Impact of prepubertal obesity induced by high-fat diet during lactation and post-weaning on puberty initiation and neuroendocrine function in a female mouse model.

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Abstract

PURPOSE: To explore the effects of prepubertal obesity induced by high-fat diet during lactation and post-weaning on puberty onset and the neuroendocrine changes before puberty onset in a female mouse model, which may explain obesity in children starting early puberty.

METHODS: A total of 72 female mice were assigned to the high fat diet group (HFD) and the control diet group (CONT) during lactation and post-weaning. The bodily indexes; pathological changes; and protein and gene expression levels in the hypothalamus were examined on postnatal days (P) 15, 28, and 45, respectively.

RESULTS: The average vaginal opening time in HFD mice occurred significantly earlier than that in CONT mice (p < 0.05). On P15, no significant difference in the MKRN3, kisspeptin, GPR54 and GnRH level between HFD and CONT mice was noted (p > 0.05). Whereas on P28 and 45, compared to CONT mice, GnRH expression in HFD mice was significantly increased (p < 0.05); kisspeptin and GPR54 expression in HFD mice was also significantly increased (p < 0.05); but the MKRN3 level in HFD mice was significantly lower than that in CONT mice (p < 0.05). On P15, 28, and 45, compared with CONT mice, miR-30b expression in HFD mice increased (p < 0.05). Compared to P15, miR-30b, KiSS-1, GPR54 and GnRH mRNA level increased significantly, however MKRN3 decreased significantly in HFD mice on P28 and 45 (p < 0.01).

CONCLUSIONS: Prepubertal obesity induced by high-fat diet during lactation and post-weaning may advance the time of pubertal initiation in female mice. The increased expression of miR-30b, kisspeptin, GPR54 and GnRH, decreased the expression of MKRN3 may explain the early onset of puberty in obese female mice.
INTRODUCTION

Puberty is a key event of sexual maturity that culminates in reproductive ability (Wood et al. 2019). In the past half century, puberty initiation has been reported to commence at an earlier age in females (Biro et al. 2018; Eckert-Lind et al. 2020; Krieger et al. 2015). Studies have reported that early type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular disease, and adverse psychological and behavioral factors are closely associated with early-onset puberty (Biro et al. 2018; Cheng et al. 2020; Vogelezang et al. 2020). Furthermore, early-onset puberty is a risk factor for impaired fertility and breast cancer development (Collaborative Group on Hormonal Factors in Breast Cancer, 2012; Jacobsen et al. 2009). Therefore, more attention should be paid to early-onset puberty and its effects later in life.

Pubertal development can be influenced by environmental and genetic factors (Huang & Roth, 2021; Zhou et al. 2022). Some studies have reported that adverse environmental factors early in life can affect puberty initiation (Greenspan & Lee, 2018; Colich et al. 2020; Livadas & Chrousos, 2019). In particular, several investigators have examined the impact of nutrition early in life (pregnancy, lactation, and childhood) (Ribaroff et al. 2017; Connor et al. 2012), while we have researched the effects of prepubertal obesity on pubertal development and reported that prepubertal obesity may affect puberty onset (Huang et al. 2020). Furthermore, according to the World Health Organization, in 2016, more than 124 million children and adolescents, with a female proportion of 6%, were obese (World Health Organization, 2022). In China, the rates of childhood and adolescent obesity continue to increase annually. From 1997 to 2011, the prevalence of overweight and obesity increased from 4.6% to 10.4% in young females (Wang et al. 2017). Therefore, it is important to explore the effects of prepubertal obesity on pubertal development because of the high incidence of obesity in this population worldwide (Xu et al. 2021).

In general, the results of studies on the effects of prepubertal obesity on pubertal development in young females are consistent, and they indicate that pubertal development begins earlier in obese young females (Huang et al. 2020). For example, Wu et al. (2012) demonstrated that obesity can lead to the earlier opening of the vaginal orifice and the thickening of the follicular intima in female rats. However, the mechanism of early-onset puberty caused by prepubertal obesity in females is unclear.

