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Publication Date

2019-07-01

DOI

10.1016/j.mce.2019.04.018

Peer reviewed

PACAP induces FSH β gene expression via EPAC

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Short title: EPAC bridges cAMP to gonadotropin expression

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Key words: PACAP, GnRH, EPAC, gonadotropin, FSH

Declarations of interest: none

Funding Sources: This study was supported by R01 HD091167 from NIH NICHD to Djurdjica Coss.

Abstract

Gonadotropins, luteinizing hormone (LH) and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), are heterodimers of a common α subunit and unique β subunits. Regulation of their levels, primarily by GnRH, is critical for reproductive function. Several other hormones modulate gonadotropin expression, either independently or by modifying the responsiveness to GnRH. Pituitary adenylate cyclase activating peptide (PACAP) is one such hormone. Four-hour treatment of female mouse primary pituitary cells by either GnRH or PACAP induced FSH^β expression, while 24-hour treatment repressed FSH³. Both PACAP and GnRH caused FSH secretion into the medium. In the gonadotropes, PACAP activates primarily Gas and increases concentration of cAMP, while GnRH primarily functions via $G\alpha q$ and increases calcium concentration. Herein, we compared PACAP and GnRH signaling pathways that lead to the induction of FSH β expression. Interestingly, constitutively active $G\alpha s$ represses LH β and induces FSH β expression, while $G\alpha q$ induces both β -subunits. We determined that FSH β induction by PACAP requires functional EPAC, a cAMP sensor protein that serves as a guanine exchange factors for small G proteins that then bridges cAMP signaling to MAPK pathway. We further demonstrate that in addition to the prototypical small G protein Ras, two members of the Rho subfamily, Rac and CDC42 are also necessary for PACAP induction of FSHβ, likely via activation of p38 MAPK that leads to induction of cFOS, a critical transcription factor that is necessary and sufficient for FSHβ induction. Therefore, PACAP-induced cAMP pathway leads to MAPK activation that stimulates cFOS induction, to induce the expression of FSH^β subunit and increase FSH concentration.

Introduction

Regulation of gonadotropin levels and therefore reproduction depends on the integration of the endocrine, paracrine and autocrine signals in the gonadotrope cells of the anterior pituitary (Coss, 2018). Gonadotropin hormones, luteinizing hormone (LH) and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) are heterodimers of a common alpha subunit (α-GSU, Cga) that dimerizes with unique beta subunits (LHB, Lhb and FSHB, Fshb) (Pierce and Parsons, 1981). B subunits confer the biological specificity of LH and FSH and their synthesis is the rate-limiting step for production of the mature hormones (Papavasiliou et al., 1986; Kaiser et al., 1997). Synthesis and secretion of LH and FSH are primarily regulated by the gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) from the hypothalamus. GnRH binding to the GnRH receptor, expressed specifically in the gonadotrope, causes activation of $G\alpha q$ and $G\alpha 11$ types of G-proteins (Stanislaus et al., 1997), with the subsequent stimulation of phospholipase C β , increase in the intracellular calcium concentration, and activation of protein kinase C (PKC) and calcium/calmodulin kinase II (CamKII), (Liu et al., 2002b; Haisenleder et al., 2003). GnRH receptor signaling also leads to activation of the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathways: ERK 1/2, JNK, and p38 (Roberson et al., 1995; Sundaresan et al., 1996; Liu et al., 2002b), via PKC (Naor, 2009; Ely et al., 2011) or via calcium influx through voltage gated calcium channel (Mulvaney et al., 1999).

Pituitary adenylate cyclase activating peptide (PACAP) is another hypothalamic neuropeptide that regulates gonadotropin expression (Counis et al., 2007; Halvorson, 2014). It was initially identified as a novel hypothalamic factor that increases adenylate cyclase (AC) signaling in the pituitary cultures, as its name suggests (Miyata et al., 1989). PACAP belongs to the vasoactive intestinal polypeptide (VIP)-secretin-glucagon superfamily and is widely distributed in the brain. It is also expressed in peripheral organs, primarily in the endocrine

pancreas, gonads, adrenal, respiratory and urogenital tracts, where it exerts pleiotropic effects (Vaudry et al., 2009). PACAP exists as either a 38-amino acid or 27-amino acid form, both derived from the same precursor protein encoded by the *Adcyap1* gene. Vast majority of PACAP protein in most tissues is PACAP38, while PACAP27 represents less than 10% of total PACAP. PACAP binds to three receptor subtypes, the PACAP type 1 receptor (PAC1R), the vasoactive intestinal polypeptide type 1 receptor (VPAC1R), and the VPAC2R, but the binding affinity is much higher for PAC1R than for others (Pisegna and Wank, 1993). All receptors belong to the family of G protein-coupled receptors and are expressed in a variety of tissues. The predominant receptor for PACAP, PAC1R, couples mainly to G α s protein and induces rapid cAMP production, which ultimately activates PKA (Vaudry et al., 2009). cAMP concentration is significantly increased following PACAP stimulation of gonadotrope cells as well (Harada et al., 2007).

PACAP is also secreted by gonadotropes and folliculostelate cells in the pituitary and functions in the autocrine or paracrine manner to modulate response to GnRH (Counis et al., 2007). GnRH increases the expression of PACAP receptor in the gonadotrope and in turn, PACAP potentiates the effect of GnRH (Culler and Paschall, 1991; Purwana et al., 2010). While GnRH regulates expression of both β subunits via intermediates, immediate early genes, mechanisms of PACAP regulation of gonadotropin β subunits was not thoroughly analyzed. GnRH induces LH β expression through induction of the early growth response-1 (Egr-1) transcription factor (Kaiser et al., 2000; Weck et al., 2000). Upon induction, Egr-1 interacts with tissue specific and basal factors to regulate the LH β promoter (Jorgensen et al., 2004; Coss, 2018). PACAP stimulates the release of LH (Culler and Paschall, 1991; Hart et al., 1992) and LH β expression when administered in a pulsatile manner in rat primary cells (Tsujii and Winters,

1995) and continuously in L β T2 cells model (Ferris et al., 2007; Harada et al., 2007). However, the promoter elements and transcription factors mediating PACAP effects on LH β levels are not known.

