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PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM MEDICINA VETERINÁRIA**

**CARACTERIZAÇÃO MOLECULAR DOS
COMPONENTES DO SISTEMA ANGIOTENSINA-(1-7)
DURANTE A DIVERGÊNCIA FOLICULAR E
EXPRESSÃO DE GENES DE REPARO DA FITA
DUPLA DE DNA EM EMBRIÕES BOVINOS**

TESE DE DOUTORADO

Marcos Henrique Barreta

Santa Maria, RS, Brasil

2012

**CARACTERIZAÇÃO MOLECULAR DOS COMPONENTES
DO SISTEMA ANGIOTENSINA-(1-7) DURANTE A
DIVERGÊNCIA FOLICULAR E EXPRESSÃO DE GENES DE
REPARO DA FITA DUPLA DE DNA EM EMBRIÕES
BOVINOS**

Marcos Henrique Barreta

Tese apresentada ao Curso de Doutorado do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Medicina Veterinária, Área de Concentração em Fisiopatologia da Reprodução Animal, da Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM, RS), como requisito parcial para obtenção do grau de **Doutor em Medicina Veterinária.**

Orientador: Prof. Paulo Bayard Dias Gonçalves

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**Universidade Federal de Santa Maria
Centro de Ciências Rurais
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Medicina Veterinária**

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aprova a Tese de Doutorado

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SISTEMA ANGIOTENSINA-(1-7) DURANTE A DIVERGÊNCIA
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DUPLA DE DNA EM EMBRIÕES BOVINOS**

elaborada por
Marcos Henrique Barreta

como requisito parcial para obtenção do grau de
Doutor em Medicina Veterinária

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RESUMO

Tese de Doutorado
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Medicina Veterinária
Universidade Federal de Santa Maria

CARACTERIZAÇÃO MOLECULAR DOS COMPONENTES DO SISTEMA ANGIOTENSINA-(1-7) DURANTE A DIVERGÊNCIA FOLICULAR E EXPRESSÃO DE GENES DE REPARO DA FITA DUPLA DE DNA EM EMBRIÕES BOVINOS

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Data e Local da Defesa: Santa Maria, 24 de Fevereiro de 2012.

O primeiro estudo caracterizou a expressão do receptor MAS e de enzimas responsáveis pela produção de Ang-(1-7), tais como, enzima conversora de angiotensina 2 (ACE₂), endopeptidase neutra (NEP) e prolil endopeptidase (PEP) durante o desenvolvimento folicular. Além disso, a regulação local do sistema Ang-(1-7) foi avaliada após a injeção intrafolicular de fulvestrant (inibidor do receptor de estradiol) no folículo dominante. As vacas foram ovariectomizadas quando o tamanho entre o maior (F1) e o segundo maior folículo (F2) não era estatisticamente diferente (D2), ligeiramente (D3) ou marcadamente diferente (D4). A expressão de RNAm do receptor MAS, ACE₂, NEP e PEP foi avaliada nas células foliculares do F1 e F2. O receptor MAS foi mais expresso nas células da granulosa do F2 após o estabelecimento da divergência folicular (D4), enquanto a expressão de PEP aumentou durante (D3) e após (D4) o processo de divergência. Entretanto, a expressão de ACE₂ foi maior nas células da granulosa do F1 durante e após a divergência. A expressão de PEP não foi regulada no F1 e F2. O receptor MAS foi imunolocalizado nas células da teca e granulosa do F1 e F2 durante a divergência folicular. A expressão de RNAm do receptor MAS aumentou quando o F1 foi tratado com fulvestrant *in vivo*. Em conclusão, o perfil de expressão do receptor MAS, ACE₂, NEP e PEP nos folículos dominante e subordinado indicam que a Ang-(1-7) apresenta uma função na regulação da dominância folicular em bovinos. Em um segundo estudo investigamos a expressão de genes que controlam o reparo do DNA através das vias de recombinação homóloga (HR; 53BP1, ATM, RAD50, RAD51, RAD52, BRCA1, BRCA2, NBS1) e união terminal não homóloga (NHEJ; KU70, KU80, DNAPK) em embriões bovinos com alta, média ou baixa competência de desenvolvimento. Foi também avaliado se embriões bovinos podem responder a quebra na fita dupla de DNA (DSBs), induzida por irradiação UV, através da regulação de genes envolvidos nas vias de reparo HR e NHEJ. Embriões com alta, média ou baixa competência de desenvolvimento foram selecionados pelo tempo de clivagem após a fertilização *in vitro* e foram removidos do cultivo antes (36 h), durante (72 h) ou após (96 h) o momento esperado para a ativação do genoma embrionário (AGE). Todos os genes foram expressos antes, durante e após a AGE independentemente da competência de desenvolvimento dos embriões. A expressão de 53BP1 e RAD52 foi maior antes da AGE em embriões com baixa competência de desenvolvimento. A expressão de 53BP1, RAD51 e KU70 foi mais baixa as 72 h e maior as 168 h pós fertilização em embriões com DSBs induzida por irradiação UV. Em conclusão, genes importantes para o controle das vias de reparo HR e NHEJ são expressos em embriões bovinos independentemente do tempo de cultivo ou da competência de desenvolvimento. A menor competência de desenvolvimento embrionário parece estar associada com maior expressão de 53BP1 e RAD52. Os embriões bovinos respondem a DSBs após a AGE mas as vias HR e NHEJ são reguladas principalmente no estágio de blastocisto.

Palavras chave: MAS. ECA₂. PEP. Recombinação homóloga. NHEJ.

ABSTRACT

Tese de Doutorado
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Medicina Veterinária
Universidade Federal de Santa Maria

MOLECULAR CHARACTERIZATION OF THE ANGIOTENSIN-(1-7) SYSTEM COMPONENTS DURING FOLLICULAR DEVIATION AND EXPRESSION OF DNA DOUBLE-STRANDED REPAIR GENES IN BOVINE EMBRYOS

AUTHOR: MARCOS HENRIQUE BARRETA

ADVISOR: PAULO BAYARD DIAS GONÇALVES

Date and Place of Defense: Santa Maria, February 24th, 2012.

The first study characterized the expression of MAS receptor and key enzymes for Ang-(1-7) production, such as, ACE₂, NEP and PEP during follicular development. Furthermore, the regulation of local Ang1-7 system was evaluated after the intrafollicular injection of fulvestrant (an estradiol-receptor inhibitor) in the dominant follicle. Cows were ovariectomized when the size between the largest (F1) and the second largest follicle (F2) was not statistically different (Day 2), slightly different (Day 3), or markedly different (Day 4). The mRNA abundance of genes encoding MAS receptor, ACE₂, NEP and PEP was evaluated in the follicular cells from F1 and F2. The mRNA expression of MAS receptor was upregulated in the granulosa cells of F2 after the establishment of follicular deviation (Day 4), while PEP mRNA increased during (Day 3) and after (Day 4) the deviation process. However, the mRNA expression of ACE₂ was upregulated in the granulosa cells of F1 during and after the deviation process. The mRNA expression of NEP was not regulated in F1 and F2. The MAS receptor was immunolocated in the granulosa and theca cells of F1 and F2 during follicular deviation. Moreover, MAS receptor gene expression increased when the F1 was treated with the estrogen receptor-antagonist *in vivo*. In conclusion, the expression profile of MAS receptor, ACE₂, NEP and PEP in dominant and subordinate follicles indicated that Ang-(1-7) play a role in the regulation of the follicular dominance in cattle. A second study was performed to investigate the expression of genes that control homologous recombination (HR; 53BP1, ATM, RAD50, RAD51, RAD52, BRCA1, BRCA2 and NBS1), and non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ; KU70, KU80 and DNAPK), DNA-repair pathways in bovine embryos with high, intermediate or low developmental competence. We also evaluated whether bovine embryos can respond to DNA double-stranded breaks (DSBs) induced by ultraviolet (UV) irradiation by regulating the expression of genes involved in the HR and NHEJ repair pathways. Embryos with high, intermediate or low developmental competence were selected based on the cleavage time after *in vitro* fertilization and were removed from *in vitro* culture before (36 h), during (72 h) and after (96 h) the expected period of embryonic genome activation (EGA). All studied genes were expressed before, during and after the EGA period regardless the developmental competence of the embryos. Higher mRNA expression of 53BP1 and RAD52 was found before EGA in embryos with low developmental competence. Expression of 53BP1, RAD51 and KU70 was downregulated at 72 h and upregulated at 168 h post-fertilization in bovine embryos with DSBs induced by UV irradiation. In conclusion, important genes controlling HR and NHEJ repair pathways are expressed in bovine embryos before, during or after EGA. Lower developmental competence seems to be associated with a higher mRNA expression of 53BP1 and RAD52. Bovine embryos can response to UV-induced DSBs after the EGA but HR and NHEJ repair pathways seem to be particularly regulated at the blastocyst stage.

Key words: MAS. ECA₂. PEP. Homologous recombination. NHEJ.

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LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS E SIGLAS

53BP1 – p53 binding protein 1
ACE₂ – Angiotensin-converting enzyme II
Ang-(1-7) – Angiotensin-(1-7)
ATM – Ataxia telangiectasia mutated
BRCA1 – Breast cancer 1
BRCA2 – Breast cancer 2
DNAPK – DNA-dependent protein kinase
DSBs – DNA double-stranded breaks
EGA – Embryonic genome activation
F1 – Largest follicle
F2 – Second largest follicle
hpf – Hours post-fertilization
HR – Homologous recombination
KU70 – 70 kDa subunit of Ku antigen
KU80 – 80 kDa subunit of Ku antigen
MAS – Receptor MAS
NBS1 – Nijmegen breakage syndrome 1
NEP – Neutral endopeptidase
NHEJ – Non-homologous end-joining
PEP – Prolyl endopeptidase
RAD50 – DNA repair protein RAD50
RAD51 – DNA repair protein RAD51
RAD52 – DNA repair protein RAD52
UV – Ultraviolet irradiation

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1. INTRODUÇÃO

Está bem estabelecido que o crescimento folicular em espécies monovulatórias ocorre em ondas sendo primariamente orquestrado por fatores endócrinos, principalmente gonadotrofinas (FSH e LH), seus receptores (FSHr e LHR) e esteroides ovarianos. A fase de divergência folicular é caracterizada por uma diminuição dos níveis plasmáticos de FSH e diminuição da capacidade esteroidogênica dos folículos subordinados com consequente início do processo de atresia (GINTHER et al., 1996). Durante a fase em que os níveis de FSH atingem o seu nível mais baixo, vários genes são diferencialmente expressos no microambiente folicular para permitir a sobrevivência das células da teca e da granulosa permitindo que o folículo dominante se torne “independente de FSH” e continue seu crescimento (MIHM et al., 2006). Recentemente, o foco sobre o microambiente folicular tem aumentado e estudos demonstram que alterações ocorridas nesse ambiente são responsáveis pelo ajuste fino do desenvolvimento folicular (FORTUNE et al., 2004; KNIGHT & GLISTER, 2006; MIHM et al., 2008). Entretanto, o controle autócrino e parácrino do desenvolvimento folicular ainda é pouco compreendido em espécies monovulatórias.

Participando da busca pelo conhecimento dos fatores locais que atuam no microambiente folicular, nosso grupo iniciou uma série de estudos investigando o papel do sistema renina-angiotensina (RAS) durante o crescimento folicular, ovulação e maturação oocitária em bovinos. Esses estudos demonstram que angiotensina II (Ang II) apresenta um papel indispensável para o crescimento folicular (PORTELA et al., 2008; FERREIRA et al., 2011a; FERREIRA 2011b; para revisão GONÇALVES et al., 2012), ovulação (FERREIRA et al., 2007; PORTELA et al., 2011) e maturação nuclear de oócitos bovinos (GIOMETTI et al., 2005; BARRETA et al., 2008). No entanto, alguns trabalhos têm sugerido que a Ang II não é o único peptídeo ativo do RAS capaz de controlar eventos fisiológicos em diversos microambientes locais. Vários estudos têm demonstrado que a angiotensina-(1-7) (Ang-(1-7)), ao contrário do que se pensava inicialmente, possui uma atividade biológica. Esse heptapeptídeo atua sobre os sistemas nervoso central, renal e cardiovascular, além de funcionar como um regulador de desenvolvimento dos tecidos vasculares (para revisão SANTOS et al., 2000). Recentemente, foi demonstrado que camundongos *knockout* para o receptor MAS apresentam uma marcada redução na produção espermática diária (LEAL et al., 2009). No ovário, a Ang-(1-7) induziu um aumento na concentração de estradiol e

progesterona em ovários de ratas (COSTA et al., 2003). Também foi demonstrado que a expressão de RNAm do receptor MAS e da enzima conversora de Ang II (ACE₂) aumentou em ovários de ratas tratadas com eCG (PEREIRA et al., 2009), sugerindo uma possível regulação mediada por gonadotrofinas. Entretanto, a função da Ang-(1-7) no ovário é pouco conhecida. Portanto, o primeiro trabalho apresentado neste manuscrito foi desenvolvido com o objetivo de caracterizar a expressão do receptor MAS e das principais enzimas responsáveis pela produção de Ang-(1-7), tais como ACE₂, endopeptidase neutra (NEP) e prolil endopeptidase (PEP) durante o desenvolvimento folicular de bovinos.

O segundo artigo apresentado nesta tese foi dedicado ao estudo de genes envolvidos no reparo da fita dupla de DNA em embriões bovinos produzidos *in vitro* (PIV). Ao longo das últimas décadas, a PIV de embriões tem sido utilizada como um modelo básico de pesquisa em fisiologia, biologia celular e para aplicações comerciais. Entretanto, os resultados de pesquisa não têm demonstrado um incremento significativo na eficácia da PIV de embriões bovinos ao longo dos anos, uma vez que, apenas 30 a 40% dos oócitos maturados *in vitro* atingem o estágio de blastocisto (XU et al., 1992; RIZOS et al., 2002; GOOVAERTS et al., 2009; FIELDS et al., 2011). Na tentativa de melhorar a eficiência dos sistemas de PIV de embriões, uma série de alterações nos meios ou condições de cultivo *in vitro* foram realizadas ao longo dos anos. Porém, o sucesso desse tipo de abordagem tem sido limitado, embora os resultados tenham gerado benefícios no que tange a simplificação dos sistemas de PIV de embriões.

Um estudo recente demonstrou que aproximadamente 30% dos blastocistos bovinos PIV tem lesões de DNA (STURMEY et al., 2009). Se levarmos em consideração que a maioria dos oócitos maturados *in vitro* não passam do estágio de 4 a 8 células (MEIRELLES et al., 2004; LEIDENFROST et al., 2011), pode-se suspeitar então que o número de estruturas com danos de DNA pode ser superior a apontada por Sturmey et al. (2009) se zigotos de 2 a 8 células fossem avaliados. Alguns pesquisadores acreditam que o bloqueio do desenvolvimento embrionário durante as primeiras clivagens possa ser devido a incapacidade do zigoto reparar danos de DNA durante o cultivo *in vitro* (BETTS & KING, 2001; MEIRELLES et al., 2004).

O DNA está sujeito à uma série de injúrias e a quebra fita dupla está entre os mais perigosos indutores de danos genotóxico e de morte celular via apoptose (RICH et al., 2000). A presença de uma única quebra na fita dupla de DNA já é suficiente para bloquear a divisão celular e desencadear a morte da célula (DOHERTY & JACKSON, 2001). As quebras na fita

dupla de DNA podem ser reparadas através de duas vias: 1) recombinação homóloga (HR), a qual é livre de erros; 2) União terminal não homóloga (NHEJ), a qual está sujeita a erros. Essas duas vias de reparo são controladas por um grupo bem orquestrados de genes que parecem estar presentes em todos os organismos (BRENNEL et al., 1997).

A expressão de RNAm dos principais genes responsáveis pela ativação e controle da via de reparo HR, tais como, ATM, 53BP1, RAD50, RAD51, RAD52, BRCA1, BRCA2 e NBS1 foi detectada em oócitos e blastocistos de humanos (JAROUDI et al., 2009). Esse mesmo grupo também demonstrou a expressão de RNAm de KU70, KU80 e XRCC4 os quais, são os principais genes responsáveis pela ativação e controle da via de reparo NHEJ. Recentemente, foi descoberto que o tratamento com hRAD51 recombinante antes da irradiação com krypton-78 ou UV-B diminui marcadamente a fragmentação citoplasmática e os danos de DNA em oócitos bovinos (KUJJO et al., 2011). Esses resultados indicam que as vias de reparo HR e NHEJ podem ser uma importante forma de proteção e reparo do genoma de oócitos e embriões bovinos. Entretanto, pouco é conhecido sobre o perfil de expressão dos genes responsáveis por ativar e controlar essas duas vias de reparo ao longo do desenvolvimento embrionário. Portanto, o objetivo do segundo estudo apresentado neste manuscrito foi caracterizar o perfil de expressão dos principais genes responsáveis pelo controle e ativação das vias de reparo HR (53BP1, ATM, RAD50, RAD51, RAD52, BRCA1, BRCA2 e NBS1) e NHEJ (KU70, KU80 e DNAPK) em embriões bovinos com alta, média ou baixa competência de desenvolvimento embrionário. Além disso, nós também avaliamos se os embriões bovinos são capazes de responder a quebras na fita dupla de DNA e em que momento após a fertilização *in vitro* as vias de reparo HR e NHEJ podem ser efetivamente reguladas.

2. REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA

2.1. Desenvolvimento Folicular Antral

A função ovariana é regulada primariamente pelo controle endócrino, principalmente pelas gonadotrofinas hipofisiárias, hormônio folículo estimulante (FSH) e hormônio luteinizante (LH), seus receptores (FSHr e LHR) e esteróides ovarianos. Mais recentemente, tornou-se evidente que fatores produzidos localmente atuam em um controle autócrino/parácrino da foliculogênese, desempenhando um papel essencial na modulação do desenvolvimento folicular (DE LA SOTA et al., 1996; BERISHA & SCHAMS, 2005).

O FSH é um dos principais hormônios que regula as ondas foliculares em bovinos. Isso é demonstrado pelo aumento da sua concentração circulante simultâneo ao início de uma onda, quando são recrutados até 24 folículos com diâmetro aproximado de 5mm, fenômeno denominado emergência folicular (WILTBANK et al., 2000; MIHM et al., 2002). Os níveis de FSH começam a diminuir nos dias 2 e 3 após a emergência e então alguns folículos da onda cessam o desenvolvimento até que apenas um (futuro folículo dominante) é selecionado, enquanto os restantes da mesma onda (folículos subordinados) entram em atresia. Essa mudança no ritmo de desenvolvimento folicular é denominada divergência ou desvio folicular e inicia com uma redução nas taxas de desenvolvimento dos folículos subordinados em contraste com a manutenção (BEG et al., 2002) ou aumento (FORTUNE et al., 2001a, 2001b) da taxa de desenvolvimento do futuro folículo dominante. A divergência folicular ocorre quando o maior folículo se encontra com um diâmetro em torno de 8,5mm em raças taurinas (BEG & GINTHER, 2006) e 6,0mm em zebuínas (GIMENES et al., 2008).

Existem evidências de que a capacidade do folículo dominante crescer e se diferenciar mesmo em baixos níveis de FSH é devida a diversos fatores como a aquisição gradativa de receptores para LH nas células da granulosa, a maior disponibilidade de IGF (fator de crescimento semelhante a insulina) livre (FORTUNE et al., 2004; WEBB et al., 2004) e a fatores de crescimento da família FGF (fatores de crescimento fibroblástico, BERISHA et al., 2004; BURATINI et al., 2007). No entanto, acredita-se que esses não sejam os únicos fatores locais responsáveis pelo desenvolvimento folicular durante o período de divergência, havendo outros diversos fatores produzidos pelo oócito, células da granulosa e teca (para revisão, KNIGHT & GLISTER, 2006). Esses fatores determinam que folículos dominantes tenham

níveis mais elevados de RNAm para receptores de gonadotrofinas e enzimas envolvidas na síntese de andrógenos e progestágenos (17α -OH, P450_{scc}, 3β -HSD, e StAR) do que os subordinados (FORTUNE, 2001a, 2001b).

