

Lipopolysaccharide and tumor necrosis factor-alpha alter gene expression of oocytes and cumulus cells during bovine in vitro maturation

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¹⁷ ABSTRACT

¹⁸ Communication between the oocyte and cumulus facilitates oocyte growth, cell cycle regulation
¹⁹ and metabolism. This communication is mediated by direct contact between oocytes and
²⁰ cumulus cells, and soluble secreted molecules. Secreted molecules involved in this process are
²¹ known inflammatory mediators. Accumulation of inflammatory mediators in follicular fluid,
²² including tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF α), is associated with female infertility, whereas
²³ lipopolysaccharide is detected in follicular fluid and is associated with reduced fertility.
²⁴ Maturation of oocytes in the presence of lipopolysaccharide or TNF α reduces meiotic maturation
²⁵ and the capacity to develop to the blastocyst. Here we evaluated the abundance of 92 candidate
²⁶ genes involved immune function, epigenetic modifications, embryo development, oocyte
²⁷ secreted factors, apoptosis, cell cycle and cell signaling in bovine cumulus cells or zona-free
²⁸ oocytes after exposure to lipopolysaccharide or TNF α during in vitro maturation. We
²⁹ hypothesize that lipopolysaccharide or TNF α will alter the abundance of transcripts in oocytes
³⁰ and cumulus cell in a cell type dependent manner. Exposure to lipopolysaccharide altered
³¹ abundance of 31 transcripts in oocytes (including ACVR1V, BMP15, DNMT3A) and 12
³² transcripts in cumulus cells (including AREG, FGF4, PIK3IP1). Exposure to TNF α altered 1
³³ transcript in oocytes (IGF2) and 4 transcripts in cumulus cells (GJA1, PLD2, PTGER4, STAT1).
³⁴ Cumulus expansion was reduced after exposure to lipopolysaccharide or TNF α . Exposing COCs
³⁵ to lipopolysaccharide had a marked effect on expression of targeted transcripts in oocytes. We
³⁶ propose that altered oocyte transcript abundance is associated with reduced meiotic maturation
³⁷ and embryo development observed in oocytes cultured in lipopolysaccharide or TNF α .

³⁸ Keywords: gene expression, inflammation, oocyte competence.

³⁹

40 INTRODUCTION

41 Although the sperm cell and the oocyte contribute equally to the genetic material of the newly
42 formed embryo, the necessary molecular and organelle machinery for growth and regulation of
43 early embryonic development are established during oocyte maturation (Coticchio et al., 2015).
44 Oocyte growth involves the increase of cell mass, proliferation of organelles, accumulation of
45 maternal transcripts and translational products that are required after fertilization, prior to
46 activation of the embryonic genome (Li, Zheng, & Dean, 2010; Moussa, Shu, Zhang, & Zeng,
47 2015; Sirard et al., 1989; Sirard, Richard, Blondin, & Robert, 2006). Additionally, oocyte
48 maturation requires changes to oocyte chromatin, repositioning of organelles, and facilitating
49 meiotic resumption in response to the LH surge (Coticchio et al., 2015). Although infections
50 cause infertility, little is known about how exposure of oocytes and cumulus cells to pathogen
51 molecules alters their molecular signature, including exposure to lipopolysaccharide (LPS) or
52 pro-inflammatory mediators such as tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF α).

53 The follicular environment is critical to the developmental competence of the growing oocyte.
54 Oocyte growth and maturation depends on close communication between the oocyte and the
55 surrounding cumulus granulosa cells. Transzonal projections (TZPs) play an important role in
56 facilitating oocyte and cumulus cell communication by direct cell to cell contact prior to
57 retraction at the time of the LH surge (Albertini, Combelles, Benecchi, & Carabatsos, 2001),
58 whereas oocyte secreted factors act to modify cumulus cell function (Albertini et al., 2001;
59 Matzuk, Burns, Viveiros, & Eppig, 2002; McGinnis, Limback, & Albertini, 2013). The
60 interaction between the oocyte and surrounding cumulus cells is bidirectional; the cumulus cells
61 respond to oocyte signals and the follicular environment to supply the oocyte with essential

62 molecules for proper metabolism and regulation of meiotic maturation (Eppig, Freter, Ward
63 Bailey, & Schultz, 1983; Gilchrist, Ritter, & Armstrong, 2004; Su et al., 2008).

64 A large part of the communication between oocytes and cumulus cells is conveyed by molecules
65 that are also known for their role as immune mediators. Oocyte secreted factors act on the
66 granulosa cells to control proliferation, development and expansion (Matzuk et al., 2002).
67 Subsequently, cumulus cells mediate oocyte development by regulating availability of
68 metabolites and signaling factors (Eppig, 1991; Sugiura & Eppig, 2005). In parallel, Toll-like
69 receptors (TLRs) are involved in the immune response to pathogens, and when activated by
70 bacterial LPS increase expression of cytokines such as interleukin (IL)-1 β , IL-6, IL-8 and TNF α .
71 Granulosa cells of hens, pigs, cows, mice and humans express TLRs and respond to bacterial
72 LPS to increase expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines (Alvarez et al., 2006; Bromfield &
73 Sheldon, 2011; Ibrahim, Kramer, Williams, & Bromfield, 2016; Price, Bromfield, & Sheldon,
74 2013). Uterine infections are common in cows, and subsequently LPS accumulates in follicular
75 fluid, altering the microenvironment of oocyte development (Herath et al., 2007; Piersanti et al.,
76 2019). In vitro maturation (IVM) of bovine cumulus-oocyte complexes (COCs) in the presence
77 of LPS increases failure of the meiotic cell cycle (Bromfield & Sheldon, 2011; Zhao et al.,
78 2017), and subsequently decreases blastocyst development (Soto, Natzke, & Hansen, 2003b).
79 Similarly in human in vitro production (IVP) of embryos, the presence of LPS culture medium
80 reduces clinical pregnancy (Fishel, Jackson, Webster, & Faratian, 1988; Nagata & Shirakawa,
81 1996; Snyman & Van der Merwe, 1986). Interestingly, cumulus cells utilize endogenous ligands
82 to TLR-4 to aid in final maturation of the oocyte and cumulus expansion (Shimada et al., 2008).
83 Hyaluronic acid is a major component of the expanded COC that activates TLR-4 signaling to
84 induce expression of IL-6 which acts as an autocrine regulator of cumulus cell function (Liu et

85 al., 2009; Liu, Shimada, & Richards, 2008). The proinflammatory mediator, TNF α , is
86 upregulated in response to pathogenic components via TLR-4 signaling (Fock, Vinolo, de Moura
87 Sa Rocha, de Sa Rocha, & Borelli, 2007). Infusion of TNF α into the ovarian bursa in rats inhibits
88 ovulation (Yamamoto et al., 2015), and presence of TNF α during IVM increases meiotic failure
89 in swine (Ma et al., 2010) and decreases blastocyst development in the cow (Soto, Natzke, &
90 Hansen, 2003a). Elevated follicular fluid TNF α is associated with decreased oocyte quality in
91 women undergoing IVP (Lee et al., 2000), and patients with polycystic ovarian syndrome
92 (PCOS) have elevated follicular fluid TNF α concentrations compared with women not affected
93 by PCOS (Amato et al., 2003).

