



Pre- and post-puberty expression of genes and proteins in the uterus of *Bos indicus* heifers: the luteal phase effect post-puberty

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Summary

Progesterone signaling and uterine function are crucial in terms of pregnancy establishment. To investigate how the uterine tissue and its secretion changes in relation to puberty, we sampled tissue and uterine fluid from six pre- and six post-pubertal Brahman heifers. Post-pubertal heifers were sampled in the luteal phase. Gene expression of the uterine tissue was investigated with RNA-sequencing, whereas the uterine fluid was used for protein profiling with mass spectrometry. A total of 4034 genes were differentially expressed (DE) at a nominal *P*-value of 0.05, and 26 genes were significantly DE after Bonferroni correction ($P < 3.1 \times 10^{-6}$). We also identified 79 proteins (out of 230 proteins) that were DE ($P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$) in the uterine fluid. When we compared proteomics and transcriptome results, four DE proteins were identified as being encoded by DE genes: *OVGP1*, *GRP*, *CAP1* and *HBA*. Except for *CAP1*, the other three had lower expression post-puberty. The function of these four genes hypothetically related to preparation of the uterus for a potential pregnancy is discussed in the context of puberty. All DE genes and proteins were also used in pathway and ontology enrichment analyses to investigate overall function. The DE genes were enriched for terms related to ribosomal activity. Transcription factors that were deemed key regulators of DE genes are also reported. Transcription factors *ZNF567*, *ZNF775*, *RELA*, *PIAS2*, *LHX4*, *SOX2*, *MEF2C*, *ZNF354C*, *HMG20A*, *TCF7L2*, *ZNF420*, *HIC1*, *GTF3A* and two novel genes had the highest regulatory impact factor scores. These data can help to understand how puberty influences uterine function.

Keywords beef cattle, RNA-sequencing, gene expression, genetics, proteomics

Introduction

The pre-pubertal uterus is considered less able to support embryonic or fetal development in gilts, as it has been

reported to lead to pregnancy loss in embryo transfer experiments (Henning & Davis 2003). In the cow, lower circulating progesterone concentrations have been associated with a uterine environment with reduced ability to sustain conceptus elongation and therefore pregnancy (Forde *et al.* 2011a). As embryo implantation is related to uterine receptivity, it is important to characterize the uterine environment at the molecular level.

Previous studies have investigated the endometrial transcriptome of cows in early pregnancy and cyclic conditions. In early pregnancy, endometrial gene expression was found to be independent of conceptus presence until maternal recognition, which occurs on day 15–16 in cattle (Forde

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et al. 2011b). The endometrial transcriptome of heifers was found to be sensitive to cyclic variation and circulating progesterone concentrations (Forde *et al.* 2011a). Together, this evidence suggests that preparation for pregnancy occurs independently from the presence of the conceptus, as a natural part of the uterine changes during the estrous cycle. Preparation for pregnancy is primarily a response to progesterone signaling. To further understand this mechanism, we posed the question: what is the difference in transcriptome profile and uterine secretion between heifers that have never experienced progesterone signaling (those with pre-pubertal status) and heifers that are experiencing progesterone signaling as they enter reproductive life (post-puberty)?

The uterine fluid composition changes with the estrous cycle, presumably in preparation for pregnancy. The abundance of proteins in uterine fluid changes mostly in the luteal (or progesterone-driven) phase of the cycle (Soleilhavoup *et al.* 2016). The uterine fluid composition also changes before implantation of the conceptus (Forde *et al.* 2014). In this study, uterine fluid composition was explored using mass spectrometry methods. The objective of this study was to investigate the effect of pubertal transition and the related progesterone impact on uterus gene expression and secreted proteins in uterine fluid using transcriptomics and proteomics to compare pre-pubertal and post-pubertal cycling *Bos indicus* heifers.

Materials and methods

Animal management and puberty observation

Management, handling and euthanasia of animals were approved by the Animal Ethics Committee of The University of Queensland, Production and Companion Animal group (certificate number QAAFI/279/12). A total of 20 Brahman heifers, which were not pedigreed animals but had a characteristic *B. indicus* phenotype and were typical beef industry animals, were sourced from two commercial herds in Queensland, Australia, as weaners (<250 kg) and kept at grazing conditions at the University of Queensland Gatton Campus facilities. The heifers were all kept under the same grazing conditions.

Heifers were examined every fortnight from October 2012 to May 2013 for physical indications of puberty. Ovarian activity was observed using ultrasonography [HS-2000(VET), Honda Electronics Inc.]. Pubertal status was defined by presence of a corpus luteum (CL) observed using ultrasound (Johnston *et al.* 2009). Euthanasia was carried out by stunning with a captive bolt followed by exsanguination. Euthanasia plans were based on date of first CL observation. Six heifers were pre-pubertal and six heifers were post-pubertal at euthanasia. When a post-pubertal heifer was identified, it was paired with a pre-pubertal heifer that was randomly drawn from the remaining animals and

processed on the same day. Post-pubertal heifers were euthanized while in the luteal phase of their second estrous cycle, confirmed by the presence of a CL on ovarian tissue post euthanasia. Progesterone measurements were also carried as detailed before (Fortes *et al.* 2016), and concentrations of progesterone were 0.4 ± 0.2 ng/ml for pre-pubertal heifers and 2.0 ± 0.7 ng/ml for post-pubertal heifers.

