

1 **Obesity, a serious etiologic factor for male subfertility in modern**
2 **society**

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4 Yue Liu, Zhide Ding*

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6 *Department of Histology, Embryology, Genetics and Developmental Biology,*

7 *Shanghai Key Laboratory for Reproductive Medicine, School of Medicine, Shanghai*

8 *Jiao Tong University, Shanghai 200025, China*

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10 * Correspondence should be address to: Zhide Ding, *M.D., Ph.D.*, Department of

11 Histology, Embryology, Genetics and Developmental Biology, School of Medicine,

12 Shanghai Jiao Tong University, No.280, Chongqing Road (South), Shanghai 200025,

13 China.

14 Tel: +86-1391-6891-017, E-mail: zding@shsmu.edu.cn

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 Obesity, defined as excessive accumulation of fat in adipose tissue, is a metabolic
20 disorder resulting from behavioral, environmental and heritable causes. Obesity
21 increases the risks of hypertension, diabetes, cardiovascular disease, sleep apnea,
22 respiratory problems, osteoarthritis and cancer. Meanwhile, the negative impact of
23 obesity on male reproduction is gradually recognized. According to the clinical
24 investigations and animal experiments, obesity is correlated with reductions in sperm
25 concentration and motility, increase in sperm DNA damage and changes in
26 reproductive hormones. Several mechanisms can elucidate the effects of obesity on
27 sperm functions and male subfertility, i.e., the excessive conversion of androgens into
28 estrogens in redundant adipose tissue causes sexual hormone imbalance, subsequently
29 resulting in hypogonadism. Secondly, adipokines produced by adipose tissue induce
30 severe inflammation and oxidative stress in male reproductive tract, directly impairing
31 testicular and epididymal tissues. Moreover, increased scrotal adiposity leads to
32 increase gonadal heat, continuously hurting spermatogenesis. Therefore, obesity alters
33 the systematic and regional environment crucial for spermatogenesis in testis and
34 sperm maturation in epididymis, and finally results in poor sperm quality including
35 decreased sperm motility, abnormal sperm morphology and acrosome reaction,
36 changed membrane lipids and increased DNA damage. Furthermore, recent studied
37 indicate that epigenetic changes may be a consequence of increased adiposity. A
38 major effort to identify epigenetic determinants of obesity revealed that sperm DNA
39 methylation and non-coding RNA modification are associated with BMI changes and

40 proposed to inherit metabolic comorbidities across generations. This review will
41 explain how obesity-related changes in males to influence sperm function and male
42 fertility as well.

43

44 **Introduction**

45 Obesity is a metabolic disease determined by lifestyle such as physical activity,
46 environmental factors (food variety and intake) and genetic factors. In recent decades,
47 it becomes a major health problem and increases worldwide at an alarming rate.
48 Approximately 1.9 billion people are overweight (body mass index [BMI] ≥ 25 kg/m²)
49 or affected by obesity (BMI ≥ 30 kg/m²) in the world (World Health Organization,
50 2014), and are at risk of developing type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular disease and
51 related metabolic and inflammatory disturbances. Additionally, there is growing
52 interest and progress in understanding the impact of obesity on male reproduction.
53 Recently, both clinical and experimental reveal the negative consequences of obesity
54 on male reproductive function. According to the clinical investigation, men with
55 overweight or obesity can decrease sperm quality including sperm concentration,
56 sperm motility, acrosome reaction decline, increased sperm DNA damage and lower
57 embryo implantation rates as well, comparing to those of normal BMI men (Jensen *et*
58 *al.* 2004, Dupont *et al.* 2013, Sermondade *et al.* 2013, Samavat *et al.* 2014, Shukla *et*
59 *al.* 2014, McPherson *et al.* 2015, Soubry *et al.* 2016). In consequence, obesity was
60 associated with a more than 20% increased cases of subfertility and infertility (Cui *et*
61 *al.* 2016).

62 Notably, male fertility depends on certain amounts of spermatozoa with
63 sufficiently high quality. And the spermatogenesis and sperm maturation are highly
64 complex and specialized processes under strictly regulatory mechanisms, which are
65 involved in the sex steroids, testicular niche, Sertoli cells, epididymic fluid and so on.