FSHB induction by GnRH occurs via activator protein-1 (AP-1) transcription factor, cFOS (Coss et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2008). AP-1 also interacts with basal and hormonallyregulated transcription factors to integrate the responses at the level of the promoter (Coss et al., 2007; Lamba et al., 2008; Bernard et al., 2010; Ely et al., 2011; Reddy et al., 2013; Roybal et al., 2014). Role of PACAP in regulation of FSH^β transcription is not clear. PACAP increased FSHß expression in LBT2 gonadotrope cell model when administered in either pulsatile manner (Kanasaki et al., 2009) or continuously (Harada et al., 2007) and in monkey primary pituitary cells (Kawakami et al., 2002). In other studies, however, PACAP dowregulated FSHβ expression in rat primary pituitary cells (Tsujii et al., 1994; Tsujii and Winters, 1995) This repression may occur via follistatin induction (Winters et al., 1997). Since PACAP expression in the pituitary decreases after birth, concomitant with an increase in FSH^β levels, PACAP downregulation of FSHβ may be critical during development (Winters and Moore, 2011). Some inconsistencies that exist regarding a role of PACAP in the gonadotrope and gonadotropin expression, may be attributed to the level of PACAP receptor expression in different models (Fowkes et al., 2003a). Alternatively, the inconsistencies may be explained by crosstalk of pathways, since with cotreatment, a signaling pathway may be augmented, while pretreatment may lead to downregulation and inability to respond to a subsequent signal. The fact that pretreatment with either PACAP or GnRH diminishes the effect of the other can likely be explained by downregulation (Fowkes et al., 2003b; Larivière et al., 2008). This hypothesis is strengthened with findings from transgenic male mice with permanently elevated PACAP levels that have

delayed puberty and decreased gonadotropin levels (Moore et al., 2012). However, the signaling pathways and transcription factors involved in PACAP regulation of FSH β expression have not been determined (Halvorson, 2014). In this manuscript, we sought to determine mechanisms of PACAP regulation of FSH β expression and identify signaling pathways of this regulation and compare these with pathways activated by GnRH.

Materials and Methods

Animals

C57BL/6J mice were maintained under a 12-h light, 12-h dark cycle and received food and water *ad libitum*. All experiments were performed with approval from the University of California (Riverside, CA) Animal Care and Use Committee and in accordance with the National Institutes of Health Animal care and Use Guidelines. Primary pituitary cells in culture were obtained as described before (Coss et al., 2005) and treated with 10 nM GnRH or 100 nM PACAP for 4 hours or 24 hours, after overnight in the serum free medium. Secretion of gonadotropin hormones to the medium was measured using Luminex pituitary panel (Millipore) and analyzed using MagPix Luminex instrument (Lainez et al., 2018; Lainez and Coss, 2019), according to manufacturers' instructions.

Materials

Immortalized gonadotrope cells line, LβT2 was kindly provided by Pamela Mellon (UCSD, California) and cultured as described previously. The 1kb of the murine FSHβ proximal promoter and 1.8kb of the rat LHβ regulatory region linked to luciferase reporter in pGL3 plasmid were described previously (Coss et al., 2004; Coss et al., 2005; Roybal et al., 2014; Jonak et al., 2017; Jonak et al., 2018). Truncations of FSH^β promoter linked to luciferase were described previously (Coss et al., 2004). cFOS expression vector and 1kb cFOS luciferase reporter were also described before (Ely et al., 2011; Reddy et al., 2013; Jonak et al., 2018). Gas and Gaq expression vectors and small G proteins expression vectors were purchased from cDNA Resource Center. CREB expression vectors were obtained from Marc Montminy (Salk Institute, La Jolla, CA). EPAC expression vectors were obtained from Daniel Altschuler (University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA). PACAP Receptor expression vector was kindly gifted by Dr. Norihito Sintani (Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Osaka University, Suita, Osaka, Japan). ELK expression vector was kindly provided by Dr. Andrew Sharrocks (The University of Manchester, Manchester, UK). ERK2 and p38 expression vectors were kindly provided by Dr. Peiquig Sun (Scripps Institute, La Jolla, CA). Cells were treated with 10 nM Gonadotropinreleasing hormone (GnRH, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) or 100 nM Pituitary adenylate cyclase activating polypeptide (PACAP 38 Calbiochem, La Jolla, CA). Inhibitors were purchased from Calbiochem (La Jolla, CA) and cells pretreated for 30 min with: 1 µM BIM (to inhibit PKC); 10 µM H89 (to inhibit PKA); 10 µM KN-93 (KN; to inhibit CamKII); 5 µM UO126 (UO; to inhibit MEK1 and activation of ERK1/2), 20 µM SB 202190 (SB; to inhibit p38), or 10 µM SP 600125 (JNK; to inhibit JNK), prior to hormone treatment.

Transient transfections

Cells were plated one day before transfection in 12-well plates in DMEM containing 10% FBS. Cells were transfected using FuGENE 6 (Roche Applied Science, Indianapolis, IN) according to the manufacturer's protocol with 0.5 μ g of luciferase reporter plasmid and 0.1 μ g of β galactosidase, driven by a Herpes virus thymidine kinase (TK) promoter, to control for transfection efficiency. Different batches of L β T2 cells express variable levels of PACAP receptors and the expression is diminished with passaging, as described before (Fowkes et al., 2003a; Purwana et al., 2010; Winters and Moore, 2011; Halvorson, 2014). To normalize the response to PACAP, we overexpressed PACAP receptor in LBT2 cells by adding 0.1 ug of the expression vector in the transfection mix. Cells were starved in serum free DMEM containing 0.1% BSA and penicillin-streptomycin antibiotics the night before harvesting. 4 hours before harvesting, cells were treated with 10 nM GnRH, 100 nM PACAP, or vehicle. Inhibitors (concentration detailed above) were applied 30 minutes prior to GnRH or PACAP treatment. Cells were washed with 1X PBS and lysed with a buffer containing 100nM K-PO4 and 0.2% Triton X-100 48 hours after transfection. 20 µl of lysate was loaded into 96-well plates. Both luciferase and β-galacatosidase activity were measured with a luminometer (Vertias Microplate luminometer from Turner Biosystems / Promega, Madison, WI). 100 µl of a luciferin buffer containing 25mM Tris pH 7.8, 15mM MgSO4, 10mM ATP, and 65µM luciferin or 100 µl of Accelerator (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) was injected into each well. Lysate for β galactosidase assay was first incubated with Tropix Galacto-light substrate (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) according to manufacturer's protocol. Then, 100 µl of catalyst, Accelerator, (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) was injected before reading. Each transfection was performed in triplicate and repeated three times. Luciferase values in each sample were normalized to β -galactosidase values. Results are represented as mean of 3 experiments. ANOVA and Tukey's posthoc test was used to determine statistical significance, p<0.05.

Whole cell extract, immunoprecipitation and western blot

LβT2 cells were starved overnight in serum free DMEM containing 0.1% BSA. Cells were rinsed with cold 1x PBS then lysed with a buffer containing 20mM Tris pH 7.4, 140mM NaCl,

protease inhibitors (Sigma-Aldrich), 1mM PMSF, 10mM NaF, 1% NP-40, 0.5mM EDTA, and 0.1mM EGTA. Protein concentration was determined using Bio-rad Protein Assay (Bio-rad, Hercules, CA) and a standard curve was generated to calculate the concentration. Equal amount of proteins were incubated with anti-FLAG or anti-HA antibody linked to agarose beads (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) for 3 hours. Beads were washed three times with 500µl of cold lysis buffer. 30µl of 2x Laemmli sample buffer was added to the beads.

