1   Title page

2   **Title:**

3 Obesity affects mitochondrial metabolism and proliferative potential of endometrial progenitor cells

4   **Running head:**

5   Obesity affects endometrial progenitors

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39   **Authorship**

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isolated cells; K.Marcinkowska performed the in vitro cultures and molecular biology experiments;
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Abstract:

The study aimed to investigate the influence of obesity on cellular features of equine endometrial

progenitor cells (Eca EPCs), including viability, proliferation capacity, mitochondrial metabolism, and

oxidative homeostasis. Eca EPCs derived from non-obese (Non-OB) and obese (OB) mares were

characterised by cellular phenotype and multipotency.

Obesity-induced changes in the activity of Eca EPCs include the decline of their proliferative activity,

clonogenic potential, mitochondrial metabolism and enhanced oxidative stress. Eca EPCs isolated

from obese mares were characterised by an increased occurrence of early apoptosis, loss of

mitochondrial dynamics, and senescence-associated phenotype. Attenuated metabolism of Eca EPCs

OB was related to increased expression of pro-apoptotic markers (*CASP9, BAX, P53, P21*), enhanced

expression of OPN, PI3K and AKT, simultaneously with decreased signalling stabilising cellular

homeostasis (including mitofusin, SIRT1, FOXP3).

Obesity alters functional features and self-renewal potential of endometrial progenitor cells. The

impaired cytophysiology of progenitor cells from obese endometrium predict lower regenerative

capacity if used as autologous transplants.

1. Introduction

From studies conducted in Europe, North America, Australia and New Zealand, 2 to 72% of horses

are considered overweight, and 1 to 19% of animals are obese[1, 2]. Obesity contributes to developing

metabolic disorders, such as insulin resistance, equine metabolic syndrome (EMS), and laminitis - all

conditions accompanied by inflammation. Infertility and altered reproductive function of mares are also

consequences of obesity[2, 3]. Maternal obesity also influences foal metabolism and increases the

occurrence of low-grade inflammation and osteochondrosis in yearlings[1]. The effect of obesity on the

equine uterus has not been well defined, although gene expression in the endometrium was altered

even after short-term obesity, showing a proinflammatory profile with increased expression of TNFα

and IL1β [4].

Excessive accumulation and expansion of adipose tissue affect the endogenous self-renewal capacity

of the organism[5]. Our previous studies have demonstrated that equine metabolic syndrome affects

the regenerative potential of adipose-derived stromal/stem cells (ASCs)[6–9]. Progenitor cells, isolated

from horses with metabolic syndrome, have limited clinical potential compared to healthy subjects

because of reduced proliferation capacity, disturbed cellular homeostasis, and hampered

multipotency. The physiological status and age of the horse affects the metabolism of progenitor cells.

Ageing and equine metabolic syndrome reduce the self-renewal potential of progenitor cells,

significantly impairing mitochondrial function while increasing autophagy, oxidative stress, and

endoplasmic stress[6–8]. The lowered regenerative features of progenitor cells, resulting from obesity-

induced cellular damage, notably limits therapies based on autologous transplants[10].

The biology of equine multipotent stromal/stem cells (MSCs) isolated from adipose tissue and bone

marrow is well described. These cells are commonly used for the treatment of equine locomotive

disorders[10, 11]. However, given that MSCs keep an epigenetic memory specific to the tissue of
origin, other adult tissues are being explored as potential sources for progenitor cells[12]. Recently,
attention has been given to the cytophysiology of progenitor cells originating from the endometrium
[12–14]. The endometrium has increased regenerative potential, which is needed for remodelling
during the oestrous cycle. Progenitor cells from the uterus can be harvested by a biopsy, which is a
nonsurgical procedure without the need for anaesthesia in mares. The endometrium provides an
attractive source of easily obtained and highly proliferating cells[12, 13, 15].

Cells isolated from equine endometrial tissue were previously characterised as a multipotent
population with enhanced self-renewal properties [13]. Uterine pathologies, such as post-breeding
endometritis and endometriosis, lead to a substantial economic burden for the equine industry [16].
Thus, therapies based on the application of endometrial progenitor cells are appealing.

The main objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of obesity on basic cytophysiological
features of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs), including viability and self-renewal
potential, as well as mitochondrial metabolism. We compared proliferation capacity, mitochondrial
dynamics, and molecular phenotypes of EPCs obtained from non-obese (Non-OB) and obese mares
(OB).

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2. Materials and methods

2.1. Harvesting and isolation of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) from obese and
non-obese mares

Tissue samples were obtained post-mortem from non-obese (n=4) and obese (n=4) mares during
anestrus. Uteri were collected from a local slaughterhouse at Rawicz in November and December of
2019 and 2020, and samples were isolated from the uterine body. The mean age of non-obese mares
was 9.5 ± 2, while obese mares were 9± 1. The obesity of mares was determined based on body
condition score (BCS), using the protocol established previously [8, 17] and a system developed by
Henneke *et al.* [18]. BSC is expressed by numerical value for fat deposition ranging from 1 (poor) to 9
(extremely obese). The horses in the non-obese group had BSC = 6.5 ± 0.289 (mean+SEM), while
obese mares were characterised by BCS = 8.75 ±0.250 (mean+SEM).

The tissue fragments (~ 4g) were washed three times using Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS)
supplemented with 1% of penicillin/streptomycin mix (P/S, Sigma Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland). The
endometrium was dissociated from myometrium, cut into small fragments, and placed into an
enzymatic solution. The solution consisted of collagenase type I (1 mg/ml) prepared in Dulbecco's
modified Eagle's medium/F12 (DMEM/F12, Sigma Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland). The tissue
fragments were digested for 40 minutes in CO_2 incubator at 37 °C with periodic vortexing. After
incubation, the homogenates were filtered using a sterile 70-μm cell strainer (Greiner Bio-One,
Biokom, Janki, Poland) to discard the undigested tissue fragments. Further, the suspension of cells
was centrifuged at 300×g for 10 minutes. Obtained pellets were washed in HBSS and then
resuspended in DMEM/F12 medium supplemented with 15% of foetal bovine serum (FBS, Sigma
Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland) and 1% P/S solution, hereinafter referred to as a complete growth
medium for endometrial stromal cells (CGM_{EPC}). The cells were transferred into a T-75 culture flask
(Nunc, Biokom, Janki, Poland). Both primary and subsequently passaged cultures were cultured at

constant conditions in CO_2 incubator at 37°C, and maintaining 95% humidity. The CGM_{EPC} was

changed every 2 days. The culture was passaged when reaching 90% confluence using a trypsin

solution (StableCell Trypsin, Sigma Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland). Cells used for the experiment

were pulled at passage 3 (p3).

