

1 Article

# 2 3 Obesity affects mitochondrial metabolism and proliferative 4 potential of equine endometrial progenitor cells.

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18 **Abstract:** The study aimed to investigate the influence of obesity on cellular features of equine en-  
19 dometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs), including viability, proliferation capacity, mitochondrial me-  
20 tabolism, and oxidative homeostasis. Eca EPCs derived from non-obese (Non-OB) and obese (OB)  
21 mares were characterized by cellular phenotype and multipotency. Obesity-induced changes in the  
22 activity of Eca EPCs include the decline of their proliferative activity, clonogenic potential, mito-  
23 chondrial metabolism and enhanced oxidative stress. Eca EPCs isolated from obese mares were  
24 characterized by an increased occurrence of early apoptosis, loss of mitochondrial dynamics, and  
25 senescence-associated phenotype. Attenuated metabolism of Eca EPCs OB was related to increased  
26 expression of pro-apoptotic markers (CASP9, BAX, P53, P21), enhanced expression of OPN, PI3K  
27 and AKT, simultaneously with decreased signaling stabilizing cellular homeostasis (including mi-  
28 tofusin, SIRT1, FOXP3). Obesity alters functional features and the self-renewal potential of endome-  
29 trial progenitor cells. The impaired cytophysiology of progenitor cells from obese endometrium  
30 predict lower regenerative capacity if used as autologous transplants.

31 **Keywords:** obesity; endometrial progenitor cells; cellular metabolism; self-renewal potential  
32

## 33 1. Introduction

34 As is widely known, obesity contributes to an increased risk of cardiovascular dis-  
35 ease, type 2 diabetes, and stroke. However, there is also growing body of evidence sup-  
36 porting the negative influence of obesity on reproduction, including infertility, low qual-  
37 ity of oocytes, increased early pregnancy loss [1]. Additionally, obesity reduces the success  
38 of attaining pregnancy, even when accompanied by assisted reproductive technology. It  
39 was also shown that obesity is strongly associated with the development of endometrial  
40 cancer. The endometrial environment has an essential role in obesity-related reproductive  
41 impairments, but molecular mechanisms by which obesity contribute to the degeneration  
42 of the endometrium niche are still investigated. However, mitochondrial dysfunction is  
43 highlighted as a significant link between cellular metabolic imbalance and reproductive  
44 problems [2].

45 In this study, we have incorporated the equine model to study the effect of obesity  
46 on the cytophysiology of endometrial progenitor cells.

47 From studies conducted in Europe, North America, Australia and New Zealand, 2 to  
48 72% of horses are considered overweight, and 1 to 19% of animals are obese[3,4]. Obesity  
49 contributes to developing metabolic disorders, such as insulin resistance, equine meta-  
50 bolic syndrome (EMS), and laminitis - all conditions accompanied by inflammation. Infer-  
51 tility and altered reproductive function of mares are also consequences of obesity [4,5].  
52 Maternal obesity also influences foal metabolism and increases the occurrence of low-  
53 grade inflammation and osteochondrosis in yearlings [3]. The effect of obesity on the eq-  
54 uine uterus has not been well defined, although gene expression in the endometrium was  
55 altered even after short-term obesity, showing a proinflammatory profile with increased  
56 expression of TNF $\alpha$  and IL1 $\beta$  [6].

57 Excessive accumulation and expansion of adipose tissue affect the endogenous self-  
58 renewal capacity of the organism [7]. Our previous studies have demonstrated that equine  
59 metabolic syndrome affects the regenerative potential of adipose-derived stromal/stem  
60 cells (ASCs)[8–11]. Progenitor cells, isolated from horses with metabolic syndrome, have  
61 limited clinical potential compared to healthy subjects because of reduced proliferation  
62 capacity, disturbed cellular homeostasis, and hampered multipotency. The physiological  
63 status and age of the horse affect the metabolism of progenitor cells. Ageing and equine  
64 metabolic syndrome reduce the self-renewal potential of progenitor cells, significantly im-  
65 pairing mitochondrial function while increasing autophagy, oxidative stress, and endo-  
66 plasmic stress[8–10]. The lowered regenerative features of progenitor cells, resulting from  
67 obesity-induced cellular damage, notably limits therapies based on autologous trans-  
68 plants [12].

69 The biology of equine multipotent stromal/stem cells (MSCs) isolated from adipose  
70 tissue and bone marrow is well described. These cells are commonly used to treat equine  
71 locomotive disorders [12,13]. However, since MSCs keep an epigenetic memory specific  
72 to the tissue of origin, other adult tissues are being explored as potential sources for pro-  
73 genitor cells [14]. Recently, attention has been given to the cytophysiology of progenitor  
74 cells originating from the endometrium [14–16]. The endometrium has increased regener-  
75 ative potential, which is needed for remodeling during the oestrous cycle. Progenitor cells  
76 from the uterus can be harvested by a biopsy, which is a nonsurgical procedure without  
77 the need for anesthesia in mares. The endometrium provides an attractive source of easily  
78 obtained and highly proliferating cells [14,15,17].

79 Cells isolated from equine endometrial tissue were previously characterized as a  
80 multipotent population with enhanced self-renewal properties [15]. Uterine pathologies,  
81 such as post-breeding endometritis and endometriosis lead to a substantial economic bur-  
82 den for the equine industry [18]. Thus, therapies based on the application of endometrial  
83 progenitor cells are appealing.

84 The main objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of obesity on basic cyto-  
85 physiological features of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs), including vi-  
86 ability and self-renewal potential, as well as mitochondrial metabolism. We compared pro-  
87 liferation capacity, mitochondrial dynamics, and molecular phenotypes of EPCs obtained  
88 from non-obese (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB).

## 89 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 90 *2.1. Harvesting and isolation of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) from obese and* 91 *non-obese mares*

92 Tissue samples were obtained post-mortem from non-obese (n=4) and obese (n=4)  
93 mares during anestrus. Uteri were collected from a local slaughterhouse at Rawicz in No-  
94 vember and December of 2019 and 2020, and samples were isolated from the uterine body.  
95 The mean age of non-obese mares was  $9.5 \pm 2$ , while obese mares were  $9 \pm 1$ . The obesity  
96 of mares was determined based on body condition score (BCS), using the protocol estab-  
97 lished previously [10,19] and a system developed by Henneke et al. [20]. BSC is expressed  
98 by numerical value for fat deposition ranging from 1 (poor) to 9 (extremely obese). The

99 horses in the non-obese group had BSC =  $6.5 \pm 0.289$  (mean+SEM), while obese mares were  
100 characterized by BCS =  $8.75 \pm 0.250$  (mean+SEM).

101 The tissue fragments (~4g) were washed three times using Hank's balanced salt so-  
102 lution (HBSS) supplemented with 1% of penicillin/streptomycin mix (P/S, Sigma Al-  
103 drich/Merck, Poznan, Poland). The endometrium was dissociated from myometrium, cut  
104 into small fragments, and placed into an enzymatic solution. The solution consisted of  
105 collagenase type I (1 mg/ml) prepared in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium/F12  
106 (DMEM/F12, Sigma Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland). The tissue fragments were digested  
107 for 40 minutes in CO<sub>2</sub> incubator at 37 °C with periodic vortexing. After incubation, the  
108 homogenates were filtered using a sterile 70- $\mu$ m cell strainer (Greiner Bio-One, Biokom,  
109 Janki, Poland) to discard the undigested tissue fragments. Further, the suspension of cells  
110 was centrifuged at 300 $\times$ g for 10 minutes. Obtained pellets were washed in HBSS and then  
111 resuspended in DMEM/F12 medium supplemented with 15% of foetal bovine serum (FBS,  
112 Sigma Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland) and 1% P/S solution, hereinafter referred to as a  
113 complete growth medium for endometrial stromal cells (CGM<sub>EPC</sub>). The cells were trans-  
114 ferred into a T-75 culture flask (Nunc, Biokom, Janki, Poland). Both primary and subse-  
115 quently passaged cultures were cultured at constant conditions in CO<sub>2</sub> incubator at 37°C,  
116 and maintaining 95% humidity. The CGM<sub>EPC</sub> was changed every 2 days. The culture was  
117 passaged when reaching 90% confluence using a trypsin solution (StableCell Trypsin,  
118 Sigma Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland). Cells used for the experiment were pulled at pas-  
119 sage 3 (p3).

## 120 2.2. Phenotype and multipotency of Eca EPCs

121 The phenotype of cells was determined based on mRNA expression of (i) the mesen-  
122 chymal markers, including CD29, CD44, CD90, CD105; (ii) hematopoietic markers, i.e.  
123 CD34 and CD45; (iii) perivascular markers, including CD146 and NG2; (iv) an epithelial  
124 marker, i.e. mucin-1 and (v) smooth muscle markers, including actin alpha 1 (ACTA2),  
125 calponin 1 (CNN1) and myosin heavy chain 11 (MHY11).

126 The expression of selected genes was determined using the RT-qPCR protocol de-  
127 scribed in paragraph 2.6. The sequences of oligonucleotides were published by Rink et al.  
128 [15] and were fully characterized in Table 1S. Amplified PCR products were separated in  
129 2% agarose gel and stained with SYBR™ Safe DNA Gel Stain Thermo Fisher Scientific,  
130 Warsaw, Poland. The molecular weight of the obtained products was compared to DNA  
131 Ladder (M50pz, Blirt DNA, Gdansk, Poland).

132 Immunocytochemical staining aimed at detecting CD44, CD45, CD73, CD90 and  
133 CD105 surface markers is described in paragraph 2.8., while antibodies used for analysis  
134 are listed in Table 4S.

135 To verify the multipotency, Eca EPCs were cultured under osteogenic, chondrogenic  
136 and adipogenic conditions. For this purpose, cells (p3) were seeded into 6-well plates at  
137 inoculum  $1 \times 10^5$  cells per well. The differentiation was induced using commercially avail-  
138 able kits (StemPro®, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Warsaw, Poland) after 48 hours of culture  
139 when cells reached 90% confluency. The effectiveness of tissue-specific differentiation was  
140 evaluated after 21 days in osteogenic cultures and after 16 days in chondrogenic and adi-  
141 pogenic cultures. Following differentiation, the extracellular matrix was stained accord-  
142 ingly to well-established protocols [22]. Osteogenesis in vitro was verified with Alizarin  
143 Red staining. The chondrogenic nodules were detected with Safranin O. In contrast, lipid  
144 droplets in adipogenic cultures were detected after Oil Red O staining. Documentation of  
145 cultures was performed using an inverted microscope (Axio Observer A.1, Zeiss, Ober-  
146 kochen, Germany) with Power Shot digital camera (Canon, Woodhatch, UK). Images were  
147 processed and analyzed, as was previously described [21].