Equal amounts of protein from whole cell extracts in 4x sample buffer or after immunoprecipitation were loaded into an SDS-PAGE gel and proteins were separated by gel electrophoresis and then transferred to a polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane. Membranes were blocked for 1 hour at room temperature in 10% nonfat milk in TBST (20mM Tris 7.4, 0.1% Tween, 150mM NaCl, and 0.5% BSA). Membranes were then probed with primary antibodies to p-ERK, p-38, p-ELK, or FLAG and HA. After anti-rabbit or mouse secondary antibodies linked to horseradish peroxidase (Amersham), enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) reagent (GE Healthcare, Piscataway, NJ) was used to detect complexes. Experiments were repeated three times and representative images shown.

RT-qPCR

RNA was obtained with MicroRNA kit (Ambion, Austin TX) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Contaminating DNA was removed with DNA-free reagent (Ambion, Austin, TX) and RNA was reverse transcribed using Superscript IV (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Quantitative Real-Time PCR was performed in iCycler from Bio-Rad (Hercules, CA), using SYBR Green (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) and the following primers: LHb forward:

CTGTCAACGCAACTCTGG; LHb reverse: ACAGGAGGCAAAGCAGC; GAPDH forward:

TGCACCACCAACTGCTTAG; GAPDH reverse: GGATGCAGGGATGATGTTC; FSHb forward: GCCGTTTCTGCATAAGC; FSHb reverse: CAATCTTACGGTCTCGTATACC; under the following conditions: 95 C for 15 min, followed by 40 cycles at 95 C for 15 sec, 54 C for 30 sec and 72 C for 30 sec. Each sample was assayed in triplicate and the experiment was repeated 4 times. A standard curve with dilutions of 10 pg/well, 1 pg/well, 100 fg/well and 10 fg/well of a plasmid containing LH β cDNA was generated in each run with the samples. In each experiment, the amount of LH β was calculated by comparing threshold cycle obtained for each sample with the standard curve generated in the same run. Replicates were averaged and divided by the mean value of GAPDH in the same sample. Preliminary analysis determined that GAPDH does not change with treatment. After each run, a melting curve analysis was performed to confirm that a single amplicon was generated in each reaction. ANOVA and Tukey's posthoc test was used to determine statistical significance p<0.05.

Results

PACAP induces FSHβ expression

In order to assess if PACAP regulates gonadotropin β subunits expression, we dispersed primary pituitary cells in culture from 4-month old C57Bl/6J female mice and treated them with 10 nM GnRH, which serves as a positive control, and with 100 nM PACAP for 4 hours. PACAP induced LH β (*Lhb*) expression 2.8 fold and FSH β (*Fshb*) expression 5.2-fold, while GnRH induces *Lhb* 4.6 fold, and *Fshb* 3.0 fold (Fig. 1A). Thus, induction by PACAP is comparable to the induction by GnRH. We then treated the primary pituitary cells for 24 hours to analyze the effects of longer treatment. 24-hour treatment with PACAP induced LH β (*Lhb*) expression 1.58

fold, while *Lhb* expression was reduced to 83% after 24-hour GnRH treatment (Fig. 1B). PACAP treatment for 24 hours reduced *Fshb* mRNA to 55% of vehicle treated cells, while GnRH treatment diminished *Fshb* to 52%. As indicated in the introduction, it is possible that long-term treatment downregulates the receptors or components of the intracellular signaling pathway, which caused a switch from induction to repression of *Fshb* with both PACAP and GnRH treatments. On the other hand, follistatin is induced by PACAP, which abrogates *Fshb* induction by intra-pituitary activin (Winters et al., 1997; Winters and Moore, 2011). We analyzed expression of follistatin (*Fst*) following 4-hour treatment (Fig. 1C) and following 24hour treatment (Fig. 1D) by PACAP or GnRH. 4-hour treatment by PACAP induced *Fst* 1.3 fold, while 4-hour GnRH treatment reduced *Fst* mRNA to 80% (Fig. 1C). PACAP and GnRH treatment for 24 hours induced *Fst* 1.5 fold and 1.3 fold, respectively. Therefore, follistatin is induced by PACAP at both 4 hours and 24 hours to a similar level, while FSH β is induced by both GnRH and PACAP after 4-hour treatment and repressed after 24-hour treatment in adult female mouse pituitary cells.

We investigated secretion of LH and FSH from female mouse primary pituitary cells following 24-hour PACAP or GnRH treatment. LH concentration in the medium increased from 20 ng/ml to 94.8 ng/ml, a 4.7 fold increase, with PACAP treatment; and to 180 ng/ml, a 9 fold increase, with GnRH treatment (Fig. 1E). PACAP increased FSH concentration from 9.9 ng/ml to 25.5 ng/ml, a 2.6 fold increase, while GnRH increased FSH in the medium to 41.6 ng/ml, a 4.2 fold increase (Fig. 1E). Therefore, PACAP, as well as GnRH, caused secretion of both LH and FSH.

To analyze molecular mechanisms of this induction and compare GnRH and PACAP signaling pathways, we employed L β T2 cells, a model of mature gonadotrope that endogenously

expresses gonadotropin β subunits and responds to hormonal stimuli (Alarid et al., 1996). We transiently transfected LH β -luciferase and FSH β -luciferase reporters that were used previously to analyze GnRH regulation of gonadotropin expression (Coss et al., 2005; Jonak et al., 2017; Jonak et al., 2018) and treated cells with PACAP and GnRH for 4 hours. PACAP induced LH β reporter 1.6 fold and FSH β reporter 2.8 fold. This induction is also comparable to induction by GnRH of 2.4 fold for LH β reporter and 2.9 fold for FSH β reporter (Fig. 2A).

Both PACAP receptor (PAC1R) and GnRH receptor (GnRHR) belong to the G-coupled 7-transmembrane receptor family and activate G-proteins following ligand binding (Halvorson, 2014; Oride et al., 2018). PACAP, however, primarily activates G α s which leads to an increase in cAMP, while GnRH primarily activates G α q/11 which leads to an increase in calcium. To ascertain if these G proteins can activate transcription of gonadotropin β subunits, we co-transfected constitutively active forms of G α s and G α q with gonadotropin β reporters. Surprisingly, G α s suppressed LH β reporter by 50%, and activated FSH β by 2.2 fold. As expected, constitutively active G α q induced LH β 2 fold and FSH β 3.7 fold. Therefore, PACAP and GnRH increase the expression of both gonadotropin β subunits in primary pituitary gonadotropes and in L β T2 gonadotrope cell model.