Sample harvesting

Post-euthanasia, the entire uterus and oviduct were identified and dissected. A mixture of oviduct and uterine fluid samples were obtained by micro-perfusion with PBS flushing (at 37 °C) on the initial portion of both (right and left) infundibulum. The fluid was collected by suction in the medial portion of the uterine horn. The oviduct and uterine fluid were combined in clean tubes and subjected to centrifugation at 700 **g** for 10 min (at 4 °C) to separate fluid from cells. The supernatant was further centrifuged at 10 000 **g** for 60 min at 4 °C, divided into aliquots and kept at –80 °C until proteomics analyses. For transcriptomics, a biopsy of uterine tissue containing the endometrial layer was collected from the tip of the right and left horn in approximation of the junction with the isthmus, preserved by snap freezing in liquid nitrogen and then kept at –80 °C until RNA extraction. Biopsies were taken after micro-perfusion flushing of the uterine fluid, and the vast majority of cells in the sample were from the uterine tissue (not the fluid). Biopsies were taken from the uterine proximal portion, as close as possible to the utero–tubal junction. In post-pubertal heifers, the biopsies were taken from this same proximal portion in the uterine horn that was ipsilateral to the CL observed. RNA expression of the tissue, not the fluid, was captured in the RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) experiment.

Proteomics mass spectrometry and data analysis

For proteomics, we used all 12 animals described in the experiment—six pre-pubertal heifers and six post-pubertal heifers—as biological replicates. To prepare the samples for mass spectrometry proteomics, oviduct and uterine fluid containing approximately 50 µg of protein was pipetted into Protein LoBind tubes (Eppendorf) containing a solution with a final concentration of 0.5% SDS, 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer pH 8 and 10 mM DTT. Samples were incubated at 95 °C for 20 min to denature the proteins and break disulphide bonds. Samples were cooled to room temperature, alkylated by addition of acrylamide to a final concentration of 25 mM and incubated at room temperature for 1 h to block the reformation of disulphide bridges. Samples were precipitated by addition of 4 volumes of 1:1 methanol:acetone followed by incubation at –20 °C for 16 h. After 10 min of centrifugation at 16 000 **g**, the protein pellet was dried and resuspended in 100 µl of 50 mM NH₄HCO₃, and

proteins were proteolytically digested by addition of 1 µg of trypsin (Sigma) at 37 °C with agitation for 18 h. Insoluble material was pelleted at 16 000 *g* for 1 min, and soluble peptides were desalted using C₁₈ ZipTips (Millipore) and resuspended in 9.25% acetonitrile and 0.1% formic acid. Desalted peptides were analyzed by liquid chromatography electrospray ionization tandem mass spectrometry with a TripleTOF 5600 instrument (SCIEX), as previously described (Xu *et al.* 2015), except that a 70-min LC gradient was used to separate the peptides. Proteins were identified from Information Dependent Acquisition analysis of one randomly chosen case sample and one randomly chosen control sample with PROTEINPILOT v5.0.1 (SCIEX), searching against a database of proteins (downloaded from Uniprot on 28 March 2016) with a total of 43 813 entries assigned to *B. taurus* and which also included bovine viruses for thoroughness (a total of 6870 reviewed entries from Swiss-prot and 36 948 unreviewed entries from TrEMBL). Uniprot contains only 1310 entries assigned to *B. indicus* (49 reviewed entries from Swiss-prot and 1261 entries from TrEMBL), and no *B. indicus* proteome is available. For the purpose of analysis, a more complete proteome was required, and thus *B. taurus* was chosen, given that genome sequence differences between the two subspecies would not affect the overall protein quantification process. Sequential window acquisition of all theoretical mass spectra (SWATH-MS) relative quantitative proteomics (Gillet *et al.* 2012) data were analyzed with PEAKVIEW v2.1 (SCIEX). Statistical analyses and Gene Ontology (GO) analyses were performed using MSSTATS and GOSTATS in R, as previously described (Zacchi & Schulz 2016), using an in-house-designed Python script to include entries from TrEMBL. MSSTATS fits linear mixed models and reports adjusted and unadjusted *P*-values considering multiple testing (Choi *et al.* 2014). The proteomics dataset is available from the data repository known as Pride (submission reference: 1-20180401-140710).