2.2. Phenotype and multipotency of Eca EPCs

The phenotype of cells was determined based on mRNA expression of (i) the mesenchymal markers,

including CD29, CD44, CD90, CD105; (ii) hematopoietic markers, i.e. CD34 and CD45; (iii)

perivascular markers, including CD146 and NG2; (iv) an epithelial marker, i.e. mucin-1 and (v)

smooth muscle markers, including actin alpha 1 (ACTA2), calponin 1 (CNN1) and myosin heavy chain

11 (MHY11).

The expression of selected genes was determined using the RT-qPCR protocol described in

paragraph 2.6. The sequences of oligonucleotides were published by Rink et al. [13] and were fully

characterised in Table 1S. Amplified PCR products were separated in 2% agarose gel and stained

with SYBR™ Safe DNA Gel Stain Thermo Fisher Scientific, Warsaw, Poland. The molecular weight of

the obtained products was compared to DNA Ladder (M50pz, Blirt DNA, Gdansk, Poland).

Immunocytochemical staining aimed at detecting CD44, CD45, CD73, CD90 and CD105 surface

markers is described in paragraph 2.8. Moreover, expression of CD34, CD45, CD90 and CD105 was

detected using flow cytometry. The analysis was performed using FACSLyric™ Clinical Flow

Cytometry System (Becton-Dickinson and Company, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). The detailed staining

protocol was described elsewhere [19], while antibodies used for analysis are listed in Table 4S.

To verify the multipotency, Eca EPCs were cultured under osteogenic, chondrogenic and adipogenic

conditions. For this purpose, cells (p3) were seeded into 6-well plates at inoculum $1x10^5$ cells per well.

The differentiation was induced using commercially available kits (StemPro®, Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Warsaw, Poland) after 48 hours of culture when cells reached 90% confluency. The effectiveness of

tissue-specific differentiation was evaluated after 21 days in osteogenic cultures and after 16 days in

chondrogenic and adipogenic cultures. Following differentiation, the extracellular matrix was stained

accordingly to well-established protocols[20]. Osteogenesis in vitro was verified with Alizarin Red

staining. The chondrogenic nodules were detected with Safranin O. In contrast, lipid droplets in

adipogenic cultures were detected after Oil Red O staining. Documentation of cultures was performed

using an inverted microscope (Axio Observer A.1, Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany) with Power Shot

digital camera (Canon, Woodhatch, UK). Images were processed and analysed, as was previously

described [21].

2.3. Evaluation of proliferation and migratory capacity of cells

Proliferation activity of cells was evaluated based on multiple parameters established in a clonogenic

and wound healing assay, MTS assay, and cell cycle analysis. The protocols were used previously for

progenitor cells of different origins and were published in detail [9, 21, 22]. In this experiment, the

efficiency of colony-forming unit (CFU-E) occurrence was evaluated after 12 days of culture using the

protocol described by Rink *et al.*[13]. Cells were inoculated in 6-well plates at a density equal 10

cells/cm^2 in 2 mL of CGM_{EPC}. After the test, cultures were fixed in 4% of paraformaldehyde (PFA) for

30 minutes, subsequently washed using HBSS, and stained with 2 % pararosaniline solution (Sigma

Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland) for 5 minutes, before being rewashed with HBSS. Colonies were

defined as clusters formed by more than 50 cells.

For the wound healing assay, cultures were maintained at a high confluence, reaching 90%. The

scratch was made with a 200-μl pipette tip, and cultures were propagated for an additional 24 hours.

After that, cultures were fixed with 4% PFA and stained with the pararosaniline solution. Cultures were

documented using a Canon PowerShot digital camera (Woodhatch, UK).

The population doubling time (PDT) was determined based on the growth curve of Eca EPCs,

established by a routine counting of cells during the passage. The cells were counted using the Muse$^{\circledR}$

Count & Viability Kit (Luminex/Merck, Poznan, Poland) according to the manufacturer's protocol and

analysed using Muse Cell Analyser (Sigma-Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland). Obtained data were used

to determine PDT with an algorithm published by Heuer et al.[23] and Cell Calculator [24].

The proliferation determined based on metabolic activity was measured using MTS (Cell Proliferation,

Colorimetric, Abcam, Cambridge, UK). For this purpose, Eca EPCs were seeded in 96-well plates at a

density equal to 5×10^3 per well in 200 µl CGM$_{EPC}$. After 24 h of cells inoculation, 20 µl of MTS solution

was added per well. The test included blank control. Cultures were incubated with the dye for 2 h at

37°C in a CO_2 incubator. Following incubation, absorbance was measured spectrophotometrically with

a plate reader (Epoch, Biotek, Germany) at a wavelength of 490 nm. MTS assay was performed after

24, 48 and 72 h of Eca EPCs culturing.

The cell cycle was determined using Muse Cell Cycle Kit (Luminex/Merck, Poznan, Poland) using the

manufacturer's protocol. The analysis was performed using Muse Cell Analyser (Sigma-Aldrich/Merck,

Poznan, Poland), and for each assay, 0.5×10^6 of Eca EPCs were tested.

The proliferation activity of Eca EPCs from non-obese and obese mares was also evaluated based on

immunocytochemical staining of Ki67 marker and miRNA levels. A transwell system with a pore size of

8 µm (Corning, Biokom, Warsaw, Poland) was used to test the motility capabilities of Eca EPCs. Cells

were inoculated into the upper chamber at a density equal to 0.2×10^5 in a 300 μl of serum-free culture

medium (DMEM/F12 supplemented 1% P/S). The CGM$_{EPC}$ was added to the lower compartment of

the transwell system. The cells were stained with pararoseline solution, as described above.

Chambers were evaluated under an inverted microscope (Leica DMi1), with an attached Digital

Camera MC170 and Leica Application Suite (LAS) software (all from Leica Microsystems, KAWA.SKA

Sp. z o.o., Zalesie Gorne, Poland).

2.4. The evaluation of Eca EPC growth pattern, morphology and ultrastructure

The growth pattern and morphology of cultures were evaluated using an inverted microscope (Leica

DMi1) equipped with a camera MC170 (Leica Microsystems, KAWA.SKA Sp. z o.o., Zalesie Gorne,

Poland). Cell condition was also determined from images obtained after senescence-associated beta-

galactosidase staining. The ultrastructure of Eca EPCs was analysed using a confocal microscope

(Leica TCS SPE, Leica Microsystems, KAWA.SKA Sp. z o.o., Zalesie Gorne, Poland) based on

localisation and distribution of nuclei, cytoskeleton and mitochondrial network. The mitochondria were

stained in vital cultures with MitoRed dye (Sigma-Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland) prepared in CGM$_{EPC}$

(1:1000). Subsequently, cultures were incubated with the dye in CO_2 incubator at 37°C for 30 minutes.

