Title page

C-type natriuretic peptide improves maternally aged oocytes quality by inhibiting

excessive PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy

Running title: CNP improves oocytes quality

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Abstract

The overall oocyte quality declines with ageing, and this effect is strongly

associated with a higher reactive oxygen species (ROS) level and the resultant

oxidative damage. C-type natriuretic peptide (CNP) is a well-characterized

physiological meiotic inhibitor that has been successfully used to improve immature

oocyte quality during in vitro maturation (IVM). However, the underlying roles of

CNP in maternally aged oocytes have not been reported. Here, we found that the age-

related reduction in the serum CNP concentration was highly correlated with

decreased oocyte quality. Treatment with exogenous CNP promoted follicle growth

and ovulation in aged mice and enhanced meiotic competency and fertilization ability.

Interestingly, the cytoplasmic maturation of aged oocytes was thoroughly improved

by CNP treatment, as assessed by spindle/chromosome morphology and redistribution

of organelles (mitochondria, the endoplasmic reticulum [ER], cortical granules [CGs],

and the Golgi apparatus). CNP treatment also ameliorated DNA damage and apoptosis

caused by ROS accumulation in aged oocytes. Importantly, oocyte RNA-seq revealed

that the beneficial effect of CNP on aged oocytes was mediated by restoration of

mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation, eliminating excessive mitophagy. CNP

reversed the defective phenotypes in aged oocytes by alleviating oxidative damage

and suppressing excessive PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy. Mechanistically, CNP

functioned as a cAMP/PKA pathway modulator to decrease PINK1 stability and

inhibit Parkin recruitment. In summary, our results demonstrated that CNP

supplementation constitutes an alternative therapeutic approach for advanced maternal

age-related oocyte deterioration and may improve the overall success rates of

clinically assisted reproduction in older women.

Keywords: C-type natriuretic peptide; oocyte meiosis; embryo; antioxidant;

mitophagy

INTRODUCTION

During growth, oocytes gradually acquire the capacity to resume meiosis,

complete maturation, undergo successful fertilization and achieve subsequent embryo

developmental competence (Gandolfi & Gandolfi, 2001). However, ovarian

involution precedes that of any other organ in female mammals, and in humans, the

oocyte fertilization rate decreases rapidly after 35 years of age. Indeed, infertility

associated with a decline in oocyte quality with increasing maternal age is a

significant challenge.

Recently, with the development of cultural and social trends, many women have

delayed childbearing, and ovarian senescence has become a public health problem

(Bartimaeus, Obi, Igwe, & Nwachuku, 2020; Broekmans, Soules, & Fauser, 2009).

Ovarian ageing is accompanied by abnormalities in organelle distribution,

morphology and functions, leading to inadequate oocyte growth, maturation,

fertilization and subsequent embryo development (Reader, Stanton, & Juengel, 2017).

Consequently, assisted reproductive technologies such as in vitro maturation (IVM)

and in vitro fertilization (IVF) have become promising options for infertility treatment

(Chang, Song, Lee, Lee, & Yoon, 2014). However, further studies are needed to

improve the subsequent developmental competence of maternally aged oocytes.

Oocyte maturation has two steps: nuclear maturation, which mainly involves

germinal vesicle breakdown (GVBD) and chromosomal segregation, and cytoplasmic

maturation, which involves redistribution of organelles (mitochondria, cortical

granules [CGs], and the endoplasmic reticulum [ER]), changes in the intracellular

ATP and antioxidant contents, and the accumulation of fertilization-related transcripts

and proteins (McClatchie et al., 2017; Watson, 2007). The quality and developmental

potential of aged oocytes are lower than those of oocytes derived from young females,

primarily because aged oocytes exhibit negative consequences of cytoplasmic

maturation, such as abnormal mitochondria and an aberrant CG distribution (Miao,

Cui, Gao, Rui, & Xiong, 2020), deteriorated organelle and antioxidant system

function and increased reactive oxygen species (ROS) levels (T. Zhang et al., 2019).

Excessive ROS generation leads to destructive effects on cellular components

(Zarkovic, 2020). Notably, recent studies have indicated that increased oxidative

damage is closely correlated with the occurrence of mitochondrial damage and

mitophagy (Jiang et al., 2021), which is accompanied by blockade of oocyte meiosis

(Jin et al., 2022; Q. Shen, Liu, Li, & Zhang, 2021).

The endogenous C-type natriuretic peptide (CNP) produced by follicular mural

granulosa cells as a ligand of natriuretic peptide receptor 2 (NPR2), which is

expressed primarily in cumulus cells, plays a crucial role in maintaining meiotic arrest

(Meijia Zhang, Su, Sugiura, Xia, & Eppig, 2010). Recent studies have suggested that

CNP, an inhibitor of oocyte maturation, provides adequate time for cytoplasmic

maturation, offering a new strategy to optimize the synchronization of nuclear and

cytoplasmic maturation and improve the quality of immature oocytes in vitro (Wei et

al., 2017). Moreover, CNP has been reported to enhance the antioxidant defence

ability and developmental competence of oocytes in vitro (Zhenwei & Xianhua, 2019).

Therefore, CNP may constitute a new alternative means to enhance antioxidant

system function and protect against oxidative damage by eliminating excess ROS in

aged oocytes. Although CNP has been suggested to contribute to improving the

maturation and subsequent development of immature mouse oocytes in vitro, the

effect of CNP on maternally aged oocytes remains to be determined.

In this study, we investigated the redistribution and function of organelles

(mitochondria, CGs, and the ER), the ATP content and the intracellular GSH level in

CNP-treated maternally aged oocytes. The results showed that CNP improves the

cytoplasmic maturation and developmental competence of maternally aged oocytes by

optimizing organelle distribution and function and inhibiting PINK1/Parkin-mediated

mitophagy. The findings of this study will contribute to understanding the mechanism

of CNP in increasing the fertilization capacity and developmental ability of aged

oocytes.