RNA extraction and sequencing

Total RNA was isolated separately from ~30 mg of the homogenized uterine tissue samples from pre- and post-pubertal heifers. Tissue samples were added to 1 ml of TRIzol reagent (Sigma-Aldrich) with a QIAshredder homogenizer (QIAGEN Pty, Ltd.). Homogenized samples were added to 200 µl of chloroform (Sigma-Aldrich), mixed vigorously by hand and allowed to stand for 5 min at room temperature. This was followed by centrifugation at 14 000 *g* for 10 min at 4 °C. The aqueous layer with RNA was transferred to a new tube, and 200 µl of ethanol (100%; Chem-supply) was added. The sample mixture with ethanol was transferred to an RNeasy mini column, and RNA purification followed the kit's protocol (QIAGEN Pty, Ltd.). Sample concentrations were measured with a Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) with an optimal 260/280 ratio between 1.8 and 2.1. Sample quality was confirmed using RNA integrity number (RIN) values verified with a Bioanalyser (Agilent Technologies, Inc.). All samples passed quality control, with RINs ranging from 6.6 to 8.4 and an average A260/A230 ratio of around 1.95, indicating RNA of sufficient quality for our analyses (Gallego Romero *et al.* 2014). cDNA libraries for each sample were made using an Illumina TrueSeq stranded mRNA Sample Preparation Kit (Illumina). This kit uses poly-T oligo attached magnetic beads, which select for RNA with a poly-A tail—mostly mRNA but also a subset of non-coding RNA. Sequencing was performed on a HiSeq 2000 Sequencer Analyzer (Illumina), following standard methods (Fortes *et al.* 2016). The UMD3.1 reference assembly for the bovine genome (release 77; ftp://ftp.ensembl.org/pub/release-77/genbank/bos_taurus/) was used to guide sequence assembly, performed with CLC workbench software (CLC Bio). The same software was used for quality control of sequence data and calculation of RPKM (reads per kilo base per million mapped reads) per gene (Mortazavi *et al.* 2008; Cánovas *et al.* 2013). By normalizing for RNA length and total reads in each sample, the RPKM measure facilitates comparisons of gene expression levels across samples (Mortazavi *et al.* 2008). FASTQC-project protocols were used (<http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/>). Sequence-read lengths and base coverage, nucleotide contributions and base ambiguities were considered in the analyses, as described before (Cánovas *et al.* 2014a, 2014b). A threshold of RPKM greater than 0.2 was used to select genes expressed in the samples (Wickramasinghe *et al.* 2012). Samples analyzed passed all the quality control parameters, and we were able to continue with data mining, described as follows.

The RNA sequence data are freely available and can be retrieved from the BioSamples data portal: <https://www.ebi.ac.uk/biosamples/samples?text=SAMEA104618936>. Biosamples identifiers are: SAMEA104618936, SAMEA104618947, SAMEA104618901, SAMEA104618921, SAMEA104618958, SAMEA104618907, SAMEA104618919, SAMEA104618915, SAMEA104618894, SAMEA104618939, SAMEA104618932 and SAMEA104618923. This dataset is publically available through the Functional Annotation of Animal Genomes (FAANG) initiative (<http://data.faanng.org/home>).

Normalization of RNA-seq data

In the present study, we applied a base-2 log transformation of the RPKM reads. The log transformation helps to stabilize the variance of RPKM values, an issue of critical importance as differential expression of particularly low counts can be easily biased without transformation (Bullard *et al.* 2010). We then adopted methodology initially proposed for the normalization of gene expression microarray intensity signals and based on mixed model linear equations (Byrne

et al. 2005; Norris *et al.* 2005; Reverter *et al.* 2005). Accordingly, we fitted the following mixed effect model to the log-transformed RPKM values:

$$Y_{ijkp} = \mu + L_i + G_j + GA_{jk} + GP_{ip} + e_{ijkp},$$

where Y_{ijkp} represents the base-2 log-transformed RPKM value from the i th library (with 72 levels), the j th gene (with 16 973 levels) of the k th animal (with 12 levels) in the p th physiological state (pre- and post-puberty); μ is the overall mean; L_i represents the fixed effect of the i th library; G_j represents the random effect of the j th gene; GA and GP represent the random interaction effects of the gene \times animal and gene \times physiological states respectively; and e_{ijkp} is the residual term associated with the measurement in Y_{ijkp} . Using standard stochastic assumptions, the effects of G , GA , GP and e were assumed to follow a normal distribution with a zero mean and between-gene, between-gene within animal, between-gene within-physiological state and within-gene components of variance respectively. Restricted maximum likelihood estimates of variance components and solutions to model effects were obtained using *vce6* software (<ftp://ftp.tzv.fal.de/pub/vce6/>). The linear combination of solutions $G + GA + GP$ was used to obtain the normalized mean expression of each gene in each of the samples under scrutiny. Following normalization, we used a t -test to compare averages of pre-pubertal and post-pubertal heifers and identify differentially expressed (DE) genes ($P < 0.05$).

Identification of key transcription factors

The regulatory impact factor (RIF) metrics described by Reverter *et al.* (2010) were used to identify the transcription factors (TFs) with the highest evidence of contributing to differential expression in the two physiological states: pre- and post-puberty. Herein, the experimental contrast was pre- vs. post-puberty. We used all known TFs in the RIF metrics for the i th regulator ($i = 1, 2, \dots, 1085$) and estimated RIF values using the following formulae:

$$\text{RIF1}_i = \frac{1}{n_{\text{de}}} \sum_{j=1}^{j=n_{\text{de}}} \hat{a}_j \times \hat{d}_j \times \text{DC}_{ij}^2$$

and

$$\text{RIF2}_i = \frac{1}{n_{\text{de}}} \sum_{j=1}^{j=n_{\text{de}}} [(e1_j \times r1_{ij})^2 - (e2_j \times r2_{ij})^2],$$

where n_{de} is the number of DE genes; \hat{a}_j is the estimated average expression of the j th DE gene, averaged across the two conditions being contrasted (pre- and post-puberty) and computed as $\hat{a}_j = (e1_j - e2_j)/2$, where $e1_j$ and $e2_j$ represent the expression of the j th DE genes in conditions 1 (pre-puberty) and 2 (post-puberty) respectively; \hat{d}_j is the estimated differential expression of the j th DE gene and

computed as $\hat{d}_j = e1_j - e2_j$; and DC is the differential correlation between the i th TF and the j th DE gene and is computed from the difference between $r1_{ij}$ and $r2_{ij}$, the co-expression correlation between the i th TF and the j th DE gene in conditions 1 (pre-puberty) and 2 (post-puberty) respectively.