In our earlier study, we demonstrated that increased estradiol (E2) levels could induce early-onset puberty in obese young females (Zhai et al. 2015). The changes in sex hormone levels during puberty are mainly regulated by the hypothalamus–pituitary–gonadal (HPG) axis, and the activation of the HPG axis is required for pubertal development, with changes in the secretion of gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) playing

Tab. 1. Primers for real-time PCR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gene</th>
<th>Base sequence</th>
<th>Primer type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GnRH</td>
<td>Forward 5'-GTACTCAACCTACCAAGGAGCTC-3' Reverse 5'-CGAACCAGCAGCCGAGT-3'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KISS-1</td>
<td>Forward 5'-CCAGAGACTGATCTCAAGGAGCTC-3' Reverse 5'-CTCTTGATACCCGACGACTTCTC-3'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPR54</td>
<td>Forward 5'-GCGGCGAGATGTTGAAGCTAA-3' Reverse 5'-AGCTATGGCCGAGTAGCAGAG-3'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MKRN3</td>
<td>Forward 5'-AGGAAGGAAGAGGAGAGAGAAGA-3' Reverse 5'-CCAGGCGAAGACAGAAGT-3'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miR-30b</td>
<td>RT Primer 5'-GGTGAGAACACCCCTTCAGC-3' Forward 5'-CTGATTACCCTTCTACT-3' Reverse 5'-GGTGTTAACACCTTCTACTC-3'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U6</td>
<td>Forward 5'-CAGTTCGGTTCGAGTGTGAT-3' Reverse 5'-CTGCTGATCCGACGACAT-3'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>β-actin</td>
<td>Forward 5'-CATCGGAAGACCTTATGACGAC-3' Reverse 5'-ATGGAGCCACCTCCAGTACA-3'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Abbreviations: E2 - estradiol; GnRH - gonadotropin-releasing hormone; GPR54 - G protein coupled receptor 54; MKRN3 - makorin ring finger protein 3; miR-30b - microRNA-30b.
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key roles in these events (Herbison, 2016; Terasawa & Fernandez, 2001). Although the secretion of GnRH by the hypothalamus and its mechanism of action are complex, we investigate early-onset puberty caused by prepubertal obesity in females by studying the GnRH pathway.

Micro-ribonucleic acids (microRNAs, miRNAs) are non-coding single-stranded RNA molecules that are comprised of approximately 22 nucleotides (Agbu & Carthew, 2021). MiRNAs play important roles in pubertal development. For example, Heras et al. (2019) reported that miR-30 can regulate the onset of puberty. Although it is unclear whether GnRH is involved in this process, miR-30 can affect pubertal development by regulating the makorin ring finger protein 3 (MKRN3)/kisspeptin pathway (Heras et al. 2019). MKRN3 is an indispensable component of the regulatory network that controls the onset of puberty, and it has been reported that miR-30 has an inhibitory effect on MKRN3 expression (Heras et al. 2019). In another study, MKRN3 expression was elevated during prepuberty, at which time MKRN3 inhibited GnRH secretion, which is quiescent at this stage of development (Abreu & Kaiser, 2016). Upon puberty initiation, MKRN3 expression decreases, GnRH secretion increases, and pubertal development initiates (Abreu & Kaiser, 2016). On the other hand, kisspeptin is a neuropeptide encoded by the KiSS-1 gene that binds to G protein coupled receptor 54 (GPR54) and directly acts on GnRH-expressing neurons to stimulate GnRH release and regulate the HPG axis (Harter et al. 2018). A previous study has reported that MKRN3 can affect GnRH secretion by inhibiting kisspeptin activity (Abreu et al. 2020). Furthermore, miR-30 expression was increased in obese mice (Sangiao-Alvarellos et al. 2014), which prompted us to hypothesize that elevated miR-30 expression can inhibit MKRN3 expression, promote kisspeptin and GnRH expression, and initiate early-onset puberty in obese female mice.

Thus, this study explores the effects of prepubertal obesity induced by high-fat diet during lactation and post-weaning on puberty onset and the neuroendocrine changes before puberty onset in a female mouse model, which may explain obesity in children starting early puberty and involve changes in the expression of miR-30, MKRN, kisspeptin, GPR54, and GnRH during pubertal development.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

All experimental procedures were conducted in accordance with the Institutional Guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals at China Medical University (Shenyang, China) (CMU2019186) and the National Institutes of Health Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (publication no. 85-23, revised 1985) under experimental protocol no. SYXK (Liao) 2018-0008.