O papel da aquisição de receptores de LH pelas células da granulosa no estabelecimento da dominância folicular é controverso. Beg et al. (2001) afirmam que a expressão de RNAm para LHr nas células da granulosa do futuro dominante está aumentada 8 horas antes da divergência e que esta expressão não sofre alteração no segundo maior folículo, indicando que este é um mecanismo de seleção do folículo dominante. Contudo, isso contradiz o relato de níveis indetectáveis de LHr, pela técnica de hibridização *in situ* de células da granulosa, durante a seleção folicular (EVANS & FORTUNE, 1997). Nogueira et al. (2007) utilizando folículos de fêmeas Nelore, identificaram as isoformas de RNAm do LHR em células da granulosa de folículos com 8mm, e em apenas um dos seis folículos de 7mm analisados. Considerando-se que a divergência folicular ocorre aos 6mm de diâmetro nesta raça, assume-se que a expressão do gene que codifica o LHr nas células da granulosa foi detectada após a seleção do folículo dominante. Evans & Fortune (1997) também descreveram que a seleção do folículo dominante ocorre na ausência da expressão de receptores de LH nas células da granulosa. O mesmo grupo demonstrou a participação de fatores locais que suportam o desenvolvimento folicular durante essa fase de baixos níveis séricos de FSH (FORTUNE et al., 2001a; RIVERA et al., 2001; FORTUNE et al., 2004). Dentre esses fatores, a participação do IGF no desenvolvimento folicular de bovinos, assim como suas proteínas de ligação (IGFBPs) e proteases específicas, está bem estabelecida (FORTUNE et al., 2004; SPICER & AAD, 2007).

2.2. Sistema Renina-Angiotensina

Classicamente, o sistema renina-angiotensina (RAS) é definido como um sistema hormonal circulante que está envolvido no controle da pressão osmótica, equilíbrio de sais e manutenção da homeostase dos fluidos. De acordo com essa visão sistêmica, o precursor do RAS, o angiotensinogênio, é expresso no fígado e é clivado pela enzima renina, secretada pelos rins para a circulação, formando o decapeptídeo angiotensina I (Ang I). A Ang I é então clivada na ligação Phe⁸-His⁹ pela enzima conversora de angiotensina (ACE), que está presente no endotélio vascular (PEACH, 1977). A clivagem da Ang I dá origem à Ang II, componente

bioativo responsável por mediar a maioria das funções do RAS. No entanto, a identificação de componentes do RAS em diversos tecidos tem levado ao novo conceito de sistema local de formação de Ang II e outros peptídeos bioativos do mesmo sistema. Além disso, a regulação dos sistemas locais parece ser independente do controle sistêmico do RAS. Esses sistemas locais de angiotensina parecem atuar de forma autócrina/paracrina em alguns tecidos, tendo funções descritas no coração, vasos sanguíneos, rins, cérebro e glândulas endócrinas (FERRARIO et al., 1998; PHILLIPS & SUMNERS, 1998; KIM & IWAO, 2000).

2.3. Angiotensina II no desenvolvimento folicular, ovulação e maturação de oócito

Os receptores para Ang II foram descritos nas células da teca e granulosa de ratas (HUSAIN et al., 1987), coelhas (YOSHIMURA et al., 1996a) e vacas (BERISHA et al., 2002; PORTELA et al., 2008); e em macacas predominantemente nas células da teca (AGUILERA et al., 1989). Com base nas diferentes propriedades farmacológicas e bioquímicas, os receptores para Ang II foram classificados em dois subtipos (DEGASPARO et al., 1995). O receptor tipo 1 (AT1 ou AGTR1) tem sido demonstrado mediando um número de funções bem conhecidas da Ang II como contração de musculatura lisa, síntese e secreção de aldosterona e angiogênese (para revisão DINH et al., 2001). Já o receptor tipo 2 (AT2 ou AGTR2) é responsável por efeitos opostos ao receptor AT1 e por mediar funções reprodutivas como esteroidogênese, maturação de oócitos e ovulação em algumas espécies (YOSHIMURA et al., 1996b; FERREIRA et al., 2007; BENETTI et al., 2008; para revisão GONÇALVES et al., 2012).

Em bovinos, a presença de receptores de Ang II nas células foliculares (BERISHA et al., 2002; PORTELA et al., 2008) e o aumento nas concentrações de Ang II após o pico de LH (ACOSTA et al., 2000) sugerem uma atividade biológica desse peptídeo no desenvolvimento folicular. Nosso grupo tem demonstrado a participação da Ang II na ovulação (FERREIRA et al., 2007; PORTELA et al., 2011), maturação oocitária (GIOMETTI et al., 2005; STEFANELLO et al., 2006; BARRETA et al., 2008) e, mais recentemente, demonstramos que a aplicação intrafolicular de saralasin (antagonista de Ang II) inibe o desenvolvimento folicular antral, sendo esta ação revertida pela administração sistêmica de FSH (FERREIRA et al., 2011a). Ainda, é importante frisar que os níveis de Ang II aumentam no fluido folicular durante o momento esperado para a divergência folicular e após o

estabelecimento da dominância folicular (FERREIRA et al., 2011b). Esses dados demonstram que a Ang II possui uma ação local indispensável para o desenvolvimento folicular e sugerem que esta ação ocorre somente no período em que as concentrações de FSH estão reduzidas, ou seja, durante a fase de transição de folículo FSH-dependente para LH-dependente. Em outro ensaio *in vivo*, foi demonstrado que a Ang II participa do desenvolvimento folicular regulando enzimas esteroidogênicas assim como marcadores de diferenciação das células da granulosa (aromatase, 3 β HSD, LHR e SerpinE2; FERREIRA et al., 2011a). Cabe salientar que o processo de diferenciação das células da granulosa e aquisição de receptores de LH nessas células é um passo indispensável para aquisição da dominância folicular e parecem ser regulados pela Ang II. Recentemente, foi demonstrado um aumento de Ang II no fluido folicular do folículo dominante nos dias 3 e 4 após o início da onda de crescimento folicular (durante e após o momento esperado para a divergência folicular; FERREIRA et al., 2011b). Nesse mesmo estudo, foi demonstrado um aumento da expressão de RNAm para ACE nas células da granulosa do folículo após o estabelecimento da dominância folicular (dia 4 após o início da onda). Os recentes resultados demonstram uma regulação dos componentes do sistema Ang II (PORTELA et al., 2008) e a participação dos mesmos durante o desenvolvimento folicular de bovinos (FERREIRA et al., 2011a; FERREIRA et al., 2011b). No entanto, alguns trabalhos têm sugerido que a Ang II não é o único peptídeo ativo do RAS. Outros fatores como Ang III (Ang-(2-8); ZINI et al., 1996), Ang IV (Ang-(3-8); BRASZKO et al., 1988; WRIGHT et al., 1993) e Ang-(1-7) (SCHIAVONE et al., 1988; BARNES et al., 1990; FELIX et al., 1991) também podem mediar as ações do RAS em diferentes sistemas, principalmente a Ang-(1-7) (COSTA et al., 2003; SAMPAIO et al., 2007; LEAL et al., 2009).

2.4. Angiotensina-(1-7)

A Ang-(1-7) é um componente ativo do sistema renina-angiotensina que pode ser formada por uma rota independente da ACE. Esse heptapeptídeo pode ser gerado a partir da Ang I pela endopeptidase neutra (NEP) e prolyl endopeptidase (PEP), ou a partir da Ang II pela PEP e prolyl carboxipeptidases (PCP; SANTOS et al., 1992). Recentemente, uma enzima formadora de Ang-(1-7) homóloga a enzima conversora da angiotensina I (ACE) foi descoberta e nomeada de ACE₂. A ACE₂ é uma carboxiaminopeptidase não responsiva a ação do captopril (inibidor seletivo da ACE) e é capaz de gerar Ang-(1-7) diretamente da Ang II ou indiretamente da Ang I, convertendo-a em Ang-(1-9), a qual, por ação da ACE forma a Ang-

(1-7) (DONOGHUE et al., 2000). A ACE₂ exibe uma alta eficiência catalítica para a conversão de Ang II a Ang-(1-7), quase 500 vezes maior que para a conversão de Ang I a Ang-(1-9). A partir de um ensaio com mais de 120 peptídeos, somente dois (dinofirina A e apelina 13) foram hidrolisados pela ACE₂ com cinética comparável à conversão de Ang II a Ang-(1-7). Assim, a ACE₂ converte o vasoconstritor e promotor de crescimento Ang II em Ang-(1-7), um peptídeo com propriedades vasodilatadoras e anti-proliferativas; provendo um aparente mecanismo para balancear diretamente os níveis de Ang II e Ang-(1-7), modulando os eixos pressor/mitogênico e depressor/anti-proliferativo do RAS (GALLAGHER et al., 2006).

Uma vez formada, a Ang-(1-7) pode ser hidrolisada por amino-peptitases, dando origem a Ang-(2-7) e a Ang-(3-7); ou pela ACE dando origem a Ang-(1-5). A atividade da ACE parece ser um importante mecanismo de inativação da Ang-(1-7) sistêmica e tecidual (YAMADA et al., 1998; CHAPPELL et al., 2000). As concentrações séricas de Ang-(1-7) são similares àquelas observadas para Ang II; no entanto, as concentrações de Ang-(1-7) aumentam após a inibição da ACE (CAMPBELL et al., 1991).

Nos últimos anos, foram descobertos vários componentes do sistema renina-angiotensina (RAS) em diversos tecidos, e novos conceitos de regulação do RAS estão sendo propostos. A descoberta da ACE₂ e do receptor MAS (receptor para Ang-(1-7)) levou a uma reavaliação da cascata original do RAS e o surgimento de um novo seguimento do RAS: o eixo ACE₂/Ang-(1-7)/MAS (para revisão XU et al., 2010). Nessa nova visão de regulação local do RAS, Lin et. al, (2010) demonstraram que a Ang II estimula a expressão de ACE₂ em fibroblastos isolados do coração de humanos. Um aumento na expressão de RNAm para ACE₂, mediado pela Ang II, também foi observado na aorta de ratos hipertensos o que corrobora com a premissa de que a Ang II exerce uma ação regulatória positiva sobre a ACE₂ (IGASE et. al, 2005, 2008). A maior expressão de ACE₂ induzida pela Ang II pode ser um mecanismo de autocontrole que tem como função impedir um aumento exagerado nas concentrações de Ang II. A atividade da ACE₂ parece ser regulada pelos níveis de estrógeno circulantes, pois ratas suplementadas com estrógeno apresentaram uma maior atividade renal de ACE₂ (JI et al., 2008).

2.5. Receptor MAS

O protooncongêne MAS foi detectado originalmente em uma linhagem de células de carcinoma epidermóide humano (YOUNG et al., 1986). O MAS codifica uma proteína da classe das proteínas G, e discute-se seu envolvimento nas ações da Ang II. Essa proteína possui sete domínios transmembrana hidrofóbicos, sendo que o N- e C-terminal são hidrofílicos, e pertence portanto, à classe de receptores celulares de superfície acoplados à proteína G (JACKSON et al., 1988; VON BOHLEN UND HALBACH et al., 2000). O primeiro estudo que demonstrou a função do MAS foi realizado por Jackson et al. (1988), os quais demonstraram que células de mamíferos transfectadas com a sequência de DNA do receptor MAS apresentavam mobilização intracelular de Ca^{2+} em resposta a Ang II e Ang III. Dessa forma, a proteína MAS foi descrita inicialmente como um receptor funcional para angiotensinas.

Santos et al. (2003) demonstraram que o MAS é responsável pela ligação e mediação dos efeitos da Ang-(1-7). Nesse trabalho, foi demonstrando que a deleção do receptor MAS anula a ligação da Ang-(1-7) em rins de camundongo e inibe a ação antidiurética promovida pela Ang-(1-7) após sobrecarga hídrica. Ainda, esse estudo demonstrou que a resposta vasodilatadora promovida pela Ang-(1-7) é abolida na aorta de camundongos *knockout* para o receptor MAS. A expressão de RNAm para o receptor MAS foi verificada em vários tecidos, sendo abundantemente expresso em testículos de ratos e humanos (METZGER et al., 1995; REIS et al., 2010). Recentemente, têm sido demonstrado que as ações da Ang-(1-7) podem ser especificamente inibidas quando o receptor MAS é bloqueado com d-Ala⁷-Ang-(1-7), também conhecido como A-779 (CANGUSSU et al., 2009; LEAL et al., 2009; DILAURO & BURNS, 2009). Estudos utilizando o antagonista A-779 (bloqueador seletivo para o receptor MAS) e antagonistas de Ang II sugerem que as ações da Ang-(1-7) não são mediadas pelos receptores clássicos de Ang II (AT1 e AT2; FREEMAN et al., 1996; FONTES et al., 1997; IYER et al., 1998).

Sabe-se que a Ang-(1-7) ativa as MAPK (*mitogen-activated protein kinases*), através da ligação ao receptor MAS em células mesangiais humanas e que essa ativação está associada com a estimulação da fosfolipase A2 e liberação do ácido araquidônico (ZIMPELMANN & BURNS, 2009). Já em células endoteliais humanas, foi demonstrado que a Ang-(1-7) atua na via fosfatidilinositol 3-quinase (PI3K) / proteína quinase B / Akt, na

liberação de óxido nítrico (SAMPAIO et al., 2007), sendo que essa rota também está envolvida na ativação das MAPK.

2.6. Funções da Ang-(1-7) no ovário

No que diz respeito à função da Ang-(1-7), esta pode realizar efeitos similares, opostos ou distintos da Ang II. Vários estudos têm demonstrado que a Ang-(1-7), ao contrário do que se pensava inicialmente, possui uma atividade biológica. Esse heptapeptídeo atua sobre os sistemas nervoso central, renal e cardiovascular, além de funcionar como um regulador de desenvolvimento dos tecidos vasculares (para revisão SANTOS et al., 2000). Recentemente, foi demonstrado que camundongos *knockout* para o receptor MAS apresentam uma marcada redução na produção espermática diária (LEAL et al., 2009). No entanto, pouco se sabe sobre a função ovariana da Ang-(1-7). Em ratas, os níveis ovarianos de Ang-(1-7) estão mais elevados no proestro e estro quando comparado aos níveis do metaestro e diestro (COSTA et al., 2003). Os mesmos autores demonstraram que Ang-(1-7) induz um aumento nas concentrações de estradiol e progesterona e esse efeito foi inibido por um bloqueador específico de Ang-(1-7) (A-779). Esse mesmo grupo de pesquisa imunolocalizou Ang-(1-7) e o receptor MAS nas células intersticiais e tecaais de folículos antrais e pré-ovulatórios de ratas tratadas com eCG. Foi também demonstrado que a expressão de RNAm para MAS e ACE₂, em homogenatos de ovário, aumenta em ratas tratadas com eCG (PEREIRA et al., 2009), o que sugere uma possível regulação mediada por gonadotrofinas. Utilizando o bovino como modelo experimental, nosso grupo demonstrou recentemente que a concentração de Ang-(1-7) aumenta no fluido folicular de folículos pré-ovulatórios, 24h após a administração intramuscular de um análogo sintético do GnRH (SANTOS et al., 2011). Além disso, foi demonstrado que existe regulação da expressão de RNAm de ACE₂, NEP e PEP nas células da granulosa de folículos pré-ovulatórios após o desafio com GnRH.

Uma vez que a função da Ang II em ratos (SPETH et al., 1999) parece ser diferente das demais espécies (YOSHIMURA et al., 1996c; FERREIRA et al., 2011a), no que tange ao desenvolvimento folicular, a indução da esteroidogênese causada pela Ang-(1-7) pode ser devida a uma ação direta, ou simplesmente uma inibição da ação apoptótica da Ang II nas células da granulosa. Entretanto, o papel do sistema Ang-(1-7) na função ovariana e desenvolvimento folicular permanece ainda desconhecido.

2.7. Detecção e reparo de danos de DNA no embrião

A expressão de genes responsáveis pelo reparo do DNA são de suma importância para a manutenção da integridade do genoma e conseqüentemente para o adequado desenvolvimento embrionário em mamíferos. Estudos com camundongos *knockout* têm demonstrado que a supressão da expressão de genes responsáveis pelo controle das principais vias de reparo de DNA podem causar sérios problemas de desenvolvimento ou serem incompatíveis com a vida (FRIEDBERG & MEIRA, 2006). Grande parte das perdas embrionárias ocorrem durante a fase de implantação o que sugere que o embrião necessita de um adequado sistema de reparo durante essa fase de rápida proliferação e diferenciação celular (VINSON & HALES, 2002). Em bovinos, o destino do embrião depende do resultado das primeiras quatro divisões de clivagem, as quais, geralmente têm uma elevada taxa de insucesso (LEIDENFROST et al., 2011). A morte embrionária antes do período de implantação é considerada como um dos maiores determinantes de casos de infertilidade em bovinos (BETTS & KING, 2001). Um recente estudo demonstrou que cerca de 30% dos blastocistos produzidos *in vitro* apresentam danos de DNA (STURMEY et al., 2009). É provável que a percentagem de embriões com danos fosse ainda maior se a avaliação feita por Sturmey et al. (2009) tivesse sido realizada antes da ativação do genoma embrionário. Essa afirmação pode ser suportada pelo fato de que a maioria dos oócitos que atingem o estágio de metáfase (MII) e completam a primeira clivagem *in vitro*, não são capazes de se desenvolver além dos estádios de 4 a 8 células (TELFORD et al., 1990). Além disso, alguns pesquisadores acreditam que a incapacidade de reparar danos de DNA é uma das principais causas de bloqueio do desenvolvimento antes da ativação do genoma de embriões cultivados *in vitro* (BETTS & KING, 2001; MEIRELLES et al., 2004).

Várias proteínas atuam conjuntamente em uma via celular complexa que tem como função detectar e reparar os diferentes tipos de danos de DNA. As enzimas de reparo de DNA parecem estar presentes em todos os organismos (BRENDDEL et al., 1997) e sua conservação evolutiva confirma que são necessárias para o funcionamento normal e reprodução dos organismos vivos (ARAVIND et al., 1999). Até o ano de 2005 mais de 150 genes de reparo de DNA foram clonados e sequenciados em humanos (WOOD et al., 2005).

As principais vias de reparo de DNA ativas nas células de mamíferos são: *base excision repair* (BER), *double strand break repair* (DSBR), *mismatch repair* (MMR), *nucleotide excision repair* (NER) e *post-replication repair* (PRR) (VINSON & HALES,

2002; WOOD et al., 2005). Os diferentes tipos de lesões de DNA são reconhecidos por diversas proteínas de reparo, as quais, identificam a lesão de acordo com seu substrato e dessa forma, permitem que uma via específica de reparo possa ser ativada. Os danos de DNA podem ser amplamente classificados em dois tipos: 1) lesões e 2) quebras da fita de DNA. As lesões são caracterizadas por alterações na estrutura de bases e resulta em alterações químicas e/ou físicas da estrutura do DNA, as quais, podem produzir mutações pontuais ou distorções físicas do DNA que podem impedir a replicação e a transcrição. Os principais mecanismos responsáveis pelo reparo das lesões de DNA são: NER, BER e MMR. Essa três vias utilizam a excisão de bases como forma de reparo e seu funcionamento pode ser resumido em quatro passos comuns: 1) detecção da área lesada; 2) uma DNA endonuclease (BER and NER) ou exonuclease (MMR) corta um fragmento da fita de DNA que contém a lesão; 3) uma DNA polimerase sintetiza uma nova cópia, baseada na sequência da fita complementar, para preencher o espaço criado durante o corte e 4) uma DNA ligase liga o fragmento sintetizado completando dessa forma o reparo da fita lesada (HAKEM, 2008).