In practical terms, RIF1 captures TFs showing differential connectivity (i.e. differential wiring of the network) to abundant genes showing differential expression between pre- and post-puberty, whereas RIF2 focuses on TFs that showed evidence as predictors of change in abundance of genes with differential expression between pre- and post-puberty. Using a nominal threshold, $P < 0.05$, a TF was deemed as a key TF if either of the two RIF scores was greater than 1.96 SD.

Functional enrichment analysis

Enrichment analyses of GO terms were performed using 4034 DE genes ($P < 0.05$) as target gene lists and the genes expressed in these tissues (16 973 genes) as a background list. The biological terms enriched for DE genes were identified using the Database for Annotation, Visualization, and Integrated Discovery (DAVID) functional annotation chart (Huang *et al.* 2009). Significant GO terms and pathways after Benjamini-Hochberg correction are reported.

Enrichment analyses for proteomics results were also carried out. GO analyses were performed using *MSSTATS* and *GOSTATS* in R as previously described (Zacchi & Schulz 2016).

Results

Differentially expressed proteins

In total, 260 proteins were identified by IDA LC-MS/MS (Table S1) using *PROTEINPILOT* (SCIEX), of which 258 were identified with a 1% global false discovery rate. The uterine fluid proteome was qualitatively very similar to serum, with highly abundant proteins including serum albumin, complement proteins, serotransferrin and alpha-2-macroglobulin (Wiktorowicz & Soman 2016; Moulder *et al.* 2017; Kuscuoglu *et al.* 2018). One of the most confidently identified proteins, and clearly distinct from the serum proteome, was the oviduct-specific glycoprotein (Q28042), encoded by the *OVGP1* gene. Of the proteins identified, 230 were quantified by SWATH-MS relative quantitative proteomic analysis. Proteins were either higher ($n = 118$) or lower ($n = 112$) in abundance when pre- and post-pubertal animals were compared (Fig. 1). After adjusting the P -value for multiple testing, 79 proteins were found to be DE ($P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$). The expression of 35 of these proteins was lower in post-pubertal heifers, whereas for 44 it was higher. From the adjusted P -values, four DE proteins were also DE genes in the RNA-seq data: *OVGP1*, *GRP*, *CAP1* and *HBA* (Table 1). Data on the 230 proteins analyzed is provided in Table S2.

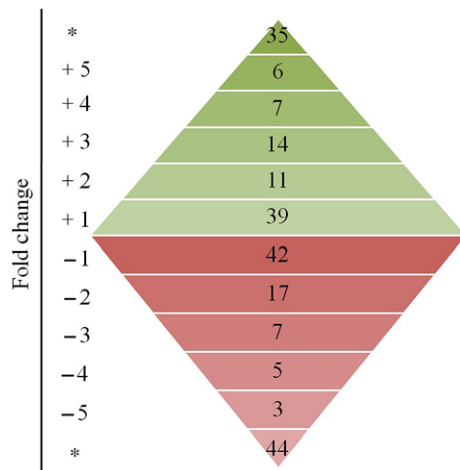


Figure 1 Distribution of uterine fluid proteins with different fold change in the comparison between six pre-pubertal heifers, which had no previous experience of a luteal phase, and six post-pubertal heifers in the luteal phase. Proteins that were higher in pre-pubertal heifers are marked in green; proteins that were lower are marked in pink. Numbers represent the numbers of proteins identified according to fold change. *The number of proteins that were differentially expressed ($P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$).

From the two groups of higher and lower DE proteins, we identified 18 significant enriched GO terms ($P < 0.01$) as shown in Fig. 2. The difference between the pre- and post-pubertal uterine fluid can be summarized as the presence of extracellular proteins (secreted) or intracellular proteins; these were some of the most significant GO terms.

Differentially expressed genes

Data normalization of RPKM values of 0.2 or higher identified 16 973 genes expressed in the uterus. Of these expressed genes, 4034 genes were DE in post-pubertal heifers ($P < 0.05$) when compared to the pre-pubertal heifers (Table S3). A heat map illustrating the hierarchical clustering of the 4034 DE genes between pre- and post-pubertal groups validated the optimality of data normalization in this study (Fig. 3). After Bonferroni correction, 26 genes were found to be significantly DE ($P < 3.1 \times 10^{-6}$). The genes that were DE and had an absolute fold change higher than 3 are highlighted in a volcano plot (Fig. 4). The most significant DE gene was *EDAR*.

Enrichment analyses of GO terms were performed using the 4034 DE genes as a target gene list and the genes expressed in these tissues (16 973 genes) as a background list. The biological terms enriched for DE genes were identified using the DAVID functional annotation chart (Huang da *et al.* 2009). After correction for multiple testing, DE genes in the uterus were enriched for 11 GO terms (Table S4). The GO terms included mostly terms related to ribosome and ribosomal activity. The target DE genes were also enriched for two KEGG pathways: Ribosome and Cell Adhesion Molecules (CAMs).