## 148 2.3. Evaluation of proliferation and migratory capacity of cells

150 Proliferation activity of cells was evaluated based on multiple parameters established  
151 in a clonogenic and wound healing assay, MTS assay, and cell cycle analysis. The proto-  
152 cols were used previously for progenitor cells of different origins and were published in  
153 detail [11,23,24]. In this experiment, the efficiency of colony-forming unit (CFU-E) occur-  
154 rence was evaluated after 12 days of culture using the protocol described by Rink et al.[15].  
155 Cells were inoculated in 6-well plates at a density equal 10 cells/cm<sup>2</sup> in 2 mL of CGM<sub>EPC</sub>.  
156 After the test, cultures were fixed in 4% of paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 30 minutes, sub-  
157 sequently washed using HBSS, and stained with 2 % pararosaniline solution (Sigma Al-  
158 drich/Merck, Poznan, Poland) for 5 minutes, before being rewashed with HBSS. Colonies  
159 were defined as clusters formed by more than 50 cells.

160 For the wound healing assay, cultures were maintained at a high confluence, reach-  
161 ing 90%. The scratch was made with a 200- $\mu$ l pipette tip, and cultures were propagated  
162 for an additional 24 hours. After that, cultures were fixed with 4% PFA and stained with  
163 the pararosaniline solution. Cultures were documented using a Canon PowerShot digital  
164 camera (Woodhatch, UK).

165 The population doubling time (PDT) was determined based on the growth curve of  
166 Eca EPCs, established by a routine counting of cells during the passage. The cells were  
167 counted using the Muse<sup>®</sup> Count & Viability Kit (Luminex/Merck, Poznan, Poland) accord-  
168 ing to the manufacturer's protocol and analyzed using Muse Cell Analyser (Sigma-Al-  
169 drich/Merck, Poznan, Poland). Obtained data were used to determine PDT with an algo-  
170 rithm published by Heuer et al.[25] and Cell Calculator [26].

171 The proliferation determined based on metabolic activity was measured using MTS  
172 (Cell Proliferation, Colorimetric, Abcam, Cambridge, UK). For this purpose, Eca EPCs  
173 were seeded in 96-well plates at a density equal to 5x10<sup>3</sup> per well in 200  $\mu$ l CGM<sub>EPC</sub>. After  
174 24 h of cells inoculation, 20  $\mu$ l of MTS solution was added per well. The test included blank  
175 control. Cultures were incubated with the dye for 2 h at 37°C in a CO<sub>2</sub> incubator. Follow-  
176 ing incubation, absorbance was measured spectrophotometrically with a plate reader  
177 (Epoch, Biotek, Germany) at a wavelength of 490 nm. MTS assay was performed after 24,  
178 48 and 72 h of Eca EPCs culturing.

179 The cell cycle was determined using Muse Cell Cycle Kit (Luminex/Merck, Poznan,  
180 Poland) using the manufacturer's protocol. The analysis was performed using Muse Cell  
181 Analyser (Sigma-Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland), and for each assay, 0.5x10<sup>6</sup> of Eca EPCs  
182 were tested.

183 The proliferation activity of Eca EPCs from non-obese and obese mares was also eval-  
184 uated based on immunocytochemical staining of Ki67 marker and miRNA levels. A  
185 transwell system with a pore size of 8  $\mu$ m (Corning, Biokom, Warsaw, Poland) was used  
186 to test the motility capabilities of Eca EPCs. Cells were inoculated into the upper chamber  
187 at a density equal to 0.2 x10<sup>5</sup> in a 300  $\mu$ l of serum-free culture medium (DMEM/F12 sup-  
188 plemented 1% P/S). The CGM<sub>EPC</sub> was added to the lower compartment of the transwell  
189 system. The cells were stained with pararoseline solution, as described above. Chambers  
190 were evaluated under an inverted microscope (Leica DMi1), with an attached Digital  
191 Camera MC170 and Leica Application Suite (LAS) software (all from Leica Microsystems,  
192 KAWA.SKA Sp. z o.o., Zalesie Gorne, Poland).

#### 193 *2.4. The evaluation of Eca EPC growth pattern, morphology and ultrastructure*

194 The growth pattern and morphology of cultures were evaluated using an inverted  
195 microscope (Leica DMi1) equipped with a camera MC170 (Leica Microsystems,  
196 KAWA.SKA Sp. z o.o., Zalesie Gorne, Poland). Cell condition was also determined from  
197 images obtained after senescence-associated beta-galactosidase staining. The ultrastruc-  
198 ture of Eca EPCs was analyzed using a confocal microscope (Leica TCS SPE, Leica Mi-  
199 crosystems, KAWA.SKA Sp. z o.o., Zalesie Gorne, Poland) based on localization and dis-  
200 tribution of nuclei, cytoskeleton and mitochondrial network. The mitochondria were  
201 stained in vital cultures with MitoRed dye (Sigma-Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland) pre-



202           pared in CGM<sup>EPC</sup> (1:1000). Subsequently, cultures were incubated with the dye in CO<sub>2</sub> in-  
203           cubator at 37°C for 30 minutes. Next, cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA)  
204           for 30 minutes at room temperature and rinsed three times with HBSS. Following fixation,  
205           the actin cytoskeleton was imaged using Phalloidin-Atto 488 (Sigma-Aldrich/Merck, Poz-  
206           nan, Poland). For this purpose, cells were permeabilized with 0.2% Tween 20 and pre-  
207           pared in HBSS for 20 minutes at room temperature. After permeabilization, cells were  
208           stained with phalloidin solution dissolved in HBSS at a concentration of 1:800. The stain-  
209           ing lasted 30 minutes and was performed at 37°C in the dark. Cells nuclei were counter-  
210           stained using 4',6-Diamidine-2'-phenylindole dihydrochloride (DAPI) mounting medium  
211           (ProLong™ Diamond Antifade Mountant with DAPI, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Warsaw,  
212           Poland). Preparations were observed using the confocal microscope under magnification  
213           630× and processed with Fiji software (ImageJ 1.52n, Wayne Rasband, National Institute  
214           of Health, USA). Additionally, to evaluate the mitochondrial dynamics, the cells were vis-  
215           ualized under 1000× and analyzed using MicroP software [27].

216           To determine mitochondrion gene expression, mitochondria were isolated using the  
217           Mitochondria Isolation Kit for Cultured Cells (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Warsaw, Poland).  
218           All steps of the procedure were performed following the manufacturer's instructions. The  
219           mitochondria were isolated from 2 × 10<sup>7</sup> cells. The obtained mitochondria were homoge-  
220           nized with 1 ml of Extrazol® (Blirt DNA, Gdansk, Poland).

#### 221           2.5. Evaluation of Eca EPCs viability, metabolism and oxidative status

222           The cellular health of Eca EPCs Non-OB and Eca EPCs OB was evaluated using  
223           Guava® Muse® Cell Analyser (Sigma-Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland). The metabolic ac-  
224           tivity of cells was determined based on mitochondrial membrane potential using Muse™  
225           Mitopotential Assay Kit. Apoptosis profile was established in the test with Muse® An-  
226           nexin V & Dead Cell Kit. In addition, oxidative status was evaluated based on the intra-  
227           cellular accumulation of reactive oxygen species (Muse® Oxidative Stress Kit) and nitric  
228           oxide (Muse® Nitric Oxide Kit). All assays were performed according to protocols pro-  
229           vided by the manufacturer (Luminex/Merck, Poznan, Poland) and were described in de-  
230           tail previously [28–30].

#### 231           2.6. Determination of transcripts levels

232           The experimental cultures of Eca EPCs and isolated mitochondria were homogenised  
233           using Extrazol® (Blirt DNA, Gdansk, Poland). Total RNA and mitochondrial RNA was  
234           isolated using the phenol-chloroform method. Their genomic DNA (gDNA) residuals  
235           were removed from samples with DNase I from PrecisionDNase kit (Primerdesign, Blirt  
236           DNA, Gdansk, Poland). Purified RNA (500 ng) was transcribed into cDNA with Tetro  
237           cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bioline Reagents Limited, London, UK) to analyze genes expression.  
238           Both digestion of gDNA and reverse transcription (RT) was performed using T100 Ther-  
239           mal Cycler (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed using  
240           1 µl of cDNA and specific primers (sequences listed in Table 1S; Supporting Information).  
241           Two-tailed RT-qPCR was used for specific detection of miRNA levels. The exact condi-  
242           tions of reactions were described elsewhere [11], while primers are listed in Table 2S (Sup-  
243           porting Information). All qPCR measurements were carried out using CFX Connect™  
244           Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). The obtained gene ex-  
245           pression results were calculated using RQ<sub>MAX</sub> algorithm and converted into the log<sub>2</sub> scale  
246           as described previously [11,24,30].

#### 247           2.7. Detection of protein expression with Western blot

248           To determine the intracellular accumulation of selected proteins, cells were lysed us-  
249           ing ice-cold RIPA buffer containing 1% of protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail  
250           (Sigma Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Polska). The total concentration of proteins in samples  
251           was determined using the Bicinchoninic Acid Assay Kit (Sigma Aldrich/Merck, Poznan,  
252           Polska). The samples containing 20 µg of protein were mixed with 4× Laemmli loading  
253           buffer (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). Subsequently, samples were incubated for 5 minutes

254 at 95 °C in T100 Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). Samples were separated  
255 in 12.5 % sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE; 100V  
256 for 90 minutes) in Mini-PROTEAN Tetra Vertical Electrophoresis Cell (Bio-Rad, Hercules,  
257 CA, USA) and transferred into polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane in 1× Trans-  
258 fer buffer (Tris-base/Glycine/Methanol, Sigma-Aldrich/Merck, Poznan, Poland) using the  
259 Mini Trans-Blot® system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) at 100 V for 60 minutes. The mem-  
260 branes were blocked using 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in TBS-T for 60 minutes. De-  
261 tection of protein was performed by overnight incubation at 4°C with primary antibodies.  
262 The incubation of membranes with secondary antibodies was performed for 60 minutes  
263 at 4°C. After each incubation with the antibody, the membranes were washed five times  
264 for 5 minutes with TBST buffer.

265 Details of antibodies used for the reaction are presented in Table 3S. Chemilumines-  
266 cent signal was detected using Bio-Rad ChemiDoc™ XRS system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA,  
267 USA) using DuoLuX® Chemiluminescent and Fluorescent Peroxidase (HRP) Substrate  
268 (Vector Laboratories, Biokom, Janki, Poland;). The Image Lab™ Software (Bio-Rad, Her-  
269 cules, CA, USA) was used in order to analyze the molecular weight and intensity of sig-  
270 nals.