Em contrapartida, a fita dupla de DNA pode sofrer quebras físicas, as quais, podem estar associadas a uma ou as duas fitas de DNA. Qualquer tipo de quebra física da fita de DNA é suficiente para bloquear a divisão e desencadear a morte celular (DOHERTY & JACKSON, 2001). Geralmente, esse tipo de dano ocorre devido a exposição do DNA a radiação ionizante, estresse ambiental (VAN ATTIKUM & GASSER, 2005), radiação UV (KUJJO et al., 2011) e em casos severos de exposição a espécies reativas ao oxigênio (BILSLAND & DOWNS, 2005). A quebra da fita dupla de DNA está entre os mais perigosos indutores de danos genotóxicos e de morte celular por apoptose (RICH et al., 2000). Por serem o objeto alvo deste estudo e devido a sua importância, as formas de reparo da fita dupla de DNA serão discutidas em um tópico separado.

Logo após a detecção do dano, as vias de reparo são ativadas e o ciclo celular é bloqueado transitoriamente para que o reparo do DNA possa ser efetuado (BRANZEI & FOIANI, 2008). Entretanto, esses mesmos autores citam que quando a lesão não é reparada, o ciclo celular pode ser permanentemente suspenso ou as vias apoptóticas podem ser ativadas para que a célula seja eliminada. Existem limitadas informações sobre os mecanismos de reparo de DNA durante as primeiras fases do desenvolvimento embrionário, principalmente em modelos animais não roedores. Experimentos com zigotos de camundongos têm indicado que lesões na cromatina paterna podem ser reconhecidas e reparadas durante a fertilização (DERIJCK et al., 2008). Desde então, tem sido considerado que a capacidade de reparo de

DNA observada nas fases iniciais do desenvolvimento embrionário é uma característica materna. Baseado nessa hipótese, foi postulado que o oócito pode acumular RNAm para enzimas de reparo, as quais, serão importantes durante a fertilização e nas fases iniciais do desenvolvimento embrionário. Recentemente, foi observado que oócitos no estágio de metáfase II (MII) e blastocistos de humanos expressam RNAm de enzimas fundamentais para a ativação e controle das principais vias de reparo de DNA descritas em mamíferos (JAROUDI et al., 2009). Esse estudo demonstrou que 15 dos 25 genes envolvidos no reparo da fita dupla de DNA são expressos em oócitos MII e blastocistos. Esse resultados indicam que a expressão de genes responsáveis pelo reparo de DNA pode ter um grande impacto durante as primeiras fases do desenvolvimento embrionário. Entretanto, apesar de a expressão de genes de reparo ter sido detectada em embriões de mamíferos (para revisão JAROUDI & SENGUPTA, 2007; JAROUDI et al., 2009), o perfil de expressão gênica ao longo do desenvolvimento embrionário e a habilidade de reparo frente a quebra da fita dupla de DNA não tem sido investigados.

2.8. Reparo de quebras na fita dupla de DNA

As duas vias envolvidas no reparo de quebras na fita dupla de DNA são: recombinação homóloga (HR) e a união terminal não homóloga (NHEJ). A via HR é livre de erros e está ativa durante as fases S e na transição G2-M do ciclo celular onde uma cromátide irmã atua como molde para o reparo (JOHNSON & JASIN, 2000). Na via NHEJ as porções finais da fita dupla de DNA quebrada são ligadas independentemente de pertencerem ao mesmo cromossomo e, por isso, essa via é sujeita a erros que podem ocasionar mutações ou perda de funções em partes específicas do DNA (BRANZEI & FOIANI, 2008). Nas células de mamíferos, a via NHEJ está predominantemente ativa durante a transição das fases G0 para G1 (JOHNSON & JASIN, 2000; LIEBER, 2010). Oócitos e blastocistos de humanos expressam 12 dos 19 genes pertencentes a via HR e 3 dos 6 genes pertencentes a via NHEJ (JAROUDI et al., 2009). Entretanto, o reparo da fita dupla pela via HR parece ser mais ativo em oócitos e embriões. Esse resultado de certa forma era esperado uma vez que, a via HR é livre de erros e mantém a integridade do genoma.

Várias investigações ainda tentam elucidar como a célula determina se o reparo ocorrerá via HR ou NHJE. Essa determinação pode ser exclusivamente operacional uma vez que, se uma sequencia homóloga não estiver próximo a fita dupla danificada durante a fase

S/G2 a via de reparo HR não pode ser ativada. Durante a fase S, se uma cromátide irmã está fisicamente próxima a fita danificada a célula pode dar preferência para a via de reparo HR. Entretanto, fora das fases S e G2 a NHEJ acaba sendo escolhida como a via de preferência para o reparo. Existe ainda a hipótese de que a via de reparo escolhida pela célula depende de uma competição entre proteínas da família KU ou RAD. Nesse modelo se as proteínas KU70 e KU80 forem as primeiras a se ligar na região danificada do DNA a reparação ocorreria pela via NHEJ. Em contrapartida, se proteínas pertencentes a família RAD (principalmente RAD51 e 52) forem as primeiras a se ligar ao DNA a reparação aconteceria pela via HR. Todas essas vias citadas foram recentemente revisadas por Libier (2010) e ainda não existe um consenso sobre o mecanismo que a célula utiliza para determinar se o reparo ocorrerá pela via HR ou NHEJ.

2.9. Reparo da fita dupla de DNA por recombinação homóloga (HR)

Durante o reparo pela via HR, a fita de DNA danificada se aproxima de uma cromátide irmã íntegra, a qual, tem uma sequência homóloga que será utilizada como molde para o reparo (JOHNSON & JASIN, 2000; BRANZEI & FOIANI, 2008). A via HR é iniciada pela ligação do complexo MRE-RAD50-NBS1 ao fragmento de DNA danificado. Essa ligação promove a ressecção de alguns nucleotídeos na direção 5'-3' e expõe a porção terminal da fita de DNA. Imediatamente após esse evento, as proteínas RAD51 e proteína de replicação A (RPA) unem-se a RAD52 e aos fragmentos da fita de DNA para formar um filamento de nucleoproteína (KAGAWA et al., 2001). A enzima BRCA1, a qual é ativada pela proteína ATM, auxilia na ligação da RAD51 e da BRCA2 ao DNA o que acaba atraindo a proteína RAD52 (VALERIE & POVIRK, 2003). A ligação da RAD52 a esse complexo de proteínas evita a digestão exonucleolítica da fita de DNA (VALERIE & POVIRK, 2003). A proteína 53BP1 é essencial para fosforilação da proteína ATM, uma vez que a supressão da 53BP1 com siRNA causa falhas na ativação da ATM (DITULLIO et al., 2002). O filamento de nucleoproteína formado pela RAD51, RPA e RAD52 localiza uma região homóloga na cromátide irmã, que irá servir como molde, e invade a fita dupla dessa cromátide formando uma *Holliday junction* (VAN DYCK et al., 2001). A DNA polimerase utilizará a cromátide irmã como molde e fará então a extensão da região terminal 3' da molécula de DNA danificada. Após esse processo a região complementar produzida pela DNA polimerase será ligada a fita de DNA por uma DNA ligase do tipo I. Finalmente, as *Holliday junctions* são

clivadas e ligadas para então produzir duas moléculas intactas de DNA. Um resumo de todo esse processo está exposto na Figura 1.

O RNAm das principais enzimas responsáveis pela ativação e controle da via HR são expressos em oócitos e embriões de humano (JAROUDI et al., 2009). Esse estudo demonstrou a expressão de RNAm para BRCA1, BRCA2, NBS1, RAD50, RAD51, RAD52, ATM e 53BP1 tanto em oócitos quanto em blastocistos. Recentemente, foi demonstrado que a microinjeção de hRAD51 recombinante em oócitos de bovino previne a fragmentação citoplasmática induzida pela caspase 3 e reduz o dano ao DNA induzido pela irradiação UV-B ou com krypton-78 (KUJJO et al., 2011). Esses resultados indicam que a HR pode ser uma importante via de proteção e reparo do genoma em oócitos e embriões de bovinos. Entretanto, o conhecimento sobre essa via de reparo tanto em oócitos quanto em embriões da referida espécie é escasso e mais estudos são necessários para entendermos como essa via se comporta ao longo do desenvolvimento embrionário.

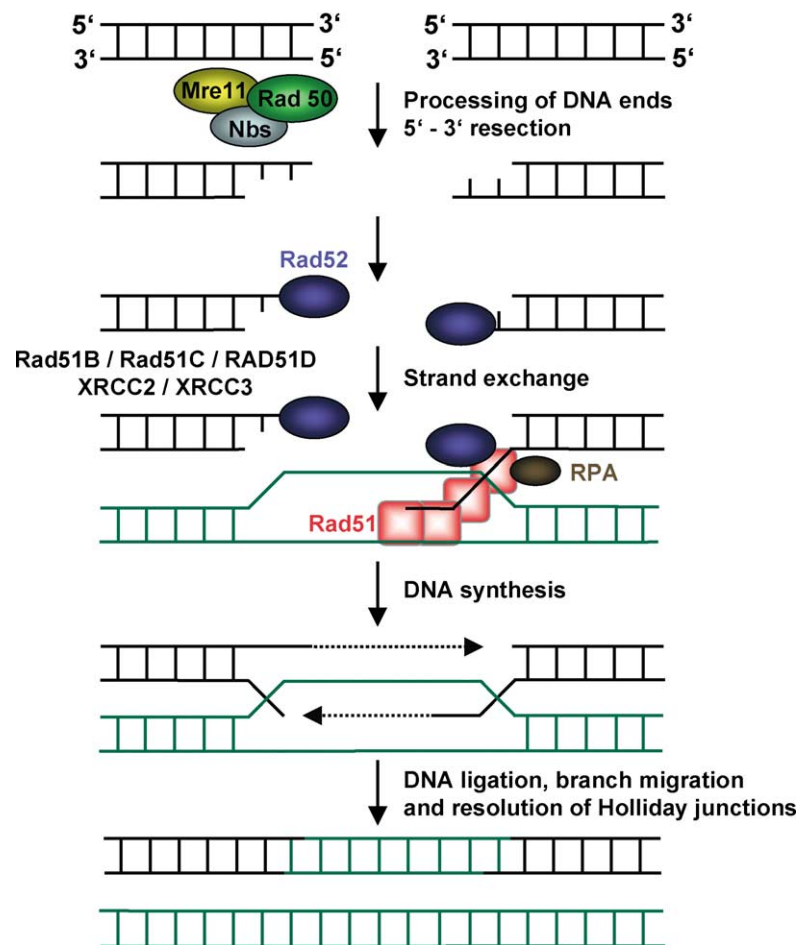


Figura 1 - Mecanismo de reparo por recombinação homóloga (HR). A HR inicia pela ressecção de nucleotídeos na dupla fita de DNA quebrada na direção 5'-3' pelo complexo

MRE11–Rad50–NBS1 permitindo dessa forma a ligação da RAD52. A RAD52 inicia a formação do filamento de nucleoproteína pela interação com a uma série de proteínas tais como: RAD51, RPA, BRCA1, BRCA2, ATM e 53BP1. O filamento de nucleoproteína invade a cromátide irmã permitindo a cópia de um segmento homólogo pela DNA polimerase. Após a síntese, as *Holliday junctions* são clivadas e o DNA é ligado para então produzir duas moléculas intactas de DNA. Adaptado de Christmann et al. (2003).

2.10. Reparo da fita dupla de DNA pela união terminal não homóloga (NHEJ)

A via de reparo NHEJ inicia pela união das proteínas KU70 e KU80 ao DNA danificado (JEGGO et al., 1992). Essa ligação protege a fita dupla de DNA impedindo sua degradação por exonucleases. O complexo KU associa-se então à proteína quinase dependente de DNA (DNAPK) promovendo a sua ativação (SIPLEY et al., 1995). O alvo da DNAPK ativa é a proteína XRCC4 (X-ray repair complementing defective repair in Chinese hamster cells 4) que forma um estável complexo com a proteína LIG4 (DNA ligase 4; LEBER et al., 1998). A ligação do complexo XRCC4-LIG4 a DNAPK permite que as extremidades do DNA quebrado sejam ligadas de maneira complementar. A maioria das quebras de fita dupla precisam de um processamento da fita de DNA com o objetivo de tornar as extremidades 3'-5' complementares antes da ligação do complexo XRCC4-LIG4 (LEE et al., 2003). Esse processamento é realizado pelo complexo MRN o qual, remove o excesso de DNA da região 3' (MASER et al., 1997), ou pela FEN1 (flap endonuclease 1), a qual remove o excesso de DNA da região 5'. A deficiência do complexo FEN1 leva a uma severa redução do uso da via NHEJ para o reparo da fita dupla de DNA (WU et al., 1999). Um resumo de todo esse processo está exposto na Figura 2.

Assim como já citado para a via HR, as principais proteínas responsáveis pela ativação e controle da via NHEJ também são expressas em oócitos e blastocistos de humanos (JAROUDI et al., 2009). A expressão de RNAm para KU70, KU80, XRCC4 e FEN1 foi detectada tanto no oócito quanto no embrião de humanos. Entretanto, o RNAm para a proteína LIG4 não foi detectado tanto no embrião quanto no oócito. Pelo perfil de expressão de RNAm encontrado, Jaroudi et al. (2009) sugerem que a via NHEJ seja mais ativa em blastocistos que em oócitos. Entretanto, os trabalhos realizados em mamíferos não têm abordado a expressão via NHEJ ao longo do desenvolvimento embrionário e tão pouco em

que fase do desenvolvimento o embrião pode utilizar essa via para o reparo da fita dupla de DNA.

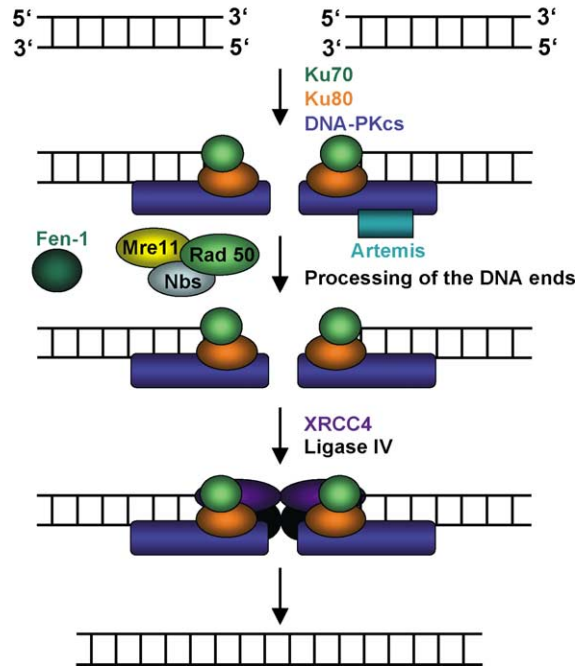


Figura 2 - Mecanismo de reparo pela união terminal não homóloga (NHEJ). O complexo KU70-KU80 reconhece a quebra na fita dupla de DNA e liga-se a ela. Logo após, o complexo KU liga-se à proteína DNAPK. A DNAPK ativa o complexo XRCC4–ligase IV, o qual se liga à fita dupla de DNA quebrada. Antes da re-ligação do DNA pelo complexo XRCC4–ligase IV, as extremidades 3' e 5' são processadas pelo complexo MRN e pela proteína FEN1. Adaptado de: Christmann et al. (2003).

3. ARTIGO 1

TRABALHO SUBMETIDO PARA PUBLICAÇÃO:

**THE COMPONENTS OF ANGIOTENSIN-(1-7) SYSTEM ARE
DIFFERENTIALLY EXPRESSED DURING FOLLICULAR
WAVE IN CATTLE.**

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Monique Rovani, Gabriel Ribas Pereira, Rodrigo C. Bohrer, João Francisco
de Oliveira, Paulo Bayard Dias Gonçalves.**

REPRODUCTION, 2012.

1 **The components of Angiotensin-(1-7) system are differentially expressed during**
2 **follicular wave in cattle¹.**

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9

10 **Short Title:** Ang-(1-7) in bovine follicular wave

11

12 **Footnotes**

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19

20

21 Abstract

22 The objective of this study was to characterize the expression of Ang-(1-7) system
23 components, such as MAS receptor, angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE₂), neutral
24 endopeptidase (NEP) and prolyl endopeptidase (PEP) during follicular development.
25 Furthermore, the regulation of local Ang-(1-7) system during health/atresia transition was
26 tested by inducing follicular atresia with intrafollicular injection of an estradiol-receptor
27 inhibitor. Cows were ovariectomized when the size between the largest (F1) and the second
28 largest follicle (F2) was not statistically different (Day 2), slightly different (Day 3), or
29 markedly different (Day 4). The mRNA abundance of genes encoding MAS receptor, ACE₂,
30 NEP and PEP was evaluated in the follicular cells from F1 and F2. The mRNA expression of
31 MAS receptor was upregulated in the granulosa cells of F2 after the establishment of
32 follicular deviation (Day 4), while PEP mRNA increased during (Day 3) and after (Day 4) the
33 deviation process. However, the mRNA expression of ACE₂ was upregulated in the granulosa
34 cells of F1 during and after the deviation process. The mRNA expression of NEP was not
35 regulated in F1 and F2. The MAS receptor was immunolocated in the granulosa and theca
36 cells of F1 and F2 during follicular deviation. Moreover, MAS receptor gene expression
37 increased when the F1 was treated with the estrogen receptor-antagonist *in vivo*. In
38 conclusion, mRNA for MAS receptor, ACE₂, NEP and PEP is expressed in follicular cells
39 throughout follicular development. The MAS receptor was upregulated in granulosa cells of
40 subordinate follicles and in dominant follicles treated with an estradiol-receptor inhibitor.

41 **Keywords:** MAS receptor, ACE₂, PEP, NEP, follicular deviation, bovine.

42

43 **Introduction**

44 It is well established that the follicular growth in single-ovulating species occurs in
45 waves being primarily orchestrated by endocrine factors, mainly gonadotrophins (FSH and
46 LH), their receptors (FSHr and LHCGr) and ovarian steroids. The transient increase in the
47 FSH levels stimulates the growth of a cohort of follicles until one follicle is selected to
48 continue growing, while the other follicles regress due to the low levels of FSH in the
49 follicular deviation stage (Ginther *et al.* 1996). During nadir of FSH secretion, several genes
50 are differentially expressed in microenvironment of follicles to allow the survival of granulosa
51 and theca cells allowing the dominant follicle to become “FSH independent” and to continue
52 its growth (Mihm *et al.* 2006). More recently, focus has shifted to the microenvironment of
53 follicles and an emerging appreciation that changes in that environment provide a critical
54 “fine-tuning” of follicular regulation. The deviation phase is one of development stages that
55 depend on changes in the follicular microenvironment. Previous studies have characterized
56 some important local factors, such as members of IGF and TGF β family, in follicular
57 development (Fortune *et al.* 2004, Knight & Glister 2006, Mihm *et al.* 2008). However, the
58 autocrine and paracrine control of folliculogenesis is poorly understood in single-ovulating
59 species.