PACAP activates cFOS to induce FSHβ expression

Mechanism of FSH β mRNA regulation by PACAP has not been explored. Thus, we initiated these studies using L β T2 cells to examine a role of CREB as a prototypical nuclear target of G α s-cAMP-PKA signaling pathway, potentially activated by PACAP. We used multimerized cAMP response elements (CRE-luciferase), a consensus binding site for CREB (Mayr and Montminy, 2001), as a positive control. We co-transfected non-phosphorylatable, mutant CREB protein (CREBm, (Struthers et al., 1991)) that serves as a dominant negative, or an empty vector control, with CRE-multimer and treated cells with vehicle or PACAP. PACAP induced CRE-luciferase 4 fold and CREBm abrogated this induction (Fig. 3A). On the other hand, CREBm did not affect induction of FSHβ-luciferase by PACAP (Fig. 3B). We then co-transfected constitutively active form of CREB (CA CREB), which induced CRE-luciferase 2.4 fold (Fig. 3C). CA CREB did not induce FSHβ-luciferase (Fig. 3D). These results indicate that CREB is unlikely to regulate of FSHβ expression.

To determine the elements in the FSHβ promoter that PACAP may employ for induction, we used truncation analysis, and determined that PACAP induction of FSHβ is abrogated with a truncation from -95 to -60 base pairs from the transcriptional start side (Fig. 4A). This is the same region necessary for the FSHβ responsiveness to GnRH, which induces FSHβ via induction of cFOS that binds AP-1 site at -76 (Coss et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2008). Therefore, we transfected a reporter with the mutation in the -76 AP-1 site and compared its induction to the induction of the wild type reporter. -76 site mutation diminished induction of the FSHβ reporter by PACAP (Fig. 4B). Then, we analyzed if PACAP induces cFOS in the gonadotrope cells, since PACAP increases cFOS expression in the brain (Meloni et al., 2016). We determined that cFOS is induced at the mRNA (not shown) and protein level (Fig. 4C) following PACAP treatment. PACAP also induces cFOS reporter 9.7 fold (Fig. 4D). Since previously we have shown that overexpression of cFOS is sufficient to induce FSHβ in the LβT2 cells (Ely et al., 2011; Jonak et al., 2018), we postulate that PACAP induces FSHβ via cFOS as well.

PACAP uses EPAC to activate MAPK pathway

Since GnRH and PACAP may activate FSH β transcription via the cFOS intermediate gene, but they bind receptors that preferentially activate different G proteins, we wanted to analyze signaling pathways activated by PACAP and compare them to GnRH-activated signaling pathways. Our previous studies determined that GnRH signals primarily via CamKII activation following intracellular calcium increase, with some contribution of ERK 1/2 and p38 pathways, to activate FSH β and cFOS transcription (Ely et al., 2011). To analyze PACAP signaling pathways necessary for induction of cFOS and FSH β we used inhibitors and determined that PACAP does not utilize CamKII (Cam), but that the activity of PKA, ERK 1/2 and p38 is necessary for maximal induction of FSH β (Fig. 5A) and cFOS (Fig. 5B) by PACAP.

To determine if PACAP activates ERK 1/2 and p38, we analyzed their phosphorylation with western blots following vehicle (C), PACAP (P) or GnRH (G) treatments. These experiments determined that PACAP treatment, as well as GnRH, leads to phosphorylation and activation of ERK 1/2 (Fig. 6), which is in agreement with previous reports (Fowkes et al., 2003b; Purwana et al., 2010). We further determined that PACAP activates p38 as well (Fig. 6). Transcription factor ELK is a nuclear target of ERK 1/2 and p38 kinases, which when phosphorylated forms an active complex with SRF to activate transcription of cFOS (Sharrocks, 2002). ELK is also phosphorylated following PACAP and GnRH (Fig. 6). Therefore, PACAP uses classical growth factor pathway, via MAPK phosphorylation of ELK to activate expression of cFOS, and subsequently FSHβ.

To determine how PACAP activates MAPK pathway, we postulated that it may use exchange protein directly activated by cAMP (EPAC). EPAC is a guanine nucleotide exchange factor that is activated by cAMP and in turn activates Ras superfamily of small GTPases, which then leads to MAPK activation (Lewis et al., 2016; Robichaux and Cheng, 2018). We obtained two different forms of dominant negative EPAC: dn1, created by mutation of the arginine residue at the position 279 to glutamate which prevents cAMP binding, and dn2, that lacks Ras association domain (Hochbaum et al., 2008); and co-transfected them with FSHβ (Fig. 7A) and cFOS (Fig. 7B) reporters. Cells were treated with PACAP (black bars) or GnRH (gray bars). Dominant negative EPACs diminished induction of FSHβ and cFOS by PACAP, but had no effect on the induction by GnRH. We previously determined that CamKII is necessary for GnRH induction of FSHβ and cFOS (Ely et al., 2011), and here we transfected dominant negative CamKII to assess its necessity for PACAP induction of FSHβ and cFOS. As shown before, dominant negative CamKII is necessary for induction of FSHβ (Fig. 7C) and cFOS (Fig. 7D) by GnRH, but not by PACAP. Taken together our results indicate that while GnRH activates FSHβ and cFOS transcription via CamKII and MAPK, PACAP induces FSHβ and cFOS via MAPK pathways that are activated by cAMP-mediated EPAC activation.

As stated above, EPAC molecules activate small GTPases by exchanging GDP for GTP (Robichaux and Cheng, 2018). Thus, we assessed several small G proteins for their roles in FSH β and cFOS induction. First, we transfected constitutively active forms to determine which small G proteins can activate transcription of FSH β and cFOS reporters. Constitutively active Ras, Rac and CDC42 activate transcription of FSH β (Fig. 8A) and cFOS (Fig. 8B). We also analyzed which of these small G proteins can phosphorylate ERK1/2 and p38 by western blots. ERK2 isoform is more abundant than ERK1 (Shin et al., 2013), and out of four p38 isoforms, p38 β plays a role in normal physiological processes while p38 α is mostly involved in cell

responses to stress, and γ and δ have low abundance (Askari et al., 2007). Thus, we cotransfected FLAG-tagged ERK2 and HA-tagged p38 β with constitutively active forms of small G proteins. ERK2 is activated by Ras, while p38 β is activated by Ras, Rac and CDC42 in the gonadotrope cell model (Fig. 8C).

