus was exposed and one of the uterine veins was cannulated from a smaller venous branch. The right main uterine artery was identified and a noncannulating electromagnetic flow probe was placed around the artery to measure continuously uterine blood flow via a flowmeter (Statham Instruments, Inc., Oxnard, Calif.). The uterine artery was then punctured with a curved 27-gauge needle connected to a polyethylene tube for the intrauterine infusion of PGI₁. Amniotic fluid pressure was continuously monitored on the right

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1 Abbreviations used in this paper: 6-keto PGF₁ɑ, 6-keto prostaglandin F₁ɑ; PGE₂, prostaglandin E₂; PGI₂, prostacyclin.
side through a floating catheter in the amniotic sac attached to a pressure transducer. After the surgery, we allowed ~45 min for stabilization.

In five of the animals 30 ml of uterine venous and 30 ml of arterial blood were withdrawn into plastic syringes containing 0.1 vol of 3.8% sodium citrate and 1 mM indomethacin for the analysis of the plasma for 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$, the acid hydrolysis product of PGI$_2$.

To evaluate the hemodynamic and uterine contractile effects of PGI$_1$, plus the ability of the pregnant uterus to inactivate PGI$_2$, we infused PGI$_1$ first into the uterine artery and then into the inferior vena cava at doses of 3, 10, 30, and 100 ng/kg per min. Mean arterial pressure, uterine blood flow, and intraamniotic fluid pressure were continuously monitored. Between doses of PGI$_1$, a 30-min stabilization period was introduced to allow the hemodynamic parameters to return to base line.

(B). Four nonpregnant female dogs weighing between 18–25 kg were anesthetized with 30 mg/kg pentobarbital i.v. and placed on a positive pressure respirator pump. The femoral artery and vein were catheterized as with the pregnant dogs. Through a midabdominal incision the nonpregnant uterus was identified and manipulated to a similar degree as with the eight pregnant animals in section A. The incision was then closed and the animals were allowed to stabilize for 45 min. When the animals were hemodynamically stable, 30 ml of arterial blood was collected in plastic syringes containing 0.1 vol of 3.8% sodium citrate and 1 mM indomethacin for the subsequent analysis of the plasma for the measurement of 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$.

(C). Analysis of 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$ concentration in the plasma. 500 ng of tetradeutero 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$ (a gift of Dr. John Pike, Upjohn Co., Kalamazoo, Mich.) was added to the plasma as the internal standard and 100,000 cpm of tritiated 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$ (New England Nuclear, Boston, Mass.) was added to the plasma to facilitate the isolation and purification of the prostaglandin. The prostaglandin was extracted into 3 vol of ethyl acetate after acidification of the plasma to pH 3 with 1 N HCl. The extract was initially purified over an open silica acid column and eluted with chloroform (96)/methanol (4)/acetic acid (0.1) (vol/vol/vol). The extract was further purified and separated by using two high pressure liquid chromatography steps using the fatty acid column and μPorasil columns (Waters Associates, Inc., Milford, Mass.) sequentially. The purified 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$ was then derivatized to the methoxime, trimethylsilyl derivative.

The derivatized prostaglandin was analyzed by gas chromatography-mass spectrometer under electron impact conditions (70 eV). The gas chromatography was performed with a silanized glass column containing 3% OV 101 on Gas-Chrom 120/140 (Applied Science Labs., Inc., State College, Pa.) at an oven temperature of 240–250°C. The prostaglandin was analyzed on a Finnigan 3200 quadrupole mass spectrometer using selected ion monitoring under control of a Finnigan 6100 data system (Finnigan Corp., Sunnyvale, Calif.). The ion pairs (mass/energy) 598 and 602 were monitored for estimating the ratio of D$_3$/D$_4$ 6-keto prostaglandin F$_{1\alpha}$ (6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$) in the biologic samples. The principles and details of these procedures have been recently described by Green et al. (4). The detection limit for estimating 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$ plasma concentrations using 15 ml of plasma was 200 pg/ml.

This method measures both PGI$_2$, which hydrolyzes to 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$ during the work-up of the plasma, as well as preformed 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$, which is in plasma at the time of sampling. In vivo, PGI$_2$ is thought to be metabolized predominately to 15-keto PGI$_2$ and then to 6,15 diketo PGF$_{1\alpha}$ and 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$ is probably not a major in vivo product of PGI$_2$ (5, 6).

**Measurement of 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$ in plasma, therefore, most likely reflects primarily circulating PGI$_2$.**

**Statistics.** A paired Student's t test was used to analyze the changes in uterine blood flow, uterine vascular resistance, intraamniotic fluid pressure, and mean arterial pressure secondary to intrauterine PGI$_2$ infusion. An unpaired Student's t test was used to compare the hypertensive effect of intrauterine PGI$_2$ infusion to intravenous PGI$_2$ infusion. A P value of <0.05 was considered significant.

