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## **An Updated View of Leptin on Implantation and Pregnancy: A Review**

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Short title: Role of leptin on reproduction

22 **Abstract**

23 The hormone leptin, which is thought to be primarily produced by adipose tissue, is a  
24 polypeptide that was initially characterized by its ability to regulate food intake and energy  
25 metabolism. Leptin appears to signal the status of body energy stores to the brain, resulting in  
26 the regulation of food intake and whole-body energy expenditure. Subsequently, it was  
27 recognised as a cytokine with a wide range of peripheral actions and is involved in the regulation  
28 of a number of physiological systems including reproduction.

29 In the fed state, leptin circulates in the plasma in proportion to body adiposity in all species  
30 studied to date. However other factors such as sex, age, body mass index (BMI), sex steroids  
31 and pregnancy may also affect leptin levels in plasma. In pregnant mice and humans, the  
32 placenta is also a major site of leptin expression. Leptin circulates in biological fluids both as  
33 free protein and in a form that is bound to the soluble isoform of its receptor or other binding  
34 proteins such as one of the immunoglobulin superfamily members Siglec-6 (OB-BP1). Although  
35 the actions of leptin in the control of reproductive function are thought to be exerted mainly via  
36 the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis, there have also been reports of local direct effects of  
37 leptin at the peripheral level, however, these data appear contradictory. Therefore, there is a need  
38 to summarise the current status of research outcomes and analyse the possible reasons for  
39 differing results and thus provide researchers with new insight in designing experiments to  
40 investigate leptin effect on reproduction. Most importantly, our recent experimental data  
41 suggesting that reproductive performance is improved by decreasing concentrations of  
42 peripheral leptin was unexpected and cannot be explained by hypotheses drawn from the  
43 experiments of excessive exogenous leptin administration to normal animals or *ob/ob* mice.

44

45 **Key words:** leptin, implantation, pregnancy

## 46 **1. Introduction**

47 Reproductive performance in many species involves various diverse factors, including  
48 nutrition, with these effects likely to be mediated via endogenous endocrine influences  
49 (Cunningham *et al.*, 1999). To date, the mechanistic links between nutrition and the  
50 reproductive axis has not been clearly elucidated.

51 Leptin was identified as a peripheral satiety signal belonging to the helical cytokine family  
52 which crosses the blood brain barrier and signals to the hypothalamus regulating energy  
53 expenditure and appetite (Zhang *et al.*, 1994). Although it was originally thought to be  
54 derived predominantly from adipose tissue, leptin is now known to be produced in many  
55 tissues. Leptin circulates in plasma bound to a number of binding proteins such as one of the  
56 immunoglobulin superfamily members Siglec-6 (Patel *et al.*, 1999) and a soluble form of the  
57 leptin receptor (Liu *et al.*, 1997). Although there is some evidence that these proteins  
58 regulate the bioavailability of leptin (Lou *et al.*, 2010) the role of these binding proteins  
59 remains unclear and there has been little work in recent years investigating their function.  
60 Further studies have revealed that leptin actually appears to be almost ubiquitously expressed  
61 in many tissues and has a multitude of possible functions including a direct role in  
62 reproduction.

63 The complete absence of leptin is not developmentally lethal and in mice results in early  
64 onset obesity, stunted skeletal and brain growth, extreme insulin resistance, hyperphagia, a  
65 compromised immune system and infertility (Ingalls *et al.*, 1950; Ohtake *et al.*, 1977). A  
66 similar profile is seen in the relatively few human individuals who have been identified as  
67 leptin deficient (Montague *et al.*, 1997). After the discovery of leptin it was quickly  
68 discovered that leptin deficiency was not responsible for the worldwide rising obesity  
69 prevalence (Arch *et al.*, 1998; Caro *et al.*, 1996) rather leptin concentrations were closely  
70 correlated to BMI (Tungtrongchitr *et al.*, 2000), thus leading to the concept of leptin

71 resistance. The morbidly obese (*ob/ob*) mouse (Ingalls *et al.*, 1950) discovered many decades  
72 ago was found to be leptin deficient (Zhang *et al.*, 1994) and thus has been used to inform  
73 much of today's research. There is increasing evidence that, in addition to its action on food  
74 intake and energy expenditure, leptin plays an important role in many other systems including  
75 reproduction and development (Cunningham *et al.*, 1999; Holness *et al.*, 1999). Fertility can  
76 be restored in both female and male *ob/ob* mice by the exogenous provision of leptin, which  
77 is characterized by an increase in basal LH and FSH (Chehab, 1996; Mounzih *et al.*, 1997).  
78 However, fertility of *ob/ob* mice is not reversed simply by food restriction (Chehab, 1996;  
79 Mounzih *et al.*, 1997), indicating an effect of leptin per se on reproductive function.