RESULTS

CNP supplementation improves the quality of aged oocytes

To explore the effect of CNP on oocyte quality in aged mice, we first

investigated whether intraperitoneal injection of CNP can affect oocyte quality. Young

and aged mice were hormonally superovulated after 14 days of consecutive PBS or

CNP treatment (Figure 1A, B). Then, the mice were sacrificed, and the oocytes were

removed for measurement of the CNP content. As expected, the endogenous CNP

content in serum from aged mice was markedly lower than that in serum from young

mice (Figure 1 C). In contrast, administration of CNP to aged mice significantly

elevated the CNP content in serum (Figure 1 C). To further determine whether the

elevated CNP content in serum can improve oocyte quality, we evaluated the number,

first polar body (PB1) extrusion rate and fragmentation rate. As the mice aged, the

number of ovulations and the PB1 extrusion rate decreased significantly, but the

incidence of fragmented oocytes increased dramatically (Figure 1 D-G). Conversely,

CNP supplementation apparently ameliorated the ageing-induced defects in the

number and morphology of the ovulated oocytes (Figure 1 D-G). In addition,

assessment of follicle development in the ovary sections by HE staining showed

severe deterioration of follicles at different developmental stages in aged mice;

however, CNP supplementation significantly increased the number of secondary

follicles and antral follicles (Figure 1H and I). Young, untreated aged and CNP-treated

aged mice were naturally mated with 12-week-old male mice, and consistent with the

increased number of ovulated oocytes with a normal morphology, the litter size of

aged mice was also increased by CNP administration (Figure 1J).

To investigate the effects of CNP on in vitro maturation (IVM) of aged mouse

cumulus-oocyte complexes (COCs), we first examined the PB1 extrusion rate of

COCs pretreated with 10 nM CNP to maintain meiotic arrest for 24 h (pre-IVM) and

then matured in vitro for 16 h (a two-step culture system; Figure S1 A). In the control

(conventional in vitro maturation) group, only 35.36 ± 2.74% of the oocytes exhibited

PB1 extrusion. After temporary meiotic arrest induced by treatment with 10 nM CNP,

the maturation rate increased to 71.12 ± 3.02% (n=104), significantly higher than that

in the control group (P<0.01) (Figure S1 B and C). The spindle morphology and

chromosome alignment in in vitro-matured oocytes were also evaluated. The

percentage of oocytes with abnormal spindle-chromosome complexes was

significantly decreased in the group with 10 nM CNP-induced temporary meiotic

arrest (Figure S1 D and E). Collectively, these results indicate that CNP

administration increased the serum CNP content, restored the number and

morphology of aged oocytes and improved the fertility of aged female mice.

CNP supplementation restores cytoplasmic maturation events in maternally aged
mouse oocytes

Pregnancy failure and foetal miscarriage increase with maternal age and,

importantly, are associated with oocyte aneuploidy and spindle/chromosomal

abnormalities (Ma et al., 2020). Therefore, we determined the rate of

spindle/chromosomal abnormalities in oocytes of young, untreated aged and CNP-

treated aged mice by immunofluorescence staining and found that CNP treatment

greatly improved the spindle/chromosomal abnormalities in aged mice (Figure 2A, B).

To determine whether, in addition to affecting spindles/chromosomes, CNP

supplementation affects other organelles during the maturation of aged oocytes, we

examined the distribution of the Golgi apparatus, endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and

cortical granules (CGs) in oocytes from young, untreated aged and CNP-treated aged

mice. The Golgi-Tracker results showed that in aged mouse oocytes, the Golgi

apparatus was distributed in agglutinated and clustered patterns, and CNP

supplementation significantly reduced the rate of abnormal Golgi distribution (Figure

2 C, D, Figure S2A, B). Since the ER plays an essential role in Ca^{2+} signal-mediated

oocyte fertilization and subsequent embryonic development (Miyazaki & Ito, 2006),

we then examined the distribution pattern of the ER in oocytes. As shown in Figure

2E, the ER was accumulated at the chromosome periphery and was evenly distributed

in the cytoplasm; however, the ER abnormally agglomerated in the cytoplasm and the

chromosome periphery in a disorganized pattern in aged oocytes (Figure 2E, Figure

S3A). Statistical analysis showed that the rate of abnormal ER distribution was

significantly decreased in CNP-supplemented oocytes (Figure 2F, Figure S3B). The

distribution of CGs is one of the most important indicators of oocyte cytoplasmic

maturation and is related to the blockade of polyspermy following fertilization. We

assessed whether CNP supplementation affects the distribution dynamics of CGs in

aged oocytes. Lens culinaris agglutinin (LCA)-FITC staining showed that in young

oocytes, CGs were distributed evenly in the oocyte subcortical region, leaving a CG-

free domain (CGFD) near chromosomes (Figure 2G). However, maternally aged

oocytes showed an abnormal CG distribution, including increased migration of CGs

towards the oocyte chromosomes or oocyte subcortical region, without leaving a

CGFD (Figure 2G, H; Figure S4 A). Consistent with this finding, statistical analysis of

the fluorescence intensity of CG signals in aged oocytes showed a significant

reduction compared with that in young oocytes, and CNP supplementation rescued the

mislocalization and decrease in the number of oocyte CGs (Figure 2 H, I, Figure S4 B,

C). Taken together, these data imply that CNP is a potent agent for rescuing

cytoplasmic maturation events in maternally aged mouse oocytes.

CNP supplementation restores mitochondrial distribution and function in aged
oocytes

To verify the effect of CNP supplementation on the mitochondrial distribution

pattern and function in aged oocytes, we performed MitoTracker staining. In young

oocytes, mitochondria exhibited a homogeneous distribution in the cytoplasm and

accumulated at the periphery of chromosomes (Figure 2J). However, in aged oocytes,

most mitochondria were aggregated in the cytoplasm and partially or completely

failed to accumulate around chromosomes (Figure 2JA, Figure S5A). Statistically,

more than 40% of mitochondria in aged oocytes exhibited a mislocalized distribution

pattern, and CNP supplementation significantly reduced the abnormal distribution rate

(Figure 2K, Figure S5B). We then analysed mitochondrial function by measuring the

ATP content in oocytes from young, untreated aged, and CNP-treated aged mice. The

ATP content in oocytes from aged mice was considerably lower than that in oocytes

from young mice but was restored following CNP supplementation (Figure 2L, Figure

S5C). We also tested the mitochondrial membrane potential, which has been shown to

be the driving force of mitochondrial ATP synthesis, by staining with the

potentiometric dye JC-1 (Figure 2M, Figure S5D). The mitochondrial membrane

potential was lower in oocytes from aged mice than in oocytes from young mice but

was restored in oocytes from CNP-supplemented aged mice (Figure 2M, N, Figure

S5D, S5E). Overall, these observations suggest that CNP supplementation improved

ageing-induced mitochondrial dysfunction in oocytes.

