

# Expression of DNA repair genes in porcine oocytes before and after fertilization by ICSI using freeze-dried sperm

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1 **ORIGINAL ARTICLE**

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3 **Expression of DNA repair genes in porcine oocytes before and after fertilization by**  
4 **ICSI using freeze-dried sperm**

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6 **Running Head: DNA REPAIR GENES IN PORCINE OOCYTES**

7

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23

24 **ABSTRACT**

25 Boar sperm freeze-dried with trehalose showed a protective effect against sperm DNA  
26 fragmentation. However, normal fertilization and embryonic development were not  
27 improved. Damaged sperm may activate maternal DNA repair genes when injected to  
28 oocytes. Therefore, we investigated the expression profile of some DNA repair genes in  
29 porcine oocytes after ICSI. Firstly, the expression levels of MGMT, UDG, XPC, MSH2,  
30 XRCC6, and RAD51 genes that concerned with the different types of DNA repair were  
31 examined in *in vitro* mature (IVM) oocytes injected with ejaculated sperm, or freeze-dried  
32 sperm with or without trehalose. Quantitative RT-PCR revealed that expression of six DNA  
33 repair genes in the oocytes at 4 h after injection did not differ among four groups. Next, we  
34 investigated the gene expression levels of these genes at different stages of maturation. The  
35 relative expression levels of UDG and XPC were significantly up-regulated in mature  
36 oocytes compared with earlier stages. Furthermore, there was an increased tendency in  
37 relative expression of MSH2 and RAD51. These results suggested two possible  
38 mechanisms that mRNA(s) of DNA repair genes are either accumulated during IVM to be  
39 ready for fertilization or increased expression levels of DNA repair genes in oocytes caused  
40 by suboptimal IVM conditions.

41 **Key words:** *DNA repair genes, freeze-dried sperm, gene expression, ICSI, pig.*

42

43 **INTRODUCTION**

44 It is reported that newly fertilized embryos of some species possess the ability to sense,  
45 respond to, and repair at least some types of DNA damage, particularly in the incoming  
46 sperm DNA (Zheng *et al.* 2005). DNA repair is an essential process for maintenance of  
47 genomic integrity in the preimplantation embryos to correct the damage existed in the  
48 gametes. The damage may be either inherent or arose during DNA replication and is also

49 caused by genotoxic agents (Zheng *et al.* 2005). The DNA damage needs to be repaired  
50 before the first round of DNA replication of zygote to minimize the mutation load of the  
51 developing embryos (Zheng *et al.* 2005). There are several DNA repair pathways in  
52 mammalian cells: direct reversal of damage, nucleotide excision repair (NER), base  
53 excision repair (BER), mismatch repair (MMR) and double strand break repair (DSBR)  
54 (Jaroudi *et al.* 2009). Direct reversal of damage is the simplest form of DNA repair and also  
55 the most energy efficient method; it does not require a reference template as the other  
56 single strand repair mechanisms. O-6-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase (known as  
57 MGMT) a specific DNA repair enzyme can remove the alkyl group from the O<sup>6</sup>-position of  
58 the guanine, thereby preventing its mutagenic and carcinogenic effects (Zuo *et al.* 2004),  
59 belonging to direct reversal pathway. There are a number of regulatory elements in the  
60 MGMT promoter region, and a number of stimuli may increase MGMT expression, such as  
61 irradiation, glucocorticoid exposure, and cAMP (Liu *et al.* 2012).

62         Expression profile of maternal DNA repair genes correlates the ability of the  
63 oocytes to recognize and repair DNA damage at certain stages (oocyte/blastocyst). For  
64 instance, Jaroudi *et al.* (2009) demonstrated that the mRNA level for most repair genes was  
65 higher in oocytes compared with blastocysts in human and this is to ensure sufficient  
66 availability of template until embryonic genome activation, and that the DNA repair  
67 transcripts accumulated in the human oocyte play an important role in chromatin  
68 remodeling and maintain chromatin integrity during fertilization. Furthermore, when the  
69 DNA damage caused during fertilization is recognized as irreparable, embryos are excluded  
70 by cell cycle arrests or activation of apoptotic pathways (Jaroudi *et al.* 2009). To our  
71 knowledge, there are only a few works about the expression profiling of DNA repair  
72 transcripts in human oocytes and early embryos due to the rare availability of the materials  
73 and the ethical considerations (Li *et al.* 2006). Usage of non-human primates, laboratory or

74 domestic animals in research is more feasible and has a great importance on providing  
75 novel knowledge on this field.

76 It is considered that DNA repair ability of oocytes correlates to the amount of  
77 maternal repair mRNA in the cytoplasm which accumulated during the growth phase of  
78 oocytes and follicles, and required for completion of the meiotic cell cycle (Zheng *et al.*  
79 2005). Moreover, *in vitro* culture of oocytes and embryos may lead to dysregulation of  
80 many genes (Zheng *et al.* 2005; Jones *et al.* 2008; Salhab *et al.* 2013), resulting in low  
81 cellular viability and long-term embryo viability by the impaired competence for the repair  
82 of the DNA damage. Recent studies suggested the differential expression of several repair  
83 genes between *in vivo* and *in vitro* matured (IVM) oocytes in cattle (Thelie *et al.* 2007), in  
84 human (Jones *et al.* 2008) and in non-human primates (Zheng *et al.* 2005). However, the  
85 expression of DNA repair-related genes after fertilization has not been examined in porcine  
86 oocytes.