66 However, there is an undisputed fact that obesity affects male reproductive potential.
67 In general, the excessive visceral adiposity in obese individual leads to the changes in
68 hormone levels and promotes chronic inflammation in reproductive tract (MacDonald
69 *et al.* 2010, Dulloo & Montani 2012), and high fat content in scrotum area also causes
70 an increase in scrotal temperature. Thus, all of these consequences of obesity
71 subsequently can damage the microenvironments of testes and epididymis, which is
72 crucial for the production and maturation of spermatozoa. In practical terms, obesity
73 primarily impair the physical and molecular structure of sperm during both
74 spermatogenesis in testis and sperm maturation in epididymis, finally reducing sperm
75 quality and causing male infertility risk.

76

77 ***Obesity leads to hypogonadism***

78 Male obesity is associated with hypogonadism. Most obese males have altered
79 reproductive hormonal profiles, e.g. elevated estrogen and leptin levels, and decreased
80 testosterone, follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), sex hormone-binding globulin
81 (SHBG), ghrelin and inhibin B levels (MacDonald *et al.* 2010, McPherson & Lane
82 2015, Martins *et al.* 2015, Martins *et al.* 2016, Cui *et al.* 2017). In obese men, the
83 hyperactivity of aromatase (cytochrome P450 enzyme) in redundant white adipose
84 tissue causes excessive conversion of androgens into estrogens. Therefore,
85 gonadotrophin secretion from the pituitary decreases through feedback inhibition on
86 the hypothalamus and pituitary gland, and then further impacts on testosterone
87 production through falls in gonadotrophin releasing hormone (GnRH)-luteinizing

88 hormone (LH)/ FSH pulses (Mah & Wittert 2010, Michalakis *et al.* 2013, Rey *et al.*
89 2013). The disruption of the negative feedback loop of the HPG axis finally leads to
90 the significant decline in testosterone production.

91 Undoubtedly, these sexual hormone imbalances may be one of the important
92 causes for male infertility or subfertility induced by obesity. It is known that, both
93 testicular development at puberty and spermatogenesis maintenance at adult depend
94 on a high level of testosterone. Normal intra-testicular testosterone levels are 50 to
95 100 times comparing to that in serum. Actually, this high level intra-testicular
96 testosterone is required for maintenance of the blood-testis barrier (BTB), the specific
97 cell junctions between Sertoli cells, as well as maintenance of the cell adhesion
98 between Sertoli cells and germ cells (Lie *et al.* 2013). Meanwhile, testosterone is
99 indispensable in meiotic progression and spermatid maturation. Thus, the high levels
100 of testosterone, associated with Sertoli cells, construct the niche suitable for the
101 developing germ cells throughout the different phases of spermatogenesis.
102 Additionally, FSH is another important regulator of Sertoli cells, stimulating virtually
103 all functions related to spermatogenesis. Therefore, the low testosterone and FSH
104 levels in obese men can be a cause for impaired spermatogenesis and finally lead to
105 reduced sperm counts and subfertility (Cheng *et al.* 2010, Ramaswamy & Weinbauer
106 2015).

107

108 ***Obesity induces Inflammation***

109 Accumulated evidences suggested a positive correlation between chronic

110 inflammation or pro-inflammation state and human obesity, while parallel
111 relationships have been observed in animal models (Divella *et al.* 2016, Griffin *et al.*
112 2016, Kolb *et al.* 2016). The white adipocytes produce and secrete a large number of
113 molecules, collectively called adipocytokines or adipokines, and the majority of
114 adipokines, such as tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), interleukins (IL-1, IL-6 and
115 IL-18) are pro-inflammatory cytokines, which are the mediators of inflammation and
116 will further increase inflammation and attract macrophages. It is thought that
117 pro-inflammatory cytokines contribute to the disruption in glucose homeostasis and
118 insulin resistance that are often linked with obesity. Besides the adipocytes, these
119 pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as TNF- α and IL-6, are also increased in the serum,
120 testicular tissue and the seminal plasma of obese males (Zhang *et al.* 2015, Huang *et*
121 *al.* 2016).