Key regulatory genes

Using the RIF metrics, we identified 100 significant top-ranking TFs ($P < 0.05$) in the uterus (Table S5). Of these 100 TF, 19 were also DE genes (Table 2). Twenty-five of the expressed genes encoded for TFs of the zinc finger family. Of these 25 zinc finger TFs, two (*ZNF146* and *ZNF84*) were lower in expression at puberty ($P < 0.05$), one (*ZNF367*) was higher at puberty ($P < 0.05$) and the remaining were not DE. Transcription factors *ZNF567*, *ZNF775*, *RELA*, *PIAS2*, *LHX4*, *SOX2* and a novel gene had the highest RIF1 scores (>3 SD units) in the uterus. For RIF2, *MEF2C*, *ZNF354C*, *HMG20A*, *TCF7L2*, *ZNF420*, *HIC1*, *GTF3A* and a novel gene had the highest RIF2 scores (>2 SD units). Here we use the term ‘novel genes’ in reference to features identified as genes in the bovine genome that have yet to receive a name and an official symbol in NCBI. Together, proteomics and transcriptomics data serve as evidence for puberty being a complex, polygenetic process, regulated by multiple TFs.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to compare gene expression in the uterus and protein expression in uterine fluid of pre- and post-pubertal heifers using transcriptomic and proteomic approaches. The post-pubertal heifers were euthanized in the luteal phase of the cycle, and thus it was expected that the presence of progesterone would impact the expression of genes and abundance of proteins, as previously described in ewes (Soleilhavoup *et al.* 2016).

Four genes—*OVGP1*, *GRP*, *CAP1* and *HBA*—were identified as being significantly DE in the transcriptome and in

Table 1 Genes and proteins that were differentially expressed between 6 pre- and 6 post-pubertal samples according to both proteomics and transcriptomics approaches.

UNIPROT accession	log2FC	Adj. <i>P</i> -value	Gene	Gene name	DE RNA-seq	<i>t</i> -test <i>P</i> -value
Q28042	-0.67	1.0×10^{-16}	<i>OVGP1</i>	<i>Oviductal glycoprotein 1</i>	-1.11	2.0×10^{-2}
Q863C3	-2.47	1.0×10^{-16}	<i>GRP</i>	<i>Gastrin-releasing peptide</i>	-1.96	1.5×10^{-4}
Q3SYV4	0.56	1.0×10^{-16}	<i>CAP1</i>	<i>Cyclase associated actin cytoskeleton regulatory protein 1</i>	0.31	7.6×10^{-3}
P01966	-0.8	1.0×10^{-16}	<i>HBA</i>	<i>Hemoglobin alpha 2</i>	-2.35	1.7×10^{-2}