We then determined which of these small G proteins are necessary for PACAP and GnRH induction of FSH β and cFOS by transfecting dominant negative mutants. Consistent with our previous results that GnRH stimulation leads to CamKII activation that is necessary for FSH β induction, small G proteins are not necessary for FSH β induction by GnRH (Fig. 9A). For PACAP induction of FSH β , however, Ras, Rac and CDC42 are necessary (Fig. 9A). Rho, Rac and CDC42 are necessary for maximal induction of cFOS by either GnRH or PACAP (Fig. 9B). Our results demonstrate the necessity of several small G proteins, which may be targets of EPAC signaling following cAMP increase, for induction of FSH β by PACAP. Taken together, our results indicate that GnRH activates CamKII, via increase in intracellular calcium by G α q-PLC β , to induce cFOS and FSH β , while PACAP activates EPAC via increase in cAMP by G α sadenylate cyclase, that leads to activation of MAPK through several small G proteins, that in turn induces cFOS and FSH β (Fig. 10).

Discussion

Concentrations of pituitary gonadotropins, LH and FSH, are regulated primarily by the hypothalamic peptide GnRH, which stimulates their synthesis and secretion. Other factors, such as gonadal steroids and gonadal peptides such as inhibin, or pituitary-expressed peptides that

function in autocrine or paracrine manner, such as activin and follistatin, influence gonadotropin levels, directly or by modulating the responsiveness to GnRH (Coss, 2018). In addition, PACAP, a product of the Adcyap1 gene expressed in the hypothalamus and the pituitary, also regulates gonadotropin synthesis and release, both alone and in cooperation with GnRH (Winters and Moore, 2011; Halvorson, 2014). In this manuscript, we address the mechanisms of this regulation by analyzing signaling pathways and promoter elements activated by PACAP and compare them to GnRH. Although PACAP regulates expression of all three gonadotropin subunits, promoter elements responsive to PACAP were only analyzed for the common α -subunit (Attardi and Winters, 1998; Burrin et al., 1998), and in this manuscript we analyzed the induction of FSHB and promoter elements therein. We determine that both PACAP and GnRH stimulate FSHB expression after 4-hour treatment of primary pituitary cells from the female mouse, but repress FSH β after 24 hours. We then analyzed pathways that lead to induction of FSHB and future studies will analyze mechanisms of repression following 24-hour treatment. Similar to GnRH, PACAP induces FSHB via induction of cFOS. We further investigate roles of small G proteins and EPAC molecules in both GnRH and PACAP signaling in order to explain the mechanisms of cAMP-activated pathways stimulated by PACAP receptor activation, bridging to MAPK pathways and cFOS and FSH^β promoters.

PACAP, expressed in the hypothalamus, may be secreted from the nerve terminals within the median eminence and carried by the portal circulation to stimulate the pituitary, and act as a hypophysiotropic neurohormone. Alternatively, in the pituitary PACAP is expressed by the gonadotrope and may function in an autocrine manner, and by the folliculostellate cells and may function in the paracrine manner. Either way, PACAP regulates gonadotropin hormone synthesis and gonadotrope responsiveness to GnRH. Some studies determined that PACAP stimulates all three gonadotropin subunits expression, including FSH β (Kawakami et al., 2002; Harada et al., 2007; Kanasaki et al., 2009; Purwana et al., 2010). Others, on the other hand reported that while PACAP induces α -GSU and LH β , it represses FSH β in rat primary pituitary culture (Tsujii and Winters, 1995; Winters et al., 1996). Repression of FSHB by PACAP is indirect via induction of follistatin and may be critical during development (Winters and Moore, 2011). In agreement, we also determined that PACAP induces follistatin expression, albeit to a relatively low level. We found that PACAP induces both LH β and FSH β in primary pituitary cells from female mice after 4 hours of treatment, but represses FSHB after 24 hour treatment although LHB mRNA remains elevated compared to controls. Several possibilities can be proposed to explain the differences in our study and studies that demonstrated repression of FSH β . First, the difference may be due to the physiological state of the animals from which the pituitaries were extracted or to the stress level the animals experienced during transport or procedure. For example, different levels of steroid hormones can contribute to the differences in results, since several studies that reported repression of FSH β used gonadectomized animals that lack sex steroids. Second, the duration of the treatment is different. As discussed in the introduction, duration of treatment may augment or dowregulate the pathway involved in crosstalk (McArdle and Counis, 1996; McArdle et al., 1996). We used acute, 4-hour treatment to prevent downregulation of signaling pathways. Indeed, in our studies as well, 24-hour treatment by either PACAP or GnRH repressed FSH_β. Third, the studies that observed repression of FSH β likely had a higher level of folliculostellate cells due to longer culture prior to the hormone treatment. These studies reported that the cells were cultured for 3 days prior to the 9-hour treatment. However, in primary pituitary cultures, secretory cells are rapidly overgrown by folliculostellate cells, which secrete follistatin, a potent FSHβ repressor (Kawakami et al., 2002). Our studies were performed in freshly isolated cells to

minimize changes during culture. Fourth, there are significant species differences in regulation of gonadotropin hormones (Bernard et al., 2010). Finally, sex differences may play a critical role since we used primary cells from adult female mice, while previous studies used male rat pituitary cells. Gonadotropin β subunits in particular exhibit substantial sex differences in their levels of expression (Bjelobaba et al., 2015; Kreisman et al., 2017)

PACAP signaling in the gonadotrope cells causes an increase in cAMP via Gas activation of adenylate cyclase (Harada et al., 2007; Winters and Moore, 2007). Although some studies have shown increase in calcium, calcium does not play a role in PACAP induction of gonadotropin subunits (Attardi and Winters, 1998; Burrin et al., 1998), indicating that PACAP functions primarily via cAMP, as expected from the Gas activation by PACAP receptor. We investigated roles of G α s, activated by PACAP and G α q, activated by GnRH, by transfecting constitutively active forms of these G proteins. As expected Gaq induced both LHB and FSHB, while surprisingly, Gas repressed LHB and induced FSHB. This was unexpected, since PACAP induces LH β , and will require further investigations which are beyond the scope of this report that focuses on FSH β induction. The most common nuclear target of the cAMP pathway is CREB transcription factor, but we could not find any evidence of CREB involvement in the FSH^β expression. Our results concur with previous findings that PACAP activates MAPK pathways (Fowkes et al., 2001; Harada et al., 2007), which lead to FSH β induction. This poses a question of how does cAMP activate MAPK pathways in the gonadotrope. One potential mediator is EPAC that we addressed here. We show that functional EPAC is necessary for FSH^β induction by PACAP, but not by GnRH.