CNP supplementation eliminates excessive ROS and attenuates DNA damage
and apoptosis in aged oocytes

We proposed that mitochondrial dysfunction induces ROS imbalance and

oxidative stress in aged oocytes. To test this hypothesis, we carried out

dichlorofluorescein (DCFH) staining to measure ROS levels in each group of oocytes

(Figure 3A). Quantitative analysis of the fluorescence intensity showed that ROS

signals were markedly enhanced in aged oocytes compared with young oocytes

(Figure 3B). Conversely, CNP supplementation effectively reduced the ROS

accumulation observed in aged oocytes (Figure 3A and 3B, Figure S6A, S6B). In

addition to being caused by ROS accumulation, age-associated oxidative stress

damage can be caused by reduced antioxidant defence system function. We therefore

investigated whether CNP contributes to improving the antioxidant defence ability in

aged oocytes. Quantification of the nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate

(NADPH) levels and the ratio of reduced to oxidized glutathione (GSH/GSSG ratio)

in oocytes showed that NADPH levels and the GSH/GSSG ratio were decreased in

oocytes from aged mice compared with those from young mice and that CNP

treatment significantly increased NADPH levels and the GSH/GSSG ratio in oocytes

from aged animals (Figure 3C and 3D). Because a high level of ROS not only results

in the accumulation of DNA damage but also causes oocyte apoptosis (Miao et al.,

2020), we next evaluated DNA damage and apoptosis in oocytes by γ-H2A.X and

Annexin-V staining, respectively. As expected, higher signals indicating DNA damage

and apoptosis were observed in aged oocytes than in young oocytes, and these

increases were alleviated by supplementation with CNP (Figure 3E-3H). Taken

together, these observations suggested that the rates of DNA damage and apoptosis

are higher in aged oocytes, possibly because of maternal ageing-induced excessive

accumulation of ROS. Notably, our results demonstrated that CNP supplementation

exerts antioxidant activity, which is an effective strategy to ameliorate maternal

ageing-induced DNA damage and apoptosis in oocytes.

CNP supplementation improves the fertilization ability and early embryo
development of aged oocytes

Considering that oocyte fertilization and subsequent embryo developmental

competence are profoundly affected by mitochondrial function, we then tested

whether the oocyte fertilization capacity and normal development to the blastocyst

stage are enhanced by CNP. The in vitro fertilization (IVF) results showed that aged

oocytes had dramatically lower fertilization rates than young oocytes and that CNP

supplementation effectively increased the fertilization rate of aged oocytes (Figure 4A,

B). We further examined the subsequent developmental ability of the fertilized

oocytes. As expected, CNP supplementation effectively increased the blastocyst

formation rate of aged oocytes both in vivo (Figure 4A and 4C–4F) and in vitro

(Figure S7). These results demonstrate that CNP increases the fertilization capacity

and promotes subsequent embryonic development of oocytes from aged mice.

Identification of target effectors of CNP in aged oocytes by single-cell
transcriptome analysis

To verify the cellular and molecular mechanisms of CNP supplementation in

improving oocyte quality in aged mice, we performed single-cell transcriptome

analysis of GV oocytes derived from young, untreated aged and CNP-treated aged

mice to identify potential target effectors. The relative expression of several randomly

selected genes from each group was verified using quantitative real-time PCR (Figure

S8A, B). As shown in the heatmap and volcano plot, the transcriptome profile of aged

oocytes was significantly different from that of young oocytes, with 77 differentially

expressed genes (DEGs) downregulated and 440 DEGs upregulated in aged oocytes

identified   through   DEGseq2   analysis   (Figure   5A-C).   Furthermore,   CNP

supplementation resulted in downregulation of 584 genes and upregulation of 527

genes compared with aged oocytes. In particular, Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and

Genomes (KEGG) enrichment analysis showed that genes enriched in the ubiquitin-

mediated proteolysis and mitophagy pathways were abnormally highly expressed in

aged oocytes compared with young oocytes but that these expression levels were

restored to the baseline levels in CNP-supplemented aged oocytes (Figure 5D, E). In

addition, oxidative phosphorylation and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor

(PPAR) signalling pathways were ranked at the top of the enrichment list in CNP-

supplemented aged oocytes compared to untreated aged oocytes, consistent with our

abovementioned observations that CNP supplementation improved mitochondrial

function in aged oocytes. Many of the enriched KEGG enrichment pathways are

highly related to mitophagy and mitochondrial function, which suggests that

mitophagy should be strongly considered as a CNP effector in aged oocytes.

CNP supplementation attenuates oxidative damage by inhibiting mitophagy in
aged oocytes

To verify the effect of CNP supplementation on mitophagy in aged oocytes, we first

analysed mitochondrial structure in the oocytes of young, untreated aged and CNP-

treated aged mice by transmission electron microscopy (Figure 6A). Quantitatively,

mitochondrial damage, as evidenced by membrane rupture and a lack of electron

density was significantly increased in aged oocytes but was ameliorated in CNP-

supplemented aged oocytes (Figure 6B). Because oxidative stress has been implicated

in triggering mitochondrial oxidative injury and mitophagy (Adhikari, Lee, Yuen, &

Carroll, 2022; M. Shen et al., 2016), we next determined whether supplementation

with CNP can eliminate excessive mitochondrial ROS (mtROS). As expected,

supplementation with CNP substantially reduced the mtROS signals, as shown by

MitoSOX staining and fluorescence intensity measurements (Figure 6 C, D). We then

evaluated degradation of the autophagy biomarker p62, the accumulation of LC3-II,

the conversion of LC3-I to LC3-II, and the expression patterns of the mitophagy-

related proteins PINK1 and Parkin (Figure 6 E). Western blot analysis revealed that

aged oocytes exhibited significant p62 degradation, LC3-II accumulation and marked

increases in PINK1 and Parkin expression levels, whereas CNP supplementation

abrogated these effects (Figure 6E-6I). Collectively, the above data indicate the

inhibitory effect of CNP on oocyte mitophagy through the PINK1-parkin signalling

pathway.

CNP downregulates Parkin recruitment and mitophagy via the cAMP/PKA
pathway

How PINK1- and Parkin-mediated mitophagy is regulated by CNP in aged

oocytes, however, requires further elucidation. The cAMP/PKA signalling pathway,

which is dependent on the phosphorylation of mitochondrial proteins, has emerged as

a direct means to regulate mitophagy and mitochondrial physiology (Amer & Hebert-

Chatelain, 2018; Lobo et al., 2020). The concentrations of cAMP in GV oocytes

derived from young, untreated aged and CNP-treated aged mice were determined. As

shown in Fig. 6J, the cAMP concentration in aged oocytes was significantly lower

than that in young oocytes, but administration of CNP resulted in a substantial

increase in intraoocyte cAMP concentrations. This increase in cAMP significantly

reduced mitochondrial recruitment of Parkin and mitophagy, which were dependent

on PKA activity (Lobo et al., 2020). Next, we applied a PKA inhibitor, H89, to

determine whether PKA is directly involved in CNP-mediated oocyte mitophagy. We

isolated preantral follicles (80–100 μm diameter) from the ovaries of aged mice and

treated them with 100 nM CNP or 100 nM CNP + 10 μM H89 during in vitro culture.