87 In our previous study (Men *et al.* 2013), we have shown that sperm freeze-dried in  
88 the basic medium containing 15 mmol/L trehalose showed less DNA damage compared  
89 with control group without trehalose treatment. However, normal fertilization and  
90 subsequent embryonic development were not different between both two groups. It is still  
91 unknown that whether the increased DNA damage of sperm in the control group leads to  
92 increase the expression of DNA repair genes in oocytes after injection of a spermatozoon  
93 from this group. The objective of this study was to estimate the expression levels of DNA  
94 repair-related genes in porcine oocytes after fertilization by intra-cytoplasmic of sperm  
95 injection (ICSI) before early cleavage stage. In addition, the expression profile of these  
96 genes was also detected in different stages of oocyte maturation.

97 Based on previous reports (Harrouk *et al.* 2000; Wood *et al.* 2001; Zheng *et al.*  
98 2005; Jaroudi & SenGupta 2007), we focused on the expression of six DNA repair genes

99 related to repair ability of different kinds of DNA damage: MGMT (for direct reversal),  
100 UDG (for NER), XPC (for BER), MSH2 (for MMR), XRCC6 (for DSBR by homologous  
101 recombination) and RAD51 (for DSBR by non-homologous end-joining) (Tables 1 and 2).

102 Many reports showed that DNA repair in oocyte occurs in the first few hours after  
103 fertilization (in rats, Harrouk *et al.* 2000; in mice, Derijck *et al.* 2006), or prior to S-phase  
104 (pronuclear stage) (in humans, Aitken & Koppers 2011). Therefore, in this study, mRNAs  
105 were extracted from oocytes at 4 h after sperm injection (Experiment 1) and at four time  
106 points of oocyte maturation (Experiment 2) and were subjected to quantitative RT-PCR to  
107 examine the expression of these genes.

108

## 109 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 110 **Chemicals and media**

111 All chemicals were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MA, USA), unless otherwise  
112 stated. The freeze-drying medium contained 10 mmol/L Tris-HCl buffer supplemented with  
113 50 mmol/L ethylene glycol tetraacetic acid (EGTA; 346-01312; Dojindo Laboratories,  
114 Kumamoto, Japan) and is referred to as basic freeze-drying medium. This medium was then  
115 supplemented with different concentrations of trehalose (T0167; 0 (referred as control) and  
116 15.0 mmol/L) and also NaCl (50.0 and 40.0 mmol/L, respectively). The osmolality and pH  
117 of the final solutions were adjusted to 265 to 270 mOsm/kg and 8.0 to 8.5, respectively, and  
118 then they were filtered and stored at 4°C. The *in vitro* maturation medium for oocytes was  
119 modified North Carolina State University (NCSU)-37 solution containing 10% (v/v)  
120 porcine follicular fluid, 0.6 mmol/L cysteine, 50 mmol/L  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol, 1 mmol/L  
121 dibutyl cAMP, 10 IU/mL eCG (Serotropin; ASKA Pharmaceutical Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan),  
122 and 10 IU/mL hCG (Puberogen 500 units, Novartis Animal Health, Tokyo, Japan) (Kikuchi  
123 *et al.* 2002). Medium used for *in vitro* culture (IVC) of sperm-injected oocytes was

124 modified NCSU-37 supplemented with 0.17 mmol/L sodium pyruvate, 2.73 mmol/L  
125 sodium lactate, 4 mg/mL bovine serum albumin (BSA) and 50 mmol/L  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol  
126 (IVC-PyrLac) (Kikuchi *et al.* 2002).

127

### 128 **Sperm collection and freeze-drying**

129 Protocols for the use of animals were approved by the Animal Care Committee of the  
130 National Institute of Agrobiological Sciences, Tsukuba, Japan. Sperm collection and  
131 freeze-drying were conducted as described previously (Men *et al.* 2013). In brief,  
132 ejaculated semen was collected from a Landrace boar, which is used for reproductive  
133 program at National institute of Livestock and Grassland Science, Tsukuba Japan, and  
134 transferred to the laboratory within 30 min. After determination of the sperm concentration,  
135 the semen was centrifuged for 10 min at  $900 \times g$  at  $30^{\circ}\text{C}$  and the seminal plasma was  
136 removed. The pellet was re-suspended in freeze-drying medium containing different  
137 concentrations of trehalose pre-warmed at  $30^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and the supernatant was removed after  
138 centrifugation. The final pellet was then re-suspended in freeze-drying media containing 0  
139 or 15 mmol/L trehalose at a final concentration of  $4 \times 10^8$  cells/ mL. One milliliter of sperm  
140 suspension was placed into an individual glass vial (15-mL glass vial, Maruemu  
141 Corporation, Tokyo, Japan), then the vials were covered with aluminum foil and placed in a  
142 refrigerator at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  for at least 4 h. The aluminum foil was replaced by a rubber cap  
143 (Maruemu) with small gaps between the cap and the vial, and then they were placed in a  
144 freeze-drying system (FTS systems DuraDry  $\mu\text{P}$ , SP Scientific, Warminster, PA, USA).  
145 The freeze-drying program was as follows: specimens were dried primarily for 19 h at 0.13  
146 hPa and secondarily for 3 h at 0.13 hPa. During the process of primary drying, the shelf  
147 temperature was controlled at  $-30^{\circ}\text{C}$  and then increased to  $30^{\circ}\text{C}$  during the last 1 h 20  
148 minutes ( $0.75^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ ). After filling with  $\text{N}_2$  gas, the vials were sealed with rubber caps and

149 further fastened with aluminum caps (Maruemu). The freeze-dried (FD) samples were  
150 transferred to a refrigerator and stored at 4°C under dark condition until usage.