80 Leptin signalling is through a single trans-membrane protein which is a member of the gp130  
81 family of cytokine receptors (Tartaglia *et al.*, 1995). The receptor occurs in at least 6 splice  
82 variants (*obRa-f*), all of which have an intact extracellular binding domain but different  
83 intracellular domains. *ObRe* is comprised of just the extracellular domain and is a major  
84 leptin binding protein in circulation. The only full length receptor *ObRb* is thought to be the  
85 predominant isoform involved in the intracellular signal transduction via the JAK/STAT  
86 pathway (Magkos *et al.*, 2011). Its importance is demonstrated in the diabetic mouse (*db/db*)  
87 which lacks a functional *ObRb* resulting in a similar phenotype to the *ob/ob* mouse. It is  
88 likely that the short form receptors (other than *ObRe*) which have only one of the two JAK  
89 binding domains (box 1) are also capable of signalling perhaps by partial activation JAK2.  
90 However their role may be more subtle with a recent study showing the *ObRa* knockout (KO)  
91 mouse is fertile and does not get obese however it does have some slight but significant  
92 dysfunction in response to a high fat diet (Li *et al.*, 2013). Leptin may also be involved in a  
93 number of other pathways such as PI3K and MAPK, although the mechanism is less well  
94 understood (Fruhbeck, 2006). It has also been shown that leptin binding to the receptor  
95 induces dimerization and heteromerization between the different isoforms has also been

96 reported (Bacart *et al.*, 2010; White and Tartaglia, 1999). Consequently, the role of the short  
97 isoforms of the receptor which are very abundant in many tissues remains unclear.

98 Leptin has a significant permissive role in the physiological regulation of several  
99 neuroendocrine axes, such as hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal, -thyroid, -growth hormone,  
100 and -adrenal axes (Khan *et al.*, 2012; Mantzoros *et al.*, 2011), but there is evidence excessive  
101 concentrations of leptin have negative effects on reproduction. The current review focuses on  
102 the role of leptin plays on reproduction via: 1) the hypothalamic-pituitary axis; 2) a direct  
103 peripheral effect on a variety of reproductive cells or organs, such as embryo, ovary, uterus  
104 and placenta (Table 1).

## 105 **2. The effect of leptin on implantation and pregnancy**

106 Leptin appears to modulate female reproductive physiology at multiple levels through central,  
107 peripheral and local regulation.

### 108 **2.1. *Leptin and hypothalamus-pituitary (HP) axis***

#### 109 ***Hypothalamus***

110 Leptin receptor/s mRNA have been localised in various cell types of the mouse (White *et al.*,  
111 2000), rat (Funahashi *et al.*, 2000), and ovine hypothalamus (Iqbal *et al.*, 2001). Additionally,  
112 not only the leptin receptor mRNA but also leptin protein mRNA has been found to be  
113 expressed in rat hypothalamus (Morash *et al.*, 1999; Morash *et al.*, 2003). Recent studies using  
114 advanced technologies has shown that hypothalamic gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH)  
115 neurones do not express the long form of leptin receptor (Ob-Rb) thus leptin does not appear to  
116 act directly on GnRH neurons to regulate fertility, at least, in rats and mice (Quennell *et al.*,  
117 2009). Although its cellular targets and molecular mechanisms of action remain to be fully  
118 elucidated, leptin effects on hypothalamic neuropeptides play a pivotal role in the maintenance  
119 of energy homeostasis and reproduction. To date, the Ob-Rb mRNA has been identified in the

120 arcuate and ventromedial nuclei of hypothalamus in all species studied (Finn *et al.*, 1998) - two  
121 areas responsible for both feeding and reproductive functions. The effects of leptin on GnRH are  
122 mediated through interneuronal pathways involving neuropeptide-Y (NPY), pro-  
123 opiomelanocortin (POMC), cocaine-and amphetamine-regulated transcript (CART),  
124 corticotrophin releasing factor (CRF) and orexin, CRF and kisspeptin.

125 It is relatively well documented that leptin's central action is mediated via hypothalamic NPY  
126 gene expression (Hakansson *et al.*, 1996; Schwartz *et al.*, 1996). In response to energy  
127 restriction or fasting, it is proposed that NPY gene expression increases in response to a  
128 reduction in circulating leptin levels. In support of this hypothesis, Ob-Rb is coexpressed in  
129 NPY neurons in the arcuate nucleus of the hypothalamus in mice (Mercer *et al.*, 1996a; Mercer  
130 *et al.*, 1996b), and sheep (Dyer *et al.*, 1997a). The increase in NPY production has been  
131 postulated to decrease the stimulatory input to downstream neural pathways that ultimately  
132 reach the GnRH neurons (Campfield and Smith, 1998; Yu *et al.*, 1997a). The evidence for  
133 neuroendocrine effects of leptin on GnRH release is convincing. Increased gonadotropin  
134 secretion consistently occurs as a result of leptin treatment in *ob/ob* mice and undernourished  
135 animals, presumably removing the inhibition of GnRH release by NPY (Barash *et al.*, 1996;  
136 Chehab *et al.*, 1996).