### 271 2.8. Immunocytochemical detection

272 Immunocytochemical (ICC) staining was performed using previously described proto-  
273 col [24,31]. Here, Eca EPCs cultures were performed in 24-well dishes covered by glass  
274 cover slides. Cultures were fixed with 4% PFA after 72 hours of propagation. The incuba-  
275 tion was performed 30 minutes at room temperature. Subsequently, specimens were  
276 washed three times using HBSS and prepared for permeabilization with 0.2% PBS-Tween  
277 solution supplemented with 10% goat serum. Specimens were permeabilized for 1h. The  
278 incubation of samples with the primary antibody in HBSS was performed overnight at 4  
279 °C. The secondary antibody was used at a concentration equal to 1:1000 in HBSS. Details  
280 of antibodies used for the reaction are presented in Table 4S. Each step of the protocol  
281 was preceded by gentle washing of specimens with HBSS. After staining, slides were fixed  
282 with a mounting medium with DAPI (ProLong™ Diamond Antifade Mountant with  
283 DAPI, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Warsaw, Poland). Observations were made using a con-  
284 focal microscope (Leica TCS SPE, Leica Microsystems, KAWA.SKA Sp. z o.o., Zalesie  
285 Gorne, Poland). Images were processed and analyzed, as was previously described [24].

### 286 2.9. Statistical analysis

287 The results obtained in the study are presented as the mean with standard deviation  
288 ( $\pm$ SD). The values derived from at least three technical repetitions. The normality of the  
289 population data was determined using Shapiro–Wilk test, while equality of variances was  
290 assessed by Levene’s test. The measurements were conducted with STATISTICA 10.0 soft-  
291 ware (StatSoft, Inc., Statistica for Windows, Tulsa, OK, USA). Comparative analysis was  
292 performed using t-Student test or One-way analysis of variance with Dunnett’s post hoc  
293 test. These calculations were performed using GraphPad Software (Prism 8.20, San Diego,  
294 CA, USA). Differences with a probability of  $p < 0.05$  were considered significant.

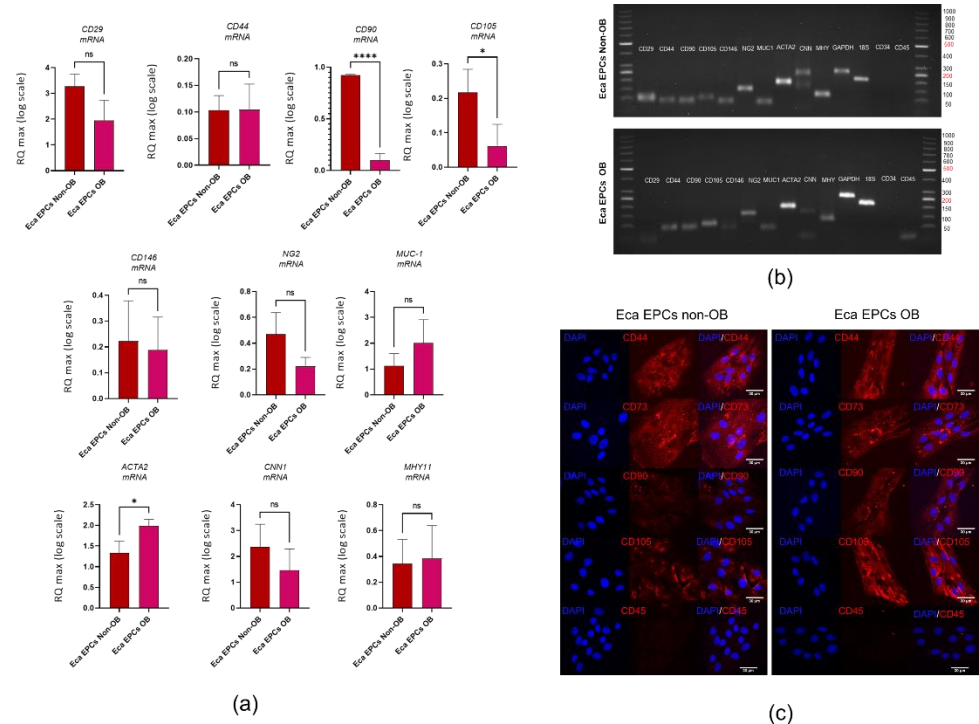
## 295 3. Results

### 296 3.1. Characterization of the model used for the studies

297 The animals used for the experiment were classified using a system proposed by  
298 Henneke et al.[20]. Significant differences in terms of BSC between non-obese (Non-OB)  
299 and obese (OB) groups were noted, warranting proper classification of animals (Figure  
300 1S).

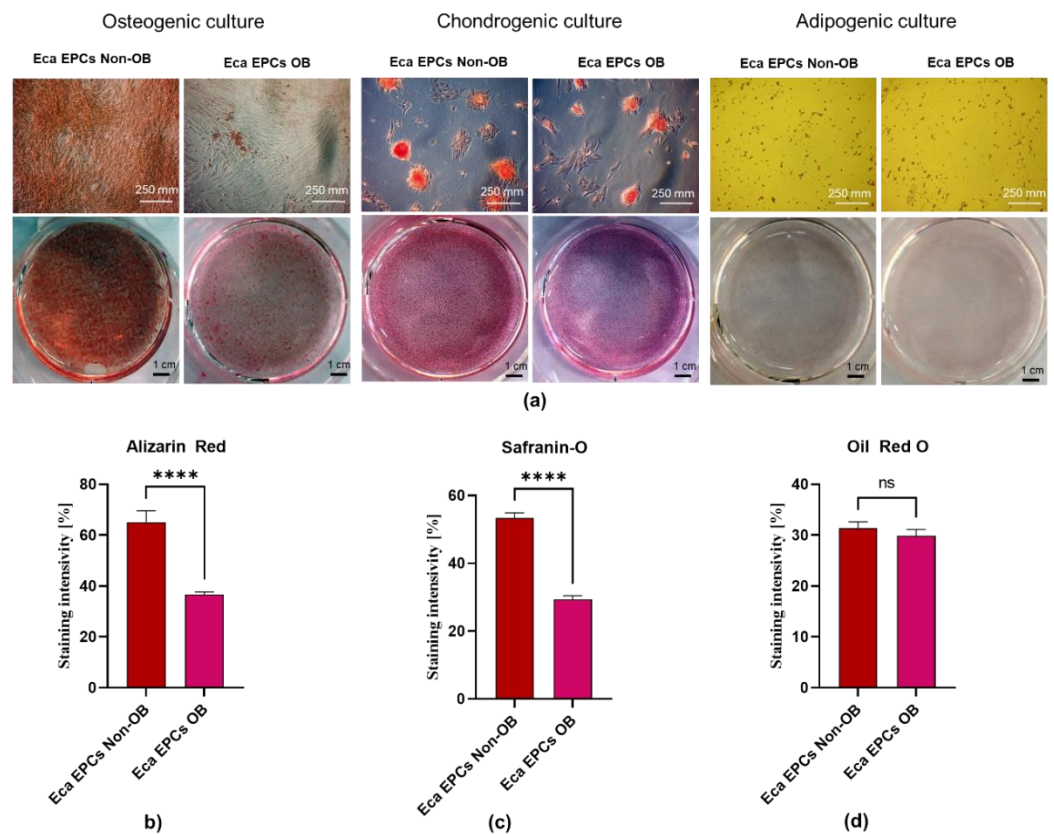
301 Furthermore, we have evaluated the phenotype of the cells used for the study and  
302 tested their multipotent character. The mesenchymal stem cells markers were assessed  
303 using RT-qPCR and with immunocytochemistry staining (Figure 1). The population of

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 (Figure 1 b-c). Progenitor cells from the endometrium of non-obese mares and obese mares (Eca EPCs Non-OB and Eca EPCs OB) differed in CD105 expression (Figure 1). The Eca EPCs OB showed decreased levels of mRNA for CD105. Moreover, the reduced transcript levels for CD105 noted in Eca EPCs OB correlated with a decreased mRNA expression for CD90 (Figure 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 (Figure 1 a-b).



**Figure 1.** Phenotype of Eca EPCs. The RT-qPCR analysis aimed to determine 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 mRNA expression 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). All results are shown as mean  $\pm$  SD. Columns with bars represent means  $\pm$  SD. \* p-value < 0.05, \*\*\*\* p-value < 0.0001.

Additionally, Eca EPCs used in the study underwent specific differentiation under osteogenic, chondrogenic and adipogenic conditions, indicating their multipotency (Figure 2). However, the analysis of the extracellular matrix showed that Eca EPCs OB had lowered osteogenic and chondrogenic potential compared to Eca EPCs Non-OB (Figure 2 a-c). The adipogenic potential of Eca EPCs OB was also decreased (Figure 2 d).



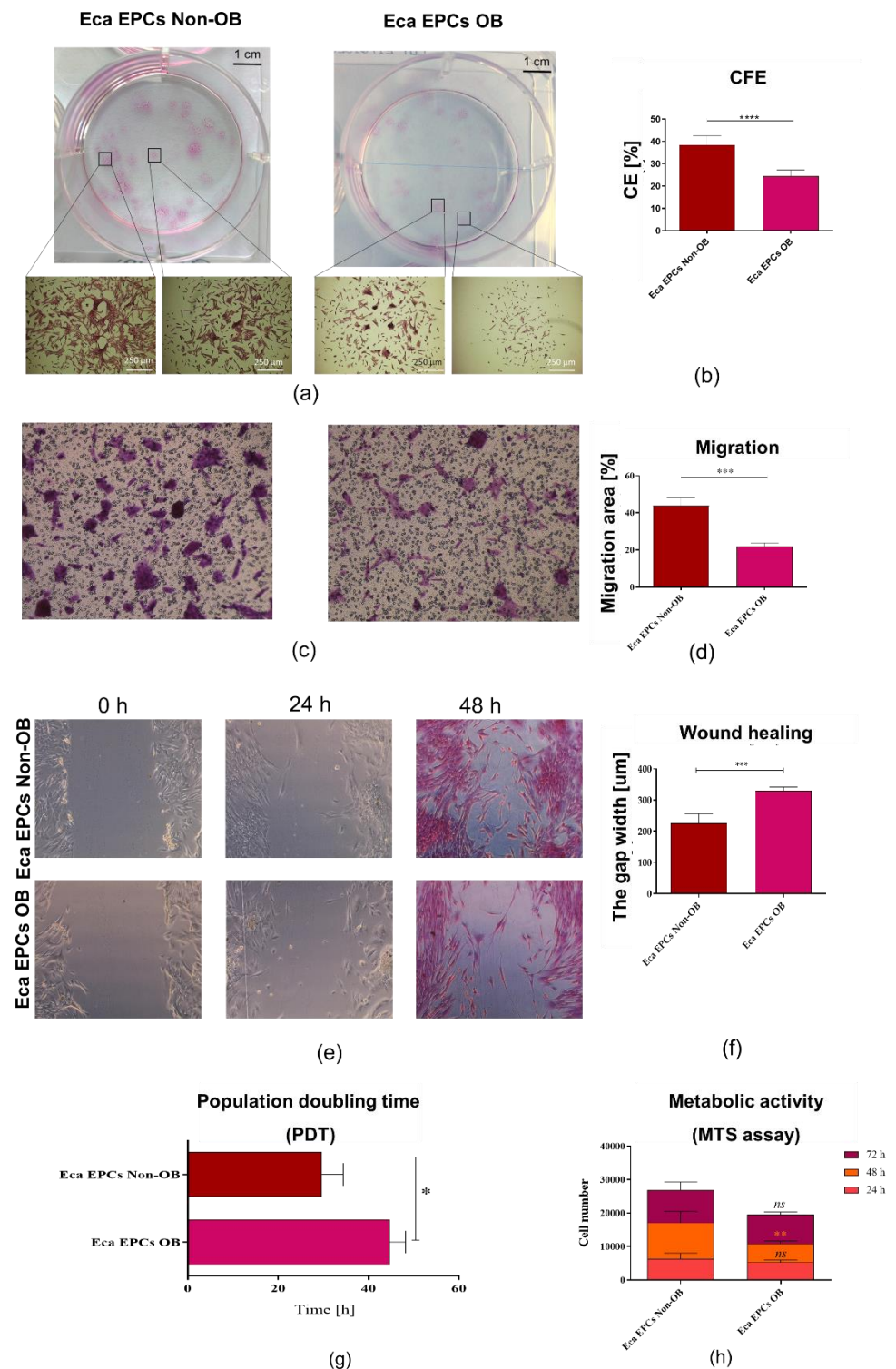
**Figure 2.** The analysis of Eca EPCs multipotency. Tissue-specific differentiation extracellular matrix features were documented (a). Cultures were maintained under osteogenic, chondrogenic and adipogenic conditions. Calcium deposits formed under osteogenic conditions were detected using Alizarin Red 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  $\pm$  SD. \*\*\*\* p-value < 0.0001.

