

## GnRH Transactivates Human AMH Receptor Gene via Egr1 and FOXO1 in Gonadotrope Cells

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## 1 GnRH transactivates human AMH receptor gene via Egr1 and

## 2 FOXO1 in gonadotrope cells

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- 16 **Short title**: GnRH enhances h*AMHR2* promoter activity
- 17
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28

### 29 Abstract

30 Background/objectives: Anti-Müllerian hormone (AMH) signaling is critical for sexual differentiation and gonadal function. AMH receptor type 2 (AMHR2) is expressed in 31 32 extragonadal sites such as brain and pituitary and emerging evidence indicates that AMH biological action is much broader than initially thought. We recently reported that AMH 33 signaling enhances FSH synthesis in pituitary gonadotrope cells. However, mechanisms 34 35 regulating AMHR2 expression in these extragonadal sites remain to be explored. Method/ 36 **Results**: Here, we demonstrated in perifused murine L $\beta$ T2 gonadotrope cells that *Amhr2* expression is differentially regulated by GnRH pulse frequency with an induction under high 37 38 GnRH pulsatility. Furthermore, we showed that GnRH transactivates the human AMHR2 promoter in LBT2 cells. Successive deletions of the promoter revealed the importance of a 39 40 short proximal region (-53/-37 bp) containing an Egr1 binding site. Using site-directed mutagenesis of *Egr1* motif and siRNA mediated-knock down of Egr1, we demonstrated that 41 42 Egr1 mediates basal and GnRH-dependent activity of the promoter, identifying Egr1 as a new transcription factor controlling hAMHR2 expression. We also showed that SF1 and  $\beta$ -catenin 43 are required for basal promoter activity and demonstrated that both factors contribute to the 44 45 GnRH stimulatory effect, independently of their respective binding sites. Furthermore, using a constitutively active mutant of FOXO1, we identified FOXO1 as a negative regulator of basal 46 and GnRH-dependent AMHR2 expression in gonadotrope cells. Conclusions: This study 47 48 identifies GnRH as a regulator of human AMHR2 expression, further highlighting the importance of AMH signaling in the regulation of gonadotrope function. 49

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### 51 Introduction

52 The neurohormone Gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) is the central regulator of the reproductive system. GnRH is secreted by hypothalamic neurons in a pulsatile manner and 53 reaches the anterior pituitary where it controls synthesis and secretion of both gonadotropins, 54 55 Luteinizing hormone (LH) and Follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), which are dimeric 56 glycoproteins composed of a common  $\alpha$ -subunit and rate limiting  $\beta$ -subunits (LH $\beta$  and FSH $\beta$ ). 57 GnRH activates a G-protein coupled receptor expressed in gonadotrope cells, which activates 58 a wide array of signaling pathways but predominantly the protein kinase C (PKC)/MAPK signaling pathways [1, 2]. This results in rapid activation of genes belonging to the immediate 59 early gene family and culminates with the increased synthesis of genes coding for gonadotropin 60 subunits *i.e.* Cga, Lhb and Fshb [3, 4]. Expression of these subunit genes is differentially 61 regulated by GnRH according to the pulse frequency of its stimulation. Fshb expression is 62 optimally induced at low GnRH pulse frequency whereas *Lhb* expression is favored at high 63 pulse frequency, the common  $\alpha$  subunit being considered poorly regulated [5]. GnRH induces 64 *Lhb* expression through rapid induction of the immediate early gene Egr1 [6, 7]. The important 65 role of Egr1 is emphasized by the lack of *Lhb* in pituitary gonadotrope cells of *Egr1* knockout 66 mice [8, 9]. Upon induction by GnRH, Egr1 interacts with other transcription factors such as 67 SF1, Pitx1 or Sp1 to enhance Lhb transcription [10, 11]. GnRH regulation of Fshb occurs 68 notably through the induction of immediate early genes belonging to the activator protein-1 69 70 family [12]. Recently, GnRH was shown to regulate gonadotropin subunit gene transcription 71 by abrogating the repressive effect of FOXO1 [13-15]. GnRH-induced posttranscriptional 72 modifications of FOXO1 result in FOXO1 export from the nucleus, alleviating FOXO1 73 repression on the *Fshb* promoter [14, 15]. In addition to GnRH, the coordinated transcription of gonadotropins relies on several signals, including locally produced activin, follistatin or 74 bone morphogenetic proteins, as well as feedback signals originating from the gonads, such as 75 76 steroids and inhibin [12]. We recently demonstrated, by a combination of *in vitro* and in *vivo* 77 approaches, that anti-müllerian hormone (AMH) directly and specifically stimulates Fshb and 78 amplifies activin regulation of Fshb, identifying AMH as a new actor regulating gonadotrope 79 activity [16].

AMH also called Müllerian inhibiting substance is a homodimeric glycoprotein that belongs to the transforming growth factor- $\beta$  superfamily. AMH is secreted by Sertoli cells of the fetal testis and plays a crucial role during early male sex differentiation by inducing the regression

83 of Müllerian ducts [17]. The expression of AMH is however not restricted to embryonic development as AMH can be found in the Sertoli and granulosa cells of postnatal gonads and 84 85 AMH produced by ovarian granulosa cells is now recognized as an important regulator of 86 folliculogenesis [18, 19]. In addition, AMH expression was reported in adult mouse brain [20-87 22] and in pituitaries of immature male and female rats [16]. AMH exerts its function by 88 binding to a specific type 2 receptor, AMHR2, that heterodimerizes with a type 1 receptor [23]. 89 Both receptors are transmembrane serine/threonine receptors that recruit and phosphorylate 90 SMAD proteins that will then translocate into the nucleus to regulate the transcription of 91 several target genes [18, 24]. Amhr2 expression was initially found in mesenchymal cells surrounding the Müllerian epithelium in the bipotential urogenital ridge [17]. Amhr2 mRNA 92 93 was then localized in Sertoli and granulosa cells of both fetal and adult gonads as well as in testicular Leydig cells [17, 19]. In addition, more recent studies highlighted Amhr2 expression 94 95 in extragonadal tissues, notably in the brain. AMH receptivity has been reported in motor and cortical neurons of rodent brain, in which AMH exerts survival and neuroprotective roles, 96 97 respectively [20, 21]. Furthermore, accumulating evidence shows that AMH contributes to the 98 central control of gonadal functions. The AMH receptor was indeed identified in a significant subset of hypothalamic GnRH neurons in mice and humans and AMH was found to potently 99 activate the GnRH neuron firing [25, 26]. Amhr2 transcripts and proteins are also present in rat 100 pituitary gland as well as in the gonadotrope cell line LβT2 [16, 27]. We previously reported a 101 sexually dimorphic expression of Amhr2 transcripts in postnatal rat pituitary with higher 102 103 steady-state transcript levels in immature female rats than in males [16]. In line with this difference, AMH treatment was shown to increase the secretion of the gonadotropin FSH in 104 immature females while being ineffective in age-matched males. Furthermore, AMH was 105 reported to up regulate FSH secretion and pituitary *Fshb* without affecting LH [16]. 106