60 The Renin-Angiotensin System (RAS) has emerged as an important local system in
61 the regulation of reproductive events (Yoshimura *et al.* 1992, Yoshimura *et al.* 1996, Giometti
62 *et al.* 2005, Ferreira *et al.* 2007, Barreta *et al.* 2008, Portela *et al.* 2008, Pereira *et al.* 2009,
63 Ferreira *et al.* 2011a, Portela *et al.* 2011). Among the peptides of the RAS, angiotensin II
64 (Ang II) is one of the major bioactive compounds. Ang II receptors are present in theca and
65 granulosa cells in cattle (Portela *et al.* 2008) and the levels of Ang II increase in dominant
66 follicle during the follicular deviation (Ferreira *et al.* 2011b). Also, we have previously

67 demonstrated that RAS components are differentially regulated during development of
68 dominant and subordinate follicles (Ferreira *et al.* 2011b), that saralasin (a competitive
69 inhibitor of Ang II) inhibits the follicular growth and that Ang II play a key role in the
70 follicular microenvironment during nadir of FSH secretion in cattle (Ferreira *et al.* 2011a).
71 Taken together, these results strongly suggest that Ang II has an important biological activity
72 during the follicular development.

73 Angiotensin-(1-7) (Ang-(1-7)) has been shown to be another important active
74 compound of the RAS. This peptide results either from the cleavage of angiotensin I (Ang I)
75 by neutral endopeptidase (NEP) and prolyl endopeptidase (PEP) or from Ang II by
76 angiotensin-converting enzyme II (ACE₂) and PEP (Santos *et al.* 2008). Ang-(1-7) acts
77 through the G protein-coupled receptor MAS (Santos *et al.* 2003) and can be specifically
78 inhibited with d-Ala⁷-Ang-(1-7), also known as A-779 (MAS receptor antagonist; Dilauro &
79 Burns 2009). Serum concentrations of Ang-(1-7) are similar to those observed for Ang II
80 (Campbell *et al.* 1991). However, the effect of Ang II and Ang-(1-7) are similar in some
81 tissues (i.e., brain; Santos *et al.* 2000) and different in others (i.e., kidney and heart; Santos *et*
82 *al.* 2008).

83 In the ovarian tissue, Ang-(1-7) induced an increase in estradiol and progesterone
84 levels in perfused rat ovary, which was inhibited by A-779 (Costa *et al.* 2003). It was also
85 shown that the expression of mRNA for MAS receptor and ACE₂ increased in rat ovaries
86 treated with eCG (Pereira *et al.* 2009), suggesting a possible regulation mediated by
87 gonadotropins. However, the function of Ang-(1-7) is little known in the ovary and far less is
88 known in single-ovulating species. Cattle, a single-ovulating specie, provide an excellent
89 model for studying the role of local factors in the control of follicle development, as the
90 follicular wave can be accurately monitored on a day-to-day basis by ultrasonography *in vivo*
91 (Savio *et al.* 1988, Ginther *et al.* 1989, Evans & Fortune 1997) and the follicular environment

92 can be easily modified by an ultrasound-guided intrafollicular injection (Kot *et al.* 1995,
93 Ferreira *et al.* 2007). The present study characterized the mRNA expression of MAS receptor
94 and key enzymes for Ang-(1-7) production, such as, ACE₂, NEP and PEP during follicular
95 development. Furthermore, follicular atresia was induced by intrafollicular injection of an
96 estradiol-receptor inhibitor to evaluate the regulation of local Ang1-7 system during
97 health/atresia transition.

98 **Results**

99 ***Gene expression of MAS receptor, ACE₂, NEP and PEP in theca and granulosa cells*** 100 ***before, during and after the expected moment to follicular deviation***

101 This experiment was performed to evaluate whether MAS receptor, ACE₂, NEP and
102 PEP are differentially expressed in the granulosa and theca cells of the largest and second
103 largest follicle during follicular wave development. The experimental design allowed the
104 recovery of follicles when the follicular size of the largest and the second largest was not
105 statistically different (Day 2), slightly different (Day 3), or markedly different (Day 4) as
106 previously described by our group (Ferreira *et al.* 2011b). With this *in vivo* experimental
107 model, we observed that the mRNA expression of MAS receptor was upregulated in the
108 granulosa cells of second largest follicle after the establishment of follicular deviation (Fig.
109 1A), while PEP mRNA increased during and after the deviation process (Fig. 1C). However,
110 the mRNA expression of ACE₂ was upregulated in the granulosa cells of the largest follicle at
111 the expected moment and after the establishment of follicular deviation (Fig. 1B). The mRNA
112 expression of MAS, PEP and ACE₂ was detected in the theca cells of largest and second
113 largest follicle, but was not regulated during follicular wave development (data not showed).
114 The mRNA expression of NEP enzyme was weakly detected in the granulosa and theca cells,
115 but was not regulated throughout development of largest and second largest follicle (data not

116 showed). The MAS receptor protein was detected by immunofluorescence in the granulosa
117 and theca cells of largest and second largest follicles (Fig. 2).

118 ***Gene expression of MAS receptor, ACE₂ and PEP in granulosa cells of dominant follicles***
119 ***induced to atresia***

120 This experiment was conducted in an in vivo model where the dominant follicle was
121 induced to atresia by intrafollicular treatment with fulvestrant (a selective estrogen receptor
122 antagonist; 100 uM). Intrafollicular treatment with fulvestrant decreased CYP19A1 gene
123 expression and induced the atresia of dominant follicle 12 h after treatment (data previously
124 confirmed by authors). The mRNA expression of ACE₂ and PEP enzymes did not differ
125 between fulvestran- and saline-treated follicles at 12 and 24 h after intrafollicular treatment.
126 However, the mRNA expression of MAS receptor was upregulated in fulvestrant-treated
127 follicles at 12 and 24 h after intrafollicular treatment (Fig. 3).

128 **Discussion**

129 Our significant findings are: 1) the mRNA expression for RAS components to produce
130 intracellular Ang-(1-7) were demonstrated during follicular deviation using a bovine in vivo
131 model; 2) differential mRNA expression of MAS receptor, ACE₂ and PEP enzymes were
132 observed in granulosa but not in theca cells during follicular deviation; 3) MAS receptor was
133 immunolocated in granulosa and theca cells of largest, second largest and third largest
134 follicles during the expected follicular deviation moment; 3) NEP enzyme was expressed, but
135 not regulated, in granulosa and theca cells during follicular deviation; and 4) mRNA
136 expression of MAS receptor was upregulated in granulosa cells of dominant follicles induced
137 to atresia.

138 A well-established experimental in vivo model proposed by Rivera *et al.* (2001) was
139 used in this study to found that the mRNA expression to MAS receptor is upregulated in

140 granulosa cells of subordinate follicle after establishment of follicular deviation. Moreover,
141 the induction of dominant follicle atresia after intrafollicular treatment with fulvestrant
142 upregulated the mRNA expression of MAS receptor 12 and 24 h after intrafollicular
143 treatment. This is the first time that the expression of MAS receptor was correlated with
144 follicular atresia. The activation of MAS receptor by Ang-(1-7) is able to inhibit the cell
145 growth in several local systems. The antimitogenic effects of Ang-(1-7) were initially shown
146 in vitro and in vivo in vascular smooth muscle cells (Freeman *et al.* 1996) and cardiac
147 myocytes (Loot *et al.* 2002, Tallant *et al.* 2005) and this effect was mediated by decreased
148 mitogen-stimulated protein synthesis (Tallant *et al.* 2005). Previous studies have
149 demonstrated that Ang-(1-7) inhibits the growth of human lung cancer cells in vitro
150 (Gallagher & Tallant 2004) and tumor angiogenesis in vivo through activation of the MAS
151 receptor (Soto-Pantoja *et al.* 2009). This effect appears to be mediated, at least in part, by
152 reducing the expression and activity of MMP-2 and MMP-9 in the pulmonary tissue (Ni *et al.*
153 2012). Together, these results suggest that a higher mRNA expression to MAS receptor in
154 granulosa can be a required mechanism to mediate the Ang-(1-7) effect on follicular atresia.
155 However, these findings contradict the results obtained in multiovulatory species, where the
156 MAS receptor was upregulated in healthy and estrogen active follicles (Pereira *et al.* 2009).
157 This difference between species is similar for the AT₂ receptor, which is selectively expressed
158 in atretic follicles in the rat (Daud *et al.* 1988, Pucell *et al.* 1991) while it is upregulated in
159 granulosa cells of healthy follicles in cattle (Portela *et al.* 2008).

160 The mRNA expression of ACE₂ was upregulated in dominant follicle during and after
161 the establishment to follicular deviation (Day 3 and 4 after the beginning of follicular wave).
162 These results were expected since, using the same experimental model in vivo, our group
163 demonstrated that the mRNA expression of CYP19 and the levels of estrogen and Ang II
164 increase in dominant follicle during days 3 and 4 after the beginning of the follicular wave

165 (Ferreira *et al.* 2011b). Lin *et al.* (2010) demonstrated that Ang II stimulates the ACE₂
166 expression in fibroblasts isolated from human heart. An increase in the mRNA expression of
167 ACE₂, mediated by Ang II, was also observed in the aorta of hypertensive rats, which
168 confirms the assumption that Ang II exerts a positive regulatory action on ACE₂ (Igase *et al.*
169 2005, Igase *et al.* 2008). Together, these results denote that increased ACE₂ expression,
170 induced by Ang II, may be a mechanism of self-control that is designed to prevent an
171 excessive increase in the local concentrations of Ang II. Furthermore, the ACE₂ activity also
172 appears to be regulated by circulating levels of estrogen; therefore, rats supplemented with
173 estrogen had an increased renal ACE₂ activity (Ji *et al.* 2008). Thus, we can infer that
174 estradiol and Ang II levels in follicular fluid can regulate the ACE₂ expression in the
175 dominant follicle during and after the establishment of follicular divergence, and this event
176 can be an important mechanism for controlling intrafollicular levels of Ang II. However, more
177 studies are needed to understand how the ACE₂ expression is regulated in granulosa cells and
178 which are its effects on follicular development.

179 The mRNA expression of PEP enzyme was upregulated in granulosa cells of
180 subordinate follicle during and after the establishment of follicular deviation. Our result
181 contradicts the findings of Pereira *et al.* (2009), which demonstrated that the PEP mRNA
182 expression increases in ovarian homogenates of eCG-treated rats. However, Pereira *et al.*
183 (2009) evaluated the PEP mRNA expression in ovarian homogenates from immature female
184 (control) compared with eCG-treated rats and thus the effect observed by these authors on
185 PEP and MAS receptor expression may be due to an increase in ovarian activity produced by
186 eCG treatment. As the ACE₂ expression is lower in subordinate follicles, the conversion of
187 Ang II into Ang-(1-7) or Ang I into Ang-(1-9) does not seem to be the main pathways to Ang-
188 (1-7) production in subordinate follicles. Thus, high PEP mRNA expression during and after
189 the establishment of follicular deviation suggests that the conversion of Ang I into Ang-(1-7)

190 may be the choice pathway for Ang-(1-7) production in subordinate follicles. However,
191 further studies are needed to confirm these statements and to understand how this regulation
192 works during follicular deviation. We did not find regulation in NEP mRNA expression
193 during follicular development, raising the possibility of an absence of action in the ovary or
194 the regulatory involvement on other ovarian peptides (Pinto *et al.* 1999, Pereira *et al.* 2009).

195 In conclusion, mRNA for MAS receptor, ACE₂, NEP and PEP is expressed in theca
196 and granulosa cells of dominant and subordinate follicles before, during and after follicular
197 deviation phase. The differential mRNA expression of these enzymes during follicular
198 deviation suggest the involvement of Ang-(1-7) system in the regulatory process of follicular
199 deviation in cattle. The upregulation of MAS receptor mRNA expression in granulosa cells of
200 subordinate follicle after follicular deviation and in dominant follicles treated with an
201 estradiol-receptor inhibitor, suggest an involvement of this receptor with the follicular atresia
202 and with the establishment of follicular dominance.

203 **Materials and Methods**

204 *Experiment 1: MAS receptor, ACE₂, PEP and NEP mRNA expression during bovine* 205 *follicular wave*

206 This experiment was performed using an experimental model to investigate the mRNA
207 expression of MAS receptor, ACE₂, PEP and NEP before, during, and after follicular
208 divergence. Thirty-six weaned beef cows (predominantly Hereford and Aberdeen-Angus),
209 with an average body condition score of 3 (1–5, emaciated to fat) were treated with two doses
210 of a PGF_{2a} analogue (cloprostenol[®], 125 µg; Schering-Plough Animal Health, Brazil)
211 intramuscularly (im), 12 h apart. The estrus signs were observed within 3–5 days after PGF_{2a},
212 and the experiment was performed during the first follicular wave of the estrous cycle.
213 Ovaries were then examined once a day by transrectal ultrasonography, using an 8-MHz

214 linear-array transducer (Aquila Vet scanner[®], Pie Medical, Netherlands), and all follicles
215 larger than 5 mm were drafted using 3 to 5 virtual slices of the ovary allowing a three-
216 dimensional localization of follicles and monitoring individual follicles during follicular wave
217 (Jaiswal *et al.* 2004). The day of the follicular emergence was designated as Day 0 of the
218 wave and was retrospectively identified as the last day on which the dominant follicle was 4
219 or 5 mm in diameter (Rivera & Fortune 2001). The cows were randomly assigned to be
220 ovariectomized by colpotomy at days 2, 3, and 4 of the follicular wave (4 cows for each day)
221 to recover the largest and the second largest follicle from each cow.

222 ***Experiment 2: MAS receptor, ACE₂, PEP mRNA expression during initial atresia***

223 This experiment was performed using an experimental model to investigate whether
224 mRNA expression of MAS receptor, ACE₂ and PEP is regulated during initial atresia of a
225 dominant follicle. Twenty *Bos taurus taurus* adult cyclic cows (as previously described) were
226 synchronized with a progesterone-releasing intravaginal device (1 g progesterone, DIB[®] –
227 Intervet Schering Plough), an injection of 2 mg estradiol benzoate im (Genix, Anápolis,
228 Brazil), and two injections of 250 µg sodium cloprostenol im (12 h apart; Ciosin[®] - Intervet
229 Schering Plough). All treatments performed at the same time on Day 0. Four days later, the
230 progesterone devices were removed and the ovaries were monitored daily until the largest
231 follicle of the growing cohort reached a diameter of 7-8 mm. At this moment, an
232 intrafollicular injection of fulvestrant (a selective estrogen receptor antagonist) in a final
233 concentration of 100 µM (based on a previous dose-response experiment; data not shown) or
234 saline was given. The cows were ovariectomized 12 (n=3/group) or 24 h (n=3/group) after the
235 intrafollicular injection. The injections were given as previously described (Ferreira *et al.*
236 2007). All experimental procedures using cattle were reviewed and approved by the Federal
237 University of Santa Maria Animal Care and Use Committee (ACUC).

238

239 ***Processing of ovarian follicles***

240 The ovariectomy was realized by colpotomy and follicular fluid, granulosa, and theca
241 cells were recovered from F1 and F2 (experiment 1) and from fulvestrant- or saline-treated
242 follicles (experiment 2) and stored at -80°C. Follicular fluid estradiol levels from all follicles
243 were determined by ELISA following the manufacturer's instructions (Cayman Biochemical).
244 Cross-contamination of the theca and the granulosa cells was tested by qRT-PCR to detect
245 cytochrome P450 aromatase (CYP19A1) and 17 α -hydroxylase (CYP17A1) mRNA. The
246 granulosa cells that expressed CYP17A1 and the theca cells that expressed CYP19A1 were
247 discarded (Buratini *et al.* 2005).

248 The largest and second largest follicles of the first follicular wave of the estrous cycle
249 were isolated from the ovaries of one cow (experiment 1) during the expected moment to
250 follicular deviation (Day 3 relative to beginning of follicular wave). The isolated follicles
251 were fixed to immunolocalization of MAS receptor in granulosa and theca cells.

252 ***Nucleic Acid Extraction and Real-Time qRT-PCR***

253 Total RNA was extracted using Trizol (theca cells) or a silica-based protocol
254 (granulosa cells; Qiagen, Mississauga, ON, Canada) according to the manufacturer's
255 instructions and was quantified by absorbance at 260 nm. Total RNA (1 μ g) was firstly
256 treated with 0.2 U DNase (Invitrogen) at 37°C for 5 min. to digest any contaminating DNA,
257 followed by heating to 65°C for 3 minutes. The RNA was reverse transcribed (RT) in the
258 presence of 1 μ M oligo(dT) primer, 4 U Omniscript RTase (Omniscript RT Kit; Qiagen,
259 Mississauga, ON, Canada), 0.5 μ M dideoxynucleotide triphosphate (dNTP) mix, and 10 U
260 RNase Inhibitor (Invitrogen) in a volume of 20 μ L at 37°C for 1 hour. The reaction was
261 terminated by incubation at 93°C for 5 minutes.

262 Real-time polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) was conducted in a Step One Plus
263 instrument (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) with Platinum SYBR Green qPCR
264 SuperMix (Invitrogen) and bovine-specific primers (Table 1). Common thermal cycling
265 parameters (3 minutes at 95°C, 40 cycles of 15 seconds at 95°C, 30 seconds at 60°C, and 30
266 seconds at 72°C) were used to amplify each transcript. Melting-curve analyses were
267 performed to verify product identity. The samples were run in duplicate and were expressed
268 relative to GAPDH as the housekeeping gene. The relative quantification of gene expression
269 across treatments was evaluated using the ddCT method (Livak & Schmittgen 2001). Briefly,
270 the dCT was calculated as the difference between the CT of the investigated gene and that of
271 GAPDH in each sample. The ddCT of each investigated gene was calculated as the difference
272 between the dCT in each treated sample and the dCT of the sample with lower gene
273 expression (higher dCT). The fold change in relative mRNA concentrations was calculated
274 using the formula 2^{-ddCT} . Bovine-specific primers (Table 1) were taken from literature and
275 synthesized by Invitrogen.

276 ***Immunofluorescence assessment***

277 Ovaries from cows were collected by ovariectomy as described in experiment 1. The
278 largest and second largest follicles of the first follicular wave of the estrous cycle were
279 isolated from the ovaries (Richard & Sirard 1996). The isolated follicles were fixed in 4%
280 paraformaldehyde for 6 h and paraffin embedded. Histological sections with 5 µm in
281 thickness and slides preparations were made to perform immunofluorescence analysis. Slides
282 were deparaffinized using Xylene for 15 min., rehydrated through a graded alcohol series (one
283 times for 5 min. in each 100%, 90%, 80%, 70% and 50% dilution), and rinsed for 15 min. in
284 ddH₂O. Endogenous peroxidase activity was then blocked for 20 min in 0.3% H₂O₂ and
285 washed three times in PBS1X for 5 min. After washing, the slides were carefully blotted using
286 a PAP pen (Vector Laboratory, Burlingame, CA) around the tissue. A blocking solution

287 (PBS1X with 3% of Bovine Serum Albumin and 0.2% Twen-20) was used to block non-
288 specific sites during 2 h at room temperature in a humidify chamber. After washed three times
289 in PBS1X during 5 min., the same blocking solution was used to incubate the primary MAS
290 receptor antibody (sc-135063; 1:50; Santa Cruz Biotechnology) in a humidified chamber
291 overnight at 5°C. After this incubation, samples were washed three times in a PBS1X
292 containing 0.2% Tween-20 for 5 min. before being incubated for 1 h at room temperature to a
293 goat anti-rabbit IgG antibody conjugated with AlexaFluor 488 (1:500; Invitrogen). Then,
294 slides were washed in three times in a PBS1X containing 0.2% Tween-20 for 5 min. Finally,
295 to enable nuclear staining visualization, samples were incubated with 300 nM of 4',6-
296 diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; Invitrogen) in PBS1X for 5 min. at room temperature.
297 Then, slides were mounted with a space between the coverslip, filled with 50 µl drop of
298 Aqueous Mounting Medium (Fluoromount; Sigma) and sealed with nail polish. Laser-
299 scanning confocal microscopy was performed using a Confocal Microscope Espectral
300 FV1000 (Olympus). Laser scanning microscope was equipped with two lasers for the
301 simultaneous excitation of Alexa Fluor 488 fluorescent for MAS receptor and DAPI for DNA.
302 Image software FV-Viewer (Olympus) was used to obtain sample images.