### 3.2. Influence of obesity on proliferation of equine endometrial progenitor cells

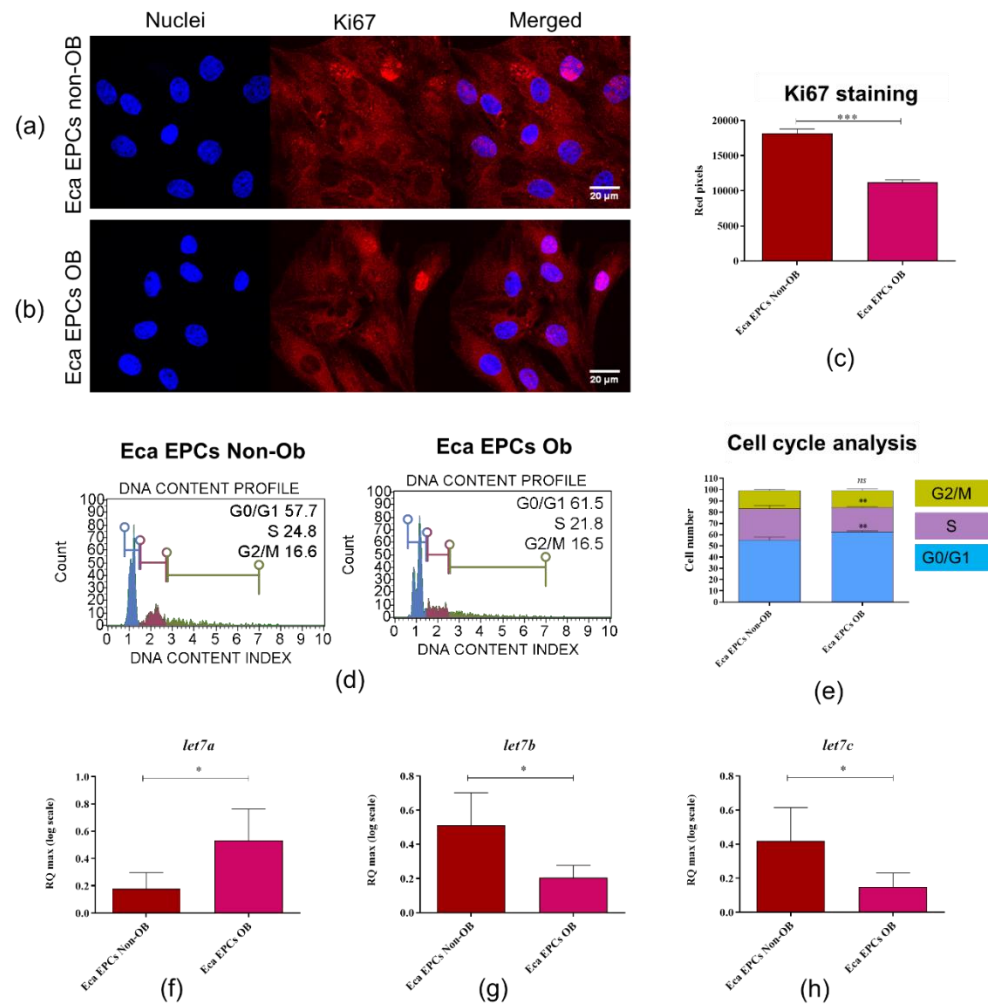
The study showed, that the progenitor cells isolated from the endometrium of obese mares (Eca EPCs OB) were characterized by decreased proliferative potential. In contrast, endometrial progenitor cells isolated from non-obese mares (Eca EPCs Non-OB) showed faster initial growth and enhanced proliferation capacity (Figure 3). The lowered self-renewal potential of Eca EPCs OB was demonstrated by a significantly reduced ability to form colony-forming units (CFUs) (Figure 3 a, b). The migratory and wound healing assay revealed that Eca EPCs from OB were characterized by lowered expansion potency (Figure 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; Figure 3g). The metabolic activity of EPCs OB was also disturbed 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 (Figure 3 h).

Cell cycle analysis confirmed that Eca EPCs OB had decreased potential for division (Figure 4). The intracellular accumulation of Ki67, a marker of actively proliferating cells, was significantly decreased in EPCs Ob cultures (Figure 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 (Figure 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 proliferation of progenitor cells, i.e. let-7b and let-7c. However, let-7a expression was increased in Eca EPCs OB (Figure. 4 f -h).





**Figure 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  $\pm$  SD. \* p-value < 0.05, \*\* p-value < 0.01 and \*\*\* p-value < 0.001.

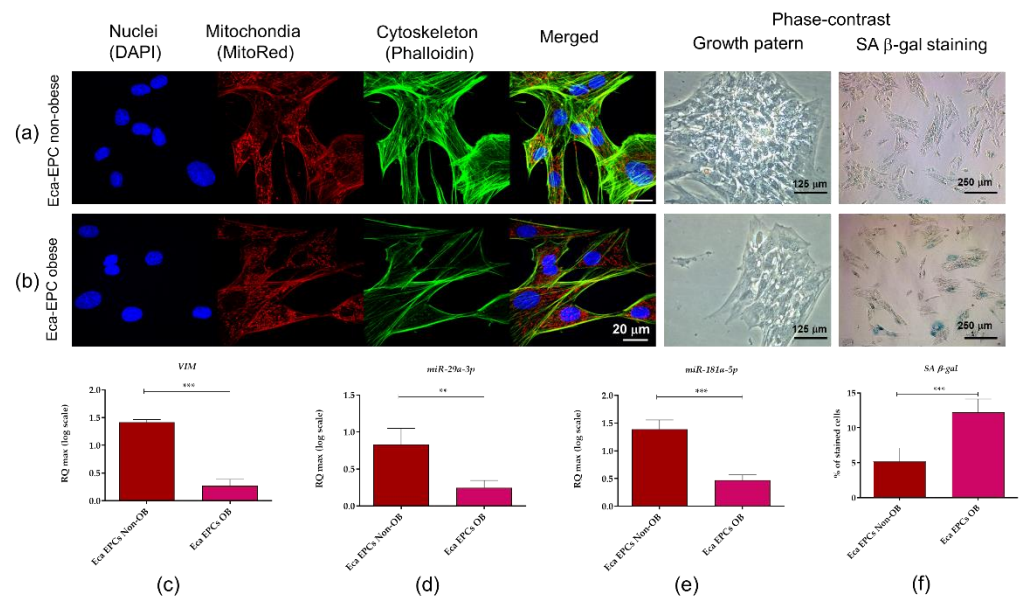


**Figure 4:** The proliferative capacity of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB) evaluated based on Ki67 expression (a-c), distribution of cells within the cell cycle (d-e), and levels of particular let7 family members. Columns with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

### 3.3. The influence of obesity on cytophysiology of equine progenitor cells

Morphology, growth pattern and markers associated with cytoskeleton assembly and self-renewal of cells

Analysis of cell morphology and ultrastructure showed that Eca EPCs isolated from non-obese and obese mares showed fibroblast-like, spindle-shaped morphology (Figure 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  $\beta$ -galactosidase (Figure 5 f). Additionally, mRNA levels for vimentin (*VIM*), type III intermediate filament (IF) were decreased in Eca EPCs OB (Figure 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 (Figure 5 d and e).



**Figure 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 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  $\pm$  SD. \*\* p-value < 0.01 and \*\*\* p-value < 0.001.

### Mitochondrial metabolism

A decreased number of mitochondria were observed in Eca EPCs derived from obese mares (Figure 6). Moreover, these cells were distinguished by the presence of respiratory deficient, globular mitochondria (Figure 6 h). Further, analysis of mitochondrial membrane potential (MMP) confirmed the lowered metabolism of Eca EPCs from obese mares (Figure 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 (Figure 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 (Figure 9). The mRNA level of PARKIN was decreased, while PARKIN protein was accumulated within Eca EPCs OB (Figure 9 a-c). In contrast, PINK mRNA levels were elevated, but protein expression was lower in Eca EPCs OB (Figure 9 a,d, e). However, mitofusin expression was decreased in EPCs OB, both at mRNA and protein levels (Figure a, f, g). Transcript levels determined for fission (FIS) were also reduced in Eca EPCs OB compared to Eca EPCs derived from non-obese mares (Figure 9 h).