94 Here we asked how LPS or TNF α exposure during IVM of bovine COCs affected specific
95 mRNA abundance in oocytes and cumulus cells. We targeted the expression of genes involved in
96 immune function, epigenetic modifications, embryo development, oocyte secreted factors,
97 apoptosis, cell cycle and cell signaling. We hypothesized that exposure of COCs to
98 lipopolysaccharide or TNF α during IVM alters the abundance of transcripts in oocytes and
99 cumulus cell in a cell type dependent manner. These findings may aid in our understanding of

100 how LPS or TNF α reduces the competence of oocytes to develop to the blastocyst.

101

102 MATERIALS AND METHODS

103 Cumulus Oocyte Complex Isolation and In Vitro Maturation

104 Ovaries were collected at a local abattoir and transported to the laboratory at 23°C in 0.9% saline
105 solution containing 100 IU/mL penicillin and 100 μ g/mL streptomycin (Caisson Labs,
106 Smithfield, UT). Ovaries were processed within 4 h of collection, and COCs were collected by

107 bisecting 3 to 8 mm follicles using a sterile scalpel blade and vigorously washing the ovary in
108 oocyte collection medium (BoviPRO, MOFA Global, Verona, WI). The medium containing
109 COCs and cells was then passed through a 100 μ m filter (Corning Falcon, Tewksbury, MA) to
110 collect the COCs, which were retrieved using a wiretrol pipette (Drummond Scientific Company,
111 Broomall, PA) under a dissecting stereo microscope. An average of 10 to 15 COCs, having at
112 least three layers of cumulus cells and an oocyte containing a homogeneous cytoplasm, were
113 collected from each ovary and COCs from all ovaries were pooled as a single replicate. The
114 COCs were washed three times in oocyte collection medium and groups of 10 to 15 COCs were
115 matured in organ culture dishes (Corning Falcon) for 22 to 24 h in 1 mL of oocyte maturation
116 medium (Medium 199, 0.25 mM pyruvate, 10% fetal calf serum, 2 μ g/mL estradiol, 1%
117 insulin/transferrin/sodium selenite solution, 50 IU/mL penicillin, 50 μ g/mL streptomycin, and
118 0.4 mM L-glutamine [all Fisher Scientific, Hampton NH] and 20 μ g/mL FSH [as Folltropin-V,
119 Reproduction Resources, Walworth WI]) as previously described (Bromfield & Sheldon, 2011).
120 Oocyte maturation was performed in humidified air containing 5% CO₂ at 38.5°C, in control
121 oocyte maturation medium, or medium containing 1, 10, 100, 1000 or 10,000 ng/mL ultrapure
122 LPS from *E. coli* 0111:B4 (InvivoGen, San Diego, CA), or 1, 10 or 100 ng/mL recombinant
123 bovine TNF. (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN). Every treatment replicate of COCs with either
124 LPS or TNF. was always carried out with a corresponding vehicle control treatment.
125 Following maturation, the COCs were washed three times in fresh Dulbecco's phosphate
126 buffered saline (DPBS, Fisher Scientific) containing 0.1% polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP; Kodak,
127 Rochester, NY). The COCs were examined and considered fully expanded when all cumulus
128 layers had progressed away from the oocyte. Cumulus cells were removed from oocytes using
129 1000 U/mL of hyaluronidase in HEPES-TALP. The zona pellucida of denuded oocytes were

130 removed with 0.1% protease from *Streptococcus griseus* (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) in
131 DPBS, and zona-free oocytes were washed three times in fresh DPBS-PVP. Cumulus cells were
132 obtained by centrifugation of the hyaluronidase medium following removal of denuded oocytes.
133 Zona-free oocytes from a single replicate were pooled together for analysis, as were all cumulus
134 cells from a single replicate. Pooled zona-free oocytes and pooled cumulus cell were separately
135 suspended in 350 μ L RLT buffer and stored at -80.C.

136 Each treatment was performed in 4 to 6 replicates per treatment. A replicate was defined as a
137 single IVM procedure containing one dish per treatment. A total of 542 COCs were subjected to
138 IVM in the presence of LPS, 378 in the presence of TNF. and 194 in control medium.

139

140 Multiplex Fluidigm Analysis of Oocyte and Cumulus Cell Gene Expression

141 Zona-free oocyte and cumulus cell RNA extraction was performed independently using the
142 RNeasy Micro kit with DNase treatment (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

143 The Fluidigm qPCR microfluidic device Biomark HD system (Fluidigm Co., San Francisco, CA)
144 was used for gene expression assays at the University of Miami Miller School Of Medicine,
145 Center for AIDS Research (CFAR). Primers were designed by Fluidigm Delta Gene assays
146 (Fluidigm). Primer validation was performed using cDNA obtained from bovine oocytes,
147 endometrium, peripheral white blood cells, granulosa cells and ovarian cortex. All primers
148 (Supplemental Table 1) were validated using the Fluidigm primer quality control criteria applied
149 to serially diluted test cDNA: $r^2 = 0.97$, efficiency of 80% to 130%.

150 A total of 96 primers for Fluidigm analysis (Supplemental Table 1 and 2) were validated for 4
151 housekeeping genes, 6 oocyte specific genes, 29 genes involved in cell growth and proliferation,
152 10 genes involved in the regulation of cell cycle, 19 genes related to immune response, 9 genes
153 involved in control of gene expression and DNA modifications, 7 genes associated to apoptosis
154 and cell death, and 12 other genes of interest.

155 Target specific pre-amplification after reverse transcription (RT-STA) was performed on all
156 samples using the Preamp and Reverse Transcription Master Mix (Fluidigm) for 20 cycles. The
157 procedure for real-time RT-PCR using the BioMark HD system (Fluidigm) (Dominguez et al.,
158 2013) was as follows; primer sets and samples were loaded on an integrated fluidic circuit (IFC)
159 plate and placed into a controller that prepares the nano-volume reactions. Real-time RT-PCR
160 was carried out on the BioMark HD system. A total of 40 PCR cycles were performed using
161 EvaGreen (Bio-Rad, Hercules CA) chemistry on the 96.96 dynamic array IFC developed by the
162 manufacturer. Cycle threshold (Ct) values were calculated by the Fluidigm real-time PCR
163 analysis software. The cutoff for undetectable genes was set at $Ct > 29$. The geometric mean of
164 the four housekeeping genes was calculated and fold change relative to the geometric mean of
165 the housekeepers was calculated for the 92 genes of interest using the 2^{-Ct} method.