122 It is now well-documented that pro-inflammatory cytokines exert some impacts
123 on the HPG axis and on fertility (Tsatsanis *et al.* 2015). The systematic inflammatory
124 diseases, such as rheumatoid arthritis, consequently display reduced testosterone
125 levels. The pro-inflammatory cytokine TNF- α puts direct inhibition on LH function
126 and subsequently, leading to low testosterone and male subfertility (Iwasa *et al.* 2009).
127 Therefore, the increased systematic inflammatory cytokines in the serum of obesity
128 males can induce a loss of androgen production at various levels of the hypothalamic–
129 pituitary–Leydig cell axis.

130 In testis, pro-inflammatory cytokines can directly impair the seminiferous
131 epithelium. Sertoli cells are response for many of these pro-inflammatory cytokines,

132 most notably IL-1, TNF- α and interferon. It has been postulated that these molecules
133 affect the expression and assembly of the junctional proteins, e.g. zonulin/zonula
134 occludens-1 (ZO-1), occludin, claudins and actin–myosin cytoskeletal proteins,
135 thereby induce opening of the cell junctions between the adjacent Sertoli cells and
136 lead to disturbances in the niche of seminiferous epithelium essential for
137 spermatogenesis (Zhang *et al.* 2014, Chojnacka *et al.* 2016, Li *et al.* 2016, Stanton
138 2016). In fact, impaired BTB and decreased expression of junctional proteins in
139 Sertoli cell have been observed in many obese animal models induced by diet (Liu *et*
140 *al.* 2014, Fan *et al.* 2015).

141 Additionally, sperm maturation in epididymis is crucial for sperm to acquire the
142 motile ability and fertile capacity. The epididymal epithelium transports proteins and
143 lipids through epididymosomes to the sperm membrane, for which is necessary for
144 sperm maturation (Sullivan 2015). Pro-inflammatory state induced by obesity can also
145 damage epididymal epithelium function, by altering the environment within the
146 epididymis, modifying the epididymosomes content and increasing the influx of
147 neutrophils and macrophages to the epididymial lumen, resulting in higher cytokine
148 expression and epithelial apoptosis, thus impeding sperm maturation and fertilization
149 ability. Consequently, the presence of pro-inflammatory cytokines produced within
150 the testis and epididymis or entered from the circulation during systematic
151 inflammation, impinge upon the critical regulations of the spermatogenesis and sperm
152 maturation.

153

154 ***Obesity enhances oxidative stress***

155 One of the main factors relevant to disrupted sperm function in obese males is the
156 oxidative stress caused by excess of reactive oxygen species (ROS), mainly including
157 superoxide anion, nitric oxide, hydroxyl radical and oxidants. ROS can be produced
158 normally in cellular metabolism, whereas in excessive state, it can induce oxidative
159 stress and cause damage to DNA and plasma membrane integrity in sperm, and
160 increase stress on the testicular environment as well (Rato *et al.* 2014). Obesity,
161 associated with the chronic inflammatory state, causes a higher metabolic rate and an
162 increased ROS formation in testicular tissue, reproductive tract and semen. The
163 pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-6 and TNF-alpha, disrupt the seminiferous
164 epithelium and epididymal epithelium by creating high levels of ROS. Additionally,
165 inflammatory that attracts infiltrating phagocytic leukocytes are also capable of
166 inducing oxidative stress in the male reproductive tract (Henkel 2011, Lavranos *et al.*
167 2012). Several studies have shown that oxidative stress in semen and testis were
168 positive correlations to the increase in BMI and sperm DNA damage, and negative
169 correlation to the decreased sperm motility and acrosome reaction (Bakos *et al.* 2011,
170 Tunc *et al.* 2011). Thus, obviously, excessive oxidative stress is one of the potential
171 mechanisms leading to poor sperm quality in obese males.