303 *Statistical analysis*

304 The regulation of mRNA-encoding MAS receptor, ACE₂, PEP and NEP proteins was
305 analyzed by ANOVA and a multicomparison between days or groups was performed by least
306 square means. Data were tested for normal distribution using Shapiro-Wilk test and
307 normalized when necessary. All analyses were performed using JMP software (SAS Institute
308 Inc., Cary, NC) and a P<0.05 was considered statistically significant. Data are presented as
309 means ± sem.

310

311 **Declaration of interest**

312 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing
313 the impartiality of the research reported.

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458 **Legend figures:**

459

460 **Figure 1** Relative mRNA expression of MAS receptor (MAS; A), angiotensin converting
461 enzyme 2 (ACE₂; B) and prolyl endopeptidase (PEP; C) in granulosa cells during follicular
462 development. Granulosa cells were recovered from the largest (black bar) and the second
463 largest (open bar) follicle (mean±SEM) collected at days 2 (n=4), 3 (n=4), and 4 (n=4) of the
464 first follicular wave of a cycle. Asterisk (*) indicates statistical difference in the relative
465 mRNA expression between the largest and the second largest follicle assessed by a paired
466 Student's T test using the cow as subject (p≤0.05).

467

468 **Figure 2** MAS receptor localization in the granulosa and theca cells as detected by confocal
469 immunofluorescence microscopy. The largest and second largest follicles were recovered
470 from ovaries collected at days 2, 3 and 4 of the first follicular wave of a cycle. Scale bars = 70
471 μm. Magnification = 200x.

472

473 **Figure 3** Relative mRNA expression of MAS receptor, angiotensin converting enzyme 2
474 (ACE₂) and prolyl endopeptidase 2 (PEP) in granulosa cells 12 or 24 h after intrafollicular
475 selective estrogen receptor antagonist (fulvestrant) treatment. Granulosa cells were recovered
476 from saline (open bar)- and fulvestrant (black bar)- treated follicles 12 (n=3/group) and 24h
477 (n=3/group) after intrafollicular injection (mean±SEM). Asterisk (*) indicates statistical
478 difference in the relative mRNA expression between groups (p≤0.05).

479

480 **Table 1.** Primers used in the expression analysis of candidate genes. Primer sequences and
 481 concentrations used to amplify each product are described.

Gene	Sequence	Conc. (nM)	Reference
ACE ₂	F TGACTACAGCCGTGACCAGTTG	200	(Santos <i>et al.</i> 2011)
	R CAACTTTGCCCTCACATAAGCA	200	
GAPDH	F GATTGTCAGCAATGCCTCCT	200	(Ferreira <i>et al.</i> 2011b)
	R GGTCATAAGTCCCTCCACGA	200	
MAS	F CGTGATCATCTTCATAGCCATTCT	200	(Santos <i>et al.</i> 2011)
	R CCACGAGTTCTTCCGGATCTT	200	
PEP	F GTTCCTCGACCCCAACACACT	200	(Santos <i>et al.</i> 2011)
	R GGCACCTCAGACCATAGGCAAA	200	
NEP	F CCTGCTGCTCACCATCATTG	200	(Santos <i>et al.</i> 2011)
	R TCGAGCGGCTGATTTTATGC	200	

482 F, Forward primer; R, Reverse primer; Conc., primer concentration used for gene
 483 amplification.

Figure 1

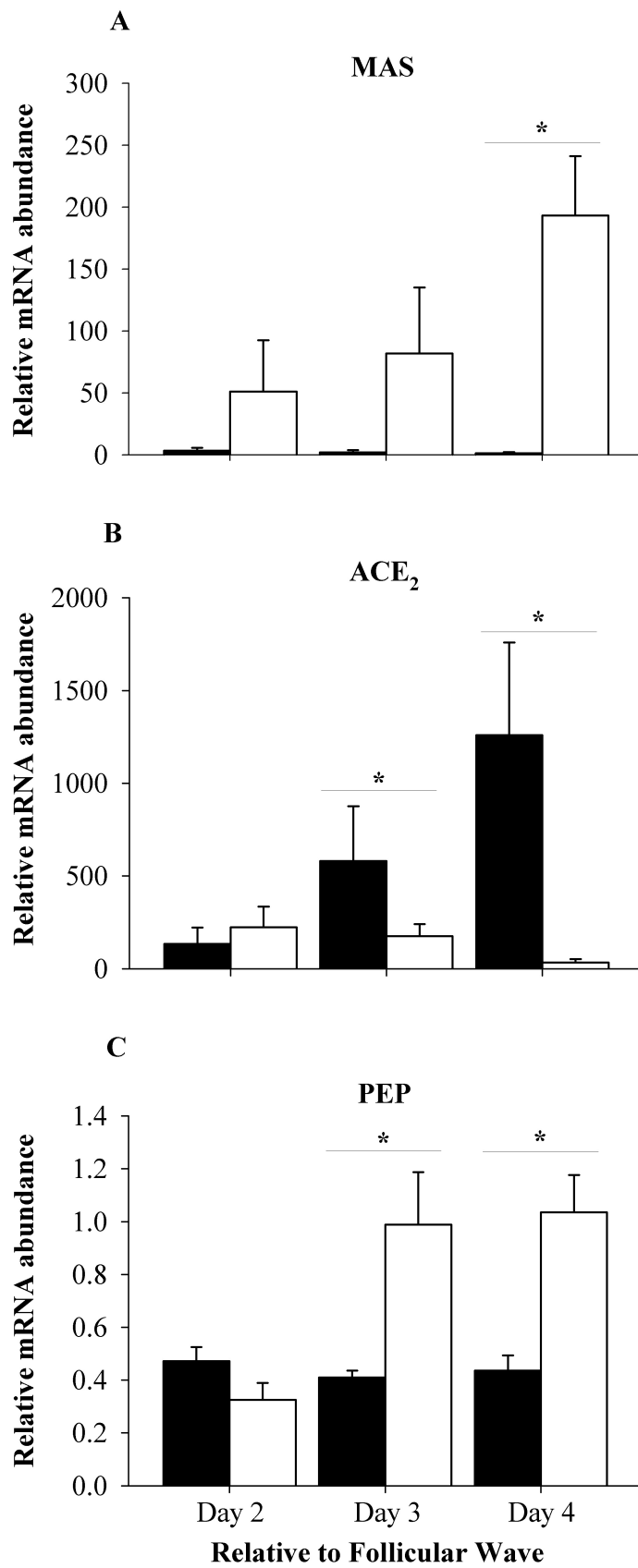
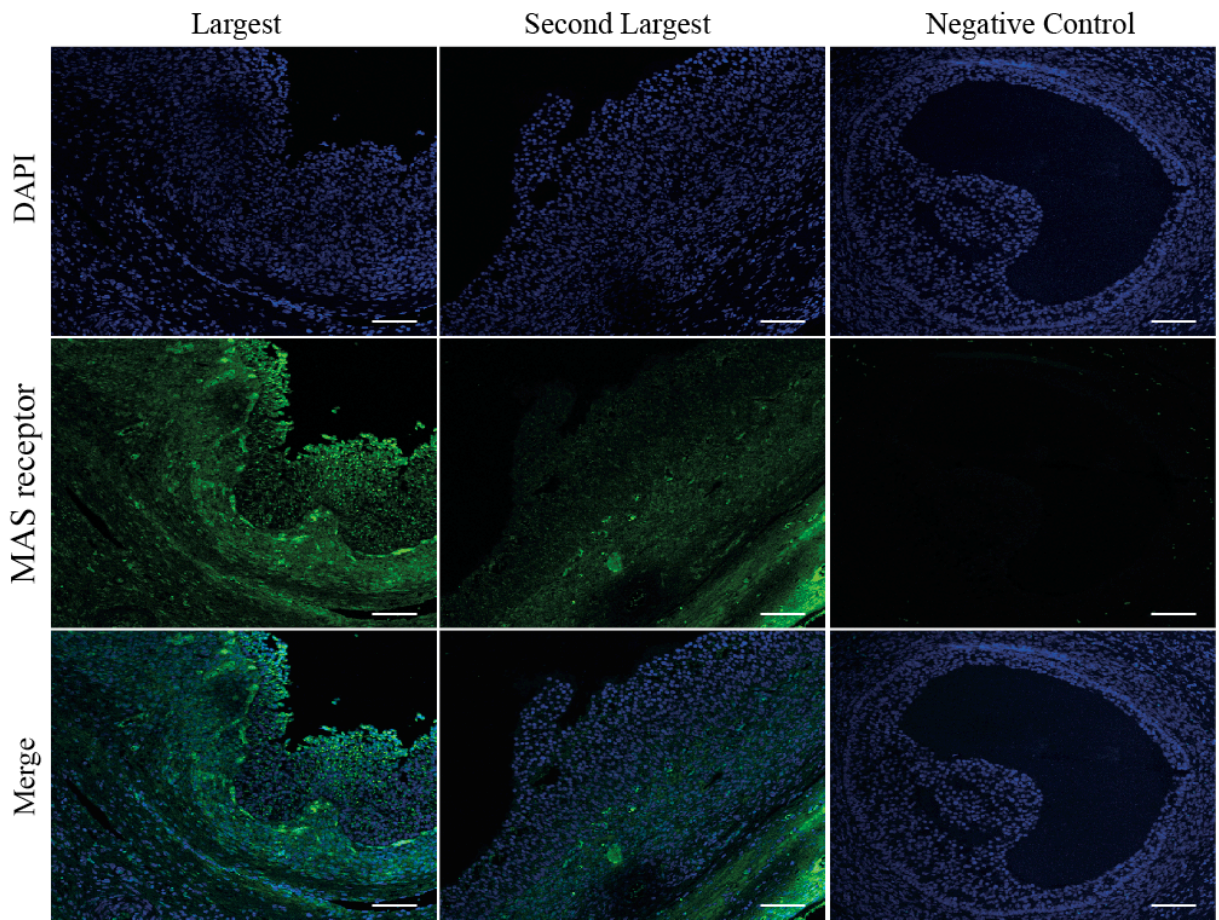


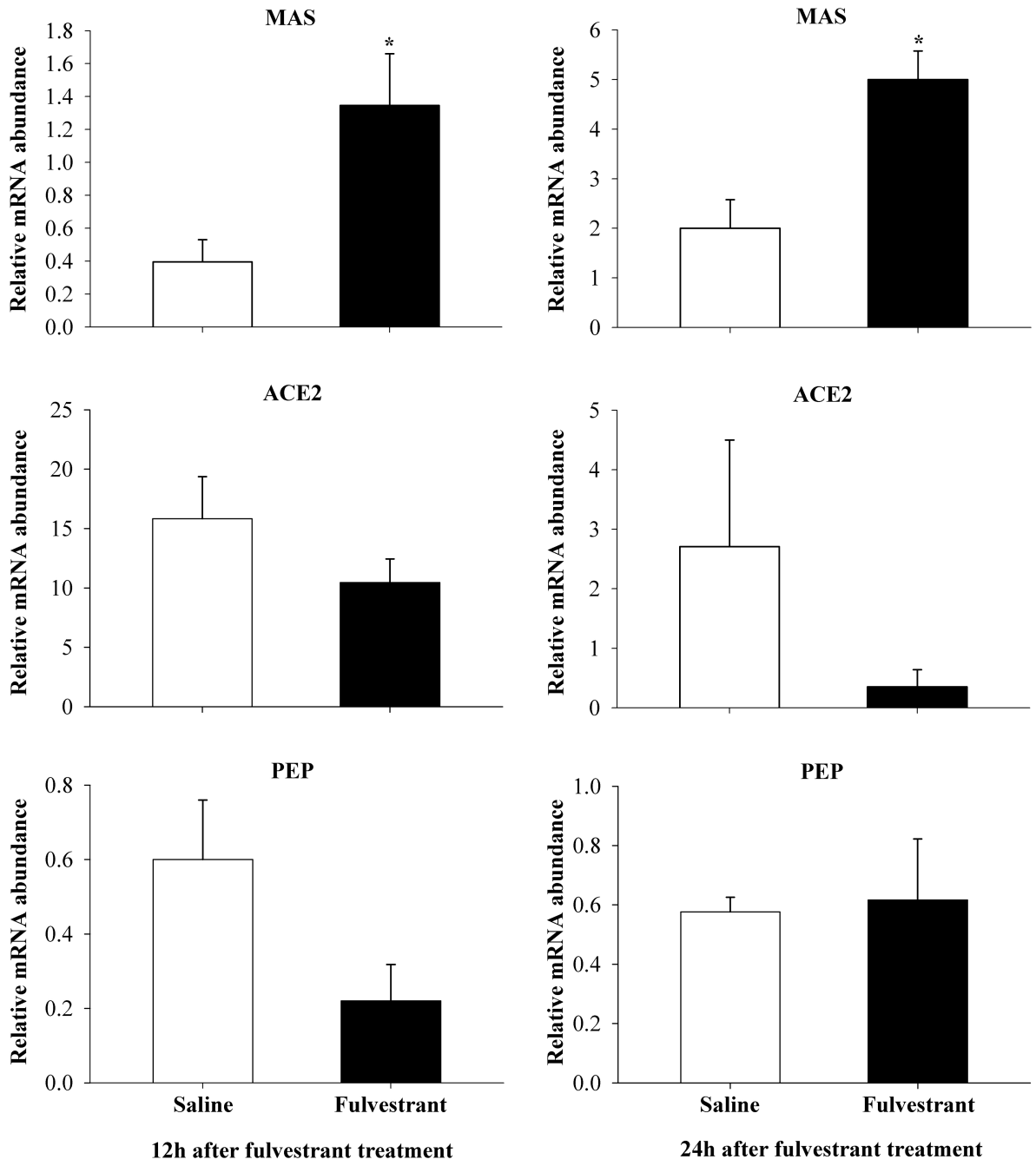
Figure 2



485

486

Figure 3



487

488

4. ARTIGO 2

TRABALHO SUBMETIDO PARA PUBLICAÇÃO:

**HOMOLOGOUS RECOMBINATION AND NON-
HOMOLOGOUS END-JOINING REPAIR PATHWAYS IN
BOVINE EMBRYOS WITH DIFFERENT DEVELOPMENTAL
COMPETENCE.**

**Marcos Henrique Barreta, Bernardo Garziera Gasperin, Vitor Braga Rissi,
Matheus Pedrotti de Cesaro, Rogério Ferreira, João Francisco de Oliveira,
Paulo Bayard Dias Gonçalves, Vilceu Bordignon.**

EXPERIMENTAL CELL RESEARCH, 2012.

1 **Homologous recombination and non-homologous end-joining repair pathways in**
2 **bovine embryos with different developmental competence^A**

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9
10 **Short Title:** DNA double-stranded repair in bovine embryos.

11
12 **Footnotes**

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21

22 **Abstract**

23 The objective of this study was to investigate the expression of genes that control
24 homologous recombination (HR; 53BP1, ATM, RAD50, RAD51, RAD52, BRCA1, BRCA2,
25 NBS1), and non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ; KU70, KU80, DNAPK), DNA-repair
26 pathways in bovine embryos with high, intermediate or low developmental competence. We
27 also evaluated whether bovine embryos can respond to DNA double-stranded breaks (DSBs)
28 induced with ultraviolet (UV) irradiation by regulating the expression of genes involved in the
29 HR and NHEJ repair pathways. Embryos with high, intermediate or low developmental
30 competence were selected based on the cleavage time after in vitro fertilization and were
31 removed from in vitro culture before (36 h), during (72 h) and after (96 h) the expected period
32 of embryonic genome activation (EGA). All studied genes were expressed before, during and
33 after the EGA period regardless the developmental competence of the embryos. Higher
34 mRNA expression of 53BP1 and RAD52 was found before EGA in embryos with low
35 developmental competence. Expression of 53BP1, RAD51 and KU70 was downregulated at
36 72 h and upregulated at 168 h post-fertilization in bovine embryos with DSBs induced by UV
37 irradiation. In conclusion, important genes controlling HR and NHEJ repair pathways are
38 expressed in bovine embryos before, during or after EGA. Lower developmental competence
39 seems to be associated with a higher mRNA expression of 53BP1 and RAD52. Bovine
40 embryos can respond to UV-induced DSBs after the EGA but HR and NHEJ repair pathways
41 seem to be particularly regulated at the blastocyst stage.

42

43 **Additional keywords:** DNA repair, double-strand break, bovine, embryo.

44

45 **Introduction**

46 Since the last few decades, in vitro production of embryos (IVP) from different
47 mammalian species has been used as a model for research in different fields, e.g. cell biology,
48 development, physiology, cryobiology, toxicology, as well as for commercial applications.
49 However, the overall efficiency of a conventional IVP system remains very low when
50 compared with in vivo embryo development, because only 30 to 40% of the oocytes reach the
51 blastocyst stage (Xu *et al.* 1992; Rizos *et al.* 2002; Goovaerts *et al.* 2009; Fields *et al.* 2011).

52 Studies conducted with different species of animals have shown that in vitro-produced
53 embryos differ in many aspects including gene expression profile (Enright *et al.* 2000;
54 Corcoran *et al.* 2006; McHughes *et al.* 2009), morphology and ultrastructure (Holm *et al.*
55 2002; Bhojwani *et al.* 2007), metabolic activity (Lopes *et al.* 2007), and kinetics of
56 development (Van Soom *et al.* 1992; Holm *et al.* 2002). Moreover, a recent study
57 demonstrated that about 30% of in vitro produced bovine blastocysts have DNA damage
58 (Sturmey *et al.* 2009). It is known that about 80-90% of fertilized oocytes are able to cleave
59 but only 35-50% of the cleaved embryos reach the blastocyst stage (Rizos *et al.* 2002;
60 Gilchrist and Thompson 2007). Indeed, most oocytes that reach metaphase II (MII) stage and
61 complete the first cleavage in vitro do not develop further than 4- to 8-cells stage (Telford *et al.*
62 1990; Barnes and First 1991). It was proposed that this developmental block could be a
63 consequence of the inability of early-stage embryos to repair DNA injuries triggered by in
64 vitro environment (Betts and King 2001; Meirelles *et al.* 2004). Thus, the results presented by
65 Sturmey *et al.* (2009) could be even more striking if DNA damage would have been evaluated
66 in early-stage embryos.

67 DNA damage can have severe cellular consequences in addition to block cell
68 development if not properly repaired. DNA damage is broadly grouped into lesions and strand
69 breaks. Lesions are alterations in base structures and result in changes in the chemical and/or
70 physical structure of the DNA, which can produce point mutations or physical distortions and
71 can prevent transcription and replication. The main mechanisms responsible to repair DNA
72 lesions in mammalian embryos are: nucleotide excision repair (NER), base excision repair
73 (BER) and mismatch repair (MMR). In contrast, strand breaks are physical breaks in the DNA
74 strand (for review Jaroudi and SenGupta 2007; Ozturk and Demir 2011). They can be single
75 strand breaks or more severe double strand breaks. The presence of a single break is sufficient
76 to block the cellular division and trigger cell death (Doherty and Jackson 2001). Generally,
77 this type of damage results from ionizing radiation, ultraviolet (UV) radiation, environmental
78 stresses, stalling of the DNA replication fork (Van Attikum and Gasser 2005), and reactive
79 oxygen species (Bilsland and Downs 2005).