Dams: A total of 36 C57BL-6J mice (12 males and 24 females) were obtained from Beijing HFK Bioscience Co., Ltd. (Beijing, China). Male and female C57BL-6J mice (10-weeks-of-age) were housed in a single room with 12 h:12 h light–dark cycles and a constant temperature of 25°C, and all mice were provided standard chow and water ad libitum. According to the study of Connor et al. on the following morning, mating was confirmed by the presence of sperm in vaginal smears, and the pregnant mice were housed individually (Connor et al. 2012). All pregnant mice were provided standard chow and water ad libitum until postnatal day (P) 0. Thereafter, 24 pregnant mice were randomly assigned to a group and given one of two diets (normal diet [CONT] or high-fat diet [HFD]) during lactation, with 12 pregnant mice given the CONT diet and 12 pregnant mice given the HFD. Pups were weighed and sexed at birth. To guarantee that each pup had access to nutrition until weaning, pups were adjusted to six per litter.
(3 males and 3 females) on P2, and the remaining pups were killed by decapitation. Three females from each litter were used in this experiment, while three males from each litter were used in another experiment.

Offspring: From weaning (P22), the pups were weighed every 2 days until P45. At weaning, the female offspring were given one of two diets (CONT diet or HFD) depending on the diet the dams were given, that is, the offspring of dams fed a CONT diet also received a CONT diet with water and the offspring of dams fed a HFD also received a HFD with water until the end of the experiment. This experiment yielded two groups of post-weaned offspring, namely, CONT-cont and HFD-hfd. A total 72 (36 CONT-cont and 36 HFD-hfd) female offspring were used in the three experiments (n = 24 per experiment).

**Diets**

The HFD (cat. no. TP23300) was procured from Trophic Animal Feed High-Tech Co., Ltd. (Beijing, China). In the HFD, 60% of the total calories were from fat, 19% were from protein, and 21% were from carbohydrates [5 kcal/g]. In the CONT diet, 12.95% of the total calories were from fat, 24.02% were from protein, and 12.95% were from carbohydrates [3.44 kcal/g].

**Definition of obesity**

Obesity was evident when the body weights of HFD mice were significantly higher than those of CONT mice on P21 (weaning) (Yang et al. 2014; Xu et al. 2019).

**Experimental design**

**Forty-five-day experiment (puberty completion)**

Twenty-four female offspring (n = 1 per litter) were divided into two groups: the HFD group (dam HF + pup hfd, n = 12) and the CONT group (dam CONT + pup cont, n = 12). The offspring were fed until P45 (puberty completion). The vaginal opening time was determined (the vaginal opening time is an indicator of puberty initiation in female mice), and the body composition and body weight of the mice were measured with a body composition analyzer (Minispec LF-50, Bruker, Germany) on P44. On P45, and after fasting for 24 h, the mice were anesthetized with diethyl ether, and blood was collected. The hypothalami were removed immediately, followed by the uteri and ovaries, which were weighed. Four hypothalami and three ovaries were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for immunohistochemical analysis or hematoxylin–eosin staining. Another three ovaries were fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde for morphological preservation and transmission electron microscopy. The remaining tissues were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C for western blotting (four hypothalami) and quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) (six hypothalami).

**Twenty-eight-day experiment (puberty initiation)**

Twenty-four female offspring were used for this experiment. The offspring were fed until P28 (puberty initiation). On P28, and after fasting for 24 h, the mice were anesthetized with diethyl ether, and blood was collected. The hypothalami were removed immediately, followed by the uteri and ovaries, which were weighed. The remaining tissues were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C for western blotting (four hypothalami) and qPCR (six hypothalami).

**Fifteen-day experiment (prepubertal period)**

Twenty-four female offspring were used for this experiment. The offspring were fed until P15 (prepubertal period). On P15, and after fasting for 24 h, the mice were anesthetized with diethyl ether, and blood was collected. The hypothalami were removed immediately, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C for western blotting (four hypothalami) and qPCR (six hypothalami).
Transmission electron microscopy
Three ovaries from each group were prepared for transmission electron microscopy. The ovaries were cut into fragments (1 mm × 1 mm × 1 mm), fixed in 0.1 M phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), pH 7.2, containing 2.5% glutaraldehyde, post-fixed in 1% osmium tetroxide, dehydrated in a series of ethanol and acetone solutions, and embedded in Epon 812 Resin. Next, the tissue blocks were sectioned using an LKB ultramicrotome, and the sections were stained with uranyl acetate followed by lead citrate, observed under an H-600 transmission electron microscope, and photographed.