107 The mechanisms regulating AMHR2 gene expression have mostly been identified in the 108 context of urogenital ridge or gonadal cell expression. Cloning of AMHR2 genes in humans 109 [28, 29] and rodents [30] and studies of their promoters [31-35] have led to the identification 110 of a limited number of regulators and transcription factors responsible for constitutive human or murine AMHR2 gene expression. Among them is the Wnt signaling pathway. Wnt7-a 111 deficient mice are indeed sterile with retained Müllerian ducts and exhibit no Amhr2 mRNA 112 113 expression [36]. The canonical Wnt signaling pathway is mediated by stabilization of  $\beta$ -catenin 114 and its association with nuclear T-cell factor (TCF)/Lymphoid enhancer binding factor (LEF) 115 transcription factors leading to activation of target gene transcription. Four TCF binding sites

have been identified in the hAMHR2 promoter and β-catenin as well as TCF4 (also designated 116 as TCF7L2) have been reported to transactivate the hAMHR2 promoter [35]. The steroidogenic 117 factor 1 (SF1/NR5A1), which belongs to the nuclear receptor superfamily, was found to 118 119 transactivate murine and human AMHR2 promoters through its binding to SF1-motifs [30, 34]. SF1 has also been described to synergistically cooperate with the  $\beta$ -catenin signaling pathway 120 to activate the hAMHR2 promoter [35]. A handful of hormones regulating AMHR2 expression 121 122 have been identified so far, mostly from studies on ovarian tissues. FSH and estradiol were reported to down regulate Amhr2 transcripts in rat ovarian follicles [37] and an inhibitory effect 123 of LH and estradiol on AMHR2 mRNA levels was reported in human luteinized granulosa cells 124 125 [38, 39]. Contrasting with gonadotropins, bone morphogenetic protein 4 (BMP4) and BMP15 were recently demonstrated to up regulate AMHR2 mRNA levels in human granulosa cells 126 through transcriptional activation of the AMHR2 promoter [40]. However, the signaling 127 pathways and mechanisms by which these hormones regulate the transcriptional activity of the 128 AMHR2 gene are still unknown. We recently reported that AMHR2 expression is regulated by 129 130 GnRH in pituitary gonadotrope cells, adding GnRH to the known regulators of AMHR2 [16]. 131 The present study was undertaken to gain further insight into the mechanisms underlying

132GnRH regulation of AMHR2 gene expression. We demonstrate in perifused LβT2 gonadotrope133cells that endogenous Amhr2 expression is differentially regulated by GnRH pulse frequency.134We also show by studying human AMHR2 promoter activity in LβT2 cells that GnRH enhances135AMHR2 transcriptional activity through the combined stimulatory action of Egr1 together with136SF1 and β-catenin and the removal of FOXO1 repression.

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5

### 138 Materials & Methods

### 139 Materials

GF109203X (Bisindolylmaleimide I), SP600125, LY294002, GnRH, GnRH agonist
Triptorelin ([D-Trp<sup>6</sup>]GnRH; GnRHa) and GnRH antagonist antide were from Sigma (SaintQuentin Fallavier, France). JW74 were from Tocris (R&D Systems, Lille, France). Pituitary
adenylate cyclase-activating polypeptide (PACAP<sub>38</sub>) was from Calbiochem (VWR
International, Strasbourg, France).

145

## 146 *Cell cultures*

147 The mouse gonadotrope L $\beta$ T2 and  $\alpha$ T3-1 cell lines and the mouse hypothalamic GnRH 148 neuronal cell line GT1-7, generously provided by Dr P Mellon (University of California, La Jolla, CA) [41, 42], were maintained in monolayer cultures in DMEM-Glutamax (Gibco, Life 149 calf serum (FBS) 10% fetal 150 Technologies) with and 0.5% supplemented penicillin/streptomycin (P/S) (Sigma-Aldrich). Treatments of cells are indicated below, in the 151 corresponding paragraphs. For *Sp1* and *Egr1* mRNA quantification, LBT2 cells were plated in 152 12-well plates (0.8 to  $1 \times 10^6$  per well) in duplicate and starved overnight in serum-free medium 153 154 before incubation for 4 h with 10 nM GnRHa.

155

## 156 **Pulsatile stimulation of LβT2 cells**

The perifusion system was designed according to [43] with modifications. Briefly, L $\beta$ T2 cells were plated in perifusion chambers mounted on glass slides coated with poly L-Lysine (Sigma-Aldrich). Cells were incubated in the chambers overnight in a static culture system in DMEM containing 10% FBS and 0.5% P/S and then serum starved for 24 h in DMEM 1% FBS and 0.1% P/S. The chambers were then mounted in the perifusion system at a constant flow rate of 0.3 ml/min and cells were perifused or not with 20 nM GnRH for 21 h in continuous or pulsatile (one pulse every 30 min or one pulse every 120 min) stimulation mode.

164

### 165 *Plasmid constructs*

A 2252 (-2199/+53)-bp human *AMHR2* promoter (Ref-SeqGene NG-015981) [31, 40] was prepared by cloning successively a 428 (-375/+53)-bp fragment and a 1825-bp distal promoter fragment (-2199/-374) into the *Bgl*II and *Hin*dIII sites of the pGL2-basic vector. The short construct contains only the 428-bp fragment (428-h*AMHR2*-Luc). The expression vector pcDNA3-SF1 was provided by Dr. Bon-chu Chung (Institute of Molecular Biology, Taipei, 171 Taiwan) [44]. Plasmids expressing native and mutant Forkhead Box O1 (FOXO1) were a gift from Domenico Accili [45]. In the constitutively active, non-phosphorylatable mutant (FOXO1-172 173 CAM), threonine (T24) and serines (S253, S316) were replaced by alanine (FLAG-FOXO1ADA, Addgene plasmid #12149; FLAG-FOXO1, Addgene plasmid #12148). The 5' 174 175 deletion constructs from -53 to -5 were obtained by DNA amplification of the native 428hAMHR2-Luc plasmid using forward primers containing a BglII restriction site as indicated in 176 177 table 1 and the reverse primer R3 AMHRm (table 1) that hybridized with luciferase sequence containing a unique XbaI restriction site. The resulting DNA fragments were digested with 178 BglII/XbaI and then inserted into the corresponding restriction sites of the 428-hAMHR2-luc 179 plasmid. The -247, -174, and -105 deletion constructs were obtained as described below. 180

181

## 182 Targeted mutagenesis studies

Mutagenesis of SF1 response elements on the 2252-hAMHR2-luc construct was conducted 183 using QuikChange II XL Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent Technologies), replacing 2-4 184 bp to introduce a KpnI restriction site. Site-directed mutagenesis of TCF, FOXO, SF1 or Egr1 185 motifs was performed in the context of the 428-hAMHR2-luc plasmid by PCR fusion-based 186 approach using the primers listed in Table 1. This generated mutant constructs containing NdeI 187 restriction sites within the TCF, FOXO, SF1 or Egr1 response elements. The SF1, TCF, and 188 FOXO mutants were subsequently used to obtain the -247, -174, and -105 deletion constructs, 189 190 respectively. These constructs were digested by BgIII and NdeI restriction enzymes, treated by T4 DNA polymerase to fill-in 5' overhangs and purified by agarose gel electrophoresis. The 191 192 linearized plasmid fragments were then circularized using T4 DNA ligase. All mutant constructs were validated by DNA sequencing. 193

194

## 195 Transient transfections and luciferase assays

For transient transfections, the human AMHR2 promoter luciferase fusion contruct (100 196 197 ng/well) together with pRL-SV40 as a control for transfection efficiency (5 ng/well) were mixed with 0.5 µl LipofectAMINE2000 reagent (Life Technologies, Gaithersburg, MD) in 10 198  $\mu$ l OptiMEM-1 for 30 min. The transfection mix was then added to 0.9 x 10<sup>5</sup> cells in 30  $\mu$ l 199 200 OptiMEM-1 before plating in 96-well plates (each point in triplicate). Cells were incubated for 5 h before adding 50 µl DMEM supplemented with 5% FBS and 0.25% P/S (Sigma-Aldrich). 201 The next morning, medium was replaced by 100 µl/well DMEM-1% FBS-0.01% P/S and cells 202 were grown an additional 24 h. Then, cells were treated for 4 h with GnRHa (1, 10 nM), GnRH 203

204 (10, 100 nM) or PACAP<sub>38</sub> (20, 50 nM) before luciferase assay (Luciferase Assay System; 205 Promega). When tested, pharmacological inhibitors (5  $\mu$ M antide, 2  $\mu$ M GF109203X, 20  $\mu$ M 206 SP600125, 10  $\mu$ M JW74 or 20  $\mu$ M LY294002) were added 1 h before GnRHa stimulation. 207 Relative luciferase activity of the promoter constructs was determined by the ratio of firefly to 208 *Renilla* luciferase activities and then normalized to basic vector (PGL2) activity in the same 209 experiment.