Several guanine exchange factors (GEF) interact with trimeric G proteins and activate small G proteins that in turn activate MAPK cascade (Goldsmith and Dhanasekaran, 2007). EPAC (exchange protein directly activated by cAMP) is a cAMP sensor protein that serves as a GEF for small G proteins (Quilliam et al., 2002). Gas activation and subsequent generation of cAMP activates EPAC, which elicits GDP-GTP exchange in Rap-1 small G protein. The activated GTP-bound Rap-1 activates B-Raf and the downstream MAPK (Goldsmith and Dhanasekaran, 2007). This may play a role in Gas induction of FSHB. Gas-mediated cAMP-PKA signaling pathway can also inhibit MAPK pathways, which entails serine phosphorylation of another Raf isoform, C-Raf, at a residue that prevents Ras-mediated phosphorylation and activation (Goldsmith and Dhanasekaran, 2007). This may play a role in the repression of LHB by Gas that we observed and will be explored further. EPAC proteins bind to cAMP with high affinity and activate the Ras superfamily of small GTPases (Bos, 2006; Robichaux and Cheng, 2018). EPAC was originally identified as a GEF for Rap-1 GTPases, which are activated by cAMP independent of PKA (Kawasaki et al., 1998). Later studies determined that EPAC can activate other branches of Ras superfamily as well (Shariati et al., 2016). There are two isoforms of EPAC, EPAC1 and EPAC2, products of independent genes in mammals. While EPAC1 is ubiquitously expressed in all tissues, EPAC2 is more limited in its tissue distribution (Lewis et al., 2016) and we concentrated our studies on EPAC1. We determined that EPAC1 is necessary for PACAP induction of FSH_β.

There are five main braches of the small G protein superfamily: Ras, Rho, Ran, Arf and Rab and each has its cohort of regulatory proteins, such as GEFs, which promote small G protein activation by exchanging GDP for GTP (Loirand et al., 2013). The Ran, Arf, Rab family are localized in the specific subcellular compartments and regulate nuclear, Golgi and ER trafficking, and thus, were not investigated in our studies. Because Ras and Rho families are involved in receptor signaling, we focused on the members of these groups. The Ras family contains several Ras and Rap isoforms, while Rho contains Rho, Rac and CDC42 isoforms (Rossman et al., 2005; Hall, 2012). They each can interact with 20-30 downstream proteins, regulating numerous signaling pathways as of yet unclear specificity (Hall, 2012). They can also activate each other, increasing complexity further. We demonstrate that Rac and CDC42 activate p38 in the gonadotrope cells, consistent with previous reports using Cos-1 cells (Gallo and Johnson, 2002). We also show that they are involved in the cFOS and FSHβ induction by PACAP likely via p38 or through activation of SRF (Miralles et al., 2003), since we have shown previously that SRF is sufficient and necessary for cFOS induction by GnRH (Ely et al., 2011). Therefore, Rac and CDC42 may be the targets of cAMP-EPAC pathway activated by PACAP that leads to FSHβ induction.

Herein, we compared GnRH and PACAP signaling pathways that lead to induction of FSH β . Future studies will analyze whether downregulation of FSH β by 24-hour treatment is due to the follistatin induction, or due to down-regulation of secondary messengers and signaling pathways. In our studies, follistatin was induced at both 4-hour treatment and 24-hour treatment, while FSH β is induced after 4 hours and repressed after 24 hours. Our previous investigations of GnRH signaling pathways that activate gonadotropin gene expression, and PACAP signaling pathways in this report, reveal critical signaling molecules necessary for β subunit induction. GnRHR activates downstream signaling pathways through activation of trimeric Gaq/11 proteins. The Gaq pathway leads to gonadotropin expression via CamKII activation of SRF transcription factor that induces both Egr-1 (Witham et al., 2013) and cFOS (Ely et al., 2011) and through them gonadotropin β subunits (Coss, 2018). CamKII activation of SRF had been

reported in neuronal cells, and was also sufficient for cFOS induction. In neurons, this pathway is activated by depolarization mediated-calcium influx, while growth factor induction of cFOS in the same cells requires the MAPK pathway. In the gonadotrope cells, GnRH causes calcium influx that is necessary for cFOS induction (Mulvaney et al., 1999; Liu et al., 2002a). Thus, GnRH induction of cFOS is similar to cell depolarization rather than to hormone/growth factor signaling. GnRH activation of the MAPK pathway augments this activation via phosphorylation of ELK-1 that interacts with SRF. PACAP activation of G α s, a trimeric G protein that leads to activation of adenylate cyclase and cAMP formation, activates EPAC that links G α s-adenylate cyclase-cAMP pathway to MAPK signaling via small G proteins, in particular Rac and CDC42. MAPK, ERK1/2 and p38, activate cFOS and FSH β transcription via ELK-1 phosphorylation.

Conclusion

Both GnRH and PACAP induce FSH β following 4-hour treatment and both repress FSH β after 24-hour treatment of female mouse primary pituitary cells. FSH is secreted from these cells in response to either GnRH or PACAP. The repression after 24 hours may occur due to the induction of follistatin or stem from the downregulation of receptors and second messenger depletion. In this manuscript, we further analyzed that mechanism of induction. Signaling pathways activated by PACAP and GnRH converge on the expression of cFOS transcription factor that is necessary for FSH β induction (Fig. 10). While GnRH activates G α q and causes an increase of intracellular calcium that activates CamKII and MAPK, PACAP activates G α s that increases cAMP, which is turn activates MAPK via EPAC and small G proteins.

Acknowledgement

This study was supported by R01 HD091167 from NIH NICHD to Djurdjica Coss. The authors thank Pamela Mellon for L β T2 cell line. We thank Marc Montminy for CREB expression vector; Daniel Altschuler for EPAC expression vectors; Norihito Sintani for PACAP receptor expression vector; Andrew Sharrocks for ELK expression vector; and Peiquig Sun for ERK2 and p38 expression vectors.

Statement of Ethics

All experiments were performed with approval from the University of California (Riverside, CA) Animal Care and Use Committee and in accordance with the National Institutes of Health Animal care and Use Guidelines.

Disclosure Statement

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare

Funding Sources

This study was supported by R01 HD091167 from NIH NICHD to Djurdjica Coss.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. PACAP induces LH\beta and FSH\beta in mouse pituitary cells. Primary pituitary cells from 16-week old female mice were dispersed by enzymatic dissociation and treated with GnRH (G) or PACAP (P) for 4 hours in serum free medium (A and C) or for 24 hours in serum free medium (B and D). Total mRNA was reverse transcribed and qPCR performed to assess levels of *Lhb* (LH β) and *Fshb* (FSH β) mRNAs (A, B) and *Fst* (Follistatin) mRNA (C, D). E, Concentration of LH and FSH in the medium after 24-hour treatment with vehicle (ctr), 100 nM PACAP (P) or 10 nM GnRH (G) was analyzed using Luminex assay. Experiments were performed three times. * indicates significant induction by hormones compared to vehicle treated cells, while # indicates significant repression (p<0.05, ANOVA and Tukey's posthoc test).