151

### 152 **Oocyte collection and *in vitro* maturation (IVM)**

153 Oocyte collection and IVM were conducted as described (Kikuchi *et al.* 2002). In brief,  
154 ovaries were obtained from prepubertal crossbred gilts (Landrace-Large White-Duroc  
155 breeds) at a local slaughterhouse and transported to the laboratory at 35°C. Cumulus-oocyte  
156 complexes (COCs) were collected from follicles 2 to 6 mm in diameter in Medium 199  
157 (with Hanks' salts) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (Gibco, Life  
158 Technologies Corporation, Grand Island, NY, USA), 20 mmol/L Hepes (Dojindo), 100  
159 IU/mL penicillin G potassium and 0.1 mg/mL streptomycin sulfate. About 40 to 50 COCs  
160 were cultured in 500 µL of maturation medium for 20 to 22 h in four-well dishes (Nunc,  
161 Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA, USA). The COCs were subsequently cultured for 24 h in  
162 maturation medium without dibutyl cAMP and hormones. IVM was carried out at 39°C  
163 under conditions in which CO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, and N<sub>2</sub> were adjusted to 5%, 5%, and 90%, respectively.  
164 After IVM, the cumulus cells were removed from the oocytes by repeated pipetting in  
165 Medium 199 supplemented with 150 IU/ mL hyaluronidase. Denuded oocytes with the first  
166 polar body (PB) were harvested under a stereomicroscope and used as IVM oocytes.

167

### 168 **ICSI and oocyte stimulation**

169 FD sperm were re-hydrated with deionization distilled water. The sperm suspension was  
170 centrifuged for 2 min at 600 × g and the sperm were washed with PBS(-) containing 5  
171 mg/mL BSA, then re-suspended in the same buffer. The sperm suspension was sonicated  
172 for about 5 to 10 sec to isolate a sperm head and kept at room temperature prior to ICSI,  
173 which was carried out as previously described (Nakai *et al.* 2006) with some modifications



174 (Men *et al.* 2013). In brief, sperm were kept in IVC-PyrLac supplemented with 20 mmol/L  
175 Hepes and 4% (w/v) polyvinylpyrrolidone (MW 360,000) (IVC-PyrLac-Hepes-PVP).  
176 About 30 IVM oocytes were transferred to a 20- $\mu$ L drop of Medium 199. A small volume  
177 (0.5  $\mu$ L) of the sonicated sperm suspension was transferred to a 2- $\mu$ L drop of IVC-PyrLac-  
178 Hepes-PVP. All drops were covered with paraffin oil (Paraffin Liquid; Nacalai Tesque, Inc.,  
179 Kyoto, Japan). A single sperm head was aspirated into the injection pipette, and injected  
180 into the ooplasm using a piezo-actuated micromanipulator (PMAS-CT150; Prime Tech Ltd.,  
181 Tsuchiura, Japan). ICSI was completed within 2 h after re-hydration of FD sperm, and  
182 sperm-injected oocytes were recovered in IVC-PyrLac for 1 h before electrical activation.  
183 The end of injection was considered as 0 h post-injection. As a control group, mature  
184 oocytes were injected with ejaculated sperm (fresh sperm group). One hour post-injection,  
185 the oocytes were transferred to an activation solution consisting of 0.28 mol/L d-mannitol,  
186 0.05 mmol/L CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.1 mmol/L MgSO<sub>4</sub>, and 0.1 mg/mL BSA. Once the oocytes were sunk  
187 at the bottom of the drop, they were then stimulated with a direct current pulse of 1.5  
188 kV/cm for 20  $\mu$ s under the same condition for each group using a somatic hybridizer (SSH-  
189 10; Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan), then washed three times and cultured in IVC PyrLac for 3 h  
190 before RNA extraction.

191

#### 192 **RNA extraction, purification, cDNA synthesis and quantitative RT- PCR (qRT-PCR)**

193 Total RNAs of the pooled oocytes or putative zygotes were purified using an RNeasy  
194 Micro Kit (QIAGEN) according to manufacturer's instructions. Reverse Transcription was  
195 performed to synthesize cDNA using a Primescript II 1st strand cDNA Synthesis Kit  
196 (Takara Bio Inc., Shiga, Japan) according to manufacturer's instructions. qRT-PCR was  
197 performed using a LightCycler® 480 SYBR Green I (Roche) according to standard

198 protocols. For each gene, the quantities of transcript were normalized to the reference  
199 transcript and TUBULIN  $\alpha$ 1 was used to standardize the data.

200

### 201 **Decondensation status of sperm head**

202 For assessment of fertilization status, putative zygotes were fixed at 4 h post-injection (3 h  
203 after electric activation) in fixative solution with a 1:3 mixture of acetic acid:ethanol (v/v)  
204 under vaseline-supported coverslips for several days. They were stained with 1% (w/v)  
205 orcein in 45% (v/v) acetic acid for several minutes, and then their fertilization status was  
206 examined using a phase-contrast microscopy.