137 However, hypothalamic NPY is not the only central nervous system (CNS) target for leptin,  
138 since NPY knockout mice have normal food intake and body weight. Additionally, these mice  
139 are also fertile and respond to leptin treatment (Erickson *et al.*, 1996; Schwartz *et al.*, 1998),  
140 consequently it has been postulated that this system is not critical for mediating the reproductive  
141 effects of leptin. In support of this concept, the incubation of leptin and NPY with hypothalamic  
142 explants from adult rats revealed that leptin and NPY show a separate permissive effect on  
143 GnRH secretion in the adult rat hypothalamus (Lebrethon *et al.*, 2000; Parent *et al.*, 2000). In  
144 both sexes, NPY is predominantly involved in the control of the frequency of pulsatile GnRH

145 secretion through the Y5 receptor subtype, while leptin affects GnRH pulse amplitude via the  
146 modulation of the CART (a hypothalamic inhibitor of food intake) (Lebrethon *et al.*, 2000;  
147 Parent *et al.*, 2000). Thus the contribution of leptin to GnRH secretion could involve both an  
148 action on NPY and another neuroendocrine pathway such as the leptin-CART axis.

149 In addition to NPY, leptin receptor is also colocalised with other neuropeptides within the  
150 hypothalamus such as pro-opiomelanocortin (POMC), CART, CRF and orexin (Elias *et al.*,  
151 1999; Hakansson and Meister, 1998). POMC, the precursor protein of the endogenous ligand of  
152 the melanocortin system,  $\alpha$ -melanocyte-stimulating hormone, is one of the potential mediators  
153 of leptin in the hypothalamus (Lin *et al.*, 2001). POMC gene expression is regulated by leptin in  
154 a manner opposite to that of NYP, with the expression is decreased in the arcuate nucleus of  
155 *ob/ob* mice than in lean normal mice or with fasting (Thornton *et al.*, 1997). Leptin receptors are  
156 co-expressed in POMC neurons and leptin treatment reduced feed intake and increased POMC  
157 mRNA levels in *ob/ob* mice (Thornton *et al.*, 1997). Furthermore, genetic POMC deficiency  
158 leads to an obesity syndrome in both mice and humans (Tritos and Mantzoros, 1997). Neurons  
159 containing POMC are located in areas within the hypothalamus that are involved in GnRH  
160 secretion and feed intake regulation in the pig (Kineman *et al.*, 1989; Kineman *et al.*, 1988), and  
161 cattle (Leshin *et al.*, 1995). Therefore the interaction between POMC and leptin is likely to be an  
162 important signalling pathway in the regulation of body weight and the secretion of GnRH (Lin *et*  
163 *al.*, 2001).

#### 164 ***Pituitary***

165 With respect to the leptin action on pituitary, using immunohistochemistry and RT-PCR, Jin and  
166 co-workers (1999, 2000) have demonstrated the presence of leptin and OB-Rb in human, mice  
167 and rat pituitary tissue (Jin *et al.*, 1999; Jin *et al.*, 2000). Leptin was present in 20-25%, 7%, and  
168 5% of human, mouse, and rat anterior pituitary cells, respectively. The cells expressing leptin in  
169 humans were colocalised with ACTH staining cells (70%), with a lesser percentage in cells

170 expressing growth hormone (GH), thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH), and FSH/LH (Jin *et al.*,  
171 1999). However, in rat and mouse pituitary, TSH producing cells were the predominant cell type  
172 expressing leptin, with only a small percentage of LH and FSH cells colocalised with leptin (Jin  
173 *et al.*, 2000). The differences in cell type expressing leptin in humans and rodents may result in a  
174 species variation of leptin regulation in the pituitary. Leptin receptor mRNA has been found in  
175 rodent pituitary (Jin *et al.*, 2000), human foetal pituitary (Jin *et al.*, 1999; Shimon *et al.*, 1998)  
176 and ovine anterior pituitary (Dyer *et al.*, 1997b; Iqbal *et al.*, 2001). *In vitro* studies showed that  
177 release of LH and FSH from rat anterior pituitary in response to increasing doses of leptin was  
178 bell-shaped dose-response (Yu *et al.*, 1997a) indicating stimulatory effects at low concentrations  
179 and inhibitory effects at higher doses. In ovariectomized, oestrogen primed rats, leptin  
180 significantly increased plasma LH, whereas, it had no effect on plasma FSH concentrations (Yu  
181 *et al.*, 1997a). The above results suggesting that leptin may control the gonadotropes function  
182 both by action at the hypothalamic level on the HP axis, and by direct action in the pituitary  
183 itself (Hausman *et al.*, 2012).