172 Besides, raised gonadal temperature in obese male may also contribute to altered
173 sperm parameters. The process of spermatogenesis is highly sensitive to heat, with
174 optimal temperature ranging between 34–35°C in human. However, in obese male,
175 increased scrotal adiposity directly leads to increases in gonadal heat (Garolla *et al.*

176 2015). Definitely, increased testicular heat can substantially reduce sperm motility and
177 concentration, and increase sperm DNA damage and sperm oxidative stress as well
178 (Du Plessis *et al.* 2010).

179 Furthermore, a positive correlation exists between increasing BMI and higher
180 sperm/seminal plasma ROS levels (Tunc *et al.* 2011, Taha *et al.* 2016). In particular,
181 spermatozoa are individually susceptible to oxidative stress owing to their specially
182 simplified organelles and limited antioxidant defensive capacity. In spermatozoa, ROS
183 are mainly generated from the sperm mitochondria and in normal condition, they may
184 be facilitated with sperm-egg recognition, fusion and fertilization later (Amaral *et al.*
185 2013), however, high levels of ROS prone to attack the lipids in sperm plasma
186 membrane as well as the DNA in nucleus and mitochondria (Aitken *et al.* 2016).

187

188 ***Obesity impairs sperm parameters***

189 The effect of male obesity on sperm parameters, such as sperm concentration, sperm
190 motility and morphology, has been well documented in human and animal models.
191 Many clinic investigations show that abnormal semen parameters can attribute to
192 obesity including decreased sperm concentration, decreased sperm motility and
193 increased abnormal morphology (Shukla *et al.* 2014, Guo *et al.* 2016). Actually, obese
194 men are more likely to exhibit a reduction in semen quality than men with a normal
195 weight and responsible to high risk of infertility. Consistently, abnormal sperm
196 parameters including reduced sperm motility, decreased sperm counts and increased
197 sperm deformity are also observed in the animal models with diet-induced obesity,

198 thereby result in male subfertility (Bakos *et al.* 2011, Fernandez *et al.* 2011, Fan *et al.*
199 2015). On the other hand, it was verified that many factors altered in obese male may
200 impair sperm quality including sexual hormone imbalance, oxidative stress, chronic
201 inflammation. Notably, there are also some evidences indicates that weight loss, either
202 by exercise, lifestyle changes or bariatric surgery, can efficiently result in increased
203 serum testosterone levels and sperm count (Hakonsen *et al.* 2011, Palmer *et al.* 2012),
204 suggesting benefits for a possible weight loss on male fertility.

205 Moreover, a preliminary study reports that acrosome reaction, both spontaneous
206 acrosome reaction and progesterone induced acrosome reaction, is impaired in obese
207 men (Samavat *et al.* 2014). Similarly, declined sperm acrosome reaction induced by
208 calcium ionophore A23187 is also observed in diet-induced obese mouse model (Fan
209 *et al.* 2015). Although the relationship between male obesity and sperm acrosome
210 reaction is few documented, it is reasonable that the impact of obesity on
211 spermatogenesis and sperm maturation, which results in oxidative stress and
212 membranous lipids alteration, may also cause some defects in acrosome reaction.

213 Additionally, several comparative proteomic studies have been applied to
214 illuminate the mechanisms of obesity impact on sperm quality. Using difference gel
215 electrophoresis or liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS),
216 differential expressed proteins in spermatozoa from obese males are identified
217 (Paasch *et al.* 2011, Liu *et al.* 2015). Proteins with less abundant in obesity associated
218 asthenozoospermia are mainly correspond to an array of biological functions
219 including actin organization, flagellar assembly, vesicular traffic, protein degradation

220 and stress resistance, and most of which are involved in acrosome biogenesis, nuclear
221 reshaping and flagellum formation during spermiogenesis that may directly causes
222 abnormal sperm function.

223

224 ***Obesity increases sperm DNA damage***

225 In general, the backbone of the DNA helix is frequently cleaved in spermatozoa
226 owing to the uncondensed DNA and results in either single-strand breaks (SSB) or
227 double-strand breaks (DSB). DNA fragmentation index (DFI) is a parameter
228 represented the percent of spermatozoa in a semen sample that have single/double
229 strand breaks in nuclear DNA. In clinics, DFI at 3–5% is considered normal, whereas
230 rise to 25–30% may increase the risk of infertility (Bungum *et al.* 2011).