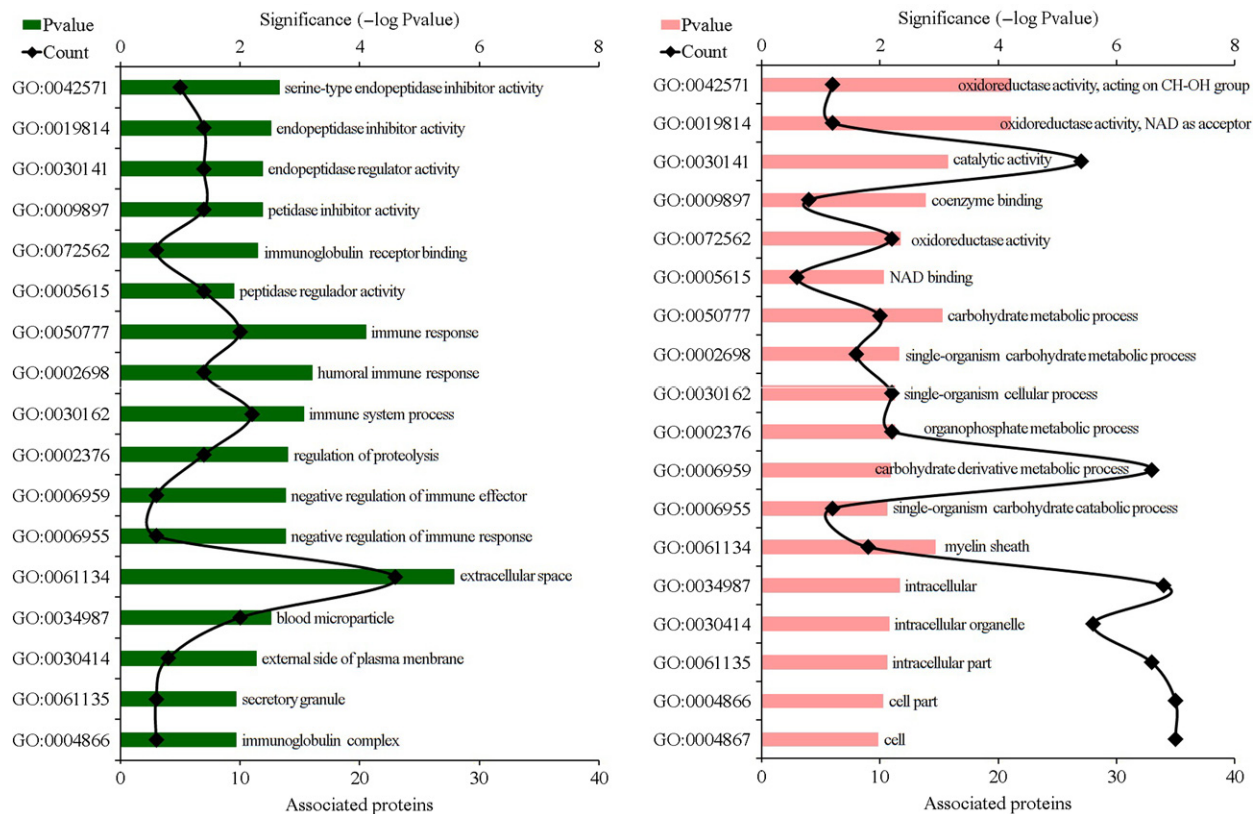


Figure 2 Enriched Gene Ontology (GO) terms (bars, $P > 0.01$) and number of proteins (count) related to each GO term (lines) present in the uterine fluid sampled of pre-pubertal heifers and post pubertal heifers. GO terms associated with proteins that were lower in post-pubertal heifers are marked in green; GO terms associated with proteins that were higher are marked in pink. These comparisons considered six pre-pubertal heifers and six post-pubertal heifers.

the proteome comparisons. OVGPI is an oviduct specific glycoprotein that has been observed to be less abundant in the luteal phase in sheep compared to the estrus phase (Soleilhavoup *et al.* 2016). Identified as DE by two approaches in our experiment and by mass spectrometry in the ewe experiment, OVGPI is an interesting target for further investigation of puberty and its role in the uterus of ruminants. In other mammals this glycoprotein has been reported to be critical for sperm-egg interactions and fertility (Lyng & Shur 2009; Yang *et al.* 2015). The abundance of proteins in the uterine fluid is a sum of secretory activity from oviduct and uterine cells and cells of the immune system (Lee *et al.* 2015). OVGPI is a large, carbohydrate-rich, epithelial glycoprotein that is expressed in uterine tissues from late follicular development through early embryonic development, being downregulated when exposed to lipopolysaccharide challenge in an infection model (Ibrahim *et al.* 2015). Other proteins that were DE in their abundance may be part of the immune system operating in the uterus.

GRP has been reported to be IFNT (interferon-tau)-stimulated and influenced by progesterone signaling in sheep (Song *et al.* 2008). This evidence seems contrary to our results, as we found a lower expression of GRP and its

protein in post-pubertal animals. It is possible that progesterone alone, without IFNT stimulation, leads to lower levels of GRP expression in post-pubertal cattle, a hypothesis that merits further investigation. Changes in GRP expression in the cow endometrium during the estrus cycle have also been reported (Mitko *et al.* 2008). It is also important to note that GRP produces a number of peptides with varying biological activity (Giraud *et al.* 2010). One of its peptides, oGRP1-46, seems to play a crucial role during embryo implantation in sheep (Giraud *et al.* 1994, 2010).

The expression of the protein encoded by *CAP1* has been observed in the uterine fluid of pregnant cows, and the transcriptomics profile suggests a higher mRNA abundance in the conceptus (Forde *et al.* 2014). In studied heifers, *CAP1* has been detected as a DE gene and the associated protein has been found in higher abundance in the post-pubertal luteal phase. Therefore, *CAP1* may be secreted by uterine cells to prepare the uterus environment for a potential pregnancy in cattle.

HBA (*hemoglobin alpha 2*) is the fourth DE gene that was also found to be significant in the proteomics experiment and is recognized for its function in basic oxygen transport. Recently, it has emerged that epithelial cells, including cells of the reproductive tract, also express hemoglobin genes