**RESULTS**

In the five pregnant dogs, the mean uterine vein and arterial plasma concentrations of 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$ were 6.68±1.92 and 2.62±0.85 ng/ml, respectively. In the nonpregnant female dogs, the arterial plasma concentrations of 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$ were below the detection limit of our assay in all four of the animals (<200 pg/ml) (Table I).

Infusion of increasing concentrations of PGI$_2$ resulted in a progressive decrease in mean arterial pressure. There was no difference in the hypertensive response to PGI$_2$ whether the prostaglandin was infused intravenously or into the pregnant uterus (Fig. 1). This suggests that very little if any of the PGI$_2$ traveling through the uterus is metabolized to inactive compounds. Since PGI$_2$ is not inactivated by the lungs, PGI$_2$ produced by the pregnant uterus would be expected to travel to the systemic circulation intact. Our data showing high uterine venous as well as arterial plasma 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$ concentrations are consistent with the lack of the lung metabolism of PGI$_2$. Although the metabolism of intrauterine-generated PGI$_2$ may be different than the metabolism of infused PGI$_2$, this difference has not been demonstrated for either PGI$_2$ or other prostaglandins. Using the above infusion technique we have previously shown that the liver is the major organ to inactivate PGI$_2$ (3).

The local hemodynamic effects of intrauterine infusion of PGI$_2$ were variable. Neither uterine blood flow

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**TABLE I**

**Arterial and Uterine Venous Concentrations of 6-keto PGF$_{1\alpha}$ in Pregnant and Nonpregnant Dogs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pregnant</th>
<th>Nonpregnant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arterial</td>
<td>Uterine vein</td>
<td>Arterial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ng/ml</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>9.26</td>
<td>&lt;0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>&lt;0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>11.77</td>
<td>&lt;0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>&lt;0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>7.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.62±0.85</td>
<td>6.68±1.92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIGURE 1 The systemic hypotensive effect of intrauterine and intravenous infusion of PGI₂. The abscissa represents increasing infusion rate of PGI₂ and the ordinate represents the percent decrease in mean arterial pressure from the control.

nor uterine vascular resistance were significantly altered when the intrauterine infusion of PGI₂ reached a steady state. In all of the animals, however, we could observe a transient increase in uterine blood flow at the start of the PGI₂ infusion, but by 3 min these changes were not significant. This is in contrast to the effects of PGI₂ on other vascular beds where the increases in organ blood flows were maintained for the duration of the PGI₂ infusion (7, 8). The hypotensive effect of the higher doses of PGI₂ was maintained for the duration of the PGI₂ infusion suggesting that the vascular resistance in organs other than the uterus remained below control levels.

The two highest doses of intrauterine PGI₂ infusion significantly increased intraamniotic fluid pressure, suggesting a contractile effect of the prostaglandin on the pregnant myometrium (Table II). Whether this was a direct effect of PGI₂ or an indirect effect as a consequence of systemic hypotension was not elucidated. Since increased intrauterine pressure is associated with an increase in uterine vascular resistance (9), it is possible that the true vascular dilatory effect of PGI₂ was camouflaged by the increase in uterine vascular resistance as a consequence of the increased intrauterine pressure. This dynamic relationship between uterine blood flow and intrauterine pressure was well demonstrated in one of the dogs, where the intrauterine infusion of 100 ng/kg per min of PGI₂ caused a transient increase in blood flow followed by a marked decrease coincident with a large increase in intraamniotic fluid pressure (Fig. 2).

DISCUSSION

The role that prostaglandins play during pregnancy is unclear. Prostaglandins are thought to be important in maintaining a patent ductus in the fetus (10), in initiating labor (11), and maintaining some uterine myo-

**TABLE II**

Hemodynamic Effects of Intrauterine PGI₂ Infusion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ng/kg/min</th>
<th>ml/min</th>
<th>mm Hg/ml/min</th>
<th>mmHg</th>
<th>mmHg</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>146±27</td>
<td>1.03±0.24</td>
<td>7.7±0.7</td>
<td>112±4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>153±27</td>
<td>0.93±0.18</td>
<td>7.8±0.8</td>
<td>112±4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>150±26</td>
<td>1.00±0.23</td>
<td>7.9±0.8</td>
<td>113±5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>150±25</td>
<td>0.93±0.17</td>
<td>8.6±1.0</td>
<td>111±4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>148±24</td>
<td>1.00±0.14</td>
<td>7.9±0.6</td>
<td>112±4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>155±28</td>
<td>0.90±0.17</td>
<td>9.2±0.9*</td>
<td>103±5*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>153±25</td>
<td>0.96±0.17</td>
<td>7.9±0.6</td>
<td>116±5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>103±25*</td>
<td>0.97±0.10</td>
<td>12.7±2.1*</td>
<td>83±4*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* P < 0.05 paired t test.