231 The integrity of DNA in the sperm nucleus is an important determinant of semen
232 quality since it is vital for fertilization rates, embryo quality, pregnancy rates and
233 miscarriage rates as well. There are numerous human and animal studies to show the
234 significant negative associations between obesity and sperm DNA integrity (Kort *et al.*
235 2006, Chavarro *et al.* 2010, MacDonald *et al.*, 2010; Bakos *et al.* 2011, Fariello *et al.*
236 2012, Duale *et al.* 2014). Although various methods are applied to measure sperm
237 DNA integrity, such as terminal-deoxynucleotidyl transferase mediated nick end
238 labeling (TUNEL), single cell gel electrophoresis (Comet) assay and sperm chromatin
239 structure assay (SCSA), the most results consistently confirm the relationship between
240 obesity and increased DNA damage. One of the main contributors in obesity for
241 sperm DNA structure damage is ROS. The oxidative attack particular to sperm DNA

242 can lead to DNA fragmentation directly, as well as to cause the formation of base
243 adducts particularly 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine (8OH-dG), which results in base
244 mismatch and DNA mutation (De Iuliis *et al.* 2009, Aitken *et al.* 2016). Meanwhile,
245 the replacement of histone by protamines in late round spermatids also plays a critical
246 role in sperm DNA protection. The histone acetylation is necessary for histones
247 replacement by protamines and alterations in the histone acetylation are commonly
248 found in the diet-induced obese mouse models, resulting in increased levels of DNA
249 damage (Gaucher *et al.* 2010, Palmer *et al.* 2011, Davidson *et al.* 2015). On the other
250 hand, because of the limitation in antioxidant defensive capacity and defectiveness in
251 DNA repair system, the DNA damage induced by ROS in spermatozoa is particularly
252 crippling and increase the risk of failure in further fertilization and embryonic
253 development (Gavriliouk & Aitken 2015).

254

255 ***Obesity alters sperm lipid composition***

256 The sperm membrane is composed of various saturated fatty acids (i.e. myristic acid,
257 palmitic acid, stearic acid and etc.) and unsaturated fatty acids (i.e. palmitoleic acid,
258 oleic acid, linoleic acid, arachidonic acid, docosahexaenoic acid and etc.). The fatty
259 acid composition of spermatozoa is important for the sperm function, including sperm
260 motility, viability and fertility (Aksoy *et al.* 2006, Martinez-Soto *et al.* 2013, Gangwar
261 & Atreja 2015, Andersen *et al.* 2016). The polyunsaturated fatty acids in spermatozoa,
262 especially docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), are positive associated with sperm
263 concentration, morphology and motility (Aksoy *et al.* 2006, Tavilani *et al.* 2007,

264 Keber *et al.* 2013). The membranal lipids of the spermatozoa are mainly determined
265 during spermatogenesis in testis and sperm maturation in epididymis. Therefore, as
266 expected, the fatty acid composition of spermatozoa is also in relation to BMI, which
267 consists with the changes of inflammatory and oxidative stress in testis and
268 epididymis. Indeed, BMI is negatively correlated with sperm DHA and palmitic acid
269 levels (Andersen *et al.* 2016). The fact indicates that changes in the fatty acid
270 composition of spermatozoa could be one of the mechanisms underlying reduced
271 sperm quality in men with high BMI.

272 Meanwhile, membranal cholesterol is a main constituent in spermatozoa, which is
273 quite various during sperm maturation and capacitation. The membranal cholesterol
274 efflux that removes off cholesterol from sperm membrane during sperm capacitation
275 is essential for modifying the membranal fluidity and further contributes to sperm
276 motility maintenance and normal acrosome reaction (Wertheimer *et al.* 2008,
277 Whitfield *et al.* 2015). Both clinic and animal studies have revealed the significant
278 rise in sperm cholesterol content in obese males. These changes to sperm are proposed
279 to cause sperm morphological abnormalities, decreased motility and premature
280 acrosome reaction (Schisterman *et al.* 2014).