## 184 **2.2. Leptin and its effects on peripheral tissue**

### 185 ***Leptin and ovary (oocytes)***

186 Ovarian follicle development is a complex process that begins with the establishment of a  
187 finite pool of primordial follicles and culminates in either the atretic degradation of the  
188 follicle or the release of a mature oocyte for fertilization (Amleh and Dean, 2002).  
189 Fluctuations in leptin levels occur naturally in the estrous cycle in rats (Fungfuang *et al.*,  
190 2013) and during the menstrual cycle in women, with lower circulating concentrations  
191 during the follicular phase and higher levels during the luteal phase (Cella *et al.*, 2000;  
192 Quinton *et al.*, 1999).

193 The identification of leptin receptor expression (ObRb, ObRa and ObRe) in gonads (Fei *et al.*,  
194 1997; Herrid *et al.*, 2006; Herrid *et al.*, 2008a) and the demonstration of leptin effects on



195 steroidogenesis in *in vitro* systems (Spicer and Francisco, 1997; Zachow and Magoffin, 1997),  
196 suggest that leptin also has direct effects on downstream endocrine targets of the reproductive  
197 axis. Indeed, it has been shown that leptin receptor mRNA (ObRb and ObRa) is expressed in  
198 human (Karlsson *et al.*, 1997), pig (Ruiz-Cortes *et al.*, 2000) and mouse ovary (Ryan *et al.*,  
199 2002). More recent work has demonstrated that ObRb is expressed in both granulosa and thecal  
200 cells in the pig (Smolinska *et al.*, 2013).

201 *In vitro* studies on thecal and granulosa cells of different animal species have shown that  
202 leptin has a negative effect on ovarian steroidogenesis. Leptin modulates the combined  
203 gonadotropin and insulin or insulin-like growth factor (IGF) stimulated steroidogenesis in  
204 bovine (Spicer *et al.*, 2000; Spicer and Francisco, 1997), and rat (Almog *et al.*, 2001) cells.  
205 Leptin also has an inhibitory effect on early follicular development in both immature and  
206 adult mice (Kikuchi *et al.*, 2001), but in contrast to the inhibitory effects of leptin on ovarian  
207 steroidogenesis, a stimulatory effect has also been reported by way of a marked increase in  
208 oestrogen production in the ovary when *ob/ob* mice were treated with recombinant leptin  
209 (Zamorano *et al.*, 1997).

210 Leptin protein is found in human follicular fluid, with levels corresponding to those found in  
211 serum (Cioffi *et al.*, 1997; Karlsson *et al.*, 1997). Data concerning follicular leptin concentration  
212 with oocyte maturation and embryo development are controversial. Patients who become  
213 pregnant from *in vitro* fertilisation IVF had lower mean follicular fluid concentration of leptin  
214 than non-pregnant patients (Mantzoros *et al.*, 2000). Follicular fluid leptin concentrations  
215 demonstrated a negative correlation with embryo quality in IVF patients (Barroso *et al.*, 1999),  
216 while an association between follicular leptin concentration and embryo development was not  
217 observed in a separate IVF program (Cioffi *et al.*, 1997).

218 Interestingly, mice treated with anti-leptin and gonadotropins had a significantly ( $P < 0.05$ )  
219 higher number of Graafian follicles in their ovaries compared with ovaries in the control and

220 gonadotropin alone group, this indicates that peripheral leptin may act as an inhibitor of  
221 ovarian follicle development (Panwar *et al.*, 2012). Passive immunization against leptin in  
222 sheep results in an acute increase in ovarian oestradiol secretion during follicular phase  
223 (Kendall *et al.*, 2004), while high leptin concentration in the ovary suppresses oestradiol  
224 production and interfere with the development of dominant follicles and oocytes maturation  
225 (Mantzoros, 2000).

### 226 ***Leptin and embryos***

227 Leptin has been detected by immunofluorescence in meiotically mature mouse, human, pig and  
228 bovine oocytes and early cleavage embryos (Cioffi *et al.*, 1997; Kim *et al.*, 2006). Moreover,  
229 leptin mRNA and protein has been identified in human and mouse blastocysts and hatched  
230 blastocysts (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2000b; Kawamura *et al.*, 2003; Kawamura *et al.*, 2002a). However,  
231 using conventional and real-time PCR, our and other studies indicated that leptin mRNA is not  
232 expressed in mouse 2, 4, 8-cell and blastocyst stages embryos (Herrid *et al.*, 2006; Schulz and  
233 Roberts, 2011), whereas three isoforms of leptin receptor (Ob-Ra, Ob-Rb and Ob-Re) were  
234 identified in these cells, indicating that leptin is likely to modulate embryo development via a  
235 paracrine signalling system (Herrid *et al.*, 2006). Therefore leptin presence in oocyte and  
236 embryos are maternal origin, which is differentially distributed among the blastomeres of pre-  
237 implantation embryos to create a polarized pattern (Antczak *et al.*, 1997; Schulz and Roberts,  
238 2011).