80 DNA double-strand breaks are among the most dangerous inducers of genotoxic
81 damage and cell death via apoptosis (Rich *et al.* 2000). Two pathways are involved in the
82 repair of double-strand breaks: 1) homologous recombination (HR), which is error-free and
83 active in late S and G2-M stages of the cell cycle where a sister chromatid acts as a template
84 (Johnson and Jasin 2000), and 2) non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ), which is error-prone
85 and the predominant pathway in mammalian cells at G0/G1 stages of the cell cycle (Haber

86 2000; Johnson and Jasin 2000). A well-orchestrated group of genes control the HR and NHEJ
87 repair pathways. Most of these genes are expressed in mammalian oocytes and embryos. For
88 instance, mRNA expression of BRCA1, BRCA2, NBS1, RAD50, RAD51, RAD52, ATM and
89 53BP1 genes was detected in human oocytes and blastocyst (Jaroudi *et al.* 2009). These are
90 the main genes responsible for triggering and controlling the HR repair pathway in
91 mammalian gametes and embryos (for review Jaroudi and SenGupta 2007; Ozturk and Demir
92 2011). Jaroudi *et al.* (2009) showed that KU70, KU80 and XRCC4, the main genes
93 responsible for triggering and controlling the NHEJ repair pathway, are also expressed in
94 human oocytes and blastocyst.

95 Recently, it has been demonstrated that microinjection of recombinant hRAD51 prior
96 to krypton-78 or UV-B irradiation markedly decreased both cytoplasmic fragmentation and
97 DNA damage in bovine oocytes (Kujjo *et al.* 2011). These results indicate that the HR
98 pathway may be an important form of DNA-damage protection and repair in bovine oocytes
99 and embryos. Although several studies have shown the presence of both HR and NHEJ repair
100 factors in mammalian oocytes and embryos, little is still known about the expression profile
101 of the different components involved in these two double-stranded DNA repair pathways
102 during early embryo development. Thus, the present study was designed to: a) assess the
103 expression profile of important genes participating in the HR and NHEJ DNA-repair
104 pathways in bovine embryos of high, intermediate and low developmental competence; and b)
105 evaluate whether bovine embryos at different stages after in vitro fertilization are able to
106 respond to UV-induced double-stranded DNA breaks by regulating the expression of genes
107 participating in HR and NHEJ DNA-repair pathways.

108

109 **Material and Methods**

110 All chemicals used were purchased from Sigma Chemicals Company, St. Louis, MO,
111 USA, unless otherwise indicated in the text.

112

113 *In vitro embryo production*

114 Cow ovaries were obtained from a local abattoir and transported to the laboratory in
115 saline solution (0.9% NaCl; 30°C) containing 100 IU mL⁻¹ penicillin and 50 µg mL⁻¹
116 streptomycin sulphate. Cumulus oocyte complexes (COCs) from 3 to 8 mm diameter follicles
117 were aspirated with a vacuum pump (vacuum rate of 20 mL of water/minute⁻¹). The COCs

118 were recovered and selected according to Leibfried and First (1979) under a
119 stereomicroscope. Grade 1 and 2 COCs were randomly distributed into 400 μL of maturation
120 medium and cultured in an incubator at 39°C in a saturated humidity atmosphere containing
121 5% CO_2 and 95% air, for 24 h. The maturation medium used was TCM199 containing Earle's
122 salts and L-glutamine (Gibco Labs, Grand Island, NY, USA) supplemented with 25 mM
123 HEPES, 0.2 mM pyruvic acid, 2.2 mg mL^{-1} sodium bicarbonate, 5.0 mg mL^{-1} LH (Bioniche,
124 Belleville, ON, Canada), 0.5 mg mL^{-1} FSH (Bioniche, Belleville, ON, Canada), 10% (v/v)
125 bovine calf serum (Gibco Labs, Grand Island, NY, USA), 100 IU mL^{-1} penicillin and 50 μg
126 mL^{-1} streptomycin sulphate.

127 After in vitro maturation, oocytes were fertilized with tested frozen semen that was
128 thawed and fractionated on discontinuous Percoll (Amersham Biosciences AB, Uppsala,
129 Sweden) gradients, as described by Parrish *et al.* (1986). The sperm were diluted to a final
130 concentration of 2×10^6 sperm mL^{-1} in Fert-TALP medium containing 10 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ heparin, 30
131 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ penicillinamine, 15 μM hypotaurine and 1 μM epinephrine (Parrish *et al.* 1988). In
132 vitro fertilization was carried out by co-culture of sperm and oocytes for 18 h in four-well
133 plates in the same atmospheric conditions as the ones used for maturation. After gamete co-
134 incubation period, the cumulus cells were removed by 2 min of vortex. Presumptive zygotes
135 were cultured at 39°C in an incubator culture chamber (CBS Scientific, Del Mar, CA, USA)
136 with saturated humidity atmosphere containing 5% CO_2 , 5% O_2 and 90% N_2 in 400 μL
137 synthetic oviduct fluid (SOF) medium in four-well plates (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark).

138

139 *Estimation of the total cell number after embryo culture*

140 After 7 days in culture, embryos were rinsed in PBS containing 0.1% PVA and fixed
141 during 15-20 minutes in 4% paraformaldehyde. Fixed embryos were rinsed in PBS containing
142 0.1% PVA and stored at 4°C in PBS supplemented with 0.3% BSA and 0.1% Triton X-100
143 for no more than 1 week. Two to three embryos were placed onto each slide using a 10- μL
144 glycerol drop containing 10 μM Hoechst 33342 and mounted under a coverslip. Slides were
145 stored for 10-15 minutes before evaluation under an epifluorescent inverted microscope
146 (Leica, DMI 4000B) to count the total number of cells per individual blastocyst.

147

148 *RNA extraction and qRT-PCR*

149 Total RNA was extracted using Trizol according to the manufacturer's instructions
150 and was quantified by absorbance at 260 nm. Total RNA (50 ng) was first treated with 0.2 U

151 DNase (Invitrogen) at 37°C for 5 minutes to digest any contaminating DNA, followed by
152 heating to 65°C for 3 minutes. The RNA was reverse transcribed (RT) in the presence of 1
153 µM oligo(dT) primer, 4 U Sensiscript RTase (Sensiscript RT Kit; Qiagen, Mississauga, ON,
154 Canada), 0.5 µM dideoxynucleotide triphosphate (dNTP) mix, and 10 U RNase Inhibitor
155 (Invitrogen) in a volume of 20 µL at 37°C for 1 hour. The reaction was terminated by
156 incubation at 93°C for 5 minutes.

157 Real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was conducted in a Step One Plus
158 instrument (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) with Platinum SYBR Green qPCR Master
159 Mix (Applied Biosystems) and specific primers (Table 1). Common thermal cycling
160 parameters (3 minutes at 95°C, 40 cycles of 15 seconds at 95°C, 30 seconds at 60°C, and 30
161 seconds at 72°C) were used to amplify each transcript. Melting-curve analyses were
162 performed to verify product identity. The samples were run in duplicate and were expressed
163 relative to Histone H2A as the housekeeping gene. The relative quantification of gene
164 expression across treatments was evaluated using the ddCT method (Livak and Schmittgen
165 2001). Briefly, the dCT was calculated as the difference between the CT of the investigated
166 gene and that of Histone H2A in each sample. The ddCT of each investigated gene is
167 calculated as the difference between the dCT in each treated sample and the dCT of the
168 sample with lower gene expression (higher dCT). The fold change in relative mRNA
169 concentrations was calculated using the formula $2^{-\text{ddCT}}$. Specific primers (Table 1) were
170 designed in Primer Express Software v 3.3 (Applied Biosystems) and synthesized by
171 Invitrogen for quantitative analysis of the mRNA abundance.

172

173 *Ultraviolet irradiation*

174 Ultraviolet (UV) irradiation was achieved by placing embryos in 400 µL of
175 maintenance medium in an open, four-well plate. The four-well plates containing the embryos
176 were placed on a thermal plate at 30°C into a laminar flow and submitted to UV irradiation for
177 0 (control group), 1, 2.5, 5 or 10 minutes. Control group was submitted to the same
178 manipulation used to treated groups. However the control group was not exposed to UV
179 irradiation. The maintenance medium consisted of TCM199 containing Earle's salts and L-
180 glutamine supplemented with 25 mM HEPES, 0.2 mM pyruvic acid, 10% (v/v) bovine calf
181 serum, 100 IU mL⁻¹ penicillin and 50 µg mL⁻¹ streptomycin sulphate. After exposure to UV
182 irradiation, embryos were cultured at 39°C in an incubator culture chamber with saturated

183 humidity atmosphere containing 5% CO₂, 5% O₂ and 90% N₂ in 400 µL SOF medium in four-
184 well plates. The culture time after exposure to UV irradiation varied according to the
185 experiment.

186

187 *Immunofluorescence detection of phosphorylated histone H2AX*

188 Embryos were rinsed in PBS containing 0.1% PVA and fixed during 15-20 minutes in
189 4% paraformaldehyde. Fixed embryos were rinsed in PBS containing 0.1% PVA and stored at
190 4°C in PBS supplemented with 0.3% BSA and 0.1% Triton X-100 for no more than 1 week.
191 Fixed embryos were incubated for 1 h at room temperature in blocking solution (3% BSA and
192 0.2% Tween-20 in PBS), and then maintained overnight in the presence of the primary
193 antibody diluted in blocking solution.

194 Mouse monoclonal anti-phospho-H2A.X (Serine 139) (Upstate Cell Signaling
195 Solutions, NY) was used as primary antibody in a dilution rate of 1:500. Negative controls
196 were incubated in the absence of primary antibody. Embryos were then washed three times
197 for 20 min each in blocking solution and incubated for 1 h at room temperature (24-26°C) in
198 the presence of 1:500 diluted anti-mouse IgG Cy3-conjugated secondary antibody (Jackson
199 ImmunoResearch Lab. Inc. PA). Samples were washed three times (20 min each) in blocking
200 solution and mounted on a microscope slides using a drop of Mowiol containing 10 mg mL⁻¹
201 of Hoechst 33342 for chromatin visualization. Slides were stored in a dark box at 4°C and
202 examined within 48 h after preparation. Specimens were examined by epifluorescence using a
203 Nikon eclipse 80i microscope (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan). Images were recorded using a Retiga
204 2000R monochromo digital camera (Qimaging, BC, Canada) and the SimplePCI Imaging
205 Software (Compix, Inc., Sewickley, PA). Nuclei were individually evaluated for the
206 immunostaining signal and classified as either positive or negative.

207

208 *Experiment 1*

209 This experiment was performed to evaluate whether the cleavage time affects the
210 competence of embryonic development of in vitro matured and fertilized bovine oocytes. To
211 conduct this experiment, 2510 bovine COCs obtained in abattoir were in vitro matured and
212 fertilized. Cleavage was evaluated at 28, 32 and 36 h post-fertilization (hpf) and the cleaved
213 embryos in each of these times were placed in a new culture well separated by cleavage time.
214 At 72 hpf, the cell number was assessed again to determine the number of embryos that
215 remain at the 2-cells stage or have progressed beyond this stage. Embryo development was

216 evaluated 7 days after in vitro fertilization to determine the blastocyst rate per cleaved zygote.
217 In each replication, four embryos per group were fixed in paraformaldehyde 4% for
218 evaluating the total number of blastomeres. The total cleavage rate (at 48 hpf) and the general
219 blastocyst rate per oocyte were evaluated to determine the efficiency of in vitro culture
220 system. This experiment was performed in quadruplicate.

221

222 *Experiment 2*

223 The experimental design used here was similar to the experiment 1 with small
224 modifications. Bovine embryos with high, intermediate or low competence of embryonic
225 development were selected based on the cleavage time (28, 32 and 36 hpf, respectively) and
226 removed from in vitro culture before, during or after the expected moment of embryonic
227 genome activation (36, 72 or 96 hpf, respectively). Immediately after the removal from in
228 vitro culture, embryos were washed with PBS, placed in 100 ul of Trizol and stored at -80°C
229 until RNA extraction. This approach allowed us to evaluate mRNA expression of eleven
230 genes involved in double-stranded DNA repair and two genes involved in cell apoptosis. The
231 studied genes are listed in Table 1. Four replications were performed per group totalizing
232 twelve replications (4 replicas x 3 groups: 36, 72 and 96 hpf). A total of 400-600 COCs were
233 used in each group/replicate, totalizing approximately 6000 COCs for the twelve replications.

234

235 *Experiment 3*

236 In this experiment the scriptaid (a histone deacetylase inhibitor that has a general
237 property of transcriptional facilitation) was used during different phases of in vitro production
238 of embryos in an attempt to advance the embryos cleavage and thereby improve embryonic
239 development. Scriptaid (500 mM) was used during the final 12 h of in vitro maturation
240 (n=263), during the initial 12 h of in vitro fertilization (n=266) or during in vitro culture (36 to
241 48 hpf; n=229). As controls, 267 untreated COCs were submitted to conventional in vitro
242 production system. The COCs and sperm were co-incubated for 12 h in all groups. The
243 cleavage kinetic was evaluated at 28, 32, 36 and 48 hpf and the blastocyst rate was evaluated
244 at 168 hpf. Twelve embryos per group were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde to estimate total
245 cell number. This experiment was performed in triplicate.

246

247 *Experiment 4*

248 The goal of this experiment was to indentify an UV-irradiation exposure time enough
249 to induce DNA lesions without completely impairing embryo cleavage. COCs obtained from

250 abattoir ovaries were submitted to conventional system of in vitro maturation and fertilization.
251 Eighteen hours after in vitro fertilization embryos were exposed to UV irradiation for 0
252 (n=160), 1 (n=158), 2.5 (n=158), 5 (n=159) or 10 minutes (n=159). After exposure, embryos
253 returned to the culture system and the cleavage rates were evaluated at 28, 32, 36 and 48 hpf.
254 Around forty embryos per group were submitted to UV irradiation in each replication. This
255 experiment was performed in quadruplicate.

256

257 *Experiment 5*

258 This experiment was conducted to evaluate at what point of development the embryo
259 can respond to UV-induced DNA damage and by assessing the expression of genes involved
260 in HR and NHEJ repair pathways. Double-stranded DNA damages were induced by exposure
261 of embryos to UV irradiation for 2.5 minutes at 18 (n=118), 36 (n=102), 72 (n=119), 96
262 (n=130) or 168 hpf (n=79). Only embryos with at least two cells at 36 h, eight cells at 72 h,
263 more than eight cells at 96 h and blastocyst at 168 hpf were used in this experiment. The
264 control group consisted of embryos at the same time-points and were submitted to the same
265 manipulation used to treated groups, however they were not exposed to UV irradiation (n=118
266 at 18 h; n=90 at 36 h; n=130 at 72 h; n=128 at 96 h and n=77 at 168 hpf). Control and
267 irradiated embryos were cultured for 6 h after each time-point (equivalent to 6 h after UV
268 exposure in irradiated group) and then four embryos per group were fixed in each replication
269 to detection of phosphorylated H2A.X (γ H2A.X). The remaining embryos from each group
270 were washed with PBS, placed into 100 μ l of Trizol and stored at -80°C until RNA extraction
271 to evaluate the expression of genes involved in double-stranded DNA repair. This experiment
272 was performed in triplicate and 53BP1, RAD51, RAD52 and KU70 genes were evaluated.

273

274 *Statistical analysis*

275 Data from cleavage, two cells block and blastocyst rates were analyzed by logistic
276 regression, using the PROC GENMOD (generalized linear model). The total number of
277 blastomeres and the regulation of mRNA expression were analyzed by ANOVA and a
278 multicomparison between groups was performed by least square means. Data were tested for
279 normal distribution using Shapiro-Wilk test and normalized when necessary. In all analyses a
280 $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant. Non-categorical data are presented as means \pm
281 sem.

282 **Results**

283 *Early cleavage is associated with high developmental competence.*

284 This experiment was performed to evaluate whether the time to the first cleavage after
285 fertilization is associated to developmental competence. The approach used in this experiment
286 allowed us to assess the development ability of early, intermediate and late-cleaved embryos
287 (28, 32 and 36 hpf, respectively). Most oocytes (41,3%) submitted to in vitro maturation and
288 fertilization cleaved early (28 hpf), whereas a small proportion (10,9%) of oocytes cleaved
289 late (36 hpf; Fig. 1A). Approximately 50% of embryos that cleaved later remain at the 2-cells
290 stage at 72 hpf, while only a small percentage (10,6%) of early and intermediate-cleaved
291 embryos were blocked in two-cells stage at this moment (Fig. 1B). The timing of cleavage
292 post-fertilization was decisive to embryonic development since, the early-cleaved embryos
293 showed a higher competence of embryonic development than intermediate or late-cleaved
294 embryos (Fig. 1C and D). The in vitro system used in this experiment allowed a final cleavage
295 rate of 86.6% (48 hpf) and 42.5% of total oocytes developed to blastocyst stage.
296 Approximately 80% of produced embryos in this system were obtained from embryos that
297 cleaved until 32 hpf. The cleavage moment (28, 32 or 36 hpf) did not affect the total number
298 of blastomeres (103.4 ± 9.5 , 114.9 ± 7.2 and 96.5 ± 17.5 , respectively; $p > 0.05$).

299

300 *Genes involved in double-stranded DNA repair are differentially regulated in embryos with* 301 *different developmental competence.*

302 Using a similar experimental model as described in the first experiment, we
303 characterized the expression of genes responsible to trigger and control both HR and NHEJ
304 repair pathways in bovine embryos with high, intermediate or low developmental competence
305 before, during and after the expected moment of embryonic genome activation. All evaluated
306 genes were detected before, during or after the expected moment for embryonic genome
307 activation in embryos with high, intermediate or low competence for development (Table 2).
308 However, only two genes were regulated before the expected moment for embryonic genome
309 activation (36 hpf). The mRNA expression of 53BP1 was upregulated in embryos with lower
310 competence of embryonic development (Fig. 2A), while the mRNA expression of RAD52
311 was upregulated in embryos with intermediate or low developmental competence (Fig 2B).
312 We did not observe significant gene expression regulation in high, intermediate or low
313 developmental competence embryos removed from in vitro culture during or after the
314 expected moment of embryonic genome activation (72 and 96 hpf, respectively; Table 2).

315 *Effect of Scriptaid treatment on cleavage kinetics and embryonic development*

316 In this experiment, the hypothesis that scriptaid could advance the cleavage kinetics
317 and improve the embryonic development rate was rejected. Scriptaid treatment during in vitro
318 maturation, fertilization or culture did not affect the cleavage kinetics or the final cleavage
319 rate at 48 hpf (Fig. 3A). Moreover, when oocytes were treated with scriptaid during the final
320 12 h of in vitro maturation, embryo development rate was impaired but the total number of
321 blastomeres increased. Scriptaid treatment during in vitro fertilization or culture did not affect
322 embryonic development rate neither the total number of blastomeres (Fig. 3B and C).

323

324 *The ultraviolet irradiation impairs embryo cleavage in a time-dependent manner*

325 The purpose of this experiment was to find an optimal exposure time to UV
326 irradiation, which impairs, but not completely blocks the embryo cleavage. UV irradiation
327 negatively affected the embryo cleavage in a time-dependent manner. Approximately 40% of
328 embryos exposed to UV for 2.5 minutes were able to cleave while the exposure to UV for 5 or
329 10 minutes inhibited the cleavage of nearly all treated embryos. However, the exposure to UV
330 irradiation for 1 minute delayed cleavage kinetics (Fig. 4A) but did not affect the final
331 cleavage rate at 48 hpf (Fig. 4B).

332

333 *Effect of ultraviolet irradiation on expression of genes involved in double-stranded DNA*
334 *repair*

335 This experiment was conducted to evaluate whether bovine embryos are able to
336 respond to UV-induced DNA damage by regulating the expression of genes involved in the
337 double-stranded DNA repair. The exposure of embryos to UV irradiation for 2.5 minutes
338 induced double-stranded DNA break at several points, which were detected by
339 immunolocation of phosphorylated H2A.X (data not shown). It was observed that 6 h after
340 UV-induced DNA damage mRNA levels of 53BP1, RAD51 and KU70 were reduced at 72 h
341 but increased at 168 hpf (Fig. 5A, B and D). However, RAD52 mRNA was not regulated after
342 by UV exposure. These results indicated that bovine embryos are able to respond to UV-
343 induced double-stranded DNA damage. However, both HR and NHEJ repair pathways seem
344 to be effectively regulated only at 168 hpf.