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay
Serum estradiol (E2) and luteinizing hormone (LH) levels were measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA), according to the manufacturer’s instructions. The detection range of the E2 ELISA (Shanghai Enzyme-Linked Biotechnology Co., Ltd., Shanghai, China) was 3.75–120 pg/mL, whereas that of the LH ELISA (Shanghai Enzyme-Linked Biotechnology Co., Ltd.) was 0.25–8 mIU/mL. Each sample was tested in duplicate.

Hematoxylin–eosin staining
Hematoxylin–eosin staining was performed as previously described (Nichols et al. 2005). Three ovaries from each group were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde, rinsed with water, and stored in 70% ethanol. The tissues were subsequently embedded in paraffin wax, sectioned to a thickness of 5 μm using a rotary microtome, collected on microscope slides, and dried at 56°C for 24 h. Next, the sections were passed through xylene solutions and rehydrated in a graded series of ethanol solutions. The sections were subsequently stained with hematoxylin, rinsed with water, differentiated in 1% acid alcohol for 30 s, and rinsed with water. Lastly, the sections were counterstained with eosin, dehydrated in
a graded series of ethanol solutions, and passed through xylene. The sections were cover-slipped, observed under a light microscope, and photographed.

Immunohistochemical analysis
Immunohistochemical staining was performed. The hypothalami were sectioned to a thickness of 4 μm, and the sections were randomly selected from each group and subjected to immunohistochemical staining using the EliVision Plus Kit (Fuzhou Maixin Biotech Co., Ltd., Fuzhou, China). Antigen retrieval was performed in an autoclave at 100°C for 20 min in antigen retrieval buffer, and the anti-GnRH rabbit monoclonal antibody (cat. no. ab5617, 1:100; Abcam, Cambridge, UK) was used. The sections were counterstained with hematoxylin. The integrated optical density/area (IOD/area), which was determined by ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA), was used to quantify the relative GnRH expression.

Western blotting
Western blotting was performed as previously described (Zhai et al. 2018). The hypothalami were washed twice in ice-cold PBS, pH 7.5, and dissociated in radioimmunoprecipitation assay buffer. The samples were centrifuged, and the protein lysates (50 mg) were separated by 10% sodium dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, followed by the transfer of proteins to membranes. After blocking, the membranes were incubated with an anti-MKRN3 antibody (cat. no. A16073, 1:1000; AbClonal, Wuhan, China), anti-kisspeptin antibody (cat. no. ab19028, 1:500; Abcam, Boston, MA, USA), anti-GPR54 antibody (cat. no. PA5-49719, 1:500; Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA), and anti-GnRH antibody (cat. no. ab16216, 1:500; Abcam). The membranes were washed and incubated with secondary antibodies (1:5000; AbClonal). The immunoreactive proteins were detected using standard enhanced chemiluminescence reagents. Each sample was tested at least in triplicate.

RNA isolation and quantitative PCR analysis
Total mRNA was extracted from the hypothalami using TRIzol Reagent (TaKaRa Biotechnology Co., Ltd., Dalian, China). The quantity and integrity of RNA were characterized by UV spectrophotometry. Semi-quantitative reverse transcription was performed using the PrimeScript RT Reagent Kit with DNA Eraser (TaKaRa Biotechnology Co., Ltd.), whereas qPCR was performed using the SYBR Green PCR Kit (TaKaRa Biotechnology Co., Ltd.) in conjunction with the Quant Studio 6 Flex Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Waltham, MA, USA). The gene-specific primers (Table 1) were designed by Beijing Dinguo Changsheng Biotechnology Co., Ltd. (Beijing, China). The initial denaturation was carried out at 95°C for 30s, followed by 40 cycles at 95°C for 5s and 60°C for 30s. The analysis of gene expression levels was performed by the 2^{-ΔCt} method. The raw data were normalized to the housekeeping gene (β-actin or U6). All reactions were performed in duplicate.