Next, cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 30 minutes at room temperature and

rinsed three times with HBSS. Following fixation, the actin cytoskeleton was imaged using Phalloidin-
Atto 488 (Sigma-Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland). For this purpose, cells were permeabilised with
0.2% Tween 20 and prepared in HBSS for 20 minutes at room temperature. After permeabilisation,
cells were stained with phalloidin solution dissolved in HBSS at a concentration of 1:800. The staining
lasted 30 minutes and was performed at 37°C in the dark. Cells nuclei were counterstained using 4′,6-
Diamidine-2′-phenylindole dihydrochloride (DAPI) mounting medium (ProLong™ Diamond Antifade
Mountant with DAPI, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Warsaw, Poland). Preparations were observed using
the confocal microscope under magnification 630× and processed with Fiji software (ImageJ 1.52n,
Wayne Rasband, National Institute of Health, USA). Additionally, to evaluate the mitochondrial
dynamics, the cells were visualised under 1000× and analysed using MicroP software [25].
To determine mitochondrion gene expression, mitochondria were isolated using the Mitochondria
Isolation Kit for Cultured Cells (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Warsaw, Poland). All steps of the procedure
were performed following the manufacturer's instructions. The mitochondria were isolated from 2×10^{7}
cells. The obtained mitochondria were homogenised with 1 ml of Extrazol® (Blirt DNA, Gdansk,
Poland).

2.5. Evaluation of Eca EPCs viability, metabolism and oxidative status

The cellular health of Eca EPCs Non-OB and Eca EPCs OB was evaluated using Guava® Muse® Cell
Analyser (Sigma-Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland). The metabolic activity of cells was determined
based on mitochondrial membrane potential using Muse™ Mitopotential Assay Kit. Apoptosis profile
was established in the test with Muse® Annexin V & Dead Cell Kit. In addition, oxidative status was
evaluated based on the intracellular accumulation of reactive oxygen species (Muse® Oxidative Stress
Kit) and nitric oxide (Muse® Nitric Oxide Kit). All assays were performed according to protocols
provided by the manufacturer (Luminex/Merck, Poznan, Poland) and were described in detail
previously [26–28].

2.6. Determination of transcripts levels

The experimental cultures of Eca EPCs and isolated mitochondria were homogenised using Extrazol®
(Blirt DNA, Gdansk, Poland). Total RNA and mitochondrial RNA was isolated using the phenol-
chloroform method. Ther genomic DNA (gDNA) residuals were removed from samples with DNase I
from PrecisionDNAse kit (Primerdesign, Blirt DNA, Gdansk, Poland). Purified RNA (500 ng) was
transcribed into cDNA with Tetro cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bioline Reagents Limited, London, UK) to
analyse genes expression. Both digestion of gDNA and reverse transcription (RT) was performed
using T100 Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed
using 1 μl of cDNA and specific primers (sequences listed in Table 1S; Supporting Information). Two-
tailed RT-qPCR was used for specific detection of miRNA levels. The exact conditions of reactions
were described elsewhere [9], while primers are listed in Table 2S (Supporting Information). All qPCR
measurements were carried out using CFX Connect™ Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad,
Hercules, CA, USA). The obtained gene expression results were calculated using RQ_{MAX} algorithm
and converted into the log2 scale as described previously [9, 22, 28].

2.7. Detection of protein expression with Western blot

To determine the intracellular accumulation of selected proteins, cells were lysed using ice-cold RIPA buffer containing 1% of protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Sigma Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Polska). The total concentration of proteins in samples was determined using the Bicinchoninic Acid Assay Kit (Sigma Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Polska). The samples containing 20 μg of protein were mixed with 4× Laemmli loading buffer (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). Subsequently, samples were incubated for 5 minutes at 95 °C in T100 Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). Samples were separated in 12.5 % sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE; 100V for 90 minutes) in Mini-PROTEAN Tetra Vertical Electrophoresis Cell (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) and transferred into polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane in 1× Transfer buffer (Tris-base/Glycine/Methanol, Sigma-Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland) using the Mini Trans-Blot® system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) at 100 V for 60 minutes. The membranes were blocked using 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in TBS-T for 60 minutes. Detection of protein was performed by overnight incubation at 4°C with primary antibodies. The incubation of membranes with secondary antibodies was performed for 60 minutes at 4°C. After each incubation with the antibody, the membranes were washed five times for 5 minutes with TBST buffer.

Details of antibodies used for the reaction are presented in Table 3S. Chemiluminescent signal was detected using Bio-Rad ChemiDoc™ XRS system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) using DuoLuX® Chemiluminescent and Fluorescent Peroxidase (HRP) Substrate (Vector Laboratories, Biokom, Janki, Poland;). The Image Lab™ Software (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) was used in order to analyse the molecular weight and intensity of signals.

2.8. Immunocytochemical detection

Immunocytochemical(ICC) staining was performed using previously described protocols[22, 29]. Here, Eca EPCs cultures were performed in 24-well dishes covered by glass cover slides. Cultures were fixed with 4% PFA after 72 hours of propagation. The incubation was performed 30 minutes at room temperature. Subsequently, specimens were washed three times using HBSS and prepared for permeabilisation with 0.2% PBS-Tween solution supplemented with 10% goat serum. Specimens were permeabilized for 1h. The incubation of samples with the primary antibody in HBSS was performed overnight at 4 °C. The secondary antibody was used at a concentration equal to 1:1000 in HBSS. Details of antibodies used for the reaction are presented in Table 4S. Each step of the protocol was preceded by gentle washing of specimens with HBSS. After staining, slides were fixed with a mounting medium with DAPI (ProLong™ Diamond Antifade Mountant with DAPI, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Warsaw, Poland). Observations were made using a confocal microscope (Leica TCS SPE, Leica Microsystems, KAWA.SKA Sp. z o.o., Zalesie Gorne, Poland). Images were processed and analysed, as was previously described [22].