207

### 208 **Experimental design**

209 Experiment 1: mRNAs were extracted from IVM oocytes or those oocytes injected with a  
210 fresh sperm or a FD sperm at 4 h after injection and were subjected to quantitative RT-PCR  
211 to examine the expression of these genes. Sperm injected oocytes were also fixed at 4 h  
212 after injection to examine decondensation status of sperm head and pronuclear formation.  
213 Three trials were performed.

214 Experiment 2: mRNAs were extracted from oocytes at different stages of IVM and were  
215 subjected to quantitative RT-PCR to examine the expression of these genes. Oocytes at four  
216 maturational stages were examined; 1) germinal vehicle (GV, just after collection–0 h of  
217 IVM), 2) late GV (GVL, 20 h of IVM), 3) metaphase I (M I, 33 h of IVM (according to  
218 Maedomari *et al.* (2007)); oocytes with a first PB at 33 h of IVM by light microscope were  
219 discarded) and 4) metaphase II (M II, 44 h of IVM; oocytes with the first PB). Some  
220 oocytes in each group were fixed at respective stages to examine the nuclear status. Three  
221 trials were carried out.

222

223 **Statistical analysis**

224 Data were expressed as mean  $\pm$  SEM. The percentage data were arcsine-transformed  
225 (Snedecor & Cochran 1989) then subjected to one way-ANOVA using R packages 3.0.1 (R  
226 Core Team 2013). As the difference is found in groups by ANOVA, further analysis is  
227 conducted by Tukey's posthoc test using the R packages. Differences at  $P < 0.05$  were  
228 considered to be significant.

229

230 **RESULTS**

231 **Expression levels of DNA repair genes in IVM- oocytes injected with sperm**

232 Damaged DNA in sperm should be repaired by oocytes before pronuclear formation.  
233 According to Nakai *et al.* (2006), the rate of pronuclear formation sharply increased at 4 h  
234 after electric stimulation, therefore, we analyzed the expression of DNA repair genes at the  
235 time point of 3 h after stimulation. There were no differences in expression level of 6  
236 investigated genes in oocytes at 4 h post-injection (Fig. 1).

237

238 **Decondensation status of sperm head at 4 h post-injection (3 h after electric**  
239 **activation)**

240 DNA damage is believed to be detected during decondensation of the sperm head and  
241 induces activation of essential DNA repair pathways. Therefore, the decondensation status  
242 of FD sperm head and the pronuclear formation rate also were examined at 4 h post-  
243 injection (Fig. 2A and 2B). As shown in Table 3, relatively high percentages of  
244 decondensed sperm head were observed in all three groups (62 to 71%) and there were no  
245 differences among groups. Similarly, the rate of zygotes with two PBs and two pronuclei  
246 (PNs) was also not different and ranged from 8 to 20% among groups. Newly formed PNs

247 at 4 h post-injection were smaller, separately located and the female or male pronucleus  
248 was easily distinguishable (Fig. 2C).

249

### 250 **Results of nuclear status of oocytes at different stages of IVM**

251 The data obtained from fixation and staining of oocytes (Table 4) showed that all COCs  
252 were at the GV stage just after collection and at the GVL stage 20 h after IVM. And then  
253 5.3% of oocytes show the first polar body at 33 h of IVM and 61.8% of oocytes show the  
254 first PB at 44 h of IVM by light microscope. At 33 h of IVM, oocytes showing the first PB  
255 were removed by light microscope and remaining oocytes were fixed and stained. The data  
256 reveal that 95.7% of these remaining oocytes were at the M I stage and 4.3% were at the  
257 GVL stage (Table 4).

258

### 259 **Expression levels of DNA repair genes in oocytes at different maturational stages**

260

261 The expression level of DNA repair genes in oocytes at different maturational stages were  
262 summarized in Figure 3. Of the six genes investigated, expression levels of UDG and XPC  
263 were significantly up-regulated in M II oocytes compared with earlier stages but did not  
264 differ between GV and GVL stage. There was an increased tendency in relative expression  
265 of MSH2 and RAD51 over time during IVM process although no differences in MGMT  
266 and XRCC6.

267

### 268 **DISCUSSION**

269 It is generally accepted that there are mechanisms in a cell to maintain genome integrity  
270 including DNA damage detection, repair, cell cycle arrest and apoptosis. Such mechanisms  
271 coordinate together to protect the fetus from potential DNA damage originating either in