For siRNA experiments, L $\beta$ T2 cells were transiently cotransfected with the 2252-bp h*AMHR2* promoter and with 75 nM SMARTpool siRNA targeting mouse *Ctnnb1* (siRNA  $\beta$ -catenin), mouse *Nr5a1* (siRNA SF1), mouse *Egr1* (siRNA Egr1) or 75 nM nontargeting SMARTpool siRNA (siRNA NT) as negative control (Dharmacon, Horizon Discovery LTD, Cambridge,

UK). Cells were then, 48 h after transfection, stimulated or not with 10 nM GnRHa for 4 h.

215

## 216 Real-time PCR

Total RNA from LBT2 were isolated with a RNeasy-kit (Qiagen, France) and first-strand 217 cDNA was obtained from 1-2 µg RNA with Superscript II reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) 218 using random primers according to the manufacturer's instructions. Quantification of Amhr2, 219 Lhb, Fshb, Sp1 and Egr1 mRNA was performed by real-time qPCR using Takyon No ROX 220 221 SYBR master mix (Eurogentec). Real-time qPCR was carried out in LightCycler 480 (Roche Diagnostics) using 5  $\mu$ l of the mix containing 0.5  $\mu$ M of each primer and 5  $\mu$ l of a 1:20 cDNA 222 dilution. Cycling conditions included an initial heat-denaturing step at 95°C for 3 min, followed 223 224 by 40 cycles at 95°C for 10 sec, 60°C for 10 sec and 72°C for 10 sec. Oligonucleotide primer sequences are indicated in Table 2 and Cvclophilin was used to normalize RNA expression 225 226 levels. Primer pairs were designed to target cDNA fragments encompassing at least one intron 227 in the gene sequence to prevent amplification of genomic DNA. The specificity of 228 amplification was checked by gel electrophoresis and melting curve analysis. Data were 229 analyzed using the advanced-E-method with standard-curve derived efficiencies obtained from 230 LightCycler 480 software.

231

## 232 Statistical analyses

Experiments were performed in triplicate and all given values are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of at least 4 independent experiments. Data were analyzed using the Prism 6 Software (GraphPad Software, Inc). When distribution was normal, statistical differences were determined using one-way or two-way ANOVA followed by a Dunnett's *t* test for multiple comparisons and

- significance of individual fold changes from control were made using Student's *t* test. A non parametric Mann-Whitney test was used when distribution was not normal.  $P \le 0.05$  was considered as significant.
- 240

Accepted manuscript

- 241 **Results**
- 242

# GnRH pulse frequency differentially regulates *Amhr2* transcript levels in LβT2 gonadotrope cells.

245 The GnRH pulsatile pattern is critical for appropriate regulation of gonadotrope activity [5]. To determine whether endogenous Amhr2 expression could be differentially regulated 246 247 depending on GnRH pulse frequency, LBT2 cells were perifused for 21 h and exposed to vehicle alone, to continuous GnRH stimulation or to pulsatile stimulation at either high (every 248 30 min) or low (every 2 h) pulse frequency. The pulse frequencies chosen are reported to favor 249 Lhb expression and Fshb expression respectively [5, 46]. Accordingly, maximum Lhb and 250 251 *Fshb* transcript levels were found at high and low GnRH pulse frequencies, respectively (Fig 252 1, inset). As shown in Fig 1, a high GnRH pulse frequency significantly increased Amhr2 transcript levels. In contrast, low pulse frequency of GnRH was ineffective. Continuous 253 exposure of cells with GnRH decreased Amhr2 transcript levels by about  $33 \pm 4.9\%$  as 254 previously observed with the GnRH agonist triptorelin (GnRHa) in static cultures [16]. Under 255 continuous GnRH, *Fshb* transcript levels were also significantly decreased and *Lhb* transcript 256 levels were no longer increased (Fig 1, inset), suggesting that cells are desensitized to GnRH 257 stimulation. Altogether, these data indicate that endogenous *Amhr2* expression is regulated by 258 GnRH in L $\beta$ T2 gonadotrope cells and is sensitive to GnRH pulse frequency. 259

## 260 GnRH enhances human *AMHR2* promoter activity in gonadotrope cells.

To determine whether GnRH can regulate transcription of the AMHR2 gene in gonadotrope 261 cells, we took advantage of the human AMHR2 (hAMHR2) promoter that we previously cloned 262 [31] and which shares 70% identity in its proximal region (-375/+78 bp) with the murine 263 promoter. A hAMHR2 promoter/firefly luciferase reporter gene construct was transiently 264 transfected into  $\alpha$ T3-1 and L $\beta$ T2 cell lines that were derived from immature and mature 265 pituitary cells, respectively [47, 48]. Because a significant subset of GnRH neurons, both in 266 mice and human, express AMHR2 [25], we also expressed this construct in the hypothalamic 267 268 GnRH neuronal cell line, GT1-7. GnRHa stimulated hAMHR2 promoter activity by ~ 2.5 fold 269 in L $\beta$ T2 gonadotrope cells (Fig. 2A). This effect was not found in  $\alpha$ T3-1 or GT1-7 cells. A significant increase in hAMHR2 promoter activity was also found after a more prolonged 270 271 treatment (24 h) of L $\beta$ T2 cells with GnRHa (170 ± 6%, data not shown) and no noticeable

increase could still be observed in  $\alpha$ T3-1 or GT1-7 cells. Further analyses revealed that 272 273 luciferase activity can be significantly stimulated by a 10-fold lower concentration of GnRHa 274 and that GnRHa stimulation was completely blocked by the GnRH antagonist antide (Fig. 2B), 275 demonstrating the specificity of the observed effect. The native hormone, GnRH, also 276 enhanced hAMHR2 promoter activity although to a lesser extent than GnRHa, as expected 277 given the higher potency of the agonist triptorelin. In contrast, the neuropeptide PACAP, 278 known to regulate pituitary gonadotrope function, was unable to activate hAMHR2 promoter 279 activity (Fig. 2B). Altogether, these data indicate that GnRH stimulates the 2252-bp hAMHR2 280 promoter in a cell specific manner, with a significant stimulatory effect in L $\beta$ T2 gonadotrope 281 cells. We next compared the 2252-bp promoter activity with a shorter 428-bp promoter used 282 for successive cloning of the promoter. As illustrated in Fig. 2C, both promoters exhibited similar basal luciferase activities. Furthermore, GnRHa stimulatory effect did not significantly 283 284 differ between the two constructs indicating that the cis-acting elements required for GnRH 285 regulation are located within the proximal 428-bp fragment of the hAMHR2 promoter.

## A proximal 37-bp promoter region is required for GnRH transactivation of human AMHR2.

Sequence analysis of the proximal -375/+53 bases of the hAMHR2 promoter using the CIS-BP 288 289 database (http://cisbp.ccbr.utoronto.ca/index.php) [49] revealed consensus binding sites for several regulatory elements which are indicated in the schematic representation shown in Fig. 290 291 3A. Some of them have already been described, including two SF1 binding sites, two TCF binding sites, and one Sp1 binding site ([34, 35], Fig 3B). Furthermore, we also identified two 292 293 additional motifs that have not yet been reported: a Egr1 motif at -52 bp, identified with a high 294 confidence, which partially overlaps with the Sp1 motif and a non-canonical FOXO binding 295 site in the reverse orientation (CIS-BP Motif ID M5467-1.02, [50]) at nucleotides -113 to -103 296 (Fig. 3B).