2.8. Statistical analysis

The results obtained in the study are presented as the mean with standard deviation (±SD). The values derived from at least three technical repetitions. The normality of the population data was determined using Shapiro–Wilk test, while equality of variances was assessed by Levene's test. The measurements were conducted with STATISTICA 10.0 software (StatSoft, Inc., Statistica for Windows, Tulsa, OK, USA). Comparative analysis was performed using t-Student test or One-way

307 analysis of variance with Dunnett's post hoc test. These calculations were performed using GraphPad
308 Software (Prism 8.20, San Diego, CA, USA). Differences with a probability of p< 0.05 were considered
309 significant.
310
3. Results
The animals used for the experiment were classified using a system proposed by Henneke *et al.*[18].
Significant differences in terms of BSC between non-obese (Non-OB) and obese (OB) groups were
noted, warranting proper classification of animals (**Fig.1S**).
Furthermore, we have evaluated the phenotype of the cells used for the study and tested their
multipotent character. The mesenchymal stem cells markers were assessed using RT-qPCR, flow
cytometry and with immunocytochemistry staining (**Fig. 1**). The population of progenitor cells isolated
from equine endometrium (Eca EPCs) consisted of cells with features characteristic for cells of
mesenchymal origin, i.e. expression of markers CD44, CD90 and CD105 and low expression of
hematopoietic markers, i.e. CD34 and CD45 (**Fig. 1 b-d**). Progenitor cells from the endometrium of
non-obese mares and obese mares (Eca EPCs Non-OB and Eca EPCs OB) differed in CD105
expression (**Fig. 1**). The Eca EPCs OB had lower surface expression of CD105, as well as decreased
accumulation of mRNA for this marker. Moreover, the reduced transcript levels for CD105 noted in
Eca EPCs OB correlated with a decreased mRNA expression for CD90 (**Fig. 1 a-b**). Both Eca EPCs
Non-OB and OB showed mRNA expression for perivascular markers CD146 and NG2 proteoglycan
(neural/glial antigen 2), an epithelial marker, i.e. mucin-1 and smooth muscle markers, including actin
alpha 1 (ACTA2), calponin 1 (CNN1) and myosin heavy chain 11 (MHY11). Notably, Eca EPCs OB
were characterized by increased accumulation of transcripts for ACTA2 (**Fig. 1 a-b**).

Fig.1. Phenotype of Eca EPCs. The RT-qPCR analysis were aimed at determining relative transcript levels of cell surface markers (a). The mRNA expression was established for MSCs markers (CD29, CD44, CD90, CD105), perivascular markers (NG2, CD146), epithelial marker (MUC-1) and smooth muscle markers (ACTA2, CNN1, MHY11). The expression of mRNA for hematopoietic markers (CD34, CD45) was not included on the graphs due to the lack of a specific signal. The PCR products were analysed using electrophoresis (b). The cellular phenotype was tested using immunocytochemistry (c) and flow-cytometry (d). All results are shown as mean ± SD. Columns with bars represent means ± SD. * p-value < 0.05, **** p-value < 0.0001.

340　Additionally, Eca EPCs used in the study underwent specific differentiation under osteogenic,

341　chondrogenic and adipogenic conditions, indicating their multipotency (**Fig. 2**). The analysis of the

342　extracellular matrix showed that Eca EPCs OB had lowered osteogenic and chondrogenic potential

343　compared to Eca EPCs Non-OB (**Fig.2 a-c**). The adipogenic potential of Eca EPCs OB was also

344　decreased (**Fig.2 d**).

(a)

b)　　　　　**(c)**　　　　　**(d)**

Fig. 2. The analysis of Eca EPCs multipotency. Tissue-specific differentiation extracellular matrix
features were documented (a). Cultures were maintained under osteogenic, chondrogenic and
adipogenic conditions. Calcium deposits formed under osteogenic conditions were detected using
Alizarin Red staining, while chondrogenic nodules were stained with Safranin-O dye. The lipid-rich
vacuoles after adipogenic stimulation were detected with Oil Red O. The staining efficiency was
measured to compare the differentiation potential of Eca EPCs Non-OB with Eca EPCs OB (b-d).
Columns with bars represent means ± SD. **** p-value < 0.0001.

Furthermore, the progenitor cells isolated from the endometrium of obese mares (Eca EPCs OB) were

characterised by decreased proliferative potential. In contrast, endometrial progenitor cells isolated

from non-obese mares (Eca EPCs Non-OB) showed faster initial growth and enhanced proliferation

capacity (**Fig. 3**). The lowered self-renewal potential of Eca EPCs OB was demonstrated by a

significantly reduced ability to form colony-forming units (CFUs) (**Fig 3 a and b**). The migratory and

wound healing assay revealed that Eca EPCs from OB were characterised by lowered expansion

potency (**Fig. 3 c-f**), confirming lower CFU efficiency. Reduced proliferation of Eca EPCs OB in culture

was reflected by the prolonged time needed for cell population doubling (PDT; **Fig. 3g**). The metabolic

activity of EPCs OB was also disturbed when compared to Eca EPCs from non-obese mares. The

significant difference between the metabolism of Eca EPCs from non-obese and obese mares was

noted after 48 hours of culture (**Fig. 3h**).

Cell cycle analysis confirmed that Eca EPCs OB had decreased potential for division (Fig 2).

The intracellular accumulation of Ki67, a marker of actively proliferating cells, was significantly

decreased in EPCs Ob cultures (**Fig. 4 a-c**). Furthermore, the percentage of actively proliferating cells

in Eca EPCs OB cultures, evidenced by a decreased S-phase ratio, shifted toward G0/G1-phase (**Fig.

4 d and e**). Reduced Ki67 protein expression and proliferation were correlated with the lower levels of

microRNAs from the let7 family, known regulators of genes associated with a proliferation of

progenitor cells, i.e. let-7b and let-7c. However, let-7a expression was increased in Eca EPCs OB

(**Fig. 4 f –h**).

Fig. 3: The proliferative capacity of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB), expressed by colony formation capability (a, b), migratory efficiency (c-f), population doubling time (g), metabolic activity (h). Columns with bars represent mean ± SD. * p-value < 0.05, ** p-value < 0.01 and *** p-value < 0.001.