239 Leptin has a concentration and developmental stage-dependent effect on early mouse embryo  
240 development. The requirement of leptin for embryo development changes during the  
241 gestational period, with lower levels being beneficial to development at early embryogenesis  
242 and higher levels at later stages. Leptin improves early embryonic development at  
243 physiological concentrations, while it exerts an inhibitory effect on the 2-cell and 4-cell stage

244 embryos developing into advanced stages at supraphysiological dose when cultured *in vitro*.  
245 However, the inhibitory impact of high leptin concentration on embryo development was  
246 diminished by the 8-cell stage (Herrid *et al.*, 2006). The mechanism by which leptin regulates  
247 early embryonic development may be due to its effect in promoting cell proliferation. It has  
248 also been reported that leptin increased the total cell number of blastocysts, especially the  
249 trophoblast (ET) cells, which are necessary for implantation and form the placenta and  
250 extra-embryonic membranes (Craig *et al.*, 2005; Kawamura *et al.*, 2002a). Indeed, the  
251 addition of leptin into culture medium shortened the time required to develop from the 8-cell  
252 stage to blastocysts (Herrid *et al.*, 2006).

### 253 ***Leptin and uterus***

254 The identification of the long form of leptin receptor protein expression in the human uterus  
255 (Alfer *et al.*, 2000; Gonzalez *et al.*, 2000b) and the effect of leptin on steroid production in the  
256 ovary (Spicer *et al.*, 2000; Zachow *et al.*, 1999) suggests a relevant regulatory capacity of leptin  
257 in endometrial transformation and differentiation. Leptin and Ob-Rb protein were identified in  
258 human secretory endometrium and in cultured endometrial epithelial cells (EECs) by RT-PCR,  
259 western blot and immunohistochemistry (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2000b). In the pregnant mouse, the  
260 levels of leptin in the uterine fluid are higher than those in non-pregnant mouse as measured by  
261 ELISA (Kawamura *et al.*, 2002b).

262 In humans, the leptin receptor protein was shown to be expressed in glandular and luminal  
263 epithelium and is periodically regulated throughout the menstrual cycle, peaking in the early  
264 secretory phase (Alfer *et al.*, 2000; Kitawaki *et al.*, 2000). Although the exact reason for the  
265 variation in leptin receptor mRNA abundance during the menstrual cycle remains unclear, there  
266 does appear to be a link between the expression of this gene and ovarian steroids. In one study,

267 *in vitro* cultures of human proliferative endometrium with progesterone suppressed Ob-Rb  
268 mRNA expression by 50%, but not from the secretory endometrium (Koshiha *et al.*, 2001).

### 269 ***Leptin and implantation***

270 The first study investigating the dependence of pregnancy on leptin in the *ob/ob* mice revealed  
271 that a human recombinant leptin injection daily intraperitoneally (i.p) at a dose of 50 µg/g body  
272 weight to adult *ob/ob* female mice restored fertility. Withdrawal of leptin treatment from the  
273 pregnant females at 0.5, 6.5, 10.5 and 19.5 days post coitum did not affect any stage of the  
274 pregnancy (Mounzih *et al.*, 1997). From these findings it was concluded that conception,  
275 implantation, foetal growth and parturition are not dependent on the presence of leptin (Mounzih  
276 *et al.*, 1997). A similar study reported contrasting results with regard to the leptin requirement  
277 during early pregnancy. In this study, adult *ob/ob* males and females were injected with the murine  
278 recombinant leptin at a concentration 0.5 µg/g body weight twice a day for 8 days and then they  
279 were mated together, and the dose was reduced to 0.5 µg/g once a day. Pregnancy did not result  
280 when treatment was stopped at 0.5 or 3.5 days post coitum, while the withdrawal of leptin  
281 treatment at 6.5 or 14.5 did not affect normal pregnancy and parturition, suggesting that leptin is  
282 essential for normal preimplantation and implantation processes (Malik *et al.*, 2001). The  
283 differing results obtained in the two studies were discussed by Malik and coworkers (2001)  
284 (Malik *et al.*, 2001) and they presumed that the high dose leptin (50 µg/g) used in the first study  
285 may have led to an accumulated reserve of leptin sufficient to compensate for the leptin  
286 requirement of a successful early pregnancy.

287 Indeed, leptin increases the total cell number of blastocysts, especially the ET cells, which are  
288 necessary for implantation and form the placenta and extra-embryonic membranes (Craig *et al.*  
289 *et al.*, 2005; Herrid *et al.*, 2006; Kawamura *et al.*, 2002a). In addition, intrauterine injections of  
290 a leptin antagonist blocks implantation (Ramos *et al.*, 2005). Cell culture experiment using  
291 mouse trophoblastic giant cells showed that leptin maintains trophoblast cells at an

292 intermediary stage of differentiation and thus increases their invasiveness during implantation  
293 process (Schulz *et al.*, 2009). On the other data from our laboratory suggests that lowering  
294 leptin in circulation using antibodies increases implantation rates in mice (Panwar *et al.*,  
295 2014)

### 296 ***Leptin and pregnancy***

297 The circulating pattern of leptin in rodents and healthy pregnant women has been established by  
298 several studies. It appears that the maternal circulating leptin levels rise in both rodents (Chien *et*  
299 *al.*, 1997; Gonzalez *et al.*, 2000a) and humans (Hardie *et al.*, 1997) during pregnancy, especially  
300 in the second and third trimesters, with a significant fall at around birth. In contrast, a study  
301 conducted by Terada and colleagues (1998) showed the maternal circulating leptin levels are  
302 stable during early- and mid-pregnancy and decline during late pregnancy in the rat (Terada  
303 *et al.*, 1998). Similar results have also been observed in sheep (Thomas *et al.*, 2001).