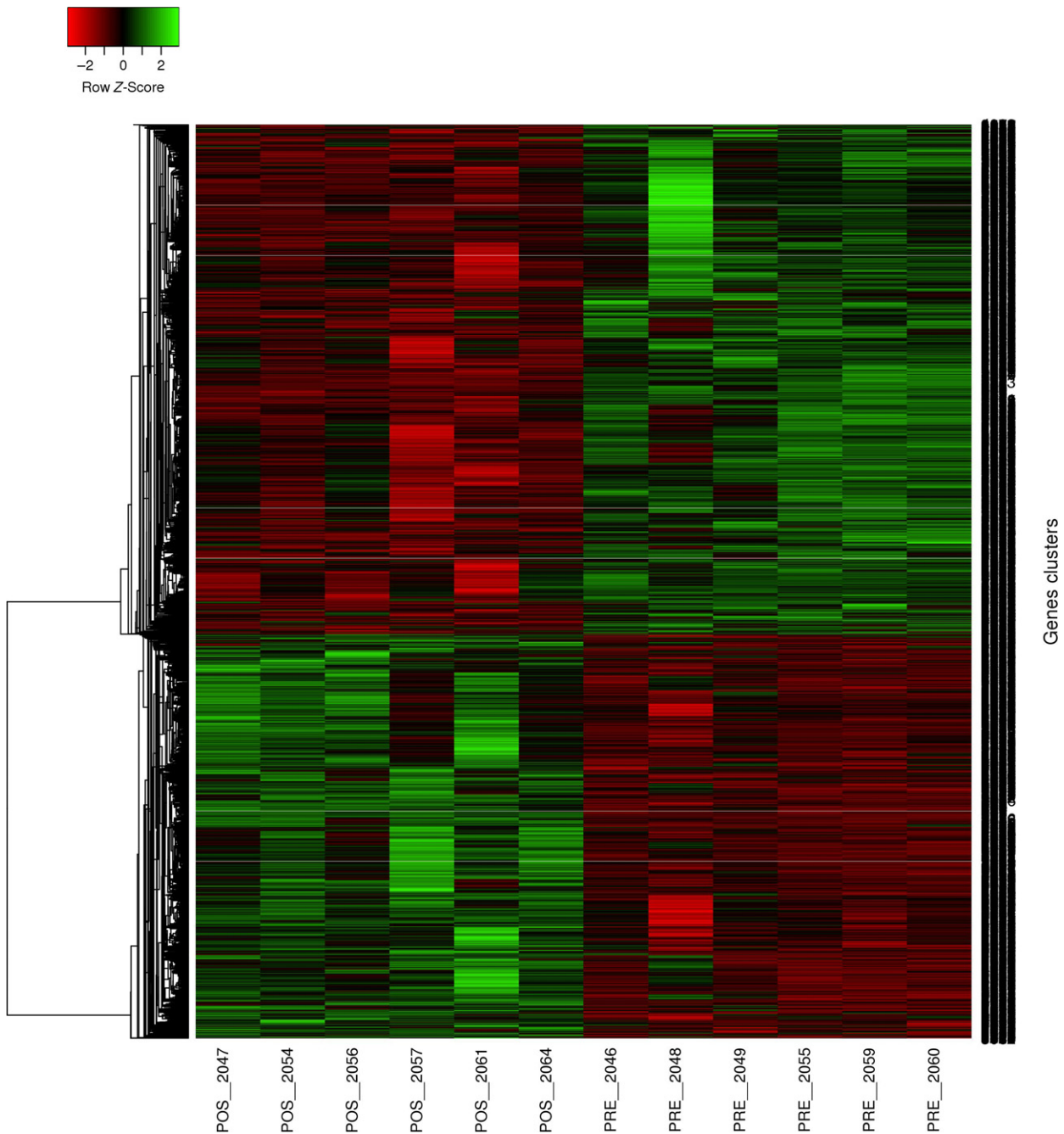


Figure 3 Heat map representing the hierarchical clustering of differentially expressed (DE) genes in the uterus tissue between pre- and post-pubertal Brahman heifers. Unsupervised hierarchical clustering heat map used Pearson correlation and centroid linkage. A total of 4034 DE genes were analysed and visualized. Expression level is color coded: red for under-expressed genes, black for unchanged expression and green for over-expressed genes. The y-axis represents gene clusters, and the x-axis represents physiological states and samples, POS meaning post-puberty and PRE meaning pre-puberty.

(Saha *et al.* 2017). It has been speculated that its function in epithelia may be to protect tissues from oxidative stress-induced inflammation. In a study of endometritis in Korean cattle, hemoglobin beta gene expression was undetectable in endometritis samples compared to normal controls, further pointing to a potential role in epithelial immune

system regulation in the reproductive tract (Choe *et al.* 2010).

These four genes emerged as related to proteins that are differentially abundant, possibly as a direct result of variation in mRNA expression. The DE genes and proteins reported herein may play a role in preparing or maturing

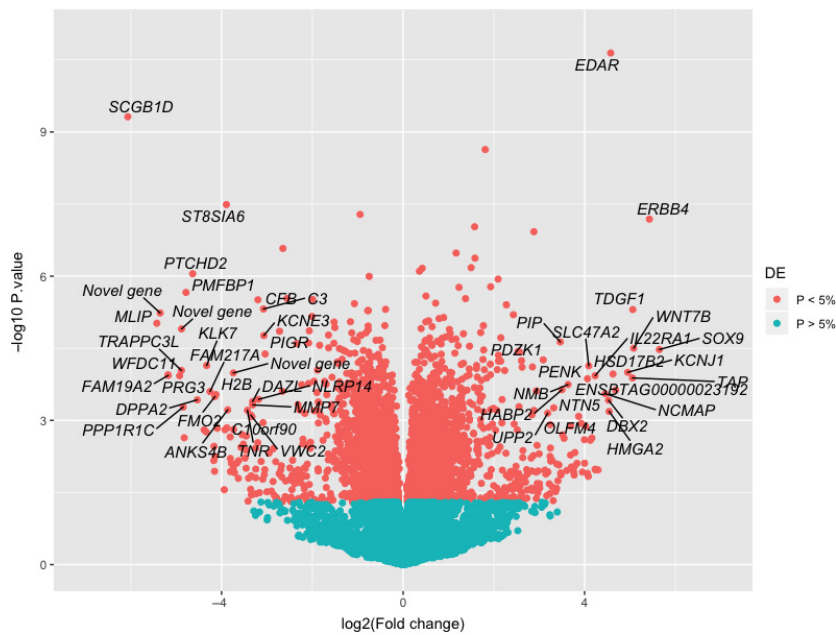


Figure 4 Volcano plot with gene expression results for the uterus samples. Log 2-fold changes are represented on the x-axis and $-\log_{10} P$ -values are represented on the y-axis. Differentially expressed (DE) genes are highlighted in red, and gene symbols are shown for genes with an absolute fold change higher than 3. These comparisons considered six pre-pubertal heifers and six post-pubertal heifers.

Table 2 Transcription factors that were differentially expressed (DE) in the uterus of six pre- vs. six post-pubertal heifers and deemed significant regulators according to the regulatory impact factor metrics (RIF1 and RIF2).