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383 **Fig. 4:** The proliferative capacity of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-
384 obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB) evaluated based on Ki67 expression (a-c), distribution
385 of cells within the cell cycle (d-e), and levels of particular let7 family members. Columns with bars
386 represent means ± SD. * p-value < 0.05, ** p-value < 0.01 and *** p-value < 0.001.
387
Analysis of cell morphology and ultrastructure showed that Eca EPCs isolated from non-obese
and obese mares showed fibroblast-like, spindle-shaped morphology (**Fig. 5   a and b**). Eca EPCs
isolated from non-obese mares formed dense colonies in which well-developed intracellular
connections were observed. In contrast, Eca EPCs OB formed less abundant aggregations, and
intracellular connections between those cells were less marked. The actin cytoskeleton, as well as
mitochondrial network, were more developed in EPCs from non-obese mares. The identification of
senescence cells revealed that Eca EPCs from OB mares show significantly increased activity of β-
galactosidase (**Fig. 5 f**). Additionally, mRNA levels for vimentin (*VIM*), type III intermediate filament
(IF), characteristic for cells originated from mesenchyme, were decreased in Eca EPCs OB (**Fig. 5 c**).
The lowered transcript levels of *VIM* noted for Eca EPCs OB, were correlated with decreased levels of
miRNA-29a-3p and miR-181-5p, which function as regulators of cytoskeleton assembly and self-
renewal of stem cells (**Fig. 5 d and e**).
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Fig. 5: Morphology, ultrastructure, the growth pattern of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB), and analysis of transcripts associated with a cytoskeletal network. The cultures were imaged with a confocal microscope in order to determine ultrastructure. Growth pattern of cell cultures was monitored under a phase-contrast microscope. Scale bars are indicated in the representative photographs (a and b). Additionally, RT-qPCR was performed to determine the mRNA expression of vimentin (*VIM*; c) and levels of miR-29a-3p and miR-181-5p (d and e). Results from RT-qPCR are presented as a column with bars representing means ± SD. ** p-value < 0.01 and *** p-value < 0.001.

A decreased number of mitochondria were observed in Eca EPCs derived from obese mares. Moreover, these cells were distinguished by the presence of respiratory deficient, globular mitochondria (**Fig. 6**). Further, analysis of mitochondrial membrane potential (MMP) confirmed the lowered metabolism of Eca EPCs from obese mares (**Fig 7**). The significantly decreased mitochondrial metabolism was also correlated with declining viability of cells. Gene expression patterns confirmed that metabolism of mitochondria in EPCs Ob was disturbed, with downregulation of transcripts essential for mtDNA function and the mitochondrial respiratory chain stability (**Fig. 8**).

Analysis of parkin RBR E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase (PARKIN), PTEN-induced kinase 1 (PINK1) and mitofusin 1 (MFN1) expression was performed at mRNA and protein level, both in Eca EPCs Non-OB and OB. The mRNA level of *PARKIN* was decreased, while PARKIN protein was accumulated within Eca EPCs OB. In contrast, PINK mRNA levels were elevated, but protein expression was lower in Eca EPCs OB. However, mitofusin expression was decreased in EPCs OB, both at mRNA and protein levels. Transcript levels determined for fission (*FIS*) were also decreased in Eca EPCs OB compared to Eca EPCs derived from non-obese mares (**Fig. 9**).

426
427
428 **Fig. 6:** Mitochondrial network, numbers, and morphology of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca
429 EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB). Imaging of Eca EPCs with
430 high magnification allowed assessment of the mitochondrial net and its dynamics (a-b), number of
431 mitochondria per cell (c) and classification of mitochondrial morphology (d-h). Means ± SD are
432 presented as columns and bars. *** p-value < 0.001.
433

(a)   (b)

(c)   (d)

Fig.7: The mitochondrial membrane potential (MMP) determined in equine endometrial progenitor
cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB) The representative
graphs show the distribution of cells, taking into account their viability and mitochondrial membrane
depolarisation (a and b). Comparative analysis was performed to determine differences between
EPCs Non-Ob and Ob in terms of viability (c) and mitochondrial activity (d). Means ± SD. *** p-value <
0.001.

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Fig. 8: Transcript levels for genes associated with mitochondria homeostasis determined for equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB). The analysis was performed using RT-qPCR technologies. The following genes were measured: ubiquinol-cytochrome c reductase core protein 2 (UQCRC2), transcription factor A, mitochondrial (TFAM), pseudouridylate synthase-like 1 (PUSL1), NADH: ubiquinone oxidoreductase subunit A9 (NDUFA9), cytochrome c oxidase subunit 4I1 (COX4I1), PIGB opposite strand 1 (PIGBOS1), mitochondrial ribosomal protein L24 (MRPL24), mitochondrial transcription termination factor 4 (MTERF4), mitochondrial inner membrane protein (OXA1L) and PPARG coactivator 1 beta (PPARGC1β). Obtained data were normalised to the expression of the reference gene and expressed as using RQ(max) algorithm. Results are presented as columns with bars representing means ± SD. *** p-value < 0.001.

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Fig. 9: The expression profile of molecular markers associated with mitochondrial dynamics
determined for equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-
OB) and obese mares (OB). Parkin RBR E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase (PARKIN), PTEN-induced kinase
1 (PINK1) and mitofusin 1 (MFN1) were determined based on mRNA (b, d, f) and protein levels (a-
representative blots, c, e, g), additionally transcript levels for fission (FIS) were determined (h). Means
± SD. *** p-value < 0.001.

462
Apoptosis profile analysis supported the result indicating lower viability of Eca EPCs derived
from obese than non-obese mares (**Fig. 10**). The Eca EPCs OB showed an increased percentage of
early apoptotic cells when compared to Eca EPCs Non-OB (**Fig. 10 a, b, e**). Although we observed
increased early apoptosis in EPC cultures obtained from obese mares, the number of total apoptotic
cells were not different for OB and Non-OB (**Fig. 10 a, b, d**). EPCs OB showed a pro-apoptotic gene
expression pattern, with an elevated *BAX/BCL-2* ratio and increased mRNA expression for caspase-9
(*CASP-9*), *P53* and *P21 (***Fig. 11***)*.

(a)   (b)

(c)   (d)

(e)   (f)

470
471
472 **Fig. 10:** The apoptosis profile determined in equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated
473 from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB). The representative graphs show the
474 distribution of cells, taking into account their viability (a and b). Comparative analysis was performed to
475 determine differences between Eca EPCs Non-OB and OB for viability (c) total cell apoptosis (d) early
476 apoptosis (e) and late apoptosis (f). Means ± SD. *** p-value < 0.001.
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Fig. 11: The expression profile of genes associated with apoptosis determined in equine endometrial
progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB). The
transcript levels were determined using RT-qPCR and normalised to the expression of *GAPDH*
(glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase) and spike control. The tested apoptotic markers were
Bcl-2-associated X protein (*BAX*, B-cell lymphoma 2 (*BCL-2*), caspase 9 (*CASP9*), cellular tumour
antigen p53 (*P53*) and cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 1A (*P21*). The relative values of gene
expression were established using RQ_{MAX} algorithm. Means ± SD. *** p-value < 0.001.
486
487 The decreased viability of EPCs Ob was associated with oxidative stress and accumulation of
488 nitric oxygen (NO) and reactive oxygen species (ROS). Dysregulated oxidative stress balance noted in
489 EPCs OB was correlated with decreased levels of miR-20a-5p and miR-133b-3p (**Fig 12**).
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Fig.12: The analysis of the oxidative status in equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB). Representative dot plots show the distribution of cells based on intracellular accumulation of nitric oxide (a and b) while column graphs show results of statistical analyses (d and e). The increased occurrence of NO positive cells (NO+) noted in EPCs Ob corresponds with the lowered expression of miR-20a (c) and miR-133b (f). Distribution of cells based on ROS accumulation visible on histograms (g and h) and comparative analysis confirmed oxidative stress in Eca EPCs OB. Means ± SD. * p-value < 0.05 and ** p-value < 0.01.