304 The main source of this increase may be the placenta (Dotsch *et al.*, 1999; Hardie *et al.*, 1997;  
305 Masuzaki *et al.*, 1997) in humans but it has not been established whether placenta-derived leptin  
306 would affect the circulating levels of this hormone during pregnancy in rodents, despite leptin  
307 mRNA being expressed in placenta (Hoggard *et al.*, 1997; Terada *et al.*, 1998). However, leptin  
308 mRNA expression was not detected in pregnant mouse placenta, whereas the level of leptin  
309 mRNA in adipose tissue increased 3- to 5-fold on days 13 and 17 of pregnancy compared  
310 with that of virgin mouse, which roughly matches with the increase of serum leptin levels in  
311 pregnant mice from days 11 to day 17 of pregnancy (Tomimatsu *et al.*, 1997). It also has been  
312 reported that there is no peak in circulating leptin towards the end of pregnancy in the adolescent  
313 ewe, with the placenta leptin concentration appearing negligible. In this animal model, a  
314 nutritional switch-over experiment revealed that leptin mRNA and protein in perirenal adipose

315 tissue were higher in overfed animals (Thomas *et al.*, 2001). In aggregate, the elevated maternal  
316 leptin levels seem to be primarily due to the increased leptin production by adipose tissue.

317 The secretion of the soluble form of leptin receptor (Ob-Re) into the maternal circulation  
318 (Gavrilova *et al.*, 1997; Lewandowski *et al.*, 1999) or the changes in the levels of hormones  
319 which might stimulate leptin secretion (e.g. insulin, oestrogens and hCG) (Sivan *et al.*, 1998)  
320 may contribute to hyperleptinemia during pregnancy. However, the high maternal leptin  
321 concentrations during pregnancy are associated with a leptin resistant state as there is no  
322 decrease in food intake or change in energy expenditure (Holness *et al.*, 1999) and the functional  
323 reason for raised leptin is not yet fully determined. It has been suggested that this physiological  
324 resistance to the high levels of leptin is due, at least in part, to a decrease in the expression of  
325 Ob-Rb, the biologically active form of leptin receptor, in the hypothalamus during pregnancy in  
326 the rat (Garcia *et al.*, 2000).

327 In addition to being a site of leptin synthesis, the placenta is a site of abundant Ob-R expression  
328 of both the long signalling (Ob-Rb) and short transporting isoforms (Ob-Ra) (Ashworth *et al.*,  
329 2000; Hoggard *et al.*, 2001; Hoggard *et al.*, 1997). Thus, it is possible that placenta-derived  
330 leptin might have a paracrine and/or autocrine role in placenta–foetal physiology. Other authors  
331 have suggested that placenta-derived leptin might act as an important growth factor for the  
332 foetus and/or a signal of energy status between mother and foetus (Hassink *et al.*, 1997; Hoggard  
333 *et al.*, 1997). Whatever may be the role of leptin during pregnancy, the requirement for leptin  
334 during early implantation seems to be more important than during the mid to late stages.

335 Leptin is not necessary to maintain an established pregnancy in the *ob/ob* mice (Malik *et al.*,  
336 2001; Mounzih *et al.*, 1997), the physiological significance of the elevation of maternal leptin  
337 levels during late gestation is a mystery. This increase could be explained by the secretion of  
338 Ob-Re from the placenta which in the mouse, secretes a large amount of Ob-Re during late  
339 pregnancy resulting in a significant increase in serum leptin levels (Gavrilova *et al.*, 1997).

340 Circulating leptin concentrations reportedly increase during gonadotropin stimulation for IVF,  
341 apparently enhanced by the high oestradiol concentrations experienced during IVF cycles  
342 (Butzow *et al.*, 1999; Zhao *et al.*, 2000). Significantly lower concentrations of leptin were  
343 observed in women who subsequently miscarried in an IVF program (Laird *et al.*, 2001).  
344 Similarly, women with a successful pregnancy had higher concentrations of leptin at 12 days  
345 after embryo transfer than those who miscarried (Unkila-Kallio *et al.*, 2001), thus suggesting  
346 that leptin may play a role in preventing miscarriage. However, the serum leptin to body mass  
347 index (BMI) ratio was more strongly correlated with pregnancy success than was leptin alone  
348 (Brannian *et al.*, 2001). Moreover, women with a low leptin:BMI ratio had significantly more  
349 superior quality embryos on day 3 post-retrieval and a greater implantation rate than women  
350 with a high leptin:BMI ratio (Brannian *et al.*, 2001). These results seem to suggest that the  
351 requirement of leptin for a successful pregnancy changes during the gestational period, with  
352 lower levels being beneficial to implantation at early pregnancy and perhaps higher levels at  
353 later stages.