Fig. 2. PACAP induces LH β and FSH β in L β T2 cells. A, L β T2 cells were transfected with 1.8 kb LH β -luciferase reporter and 1 kb FSH β -luciferase reporter and treated with GnRH or PACAP for 4 hours. Luciferase values were normalized to β -galactosidase and results presented as fold induction from vehicle treated cells. Significant induction by hormones compare to vehicle treated cells (p<0.05, ANOVA and Tukey's posthoc test) is indicated with * . B, Cells were co-transfected with constitutively active G α s or G α q expression vectors and after 48h, expression of the reporters in cells with G α was compared to the expression in cells co-transfected with empty vector control. Significant induction of the reporter expression in G α -expressing cells compared

to empty vector transfected control cells is indicated with *, while significant repression is indicated with # (p<0.05, ANOVA and Tukey's test).

Fig. 3. CREB induces CRE element but not FSH β **reporter.** Reporter containing 4 copies of the cAMP-Response element (CRE), a consensus binding site for CREB (A, C) fused to luciferase gene, or a reporter containing 1 kb FSH β regulatory region, FSH β -luciferase (B, D) was co-transfected with the dominant negative CREB mutant (CREBm; A, B) or with the constitutively active (CA) CREB mutant (C, D) in L β T2 cells. Cells were treated with vehicle or PACAP for 4h to assess a role for CREB in reporter expression. * indicates significant reporter induction with PACAP (A, B) or with CA CREB (C, D).

Fig. 4. PACAP induction maps to the AP1 site in the FSH β promoter. A, To map the region necessary for PACAP induction, different lengths of the FSH β reporter were transfected and cell treated with PACAP for 4 hours after overnight starvation. The results are represented as fold induction by PACAP from vehicle-treated cells for each truncation. # indicates significantly lower fold induction of the truncation compared to the previous longer truncation. Results represent the mean ± SEM of 3 independent experiments each performed in triplicate. B, Two bp mutation in the -76 AP1 response element was introduced into the reporter and its induction by PACAP compared to the induction of the wild-type reporter. Results are presented as fold induction. Significantly different fold induction in the cells with AP1 mutation versus the cells transfected with wild-type reporter is marked with #. C, Western blots demonstrate induction of cFOS protein following PACAP treatment of L β T2 cells for times indicated above each lane. D,

1kb cFOS-luciferase reporter was transfected in L β T2 cell and * indicates significant induction by PACAP treatment compared to vehicle treated cells.

Fig. 5. Inhibition of MAPK diminishes PACAP induction of FSHβ. LβT2 cells were transfected with 1 kb FSHβ-luciferase (A) or 1 kb cFOS luciferase (B) and were pretreated for 30 minutes with 10 µM H89 (to inhibit PKA); 1 µM BIM (to inhibit PKC); 10 µM KN-93 (to inhibit CamKII, Cam); 5 µM UO126 (to inhibit MEK1 and activation of ERK1/2), 20 µM SB 202190 (to inhibit p38), or 10 µM SP 600125 (to inhibit JNK). Cells were treated with 100 nM PACAP for 4 hours. Luciferase values in each sample were normalized to β-galactosidase values. Experiment was repeated 3 times in triplicate and mean +/- standard error is presented. Results were represented as fold induction by PACAP from the vehicle control treated cells with the same inhibitor. # represents significant decrease in fold induction from PACAP treated cells without inhibitor, p<0.05 determined by ANOVA and Tukey's posthoc test.

Fig. 6. PACAP activates p38, ERK1/2 and ELK. LβT2 cells were transfected with Flagtagged ERK2 or ELK, or HA-tagged p38β. After treatment with GnRH or PACAP, lysates were precipitated with anti-Flag or anti-HA beads and western for phosphorylated forms of ERK2, p38β and ELK performed. Experiment was repeated 3 times and representative images shown.

Fig. 7. EPAC plays a role in PACAP induction of FSHβ. LβT2 cells were co-transfected with FSHβ reporter (A, C) or cFOS reporter (B, D) and empty vector control (control), or dominant negative EPAC mutants (dn EPAC; A, B)) or dominant negative CamKII mutant, used previously (C, D). Cells were treated with vehicle (white bars), PACAP (black bars) or GnRH (grey bars) to assess a role for EPAC or CamKII in reporter induction by PACAP or GnRH. Luciferase levels in each well were normalized to β-galactosidase values. Significantly lower

expression in the reporter induction by PACAP or GnRH due to the presence of the dominant negative mutant compared to the empty vector control is indicated with #, determined by ANOVA and Tukey's posthoc test.

Fig 8. Several small G proteins induce FSHβ. LβT2 cells were co-transfected with FSHβ reporter (A) or cFOS reporter (B) and constitutively active mutations of small G proteins. Reporter expression was analyzed 48h later. Luciferase values in each sample were normalized to β-galactosidase values. Results are presented as mean of three independent experiments performed in triplicate and * indicates significant induction of the reporter by a G protein compared to expression with empty vector control, determined by ANOVA and Tukey's posthoc test. C, Flag-tagged ERK2 or HA-tagged p38β were co-transfected with constitutively active small G proteins. ERK2 or p38β were precipitated with anti-Flag or anti-HA beads respectively. Anti-phospho-ERK1/2 and anti-phospho-p38 antibodies were used to assess activation of these proteins. Experiment was repeated three times and representative images shown.

Fig. 9. Ras, Rac and Cdc42 are involved in PACAP induction of FSHβ. FSHβ reporter (A) or cFOS reporter (B) was co-transfected with empty vector control (control) or dominant negative mutants (dn) of small G proteins. LβT2 cells were then treated with vehicle (white bars), PACAP (black bars) or GnRH (grey bars) to assess small G protein role in reporter induction. Luciferase values in each sample were normalized to β-galactosidase values. Significantly lower expression of the reporter induction by PACAP or GnRH due to the presence of the dominant negative mutant, compared to the empty vector control (control) is indicated with #, determined by ANOVA and Tukey's posthoc test.

Fig. 10. Signaling pathways involved in FSH β induction by GnRH and PACAP. GnRH signals via G α q that causes an increase in the intracellular calcium. This increase activates CamKII that is sufficient and necessary for FSH β induction. MAPK is also activated, and contributes to the induction of FSH β by GnRH maybe by extending the cFOS half-life, as we have shown before, or by potentiating induction by GnRH via ELK1 phosphorylation. PACAP activates G α s which leads to an increase in cAMP concentration that activates EPAC. EPAC, in turn, leads to activation of several small G proteins that activate MAPK pathways, in particular ERK1/2 and p38 that via cFOS induction induce FSH β .