In order to locate the region required for GnRH activation, we performed a panel of gradual deletions of the h*AMHR2* promoter. As illustrated in Fig. 3C, the loss of distal SF1 and TCF motifs significantly decreased basal promoter activity. In contrast, the extent of GnRH stimulation was not affected  $(1.78 \pm 0.11 \text{ and } 2.5 \pm 0.39\%$  stimulation for the -375/+53 bp and the -247/+53 bp promoter, respectively). GnRHa-dependent luciferase activity remained unaltered following successive deletions leading to the -53 bp promoter (Fig. 3C). Deletion of the fragment located between -53 and -37 bp of the promoter, which contains the Egr1/Sp1 binding site, markedly decreased GnRH-dependent luciferase activity. Further deletions did
 not induce any additional changes in luciferase activity. Altogether, these experiments indicate
 that the sequence located between -53 and - 37 bp of h*AMHR2* promoter is required for GnRH
 regulation.

308

## 309 Egr1 mediates GnRH transactivation of human AMHR2 in gonadotrope cells

310 To confirm the role of the Egr1/Sp1 binding site in GnRH stimulation of hAMHR2 promoter activity, we performed site-directed mutagenesis. Mutation resulted in a significant decrease 311 312 in basal as well as in GnRH-dependent luciferase activity as compared to the native promoter 313 fragment (Fig. 4A). Egr1 is highly induced by GnRH in gonadotrope cells and mediates GnRHstimulated expression of *Lhb* [6, 7]. To examine the potential role of Egr1 in GnRH stimulation 314 of AMHR2 expression, we next used a small interfering RNA (siRNA) strategy to decrease 315 Egr1 expression. LBT2 cells were transfected with a pool of siRNAs specific to mouse Egr1 316 (siRNA Egr1) or with a pool of nontargeting siRNAs (siRNA NT) before GnRHa stimulation. 317 In siRNA NT-transfected cells, GnRHa stimulated hAMHR2 promoter activity by  $218 \pm 26\%$ 318 319 (Fig. 4B). Transfection of cells with siRNA Egr1 reduced basal promoter activity. Furthermore, siRNA Egr1 abrogated the GnRH stimulatory effect indicating that Egr1 is required for GnRH 320 regulation of hAMHR2 expression (Fig. 4B). 321

## 322 FOXO1 represses basal and GnRH-dependent activity of human AMHR2 promoter

323 To examine the potential involvement of putative FOXO binding site and FOXO transcription factors, we transiently cotransfected L $\beta$ T2 cells with plasmids expressing wild-type FOXO1 324 (FOXO1-Wt) or a constitutively active, phosphorylation-defective form of FOXO1 (FOXO1-325 CAM) [51]. The constitutively active form of FOXO1 was previously reported to localize 326 exclusively into the nucleus of L $\beta$ T2 cells [14, 15]. As illustrated in Fig. 5A, we observed that 327 328 overexpression of FOXO1-CAM decreased basal hAMHR2 transcriptional activity. Notably, 329 FOXO1-CAM also markedly reduced the GnRHa stimulatory effect on the promoter (Fig. 5A). 330 Because the phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) pathway mediates GnRH regulation of FOXO1 331 export in LBT2 cells [14], we next examined whether blocking the PI3K pathway would decrease GnRH-induced hAMHR2 promoter activity (Fig. 5B). Pretreatment of cells with the 332 PI3K signaling pathway inhibitor LY294002 (20  $\mu$ M) significantly reduced by 48 ± 8%, (Fig. 333 5B inset) the GnRH stimulatory effect on hAMHR2 promoter activity. To examine the 334 requirement of the putative FOXO binding site, we next transiently transfected LBT2 cells with 335 336 a hAMHR2 promoter with a mutated FOXO motif. As shown in Fig. 5C, GnRHa treatment still

increased mutated h*AMHR2* promoter to a similar extent as that observed with the wild-type
promoter. This suggests that although FOXO1 decreases GnRH induction of h*AMHR2* activity,
it may not act through direct binding to h*AMHR2* promoter as already reported for murine *Fshb*and *Lhb* promoters [13, 14, 52].

341

# 342 SF1 and β-catenin are required for basal and GnRH-stimulated human *AMHR2*343 promoter activities.

SF1 and TCF4 have been reported to be necessary for basal hAMHR2 expression [34, 35]. 344 Furthermore, both SF1 and  $\beta$ -catenin signaling can be activated by GnRH [53, 54] and are 345 involved in GnRH regulation of *Lhb* expression [10, 11, 55]. To better delineate the role of 346 347 these two transcription factors, we performed site directed mutagenesis and siRNA-mediated knock down experiments. As shown in Fig. 6A, basal luciferase activity of the hAMHR2 348 promoter carrying mutations of both SF1 binding sites [33, 34] was significantly reduced 349 compared to the control promoter in LBT2 cells. In contrast, the GnRH stimulatory effect was 350 still observed, suggesting that intact SF1-binding sites are not required for GnRH stimulation. 351 siRNA-mediated decrease in SF1, leading to a  $50 \pm 7\%$  reduction in SF1 transcripts levels after 352 24h transfection (RT-qPCR experiments, data not shown), reduced basal luciferase activity 353 (Fig. 6B) in agreement with results from mutation experiments. Decreasing SF1 expression 354 completely abrogated GnRH stimulation of hAMHR2 promoter activity (Fig. 6B). This 355 356 indicates that SF1 contributes to GnRH regulation although it may not bind directly to SF1 motifs and suggests an indirect mechanism of control. 357

To examine the potential role of the β-catenin/TCF pathway in basal and GnRH dependent 358 359 hAMHR2 activity, we mutated one or both TCF binding sites in the 428-bp hAMHR2 promoter (Fig. 7A). Mutation of the proximal TCF binding site did not affect basal or GnRH stimulated 360 361 promoter activity. In contrast, basal luciferase activity was reduced by mutation of the distal 362 TCF motif, which was also observed when both TCF sites were mutated (Fig. 7A). The fold 363 increase in GnRH stimulation was unaffected as both basal and GnRH dependent luciferase activities were reduced under these conditions (Fig. 7A). Significant levels of TCF4 transcripts 364 365 were found in LBT2 cells (data not shown) suggesting that TCF4 transcription factor contributes to basal promoter activity. To further examine the role of  $\beta$ -catenin, we specifically 366 367 targeted β-catenin expression using siRNAs. LβT2 cells were transfected with a pool of siRNAs specific to mouse  $\beta$ -catenin (siRNA  $\beta$ -catenin) or with a pool of nontargeting siRNAs 368

(siRNA NT) before GnRHa stimulation. This led to a significant reduction in  $\beta$ -catenin 369 370 transcript levels in L $\beta$ T2 cells as assessed by qRT-PCR (50 ± 3.5% of siRNA NT-transfected cells, data not shown). As expected in NT-transfected cells, GnRHa stimulated the 2252-bp 371 372 *hAMHR2* promoter activity by  $187 \pm 4\%$  (Fig. 7B). Transfection of cells with siRNA  $\beta$ -catenin reduced basal promoter activity. It also reduced the extent of GnRH stimulation by  $48 \pm 17\%$ 373 374 (Fig. 7B, *inset*). In a complementary approach, we inhibited activity of the  $\beta$ -catenin pathway using the pharmacological inhibitor, JW74. As shown in Fig. 7C, we observed that JW74 375 significantly reduced the GnRH stimulatory effect by  $44 \pm 7\%$ . Activation of  $\beta$ -catenin by 376 377 GnRH relies on PKC-dependent signaling pathways, including notably the recruitment of c-Jun N-terminal kinases (JNK) [54, 56]. Treatment of cells with the PKC inhibitor GF109203X 378 379 significantly reduced the GnRH-induced increase of hAMHR2 promoter activity by  $60 \pm 13\%$ . Furthermore, GnRH-induced activation was fully prevented by the JNK inhibitor, SP600125. 380 Altogether, these experiments indicate that both SF1 and  $\beta$ -catenin mediate GnRH stimulatory 381 effect on hAMHR2 transcription in LBT2 gonadotrope cells, although they may not bind to 382 mai their known response elements. 383

384

#### 385 Discussion

First identified in the mesenchyme of Müllerian ducts and in gonads, AMHR2 was 386 subsequently localized in several other organs, including the brain and the pituitary, suggesting 387 that AMH biological effects are far more diverse than initially thought. However, the 388 389 mechanisms regulating AMHR2 gene expression, notably in extragonadal sites still remain elusive. Here, we demonstrate that gene expression of both human and murine AMHR2 is 390 391 regulated by the neuroendocrine hormone, GnRH. Indeed, GnRH was shown to increase 392 endogenous AMHR2 transcripts in the gonadotrope cell line LBT2 and to enhance the activity 393 of a human AMHR2 promoter. Transactivation of the promoter was not observed in the 394 immature  $\alpha$ T3-1 gonadotrope cell line nor in neuronal GT1-7 cell line, although the latter is 395 receptive to both GnRH and AMH.