Statistical analysis
All statistical analyses were performed with SPSS 25.0 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). The measurement data were described as mean ± SD. The independent samples t-test was used to compare differences between the two groups. The inspection level was taken at α = 0.05.

RESULTS
Comparison of body weight between obese and control mice from postnatal day 21 to 45
As shown in Figure 1, the body weight of HFD mice was significantly greater than that of CONT mice on P21 (p < 0.05, n = 12), indicating that the obesity model was successfully established. The body weight of HFD mice was significantly greater than that of CONT mice on P45 (p < 0.05).

Comparison of body fat percentage, reproductive organ weight, sex hormone levels, vaginal opening time, and ovarian morphology between obese and control mice on postnatal day 45
As shown in Table 2, compared with CONT mice, the body weight and body fat (%) of HFD mice increased significantly on P45 (p < 0.05). The weights of the ovaries and uterus, as well as the ovarian weight coefficient and uterine weight coefficient, of HFD mice were significantly greater than that of CONT mice on P45 (p < 0.05). The serum E2 and LH levels were measured by ELISA, as shown in Table 2, and serum E2 and LH levels of HFD mice were significantly higher than those of CONT mice on P45 (p < 0.05, n = 8).

As shown in Figure 2, the average vaginal opening times of HFD and CONT mice were 34.3 ± 3.1 and 40.1 ± 3.6 days, respectively, indicating that the vagina opened significantly earlier in HFD mice than that in CONT mice (p < 0.05, n = 12).

Hematoxylin–eosin staining and transmission electron microscopy were used to examine ovarian morphology on P45 (Figure 3). On P45, by hematoxylin–eosin staining, the ovarian follicular cavity of HFD mice (Figure 3A) was larger than that of CONT mice (Figure 3B). In addition, in HFD mice, follicular fluid was abundant, granulosa cells were arranged in a disordered pattern, the number of granulosa cells was decreased, and the number of corpus lutea was increased. By electron microscopy, the nuclear chromatin was uniform, and the structure of the ovaries
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**Fig. 4.** Comparison of GnRH protein and mRNA levels between obese and control mice on postnatal days 15, 28, 45. Representative western blots using antibodies against GnRH in hypothalamus of female mice on postnatal day 15 and 28 (A, B). Positive staining (brown staining) was stronger in the HFD group as compared to the CONT group (F). Measurements of GnRH on postnatal day 15 (C), 28 (D) and 45 (E). Data were presented as mean±SD, n = 4. The bar graphs G show the results of the measurement of GnRH mRNA expression on postnatal day 15, 28, and 45. Data are presented as mean±SD, n = 6. *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$ as compared to the control. # $P < 0.05$ as compared to the CONT (Postnatal day 15). GnRH: gonadotropin-releasing hormone; HFD: high-fat diet; CONT: control. SD: standard deviation. IOD: Integrated Optical Density.

**Fig. 5.** Comparison of kisspeptin, GPR54 protein and mRNA levels between obese and control mice on postnatal days 15, 28 and 45. Representative western blots using antibodies against kisspeptin and GPR54 in hypothalamus of female mice on postnatal days 15, 28 and 45 (A, B, C). Measurements of kisspeptin (D), GPR54 (E) on postnatal day 15, 28 and 45. Data were presented as mean±SD, n = 4. The bar graphs show the results of the measurement of KiSS-1 and GPR54 mRNA expression on postnatal day 15, 28 and 45 (F, G), respectively. Data are presented as mean±SD, n = 6. *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$ as compared to the control. # $P < 0.05$, ## $P < 0.01$ as compared to the CONT (Postnatal day 15). GPR54: G protein-coupled receptor 54; HFD: high-fat diet; CONT: control. SD: standard deviation.
was intact. However, there were many mitochondria in the granulosa cells of HFD mice (Figure 3C), and numerous lipid droplets were observed in the cytoplasm and stroma.

Comparison of GnRH protein and mRNA levels between obese and control mice on postnatal days 15, 28, and 45

The GnRH protein level in the hypothalamus was examined by western blotting on P15 and 28 and by immunohistochemical staining on P45 (Figure 4). On P15, no significant difference in GnRH protein expression between HFD and CONT mice was noted \( (p > 0.05, n = 4) \). On P28, compared to CONT mice, GnRH protein expression in HFD mice was significantly increased \( (\text{Figure 4D}, p < 0.05, n = 4) \). On P45, HFD mice showed stronger GnRH-labeling intensity (brown precipitates) compared with CONT mice (Figure 4F). By immunohistochemical analysis, it was observed that the GnRH level increased compared to the CONT-group \( (\text{Figure 4E}, p < 0.05, n = 4) \).