Monitoring of follicle growth dynamics showed that treatment with 100 nM CNP

significantly increased the follicle diameter (Figure 8B and C), whereas H89

treatment inhibited the effect of CNP on promoting preantral follicle growth (Figure 6

K and L). Western blot analysis revealed that CNP supplementation significantly

decreased PINK1 and Parkin expression levels, but H89 treatment abrogated these

expression changes (Figure 6 M-O). The cAMP-PKA pathway plays an important role

in inhibiting Parkin recruitment to damaged mitochondria (Akabane et al., 2016). We

therefore sought to determine whether PKA inhibition regulates Parkin recruitment.

The effects of CNP on mitochondria were examined by double staining for Parkin and

translocase of outer mitochondrial membrane 20 (TOMM20). CNP clearly inhibited

the mitochondrial localization of Parkin, but inhibition of PKA with H89 resulted in

Parkin translocation to mitochondria, as shown by the overlap of the two staining

signals (Figure 6 P and Q). Collectively, these data suggested that the suppression of

Parkin recruitment through the cAMP-PKA axis is an important mechanism

underlying the protective effect of CNP against oxidative injury in maternally aged

mouse oocytes.

DISCUSSION

In mammals, the endogenous peptide CNP is expressed by endothelial cells in

many tissues and has diverse physiological functions in mediating cardioprotective

effects, bone growth, oocyte meiotic progression, and follicle growth and

development (Bae et al., 2017; Moyes & Hobbs, 2019; Peake et al., 2014; Sato,

Cheng, Kawamura, Takae, & Hsueh, 2012; Xi et al., 2019). Beyond the role of CNP

as an oocyte meiotic arrest factor, previous studies by our group and others confirmed

that adding CNP to the pre-IVM system significantly improved oocyte maturation and

subsequent embryo developmental potential (Richani & Gilchrist, 2022; Soto-Heras,

Paramio, & Thompson, 2019; Wei et al., 2017). The synchronization of nuclear and

cytoplasmic maturation is essential for oocyte quality and supporting early embryonic

preimplantation development. However, the underlying molecular mechanism and

whether CNP has any beneficial effect on the maternal age-induced decline in oocyte

quality are incompletely understood. In the present study, we showed that CNP levels

declined with age and demonstrated that CNP supplementation increased the number

of antral follicles and the ovulation rate and enhanced oocyte quality and fertility.

Furthermore, supplementation of CNP in pre-IVM oocyte culture medium reversed

the adverse effects of age on immature oocytes, offering a potentially effective

approach for assisted reproductive technologies to acquire a greater number of high-

quality oocytes and improve the fertility of older women.

Many factors affect the adverse effects on the oocyte maturation process and

embryonic development associated with advanced maternal age (Mikwar, MacFarlane,

& Marchetti, 2020). Assisted reproductive technologies are an efficient scheme to

resolve infertility as maternal fertility declines with ageing. However, the low success

rate of IVM oocytes, which is especially pronounced in maternally aged oocytes,

limits fertilization outcomes. Our in vivo results showed that CNP supplementation

results in multiple improvements, including reductions in oxidative damage, spindle

defects, and abnormal organelle distributions and functions, in maternally aged

oocytes. Thus, we further investigated the use of CNP in the IVM system, especially

in improving the quality of oocytes derived from aged mice. The results indicated that

CNP-induced temporary meiotic arrest improved the maturation and fertilization rate

of maternally aged oocytes and increased their subsequent embryo developmental

competence. Specifically, our results confirmed an advanced role for CNP in

preventing the development of mitochondrial structure abnormalities and the typical

dysfunctional processes in aged oocytes. Furthermore, these data showed that CNP

apparently partially rescued the antioxidant defence system impairment

accompanying oocyte ageing and alleviated oxidative stress. In addition, the findings

demonstrated that CNP improved cytoplasmic maturation events by maintaining

normal CG, ER and Golgi apparatus distribution and function in aged oocytes.

The asynchronous nature of nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation is a major

challenge in improving the quality of IVM oocytes (Coticchio et al., 2015). Age-

related aberrant chromosome alignment prior to cytoplasmic maturation may result in

poor oocyte quality and subsequent reduced reproductive potential (Russ, Haywood,

Lane, Schoolcraft, & Katz-Jaffe, 2022). In the present study, after COCs were induced,

the temporary meiotic arrest resulting from CNP treatment significantly increased the

maturation rate, which may synchronize oocyte nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation.

Organelle distribution is a necessary feature of oocyte cytoplasmic maturation and

subsequent development. Dramatic ER reorganization (FitzHarris, Marangos, &

Carroll, 2007), CG translocation to the cell cortex (Liu, Sims, Calarco, & Talbot,

2003), and the Golgi apparatus distribution and function are commonly regarded as

indicators of cytoplasmic maturation (Mao, Lou, Lou, Wang, & Jin, 2014). Similarly,

our results demonstrate that CNP supplementation restored cytoplasmic maturation in

maternally aged oocytes by ensuring normal organelle distribution dynamics and

organelle function, increasing the fertilization capacity and developmental

competence of aged oocytes. It is reasonable to assume that CNP is a potential option

to prevent abnormal organelle distribution and functions in oocytes that could be

triggered by ubiquitous environmental endocrine disruptors, such as bisphenol A and

citrinin (Pan et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2020). Cortical granules (CGs) are oocyte-

specific vesicles located under the subcortex. Fusion of CGs with the oocyte plasma

membrane is the most important event needed to prevent polyspermy (Miao et al.,

2020). The distribution of CGs is usually regarded as one of the most important

indicators of oocyte cytoplasmic maturation. The contents of the CGs are normally

discharged by exocytosis when the egg is stimulated by the fertilizing spermatozoon;

this process is called the cortical reaction, and it prevents polyspermy and protects the

embryo from a hostile environment during early development (Schuel, 1978).

One of the major known causes of oocyte oxidative damage and apoptosis arises

from excessive ROS accumulation with ageing, especially in IVM oocytes

(Combelles, Gupta, & Agarwal, 2009; Soto-Heras & Paramio, 2020). Excessive ROS

accumulation occurs as a result of two processes, namely, constant generation in the

mitochondria or scavenging by antioxidant defence systems, both of which involve

age-related quality decreases in oocytes (Mianqun Zhang, Lu, Chen, Zhang, & Xiong,

2020). Thus, maintaining the balance between the production and scavenging of ROS

could help to alleviate age-related oxidative damage and fertility decreases. Some

antioxidative factor(s) within oocytes might deteriorate as the potential mother ages,

compromising the ability for ROS scavenging (Schwarzer et al., 2014). GSH serves as

one of the antioxidants in oocytes to combat ROS-mediated oxidative stress, which is

highly correlated with oocyte developmental competence (Furnus et al., 2008). The

present results suggested that CNP-induced temporary meiotic arrest increased the

GSH/GSSG ratio, which is involved in the enhancement of oocyte antioxidant

defence and may contribute to improving oocyte developmental competence.