166

167 Statistical Analysis

168 SPSS ver. 20.0 (IBM, New York NY) and SAS ver. 9.4 software package (SAS Institute Inc.,
169 Cary, NC) were used for statistical analyses. Data obtained from PCR were analyzed using the
170 generalized linear model of SPSS using treatment or concentration as the fixed effect. When
171 multiple concentrations of a single treatment were used, analysis was followed by a Dunnett's
172 posthoc test comparing individual treatments to the control. Contrasts were performed grouping
173 multiple concentrations of TNFa or LPS and compared to the medium alone control, specifically

174 increasing concentrations were combined and then compared to the control. Heatmaps and
175 hierarchical clustering were generated using online ClustVis tools (Metsalu & Vilo, 2015). The
176 generalized linear mixed models procedure of SAS (GLIMMIX) was used to evaluate the effects
177 of treatment on the percent of COCs to expand. Each COC was considered as an individual
178 observation and expansion was considered as a binary variable (0 = did not expand; 1 =
179 expanded). Treatment was considered as a fixed effect and replicate was used as a random
180 effect. A P-value = 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

181

182 RESULTS

183 The abundance of 92 cellular transcripts was independently evaluated in zona-free oocytes and
184 cumulus cells following IVM for 24 h in the presence of LPS or TNF α . Heatmaps for the
185 changes in gene expression compared with control medium are presented for oocytes (Fig. 1A-B)
186 and cumulus cells (Fig. 1C-D) treated with LPS (Fig. 1A & C) or TNF α (Fig. 1B & D). The
187 heatmaps show that LPS had a greater effect on transcript expression than TNF α , and that the
188 effect of LPS and TNF α was greater for the oocytes than the cumulus cells.

189

190 Effect of LPS Exposure during IVM on Oocyte and Cumulus Cell Gene Expression

191 Collectively, a total of 31 genes in oocytes (Fig. 2 and 3), and 12 genes in cumulus cells (Fig. 4)
192 were differentially abundant (P = 0.05) at a given concentration or using contrast analysis
193 compared with those cultured in medium alone. Of the differentially abundant transcripts in
194 oocytes, 24 genes increased and 7 decreased following exposure to LPS. The majority of
195 differentially expressed genes in oocytes required contrast analysis to detect significant

196 difference from controls, with only 14 genes significantly altered at specific LPS concentrations.
197 Abundance of ACVR1B, ACVR2B, ADMA10, AY192564, BMP15, CDC42EP4, CDK1, CREM,
198 DNMT1, DNMT3A, ESRP1, H2AFX, HAS2, HDAC1, ILF3, ITPR2, MADD, NEDD4, NF2,
199 POLR2D, PTEN, S100A1, SOX2, and XIAP increased (P = 0.05) in oocytes following LPS
200 exposure compared with control (Fig. 2 and 3); whilst the abundance of H2AFZ, HPSE, INHBA,
201 MAB21L2, PLD2, POU5F1, and PRKAR2B decreased (P = 0.05) in LPS compared with control.
202 A complete list of oocyte transcript abundance can be found in Supplemental Table 3.

203 Of the differentially abundant transcripts in cumulus cells, the expressions of 6 genes increased
204 and those of another 6 genes decreased following exposure to LPS (Fig. 4). Half of the
205 differentially abundant genes in cumulus cells required contrast analysis to detect significant
206 difference from control, with only 6 genes significantly altered at specific LPS concentrations.
207 Abundance of ACKR4, ACVR2B, ADAM17, NLRP5, POU5F1 and PTGER4 increased (P = 0.05)
208 in cumulus cells following LPS exposure compared with control (Fig. 4); whilst the abundance
209 of ACTA2, AREG, FGF4, HDAC8, IL6 and PIK3IP1 decreased (P = 0.05) following LPS
210 exposure compared with control. A complete list of cumulus cell transcript abundance can be
211 found in Supplemental Table 4.

212

213 Effect of TNF α Exposure during IVM on Oocyte and Cumulus Cell Gene Expression

214 Abundance of 92 cellular transcripts were independently evaluated in zona-free oocytes and
215 cumulus cells following IVM for 24 h in the presence of 1, 10, or 100 ng/mL TNF α and
216 compared with control. A total of only 4 genes in cumulus cells (Fig. 5A-D), and 1 gene in
217 oocytes (Fig. 5E-H) were differentially abundant (P = 0.05) at a given concentration or using

218 contrast analysis compared with control. Abundance of GJA1 and PLD2 transcripts were
219 decreased ($P = 0.05$) in cumulus cells following TNF α exposure, whereas PTGER4 and STAT1
220 transcripts were increased (Fig. 5A-D). Abundance of IGF2 transcript was increased ($P = 0.05$)
221 in oocytes following exposure to 100 ng/mL of TNF α (Fig. 5G). A complete list of oocyte and
222 cumulus cell transcript abundance can be found in Supplemental Tables 5 and 6.

223

224 Effect of LPS or TNF α Exposure during IVM on Cumulus Expansion

225 Exposure of COCs to LPS during IVM had little effect on complete cumulus expansion, except
226 for an 8.3% reduction ($P < 0.05$) compared with medium alone following exposure to 1 ng/mL
227 LPS (Fig. 6A). Exposure of COCs to TNF α reduced ($P < 0.05$) complete expansion by 22.1%,
228 21.0% and 9.2% compared with medium alone after treatment with 1, 10 or 100 ng/mL,
229 respectively (Fig. 6B).

230

231 DISCUSSION

232 Previous work has demonstrated that maturation of oocytes in the presence of LPS or TNF α
233 reduces meiotic competence and development to the blastocyst (Bromfield & Sheldon, 2011; Ma
234 et al., 2010; Soto et al., 2003a, 2003b). The present experiment evaluated mRNA expression to
235 assess how oocyte and cumulus cell transcript abundance was affected by exposure to LPS or
236 TNF α . Here, we hypothesized that exposure of COCs to LPS or TNF α during IVM would alter
237 the abundance of transcripts in oocytes and cumulus cell in a cell type dependent manner which
238 may be responsible for reduce oocyte developmental competence. We observed an effect of LPS

239 exposure on oocyte and cumulus cell transcript abundance, with minimal effects of TNF α
240 exposure on the abundance of targeted genes.

241

242 Effect of LPS Treatment during IVM on Oocyte Gene Expression

243 Oocyte transcript availability is critical to bovine embryonic development prior to activation of
244 the embryonic genome at the 8-cell stage and subsequent transcription of new mRNA (Graf et
245 al., 2014). Exposure of COCs to LPS altered oocyte transcript abundance, with most transcripts
246 being increased. Although the oocyte is considered to be transcriptional inactive during
247 maturation, displaying a steady decline in transcript abundance over time, some transcripts do
248 indeed increase in abundance between the germinal vesicle and MII stage of development
249 (Reyes, Chitwood, & Ross, 2015), including those involved in oocyte maturation such as
250 CCNB1, WEE2, FBXO43, and MELK. The changes in oocyte transcript abundance observed here
251 may be associated with either increased oocyte transcription, decreased transcript degradation
252 based on transcript polyadenylation (Su et al., 2007), or transcript transport from cumulus cells
253 via transzonal projections (Macaulay et al., 2016). Exposure of COCs to LPS increased
254 abundance of oocyte genes involved in oocyte maturation and embryonic development including
255 BMP15 and SOX2 (Gilchrist, Lane, & Thompson, 2008; Masui et al., 2007). A member of the
256 TGF β superfamily, BMP-15 is a paracrine factor secreted by the oocyte that regulates cumulus
257 granulosa cell function, including proliferation. Along with GDF-9 (Dong et al., 1996; Spicer,
258 Aad, Allen, Mazerbourg, & Hsueh, 2006), another oocyte secreted factor, BMP-15 regulates
259 oocyte maturation, cumulus cell metabolism, apoptosis, and expansion (Coticchio et al., 2015;
260 Gilchrist et al., 2008; Matzuk et al., 2002). The function of SOX2 remains to be fully elucidated
261 in the bovine, but it is known to be involved in pluripotency of mouse embryonic stem cells