Expression pattern of FOXP3 and SIRT1 confirmed the disturbance of oxidative status in EPCs OB. The mRNA level of FOXP3 noted in EPCs was not affected by the physiological status of mares. However, we observed significantly decreased intracellular accumulation of FOXP3 protein in EPCs OB. This phenotype may be related to lower regulatory potential and accumulation of oxidative stress markers of EPC Ob. Lower expression of SIRT1 in EPCs OB supports lower metabolic activity. Elevated mRNA levels for osteopontin (*OPN)* and accumulated intracellular protein for EPCs OB confirms the molecular phenotype associated with obesity. Significantly increased expression of OPN

509 was noted for glycosylated protein, with a molecular weight equal to 66 kDa, and fragments with
510 molecular weight equal to 30 kDa (**Fig 13**).

511
Fig. 13: Expression of forkhead box P3 (FOXP3), sirtuin 1 (SIRT1) and osteopontin (OPN) determined
in equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and
obese mares (OB).   Protein expression was detected using Western blot technique (a), while RT-
qPCR (b-d) was used to establish the mRNA level for genes of interest. The densitometric
measurements of membranes were performed to compare the expression of proteins between EPCs
Non-Ob and Ob (e-j). Significant differences were calculated for normalised values and shown as
means ± SD. * p-value < 0.05 and ** p-value < 0.01.
519
520   We noted an increased constitutive expression of AKT/PI3K in Eca EPCs derived from obese
521 mares. The analysis of mRNA levels determined for *AKT* and *PI3K* indicated the increased
522 accumulation of those transcripts in Eca EPCs OB. However, a statistically significant difference was
523 noted only in *AKT* mRNA expression. In turn, intracellular detection of AKT and PI3K revealed a
524 significant increase of those proteins in Eca EPCs from obese mares (**Fig. 14**).
525

Fig. 14: Expression of Pi3K/AKT determined and compared between EPCs Non-OB and OB. The intracellular accumulation of AKT and PI3K was visualised using immunocytochemistry (ICC, a-b) and determined with Western blot (c). RT-qPCR (d-i) was used to establish mRNA levels for genes of interest. Densitometric measurements of membranes were performed to compare expression of proteins between EPCs Non-Ob and Ob (e-j). Significant differences were calculated for normalised values and shown as means ± SD. * p-value < 0.05 and ** p-value < 0.01.

4. Discussion

The endometrium has gained attention as a source of progenitor cells with high proliferative potential. The endometrial progenitor cells (EPCs) are described as a multipotent population, i.e. able to differentiate into adipogenic, osteogenic, chondrogenic, and even myogenic cell lineages or neurons[30]. The pro-regenerative features of EPCs, with their self-renewal properties, make them a treatment option for endometrial healing. Their potential therapeutic application has been strictly associated with treating endometrial diseases in women, such as Asherman's syndrome characterised by endometrial scarring, fibrosis, and dense adhesions with occlusion of the uterine cavity and endometriosis[30, 31]. However, because of the high cellular plasticity and multipotent properties of EPCs, their therapeutic effectiveness in regenerative medicine could be much broader. For instance, endometrial stem cells were proposed as an alternative therapeutic tool for Parkinson's disease [32]. For veterinary regenerative medicine, EPCs-based therapies could be a possible treatment for subfertility caused by endometrial dysfunction, which is a severe problem in the horse breeding industry[33]. Endometrial diseases occur commonly in mares without a specific aetiology.

Obesity and insulin resistance can affect reproduction in mares, impacting the embryo and uterus, as well as the oocyte [2, 30]. We have previously shown that the regenerative potential of multipotent stromal cells isolated from equine adipose tissue depends on the animal's physiological status[6, 7, 9, 34]. Disturbed cellular metabolism affects the pro-regenerative potential of progenitor cells, decreasing their utility in autologous transplantations. For instance, in this study, we have shown that obesity affects the molecular phenotype of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) and may reduce

their multipotency. Eca EPCs from obese mares had significantly decreased expression of CD105 surface marker (endoglin) compared to Eca EPCs from non-obese mares. The CD105 is an essential factor associated with the differentiation potential of adult stem cells originated from mesenchymal tissues, i.e. multipotent stromal/stem cells (MSCs)[35]. The expression of this marker varies between MSCs of different origins and is related to their heterogeneity[36]. Indeed, the population of Eca EPCs OB used in this study had lower capacity for osteogenic and chondrogenic differentiation[37]. The functional role of CD105 in MSC biology is still deliberated, especially its effect on chondrogenesis in vitro. Thus, future studies related to multipotency of Eca EPCs should also include an analysis of CD105 association with their plasticity and potential for tissue-specific differentiation. Notably, the increased mRNA expression for α-smooth muscle actin (ACTA/α-SMA) was also a characteristic of Eca EPCs OB. Studies by Talele et al. show that α-SMA is a feature of cells with lowered clonogenic potential and limited cellular plasticity[38].

Essentially, the current study demonstrated that obesity reduces the proliferation and mitochondrial metabolism of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs). The regenerative potential of progenitor cells is reflected by high proliferative (self-renewal) capacity and viability. We have demonstrated that Eca EPCs isolated from mares that are obese have decreased clonogenic and proliferative potential, as well as migratory activity. Lower mitochondrial metabolism in Eca EPCs was associated with apoptosis and oxidative stress. Our results correspond with the study of Allesio et al. [39], who showed that obesity in mice not only affects the proliferation of progenitor cells isolated from subcutaneous and visceral adipose tissue but also affects cells derived from bone marrow.

In our study, Eca EPCs from obese mares had a reduced percentage of progenitor cells in S-phase of the cell cycle, associated with a lower potential for cell division and a prolonged time for population doubling. The clonogenic potential of EPCs from obese mares was also decreased compared to EPCs from non-obese mares, which agrees with the finding that obesity negatively impacts the clonogenicity of endometrial mesenchymal stem cells of women with reproductive failure[40]. In previous studies, we observed that the proliferative potential of multipotent adipose-derived stromal cells (ASC) can be affected by increased age and the occurrence of equine metabolic syndrome; an increased percentage of G1/G0-arrested cells was characteristic for cells isolated from middle-aged horses (5–15), old (> 15 years old), or had metabolic syndrome[41].