396 We identified several transcription factors required for GnRH regulation of AMHR2 gene 397 expression. We notably uncovered the functional importance of the Egr1 transcription factor. 398 We localized an Egr1 binding site in the proximal region of the hAMHR2 promoter and 399 provided evidence, by deletion and mutation, that this site is needed for GnRH-mediated 400 induction. Furthermore, because siRNA-inhibited expression of Egr1 mRNA in LBT2 cells 401 was shown to prevent GnRH effect, our study strongly suggests that GnRH induces Egr1 402 binding to transactivate the hAMHR2 promoter. We demonstrated that two factors, *i.e.* SF1 and 403  $\beta$ -catenin, known to be important for constitutive hAMHR2 promoter activity [34, 35] also contribute to the GnRH stimulatory effect. Gonadotrope cells, including LBT2 cells, express 404 significant amounts of SF1 and β-catenin [55, 57] and down-regulation of each factor was able 405 to reduce the GnRH-dependent increase in hAMHR2 promoter activity. The contribution of  $\beta$ -406 407 catenin in GnRH regulation of hAMHR2 promoter was further supported by the fact that pharmacological inhibition of PKC and JNK, known to mediate GnRH activation of β-catenin, 408 409 prevents GnRH activation of hAMHR2 promoter. However, because PKC and JNK signaling pathways may act through alternative mediators, additional experiments are needed to establish 410 whether the signaling PKC/JNK/β-catenin cascade is required for GnRH regulation of 411 hAMHR2 promoter. Interestingly, GnRH effect was not affected by mutation of either SF1 or 412 TCF motifs suggesting that SF1 and  $\beta$ -catenin/TCF, although contributing to GnRH regulation, 413 do not bind to these sites of the promoter. In line with this result, it was reported in HeLa cells, 414 415 that SF1 alone does not activate the hAMHR2 promoter but instead binds to β-catenin and synergistically cooperates with  $\beta$ -catenin to activate the promoter [35]. SF1 is known to 416 physically interact with  $\beta$ -catenin in L $\beta$ T2 cells [55]. Furthermore, SF1 has been reported to 417 synergize with Egr1 and Sp1 for transactivation of the *Lhb* promoter [11]. Interestingly, it was 418 demonstrated in LBT2 cells that SF1 interacts with Egr1 through B-catenin and that B-catenin 419 colocalization with SF1 and Egr1 on the mouse *Lhb* promoter is increased by GnRH [55]. 420 Based on these studies, we can hypothesize from our present findings that, by increasing Egr1 421 422 binding to the proximal region of the AMHR2 promoter, GnRH enables the formation of a complex, containing  $\beta$ -catenin and SF1, that cooperates with Egr1 to fully activate the AMHR2 423 promoter (see the proposed hypothetical model in Fig. 8). In this study, we also uncovered the 424 425 functional importance of the transcription factor FOXO1 in the regulation of the hAMHR2 promoter. FOXO1 was recently detected in native gonadotrope cells as well as in the LBT2 cell 426 line and identified as a negative regulator of FSHB and LHB gene expression [13-15, 52]. Here, 427 we demonstrate using a constitutively active FOXO1 mutant that FOXO1 is a negative 428 regulator of basal and GnRH-dependent hAMHR2 promoter activity. The PI3K pathway is the 429 430 major regulator of FOXO1 activity, and GnRH was recently shown to enhance FOXO1 export out of the nucleus through this pathway in L $\beta$ T2 cells, abrogating the FOXO1 repressive effect 431 on the Fshb promoter [14, 15]. Supporting the involvement of FOXO1, we showed in the 432 433 present study that pharmacological inhibition of the PI3K pathway significantly reduced GnRH

434 stimulation of hAMHR2 promoter activity. Further experiments are however needed to determine whether the signaling cascade PI3K/FOXO1 is required for GnRH regulation of 435 436 hAMHR2 promoter. Altogether these experiments strongly suggest that blockade of FOXO1 437 repressive effect contributes to GnRH stimulation of hAMHR2 promoter activity (Fig. 8). 438 Mutations of the identified FOXO binding site did not however affect GnRH-stimulated promoter activity. Although this may indicate the use of alternative yet unidentified motifs 439 440 within the promoter, several studies reported that the FOXO1 suppressive effect on Fshb and Lhb expression in LBT2 cells occurs without direct binding of FOXO1 to their respective 441 promoters [13, 14, 52]. The authors of those studies postulated that FOXO1 acts through 442 protein-protein interactions with other transcription factors/cofactors. As for gonadotropin 443 444 genes, factors interacting with FOXO1 to regulate hAMHR2 still remain to be identified. It is tempting to speculate that FOXO1 may counteract the action of stimulatory factors identified 445 in the present study. By reducing FOXO1 nuclear localization, GnRH could thus enhance the 446 transactivation capacity of SF1,  $\beta$ -catenin, and Egr1. The ability of FOXO1 to inhibit Wnt/ $\beta$ -447 catenin signaling has recently been reported in osteoblast precursors as well as in sarcoma cell 448 lines [58, 59], which supports this hypothesis. The underlying molecular mechanisms of this 449 450 phenomenon are still to be determined.

Our study provides new information on the regulation of constitutive AMHR2 expression in 451 452 gonadotrope cells. Using a combination of site-directed mutagenesis and siRNA-mediated 453 down regulation experiments, we provide evidence that SF1 and β-catenin contribute to basal AMHR2 gene expression in gonadotrope cells through their respective motifs in the promoter. 454 We found significant amounts of TCF4 transcript (qRT-PCR experiments, data not shown) in 455 L $\beta$ T2 cells suggesting that TCF4 transcription factor can be recruited by  $\beta$ -catenin to 456 457 transactivate AMHR2 promoter. It was previously reported using mutation experiments that the four TCF binding sites identified in hAMHR2 promoter are necessary for full activity in HeLa 458 cells [35]. In gonadotrope cells, both deletion and mutation experiments indicate that only one 459 TCF site is needed for constitutive activity. Indeed, the shorter hAMHR2 promoter, devoid of 460 the two first TCF sites, retained full basal activity and mutation of the most proximal site, 461 462 reported to be critical in HeLa cells, was ineffective. This difference may reflect cell-specific mechanisms. Interestingly, we found that the TCF motif involved in basal activity in 463 464 gonadotrope cells partially overlaps with a GATA motif suggesting that GATA transcription factors contribute together with TCF to basal hAMHR2 expression in gonadotrope cells. Our 465 present study has uncovered the involvement of two new transcription factors in basal 466