262 (Masui et al., 2007) and is essential for embryo development to the blastocyst stage in the rodent
263 (Pan & Schultz, 2011). Similarly, in cattle, zygotes injected with SOX2 siRNA have a decline in
264 development to the blastocyst stage (Goissis & Cibelli, 2014). However, the present experiment
265 was unable to recapitulate the work of others that have demonstrated that exposure of bovine
266 COCs to LPS reduces the proportion of oocytes to reach the blastocyst stage of development at
267 day 8 from approximately 28% to 12% (Soto et al., 2003b). As such, it may be that LPS-mediated
268 alterations in oocyte transcript abundance have more subtle effects on the embryo than
269 developmental progression, like epigenetic programming.

270 The abundance of transcripts for genes involved in transcription and epigenetic regulation were
271 affected in oocytes after exposure to LPS. Transcripts for DNMT1, DNMT3A, ILF3, H2AFX,
272 HDAC1 and POLR2D increased in oocytes after LPS exposure, whereas H2AFZ transcript was
273 depleted compared with control oocytes. Epigenetic reprogramming of the oocyte and
274 subsequent embryo is essential for embryonic development and heritable changes to the
275 epigenome (Bromfield, Messamore, & Albertini, 2008). Epigenetic programming of the newly
276 formed embryo genome and subsequent regulation of transcription include CpG DNA
277 methylation and posttranslational acetylation, phosphorylation and methylation of histones
278 (Beaujean, 2014). The process of embryonic genome activation involves the erasure and
279 settlement of epigenetic marks, as well as non-erasure and preservation of methylation in some
280 areas within the genome (Chong & Whitelaw, 2004). This process may lead to epigenetic
281 inheritance and potentially change the fate of the embryo and subsequent phenotype of the
282 offspring. The differential abundance of oocyte transcripts involved in epigenetic programming
283 identified here could potentially disrupt this process and change how the epigenome is
284 established in the developing embryo. The DNA methyltransferase DNMT1 maintains CpG

285 methylation, whereas DNMT3A facilitates de novo CpG methylation. The process of DNA
286 demethylation can either occur actively by ten-eleven translocation methylcytosine dioxygenase
287 (TET)1 and TET2 which were not evaluated here, or passively by decreasing the expression of
288 DNMT1 and DNMT3A (Hackett et al., 2013). Interestingly, both DNMT1 and DNMT3A
289 transcript expression increased in oocytes following LPS exposure, suggesting a possible
290 dysregulation of CpG demethylation during oocyte maturation. The extent of either oocyte or
291 embryo CpG methylation needs to be quantified in response to LPS exposure to determine if
292 changes in transcript abundance have any direct effect on the epigenetic status of the embryo.
293 Among other genes involved in transcription regulation, LPS exposure increased abundance of
294 oocyte POLR2D and ILF3 transcript. The gene POLR2D encodes for a subunit of RNA
295 polymerase II responsible for mRNA synthesis, suggesting LPS exposure could increase the
296 oocytes ability for gene transcription after LPS exposure. Additionally, ILF3 is a double-stranded
297 RNA binding protein that regulates gene expression and stabilizes mRNAs, further suggesting
298 that LPS mediated increased oocyte transcription. The abundance of oocyte H2AFX transcript
299 was also increased after LPS exposure, which is an H2A histone family member involved in
300 regulation of gene expression and the cellular response to DNA damage and stress (Cloutier et
301 al., 2015). Interestingly, abundance of oocyte H2AFZ was decreased following exposure to LPS.
302 H2AFZ is also a member of the H2A histone family, and depletion in mouse embryos results in a
303 failure to develop, supporting the theory that appropriate chromatin structure is crucial for
304 embryonic development (Faast et al., 2001). In addition, we observed an LPS-mediated increase
305 in transcript abundance of the histone deacetylase HDAC1, suggesting possible dysregulation of
306 histone post-translational modifications. Interestingly, it has been reported that oocytes matured
307 in the presence of LPS have reduced DNA methylation (5-mC) and histone H3 lysine 9

308 dimethylation (H3K9me₂), whereas histone H3 lysine 4 dimethylation (H3K4me₂) is increased
309 (Zhao et al., 2017). It is interesting to postulate if the altered transcripts involved in epigenetic
310 programming observed here may affect enduring epigenetic marks that could affect the phenotype
311 of subsequent offspring.

312 Exposure to LPS increased the abundance of transcripts for genes associated with apoptosis
313 (MADD, NEDD4 and XIAP) in oocytes. Neural precursor cell expressed developmentally down-
314 regulated protein 4 (NEDD4) is a ubiquitin ligase that regulates membrane channels and
315 receptors by controlling their density and availability on the cell surface (Cao et al., 2008).
316 NEDD4 null mice present delayed embryonic development and lethality due to the role of
317 NEDD4 in regulating insulin and insulin growth factor 1 (IGF-1) signaling (Cao et al., 2008).
318 MADD is involved in the propagation of TNF α pro-apoptotic signals (Schievella, Chen, Graham,
319 & Lin, 1997) and is present in human GV stage oocytes (P. Zhang et al., 2007). While increased
320 expression of MADD is critical to cancer cell survival, this is due to protein phosphorylation, and

321 it is unclear what status MADD protein exists in the embryo (Jayarama et al., 2014). X-linked
322 inhibitor of apoptosis protein (XIAP) is a protein that inhibits apoptosis and prevents cell death,
323 even in response to TNF α signaling (Duckett et al., 1998). Collectively, it is unclear if the
324 variable abundance of these apoptosis related transcripts in oocytes ultimately affects cell
325 survival in the embryo. Analysis of blastomere apoptosis in response to oocyte LPS exposure is
326 warranted to further describe any downstream effects of altered transcript abundance.

327 Exposure to LPS increased oocyte transcript abundance of genes encoding the activin receptors,
328 ACVR1B and ACVR2B. Oocyte development and follicle integrity increased in the bovine in
329 response to activin supplementation in vitro (McLaughlin, Bromfield, Albertini, & Telfer, 2010;
330 McLaughlin & Telfer, 2010). However, these data are in conflict with our proposed hypothesis
331 that LPS exposure would decrease oocyte competence, if we assume increased transcript
332 abundance of activin receptor would mediate increased activin signaling.