Consistent with previous studies (Miao et al., 2020), our findings validated that

maternal ageing results in excessive accumulation of ROS and DNA damage, which

severely impairs follicle development, ovulation, oocyte quality and subsequent

embryo developmental potential.

Defects in chromosome separation and decondensation as well as chromosomal

misalignment caused by spindle detachment are the major contributing factors

responsible for the decline in oocyte quality with ageing (Chiang, Schultz, &

Lampson, 2011; Eichenlaub-Ritter, Vogt, Yin, & Gosden, 2004). Oocytes require ATP

for spindle formation, chromosome segregation, and polar body extrusion and

fertilization processes (Arhin, Lu, Xi, & Jin, 2018; Eichenlaub-Ritter, 2013).

Mitochondria are the most abundant organelles in oocytes and play an important role

in ATP production via oxidative phosphorylation to phosphorylate adenosine

diphosphate (Bentov, Yavorska, Esfandiari, Jurisicova, & Casper, 2011). Thus,

mitochondrial function is a key indicator of oocyte quality and successful fertilization

in assisted reproductive technologies (ARTs) (Mikwar et al., 2020). Mitochondrial

metabolic activity and mitochondrial DNA replication dramatically decrease in

oocytes with maternal age, which reduces ATP production; leads to meiotic spindle

damage, chromosome misalignment and aneuploidy; and largely impairs oocyte

maturation processes (Eichenlaub-Ritter, Wieczorek, Lüke, & Seidel, 2011; May-

Panloup et al., 2016). We demonstrated that CNP reverses mitochondrial dysfunction

induced by ageing in oocytes by analysing the mitochondrial distribution, ATP content,

and mitochondrial membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi$m).

Notably, disruption of the mitochondrial membrane potential is a potent trigger

of mitophagy (Matsuda et al., 2010). Our single-cell transcriptome profiling data

showed that the expression of genes related to ubiquitin-mediated proteolysis and the

mitophagy pathway was considerably upregulated in aged oocytes but restored to

normal levels following CNP supplementation. We also observed by TEM that CNP

supplementation suppressed the accumulation of autophagic vesicles containing

mitochondria. Furthermore, immunoblot analysis revealed degradation of the

autophagy biomarker p62 and accumulation of LC3-II in aged oocytes, events that

were markedly suppressed in CNP-treated oocytes. In general, excessive activation of

mitophagy and mitochondrial damage in aged oocytes may be involved in the

deterioration of oocyte quality, while CNP can ameliorate this process.

The PINK1/Parkin pathway is one of the most studied ubiquitin-dependent

mitophagy processes and is crucial for the equilibrium between mitochondrial

biogenesis and mitochondrial removal via selective recognition and elimination of

dysfunctional mitochondria (Ateneo, 2019). In healthy mitochondria, the

serine/threonine kinase PINK1 is usually expressed at low levels, but it rapidly

accumulates on damaged or aged mitochondria that exhibit loss of membrane

potential (Narendra & Youle, 2011). The decrease in the mitochondrial membrane

potential abolishes translocation across the outer and inner membranes and confines

PINK1 in the mitochondrial matrix, stabilizing it on the mitochondrial outer

membrane in a complex with the translocase TOM (De Gaetano et al., 2021).

Stabilized PINK1 recruits the cytosolic E3-ubiquitin ligase Parkin from the cytosol to

damaged mitochondria, an event followed by mitophagy. The effects of CNP on

meiotic arrest depend on the maintenance of cAMP levels in oocytes (Meijia Zhang et

al., 2010). Recent findings revealed that cAMP-dependent activation of PKA reduced

the PINK1 protein level due to its rapid degradation via the proteasome and severely

inhibited Parkin recruitment to depolarized mitochondria (Lobo et al., 2020). Our data

confirmed that PINK1 expression was decreased in CNP-treated oocytes, thus leading

to a reduction in Parkin recruitment. However, these effects were disrupted by the

inhibition of PKA pathway activity, indicating that cAMP indeed mediates the

ameliorating effects of CNP on aged oocyte quality. Taken together, these findings

indicate that PKA-mediated inhibition of Parkin recruitment may contribute to

protecting mitochondria with a low membrane potential from mitophagy in aged

oocytes.

Collectively, our studies demonstrated that CNP improves the fertilization and

developmental competence of maternally aged mouse oocytes by preventing age-

related antioxidant defects and excessive mitophagy. Considering its known

contributions as a physiological meiotic inhibitor, CNP provides an alternative to

prevent maternal age-related oocyte quality defects and improve developmental

competence. Although ARTs have been widely used to treat infertility, their overall

success rates in women of advanced maternal age remain low. Our data may provide a

new theoretical basis for the use of CNP in improving subfertility in older women or

the application of clinically assisted reproduction. Out of caution, however,

randomized controlled clinical trials should be conducted to further study the efficacy

of CNP in women who wish to become pregnant.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals and ethics statement

The young (6~8-week-old) and aged (58~60-week-old) C57BL-6J female mice

were obtained from the Experimental Animal Center of the Xi'an Jiaotong University

and housed in a temperature (20~25℃) and light-controlled environment (12 h light–

12 h dark cycle) and provided with food and water ad libitum. All the experimental

protocols and mice handling procedures were reviewed and approved by the

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the College of Veterinary Medicine,

Northwest A&F University (No. 2018011212).

In vivo treatment with CNP

Aged mice (58-week-old) were intraperitoneally injected daily with CNP (120

μg/kg body weight; Cat#B5441, ApexBio) for 14 days. CNP was dissolved in PBS

and diluted to appropriate concentration by physiological saline solution before

injection. The mice were followed by a single injection of 5 IU pregnant mare serum

gonadotropin (PMSG; Ningbo Second Hormone Factory, Ningbo, China) for 46 h to

stimulate penultimate follicle maturation before collection of ovaries for histological

analyses and weighting. Some mice were further injected with 5 IU human chorionic

gonadotropin (hCG; Ningbo Second Hormone Factory, Ningbo, China), and the

ovulated oocytes in oviducts were monitored 16 h later to evaluate ovulation

efficiency.

Measurement of CNP levels

CNP was measured in plasma by a two-site polyclonal direct ELISA kit

(Biomedica Medizinprodukte, Vienna, Austria) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. Collect blood samples in standardized serum separator tubes (SST),

allow samples to clot for 30 minutes at room temperature and perform serum

separation by centrifugation. Assay the acquired serum samples immediately. Read

the optical density (OD) of all wells on a plate reader using 450 nm wavelength.