467 hAMHR2 expression i.e. Egr1 and FOXO1. FOXO1 was shown to act as a repressor of AMHR2 expression as previously reported for gonadotropin  $\beta$ -subunit genes [13-15, 52]. In murine 468 469 granulosa cells, FOX01 the of the luteinizing represses expression 470 hormone/choriogonadotropin receptor gene [60], as well as of several genes involved in the steroidogenic biosynthesis pathways [61]. Given the importance of AMH signaling in 471 granulosa cell proliferation and steroidogenesis, it would be of interest to determine whether 472 FOXO1 also represses AMHR2 gene expression in these cells. 473

It has long been reported that the frequency of GnRH pulses is critical for the appropriate ratio 474 475 of FSH vs LH synthesis and secretion [5]. This has been proposed as one of the mechanisms 476 allowing gonadotrope cells to interpret the varying pattern of GnRH secretion [4]. Gonadotropin genes are not the only genes differentially regulated by GnRH pulse frequency 477 and several other target genes have been identified [62], including follistatin and nitric oxide 478 synthase 1 [63, 64]. Our present study identifies AMHR2 as one of these genes. Indeed, using 479 LBT2 cells in a perifusion system, we showed that GnRH at high pulse frequency increases 480 Amhr2 expression whereas lower frequencies were ineffective. This result as well as the 481 482 positive regulation of AMHR2 promoter by GnRH is not in agreement with our previous report indicating that GnRHa treatment of LBT2 cells in static cultures decreased Amhr2 transcript 483 levels by  $\sim 30\%$ , a decrease which was also observed in rat pituitary, 24 h after GnRHa 484 injection [16]. Our present data using perifused LBT2 cells strongly suggest that this decrease 485 reflected desensitization of cells to GnRH stimulation. Indeed, we observed that Amhr2 486 expression is similarly decreased in response to a continuous GnRH stimulation which was 487 associated with a desensitization of the gonadotropin response as reflected by decreased levels 488 of gonadotropin  $\beta$ -subunit transcripts. Furthermore, reevaluation of *Lhb* and *Fshb* transcript 489 levels in the pituitaries of GnRHa-treated rats (unpublished data) were also indicative of 490 491 gonadotrope cell desensitization to GnRH. Altogether, our data thus indicate that GnRH finely regulates *Amhr2* expression in gonadotrope cells with a selective increase observed with a high 492 493 GnRH pulse frequency.

Accumulating evidence highlights that AMH may act at every level of the gonadotrope axis.
Indeed, in addition to gonads, AMHR2 mRNA has recently been localized in rodent and human
GnRH neurons, and intracerebroventricular or peripheral injections of AMH in mice was able
to increase LH secretion [25, 26]. Furthermore, AMHR2 was identified in rodent pituitary as
well as in gonadotrope cells and AMH was shown to positively regulate FSH [16, 27, 65]. Very

499 recently, AMH regulation on FSH secretion was also reported in a non-rodent species *i.e.* in heifers [65]. Because we characterized Amh transcripts in immature rat pituitary and in LBT2 500 501 gonadotrope cells [16], this suggests that locally produced AMH could contribute to the 502 regulation of FSH secretion as described for pituitary activin or follistatin [66]. It would be of interest to determine whether AMH is coexpressed with its receptor in the pituitary of other 503 504 mammalian species. Supporting the functional importance of AMH signaling in the pituitary, AMHR2 gene expression has also been identified in the pituitary of non-mammalian species 505 506 *i.e.* the teleost Nile Tilapia [67, 68]. The present work reinforces the intriguing hypothesis that 507 AMH contributes to the pituitary control of gonadal functions by demonstrating that 508 gonadotrope AMH receptivity is regulated by the neuroendocrine hormone GnRH. The 509 physiological implication of Amhr2 up-regulation by high pulse frequency of GnRH remains to be understood. It has been clearly demonstrated that high frequency of GnRH pulses only 510 poorly increases rodent *Fshb* transcript levels [5]. There are, however, physiological situations 511 512 where high GnRH pulsatility is associated with elevation of both LH and FSH secretion. 513 Among them are the cyclic preovulatory period in adults and the so-called "minipuberty" which 514 is characterized by a transient activation of the Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Gonadal axis in 515 immature animals [69]. We recently detected significant levels of pituitary Amhr2 transcripts 516 in immature but not adult rats suggesting that AMH could play a crucial role in regulating FSH 517 secretion during the immature period. During this period, a marked increase in FSH secretion and pituitary Fshb mRNA levels has been reported in several mammalian species [69]. Hence, 518 increasing AMH receptivity in pituitary gonadotropes may be an indirect mechanism allowing 519 elevated FSH synthesis despite an increase in GnRH tone that would not favor FSH. In rat as 520 521 in other mammals, this period is characterized by a sexual dimorphism of FSH secretion with higher circulating FSH concentrations and pituitary Fshb mRNA levels in females than in 522 523 males [16, 69]. Interestingly, we reported that pituitary Amhr2 expression is also higher in 524 female rats during this developmental period [16]. A higher GnRH neurons activity has recently been reported in infantile 2-3-week-female mice as compared to males [70]. Based on 525 our present study, we can hypothesize that this contributes to dimorphism of pituitary Amhr2 526 527 expression and hence to the sexually dimorphic secretion of FSH during infancy.

In conclusion, our study shed new light on the mechanisms regulating AMHR2 expression.
Moreover, the identification of AMHR2 as a target of GnRH further underlines the role of
AMH in the control of pituitary gonadotrope function.

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### 537 Disclosure statement:

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540 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

541

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546

## 547 Author contributions

GG designed and performed the study, interpreted the results and contribute to the writing of 548 the manuscript, CD performed transfection experiments, DL designed and performed 549 perifusion culture experiments and contributed to the interpretation of promoter studies, JYP 550 551 generated wild type and SF1-mutated hAMHR2 promoter constructs, JT helped with manuscript preparation, UK helped with the design of perifusion culture experiments and 552 553 manuscript preparation, JNL designed and performed deletion and site-directed mutagenesis experiments, analyzed the data and contributed to the writing of the manuscript, JCT designed 554 555 the study, interpreted the results and wrote the manuscript.

556

## 557 Abbreviations

- bp, base pairs; Egr1, Early growth response protein 1; FOXO, Forkhead Box O; GnRHa, GnRH
- 559 agonist; JNK, c-Jun N-terminal kinase; PACAP, Pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating
- 560 polypeptide; PI3K, Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase; PKC, Protein kinase C; P/S,
- 561 penicillin/streptomycin; siNT, nontargeting siRNA; TCF/LEF, T-cell factor/Lymphoid
- s62 enhancer binding factor; SF1, Steroidogenic factor 1; siRNA, small interfering RNA; SMAD,
- 563 Sma/Mothers against decapentaplegic homolog.
- 564

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## Figure 1: Pulsatile GnRH regulates *Amhr2* transcript levels in a frequency-dependent manner in perifused LβT2 cells.

The effect of different GnRH pulse frequencies on *Amhr2* expression was assayed in L $\beta$ T2 cells in control medium or medium containing GnRH for 21 h in a perifusion chamber under continuous or pulsatile (one pulse every 30 min or every 2 h) stimulation mode. *Amhr2* mRNA levels were analyzed by real-time PCR. Levels of *Fshb* and *Lhb* transcripts were also measured (inset). Results are the mean ± SEM of four independent experiments and expressed as percent of *Amhr2* mRNA level in control cells. \*, P ≤ 0.05; \*\*, P ≤ 0.01 compared with control cells, (one-way ANOVA test).

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# Figure 2: GnRH stimulates the activity of human *AMHR2* promoter in LβT2 gonadotrope cells.