Gene	Symbol	DE	P-value	RIF1	RIF2	Gene name
ENSBTAG00000013895	RELA	-0.27	1.5×10^{-2}	-3.12	-0.11	RELA proto-oncogene, NF- κ B subunit
ENSBTAG00000014738	HOXA11	0.82	3.0×10^{-4}	-2.8	0.8	Homeobox A11
ENSBTAG00000031687	ZNF146	-0.1	3.7×10^{-2}	-2.6	-0.75	Zinc finger protein 146
ENSBTAG00000017763	NFIL3	1.64	1.0×10^{-4}	-2.21	1.53	Nuclear factor, interleukin 3 regulated
ENSBTAG00000027442	NFIB	0.3	4.4×10^{-2}	-2.2	-0.45	Nuclear factor I B
ENSBTAG00000021869	THAP5	0.37	1.2×10^{-2}	-2.2	1.22	THAP domain containing 5
ENSBTAG00000009975	PBX4	0.79	5.0×10^{-4}	-2.13	-0.32	PBX homeobox 4
ENSBTAG00000017824	IRF8	-0.75	1.0×10^{-6}	-2.06	0.89	Interferon regulatory factor 8
ENSBTAG00000006587	ZNF367	0.34	1.0×10^{-2}	-1.97	1.29	Zinc finger protein 367
ENSBTAG00000008063	PPARA	0.91	8.2×10^{-5}	-1.95	2.23	Peroxisome proliferator activated receptor alpha
ENSBTAG00000014692	CREB3L4	1.11	6.0×10^{-3}	-1.21	2.16	cAMP responsive element binding protein 3 like 4
ENSBTAG00000020441	HMG20A	0.19	3.0×10^{-2}	-0.58	-2.19	High mobility group 20A
ENSBTAG000000045877	TSC22D3	0.9	5.0×10^{-3}	-0.04	2.45	TSC22 domain family member 3
ENSBTAG00000010978	PROX1	-0.89	1.4×10^{-2}	0.52	2.18	Prospero homeobox 1
ENSBTAG00000021699	RORB	1.08	9.9×10^{-3}	0.61	2.66	RAR related orphan receptor B
ENSBTAG00000039316	ZNF84	-0.24	8.0×10^{-3}	0.85	2.46	Zinc finger protein 84
ENSBTAG00000013412	NFAT5	-0.65	3.1×10^{-2}	1.98	-0.93	Nuclear factor of activated T cells 5
ENSBTAG00000009496	STAT5A	-0.35	3.0×10^{-3}	2.05	-1.13	Signal transducer and activator of transcription 5A
ENSBTAG00000014949	SP9	3.69	1.3×10^{-3}	2.15	-1.68	Sp9 transcription factor

the uterus for the fertilization process and/or a subsequent pregnancy. It has been suggested that many genes and proteins contribute to this system to support early conceptus life (Killian 2004). This systemic view of the uterine environment is supported by our results, where over 4000 genes were found to be DE, some already known to play a role in reproduction and others being novel candidate genes. The most upregulated gene post-puberty was the *EDAR* gene, a member of the tumor necrosis factor receptor family, which has been shown to have relevance to

embryonic development in mice and humans (Botchkarev & Fessing 2005; Lindfors *et al.* 2013). Other DE genes and key TFs seem to contribute to a tightly regulated robust system that underpins fertility.

Among the TFs that were also DE genes, two were zinc finger genes (ZNF): *ZNF367* and *ZNF84*. Zinc fingers are known as transcriptional repressors regulating puberty in rats and nonhuman primates (Lomniczi *et al.* 2013). The decrease of ZNF genes' expression before puberty has been reported in rats and primates (Lomniczi *et al.* 2015). In

addition, an association between puberty in women and a single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) situated near *ZNF462* and *ZNF483* has been reported (Perry *et al.* 2009; Elks *et al.* 2010; Chen *et al.* 2012; Demerath *et al.* 2013). The significance of ZNF genes has previously been reported on the transcriptomics of the reproductive axis (hypothalamus, pituitary gland, ovaries and liver) associated with puberty in these same Brahman heifers (Fortes *et al.* 2016; Nguyen *et al.* 2017, 2018). Together, the evidence suggests a major role for ZNF genes inducing puberty in Brahman heifers and other mammals.

The pathway and GO enrichment analyses for the DE genes showed that terms related to the 'ribosome pathway' were significant in our target list. It has long been known that the estrous cycle and estrogen signaling influences ribosome quantity and capacity of the uterus tissue (Greenman & Kenney 1964). Post-puberty, the uterus is larger, and especially during the luteal phase it is much larger, than in pre-puberty heifers. Any tissue growth requires ribosomal activity and the syntheses of multiple proteins.

It is also relevant to mention that age at puberty is an economic trait in beef cattle systems (Cushman *et al.* 2013). Enhancing understanding about biomarkers involved in puberty is an attractive possibility for selection of *Bos indicus* heifers.

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Supporting information

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

Table S1 Proteins identified in the uterine fluid: list of 260 proteins identified in the uterine fluid, Uniprot accession identifiers, peptides identified, score and coverage.

Table S2 Proteins in the comparison of pre- and post-pubertal data.

Table S3 Genes differentially expressed ($P < 0.05$) in the uterus tissue.

Table S4 Results for Gene Ontology (GO) and pathway enrichment analyses.

Table S5 Regulatory impact factor metrics (RIF1 and RIF2) identified 100 significant top ranking transcription factors ($P < 0.05$) in the uterus.