Construct a standard curve from the absorbance read-outs of the standards. Obtain

sample concentrations from the standard curve.

Histological analysis of ovaries

496   Ovaries from each group of mice were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (pH 7.5)

497   overnight at 4°C, dehydrated using graded ethanol, followed by xylenes and

498   embedded in paraffin. Paraffin-embedded ovaries were serial sectioned at a thickness

499   of 5 μm for hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining. Ovaries from three mice of each

500   group were used for the analysis.

Collection and culture of cumulus-oocyte complexes (COCs)

Female mice were stimulated by an intraperitoneal injection of 5 IU PMSG, and

mice were sacrificed by cervical dislocation 24 h later. The ovaries were collected,

and the well-developed Graafian follicles were punctured with 30-gauge needles to

collect COCs. Only COCs with morphological integrity and a distinct germinal

vesicle (GV) were cultured in basic culture medium consisted of Minimum Essential

Medium (MEM)-α (Life Technologies, New York, USA) supplemented with 3mg/mL

bovine serum albumin and 0.23 mM pyruvate at 37°C under an atmosphere of 5%

CO_2 in air with maximum humidity.

CNP treatment and in vitro maturation

For in vitro induce temporary meiotic arrest, COCs were cultured in basic culture

medium containing 10 nM of CNP. The dose of CNP for meiotic arrest in mouse

oocytes in vitro was selected based on the published literatures (Meijia Zhang et al.,

2011) and our preliminary reports (Wei et al., 2017). After meiotic arrest culture for

24 h, COCs were transferred to CNP-free IVM medium (containing 10 ng/mL

epidermal growth factor (EGF)) to induce maturation. After incubation for 16 h,

COCs were denuded of cumulus cells by treatment with 0.03% hyaluronidase to

obtain MII oocytes for future experiments.

In vitro fertilization and embryo culture

Caudae epididymides from 12-week-old male C57BL-6J mice were lanced in a

dish of in human tubal fluid (HTF) medium to release sperm, followed by being

capacitated for 1 h (37°C under an atmosphere of 5% CO_2 in air with maximum

humidity). Maturated oocytes were incubated with capacitated sperm at a

concentration of 4×10^5/mL in 100 μL HTF for 6 h at 37°C, 5% CO_2. The presence of

two pronuclei was scored as successful fertilization. The embryos were cultured in

KSOM under mineral oil at 37 °C in 5% CO_2 and saturated humidity.

Preantral follicle isolation and culture

Ovaries were removed after the animals had been killed by cervical dislocation

and preantral follicles were mechanically isolated using 26-gauge needles. Then, the

preantral follicles (80–100μm diameter) that enclosed by an intact basal membrane

were collected, distributed randomly and cultured individually in 96-well tissue

culture plates for up to 6 days at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO_2 in air.

The basic culture medium consisted of MEM-α supplemented with 1mg/mL BSA, 1%

ITS (5μg/ mL insulin, 5μg/mL transferrin, 5ng/mL selenium; Sigma), 100μg/mL

sodium pyruvate and 1% penicillin/streptomycin sulfate (Sigma) in the absence

(control) or presence of 100nM CNP or 10 μM H89. The dose of CNP was selected

based on the published literatures (Xi et al., 2019). Half the medium was replaced

with fresh medium and follicles were photographed every other day, and follicle

diameter was measured using ImageJ at each time point.

Immunofluorescent Staining

Oocytes were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 30 min at room

temperature, and permeabilized with 0.5% Triton X-100 for 20 min, then blocked

with 1% BSA in PBS for 1 h at room temperature. The oocytes were incubated with

primary antibodies (Alexa Fluor® 488 Conjugate anti-α-tubulin monoclonal

antibody,1:200, Cell Signaling, Cat#35652; rabbit anti-Tom20 antibody, 1:100, Cell

Signaling, Cat#sc-42406; mouse anti-Parkin antibody, 1:100, Santa Cruz, Cat#sc-

32282) at 4°C overnight, and then the oocytes were extensively washed with wash

buffer (0.1% Tween 20 in PBS), probed with Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG

(1:200, Thermo Fisher Scientific, A21206) or Alexa Fluor 594 donkey anti-mouse

IgG (1:200, Abcam, ab150108) in a dark room for 1 h at room temperature. Then

oocytes were counterstained with DAPI (10 µg/mL) at room temperature for 10 min.

Finally, samples were mounted on glass slides and observed viewed under the

confocal microscope (Nikon A1R-si).

Mito-Tracker, ER-Tracker, and Golgi-Tracker Red Staining

Oocytes were incubated with Mito-tracker Red (1:2000, Beyotime

Biotechnology, Shanghai, China), ER-Tracker Red (1:3000, Beyotime Biotechnology),

Golgi-Tracker Red (1:50, Beyotime Biotechnology) in M2 medium for 30 min at

37 °C in a 5% CO_2 and saturated humidity. Then, the oocytes were counterstained

with DAPI (10 µg/mL) for 5min at 37 °C in a 5% CO_2 and saturated humidity, and

finally, the samples were washed 3 times with M2 medium and examined with a

confocal laser-scanning microscope (Nikon A1R-si).

Mitochondrial membrane potential (ΔΨm) measurement

Oocyte mitochondrial membrane potential was evaluated using Mito-Probe JC-1

Assay Kit (Beyotime Institute of Biotechnology, Shanghai, China). Briefly, oocytes

were incubated with 2 μM JC-1 in M2 medium for 30 min at 37 °C in a 5% CO_2 and

saturated humidity, and finally, the samples were washed 3 times with M2 medium

and examined with a confocal laser-scanning microscope (Nikon A1R-si). JC-1 dye

exhibits a fluorescence emission of green (529 nm) and red (590 nm). Thus, the

red/green fluorescence intensity ratio was measured to indicate mitochondrial

depolarization. Oocytes mitochondrial membrane potential (ΔΨm) measurements

were performed as our previous report (H. Zhang et al., 2020).

Monitoring of ROS levels in oocytes

The amount of ROS in oocytes was processed with 10 μM oxidation sensitive

fluorescent probe dichlorofluorescein (DCFH) (Beyotime Institute of Biotechnology,

Shanghai, China) for 30 min at 37°C in M2 medium. Then oocytes were washed three

times with M2 medium and placed on glass slides for image capture under a confocal

microscope (Nikon A1R-si).