GnRHa effects on human AMHR2 promoter activity were assayed in gonadotrope L $\beta$ T2 and 779 αT3-1 and in hypothalamic neuronal GT1-7 cell lines. (A) A promoter/luciferase fusion 780 construct, containing the 2252 (-2199/+53)-bp human AMHR2 promoter, was transiently 781 transfected into L $\beta$ T2,  $\alpha$ T3-1 or GT1-7 cells for 48 h. Cells were then stimulated or not by 782 783 GnRHa for 4 h. Relative luciferase activity was measured as indicated in Materials and *Methods* and results are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of at least four independent experiments performed 784 in triplicate. \*\*\*,  $P \le 0.001$  compared with respective unstimulated cells (control, unpaired 785 786 Student's t test). (B) The effects of GnRHa, GnRH and PACAP<sub>38</sub> on 2252-human AMHR2 promoter activity in LBT2 cells were compared. LBT2 cells were stimulated with GnRHa, 787 788 GnRH or with PACAP<sub>38</sub> for 4 h. Some cells were pretreated with the GnRH antagonist antide 789 (5 µM) before stimulation with 10 nM of GnRHa. Luciferase activity was expressed as percent of unstimulated promoter activity (control). Data are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of at least five 790 independent experiments performed in triplicate. \*,  $P \le 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P \le 0.01$  compared with 791 control (Mann-Whitney test). (C) The effect of GnRH on a shorter 428-bp hAMHR2 promoter 792 793 was analyzed. The 2252-hAMHR2 promoter or a 428 (-375/+53)-bp hAMHR2 were transiently 794 transfected in LBT2 cells for 48 h. Cells were then stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h and 795 luciferase activities were measured. Results are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of six independent

experiments performed in triplicate. \*\*\*,  $P \le 0.001$  compared with respective control (unpaired

797 Student's *t* test)

## Figure 3: Mapping of the 428-human *AMHR2* promoter and delineation of sequence required for GnRH effect.

800 (A) A schematic representation of the proximal -375/+53 bases of the human AMHR2 promoter (428-hAMHR2) illustrating the position of binding sites for SF1 (SF1), TCF7, TCF7L1 or 801 TCF7L2 (TCF), FOXO1, 3 or 4 (FOXO), all members of Egr1 family (Egr1) and Sp1 (Sp1) is 802 803 shown. The arrow indicates the transcription initiation site (TSS). (B) Detailed nucleotide 804 sequence of the 428-hAMHR2 with binding sites for SF1, TCF, FOXO, Egr1 and Sp1, shown 805 boxed, except for Egr1 which is highlighted in grey. (C) Delineation of the hAMHR2 promoter 806 fragment required for GnRH stimulation was analyzed using transient transfection assay in LBT2 cells. Progressive 5' deletions of the human AMHR2 promoter extending from -375 to -807 808 5 were fused to the luciferase reporter gene and tested for their ability to respond to GnRH 809 treatment. Transient transfection assays were performed as described in Materials and 810 *Methods*. Results are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of six independent experiments performed in triplicate and expressed as fold stimulation over the PGL2 empty vector. \*\*\*, P < 0.001; \*\*, P < 0.01; ns, 811 P > 0.05 (two-way ANOVA test). 812

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## Figure 4: Egr1 mediates GnRH stimulatory effect on hAMHR2 promoter.

(A) Mutation of the Egr1/Sp1 binding site in the 428-bp hAMHR2 promoter was performed as 815 816 described in Materials and Methods. Wild type and mutated Egr1/Sp1 sequences are shown. 817 Luciferase activities of wild type and mutated 428-h*AMHR2* promoters were measured in L $\beta$ T2 cells stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h. Data are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of four independent 818 experiments performed in triplicate and expressed as percent of unstimulated wild type 819 820 promoter activity (control). \*\*,  $P \le 0.01$  compared with control (two-way ANOVA test). (B) Knockdown of Egr1. LBT2 cells were transiently transfected for 48 h with the 2252-bp 821 hAMHR2 promoter, together with 75 nM siRNA targeting mouse Egr1 (siRNA Egr1) or 75 822 nM nontargeting siRNA (siRNA NT) and then stimulated or not with 10 nM GnRHa for 4 h. 823 824 qRT-PCR analysis confirmed that Egr1 siRNAs significantly reduced Egr1 transcript levels in 825 L $\beta$ T2 cells (55 ± 5% of siRNA NT-transfected cells after 24 h transfection, data not shown). This decrease is probably underestimated as Erg1 mRNAs were measured from the whole 826 827 population of cells while only a subpopulation was transfected with the siRNA. Luciferase 828 activities are shown as percent of unstimulated siRNA NT-transfected cells (control). Data are

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- 829 the mean  $\pm$  SEM of four independent experiments performed in triplicate. \*, P  $\leq$  0.05; \*\*, P  $\leq$
- 830 0.01 compared with control cells (two-way ANOVA test); a, P  $\leq$  0.001 compared with GnRH 831 stimulated, siRNA NT-transfected cells (unpaired Student's *t* test).
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## **Figure 5: FOXO1 represses basal and GnRH-dependent activities of h***AMHR2* **promoter.**

- 834 (A) Effect of a constitutively active mutant of FOXO1 on GnRH stimulatory effect. The 2252hAMHR2 was transiently transfected in LBT2 cells together with FOXO1 wild type (FOXO1-835 Wt), constitutively active mutant of FOXO1 (FOXO1-CAM) or with empty pcDNA3 836 (pcDNA3) vectors. Cells were then stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h. Luciferase activities 837 were measured 48 h later and expressed as percent of unstimulated pcDNA3 transfected cells 838 (control). Data are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of five independent experiments performed in triplicate. 839 \*\*,  $P \leq 0.01$  compared with control (two-way ANOVA test). (B) Effect of PI3K 840 pharmacological inhibition on GnRH effect. LBT2 cells expressing the 2252-hAMHR2 841 promoter were stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h in presence or absence of a PI3K specific 842 843 inhibitor (LY294002, 20 µM). Luciferase activities were expressed as percent of unstimulated promoter activity (control). Data are the mean  $\pm$  SEM at five independent experiments 844 performed in triplicate. \*\*,  $P \le 0.01$  compared with control. GnRH induction of hAMHR2 845 activity is significantly reduced by 48±8% in presence of LY294002 (*inset*, unpaired Student's 846 t test). (C) Mutation of the FOXO response element in hAMHR2 promoter. A 428-hAMHR2 847 promoter with mutation of the FOXO motif was designed as described in Materials and 848 849 Methods. Wild type (FOXO-Wt) and mutated FOXO sequences extending from -120/-96 bp 850 are shown. Luciferase activities of wild type and mutated hAMHR2 promoters were measured in L $\beta$ T2 cells stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h. Data are the mean ± SEM of six 851 independent experiments performed in triplicate and shown as percent of unstimulated FOXO-852 Wt transfected cells (control). \*\*,  $P \le 0.01$  compared with control (two-way ANOVA test). 853
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# Figure 6: SF1 contributes to basal and GnRH-stimulated hAMHR2 promoter activities in LβT2 cells.

(A) Effect of mutation of the two SF1 binding sites in h*AMHR2* promoter. A mutant of the 2252-h*AMHR2* promoter with mutation of both SF1-binding sites was designed as described in *Materials and Methods*. Wild type and mutated SF1 sequences extending from -276/-256 and -216/-196 bp are shown. Luciferase activities of wild type and SF1-mutated h*AMHR2* promoters were measured in L $\beta$ T2 cells stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h and expressed 862 as percent of unstimulated wild type promoter activity (control). Data are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of six independent experiments performed in triplicate. \*,  $P \le 0.05$ ; \*\*\*,  $P \le 0.001$  compared with 863 control (two-way ANOVA test). (B) Knockdown of SF1. LBT2 cells were transiently 864 transfected during 48 h with the 2252-bp hAMHR2 promoter together with 75 nM siRNA 865 targeting mouse Nr5a1 (siRNA SF1) or 75 nM nontargeting siRNA (siRNA NT) and then 866 stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h. Luciferase activities are shown as percent of 867 unstimulated siRNA NT-transfected cells (control). Data are the mean ± SEM of four 868 independent experiments performed in triplicate. \*,  $P \le 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P \le 0.01$  compared with 869 control cells;  $a, P \le 0.001$  compared with GnRH stimulated, siRNA NT-transfected cells (two-870 871 way ANOVA test).