333

334 Effect of LPS Treatment during IVM on Cumulus Cell Gene Expression

335 Of the 12 cumulus cell transcripts altered by LPS exposure only half increased, in contrast to
336 oocyte transcript abundance in which 24 genes showed increased expression with exposure to
337 LPS. Exposure to LPS decreased the abundance of cumulus cell transcript for the actin
338 cytoskeleton gene, ACTA2, in a similar manner in which retinoic acid decreased expression in
339 cumulus cells of the camel while simultaneously promoting maturation of oocytes (Saadeldin et
340 al., 2019). Fibroblast growth factor-4 is involved in cell proliferation and developmental
341 processes, and here transcript abundance of FGF4 decreased in cumulus cells following LPS
342 exposure. It is unclear the exact role cumulus FGF signaling has on oocyte development, but
343 inhibition of FGF receptor signaling decreases subsequent embryo development (K. Zhang &
344 Ealy, 2012). Cumulus cell expression of Pik3ip1, a negative regulator of PI3K, is lower in
345 cumulus cells of small antral follicles compared to large antral follicles of the mouse
346 (Wigglesworth, Lee, Emori, Sugiura, & Eppig, 2015). Interestingly, we observed a decreased
347 PIK3IP1 transcript abundance in cumulus cells following exposure to LPS, suggesting a
348 developmental perturbation in these cells. Abundance of cumulus POU5F1 transcript increased
349 following exposure to LPS, which encodes the OCT-4 transcription factor that regulates
350 pluripotency of the embryo (Masui et al., 2007; Niwa, Miyazaki, & Smith, 2000). The transcript
351 for the prostaglandin E2 receptor, PTGER4, has been previously reported to be expressed in
352 bovine cumulus cells (Nuttinck et al., 2011), and its abundance increased in response to LPS
353 exposure. Indeed, prostaglandin E2 signaling is vital to meiotic progression, cumulus expansion
354 and embryonic development (Nuttinck et al., 2011), and inhibition of this signaling system
355 results in failure of these various cellular progressions. Finally, we hypothesized that the
356 abundance of cumulus cell IL6 transcript would be increased in response to LPS; however, the
357 data suggests that only a mild expression of IL6 transcript was present in cumulus cells and that
358 statistically this expression was decreased in response to LPS. We view this particular result with
359 some skepticism as the data appears skewed due to a single high abundance outlier in the control
360 samples. We have previously demonstrated a robust IL-6 response of bovine mural granulosa
361 cells to LPS (Bromfield & Sheldon, 2011), and others have shown increased IL6 expression in
362 murine COC in response to LPS and hyaluronan (Shimada et al., 2008).

363

364 Effect of TNF α Treatment during IVM on Gene Expression of Oocytes and Cumulus Cells

365 Tumor necrosis factor- α is a potent cytokine with contradictory roles: it is involved in the
366 pro-inflammatory response and can further activate inflammation, but it can also exhibit a role in
367 controlling the extent of the immune response and inflammation (Akdis et al., 2016). Exposure
368 of COCs to TNF α increased abundance of only one gene in oocytes, IGF2. The imprinted IGF2
369 gene encodes for a growth factor important during embryo development in the bovine (Gebert et
370 al., 2006). Tribulo (Tribulo, Siqueira, Oliveira, Scheffler, & Hansen, 2018) reported that IGF2
371 expression in the bovine endometrium is maximal on the day of estrus, suggesting potential
372 effects on the oocyte, sperm or fertilization. In parallel, IVM of bovine oocytes in fatty acid-free
373 medium expressed increased IGF2 transcript abundance in both oocytes and subsequent embryos
374 compared to oocytes cultured in fatty-acid enriched maturation medium (Warzych, Wrenzycki,
375 Peippo, & Lechniak, 2007). Interestingly, microglia increased IGF2 expression to prevent TNF α
376 mediated apoptosis (Nicholas, Stevens, Wing, & Compston, 2002), which has also been reported

377 to occur in bovine embryos (Loureiro, Brad, & Hansen, 2007). It is possible that increased
378 expression of IGF2, which is known to enhance cell proliferation and survival by signaling
379 through the IGF1 and IGF2 receptors, in COCs exposed to TNF α occurred as a protective
380 mechanism to prevent cell death. Exposure to TNF α decreased cumulus cell expression of GJA1
381 and PLD2. Connexin 43 (GJA1) is a component of cellular gap junctions found in abundance in
382 granulosa-granulosa complexes (Johnson, Redmer, Reynolds, & Grazul-Bilska, 1999; Nuttinck
383 et al., 2000). These granulosa gap junction complexes are fundamental for the developing oocyte
384 in the avascular follicular environment, and mediate signal and metabolite transmission from the
385 follicular fluid and granulosa to the growing oocyte (Albertini et al., 2001). Conversely, oocytes
386 exposed to TNF α increased PTGER4 expression in cumulus cells in a similar fashion to exposure
387 to LPS, as observed in this experiment. Interestingly, STAT1 expression increased in cumulus
388 cells after exposure to TNF α which is involved in TNF α induced apoptosis signal transduction
389 (Jiang et al., 2017), and may be involved in mediating cumulus cell apoptosis here, but this
390 remains to be evaluated.

391

392 Speculations for LPS or TNF α Effects on Postnatal Development

393 Previous data suggest that exposure of COCs to either LPS or TNF α reduces progression to the
394 blastocyst stage of development by 16 or 8 percentage points, respectively (Soto et al., 2003a,
395 2003b). Our work here and by others have demonstrated alterations in the machinery and status
396 of the epigenome of the oocyte following exposure to LPS (Zhao et al., 2017). We hope that
397 future experimentation will be able to evaluate the epigenetics and phenotype of cattle conceived
398 following oocyte exposures. Indeed, moderate maternal protein restriction in mice for 3.5 days
399 prior to conception significantly altered phenotype of offspring to 1 year of age (Watkins, Lucas,

400 Wilkins, Cagampang, & Fleming, 2011). Previous reports suggest that the presence of serum in
401 maturation medium could reduce embryo development rates (Del Collado et al., 2015; Sagirkaya
402 et al.), as such it will be important to consider serum alternatives in future work. Phenotypic data
403 from offspring conceived by dams with uterine infections may aid in elucidating long-term
404 effects of oocyte exposure to LPS or TNF α . Alternatively, negative effects of LPS or TNF α on
405 the oocyte may be resolved during embryo growth due to the plasticity of the early developing
406 embryo and consequently have little to no impact to the resultant offspring.

407

408 Conclusions

409 We examined changes in transcript abundance in oocytes and cumulus cells when COCs were
410 matured in the presence of LPS or TNF α . The results provide evidence that LPS had a greater
411 effect on transcript abundance than TNF α , and the largest effect was that of LPS on oocyte
412 transcripts. We assume that alterations to the abundance of maternal transcripts present in the
413 oocyte will have some impact on pregnancy success or subsequent offspring phenotype. Further
414 experimentation is required to define alterations to embryonic epigenetic programming, fetal
415 development and offspring phenotype. These data highlight a need to understand the impact of
416 bacterial components and inflammatory mediators on reproductive success in species where
417 infection could have negative implications on reproductive performance.