Determination of mitochondrial ROS (mitoSOX) generation by MitoSOX

staining, GV oocytes were incubated in M2 media containing 5 μM MitoSOX Red

(ThermoFisher, M36008, Waltham, USA,) in humidified atmosphere for 10 min at

37°C. After washing three times in M2 media, oocytes were imaged under a confocal

microscope (Nikon A1R-si).

Measurement of the GSH/GSSG ratio

584  The GSH/GSSG ratio was measured with a GSSG/GSH Assay Kit (Beyotime

585 Institute of Biotechnology) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly,

586 oocytes were lysed in 40 μL deproteinized buffer on ice for 10 min. The lysate was

587 centrifuged at 12000×g for 5 min at 4 °C. For GSSG measurement, the samples were

588 incubated with GSH scavenge buffer for 60 min at 25 °C to decompose GSH. Then,

589 the samples were transferred to the 96-well plates and the absorbance was measured

590 with a multimode plate reader (BioTek Epoch) at 412 nm.

591 **Measurement of the oocyte NADPH content**

592  The oocyte NADPH contents were measured using a NADPH assay kit

593 (Beyotime Institute of Biotechnology) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

594 Briefly, 50 ~ 60 oocytes per group were lysed in 100 μL NADPH extraction buffer on

595 ice for 20 min. After the samples were centrifuged at 12000×*g* for 5 min at 4 °C, the

596 supernatants were transferred to the 96-well plates (50μl per well), and the absorbance

597 was measured using a multimode plate reader (BioTek Epoch) at 450 nm. The amount

598 of NADPH was determined using a calibration curve.

599 **Western blot analysis**

600  Approximately 200 oocytes were lysed in RIPA buffer (solarbio, Beijing, China)

601 that supplemented with 1mM protease inhibitors phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride

602 (PMSF, solarbio, Beijing, China), on ice for 30 min. Samples were boiled at 100 °C in

603 a metal bath for 10 min in protein loading buffer (CoWin Biosciences, Beijing, China)

and equal amount proteins were separated by 10% SDS-PAGE gel, and transferred to

polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes (Millipore, Bedford, USA). After transfer,

the membranes were blocked in TBST that contained 3 % BSA for 1 h at room

temperature, followed by incubation with primary antibodies at 4 °C overnight (the

primary antibodies were rabbit anti-GAPDH antibody, 1:2000, Cell Signaling,

Cat#5174; rabbit anti-p62 antibody, 1:1000, Cell Signaling, Cat#23214; rabbit anti-

Tom20 antibody, 1:1000, Cell Signaling, Cat#sc-42406; rabbit anti-LC3A/B antibody,

1:1000, Abcam, Cat#ab128025; rabbit anti-PINK1 antibody, 1:1000, Cell Signaling,

Cat#6946; mouse anti-Parkin antibody, 1:1000, Santa Cruz, Cat#sc-32282). The

secondary antibodies were incubated for 1 h at room temperature, and then the

membrane signals were visualized by a chemiluminescent HRP substrate reagent

(Bio-rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA) and images were captured with

Tanon5200 Imaging System (Biotanon, Shanghai, China). The band intensity was

assessed with Image J software and normalized to that of GAPDH.

Transmission electron microscope (TEM)

Oocytes were prefixed with 3% glutaraldehyde, refixed with 1% osmium

tetroxide, dehydrated in acetone, and embedded in Ep812 (Can EM Ltd.). Semithin

sections were stained with toluidine blue for optical positioning, and ultrathin sections

were made with a diamond knife and observed by a JEM-1400FLASH transmission

electron microscope (JEOL) after staining with uranyl acetate and lead citrate.

Evaluation of total ATP content

The ATP content of oocytes was detected with an ATP Bioluminescence Assay Kit (Beyotime Institute of Biotechnology). The oocytes were lysed with 50 µl of ATP lysis buffer on ice, centrifuged at $12000 \times g$ at 4°C for 5 minutes, and the supernatants were transferred to a 96-well black culture plate. Then, the samples and standards were read with a Multimode Microplate Reader (Tecan Life Sciences). Finally, the ATP level was calculated according to the standard curve.

RNA sequencing and analysis

GV-stage oocytes were collected from three young, three aged and three CNP treated aged mice. mRNA samples were collected from 5 oocytes from the same mouse of each group. The mRNA was directly reverse-transcribed through oligo dT. The reverse-transcribed cDNA was amplified, and the cDNA was cut by Tn5 transposase digestion, and linkers were added to obtain the required sequencing library. The constructed library was entered into the sequencing program after passing through an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer and RT–PCR quality control. The PE100 sequencing strategy was used to assess gene expression changes at the transcription level. Dr. Tom was used for difference analysis, GO analysis, KEGG analysis, and other analyses.

Reverse transcriptase quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) analysis

Total RNA from oocytes was extracted using MiniBEST Universal RNA

Extraction Kit (TaKaRa, Dalian, China), and reverse transcribed to synthesize cDNA

using a PrimeScript RT Master Mix reverse transcription kit (TaKaRa) according to

the manufacturer's instructions. RT-qPCR quantitation of mRNAs was performed

using TB Green™ Premix Ex Taq™ II (TaKaRa) with Applied Biosystems

StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Massachusetts, USA)

using the following parameters: 95 °C for 1 min, followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 5

s and 60 °C for 34 s. The PCR primers used in this study were shown in Table S1.

Transcript levels were normalized to those of the housekeeping gene *Gapdh*. The CT

value was used to calculate the fold change using the $2^{-\triangle\triangle Ct}$ method. Each experiment

was repeated independently at least thrice.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 8.00 software

(GraphPad, CA, United States). Data were reported as means ± SEM. Results of

statistically significant differences were denoted by asterisk. ($P < 0.05$ denoted by *, P

< 0.01 denoted by **, $P < 0.001$ denoted by ***, and $P < 0.0001$ denoted by ****).

Ethics approval

The experimental protocols and mice handling procedures were reviewed and

approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the College of

Veterinary Medicine, Northwest A&F University (No. 2018011212).

Conflicts of interest

All of the contributing authors declared no conflicts of interest. All authors read

and approved the final manuscript.

Data availability statement

667 All data is included in the manuscript and supporting information.

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Figure legends

Figure1. Effects of CNP supplementation on the oocyte quality and female

fertility in aged mice. (A) A timeline diagram of CNP administration and

superovulation. (B) Representative images of young, aged and CNP administration

aged (Aged + CNP) mice as well as their ovaries. (C) Body weights of young, aged

and aged + CNP aged mice. (D) Ovarian weights of young, aged and aged + CNP

mice. (E) Ratios of ovarian weight to body weight for each group of mice. (F) Serum

CNP concentrations were measured in young, aged, and aged + CNP mice. (G)

Representative images of the oocyte polar body extrusion in young, aged, and aged +

CNP mice. Scale bar: 100 μm. (H) Ovulated oocytes were counted in young, aged,

and aged + CNP mice. (I) Rate of polar body extrusion in young, aged, and aged +

CNP mice. (J) The rate of fragmented oocytes was recorded in young, aged, and aged

+ CNP mice. (K) Representative images of ovarian sections from young, aged, and

aged+CNP mice. Scale bars: 100 μm. (L) Follicles at different developmental stages

were counted in young, aged, and aged+CNP ovaries. (M) Average litter size of mated

mice was assessed by mating with two-months old male mice.