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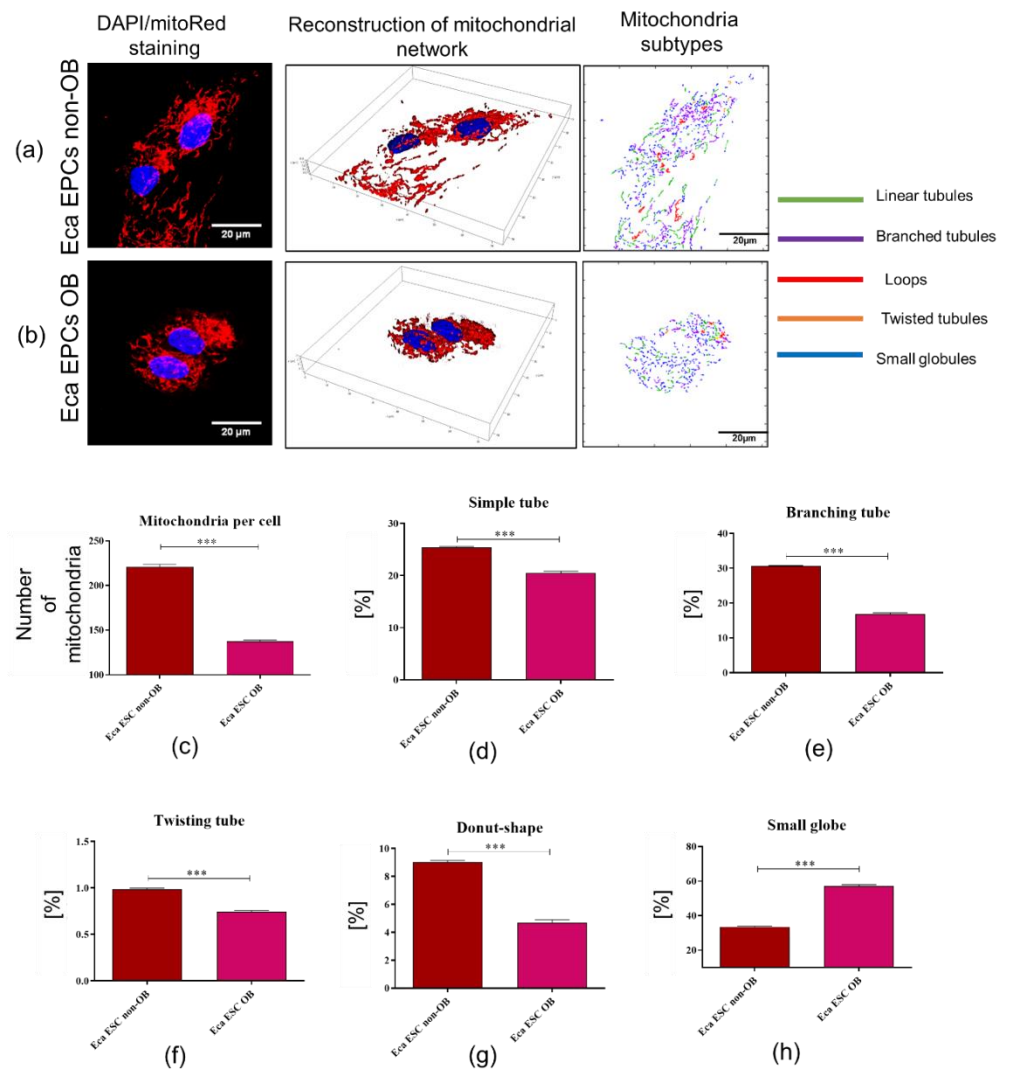
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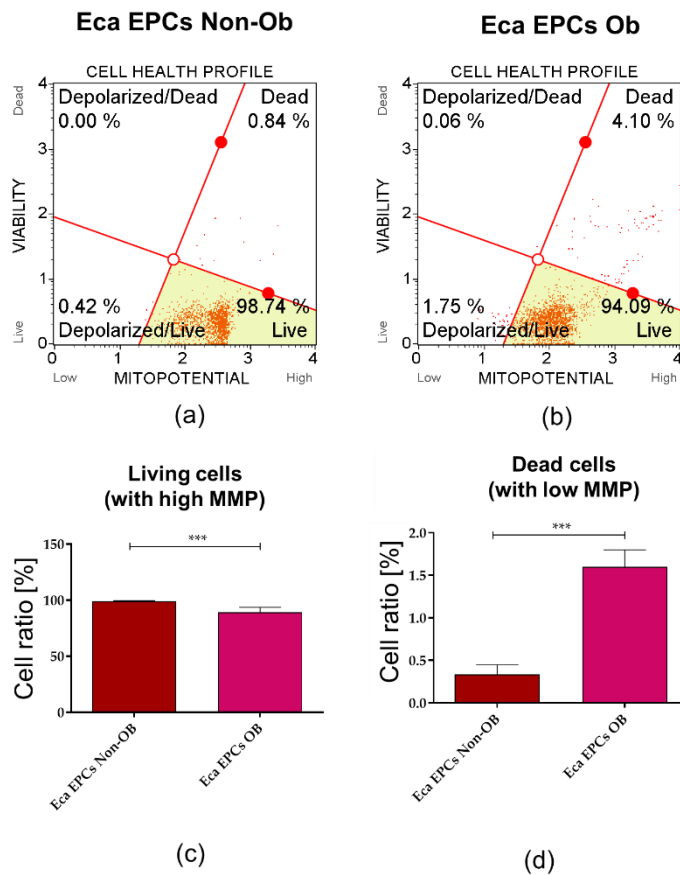
**Figure 6.** Mitochondrial network, numbers, and morphology of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB). Imaging of Eca EPCs with high magnification allowed assessment of the mitochondrial net and its dynamics (a-b), number of mitochondria per cell (c) and classification of mitochondrial morphology (d-h). Means  $\pm$  SD are presented as columns and bars. \*\*\* p-value < 0.001.

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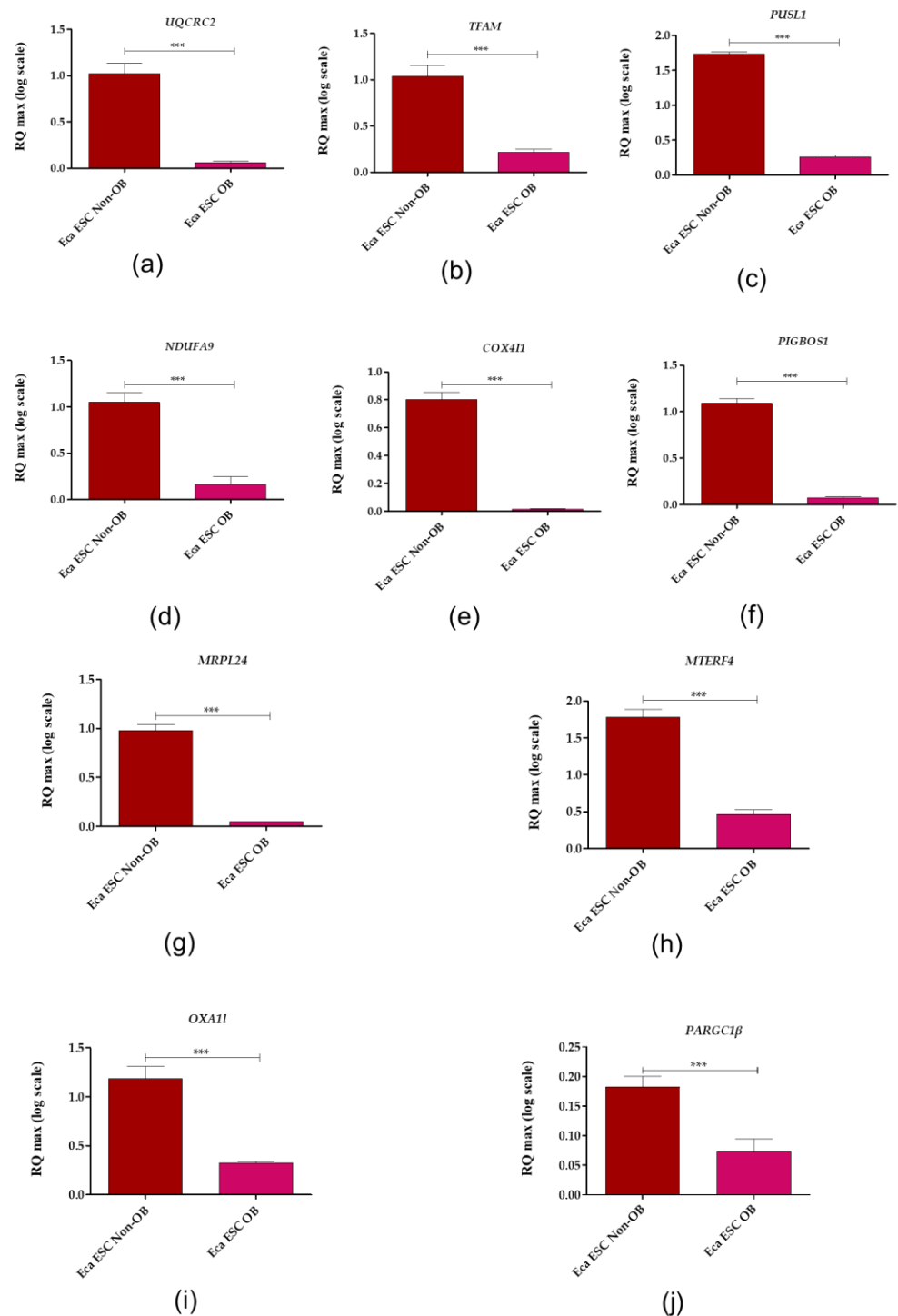
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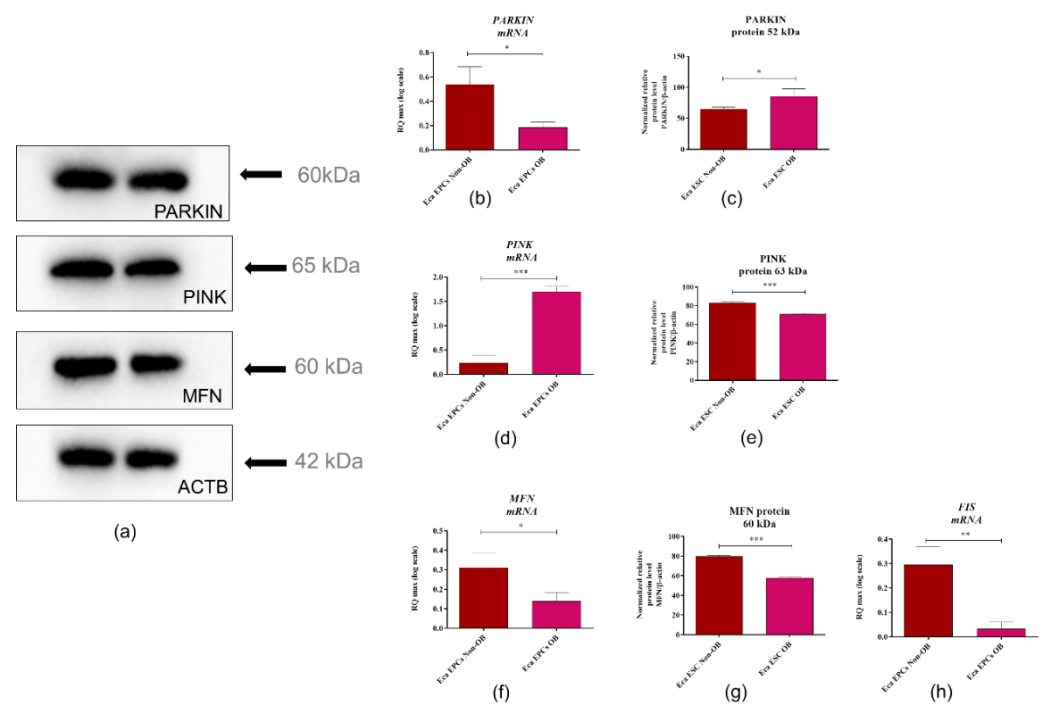
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**Figure 7.** The mitochondrial membrane potential (MMP) determined in equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB). The representative graphs show the distribution of cells, taking into 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  $\pm$  SD. \*\*\* p-value < 0.001.