281 Normally, the membranal constituents of spermatozoa are composed of high
282 contents of unsaturated fatty acids, with especially high levels of DHA that
283 contributes up to 30% of the total fatty acid composition (Aksoy *et al.* 2006, Tavilani
284 *et al.* 2007, Andersen *et al.* 2016). However, the membranous unsaturated fatty acids
285 are susceptible to ROS and result in lipid peroxidation (Henkel 2011, Aitken *et al.*

286 2016). Hence, induced by excess amount of ROS in obese males may lead to lipid
287 peroxidation that is related to poor membranal lipid fluidity and further affect sperm
288 motility and acrosome reaction.

289

290 ***Obesity influences sperm epigenetic modification***

291 Epigenetic modifications, such as DNA methylation and hydroxymethylation, histone
292 modifications and non-coding RNA expression, modulate the transcription intensity
293 and regulate gene expression in time and space without altering the genetic
294 information in DNA. Both genetic and environmental factors can affect the epigenetic
295 modifications and eventually influence the phenotype. Obesity is considered as a
296 metabolic disorder resulting from the obesogenic environment such as high energy
297 intake and low exercise rate. However, recent studies on epigenetic modifications
298 influenced by obesity demonstrate that alterations in DNA methylation are a
299 consequence of increased BMI (Dick *et al.* 2014, Ozanne 2015, Wang *et al.* 2016,
300 Mendelson *et al.* 2017, Wahl *et al.* 2017).

301 Moreover, some clinical and animal studies suggest that paternal obesity may also
302 have an impact on the metabolic health for his and or her offspring and
303 grand-offspring, which means that children born from obese parents are more likely to
304 develop childhood obesity and suffer from adverse metabolic diseases (Fullston *et al.*
305 2015, McPherson *et al.* 2015, Slyvka *et al.* 2015, Chowdhury *et al.* 2016, Hur *et al.*
306 2017, Lecomte *et al.* 2017). Meanwhile, it is equally clear that children from obese
307 fathers are at higher risk of developing metabolic disease in later life, for which is

308 independent of their mother's body weight. Current evidences further indicate that
309 obesity and its related metabolic comorbidities inherited across generations through
310 non-genetic mechanisms are dependent on the epigenetic modification in gametes
311 (Öst *et al.* 2014, Grandjean *et al.* 2015, Terashima *et al.* 2015, Soubry *et al.* 2016, Hur
312 *et al.* 2017). Thus, it is believed that epigenetic modifications in sperm can be
313 influenced by obesity and inherited trans-generation, although the research about
314 obesity related epigenetic modifications in sperm are few concerned on.

315 As known, methylation of DNA and acetylation of histones are dynamic
316 phenomena during spermatogenesis, by which is vital for the normal processes of
317 spermatogenesis and fundamental for a successful pregnancy. DNA methylation is the
318 reversible and heritable attachment of a methyl group to a nucleotide. The most
319 common form of DNA methylation occurs at the 5' carbon of cytosine in CpG
320 dinucleotides, creating 5-methylcytosine. DNA methylation in sperm is associated
321 with acetylation of histones, resulting in its replacement by protamines (Delaval *et al.*
322 2007). In particular, DNA methylation in spermatozoa displays two statuses, in which
323 are either closed to no methylation or very high methylation, and methylated CpGs
324 are almost exclusively found in protamine-associated DNA (Hammoud *et al.* 2009,
325 Donkin *et al.* 2016). However, the extent of histone replacement and DNA
326 methylation in sperm varies widely on a species-specific basis. A genome wide study
327 reports that 9081 unique genes in sperm are differentially methylated between obese
328 men and normal lean men, which are enrichment for the term "nervous system
329 development" (Donkin *et al.* 2016). Additionally, in high fat diet induced obesity rat

330 model, numerous differentially methylated regions corresponding to 92 genes
331 involved in cellular localization, transport, and metabolic processes are identified in
332 the spermatozoa and some differentially methylated regions are inherited
333 trans-generation (de Castro Barbosa *et al.* 2015). The methylation of DNA in sperm is
334 susceptible to environmental factors that might result in methylation status changes.