The GnRH mRNA level in the hypothalamus was also examined by qPCR on P15, P28, P45. On P15, no significant difference in GnRH expression between HFD and CONT mice was noted \( (\text{Figure 4G}, p > 0.05, n = 6) \). However, compared to CONT mice, GnRH expression in HFD mice increased on P28 and 45 significantly compared to the CONT-group, respectively \( (p < 0.05, n = 6) \). And compared to P15, GnRH mRNA level on P28 and 45 increased significantly in HFD mice \( (p < 0.01) \). Compared to P15, GnRH mRNA level on P45 increased significantly in CON mice \( (p < 0.01) \).

Comparison of kisspeptin and GPR54 protein and mRNA levels between obese and control mice on postnatal days 15, 28, and 45

The kisspeptin and GPR54 protein levels in the hypothalamus were examined by western blotting. On P15, no significant differences in the levels of kisspeptin and GPR54 between HFD and CONT mice were detected \( (p > 0.05, n = 4) \) (Figure 5A, D, E, Supplementary Figure 1, 2, 3 online www.nel.edu). On P28 and 45, compared to CONT mice, kisspeptin, and GPR54 protein expression in HFD mice was significantly increased \( (\text{Figure 5D, E}, p < 0.05, n = 4) \). Compared to P15, kisspeptin level on P45 increased significantly in CON mice \( (p < 0.01) \). And compared to P15, GPR54 level on P28 and 45 increased significantly in CON mice \( (p < 0.05) \).
The KiSS-1 and GPR54 mRNA levels in the hypothalamus were also examined by qPCR (Figure 5F, G). On P15, no significant differences in the levels of KiSS-1 and GPR54 in HFD and CONT mice were noted ($p > 0.05, n = 6$). On P28 and 45, compared to CONT mice, KiSS-1 and GPR54 expression in HFD mice increased significantly compared to that of the CONT-group, respectively ($p < 0.01, n = 6$). And compared to P15, KiSS-1 and GPR54 mRNA level on P28 and 45 increased significantly in HFD mice ($p < 0.01$). Compared to P15, KiSS-1 mRNA level on P45 increased significantly in CONT mice ($p < 0.05$).

Comparison of MKRN3 protein and mRNA levels between obese and control mice on postnatal days 15, 28, and 45

The MKRN3 protein level was examined by western blotting (Figure 6A, B, C, Supplementary Figure 1, 2, 3 online www.nel.edu), and the levels of MKRN3 mRNA (Figure 6E) were examined by qPCR. On P15, no significant difference in the MKRN3 protein level between HFD and CONT mice was detected (Figure 6D). On P28 and 45, the MKRN3 protein level in HFD mice was significantly lower than that in CONT mice (Figure 6D) ($p < 0.05, n = 4$).

On P15, no significant difference in the MKRN3 mRNA level between HFD and CONT mice ($p > 0.05$). However, MKRN3 mRNA expression in HFD mice decreased significantly compared to the CONT-group value on P28 and P45, respectively (Figure 6E) ($p < 0.01, n = 6$). And compared to P15, MKRN3 mRNA level on P28 and 45 decreased significantly in HFD mice ($p < 0.01$).

Comparison of miR-30b level between obese and control mice on postnatal days 15, 28, and 45

On P15, miR-30b expression in HFD mice increased significantly compared to the CONT-group ($p < 0.01, n = 6$). On P28 and 45, miR-30b expression in HFD mice increased obviously compared to the CONT-group, respectively (Figure 7, $p < 0.01, n = 6$). But compared to P15, miR-30b level on P28 and 45 decreased significantly in HFD mice ($p < 0.01$).