**Figure 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  $\pm$  SD. \*\*\* p-value < 0.001.

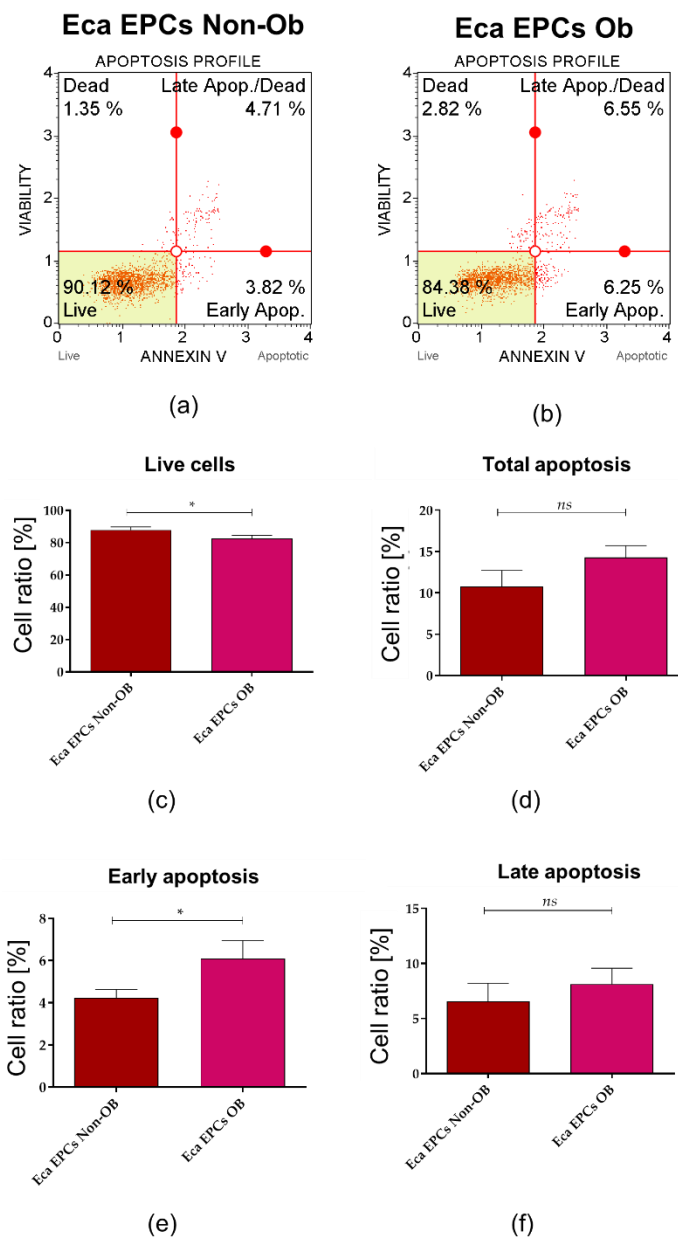
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**Figure 9.** The expression profile of molecular markers associated with mitochondrial dynamics determined for equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB). Parkin RBR E3 ubiquitin-protein 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  $\pm$  SD. \*\*\* p-value < 0.001.

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**Viability, oxidative stress and intracellular homeostasis**

Apoptosis profile analysis supported the result indicating lower viability of Eca EPCs derived from obese than non-obese mares (Figure 10). The Eca EPCs OB showed an increased percentage of early apoptotic cells compared to Eca EPCs Non-OB (Figure 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 (Figure 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 (Figure 11).



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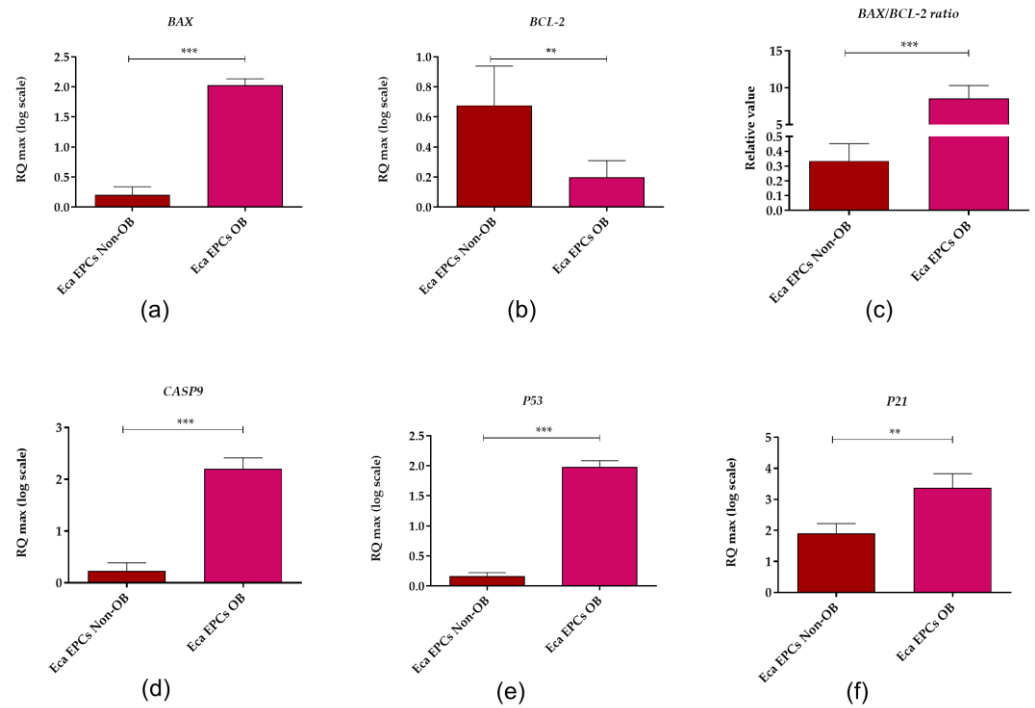
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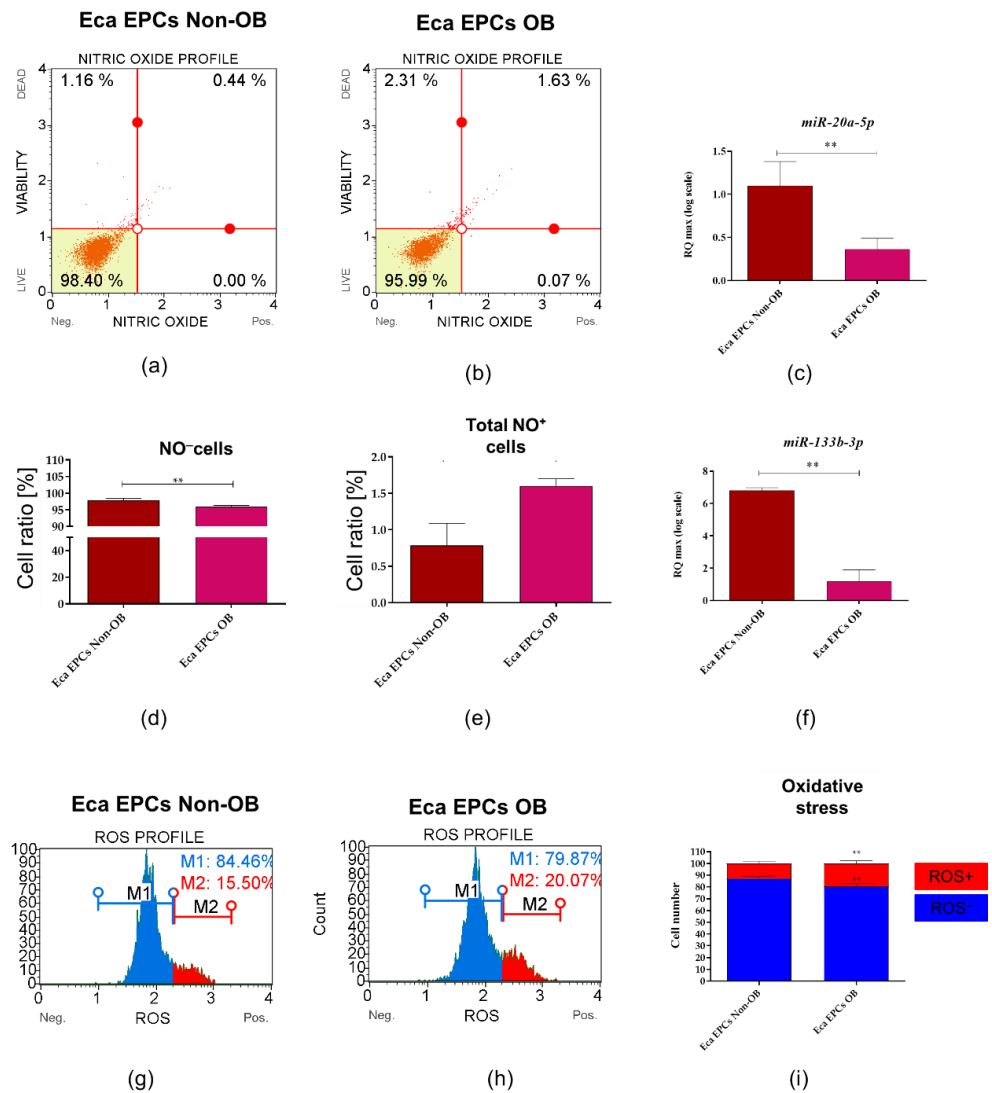
**Figure 10.** The apoptosis profile determined in equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB). The representative graphs show the distribution of cells, taking into account their viability (a and b). Comparative analysis was performed to determine differences between Eca EPCs Non-OB and OB for viability (c) total cell apoptosis (d) early apoptosis (e) and late apoptosis (f). Means  $\pm$  SD. \*\*\* p-value < 0.001.





**Figure 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<sub>MAX</sub> algorithm. Means  $\pm$  SD. \*\*\* p-value < 0.001.

The decreased viability of EPCs Ob was associated with oxidative stress and accumulation of nitric oxygen (NO) and reactive oxygen species (ROS). Dysregulated oxidative stress balance noted in EPCs OB was correlated with decreased levels of miR-20a-5p and miR-133b-3p (Figure 12).