345 Discussion

346 The significant findings of this study are: 1) Most bovine oocytes cleaved until 32 h
347 after in vitro fertilization; 2) Early-cleaved embryos have higher developmental competence
348 than intermediate and late-cleaved; 3) A large number of late-cleaved embryos was blocked at
349 the two-cell stage at the expected time of embryonic genome activation; 4) mRNA expression
350 of 53BP1 and RAD52 was upregulated only before embryonic genome activation in embryos
351 with intermediate or low developmental competence; 5) Bovine embryos are able to respond
352 to UV-induced double-stranded DNA damage just after the embryonic genome activation.

353 The first approach used in this study allowed us to find that the early-cleaved embryos
354 have a higher potential of embryonic development than intermediate- or late-cleaved
355 embryos. Our findings suggest that in vitro early-cleaved embryos have similar
356 developmental potential than in vivo produced embryos (Rizos *et al.* 2002). In accordance
357 with previous studies (Lonergan *et al.* 1999; Blondin *et al.* 2002; Bastos *et al.* 2008) it was
358 found that the required time for the first cleavages is an important parameter to predict the
359 developmental potential of bovine embryos. Despite the greater development potential, early-
360 cleaved embryos had similar blastomeres number at 168 hpf in comparison to intermediate
361 and late-cleaved. This result indicates that the mitotic ability of blastomeres was similar
362 independently of the cleavage moment. The rate of embryos blocked at 2-cells stage during
363 expected moment for embryonic genome activation (72 hpf) was about 5 times higher in late-
364 cleaved than in early-cleaved embryos. The lower developmental potential of late-cleaved
365 embryos can be explained by higher blocking rate at 72 hpf.

366 Previously, our group demonstrated that the proportion of positively stained nuclei for
367 H3K14ac and HMGN2 at 50 h after parthenogenetic activation was higher in late- than in
368 early-cleaved bovine embryos (Bastos *et al.* 2008). The H3K14ac and HMGN2 proteins have
369 been associated with different nuclear functions including chromatin condensation,
370 transcription, DNA replication, and DNA repair (Bustin 2001; Bianchi and Agresti 2005).
371 Furthermore, bovine embryos with delayed development after in vitro fertilization have
372 higher rate of positive nuclei for phosphorylated H2A.X (Bastos *et al.* unpublished data).
373 H2A.X represents about 10-15% of total histone H2A in most mammalian cells and has been
374 known as the DNA damage-specific “histone code” based on the observation that, the double-
375 stranded DNA break, is often associated with phosphorylation of histone variant H2A.X
376 (Fernandez-Capetillo *et al.* 2004). Together, these results indicate that the lower

377 developmental competence observed in late-cleaved embryos may be related to double-
378 stranded DNA damage.

379 In the second experiment, we evaluate the mRNA expression profile of genes involved
380 in the HR and NHEJ repair pathways in embryos with high, intermediate or low
381 developmental competence removed from in vitro culture before, during or after the expected
382 moment of embryonic genome activation. As shown in Table 2, all studied genes were
383 expressed before, during and after the embryonic genome activation, regardless of
384 developmental competence. Eight of these genes are associated with DNA HR repair, three
385 with DNA NHEJ repair and two with apoptosis. The main genes related with HR and NHEJ
386 repair pathways were also expressed in human oocytes and blastocysts (Jaroudi *et al.* 2009). It
387 is important to highlight that of the 13 studied genes just 53BP1 and RAD52 were
388 upregulated. This higher expression was observed just before embryonic genome activation
389 (at 36 hpf) in embryos with intermediate and low competence of embryonic development. The
390 53BP1 and RAD52 belong to the group of genes responsible for early activation stages of HR
391 repair pathway (Menezo *et al.* 2010; Ozturk and Demir 2011). In human embryos, the double-
392 stranded DNA repair by HR repair pathway seems to be predominantly active before
393 embryonic genome activation (Jaroudi *et al.* 2009) similarly to what we observed in bovine
394 embryos. As the transcriptional activity is low in the bovine embryos until the embryonic
395 genome activation (Barnes and First 1991; Hay-Schmidt *et al.* 2001), we suspected that the
396 higher expression of RAD52 and 53BP1 at 36 hpf can be from maternal origin because it was
397 only observed before genome activation in embryos with intermediate and low competence of
398 development.

399 During embryonic genome activation most maternal mRNAs are degraded and the
400 embryo starts to transcribe its own mRNAs (Wong *et al.* 2010). This can justify why the
401 observed effect at 36 h for 53BP1 and RAD52 genes disappeared at 72 and 96 hpf. The higher
402 mRNA expression of 53BP1 and RAD52 at 36 hpf in embryos with intermediate and low
403 developmental competence is an intriguing fact and indicates that these mRNAs were
404 accumulated in bovine oocyte before the beginning of in vitro maturation, *i.e.* during follicle
405 development. Nevertheless, more studies are necessary to confirm this hypothesis and to
406 understand if the higher mRNA expression of 53BP1 and RAD52 can be related with bovine
407 oocyte developmental competence.

408 The absence of regulation in mRNA expression of all studied genes at 72 and 96 hpf
409 led us to believe that bovine embryos may have difficulty in responding to a double-stranded
410 DNA damage immediately after the embryonic genome activation. To evaluate this

411 hypothesis, we developed an experimental model that induced a double-stranded DNA
412 damage without totally impairing the cleavage. Using this experimental model, approximately
413 40% of embryos exposed to UV irradiation for 2.5 minutes were able to cleave and the
414 double-stranded DNA break was confirmed by immunolocation of phosphorylated H2A.X.
415 Using this approach, we found that bovine embryos are able to respond to DNA damage only
416 after the embryonic genome activation but, the ability to upregulate genes involved in the
417 double-stranded DNA repair was only observed at 168 hpf when the embryonic genome is
418 totally functional. The expression of double-stranded DNA repair genes was greatly increased
419 during and after the embryonic genome activation. However, when DNA damage was
420 induced at 72 hpf, mRNA expression of three out of four studied genes were downregulated
421 indicating that the embryos may be translating the mRNA to protein but not being able to
422 synthesize enough mRNA to meet the high demand induced by DNA damage. In contrast,
423 when embryos were exposed to UV irradiation at 168 hpf a higher expression of DNA repair
424 genes was observed indicating that the bovine embryos can have higher ability to respond to
425 DNA damage when the embryonic genome is totally functional. The upregulation in mRNA
426 expression of 53BP1, RAD51 and KU70 genes at 168 hpf indicates that HR and NHEJ
427 repair pathways are present and potentially actives in bovine embryos.

428 Bovine oocytes submitted to UV irradiation rapidly increase the RAD51 protein
429 synthesis while in mice this response was longer (Kujjo *et al.* 2011). The rapid increase in the
430 RAD51 production demonstrated that bovine oocytes could be more resistant than mice
431 oocytes to DNA damage induced by irradiation (Kujjo *et al.* 2011). This suggests that there is
432 a significant difference between species in response to the DNA damage caused by
433 irradiation. However, the reason why bovine oocytes respond faster than the mouse oocytes to
434 DNA damage induced by UV irradiation is still unknown. Our results demonstrated that UV-
435 induced increased expression of RAD51, is accompanied by upregulation of 53BP1. The
436 53BP1 is a nuclear protein that rapidly localizes double-stranded DNA breaks induced by
437 ionizing radiation, etoposide, neocarzinostatin and other agents (Schultz *et al.* 2000;
438 Rappold *et al.* 2001). In agreement with our results, Jaroudi *et al.* (2009) found that human
439 oocytes and blastocysts have medium to high levels of 53BP1, RAD51, RAD52, KU70 and
440 KU80 mRNA. This rapid ability to activate the HR and NHEJ repair pathways could be
441 explained as an adaptive response to continuous exposure to solar and cosmic irradiations of
442 bovines and humans as previously mentioned by Kujjo *et al.* (2011).

443 The addition of Scriptaid to in vitro maturation, fertilization and culture media did not
444 affect the cleavage kinetics and did not improve the embryonic development rate. These

445 results may be due to low capacity of transcription observed in bovine embryo until the
446 genome is completely functional. However, further studies involving different concentrations
447 and different times of exposure to Scriptaid are required.

448 In conclusion, the main genes responsible to trigger and control both HR and NHEJ
449 repair pathways are expressed before, during or after embryonic genome activation in bovine
450 embryos with high, intermediate or low in vitro developmental competence. Bovine embryos
451 with low in vitro developmental competence were found to have higher mRNA expression of
452 53BP1 and RAD52 before embryonic genome activation. Bovine embryos can respond to a
453 double-stranded DNA damage only after the embryonic genome activation but HR and NHEJ
454 repair pathways seem to be effectively regulated only after the embryonic genome is totally
455 functional.

456

457 **Declaration of interest**

458 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing
459 the impartiality of the research reported.

460

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464

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467

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- 611

612 **Legend Figures:**

613

614 **Fig. 1.** Cleavage kinetics, percentage of embryos blocked at 2-cells stage at 72 h after in vitro
615 fertilization (IVF) and development of embryos cleaved at 28, 32 and 36 h after IVF.
616 Cleavage rates represent the proportion of oocytes that cleaved at 28, 32 and 36 h after IVF
617 (A). The percentage of embryos blocked at the 2-cells stage was calculated based on the
618 number of cleaved at 28, 32 and 36 h after IVF (B). Blastocyst rate was evaluated per total of
619 cleaved at 28, 32 and 36 h after IVF (C) or per total of oocytes (D). Bars with no common
620 letter are statistically different ($p \leq 0.05$).

621

622 **Fig. 2.** Relative mRNA expression (mean \pm standard error of mean) of 53BP1 (A) and
623 RAD52 (B) in bovine embryos with high, intermediate or low competence of embryonic
624 development and removed from in vitro culture at 36 h after IVF. The time to the first
625 cleavage was used as a parameter to predict the developmental competence. Embryos cleaved
626 at 28, 32 and 36 h after IFV were considered to have high, intermediate and low competence
627 for embryo development, respectively. Bars with no common letter are statistically different
628 ($p \leq 0.05$).

629

630 **Fig. 3.** Cleavage kinetics (A), embryonic development (B) and total number of blastomeres
631 (C) after treatment with 500 mM scriptaid during the final 12 h of in vitro maturation (IVM),
632 initial 12 h of in vitro fertilization (IVF) or from 36 to 48 h after IVF (IVC). Bars with no
633 common letter are statistically different ($p \leq 0.05$).

634

635 **Fig. 4.** Cleavage kinetics (A) and cleavage rate (B) of embryos exposed to ultraviolet (UV)
636 irradiation for 0, 1, 2.5, 5 or 10 minutes at 18 h after in vitro fertilization (IVF). The cleavage
637 rate was evaluated at 48 h after IVF. Bars with no common letter are statistically different
638 ($p \leq 0.05$).

639

640 **Fig. 5.** Relative mRNA expression (mean \pm standard error of mean) of 53BP1 (A) RAD51
641 (B), RAD52 (C) and KU70 (D) 6 h after induction of DNA damage (ultraviolet irradiation for
642 2.5 minutes) at 18, 36, 72, 96 and 168 h after in vitro fertilization (IVF). The asterisk (*)
643 indicates difference between control and irradiated group at the same time ($p \leq 0.05$).

644

645 **Table 1.** Primers used in the expression analysis of candidate genes. Primer sequences and
 646 concentrations used to amplify each gene are described.

Gene	Sequence	Conc. (nM)	Reference or accession n°
Histone H2A	GAGGAGCTGAACAAGCTGTTG	200	Bettegowda <i>et al.</i> 2006
	TTGTGGTGGCTCTCAGTCTTC	200	
53BP1	ATCAGACCAACAGCAGAATTTCC	200	ENSBTAT00000028388
	CACCACGTCAAACACCCCTAA	200	
RAD52	GGCCAGGAAGGAGGCAGTA	200	ENSBTAT00000055617
	TGACCTCAGATAGTCTTTGTCCAGAA	200	
RAD51	ATGCACCGAAGAAGGAGCTAAT	200	ENSBTAT00000003788
	GATCGCCTTTGGTGGAACTC	200	
RAD50	TGTGGAACAGGGCCGTCTA	200	XM_001255278.2
	CAATTCTAGCTGTGTTGCCAGAGA	200	
KU70	AATTGACTCCTTTTGACATGAGCAT	200	XM_001789352.1
	CCATAGAACACCACTGCCAAGA	200	
KU80	TGGCATCTCCCTGCAGTTCT	200	ENSBTAT00000013758
	AGGCCCATGGTGGTCTGA	200	
BRCA1	ACAAAGCAGCAGACACAATCTCA	200	ENSBTAT00000011616
	TCATGGTCTCCCACACTGAAATA	200	
BRCA2	AAATTTCACTGCACCTGGTCAA	200	ENSBTAT00000001311
	TCATGGGTTTGCCTATAGTTATCG	200	
ATM	CTTAGGAGGAGCTTGGGCCT	200	ENSBTAT00000040104
	CCGCTGTGTGGCAAACC	200	
NBS1	GGCGTCCGATTGTAAAACCA	200	ENSBTAT00000017598
	TCAACAGGTGGGTAAAAACTTTCA	200	
DNAPK	AAAGGCAATCCGTCCTCAGA	200	ENSBTAT00000022631
	AAGGCAGGTGCTAAACTGAGATG	200	
BAX	GACATTGGACTTCCTTCGAGA	200	Mani <i>et al.</i> 2010
	AGCACTCCAGCCACAAAGAT	200	
BCL2	GTGGATGACCGAGTACCTGAAC	200	Mani <i>et al.</i> 2010
	AGACAGCCAGGAGAAATCAAAC	200	

647 F, Forward primer; R, Reverse primer; Conc., primer concentration used for gene
 648 amplification.

649

650 **Table 2.** mRNA expression and regulation of genes controlling apoptosis, homologous
 651 recombination and non-homologous end-joining repair pathways in bovine embryos removed
 652 from in vitro culture at 36, 72 or 96 h post-fertilization.

Involved Pathway	Gene	36 h		72 h		96 h	
		Expressed	Regulated	Expressed	Regulated	Expressed	Regulated
HR repair	53BP1	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
	RAD52	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
	RAD51	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	RAD50	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	BRCA1	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	BRCA2	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	ATM	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	NBS1	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
NHEJ repair	KU70	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	KU80	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	DNAPK	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Apoptosis	BAX	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	BCL2	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No