Figure2. CNP supplementation recovers cytoplasmic maturation events of

maternally aged mouse oocytes. (A) Representative images of the spindle

morphology and chromosome alignment at metaphase II in young, aged, and aged +

CNP mice. Scale bar, 10 μm. (B) The rate of aberrant spindles at metaphase II was

recorded in young, aged, and aged + CNP mice. (C) Representative images of the

Golgi apparatus distribution at metaphase II in young, aged, and aged + CNP mice.

Scale bar, 10 μm. (D) The rate of aberrant Golgi apparatus distribution was recorded

in young, aged, and aged + CNP mice. (E) Representative images of the endoplasmic

reticulum distribution at metaphase II in young, aged, and aged + CNP mice. Scale

bar, 10 μm. (F) The rate of aberrant endoplasmic reticulum distribution was recorded

in young, aged, and aged + CNP mice. (G) Representative images of the cortical

granules (CGs) distribution in young, aged, and aged + CNP mice. Scale bar, 10 μm.

(H) The rate of mislocalized CGs was recorded in the young, aged, and aged + CNP

mice. (I) The fluorescence intensity of CG signals was measured in the young, aged,

and aged + CNP mice oocyte. (J) Representative images of mitochondrial distribution

in the young, aged, and aged + CNP mice oocytes stained with MitoTracker Red.

Scale bar, 10 μm. (K) The abnormal rate of mitochondrial distribution was recorded in

the young, aged, and aged + CNP mice oocytes. (L) ATP levels were measured in the young, aged, and aged + CNP mice. (M) Mitochondrial membrane potential (ΔΨm) was detected by JC-1 staining in in the young, aged, and aged + CNP mice oocytes. Scale bar, 10 μm. (N) The ratio of red to green fluorescence intensity was calculated in the young, aged, and aged + CNP mice oocytes.

Figure 3. Effects of CNP on the ROS content, DNA damage, and apoptosis in aged oocytes. (A) Representative images of ROS levels detected by DCFH staining in the young, aged, and aged + CNP mice oocytes. Scale bar, 100 μm. (B) The fluorescence intensity of ROS signals was measured in the young, aged, and aged + CNP mice oocytes. (C) Oocyte NADPH levels in the young, aged, and aged + CNP mice were measured. (D) The ratio of GSH/GSSG was measured in the young, aged, and aged + CNP mice oocytes. (E) Representative images of DNA damage stained with the γ-H2AX antibody in young, aged, and aged + CNP oocytes. Scale bar, 10 μm. (F) γ-H2AX fluorescence intensity was counted in young, aged, and aged + CNP oocytes. (G) Representative images of apoptotic status, assessed by Annexin-V staining, in young, aged, and aged + CNP oocytes. Scale bar, 20 μm. (H) The fluorescence intensity of Annexin-V signals was measured in young, aged, and aged + CNP oocytes.

Figure 4. Effects of CNP on the fertilization ability and embryonic development of aged oocytes. (A) Representative images of early embryos developed from young, aged, and aged + CNP oocytes in vitro fertilization. Scale bar, 100 μm. (B) The fertilization rate (2 cell embryos rate), (C) 4 cell embryos rate, (D) 8 cell embryos rate, (E) morula rate and (F) blastocyst formation rates were recorded in the young, aged, and aged + CNP groups. Data in (B)–(F) are presented as mean percentage (mean ± SEM) of at least three independent experiments.

Figure 5. Effect of CNP supplementation on transcriptome profiling of aged oocytes
(A) Heatmap illustration displaying gene expression of young, aged, and aged+ CNP oocytes. (B) Volcano plot showing differentially expressed genes (DEGs; downregulated, blue; upregulated, red) in Young vs Aged oocytes. Some highly DEGs are listed. (C) Volcano plot showing DEGs in Aged vs Aged + CNP oocytes. Some

highly DEGs are listed. (D) KEGG enrichment analysis of upregulated and
downregulated DEGs in Young vs Aged oocytes. (E) KEGG enrichment analysis of
upregulated and downregulated DEGs in Aged vs Aged + CNP oocytes.

Figure 6. Evaluation of CNP supplementation on mitophagy activity of aged
oocytes. (A) Representative images of mitochondria morphology and structure in
young, aged, and aged + CNP oocytes by TEM. (B) Accumulation of mitochondria
damage in young, aged, and aged + CNP oocytes. Under TEM images, percentages of
damaged mitochondria per area (500 nm × 500 nm) were shown. At least 4 visions
were chosen and mitochondria were counted by two individuals. (C) Representative
images of mitochondria ROS stained with MitoSOX in young, aged, aged + CNP
oocytes. Scale bar, 20 μm. (D) Fluorescence intensity of MitoSOX signals was
measured in young aged, aged + CNP oocytes. (E) Western blots of P62, LC3-I/II,
PINK1 and Parkin in young, aged, and aged + CNP oocytes. GAPDH was used as
internal control. (F-I) Relative gray value of proteins detected with western blots as
compared with controls. (J) Oocyte cAMP concentrations were measured in young,
aged, and aged + CNP mice. (K) Representative images at day 0, day 2, day 4 and day
6 of cultured preantral follicles with or without CNP or CNP+H89 treatment. Scale
bar=50μm. (L) Diameters of preantral follicles with or without CNP or CNP+H89
treatment from day 0 to day 6. Six independent culture experiments were performed.
(M) Western blots of PINK1 and Parkin in aged, aged + CNP and aged + CNP+H89
treated oocytes. GAPDH was used as internal control. (N-O) Relative gray value of
proteins detected with western blots as compared with controls. (P) Double
immunofluorescence staining of Parkin and TOMM20. The mitochondria outer
membrane protein TOMM20 was performed to reveal the translocation of PRKN
proteins on mitochondria. Red, PRKN; Green, TOMM20; Blue, DNA was labeled
with Hoechst 33342. Bar: 20 μm. (Q) The colocalization of Parkin and TOMM20 in
oocytes from aged, aged + CNP and aged + CNP+H89 treated mice were compared.
Pearson,s R shows the results of co-location analysis.