272 parental gametes or in the embryo's somatic cells (reviewed by Jaroudi & SenGupta 2007).  
273 Moreover, the cell cycle of embryonic cells is much shorter than that of adult cells. The  
274 integrity of its genome is thus easy to be influenced. In other word, DNA repair at the early  
275 stages is of great significance for the later development. During the early embryonic  
276 development, three main transitions occur in preimplantation development, and each  
277 transition is reflected by changes in gene expression patterns (Zheng *et al.* 2005). The first  
278 transition is the maternal to zygotic transition. The second transition occurs during  
279 compaction at the 8-cell stage (Fleming *et al.* 2001) and the last one occurs during  
280 blastocyst formation at the 32- to 64-cell stage (Zheng *et al.* 2005). In the first transition,  
281 maternal factors – mRNA and proteins- that are stored in the cytoplasm of the oocyte  
282 during oogenesis and necessary for oocyte maturation, homeostasis and the first stages of  
283 embryogenesis but become unnecessary or potential deleterious as the embryo develops are  
284 destroyed and replaced by novel transcripts which are specific to the zygotes or embryos  
285 (so-called zygotic or embryonic genome activation (ZGA or EGA), respectively) (Zheng *et*  
286 *al.* 2005). It is well-documented that genome activation is an essential event in order to  
287 synthesize new protein preparing for the first cell division and subsequent events as well.  
288 The phenomenon of *in vitro* cultured mouse 1-cell embryos arrested at the 2-cell stage (2-  
289 cell block) was found to be related to the delay of ZGA (Qiu *et al.* 2003). The initiation of  
290 EGA varies between species. In mice, event of genome activation begins during the 1-cell  
291 stage and becomes evident by the 2-cell stage with a transcriptional and translational burst  
292 (Schultz 2002). In porcine embryos, EGA occurs during the 4-cell stage, promoting a  
293 dramatic reprogramming of gene expression accompanied by the generation of novel  
294 transcripts that are not expressed in the oocytes (Jarrell *et al.* 1991; Hyttel *et al.* 2000). A  
295 recent study uncovered a series of successive waves of embryonic transcriptional initiation  
296 that occur as early as the 2-cell stage in human preimplantation embryos (Vassena *et al.*

297 2011), in contrast to the previously accepted time point of embryonic genome activation at  
298 the 4- to 8-cell stage (Braude *et al.* 1988). EGA occurs in bovine embryos by the 8- to 16-  
299 cell stage (Memili & First 2000). In the present study, we attempted to investigate the  
300 expression pattern of DNA repair genes in porcine zygotes before genome activation.  
301 Previously, we showed that sperm freeze-dried in the presence of trehalose showed less  
302 DNA fragmentation than that in the absence of trehalose. However, the rates of oocytes  
303 with two PBs, two PNs (referred as normal fertilization), and blastocyst formation were not  
304 different between two groups (Men *et al.* 2013). Therefore, we speculated that DNA  
305 damage in FD sperm might be repaired through pre- and postreplication repair mechanisms  
306 in oocytes (Genesca *et al.* 1992). This repair capacity depends mainly on the extent of  
307 sperm DNA fragmentation and the cytoplasmic quality of the oocyte. Single strand breaks  
308 (SSBs) could be quickly repaired by oocytes after fertilization, but double strand breaks  
309 (DSBs) could be responsible for chromosome aberrations and loss of genetic materials, thus  
310 the repair of DSBs in oocytes is more difficult than that of SSBs (Enciso *et al.* 2009).

311 The objective of this study initially was to compare the induction of DNA repair  
312 genes in newly fertilized oocytes by ICSI of sperm freeze-dried in the presence or absence  
313 of trehalose because of observed different DNA integrity of two these groups after freeze-  
314 drying. Six candidate genes participating in the repair of various types of DNA damage  
315 were selected and their expressions were analyzed at a given time after fertilization. Three  
316 genes (MGMT, UDG, and XPC) are candidate genes for repair of SSBs; one gene for  
317 mismatch repair (MSH2) and two remaining genes (XRCC6 and RAD51) are for repair of  
318 DSBs. As a result, there were no differences in relative gene expression level of six genes  
319 in sperm injected oocytes at 4 h post-injection and mature oocytes. This means the  
320 expression level of these genes might have already been abundant in the oocytes matured at  
321 the M II stage. Also probably, at 4 h post-injection, these genes have not been induced

322 significantly or the DNA fragmentation of fresh sperm and two types of FD sperm was not  
323 sufficient to induce the differential expression. Harrouk *et al.* (2000) indicated that  
324 fertilization with sperm exposed to a DNA damaging agent alters the expression of DNA  
325 repair genes as early as the 1-cell stage in the rat preimplantation embryo. However, the  
326 expression of DNA repair genes in 1-cell embryos is limited since 1-cell embryos are  
327 completely dependent on maternal proteins for DNA repair. The zygotes may be able to  
328 regulate its repair efficiency only after the first cell division (Harrouk *et al.* 2000).

329         In the genes investigated in this study, MGMT works as DNA methyltransferase  
330 with the function of direct reversal alkylation at the  $O^6$  position of guanine, and it has an  
331 important role to avoid the lethal cross-linking resulting in enhanced resistance to  
332 alkylating agents (Pegg *et al.* 1995). The expression level of MGMT gene was not different  
333 in all groups. UDG gene was expressed abundantly in oocytes and zygotes and revealed a  
334 significantly higher level in the M II oocytes compared with the oocytes at earlier stages.  
335 Similarly, expression level of XPC gene in the M II oocytes was significantly higher than  
336 those in oocytes at the earlier stages. For MSH2 gene, the expression of this gene had an  
337 increased tendency in the M II stage oocytes relative to oocytes at the GV, GVL and M I  
338 stages. Zheng *et al.* (2005) showed that the MSH2 gene was expressed throughout  
339 development from oocytes at the GV stage to hatched blastocyst, with a transient increase  
340 in expression in embryos at the 8-cell and morula stages in non-human primate, and our  
341 data were in agreement with this report. RAD51 is involved in the homologous  
342 recombination pathway of DSBR, and is essential for embryo viability (Zheng *et al.* 2005;  
343 Jaroudi & SenGupta 2007). In the rhesus monkey, this gene was expressed in abundance in  
344 oocytes, but its expression decreased during oocyte maturation and then increased again at  
345 the 8-cell stage (Zheng *et al.* 2005). Unlike observed patterns in the rhesus monkey, our  
346 data in pigs revealed that the expression of RAD51 tends to up-regulate during IVM.