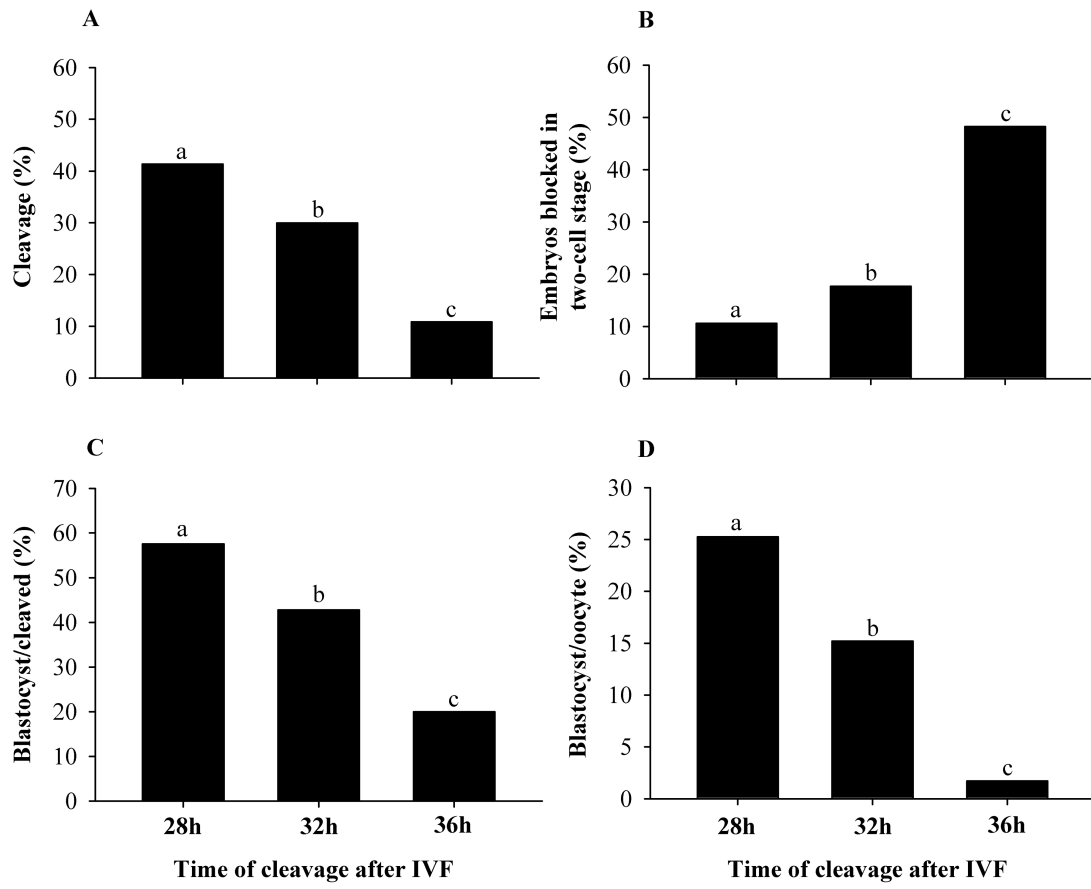
653

654 HR – homologous recombination; NHEJ – non-homologous end-joining.

655

656

Figure 1

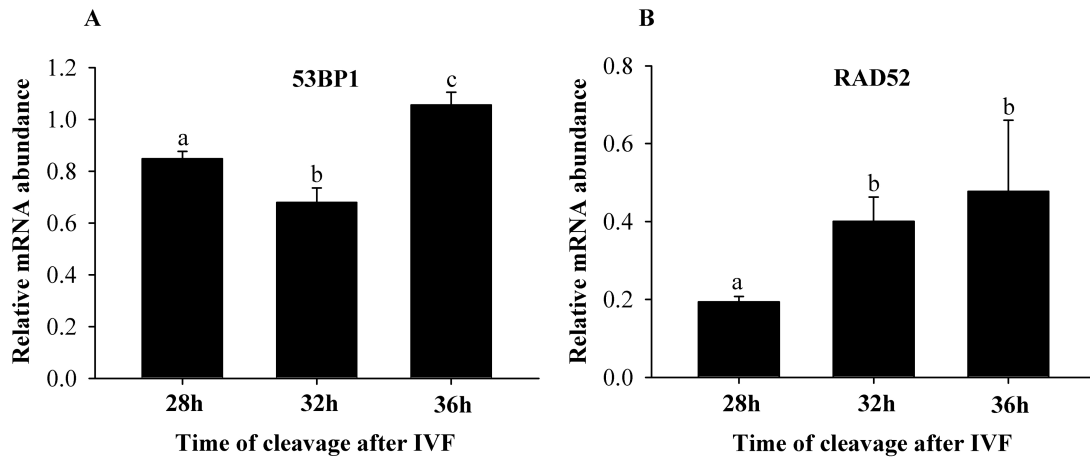


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Figure 2



660

661

Figure 3

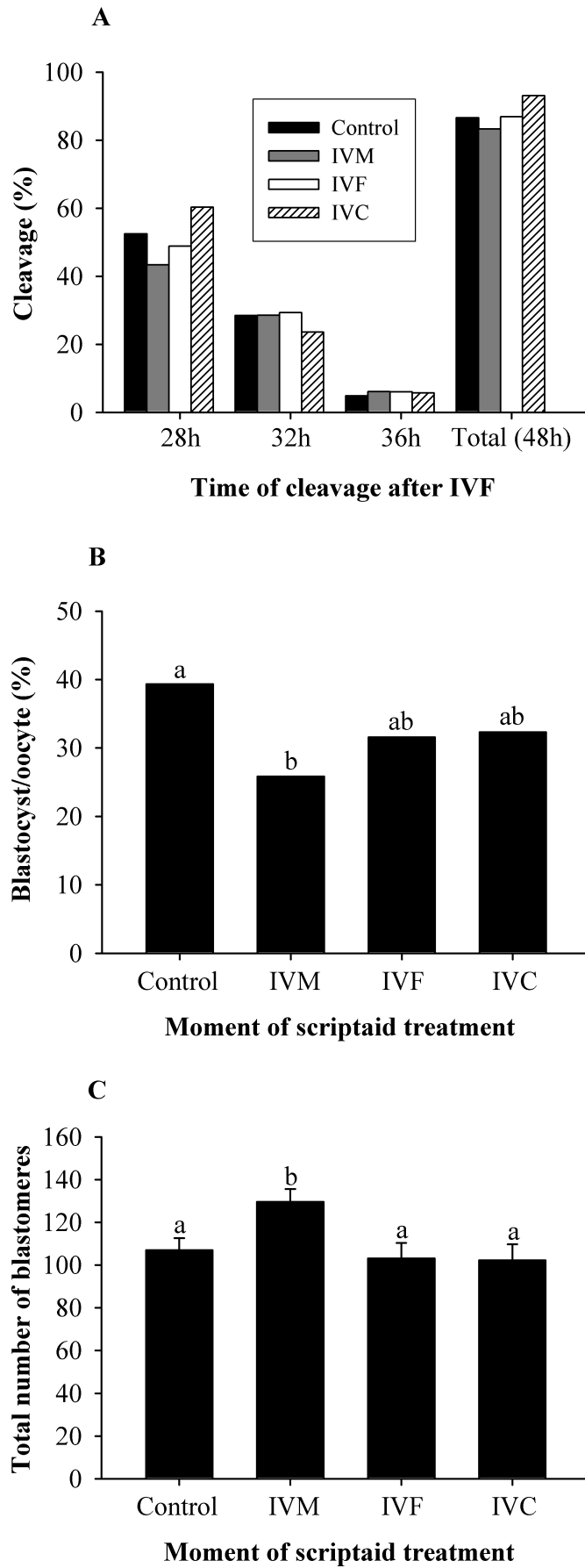
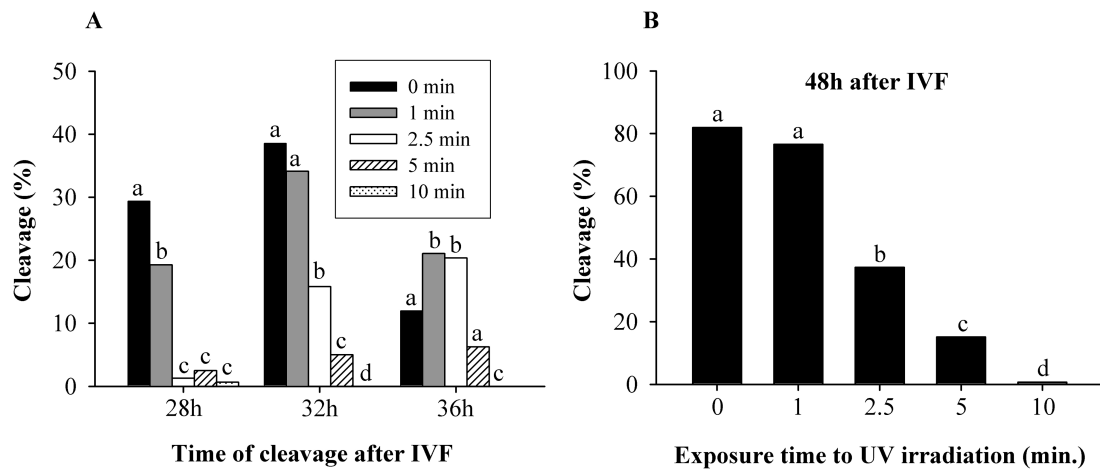


Figure 4



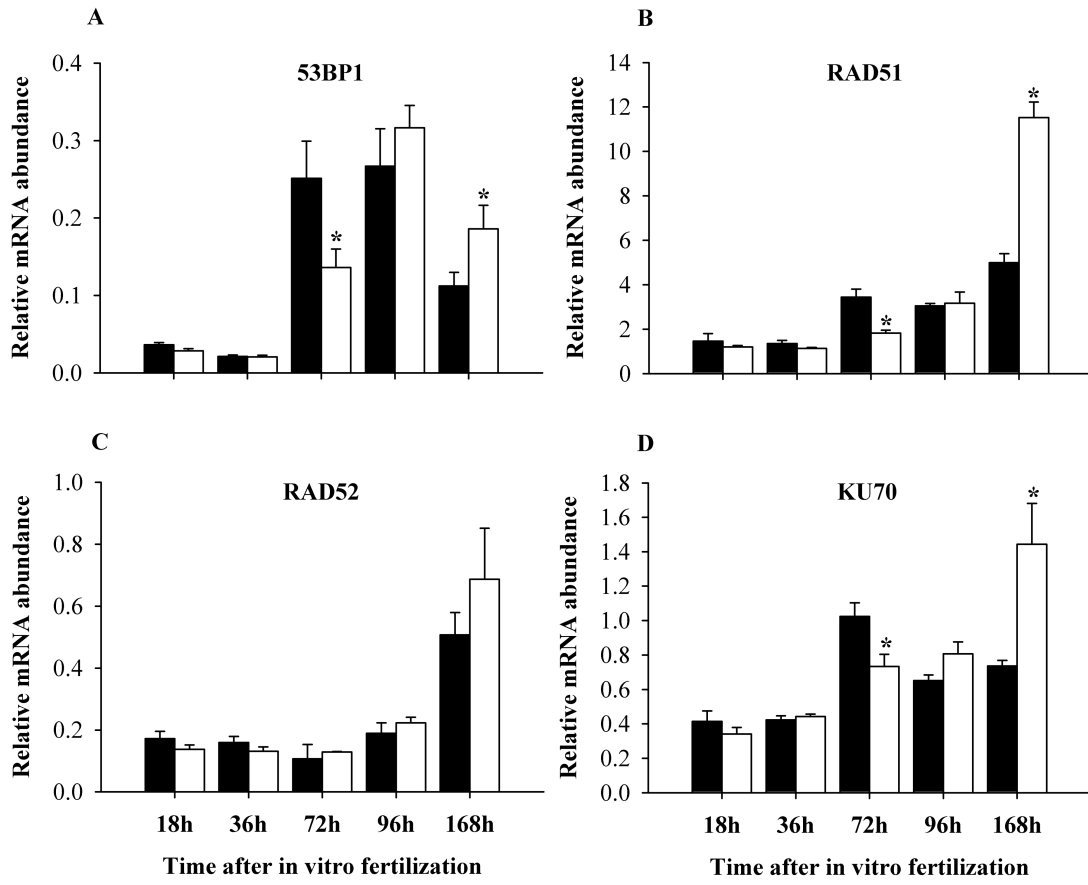
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Figure 5



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668

5. DISCUSSÃO

O avanço nas técnicas de dosagem hormonal e o uso da ultrassonografia na medicina veterinária propiciaram, no final da década de 80 e na década de 90, um melhor entendimento sobre a dinâmica de crescimento folicular em mamíferos. Em bovinos, o desenvolvimento de folículos específicos pode ser acompanhado com precisão desde a emergência de uma onda folicular até a ovulação do folículo dominante. Além disso, o microambiente folicular pode ser facilmente manipulado em fases específicas da onda folicular utilizando técnicas de injeção intrafolicular (KOT et al., 1995; FERREIRA et al., 2007), o que permitiu o estudo de diversos fatores locais que participam do controle da divergência folicular (FERREIRA et al., 2011a; FERREIRA et al., 2011b), ovulação (FERREIRA et al., 2007; SANTOS et al., 2011); e maturação de oócitos (BARRETA et al., 2008). Por isso, a fêmea bovina pode ser considerada um bom modelo para o estudo do desenvolvimento folicular antral, ovulação e maturação de oócitos em espécies monovulatórias.

No primeiro estudo descrito neste manuscrito, foi utilizado um modelo experimental bem estabelecido (RIVERA et al., 2001) que nos permitiu acompanhar o desenvolvimento de folículos específicos e a obtenção de células da teca e granulosa do maior e do segundo maior folículo antes (Dia 2), durante (Dia 3) e após (Dia 4) o momento esperado para a divergência folicular. Com essa abordagem, foi demonstrado que o receptor MAS é mais expresso nas células da granulosa do folículo subordinado após o estabelecimento da divergência folicular (Dia 4). Utilizando o mesmo modelo experimental descrito por Ferreira et al. (2011b), foi demonstrado que a expressão do receptor MAS aumenta nas células da granulosa 12 e 24 h após a indução da atresia do folículo dominante pela injeção intrafolicular de um inibidor do receptor de estradiol. Alguns estudos têm demonstrado que a ativação do receptor MAS pela Ang-(1-7) é capaz de inibir a proliferação celular em diversos sistemas locais (FREEMAN et al., 1996; LOOT et al., 2002; GALLAGHER & TALLANT 2004; TALLANT et al., 2005; SOTO-PANTOJA et al., 2009). Esse efeito parece ser mediado, ao menos em parte, pela redução da expressão e da atividade de MMP-2 e MMP-9 no tecido pulmonar (NI et al., 2012). As metaloproteínas da matriz extracelular (MMPs), são enzimas proteolíticas que têm capacidade de degradar a matriz extracelular permitindo o remodelamento fisiológico dos tecidos (GALIS & KHATRI, 2002; SPINALE, 2002). Dessa forma, a inibição da atividade das MMPs pode ser um dos mecanismos envolvidos na ação da Ang-(1-7), via receptor MAS, sobre o desenvolvimento folicular. Pela primeira vez, foi evidenciado que a regulação da

expressão do receptor MAS nas células da granulosa pode estar relacionada com a atresia folicular.

Nós também demonstramos que as enzimas chave para produção de Ang-(1-7) são expressas nas células da teca e granulosa do maior e segundo maior folículos da onda antes, durante e após o estabelecimento da divergência. A expressão de ACE₂ foi maior no folículo dominante, enquanto que, a expressão de PEP foi maior no folículo subordinado durante e após o estabelecimento da divergência folicular. Recentemente, foi demonstrado que os níveis de Ang II, estradiol e a expressão de CYP19 aumentam no folículo dominante durante e após o estabelecimento da divergência folicular em bovinos (FERREIRA et al., 2011b). Portanto, a maior expressão de ACE₂ no folículo dominante pode estar sendo regulada pelos níveis de Ang II e estrógeno, uma vez que, ambos são responsáveis por aumentar a expressão de ACE₂ em outros sistemas locais (IGASE et al. 2005; IGASE et al. 2008; JI et al. 2008; LIN et al., 2010). Juntos, esses resultados sugerem que a expressão de ACE₂ pode ser um importante mecanismo de controle dos níveis de Ang II no fluido folicular. Entretanto, mais estudos serão necessários para entender como a expressão de ACE₂ é regulada nas células da granulosa e quais são seus efeitos sobre o desenvolvimento folicular. Como a expressão de ACE₂ é menor nos folículos subordinados, a conversão de Ang II em Ang-(1-7) ou de Ang I em Ang-(1-9) não parecem ser as principais vias de produção de Ang-(1-7) nos folículos subordinados. Portanto, a maior expressão de PEP nas células da granulosa durante e após o estabelecimento da divergência folicular sugerem que a conversão de Ang I em Ang-(1-7) pode ser a rota de escolha para a produção de Ang-(1-7) nos folículos subordinados.

Futuramente, estudos *in vivo* utilizando a técnica de injeção intrafolicular e cultivo *in vitro* de células da granulosa podem auxiliar no desenvolvimento de experimentos que visem o melhor entendimento da função e regulação do sistema Ang-(1-7) no microambiente folicular. Essas abordagens poderiam auxiliar no esclarecimento de como o sistema Ang-(1-7) participa do ajuste fino do desenvolvimento folicular e como ele interage com outros sistemas locais bem estabelecidos, tais como, Ang II, fatores de crescimento semelhante a insulina, fatores de crescimento fibroblástico, fatores de crescimento semelhante ao EGF, entre outros. Ainda, seria interessante esclarecer se os fatores endócrinos responsáveis por orquestrar o desenvolvimento folicular, tais como, FSH, LH, estradiol e progesterona podem estar envolvidos na regulação local do sistema Ang-(1-7).

No segundo estudo descrito nesta tese, nosso primeiro objetivo foi estabelecer um modelo *in vitro* que permitisse obter embriões bovinos com diferentes potenciais de desenvolvimento. Após avaliar a cinética de clivagem de aproximadamente 2500 zigotos

observamos que o tempo requerido para a primeira clivagem pós fertilização *in vitro* (FIV) é um bom parâmetro para prever o potencial de desenvolvimento embrionário. Nesse experimento, foi demonstrado que os embriões que clivam até as 28 h pós FIV têm um maior potencial de desenvolvimento que os embriões que levam 32 ou 36 h pós FIV para realizar a primeira clivagem. Dessa forma, baseado no horário da primeira clivagem nós conseguimos desenvolver um sistema para obter embriões com alta, média ou baixa capacidade de desenvolvimento embrionário. Foi demonstrado ainda que os embriões que clivam mais tarde têm um maior percentual de bloqueio no estágio de 2 duas células durante o momento esperado para a ativação do genoma embrionário (72 h pós FIV). Alguns trabalhos publicados por nosso grupo sugerem que o menor potencial de desenvolvimento observado nos embriões que clivam tarde pode estar relacionado com danos na fita dupla de DNA, uma vez que, esses embriões apresentam uma maior quantidade de núcleos positivos para H3K14ac, HMG2 (BASTOS et al., 2008) e H2A.X fosforilada (BASTOS et al. dados não publicados).

Após o estabelecimento do modelo *in vitro*, nós avaliamos o perfil de expressão de genes que participam do controle do reparo da fita dupla de DNA pelas vias de recombinação homóloga (HR) ou união terminal não homóloga (NHEJ) em embriões bovinos com alta, média ou baixa competência de desenvolvimento e que foram retirados do cultivo *in vitro* antes (36 h), durante (72 h) ou após (96 h pós FIV) a ativação do genoma embrionário. Foi observado que todos os genes estudados envolvidos no controle das vias HR (53BP1, ATM, RAD50, RAD51, RAD52, BRCA1, BRCA2 e NBS1) e NHEJ (KU70, KU80 e DNAPK) são expressos nos embriões bovinos independente do seu potencial de desenvolvimento ou do momento de sua retirada do cultivo. Entretanto, os genes 53BP1 e RAD52 foram mais expressos nos embriões que clivaram tarde (36 h pós FIV). Esse efeito foi observado somente quando os embriões foram retirados do sistema de cultivo antes da ativação do genoma embrionário (36 h pós FIV). O 53BP1 e RAD52 pertencem ao grupo de genes responsáveis pelos estágios iniciais de ativação da via HR (MÉNÉZO et al., 2010; OZTURK & DEMIR 2011). Após o reinício da meiose a atividade transcricional do oócito bovino torna-se muito baixa e assim perdura até a ativação do genoma embrionário (BARNES & FIRST, 1991; HAY-SCHMIDT et al., 2001). Isso nos leva a crer que a maior quantidade de RNAm de 53BP1 e RAD52 detectada as 36 h pós FIV nos embriões com baixo potencial de desenvolvimento, pode ter sido acumulada no oócito antes do início da maturação *in vitro*. Os complexos cumulus-oócitos coletados para PIV são oriundos de folículos em diferentes fases de desenvolvimento. Dessa forma, podem ser puncionados folículos saudáveis ou com diferentes graus de atresia folicular o que de certa forma pode estar afetando a integridade do

oócito. Entretanto, novos estudos serão necessários para compreender porque os embriões com baixo potencial de desenvolvimento apresentam maior quantidade de RNAm para 53BP1 e RAD52 antes da ativação do genoma embrionário e se esses genes podem servir como marcadores de competência para o desenvolvimento embrionário. Uma abordagem interessante para responder parte desses questionamentos seria comparar a expressão de 53BP1 e RAD52 em oócitos oriundo de folículos puncionados *in vivo* em fases aleatórias do desenvolvimento folicular (semelhante ao que acontece na PIV) com oócitos puncionados em diferentes momentos após a emergência de uma nova onda folicular. Além disso, abordagens comparando oócitos maturados *in vivo* e *in vitro* poderiam ser de grande valia.

Como a expressão de todos os genes estudados foi baixa as 72 e as 96 h pós FIV e não houve regulação da expressão entre os embriões com diferentes potencias de desenvolvimento, nós suspeitamos que os embriões bovinos podem ter dificuldade de responder a uma quebra na fita dupla de DNA antes do genoma embrionário estar em pleno funcionamento. Para testar essa hipótese, foi desenvolvido um modelo experimental *in vitro* que induzisse quebras na fita dupla de DNA, sem bloquear completamente o desenvolvimento dos embriões. No modelo experimental desenvolvido, podemos observar que quando os embriões eram expostos a irradiação UV por 2.5 minutos as 18 h pós FIV, 40% deles foram capazes de clivar. O dano a fita dupla de DNA foi confirmado pela imunolocalização de H2A.X fosforilada.

Utilizando essa abordagem, foi demonstrado que os embriões bovinos são capazes de responder a uma quebra na fita dupla de DNA somente após a ativação do genoma embrionário mas, uma maior expressão dos genes envolvidos no reparo da fita dupla de DNA foi observado somente as 168 h pós FIV. Esse resultado indica que os embriões bovinos podem ter plena capacidade de reparar quebras na fita dupla de DNA somente quando o genoma embrionário estiver em pleno funcionamento. Dessa forma, torna-se compreensível porque grande parte dos embriões clivados tarde bloqueiam seu desenvolvimento antes da ativação do genoma embrionário. A maior expressão de 53BP1, RAD51 e KU70 as 168 h pós FIV indica que as vias de reparo HR e NHREJ estão presentes e potencialmente ativas nos embriões bovinos.

6. CONCLUSÃO

O presente trabalho demonstrou que o RNAm do receptor MAS e das enzimas chave para a produção de Ang-(1-7), ACE₂, NEP e PEP são expressos nas células da teca e granulosa dos folículos dominante e subordinado antes, durante e após a divergência folicular. A expressão diferencial das enzimas ACE₂, NEP e PEP durante a fase de divergência folicular sugere o envolvimento do sistema Ang-(1-7) no processo regulatório da divergência folicular em bovinos. A maior expressão do receptor MAS nas células do folículo subordinado após a divergência e em folículos induzidos a atresia, indica que esse receptor está envolvido com o processo de atresia folicular.

Com relação aos genes de reparo da fita dupla de DNA, podemos concluir que os principais genes responsáveis pela ativação e controle das vias de reparo HR e NHEJ são expressos em embriões com alta, média ou baixa competência de desenvolvimento embrionário *in vitro*. Embriões bovinos com baixa competência de desenvolvimento apresentaram maior expressão de 53BP1 e RAD52 as 36 h após a fertilização *in vitro*. Ainda, foi demonstrado que os embriões bovinos podem responder a quebras na fita dupla de DNA somente após a ativação do genoma embrionário mas as vias de reparo HR e NHEJ parecem ser efetivamente reguladas somente após o genoma embrionário estar totalmente funcional.

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