**Figure 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  $\pm$  SD. \* p-value < 0.05 and \*\* p-value < 0.01.

Expression pattern of FOXP3 (Figure 13 a, b, e) and SIRT1 (Figure 13 a, c, f, g) 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 (Figure 13 b). However, we observed significantly decreased intracellular accumulation of FOXP3 protein in EPCs OB (Figure 13 a, e). This phenotype may be related to lower regulatory potential and accumulation of oxidative stress markers of EPC OB. Moreover, lowered expression of SIRT1 in EPCs OB supports lower metabolic activity (Figure a, c, f, g). Elevated mRNA levels for osteopontin (OPN) and accumulated intracellular protein for EPCs OB confirms the molecular phenotype associated with obesity Figure 13 a, d h-j). Significantly increased expression of OPN was noted for glycosylated protein, with a molecular weight equal to 66 kDa, and fragments with molecular weight equal to 40 kDa (Figure 13 a, h, i).

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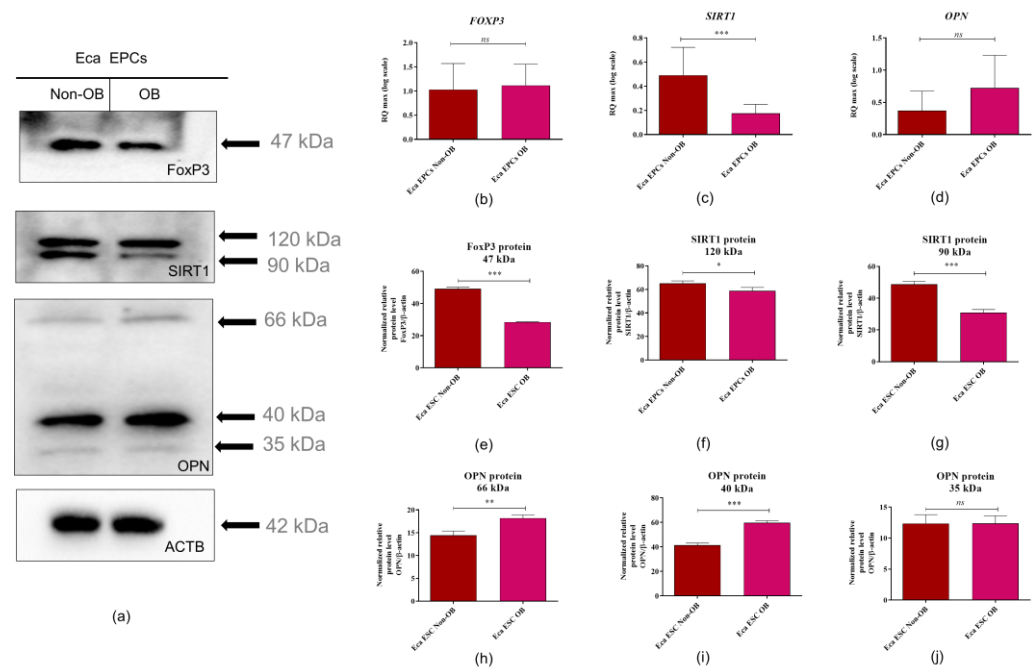
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**Figure 13.** Expression of forkhead box P3 (FOXP3), sirtuin 1 (SIRT1) and osteopontin (OPN) determined in equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) isolated from non-obese mares (Non-OB) and obese mares (OB). Protein expression was detected using Western blot technique (a), while RT-qPCR (b-d) was used to establish the mRNA level for genes of interest. The densitometry 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  $\pm$  SD. \* p-value < 0.05 and \*\* p-value < 0.01.

We noted an increased constitutive expression of AKT/PI3K in Eca EPCs derived from obese mares (Figure 14). The analysis of mRNA levels determined for *AKT* and *PI3K* indicated the increased accumulation of those transcripts in Eca EPCs OB (Figure 14 d, g). However, a statistically significant difference was noted only in *AKT* mRNA expression (Figure 14 d). In turn, intracellular detection of AKT and PI3K revealed a significant increase of those proteins in Eca EPCs from obese mares (Figure 14 a-c, e, f, h, i).

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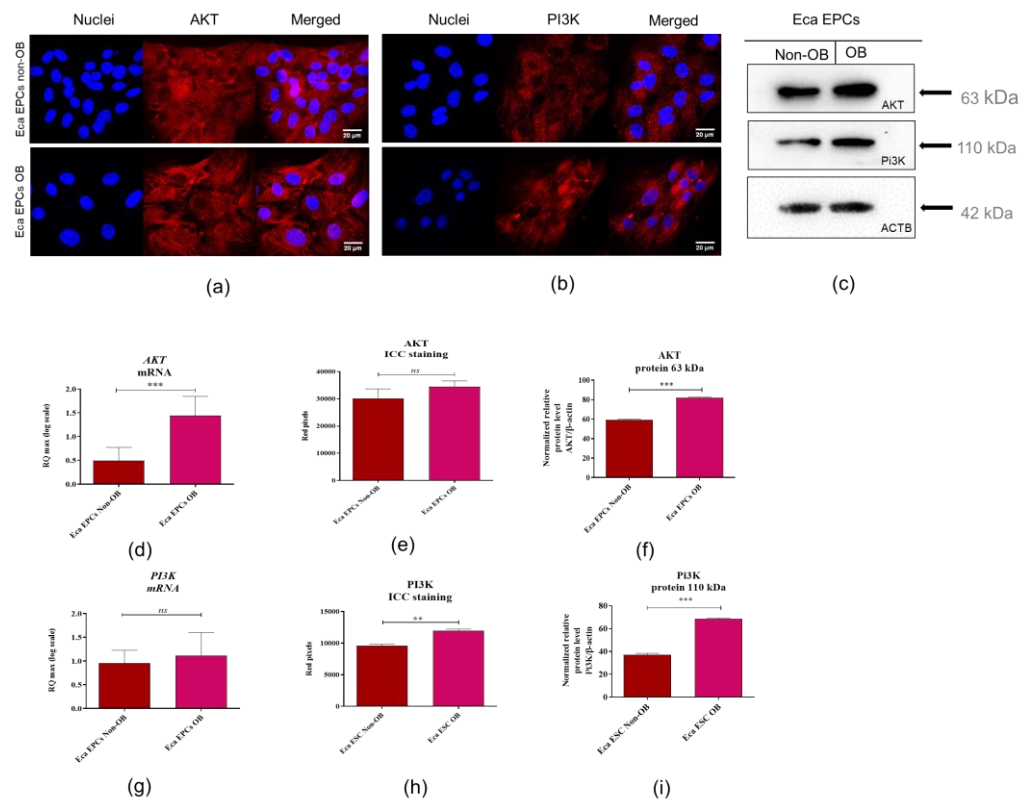
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**Figure 14.** Expression of Pi3K/AKT determined and compared between EPCs Non-OB and OB. The intracellular accumulation of AKT and PI3K was visualized using immunocytochemistry (ICC, a-b) and determined with Western blot (c). RT-qPCR (d-i) was used to establish mRNA levels for genes of interest. Densitometry measurements of membranes were performed to compare expression of proteins between EPCs Non-OB and OB (e-j). Significant differences were calculated for normalized values and shown as means  $\pm$  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 [32]. 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 characterized by endometrial scarring, fibrosis, and dense adhesions with occlusion of the uterine cavity and endometriosis [32,33]. 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 [34]. Also, in 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 [35]. 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 [8,9,11,36]. 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



543 phenotype of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs) and may reduce their mul-  
544 tipotency. We observe, inter alia, that Eca EPCs from obese mares had significantly de-  
545 creased mRNA expression for CD105 surface marker (endoglin) compared to Eca EPCs  
546 from non-obese mares. The CD105 is an essential factor associated with the differentiation  
547 potential of adult stem cells originated from mesenchymal tissues, i.e. multipotent stro-  
548 mal/stem cells (MSCs)[37]. The expression of this marker varies between MSCs of differ-  
549 ent origins and is related to their heterogeneity [38]. Indeed, the population of Eca EPCs  
550 OB used in this study had lowered capacity for osteogenic and chondrogenic differentia-  
551 tion [39]. The functional role of CD105 in MSC biology is still deliberated, especially its  
552 effect on chondrogenesis in vitro. Thus, future studies related to multipotency of Eca EPCs  
553 should also include an analysis of CD105 association with their plasticity and potential for  
554 tissue-specific differentiation. Notably, the increased mRNA expression for  $\alpha$ -smooth  
555 muscle actin (ACTA/ $\alpha$ -SMA) was also a characteristic of Eca EPCs OB. Studies by Talele  
556 et al. show that  $\alpha$ -SMA is a feature of cells with lowered clonogenic potential and limited  
557 cellular plasticity, confirming results obtained in this study[40].

558 Essentially, the current study demonstrated that obesity reduces the proliferation  
559 and mitochondrial metabolism of equine endometrial progenitor cells (Eca EPCs). The  
560 regenerative potential of progenitor cells is reflected by high proliferative (self-renewal)  
561 capacity and viability. We have demonstrated that Eca EPCs isolated from mares that are  
562 obese have decreased clonogenic and proliferative potential, as well as migratory activity.  
563 Lower mitochondrial metabolism in Eca EPCs was associated with apoptosis and oxida-  
564 tive stress. Our results correspond with the study of Allesio et al. [41], who showed that  
565 obesity in mice not only affects the proliferation of progenitor cells isolated from subcuta-  
566 neous and visceral adipose tissue but also affects cells derived from bone marrow.

567 In our study, Eca EPCs from obese mares had a reduced percentage of progenitor  
568 cells in the S-phase of the cell cycle, associated with a lower potential for cell division and  
569 a prolonged time for population doubling. The clonogenic potential of EPCs from obese  
570 mares was also decreased compared to EPCs from non-obese mares, which agrees with  
571 the finding that obesity negatively impacts the clonogenicity of endometrial mesenchymal  
572 stem cells of women with reproductive failure [42]. In previous studies, we observed that  
573 the proliferative potential of multipotent adipose-derived stromal cells (ASC) could be  
574 affected by increased age and the occurrence of equine metabolic syndrome. An increased  
575 percentage of G1/G0-arrested cells was characteristic for cells isolated from middle-aged  
576 horses (5–15), old (> 15 years old), or had metabolic syndrome [43].

577 The decreased self-renewal potential of EPCs isolated from obese mares was corre-  
578 lated with cell-cycle arrest and reduced expression of Ki67, a marker of actively prolifer-  
579 ating cells. Obesity increases Ki67 expression in human progenitor cells from adipose tis-  
580 sue and smaller adipocytes as well as leads to their cellular death [44]. A hallmark of the  
581 inflammation accompanying obesity is a reduction in Ki67 expression and inhibited pro-  
582 liferation of progenitor cells in the taste buds[45]. Thus, obesity-induced changes in Ki67  
583 levels can depend on tissue niche and cell type. For instance, functional endometrium is  
584 characterized by the presence of stromal cells showing increased Ki67 expression in addi-  
585 tion to increased levels of the anti-apoptotic protein, BCL-2[46].