354 Interestingly, the administration of exogenous leptin to pregnant mice during food restriction did  
355 not increase the pregnancy rate, but had greater negative impacts on offspring health than food  
356 restriction alone, indicating that importance of low leptin in the physiological response to energy  
357 restriction (Schulz *et al.*, 2012).

### 358 **Leptin resistance**

359 Leptin resistance has been reported in a range of physiological conditions such as pregnancy  
360 (Henson and Castracane, 2000), early development (Mistry *et al.*, 1999) and human obesity  
361 (Houseknecht *et al.*, 1998). In fact, with the exception of the *ob/ob* mouse and a few individuals  
362 from a limited number of families (Montague *et al.*, 1997), all models of rodent and human  
363 obesity studied are characterized by hyperleptinemia, and not by leptin deficiency (Arch *et al.*,

364 1998; Caro *et al.*, 1996). Except for few genetically mutant individuals, leptin treatment always  
365 induces the development of leptin resistance in both diet-induced rodent models of obesity or  
366 obese human (Banks *et al.*, 2004; Ozcan *et al.*, 2009), the cause of this kind of resistance to  
367 leptin has yet to be explained.

368 With regards to the leptin resistance, age, sex and season are other major factors affecting leptin  
369 sensitivity. Aged rats demonstrate a reduced responsiveness to peripheral and central leptin, and  
370 the mechanism may involve impaired suppression of hypothalamic NPY mRNA that may be a  
371 consequence of impaired leptin signal transduction (Scarpace *et al.*, 2001). An overexpressing  
372 leptin transgenic mice model experiment demonstrated a two-stage phenotype with respect to fat  
373 accumulation (Qiu *et al.*, 2001). At 6-9 weeks of age, the transgenic mice responded to the  
374 moderate hyperleptinemia and reduced the brown and white fat depots, whereas the transgenic  
375 mice showed a rebound effect characterized by an increase in body weight and accumulation of  
376 adipose mass at 33-37 weeks (Qiu *et al.*, 2001). Similarly, in the female rats, GnRH pulse  
377 amplitude was significantly increased by leptin treatment while no such effects were seen in the  
378 male (Parent *et al.*, 2000). In Romney Marsh sheep, centrally injected leptin had no significant  
379 effect on the voluntary food intake in both sexes during Autumn. In Spring however, leptin  
380 exhibited a profound inhibitory effect on food intake in females, but only a slight effect in males  
381 (Clarke *et al.*, 2001). These data indicate that responsiveness to leptin depends on sex and also  
382 on season in animals whose food intakes are substantially affected by photoperiod (Clarke *et al.*,  
383 2001).

384 The availability of a murine model with chronically raised leptin levels has also provided new  
385 insights into the role played by leptin in reproduction. With no apparent adipose tissue and high  
386 leptin concentrations, the female transgenic skinny mice exhibit accelerated puberty and intact  
387 fertility at younger ages, followed by late-onset hypothalamic hypogonadism that is  
388 characterized by prolonged estrus, atrophic ovaries and reduced gonadotropin-releasing



389 hormone (GnRH) and LH secretion (Yura *et al.*, 2000). Hyperleptinemia *in vivo* seems to  
390 facilitate the onset of puberty but, if chronically persistent, it can later downregulate the central  
391 leptin signals that stimulate reproductive function, or interfere with gonadotropin stimulation of  
392 peripheral targets (Yura *et al.*, 2000).

393 The potential mechanism for leptin resistance has yet to be fully defined. A new concept of  
394 selective leptin resistance has been raised recently based on the studies in agouti yellow obese  
395 (Ay) mice (Correia *et al.*, 2002). The agouti mice are obese and resistant to the satiety and  
396 weight reducing actions of leptin (Halaas and Friedman, 1997), even though they do not have  
397 mutations in the leptin receptor gene (Correia *et al.*, 2002). Leptin-induced decreases in food  
398 intake and body weight were less in agouti obese mice than in lean littermates. In contrast,  
399 leptin-induced increases in sympathetic nerve activity did not differ in obese and lean mice.  
400 These findings led to the concept of selective leptin resistance, with resistance to the metabolic  
401 actions of leptin but preservation of the sympathoexcitatory actions (Correia *et al.*, 2002). This  
402 finding may have potential implications for human obesity, which is associated with elevated  
403 plasma leptin and is thought to be a leptin-resistant state. If leptin resistance is selective in obese  
404 humans, then leptin could contribute to sympathetic overactivity and its adverse consequences in  
405 human obesity (Correia *et al.*, 2002).