Highlights

- 1. PACAP induces gonadotropin β subunits expression in mouse primary pituitary cells
- 2. PACAP induces LH and FSH secretion from female mouse primary pituitary cells
- 3. Gas induces FSH β but represses LH β , while Gaq induces both β subunits
- 4. PACAP induces FSH β via EPAC that bridges cAMP to MAPK
- 5. Ras, Rac and CDC42 small G proteins contribute to FSH β inductions by PACAP

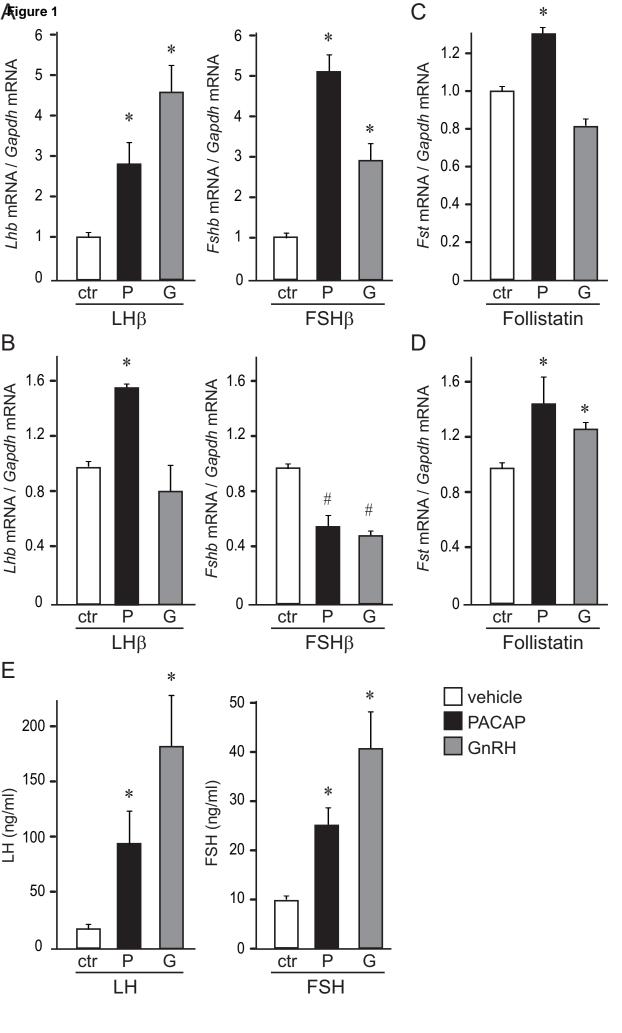
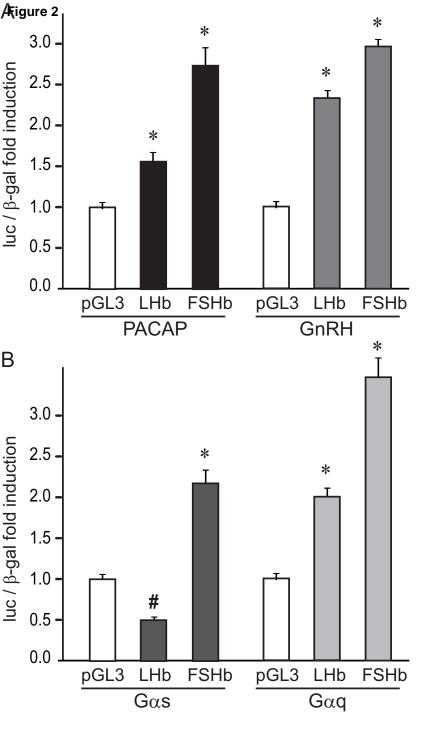
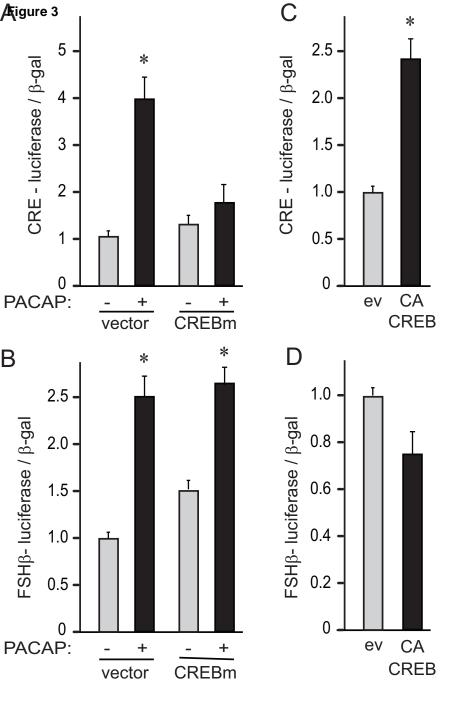
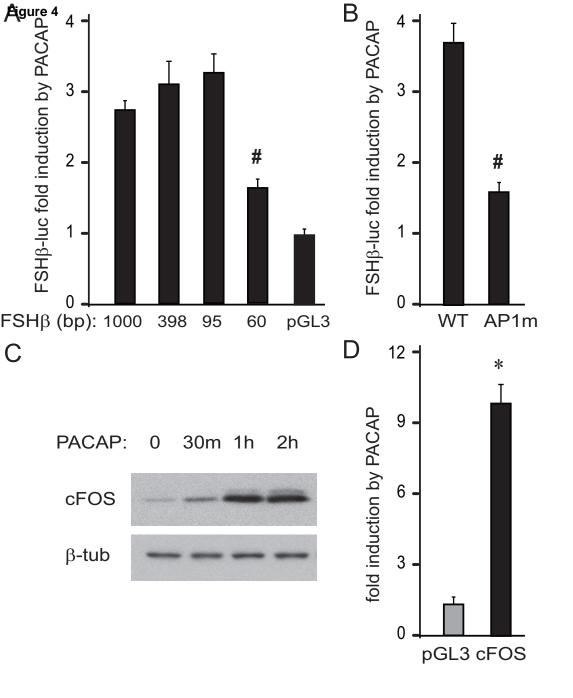


Figure 1







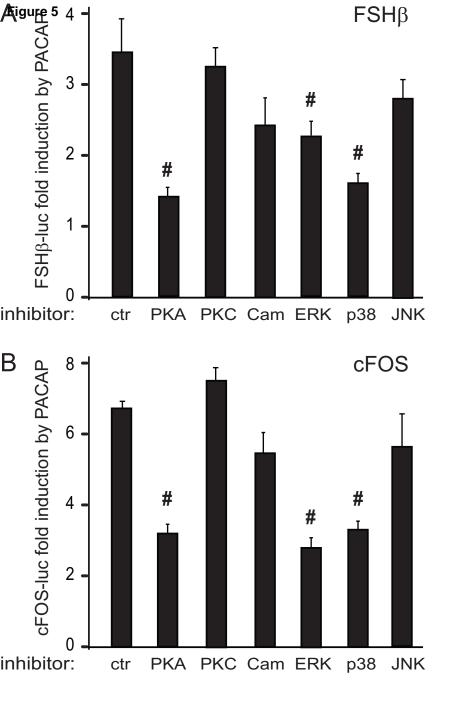


Figure 6	С	Ρ	G
p-ERK		-	-
FLAG	-		
р-р38	-		-
HA		-	-
p-ELK			-
FLAG			