347 According to results of Jaroudi *et al.* (2009), RAD51 and MSH2 were expressed at high  
348 levels in both human oocytes and blastocysts, on the other hand, XRCC6 had medium to  
349 high expression levels in the M II oocytes and blastocysts.

350 In the present study, it could not be neglected that relative expression value of UDG  
351 gene in the M II oocytes in Experiment 1 was almost two-fold lower than those in  
352 Experiment 2. M II oocytes used in Experiment 2 were denuded at 44 h of IVM and  
353 immediately subjected to RNA extraction. The M II oocytes used in Experiment 1 were  
354 also denuded at 44 h of IVM but subjected to RNA extraction at about 2 h later when ICSI  
355 was completed. As mentioned before, this gene showed highly expression in the M II  
356 oocytes in Experiment 2 relative to other genes at 44 h of IVM. It may be possible that  
357 lower expression value of the M II oocytes in Experiment 1 was attributed to age-related  
358 degeneration of some DNA repair mRNAs in oocytes or the expression of this gene reached  
359 peak at 44 h then decreased. This explanation is clearly supported by the fact that the  
360 relative expression of this gene in other groups of Experiment 1 also did not achieve the  
361 similar level of Experiment 2 irrelevant to treatments.

362 There are two possible explanations for the maturational stage-dependent changes  
363 of most of DNA repair genes in IVM oocytes observed in Experiment 2. One possibility is  
364 that during IVM, oocytes have accumulated mRNAs of DNA repair genes being ready for  
365 fertilization. The other possibility is that suboptimal IVM system stressed oocytes and it  
366 might induce up-regulation of these DNA repair genes. The later appears to be a more  
367 satisfactory explanation. Indeed, Jones *et al.* (2008) reported that several genes involved in  
368 many signaling pathways, such as response to stress, cell cycle, cell proliferation, cell  
369 division and cell death and so on, were up-regulated in *in vitro* matured oocytes compared  
370 with *in vivo* matured oocytes, and this up-regulation may attribute to dysregulation  
371 occurring during IVM. Cumulus cells play an essential role in whole process of oocyte



372 growth and maturation; therefore, their gene expression profiles according to IVM  
373 condition have been also investigated in detail (Tesfaye *et al.* 2009; Ouandaogo *et al.* 2012).  
374 In bovine cumulus cells, isolated from *in vitro* matured COCs, genes involved in response  
375 to stress were up-regulated and genes related to cumulus expansion and oocyte maturation  
376 were down-regulated compared with cumulus cells isolated from *in vivo* matured COCs  
377 (Tesfaye *et al.* 2009). Similarly, expression of genes involved in DNA replication,  
378 recombination and repair in human cumulus cells isolated from *in vivo* and *in vitro* matured  
379 COCs at different nuclear maturation stages were up-regulated in cumulus cells after IVM  
380 (Ouandaogo *et al.* 2012).

381         It should be noted that there are so many DNA repair genes and enzymes in the  
382 oocytes and zygotes in addition to those examined in the present study. Expression level of  
383 these genes may depend on unknown cellular signals related to normal development or  
384 delayed development in the oocytes injected with sperm that have various types or levels of  
385 DNA damage. The expression of those genes depends on embryo development stage and/or  
386 influenced by many other unknown factors.

387         In conclusions, the present study revealed that expression of DNA repair genes in  
388 fertilized oocytes at 4 h after ICSI using fresh sperm, FD sperm in the presence or absence  
389 of trehalose was not different. Likewise, no difference was observed in the expression of  
390 DNA repair genes between the sperm injected groups and the M II oocyte group without  
391 sperm injection. On the other hand, during IVM, the expression of XPC was significantly  
392 increased in the M II oocytes compared with earlier stages. The expression of UDG was  
393 significantly increased from the GV through GVL, M I and M II stages. Further  
394 experiments are needed to confirm whether increased expression levels of DNA repair  
395 genes in oocytes are caused by suboptimal IVM conditions or their accumulation. If  
396 increased level of DNA repair genes is confirmed to be caused by IVM conditions, the

397 efficient improvement of IVM system can be achieved based on expression profile of DNA  
398 repair genes.

399

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407

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**Table 1.** Repairable DNA damage type, proper functions, accession number and primer sequence of six investigated genes