586 We obtained a similar expression profile in our study, as EPCs isolated from obese  
587 mares exhibited a phenotype of early apoptotic cells, with increased mRNA levels for pro-  
588 apoptotic BAX, caspase 9, P53 and P21 and decreased expression of BCL-2. The balance  
589 between apoptosis and proliferation in endometrial cells is essential to regulate regenera-  
590 tion of the endometrium during the reproductive cycle. The decreased viability of Eca  
591 EPCs OB can also be related to the lowered expression of mRNA for vimentin (VIM). Gen-  
592 erally, vimentin is recognized as a type III intermediate filament protein abundant in tis-  
593 sues of mesenchymal origin. This cytoskeleton protein plays a pivotal role in maintaining  
594 the shape and integrity of cells. It is also notable that vimentin is crucial for tissue home-  
595 ostasis, protecting cells from protein misfolding stress [47]. Given the above, the Eca EPCs

596 OB show features of early apoptotic cells with decreased cellular function, including self-  
597 renewal potential.

598 Our study showed, for the first time, that progenitor cells isolated from the endo-  
599 metrium of obese mares during anestrus have a pro-apoptotic profile and lower mito-  
600 chondrial potential than cells from non-obese mares. The molecular phenotype of obese  
601 endometrium was also consistent with an increased expression of osteopontin (OPN).  
602 During obesity, high expression of OPN could correlate with the development of insulin  
603 resistance. OPN is depicted as a biomarker for obesity-associated inflammation and dete-  
604 riorating adipose tissue metabolism related to enhanced macrophage infiltration [48].  
605 Knockout of OPN in mice endometrial stromal cells resulted in lower adhesion and inva-  
606 sion of the blastocyst, as well as decreased expression of matrix metalloproteinase-9  
607 (MMP-9) associated with impaired invasive competency of the trophoblast [49]. Increased  
608 levels of OPN are also correlated with oxidative stress and decreased mitochondrial mem-  
609 brane potential, which was observed using the model of mouse cardiac myocytes [50].  
610 Collectively, our results showed that OPN may be associated with the deterioration of Eca  
611 EPCs metabolism induced by obesity. Thus OPN may serve as a potential target in terms  
612 of developing novel therapeutic strategies in endometrial diseases.

613 Furthermore, analysis of mitochondrial dynamics revealed the increased occurrence  
614 of fragmented globular mitochondria in EPCs derived from the obese endometrium com-  
615 pared to EPCs from non-obese mares. Obesity-induced morphological and functional  
616 changes of mitochondria have been noted in skeletal muscle and linked with impaired  
617 tissue metabolism [51]. Metabolic imbalance related to decreased mitochondrial activity  
618 and oxidative stress is linked with disturbed decidualization, the pathogenesis of endo-  
619 metriosis, and endometrial cancer development [52]. The cellular stress noted in endome-  
620 trial progenitor cells is related to the pro-inflammatory uterine environment. In the cur-  
621 rent study, expression of FOXP3 and SIRT1 was lower in progenitor cells isolated from  
622 obese than non-obese endometrium. A characteristic of regulatory T cells, FOXP3 is re-  
623 sponsible for the immunosuppressive capacity of multipotent stromal cells [53] and may  
624 participate in regulating immune responses in endometriosis. Endometrial FOXP3 in  
625 women with endometriosis decreases linearly from early to late proliferative phase [54].  
626 In turn, SIRT1 suppresses nuclear factor- $\kappa$ B (NF- $\kappa$ B), a transcription factor regulating the  
627 expression of various pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokines [55,56]. Moreover,  
628 SIRT1 may be an essential molecule for regulating embryo implantation into the endome-  
629 trium through stimulation of E-cadherin [57].

630 Compared to normal-weight mares, embryos from obese mares have higher expres-  
631 sion of transcripts associated with inflammation, endoplasmic reticulum, oxidative and  
632 mitochondrial stress [6]. Defects of mitochondrial metabolism occur in endometriosis with  
633 a decrease in electron transport chain complex I- and II-mediated mitochondrial respira-  
634 tion [58], which correlates with our study. Comparative analysis showed that EPCs OB  
635 compared to EPCs Non-OB had decreased expression of transcripts essential for mtDNA  
636 function and mitochondrial respiratory chain stability.

637 Defects in mitochondrial metabolism, observed in EPCs OB, could originate from ac-  
638 cumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and nitric oxide, which is also accompanied  
639 by decreased mRNA and protein expression of PTEN-induced kinase 1 (PINK1) and mi-  
640 tofusin 1 (MFN1). PINK1 is an essential regulator of mitochondrial homeostasis and en-  
641 ergy metabolism. Studies performed using the PINK1-knockout mice model showed that  
642 mammalian PINK1 is a key factor protecting against oxidative stress in the mitochondrion  
643 [59]. Decreased levels of PINK1 are noted in the endometrium with minimal and mild  
644 endometriosis [60]. Mitofusins, including mitofusin 1 and 2 (MFN1 and MFN2, respec-  
645 tively), are crucial mediators of mitochondrial fusion, which compensate for the func-  
646 tional defects of the mitochondrion. Moreover, MFN1 is particularly important in terms  
647 of female fertility. The absence of MFN1 is associated with oocyte apoptosis and cell-cycle  
648 arrest, depletion of the ovarian follicular reserve, and characteristic of female reproductive  
649 ageing [61]. Moreover, increased expression of PARKIN noted in Eca EPCs OB can be

650 associated with clearance of dysfunctional mitochondria and activation of mechanisms  
651 that protect cells against apoptosis [62].

652 We also noted that obesity-induced changes in endometrial progenitor cells were as-  
653 sociated with increased constitutive expression of PI3K/AKT and increased $\beta$ -galacto-  
654 sidase activity. The PI3K/AKT pathway controls various critical cellular processes, includ-  
655 ing glucose homeostasis, lipid metabolism, and protein synthesis; it also affects cell pro-  
656 liferative activity and viability. Increased AKT expression is related to increased adipo-  
657 genesis and the obese phenotype [63]. An overactive AKT pathway is a characteristic of  
658 endometrial cancer and endometriosis, thus regulation of PI3K/AKT signaling also be-  
659 came a consideration in the matter of therapeutic strategies for endometrial disorders [64].

660 Obesity induces cellular senescence in mesenchymal stromal/stem cells, related to a  
661 chronic inflammatory condition[7]. Consistent with our results, Conley et al. showed that  
662 obesity elicits an early senescence program in progenitor cells, manifested by an increased  
663 expression of such markers as p53 and p21. However, in the study, Coloney et al. indi-  
664 cated that senescence-associated beta-galactosidase activity (SA- $\beta$ -gal) is not significantly  
665 increased in adipose-derived MSCs of obese subjects. In contrast, we found that EPCs  
666 from obese mare endometrium accumulated significantly more SA- $\beta$ -gal in comparison  
667 to EPCs isolated from non-obese endometrium.

668 Using two-tailed RT-qPCR, we established equine non-coding RNA levels. We have  
669 tested miRNAs regulating oxidative status and counteracting the senescent cell burden of  
670 progenitor cells. The obtained miRNA profile confirmed that obesity attenuates the mo-  
671 lecular phenotype of EPCs, resulting in decreased proliferative activity and oxidative  
672 stress. Eca EPCs from obese endometrium were characterized by decreased levels of let-  
673 7b and let-7c, as well as miR-20a-5p, -29a-3p, -133b-3p and -181a-5p, but significantly in-  
674 creased levels of let-7a. Loss of let-7b expression is connected with endometriosis patho-  
675 physiology and inflammation [65]. In human adipose-derived stem cells, let-7c is recog-  
676 nized as a molecule promoting ectopic bone formation and suppressing adipogenesis via  
677 high-mobility group AT-hook 2 [66]. Thus, decreased expression of let-7b and let-7c in  
678 EPCs from obese endometrium could be related to the deterioration of self-renewal po-  
679 tential and decreased cellular plasticity. Moreover, increased levels of let-7a may reflect  
680 the lowered immunomodulatory potential of Eca EPCs OB, as linked to decreased expres-  
681 sion of FOXP3 [67]. Lowered proliferative potential of Eca EPCs OB, was also confirmed  
682 by decreased levels of miR-29a and miR-181a-5p. Those molecules are not only essential  
683 regulators of the self-renewal potential of MSCs, but they also promote the wound healing  
684 capacity of tissues [68]. Furthermore, miR-29a promotes angiogenesis and protects against  
685 fibrosis post-injury, regulating biological activity of MMPs and vascular endothelial  
686 growth factors (VEGFs) [69]. Down-regulation of miR-20a-5p and miR-133b-3p are ob-  
687 served in mesenchymal stem cells as a result of oxidative stress damage [70,71].

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

## 693 5. Conclusions

694 In summary, we demonstrated that obesity in the mare alters functional features of  
695 endometrial progenitor cells, such as molecular phenotype associated with their potential  
696 for specific differentiation, self-renewal activity and mitochondrial metabolism and dy-  
697 namics. Obesity attenuated cellular homeostasis of endometrial progenitor cells, resulting  
698 in increased oxidative stress and hampered pro-regenerative signaling. Early apoptosis  
699 and increased senescence characterized progenitor cells when derived from obese endo-  
700 metrium. The impaired cytophysiology of progenitor cells from obese endometrium pre-  
701 dict lower regenerative capacity if used as autologous transplants. In our opinion, further  
702 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.

**Supplementary Materials:** Figure S1: The results of body condition score (BCS) examination performed on live mares for proper classification of animals. Columns with bars represent mean  $\pm$  SD. \* p-value < 0.05, \*\* p-value < 0.01 ; Table S1: Sequences and characteristics of primers used for the mRNA detection with RT-qPCR.; Table S2: List of primers used for establishing miRNA levels with the Two-tailed RT-qPCR approach; Table S3. List of antibodies used for protein detection using Western blot. Table S4. List of antibodies used for immunocytochemistry.

**Author Contributions:** A.S. and K.Marycz conceived and designed the study; A.S. and KMarycz participated in experiment supervision; A.P. collected and categorized the specimens; AS and KMarcinkowska isolated cells; K.Marcinkowska performed the in vitro cultures and molecular biology experiments; M.S. performed the immunocytochemical studies and analysis; A.S. KMarcinkowska and M.S. prepared figures; KMarcinkowska, M.S. and A.S wrote the material and method section; A.S. wrote the manuscript; KMarycz, L.V. and E.C. participated in critical reading of the manuscript.

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