**FIGURE 2** The effect of intrauterine PGI₂ infusion (100 ng/kg per min) on mean arterial pressure, intraamniotic fluid pressure, and uterine blood flow in one of the dogs that had an excessive response to PGI₂. The uterine blood flow shows a transient increase in flow followed by a sustained decrease concomitant with the large increase in intraamniotic fluid pressure. Each vertical line represents 2 min.
metrial tone (2, 12). Another possible role of prostaglandins in pregnancy is maintaining a low peripheral vascular resistance. For a prostaglandin to fit the role of a systemic vasodilator in pregnancy, the following criteria need to be met. The pregnant uterus has to have the capacity to make the prostaglandin, and the prostaglandin has to escape inactivation by both the uterus and the lung to appear in the arterial blood to exert an effect. We have previously demonstrated that PGE₂, a potent vasodilator, was produced by the pregnant uterus of the dog. Even though the mean uterine venous level of PGE₂ was found to be 1.6 ng/ml, the arterial level of PGE₂ was consistently not detectable suggesting extensive pulmonary metabolism. Our present data demonstrate that PGI₂, measured as the acid hydrolysis product of 6-keto PGF₁α, is also produced in generous quantities by the pregnant uterus of the dog, but unlike PGE₂, recirculates to appear in the arterial blood. In addition, when PGI₂ was infused into the uterine artery, it proved to be as potent as vasodepressor agent as when it was infused intravenously, thus demonstrating that PGI₂ escaped inactivation by the pregnant uterus.

Although we were measuring 6-keto PGF₁α concentration in the plasma which is a composite of both intact PGI₂ (hydrolyzed to 6-keto PGF₁α ex vivo) and already present 6-keto PGF₁α, the uterus does not synthesize 6-keto PGF₁α but produces PGI₂, which is then nonenzymatically hydrolyzed to 6-keto PGF₁α. Thus, the uterine venous minus arterial concentration of 6-keto PGF₁α most likely represents net PGI₂ synthesis. Since the half-life of PGI₂ dissolved in blood is 3 min (13), and the lung does not metabolize PGI₂, a significant portion of the uterine synthesized PGI₂ could reach the arterial circulation unchanged. The reports that angiotensin II stimulation of PGI₂ synthesis in the canine lung (14) and kidney (15) results in a platelet effect also strongly argues in favor of PGI₂ being released intact from organs.

The hypothesis that PGI₂ may be an important circulating vasodepressor hormone in pregnancy is attractive from several viewpoints. Pregnancy is associated with a decline in blood pressure and peripheral vascular resistance, the mechanism of which is unclear. Indeed the mean blood pressure in our anesthetized, pregnant dogs was significantly lower than in the four anesthetized, nonpregnant controls (112±4 vs. 141±9 mm Hg; P < 0.05, unpaired t test). The possibility that circulating PGI₂ is partially responsible for the decrease in peripheral vascular resistance in pregnancy gains substance from our data. In addition, pregnancy is associated with elevated plasma renin activity and vascular angiotensin resistance (16). This vascular insensitivity to angiotensin is analogous to that seen in Bartter’s syndrome, where prostaglandin inhibition can ameliorate the vascular defects of the syndrome (17). Thus, it is conceivable that the high concentration of circulating PGI₂ is responsible for both the elevated plasma renin activity as well as angiotensin insensitivity in pregnancy.

The actual amount of PGI₂ secreted by the pregnant uterus in the unanesthetized, uninstrumented dog could be several fold less than in the anesthetized and laparotomized animal. Both the stress of anesthesia and laparotomy has been shown to increase prostaglandin production by the kidney (18). Nonetheless, in the four nonpregnant dogs that also underwent anesthesia and laparotomy the arterial plasma concentrations of 6-keto PGF₁α were below the sensitivity of our assay suggesting that indeed the capacity of the pregnant uterus to make PGI₂ must be very high and that anesthesia, per se, cannot explain our results.

We can conclude from our data that PGI₂, measured as 6-keto PGF₁α, is produced by the pregnant uterus in the dog and that the arterial concentration of 6-keto PGF₁α in pregnant animals is elevated above that of the nonpregnant dogs. In addition, although the pregnant uterus makes PGI₂, probably does not play any role in inactivating it. Thus, uterine PGI₂ is a likely mediator to contribute to the lowered systemic vascular resistance in pregnancy.

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REFERENCES