Genes symbol	Full name	DNA damage type	Proper function	References
MGMT	O-6-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase	Direct reversal: alkylated guanine	Removes alkylating lesions at the O6 of guanine residues	Wood <i>et al.</i> 2001; Jaroudi <i>et al.</i> 2009
UDG	Uracil -DNA glycosylase	Single strand break (Base)	DNA glycostylase, recognize and remove uracil opposite A	Harrouk <i>et al.</i> 2000; Wood <i>et al.</i> 2001; Zheng <i>et al.</i> 2005; Jaroudi <i>et al.</i> 2009
XPC	Xeroderma pigmentosum, complementation group C	Single strand break (Nucleotide)	DNA binding	Harrouk <i>et al.</i> 2000; Wood <i>et al.</i> 2001; Zheng <i>et al.</i> 2005;
MSH2	mutS homolog 2, colon cancer	Mispairing	Mismatch and loop recognition	Harrouk <i>et al.</i> 2000; Wood <i>et al.</i> 2001; Zheng <i>et al.</i> 2005; Jaroudi <i>et al.</i> 2009
XRCC6	X-ray repair cross-complementing 6	Double strand break	Non-homologous end joining	Jaroudi <i>et al.</i> 2009
RAD51	Sus scrofa RAD51 homolog (S.cerevisiae)	Double strand break	Homologous recombination	Wood <i>et al.</i> 2001; Zheng <i>et al.</i> 2005; Jaroudi <i>et al.</i> 2009
$\alpha$ TUB	Alpha tubulin	–	Reference gene	

**Table 2.** Repairable DNA damage type, proper functions, accession number and primer sequence of six investigated genes

Gene symbol	Genebank accession no.	Primers	Product Size (bp)
MGMT Direct Reversal	XM_003483574	F/acttgcaggtccagaggaga R/tgcagcagcttcataacac	168
UDG Base excision repair	XM_003132925	F/cagctccgtcaagaagatcc R/gctgaggtgcttctccaac	175
XPC Nucleotide excision repair	AF041032	F/atccgacgaagattctgagc R/tcttcttgccctcttacgc	179
MSH2 Mismatch repair	NM_001195357	F/tggtccaatatgggaggta R/catttcagccatgaatgtgg	184
XRCC6 Non-homologous end-joining	NM_001190185 XR_045703	F/aacggaaggtgcctttact R/cttttagccattgcctcagc	223
RAD51 Homologous recombination	NM_001123181	F/attctgaccgaggcagctaa R/atgggaagctggcatgttac	224
$\alpha$ TUB* Cell cycle	NM_001044544	F/tggaccacaagtttgacctgatg R/gtcctcacgggcctcagaaa	101

\*indicate endogenous reference gene



**Table 3.** Decondensation status of sperm head at 4 h post-injection (3 h after electric activation)

Treatment	No of examined oocytes	Oocyte with decondensed sperm head (%)	Oocyte with 2PB+2PN (%)
Fresh	108	62.49 ± 9.97	12.80 ± 5.29
Tre 0 mmol/L	123	71.53 ± 10.39	8.86 ± 5.21
Tre 15 mmol/L	130	67.23 ± 6.61	20.44 ± 6.10

Data were presented as mean ± SEM of 5 replicates. PB; polar bodies, PN; pronucleus(ei), Fresh; ejaculated fresh sperm

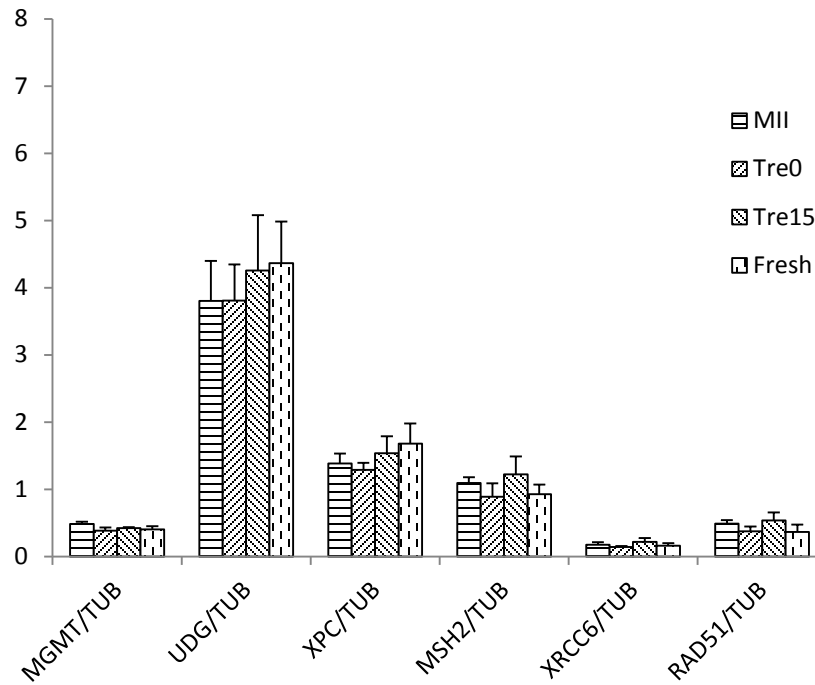
Tre 0 mmol/L; sperm freeze-dried in basic freeze-drying medium without trehalose

Tre 15 mmol/L; sperm freeze-dried in basic freeze-drying medium supplemented with 15 mmol/L trehalose