418

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428

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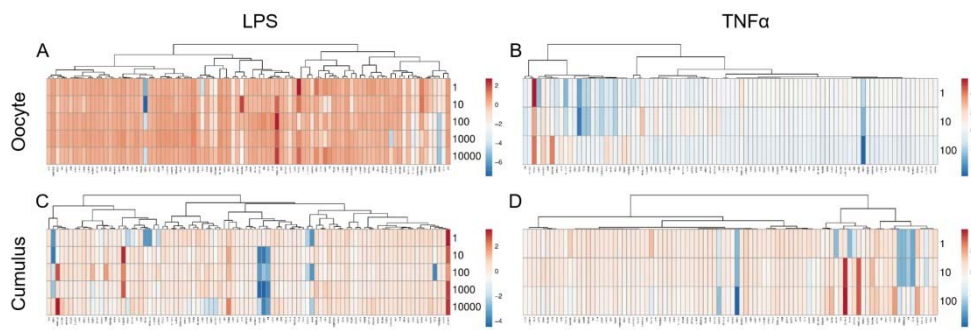
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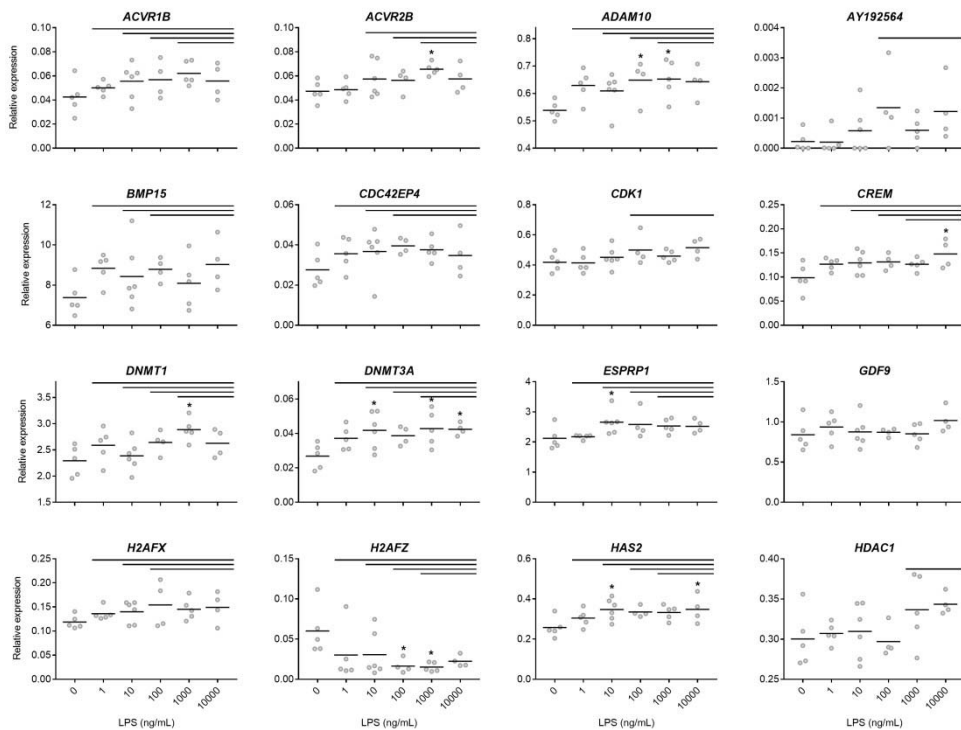
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674 FIGURES



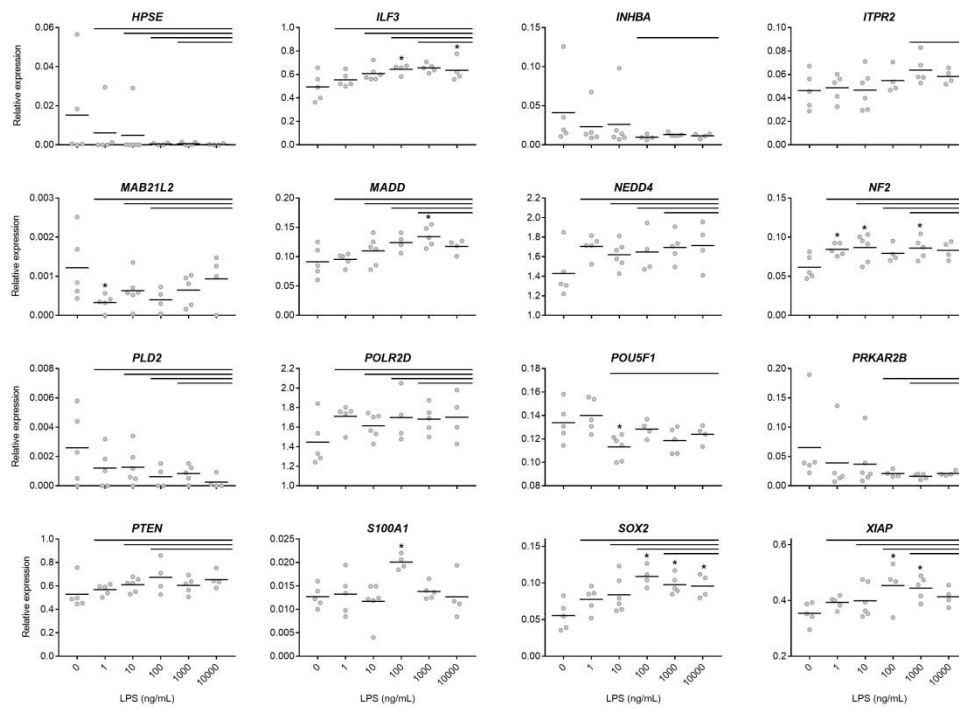
675 Figure 1. Comparative effect of LPS or TNF exposure during IVM on gene expression.
676 Cumulus oocyte complexes were cultured in the presence of ultrapure LPS (A, C; ng/mL), or
677 recombinant bovine TNFα (C, D; ng/mL) for 24 h. Expression of 92 genes was evaluated in
678 oocytes (A-B) and cumulus cells (C-D) independently. Heatmaps were generated using the log₂
679 fold change of each gene compared with control cultures.

680

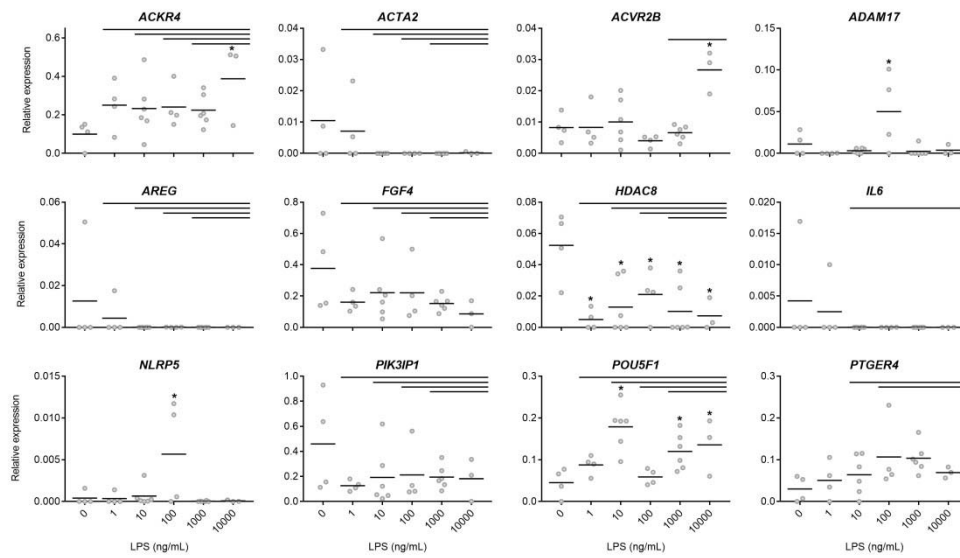


681 Figure 2. Effect of LPS during IVM on oocyte gene expression. Cumulus oocyte complexes
 682 were cultured in the presence of 1, 10, 100, 1000 or 10000 ng/mL of ultrapure LPS or control
 683 medium alone for 24 h. Zona free oocytes were subjected to gene expression analysis. Data are