The decreased self-renewal potential of EPCs isolated from obese mares was correlated with cell-cycle arrest and reduced expression of Ki67, a marker of actively proliferating cells. Obesity is associated with increased Ki67 expression in human progenitor cells from adipose tissue and is associated with smaller adipocytes and increased cell death [42]. A hallmark of the inflammation accompanying obesity is a reduction in Ki67 expression and inhibited proliferation of progenitor cells in the taste buds[43]. Thus, obesity-induced changes in Ki67 levels can be dependent on tissue niche and cell type. For instance, functional endometrium is characterised by the presence of stromal cells showing increased Ki67 expression in addition to increased levels of the anti-apoptotic protein, BCL-2[44].

We obtained a similarprofile of expression in our study, as EPCs isolated from obese mares exhibited a phenotype of early apoptotic cells, with increased mRNA levels for pro-apoptotic *BAX*, *caspase 9*, *P53* and *P21* and decreased expression of *BCL-2*. The balance between apoptosis and proliferation in endometrial cells is essential to regulate regeneration of the endometrium during the reproductive cycle. The decreased viability of Eca EPCs OB can also be related to the lowered expression of mRNA for vimentin (*VIM*). Generally, vimentin is recognised as a type III intermediate filament protein abundant in tissues of mesenchymal origin. This cytoskeleton protein plays a pivotal role in maintaining the shape and integrity of cells. It is also notable that vimentin is crucial for tissue homeostasis, protecting cells from protein misfolding stress[45]. Given the above, the Eca EPCs OB show features of early apoptotic cells with decreased cellular function, including self-renewal potential.

Our study showed, for the first time, that progenitor cells isolated from the endometrium of obese mares during anestrus have a pro-apoptotic profile and lower mitochondrial potential than cells from non-obese mares. The molecular phenotype of obese endometrium was also consistent with an increased expression of osteopontin (OPN). During obesity, high expression of OPN could correlate with the development of insulin resistance. OPN is depicted as a biomarker for obesity-associated inflammation and deteriorating adipose tissue metabolism related to enhanced macrophage infiltration[46]. Knockout of OPN in mice endometrial stromal cells results in lower adhesion and

invasion of the blastocyst, as well as decreased expression of matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9)
associated with impaired invasive competency of the trophoblast[47]. Increased levels of OPN are
also correlated with oxidative stress and decreased mitochondrial membrane potential, which was
observed using the model of mouse cardiac myocytes [48]. Collectively, our results showed that OPN
may be associated with the deterioration of Eca EPCs metabolism induced by obesity. Thus OPN may
serve as a potential target in endometrial diseases of horses.
Analysis of mitochondrial dynamics documented the increased occurrence of fragmented globular
mitochondria in EPCs derived from the obese endometrium, with higher osteopontin expression than
observed for non-obese mares. Obesity-induced morphological and functional changes of
mitochondria have been noted in skeletal muscle and linked with impaired tissue metabolism [49].
Metabolic imbalance related to decreased mitochondrial activity and oxidative stress is linked with
disturbed   decidualisation,   the   pathogenesis   of   endometriosis,   and   endometrial   cancer
development[50]. The cellular stress noted in endometrial progenitor cells is related to the pro-
inflammatory uterine environment. In the current study, expression of FOXP3 and SIRT1 was lower in
progenitor cells isolated from obese than non-obese endometrium. A characteristic of regulatory T
cells, FOXP3 is responsible for the immunosuppressive capacity of multipotent stromal cells[51] and
may participate in regulating immune responses in endometriosis. Endometrial FOXP3 in women with
endometriosis decreases linearly from early to late proliferative phase[52]. In turn, SIRT1 suppresses
nuclear factor-κB (NF-κB), which is a transcription factor regulating expression of various pro-
inflammatory cytokines and chemokines [53, 54]. Moreover, SIRT1 may be an essential molecule for
regulating embryo implantation into the endometrium through stimulation of E-cadherin [55].
Compared to normal-weight mares, embryos from obese mares have higher expression of transcripts
associated with inflammation, endoplasmic reticulum, oxidative and mitochondrial stress [4]. Defects
of mitochondrial metabolism occur in endometriosis with a decrease in electron transport chain
complex I- and II-mediated mitochondrial respiration [56], which correlates with our study.
Comparative analysis showed that EPCs OB when compared to EPCs Non-OB had decreased
expression of transcripts essential for mtDNA function and mitochondrial respiratory chain stability.
Defects in mitochondrial metabolism, observed in EPCs OB, could originate from accumulation of
reactive oxygen species (ROS) and nitric oxide, which is also accompanied by decreased mRNA and
protein expression of PTEN-induced kinase 1 (PINK1) and mitofusin 1 (MNF1). PINK1 is an essential
regulator of mitochondrial homeostasis and energy metabolism. Studies performed using the PINK1-
knockout mice model showed that mammalian PINK1 is a key factor protecting against oxidative
stress in the mitochondrion[57]. Decreased levels of PINK1 are noted in the endometrium with minimal
and mild endometriosis [58]. Mitofusins, including mitofusin 1 and 2 (MFN1 and MFN2, respectively),
are crucial mediators of mitochondrial fusion, which compensate for the functional defects of the
mitochondrion, MFN1 is particularly important in terms of female fertility. The absence of MFN1 is
associated with oocyte apoptosis and cell-cycle arrest, depletion of the ovarian follicular reserve, and
characteristic of female reproductive ageing [59]. Moreover, increased expression of PARKIN noted in
Eca EPCs OB can be associated with clearance of dysfunctional mitochondria and activation of
mechanisms that protect cells against apoptosis[60].
Obesity-induced changes in endometrial progenitor cells were associated with increased constitutive
expression of PI3K/AKT and increased β−galactosidase activity. The PI3K/AKT pathway controls
various critical cellular processes, including glucose homeostasis, lipid metabolism, and protein
synthesis; it also affects cell proliferative activity and viability. Increased AKT expression is related to
increased adipogenesis and the obese phenotype [61]. An overactive AKT pathway is a characteristic
of endometrial cancer and endometriosis, and regulation of PI3K/AKT signalling is a consideration for
therapeutic strategies of endometrial disorders [62]. Obesity induces cellular senescence in
mesenchymal stromal/stem cells, related to a chronic inflammatory condition[5]. Consistent with our
results, Conley et al. showed that obesity elicits an early senescence program in progenitor cells,
manifested by an increased expression of such markers as p53 and p21. However, in the study,
Coloney indicated that senescence-associated beta-galactosidase activity (SA-β-gal) is not
significantly increased in adipose-derived MSCs of obese subjects. In contrast, we found EPCs from
obese mare endometrium accumulated significantly more SA-β-gal in comparison to EPCs isolated
from non-obese endometrium.