DISCUSSION

Feeding C57BL/6J mice a diet that is high in fat (60% of total calories) is a commonly used strategy to induce experimental obesity. In this study, we established an obesity model using this approach; however, different investigators have used different strategies to study prepubertal obesity (Ribaroff et al. 2017; Connor et al. 2012). High-fat diet exposure early in life (pregnancy, lactation, or childhood) often leads to prepubertal obesity. In this study, we examined prepubertal obesity after HFD exposure during lactation and childhood after considering the results of previous studies. Ribaroff et al. (2017) reported that HFD exposure of mothers (pregnancy or lactation) could affect the metabolism of offspring. To investigate the effects of prepubertal obesity on puberty onset and to increase the exposure time, offspring at post-weaning were fed a HFD, similar to the study of Connor et al. (2012). Furthermore, during lactation or childhood, offspring are directly exposed to the diet, thereby eliminating the absorption of nutrients by the placenta during gestation. According to the definition of obesity (Xu et al. 2019; Sánchez-Garrido et al. 2015), the body weight and body fat percentage of HFD mice were significantly higher than those of CONT mice from P21 to 45 (childhood period), indicating successful establishment of the obesity model.

The opening of the vagina is an indicator of the onset of puberty (Ullah et al. 2017). In this study, compared with CONT mice, the opening of the vagina in HFD mice occurred significantly earlier, consistent with the results of a previous study (Venancio et al. 2017). To investigate the effects of HFD exposure on
reproductive function, hematoxylin–eosin staining and transmission electron microscopy were used to observe ovarian morphology. Compared with CONT mice, follicular development was normal and the number of corpus lutea was increased in P45 mice fed a HFD. The ovarian morphology was unremarkable, although there were many mitochondria in granulosa cells of HFD mice. Compared with CONT mice, reproductive development and puberty onset occurred sooner in HFD mice than in CONT mice, confirming that prepubertal obesity can lead to early-onset puberty.

The mechanism of early-onset puberty in obese mice is still unclear. Neuroendocrine changes before puberty onset may play an important role, and our earlier study had demonstrated that elevated sex hormone levels may be the key factor (Zhai et al. 2015). To examine the neuroendocrine changes before puberty onset, we selected three time points, namely, P15 (prepuberty) (Messina et al. 2016), P28 (puberty onset) (Kaviani et al. 2016), and P45 (puberty completion).

On P45, we measured serum E2 and LH levels and observed that the levels of both sex hormones increased significantly. The E2 level is regulated by the LH level, which can initiate early reproductive development and puberty in obese mice, consistent with the results of previous studies (Li et al. 2012; Ullah et al. 2019). In addition, sex hormone secretion is regulated by the HPG axis. During puberty initiation, the GnRH level increases to act on the pituitary, which increases the levels of LH and other sex hormones and promotes puberty initiation and reproductive development. We examined GnRH mRNA and protein levels in the hypothalamus on P15, 28, and 45 and observed that the GnRH levels in HFD mice were significantly higher than those in CONT mice on P28 and 45, and compared to P15, GnRH mRNA level on P28 and 45 increased, which indicated that the GnRH level increased before puberty onset, which may be the reason for the increase in E2 and LH levels.

What can regulate GnRH during prepuberty? In recent years, the relationship between miRNA expression and GnRH secretion has received significant attention. MiRNAs are small endogenous non-coding single-stranded RNAs comprised of 19–22 nucleotides (Lee et al. 1993). In a study of the Dicer gene (a key endonuclease for miRNA formation), which described its deletion in hypothalamic GnRH-expressing neurons, hypogonadal dysfunction and infertility were observed (Messina et al. 2016; Chekulaeva et al. 2009), indicating that miRNAs play key roles in puberty initiation and reproductive development (Chekulaeva et al. 2009).

MiR-30 is one example of an miRNA that affects puberty initiation (Heras et al. 2019). The miR-30 family consists of five members, namely, miR-30a, miR-30b, miR-30c, miR-30d, and miR-30e (Sangiao-Alvarellos et al. 2014). Among these, miR-30b was selected for further study because of the relationship between miR-30b regulation and MKRN3 expression. MKRN3 is an essential component of the gene regulatory network that initiates puberty in mammals. MiR-30b binds to the 3’ untranslated region of MKRN3 and directly inhibits MKRN3 secretion, thereby affecting puberty initiation (Heras et al. 2019). Several studies have reported that MKRN3 can regulate pubertal development through GnRH (Heras et al. 2019; Atay et al. 2012). For example, Abreu et al. demonstrated that MKRN3 regulates pubertal onset and GnRH release by inhibiting kisspeptin expression in the hypothalamus (Abreu et al. 2020), indicating that kisspeptin is a mediator of MKRN3-induced GnRH secretion. In this study, the expression of miR-30b increased before puberty onset, which inhibited the expression of MKRN3; reversed the inhibitory effect of MKRN3 on the kisspeptin/GPR54/GnRH pathway; increased the expression of kisspeptin, GPR54, and GnRH; and promoted the secretion of E2 and LH, thereby leading to puberty onset.