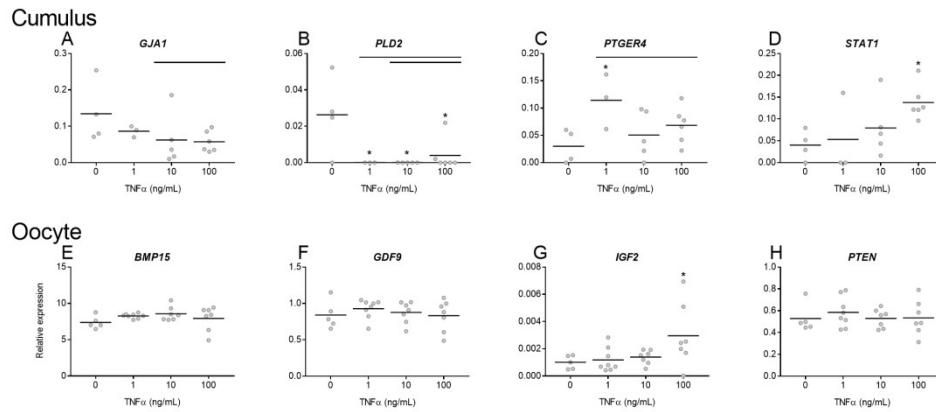
684 presented as relative expression to the arithmetic mean of housekeeping genes (SDHA, GAPDH,
 685 ACTB and YWHAZ). Each replicate is represented by a single circle, the mean for each treatment
 686 is represented by the horizontal line. Data were analyzed by generalized linear model followed
 687 by a Dunnett's posthoc test comparing individual treatments with the control. Contrasts were
 688 performed grouping multiple concentrations of LPS and compared with the control. Significant
 689 ($P = 0.05$) contrasts are indicated by the horizontal lines above the combined concentrations. *
 690 indicates a significant effect for the specific dose of LPS ($P = 0.05$) compared with the control.



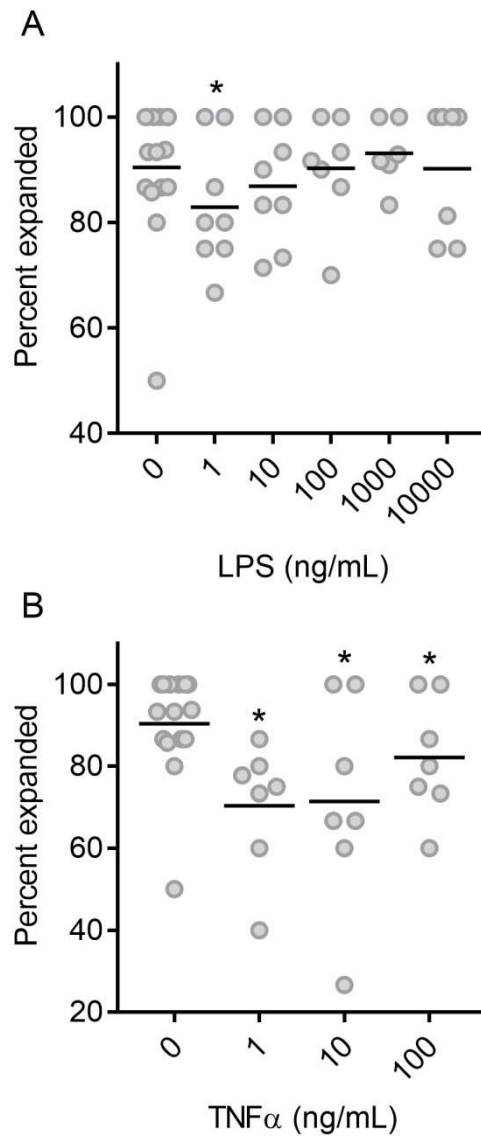
692 Figure 3. Effect of LPS during IVM on oocyte gene expression. Cumulus oocyte complexes
 693 were cultured in the presence of 1, 10, 100, 1000 or 10000 ng/mL of ultrapure LPS or control
 694 medium alone for 24 h. Zona free oocytes were subjected to gene expression analysis. Data are
 695 presented as relative expression to the arithmetic mean of housekeeping genes (SDHA, GAPDH,
 696 ACTB and YWHAZ). Each replicate is represented by a single circle, the mean for each treatment
 697 is represented by the horizontal line. Data were analyzed by generalized linear model followed
 698 by a Dunnett's posthoc test comparing individual treatments with the control. Contrasts were
 699 performed grouping multiple concentrations of LPS and compared with control. Significant ($P =$
 700 0.05) contrasts are indicated by the horizontal lines above the combined concentrations. *
 701 indicates a significant effect for the specific dose of LPS ($P = 0.05$) compared with the control.



703 Figure 4. Effect of LPS during IVM on cumulus cell gene expression. Cumulus oocyte
 704 complexes were cultured in the presence of 1, 10, 100, 1000 or 10000 ng/mL of ultrapure LPS or
 705 control medium alone for 24 h. Cumulus cells were subjected to gene expression analysis. Data
 706 are presented as relative expression to the arithmetic mean of housekeeping genes (SDHA,
 707 GAPDH, ACTB and YWHAZ). Each replicate is represented by a single circle, the mean for each
 708 treatment is represented by the horizontal line. Data were analyzed by generalized linear model
 709 followed by a Dunnett's posthoc test comparing individual treatments with the control. Contrasts
 710 were performed grouping multiple concentrations of LPS and compared with the control.
 711 Significant ($P = 0.05$) contrasts are indicated by the horizontal lines above the combined
 712 concentrations. * indicates a significant effect for the specific dose of LPS ($P = 0.05$) compared
 713 with the control.



715 Figure 5. Effect of TNF α during IVM on oocyte or cumulus cell gene expression. Cumulus
 716 oocyte complexes were cultured in the presence of 1, 10, or 100 ng/mL of recombinant bovine
 717 TNF α or control medium alone for 24 h. Cumulus cells (A-D) and zona free oocytes (E-H) were
 718 subjected to gene expression analysis. Data are presented as relative expression to the arithmetic
 719 mean of housekeeping genes (SDHA, GAPDH, ACTB and YWHAZ). Each replicate is
 720 represented by a single circle, the mean for each treatment is represented by the horizontal line.
 721 Data were analyzed by generalized linear model followed by a Dunnett's posthoc test comparing
 722 individual treatments with the control. Contrasts were performed grouping multiple
 723 concentrations of TNF α and compared with the control. Significant ($P = 0.05$) contrasts are
 724 indicated by the horizontal lines above the combined concentrations. * indicates a significant
 725 effect for the specific dose of TNF α ($P = 0.05$) compared with the control.