335 Furthermore, the presence of non-coding RNA in sperm from many species may
336 have post-fertilization functions including transmission of acquired characteristics
337 (Miller & Ostermeier 2006, Sandler *et al.* 2013, Gapp *et al.* 2014). The non-coding
338 RNA in sperm contains ribosomal RNA (rRNA), microRNAs (miRNA),
339 PIWI-interacting RNAs (piRNA), small nucleolar RNA (snoRNA), small nuclear
340 RNA (snRNA) and tRNA-derived fragments (tRFs). Analysis of the non-coding RNA
341 content in sperm from either human or rat model reveals that the expression levels of
342 several miRNAs, piRNAs, tRFs, and snRNA fragments were altered in the
343 spermatozoa from obese males (de Castro Barbosa *et al.* 2015, Donkin *et al.* 2016).
344 Some of the differential expressed piRNA are speculated to modulate the expression
345 of genes involved in behavior and food intake and may participate in their offspring's
346 predisposition to obesity (Donkin *et al.* 2016). On the other hand, the altered miRNA
347 let-7c expression in sperm concurs that in adipose tissue from the offspring,
348 suggesting the transgenerational inheritance of metabolic dysfunction sired by obese
349 fathers (de Castro Barbosa *et al.* 2015, Chen *et al.* 2016). Therefore, epigenetics may
350 provide a key for elucidation of the intergenerational influences on obesity.

351

352 In addition to the adverse effects induced by obesity on male sperm epigenetic
353 modification, there are several evidences suggested that some other negative impacts
354 may be transmitted to the offspring (de Castro Barbosa *et al.* 2015, Fullston *et al.*
355 2015, Chen *et al.* 2016, Chowdhury *et al.* 2016, Hur *et al.* 2017, Lecomte *et al.* 2017).
356 For instance, epidemiologic evidences showed that environmental challenges imposed
357 on the father, such as stress, specific diets, toxins, tobacco smoking and alcohol
358 consumption, have been found to influence the development of the offspring via the
359 non-genetic alterations within sperm including small non-coding RNAs, DNA damage,
360 DNA methylation and histone modifications (Chen *et al.* 2016, Rando 2016,
361 Schagdarsurengin & Steger 2016, Fullston *et al.* 2017).

362

363 ***Conclusion***

364 In summary, it gradually unveils a fact that male obesity has negative impacts on
365 fertility, sperm function and on the health of the offspring for a long-term. Male
366 obesity alters the environment essential for spermatogenesis and sperm maturation,
367 including hypothalamic pituitary gonadal (HPG) axis related sexual hormone
368 imbalance, increased scrotal temperature, induced chronic inflammation and oxidative
369 stress in testis and epididymis, and declined Sertoli cell activity. The impaired
370 spermatogenesis and sperm maturation can further cause poor sperm quality,
371 including declined sperm motility, inappropriate lipid composition, increased ROS
372 and DNA damage, and abnormal epigenetic modification that may be
373 transgenerational transmitted, finally leading to male subfertility or infertility indeed

374 (Fig. 1).

375 Nevertheless, the mechanisms of obesity that impacts on male reproduction
376 remain somewhat unclear and still need to be further investigated although the
377 molecular alterations associated with obesity have been generally reported (Craig *et al.*
378 2017, Oliveira *et al.* 2017). For instance, among the multiple factors relevant to male
379 subfertility associated with obesity, inflammation in reproductive system is one of
380 what have been overlooked in previous studies. Obesity related chronic inflammation
381 is considered to raise the risk of cardiovascular disease, tumorigenesis, diabetes and
382 etc., which means that the systematic chronic inflammation alters the individual
383 homeostasis. Particularly in reproductive system that is essential for spermatogenesis
384 and sperm maturation, chronic inflammation can affect the sperm fertilizing capability
385 as well as the sperm epigenome. Thus, the inflammatory indicators in semen could
386 potentially be a useful evaluation standard for sperm quality and are worthy of
387 in-depth exploring. Meanwhile, the sperm epigenetic alterations induced by obesity
388 will pass on to the subsequent generation and may result in the metabolic changes in
389 the offspring even in the grand-offspring. Therefore, it is crucial to understand the
390 changes of key epigenetic signatures in sperm induced by obesity and the
391 transmission of these fingerprints across generations. Besides, based on the
392 mechanism of epigenetic alteration and inheritance occurring in male obesity, it may
393 be easier to explore the phenotypic inheritance in other types of environmental or
394 health challenges, such as smoking, aging, nervousness and toxin.