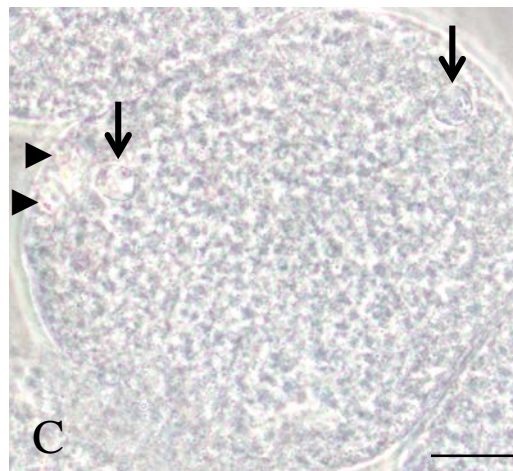
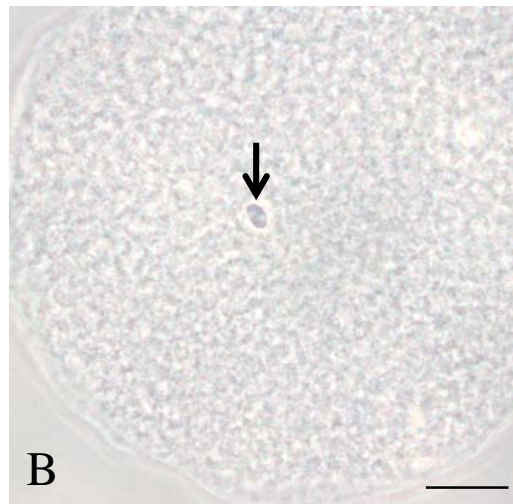
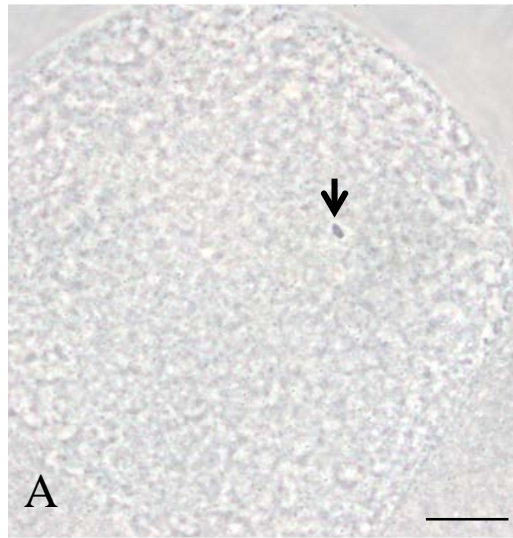
**Table 4.** Nuclear status of oocytes assessed by staining at different maturational stages

Time of IVM (h)	No of oocyte examined	Maturational stages			
		No (%) GV	No (%) GVL	No (%) M I	No (%) M II
0	120	120 (100 ± 0.0)	–	–	–
20	122	–	122 (100 ± 0.0)	–	–
33	116	–	5 (4.3 ± 0.3)	111 (95.7 ± 0.3)	#
44	309	–	–	118 (38.2 ± 0.9)	191 (61.8 ± 0.9)

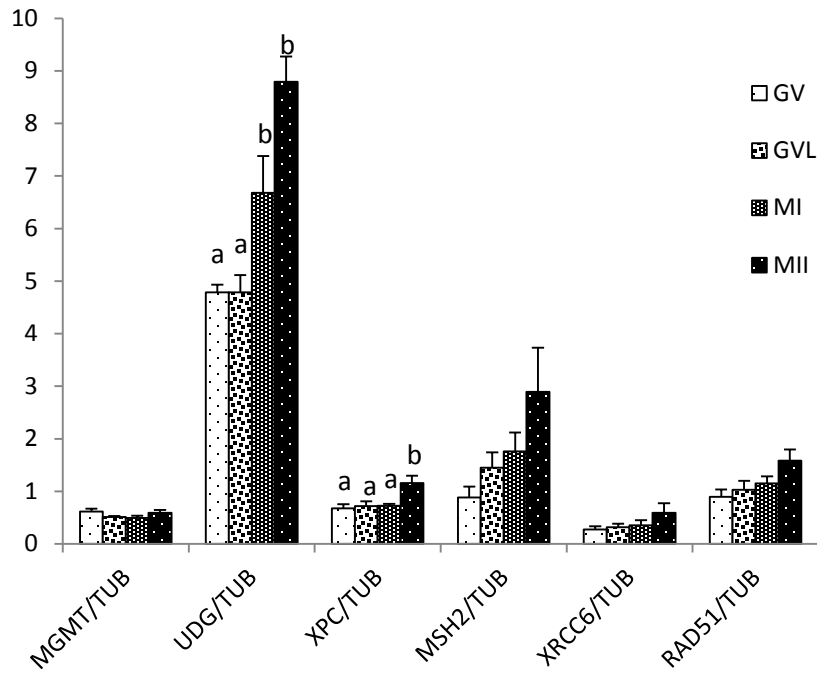
GV; germinal vesicle, GVL; late germinal vesicle, M I; metaphase I and M II; metaphase II stages. #: at 33 h of IVM, M II oocytes were removed by observation (5.3%) before staining



**Figure 1** Relative gene expression of six DNA repair genes in oocytes at 4 h after ICSI. (Data were obtained from 3 biological samples with duplicate)



**Fig. 2.** Decondensation status and PN formation of sperm at 4 h after ICSI. Intact sperm head and decondensed sperm head (arrows in A and B, respectively). Newly formed female (left) and male (right) pronuclei (arrows in C). The first (upper) and second (lower) polar bodies (arrowheads in C). Scale bar = 20  $\mu$ m.



**Figure 3** Relative gene expression of six DNA repair genes in oocytes at different maturational stages. (Data were obtained from 3 biological samples with duplicate; <sup>a, b</sup> different superscripts in each gene show significant difference,  $P < 0.05$ )