727 Figure 6. Effect of LPS or TNF α exposure during IVM on COC expansion. Cumulus oocyte
 728 complex expansion was evaluated following culture in the presence of (A) ultrapure LPS (1, 10,
 729 100, 1000 or 10000 ng/mL), (B) recombinant bovine TNF α (1, 10, or 100 ng/mL), or control
 730 medium alone for 24 h. Each replicate is represented by a single circle, the mean for each
 731 treatment is represented by the horizontal line. The percentage of COCs to fully expand was
 732 analyzed using the generalized linear mixed models procedure. * indicates a significant effect for
 733 the specific dose ($P = 0.05$) compared with the control.

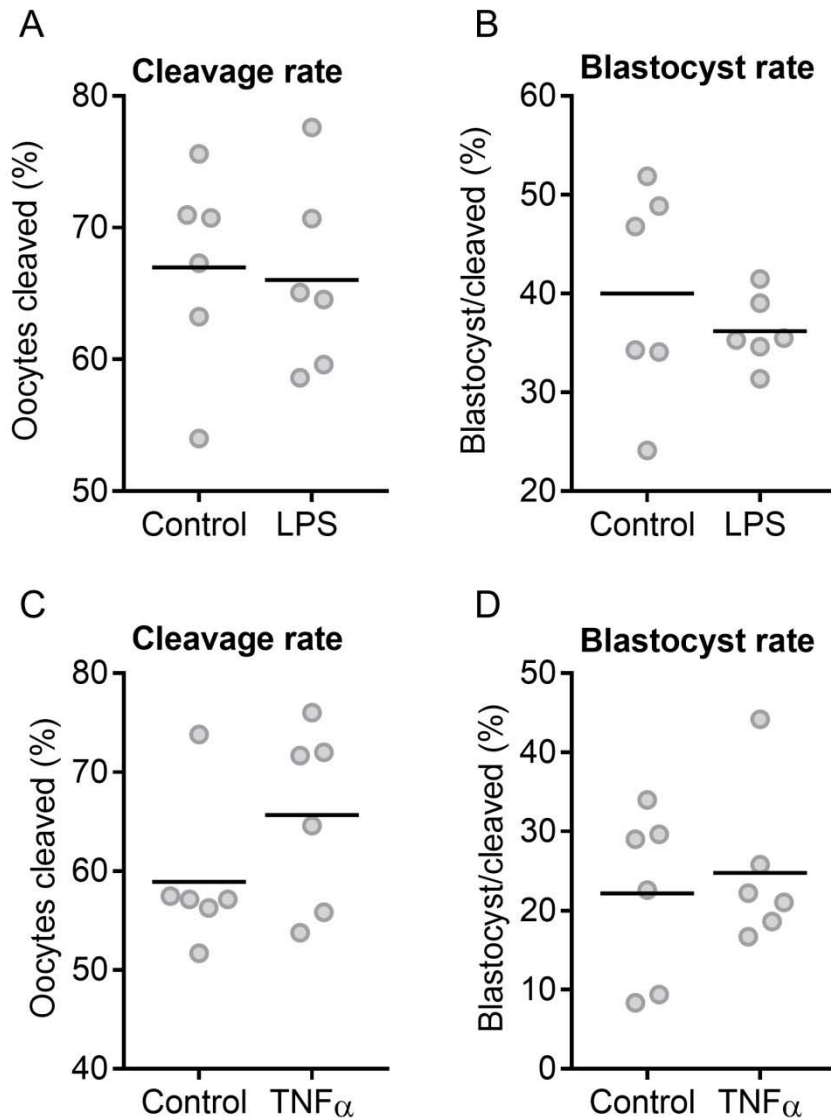


Figure 7. Effect of LPS or TNF α exposure during IVM on blastocyst development. Cumulus oocyte
 46 complexes were exposed to (A-B) ultrapure LPS (1000 ng/mL), (C-D) recombinant bovine TNF α (100 ng/mL), or
 control medium alone for 24 h prior to fertilization and embryo culture. The proportion of oocytes
 47 to undergo cleavage at 3 d following insemination (A, C) and the proportion of cleaved oocytes that became
 48 blastocysts 7.5 d following insemination (B, D) are shown. Each replicate is represented by a single circle,
 49 the mean for each treatment is represented by the horizontal line. The proportion of oocytes to cleave, and
 50 proportion of cleaved oocytes to develop to blastocyst was analyzed using the generalized linear mixed
 51 models procedure.

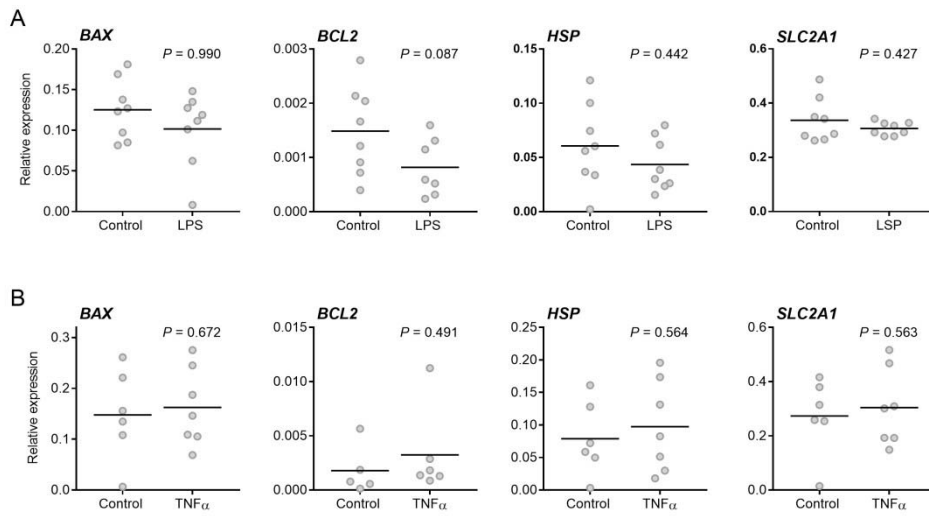


Figure 8. Effect of LPS or TNF α exposure during IVM on blastocyst gene expression. Cumulus oocyte complexes were exposed to (A) ultrapure LPS (1000 ng/mL), (B) recombinant bovine TNF α (100 ng/mL), or control medium alone for 24 h prior to fertilization and embryo culture. Blastocyst stage embryos were subjected to gene expression analysis. Data are presented as relative expression to the arithmetic mean of housekeeping genes (*SDHA* and *RPL19*). Each replicate is represented by a single circle, the mean for each treatment is represented by the horizontal line. Data were analyzed using the general linear model.

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