395

396 **Declaration of interest**

397 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as
398 prejudicing the impartiality of this review.

399

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405

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Figure legend

Figure 1

Effects of obesity on male fertility. Male obesity can lead to hypothalamic pituitary gonadal (HPG) axis related hormone imbalance, induce chronic inflammation and enhance oxidative stress at both systemic and tissular levels. Therefore, the environment which is essential for spermatogenesis in testis and sperm maturation in epididymis such as Sertoli cell activity, BTB integrity and epididymal epithelium activity is gradually impaired by hormone deficiency, inflammation and oxidative attack. Then, the impaired spermatogenesis and sperm maturation can cause poor sperm quality, including declined sperm concentration and motility, inappropriate lipid composition, increased DNA damage and abnormal epigenetic modification, finally leading to male subfertility and health problems that may be transmitted to the offspring via epigenetic inheritance.

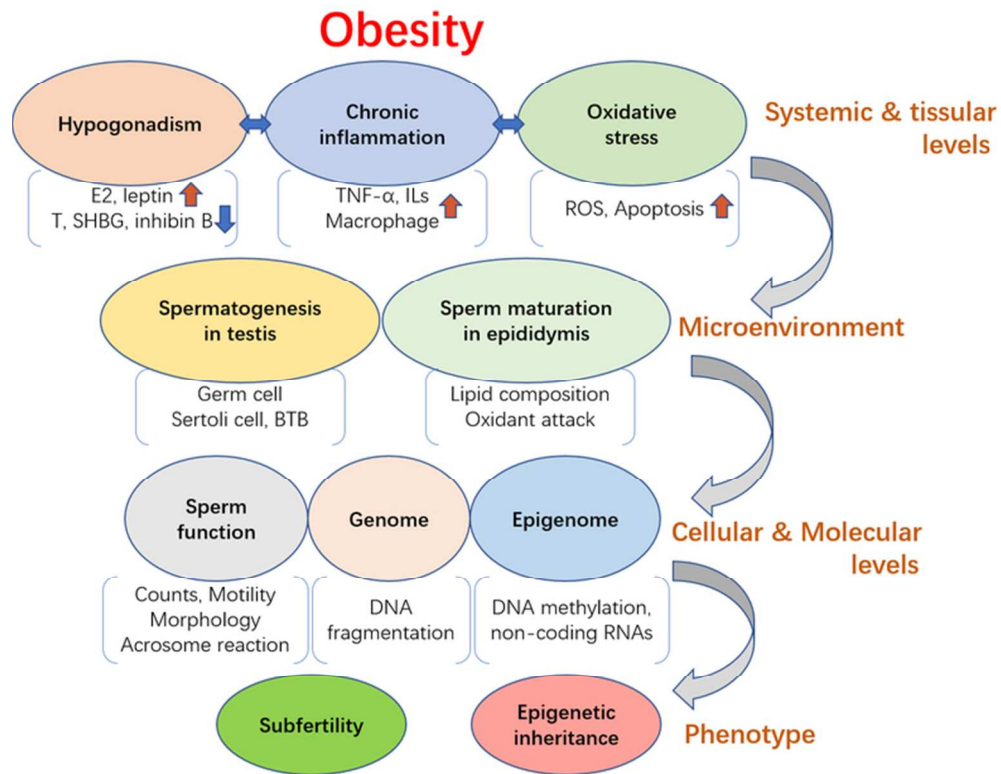


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