In this study, we investigated miR-30b, MKRN3, kisspeptin, and GPR54 expression in the hypothalamus during the development of puberty. On P15 (prepuberty), miR-30b and MKRN3 expression in HFD mice increased compared with CONT mice, while no significant differences in the levels of the other genes were noted. In addition, no significant differences in the protein levels of MKRN3, kisspeptin, GPR54, and GnRH between the two groups were detected. However, on P28, beside miR-30b, the gene and protein expression of MKRN3, kisspeptin, GPR54, and GnRH changed in the HFD compared to the control mice. And we also found compared to P15, miR-30b level of HFD mice increased on P28. Thus, we thought that the changes of gene and protein expression of MKRN3, kisspeptin, GPR54, and GnRH followed with the change of miR-30b, and the change occurred earlier in HFD than in control mice.

On P28, miR-30b increased, MKRN3 expression decreased, while kisspeptin/GPR54 and GnRH expression increased in mice fed a HFD. As the discussion above, an inhibit role of miR-30b on MKRN3 were found. The decreased level of MKRN3 may release the inhibiting effect on kisspeptin, which promote the expression of kisspeptin/GPR54 and GnRH. And an enhanced inhibiting effect of miR-30b in HFD mice were found than in control mice because of the increase phenomenon firstly found in HFD mice on P15 compared to the control mice. Similar, compared to P15, more gene level changes of MKRN3, kisspeptin/GPR54 and GnRH were found in HFD mice than in control mice on P28. So we thought that before the development of puberty, the increase in the levels of miR-30b, kisspeptin, GPR54, GnRH, and decrease in the level of MKRN3, occurred earlier in obese mice than in normal mice, which may be the main reason for the higher sex hormone levels, the earlier opening of the vagina in HFD mice. Similar changes in miR-30b, MKRN3, kisspeptin, GPR54, and GnRH expression were also observed on P45, which means the change
of the genes and proteins in HFD mice hold on till P45 (puberty completion). Whether the changes will hold in the followed days, we were not sure, more study should be done to verify it.

There was some limitation in this study. Firstly, we did not found the exact time point for the increasing of miR-30b in HFD mice compared to the CONT mice. On P15, compared to the CONT mice, miR-30b increased already. Secondly, the weight of HFD mice were higher than normal mice from day 21, but some study didn’t find a difference between high fat fed mice and normal diet fed mice until day 27-29. We think the main reason may be the difference batch of mice and the status of dam mice. There were possible animal species and status factors in the animal study.

Taken collectively, prepubertal obesity induced by HFD during lactation and post-weaning may advance the time of pubertal onset in female mice. Before the development of puberty, the increase in the levels of miR-30b may inhibit the level of MKRN3, then kisspeptin, GPR54 and GnRH expression increased (occurred earlier in HFD mice than in normal mice), which may be the main reason for the higher sex hormone levels, and the earlier opening of the vagina in HFD mice.

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Ethical Approval
All experimental procedures were conducted in accordance with the institutional guidelines for the care and use of laboratory animals at China Medical University (Shenyang, China) (CMU2019186) and the National Institutes of Health for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (publication no. 85-23, revised 1985) with experimental protocol no. SYXK (Liao) 2018-0008.

Declaration of interest
The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

Authors’ Contributions
M. S. and L. Z. wrote the main manuscript text; L. Z. conceived and designed the experiments; M. S., S. R., Y. Z. and Q. Y. performed the experiments and analyzed the data; L. Z. review and edited the paper. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

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Not applicable

REFERENCES
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 1 - FULL SIZE WESTERN BLOTS

Supplementary Fig. 1.
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 2 - FULL SIZE WESTERN BLOTS

Supplementary Fig. 2.
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 3 - FULL SIZE WESTERN BLOTS

Supplementary Fig. 3.