Using two-tailed RT-qPCR, we established equine non-coding RNA levels. We have tested miRNAs
regulating oxidative status and counteracting the senescent cell burden of progenitor cells. The
obtained miRNA profile confirmed that obesity attenuates the molecular phenotype of EPCs, resulting
in decreased proliferative activity and oxidative stress. Eca EPCs from obese endometrium were
characterised by decreased levels of let-7b and let-7c, as well as miR-20a-5p, -29a-3p, -133b-3p and -
181a-5p, but significantly increased levels of let-7a. Loss of let-7b expression is connected with
endometriosis pathophysiology and inflammation [63]. In human adipose-derived stem cells, let-7c is
recognised as a molecule promoting ectopic bone formation and suppressing adipogenesis via high-
mobility group AT-hook 2 [64]. Thus, decreased expression of let-7b and let-7c in EPCs from obese
endometrium could be related to the deterioration of self-renewal potential and decreased cellular
plasticity. Moreover, increased levels of let-7a may reflect the lowered immunomodulatory potential of
Eca EPCs OB, as linked to decreased expression of FOXP3 [65]. Lowered proliferative potential of
Eca EPCs OB, was also confirmed by decreased levels of both miR-29a and miR-181a-5p. Those
molecules are not only essential regulators of the self-renewal potential of MSCs, but they also
promote the wound healing capacity of tissues[66]. Furthermore, miR-29a promotes angiogenesis and
protects against fibrosis post-injury, regulating biological activity of MMPs and vascular endothelial
growth factors (VEGFs) [67]. Down-regulation of miR-20a-5p and miR-133b-3p are observed in
mesenchymal stem cells as a result of oxidative stress damage [68, 69].

While not the focus of this manuscript, our results marked differences in the endometrium of mares
associated with obesity. These changes suggest that the obese mare's uterus could be less able to
adapt to cyclic changes and provide an optimal environment during pregnancy. While further studies
are needed in this area, body condition is a potential consideration in broodmare management.

In summary, when compared to Eca EPCs from non-obese mares, we demonstrated that obesity in
the mare alters functional features of endometrial progenitor cells, such as molecular phenotype
associated with their potential for specific differentiation, self-renewal activity and mitochondrial
metabolism and dynamics. Obesity attenuated cellular homeostasis of endometrial progenitor cells,
resulting in increased oxidative stress and hampered pro-regenerative signalling. Early apoptosis and
increased senescence characterised progenitor cells when derived from obese endometrium. The
impaired cytophysiology of progenitor cells from obese endometrium predict lower regenerative
capacity if used as autologous transplants. In our opinion, further studies are required to evaluate the
cellular plasticity and immunomodulatory properties of endometrial progenitor cells. Future studies
should also focus on developing methods to change the trajectory of obesity-induced metabolic
deterioration to improve their functional properties.

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List of Figure legends:

Fig.1. Phenotype of Eca EPCs. The RT-qPCR analysis were aimed at determining relative transcript

levels of cell surface markers (a). The mRNA expression was established for MSCs markers (CD29,

CD44, CD90, CD105), perivascular markers (NG2, CD146), epithelial marker (MUC-1) and smooth

muscle markers (ACTA2, CNN1, MHY11). The expression of mRNA for hematopoietic markers

(CD34, CD45) was not included on the graphs due to the lack of a specific signal. The PCR products

were analysed using electrophoresis (b). The cellular phenotype was also tested using

immunocytochemistry (c) and flow-cytometry (d). Columns with bars represent means ± SD. * p-value

< 0.05, **** p-value < 0.0001.

Fig. 2. The analysis of Eca EPCs multipotency. Tissue-specific differentiation along with proper

extracellular matrix features was documented (a). Cultures were maintained under osteogenic,

chondrogenic and adipogenic conditions. Calcium deposits formed under osteogenic conditions were

detected using Alizarin Red staining, while chondrogenic nodules were stained with Safranin-O dye.

The lipid-rich vacuoles after adipogenic stimulation were detected with Oil Red O. The staining

efficiency was measured to compare the differentiation potential of Eca EPCs Non-OB with Eca EPCs

OB (b-d). All results are shown as mean ± SD. Columns with bars represent means ± SD. **** p-value

< 0.0001.

Fig. 3: The proliferative capacity of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-

obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB), expressed by colony formation capability (a, b),

migratory efficiency (c-f), population doubling time (g), metabolic activity (h). Columns with bars

represent mean ± SD. * p-value < 0.05, ** p-value < 0.01 and *** p-value < 0.001.

Fig. 4: The proliferative capacity of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB) evaluated based on Ki67 expression (a-c), distribution of cells within the cell cycle (d-e), and levels of particular let7 family members. Columns with bars represent means ± SD. * p-value < 0.05, ** p-value < 0.01 and *** p-value < 0.001.

Fig. 5: Morphology, ultrastructure, the growth pattern of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB), and analysis of transcripts associated with a cytoskeletal network. The cultures were imaged with a confocal microscope in order to determine ultrastructure. Growth pattern of cell cultures was monitored under a phase-contrast microscope. Scale bars are indicated in the representative photographs (a and b). Additionally, RT-qPCR was performed to determine the mRNA expression of vimentin (*VIM*; c) and levels of miR-29a-3p and miR-181-5p (d and e). Results from RT-qPCR are presented as a column with bars representing means ± SD. ** p-value < 0.01 and *** p-value < 0.001.

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Fig. 14: Expression of Pi3K/AKT determined and compared between EPCs Non-OB and OB. The intracellular accumulation of AKT and PI3K was visualised using immunocytochemistry (ICC, a-b) and

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interest. Densitometric measurements of membranes were performed to compare expression of

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List of legends for Supplementary items:

Figure 1S. The results of body condition score (BCS) examination performed on live mares for proper

classification of animals. Columns with bars represent mean ± SD. * p-value < 0.05, ** p-value < 0.01

Table 1S. Sequences and characteristics of primers used for the mRNA detection with RT-qPCR.

Table 2S. List of primers used for establishing miRNA levels with the Two-tailed RT-qPCR approach.

Table 3S. List of antibodies used for protein detection using Western blot.

Table 4S. List of antibodies used for immunocytochemistry.

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