872

## 873 Figure 7: β-catenin is involved in GnRH stimulation of h*AMHR2*.

(A) Mutation of the TCF binding sites in the hAMHR2 promoter. Mutants of the 428-hAMHR2 874 promoter with mutations of one or both TCF motifs were designed as described in *Materials* 875 and Methods. Wild type and mutated TCF sequences extending from -259/-242 bp and -187/-876 169 bp are shown. Luciferase activities of wild type and mutated hAMHR2 promoters were 877 measured in L $\beta$ T2 cells stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h. Data are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of 878 five independent experiments performed in triplicate and expressed as percent of unstimulated 879 wild type promoter activity (control). \*\*,  $P \le 0.01$  compared with control (two-way ANOVA) 880 test). (B) Knockdown of  $\beta$ -Catenin. L $\beta$ T2 cells were transiently transfected for 48 h with the 881 2252-bp hAMHR2 promoter together with 75 nM siRNA targeting mouse Ctnnb1 (siRNA β-882 catenin) or 75 nM nontargeting siRNA (siRNA NT) and then stimulated or not with GnRHa 883 884 for 4 h. Luciferase activities are shown as percent of unstimulated siRNA NT-transfected cells (control). Data are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of four independent experiments performed in triplicate. 885 \*,  $P \le 0.05$  compared with control cells (two-way ANOVA test). GnRH induction of hAMHR2 886 is significantly reduced by  $48\pm17\%$  in presence of siRNA  $\beta$ -catenin (*inset*, unpaired Student's 887 t test). (C) Effects of pharmacological inhibition of  $\beta$ -catenin, PKC and JNK signaling 888 889 pathways on GnRH effect. LBT2 cells were transiently transfected with the 2252-bp hAMHR2 promoter and then stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h in absence or presence of 10 µM 890 891 JW74 (β-catenin pathway inhibitor), 2 μM GF109203X (GF109, PKC inhibitor) or 20 μM 892 SP600125 (SP6, JNK inhibitor). Luciferase activities are shown as percent of promoter activity 893 in absence of any treatment (control). Data are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of at least five independent

- experiments performed in triplicate. \*,  $P \le 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P \le 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  $P \le 0.001$  compared with control cells (two-way ANOVA test).
- 896

# Figure 8: Schematic hypothetical model for GnRH induction of human *AMHR2* promoter activity.

This schematic drawing illustrates the location of binding sites (in red) and related transcription 899 900 factors involved in the regulation of AMHR2 promoter in gonadotrope cells. In the insets are 901 illustrated the levels of Egr1 and Sp1 transcripts (expressed relative to basal Sp1 level) in LBT2 cells stimulated or not by GnRH. (A) The constitutive activity of hAMHR2 requires intact TCF, 902 903 SF1 and overlapping Sp1/Egr1 binding sites. Egr1 is only poorly expressed as compared to Sp1 in basal condition (inset), the transcription factor occupying the Sp1/Egr1 binding site is 904 thus probably Sp1. Significant levels of TCF4 transcripts in LBT2 cells suggest that TCF4 905 906 transcription factor contributes to basal promoter activity through binding to TCF site. In addition, FOXO1 exerts a repressive action on the promoter, possibly by counteracting 907 908 stimulatory transcription factors. (B) GnRH induces high levels of Egr1 while it does not affect Sp1 transcripts (inset). Egr1 binding to the promoter thus probably leads to the competitive 909 displacement of Sp1. The induction of Egr1 may enable the formation of a transcriptional 910 complex containing  $\beta$ -catenin and SF1 that cooperate with Egr1 to fully activate the hAMHR2 911 promoter. The export of FOXO1 from nucleus induced by GnRH also contributes to the 912 transactivation of the promoter. 913







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Figure 3



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Α



Figure 6





Figure 7



Figure 8

## Table 1:

## Sequences of the primers used for site-directed mutagenesis of 428-hAMHR2-luc

Id primer	<b>Sequence (5' &gt; 3')</b>	<b>Restriction site</b>	
Common primers			
F1-AMH05	AGCTCG <b>AGATCT</b> TAGGCTAGA	BglII	
R3-AMHRm	CCATCC <b>TCTAGA</b> GGATAGAA	XbaI	
Primers used for 5' deletions			
AmhF-5	GCCCCA <b>AGATCT</b> CCTGTATCTGAAGAAAGATT	BglII	
AmhF-20	actgag <b>agatct</b> gaagccccaggatgccctgt	BglII	
AmhF-37	gggggc <b>agatct</b> ggggactgagggatcaga	BglII	
AmhF-53	GGCTGG <b>AGATCT</b> ATGAGGGGGGGGGGGAGTTG	BglII	
AmhF-68	CTTCTCAGATCTAGAGGCTGGGATAGGATGA	BglII	
AmhF-85	CTCTCC <b>AGATCT</b> GCAGCCTTCTCCCCCACAGA	BglII	
Primers used for targeted mutagenesis			
	SF1 response element (-271/-262)		
Amhr07_R2	CTTCCCT <b>CATATG</b> GGAAGAAGATGCTGGACTCT	NdeI	
Amhr07_F2	ttcttcc <b>catatg</b> agggaagggcaaagatttga	NdeI	
TCF response elements (253/-247 ; -181/-175)			
R1-AMHR05	atttcaaa <b>catatg</b> cccttccctgaccttgga	NdeI	
F2-AMHR05	gaaggg <b>catatg</b> tttgaaattaggcatcactg	NdeI	
R2-AMHRm2	gcaacctc <b>catatg</b> gctctgcatagtgaga	NdeI	
F3-AMHRm2	CAGAGC <u>CATATG</u> GAGGTTGCAGAAGAGA	NdeI	
	FOXO response element (-113/-103)		
R1- AMHR07	GTGGGTG <u>CATATG</u> AAGCAGGGAAAGAAAGGGA	NdeI	
F1- AMHR07	CCTGCTT <u>CATATG</u> CACCCACCCTCTCCCCCAC	NdeI	
Egr1/Sp1 response element (-52/-39)			
AmEgr_F	ggatgagg <b>catatg</b> gagttggggactgagggat	NdeI	
AmEgr_R	cccaactc <b>catatg</b> cctcatcctatcccagcct	NdeI	

## Table 2:

## Sequences of the primers used for quantification of transcript levels in $L\beta T2$ cells.

*Cyclophilin* is used as reference gene for real-time PCR. Unspecified species mean that the primers are functional for both rat and mouse.

Target cDNA	<b>Forward primer</b> (5'>3')	<b>Reverse primer</b> (5'>3')	
Mouse Amhr2	CTGAGGTAGCTGTGCTGGTTTTTGC	GTGTCTTTGTGCTTCCCCGCACT	
Lhb	ATCACCTTCACCACCAGCAT	GACCCCCACAGTCAGAGCTA	
Mouse <i>Fshb</i>	GACAGCTGACTGCACAGGAC	CAATCTTACGGTCTCGTATACC	
Mouse <i>Ctnnb1</i> (β-catenin)	CCCAGTCCTTCACGCAAGAG	CATCTAGCGTCTCAGGGAACA	
Cyclophilin	CAAAGTTCCAAAGACAGCAG	CTGGCACATGAATCCTGGAA	
<i>Nr5a1</i> (SF1)	TTACACGTGCACCGAGAGTC	TGCTTTCTTCTGCTGCTTCA	
Egr1	AGCAGCGCTTTCAATCCTCA	GTCTCCACCAGCGCCTTCTC	
Mouse <i>Sp1</i>	CTCCAGACCATTAACCTCAGTG	ACCAGATCCATGAAGACCAAG	
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