406 In addition, suppressor of cytokine signalling 3 (SOCS3) (Banks *et al.*, 2004; Bjorbak *et al.*,  
407 2000), tyrosine phosphatase 1 B (PTB1B) (Bence *et al.*, 2006) and serine phosphorylation of  
408 Janus kinase 2 (Jak2) have been demonstrated to have important roles in the blockade of leptin  
409 signalling (Ishida-Takahashi *et al.*, 2006). A recently studied showed that increased endoplasmic  
410 reticulum stress and activation of the unfolded protein response in the hypothalamus of obese  
411 mice inhibit leptin receptor signalling (Ozcan *et al.*, 2009). It would be interesting to understand  
412 that if leptin resistance during pregnancy is also mediated through the above mentioned  
413 pathways since the situation usually be reverted back to normal after parturition. However, we

414 don't think this will be a case from an evolutionary point of view because a normal  
415 physiological process won't employ such a stressed-related mechanism to modulate its  
416 signalling.

### 417 **Implications for Human Reproduction**

418 For humans, the combination of advanced reproductive female age (Marino *et al.*, 2011;  
419 Navot *et al.*, 1991) and maternal obesity (Dokras *et al.*, 2006; Fedorcsak *et al.*, 2004;  
420 Zander-Fox *et al.*, 2012) has led to a rapid increase in the demand for assisted reproductive  
421 technology (ART), with a consequent cost to the healthcare system. Poor ovarian response to  
422 controlled ovarian hyperstimulation (COH) and deterioration of oocyte quality are two major  
423 causes for obese and/or age-related decline of fertility (Fedorcsak *et al.*, 2004). However,  
424 there is currently no clinically effective method to improve the fertility in these patients. The  
425 co-administration of anti-leptin during the conventional COH may increase the sensitivity of  
426 ovaries to gonadotrophins (Panwar *et al.*, 2012) and lead to an efficient, safe and reliable  
427 approach to assisting these special patients to become pregnant.

### 428 **Summary**

429 In addition to the recognition the importance of leptin in restoration of fertility in *ob/ob* mice,  
430 several lines of evidences, e.g. 1) the correlation of lower follicular fluid leptin concentration  
431 and success of IVF treatment in normal woman (Mantzoros *et al.*, 2000), 2) the importance of  
432 low leptin for the normal adaptive response of the placenta to reduced energy viability  
433 (Schulz *et al.*, 2012), 3) the reduction of leptin in the circulation promotes ovarian follicle  
434 development in female mice (Panwar *et al.*, 2012), indicate that relatively higher leptin level  
435 in the circulation may be a possible mechanism for controlling ovulation rate, implantation  
436 number and litter size in multi-litter species in normal physiological conditions.

437 The majority of the studies that investigated the role of leptin in reproduction of normal  
438 animals have used supra-physiological leptin concentrations (Craig *et al.*, 2005; Herrid *et al.*,  
439 2008b; Kawamura *et al.*, 2002a), this may have resulted in conflicting results and jeopardised  
440 our ability to determine the role of leptin on these biological processes since leptin has been  
441 shown to exert biophysical effects on different type of cells/organs (Herrid *et al.*, 2006; Yu *et*  
442 *al.*, 1997b) or this might have led to a leptin resistance status caused by endoplasmic reticular  
443 stress (Ozcan *et al.*, 2009). Therefore it is important to realise this feature of leptin in  
444 designing biological experiments to investigate its functions. Our approaches to use anti-  
445 leptin antibodies or other antagonists (Gertler and Elinav, 2013) to neutralize peripheral  
446 leptin levels in experimental animals might be a novel way to overcome this problem as we  
447 demonstrated recently (Panwar *et al.*, 2012).

#### 448 **Conflict of Interest**

449 There is no conflict of interest

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848 **Table 1: Leptin Effects on Female Reproduction**

Action site	Target cells and organs	Biological process	Biological functions	Mechanism	References
Central nervous system	Hypothalamus	GnRH secretion	Regulation of LH and FSH secretion	Indirectly via kisspeptin,	Quennell et al., 2009
	Pituitary	Oestrous cycles and ovulation	FSH and LH release; LH plasticity and cyclicity		Barash et al., 1996; Carro <i>et al.</i> , 1997
	Ovary	Ovarian steroidogenesis	Oestrogen production	P450 aromatase; P450-17 $\alpha$ hydroxylase	Zamorano <i>et al.</i> , 1997
Peripheral system		Folliculogenesis	Low leptin promotes follicle development	Promotes the transition of primordial to primary follicles	Panwar et al., 2012
	Embryo	Embryogenesis	Biophysical effect on embryo growth and quality	Stimulate proliferation	Herrid et al., 2006
	Uterus	Angiogenesis	Stimulates metalloproteinase activity	Inhibit terminal differentiation of committed giant cells	Schulz et al., 2009

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